

⁴Department of Laboratory Medicine, Mie University School of Medicine, Mie, Japan; and the ³Department of Health and Physical Education, Mie University School of Education, Mie, Japan.

Address correspondence to Y. Sumida, MD, Department of Internal Medicine, Mie University School of Medicine, 2-174 Edobashi, Tsu, Mie, 514-8507, Japan. E-mail: sumidaya@clin.medic.mie-u.ac.jp.

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A Patient With Extreme Insulin Resistance Syndrome Treated With Pioglitazone

Genetic types of extreme insulin resistance include type A insulin resistance syndrome, leprechaunism, congenital generalized lipodystrophy, and Rabson-Mendelhall syndrome (1). Acanthosis nigricans and ovarian masculinization are frequently associated with these syndromes. Genetic defects in insulin action at the receptor or postreceptor levels are responsible for insulin resistance. Since thiazolidinediones enhance insulin sensitivity in patients with insulin resistance, we administered pioglitazone to an insulin-resistant patient with a mutation of the insulin receptor.

A 15-year-old Japanese female was referred to the hospital for an evaluation of hirsutism. Acanthosis nigricans was present in the axillary area and on the neck. She had been amenorrheic since menarche at the age of 12 years. She had two elder sisters, one of whom had the same phenotype. The other sister and the mother of this individual appeared to be unaffected. The father died from laryngocarcinoma at the age of 45 years after being on hemodialysis due to diabetic renal failure. The patient was normoglycemic (glucose 69 mg/dl) and hyperinsulinemic (immunoreactive insulin [IRI] 148 μ U/ml) under fasting conditions. The homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance was 25.21, and the serum testosterone level was elevated (1.23 ng/ml). A 75-g oral glucose tolerance test generated the following values: glucose 59, 161, 195, and 184 mg/dl and IRI 109, 300, 450, and 695 μ U/ml at 0, 30, 60, and 120 min, respectively. Thus, insulin resistance was marked, and hyperandrogenemia was evident. We determined partial DNA sequences of the insulin receptor gene of this patient and found heterogeneous triplet basic deletion from exon 17 of the human insulin receptor gene that resulted in a leucine deletion at amino acid 1,026.

We administered 15 mg/day of pioglitazone. Although fasting glucose levels were not changed, fasting IRI decreased from 148 to 104 μ U/ml and HbA_{1c} (A1C) decreased from 6.0 to 4.5% after 5 months. We continued pioglitazone (15

mg/day), and after another 5 months, fasting IRI decreased to 73 μ U/ml and A1C to 4.4%. The serum testosterone level decreased from 1.23 to 0.97 ng/ml after 5 months and normalized to 0.68 ng/ml after 10 months. Menstruation recovered after pioglitazone for 2 months. Before treatment, plasma leptin and adiponectin levels were elevated to 15.9 ng/ml and 19.8 μ g/ml, respectively. Serum adiponectin increased to 30.5 μ g/ml after pioglitazone for 5 months, while the leptin level remained similar.

A number of studies suggest an important link between adiponectin and insulin resistance (2). Although its physiological and pathophysiological role has not been fully elucidated, its low levels in insulin-resistant states suggest that therapeutic modulation of adiponectin may provide a novel treatment modality for insulin resistance (2). Interestingly, the level of adiponectin in this case was not low, but pioglitazone further increased the serum adiponectin level. Thus, pioglitazone might have been beneficial to this patient via both adiponectin-dependent and -independent pathways (3).

The mutation in this patient was situated in the ATP binding site of the insulin receptor β subunit (4). This might disturb the intrinsic tyrosine kinase activity that is essential for signal transduction. However, the means by which the heterogeneous mutation caused insulin resistance remains to be elucidated. Pioglitazone attenuated insulin resistance and ameliorated masculinization. Thus, thiazolidinediones should be considered for treating patients with extreme insulin resistance syndrome. Coadministration of pioglitazone with IGF-1 (5) might be a more optimal treatment strategy for patients with such extreme syndromes.

YOSHIYUKI HATTORI, MD, PHD¹
HIROKO SATOH, PHD¹
TAKASHI NAMATAME, PHD²
SACHIKO HATTORI, MD, PHD¹
KIKUO KASAI, MD, PHD¹

From the ¹Department of Endocrinology and Metabolism, Dokkyo University School of Medicine, Mibu, Japan; and the ²Institute for Medical Science, Dokkyo University School of Medicine, Mibu, Japan.

Address correspondence to Dr. Yoshiyuki Hattori, MD, PhD, Department of Endocrinology and Metabolism, Dokkyo University School of Medicine, Mibu, Tochigi 321-0293, Japan. E-mail: yhattori@dokkyomed.ac.jp.

