Indian Heart Journal 72 (2020) 582-588

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Indian Heart Journal

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ihj

Original Article

Prevalence and correlates of metabolic syndrome among rural women in Mysore, India



IHJ Indian Heart Journal

Karl Krupp ^{a, b, *}, Prajakta Adsul ^c, Meredith L. Wilcox ^{d, e}, Vijaya Srinivas ^b, Elizabeth Frank ^f, Arun Srinivas ^g, Purnima Madhivanan ^{a, b, h, i}

^a Department of Health Promotion Sciences, Mel & Enid Zuckerman College of Public Health, University of Arizona, Tucson, USA

^b Public Health Research Institute of India, Mysore, India

^c National Cancer Institute, National Institutes for Health, USA

^d Midwest Biomedical Research/Center for Metabolic and Cardiovascular Health, Addison, IL, USA

^e MB Clinical Research, Boca Raton, FL, USA

^f Biochem Laboratories, Mysore, India

^g Department of Cardiology, Apollo Hospital, Mysore, India

^h Division of Infectious Diseases, College of Medicine, University of Arizona, Tucson, USA

ⁱ Department of Family & Community Medicine, College of Medicine, University of Arizona, Tucson, USA

A R T I C L E I N F O

Article history: Received 25 September 2019 Accepted 16 September 2020 Available online 22 September 2020

Keywords: India Metabolic Syndrome Waist circumference Risk factors Blood pressure Triglycerides Lipoprotein Blood sugar Rural Women

ABSTRACT

Aims: Metabolic Syndrome (MetS) is a strong predictor of Coronary Heart Disease (CHD). Studies in urban India have found about one-third of Indians suffer from MetS. Less is known about the prevalence of MetS in rural areas, where 70% of the population reside. This study examined the prevalence of Metabolic Syndrome in a population of rural women in India.

Methods: Data were gathered in a community-based study of 500 rural and tribal women residing in the Mysore district, between the age of 30–59 years. The study used the WHO STEPS approach, in which information on demographics and behavioral risk factors were collected. Along with anthropometric measurements, blood pressure, blood glucose, lipids were measured. A harmonized definition of MetS recommended by International Diabetes Federation Task Force on Epidemiology and Prevention was used in this study.

Results: Three out of five study participants were found to have MetS (47.1%, n = 223). Of those, 56.5% met 3 of the 5 criteria, 32.2% met 4 criteria, and 11.2% met all 5 criteria. Among the entire sample, low HDL was the most prevalent criterion (88.4%), followed by elevated glucose (57.9%), elevated triglycerides (49.3%), elevated BP (41.5%), and increased waist circumference (15.3%). In this sample, women with METS were generally older (p < 0.001), housewives (p = 0.001), that consumed salty highly processed foods (p = 0.020) and had low physical activity (p = 0.015).

Conclusions: This study showed a high prevalence of MetS in rural women. There is a compelling need for interventions aimed at reducing CHD risk factors in this population.

© 2020 Cardiological Society of India. Published by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

1. Introduction

The term "metabolic syndrome" (MetS) was first used in the 1970's to describe a constellation of abnormal physical and chemical processes like impaired glucose metabolism, hyperinsulinemia;

E-mail address: kkrupp@email.arizona.edu (K. Krupp).

and elevated triglycerides (TG), glucose, and cholesterol, on progression of cardiovascular disease.¹ MetS has been widely accepted as a simple and inexpensive tool for identifying patients at highrisk for coronary heart disease (CHD).² At least four international organizations including the World Health Organization (WHO) have recommended clinical criteria for diagnosis of the syndrome.³ While there are significant differences, definitions share criteria for glucose intolerance, abnormal lipid levels, obesity, and elevated blood pressure.⁴ The pathophysiology of MetS is still not well understood,⁵ but research has confirmed that CHD incidence and mortality, and all-cause mortality, are elevated in individuals with

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ihj.2020.09.015



Note: All authors take responsibility for all aspects of the reliability and freedom from bias of the data presented and their discussed interpretation.

^{*} corresponding author. Department of Health Promotion Sciences, Mel & Enid Zuckerman College of Public Health, University of Arizona, 1295 N. Martin Avenue, P.O. Box 245209, Tucson, AZ, 85724-5209, USA.

