

1 Diabetes and all-cause mortality among middle-aged and older adults in
2 China, England, Mexico, rural South Africa, and the United States: A
3 population-based study of longitudinal aging cohorts

4
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42

43 **ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS**

44 **Why did we undertake this study?**

45 We aimed to address the need for comparable estimates of all-cause mortality among
46 people with diabetes in diverse global settings.

47

48 **What is the specific question(s) we wanted to answer?**

49 How does diabetes impact all-cause mortality among middle-aged and older adults
50 (aged 51 years or greater) in China, England, Mexico, rural South Africa, and the United
51 States?

52

53 **What did we find?**

54 Middle-aged and older adults with diabetes had higher all-cause mortality than people
55 without diabetes in all countries. Relative mortality differences ranged from mortality
56 rate ratios of 1.53 in the United States to 2.02 in Mexico. Absolute mortality differences
57 ranged from mortality rate differences (per 1,000 person-years) of 11.9 in England to
58 24.6 in South Africa.

59

60 **What are the implications of our findings?**

61 There is an urgent need to implement clinical and public health interventions to improve
62 diabetes outcomes globally.

63 **ABSTRACT**

64 **Objective:** There is a need for comparable worldwide data on the impact of diabetes on
65 mortality. This study assessed diabetes and all-cause mortality among middle-aged and
66 older adults in five countries.

67
68 **Research Design and Methods:** We analyzed adults aged 51 years or older followed
69 between 2010 and 2020 from population-based cohorts in China, England, Mexico, rural
70 South Africa, and the United States. Diabetes was defined by self-report or an elevated
71 diabetes blood-based biomarker meeting the clinical criteria for diabetes. All-cause
72 mortality was assessed through linkages or informant interviews. We used Poisson
73 regression models to estimate mortality rate ratios and mortality rate differences,
74 comparing people with diabetes to those without diabetes. Models were adjusted for
75 age, gender, education, smoking status, body mass index, and economic status.

76
77 **Results:** We included 29,397 individuals, of whom 4,916 (16.7%) died during the study
78 period. The median follow-up time ranged from 4.6 years in South Africa to 8.3 years in
79 China. The adjusted all-cause mortality rate ratios for people with diabetes versus those
80 without diabetes ranged from 1.53 (95% CI: 1.39-1.68) in the United States to 2.02
81 (95% CI: 1.34-3.06) in Mexico. The adjusted mortality rate differences (per 1,000
82 person-years) for people with diabetes versus those without diabetes ranged from 11.9
83 (95% CI: 4.8-18.9) in England to 24.6 (95% CI: 12.2-37.0) in South Africa.

84

85 **Conclusions:** Diabetes was associated with increased all-cause mortality in population-
86 based cohorts across five diverse countries. There is an urgent need to implement
87 clinical and public health interventions to improve diabetes outcomes globally.

88 INTRODUCTION

89 More than half a billion people worldwide are living with diabetes.^{1,2} By 2050, this
90 number will increase to 1.2 billion people.¹ Given the epidemiology of diabetes, it is
91 crucial to understand how it impacts long-term health outcomes such as mortality in
92 diverse populations worldwide. All-cause mortality among people with diabetes at the
93 population level is a key metric in the World Health Organization (WHO) global diabetes
94 monitoring framework.³ The WHO recommends monitoring diabetes mortality because it
95 is inherently significant to patients and policymakers, modifiable through evidence-
96 based interventions, and amenable to standardized assessment methods.³

97
98 While diabetes has long been associated with increased mortality in high-income
99 countries,⁴⁻⁶ contemporary and cross-national estimates of this association have been
100 limited by several factors. First, there is a paucity of data on diabetes and mortality from
101 low- and middle-income countries where most people with diabetes live, and this is
102 especially true for middle-aged or older adults who are often understudied in these
103 settings.⁷ Second, temporal declines in all-cause mortality in high-income countries
104 have been observed in recent decades, so updated data are needed.⁸ Third, population
105 data on diabetes and mortality are often not comparable across settings due to
106 differences in sample selection, case definitions, and mortality ascertainment.⁷ These
107 limitations pose challenges for accurately assessing the global burden of diabetes and
108 monitoring diabetes policy responses.

109

110 To address these gaps, this study aimed to evaluate the association between diabetes
111 and all-cause mortality among middle-aged and older adults with diabetes using recent
112 data from comparable population-based aging cohorts in five diverse countries.

