Roles of family physicians in diagnosis and management of metabolic syndrome. Review

Mohammed Hassan Albarakati, Moath hassan albarakati, Wafa saleh alkhuzaie, Rahaf yaseen almutawa, Ismail Mohammed Alshahrani, Hassan Saleh Felemban, Emad Jafar Ayash, Emir Hamoud Almhmadi, Sultan Mohammed Allhaiby

4 Abstract:

The objectives of this study are to determine the prevalence of the metabolic syndrome among different people and risk factors, highlight the literature based management. MEDLINE (via PubMed), EMBASE, and the Cochrane Library were searched up to November 2017, using search terms (Medical Subject Heading [MeSH]; "metabolic syndrome", "Primary care", "family medicine", "management", "treatment". Metabolic syndrome is common and family doctor need to be concerned that they are handling a team of patient with high cardiovascular risks. This overview have discussed the role of family physician in the management of patients with metabolic syndrome that portrays all principles of family medicine such as the significance of continuity of care, the coordination of patient care, prevention of illness, alteration of disease risk factors, and the importance of patient treatment.In conclusion, the central features of the metabolic syndrome are insulin resistance, visceral adiposity, atherogenic dyslipidemia and endothelial disorder.

4 Introduction:

The metabolic syndrome has been described as a 'clustering' of numerous danger factors for cardiovascular disease, obesity (specifically abdominal obesity), dyslipidemia, insulin resistance, and hypertension. Worldwide, the incidence of this syndrome is climbing at a worrying rate [1]. Obesity is a public health concern as a result of its association with a variety of clinical complications that result in enhanced morbidity and mortality. One of the most typical obesityrelated difficulties are type-2 diabetes mellitus, hypertension, dyslipidemia, cardiovascular diseases, gallstones and cholecystitis, respiratory disorder, non-alcoholic chronic liver disease, and specific cancers [2]. The occurrence of the metabolic syndrome is increasing as a result of the obesity epidemic [3]. The increased prevalence of obesity has been accompanied by an identical boost in the prevalence of the metabolic disorder. The metabolic syndrome, which is related to three-fold and two-fold rises in type-2 diabetes mellitus and cardiovascular disease, respectively, has come to be a major public health challenge worldwide [4]. Research study is quickly needed to elucidate the occurrence and associated risk factors, in nations where it had not been estimated yet. There is extremely minimal data available on the occurrence of the metabolic disorder in obese patients.

The objectives of this study are to determine the prevalence of the metabolic syndrome among different people and risk factors, highlight the literature based management.

Methodology:

MEDLINE (via PubMed), EMBASE, and the Cochrane Library were searched up to November 2017, using search terms (Medical Subject Heading [MeSH]; "metabolic syndrome", "Primary care", "family medicine", "management", "treatment". Results limited to human studies and



English-language articles published since 1990. References of included studies were scanned for more relevant articles.

Uiscussion:

The MetSy is a cluster of risk factors comprising:

- excess abdominal weight
- lipid abnormalities
- hypertension
- elevated glucose levels.

It is not just an epidemiological clustering of threat aspects, yet also has a common underlying pathophysiological cause: insulin resistance related to main adiposity. These remain in turn related to underlying genetic and early life affects and a range of lifestyle danger aspects, including sleep deprivation and physical inactivity.

Until recently, there has been a multiplicity of definitions. This has been resolved in 2009 by the publication of a joint statement and a single meaning accepted by a variety of relevant national and worldwide bodies [5]. The presence of any three of the five danger factors explained in Table 1 is diagnostic of the MetSy. This interpretation does not require the measurement of insulin resistance or a glucose tolerance test. It does, nonetheless, require ethnic and nation specific thresholds for waist circumference to be examined. For European populaces, the cut-off for waist circumference is ≥ 102 cm in males and ≥ 88 cm in women, whereas in Asian populations it is ≥ 90 centimeters in males and ≥ 80 cm in ladies [6].

