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Kietsiriroje, N, Pearson, S, Campbell, M [orcid.org/0000-0001-5883-5041](https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5883-5041) et al. (2 more authors) (2019) Double diabetes: A distinct high-risk group? *Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism*, 21 (12). pp. 2609-2618. ISSN 1462-8902

<https://doi.org/10.1111/dom.13848>

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# Double diabetes: A distinct high-risk group?

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Word count: 3,781 words

Number of Tables: 1

Number of Figures: 5

**Keywords:** Double diabetes, Type 1 diabetes, Estimated glucose disposal rate, Metabolic syndrome, Obesity.

## 22 **Abstract (250 words)**

23       The term double diabetes (DD) has been used to refer to individuals with type 1  
24 diabetes who are overweight, have a family history of type 2 diabetes and/or clinical  
25 features of insulin resistance. Several pieces of evidence indicate that individuals who  
26 display features of DD are at higher risk of developing future diabetes complications,  
27 independent of average glucose control, measured as glycated haemoglobin (HbA1c).  
28 Given the increased prevalence of individuals with features of DD, pragmatic criteria  
29 are urgently required to identify and stratify this group, which will help with subsequent  
30 implementation of more effective personalised interventions.

31       In this review, we discuss the potential criteria for the clinical identification of  
32 individuals with DD, highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of each definition. We  
33 also cover potential mechanisms of DD and how these contribute to increased risk of  
34 diabetes complications. Special emphasis is placed on the role of estimated glucose  
35 disposal rate (eGDR) in the diagnosis of DD, which can be easily incorporated into  
36 clinical practice and is predictive of adverse clinical outcome. In addition to the  
37 identification of individuals with DD, eGDR has the potential utility to monitor response  
38 to different interventions.

39       Type 1 diabetes is a more heterogeneous condition than initially envisaged and  
40 those with features of DD represent a subgroup at higher risk of complications.  
41 Pragmatic criteria for the diagnosis of individuals with DD will help with risk  
42 stratification, allowing a more personalised and targeted management strategy to  
43 improve outcome and quality of life in this population.

44

45

## 46 Introduction

47 Type 2 diabetes (T2D), usually due to insulin resistance and gradually  
48 progressive pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell failure<sup>1</sup>, is a common condition and characterised by high  
49 heterogeneity. In contrast, Type 1 diabetes (T1D), insulin deficiency, has been  
50 regarded as a condition with a largely uniform phenotype. However, the development  
51 of insulin resistance in individuals with T1D has led to the emergence of a distinct  
52 phenotype of mixed T1D and T2D, or double diabetes. Therefore, classification of  
53 diabetes is not that simple and indeed recent work has stratified these individuals into  
54 different subgroups. It was suggested that this will help predict disease progression  
55 and predisposition to complications, offering the possibility of future individualised and  
56 tailored therapies<sup>2,3</sup>.

57 Despite first using the term 'double diabetes' (DD) over a quarter century ago,  
58 there is still a lack of clear criteria to define this group of individuals. The earliest  
59 description of DD dates back to 1991<sup>4</sup>, when Teupe and Bergis demonstrated that  
60 T1D individuals who had at least one relative with T2D had worse glycaemic control  
61 with increased insulin requirements, and tended to have a higher body weight  
62 compared to those without a family history of T2D. The authors, therefore, proposed  
63 a subtype of T1D with family history of T2D as having DD. A number of case reports  
64 followed describing individuals with DD using similar criteria; the case by Libman and  
65 Becker was particularly interesting by demonstrating that features of DD can manifest  
66 as early as 5 years of age with full traits of insulin resistance and the metabolic  
67 syndrome (MS) evident by the age of 14 years<sup>5</sup>. However, no clear recommendations  
68 were made for identifying these individuals or implementing alternative and targeted  
69 management strategies.

70 In this review, we provide an update on DD and attempt to address three main  
71 questions:

72 1) What is the best and most pragmatic measure to identify individuals with DD?

73 2) Is there a difference in the rate or severity of diabetes complications in DD,  
74 and if this is the case, what are the mechanisms involved?

75 3) To what extent do patients with DD require different management strategies?

