The Metabolic Syndrome and Dyslipidemia Among Asian Indians: A Population With High Rates of Diabetes and Premature Coronary Artery Disease

The metabolic syndrome (MS) is a L complex web of metabolic factors that are associated with a 2-fold risk of cardiovascular disease (CVD) and a 5-fold risk of diabetes (if not already present) within 5 years, with an even higher long-term risk.1 Persons with MS have a 30% to 40% probability of developing diabetes and/or CVD within 20 years, depending on the number of components present.² Presence of MS also predicts unstable lipid-rich plaques and death from premature coronary artery disease (CAD).3-6 Among men 45 years and older and women 55 years and older, the MS confers moderately high risk of CAD (10-year risk of 10%-20%).6 This article reviews the prevalence, criteria, and consequences of MS and the role of dyslipidemia in magnifying the risk from MS among South Asians.

The term South Asian refers to all individuals who have ancestral origin in the Indian subcontinent (India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, and Sri Lanka). The Indian subcontinent is home to 1.4 billion people, constituting 23% of the world's population. All South Asians share the dubious distinction of having the highest rates of premature CAD in the world; they also have high rates of diabetes. Both diabetes and CAD occur about 10 years earlier among South Asians than in any other population.⁷⁻¹⁰ The terms South Asians and Asian Indians will be used interchangeably in this article.

National Cholesterol Education Program vs International Diabetes Federation Criteria

The human body is programmed to cope with fasting and feasting, so the steady excess consumption of food

South Asians have high rates of diabetes and the highest rates of premature coronary artery disease in the world, both occuring about 10 years earlier than in other populations. The metabolic syndrome (MS), which appears to be the antecedent or "common soil" for both of these conditions, is also common among South Asians. Because South Asians develop metabolic abnormalities at a lower body mass index and waist circumference than other groups, conventional criteria underestimate the prevalence of MS by 25% to 50%. The proposed South Asian Modified National Cholesterol Education Program criteria that use abdominal obesity as an obtional component and the South Asian-specific waist circumference recommended by the International Diabetes Federation appear to be more appropriate in this population. Furthermore, Asian Indians have at least double the risk of coronary artery disease than that of whites, even when adjusted for the presence of diabetes and MS. This increased risk appears to be due to South Asian dyslipidemia, which is characterized by high serum levels of apolipoprotein B, lipoprotein (a), and triglycerides and low levels of apolipoprotein A1 and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol. In addition, the HDL particles are small, dense, and dysfunctional. MS needs to be recognized as a looming danger to South Asians and treated with aggressive lifestyle modifications beginning in childhood and at a lower threshold than in other populations. (JCMS. 2007;2:267–275) ©2007 Le Jacq

Enas A. Enas, MD;¹ Vishwanathan Mohan, MD;² Mohan Deepa, MD;² Syed Farooq, MD;² Suraj Pazhoor, MD;¹ Hancy Chennikkara, MD¹ From the Coronary Artery Disease Among Asian Indians Research Foundation, Lisle, IL;¹ and Dr Mohan's Diabetes Specialties Centre & Madras Diabetes Research Foundation, Chennai, India²

Address for correspondence:

Enas A. Enas, MD, Coronary Artery Disease Among Asian Indians Research Foundation, 1935 Green Trails Drive, Lisle, IL 60532 E-mail: cadiusa@msn.com

calories with reduced energy expenditure often leads to visceral fat deposition. Abdominal obesity measured as waist circumference (WC) is a simple and clinically useful measure of visceral fat accumulation, which is one of the driving forces in the development of MS. Although criteria of both the International Diabetes Federation (IDF) and the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) incorporate abdominal obesity as a component of MS, they differ in their emphasis and in the WC cutoff points that define

obesity. Abdominal obesity is an "essential" component according to IDF, but is an "optional" component according to the NCEP. Furthermore, among whites, the cutoff point for WC as designated by the IDF is 8 cm lower than that specified by the NCEP, in both men and women (Table I). 11,12

Thus, the prevalence of abdominal obesity in the US population increases from 40% to 60% in men and from 63% to 82% in women when the IDF WC is substituted for the NCEP WC^{12–14} (Table II). Because 70% of the overall

Danie E. como no	SAM-NCEP	IDE Consumers (see s)	NCEP	WHO CRITERIA	
Risk Factors	(AHA/NHLBI, 2005)	IDF Consensus (2005)	(AHA/NHLBI, 2005)	(1999)	
Obesity/abdominal obesity	South Asians: WC ≥90 cm (M), ≥80 cm (F)	Caucasians: WC ≥94 cm (M), ≥80 cm (F) South Asians: WC ≥90 cm (M), ≥80 cm (F)	Caucasians: WC ≥102 cm (M), ≥88 cm (F)	Caucasians: BMI ≥30 kg/m ² and/or waist-to- hip ratio >0.90 (M), >0.85 (F)	
Blood pressure	≥130/≥85 mm Hg	≥130/≥85 mm Hg	≥130/≥85 mm Hg	≥140/≥90 mm Hg or taking medication	
Fasting glucose	≥5.6 mmol/L or pre- existing diabetes	≥5.6 mmol/L or preex- isting diabetes	≥5.6 mmol/L or preexisting diabetes	Diabetes, impaired glucose toler- ance, or insulin resistance	
Microalbuminuria	Not used for diagnosis	Not used for diagnosis	Not used for diagnosis	Urinary albumin excretion rate ≥20 μg/min	
Triglycerides	≥1.7 mmol/L	≥1.7 mmol/L	≥1.7 mmol/L	Triglycerides ≥1.7 mmol/L and/	
HDL-C	<1.04 mmol/L (M), <1.3 mmol/L (F)	<1.04 mmol/L (M), <1.3 mmol/L (F)	<1.04 mmol/L (M), <1.3 mmol/L (F)	or HDL-C <0.91 mmol/L (M) <1.01 mmol/L (F)	
The metabolic syndrome–definition	At least 3 risk factors	Abdominal obesity plus 2 or more risk factors	At least 3 risk factors	Diabetes, impaired glucose toler- ance, or insulin resistance plus any 2 or more risk factors	

