

REVIEW

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Roles of non-coding RNA in diabetic cardiomyopathy

Xi Yao^{1†}, Xinyue Huang^{2†}, Jianghua Chen¹, Weiqiang Lin^{2*} and Jingyan Tian^{3,4*}

Abstract

In recent years, the incidence of diabetes has been increasing rapidly, posing a serious threat to human health. Diabetic cardiomyopathy (DCM) is characterized by cardiomyocyte hypertrophy, myocardial fibrosis, apoptosis, ventricular remodeling, and cardiac dysfunction in individuals with diabetes, ultimately leading to heart failure and mortality. However, the underlying mechanisms contributing to DCM remain incompletely understood. With advancements in molecular biology technology, accumulating evidence has shown that numerous non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) crucial roles in the development and progression of DCM. This review aims to summarize recent studies on the involvement of three types of ncRNAs (micro RNA, long ncRNA and circular RNA) in the pathophysiology of DCM, with the goal of providing innovative strategies for the prevention and treatment of DCM.

Keywords Non-coding RNA, Diabetic cardiomyopathy, Pathogenesis

Introduction

Diabetic cardiomyopathy (DCM) is a type of diabetic heart disease with abnormal myocardial structure and function in diabetic patients without other cardiovascular diseases (such as coronary heart disease, hypertension, severe valvular disease, and congenital heart disease) [1, 2]. Individuals with type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) are estimated to face a 75% higher risk of cardiovascular mortality or hospitalization for heart failure compared with patients without diabetes [3]. The underlying mechanisms of DCM, which encompass altered metabolism, mitochondrial dysfunction, oxidative stress, inflammation, cardiac fibrosis, cell death, and extracellular matrix remodeling, have not been fully elucidated and remain subject to debate [4]. Disruption in energy substrate utilization [5–7], calcium and sodium homeostasis disorder [8–10], insulin resistance [11, 12], potential involvement of epicardial fat [13–16], and endothelial dysfunction [17–19] are believed to contribute to the onset and progression of DCM.

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Non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) are highly functional and dynamic nucleic acids that do not encode proteins. They include RNAs with specific functions, such as rRNAs, tRNAs, snRNAs, snoRNAs, and microRNAs (miRNAs), as well as RNAs with unknown functions. Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) and circular RNAs (circRNAs) are the novel members of non-coding RNA family, but their functions and regulatory mechanisms are still not fully understood. Accumulating evidence indicates that ncRNAs play a crucial role in the regulation of endothelial cells, vascular and smooth muscle cells, cardiac metabolism, ischemia and inflammation. This indicates that ncRNAs hold significant potential in the diagnosis, evaluation, and treatment of DCM.

MicroRNAs

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are highly conserved, single-stranded ncRNAs typically consisting of 20–22 nucleotides. The typical functionality of miRNAs is to negatively regulate gene expression by binding to target mRNA, leading to either mRNA degradation or inhibition of translation [20]. MiRNAs play diverse roles encompassing cardiac hypertrophy, cardiomyocyte apoptosis, autophagy and pyroptosis, myocardial fibrosis, oxidative stress, and other pathophysiological processes, Figs. 1 and 2 [21–24]. The expression pattern of miRNAs during DCM were revealed in 2011. Since then, there have been

continuous studies on the role of miRNAs in the development and progression of DCM.

Cardiac hypertrophy

Multiple miRNAs have been identified to modulate cardiac hypertrophy and fibrosis in DCM. Anti-hypertrophic miRNAs, such as miR-1 [25], miR-133a [26], miR-373 [27], miR-181a [28], miR-150 [22], miR-30c [29], miR-378a [30], miR-29a [31] and miR-200c [32]. Pro-hypertrophic miRNAs include miR-208a [33], miR-451 [34], miR-214, miR-212 [35], miR-221 [36], miR-195, miR-125b [37] and miR-199a [38]. For instance, miR-1, a muscle-specific miRNA, attenuates cardiomyocyte hypertrophy by negatively regulating calcium signaling components calmodulin, Gata4 and Mef2a [39]. Overexpression of miR-133a has been shown to prevent hypertrophic changes in DCM by downregulating the serum and glucocorticoid-regulated kinase 1 (SGK1), IGF1R1 and myocyte-specific enhancer factor 2C (MEF2C) [26]. Additionally, miR-373 influences MEF2C signaling, a key transcription factor for myocardial hypertrophy and mediates cardiac fibrosis through activation of the p300 gene [27]. MiR-181a and miR-30c could synergistically regulate the p53–p21 pathway in diabetes-induced cardiac hypertrophy [28]. MiR-208a promotes cardiac hypertrophy by inhibiting myostatin, GATA4, and β -myosin heavy chain (MHC) expression [33]. Kuwabara et al. [34] demonstrated that miR-451 could suppress the

