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Ethnic differences in risk factors, complications and mortality in people of South Asian ethnicity with type 1 diabetes: a systematic review

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Title Page

Title of Paper: Ethnic differences in risk factors, complications and mortality in people of South Asian ethnicity with type 1 diabetes: a systematic review

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Conflicts of Interest: KK (Co-Chair) PS and PN are members of the South Asian Health Foundation Working group on Diabetes.

What is already known in this subject

- In contrast to type 2 diabetes, very little is known of the effect of South Asian ethnicity on the natural history of type 1 diabetes
- The majority of studies looking at ethnic disparities in type 1 diabetes have been conducted in the United States of America and thus their primary focus was on the black and Hispanic ethnic groups.
- South Asians comprise 20% of the global population and 7% of the UK population and there is a great need to understand the effect of South Asian ethnicity on the natural history of type 1 diabetes

What this study adds

- Our review demonstrates South Asians with type 1 diabetes have a higher mortality than white Europeans
- South Asians have poorer HbA1c control than white Europeans but better than people of African and African-Caribbean (AC) origin
- South Asians have similar rates of retinopathy and nephropathy to white Europeans but lower rate of nephropathy than people of AC origin

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3 **Ethnic differences in risk factors, complications and mortality in people of South Asian ethnicity**
4 **with type 1 diabetes: a systematic review**
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6 Komil N Sarwar, Phoebe Cliff, Ponnusamy Saravanan, Kamlesh Khunti, Krishnarajah
7 Nirantharakumar, Parth Narendran
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9 **Abstract**
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11 **Objective.** The epidemiology of Type 1 Diabetes (T1DM) in South Asians (SA) is poorly understood. In
12 contrast, we know that Type 2 diabetes (T2DM) is 2-3 times more common in SAs than in the White
13 European (WE) population. Furthermore, SA with T2DM develop the condition 5-10 years earlier
14 than WE, have worse outcomes and die at a younger age. We aimed to conduct a systematic review
15 to determining differences in risk factors, microvascular and macrovascular complications, and
16 mortality in SA compared to other ethnic groups in patients with T1DM.
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19 **Design.** Systematic Review
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21 **Data Sources.** T1DM was searched for in SA ethnic groups in Medline and Embase.11 studies were
22 included.
23

24 **Results.** Our review demonstrates SAs (and particularly female SAs) with T1DM have higher
25 mortality compared to WE and suggests this increased mortality is contributed to by excess
26 cardiovascular disease. SAs also have significantly higher HbA1c than WE. Despite this higher HbA1c,
27 rates of microvascular disease appeared similar to the WE population and some (neuropathy) even
28 lower. SAs have lower levels of HDL cholesterol, and smoking rates were half that of WE. Compared
29 to AC, SA had lower levels of microalbuminuria, lower HbA1c, lower systolic blood pressure and
30 higher HDL levels. There were no statistically significant differences between these two ethnic
31 groups in the remaining outcomes: cardiovascular disease, retinopathy, neuropathy and BMI. We
32 also demonstrate that SA have higher HbA1c levels than both Malay and Chinese and higher waist-
33 hip ratio and lower HDL levels compared to Chinese only.
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37 **Conclusion.** Our analysis highlights ethnic disparity in macrovascular outcomes that is so evident for
38 T2DM may also be present for SA patients with T1DM. Secondly, we highlight a need for a large,
39 ideally prospective, cohort study exploring the effect of ethnicity in a uniform healthcare setting.
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Strengths

- The strengths of this analysis are its comprehensive search strategy with clearly defined population and outcomes.
- Our search strategy incorporated both full-length papers as well as abstracts, included all languages and had a secondary search strategy to ensure we did not miss any relevant papers.
- We compared the SA group, the largest ethnic group globally with all other indigenous ethnic groups.

Weaknesses

- The quality of the studies were poor with the majority of studies being retrospective observational or cross-sectional.
- It was also not possible to undertake a meta-analysis of the combined studies because the results were heterogeneous in nature.
- Furthermore, the methodology of how outcomes were assessed was not consistently reported, and the numbers of SA in each study were small.

Background

The epidemiology of Type 1 Diabetes (T1DM) in South Asians (SA) is poorly understood. It's effects on metabolic control, diabetic complication rate, or indeed the underlying pathogenesis has yet to be explored. In contrast, we know that Type 2 Diabetes (T2DM) is 2-3 times more common in SAs than in the White European (WE) population in the United Kingdom¹, and up to three times more common among people of African and African-Caribbean (AC) origin². Furthermore, SA with T2DM develop the condition 5-10 years earlier than WE, have increased prevalence of diabetic complications at presentation, worse outcomes, and die at a younger age^{1,3}. These differences have not been explored in people with T1DM.

A study by Willi et al⁴ suggested that there were ethnic disparities in the outcomes of children with T1DM with black participants having higher mean HbA1c levels, more diabetic ketoacidosis and severe hypoglycaemic events compared to white or Hispanic participants. A recent systematic review⁵ identified 16 studies in the current literature that showed racial/ethnic minority youth with T1DM having higher HbA1c compared to Caucasian youth. As the majority of these studies are conducted in the United States of America, their primary focus was on the black and Hispanic ethnic groups and youth with T1DM.

SAs comprise 20% of the global population¹ and 7% of the UK population⁷. Furthermore, the incidence of T1DM appears to be similar in SA as in the background population⁷. Therefore, there is a need to understand the effect of ethnicity on the natural history of T1DM. The aim of this systematic review is to explore the association of SA ethnicity on risk factors, microvascular and macrovascular complications, and mortality compared to other ethnic groups in people with T1DM.

Methods

Terms indicative of T1DM and SA were searched for in MEDLINE (Ovid) and EMBASE using keywords and free text. Full length papers and abstracts were included in the search from 1946 to February 2016. The search was not limited to a particular language, study design or outcome and the papers did not have to be peer-reviewed. A secondary search strategy involved reading bibliographies of the included studies and contacting authors of the included studies and committee members of the South Asian Health Foundation (<http://www.sahf.org.uk>) enquiring about additional studies or on-going research. Further information pertaining to the search strategy can be found in Appendix 1.

The inclusion criteria were based on the Population, Intervention, Comparator and Outcome (PICO) framework. The population was SA with T1DM including both children and adults. A clinical diagnosis was accepted for the definition of T1DM. We defined SA ethnicity as persons originating from the following countries: India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Nepal, Bhutan and the Maldives, and compared their risk factors, complications and mortality to persons of any other ethnicity not classified as SA. The outcomes investigated were body mass index, systolic and diastolic blood pressure, HbA1c, lipid profile and smoking status (risk factors); retinopathy, neuropathy and nephropathy (microvascular complications); ischaemic heart disease and cerebrovascular disease (macrovascular complications); and cause-specific and all-cause mortality.

Identified titles and abstracts were reviewed independently by two researchers (KS and PC). All studies that were deemed suitable for potential inclusion were then further examined in detail by

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3 the two researchers independently to create the final list of included studies. Where there were
4 discrepancies between the two researchers (KS and PC) this was resolved by discussion. Quality
5 assessment and data extraction was performed by KS and then checked by PC to identify any missing
6 information (Appendix 2). The Newcastle-Ottawa Quality Assessment Scale for observational studies
7 was used for quality assessment⁸.
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10 We were not able to perform a meta-analysis because the studies were not comparable by
11 outcomes measured, were of poor quality, and heterogeneous in the way South Asian ethnicity was
12 defined. The results have been analysed as a narrative and presented as tabulations with textual
13 description by each risk factor and outcome.
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15 **Patient Involvement:** Patients were not involved.
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17 **Results**

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19 The initial search identified 4,722 papers. After removing duplicates (1,194), the remaining 3,528
20 titles and abstracts were screened. After excluding 3,223 papers in this initial screening process, 305
21 full text articles were assessed in detail for potential inclusion into the analysis. Ten papers met the
22 inclusion criteria for review. A secondary search using the bibliographies of included studies yielded
23 an additional 1 paper (Figure 1). A total of 11 studies were therefore included: 6 studies were from
24 the United Kingdom, 4 from South Africa and 1 from Malaysia. Nine of the papers were full length
25 papers and 2 were abstracts. Of the included articles, 1 was a prospective cohort study⁹, 3 were
26 retrospective analysis of observational data^{11, 14-15}. The remaining 7 studies were cross-sectional
27 analyses^{10, 12-13, 16-19}. The results are summarised in Table 1 and Table 2.
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Figure 1: Flowchart demonstrating Study Selection

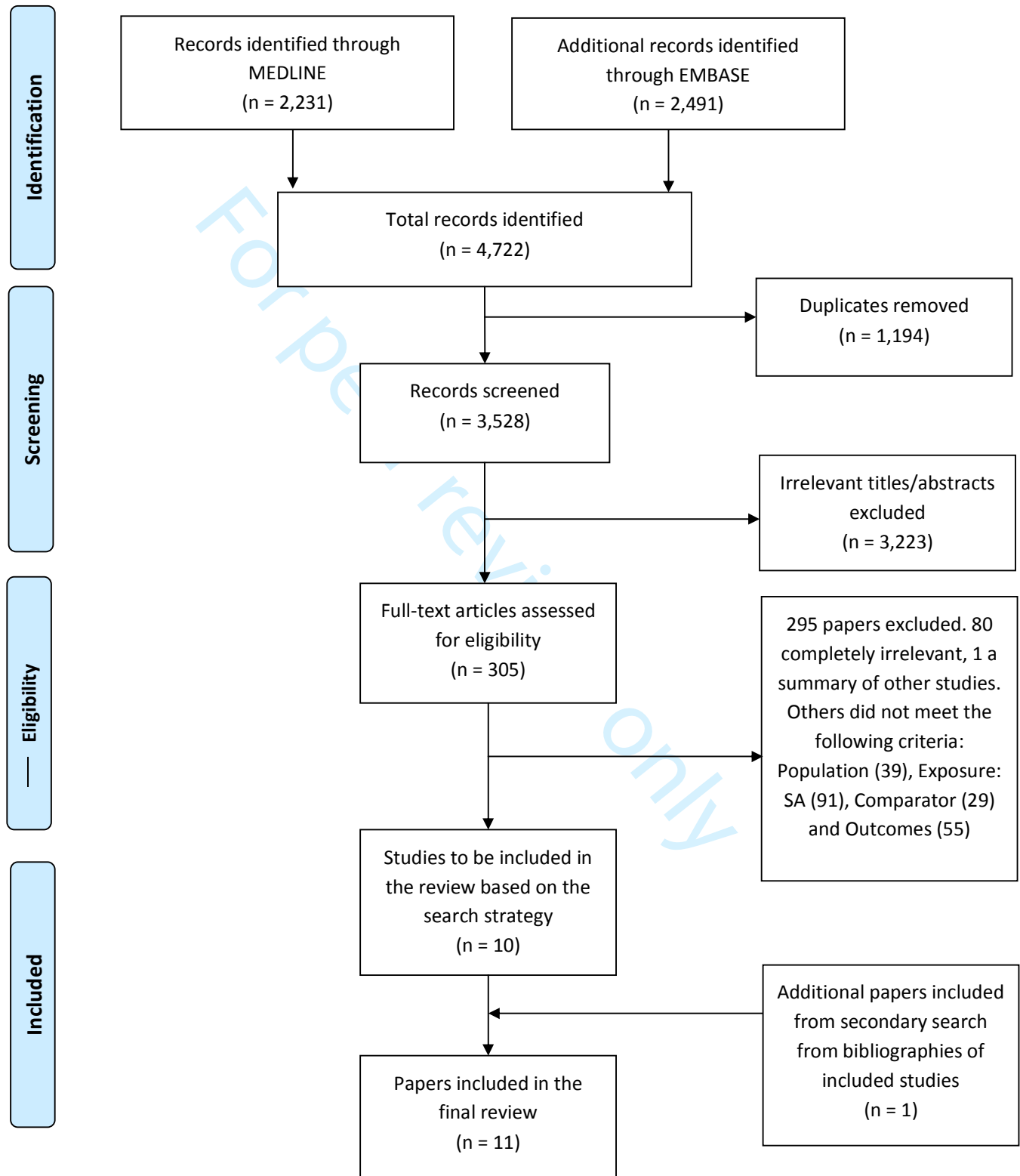


Table 1: Data extraction of studies included in systematic review

Study & year published	Country	Design	Method and Description	Number of Participants & Ethnic Group	Age description	Duration of Study	Key Outcomes																																																																												
Studies involving a control group																																																																																			
Swerdlow et al ⁹ 2004	UK	Prospective Cohort Study	<p>South Asian Ethnicity South Asians identified by computer algorithm (SANGRA) followed by a clerical check by an individual with expertise in this area. Patients with IDDM diagnosed <30 years</p> <p>Method SMRs calculated, comparing mortality in the cohort to the corresponding mortality rates in the general population</p>	<p>Non South Asian : 23, 326</p> <p>South Asian: 424</p>	N/A	1972 – 1999	<p>Mortality The Standardised Mortality Ratios (SMR) for South Asian patients diagnosed <30 years were 3.9(95% CI 2.0-6.9) in men and 10.1 (5.6-16.6) in women, and in the corresponding non-South Asians were 2.7 (2.6-2.9) in men and 4.0 (3.6-4.3) in women.</p>																																																																												
Mehta et al ¹⁰ 2011	UK	Cross-sectional study	<p>South Asian (SA) Ethnicity Ethnicity was categorised as SA or white European (WE) based on patient record documentation or by analysis of their name using a validated name recognition software 'Nam Pechan' supplemented by a visual inspection of surnames and forenames.</p> <p>Method Patient characteristics and other data were extracted from the clinical workstation (CWS), a clinical database of patients attending a specialist outpatient diabetes clinic in Leicestershire.</p>	<p>WE: 1,169</p> <p>SA: 163</p>	<p>Mean age (years)</p> <p>WE: 45.3</p> <p>SA: 41.9</p>	2003-2005	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>South Asian (n = 163)</th> <th>White European (n = 1169)</th> <th>p Value</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td colspan="4">Number of comorbidities (n (%))</td> </tr> <tr> <td>0</td> <td>114 (69.9)</td> <td>878 (75.1)</td> <td>0.166</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>36 (22.1)</td> <td>235 (20.1)</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>≥2</td> <td>13 (8.0)</td> <td>56 (4.8)</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="4">Macrovascular (n (%))</td> </tr> <tr> <td>CVD</td> <td>25 (15.3)</td> <td>132 (11.3)</td> <td>0.133</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ischaemic heart disease</td> <td>20 (12.3)</td> <td>97 (8.3)</td> <td>0.093</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Peripheral vascular disease</td> <td>3 (1.8)</td> <td>31 (2.7)</td> <td>0.790</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Cerebrovascular disease</td> <td>6 (3.7)</td> <td>21 (1.8)</td> <td>0.130</td> </tr> <tr> <td>TIA</td> <td>0</td> <td>2 (0.2)</td> <td>1.000</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="4">Microvascular (n (%))</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Retinopathy</td> <td>63 (38.7)</td> <td>561 (48.0)</td> <td>0.025</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Neuropathy</td> <td>24 (14.7)</td> <td>325 (27.8)</td> <td><0.001</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Nephropathy</td> <td>22 (13.5)</td> <td>118 (10.1)</td> <td>0.184</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="4">Glycaemic control (n (%))</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>(n = 163)</td> <td>(n = 1169)</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>HbA1C < 7%</td> <td>19 (12.0)</td> <td>193 (17.0)</td> <td>0.113</td> </tr> <tr> <td>HbA1C ≥7%</td> <td>144 (88.0)</td> <td>976 (83.0)</td> <td></td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		South Asian (n = 163)	White European (n = 1169)	p Value	Number of comorbidities (n (%))				0	114 (69.9)	878 (75.1)	0.166	1	36 (22.1)	235 (20.1)		≥2	13 (8.0)	56 (4.8)		Macrovascular (n (%))				CVD	25 (15.3)	132 (11.3)	0.133	Ischaemic heart disease	20 (12.3)	97 (8.3)	0.093	Peripheral vascular disease	3 (1.8)	31 (2.7)	0.790	Cerebrovascular disease	6 (3.7)	21 (1.8)	0.130	TIA	0	2 (0.2)	1.000	Microvascular (n (%))				Retinopathy	63 (38.7)	561 (48.0)	0.025	Neuropathy	24 (14.7)	325 (27.8)	<0.001	Nephropathy	22 (13.5)	118 (10.1)	0.184	Glycaemic control (n (%))					(n = 163)	(n = 1169)		HbA1C < 7%	19 (12.0)	193 (17.0)	0.113	HbA1C ≥7%	144 (88.0)	976 (83.0)	
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Shenoy et al ¹¹ 2004	UK	Retrospective Observational	<p>South Asian Ethnicity</p> <p>Method Rates of obesity/overweight in white</p>	<p>WE: 112</p> <p>SA: 38</p>	<p>Age Group (n)</p>	N/A	<p>Demographic Data No statistically significant difference in the two subgroups in relation to age, duration of diagnosis, daily insulin requirement, and metabolic control (median HbA1c 8.4% v 8.8% respectively for WE/SA).</p>																																																																												

