

Distinct Ethnic Differences in Lipid Profiles across Glucose Categories

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Context: Dyslipidemia coexists with hyperglycemia. However, little is known about the ethnic differences in lipid profiles at comparable glucose tolerance status.

Objective: The aim was to study ethnic differences in lipid profiles stratified by glucose levels.

Design and Setting: Data from 31 study cohorts of 12 countries, consisting of 24,760 men and 27,595 women aged 25–74 yr, were compared. The odds ratio for having dyslipidemia was estimated for each ethnic group stratified by glucose categories.

Results: Compared with central and northern Europeans, multivariable adjusted odds ratios (95% confidence intervals) for having lower high-density lipoprotein-cholesterol were 4.74 (4.19–5.37), 5.05 (3.88–6.56), 3.07 (2.15–4.40), and 2.37 (1.67–3.35) in Asian Indian men, but 0.12 (0.09–0.16), 0.07 (0.04–0.13), 0.11 (0.07–0.20), and 0.16 (0.08–0.32) in Chinese men who had normoglycemia, prediabetes, and undiagnosed and diagnosed diabetes, respectively. Similar results were obtained for women. The prevalence of low high-density lipoprotein-cholesterol remained higher in Asian Indians (62.8% of the nondiabetic and 67.4% of the diabetic) than in central and northern Europeans (20.3 and 37.3%), Japanese (25.7 and 34.1%), or Qingdao Chinese (15.7 and 17.0%), even in individuals with low-density lipoprotein-cholesterol of less than 3 mmol/liter.

Conclusion: There are distinct patterns of lipid profiles associated with ethnicity regardless of the glucose levels, suggesting that ethnic-specific strategies and guidelines on risk assessment and prevention of cardiovascular disease are required. (*J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 95: 1793–1801, 2010)

Dyslipidemia coexists not only with diabetes but also with impaired glucose tolerance (IGT) and/or impaired fasting glucose (IFG) (1, 2). A pattern of atherogenic dyslipidemia, consisting of high triglycerides (TGs) and small, dense, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) and low high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), is closely linked to the progress of insulin resistance and atherosclerosis in the hyperglycemic state (3). It has already been shown that the prevalence of lipid or glucose abnormality differs between ethnic groups. A high prevalence of atherogenic dyslipidemia (4, 5) or diabetes (6) has been reported in Asian Indians compared with whites. However, little is known about the ethnic differences in lipid profiles at comparable glucose tolerance status. This study based on the collaborative data analysis of the DECODE (Diabetes Epidemiology: Collaborative Analysis of Diagnostic Criteria in Europe) and DECODA (Diabetes Epidemiology: Collaborative Analysis of Diagnostic Criteria in Asia) studies of Europeans and Asians addresses this issue.

Subjects and Methods

Study population

The study population and the recruitment of participants have been described in detail in previous DECODE/DECODA publications (7–10). Briefly, researchers who had carried out population-based or large occupational epidemiological studies on diabetes in Europe or Asia, using a standard 2-h 75-g oral glucose tolerance test, were invited to participate. Individual data on fasting plasma glucose (FPG) and 2-h plasma glucose (2hPG) concentrations as well as blood total cholesterol (TC), HDL-C, and TG and a number of other variables were sent to the Diabetes Prevention Unit of the National Institute for Health and Welfare in Helsinki, Finland, for collaborative data analysis. The Ethics Committee of the National Public Health Institute had approved the data analysis plans for both the DECODE and the DECODA studies. The inclusion criteria for the current data analysis were: 1) participants aged 25 to 74 yr; 2) baseline examination performed after 1980; and 3) data on TC, HDL-C, TG, FPG, 2hPG, and body mass index (BMI) available. A total of 52,355 subjects (24,760 men and 27,595 women with a mean age of 50 yr) from 31 (18 in DECODE and 13 in DECODA) study cohorts of 12 countries, including Asian Indian, Chinese, European, Japanese, and Mauritian Indian subjects, met the inclusion criteria and were included in the data analysis (Table 1). The Chinese were further divided into Qingdao and Hong Kong subgroups, and the Europeans into southern (Italy, Republic of Cyprus, and Spain) and central and northern (C&N) Europeans (Finland, Poland, Sweden, The Netherlands, and the United Kingdom) considering varying geographic locations, living environments, lifestyle habits, and socioeconomic status that may have a complex impact on metabolic characteristics.

Measurements

In all cohorts, blood samples were collected after overnight fasting for the measurements of plasma glucose and lipids. Plasma glucose was measured in each of the studies with an

oxidase or dehydrogenase method. Detailed information on lipid and lipoprotein assays in each study is shown in Supplemental Table 1 (published as supplemental data on The Endocrine Society's Journals Online web site at <http://jcem.endojournals.org>). Briefly, TC and TG were determined using enzymatic techniques (11–13) in all laboratories, and HDL-C was measured enzymatically after a precipitation of apolipoprotein B-containing lipoproteins with established methods (14) in most of the laboratories, except in the Qingdao 2006 study from China, the Funagata study from Japan, and two Indian studies in India applying direct method for HDL-C assay (Table 1). LDL-C was calculated among individuals with a TG value of less than 4.5 mmol/liter ($n = 51,521$) using the Friedewald formula (15) as follows: $\text{LDL-C (in mmol/liter)} = \text{TC} - \text{HDL-C} - (0.45 * \text{TG})$. Individuals with a TG of at least 4.5 mmol/liter ($n = 834$) were excluded from the analysis related to the LDL-C. The Mauritian samples were analyzed locally, with quality control analyzed in Newcastle, United Kingdom, as previously described (16, 17).

