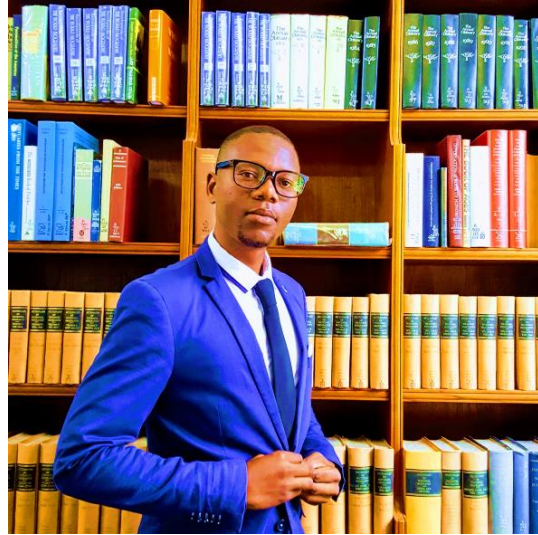


**THE RISK OF METABOLIC SYNDROME AS A RESULT OF LIFESTYLE AMONG  
ELLISRAS RURAL POPULATION: ELLISRAS LONGITUDINAL STUDY**

**MASTER OF SCIENCE  
in  
PHYSIOLOGY**

**M.D SEKGALA**

2019



*“He who receives ideas from me, receives instruction himself without lessening mine; as he who lights his taper at mine, receives light without darkening me.” ~ Thomas Jefferson*

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this dissertation to my family, relatives and friends. I would like to express special gratitude to my mother (Geminah Sekgala) and Grand Mother (Mmakgabo Sekgala), who continuously encouraged and supported me through my studies. My brothers (Joseph, Phillimon, Dipuo and Timothy and my sister Ashley Sekgala) for being supportive and believing in me. Futhermore, I also dedicate this dissertation to my uncle and his wife (Sello Morudi) and (Conny Morudi) for their great support and motivation through my studies. I would also like to thank my dearest friend Sebolelo “Sebo” Khumalo for the words of encouragement and being supportive throughout my studies.

## DECLARATION

I declare that THE RISK OF METABOLIC SYNDROME AS A RESULT OF LIFESTYLE AMONG ELLISRAS RURAL POPULATION: ELLISRAS LONGTUDINAL STUDY is my own work and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated by means of complete reference and that this work has not been submitted before for any other degree at any other institution.

.....

Full names

.....

Date



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly and foremost I acknowledge the fact that I would not be at this point in my life without the guidance and the grace of the divine entity of Jesus Christ. Without any particular order I would like to make use of this opportunity to appreciate the following people.

- My single parent (Germinah Sekgala) for your support, motivation and entrusting me.
- My brother (Joseph Sekgala) and sister (Ashely Sekgala).
- Prof KD Monyeki, Prof A Mogale and Dr W Parker your support, critical revision of the dissertation for important intellectual content, administrative, technical and material support, such as supervision of the study. Your expertise, guidance and professional input as well as your time have been of key importance for the success and completion of this study.
- Prof Z Mchiza, your support, guidance and motivations encouraged me to be strong, Enkosi!!!
- Nophiwe Job, your technical support and guidance were of a high standard
- University of Limpopo, Department of Physiology and Environmental Health as well as Department of Pathology and Medical Sciences staff members and students
- Sefako Makgatho Health Science University department of Human Physiology staff members.
- Human Science Research Council (HSRC), Population Health, Health System and Innovation unit (PHHSI) colleagues
- Financial support received from Vrije University, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, the University of Limpopo, South Africa, National Research Foundation and Human Science Research Council are acknowledged with gratitude. Any opinion, findings and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the authors and therefore the above mentioned funding sources do not accept any liability in regard thereto.
- The authors are indebted to the Ellistras Longitudinal Study administrators Mr Makata TT, Seleka SP, Seleka MS and Makata W for coding the data.

## ABSTRACT

**Introduction:** There is an increased trend in the prevalence of hypertension in children and adolescents in African countries. There are complications in diagnosing hypertension in children and adolescents due to the variation of blood pressure (BP) values with age, gender and height. The progression of the health transition with non-communicable diseases (NCDs) adds significantly to the disease burden, despite infectious diseases and undernutrition remaining persistent in both low and middle-income countries. Metabolic syndrome (MetS) is a global problem associated with the clustering of several cardiovascular risk factors. South African evidence suggests an upsurge of NCDs amidst the existence of communicable diseases (CDs) such as HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis. Moreover, NCDs and CDs in the country are influenced by socio-demographic factors; and thus tend to be more prominent in certain segments of the population.

**Aim and Objectives:** The aim of this study was to perform blood pressure to height ratio and to determine lifestyle risk factors associated with metabolic syndrome among the Ellisras rural population aged 6-30 years, who are part of the ELS.

**Methods and materials:** The current study is based on secondary data analysis of the Ellisras Longitudinal Study (ELS) and was conducted in two phases. Phase 1 included data analysis of all the participants in the ELS. This sample included a total number of 9002 children and adolescents (4678 boys and 4324 girls), aged 6-17 years. Parents or guardians provided written informed consent. Phase 2 consisted of biochemical analysis from a subsample of participants in the ELS. The subsample included 624 participants (306 males and 318 females) aged 18-30 years at the time the study was conducted. All participants underwent a series of anthropometric measurements (waist circumference and height) according to the standard of the International Society for the Advancement of Kinanthropometry (ISAK). The waist circumference (WC) measurements were taken to the nearest 0.1 cm, using a soft measuring tape. Metabolic syndrome was defined according to the International Diabetes Federation (IDF) criteria. Metabolic syndrome risk factors included total cholesterol (TCHOL), triglycerides (TG), high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), elevated fasting blood glucose (FBG), elevated blood pressure (BP) and high waist circumference (WC). A dietary intake questionnaire was also administered to each participant and self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data on

lifestyle factors, including smoking and alcohol intake. Dietary intake variables used in the linear regression method were log transformed prior to analysis because of their skewed distribution. Receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) curve was used to assess the accuracy of BPHR to screen children with prehypertension and hypertension. The optimal systolic BPHR (SBPHR) and diastolic BPHR (DBPHR) cut-off points for hypertension were determined. Sensitivity/specificity, positive predictive values and negative predictive values were calculated.

**Results:** The optimal thresholds for defining prehypertension was 0.77 in children aged 6-10 years and 0.73 in adolescents aged between 11 and 17 years for systolic BPHR and 0.55 in children and 0.53 in adolescents for diastolic BPHR, respectively. The corresponding values for hypertension stage 1 were 0.76 and 0.73 for SBPHR and 0.50 and 0.58 for DBPHR, respectively. The BPHR is an accurate tool for screening elevated BP in Ellisras children aged 6-17 years. This can help to prevent the misclassification of children and adolescent hypertension. Furthermore, this tool can be used to screen children before the development of prehypertension and hypertension. Moreover, it can be used to manage hypertension in Ellisras children, ultimately reducing the risks of developing hypertension and associated cardiovascular disease in adulthood. Overall, the prevalence of metS was 23.1% (8.6% males and 36.8% females). Females appeared to have higher mean values for WC, FBG, TCHOL and LDL-C than males (82.14, 5.62, 4.62 and 2.97, respectively). The only significant gender difference observed was on WC ( $p < 0.001$ ). Males on the other hand had higher mean values for HDL-C, TG, SBP and DBP than females (1.20, 1.06, 125.91 and 71.44, respectively). The only significant difference observed in this case was on SBP ( $p < 0.001$ ). No significant age group differences were observed in all the metabolic risk factors with the exception of DBP where the older (25-30 years) participants presented with high SBP than the younger age group (18-24 years) (70.96 mmHg vs 68.78 mmHg,  $p < 0.05$ ). While, majority of females had significantly high WC, elevated total cholesterol and LDL-C, and reduced HDL-C; majority of males had elevated BP, SBP and DBP. No significant age and gender differences were observed on dietary intake. However, according to the linear regression analysis, no association between log total energy, log added sugar, log SFA and log MUFA with metabolic risk factors. There was a low and negative significant association between log fibre with SBP and DBP ( $\beta$ :-0.004,  $p=0.003$  and  $\beta$ :-0.004,  $p=0.046$ ), respectively, crude. After adjusting for the potential

confounding factors, log fibre was also associated with FBG ( $\beta$ : -0.028,  $p=0.046$ ). Log PUFAs was inversely associated with FBG, HDL-C and SBP crude. Log trans fatty acids was inversely associated with WC, HDL-C and SBP crude. Both log PUFAs and log trans fatty acids were not associated with any metabolic risk factors after adjusting for potential cofounding factors. Log protein was inversely associated with SBP both crude and adjusted for potential cofounding factors. On predicting the actual risk using the logistic regression analysis, participants who had high dietary energy intake were significantly less likely to present with larger WC, low HDL-C and high LDL-C (OR: 0.250 95%CI [0.161;0.389], OR: 0.306 95%CI [0.220;0.425] and OR: 0.583 95%CI [0.418;0.812], respectively), but more likely to presents with elevated FBG, high TCHOL, high TG and hypertension (OR: 1.01 95%CI [0.735;1.386], OR: 1.039 95%CI [0.575;1.337], OR: 1.186 95%CI [0.695;2.023], OR: 5.205 95%CI [3.156;8.585], respectively) crude. After adjusting for age, gender, smoking and alcohol status, high energy intake was more likely to increase two times high the large WC and elevated FBG among study participants (OR: 2.766 95%CI [0.863;3.477] and OR: 2.227 95%CI [1.051;3.328], respectively). Furthermore, low dietary fibre intake was nearly four times more likely to increase the low HDL-C, crude (OR: 3.864 95%CI [1.067;13.988]) crude. Those participants who consumed high trans fats were more likely to present with high FBG (OR:1.424 95%CI [0.985;2.060]), but less likely to present with LDL-C (OR: 0.540 95%CI [0.321;0.906]) crude. However, after adding potential cofounding factors, participants with high fatty acid were less likely to present with high FBG (OR: 0.672 95%CI [0.441;1.023]).

**Conclusions:** MetS is prevalent in young adults in Ellisras and is differentiated by age and gender with more females at an increased rate by virtue of their body size status, reduced HDL-C, elevated FBG and high LDL-C and the diet they consume that is in most cases high energy, more carbohydrates, high added sugar and SFA. Therefore, identifying groups that are at an increased risk and those that are in their early stages of MetS will help improve and prevent the increase of the metS in the future. These results have high policy implications.

## KEY CONCEPTS

Metabolic syndrome; risk factors; blood pressure; blood pressure to height ratio; cardiovascular disease; dietary intake; rural South African.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

page

<b>DEDICATION</b> .....	iii
<b>DECLARATION</b> .....	iv
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	v
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	vi
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b> .....	ix
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	xii
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	xiii
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS</b> .....	xiv
<b>CHAPTER 1</b> .....	1
<b>1. PROBLEM STATEMENT AND AIM OF THE STUDY</b> .....	1
<b>1.1. PROBLEM STATEMENT</b> .....	2
<b>1.2. RATIONALE</b> .....	2
1.2.1. <i>Aim of the study</i> .....	3
<b>1.3. SCIENTIFIC CONTRIBUTION</b> .....	3
<b>1.4. STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION</b> .....	4
<b>1.5. REFERENCES</b> .....	5
<b>CHAPTER 2</b> .....	7
<b>2. LITERATURE REVIEW</b> .....	7
<b>INTRODUCTION</b> .....	8
<b>1. Criteria for the diagnosis of metabolic syndrome</b> .....	10
<b>2. Determinants of metabolic syndrome</b> .....	12
<b>2.1. Controllable risk factors</b> .....	12
2.1.1. Increased waist circumference (WC) .....	13
2.1.1.1. Complications associated with elevated waist circumference .....	13
2.1.2. High blood pressure .....	14
2.1.2.1. Complications associated with high blood pressure .....	16
2.1.2.2. Measurements of blood pressure .....	16
2.1.2.3. <i>Blood pressure in children and the need to develop a tool-blood pressure to height ratio</i> .....	18
2.1.2.4. <i>Blood pressure to height ratio as a tool to screen elevated blood pressure in children</i> .....	18
2.1.3. Elevated fasting blood glucose .....	19

2.1.3.1.	<i>Complications associated with elevated fasting blood glucose</i> .....	19
2.1.3.2.	<i>Measurement of fasting blood glucose</i> .....	20
2.1.4.	Abnormal Lipids profile .....	20
2.1.4.1.	<i>Complications associated with abnormal lipids profiles</i> .....	21
2.1.4.2.	<i>Measurement of cholesterol and triglycerides</i> .....	22
2.1.5.	Environment and diet .....	22
2.1.5.1.	<i>Sedentary lifestyle and urbanization</i> .....	23
2.1.5.2.	<i>Dietary intake habits</i> .....	23
2.1.5.3.	<i>Complication associated with poor nutritional intake and physical inactivity</i> .....	24
<b>2.2.</b>	<b>Non controllable risk factors</b> .....	25
2.2.1.	Age.....	25
2.2.2.	Gender.....	25
2.2.3.	Ethnicity.....	25
2.2.4.	Genetics .....	26
<b>2.3.</b>	<b>SUMMARY</b> .....	27
<b>2.4.</b>	<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	29
<b>CHAPTER 3</b>	.....	45
<b>1.</b>	<b>MATERIALS AND METHODS</b> .....	45
1.1.	<b>GEOGRAPHICAL AREA</b> .....	45
1.2.	<b>SAMPLE AND RESEARCH DESIGN</b> .....	46
1.3.	<b>MEASUREMENTS</b> .....	47
3.3.1.	<b>Anthropometry</b> .....	47
3.3.2.	<b>Blood pressure</b> .....	47
3.3.3.	<b>Dietary intake</b> .....	49
3.3.4.	<b>Biochemical parameters</b> .....	50
1.4.	<b>QUALITY CONTROL</b> .....	51
1.5.	<b>STATISTICAL ANALYSIS</b> .....	52
1.6.	<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	55
<b>CHAPTER 4</b>	.....	57
<b>4.</b>	<b>RESULTS AND DISCUSSION</b> .....	57
4.1.	<b>Development of height and blood pressure to height ratio in the ELS children aged 6-17 years between 1999-2003 (Phase 1)</b> .....	58
4.2.	<b>Metabolic syndrome risk factors in the ELS subsample, aged 18-30 years</b> .....	63
	<b>(Phase 2)</b> .....	63

<b>4.3. The prevalence of metabolic syndrome risk factors and dietary intake among subsample aged 18-30 years</b> .....	67
<b>4.4. REFERENCES</b> .....	83
<b>CHAPTER 5</b> .....	89
<b>5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS</b> .....	89
<b>5.1. INTRODUCTION</b> .....	90
<b>5.2. SUMMARY</b> .....	90
<b>5.3. CONCLUSIONS</b> .....	92
<b>5.4. RECOMMENDATIONS</b> .....	95
<b>5.5. REFERENCES</b> .....	96
<b>APPENDIXES</b> .....	100
APPENDIX A (DATA FORM) .....	101
Biochemical measurements and life style .....	101
APPENDIX B (DATA FORM) .....	104
Anthropometry and blood pressure data form .....	104
APPENDIX C (DATA FORM) .....	105
24 hour recall (Dietary intake) .....	105
APPENDIX D .....	119
ELS Ethics committee clearance letter .....	119
APPENDIX E .....	120
Consent form .....	120
APPENDIX F .....	124
Ellisras community letter .....	124
PEER REVIEWED ARTICLES EMANATING FROM THE DISSERTATION .....	126
<b>1. Sekgala MD, Monyeki KD, Mogale MA, Ramoshaba NE. Performance of blood pressure to height ratio as a screening tool for elevated blood pressure in rural children: Ellisras Longitudinal Study. <i>Journal of Human Hypertension</i>. 2017 April. 06.....</b>	126
<b>2. M.D Sekgala, K.D Monyeki<sup>1</sup>, A. Mogale, Z.J Mchiza, W. Parker, S.R Choma, H.M Makgopa. The risk of metabolic syndrome as a result of lifestyle among Ellisras rural young adults. <i>Journal of Human Hypertension</i>, 2018. ....</b>	126

## LIST OF FIGURES

- Figure 1 A summary of Renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system (RAAS)
- Figure 2 The pathogenesis cardiovascular diseases in the metabolic syndrome
- Figure 3 The pathways of obesity influencing the Cardiovascular diseases gender
- Figure 4 Shows the normal artery and narrowed artery by plaques
- Figure 5 The South African map showing the Ellisras area
- Figure 6 Picture shows blood pressure measurements
- Figure 7 Picture of a fieldworker capturing a data
- Figure 8 Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome risk factors in the total sample, males and females in 18-30 year of Ellisras young adults
- Figure 9 Prevalence of metabolic syndrome risk factors in the total sample, males and females in age group 18-24 year of Ellisras young adults
- Figure 10 Prevalence of metabolic syndrome risk factors in the total sample, males and females in age group 25-30 year of Ellisras young adults



## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Criteria for diagnosis of metabolic syndrome.
Table 2	Descriptive statistics for the development of height and blood pressure by age and gender of ELS children overtime (1999-2003).
Table 3	Selection of optimal thresholds of SBPHR/DBPHR for Identifying elevated BP in ELS children Aged 6 to 17 years, (Boys n=4678), (Girls n=4324)
Table 4	Performances of Optimal Thresholds of SBPHR/DBPHR for Identifying Prehypertension and Hypertension in ELS Children Aged 6-17 year.
Table 5	Descriptive statistics for metS risk factors of Ellisras adults by age group and gender
Table 6	The prevalence of dietary intake of the participants
Table 7	Regression coefficient showing the association of dietary intake with various metS risk factors of Ellisras adults.
Table 8	Binary logistic regression analysis to show dietary predictors of metS risk factors in young adults of Ellisras.

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AACE	American Association of Clinical Endocrinology
AHA/NHLBI	American Heart Association/National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute
AUC	Area under curve
BMI	Body Mass Index
BP	Blood pressure
BPHR	Blood Pressure to-Height Ratio
CDL	Chronic Diseases of lifestyle
CHD	Coronary Heart Disease
CVDs	Cardiovascular diseases
DBP	Diastolic blood pressure
DBPHR	Diastolic blood pressure to height ratio
DCCT	Diabetes Control and Complications Trial
EGIR	European Group for the Study of Insulin Resistance
ELS	Ellisras Longitudinal Study
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FBG	Fasting Blood Glucose
FFAs	Free Fatty Acids
GI	Glycemic Index
HDL-C	High Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol

HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus infection and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HPA	Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal axis
IDF	International Diabetes Federation
IGT	Impaired Glucose Tolerance
IOTF	International Obesity Task Force
IQR	Inter Quartile Range
IR	Insulin Resistance
ISAK	International Society for the Advancement of Kinanthropometry
LDL-C	Low Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol
metS	Metabolic syndrome
MiRNA	Micro RNAs.
MRC	Medical Research Council
MUFAs	Monounsaturated Fatty Acids
NCD	Non-communicable Diseases
NCEP:ATP	National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel
NEFA	Non-Esterified Fatty Acid
NHANES	National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey
OGTT	Oral glucose tolerance test
OR	Odds Ratio
PUFAs	Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids
RAAS	Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System
RDA	Recommended Dietary Allowance
ROC	Receiver operating characteristics
SA	South Africa

SBP	Systolic blood pressure
SBPHR	Systolic blood pressure to height ratio
SD	Standard Deviation
SNS	Sympathetic Nervous System
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TCHOL	Total cholesterol
TG	Triglycerides
TB	Tuberculosis
TEM	Technical Error of Measurements
US	United States
WHO	World Health Organisation

# CHAPTER 1

## 1. PROBLEM STATEMENT AND AIM OF THE STUDY

## **1.1. PROBLEM STATEMENT**

As far as twenty years ago the World Health Organization (WHO) projected that non-communicable diseases (NCDs) would account for approximately three quarters of all deaths in developing countries by 2020 (WHO, 1997). Metabolic syndrome (metS) has been considered to be one of the fastest developing NCDs entities in the world (Ford *et al.*, 2004). Based on current population estimates, nearly 100 million people have metS (Roberts *et al.*, 2013). The metS is comprised of interconnected risk factors as a result of lifestyle; such as elevated blood pressure (BP), waist circumference (WC), fasting blood glucose (FBG) and low high density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) (Alberti *et al.*, 2006). According to Moreno Franco *et al.* (2014), there is an association between dietary intake and metS risk factors. However, studies that examine the combination of dietary intake and risk factors of metS in the black rural South African population are limited.

## **1.2. RATIONALE**

Metabolic syndrome is a collective global public health problem that is categorized by a group of metabolic risk factors in persons. Metabolic syndrome is associated with an increased risk of diabetes mellitus and cardiovascular diseases (Galassi *et al.*, 2006). Moore *et al.* (2015) maintained that major risk factors for the metS include: elevated WC, BP, FBG and low HDL-C. According to Okada *et al.* (2016), an increased WC is generally associated with abdominal obesity and it is used in the definition of metS. Among other risk factors, WC was said to be a contributing risk factor in elderly people's attainment of developing metS (Gozashti *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, Li *et al.* (2011) suggested that measurement of low HDL-C might also serve as a simple and convenient way to identify individuals at high risk of having metS. Current evidence indicated that low HDL-C was able to predict metS in young adult populations (Liu and Reaven, 2013).

Elevated BP among children and adults has become a serious public health problem worldwide (Ingelfinger, 2014). Elevated FBG is an epidemic in industrialised countries as it is associated with high morbidity and mortality rates (Ogden *et al.*, 2006). In other studies, multiple incidences of metabolic abnormalities were reported

in participants with elevated FBG (Eckel *et al.*, 2005; Tamang *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, additional research is required in this field.

Preliminary results of the Ellisras Longitudinal Study (ELS) showed that there was a slight increase in the prevalence of overweight and hypertension over time (Monyeki *et al.*, 2008). Furthermore, significant relationships between BP and WC and body mass index (BMI) at a younger age were reported cross-sectionally (Monyeki *et al.*, 2008). However, little is known about the relationship between dietary intake and MetS status in the Ellisras rural population.

### *1.2.1. Aim of the study*

The aim of this study was to determine lifestyle risk factors associated with metabolic syndrome among the Ellisras rural population aged 6–30 years, who are part of the ELS.

The objectives of this study were:

- i. To determine the performance of blood pressure to height ratio as a screening tool for elevated blood pressure in rural children.
- ii. To determine the prevalence of risk factors for metabolic syndrome (total cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, hypertension, triglycerides, waist circumference and fasting blood glucose levels).
- iii. To determine the association between dietary intake and metabolic syndrome risk factors.
- iv. To determine the risk of developing metabolic syndrome

## **1.3. SCIENTIFIC CONTRIBUTION**

The results of this study addressed the current prevalence of metabolic syndrome among rural young adults in South Africa in order to improve interventions to reduce metS. The aim and objectives highlight the risk factors that contribute to the development of the metS. Furthermore, the results of the study were presented to the Ellisras community for the purposes of education.

#### **1.4. STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION**

1. Chapter 1                      Problems statement, rationale and aim of the study
2. Chapter 2                      Literature review
3. Chapter 3                      Materials and methods
4. Chapter 4                      Results and Discussion
5. Chapter 5                      Summary, conclusion and recommendations
6. Articles published to International peer reviewed Journals will be compiled as an addendum



## 1.5. REFERENCES

1. Alberti, K.G.M.M., Zimmet, P. and Shaw, J., 2006. Metabolic syndrome—A new world-wide definition. A consensus statement from the international diabetes federation. *Diabet. Med*, 23, pp.469–480.
2. Eckel, R.H., Grundy, S.M. and Zimmet, P.Z., 2005. The metabolic syndrome. *The lancet*, 365(9468), pp.1415–1428.
3. Ford, E.S., Giles, W.H. and Mokdad, A.H., 2004. Increasing prevalence of the metabolic syndrome among US adults. *Diabetes care*, 27(10), pp.2444–2449.
4. Galassi, A., Reynolds, K. and He, J., 2006. Metabolic syndrome and risk of cardiovascular disease: a meta-analysis. *The American journal of medicine*, 119(10), pp.812–819.
5. Gozashti, M.H., Najmeasadat, F., Mohadeseh, S. and Najafipour, H., 2014. Determination of most suitable cut off point of waist circumference for diagnosis of metabolic syndrome in Kerman. *Diabetes & Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research & Reviews*, 8(1), pp.8–12.
6. Ingelfinger, J.R., 2014. The child or adolescent with elevated blood pressure. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 370(24), pp.2316–2325.
7. Li, C., Ford, E.S., McBride, P.E., Kwiterovich, P.O., McCrindle, B.W. and Gidding, S.S., 2011. Non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol concentration is associated with the metabolic syndrome among US youth aged 12-19 years. *The Journal of pediatrics*, 158(2), pp.201–207.
8. Liu, A. and Reaven, G.M., 2013. Is measurement of non-HDL cholesterol an effective way to identify the metabolic syndrome?. *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases*, 23(11), pp.1122–1127.
9. Monyeki, K.D. and Kemper, H.C.G., 2008. The risk factors for elevated blood pressure and how to address cardiovascular risk factors: a review in paediatric populations. *Journal of human hypertension*, 22(7), p.450.
10. Monyeki, K.D., Kemper, H.C.G. and Makgae, P.J., 2008. Relationship between fat patterns, physical fitness and blood pressure of rural South African children: Ellisras Longitudinal Growth and Health Study. *Journal of human hypertension*, 22(5), pp.311–319.

11. Moore, L.M., Fals, A.M., Jennelle, P.J., Green, J.F., Pepe, J. and Richard, T., 2015. Analysis of pediatric waist to hip ratio relationship to metabolic syndrome markers. *Journal of Pediatric Health Care*, 29(4), pp.319–324.
12. Moreno Franco, B., León Latre, M., Andrés Esteban, E.M., Ordovás, J.M., Casasnovas, J.A., Peñalvo, J.L., 2014. Soluble and insoluble dietary fibre intake and risk factors for metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular disease in middle-aged adults: The AWHIS cohort. *Nutr. Hosp*, 30, pp.1279–1288.
13. Ogden, C.L., Carroll, M.D., Curtin, L.R., McDowell, M.A., Tabak, C.J. and Flegal, K.M., 2006. Prevalence of overweight and obesity in the United States, 1999-2004. *Jama*, 295(13), pp.1549–1555.
14. Okada, R., Yasuda, Y., Tsushita, K., Wakai, K., Hamajima, N. and Matsuo, S., 2016. Upper-normal waist circumference is a risk marker for metabolic syndrome in normal-weight subjects. *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases*, 26(1), pp.67–76.
15. Roberts, C.K., Hevener, A.L. and Barnard, R.J., 2013. Metabolic syndrome and insulin resistance: underlying causes and modification by exercise training. *Comprehensive Physiology*.
16. Tamang, H.K., Timilsina, U., Thapa, S., Singh, K.P., Shrestha, S., Singh, P. and Shrestha, B., 2013. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome among Nepalese type 2 diabetic patients. *Nepal Med Coll J*, 15(1), pp.50–55.
17. World Health Organization, *Global strategy for non-communicable disease prevention and control (draft)*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 1997. Publication no. WHO/NCD/GS/97.1.

# CHAPTER 2

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

## INTRODUCTION

In 1997, the WHO estimated that non-communicable diseases (NCDs) would account for approximately three quarters of all deaths in developing countries by 2020 (WHO, 1997). By 2008, NCDs caused about 36 million deaths globally, with 80% of these occurring in low-income and middle-income countries (Wild and Green, 2000; WHO, 2012). This increased disease burden occurs as a result of the increased prevalence of various risk factors for NCDs such as obesity, blood pressure, cholesterol and tobacco use (Boutayeb and Boutayeb, 2005). In order to address the NCD epidemic, Ezzati, *et al* (2005), recommended that prevention of obesity should be prioritised from the early stages of economic growth, followed by the personal intervention for blood pressure and cholesterol at a population level.

A number of studies have reported the increasing epidemic of NCDs in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), these include cancers, cardiovascular diseases and metabolic diseases such as overweight/obesity, type 2 diabetes mellitus, chronic lung disease and depression (Ezzati *et al.*, 2005; Mensah, 2008; Connor *et al.*, 2007; Daar *et al.*, 2007). Stroke and several other vascular diseases are also known to contribute to the NCD burden (Connor *et al.*, 2007). The emerging epidemic of NCDs in SSA have been attributed to the changes in economic growth, global urbanization, lifestyle habits, the nutritional transition and aging (Longo-Mbenza *et al.*, 2010; WHO, 2000; Moore *et al.*, 2015; Yusuf *et al.*, 2001). The increasing burden of NCDs will escalate further over the coming decades if the necessary precautions to prevent this trend are not taken (Abegunde *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, early intervention and diagnoses of these NCD risk factors will be beneficial to the countries in SSA.

South Africa as a developing country is also undergoing a health transition in form of a rising epidemic of infectious diseases and NCD, as well as perinatal and maternal problems and challenges related to injuries and violence (Bourne *et al.*, 2002; Bradshaw *et al.*, 2003). As such SA is experiencing a quadruple burden of disease.

Metabolic syndrome (metS) has been considered to be one of the fastest developing NCDs entities in the world (Ford *et al.*, 2004; Mottillo *et al.*, 2010). Metabolic syndrome is characterized by a group of risk factors that co-exist in an individual. Therefore, metS shares similar risk factors to that of NCDs, such as elevated blood

pressure, glucose intolerance and insulin resistance. These risk factors have been associated with obesity, thereby suggesting the interrelation between NCDs and metS (McKeigue *et al.*, 1998). Furthermore, the relationship between obesity and the metS was reported in a study in which surgical removal of visceral fat was associated with improved insulin sensitivity and delayed development of type 2 diabetes mellitus (Gabriely *et al.*, 2002).

Worldwide, the metS pandemic is considered as a high economic cost complex disorder and it has become one of the major public health challenges (Kassi *et al.*, 2011). The risk factors associated with this syndrome are linked to diabetes and CVDs in both adolescents and adults (Bao *et al.*, 1994; Bao *et al.*, 1996; Eckel *et al.*, 2005). Stern *et al.* (2004) emphasized that individuals who have metS are fivefold more likely to develop type 2 diabetes. Based on current population estimates, nearly 100 million people have metS (Roberts *et al.*, 2013). In which around 20% is reported in adults without type 2 diabetes and approximately 80% in adults living with type 2 diabetes (Agomuoh *et al.*, 2006).

The prevalence of metS increased from 29.2 to 34.2% in the U.S according to the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) between 1999 and 2006 (Mozumdar and Liguori, 2011). For the past decades, the prevalence of type 2 diabetes mellitus and obesity has been on the rise (Cook *et al.*, 2003). There was approximately 65% prevalence of the US adult population with overweight. This might explain the increasing epidemic of metS in high income countries. Similar increase was observed in Asian countries (Nestel *et al.*, 2007).

The subject of metS has received much attention in Africa recently, due to increasing awareness of its association with CVD related deaths (Vorster, 2002; Bruno *et al.*, 2004; Isezuo and Ezunu, 2005). Previously, the burden of diseases among Africans was mainly attributable to infectious diseases. Nowadays, however, Africa is experiencing an epidemiological transition with increased cardiovascular disorders, which has resulted in a double burden of disease on the continent (Okafor, 2012). The evidence of the link between metS and diabetes is a milestone, given that the prevalence of metS is significantly higher in diabetic patients than healthy individuals of Nigeria (Ogbera, 2010).

Metabolic syndrome is now very common even in the South African population. The prevalence of individual risk factors of the metS are reported in a few South African provinces. The prevalence of metS ranged from 42.6% to 62.0% in the Western Cape (Kruger and Nell, 2017; Erasmus *et al.*, 2012) to 5.9% in Eastern Cape (Sekokotla *et al.*, 2017), 22.1% in Kwazulu Natal (Motala *et al.*, 2011) and 52.2% and 39.7% in the rural and urban Free State (Van Zyl *et al.*, 2012). To date, there is no study done in Limpopo province to determine the prevalence of metS. Further studies in rural South African areas are needed to determine if the prevalence of metS is heterogeneous and come-up with ways to prevent the metS from becoming a social and economic problem in the near future.

