South Africa is already staggering under a quadruple burden of disease including the pre-transitional diseases associated with poverty and underdevelopment, the emerging 'Western' chronic noncommunicable diseases, injuries, both intentional and unintentional, and HIV/AIDS.1 Cardiovascular disease is second to HIV/AIDS in the cause-of-death categories, and diabetes mellitus, a major cardiovascular risk factor in South Africa, is featured as one of the leading noncommunicable causes of years-of-life-lost in both women and men.1 It is predicted that the incidence of obesity and type 2 diabetes mellitus, appropriately referred to as diabesity,2 is to increase dramatically over the next decade to the extent that it is seen as a pandemic.3 A dramatic increase in incidence of diabesity has already been noted in westernised countries and is a source of great concern.4 The burden for developing countries, in human and financial terms, is expected to be enormous and far-reaching.

Dysglycaemia in South Africa

Type 2 diabetes accounts for the vast majority of all diabetes in South Africa⁶ and is extremely common in certain ethnic groups including the South African Indian population.⁶ Whereas the microvasculature is predominantly affected in type 1 diabetes and is related to the years of exposure to dysglycaemia, type 2 diabetes is predominantly a macrovascular disease with a consequent dramatic increase in cardiovascular morbidity and mortality that accounts for up to 75% of all deaths in this group.⁷

All too frequently it is assumed that increases in diabesity are purely a consequence of affluence, but the projected figures for sub-Saharan and other developing countries are even greater and tell another story.^{5,8} Indeed, there is evidence to suggest that the diabesity

pandemic is already well established in South Africa^{5,6} and we are bound to see a dramatic rise in the number of patients suffering from the insulin resistance syndrome (IRS) over the next decade.

The progression of insulin resistance

Insulin resistance (IR) is the initial underlying pathogenetic factor in the majority of patients with type 2 diabetes and is modified by numerous genetic and environmental influences, not the least of which is central obesity.9 In the face of decreasing insulin sensitivity and in an effort to maintain euglycaemia, the beta cells of the pancreas increase their secretion of insulin and in doing so succeed in keeping the glucose levels normal. This results in a hyperinsulinaemic but euglycaemic state that is now accepted to be associated with many other cardiovascular risk factors and an increased cardiovascular morbidity and mortality.10 The clustering of these cardiovascular risk factors and IR is now recognised as part of the IRS. It is important to stress that this condition is present before the onset of dysglycaemia, and long before the onset of diabetes, and that presence of type 2 diabetes is not required to make the diagnosis of this extremely common disorder. 11 Indeed, type 2 diabetes is only the tip of the IRS iceberg.12 Ultimately the second requirement for the development of dysglycaemia comes into play, namely beta-cell failure in the pancreas, after which the blood glucose starts to rise. Eventually the patient goes through a phase where the dysglycaemia exceeds the diagnostic criteria for impaired glucose tolerance and impaired fasting glucose, and eventually the hyperglycaemia will be sufficient to make the diagnosis of type 2 diabetes.

The 'ticking clock' hypothesis 13

It is therefore evident that many years of IR have been present by the time the clinical diagnosis of diabetes is usually made. Data from the UK Prospective Diabetes (UKPD) Study¹⁴ suggest that on average 10 - 12 years of beta-cell failure have elapsed before confirmation of the diagnosis of type 2 diabetes. In addition, years of IR have been present even before the onset of beta-cell failure. It is now evident that endothelial dysfunction and all the other attendant cardiovascular risk factors have been present for many years in the period before the patient is eventually labelled as a type 2 diabetic. 15,16 Long before hyperglycaemia and diabetes have been diagnosed and long before the hyperglycaemia has started to have its deleterious effect on the microvasculature, the macrovascular disease clock has already been silently ticking away in this 'pre-diabetic phase'.13

Therefore it is not surprising that in this 'pre-diabetic' phase of the IRS many patients develop the same macrovascular complications as type 2 diabetics. Indeed, a patient suffering from type 2 diabetes and with no prior history of an acute coronary syndrome has the same chance of having a coronary event as a nondiabetic who has already suffered from an acute myocardial infarction.¹⁷ Accordingly, type 2 diabetes is considered to be a coronary equivalent, and the diabetic should be managed for secondary coronary and atherosclerotic prevention in the same way as any other person who already has clinically evident atherosclerotic and coronary artery disease. Many of these patients never live to develop type 2 diabetes; they succumb prematurely to the effects of the macrovascular pathology associated with IR which precedes the type 2 diabetes. Conceptually it is therefore useful to speak of the vascular disease of IR rather than the vascular disease of type 2 diabetes as this emphasises the early and pre-diabetic onset of the vasculopathy. Indeed, a good argument can be made for the point of view that type 2 diabetes is not a disease in itself, but rather the end result and complication of another disease, namely IR, and later beta-cell failure of the pancreas. The latter two in turn have causes that are diverse and varied, and still need to be clearly defined.18

The message is clear; the onset of macrovascular disease is well established by the time the diagnosis of type 2 diabetes has been made, and it follows that the concept of 'mild diabetes' is nonsensical and a potentially deleterious platitude to deliver to a newly diagnosed diabetic. It is also evident that the early recognition of these high-risk IR patients before they develop diabetes is mandatory.