Abbreviations: AHA/NHLBI, American Heart Association/National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Scientific Statement; BMI, body mass index; F, female; HDL-C, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; IDF, International Diabetes Federation; M, male; NCEP, National Cholesterol Education Program; SAM-NCEP, South Asian Modified National Cholesterol Education Program; WC, waist circumference; WHO, World Health Organization. Data from Grundy et al, ¹ Alberti et al, ¹¹ and Cheung et al. ¹²

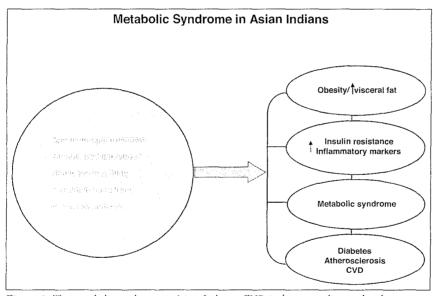


Figure 1. The metabolic syndrome in Asian Indians. CVD indicates cardiovascular disease.

US population has abdominal obesity by IDF criteria, whether abdominal obesity is essential or optional does not significantly affect the prevalence of MS in the US population—34% by NCEP and 40% by IDF criteria.¹⁵

Among Europeans, however, the NCEP criteria markedly underestimate the prevalence of MS. Among the German population, for example, the prevalence of abdominal obesity increases from 21% to 51% in men and from 23% to 45% in women if the IDF WC is substituted for the NCEP WC. The change also results in an increase in the prevalence of MS from 18% to 23% among German men and from 25% to 32% among German women.¹³ In the Chinese population, the prevalence of MS is 31% by the NCEP criteria but

increases to 46% using the IDF criteria. ¹⁶ These data demonstrate the futility of following guidelines made for the US population with other populations without making necessary adjustments for baseline characteristics among the populations. As explained below, both NCEP and IDF criteria appear to markedly underestimate the prevalence of MS among South Asians.

"Asian Indian" or "South Asian" Phenotype

Many Asian Indians fit into the model of metabolically obese, normal weight individuals.¹⁷ This group comprises only 6% of all whites but a substantial segment of Asian Indians. 18 Many Asian Indians develop diabetes and MS with a body mass index (BMI) <25 kg/m², which is generally considered normal among whites. South Asians, in general, and Asian Indians, in particular, have certain unique clinical and biochemical characteristics that are collectively referred to as the "South Asian" or "Asian Indian" phenotype (Figure 1). Compared with whites at comparable BMI and age, Asian Indians have profoundly higher

Table II. Prevalence of Abdominal Obesity by Different Criteria Among Americans, Europeans, South Asians, and Asians Men Women NCEP WC ≥102 cm, % IDF WC ≥94 cm, % NCEP WC ≥88 cm, % IDF WC ≥80 cm, % US American 40 82 60 63 45 German 21 51 23 Urban Asian Indiana 6 39 29 58 3 20 12 32 Rural Asian Indiana Chinese^b 9 52 44 78

Abbreviations: IDF, International Diabetes Federation; NCEP, National Cholesterol Education Program; WC, waist circumference. Data adapted from Assmann et al, ¹³ Deepa et al, ¹⁴ Ford, ¹⁵ He et al, ¹⁶ and Chow et al. ⁴⁹ aWC >90 cm in South Asian men and >80 cm in South Asian women. ^bChinese same as South Asians.

Table III. Prevalence of the Metabolic Syndrome With and Without Abdominal Obesity and by SAM-NCEP Criteria Among Different Populations in Singapore and India

	No Metabolic Syndrome, No. (%)	Metabolic Syndrome With Abdominal Obesity, No. (%)	Metabolic Syndrome Without Abdominal Obesity, No. (%)	Metabolic Syndrome With SAM-NCEP Criteria, No. (%)
Total	3200 (73.8)	766 (17.7)	368 (8.5)	1134 (26.2)
Chinese in Singapore	2017 (79.2)	309 (12.1)	220 (8.6)	529 (23.7)
Malays in Singapore	637 (70.1)	206 (22.7)	66 (7.3)	272 (30)
Asian Indians in Singapore	546 (62.1)	251 (28.6)	82 (9.3)	333 (37.9)
Asians Indians in India (CURES)	1647 (70.1)	607 (25.8)	96 (4.1)	703 (29.9)

Abbreviations: CURES, Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology Study; SAM-NCEP, South Asian Modified National Cholesterol Education Program. Data from Deepa et al¹⁴ and Lee et al.⁴⁵

rates of insulin resistance (measured by glucose clamp studies), diabetes, dyslipidemia, and hypoadiponectinemia; greater WC; thinner hips; short legs; and increased cardiovascular risk. 19,20 For any given WC, they also have increased visceral fat and insulin resistance21,22 that are evident even among children aged 8 to 11 years.²³ For example, South Asian children with a WC of 80 cm have higher insulin levels than white children with a WC of 90 cm. 23 In sharp contrast, at a given level of BMI, blacks have less visceral fat compared with whites.²⁴ Despite a higher BMI among blacks overall, the WC among black men is 4 cm smaller than in white men but 5 cm larger in black women compared with white women.25 In addition, South Asians also have significant procoagulant tendencies as shown by high plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 and fibrinogen concentrations. 26-28 These metabolic abnormalities also contribute to the increased predilection for diabetes and CAD.7 Figure 2 shows an Asian Indian with MS and abdominal obesity.