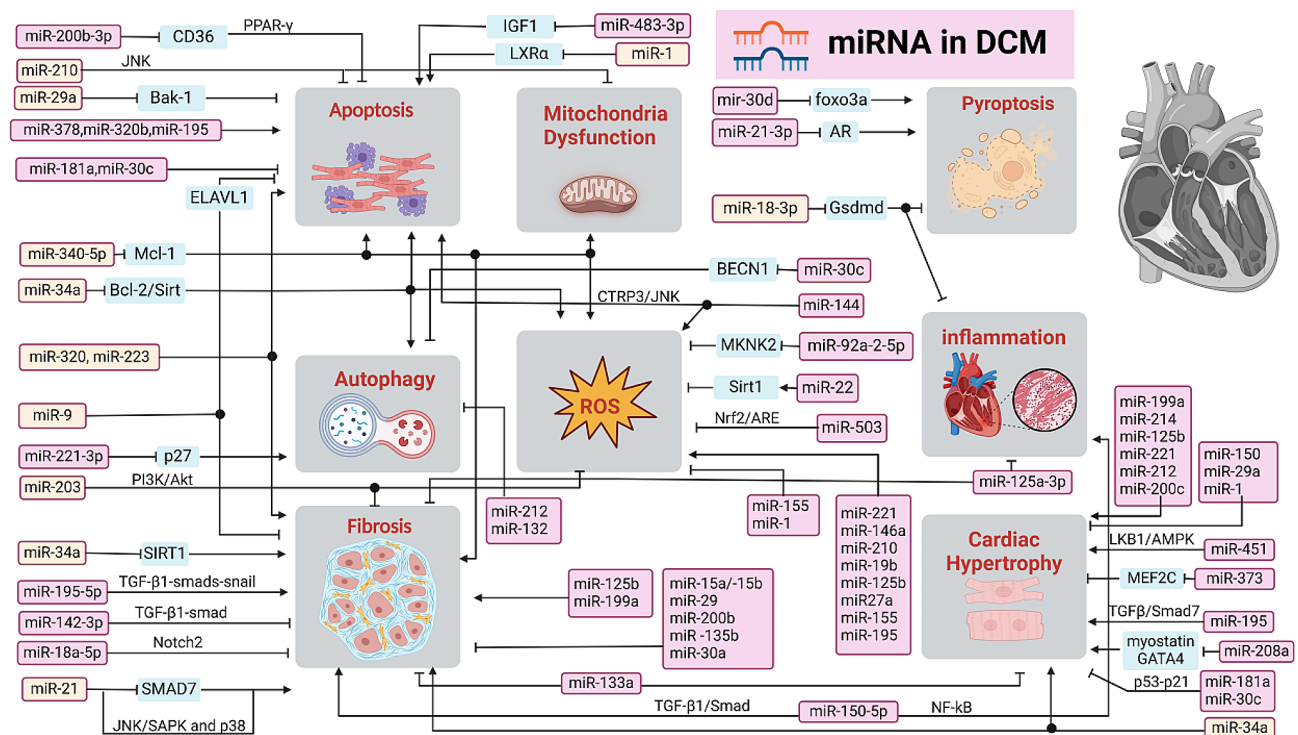


Fig. 1 Functional miRNAs promote or inhibit cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis, ROS, mitochondria dysfunction and cell death in the pathology of diabetic cardiomyopathy

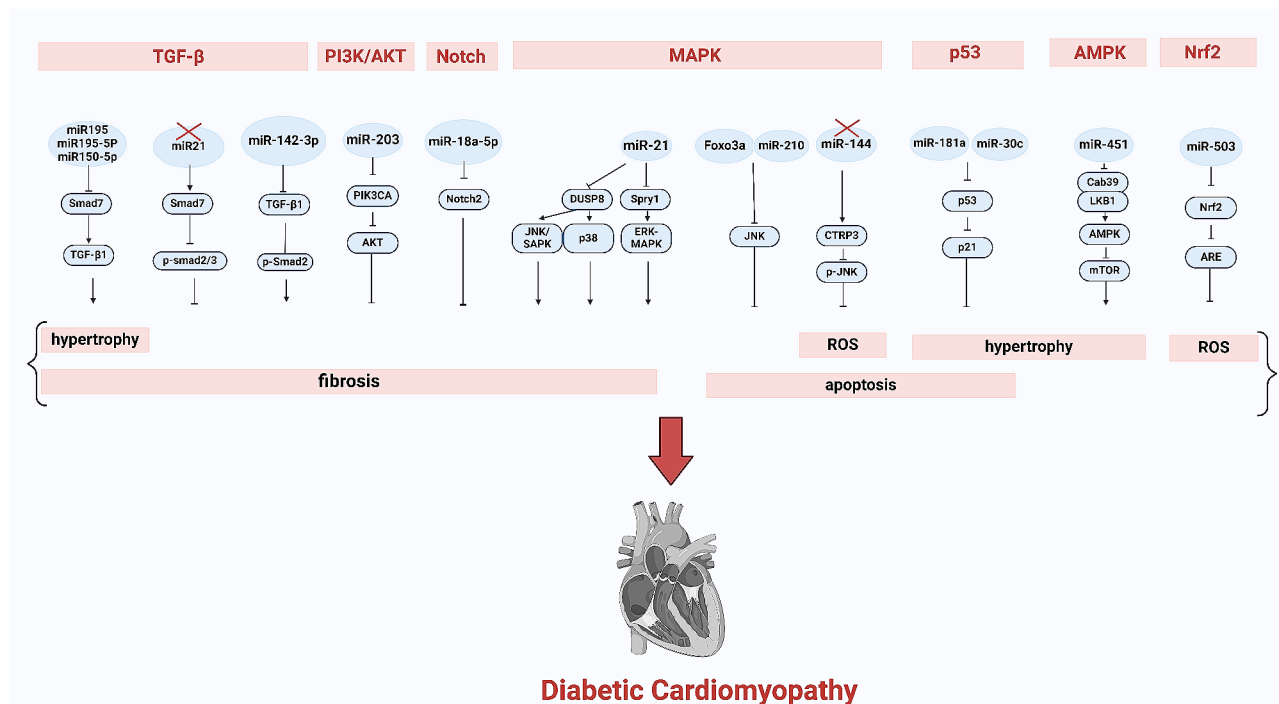


Fig. 2 MiRNA regulate fibrosis through TGF- β , PI3K/AKT, Notch, and MAPK signaling pathways, and apoptosis through MAPK and p53. P53, AMPK and TGF- β also mediate the role of miRNAs in cardiac hypertrophy. While Nrf2 signaling pathways is the key in ROS

LKB1/AMPK pathway in cardiac hypertrophy induced by diabetes. Biao *et al.* [40] reported that miR-195 accelerates cardiomyocyte hypertrophy *in vitro* induced by high-glucose through downregulating the expression of Smad7 and modulating TGF- β /Smad pathways. Moreover, the endothelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EndMT) is a key driver of cardiac fibrosis and plays an important role in the pathogenesis of DCM. Ding *et al.* [41] reported that silencing miR-195-5p inhibits the TGF- β 1-smads-snail pathway by targeting Smad7, thereby attenuating EndMT and reducing myocardial fibrosis in DCM.