According to the World Health Organization 1999 criteria (18), a person with a prior history of diabetes was classified with previously diagnosed diabetes regardless of the glucose levels, and those with no history of diabetes were classified based on both FPG and 2hPG levels. Previously undiagnosed diabetes was defined as an FPG of at least 7.0 mmol/liter and/or 2hPG of at least 11.1 mmol/liter; IFG and/or IGT, *i.e.* prediabetes, was defined as FPG of 6.1–6.9 mmol/liter or 2hPG of 7.8–11.0 mmol/liter; and normal fasting glucose (NFG) and normal glucose tolerance (NGT), *i.e.* normoglycemia, were defined as FPG less than 6.1 mmol/liter and 2hPG less than 7.8 mmol/liter, respectively. According to the International Diabetes Federation criteria for the metabolic syndrome (19), elevated TG was defined as TG of at least 1.7 mmol/liter; reduced HDL-C was defined as HDL-C less than 1.03 mmol/liter for men and less than 1.29 mmol/liter for women. High LDL-C was defined as LDL-C of at least 3.0 mmol/liter according to the European guidelines on cardiovascular disease (CVD) prevention (20).

Statistical analysis

Analysis of covariance was used to estimate the ethnic- and sex-specific mean concentration of each lipid variable with 95% confidence interval (CI), adjusted for age, study cohort, and BMI. Within each glucose category, pairwise comparisons between ethnic groups were made with Bonferroni method to adjust for multiple comparisons. Logarithmic transformation was used for TG due to its skewed distribution. Logistic regression analysis was used to estimate the odds of having low HDL-C, high TG, or high LDL-C for each ethnic group as compared with that for C&N Europeans (reference group) at a given glucose category, adjusted for age, study cohort, BMI, systolic blood pressure, and smoking status. Waist was not adjusted in the multivariate analysis because it was not available for every study. The proportions of individuals with different dyslipidemia were compared between ethnic groups using the χ^2 test. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 15.0 for Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL).

Results

Lipid distributions in relation to ethnicity and glucose categories

Age-, study cohort-, and BMI-adjusted mean TC, LDL-C, and TG increased, whereas the mean HDL-C decreased with