Macrovascular disease

Type 2 diabetes is closely associated with macrovascular disease of all vascular systems but this

is particularly true for coronary artery disease. The relative risk of coronary artery disease in 45 - 74-year-old diabetic men and women is 2.4 and 5.1 times greater than in their non-diabetic counterparts respectively. Although typically atherosclerotic, the macrovascular disease of type 2 diabetics differs in many respects from that seen in non-diabetics — the atherosclerosis is more diffuse with a greater plaque burden, involves more organ systems simultaneously, presents at a younger age, abolishes the differences in incidence between males and premenopausal females, abolishes the disparity in incidence between different ethnic groups, and additionally affects arteries of a smaller diameter.

Type 2 diabetes imparts an increased morbidity and mortality for vascular disease in general and for acute vascular incidents of all types. Diabetics have a post-myocardial infarction mortality double that of non-diabetics which is two-fold higher in females than males, they have a higher incidence of complications such as heart failure, recurrent ischaemia, infarct extension and cardiogenic shock, and they are more likely to have recurrent myocardial infarction.²⁰ Although the increased tendency to develop heart failure, or diabetic cardiomyopathy, is thought to be largely vascular in origin, hypertension, acetylated glycation end products, dysautonomia, abnormal intracellular calcium handling, lipotoxicity and apoptosis probably also play a significant role.²¹

The prevalence of dysglycaemia in patients with an acute coronary syndrome may be higher than usually suspected. In patients with an acute myocardial infarction and no previous diagnosis of diabetes, nearly one-third were found to have undiagnosed diabetes and a further third had impaired glucose tolerance. ²² Surely few clinical settings exist where the identification of this number of dysglycaemic patients can be exceeded, and not to perform a modified glucose tolerance test on patients during convalescence from an acute coronary syndrome is a valuable opportunity missed.

Risk factors in the development and progression of atherosclerosis

The IRS comprises a characteristic collection of cardiovascular risk factors that individually and collectively make patients with this syndrome extremely prone to develop atherosclerosis. Many of the traditional risk factors are incorporated in the somewhat varying diagnostic criteria for what others also refer to as the metabolic syndrome. Of these different sets of criteria, those of the third Adult Treatment Panel (ATPIII) of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) have now eventually recognised the importance of the IRS and are likely to be the diagnostic criteria with the greatest clinical utility. The ATPIII criteria regard the IRS as being present if three of the following five criteria are present:

(i) central obesity as measured by a waist circumference exceeding 102 cm in males and 88 cm in females, but there is evidence that an increased waist/ hip ratio of more than 1 in males and greater than 0.8 in females may more accurately predict cardiovascular disease;²⁴ (ii) serum triglyceride levels greater than 1.7 mmol/l; (iii) a high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol level less than 1 mmol/l in males and less than 1.3 mmol/l in females; (iv) a blood pressure greater than 130/80 mmHg; and (v) a fasting plasma glucose greater than 6.1 mmol/l. Of note is that diabetes or dysglycaemia need not be present to make the diagnosis. The IRS is a characteristic phenotype and in many cases recognisable at a distance and it must be exceptional that additional biochemical parameters, including insulin estimations, are required to confirm this diagnosis and institute management.

The prevalence of IR increases in correlation with the increasing combinations of dysglycaemia, dyslipidaemia, hyperuricaemia and hypertension²⁵ and, as expected, the cardiovascular risk and mortality of the IRS rises in correlation with the number of associated traditional and non-traditional risk factors.26 Insulin resistance predicts cardiovascular risk independently of the presence of any other risk factors, and by most definitions IR is present in all those with the IRS and probably underpins all the associated vascular risk factors associated with this syndrome; such a correlation can be shown for all the traditional and nontraditional risk factors.²⁷ It is tempting to ascribe the increased cardiovascular risk associated with IR to a direct effect of the associated compensatory hyperinsulinaemia but although there is a clear association between hyperinsulinaemia and cardiovascular disease, satisfactory data to prove a cause and effect relationship between hyperinsulinaemia and vascular disease are lacking. The causes of IR are not clearly defined and probably vary in different populations. 18 There may be something inherent in the underlying cause of IR which in its own right increases cardiovascular risk either directly or via other associated risk factors in a complex interplay of different mechanisms.²⁸

The association with hypertension and hyperinsulinaemia has long been known²⁹ and the link between hypertension and IR has been clearly demonstrated.³⁰ Considerable data exist to support the deleterious role that hypertension plays in the genesis of the vascular disease, especially in the presence of dysglycaemia. Indeed the combination of IR and hypertension powerfully predicts the presence of coronary artery disease.³¹

Obesity is an important if not integral part of the IRS. The presence of central or visceral adiposity in particular is one of the hallmarks of this disease. In most cases this is visually obvious but it can be measured by an abnormal waist-to-hip ratio (> 1 in males and > 0.8 in females) or simply an increased waist circumference (> 88 cm in females and > 102 cm in males). Not only is

central obesity a precipitating or aggravating factor, but many regard it as an integral part of the disease process and not merely a manifestation of wilful overeating, which may be one of the reasons that it is so difficult to treat.