^{0019-4832/© 2020} Cardiological Society of India. Published by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

K. Krupp, P. Adsul, M.L. Wilcox et al.

the MetS, even in the absence of baseline cardiovascular disease (CVD) and diabetes. 6,7

In India, the prevalence and correlates of MetS have mainly been studied among urban populations.^{8–13} Research suggests that about one-third of Indians living in cities suffer from MetS with rates among females (range: 2.6%–65.9%) higher than those found in males (range: 8.4%–39.9%). Much less is known about MetS in India's rural populations, where 70% of the population resides.¹⁴ The few available studies show wide variations in MetS prevalence. A study in rural West Bengal for example, found 10.7% of the males and 20.3% of the females had MetS.¹⁵ Research in Maharashtra showed that men had a higher MetS prevalence (17.6%) than women (16.8%)¹⁶; a study in rural Andhra Pradesh found 28.6% of men and 20.4% of women had MetS¹⁷ and a cross-sectional survey in Kerala found rural women had higher prevalence than men (28% vs 20%) of MetS.¹⁸

Identifying the correlates and modifiable risk factors of MetS is a key ingredient in designing effective interventions. Previous studies have shown that female gender,¹⁹ higher socioeconomic class,^{19,20} sedentary lifestyle,¹⁹ smoking,²¹ alcohol consumption,²² healthy diet,²³ and educational level¹⁹ were correlated with MetS. Certain genetic factors also appear to predispose Indians to elevated levels of MetS. Studies found that hyperglycemia, hypertension, and hypertriglyceridemia occurred at lower levels of body mass index (BMI) and waist circumference among Bangladeshis, Pakistanis, and Asian Indians, suggesting the need for adjusted cutoff points for MetS components among South Asians.^{24–26} In 2005, the International Diabetes Federation (IDF) also introduced an ethnicity-specific definition of MetS to improve its utility as a predictive tool for CVD risk.²⁷

The purpose of the present analysis is to examine the prevalence of MetS and its correlates among a sample of women living in rural Mysore, India. We have used a modified consensus definition of MetS among South Asians recommended by International Diabetes Federation Task Force on Epidemiology and Prevention.²⁸

2. Methods

2.1. Study population

Data for this study were gathered in a community based crosssectional study of rural and tribal women, between the ages of 30-59 years, residing in the Hunsur Taluk of Mysore District, Karnataka (population, 2,994,744; 50% female; 86% belonging to Hindu religion). About 59% of the district's population resides in rural villages. Rural women have an estimated annual per capita income of Indian Rupees (INR) 16,086 and a literacy rate of 63% which was low compared to the all-India annual per capita income of INR 38,005 and literacy rate of 74%. The Hunsur taluka has population of 50,865 of which 25,435 are females as per report released by Census India 2011.²⁹ Based on the national census, we estimated that 33% of the females belong in the eligible age group of 30-59 years. This helped determine a sampling frame of 8394 females between the ages of 30-59 years. Using this information, we estimated a sample size for a prevalence study with a finite population correction as follows: At a precision level of 5%, confidence interval of 95%, an unknown prevalence at 50% for a population 8,400, the estimated sample size was 368. With 20% oversampling for missing data the final sample size was determined to be 450.

2.2. Study setting and duration

The study was conducted between January and August 2016, with a follow-up period until December 2017. Twenty-five villages were chosen as community sites for the implementation of the project based on two criteria¹: accessibility by road (within the Hunsur taluk), and² availability of a community center or a primary healthcare center with toilet facilities and access to running water. Complete data were available for 473 women and included in the analysis for this paper. A detailed recruitment plan is described elsewhere.³⁰

2.3. Ethical review

The protocol for the study was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Boards of Public Health Research Institute of India and Florida International University. Informed consent was obtained from all women participating in the study before data collection.

2.4. Survey

The study used the World Health Organization's STEPS approach, which entails a stepwise collection of the risk factor data. In Step 1, information on demographics and behavioral risk factors (tobacco use, alcohol consumption, fruit and vegetable intake, physical inactivity, as well as history of raised blood pressure and diabetes) was collected through self-report using an interviewer-administered questionnaire in Kannada. Physical measurements of height and weight were recorded to calculate BMI, waist circumference and blood pressure were also recorded in Step 2, and Step 3 consisted of biochemical measurements of blood glucose and total cholesterol levels.³¹

2.5. Anthropometry

The following anthropometric measures were taken three times and the mean was recorded: height (centimeters [cm]), weight (kilogram [kg]) and waist circumference (cm). Height was measured using a stadiometer without shoes. Weight was measured on a calibrated digital scale to the nearest 100 g. Waist circumference was measured using a measuring tape at the midpoint between the lower border of the rib cage and upper border of the iliac crest. Blood pressure (BP) was measured using an electronic manometer and cuff, and an average systolic and diastolic blood pressure reading was determined after three consecutive readings.

