

with additional factors such as obesity and family history compounding the risk. In addition, individuals with pre-diabetes also harbor a significant risk for cardiovascular complications.

Classification

Although all forms of diabetes mellitus share hyperglycemia as a common feature, the underlying abnormalities involved in the development of hyperglycemia vary widely. The previous classification schemes of diabetes mellitus were based on the age at onset of the disease or on the mode of therapy; in contrast, the current etiologic classification reflects our greater understanding of the pathogenesis of each variant (Table 24-6). The vast majority of cases of diabetes fall into one of two broad classes:

- **Type 1 diabetes is an autoimmune disease characterized by pancreatic β cell destruction and an absolute deficiency of insulin.** It accounts for approximately 5% to 10% of all cases, and is the most common subtype diagnosed in patients younger than 20 years of age.
- **Type 2 diabetes is caused by a combination of peripheral resistance to insulin action and an inadequate secretory response by the pancreatic β cells (“relative insulin deficiency”).** Approximately 90% to 95% of diabetic patients have type 2 diabetes, and the vast majority of such individuals are overweight. Although classically considered “adult-onset,” the prevalence of type 2 diabetes in children and adolescents has been increasing at an alarming pace due to the increasing rates of obesity in these age groups. One piece of encouraging news is that the incidence of obesity in the U.S. in children ages 2-5 years fell by over 40% during the period of 2004 to 2012, a tipping of the scales that may signal a reversal of a troubling trend.

The important similarities and differences between types 1 and 2 diabetes are summarized in Table 24-7.

A variety of monogenic and secondary causes are responsible for the remaining cases (discussed later). It should be stressed that while the major types of diabetes have different pathogenic mechanisms, the long-term complications affecting the kidneys, eyes, nerves, and blood vessels are the same, as are the principal causes of morbidity and death. The pathogenesis of the two major types is discussed separately. We will first briefly review normal insulin secretion and the mechanism of insulin action since these are critical to understanding the pathogenesis of diabetes.

Glucose Homeostasis

Normal glucose homeostasis is tightly regulated by three interrelated processes: glucose production in the liver; glucose uptake and utilization by peripheral tissues, chiefly skeletal muscle; and actions of insulin and counterregulatory hormones, including glucagon, on glucose uptake and metabolism.

Insulin and glucagon have opposing regulatory effects on glucose homeostasis. During fasting states, low insulin and high glucagon levels facilitate hepatic gluconeogenesis and glycogenolysis (glycogen breakdown) while decreasing glycogen synthesis, thereby preventing hypoglycemia.

Table 24-6 Classification of Diabetes Mellitus

Type 1 diabetes (β-cell destruction, usually leading to absolute insulin deficiency)
Immune-mediated Idiopathic
Type 2 diabetes (combination of insulin resistance and β-cell dysfunction)
Genetic defects of β-cell function
Maturity-onset diabetes of the young (MODY), caused by mutations in: Hepatocyte nuclear factor 4 α (<i>HNF4A</i>), MODY1 Glucokinase (<i>GCK</i>), MODY2 Hepatocyte nuclear factor 1 α (<i>HNF1A</i>), MODY3 Pancreatic and duodenal homeobox 1 (<i>PDX1</i>), MODY4 Hepatocyte nuclear factor 1 β (<i>HNF1B</i>), MODY5 Neurogenic differentiation factor 1 (<i>NEUROD1</i>), MODY6 Neonatal diabetes (activating mutations in <i>KCNJ11</i> and <i>ABCC8</i> , encoding Kir6.2 and SUR1, respectively) Maternally inherited diabetes and deafness (MIDD) due to mitochondrial DNA mutations (m.3243A→G) Defects in proinsulin conversion Insulin gene mutations
Genetic defects in insulin action
Type A insulin resistance Lipoatrophic diabetes
Exocrine pancreatic defects
Chronic pancreatitis Pancreatectomy/trauma Neoplasia Cystic fibrosis Hemochromatosis Fibrocalticulous pancreatopathy
Endocrinopathies
Acromegaly Cushing syndrome Hyperthyroidism Pheochromocytoma Glucagonoma
Infections
Cytomegalovirus Coxsackie B virus Congenital rubella
Drugs
Glucocorticoids Thyroid hormone Interferon- α Protease inhibitors β -adrenergic agonists Thiazides Nicotinic acid Phenytoin (Dilantin) Vacor
Genetic syndromes associated with diabetes
Down syndrome Klinefelter syndrome Turner syndrome Prader-Willi syndrome
Gestational diabetes mellitus

American Diabetes Association: Position statement from the American Diabetes Association on the diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care* 31 (Suppl. 1): S55-S60, 2008.