Insulin has an important antilipolytic effect and accordingly plays a fundamental role in lipid metabolism. It is therefore not surprising that dyslipidaemia is an important feature of the IRS.32 The dyslipidaemia is characterised by hypertriglyceridaemia in association with a decreased HDL cholesterol level. Typically the triglyceride level is only slightly increased (> 1.7 mmol/l) and often passes the notice of clinicians; exceptionally, under circumstances of additional metabolic stress such as uncontrolled diabetes, excessive caloric intake, hypothyroidism or drugs, and in genetically susceptible individuals, the triglyceride level increases to be noticed as milky serum, or the chylomicronaemia syndrome. Usually the total cholesterol and low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol are normal or only slightly increased, and accordingly a fasting serum cholesterol may be a poor screening test for this form of dyslipidaemia. Some of the IR patients additionally inherit some of the cluster of genes that determine the spread of cholesterol and hypercholesterolaemia in the general population; these patients, in addition to the above lipid consequences of their insulin-resistant genes, may also have increased (LDL) cholesterol. Patients with the IRS also fail to clear triglyceride-rich particles from their circulation following a meal which manifests as postprandial lipaemia and which is an independent cardiovascular risk factor.33

IR patients also have some qualitative lipid changes. They develop small cholesterol-rich LDL-like particles referred to as 'small-dense LDL'. ³³ These particles are especially atherogenic because they are easily modified by oxidisation and hence more easily engulfed by macrophages. Each LDL particle has only one ApoB apoprotein attached to it. It therefore follows that persons with predominantly small-dense LDL will have more LDL particles per unit volume than normal people and consequently also more ApoB particles. This is referred to as hyper-ApoB, is a feature of the dyslipidaemia of IR and is an even greater predictor of vascular disease than LDL cholesterol. ³⁴ The ratio of ApoB to LDL cholesterol may be an indirect marker of the presence of small-dense LDL. ³⁵

Endothelial dysfunction plays a pivotal role in the initiation and progression of atherosclerosis. It is one of the earliest manifestations of the IRS and consequently there are early alterations in vascular reactivity and the coagulation and thrombolytic pathways. Mitric oxide (NO) plays a pivotal role in the maintenance of vascular health. NO maintains normal guanyl cyclase-mediated vasoreactivity and protects blood vessels from atherosclerosis; it mediates signals that prevent

platelets and leucocytes from interacting with the vessel wall and inhibits vascular smooth-muscle cell proliferation and migration. A deficiency of NO leads to an increase in proinflammatory signals via the transcription factor nuclear kappa B (NF-B) which in turn results in an increased expression of leucocyte adhesion molecules and production of various inflammatory chemokines and cytokines.37,38 The bioavailability of NO is a balance between its production by NO synthase and its destruction, particularly by free oxygen radicals. A deficiency of NO-mediated signalling results from hyperglycaemia, excess free fatty acid production and IR, and underpins the abnormalities of endothelial function observed in the IRS resulting in a proinflammatory milieu.39 It is now accepted that inflammation plays a central role in the progression of atherosclerosis and genesis of the vulnerable plaque. 40,41 Nowhere is this more evident than in the IRS which has been referred to as an inflammatory metabolic condition.⁴² There is a close relationship between highly sensitive CRP (hsCRP), other inflammatory markers, and the IRS, 16,43 and remnant triglyceride-rich particles seem to play an important role in linking the IRS to the inflammatory process and even activate inflammatory cascades

Microalbuminuria is associated with atherosclerotic vascular disease and various cardiovascular risk factors. There is a particularly strong association with the IRS and its components. It is thought that microalbuminuria is a marker of endothelial dysfunction induced by numerous insults but whether microalbuminuria is a true risk factor or just a marker of vascular disease is uncertain.

during postprandial lipaemia.44

The IRS is associated with hyperfibrinogenaemia which appears to be modifiable in pace with those interventions that favourably modify the dyslipidaemia, especially fibrates. Whether these decreases in fibrinogen levels result in a decrease in cardiovascular endpoints, and whether to specifically target the increased fibrinogen levels remains to be proved.

Blood levels of plasminogen activator inhibitor type I (PAI-1), an important inhibitor of the fibrinolytic system, are increased in virtually all patients with the IRS and may be amenable to treatment by drugs that improve IR such as the thiazolidinediones.⁴⁶ It is intriguing that obesity and IR can be prevented in mice lacking the PAI-1 genel⁴⁷

Hyperhomocysteinaemia has been reported in association with an IR model and has been suggested to be a component of the IRS, but others have not been able to confirm this association. 48,49 Increased homocysteine levels occur independently of the IR and should be managed as such.

Although there are many plausible theories as to the cause of the underlying IR, and also the later

progression to beta-cell failure, an accepted unifying explanation for the process remains elusive. 50 The peroxisame proliferator activated receptors (PPAR)-gamma nuclear receptors undoubtedly play an important role. 51 The PPAR- γ receptors have an important influence on IR whereas the PPAR- α receptors influence lipid metabolism. Additionally these PPAR receptors also have powerful regulatory effects on inflammation. It will therefore not be surprising if haplotypes of the genes of these receptors, or of any of the numerous co-activators or co-repressors of these genes, may account for the variability of insulin sensitivity in given populations, and differences between populations. 52

Lipotoxicity, or the accumulation of lipids in non-adipocyte cells, together with leptin resistance seems to play a central role but other hormones and cytokines released by adipocytes have also been implicated. ^{53,54} More recently, a more central neurological mechanism has been suggested to be active. ⁵⁵ Indeed, more than one mechanism is likely to play a role and there is some evidence to support the fact that the underlying biomolecular mechanism of IR differs between different ethnic groups. ⁵⁶

It is unfortunate that the UKPD study⁵⁷ showed that intensive glucose control was not associated with a statistically significant effect on endpoints attributable to macrovascular disease. Consequently too many have adopted the attitude that strict glucose control is not all that important in dysglycaemic patients. However, the opposite is suggested by numerous studies that have related hyperglycaemia to the subsequent development of macrovascular disease. Even post-challenge hyperglycaemia, or postprandial hyperglycaemia, is independently related to mortality.⁵⁸ One cannot underplay the role of hyperglycaemia as a cardiovascular risk factor.