Table 1. Risk factors

Measure	Categorical cut point
Elevated waist circumference	$\geq 102 \text{ cm in males}$
	≥88 cm in females
Elevated triglyceride levels (or drug treatment for elevated triglycerides)	$\geq 1.7 \text{ mmol/L}$
Reduced HDL-C (or drug treatment for reduced HDL-C)	<1.0 mmol/L in men, <1.3 mmol/L in women
Elevated blood pressure (or drug treatment for hypertension)	\geq 130 systolic or \geq 85 diastolic
Elevated fasting glucose (or drug treatment for elevated glucose)	>5.5 mmol/L

The MetSy is essential because it determines patients at raised threat of cardiovascular disease

(CVD), diabetes and chronic kidney illness (CKD). The risk of having CVD, diabetes and CKD amongst people with the MetSy is 2-- 3 times that of people without the problem [7] It additionally increases the threat of complications in those with CVD and diabetic issues. Total meta-analysis of research studies suggests that there is a 1.6- fold rise in mortality in patients with the MetSy compared with those without it [8].

There have been questions raised regarding how much additional value the MetSy provides in predicting CVD and diabetes danger beyond its constituent threat factors [9]. As an example, fasting glucose was found to be a far better forecaster of diabetes mellitus danger compared to the MetSy in the AusDiab research study. Neither does the MetSy provide a quantifiable assessment of absolute CVD threat, as it does not take into consideration other key components of danger such as smoking, age and gender. Therefore it could only provide an estimate of relative threat, ie. twice the risk of a CVD event compared with similar patients that do not have the MetSy. The major advantage of the detection of the MetSy is its focus on central obesity and preventative treatments to resolve this as well as hyper-insulinaemia.

Risk factors

Insulin resistance

There is basic agreement that insulin resistance is the underlying reason for metabolic disorder. Insulin resistance and the resulting hyperinsulinaemia have been linked in the advancement of glucose intolerance and the progression of type 2 diabetes mellitus, hypertension, polycystic ovarian syndrome, hypercoagulability and vascular inflammation as well as eventual growth of CVD [6].Recently IDF has proposed central obesity as an essential part of metabolic syndrome since it is highly associated with various other elements of metabolic disorder and is easily measured using waist circumference.

Visceral adiposity

Visceral obesity causes a reduction in insulin-mediated glucose uptake, and is clearly related to insulin resistance. The systems for this possibly include adipokines, which are made by fat, that regulate crosstalk in between metabolic process and vascular function [10] consist of tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α) and interleukin-6 (IL-6), which are proinflammatory and contribute to insulin resistance and vascular dysfunction. The renin angiotensin system is likewise triggered in adipose tissue, resulting in hypertension and insulin resistance. By comparison, adiponectin is a protective adipokine that combines insulin sensitivity with energy metabolism. Adiponectin levels are decreased in obesity, T2D and metabolic syndrome. Along with these adipokines, FFAs, which are released from visceral fat, and bioactive lipid intermediates act together to impair the PI3K-Akt pathway and rise oxidative tension.

Atherogenic dyslipidemia

The essential features of atherogenic dyslipidemia are high plasma TG levels, reduced HDL cholesterol levels and a rise in small dense LDL. Insulin resistance and visceral obesity are associated with atherogenic dyslipidemia [11].

Insulin resistance leads to atherogenic dyslipidemia in a number of methods. Initially, insulin typically suppresses lipolysis in adipocytes, so damaged insulin signaling increases lipolysis, causing increased FFA levels. In the liver, FFAs serve as a substratum for synthesis of TGs. FFAs also maintain the production of apoB, the major lipoprotein of very-low-density lipoprotein (VLDL) particles, causing even more VLDL manufacturing. Second, insulin typically degrades apoB through PI3K-dependent pathways, so insulin resistance directly boosts VLDL manufacturing. Third, insulin manages the task of lipoprotein lipase, the rate-limiting and major mediator of VLDL clearance.