Differing Criteria for Obesity and Abdominal Obesity Among Asians

Obesity guidelines based on Western populations markedly underestimate the risk among all Asians because Asians have greater body fat at a given BMI.²⁹ The World Health Organization (WHO) has, therefore, issued a lower cutoff point for overweight (BMI >23) and obesity (BMI >25) for all Asians. 11 By this criterion, 95% of South Asian diabetic patients were identified as overweight and 80% were obese in the United Kingdom Asian Diabetes Study (UKADS).30 This study involved 401 South Asian diabetic patients with a mean age of 59 years and a mean duration of diabetes of 8 years.³⁰ Among Taiwanese, one-half of the population is overweight and one-quarter obese by this definition.³¹

Even among whites, substantial risk of premature CAD occurs at a WC of >90 cm and underscores the dangers of abdominal obesity.³² Asians tend to have more metabolic abnormalities at lower WC than whites. The optimum WC among Chinese has been found to

be 80 cm for both men and women³³ and in Asian Indians 85 cm for men and 80 cm for women.³⁴ A more recent study found WC of 87 cm for men and 82 cm for women as appropriate cutoff points to identify cardiometabolic risk factors including prediabetes in urban Asian Indians.³⁵ The WHO and IDF have also issued lower cutoff points for WC for the diagnosis of abdominal obesity for South Asian men (90 cm) and women (80 cm).11 In a study of Asian Indians with a mean age of 22 years living in the United States, the mean WC was 87 cm for men and 79 cm for women.³⁶ Although these values are well within the NCEP WC value cutoff points, they are alarmingly high for this age group by IDF criteria. These values also portend an epidemic of MS and diabetes in the second and third generations of Asian Indians in the United States.

Prevalence of MS Among Asian Indians by NCEP and IDF Criteria

The prevalence of MS among South Asians varies widely depending on the

Table IV. Prevalence of Diabetes and the Metabolic Syndrome in Different Parts of India by Sex Compared With US Population

	Diabetes		THE METABOLIC SYNDROME	
	Male, %	Female, %	Male, %	Female, %
Bangalore	12	9	25	46
Coimbatore	4	8	17	43
Chennai	15	12	37	35
Delhi	13	7	19	32
Dibrugarh	3	2	22	18
Hyderabad	15	12	27	47
Lucknow	13	8	25	33
Nagpur	4	4	15	23
Pune	10	7	13	40
Trivandrum	17	15	32	47
Indian population	8	9	29	46
US population	6	7	43	38



Figure 2. An Asian Indian with "apple-shaped" (android) or abdominal obesity.

criteria used and the countries studied. Among the overseas Indians, the prevalence of MS using NCEP criteria ranges from 12% in Mauritius, to 26% in Canada, to 34% in the United States. ^{37–39} In the United Kingdom, the prevalence of MS is 50% to 100% higher among South Asians than whites. In one study, 29% of South Asian men and 32% of women had MS compared with 18% of white men and 14% of women. ⁴⁰ In another study, the prevalence of MS among South Asians was

28% in men and 38% in women, compared with 20% among both white men and women. ⁴¹

Gupta and colleagues⁴² have reported a prevalence of MS of 25% among urban Asian Indians (18% men and 31% women) using NCEP criteria. The Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology Study (CURES), which evaluated 2350 individuals, reported a prevalence of MS of 25.8% with IDF criteria, 18.3% with NCEP criteria, and 23.2% with WHO criteria.14 However, the concordance among the 3 sets of criteria was very poor; only 30% of the Indian population was identified to have MS by all 3 sets of criteria, unlike more than 93% of the US population.¹⁴ Despite the fact that these 3 sets have most of the components in common, the criteria still appear to misclassify a large number of Asian Indians with respect to presence or absence of MS, underscoring the need for a South Asian-specific criteria for MS.35

South Asian Modified NCEP Criteria for MS

Although NCEP does not provide ethnic-specific cutoff points for WC, the 2005 American Heart Association/National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Scientific Statement on MS endorses the lower WC for all Asian Americans (<90 cm for men and <80 cm for women). We propose for the

first time the South Asian Modified (SAM)-NCEP Criteria which follows the NCEP criteria for MS except for the inclusion of South Asian-specific WC cutoff points for abdominal obesity as recommended by the IDF^{43,44} (Table I). Thus, unlike the IDF criteria, abdominal obesity is considered optional, not essential. Lee and associates⁴⁵ studied the prevalence of MS in the presence and absence of abdominal obesity in a multiethnic Asian population in Singapore. From the population-based cohort study (baseline 1992-1995), 4334 healthy individuals were grouped by the presence or absence of MS and abdominal obesity and followed up for an average of 9.6 years. The prevalence of MS was 17.7% by IDF criteria but increased to 26.2% by the SAM-NCEP criteria. This means 8.5% of the participants had 3 or more MS components in the absence of abdominal obesity when the SAM-NCEP criteria were applied. Thus, designating abdominal obesity as an essential rather than an optional component to diagnose MS would fail to identify a fairly large proportion of individuals with MS. Specifically, prevalence of MS among Asian Indians would increase by 50%. With application of the SAM-NCEP criteria, Asian Indians have higher rates of the MS (37.9%) than Chinese (23.7%) and Malays (30%)^{44,45} (Table III).

The results of this pioneering study also showed that having MS either with or without abdominal obesity conferred similar CAD risk; there were 135 first-time CAD events. Cox's proportional hazards model was used to obtain adjusted hazard ratios for risk of a first-time CAD event. Compared with individuals without MS, those with MS and abdominal obesity were at significantly increased risk of CAD with an adjusted hazard ratio of 2.8 (95% confidence interval [CI], 1.8-4.2). Importantly, those with MS but no abdominal obesity also had an adjusted hazard ratio of 2.5 (95% CI, 1.5-4.0). This study has clearly demonstrated that designating abdominal obesity as an optional rather than essential criterion identifies more individuals at risk of

CAD. Conversely, this study suggests that including abdominal obesity as an essential component for the diagnosis of MS as proposed by IDF fails to identify approximately 50% of those who are at high risk of CAD. A similar 50% increase in MS is noted in other Asian populations when SAM-NCEP criteria are used (19.2% IDF vs 29.2% SAM-NCEP) without any decrease in the odds ratio for CAD. ⁴⁶

Prevalence of MS Among Asian Indians With SAM-NCEP Criteria

Among South Asians, the prevalence of MS is higher by 30% to 50% when SAM-NCEP criteria are applied compared with NCEP criteria and 20% higher compared with IDF criteria. The prevalence of MS for Asian Indians in Singapore increased from 27% with NCEP criteria to 35% with SAM-NCEP criteria. 47 In CURES, the prevalence of MS increased from 18% with NCEP criteria to 30% with SAM-NCEP criteria (V.M., unpublished data, 2007), whereas another study from the same city reported MS prevalence of 41% with criteria very similar to those of SAM-NCEP.48 A recent study from rural Andhra Pradesh, India, involving 4535 adults aged 30 years and older showed a prevalence of MS by NCEP criteria of 26.9% in men and 18.4% in women, which increased to 32.5% and 23.9%, respectively, when SAM-NCEP criteria were applied.⁴⁹ In a large, contemporary, multicenter study involving 19,973 participants in India, the prevalence of MS was 26.6% with NCEP criteria but increased to 35.4% with SAM-NCEP criteria.50 In addition, there was wide regional variation in the prevalence of MS from as low as 13% to as high as 47% (Table IV).