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		Study	Caucasian and South Asian groups, and to correlate these with age, duration of diagnosis, daily insulin requirement, and HbA1c. Included children between the ages of 2 and 18 years and who had been diagnosed more than a year ago.		2-4 yrs (3) 5-9 yrs (33) 10-15 yrs (90) 16-18 yrs (24)		Obesity in children No statistically significant differences noted in the rates of overweight or obesity between white Caucasian and South Asian children at any age grouping.		
Sivaprasad et al ¹² 2012	UK	Cross-sectional study	<p>Ethnicity Self-reported ethnicity based on UK census standard (Census 2001): categorised as 'White European', 'African/Afro-Caribbean', 'South Asian', 'Mixed', 'other ethnic group' and 'not known'.</p> <p>Method To assess ethnic variations of the prevalence of DR and visual impairment in two multi-racial cohorts in the UK (Yorkshire and South East London)</p>	WE: 2,628 Afro-Caribbean: 344 SA: 120	Mean age of T1DM population: 39.4 yrs	2008-2009	<p>Ethnic group</p> <p>Prevalence: N (%)</p> <p>Age-standardised prevalence: % (95% CI)</p> <p>Any diabetic retinopathy</p> <p>White Europeans 1446 (55.0) 55.0 (53.2, 56.9)</p> <p>African/Afro-Caribbean 154 (44.8) 42.8 (37.3, 48.3)</p> <p>South Asian 64 (53.3) 54.0 (44.8, 63.2)</p> <p>Any maculopathy (M1)</p> <p>White Europeans 371 (14.1) 14.1 (12.8, 15.4)</p> <p>African/Afro-Caribbean 47 (13.7) 13.1 (9.4, 16.8)</p> <p>South Asian 17 (14.2) 16.6 (10.0, 23.2)</p> <p>CSMO (M1P1)</p> <p>White Europeans 171 (6.5) 6.5 (5.6, 7.4)</p> <p>African/Afro-Caribbean 35 (10.20) 10.0 (6.7, 13.3)</p> <p>South Asian 12 (10.0) 11.2 (5.4, 16.9)</p> <p>STDR (R2 or R3 or M1P1)</p> <p>White Europeans 318 (12.1) 12.1 (10.9, 13.3)</p> <p>African/Afro-Caribbean 53 (15.4) 15.9 (11.8, 20.0)</p> <p>South Asian 19 (15.8) 17.5 (10.6, 24.3)</p>		

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							CSMO- clinically significant macular oedema; M1- maculopathy P1- macular laser; STDR- sight threatening diabetic retinopathy; R1- mild to moderate non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy; R2- pre-proliferative diabetic retinopathy; R3- Proliferative diabetic retinopathy																																													
Brabaran et al ¹³ 2013	UK	Cross-sectional study	<p>Ethnicity Grouped into White European (WE), Afro-Caribbean (AC) and South Asian (SA)</p> <p>Method Data from patients diagnosed with T1DM below 35 years of age, from WE, AC or SA ancestry was obtained from an electronic database in a large multiethnic London diabetes clinic.</p>	642 individuals in total WE: 564 SA: 39 AC: 39	Median age at diagnosis (years) WE: 16.7 AC: 19.4 SA: 19.1	N/A	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Parameters median (IQR)</th> <th>White European (WE)</th> <th>African Caribbean (AC)</th> <th>South Asian (SA)</th> <th>Significant</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>BMI (kg/m²)</td> <td>25.0 (22.3-27.7)</td> <td>25.7 (22.5-28.9)</td> <td>25.3 (22.2-28.5)</td> <td>NEEDS p Value</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Systolic BP (mm/Hg)</td> <td>130 (119-141)</td> <td>135 (121-149)</td> <td>122 (112-133)</td> <td>P<0.05</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Diastolic BP (mmHg)</td> <td>75 (69-81)</td> <td>80 (72-88)</td> <td>73 (67-79)</td> <td>P<0.05</td> </tr> <tr> <td>HbA1c (%)</td> <td>8.0(7.1-8.9)</td> <td>9.1 (7.6-10.7)</td> <td>8.3 (7.5-9.2)</td> <td>P<0.05</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Microalbuminuria (mg/mmol)</td> <td>1.2 (-0.5-3.0)</td> <td>3.7 (-44.5-51.9)</td> <td>1.2 (-1.4-3.8)</td> <td>P<0.05</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)</td> <td>4.50 (3.90-5.10)</td> <td>4.40 (3.90-4.90)</td> <td>4.00 (3.2-4.8)</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>HDL (mmol/L)</td> <td>1.49 (1.21-1.77)</td> <td>1.25 (0.95-1.56)</td> <td>1.30 (1.47-1.14)</td> <td>P<0.05</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Triglyceride (mmol/L)</td> <td>0.93 (0.59-1.28)</td> <td>0.99 (0.58)</td> <td>1.07 (0.76-1.39)</td> <td></td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Parameters median (IQR)	White European (WE)	African Caribbean (AC)	South Asian (SA)	Significant	BMI (kg/m²)	25.0 (22.3-27.7)	25.7 (22.5-28.9)	25.3 (22.2-28.5)	NEEDS p Value	Systolic BP (mm/Hg)	130 (119-141)	135 (121-149)	122 (112-133)	P<0.05	Diastolic BP (mmHg)	75 (69-81)	80 (72-88)	73 (67-79)	P<0.05	HbA1c (%)	8.0(7.1-8.9)	9.1 (7.6-10.7)	8.3 (7.5-9.2)	P<0.05	Microalbuminuria (mg/mmol)	1.2 (-0.5-3.0)	3.7 (-44.5-51.9)	1.2 (-1.4-3.8)	P<0.05	Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	4.50 (3.90-5.10)	4.40 (3.90-4.90)	4.00 (3.2-4.8)		HDL (mmol/L)	1.49 (1.21-1.77)	1.25 (0.95-1.56)	1.30 (1.47-1.14)	P<0.05	Triglyceride (mmol/L)	0.93 (0.59-1.28)	0.99 (0.58)	1.07 (0.76-1.39)	
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Sarwar et al ¹⁴ 2015	UK	Cross-sectional Study	<p>Ethnicity South Asian and White Caucasian</p> <p>Method Data analysed from two centres in the West Midlands (Queen Elizabeth Hospital [QEH] and New Cross Hospital [NCH])</p>	White Caucasian: n: 278 South Asian: 139	Median age (years) NCH Caucasian: 34 NCH SA: 33.5 QEH Caucasian: 36	N/A	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Characteristic (number of patients)</th> <th>NCH South Asian (80)</th> <th>NCH Caucasian (160)</th> <th>QE South Asian (59)</th> <th>QE Caucasian (118)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>HbA1c (mmol/mol)</td> <td>75 (61.5-88.5)</td> <td>76 (63-91)</td> <td>66.1 (55.25-81.75)</td> <td>70.5 (61-83.6)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Systolic BP (mmHg)</td> <td>121 (113-132)</td> <td>125 (115-132)</td> <td>130 (120.5-141.5)</td> <td>131.5 (120.3-144)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Diastolic BP (mmHg)</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>86 (80.5—90)*</td> <td>82 (77.25-88.75)*</td> </tr> <tr> <td>BMI (kg/m²)</td> <td>25.6 (22.55-</td> <td>25.7 (22.5-30.4)</td> <td>30.9 (22.8-37)</td> <td>25 (22.6-28)</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Characteristic (number of patients)	NCH South Asian (80)	NCH Caucasian (160)	QE South Asian (59)	QE Caucasian (118)	HbA1c (mmol/mol)	75 (61.5-88.5)	76 (63-91)	66.1 (55.25-81.75)	70.5 (61-83.6)	Systolic BP (mmHg)	121 (113-132)	125 (115-132)	130 (120.5-141.5)	131.5 (120.3-144)	Diastolic BP (mmHg)	-	-	86 (80.5—90)*	82 (77.25-88.75)*	BMI (kg/m²)	25.6 (22.55-	25.7 (22.5-30.4)	30.9 (22.8-37)	25 (22.6-28)																				
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					QEHS SA: 36		28.4)				
							Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	4.7(3.9-5.45)	4.6 (4-5.3)	4.45 (3.8-5.45)	4.1 (3.7-4.95)
							HDL (mmol/L)	1.3 (1.0-1.6)*	1.4 (1.2-1.65)*	-	-
							Cholesterol/ HDL	3.6 (2.9-4.5)*	3.2 (2.7-4.0)*	-	-
							Creatinine level (µmol/L)	75 (66-87)	78 (69-87)	-	-
							eGFR (ml/min/1.73m2)	97.3 (82.2-109.9)	91.2 (79.3-103.9)	-	-
							Albumin/ Creatinine ratio (mg/mmol)	2.4 (0.7-3.6)	2.5 (0.75-3.5)	-	-
							*P value <0.05				
Thomas et al ¹⁵ 2012	South Africa	Retrospective observational study	Ethnicity Caucasian, Indigenous African, Asian and mixed race. No description of how ethnicity identified. Method Retinal photography was conducted using a non-mydratic digital camera without mydriasis and graded by one of three senior graders.	Caucasian: 1247 Indigenous African: 117 Asian: 118 Mixed race: 49	Mean age (yrs) Caucasian: 35.7 Indigenous African: 36.3 Asian: 32.2 Mixed race: 32.6	2001-2010	Diabetic Retinopathy (DR)	Any DR (n=541)		RDR (n=142)	
							Crude OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR (95% CI)	Crude OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR (95% CI)	
							Caucasian (1,247)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
							Indigenous African (117)	0.71 (0.46-1.09)	1.72 (1.00-2.97)	0.95 (0.49-1.84)	3.40 (1.40-8.26)
							Asian (118)	1.10 (0.74-1.63)	2.02 (1.23-3.29)	1.05 (0.54-2.04)	2.07 (0.90-4.75)
							Mixed race (49)	1.01 (0.56-1.84)	1.29 (0.62-2.69)	1.10(0.42-2.88)	1.06 (0.36-3.18)
Omar et al ¹⁶ 1984	South Africa	Cross-sectional analysis	Ethnicity 2 groups: Indians and Blacks. No methodology for ethnicity identification provided	Blacks: 92 Indians: 41	Mean age at onset (yrs)	Not mentioned	Complications	Blacks	Indians	Total	
							Keto-acidosis	53 (58%)	22 (54%)	75 (56%)	
							Neuropathy peripheral	20 (22%)	13 (32%)	33 (25%)	
								4 (4%)	2 (5%)	6 (5%)	

			Method Patients from King Edward VIII Hospital in Durban fulfilling WHO diagnostic criteria for insulin dependent diabetes mellitus. Both case records obtained and a physical examination performed to assess complications.	Blacks: 17 Indians : 23.5			autonomic Retinopathy 13 (14%) 9 (22%) 22 (17%) Nephropathy 3 (3%) 3 (7%) 6 (5%) Triopathy 1 (1%) 2 (5%) 3 (2%) Ischaemic heart disease - - - Hypertension 4 (4%) 2 (5%) 6 (5%) Cataracts 5 (5%) 2 (5%) 7 (5%) Tuberculosis 6 (7%) 1 (2%) 7 (5%)																					
Asmal et al ¹⁷ 1981	South Africa	Cross-sectional analysis	Ethnicity 2 groups: Indians and Blacks. No methodology for ethnicity identification provided Method Clinic patients who fulfilled the following criteria: age of diagnosis of diabetes <35 years, development of symptoms +/- ketosis in the absence of insulin therapy, and duration of diabetes of at least 12 months. Case records examined, clinical assessments and biochemical tests carried out	Blacks: 52 Indian: 38 Blacks: 21.8 Indian: 18.0	Mean age at onset (years)	4 weeks	Basic Biochemical Data <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Indians</th> <th>Blacks</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Glucose (mmol/l)</td> <td>15.80 ± 1.50</td> <td>14.20 ± 1.50</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Growth hormone (ng/ml)</td> <td>3.00 ± 0.76</td> <td>1.76 ± 0.41</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Cortisol (µg/dl)</td> <td>16.20 ± 1.47</td> <td>15.80 ± 1.40</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Cholesterol (mmol/l)</td> <td>5.17 ± 0.32</td> <td>4.78 ± 0.26</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Triglyceride (mmol/l)</td> <td>2.81 ± 0.97</td> <td>2.27 ± 0.83</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Creatinine (µg/dl)</td> <td>68.90 ± 4.10</td> <td>79.40 ± 6.70</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> Complications Chronic complications associated with micro-angiopathy were detected in 12 Indians (33%) and 2 Blacks (4%). Commonest complication was neuropathy found in 19% of Indian diabetics and in 4% of Black diabetics. 2 Indians had evidence of diabetic triopathy.		Indians	Blacks	Glucose (mmol/l)	15.80 ± 1.50	14.20 ± 1.50	Growth hormone (ng/ml)	3.00 ± 0.76	1.76 ± 0.41	Cortisol (µg/dl)	16.20 ± 1.47	15.80 ± 1.40	Cholesterol (mmol/l)	5.17 ± 0.32	4.78 ± 0.26	Triglyceride (mmol/l)	2.81 ± 0.97	2.27 ± 0.83	Creatinine (µg/dl)	68.90 ± 4.10	79.40 ± 6.70
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Ismail et al ¹⁸ 2001	Malaysia	Cross Sectional study	Ethnicity 3 groups: Indian, Malay and Chinese. Each ethnic group identified by appearance, language and religion. Method Patients recruited from 7 centres throughout Peninsular Malaysia. Blood taken for lipid levels, clinical history and physical examination performed. T1DM defined as acute symptoms associated with heavy ketonuria (>3+) or ketoacidosis at diagnosis, or continuous treatment with insulin within 1 year of diagnosis.	Indian: 154 Malay: 297 Chinese: 128	Mean age (years)	June 1997- June 1998	Demographic Features <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Malay (n = 297)</th> <th>Chinese(n=128)</th> <th>Indian (n=154)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>BMI (kg/m2)</td> <td>26.8 ± 4.9</td> <td>25.4 ± 4.5</td> <td>25.5 ± 4.3</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Waist-hip ratio</td> <td>A: 0.88 ± 0.06 M: 0.91 ± 0.06 F: 0.86 ± 0.06</td> <td>A: 0.88 ± 0.07 M: 0.90 ± 0.06 F: 0.85 ± 0.07</td> <td>A: 0.89 ± 0.06 M: 0.93 ± 0.06 F: 0.85 ± 0.06</td> </tr> <tr> <td>HbA1c (%)</td> <td>8.8 (8.6-9.1)</td> <td>8.0 (7.7-8.3)</td> <td>8.5 (8.2-8.8)</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> Lipid Profiles (mmol/L, mean +/- SEM) Total Cholesterol : Indians (5.74 +/- 1.25), Chinese (5.64 +/- 1.42), Malay (5.58 +/- 1.38) LDL Cholesterol : Indians (3.89 +/- 1.20), Chinese (3.52 +/- 1.22), Malay (3.48 +/- 1.12) HDL Cholesterol (mean[95% CI]) : Indians (1.28 [1.19-1.38]), Chinese (1.57 [1.48-1.67]), Malay (1.37 [1.28-1.46]) Triglycerides (mean[95% CI]): Indians (1.02 [0.9-1.16]), Chinese (0.82 [0.74-0.91]), Malay (1.11 [0.99-1.23])		Malay (n = 297)	Chinese(n=128)	Indian (n=154)	BMI (kg/m2)	26.8 ± 4.9	25.4 ± 4.5	25.5 ± 4.3	Waist-hip ratio	A: 0.88 ± 0.06 M: 0.91 ± 0.06 F: 0.86 ± 0.06	A: 0.88 ± 0.07 M: 0.90 ± 0.06 F: 0.85 ± 0.07	A: 0.89 ± 0.06 M: 0.93 ± 0.06 F: 0.85 ± 0.06	HbA1c (%)	8.8 (8.6-9.1)	8.0 (7.7-8.3)	8.5 (8.2-8.8)					
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Omar et al ¹⁹ 1984	South Africa	Cross sectional analysis	Ethnicity 2 groups: Indians and Africans	African T1DM: 86	Mean age of onset (range)	2 year period	Clinical characteristics of T1DM patients		
			Method Classification of diabetes based on criteria by National Diabetes Data Group and WHO expert committee. T1DM patients had always depended on insulin for control of symptoms and prevention of basal ketosis. All patients diagnosed <35 years of age	Indian T1DM: 40			African : 23.5 (1-35) yrs Indian: 17 (1-35)	Characteristic	Africans (n=86)
							Male: Female	21: 25	17: 24
							Mean % ideal body weight	106 (68-153)	91 (71-136)
							Mean duration of disease (years)	3.8 (1-27)	5.4 (1-22)
							Mean age of onset	23.5 (1-35)	17 (1-35)

Table 2: Summary of Findings

	Findings in the SA population when compared to the specified ethnicity (e.g. SA have the same BMI as WE, but higher HbA1c)		
	WE	AC	Chinese
BMI	→	→	
HbA1c	↑	↓	↑
SBP	↓	↓	
DBP	→	→	
HDL	↓	↑	↓
Total Chol	→	→	→
Smoking	↓		
Retinopathy	→	→	→
Nephropathy	→	↓	
Neuropathy	↓	→	
CVD	→	→	
Mortality	↑		

Results

Risk Factors

Body Mass Index (BMI)

Six studies explored BMI and general weight measurements as an outcome: three comparing SA with WE only, one comparing with WE and AC, one comparing with AC only, and one comparing to Malay and Chinese. The three papers comparing SA to only WE demonstrated no statistically significant difference in BMI^{10, 11, 14}. Mehta et al¹⁰ in the UK showed a mean BMI (kg/m²) of 27.5 in SA (n=163) compared with 27.4 in WE (n=1169) (p=0.835)². Similarities in BMI (kg/m²) between SA and WE have previously been reported in two different centres (median BMI 25.6 vs. 25.7 respectively and 30.9 vs. 25 respectively)¹⁴ The results were not significant due to the small number of participants. Shenoy et al¹¹ also in the UK showed no statistically significant differences in the rates of overweight or obesity between WE (n=112) and SA (n=38) children with T1DM at any age grouping.

