#### **DIABETES IN PREGNANCY**



## Definition

 For many years, GDM was defined as any degree of glucose intolerance that was first recognized during pregnancy, regardless of the degree of hyperglycemia.

 This definition facilitated a uniform strategy for detection and classification of GDM, but this definition has serious limitations.

- The ongoing *epidemic of obesity* and diabetes has led to more type 2 diabetes in women of reproductive age, with an *increase in the number of pregnant women with undiagnosed type 2 diabetes in early pregnancy*.
- Because of the number of pregnant women with undiagnosed type 2 diabetes, it is reasonable to test <u>women with risk factors</u> for type 2 diabetes at their <u>initial prenatal visit</u>, using standard diagnostic criteria.

- Women found to have diabetes by the standard diagnostic criteria used outside of pregnancy should be classified as *having diabetes complicating pregnancy* (most often type 2 diabetes, rarely type 1 diabetes or monogenic diabetes) and managed accordingly.
- Women who meet the lower glycemic criteria for GDM should be diagnosed with that condition and managed accordingly.
- Other women should be rescreened for GDM between 24 and 28 weeks of gestation .

#### Table 2.7—Screening for and diagnosis of GDM

#### One-step strategy

Perform a 75-g OGTT, with plasma glucose measurement when patient is fasting and at 1 and 2 h, at 24–28 weeks of gestation in women not previously diagnosed with diabetes.
The OGTT should be performed in the morning after an overnight fast of at least 8 h.
The diagnosis of GDM is made when any of the following plasma glucose values are met or exceeded:

- Fasting: 92 mg/dL (5.1 mmol/L)
- 1 h: 180 mg/dL (10.0 mmol/L)
- 2 h: 153 mg/dL (8.5 mmol/L)

#### Two-step strategy

Step 1: Perform a 50-g GLT (nonfasting), with plasma glucose measurement at 1 h, at 24–28 weeks of gestation in women not previously diagnosed with diabetes.

If the plasma glucose level measured 1 h after the load is  $\geq$ 130, 135, or 140 mg/dL (7.2, 7.5, or 7.8 mm s)/L measured to a 100 s OCTT

7.8 mmol/L, respectively), proceed to a 100-g OGTT.

Step 2: The 100-g OGTT should be performed when the patient is fasting.

- The diagnosis of GDM is made when at least two\* of the following four plasma glucose levels (measured fasting and at 1, 2, and 3 h during OGTT) are met or exceeded (Carpenter-Coustan criteria [154]):
  - Fasting: 95 mg/dL (5.3 mmol/L)
  - 1 h: 180 mg/dL (10.0 mmol/L)
  - 2 h: 155 mg/dL (8.6 mmol/L)
  - 3 h: 140 mg/dL (7.8 mmol/L)

- The *prevalence* of diabetes in pregnancy has been increasing in the U.S.
- *in parallel* with the worldwide *epidemic of obesity*.
- Not only is the prevalence of type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes increasing in women of reproductive age, but there is also a dramatic increase in the reported rates of gestational diabetes mellitus.
- Diabetes confers significantly greater maternal and fetal risk largely related to the degree of hyperglycemia but also related to chronic complications and comorbidities of diabetes.

- In general, *specific risks* of diabetes in pregnancy include *spontaneous abortion*, *fetal anomalies*, *preeclampsia*, *fetal demise*, *macrosomia*, <u>neonatal hypoglycemia</u>, hyperbilirubinemia, and <u>neonatal respiratory distress syndrome</u>, among others.
- In addition, diabetes in pregnancy may *increase* the risk of <u>obesity</u>, <u>hypertension</u>, and <u>type 2</u> <u>diabetes</u> in offspring later in life.

 Observational studies show an *increased risk* of diabetic embryopathy, especially anencephaly, microcephaly, congenital heart disease, renal anomalies, and caudal regression, directly proportional to elevations in A1C during the first 10 weeks of pregnancy Although observational studies are confounded by the association between elevated periconceptional A1C and other poor self-care behavior, the quantity and consistency of data are convincing and support the recommendation to optimize glycemia prior to conception, given that organogenesis occurs primarily at 5–8 weeks of gestation, with an A1C ,6.5% being associated with the lowest risk of congenital anomalies.

## **Preconception Care**

• In addition to focused attention on achieving glycemic targets.

 A, standard preconception care should be augmented with extra *focus on nutrition*, *diabetes education*, and *screening for diabetes comorbiditie and complications*.

- Women with *preexisting type 1 or type 2 diabetes* who are planning pregnancy or who have become pregnant should be counseled on the *risk of development and/or progression of diabetic retinopathy*.
- Dilated eye examinations should occur ideally <u>before</u> pregnancy or in the first trimester, and then patients should be <u>monitored every trimester and for 1 year</u> postpartum as indicated by the degree of retinopathy and as recommended by the eye care provider.

#### Diabetes-specific testing should include A1C, creatinine, and urinary albumin-to-creatinine ratio.

- Special attention should be paid to the review of the medication list for potentially *harmful drugs* (i.e., *ACE inhibitors , angiotensin receptor blockers , and statins*.
- The use of aspirin (81–150 mg) can be considered preconception as it is recommended for all pregnant women with diabetes (if no contraindication) by 16 weeks of gestation to reduce the risk of preeclampsia

# GLYCEMIC TARGETS IN PREGNANCY

- Glucose targets are fasting plasma glucose ,95 mg/dL and either 1-h postprandial glucose ,140 mg/dL or 2-h postprandial glucose ,120 mg/dL .
- Due to *increased red blood cell turnover*, A1C is slightly lower in normal pregnancy than in normal nonpregnant women.
- Ideally, the A1C target in pregnancy is ,6% if this can be achieved without significant hypoglycemia, but the target may be relaxed to ,7% if necessary to prevent hypoglycemia.

