



# Diabetes in Asia and the Pacific: Implications for the Global Epidemic

*Diabetes Care* 2016;39:472–485 | DOI: 10.2337/dc15-1536

Arun Nanditha,<sup>1</sup> Ronald C.W. Ma,<sup>2,3,4</sup>  
Ambady Ramachandran,<sup>1</sup>  
Chamukuttan Snehalatha,<sup>1</sup>  
Juliana C.N. Chan,<sup>2,3,4</sup> Kee Seng Chia,<sup>5</sup>  
Jonathan E. Shaw,<sup>6</sup> and Paul Z. Zimmet<sup>6</sup>

The last three decades have witnessed an epidemic rise in the number of people with diabetes, especially type 2 diabetes, and particularly in developing countries, where more than 80% of the people with diabetes live. The rise of type 2 diabetes in South Asia is estimated to be more than 150% between 2000 and 2035. Although aging, urbanization, and associated lifestyle changes are the major determinants for the rapid increase, an adverse intrauterine environment and the resulting epigenetic changes could also contribute in many developing countries. The International Diabetes Federation estimated that there were 382 million people with diabetes in 2013, a number surpassing its earlier predictions. More than 60% of the people with diabetes live in Asia, with almost one-half in China and India combined. The Western Pacific, the world's most populous region, has more than 138.2 million people with diabetes, and the number may rise to 201.8 million by 2035. The scenario poses huge social and economic problems to most nations in the region and could impede national and, indeed, global development. More action is required to understand the drivers of the epidemic to provide a rationale for prevention strategies to address the rising global public health "tsunami." Unless drastic steps are taken through national prevention programs to curb the escalating trends in all of the countries, the social, economic, and health care challenges are likely to be insurmountable.

Diabetes is now a disease of major concern both globally and regionally and is a leading cause of death in most countries (1). In 2013, the International Diabetes Federation (IDF) estimated that ~382 million people had diabetes worldwide, and by 2035, this was predicted to rise to 592 million. Eighty percent live in low- and middle-income countries, and of the total, more than 60% live in Asia, with almost one-third in China (2). Major increases in the prevalence of diabetes have occurred in developing countries due to rapid and ongoing socioeconomic transition and will likely lead to further rises (2). The prevalence of both type 1 and type 2 diabetes (T2DM) has increased significantly during recent decades. T2DM, being much more common (2), has been the main driver for the increase in global diabetes prevalence and, therefore, will be the focus of this review.

It should be noted that with regard to diabetes prevalence, only broad comparisons can be made among studies on which national and global estimates by the IDF are based. This is because there are marked differences in age-groups, survey methodologies, diagnostic criteria, and other aspects of these studies in the various countries in Asia and the Pacific. Despite this, almost all developing countries in the Western Pacific region (WPR) (3) and also in South Asia (4–6) have shown escalating rates.

The WPR is the world's most populous World Health Organization (WHO) region, comprising 39 heterogeneous countries and territories, with populations

<sup>1</sup>India Diabetes Research Foundation, Chennai, India

<sup>2</sup>Department of Medicine & Therapeutics, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Prince of Wales Hospital, Shatin, Hong Kong

<sup>3</sup>Hong Kong Institute of Diabetes and Obesity, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shatin, Hong Kong

<sup>4</sup>Li Ka Shing Institute of Health Sciences, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shatin, Hong Kong

<sup>5</sup>Saw Swee Hock School of Public Health, National University of Singapore, Singapore

<sup>6</sup>Baker IDI Heart and Diabetes Institute, Melbourne, Australia

Corresponding author: Paul Z. Zimmet, paul.zimmet@bakerdi.edu.au.

Received 14 July 2015 and accepted 28 November 2015.

A.N. and R.C.W.M. contributed equally to this work.

© 2016 by the American Diabetes Association. Readers may use this article as long as the work is properly cited, the use is educational and not for profit, and the work is not altered.

ranging from more than 1 billion people in China to 10,000 in small Pacific Island nations like Tuvalu. The region has undergone rapid changes developmentally, socioeconomically, politically, and culturally during the last few decades (3).

The increasing prevalence of diabetes can be attributed to a multitude of interrelated factors, including rapid industrialization and urbanization and the ensuing changes in lifestyle factors (4,6). The effect of the intrauterine environment and the resulting epigenetic changes may also convey increased risk of T2DM and other chronic diseases in adult life (1,7). Epigenetic changes can be transmitted to future generations, thus becoming intergenerational. The risk factors for T2DM are summarized in Table 1 and are detailed below. Interestingly, the propensity of these risk factors to cause diabetes appears higher among the populations in South Asia and in the WPR compared with Western populations, and this is discussed in a later section.

T2DM is increasingly present in even children and adolescents (1,3–5), and the increase in gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) poses new challenges

such as higher risk of diabetes among women and long-term consequences for the offspring (2,6,8,9). Prediabetes prevalence is also higher than that of diabetes in many of the WPR countries (10). T2DM is the focus of this review, which aims to address the major ethnic, demographic, anthropometric, socioeconomic, genetic, and epigenetic factors that are likely to be responsible for the dramatic rise in T2DM. We describe the epidemiological scenario in Asia and in the Pacific. For the purpose of this review, the WPR refers to East Asia, Southeast Asia, Australia, New Zealand, and the Pacific Islands; South Asia refers to Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Mauritius, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka (Fig. 1). Many of the nations in these regions do not have national data, so they have not been discussed in detail in this review.

It should be noted that much of the diabetes prevalence data discussed in this review come from IDF estimates (10). These have significant limitations, in that for countries without available local data, estimates are based on modeling using pooled estimates from countries that might be seen to be similar in geography, ethnicity, and economic development. Similarly, numerous country data are based on WHO STEPwise approach to Surveillance (STEPS) studies (11). These are not necessarily comparable with each other owing to methodological differences. These limitations must be considered when examining the data.

Impaired fasting glucose and impaired glucose tolerance (IGT) are high-risk conditions for diabetes and cardiovascular disease (12). China and most of the other countries in WPR have a high prevalence of IGT (3). This is true of many countries in Asia (13). However, many countries use only fasting plasma glucose (FPG) in epidemiological studies and therefore do not have data on IGT. The use of FPG underestimates the true level of diabetes and prediabetes compared with the oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT).

#### LITERATURE SEARCH STRATEGY AND SELECTION CRITERIA

We searched PubMed and Google search using key words “diabetes in Western Pacific Region,” “diabetes in

South Asia,” diabetes in individual countries of these regions, “risk factors for T2DM in Western Pacific population,” “risk factors for T2DM in South Asians,” “gestational diabetes among Asian population,” and “prevention of diabetes.” Published reports by the IDF, the WHO, and the American Diabetes Association on the above topics were used. We selected the relevant articles and reviews from peer-reviewed journals identified by the search for preparing the review.

#### THE DIABETES EPIDEMIC IN THE PACIFIC REGION AND IN ASIA

##### WPR

Today, the nations in the WPR region are highly heterogeneous in economic profile, varying from the high per capita gross domestic product in countries such as Singapore to low gross domestic product in the poorest nations. Developed countries in WPR, such as Australia and New Zealand, have a much lower prevalence of diabetes compared with some developing countries and also the Pacific Islands (14). The IDF estimated that in the WPR in 2013, there were 138 million people with diabetes, 36% of the global total (10). The biggest contribution to this number is China, with 113.9 million adults with diabetes and 493.4 million with prediabetes (15). Some small Pacific Islands, such as Tokelau, according to the IDF estimates and the WHO STEPS studies (11), have a very high diabetes prevalence (Table 2). As mentioned earlier, these are not necessarily comparable with each other owing to methodological differences between and within countries. This point is highlighted in Cambodia by a 2005 report (16) showing that T2DM has emerged at rates similar to those in developed nations such as Australia; yet, a subsequent STEPS modeling study showed that Cambodia had the lowest prevalence in the WPR (10).

In the 2013 IDF estimates, China tops the global list of countries for the total number of people with diabetes, followed by India (2). The number of people with diabetes in Japan has increased significantly since 1997, especially among the male population. In 2013, it occupied the 10th position in the IDF list, with 7.2 million people with diabetes (17). Indonesia has not registered a significant increase since 1997 (18,19).

