



AMERICAN JOURNAL OF PHARMTECH RESEARCH

Journal home page: <http://www.ajptr.com/>

Current Approaches for the Treatment of Hyperglycaemia

Rajesh Sharma¹, Ganesh Prasad Mishra*¹

1. School of Pharmacy, Devi Ahilya Vishwavidyalaya, Takshshila Campus, Khandwa Road,
Indore, M. P., India-452 001

ABSTRACT

Hyperglycemia can be a serious problem if untreated in time. Chronic hyperglycemia that persists even in fasting states is most commonly caused by diabetes mellitus, and in fact chronic hyperglycemia is the defining characteristic of the disease. Diabetes mellitus is the only non-infectious disease designated as an epidemic by the world health organization. This could have long lasting adverse effects on nation's health and economic, especially for developing countries. the international diabetes federation(IDF) estimates the total number of people in India with diabetes to be around 50.8 million in 2010, rising to 87.0 million by 2030. The primary goal in the management of diabetes mellitus is the maintenance of blood glucose level. Therefore, there is an urgent need to develop novel therapeutic agents without the development and progression of complications or compromising on safety. The present review provides an approach for the safe and effective treatment of diabetes mellitus.

Keyword: Hyperglycemia, Hypoglycemic agents, PPARs

*Corresponding Author Email: gmr dmishra@rediffmail.com

Received 26 July 2012, Accepted 06 August 2012

Please cite this article in press as: Mishra GP *et al.*, Current approaches for the treatment of Hyperglycaemia. American Journal of PharmTech Research 2012.

INTRODUCTION

Hyperglycemia (high blood sugar) is seen characteristically in diabetes mellitus. In diabetes, there is a deficiency of the function of insulin, the principal hormone that controls the blood levels of glucose, leading to persistent high levels of glucose in the blood, also known as hyperglycemia¹. According to the National Institutes of Health (NIH), persistently high levels of glucose can lead to serious complications involving vital organs like the brain, heart, eyes and kidneys. Lifestyle modifications and, where necessary, medications are used to lower the blood levels of glucose in diabetic patients. The united kingdom prospective diabetes study(UKPDS), a long term study of diabetes, has shown that rigorous management of blood glucose levels(measured as glycosylated) and blood pressure substantially reduce the incidence of complications^{2,3}. The current therapeutic strategies for diabetes are very limited, and involve insulin therapy and oral hypoglycemic agents such as sulphonylureas, biguanides and the thiazolidinediones. Combination therapy with one or more of these agents is now a viable option as target blood glucose levels become harder to maintain with monotherapy. While a wide variety of therapeutic approaches are now being examined for diabetes, these can generally be classified in one of the following categories⁴⁻⁹.

Various ways for the treatment of diabetes mellitus

Timely initiation of insulin therapy, either as monotherapy or in combination with other agents, can establish good glycemic control in a majority of diabetic patients. A non-peptidyl fungal metabolite which have been shown to selectively activate the insulin receptor in vitro, and oral administration of this agent showed a 40% lowering of blood glucose when administered orally for 7 days. The mechanism of action of the agents likely involves intracellular activation of the insulin receptor tyrosine kinase(IRTk)²⁻⁴.

Agents which effect the secretion of insulin

Sulfonylureas (SUs):

It is remain a front line treatment for diabetic patient.SUs stimulate insulin release from pancreatic β -cells by a mechanism that involves blocking ATP-sensitive potassium channels. Common side effects of SU therapy include hypoglycemia, as their action may occur at times when insulin is not required, and weight gain. Prolonged treatment with SUs also exacerbates β -cell exhaustion through over-stimulation of insulin production.SU therapy is not effective when insulin receptor levels decline too far⁶⁻⁹.

Glucagon-like peptide-1(GLP-1):

It is derived from the transcription product of the proglucagon gene. The major source of GLP-1 in the body is the intestinal L cell that secretes GLP-1 as a gut hormone and increases insulin secretion from the pancreas in a glucose-dependent manner. GLP-1 secretion by ileal L cells is dependent on the presence of nutrients in the lumen of the small intestine. The secretagogues (agents that cause or stimulate secretion) of this hormone include major nutrients like carbohydrate, protein and lipid. Now days DPP-4 inhibitors are play important role in glucose metabolism. It is responsible for the activation of incretins such as GLP-1. Long-term effects of DPP-4 inhibitors are nasopharyngitis (the common cold), headache, nausea, hypersensitivity and skin reactions, observed in clinical studies. Consistent with this FDA approval of Novartis' DPP-4 inhibitor vildagliptin was delayed because of skin lesions with blistering observed in nonhuman primate toxicology studies⁶⁻⁹.