2.6. Biochemical analysis

Blood for biochemical analysis was obtained from the participants in two different vacutainers — one 3 ml tube with EDTA for testing the HbA1c and second plain 5 ml tube for testing serum lipids. The samples were collected in the community and stored in an icebox for same day transportation to the laboratory for analysis within 24 h. Serum was tested for the concentration of triglycerides (TG), total cholesterol (TC), low-density lipoproteins (LDL), highdensity lipoproteins (HDL).

2.7. Primary outcome

The primary outcome of this study was the presence of metabolic syndrome (MetS) as defined by the harmonized definition of the International Diabetes Federation Task Force on Epidemiology and Prevention; National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; American Heart Association; World Heart Federation; International Atherosclerosis Society modified for inclusion of Glycated HemoglobinA1c in Adults, which has been found to enhance detection of hyperglycemia for the diagnosis of MetS.^{28,32} Women in this study that met at least three of the following criteria were classified as having MetS:

- a) Increased waist circumference (\geq 80 cm)
- b) Elevated triglycerides (TG) (\geq 150 mg per deciliter [mg/dL])
- c) Low high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL) levels (<50 mg/dL)
- d) Elevated blood pressure (\geq 130/85 mmHg) or on drug treatment for hypertension
- e) Elevated glucose (HbA1c \geq 5.7%) or drug treatment for diabetes mellitus.

2.8. Explanatory variables

Twenty explanatory variables with potential to influence the presence of MetS were selected on the basis of a review of the literature: age; education; religion; caste; marital status; work status; annual household income; household size; current use of tobacco products; current use of smokeless tobacco products; alcohol use; frequency of adding salt or having pickles when eating; frequency of adding salt or salty seasoning when cooking or preparing food; frequency of consuming processed food high in salt; type of oil or fat used for meal preparation; consumption of sweetened beverages; consumption of meal products; level of physical activity; sedentary behavior; and history of heart attack or chest pain from heart disease or stroke.

2.9. Statistical analyses

Data were presented as frequencies and percentages for categorical variables, and as mean (standard deviation [SD]) and

Table 1

median (first quartile [O1], third quartile [O3]) for continuous variables. Differences in socio-demographics, health behaviors, and medical history by MetS were assessed using chi-squared (χ^2) tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) for categorical and continuous variables, respectively. Logistic regression analyses were conducted to identify variables associated with MetS. Variables found to be conservatively associated with MetS using χ^2 test or ANOVA (p < 0.20) or those of clinical importance were selected *a priori* to be included in the model. Variables were excluded from the model if there was little variation in response (i.e. if > 90% of the sample fell into a single response category); or if variables were highly correlated. Correlation and multicollinearity were assessed using Pearson's correlation coefficients (r) and variance inflation factors (VIFs) respectively (Montgomery et al, 2001). All analyses used a twotailed significance level of $\alpha \leq 0.05$ and were performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL).

3. Results

3.1. Characteristics of the study sample

The mean age of the women was 41.2 years and almost all reported their religion as Hindu (Table 1). The majority had no formal education and were married, and self-employed. In India, caste is used as a proxy measure for socioeconomic status within the community and approximately, 67% reported themselves as belonging to the lower caste. The mean household size was 3.1 persons. The median annual household income was \$1490 USD (IQR = \$776.93-2330.79 USD).

Few women currently smoked tobacco products daily (2.1%), however one-third currently used smokeless tobacco products

Sociodemographic characteristics of the study population from Rural Mysore, India.

Characteristic	n (%)
Age in years	
Mean (SD)	41.2 (8.452)
Median (Q1, Q3)	40.0 (34.0-47.0)
Highest level of education	
No formal education	271 (57.3)
Primary school or less	125 (26.4)
Secondary school or higher	77 (16.3)
Religion	
Hindu	467 (98.7)
Other (Muslim and Christian)	6 (1.3)
Marital status	
Married	366 (77.5)
Never married	2 (0.4)
Other (widowed, separated)	104 (22.0)
Work status	
Self employed	320 (67.7)
Housewife	114 (24.1)
Other (government employee, nongovernment/private employee)	39 (8.2)
Annual household income (USD)	
< \$1500	231 (50.3)
\geq \$1500	228 (49.7)
Household size	
Mean (SD)	3.1 (1.532)
Median (Q1, Q3)	3.0 (2.0, 4.0)

SD = standard deviation; Q1 = first quartile; Q3 = third quartile; USD= United States dollar.