**Table 1—Plausible etiological factors responsible for the increased propensity to develop T2DM**

Genetic and acquired factors
Genetic factors (familial aggregations)
Ethnic susceptibility
Adverse gene–environment interaction (i.e., epigenetics, metabolic maladaptations)
Lower threshold for diabetogenic risk factors (i.e., age, BMI, central adiposity)
Low muscle mass
Increased insulin resistance
Decreased $\beta$ -cell compensation disproportionate to insulin insensitivity
Presence of metabolic obesity
Increased inflammatory response
Environmental risk factors
Urbanization and modernization
Globalization and industrialization
Unhealthy behavioral habits (sedentary lifestyle, consumption of energy-dense food, smoking, tobacco chewing, and excessive alcohol consumption)
Sleep disturbances
Psychological stress
Societal factors
Cultural and religious taboos
Psychosocial factors
Lack of universal health coverage

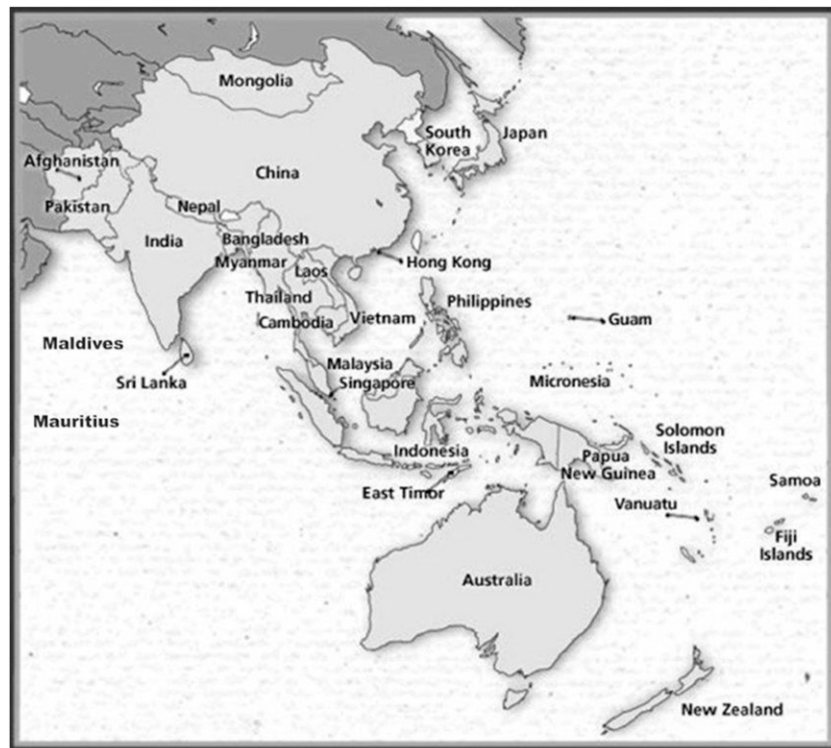


Figure 1—Map shows the Western Pacific and South Asian regions.

IDF estimates for diabetes within the Pacific vary widely, from the world's highest of 47.3% in American Samoa to a comparatively lower prevalence of 7.3% in French Polynesia (3,10). Figure 1 shows the map of the WPR, and Table 2 reports the temporal changes in the prevalence of diabetes in these countries. The rising trend in the developing countries is considerably steeper compared with the developed countries (1,12,14,15,17–34). In recent decades, apart from the WHO STEPS studies (11), there have been very few national diabetes studies for the Pacific Ocean nations (14). Nevertheless, some of the highest estimates of prevalence globally continue to be seen in this region, even though the use of FPG alone underestimates the true diabetes prevalence (35) and the laboratory methods were not standardized among the studies.

Obesity is a major driver of the T2DM epidemic, and the Pacific Island nations are among the leaders in the world obesity and diabetes charts (14). According to the latest WHO criteria for obesity (11), more than 70% of the people in American Samoa, Nauru, and Tokelau are obese. Other islands also show a high prevalence of obesity, including Kiribati (50.6%), the Marshall Islands (45%), the Federated States of Micronesia

(42.6%), the Solomon Islands (32.8%), and Fiji (29.6%) (14).

Since the 1960s, the Pacific region has been recognized as a “hot spot” for diabetes, with Prior and Davidson (36) first reporting a higher diabetes prevalence in Polynesians compared with New Zealanders of European descent. In 1975, on the Central Pacific island of Nauru, the then highest ever national diabetes prevalence of 34.4% was reported (37). Income from Nauru's rich phosphate deposits had resulted in its Micronesian population becoming extremely prosperous and obese. With the phosphate deposits now exhausted, and with the consequent contraction of the national economy, a significant fall has occurred in diabetes prevalence (1). In the 1980s, Zimmet et al. (38) confirmed the higher prevalence of diabetes in other Pacific Islands using standardized protocols. However, because most of these studies were undertaken more than two decades ago, they are unlikely to reflect current diabetes rates (14).

The paucity of secular data in the Pacific presents a difficulty in monitoring trends. The age-standardized prevalence of T2DM in Western Samoa increased between 1978 and 1991 from

8.1 to 9.5% in men and from 8.2% to 13.4% in women in the urban area, and from 2.3% to 7% in men and from 4.4% to 7.5% in women in a rural community (39). In Tonga in 2002, Colagiuri et al. (40) reported a dramatic secular increase (100% in 25 years) in diabetes from 7.5% in 1973% to 15.1%, of which 80% were undiagnosed cases.

King et al. (16), in 2005, reported on diabetes in Cambodia, a relatively poor and fairly traditional country, showing prevalence of 5% (rural) and 11% (semi-urban). The prevalence of IGT was 10% (rural) and 15% (semiurban). About two-thirds of all cases of diabetes were undiagnosed. These figures are much higher than those reported by a subsequent WHO STEPS study (11). Such differences, which may relate to the first study being a dedicated diabetes survey and using the OGTT and the second study being a general survey of noncommunicable diseases and relying on the fasting glucose alone, need to be kept in mind.

In Malaysia, the reported prevalence of diabetes was 11.6% in 2006 (26), 15.2% (8% undiagnosed) in the 2011 national study (41), and 22.9% in 2013 (26). The age distribution of the study groups was similar. The higher prevalence seen in the 2013 survey may partly be explained by the use of the OGTT. In Thailand, the National Health Examination Survey showed that the diabetes prevalence in people aged  $\geq 15$  increased from 2.5% in 1991 to 4.6% in 1997 and to 6.8% in 2004 (32). In 2009, their National Health Examination Survey (33) found the prevalence of impaired fasting glucose was 10.6% and diabetes was 7.5% (of which 35.4% were undiagnosed cases) in adults aged  $\geq 20$  years. These prevalences were likely to be underestimates because diagnosis relied only on a single FPG, history of physician diagnosis, and information on medications (33). The age-standardized prevalence in Singapore has remained constant at  $\sim 11\%$  during the last two decades. In Singapore, diabetes was more common in Indians (17.2%) than in Malays (16.6%) or Chinese (9.7%) (31).

The prevalence of diabetes in Korea increased from  $<1\%$  in 1960 to  $>10\%$  by early 2000. The Korea National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (KNHANES) 2010–2012 also reported a prevalence of 10.1% based on FPG (29,30), suggesting a

**Table 2—Prevalence of diabetes in the WPR, with temporal changes shown wherever available\***

Country	Year (Ref)	Sample size (n)	Characteristics	Diagnostic criteria	Diabetes (%)
American Samoa	2004 (14)	2,072	WHO STEPS; stratified cluster sampling; age: 25–64 years	Capillary FPG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L	47.3
Australia	2011–2012 (20)†	NR	Age: $\geq 18$ years	HbA <sub>1c</sub> $\geq 6.5\%$ ( $\geq 47.5$ mmol/mol)	5.4
Brunei Darussalam	2003 (21)†	NR	Population-based data from integrated health screening system from medical case records; age: NR	Capillary FPG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or known diabetes	5.4
	2010 (21)†	NR	Age: $\geq 20$ years	Capillary FPG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or known diabetes	12.5
Cambodia	2004 (16)	2,246	Cross-sectional; two communities: rural and semiurban; age: $\geq 25$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	Rural: 5.0 Suburban: 11.0
	2011 (24)†	5,123	WHO STEPS; multistage cluster method (180 clusters); age: 25–65 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	Total: 2.9 (95% CI 2.3–3.4) Rural: 2.3 (95% CI 1.7–2.9) Urban: 5.6 (95% CI 4.0–7.2)
China	2001 (25)†	15,838	Nationally representative stratified sampling; age: 35–74 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	5.5
	2010 (15)†	98,658	Complex, multistage, probability sampling design; age: $\geq 18$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	11.6
China, Hong Kong SAR	1990 (22)	1,513	Participants from a public utility company and a regional hospital; age: $\geq 30$ years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	4.5
	2007–2010 (23)	3,376	Hong Kong professional driver community project; age: 18–70 years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	8.1
Cook Islands	1980 (14)	1,102	Population-based study; age: $\geq 20$ years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	6.8
	2003 (14)	2,036	WHO STEPS; stratified samples; age: NR	Capillary FPG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	23.6
Federated States of Micronesia	1994 (14)	2,188	Population-based study in Kosrae population; age: 20–85 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L	12.0
	2002 (14)	1,638	WHO STEPS; population-based cross-sectional study; age: 25–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L	32.1
Fiji	2002 (14)	2,277	Population-based multistage sampling in 30 clusters; age: 15–64 years	Capillary FPG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication; HbA <sub>1c</sub> $\geq 6.5\%$ ( $\geq 47.5$ mmol/mol) or known to have diabetes	16.0
	2009 (14)	1,353	WHO STEPS; population-based study; age: $\geq 40$ years		44.8
French Polynesia	2010 (14)	3,469	WHO STEPS; population-based multistage sampling; age: 18–64 years	Capillary FPG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	7.3
Indonesia	1997 (18)	941	Population-based study of government and retired individuals; age: NR	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	5.4
	2009 (19)	24,417	Samples from 13 urban provinces; age: $\geq 15$ years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	5.7
Japan	1997 (17)	National	Age: $\geq 20$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	M:F 9.9:7.1
	2007 (17)	National	Age: $\geq 20$ years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	M:F 15.3:7.3
Kiribati	1983 (14)	2,938	Population-based survey; age: $\geq 20$ years; South Tarawa and the four outer islands; age: 15–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	Urban: M:F 9.6:8.7 Rural: M:F 3.0:3.3
	2004–2006 (14)	1,146	WHO STEPS; population-based multistage sampling; age: 18–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L	28.1

