



# TYPE 2 DIABETES MELLITUS AND NONVALVULAR ATRIAL FIBRILLATION IN MEXICO: NATIONAL REGISTRIES RAISE A RED FLAG

MANLIO F. MÁRQUEZ-MURILLO<sup>1,\*</sup>, EDUARDO BRENNER-MUSLERA<sup>2</sup>, DIANA L. RODRÍGUEZ-CARRILLO<sup>1</sup>, CÉSAR A. CHUA-LÓPEZ<sup>1</sup>, AND MARGARITA TORRES-TAMAYO<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Cardiology, Centro Médico ABC, Mexico City; <sup>2</sup>School of Medicine, Universidad Panamericana, Mexico City; <sup>3</sup>Sociedad Mexicana de Nutrición y Endocrinología, Mexico City, Mexico

## ABSTRACT

Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is one of the most common chronic diseases worldwide and is highly prevalent in Mexico, as 10.2% of the adult population harbors this condition. T2DM is usually associated with cardiovascular comorbidities, including arrhythmias. Metabolic impairment is one of the mechanisms that contribute to tissue remodeling that affects atrial structure, and concomitant, the cardiac conduction system, both could result in atrial fibrillation (AF). AF is estimated to affect more than a half million Mexicans, and its incidence is expected to keep rising. According to national registries, T2DM is present in 28.4% of Mexican patients with AF and the coexistence of both diseases is associated with a higher risk of stroke. In clinical practice, the CHA<sub>2</sub>DS<sub>2</sub>-VASC risk score is useful for stroke risk stratification in patients with AF to facilitate the adequate use of anticoagulation therapy. T2DM is among the items of the CHA<sub>2</sub>DS<sub>2</sub>-VASC score because it correlates with an intrinsic prothrombotic state. In this narrative review, we present information that highlights the need for optimal glucose control and adequate anti-coagulation in subjects with T2DM and AF. (REV INVEST CLIN. 2023;75(4):179-86)

**Keywords:** Nonvalvular atrial fibrillation. Type 2 diabetes mellitus. Oral anticoagulation. Stroke. Mexico.

## INTRODUCTION

Mexico has one of the highest prevalence of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) in the world<sup>1</sup>. As much as 10.2% of the total adult population suffers from this metabolic disease<sup>2</sup>. Since the year 2000, T2DM has

been the second cause of death in Mexicans over 60 years of age, both in men and women, only behind heart disease, a condition related to T2DM<sup>3</sup>. T2DM is a strong cardiovascular risk factor, frequently associated with other systemic and organic comorbidities that greatly impact population health (Table 1)<sup>4,5</sup>.

**\*Corresponding author:**

Manlio F. Márquez-Murillo

E-mail: manlio.marquez@gmail.com

Received for publication: 17-03-2023

Approved for publication: 07-06-2023

DOI: 10.24875/RIC.23000056

Table 1. A list of cardiovascular pathologies and other comorbidities in patients with T2DM

Cardiovascular	Geriatric syndromes	Psychiatric
Coronary heart disease	Frailty	Depression
Heart failure	Falls	Schizophrenia
Peripheral artery disease	Disability	Delirium
Stroke		Substance abuse
Retinopathy		
Neuropathy		
Nephropathy		
Arrhythmias		
Cancer	Musculoskeletal	Gastrointestinal
Liver	Neuropathic arthropathy	Motor dysfunction (dysmotility, delayed emptying or transit)
Pancreas	Adhesive capsulitis	Autonomic neuropathy
Endometrium	Carpal tunnel syndrome	Bacterial overgrowth
Colon	Rotator cuff tendinopathy	GI remodeling
Breast	Dupuytren's contracture	Diarrhea
Bladder	Osteoarthritis	
	Fractures	
Immune	Endocrine	Dermatologic
Innate immune response defects	Pancreatitis	Pruritus
Adaptive immune response defects	Low testosterone	Acanthosis Nigricans
	Decreased CRH levels	Necrobiosis Lipoidica
	Hypercortisolism	Lichen Planus
	Decreased dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA)	Fungal and bacterial skin infections
	RAAS hyperactivation	

Adapted from references<sup>49-56</sup>.

Atrial fibrillation (AF) is reported to be present in 3.8% of subjects older than 60 years. Almost half a million individuals could suffer from this arrhythmia in Mexico, and this prevalence keeps rising<sup>6</sup>. In older people, nonvalvular AF (NVAF) accounts for as much as 85% of AF cases in Mexico. There are some well-known risk factors for NVAF, including male sex, age, hypertension, kidney chronic disease, smoking, obesity, coronary heart disease, and T2DM<sup>7</sup>.

