

Hyperglycemia and Its Association with Cardio Vascular Disease (Cvd) Post COVID-19 Era

Ashok Kumar^{1,*}, Mohammad Nadeem khan², Praveen Chandra Dubey²

¹Department of Pharmacology (Clinical Pharmacology), Sri Aurobindo Medical College & PG Institute, Sri Aurobindo University, Indore, Madhya Pradesh, India

²Chairman SEAC, Government of Madhya Pradesh Bhopal Madhya Pradesh, India

ABSTRACT

This commentary presents a comprehensive framework for understanding and addressing the complex interplay between hyperglycemia and cardiovascular disease (CVD) in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic. We delve into the emerging evidence highlighting the heightened cardiovascular risk posed by hyperglycemia in the post-COVID-19 era and explore the underlying mechanisms driving this association. Building upon this foundation, we propose practical strategies for healthcare providers to effectively manage hyperglycemia and mitigate its impact on cardiovascular health. By emphasizing the importance of early detection, personalized intervention, and multidisciplinary collaboration, we aim to equip clinicians with the tools necessary to navigate the evolving landscape of hyperglycemia-related CVD in the post-COVID-19 era.

Keywords: Cardiovascular Disease (CVD), Post-COVID-19 Era Association, Management Risk Mechanisms, Prevention Intervention, Healthcare Strategies.

INTRODUCTION

The COVID-19 pandemic has brought to light numerous challenges in healthcare, ranging from immediate clinical management to long-term health consequences. Among these challenges, the intricate relationship between hyperglycemia and cardiovascular disease (CVD) has garnered significant attention. Hyperglycemia, characterized by elevated blood glucose levels, has long been recognized as a risk factor for CVD [1]. However, the emergence of COVID-19 has added a new layer of complexity to this association. The renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) plays a crucial role in regulating blood pressure and fluid balance in the body. In the context of diabetes and the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic, understanding the physiopathology of cardiovascular diseases (CVD) is important. RAAS is a hormone system that regulates blood pressure and fluid balance. Renin is released by the kidneys in response to low blood pressure or low sodium levels, leading to the conversion of angiotensinogen to angiotensin I. ACE converts angiotensin I to angiotensin II, a potent vasoconstrictor [2]. Angiotensin II is involved in vasoconstriction, sodium retention, and the release

Vol No: 09, Issue: 05

Received Date: May 11, 2024

Published Date: June 08, 2024

*Corresponding Author

Ashok Kumar

Department of Pharmacology, Sri Aurobindo Medical College & PG Institute, Sri Aurobindo University, Indore, Madhya Pradesh, India-453555,

Email: ak3510@gmail.com

Citation: Kumar A, et al. (2024). Hyperglycemia and Its Association with Cardio Vascular Disease (Cvd) Post COVID-19 Era. Mathews J Case Rep. 9(5):167.

Copyright: Kumar A, et al. © (2024). This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

of aldosterone. Aldosterone, stimulated by angiotensin II, promotes sodium and water retention in the kidneys. Increased aldosterone levels can contribute to volume overload and elevated blood pressure. In diabetes, there is often dysregulation of the RAAS, with an overactivation of angiotensin II. Chronic hyperglycemia can contribute to endothelial dysfunction, oxidative stress, and inflammation. Elevated angiotensin II levels in diabetes contribute to endothelial dysfunction, impairing the normal function of blood vessels. Endothelial dysfunction is a key factor in the development of atherosclerosis, a common pathology in CVD. Atherosclerosis involves the buildup of plaques in arterial walls, leading to reduced blood flow. Diabetes increases the risk of atherosclerosis, and individuals with diabetes are at higher risk for CVD, including coronary artery disease and peripheral arterial disease. Activation of the RAAS can contribute to hypertension in individuals with diabetes. Hypertension is a major risk factor for CVD, including heart attacks and strokes. COVID-19 has been associated with cardiovascular complications, including inflammation, endothelial dysfunction, and thrombosis. Individuals with diabetes may face an increased risk of severe outcomes due to the combination of diabetes-related vascular complications and the impact of COVID-19 on the cardiovascular system. Medications that target the RAAS, such as ACE inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs), are commonly used to manage hypertension and cardiovascular risk in individuals with diabetes. Comprehensive management of diabetes, including glycemic control, blood pressure management, and lifestyle modifications, is essential to reduce the risk of CVD. Understanding the interplay between RAAS, diabetes, and COVID-19 is crucial for developing effective strategies to manage cardiovascular risk in individuals with diabetes, particularly in the post-COVID-19 era. Regular monitoring and collaboration with healthcare providers are important for optimizing cardiovascular health in this population.

This introduction sets the stage by outlining the significance of hyperglycemia as a risk factor for CVD and the impact of COVID-19 on exacerbating this risk. It highlights the need for a deeper understanding of the mechanisms underlying the hyperglycemia-CVD association in the post-COVID-19 era and emphasizes the importance of proactive management strategies to mitigate cardiovascular risk in individuals with hyperglycemia. Through this commentary, we aim to provide insights into effective approaches for healthcare providers to navigate the evolving landscape of hyperglycemia-related CVD in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic [3].

The inclusion of “hyperglycemia” in the title emphasizes the elevated blood glucose levels characteristic of diabetes mellitus, a metabolic disorder with significant implications for cardiovascular health. Hyperglycemia serves as a

primary risk factor for the development and progression of cardiovascular disease, making it a focal point of the discussion.