Thus, hypertriglyceridemia in insulin resistance is the outcome of both a boost in VLDL manufacturing and a decline in VLDL clearance. VLDL is metabolized to remnant lipoproteins and small dense LDL, both of which can advertise atheroma development. The TGs in VLDL are transferred to HDL by the cholesterol ester transport protein (CETP) for cholesteryl esters, causing TG-enriched HDL and cholesteryl ester-enriched VLDL bits. The TG-enriched HDL is a far better substratum for hepatic lipase, so it is removed swiftly from the circulation, leaving less HDL fragments to join reverse cholesterol transportation from the vasculature.

Hypertension

The other essential facet of management is to maximize patient's blood pressure [12]. The ADA10 and JNC 7 advise the objective of blood pressure for a patient with diabetes mellitus to be less than 130/80 mmHg. Angiotensin transforming enzyme (ACE) inhibitors, which could

avoid microvascular, and macrovascular difficulties in addition to the development of albuminuria [12], are preferred therapeutic agent unless contraindicated or else.

Glycaemic control

Good glycaemic control is essential in the management of patient with metabolic disorder. The objective for HbA1C degree is less than 7%. UKPDS 33 had demonstrated a 25% reduction in the risk of microvascular difficulties in type 2 diabetic patients who had accomplished intensive glycaemic control [12]. It is also important to recognize patients who have impaired glucose tolerance (IGT). One to three quarters of patients with IGT will certainly create diabetic issues mellitus within a decade from the moment of medical diagnosis of IGT. The annual progression rates from IGT to diabetes range from 1-10%.10 The Da Qing IGT and Diabetes study showed that diet and exercise brought about a considerable reduction in the incidence of diabetes mellitus over a 6-year period among those with IGT [13]. The Diabetes Prevention Program likewise revealed that way of living treatment was a lot more effective compared to therapeutic treatment, and the incidence of diabetes mellitus is decreased by 58% in those obtaining way of living intervention compared with 31% in those getting Metformin in patients with IGT [14] It is therefore vital to recommend patient to change their way of living revent diabetes mellitus from creating.

Dyslipidemia

Lipid decreasing is central to the decrease of morbidity and death in patients with diabetes mellitus. The goals of therapy in diabetic patients are to attain LDL-C <2.59 mmol/L, and HDL-C ≥ 1.03 mmo/L and Tg < 1.69 mmo/L [12].Statins are chosen representative for dyslipidemia in diabetics as they enhance the prognosis and minimize the risk of frequent coronary occasions in

these patients as shown in the Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study (FOUR) [12], Heart Protection Study (HPS) and Cholesterol and Recurrent Events trial (CARE) [12].

• Management

Role

Aspirin should be considered in those patients with at least a 10% threat of a coronary event over

of

10 years [14].It reduces the increased plasminogen activator inhibitor and fibrinogen that is generally located in patients with metabolic disorder.

Management of microalbuminuria

Microalbuminuria, a strong independent threat factor for cardiovascular events, arises from endothelial disorder and oxidative anxiety in metabolic syndrome. Treatment with ACE inhibitors, delays mortality in patients with diabetes with microalbuminuria. This advantage takes place despite whether patients are hypertensive [15].

Insulin sensitizers

Thiazolidinediones decrease hyperglycaemia by enhancing glucose uptake in muscles and adipose tissue and reducing glucose production. It also reduces triglyceride level and raise high-density lipoprotein cholesterol degree. It helps to minimize microalbuminuria and high blood pressure [16].

Assessment of CVD risk

Metabolic disorder gives a 2-fold rise in the relative danger for CVD events in people without recognized kind 2 diabetes mellitus [17].For individuals with the metabolic syndrome who do not have established CVD or kind 2 diabetes mellitus, the absolute 10-year CVD danger is ideal assessed by Framingham risk scoring [18].Framingham threat scoring system is created to

aspirin

approximate risk in adults aged 20 and over that do not have cardiovascular disease or diabetes mellitus. It is made use of to determine person's 10-year danger of developing CHD (myocardial infarction and coronary death). The danger variables used in evaluation include age, complete cholesterol, HDL cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, treatment for hypertension and cigarette smoking [18]. A person's 10-year danger condition will certainly determine the intensity of treatment for each and every danger aspect and, particularly, whether drug treatment ought to be initiated [17].