# Insulin Physiology

- Given *that early pregnancy* is a time of *enhanced insulin sensitivity* and *lower glucose levels*, many women with type 1 diabetes will have lower insulin requirements and increased risk for hypoglycemia.
- The situation rapidly reverses by approximately 16 weeks as insulin resistance increases exponentially during the second and early third trimesters to 2–3 times the preprandial requirement.
- The *insulin requirement levels off toward* the *end of the third trimester* with placental aging.
- A rapid reduction in insulin requirements can indicate the development of placental insufficiency .

## **Glucose Monitoring**

- Reflecting this physiology, *fasting and postprandial monitoring* of blood glucose is recommended to achieve metabolic control in pregnant women with diabetes.
- *Preprandial testing* is also recommended when *using insulin pumps or basal-bolus therapy* so that premeal rapid-acting insulin dosage can beadjusted. Postprandial monitoring is associated with better glycemic controlandlower risk of preeclampsia .

#### **MANAGEMENT OF GESTATIONAL**

#### **DIABETES MELLITUS**

### Lifestyle Management

- After diagnosis, treatment starts with medical nutrition therapy, physical activity, and weight management depending on pregestational weight, as outlined in the section below on preexisting type 2 diabetes, and glucose monitoring aiming for the targets recommended
- 70–85% of women diagnosed with GDM under CarpenterCoustan can control GDM with lifestyle modification alone;

**Medical Nutrition Therapy** 

- The food plan should provide adequate calorie intake to promote fetal/neonatal and maternal health, achieve glycemic goals, and promote weight gain.
- There is *no definitive* research that identifies a specific optimal calorie intake for women with GDM or suggests that their calorie needs are different from those of pregnant women without GDM.
- The DRI for all pregnant women recommends a minimum of 175 g of carbohydrate, a minimum of 71 g of protein, and 28 g of fiber.
- The diet should *not be high in saturated fat*. As is true for all nutrition therapy in patients with diabetes, the amount and type of carbohydrate will impact glucose levels. *Simple carbohydrates* will result in *higher postmeal excursions*.

**Pharmacologic Therapy** 

- Treatment of GDM with lifestyle and insulin has been demonstrated to improve perinatal outcomes.
- Insulin is the first-line agent recommended for treatment of GDM in the U.S.
- While individual RCTs support <u>limited efficacy of</u> <u>metformin and glyburide in reducing glucose levels</u> for the treatment of GDM, these agents are not recommended as first-line treatment for GDM because they are known to cross the placenta and data on longterm safety for offspring is of some concern.

## Sulfonylureas

- Sulfonylureas are known to cross the placenta and have been associated with increased neonatal hypoglycemia.
- Concentrations of glyburide in umbilical cord plasma are approximately 50–70% of maternal levels.
- Glyburide was associated with a higher rate of neonatal hypoglycemia and *macrosomia than insulin or metformin* in a 2015 metaanalysis and systematic review.



 Metformin was associated with a *lower risk of neonatal hypoglycemia* and *less maternal weight gain* than insulin in systematic reviews

 However, metformin readily crosses the placenta, resulting in umbilical cord blood levels of metformin as high or higher than simultaneous maternal levels.  However, due to the *potential for growth restriction or acidosis* in the setting of *placental insufficiency*, *metformin should not be used in women with hypertension*, *preeclampsia*, or *at risk for intrauterine growth restriction*.

## Insulin

 Both multiple daily insulin injections and continuous subcutaneous insulin infusion are reasonable deliver strategies, and neither has been shown to be superior to the other during pregnancy.

# **Type 1 Diabetes**

- Women with type 1 diabetes have an *increased risk of hypoglycemia in the first trimester* and, like all women, have altered counterregulatory response in pregnancy that may decrease hypoglycemia awareness.
- Pregnancy is a ketogenic state, and women with type 1 diabetes, and to a lesser extent those with type 2 diabetes, are at risk for diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) at lower blood glucose levels than in the nonpregnant state.

# **Type 2 Diabetes**

- Type 2 diabetes is often associated *with obesity*.
- Recommended weight gain during pregnancy for overweight women is 15–25 lband for obesewomenis10–20 lb.
- There is no adequate data on <u>optimal weight gain</u> versus weight maintenance in women with a BMI .35 kg/m2.
- Glycemic control is often easier to achieve in women with type 2 diabetes than in those with type 1 diabetes but can require much higher doses of insulin,.

 Women with type 1 or type 2 diabetes should be prescribed <u>low-dose aspirin</u> 60–150 mg/ day (<u>usual dose 81 mg/day</u>) by the <u>end</u> <u>of the first trimester</u> in order to <u>lower the risk</u> <u>of preeclampsia</u>.

- Insulin resistance decreases dramatically immediately postpartum, and insulin requirements need to be evaluated and adjusted as they are often roughly half the prepregnancy requirements for the initial few days postpartum.
- <u>Screen women</u> with a recent *history of gestational diabetes mellitus at 4–12 weeks postpartum*, using the **75-g oral glucose** *tolerance* testandclinically appropriate nonpregnancy diagnostic criteria.
- Women with a history of gestational diabetes mellitus found to have prediabetes should receive intensive lifestyle interventions and/or metformin to prevent diabetes.

- Women with a *history of gestational diabetes* mellitus should have *lifelong screening* for the development of type 2 diabetes or prediabetes at *least every 3 years.*
- Women with a history of gestational diabetes mellitus should seek preconception screening for <u>diabetes</u> and preconception care to identify and treat hyperglycemia and prevent congenital malformations.