Continued on p. 476

Table 2—Continued

Country	Year (Ref)	Sample size (n)	Characteristics	Diagnostic criteria	Diabetes (%)
Malaysia	2006 (26)	34,539	Malaysian National Health Morbidity Survey (NHMS) III; age: $\geq 18$ years	FPG $\geq 7.1$ mmol/L or known to have diabetes	11.6
	2013 (26)	4,341	Two-stage stratified sampling design; age: $\geq 18$ years	HbA <sub>1c</sub> $\geq 6.5\%$ , FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	22.9
Marshall Islands	2002 (14)	994	WHO STEPS; population-based; age: 15–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L	19.6
Mongolia	2005 (27)	3,411	WHO STEPS; population-based; age: 15–64 years	Capillary FBG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	8.2
	2009 (27)	5,368	WHO STEPS; population-based; age: 15–64 years	Capillary FBG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	6.5
Nauru	1987 (1)	1,201	Population-based data; age: $\geq 20$ years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	24.0
	2004 (14)	883	Systematic random sample design; age: 15–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or on medication	16.2 (age 15–24 years) 22.7 (age 25–64 years)
New Zealand	2002–2003 (28)	12,929	Stratified cluster sampling; age: $\geq 15$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	8.1
	2008–2009 (28)	4,721	Age: $\geq 15$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	7.0
Niue	1980 (1)	1,128	Population-based survey; age: $\geq 20$ years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L	7.2
	2012 (14)	863	WHO STEPS; population-based; age: $\geq 15$ years	Capillary FBG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	38.4
Papua New Guinea	1991 (14)	497	Population-based cluster; age: $\geq 25$ years	Random blood glucose $\geq 8$ mmol/L or known diabetes	Urban: 30.3 Rural: Wanigela: 11.7 Kalo: 1.6
	2008 (14)	2,944	WHO STEPS; population-based survey; age: 15–64 years	Capillary FBG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	14.4
Republic of Korea	2005 (29)	4,628	KNHANES; age: $\geq 30$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or/and history of diabetes	9.1
	2007–2009 (29)	13,512	Age: $\geq 30$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L	9.9
	2011–2012 (30)†	14,330	National Health Survey; age: $\geq 30$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L	10.1
Samoa	1991 (14)†	1,776	Population-based cluster sampling; age: 25–74 years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	Apia: M:F 9.5:13.4 Poutasi: M:F 5.3: 5.6 Tuasivi: M:F 7.0:7.5
	2002 (14)	2,817	WHO STEPS; random sample population-based study; age: 15–64 years	Capillary FBG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or venous FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or on medication	22.1
Singapore	2004 (31)†	NR	National survey; age: 18–69 years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	8.2
	2010 (31)†	NR	National survey; age: 18–69 years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	11.3
Solomon Islands	1986 (14)	243	Population-based study; age: $\geq 18$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	2.09
	2006 (14)	950	WHO STEPS; population-based; age: 25–64 years	Capillary FBG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	13.5
Thailand	1991 (32)†	National	Age: $\geq 30$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L	2.3
	2004 (32)†	National	Age: $\geq 15$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L	6.8
	2009 (33)†	National	Age: $\geq 20$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L	7.5
Tokelau	1976 (14)	346	Population-based study; age: 35–74 years	OGTT (100 g); 1-h PG $\geq 13.9$ mmol/L	M:F 7.0:14.3
	2005 (14)	573	WHO STEPS; population-based national survey; age: 15–64 years	Capillary FBG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	33.6

Continued on p. 477

Table 2—Continued

Country	Year (Ref)	Sample size (n)	Characteristics	Diagnostic criteria	Diabetes (%)
Tonga	1991 (14) <sup>†</sup> 2004 (14) <sup>†</sup>	1,024 453	National sample; age: $\geq 15$ years WHO STEPS; population-based national survey; age: 15–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L Capillary FBG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	15.1 16.4
Vanuatu	1991 (14)	1,378	An occupation-based (civil servants) urban sample and area-based semirural and rural samples; age: NR	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	Vila: M:F 2.1:12.1 Nguna: M:F 2.1:1.1 Tanna: M:F 1.0:0.9 21.2
	2011 (14) <sup>†</sup>	4,422	WHO STEPS; population-based national survey; survey included all six provinces; age: 25–64 years	Capillary FBG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	
Vietnam	2001 (34)	2,932	Cross-sectional; age $\geq 15$ years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	3.8
	2011 (12)	2,710	Cross-sectional; age: 40–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	3.7
Wallis and Futuna	1980 (14) <sup>†</sup> 2010 (14) <sup>†</sup>	549 487	Population-based study; age: $\geq 20$ years WHO STEPS; population-based national survey; age: 15–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or on medication	2.7 17.5

F, female; FBG, fasting blood glucose; HbA<sub>1c</sub>, glycated hemoglobin A<sub>1c</sub>; M, male; NR, not reported; PG, plasma glucose; SAR, Special Administrative Region. \*It needs to be recognized that only broad comparisons can be made from these data owing to significant differences in age-groups, survey methodologies, diagnostic criteria, etc. †National studies.

constant prevalence of diabetes during the last decade. Diabetes was more prevalent in individuals in lower socioeconomic groups, a finding similar to that in developed Western countries.

### South Asia

South Asia constitutes one-fifth of the world's population and includes nine countries, all of which are undergoing lifestyle transitions that make their populations more vulnerable to develop T2DM. In the last few decades, the diabetes prevalence in South Asia has also risen considerably. Table 3 reports the secular changes that occurred in these nations (5,42–51). However, true nationally representative data, which include urban and rural prevalence, are lacking from most of these countries, including India.

South Asian populations also have a high prevalence of prediabetes and a more rapid progression to diabetes (13). This is highlighted by a recent study that reported a diabetes incidence of 22.2 per 1,000 person-years and that 59% of those with prediabetes converted to diabetes after a follow-up of 9.1 years (52).

A 2008 report from Southern India showed a marked increase in diabetes prevalence in both urban and rural areas compared with earlier studies (53). Studies from other parts of India have also shown increases in diabetes prevalence (13,46).

India is the largest country in the region and has more than 65.1 million people with diabetes, occupying the second position next to China in the IDF global list of top 10 countries for people with diabetes. Pakistan and Bangladesh are in 12th and 13th positions, respectively (10). The IDF estimates that the number of people with diabetes in South Asia will increase to 120.9 million, 10.2% of the adult population, by 2030. The highest increase in diabetes prevalence is noted in Mauritius (48) (Table 3), an Indian Ocean island with a predominantly Asian Indian population. A survey conducted in urban and rural Maldives showed that the prevalence of diabetes was 10.6% (47). However results from the STEPS survey conducted in Male, the Maldives capital city, showed the prevalence of diabetes was 4.5% in all adults (11). Again, the reason for the difference seen in the STEPS study is unclear.

**Table 3—Prevalence of diabetes in South Asia, with temporal changes shown wherever available**

Country	Year (Ref)	Sample size (n)	Characteristics	Diagnostic criteria	Diabetes (%)
Afghanistan	2013 (42)	1,169	Age: >40 years	Capillary FBG $\geq 6.1$ mmol/L or on medication	13.3
Bangladesh	2005 (5)	6,312	Cross-sectional; age: $\geq 20$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	Urban: 8.3 Rural: 2.3
	2011 (43)*	8,835	Population-based national survey; age: $\geq 35$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	9.7
Bhutan	2008 (44)	2,474	Stratified two-stage sampling; age: 25–74 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	8.2
India	2000 (45)	11,216	Random sampling, six metropolitan cities; age: $\geq 20$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	12.1
	2008–10 (46)	13,055	Stratified multistage sampling (188 urban, 175 rural) in three states and one union territory; age not reported	Fasting CBG $\geq 7$ mmol/L or/and 2-h CBG $\geq 12.2$ mmol/L or on medication	Tamil Nadu: 10.4 Maharashtra: 8.4 Jharkhand: 5.3 Chandigarh: 13.6
Maldives	2004 (47)*	1,556	Cross-sectional; national; age: 25–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	4.5
Mauritius	1987 (48)	5,083	Independent population-based survey; age: 20–74 years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	13.0
	2009 (48)	6,371	Age: 20–74 years	FPG $\geq 7.8$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	21.3
Nepal	2011 (49)	14,425	Population from Eastern Nepal; age: >20–100 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	6.3
Pakistan	2000 (50)	1,042	Age: 30–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	6.5
	2006 (50)	5,433	Age: 30–64 years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or/and 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	Urban: 10.6 Rural: 7.7
Sri Lanka	2001 (5)	6,047	Cross-sectional; stratified random samples from four provinces; age: $\geq 30$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or on medication	13.8
	2006 (51)*	4,532	Cross-sectional; national representative; age: $\geq 20$ years	FPG $\geq 7.0$ mmol/L or 2-h PG $\geq 11.1$ mmol/L	10.3

CBG, capillary blood glucose; FBG, fasting blood glucose; PG, plasma glucose. \*National study.