TABLE 1. Characteristics of study cohorts included in the study

Ethnic group, country	Study cohort	Year of survey	n	Mean age (yr)	Diabetes (%)		IFG and/or IGT (%)	BMI (kg/m ²)	TC (mmol/liter)	LDL-C (mmol/liter) ^a	HDL-C (mmol/liter)	TG (mmol/liter)
					Undiagnosed	Diagnosed						
Men												
Chinese, Hong Kong, China	HK-wscvdrf ^b	1991	831	38 ± 8	3.7	1.9	8.3	23.3 ± 2.9	5.3 ± 1.0	3.39 ± 0.90	1.25 ± 0.31	1.35 ± 0.88
China	HK-cvrfps ^c	1995–1996	1361	46 ± 13	6.8	3.5	15.3	24.3 ± 3.4	5.1 ± 0.9	3.22 ± 0.87	1.16 ± 0.30	1.38 ± 0.87
Chinese, Qingdao, China	Qingdao 2002	2002	697	53 ± 11	11.2	2.0	18.1	26.6 ± 3.4	5.6 ± 1.1	3.34 ± 0.95	1.50 ± 0.28	1.75 ± 1.32
China	Qingdao 2006	2006	1614	49 ± 10	13.8	6.9	25.1	25.8 ± 3.2	5.3 ± 1.0	2.99 ± 0.95	1.59 ± 0.44 ^d	1.49 ± 1.13
Asian Indian, India	Chennai 94	1994–1995	255	49 ± 7	11.8	15.3	13.7	22.4 ± 3.9	5.1 ± 1.0	3.09 ± 0.82	1.04 ± 0.25	1.92 ± 1.26
	Chennai 97	1996–1998	397	44 ± 12	6.0	10.3	8.6	22.2 ± 4.1	4.5 ± 1.0	2.82 ± 0.85	0.96 ± 0.22	1.50 ± 1.00
	CURES	2003–2004	959	42 ± 11	11.7	8.8	11.1	23.2 ± 3.8	4.7 ± 1.0	2.91 ± 0.86	1.04 ± 0.24 ^d	1.64 ± 1.12
	Chennai 2006	2006	2624	41 ± 11	5.9	11.5	8.3	22.9 ± 4.2	4.3 ± 1.0	2.40 ± 0.78	1.07 ± 0.24 ^d	1.63 ± 1.11
Mauritian Indian, Mauritius	Mauritius 87	1987	1518	42 ± 12	9.3	5.6	15.3	22.8 ± 3.7	5.6 ± 1.6	3.47 ± 1.46	1.27 ± 0.36	1.83 ± 1.35
	Mauritius 92	1992	846	42 ± 11	9.7	7.7	20.8	24.0 ± 4.8	4.9 ± 0.8	2.90 ± 0.75	1.23 ± 0.33	1.62 ± 1.12
	Mauritius 98	1998	355	43 ± 11	13.0	9.6	15.5	24.5 ± 4.1	5.1 ± 1.1	3.35 ± 0.99	0.90 ± 0.34	1.70 ± 1.00
Japanese, Japan	Funagata	1995–1997	802	56 ± 11	3.2	5.6	12.5	23.6 ± 3.0	5.2 ± 0.9	3.05 ± 0.84	1.41 ± 0.37 ^d	1.53 ± 1.47
	Hisayama	1988	978	55 ± 9	8.1	10.4	23.8	22.9 ± 2.9	5.1 ± 1.0	3.21 ± 1.00	1.26 ± 0.31	1.68 ± 1.49
Italian, Italy	Cremona Study	1990–1991	742	55 ± 8	3.0	8.2	10.5	26.8 ± 3.7	6.0 ± 1.1	3.98 ± 0.97	1.25 ± 0.38	1.67 ± 1.36
Cypriot, Republic of Cyprus	Nicosia Diabetes Study	2003–2004	542	49 ± 12	7.0	11.4	12.0	27.7 ± 4.1	5.5 ± 1.1	3.57 ± 0.95	1.15 ± 0.29	1.78 ± 1.56
Spanish, Spain	The Guia Study	1997	246	52 ± 13	8.5	9.3	19.5	27.5 ± 3.5	5.9 ± 1.1	3.73 ± 0.86	1.23 ± 0.32	1.75 ± 1.09
	The Viva Study	1995–1998	902	49 ± 8	4.2	2.3	13.6	27.6 ± 3.7	5.8 ± 1.1	3.89 ± 0.99	1.19 ± 0.32	1.54 ± 1.10
Finnish, Finland	East-West men	1989	156	71 ± 1	14.1	7.1	28.8	26.3 ± 3.9	5.8 ± 1.1	3.93 ± 0.99	1.16 ± 0.27	1.44 ± 0.65
	FINMONICA	1987–1992	877	54 ± 6	5.9	4.0	25.5	27.7 ± 3.8	6.0 ± 1.0	3.82 ± 0.92	1.24 ± 0.32	1.94 ± 1.24
	National FINRISK Study 2002	2002	1799	58 ± 7	11.1	8.1	34.0	28.0 ± 4.0	5.8 ± 1.1	3.59 ± 0.96	1.34 ± 0.36	1.73 ± 1.08
	Oulu Study	1992	325	55	22.2	5.8	43.4	26.7 ± 3.4	5.6 ± 1.3	3.82 ± 1.21	1.17 ± 0.33	1.35 ± 0.98
	Savitaipale	1996–1999	584	53 ± 7	7.0	6.5	36.3	26.4 ± 3.9	5.6 ± 1.0	3.56 ± 0.87	1.35 ± 0.36	1.49 ± 1.11
	Vantaa Study	1990–1991	272	65 ± 0.4	4.4	11.4	30.1	26.9 ± 3.7	5.8 ± 1.0	3.83 ± 0.93	1.16 ± 0.30	1.58 ± 0.94
Polish, Poland	POLMONICA	1992–1993	168	58 ± 8	8.3	0	32.7	26.5 ± 4.1	5.5 ± 0.9	3.43 ± 0.85	1.39 ± 0.29	1.49 ± 0.98
Swedish, Sweden	MONICA 1986	1986	218	44 ± 11	1.8	11.0	11.3	25.4 ± 3.7	5.9 ± 1.1	4.12 ± 1.00	1.13 ± 0.25	1.41 ± 0.96
	MONICA 1990	1990	364	45 ± 11	1.9	2.7	11.3	25.8 ± 3.3	6.2 ± 1.2	4.14 ± 1.08	1.28 ± 0.31	1.66 ± 1.02
	MONICA 1994	1994	497	50 ± 13	3.6	5.4	13.3	27.3 ± 3.7	6.2 ± 1.3	4.12 ± 1.09	1.22 ± 0.30	1.70 ± 1.24
	ULSAM	1991–1995	1176	70 ± 0.6	10.6	5.9	30.5	26.3 ± 3.4	5.8 ± 1.0	3.82 ± 0.88	1.28 ± 0.35	1.45 ± 0.77
Dutch, The Netherlands	The Hoorn Study	1989–1991	1080	60 ± 6	6.9	3.1	18.5	26.2 ± 3.0	6.4 ± 1.1	4.42 ± 1.02	1.18 ± 0.31	1.68 ± 1.02
British, United Kingdom	Zutphen	1990	211	71 ± 1	10.4	7.6	24.2	25.9 ± 2.9	6.2 ± 1.1	4.28 ± 1.03	1.15 ± 0.31	1.57 ± 0.87
	ELY	1990–1992	473	54 ± 8	8.2	0	34.2	26.1 ± 3.2	6.5 ± 1.2	4.43 ± 1.05	1.29 ± 0.32	1.49 ± 0.71
	Newcastle Heart Project	1993–1994	376	54 ± 12	8.5	2.7	31.4	26.3 ± 3.9	5.7 ± 1.0	3.61 ± 0.94	1.35 ± 0.39	1.51 ± 0.79
	The Gooding Study	1990–1991	446	54 ± 10	9.4	0	43.0	25.5 ± 4.1	6.3 ± 1.2	4.17 ± 1.13	1.29 ± 0.38	1.70 ± 1.29
Women												
Chinese, Hong Kong, China	HK-wscvdrf ^b	1991	551	40 ± 8	3.1	2.0	8.7	23.5 ± 3.5	4.8 ± 0.9	2.85 ± 0.82	1.52 ± 0.38	0.89 ± 0.64
	HK-cvrfps ^c	1995–1996	1409	45 ± 12	6.4	4.3	17.3	24.0 ± 3.8	5.0 ± 1.0	3.16 ± 0.91	1.35 ± 0.32	1.09 ± 0.71

(Continued)

TABLE 1. (Continued)

