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1 **Liver enzymes but not free fatty acid levels predict markers of insulin sensitivity in**
2 **overweight and obese, non-diabetic subjects.**

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14

15 **Abbreviations**

- 16 ALP: alkaline phosphatase
- 17 ALT: alanine transaminase
- 18 AST: aspartate transaminase
- 19 BMI: body mass index
- 20 CV: coefficients of variation
- 21 DHA: docosaexaenoic acid
- 22 eGFR: estimated glomerular filtration rate
- 23 EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid
- 24 FFA: free fatty acids
- 25 FISK: Fatigue Impact Scale
- 26 GGT: gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase
- 27 HOMA: Homeostasis Model of Assessment
- 28 ICAM-1: intercellular adhesion molecule 1
- 29 IPAQ: International Physical Activity Questionnaire
- 30 IR: insulin resistance
- 31 NQSP: National Glycohemoglobin Standardization Program
- 32 LCPUFA: polyunsaturated fatty acids
- 33 r: spearman's correlation coefficients
- 34 T2DM: type 2 diabetes mellitus
- 35 WC: waist circumference
- 36 WHpR: waist to hip ratio
- 37 WHtR: waist to height ratio
- 38

39 **Abstract**

40 Whilst obesity is a key predisposing risk factor in the development of insulin resistance and
41 type 2 diabetes mellitus, not all obese subjects develop insulin resistance. This study aimed to
42 identify key anthropometric and biochemical parameters that predict insulin sensitivity in
43 overweight and obese adults. Based on previous literature, we hypothesised that markers of
44 insulin sensitivity would be negatively correlated with plasma concentrations of free fatty
45 acids (FFA) and liver enzymes. Forty non-diabetic adult subjects (body mass index (BMI) \geq
46 25.0kg/m²) were recruited. Data collection included anthropometric measurements and
47 fasting plasma samples for the quantification of liver enzymes (ALT, AST, GGT), blood lipid
48 profile and markers of insulin sensitivity. Questionnaires relating to dietary intake, physical
49 activity and fatigue were also completed. Insulin and Homeostasis Model of Assessment
50 (HOMA) scores were significantly correlated with indirect measures of central obesity
51 ($P < 0.05$). Glycosylated haemoglobin, insulin and HOMA scores for Insulin Resistance (IR)
52 were all positively correlated with selected liver function markers ($P < 0.05$). HOMA-IR
53 scores were significantly positively correlated with and plasma phospholipid levels of n-3
54 fatty acids ($P = 0.04$) and n-3:n-6 ratio ($P < 0.05$) and negatively correlated with n-6 fatty acids
55 ($P = 0.03$). No significant correlations were found between markers of insulin sensitivity and
56 cholesterol levels, physical activity or self-reported fatigue. These results have reinforced the
57 integral role of liver function in development of insulin resistance. Despite previous data
58 linking elevations in FFA to the development of insulin resistance, we found no relationship
59 between these variables in this study.

60 **Keywords:** human, obesity, insulin, liver, n-3 fatty acids, n-6 fatty acids.

61

62 **1. Introduction**

63 Obesity is thought to have a causal effect on the development of skeletal muscle insulin
64 resistance and the subsequent development of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)[1]. Central
65 adiposity is one of the key risk factors for the development of insulin resistance and
66 progression towards T2DM and forms the basis of the portal/visceral hypothesis for the
67 development of insulin resistance[2]. According to this hypothesis, increased adiposity
68 (specifically visceral adiposity), leads to greater movement of free fatty acids (FFA) and
69 inhibition of insulin action via Randle's effect in insulin-sensitive tissues[3]. Thus, the
70 presence of an increased supply of FFA reduces muscle glucose utilisation, leading to
71 reduced glucose clearance in the periphery and enhancing insulin secretion. In addition, the
72 prolonged lipotoxic effect of these fatty acids on the pancreatic β -cells is posited to link
73 obesity, insulin resistance and development of T2DM[4]. With recent literature questioning
74 the validity of this hypothesis, alternative theories including the ectopic fat storage
75 syndrome[5] and the endocrine paradigm[6] have been proposed. Prior to the onset of
76 diabetes, insulin resistant individuals are able to compensate for increases in blood glucose by
77 increased insulin secretion by pancreatic β cells. T2DM develops when this process is no
78 longer sufficient to maintain normal fasting levels of blood glucose[7].