Several distinctive features are noted among the South Asians, such as early occurrence of diabetes at lower BMI levels (6), higher rates of insulin resistance, abdominal obesity, and familial aggregation of diabetes than in many other ethnic groups. In recent decades, an increasing diabetes prevalence has been reported in rural areas in middle-income groups and among underprivileged people (13,51). Occurrence of T2DM at a young age is commonly observed among South Asians, with the picture further complicated by the presence of maturity-onset diabetes of the young or latent autoimmune diabetes of adulthood (13).

### Urban-Rural Difference

In developing countries in Asia and WPR, the urban-rural difference in diabetes prevalence is narrowing due to the increasing reach of Western lifestyles and associated behavioral changes into rural settings. In India, Nepal, Sri Lanka, the Solomon Islands, Samoa, and Thailand, more than 50% of the national population with diabetes resides in rural areas (10). Recent studies from India (53) and China (4,6,54) have shown greater rates of increase in diabetes prevalence in rural than in urban areas. Hwang et al. (55) reported that across multiple surveys, there was evidence of a fivefold rise in the prevalence of diabetes from 1985 to 2010 in rural populations of developing countries.

### Diabetes in the Diaspora

Population-based studies indicate a higher prevalence of diabetes among the South Asian diaspora compared with other ethnic and the local populations in many Western nations, including the U.S. and the U.K. (13,56–60). Among South Asians, T2DM is usually diagnosed at an earlier age and is associated with increased mortality compared with the white population in these countries.

### Risk Factors for Diabetes in Asians and Pacific Islanders

Similar risk factors for T2DM have been identified in Europids and in Asian populations (5,6,54). Many of these risk factors are closely linked to economic development and the increasing urbanization seen across much of Asia and the Pacific. Some risk factors for T2DM have become of great concern among developing countries in Asia and the Pacific. As discussed

later, the prevalence of GDM has also increased markedly in Asia and the Pacific in recent decades (9,10).

Much of the recent increase in diabetes prevalence is related to changes in dietary pattern, sedentary behavior, and obesity superimposed on a background of genetic/epigenetic susceptibility (61). Most Asian countries have witnessed, to different degrees, a nutritional transition, with increases in intake of refined carbohydrates, animal fats, and meat, and reduced consumption of dietary fiber and vegetables (61,62). Similar to the U.S., the consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages in China has increased dramatically during the last few decades (62).

Several dietary risk factors may be particularly relevant to Asians. The South Asian diet, characterized by high intake of carbohydrates, *trans* fats, and saturated fats (63), appears particularly conducive to the risk of T2DM. White rice constitutes up to 60% of the glycemic load among the Chinese and was found to be associated with an increased risk of diabetes in a meta-analysis (64). This association between white rice intake and risk of T2DM was also noted in India (65). Although rice has been a staple food for centuries, there has been a shift to increased intake of polished rice, which produces a greater glycemic excursion than do the more traditional types of rice. Furthermore, Asians appear to have greater glycemic excursion to white rice compared with other populations (66).

Physical inactivity is an important risk factor for T2DM in most populations (4,5). With increasing urbanization, physical activity has declined, particularly in occupational settings (67), and sedentary behavior has increased. This highlights the importance of encouraging physical activity and reducing sedentary behavior in large-scale community diabetes prevention initiatives in Asia and the Pacific.

Studies that have examined the association between adiposity and diabetes in multiethnic cohorts noted that Asians develop diabetes at a considerably lower BMI compared with Europids (54,68). This is ascribed to visceral adiposity in Asian populations (69). As a result, in Asians, lower BMI cutoffs are being used to define obesity (70) as well as lower waist circumference for defining central obesity (57,70). However, two large observational studies have shown that the incremental risk

of diabetes associated with increasing adiposity does not differ between European and Asian populations (71,72). Thus, the ethnic difference in the adiposity-diabetes relationship is probably better characterized as an increased risk of diabetes at all levels of BMI (or waist circumference) rather than as diabetes occurring at lower levels of BMI. It is very similar to the increased diabetes risk of Asian populations seen at all ages, and both observations point to factors other than those related to obesity or age that increase diabetes susceptibility in Asian populations.

Several novel putative risk factors have recently emerged as important behavioral and environmental determinants for T2DM. These include sleep disturbances and environmental exposure to organic pollutants and other chemicals (62). Given the major problems of pollution in many developing countries, the latter has the potential to be an important contributor to the diabetes epidemic during adult life or as an in utero exposure.

#### **Developmental Origins of T2DM: Relevance in Asia and Pacific Communities**

The initial observations on the association between low birth weight and adult risk of diabetes and metabolic disturbances were made by Hales and Barker (73). It is now increasingly appreciated that the in utero environment plays an important role in modifying developmental trajectory and physiology, thereby altering the risk of obesity, T2DM, and other chronic diseases in adulthood (7).

Studies in relation to the Dutch winter (74) and Chinese (75) famines provide support for the hypothesis that nutritional deprivation in utero may predispose an individual to T2DM in adult life. In those exposed to severe famine in some parts of China during early life, there is a marked increase in the risk of diabetes as adults compared with those not exposed to the same severe nutritional restriction during in utero development. This risk of diabetes in midlife is highest among offspring exposed to in utero undernutrition and who were subsequently exposed to an affluent diet (75). This phenomenon of historical exposure to undernutrition in early life followed by exposure to a “metabolically challenging” environment

characterized by an energy-dense diet may be highly relevant to the current high rates of T2DM in parts of Asia and the Pacific.

The emergence of T2DM in Cambodia at rates similar to those in developed nations (16) came decades after the political and socioeconomic upheaval caused severe food shortages in Cambodia in 1975. During World War II, the Nauruans were subjected to famine conditions on Nauru and on other Pacific Islands, such as Truk, where they had been relocated. Some three decades later, Nauru had the highest diabetes prevalence in the world (37). These historical examples show the potential of unexpected health outcomes from wars and famine when later followed by relative overnutrition. Furthermore, the study by Yajnik (76) in India strongly suggest that early development issues and epigenetics may play an important role in the contemporary burden of diabetes experienced in India.

In addition to a link between in utero undernutrition and offspring risk, epidemiological studies, particularly among the Pima Indians, have highlighted increased risk of obesity and T2DM in offspring exposed to maternal diabetes or obesity (77–79). This is also particularly relevant in Asia, where there is a higher proportion of young-onset diabetes and a higher prevalence of GDM compared with Europe and the U.S. (9). Thus, intergenerational cycles may operate in Asia to increase the risk of diabetes in future generations (76).

#### **GDM**

With the epidemiological transitions occurring in Asia, leading to a younger age of diabetes onset, the burden of pregnancy complicated by hyperglycemia is increasing (80). Hyperglycemia in pregnancy includes cases of diabetes predating pregnancy as well as GDM. On the basis of a systematic literature review of studies reporting the prevalence of GDM in different countries, the IDF estimated that 16% of pregnancies globally were affected by hyperglycemia in 2013, with a crude prevalence of 11.8% in the IDF WPR and 23.1% in the South Asian region (80). The prevalence of GDM reported in Asia has ranged from 1% to more than 20%, depending on the period, ethnicity, and population in which the study was conducted, as well as the screening



strategy and diagnostic criteria being used, which has been extensively reviewed elsewhere (9). A study from Australia comparing women of different ethnicities with a diagnosis of GDM noted that women from Southeast Asia had the lowest BMI and were more likely to be diagnosed based on elevated 2-h glucose during OGTT, whereas women from Pacific Islands and Anglo-Europeans had the highest BMI and were more likely to be diagnosed based on elevated fasting glucose (81).

A marked secular increase in prevalence of GDM has been reported in several studies; for example, universal screening of pregnant women for GDM in Tianjin, China, showed that the prevalence increased markedly from 2.4 to 6.8% from 1999 to 2008 (82). Use of the diagnostic criteria proposed by the International Association of the Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Groups (IADPSG), recently adopted by the WHO (83), is likely to lead to further increases in GDM prevalence. In a study from Vietnam, for example, applying the IADPSG criteria resulted in an increase in prevalence of GDM from 6.1 to 20.3% (84).