Ethnic group, country	Study cohort	Year of survey	n	Mean age (yr)	Diabetes (%)		IFG and/or IGT (%)	BMI (kg/m ²)	TC (mmol/liter)	LDL-C (mmol/liter) ^a	HDL-C (mmol/liter)	TG (mmol/liter)
					Undiagnosed	Diagnosed						
Chinese, Qingdao, China	Qingdao 2002	2002	1192	52 ± 11	9.2	2.5	18.0	26.3 ± 3.8	5.7 ± 1.1	3.51 ± 0.91	1.52 ± 0.28	1.48 ± 0.95
Chinese	Qingdao 2006	2006	2368	49 ± 10	12.0	7.4	26.7	25.8 ± 3.6	5.3 ± 1.1	3.04 ± 0.92	1.65 ± 0.40 ^d	1.27 ± 0.86
Asian Indian, India	Chennai 94	1994–1995	215	50 ± 8	12.6	19.1	19.5	24.0 ± 4.7	5.4 ± 1.1	3.34 ± 0.91	1.13 ± 0.30	1.82 ± 0.92
	Chennai 97	1996–1998	566	44 ± 13	5.8	6.9	7.8	23.5 ± 4.5	4.7 ± 1.0	2.95 ± 0.88	1.10 ± 0.27	1.30 ± 0.74
	CURES	2003–2004	1116	40 ± 11	9.8	5.1	11.4	23.6 ± 4.0	4.8 ± 1.0	2.93 ± 0.83	1.18 ± 0.25 ^d	1.33 ± 0.80
	Chennai 2006	2006	3250	40 ± 10	5.1	9.2	8.5	23.9 ± 5.0	4.4 ± 1.0	2.52 ± 0.82	1.16 ± 0.25 ^d	1.45 ± 0.88
Mauritian Indian, Mauritius	Mauritius 87	1987	1692	42 ± 13	7.0	4.8	21.4	23.9 ± 4.7	5.3 ± 1.5	3.37 ± 1.39	1.31 ± 0.31	1.29 ± 0.87
	Mauritius 92	1992	960	43 ± 12	8.0	12.2	17.7	25.6 ± 5.2	4.8 ± 0.9	2.84 ± 0.75	1.33 ± 0.29	1.26 ± 0.75
	Mauritius 98	1998	436	42 ± 10	8.7	8.9	18.1	25.2 ± 4.8	4.7 ± 1.1	3.05 ± 0.93	0.99 ± 0.32	1.24 ± 0.62
Japanese, Japan	Funagata	1995–1997	1121	56 ± 11	2.2	3.8	12.7	23.9 ± 3.5	5.4 ± 0.9	3.31 ± 0.86	1.53 ± 0.36 ^d	1.15 ± 0.63
	Hisayama	1988	1312	55 ± 9	4.9	5.6	22.3	23.1 ± 3.2	5.6 ± 1.1	3.69 ± 0.99	1.34 ± 0.29	1.21 ± 0.76
Italian, Italy	Cremona Study	1990–1991	876	56 ± 8	2.4	5.6	8.3	26.4 ± 4.9	6.2 ± 1.2	4.13 ± 1.10	1.46 ± 0.36	1.25 ± 0.62
Cypriot, Republic of Cyprus	Nicosia Diabetes Study	2003–2004	558	50 ± 13	2.5	5.6	12.2	27.0 ± 5.9	5.5 ± 1.0	3.38 ± 0.92	1.48 ± 0.36	1.27 ± 0.89
Spanish, Spain	The Guia Study	1997	322	51 ± 12	4.0	11.2	18.6	28.6 ± 5.4	6.0 ± 1.0	3.91 ± 0.91	1.38 ± 0.33	1.41 ± 0.81
	The Viva Study	1995–1998	1107	49 ± 9	4.2	2.3	13.6	28.2 ± 4.9	5.7 ± 1.1	3.72 ± 0.96	1.40 ± 0.33	1.13 ± 0.61
Finnish, Finland	FINMONICA	1987–1992	1043	54 ± 6	4.0	3.3	14.5	27.2 ± 4.8	5.9 ± 1.1	3.75 ± 0.95	1.50 ± 0.34	1.41 ± 0.90
	National FINRISK Study 2002	2002	2065	57 ± 8	6.2	5.9	23.7	27.9 ± 5.1	5.8 ± 1.0	3.48 ± 0.92	1.65 ± 0.43	1.35 ± 0.72
	Oulu Study	1992	411	55	13.1	2.2	42.8	26.5 ± 4.3	5.9 ± 1.3	3.89 ± 1.29	1.48 ± 0.43	1.05 ± 0.55
	Savitaipale	1996–1999	583	54 ± 7	5.8	4.8	37.9	26.6 ± 4.8	5.7 ± 1.1	3.46 ± 0.93	1.58 ± 0.41	1.26 ± 0.80
	Vantaa Study	1990–1991	337	65 ± 0.4	8.0	8.0	28.2	27.6 ± 4.6	6.3 ± 1.0	4.15 ± 0.99	1.40 ± 0.33	1.53 ± 0.97
Polish, Poland	POLMONICA	1992–1993	190	57 ± 8	5.8	2.6	28.9	29.3 ± 4.9	5.9 ± 1.0	3.69 ± 0.88	1.46 ± 0.26	1.54 ± 0.81
Swedish, Sweden	MONICA 1986	1986	204	44 ± 11	1.1	4.4	9.8	24.4 ± 4.5	6.0 ± 1.3	4.09 ± 1.17	1.38 ± 0.41	1.08 ± 0.67
	MONICA 1990	1990	410	44 ± 11	1.5	1.7	10.5	25.1 ± 4.4	6.1 ± 1.3	3.89 ± 1.19	1.55 ± 0.35	1.33 ± 0.70
	MONICA 1994	1994	521	49 ± 14	4.4	3.6	11.9	25.9 ± 4.7	6.2 ± 1.4	3.96 ± 1.21	1.49 ± 0.40	1.44 ± 0.81
Dutch, The Netherlands	The Hoorn Study	1989–1991	1238	61 ± 6	6.0	3.4	15.3	26.8 ± 4.0	6.9 ± 1.2	4.66 ± 1.10	1.45 ± 0.37	1.55 ± 0.96
British, United Kingdom	ELY	1990–1992	619	53 ± 8	6.0	0	28.3	25.9 ± 5.0	6.6 ± 1.4	4.39 ± 1.25	1.58 ± 0.38	1.28 ± 0.68
	Newcastle Heart Project	1993–1994	354	53 ± 11	4.8	1.7	23.7	26.4 ± 5.0	5.9 ± 1.2	3.56 ± 1.07	1.61 ± 0.39	1.46 ± 0.78
	The Gooding Study	1990–1991	559	54 ± 10	8.6	0	30.1	26.0 ± 5.3	5.6 ± 1.4	4.31 ± 1.24	1.54 ± 0.40	1.48 ± 0.83