Myocardial fibrosis

Myocardial fibrosis stands out as a prominent pathological characteristic of DCM, and its regulation involves various miRNAs such as miR-34a, miR-150-5p, miR-18a-5p, miR-30, miR-199 [38], miR-135b [42], miR-133a [23], miR-125b, miR-200b [43], miR-320 [44], miR-15a/b [45], miR-21 [46], miR-29 [47] and so on. For instance, research by Bernardo *et al.* [48] highlighted the involvement of miR-34a in cardiac fibroblasts exposed to high glucose, showing its ability to enhance collagen synthesis through decreasing the level of sirtuin 1 (SIRT1) [49, 50]. Che *et al.* [51] indicated that inhibiting miR-150-5p could ameliorate NF- κ B-related inflammation and TGF- β 1/Smad-induced cardiac fibrosis through targeting Smad7. Li *et al.* [52] showed that the miR-21 inhibition decreased cardiac perivascular fibrosis by suppressing EndMT and upregulating Smad7 while activating p-Smad2 and

p-Smad3. Additionally, inhibition of miR-21 could reduce fibrosis via blocking the activation of the p38 signaling pathway [46, 53]. MiR-18a-5p was found to downregulate Notch2 expression, thereby suppressing EndMT in human aortic valvular endothelial cells exposed to high glucose [54]. Zhu *et al.* [55] demonstrated that miR-142-3p could attenuate high glucose-induced EndMT in primary human aortic endothelial cells (HAECs), possibly through blocking the TGF- β 1/Smad signaling pathway. In addition, Yang *et al.* [56] showed that the miR-203 may function as a cardioprotective regulator in DCM, as its up-regulation could reduce myocardial hypertrophy, myocardial fibrosis, myocardial apoptosis by targeting PIK3CA via inactivation of PI3K/Akt signaling pathway.

Mitochondrial damage and oxidative stress

Mitochondrial damage and the accumulation of excessive reactive oxygen species (ROS), including reduced oxygen (O_2) metabolites, superoxide anion (O_2^-), hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot OH$) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), are recognized as significant molecular and cellular mechanisms contributing to cardiac dysfunction and cardiomyopathy in diabetic individuals. Various miRNAs such as miR-340-5p, miR-92a-2-5p, miR-1 [39], miR-22, miR-144, miR-195 [57], miR-200c, miR-221 [36], miR-146a, miR-34a [58], miR-210, miR-19b, miR-125b, miR-155, miR-27a and miR-503 [35] have been implicated in the regulation of hyperglycaemia-induced oxidative stress. For instance, Zhu *et al.* indicated that overexpression of miR-340-5p

[59] in cardiomyocytes led to increased mitochondrial functional loss, oxidative stress, and cardiomyocyte apoptosis in diabetic mice by targeting myeloid cell leukemia 1 (Mcl-1). Yu et al. [60] observed that decreased miR-92a-2-5p expression was also detected in high glucose-induced cardiomyocytes. Overexpression of miR-92a-2-5p ameliorated cardiomyocyte oxidative stress injury, by inhibiting MKNK2 expression and leading to decreased phosphorylation of p38-mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling. Overexpression of miR-22 was shown to attenuate oxidative stress by upregulating Sirt 1 in DCM [61]. Furthermore, Yu et al. found that downregulation of miR-144 protected against diabetes-induced cardiac oxidative damage by directly targeting nuclear factor-erythroid 2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) [62]. Members of miR-200 family such as the miR-200a, and miR-200c play a crucial role in oxidative stress in cardiovascular complications of diabetes. MiR-200c was shown to enhance COX-2 expression in endothelial cells by suppressing ZEB1 expression, promoting prostaglandin E2 production, and thereby reducing endothelium-dependent relaxation [63]. Additionally, Miao et al. demonstrated that upregulated expression of miR-503 in DCM was associated with the protective effects of Phase II Enzyme Inducer CPDT via the nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2/anti-oxidant response elements (Nrf2/ARE) signaling pathway, a key anti-oxidant signaling pathway [64, 65].

Cell death

Apoptosis, autophagy, necrosis and pyroptosis are four pathways resulting in cell death, playing important roles in the pathological progression of DCM. Several miRNAs, including miR-1, miR-30, miR-483-3p, miR-144, miR-21 [66, 67], miR-210, miR-212 [68], miR-200b-3p, miR-195, miR-320b, miR-133, miR-221 [36], miR-320 [69], miR-378 [70], miR-34a [71], miR-29 [47], miR-181a [28], have been associated with cell death. For example, the miR-30 family is one of the most abundant miRNAs in the heart, comprising miR-30a, miR-30b, miR-30c, miR-30d and miR-30e, participates in DCM through a variety of mechanisms, including autophagy, apoptosis, oxidative stress, and inflammation [72, 73]. Enforced expression of miR-30a or miR-30b can inhibit apoptosis induced by hydrogen peroxide, by influencing p53 translation [74]. Conversely, upregulation of miR-30d in DCM has been linked to promoting cardiomyocyte pyroptosis, leading to enhanced proinflammatory cytokines IL-1 β and IL-18, as well as caspase-1. In addition, microRNA-30d could regulate cardiomyocyte pyroptosis by directly targeting foxo3a in DCM [24]. Qiao et al. found that miR-483-3p [75] was upregulated in streptozotocin-induced diabetic mice, promoting myocardial cell apoptosis by transcriptionally repressing insulin growth factor 1

(IGF1). Furthermore, repression of miR-144 decreased the protein levels of Bax. It phosphorylated c-Jun amino-terminal kinase (p-JNK) promoted cell proliferation and reduced apoptosis of cardiomyocytes treated with high glucose through targeting the CTRP3/JNK signaling pathway [76]. Moreover, Lin et al. demonstrated that miR-210 [77] repression facilitates advanced glycation end-product (AGE)-induced cardiac mitochondrial dysfunction and apoptosis through JNK activation. On the other hand, low expression of miR-200b-3p in DCM was associated with increased cardiocyte apoptosis, and its overexpression could reduce apoptosis by targeting the CD36/PPAR- γ signaling pathway [78]. Upregulation of miR-195 was reported to lead to cardiomyocyte apoptosis. Zheng et al. revealed that the knockdown of miR-195 could inhibit myocardial hypertrophy in diabetes by preventing cardiomyocyte apoptosis in cardiac endothelial cells in response to non-esterified fatty acid (NEFA) such as palmitate [57]. Additionally, Tang et al. reported that enforced expression of miR-22 could attenuate oxidative injury by upregulating Sirt 1 in diabetic cardiomyopathy [61]. These findings underscore the intricate regulatory roles of miRNAs in modulating cell death pathways and their implications for the pathogenesis of DCM.