113

114 **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS**

115 **Study design and sample**

116 We conducted a longitudinal analysis of population-based aging cohorts in five
117 countries: China (China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study [CHARLS]),⁹
118 England (English Longitudinal Study of Ageing [ELSA]),¹⁰ Mexico (Mexican Health and
119 Aging Study [MHAS]),¹¹ rural South Africa (Health and Aging in Africa: A Longitudinal
120 Study of an INDEPTH Community in South Africa [HAALSI]),¹² and the United States
121 (Health and Retirement Study [HRS]).¹³ These cohorts are part of the HRS International
122 Family of Studies, a network of longitudinal aging studies with similar sampling designs,
123 eligibility, and assessment methods.¹⁴ The cohort inclusion criteria for this analysis were
124 (1) availability of baseline and follow-up data from 2010 to 2020 and (2) collection of a
125 blood-based diabetes biomarker at the baseline wave during this period. We chose
126 2010 to 2020 as our period of interest to maximize comparability between cohorts. With
127 one exception, the included cohorts were nationally representative of each country's
128 middle-aged and older population. The exception was the South Africa cohort, which
129 was representative of rural communities in sub-Saharan Africa. See Appendix 1 for
130 details on the years of data collection and censoring by cohort.

131

132 Due to minor differences in the lower end of age eligibility between cohorts, we
133 excluded individuals younger than 51 at baseline to ensure comparability. We also
134 excluded respondents without follow-up information, with no available blood-based
135 diabetes biomarker, or with missing data on prior diabetes diagnosis, gender, education,
136 economic status, smoking status, BMI, or survey weights. In the South Africa cohort, we
137 excluded individuals with missing human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) status. Appendix
138 2 shows participant flow diagrams for each cohort including numbers lost to follow-up.

139

140 **Definition of diabetes**

141 We defined diabetes as either (1) a history of self-reported diagnosis by a physician or
142 health care worker or (2) an elevated blood-based biomarker meeting clinical criteria for
143 diabetes.^{15,16} We used HbA1c $\geq 6.5\%$ (48 mmol/mol) as the biomarker threshold in all
144 countries except China and South Africa where we used fasting blood glucose ≥ 126
145 mg/dL (7.0 mmol/L) or random blood glucose ≥ 200 mg/dL (11.1 mmol/L). In China,
146 plasma glucose was assessed using an enzymatic colorimetric test (92% of individuals
147 were fasting). In the South African cohort, capillary glucose was assessed using a point-
148 of-care analyzer (24% of individuals were fasting). In England, HbA1c was assessed
149 using venous blood samples. In Mexico, HbA1c was assessed using a point-of-care
150 analyzer certified by the National Glycohemoglobin Standardization Program.¹⁷ In the
151 United States, HbA1c was assessed using dried blood spots converted to whole blood
152 equivalent values.¹⁸ Relevant question text and biomarker details are provided in
153 Appendix 3-4.

154

155 **Mortality ascertainment**

156 All-cause mortality was captured in England by linking to the National Health Service
157 Central Register (latest available data from April 2018). In other cohorts, all-cause
158 mortality was captured during interviews with respondents' spouses or other informants.
159 In all cohorts, the month and year of death were available. If the date of death was
160 unknown, it was estimated as the midpoint between waves in which an individual was
161 known to be alive and had died. We measured survival time in years from the baseline
162 interview as defined in this study to death, loss to follow-up, or the end of the follow-up
163 period (May 2018 in England and December 2019 in the other countries), whichever
164 came first.

165

166 **Statistical analysis**

167 Analyses were conducted within each cohort and accounted for survey weights and
168 sampling design when available. We first calculated the overall and age-stratified
169 diabetes prevalence at baseline. In calculating overall prevalence, we age-standardized
170 to the WHO standard population. We then used Poisson regression with an offset for
171 log-transformed person-years and robust standard errors to estimate differences in
172 mortality rates among people with diabetes versus those without diabetes. Poisson
173 models give similar results to Cox models when there are shorter follow-up intervals and
174 have the advantage of directly estimating event rates.^{19,20} Both relative (mortality rate
175 ratios) and absolute (mortality rate and mortality rate differences) measures are
176 reported. Mortality rates and mortality rate differences are presented as the number of
177 deaths per 1,000 person-years.

178 We used prior evidence to develop a directed acyclic graph showing our conceptual
179 model of the relationship between diabetes and mortality (Appendix 5).²¹ We adjusted
180 for baseline covariates, including age (51-59 years, 60-69 years, and ≥ 70 years),
181 gender (women vs. men), education (less than upper secondary, upper secondary and
182 vocational, and tertiary), smoking status (current vs. not current smoker), BMI
183 categories (underweight: BMI < 18.5 kg/m²; normal weight: 18.5-24.9 kg/m²; overweight:
184 25.0-29.9 kg/m²; obese: ≥ 30.0 kg/m²), and economic status (tertiles). Economic status
185 was defined as the annual income of the individual and their co-residing spouse or
186 dependent children in high-income countries (England and the United States) and the
187 annual household per-capita consumption in upper-middle-income countries (China,
188 Mexico, and South Africa). Per-capita consumption is the preferred measure of living
189 standard derived from surveys in developing countries.²² In the South African cohort, we
190 also adjusted for HIV status, given the high prevalence (23%) and known mortality
191 association in this population.²³ Models were run in the overall sample and by gender.
192 We estimated differences in mortality rates among people with no diabetes, diagnosed
193 diabetes, and undiagnosed diabetes. Analyses were performed using Stata version
194 18.0.

