

Diabetes: A Subspecialty of Medicine and a Matter of Public Health

Rebecca Baqiyyah Conway 

Anschutz Medical Campus, University of Colorado, Aurora, CO, USA

Correspondence: Rebecca Baqiyyah Conway, University of Colorado, Anschutz Medical Campus, 13001 East 17th Place, Mail Stop B119, Aurora, CO, 80045, USA, Email rebecca.conway@cuanschutz.edu

Shortly after starting my first tenure track faculty position in epidemiology at West Virginia University, I was visiting my previous postdoctoral mentor in diabetes epidemiology at Vanderbilt University Medical Center, the late Dr. Michael E. May, MD, PhD, an endocrinologist and investigator in the landmark Diabetes Control and Complications Trial/Epidemiology of Diabetes and its Interventions Study (DCCT/EDIC), who died earlier this year. We were talking about both the salaries of endocrinologists compared to that of physicians in other branches of medicine (one neurologist had recently told me “there is not a lot of money for just managing people’s blood sugar”) as well as the then current research funding environment. I told him that I had been encouraged to consider cancer research rather than diabetes because the federal government had so much more money in its coffers for cancer research than for diabetes. He was reflective and then said solemnly, “there is not a lot of money for public health”. I thought, that is interesting. I am not a physician but an epidemiologist in a school of public health. He is a practicing endocrinologist and a physician scientist in a school of medicine yet he considers diabetes and diabetes care to be a matter of public health as much as a medical subspecialty per se. Upon reflection, it made sense. Diabetes consistently ranks among the top ten leading causes of death in the United States and as one of the top ten globally,^{1,2} despite the fact that people at least in the United States and other high income Western nations rarely die from acute hyperglycemic or hypoglycemic crises. Yet diabetes is a major cause or contributor to so many other chronic diseases in medicine, including cardiovascular disease, the leading cause of death in the US and globally,² and contributes to many others such as Alzheimer’s, liver disease and cancer.

Overview

In the following, I will argue why diabetes needs to be considered an issue of public health as much as of medical science. Reasons include its high prevalence and economic burden, and the morbidity and disability associated with complications of the disease. Reasons also include the excess mortality due to diabetes, both in relative terms and in absolute number of lives.

Globally, approximately 1 in 9 adults are living with diabetes.³ In addition to the acute complications of the disease, namely hypoglycemic and hyperglycemic crisis, diabetes results in chronic complications affecting most major organs systems, causing considerable morbidity and an increased risk of early mortality for those with the disease. It ranks number 7 globally for years lived with disability⁴ and in 2023, it was a cause of approximately 2 million deaths, or 3.3% of all deaths among all ages, globally.⁵ In 2024, health care costs for treating diabetes exceeded over \$1 trillion USD.

Diabetes, a metabolic disorder of glucose metabolism (or homeostasis) resulting in hyperglycemia, is broadly classified into three major types, type 1 and type 2 diabetes and gestational diabetes, although there are many distinct subtypes within those broad categories. Its causes are many, but in the end shares the features of pancreatic beta cell deficiency, dysfunction and/or failure. Its primary pathophysiological features are hyperglycemia that result in microvascular and macrovascular dysfunction and damage caused by this hyperglycemia, leading to widespread end organ damage. While the two major subtypes of chronic diabetes primarily differ in the initial mechanisms leading to

dysregulation of glucose metabolism, the late-stage end organ complications are similar though they may differ in distribution and in the time course in the natural history of diabetes. Some of those complications are described below.

Diabetic Retinopathy

Diabetic retinopathy is a microvascular complication of the eye characterized by retinal ischemia and microaneurysms, neovascularization in the retina and posterior surface of the vitreous, hemorrhaging of these new blood vessels, hard exudate formation, and tractional retinal detachment. Globally, diabetic retinopathy affects from 17–27% of the population with diabetes,^{6,7} though this number is much higher among those with type 1 diabetes where the majority of those individuals with type 1 diabetes are expected to develop diabetic retinopathy in their lifetimes.^{8–10} The leading risk factors for vision threatening diabetic retinopathy are poorly controlled hyperglycemia, hypertension, and diabetes duration, or, simply stated, the number of years lived with diabetes. Diabetic retinopathy is a leading cause of preventable blindness among working age adults and is the fifth leading cause of blindness in adults globally.¹¹ World-wide, approximately 1.3 million individuals are estimated to be blind from diabetes.¹² Given that hyperglycemia and years lived with diabetes are the strongest risk factors for diabetic retinopathy and its progression, adequate medical management of diabetes could have a major impact on the global burden of blindness.