lncRNAs

lncRNAs were the heterogeneous RNA transcripts, which are longer than 200 nucleotides, and have many epigenetic regulation forms, including DNA methylation, histone modification and regulation of miRNA [79, 80]. lncRNAs play essential roles in multiple biological processes, such as chromatin structural changes, transcriptional regulation, post-transcriptional processing, intracellular trafficking, and regulation of enzyme activity [81, 82]. Recently, growing evidence has suggested that lncRNAs can actively participate in the pathogenesis of diverse cardiovascular diseases, including DCM, Fig. 3.

Cardiac hypertrophy and myocardial fibrosis

Myocardial fibrosis is a critical pathological change observed in DCM. Feng et al. [83] reported increased lncRNA DCRF expression and induced autophagy in cardiomyocytes in high glucose-induced rats. Knockdown of DCRF was found to reduce cardiomyocyte autophagy, attenuate myocardial fibrosis and improve cardiac function in diabetic rats by targeting miR-551b-5p. In another study, Liu et al. [84] indicated that lncRNA NORAD was upregulated in diabetic and DCM mice. Silencing NORAD expression could reduce inflammatory responses, and improve cardiac function and fibrosis in DCM mice via the ceRNA network of NORAD/miR-125a-3p/Fyn. Moreover, Qi et al. [85] demonstrated that high glucose-induced lncRNA MIAT upregulation was responsible for Interleukin-17 (IL-17) production in

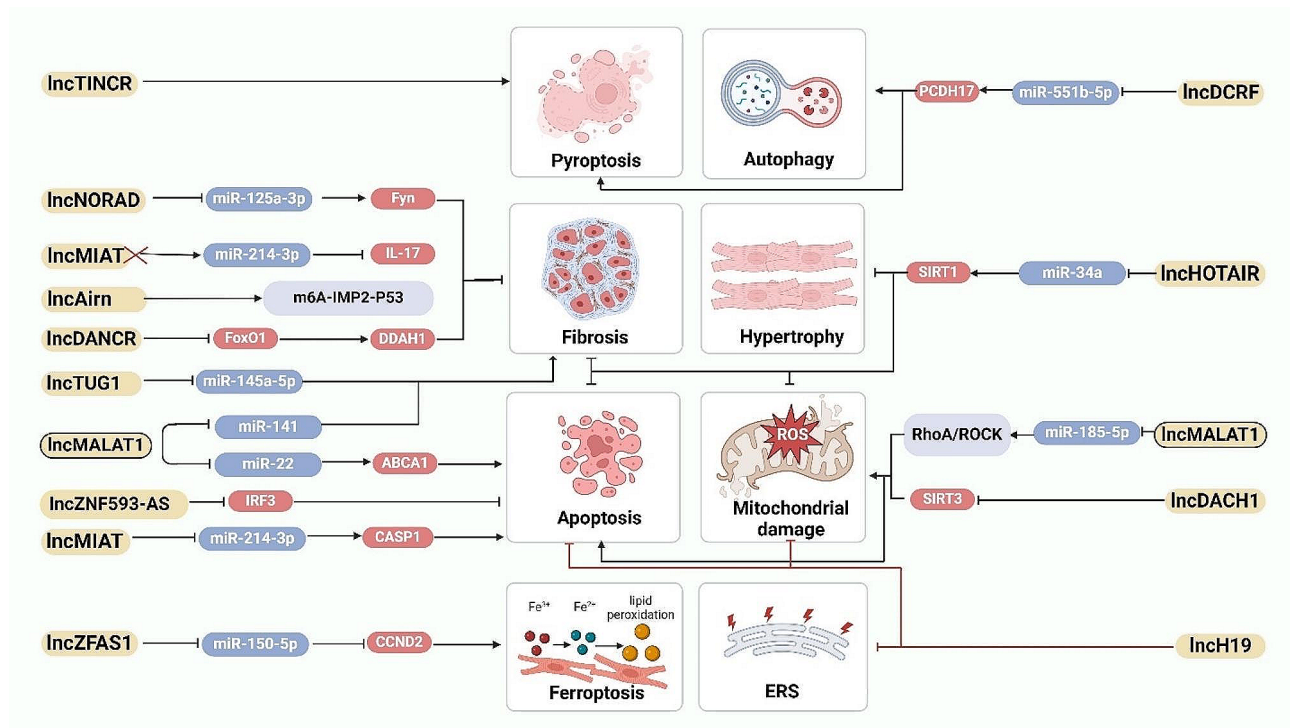


Fig. 3 Involvement of lncRNA in the pathogenesis of diabetic cardiomyopathy

cardiomyocytes, which was a pro-inflammatory cytokine and a key regulator of host inflammation. Knockdown of MIAT could significantly attenuate IL-17 expression, ameliorate cardiac fibrosis and improve cardiac contractility. Recent research has also highlighted the involvement of lncRNA Airn in the progression of cardiac fibroblasts in DCM, demonstrating its ability to alleviate diabetic cardiac fibrosis via a m6A-IMP2-p53 axis [86]. EndMT was induced by high glucose and drove to cardiac fibrosis. LncRNA DANCR could markedly attenuate high glucose-mediated EndMT *in vitro* by inhibiting the activation of FoxO1 and increasing the expression of DDAH1 [87]. Moreover, Wang et al. revealed that lncRNA TUG1 was upregulated in diabetic mice exposed to high glucose, TUG1 overexpression promoted myocardial fibrosis by suppressing the expression of microRNA-145a-5p [88]. These studies underscore the intricate regulatory roles of various lncRNAs in modulating myocardial fibrosis and cardiac function in the context of DCM.