Brabarupan et al¹³ in the UK showed no statistically significant difference in BMI (kg/m²) in SA (n=39) compared to WE (n=565) and AC (n=38) (median 25.3 vs. 25.0 vs. 25.7 respectively). Omar et al¹⁹ in South Africa also showed no difference between SA (n=40) and AC (n=86) in mean % ideal body weight (91 vs. 106 respectively).

Lastly, a study by Ismail et al¹⁸ in Malaysia showed that there was no difference in BMI (kg/m²) when comparing SA to Malay and Chinese (mean 22.0 vs. 22.3 vs. 22.0 respectively). However, there were significant differences in waist-hip ratio between the ethnic group males with SA having significantly higher waist-hip ratio compared with Chinese (mean 0.88 vs. 0.84 respectively, p=0.007).

In summary, there are no demonstrable differences in BMI between SA, WE and AC with T1DM. However SA males compared to Chinese males with T1DM had a higher waist-hip ratio.

Glycaemic control

Seven studies explored glycaemic control as an outcome: three comparing SA with WE only, two comparing with WE and AC, one comparing to AC only and one comparing with Malay and Chinese. Mehta et al¹⁰ in the UK, demonstrated higher HbA1c (%) levels in SA (n=163) (mean 9.1%) compared with WE (n=1169) (mean 8.5%) (p<0.001). This is similar to the results from Brabarupan et al¹³ in the UK who demonstrate SA (n=39) having higher HbA1c (%) levels (median 8.3) compared to WE (n=565) (median 8.0) but lower than AC (n=38) (median 9.1) (p<0.05). Another UK study analysed SA and WE at two different hospitals¹⁴ and demonstrated similar HbA1c (%) (median 9.0 vs. 9.1 respectively and 8.2 vs. 8.6 respectively at the two different hospitals). Shenoy et al in¹¹ the UK found no significant difference in metabolic control between WE (n=112) and SA (n=38) children (median HbA1c 8.4% v 8.8% respectively). Thomas et al¹⁵ in South Africa also found no statistically significant differences between SA (n=118), WE (n=1247) and AC (n=117) in HbA1c (%) levels (8.7 vs. 8.2 vs. 9.5 respectively). A study by Asmal et al¹⁷ in South Africa showed that SA (n=38) had similar mean glucose concentrations (mmol/l) to AC (n=52) (15.80 vs. 14.20 respectively).

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3 Ismail et al¹⁸ in Malaysia showed that SA (n=76) have significantly higher HbA1c (%) levels compared
4 to Chinese (n=91) and Malay (n=102) (mean 9.3 vs. 7.8 vs. 9.0 respectively, $p<0.001$).
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6 In summary, studies suggest SA have higher HbA1c levels compared to WE, Malay and Chinese but
7 lower than AC ethnic groups.
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9 **Blood Pressure**

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11 Four studies determined blood pressure/hypertension as an outcome: two comparing SA with WE
12 only, one comparing with WE and AC and one comparing to AC only. The three papers with a WE
13 group all showed that SA have lower blood pressure than the comparator groups. Mehta et al¹⁰ in
14 the UK, showed a significantly lower systolic blood pressure in SA (n=163) compared with WE
15 (n=1169) (mean value 136.4 vs. 141.6 mmHg respectively; $p=0.004$). However, there was no
16 difference in diastolic blood pressure between SA (mean 75.4 vs. 75.4 mmHg respectively; $p=0.41$).
17 Brabarupan et al¹³ in the UK also showed that SA (n=39) compared with WE (n=565) and AC (n=38)
18 had a lower systolic blood pressure (median 120 vs. 130 vs. 135 mmHg respectively; $p<0.05$) and a
19 lower diastolic blood pressure (median 73 vs. 75 vs. 80 mmHg respectively, $p<0.05$). We have
20 previously noted that there was no significant difference in systolic blood pressure (mmHg) between
21 SA and WE (median 121 vs. 125 respectively and 130 vs. 131.5 respectively in two different centres)
22 in a UK population¹⁴. Another study reported that SA (n=59) had a higher diastolic blood pressure
23 (mmHg) than WE (n=118) (median 86 vs. 82 respectively, $p<0.05$). Lastly, Omar et al¹⁶ in South Africa
24 showed absence of difference between SA (n=41) and AC (n=92) in the prevalence of hypertension
25 (5% vs. 4% respectively). The analyses in these studies were not adjusted.
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30 In summary, studies suggest SA have lower systolic blood pressure compared with WE and AC, but
31 there is no difference in the diastolic blood pressure across these three ethnic groups.
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33 **Lipid Profile**

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35 Five studies examined differences in lipid profiles: two comparing SA to WE only, one comparing to
36 WE and AC, one comparing to AC only and one comparing to Malay and Chinese. A UK study has
37 previously shown that SA (n=80) have lower levels of HDL (mmol/L) (median 1.3 vs. 1.4 respectively,
38 $p<0.05$) and higher cholesterol/HDL ratio (median 3.6 vs. 3.2 respectively, $p<0.05$) than WE
39 (n=160)¹⁴. There were no statistically significant differences in the levels of total cholesterol
40 (mmol/L) in SA compared to WE (median 4.7 vs. 4.6 respectively and 4.45 vs. 4.1 respectively).
41 Another UK study¹³ also showed that SA (n=39) had lower levels of HDL (mmol/L) compared with WE
42 (n=565) but higher levels than AC (n=38) (median 1.30 vs. 1.49 vs. 1.25 respectively, $p<0.05$). They
43 also demonstrate absence of difference in total cholesterol levels ((mmol/L) between SA, WE and AC
44 (median 4.00 vs. 4.50 vs. 4.40 respectively) and triglyceride levels (mmol/L) (median 1.07 vs. 0.93 vs.
45 0.99 respectively). Mehta et al¹⁰ in the UK also show similar levels of total cholesterol (mmol/L) in SA
46 (n=163) (mean value 4.6) compared to WE (n=1169) (mean value 4.8) ($p=0.132$).
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51 Ismail et al¹⁸ in Malaysia demonstrate that SA (n=76) compared with Malay (n=102) and Chinese (91)
52 had no statistically significant differences in total cholesterol (mmol/L) levels (mean 5.74 vs. 5.58 vs.
53 5.64 respectively) and LDL cholesterol (mmol/L) levels (mean 3.89 vs. 3.48 vs. 3.52 respectively). SA
54 had significantly lower HDL cholesterol (mmol/L) compared with Chinese (mean 1.28 vs. 1.57
55 respectively, $p<0.01$) and significantly higher triglyceride levels (mmol/L) (mean 1.02 vs. 0.82
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3 respectively, $p < 0.03$). Lastly, Asmal et al¹⁷ in South Africa found that SA (n=38) compared to AC
4 (n=52) had no statistically significant differences in cholesterol levels (mmol/L) (mean 5.17 vs. 4.78
5 respectively) and triglyceride levels (mmol/L) (2.81 vs. 2.27 respectively).
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8 In summary, SA have lower HDL levels compared to WE and Chinese but higher than AC. SA have
9 higher triglyceride levels compared with Chinese. There are no differences in total cholesterol
10 between SA and WE, AC, Malay or Chinese ethnic groups.

11 **Smoking Status**

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13 Only one paper examined the prevalence of smoking in SA with T1DM. Mehta et al¹⁰ in the UK
14 demonstrated significantly lower prevalence of smokers in the SA group (n=28/163, 17%) compared
15 to the WE group (n=359/1169, 30.7%) ($p < 0.001$).
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18 **Microvascular Disease**

19 **Retinopathy**

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21 Four studies examined retinopathy; one comparing SA with WE only, two comparing to WE and AC,
22 and one comparing to AC only. The most relevant study by Sivaprasad¹² et al investigated
23 retinopathy in T1DM in the UK cohort consisting of 2,626 WE, 344 AC and 120 SA. The mean age in
24 this study was 39.4 +/- 16.3 years. The study found no statistically significant differences between
25 SA, WE and AC with T1DM in the age-standardised prevalence of maculopathy [95% confidence
26 interval] (16.6% [10 – 23.2] vs. 14.1% [12.8-15.4] vs. 13.1% [9.4-16.8] respectively), clinically
27 significant macular oedema (11.2% [5.4-16.9] vs. 6.5% [5.6-7.4] vs. 10.0% [6.7-13.3] respectively),
28 sight threatening diabetic retinopathy (17.5% [10.6-24.3] vs. 12.1% [10.9-13.3] vs. 15.9% [11.8-20.0]
29 respectively) and any diabetic retinopathy (54.0% [44.8-63.2] vs. 55.0% [53.2-56.9] vs. 42.8% [37.3-
30 48.3] respectively).
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35 Thomas et al¹⁵, in South Africa, reported that SA (n=118) were at increased risk of any diabetic
36 retinopathy (Odds ratio 2.02 95% CI 1.23-3.29) when compared with WE (n=1,247), after adjustment
37 for age at diagnosis, sex, duration of diabetes, HbA1c, hypertension, and smoking status. Mehta et
38 al¹⁰ in the UK showed that SA (n=163) compared to WE (n=1,169) had decreased prevalence of
39 retinopathy (38.7% vs. 48.0% respectively, $p = 0.025$). Lastly, Omar et al¹⁶, a South African study,
40 compared SA (n=41) to AC (n=92) and were unable to demonstrate a statistically significant
41 difference in the prevalence of retinopathy (22% vs. 14% respectively).
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44 In summary, there is no difference in the prevalence of retinopathy between SA, WE and AC ethnic
45 groups.
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47 **Nephropathy**

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49 Five studies explored nephropathy and renal function as an outcome in SA with T1DM: two papers
50 comparing to WE only, one comparing to WE and AC, and two papers comparing to AC only. The
51 largest study, by Mehta et al¹⁰ in the UK, did not show any differences between SA (n=163) and WE
52 (n=1,169) in the prevalence of nephropathy (13.5% vs. 10.1% respectively, $p = 0.184$).
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55 In another UK study, no statistically significant differences were found between SA (n=80) and WE
56 (n=160) in creatinine levels ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) (median 76 vs. 78 respectively), albumin/creatinine ratio
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(mg/mmol) (median 2.4 vs. 2.5 respectively) and eGFR (ml/min/1.73²) (median 97.3 vs. 91.2 respectively)¹⁴. Brabarupan et al¹³ in the UK showed no difference in the prevalence of microalbuminuria (mg/mmol) between SA (n=39) and WE (n=565) (median 1.2 vs. 1.2 respectively), however, AC (n=38) had significantly higher levels (median 3.7) (p<0.05). There were two studies in South Africa comparing SA to AC. The first by Omar et al¹⁶ showed in their cohort of SA (n=41) and AC (n=92) there was absence of difference in the prevalence of nephropathy (7% vs. 3% respectively). Asmal et al¹⁷ also showed no statistically relevant difference between SA (n=38) and AC (n=52) in creatinine levels (μmol/L) (mean 68.90 vs. 79.40 respectively).

In summary, there is no difference in the prevalence of nephropathy or difference in renal function between SA and WE. However, in one study SA had lower levels of microalbuminuria compared to AC.

Neuropathy

Three studies included neuropathy as an outcome in SA: one comparing to WE only and two comparing to AC only. The most relevant study, Mehta et al¹⁰ in the UK, showed that SA (n=163) compared to WE (n=1,169) have a lower prevalence of neuropathy (14.7% vs. 27.8% respectively, p<0.001). Omar et al¹⁶ compared SA (n=41) to AC (n=92) in South Africa demonstrating no statistically significant differences in the prevalence of peripheral neuropathy (32% vs. 22% respectively) and autonomic neuropathy (5% vs. 4% respectively). Asmal et al¹⁷ in South Africa showed increased prevalence of neuropathy in SA (n=38) compared to AC (n=52) (19% vs. 4% respectively), however no statistical tests were performed.

In summary, SA have lower prevalence of neuropathy than WE. There is no difference noted in the prevalence of neuropathy between SA and AC.

Macrovascular Disease

Two studies reported cardiovascular outcomes: one comparing to WE only and the other comparing to AC only. The largest of these studies, by Mehta et al¹⁰ in the UK, did not show evidence of difference between SA (n=163) and WE (n=1,169) with T1DM in prevalence of cardiovascular disease (15.3% vs. 11.3% respectively, p=0.133). Sub-analysis also did not reveal a difference between SA and WE in ischaemic heart disease (12.3% vs. 8.3% respectively, p=0.093), peripheral vascular disease (1.8% vs. 2.7% respectively, p=0.79) and cerebrovascular disease (3.7% vs. 1.8% respectively, p=0.13). It is important to note that the mean age in the T1DM group was lower (mean age of SA 41.9 years and WE 45.3 years) compared to T2DM (mean age 59.2 years SA and 66.2 years WE) which may have led to an under-representation of cardiovascular outcomes in the T1DM group.

A second study compared peripheral arterial disease between SA and AC in South Africa. Omar et al¹⁶ showed that none of their participants in either the SA (n=41) or AC group (n=92) had peripheral vascular disease or ischaemic heart disease. This may also be due to their younger cohort of patients and small sample size.

In summary, the prevalence of cardiovascular disease between the SA, WE and AC populations do not differ.

Mortality

Only one study examined the association of SA ethnicity on mortality in people with T1DM. Swerdlow et al⁹ in a UK study investigated mortality of SA patients compared to the non-SA population, approximately 97% of which were Caucasian. The patients were followed for up to 28 years. In their cohort of 424 SA patients there were 27 deaths (6.4%) and in 23,326 non-SA there were 1,293 deaths (5.5%). Mortality in SA and non-SA with T1DM was calculated independently by comparing with the general population mortality using Standardized Mortality Ratios (SMR). Compared to the reference population, the SMR for SA patients were 3.9 (95% CI 2.0-6.9) in men and 10.1 (6.6-16.6) in women. The SMR for the corresponding non-SA were 2.7 (2.6-2.9) in men and 4.0 (3.6-4.3) in women. No details are provided as to the age of death in these patients. The most common cause of death in SA patients was cardiovascular disease (29.6%) and renal disease (14.8%). The 'other' causes of death accounted for 8 deaths (29.6%) and included septicaemia, systemic lupus erythematosus, bronchopneumonia, unspecified urinary tract infection and congenital malformation. The most common causes of death in non-SA were cardiovascular disease (n=474, 36.7%) and diabetes and hypoglycaemia (n=239, 18.5%). There was 1 death due to neoplasm in SA (3.7%) and 89 in non-SA (6.9%).

In summary, mortality is higher in SA with T1DM than non-SA when compared to the reference population in the UK. SA females were in particular affected, with a SMR that was over twice that of the non-SA female T1DM population. The commonest cause of death was cardiovascular disease.