This increase in prevalence of MS in South Asians is in sharp contrast to that of the US population. If abdominal obesity were not a prerequisite, the prevalence of MS with IDF criteria would increase only slightly from 39% to 40%. ¹² It appears that IDF criteria may be more appropriate for Europeans, NCEP for Americans, and SAM-NCEP

Table V. Indian Diabetes Risk Score	
ITEMS	Points
Age, y	
<35	0
35–49	20
≥50	30
Waist circumference, cm	
<80 (women), <90 (men)	0
80–89 (women), 90–99 (men)	10
≥90 (women), ≥100 (men)	20
Physical activity	
Regular vigorous exercise or strenuous (manual) activities at home/work	0
Regular moderate exercise or moderate physical activity at home/work	10
Regular mild exercise or mild physical activity at home/work	20
No exercise and/or sedentary activities at home/work	30
Family history of diabetes	
No diabetes in parents	0
Diabetes in 1 parent	10
Diabetes in 2 parents	20
Adapted from from Mohan et al. ⁶¹ Minimum score, 0; maximum score, 100; score, ≥60.	positive

for South Asians. MS is underestimated with IDF criteria because the overall prevalence of abdominal obesity is around 50% among Asian Indians when the IDF WC cutoff point is used and 10% to 20% when the NCEP WC cutoff point is applied⁴⁷ (Table III). ^{14,15,50} The overall prevalence of MS identified with SAM-NCEP criteria among Asian Indians is 30% to 40%, which is double that of Europeans (prevalence is 15%–20%) and similar to that of Americans (prevalence is 35%–40%). ^{40,41,48,51}

Impact of Sex, Age, and BMI on the Prevalence of MS

Many studies have shown a 50% to 75% higher prevalence of MS among South Asian women than men (Table IV). In India, the overall prevalence of MS was 29% in men and 46% in women. The United Kingdom, the age-adjusted prevalence was 41% higher among South Asian men and 140% higher among South Asian women compared with whites. I Furthermore, compared with whites, MS develops 10 years earlier among South Asian men and 20 years earlier among South Asian women. The prevalence of MS increases from 10% at age 20 to 29 years to 53%

by age 60 years. 41 MS develops even among Indians with healthy weight and increases exponentially with the increase in BMI. In CURES, the prevalence of MS was 17.9% among those with a healthy BMI (18.5–22.9); 40.2% among overweight participants (BMI 23–24.9); and 53.2% among those who were obese (BMI 25–29.9). 14

Risk of CAD With MS

Among the US population, the odds ratio (OR) for CAD is similar for MS diagnosed with NCEP (1.61) and IDF (1.65) criteria. 12 The OR for CAD among Asian Indians with MS appears to be similar or higher compared with whites. In the United Kingdom, the OR for CAD among people with MS was 2.1 for South Asians vs 1.6 for whites.⁴⁰ In Singapore, a study compared 4334 Asian Indians, Chinese, and Malays. Compared with individuals without MS, the OR for CAD was 2.8 (95% CI, 1.8-4.2) for MS diagnosed with IDF criteria and 2.5 (95% CI, 1.5-4.0) for MS diagnosed with SAM-NCEP criteria. The exclusion of diabetic patients did not greatly reduce the risk of CAD in MS with or without abdominal obesity.45 In CURES, cornpared with those without MS, the OR

Table VI. Dyslipidemia Among South Asians Compared With Whites		
Lipid Variable	South Asians vs Whites	
Total cholesterol	Similar or lower	
LDL cholesterol	Similar or lower	
HDL cholesterol	Lower	
Triglycerides	Higher	
Non-HDL cholesterol	Similar	
Lipoprotein(a)	Higher	
Small dense HDL	Higher	
Small dense LDL	Similar	
Apo B/Apo A ratio	Higher	
Total cholesterol/HDL ratio	Higher	
Triglyceride/HDL ratio	Higher	

Abbreviations: Apo A, apolipoprotein A; Apo B, apolipoprotein B; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; LDL, low-density lipoprotein.

for CAD among people with MS was 3.86 (95% CI, 2.37–6.29; P<.001) for WHO criteria; 2.19 (95% CI, 1.30–3.67; P<.05) for NCEP criteria; 1.90 (95% CI, 1.16–3.12; P<.05) for IDF criteria; and 2.11 (95% CI, 1.30–3.44; P=.002) for SAM-NCEP criteria (V.M., unpublished data, 2007). Thus, the association of CAD with MS in CURES with SAM-NCEP criteria was similar to that of NCEP and IDE.

These data indicate that among South Asians, MS is associated with CAD irrespective of the criteria used, and the risk is not substantially altered by the presence of abdominal obesity or diabetes. Furthermore, the risk of CAD among South Asians with MS identified with SAM-NCEP criteria is similar or higher than that reported in the US population.⁵²

Risk Factors for MS Among South Asians

High carbohydrate intake (particularly high glycemic load) and low physical activity are 2 important contributors to the development of MS among Asian Indians.⁵³ In India, the prevalence of MS is higher in urban areas compared with rural ones and rises further with higher socioeconomic status.^{54,55} In the Chennai Urban Population Study (CUPS), physical inactivity was associated with the components of MS and CAD; participants with the lowest level of physical activity had the highest prevalence of most of the components

of MS.⁵⁶ South Asian children have higher BMI-adjusted blood pressure levels than white children in the United States. Ghee, a form of clarified butter, was positively and independently associated with high blood pressure in these children.⁵⁷ Ghee is very high in saturated fat and cholesterol oxide and is used liberally by affluent Indians worldwide.