Mitochondrial damage and oxidative stress

Mitochondrial damage and oxidative stress have a significant involvement in the progression of DCM. Recent research has highlighted the upregulation of lncRNA DACH1 in DCM hearts and high glucose-treated cardiomyocytes. DACH1 aggravates DCM by promoting mitochondrial oxidative stress, cell apoptosis, cardiac fibrosis and hypertrophy via increasing ubiquitination-mediated SIRT3 degradation in mice's hearts [89]. In a study

by Gao et al. [50], it was found that lncRNA HOTAIR expression was significantly decreased in diabetic mice hearts. Knockdown of HOTAIR in high glucose-induced H9c2 cells resulted in increased oxidative injury. HOTAIR could protect against DCM via activating of the Sirtuin 1(SIRT1) expression by sponging miR-34a [90]. Additionally, lncRNA MALAT1 was significantly upregulated in the myocardium of diabetic mice and high glucose-induced cardiomyocytes, mediated oxidative stress, mitochondrial damage and apoptosis through activating the RhoA/ROCK pathway via sponging miR-185-5p. LncRNA H19 is a key lncRNA in DCM, which produces a 2.3-kb non-coding mRNA and is conserved via matrarchal evolution [91]. Wang et al. demonstrated that H19 repressed oxidative stress, endoplasmic reticulum stress (ERS) and apoptosis *in vitro*, furthermore, it reduced cardiomyocytes apoptosis and improved fibrosis *in vivo* through PI3K/AKT/mTOR signaling pathway [92].

Cell death

Some lncRNAs have been identified to be correlated with cardiomyocyte apoptosis, pyroptosis, ferroptosis and autophagy during the process of DCM. For instance, lncRNAs MALAT1 not only has been implicated in mitochondrial injury, but also participated in cardiomyocyte apoptosis. Zhang et al. [93] reported that Down-regulation of lncRNA MALAT1 could reduce cardiomyocyte apoptosis and improve left ventricular function in diabetic rats. Furthermore, Wang Chong and colleagues [94]

found that MALAT1 recruited the histone methyltransferase EZH2 to the promoter region of miR-22, thereby inhibiting its expression. EZH2, in turn, upregulated the expression of ATP-binding cassette transporter A1 (ABCA1), a known target gene of miR-22. Knockdown of EZH2 was found to enhance cardiac function and prevent cardiomyocyte apoptosis in db/db mice and mouse cardiomyocytes cultured in high glucose conditions in the presence of MALAT1. MALAT1 was involved in the processes of cardiac function and cardiomyocyte apoptosis via the EZH2/miR-22/ABCA1 signaling cascade. lncRNA TINCR participated in pyroptosis in DCM progression, which positively regulated NLRP3 by increasing its mRNA stability, downregulating TINCR could suppress pyroptosis and DCM [95]. Recently, Xie et al. indicated that lncRNA ZNF593-AS directly interacted with the functional domain of interferon regulatory factor 3 (IRF3), thereby inhibiting the fatty acid-induced phosphorylation and activation of IRF3. This interaction ultimately led to mitigation of cardiac cell death and inflammation in DCM [96]. Moreover, lncRNA MIAT was demonstrated to be involved in the progression of cell death in DCM. Xiao et al. [97] reported that MIAT played a vital role in regulating pyroptosis in DCM via targeting miR-214-3p. Zhou et al. [98] indicated that MIAT knockdown could reduce DAPK2 expression by increasing miR-22-3p, and inhibit apoptosis in cardiomyocytes exposed to high glucose. Ferroptosis is an iron-dependent regulated necrosis associated with a new form

of regulatory cell death [99]. Ni et al. [100] showed that inhibition of lncRNA ZFAS1 could alleviate the development of DCM by reducing ferroptosis via stabilizing miR-150-5p to activate CCND2. Interactions of ncRNA are also involved in cardiomyocyte apoptosis. The interaction among NORAD, miRNA-150-5p and ZEB1 has been clarified to influence the proliferation and apoptosis in HG-induced AC16 cells [101].

Circular RNAs

CircRNAs are produced from precursor mRNAs by the back-splicing of exons in eukaryotes and are widely expressed in a tissue-specific and developmental stage-specific pattern. However, knowledge of these species has remained limited due to their difficult study through traditional methods of RNA analysis [21, 102]. CircRNAs differ from linear RNAs in that they are circular molecules with covalently closed loop structures, which are involved in a wide range of biological processes, the expression disorder of circRNAs might lead to abnormal cellular functions and disease. CircRNAs may inhibit the translation of mRNAs, altering gene expression by regulating splicing or transcription and by interacting with RNA-binding proteins [103]. However, the regulation of circRNAs in cardiovascular diseases remains largely unexplored Fig. 4.

Compared with miRNAs and lncRNAs, the understanding of circRNAs in the molecular mechanisms of DCM is still needs to be improved. Yuan et al. revealed