Data are expressed as number, means ± SD, or percentage. Precipitation method for HDL-C and enzymatic method for TC and TG were applied in all studies, unless otherwise indicated.

^a Calculated only in individuals with TG < 4.5 mmol/liter.

^b Hong Kong Workforce Survey on CVD Risk Factors.

^c Hong Kong Cardiovascular Disease Risk Factor Prevalence Study.

^d Direct method for HDL-C assay.

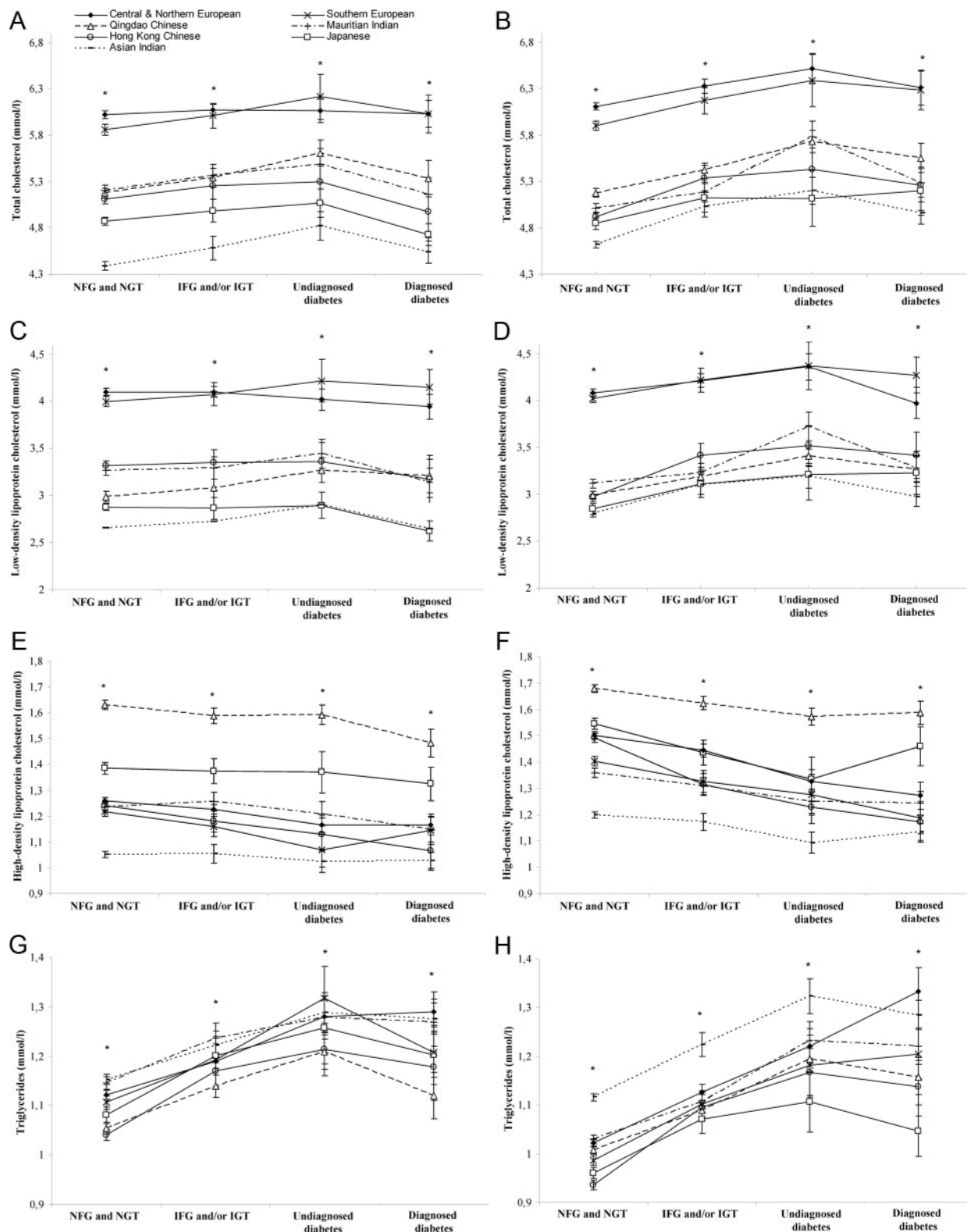


FIG. 1. Age-, study cohort-, and BMI-adjusted mean lipid (geometric means for TG) and lipoprotein concentrations and 95% CIs (vertical bars) in men (A, C, E, and G) and women (B, D, F, and H) by ethnicities and glucose categories. *, *P* for trend < 0.05 within each glucose category.

more pronounced glucose intolerance in most of the ethnic groups in individuals without a prior history of diabetes (Fig. 1, A–H). Subjects with undiagnosed diabetes, however, had a worse lipid profile than those with known disease.

