



45 Diabetes mellitus is among the strongest cardiovascular disease risk factors, increasing  
46 all cause cardiovascular mortality, particularly ischemic heart disease.(3, 18, 29)  
47 However, independent of ischemic episodes, diabetes mellitus results in a remodeling of  
48 the myocardium, leading to diabetic cardiomyopathy.(31) Similar to obesity, diabetic  
49 cardiomyopathy is often characterized by impaired diastolic function (with a preservation  
50 of systolic function).(4) Numerous mechanisms have been proposed to contribute  
51 significantly towards the etiology of diabetic cardiomyopathy, ranging from neurohumoral  
52 imbalances and extracellular remodeling, to perturbations in the intrinsic properties of  
53 cardiomyocytes, including alterations in contractile proteins, calcium homeostasis,  
54 signaling, and metabolism.(31) In the latter case, the heart during diabetes has been  
55 described as 'starving in the midst of plenty'.(30) Such a statement was proposed  
56 largely following observations that the heart exhibits impaired oxidative metabolism  
57 (secondary to mitochondrial dysfunction) in the face of elevated circulating nutrients  
58 (glucose [i.e., hyperglycemia], fatty acids/lipids [i.e., dyslipidemia], ketone bodies [in the  
59 case of uncontrolled type 1 diabetes mellitus], and amino acids [particularly branched  
60 chain amino acids]) during diabetes.(5) It is important to note an increasing  
61 acknowledgement that nutrients are more than just fuels, acting also as signaling  
62 molecules capable of influencing a multitude of processes critical to cardiac function.  
63 Thus, the mismatch between nutrient availability and oxidation that occurs during  
64 diabetes leads in an accumulation of metabolic intermediates within the myocardium,  
65 which perturb transcription (e.g., fatty acid activation of PPARs), translation (e.g.,  
66 nutrient activation of mTOR), protein posttranslational modifications (e.g., acetylation, O-  
67 GlcNAcylation), signaling species (e.g., phospholipid derivatives), and electrophysiology  
68 (e.g., acyl-carnitines influence on ion channels).(9, 25, 27, 32) When such a mismatch  
69 persists for chronic periods of time, cardiomyocytes are susceptible to both lipid and  
70 glucose induced cell death (termed lipo- and gluco- toxicity, respectively).(17, 21)

71 Nutrient-induced cardiomyocyte dysfunction and death likely plays a pivotal role in the  
72 development of diabetic cardiomyopathy.

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74 Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) is a secreted protein consisting of 5 primary  
75 family members: VEGF-A, VEGF-B, VEGF-C, VEGF-D, and placental growth factor  
76 (PGF).(12) VEGF binds to transmembrane spanning tyrosine kinase receptors, of which  
77 4 main isoforms have been identified (VEGFR-1, VEGFR-2, VEGFR3, and neuropilin-  
78 1).(7) Additional complexity exists in this system, at the level of alternative splicing,  
79 stability and translation of VEGF family members, which has important functional  
80 consequences, as well as modulating heparin sulfate proteoglycan (HSPG) binding on  
81 the cell surface.(2) For example, VEGF-B<sub>167</sub> and VEGF-B<sub>186</sub> are splice variants of  
82 VEGF-B, of which only VEGF-B<sub>186</sub> possesses the HSPG binding domain.(19)  
83 Classically, VEGF has been considered to play key roles in angiogenesis and  
84 neovascularization; often induced under hypoxic conditions, VEGF (VEGF-A) is  
85 classically thought to promote vessel formation, thereby promoting blood flow to the  
86 hypoxic region (e.g., following a myocardial infarction) and is a direct target of the  
87 hypoxia inducible factor-1alpha (HIF1 $\alpha$ ).(12) More recently, additional functions have  
88 been defined for VEGF, such as neurogenesis, wound healing, immunomodulation, and  
89 metabolism.(6, 10, 14, 28) This range of functions is in part due to isoform specific  
90 functions (both VEGF and VEGFR isoforms) in tissue and cell type specific manners. In  
91 the heart, all VEGF isoforms and receptors are present, with VEGFB and VEGFR2 most  
92 highly abundant under normal conditions (although VEGF-C and VEGF-D are induced  
93 during heart failure).(1, 24) VEGF-B is highly expressed in a number of metabolically  
94 active tissues, and consistent with its tissue distribution, has been shown to both  
95 modulate metabolic processes (e.g., fatty acid uptake and oxidation) and be regulated  
96 by the PGC-1alpha/ERRalpha axis.(10, 20) Nutrient levels have also been shown to