The present in-depth review was performed to study the risk factors for AF and stroke, with an emphasis on the role of T2DM; to describe the particularities of NVAF treatment in patients with T2DM; and, to analyze the evidence of optimal treatment in patients with NVAF in Mexico. A bibliographic review was performed using the following databases: PubMed, Google Scholar, and ScienceDirect. Terms used were: "nonvalvular AF", "Mexico," "diabetes mellitus in Mexico," "nonvalvular AF pathophysiology," "nonvalvular AF and diabetes mellitus," "nonvalvular

AF (NVAF) and diabetes mellitus treatment," "CHA<sub>2</sub>DS<sub>2</sub>-VASc diabetes mellitus," "nonvalvular AF stroke," "nonvalvular AF anticoagulation," and "anticoagulation in diabetes mellitus." Known registries of AF in the Mexican population were also intentionally included: "CARMEN-AF," "GLORIA AF", "REMEFA", and "REMECAR".

## TYPE 2 DIABETES MELLITUS AS A RISK FACTOR FOR AF IN THE MEXICAN POPULATION

In general, diabetes increases the risk of developing AF by 35-60%. Although higher glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) levels, and longer evolution of diabetes, are directly correlated to an increased risk of developing AF, even diabetic patients with good glycemic control are still at increased risk<sup>8,9</sup>. The coexistence of T2DM and AF increases the risk of stroke by almost 80% and is related to higher mortality, hospitalization rates, and thromboembolic risk<sup>10-12</sup>.

Table 2. Frequency of comorbidities according to gender in Mexican subjects from CARMEN-AF Registry<sup>15</sup>

Comorbidites (%)	Total population (n = 1,423) Percentage	Male (n = 731)	Female (n = 692)	P* value
Hypertension	72.5	71.3	73.8	ns
Diabetes	28.4	31.3	25.3	0.007
Heart failure	23.6	25.3	21.8	ns
Smoking	16.4	23.9	8.5	< 0.0001
Alcoholism	9.2	17.1	0.9	< 0.0001
Nonischemic cardiomyopathy**	8.9	10.3	7.5	0.042
Coronary artery disease	7.1	9.7	4.3	< 0.0001
Obstructive sleep apnea	3.9	5.2	2.6	0.008
Peripheral artery disease	1.8	1.0	2.7	0.01

\*P value was calculated by Chi-square test.

\*\*Hypertensive, idiopathic, and restrictive.

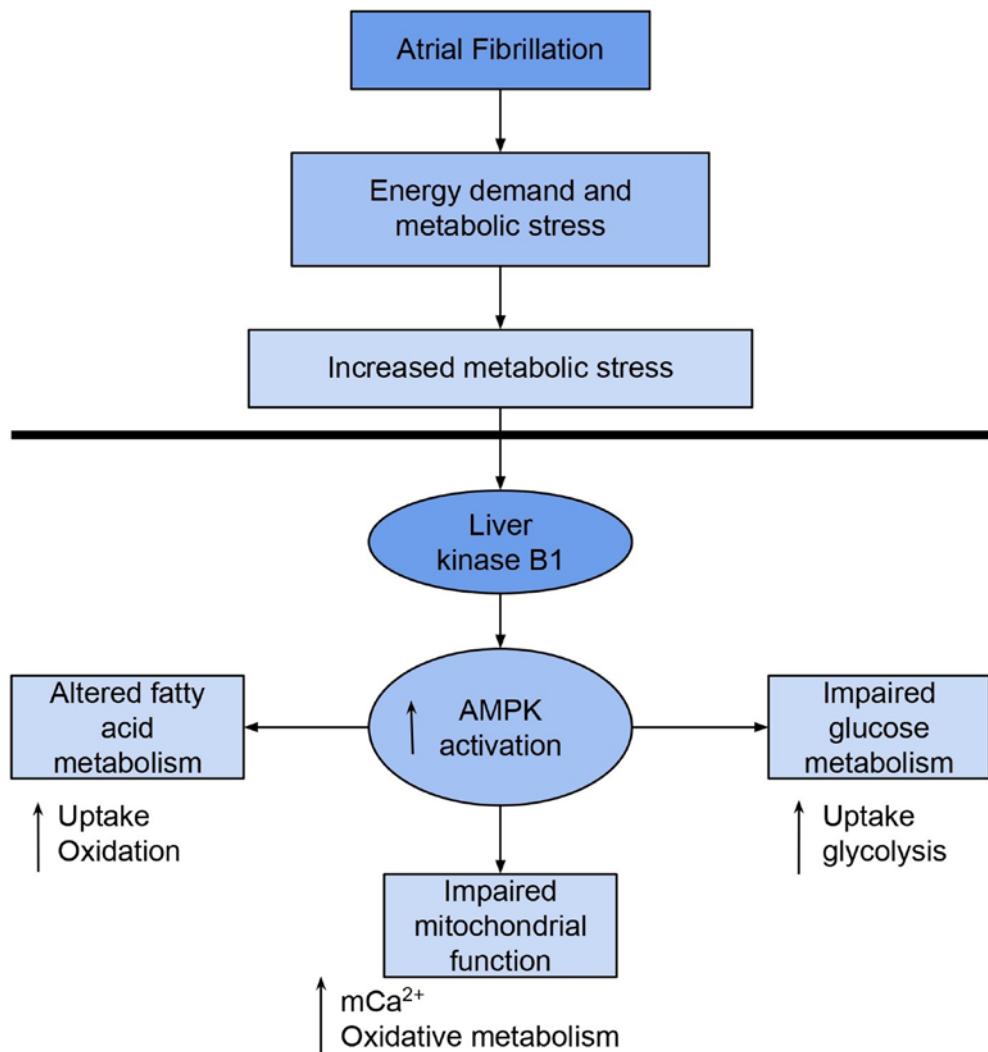
In Mexico, the Registro de Fibrilación Auricular y Riesgo Embólico en México or AF and Embolic Risk Registry (CARMEN-AF Registry) reported that the main comorbidity in Mexican patients with NVAF was hypertension (72.5%), followed by T2DM (28.4%) and heart failure (23.6%) (Table 2)<sup>13,14</sup>. In this Registry, paroxysmal AF was more prevalent in women (40.6%), whilst permanent AF was more prevalent in men (44%). Risk factors such as smoking, alcoholism, coronary artery disease, obstructive sleep apnea, and diabetes were more common in men<sup>15</sup>.