Within individuals with normoglycemia, mean lipid and lipoprotein concentrations differed among the ethnic groups. The Europeans had the highest TC (Fig. 1, A and B; *P* < 0.05) and LDL-C (Fig. 1, C and D; *P* < 0.05),

TABLE 2. Odds ratio (95% CI) of having dyslipidemia in relation to ethnicity by glucose categories

	HDL-C < 1.03 mmol/liter in men and < 1.29 mmol/liter in women				TG ≥ 1.7 mmol/liter				LDL-C ≥ 3 mmol/liter			
	NFG and NGT	IFG and/or IGT	Undiagnosed diabetes	Diagnosed diabetes	NFG and NGT	IFG and/or IGT	Undiagnosed diabetes	Diagnosed diabetes	NFG and NGT	IFG and/or IGT	Undiagnosed diabetes	Diagnosed diabetes
Men												
C&N European ^a	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Hong Kong Chinese	1.63 (1.41–1.87)	2.75 (2.09–3.62)	1.82 (1.20–2.76)	2.57 (1.48–4.46)	0.75 (0.64–0.87)	1.16 (0.88–1.53)	1.05 (0.70–1.58)	0.63 (0.36–1.12)	0.51 (0.44–0.58)	0.61 (0.46–0.82)	0.51 (0.33–0.78)	0.86 (0.49–1.52)
Qingdao Chinese	0.12 (0.09–0.16)	0.07 (0.04–0.13)	0.11 (0.07–0.20)	0.16 (0.08–0.32)	0.68 (0.58–0.79)	0.81 (0.66–1.00)	0.81 (0.61–1.09)	0.40 (0.26–0.63)	0.23 (0.20–0.26)	0.30 (0.24–0.37)	0.44 (0.32–0.60)	0.57 (0.37–0.86)
Asian Indian	4.74 (4.19–5.37)	5.05 (3.88–6.56)	3.07 (2.15–4.40)	2.37 (1.67–3.35)	1.40 (1.23–1.58)	1.53 (1.19–1.97)	1.24 (0.88–1.75)	1.42 (1.01–2.00)	0.12 (0.10–0.13)	0.17 (0.13–0.22)	0.23 (0.16–0.33)	0.29 (0.20–0.41)
Mauritian Indian	1.82 (1.58–2.09)	2.04 (1.58–2.63)	1.27 (0.89–1.81)	1.16 (0.78–1.74)	1.47 (1.28–1.69)	1.55 (1.23–1.98)	1.18 (0.85–1.65)	1.06 (0.72–1.57)	0.39 (0.34–0.45)	0.38 (0.30–0.49)	0.49 (0.34–0.70)	0.75 (0.50–1.12)
Japanese	0.87 (0.73–1.03)	1.29 (0.98–1.70)	0.73 (0.44–1.20)	0.57 (0.36–0.90)	0.99 (0.84–1.15)	1.31 (1.02–1.68)	1.36 (0.88–2.09)	1.02 (0.68–1.53)	0.26 (0.23–0.30)	0.35 (0.27–0.44)	0.36 (0.23–0.57)	0.77 (0.51–1.16)
Southern European	1.21 (1.06–1.37)	1.49 (1.15–1.93)	1.79 (1.19–2.70)	1.13 (0.78–1.63)	0.78 (0.69–0.88)	0.83 (0.65–1.07)	1.16 (0.77–1.75)	0.58 (0.40–0.84)	0.87 (0.75–1.00)	0.99 (0.73–1.36)	1.80 (1.01–3.23)	1.52 (0.99–2.31)
Women												
C&N European ^a	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Hong Kong Chinese	2.23 (1.93–2.57)	3.79 (2.88–4.98)	3.02 (1.88–4.85)	3.03 (1.68–5.48)	0.86 (0.69–1.08)	1.16 (0.85–1.58)	0.98 (0.61–1.57)	0.69 (0.39–1.21)	0.41 (0.35–0.47)	0.64 (0.48–0.86)	0.61 (0.36–1.04)	1.21 (0.66–2.22)
Qingdao Chinese	0.66 (0.57–0.76)	0.52 (0.41–0.65)	0.27 (0.19–0.38)	0.20 (0.13–0.31)	1.29 (1.11–1.50)	1.06 (0.87–1.30)	0.99 (0.73–1.36)	0.57 (0.39–0.84)	0.40 (0.36–0.45)	0.45 (0.37–0.55)	0.48 (0.33–0.69)	0.67 (0.48–0.99)
Asian Indian	10.91 (9.68–12.30)	7.80 (5.99–9.94)	8.64 (5.62–13.29)	4.34 (2.93–6.44)	2.76 (2.39–3.18)	2.21 (1.71–2.87)	3.13 (2.15–4.55)	1.29 (0.90–1.85)	0.22 (0.20–0.25)	0.36 (0.28–0.47)	0.36 (0.24–0.54)	0.41 (0.28–0.60)
Mauritian Indian	4.41 (3.88–5.02)	3.80 (3.05–4.74)	2.65 (1.82–3.88)	2.26 (1.53–3.35)	1.38 (1.16–1.65)	1.15 (0.91–1.47)	1.54 (1.07–2.23)	0.81 (0.56–1.19)	0.48 (0.42–0.55)	0.50 (0.40–0.63)	0.78 (0.51–1.21)	0.85 (0.57–1.27)
Japanese	2.40 (2.12–2.73)	3.07 (2.44–3.87)	2.65 (1.62–4.34)	1.07 (0.67–1.72)	0.92 (0.77–1.09)	1.19 (0.93–1.53)	0.72 (0.43–1.21)	0.41 (0.25–0.68)	0.58 (0.51–0.66)	0.67 (0.52–0.87)	0.56 (0.31–0.99)	2.24 (1.27–3.93)
Southern European	1.50 (1.34–1.68)	1.62 (1.26–2.08)	0.93 (0.56–1.52)	1.70 (1.13–2.56)	0.70 (0.60–0.81)	0.80 (0.61–1.05)	0.60 (0.36–1.01)	0.53 (0.35–0.79)	0.98 (0.87–1.11)	1.39 (1.01–1.93)	1.38 (0.70–2.72)	2.67 (1.62–4.42)