### **1. Criteria for the diagnosis of metabolic syndrome**

There are several criteria in the literature for diagnosing metS including the WHO, 1998 (Alberti *et al.*, 1998); the European Group for the Study of Insulin Resistance (EGIR); 1999 (Balkau and Charles, 1999); the National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel (NCEP: ATP III), the American Association of Clinical Endocrinology (AACE), 2003 (Einhorn *et al.*, 2003); the American Heart Association/National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (AHA/NHLBI), 2004 (Grundy *et al.*, 2004) and the International Diabetes Federation (IDF) (Europe) (Alberti *et al.*, 2005). These different diagnostic criteria for metS are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1 Criteria for the diagnosis of metabolic syndrome

WHO, 1998 (Alberti <i>et al.</i> , 1998) Insulin resistance is defined as type 2 diabetes mellitus or (IFG) (> 100 mg/dl) or (IGT), plus two of the following are present	EGIR (1999) (Balkau and Charles, 1999) Insulin resistance is defined as insulin levels > 75th percentile of non-diabetic patients, plus two of the following are present	NCEP: ATP III, 2001 (NCEP, 2001) MetS is diagnosed if any three of the following are present	AACE, 2003 (Einhorn <i>et al.</i> , 2003) MetS is diagnosed if IGT plus two or more of the following are present	IDF (2005) (Alberti <i>et al.</i> , 2005) MetS is diagnosed if Central obesity (defined as waist circumference but can be assumed if BMI > 30 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) with ethnicity-specific values, waist circumference must be of Europeans, > 94 cm in men and > 80 cm in women plus two of the following are present.	AHA/NHLBI, 2004 (Grundy <i>et al.</i> , 2004) MetS is diagnosed if any three of the following are present
Abdominal obesity (BMI) > 30 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	Waist circumference ≥94 cm in men, ≥80 cm in women.	Waist circumference > 102 cm in men, > 88 cm in women.	BMI ≥25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	Triglycerides ≥150 mg/dl	Waist circumference ≥102 cm in men, ≥ 88 cm in women.
Triglycerides ≥150 mg/dl HDL-cholesterol < 40 mg/dl in men and < 50 mg/dl in women.	Triglycerides ≥150 mg/dl, HDL-cholesterol < 39 mg/dl in men or women.	Triglycerides ≥150 mg/dl	Triglycerides ≥150 mg/dl, HDL-cholesterol < 40 mg/dl in men and < 50 mg/dl in women.	HDL-cholesterol < 40 mg/dl (1.03 mmol/L) in men and < 50 mg/dl (1.29 mmol/L) in women.	Triglycerides ≥150 mg/dl.
BP ≥140/90 mmHg	BP ≥140/90 mmHg or taking antihypertensive drugs.	HDL-cholesterol < 40 mg/dl in men and < 50 mg/dl in women.	BP ≥130/85 mmHg	BP ≥130/85 mmHg	HDL-cholesterol < 40 mg/dl in men and < 50 mg/dl in women.
Microalbuminuria (urinary albumin secretion rate >20 µg/min or albumin-to-creatinine ratio >30 mg/g or	Fasting glucose >110 mg/dl	BP ≥130/85 mmHg	.	Fasting blood glucose ≥100 mg/dl	BP ≥130/85 mmHg
Fasting blood glucose ≥110 mg/dl					

*MetS=metabolic syndrome; IFG=impaired fasting glucose; IGT=impaired glucose tolerance; HDL-C=high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; BP=blood pressure; BMI=body mass index; EGIR =european group for the study of insulin resistance; NCEP:ATP III=national cholesterol education program adult treatment panel III; AACE=american association of clinical endocrinology criteria; IDF=international diabetes federation; AHA/NHLBI=american heart association/national heart, lung, and blood institute*

Table 1 shows that the WHO considered screening metS focusing on the insulin resistance (IR) or type 2 diabetes mellitus as they are important components of metS. Microalbuminuria was considered among other risk factors included in the diagnosis of metS. EGIR considered an IR as the major criteria for metS with WC but not BMI. In 2001, NCEP: ATP III and AHA/NHLBI proposed the new definition in which all the risk factors were considered significant as long as more than three are present. Additionally, IDF published a new definition that differed from the other definitions as IR was not considered a major component of metS. There is no specific criteria for diagnosing the metS in South Africa. However, the IDF developed the new definition for Sub-Saharan countries. For the purpose of this study, IDF criteria is used for diagnosing the metS. IDF focused on the WC as a prerequisite for diagnosing metS. Waist circumference is a surrogate measure of central obesity, the cornerstone of metS (Kassi, 2011). Several independent researches done in South Africa and Africa in general used the IDF criterion (Kelliny *et al.*, 2008; Longo-Mbenza *et al.*, 2010; Motala *et al.*, 2011; Erasmus *et al.*, 2012; Kruger and Nell, 2017). Elevated BP, triglycerides and HDL-C were considered the same risk level in all definitions. All these discrepancies in the definition of metS have influenced the prevalence of metS at an individual and population level. The need to have one practical definition to accurately diagnose an individual with metS is crucial.

## **2. Determinants of metabolic syndrome**

Metabolic syndrome (metS) is a collective global public health issue that is associated with a cluster of risk factors that co-exist in an individual (Oron-Herman *et al.*, 2008; Eckel *et al.*, 2010). These risk factors can be divided into controllable and uncontrollable risk factors.

### **2.1. Controllable risk factors**

Clustering risk factors of the metS have become the leading cause of mortality and morbidity in both developing and developed countries (Li *et al.*, 2013). These risk factors are untreatable but can only be controlled and managed, therefore it is important to note the controllable risk factors of the metS. These include excess body fat around the waist, high blood pressure, high blood sugar or IR, elevated



cholesterol levels, sedentary lifestyle; poor nutritional dietary intake, physical inactivity and tobacco smoking and alcohol abuse.

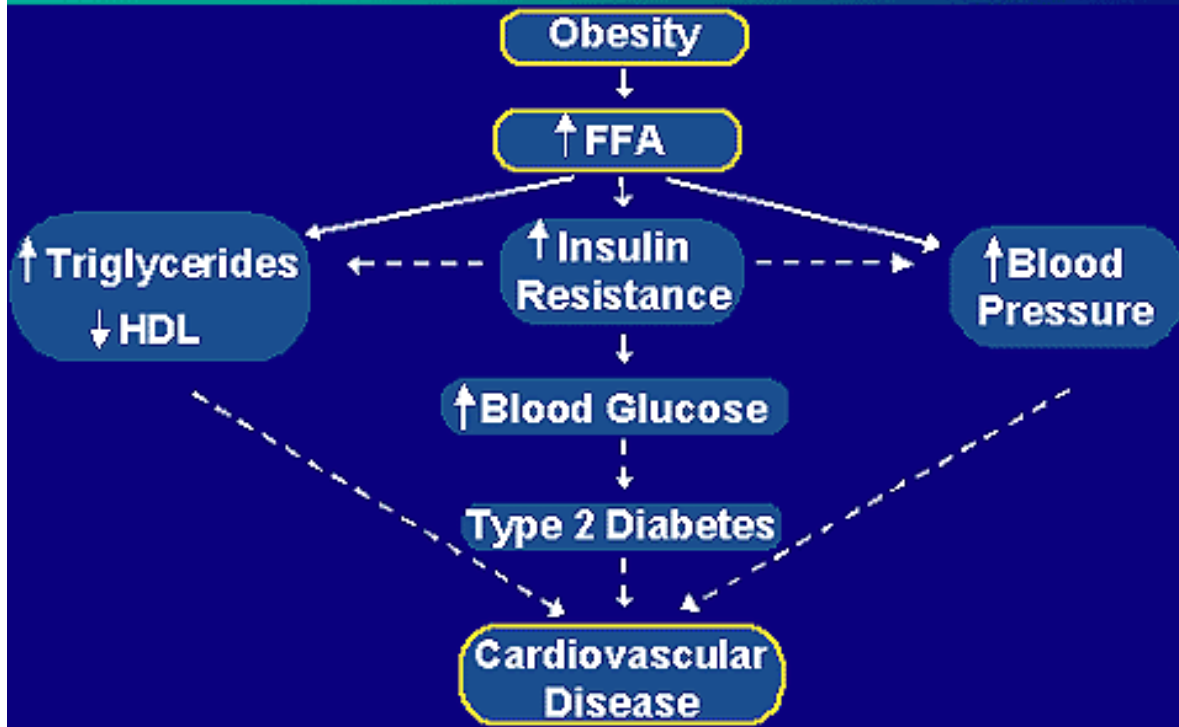
#### 2.1.1. Increased waist circumference (WC)

According to Okada *et al.* (2016), an increased WC is generally associated with abdominal obesity and it is used in the definition of metS. The cut off points for elevated WC are ( $\geq 94$ cm in males,  $\geq 80$ cm in females) (Alberti *et al.*, 2009). Among other risk factors, WC was said to be the biggest contributing risk factor to developing metS in elderly participants (Gozashti *et al.*, 2014). Reportedly, 24-65% and 43-78% of European females and males, respectively, were living with obesity and had been diagnosed with metS (van Vliet-Ostaptchouk *et al.*, 2014). Subsequently, these epidemiological transitions regarding the components of metS have recently been observed in SSA and have been considered to have extended to an epidemic stage, in early adulthood as well (Okafor, 2012). In Nigeria, the prevalence of metS was 28% (Oguoma *et al.*, 2015). These evidence the great associations between weight gain and metS. Meanwhile, the performance of waist-to-height ratio is found to be the better predictor in Nigerian population (Oguoma *et al.*, 2015).

##### 2.1.1.1. Complications associated with elevated waist circumference

Abdominal obesity (measured by waist circumference (WC)) refers to the excessive body fat which has become the most important public health issue. Amongst other complications, WC is shown to be associated with an increased risk of Myocardial Infarction, stroke and early mortality (WHO, 2008). However, these diseases are not associated with general obesity measured by BMI (Larsson *et al.*, 1984). In short, large amounts of free fatty acids (FFAs) are released the portal system in the liver by the intra-abdominal fat mass and disturbs hepatic insulin absorption (Björntorp, 1990). Intra-abdominal fats cause the turnover of FFAs distribution in the organs (Weiss, 2007). Consequently, cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) increases as a result of increased free fatty acids (FFAs) as shown in figure 3.

## Metabolic Syndrome: The Role of Obesity



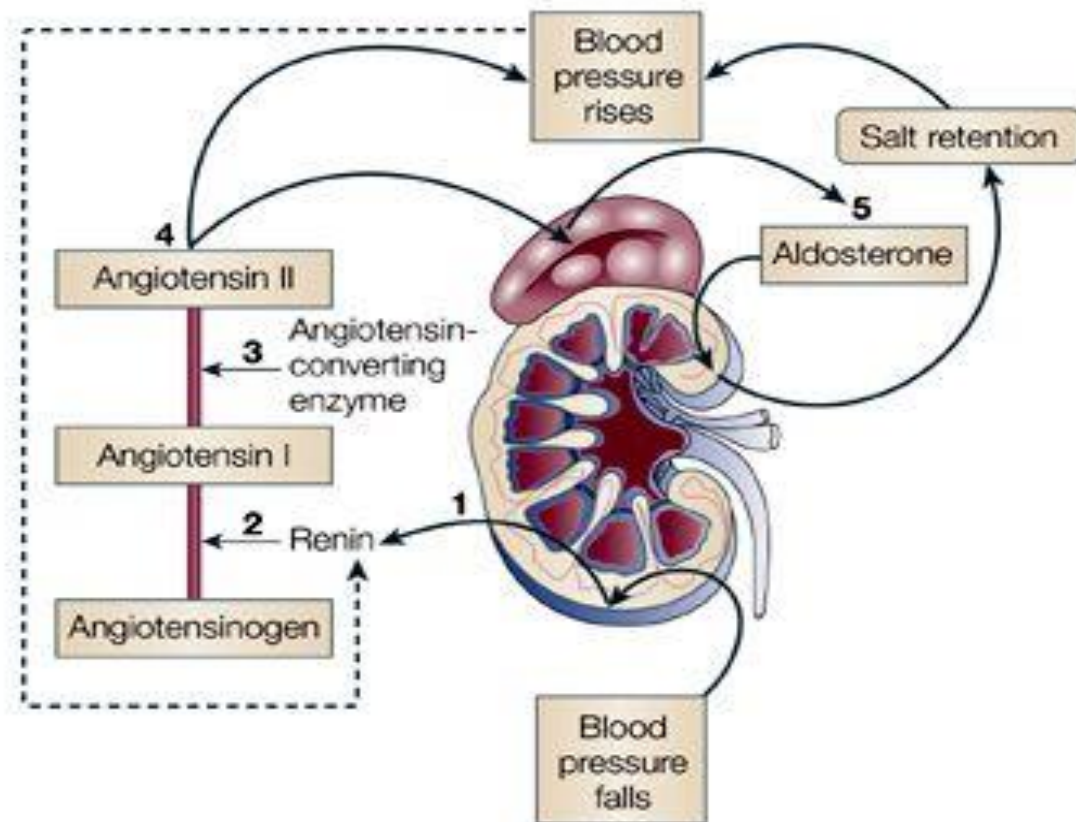
**Figure 3: The pathways of obesity influencing the cardiovascular diseases.**

*FFA= free fatty acids; HDL=high-density lipoprotein.*

### 2.1.2. High blood pressure

Blood pressure (BP) can be defined as the pressure exerted by blood against the vessels in the body (Nobrega *et al.*, 2014). The cut-off points for high blood pressure are ( $\geq 130$  mmHg systole and/or  $\geq 85$  mmHg diastole) (Alberti *et al.*, 2009). BP is commonly associated with metabolic abnormalities such as obesity, dyslipidemia, glucose intolerance (Saad *et al.*, 2004). Both hyperinsulinemia and hyperglycemia activate the Renin angiotensin system (RAS) which result in the elevated expression of angiotensinogen, Angiotensin II and Angiotensin I receptors. This leads to the development of hypertension, especially in individuals with insulin resistance (Malhotra *et al.*, 2001). Studies showed that, insulin resistance and hyperinsulinemia activate the sympathetic nervous system (SNS) and cause the kidneys to increase sodium reabsorption and consequently cardiac output (Morse *et al.*, 2005).

Aldosterone is also produced by the adipocytes in response to the Angiotensin II as shown in figure 1 (Briones *et al.*, 2012).



**Figure 1: A summary of Renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system (RAAS)** (Brewster and Perazella, 2004).

An elevated BP among children and adults has become a serious public health problem worldwide (Ingelfinger, 2014). Elevated BP is one of the most noticeable risk factors of the metS. Studies have examined the multiple incidences of metabolic abnormalities in participants with elevated blood sugar (Haffner *et al.*, 1992; Kemper, 2004). Two types of hypertension can occur as a result of elevated blood pressure:

- i. Primary hypertension

Primary hypertension, also known as essential hypertension, occurs with unknown secondary causes and it accounts for about 95% of all forms of hypertension. However, it is complexed to track the pathogenesis of primary hypertension as it appears multifactorial (Carretero and Oparil, 2000). There are reported risk factors

associated with primary hypertension including age, genetic factors, excessive weight gain and obesity (Aronow *et al.*, 2011).

ii. Secondary hypertension

The onset age of the secondary hypertension is not clear, therefore is complex to screening it. Although, health professionals identify its symptoms through clinical and laboratory measures. This type of hypertension is proposed to be caused by chronic kidney diseases, Cushing syndrome, use of certain drugs, coarctation of aorta, pheochromocytoma, primary aldosteronism, sleep apnea, obstructive euophaphy and thyroid or parathyroid disease (Viera and Neutze, 2010).

2.1.2.1. Complications associated with high blood pressure

Complications that are associated with untreated hypertension progressions are damage to several organs such as the heart (left ventricular hypertrophy, coronary atherosclerosis), brain (stroke, vascular dementia), kidneys (nephrosclerosis, albuminuria, proteinuria), arteries (peripheral artery disease, atherosclerosis), and eyes (retinopathy) (Nadar *et al.*, 2006; Korhonen *et al.*, 2015). However, kidney and artery damage may accumulate in the treatment resistant stage. Therefore, in order to prevent cardiovascular disease in the future, high blood pressure should be diagnosed and managed at an early age.

2.1.2.2. Measurements of blood pressure

i. Intra-arterial monitoring

The most direct measurement of BP, considered as the gold standard is intra-arterial monitoring (Verdecchia, 2000). Using this method, a catheter for intra-arterial monitoring is inserted into an artery and pressure waves will display on a monitor. Intra-arterial monitoring provides a beat-to-beat record of BP and is used in the intensive care unit and during surgery (Gupta and Lipsitz, 2007). Due to it's invasive nature, this technique in not appropriate for use in screening or in noncritical care settings (Verdecchia, 2000; Jones *et al*, 2003).

ii. Clinical measurements

In a clinic setting, the measuring of BP is recommended to be done by trained personnel. The proposed standard commonly used to measure BP is the upper arm at the brachial artery, because devices and techniques that measure BP at alternative sites such as wrist and finger are highly prone to error, and are therefore not recommended in guidelines (Pickering, 2005). As such, these devices will not be included in this review.

- Auscultatory method

The auscultatory method is a manual device that requires trained personnel to detect Korotkoff sounds using a stethoscope. Korotkoff sounds are made by the turbulent flow of blood past the restricted area created by the inflated cuff. The readings from the brachial artery are displayed on a mercury or aneroid sphygmomanometer. However, as with other methods, error and bias are included in this method. These include differences in auditory acuity and terminal digit rounding. Errors and bias can be minimized by the positioning of the patient and arm, cuff size and placement, cuff inflation and deflation, number and timing of measurements, and unique Korotkoff sounds. Although, these recommendations are not grounded on the systematic review of the literature. Bearing in mind these potential sources of error, the auscultatory method using a mercury sphygmomanometer correlates well with simultaneous intra-arterial BP ( $r=0.94$  to  $0.98$ ) when performed correctly and was considered the gold standard for clinic-based measurements for many years. However, environmental issues related to the possibility of mercury spillage and the banned use of mercury sphygmomanometers, the role of this method has been reduced. Aneroid sphygmomanometers use a lever and bellows system to measure pressure and have been used as a mercury-free alternative. “Hybrid” sphygmomanometers are newer devices with an electronic pressure gauge in place of the mercury column, but BP is still determined using the auscultatory method.

- Oscillometric Method

Oscillometric sphygmomanometers use a pressure transducer to assess the oscillations of pressure in a cuff during gradual deflation. The point of maximum oscillation corresponds to the mean intra-arterial pressure. Systolic and diastolic BP measurements are then calculated based on an empirically derived algorithm. Investigators have cited several advantages to these devices, especially when they

are fully automated and can be programmed to complete several measurements after a period of rest at appropriate intervals without requiring the presence of medical personnel. The ability to obtain multiple readings while a patient rest alone in a quiet room may mitigate the increased BP seen in some persons only when in medical settings (isolated clinic hypertension) (Pickering *et al.*, 2005; Myers, 2010).

#### 2.1.2.3. *Blood pressure in children and the need to develop a tool-blood pressure to height ratio*

There is an increased trend in the prevalence of hypertension in children and adolescents in African countries (Feber and Ahmed, 2010). Despite the presence of undernutrition in children in both the developing and developed countries, hypertension is emerging in rural children (Monyeki and Kemper *et al.*, 2008). It has been well established that hypertension in children and adolescents tracked into adults, thereby increasing the future risk of cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) and mortality (Labadarios *et al.*, 2001; Kiessling *et al.*, 2008). Hypertension in children and adolescents was usually asymptomatic and caused left ventricular hypertrophy and carotid intimal medial thickness (Stergiou *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, early diagnosis of prehypertension and hypertension in children is important to reduce the risk of CVDs in adulthood. Identification of hypertension in children and adolescents is difficult compared to adults because of differences in systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) values due to age, gender and height (Hansen *et al.*, 2007).

#### 2.1.2.4. *Blood pressure to height ratio as a tool to screen elevated blood pressure in children*

This method of screening for hypertension in children and adolescents was previously preceded in Han children (Lu *et al.*, 2011). Blood pressure to height ratio (BPHR) was found to be an accurate and non-age dependent tool to identify hypertension in those children (Lu *et al.*, 2011; Xi *et al.*, 2014). In addition, optimal thresholds were stated. The same study done in Iran reported that the performance of BPHR used to identify hypertension was high in ethnic, age group, children and adolescents (Kelishadi *et al.*, 2016) although there were no consistent cut-off point

values. There was no study that reported on the performance of BPHR among rural South African children.

### 2.1.3. Elevated fasting blood glucose

Elevated fasting blood glucose (FBG) can be described as a state of higher than normal fasting glucose concentration mostly due to insulin resistance (IR) as it inhibits the ability for the cell to transport glucose from the blood streams to the muscles tissue, adipose tissue and liver cells (WHO, 2016). The cut-off points for fasting blood glucose is ( $\geq 5.6$  mmol/L) (Alberti *et al.*, 2009). The most accepted scientific hypothesis proves that, the pathophysiology of metS is through the involvement of IR (Kaur, 2014). This is the reason that metS was referred to as “insulin resistant syndrome”. Nonetheless, hyperinsulinaemia, that occurs as a result of defective insulin action that is explained by insulin resistance. The excessive circulation of fatty acids influences the increase in insulin resistance (Shoelson *et al.*, 2006). The abundance of fatty acids reduces the insulin sensitivity by inhibiting the insulin-mediated glucose uptake in the muscles (Roden *et al.*, 1996).

Among the predicted 366 million people that will live with diabetes mellitus in 2030 in the world, 298 million will be from developing countries (Wild *et al.*, 2000). This shows that diabetes contributes towards more than one million deaths in the world. The prevalence of type 2 diabetes remarkably increased in African countries. In 2010, there was 46% prevalence of type 2 diabetes mellitus in rural Angola populations (Evaristo-Neto, 2010). South Africa is holding the second largest prevalence of type 2 diabetes among SSA countries (Popkin *et al.*, 2012; IDF, 2014). Diabetes mellitus is characterized as type 1 (insulin dependent) and type 2 (non-insulin dependent) diabetes mellitus.

#### 2.1.3.1. *Complications associated with elevated fasting blood glucose*

Type 2 diabetes has detrimental health effects. When not treated it often forms advanced glycation end products (AGEs) which consequently results in dyslipidemia, inflammatory, vascular and thrombotic complications (Balagopal *et al.*, 2011). Diabetes is known as the world highest cause of vasculature complications such as atherosclerosis which in turn lead to other disorders including stroke, small and large vesicle disease, and coronary heart disease (Labarthe, 1998). Complications

associated with diabetes kills 3.2 million people every year in the world (Hasnain and Sheikh, 2009). Subsequently, 90% of all diabetes have developed main cause of illness and premature death (Atlas, 2003). Therefore, there is a need to uproot the pandemic of metS in rural areas of the South African population, to maximize life expectancy.

#### 2.1.3.2. *Measurement of fasting blood glucose*

##### i. Oral glucose tolerant test (OGTT)

An enzymatic technique (employing hexokinase and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase) is used for glucose measurement. Glucose is tested immediately after blood collection, however, in the case of blood samples, the blood should be collected into a container with glycolytic inhibitors and stored in ice-water until separated before analysis (Unwin *et al.*, 2002).

There is on-going debate about the use of Oral glucose tolerant test (OGTT) in clinical and epidemiological studies. However, (WHO, 1999) recommended the use of this test, even though the ADA discouraged its use due to its greater cost, lower reproducibility and inconvenience (Puavilai *et al.*, 1999). Nonetheless, OGTT can be used for the diagnosis of both 2-h plasma glucose and impaired glucose tolerance (IGT). This test can confirm and exclude an abnormality of IGT in people without symptoms (Unwin *et al.*, 2002).

##### ii. Glycated haemoglobin (HbA<sub>1c</sub>)

The study conducted by Rohlfing *et al.*, (2002), defined the relationship between HbA<sub>1c</sub> and diabetes as assessed in the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT). There was a predictable relationship between diabetes and HbA<sub>1c</sub>. The HbA<sub>1c</sub> tests are not available in most countries across the world. The laboratory test measurements are not accurate as it is affected by several factors such as anaemia, pregnancy, abnormalities of haemoglobin and uraemia (Goldstein *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, this test is not recommended for diagnostic test of diabetes (Unwin *et al.*, 2002).

#### 2.1.4. Abnormal Lipids profile



Total cholesterol (TCHOL) can be described as a fat-like substance found in the blood stream as well in the body organs and nerve fibres (Krauss *et al.*, 2004). The cut-off point is  $>5.1$  mmol/L (Mancia *et al.*, 2013). There are two types of cholesterol namely; low density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) and high density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C).

Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) is referred to as “bad” cholesterol because it deposits its cholesterol on the walls of arteries (Krauss *et al.*, 2004). It is also the type of cholesterol that becomes oxidized and damages the lining of the arteries for accommodating mineral and fat deposits. The cut-off point is  $>3$  mmol/L (Mancia *et al.*, 2013).

High-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) is considered “good” cholesterol because it sticks on firmly to the cholesterol it carries without letting them attach to arterial walls. It reduces the size of a plaque to keep cholesterol in solution and moves it safely throughout the body (Krauss *et al.*, 2004). The HDL-C cut-off point is ( $<1.0$  mmol/L Male;  $<1.3$  mmol/L Female) (Alberti *et al.*, 2009).

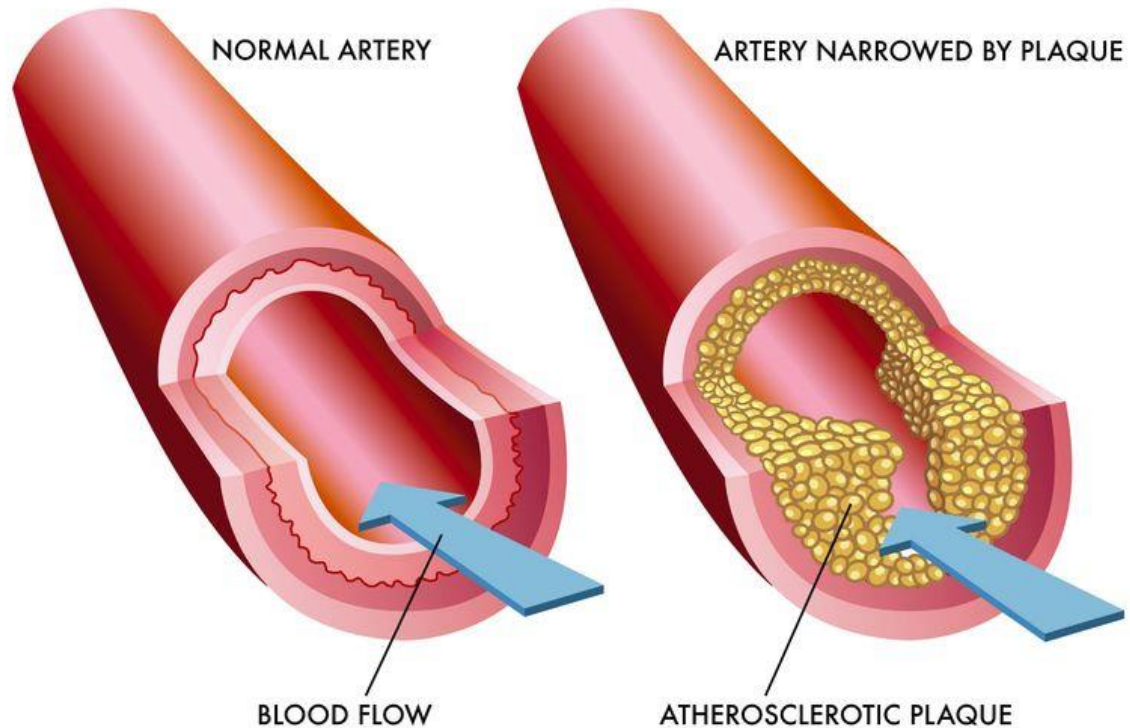
Triglycerides (TG) are type of fats found in the body; the body converts any calories it does not use into triglycerides (Jaworski *et al.*, 2007). The cut-off point is ( $\geq 1.7$  mmol/L) (Alberti *et al.*, 2009).

#### 2.1.4.1. *Complications associated with abnormal lipid profiles*

Both elevated LDL-C and triglycerides increases the chances of developing coronary heart diseases (CHDs). Coronary heart disease is defined as a condition in which plaque builds up inside the coronary arteries (Figure 4). Plaque is made up of cholesterol, fat, calcium, and other substances found in the blood that leads to the atherosclerosis.

Individuals with metS have demonstrated the presence of dyslipidemia (Isezuo and Ezunu, 2005; Garrido *et al.*, 2009). In this regard, reduced HDL-C and hypertriglyceridemia are two major forms of dyslipidemia. Increased LDL-C on other hand has an effect in reducing HDL-C (Ogbera, 2010). The issue of dyslipidaemia need to be addressed across the world population (Akpa *et al.*, 2006).

# ATHEROSCLEROSIS



**Figure 4: Shows the normal artery and narrowed artery by plaques.**

<http://anatomy-medicine.com/diseases-of-the-blood-vessels/156-atherosclerosis.html>

## 2.1.4.2. Measurement of cholesterol and triglycerides

Cholesterol and triglycerides are measured enzymatically in serum or plasma in a series of coupled reactions that hydrolyze cholesteryl esters and oxidize the 3-OH group of cholesterol and glycerol, respectively. (Artiss and Zak, 2000). While LDL-C is calculated from measured values of cholesterol, triglycerides (TG) and HDL-C using Friedewald equation: (Friedewald *et al.*, 1972).

$$[\text{LDL-C}] = [\text{cholesterol}] - [\text{HDL-C}] - [\text{TG}]/5$$

## 2.1.5. Environment and diet

South African current and available national and regional studies, suggested that dietary intake amongst rural South Africans is lower than the recommended daily allowance due to the insufficient amount of food consumed (Chikhungu *et al.*, 2014; Mchiza *et al.*, 2015). Lack of dietary diversity resulting in inadequate intake of both macronutrients and micronutrients including vitamins and trace elements or minerals contributes to health challenges (Fichera and Savage, 2015). Nonetheless, SA is undergoing a nutritional and epidemiological transition in which people are adopting a sedentary lifestyle and westernised food habits (Temple *et al.*, 2006). The western diet refers to the over-consumption of foods high in sugar, salt and fat, which consequently lead to weight gain among people and attributes to CVDs and other associated risk factors (Naidoo and Wills, 2006).

#### 2.1.5.1. *Sedentary lifestyle and urbanization*

Sedentary lifestyle and urbanization were the two factors contributing the most to the increased prevalence of metS (Okafor, 2012; Beltrán-Sánchez *et al.*, 2013). The high prevalence of metS in developed countries can be due to increased consumption of high energy dense foods. People's lifestyle changes with economic growth and urbanization (Shi *et al.*, 2008). The rapid transition in lifestyle due to urbanization has led to the change in health of the population from a lower mortality rate to higher prevalence of metS in developing countries (Cook and Dummer, 2004). There is 27.3% and 66.5% physical inactivity level in the South African rural and urban population, respectively (Van Zyl *et al.*, 2012). In addition to physical inactivity, tobacco smoking and alcohol consumption are major public health issues in South Africa (SA) and other parts of the world (Reddy *et al.*, 1998; Patel *et al.*, 2007; WHO, 2008; WHO, 2015). Smoking and alcohol use contributes significantly to the diseases and premature deaths in the world (WHO, 2015; Rehm *et al.*, 2003; Rehm *et al.*, 2009).

#### 2.1.5.2. *Dietary intake habits*

Nutritional transition refers to a change in dietary intake from plant-based food sources which are high in fibre and low in fats to a high energy dense "western diet" which is high in fat and low in fibre (FAO, 2006; Popkin, 2003). Such dietary practices expose South Africans to obesity. As a result, the increasing levels of overweight and obesity/central obesity indicate an elevated risk for metabolic

disease. Dietary intake is a lifestyle factor contributing to metS since it is significant for good health and normal growth (Zarei *et al.*, 2013). Good health and normal growth are explained by strong body immune system and less illness (Amine *et al.*, 2002). Amine *et al* (2002) stipulated that the transition in diet and lifestyle occurred with industrialisation, urbanization, economic growth and market globalization for the past few decades. Consequently, all these occurrences influenced the health and nutritional status of the population, especially in developing countries.

#### 2.1.5.3. *Complication associated with poor nutritional intake and physical inactivity*

The consumption of a western diet that is high in fats and carbohydrates with low physical activity increased the prevalence of metS (Das, 2015). Excessive energy is stored as fats; therefore, visceral fats have the distinct gene expression pattern that is associated with insulin resistance, lower the HDL-C and increase LDL-C particle numbers (Neeland, *et al.*, 2013). More importantly, the visceral fats are converted into fatty acids which are released in to the blood streams and transported into the liver and stored as triglycerides (Bergman *et al.*, 2007; Klop *et al.*, 2013). Hypertriglyceridemia results, after the fatty acid flux stimulates the hepatic output of LDL-C (Nikolic *et al.*, 2013). Excessive triglyceride in the blood is then transferred to LDL-C and because more attached to the hepatic lipase which results in the breakdown of triglycerides and reduces the LDL-C particle numbers (Klop *et al*, 2013). Clinically, small dense LDL-C is more atherogenic as is more prone to oxidation and uptake into the arterial wall (Nikolic *et al.*, 2013). In addition, monocyte/macrophage and adipocyte-derived factors may have direct atherothrombotic effects that promote the development of atherosclerotic cardiovascular events. Common genetic variants and environmental factors may influence the development of atherosclerosis at multiple levels through influences on central adiposity, innate immunity, glucose and lipoprotein metabolism, and vascular function (Reilly and Rader, 2003).