Agents which effect the hepatic glucose production

Excessive hepatic glucose production (HGP) is a significant contributor to diabetic hyperglycemia. Methods for the inhibition of HGP are becoming an important strategy for control of blood glucose levels.

Biguanides:

It can refer to a molecule, or to a class of drugs based upon this molecule. Biguanides can function as oral antihyperglycemic drugs used for diabetes mellitus. It interferes with several processes linked to HGP, lowering glucose production and resensitizing the liver to insulin. Precise molecular mechanism of action of the biguanides continue to be a subject of intense interest and has been reviewed extensively. The most important and serious side effect is lactic acidosis, therefore metformin is contraindicated in renal insufficiency. Renal functions should be assessed before starting metformin. Phenformin and buformin are more prone to cause acidosis than metformin; therefore they have been practically replaced by it. However, when metformin is combined with other drugs (combination therapy), hypoglycemia and other side effects are possible. new studies have described the effectiveness of combination therapy using metformin and other oral hypoglycemic agents for the maintenance of blood glucose levels⁶⁻¹⁰

Agents which enhance the insulin action

Peroxisome proliferator activated receptors (PPARs):

PPARs are associated with diabetes and obesity, has recently been implicated in the transcriptional control of a wide variety of cellular processes. This is one of the most promising targets discovered as peroxisome proliferator activated receptors (PPAR) which are a superfamily belonging to the nuclear hormone receptors, which are ligand activated transcription

factors that play a key role in the regulation of the metabolism of lipids and carbohydrates. In addition, it has been discovered that PPAR's also play a key role in satiety induction and ingestion control and corporal fat modulation, as well as in the treatment and prevention of hyperglycemia and cardiovascular diseases such as rosiglitazone, pioglitazone and englitazone. Investigation of the family of nuclear receptors PPAR- α , β and γ remains a highly active area of research in the diabetes field and was recently reviewed in annual reports in Medicinal Chemistry. Most advanced are the PPAR- γ agonists balaglitazone 7 (Dr. Reddy Lab/Novo Nordisk, Phase II) rivoglitazone 6 (Sankyo, Phase II), and R483 (Roche/Chugai, Phase II). PPAR- γ agonists promote adipocyte differentiation and consequently cause weight as a side effect. In attempts to minimize this side effect, there is interest in developing dual acting PPAR- α , and γ co-activators which could be expected to simultaneously promote fatty acid oxidation and adipocyte differentiation. Tesaglitazar (Astra Zeneca) is in Phase III clinical development, and three other candidates with dual PPAR- α , and γ co-activators are in Phase II clinical development¹¹⁻³¹.

Table 1: The tabular representation of hypoglycemic agents

S.No	Agent	Mechanism	Site of action	Way better than other	Adverse effects
1	Non-peptidyl fungal metabolite	Insulin receptor tyrosine kinases	Insulin receptor	Good glycemic control	Hypoglycaemia
2	Sulphonylureas	Blocking ATP-sensitive potassium channels	Pancreatic β -cells	Front line treatment for diabetic patient	Hypoglycemia, Weight gain
3	DPP-4 inhibitors	Activation of incretins such as GLP-1	Lumen of the small intestine	Nutrients dependent action	Nasopharyngitis, Hypersensitivity
4	Biguanides	Resensitizing the liver to insulin	Liver	Does not cause hypoglycemia	Lactic acidosis
5	PPARs	Insulin sensitizers	Skeleton, fatty tissues	Does not cause hypoglycemia, Lactic acidosis	Not reported specific toxicity
6	Glucosidase inhibitors	Reduces intestinal glucose absorption	GI tract	Low risk	abdominal cramping, flatulence
7	SGLT inhibitors*	Renal re-absorption of glucose	Proximal tubule of kidney	Could be beneficial for obese patient	Electrolyte abnormalities

*Safety and efficacy under clinical trial

Agents which inhibits the glucose uptake

Alpha-glucosidase inhibitors are "diabetes pills" but not technically hypoglycemic agents because they do not have a direct effect on insulin secretion or sensitivity. These agents slow the digestion of starch in the small intestine, so that glucose from the starch of a meal enters the bloodstream more slowly, and can be matched more effectively by an impaired insulin response or sensitivity.

Glucosidase inhibitors:

Inhibition of intestinal α -glucosidases inhibits the breakdown of oligo and disaccharides from dietary complex carbohydrates and thus slows the absorption of glucose. Clinical data with acarbose has been reviewed and acarbose was shown to decrease HbA_{1c} by 0.78% versus placebo⁶⁻⁷.