97 influence epigenetic changes, which ultimately regulate the expression of VEGF-B;  
98 different dietary fatty acids have been shown to affect the methylation status of the  
99 VEGF-B promoter, influencing both mRNA and protein expression of VEGF-B.(22) In  
100 addition, VEGF-B appears to exert a cardioprotective role, as evidenced by VEGF-B-  
101 induced preservation of cardiac function following a myocardial infarction.(16)  
102 Interestingly, VEGF-B levels decrease in both animal models of, and humans with, heart  
103 failure.(16) Collectively, these observations suggest that VEGF-B may play an important  
104 cardioprotective role, which is lost in the failing myocardium. However, whether  
105 alterations in VEGF-B signaling contribute towards either the development of diabetic  
106 cardiomyopathy, or decreased tolerance of the heart to ischemic events during diabetes,  
107 is currently unknown.

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109 The study by Lal and colleagues investigated the relationship between VEGF-B  
110 signaling and cardiomyocyte survival, in the setting of hyperglycemia/diabetes.  
111 Following confirmation of heparin-releasable VEGF-B in isolated adult rat  
112 cardiomyocytes, the investigators revealed that elevated glucose levels (25mM) induced  
113 VEGF-B release from cardiomyocytes when co-cultured with endothelial cells.  
114 Similarly, culturing cardiomyocytes with condition media collected from endothelial cells  
115 challenged with high glucose resulted in VEGF-B release; this effect was likely  
116 secondary to high glucose induced heparinase secretion from endothelial cells. The  
117 investigators subsequently reported that VEGF-B activated the ERK/GSK3 $\beta$  signaling  
118 axis in both cardiomyocytes and endothelial cells, which was associated with attenuation  
119 of hydrogen peroxide induced caspase 3 and PARP activation (i.e., cell death pathway  
120 markers). Collectively, these observations revealed an important interaction between  
121 endothelial cells and cardiomyocytes, wherein endothelial cell glucose sensing results in  
122 protection of both cardiomyocytes and endothelial cells via autocrine and paracrine

123 (respectively) actions of VEGF-B (Figure 1A). Having established this novel mechanism  
124 of VEGF-B mediated protection following acute glucose challenge, the investigators next  
125 addressed the question as to whether this mechanism is altered/disrupted during  
126 diabetes (streptozotocin [STZ] induced uncontrolled type 1 diabetes mellitus). Profound  
127 alterations were observed, including decreased heparinase levels in hearts of STZ-  
128 diabetic rats, as well as decreased VEGF-B levels in isolated cardiomyocytes.  
129 Moreover, despite increased VEGFR1 expression in cardiomyocytes isolated from  
130 diabetic rats, these cells exhibited attenuated VEGF-B mediated ERK and GSK3 $\beta$   
131 phosphorylation (i.e., VEGF-B resistance). This was associated with increased  
132 activation of caspase and PARP in hearts isolated from diabetic rats. These  
133 observations suggest decreased myocardial VEGF-B levels, in combination with VEGF-  
134 B resistance, may increase susceptibility of cardiomyocytes to dysfunction and/or death  
135 in response to the hostile diabetic milieu. This in turn could lead to contractile  
136 dysfunction (i.e., diabetic cardiomyopathy; Figure 1B).

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138 These findings highlight a previously unknown communication between endothelial cells  
139 and cardiomyocytes revolving around VEGF-B, which potentially plays an important role  
140 in cell survival. Strengths of the study include the relatively thorough nature with which  
141 this relationship was assessed in a cell-based system. Furthermore, the studies  
142 extended beyond physiologic conditions, highlighting a disruption of this relationship  
143 during a chronic disease state (i.e., uncontrolled diabetes). Interestingly, the current  
144 study reported that treatment of STZ-diabetic rats with insulin normalizes both glycemia  
145 and cardiac VEGF-B levels within 2-hrs, suggesting that hyperglycemia acutely  
146 promotes release of VEGF-B from the heart. Consistent with release of VEGF-B from its  
147 HSPG anchor in response to hyperglycemia, and an apparent depletion of VEGF-B from  
148 the heart during diabetes (and obesity), previous studies have reported elevated