## **2.2. Non controllable risk factors**

### **2.2.1. Age**

Traditionally, aging has been regarded as a natural process and consequently for attaining the disease (Hayflick, 2007). CVDs, type 2 diabetes, hypertension and cancers are example of aging-associated diseases.

The epidemic of metS used to be an adults issue in the past (Kylin, 1923; Vague *et al.*, 1947; Avogadro *et al.*, 1996; Alberti *et al.*, 2006). Today it is common in younger age groups due to the spread of obesity from childhood (Weiss *et al.*, 2004; Cook *et al.*, 2003; Cruz and Goran, 2004). The prevalence of metS increased from 11% in age group 20–29 years to 89% in age group 70–79 in 2009 (Ogbera, 2010). This shows that metS increases with age (Ogbera, 2010; Kelliny *et al.*, 2008). The World Health Organisation (WHO) together with International Obesity Task Force (IOTF) have shown the proportion of increase in obesity and overweight from children age 5 to adults (WHO, 2004; Lobstein *et al.*, 2004). For the past few decades, Bulatao (1993) found that aging is the key driver of diseases such as CVDs. The age of an individual demonstrates a greater proportion of disease susceptibility (Ordovas, 2007).

### **2.2.2. Gender**

Although males and females are alike in several ways, there are other biological and behavioural differences between the two genders. Such differences have an impact on a wide range of diseases (Regitz-Zagrosek, 2012).

Gender-specific differences in the prevalence of metS have been reported satisfactorily. In which female have significantly higher prevalence of metS when compared to males (Ilanne-Parikka *et al.*, 2004; Kelliny *et al.*, 2008; Ogbera, 2010; Okafor, 2012, Motala *et al.*, 2009). However, this is contrary to other findings (Puepet *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, the investigation of different gender with regard to metS requires a closer attention.

### **2.2.3. Ethnicity**

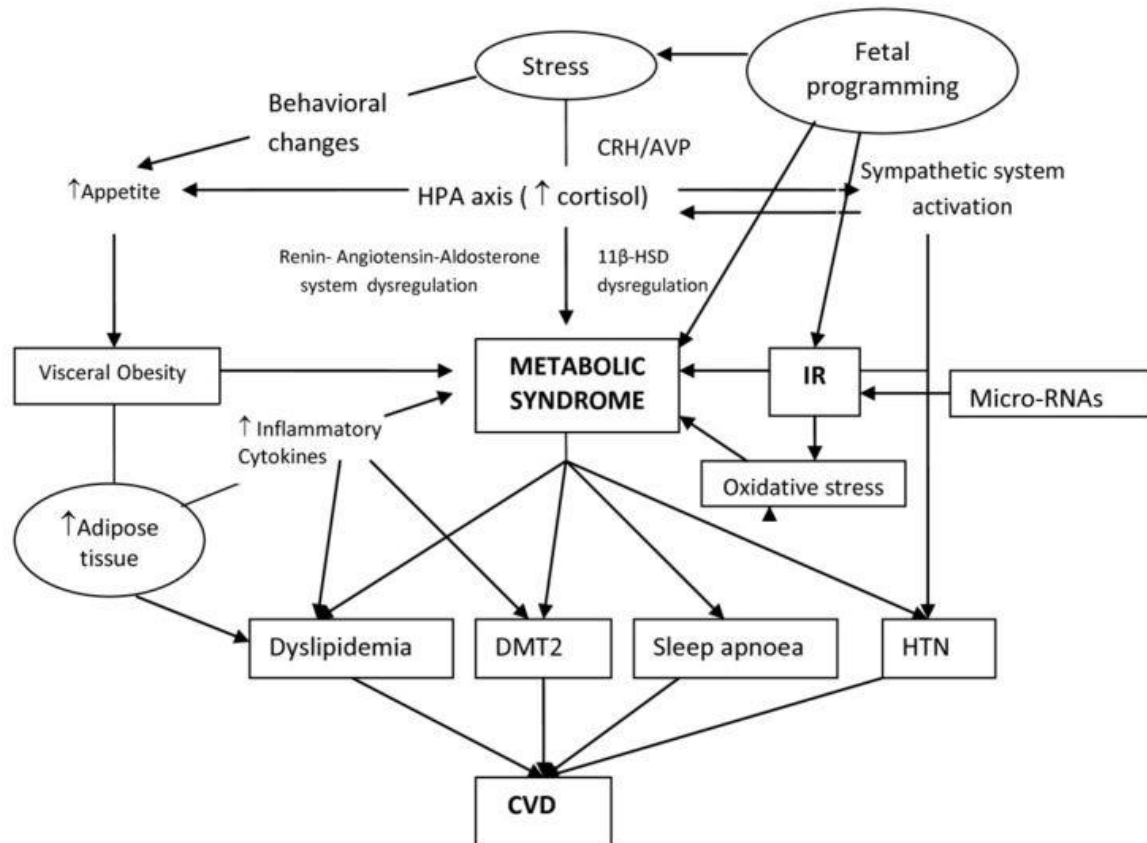
The burden of multiple disease varies by ethnicity. Some diseases are more prevalent in certain ethnic groups (Mathur *et al.*, 2011).

Differences in the ethnicity and socioeconomic status influence the characteristics of the metS. Asians have a higher prevalence of metS than the white population (Araneta *et al.*, 2002). Moreover, the International Diabetes Foundation (IDF) published new criteria for metS which accommodates the different populations, ethnicities and nationalities. The risk and values of the association between diabetes and CVDs varies amongst different populations. For example, South Asian, where the prevalence of diabetes and CVDs were high even at smaller WC which could not meet the criterion standard of white population (Reaven, 2006). If there could be many other studies on metS focusing on different population, it could shed a light not only on the pathophysiology of the syndrome but also on the genetic level, and such might help on treatment strategies.

#### 2.2.4. Genetics

A genetic disease is any disease that is caused by an abnormality in an individual's genome. Some genetic disorders are inherited from the parents, while other genetic diseases are caused by acquired changes or mutations in a pre-existing genes (Oti and Brunner, 2007).

Genetic factors—both genetic and environmental factors influence metS (Neel, 1962).



**Figure 2: The pathogenesis cardiovascular diseases in the metabolic syndrome** (Kassi *et al.*, 2011). IR=insulin resistance; HTN=hypertension; HPA axis=hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis; DMT2=type 2 diabetes mellitus; CVD=cardiovascular disease; CRH=corticotropin releasing hormone; AVP=arginine vasopressin.

Despite the many physiological mechanisms of risk components associated with metS, many of pathways remain unclear, more especially with regard to genetics and environmental factors (Ordovas, 2007). Briefly, in figure 2, several underlying factors play a role in the pathogenesis of metS apart from insulin resistance (IR) and obesity. Deregulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (HPA), autonomic nervous system (ANS) as well as stress increases the cellular oxidative stress, renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) activity, intrinsic tissue glucocorticoid action and micro RNAs (miRNAs).

### 2.3. SUMMARY

The metS is a constellation of interrelated risk factors that metabolically originate that are associated with the development of atherosclerotic CVDs. The pandemic of metS is considered as an elderly syndrome and is more prevalent in developed countries in the past. Majority of studies that focused on the subject of metS, came up with the clear connection between this syndrome with type 2 diabetes mellitus and cardiovascular diseases. Type 2 diabetes mellitus and cardiovascular disease are most leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide.

There is a need to diagnose metS in the early stages to prevent and manage the emerging of metS. Various definitions for diagnosing metS have been developed in different population settings. Amongst all existing definition groups for diagnosing the metS, there is no unified definition adopted. The role of different ethnicity and cultural differences remain the cornerstone not to use uniform definition. Nonetheless, International Diabetes Federation (IDF) developed the new definition for Sub-Saharan countries. However, the hindrance still exists due to the unavailability of metabolic cut points in the black rural countries.

Healthy nutritional dietary intake should modify the attributable risk of the unwanted exposure amongst population. Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and World Health Organisation (WHO) have emphasized the concept of “balanced diet” as the first line of eating behaviour. Intake of unhealthy diet such as high-energy dense, saturated fats and salt and refined carbohydrates results in an increase chances of gaining weight which subsequently increases the metS. Most existing studies focused only on metS as one entity while fewer included risk factors such as smoking, physical activity, alcohol consumption and socio-economic status.

The intake of food determines the large extent of people’s health, growth and developments. Therefore, there is need to profile the association of dietary intake as lifestyle risk for the determinant of metS.



## 2.4. REFERENCES

1. Abegunde, D.O., Mathers, C.D., Adam, T., Ortegon, M. and Strong, K., 2007. The burden and costs of chronic diseases in low-income and middle-income countries. *The Lancet*, 370(9603), pp.1929–1938.
2. Agomuoh, D.I., Akpa, M.R. and Alasia, D.D., 2006. Lipid profile of healthy adult Nigerians in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Medicine*, 15(2), pp.137–140.
3. Akpa, M.R., Agomouh, D.I. and Alasia, D.D., 2006. Serum Lipid pattern of healthy adult Nigerians in Port Harcourt. *Nigerian Journal of Medicine*, 15(2), pp.137–140.

4. Alberti, K.G.M., Zimmet, P. and Shaw, J., 2005. The metabolic syndrome—a new worldwide definition. *The Lancet*, 366(9491), pp.1059–1062.
5. Alberti, K.G.M.M. and Zimmet, P.F., 1998. Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications. Part 1: diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. Provisional report of a WHO consultation. *Diabetic medicine*, 15(7), pp.539–553.
6. Alberti, K.G.M.M., Eckel, R.H., Grundy, S.M., Zimmet, P.Z., Cleeman, J.I., Donato, K.A., Fruchart, J.C., James, W.P.T., Loria, C.M. and Smith, S.C., 2009. Harmonizing the metabolic syndrome. *Circulation*, 120(16), pp.1640–1645.
7. Alberti, K.G.M.M., Zimmet, P. and Shaw, J., 2006. Metabolic syndrome—a new world-wide definition. A consensus statement from the international diabetes federation. *Diabetic medicine*, 23(5), pp.469–480.
8. Amine, E., Baba, N., Belhadj, M., Deurenbery-Yap, M., Djazayery, A., Forrester, T., Galuska, D., Herman, S., James, W., MBuyamba, J. and Katan, M., 2002. Diet, nutrition and the prevention of chronic diseases: report of a Joint WHO. *FAO Expert Consultation World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland*, pp.105–128.
9. Araneta, M.R.G., Wingard, D.L. and Barrett-Connor, E., 2002. Type 2 diabetes and metabolic syndrome in Filipina-American women. *Diabetes care*, 25(3), pp.494–499.
10. Aronow, W.S., Fleg, J.L., Pepine, C.J., Artinian, N.T., Bakris, G., Brown, A.S., Ferdinand, K.C., Forcica, M.A., Frishman, W.H., Jaigobin, C. and Kostis, J.B., 2011. ACCF/AHA 2011 expert consensus document on hypertension in the elderly: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation Task Force on clinical expert consensus documents developed in collaboration with the American Academy of Neurology, American Geriatrics Society, American Society for Preventive Cardiology, American Society of Hypertension, American Society of Nephrology, Association of Black Cardiologists, and European Society of Hypertension. *Journal of the American Society of Hypertension*, 5(4), pp.259–352.
11. Artiss, J.D. and Zak, B., 2000. Measurement of cholesterol concentration. *Handbook of Lipoprotein Testing. AACC Press, New York*, pp.189–205.

12. Atlas D. International diabetes federation. 2003. Press Release, Second Edition, Belgium.
13. Balagopal, P., de Ferranti, S.D., Cook, S., Daniels, S.R., Gidding, S.S., Hayman, L.L., McCrindle, B.W., Mietus-Snyder, M.L. and Steinberger, J., 2011. Nontraditional risk factors and biomarkers for cardiovascular disease: mechanistic, research, and clinical considerations for youth: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*, 123(23), pp.2749–2769.
14. Balkau, B. and Charles, M.A., 1999. Comment on the provisional report from the WHO consultation. *Diabetic medicine*, 16(5), pp.442–443.
15. Bao, W., Srinivasan, S.R. and Berenson, G.S., 1996. Persistent elevation of plasma insulin levels is associated with increased cardiovascular risk in children and young adults. *Circulation*, 93(1), pp.54–59.
16. Bao, W., Srinivasan, S.R., Wattigney, W.A. and Berenson, G.S., 1994. Persistence of multiple cardiovascular risk clustering related to syndrome X from childhood to young adulthood: the Bogalusa Heart Study. *Archives of Internal Medicine*, 154(16), pp.1842–1847.
17. Beltrán-Sánchez, H., Harhay, M.O., Harhay, M.M. and McElligott, S., 2013. Prevalence and trends of metabolic syndrome in the adult US population, 1999–2010. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*, 62(8), pp.697–703.
18. Bergman, R.N., Kim, S.P., Hsu, I.R., Catalano, K.J., Chiu, J.D., Kabir, M., Richey, J.M. and Ader, M., 2007. Abdominal obesity: role in the pathophysiology of metabolic disease and cardiovascular risk. *The American journal of medicine*, 120(2), pp.3–8.
19. Björntorp, P., 1990. "Portal" adipose tissue as a generator of risk factors for cardiovascular disease and diabetes. *Arteriosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology*, 10(4), pp.493–496.
20. Bourne, L.T., Lambert, E.V. and Steyn, K., 2002. Where does the black population of South Africa stand on the nutrition transition?. *Public health nutrition*, 5(1a), pp.157–162.

21. Boutayeb, A. and Boutayeb, S., 2005. The burden of non communicable diseases in developing countries. *International journal for equity in health*, 4(1), p.2.
22. Bradshaw, D., Groenewald, P., Laubscher, R., Nannan, N., Nojilana, B., Norman, R., Pieterse, D., Schneider, M., Bourne, D.E., Timæus, I.M. and Dorrington, R., 2003. Initial burden of disease estimates for South Africa, 2000. *South African Medical Journal*, 93(9), pp.682–688.
23. Brewster, U.C. and Perazella, M.A., 2004. The renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system and the kidney: effects on kidney disease. *The American journal of medicine*, 116(4), pp.26–272.
24. Briones, A.M., Cat, A.N.D., Callera, G.E., Yogi, A., Burger, D., He, Y., Corrêa, J.W., Gagnon, A.M., Gomez-Sanchez, C.E., Gomez-Sanchez, E.P. and Sorisky, A., 2012. Adipocytes produce aldosterone through calcineurin-dependent signaling pathways. *Hypertension*, p.111.
25. Bruno, G., Merletti, F., Biggeri, A., Bargero, G., Ferrero, S., Runzo, C., Cerai, S.P., Pagano, G. and Cavallo-Perin, P., 2004. Metabolic syndrome as a predictor of all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, 27(11), pp.2689–2694.
26. Bulatao, R.A., 1993. Mortality by cause, 1970 to 2015. *The Epidemiological Transition. Policy and Planning Implications for Developing Countries*, 119.
27. Carretero, O.A. and Oparil, S., 2000. Essential hypertension: part I: definition and etiology. *Circulation*, 101, pp.329–335.
28. Chikhungu, L.C., Madise, N.J., and Padmadas, S.S. 2014. How important are community characteristics in influencing children' s nutritional status? Evidence from Malawi population-based household and community surveys. *Health & Place*, 30, pp.187–195.
29. Connor, M.D., Walker, R., Modi, G. and Warlow, C.P., 2007. Burden of stroke in black populations in sub-Saharan Africa. *The Lancet Neurology*, 6(3), pp.269–278.
30. Cook, I.G. and Dummer, T.J., 2004. Changing health in China: re-evaluating the epidemiological transition model. *Health policy*, 67:pp.329–343.

31. Cook, S., Weitzman, M., Auinger, P., Nguyen, M. and Dietz, W.H., 2003. Prevalence of a metabolic syndrome phenotype in adolescents: findings from the third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1988-1994. *Archives of pediatrics & adolescent medicine*, 157(8), pp.821–827.
32. Cook, S., Weitzman, M., Auinger, P., Nguyen, M. and Dietz, W.H., 2003. Prevalence of a metabolic syndrome phenotype in adolescents: findings from the third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1988-1994. *Archives of pediatrics & adolescent medicine*, 157(8), pp.821–827.
33. Cruz, M.L. and Goran, M.I., 2004. The metabolic syndrome in children and adolescents. *Current diabetes reports*, 4(1), pp.53–62.
34. Daar, A.S., Singer, P.A., Persad, D.L., Pramming, S.K., Matthews, D.R., Beaglehole, R., Bernstein, A., Borysiewicz, L.K., Colagiuri, S., Ganguly, N. and Glass, R.I., 2007. Grand challenges in chronic non-communicable diseases. *Nature*, 450(7169), p.494.
35. Das, U.N., 2015. Sucrose, fructose, glucose, and their link to metabolic syndrome and cancer. *Nutrition*, 31(1), pp.249–257.
36. Eckel, R.H., Alberti, K.G.M.M., Grundy, S.M. and Zimmet, P.Z., 2010. The metabolic syndrome. *The Lancet*, 375(9710), pp.181–183.
37. Eckel, R.H., Grundy, S.M. and Zimmet, P.Z., 2005. The metabolic syndrome. *The lancet*, 365(9468), pp.1415–1428.
38. Einhorn, D., Reaven, G.M., Cobin, R.H., Ford, E., Ganda, O.P., Handelsman, Y., Hellman, R., Jellinger, P.S., Kendall, D., Krauss, R.M. and Neufeld, N.D., 2003. position statement on the insulin resistance syndrome. American College of Endocrinology. *Endocr Pract*, 9(3), pp.237–52.
39. Einhorn, MD, FACP, FACE, D., 2003. American College of Endocrinology position statement on the insulin resistance syndrome. *Endocrine Practice*, 9(Supplement 2), pp.5–21.
40. Erasmus, R.T., Soita, D.J., Hassan, M.S., Blanco-Blanco, E., Vergotine, Z., Kengne, A.P. and Matsha, T.E., 2012. High prevalence of diabetes mellitus and metabolic syndrome in a South African coloured population: Baseline data of a study in Bellville, Cape Town. *SAMJ: South African Medical Journal*, 102(11), pp.841–844.

41. Evaristo-Neto, A.D., Foss-Freitas, M.C. and Foss, M.C., 2010. Prevalence of diabetes mellitus and impaired glucose tolerance in a rural community of Angola. *Diabetology & metabolic syndrome*, 2(1), pp.63.
42. Expert Panel on Detection, E., 2001. Executive summary of the Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) expert panel on detection, evaluation, and treatment of high blood cholesterol in adults (Adult Treatment Panel III). *Jama*, 285(19), pp.2486.
43. Ezzati, M., Vander Hoorn, S., Lawes, C.M., Leach, R., James, W.P.T., Lopez, A.D., Rodgers, A. and Murray, C.J., 2005. Rethinking the “diseases of affluence” paradigm: global patterns of nutritional risks in relation to economic development. *PLoS medicine*, 2(5), p.e133.
44. Feber, J. and Ahmed, M., 2010. Hypertension in children: new trends and challenges. *Clinical Science*, 119(4), pp.151–161.
45. Fichera, E. and Savage, D. 2015. Income and Health in Tanzania. An Instrumental Variable Approach. *World development*, 66, pp.500–515.
46. FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS Rome, 2006. The double burden of malnutrition Case studies from six developing countries. Italy.
47. Ford, E.S., 2005. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome defined by the International Diabetes Federation among adults in the US. *Diabetes care*, 28(11), pp.2745–2749.
48. Friedewald, W.T., Levy, R.I. and Fredrickson, D.S., 1972. Estimation of the concentration of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in plasma, without use of the preparative ultracentrifuge. *Clinical chemistry*, 18(6), pp.499–502.
49. Gabriely, I., Ma, X.H., Yang, X.M., Atzmon, G., Rajala, M.W., Berg, A.H., Scherer, P., Rossetti, L. and Barzilai, N., 2002. Removal of visceral fat prevents insulin resistance and glucose intolerance of aging: an adipokine-mediated process?. *Diabetes*, 51(10), pp.2951–2958.
50. Garrido, R.A., Semeraro, M.B., Temesgen, S.M. and Simi, M.R., 2009. Metabolic syndrome and obesity among workers at Kanye Seventh-day Adventist Hospital, Botswana. *SAMJ: South African Medical Journal*, 99(5), pp.331–334.

51. Goldstein, D.E., Little, R.R., Lorenz, R.A., Malone, J.I., Nathan, D., Peterson, C.M. and Sacks, D.B., 2004. Tests of glycemia in diabetes. *Diabetes care*, 27(7), pp.1761–1773.
52. Gozashti, M.H., Najmeasadat, F., Mohadeseh, S. and Najafipour, H., 2014. Determination of most suitable cut off point of waist circumference for diagnosis of metabolic syndrome in Kerman. *Diabetes & Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research & Reviews*, 8(1), pp.8–12.
53. Grundy, S.M., Brewer, H.B., Cleeman, J.I., Smith, S.C. and Lenfant, C., 2004. Definition of metabolic syndrome. *Circulation*, 109(3), pp. 433–438.
54. Gupta, V. and Lipsitz, L.A., 2007. Orthostatic hypotension in the elderly: diagnosis and treatment. *The American journal of medicine*, 120(10), pp.841–847.
55. Haffner, S.M., Valdez, R.A., Hazuda, H.P., Mitchell, B.D., Morales, P.A. and Stern, M.P., 1992. Prospective analysis of the insulin-resistance syndrome (syndrome X). *Diabetes*, 41(6), pp.715–722.
56. Hansen, M.L., Gunn, P.W. and Kaelber, D.C., 2007. Underdiagnosis of hypertension in children and adolescents. *Jama*, 298(8), pp.874–879.
57. Hasnain, S. and Sheikh, N.H., 2009. Knowledge and practices regarding foot care in diabetic patients visiting diabetic clinic in Jinnah Hospital, Lahore. *JPMA. The journal of the Pakistan Medical Association*, 59(10), p.687.
58. Hayflick, L., 2007. Biological aging is no longer an unsolved problem. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1100(1), pp.1–13.
59. Ilanne-Parikka, P., Eriksson, J.G., Lindström, J., Hämäläinen, H., Keinänen-Kiukaanniemi, S., Laakso, M., Louheranta, A., Mannelin, M., Rastas, M., Salminen, V. and Aunola, S., 2004. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome and its components. *Diabetes Care*, 27(9), pp.2135–2140.
60. Ingelfinger, J.R., 2014. The child or adolescent with elevated blood pressure. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 370(24), pp.2316–2325.
61. Isezu, S.A. and Ezunu, E., 2005. Demographic and clinical correlates of metabolic syndrome in Native African type-2 diabetic patients. *Journal of the National Medical Association*, 97(4), p.557.
62. Jaworski, K., Sarkadi-Nagy, E., Duncan, R.E., Ahmadian, M. and Sul, H.S., 2007. Regulation of triglyceride metabolism. IV. Hormonal regulation of

- lipolysis in adipose tissue. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology*, 293(1), pp.1–4.
63. Jones, D.W., Appel, L.J., Sheps, S.G., Roccella, E.J. and Lenfant, C., 2003. Measuring blood pressure accurately: new and persistent challenges. *Jama*, 289(8), pp.1027–1030.
  64. Kassi, E., Pervanidou, P., Kaltsas, G. and Chrousos, G., 2011. Metabolic syndrome: definitions and controversies. *BMC medicine*, 9(1), p.48.
  65. Kaur, J., 2014. A comprehensive review on metabolic syndrome. *Cardiology research and practice*.
  66. Kelishadi, R., Bahreynian, M., Heshmat, R., Motlagh, M.E., Djalalinia, S., Naji, F., Ardalan, G., Asayesh, H. and Qorbani, M., 2016. Accuracy of blood pressure-to-height ratio to define elevated blood pressure in children and adolescents: the CASPIAN-IV study. *Pediatric cardiology*, 37(2), pp.378–385.
  67. Kelliny, C., William, J., Riesen, W., Paccaud, F. and Bovet, P., 2008. Metabolic syndrome according to different definitions in a rapidly developing country of the African region. *Cardiovascular Diabetology*, 7(1), p.27.
  68. Kemper, H.C. ed., 2004. *Amsterdam growth and health longitudinal study (AGAHLS): a 23-year follow-up from teenager to adult about the relationship between lifestyle and health*. Karger Medical and Scientific Publishers.
  69. Kiessling, S.G., McClanahan, K.K. and Omar, H.A., 2008. Obesity, hypertension, and mental health evaluation in adolescents: a comprehensive approach.
  70. Klop, B., Elte, J.W.F. and Cabezas, M.C., 2013. Dyslipidemia in obesity: mechanisms and potential targets. *Nutrients*, 5(4), pp.1218–1240.
  71. Korhonen, M., Muuronen, A., Arponen, O., Mustonen, P., Hedman, M., Jäkälä, P., Vanninen, R. and Taina, M., 2015. Left atrial appendage morphology in patients with suspected cardiogenic stroke without known atrial fibrillation. *PLoS One*, 10(3), p.e0118822.
  72. Krauss, R.M., 2004. Lipids and lipoproteins in patients with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes care*, 27(6), pp.1496–1504.
  73. Kruger, M.J. and Nell, T.A., 2017. The prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in a farm worker community in the Boland district, South Africa. *BMC public health*, 17(1), p.61.



74. Kylin, E., 1923. Studies of the hypertension-hyperglycemia-hyperuricemia syndrome. *Zentralbl Inn Med*, 44, pp.105–127.
75. Labadarios, D., Steyn, N., Maunder, E., MacIntyre, U. and Swart, R., 2001. The National Food Consumption Survey (NFCS)--children aged 1-9 years South Africa 1999. *SAJCN. South African Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 14(2), p.16.
76. Labarthe D, 1998. *Epidemiology and prevention of cardiovascular diseases: a global challenge*. Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.
77. Larsson, B., Svärdsudd, K., Welin, L., Wilhelmsen, L., Björntorp, P. and Tibblin, G., 1984. Abdominal adipose tissue distribution, obesity, and risk of cardiovascular disease and death: 13 year follow up of participants in the study of men born in 1913. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed)*, 288(6428), pp.1401–1404.
78. Li, Y., Wang, L., Jiang, Y., Zhang, M. and Wang, L., 2013. Risk factors for noncommunicable chronic diseases in women in China: surveillance efforts. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 91, pp.650–660.
79. Liu, A. and Reaven, G.M., 2013. Is measurement of non-HDL cholesterol an effective way to identify the metabolic syndrome?. *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases*, 23(11), pp.1122–1127.
80. Lobstein, T., Baur, L. and Uauy, R., 2004. Obesity in children and young people: a crisis in public health. *Obesity reviews*, 5(s1), pp.4–85.
81. Longo-Mbenza, B., Kasiam Lasi On'kin, J.B., Nge Okwe, A., Kangola Kabangu, N. and Mbungu Fuele, S., 2010. Metabolic syndrome, aging, physical inactivity, and incidence of type 2 diabetes in general African population. *Diabetes and Vascular Disease Research*, 7(1), pp.28–39.
82. Lu, Q., Ma, C.M., Yin, F.Z., Liu, B.W., Lou, D.H. and Liu, X.L., 2011. How to simplify the diagnostic criteria of hypertension in adolescents. *Journal of human hypertension*, 25(3), p.159.
83. Malhotra, A., Kang, B.P., Cheung, S., Opawumi, D. and Meggs, L.G., 2001. Angiotensin II promotes glucose-induced activation of cardiac protein kinase C isozymes and phosphorylation of troponin I. *Diabetes*, 50(8), pp.1918–1926.
84. Mancina, G., Fagard, R., Narkiewicz, K., Redán, J., Zanchetti, A., Böhm, M., Christiaens, T., Cifkova, R., De Backer, G., Dominiczak, A. and Galderisi,

- M., 2013. 2013 Practice guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension of the European Society of Hypertension (ESH) and the European Society of Cardiology (ESC): ESH/ESC Task Force for the Management of Arterial Hypertension. *Journal of hypertension*, 31(10), pp.1925–1938.
85. Mathur, R., Hull, S.A., Badrick, E. and Robson, J., 2011. Cardiovascular multimorbidity: the effect of ethnicity on prevalence and risk factor management. *Br J gen pract*, 61(586), pp.262–270.
  86. Mayosi, B.M., Flisher, A.J., Lalloo, U.G., Sitas, F., Tollman, S.M., Bradshaw, D., 2009. The burden of non-communicable diseases in South Africa. *The Lancet*, 374, pp.934–947.
  87. Mchiza, Z.J., Steyn, N.P., Hill, J., Kruger, A., Schönfeldt, H., Nel, J. and Wentzel-Viljoen, E., 2015. A review of dietary surveys in the adult South African population from 2000 to 2015. *Nutrients*, 7(9), pp.8227–8250.
  88. McKeigue, P.M., Lithell, H.O. and Leon, D.A., 1998. Glucose tolerance and resistance to insulin-stimulated glucose uptake in men aged 70 years in relation to size at birth. *Diabetologia*, 41(10), pp.1133–1138.
  89. Mensah, G.A., 2008. Ischaemic heart disease in Africa. *Heart*, 94(7), pp.836–843.
  90. Monyeki, K.D. and Kemper, H.C.G., 2008. The risk factors for elevated blood pressure and how to address cardiovascular risk factors: a review in paediatric populations. *Journal of human hypertension*, 22(7), pp.450–459.
  91. Moore, L.M., Fals, A.M., Jennelle, P.J., Green, J.F., Pepe, J. and Richard, T., 2015. Analysis of pediatric waist to hip ratio relationship to metabolic syndrome markers. *Journal of Pediatric Health Care*, 29(4), pp.319–324.
  92. Morse, S.A., Zhang, R., Thakur, V. and Reisin, E., 2005. Hypertension and the metabolic syndrome. *The American journal of the medical sciences*, 330(6), pp.303–310.
  93. Motala, A.A., Esterhuizen, T., Pirie, F.J. and Omar, M.A., 2011. The prevalence of metabolic syndrome and determination of the optimal waist circumference cutoff points in a rural South African community. *Diabetes care*, 34(4), pp.1032–1037.

94. Motala, A.A., Mbanja, J.C. and Ramaiya, K.L., 2009. Metabolic syndrome in sub-Saharan Africa. *Ethn Dis*, 19(2 Suppl 2), pp. 2–8.
95. Mottillo, S., Filion, K.B., Genest, J., Joseph, L., Pilote, L., Poirier, P., Rinfret, S., Schiffrin, E.L. and Eisenberg, M.J., 2010. The metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*, 56(14), pp.1113–1132.
96. Mozumdar, A. and Liguori, G., 2011. Persistent increase of prevalence of metabolic syndrome among US adults: NHANES III to NHANES 1999–2006. *Diabetes care*, 34(1), pp.216–219.
97. Myers, M.G., Godwin, M., Dawes, M., Kiss, A., Tobe, S.W. and Kaczorowski, J., 2010. Measurement of blood pressure in the office: recognizing the problem and proposing the solution. *Hypertension*, 55(2), pp.195–200.
98. Nadar, S.K., Tayebjee, M.H., Messerli, F. and Lip, G.Y., 2006. Target organ damage in hypertension: pathophysiology and implications for drug therapy. *Current pharmaceutical design*, 12(13), pp.1581–1592.
99. Naidoo, J. and Wills, J., 2016. *Foundations for Health Promotion-E-Book. Elsevier Health Sciences.*
100. Neeland, I.J., Ayers, C.R., Rohatgi, A.K., Turer, A.T., Berry, J.D., Das, S.R., Vega, G.L., Khera, A., McGuire, D.K., Grundy, S.M. and Lemos, J.A., 2013. Associations of visceral and abdominal subcutaneous adipose tissue with markers of cardiac and metabolic risk in obese adults. *Obesity*, 21(9).
101. Nestel, P., Lyu, R., Low, L.P., Sheu, W.H.H., Nitiyanant, W., Saito, I. and Tan, C.E., 2007. Metabolic syndrome: recent prevalence in East and Southeast Asian populations. *Asia Pacific journal of clinical nutrition*, 16(2), pp.362–367.
102. Nikolic, D., Katsiki, N., Montalto, G., Isenovic, E.R., Mikhailidis, D.P. and Rizzo, M., 2013. Lipoprotein subfractions in metabolic syndrome and obesity: clinical significance and therapeutic approaches. *Nutrients*, 5(3), pp. 928–948.
103. Nobrega, A.C., O'Leary, D., Silva, B.M., Marongiu, E., Piepoli, M.F. and Crisafulli, A., 2014. Neural regulation of cardiovascular response to

exercise: role of central command and peripheral afferents. *BioMed research international*, 2014.