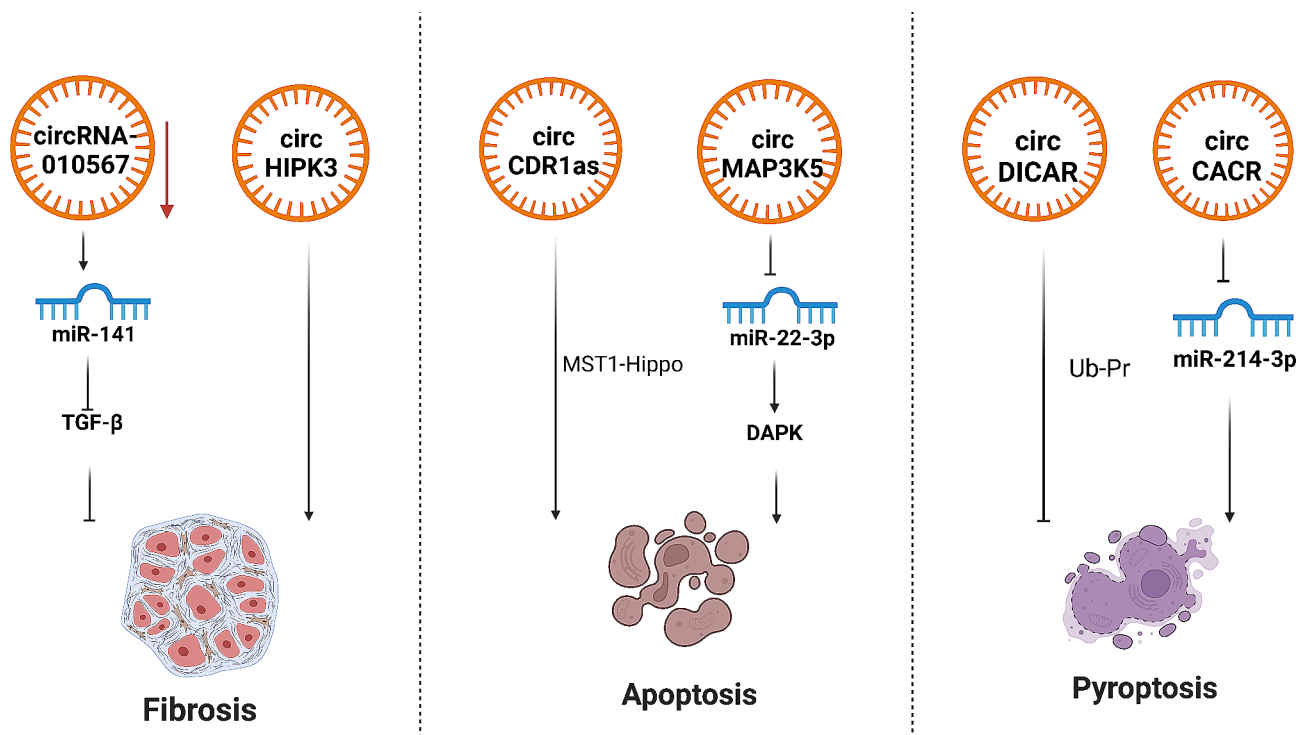


Fig. 4 The role of circRNA in the pathogenesis of diabetic cardiomyopathy

that circRNA DICAR was downregulated in diabetic mice hearts and was associated with cardiac dysfunction, cardiac cell hypertrophy, and cardiac fibrosis [104]. Yang et al. showed the involvement of another circRNA in the regulation of diabetic myocardial fibrosis. They found that circRNA-0076631 was increased both in high glucose-induced cardiomyocytes and in the serum of diabetic patients, modulated miR-214-3p and its target gene caspase-1 and mediated fibrosis-associated protein resection [105]. Zhou et al. reported that circRNA-010567 sponged miR-141 and upregulated target gene TGF- β 1, mediated fibrosis-associated protein resection in the diabetic mice myocardial fibrosis model. Silencing the expression of circRNA-010567 could suppress fibrosis-associated protein resection, including Col I, Col III and α -SMA in the regulation of diabetic myocardial fibrosis [106]. CircRNA homeodomain interacting protein kinase 3 (circHIPK3) is a particularly abundant circRNA involved in metabolic dysregulation and tumorigenesis [107–109]. Wang et al. found that circHIPK3 was upregulated in a DCM model of streptozotocin (STZ)-induced diabetic mice [110]. CircHIPK3 increased the expression of fibrosis-associated genes, such as COL1A2, COL3A1 and α -SMA, via sponging miR-29b-3p in AngII-induced mouse myocardium [111]. Knockdown of circHIPK3 could ameliorate myocardial fibrosis and improve cardiac function *in vivo*, while decreasing the proliferation of CFs treated with Ang II via miR-29b-3p/Col1a1-Col3a1 *in vitro*. circRNA circular cerebellar degeneration-related protein 1 antisense (circCDR1as) is degraded by sponging miR-671 via protein Argonaute 2 [112]. CircCDR1as was upregulated in DCM hearts of STZ-induced diabetic mice, which promoted cardiomyocyte apoptosis through activating the MST1-Hippo pathway *in vivo* and in HG-treated primary cardiomyocytes. Knocking down CDR1as inhibited cardiomyocyte apoptosis in DCM [113]. Recently, a novel circRNA mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 5 (circMAP3K5) was found to regulate apoptosis of cardiomyocytes in DCM. Shen et al. indicated that circMAP3K5 upregulated in high glucose-induced H9c2 cardiomyocytes, accelerated cardiomyocytes apoptosis through the miR-22-3p/death-associated protein kinase 2 (DAPK2) axis [114]. Fu et al. found that circ-0071269 was significantly over-expressed in H9c2 cells upon treatment with high glucose. Circ_0071269 could promote the development of DCM through the miR-145/GSDMA axis. Knockdown of circ_0071269 promoted cell viability and inhibited the inflammatory response, cytotoxicity, and pyroptosis of H9c2 cells *in vitro* [115].

Clinical application

NcRNAs are involved in the development and progression of DCM, presenting in the blood are extremely stable and can be potentially used as diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers for cardiovascular diseases, consequently allowing early intervention. Furthermore, ncRNAs are modulating various biological pathways, suggesting that these molecules may be harnessed as a novel therapeutic strategy in treating DCM.