149 circulating VEGF-B levels during diabetes. Such observations raise the possibility that  
150 VEGF-B resistance observed in cardiomyocytes isolated from diabetic rats may be due  
151 to chronic stimulation (although elevation of circulating VEGF-B secondarily to systemic  
152 VEGF-B resistance cannot be ruled out). Clearly, the precise mechanisms leading to  
153 VEGF-B resistance requires further elucidation. Additional unanswered questions exist,  
154 including: 1) the contribution of endothelial-cardiomyocyte coupling in cardiomyocyte  
155 development, repair and survival (13, 23); 2) the role of other proteases (such as matrix  
156 metalloproteinases) that might contribute to release of VEGF-B and other growth factors  
157 that can act in an autocrine or paracrine function (8); 3) the mechanisms by which  
158 glucose induces heparinase-mediated VEGF-B release; 4) whether VEGF-B release  
159 acutely protects cardiomyocytes and/or endothelial cells from high glucose induced cell  
160 death (both apoptosis and/or necrosis); 5) whether VEGF-B resistance significantly  
161 contributes towards the etiology of diabetic cardiomyopathy (i.e., impact on contractile  
162 function of the heart); and 6) whether the cell-cell communication described has roles  
163 beyond cell survival. Here, we expand upon the latter possibility.

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165 An interrelationship between endothelial cells and cardiomyocytes involving VEGF-B has  
166 been proposed previously. Studies from Hagberg et al have shown that VEGF-B  
167 promotes trans-endothelial transport of circulating fatty acids, for subsequent utilization  
168 by myocytes (both cardiac and skeletal).(10) Excess myocardial fatty acid uptake and  
169 utilization is known to attenuate glucose utilization is a number of ways, including  
170 substrate competition and modulation of insulin signaling.(5) An increase in fatty acid  
171 oxidation leads to a rise in mitochondrial acetyl-CoA levels, which subsequently inhibits  
172 pyruvate dehydrogenase (the gatekeeper of pyruvate entry into the TCA cycle); this in  
173 turn inhibits glucose oxidation, with subsequent attenuation of glycolysis (termed the  
174 Randle cycle, a phenomenon first described in the heart).(26) Moreover, an imbalance

175 between fatty acid uptake and oxidation leads to accumulation of fatty acid species that  
176 alter cardiac gene expression and signaling; the latter includes attenuation of insulin-  
177 mediated glucose uptake.(5) Consistent with these concepts, Hagberg et al reported  
178 that genetic depletion of VEGF-B prevents high fat diet induced suppression of cardiac  
179 glucose uptake (and also maintains whole body glucose homeostasis).(11) Conversely,  
180 cardiomyocyte specific overexpression of VEGF-B leads to ceramide accumulation and  
181 mitochondrial dysfunction.(15) Such observations lead to the intriguing possibility that  
182 an acute release of VEGF-B in response to glucose may signify the fed state, thus  
183 promoting the trans-endothelial movement of fatty acids (likely chylomicron-derived)  
184 across the endothelium. During diabetes, when both circulating glucose and fatty acids  
185 are chronically elevated, a depression of VEGF-B sensitivity may initially function as an  
186 adaptation, helping to prevent excessive accumulation of lipotoxic species in the  
187 myocardium. However, in light of the observations of Lal et al, this VEGF-B resistance  
188 may also result in impaired cardioprotection. Thus, aberrant VEGF-B signaling during  
189 diabetes may serve both adaptive and maladaptive roles.

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191 In summary, Lal and colleagues have uncovered a novel interaction between endothelial  
192 cells and cardiomyocytes, whereby endothelium-derived heparinase mediates release of  
193 cardiomyocyte bound VEGF-B. Upon binding to its receptor (likely VEGFR1), VEGF-B  
194 promotes cell survival. Importantly, this mechanism appears to be severely attenuated  
195 in the setting of uncontrolled diabetes mellitus. Several fundamental questions remain  
196 unanswered with regards to the mechanisms by which VEGF-B resistance ensues  
197 during diabetes, as well as the functional consequences, the novel findings described by  
198 these studies may have identified an important mechanism contributing towards  
199 increased susceptibility of the heart to damage/dysfunction during diabetes.