104. Ogbera, A.O., 2010. Prevalence and gender distribution of the metabolic syndrome. *Diabetology & metabolic syndrome*, 2(1), p.1.
105. Oguoma, V.M., Nwose, E.U. and Richards, R.S., 2015. Prevalence of cardio-metabolic syndrome in Nigeria: a systematic review. *public health*, 129(5), pp.413–423.
106. Okada, R., Yasuda, Y., Tsushita, K., Wakai, K., Hamajima, N. and Matsuo, S., 2016. Upper-normal waist circumference is a risk marker for metabolic syndrome in normal-weight subjects. *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases*, 26(1), pp.67–76.
107. Okafor, C.I., 2012. The metabolic syndrome in Africa: Current trends. *Indian journal of endocrinology and metabolism*, 16(1), p.56.
108. Ordovas, J.M., 2007. Genetic links between diabetes mellitus and coronary atherosclerosis. *Current atherosclerosis reports*, 9(3), pp.204–210.
109. Oron-Herman, M., Kamari, Y., Grossman, E., Yeger, G., Peleg, E., Shabtay, Z., Shamiss, A. and Sharabi, Y., 2008. Metabolic syndrome: comparison of the two commonly used animal models. *American journal of hypertension*, 21(9), pp.1018–1022.
110. Oti, M. and Brunner, H.G., 2007. The modular nature of genetic diseases. *Clinical genetics*, 71(1), pp.1–11.
111. Patel, V., Flisher, A.J., Hetrick, S. and McGorry, P., 2007. Mental health of young people: a global public-health challenge. *The Lancet*, 369(9569), pp.1302–1313.
112. Pickering, T.G., Hall, J.E., Appel, L.J., Falkner, B.E., Graves, J., Hill, M.N., Jones, D.W., Kurtz, T., Sheps, S.G. and Roccella, E.J., 2005. Recommendations for blood pressure measurement in humans and experimental animals: part 1: blood pressure measurement in humans: a statement for professionals from the Subcommittee of Professional and Public Education of the American Heart Association Council on High Blood Pressure Research. *Circulation*, 111(5), pp.697–716.

113. Popkin, B.M., 2003. The nutrition transition in the developing world. *Development policy review*, 21(5-6), pp.581–597.
114. Popkin, B.M., Adair, L.S. and Ng, S.W., 2012. Global nutrition transition and the pandemic of obesity in developing countries. *Nutrition reviews*, 70(1), pp.3–21.
115. Puavilai, G., Chanprasertyotin, S. and Sriphrapradaeng, A., 1999. Diagnostic criteria for diabetes mellitus and other categories of glucose intolerance: 1997 criteria by the Expert Committee on the Diagnosis and Classification of Diabetes Mellitus (ADA), 1998 WHO consultation criteria, and 1985 WHO criteria. *Diabetes research and clinical practice*, 44(1), pp.21–26.
116. Puepet, F.H., Uloko, A., Akogu, I.Y. and Aniekwensi, E., 2009. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome among patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus in urban North-Central Nigeria. *African Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism*, 8(1), pp.12–14.
117. Reaven, G.M., 2006. The metabolic syndrome: is this diagnosis necessary?. *The American journal of clinical nutrition*, 83(6), pp. 1237–1247.
118. Reddy, P., Meyer-Weitz, A. and Yach, D., 1996. Smoking status, knowledge of health effects and attitudes towards tobacco control in South Africa. *South African medical journal*, 86(11).
119. Regitz-Zagrosek, V., 2012. Sex and gender differences in health: Science & Society Series on Sex and Science. *EMBO reports*, 13(7), pp.596–603.
120. Rehm, J., Mathers, C., Popova, S., Thavorncharoensap, M., Teerawattananon, Y. and Patra, J., 2009. Global burden of disease and injury and economic cost attributable to alcohol use and alcohol-use disorders. *The Lancet*, 373(9682), pp.2223–2233.
121. Rehm, J., Room, R., Monteiro, M., Gmel, G., Graham, K., Rehn, N., Sempos, C.T. and Jernigan, D., 2003. Alcohol as a risk factor for global burden of disease. *European addiction research*, 9(4), pp.157–164.
122. Reilly, M.P. and Rader, D.J., 2003. The metabolic syndrome. *Circulation*, 108(13), pp.1546–1551.
123. Roberts, C.K., Hevener, A.L. and Barnard, R.J., 2013. Metabolic syndrome and insulin resistance: underlying causes and modification by exercise training. *Comprehensive Physiology*.

124. Roden, M., Price, T.B., Perseghin, G., Petersen, K.F., Rothman, D.L., Cline, G.W. and Shulman, G.I., 1996. Mechanism of free fatty acid-induced insulin resistance in humans. *Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 97(12), pp.2859.
125. Rohlfing, C.L., Wiedmeyer, H.M., Little, R.R., England, J.D., Tennill, A. and Goldstein, D.E., 2002. Defining the relationship between plasma glucose and HbA1c: analysis of glucose profiles and HbA1c in the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial. *Diabetes care*, 25(2), pp.275–278.
126. Saad, M.F., Rewers, M., Selby, J., Howard, G., Jinagouda, S., Fahmi, S., Zaccaro, D., Bergman, R.N., Savage, P.J. and Haffner, S.M., 2004. Insulin resistance and hypertension. *Hypertension*, 43(6), pp.1324–1331.
127. Sekokotla, M.A., Goswami, N., Sewani-Rusike, C.R., Iputo, J.E. and Nkeh-Chungag, B.N., 2017. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in adolescents living in Mthatha, South Africa. *Therapeutics and clinical risk management*, 13, pp.131.
128. Shi, J., Liu, M., Zhang, Q., Lu, M. and Quan, H., 2008. Male and female adult population health status in China: a cross-sectional national survey. *BioMed central public health*, 8:pp.277–285.
129. Shoelson, S.E., Lee, J. and Goldfine, A.B., 2006. Inflammation and insulin resistance. *Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 116(7), p.1793.
130. Stergiou, G.S., Giovas, P.P., Kollias, A., Rarra, V.C., Papagiannis, J., Georgakopoulos, D. and Vazeou, A., 2011. Relationship of home blood pressure with target-organ damage in children and adolescents. *Hypertension Research*, 34(5), pp.640–644.
131. Stern, M.P., Williams, K., González-Villalpando, C., Hunt, K.J. and Haffner, S.M., 2004. Does the metabolic syndrome improve identification of individuals at risk of type 2 diabetes and/or cardiovascular disease?. *Diabetes care*, 27(11), pp.2676–2681.
132. Temple, N.J., Steyn, N.P., Myburgh, N.G. and Nel, J.H., 2006. Food items consumed by students attending schools in different socioeconomic areas in Cape Town, South Africa. *Nutrition*, 22(3), pp.252–258.
133. Unwin, N., Shaw, J., Zimmet, P. and Alberti, K.G.M.M., 2002. Impaired glucose tolerance and impaired fasting glycaemia: the current status on definition and intervention. *Diabetic medicine*, 19(9), pp.708–723.

134. Vague, J., 1947. Sexual differentiation, a factor affecting the forms of obesity. *Presse Med*, 30, pp.339–340.
135. van Vliet-Ostaptchouk, J.V., Nuotio, M.L., Slagter, S.N., Doiron, D., Fischer, K., Foco, L., Gaye, A., Gögele, M., Heier, M., Hiekkalinna, T. and Joensuu, A., 2014. The prevalence of metabolic syndrome and metabolically healthy obesity in Europe: a collaborative analysis of ten large cohort studies. *BMC endocrine disorders*, 14(1), pp.9.
136. Van Zyl, S., Van der Merwe, L.J., Walsh, C.M., Groenewald, A.J. and Van Rooyen, F.C., 2012. Risk-factor profiles for chronic diseases of lifestyle and metabolic syndrome in an urban and rural setting in South Africa. *African Journal of Primary Health Care and Family Medicine*, 4(1), pp.1–10.
137. Verdecchia, P., 2000. Prognostic value of ambulatory blood pressure: current evidence and clinical implications. *Hypertension*, 35(3), pp.844–851.
138. Viera, A.J. and Neutze, D.M., 2010. Diagnosis of secondary hypertension: an age-based approach. *American family physician*, 82(12).
139. Vorster, H.H., 2002. The emergence of cardiovascular disease during urbanisation of Africans. *Public health nutrition*, 5(1a), pp.239–243.
140. Weiss, R., 2007. Fat distribution and storage: how much, where, and how?. *European Journal of Endocrinology*, 157(suppl 1), pp.S39–S45.
141. Weiss, R., Dziura, J., Burgert, T.S., Tamborlane, W.V., Taksali, S.E., Yeckel, C.W., Allen, K., Lopes, M., Savoye, M., Morrison, J. and Sherwin, R.S., 2004. Obesity and the metabolic syndrome in children and adolescents. *New England journal of medicine*, 350(23), pp.2362–2374.
142. Wild, S.R. and Green, A., 2000. SicreeR and King H. *Global prevalence of diabetes: Estimates for the year*, pp.1047–1053.
143. World Health Organization, 1997. Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications: report of a WHO consultation. Part 1, Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus.
144. World Health Organization, 1999. *Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications: report of a WHO consultation. Part 1, Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus* (No. WHO/NCD/NCS/99.2). Geneva: World health organization.

145. World Health Organization, 2004. Diabetes action now: an initiative of the World Health Organization and the International Diabetes Federation.
146. World Health Organization, 2004. Global strategy on diet, physical activity and health.
147. World Health Organization, 2008. Waist circumference and waist-hip ratio: Report of a WHO expert consultation, Geneva, 8–11.
148. World Health Organization and Research for International Tobacco Control, 2008. *WHO report on the global tobacco epidemic, 2008: the MPOWER package*. World Health Organization.
149. World Health Organization, 2015. *WHO global report on trends in prevalence of tobacco smoking 2015*. World Health Organization.
150. World Health Organization, 2016. *World Health Statistics 2016: Monitoring Health for the SDGs Sustainable Development Goals*. World Health Organization.
151. Xi, B., Zhang, M., Zhang, T., Liang, Y., Li, S. and Steffen, L.M., 2014. Hypertension screening using blood pressure to height ratio. *Pediatrics*, 134(1), pp.106–111.
152. Yusuf, S., Reddy, S., Ôunpuu, S. and Anand, S., 2001. Global burden of cardiovascular diseases: Part II: variations in cardiovascular disease by specific ethnic groups and geographic regions and prevention strategies. *Circulation*, 104(23), pp.2855–2864.
153. Zarei, M., Taib, M.N.M. and Zarei, F., 2013. Lifestyle factors and dietary intake of Iranian postgraduate students in Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM). *Electronic physician*, 5(3), pp.687.
154. Zimmet, P., Alberti, K.G.M., Kaufman, F., Tajima, N., Silink, M., Arslanian, S., Wong, G., Bennett, P., Shaw, J. and Caprio, S., 2007. The metabolic syndrome in children and adolescents—an IDF consensus report. *Pediatric diabetes*, 8(5), pp.299–306.



# **CHAPTER 3**

## **1. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### **1.1. GEOGRAPHICAL AREA**

Ellisras (known as Lephalale) is considered as one of the deep rural areas in the western part of the Limpopo province in South Africa (SA). The villages are approximately 70km away from the Ellisras town (23°40S 27°44W), adjacent to the Botswana border. The population is about 50,000 dispersed across 42 settlements (Sidiropoulos *et al.*, 1997). The main sources of employment for the Ellisras residents are the Iscor coal mine and the Matimba electricity power station. The remaining workforce is mostly involved in subsistence farming and cattle rearing, while a few are involved in education and civil services. Poverty, unemployment and low life expectancy are common in rural South African settings and the Ellisras rural population is not exempted from this (Stats SA, 2002).



Figure 5: The South African map showing the Ellisras area

## 1.2. SAMPLE AND RESEARCH DESIGN

The Ellisras Longitudinal Study (ELS) was initiated in 1996 and applied a cluster sampling method (Monyeki *et al.*, 1999; Monyeki *et al.*, 2000). The study was undertaken at 22 schools (10 pre-schools and 12 primary schools). These schools were randomly selected from a pool of 68 schools within the Ellisras area. Birth records were obtained from the principals of each school. Only those records that were verified against health clinic records were used to determine the age of potential participants. Each of the 22 selected schools were assigned a grade with the expectation that most of the children in a particular age category (i.e. 3, 4,...9,10) would be found in that grade.

The current study is based on secondary data analysis of the ELS and was conducted in two phases. Phase 1 included data analysis of all the participants in the ELS. This sample included a total number of 9002 children and adolescents (4678 boys and 4324 girls), aged 6-17 years. Parents or guardians provided written informed consent. Phase 2 consisted of biochemical analysis from a subsample of participants in the ELS. The subsample included 624 participants (306 males and 318 females) aged 18-30 years at the time the study was conducted. The Ethics Committee of the University of Limpopo granted ethical approval prior to the survey and the participants signed the informed consent forms (MREC /P/204/2013:IR).

### **1.3. MEASUREMENTS**

#### **3.3.1. Anthropometry**

All participants underwent anthropometric measurements (waist circumference and height) according to the standard of the International Society for the Advancement of Kinanthropometry (ISAK) (Norton and Olds, 1996). The waist circumference (WC) measurements were taken to the nearest 0.1 cm, using a soft measuring tape. Height measurements were taken to the nearest 0.1 cm in barefooted study participants.

#### **3.3.2. Blood pressure**

At least three blood pressure (BP) readings of systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) were taken using an Omron electronic Micronta

monitoring kit (Omron Healthcare Europe B.V, Hoofddorp, the Netherlands) after the child had been seated for 5 min or longer at 5 minutes intervals (Collaboration, 2017). The bladder of the device contained an electronic infrasonic transducer that monitors the BP and pulse rate, displaying these concurrently on the screen. This versatile instrument has been designed for research and clinical purposes (Ramoshaba *et al.*, 2017). In a pilot study, conducted before the survey, a high correlation ( $r = 0.93$ ) was found between the readings taken with the automated device and those taken with a conventional mercury sphygmomanometer.

To perform the blood pressure to height ratio (BPHR), hypertension was defined according to the 2004 National High Blood Pressure Education Program Working Group definition (Lu *et al.*, 2011). The following equation for BPHR was used: systolic blood pressure to height ratio (SBPHR) = SBP (mm Hg)/height (cm) and diastolic blood pressure to height ratio (DBPHR) = DBP (mmHg)/height (cm) (Lu *et al.*, 2011).

#### *Definition for hypertension*

The United States (US) National High Blood Pressure Education Program working group was used to define prehypertension and hypertension and followed the age, gender and height specificity for BP (National High Blood Pressure Education Program, 1996). Prehypertension was defined as SBP/DBP  $\geq 90^{\text{th}}$  but  $\leq 95^{\text{th}}$  percentile or SBP/DBP  $\geq 120/80$  mmHg and  $< 130/90$  mmHg. Hypertension stage 1 was defined as SBP/DBP  $\geq 95^{\text{th}}$  percentile. Hypertension stage 2 was defined as SBP/DBP  $\geq 99^{\text{th}}$  percentile + 5 mm Hg. These BP references were used as gold standard (Falkner *et al.*, 2004)



**Figure 6: Picture shows blood pressure measurements**

### **3.3.3. Dietary intake**

Dietary intake was measured using a validated 24-hour recall method (Langenhoven, 1991). Senior Northern Sotho speaking dietetic students of the University of Limpopo, specifically trained to use the 24-hour recall method, completed interviews with participants regarding their dietary intake over the previous 24-hours. For each participant, interviews took place on one weekday and on one weekend day. An average of the two days 24-hour dietary intake was then compiled for each participant. Estimated portion sizes of foods consumed were recorded in as much detail as possible, using a pre-tested questionnaire and food models, simulating average portions of local foods (Frisancho, 1990). The different

forms of dietary fibre (total, soluble and insoluble fibre) consumed were calculated using the Food Finder 111 analysis package and are recorded and presented as grams. Briefly, the amount of food items consumed by each individual (breakfast, lunch, supper) were captured into Food Finder 111 software version 3.0 (May 2014) (FoodFinder Database). All food items were analysed and the output was saved on to an excel spreadsheet. The raw data was imported into the statistical package of the social sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 for statistical analysis.

Furthermore, a self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data on lifestyle factors, including smoking and alcohol intake.

### **3.3.4. Biochemical parameters**

#### *Fasting blood glucose*

Fasting blood samples were collected into 4 ml grey top vacutainer tubes [vacutainer BD™] containing sodium fluoride and oxalate. Samples were then placed in a cooler box with ice (0–8°C) on site prior to analysis. The fasting blood glucose (FBG) was measured using the glucose oxidase method, on a Beckman LX20® auto analyser (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA).

#### *Lipid profile*

At the laboratory, fasting blood samples were centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 15 minutes to obtain plasma. Total cholesterol (TCHOL), triglycerides (TG) and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) were measured using the enzymatic assay kits on a Beckman LX20® auto-analyser (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA). Plasma was stored at -80°C prior to analysis. Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) was calculated using Friedewald equation:

$$([\text{LDL-C}] = [\text{TCHOL}] - [\text{HDL-C}] - [\text{TG}] / 5) \text{ (Friedewald } et al., 1972).$$

#### *Criteria for metabolic syndrome diagnosis*

MetS was diagnosed using the new harmonised guidelines of the international diabetes federation (IDF) which requires large waist circumference (WC) of ≥94cm (males) and ≥80cm (Females) in addition to two of the following criteria: low HDL-C of <1.0 mmol/L (males) and <1.3 mmol/L (females), high TG of ≥1.7 mmol/L,

elevated BP ( $\geq 130$  mmHg systole and/or  $\geq 85$  mmHg diastole), or FBG ( $\geq 5.6$  mmol/L) (Alberti *et al.*, 2009).

All measurements were done with an AU480 Chemistry System from Beckman Coulter (Brea, Calif). The instrument was calibrated according to standard procedures. All measurements were done in triplicate and the percentage of the coefficient of variation (CV) was calculated. Measurements were repeated when the CV > 5%. All biochemical analyses was done in the Medical Science Unit of the Department of Pathology and Medical Science at University of Limpopo.

#### **1.4. QUALITY CONTROL**

All training of anthropometric measurements was done in accordance with the standard procedures of the International Society for the Advancement of Kinanthropometry (ISAK) (Norton and Olds, 1996). Reliability and validity of anthropometric measurements have been reported elsewhere (Monyeki *et al.*, 2002). In brief, the absolute and relative values for intra- and inter-tester technical error of measurements (TEM) for stature, ranged from 0.04-4.16 cm (0.2-5.01%) and circumference measurements ranged from 0.0-3.4 cm (0-4%) (Monyeki *et al.*, 2002).





**Figure 7: Picture of fieldworkers capturing a data**

## **1.5. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Descriptive statistics for continuous variable such as age, height, SBP, DBP, SBPHR, DBPHR, WC, FBG, TCHOL, HDL-C, TG, LDL-C, energy, free fatty acids (FFAs), protein, carbohydrate, added sugar, fibre, saturated fatty acids (SFAs), monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFAs), polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), trans fatty acids are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD or median and inter-quartile range (IQR) for Ellisras participants aged 6-30 years. The independent t-test was applied to test the significance level ( $P < 0.05$ ) between genders and age groups.

The  $X^2$  test was used for categorical variables. For the prevalence estimates, the international diabetes federation (IDF) criteria were applied to participants who had



elevated WC in addition to two or more of other risk factors of other risk factors of metS.

#### *Receiver operating curve analysis*

Receiver operating characteristics curve (ROC) analysis was performed to assess the performance of SBPHR and DBPHR as an accurate tool for screening elevated SBP and DBP, respectively. The area under the curve (AUC) and 95% confidence interval (CI) for the BPHR index was performed to assess the discrimination power of the test. The AUC typically ranged from 0.5 to 1, representing the power that had poor discrimination from the one that had the perfect discrimination. A good test has an ROC skewed to the upper left corner with AUC of 1, whereas an AUC of 0.5 means that the test performs no better than chance (Schisterman *et al.*, 2001; Zhou *et al.*, 2009). Prehypertension and hypertension were defined by the determined optimal thresholds of the BPHR index and were used as predictive variables to compare with the gold standard. The sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value (PPV), negative predictive value (NPV) and AUC (95% CI) were calculated to assess the performance of determined optimal thresholds.

The United States (US) National High Blood Pressure Education Program working group (National High Blood Pressure Education Program, 1996), was used to define prehypertension and hypertension and followed the age, gender and height specificity for BP. Prehypertension was defined as SBP/DBP  $\geq$ 90<sup>th</sup> but  $\leq$ 95<sup>th</sup> percentile or SBP/DBP  $\geq$ 120/80 mmHg and  $<$ 130/90 mmHg. Hypertension stage 1 was defined as SBP/DBP  $\geq$ 95<sup>th</sup> percentile. Hypertension stage 2 was defined as SBP/DBP  $\geq$ 99<sup>th</sup> percentile+5 mmHg (Falkner *et al.*, 2004).

#### *The association between dietary intake and metabolic syndrome risk factors*

Linear regression analysis was used to investigate the association of dietary intake with various metS risk factors. The data was further unadjusted and adjusted for age, gender and energy. Dietary intake variables used in the linear regression method were log transformed prior to analysis because of their skewed distribution.

Logistic regression analysis was used to investigate the risk of dietary intake on metS risk factors. Chi-square tests were used for proportions between genders and age groups

Unadjusted and adjusted for age, gender, smoking and alcohol intake odds ratios was used to show the influence of dietary intake on metS risk factors.

*Statistical package and significance level*

All the statistical analyses were done using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA, 23.0). A p-value of  $< 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.

## 1.6. REFERENCES

1. Alberti, K.G.M.M., Eckel, R.H., Grundy, S.M., Zimmet, P.Z., Cleeman, J.I., Donato, K.A., Fruchart, J.C., James, W.P.T., Loria, C.M. and Smith, S.C., 2009. Harmonizing the metabolic syndrome. *Circulation*, 120(16), pp.1640–1645.
2. Collaboration, N.R.F., 2017. Worldwide trends in blood pressure from 1975 to 2015: a pooled analysis of 1479 population-based measurement studies with 19· 1 million participants. *Lancet*, 389, pp.37–55.
3. Falkner, B., Daniels, S.R., Flynn, J.T., Gidding, S., Green, L.A., Ingelfinger, J.R., Lauer, R.M., Morgenstern, B.Z., Portman, R.J., Prineas, R.J. and Rocchini, A.P., 2004. The fourth report on the diagnosis, evaluation, and treatment of high blood pressure in children and adolescents. *Pediatrics*, 114(2 III), pp.555–576.
4. Friedewald, W.T., Levy, R.I. and Fredrickson, D.S., 1972. Estimation of the concentration of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in plasma, without use of the preparative ultracentrifuge. *Clinical chemistry*, 18(6), pp.499–502.
5. Frisancho, A.R., 1990. *Anthropometric Standards for the Assessment of Growth and Nutritional Status*; University of Michigan Press: Ann Arbor, MI, USA.
6. Langenhoven ML, 1991. MRC food composition tables. SA Research Institute for Nutritional Disease.
7. Lu, Q., Ma, C.M., Yin, F.Z., Liu, B.W., Lou, D.H. and Liu, X.L., 2011. How to simplify the diagnostic criteria of hypertension in adolescents. *Journal of human hypertension*, 25(3), pp.159–163.
8. Monyeki KD, Toriola AL, Ridder JD, Kemper HC, Steyn NP, Nthangeni ME, Twisk JW, Lenthe FV. (2002). Stability of somatotypes in 4 to 10 year-old rural South African girls. *Annals of Human Biology*, 29, pp.37–49
9. Monyeki, K.D., Cameron, N. and Getz, B., 2000. Growth and nutritional status of rural South African children 3–10 years old: The Ellisras growth study. *American Journal of Human Biology*, 12(1), pp.42–49.

10. Monyeki, K.D., Van Lenthe, F.J. and Steyn, N.P., 1999. Obesity: does it occur in African children in a rural community in South Africa?. *International journal of epidemiology*, 28(2), pp.287–292.
11. National High Blood Pressure Education Program (NHBPEP) working group on hypertension control in children and adolescents. (1996). Update on the 1987 task force report on high blood pressure in children and adolescents: a working group report from the National High Blood Pressure Education Program. *Paediatrics*, 98, pp.649–658.
12. Norton, K. and Olds, T. eds., 1996. *Anthropometrica: a textbook of body measurement for sports and health courses*. UNSW press.
13. Ramoshaba, N.E., Monyeki, K.D., Mpya, J. and Monyeki, M.S., 2017. The relationship between sitting height, sitting height to height ratio with blood pressure among Polokwane private school children aged 6–13 years. *BMC public health*, 17(1), p.973.
14. Schisterman, E.F., Faraggi, D., Reiser, B. and Trevisan, M., 2001. Statistical inference for the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve in the presence of random measurement error. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 154(2), pp.174–179.
15. Sidiropoulos, E., Jeffery, A., Mackay, S., Gallocher, R., Forgey, H. and Chipps, C., 1997. South Africa Survey. *Johannesburg: South African Institute of Race Relations*.
16. *Statistics South Africa, 2002. Cause of Death in South Africa 1997–2001: Advance Release of Records of Death. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa, pp.18–42.*
17. Zhou, X.H., McClish, D.K. and Obuchowski, N.A., 2009. *Statistical methods in diagnostic medicine* (Vol. 569).

# **CHAPTER 4**

## **4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.1. Development of height and blood pressure to height ratio in the ELS children aged 6-17 years between 1999-2003 (Phase 1)**

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for the height and BP by age and gender of ELS sample over time (1999-2003). As expected, the mean height for both genders increases with age overtime (134.27 boys, 134.54 girls (1999); 139.32 boys, 140.25 girls (2000); 142.96 boys, 145.18 girls (2001); 146.54 boys, 148.32 girls (2002); 150.87 boys, 152.34 girls (2003)). However, girls had significantly higher levels for changes in height compared to boys ( $P < 0.05$ ) in each years. Similar results were observed in He and Karlberg (2001). The increase in height over time is well documented and is linked to puberty stage during growth (Salerno *et al.*, 1997; He and Karlberg, 2001; Zeitlin *et al.*, 2003). The levels of systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) were high in girls but increased with age in both genders overtime ( $P < 0.001$ ). Similarly, the levels of systolic blood pressure to height ratio (SBPHR) and diastolic blood pressure-to-height ratio (DBPHR) increased in both genders overtime, although higher in girls than in boys. Peters *et al.* (2012), also reported the same trend of increasing blood pressure over time in children. These common findings are not surprising since blood pressure is proven to be closely correlated with height in children (Voors *et al.*, 1977).

Table 2 Descriptive statistics for the development of height and blood pressure by age and gender of ELS children overtime (1999-2003).

	1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	Boys(n=984) M±SD	Girls(n=907) M±SD	Boys(n=936) M±SD	Girls(n=877) M±SD	Boys(n=926) M±SD	Girls(n=839) M±SD	Boys(n=890) M±SD	Girls(n=823) M±SD	Boys(n=942) M±SD	Girls(n=878) M±SD
<b>Age (y)</b>	10.17±1.88	10.21±1.79	11.01±1.90	11.03±1.82	11.56±1.90	11.65±1.80	12.39±1.91	12.47±1.88	13.14±1.91	13.48±1.86
<b>Height (cm)</b>	134.27±9.40	134.54±7.80	139.32*±9.18	140.25*±9.05	142.96**±8.18	145.18**±7.15	146.54*±11.24	148.32*±10.9	150.87*±11.4	152.34*±10.7
<b>SBP (mmHg)</b>	97.77**±7.84	99.58**±8.61	99.42*±8.50	100.93**±8.3	94.55**±7.25	96.76**±8.05	102.77**±14.8	105.5**±14.6	105.15**±10.5	107.9**±10.8
<b>DBP (mmHg)</b>	60.59**±6.14	61.92**±6.26	65.47*±6.70	66.48*±7.19	61.85**±5.75	63.26**±6.12	61.36**±11.31	63.34**±10.8	66.98**±7.98	68.59**±7.57
<b>SBPHR</b>	0.73**±0.06	0.74**±0.07	0.72±0.07	0.72±0.06	0.66**±0.06	0.68**±0.06	0.70*±0.09	0.71*±0.08	0.70*±0.07	0.71*±0.08
<b>DBPHR</b>	0.45**±0.05	0.46**±0.05	0.59**±0.07	0.60**±0.06	0.44*±0.05	0.44*±0.05	0.70*±0.09	0.71*±0.08	0.45*±0.06	0.45*±0.06

SBP=systolic blood pressure; DPB=diastolic blood pressure; SBPHR=systolic blood pressure to height ratio; DBPHR=diastolic blood pressure to ratio; M=mean; SD=standard deviation; \*P<0.05, \*\*P<0.001.

*Selection of optimal thresholds of SBPHR/DBPHR for Identifying elevated blood pressure in Ellisras children*

Table 3 shows the selection of optimal thresholds of SBPHR and DBPHR for identifying elevated SBP and DBP in Ellisras children and adolescents aged 6-17 years. Because the optimal thresholds of BPHR between age groups 11-13 and 14-17 years were very close or similar to one another, the average was considered and defined as adolescents, while age groups 6-10 were defined as children (Monyeki *et al.*, 1999). For SBPHR, 0.77 was selected as an optimal threshold for prehypertension among children, whereas 0.73 was selected for adolescents. For DBPHR, 0.55 was selected in children and 0.53 in adolescents. The corresponding hypertension stage 1 ( $SBP \geq 95$ th percentile) for SBPHR was 0.75 and 0.73 for children and adolescents, respectively; while the DBPHR for children and adolescents were 0.50 and 0.58, respectively. The discriminatory ability of optimal cut-offs of SBPHR and DBPHR for identifying prehypertension, hypertension stages 1 and 2 was satisfactory. The cut-offs seem to be better at predicting stage 2 hypertension of which the majority of children have been screened in the current study and this was consistent with the findings of other research (Lu *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, this test becomes more sensitive and specific to the severe condition (Kanchanaraksa, 2008). The results of thesis could be used by Clinicians in their own practices in Ellisras rural area and similar rural settings in South African populations.



Table 3 Selection of optimal thresholds of SBPHR/DBPHR for Identifying elevated BP in ELS children aged 6-17 years, (Boys n=4678), (Girls n=4324)

	90 percentile ≥ SBP<90th percentile				SBP≥95th percentile				SBP>99 <sup>th</sup> percentile + 5 mm Hg			
	Children(6-10years)		Adolescents(11-17years)		Children(6-10years)		Adolescents(11-17years)		Children(6-10years)		Adolescents(11-17years)	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
<b>Threshold</b>	0.75	0.78	0.72	0.73	0.75	0.77	0.71	0.74	0.76	0.81	0.74	0.75
<b>Total</b>	0.77		0.73		0.76		0.73		0.79		0.75	
<b>Sensitivity</b>	0.732	0.819	0.821	0.798	0.809	0.848	0.800	0.789	0.867	0.955	0.871	0.923
<b>Total</b>	0.776		0.810		0.829		0.795		0.911		0.897	
<b>Specificity</b>	0.675	0.771	0.717	0.701	0.684	0.741	0.667	0.734	0.731	0.878	0.808	0.792
<b>Total</b>	0.723		0.709		0.713		0.701		0.805		0.80	
<b>AUC(95% CI)</b>	0.764(0.678-0.850)	0.836(0.785-0.888)	0.836(0.793-0.874)	0.815(0.787-0.843)	0.856(0.811-0.900)	0.862(0.788-0.936)	0.797(0.726-0.868)	0.832(0.790-0.873)	0.884(0.800-0.968)	0.935(0.849-1.000)	0.908(0.863-0.954)	0.934(0.892-0.975)
<b>Total</b>	0.80(0.732-0.869)		0.826(0.793-0.859)		0.859(0.800-0.918)		0.815(0.758-0.871)		0.910(0.825-0.984)		0.921(0.878-0.965)	
	90 percentile ≥ DBP<90th percentile				DBP≥95th percentile				DBP>99 <sup>th</sup> percentile + 5 mmHg			
	Children(6-10years)		Adolescents(11-17years)		Children(6-10years)		Adolescents(11-17years)		Children(6-10years)		Adolescents(11-17years)	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
<b>Threshold</b>	0.54	0.55	0.53	0.53	0.54	0.58	0.58	0.58	0.59	0.57	0.57	0.61
<b>Total</b>	0.55		0.53		0.5		0.58		0.58		0.59	
<b>Sensitivity</b>	0.707	0.681	0.887	0.947	0.809	0.727	0.745	0.725	0.800	0.500	0.710	0.708
<b>Total</b>	0.694		0.920		0.768		0.735		0.65		0.709	
<b>Specificity</b>	0.61	0.625	0.939	0.949	0.605	0.684	0.728	0.701	0.721	0.639	0.692	0.747
<b>Total</b>	0.618		0.944		0.645		0.715		0.68		0.720	
<b>AUC(95% CI)</b>	0.713(0.660-0.765)	0.722(0.668-0.775)	0.820(0.713-0.926)	0.812(0.728-0.895)	0.806(0.753-0.860)	0.752(0.668-0.844)	0.812(0.753-0.872)	0.795(0.755-0.836)	0.868(0.793-0.938)	0.647(0.555-0.739)	0.814(0.753-0.876)	0.847(0.795-0.899)
<b>Total</b>	0.718(0.664-0.77)		0.816(0.721-0.912)		0.779(0.707-0.852)		0.804(0.754-0.854)		0.758(0.677-0.839)		0.831(0.774-0.888)	

AUC=area under the curve; BP=blood pressure; CI=confidence interval; DBP=diastolic blood pressure; DBPHR=diastolic blood pressure to height ratio; ELS=ellisras longitudinal study; SBP= systolic blood pressure; SBPHR=systolic blood pressure to height ratio.

