

Diabetes in South Asians: Etiology and the Complexities of Care

Anish R. Mitra, BASc^a, Irvin Janjua, BMLSc^a

^aVancouver Fraser Medical Program 2012, Faculty of Medicine, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC

ABSTRACT

Fifteen to twenty percent of South Asians will develop type 2 diabetes mellitus. This extremely high prevalence of diabetes is seen in both South Asians living in developed countries and in South Asians who are living in either urban or rural South Asia. South Asians have a tendency to develop metabolically active abdominal fat, resulting in a high risk of diabetes even at a low body mass index. They are also particularly vulnerable to microvascular and macrovascular diabetic complications, including renal and cardiac disease. The high prevalence of diabetes in South Asians is likely due to a combination of biological and cultural factors. Targeting these factors is an effective way to provide education, prevention, screening, and treatment to South Asians. Culturally-focused community programs and interprofessional care teams are two health care paradigms that have been successful in helping these individuals manage this chronic illness. Continuing culturally-targeted care and education programs is necessary to reduce the prevalence and complications of diabetes in South Asian communities.

KEYWORDS: *diabetes mellitus, type 2, patient care team, culture, asia*

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus is a global epidemic affecting approximately 285 million people worldwide, a number that will likely increase to 439 million by 2030.¹ It is a chronic illness that can result in serious complications including coronary artery disease, nephropathy, neuropathy, and retinopathy over time. Diabetes mellitus also has a tremendous impact on economies. For example, in 2007, it was estimated that diabetes alone cost the United States \$116 billion in medical costs and \$58 billion in lost national productivity.²

There are two forms of diabetes mellitus. Type 1 diabetes, which is primarily due to β -cell destruction, has either an autoimmune or idiopathic etiology.³ Type 2 diabetes is the more common variant, and can result from either an insulin secretion defect or insulin insensitivity.³ This article will discuss only type 2 diabetes, which accounts for approximately 97% of cases of diabetes mellitus.⁴

South Asians, including Bangladeshis, Indians, Pakistanis, and Sri Lankans, are particularly vulnerable to diabetes. Although diabetes occurrence rates differ across South Asian ethnicities, all exhibit higher prevalence than is seen in Caucasians.⁵ Approximately 15-20% of South Asians will develop diabetes compared to 2-5% of Caucasians.⁶⁻⁸ This increased prevalence is seen in both South Asians who have migrated to the Western

world and South Asians living in either rural or urban South Asia.^{6,9-11} Studies also suggest that the prevalence of diabetes in the South Asian population is on the rise and that it is also being diagnosed at a younger age.^{11, 12}

Risk Factors

The high prevalence of diabetes in South Asians is associated with certain metabolic risk factors in this population. Compared to Caucasian children, South Asian children have been shown to have increased plasma insulin in the setting of normal plasma glucose levels, an early sign of insulin insensitivity.^{13,14}

As adults, South Asians continue to be at higher risk for insulin insensitivity, as well as other diabetes-associated risk factors including increased visceral adiposity, or intra-abdominal fat, which is metabolically active and strongly linked to insulin resistance.^{15,16} Increased metabolically active intra-abdominal fat causes the Body Mass Index (BMI) risk criteria for Caucasians to be too lenient for South Asians because they have a higher ratio of metabolically active intra-abdominal fat to total body fat.¹⁶ South Asians also have an increased waist-to-hip ratio and increased skinfold (suprascapular and subiliac) thickness, both of which are risk factors for diabetes.^{5,15}

Complications

South Asians are also at increased risk of developing both macrovascular and microvascular complications related to diabetes.^{7,17} Development of secondary complications may be attributed to the early age of diabetes onset, resulting in prolonged

Correspondence

Anish R. Mitra, anish@interchange.ubc.ca

exposure of body organs and tissues to high blood glucose levels.¹² In addition to being more susceptible to diabetes, South Asians also suffer from a higher prevalence of ischemic cardiovascular disease.^{9,18} It has been theorized that increased insulin resistance increases the risk of thrombosis, which in turn increases the likelihood of developing coronary artery disease leading to ischemic cardiovascular disease.^{18,19}