76

### 77 **Definition of double diabetes**

78 Criteria for the definition of DD to date have relied on the presence of clinical features  
79 of insulin resistance, as summarised in two comprehensive review articles (Table 1)  
80 <sup>6,7</sup>. While these proposals have raised awareness of the DD population, criteria used  
81 to make a diagnosis have been difficult to incorporate into daily clinical practice. In  
82 order to provide an accurate definition of DD, we need to explore the strengths and  
83 weaknesses of the existing criteria, which can be largely divided into three groups:  
84 family history, obesity/MS, and insulin resistance.

#### 85 **1. Family history**

86 There is a genetic predisposition in T1D as concordance rate in monozygotic  
87 twins is 5-fold higher than dizygotic twins <sup>8,9</sup>. However, almost 90% of patients report  
88 no family history of T1D and therefore the genetic influence is modest. In contrast, the  
89 role of genetic factors are far stronger in T2D with 3- and 6-fold increased risk in  
90 offspring if one or both parents have type 2 diabetes, respectively <sup>10</sup>. At least 88 genetic  
91 loci for T2D have been discovered by linkage and genome-wide association and  
92 sequencing (GWAS) studies, where identified loci have been implicated in both  
93 pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell function and insulin resistance/MS <sup>11,12</sup>. One particular variant of FTO

94 )fat mass– and obesity-associated( gene is linked to insulin resistance, increased fat  
95 mass and preferential visceral fat distribution, thus increasing T2D risk <sup>13</sup>. Moreover,  
96 several common gene variants are also related to insulin resistance in T2D,  
97 independently of obesity<sup>14</sup>.

98 In DD, it is possible that individuals with T1D have a genetic predisposition to  
99 insulin resistance and T2D, particularly in those with concomitant family history of T2D.  
100 Healthy subjects with family history of T2D exhibit a greater degree of insulin  
101 resistance and are prone to have higher BMI, and body fat composition, even prior to  
102 the development beta-cell failure <sup>15</sup>. A similar mechanism may be operating in double  
103 diabetes but not necessarily in the same order; insulin resistance may develop later in  
104 the course of T1D, although it can be present at diagnosis and may even contribute to  
105 an earlier presentation of T1D. This explains the first description of Teupe and Bergis  
106 in 70 T1D patients with a family history of T2D, of a total group of 448 individuals <sup>4</sup>.  
107 Those with DD had higher BMI, insulin dose and glycated haemoglobin A1c (HbA1c)  
108 compared with the rest of the group. Supported by a larger study of 1,860 T1D  
109 individuals aged less than 35 years (from the Finnish Diabetic Nephropathy study), it  
110 showed that 620 individuals had a family history of T2D, who again had higher BMI,  
111 insulin dose, HbA1c and triglyceride levels.

112 Data from 1,168 T1D patients from the Diabetes Control and Complication  
113 study (DCCT) has shown that a family history of T2D was related to greater central  
114 weight gain, insulin dose and triglyceride levels in the intensive arm of the study <sup>16</sup>.  
115 Moreover, family history of T2D was also related to elevated LDL cholesterol and  
116 apolipoprotein B levels in both study arms. The greater weight gain in the intensive  
117 arm suggests that intensive insulin therapy to optimise glycaemia further increases the  
118 risk of developing DD in susceptible individuals.

119 Despite the increase in vascular risk factors in T1D with a family history of T2D,  
120 the association with diabetes complications is not always clear. A cross-sectional  
121 study of 3,162 T1D individuals, aged 15-60 years from the EURODIAB IDDM  
122 Complications Study, only showed an association between a family history of T2D and  
123 albuminuria in female subjects <sup>17</sup>. Similarly, an observational study in 658 T1D patients  
124 failed to demonstrate causal relationship between a family history of T2D and coronary  
125 artery disease after adjustment for confounders <sup>18</sup>. However, it can be disputed that  
126 the number of individuals studied is limited and the period of follow up is relatively  
127 short to make concrete conclusions.

128 Taken together, a family history of T2D is a risk for developing poorer metabolic  
129 traits and obesity in T1D, yet it does not appear to be a strong independent predictor  
130 of diabetes-related complications. However, studies have been conducted on  
131 relatively small numbers of younger individuals and silent vascular events were not  
132 ruled out, which have been shown to affect up to a fifth of asymptomatic T2D  
133 individuals <sup>19</sup>, and this may explain the negative findings. Further adequately powered  
134 longer-term studies are required to understand the role of a family history of T2D in  
135 predisposing to complications in individuals with T1D.