Highest level of education: *Primary school or less* includes less than primary school (n = 73) and primary school completed (n = 52). *Secondary school or higher* includes secondary school completed (n = 28), high school completed (n = 35), college/university completed (n = 13), and post graduate degree (n = 1).

Religion: *Other* includes Muslim (n = 5) and Christian (n = 1).

Marital status: Other includes widowed (n = 84) and separated (n = 20).

Work status: *Other* includes government employee (n = 29), nongovernment/private employee (n = 8), retired (n = 1), and unemployed but able to work (n = 1).

Annual household income: 1 USD = 67.06 Indian Rupees (INR)

K. Krupp, P. Adsul, M.L. Wilcox et al.

Table 2

Factors associated with metabolic syndrome among rural women in Mysore, India.

Characteristic	Metabolic syndrome		
	Yes No		
	n (%)	n (%)	
	(<i>n</i> = 271)	(n = 200)	
Socio-demographics			
Mean age in years (SD)	42.7 (8.35)	38.7 (8.00)	< 0.001
Highest level of education			
No formal education	181 (62.2)	88 (48.9)	0.006
Primary school or less	63 (21.6)	62 (34.4)	
Secondary school or higher	47 (16.2)	30 (16.7)	
Caste			
Lower	271 (99.3)	174 (97.8)	0.219
Higher	2 (0.7)	4 (2.2)	
Marital status		140 (77.8)	0.270
Mained	225 (77.6)	140 (77.8)	0.378
Other	2 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	
Work status	05 (21.7)	40 (22.2)	
Self employed	183 (62.9)	135 (75.0)	0.024
Housewife	80 (27 5)	34 (18 9)	0.024
Other	28 (9.6)	11 (61)	
Annual household income (USD)	20 (010)		
< \$1500	144 (50.7)	86 (49.7)	0.837
> \$1500	140 (49.3)	87 (50.3)	
Mean household size (SD)	3.23 (1.637)	2.93 (1.331)	0.038
Health behaviors			
Currently smoke tobacco products			
Yes	6 (2.1)	4 (2.2)	0.911
No	284 (97.9)	176 (97.8)	
Currently use smokeless tobacco products			
Yes, daily	103 (35.6)	70 (38.9)	0.286
Yes, but not daily	19 (6.6)	6 (3.3)	
No	167 (57.8)	104 (57.8)	
Ever consumed alcohol			
Yes	35 (12.0)	12 (6.7)	0.059
No	256 (88.0)	168 (93.3)	
Frequency of adding salt or having pickles when eating			
Never/rarely	90 (31.0)	59 (32.8)	0.880
Sometimes	8 (2.8)	4 (2.2)	
Offen/always	192 (66.2)	117 (65.0)	
Nover	25 (12.0)	27 (15.0)	0 122
Loss than daily	12(41)	27 (13.0)	0.155
	12(4.1) 244(83.8)	14(7.6) 139(772)	
Frequency of consuming processed food high in salt	244 (05.0)	155 (77.2)	
Never	184 (63.2)	107 (57.8)	0 151
Less than weekly	53 (18.2)	29(161)	0.151
Weekly	54 (18.6)	47 (26 1)	
Sweetened beverages consumption (cups/day)	2.17 (1.425)	2.10 (1.263)	0.602
Frequency of meat product consumption (days/week)	1.28 (1.128)	1.22 (1.463)	0.656
Level of physical activity		()	
Inactive/low	26 (9.2)	10 (5.7)	0.023
Active	0 (0.0)	3 (1.7)	
Highly active	258 (90.8)	163 (92.6)	
Sedentary time in a typical day (minutes)	152.0 (92.211)	140.9 (82.969)	0.188
Medical history			
History of heart attack or chest pain from heart disease or stroke			
Yes	31 (10.7)	24 (13.4)	0.374
No	259 (89.3)	155 (86.6)	

SD = standard deviation; USD = United States dollar.