195

196 **Sensitivity analyses**

197 We conducted three sensitivity analyses. First, we assessed the consistency of our
198 findings using Cox proportional hazards regression models. Second, we estimated the
199 association between diabetes and mortality using a slightly more restrictive
200 epidemiological diabetes definition of either (1) the self-reported use of a glucose-

201 lowering medication or (2) an elevated biomarker meeting clinical criteria for
202 diabetes.^{24,25} Finally, we performed an analysis without the adjustment for BMI
203 categories given the potentially bidirectional relationship between diabetes and BMI.

204

205 **Data availability and ethics**

206 This study was deemed exempt from institutional ethics approval at the University of
207 Michigan (HUM00256096). Data included in this study are publicly available for all
208 cohorts except for mortality data for ELSA. Details on accessing data can be found at
209 the Gateway to Global Aging Data website (<https://g2aging.org/>).

210

211 **RESULTS**

212 **Survey and respondent characteristics**

213 Table 1 presents survey and respondent characteristics for the five cohorts. The final
214 sample included 6,251 individuals in China, 4,819 in England, 1,717 in Mexico, 3,411 in
215 South Africa, and 13,199 in the United States. Of the 29,397 total individuals, 4,916
216 (16.7%) died during the study period. The median follow-up time ranged from 4.6
217 (interquartile range [IQR]: 4.4-4.8) years in South Africa to 8.3 (IQR: 8.2-8.4) years in
218 China. There were 191,782 total person-years of follow-up in the cohorts (China: 48,122
219 person-years; England: 24,536 person-years; Mexico: 11,192 person-years; South
220 Africa: 14,722 person-years; and United States: 93,210 person-years).

221

222 There was considerable cross-country variation in some respondent characteristics, as
223 illustrated in Table 1. For example, while nine-tenths of individuals in China (89.9%

224 [95% CI: 88.2-91.4]), Mexico (88.8% [95% CI: 85.9-91.2]), and South Africa (93.3%
225 [95% CI: 92.4-94.1]) had less than an upper secondary education, most individuals in
226 England (69.2% [95% CI: 67.5-70.8]) and the United States (86.1% [95% CI: 84.7-87.4])
227 had an upper secondary education or greater. Current smoking ranged from 8.4% (95%
228 CI: 7.5-9.3) in South Africa to 31.0% (95% CI: 28.6-33.6) in China. The prevalence of
229 individuals who were obese ranged from 4.5% (95% CI: 3.9-5.3) in China to 43.3%
230 (95% CI: 42.3-44.4) in the United States.

231

232 **Diabetes prevalence**

233 The age-standardized prevalence of diabetes was highest in Mexico (37.4% [95% CI:
234 33.4-41.5]), followed by the United States (21.8% [95% CI: 20.8-22.8]), China (15.7%
235 [95% CI: 14.3-17.2]), South Africa (12.1% [95% CI: 11.1-13.3]), and England (11.7%
236 [95% CI: 10.6-13.0]). Figure 1 shows the age-specific prevalence of diabetes by cohort
237 at baseline. Among individuals with diabetes, the age-standardized proportion of those
238 with diabetes who reported a prior diabetes diagnosis ranged from 46.4% (95% CI:
239 42.1-50.7) in China to 86.1% (95% CI: 84.1-87.9) in the United States (Table 1).

240

241 **Mortality rates**

242 Adjusted all-cause mortality rates (per 1,000 person-years) are presented in Figure 2
243 and Appendix 6. In each cohort, mortality rates were higher among people with diabetes
244 than those without diabetes. Across the cohorts, mortality rates among people with
245 diabetes were highest in South Africa (57.5 [95% CI: 45.5-69.5]), followed by the United

246 States (39.2 [95% CI: 36.1-42.4]), China (95% CI: 35.5 [95% CI: 28.6-42.4]), England
247 (28.8 [95% CI: 22.1-35.6]), and Mexico (29.0 [95% CI: 19.0-39.0]).

248

249 **Mortality rate ratios and mortality rate differences**

250 The adjusted overall all-cause mortality rate ratios for people with diabetes versus those
251 without diabetes ranged from 1.53 (95% CI: 1.39-1.68) in the United States to 2.02
252 (95% CI: 1.34-3.06) in Mexico (Figure 3A). The adjusted mortality rate differences (per
253 1,000 person-years) for people with diabetes versus those without diabetes ranged from
254 11.9 (95% CI: 4.8-18.9) in England to 24.6 (95% CI: 12.2-37.0) in South Africa. No
255 significant differences were observed in adjusted mortality rate ratios or adjusted
256 mortality rate differences by sex in cohorts. Mortality rate ratios appeared to decrease in
257 older age groups in the cohorts from England and the United States (Appendix 7).

