

Prediabetes Diagnosis and Management

William H. Herman, MD, MPH

The Diabetes Prevention Program (DPP) was a multicenter, randomized clinical trial that demonstrated that people at high risk for type 2 diabetes could delay or prevent diabetes with healthy dietary changes combined with moderate physical activity or by taking metformin.¹



Related article [page 1206](#)

Since the DPP was published in 2002, the medical and public health communities have been challenged to translate its results into clinical and public health practice. The term *prediabetes*, defined as an intermediate state of glycemia between normal glucose regulation and diabetes that is associated with an increased risk of diabetes and cardiovascular disease, was coined to identify individuals at high risk for type 2 diabetes who might benefit from interventions that prevent diabetes. However, the imprecise definition of the term *prediabetes* has impeded efficient and cost-effective translation of the DPP results.

In 1979, the National Diabetes Data Group defined impaired glucose tolerance (IGT) as a glucose level of 140 through 199 mg/dL (7.8-11.0 mmol/L), measured 2 hours after a 75-g oral glucose load, and indicated that people with IGT had a higher risk of developing diabetes than people without IGT.² Approximately 1% to 5% of people with IGT developed overt diabetes annually, but many returned to normal glucose regulation spontaneously.² Screening for IGT was recommended only when it was feasible to intervene to prevent diabetes. At the time, no effective and safe interventions for diabetes prevention had been identified.

Randomized clinical trials subsequently used the oral glucose tolerance test to identify eligible participants and demonstrated that diabetes prevention was feasible.^{1,3,4} Because of logistical difficulties performing oral glucose tolerance tests in routine clinical practice,⁵ simpler criteria were sought to identify people at increased risk for developing diabetes. The term *prediabetes* was coined to identify people at increased near-term risk of diabetes. However, prediabetes was defined without the scientific rigor used to conduct the diabetes prevention clinical trials, and definitions differed across organizations and countries.

In 1997 and 1998, the American Diabetes Association (ADA) and the World Health Organization (WHO) introduced the concept of impaired fasting glucose (IFG) as a category of increased risk for diabetes analogous to IGT.^{6,7} Initially, both the ADA and WHO defined IFG as a fasting plasma glucose (FPG) level of 110 to 125 mg/dL (6.1-6.9 mmol/L). In 2003, after results of the DPP clinical trial were published, the ADA recognized that an FPG of 110 to 125 mg/dL identified fewer people than were identified with the oral glucose tolerance test and changed its diagnostic criterion for IFG to 100 to 125

mg/dL (5.6-6.9 mmol/L).⁸ In 2009, an International Expert Committee studied the relationships among FPG, 2-hour plasma glucose (2h-PG), and glycated hemoglobin (HbA_{1c}) and prevalent retinopathy.⁹ The committee recognized that an HbA_{1c} level of 6.5% or higher, like the criteria for IFG and IGT, was associated with an increased risk of retinopathy and recommended this threshold to diagnose diabetes. The group also concluded that in individuals with HbA_{1c} levels of 6% to less than 6.5% were “likely to be at the highest risk for progression to diabetes.”⁹

In this issue of *JAMA*, a Review by Echouffo-Tcheugui and colleagues discusses the diagnosis and management of prediabetes.¹⁰ The Review summarizes 5 different definitions of prediabetes proposed by international organizations. The FPG criterion recommended by the ADA is 100 to 125 mg/dL whereas that recommended by the WHO is 110-125 mg/dL. Similarly, the HbA_{1c} criterion recommended by the ADA is 5.7% to 6.4% whereas that recommended by the International Expert Committee is 6.0% to 6.4% (to convert HbA_{1c} to mmol/mol, use the equation $[10.93 \times \text{HbA}_{1c}] - 23.50$). Consensus exists only for the definition of IGT. The differences between these criteria are sizable and result in large differences in the prevalence of prediabetes, the risk of progression to diabetes, and the effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of interventions for diabetes prevention. In an effort to increase enrollment in lifestyle change programs, eligibility criteria for inclusion in the National Diabetes Prevention Program were expanded by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) to include a positive result on the CDC-ADA Prediabetes Risk Questionnaire. However, the risk questionnaire has relatively low sensitivity (72%-76%) and specificity (54%) in identifying people with prediabetes.¹¹

The prevalence of prediabetes in the US varies substantially when FPG, HbA_{1c}, and 2-hour PG diagnostic criteria are used (28.3%, 21.7%, and 13.3%, respectively),¹² and concordance between diagnostic criteria is poor. An analysis of National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey data from 2015-2016 demonstrated that 51.3% of the US population met the criteria for at least 1 of the ADA recommended definitions of prediabetes, but only 2.5% of the US population met criteria for all 3 criteria.¹³ The risk of progression to type 2 diabetes varied substantially according to the criterion that defined prediabetes. At 5-year follow-up, 18% of individuals with IFG of 100 to 125 mg/dL, 26% of those with IFG of 110 to 125 mg/dL, 39% of those with IGT, 50% of those with IFG and IGT, 25% of those with HbA_{1c} 5.7% to 6.4%, and 38% of those with HbA_{1c} 6.0% to 6.4% progressed to type 2 diabetes.¹⁴