136

## 137 **2. Excessive weight gain/obesity and metabolic syndrome (MS)**

138 Insulin is an anabolic hormone, so intensification of therapy is likely to lead to  
139 weight gain. While this is an acceptable compromise in those with poor glycaemic  
140 control, continued administration of insulin subcutaneously can lead to peripheral  
141 resistance to the action of this hormone<sup>20,21</sup>, consequently increasing DD risk. The  
142 secondary analysis of the whole DCCT study population showed that T1D individuals

143 whose weight gain stratified into the fourth quartile (excessive gainers) had higher  
144 insulin dose, blood pressure and non-HDL cholesterol <sup>22</sup>. Moreover, individuals whose  
145 BMI increased over 4.39 kg/m<sup>2</sup> during DCCT study period, had greater intima-media  
146 thickness and displayed a trend toward greater coronary artery calcium scores <sup>23</sup>,  
147 providing strong evidence for vascular pathology in this group. Also, excessive gainers  
148 displayed tendency towards higher CV events after a mean follow-up of 26 years <sup>24</sup>.

149 We should, nevertheless, be careful when interpreting weight data, as initial  
150 moderate weight gain following diagnosis of T1D correlates with improved HbA1c and  
151 reduction in mortality. However, excessive weight gain, reaching a BMI  $\geq 30$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, has  
152 repeatedly shown an association with increased mortality <sup>25,26</sup>.

153 Therefore, while weight gain should not be used as the sole identifier for DD,  
154 excessive weight gain, particularly in those with BMI  $\geq 30$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, may provide a simple  
155 clinical marker to identify DD and risk of future adverse vascular outcome.

156 The presence of MS has been proposed as a more comprehensive marker for  
157 the identification of DD. MS integrates central obesity and other traditional CV risk  
158 factors including hypertension, hypertriglyceridaemia and decreased levels of high  
159 density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol. The EURODIAB Prospective Complications  
160 Study )PCS(, observed 3,250 T1D patients for 7 years from 16 European countries  
161 and documented that some components of the MS were associated with increased  
162 CV and all-cause mortality <sup>27</sup>.

163 The relationship between MS and diabetes-related complications among adults  
164 with T1D has been extensively reviewed by Gingras et al. <sup>28</sup>, and the authors  
165 concluded that the presence of MS is associated with increased risk of both micro-  
166 and macrovascular disease.



167 The association of MS with future complications can depend on the type of  
168 definition used for MS with some studies, albeit not all, suggesting that WHO definition  
169 of MS is the best predictor of future complications <sup>29,30</sup>. However, it is not practical in  
170 daily clinical practice to use a binary variable like MS to assess the risk of future  
171 complications, particularly in the presence of various definitions. Also, the effects of  
172 managing components of MS will not be apparent until an individual drops into the  
173 non-MS range, which may be a challenge in some, making patients frustrated and  
174 potentially disengaged. Therefore, MS has too many flaws to be a reliable and  
175 practical marker of DD.

176

### 177 **3. Insulin resistance and estimated glucose disposal rate (eGDR)**

178 Insulin resistance is associated with asymptomatic atherosclerosis and  
179 coronary artery disease in individuals without diabetes <sup>31,32</sup>. A meta-analysis of 65  
180 studies, which included 516,325 adults without diabetes, has shown that insulin  
181 resistance, measured by HOMA-IR, is a good predictor of CV disease <sup>33</sup>. In line with  
182 these findings, insulin resistance in T1D has been associated with increased risk of  
183 cardiovascular disease <sup>34</sup>. Furthermore, the CACTI study demonstrated that insulin  
184 resistance, measured by clamp techniques, predicted the presence of coronary artery  
185 calcification in T1D <sup>35</sup>.

186 The gold standard method to measure insulin resistance is the euglycaemic-  
187 hyperinsulinemic clamp <sup>36</sup>. However, due to the invasive and time-consuming nature  
188 of the procedure, it is not suitable for daily clinical practice. Estimated glucose disposal  
189 rate (eGDR) has been proposed as an alternative method to measure insulin  
190 resistance that is easy to apply in clinical settings. The eGDR score was originally

191 developed and validated by the euglycaemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp in a subset of 24  
 192 T1D patients from the Pittsburgh EDC study <sup>37</sup>. William and colleagues initially  
 193 calculated eGDR using clinical factors including waist-hip ratio (WHR), presence of  
 194 hypertension and HbA1c. However, the authors also stated that replacing WHR with  
 195 either BMI or waist circumferences (WC) provided a comparable association with  
 196 insulin resistance <sup>37-39</sup>. All formulae for eGDR calculation are displayed in Box 1.