258

259 Figure 3B shows results when the diabetes classification was separated by diagnosed
260 or undiagnosed status, compared to no diabetes. In general, there appeared to be a
261 tendency among people diagnosed with diabetes to have higher mortality than people
262 with undiagnosed diabetes. However, these differences were statistically significant only
263 in Mexico where people with diagnosed diabetes compared to undiagnosed diabetes
264 had an adjusted mortality rate ratio of 1.95 (95% CI: 1.11-3.43), corresponding to an
265 adjusted mortality rate difference of 22.6 (95% CI: -7.3-52.4) deaths per 1,000 person-
266 years (Appendix 8).

267

268

269 **Sensitivity analyses**

270 The results of the first sensitivity analysis using Cox proportional hazards regression
271 models (Appendix 9) were generally consistent with the main results using Poisson
272 regression models. In the second sensitivity analysis using the slightly more restrictive
273 epidemiological diabetes definition of either the use of a glucose-lowering medication (in
274 place of self-reported diagnosis) or an elevated biomarker, we observed a slightly
275 higher point estimate for the adjusted mortality rate ratios in the China cohort (1.86 vs.
276 1.79) and slightly lower adjusted mortality rate ratios in the Mexico cohort (1.84 vs. 2.02;
277 Appendix 10). The third sensitivity analysis removing adjustment for BMI had the effect
278 of slightly attenuating the mortality rate ratios and mortality rate differences compared to
279 the main analysis (Appendix 11).

280

281 **CONCLUSIONS**

282 In this study of middle-aged and older adults followed between 2010 and 2020 from
283 population-based cohorts in five diverse countries (four of which were nationally
284 representative), we found that people with diabetes consistently had higher all-cause
285 mortality than people without diabetes. Relative mortality differences were similar
286 across cohorts, ranging from mortality rate ratios of 1.53 (95% CI: 1.39-1.68) in the
287 United States to 2.02 (95% CI: 1.34-3.06) in Mexico. Absolute mortality differences had
288 more variation across cohorts, ranging from mortality rate differences (per 1,000
289 person-years) of 11.9 (95% CI: 4.8-18.9) in England to 24.6 (95% CI: 12.2-37.0) in
290 South Africa. These findings using recent and comparable data highlight the immense
291 burden of diabetes around the world, particularly in low- and middle-income country

292 settings such as rural South Africa and Mexico where the absolute mortality impact of
293 diabetes appears greatest. These are also settings where diabetes care is thought to be
294 least robust.^{3,26,27}

295
296 Many prior studies assessing the association between diabetes and all-cause mortality
297 have been conducted in high-income countries and among younger age groups.^{3,7,8}
298 Large-scale meta-analyses in the last two decades have reported relative mortality
299 differences among people with diabetes, as compared to those without diabetes, that
300 are generally similar to findings in our study.^{4,6,28,29} However, these meta-analyses
301 primarily included non-representative cohorts from high-income countries, limiting
302 population inferences globally. A multi-country analysis from 1995 to 2016 in 16
303 countries provides updated evidence of a reduction in all-cause mortality among people
304 with diagnosed diabetes, but data were only available from high-income countries.⁸ The
305 Prospective Urban Rural Epidemiology study reported greater absolute mortality among
306 people with diabetes in middle-income and low-income countries, as compared to
307 people with diabetes in high-income countries.⁵ While studies on diabetes-related
308 mortality previously have been performed in each of the countries included in our
309 analysis,³⁰⁻³⁶ our study uniquely compares diabetes-related mortality in multiple
310 countries using similar methods across the entire continuum of middle-aged and older
311 adults. Individuals in this age range are sometimes excluded from population-based
312 studies worldwide. However, they have the highest diabetes prevalence and require
313 comprehensive clinical management to prevent diabetes complications.

314

315 An important secondary finding in our study was the tendency of higher mortality among
316 people with diagnosed diabetes compared to undiagnosed diabetes. This finding was
317 most marked in Mexico and South Africa. Many—though not all—prior high-quality
318 population-based studies have reported similar findings.^{5,30-32,37} We hypothesize that the
319 greater mortality among people with previously diagnosed compared to undiagnosed
320 diabetes likely reflects a selection effect related to diabetes severity and/or diabetes
321 duration. Diabetes patients with the highest disease severity or progression are most
322 likely to experience symptoms, to seek a diagnosis in the health care system, and,
323 despite obtaining a diagnosis, to die. This selection effect may be most salient in
324 countries at lower income levels where the proportion of adults with diabetes who are
325 diagnosed is as low as 20%, compared to 80% or greater in some high-income
326 countries such as the United States.³