Management of the IRS and prevention of macrovascular disease

Management of the patient with IRS is emphasised over mere treatment of the IRS. The aim of treatment should be the prevention of vascular disease and not only the control of the risk factor — this should be repeatedly stressed!

The patient requires a holistic approach; the patient with the disease should be managed rather than only the individual risk factors. There can be no justification for patients to have their obesity treated in one clinic, their hypertension controlled in another, their dyslipidaemia corrected in a third, their diabetes managed in still another clinic and finally, to have their angina and coronary artery disease attended to elsewhere. This on top of having their smoking-cessation and exercise programmes managed at other venues. All the patient's risk factors must be treated together. It makes no sense

58

to concentrate on treating one aggressively while leaving the others unattended.

Early diagnosis of these patients is imperative. Clearly there is a group of patients who are at great risk for developing type 2 diabetes and who warrant extra surveillance and screening. These patients include those with: (i) impaired fasting glucose; (ii) impaired glucose tolerance; (iii) first-degree relatives of type 2 diabetics; (iv) previous gestational diabetes; and (v) other features diagnostic of IRS. It has been proposed that these patients be referred to as having 'prediabetes', a term similar to but not identical with its previous usage and a term that is conceptually easier to understand by medical and lay persons alike. ⁵⁹

Once dysglycaemia has developed patients should be regarded as having a coronary equivalent and managed with secondary prevention of cardiovascular disease. Once the components of IRS are evident it is imperative that the condition be discussed with patients and they should be empowered to make decisions regarding their own health. To underplay their risk factors with comments like 'you are a bit overweight', 'you have a bit of blood pressure' or, even worse 'you have mild diabetes' will not be in the patients' best interests — they must realise the gravity of their diagnosis.

These patients can be very difficult to manage — they look so well because they eat so well because they live so well. A sound doctor-patient relationship is imperative and regular follow-up has a therapeutic effect in its own right. The aims of management include optimal control of all the cardiovascular risk factors collectively, and in the non-diabetic patient prevention of the onset of type 2 diabetes mellitus. Spelling out these aims to the patient will foster better compliance and adherence to advice.

Lifestyle changes

Lifestyle changes affect many aspects of the patient's life. Changes include: (i) smoking cessation; (ii) adjusting the diet to reduce intake of excess calories in order to modify obesity and correct the underlying dyslipidaemia while following other sound dietary advice; and (iii) increasing the amount of exercise.

There is no doubt that lifestyle modification is effective. The Diabetes Prevention Programme (DPP)⁴ showed a 58% reduction of newly diagnosed type 2 diabetes with lifestyle changes alone, whereas metformin had a 31% reduction. Similarly the Diabetes Prevention Study (DPS)⁴ showed a 58% reduction of diabetes in those treated with lifestyle changes. It is noteworthy that the average weight loss in these two studies was small.⁴ Also, those who increased their exercise but did not lose weight experienced no reduction in diabetes.⁴ However, it is difficult to achieve this degree and

intensity of intervention outside a clinical trial setting.⁴ The patients were given frequent motivational sessions regarding diet, exercise and the cessation of smoking, and were offered incentives for achieving goals. Indeed, the cost-effectiveness of these intensive lifestyle measures has been questioned.⁴

One of the aims of lifestyle change is to get the patient to lose weight, and a dietician's advice may be invaluable. It is important to set realistic goals that are achievable and sustainable. Shedding 10% of the patient's weight over the first year, which translates into about 1 kg per month, is achievable and this should be soundly praised when achieved. The dietary changes should be primarily quantitative and incorporate a reduction of kilojoule intake. Qualitative changes in the diet are tempered by the presence of dyslipidaemia or dysglycaemia. The dyslipidaemia of insulin resistance is manifested by the hightriglyceride/low-HDL complex for which many advise a low-fat diet but which is accompanied by an increase in carbohydrate intake. There are examples of patients who paradoxically increase their triglycerides on this regimen.61 Others claim success with a lowcarbohydrate diet, for which there is also theoretical support. 61 Modest weight loss pays large dividends in correcting the insulin-resistant dyslipidaemia, reducing blood pressure, improving dysglycaemia and reducing cardiovascular events.4,62

An increase in physical activity must be instituted. Patients should aim for 3½ hours of some kind of exercise, divided over at least four sessions per week, and enough to raise the pulse rate and a slight sweat. It appears that exercise does not have an all-or-nothing effect and there does not appear to be a threshold. Patients should do as much as they can within their capabilities, and a little exercise is better than nothing. There is no doubt that switching the television off is a good start. The gains from an increase in exercise are reflected in an improvement in many of the risk factors for the IRS.⁸²

Although not part of the IRS, a large proportion of patients with this syndrome smoke. The benefits of smoking cessation are substantial in the short and long term and go beyond a reduction in cardiovascular risk. Smoking must be recognised as a very potent addiction and it is extremely difficult for a patient to overcome the addiction voluntarily. There can be little justification for denying patients their other usual risk reduction care because they continue to smoke. The need to stop smoking must be reinforced forcefully at each visit but not in an acrimonious manner. More reliance should be placed on smoking cessation clinics, nicotine replacement therapy and other drugs that appear to improve the success rate. The amount of money and effort devoted to smoking cessation by the medical fraternity is inordinately small when compared with that spent on other risk factors!