Discussion

This is the first systematic review to examine the differences in risk factors, microvascular complications, macrovascular complications and mortality between SA and other ethnic groups with T1DM. In summary (see Table 2), mortality is higher in SA with T1DM when compared to a largely WE reference population. Female SAs were in particular affected, with a SMR that was over twice that of the non-SA female T1DM population. The commonest cause of death is cardiovascular disease.

Overall, the studies suggest that cardiovascular disease itself is no more common in SA T1DM compared to WE. The study by Mehta et al that examined cardiovascular disease most clearly, studied a population with a mean age in their early 40s, and is likely to be too young for cardiovascular disease to manifest clinically. Whilst they observed a 50% higher risk of ischaemic heart disease (12.3 vs. 8.3%) and twice the risk of cerebrovascular disease (1.8 vs 3.7%) in SA compared to WE, the study had less than 30% power to detect a statistically significant difference. Some risk factors for cardiovascular disease appear greater in SA, with lower HDL than WE and the Chinese, and higher HbA1c. However the most powerful risk factors for cardiovascular disease of smoking and systolic BP are lower than in WE.

Most studies also suggest SA have higher HbA1c levels than WE²⁴, Malay and Chinese but lower than AC ethnic groups. Despite this, rates of retinal and nephropathic microvascular disease were the same as the WE population and some (neuropathy) even lower. Compared to AC, SA had lower levels of microalbuminuria, lower HbA1c, lower systolic blood pressure and higher HDL levels. There were no statistically significant differences between these two ethnic groups in the remaining outcomes: cardiovascular disease, retinopathy, neuropathy and BMI.

Strengths and weaknesses

There are a number of weaknesses with the analysis. The quality of the studies were poor with the majority of studies being retrospective observational or cross-sectional. It was also not possible to undertake a meta-analysis of the combined studies because the results were heterogeneous in nature. Furthermore, the methodology of how outcomes were assessed was not consistently reported, and the numbers of SA in each study were small. The strengths of this analysis are its comprehensive search strategy with clearly defined population and outcomes. Our search strategy incorporated both full-length papers as well as abstracts, included all languages and had a secondary search strategy to ensure we did not miss any relevant papers. We compared the SA group, the largest ethnic group globally with all other indigenous ethnic groups.

Implications

Our analysis highlights two areas. Firstly, the ethnic disparity in mortality that has previously been described in T2DM is also present for SA patients with T1DM. This disparity is most likely due to cardiovascular disease but this association remains to be proven. Given the close association between glycaemic control with cardiovascular disease and excess mortality in T1D²⁵, and the higher HbA1c in the SA population, the findings of this systematic review call for more aggressive glycaemic control in the SA T1D population. Culturally tailored programmes, as have been attempted for T2DM, may also be required for T1DM²⁶. In addition, we may require more stringent control of other

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3 cardiovascular risk factors such as lipids and blood pressure, though this needs to be formally
4 addressed. Secondly, we highlight a need for a large, ideally prospective, multinational study
5 exploring the effect of ethnicity in a uniform healthcare setting. This will enable consistent
6 methodology, and standardised reporting of risk factors and outcomes. These outcomes should
7 include those mentioned above, and in particular cardiovascular disease, but also outcomes such as
8 peripheral vascular disease, depression and bone fractures that have not previously been addressed.
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3 **Competing interests:** All authors have completed the ICMJE uniform disclosure form at
4 www.icmje.org/coi_disclosure.pdf and declare: no support from any organisation for the submitted
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8

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16

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18

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21

22 The lead author (the manuscript's guarantor) affirms that the manuscript is an honest, accurate, and
23 transparent account of the study being reported; that no important aspects of the study have been
24 omitted; and that any discrepancies from the study as planned have been explained.
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26 **Data sharing:** no additional data available.
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29 I, Komil Sarwar, the Corresponding Author of this article contained within the original manuscript
30 which includes any diagrams & photographs within and any related or stand-alone film submitted
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44 **Contributorship Statement** 45

46 Dr Komil N Sarwar: involvement in the design of the work, data collection, data analysis, writing the
47 paper, drafting and revision of the paper
48

49 Dr Phoebe Cliff: involvement in the design of the work, data collection, data analysis, helped with
50 drafting and revision of the paper
51

52
53 Dr Ponnusamy Saravanan: involvement in the design of the work, reviewed all drafts of the paper,
54 helped with revision of the paper
55

56 Professor Kamlesh Khunti - involvement in the design of the work, reviewed all drafts of the paper,
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helped with revision of the paper

Dr Krishnarajah Nirantharakumar - responsible for the conception and design of the work, reviewed all drafts of the paper, helped with revision of the paper

Dr Parth Narendran - responsible for the conception and design of the work, reviewed all drafts of the paper, helped with revision of the paper

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Appendix 1: Search Strategy

Embase

1	type 1 diabetes.mp. or exp insulin dependent diabetes/	95641
2	ethnicity.mp. or exp ethnic group/ or exp race/ or exp ethnicity/ or exp "ethnic or racial aspects"/	288124
3	exp ethnic difference/	27336
4	exp South Asian/	27829
5	Sri Lanka.mp. or exp Sri Lanka	7081
6	Bangladesh.mp. or exp Bangladesh	13584
7	India.mp. or exp India	156225
8	Pakistan.mp. or exp Pakistan	22629
9	Nepal.mp. or exp Nepal	8792
10	Bhutan.mp. or exp Bhutan	507
11	maldives.mp. or exp Maldives	268
12	3 or 4 or 5 or 6 or 7 or 8 or 9 or 10 or 11 or 12	499040
13	1 and 12	2491

Medline

1	exp Diabetes mellitus, Type 1/ or type 1 diabetes.mp.	72398
2	insulin dependent diabetes.mp.	19957
3	exp ethnic groups/ or ethnicity.mp	158001
4	ethnic differences.mp.	6985
5	ethnic aspects.mp.	30
6	racial differences.mp.	5002
7	race.mp.	77099
8	racial groups.mp.	2853
9	racial aspects.mp.	34
10	South Asian*.mp.	3740
11	exp sri lanka/ or sri lanka*.mp	6443
12	exp bangladesh/ or bangladesh*.mp	11009
13	exp india/ or india*.mp.	164014
14	exp pakistan/ or pakistan*.mp.	17599
15	exp nepal/ or nepal*.mp.	7799
16	exp bhutan/ or bhutan*.mp.	468
17	maldives.mp.	195
18	1 or 2	82700
19	3 or 4 or 5 or 6 or 7 or 8 or 9 or 10 or 11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 15 or 16 or 17	405983
20	18 and 19	2231

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Appendix 2: Quality Assessment

Study	Design	Grading of study design	Intervention	Recruitment of study participants	Differences at baseline	Analytical method	Follow up and measurement bias	Assessment of confounders	Additional notes
Swerdlow et al ⁹	Prospective Cohort Study	Selection: 4/4 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity Identified by computer algorithm (SANGRA) followed by a clerical check by an individual with expertise in this area. Sensitivity of 89-96% and specificity of 94-98%.	Inclusion Criteria Age at diagnosis of diabetes <30 years. Some identified in a national register of childhood cases assembled by the BDA from 1972-1986 and remainder from various geographical registers for parts of the UK during 1972-1993. Ages at diagnosis varied. Total cohort of 23, 752 with T1DM.	Age distributions of person-years were similar between the 2 groups	Type of analysis Standardised mortality ratios compared using chi squared test. Power calculation Not reported	Follow up Till 31 st December 1999, or the date of death, 85 th birthday, emigration or other loss of follow up. Lost to Follow up 1 South Asian and 151 non South Asians lost to follow up through emigration. 50 non South Asians lost to follow up in other ways. Outcome Mortality assessed in the same way in both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline No differences in age distributions. However, differences in comorbidities not reported. May be significant in mortality rates.	1. Assumption that people diagnosed <30 years had T1DM and those diagnosed >30 years had T2DM. 2. Ethnic makeup of the non- South Asian group not reported (assumed Caucasian). 3. Small number of deaths in South Asian group.
Mehta et al ¹⁰	Cross-sectional study	Selection: 1/5 stars Comparability: 2/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity Ethnicity identified based on that given in the patient's record or by use of name recognition software 'Nam Pechan' supplemented by a visual inspection of surnames and forenames.	Inclusion Criteria Diabetes patients attending a specialist outpatient diabetes clinic in Leicestershire, UK, between 2003 and 2005. Methodology of patients being classified as T1DM or T2DM not reported.	Age (3.4 years) Duration of diabetes (5.9 years) Smoking (13.7%)	Type of analysis Documented Power calculation Not reported	Outcome Baseline data and comorbidities data collected in the same way in both groups. Classification the same in both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Younger age of onset and shorter duration of diabetes in South Asians may have led to under-representation of comorbidities in South Asians with T1DM.	1. Cross sectional design so causation cannot be established 2. Data from one hospital, not generalizable 3. Did not comment on frequency of attendance for blood glucose monitoring so relationship between HbA1c and comorbidity not clear
Shenoy et al ¹¹	Retrospective Observational Study	Selection: 1/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Children with T1DM between the ages of 2 and 18 years and who had been diagnosed more than a year ago.	Not reported	Type of analysis and power calculation Not reported	Outcome Obesity assessed in both groups. No methodology given so unclear if bias in between two groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Possibly multiple characteristics not described	1. No methodology given 2. No description of statistical analysis used 3. No data on South Asians vs. non-South Asians

									given in the results
Sivaprasad et al ¹²	Cross-sectional study	Selection: 1/5 stars Comparability: 1/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity Self-reported ethnicity recorded at the time of screening according to the codes used in the Census 2001.	Inclusion Criteria All subjects in the diabetic screening register of West Yorkshire and South East London programmes were included in this study. Coverage of diabetic people in the respective regions: 95% in West Yorkshire and 81% in South East London	Not reported	Type of analysis Documented Power calculation Not reported	Outcome Diabetic screening and retinopathy assessment same in both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Possibly multiple considering characteristics not described	1.Records of patients that were not obtainable or exempt from diabetic screening (12%) did not have ethnicity data so South Asians may have been under-represented 2.Did not assess factors like BP, glycaemic control
Braparupan et al ¹³	Cross-sectional retrospective study	Selection: 1/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Subjects with T1DM diagnosed below 35 years of age from a London diabetes clinic. From white European, Afro-Caribbean or South Asian ancestry.	Not applicable	Type of analysis and power calculation Not reported	Outcome Same outcome measures in both groups. No methodology given so unclear if bias in the way outcomes measured in both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Groups not matched for age and gender.	1.Abstract only so full methodology and results not available 2.Groups not matched for age and gender
Sarwar et al ¹⁴	Retrospective case-controlled study	Selection: 0/5 stars Comparability: 2/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Patients with T1DM in 2 centres in the West Midlands	Patients matched for age and gender	Type of analysis and power calculation Not reported	Outcome Same outcome measures in both groups. No methodology given so unclear if bias in the way outcomes measured in both groups.	Factors not included in the study Methodology not given so bias may be introduced with the two centres	1. Abstract only
Thomas et al ¹⁵	Retrospective observational study	Selection: 1/5 stars Comparability: 2/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Subjects classified as having T1DM or T2DM on clinical assessment according to the American Diabetes Association classification of diabetes.	Age (4.1 years) Duration of diabetes (4 years)	Type of analysis Documented Power calculation Not reported	Period of study 2001-2010 with baseline characteristics being obtained at the time of initial presentation. Outcome Same outcome measures in 2 groups but data collected from 2001-2010 so may be discrepancies between people being screened at the beginning and the end of the study. Drop out or withdrawals	Effect of differences at baseline Younger age of onset and shorter duration of diabetes in South Asians may have led to under-representation of retinopathy	1.Study carried out in private hospital whereas most of diabetic South Africans use public health system so not generalizable 2.Lack of dilation prior to obtaining images may have led to underreporting of

							None reported	in South Asians with T1DM.	retinopathy
Omar et al ¹⁶	Cross-sectional study	Selection: 0/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Patients with onset of IDDM <35 years at King Edward Hospital in Durban. Diagnosis of IDDM based on the criteria recommended by WHO.	Age at onset (6.5 years) Duration of diabetes (1.6 years)	Type of analysis and power calculation Not reported	Outcome Same outcome measures in 2 groups, however details not given as to when measurements were taken and by whom and if standardised for both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Older age of onset and longer duration of diabetes in South Asians may have led to over-representation of complications in this group.	1.No statistical methods were used to compare the two groups
Asmal et al ¹⁷	Cross-sectional study	Selection: 0/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Clinic patients who fulfilled the following criteria: age of diagnosis of diabetes <35 years, development of symptoms +/- ketosis in the absence of insulin therapy, and duration of diabetes of at least 12 months. Patients with known alcoholic pancreatic diabetes were not included.	Current age (2.9 years) Age of onset (3.8 years)	Type of analysis and power calculation Not reported	Outcome Same outcome measures in 2 groups, however details not given as to when measurements were taken and by whom and if standardised for both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Younger age and age of onset in South Asians may have led to a mis-representation of biochemical data in this group	1.No statistical methods were used to compare the two groups
Ismail et al ¹⁸	Cross Sectional study	Selection: 2/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity Identified by their appearance, language and religion	Inclusion Criteria T1DM defined as acute symptoms associated with heavy ketonuria (>3+) or ketoacidosis at diagnosis, or continuous treatment with insulin within 1 year of diagnosis. All diagnosed < 40 years	Similar baseline characteristics	Type of analysis Documented Power calculation Not reported	Outcome Same outcome measures in 2 groups	Effect of differences at baseline No differences	1.Clinic-based and not a population-based study. Those attending hospital may have more severe diabetes. 2.Conducted in public hospital where majority of patients cannot afford lipid-lowering therapy.
Omar et al ¹⁹	Cross sectional study	Selection: 0/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Onset of diabetes mellitus <35 years. Classification	Duration of diabetes (1.6 years)	Type of analysis Documented	Outcome Same outcome measures in 2 groups	Effect of differences at baseline	1. No outcomes apart from age of onset, duration of

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		lity: 0/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars		of IDDM and NIDDM based on the criteria recommended by the National Diabetes Data Group and WHO Expert Committee on Diabetes Mellitus. IDDM patients had always depended on insulin for control of symptoms and prevention of basal ketosis		Power calculation Not reported		Not relevant as this is a purely descriptive analysis	disease and body weight. Limited information provided by study
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PRISMA 2009 Checklist

Section/topic	#	Checklist item	Reported on page #
TITLE			
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both.	1
ABSTRACT			
Structured summary	2	Provide a structured summary including, as applicable: background; objectives; data sources; study eligibility criteria; participants, and interventions; study appraisal and synthesis methods; results; limitations; conclusions and implications of key findings; systematic review registration number.	1
INTRODUCTION			
Rationale	3	Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known.	3
Objectives	4	Provide an explicit statement of questions being addressed with reference to participants, interventions, comparisons, outcomes, and study design (PICOS).	3
METHODS			
Protocol and registration	5	Indicate if a review protocol exists, if and where it can be accessed (e.g., Web address), and, if available, provide registration information including registration number.	N/A
Eligibility criteria	6	Specify study characteristics (e.g., PICOS, length of follow-up) and report characteristics (e.g., years considered, language, publication status) used as criteria for eligibility, giving rationale.	3
Information sources	7	Describe all information sources (e.g., databases with dates of coverage, contact with study authors to identify additional studies) in the search and date last searched.	3
Search	8	Present full electronic search strategy for at least one database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated.	23-24
Study selection	9	State the process for selecting studies (i.e., screening, eligibility, included in systematic review, and, if applicable, included in the meta-analysis).	3-5
Data collection process	10	Describe method of data extraction from reports (e.g., piloted forms, independently, in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators.	4
Data items	11	List and define all variables for which data were sought (e.g., PICOS, funding sources) and any assumptions and simplifications made.	3-4
Risk of bias in individual studies	12	Describe methods used for assessing risk of bias of individual studies (including specification of whether this was done at the study or outcome level), and how this information is to be used in any data synthesis.	4
Summary measures	13	State the principal summary measures (e.g., risk ratio, difference in means).	4
Synthesis of results	14	Describe the methods of handling data and combining results of studies, if done, including measures of consistency (e.g., I^2) for each meta-analysis.	N/A



PRISMA 2009 Checklist

Section/topic	#	Checklist item	Reported on page #
Risk of bias across studies	15	Specify any assessment of risk of bias that may affect the cumulative evidence (e.g., publication bias, selective reporting within studies).	N/A
Additional analyses	16	Describe methods of additional analyses (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression), if done, indicating which were pre-specified.	N/A
RESULTS			
Study selection	17	Give numbers of studies screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally with a flow diagram.	5
Study characteristics	18	For each study, present characteristics for which data were extracted (e.g., study size, PICOS, follow-up period) and provide the citations.	6-11
Risk of bias within studies	19	Present data on risk of bias of each study and, if available, any outcome level assessment (see item 12).	25-28
Results of individual studies	20	For all outcomes considered (benefits or harms), present, for each study: (a) simple summary data for each intervention group (b) effect estimates and confidence intervals, ideally with a forest plot.	6-11
Synthesis of results	21	Present results of each meta-analysis done, including confidence intervals and measures of consistency.	N/A
Risk of bias across studies	22	Present results of any assessment of risk of bias across studies (see item 15).	25-28
Additional analysis	23	Give results of additional analyses, if done (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression [see item 16]).	N/A
DISCUSSION			
Summary of evidence	24	Summarize the main findings including the strength of evidence for each main outcome; consider their relevance to key groups (e.g., healthcare providers, users, and policy makers).	17
Limitations	25	Discuss limitations at study and outcome level (e.g., risk of bias), and at review-level (e.g., incomplete retrieval of identified research, reporting bias).	17
Conclusions	26	Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence, and implications for future research.	17-18
FUNDING			
Funding	27	Describe sources of funding for the systematic review and other support (e.g., supply of data); role of funders for the systematic review.	N/A

From: Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, The PRISMA Group (2009). Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement. PLoS Med 6(7): e1000097. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed1000097

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BMJ Open

Comorbidities, complications, and mortality in people of South Asian ethnicity with type 1 diabetes compared to other ethnic groups: a systematic review.