79 Healthy diet and regular physical activity can prevent or delay the onset of T2DM[8]. Whilst
80 lipids have a greater energy density per gram than carbohydrates or proteins, selective intake
81 of specific fatty acids, in particular the n-3 and n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), can
82 differentially impact upon satiety and adiposity through their influence on adipokine
83 production[9, 10]. Both the n-3 and n-6 PUFA are essential fatty acids, that is, they must be
84 obtained from dietary or supplementary sources[11]. While intakes of sufficient quantities of
85 both n-3 and n-6 PUFA is necessary for the maintenance of optimal health[11], it also

86 appears that n-3 and n-6 PUFA have distinct biological actions in relation to metabolic
87 health.

88 Previous studies have reported that increased n-3 PUFA status is associated with a lower
89 body mass index (BMI) and waist circumference (WC), suggesting that the n-3 fatty acids
90 may be protective against weight gain, abdominal obesity[12] and the effects of non-
91 alcoholic fatty liver disease[13]. Similarly, n-3 fatty acids stimulate production of the insulin-
92 sensitising hormone, adiponectin, which would be expected to have a positive effect on
93 insulin sensitivity[14]. In contrast, there have been no reports linking increased n-6 PUFA
94 intake with markers of metabolic health. Enhanced n-6:n-3 ratios are believed to result in a
95 pro-inflammatory state[15], favouring the development metabolic syndrome and associated
96 conditions such as non-alcoholic fatty liver disease[16].

97 Increased fatigue levels have also been correlated positively with percentage body fat[17] and
98 obesity[18-20]. Further, self-reported fatigue is negatively associated with the likelihood of
99 getting recommended levels of physical activity[21]. Thus, obesity-associated increases in
100 fatigue are hypothesised to play an integral role in poor weight management, and restricted
101 physical activity levels[20]. This has further ramifications for self-esteem and eventually the
102 health system, work force and the economy[22] making primary prevention of obesity and
103 subsequent fatigue a necessity.

104 Whilst obesity remains a key predisposing risk factor in the development of insulin
105 resistance, the reasons why not all obese subjects progress to develop insulin resistance
106 remain unclear. Based on previous literature, we hypothesised that markers of insulin
107 sensitivity would be positively correlated with plasma FFA levels and liver enzymes and
108 negatively correlated to plasma levels of n-3 PUFA and the n-3:n-6 PUFA ratio. This study
109 aims to identify key anthropometric and biochemical parameters that predict insulin

110 sensitivity in overweight and obese adults with potential implications for the future
111 identification of at risk individuals and future weight management strategies. With a focus on
112 identifying parameters that may indicate increased risk of insulin sensitivity within the
113 general population, consideration must be given to both male and female participants from
114 broad age range.

115 **2. Methods**

116 **2.1 Subjects**

117 Forty subjects were recruited from within the greater Brisbane area for a study assessing the
118 effects of n-3 fatty acid supplementation on adipokine levels. Equal proportions of males and
119 females were recruited, with a total of 10 overweight (5 males, 5 females) and 30 obese
120 subjects (15 males, 15 females) , between 18 and 80 years of age. Study criteria required that
121 subjects have a BMI ≥ 25.0 kg/m². Exclusion criteria included previous diagnosis with type 1
122 or type 2 diabetes mellitus, weight loss of more than 10% body weight within the last six
123 months, active substance abuse (alcohol or drug dependency), smoking, breast feeding or
124 pregnancy, concomitant use cholesterol medications or nutritional supplements. Written
125 informed consent was obtained from all subjects.

126 **2.2 Study Design**

127 Upon recruitment, subjects' anthropometric measures were taken and fasting blood samples
128 collected. Anthropometric measures included height, weight, WC and hip circumference. WC
129 was measured to the nearest 0.1 cm at the umbilicus level. Hip circumference was measured
130 to the nearest 0.1cm at the widest point between the iliac crest and buttock. BMI was
131 calculated as weight in kilograms divided by the square of the height in meters, squared
132 (kg/m²). BMI groups were based on World Health Organisation classifications for adults[23].
133 An overweight BMI range was categorised as $25.0 \text{ kg/m}^2 \leq \text{BMI} < 30.0 \text{ kg/m}^2$ and a