ETIOLOGY

Genetic and Environment

The reason South Asians are more susceptible to diabetes remains unclear. Two leading theories explaining this increased susceptibility are the thrifty phenotype and thrifty genotype hypotheses. Low birth weight plays a role in both theories, and studies have shown South Asians tend to have lower birth weight than Caucasians, predisposing South Asian infants to metabolic abnormalities.^{20,21} Lower birth weight is also associated with an increased risk of cardiovascular events, which are also more common in South Asians.²²

Hales and Barker postulate that lower birth weight relates to type 2 diabetes with their thrifty phenotype hypothesis, which attributes the vulnerability to diabetes to environmental factors in the womb rather than genetic characteristics in the fetus.²⁰ They suggest that nutritional deficiencies in utero, which result in lower birth weight, may also lead to reduced β -cell mass or impaired β -cell function. These atypical β -cells may be unable to produce sufficient insulin throughout the individual's life, resulting in overt diabetes when β -cell insulin secretion is unable to compensate for increased metabolic demand.²⁰

The thrifty genotype hypothesis is an alternative theory, involving genetic abnormalities, which relates low birth weight to adult diabetes. This hypothesis suggests that low nutrient conditions in-utero result in selective survival of infants who have insulin insensitivity allowing for efficient intake and utilization of nutrients.^{21,23} This genotype is beneficial in a low calorie environment, but may increase vulnerability to diabetes in an environment with an abundance of calories, as is found in most of the developed world.^{21,23} Both of these hypotheses suggest further studies need to be conducted to examine whether South Asians are receiving insufficient nutrients in-utero and how this correlates with susceptibility to diabetes.

The high prevalence of diabetes in South Asian populations suggests they may carry genetic polymorphisms that increase their susceptibility to diabetes. The PC-1 K121Q polymorphism of the ENPP1 gene and non-coding variants of the TCF7L2 gene have been found to increase the vulnerability of both South Asians and Caucasians to diabetes.^{24,25} However, due to the small sample sizes in these studies, additional studies must be conducted to test the validity of linking these polymorphisms to increased diabetic susceptibility and to determine if polymorphisms are responsible for the increased vulnerability seen in South Asians.

Cultural

Culture is an amalgamation of behaviors, ideas, attitudes, values, habits, beliefs, customs, language, rituals, and ceremonies.²⁶ A community's culture provides the structure and design for how

individuals live their lives and interpret reality, including their own health. South Asians are a linguistically and religiously diverse population whose behavior is strongly influenced by cultural values.^{27,28} Unfortunately, some aspects of this culture have resulted in an increase in the risk of diabetes in an already biologically vulnerable population.

For example, the South Asian diet is rich in fats, sugars, and deep fried foods, which are major contributors to the increased risk of diabetes in this population.^{27,29,30} Food plays an important social role for South Asians, and South Asians who are diabetic agree that changing their traditional diet is the most difficult aspect of their care regimen.²⁸⁻³⁰ As a result, compliance with reduced sugar and caloric diets tends to be poor.^{29,30} Additionally, misconceptions about certain foods, such as “ghor”, or brown sugar, being a ‘natural’ source of sugar and therefore a healthy dietary supplement further exacerbate problems in managing blood glucose levels.³¹

Many societal and religious practices also act as obstacles to effectively manage diabetes in South Asians. For example, strong religious beliefs cause many individuals to develop apathy towards the management of their disease because they feel their

“

Although diabetes occurrence rates differ across South Asian ethnicities, all exhibit higher prevalence than is seen in Caucasians.

illness is ‘God’s will’. These individuals believe they do not have to treat their diabetes because a higher power will look after them.^{27,29,32} Some communities have been known to encourage obesity as it is a sign of wealth, prosperity, and good health.^{27,32} During specific holidays and festivals, certain South Asian groups practice fasting and pilgrimages followed by massive feasts. These activities often lead to extreme changes in blood glucose levels and complicate diabetes management.³³