Vildagliptin is an oral hypoglycemic drug that reduces hyperglycemia in T2DM. Li et al. reported that vildagliptin could enhance cardiac function in type 2 diabetic mice by restoring autophagy and alleviated fibrosis through the miR-21/SPRY1/ERK/mTOR pathway [66]. Melatonin is a hormone produced by the pineal gland, and it has extensive beneficial effects on various tissues and organs. Che et al. showed that melatonin administration significantly ameliorated cardiac dysfunction and reduced collagen production via inhibiting lncRNA MALAT1/miR-141-mediated NLRP3 inflammasome and TGF- β 1/Smads signaling pathway, while the expression of TGF- β 1, p-Smad2, p-Smad3, NLRP3, ASC, cleaved caspase-1, mature IL-1 β , and IL-18 were downregulated in the heart of mice with diabetes mellitus following melatonin treatment [116]. Furthermore, melatonin was reported to alleviate cardiac dysfunction and cardiomyocyte apoptosis in diabetic rats, notably by downregulating lncRNA H19/MAPK and upregulating miR-29c levels [117]. Diallyl trisulfide (DATS) is an anti-oxidant in garlic oil, can inhibit stress-induced cardiac apoptosis and can be used as a cardioprotective agent. Lin et al. found that the DATS could mediate AGE-induced cardiac cell apoptosis attenuation by promoting FoxO3a nuclear transactivation to enhance miR-210 expression and regulate JNK activation [77]. Pomegranate peel extract (PPE) exhibits a cardioprotective effect due to its anti-oxidant and anti-inflammatory properties, which could significantly ameliorate cardiac hypertrophy in diabetic rats and increase the survival rate. The protective effect of PPE on DCM could be due to the inhibition of the NLRP3/caspase-1/IL-1 β signaling pathway and downregulation of lncRNA-MALAT1 [118]. Berberine (BBR) is a natural compound extracted from a Chinese herb (*Rhizoma coptidis*; known as ‘Huang Lian’ in Chinese). It has been traditionally used in Chinese medicine for treating inflammatory disorders and cardiovascular injury induced by diabetes mellitus [119]. Yang et al. indicated that BBR alleviated DCM by inhibiting miR-18a-3p-mediated gasdermin D (Gsdmd) activation [120]. Citronellal (CT), a monoterpenoid natural product extracted from the grass plant *Citronella*, has demonstrated anti-thrombotic, anti-hypertensive and anti-diabetic cardiomyopathy properties. Qiu et al. reported that CT significantly reduced vascular plate area and decreased endothelial lipid and

Table 1 Regulation information of ncRNAs in diabetic cardiomyopathy

ncRNAs	Pathological mechanism
miR-92a-2-5p	ROS
miR-9	Apoptosis, fibrosis
miR-503	ROS
miR-483-3p	Apoptosis
miR-451	Cardiac hypertrophy
miR-378	Apoptosis
miR-373	Cardiac hypertrophy
miR-34a	Apoptosis, autophagy, fibrosis, ROS, cardiac hypertrophy
miR-340-5p	Apoptosis, mitochondria dysfunction, fibrosis, ROS
miR-320b	Apoptosis, fibrosis
miR-30d	Pyroptosis
miR-30c	Autophagy, apoptosis, cardiac hypertrophy
miR-30a	Fibrosis
miR-29a	Cardiac hypertrophy, apoptosis
miR-29	Fibrosis
miR-223	Apoptosis, fibrosis
miR-221-3p	Autophagy
miR-221	Cardiac hypertrophy
miR-22	ROS
miR-214	Cardiac hypertrophy
miR-21-3p	Pyroptosis
miR-212	Cardiac hypertrophy, autophagy
miR-210	Apoptosis, mitochondria dysfunction
miR-21	Fibrosis
miR-208a	Cardiac hypertrophy
miR-203	Fibrosis, ROS
miR-200c	Cardiac hypertrophy
miR-200b-3p	Apoptosis
miR-200b	Fibrosis
miR-199a	Cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis
miR-195-5p	Cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis
miR-195	Apoptosis, fibrosis, cardiac hypertrophy
miR-18a-5p	Fibrosis
miR-18-3p	Pyroptosis, inflammation
miR-181a	Apoptosis, cardiac hypertrophy
miR-15a/-15b	Fibrosis
miR-155	ROS
miR-150-5p	Inflammation, fibrosis, hypertrophy
miR-150	Cardiac hypertrophy
miR-144	ROS, apoptosis
miR-142-3p	Fibrosis
miR-135b	Fibrosis
miR-133a	Cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis
miR-132	Autophagy
miR-125b	Cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis
miR-125a-3p	Inflammation, fibrosis
miR-1	Cardiac hypertrophy, ROS, apoptosis
lncZNF593-AS	Apoptosis
lncZFA51	Ferroptosis
lncTUG1	Fibrosis
lncTINCR	Pyroptosis
lncNORAD	Fibrosis
lncMIAT	Fibrosis, apoptosis

Table 1 (continued)

ncRNAs	Pathological mechanism
lncMALAT1	Fibrosis, apoptosis, mitochondria dysfunction
lncHOTAIR	Hypertrophy, fibrosis, apoptosis, mitochondria dysfunction
lncH19	ERS, apoptosis, mitochondria dysfunction
lncDCRF	Pyroptosis, autophagy
lncDANCR	Fibrosis
lncDACH1	Apoptosis, mitochondria dysfunction
lncAirm	Fibrosis

cholesterol deposition in the common carotid artery of mice. CT upregulated the expression of activated protein 2 α (AP-2 α /TFAP2A) and circRNA_102979 in vascular endothelium. This led to an enhanced binding capability of circRNA_102979 to miR-133a, counteracting the inhibitory effect of miR-133a on target genes. Consequently, this mechanism helped alleviate vascular endothelial injury [121]. Ranolazine, a piperazine derivative approved by the US Food and Drug Administration in 2006 for the treatment of stable angina pectoris, has shown effectiveness in treating cardiovascular disease [122]. Ranolazine increased miR-135b expression in cardiac fibroblasts exposed to high glucose. Furthermore, miR-135b directly interacted with caspase-1. Thereby, ranolazine could reduce pyroptosis, inhibit collagen deposition and improve cardiac function in rats by upregulating miR-135b [42]. Activation of cardiac miR-132 leads to adverse remodeling and pathological hypertrophy. CDR132L, a synthetic antisense oligonucleotide that selectively blocks pathologically elevated miR-132, has shown promising effects on heart failure (HF) in the early stage following myocardial infarction (MI) in phase I/II trials [123–125]. There are many opportunities for further advancement in cardiovascular medicine, particularly in the new therapeutics to target ncRNAs for diabetic DCM, through conducting large-animal studies and phase I/II trials involving humans.