Emphasizing Cardiovascular Disease (CVD)

The mention of “Cardiovascular Disease (CVD)” underscores the broad spectrum of cardiovascular conditions encompassing coronary artery disease, stroke, heart failure, and peripheral vascular disease. By highlighting the association between hyperglycemia and CVD, the title underscores the interplay between metabolic abnormalities and cardiovascular complications.

Contextualizing in the Post-COVID-19 Era

The addition of “Post-COVID-19 Era” acknowledges the evolving healthcare landscape following the global COVID-19 pandemic. The title suggests recognition of potential implications of COVID-19 on hyperglycemia and cardiovascular health, such as the exacerbation of metabolic disturbances and increased cardiovascular risk associated with the virus. Implication of Timeliness and Relevance: By referencing the “Post-COVID-19 Era,” the title suggests a timeliness and relevance to current healthcare priorities and challenges. It implies a discussion informed by recent developments and experiences in the context of the ongoing pandemic, underscoring the importance of addressing hyperglycemia-CVD associations in the context of evolving healthcare needs. The relationship between hyperglycemia and cardiovascular disease, with consideration of the post-COVID-19 era context. It sets the stage for a comprehensive exploration of the impact of hyperglycemia on cardiovascular health, informed by recent experiences and insights gained in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic [4].

Hyperglycemia: A Risk Factor for Cardiovascular Disease

Hyperglycemia, characterized by elevated levels of blood glucose, stands as a well-established risk factor for cardiovascular disease (CVD). This section of the commentary delves into the intricate relationship between hyperglycemia and CVD, elucidating the mechanisms through which hyperglycemia contributes to cardiovascular risk.

Pathophysiological Mechanisms: Hyperglycemia exerts deleterious effects on multiple pathways implicated in the development and progression of CVD. These include oxidative stress, inflammation, endothelial dysfunction, and dyslipidemia, all of which contribute to the initiation and progression of atherosclerosis, the underlying pathology of most CVD [5].

Endothelial Dysfunction: Elevated glucose levels impair endothelial function, leading to reduced nitric oxide bioavailability, increased vascular permeability, and

enhanced expression of adhesion molecules. These alterations promote a pro-inflammatory and pro-thrombotic vascular milieu, fostering the development of atherosclerosis and predisposing individuals to CVD events.

Oxidative Stress: Hyperglycemia-induced oxidative stress plays a pivotal role in vascular damage and atherosclerosis. Excessive production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) overwhelms endogenous antioxidant defenses, leading to endothelial dysfunction, lipid peroxidation, and vascular inflammation, all of which contribute to CVD pathogenesis.

Inflammation: Chronic low-grade inflammation is a hallmark of both hyperglycemia and CVD. Elevated glucose levels activate inflammatory signaling pathways and cytokine production, perpetuating a state of systemic inflammation that promotes atherosclerosis and plaque instability, ultimately increasing the risk of cardiovascular events.

Dyslipidemia: Hyperglycemia disrupts lipid metabolism, resulting in dyslipidemia characterized by elevated triglycerides, decreased high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, and altered lipoprotein particle size and composition. These lipid abnormalities contribute to the development of atherosclerosis and predispose individuals to CVD.

Hyperglycemia as a Central Player: Beyond these specific mechanisms, hyperglycemia acts as a central player in the pathogenesis of CVD by exacerbating other traditional risk factors such as hypertension, obesity, and insulin resistance, thereby amplifying cardiovascular risk [6].

Impact of COVID-19 on Hyperglycemia and Cardiovascular Health

The COVID-19 pandemic has brought about profound disruptions to healthcare systems worldwide, with significant implications for both hyperglycemia management and cardiovascular health. This section of the commentary explores the multifaceted impact of COVID-19 on hyperglycemia and cardiovascular health, shedding light on the interplay between the viral infection and these interconnected conditions.

Exacerbation of Hyperglycemia: COVID-19 infection poses a unique challenge for individuals with pre-existing hyperglycemia or diabetes. Studies have revealed that COVID-19 can exacerbate hyperglycemia through various mechanisms, including increased insulin resistance, β -cell dysfunction, systemic inflammation, and stress-induced hyperglycemia. The resultant hyperglycemia not only complicates the management of COVID-19 but also heightens the risk of adverse outcomes, including cardiovascular complications [7].

Direct Cardiovascular Effects of COVID-19: Beyond its impact on hyperglycemia, COVID-19 directly affects cardiovascular health. The virus can lead to myocardial injury, myocarditis, arrhythmias, thromboembolic events, and exacerbation of underlying CVD. Individuals with hyperglycemia are particularly vulnerable to these cardiovascular complications, given their heightened cardiovascular risk profile.

Indirect Effects on Cardiovascular Health: The indirect effects of COVID-19, such as disruptions to healthcare delivery, delayed access to medical care, changes in lifestyle behaviors, and psychological stress, can further exacerbate cardiovascular risk factors and compromise cardiovascular health. Individuals with hyperglycemia may face additional challenges in managing their condition effectively amidst the upheaval caused by the pandemic.

Implications for Long-Term Cardiovascular Risk: The long-term consequences of COVID-19 on cardiovascular health remain a topic of active investigation. Emerging evidence suggests that individuals recovering from severe COVID-19 may experience persistent cardiovascular sequelae, including endothelial dysfunction, myocardial fibrosis, and accelerated atherosclerosis, which could predispose them to future CVD events.

Need for Integrated Care: Given the intertwined nature of hyperglycemia, COVID-19, and cardiovascular health, a holistic and integrated approach to care is imperative. Healthcare providers must prioritize comprehensive management strategies that address both hyperglycemia and cardiovascular risk factors, ensuring optimal outcomes for individuals affected by COVID-19 [8].