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Primary Subject Heading:	Diabetes and endocrinology
Secondary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology
Keywords:	Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus, Ethnicity, South Asian

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Manuscripts

Title Page

Title of Paper: Comorbidities, complications, and mortality in people of South Asian ethnicity with type 1 diabetes compared to other ethnic groups: a systematic review.

Authors: Komil N Sarwar (Foundation Doctor)¹, Phoebe Cliff (Foundation Doctor)¹, Ponnusamy Saravanan (Associate Clinical Professor)², Kamlesh Khunti (Professor of Primary Care Diabetes and Vascular Medicine)³, Krishnarajah Nirantharakumar (Senior Clinical Lecturer)¹, Parth Narendran (Reader in Diabetes Medicine)¹

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Conflicts of Interest: KK (Co-Chair) PS and PN are members of the South Asian Health Foundation Working group on Diabetes.

Keywords: Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus, Ethnicity, South Asian

Word Count: 3993

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3 Comorbidities, complications, and mortality in people of South Asian ethnicity with type 1 diabetes
4 compared to other ethnic groups: a systematic review.
5

6 Komil N Sarwar, Phoebe Cliff, Ponnusamy Saravanan, Kamlesh Khunti, Krishnarajah
7 Nirantharakumar, Parth Narendran
8

9
10 **Abstract**

11 **Objective.** To explore the association of South Asian (SA) ethnicity on comorbidities, microvascular
12 and macrovascular complications, and mortality compared to other ethnic groups in people with
13 Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus (T1DM).
14

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16 **Design.** Systematic Review
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18 **Method.** A systematic literature search strategy was designed and carried out using Medline and
19 Embase for full text and abstract studies published in English from 1946 to February 2016. The initial
20 search identified 4, 722 papers. We assessed 305 full text articles in detail for potential inclusion.
21 Ten papers met the inclusion criteria for review and an additional one paper was included from our
22 secondary search strategy using the bibliography of included studies. In total, 11 studies were
23 included.
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26 **Eligibility criteria for selecting studies.** Studies were included if they were published in English,
27 involved SA participants with T1DM and compared them to non-SA participants, and assessed one of
28 the outcomes of comorbidities, microvascular complications, macrovascular complications, and
29 mortality.
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32 **Results.** SA with T1DM have higher mortality compared to White Europeans (WE), mainly
33 contributed to by excess cardiovascular disease. SA have significantly higher HbA1c, lower HDL and
34 lower rates of neuropathy compared to WE. There were no differences in rates of retinopathy and
35 nephropathy. Compared to Africans, SA had lower levels of microalbuminuria, HbA1c and systolic
36 blood pressure and higher HDL levels. There were no significant differences in the remaining
37 outcomes: cardiovascular disease, retinopathy, neuropathy, and BMI. Furthermore, SA have higher
38 HbA1c levels than Malay and Chinese and higher waist-hip ratio and lower HDL levels compared to
39 Chinese only.
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42 **Conclusion.** Our analysis highlights ethnic disparity in macrovascular outcomes that is so evident for
43 Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus (T2DM) may also be present for SA patients with T1DM. We highlight the
44 need for a large, prospective, cohort study exploring the effect of ethnicity in a uniform healthcare
45 setting.
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Strengths

- The strengths of this analysis are its comprehensive search strategy with clearly defined population and outcomes.
- Our search strategy incorporated both full-length papers as well as abstracts and had a secondary search strategy to ensure we did not miss any relevant papers.
- We compared the SA group, the largest ethnic group globally with all other indigenous ethnic groups.

Weaknesses

- The quality of the studies were poor with the majority of studies being retrospective observational or cross-sectional.
- It was also not possible to undertake a meta-analysis of the combined studies because the results were heterogeneous in nature.
- Furthermore, the methodology of how outcomes were assessed was not consistently reported, and the numbers of SA in each study were small.

Background

The epidemiology of Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus (T1DM) in South Asians (SA) is poorly understood. Its effects on metabolic control, diabetic complication rate, or indeed the underlying pathogenesis has yet to be explored. SA are at higher risk than White Europeans (WE) for the development of obesity and obesity-related diseases including insulin resistance, the metabolic syndrome, Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus (T2DM) and coronary heart disease¹. Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus is 2-3 times more common in SA than in the WE population in the United Kingdom², and up to three times more common among people of African origin³. Furthermore, SA with T2DM develop the condition 5-10 years earlier than WE, have increased prevalence of diabetic complications at presentation, worse outcomes, and die at a younger age^{2,4}. These differences have not been explored in people with T1DM.

Willi et al⁵ suggested that there were ethnic disparities in the outcomes of children with T1DM with black participants having higher mean HbA1c levels, more diabetic ketoacidosis and severe hypoglycaemic events compared to white or Hispanic participants. A recent systematic review⁶ identified 16 studies in the current literature that showed racial/ethnic minority youth with T1DM having higher HbA1c compared to Caucasian youth. As the majority of these studies are conducted in the United States of America, their primary focus was on the black and Hispanic ethnic groups and youth with T1DM.

SA comprise 20% of the global population² and 7% of the UK population⁷. Furthermore, the incidence of T1DM appears to be similar in SA as in the background population⁷. Therefore, there is a need to understand the effect of ethnicity on the progression of the disease. The aim of this systematic review is to explore the association of SA ethnicity on comorbidities, microvascular and macrovascular complications, and mortality compared to other ethnic groups in people with T1DM.

Methods

Terms indicative of T1DM and SA were searched for in MEDLINE (Ovid) and EMBASE using keywords and free text. The search terms included 'Type 1 Diabetes', 'Insulin Dependent Diabetes' and 'South Asian' as well as terms pertaining to ethnicity such as "ethnic or racial group", 'race', 'ethnic or racial aspects' and 'ethnic differences'. We also included search terms pertaining to the individual countries from South Asia as listed below. Further information on the search strategy can be found in Appendix 1. Full length papers and abstracts published in English were included in the search from 1946 to February 2016. The search was not limited to a particular study design or outcome and the papers did not have to be peer-reviewed. A secondary search strategy involved reading bibliographies of the included studies and contacting authors of the included studies and committee members of the South Asian Health Foundation (<http://www.sahf.org.uk>) enquiring about additional studies or on-going research.

The inclusion criteria were based on the Population, Intervention, Comparator and Outcome (PICO) framework. The population was SA with T1DM including both children and adults. A clinical diagnosis was accepted for the definition of T1DM. We defined SA ethnicity as persons originating from the following countries: India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Nepal, Bhutan and the Maldives, and compared their comorbidities, complications and mortality to persons of any other ethnicity not classified as SA. We investigated comorbidities (body mass index, systolic and diastolic blood

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3 pressure, HbA1c and lipid profile); microvascular complications (retinopathy, neuropathy and
4 nephropathy) ; macrovascular complications (ischaemic heart disease and cerebrovascular disease);
5 and cause-specific and all-cause mortality.
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8 Identified titles and abstracts were reviewed independently by two researchers (KS and PC). All
9 studies that were deemed suitable for potential inclusion were then further examined in detail by
10 the two researchers independently to create the final list of included studies. Where there were
11 discrepancies between the two researchers (KS and PC) this was resolved by discussion. Quality
12 assessment and data extraction was performed by KS and then checked by PC to identify any missing
13 information (Appendix 2). The Newcastle-Ottawa Quality Assessment Scale for observational studies
14 was used for quality assessment⁸.
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18 We were not able to perform a meta-analysis because the studies were not comparable by
19 outcomes measured, were of poor quality, and heterogeneous in the way SA ethnicity was defined.
20 The results have been analysed as a narrative and presented as tabulations with textual description
21 by each comorbidity and complication.
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23 **Patient Involvement:** Patients were not involved.
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25 **Results**

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27 The initial search identified 4,722 papers. After removing duplicates (1,194), the remaining 3,528
28 titles and abstracts were screened. After excluding 3,223 papers in this initial screening process, 305
29 full text articles were assessed in detail for potential inclusion into the analysis. Ten papers met the
30 inclusion criteria for review. A secondary search using the bibliographies of included studies yielded
31 an additional 1 paper (Figure 1). A total of 11 studies were therefore included: 6 studies were from
32 the United Kingdom, 4 from South Africa and 1 from Malaysia. Nine of the papers were full length
33 papers and 2 were abstracts. Of the included articles, 1 was a prospective cohort study, 2 were
34 retrospective analysis of observational data and 8 studies were cross-sectional analyses. The results
35 are summarised in Table 1 and Table 2.
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Table 1: Data extraction of studies included in systematic review

Study & year published	Country	Design	Method and Description	Number of Participants & Ethnic Group	Age description	Duration of Study	Key Outcomes				
Papers assessing T1DM comorbidities											
Brabarupan et al ⁹ 2013	UK	Cross-sectional study	<p>Ethnicity Grouped into White European (WE), African and South Asian (SA)</p> <p>T1DM Diagnosis of T1DM and diagnosed <35 years of age</p> <p>Method Data from patients from WE, African or SA ancestry was obtained from an electronic database in a large multi-ethnic London diabetes clinic.</p>	642 individuals in total WE: 564 SA: 39 African: 39	Median age at diagnosis (years) WE: 16.7 African: 19.4 SA: 19.1	N/A	<p>Parameters median (IQR)</p> <p>White European (WE)</p> <p>African</p> <p>South Asian (SA)</p> <p>Significant</p>				
							BMI (kg/m2)	25.0 (22.3-27.7)	25.7 (22.5-28.9)	25.3 (22.2-28.5)	NEEDS p Value
							Systolic BP (mmHg)	130 (119-141)	135 (121-149)	122 (112-133)	P<0.05
							Diastolic BP (mmHg)	75 (69-81)	80 (72-88)	73 (67-79)	P<0.05
							HbA1c (%)	8.0(7.1-8.9)	9.1 (7.6-10.7)	8.3 (7.5-9.2)	P<0.05
							Microalbuminuria (mg/mmol)	1.2 (-0.5-3.0)	3.7 (-44.5-51.9)	1.2 (-1.4-3.8)	P<0.05
							Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	4.50 (3.90-5.10)	4.40 (3.90-4.90)	4.00 (3.2-4.8)	
							HDL (mmol/L)	1.49 (1.21-1.77)	1.25 (0.95-1.56)	1.30 (1.47-1.14)	P<0.05
							Triglyceride (mmol/L)	0.93 (0.59-1.28)	0.99 (0.58)	1.07 (0.76-1.39)	
Sarwar et al ¹⁰ 2015	UK	Cross sectional Study	<p>Ethnicity South Asian and White Caucasian</p> <p>T1DM Coding of T1DM from the clinical database of two centres – no diagnostic criteria included</p> <p>Method Data analysed from two centres in the West Midlands (Queen Elizabeth Hospital [QEH] and New Cross Hospital [NCH])</p>	White Caucasians: 278 South Asian: 139	Median age (years) NCH Caucasian: 34 NCH SA: 33.5	N/A	<p>Characteristic (number of patients)</p> <p>NCH South Asian (80)</p> <p>NCH Caucasian (160)</p> <p>QE South Asian (59)</p> <p>QE Caucasian (118)</p>				
							HbA1c (mmol/mol)	75 (61.5-88.5)	76 (63-91)	66.1 (55.25-81.75)	70.5 (61-83.6)
							Systolic BP (mmHg)	121 (113-132)	125 (115-132)	130 (120.5-141.5)	131.5 (120.3-144)

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					QEH Caucasian: 36		Diastolic BP (mmHg)	-	-	86 (80.5–90)*	82 (77.25-88.75)*
					QEH SA: 36		BMI (kg/m2)	25.6 (22.55-28.4)	25.7 (22.5-30.4)	30.9 (22.8-37)	25 (22.6-28)
							Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	4.7(3.9-5.45)	4.6 (4-5.3)	4.45 (3.8-5.45)	4.1 (3.7-4.95)
							HDL (mmol/L)	1.3 (1.0-1.6)*	1.4 (1.2-1.65)*	-	-
							Cholesterol/ HDL	3.6 (2.9-4.5)*	3.2 (2.7-4.0)*	-	-
							Creatinine level (µmol/L)	75 (66-87)	78 (69-87)	-	-
							eGFR (ml/min/1.73m2)	97.3 (82.2-109.9)	91.2 (79.3-103.9)	-	-
							Albumin/ Creatinine ratio (mg/mmol)	2.4 (0.7-3.6)	2.5 (0.75-3.5)	-	-
							*P value <0.05				
Sheno y et al ¹¹ 2004	UK	Retrospective Observational Study	Ethnicity South Asian and Caucasian T1DM Children coded as T1DM in a centre in Leicestershire – no diagnostic criteria included Method Rates of obesity/overweight in white Caucasian and South Asian groups, and to correlate these with age, duration of diagnosis, daily insulin requirement, and HbA1c. Included children between the ages of 2 and 18 years and who had been diagnosed more than a year ago.	WE: 112 SA: 38	Age Group (n) 2-4 yrs (3) 5-9 yrs (33) 10-15 yrs (90) 16-18 yrs (24)	N/A	Demographic Data No statistically significant difference in the two subgroups in relation to age, duration of diagnosis, daily insulin requirement, and metabolic control (median HbA1c 8.4% v 8.8% respectively for white Caucasian/South Asian). Obesity in children No statistically significant differences noted in the rates of overweight or obesity between white Caucasian and South Asian children at any age grouping.				