*Performances of optimal thresholds of SBPHR/DBPHR for identifying prehypertension and hypertension in Ellisras children aged 6-17 years*

Table 4 shows the prehypertension, hypertension stages 1 and 2 redefined using the optimal thresholds of BPHR index and compared with the gold standard. Performance of the optimal thresholds of the SBPHR/DBPHR for detecting prehypertension, hypertension stages 1 and 2 was satisfactory based on sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value (PPV) and negative predictive value (NPV), regardless of age groups. In all prehypertension, hypertension stages 1 and 2, the NPVs were very high ( $\geq 98\%$ ), although PPVs were lower (ranging from 7–14%). The sensitivity and specificity of these methods were  $<70\%$ . The NPV was above 98% for both children and adolescents indicating that all individuals with normal BP was identified. However, the PPV results indicated that individuals with true prehypertension, hypertension stages 1 and 2 only accounted to 6.9–13.5% of all screened hypertension. In other words, about 86.5–93.1% of individuals with normal BP will be misclassified into the hypertension group. The results suggested that the optimal cut-offs of SBPHR and DBPHR were accurate and acceptable for screening children with increased risk of hypertension but should not be deliberated as the diagnostic criteria. The screened hypertension individuals using SBPHR and DBPHR should further be examined and confirmed by medical professionals. The optimal thresholds of SBPHR and DBPHR for screening hypertension were established by Xi *et al.* (2014). The optimal thresholds for prehypertension were 0.81 in children and 0.70 in adolescents for SBPHR, while DBPHR was 0.52 in children and 0.46 in adolescents, and were similar to the results of Ellisras children and adolescents aged 6-17 years.

Table 4 Performances of optimal thresholds of SBPHR/DBPHR for identifying prehypertension and hypertension in ELS children aged 6-17 year.

	Prehypertension		Hypertension(stage 1)		Hypertension(stage 2)	
	6-10 years	11-17 years	6-10 years	11-17 years	6-10 years	11-17 years
<b>Threshold (SBPHR/DBPHR)</b>	0.77/0.55	0.73/0.53	0.76/0.56	0.73/0.58	0.79/0.58	0.75/0.59
<b>Sensitivity</b>	0.780	0.809	0.831	0.798	0.911	0.900
<b>Specificity</b>	0.983	0.701	0.710	0.700	0.998	0.800
<b>PPV</b>	0.135	0.135	0.074	0.069	0.089	0.084
<b>NPV</b>	0.983	0.985	0.993	0.992	0.998	0.997

DBPHR=diastolic blood pressure to height ratio; ELS=ellisras longitudinal study; NPV=negative predictive value; PPV=positive predictive value; SBPHR=systolic blood pressure to height ratio.

#### **4.2. Metabolic syndrome risk factors in the ELS subsample, aged 18-30 years (Phase 2)**

Table 5 shows the mean values for the metabolic syndrome (MetS) risk factors and dietary intake of the participants, by age group and gender. Overall, females appear to have higher mean values than males for waist circumference (WC), fasting blood glucose (FBG), total cholesterol (TCHOL) and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), while they have lower mean values for high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), triglycerides (TG), systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) than males. Consistent differences have been reported in many studies (Van Zyl *et al.*, 2012; Benmohammed *et al.*, 2016; Kruger and Nell, 2017). This trend is consistent, when disaggregating the sample by age groups. However, the only significant differences between males and females were recorded for WC ( $75.09 \pm 9.53$  and  $82.14 \pm 14.37$ , respectively) and SBP ( $125.91 \pm 12.78$  and  $114.23 \pm 10.84$ , respectively). This significant gender difference was also observed in the 25-30 year group. The same trend was found in Yoon *et al.* (2014). With regard to differences between age groups, most risk factors were higher in the older age group (25-30 years), except for FBG and HDL-C ( $5.56 \pm 0.91$  and  $1.16 \pm 0.31$ ) which were higher in 18-24 year age group compared to  $1.16 \pm 0.31$  and  $1.14 \pm 0.35$  in 25-30 year age group, respectively). There were no significant differences between age groups for all the measured risk factors except for the DBP where the mean value was  $68.78 \pm 9.37$  in age group 18-24 years compared to  $70.96 \pm 10.05$  in age group 25-30 years ( $p < 0.05$ ). However, the majority of studies did not dichotomize their study participants into age groups. Nonetheless, the increase in metS risk factors with age is well known. The WC mean values increased with age and differ amongst gender (higher in females than males). Similarly reported in Van Zyl *et al.* (2012). Therefore, more studies focused on gender with regard to the pathophysiological mechanism of central fat distribution are required in addition to those studies on the proportion of genetic predisposition, environmental factors and dietary diversity that might influence the development of this syndrome. Total energy intake in this study falls below the dietary reference intakes (DRIs) for both males and females. However, females tend to have a higher energy intake than males. This was also

observed in studies conducted in other rural South Africa (SA) (Kruger *et al.*, 2006; Steyn and Temple, 2012). This supports that, the large proportion of black South African consume less energy than recommended (Labadarios *et al.*, 2011(a); Labadarios *et al.*, 2011(b)). This was also observed in a Kwazulu-Natal black population (Kolahdooz *et al.*, 2013).

Table 5 further provides information regarding the macronutrients consumed. Females consumed more carbohydrates, added sugar, fibre and saturated fat; while males consumed more total fats, proteins and mono-and poly-unsaturated fats. Females had a higher intake of added sugar than males. This was expected since high energy median values were found in females compared to males. This is explained by the rapid progression of nutritional and health transition in SA. The median fibre intake observed for both genders were lower than the Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA) (Schneider *et al.*, 2007). Our results were in line with that of a study conducted in the North West province, where fibre intakes were within the recommended amounts (Wentzel-Viljoen and Kruger, 2005). High dietary fibre intake is stipulated to lower the development of obesity since its effect contributes to a decrease in appetite (Slavin, 2005). Male participants had a higher intake of protein than females. There is evidence that intake of a high protein protect against the metS, hence males had low prevalence of metS as compare to females, although the high dietary protein in the management for metS is still controversial (Wojcik *et al.*, 2016).

Table 5 Descriptive statistics for metS risk factors of Ellisras adults by age group and gender

Risk factors	18-24 years			25-30 years			18-30 years		
	Males(n=103) M±SD	Females (n=101) M±SD	Total (N=204) M±SD	Males(n=203) M±SD	Females(217) M±SD	Total (N=420) M±SD	Males(n=306) M±SD	Females(n=318) M±SD	Total (N=624) M±SD
WC (cm)	72.07±7.27	78.05±13.36	75.03±11.11	76.62*±10.17	84.04*±14.46	80.46±13.09	75.09*±9.53	82.14*±14.37	78.68±12.73
FBG (mmol/L)	5.54±0.91	5.78±0.91	5.56±0.91	5.40±0.84	5.63±1.77	1.16±0.31	5.45±0.87	5.62±1.55	5.53±1.26
TCHOL (mmol/L)	4.02±0.87	4.07±1.03	4.04±0.95	4.04±0.95	4.35±1.13	4.20±1.06	4.03±0.92	4.62±1.11	4.15±1.03
HDL-C (mmol/L)	1.23±0.34	1.09±0.28	1.16±0.31	1.19±0.39	1.10±0.31	1.14±0.35	1.20±0.37	1.10±0.30	1.15±0.34
TG (mmol/L)	0.96±0.60	0.87±0.48	0.92±0.54	1.11±0.67	1.00±0.52	1.05±0.60	1.06±0.65	0.96±0.51	1.01±0.59
LDL-C (mmol/L)	2.61±0.71	2.80±0.89	2.71±0.81	2.63±0.81	3.05±0.96	2.85±0.92	2.62±0.78	2.97±0.95	2.80±0.89
SBP (mmHg)	123.20±12.30	112.61±9.16	117.95±12.06	127.29*±12.37	114.98*±11.49	120.93±13.41	125.91**±12.78	114.23**±10.84	119.96±13.05
DBP (mmHg)	68.89±9.58	68.66±9.20	68.78*±9.37	72.73±10.35	69.31±9.50	70.96*±10.05	71.44±10.34	69.10±9.39	70.25±9.88
<b>Dietary intake</b>	<b>Median(IQR)</b>	<b>Median(IQR)</b>	<b>Median(IQR)</b>	<b>Median(IQR)</b>	<b>Median(IQR)</b>	<b>Median(IQR)</b>	<b>Median(IQR)</b>	<b>Median(IQR)</b>	<b>Median(IQR)</b>
Energy (kj)	3520.0(3646.50)	3314.0(2919.0)	3486.0(3299.50)	2886.0(3967.50)	3674.0(3992.50)	3213.50(3953.50)	3029.0(3874.0)	3474.0(3482.0)	3310.0(3591.0)
Fatty acids (%)	23.18(17.73)	20.71(22.37)	21.43(20.01)	22.22(26.10)	22.75(25.80)	22.50(26.80)	22.6(21.51)	22.1(24.26)	22.3(23.50)
Protein (%)	14.48(11.67)	11.55(9.24)	13.17(10.45)	12.07(13.75)	11.68(12.78)	12.03(13.36)	12.9(12.34)	11.7(11.19)	12.3(11.76)
Carbohydrate (%)	61.81(24.49)	65.98(28.80)	63.31(23.73)	63.76(35.57)	62.29(33.42)	62.79(34.60)	62.8(30.82)	63.7(30.91)	63.0(31.41)
Added sugar (g)	24.40(39.83)	34.70(49.30)	27.70(40.65)	24.00(49.70)	25.80(38.45)	25.80(39.90)	24.0(45.50)	26.0(36.00)	25.8(39.50)
Fibre (g)	5.60(8.18)	5.90(7.80)	5.70(7.85)	3.80(7.15)	4.80(9.85)	4.05(8.43)	4.3(7.00)	5.1(9.00)	4.6(8.40)
SFAs (%)	5.83(6.42)	4.56(8.42)	5.28(7.75)	4.14(10.06)	5.28(10.62)	5.02(10.44)	4.8(8.54)	5.0(9.91)	4.9(9.36)
MUFAs (%)	8.20(9.55)	5.39(10.50)	6.67(10.03)	5.19(13.77)	6.97(14.95)	6.48(14.79)	6.6(11.75)	6.4(14.01)	6.5(12.90)
PUFAs (%)	5.07(7.37)	2.97(7.67)	4.02(7.63)	2.97(7.74)	4.16(8.61)	3.44(8.39)	3.7(7.57)	3.4(8.18)	3.7(7.95)
Trans fatty acids (%)	0.18(1.10)	0.12(1.05)	0.14(1.05)	0.12(0.40)	0.12(1.27)	0.12(0.81)	0.1(0.49)	0.1(1.17)	0.1(0.95)

Data on lipid profile and anthropometry are presented as M±SD, while dietary intake data is presented as median (IQR). n=number of participants; WC=waist circumference; FPG=fasting blood glucose; TCHOL=total cholesterol; HDL=high density lipoprotein; LDL=low density lipoprotein; TG=triglycerides; CHO=carbohydrates; SBP=systolic blood pressure; DBP=diastolic blood pressure; SFAs= saturated fatty acids; MUFAs = monounsaturated fatty acids; PUFAs= polyunsaturated fatty acids; TFAs=trans fatty acids; IQR=interquartile range; M=mean; SD=standard deviation; \*\*p <0.001; \* P<0.05

Globally, the prevalence of the metS is on the rise, and this increase is the case in developing countries, in Africa and in South Africa (SA). The interesting thing is that in SA the metS prevalence seems to be differentiated by gender and ethnicity in that it is higher in black (>60%) compared to white ( $\pm$ 55%) South Africans when the Joint Statement definition criterion is used (Hoebel *et al.*, 2011). However, when other definition criteria are used (especially the IDF definition criteria) the prevalence becomes lower in black Africans (46.5%) when compared to white Africans (74.1%) (Erasmus *et al.*, 2012). Motala *et al.* (2011) on the other hand showed that the metS prevalence is different amongst genders in that more females (25%, 21.2% and 16.8%) present with metS when compared to their male counterparts (10%, 11.2% and 7.9%) using JIS, IDF and ATP 111 definition criteria, respectively. Furthermore, when the WHO definition criteria is used it appears as though the prevalence of metS is estimated to be high (59.1%) in African countries such as Nigeria when compared to other developing countries like Turkey (19%) (Isezuo and Ezunu, 2005; Can and Bersot, 2007). However, when the NCEP-ATP III and IDF definition criteria are used the metS prevalence is shown to be higher in Turkey (38% and 42%, respectively), than in Africa (Cameron *et al.*, 2007).

In the current study, the prevalence of metS was estimated using the IDF criteria. Overall, the prevalence of metS was 23.1% (8.6% males and 36.8% females). This prevalence is lower than the prevalence shown in South African coloured participants in Erasmus *et al.* (2012) study, but they are higher than the ones shown in black North West residents (9.5% for females and 6.8% for males), participating in Hoebel *et al.* (2011) study. Additionally, the current population had high metS prevalence than that reported in low-income black South Africans (Owolabi *et al.*, 2018). However, their males had higher prevalence than those in the current study. We have to bear in mind that the definition criteria used for metS in these studies were the IDF criteria.

On examining factors that seemed to influence metS prevalence in the current study, it appears as though age and gender were the main determinants of this condition. In fact, being older influenced the health status of the participants especially the mean SBP and adiposity as shown by the values that were higher in the older age group compared to the younger age group. The majority of females also presented with larger WC and higher levels of total plasma cholesterol and lower levels of HDL-C

mean values. The South African National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (SANHANES) reported the same results (Shisana *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, mean SBP values also differed significantly by gender with males presenting with higher mean values than females in the same survey (Shisana *et al.*, 2014). Systolic and diastolic blood pressure also seemed to increase with age. However, no significant gender differences were observed in terms of total cholesterol (TCHOL).

### **4.3. The prevalence of metabolic syndrome risk factors and dietary intake among subsample aged 18-30 years**

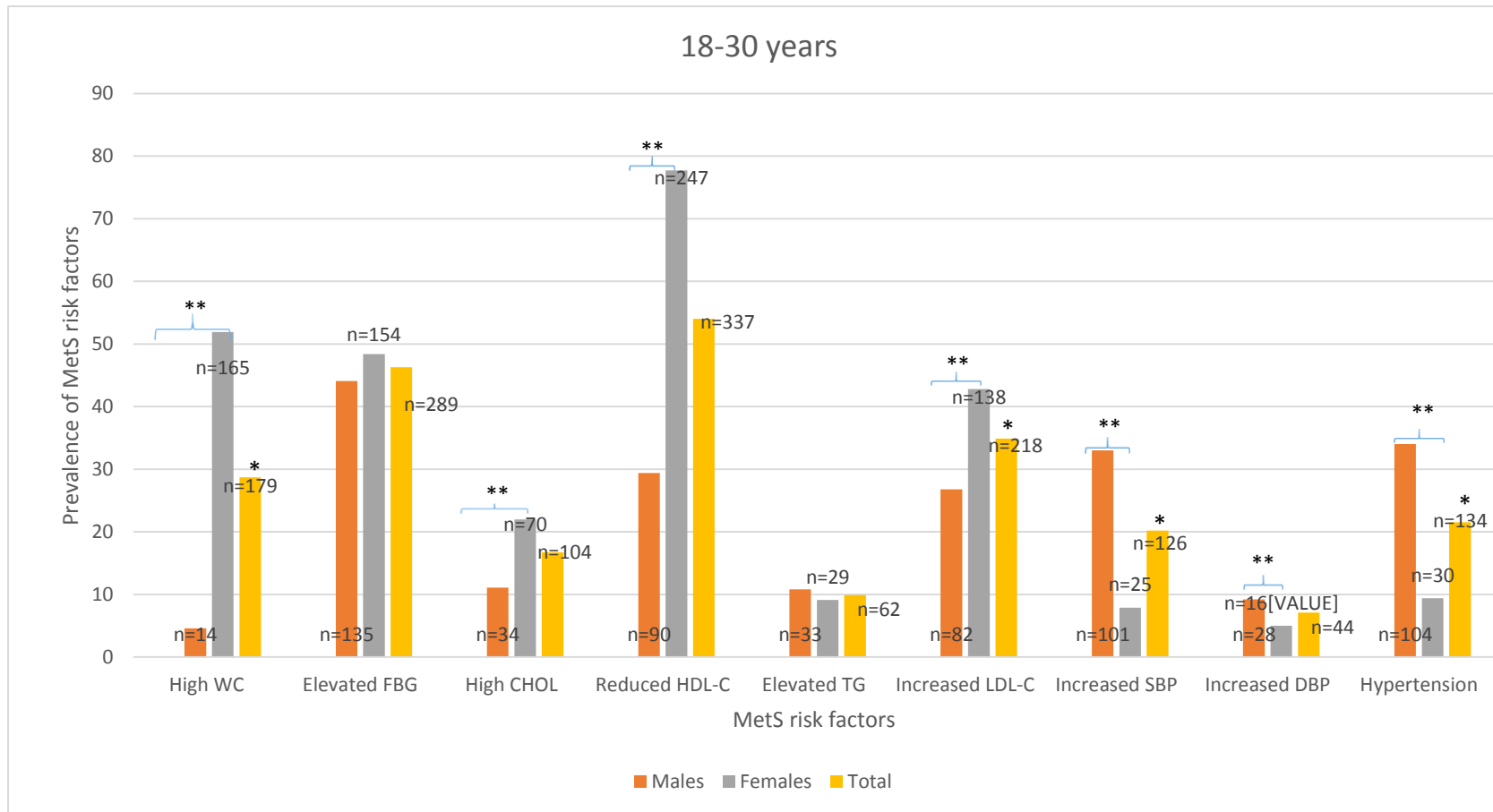
*The overall prevalence of the metS risk factors in the total sample, male and female age group 18-30 years*

Figure 8 shows the observed prevalence of each metS risk factor of the total sample of participants. Overall, significantly more females presented with increased WC than males (51.9% vs 4.6%). These results are similar with the South African evidence which suggested that in the North West province, which is located close to Ellisras (Limpopo Province), the majority of females (43.5%) had a WC that was above 88cm compared to 8% of males that presented with a WC above 102 cm (Shisana *et al.*, 2014). On the contrary, Bacopoulou *et al.* (2015), presented evidence in which WC was higher in males than females. This is explained by the fact that central fat distribution is more dominant in males than females. Waist circumference was similar amongst gender in other studies (Nasila *et al.*, 2013; Longo-Mbenza *et al.*, 2011). There is evidence that increased visceral adiposity leads to the insulin resistance that is central in the pathogenesis of metS and it is further, associated with the production of adipocytokines, which leads to the low grade inflammatory response observed in metS (Omuse *et al.*, 2017). Several prospective studies have consistently reported a protective effect of increased HDL-C against cardiovascular diseases (CVDs), in which low levels are associated with metS (Wong *et al.*, 2012).

The trends of gender difference was also observed with elevated TCHOL (22.0% for females vs 11.1% for males), and LDL-C (42.8% for females vs 26.8% for males), as well as reduced HDL-C (77.7% for females vs 29.4% for males). Similarly, other studies also reported that reduced HDL-C was prominently higher in females than in males (Kuk and Ardern, 2010; Peer *et al.*, 2015). Significantly more males presented with increased SBP, DBP and hypertension (33.0%, 9.2% and 34.0%, respectively)

compared to their female counterparts (7.9%, 5.0% and 9.4%, respectively) (SBP and hypertension were  $p < 0.001$ , while DBP was  $p < 0.05$ ). These findings were in contrast to those of Kruger and Nell (2017) as they reported higher BP in females than in males. The differences in these results can be explained by factors other than the criteria used, as both of studies used the same definition. Overall, the highest prevalence risk factors are reduced HDL-C, elevated FBG, and increased LDL-C (ranging from 54.0%, 46.3% and 34.9%, respectively). The lowest prevalence risk factors are increased DBP, increased TG and high TCHOL (ranging from 7.1%, 9.9% and 16.7%, respectively). The current study population did not show any significant differences between FBG and TG among genders. Whereas, Kruger and Nell (2017) found that, only TG showed differences between males and females. This is explained by the testosterone concentration which is associated with metS (Grosman *et al.*, 2014).



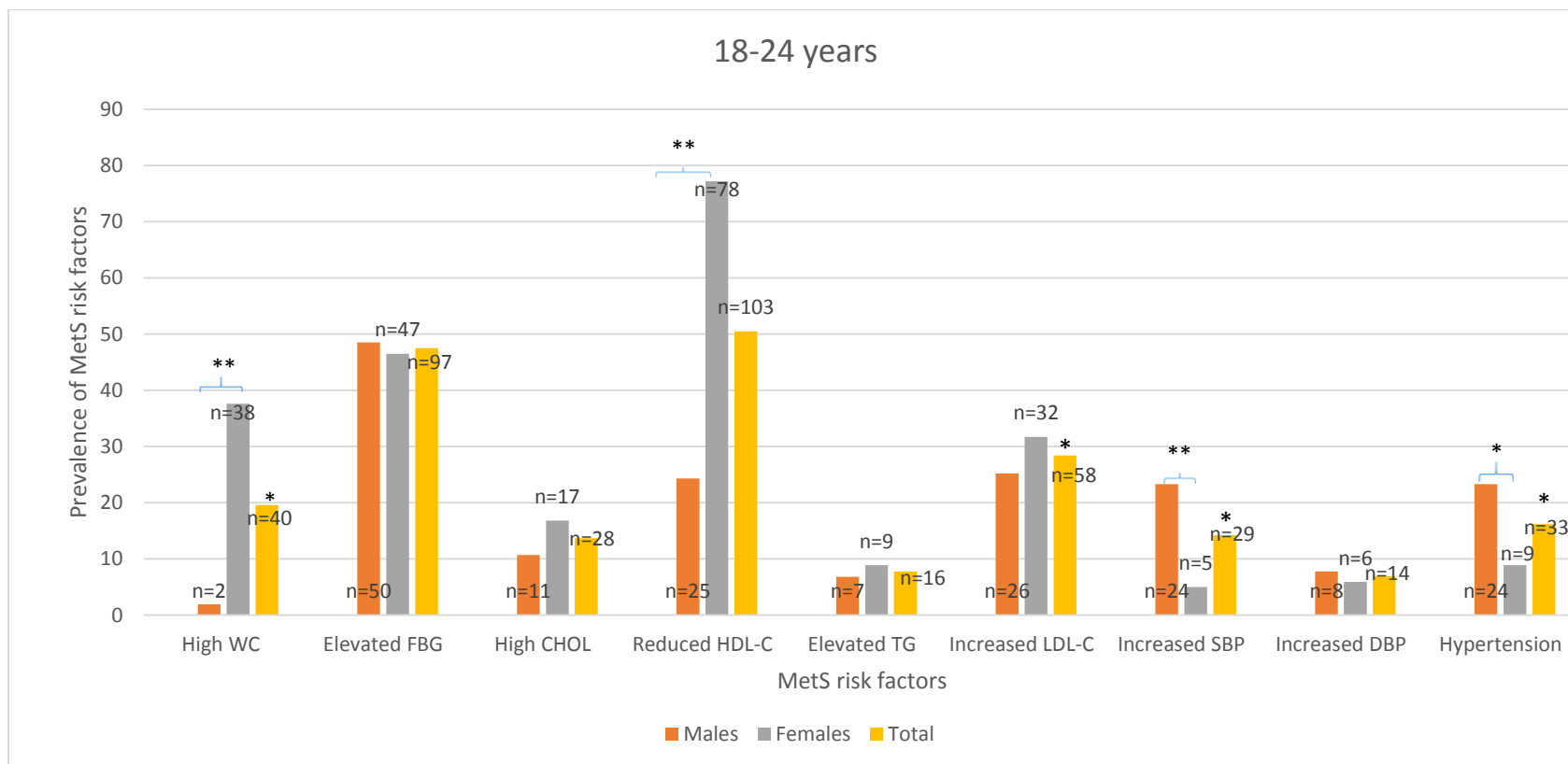


**Figure 8** Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome risk factors in the total sample, males and females in 18-30 years of Ellisras young adults.

*n*=number of participants; WC=waist circumference; FBG=fasting blood glucose; CHOL=cholesterol; TG=triglycerides; HDL-C=high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; LDL-C=low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; \*\**p*<0.001; \**p*<0.05.

*The prevalence of the metS risk factors in the total sample, male and female aged-group 18-24 years*

The gender difference trend was observed even in figure 9, when the sample data was disaggregated by age groups in that, significantly more females aged 18-24 years presented with larger WC and a high reduced HDL (37.6% and 77.2%) than males (1.9% and 24.3%). Similar results have been reported in many studies (Van Zyl et al., 2012; Benmohammed *et al.*, 2016; Kruger and Nell, 2017). Several prospective studies have consistently reported a protective effect of HDL-C against cardiovascular diseases (CVDs), in which low levels are associated with metS (Wong et al., 2012). Males within the younger age group (18-24 years) had significantly higher DBP and hypertension levels than females (23.3% vs 5.0% and 23.3% vs 8.9%, respectively). Similarly, Berry *et al.* (2017) reported the age difference with respect to hypertension. The same trend was observed in the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) report; however, females had a higher blood pressure than their male counterparts (Puoane *et al.*, 2002). The highest prevalence risk factors in this particular age group are reduced HDL-C, elevated FBG and increased LDL-C (ranging from 50.5%, 47.5% and 28.4%, respectively). Similar findings were reported by Motala *et al.* (2011). The continuation of the current trend will put this population at an increased risk of CVDs. Especially, cerebrovascular disease since artery disease is still uncommon in Africans (Mayosi *et al.*, 2009). The lowest prevalence risk factors are increased DBP, elevated TG and high TCHOL (ranging from 6.9%, 7.8% and 13.7%, respectively).

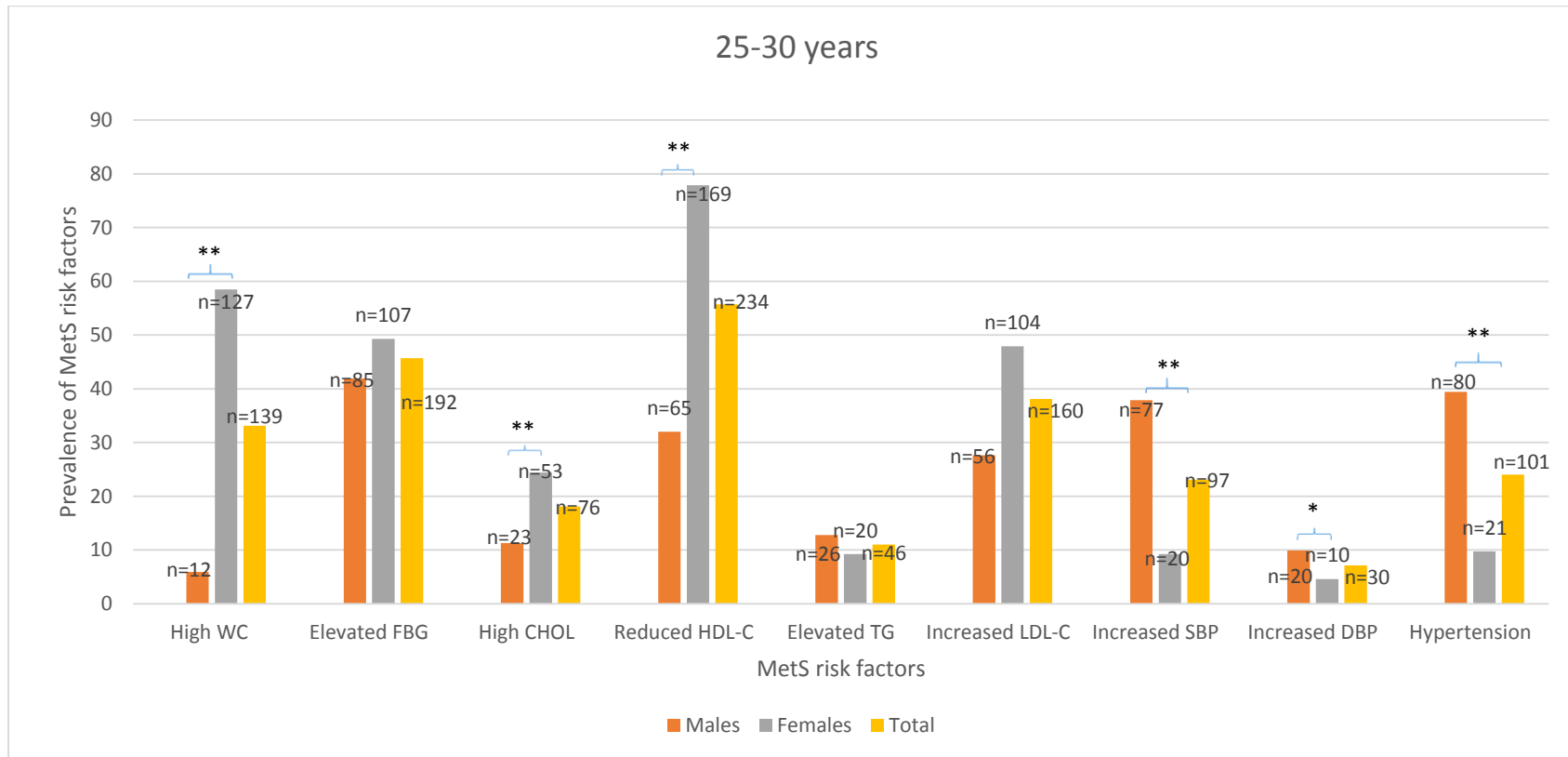


**Figure 9 Prevalence of metabolic syndrome risk factors in the total sample, males and females in age group 18-24 years of Ellisras young adults**

*n=number of participants; WC=waist circumference; FBG=fasting blood glucose; CHOL=cholesterol; TG=triglycerides; HDL-C=high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, LDL-C=low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, \*\*p<0.001; \*p<0.05.*

*The prevalence of the metS risk factors in the total sample, male and female aged-group 25-30 years*

As shown in Figure 10, consistent trends were observed in the older age group (25-30 years), as larger WC and high reduced HDL-C were significantly higher in females compared to males (58.5% vs 5.9% and 77.9% vs 32.0%, respectively). Similar results were observed in other studies ((Van Zyl *et al.*, 2012; Benmohammed *et al.*, 2016; Kruger and Nell, 2017). In addition, females had significantly higher TCHOL than males (24.4% vs 11.3%). Similar to the younger age group (18-24 years), males presented with higher SBP, DBP and hypertension than females (37.9% vs 9.2%, 9.9% vs 4.6% and 39.4% vs 9.7%, respectively). This was the case in previous results of the same population when the participants were still in their childhood stage (Sekgala *et al.*, 2017). Changes in blood pressure between gender and age group over time in rural population requires close attention. Overall, the highest prevalence risk factors in this older age group are reduced HDL-C, elevated FBG and increased LDL-C (ranging from 55.7%, 45.7% and 38.1%, respectively). Similar, results were reported by Motala *et al.* (2011). The lowest prevalence risk factors are increased DBP, elevated TG and high TCHOL (ranging from 7.1%, 11.0% and 18.1%, respectively). The significant role plays by these risk factors in influencing the prevalence of the metS is not clear, therefore, further research is needed to bridge this gap.



**Figure 10** Prevalence of metabolic syndrome risk factors in the total sample, males and females in age group 25-30 years of Ellisras young adults

*n*=number of participants; WC=waist circumference; FBG=fasting blood glucose; CHOL=cholesterol; TG=triglycerides; HDL-C=high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; LDL-C=low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; \*\**p*<0.001; \**p*<0.05

As shown in table 6, although the study participants consumed less energy than recommended, the majority of males had high total energy, high protein and low fibre intake when compared to females (95.8% vs 17.6%,  $p < 0.001$ ; 5.9% vs 1.6%,  $p < 0.05$  and 99.3% vs 96.2%,  $p < 0.05$ , respectively). Similar results were reported in other studies conducted in South Africa (Kruger and Nell, 2017; Steyn and Temple, 2012). This trend also seemed to be similar when data was disaggregated by age, such that 99.0% of males within the age group 18-24 years had high total energy intake compared to 7.9% females. Males had high total energy, high protein intake and low fibre intake, compared females in age group 25-30 years. Unfortunately, the majority of studies reported only the mean values for energy and overall dietary intakes. Females on the other hand had overall high added sugar intake compared to males (56.9% vs 48.4%,  $p < 0.05$ ) with this gender trend also observed in the majority (66.3%) of the 18–24 year old females compared to 48.5% of males ( $p < 0.05$ ). Lastly, the majority of females 25-30 years also had higher trans fatty acid intake than males (27.6% vs 17.7%). There were no significant age differences in terms of dietary intake except for protein intake, where more 25-30 year olds males consumed high levels of protein when compared to females (4.5% vs 2.0%,  $p < 0.05$ ).