Mechanisms Underlying the Hyperglycemia-CVD Association

Understanding the mechanisms underlying the association between hyperglycemia and cardiovascular disease (CVD) is essential for elucidating the pathophysiology of CVD in individuals with elevated blood glucose levels. This section of the commentary explores the intricate mechanisms through which hyperglycemia contributes to the development and progression of CVD [9].

Oxidative Stress and Endothelial Dysfunction: Hyperglycemia induces oxidative stress by promoting the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and impairing antioxidant defense mechanisms. This oxidative stress leads to endothelial dysfunction, characterized by reduced nitric oxide bioavailability, increased expression of adhesion molecules, and enhanced vascular permeability. Endothelial dysfunction plays a central role in the initiation and progression of atherosclerosis, the underlying pathology of

most CVD.

Inflammation: Chronic low-grade inflammation is a hallmark of both hyperglycemia and CVD. Elevated glucose levels activate inflammatory signaling pathways and stimulate the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines. This systemic inflammation contributes to the development of atherosclerosis by promoting endothelial activation, leukocyte recruitment, foam cell formation, and plaque destabilization [10].

Advanced Glycation End Products (AGEs): Hyperglycemia promotes the non-enzymatic glycation of proteins, lipids, and nucleic acids, leading to the formation of advanced glycation end products (AGEs). AGEs interact with specific receptors, such as the receptor for AGEs (RAGE), triggering oxidative stress, inflammation, and endothelial dysfunction. Accumulation of AGEs in vascular tissues contributes to arterial stiffness, impaired vasodilation, and accelerated atherosclerosis.

Dyslipidemia and Lipotoxicity: Hyperglycemia disrupts lipid metabolism, leading to dyslipidemia characterized by elevated triglycerides, reduced high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, and altered lipoprotein particle size and composition. These lipid abnormalities promote the

accumulation of lipid-laden foam cells within arterial walls, fostering the development of atherosclerotic plaques. Additionally, excess circulating lipids can induce lipotoxicity in cardiomyocytes and vascular cells, further exacerbating cardiovascular risk.

Insulin Resistance and Hyperinsulinemia: Hyperglycemia is often accompanied by insulin resistance and compensatory hyperinsulinemia. Insulin resistance impairs insulin signaling pathways in target tissues, including the vasculature, promoting endothelial dysfunction, inflammation, and dyslipidemia. Hyperinsulinemia exerts direct pro-atherogenic effects by stimulating vascular smooth muscle cell proliferation and increasing the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines [11].

Strategies for Early Detection of Hyperglycemia and Cardiovascular Risk

Early detection of hyperglycemia and cardiovascular risk is crucial for timely intervention and effective management to prevent or delay the onset of cardiovascular disease (CVD). Table-1 outlines strategies for identifying individuals at risk of hyperglycemia and CVD, enabling proactive measures to mitigate cardiovascular risk.

Table 1. Outlines strategies for identifying individuals at risk of hyperglycemia and CVD, enabling proactive measures to mitigate cardiovascular risk

Protective measure	Description
Routine Screening Programs	Implementing routine screening programs for hyperglycemia and cardiovascular risk factors in primary care settings can facilitate early detection. Screening tools such as fasting blood glucose tests, oral glucose tolerance tests, and glycosylated hemoglobin (HbA1c) measurements can identify individuals with prediabetes or undiagnosed diabetes. Additionally, comprehensive cardiovascular risk assessment tools, including lipid profiles, blood pressure measurements, and assessment of lifestyle factors, can help identify individuals at risk of CVD.
Point-of-Care Testing	Point-of-care testing devices for blood glucose monitoring and lipid profiling offer convenient and rapid means of screening individuals for hyperglycemia and dyslipidemia in various healthcare settings, including primary care clinics, pharmacies, and community outreach programs. These devices enable timely identification of individuals with abnormal glucose and lipid levels, facilitating early intervention and referral to appropriate healthcare providers for further evaluation and management.
Integration of Electronic Health Records (EHRs)	Leveraging electronic health records (EHRs) to systematically capture and analyze patient data can enhance the identification of individuals at risk of hyperglycemia and CVD. Utilizing clinical decision support tools embedded within EHR systems can prompt healthcare providers to conduct routine screening tests and assess cardiovascular risk factors during patient encounters, ensuring comprehensive and proactive care delivery.
Risk Assessment Algorithms	Implementing validated risk assessment algorithms, such as the Framingham Risk Score or the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association (ACC/AHA) cardiovascular risk calculator, can aid in stratifying individuals based on their risk of developing CVD over a specified time period. These algorithms consider multiple risk factors, including age, sex, smoking status, blood pressure, lipid levels, and glycemic status, to estimate an individual's absolute risk of experiencing a cardiovascular event, guiding targeted preventive interventions.
Population Health Initiatives	Engaging in population health initiatives aimed at promoting healthy lifestyle behaviors and raising awareness about the importance of cardiovascular health and diabetes prevention can help identify individuals at risk of hyperglycemia and CVD at the community level. These initiatives may include public health campaigns, community outreach events, and workplace wellness programs focused on promoting physical activity, healthy eating habits, smoking cessation, and stress management.

By implementing these strategies for early detection of hyperglycemia and cardiovascular risk, healthcare providers and public health stakeholders can identify individuals at risk of CVD and implement targeted interventions to prevent or mitigate the progression of cardiovascular disease. Early identification and intervention are essential for optimizing patient outcomes and reducing the burden of CVD on individuals and healthcare systems [12].