Sodium-glucose transporter (SGLT) inhibitors:

Both intestinal absorption and renal re-absorption of glucose are mediated by SGLTs. Three isoforms, SGLT-1, SGLT-2 and SGLT-3, have been reported to date. The sodium-glucose co-transporter-2 (SGLT2) is a low-affinity transport system that is specifically expressed in the kidney and plays an important role in renal glucose reabsorption in the proximal tubule. Competitive inhibition of SGLT2 therefore represents an innovative therapeutic strategy for the treatment of hyperglycaemia and/or obesity in patients with type 1 or type 2 diabetes by enhancing glucose and energy loss through the urine. The preclinical and limited clinical data available to characterize the efficacy, safety and potential clinical utility of SGLT2 inhibitors in the management of diabetes³².

CONCLUSION

Diabetes mellitus has increased in incidence as lifestyles involving excessive calorie intake and lack of exercise have become more prevalent. The basic management of type 2 diabetes mellitus involves controlling the energy balance of the body by dietary means and by increasing exercise levels, and there is a lack of drugs that can be used to control energy balance in a negative direction. Thus, an hypoglycaemic agent that does this would represent a new approach to the treatment of diabetes mellitus. Treatment goals for hyperglycemia are to control the situation in a way that minimizes symptoms and help them to maintain normal blood glucose levels. Many new, exciting therapeutic strategies are being explored to treat diabetes. Among them PPAR modulators are now days consider first line therapy in diabetes, reason could be effective insulin

sensitizers along with better for diabetic associated problems and having minimum adverse effects.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Authors are grateful to CDRI, Lucknow, UP, India for providing needful library facility.

REFERENCE

1. Wild S, Roglic G, Green A, Sicree R, King H. Global prevalence of diabetes: Estimates for the year 2000 and projections for 2030. *Diabetes Care* 2004; 27 (5): 1047–53.
2. Polisena J, Tran K, Cimon K, Hutton B, McGill S, Palmer K. Home telehealth for diabetes management: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabetes Obes Metab* 2009; 11 (10): 913–30
3. Liberopoulos EN, Mikhailidis DP, Elisaf MS. Diagnosis and management of the metabolic syndrome in obesity. *Obesity Reviews* 2005; 6(4):283–296.
4. Eurich McAlister FA, Blackburn DF, Majumdar SR, Tsuyuki RT, Varney J, Johnson JA. Benefits and harms of antidiabetic agents in patients with diabetes and heart failure: systematic review. *BMJ (Clinical research ed.)* 2007, 335 (7618): 497.
5. Fimognari Pastorelli R, Incalzi RA. Phenformin-induced lactic acidosis in an older diabetic patient: a recurrent drama (phenformin and lactic acidosis). *Diabetes Care* 2006; 29 (4): 950–1.
6. Rendell . Advances in diabetes for the millennium: drug therapy of type 2 diabetes. *MedGenMed : Medscape general medicine* 6 (3 Suppl) 2004; 9. PMC 1474831.
7. Briones Bajaj M. Exenatide: a GLP-1 receptor agonist as novel therapy for type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Expert opinion on pharmacotherapy* 2006; 7 (8): 1055–64.
8. Barzilei N, Mahoney EM, Guo H. Sitagliptin is well tolerated and leads to rapid improvement in blood glucose in the first days of monotherapy in patients aged 65 years and older with T2DM. *Diabetes* 2009; 58: 587.
9. Pratley RE, Rosenstock J, Pi-Sunyer FX, Banerji MA, Schweizer A, Couturier A, Dejager S. Management of type 2 diabetes in treatment-naive elderly patients: benefits and risks of vildagliptin monotherapy. *Diabetes Care* 2007; 30 (12): 3017–22.
10. Kirkham S, Akilen R, Sharma S, Tsiami A. The potential of cinnamon to reduce blood glucose levels in patients with type 2 diabetes and insulin resistance. *Diabetes, obesity & metabolism* 2009; 11 (12): 1100–13.