The offspring of mothers with GDM have increased risks of obesity, hypertension, diabetes, and other noncommunicable diseases (78,79). Given the high risk of GDM among Asian populations and the potential transgenerational effects of GDM and maternal nutrition, there is an urgent need to implement preconception interventions to optimize maternal health (85,86). Also, the high prevalence of GDM and its potential long-term effects makes a strong case for universal screening for GDM in Asian populations. This has already been adopted in some Asian countries (9).

#### **Pattern of Diabetes Complications in Asia and Pacific Communities**

There are ethnic differences in the pattern of diabetes complications (54). Early observations from the WHO Multinational Study of Vascular Disease in Diabetes (WHO MSVDD) had suggested comparatively high rates of albuminuria in Asian centers (87). In an analysis of 65,171 subjects with T2DM evaluated in primary care in New Zealand between 2000 and 2006 (including 3,166 South Asians and 1,941 East Asians), the risks of having microalbuminuria, macroalbuminuria, and advanced proteinuria were significantly increased 1.4- to 4-fold in

Pacific Islanders, South Asians, and East Asians compared with Europeans (88). Moreover, recent studies in multiethnic populations that compared diabetic renal disease among individuals of different ethnicities suggest that ethnic minorities in the U.S., including South Asians and Chinese, are more likely to suffer from proteinuric diabetic renal disease than from nonproteinuric diabetic renal disease (89).

A meta-analysis of studies on the prevalence of diabetic retinopathy noted that South Asians had the lowest prevalence (90). A lower prevalence of peripheral sensory neuropathy was also reported in Asian patients in the Fremantle Diabetes Study (FDS) in Australia compared with patients of European descent (91).

The prevalence of diabetes complications in the Pacific region is higher than that reported for other regions (e.g., Asia, Africa, and the Middle East) (14). Consistent with this, Pacific Islanders in the U.S. have a comparatively high prevalence of foot complications and amputations (92).

In the WHO MSVDD, the prevalence of cardiovascular complications was high in South Asians, but in general was low in centers in China, Hong Kong, and Japan (93). More recent studies have confirmed these earlier observations. For example, other studies in multiethnic populations have noted the high prevalence of cardiovascular complications among South Asian populations, believed to be partly driven by their predisposition to visceral adiposity (6,13). In contrast, patients with T2DM in China appear to have lower rates of cardiovascular complications compared with Europeans (94), and the application to Chinese populations of risk scores developed in European populations tends to overestimate the risk of coronary heart disease (95). Studies that have compared the risk of peripheral vascular disease have noted that South Asians are at lower risk of amputations than Europeans (96).

In addition to ethnic differences in the risk of diabetes complications, the pattern of diabetes complications in Asia is also notable for the large proportion of individuals with young-onset T2DM. In the Joint Asia Diabetes Evaluation (JADE) program, among 41,029 patients recruited from across nine countries/regions in Asia, 18% had

onset of T2DM below the age of 40 (97), had longer disease duration, and had higher rates of retinopathy and end-stage renal disease than those with onset of diabetes after the age of 40 (97). In the Hong Kong Diabetes Registry, patients with young-onset diabetes had higher risks of incident cardiovascular and renal complications at any age, driven by the longer disease duration (98). Given the proportion of patients with young-onset T2DM, the potential burden of diabetes-related complications is of great concern.

#### **Prevention of Diabetes**

Primary prevention of diabetes is a practical and cost-effective method of reducing incident diabetes in populations of varied ethnicity and biological characteristics (99). Systematic long-term studies conducted in Western nations, such as the U.S. (100) and Finland (101), have shown the benefits of using intensive lifestyle modification (LSM) resulting in significant weight reduction in obese and overweight persons with IGT, leading to a 58% relative risk reduction in diabetes (100). These programs in the Western countries (100) and in China have also shown the enduring effect of LSM, with the effects demonstrated to last at least 10–20 years (102,103).

Studies in the Asian populations, such as the Da Qing studies in China (102,103), the Indian Diabetes Prevention Programme (IDPP) (104) in India, and the Japanese prevention programs (105,106), have shown that LSM is effective in preventing T2DM even in nonobese populations with high levels of insulin resistance and that this is achieved without significant weight reduction. Importantly, the 23-year Da Qing IGT and Diabetes Study follow-up showed a sustained beneficial effect of LSM on diabetes incidence and on cardiovascular and all-cause mortality in the Chinese population (102). Pragmatic, cost-effective, and scalable programs are being tested in developed countries and in South Asian countries (107). A recent study in India showed that the cumulative incidence of diabetes in 2 years was significantly lower among the people with prediabetes who received frequent text messages on mobile phones on healthy lifestyle principles (18%) than among the control group on standard care (27%) (108).

**Table 4—Randomized controlled prevention studies in T2DM in Asian populations using lifestyle intervention**

Study (year) (Ref)	Study population characteristics	Mean duration (years)	Participants by treatment group (n)	Cumulative incidence of diabetes (%)	Relative risk reduction (%)
Da Qing IGT and Diabetes Study (1997) (102)	Chinese: BMI: 26.0 Age: 45.0	6	Total n = 577 Control: 133 Diet: 130 Exercise: 141 Diet + exercise: 126	Control: 67.7 Diet: 43.8 Exercise: 41.1 Diet + exercise: 46.0	Diet: 31.0 Exercise: 46.0 Diet + exercise: 42.0
	Cluster randomized by clinic				
Da Qing Diabetes Prevention Study (2008) (103)	Control BMI: 24.4 Intervention BMI: 24.5	20	Control: 138 Intervention: 439	Control: 93.0 Intervention: 80.0	43.0
Da Qing Diabetes Prevention Study (2014) (103)	Control BMI: 25.7 Intervention BMI: 26.2	23	Total n = 568 (by interview from medical records) Control: 138 Intervention: 430	Control: 89.9 Intervention: 72.6 CVD mortality Control: 19.6 Intervention: 11.9 All-cause mortality Control: 38.4 Intervention: 28.0	45.0 41.0 29.0
IDPP-1 (2006) (104)	BMI: 25.8 Age: 45.9	2.6 (median)	Total n = 531 Control: 136 LSM: 133 Metformin: 133 LSM + metformin: 129	Control: 55.0 LSM: 39.3 Metformin: 40.5 LSM + metformin: 39.5	LSM: 28.5 Metformin: 26.4 LSM + metformin: 28.2
	Persistent IGT, individual randomization				
Indian SMS study (2013) (108)	BMI: 25.8 Age: 45.9	2	Control: 266 Intervention: 271	Control: 27.4 Intervention: 18.5	36.0
	Persistent IGT, men				
Japanese prevention study (2005) (105)	Japanese men: BMI: 23.5 Age: 51.5	4	Control: 102 Intervention: 356	Control: 9.3 Intervention: 3.0	67.4
	IGT, individual randomization				
Zensharen Study for Prevention of Lifestyle Diseases (2011) (106)	Japanese men: BMI: 27.0 Age: 49.0	3	Control: 330 Intervention: 311	Control: 16.6 Intervention: 12.2	44.0
	IGT, individual randomization				

Age given as mean (years) and BMI given as mean (kg/m<sup>2</sup>). CVD, cardiovascular disease.

Table 4 describes the major diabetes prevention studies in Asia using LSM (102–106,108).

For any program to be successful at a population level, major changes are required at relevant personal, cultural, societal, and community levels (109). An example of the principles laid out in the Western Pacific Declaration on Diabetes (110) being translated in action can be found in Singapore's diabetes prevention efforts discussed below.

### Preventing Diabetes in Singapore

According to the 2010 Singapore National Health Survey, the crude diabetes prevalence increased from 8.6% in 1992 to 11.3% in 2010 (111). However, the age-standardized prevalence remained constant at ~11% during the two decades. Obesity prevalence has been rising in the last decade from 6 to 11%. The effect of rising obesity on diabetes prevalence will likely only be evident in one to two decades. It is estimated that Singapore will have half a million people with diabetes by 2020 and that this will rise to 1 million by 2050, double an earlier projection that was based on aging alone (112). The public health policy implication is clearly not just toward increasing the capability of dealing with diabetes once it has arisen (increased capacity and new models of care) but also moving upstream to primary prevention.

The traditional approach to preventing lifestyle-related diseases in Singapore is to provide public education with a strong emphasis on individual responsibility. Singapore's Healthier Hawker Program provides a case study of this approach. It is part of The Healthy Living Master Plan, a major paradigm shift recognizing the need for multisectoral and integrated approaches to intervention.

Hawker centers are a quintessential feature of the Singaporean food landscape and house a variety of cooked food stalls popular for their convenience, competitive prices, and diversity. In 2010, ~60% of Singaporeans ate at least four times per week at hawker centers, food courts, and coffee shop stalls. Improving the nutritional quality of foods sold at hawker centers provides an important opportunity for widespread dietary modification among Singaporeans (113).