Metabolic syndrome is defined as meeting as least three of the following criteria¹: increased waist circumference $[\ge 80 \text{ cm} (\text{cm})]^2$; elevated triglycerides $[\ge 150 \text{ mg per deciliter} (\text{mg/dL})]^3$; low high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL) levels $[< 50 \text{ mg/dL}]^4$; elevated blood pressure $[\ge 130/85 \text{ mmHg}]$ or on drug treatment for hypertension⁵; elevated glucose [estimated average glucose level $\ge 100 \text{ mg/dL}]$ or on drug treatment for diabetes mellitus.

Highest level of education: *Primary school or less* includes less than primary school (n = 73) and primary school completed (n = 52). Secondary school or higher includes secondary school completed (n = 28), high school completed (n = 35), college/university completed (n = 13), and post graduate degree (n = 1). Religion: *Other* includes Muslim (n = 5) and Christian (n = 1).

Caste: Lower includes scheduled tribe (n = 242), scheduled caste (n = 80), and other backward castes (n = 125). Higher includes general castes (n = 6).

Marital status: *Other* includes widowed (n = 84) and separated (n = 20).

Work status: *Other* includes government employee (n = 29), nongovernment/private employee (n = 8), retired (n = 1), and unemployed but able to work (n = 1). Annual household income: 1 USD = 67.06 Indian Rupees (INR).

daily (37.2%). One out of ten reported ever consuming alcohol (9.9%). The majority of women frequently added salt or had pickles while eating (65.7%) and added salt or salty seasoning daily when cooking or preparing foods (81.4%). One out of five women consumed processed food high in salt at least weekly (21.6%). Vegetable oil was the most common type of oil or fat used for meal preparation among almost all women (99.8%). Women reported drinking an average of 2.1 (SD = 1.36) sweetened beverages per day, and consuming meat products on an average of 1.3 (SD = 1.24) days per week. Although most women were highly active (91.6%), women were sedentary on an average of 147.8 (SD = 88.7) minutes per day. One out of ten women reported having had a heart attack or chest pain from heart disease or a stroke (11.7%).

A majority (58%) of sampled responders lacked knowledge about modifiable risk factors. A significant percentage (70%) of participants failed to identify diabetes as a risk factor and only 67.7% of participants correctly identified smoking cigarettes as a modifiable risk factor for heart disease.

3.2. Prevalence of MetS

Nearly one in every two women had MetS (47.1%, n = 223). Of those with MetS, 56.5% met 3 of the 5 criteria, 32.2% met 4 criteria, and 11.2% met all 5 criteria. Among the entire sample, low HDL was the most prevalent criterion (88.4%), followed by elevated glucose (57.9%), elevated triglycerides (49.3%), elevated BP (41.5%), and increased waist circumference (15.3%).

3.2.1. Characteristics of women with MetS

Women with MetS were older than those without MetS (p < 0.001) (Table 2). A greater proportion of women with MetS were housewives (p = 0.001) and were inactive (p = 0.015). Women with MetS also tended to reside in households of greater size (p = 0.057). Although nonsignificant, a greater proportion of women with MetS reported consuming additional salt or salty seasoning when cooking or preparing food on a daily basis (p = 0.070), while a lower proportion of women with MetS reported consuming processed foods high in salt on a weekly basis (p = 0.020).

Table 3

Odds of having metabolic syndrome among rural women in Mysore, India.

3.2.2. Variable selection for logistic regression model

The following factors met the study's criterion for inclusion in the logistic regression model: age; highest level of education; work status; household size; frequency of adding salt or salty seasoning when cooking or preparing food; frequency of consuming processed food high in salt; and sweetened beverage consumption. The following factors were excluded from the logistic regression model because at least 90% of the reported response fell into a single response category: religion; current use of tobacco products; alcohol use; type of oil or fat used for meal preparation; and level of physical activity. Additionally, the following factors were excluded because they were not conservatively associated with MetS (p > 0.20): caste; marital status; annual household income; current use of smokeless tobacco products; frequency of adding salt or pickles when eating; consumption of meal products; and history of heart attack or chest pain from heart disease or stroke.

3.3. Factors associated with MetS

Results of the logistic regression analysis are presented in Table 3. Age and work status were the only significant determinants of MetS in the adjusted model. Odds of MetS increased by 7% with every one-year increase in age (adjusted odds ratio [AOR] = 1.070; 95%CI: 1.049, 1.108; p < 0.001). Being a housewife or other kinds of employment had increased odds (AOR: 2.261 and 3.031 respectively) as compared to being self-employed.