327
328 What are the policy implications emerging from this work? The higher absolute mortality
329 rates in South Africa and Mexico suggest that people with diabetes in these countries
330 experience challenges accessing quality diabetes care. There is an urgent need to
331 scale up evidence-based interventions to manage diabetes and its associated
332 cardiovascular risk factors, particularly in low- and middle-income countries where
333 societies are aging, absolute diabetes mortality is highest, and the population with
334 diabetes is rapidly growing.² Evidence from Sweden shows that people with diabetes
335 who are appropriately managed and achieve risk factor control have little or no excess
336 mortality compared to those without diabetes.³⁸ Yet only 10% of people with diabetes in
337 low- and middle-income countries receive comprehensive diabetes management

338 aligned with guidelines.²⁶ In the coming decades, diabetes will cause a staggering
339 degree of premature mortality unless health systems are strengthened to improve
340 diabetes care.¹ The WHO Global Diabetes Compact is a crucial international effort to
341 stimulate improvements in equitable, affordable, and quality care for people with
342 diabetes.^{1,3} A key pillar of these efforts is the inclusion of stakeholders from the public
343 and private sectors, as well as individuals with lived experiences of diabetes.

344
345 Our study has several limitations. First, our analysis did not include people aged 50
346 years or younger. Younger populations with diabetes tend to have high diabetes
347 mortality compared to young populations without diabetes.³⁰⁻³² Our results should not be
348 generalized to entire populations or young populations. Still, they can be generalized to
349 populations aged 51 years or older, which represent approximately two-thirds of people
350 with diabetes worldwide.² Second, differences in the blood-based diabetes biomarkers
351 collected in each cohort (e.g., glucose versus HbA1c) may contribute to slightly different
352 phenotypes of individuals classified as having undiagnosed diabetes.^{39,40} This limitation
353 could decrease the comparability of estimates across cohorts. Third, our study lacks
354 data on cause-specific mortality, preventing us from distinguishing between
355 microvascular and macrovascular patterns of death among individuals with diabetes.
356 Fourth, the South African cohort was not nationally representative, though it is
357 representative of a rural community like many others in sub-Saharan Africa. Finally,
358 while this analysis used data from a geographically and economically diverse set of
359 countries, the included cohorts may not fully represent populations with diabetes
360 worldwide. In particular, none of the cohorts were drawn from low- or lower-middle-

361 income countries. Estimating diabetes mortality in these settings is an important area of
362 future research.

363

364 In summary, we observed that diabetes was consistently associated with increased all-
365 cause mortality across five diverse settings, and absolute diabetes mortality was
366 particularly high in low- and middle-income countries where systems of care for
367 diabetes are known to be weaker. The findings reinforce the need to implement clinical
368 and public health interventions to improve diabetes outcomes in countries worldwide.

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391

392 **Conflict of Interest**

393 D.F. and JM.-G. have received consultant fees from the World Health Organization for
394 activities relating to global diabetes monitoring.

395

396 **Author Contributions and Guarantor Statement**

397 H.G., J.M.-G., and D.F. conceived the idea for this study. H.G. conducted the statistical
398 analysis. H.G. and D.F. wrote the first draft of the manuscript with substantial revisions
399 from J.M.-G. H.G. and P.Z. verified the underlying data. Y.S.Z. and P.Z. provided
400 analytic support. All authors provided crucial input on multiple iterations of the
401 manuscript. D.F. had full access to the data except the ELSA mortality data; due to
402 privacy regulations, these data were restricted in access to P.Z. D.F. is the guarantor of
403 this work and, as such, takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy
404 of the data analysis.