The traditional model of workplace safety and health in Singapore is focused

on prevention of accidents and occupational diseases. However, with the increasing incidence and earlier onset of diabetes and delay in the retirement age, there will be an increasing number of people with diabetes in the working population. It was estimated that there were 180,000 people with diabetes in Singapore's working population in 2010. The cost to the economy was \$1 billion, primarily due to productivity loss. This is of major concern not only to the government but also individual employers. The Total Workplace Safety and Health (TWSH) system was launched jointly by the Ministries of Manpower and Health as a national program to provide a new model of care for the safety and health of the working population (114).

### CONCLUSIONS

The scenario presented in this review poses huge social and economic problems to most nations in Asia and the Pacific and is likely to impede national and indeed regional and global development. More action, particularly research, is required to understand the drivers of the epidemic, particularly those relating to developmental origins of T2DM, to provide a rationale for prevention strategies to address this rising public health "tsunami." Primordial prevention strategies instituted in potential mothers, through prevention of malnutrition in utero and in childhood, and through healthy diets and adequate physical activity ("life course approach") are important additional elements to be included in future strategies for T2DM prevention (85). More action is also needed to effectively implement lifestyle changes on a societal level to stem the tide of the epidemic. Unless drastic steps are taken through national prevention programs in Asia and the Pacific to curb the escalating trends in all of the countries, the social, economic, and health care challenges will be insurmountable (1).

Because estimates of the diabetes burden have important implications for future public health planning, it is essential that such estimates provide reliable data. This review highlights the paucity of these data in a number of Asian and Pacific nations and the need for improving the collection of

epidemiological data and its interpretation for public health planning to resource and direct urgently needed prevention activities. This applies particularly to lower- and middle-income nations in these regions. India and China already have a huge burden from diabetes, and they provide the largest diaspora communities worldwide. What is already happening in Asia and the Pacific in terms of the diabetes epidemic and the complications and socioeconomic outcomes provides a daunting lesson for what can happen globally.

**Funding.** R.C.W.M. acknowledges support from the Research Grants Council Theme-based Research Scheme (T12-402/13N), the Research Grants Council General Research Fund (CU471713), and the European Foundation for the Study of Diabetes/Chinese Diabetes Society/Lilly Programme for Collaborative Research Between China and Europe. J.E.S. is supported by a National Health and Medical Research Council Senior Research Fellowship.

**Duality of Interest.** No potential conflicts of interest relevant to this article were reported.

**Author Contributions.** A.N., R.C.W.M., K.S.C., J.E.S., and P.Z.Z. researched data, contributed to discussion, and wrote, reviewed, and edited the manuscript. A.R., C.S., and J.C.N.C. contributed to discussion and reviewed and edited the manuscript. All authors approved submission of the manuscript for publication.

### References

- Zimmet PZ, Magliano DJ, Herman WH, Shaw JE. Diabetes: a 21st century challenge. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol* 2014;2:56–64
- Guariguata L, Whiting DR, Hambleton I, Beagley J, Linnenkamp U, Shaw JE. Global estimates of diabetes prevalence for 2013 and projections for 2035. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2014;103:137–149
- Chan JC, Cho NH, Tajima N, Shaw J. Diabetes in the Western Pacific Region—past, present and future. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2014;103:244–255
- Chan JC, Malik V, Jia W, et al. Diabetes in Asia: epidemiology, risk factors, and pathophysiology. *JAMA* 2009;301:2129–2140
- Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Ma RC. Diabetes in South-East Asia: an update. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2014;103:231–237
- Ramachandran A, Ma RCW, Snehalatha C. Diabetes in Asia. *Lancet* 2010;375:408–418
- Gluckman PD, Hanson MA, Cooper C, Thornburg KL. Effect of in utero and early-life conditions on adult health and disease. *N Engl J Med* 2008;359:61–73
- Chan JCN, Yeung R, Luk A. The Asian diabetes phenotypes: challenges and opportunities. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2014;105:135–139
- Tutino GE, Tam WH, Yang X, Chan JC, Lao TT, Ma RC. Diabetes and pregnancy: perspectives from Asia. *Diabet Med* 2014;31:302–318