4. Discussion

In the present study, almost one out of two women living in rural Mysore had MetS (47.1%, n = 223). Among the entire sample, low HDL was the most prevalent criterion (88.4%), followed by elevated glucose (57.9%), elevated triglycerides (49.3%), elevated BP (41.5%), and increased waist circumference (15.3%). In this sample, older women and women who were self-employed or housewives had higher odds of having MetS.

Our findings show a striking increase in MetS over previous studies in rural populations that found a MetS prevalence ranging from 16.8% to 28.6% among women. This finding is consistent with projections that cardiovascular disease is increasing and is

Characteristic	Unadjusted model			Adjusted m	Adjusted model			
	OR	95% CI	p-value	AOR	95% CI	p-value		
Age (in years)	1.062	(1.036, 1.088)	< 0.001	1.050	(1.023, 1.078)	< 0.001		
Highest level of education								
No formal education	1.313	(0.777, 2.217)	0.309	0.980	(0.558, 1.721)	0.943		
Primary school or less	0.649	(0.364, 1.155)	0.141	0.619	(0.339, 1.131)	0.119		
Secondary school or higher	Ref.	_	_	Ref.	_	_		
Household size	1.155	(1.007, 1.325)	0.040	1.072	(0.933, 1.232)	0.329		
Frequency of adding salt/salty seasoning when cooking/preparing food								
Never	Ref.	_	-	Ref.	_	_		
Less than daily	0.661	(0.263, 1.659)	0.378	0.819	(0.290, 2.311)	0.706		
Daily	1.354	(0.786, 2.332)	0.274	1.362	(0.765, 2.426)	0.293		
Frequency of consuming processed food high in salt								
Never	Ref.	_	_	Ref.	_	_		
Less than weekly	1.033	(0.619, 1.725)	0.901	1.174	(0.661, 2.085)	0.584		
Weekly	0.649	(0.410, 1.028)	0.065	0.697	(0.427, 1.136)	0.148		
Sedentary time in a typical day (minutes)	1.001	(0.999, 1.004)	0.189	1.001	(0.998, 1.003)	0.525		

OR = odds ratio; AOR = adjusted odds ratio; CI = confidence interval.

Metabolic syndrome is defined as meeting as least three of the following criteria¹: increased waist circumference $[\ge 80 \text{ cm} (\text{cm})]^2$; elevated triglycerides $[\ge 150 \text{ mg per deciliter} (\text{mg/dL})]^3$; low high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL) levels $[< 50 \text{ mg/dL}]^4$; elevated blood pressure $[\ge 130/85 \text{ mmHg}]$ or on drug treatment for hypertension⁵; elevated glucose [estimated average glucose level $\ge 100 \text{ mg/dL}]$ or on drug treatment for diabetes mellitus.

Highest level of education: *Primary school or less* includes less than primary school (n = 73) and primary school completed (n = 52). Secondary school or higher includes secondary school completed (n = 28), high school completed (n = 35), college/university completed (n = 13), and post graduate degree (n = 1).

projected to reach 13.5% among the rural elderly (60-69 years old) based on the rising prevalence of risk factors.³³ A recent study in 45 rural villages in Andhra Pradesh, reported that cardiovascular disease already accounted for about a third of all deaths.³⁴ Based on our findings, it seems likely that those trends are continuing and perhaps accelerating. Another study in and around Vellore, Tamil Nadu, compared the current prevalence of CVD risk factors with that in the early 1990s among 12,000 rural and urban individuals. found that the rate of diabetes, hypertension, overweight/obesity and alcohol use has increased significantly in both settings, but rural populations showed the worst trends for all risk factors.³⁵ In the rural areas, there was a trebling of diabetes and overweight/ obesity, and a doubling of the prevalence of hypertension. On the positive side, the proportion of male current smokers had reduced by 50% in both settings, but lifetime abstainers to alcohol had decreased in the rural area from 46.8% to 37.5%.