Once patients have grasped the severity and magnitude of their problem it is important to illustrate to them that their unfavourable lifestyle habits extend beyond themselves to other members of their families, including their children. They are role models for their children. Very often this is motivation enough for the patient to change his or her ways. Bad habits learnt in childhood are difficult to unlearn as adults and it makes sense to foster healthy living in children while they are at home and still imprintable.

Dyslipidaemia

The dyslipidaemia of insulin resistance typically manifests as a raised triglyceride level and a decreased HDL cholesterol. 32,63 These patients tend to respond well to diet, weight reduction and the control of other metabolic factors such as diabetes. The fibrates are now known to be PPAR-a agonists and they predominantly decrease triglycerides and increase HDL cholesterol. Logic dictates that they should be the drugs of first choice in treating this form of dyslipidaemia. However, they are still reserved for patients where the triglyceride exceeds 5 mmol/l or as part of combination therapy with statins. Statins are recommended as the drugs of first choice in part because they have the pleiotropic effect of improving endothelial dysfunction. 64 If the triglycerides or HDL cholesterol are not improved sufficiently then the cautious combination of a statin and a fibrate may be considered — cautious because of the real danger of rhabdomyolysis. Some advise combination therapy with nicotinic acid. However, one of the side-effects of this drug is the appearance of IR, including acanthosis nigricans, the principal clinical marker of IR. It makes no sense to use this medication in those where IR is the prime underlying problem.

Dysglycaemia and diabetes

The onset of diabetes must be treated in its own right. It is beyond the scope of this article to repeat the proper treatment of type 2 diabetes and it is better defined elsewhere. Metformin improves IR and it should be included in the first line of oral antidiabetic agents, certainly in the centrally obese patients. Others argue for the early use of metformin in all those with the IRS and who are destined to get type 2 diabetes. Metformin in all those with

Primary prevention of type 2 diabetes

Data indicate that the primary prevention of diabetes may be achievable. Optimally this requires a national population approach and it is doubtful whether this can be achieved in South Africa in the short term. At the individual level it is feasible to target the high-risk group of patients for the primary prevention of type 2 diabetes. The DPP 60 showed a 58% and 31% risk reduction for developing diabetes in the groups treated

with lifestyle changes and metformin respectively. Similarly the DPS⁶⁸ resulted in a 58% reduced risk with lifestyle intervention. These studies clearly show what can be achieved with lifestyle changes.

Drugs as a primary prevention tool are starting to show their probable benefit. The effectivity of metformin in the DPP study is convincing. ⁶⁰ The use of metformin in non-diabetic patients with IRS has much to recommend it and is recommended by many. ^{66,67} This will probably have to be debated by special interest groups in South Africa before it can be generally recommended.

Other drugs also have potential. The Swedish Trial in Old Patients (STOP)69 showed a 25% reduction in the probability of developing diabetes in those patients treated with acarbose. The thiazolidinediones are PPAR agonists with varying degrees of PPAR- α or PPAR- γ affinity. These drugs, including pioglitazone and rosiglitazone, have been shown to improve IR.70,71 They prevent progression to diabetes, have a favourable effect on lipotoxicity,72 and consequently have been shown to prevent the decline in beta-cell function.73 Although these drugs are currently only recommended late in the treatment of diabetes when other antidiabetic drugs have failed, data increasingly indicate that these drugs should be used much earlier in type 2 diabetes and a sound argument can be made for their use even before the onset of diabetes in IR patients.

Other drugs not primarily designed for the treatment of dysglycaemia have a role to play in the primary prevention of diabetes. In the HOPE Study74 the number of new diabetics was less in the angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitor (ramipril) arm of the study compared with placebo. In the XENDOS Study, 75 orlistat plus lifestyle intervention resulted in 37% lower incidence of type 2 diabetes. A post hoc analysis of the WOSCOP Study⁷⁶ showed that use of pravastatin resulted in a 30% reduction in type 2 diabetes. There are various currently ongoing studies looking at the primary prevention of diabetes. These include the DREAM Study 77 looking at the use of ramipril and rosiglitasone, the NAVIGATOR 77 Study looking at the effect of valsartan and nateglinide, and the currently ongoing ORIGIN Study looking at the effect of glargine insulin with or without the addition of n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs).

Other treatment

The management of hypertension in diabetics has been covered extensively elsewhere and should be familiar to all those interested in the IRS. Many antihypertensive medications have an adverse effect on the IRS and this should be considered when making a choice. Description Care should be taken that patients are not denied some of the benefits of these medications; type 2 diabetics have much to benefit from the use of beta-blockers.

The vascular risk profile of patients with IRS is such that they should all be treated with aspirin.⁸¹

It has become evident that the polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) is an extremely IR condition. BE PCOS should always be considered in females presenting with IRS and managed appropriately, including measures to reduce vascular risk.

Many patients receiving highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART), primarily the protease inhibitors, develop IR.^{83,84} Manifestations include lipodystrophy and the typical and rather severe dyslipidaemic changes described above. It appears that HAART may eventually be used more widely in South Africa and this problem is going to surface more frequently in metabolic clinics.