10. International Diabetes Federation. *IDF Diabetes Atlas*. 6th ed. Brussels, Belgium, International Diabetes Federation, 2013. Available from [www.idf.org/diabetesatlas](http://www.idf.org/diabetesatlas). Accessed 31 March 2014
11. World Health Organization. STEPS country reports [Internet]. Available from <http://www.who.int/chp/steps/reports/en/>. Accessed 31 March 2014
12. Sherwin RS, Anderson RM, Buse JB, et al.; American Diabetes Association. The prevention or delay of type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 2003; 26(Suppl. 1):S62–S69
13. Misra A, Ramchandran A, Jayawardena R, Shrivastava U, Snehalatha C. Diabetes in South Asians. *Diabet Med* 2014;31:1153–1162
14. Tin ST, Lee CM, Colagiuri R. A profile of diabetes in Pacific Island Countries and Territories. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2015;107:233–246
15. Xu Y, Wang L, He J, et al.; 2010 China Non-communicable Disease Surveillance Group. Prevalence and control of diabetes in Chinese adults. *JAMA* 2013;310:948–959
16. King H, Keuky L, Seng S, Khun T, Roglic G, Pinget M. Diabetes and associated disorders in Cambodia: two epidemiological surveys. *Lancet* 2005;366:1633–1639
17. Morimoto A, Nishimura R, Tajima N. Trends in the epidemiology of patients with diabetes in Japan. *Japan Med Assoc J* 2010;53:36–40
18. Adam FM, Adam JM, Pandeledi N, Mappangara I. Asymptomatic diabetes: the difference between population-based and office-based screening. *Acta Med Indones* 2006;38:67–71
19. Mihardja L, Delima, Manz HS, Ghani L, Soegondo S. Prevalence and determinants of diabetes mellitus and impaired glucose tolerance in Indonesia (a part of basic health research/Riskesdas). *Acta Med Indones* 2009;41: 169–174
20. Australian Bureau of Statistics. Australian Health Survey: Biomedical results for chronic diseases, 2011–12 [article online]. Available from <http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/DetailsPage/4364.0.55.0052011-12>. Accessed 31 March 2015
21. Ministry of Health Brunei Darussalam. *Health Information Booklet 2010*. Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei Darussalam, 2010. Available from [http://www.moh.gov.bn/SiteCollectionDocuments/Health%20Indicator%20Booklet/HIB\\_2010.pdf](http://www.moh.gov.bn/SiteCollectionDocuments/Health%20Indicator%20Booklet/HIB_2010.pdf). Accessed 12 April 2015
22. Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Shetty AS, Nanditha A. Trends in prevalence of diabetes in Asian countries. *World J Diabetes* 2012;3:110–117
23. Siu SC, Wong KW, Lee KF, et al. Prevalence of undiagnosed diabetes mellitus and cardiovascular risk factors in Hong Kong professional drivers. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2012;96: 60–67
24. University of Health Sciences and the Preventive Medicine Department of the Ministry of Health, Kingdom of Cambodia. *Prevalence of Non-Communicable Disease Risk Factors in Cambodia*. World Health Organization STEPS Survey, Country Report. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, September 2010. Available from [http://www.who.int/chp/steps/2010\\_STEPS\\_Report\\_Cambodia.pdf](http://www.who.int/chp/steps/2010_STEPS_Report_Cambodia.pdf). Accessed 12 April 2015
25. Hu D, Sun L, Fu P, et al. Prevalence and risk factors for type 2 diabetes mellitus in the Chinese adult population: the InterASIA Study. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2009;84:288–295
26. Wan Nazaimon WM, Md Isa SH, Wan Mohamad WB, et al. Prevalence of diabetes in Malaysia and usefulness of HbA1c as a diagnostic criterion. *Diabet Med* 2013;30:825–828
27. World Health Organization. *Mongolian STEPS Survey on the Prevalence of Noncommunicable Disease and Injury Risk Factors-2009*. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, 2010. Available from [http://www.who.int/chp/steps/2009\\_STEPS\\_Report\\_Mongolia.pdf?ua=1](http://www.who.int/chp/steps/2009_STEPS_Report_Mongolia.pdf?ua=1). Accessed 31 January 2014
28. Coppell KJ, Mann JI, Williams SM, et al. Prevalence of diagnosed and undiagnosed diabetes and prediabetes in New Zealand: findings from the 2008/09 Adult Nutrition Survey. *N Z Med J* 2013;126:23–42
29. Kim DJ. The epidemiology of diabetes in Korea. *Diabetes Metab J* 2011;35:303–308
30. Hwang J, Shon C. Relationship between socioeconomic status and type 2 diabetes: results from Korea National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (KNHANES) 2010–2012. *BMJ Open* 2014;4:e005710
31. Singapore Ministry of Health. Disease Burden. Diabetes prevalence in Singapore [Internet], 2015. Available from [https://www.moh.gov.sg/content/moh\\_web/home/statistics/Health\\_Facts\\_Singapore/Disease\\_Burden.html](https://www.moh.gov.sg/content/moh_web/home/statistics/Health_Facts_Singapore/Disease_Burden.html). Accessed 12 April 2015
32. Deerochanawong C, Ferrario A. Diabetes management in Thailand: a literature review of the burden, costs, and outcomes. *Global Health* 2013;9:11
33. Aekplakorn W, Chariyalertsak S, Kessomboon P, et al.; Thai National Health Examination Survey IV Study Group. Prevalence and management of diabetes and metabolic risk factors in Thai adults: the Thai National Health Examination Survey IV, 2009. *Diabetes Care* 2011;34:1980–1985
34. Quang Binh T, Tran Phuong P, Thi Nhung B, et al. Prevalence and correlates of hyperglycemia in a rural population, Vietnam: implications from a cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health* 2012;12:939
35. Zimmet PZ. Kelly West Lecture 1991. Challenges in diabetes epidemiology—from West to the rest. *Diabetes Care* 1992;15:232–252
36. Prior IA, Davidson F. The epidemiology of diabetes in Polynesians and Europeans in New Zealand and the Pacific. *N Z Med J* 1966;65:375–383
37. Zimmet P, Taft P, Guinea A, Guthrie W, Thoma K. The high prevalence of diabetes mellitus on a Central Pacific Island. *Diabetologia* 1977;13:111–115
38. Zimmet P, Dowse G, Finch C, Serjeantson S, King H. The epidemiology and natural history of NIDDM—lessons from the South Pacific. *Diabetes Metab Rev* 1990;6:91–124
39. Collins VR, Dowse GK, Toelue PM, et al. Increasing prevalence of NIDDM in the Pacific island population of Western Samoa over a 13-year period. *Diabetes Care* 1994;17:288–296
40. Colagiuri S, Colagiuri R, Na'ati S, Muimuiheata S, Hussain Z, Palu T. The prevalence of diabetes in the kingdom of Tonga. *Diabetes Care* 2002;25:1378–1383
41. Feisul MI, Azmi S, Ed. *National Diabetes Registry Report, Volume 1, 2009–2012* [Internet], 2013. Kuala Lumpur, Ministry of Health Malaysia. Available from <http://www.moh.gov.my>. Accessed 31 March 2015
42. Saeed KM. Prevalence of risk factors for non-communicable diseases in the adult population of urban areas in Kabul City, Afghanistan. *Cent Asian J Glob Health* 2013;14:386
43. Akter S, Rahman MM, Abe SK, Sultana P. Prevalence of diabetes and prediabetes and their risk factors among Bangladeshi adults: a nationwide survey. *Bull World Health Organ* 2014;92:204–213, 213A
44. Giri BR, Sharma KP, Chapagai RN, Palzom D. Diabetes and hypertension in urban Bhutanese men and women. *Indian J Community Med* 2013;38:138–143
45. Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Kapur A, et al.; Diabetes Epidemiology Study Group in India (DESI). High prevalence of diabetes and impaired glucose tolerance in India: National Urban Diabetes Survey. *Diabetologia* 2001;44: 1094–1101
46. Anjana RM, Pradeepa R, Deepa M, et al.; ICMR–INDIAB Collaborative Study Group. Prevalence of diabetes and prediabetes (impaired fasting glucose and/or impaired glucose tolerance) in urban and rural India: phase I results of the Indian Council of Medical Research–India DIABetes (ICMR–INDIAB) study. *Diabetologia* 2011;54:3022–3027
47. Aboobakar M, Latheef A, Mohamed AJ, et al. Surveillance for non-communicable disease risk factors in Maldives: results from the first STEPS survey in Male. *Int J Public Health* 2010;55:489–496
48. Magliano DJ, Söderberg S, Zimmet PZ, et al. Explaining the increase of diabetes prevalence and plasma glucose in Mauritius. *Diabetes Care* 2012;35:87–91
49. Sharma SK, Ghimire A, Radhakrishnan J, et al. Prevalence of hypertension, obesity, diabetes, and metabolic syndrome in Nepal. *Int J Hypertens* 2011;2011:821971
50. Shera AS, Jawad F, Maqsood A. Prevalence of diabetes in Pakistan. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2007;76:219–222
51. Jayawardena R, Ranasinghe P, Byrne NM, Soares MJ, Katulanda P, Hills AP. Prevalence and trends of the diabetes epidemic in South Asia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Public Health* 2012;25:12380
52. Anjana RM, Shanthi Rani CS, Deepa M, et al. Incidence of diabetes and prediabetes and predictors of progression among Asian Indians: 10-year follow-up of the Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology Study (CURES). *Diabetes Care* 2015;38:1441–1448
53. Ramachandran A, Mary S, Yamuna A, Murugesan N, Snehalatha C. High prevalence of diabetes and cardiovascular risk factors associated with urbanization in India. *Diabetes Care* 2008;31:893–898
54. Ma RC, Chan JC. Type 2 diabetes in East Asians: similarities and differences with populations in Europe and the United States. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2013;1281:64–91
55. Hwang CK, Han PV, Zabetian A, Ali MK, Narayan KM. Rural diabetes prevalence quintuples over twenty-five years in low- and middle-income countries: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2012; 96:271–285