We also have data from Registro Mexicano de Datos Cardiovasculares or Mexican Registry of Cardiovascular Data (REMECAR) was a descriptive-transversal study that aimed to determine the prevalence of risk factors and comorbidities present in Mexican patients with NVAF that received private medical care. Analyses of the results highlighted the association of AF, T2DM, hypothyroidism, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), and congestive heart failure, in both men and women younger than 60 years old. AF in individuals older than 60 years old was related to chronic kidney disease and COPD. It was also noticed that men younger than 60 years are twice as likely to be diagnosed with AF when compared to women of the same age group, (1.2% and 2.4%, respectively). The incidence of AF in women increases with age, reaching as much as 33.3% in females older than 90 years of age and around 9% in men older than 70 years<sup>16</sup>.

Multiple mechanisms could explain the linkage between T2DM and AF (Fig. 1). Glucose fluctuations induce mitochondrial respiratory chain protein dysfunction, which results in higher reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels, that are related to the progression of cardiovascular disease (Fig. 1)<sup>17</sup>. On the other hand, T2DM promotes electrical remodeling, which could generate reentry mechanisms necessary for the initiation of AF<sup>18,19</sup>. As for the progression from paroxysmal to persistent AF, modification, and expansion of epicardial adipose tissue is a source of proinflammatory mediators that induces atrial remodeling (Fig. 1)<sup>20</sup>.

There is evidence that optimizing the management of T2DM reduces the risk of developing AF (Fig. 2). This has been attributed to the fact that some diabetes drugs exhibit anti-remodeling properties and could have direct beneficial effects on AF mechanisms. For example, metformin reduces myolysis and oxidative stress<sup>21</sup>. Sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 (SGLT-2) inhibitors can reverse mitochondrial dysfunction<sup>22</sup>. In clinical trials, angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors and angiotensin II receptor blockers (ARBs) have been shown to decrease the incidence of AF<sup>21</sup>. Studies in animal models show that AF induction and duration are both reduced by insulin treatment. However, it is important to notice that insulin-induced hypoglycemia has been associated with higher incidences of AF<sup>23</sup>.

Figure 2. Schematic representation of AMPK and its metabolic implications in anti-atrial arrhythmogenesis (modified from Lkhagva et al.<sup>57</sup>).



AMPK: AMP-activated protein kinase.