Indian Diabetes Risk Score: A Predictor of Diabetes and MS

Most persons with diabetes have MS, but the converse is not true. About 50% of whites with CAD have either diabetes (21%) or MS (29%). These rates are even higher among Asian Indians. In a study of nondiabetic Asian Indians with acute coronary syndrome, only 16% had normal glucose tolerance, 46% had prediabetes, and 37% had undiagnosed diabetes.⁵⁸ Diabetes is 3 to 6 times more common among South Asians than whites when adjusted for age and BMI. Furthermore, South Asian diabetics have a 2- to 4-fold higher mortality rate than whites and Chinese diabetics. 59,60 MS is strongly related to the development of diabetes among Asian Indians, as is true for all other populations.

Mohan and colleagues⁶¹ developed an Indian Diabetes Risk Score (IDRS) for cost-effective screening to identify individuals with undiagnosed diabetes among Asian Indians. The IDRS uses 4 simple, safe, and inexpensive measures: age, WC, family history of diabetes, and physical activity. The IDRS results are graded as low (<30), medium (30–59), and high (>60) risk. A score of ≥60 was found to have optimum sensitivity and specificity for detecting undiagnosed diabetes (Table V). Moreover, the IDRS would help to do selective screening in the community instead of universal screening with a cost saving of 50% or more.

The ability of IDRS to detect MS and CAD was tested among the CURES population (No. = 2350). The mean IDRS increased significantly with worsening glucose tolerance (normal glucose tolerance [NGT]: 48±17; impaired glucose tolerance [IGT]: 57±16; newly diagnosed diabetes [NDD]: 61±15; and known diabetes [KD]: 68±12; P value for trend <.001). The proportion of participants with IDRS values ≥60 (the high-risk group) increased significantly with the increasing degrees of glucose intolerance, ie, 37% of NGT participants, 57% of IGT, 73% of NDD, and 88% of KD.

The IDRS is also a predictor of MS and CAD in subjects with NGT.62 The prevalence of MS increased with the IDRS. The prevalence of MS was 1.8% in the low IDRS category, 14.6% in the medium, and 30.3% in the high (P value for trend <.001). The prevalence of CAD was 0.6%, 0.8%, and 2.2% in the low-, medium-, and high-risk IDRS groups, respectively. The prevalence of CAD in the high-risk group was significantly higher compared with the low-risk group (P=.030) and the medium-risk group (P=.050). Thus, NGT participants with medium-risk and highrisk IDRS results had significantly higher prevalence of cardiovascular risk factors compared with the lowrisk IDRS group. It is remarkable that a simple measure such as the IDRS helps identify individuals with higher cardiovascular risk even at the NGT stage. Thus, it appears the use of such a risk score would be of great help in developing countries (eg, India) to cost-effectively identify individuals at high risk of developing MS, diabetes, and CAD.

Dyslipidemia Among Asian Indians

Prospective studies have shown that the incidence of and mortality from CAD among Asian Indians are at least 2-fold higher than among whites, even when fully adjusted for the high rates of insulin resistance, MS, and diabetes, as well as socioeconomic status.^{59,63} This appears to result from the South Asian dyslipidemia that is characterized by high serum levels of apolipoprotein B (apo B), triglycerides (TG), and lipoprotein(a) (Lp[a]); borderline high levels of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol; and low levels of apolipoprotein A1 (apo A1) and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol (Table VI). Asian Indians have high ratios of total cholesterol (TC) to HDL, TG/ HDL, and apo B/apo A1.7,64,65 These ratios are highly correlated with premature incidence and severity of CAD, as well as acute myocardial infarction among Asian Indians.66,67

Asian Indians not only have low HDL, but also have a preponderance of small, dense, dysfunctional HDL particles that are associated with less efficient reverse cholesterol transport and less protection against CAD. ⁶⁸ The level of HDL 2b, the most protective component of HDL, is low in >90% of Asian Indians. ⁶⁹ However, physical activity is associated with significant increases in large HDL in this population. ⁷⁰

Genetically determined elevations in Lp(a) play an important role in accelerating atherosclerosis that results in premature myocardial infarction and stroke.⁷¹ Among patients with Lp(a) excess, the CAD risk is increased to 3-fold in the absence of other risk factors and increases to 8-fold with low HDL, 12-fold with high LDL, 16-fold with diabetes, and 25-fold with high TC/HDL ratio.⁷¹ Approximately 30% to 40% of Asian Indians have levels >20 to 30 mg/dL, generally considered as the threshold for high risk of CAD. Among 235 participants, a combination of high Lp(a) and low HDL, which confers a very high risk of CAD, was found in 42% of Asian Indians.⁶⁹ High levels of Lp(a) correlate with the

prematurity, severity, extent, and progression of coronary atherosclerosis as well as the occurrence and recurrence of myocardial infarction among Asian Indians.^{71,72} The adverse effects from elevated Lp(a) levels are magnified in this population because of concomitant abnormalities of lipoproteins, as noted above, as well as the high prevalence of MS and diabetes.⁷

Prevention and Control of MS

MS identifies patients at high risk of diabetes and CVD who are most responsive to lifestyle changes. There is growing evidence that efforts to prevent weight gain must begin in early life. Furthermore, low–birth weight followed by rapid excess weight gain in childhood and adolescence increases the risk of developing MS, diabetes, and CVD.

Lifestyle modifications to achieve a modest weight loss (5%-7%) in overweight individuals could reduce the prevalence of MS and its progression to diabetes. Weight loss requires attention to both energy intake and expenditure. Even small to moderate amounts of physical activity (<7 Kcal/min) are helpful in preventing MS. Food items with a high glycemic index (eg, refined grains and calorie-sweetened soft drinks) have an adverse effect on the development of MS, whereas modest intakes of animal and vegetable proteins, as well as healthy carbohydrates from fruits and vegetables, have a beneficial effect.⁷³

Progression of prediabetes to diabetes is high among Asian Indians (18%/y) but can be significantly reduced by both lifestyle modification and metformin. As the condition progresses, however, drug therapy directed toward the individual risk factors might be required. Pioglitazone has significantly favorable effects on HDL particle size, markers of inflammation, and adipokines, and these actions contribute to its antiatherogenic effects. 75