Diabetic Neuropathy

Diabetic neuropathy, an often debilitating microvascular complication of diabetes, is a cluster of neuropathic syndromes resulting from diffuse and/or focal damage to the nerves supplying the peripheral and autonomic nervous systems. It is arguably the most common of the complications of diabetes and can result in significant morbidity and reduced quality of life, play a role in other end organ complications among persons with diabetes and in their substantially increased mortality rate, particularly for cardiac autonomic neuropathy.

Distal symmetrical polyneuropathy, a length dependent neuropathy, results in both the hyperesthesia of painful neuropathies and the hypoesthesia, ie loss of sensation, resulting from damage to or loss of proprioceptors and nociceptors. While painful diabetic neuropathies, inclusive of both distal symmetrical polyneuropathy and focal neuropathies, affect approximately 47% of the diabetic population,¹³ distal symmetrical polyneuropathy is also a leading contributor to non-traumatic lower extremity amputations among persons with diabetes.¹⁴

Neurologic damage to the autonomic nervous system in particular results in orthostatic hypertension, delayed gastric emptying, bladder dysfunction, constipation, diarrhea, erectile dysfunction, vaginal dryness and painful sexual intercourse for women, anhidrosis, facial and gustatory sweating, hypoglycemia unawareness, sinus tachycardia, orthostatic hypotension, reduced sensation to ischemic pain and thus silent cardiac ischemia, increased risk of myocardial infarction and sudden cardiac death. Diabetic autonomic neuropathy is associated with a greatly reduced quality of life among persons with diabetes. Cardiac autonomic neuropathy in particular, affecting 29–54% of those with type 1 diabetes¹⁵ and 12–73% of those with type 2 diabetes,^{15–17} is associated with a nearly 3-fold increased risk of death compared to persons with diabetes but without cardiac autonomic neuropathy.^{18,19} The leading etiologic factor in cardiac autonomic neuropathy is hyperglycemia; thus, while managing patients' blood sugar may not be lucrative, it may greatly decrease their risk of early mortality.

Neuropathy in diabetes has a particularly strong public health association insofar as it has been shown that it is actually manifest in prediabetes and thus is susceptible to early intervention by life style modification.²⁰

Nephropathy

Globally, nearly 10% of the global population is living with some stage of chronic kidney disease,^{21,22} with over 20% of those cases being diabetic nephropathy.²² It is the leading cause of progression to end stage kidney disease (ESKD), and persons with diabetes account for approximately half of the new ESKD cases. Twenty to 50% of those with type 2 diabetes²³ and by contemporary estimates approximately one-third of those with type 1 diabetes will eventually develop chronic kidney disease (CKD).

Diabetic nephropathy, currently affecting 2% of the global population, is defined as impaired renal function (an eGFR <60 mL/min/1.73 m²) or elevated urinary albumin excretion (albumin/creatinine ≥ 30 or albumin excretion rate ≥ 30 mg/dL) or both. Classically, the progression of diabetic nephropathy was characterized by increasing albuminuria, followed by a decline in kidney function, increased renal impairment and finally ESKD. However, this is not seen universally, as most with microalbuminuria

never progress to macroalbuminuria, many can revert to normoalbuminuria (due in part to effective interventions); and many with CKD do not have any albuminuria. Further, much of the CKD among persons with type 2 diabetes is related to factors that co-occur in type 2 diabetes, such as hypertension and obesity, rather than purely as a consequence of it, suggesting that for many with type 2 diabetes and even for some with type 1 diabetes, CKD is a comorbidity rather than a complication that is part of the natural history of the diabetes.