## DIABETES AS A RISK FACTOR FOR STROKE IN NONVALVULAR AF

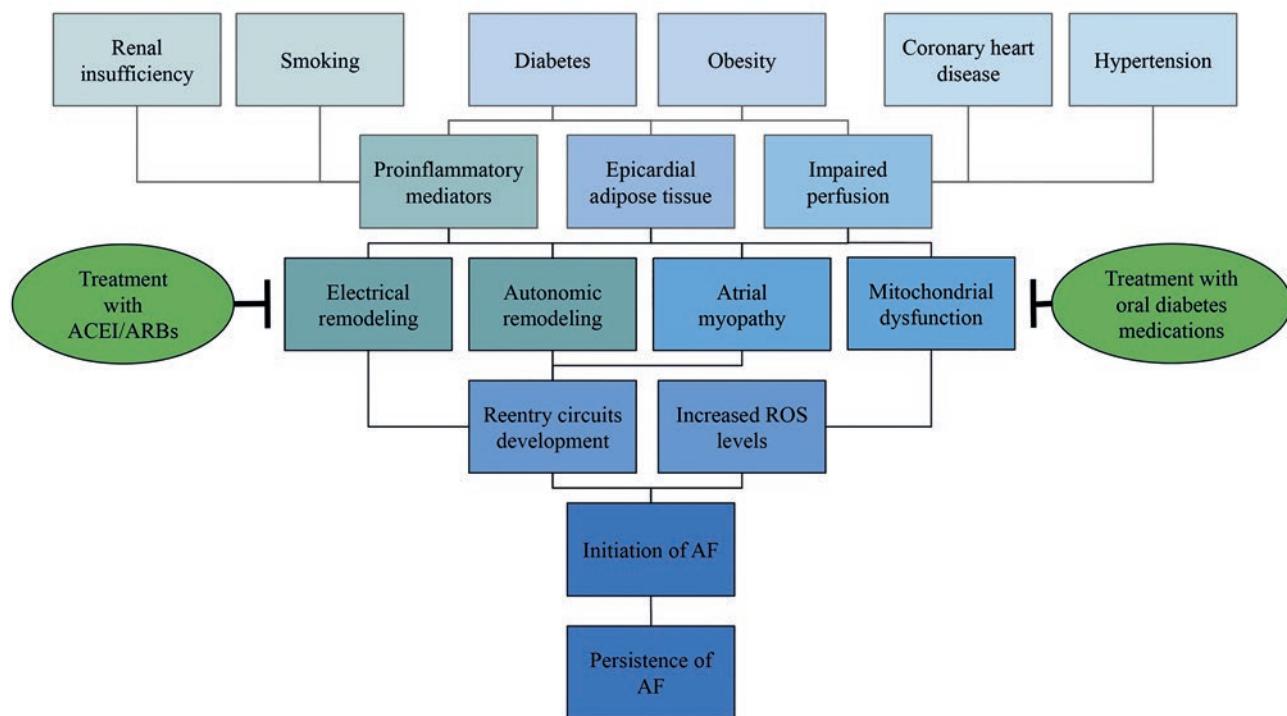
Besides promoting AF, T2DM simulates an intrinsic prothrombotic state due to platelet hyperactivity, impaired endothelial function, as well as a persistent inflammatory condition. The increased production of advanced glycation end products and ROS are known factors to trigger a hypercoagulable state in diabetic patients<sup>24</sup>.

Diabetes is part of the CHA<sub>2</sub>DS<sub>2</sub>-VASc risk score, which is useful to assess stroke risk in patients with NVAF and the need for anticoagulation therapy. A

combination of T2DM and age >65 years confers the highest risk for stroke compared with the other CHA<sub>2</sub>DS<sub>2</sub>-VASc variables<sup>25</sup>. Patients on insulin regimens had approximately a 2.5-fold higher risk of stroke when compared to diabetic patients that do not require insulin. This could be related to the duration of the disease and lack of adequate glucose control, rather than the use of insulin itself<sup>26</sup>.

Atrial failure might be a late manifestation of a long-duration atrial disease that could be secondary to structural remodeling induced by T2DM which increases the risk of stroke rather than AF as an isolated entity<sup>27</sup>. The fact that rhythm control does not

Figure 1. Representation of pathophysiological mechanisms linking T2DM with AF.



ACEIs: Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, ARBs: Angiotensin II receptor blockers.

modify the risk of stroke supports this theory<sup>28</sup>. T2DM is a highly consistent independent factor for stroke, because of its relation with atrial remodeling and systemic prothrombotic state. These multiple independent factors could explain why T2DM represents a robust predictor for reduced survival<sup>29-33</sup>.

### PARTICULARITIES OF NONVALVULAR ATRIAL FIBRILLATION TREATMENT IN PATIENTS WITH TYPE 2 DIABETES MELLITUS

Stroke is a serious outcome of AF, so sinus rhythm maintenance is nowadays considered the best therapeutic option to reduce the risk of this complication. Although antiarrhythmic drugs have not shown promising results in patients with or without T2DM, catheter ablation seems to be an adequate approach as it provides significant clinical benefits and has been demonstrated to reduce the recurrence of AF<sup>8,34</sup>.