In this patient, there were few reasons for the success of her management. This patient was highly motivated, liable and compliant to her therapy and health advices. She was well informed concerning her problems and its repercussions and was associated with her management strategy and choice making process. Continuity of care was likewise a crucial element in successfully managing this patient.

Other methods

Preferably, management of the MetSy need to focus on its underlying cause. The mainstays of therapy are lifestyle interventions to address main obesity and insulin resistance [19].Weight-loss interventions based upon caloric limitation, enhanced exercise and practices modification have been suggested by the National Health and Medical Research Council new obesity management standards. These may include general guidance such as decreasing part size and high energy foods, in addition to a nutritional program to develop a 2 500 kilojoule power deficiency--typically developed by a dietician. The goal is to achieve a 5- 10% decrease in weight.

Although weight management depends extra on nutritional restrictions compared to physical activity, physical fitness has independent results on glucose metabolic process and diabetes and

CVD threat [20].In the visibility of the MetSy, enhanced focus needs to be positioned on at least 30 minutes of aerobic activity and resistance training, specifically in the senior and in those that have comorbid anxiety [21].

The following step is to think about medications and various other problems that might contribute to the risk of central excessive weight and insulin resistance. Leading amongst the medications are psychotropic medicines, notably the more recent antipsychotic agents. Long-term use antidepressants, consisting of careful serotonin reuptake preventions has likewise been connected with boosted threat of the MetSy. Other drugs that might contribute to weight gain include some anticonvulsants and beta-blockers (especially propranolol). Polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) and rest apnoea require proper management if these exist.

There are unfortunately no drugs presently licensed for usage in Australia to particularly reduce insulin resistance in patients with the MetSy. Metformin and the thiazolidinediones (or 'glitazones') could decrease glucose and triglyceride levels. However, their duty in managing the MetSy is still controversial and neither is approved for this function in Australia (other than in the therapy of PCOS). Furthermore, metformin was found to be inferior to way of life treatments in the United States Diabetes Prevention Program Outcome test and its long term follow up [22].Hence, medication therapy has to currently concentrate on medications to address each of the physical factors individually-- blood pressure, lipids and glycaemia. Careful tracking is needed, however, as there is a threat that use of statins could decrease physical activity (through reduced workout tolerance and muscle pain) and add to weight gain and insulin resistance [23].

Bariatric surgical procedure may have to be considered to accomplish adequate weight-loss, specifically in patients with a body mass index higher than 35. Gastric surgical procedure has

1492

been shown to reverse the MetSy in obese patients and prevent diabetes [24].Improving access to affordable surgical treatments stays an obstacle to our health systems.

4 Conclusion:

Metabolic syndrome is common and family doctor need to be concerned that they are handling a team of patient with high cardiovascular risks. This overview have discussed the role of family physician in the management of patients with metabolic syndrome that portrays all principles of family medicine such as the significance of continuity of care, the coordination of patient care, prevention of illness, alteration of disease risk factors, and the importance of patient treatment.In conclusion, the central features of the metabolic syndrome are insulin resistance, visceral adiposity, atherogenic dyslipidemia and endothelial disorder. These problems are interrelated and share mutual mediators, pathways and pathophysiological systems. It is important for the focus of therapy of the MetSy to be on lifestyle changes, specifically increased physical activity and weight reduction.

k Reference:

- 1. Anne PN. The metabolic syndrome. British Nutrition Foundation Nutrition Bulletin. London, UK29: British Nutrition Foundation; 2004. p. 36-43.
- 2. Liberopoulos EN, Mikhailidis DP, Elisaf MS. Diagnosis and management of the metabolic syndrome in obesity. Obes Rev 2005;6:283-96.
- 3. Zimmet P, Magliano D, Matsuzawa Y, Alberti G, Shaw J. The metabolic syndrome: A global public health problem and a new definition. J Atheroscler Thromb 2005;12:295-300.
- 4. World Health Organization (WHO). The World Health Report 2004: Obesity: Preventing and managing the global epidemic. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2004.
- 5. Alberti KGMM, Eckel RH, Grundy SM, et al. Harmonishing the metabolic syndrome: a joint interim statement of the International Diabetes Federation Task Force on Epidemiology and Prevention; National Heart Lunch and Blood Institute; American Heart Association; World Heart Federation; International Atherosclerosis Society; and International Association for the Study of Obesity. Circulation 2009;120:1640–45.
- 6. World Health Organization. Obesity: preventing and managing the global epidemic. Report on an WHO consultation. Geneva: WHO, 2000.
- 7. Dekker JM, Girman C, Rhodes T, et al. Metabolic syndrome and 10-year cardiovascular disease risk in the Hoorn study. Circulation 2005;112:666–73.
- 8. Mottillo S, Filion KB, Genest J, et al. The metabolic syndrome and cardiovasclar risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Am Coll Cardiol 2010;56:1113–32
- 9. Simmons RK, Albert KGMM, Gale EAM, et al. The metabolic syndrome: useful concept or clinical tool? Report of a WHO Expert Consultation. Diabetalogia 2010;53:600–05.
- 10. Kershaw E.E., Flier J.S. (2004). Adipose tissue as an endocrine organ. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 89, 2548–2556.
- 11. Semenkovich C.F. (2006). Insulin resistance and atherosclerosis. J Clin Invest. 116, 1813–1822.
- 12. Pan XR, Li GW, Hu YH, et al. Effects of diet and exercise in preventing NIDDM in people with impaired glucose tolerance. The Da Qing IGT and Diabetes Study. Diabetes Care. 1997;120(40):537-44.
- Knowler WC, Barrett-Connor E, Fowler SE, et al. Reduction in the incidence of type 2 diabetes with lifestyle intervention or metformin. Diabetes prevention program. N Engl J Med. 2002; 346:393-406.
- 14. Wagh A, Stone NJ. Treatment of metabolic syndrome. Expert Rev Cardiovasc Ther. 2004;2(2):213-28.
- 15. Strippoli GF, Craig M, Deeks JJ, et al. Effects of angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors and angiotensin II receptor antagonists on mortality and renal outcomes in diabetic nephropathy: systematic review. BMJ. 2004;329:828-39 [PubMed]
- 16. Scott CL. Diagnosis, prevention, and intervention for the metabolic syndrome. Am J Cardiol. 2003;92(1A suppl):35i-42i.

- 17. Grundy SM, Cleeman JI, Daniels SR, et al. Diagnosis and management of the metabolic syndrome: an American Heart Association/National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Scientific Statement. Circulation. 2005;112:2735-52.
- 18. Third report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) expert panel on detection, evaluation, and treatment of high blood cholesterol in adults (Adult Treatment Panel III): final report. Circulation. 2002;106(25): 3143-3421.
- 19. de Lorgeril M. Commentary on the clinical management of metabolic syndrome: why a health lifestyle is important. BMC Med 2012;10:139.
- 20. Sui X, LaMone MJ, Ladika JN, et al. Cardiorespiratory fitness and adiposity as mortality predictors in older adults. JAMA 2007;298:2507–16.
- 21. Strasser B, Siebert U, Schobersberger W. Resistance training in the treatment of the metabolic syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis of the effect of resistance training on metabolic clustering in paients with abnormal glucose metabolism. Sports Med 2010;40:397–415.
- 22. Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group, Knowler WC, et al. 10-year follow-up of diabetes incidence and weight loss in the Diabetes Prevention Program Outcomes study. Lancet 2009;374:1677–86.
- 23. Koh KK, Quon MJ, Han SH, et al. Atorvastatincauses inslin resistance and increases ambient glycaemia in hypercholesterolemic patients. J Am Coll Cardiol 2010;55:1209–16.
- 24. National Health and Medical Research Council. Draft clinical practice guidelines for the management of overweight and obesity in adults. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia, 2013.