Due to improvements in treatment and management of diabetes and its comorbidities, the incidence of diabetic nephropathy has declined. It is for this same reason, however, that the prevalence of CKD in diabetes continues to rise as the increased survival rate of persons with diabetes translates into a larger number of individuals living with diabetes - there are over 100 million people living with diabetic nephropathy worldwide.²⁴ While most people with diabetes do not die from end stage kidney disease, underlying kidney disease accounts for much of the excess mortality among persons with diabetes, particularly for those with type 1 diabetes.^{25,26}

Cardiovascular Disease

Cardiovascular disease, inclusive of atherosclerotic heart disease, myocardial infarction, heart failure, stroke, and peripheral vascular disease, is common in diabetes, with prevalence estimates of 13–47% after 30 years of diabetes duration in type 1 diabetes^{27,28} and estimates of approximately 30 to 35% in type 2 diabetes.^{29,30}

While often considered a comorbidity rather than a complication of diabetes, particularly among persons with type 2 diabetes, hyperglycemia, hyperinsulinemia and albuminuria have direct effects of diabetes on the cardiovascular system. Hyperglycemia, for example, induces endothelial dysfunction, and the initiation and progression of the atherosclerotic process in the vasculature. Hyperinsulinemia, also omnipresent in diabetes due to either exogenous insulin in type 1 and type 2 diabetes or hyperproduction on endogenous insulin in type 2 diabetes, activates inflammatory pathways and also contributes to the induction and progression of atherosclerosis. More atherosclerotic vessels and a greater plaque burden within these vessels are observed among those with diabetes. Hyperglycemia in diabetes also contributes to atherosclerotic plaque destabilization by increasing the necrotic core, macrophage infiltration, and collagen deposition in atherosclerotic plaques and reducing the ratio of cap to plaque size in atherosclerotic lesions. The increase in vulnerable atherosclerotic plaques and plaque destabilization translates into an increased risk of myocardial infarctions and strokes among persons with diabetes. Cardiovascular disease risk is increased 2-fold in type 2 diabetes³¹ and 5-to-10-fold in type 1 diabetes.^{32,33} Stroke is increased 50 to 80% in diabetes.³¹

Heart failure, another common comorbidity of diabetes, may also be a consequence of the diabetic milieu. Specifically, the hyperglycemia and oxidative stress induced physiological and structural alterations in the myocardium lead to diabetes induced cardiomyopathy, including left ventricle fibrosis and increased left ventricle stiffness, and subsequent progression to clinical heart failure. Diabetes accounts for 12% of all heart failure in the United States.¹

All other things being equal, diabetes increases the risk of cardiovascular death approximately 2-fold among persons with diabetes,^{31,34} though this varies by diabetes type. There is a roughly 1.5 to 2.5 excess risk among persons with type 2 diabetes^{35,36} and four to eight-fold excess risk among persons with type 1 diabetes,^{37–39} though the excess risk varies by age with a higher excess risk at younger ages,^{37,40} and at least for those with type 2 diabetes, almost no excess risk in the elderly. Cardiovascular disease is the leading cause of death in the general population⁴¹ and is the leading cause of death among persons with diabetes, whether type 1 or type 2 diabetes. Of the 20.5 million cardiovascular deaths in 2021,⁴² over 40% of them were among persons with prediabetes or diabetes and diabetes itself was directly responsible for 1.6 million of these deaths.^{43,44}

Peripheral Vascular Disease/Lower Extremity Arterial Disease

The global prevalence of lower extremity arterial disease (LEAD) ranges from 1.52%–9.7% overall,^{45,46} with persons with diabetes accounting for a substantial number of these cases and for 82%⁴⁷ of LEAD amputations. Peripheral artery disease (PAD), the atherosclerotic vascular manifestation of the lower extremities, and peripheral nerve damage are two complications of diabetes that work together to reduce vascular blood flow and limit sensation in the feet. Due to this limited sensation, individuals with diabetes are particularly susceptible to foot ulcers, which are prevalent in 6.3% of the population with diabetes.⁴⁸ Due to the metabolic milieu of hyperglycemia and poor peripheral vascular circulation in diabetes, these ulcers heal more slowly and can develop into subsequent infections, which can progress to osteomyelitis and necessitate lower-limb amputation if not properly

managed. Diabetes is the leading cause of non-traumatic lower extremity amputations,⁴⁹ with major amputations occurring in 94.82 per 100,000 persons with diabetes annually.⁵⁰

Early Mortality

Finally, individuals with diabetes on average have a decreased lifespan compared to those without diabetes. Diabetes is associated with an approximate two-fold higher mortality rate, though this varies by age and years lived with diabetes, with higher excess mortality rates at younger ages as well as for more years lived with diabetes.^{51–53} It also varies by geographic region and national economic status, with greater excess mortality in middle and low income countries. Persons with insulin treated diabetes diagnosed in childhood or young adulthood, regardless of diabetes type, have been reported to have a 3-to-5-fold excess mortality rate compared to those without diabetes.^{37,38,54} In 2023, it was a cause of approximately 2 million deaths, or 3.3% of all deaths globally.