APPROACH TO MANAGEMENT

Prevention and effective management of the disease are of paramount importance in helping patients lead productive lives without the adverse consequences of diabetes. Preventing obesity and increasing physical activity are of particular importance in South Asians due to their increased insulin insensitivity and additional type 2 diabetes risk factors. The earlier onset of diabetes, increased risk of diabetic complications, and the higher likelihood of developing metabolic syndrome suggest that early diabetic screening of South Asians is essential.^{13,34} In addition, further research is required to develop the appropriate pharmacological approach to managing South Asians as it has been shown that their blood glucose levels are difficult to control with conventional treatment.³⁵

Several national bodies, including Health Canada and the Canadian Diabetes Association, have drafted recommendations to improve the health outcomes for South Asian diabetics.^{36,37}

It is strongly encouraged that Asian-specific BMI and waist circumference (WC) cutoffs should be used to evaluate diabetes risk.^{38,39} South Asian individuals with a BMI ≥ 22 , or a WC ≥ 80 cm for women and ≥ 90 cm for men should be considered “at risk” for diabetes.^{38,40}

Culturally Targeted Community Programs

To address the unique needs and complex interplay of culture and genetic predisposition in South Asians, community-based diabetes prevention and management programs should be developed in partnership with the South Asian communities.

For the many distinct South Asian communities, a major barrier to appropriate diabetes screening, care, and education, is a lack of knowledge and understanding of the disease.^{29,30,43} Many members of these communities do not regard diabetes as a “serious” disease, and because of health literacy issues and poor English skills, this has proven a difficult attitude to change.^{29,30,44} As a consequence, some communities have developed a poor understanding of the link between diabetes and lifestyle factors such as diet and exercise.

Education is an invaluable tool in helping manage diabetes in a population because it can empower patients to improve control of their blood glucose, which in turn reduces their risk of diabetic complications.^{45,46} It has been shown that high risk ethnic groups are more likely to participate in diabetes

“
**...community-based
 diabetes prevention and
 management programs should be
 developed in partnership with the
 South Asian communities.**


education if the information is presented in a culturally sensitive manner.^{41,47} Education sessions are better received if they take place in an informal, relaxed, community environment that allows participants to freely explore topics and questions.⁴⁴ A strong understanding of South Asian culture must be the foundation upon which new diabetes programs, policies, and strategies are built. The incorporation of familiar music, clothing, and language has been shown to be effective in educating minorities with respect to health issues.²⁶ Effective programs have been developed with a strong visual focus as well as with the incorporation of recipes and samples of healthy versions of traditional foods.⁴⁸ The use of diabetes awareness days, cooking events, guided shopping, and educational plays have proved to be effective means for providing information to people who would otherwise have difficulty accessing it.⁴⁸ It is essential that lifestyle changes not just be conveyed to individuals but rather these practices and healthy habits be embraced by the community as a whole.³¹

Interprofessional Care Teams

When attempting to control their blood glucose levels,

many patients benefit from the support of interprofessional Diabetes Health Care (DHC) teams.⁴⁹⁻⁵¹ At the core of DHC teams are primary care physicians, nurses, and dietitians, and as needed, teams are supported by endocrinologists, social workers, pharmacists, exercise physiologists, ophthalmologists, nephrologists, and podiatrists.^{52,53} Education and support through DHC teams has been shown to decrease hemoglobin A1c and cholesterol levels.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ Long-term studies of interprofessional management have shown a reduction in the number of lower limb amputations and a decrease in mortality due to chronic kidney disease.^{57,58} Not only is patient self-reported happiness higher with DHC team care, but such integrated programs also have the potential to decrease health care costs.^{52,59}

CONCLUSION

Type 2 diabetes is a serious chronic health concern for South Asians. The increased risk of diabetes may be associated with several factors, including genetic predisposition, in-utero metabolic factors, and cultural practices. In light of this increased risk, it is important to provide an interprofessional approach to management. This may include sufficient education that takes into consideration cultural practices and development of a therapeutic plan. 