200

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205

206 **Disclosures**

207 None.

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336

337 **Figure Legends**

338

339 **Figure 1. Hypothetical model by which elevated glucose levels influence**  
340 **cardioprotection in a VEGF-B dependent manner.** A) Acutely, heparanase (HPSE) is  
341 secreted from endothelial cells in response to elevated glucose levels (e.g., fed state),  
342 resulting in the release of VEGF-B from the heparan sulfate proteoglycan (HSPG);  
343 VEGF-B then binds to the VEGFR1 receptor on endothelial cells (increasing fatty acid  
344 uptake, and subsequent utilization by cardiomyocytes as a fuel) and on cardiomyocytes  
345 to attenuate apoptosis (via activation of the ERK/GSK3 $\beta$  signaling axis). B) Chronic  
346 hyperglycemia during simulated type 1 diabetes mellitus decreases HPSE secretion and  
347 local VEGF-B levels; despite a compensatory increase in VEGFR1 expression, VEGF-B  
348 resistance occurs during diabetes, which likely influences cardiomyocytes in both  
349 adaptive (e.g., attenuates fatty acid delivery in the face of hyperlipidemia) and  
350 maladaptive (e.g., attenuation of cardioprotection via the ERK/GSK3 $\beta$  signaling axis)  
351 manners.

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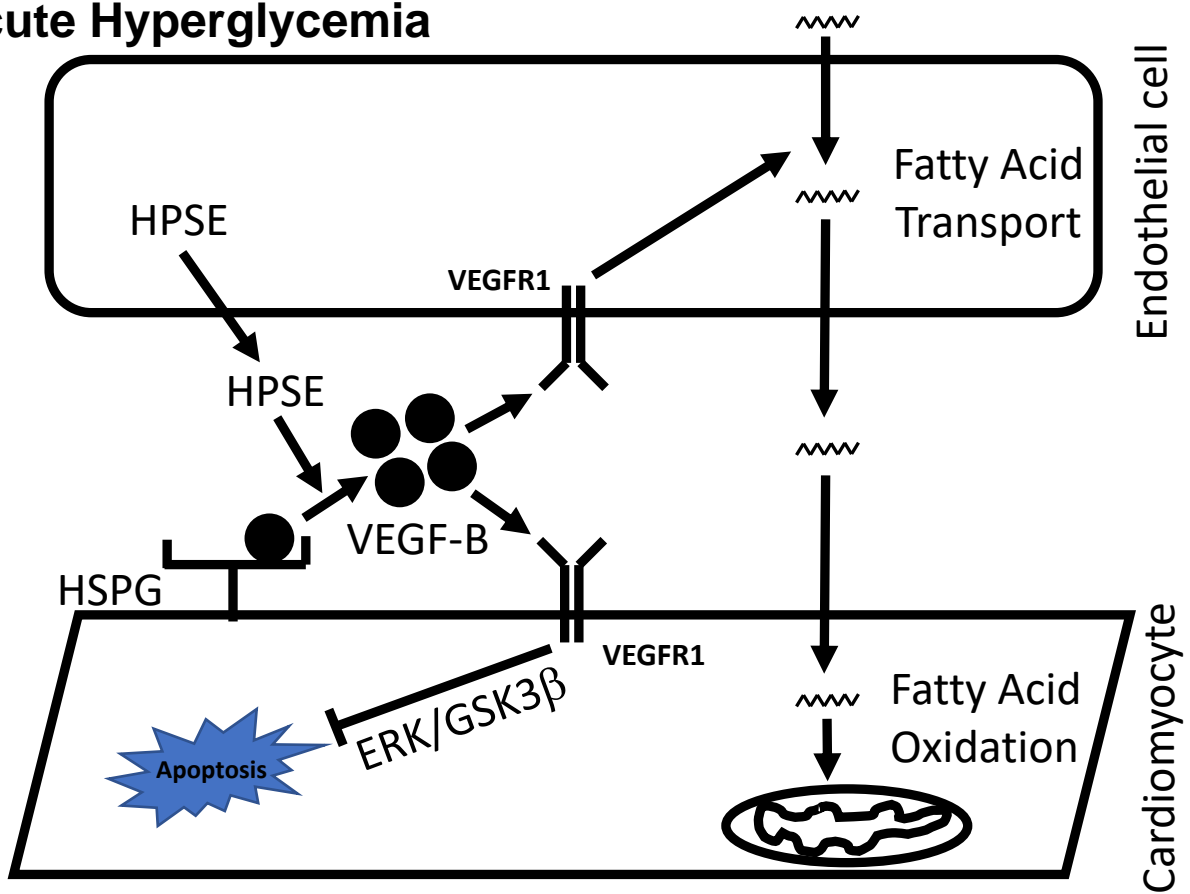
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**A) Acute Hyperglycemia**



**B) Simulation of Type 1 Diabetes**