Patients with CAD and MS have higher risk of recurrent coronary events and derive incremental benefit from aggressive high-dose statin therapy. The seems reasonable to achieve a TC/

HDL goal of <4 in people with MS. The American Association of Physicians of Indian Origin recommends LDL cholesterol <100 mg/dL and non-HDL cholesterol <130 mg/dL for Asian Indians without CAD and diabetes. The recommended goal is LDL cholesterol <70 mg/dL and non-HDL cholesterol <100 mg/dL for Asian Indians with diabetes or CAD.77 This is by far the simplest and most effective recommendation and is in agreement with the current literature.7 Controlling abnormal lipid levels and hypertension to normal levels may prevent up to 50% of major acute coronary events; more importantly, controlling to optimal levels may decrease these events by 80% or more.⁷⁸

Conclusions

Clinical diabetes and CAD are preceded by a constellation of risk factors that are also the components of MS, the prevalence of which among Asian Indians is approximately 25% with either NCEP or IDF criteria. The prevalence increases to 35% to 40% when the SAM-NCEP criteria are used. The prevalence of MS among South Asians is higher than in other Asians and Europeans. The prevalence among Asian Indian women is higher than in US women, but lower in Asian Indian men than in US men. The syndrome confers a 2-fold risk of CAD and a 5-fold risk of diabetes. Primary treatment of MS is lifestyle therapy and includes weight loss, increased physical activity, and an antiatherogenic diet. Adopting a healthy lifestyle beginning in childhood and adolescence is warranted in view of the malignant nature of CAD among Asian Indians. Because the adverse effects of these factors are greater in Indians, the benefits of modifying the factors are correspondingly greater and may prevent the onset of diabetes. Simple cost-effective tools like the IDRS can be used to screen for MS in developing countries, where measurement of the lipid profile is costly and often not feasible. Controlling dyslipidemia requires strategies appropriate to a patient's individual characteristics and the underlying lipid disorder.

REFERENCES

- 1 Grundy SM, Cleeman JI, Daniels SR, et al. Diagnosis and management of the metabolic syndrome: an American Heart Association/National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Scientific Statement. *Circulation*. 2005;112:2735–2752.
- 2 Wannamethee SG, Shaper AG, Lennon L, et al. Metabolic syndrome vs Framingham Risk Score for prediction of coronary heart disease, stroke, and type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Arch Intern Med.* 2005;165:2644–2650.
- 3 Amano T, Matsubara T, Uetani T, et al. Impact of metabolic syndrome on tissue characteristics of angiographically mild to moderate coronary lesions integrated backscatter intravascular ultrasound study. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2007;49:1149–1156.
- 4 Gami AS, Witt BJ, Howard DE, et al. Metabolic syndrome and risk of incident cardiovascular events and death: a systematic review and meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2007;49:403–414.
- 5 Iribarren C, Go AS, Husson G, et al. Metabolic syndrome and early-onset coronary artery disease: is the whole greater than its parts? J Am Coll Cardiol. 2006;48:1800–1807.
- 6 Lorenzo C, Williams K, Hunt KJ, et al. The National Cholesterol Education Program - Adult Treatment Panel III, International Diabetes Federation, and World Health Organization definitions of the metabolic syndrome as predictors of incident cardiovascular disease and diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2007;30:8–13.
- 7 Enas EA. How to Beat the Heart Disease Epidemic Among South Asians: A Prevention and Management Guide for Asian Indians and Their Doctors. Downers Grove, IL: Advanced Heart Lipid Clinic USA; 2007.
- 8 Enas EA, Yusuf S, Mehta J. Meeting of International Working Group on coronary artery disease in South Asians. *Indian Heart J.* 1996;48:727–732.
- 9 Misra A, Pandey RM, Devi JR, Sharma R, et al. High prevalence of diabetes, obesity, and dyslipidaemia in urban slum population in northern India. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord. 2001;25:1722–1729.
- 10 Enas EA. Coronary artery disease epidemic in Indians: a cause for alarm and a call for action. J Indian Med Assoc. 2000;98:697–702.
- 11 Alberti KG, Zimmet P, Shaw J. The metabolic syndrome—a new worldwide definition. *Lancet.* 2005;366:1059–1062.
- 12 Cheung BM, Ong KL, Man YB, et al. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in the United States National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 1999–2002 according to different defining criteria. *J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich).* 2006;8:562–570.
- 13 Assmann G, Guerra R, Fox G, et al. Harmonizing the definition of the metabolic syndrome: comparison of the criteria of the Adult Treatment Panel III and the International Diabetes Federation in United States American and European populations. Am J Cardiol. 2007;99:541–548.
- 14 Deepa M, Farooq S, Datta M, et al. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome using WHO, ATPIII and IDF definitions in Asian Indians: the Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology Study (CURES-34). *Diabetes Metab Res Rev.* 2007;23:127–134.