By the Numbers

So why would that sage mentor, that endocrinologist and diabetologist, housed in a school of medicine where his primary patient and research population were persons with diabetes, say to me the epidemiologist that diabetes is public health rather than what it is, a field of medicine? Perhaps reasons included its high prevalence and economic burden, as well as the fact that in many cases it is preventable. Moreover, the measures that can be taken to promote prevention of the disease and its morbidities include public education and public policy (eg access to affordable health care, promotion of an environment that encourages healthy behaviors, and others).

Simply by the numbers, persons with diabetes represent the one of the largest proportion of preventable blindness cases, approximately half of all cases of neuropathy, and approximately half of all cases of chronic kidney disease and kidney failure. It is the leading cause of non-traumatic lower extremity amputations and is a significant contributor of cardiovascular disease – the leading cause of death globally. Public health is the organized, concerted effort to prevent, eliminate, or mitigate the effects of a disease at the population level. While simply managing patients' blood sugars may not be very lucrative, it may help to reduce the approximately 2 million deaths due to diabetes, 1.5 million deaths due to kidney disease, and the nearly 20 million deaths due to cardiovascular disease annually,⁵⁵ not to mention the morbidity associated with these medical conditions. Treating diabetes, a disease which in many cases is preventable, now exceeds \$1 trillion USD.³ The late Dr. Michael E. May was right: Diabetes is a matter of public health as much as it is a subspecialty of medicine.

Data Sharing Statement

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analyzed in this study.

Acknowledgments

Dr. Michael May's widow, Dr. Estelle May, has given consent and approval for the publication of this manuscript.

Author Contributions

Rebecca Baqiyyah Conway: Conceptualization, Methodology, Resources, Investigation and Writing – review and editing. All authors gave final approval of the version to be published; have agreed on the journal to which the article has been submitted; and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

Funding

No funding was received for this work.

Disclosure

Rebecca Baqiyyah Conway reports grants from National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute and Centers for Disease, Control and Prevention outside the submitted work. The author declares no other competing interests.