Model is adjusted for age, study cohort, BMI, systolic blood pressure, and smoking status.

^a Reference group.

whereas Qingdao Chinese had the highest HDL-C levels (Fig. 1, E and F; $P < 0.05$) among all ethnic groups. In contrast, Asian Indians had the lowest TC (Fig. 1, A and B; $P < 0.05$), LDL-C (Fig. 1, C and D; $P < 0.05$), and HDL-C (Fig. 1, E and F; $P < 0.05$), but the highest TG (Fig. 1, G and H; $P < 0.05$) among the ethnic groups. These ethnic differences were consistently found in all glucose categories.

Dyslipidemia in relation to ethnicity controlling for glucose levels

Compared with C&N Europeans, the multivariate-adjusted odds ratio (95% CI) of having low HDL-C was significantly higher for Asian Indians, Mauritian Indians, Hong Kong Chinese, and Southern Europeans but lower for Qingdao Chinese, across all glucose categories from normal to diabetes (Table 2). Asian Indians and Mauritian Indians tended to have higher odds ratios, but Southern Europeans had lower odds ratios for having high TG compared with the reference group. Unlike that for HDL-C or TG, the odds ratio for having high LDL-C was consistently lower in all Asian ethnic groups compared with the reference, across most of the glucose categories.

In contrast to the lower HDL-C and higher TG profiles, Asian Indians had considerably lower TC and LDL-C concentrations than others. As shown in Table 3, 71% of nondiabetic and 57.6% of diabetic Asian Indians had low LDL-C (<3.0 mmol/liter), whereas the corresponding figures were 19.2 and 24.6% ($P < 0.01$) for C&N Europeans and 46.6 and 38.8% ($P < 0.01$) for Qingdao Chinese. However, even within the low LDL-C category, there was still a higher proportion of Asian Indians having low HDL-C compared with others (Table 3). The results were confirmed in the same analysis conducted separately for men and women (data not shown).

Discussion

This collaborative analysis of the data from the DECODE and the DECODA study cohorts showed considerable ethnic differences in lipid profiles within each glucose category. Asian Indians exhibited an adverse lipid pattern consisting of low HDL-C and high TG across all glucose categories as compared with other populations. Reduced HDL-C is prevalent even in Asian Indians with desirable LDL-C levels, regardless of the diabetic status. In addition, in most of the ethnic groups, individuals detected with undiagnosed diabetes had a worse lipid profile than did diagnosed cases.

The adverse lipid profiles associated with elevated glucose levels from normal to IFG and/or IGT and diabetes have been reported for both Europeans (1) and Asians (2),

TABLE 3. Proportions of individuals according to lipid levels stratified by diabetic status in each ethnic group

	LDL-C < 3 mmol/liter				LDL-C ≥ 3 mmol/liter			
	Normal HDL-C and normal TG	Low HDL-C ^a alone	High TG ^b alone	Both	Normal HDL-C and normal TG	Low HDL-C ^a alone	High TG ^b alone	Both
Nondiabetic population								
Hong Kong Chinese	29.3	9.9	1.6	4.2	32.1	12.9	3.7	6.2
Qingdao Chinese	31.0	5.4	8.3	1.9	40.5	2.4	9.8	0.7
Asian Indian	23.2	33.6	3.2	11.0	9.2	10.7	2.8	6.4
Mauritian Indian	23.9	15.8	5.0	4.7	23.2	14.7	5.7	7.0
Japanese	25.2	6.4	3.4	3.5	38.2	13.0	5.0	5.3
C&N European	13.3	2.3	2.0	1.6	48.6	9.7	12.6	10.0
Southern European	14.2	4.3	1.1	2.1	45.5	15.1	7.8	10.0
Diabetic population								
Hong Kong Chinese	12.4	9.6	1.4	11.0	22.6	18.1	7.6	17.2
Qingdao Chinese	21.1	3.5	11.1	3.1	37.9	2.7	19.1	1.5
Asian Indian	12.8	17.4	6.0	21.4	8.1	12.4	7.2	14.7
Mauritian Indian	12.4	8.6	6.4	10.2	21.2	15.5	10.2	15.5
Japanese	14.3	6.0	7.1	5.1	34.3	11.6	12.2	9.4
C&N European	10.5	2.8	4.9	6.4	30.4	9.3	16.4	19.4
Southern European	7.5	3.3	6.0	10.2	24.4	11.2	12.8	14.8

Data are expressed as percentage.

^a Less than 1.03 mmol/liter in men and < 1.29 mmol/liter in women.