Management Approaches for Hyperglycemia in the Post-COVID-19 Era

In the post-COVID-19 era, effective management of hyperglycemia is paramount to mitigate cardiovascular risk and optimize patient outcomes. This section outlines comprehensive management approaches for hyperglycemia in the context of the evolving healthcare landscape post-pandemic:

Individualized Treatment Plans: Tailoring treatment plans to the individual patient's needs is essential in managing hyperglycemia effectively. Healthcare providers should consider factors such as age, comorbidities, disease duration, lifestyle factors, and patient preferences when devising personalized treatment strategies.

Lifestyle Modifications: Emphasizing lifestyle modifications as the cornerstone of hyperglycemia management is crucial. Encouraging patients to adopt healthy eating habits, engage in regular physical activity, maintain a healthy weight, and refrain from tobacco use can significantly improve glycemic control and reduce cardiovascular risk.

Pharmacological Interventions: Pharmacotherapy plays a pivotal role in managing hyperglycemia, especially in individuals with inadequately controlled blood glucose levels despite lifestyle modifications. Healthcare providers should prescribe antidiabetic medications based on their efficacy, safety profile, patient preferences, and individualized treatment goals. Options include metformin, sulfonylureas, insulin, GLP-1 receptor agonists, DPP-4 inhibitors, SGLT2 inhibitors, and others, with consideration of potential drug interactions and adverse effects [13].

Telemedicine and Remote Monitoring: Leveraging telemedicine and remote monitoring technologies can enhance access to care and support ongoing management of hyperglycemia in the post-COVID-19 era. Virtual consultations, remote glucose monitoring devices, and digital

health platforms enable healthcare providers to monitor patients' glycemic status, adjust treatment regimens, provide education and support, and address any concerns promptly.

Multidisciplinary Care Teams: Engaging multidisciplinary care teams comprising endocrinologists, primary care physicians, nurse practitioners, dietitians, pharmacists, and other allied healthcare professionals fosters collaborative and coordinated care for individuals with hyperglycemia. By leveraging the expertise of diverse team members, healthcare providers can optimize patient outcomes through comprehensive management approaches [14].

Patient Education and Empowerment: Empowering patients with knowledge and skills to self-manage their hyperglycemia is essential for long-term success. Providing education on diabetes self-care, medication adherence, blood glucose monitoring, recognizing and managing hypo- and hyperglycemic episodes, and lifestyle modifications empowers patients to take an active role in managing their condition and reducing cardiovascular risk.

Continuous Monitoring and Follow-Up: Regular monitoring of glycemic parameters, including blood glucose levels, HbA1c, and lipid profiles, is crucial for assessing treatment efficacy and guiding therapeutic adjustments. Scheduled follow-up visits allow healthcare providers to review patients' progress, address any barriers to treatment adherence, and reinforce lifestyle modifications, ensuring continuity of care and sustained glycemic control [15].

By implementing these management approaches, healthcare providers can effectively address hyperglycemia in the post-COVID-19 era, mitigate cardiovascular risk, and improve overall patient outcomes. Emphasizing individualized care, lifestyle modifications, pharmacological interventions, telemedicine, multidisciplinary collaboration, patient education, and continuous monitoring is essential for optimizing hyperglycemia management in this evolving healthcare landscape [16].

Lifestyle Modifications

Lifestyle modifications play a pivotal role in the management of hyperglycemia and reducing cardiovascular risk, especially in the post-COVID-19 era. This section table-2 highlights key lifestyle interventions that individuals with hyperglycemia can adopt to improve glycemic control and cardiovascular health [17].

Table 2. Lifestyle interventions that individuals with hyperglycemia can adopt to improve glycemic control and cardiovascular health

Lifestyle interventions	Description
Healthy Eating Habits	Encourage individuals to follow a balanced diet rich in fruits, vegetables, whole grains, lean proteins, and healthy fats. Emphasize portion control, carbohydrate counting, and mindful eating to regulate blood glucose levels. Limit consumption of sugary beverages, refined carbohydrates, saturated fats, and processed foods, which can contribute to hyperglycemia and cardiovascular risk.
Regular Physical Activity	Advocate for regular physical activity as an integral part of diabetes management and cardiovascular health. Encourage individuals to engage in at least 150 minutes of moderate-intensity aerobic exercise or 75 minutes of vigorous-intensity exercise per week, spread across at least three days. Activities such as brisk walking, cycling, swimming, and strength training can improve insulin sensitivity, lower blood glucose levels, and reduce cardiovascular risk factors.
Weight Management	Support individuals in achieving and maintaining a healthy weight through a combination of dietary modifications and regular physical activity. Even modest weight loss (5-10% of initial body weight) can lead to significant improvements in glycemic control, blood pressure, and lipid profiles. Set realistic weight loss goals and provide ongoing support and encouragement to help individuals achieve sustainable results.
Smoking Cessation	Advocate for smoking cessation in individuals who smoke, as smoking is a major risk factor for both hyperglycemia and cardiovascular disease. Offer counseling, pharmacotherapy, and behavioral support to help individuals quit smoking successfully. Highlight the immediate and long-term benefits of quitting, including improved glycemic control, reduced cardiovascular risk, and enhanced overall health and well-being.
Stress Management	Educate individuals about the impact of stress on blood glucose levels and cardiovascular health. Encourage the adoption of stress-reducing techniques such as mindfulness meditation, deep breathing exercises, yoga, tai chi, and progressive muscle relaxation. Promote healthy coping mechanisms and encourage individuals to seek social support from family, friends, or support groups to better manage stress.
Quality Sleep	Stress the importance of adequate sleep duration and quality in glycemic control and cardiovascular health. Encourage individuals to establish a regular sleep schedule, create a conducive sleep environment, and practice good sleep hygiene habits. Address underlying sleep disorders such as obstructive sleep apnea, which can adversely affect glycemic control and cardiovascular risk.
Regular Monitoring and Follow-Up	Emphasize the importance of regular monitoring of blood glucose levels, blood pressure, lipid profiles, and other relevant parameters to assess the effectiveness of lifestyle modifications and guide treatment decisions. Schedule regular follow-up visits to review progress, provide ongoing support, and make necessary adjustments to the treatment plan.