Table 6 The prevalence of dietary intake of the participants

dietary intake	18-24 years			25-30 years			18-30 years		
	Males(n=103) (%)n	Females(n=101) (%)n	Total(n=204) (%)n	Males(n=203) (%)n	Females(217) (%)n	Total(n=420) (%)n	Males(n=306) (%)n	Females(n=318) (%)n	Total(n=624) (%)n
<b>High energy</b> male>10626; female>8465	99.0**(102)	7.9**(8)	53.9(110)	94.1**(191)	22.1**(48)	56.9(239)	95.8**(293)	17.6**(56)	55.9(349)
<b>High fatty acids</b> ≥35%	18.4(19)	19.8(20)	19.1(39)	23.6(48)	24.0(52)	23.8(100)	21.9(67)	22.6(72)	22.3(139)
<b>High protein</b> ≥35%	2.9(3)	1.0(1)	2.0*(4)	7.4*(15)	1.8*(4)	4.5*(19)	5.9*(18)	1.6*(5)	3.7(23)
<b>High carbohydrate</b> ≥65%	40.8(42)	50.5(51)	45.6(93)	48.3(98)	44.7(97)	46.4(195)	45.8(140)	46.5(148)	46.2(288)
<b>High added sugar</b> <25g	48.5*(50)	66.3*(67)	57.4(117)	48.3(98)	52.5(114)	50.5(212)	48.4*(148)	56.9*(181)	52.7(329)
<b>Low fibre</b> male=38g; female=25g	99.0(102)	97.0(98)	98.0(200)	99.5*(202)	95.9*(208)	97.6(410)	99.3*(304)	96.2*(306)	97.8(610)
<b>High saturated fatty acids</b> <10%	22.3(23)	23.8(24)	23.0(47)	27.6(56)	30.9(67)	29.3(123)	25.8(79)	28.6(91)	27.2(170)
<b>High monounsaturated fatty acids</b> ≥20%	4.9(5)	6.9(7)	5.9(12)	7.4(15)	7.4(16)	7.4(31)	6.6(20)	7.2(23)	6.9(43)
<b>High polyunsaturated fatty acids</b> ≥10%	22.3(23)	19.8(20)	21.1(43)	18.2(37)	22.6(49)	20.5(86)	19.6(60)	21.7(69)	20.7(129)
<b>High trans fatty acids</b> <1%	26.2(27)	25.7(26)	26.0(53)	17.7*(36)	27.6*(60)	22.9(96)	20.6(63)	27.0(86)	23.9(149)

*n* = number of participants; \*\**p* <0.001; \**p* <0.05

*The association between dietary intake and metabolic syndrome risk factors*

Table 7 shows the linear regression analysis undertaken to show the association of each log dietary intake variable with different metS risk factors. The results showed no association between log total energy, log added sugar, log SFA and log MUFA with metabolic risk factors. There was a low and negative significant association between log fibre with SBP and DBP ( $\beta$ :-0.004,  $p=0.003$  and  $\beta$ :-0.004,  $p=0.046$ ), respectively, for unadjusted. After adjusting for the potential confounding factors, log fibre was also associated with FBG ( $\beta$ :-0.028,  $p=0.046$ ). Log PUFAs was inversely associated with FBG, HDL-C and SBP crude. Log trans fatty acids was inversely associated with WC, HDL-C and SBP crude. Both log PUFAs and log trans fatty acids were not associated with any metabolic risk factors after adjusting for potential cofounding factors. Log protein was inversely associated with SBP both crude and adjusted for potential cofounding factors.



Table 7 Regression coefficient showing the association of dietary intake with various metS risk factors of Ellisras adults

Crude																				
	ENERGY (kJ)		ADDED SUGAR (g)		FIBRE (g)		Saturated fatty acids (%)		PUFAs (%)		MUFAs (%)		Trans fatty acids (%)		Carbohydrates (%)		Protein (%)		Fatty acids (%)	
	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE
Age (y)	-0.034**	0.009	-0.016	0.014	-0.038**	0.009	-0.020*	0.009	-0.029*	0.009	-0.026*	0.01	-0.008	0.006	-0.033**	0.01	-0.065**	0.016	-0.069**	0.02
Gender	0.009	0.036	0.108*	0.055	0.038	0.035	0.004	0.038	-0.004	0.037	-0.005	0.042	0.033	0.025	0.007	0.039	-0.04	0.064	-0.008	0.07
WC (cm)	-0.002	0.001	0.001	0.002	-0.001	0.001	-0.001	0.001	-0.002	0.001	-0.002	0.002	-0.002*	0.001	0.001	0.002	-0.002	0.003	-0.004	0.000
FBG (mmol/L)	-0.020	0.014	0.013	0.022	-0.03*	0.014	-0.007	0.015	-0.016*	0.016	-0.012	0.017	-0.005	0.010	-0.016	0.015	-0.025	0.025	-0.031	0.030
TCHOL (mmol/L)	-0.011	0.017	-0.008	0.027	-0.015	0.017	-0.016	0.018	-0.007	0.018	-0.016	0.020	-0.001	0.012	-0.031	0.019	-0.034	0.031	-0.046	0.040
HDL-C (mmol/L)	0.027	0.053	-0.097	0.082	-0.004	0.052	0.071	0.056	0.042	0.055	0.067	0.062	0.074*	0.037	-0.025	0.057	-0.024	0.094	-0.004	0.110
TG (mmol/L)	-0.033	0.031	-0.027	0.047	-0.026	0.030	-0.032	0.032	-0.024	0.032	-0.022	0.036	-0.03	0.021	-0.015	0.033	-0.043	0.055	-0.058	0.060
LDL-C (mmol/L)	-0.014	0.02	0.006	0.031	-0.006	0.021	-0.028	0.021	-0.014	0.021	-0.028	0.024	-0.009	0.014	-0.036	0.022	-0.037	0.036	-0.054	0.04
SBP (mmHg)	-0.002	0.001	0.002	0.001	-0.004*	0.001	-0.002	0.001	-0.003*	0.001	-0.002	0.002	-0.002*	0.001	-0.002	0.001	-0.006*	0.002	-0.006*	0.000
DBP (mmHg)	-0.002	0.002	0.001	0.003	-0.004*	0.002	-0.002	0.002	-0.003	0.002	-0.003	0.002	-0.002	0.001	-0.004*	0.002	-0.007*	0.003	-0.007	0.000
Adjusted for age, gender and energy																				
Age (y)	-0.031**	0.009	-0.015	0.014	-0.037**	0.009	-0.016	0.01	-0.026*	0.01	-0.002	0.011	-0.004	0.006	-0.032*	0.01	-0.062**	0.016	-0.063**	0.020
Gender	0.001	0.045	0.165*	0.070	-0.002	0.044	0.003	0.048	-0.002	0.047	-0.002	0.053	0.036	0.031	-0.002	0.049	-0.199	0.08	-0.049	0.090
WC (cm)	0.001	0.002	-0.002	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.002	-0.001	0.002	-0.001	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.003	0.001	0.000
FBG (mmol/L)	-0.017	0.014	0.008	0.022	-0.028	0.014	-0.002	0.015	-0.011	0.015	-0.006	0.017	-0.001	0.01	-0.013	0.016	-0.017	0.025	-0.023	0.030
TCHOL (mmol/L)	-0.198	0.302	-0.436	0.471	0.017	0.295	-0.217	0.321	-0.009	0.315	-0.203	0.354	-0.124	0.210	0.245	0.329	-0.251	0.536	-0.226	0.62
HDL-C (mmol/L)	0.223	0.304	0.350	0.475	-0.049	0.297	0.305	0.324	0.054	0.315	0.280	0.357	0.21	0.212	0.239	0.331	0.233	0.540	0.236	0.620

<b>TG (mmol/L)</b>	0.030	0.069	0.081	0.107	-0.001	0.067	0.034	0.073	0.002	0.072	0.047	0.081	0.014	0.048	0.064	0.075	0.049	0.122	0.046	0.140
<b>LDL-C (mmol/L)</b>	0.194	0.304	0.431	0.475	-0.021	0.297	0.190	0.324	0.003	0.318	0.179	0.357	0.113	0.212	0.214	0.331	0.238	0.540	0.193	0.620
<b>SBP (mmHg)</b>	-0.002	0.002	0.004	0.003	-0.004*	0.002	-0.002	0.002	-0.003	0.318	-0.002	0.002	-0.002	0.001	-0.001	0.002	-0.007*	0.004	-0.006	0.000
<b>DBP (mmHg)</b>	0.001	0.002	-0.002	0.004	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.003	0.001	0.003	0.001	0.341	0.001	0.002	-0.002	0.003	0.001	0.004	0.001	0.01

*WC=waist circumference; FPG=fasting blood glucose; TCHOL=total cholesterol; HDL-C=high density lipoprotein cholesterol; LDL-C=low density lipoprotein cholesterol; TG=triglycerides; CHO=carbohydrates; SBP=systolic blood pressure; DBP=diastolic blood pressure; SFAs=saturated fatty acids; PUFAs=polyunsaturated fatty acids; MUFAs= monounsaturated fatty acids; TFA=trans fatty acids; SE=standard error; \*\*p<0.001; \*p<0.05*

Literature on the association between metS risk factors with dietary intake is limited, particularly in poor rural populations (Narasimhan *et al.*, 2016). In the current study, dietary fibre was significantly associated with SBP and DBP. The same finding was reported by Moreno Franco *et al.* (2014). An intervention study showed that increased dietary fibre intake significantly reduced both SBP and DBP (Roberts *et al.*, 2002). Further association was observed between dietary fibre intake and FBG amongst the current study participants. These findings are consistent with the Giacco *et al.* (2000) in that high dietary intake improves the blood glucose level. The beneficial metabolic effects of the dietary fibre intake included both an improvement in the daily blood glucose level and a reduction in the number of hypoglycemic events (Giacco *et al.*, 2000). Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) were significantly associated with FBG, HDL-C and SBP. Food rich in PUFA increases insulin sensitivity glucose utilization, decreases insulin resistance and risk of type 2 diabetes (Carpentier *et al.*, 2006; Farsi *et al.*, 2014). These results show that PUFAs improve metS risk factors. Protein was also associated with SBP in the current study. There is evidence that consumption of high protein has a protective effect against the metS (Wojcik *et al.*, 2016). However, this association needs to be understood with caution given that consuming higher than recommended amounts of protein is associated with increased blood pressure and hypertensive diseases (Obarzanek *et al.*, 1996), however, in the management for metS, it is still controversial.

#### *The influence of dietary intake on developing metabolic syndrome*

Table 8 shows that, participants who had high dietary energy intake were significantly less likely to present with larger WC, low HDL-C and high LDL-C (OR: 0.250 95%CI [0.161;0.389], OR: 0.306 95%CI [0.220;0.425] and OR: 0.583 95%CI [0.418;0.812], respectively), but more likely to presents with elevated FBG, high TCHOL, high TG and hypertension (OR: 1.01 95%CI [0.735;1.386], OR: 1.039 95%CI [0.575;1.337], OR: 1.186 95%CI [0.695;2.023], OR: 5.205 95%CI [3.156;8.585], respectively) crude. After adjusting for age, gender, smoking and alcohol status, high energy intake was more likely to increase two times high the large WC and elevated FBG among study participants (OR: 2.766 95%CI [0.863;3.477] and OR: 2.227 95%CI [1.051;3.328], respectively). Furthermore, low dietary fibre intake was nearly four times more likely to increase the low HDL-C, crude. (OR: 3.864 95%CI [1.067;13.988]) crude.

Those participants who consumed high trans fats were more likely to present with high FBG (OR: 1.424 95%CI [0.985; 2.060]), however, these participants were less likely to present with LDL-C (OR: 0.540 95%CI [0.321; 0.906]) for unadjusted. However, after adding potential cofounding factors, participants with high fatty acid were less likely to present with high FBG (OR: 0.672 95%CI [0.441;1.023]). The rest of the dietary factors (protein, carbohydrates, polyunsaturated fats and monounsaturated fatty acids) were not included in the odds ratio model since they could not meet the categorical data standard.

In summary, it seems as though high total dietary energy, high added sugar intake, low fibre, high SFAs and trans fatty acids increased the likelihood of participants presenting with high WC, FBG, TCHOL, HDL-C, TG, LDL-C and hypertension.

Table 8 Binary logistic regression analysis to show dietary predictors of metS risk factors in young adults (18-30 years) of Ellisras

	crude														
	ENERGY (kj)			ADDED SUGAR (g)			FIBRE (g)			Saturated fatty acids (%)			Trans fatty acids (%)		
	OR	95%CI	P value	OR	95%CI	P value	OR	95%CI	P value	OR	95%CI	P value	OR	95%CI	P value
<b>WC male≥102 cm, female≥88 cm</b>	0.250	(0.161;0.389)	<0.001	1.005	(0.669;1.509)	0.982	0.741	(0.164;3.358)	0.741	1.052	(0.669;1.654)	0.826	0.930	(0.574;1.506)	0.767
<b>FBG ≥5.6 mmol/L</b>	1.010	(0.735;1.386)	0.053	0.701	(0.512;.964)	0.029	0.638	(0.211;1.925)	0.425	1.076	(0.756;1.532)	0.683	1.424	(0.985;2.060)	0.052
<b>TCHOL ≥5.1 mmol/L</b>	1.039	(0.575;1.337)	0.009	1.088	(0.714;1.659)	0.693	0.830	(0.183;3.765)	0.809	0.870	(0.537;1.412)	0.574	1.215	(0.753;1.961)	0.425
<b>HDL-C Men&lt;1 mmol/L, Female&lt;1.2 mmol/L</b>	0.306	(0.220;0.425)	<.001	0.686	(0.500;.941)	0.019	3.864	(1.067;13.988)	0.039	0.881	(0.619;1.254)	0.482	0.739	(0.510;1.070)	0.109
<b>TG ≥1.7 mmol/L</b>	1.186	(0.695;2.023)	0.0531	0.846	(0.499;1.436)	0.536	1.528	(0.334;6.989)	0.585	0.838	(0.455;1.542)	0.570	0.663	(0.336;1.307)	0.235
<b>LDL-C &gt;3 mmol/L</b>	0.583	(0.418;0.812)	0.001	0.866	(0.623;1.206)	0.395	0.740	(0.229;2.388)	0.615	1.176	(0.816;1.696)	0.386	0.540	(0.321;0.906)	0.020
<b>Hypertension ≥130/≥85 mmHg</b>	5.205	(3.156;8.585)	<0.001	1.2424	(0.840;1.836)	0.278	0.970	(0.941;1.001)	0.054	0.716	(0.451;1.138)	0.158	1.255	(0.858;1.835)	0.242
	<b>Adjusted (age, gender, smoking and alcohol status)</b>														
<b>WC male≥102 cm, female≥88 cm</b>	2.766	(0.863;3.477)	0.022	1.014	(0.614;1.675)	0.957	0.401	(0.084;1.903)	0.250	0.919	(0.508;1.664)	0.780	1.143	(0.618;2.115)	0.669
<b>FBG ≥5.6 mmol/L</b>	2.227	(1.051;3.328)	0.033	0.706	(0.504;0.988)	0.042	0.641	(0.208;1.976)	0.439	1.027	(0.689;1.530)	0.897	0.672	(0.441;1.023)	0.053
<b>TCHOL ≥5.1 mmol/L</b>	1.145	(0.556;2.358)	0.714	1.200	(0.756;1.903)	0.440	0.803	(0.171;3.769)	0.781	1.394	(0.788;2.467)	0.254	0.680	(0.385;1.203)	0.185
<b>HDL-C Men&lt;1 mmol/L, Female&lt;1.2 mmol/L</b>	1.000	(0.988;1.000)	0.003	1.008	(1.003;1.013)	0.002	1.046	(1.015;1.157)	0.004	0.993	(0.966;1.020)	0.601	1.022	(0.948;1.103)	0.568
<b>TG ≥1.7 mmol/L)</b>	0.826	(0.316;2.163)	0.698	0.772	(0.441;1.351)	0.365	1.681	(0.357;7.929)	0.511	1.127	(0.575;2.211)	0.727	1.405	(0.666;2.964)	0.372
<b>LDL-C &gt;3 mmol/L</b>	1.191	(0.661;2.145)	0.501	0.963	(0.670;1.384)	0.863	0.638	(0.192;2.116)	0.462	0.914	(0.596;1.402)	0.680	0.870	(0.555;1.363)	0.543
<b>Hypertension ≥130/≥85 mmHg</b>	1.376	(0.618;3.065)	0.434	0.950	(0.615;1.468)	0.818	0.985	(0.953;1.017)	0.350	1.131	(0.661;1.936)	0.653	1.505	(0.824;2.748)	0.183

*WC=increased waist circumference; FPG=elevated fasting blood glucose; TCHOL=high total cholesterol; HDL=low high density lipoprotein; LDL=high low density lipoprotein; TG=elevated triglycerides; SBP=increased systolic blood pressure; DBP=increased diastolic blood pressure; OR=odds ratio*

High energy intake was less likely to shown large WC, low HDL-C and LDL-C amongst the participants. Similar results were reported by Bruscato *et al* (2010). These results are possibly because the participants consumed less energy than recommended. These results have a policy implication in that they call upon urgent interventions including nutrition education in rural and poorer communities of South Africa in order to halt the escalating MetS epidemic as shown by a number of studies in the country (Mayosi *et al.*, 2009; Van Zyl *et al.*, 2012; Omuse *et al.*, 2017). This outlines the problem the South African population is facing. Therefore, the longitudinal investigation of this syndrome is needed.

#### 4.4. REFERENCES

1. Bacopoulou, F., Efthymiou, V., Landis, G., Rentoumis, A. and Chrousos, G.P., 2015. Waist circumference, waist-to-hip ratio and waist-to-height ratio reference percentiles for abdominal obesity among Greek adolescents. *BMC pediatrics*, 15(1), p.50.
2. Benmohammed, K., Valensi, P., Balkau, B. and Lezzar, A., 2016. Metabolic syndrome in adolescents: definition based on regression of IDF adult cut-off points. *Public health*, 141, pp.88–94.
3. Berry, K.M., Parker, W.A., Mchiza, Z.J., Sewpaul, R., Labadarios, D., Rosen, S. and Stokes, A., 2017. Quantifying unmet need for hypertension care in South Africa through a care cascade: evidence from the SANHANES, 2011-2012. *BMJ global health*, 2(3), p.e000348.
4. Bruscato, N.M., da Costa Vieira, J.L., do Nascimento, N.M.R., Canto, M.E.P., Stobbe, J.C., Gottlieb, M.G., Wagner, M.B. and Dalacorte, R.R., 2010. Dietary intake is not associated to the metabolic syndrome in elderly women. *North American journal of medical sciences*, 2(4), p.182.
5. Cameron, A.J., Magliano, D.J., Zimmet, P.Z., Welborn, T. and Shaw, J.E., 2007. The metabolic syndrome in Australia: prevalence using four definitions. *Diabetes research and clinical practice*, 77(3), pp.471–478.
6. Can, A.S. and Bersot, T.P., 2007. Analysis of agreement among definitions of metabolic syndrome in nondiabetic Turkish adults: a methodological study. *BMC Public Health*, 7(1), p.353.
7. Carpentier, Y.A., Portois, L. and Malaisse, W.J., 2006. n- 3 Fatty acids and the metabolic syndrome—. *The American journal of clinical nutrition*, 83(6), pp.1499–1504.
8. Erasmus, R.T., Soita, D.J., Hassan, M.S., Blanco-Blanco, E., Vergotine, Z., Kengne, A.P. and Matsha, T.E., 2012. High prevalence of diabetes mellitus and metabolic syndrome in a South African coloured population: Baseline data of a study in Bellville, Cape Town. *SAMJ: S. Afr. Med. J.*, 102, pp.841–844.
9. Farsi, P.F., Djazayery, A., Eshraghian, M.R., Koohdani, F., Saboor-Yaraghi, A.A., Derakhshanian, H., Zarei, M., Javanbakht, M.H. and Djalali, M., 2014. Effects of supplementation with omega-3 on insulin sensitivity and non-

- esterified free fatty acid (NEFA) in type 2 diabetic patients. *Arquivos Brasileiros de Endocrinologia & Metabologia*, 58(4), pp.335–340.
10. Giacco, R., Parillo, M., Rivellese, A.A., Lasorella, G., Giacco, A., D'episcopo, L. and Riccardi, G., 2000. Long-term dietary treatment with increased amounts of fiber-rich low-glycemic index natural foods improves blood glucose control and reduces the number of hypoglycemic events in type 1 diabetic patients. *Diabetes care*, 23(10), pp.1461–1466.
  11. Grosman, H., Rosales, M., Fabre, B., Nolazco, C., Mazza, O., Berg, G. and Mesch, V., 2014. Association between testosterone levels and the metabolic syndrome in adult men. *The Aging Male*, 17(3), pp.161–165.
  12. He, Q. and Karlberg, J., 2001. BMI in childhood and its association with height gain, timing of puberty, and final height. *Pediatric research*, 49(2), p.244.
  13. Hoebel, S., Malan, L. and De Ridder, H., 2011. Differences in MetS marker prevalence between black African and Caucasian teachers from the North West Province: Sympathetic activity and ambulatory blood pressure in Africans (SABPA) Study. *Int J Endocrinol Metab Disord*, 16, pp.49–56.
  14. Isezuo, S.A. and Ezunu, E., 2005. Demographic and clinical correlates of metabolic syndrome in native African type 2 diabetic patients. *J Natl Med Assoc*, 97, pp.557–563.
  15. Kanchanaraksa, S., 2008. Evaluation of diagnostic and screening tests: validity and reliability. *Baltimore: John Hopkins University*.
  16. Kolahdooz, F., Spearing, K. and Sharma, S., 2013. Dietary adequacies among South African adults in rural KwaZulu-Natal. *PLoS One*, 8(6), p.e67184.
  17. Kruger, M.J. and Nell, T.A., 2017. The prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in a farm worker community in the Boland district, South Africa. *BMC public health*, 17(1), p.61.
  18. Kruger, R., Kruger, H.S. and Macintyre, U.E., 2006. The determinants of overweight and obesity among 10-to 15-year-old schoolchildren in the North West Province, South Africa—the THUSA BANA (Transition and Health during Urbanisation of South Africans; BANA, children) study. *Public health nutrition*, 9(3), pp.351–358.



19. Kuk, J.L., Ardern, C., 2010. Age and sex differences in the clustering of metabolic syndrome factors: Association with mortality risk. *Diabetes Care*, 33, pp.2457–2461.
20. Labadarios, D., Mchiza, Z.J.R., Steyn, N.P., Gericke, G., Maunder, E.M.W., Davids, Y.D. and Parker, W.A., 2011(a). Food security in South Africa: a review of national surveys. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 89, pp.891–899.
21. Labadarios, D., Steyn, N.P. and Nel, J., 2011(b). How diverse is the diet of adult South Africans?. *Nutrition journal*, 10(1), p.33.
22. Longo-Mbenza, B., On'kin, J.K.L., Okwe, A.N. and Kabangu, N.K., 2011. The metabolic syndrome in a Congolese population and its implications for metabolic syndrome definitions. *Diabetes & Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research & Reviews*, 5(1), pp.17–24.
23. Lu, Q., Ma, C.M., Yin, F.Z., Liu, B.W., Lou, D.H. and Liu, X.L., 2011. How to simplify the diagnostic criteria of hypertension in adolescents. *Journal of human hypertension*, 25(3), p.159.
24. Mayosi, B.M., Flisher, A.J., Lalloo, U.G., Sitas, F. and Tollman, S.M., Bradshaw, D., 2009. The burden of non-communicable diseases in South Africa. *The Lancet*, 374, pp.934–947.
25. Monyeki, K.D., Van Lenthe, F.J. and Steyn, N.P., 1999. Obesity: does it occur in African children in a rural community in South Africa?. *International journal of epidemiology*, 28(2), pp.287–292.
26. Moreno Franco, B., León Latre, M., Andrés Esteban, E.M., Ordovás, J.M., Casasnovas, J.A. and Peñalvo, J.L., 2014. Soluble and insoluble dietary fibre intake and risk factors for metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular disease in middle-aged adults: the AWHs cohort. *Nutricion hospitalaria*, 30(6).
27. Motala, A.A., Esterhuizen, T., Pirie, F.J. and Omar, M.A., 2011. The prevalence of metabolic syndrome and determination of the optimal waist circumference cutoff points in a rural South African community. *Diabetes care*, 34, pp.1032–1037.
28. Narasimhan, S., Nagarajan, L., Vaidya, R., Gunasekaran, G., Rajagopal, G., Parthasarathy, V., Unnikrishnan, R., Anjana, R.M., Mohan, V. and Sudha, V., 2016. Dietary fat intake and its association with risk of selected components

- of the metabolic syndrome among rural South Indians. *Indian journal of endocrinology and metabolism*, 20(1), p.47.
29. Nasila, S.J., Tyler, J., Longo-Mbenza, B., Lasi, O.K., Gombet, T., Erasmus, R.T., 2013. Assessing clustering of metabolic syndrome components available at primary care for Bantu Africans using factor analysis in the general population. *BMC research notes*,6, pp.228.
  30. Obarzanek, E., Velletri, P.A. and Cutler, J.A., 1996. Dietary protein and blood pressure. *JAMA-Journal of the American Medical Association-US Edition*, 275(20), pp.1598–1603.
  31. Omuse, G., Maina, D., Hoffman, M., Mwangi, J., Wambua, C., Kagotho, E., Amayo, A., Ojwang, P., Premji, Z., Ichihara, K. and Erasmus, R., 2017. Metabolic syndrome and its predictors in an urban population in Kenya: A cross sectional study. *BMC endocrine disorders*, 17(1), p.37.
  32. Owolabi, E.O., Goon, D., Adeniyi, O.V. and Ajayi, A.I., 2018. Optimal waist circumference cut-off points for predicting metabolic syndrome among low-income black South African adults. *BMC research notes*,11(1), p.22.
  33. Peer, N., Steyn, K., Levitt, N., 2015. Differential obesity indices identify the metabolic syndrome in black men and women in Cape Town: the CRISBA study. *J Public Health*.
  34. Peters, H., Whincup, P.H., Cook, D.G., Law, C., Li, L., 2012. Trends in blood pressure in 9 to 11-year-old children in the United Kingdom 1980–2008: the impact of obesity. *Journal of hypertension*, 30(9), pp.1708–1717.
  35. Puoane, T., Steyn, K., Bradshaw, D., Laubscher, R., Fourie, J., Lambert, V. and Mbananga, N., 2002. Obesity in South Africa: the South African demographic and health survey. *Obesity*, 10(10), pp.1038–1048.
  36. Roberts, C.K., Vaziri, N.D. and Barnard, R.J., 2002. Effect of diet and exercise intervention on blood pressure, insulin, oxidative stress, and nitric oxide availability. *Circulation*, 106(20), pp.2530–2532.
  37. Salerno, M., Argenziano, A., Di Maio, S., Gasparini, N., Formicola, S., De Filippo, G. and Tenore, A., 1997. Pubertal growth, sexual maturation, and final height in children with IDDM: effects of age at onset and metabolic control. *Diabetes care*, 20(5), pp.721–724.

38. Schneider, M., Norman, R., Steyn, N. and Bradshaw, D., 2007. Estimating the burden of disease attributable to low fruit and vegetable intake in South Africa in 2000. *South African Medical Journal*, 97(8), pp.717–723.
39. Sekgala, M.D., Monyeki, K.D., Mogale, M.A., Ramoshaba, N.E., 2017. Performance of blood pressure to height ratio as a screening tool for elevated blood pressure in rural children: Ellisras Longitudinal Study. *J Hum Hypertens*.pp.1–5.
40. Shisana, O., Labadarios, D., Rehle, T., Simbayi, L., Zuma, K., Dhansay, A., Reddy, P., Parker, W., Hoosain, E., Naidoo, P. and Hongoro, C., 2014. The South African National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 2012: SANHANES-1: the health and nutritional status of the nation.
41. Slavin, J.L., 2005. Dietary fiber and body weight. *Nutrition*, 21(3), pp.411–418.
42. Steyn, N.P. and Temple, N.J., 2012. Evidence to support a food-based dietary guideline on sugar consumption in South Africa. *BMC Public Health*, 12(1), p.502.
43. Van Zyl, S., Van der Merwe, L.J., Walsh, C.M., Groenewald, A.J. and Van Rooyen, F.C., 2012. Risk-factor profiles for chronic diseases of lifestyle and metabolic syndrome in an urban and rural setting in South Africa. *African Journal of Primary Health Care and Family Medicine*, 4(1), pp.1–10.
44. Voors, A.W., Webber, L.S., Frerichs, R.R. and Berenson, G.S., 1977. Body height and body mass as determinants of basal blood pressure in children—the Bogalusa Heart Study. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 106(2), pp.101–108.
45. Wentzel-Viljoen, E. and Kruger, A., 2005. PURE research team. Prospective Urban and Rural Epidemiological (PURE) study in the North West Province of South Africa, 2005, North-West University, Potchefstroom, South Africa. Unpublished data.
46. Wojcik, J.L., Aukema, H.M., Zahradka, P. and Taylor, C.G., 2016. Effects of high protein diets on metabolic syndrome parameters. *Current Opinion in Food Science*, 8, pp.43–49.
47. Wong, B.W., Meredith, A., Lin, D., McManus, B.M., 2012. The biological role of inflammation in atherosclerosis. *Canadian Journal of Cardiology*, 28(6), pp.631–641.

48. Xi, B., Zhang, M., Zhang, T., Liang, Y., Li, S. and Steffen, L.M., 2014. Hypertension screening using blood pressure to height ratio. *Pediatrics*, 134(1), pp.106–111.
49. Yoon, S.S., Gu, Q., Nwankwo, T., Wright, J.D., Hong, Y. and Burt, V., 2014. Trends in blood pressure among adults with hypertension: United States, 2003 to 2012. *Hypertension*, pp.114.
50. Zeitlin, L., Rauch, F., Plotkin, H. and Glorieux, F.H., 2003. Height and weight development during four years of therapy with cyclical intravenous pamidronate in children and adolescents with osteogenesis imperfecta types I, III, and IV. *Pediatrics*, 111(5), pp.1030–1036.

# **CHAPTER 5**

## **5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

## 5.1. INTRODUCTION

Globally the proportion of non-communicable diseases (NCDs) deaths is predicted to rise from 59% in 2002 to 69% of all deaths by 2030 (Mathers and Loncar, 2006). The NCDs profile has been suggested to be changing rapidly globally. For example, the growing patterns of elderly, economic growth and rapid urbanization which is characterized by a shift in the dietary patterns and a lack of physical activity resulted in the increase in the NCDs morbidity and mortality worldwide (Monyeki and Kemper, 2008; Miranda *et al.*, 2009; Collaboration, 2017). Furthermore, the interconnected risk factors as a result of lifestyle; such as elevated blood pressure (BP), waist circumference (WC), blood sugar and low high density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) are amongst the leading risk factors for NCDs in Africa

## 5.2. SUMMARY

Chapter 1–Non-communicable diseases (NCDs) are responsible for two out of three deaths worldwide with their profile changing from one country to another (Rahim *et al.*, 2014). Africa is expected to experience the largest increase in NCD related mortality globally with about 46% of all mortality expected to be attributed to NCDs by 2030 (Rahim *et al.*, 2014; Dalal *et al.*, 2011). Metabolic syndrome (metS) has been considered the fastest developing NCDs syndrome worldwide (Ford, 2005). This chapter addressed the need to determine the lifestyle risk factors associated with metabolic syndrome among the Ellisras rural sample aged 18-30 years.

The objectives of this study among rural population (6-30 years) who are part of the ELS were:

- i. To determine the performance of blood pressure to height ratio as a screening tool for elevated blood pressure in rural children
- ii. To determine the prevalence of risk factors for metS (TCHOL, HDL-C, LDL-C, Hypertension, TG, WC and FBG levels)
- iii. To determine the association between dietary intake and metS risk factors
- iv. To determine the risk of developing metS

Chapter 2–The literature of some important international researchers who argued that diagnosing hypertension in children and adolescents is complicated due to

variation of blood pressure values to age, gender and height, therefore, blood pressure to height ratio can be an accurate tool for screening elevated blood pressure (Hansen *et al.*, 2007; Xi *et al.*, 2014). Metabolic syndrome (metS) has been considered to be one of the fastest developing NCDs entities in the world (Ford *et al.*, 2004; Mottillo *et al.*, 2010). Metabolic syndrome is characterized by a group of risk factors that co-exist in an individual. Therefore, metS shares similar risk factors to that of NCDs, such as elevated blood pressure, glucose intolerance and insulin resistance. These risk factors have been associated with obesity, thereby suggesting the interrelation between NCDs and metS (McKeigue *et al.*, 1998). The argument that metS is also pandemic in South African population is reviewed (Motala *et al.*, 2011; Van Zyl *et al.*, 2012).