REFERENCES

1. Shaw JE, Sicree RA, Zimmet PZ. Global estimates of the prevalence of diabetes for 2010 and 2030. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2009 Nov 5;87(1):4-14.
2. Economic costs of diabetes in the U.S. In 2007. *Diabetes Care* 2008 Mar;31(3):596-615.
3. Alberti KG, Zimmet PZ. Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications. Part 1: diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus provisional report of a WHO consultation. *Diabet Med.* 1998 Jul;15(7):539-53.
4. Adegbate E, Schattner P, Dunn E. An update on the etiology and epidemiology of diabetes mellitus. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 2006 Nov 28;1084:1-29.
5. Bhopal R, Unwin N, White M, Yallop J, Walker L, Alberti KG, *et al.* Heterogeneity of coronary heart disease risk factors in Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, and European origin populations: Cross sectional study. *BMJ.* 1999 Jul 24;319(7204):215-20.
6. Mather HM, Keen H. The Southall Diabetes Survey: Prevalence of known diabetes in Asians and Europeans. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed).* 1985 Oct 19;291(6502):1081-4.
7. Karter AJ, Ferrara A, Liu JY, Moffet HH, Ackerson LM, Selby JV. Ethnic disparities in diabetic complications in an insured population. *JAMA.* 2002 May 15;287(19):2519-27.
8. Venkataraman R, Nanda NC, Baweja G, Parikh N, Bhatia V. Prevalence of diabetes mellitus and related conditions in Asian Indians living in the United States. *Am J Cardiol.* 2004 Oct 1;94(7):977-80.
9. Anand SS, Yusuf S, Vuksan V, Devanesen S, Teo KK, Montague PA, *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 Jul 22;356(9226):279-84.
10. Verma NP, Mehta SP, Madhu S, Mather HM, Keen H. Prevalence of known diabetes in an urban Indian environment: The Darya Ganj diabetes survey. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed).* 1986 Aug 16;293(6544):423-4.
11. Mohan V, Deepa M, Deepa R, Shanthirani CS, Farooq S, Ganesan A, *et al.* Secular trends in the prevalence of diabetes and impaired glucose tolerance in urban South India--the Chennai urban rural epidemiology study (CURES-17). *Diabetologia.* 2006 Jun;49(6):1175-8.
12. Mukhopadhyay B, Forouhi NG, Fisher BM, Kesson CM, Sattar N. A comparison of glycaemic and metabolic control over time among South