Given India's limited public health resources there is a compelling public health need for health promotion and prevention interventions to reduce the alarming rate of increase in CHD. While the level of knowledge about modifiable risk factors among India's rural populations is largely unknown, a study in the general population study found low knowledge about heart disease and its determinants.³⁶

This study has limitations and strengths. Findings might not be generalizable as this was not a population-based probability sample. It is possible that only a small percentage of eligible women may have actually attended the screening clinic. It is possible that more of those with pre-existing diseases like diabetes or hypertension may have attended the clinic leading to the possible high prevalence of MetS. There is a potential for information bias as women were selfreporting several behavioral risk factor information which might be over or under reported due to recall and social desirability bias. On the other hand, the strengths of this study include having a large community-based sample of women, standardized laboratory testing and using tested and validated WHO STEPs instruments for evaluation of the risk factor information.

In conclusion, there is an alarming rise in the prevalence of MetS in rural areas that will eventually be reflected in increasing morbidity and mortality from heart disease. There is an urgent need to target interventions to rural women who appear to have the highest prevalence of cardiovascular risk factor. In this population, prevention strategies should target knowledge and management of serum cholesterol and high blood pressure, which are both treatable and represent the most common preventable risk factors in this population.

Funding

PA, PM and the research reported in this publication were supported by NIH Fogarty R25 TW009338. KK, PM were supported by the National Institutes of Health/FIC, NHLBI, NINDS Award # D43 TW010540. PM was funded by National Institutes of Health/NIAID #1R15AI128714-01.

Conflict of interest

All authors have none to declare.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the staff at Public Health Research Institute of India and the women who participated in the study. The authors also wish to acknowledge the Global Health Equity Scholars Program grant (R25 TW009338, D43 TW010540) funded by the Fogarty International Center and the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute at the National Institutes of Health for the funding that made the preparation of this manuscript possible. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ihj.2020.09.015.

References

- Das UN. Metabolic Syndrome Pathophysiology: The Role of Essential Fatty Acids. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons; 2010.
- Smith SR. Importance of diagnosing and treating the metabolic syndrome in reducing cardiovascular risk. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2006;14, 1285-345.
- 3. Lee L, Sanders RA. Metabolic syndrome. *Pediatr Rev.* 2012;33:459–466. quiz 67-8.
- Huang PL. A comprehensive definition for metabolic syndrome. Dis Model Mech. 2009;2:231–237.
- Mahjoub S, Masrour-Roudsari J. Role of oxidative stress in pathogenesis of metabolic syndrome. Caspian J Intern Med. 2012;3:386–396.
- Wu SH, Liu Z, Ho SC. Metabolic syndrome and all-cause mortality: a metaanalysis of prospective cohort studies. Eur J Epidemiol. 2010;25:375–384.
- Galassi A, Reynolds K, He J. Metabolic syndrome and risk of cardiovascular disease: a meta-analysis. Am J Med. 2006;119:812-819.
- Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Satyavani K, Sivasankari S, Vijay V. Metabolic syndrome in urban Asian Indian adults–a population study using modified ATP III criteria. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2003;60:199–204.
- Manjunath D, Uthappa CK, Kattula SR, Allam RR, Chava N, Oruganti G. Metabolic syndrome among urban Indian young adults: prevalence and associated risk factors. *Metab Syndr Relat Disord*. 2014;12:381–389.
- Sawant A, Mankeshwar R, Shah S, et al. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in urban India. *Cholesterol.* 2011;2011:920983.
- Prasad DS, Kabir Z, Dash AK, Das BC. Prevalence and risk factors for metabolic syndrome in Asian Indians: a community study from urban Eastern India. *J Cardiovasc Dis Res.* 2012;3:204–211.
- Madan JGNA. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in Mumbai City, India. J Obes Metab Res. 2016;3:16–22.
- **13.** Gupta R, Deedwania PC, Gupta A, Rastogi S, Panwar RB, Kothari K. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in an Indian urban population. *Int J Cardiol.* 2004;97: 257–261.
- Parvathamma NPD. Information literacy among the rural community in an economically backward region of Karnataka state, India. J Agric Food Inf. 2013;13. https://doi.org/10.1080/10496505.2013.747149.
- Barik ADK, Chowdhury A, Rai RK. Metabolic syndrome among rural Indian adults. *Clin. Nutr. ESPEN.* 2018 Feb;23:129–135. https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.clnesp.2017.11.002. Epub 2017 Dec 1. PMID: 29460788.
- Kamble P, Deshmukh PR, Garg N. Metabolic syndrome in adult population of rural Wardha, central India. *Indian J Med Res.* 2010;132:701–705.
- 17. Chow CK, Raju PK, Raju R, et al. The prevalence and management of diabetes in rural India. *Diabetes Care*. 2006;29:1717–1718.
- Harikrishnan S, Sarma S, Sanjay G, et al. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome and its risk factors in Kerala, South India: analysis of a community based crosssectional study. *PloS One*. 2018;13, e0192372.
- Chakraborty SN, Roy SK, Rahaman MA. Epidemiological predictors of metabolic syndrome in urban West Bengal, India. J Fam Med Prim Care. 2015;4:535–538.
- Kaushal SKGV, Prakash G, Misra SK. Correlates of metabolic syndrome and prevalence among urban population of Agra, Uttar Pradesh, India. Int J Community Med Public Health. 2016;3:3570–3575.
- **21.** Kim S, So WY. Prevalence and correlates of metabolic syndrome and its components in elderly Korean adults. *Exp Gerontol.* 2016;84:107–112.
- Sun K, Ren M, Liu D, Wang C, Yang C, Yan L. Alcohol consumption and risk of metabolic syndrome: a meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Clin Nutr.* 2014;33:596–602.
- Choi JH, Woo HD, Lee JH, Kim J. Dietary patterns and risk for metabolic syndrome in Korean women: a cross-sectional study. *Medicine (Baltim)*. 2015;94: e1424.
- 24. Vikram NK, Pandey RM, Misra A, Sharma R, Devi JR, Khanna N. Non-obese (body mass index < 25 kg/m2) Asian Indians with normal waist circumference have high cardiovascular risk. *Nutrition*. 2003;19:503–509.
- Misra A, Wasir JS, Vikram NK. Waist circumference criteria for the diagnosis of abdominal obesity are not applicable uniformly to all populations and ethnic groups. *Nutrition*. 2005;21:969–976.
- 26. Mehta S, Mahajan D, Steinbeck KS, Bermingham MA. Relationship between measures of fatness, lipids and ethnicity in a cohort of adolescent boys. Ann Nutr Metab. 2002;46:192–199.