197 **Box 1. Formulae for eGDR calculation**

$eGDR_{WHR} = 24.31 - (12.22 \times WHR) - (3.29 \times HTN) - (0.57 \times HbA1c)$ $eGDR_{WC} = 21.16 - (0.09 \times WC) - (3.41 \times HTN) - (0.55 \times HbA1c)$ $eGDR_{BMI} = 19.02 - (0.22 \times BMI) - (3.26 \times HTN) - (0.61 \times HbA1c)$	<p>WHR = waist-hip ratio          WC = waist circumference, cm          BMI = body-mass index, kg/m<sup>2</sup>          HTN = hypertension, 1=yes, 0=no          HbA1c = glycated haemoglobin A1c, %</p>
---	---

198

199 Similar to MS, eGDR incorporates weight and blood pressure, however, it is a  
 200 continuous variable allowing to monitor the effectiveness of a particular therapy,  
 201 making it attractive for clinical use. This is particularly important as a decrease in  
 202 eGDR is associated with increased risk of nephropathy <sup>40</sup>, peripheral vascular disease  
 203 <sup>41</sup>, coronary artery disease <sup>42,43</sup> and death <sup>43</sup> with lower values conferring greater risk.  
 204 The result from DCCT study also supports the relationship between low eGDR and  
 205 increased risk of both micro- and macrovascular complications <sup>44</sup>, and shows  
 206 superiority at predicting complications compared with the use of MS to define DD.

207 While eGDR appears to be a promising marker to identify DD, the cut off value  
 208 requires careful consideration. Nyström et al. performed a nationwide cohort study on  
 209 17,050 T1D individuals, using data from healthcare registers in Sweden. Patients were  
 210 categorized into 4 eGDR groups: <4, 4 to 5.99, 6 to 7.99, and ≤8. Clinical outcomes,  
 211 including CV events and death, were collected using national registry data, over a

212 median follow-up of 7.1 years. An eGDR  $<8$  was associated with increased CV risk or  
213 death compared to those with eGDR  $\geq 8$ . The risk further increased with lower eGDR  
214 values (Fig. 1)<sup>39</sup>. Interestingly, survival rate of individuals with eGDR  $\geq 8$  was identical  
215 to a matched reference population. Hence, the eGDR value of  $<8$  is convincingly  
216 suitable to identify those with DD among individuals with T1D, with higher risk incurred  
217 in those with progressively lower eGDR.

218

## 219 **Prevalence of double diabetes according to each definition**

220 Using obesity ( $\text{BMI} \geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) as a measurement, the prevalence of DD amongst  
221 T1D can reach 30%, particularly as the prevalence of obesity has been increasing in  
222 the T1D population (Fig. 2)<sup>45</sup>. The prevalence of obesity in the DCCT/EDIC study has  
223 shown an increase from 2% at baseline (1983-1989) to 28% at 12 years of follow-up  
224 <sup>46</sup>. This may be an easy marker to use but it is likely to miss significant number of  
225 individuals with DD and therefore more accurate measures are needed.

226 When MS is applied for identification of DD, the prevalence is dependent on  
227 study period, population analysed, and MS definition used (Fig. 3). A range of 30-45%  
228 of T1D individuals have MS and therefore up to half the patients will have DD using  
229 this criterion. However, given the binary nature of MS definition, its only possible role  
230 in clinical management is identification of individuals at risk and it is not a useful marker  
231 to assess response to a particular management strategy.

232 In the study by Nyström et al<sup>39</sup>, the prevalence of DD in T1D at the beginning of  
233 the study was 51%, when applying eGDR $<8$  as a proposed diagnostic criterion. The

234 increased risk of complications with lower eGDR, makes this a suitable marker to  
235 assess response to a particular intervention, in contrast to MS.

236 The increasing trend of DD is consistent across all measurements. Therefore,  
237 unless acted upon, DD will possibly become the predominant phenotype in T1D in  
238 next few decades.