Conclusions

In the present review, we provide an overview of the recent advancements in understanding the role of ncRNAs in the pathogenesis of DCM. Various ncRNAs play crucial roles in regulating cardiomyocyte hypertrophy, myocardial fibrosis, apoptosis and autophagy, oxidative stress and inflammatory response, all of which are key mechanisms associated with DCM, Table 1. With the growing epidemic of diabetes mellitus and its related cardiac complications, the potential of ncRNA as promising attractive biomarkers and therapeutic targets for DCM and heart failure has captured significant attention within the scientific community. The identification and characterizations of ncRNAs and the pathways they influence may pave the way for the development of innovative

treatments to manage or combat diabetic cardiomyopathy in the near future.

Abbreviations

ABCA1	ATP binding cassette subfamily A member 1
OH	Hydroxyl radicals
ABCA1	ATP-binding cassette transporter A1
AGE	Advanced glycation end-product
Akt	Akt kinase
AMPK	AMP-activated protein kinase
AP-2 α	Activated protein 2 α
ARE	Anti-oxidant response elements
ASC	Apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a caspase recruitment domain
Bax	BCL2 associated X, apoptosis regulator
BBR	Berberine
Bcl-2	BCL2 apoptosis regulator
Cab39	Calcium binding protein 39
CASP1	Caspase 1
CCND2	Cyclin D2
CD36	CD36 molecule
circCDR1as	CircRNA circular cerebellar degeneration-related protein 1 antisense (circCDR1as)
circHIPK3	CircRNA homeodomain-interacting protein kinase 3
circMAP3K5	CircRNA mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 5
circRNA	Circular RNA
Col I	Collagen I
Col III	Collagen III
Col1a2	Collagen Type I Alpha 2 Chain
Col3a1	Collagen Type III Alpha 1 Chain
COX-2	Cyclooxygenase-2
CPDT	Phase II Enzyme Inducer
CT	Citronellal
CTRP3	C1QTNF3 C1q and TNF related 3
DAPK2	Death-associated protein kinase 2
DATS	Diallyl trisulfide
DCM	Diabetic cardiomyopathy
DDCH1	Dimethylarginine dimethylaminohydrolase 1
DUSP8	Dual specificity phosphatase 8
ELAVL1	ELAV like RNA binding protein 1
EndMT	Endothelial-to-mesenchymal transition
ERS	Endoplasmic reticulum stress
EZH2	Enhancer of zeste 2 polycomb repressive complex 2 subunit
FoxO1	Forkhead box O1
foxo3a	Forkhead box O3
Fyn	Fyn proto-oncogene
Gata4	GATA binding protein 4
GSDMA	Gasdermin A
Gsdmd	Gasdermin D
H2O2	Hydrogen peroxide
HAECs	Human aortic endothelial cells
IGF1	Insulin like growth factor 1
IL-17	Interleukin-17
IL-18	Interleukin-18
IL-1 β	Interleukin-1 β
IMP2	Insulin-like growth factor 2 mRNA binding protein 2

IGF1	Insulin growth factor 1
IRF3	Interferon regulatory factor 3
LKB1	Liver kinase B1
lncRNA	Long ncRNA
lncRNA DACH1	lncRNA dachshund homolog 1
lncRNA DANCR	lncRNA Differentiation antagonizing nonprotein coding RNA
lncRNA DCRF	lncRNA DCM-related factor
lncRNA HOTAIR	lncRNA HOX transcript antisense RNA
lncRNA MIAT	lncRNA myocardial infarction associated transcript
lncRNA NORAD	lncRNA non-coding RNA activated by DNA damage
lncRNA TINCR	lncRNA terminal differentiation-induced non-coding RNA
lncRNA TUG1	lncRNA taurine-upregulated gene 1
lncRNA ZFAS1	lncRNA zinc finger NFX1-type containing 1 antisense RNA 1
lncRNA ZNF593-AS	lncRNA Zinc Finger Protein 593 AS
lncRNAs MALAT1	lncRNA metastasis associated lung adenocarcinoma transcript 1
LXR α	Liver X receptor α
m6A	N6-methyladenosine
MAPK	Mitogen-activated protein kinase
Mcl-1	Myeloid cell leukemia 1
Mef2a	Myocyte enhancer factor 2A
MEF2C	Myocyte-specific enhancer factor 2C
MHC	Myosin heavy chain
miRNA	Micro RNA
MKNK2	MAPK interacting serine/threonine kinase 2
MST1	Macrophage stimulating 1
mTOR	Mammalian target of rapamycin
ncRNAs	Non-coding RNAs
NEFA	Non-esterified fatty acid
NLRP3	NLR family pyrin domain containing 3
Notch2	Notch receptor 2
Nrf2	Nuclear factor-erythroid 2-related factor 2
O ₂	Oxygen
O ₂ ⁻	Superoxide anion
p21	Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p21
p27	P27 protein
p38	Mitogen-activated protein kinase 14
p53	Tumor suppressor gene p53
PCDH17	Protocadherin 17
PI3K	Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase
PIK3CA	Phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha
p-JNK	Phosphorylated c-Jun amino-terminal kinase
PPAR- γ	Peroxisome proliferator activated receptor gamma
PPE	Pomegranate peel extract
p-Smad2	Phosphorylated SMAD family member 2
p-Smad3	Phosphorylated SMAD family member 3
RhoA	Ras homolog family member A
ROCK	Rho associated coiled-coil containing protein kinase
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
SAPK	Mitogen-activated protein kinase 9
SGK1	Serum and glucocorticoid-regulated kinase 1
SIRT1	Sirtuin 1
SIRT3	Sirtuin 3
Smad7	SMAD family member 7
SPRY1	Sprouty RTK signaling antagonist 1
STZ	Streptozotocin
T2DM	Type 2 diabetes mellitus
TFAP2A	Transcription factor AP-2 alpha
TGF- β	Transforming growth factor beta
ZEB1	Zinc finger E-box binding homeobox 1
α -SMA	α -Smooth muscle actin

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Author contributions

JT and WL contributes to the conception and design of the work; XY and XYH have drafted the work; JT, JC and WL substantively revised it. All authors have approved the submitted version.

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Availability of data and materials

No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

Declarations

Ethical approval and consent to participate

Ethical approval was not applicable for this review.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

Prof Tian is a co-author of this study and an Editorial Board member of the journal. She was not involved in handling this manuscript during the submission and the review processes. The rest of the authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

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