By incorporating these lifestyle modifications into their daily routine, individuals with hyperglycemia can effectively manage their condition, reduce cardiovascular risk, and improve overall health and well-being in the post-COVID-19 era. Encouraging and supporting these lifestyle changes is essential for empowering individuals to take control of their health and optimize long-term outcomes [18].

Pharmacological Interventions

Pharmacological interventions are integral components of hyperglycemia management, particularly when lifestyle modifications alone are insufficient to achieve glycemic targets. In the post-COVID-19 era, selecting appropriate pharmacotherapy requires consideration of individual patient characteristics, comorbidities, medication adherence, and potential drug interactions. This section outlines key pharmacological interventions for hyperglycemia management:

Metformin: Metformin is considered first-line therapy for the treatment of type 2 diabetes due to its efficacy, safety profile,

and cardiovascular benefits. It improves insulin sensitivity, reduces hepatic glucose production, and modestly lowers blood glucose levels without causing hypoglycemia or weight gain. Metformin is often prescribed as initial monotherapy or in combination with other antidiabetic agents [19].

Sulfonylureas: Sulfonylureas stimulate insulin secretion from pancreatic beta cells and are commonly used as adjunctive therapy in individuals with type 2 diabetes who fail to achieve glycemic control with metformin alone. Examples include glibenclamide, gliclazide, and glimepiride. Sulfonylureas can cause hypoglycemia and weight gain, limiting their use in certain patient populations.

Insulin Therapy: Insulin therapy is indicated for individuals with type 1 diabetes and often required for those with type 2 diabetes who have advanced disease or inadequate glycemic control despite oral agents. Various insulin formulations are available, including rapid-acting, short-acting, intermediate-acting, and long-acting insulin analogs. Insulin therapy can be administered via multiple daily injections or continuous subcutaneous infusion (insulin pump).

GLP-1 Receptor Agonists: GLP-1 receptor agonists mimic the effects of endogenous glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1), enhancing insulin secretion, suppressing glucagon secretion, slowing gastric emptying, and promoting satiety. These agents, such as exenatide, liraglutide, and dulaglutide, are injectable medications used as adjunctive therapy in type 2 diabetes management. GLP-1 receptor agonists are associated with weight loss, cardiovascular benefits, and reduced risk of hypoglycemia [20].

DPP-4 Inhibitors: Dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP-4) inhibitors enhance endogenous GLP-1 levels by inhibiting their degradation, thereby improving glycemic control. Examples include sitagliptin, saxagliptin, and linagliptin. DPP-4 inhibitors are oral agents commonly used as monotherapy or in combination with other antidiabetic medications. They are generally well-tolerated and have a low risk of hypoglycemia.

SGLT2 Inhibitors: Sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 (SGLT2) inhibitors block glucose reabsorption in the proximal renal tubules, leading to increased urinary glucose excretion and lower blood glucose levels. Empagliflozin, canagliflozin, and dapagliflozin are examples of SGLT2 inhibitors used in type 2 diabetes management. These agents offer cardiovascular and renal benefits, including reductions in heart failure hospitalization and progression of chronic kidney disease [21].

Combination Therapy: Combination therapy with two or more antidiabetic agents with complementary mechanisms of action is often required to achieve glycemic targets and address multiple pathophysiological defects in hyperglycemia. Fixed-dose combinations of oral agents or injectable medications are available to simplify treatment regimens and improve medication adherence [22].

Individualizing pharmacological therapy based on patient-specific factors, monitoring treatment response, and adjusting therapy as needed are essential principles of hyperglycemia management in the post-COVID-19 era. Healthcare providers should strive to optimize glycemic control while minimizing the risk of hypoglycemia, weight gain, and adverse cardiovascular outcomes, ultimately improving patient outcomes and quality of life [23].

Monitoring and Follow-up

Monitoring and follow-up are integral components of hyperglycemia management, ensuring that treatment goals are achieved, and adjustments are made as needed to optimize patient outcomes. In the post-COVID-19 era, a proactive approach to monitoring and follow-up is essential to mitigate cardiovascular risk and address the evolving healthcare landscape. The table-2 outlines key principles of monitoring and follow-up in hyperglycemia management [24].

Table 3. outlines key principles of monitoring and follow-up in hyperglycemia management