134 BMI \geq 30.0 kg/m² was classified as obese. Fasting blood samples were utilised for the
135 quantification of adipose hormones (total adiponectin and leptin), markers of insulin
136 sensitivity, electrolyte and liver function, cholesterol, FFA and plasma phospholipid fatty
137 acids. Homeostasis Model of Assessment (HOMA) scores for Insulin Resistance (IR) and
138 pancreatic beta cell function (β) were calculated based on fasting glucose and insulin levels
139 (HOMA-IR = (fasting plasma insulin x fasting plasma glucose)/22.5; HOMA- β = (20 x
140 fasting plasma insulin)/(fasting plasma glucose- 3.5))[24]. It was not possible to carry out all
141 analyses in every individual due to the inability to collect a sufficient volume of blood from
142 some individual participants to conduct every assay. In this case a subset of the analyses were
143 performed for this participant.

144 Each subject also completed a validated 72hour dietary recall[25] and International Physical
145 Activity Questionnaires (IPAQ)[26-28] at this time. Dietary records were analysed in
146 Foodworks to determine the mean reported energy intake for each subject (2007; Xyris
147 Software, Brisbane, Australia). Self-reported fatigue was measured using the Fatigue Impact
148 Scale (FISK) which examines patient perceptions of the functional limitations imposed by
149 fatigue on cognitive, physical, and psychosocial functioning[29].

150 The study design was approved by Metro South Human Research Ethics Committee
151 (HREC/10/QPAH/141) and The University of Queensland Medical Research Ethics
152 Committee (2010001200).

153 **2.4 Assays**

154 Adiponectin and and intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1) were measured by Cardinal
155 Bioresearch, Brisbane, utilising Multiplex ELISA techniques on a Luminex platform. These
156 assays were performed with Human Adiponectin/Acrp30[30] and Human ICAM-1/CD54
157 Biotinylated Affinity Purified PAb antibodies[31] supplied by R&D Systems, following the

158 standard procedures outlined in the corresponding Human Obesity MultiAnalyte Profiling
159 Base Kit[32]. Acylated ghrelin was measured utilising Millipore Human Ghrelin (active)
160 ELISA kits supplied by Abacus ALS, Australia[33]. FFA were measured using a NEFA
161 assay from Wako Diagnostics in Osaka, Japan[34]. Plasma phospholipid fatty acid
162 concentrations were measured by gas chromatography in conjunction with FOODplus
163 Research Centre at The University of Adelaide[14]. All other pathological markers were
164 analysed by Pathology Queensland (Princess Alexandra Hospital, Brisbane).

165 **2.5 Statistical Analyses**

166 All data are expressed as means \pm standard deviation. Differences between overweight and
167 obese groups for each parameter were assessed using standard t-tests. Relationships between
168 variables were assessed by nonparametric correlation analysis (Spearman's rank correlation
169 coefficient). P values <0.05 were considered of statistical significance. All statistical analyses
170 were performed in SPSS version 20.0.

171 **3. Results**

172 Mean and standard deviation data for anthropometric measures, markers of insulin sensitivity
173 and selected metabolic parameters are summarised for overweight and obese participants in
174 Table 1. Subjects were aged between 23 and 79 years with a mean BMI of 32.8kg/m^2 .
175 Indirect measures of adipose tissue distribution including WC, waist:height ratio (WHtR) and
176 waist:hip ratio (WHpR) were higher in obese than overweight subjects. There were no
177 significant differences between overweight and obese groups in relation to plasma levels of
178 glucose (P=0.22), insulin (P=0.49), HbA1C (National Glycohemoglobin Standardization
179 Program (NGSP); P=0.20) or HOMA-IR (P=0.97).

180 Mean reported energy intake for the subjects was 4246 ± 1930 kJ. No significant difference
181 was observed between the mean energy intake of overweight and obese subjects (P=0.57).

182 Mean self-reported physical activity level across all subjects was 4585.2 ± 6517.3 MET-
183 minutes/week. Mean total self-reported fatigue scores as determined by FISK Questionnaires
184 was 32.0 ± 29.2 , on a scale of 0 (No Problem) to 160 (Extreme Problem). No significant
185 difference in physical activity (as measured by IPAQ) or fatigue scores were observed
186 between overweight and obese subjects ($P=0.91$ and $P=0.44$ respectively).