239

## 240 **Pathogenesis of double diabetes**

241 If we accept that T1D individuals who are overweight are likely to form the core  
242 group of DD, then the pathogenic mechanisms are related to genetic predisposition  
243 and environmental factors. The latter factors can interact with T1D duration making  
244 DD a time-dependent condition. Even those with initial good insulin sensitivity and no  
245 genetic predisposition may transition to DD secondary to unhealthy lifestyle that leads  
246 to weight gain <sup>47</sup>. While genetic predisposition is non-modifiable, environmental factors  
247 can be controlled thus limiting the prevalence of DD. Exposure to obesogenic  
248 environments affect the rates of overweight and obesity, particularly among children.  
249 Almost 32% and 16% of children with poor physical activity and unhealthy nutritional  
250 environment are overweight and obese, whereby 24% and 8% of those living in  
251 healthier environments are overweight and obese, respectively <sup>48</sup>. However, the  
252 percentage of younger T1D individuals with a weight problem is higher than those  
253 without diabetes <sup>49,50</sup>, indicating the presence of additional mechanisms. For example,  
254 repeated hypoglycaemia or even the fear of hypoglycaemia results in maladaptive  
255 eating habits that favour the development of obesity <sup>51</sup>. Peripheral insulin resistance

256 precipitated by subcutaneous insulin administration rather than the physiological portal  
257 vein delivery, is another additional factor for the development of DD <sup>21,34</sup>.

258 Therefore, DD in T1D develops secondary to a combination of lifestyle  
259 behaviour, akin to individuals without diabetes, and, diabetes-specific mechanisms  
260 related to hypoglycaemia and the non-physiological administration of insulin  
261 subcutaneously.

## 262 **Double diabetes, glycaemic control and complications**

263 The DCCT and the extended observational EDIC studies have clearly shown that  
264 improving glycaemia, measured as a reduction in HbA1c, decreases microvascular  
265 complications and long term macrovascular disease <sup>52,53</sup>. However, it became  
266 apparent that there was a great heterogeneity in the rate of complications, indicating  
267 that factors other than HbA1c also had a role.

268 Merger and colleagues conducted a cross-sectional study to measure the  
269 prevalence of comorbidities in DD by analysing data in the DPV ]Diabetes-Patienten  
270 Verlaufsdocumentation[ registry from 392 specialized centres in Germany and Austria  
271 <sup>54</sup>. DD was defined as individuals with T1D and MS using the Third National  
272 Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel (NCEP/ATPIII) criteria. Of a  
273 total of 31,119 T1D individuals, 7,926 had DD (25.5%), a group that displayed  
274 markedly higher micro- and macrovascular complications, even after adjustments for  
275 age, sex and diabetes duration. In a subgroup analysis of individuals with well-  
276 controlled glycaemia (HbA1c <7% or 53mmol/mol), 1892 of 9203 had DD (20.6%),  
277 and showed reduced risk of complications compared to those with inadequate glucose  
278 control. However, this group still had up to 3.5 times higher rate of complications

279 compared with T1D patients without MS having identical HbA1c. More worryingly, the  
280 rate of complications in the well-controlled DD subgroup was higher than all T1D  
281 without MS regardless of glycaemic control (Fig. 4).

282 In addition to increased rate of complications, mortality is also increased in  
283 individuals with DD. The hazard ratio (HR) for diabetes-related mortality from  
284 FinnDiane study was significantly higher in DD (defined as presence of MS by WHO  
285 criteria), compared to T1D without MS (adjusted HR 2.52 [95%CI: 1.53-4.16])<sup>29</sup>. All-  
286 cause mortality in DD defined by eGDR<8 was increased 1.6-fold compared to those  
287 with eGDR  $\geq 8$ <sup>39</sup>.

288

## 289 **Potential mechanisms for increased complications in**

### 290 **double diabetes**

291 A key component of DD that may increase complication rate is insulin resistance  
292 and the need for relatively larger dose of subcutaneous insulin. While HbA1c on its  
293 own does not explain the increased rate of complications in DD, other glycaemic  
294 markers such as glucose variability (GV) and/or hypoglycaemia may have a role.  
295 Alterations in traditional CV risk factors such as dyslipidaemia and hypertension are  
296 likely to play a role in increased rate of complications. The potential mechanisms for  
297 increased complications in DD are illustrated in Fig. 5.