Follow-up	Explanation
Regular Blood Glucose Monitoring	Encourage individuals with hyperglycemia to monitor their blood glucose levels regularly using self-monitoring devices or continuous glucose monitoring systems. Establish target blood glucose ranges for fasting, pre-meal, and postprandial readings, and educate patients on interpreting and responding to glucose values accordingly
Glycated Hemoglobin (HbA1c) Testing	Schedule periodic HbA1c testing every three to six months to assess long-term glycemic control and treatment efficacy. Aim for HbA1c levels within individualized target ranges based on patient characteristics, comorbidities, and treatment goals. Review trends in HbA1c values over time to guide treatment decisions and adjustments
Lipid Profiles	Monitor lipid profiles, including total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, and triglycerides, annually or as clinically indicated. Set targets for lipid levels based on cardiovascular risk factors and individualized treatment goals. Initiate or adjust lipid-lowering therapy as needed to optimize lipid profiles and reduce cardiovascular risk.
Blood Pressure Monitoring	Regularly monitor blood pressure at every healthcare visit and aim for blood pressure targets recommended by current guidelines (<130/80 mmHg for most individuals with diabetes). Implement lifestyle modifications and pharmacotherapy as appropriate to achieve and maintain blood pressure control and reduce cardiovascular risk.
Renal Assessment	Assess renal function periodically using estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) and urinary albumin-to-creatinine ratio (UACR) measurements. Monitor renal function annually or more frequently in individuals at higher risk of kidney disease, such as those with diabetes and hypertension. Initiate renoprotective strategies, including blood pressure control, renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) blockade, and glycemic optimization, to preserve kidney function and reduce the risk of diabetic nephropathy.
Comprehensive Cardiovascular Risk Assessment	Conduct comprehensive cardiovascular risk assessments regularly to evaluate overall cardiovascular risk and guide preventive interventions. Consider factors such as age, sex, smoking status, family history of CVD, lipid levels, blood pressure, glycemic control, and presence of other comorbidities. Utilize validated risk assessment tools, such as the Framingham Risk Score or the ACC/AHA cardiovascular risk calculator, to estimate an individual's absolute cardiovascular risk and inform treatment decisions.
Scheduled Follow-up Visits	Schedule regular follow-up visits with healthcare providers to review treatment goals, assess treatment adherence, monitor glycemic parameters and cardiovascular risk factors, and make necessary adjustments to the treatment plan. Provide ongoing education, support, and encouragement to empower patients in self-management and lifestyle modification efforts.

By implementing a structured approach to monitoring and follow-up, healthcare providers can effectively track treatment progress, identify areas for intervention, and optimize hyperglycemia management and cardiovascular risk reduction in the post-COVID-19 era. Engaging patients in their care, fostering open communication, and promoting shared decision-making are essential for achieving optimal outcomes and improving long-term prognosis [25].

Multidisciplinary Collaboration in Hyperglycemia-CVD Management

Multidisciplinary collaboration is essential for the comprehensive management of hyperglycemia and cardiovascular disease (CVD) in the post-COVID-19 era. Bringing together healthcare professionals from various specialties facilitates holistic care delivery, addresses complex patient needs, and optimizes treatment outcomes. Table-4 section highlights the importance of multidisciplinary collaboration in hyperglycemia-CVD management [26].

Table 4. Highlights the importance of multidisciplinary collaboration in hyperglycemia-CVD management

Hyperglycemic management	Description
Endocrinologists	Endocrinologists specialize in the diagnosis and management of endocrine disorders, including diabetes mellitus. They play a key role in guiding pharmacological therapy, insulin management, and addressing complex cases of hyperglycemia. Endocrinologists collaborate with other healthcare providers to develop individualized treatment plans tailored to patient needs and preferences.
Primary Care Physicians	Primary care physicians serve as the first point of contact for patients with hyperglycemia and play a central role in coordinating care, performing routine screenings, and managing comorbidities. They oversee long-term management, monitor treatment adherence, and provide ongoing support and education to patients. Collaborating with endocrinologists and other specialists ensures comprehensive and coordinated care delivery.
Cardiologists	Cardiologists specialize in the diagnosis and treatment of cardiovascular diseases, including coronary artery disease, heart failure, and arrhythmias. They assess cardiovascular risk factors, such as hyperglycemia, hypertension, dyslipidemia, and obesity, and collaborate with other healthcare providers to develop strategies for CVD prevention and management. Cardiologists may recommend lifestyle modifications, prescribe cardiovascular medications, and perform diagnostic tests and procedures to evaluate cardiac function and structure.
Nurse Practitioners and Physician Assistants	Nurse practitioners (NPs) and physician assistants (PAs) play crucial roles in the delivery of primary and specialty care services. They conduct patient assessments, order diagnostic tests, prescribe medications, and provide patient education and counseling. NPs and PAs work collaboratively with physicians, endocrinologists, and other members of the healthcare team to optimize patient outcomes and ensure continuity of care.
Registered Dietitians	Registered dietitians (RDs) specialize in nutrition therapy and play a vital role in educating patients with hyperglycemia about dietary management. They provide personalized nutrition counseling, develop meal plans, and teach carbohydrate counting and portion control techniques. RDs collaborate with healthcare providers to integrate nutrition therapy into overall treatment plans and support patients in making sustainable lifestyle changes.
Pharmacists	Pharmacists are medication experts who play a critical role in optimizing medication therapy and promoting medication adherence. They review medication regimens, identify potential drug interactions and adverse effects, and provide medication counseling to patients. Pharmacists collaborate with prescribers and other healthcare providers to ensure safe and effective pharmacological management of hyperglycemia and cardiovascular risk factors.
Behavioral Health Specialists	Behavioral health specialists, including psychologists, social workers, and mental health counselors, address psychosocial factors that impact disease management and outcomes. They provide counseling, support, and coping strategies to patients with hyperglycemia and CVD, addressing issues such as depression, anxiety, stress, and adherence to treatment recommendations. Collaborating with behavioral health specialists enhances the holistic approach to patient care and promotes overall well-being.