Regarding treatment modalities for AF in Mexico, the Registro Mexicano de Fibrilación Auricular or Mexican

Registry of AF (ReMeFa) compared the outcome of subjects with AF treated with either rhythm control or rate control. Data demonstrated that patients treated with rate control strategies were older than those managed with rhythm control,  $68 \pm 13$  versus  $64 \pm 14$  years old, respectively; and were more likely to be diagnosed with non-paroxysmal AF (91%), heart valve disease (42%), congestive heart failure (25%), and T2DM (25%). After a year of follow-up, stroke appeared in 3% of the rate control-managed patients and 1% of those treated with rhythm control<sup>35</sup>.

On the other hand, concerning the anticoagulation treatment in Latin Americans with AF, the GLORIA-AF registry aimed to determine the safety and efficacy of dabigatran in patients with NVAF. Latin American population included were 44.6% female, and the average age was 69.6 years; paroxysmal AF was present in 43.8%, persistent AF in 34.7%, and 21.5% had permanent AF. The mean CHA<sub>2</sub>DS<sub>2</sub>-VASc was  $3.2 \pm 1.5$  and a HAS-BLED score, a tool for bleeding risk assessment, was  $1.2 \pm 0.9$ . The final analysis showed a low rate of ischemic stroke and adverse reactions associated with anticoagulation treatment with dabigatran<sup>36</sup>.

The analysis reported by the CARMEN-AF registry showed that 16.4% of patients were not receiving antithrombotic treatment, 19.4% had treatment with antiplatelet medication, 34.6% were receiving direct oral anticoagulants (DOACs), and 29.2% received vitamin K antagonists (VKA). Gender was not associated with treatment modalities. Notably, older age was associated with a lack of treatment and use of antiplatelet medication, and VKA use had an inverse relation with age. DOACs prescription was equal among age groups. Antithrombotic therapy selection was also influenced by the type of AF (VKA were more commonly prescribed in patients with permanent AF) and a worrying number of high-risk patients were not treated optimally<sup>14</sup>.

VKA (acenocoumarin or warfarin) achieves adequate anticoagulation, but its unpredictable pharmacokinetics and narrow therapeutic index result in the need for constant monitoring of INR and drug–drug or drug–food interaction<sup>37</sup>. T2DM is associated with increased INR variations, even though there are no reports on safety concerns<sup>38</sup>. It is essential to point out that Latin American patients are at higher risk of presenting intracranial hemorrhage and death when treated with warfarin when compared with other populations<sup>39</sup>. At the same time, the former group is also less likely to achieve adequate INR control (understood as presenting inadequate INR values) and longer INR test intervals<sup>40</sup>.

DOACs have shown excellent results as an alternative option to VKA. DOACs exhibit more predictable pharmacokinetics and anticoagulation, along with faster action on and offset, shorter plasma half-life, and a reduced need for monitoring. Many randomized trials have demonstrated that DOACs are equally effective as VKAs. Besides, studies showed that patients with T2DM on rivaroxaban (an oral factor X inhibitor) had a lower incidence of limb amputations and less need for endovascular revascularization when compared to warfarin users, without an increase in the risk of major bleeding<sup>41,42</sup>. Dabigatran (an oral factor IIa inhibitor) reduced the number of bleeding events associated with warfarin without an increment of ischemic events<sup>43</sup>.

Another advantage of DOACs is their lack of interaction with anti-diabetic agents and the increased adherence due to fixed-dose regimen<sup>44</sup>. DOACs appear

to have multiple elimination pathways, which decreases the likelihood of drug–drug interactions. Therefore, anti-diabetic medication should not be suspended if DOACs regimen is started<sup>24,45</sup>.

It is important to mention that, both older age and kidney disease (a highly prevalent entity in diabetic patients) should be taken into consideration when starting anticoagulation therapy with DOACs. An individualized approach should be adopted after weighing the risks and benefits in these groups of patients. Modification of either the dosing regimen or the use of specific drugs must be considered in special populations to avoid the risks from overcoming the benefits<sup>46</sup>. The anticoagulation dose should be reduced in older adults and in patients with kidney disease. Regarding end-stage kidney disease, apixaban appears to be the preferred DOAC, although recent evidence suggests that patients with AF undergoing hemodialysis do not benefit from the use of DOACs<sup>47,48</sup>. Some studies report optimal treatment in < 60% of the high-risk population<sup>49</sup>.

## CONCLUSION

The increasing incidences of T2DM and AF explain the coexistence of both conditions with a higher risk for stroke in a significant number of patients. In the Mexican population the more frequent risk factors for AF are hypertension, T2DM, heart failure, and smoking, meanwhile T2DM and age >65 years confer the highest risk for stroke. Indeed, diabetes increases the risk of developing AF by 35–60%. The analysis of the CARMEN-AF registry showed that 16.4% of patients were not receiving antithrombotic treatment, 19.4% had treatment with antiplatelet medication, 34.6% were receiving DOACs, and 29.2% received VKA. Although DOACs offer a safe treatment profile in most studies, including Latin American population, a significant number of patients are not treated properly and therefore have an increased risk of stroke, which has raised a red flag, considering the high CHA<sub>2</sub>DS<sub>2</sub>-VASc score of this population.