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Asmal et al ¹² 1981	South Africa	Cross-sectional analysis	<p>Ethnicity 2 groups: Indians and Black African.</p> <p>T1DM Clinic patients who fulfilled the following criteria: age of diagnosis of diabetes <35 years, development of symptoms +/- ketosis in the absence of insulin therapy, and duration of diabetes of at least 12 months.</p> <p>Method Case records examined, clinical assessments and biochemical tests carried out</p>	Black African: 52 Indian: 38	Mean age at onset (years) Blacks: 21.8 Indian: 18.0	4 weeks	<p>Basic Biochemical Data</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Indians</th> <th>Black African</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Glucose (mmol/l)</td> <td>15.80 ± 1.50</td> <td>14.20 ± 1.50</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Growth hormone (ng/ml)</td> <td>3.00 ± 0.76</td> <td>1.76 ± 0.41</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Cortisol (µg/dl)</td> <td>16.20 ± 1.47</td> <td>15.80 ± 1.40</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Cholesterol (mmol/l)</td> <td>5.17 ± 0.32</td> <td>4.78 ± 0.26</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Triglyceride (mmol/l)</td> <td>2.81 ± 0.97</td> <td>2.27 ± 0.83</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Creatinine (µg/dl)</td> <td>68.90 ± 4.10</td> <td>79.40 ± 6.70</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Complications</p> <p>Chronic complications associated with micro-angiopathy were detected in 12 Indians (33%) and 2 Blacks (4%). Commonest complication was neuropathy found in 19% of Indian diabetics and in 4% of Black diabetics. 2 Indians had evidence of diabetic triopathy.</p>		Indians	Black African	Glucose (mmol/l)	15.80 ± 1.50	14.20 ± 1.50	Growth hormone (ng/ml)	3.00 ± 0.76	1.76 ± 0.41	Cortisol (µg/dl)	16.20 ± 1.47	15.80 ± 1.40	Cholesterol (mmol/l)	5.17 ± 0.32	4.78 ± 0.26	Triglyceride (mmol/l)	2.81 ± 0.97	2.27 ± 0.83	Creatinine (µg/dl)	68.90 ± 4.10	79.40 ± 6.70	
	Indians	Black African																											
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Ismail et al ¹³ 2001	Malaysia	Cross Sectional study	<p>Ethnicity 3 groups: Indian, Malay and Chinese. Each ethnic group identified by appearance, language and religion.</p> <p>T1DM T1DM defined as acute symptoms associated with heavy ketonuria (>3+) or ketoacidosis at diagnosis, or continuous treatment with insulin within 1 year of diagnosis.</p> <p>Method Patients recruited from 7 centres throughout Peninsular Malaysia. Blood taken for lipid levels, clinical history and physical examination performed.</p>	Indian: 154 Malay: 297 Chinese: 128	Mean age (years) All: 28.8 Indian: 29.1 Chinese: 29.8 Malay: 27.7	June 1997- June 1998	<p>Demographic Features</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Malay (n = 297)</th> <th>Chinese(n=128)</th> <th>Indian (n=154)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>BMI (kg/m²)</td> <td>26.8 ± 4.9</td> <td>25.4 ± 4.5</td> <td>25.5 ± 4.3</td> </tr> <tr> <td rowspan="3">Waist-hip ratio</td> <td>A: 0.88 ± 0.06</td> <td>A: 0.88 ± 0.07</td> <td>A: 0.89 ± 0.06</td> </tr> <tr> <td>M: 0.91 ± 0.06</td> <td>M: 0.90 ± 0.06</td> <td>M: 0.93 ± 0.06</td> </tr> <tr> <td>F: 0.86 ± 0.06</td> <td>F: 0.85 ± 0.07</td> <td>F: 0.85 ± 0.06</td> </tr> <tr> <td>HbA1c (%)</td> <td>8.8 (8.6-9.1)</td> <td>8.0 (7.7-8.3)</td> <td>8.5 (8.2-8.8)</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Lipid Profiles (mmol/L, mean +/- SEM)</p> <p>Total Cholesterol : Indians (5.74 +/- 1.25), Chinese (5.64 +/- 1.42), Malay (5.58 +/- 1.38) LDL Cholesterol : Indians (3.89 +/- 1.20), Chinese (3.52 +/- 1.22), Malay (3.48 +/- 1.12) HDL Cholesterol (mean[95% CI]) : Indians (1.28 [1.19-1.38]), Chinese (1.57 [1.48-1.67]), Malay (1.37 [1.28-1.46]) Triglycerides (mean[95% CI]): Indians (1.02 [0.9-1.16]), Chinese (0.82 [0.74-0.91]), Malay (1.11 [0.99-1.23])</p>		Malay (n = 297)	Chinese(n=128)	Indian (n=154)	BMI (kg/m ²)	26.8 ± 4.9	25.4 ± 4.5	25.5 ± 4.3	Waist-hip ratio	A: 0.88 ± 0.06	A: 0.88 ± 0.07	A: 0.89 ± 0.06	M: 0.91 ± 0.06	M: 0.90 ± 0.06	M: 0.93 ± 0.06	F: 0.86 ± 0.06	F: 0.85 ± 0.07	F: 0.85 ± 0.06	HbA1c (%)	8.8 (8.6-9.1)	8.0 (7.7-8.3)	8.5 (8.2-8.8)
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Omar et al ¹⁴ 1984	South Africa	Cross section al analysis	<p>Ethnicity Indians and Africans</p> <p>T1DM Classification of diabetes based on criteria by National Diabetes Data Group and WHO expert committee. T1DM patients had always depended on insulin for control of symptoms and prevention of basal ketosis. All patients diagnosed <35 years of age</p>	African T1DM: 86 Indian T1DM: 40	Mean age of onset (range) African : 23.5 (1-35) yrs Indian:	2 year period	<p>Clinical characteristics of T1DM patients</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Characteristic</th> <th>Africans (n=86)</th> <th>Indians (n=40)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Male: Female</td> <td>21: 25</td> <td>17: 24</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Mean % ideal body weight</td> <td>106 (68-153)</td> <td>91 (71-136)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Mean duration of disease (years)</td> <td>3.8 (1-27)</td> <td>5.4 (1-22)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Mean age of onset</td> <td>23.5 (1-35)</td> <td>17 (1-35)</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Characteristic	Africans (n=86)	Indians (n=40)	Male: Female	21: 25	17: 24	Mean % ideal body weight	106 (68-153)	91 (71-136)	Mean duration of disease (years)	3.8 (1-27)	5.4 (1-22)	Mean age of onset	23.5 (1-35)	17 (1-35)							
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Mean age of onset	23.5 (1-35)	17 (1-35)																											

Papers assessing T1DM complications																																																																																			
Swerdlow et al ¹⁵ 2004	UK	Prospective Cohort Study	<p>Ethnicity Grouped into South Asians and non-South Asians. South Asians identified by computer algorithm (SANGRA) followed by a clerical check by an individual with expertise in this area.</p> <p>T1DM Patients with IDDM diagnosed <30 years</p> <p>Method SMRs calculated, comparing mortality in the cohort to the corresponding mortality rates in the general population</p>	Non South Asian : 23, 326 South Asian: 424	N/A	1972 – 1999	<p>Mortality The Standardised Mortality Ratios (SMR) for South Asian patients diagnosed <30 years were 3.9(95% CI 2.0-6.9) in men and 10.1 (5.6-16.6) in women, and in the corresponding non-South Asians were 2.7 (2.6-2.9) in men and 4.0 (3.6-4.3) in women.</p>																																																																												
Mehta et al ¹⁶ 2011	UK	Cross-sectional study	<p>Ethnicity Ethnicity was categorised as SA or white European (WE) based on patient record documentation or by analysis of their name using a validated name recognition software 'Nam Pechan' supplemented by a visual inspection of surnames and forenames.</p> <p>T1DM Patient coded as having T1DM in the clinical database of a specialist outpatient diabetes clinic in Leicestershire, UK – no diagnostic criteria included</p> <p>Method Patient characteristics and other data were extracted from the clinical workstation (CWS), a clinical database of patients attending a specialist outpatient diabetes clinic in Leicestershire.</p>	WE: 1,169 SA: 163	<p>Mean age (years)</p> <p>WE: 45.3 SA: 41.9</p>	2003-2005	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>South Asian (n = 163)</th> <th>White European (n = 1169)</th> <th>p Value</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td colspan="4">Number of comorbidities (n (%))</td> </tr> <tr> <td>0</td> <td>114 (69.9)</td> <td>878 (75.1)</td> <td>0.166</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>36 (22.1)</td> <td>235 (20.1)</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>≥2</td> <td>13 (8.0)</td> <td>56 (4.8)</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="4">Macrovascular (n (%))</td> </tr> <tr> <td>CVD</td> <td>25 (15.3)</td> <td>132 (11.3)</td> <td>0.133</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ischaemic heart disease</td> <td>20 (12.3)</td> <td>97 (8.3)</td> <td>0.093</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Peripheral vascular disease</td> <td>3 (1.8)</td> <td>31 (2.7)</td> <td>0.790</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Cerebrovascular disease</td> <td>6 (3.7)</td> <td>21 (1.8)</td> <td>0.130</td> </tr> <tr> <td>TIA</td> <td>0</td> <td>2 (0.2)</td> <td>1.000</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="4">Microvascular (n (%))</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Retinopathy</td> <td>63 (38.7)</td> <td>561 (48.0)</td> <td>0.025</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Neuropathy</td> <td>24 (14.7)</td> <td>325 (27.8)</td> <td><0.001</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Nephropathy</td> <td>22 (13.5)</td> <td>118 (10.1)</td> <td>0.184</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="4">Glycaemic control (n (%))</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>(n = 163)</td> <td>(n = 1169)</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>HbA1C < 7%</td> <td>19 (12.0)</td> <td>193 (17.0)</td> <td>0.113</td> </tr> <tr> <td>HbA1C ≥7%</td> <td>144 (88.0)</td> <td>976 (83.0)</td> <td></td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		South Asian (n = 163)	White European (n = 1169)	p Value	Number of comorbidities (n (%))				0	114 (69.9)	878 (75.1)	0.166	1	36 (22.1)	235 (20.1)		≥2	13 (8.0)	56 (4.8)		Macrovascular (n (%))				CVD	25 (15.3)	132 (11.3)	0.133	Ischaemic heart disease	20 (12.3)	97 (8.3)	0.093	Peripheral vascular disease	3 (1.8)	31 (2.7)	0.790	Cerebrovascular disease	6 (3.7)	21 (1.8)	0.130	TIA	0	2 (0.2)	1.000	Microvascular (n (%))				Retinopathy	63 (38.7)	561 (48.0)	0.025	Neuropathy	24 (14.7)	325 (27.8)	<0.001	Nephropathy	22 (13.5)	118 (10.1)	0.184	Glycaemic control (n (%))					(n = 163)	(n = 1169)		HbA1C < 7%	19 (12.0)	193 (17.0)	0.113	HbA1C ≥7%	144 (88.0)	976 (83.0)	
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et al ¹⁷ 2012		al study	standard (Census 2001): categorised as 'White European', 'African', 'South Asian', 'Mixed', 'other ethnic group' and 'not known'. T1DM Patients coded as T1DM in the database of the local DR screening service – no diagnostic criteria included Method To assess ethnic variations of the prevalence of DR and visual impairment in two multi-racial cohorts in the UK (Yorkshire and South East London)	African: 344 SA: 120	T1DM popula tion: 39.4 yrs		<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Ethnic group</td> <td>Prevalence: N (%)</td> <td>Age-standardised prevalence: % (95% CI)</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="3">Any diabetic retinopathy</td> </tr> <tr> <td>White Europeans</td> <td>1446 (55.0)</td> <td>55.0 (53.2, 56.9)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>African</td> <td>154 (44.8)</td> <td>42.8 (37.3, 48.3)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>South Asian</td> <td>64 (53.3)</td> <td>54.0 (44.8, 63.2)</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="3">Any maculopathy (M1)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>White Europeans</td> <td>371 (14.1)</td> <td>14.1 (12..8, 15.4)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>African</td> <td>47 (13.7)</td> <td>13.1 (9.4, 16.8)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>South Asian</td> <td>17 (14.2)</td> <td>16.6 (10.0, 23,2)</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="3">CSMO (M1P1)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>White Europeans</td> <td>171 (6.5)</td> <td>6.5 (5.6, 7.4)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>African</td> <td>35 (10.20)</td> <td>10.0 (6.7, 13.3)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>South Asian</td> <td>12 (10.0)</td> <td>11.2 (5.4, 16.9)</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="3">STDR (R2 or R3 or M1P1)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>White Europeans</td> <td>318 (12.1)</td> <td>12.1 (10.9, 13.3)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>African</td> <td>53 (15.4)</td> <td>15.9 (11.8, 20.0)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>South Asian</td> <td>19 (15.8)</td> <td>17.5 (10.6, 24.3)</td> </tr> </table> <p>CSMO- clinically significant macular oedema; M1- maculopathy P1- macular laser; STDR- sight threatening diabetic retinopathy; R1- mild to moderate non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy; R2- pre-proliferative diabetic retinopathy; R3- Proliferative diabetic retinopathy</p>	Ethnic group	Prevalence: N (%)	Age-standardised prevalence: % (95% CI)	Any diabetic retinopathy			White Europeans	1446 (55.0)	55.0 (53.2, 56.9)	African	154 (44.8)	42.8 (37.3, 48.3)	South Asian	64 (53.3)	54.0 (44.8, 63.2)	Any maculopathy (M1)			White Europeans	371 (14.1)	14.1 (12..8, 15.4)	African	47 (13.7)	13.1 (9.4, 16.8)	South Asian	17 (14.2)	16.6 (10.0, 23,2)	CSMO (M1P1)			White Europeans	171 (6.5)	6.5 (5.6, 7.4)	African	35 (10.20)	10.0 (6.7, 13.3)	South Asian	12 (10.0)	11.2 (5.4, 16.9)	STDR (R2 or R3 or M1P1)			White Europeans	318 (12.1)	12.1 (10.9, 13.3)	African	53 (15.4)	15.9 (11.8, 20.0)	South Asian	19 (15.8)	17.5 (10.6, 24.3)
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Thoma s et al ¹⁸ 2012	Sout h Afric a	Retros pective observ ational study	Ethnicity Caucasian, Indigenous African, Asian and mixed race. T1DM Classified as having T1DM on clinical assessment according to the American Diabetes Association classification of diabetes	Caucasia n: 1247 Indigeno us African: 117 Asian:	Mean age (yrs) Caucasi an: 35.7 Indigen ous African	2001- 2010	<table border="0"> <tr> <td colspan="5">Diabetic Retinopathy (DR)</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td colspan="2">Any DR (n=541)</td> <td colspan="2">RDR (n=142)</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>Crude OR (95% CI)</td> <td>Adjusted OR (95% CI)</td> <td>Crude OR (95% CI)</td> <td>Adjusted OR (95% CI)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Caucasian (1,247)</td> <td>1.00</td> <td>1.00</td> <td>1.00</td> <td>1.00</td> </tr> </table>	Diabetic Retinopathy (DR)						Any DR (n=541)		RDR (n=142)			Crude OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR (95% CI)	Crude OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR (95% CI)	Caucasian (1,247)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00																															
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			Method Retinal photography was conducted using a non-mydratic digital camera without mydriasis and graded by one of three senior graders.	118 Mixed race: 49	: 36.3 Asian: 32.2 Mixed race: 32.6		Indigenous African (117)	0.71 (0.46-1.09)	1.72 (1.00-2.97)	0.95 (0.49-1.84)	3.40 (1.40-8.26)
							Asian (118)	1.10 (0.74-1.63)	2.02 (1.23-3.29)	1.05 (0.54-2.04)	2.07 (0.90-4.75)
							Mixed race (49)	1.01 (0.56-1.84)	1.29 (0.62-2.69)	1.10(0.42-2.88)	1.06 (0.36-3.18)
Omar et al ¹⁹ 1984	South Africa	Cross-sectional analysis	Ethnicity 2 groups: Indians and Black African. T1DM Patients with onset of IDDM <35 years at King Edward Hospital in Durban. Diagnosis of IDDM based on the criteria recommended by WHO. Method Both case records obtained and a physical examination performed to assess complications.	Black African: 92 Indians: 41	Mean age at onset (yrs) Blacks: 17 Indians : 23.5	Not mentioned	Complications	Black African	Indians	Total	
							Keto-acidosis	53 (58%)	22 (54%)	75 (56%)	
							Neuropathy peripheral autonomic	20 (22%)	13 (32%)	33 (25%)	
							Retinopathy	4 (4%)	2 (5%)	6 (5%)	
							Nephropathy	13 (14%)	9 (22%)	22 (17%)	
							Triopathy	3 (3%)	3 (7%)	6 (5%)	
							Ischaemic heart disease	1 (1%)	2 (5%)	3 (2%)	
							Hypertension	-	-	-	
							Cataracts	4 (4%)	2 (5%)	6 (5%)	
							Tuberculosis	5 (5%)	2 (5%)	7 (5%)	
								6 (7%)	1 (2%)	7 (5%)	

Table 2: Summary of Findings

	Findings in the SA population when compared to the specified ethnicity (e.g. SA have the same BMI as WE, but higher HbA1c)		
	WE	African	Chinese
BMI	→	→	
HbA1c	↑	↓	↑
SBP	↓	↓	
DBP	→	→	
HDL	↓	↑	↓
Total Chol	→	→	→
Retinopathy	→	→	→
Nephropathy	→	↓	
Neuropathy	↓	→	
CVD	→	→	
Mortality	↑		

Results

Comorbidities

Body Mass Index (BMI)

Six studies explored BMI and general weight measurements as an outcome: three comparing SA with WE only, one comparing with WE and Africans, one comparing with Africans only, and one comparing to Malay and Chinese. The three papers comparing SA to only WE demonstrated no statistically significant difference in BMI^{10, 11, 16}. Mehta et al¹⁶ in the UK showed a mean BMI (kg/m²) of 27.5 in SA (n=163) compared with 27.4 in WE (n=1169) (p=0.835). Similarities in BMI (kg/m²) between SA and WE have previously been reported in two different centres (median BMI 25.6 vs. 25.7 respectively and 30.9 vs. 25 respectively)¹⁰. The results were not significant due to the small number of participants. Shenoy et al¹¹ also in the UK showed no statistically significant differences in the rates of overweight or obesity between WE (n=112) and SA (n=38) children with T1DM at any age grouping.