- 15 Ford ES. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome defined by the International Diabetes Federation among adults in the U.S. *Diabetes Care*. 2005;28:2745–2749.
- 16 He Y, Jiang B, Wang J, et al. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome and its relation to cardiovascular disease in an elderly Chinese population. *J Am Coll Cardiol*, 2006;47:1588–1594.
- 17 Ruderman N, Chisholm D, Pi-Sunyer X, et al. The metabolically obese, normal-weight individual revisited. *Diabetes*. 1998;47:699–713.
- 18 Banerji MA, Faridi N, Atluri R, et al. Body composition, visceral fat, leptin, and insulin resistance in Asian Indian men. J Clin Enclocrinol Metab. 1999;84:137–144.
- 19 Sharp PS, Mohan V, Levy JC, et al. Insulin resistance in patients of Asian Indian and European origin with non-insulin dependent diabetes. Horm Metab Res. 1987;19:84–85.
- 20 Deepa R, Sandcep S, Mohan V. Abdominal obesity, visceral fat, and type 2 diabetes— "Asian Indian phenotype." In: Mohan V, Rao G, eds. Type 2 Diabetes in South Asians; Epidemiology, Risk Factors and Prevention. New Delhi, India: Jaypee Medical Publishers; 2006:138–152.
- 21 Raji A, Seely EW, Arky RA, et al. Body fat distribution and insulin resistance in healthy Asian Indians and Caucasians. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2001;86:5366–5371.
- 22 Chandalia M, Abate N, Garg A, et al. Relationship between generalized and upper body obesity to insulin resistance in Asian Indian men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 1999;84:2329–2335.
- 23 Whincup PH, Gilg JA, Papacosta O, et al. Early evidence of ethnic differences in cardiovascular risk: cross sectional comparison of British South Asian and white children. BMJ. 2002;324:635.
- 24 Conway JM, Yanovski SZ, Avila NA, et al. Visceral adipose tissue differences in black and white women. Am J Clin Nutr. 1995;61:765–771.
- 25 Park YW, Zhu S, Palaniappan L, et al. The metabolic syndrome: prevalence and associated risk factor findings in the US population from the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1988–1994. Arch Intern Med. 2003;163:427–436.
- 26 Hughes K, Aw TC, Kuperan P, et al. Central obesity, insulin resistance, syndrome X, lipoprotein (a), and cardiovascular risk in Indians, Malays, and Chinese in Singapore. J Epidemiol Community Health. 1997;51:394–399.
- 27 Kain K, Dlaxill JM, Catto AJ, et al. Increased fibrinogen levels among South Asians versus Whites in the United Kingdom are not explained by common polymorphisms. Am J Epidemiol. 2002;156:174–179.
- 28 Anand SS, Yusuf S, Vuksan V, et al. Differences in risk factors, atherosclerosis, and cardiovascular disease between ethnic groups in Canada: the Study of Health Assessment and Risk in Ethnic groups (SHARE). *Lancet*. 2000;356:279–284.
- 29 Deurenberg-Yap M, Deurenberg P. Is a reevaluation of WHO body mass index curoff values needed? The case of Asians in Singapore. *Nutr Rev.* 2003;61:S80–S87.
- **30** O'Hare JP, Raymond NT, Mughal S, et al. Evaluation of delivery of enhanced diabetes

- care to patients of South Asian ethnicity: the United Kingdom Asian Diabetes Study (UKADS). *Diabet Med.* 2004;21:1357–1365.
- 31 Pan WH, Flegal KM, Chang HY, et al. Body mass index and obesity-related metabolic disorders in Taiwanese and US whites and blacks: implications for definitions of overweight and obesity for Asians. Am J Clin Nutr. 2004;79:31–39.
- **32** St-Pierre J, Lemieux I, Perron P, et al. Relation of the "hypertriglyceridemic waist" phenotype to earlier manifestations of coronary artery disease in patients with glucose intolerance and type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Am J Cardiol*. 2007;99:369–373.
- 33 Wildman RP, Gu D, Reynolds K, et al. Appropriate body mass index and waist circumference cutoffs for categorization of overweight and central adiposity among Chinese adults. Am J Clin Nutr. 2004;80:1129–1136.
- 34 Snehalatha C, Viswanathan V, Ramachandran A. Cutoff values for normal anthropometric variables in Asian Indian adults. *Diabetes Care*. 2003;26:1380–1384.
- 35 Mohan V, Deepa M, Farooq S, et al. Anthropometric cutponts for identification of cardiometabolic risk factors in an urban Asian Indian population. *Metabolism*. 2007;56:961–968.
- 36 Shah T, Jonnalagadda SS, Kicklighter JR, et al. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome risk factors among young adult Asian Indians. J Immigr Health. 2005;7:117–126.
- 37 Misra KB, Endemann SW, Ayer M. Leisure time physical activity and metabolic syndrome in Asian Indian immigrants residing in northern California. *Ethn Dis.* 2005;15:627–634.
- 38 Anand SS, Yi Q, Gerstein H, et al. Relationship of metabolic syndrome and fibrinolytic dysfunction to cardiovascular disease. *Circulation*. 2003:108:420–425.
- **39** DECODA Study Group. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in populations of Asian origin. Comparison of the IDF definition with the NCEP definition. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2007;76:57–67.
- 40 Tillin T, Forouhi N, Johnston DG, et al. Metabolic syndrome and coronary heart disease in South Asians, African-Caribbeans and white Europeans: a UK population-based cross-sectional study. *Diabetologia*. 2005;48:649–656.
 41 Chambers J. The age and gender related
- 41 Chambers J. The age and gender related prevalence of the metabolic syndrome among UK Indian Asians and European whites: first results from the London Life Sciences Population (LOLIPOP) Study. Heart. 2006;92(suppl):A11.
- 42 Gupta R, Deedwania PC, Gupta A, et al. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in an Indian urban population. *Int J Cardiol.* 2004;97:257–261.
- 43 Grundy SM, Cleeman JI, Daniels SR, et al, on behalf of the American Heart Association and the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. Diagnosis and management of the metabolic syndrome: an American Heart Association/National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Scientific Statement: executive summary. Circulation. 2005;112:2735–2752.
- 44 Grundy SM. Metabolic syndrome: connecting and reconciling cardiovascular and diabetes worlds. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2006;47:1093–1100.

- 45 Lee J, Ma S, Heng D, et al. Should central obesity be an optional or essential component of the metabolic syndrome? Ischemic heart disease risk in the Singapore Cardiovascular Cohort Study. *Diabetes Care*. 2007;30:343–347.
- 46 Moon JY, Park S, Rhee JH, et al. The applicability of the Asian modified criteria of the metabolic syndrome in the Korean population. *Int J Cardiol.* 2007;114:83–89.
- 47 Tan CE, Ma S, Wai D, et al. Can we apply the National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel definition of the metabolic syndrome to Asians? *Diabetes Care*. 2004;27:1182–1186.
- 48 Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Satyavani K, et al. Metabolic syndrome in urban Asian Indian adults—a population study using modified ATP III criteria. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2003;60:199–204.
- 49 Chow CK, Naidu S, Raju K, et al. Significant lipid, adiposity and metabolic abnormalities amongst 4535 Indians from a developing region of rural Andhra Pradesh. Atherosclerosis. Epub 2007 Apr 26.
- 50 Reddy KS, Prabhakaran D, Chaturvedi V, et al. Methods for establishing a surveillance system for cardiovascular diseases in Indian industrial populations. *Bull World Health Organ*. 2006;84:461–469.
- 51 Hu G, Qiao Q, Tuomilehto J, et al. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome and its relation to all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in nondiabetic European men and women. *Arch Intern Med.* 2004;164:1066–1076.
- 52 McNeill AM, Rosamond WD, Girman CJ, et al. The metabolic syndrome and 11-year risk of incident cardiovascular disease in the atherosclerosis risk in communities study. *Diabetes Care*, 2005;28:385–390.
- 53 Enas EA, Senthilkumar A, Chennikkara H, et al. Prudent diet and preventive nutrition from pediatries to geriatrics: current knowledge and practical recommendations. *Indian Heart J.* 2003;55:310–338.
- 54 Mohan V, Shanthirani S, Deepa R, et al. Intra-urban differences in the prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in southern Indiathe Chennai Urban Population Study (CUPS no. 4). Diabet Med. 2001;18:280–287.
- 55 Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Latha E, et al. Clustering of cardiovascular risk factors in urban Asian Indians. *Diabetes Care*. 1998;21:967–971.
- 56 Mohan V, Gokulakrishnan K, Deepa R, et al. Association of physical inactivity with