## REFERENCES

1. Meza R, Barrientos-Gutierrez T, Rojas-Martinez R, Reynoso-Noverón N, Palacio-Mejia LS, Lazcano-Ponce E, et al. Burden of Type 2 diabetes in Mexico: past, current and future prevalence and incidence rates. *Prev Med*. 2015;81:445–50.

2. Alegre-Díaz J, Herrington W, López-Cervantes M, Gnatuci L, Ramirez R, Hill M, et al. Diabetes and cause-specific mortality in Mexico city. *N Engl J Med.* 2016;375:1961-71.
3. Narváez LM. Principales Causas de Muerte de la Población en México 2020. Mexico: Consejo Nacional de Población; 2020. Available from: [https://www.gob.mx/cms/uploads/attachment/file/792299/CM2020\\_MAYORES\\_60\\_ANIOS\\_OK.pdf](https://www.gob.mx/cms/uploads/attachment/file/792299/CM2020_MAYORES_60_ANIOS_OK.pdf)
4. Levaillant M, Lièvre G, Baert G. Ending diabetes in Mexico. *Lancet.* 2019;394:467-8.
5. Bello-Chavolla OY, Rojas-Martinez R, Aguilar-Salinas CA, Hernández-Avila M. Epidemiology of diabetes mellitus in Mexico. *Crit Rev Nutr.* 2017;75:4-12.
6. Alcocer L. Challenges and treatment for stroke prophylaxis in patients with atrial fibrillation in Mexico: a review. *Am J Cardiovasc Drugs.* 2016;16:171-82.
7. Briere JB, Bowrin K, Wood R, Holbrook T, Roberts J. The cost of warfarin treatment for stroke prevention in patients with non-valvular atrial fibrillation in Mexico from a collective perspective. *J Med Econ.* 2017;20:266-72.
8. Tadic M, Cuspidi C. Type 2 diabetes mellitus and atrial fibrillation: from mechanisms to clinical practice. *Arch Cardiovasc Dis.* 2015;108:269-76.
9. Wang A, Green JB, Halperin JL, Piccini JP. Atrial fibrillation and diabetes mellitus: JACC review topic of the week. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2019;74:1107-15.
10. Bell DS, Goncalves E. Atrial fibrillation and Type 2 diabetes: prevalence, etiology, patho-physiology and effect of anti-diabetic therapies. *Diabetes Obes Metab.* 2019;21:210-7.
11. Aune D, Schlesinger S, Neuenschwander M, Feng T, Janszky I, Norat T, et al. Diabetes mellitus, blood glucose and the risk of heart failure: a systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis.* 2018;28:1081-91.
12. Mužović N, Potpara TS. Predicting incident atrial fibrillation in patients with diabetes mellitus. *Int J Cardiol.* 2018;269:194-5.
13. González-Hermosillo JA, Márquez MF, Ocampo-Peña S. Diseño de un registro de fibrilación auricular y riesgo embólico en México: CARMEN-AF. *Arch Cardiol Mex.* 2017;87:5-12.
14. Márquez MF, Baños-González MA, Guevara-Valdivia ME, Vázquez-Acosta J, de los Ríos Ibarra MO, Aguilar-Linares JA, et al. Anticoagulation therapy by age and embolic risk for nonvalvular atrial fibrillation in Mexico, an upper-middle-income country: the CARMEN-AF registry. *Glob Heart.* 2020;15:32.
15. González-Hermosillo JA, Baños-González MA, Guevara-Valdivia ME, Vázquez-Acosta JA, de los Ríos Ibarra MO, Aguilar-Linares KA, et al. Gender differences and management of stroke risk of nonvalvular atrial fibrillation in an upper middle-income country: insights from the CARMEN-AF registry. *Int J Cardiol Heart Vasc.* 2019;22:117-22.
16. Rodríguez-Reyes H, Laguna-Muñoz CI, Gallegos-De Luna CF, De-Los-Ríos-Ibarra MO, Salas-Pacheco JL, Leyva-Pons JL, et al. Atrial fibrillation in Mexican population: differences in presentation, comorbidities and risk factors between men and women. *Arch Cardiol Mex.* 2022;92:349-57.
17. Karam BS, Chavez-Moreno A, Koh W, Akar JG, Akar FG. Oxidative stress and inflammation as central mediators of atrial fibrillation in obesity and diabetes. *Cardiovasc Diabetol.* 2017;16:17-20.
18. Tan ES, Tay WT, Teng TH, Richards AM, Doughty RN, Lam CS. The diabetes-atrial fibrillation paradox. *Heart.* 2019;105:893.
19. Goudis CA, Korantzopoulos P, Ntalas IV, Kallergis EM, Liu T, Ketikoglou DG. Diabetes mellitus and atrial fibrillation: pathophysiological mechanisms and potential upstream therapies. *Int J Cardiol.* 2015;184:617-22.
20. Packer M. Disease-treatment interactions in the management of patients with obesity and diabetes who have atrial fibrillation: the potential mediating influence of epicardial adipose tissue. *Cardiovasc Diabetol.* 2019;18:121.
21. Granger CB, Mahaffey KW. Preventing atrial fibrillation with treatments for diabetes mellitus. *Circulation.* 2020;141:1235-7.
22. Yurista SR, Silljé HH, Rienstra M, de Boer RA, Westenbrink BD. Sodium-glucose co-transporter 2 inhibition as a mitochondrial therapy for atrial fibrillation in patients with diabetes? *Cardiovasc Diabetol.* 2020;19:5.
23. Polina I, Jansen HJ, Li T, Moghtadaei M, Bohne LJ, Liu Y, et al. Loss of insulin signaling may contribute to atrial fibrillation and atrial electrical remodeling in Type 1 diabetes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 2020;117:7990-8000.
24. Plitt A, McGuire DK, Giugliano RP. Atrial fibrillation, Type 2 diabetes, and non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulants: a review. *JAMA Cardiol.* 2017;2:442-8.