Brabarupan et al⁹ in the UK showed no statistically significant difference in BMI (kg/m²) in SA (n=39) compared to WE (n=565) and Africans (n=38) (median 25.3 vs. 25.0 vs. 25.7 respectively). Omar et al¹⁴ in South Africa also showed no difference between SA (n=40) and Africans (n=86) in mean % ideal body weight (91 vs. 106 respectively).

Lastly, a study by Ismail et al¹³ in Malaysia showed that there was no difference in BMI (kg/m²) when comparing SA to Malay and Chinese (mean 22.0 vs. 22.3 vs. 22.0 respectively). However, there were significant differences in waist-hip ratio between the ethnic group males with SA having significantly higher waist-hip ratio compared with Chinese (mean 0.88 vs. 0.84 respectively, p=0.007).

In summary, there are no demonstrable differences in BMI between SA, WE and African ethnic groups with T1DM. However, SA males compared to Chinese males with T1DM had a higher waist-hip ratio.

Glycaemic control

Seven studies explored glycaemic control as an outcome: three comparing SA with WE only, two comparing with WE and Africans, one comparing to Africans only and one comparing with Malay and Chinese. Mehta et al¹⁶ in the UK, demonstrated higher HbA1c (%) levels in SA (n=163) (mean 9.1%) compared with WE (n=1169) (mean 8.5%) (p<0.001). This is similar to the results from Brabarupan et al⁹ in the UK who demonstrate SA (n=39) having higher HbA1c (%) levels (median 8.3) compared to WE (n=565) (median 8.0) but lower than African (n=38) (median 9.1) (p<0.05). Another UK study analysed SA and WE at two different hospitals¹⁰ and demonstrated similar HbA1c (%) (median 9.0 vs. 9.1 respectively and 8.2 vs. 8.6 respectively at the two different hospitals). Shenoy et al in¹¹ the UK found no significant difference in metabolic control between WE (n=112) and SA (n=38) children (median HbA1c 8.4% v 8.8% respectively). Thomas et al¹⁸ in South Africa also found no statistically significant differences between SA (n=118), WE (n=1247) and Africans (n=117) in HbA1c (%) levels (8.7 vs. 8.2 vs. 9.5 respectively). A study by Asmal et al¹² in South Africa showed that SA (n=38) had similar mean glucose concentrations (mmol/l) to Africans (n=52) (15.80 vs. 14.20 respectively).

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3 Ismail et al¹³ in Malaysia showed that SA (n=76) have significantly higher HbA1c (%) levels compared
4 to Chinese (n=91) and Malay (n=102) (mean 9.3 vs. 7.8 vs. 9.0 respectively, p<0.001).

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6 In summary, studies suggest SA have higher HbA1c levels compared to WE, Malay and Chinese but
7 lower than Africans.
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9 **Blood Pressure**

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11 Four studies determined blood pressure/hypertension as an outcome: two comparing SA with WE
12 only, one comparing with WE and Africans and one comparing to Africans only. The three papers
13 with a WE group all showed that SA have lower blood pressure than the comparator groups. Mehta
14 et al¹⁶ in the UK, showed a significantly lower systolic blood pressure in SA (n=163) compared with
15 WE (n=1169) (mean value 136.4 vs. 141.6 mmHg respectively; p=0.004). However, there was no
16 difference in diastolic blood pressure between SA (mean 75.4 vs. 75.4 mmHg respectively; p=0.41).
17 Brabarupan et al⁹ in the UK also showed that SA (n=39) compared with WE (n=565) and Africans
18 (n=38) had a lower systolic blood pressure (median 120 vs. 130 vs. 135 mmHg respectively; p<0.05)
19 and a lower diastolic blood pressure (median 73 vs. 75 vs. 80 mmHg respectively, p<0.05). We have
20 previously noted that there was no significant difference in systolic blood pressure (mmHg) between
21 SA and WE (median 121 vs. 125 respectively and 130 vs. 131.5 respectively in two different centres)
22 in a UK population¹⁰. However, we reported that SA (n=59) had a higher diastolic blood pressure
23 (mmHg) than WE (n=118) (median 86 vs. 82 respectively, p<0.05)¹⁰. Lastly, Omar et al¹⁹ in South
24 Africa showed absence of difference between SA (n=41) and Africans (n=92) in the prevalence of
25 hypertension (5% vs. 4% respectively). The analyses in these studies were not adjusted.
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31 In summary, studies suggest SA have lower systolic blood pressure compared with WE and Africans,
32 but there is no difference in the diastolic blood pressure across these three ethnic groups.
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34 **Lipid Profile**

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36 Five studies examined differences in lipid profiles: two comparing SA to WE only, one comparing to
37 WE and Africans, one comparing to Africans only and one comparing to Malay and Chinese. A UK
38 study has previously shown that SA (n=80) have lower levels of HDL (mmol/L) (median 1.3 vs. 1.4
39 respectively, p<0.05) and higher cholesterol/HDL ratio (median 3.6 vs. 3.2 respectively, p<0.05) than
40 WE (n=160)¹⁰. There were no statistically significant differences in the levels of total cholesterol
41 (mmol/L) in SA compared to WE (median 4.7 vs. 4.6 respectively and 4.45 vs. 4.1 respectively).
42 Another UK study⁹ also showed that SA (n=39) had lower levels of HDL (mmol/L) compared with WE
43 (n=565) but higher levels than Africans (n=38)(median 1.30 vs. 1.49 vs. 1.25 respectively, p<0.05).
44 They also demonstrate absence of difference in total cholesterol levels ((mmol/L) between SA, WE
45 and Africans (median 4.00 vs. 4.50 vs. 4.40 respectively) and triglyceride levels (mmol/L) (median
46 1.07 vs. 0.93 vs. 0.99 respectively). Mehta et al¹⁶ in the UK also show similar levels of total
47 cholesterol (mmol/L) in SA (n=163) (mean value 4.6) compared to WE (n=1169) (mean value 4.8)
48 (p=0.132).
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53 Ismail et al¹³ in Malaysia demonstrate that SA (n=76) compared with Malay (n=102) and Chinese (91)
54 had no statistically significant differences in total cholesterol (mmol/L) levels (mean 5.74 vs. 5.58 vs.
55 5.64 respectively) and LDL cholesterol (mmol/L) levels (mean 3.89 vs. 3.48 vs. 3.52 respectively). SA
56 had significantly lower HDL cholesterol (mmol/L) compared with Chinese (mean 1.28 vs. 1.57
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3 respectively, $p < 0.01$) and significantly higher triglyceride levels (mmol/L) (mean 1.02 vs. 0.82
4 respectively, $p < 0.03$). Lastly, Asmal et al¹² in South Africa found that SA (n=38) compared to Africans
5 (n=52) had no statistically significant differences in cholesterol levels (mmol/L) (mean 5.17 vs. 4.78
6 respectively) and triglyceride levels (mmol/L) (2.81 vs. 2.27 respectively).
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9 In summary, SA have lower HDL levels compared to WE and Chinese but higher than Africans. SA
10 have higher triglyceride levels compared with Chinese. There are no differences in total cholesterol
11 between SA and WE, African, Malay, or Chinese ethnic groups.
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13 **Microvascular Disease**

14 ***Retinopathy***

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17 Four studies examined retinopathy; one comparing SA with WE only, two comparing to WE and
18 Africans, and one comparing to Africans only. The most relevant study by Sivaprasad et al¹⁷
19 investigated retinopathy in T1DM in the UK cohort consisting of 2,626 WE, 344 Africans and 120 SA.
20 The mean age in this study was 39.4 +/- 16.3 years. The study found no statistically significant
21 differences between SA, WE and Africans with T1DM in the age-standardised prevalence of
22 maculopathy [95% confidence interval] (16.6% [10 – 23.2] vs. 14.1% [12.8-15.4] vs. 13.1% [9.4-16.8]
23 respectively), clinically significant macular oedema (11.2% [5.4-16.9] vs. 6.5% [5.6-7.4] vs. 10.0%
24 [6.7-13.3] respectively), sight threatening diabetic retinopathy (17.5% [10.6-24.3] vs. 12.1% [10.9-
25 13.3] vs. 15.9% [11.8-20.0] respectively) and any diabetic retinopathy (54.0% [44.8-63.2] vs. 55.0%
26 [53.2-56.9] vs. 42.8% [37.3-48.3] respectively).
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31 Thomas et al¹⁸, in South Africa, reported that SA (n=118) were at increased risk of any diabetic
32 retinopathy (Odds ratio 2.02 95% CI 1.23-3.29) when compared with WE (n=1,247), after adjustment
33 for age at diagnosis, sex, duration of diabetes, HbA1c, hypertension, and smoking status. Mehta et
34 al¹⁶ in the UK showed that SA (n=163) compared to WE (n=1,169) had decreased prevalence of
35 retinopathy (38.7% vs. 48.0% respectively, $p = 0.025$). Lastly, Omar et al¹⁹, a South African study,
36 compared SA (n=41) to Africans (n=92) and were unable to demonstrate a statistically significant
37 difference in the prevalence of retinopathy (22% vs. 14% respectively).
38
39

40 In summary, there is no difference in the prevalence of retinopathy between SA, WE and African
41 ethnic groups.
42

43 ***Nephropathy***

44
45 Five studies explored nephropathy and renal function as an outcome in SA with T1DM: two papers
46 comparing to WE only, one comparing to WE and Africans, and two papers comparing to Africans
47 only. The largest study, by Mehta et al¹⁶ in the UK, did not show any differences between SA (n=163)
48 and WE (n=1,169) in the prevalence of nephropathy (13.5% vs. 10.1% respectively, $p = 0.184$).
49
50

51 In another UK study, no statistically significant differences were found between SA (n=80) and WE
52 (n=160) in creatinine levels ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) (median 76 vs. 78 respectively), albumin/creatinine ratio
53 (mg/mmol) (median 2.4 vs. 2.5 respectively) and eGFR (ml/min/1.73^2) (median 97.3 vs. 91.2
54 respectively)¹⁰. Brabarupan et al⁹ in the UK showed no difference in the prevalence of
55 microalbuminuria (mg/mmol) between SA (n=39) and WE (n=565) (median 1.2 vs. 1.2 respectively),
56 however, Africans (n=38) had significantly higher levels (median 3.7) ($p < 0.05$). There were two
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3 studies in South Africa comparing SA to Africans. The first by Omar et al¹⁹ showed in their cohort of
4 SA (n=41) and Africans (n=92) there was absence of difference in the prevalence of nephropathy (7%
5 vs. 3% respectively). Asmal et al¹² also showed no statistically relevant difference between SA (n=38)
6 and Africans (n=52) in creatinine levels ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) (mean 68.90 vs. 79.40 respectively).
7

8
9 In summary, there is no difference in the prevalence of nephropathy or difference in renal function
10 between SA and WE. However, in one study SA had lower levels of microalbuminuria compared to
11 Africans.
12

13 **Neuropathy**

14
15 Three studies included neuropathy as an outcome in SA: one comparing to WE only and two
16 comparing to Africans only. The most relevant study, Mehta et al¹⁶ in the UK, showed that SA
17 (n=163) compared to WE (n=1,169) have a lower prevalence of neuropathy (14.7% vs. 27.8%
18 respectively, $p<0.001$). Omar et al¹⁹ compared SA (n=41) to Africans (n=92) in South Africa
19 demonstrating no statistically significant differences in the prevalence of peripheral neuropathy
20 (32% vs. 22% respectively) and autonomic neuropathy (5% vs. 4% respectively). Asmal et al¹² in
21 South Africa showed increased prevalence of neuropathy in SA (n=38) compared to Africans (n=52)
22 (19% vs. 4% respectively), however no statistical tests were performed.
23
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25
26 In summary, SA have lower prevalence of neuropathy than WE. There is no difference noted in the
27 prevalence of neuropathy between SA and Africans.
28

29 **Macrovascular Disease**

30
31 Two studies reported cardiovascular outcomes: one comparing to WE only and the other comparing
32 to Africans only. The largest of these studies, by Mehta et al¹⁶ in the UK, did not show evidence of
33 difference between SA (n=163) and WE (n=1,169) with T1DM in prevalence of cardiovascular disease
34 (15.3% vs. 11.3% respectively, $p=0.133$). Sub-analysis also did not reveal a difference between SA
35 and WE in ischaemic heart disease (12.3% vs. 8.3% respectively, $p=0.093$), peripheral vascular
36 disease (1.8% vs. 2.7% respectively, $p=0.79$) and cerebrovascular disease (3.7% vs. 1.8% respectively,
37 $p=0.13$). It is important to note that the mean age in the T1DM group was lower (mean age of SA
38 41.9 years and WE 45.3 years) compared to T2DM (mean age 59.2 years SA and 66.2 years WE)
39 which may have led to an under-representation of cardiovascular outcomes in the T1DM group.
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43 A second study compared peripheral arterial disease between SA and Africans in South Africa. Omar
44 et al¹⁹ showed that none of their participants in either the SA (n=41) or African group (n=92) had
45 peripheral vascular disease or ischaemic heart disease. This may also be due to their younger cohort
46 of patients and small sample size.
47
48

49 In summary, the prevalence of cardiovascular disease between the SA, WE and African populations
50 do not differ.
51

52 **Mortality**

53
54 Only one study examined the association of SA ethnicity on mortality in people with T1DM.
55 Swerdlow et al¹⁵ in a UK study investigated mortality of SA patients compared to the non-SA
56 population, approximately 97% of which were Caucasian. The patients were followed for up to 28
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3 years. In their cohort of 424 SA patients there were 27 deaths (6.4%) and in 23,326 non-SA there
4 were 1,293 deaths (5.5%). Mortality in SA and non-SA with T1DM was calculated independently by
5 comparing with the general population mortality using Standardized Mortality Ratios (SMR).
6 Compared to the reference population, the SMR for SA patients were 3.9 (95% CI 2.0-6.9) in men
7 and 10.1 (6.6-16.6) in women. The SMR for the corresponding non-SA were 2.7 (2.6-2.9) in men and
8 4.0 (3.6-4.3) in women. No details are provided as to the age of death in these patients. The most
9 common cause of death in SA patients was cardiovascular disease (29.6%) and renal disease (14.8%).
10 The 'other' causes of death accounted for 8 deaths (29.6%) and included septicaemia, systemic lupus
11 erythematosus, bronchopneumonia, unspecified urinary tract infection and congenital
12 malformation. The most common causes of death in non- SA were cardiovascular disease (n=474,
13 36.7%) and diabetes and hypoglycaemia (n=239, 18.5%). There was 1 death due to neoplasm in SA
14 (3.7%) and 89 in non-SA (6.9%).
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18 In summary, mortality is higher in SA with T1DM than non-SA when compared to the reference
19 population in the UK. SA females were in particular affected, with a SMR that was over twice that of
20 the non-SA female T1DM population. The commonest cause of death was cardiovascular disease.
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Discussion

This is the first systematic review to examine the differences in comorbidities, microvascular complications, macrovascular complications and mortality between SA and other ethnic groups with T1DM. In summary (see Table 2), mortality is higher in SA with T1DM when compared to a largely WE reference population. Female SA were in particular affected, with a SMR that was over twice that of the non-SA female T1DM population. The commonest cause of death is cardiovascular disease.

Overall, the studies suggest that cardiovascular disease itself is no more common in SA T1DM compared to WE. The study by Mehta et al¹⁶ that examined cardiovascular disease most clearly, studied a population with a mean age in their early 40s, and is likely to be too young for cardiovascular disease to manifest clinically. Whilst they observed a 50% higher risk of ischaemic heart disease (12.3 vs. 8.3%) and twice the risk of cerebrovascular disease (1.8 vs 3.7%) in SA compared to WE, the study had less than 30% power to detect a statistically significant difference. Some risk factors for cardiovascular disease appear greater in SA, with lower HDL than WE and the Chinese, and higher HbA1c. However, the most powerful risk factor for cardiovascular disease of systolic BP is lower than in WE.

Most studies also suggest SA have higher HbA1c levels than WE²⁰, Malay and Chinese but lower than African ethnic groups. Despite this, rates of retinal and nephropathic microvascular disease were the same as the WE population and some (neuropathy) even lower. There is an issue around competing risk however, as SA with T1DM may die at a younger age before developing retinopathy.

Compared to Africans, SA had lower levels of microalbuminuria, lower HbA1c, lower systolic blood pressure and higher HDL levels. There were no statistically significant differences between these two ethnic groups in the remaining complications: cardiovascular disease, retinopathy, and neuropathy. There was also no difference in BMI.

Weaknesses

There are several weaknesses with the analysis. The quality of the studies was poor with most studies being retrospective observational or cross-sectional. It was not possible to undertake a meta-analysis of the combined studies because the results were heterogeneous in nature.