Conclusion

The IRS is already a commonly seen phenomenon — it only takes an observant eye to see the large number of these patients with the typical 'braaivleis physique' walking around in our shopping malls. There can be few in the medical profession who will not encounter this condition in their daily activities, and accordingly it behoves us all to know more than the rudiments of this condition.

- Bradshaw D, Groenewald P, Laubscher R, et al. Initial burden of disease estimates for South Africa, 2000. S Afr Med J 2003; 93: 682-688.
- Zimmet P, Alberti KG, Shaw J. Global and societal implications of the diabetes epidemic. Nature 2001; 414: 782-787.
- Zimmet P. Globalization, coca-colonization and the chronic disease epidemic: can the Doomsday scenario be averted? J Intern Med 2000; 247: 301-310.
- Zimmet P, Shaw J, Alberti KG. Preventing type 2 diabetes and the dysmetabolic syndrome in the real world: a realistic view. Diabet Med 2003: 20: 693-702.
- Motala AA, Omar MA, Pirie FJ. Diabetes in Africa. Epidemiology of type 1 and type 2 diabetes in Africa. J Cardiovasc Risk 2003; 10: 77-83.
- Motala AA, Pirie FJ, Gouws E, Amod A, Omar MA. High incidence of type 2 diabetes mellitus in South African Indians: a 10-year follow-up study. *Diabet Med* 2003; 20: 23-20.
- Gray RP, Yudkin JS. Cardiovascular disease in diabetes mellitus. In: Pickup JC, Williams G. eds. Textbook of Diabetes. Oxford: Blackwell. 1997: 1 - 57.
- Walker AR, Adam F, Walker BF. World pandemic of obesity: the situation in Southern African populations. Public Health 2001; 115: 368-372.
- Davidson MB. Metabolic syndrome/insulin resistance syndrome/pre-diabetes: new section in diabetes care. Diabetes Care 2003: 26: 3179.
- Zimmet PZ. Hyperinsulinemia how innocent a bystander? Diabetes Care 1993: 16:
- Suppl, 3: 56-70.
 Distiller L. Diagnosis of the Insulin Resistance Syndrome. Hospital Update 2004; 1: 1-3
- Distiller L. Diagnosis of the insulin Resistance Syndrome. Hospital Opdate 2004; 1: 1-3.
 Daly A. Diabesity: the deadly pentad disease. The Diabetes Educator 1994; 20: 156-
- 152. Day A. Diabesty, the deadily period disease. The Diabetes Educator 1994, **20.** 199-
- Haffner SM, Stern MP, Hazuda HP, Mitchell BD, Patterson JK. Cardiovascular risk factors in confirmed prediabetic individuals. Does the clock for coronary heart disease start ticking before the onset of clinical diabetes? JAMA 1990. 263: 2883-2898.
- Matthews DR. The natural history of diabetes-related complications: the UKPDS experience. United Kingdom Prospective Diabetes Study. *Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism* 1999: 1; Suppl 2, S7-13.
- Caballero AE. Endothelial dysfunction in obesity and insulin resistance: a road to diabetes and heart disease. Obes Res 2003; 11: 1278-1289.
- Haffner SM. Pre-diabetes, insulin resistance, inflammation and CVD risk. Diabetes Res Clin Pract 2003: 61: Suppl 1. S9-S18.
- Haffner SM, Lehto S, Ronnemaa T, Pyorala K, Laakso M. Mortality from coronary heart disease in subjects with type 2 diabetes and in nondiabetic subjects with and without prior myocardial infarction. N Engl J Med 1998: 339: 239-234.
- Saltiel AR. The molecular and physiological basis of insulin resistance: emerging implications for metabolic and cardiovascular diseases. J Clin Invest 2000; 106: 163-
- Kannel WB. Lipids, diabetes and coronary artery disease: insights from the Framingham Study. Am Heart J 1985; 110: 1100-1107.
- Wahab NN, Cowden EA, Pearce NJ, Gardner MJ, Merry H, Cox JL. Is blood glucose an independent predictor of mortality in acute myocardial infarction in the thrombolytic era? J Am Coll Cardiol 2002; 40: 1748-1754.
- Frustaci A, Kajstura J, Chimenti C, et al. Myocardial cell death in human diabetes. Circ Res 2000: 87: 1123-1132.
- Norhammar A, Tenerz A, Nilsson G, et al. Glucose metabolism in patients with acute myocardial infarction and no previous diagnosis of diabetes mellitus: a prospective