187 Spearman's correlation coefficients (r) and coefficients of variation (CV) for plasma glucose
188 concentrations are shown in Table 2. There were no statistically significant correlations
189 observed between plasma glucose levels and anthropometric parameters including BMI or
190 waist circumference. Plasma glucose concentrations were positively correlated with plasma
191 phospholipid proportions of total n-3 PUFA ($r=0.40$, $P=0.01$), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA;
192 $r=0.48$, $P<0.01$), docosaenoic acid (DHA; $r=0.33$, $P=0.04$) and the n-3:n-6 ratio ($r=0.40$,
193 $P=0.01$). Conversely, glucose levels were inversely correlated with n-6 fatty acid content of
194 plasma phospholipids ($r=-0.33$, $P=0.04$). Other biochemical markers associated with glucose
195 included calcium (inverse relationship; $r=-0.37$, $P=0.02$) and acylated ghrelin (positive
196 relationship; $r=0.34$, $P=0.04$).

197 Spearman's correlation coefficients (r) and coefficients of variation (CV) for plasma insulin
198 concentrations are also summarised in Table 2. Positive correlations were observed between
199 insulin and anthropometric measures included waist circumference ($r=0.61$, $P<0.01$) and
200 waist:height ratio (WHtR; $r=0.48$, $P=0.01$). Of further interest, insulin was positively
201 correlated with a number of electrolyte and liver function parameters including alanine
202 transaminase (ALT; $r=0.44$, $P=0.02$), gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase (GGT; $r=0.49$, $P<0.01$)
203 and estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR; $r=0.56$, $P=0.02$). Correlations between insulin
204 and other metabolic parameters included an inverse relationship to adiponectin ($r=-0.49$,

205 P<0.01) and positive relationships with ICAM-1 (r=0.49, P<0.01) and plasma phospholipid
206 percentages of total saturated fatty acids (r=0.56, P<0.01).

207 Spearman's correlation coefficients (r) and coefficients of variation (CV) for glycosylated
208 haemoglobin levels (HbA1c (NGSP)) are also summarised in Table 2. HbA1C (NGSP) was
209 correlated with a number of liver enzymes including alkaline phosphatase (ALP; r=0.47,
210 P<0.01), ALT (r=0.44, P<0.01), aspartate transaminase (AST; r=0.42, P<0.01), GGT (r=0.38,
211 P=0.02) and inversely correlated with eGFR (r=-0.50, P=0.498).

212 HOMA-IR and HOMA- β scores, derived from calculations pertaining to fasting glucose and
213 insulin levels, were also assessed for correlations with anthropometric and metabolic
214 parameters. A summary of the results from Spearman's correlations of HOMA-IR scores are
215 shown in Table 3. Significant correlations were observed between HOMA-IR and
216 anthropometric parameters including BMI (r=0.38, P=0.04), WC (r=0.60, P<0.001) and
217 WHtR (r=0.50, P<0.01), whilst HOMA- β was only significantly correlated with WC (r=0.41,
218 P=0.03). Of the electrolyte and liver function parameters, HOMA-IR was significantly
219 positively correlated with GGT (r=0.39, P=0.04) and eGFR (r=0.57, P=0.02), with inverse
220 correlations to phosphate (r=-0.39, P=0.04). Conversely, HOMA- β was positively correlated
221 with ALT (r=0.54, P<0.01), AST (r=0.44, P=0.02) and GGT (r=0.55, P<0.01). No direct
222 correlations were observed between HOMA-IR and cholesterol, however, HOMA- β was
223 significantly inversely correlated with LDL cholesterol (r=-0.43, P=0.02).

224 As with glucose, significant positive correlations were observed between HOMA-IR scores
225 and selected plasma phospholipid percentages including total saturated fatty acids (r=0.55,
226 P<0.01), total n-3 fatty acids (r=0.38, P=0.04), EPA (r=0.42, P=0.02) and the n-3:n-6 ratio
227 (r=0.37, P=0.046), with inverse correlations to total n-6 percentages (r=-0.40, P=0.03).
228 Conversely, the only significant correlations observed between plasma phospholipids and

229 HOMA- β were with the total saturated fatty acid content ($r=0.41$, $P=0.03$). Additional
230 negative correlations were observed between HOMA-IR and adiponectin ($r=-0.46$, $P=0.01$),
231 as well as a positive correlation with ICAM-1 ($r=0.43$, $P=0.02$). HOMA- β was negatively
232 correlated with adiponectin ($r=-0.42$, $P=0.02$) and acylated ghrelin ($r=-0.38$, $P=0.0499$) yet
233 positively correlated with ICAM-1 ($r=0.43$, $P=0.02$).