References

1. Alam K, Naghavi M, Ong KL, et al. Global burden of 288 causes of death and life expectancy decomposition in 204 countries and territories and 811 subnational locations, 1990-2021: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease study 2021. *Lancet*. 2024;403(10440):2100–2132. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(24)00367-2
2. World Health Organization. *World Health Statistics 2024: Monitoring Health for the Sdgs, Sustainable Development Goals*. World Health Organization; 2024.
3. International Diabetes Federation. *IDF Diabetes Atlas. 11th ed.* 2025.
4. Ferrari AJ, Santomauro DF, Aali A, et al. Global incidence, prevalence, years lived with disability (YLDs), disability-adjusted life-years (DALYs), and healthy life expectancy (HALE) for 371 diseases and injuries in 204 countries and territories and 811 subnational locations, 1990-2021: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease study 2021. *Lancet*. 2024;403(10440):2133–2161. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(24)00757-8
5. Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network. Global Burden of Disease Study 2023; Results Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation. Available from: <https://vizhub.healthdata.org/gbd-results/>. Accessed December 02, 2025.
6. Teo ZL, Tham YC, Yu M, et al. Global prevalence of diabetic retinopathy and projection of burden through 2045: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ophthalmology*. 2021;128(11):1580–1591. doi:10.1016/j.ophtha.2021.04.027
7. Mohammed RM. Global prevalence of diabetic retinopathy (2015-2025): a scoping review. *Res Square*. 2025. doi:10.21203/rs.3.rs-7193356/v1
8. Broe R, Rasmussen ML, Frydkjaer-Olsen U, et al. The 16-year incidence, progression and regression of diabetic retinopathy in a young population-based Danish cohort with type 1 diabetes mellitus: the Danish cohort of pediatric diabetes 1987 (DCPD1987). *Acta Diabetol*. 2014;51(3):413–420. doi:10.1007/s00592-013-0527-1
9. Grauslund J, Green A, Sjølie AK. Prevalence and 25 year incidence of proliferative retinopathy among Danish type 1 diabetic patients. *Diabetologia*. 2009;52(9):1829–1835. doi:10.1007/s00125-009-1450-4
10. Sun JK, Keenan HA, Cavallerano JD, et al. Protection from retinopathy and other complications in patients with type 1 diabetes of extreme duration: the joslin 50-year medalist study. *Diabetes Care*. 2011;34(4):968–974. doi:10.2337/dc10-1675
11. Steinmetz JD, Bourne RRA, Briant PS. Causes of blindness and vision impairment in 2020 and trends over 30 years, and prevalence of avoidable blindness in relation to VISION 2020: the right to sight: an analysis for the global burden of disease study. *Lancet Glob Health*. 2021;9(2):e144–e160. doi:10.1016/s2214-109x(20)30489-7
12. Meng Y, Liu Y, Ma Y, et al. Global, regional, and national burden of blindness due to diabetic retinopathy, 1990-2021. *Ophthalmol Ther*. 2025;14(10):2599–2615. doi:10.1007/s40123-025-01230-y
13. Tao Y, Zhang HY, MacGilchrist C, Kirwan E, McIntosh C. Prevalence and risk factors of painful diabetic neuropathy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabet Res Clin Pract*. 2025;222:112099. doi:10.1016/j.diabres.2025.112099
14. Sloan G, Selvarajah D, Tesfaye S. Pathogenesis, diagnosis and clinical management of diabetic sensorimotor peripheral neuropathy. *Nat Rev Endocrinol*. 2021;17(7):400–420. doi:10.1038/s41574-021-00496-z
15. Eleftheriadou A, Spallone V, Tahrani AA, Alam U. Cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy in diabetes: an update with a focus on management. *Diabetologia*. 2024;67(12):2611–2625. doi:10.1007/s00125-024-06242-0