- Asian and European patients with type 2 diabetes: Results from follow-up in a routine diabetes clinic. *Diabet Med.* 2006 Jan;23(1):94-8.
13. Whincup PH, Gilg JA, Papacosta O, Seymour C, Miller GJ, Alberti KG, *et al.* Early evidence of ethnic differences in cardiovascular risk: Cross sectional comparison of British South Asian and white children. *BMJ.* 2002 Mar 16;324(7338):635.
 14. Ehtisham S, Crabtree N, Clark P, Shaw N, Barrett T. Ethnic differences in insulin resistance and body composition in United Kingdom adolescents. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2005 Jul;90(7):3963-9.
 15. McKeigue PM, Shah B, Marmot MG. Relation of central obesity and insulin resistance with high diabetes prevalence and cardiovascular risk in South Asians. *Lancet.* 1991 Feb 16;337(8738):382-6.
 16. Banerji MA, Faridi N, Atluri R, Chaiken RL, Lebovitz HE. Body composition, visceral fat, leptin, and insulin resistance in Asian Indian men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 1999 Jan;84(1):137-44.
 17. Mather HM, Chaturvedi N, Fuller JH. Mortality and morbidity from diabetes in South Asians and Europeans: 11-year follow-up of the Southall Diabetes Survey, London, UK. *Diabet Med.* 1998 Jan;15(1):53-9.
 18. McKeigue PM, Ferrie JE, Pierpoint T, Marmot MG. Association of early-onset coronary heart disease in South Asian men with glucose intolerance and hyperinsulinemia. *Circulation.* 1993 Jan;87(1):152-61.
 19. Kain K, Catto AJ, Grant PJ. Associations between insulin resistance and thrombotic risk factors in high-risk South Asian subjects. *Diabet Med.* 2003 Aug;20(8):651-5.
 20. Hales CN, Barker DJ. Type 2 (non-insulin-dependent) diabetes mellitus: The thrifty phenotype hypothesis. *Diabetologia.* 1992 Jul;35(7):595-601.
 21. McCance DR, Pettitt DJ, Hanson RL, Jacobsson LT, Knowler WC, Bennett PH. Birth weight and non-insulin dependent diabetes: Thrifty genotype, thrifty phenotype, or surviving small baby genotype? *BMJ.* 1994 Apr 9;308(6934):942-5.
 22. Singhal A, Wells J, Cole TJ, Fewtrell M, Lucas A. Programming of lean body mass: A link between birth weight, obesity, and cardiovascular disease? *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2003 Mar;77(3):726-30.
 23. Neel JV. Diabetes mellitus: A "thrifty" genotype rendered detrimental by "progress"? 1962. *Bull World Health Organ.* 1999;77(8):694-703; discussion 692-3.
 24. Abate N, Chandalia M, Satija P, Adams-Huet B, Grundy SM, Sandeep S, *et al.* ENPP1/PC-1 K121Q polymorphism and genetic susceptibility to type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes.* 2005 Apr;54(4):1207-13.
 25. Chandak G, Janipalli C, Bhaskar S, Kulkarni S, Mohankrishna P, Hattersley A, *et al.* Common variants in the TCF7L2 gene are strongly associated with type 2 diabetes mellitus in the Indian population. *Diabetologia.* 2007;50(1):63-7.
 26. Jack Jr L, Liburd L, Spencer T, Airhihenbuwa C. Understanding the environmental issues in diabetes self-management education research: A reexamination of 8 studies in community-based settings. *Ann Intern Med.* 2004;140(11):964.
 27. Naeem AG. The role of culture and religion in the management of diabetes: A study of Kashmiri men in Leeds. *J R Soc Promot Health.* 2003 Jun;123(2):110-6.
 28. Ikeda J. Culture, food, and nutrition in increasingly culturally diverse societies. In Germov J, Williams L. *A sociology of food and nutrition.* Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press. 1999:149-68.
 29. Stone M, Pound E, Pancholi A, Farooqi A, Khunti K. Empowering patients with diabetes: A qualitative primary care study focusing on South Asians in Leicester, UK. *Fam Pract.* 2005 Dec;22(6):647-52.
 30. Baradaran H, Knill-Jones R. Assessing the knowledge, attitudes and understanding of type 2 diabetes amongst ethnic groups in Glasgow, Scotland. *Pract Diab Int.* 2004;21(4):143-7.
 31. Patel V, Morrissey J, Goenka N, James D, Shaikh S. Diabetes care in the Hindu patient: Cultural and clinical aspects. *Br J Diabetes Vasc Dis.* 2001;1(2):132.
 32. Greenhalgh T, Helman C, Chowdhury A. Health beliefs and folk models of diabetes in British Bangladeshis: a qualitative study. *Br Med J.* 1998;316(7136):978.
 33. Shaikh S, James D, Morrissey J, Patel V. Diabetes care and Ramadan: To fast or not to fast. *Br J Diabetes Vasc Dis.* 2001;1:65-7.