- study. Lancet 2002; 359: 2140-2144.
- Executive Summary of The Third Report of The National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, And Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol In Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III). JAMA 2001; 285: 2486-2497.
- Dalton M, Cameron AJ, Zimmet PZ, et al. Waist circumference, waist-hip ratio and body mass index and their correlation with cardiovascular disease risk factors in Australian adults. J Intern Med 2003; 254: 555-563.
- Bonora E, Kiechl S, Willeit J, et al. Prevalence of insulin resistance in metabolic disorders: the Bruneck Study. Diabetes 1998; 47: 1643-1649.
- Stamler J, Vaccaro O, Neaton JD, Wentworth D. Diabetes, other risk factors, and 12-yr cardiovascular mortality for men screened in the Multiple Risk Factor Intervention Trial. Diabetes Care 1993; 16: 434-444.
- 27. Greenberg AS. The expanding scope of the metabolic syndrome and implications for the management of cardiovascular risk in type 2 diabetes with particular focus on the emerging role of the thiazolidinediones. *Journal Diabetes Complications* 2003; 17: 218-228
- Ginsberg HN. Insulin resistance and cardiovascular disease. J Clin Invest 2000; 106: 453-458.
- Welborn TA, Breckenridge A, Rubinstein AH, Dollery CT, Fraser TR. Serum-insulin in essential hypertension and in peripheral vascular disease. Lancet 1966; 1: 1336-1337.
- Ferrannini E, Natali A, Capaldo B, Lehtovirta M, Jacob S, Yki-Jarvinen H. Insulin resistance, hyperinsulinemia, and blood pressure: role of age and obesity. European Group for the Study of Insulin Resistance (EGIR). Hypertension 1997; 30: 1144-1149.
- Sheu WH, Jeng CY, Shieh SM, et al. Insulin resistance and abnormal electrocardiograms in patients with high blood pressure. Am J Hypertens 1992; 5: 444-448
- Brunzell JD, Ayyobi AF. Dyslipidemia in the metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes mellitus. Am J Med 2003: 115: Suppl 8A 24S-28S.
- Reaven GM. Multiple CHD risk factors in type 2 diabetes: beyond hyperglycaemia Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism 2002; 4: Suppl 1, S13-S18.
- Williams K, Sniderman AD, Sattar N, D'Agostino R, jun, Wagenknecht LE, Haffner SM. Comparison of the associations of apolipoprotein B and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol with other cardiovascular risk factors in the Insulin Resistance Atherosclerosis Study (IRAS). Circulation 2003; 108: 2312-2316.
- Despres JP. The insulin resistance-dyslipidemic syndrome of visceral obesity: effect on patients' risk. Obes Res 1998; 6: Suppl 1, 8S-17S.
- Hsueh WA, Quinones MJ. Role of endothelial dysfunction in insulin resistance. Am J Cardiol 2003: 92: 10J-17J.
- Creager MA, Luscher TF, Cosentino F, Beckman JA. Diabetes and vascular disease: pathophysiology, clinical consequences, and medical therapy: Part 1. Circulation 2003; 108: 1527-1532.
- Luscher TF, Creager MA, Beckman JA, Cosentino F. Diabetes and vascular disease: pathophysiology, clinical consequences, and medical therapy: Part II. Circulation 2003; 108: 1655-1661.
- King GL. The role of hyperglycaemia and hyperinsulinaemia in causing vascular dysfunction in diabetes. Ann Med 1996; 28: 427-432.
- Libby P, Ridker PM, Maseri A. Inflammation and atherosclerosis. Circulation 2002; 105: 1135-1143.
- 41. Ridker PM. Inflammation, infection, and cardiovascular risk: how good is the clinical evidence? *Circulation* 1998; **97:** 1671-1674.
- Schmidt MI, Duncan BB. Diabesity: an inflammatory metabolic condition. Clin Chem Lab Med 2003; 41: 1120-1130.
- Haffner SM. Insulin resistance, inflammation, and the prediabetic state. Am J Cardiol 2003; 92: 18J-26J.
- van Oostrom AJ, Sijmonsma TP, Verseyden C, et al. Postprandial recruitment of neutrophils may contribute to endothelial dysfunction. J Lipid Res 2003; 44: 576-583.
- Naidoo DP. The link between microalbuminuria, endothelial dysfunction and cardiovascular disease in diabetes. Cardiovascular Journal of South Africa 2002; 13: 194-199.
- Juhan-Vague I, Alessi MC, Mavri A, Morange PE. Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1, inflammation, obesity, insulin resistance and vascular risk. J Thromb Haemost 2003; 1: 1575-1579.
- Ma LJ, Mao SL, Taylor KL, et al. Prevention of obesity and insulin resistance in mice lacking plasminogen activator inhibitor 1. Diabetes 2004; 53: 336-346.
- Abbasi F, Facchini F, Humphreys MH, Reaven GM. Plasma homocysteine concentrations in healthy volunteers are not related to differences in insulin-mediated glucose disposal. Atherosclerosis 1999; 146: 175-178.
- Gillum R. Distribution of serum total homocysteine and its association with diabetes and cardiovascular risk factors of the insulin resistance syndrome in Mexican American men: The Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Nutr J 2003; 2: 6.
- Schulman GI. Cellular mechanisms of insulin resistance. J Clin Invest 2002; 106: 171-
- Hsueh WA, Law R. The central role of fat and effect of peroxisome proliferatoractivated receptor-gamma on progression of insulin resistance and cardiovascular disease. Am J Cardiol 2003: 92: 31-9J.
- Stern MP. Strategies and prospects for finding insulin resitance genes. J Clin Invest 2000; 106: 323-327.
- McGarry JD, Dobbins RL. Fatty acids, lipotoxicity and insulin secretion. Diabetologia
- Unger RH. Lipotoxicity in the pathogenesis of obesity-dependent NIDDM. Genetic and clinical implications. Diabetes 1995; 44: 863-870.
- Asilmaz E, Cohen P, Miyazaki M, et al. Site and mechanism of leptin action in a rodent form of congenital lipodystrophy. J Clin Invest 2004; 113: 414-424.
- Dagogo-Jack S. Ethnic disparities in type 2 diabetes: pathophysiology and implications for prevention and management. J Natl Med Assoc 2003; 95: 774, 779-
- UK Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS) group. Intensive blood glucose control with sulphonyolureas or insulin compared with conventional therapy and risk of complications in patients with type 2 diabetes. *Lancet* 1998; 352: 837-853.
- DECODE Study Group for the European Diabetes Epidemiology Group. Glucose tolerance and mortality. comparison of WHO and American Diabetes Association diagnositc criteria. Lancet 1999; 354: 617-621.
- 59. Kramer D, Raji A, Plutzky J. Prediabetes mellitus and its links to atherosclerosis