The studies included in the analysis are derived from a large range of years (1981 until 2015), a time period during which diabetes treatment and prevention of complications has changed dramatically. Ideally, the analysis should specifically consider studies which compared the different ethnic groups during the same period of observation with similar standards of therapy to eliminate bias.

Furthermore, we accepted a clinical diagnosis for T1DM in the included studies. Some studies simply relied on coding of T1DM in their clinical systems as inclusion criteria with other studies accepting a younger age of diagnosis (<30/35 years of age) and insulin dependency as their inclusion criteria. As we did not have a standardised criterion for the diagnosis of T1DM for the included studies, it may well be that some patients with juvenile-onset T2DM requiring insulin treatment may have been wrongly coded as having T1DM.

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3 Moreover, the papers in our review did not include data on medication use which makes it unclear
4 whether differences in blood pressure, hbA1c and lipid profiles were primarily due to ethnicity or
5 because of differences in medication use.
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8 Lastly, data from patients with SA ethnicity living in the UK and abroad were pooled. Prevalence of
9 T2DM is higher in migrant SA compared to native SA thought to be secondary to urbanisation and
10 lifestyle²¹. It is likely that prevalence and complication rates of T1DM would also be different in
11 migrant and native SA and therefore grouping them together may cause inaccuracy of reporting of
12 the results.
13

14 **Strengths**

15
16 The strengths of this analysis are its comprehensive search strategy with clearly defined population
17 and outcomes. Our search strategy incorporated both full-length papers as well as abstracts,
18 included all languages and had a secondary search strategy to ensure we did not miss any relevant
19 papers. We compared the SA group, the largest ethnic group globally with all other indigenous
20 ethnic groups.
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22

23 **Implications**

24
25 Our analysis highlights two areas. Firstly, the ethnic disparity in mortality that has previously been
26 described in T2DM²² is also present for SA patients with T1DM. This disparity is most likely due to
27 cardiovascular disease but this association remains to be proven. Given the close association
28 between glycaemic control with cardiovascular disease and excess mortality in T1D²³, and the higher
29 HbA1c in the SA population, the findings of this systematic review call for more aggressive glycaemic
30 control in the SA T1D population. Previous literature has demonstrated how SA have increased
31 adiposity in comparison to WE and have advocated lower cut-offs for BMI in SA; BMI > 23 overweight
32 and BMI > 25 obese^{1, 24}. These culturally tailored programmes that have been attempted for T2DM
33 may also be required for T1DM²⁵.
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38 In addition, we may require more stringent control of other comorbidities such as hyperlipidaemia
39 and hypertension²⁶, though this needs to be formally addressed. Secondly, we highlight a need for a
40 large, ideally prospective, multinational study exploring the effect of ethnicity in a uniform
41 healthcare setting. This will enable consistent methodology, and standardised reporting of
42 comorbidities and complications such as those mentioned previously, but also complications such as
43 peripheral vascular disease, depression and bone fractures that have not previously been addressed.
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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Flowchart demonstrating Study Selection

Competing interests: All authors have completed the ICMJE uniform disclosure form at www.icmje.org/coi_disclosure.pdf and declare: no support from any organisation for the submitted work; no financial relationships with any organisations that might have an interest in the submitted work in the previous three years; KK (Co-Chair) PS and PN are members of the South Asian Health Foundation Working group on Diabetes.

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The lead author (the manuscript's guarantor) affirms that the manuscript is an honest, accurate, and transparent account of the study being reported; that no important aspects of the study have been omitted; and that any discrepancies from the study as planned have been explained.

Data sharing: no additional data available.

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Contributorship Statement

Dr Komil N Sarwar: involvement in the design of the work, data collection, data analysis, writing the paper, drafting and revision of the paper

Dr Phoebe Cliff: involvement in the design of the work, data collection, data analysis, helped with

1
2
3 drafting and revision of the paper
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5 Dr Ponnusamy Saravanan: involvement in the design of the work, reviewed all drafts of the paper,
6 helped with revision of the paper
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8 Professor Kamlesh Khunti - involvement in the design of the work, reviewed all drafts of the paper,
9 helped with revision of the paper
10

11 Dr Krishnarajah Nirantharakumar - responsible for the conception and design of the work, reviewed
12 all drafts of the paper, helped with revision of the paper
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14 Dr Parth Narendran - responsible for the conception and design of the work, reviewed all drafts of
15 the paper, helped with revision of the paper
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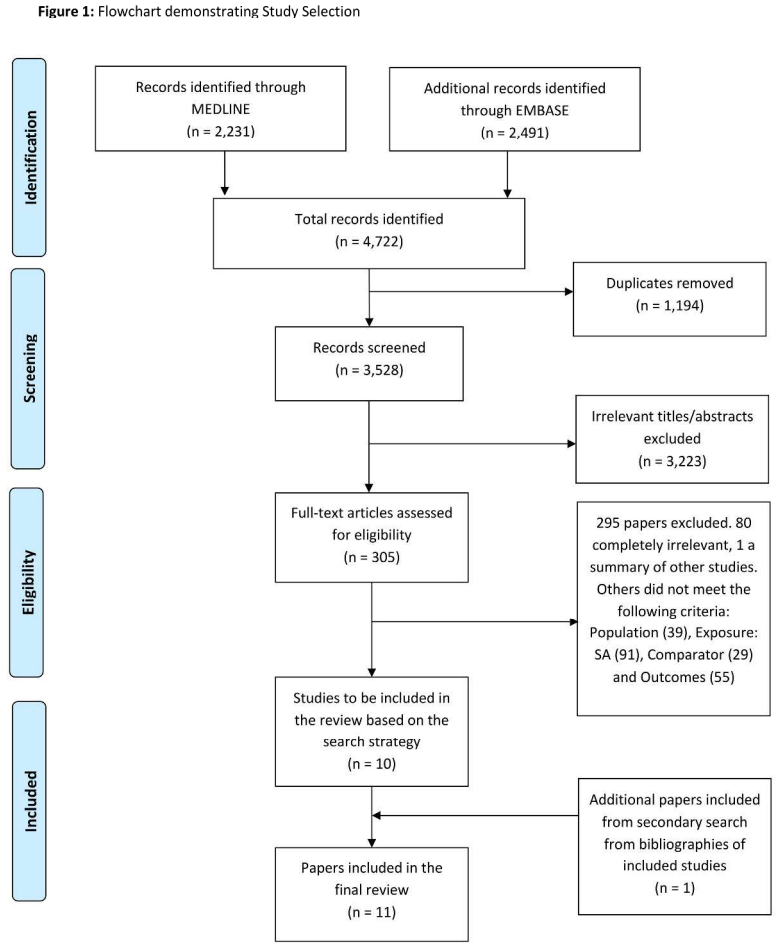


Figure 1: Flowchart demonstrating Study Selection

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Appendix 1: Search Strategy

Embase

1	type 1 diabetes.mp. or exp insulin dependent diabetes/	95641
2	ethnicity.mp. or exp ethnic group/ or exp race/ or exp ethnicity/ or exp "ethnic or racial aspects"/	288124
3	exp ethnic difference/	27336
4	exp South Asian/	27829
5	Sri Lanka.mp. or exp Sri Lanka	7081
6	Bangladesh.mp. or exp Bangladesh	13584
7	India.mp. or exp India	156225
8	Pakistan.mp. or exp Pakistan	22629
9	Nepal.mp. or exp Nepal	8792
10	Bhutan.mp. or exp Bhutan	507
11	maldives.mp. or exp Maldives	268
12	3 or 4 or 5 or 6 or 7 or 8 or 9 or 10 or 11 or 12	499040
13	1 and 12	2491

Medline

1	exp Diabetes mellitus, Type 1/ or type 1 diabetes.mp.	72398
2	insulin dependent diabetes.mp.	19957
3	exp ethnic groups/ or ethnicity.mp	158001
4	ethnic differences.mp.	6985
5	ethnic aspects.mp.	30
6	racial differences.mp.	5002
7	race.mp.	77099
8	racial groups.mp.	2853
9	racial aspects.mp.	34
10	South Asian*.mp.	3740
11	exp sri lanka/ or sri lanka*.mp	6443
12	exp bangladesh/ or bangladesh*.mp	11009
13	exp india/ or india*.mp.	164014
14	exp pakistan/ or pakistan*.mp.	17599
15	exp nepal/ or nepal*.mp.	7799
16	exp bhutan/ or bhutan*.mp.	468
17	maldives.mp.	195
18	1 or 2	82700
19	3 or 4 or 5 or 6 or 7 or 8 or 9 or 10 or 11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 15 or 16 or 17	405983
20	18 and 19	2231

Appendix 2: Quality Assessment

Study	Design	Grading of study design	Intervention	Recruitment of study participants	Differences at baseline	Analytical method	Follow up and measurement bias	Assessment of confounders	Additional notes
Brarupan et al ⁹	Cross-sectional retrospective study	Selection: 1/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Subjects with T1DM diagnosed below 35 years of age from a London diabetes clinic. From white European, Afro-Caribbean or South Asian ancestry.	Not applicable	Type of analysis and power calculation Not reported	Outcome Same outcome measures in both groups. No methodology given so unclear if bias in the way outcomes measured in both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Groups not matched for age and gender.	1. Abstract only so full methodology and results not available 2. Groups not matched for age and gender
Sarwar et al ¹⁰	Retrospective case-controlled study	Selection: 0/5 stars Comparability: 2/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Patients with T1DM in 2 centres in the West Midlands	Patients matched for age and gender	Type of analysis and power calculation Not reported	Outcome Same outcome measures in both groups. No methodology given so unclear if bias in the way outcomes measured in both groups.	Factors not included in the study Methodology not given so bias may be introduced with the two centres	1. Abstract only
Shenoy et al ¹¹	Retrospective Observational Study	Selection: 1/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Children with T1DM between the ages of 2 and 18 years and who had been diagnosed more than a year ago.	Not reported	Type of analysis and power calculation Not reported	Outcome Obesity assessed in both groups. No methodology given so unclear if bias in between two groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Possibly multiple characteristics not described	1. No methodology given 2. No description of statistical analysis used 3. No data on South Asians vs. non-South Asians given in the results
Asmal et al ¹²	Cross-sectional study	Selection: 0/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Clinic patients who fulfilled the following criteria: age of diagnosis of diabetes <35 years, development of symptoms +/- ketosis in the absence of insulin therapy, and duration of diabetes of at least 12 months. Patients with known alcoholic pancreatic diabetes were not included.	Current age (2.9 years) Age of onset (3.8 years)	Type of analysis and power calculation Not reported	Outcome Same outcome measures in 2 groups, however details not given as to when measurements were taken and by whom and if standardised for both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Younger age and age of onset in South Asians may have led to a misrepresentation of biochemical data in this group	1. No statistical methods were used to compare the two groups

Ismail et al ¹³	Cross Sectional study	Selection: 2/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity Identified by their appearance, language and religion	Inclusion Criteria T1DM defined as acute symptoms associated with heavy ketonuria (>3+) or ketoacidosis at diagnosis, or continuous treatment with insulin within 1 year of diagnosis. All diagnosed < 40 years	Similar baseline characteristics	Type of analysis Documented Power calculation Not reported	Outcome Same outcome measures in 2 groups	Effect of differences at baseline No differences	1.Clinic-based and not a population-based study. Those attending hospital may have more severe diabetes. 2.Conducted in public hospital where majority of patients cannot afford lipid-lowering therapy.
Omar et al ¹⁴	Cross-sectional study	Selection: 0/5 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Patients with onset of IDDM <35 years at King Edward Hospital in Durban. Diagnosis of IDDM based on the criteria recommended by WHO.	Age at onset (6.5 years) Duration of diabetes (1.6 years)	Type of analysis and power calculation Not reported	Outcome Same outcome measures in 2 groups, however details not given as to when measurements were taken and by whom and if standardised for both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Older age of onset and longer duration of diabetes in South Asians may have led to over-representation of complications in this group.	1.No statistical methods were used to compare the two groups
Swerdlow et al ¹⁵	Prospective Cohort Study	Selection: 4/4 stars Comparability: 0/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity Identified by computer algorithm (SANGRA) followed by a clerical check by an individual with expertise in this area. Sensitivity of 89-96% and specificity of 94-98%.	Inclusion Criteria Age at diagnosis of diabetes <30 years. Some identified in a national register of childhood cases assembled by the BDA from 1972-1986 and remainder from various geographical registers for parts of the UK during 1972-1993. Ages at diagnosis varied. Total cohort of 23, 752 with T1DM.	Age distributions of person-years were similar between the 2 groups	Type of analysis Standardised mortality ratios compared using chi squared test. Power calculation Not reported	Follow up Till 31 st December 1999, or the date of death, 85 th birthday, emigration or other loss of follow up. Lost to Follow up 1 South Asian and 151 non South Asians lost to follow up through emigration. 50 non South Asians lost to follow up in other ways. Outcome Mortality assessed in the same way in both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline No differences in age distributions. However, differences in comorbidities not reported. May be significant in mortality rates.	1. Assumption that people diagnosed <30 years had T1DM and those diagnosed >30 years had T2DM. 2. Ethnic makeup of the non- South Asian group not reported (assumed Caucasian). 3. Small number of deaths in South Asian group.
Mehta et al ¹⁶	Cross-sectional study	Selection: 1/5 stars Comparability:	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Diabetes patients attending a specialist	Age (3.4 years) Duration of diabetes (5.9)	Type of analysis Documented	Outcome Baseline data and comorbidities data collected in the same way in both	Effect of differences at baseline	1.Cross sectional design so causation cannot

		lity: 2/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	identified based on that given in the patient's record or by use of name recognition software 'Nam Pechan' supplemented by a visual inspection of surnames and forenames.	outpatient diabetes clinic in Leicestershire, UK, between 2003 and 2005. Methodology of patients being classified as T1DM or T2DM not reported.	years) Smoking (13.7%)	Power calculation Not reported	groups. Classification the same in both groups.	Younger age of onset and shorter duration of diabetes in South Asians may have led to under-representation of comorbidities in South Asians with T1DM.	be established 2.Data from one hospital, not generalizable 3.Did not comment on frequency of attendance for blood glucose monitoring so relationship between HbA1c and comorbidity not clear
Sivaprasad et al ¹⁷	Cross-sectional study	Selection: 1/5 stars Comparability: 1/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity Self-reported ethnicity recorded at the time of screening according to the codes used in the Census 2001.	Inclusion Criteria All subjects in the diabetic screening register of West Yorkshire and South East London programmes were included in this study. Coverage of diabetic people in the respective regions: 95% in West Yorkshire and 81% in South East London	Not reported	Type of analysis Documented Power calculation Not reported	Outcome Diabetic screening and retinopathy assessment same in both groups.	Effect of differences at baseline Possibly multiple considering characteristics not described	1.Records of patients that were not obtainable or exempt from diabetic screening (12%) did not have ethnicity data so South Asians may have been under-represented 2.Did not assess factors like BP, glycaemic control
Thomas et al ¹⁸	Retrospective observational study	Selection: 1/5 stars Comparability: 2/2 stars Outcome: 3/3 stars	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Subjects classified as having T1DM or T2DM on clinical assessment according to the American Diabetes Association classification of diabetes.	Age (4.1 years) Duration of diabetes (4 years)	Type of analysis Documented Power calculation Not reported	Period of study 2001-2010 with baseline characteristics being obtained at the time of initial presentation. Outcome Same outcome measures in 2 groups but data collected from 2001-2010 so may be discrepancies between people being screened at the beginning and the end of the study. Drop out or withdrawals None reported	Effect of differences at baseline Younger age of onset and shorter duration of diabetes in South Asians may have led to under-representation of retinopathy in South Asians with T1DM.	1.Study carried out in private hospital whereas most of diabetic South Africans use public health system so not generalizable 2.Lack of dilation prior to obtaining images may have led to underreporting of retinopathy
Omar et al ¹⁹	Cross sectional study	Selection: 0/5 stars Comparability:	South Asian Ethnicity	Inclusion Criteria Onset of diabetes mellitus <35 years. Classification	Duration of diabetes (1.6 years)	Type of analysis Documented	Outcome Same outcome measures in 2 groups	Effect of differences at baseline	1. No outcomes apart from age of onset, duration of

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		lity: 0/2 stars Outcome: 2/3 stars		of IDDM and NIDDM based on the criteria recommended by the National Diabetes Data Group and WHO Expert Committee on Diabetes Mellitus. IDDM patients had always depended on insulin for control of symptoms and prevention of basal ketosis		Power calculation Not reported		Not relevant as this is a purely descriptive analysis	disease and body weight. Limited information provided by study
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