 34. Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Vijay V, Colagiuri S. Detecting undiagnosed diabetes in urban Asian Indians-role of opportunistic screening. *JAPI.* 2004;52:545-6.
 35. O'Hare JP, Raymond NT, Mughal S, Dodd L, Hanif W, Ahmad Y, *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 Dec;21(12):1357-65.
 36. Harvey E, Harris S, Sohal P. Type 2 diabetes in high-risk ethnic populations. *Can J Diabetes.* 2008;Volume 32(Supplement 1):S191-S3.
 37. Meltzer S, Leiter L, Daneman D, Gerstein H, Lau D, Ludwig S, *et al.* 1998 Clinical practice guidelines for the management of diabetes in Canada. *CMAJ.* 1998;159:1-29.
 38. Alberti KG, Zimmet P, Shaw J. Metabolic syndrome--a new world-wide definition. A consensus statement from the International Diabetes Federation. *Diabet Med.* 2006 May;23(5):469-80.
 39. Appropriate body-mass index for Asian populations and its implications for policy and intervention strategies. *Lancet.* 2004 Jan 10;363(9403):157-63.
 40. Patel JK, Hughes EA, Mackness MI, Vyas A, Cruickshank JK. Appropriate body-mass index for Asians. *Lancet.* 2003 Jan 4;361(9351):85.
 41. Garvin C, Cheadle A, Chrisman N, Chen R, Brunson E. A community-based approach to diabetes control in multiplecultural groups. *Ethn Dis.* 2004;14.
 42. Davachi S, Flynn MAT, Edwards AL. A health region/community partnership for type 2 diabetes risk factor screening in Indo-Asian communities. *Can J Diabetes.* 2005;29(2):87-94.
 43. Ford S, Mai F, Manson A, Rukin N, Dunne F. Diabetes knowledge--are patients getting the message? *Int J Clin Pract.* 2000 Oct;54(8):535-6.
 44. Vyas A, Haidery AZ, Wiles PG, Gill S, Roberts C, Cruickshank JK. A pilot randomized trial in primary care to investigate and improve knowledge, awareness and self-management among South Asians with diabetes in Manchester. *Diabet Med.* 2003 Dec;20(12):1022-6.
 45. Hawthorne K. Effect of culturally appropriate health education on glycaemic control and knowledge of diabetes in British Pakistani women with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Health Educ Res.* 2001 Jun;16(3):373-81.
 46. Simmons D. Diabetes self help facilitated by local diabetes research: the Coventry Asian Diabetes Support Group. *Diabet Med.* 1992 Nov;9(9):866-9.
 47. Sanghara R. Deterrents of participation in diabetes education: Perspectives of elderly Indo-Canadians. *Can J Diabetes.* 2000;24(1):19-26.
 48. Coughlan Y, RGN B. Diabetes Fairs: Bromley by Bow Healthcentre. A holistic approach to diabetes care in the community. *Pract Diab Int.* 2005;22(6):197-201.
 49. Clement S. Diabetes self-management education. *Diabetes Care.* 1995;18(8):1204.
 50. Dunn S, Huskins P, M Constantino ea. Diabetic management: the role of the diabetes center. *Diabetes Rev.* 1994(2):389-402.
 51. Greenhalgh P. Shared care for diabetes: A systematic review. Occasional paper (Royal College of General Practitioners). 1994;(67).
 52. Janson S, Cooke M, McGrath K, Kroon L, Robinson S, Baron R. Improving chronic care of type 2 diabetes using teams of interprofessional learners. *Acad Med.* 2009;84(11):1540.
 53. Pollom R, Pollom R. Utilization of a multidisciplinary team for inpatient diabetes care. *Crit Care Nurs Q.* 2004;27(2):185.
 54. Lin D, Hale S, Kirby E. Improving diabetes management: Structured clinic program for Canadian primary care. *Can Fam Physician.* 2007;53(1):73.
 55. Kaufman F, Halvorson M, Carpenter S. Association between diabetes control and visits to a multidisciplinary pediatric diabetes clinic. *Pediatrics.* 1999;103(5):948.
 56. Shojania K, Ranji S, McDonald K, Grimshaw J, Sundaram V, Rushakoff R, *et al.* Effects of quality improvement strategies for type 2 diabetes on glycemic control: A meta-regression analysis. *Jama.* 2006;296(4):427.
 57. Krishnan S, Nash F, Baker N, Fowler D, Rayman G. Reduction in diabetic amputations over 11 years in a defined UK population. *Diabetes Care.* 2008;31(1):99.
 58. Hemmelgarn B, Manns B, Zhang J, Tonelli M, Klarenbach S, Walsh M, *et al.* Association between multidisciplinary care and survival for elderly patients with chronic kidney disease. *J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2007;18(3):993.
 59. Scanlon D, Hollenbeak C, Beich J, Dyer A, Gabbay R, Milstein A. Financial and clinical impact of team-based treatment for Medicaid enrollees with diabetes in a federally qualified health center. *Diabetes Care.* 2008;31(11):2160.