In secondary analyses, the DPP research group evaluated HbA_{1c} as a criterion for eligibility for the DPP clinical trial and

assessed the effects of the lifestyle, metformin, and placebo interventions on diabetes incidence defined by HbA_{1c} of 6.5% or higher. Of the DPP participants without diabetes who had FPG of 95 mg/dL or more and 2-hour PG 140 to 199 mg/dL with HbA_{1c} levels measured at baseline, 13% had diabetes at baseline defined by HbA_{1c} of 6.5% or higher and 38% had normal glucose regulation defined by HbA_{1c} of less than 5.7%.¹⁵ Of the 49% of DPP participants deemed eligible to participate based on HbA_{1c} levels of 5.7% to 6.4% at baseline, the metformin and lifestyle interventions each prevented HbA_{1c}-defined diabetes.¹⁵

The term *prediabetes* is problematic because it suggests that individuals with the condition will develop diabetes and that individuals who do not meet the criterion for prediabetes are unlikely to develop diabetes. Neither of these assumptions is completely true. When more sensitive and less-specific criteria such as FPG 100 to 125 mg/dL are used to define prediabetes, the likelihood of reverting to normal glucose values is greater than the risk of developing diabetes.¹⁶ Classification of individuals as high-risk or low-risk based on a single measure of glycemia is suboptimal because the risk for progression to diabetes is a continuum, and when assigning risk to implement prevention strategies, risk factors other than diabetes must be considered.⁹

Although randomized clinical trials such as the DPP can demonstrate whether treatments are effective, response to treatment varies.¹⁷ Focusing on aggregate results from the randomized treatment groups may lead to the faulty inference that an effective treatment provides equal benefits to everyone. Understanding this phenomenon, termed “heterogeneity of treatment effects,”¹⁸ requires knowledge about which participants do and do not benefit from the treatment. Treatment benefits generally increase as an individual’s baseline risk increases. Sussman et al¹⁹ reported that among participants in the DPP randomized to metformin, the risk of

progression to diabetes at 3 years was reduced by 22 percentage points (60% in the control group vs 38% in the metformin group) in the one-fourth of participants at highest risk for developing diabetes. No benefit was observed in the one-fourth of participants at lowest risk. Among participants randomized to the lifestyle intervention, the 3-year risk of developing diabetes was reduced by 40 percentage points (59% in the control group vs 19% in the lifestyle intervention group) among those at highest risk compared with 8 percentage points (12% in the control group vs 4% in the lifestyle intervention group) among those at lowest risk of developing diabetes.²⁰ Benefit-based tailored treatment uses multivariable models to predict an individual’s risk of progression to diabetes and regression to normal glucose regulation based on clinical characteristics including measures of glycemia. Only by considering multiple risk factors can an individual’s level of risk and likelihood of responding to a treatment be assessed. Although all 3 diagnostic criteria (FPG, HbA_{1c}, and 2-hour PG) for prediabetes are useful, none by itself is adequate to define individual risk.²⁰

The effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of an intervention depend on an individual’s baseline risk.²¹ Intervening for an individual at no risk will not change the outcome and the resources spent for the intervention will not add value. Intervention effectiveness and cost-effectiveness are greatest when individuals at higher risk receive the intervention. Current thresholds for defining prediabetes using fasting glucose, HbA_{1c}, and 2-hour PG levels do not identify a homogeneous population. The imprecise term “prediabetes” should be abandoned and replaced with simple multivariable risk models that include measures of glycemia and sociodemographic and clinical information to estimate each individual’s risk. Such models should be used to select the optimal intervention strategy for diabetes prevention for each individual.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

Author Affiliations: Department of Internal Medicine, Division of Metabolism, Endocrinology, and Diabetes, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor; Department of Epidemiology, School of Public Health, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Corresponding Author: William H. Herman, MD, MPH, University of Michigan, Department of Internal Medicine, 1000 Wall St, Room 6108, SPC 5714, Ann Arbor, MI 48105-1912 (wherman@med.umich.edu).

Conflict of Interest Disclosures: Dr Herman was supported by National Institutes of Health (NIH) grant P30 DK020572 and the Stefan S. Fajans/GlaxoSmithKline Endowed Professorship during the conduct of this work; he also reported receiving personal fees from Merck Sharp & Dohme as a member of a data and safety monitoring board and grants from the CDC and NIH for research outside the submitted work.