16. Ziegler D, Voss A, Rathmann W, et al. Increased prevalence of cardiac autonomic dysfunction at different degrees of glucose intolerance in the general population: the KORA S4 survey. *Diabetologia*. 2015;58(5):1118–1128. doi:10.1007/s00125-015-3534-7
17. Low PA, Benrud-Larson LM, Sletten DM, et al. Autonomic symptoms and diabetic neuropathy: a population-based study. *Diabetes Care*. 2004;27(12):2942–2947. doi:10.2337/diacare.27.12.2942
18. Balcioglu AS, Muderisoglu H. Diabetes and cardiac autonomic neuropathy: clinical manifestations, cardiovascular consequences, diagnosis and treatment. *World J Diabetes*. 2015;6(1):80–91. doi:10.4239/wjd.v6.i1.80
19. Chowdhury M, Nevitt S, Eleftheriadou A, et al. Cardiac autonomic neuropathy and risk of cardiovascular disease and mortality in type 1 and type 2 diabetes: a meta-analysis. *BMJ Open Diabetes Res Care*. 2021;9(2):e002480. doi:10.1136/bmjdr-2021-002480
20. Riahi R, Seindareh S, Aminorroaya A, Ghasemi M, Mehvari J, Maracy MR. The relationship between prediabetes and peripheral neuropathy-A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Neurol*. 2025;32(7):e70283. doi:10.1111/ene.70283
21. Bikbov B, Purcell CA, Levey AS. Global, regional, and national burden of chronic kidney disease, 1990-2017: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease study 2017. *Lancet*. 2020;395(10225):709–733. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(20)30045-3
22. Wang H, Fan K, Ning Y, et al. Hypertension and BMI as mediators of Type 2 diabetes-induced CKD: insights from an integrative multi-database study. *Diabetes Metab Syndr Obes*. 2025;18:3343–3361. doi:10.2147/dms0.S538554
23. Fenta ET, Eshetu HB, Kebede N, et al. Prevalence and predictors of chronic kidney disease among type 2 diabetic patients worldwide, systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabetol Metab Syndr*. 2023;15(1):245. doi:10.1186/s13098-023-01202-x
24. Zhang L, Jiang L, Xu R, Zhang X, Zhang B, Yue R. Epidemiological research on diabetic nephropathy at global, regional, and national levels from 1990 to 2021: an analysis derived from the global burden of disease 2021 study. *Front Endocrinol*. 2025;16:1647064. doi:10.3389/fendo.2025.1647064
25. Groop PH, Thomas M, Feodoroff M, Forsblom C, Harjutsalo V. Excess mortality in patients with Type 1 diabetes without albuminuria-separating the contribution of early and late risks. *Diabetes Care*. 2018;41(4):748–754. doi:10.2337/dc17-1618
26. Orchard TJ, Secrest AM, Miller RG, Costacou T. In the absence of renal disease, 20 year mortality risk in type 1 diabetes is comparable to that of the general population: a report from the Pittsburgh epidemiology of diabetes complications study. *Diabetologia*. 2010;53(11):2312–2319. doi:10.1007/s00125-010-1860-3
27. Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT)/Epidemiology of Diabetes Interventions and Complications (EDIC) Study Research Group. Intensive diabetes treatment and cardiovascular outcomes in Type 1 diabetes: the DCCT/EDIC study 30-year follow-up. *Diabetes Care*. 2016;39(5):686–693. doi:10.2337/dc15-1990
28. Miller RG, Orchard TJ, Costacou T. 30-year cardiovascular disease in Type 1 diabetes: risk and risk factors differ by long-term patterns of glycemic control. *Diabetes Care*. 2022;45(1):142–150. doi:10.2337/dc21-1381
29. Einarson TR, Acs A, Ludwig C, Panton UH. Prevalence of cardiovascular disease in type 2 diabetes: a systematic literature review of scientific evidence from across the world in 2007-2017. *Cardiovasc Diabetol*. 2018;17(1):83. doi:10.1186/s12933-018-0728-6