234 No significant correlations were observed between cholesterol measures (total cholesterol,
235 LDL cholesterol, HDL cholesterol and triglycerides) and markers of insulin sensitivity
236 including glucose, insulin, HbA1C and HOMA-IR ($P\geq 0.05$). No significant correlations were
237 observed between plasma free fatty acid levels and markers of insulin sensitivity including
238 glucose ($r=-0.18$, $P=0.27$), insulin ($r=0.01$, $P=0.95$), HbA1C (NGSP; $r=-0.06$, $P=0.71$) and
239 HOMA-IR ($r=-0.08$, $P=0.69$).

240 Of further interest, self-reported fatigue levels were inversely correlated with plasma
241 phosphate concentrations ($r=-0.33$, $P=0.04$) and positively correlated with C-reactive protein
242 ($r=0.57$, $P<0.01$). Within this cohort, no significant correlations were observed between self-
243 reported fatigue and anthropometric markers, such as BMI ($r=0.17$, $P=0.28$), glucose ($r=-$
244 0.24 , $P=0.14$), HbA1C (NGSP; $r=-0.02$, $P=0.31$) or HOMA-IR ($r=0.18$, $P=0.35$).

245 **4. Discussion**

246 Obesity is a key pre-disposing risk factor in the development of insulin resistance and T2DM,
247 however, not all obese subjects develop insulin resistance. This study aimed to identify key
248 anthropometric and biochemical parameters that predict insulin sensitivity in overweight and
249 obese adults.

250 Previous studies suggest that central adiposity is associated with an increased risk of insulin
251 resistance and T2DM[3]. WC serves as simple, more convenient means of approximating
252 central obesity[35]. Thus, correlations between markers of insulin sensitivity (insulin and

253 HOMA-IR scores) and both WC and WHtR support the association between central adiposity
254 and insulin resistance within overweight and obese subjects.

255 The liver plays an integral role in maintaining normal glucose concentrations[36]. Following
256 the development of hepatic insulin resistance, insulin is no longer able to suppress hepatic
257 glucose production, resulting in elevated blood glucose concentrations[36]. In cases of
258 cirrhosis, liver transplantation has been shown to improve whole-body insulin sensitivity,
259 highlighting the important role of the liver in the regulation of glucose homeostasis[37]. In
260 the present study, we also found correlations between selected electrolyte and liver function
261 parameters and markers of insulin sensitivity in overweight and obese subjects. Specifically,
262 insulin levels were positively correlated with ALT, and HOMA-IR was positively correlated
263 with GGT. Both HbA1C and HOMA- β were correlated positively with ALT and GGT. These
264 results are consistent with previous studies suggesting that these two enzymes are important
265 biomarkers for metabolic syndrome[38, 39], and elevated levels of ALT[40] and GGT[41]
266 have previously been associated with later development of diabetes. ALT and GGT have
267 been also been inversely correlated with adiponectin levels. As adiponectin levels are also
268 inversely correlated with obesity[42], it is plausible that adiponectin may provide a link
269 between elevations in liver enzymes and hyperinsulinemia in obesity, as well as the
270 subsequent development of metabolic syndrome.

271 The importance of adipose tissue in the regulation of metabolic processes including insulin
272 metabolism was clearly demonstrated through significant inverse correlations between
273 adiponectin levels and both insulin and HOMA-IR. This is not surprising given that
274 adiponectin levels decrease as the degree of adiposity increases and this hormone is also
275 known to promote glucose uptake in the liver and skeletal muscle[43], with low adiponectin
276 concentrations linked to T2DM[44]. Concurrent correlations were also observed between

277 markers of insulin sensitivity (insulin and HOMA-IR scores) and inflammatory molecule
278 ICAM-1, further supporting previous data pertaining to correlations between inflammation,
279 adiponectin levels and the subsequent development of insulin resistance[45].