11. Evans RM, Barish GD, Wang Y-X. PPARs and the complex journey to obesity. *Nature Medicine*. 2004;10(4):355–361.
12. Willson TM, Brown PJ, Sternbach DD, Henke BR. The PPARs: from orphan receptors to drug discovery. *Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*. 2000; 43(4):527–550.
13. Guerre-Millo M, Gervois P, Raspé E, et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α activators improve insulin sensitivity and reduce adiposity. *J Biological Chemistry*. 2000; 275(22):16638–16642.
14. Braissant O, Fougère F, Scotto C, Dauca M, Wahli W. Differential expression of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs): tissue distribution of PPAR- α , - β , and - γ in the adult rat. *Endocrinology* 1996;137(1):354–366.
15. Pourcet B, Fruchart J-C, Staels B, Glineur C. Selective PPAR modulators, dual and pan PPAR agonists: multimodal drugs for the treatment of type 2 diabetes and atherosclerosis. *Expert Opinion on Emerging Drugs* 2006 ;11(3):379–401.
16. Brown PJ, Winegar DA, Plunket KD, et al. A ureido-thioisobutyric acid (GW9578) is a subtype-selective PPAR α agonist with potent lipid-lowering activity. *J Medicinal Chemistry* 1999; 42(19):3785–3788.
17. Yang B, Brown KK, Chen L, et al. Serum adiponectin as a biomarker for in vivo PPAR γ activation and PPAR γ agonist-induced efficacy on insulin sensitization/lipid lowering in rats. *BMC Pharmacology* 2004; 4(1):23.
18. Henke BR, Blanchard SG, Brackeen MF, et al. N-(2-benzoylphenyl)-L-tyrosine PPAR γ agonists. Discovery of a novel series of potent antihyperglycemic and antihyperlipidemic agents. *J Medicinal Chemistry* 1998 ;41(25):5020–5036.
19. Lehmann JM, Moore LB, Smith-Oliver TA, Wilkison WO, Willson TM, Kliewer SA. An antidiabetic thiazolidinedione is a high affinity ligand for peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ). *J Biological Chemistry* 1995;270(22):12953–12956.
20. Nichols JS, Parks DJ, Consler TG, Blanchard SG. Development of a scintillation proximity assay for peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ ligand binding domain. *Analytical Biochemistry* 1998; 257(2):112–119.
21. Pickavance LC, Brand CL, Wassermann K, Wilding JPH. The dual PPAR α/γ agonist, ragaglitazar, improves insulin sensitivity and metabolic profile equally with pioglitazone in diabetic and dietary obese ZDF rats. *British J Pharmacol* 2005; 144(3):308–316.

22. Chakrabarti R, Vikramadithyan RK, Misra P, et al. Ragaglitazar: a novel PPAR α & PPAR γ agonist with potent lipid-lowering and insulin-sensitizing efficacy in animal models. *British J Pharmacol* 2003;140(3):527–537.
23. Koh EH, Kim M-S, Park J-Y, et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR)- α activation prevents diabetes in OLETF rats: comparison with PPAR- γ activation. *Diabetes*. 2003; 52 (9):2331–2337.
24. Gee MK, Zhang L, Rankin SE, Collins JN, Kauffman RF, Wagner JD. Rosiglitazone treatment improves insulin regulation and dyslipidemia in type 2 diabetic cynomolgus monkeys. *Metabolism*. 2004;53(9):1121–1125.
25. Rocchi S, Auwerx J. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ : a versatile metabolic regulator. *Annals of Medicine*. 1999;31(5):342–351.
26. Picard F, Auwerx J. PPAR γ and glucose homeostasis. *Annual Review of Nutrition*. 2002;22:167–197.
27. Zhang F, Lavan B, Gregoire FM. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors as attractive antiobesity targets. *Drug News and Perspectives*. 2004;17(10):661–669.
28. Fredenrich A, Grimaldi PA. PPAR δ : an incompletely known nuclear receptor. *Diabetes and Metabolism* 2005; 31(1):23–27.
29. Luquet S, Lopez-Soriano J, Holst D, et al. Roles of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor δ (PPAR δ) in the control of fatty acid catabolism. A new target for the treatment of metabolic syndrome. *Biochimie* 2004;86(11):833–837.
30. Shin HD, Park BL, Kim LH, et al. Genetic polymorphisms in peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor δ associated with obesity. *Diabetes* 2004; 53(3):847–851.
31. Muurling M, Mensink RP, Pijl H, Romijn JA, Havekes LM, Voshol PJ. Rosiglitazone improves muscle insulin sensitivity, irrespective of increased triglyceride content, in ob/ob mice. *Metabolism* 2003; 52(8):1078–1083.
32. Zhang X, Urbanski M, Patel M, Cox GG, Zeck RE, Bian H, Conway BR, Pat Beavers M, Rybczynski PJ, and Demarest KT. Indole-glucosides as novel sodium glucose co-transporter 2 (SGLT2) inhibitors. Part 2. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett* 2006;16: 1696–1701.