K. Krupp, P. Adsul, M.L. Wilcox et al.

- 27. Ram CV, Farmer JA. Metabolic syndrome in South Asians. J Clin Hypertens. 2012;14:561–565.
- 28. Alberti KG, Eckel RH, Grundy SM, et al. Harmonizing the metabolic syndrome: a joint interim statement of the international diabetes federation Task Force on Epidemiology and prevention; national heart, Lung, and blood Institute; American heart association; World heart federation; international Atherosclerosis society; and international association for the study of obesity. *Circulation*. 2009;120:1640–1645.
- 2011 Census Data. *Ministry of Home Affairs* [Internet]. Government of India;
 2011 [cited January 23, 2018]. Available from: http://www.censusindia.gov.in/
 2011-Common/CensusData2011.html.
- Adsul P, Srinivas V, Gowda S, et al. A community-based, cross-sectional study of hrHPV DNA self-sampling-based cervical cancer screening in rural Karnataka, India. Int J Gynaecol Obstet. 2019;146:170–176.
- WHO. Ten Years of the WHO STEPwise Approach to Chronic Disease Risk Factor Surveillance (STEPS): Challenges and Opportunities. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2009.
- **32.** Siu PM, Yuen QS. Supplementary use of HbA1c as hyperglycemic criterion to detect metabolic syndrome. *Diabetol Metab Syndr*. 2014;6:119.
- Bhawan N. NCMH Background Papers—Burden of Disease in India. Delhi, India: Government of India Ministry of Health & Family Welfare; 2005.
 Joshi R, Cardona M, Iyengar S, et al. Chronic diseases now a leading cause of
- 34. Joshi R, Cardona M, Iyengar S, et al. Chronic diseases now a leading cause of death in rural India–mortality data from the Andhra Pradesh Rural Health Initiative. Int J Epidemiol. 2006;35:1522–1529.
- **35.** Oommen AM, Abraham VJ, George K, Jose VJ. Rising trend of cardiovascular risk factors between 1991-1994 and 2010-2012: a repeat cross sectional survey in urban and rural Vellore. *Indian Heart J.* 2016;68:263–269.
- 36. Saeed O, Gupta V, Dhawan N, et al. Knowledge of modifiable risk factors of Coronary Atherosclerotic Heart Disease (CASHD) among a sample in India. BMC Int Health Hum Rights. 2009;9:2.