By fostering multidisciplinary collaboration, healthcare providers can leverage the expertise of diverse team members to deliver comprehensive, patient-centered care for individuals with hyperglycemia and cardiovascular disease. Effective communication, shared decision-making, and coordinated care planning are essential for optimizing treatment outcomes and improving patient quality of life in the post-COVID-19 era [27]

Future Directions and Research Opportunities

Future directions in hyperglycemia-CVD management

present exciting opportunities for advancing our understanding of disease pathophysiology, optimizing treatment strategies, and improving patient outcomes. This section explores potential research avenues and emerging trends in the field:

Precision Medicine Approaches: Investigate the role of genetic factors, epigenetic modifications, and personalized biomarkers in predicting individual response to hyperglycemia and CVD therapies. Utilize genomic and proteomic profiling to identify novel therapeutic targets and develop targeted interventions tailored to patients' genetic

makeup and molecular signatures.

Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning: Harness the power of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) algorithms to analyze large datasets, including electronic health records, genomic data, and imaging studies. Develop predictive models for risk stratification, treatment response prediction, and early detection of hyperglycemia and CVD complications, enabling proactive interventions and precision medicine approaches.

Novel Therapeutic Targets: Explore innovative pharmacological agents and therapeutic modalities targeting novel pathways implicated in hyperglycemia and CVD pathogenesis. Investigate the therapeutic potential of emerging agents, such as incretin-based therapies, sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 (SGLT2) inhibitors, glucagon receptor antagonists, and mitochondrial modulators, in improving glycemic control, reducing cardiovascular risk, and mitigating disease progression.

Combination Therapies: Evaluate the efficacy and safety of combination therapy regimens comprising multiple antidiabetic agents, lipid-lowering drugs, blood pressure medications, and novel cardioprotective agents. Investigate synergistic effects, optimal drug combinations, and treatment sequencing strategies to achieve comprehensive glycemic and cardiovascular risk reduction in individuals with hyperglycemia and CVD.

Non-pharmacological Interventions: Explore the role of non-pharmacological interventions, such as bariatric surgery, metabolic interventions, and regenerative medicine approaches, in the management of hyperglycemia and CVD. Investigate mechanisms of action, long-term outcomes, and patient selection criteria for these interventions, providing insights into their potential role as adjunctive therapies in comprehensive disease management.

Digital Health Technologies: Leverage digital health technologies, including mobile applications, wearable devices, remote monitoring systems, and telemedicine platforms, to enhance patient engagement, self-management, and adherence to treatment regimens. Conduct clinical trials and implementation studies to evaluate the effectiveness of digital health interventions in improving glycemic control, cardiovascular outcomes, and quality of life.

Health Equity and Health Disparities: Address health disparities and inequities in hyperglycemia-CVD management by investigating the impact of socioeconomic factors, race, ethnicity, and access to care on disease prevalence, progression, and outcomes. Develop targeted

interventions and community-based programs to reduce disparities, improve access to healthcare services, and promote health equity among underserved populations.

By prioritizing research in these areas, healthcare providers, researchers, and policymakers can advance our understanding of hyperglycemia-CVD interactions, identify innovative therapeutic approaches, and ultimately improve outcomes for individuals affected by these conditions. Collaborative efforts across disciplines, robust translational research, and patient-centered approaches are key to realizing the full potential of future directions in hyperglycemia-CVD management [28].

CONCLUSION

Hyperglycemia poses a significant risk factor for the development and progression of CVD, underscoring the importance of early detection, comprehensive risk assessment, and targeted interventions to mitigate cardiovascular risk. Lifestyle modifications, including healthy eating habits, regular physical activity, smoking cessation, stress management, and quality sleep, are fundamental pillars of hyperglycemia-CVD management, promoting glycemic control and cardiovascular health. Multidisciplinary collaboration among healthcare providers, including endocrinologists, primary care physicians, cardiologists, nurse practitioners, dietitians, pharmacists, and behavioral health specialists, is essential for delivering patient-centered care, addressing complex patient needs, and optimizing treatment outcomes. By leveraging digital health technologies, implementing precision medicine approaches, and addressing health disparities, we can advance the field of hyperglycemia-CVD management and improve health outcomes for individuals affected by these conditions. In the face of evolving healthcare challenges, ongoing research, innovation, and collaboration are crucial for addressing the complex interplay between hyperglycemia and CVD, reducing the burden of disease, and enhancing the quality of life for patients in the post-COVID-19 era. With a concerted effort from healthcare providers, researchers, policymakers, and patients alike, we can strive towards a future where hyperglycemia and its cardiovascular complications are effectively managed, leading to improved health outcomes and well-being for all.

REFERENCES

1. Chang D, Lin M, Wei L, Xie L, Zhu G, Dela Cruz CS, et al. (2020). Epidemiologic and Clinical Characteristics of Novel Coronavirus Infections Involving 13 Patients Outside Wuhan, China. *JAMA*. 323(11):1092-1093.