25. Decker JJ, Norby FL, Rooney MR, Soliman EZ, Lutsey PL, Pankow JS, et al. Metabolic syndrome and risk of ischemic stroke in atrial fibrillation: ARIC study. *Stroke.* 2019;50:3045-50.
26. Piccini JP, Granger CB. Insulin therapy and stroke risk in patients with diabetes and atrial fibrillation: guilty by association? *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2017;69:420-2.
27. Bisbal F, Baranchuk A, Braunwald E, de Luna AB, Bayés-Genis A. Atrial failure as a clinical entity: JACC review topic of the week. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2020;75:222-32.
28. Packer M. HFpEF is the substrate for stroke in obesity and diabetes independent of atrial fibrillation. *JACC Heart Fail.* 2020;8:35-42.
29. Li YG, Lip GY. Stroke prevention in atrial fibrillation: state of the art. *Int J Cardiol.* 2019;287:201-9.
30. Hart RG, Pearce LA, Albers GW, Connolly SJ, Friday GH, Gage BF, et al. Independent predictors of stroke in patients with atrial fibrillation: a systematic review. *Neurology.* 2007;69:546-54.
31. Schütt K, Müller-Wieland D, Marx N. Diabetes mellitus and the heart. *Exp Clin Endocrinol Diabetes.* 2019;127:S102-4.
32. Patlolla SH, Lee HC, Noseworthy PA, Wysokinski WE, Hodge DO, Greene EL, et al. Impact of diabetes mellitus on stroke and survival in patients with atrial fibrillation. *Am J Cardiol.* 2020;131:33-9.
33. Ugowe FE, Jackson LR, Thomas KL. Atrial fibrillation and diabetes mellitus: can we modify stroke risk through glycemic control? *Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol.* 2019;12:e007351.
34. Forleo GB, Mantica M, De Luca L, Leo R, Santini L, Panigada S, et al. Catheter ablation of atrial fibrillation in patients with diabetes mellitus Type 2: results from a randomized study comparing pulmonary vein isolation versus antiarrhythmic drug therapy. *J Cardiovasc Electrophysiol.* 2009;20:22-8.
35. Lara-Vaca S, Cordero-Cabra A, Martínez-Flores E, Iturralde-Torres P. Registro Mexicano de fibrilación auricular (ReMeFa). *Gac Med Mex.* 2014;150(Suppl 1):48-59.
36. Koziet M, Mazurek M, Teutsch C, Diener HC, Dubner SJ, Halperin JL, et al. Persistence with anticoagulation for atrial fibrillation: report from the GLORIA-AF phase III 1-year follow-up. *J Clin Med.* 2020;9:1969.
37. Vallakati A, Lewis WR. Underuse of anticoagulation in patients with atrial fibrillation. *Postgrad Med.* 2016;128:191-200.
38. Prádavková D, Samoš M, Bolek T, Škorňová I, Žolková J, Kubisz P, et al. Type 2 diabetes, atrial fibrillation, and direct oral anti-coagulation. *J Diabetes Res.* 2019;2019:5158308.
39. Corbalán R, Nicolau JC, López-Sendon J, García-Castillo A, Botero R, Sotomora G, et al. Edoxaban versus warfarin in Latin American patients with atrial fibrillation: the ENGAGE AF-TIMI 48 trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2018;72:1466-75.
40. Singer DE, Hellkamp AS, Piccini JP, Mahaffey KW, Lohknygina Y, Pan G, et al. Impact of global geographic region on time in therapeutic range on warfarin anticoagulant therapy: data from the ROCKET AF clinical trial. *J Am Heart Assoc.* 2013;2:e000067.
41. Baker WL, Beyer-Westendorf J, Bunz TJ, Eriksson D, Meinecke AK, Sood NA, et al. Effectiveness and safety of rivaroxaban and warfarin for prevention of major adverse cardio-vascular or limb events in patients with non-valvular atrial fibrillation and Type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Obes Metab.* 2019;21:2107-14.
42. Halperin JL, Hankey GJ, Wojdyla DM, Piccini JP, Lohknygina Y, Patel MR, et al. Efficacy and safety of rivaroxaban compared with warfarin among elderly patients with nonvalvular atrial fibrillation in the rivaroxaban once daily, oral, direct factor Xa inhibition compared with vitamin K antagonism for prevention of stroke and embolism trial in atrial fibrillation (ROCKET AF). *Circulation.* 2014;130:138-46.
43. Maeng M, Steg PG, Bhatt DL, Hohnloser SH, Nordaby M, Miede C, et al. Dabigatran du-al therapy versus warfarin triple therapy post-PCI in patients with atrial fibrillation and diabetes. *JACC Cardiovasc Interv.* 2019;12:2346-55.
44. Hsu CC, Hsu PF, Sung SH, Tu ST, Yu BH, Huang CJ, et al. Is there a preferred stroke prevention strategy for diabetic patients with non-valvular atrial fibrillation? Comparing warfarin, dabigatran and rivaroxaban. *Thromb Haemost.* 2018;118:72-81.
45. Pomero F, Dentali F, Mumoli N, Salomone P, Tangianu F, Desideri G, et al. The continuous challenge of antithrombotic strategies in diabetes: focus on direct oral anticoagulants. *Acta Diabetol.* 2019;56:1247-58.
46. Henrard S, Vandenabeele C, Marien S, Boland B, Dalleur O. Underuse of anticoagulation in older patients with atrial fibrillation and chads2 score  $\geq 2$ : are we doing better since the marketing of direct oral anticoagulants? *Drugs Aging.* 2017;34:841-50.
47. Hai JJ, Tse HF. Patients with atrial fibrillation and diabetes: does apixaban remain the drug of choice? *Eur Heart J Cardiovasc Pharmacother.* 2015;1:95-6.