- components of metabolic syndrome and coronary artery disease—the Chennai Urban Population Study (CUPS no. 15). *Diabet Med.* 2005;22:1206–1211.
- 57 Jafar TH, Islam M, Poulter N, et al. Children in South Asia have higher body mass-adjusted blood pressure levels than white children in the United States: a comparative study. *Circulation*. 2005;111:1291–1297.
- 58 Ramachandran A, Chamukuttan S, Immaneni S, et al. High incidence of glucose intolerance in Asian-Indian subjects with acure coronary syndrome. *Diabetes Care*. 2005;28:2492–2496.
- 59 Forouhi NG, Sattar N, Tillin T, et al. Do known risk factors explain the higher coronary heart disease mortality in South Asian compared with European men? Prospective follow-up of the Southall and Brent studies, UK. Diabetologia. 2006;49:2580–2588.
- 60 Ma S, Cutter J, Tan CE, et al. Associations of diabetes mellitus and ethnicity with mortality in a multiethnic Asian population: data from the 1992 Singapore National Health Survey. Am J Epidemiol. 2003;158:543–552.
- 61 Mohan V, Deepa R, Deepa M, et al. A simplified Indian Diabetes Risk Score for screening for undiagnosed diabetic subjects. *J Assoc Physicians India*. 2005;53:759–763.
- 62 Mohan V, Sandeep S, Deepa M, et al. A diabetes risk score helps identify metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular risk in Indians—the Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology Study (CURES-38). *Diabetes Obes Metab.* 2007;9:337–343.
- 63 Miller GJ, Beckles GL, Maude GH, et al. Ethnicity and other characteristics predictive of coronary heart disease in a developing community: principal results of the St James Survey, Trinidad. *Int J Epidemiol.* 1989;18:808–817.
- 64 Smith J, Cianflone K, Al-Amri M, et al. Body composition and the apoB/apoA-I ratio in migrant Asian Indians and white Caucasians in Canada. Clin Sci (Lond). 2006;111:201–207.
- 65 Sierra-Johnson J, Somers VK, Kuniyoshi FH, et al. Comparison of apolipoprotein-B/apolipoprotein-AI in subjects with versus without the metabolic syndrome. Am J Cardiol. 2006;98:1369–1373.
- 66 Joshi P, Islam S, Pais P, et al. Risk factors for early myocardial infarction in South Asians compared with individuals in other countries. *JAMA*. 2007;297:286–294.
- 67 Enas EA. Dyslipidemia in the South Asian patient. Curr Atherosclerosis Rep. 2007. In press.
- 68 Bhalodkar NC, Blum S, Rana T, et al.

- Comparison of levels of large and small high-density lipoprotein cholesterol in Asian Indian men compared with Caucasian men in the Framingham Offspring Study. *Am J Cardiol.* 2004;94:1561–1563.
- 69 Superko HR, Enas EA, Kotha P, et al. Highdensity lipoprotein subclass distribution in individuals of Asian Indian descent: the National Asian Indian Heart Disease Project. Prev Cardiol. 2005;8:81–86.
- 70 Bhalodkar NC, Blum S, Rana T, et al. Effect of leisure time exercise on high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, its subclasses, and size in Asian Indians. Am J Cardiol. 2005;96:98–100.
- 71 Enas EA, Chacko V, Senthilkumar A, et al. Elevated lipoprotein (a)—a genetic risk factor for premature vascular disease in people with and without standard risk factors: a review. *Dis Mon.* 2006;52:5–50.
- 72 Gambhir JK, Kaur H, Gambhir DS, et al. Lipoprotein (a) as an independent risk factor for coronary artery disease in patients below 40 years of age. *Indian Heart J.* 2000;52:411–415.
- 73 Halkjaer J, Tjonneland A, Thomsen BL, et al. Intake of macronutrients as predictors of 5-y changes in waist circumference. Am J Clin Nutr. 2006;84:789–797.
- 74 Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Mary S, et al. The Indian Diabetes Prevention Programme shows that lifestyle modification and metformin prevent type 2 diabetes in Asian Indian subjects with impaired glucose tolerance (IDPP-1). *Diabetologia*. 2006;49:289–297.
- 75 Szapary PO, Bloedon LT, Samaha FF, et al. Effects of pioglitazone on lipoproteins, inflammatory markers, and adipokines in nondiabetic patients with metabolic syndrome. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.* 2006;26:182–188.
- 76 Deedwania P, Barter P, Carmena R, et al. Reduction of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in patients with coronary heart disease and metabolic syndrome: analysis of the Treating to New Targets study. *Lancet*. 2006;368:919–928.
- 77 Kotha P, Deedwania P, Oza S, et al. American Association of Physicians of Indian Origin (AAPI) Consensus Statement on Management of Dyslipidemia Among Asian Indians. http://www.aapiusa.org/care/healthand nutrition.htm. Accessed November 6, 2007.
- 78 Wong ND, Pio JR, Franklin SS, et al. Preventing coronary events by optimal control of blood pressure and lipids in patients with the metabolic syndrome. Am J Cardiol. 2003;91:1421–1426.