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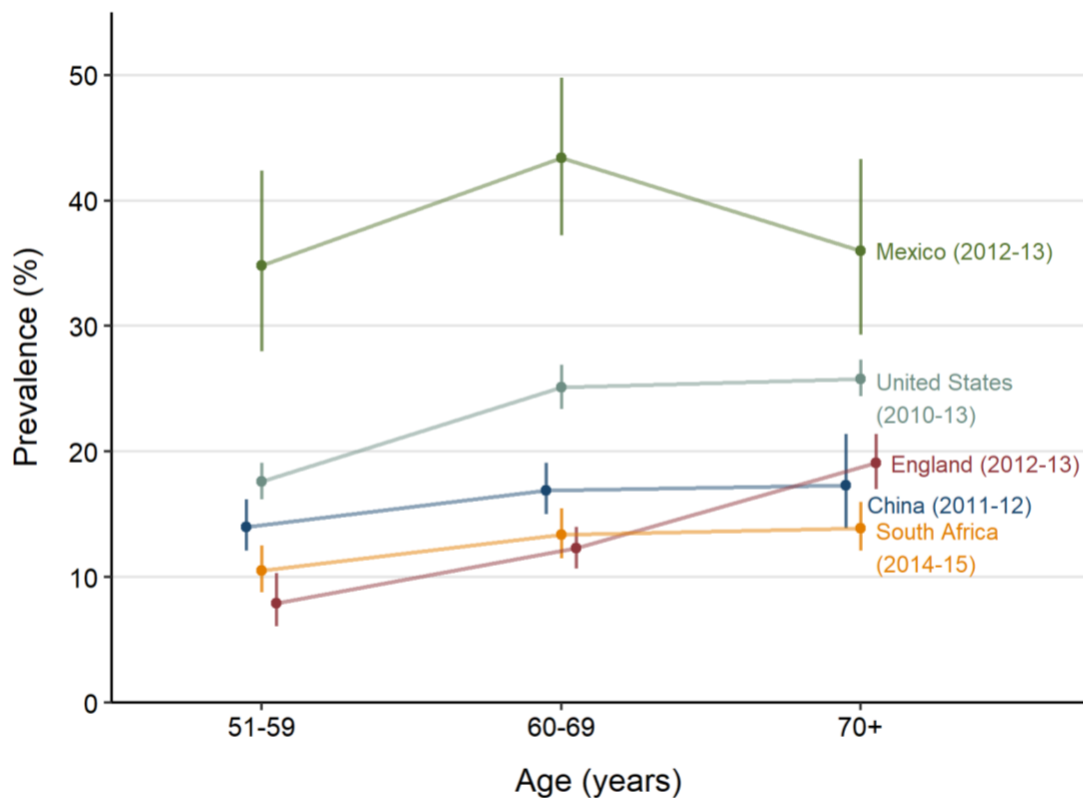
Table 1: Survey and respondent characteristics

	China (CHARLS)	England (ELSA)	Mexico (MHAS)	South Africa (HAALSI)	United States (HRS)
Survey characteristics					
Years of data collection (baseline to endline)	2011 to 2019	2012 to 2018	2012 to 2019	2014 to 2019	2010 to 2019
Sample size, n	6,251	4,819	1,717	3,411	13,199
Deaths, n	968	400	206	510	2,832
Follow-up time (years), median (IQR)	8.3 (8.2-8.4)	5.5 (5.2-5.7)	7.1 (7.1-7.2)	4.6 (4.4-4.8)	7.5 (6.2-9.0)
Respondent characteristics					
Age (years), median (IQR)	61 (56-68)	64 (57-72)	63 (56-70)	65 (57-73)	63 (57-72)
Women, % (95% CI)	50.2 (47.8-52.6)	50.9 (49.4-52.3)	55.2 (50.8-59.6)	53.7 (52.0-55.4)	54.1 (53.3-54.9)
Education, % (95% CI)					
Less than upper secondary	89.9 (88.2-91.4)	30.8 (29.3-32.5)	88.8 (85.9-91.2)	93.3 (92.4-94.1)	13.9 (12.7-15.4)
Upper secondary and vocational	8.2 (7.3-9.2)	50.7 (49.0-52.4)	3.4 (2.1-5.6)	4.3 (3.7-5.0)	58.7 (56.9-60.4)
Tertiary	1.9 (0.9-3.9)	18.4 (17.1-19.9)	7.7 (5.9-10.1)	2.4 (1.9-2.9)	27.4 (25.5-29.4)
Current smoker, % (95% CI)	31.0 (28.6-33.6)	13.7 (12.5-15.0)	16.9 (12.9-21.8)	8.4 (7.5-9.3)	14.9 (13.8-16.0)
BMI, % (95% CI)					
<18.5 (Underweight)	7.5 (6.7-8.3)	0.9 (0.6-1.3)	0.9 (0.4-1.8)	5.6 (4.9-6.5)	1.0 (0.8-1.3)
18.5-24.9 (Normal)	61.0 (58.6-63.4)	26.4 (25.0-28.0)	26.0 (21.8-30.7)	36.5 (34.9-38.1)	20.8 (20.0-21.7)
25.0-29.9 (Overweight)	27.0 (24.6-29.5)	41.8 (40.2-43.5)	38.0 (34.0-42.2)	28.3 (26.9-29.9)	34.8 (33.8-35.8)
≥30 (Obese)	4.6 (3.9-5.3)	30.8 (29.3-32.4)	35.1 (31.0-39.5)	29.6 (28.0-31.1)	43.3 (42.3-44.4)
Diabetes (diagnosed and undiagnosed), % (95% CI)*	15.7 (14.3-17.2)	11.7 (10.6-13.0)	37.4 (33.4-41.5)	12.1 (11.1-13.3)	21.8 (20.8-22.8)
Diagnosed among all with diabetes, % (95% CI)*	46.4 (42.1-50.7)	76.1 (69.3-81.7)	53.6 (47.2-59.9)	57.8 (52.5-62.9)	86.1 (84.1-87.9)

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*Values are age-standardized to the WHO standard population among adults aged 50 years and older. CHARLS=China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study. ELSA=English Longitudinal Study of Ageing. HAALSI=Health and Aging in Africa: A Longitudinal Study of an INDEPTH Community in South Africa. HRS=Health and Retirement Study. IQR=Interquartile range. MHAS=Mexican Health and Aging Study.