Chapter 3—The methodology and the statistical analysis of the data collected were described. Receiver-operating characteristics curve analysis was performed to assess the performance of blood pressure to height ratio as an accurate tool for screening elevated blood pressure. Linear regression was used to investigate the association of dietary intake with various metS risk factors. Finally, logistic regression was used to show the risk of developing risk factors of metS due to dietary intake.

Chapter 4—The results and discussion of the study were described. The discriminatory ability of optimal cut-offs of systolic blood pressure to height ratio and diastolic blood pressure to height ratio for identifying stage 1 and stage 2 hypertension were satisfactory. The cut-offs points seem to be better at predicting stage 2 hypertension of which the majority of children have been screened in the current study and consistent with the findings of other research (Lu *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, the overall prevalence of metabolic syndrome was 23.1% (8.6% males and 36.8% females) in young adults from rural Ellisras. This prevalence is lower than the prevalence shown in South African coloured participants in the Erasmus *et al.* (2012) study, but is higher than the prevalence shown in black North West residents (9.5% for females and 6.8% for males) participating in the Hoebel *et al.* (2011) study. Additionally, the current population had a higher metS prevalence than that reported in low-income black South Africans (Owolabi *et al.*, 2018). However, the males in Owolabi's study had a higher prevalence than that of the current study population, even though both studies used the IDF criteria definition for metS.

Chapter 5—A summary overview of the dissertation was outlined together with recommendations of the study which will help to uproot the dynamics of metabolic syndrome among the young adult population in rural South Africa.

### 5.3. CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions of the study are provided in relation to the objectives and hypothesis set out in Chapter 1.

**Objective 1:** To determine the performance of blood pressure to height ratio as a screening tool for elevated blood pressure in rural children.

**Hypothesis 1: The performance of blood pressure to height ratio will be an accurate tool for screening elevated blood pressure in rural Ellisras children**

Xi *et al.* (2014) initially reported blood pressure to height ratio as a simple and accurate index for the screening of hypertension in 11 661 Chinese children aged 6-17 years. The optimal thresholds of blood pressure to height ratio for screening hypertension were established by these authors. The optimal thresholds for prehypertension were 0.81 in children and 0.70 in adolescents for systolic blood pressure to height ratio, while diastolic blood pressure to height ratio was 0.52 in children and 0.46 in adolescents, and were similar to the results of Ellisras children and adolescents aged 6-17 years.

The blood pressure to height ratio is an accurate tool for screening elevated blood pressure in Ellisras children aged 6-17 years. This can well help to prevent the misclassification of children and adolescent hypertension. Furthermore, this tool can be used to screen children before the development of prehypertension and hypertension. Moreover, it can be used to manage hypertension in Ellisras children, ultimately reducing the risks of developing hypertension and associated cardiovascular disease in adulthood. However, it can be used as a screening tool but should not be used as a diagnostic tool.

**In the line of the findings above, hypothesis 1 was therefore partially accepted.**

**Objective 2:** To determine the prevalence of risk factors for metS (TCHOL, HDL-C, LDL-C, hypertension, TG, WC and FBG levels).



**Hypothesis 2: The prevalence of risk factors of metabolic syndrome of Ellisras sample will be similar to those studies in other parts of the world.**

Globally, the prevalence of the metS is on the rise, and this increase is the case in developing countries, in Africa and in SA. Based on current population estimates, nearly 100 million people have metS (Roberts *et al.*, 2013). It was recently reported that, the prevalence of metS is higher in African populations than in Caucasian populations (Hoebel *et al.*, 2011). These findings were supported by the African based studies which reported highest prevalence of metS in Africa (Erasmus *et al.*, 2012; Peer *et al.*, 2015). As compared to other areas of the world (Siminialayi and Emem-chioma, 2008; Awosan *et al.*, 2013; Magalhães *et al.*, 2014). As expected, the prevalence of metS in the current study was 23.1% (8.6% males and 36.8% females).

**In the line of the findings above, hypothesis 2 was therefore partially accepted.**

**Objective 3:** To determine the association between dietary intake and metS risk factors.

**Hypothesis 3: There will be a significant association between dietary intake and metabolic syndrome risk factors**

The majority of the rural population still consume less than the recommended dietary intake for both macro and micronutrients (Mchiza *et al.*, 2015). Consumption of excessive food energy has been shown in other studies conducted in black ethnic communities and other rural areas in South Africa. Briefly, the total mean energy intake males (9 788 kj) and females (7 250 kj) and dietary fibre males (22%) and females (18%) of South Africans appears to lie below the DRIs (Nel and Steyn, 2002). Jaffer *et al.* (2009), reported the same trend with energy intake for males (8 600 kj) and females (7 600 kj) and dietary fibre males (18.9%) and females (16.2%). Moreover, the total mean energy in males (6 973 kj) and females (6 107 kj) and dietary fibre in males (19%) and females (17%) were observed from rural settings (Wentzel-Viljoen and Kruger, 2010). As evidenced in the current study, dietary intake of some macronutrients were associated with metS risk factors, whereas others were not, example; there was no association between log total energy, log added sugar, log SFA and log MUFA with metabolic risk factors. However, a low and negative

significant association between log fibre with SBP and DBP, crude was observed. The same finding was reported by Moreno Franco *et al.* (2014). An intervention study shown that increased dietary fibre intake significantly reduced both SBP and DBP (Roberts *et al.*, 2002). After adjusting for the potential confounding factors, log fibre was also associated with FBG. These results were consistent with the results of Giacco *et al* (2000). Furthermore, log PUFAs was inversely associated with FBG, HDL-C and SBP crude. Log trans fatty acids was inversely associated with WC, HDL-C and SBP crude. Finally, log protein was inversely associated with SBP both crude and adjusted for potential cofounding factors.

**In the line of the findings above, hypothesis 3 was therefore partially accepted.**

**Objective 4:** To determine the risk of developing metS

**Hypothesis 4: The Ellisras population will be at risk of developing metabolic syndrome similar to those studies in the world.**

Participants who had high dietary energy intake were significantly less likely to present with larger WC, low HDL-C and high LDL-C, respectively). These results could possibly be due to the finding that participants consumed less energy than recommended. However, participants who had a high dietary energy intake were more likely to present with elevated FBG, high TCHOL, high TG and hypertension. Similar results were reported by Bruscato *et al.* (2010). After adjusting for age, gender, smoking and alcohol status, high energy intake was more than two times more likely to predict metS in adults with a large WC and elevated FBG among study participants. Furthermore, low dietary fibre intake was nearly four times more likely to increase the low HDL-C, crude.

Those participants who consumed high trans fats were more likely to present with high FBG, but less likely to present with high LDL-C, crude. However, after adding potential confounding factors, participants with high fatty acid were less likely to present with high FBG. These results have a policy implication in that they call for urgent interventions including nutrition education in rural and poorer communities of SA in order to halt this escalating metS epidemic as shown by a number of studies in the country (Mayosi *et al.*, 2009; Van Zyl *et al.*, 2012; Omuse *et al.*, 2017).

**In the line with the findings above, hypothesis 4 was therefore partially accepted.**

#### **5.4. RECOMMENDATIONS**

Metabolic syndrome risk factors are largely preventable. However, researchers need to find the mechanism that links diet to health.

We recommend that:

1. Blood pressure to height ratio is used as a screening tool for identifying children and adolescents with elevated blood pressure. This can help to prevent the misclassification of children and adolescent hypertension. Furthermore, this tool can be used to screen children before the development of prehypertension and hypertension.
2. Further studies with a larger sample that is conveniently representative are needed in order to draw a solid conclusion on the findings
3. Other risk factors of metabolic syndrome such as tobacco smoking, alcohol consumption, physical activity and socioeconomic status should be included in the analysis. More cohort studies are needed to track the development of metabolic syndrome over time in rural communities in order to devise strategic interventions and management plans to prevent the metabolic syndrome in the rural population.
4. Diet plays a significant role as a risk factor for NCDs, therefore, sufficient and safe food from a variety of food supplies are recommended in the rural communities

## 5.5. REFERENCES

1. Awosan, K.J., Ibrahim, M.T.O., Arisege, S.A., Ejimadu, S.P., Erhiano, E.E. and Aderahman, A.T., 2013. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome and its components among civil servants in a metropolitan city in Northern Nigeria. *Glob Adv Res J Med MedSci*, 2(11), pp.238–246.
2. Bruscato, N.M., da Costa Vieira, J.L., do Nascimento, N.M., Canto, M.E., Stobbe, J.C., Gottlieb, M.G., 2010. Dietary intake is not associated to the metabolic syndrome in elderly women. *North American journal of medical sciences*, 2(4),p.182.
3. Collaboration, N.R.F., 2017. Worldwide trends in blood pressure from 1975 to 2015: a pooled analysis of 1479 population-based measurement studies with 19· 1 million participants. *Lancet*, 389(10064), p.37.
4. Dalal, S., Beunza, J.J., Volmink, J., Adebamowo, C., Bajunirwe, F., Njelekela, M., Mozaffarian, D., Fawzi, W., Willett, W., Adami, H.O. and Holmes, M.D., 2011. Non-communicable diseases in sub-Saharan Africa: what we know now. *International journal of epidemiology*, 40(4), pp.885–901.
5. Erasmus, R.T., Soita, D.J., Hassan, M.S., Blanco-Blanco, E., Vergotine, Z., Kengne, A.P. and Matsha, T.E., 2012. High prevalence of diabetes mellitus and metabolic syndrome in a South African coloured population: Baseline data of a study in Bellville, Cape Town. *SAMJ: S. Afr. Med. J*, 102, pp.841–844.
6. Ford ES and Li C., 2008. Defining the metabolic syndrome in children and adolescents: will the real definition please stand up?. *J. Pediatr*, 152:160–164.
7. Giacco, R., Parillo, M., Rivellese, A.A., Lasorella, G., Giacco, A., D'episcopo, L. and Riccardi, G., 2000. Long-term dietary treatment with increased amounts of fiber-rich low-glycemic index natural foods improves blood glucose control and reduces the number of hypoglycemic events in type 1 diabetic patients. *Diabetes care*, 23(10), pp.1461–1466.

8. Hansen, M.L., Gunn, P.W. and Kaelber, D.C., 2007. Underdiagnosis of hypertension in children and adolescents. *Jama*, 298(8), pp.874–879.
9. Hoebel, S., Malan, L., and De Ridder, H., 2011. Differences in MetS marker prevalence between black African and Caucasian teachers from the North West Province: Sympathetic activity and ambulatory blood pressure in Africans (SABPA) Study. *Journal of Endocrinology, Metabolism and Diabetes of South Africa*, 16(1), pp.49–56.
10. Jaffer, N., Steyn, N.P., Peer, N., 2009. Dietary data from the Cardiovascular risk in black South Africans (CRIBSA) study conducted in 2009. (Data unpublished; master thesis in preparation).
11. Lu, Q., Ma, C.M., Yin, F.Z., Liu, B.W., Lou, D.H and Liu, X.L., 2011. How to simplify the diagnostic criteria of hypertension in adolescents. *J Hum Hypertens*, 25, pp.159–163.
12. Magalhães, P., Capingana, D.P. and Mill, J.G., 2014. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome and determination of optimal cut-off values of waist circumference in university employees from Angola: cardiovascular topic. *Cardiovascular journal of Africa*, 25(1), pp.27–33.
13. Mathers, C.D., Loncar, D., 2006. Projection of global mortality and burden of diseases from 2002 to 2030. *PLoS Med*, 3:e442.
14. Mayosi, B.M., Flisher, A.J., Lalloo, U.G., Sitas, F., Tollman, S.M., Bradshaw, D., 2009. The burden of non-communicable diseases in South Africa. *The Lancet*, 374, pp.934–947.
15. Mchiza, Z.J., Steyn, N.P., Hill, J., Kruger, A., Schönfeldt, H., Nel, J., Wentzel-Viljoen, E., 2015. A review of dietary surveys in the adult South African population from 2000 to 2015. *Nutrients*, 7, pp.8227–8250.
16. McKeigue, P.M., Lithell, H.O. and Leon, D.A., 1998. Glucose tolerance and resistance to insulin-stimulated glucose uptake in men aged 70 years in relation to size at birth. *Diabetologia*, 41(10), pp.1133–1138.
17. Miranda, J.J, Kinra, S., Casas, J.P., Smith, G.D., Ebrahim, S., 2009. Non-communicable diseases in low and middle-income countries: context determinants and health policy. *Trop Med Int Health*, 13 (10),pp.1225–1234.

18. Monyeki, K.D. and Kemper, H.C.G., 2008. The risk factors for elevated blood pressure and how to address cardiovascular risk factors: a review in paediatric populations. *Journal of human hypertension*, 22(7), pp.450–459.
19. Moreno Franco, B., León Latre, M., Andrés Esteban, E.M., Ordovás, J.M., Casasnovas, J.A. and Peñalvo, J.L., 2014. Soluble and insoluble dietary fibre intake and risk factors for metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular disease in middle-aged adults: the AWHs cohort. *Nutricion hospitalaria*, 30(6).
20. Motale, A.A., Esterhuizen, T., Pirie, F.J. and Omar, M.A., 2011. The prevalence of metabolic syndrome and determination of the optimal waist circumference cutoff points in a rural South African community. *Diabetes care*, 34(4), pp.1032–1037.
21. Nel, J.H., Steyn, N.P., 2002. Report on South African food consumption studies undertaken amongst different population groups (1983–2000): Average intakes of foods most commonly consumed. Pretoria, South Africa.
22. Omuse, G., Maina, D., Hoffman, M., Mwangi, J., Wambua, C., Kagotho, E., 2017. Metabolic syndrome and its predictors in an urban population in Kenya: A cross sectional study. *BMC Endocr Disord*, 17, p.37.
23. Owolabi, E.O., Goon, D., Adeniyi, O.V. and Ajayi, A.I., 2018. Optimal waist circumference cut-off points for predicting metabolic syndrome among low-income black South African adults. *BMC research notes*, 11(1), p.22.
24. Peer, N., Steyn, K., Levitt, N., 2015. Differential obesity indices identify the metabolic syndrome in black men and women in Cape Town: the CRISBA study. *J Public Health*.
25. Rahim, H.F.A., Sibai, A., Khader, Y., Hwalla, N., Fadhil, I., Alsiyabi, H., Mataria, A., Mendis, S., Mokdad, A.H. and Hussein, A., 2014. Non-communicable diseases in the Arab world. *The Lancet*, 383(9914), pp.356–367.
26. Roberts, C.K., Hevener, A.L. and Barnard, R.J., 2013. Metabolic syndrome and insulin resistance: underlying causes and modification by exercise training. *Comprehensive Physiology*.
27. Roberts, C.K., Vaziri, N.D. and Barnard, R.J., 2002. Effect of diet and exercise intervention on blood pressure, insulin, oxidative stress, and nitric oxide availability. *Circulation*, 106(20), pp.2530–2532.

28. Siminialayi, I.M. and Emem-chioma, P.C., 2008. Metabolic syndrome in a rural Nigerian community: Is central obesity always the key determinant?. *Nigerian Health Journal*, 8(3-4), pp.48–51.
29. Van Zyl, S., Van der Merwe, L.J., Walsh, C.M., Groenewald, A.J., Van Rooyen, F.C., 2012. Risk-factor profiles for chronic diseases of lifestyle and metabolic syndrome in an urban and rural setting in South Africa. *Afr J Prim Health Care Fam Med*, 4, pp.1–10.
30. Wentzel-Viljoen, E., Kruger, A., 2010. North-West University; Potchefstroom, South Africa: 2010. Prospective Urban and Rural Epidemiological (PURE) study in the North West Province of South Africa.
31. Xi, B., Zhang, M., Zhang, T., Liang, Y., Li, S. and Steffen, L.M., 2014. Hypertension screening using blood pressure to height ratio. *Pediatrics*, 134, pp.106–111.

# APPENDIXES





**APPENDIX A (DATA FORM)**  
**Biochemical measurements and life style**

Subject Name:			
Subject Number:			
Code of the Fieldworker: .....			
Examination Date:			
Name of School/village:.....			
School number/village number: .....			
Last Grade at school .....			
Gender:	Male 1	Female 2	
Date of birth:			

<b>Fasting status</b>								
Have you had anything to eat or drink in the last 12 hours? (other than water or unsweetened black tea or coffee)								
yes=1	no =2	Uncertain=3						
<b>Blood glucose</b>								
Time of blood specimen taken	___/___ hh:mm	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table>						
Fasting blood glucose	(mmol/l)	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table>						
<b>History of Diabetes (Expanded)</b>								
B 3. Have you had your blood sugar measured in the last 12 months?								

	yes=1	no =2	Uncertain=3	
<i>B 4. Have you ever been told by a doctor or other health worker that you have diabetes?</i>				
	yes=1	no =2	Uncertain=3	
<i>B 5. Are you currently receiving any of the following treatment for diabetes?</i>				
<i>Insulin</i>	yes 1	no 2	uncertain 3	
<i>Oral drug prescribed by a doctor or other health worker<sup>1</sup></i>	yes 1	no 2	uncertain 3	
<i>Special diet prescribed by a doctor or other health worker</i>	yes 1	no 2	uncertain 3	
<i>Advice or treatment to lose weight</i>	yes 1	no 2	uncertain 3	
<i>Advice or treatment to stop smoking</i>	yes 1	no 2	uncertain 3	
<i>Herbal or traditional remedy</i>	yes 1	no 2	uncertain 3	
<b>Blood lipids</b>				
Total cholesterol	(mmol/l)			
Triglycerides	(mmol/l)			
HDL cholesterol	(mmol/l)			
LDL cholesterol (calculated)	(mmol/l)			
<i>M 9. Have you been told by a doctor or other health worker in the past year (12 months) that you have elevated blood pressure or hypertension?</i>				
	yes=1	no =2	Uncertain=3	
<i>M 10. Are you currently receiving any of the following treatments for high blood pressure?</i>				
	<i>Drug(s) prescribed by a doctor or other health worker<sup>2</sup></i>	yes=1	no =2	







Faculty of Science and Agriculture

## APPENDIX C (DATA FORM) 24 hour recall (Dietary intake)

### ELLISRAS LONGITUDINAL STUDY

Subject number:       Birth Date:       Interwdate:

School name: \_\_\_\_\_ School number: \_\_\_\_\_ Interviewer: \_\_\_\_\_

#### DIETARY INTAKE QUESTIONNAIRES (24 HR RECALL)

##### Instructions:

Now I want you to tell me everything that you ate and drank yesterday. Lets start with when you woke up. Did you have anything to eat or drink?

- Enter each item eaten in grams under the correct interval of the day eaten.
- Make sure that the code is circled.
- Items not on the questionnaire should be looked up in the Quantity Manual or list of food codes.
- Specify fully when new items are entered and look up the code later.

##### ABBREVIATIONS:

<p><u>Measures</u> 1t = 1 rounded teaspoon 1T = 1 rounded tablespoon (15ml) 1SP = 1 rounded servingspoon (30ml) C = measuring cup (250ml) s/s = small size m/s = medium L/s = large E = enriched P = plain</p> <p><u>Milk:</u> SM = skim milk WN = whole milk BL = blend CON = condensed milk ND = non-dairy</p>	<p><u>Bread</u> Wh = white Br = Brown Ww = wholewheat</p> <p><u>Meat</u> F = with fat FT = fat trimmed</p> <p><u>Oil/ Fat</u> B = butter HM = hard margarine Med = medium fat/ light PM = polyunsaturated SO = sunflower oil WF = white fat PM = peanut butter</p>	<p>BR = breakfast ( Up to 09h00) IS = in - between snack L = lunch (midday (12h00-14h00) D = dinner (evening (17h00-20h00) AD = after meal Comm = commercial Home = homemade Pot = potato Cab = cabbage Carr = Carrot Fill = Filling Usually = at least 4x/week</p>
--	--	---

Dairy Fruit Mix - 2791									
	FOOD ITEMS	QUANTITY (g/ml)	BR	IS	L	IS	D	AD	
	+ Sugar White-3989;Brown-4005;Syrup-3988; Honey-3984	1t = 6g							
	Syrup (undiluted)-2865; Guava Syrup-2864	1t = 5g							
	Other (Specify) _____								
BREAKFAST CEREALS	Maltabella: Soft-3241; Mabella: Soft-3437	1/2c = 125g							
	M/Meal: Soft: Plain-3399; Enrich-4277	1c soft = 250g							
	Stiff: Plain-3400; Enrich-4278	1c stiff = 250g							
	Crumbly: Plain-3401; Enrich-4279	1c crumbly = 140g							
	Sour Porridge: Maize with Vinegar-P0001, Maize Fermented- P0002, Mabella with Vinegar-P0003; Mabella Fermented-P0004	1/2c = 125g 1c = 250g							
	Oats-3239; Tastee Wheat-3240	1/2c = 125g							
	Corn Flakes-3243; Sugar Frosted-3374	1c = 40g							
	Honey Crunch and Muesli - 3303	1/2c = 65g							
	Pronutro: Great Start-3438; High Energy-3245; Wholewheat-3436	1/2c = 50g							
	Puffed Wheat-3325; Sweetened-3376 (Honey Smacks)	1/2c = 12g							
	Raisin Bran-3373; Fruit Loops-3425	Raisin Bran 1/2c = 45g Fruit Loops 1/2c = 18g							
	Special K-3322; All Bran-3242	1/2c = 25g							
	Rice Crispies-3252; Cocopops-3372	1/2c = 20g							
	Weetbix - 3244	1 = 25g							
	+ Fat: B -3479; HM-3484; Med-3531; PM-3496; WF-3516	1 t PB = 12g; 1 t marg/oil = 5g							
	Ghee-3525; PB-3485; Butro-3523; SO-3507								
	+ Sugar White-3989;Brown-4005; Syrup-3988;Honey-3984	1 t sugar = 6g 1 t honey/syrup = 15g							
	+ Cond Milk:SM-2744; Cond WM-2714;Cond ND- P0042	1t = 10g							
	+ Evap WM-2715; Evap SM-2827; Evap Light-P0043	1t = 3g							
	+ Non-Dairy Creamer-2751	1t = 4g							
	+ WM Powder-2831	1t = 4g							
	+ Milk: SM-2719; WM-2718	125g - Instant cereal							
BL-2771; 2%-2772	60g - porridge								
Soy-2737; Breast-2741; Goat-2738	180g - Pro Nutro								
Formula (Specify): _____ No of Scoops/Bottle: _____									
Other (Specify) _____									
BREAD	Bread: Comm & Home: Wh-3210	Wh + Br 10mm = 30g							
	Br-3211	Ww 10mm = 36g							
	Ww-3212	Wh + Br 20mm = 60g Ww 20mm = 70g							
	Cream Crackers-3230; Provita-3235; Tuc 3331; Crackers Ww-3391	Cr Cracker = 8g; Tuc = 4g; Provita = 6g							
	Maize Meal Bread - 3278	m/s = 30g; L/s = 50g							
Muffins: Plain-3408; Bran-3407	6cm diam = 35g 8cm diam = 60g								

Rolls: Wh-3210; Br-3211; Ww-3212 Roti: SO-3358; HM-3357		Wh round (10cm) = 30g Wh long (18cm) = 40g s/s = 50g (Roll)								
FOOD ITEMS		QUANTITY (g/ml)	BR	IS	L	IS	D	AD		
Rusks: Comm Wh-3364; Bran-3330		Outspan = 15g; All Bran = 30g								
Comm Buttermilk: Wh-3329;		Wh = 35g; Ww = 30g								
Home Buttermilk: Wh-3215; Ww-3255; Bran & Raisins-3380		Wh = 30g; Ww = 30g								
Scones: (Wh) SM-3411; WM-3237 (Ww) SM-3412; WM-3320		6cm diam = 35g 8cm diam = 60g								
Vetkoek: Wh-3257; Ww -3324; Dumpling-3210 (no yeast)		8cm diam = 60g								
Other (Specify) _____										
SPREADS ON BREAD	Beef Fat-3494; Mutton Fat-3497; Lard-3495	Thin Med Thick								
	Butter-3478; Butro-3523	5 10 15								
	Ghee-3525; WF-3516;									
	Fishpaste-3109; Liver Spread-2922; Meat Paste-2917	5 7 10								
	Jam-3985; Honey-3984; Syrup-3988	10 20 35								
	Marg: H-3484	5 7 10								
	Med-3531									
	PM-3496									
	Marmite-4030; Meat Spread (Bovril)-4029	2 4 7								
	Peanut Butter-3485; Sandwich Spread-3522; ChocSpread-P0005	5 10 20								
Other (Specify) _____										
EGGS	Eggs: Boiled/Poached - 2867	1 egg = 50g								
	Curried - 2902	1 egg + sauce (IT) = 75g								
	Fried: B-2868; HM-2877; PM-2878	1 egg = 52g								
	SO-2869; Bacon Fat-2870									
	Scrambled/Omelette: SM + B-2886; SM + HM-2887	IT = 35g; 1SP = 80g 1/2c = 115g (± 2 eggs) omelette = 60g egg (med) 120g (L/s)								
	SM+PM-2888; SM+SO-2889; WM+B-2874									
	WM+HM-2890; WM+PM-2891; WM+SO-2873									
Other (Specify) _____										
CHEESE	Cheddar-2722;	grated: med = 10g Thick = 15g								
	Gouda/Sweetmilk-2723	1 cheezl = 20g; cubes = 30g 1 slice = 8g								
	Cheese Spread-2730	med = 12g; thick = 25g								
	Cottage Cheese; Creamed-2759; Cream Cheese-2725	thin = 10g med = 20								
	Cottage Cheese: Fat Free-2729; Low Fat-2760	med = 20g; thick = 30g								
	Macaroni Cheese: SM-3343; WM-3301	1T = 45g; 1 SP = 90g; 1/2c = 115g								
	Pizza (Cheese + Tomato)-3353	S/s = 90g; L/s = 340g								
	Savoury Tart+Asparagus-3367;+Vienna-3326;+Tuna-3366	wedge: small = 65g; med = 75g; large = 110g								
Other (Specify) _____										
W/B	Bacon: Fried; Lean-2915 F-2906	1 rasher = 10g								

	Beef: Corned/Silverside/Cold cuts: F-2924; Bully Beef-2940	138 x 85 x 3 = 20g 1/2c = 100g								
	Lean-2962; Curry Beef-P0006									
	Fillet: F-2933; FT-2929	100 x 70 x 10 = 90g								
	<b>FOOD ITEMS</b>	<b>QUANTITY (g/ml)</b>	<b>BR</b>	<b>IS</b>	<b>L</b>	<b>IS</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>AD</b>		
食品	Mince: Pan Fried F-2910; Lean-2961; Curry-3015	T = 40; SP = 85g 1/2c = 100g								
	- Savoury (Tomato + Onion)-2987									
	- Cottage Pie: WM + HM-3009									
	Roast: F-2944; FT-2960	120 x 60 x 5 = 35g 120 x 60 x 10 = 70g								
	Rump: Fried: F-2908; FT-2959	S/s 130 x 70 x 15 = 125g L/s 165 x 70 x 30 = 270g								
	Sirloin/T-Bone: Grilled: F-2946; FT-2907									
	Stew: Vegetables (Fat Meat)-3006	1 SP = 105g; 1/2c = 125g								
	: Pot + Carrots + Peas + Onions (Lean Meat)-2909									
	Billong: Beef-2911; Game-2912	grated 1SP = 10g beefsteak = 16g sliced 1SP = 35g								
	Bobotie: Lean, SM, SO-3013; F, WM, SO-2986	1SP = 85g; 1/2c = 115g								
	Chicken: Boiled + Skin-2926; No Skin-2963; Curry-P0007	breast + skin = 125g thigh = 80g drumstick = 42g foot = 30g wing = 30g pie(comm)=150g home = 80g liver = 30g; stomach = 20g								
	Feet-2997; Giblets-2998; Heads-2999									
	Pie (Comm)-2954									
	Roast + Skin-2925; No Skin-2950; Fried-2925									
	Stew: Vegetables-3005	1SP = 90g; 1/2c = 125g								
	Tomato + Onion - 2985									
	Batter Dipped-Fried eg. Kentucky-3018	1SP = 105g; 1/2c = 125g								
	Burger Pattie -2950	1 pattie = 80g								
	+ Bun (4 cm diam)-3210	1 bun = 60g								
	Cornish Pie: (Comm) - 2953	med = 150g								
	Frankfurter-2937	155 x 20 = 45g 168 x 21 = 80g								
	+ Roll (16 cm long)-3210	1 roll = 40g								
	Goat meat: Stewed (plain)-4281; (+ Veg)-4282	120 x 60 x 5 = 35g 120 x 60 x 10 = 70g								
	Fried F-P0008; Fried FT-P0009									
	Grilled F-P0010; Grilled FT-P0011									
	Ham-2967; Ham & Tongue loaf-2990	med slice = 25g								
	Heart: Beef-2968; Sheep-2969	sheep heart = 60g sheep kidney = 30g beef kidney = 85g								
Kidney: Beef-2923; Sheep-2956										
Lung: Beef-3019										
Lasagne: SM-3440; WM-3261	T = 40g; SP = 75g; 1/2c = 120g									
Liver: Fried : Beef-2920; Sheep-2955; Patty (Fried) -2971	sheep = 55g chicken = 30g beef = 80g									
Cooked: Chicken-2970										
Meat Ball: F + Egg-2965; F-No Egg-2966	50mm = 60; 75mm = 120g									
Lean + Egg-3033; Lean, No Egg-3034										
Meat Loaf: F-3035; Lean-3002	80 x 85 x 15mm slice = 80g									



	Meat Patty: (Hamburger)-2984	s/s = 50g; m/s = 100g							
	+ Bun (4 cm diam)-3210	1 bun = 60g							
	Mutton: Chop (grilled) F-2927; FT-2934	loin chop = 60g rib chop = 40g							
	Roast: F-2947; FT-2973	s/s slice = 30g med = 70g							
	<b>FOOD ITEMS</b>	<b>QUANTITY (g/ml)</b>	<b>BR</b>	<b>IS</b>	<b>L</b>	<b>IS</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>AD</b>	
	Stew: Plain-2974; Irish-2916 (Vegetables) Curry-3039; Greenbean-3040	1SP = 105g; ½c = 125g							
	Offal: Cooked-Tripe(Pens&Pootjies)-2951;Vetderm- P0023 (Specify): _____	1SP = 105g; ½c = 125g							
	Oxtail: Stewed-2976								
	Polony-2919	slice 5mm thick = 8g comm slice = 16g							
	Pork: Chop (Grilled) F-2930; FT-2977 Crumbed-2992; Spareribs-3010	chop: 115 x 80 x 20 = 100g schnitzel: 115 x 80 x 20 = 110g roast: 110 x 65 x 5 = 30g 1SP = 105g; ½c = 125g 3 ribs = 130g							
	Rib, Braised: F-3046; FT-3045								
	Roast: F-2958; FT-2978								
	Salami and Russians-2948	slice 5mm thick = 12g 1 Russian = 50g							
	+ Roll-3210	1 roll = 40g							
	Samoosa: with Veg-3414; Meat-3355	s/s = 42g							
	Sausage: Beef Dry-2949; Cooked-2931 (Boerewors)	thin x 200mm = 45g thick x 165mm = 90g							
	+ Roll-3210	1 roll = 40g							
	Pork: Cooked-2932	med = 55g							
	+ Roll-3210	1 roll = 40g							
	Roll/Meat Pie (Comm)-2939	25mm pie = 120g roll x 135mm = 165g							
	Spaghetti Bolognaise: Lean-3388; F-3260	T=40g; SP = 75g; ½c = 100g							
	Steak & Kidney: Pie-2957; Stew-2979	comm pie = 120g (30mm) 1SP = 100g; ½c = 135g							
	Tongue: Ox-2935; Sheep:2980	slice 75 x 45 x 10 = 40g							
	Toppers/lmana: Cooked-3196	SP = 85g; ½c = 120g							
	Veal: Cutlet (Fried): Plain-3049; Crumbed-2983	1 chop = 90g							
	Vienna Sausage/Canned Sausage-2936	100mm = 30g; 150mm = 40g							
	+ Roll-3210	1 roll = 40g							
	Worms/Insects:Mopani,Dried-4250;Mopani,Canned- 4284; Specify: _____								
	Wild Birds, Animals; Specify: _____								
	Other (Specify) _____								
E	Bokkems (Dry Fish)-3097	1 s/s = 25g (120mm) L/s = 40g (135mm)							
	Fatty Fish: Kipper; Galjoen; Snoek; Shad; Fried (SO)-3084; Batter-3094; Grill-3082	small 50 x 55 x 30 = 60g med 100 x 55 x 30 = 120g stew 1 SP = 95; ½c = 140g							
	Salted-3097; Steam-3103; Smoked-3112								
	Stew-3076 (Tomato and Onion) / Pickled / Curried								