^b ≥ 1.70 mmol/liter.

but the ethnic differences in lipid profiles given the same glucose levels have not been well investigated. In the HeartSCORE and IndiaSCORE studies (21) where lipids were measured with the same assay procedures for Asian Indians as for whites and blacks, Asian Indians had the lowest TC and HDL-C and highest TG among all the ethnic groups studied. In another multiethnic study of the 1992 Singapore National Health Survey (22), Asian Indians appeared to have lower HDL-C but higher TG levels compared with Chinese. The findings of these previous studies are consistent with ours, although glucose status was not taken into account in the previous studies. The causes of ethnic difference in cardiovascular risk profile are complex. Possible contributors include genetic, environmental, psychosocial, cultural, and unmeasured factors, and many are not well clarified (23). An adverse lipid profile in Asian Indians has been reported to be associated with the greater susceptibility to insulin resistance (4, 22, 24, 25), and a higher percentage of body fat for the same BMI as compared with whites (26), which may contribute to the high prevalence of CVD (27) and diabetes (6, 28) in this ethnic group. In addition, it may also reflect the genetic variation, for example, at the apolipoprotein E locus (29) and an excess of other risk factors such as homocysteine, lipoprotein (a), or dietary fat (30).

To date, intensive control of dyslipidemia has been greatly emphasized in the prevention and management of CVD. Current guidelines from the National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel III (31), the European Society of Cardiology (20), and the American Diabetes Association (32), mainly based on the data of whites, consistently recommend that LDL-C should be the

primary target of therapy not only in patients with coronary heart disease or diabetes but also in persons with increased cardiovascular risk. Meanwhile, HDL-C has been either dropped from (20) or set as a secondary (32) or tertiary (31) target in the major guidelines despite the strong evidence of reduced HDL-C as an independent risk factor for CVD (33). This may change if more therapy choices developed to increase HDL-C levels and improve HDL function are shown to prevent CVD (34, 35). Our study showed that there are distinct patterns of lipid profiles between different ethnic groups. Considering the high proportion of Asian Indians with adverse HDL-C and TG profiles, appropriate approaches to increasing HDL-C may become an important treatment target in Asian Indians to reduce their excess CVD risks.

The difference in HDL-C concentrations between Qingdao and Hong Kong Chinese subgroups cannot be simply explained by the difference in assay methods. It may largely be attributed to the differences in dietary structure and preference, geographic, and environmental factors. Shellfish and beer, for example, are commonly consumed all year round in Qingdao. Nevertheless, whether other factors exist and contribute to the high HDL-C in Qingdao needs to be further investigated.

Similar to others (36, 37), we observed a worse lipid profile in individuals with undiagnosed diabetes than that of previously diagnosed patients in most of the ethnic groups, indicating that individuals with undiagnosed diabetes are at increased CVD risk and need to be identified and treated early. On the other hand, glycemic control is shown to be an important determinant of diabetic dyslipidemia (38). The better lipid profile in diagnosed diabetes

as compared with undiagnosed diabetes might imply a benefit of lifestyle intervention or drug treatment targeting favorable metabolic profiles and hemoglobin A1c, a surrogate measure for average blood glucose. However, to what extent the levels of hemoglobin A1c have contributed to the differences is unknown due to the lack of information in the current study and in literature. In addition, the data on lipid-lowering treatment are not available for most of the earlier studies conducted in the 1990s because the statins were not widely prescribed at that time. These deserve further investigation in future studies.

In this collaborative analysis of large populations of European and Asian origins, all studies were population-based with a random sampling approach except for the Hong Kong Workforce study and the Hisayama study (community-based). Populations of the same ethnicity were pooled to increase statistical power, and “study cohort” was also considered as a covariate in the data analysis. Although all blood samples for lipid assays were obtained in the fasting state (1, 10, 39), a limitation of this study was the lack of standardization in assay methods for lipids in different laboratories. This needs to be kept in mind when interpreting the results for, in particular, HDL-C, the measurement of which remains a major challenge over time. Except for the direct assays applied in a few of the studies, most of the studies have used chemical precipitation methods for HDL-C assays, including the heparin/Mn²⁺, the dextran sulfate MgCl₂, the phosphotungstate MgCl₂, and the polyethylene glycol method. The observed differences in HDL-C among ethnicities, to our knowledge, are less likely biased by the laboratory assays. First, there is a good agreement and a similar accuracy between the results of most of the precipitation methods (40). Second, the direct method and the precipitation method are shown to be closely correlated (41). On average, the HDL-C concentration obtained from the direct method is about 0.1–0.2 mmol/liter higher than that from the precipitation method when TG is less than 4.6 mmol/liter (41, 42). The mean difference in the HDL-C concentration was about 0.4–0.5 mmol/liter higher in Qingdao Chinese (direct or precipitation method) than in Asian Indians (precipitation method), much greater than what could be attributed to the difference in assay methods. Most importantly, our observation is consistent with previous reports regarding the adverse lipid profiles in Asian Indians compared with Western or Chinese populations where the lipids were measured using the same assay procedure for Indians as for others (21, 22). Moreover, the mean lipid levels in our study were similar to others. The mean TC was 4.4 mmol/liter, HDL-C was 1.03–1.04 mmol/liter, and TG was 1.53–2.04 mmol/liter for Asian Indians in the HeartSCORE and IndiaSCORE study (21)

and the Singapore National Health Survey (22). This further strengthens the validity of the study.

In summary, there are distinct patterns of lipid profiles associated with ethnicity, regardless of the glucose levels. Ethnic- and region-specific considerations are an important component for guidelines on risk assessment and prevention of CVD.

Acknowledgments

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Study cohorts and investigators included in this analysis are listed in Supplemental Appendix 1 (see supplemental data).

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