298

## 299 **The role of glycaemia**

300 The observational study by Merger and colleagues <sup>54</sup> suggests that individuals  
301 with DD who are generally more obese than those with T1D, tend to have higher  
302 HbA1c, which may, at least in part, be responsible for the increased risk of  
303 complications in DD. It should be noted that HbA1c measures average glucose levels  
304 and does not address GV or hypoglycaemia, both of which appear to be associated  
305 with adverse vascular outcome <sup>55,56</sup>. In particular, higher insulin doses, commonly  
306 used in DD, may lead to increased risk of hypoglycaemia <sup>57</sup>, which in turn enhances  
307 the inflammatory/thrombotic milieu thus contributing to vascular pathology <sup>58</sup>.  
308 Moreover, the potential for larger fluctuations in glucose levels in this population may  
309 implicate GV in the increased risk of complications. However, these are merely  
310 hypotheses at present and studies are required to establish whether individuals with  
311 DD experience more hypoglycaemic events and/or higher GV, particularly in those  
312 with well controlled HbA1c. If a difference is detected, longitudinal studies are  
313 warranted to understand the relationship between these glycaemic markers and  
314 vascular complications in DD.

315

## 316 **The role of Insulin resistance**

317 Insulin resistance is associated with an enhanced inflammatory environment due  
318 to the release of cytokines by adipose tissue macrophages <sup>59</sup> or inflammatory proteins  
319 such as complement by adipocytes <sup>60</sup>. This in turn enhances insulin resistance by  
320 interfering with insulin-mediated phosphoinositide-3 kinase (PI3K) pathway <sup>61,62</sup>,  
321 creating a vicious cycle. Interestingly, blocking inflammatory cytokines with the use of  
322 interleukin-1 antagonist can improve insulin sensitivity in insulin resistant patients with

323 T1D <sup>63</sup>. Moreover, systemic cytokines leakage into the circulation contributes to low  
324 grade generalized inflammatory milieu, which in turn promotes endothelial  
325 dysfunction, the earliest abnormality in the atherosclerotic process <sup>64</sup>.

326 Insulin resistance also increases lipolysis leading to non-esterified free fatty acid  
327 flux into the systemic circulation, where triglyceride deposition in muscle and liver  
328 tissues augments insulin resistance <sup>65</sup>. Insulin resistance also leads to hyperglycaemia  
329 through unsuppressed hepatic gluconeogenesis and decreased muscular glucose  
330 uptake <sup>66,67</sup>, thus resulting in higher insulin requirements. Insulin resistance contributes  
331 to an increase in blood pressure by diminishing the vasodilatation efficiency and  
332 promoting smooth muscle growth. Moreover, insulin resistance impairs PI3K-  
333 dependent signalling pathway while keeping the mitogen-activated protein kinase  
334 (MAPK)-dependent pathway intact <sup>68</sup>, resulting in imbalance between the two  
335 pathways. Compensatory hyperinsulinemia, therefore, increases production of the  
336 vasoconstrictor endothelin-1 <sup>69</sup>, which opposes vasodilator action of nitric oxide <sup>70</sup>,  
337 through the overstimulation of the unaffected MAPK pathway <sup>71</sup>. The overstimulation  
338 of MAPK pathway additionally activates vascular smooth muscle cell migration and  
339 proliferation <sup>72</sup>, leading to vascular wall thickening and increased peripheral vascular  
340 resistance.

341 Apart from insulin-signalling pathways, hyperinsulinemia results in sodium  
342 retention <sup>73-75</sup> through a direct anti-natriuretic effect and by upregulation of the renin-  
343 angiotensin-aldosterone system <sup>76</sup>.

344 Other than the inflammatory environment, insulin resistance predisposes to  
345 hypofibrinolysis leading to a thrombotic environment through altered levels and/or  
346 activity of coagulation factors such as fibrinogen <sup>77,78</sup>, plasminogen activator inhibitor-  
347 1 <sup>79,80</sup> and the inflammatory thrombotic protein complement C3 <sup>81,82</sup>.



## 348 **Conclusions and future directions**

349 Evidence to date indicates that individuals with features of DD have increased  
350 risk of complications yet the clinical management of this group remains similar to  
351 others with T1D. A difficulty is the absence of reliable criteria to identify individuals with  
352 DD. Relying on a family history of T2D is inadequate while the presence of the MS is  
353 problematic given the different definitions and the difficulty in incorporating into routine  
354 clinical practice. This leaves eGDR as a credible measure of DD, which is easy to  
355 adapt clinically and has the advantage of offering a numerical value that can be used  
356 to monitor response to a particular intervention, similarly to HbA1c.