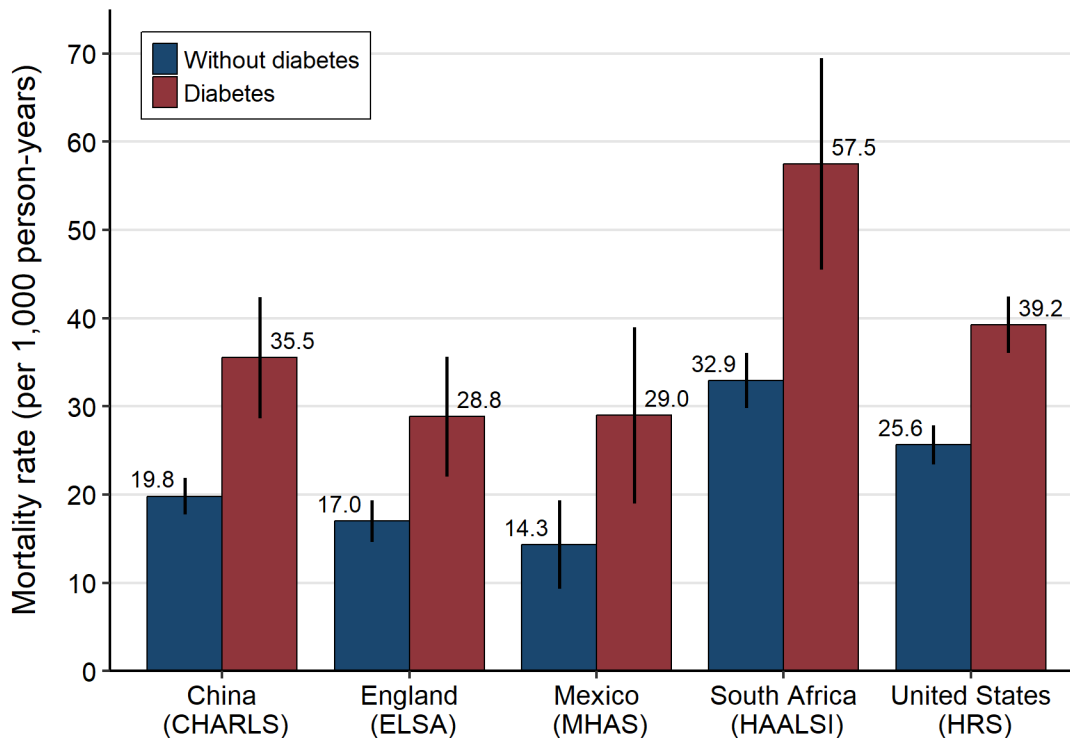
524 **Figure 1: Age-specific prevalence of diabetes by cohort**



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526 Diabetes was defined among individuals self-reporting a previous diabetes diagnosis or those with an
527 elevated biomarker (hemoglobin A1c $\geq 6.5\%$ [48 mmol/mol], fasting plasma glucose ≥ 126 mg/dL [7.0
528 mmol/L], or random capillary glucose ≥ 200 mg/dL [11.1 mmol/L]). The vertical error bars represent 95%
529 CIs.