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A Continuous Metabolic Syndrome Risk Score

Utility for epidemiological analyses

This study was designed to validate a continuous metabolic syndrome risk score (cMSy) using the International Diabetes Federation risk factors (1). Increasing evidence supports using a cMSy instead of a binary definition for epidemiological analyses: 1) dichotomizing continuous outcome variables reduces statistical power (2); 2) cardiovascular risk is a progressive function of several metabolic syndrome (MSy) risk factors, eliminating the need to dichotomize these factors (3); and 3) cardiovascular and diabetes risk increase progressively with increasing numbers of MSy risk factors, eliminating the need to dichotomize MSy (3–4).

The National Institute of Statistics randomly selected a community sample

of 18- to 75-year-old Flemish adults. In total, 571 men (aged 46.7 ± 11.2 years) and 449 women (aged 45.8 ± 10.8 years) without cardiovascular disease and diabetes, tested between October 2002 and April 2004, were included.

Calculation of cMSy involved two steps. First, principal component (PC) analysis (varimax rotation) was applied to the normalized risk factors to derive PCs representing large fractions of MSy variance, revealing two PCs (eigenvalue ≥ 1.0). In men, PC1 and PC2 explained 33 and 28% of variance, respectively (loadings PC1 [PC2]: waist circumference 0.51 [0.55], triglycerides 0.82 [0.16], HDL cholesterol -0.85 [0.09], blood pressure 0.12 [0.72], and glucose -0.08 [0.73]). In women, PC1 and PC2 explained 33 and 27% of variance, respectively (loadings PC1 [PC2]: waist circumference 0.61 [0.54], triglycerides 0.42 [0.49], HDL cholesterol 0.12 [-0.90], blood pressure 0.83 [0.01], and glucose 0.62 [0.04]). Second, cMSy was computed by summing both individual PC scores, each weighted for the relative contribution of PC1 and PC2 in the explained variance. Resulting cMSy was 0 ± 1.42 in men and 0 ± 1.41 in women.

cMSy was higher ($P < 0.001$) in subjects with MSy as defined by the International Diabetes Federation (1) (men [12.8%]: 2.03 ± 1.00 , women [8.5%]: 2.63 ± 1.28) versus subjects without (men: -0.30 ± 1.21 , women: -0.24 ± 1.16). Moreover, cMSy increased progressively (Tukey's honestly significant difference comparison, $P < 0.001$) with increasing numbers of risk factors in men (0 [30.1%]: -1.21 ± 0.96 ; 1 [33.8%]: -0.26 ± 0.87 ; 2 [21.2%]: 0.67 ± 0.84 ; 3 [11.2%]: 1.76 ± 0.73 ; and ≥ 4 [3.7%]: 3.04 ± 0.94) and women (0 [47.7%]: -0.96 ± 0.79 ; 1 [28.3%]: 0.16 ± 0.82 ; 2 [16.3%]: 1.21 ± 0.82 ; 3 [5.3%]: 2.17 ± 0.81 ; and ≥ 4 [2.4%]: 4.09 ± 0.99).

cMSy is a more appropriate (2–4) and valid alternative for epidemiological analyses, although the binary definition (1) remains useful for clinical practice.

KATRIEN WIJNDAELE, MA¹

GASTON BEUNEN, PHD²

NATHALIE DUVIGNEAUD, MA³

LYNN MATTON, MA²

WILLIAM DUQUET, PHD³

MARTINE THOMIS, PHD²

JOHAN LEFEVRE, PHD²

RENAAT M. PHILIPPAERTS, PHD¹

From the ¹Department of Movement and Sports Sciences, Ghent University, Ghent, Belgium; the ²Department of Biomedical Kinesiology, Faculty of Kinesiology and Rehabilitation Sciences, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Leuven, Belgium; and the ³Faculty of Physical Education and Physical Therapy, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Brussels, Belgium.

Address correspondence to Renaat Philippaerts, PhD, Department of Movement and Sports Sciences, Ghent University, Watersportlaan 2, 9000 Ghent, Belgium. E-mail: renaat.philippaerts@ugent.be

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Reversibility of Antipsychotic Treatment-Related Diabetes in Patients With Schizophrenia

A case series of switching to aripiprazole

At present, antipsychotic drugs are not specifically referred to in the list of substances that can induce diabetes in the most recent American Diabetes Association guidelines (1), but there is a growing body of evidence that antipsychotic drugs might have diabetogenic properties (2,3). At present, there are no clear guidelines on what the best therapeutic strategies are when diabetes is detected during treatment with antipsy-