6

	Fish Cakes: (Fried): Home-3098; Comm-3080	85 x 15mm = 50g									
	Fish Fingers: (Fried)-3081	85mm = 35g									
	Haddock: Smoked (Boiled)-3061	70 x 70 x 15 = 85g									
	Mackerel Canned-3113	1 = 80g (15 mm)									
	Pilchards: Tomato Sauce-3102; Brine-3055	1 = 75g									
	<b>FOOD ITEMS</b>	<b>QUANTITY (g/ml)</b>	<b>BR</b>	<b>IS</b>	<b>L</b>	<b>IS</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>AD</b>			
	Sardines: + Sauce-3087; + Oil-3104	s/s = 7g; L/s = 25g									
	Smooresnoek-3074	1SP = 55g; 1/2c = 80g									
	Sole: Fried-3090; Grilled-3073	baby sole: 180mm = 70g									
	Tuna: Oil Pack-3093; Tuna: Water-3054; Salmon-3058	1/2c = 50g									
	White Fish: Hake, Haddock, Kingklip; Cod ; Stew-3076 (Tom + On); Baked+Fat-3092; No Fat- 3089 ; Grilled-3079; Batter-3072; Fried-3060	s/s piece 50 x 55 x 30 = 60g med 100 x 55 x 30 = 120g stew 1 SP = 95g; 1/2c = 140g									
	Other: eg Fresh Water Fish; Specify: _____ P0012										
	Other (Specify) _____										
STARCH	M/Meal: Soft: Plain-3399; Enrich-4277	T SP 1/2c									
	Stiff: Plain-3400; Enrich-4278	stiff 75 120 125									
	Crumbly: Plain-3401; Enrich-4279	crum 30 75 70									
	Mabella Cornrice/Sorghum cooked (soft or stiff)-3437	soft 75 120 125									
	Sour Porridge: Maize & Vinegar-P0001, Fermented- P0002 Mabella with Vinegar-P0003; Fermented- P0004										
	Maize Rice (Mealie Rice)-3250	25 45 85									
	Samp: (Cooked) -3250; Fresh Mealies-3725	55 125 125									
	Rice: Wh-3247; Br-3315	25 60 65									
	Spaghetti/Macaroni: (Cooked)-3262	35 70 90									
	Spaghetti + Tomato Sauce -3258	45 80 125									
	Stamped Wheat/Wheat Rice-3249	30 80 80									
	+ Fat: B -3479; HM-3484; Med-3531; PM-3496; WF-3516 Ghee-3525; PB-3485; Butro-3523; SO-3507	1 t PB = 12g; 1 t merg/oll = 5g									
	Other (Specify) _____										
LEGUMES	Baked Beans-3176	T SP 1/2c									
	Beans: (Cooked) Haricot-3185; Sugar-3205; Kidney- 3183	50 105 135									
	Breyani: Rice + Lentils + Ghee-3194; +SO-3193	40 80 85									
	Lentils: Cooked/curried-3179	40 80 90									
	Samp and Beans (1:1)-3402; Comm-P0045 (No fat added)	50 125 125									
	Samp & Peanuts (80:20) P0013										
	Soup: Comm (Packets)-3165	125									
	Split Pea-3157; Lentil-3153; Beef + Veg-3159; Bean- 3145	35 80 130									
	Sousboontjies (Dried Bean Salad)-3174	40 105 135									

		Stew: Bean + Potato + Onion-3178					60	120	125								
		Other (Specify)															
COOKED VEGETABLES		Boil		Fat Added (or Fried)													
		NF	B	HM	PM	SO	T	SP	1/2C								
		Gr Beans	3696		3788	3789		25	60	60							
		Gr Bean Curry	3791					40	75	120							
	Gr Bean+Pot+Onion			3792		3794											
		FOOD ITEMS					QUANTITY (g/ml)			BR	IS	L	IS	D	AD		
COOK	Beetroot + Sugar	3699															
	- No Sugar	3698					40	70	80								
	Brinjal	3700		3800		3802	1 slice = 20g (70mm) + batter = 30g										
	- Fried + Egg					3803											
	- + Tomato + Onion			3796		3798	50	100	130								
	Broccoli	3701		3805			25	60	75								
	Brussels Sprouts	3703		3808			50										
		Boil		Fat Added (or Fried)													
		NF	B	HM	PM	SO	T	SP	1/2C								
	Cabbage	3756		3810		3812	30	55	80								
	Cab + Pot + Onion			3813		3815	35	75	80								
	Carrots	3757		3816	3817		20	50	80								
	Car + Pot + Onion			3822		3824	35	70	105								
	Carrot + Sugar	3818		3819	3820		25	50	85								
	Cauliflower	3716		3825	3826		40	65	80								
	Caul + Cheese Sauce	3715					43	70	90								
	Marogo/imifino* Amaranth leaves	3980					40	105	90								
	Marog + Peanuts Ratio: 80:20	P0014					55	120	105								
	Mealies (corn)	3725					30	60	95								
	Sweetcorn	3726					55	125	135								
	Canned Whole Kernel	3942					55	125	135								
	Mix Veg (Froz)	3727		3835	3836	4269	35	75	75								
	Mushroom (Sliced)	3729		3839		3841	30	65	80								
	Mushroom, Raw					3842	30	65	80								
	Onions (Sliced)	3773		3844		3730	50										
	Onion + Batter					3846	rings: med = 40g										
	Peas	3719		3856			30	65	85								
	Peas, Frozen	4146					30	65	85								
	Peas + Sugar	3720		3859			30	65	85								
	Potato: + Skin	4155					s/s = 60; m/s = 90g										
	: Baked + Skin	3736					s/s = 60g; m/s = 90g										
	: Chips						3740	1/2c = 50g; med = 80g									

: Peeled	3737		3867	3868		s/s = 60g; m/s = 90g; (90 x 60 x 40)								
: Sauté			3871		3873	3	50	90						
Potato Cake					3915	1 med = 40g (75 x 30)								
Potato Mash (SM)					3875									
Potato Mash (WM)			3876			50	115	125						
Potato (Roast): Beef Fat-3878; Chicken-3923; Lamb-3736; Pork-3956						1 med = 90g								
* If indigenous, specify local name: _____														

	FOOD ITEMS					QUANTITY (g/ml)			BR	IS	L	IS	D	AD
		Boil	Fat Added (or Fried)			T	SP	½c						
		NF	B	HM	PM									
COOKED VEGETABLES	Pumpkin (Yellow)	4184				45	85	105						
	Butternut	3759												
	Pump + Sugar	3728		3893										
	Pump Fritter					3784	75 x 50 x 9 = 25g							
	Spinach	3913		3898	3899	40	105	90						
	Spinach + Peanuts Ratio, 80:20	P0015				55	120	105						
	Spin + Pot + Onion			3901		3786	50	105	110					
	Squash -Gem	3760							½ gem = 45g 1 SP marrow = 85g					
	Gem Squash + Sugar	3754												
	Squash -Marrow	4179												
	Marrow + Sugar			3885										
	Sw Potato:without skin	3903					50	110	145					
	Sw Potato with Skin	3748												
	Sw Pot + Sugar			3749										
	Tomato + Onion	3925					35	75	140					
	Tom + Onion +Sugar	3910												
	Tomato			3908		3767	1 slice 5mm = 15g (thin), med = 25g							
	Turnips	3911					25	45	90					
	Other (Specify)													
	Asparagus-3695						med asparagus = 15g							
Avocado-3656						¼ avo (80 x 50mm) = 40g								
Beetroot (Grated) + Sugar-3699						1T = 25g; SP = 65g								
Carrot: (Grated)+ Sugar-3721						1T = 25g;								
+ Pine + Orange - 3710; + Orange Juice = 3711						1T = 35g; 1SP = 60g								
Coleslaw + Mayonnaise-3705						T = 20g; SP = 40g; ½c = 50g								

Cucumber Raw/Pickled-3718	med slice = 10g; thick = 15g								
Lettuce-3723	1 med leaf = 30g								
Mixed (Tom + Cucum + Lett) - No Dressing-3921	1T = 40g; 1SP = 85g								
Mixed Green - No Dressing-3927									
Potato Salad + Mayonnaise (Comm), Egg-3928	T = 45g; 1SP = 105g; 1/4c = 120g								
Tomato (Raw)-3750	med = 120g; slice = 15g								
Other (Specify) _____									

		FOOD ITEMS				QUANTITY (g/ml)	BR	IS	L	IS	D	AD
DRESSINGS		French Dressing-3487				1t = 5g; 1T = 15g						
		Mayonnaise: Home-3506; Comm-3488; Low Fat- 3489				1t = 10g 1T = 40g						
		Oil: Olive-3509; Sunflower-3507; Canola-4280				1t = 5g; 1T = 15g						
		Salad Dressing: Cooked-3503; Low-Oil-3505										
FRUIT		Canned + Sugar	Raw	Dry	Stewed							
	Apple	3599	3532	3600	3603	1T = 60g; 1/4c = 120g; 1 med = 150g (52 x 66)						
	Apricot	3535	3534	3536	3537	1 med = 35g						
	Banana		3540			1 med = 75g						
	Dates		3543			1 med = 10g						
	Figs		3544	3557		1 med = 40g (45 x 44) 1 dry = 20g						
	Fruit Salad	3580	3605	3593	3590	1/4c = 110g (med)						
	Granadilla		3545			1 med = 22g						
	Grape Fruit	3547	3546			1/2 med = 125g						
	Grapes	3623	3550			med bunch = 230g; 1/4c = 90g						
	Guava	3553	3551			med (6cm) = 95g						
	Litchi	3631	3632			med (3cm) = 8g						
	Mango	3633	3556			135mm = 350g						
	Naartjie	3635	3558			med = (5cm) = 75g						
	Orange		3560			med (7cm) = 180g						
	Pawpaw		3563			wedge 165 x 26 x 27 = 90g						
	Peach	3567	3565	3568	3569	1 med = 150g (60 x 65)						
	Pear	3583	3582	3585	3586	1 med (80 x 65mm) = 165g						
	Pineapple	3648	3581			1 slice (85 x 10mm) = 40g						
	Plum		3570			1 med = 50g (45 x 40)						
	Prunes	3676	4230	3596	3564	1T = 50g; 1/4c = 110g; 1 = 12g						
Raisins		3552			handfull = 27g							
Strawberries	3653	3573			1 med = 12g; 1/4c = 80g							

Sweetmelon, Green	3575		1 wedge (145 x 31 x 20mm) = 60g; ¼ = 110g							
Sweetmelon, Yellow	3541									
Watermelon	3576		slice (330 x 70mm) = 220g							
Wild Fruit, Berries: Specify: _____										
Other Fruit:										

	FOOD ITEMS		QUANTITY (g/ml)	BR	IS	L	IS	D	AD	
	SM	WM								
PUDDINGS	Apple + Batter	3345	3327	med serving = 70g						
	Apple Crumble		3334	med serving = 70g						
	Baked Pudd + Syrup	3348	3312	med serving = 30g 30 x 65 x 65 = 50g						
	- No Syrup	3347	3221							
	Blancmange	3282	3281	SP = 75; ½c = 95g						
	Egg Type eg. Bread, Sago	3346	3263	1T = 50g; ½c = 140g; SP = 100g						
	Ice Cream: Commercial Regular-3483			scoop = 40g; 1SP = 65g; ½c = 75g						
	Commercial Rich-3519									
	Ice Lollies-3982									
	Soft Serve-3518			plain = 135g; + flake = 155g						
	Sorbet-3491			1SP = 65g; ½c = 75g						
	Instant Pudding	3314	3266	T = 45g; SP = 95g; ½c = 145g						
	Jelly-3983			1T = 35g; 1SP = 75g; ½c = 110g						
	Jelly + Fruit-4006			1T = 40g; 1SP = 90g; ½c = 125g						
	Jelly Whip	2749	2750	1T = 55g; SP = 95g; ½c = 120g						
	Pancake/Crumpets	3344	3238	1 crumpet = 25g pancake = 70g						
Trifle-3311; Vermicelli Pudding-3385			½c = 130g (med)							
Other Puddings (Specify) _____										
SA UC	Cream: Plant-3492; Canned-3499			1T = 13g (not whipped)						
	- Fresh (12%) -3481; Heavy (dessert, 20%)-3480			1T = 30g (whipped)						
	Chocolate Sauce-3129			T = 15g						
	Custard: SM-2717; WM-2716			T = 13g; SP = 40g						

	Sugar-3989	11 = 6g									
	Other (Specify) _____										
CAKE	Banana Loaf: WM + HM-3333; SM + PM-3370	slice = 45g, 90 x 80 x 10mm									
	Cake -Carrot-3392	80 x 40 x 40 = 50g									
	- Plain: SM + HM-3286; PM-3287	single slice = 50g (75 x 75 x 20mm) double slice = 100g (plain) icing = 10g per slice									
	WM + B-3218; HM-3288; SO-3290										
	Cake Icing: HM-4014; PM-4015										
	- Chocolate (No Icing) WM-3289; SM-3339										
	FOOD ITEMS	QUANTITY (g/ml)	BR	IS	L	IS	D	AD			
CAKE	- Fruit: Comm-3291; Home-3427	home: 70 x 85 x 15mm = 70g comm: 90 x 70 x 15mm = 35g									
	- Sponge (Plain)-3219	100 x 50 x 50 = 40g									
	- Swiss Roll-3292	slice = 60g; 15cm thick									
	Cheese Cake: Baked-3293; Unbaked-3294	slice 95 x 50 x 30mm = 70g									
	Other (Specify) _____										
COOKIES & SPECIAL BREADS	Comm + Fill-3217; Plain-3216; Shortbread-3296	plain = 10g + fill = 15g									
	Home: Plain HM-3233; PM-3341	plain = 15g + fill = 20g hertzog = 50g; cupcake = 35g shortbread = 12g									
	Jam-3295; Oats-3265										
	Custard Slice-3338	110 x 45 x 35mm = 250g									
	Date Loaf; HM-3256; PM-3340	slice 90 x 75 x 10mm = 40g									
	Doughnuts: Jam-3423; Plain-3232	med round = 45g med long = 90g									
	Eclairs + Cream + Chocolate-3268	1 = 120g (160mm)									
	Gingerbread: HM-3253; PM-3371	90 x 75 x 15 = 70g									
	Koeksister-3231	100 x 35 = 60g									
	Pumpernickel Bread-3283	slice 85 x 100 x 10mm = 30g									
	Raisin Bread-3214	slice 85 x 100 x 10mm = 30g									
	Rye Bread-3213	slice 85 x 100 x 10mm = 30g									
	Sweetcorn Bread-3379	slice 85 x 100 x 10mm = 30g									
Other (Specify) _____											
1-404	Apple: HM-3224; PM-3352	50 x 50 x 50mm = 70g (med)									
	Coconut-3228	wedge 60 x 100 x 30mm = 55g									
	Condensed: HM-3294; PM-3439	95 x 70 x 30mm = 90g									
	Fridge (Fruit): HM-3394; PM-3434										
	Lemon Meringue: HM-3226; PM-3349	100 x 70 x 35mm = 75g									
	Milk (Short) WM + HM-3360; SM + PM-3351	120 x 70 x 25mm = 75g									
	Milk (Flaky) WM + B-3443; WM + HM-3229										

12

Savoury: Aspar-3367; Tuna-3366; Vienna-3326	120 x 50 x 25 = 75g								
Tipsy: HM-3323; Jam-3225	87 x 70 x 50mm = 90g								
Other (Specify) _____									

	FOOD ITEMS	QUANTITY (g/ml)	BR	IS	L	IS	D	AD
SWEETS	Bubble/Chewing gum-3993	See Manual						
	Chocolates: Assorted-3992							
	Coated Bars eg. Tex, Lunch, Chomp-3997							
	Milk (White Chocolate)-3987							
	Nuts/Raisins-3994							
	Plain eg Smarties, Flake, Aero-4003							
	Dry Fruit Sweets-3995							
	Fruit Gums-4000							
	Hard/Jelly Sweets eg. Sugus, Jelly Tots, Fruit Drops-3986							
	Ice Lollies-3982							
	Marshmallows-4001							
	Meringues-4008							
	Peanuts: Raw-4285; Peanut Brittle-4002;							
	Roasted, Salted-3458; Roasted Unsalted-3452							
	Peppermints-4004							
	Popcorn: Plain-3332; Sugar Coated-3359							
	Potato Crisps eg. Simba, O=Gradys-3417							
	Raisins, Seedless-4232							
Snacks - Fritos, Niknaks, Cheese Curis-3267								
Soft Sweets - Fudge, Toffees, Caramel-3991								
Other (Specify) _____								
O F	Cheese Sauce: WM + HM-3125; SM + PM-3128	SP = 65g; 1T = 25g						
	Curry Sauce-3130	1T = 25g						
	Chutney-3168; Atjar-3117; Tomato Chutney-3114	1T = 14g; 1T = 60g						
	Gravy: Comm-3119; Meat-3122; NF-3121	1T = 15g; SP = 35g						
	Mustard-4034	1t = 6g						



Pickles-3866	1 = 10g								
Tomato Sauce (Comm)-3139	1l = 6g; 1T = 25g								
White Sauce: WM + HM-3142; SM + PM = 3141									

	FOOD ITEMS	QUANTITY (g/ml)	BR	IS	L	IS	D	AD
INFANT FOODS	Baby Cereals (dry): Nestum 1-2832; Nestum 2-2834	1l = 2g 1T = 8g 1/2c = 20g						
	2862 Purity: Mixed-2842; Wholewheat-2861; Rice- Cerelec-2836; Nestum Rice & Maize-2835 Junior-2833							
	Milk: SM-2719; WM-2718	to drink 1/2c = 125ml baby bottle = 250ml						
	BL-2771; 2%-2772							
	Soy-2737; Breast-2741; Goat-2738							
	Formula (Specify): _____ No of Scoops/Bottle: _____							
	+ Sugar, White-3989; Brown-4005; Syrup-3988; Honey-3984	1t = 6g						
	First Food Fruit-2852; First Food Veg-2851	jar = 80g; 1t = 11g						
	Fruit Juice (Strained)-2860; Fruit Juice-2866	1/2c = 125ml						
	Infant Dinners (Dry): Beef + Veg-2841; Chicken+Veg-2840	1t = 5g 1T = 15g 1/2c = 47g						
	2839 Guava + Custard-2837; Mix Veg- Orange + Banana-2838							
	Junior Food (Jar): Veg + Meat-2848; Mix Veg-2849; Pasta + Beef-2850	jar = 200g 1t = 11g 1/2c = 125g						
	Junior Fruit (Jar): Fruit-2863; Guava-2855							
	Junior Pudding: Fruit+Yog-2858; Vanilla Cust-2859							
	Strained Food (Jar): Macaroni Beef-2845; Veg+Meat-2846	jar = 125g 1t = 11g 1/2c = 125g						
	Fruit + Yog-2857; Fruit-2854;							
	Av. Pudding-2844; Meat Soup-2847;							
	Veg Soup-2843; Vegetables-2853;							
	Junior Fruit Guava-2856							
	OH							

14


9. Did this child go to bed hungry last night?	1 Yes	2 No	3 Don't Know
10. Did this child eat from the same pot as the rest of the family at the main meal yesterday?	1 Yes	2 No	3 Don't Know
11. Did this child eat from the same plate as the siblings, at the main meal yesterday?	1 Yes	2 No	3 Don't Know

**A. SCHOOL/CRECHÉ FEEDING SCHEME**

- 3. Name of School/Creché: \_\_\_\_\_
- 4. Address: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 5. Telephone: \_\_\_\_\_
- 6. Person to Contact: \_\_\_\_\_
- 7. Composition of the Meals/Supplements

ITEMS	CODE	AMOUNT (g)
i)		
ii)		
iii)		

Description:

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**B. ADD ADDITIONAL ITEMS EATEN TO THE 24-HR RECALL QUESTIONNAIRE**

**RECIPES**

NAME OF DISH	INGREDIENTS	CODES	AMOUNT (g) OR (mg)

## APPENDIX D

### ELS Ethics committee clearance letter

**UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO**  
Medunsa Campus



#### MEDUNSA RESEARCH & ETHICS COMMITTEE

#### CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

**MEETING:** 07/2013

**PROJECT NUMBER:** MREC/PI/204/2013: IR

**PROJECT:**

**Title:** Tracking determinants and risk factors of non-communicable diseases among rural South Africa population over time: Ellisras Longitudinal Study

**Researcher:** Dr KD Monyeki

**Co-workers:** Prof L Hay  
Dr L Scott  
Prof PS Mntla (Cardiology)  
Prof Han CG Kemper (Institute for Care and Health Research in Extramural Medicine (EMGO) VU University Medical Centre Amsterdam, The Netherlands)  
Prof A Mogale

**Department:** Human Physiology

**School:** Pathology & Pre-Clinical Sciences

**Research Type:** Independent Research

#### DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE:

MREC approved the project.

**DATE:** 05 September 2013

**PROF GA OGUNBANJO**  
CHAIRPERSON MREC



The Medunsa Research Ethics Committee (MREC) for Health Research is registered with the US Department of Health and Human Services as an International Organisation (IORG0004319), as an Institutional Review Board (IRB00005122), and functions under a Federal Wide Assurance (FWA00009419)  
Expiry date: 11 October 2016

#### Note:

- i) Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure as approved, the researcher(s) must re-submit the protocol to the committee.
- ii) The budget for the research will be considered separately from the protocol. PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES.

*Finding Solutions for Africa*

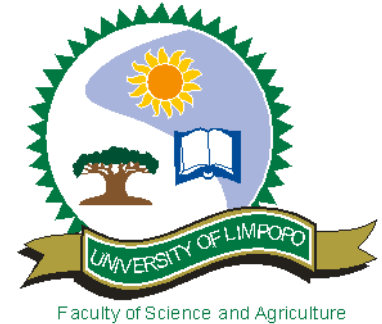


## APPENDIX E

### Consent form

# UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

## Department of Physiology and Environmental Health



Private Bag x 1106  
Sovenga  
0727

SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: (015) 268 2953

Email: [Kotsedi.monyeki@ul.ac.za](mailto:Kotsedi.monyeki@ul.ac.za)

Website: [www.ul.ac.za](http://www.ul.ac.za)

**TITLE: TRACKING DETERMINANTS AND RISK FACTORS OF NON-COMMUNICABLE DISEASES AMONG RURAL SOUTH AFRICAN POPULATION OVER TIME: ELLISRAS LONGITUDINAL STUDY**

### **INFORMED CONSENT FORM**

Ellisras Longitudinal Study subjects will be requested to take part. This research is looking at the adolescents' and young adults' lifestyle risk factors and how they may affect the development of non communicable diseases, including obesity, hypertension, diabetes, coronary heart disease. If you agree to participate, you will be asked about what and how much you eat, your physical activity levels, the illnesses you or your family members may have had and your use of healthcare services and the type of support you receive from those around you. We will also ask you some questions about the number of people in your household, their ages, jobs, how much money you make or earn, some of the things that your household members may own and some of the hygiene practices that are followed in your household. We will also ask about your smoking patterns, alcohol intake, your use of drugs and your social and personal characteristics. We will measure your weight, height, arm and leg circumferences, arm and leg breadths, body fat measures along your arms and legs, your blood pressure and heart activity.

After an overnight 10 hour fast (where you do not eat or drink anything except water after your evening meal, the night before the blood sampling, and miss your breakfast the day of the test), we will place a sterile little tube in a vein in your arm and take 15 ml (3 teaspoons) of blood from this. We will give you a cup of sugar water to drink and then we will take two more blood samples (each 2 teaspoons) over the next two hours. Taking the blood sample may cause a little discomfort at the site but there are no risks for this test, other than those associated with routine blood sampling. All procedures will be supervised and carried out by appropriately trained medical personnel who will use techniques to minimise any risks of infection. This test is used routinely for medical purposes. The

blood sample will be used to determine your blood sugar, insulin, cholesterol and other additional factors that may help us learn more about diabetes and cardiovascular diseases risk factors. In addition you will be required to provide 24 hour urine which will help to assess sodium, potassium and other electrolyte in the body. This will provide us with valuable information regarding your hypertension status. You will be required to wear an accelerometer for nine consecutive days which will be used to assess your physical activity.

These measurements and interviews will take place once every two years from 2013 to 2017 (2013, 2015 & 2017).

Questions about what foods you eat and alcohol and drug use, about household or family members, how much money household members make or earn in a month and some of the things that household members may own and your living conditions will be done in your home and will take no more than 120 minutes (2 hours). All the remaining interviews and assessments will take place at a nearby school and will last no more than 180 minutes (3 hours).

## **RISKS**

Choosing to be part of this study or not to part of this study will not affect your ability to get care at health if you should need them. You may feel uncomfortable when being measured or when providing all the information asked or when your blood sample is collected; however, the examiners and interviewers will make every effort to make you as comfortable as possible during the process.

## **BENEFITS**

There are no benefits to you as a participant; however, your participation will help provide ideas and information about the health status and healthcare needs among adolescents and young adults in this area and will contribute to understanding the health status and health care needs of adolescents and young adults in Africa. You will not be paid for taking part.

**CONFIDENTIALITY-** Any information obtained during this study will remain secret and kept safe private and will only be shared with your permission or as required by law. Participants will be given a number instead of using their names in the study, so they cannot be identified. The hard copies of the data will be safely discarded after data entry and cleaning. The electronic version of the data will be kept under locked storage in the principal investigators office.

**PARTICIPATION-** You can chose to be in this study or not. Your participation is voluntary, and you may get out of the study at any time and for any reason. Being or not being in this study does not cost anything. You can also refuse participate in any parts of the study and still remain in the study. The researcher may remove you from the study if conditions arise and give reason to do so. If you participate in the study, you will receive a small amount of money to help cover some of the travel costs you may have incurred during the research study.

**CONTACT**-This research is being done by Prof. Kotsedi Daniel Monyeki, Physiology Department, University of Limpopo. He may be reached at the local research office and can also be reached at (015) 268 2953 for questions or to report a research-related problem. You may contact Chairman of Ethics Committee Human Ethics Committee) - at (012) 521 4414 if you have questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

This research has been reviewed according to University of Limpopo, ethics committee procedures governing your participation in this research.

**CONSENT**

PART:A:(To be used by adults and fully conscious persons):

I (NAME IN FULL).....have understood the information I have been given/ I have read.

I, ..... agree to take part in the study.

Signature.....Date .....

Witness

(NAME).....Signature.....

...Date.....



**PART:B: (To be used by parents/guardians of children OR guardians, parents or relatives of patients with altered level of consciousness/ altered ability to consent):**

I (NAME IN FULL).....have understood the information I have been given/ I have read.

I, .....on behalf of ..... agree that he/she will to take part in the study

Reason of failure of (Name)..... to consent is (TICK):

- (i) Child ( )
- (ii) Altered consciousness ( )
- (iii) Others (specify).....

Signature of parent/ guardian/ relative.....

Mention your relationship with the participant.....

Date .....

Witness (NAME).....

Signature.....

Date.....

**Assent form for the child:** I (NAME IN FULL).....have understood the information I have been given/ I have read.

I, ..... agree to take part in the study.

Signature.....Date .....

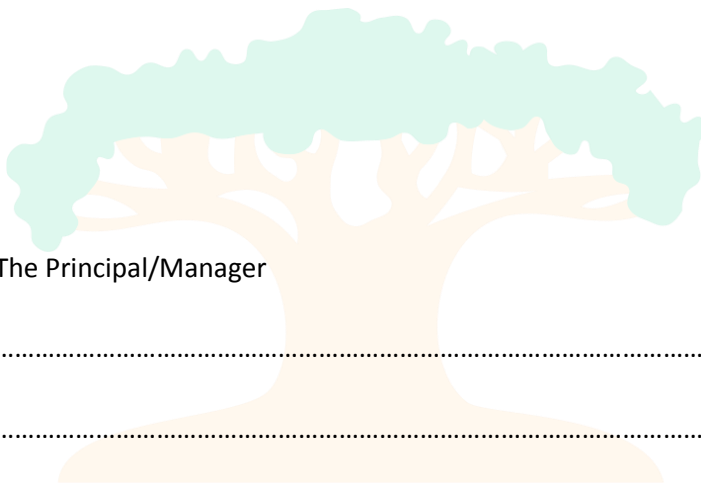


APPENDIX F

Ellisras community letter

**UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO**

**Department of Physiology and Environmental Health**



The Principal/Manager

Dear Sir/Madam

Private Bag x 1106  
Sovenga  
0727  
SOUTH AFRICA  
Tel: (015) 268 2953  
Email: [Kotsedi.monyekei@ul.ac.za](mailto:Kotsedi.monyekei@ul.ac.za)  
Website: [www.ul.ac.za](http://www.ul.ac.za)

29 October 2015

**ALL ELLISRAS LONGITUDINAL STUDY MEMBERS ARE KINDLY REQUESTED TO TAKE PART DURING THE PERIOD NOVEMBER 2015 TO 5 JANUARY 2016**

Diabetes, high blood pressure and cholesterol problems or high fat levels in the blood seem to be more common in the community than they were 10 or 20 years ago. This is most likely a result of both environmental and genetic factors. Environmental factors are those factors related to your lifestyle such as your diet and your physical activity levels. Genetic factors are those factors you “inherit” from your parents and grandparents. These conditions can lead to further health problems such as problems with eyesight, the heart and strokes, but the chance of having these problems can be lessened by treatment. It is my pleasure to report that the department of Physiology and Environmental Health, University of Limpopo will commence with the Ellisras Longitudinal Study (ELS) shortly. The aim of the ELS will be to track the role of lifestyle risk factors in determining adverse health outcomes. In particular, the development of non-communicable diseases, including obesity, hypertension, diabetes and coronary heart disease in a cohort of rural adolescents of South Africa over time.

All Ellisras Longitudinal Study subjects will be requested to take part. This research is looking at the adolescents’ and young adults’ lifestyle risk factors and how they may affect the



development of non communicable diseases, including obesity, hypertension, diabetes, coronary heart disease. If you agree to participate, you will be asked about what and how much you eaten the previous day. Anthropometric measurements will include weight, height, sitting height, leg length, skinfolds: (triceps, biceps, subscapular and supraspinale), girth (waist, hip, arm girth flexed and tense, neck, arm girth relax and calf girth), width: (femure and humerus). Your blood pressure and pulse rate will be measured.

Furthermore, after an overnight 10 hour fast (where you do not eat or drink anything except water after your evening meal, the night before) we will place a sterile little tube in a vein in your arm and take 15 mls (3 teaspoons) of blood. Taking the blood sample may cause a little discomfort at the site but there are no risks for this test, other than those associated with routine blood sampling. All procedures will be supervised and carried out by appropriately trained medical personnel from University of Limpopo, Medical Research Council, Vrije University Amsterdam, The Netherland le Sefako Makgatho Health Science University, who will use techniques to minimise any risks of infection. This test is used routinely for medical purposes. The blood sample will be used to determine your blood sugar, insulin, cholesterol and other additional factors that may help us learn more about diabetes and cardiovascular diseases risk factors.

These measurements and interviews will take place during the period November 2015 to 5 January 2016.

Please allow me to refer to PhD thesis of Monyeki (2000):

“...Bahlalerwa (cultural name of our population) I requested for your help and you responded positively. I am happy because together we could make a difference. I am appealing to all of us to support and avail ourselves to any form of research activities taking place in our area. Such activities are geared towards improving the health not only of the Bahlalerwa population but the whole South Africa if not Africa. We should keep focus and if somehow we could be blinded, with the help of the Almighty God the father of Jesus Christ, crystals like glass will fall from our eyes like what happen to Paul in the Holy Bible. Our vision will be broaden and we will no longer think and perform our duties inside the box....”

Past my regards to everybody at home.

Yours sincerely

Prof Kotsedi Daniel Monyeki  
**Principal Investigator: Ellisras Longitudinal Study**

Dr Marlise van Staden  
**Head of Department**

PEER REVIEWED ARTICLES EMANATING FROM THE DISSERTATION

1. **Sekgala MD**, Monyeki KD, Mogale MA, Ramoshaba NE. Performance of blood pressure to height ratio as a screening tool for elevated blood pressure in rural children: Ellisras Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Human Hypertension*. 2017 April. 06.
2. **M.D Sekgala**, K.D Monyeki<sup>1</sup>, A. Mogale, Z.J Mchiza, W. Parker, S.R Choma, H.M Makgopa. The risk of metabolic syndrome as a result of lifestyle among Ellisras rural young adults. *Journal of Human Hypertension*, 2018.