530 **Figure 2: Adjusted all-cause mortality rates by cohort**



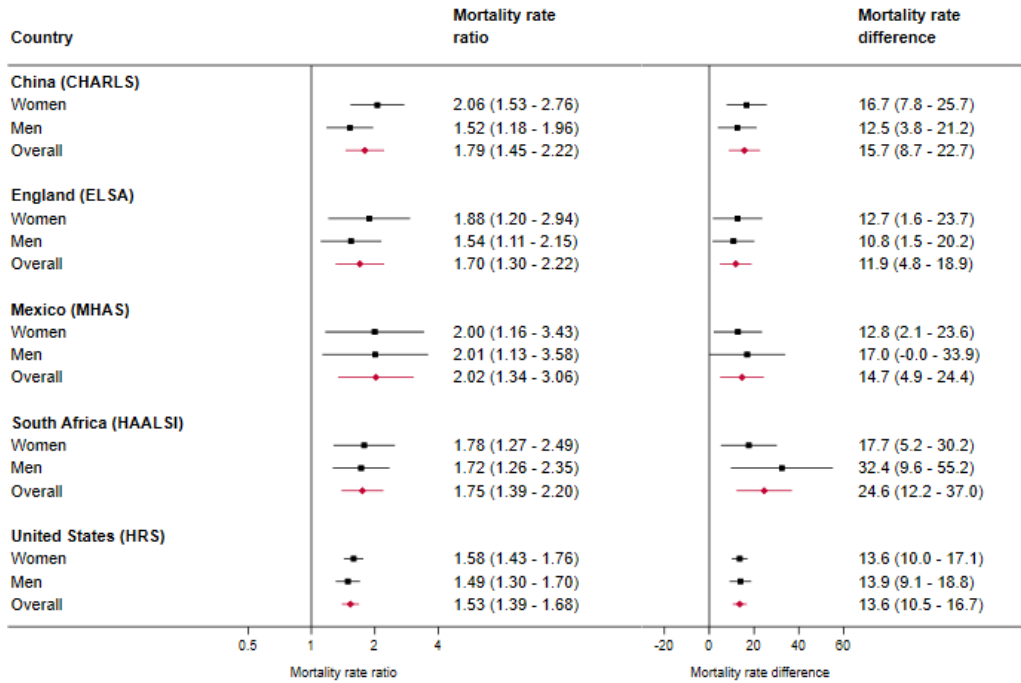
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532 Mortality rates are presented as the number of deaths per 1,000 person-years. The vertical error bars
533 represent 95% CIs. Estimates were derived using Poisson regression models with an offset for log-
534 transformed person-years and robust standard errors and adjusted for age, gender, education, smoking
535 status, body mass index, and economic status. Models in South Africa also adjusted for HIV status.
536 CHARLS=China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study. ELSA=English Longitudinal Study of Ageing.
537 HAALSI=Health and Aging in Africa: A Longitudinal Study of an INDEPTH Community in South Africa.
538 HRS=Health and Retirement Study. MHAS=Mexican Health and Aging Study.

539 **Figure 3: Adjusted all-cause mortality rate ratios and mortality rate differences**

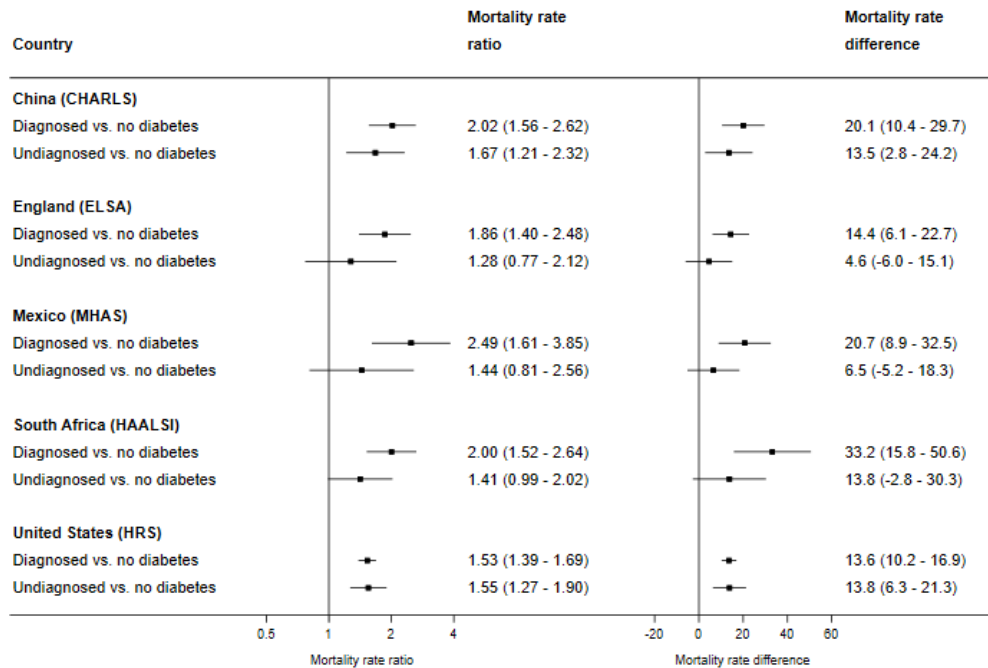
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541 *Panel A: Overall and by gender*



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543 *Panel B: By diagnosed vs. undiagnosed*



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545 Mortality rate differences are presented as the number of deaths per 1,000 person-years. The horizontal error
 546 bars represent 95% CIs. Estimates were derived using Poisson regression models with an offset for log-
 547 transformed person-years and robust standard errors and adjusted for age, gender, education, smoking status,
 548 body mass index, and economic status. Models in South Africa also adjusted for HIV status. CHARLS=China
 549 Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study. ELSA=English Longitudinal Study of Ageing. HAALSI=Health and
 550 Aging in Africa: A Longitudinal Study of an INDEPTH Community in South Africa. HRS=Health and Retirement
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