REFERENCES

1. Knowler WC, Barrett-Connor E, Fowler SE, et al; Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group. Reduction in the incidence of type 2 diabetes with lifestyle intervention or metformin. *N Engl J Med*. 2002;346(6):393-403. doi:10.1056/NEJMoA012512

2. National Diabetes Data Group. Classification and diagnosis of diabetes mellitus and other categories of glucose intolerance. *Diabetes*. 1979;28(12):1039-1057. doi:10.2337/diab.28.12.1039

3. Tuomilehto J, Lindström J, Eriksson JG, et al; Finnish Diabetes Prevention Study Group. Prevention of type 2 diabetes mellitus by changes in lifestyle among subjects with impaired glucose tolerance. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;344(18):1343-1350. doi:10.1056/NEJM200105033441801

4. Ramachandran A, Snehalatha C, Mary S, Mukesh B, Bhaskar AD, Vijay V; Indian Diabetes Prevention Programme (IDPP). The Indian Diabetes Prevention Programme shows that lifestyle modification and metformin prevent type 2 diabetes in Asian Indian subjects with impaired glucose tolerance (IDPP-1). *Diabetologia*. 2006;49(2):289-297. doi:10.1007/s00125-005-0097-z

5. Ealovega MW, Tabaei BP, Brandle M, Burke R, Herman WH. Opportunistic screening for diabetes in routine clinical practice. *Diabetes Care*. 2004;27(1):9-12. doi:10.2337/diacare.27.1.9

6. Expert Committee on the Diagnosis and Classification of Diabetes Mellitus. Report of the Expert Committee on the Diagnosis and Classification of Diabetes Mellitus. *Diabetes Care*. 1997;20(7):1183-1197. doi:10.2337/diacare.20.7.1183

7. Alberti KG, Zimmet PZ. Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications. Part 1: diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus provisional report of a WHO consultation. *Diabet Med*. 1998;15(7):539-553. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1096-9136(199807)15:7<539::AID-DIA668>3.0.CO;2-S

8. Genuth S, Alberti KG, Bennett P, et al; Expert Committee on the Diagnosis and Classification of Diabetes Mellitus. Follow-up report on the diagnosis of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care*. 2003; 26(11):3160-3167. doi:10.2337/diacare.26.11.3160

9. International Expert Committee. International Expert Committee report on the role of the A1C assay in the diagnosis of diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2009;32(7):1327-1334. doi:10.2337/dc09-9033

10. Echouffo-Tcheugui JB, Perreault L, Ji L, Dagogo-Jack S. Diagnosis and management of prediabetes: a review. *JAMA*. Published April 11, 2023. doi:10.1001/jama.2023.4063

11. Poltavskiy E, Kim DJ, Bang H. Comparison of screening scores for diabetes and prediabetes. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 2016;118:146-153. doi:10.1016/j.diabres.2016.06.022

12. Menke A, Casagrande S, Cowie CC. Contributions of A1c, fasting plasma glucose, and 2-hour plasma glucose to prediabetes prevalence:

- NHANES 2011-2014. *Ann Epidemiol*. 2018;28(10):681-685.e2. doi:10.1016/j.annepidem.2018.07.012
13. Echouffo-Tcheugui JB, Selvin E. Prediabetes and What It Means: The Epidemiological Evidence. *Annu Rev Public Health*. 2021;42:59-77. doi:10.1146/annurev-publhealth-090419-102644
14. Richter B, Hemmingsen B, Metzendorf MI, Takwoingi Y. Development of type 2 diabetes mellitus in people with intermediate hyperglycaemia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2018;10(10):CD012661. doi:10.1002/14651858.CD012661.pub2
15. Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group. HbA1c as a predictor of diabetes and as an outcome in the diabetes prevention program: a randomized clinical trial. *Diabetes Care*. 2015;38(1):51-58. doi:10.2337/dc14-0886
16. Lazo-Porras M, Bernabe-Ortiz A, Ruiz-Alejos A, et al. Regression from prediabetes to normal glucose levels is more frequent than progression towards diabetes: The CRONICAS Cohort Study. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 2020;163:107829. doi:10.1016/j.diabres.2019.107829
17. Davidoff F. Can Knowledge About Heterogeneity in Treatment Effects Help Us Choose Wisely? *Ann Intern Med*. 2017;166(2):141-142. doi:10.7326/M16-1721
18. Dahabreh IJ, Kazi DS. Toward personalizing care: assessing heterogeneity of treatment effects in randomized trials. *JAMA*. Published online March 21, 2023. doi:10.1001/jama.2023.3576
19. Sussman JB, Kent DM, Nelson JP, Hayward RA. Improving diabetes prevention with benefit based tailored treatment: risk based reanalysis of Diabetes Prevention Program. *BMJ*. 2015;350:h454. doi:10.1136/bmj.h454
20. Herman WH, Pan Q, Edelstein SL, et al; Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group. Impact of lifestyle and metformin interventions on the risk of progression to diabetes and regression to normal glucose regulation in overweight or obese people with impaired glucose regulation. *Diabetes Care*. 2017;40(12):1668-1677. doi:10.2337/dc17-1116
21. Herman WH. The cost-effectiveness of diabetes prevention: results from the Diabetes Prevention Program and the Diabetes Prevention Program Outcomes Study. *Clin Diabetes Endocrinol*. 2015;1:9. doi:10.1186/s40842-015-0009-1