- Knowler WC, Barrett-Connor E, Fowler SE, et al. Reduction in the incidence of type 2 diabetes with lifestyle intervention or metformin. N Engl. J Med. 2002; 346: 393-403
- 61. Hellerstein MK. Carbohydrate-induced hypertriglyceridemia: modifying factors and implications for cardiovascular risk. *Curr Opin Lipidol* 2002; **13**: 33-40.
- Higgins M, Kannel W, Garrison R, Pinsky J, Stokes J III. Hazards of obesity the Framingham experience. Acta Med Scand 1988; 723: 23-36.
- 63. Maritz FJ. Aspects of dyslipidaemia in diabetes mellitus. S Afr Med J 1997; 87: 373-
- Robins SJ. Cardiovascular disease with diabetes or the metabolic syndrome: should statins or fibrates be first line lipid therapy? Curr Opin Lipidol 2003: 14: 575-583.
- Alberti KG, Zimmet PZ. Definition, diagnosis and treatment of diabetes mellitus and its complications. Part 1: diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus provisional report of a WHO consultation. *Diabet Med* 1998; 15: 553.
- Giannarelli R, Aragona M, Coppelli A, Del Prato S. Reducing insulin resistance with metformin: the evidence today. *Diabetes Metab* 2003; 29: 6S28-6S35.
- Zimmet P, Collier G. Clinical efficacy of metformin against insulin resistance parameters: sinking the iceberg. Drugs 1999; 58: Suppl 1, 21-28.
- Tuomilehto J, Lindstrom J, Eriksson JG, et al. Prevention of type 2 diabetes mellitus by changes in lifestyle among subjects with impaired glucose tolerance. N Engl J Med 2001; 344: 1343-1350.
- Chiasson JL, Josse RG, Gomis R, Hanefeld M, Karasik A, Laakso M. Acarbose for prevention of type 2 diabetes mellitus: the STOP-NIDDM randomised trial. *Lancet* 2002; 359: 2072-2077.
- Olefsky JM. The treatment of insulin resistance with peroxisome proliferator-activated gamma agonists. J Clin Invest 2002; 106: 467-472.
- Shibasaki M, Takahashi K, Itou T, Bujo H, Saito Y. A PPAR agonist improves TNFalpha-induced insulin resistance of adipose tissue in mice. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2003; 309: 419-424.
- Unger RH, Zhou YT. Lipotoxicity of beta-cells in obesity and in other causes of fatty acid spillover. Diabetes 2001; 50: Suppl 1, S118-S121.

- Bell DS. Beta-cell rejuvenation with thiazolidinediones. Am J Med 2003; 115: Suppl 8A 20S-23S
- The Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation Study Investigators. Effects of an angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor, ramipril, on cardiovascular events in highrisk patients. N Engl J Med 2000; 342: 145-153.
- Holt R. Orlistat reduces features of the metabolic syndrome: the XENDOS study Diabetes Obesity and Metabolism 2003; 5: 356.
- Freeman DJ, Norrie J, Sattar N, et al. Pravastatin and the development of diabetes mellitus: evidence for a protective treatment effect in the West of Scotland Coronary Prevention Study. Circulation 2001; 103: 357-362.
- Simpson RW, Shaw JE, Zimmet PZ. The prevention of type 2 diabetes lifestyle change or pharmacotherapy? A challenge for the 21st century. Diabetes Res Clin Pract 2003; 59: 165-180.
- Izzo JL jun. Hypertension in the metabolic syndrome and diabetes: pathogenesis, clinical studies, and treatment. J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich) 2003: 5: 3-10.
- Lithell HO. Effect of antihypertensive drugs on insulin, glucose, and lipid metabolism. Diabetes Care 1991; 14: 203-209.
- Andersson PE, Lithell H. Metabolic effects of doxazosin and enalapril in hypertriglyceridemic, hypertensive men. Relationship to changes in skeletal muscle blood flow. Am J Hypertens 1996; 9: 323-333.
- Nguyen KN, Aursnes I, Kjekshus J. Interaction between enalapril and aspirin on mortality after acute myocardial infarction: subgroup analysis of the Cooperative New Scandinavian Enalapril Survival Study II (CONSENSUS II). Am J Cardiol 1997; 79: 115-119.
- Goodarzi MO, Korenman SG. The importance of insulin resistance in polycystic ovary syndrome. Fertil Steril 2003; 80: 255-258.
- Venter WD, Sanne IM. The cardiovascular consequences of HIV and antiretroviral therapy. Cardiovascular Journal of South Africa 2003: 14: 225-229.
- Mooser V, Carr A. Antiretroviral therapy-associated hyperlipidaemia in HIV disease. Curr Opin Lipidol 2001; 12: 313-319.

August 2004, Vol. 9, No. 2

61