48. Kuno T, Takagi H, Ando T, Sugiyama T, Miyashita S, Valentini N, et al. Oral anticoagulation for patients with atrial fibrillation on long-term hemodialysis. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2020;75:273-85.

49. Ogilvie IM, Newton N, Welner SA, Cowell W, Lip GYH. Underuse of oral anticoagulants in atrial fibrillation: a systematic review. *Am J Med.* 2010;123:638-45.

50. American Diabetes Association Professional Practice Committee. 4. Comprehensive medical evaluation and assessment of comorbidities: standards of medical care in diabetes-2022. *Diabetes Care.* 2022;45(Suppl 1):S46-59.

51. Morley JE, Abbatecola AM, Woo J. Management of comorbidities in older persons with Type 2 diabetes. *J Am Med Dir Assoc.* 2017;18:639-45.

52. Zhao JB, Frøkjær JB, Drewes AM, Ejskjaer N. Upper gastrointestinal sensory-motor dysfunction in diabetes mellitus. *World J Gastroenterol.* 2006;12:2846-57.

53. Alrefai H, Allababidi H, Levy S, Levy J. The endocrine system in diabetes mellitus. *Endocrine.* 2002;18:105-19.

54. Berbudi A, Rahmadika N, Tjahjadi AI, Ruslami R. Type 2 diabetes and its impact on the immune system. *Curr Diabetes Rev.* 2019; 16:442-9.

55. Duff M, Demidova O, Blackburn S, Shubrook J. Cutaneous manifestations of diabetes mellitus. *Clin Diabetes.* 2015; 33:40-8.

56. Dal Canto E, Ceriello A, Rydén L, Ferrini M, Hansen TB, Schnell O, et al. Diabetes as a cardiovascular risk factor: an overview of global trends of macro and microvascular complications. *Eur J Prev Cardiol.* 2019;26:25-32.

57. Lkhagva B, Lee TW, Lin YK, Chen YC, Chung CC, Higa S, et al. Disturbed cardiac metabolism triggers atrial arrhythmogenesis in diabetes mellitus: energy substrate alternate as a potential therapeutic intervention. *Cells.* 2022;11:2915.