357 We need to better understand the mechanisms leading to DD and the pathways  
358 implicated in increased risk of complications in this group. This includes the effects of  
359 different glycaemic markers such as hypoglycaemia and GV, made possible with  
360 modern glucose monitoring strategies that rely on continuous glucose values rather  
361 than sporadic capillary glucose measurements. The contribution of genetic and  
362 environmental factors to the development of DD requires further research, including  
363 the role of different insulin preparations and mode of administration. For example, it is  
364 not entirely clear whether insulin pump-treated patients have different rates of DD  
365 compared with those on multiple daily injection.

366 The most challenging aspect, however, is clarifying the best treatment strategy  
367 in individuals with DD, a group in itself with varying degree of risk. It is possible that  
368 routine use of eGDR will allow risk stratification, potentially using this marker as an  
369 adjunct to HbA1c when assessing individuals with T1D. Naturally, lifestyle changes  
370 should be advocated in individuals with DD, including healthy diet and regular  
371 exercise. However, more sophisticated diets may be required for effective weight loss

372 and possibly adjunctive therapy with agents that promote an increase in eGDR. Work  
373 is also needed to elucidate whether more aggressive vascular protective strategies  
374 are required, and at an early age, in the form of blood pressure lowering anti-  
375 hyperlipidaemic and anti-thrombotic agents, which will help to reduce morbidity and  
376 improve quality of life in these patients.

377

378 **List of Abbreviations**

379

CV	cardiovascular
DCCT	the Diabetes Control and Complication study
DD	double diabetes
EDIC	the Epidemiology of Diabetes Interventions and Complications study
eGDR	estimated glucose disposal rate
FinnDiane	the Finnish Diabetic Nephropathy study
GV	glucose variability
MAPK	Mitogen-activated protein kinase
MS	metabolic syndrome
PAI-1	plasminogen activator inhibitor-1
PI3K	insulin-mediated phosphoinositide-3 kinase
T1D	type 1 diabetes
T2D	type 2 diabetes
WC	waist circumferences
WHR	waist-hip ratio

380

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## **Conflicts of interest**

All authors have no conflict of interest to be declared.

## **Author contributions**

NK was responsible for drafting and writing of the manuscript, searching of literature and interpreting of data. RAA was responsible for the drafting and writing of the manuscript and critical revision of important intellectual content. SP, MC, and RASA were responsible for critical revision of important intellectual content. All authors approved the version to be published

## Figure legends

- Fig. 1. Estimated glucose disposal rate (eGDR) and mortality in type 1 diabetes (T1D).** All-cause mortality was related to eGDR, calculated using waist circumference, in 17,050 individuals with T1D diabetes. Data were adapted from <sup>39</sup>.
- Fig. 2. Temporal patterns of overweight and obesity in type 1 diabetes.** Data were modified from <sup>45</sup>.
- Fig. 3. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome (MS) in type 1 diabetes.** The role of different MS definitions in predicting double diabetes is shown. of the MS are reviewed. Data were obtained from references <sup>29,30,39,43,44,83-86</sup>.
- Fig. 4. Prevalence of diabetes complications in individuals with type 1 diabetes (T1D) and metabolic syndrome (MS).** Complication rates (a, b) and risk ratios (c, d) of diabetes complications is shown in the presence and absence of MS in individuals with T1D. (CHD, coronary heart disease; MI, myocardial infarction; PAD, peripheral arterial disease; DR, diabetic retinopathy; PDR, proliferative retinopathy; ALB, albuminuria). Data were modified from <sup>54</sup>.
- Fig. 5 Overview of the mechanisms for increased risk of complications in double diabetes.** Insulin resistance and obesity create a low-grade inflammatory milieu which aggravates insulin resistance. This, in turn, leads to hyperglycemia by decreasing glucose uptake in peripheral tissue and increasing hepatic gluconeogenesis. Insulin resistance also causes atherogenic low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol oxidation and hypertension by various mechanisms. Hyperglycaemia, atherogenic dyslipidaemia and hypertension promote endothelial dysfunction and atherosclerotic plaque formation. Insulin resistance and inflammation sequentially promote hypofibrinolysis leading to prothrombotic clot formation and vascular occlusion ( IL-6, interleukin 6; TNF- $\alpha$ , tumor necrosis factor  $\alpha$ ; PAI-1, plasminogen activator inhibitor 1; C3, complement C3; FFA, free fatty acid; sdLDL, small-dense LDL; oxLDL, oxidized LDL; NO, nitric oxide; ET-1, endothelin-1; PKC, protein kinase pathway C; AGEs, advanced glycation end products; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase).

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