30. Mosenzon O, Alguwaihes A, Leon JLA, et al. CAPTURE: a multinational, cross-sectional study of cardiovascular disease prevalence in adults with type 2 diabetes across 13 countries. *Cardiovasc Diabetol*. 2021;20(1):154. doi:10.1186/s12933-021-01344-0
31. Sarwar N, Gao P, Seshasai SR, et al. Diabetes mellitus, fasting blood glucose concentration, and risk of vascular disease: a collaborative meta-analysis of 102 prospective studies. *Lancet*. 2010;375(9733):2215–2222. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(10)60484-9
32. Cai X, Li J, Cai W, et al. Meta-analysis of type 1 diabetes mellitus and risk of cardiovascular disease. *J Diabetes Complications*. 2021;35(4):107833. doi:10.1016/j.jdiacomp.2020.107833
33. Rawshani A, Rawshani A, Franzén S, et al. Mortality and cardiovascular disease in Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2017;376(15):1407–1418. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1608664
34. Vetrone LM, Zaccardi F, Webb DR, et al. Cardiovascular and mortality events in type 2 diabetes cardiovascular outcomes trials: a systematic review with trend analysis. *Acta Diabetol*. 2019;56(3):331–339. doi:10.1007/s00592-018-1253-5
35. Conway BN, May ME, Fischl A, Frisbee J, Han X, Blot WJ. Cause-specific mortality by race in low-income black and white people with Type 2 diabetes. *Diabet Med*. 2015;32(1):33–41. doi:10.1111/dme.12563
36. Magnussen C, Ojeda FM, Leong DP, et al. Global effect of modifiable risk factors on cardiovascular disease and mortality. *N Engl J Med*. 2023;389(14):1273–1285. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2206916
37. Rawshani A, Sattar N, Franzén S, et al. Excess mortality and cardiovascular disease in young adults with type 1 diabetes in relation to age at onset: a nationwide, register-based cohort study. *Lancet*. 2018;392(10146):477–486. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(18)31506-x
38. Conway BN, Lopes-Virella MF, Blot WJ. Late adulthood mortality among African-American and white American people with Type 1 diabetes according to age at diabetes diagnosis. *Diabet Med*. 2018;35(6):729–736. doi:10.1111/dme.13617
39. Hallström S, Wijkman MO, Ludvigsson J, et al. Risk factors, mortality trends and cardiovascular diseases in people with Type 1 diabetes and controls: a Swedish observational cohort study. *Lancet Reg Health Eur*. 2022;21:100469. doi:10.1016/j.lanepe.2022.100469
40. Rosengren A, Dikaoui P. Cardiovascular outcomes in type 1 and type 2 diabetes. *Diabetologia*. 2023;66(3):425–437. doi:10.1007/s00125-022-05857-5
41. Roth GA; GBD Collaborators. Global, regional, and national burden of cardiovascular diseases and risk factors in 204 countries and territories, 1990–2023. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2025. doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2025.08.015
42. Lindstrom M, DeCleene N, Dorsey H, et al. Global burden of cardiovascular diseases and risks collaboration, 1990–2021. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2022;80(25):2372–2425. doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2022.11.001
43. Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network. Global burden of disease study 2021; Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation. Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation. Available from: <https://vizhub.healthdata.org/gbd-results/>. Accessed December 02, 2025.
44. World Health Organization. Diabetes. World Health Organization; 2025. Available from: <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/diabetes>. Accessed October 31, 2025.
45. Kim MS, Hwang J, Yon DK. Global burden of peripheral artery disease and its risk factors, 1990–2019: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease study 2019. *Lancet Glob Health*. 2023;11(10):e1553–e1565. doi:10.1016/s2214-109x(23)00355-8
46. Adou C, Magne J, Gazere N, Aouida M, Chastaingt L, Aboyans V. Global epidemiology of lower extremity artery disease in the 21st century (2000–21): a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Prev Cardiol*. 2024;31(7):803–811. doi:10.1093/eurjpc/zwad381
47. Hussain MA, Al-Omran M, Salata K, et al. Population-based secular trends in lower-extremity amputation for diabetes and peripheral artery disease. *Cmaj*. 2019;191(35):E955–e961. doi:10.1503/cmaj.190134
48. Zhang P, Lu J, Jing Y, Tang S, Zhu D, Bi Y. Global epidemiology of diabetic foot ulceration: a systematic review and meta-analysis (†). *Ann Med*. 2017;49(2):106–116. doi:10.1080/07853890.2016.1231932
49. Armstrong DG, Tan TW, Boulton AJM, Bus SA. Diabetic foot ulcers: a review. *JAMA*. 2023;330(1):62–75. doi:10.1001/jama.2023.10578
50. Ezzatvar Y, García-Hermoso A. Global estimates of diabetes-related amputations incidence in 2010–2020: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabet Res Clin Pract*. 2023;195:110194. doi:10.1016/j.diabres.2022.110194
51. Wang B, Fu Y, Tan X, Wang N, Qi L, Lu Y. Assessing the impact of type 2 diabetes on mortality and life expectancy according to the number of risk factor targets achieved: an observational study. *BMC Med*. 2024;22(1):114. doi:10.1186/s12916-024-03343-w
52. Tancredi M, Rosengren A, Svensson AM, et al. Excess mortality among persons with Type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2015;373(18):1720–1732. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1504347
53. Nichols GA, Déruaz-Luyet A, Brodovicz KG, Kimes TM, Rosales AG, Hauske SJ. Kidney disease progression and all-cause mortality across estimated glomerular filtration rate and albuminuria categories among patients with vs. without type 2 diabetes. *BMC Nephrol*. 2020;21(1):167. doi:10.1186/s12882-020-01792-y
54. Conway BN, May ME, Signorello LB, Blot WJ. Mortality experience of a low-income population with young-onset diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2012;35(3):542–548. doi:10.2337/dc11-1385
55. IHME GBoDwmpbOWid. “Deaths from diabetes” [dataset]. IHME, global burden of disease, “Global Burden of Disease - Deaths and DALYs” [original data]. 2025. Available from: <https://archive.ourworldindata.org/20250909-093708/grapher/deaths-from-diabetes.html>. Accessed October 31, 2025.

Diabetes, Metabolic Syndrome and Obesity

Publish your work in this journal

Diabetes, Metabolic Syndrome and Obesity is an international, peer-reviewed open-access journal committed to the rapid publication of the latest laboratory and clinical findings in the fields of diabetes, metabolic syndrome and obesity research. Original research, review, case reports, hypothesis formation, expert opinion and commentaries are all considered for publication. The manuscript management system is completely online and includes a very quick and fair peer-review system, which is all easy to use. Visit <http://www.dovepress.com/testimonials.php> to read real quotes from published authors.

Submit your manuscript here: <https://www.dovepress.com/diabetes-metabolic-syndrome-and-obesity-journal>

Dovepress
Taylor & Francis Group