280 Ghrelin is a gut-derived hormone which, in addition to its role as a hunger signal, also has an
281 established role in the regulation of fat mass and glucose homeostasis[5]. This is supported
282 by the results of the present study, which identified a significant positive correlation between
283 acylated ghrelin and both glucose and HOMA- β .

284 It is clear that the relative proportions of fatty acids incorporated within the phospholipids are
285 related to these markers of insulin sensitivity, specifically noting inverse correlations between
286 markers of insulin sensitivity (glucose and HOMA-IR) with n-6 fatty acids and positive
287 correlations with total n-3 fatty acids, EPA, DHA and the ratio of n-3:n-6 fatty acids. Given
288 these correlations, it would therefore be plausible that supplementing with n-3 fatty acids may
289 result in increased glucose and HOMA-IR scores in obese participants whilst n-6 fatty acids
290 would have the opposite effect. Results of previous studies have demonstrated insufficient
291 evidence to suggest impaired glycaemic control associated with use of n-3 in patients with
292 T2DM, showing no significant changes in fasting glucose, fasting insulin or body weight[46].
293 This is of particular interest, given that n-3 has been shown to increase adiponectin levels in
294 obese subjects[47] and increased adiponectin levels are associated with improvements in
295 insulin sensitivity[43, 48]. Further research is required in order to fully understand these
296 apparently conflicting results.

297 Previous literature suggests that mobilisation of FFA in the circulation also promote insulin
298 resistance[49]. By contrast, this study found no direct correlations between FFA and markers
299 of insulin sensitivity. Further, there were no clear correlations between markers of insulin
300 sensitivity (glucose, insulin, HbA1C or HOMA scores) and physical activity or self-reported

301 fatigue. Fatigue scores were correlated with C-Reactive Protein suggesting that inflammation
302 may play a role, though there was no significant correlation to ICAM-1. Further investigation
303 is still needed to better understand and treat fatigue in obesity, given the significant
304 limitations this has on quality of life[50], weight management[20] as well as the ability to
305 maintain the recommended levels of physical activity in obese subjects[21].

306 These results support previous literature regarding the integral role of the liver in the
307 development of insulin resistance. Significant correlations are observed between markers of
308 insulin sensitivity and liver enzymes as well as adipose derived hormone adiponectin and
309 inflammatory marker ICAM-1 suggesting a plausible link between liver function, adiposity
310 and the development of insulin resistance. Despite previous data linking elevations in FFA to
311 the development of insulin resistance, there were no significant correlations between these
312 factors observed in overweight and obese subjects. Thus, authors partially accept the original
313 hypothesis, noting that markers of insulin sensitivity were positively correlated with liver
314 enzymes but not plasma FFA levels.

315 Positive correlations to n-3 fatty acids and markers of insulin sensitivity suggests that
316 theoretically, caution may be warranted when supplementing obese participants with these
317 fatty acids though previous literature does not indicate significant adverse clinical
318 implications related to n-3 intake. Additional correlations observed between markers of
319 insulin sensitivity and n-6 fatty acids as well as n-3:n-6 ratios provide alternate directions for
320 future research.

321 There are limitations inherent within the design and outcomes of any study. Whilst the
322 sample size of this study was sufficient in meeting the desired aims, future trials
323 incorporating a larger cohort would allow for additional sub-analyses for variables such as
324 age and gender. In addition, all subjects were drawn from the same region, it is therefore

325 plausible that this population may not be indicative of other geographical locations. In
326 relation to age, ethnicity and socio-economic status, the characteristics of the subjects
327 indicate that they were relatively representative of an urban Australian population. Finally,
328 the correlations between anthropometric/biochemical parameters and adipose hormones or
329 markers of insulin sensitivity do not necessarily indicate the existence of a causal
330 relationship. Thus, further intervention studies are necessary to investigate the extent of the
331 clinical implications associated with these findings.

332 Insulin resistance and the subsequent development of T2DM remain primarily lifestyle
333 disorders. With correlations to liver function and plasma phospholipid fatty acid
334 concentrations it would follow that these parameters may serve as markers for identifying
335 overweight and obese individuals at a greater risk of developing insulin resistance as well as
336 potential therapeutic targets though further randomised clinical trials are needed.

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