2. Jang D-S, Yun H-S, Lee S-H. (2021). Epidemiological and clinical characteristics of hospitalized patients with community acquired coronavirus disease 2019 infection according to severity classification. *Korean J Family Practice*. 11(5):365-371.
3. Wu Z, McGoogan JM. (2020). Characteristics of and Important Lessons From the Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) Outbreak in China: Summary of a Report of 72 314 Cases From the Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention. *JAMA*. 323(13):1239-1242.
4. Nannoni S, de Groot R, Bell S, Markus HS. (2021). Stroke in COVID-19: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Stroke*. 16(2):137-149.
5. Raisi-Estabragh Z, Cooper J, Salih A, Raman B, Lee AM, Neubauer S, et al. (2022). Cardiovascular disease and mortality sequelae of COVID-19 in the UK Biobank. *Heart*. 109(2):119-126.
6. Rao A, Ranka S, Ayers C, Hendren N, Rosenblatt A, Alger HM, et al. (2021). Association of kidney disease with outcomes in COVID-19: results from the american heart association COVID-19 cardiovascular disease registry. *J Am Heart Assoc*. 10(12):e020910.
7. Siepmann T, Sedghi A, Simon E, Winzer S, Barlinn J, de With K, et al. (2021). Increased risk of acute stroke among patients with severe COVID-19: a multicenter study and meta-analysis. *Eur J Neurol*. 28(1):238-247.
8. Xie Y, Xu E, Bowe B, Al-Aly Z. (2022). Long-term cardiovascular outcomes of COVID-19. *Nat Med*. 28(3):583-590.
9. Ou M, Zhu J, Ji P, Li H, Zhong Z, Li B, Pang J, Zhang J, Zheng X. (2020). Risk factors of severe cases with COVID-19: a meta-analysis. *Epidemiol Infect*. 148:e175.
10. Zhang L, Hou J, Ma FZ, Li J, Xue S, Xu ZG. (2021). The common risk factors for progression and mortality in COVID-19 patients: a meta-analysis. *Arch Virol*. 166(8):2071-2087.
11. Barron E, Bakhai C, Kar P, Weaver A, Bradley D, Ismail H, et al. (2020). Associations of type 1 and type 2 diabetes with COVID-19-related mortality in England: a whole-population study. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol*. 8(10):813-822.
12. de Almeida-Pititto B, Dualib PM, Zajdenverg L, Dantas JR, de Souza FD, Rodacki M, et al. (2020). Severity and mortality of COVID 19 in patients with diabetes, hypertension and cardiovascular disease: a meta-analysis. *Diabetol Metab Syndr*. 12:75.
13. Grasselli G, Greco M, Zanella A, Albano G, Antonelli M, Bellani G, et al. (2020). Risk Factors Associated With Mortality Among Patients With COVID-19 in Intensive Care Units in Lombardy, Italy. *JAMA Intern Med*. 180(10):1345-1355.
14. Wu J, Zhang J, Sun X, Wang L, Xu Y, Zhang Y, Liu X, Dong C. (2020). Influence of diabetes mellitus on the severity and fatality of SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) infection. *Diabetes Obes Metab*. 22(10):1907-1914.
15. Yan Y, Yang Y, Wang F, Ren H, Zhang S, Shi X, Yu X, Dong K. (2020). Clinical characteristics and outcomes of patients with severe covid-19 with diabetes. *BMJ Open Diabetes Res Care*. 8(1):e001343.
16. Erener S. (2020). Diabetes, infection risk and COVID-19. *Mol Metab*. 39:101044.
17. Naveed Z, Velásquez García HA, Wong S, Wilton J, McKee G, Mahmood B, et al. (2023). Association of COVID-19 Infection With Incident Diabetes. *JAMA Netw Open*. 6(4):e238866.
18. Wang Y, Yi B, Wang S, Chen X, Wen Z. (2022). Effect of hyperglycemia on the immune function of COVID-19 patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: a retrospective study. *PeerJ*. 10:e14570.
19. Kovacic JC, Castellano JM, Farkouh ME, Fuster V. (2014). The relationships between cardiovascular disease and diabetes: focus on pathogenesis. *Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am*. 43(1):41-57.
20. Leon BM, Maddox TM. (2015). Diabetes and cardiovascular disease: Epidemiology, biological mechanisms, treatment recommendations and future research. *World J Diabetes*. 6(13):1246-1258.
21. Kristófi R, Bodegard J, Ritsinger V, Thuresson M, Nathanson D, Nyström T, et al. (2022). Patients with type 1 and type 2 diabetes hospitalized with COVID-19 in comparison with influenza: mortality and cardiorenal complications assessed by nationwide Swedish registry data. *Cardiovasc Diabetol*. 21(1):282.
22. Abe T, Egbuche O, Igwe J, Jegede O, Wagle B, Olanipekun T, Onwuanyi A. (2021). Cardiovascular complications in COVID-19 patients with or without diabetes mellitus. *Endocrinol Diabetes Metab*. 4(2):e00218.
23. Kim JA, Yoon S, Kim LY, Kim DS. (2017). Towards Actualizing the Value Potential of Korea Health Insurance Review and Assessment (HIRA) Data as a Resource for Health Research: Strengths, Limitations, Applications, and Strategies for Optimal Use of HIRA Data. *J Korean Med Sci*. 32(5):718-728.

24. Henein MY, Vancheri S, Longo G, Vancheri F. (2022). The Role of Inflammation in Cardiovascular Disease. *Int J Mol Sci.* 23(21):12906.
25. Khalaji A, Amirkhani N, Sharifkashani S, Peiman S, Behnoush AH. (2024). Systematic Review of Endocan as a Potential Biomarker of COVID-19. *Angiology.* 75(2):107-115.
26. Liu Y, Pan Y, Yin Y, Chen W, Li X. (2021). Association of dyslipidemia with the severity and mortality of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19): a meta-analysis. *Virology.* 18(1):157.
27. Kim B, Myung R, Kim GH, Lee MJ, Kim J, Pai H. (2020). Diabetes mellitus increases mortality in acute pyelonephritis patients: a population study based on the National Health Insurance Claim Data of South Korea for 2010-2014. *Infection.* 48(3):435-443.
28. Kim YG, Jeon JY, Han SJ, Kim DJ, Lee KW, Kim HJ. (2018). Sodium-glucose co-transporter-2 inhibitors and the risk of ketoacidosis in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: A nationwide population-based cohort study. *Diabetes Obes Metab.* 20(8):1852-1858.