56. Lee JW, Brancati FL, Yeh HC. Trends in the prevalence of type 2 diabetes in Asians versus whites: results from the United States National Health Interview Survey, 1997-2008. *Diabetes Care* 2011;34:353-357
57. King GL, McNeely MJ, Thorpe LE, et al. Understanding and addressing unique needs of diabetes in Asian Americans, native Hawaiians, and Pacific Islanders. *Diabetes Care* 2012;35:1181-1188
58. Karter AJ, Schillinger D, Adams AS, et al. Elevated rates of diabetes in Pacific Islanders and Asian subgroups: The Diabetes Study of Northern California (DISTANCE). *Diabetes Care* 2013;36:574-579
59. Kanaya AM, Herrington D, Vittinghoff E, et al. Understanding the high prevalence of diabetes in U.S. south Asians compared with four racial/ethnic groups: the MASALA and MESA studies. *Diabetes Care* 2014;37:1621-1628
60. Bhopal R, Unwin N, White M, et al. Heterogeneity of coronary heart disease risk factors in Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, and European origin populations: cross sectional study. *BMJ* 1999;319:215-220
61. Hu FB. Globalization of diabetes: the role of diet, lifestyle, and genes. *Diabetes Care* 2011;34:1249-1257
62. Ma RC, Lin X, Jia W. Causes of type 2 diabetes in China. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol* 2014;2:980-991
63. Misra A, Khurana L, Isharwal S, Bhardwaj S. South Asian diets and insulin resistance. *Br J Nutr* 2009;101:465-473
64. Hu EA, Pan A, Malik V, Sun Q. White rice consumption and risk of type 2 diabetes: meta-analysis and systematic review. *BMJ* 2012;344:e1454
65. Mohan V, Radhika G, Sathya RM, Tamil SR, Ganesan A, Sudha V. Dietary carbohydrates, glycaemic load, food groups and newly detected type 2 diabetes among urban Asian Indian population in Chennai, India (Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology Study 59). *Br J Nutr* 2009;102:1498-1506
66. Henry CJ, Lightowler HJ, Newens K, et al. Glycaemic index of common foods tested in the UK and India. *Br J Nutr* 2008;99:840-845
67. Ng SW, Howard AG, Wang HJ, Su C, Zhang B. The physical activity transition among adults in China: 1991-2011. *Obes Rev* 2014;15(Suppl. 1):27-36
68. Nyamadorj R, Pitkaniemi J, Tuomilehto J, et al.; DECODA and DECODE Study Groups. Ethnic comparison of the association of undiagnosed diabetes with obesity. *Int J Obes* 2010;34:332-339
69. Lear SA, Humphries KH, Kohli S, Chockalingam A, Frohlich JJ, Birmingham CL. Visceral adipose tissue accumulation differs according to ethnic background: results of the Multicultural Community Health Assessment Trial (M-CHAT). *Am J Clin Nutr* 2007;86:353-359
70. WHO Expert Consultation. Appropriate body mass index for Asian populations and its complications for policy and intervention strategies. *Lancet* 2004;363:157-163
71. Huxley R, Barzi F, Lee CM, et al.; Obesity in Asia Collaboration. Waist circumference thresholds provide an accurate and widely applicable method for the discrimination of diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 2007;30:3116-3118
72. Cameron AJ, Sicree RA, Zimmet PZ, et al. Cut-points for waist circumference in Europeans and South Asians. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 2010;18:2039-2046
73. Hales CN, Barker DJ. Type 2 (non-insulin-dependent) diabetes mellitus: the thrifty phenotype hypothesis. *Diabetologia* 1992;35:595-601
74. Ravelli AC, van der Meulen JH, Michels RP, et al. Glucose tolerance in adults after prenatal exposure to famine. *Lancet* 1998;351:173-177
75. Li Y, He Y, Qi L, et al. Exposure to the Chinese famine in early life and the risk of hyperglycemia and type 2 diabetes in adulthood. *Diabetes* 2010;59:2400-2406
76. Yajnik CS. Nutrient-mediated teratogenesis and fuel-mediated teratogenesis: two pathways of intrauterine programming of diabetes. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2009;104(Suppl. 1):S27-S31
77. Pettitt DJ, Aleck KA, Baird HR, Carrara MJ, Bennett PH, Knowler WC. Congenital susceptibility to NIDDM. Role of intrauterine environment. *Diabetes* 1988;37:622-628
78. Ma RC, Chan JC, Tam WH, Hanson MA, Gluckman PD. Gestational diabetes, maternal obesity, and the NCD burden. *Clin Obstet Gynecol* 2013;56:633-641
79. Ma RC, Tutino GE, Lillycrop KA, Hanson MA, Tam WH. Maternal diabetes, gestational diabetes and the role of epigenetics in their long term effects on offspring. *Prog Biophys Mol Biol* 2015;118:55-68
80. Guariguata L, Linnenkamp U, Beagley J, Whiting DR, Cho NH. Global estimates of the prevalence of hyperglycaemia in pregnancy. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2014;103:176-185
81. Wong VW. Gestational diabetes mellitus in five ethnic groups: a comparison of their clinical characteristics. *Diabet Med* 2012;29:366-371
82. Zhang F, Dong L, Zhang CP, et al. Increasing prevalence of gestational diabetes mellitus in Chinese women from 1999 to 2008. *Diabet Med* 2011;28:652-657
83. World Health Organization. *Diagnostic Criteria and Classification of Hyperglycaemia First Detected in Pregnancy*. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, 2013. Available from [http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/85975/1/WHO\\_NMH\\_MND\\_13.2\\_eng.pdf](http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/85975/1/WHO_NMH_MND_13.2_eng.pdf). Accessed 20 April 2015
84. Hirst JE, Tran TS, Do MA, Morris JM, Jeffery HE. Consequences of gestational diabetes in an urban hospital in Viet Nam: a prospective cohort study. *PLoS Med* 2012;9:e1001272
85. Hanson MA, Gluckman PD, Ma RC, Matzen P, Biesma RG. Early life opportunities for prevention of diabetes in low and middle income countries. *BMC Public Health* 2012;12:1025
86. Hanson MA, Bardsley A, De-Regil LM, et al. The International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics (FIGO) recommendations on adolescent, preconception, and maternal nutrition: "Think Nutrition First." *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2015;131(Suppl. 4):S213
87. Bennett PH, Lee ET, Lu M, Keen H, Fuller JH. Increased urinary albumin excretion and its associations in the WHO Multinational Study of Vascular Disease in Diabetes. *Diabetologia* 2001;44(Suppl. 2):S37-S45
88. Kenealy T, Elley CR, Collins JF, Moyes SA, Metcalf PA, Drury PL. Increased prevalence of albuminuria among non-European peoples with type 2 diabetes. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2012;27:1840-1846
89. Bhalla V, Zhao B, Azar KM, et al. Racial/ethnic differences in the prevalence of proteinuric and nonproteinuric diabetic kidney disease. *Diabetes Care* 2013;36:1215-1221
90. Yau JW, Rogers SL, Kawasaki R, et al.; Meta-Analysis for Eye Disease (META-EYE) Study Group. Global prevalence and major risk factors of diabetic retinopathy. *Diabetes Care* 2012;35:556-564
91. Tan ED, Davis WA, Davis TM. Changes in characteristics and management of Asian and Anglo-Celts with type 2 diabetes over a 15-year period in an urban Australian community: The Fremantle Diabetes Study. *J Diabetes*. 12 January 2015 [Epub ahead of print]. DOI: 10.1111/1753-0407.12267
92. Kanaya AM, Adler N, Moffet HH, et al. Heterogeneity of diabetes outcomes among Asians and Pacific Islanders in the US: the Diabetes Study of Northern California (DISTANCE). *Diabetes Care* 2011;34:930-937
93. Chi ZS, Lee ET, Lu M, Keen H, Bennett PH. Vascular disease prevalence in diabetic patients in China: standardised comparison with the 14 centres in the WHO Multinational Study of Vascular Disease in Diabetes. *Diabetologia* 2001;44(Suppl. 2):S82-S86
94. Clarke PM, Glasziou P, Patel A, et al.; ADVANCE Collaborative Group. Event rates, hospital utilization, and costs associated with major complications of diabetes: a multicountry comparative analysis. *PLoS Med* 2010;7:e1000236
95. Yang X, So WY, Kong AP, et al. Development and validation of a total coronary heart disease risk score in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Am J Cardiol* 2008;101:596-601
96. Chaturvedi N, Abbott CA, Whalley A, Widdows P, Leggetter SY, Boulton AJ. Risk of diabetes-related amputation in South Asians vs. Europeans in the UK. *Diabet Med* 2002;19:99-104
97. Yeung RO, Zhang Y, Luk A, et al. Metabolic profiles and treatment gaps in young-onset type 2 diabetes in Asia (the JADE programme): a cross-sectional study of a prospective cohort. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol* 2014;2:935-943
98. Chan JC, Lau ES, Luk AO, et al. Premature mortality and comorbidities in young-onset diabetes: a 7-year prospective analysis. *Am J Med* 2014;127:616-624
99. Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C. Diabetes prevention programs. *Med Clin North Am* 2011;95:353-372, viii
100. Knowler WC, Fowler SE, Hamman RF, et al.; Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group. 10-year follow-up of diabetes incidence and weight loss in the Diabetes Prevention Program Outcomes Study. *Lancet* 2009;374:1677-1686
101. Tuomilehto J, Lindström J, Eriksson JG, et al.; Finnish Diabetes Prevention Study Group. Prevention of type 2 diabetes mellitus by changes in lifestyle among subjects with impaired glucose tolerance. *N Engl J Med* 2001;344:1343-1350
102. 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;20:537–544
103. Li G, Zhang P, Wang J, et al. Cardiovascular mortality, all-cause mortality, and diabetes incidence after lifestyle intervention for people with impaired glucose tolerance in the Da Qing Diabetes Prevention Study: a 23-year follow-up study. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol* 2014;2:474–480
104. Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Mary S, Mukesh B, Bhaskar AD, Vijay V; Indian Diabetes Prevention Programme (IDPP). The Indian Diabetes Prevention Programme shows that lifestyle modification and metformin prevent type 2 diabetes in Asian Indian subjects with impaired glucose tolerance (IDPP-1). *Diabetologia* 2006;49:289–297
105. Kosaka K, Noda M, Kuzuya T. Prevention of type 2 diabetes by lifestyle intervention: a Japanese trial in IGT males. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2005;67:152–162
106. Saito T, Watanabe M, Nishida J, et al.; Zensharen Study for Prevention of Lifestyle Diseases Group. Lifestyle modification and prevention of type 2 diabetes in overweight Japanese with impaired fasting glucose levels: a randomized controlled trial. *Arch Intern Med* 2011;1715:1352–1360
107. Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Shetty SA, Nanditha A. Primary prevention trials in type 2 diabetes. In *Global Health Perspectives in Prediabetes and Diabetes Prevention*. Bergman M, Ed. Singapore, World Scientific Publication, 2014, p. 49–74
108. Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Ram J, et al. Effectiveness of mobile phone messaging in prevention of type 2 diabetes by lifestyle modification in men in India: a prospective, parallel-group, randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol* 2013;1:191–198
109. Chan JC, Zhang Y, Ning G. Diabetes in China: a societal solution for a personal challenge. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol* 2014;2:969–979
110. Western Pacific Declaration on Diabetes [Internet], 2001. Available from <http://www.wpdd.org/>. Accessed 20 April 2015
111. Ministry of Health Singapore. National Health Survey 2010 [Internet], 2011. Available from [http://www.moh.gov.sg/content/moh\\_web/home/Publications/Reports/2011/national\\_health\\_survey2010.html](http://www.moh.gov.sg/content/moh_web/home/Publications/Reports/2011/national_health_survey2010.html). Accessed 10 April 2015
112. Phan TP, Alkema L, Tai ES, et al. Forecasting the burden of type 2 diabetes in Singapore using a demographic epidemiological model of Singapore. *BMJ Open Diabetes Res Care* 2014;2:e000012
113. Ang HS. Singapore's Healthier Hawker Programme. Paper presented at the Culinary Institute of America, 15th Annual Worlds of Flavor Conference, 1–3 November 2012, St. Helena, CA
114. Chia SE, Chia A, Sng J. A total workplace safety and health service - what are the implications for the employees and employers? *Ann Acad Med Singapore* 2014;43:475–476