



CDAPP Sweet Success Guidelines for Care

Chapter 4

Medical Management and Education for Gestational Diabetes Mellitus



*Sweet
Success*

California Diabetes and Pregnancy Program

California Diabetes and Pregnancy Program Sweet Success Guidelines for Care

**Leona Shields, PHN, MN, NP and
Guey-Shiang Tsay, RN, MSN (Editors)
California Department of Public Health; Maternal, Child and
Adolescent Health Division.**

Suggested Citation

Shields, L and Tsay, GS. Editors, California Diabetes and Pregnancy Program Sweet Success Guidelines for Care. Developed with California Department of Public Health; Maternal Child and Adolescent Health Division; revised edition, Chapter 4 updated September 2015.

Funding for the development of this toolkit was provided by:

Federal Title V Block Grant Funding through the California Department of Public Health (CDPH), Center for Family Health (CFH), Maternal, Child and Adolescent Health (MCAH) Division and was used by the Regional California Diabetes and Pregnancy Program, CDAPP Sweet Success to develop the toolkit.

The California Diabetes and Pregnancy Program (CDAPP) Toolkit “CDAPP Sweet Success Guidelines for Care” was reviewed by the California Department of Public Health; Maternal, Child and Adolescent Health Division. The toolkit is considered a resource, but does not define the standard of care in California. Readers are advised to adapt the guidelines and resources based on their local facility’s level of care and patient populations served and are also advised to not rely solely on the guidelines presented here.

Copyright Information

©2015 California Department of Public Health. Originally published in July 2012, revised and updated September 2015 to reflect additional resource review. The material in this toolkit may be reproduced and disseminated in any media in its original format, without modification, for informational, educational and non- commercial purposes only. A nominal sum to cover costs of reproduction and distribution can be assessed. Any modification or use of the materials in any derivative work is prohibited without prior permission of the California Department of Public Health.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

California Department of Public Health; Center for Family Health, Maternal, Child and Adolescent Health Division would like to thank the authors for their initial drafts and revisions.

Regional California Diabetes and Pregnancy Program (CDAPP) Staff

Charlene Canger, LCSW, MFT

Leona Dang-Kilduff, RN, MSN, CDE

Cathy Fagen, MA, RD

Kristi Gabel, RNC, MSN, CNS

Maribeth Inturrisi, RN, MS, CNS, CDE

Melissa Ortiz, MA, RD, CDE

Suzanne Sparks, RN, BSN, CDE

CDPH CFH MCAH would like to gratefully acknowledge the contribution and review from the people listed below:

Additional CDAPP members:

D. Lisa Bollman, RNC, MSN

Sharmila Chatterjee, MSc, MS, RD

Jenny Ching, RN, BSN

Sara Corder, LCSW

Geetha DeSai, MS, RD, CDE

Kay Goldstein, MFT

George Knapp, RN, MS

Katina Krajniak, RN

Sylvia Lane, PhD, LCSW

Elaine Lee, MPH, RD, CDE

Tracy Lewis, MSW

Nancy McKee, LCSW, MSW

Emmy Mignano, RD, MS, CDE

Jacqueline Masullo, MSW, LCSW

Lily Nichols, RD

Deidre Paulson, MS, RD

Sibylle Reinsch, PhD, MFCC

Sadie Sacks, RN, MSN

Melissa Shin, RN, BSN, PHN

Trudy Theiss, RD, MS, CDE

Susan Yoshimura, RD, CDE

CDPH CFH MCAH Division Staff, Sacramento, California:

Flojaune Griffin, PhD, MPH

Suzanne Haydu, RD, MPH

Janet Hill, MS, RD, IBCLC

Maria Jocson, MD, MPH, FAAP

Connie Mitchell, MD, MPH

Susan Wallace, RN, (MPH student, UC Davis)

Sangi Rajbhandari, MPH

Karen Ramstrom, DO, MSPH

Leona Shields, PHN, MN, NP

Guey-Shiang Tsay, RN, MSN

Cheryl Terpak, MS, RDH

Medical experts:

Kathleen Berkowitz, MD

Barry Block, MD

Roger Chene DHS(c), MPH, RD

Conrad Chao, MD

Maurice Druzin, MD

Elizabeth Harleman, MD

Lois Jovanovic, MD

John Kitzmiller, MD

Siri Kjos, MD

Sherrie McElvy, MD

Thomas Moore, MD

David Sacks, MD

Kimberlee Sorem, MD

Program support:

Post production resource review for the revised and updated 2015 edition completed by California Diabetes and Pregnancy Program (CDAPP) Sweet Success Resource & Training Center: Tracy Esquivel, BA; Kevin Van Otterloo, MPA; D. Lisa Bollman, RNC, MSN, CPHQ. Original formatting for the 2012 edition by Cynthia Pena MPH, MSW.



4 MEDICAL MANAGEMENT AND EDUCATION FOR GESTATIONAL DIABETES MELLITUS

Table of Contents

Introduction	1
Risk Assessment and Early Screening	1
Initial Prenatal Visit.....	3
Self-Monitoring of Blood Glucose (SMBG)	3
Timing of Self-Monitoring.....	3
Medication	4
Oral Hypoglycemic Agents (OHA).....	4
Glyburide.....	4
Metformin.....	5
Insulin.....	5
Key Points for Initiating Insulin Therapy.....	6
Helping Women Prepare for Labor and Delivery	7
Timing of Delivery.....	8
Intrapartum Blood Glucose Control.....	8
Immediate Postpartum Management of GDM	8
Insulin Management.....	8
Looking Toward the Future	9
Monitor Health Status.....	10
Encourage Healthy Eating.....	11
Encourage Activity.....	11
Encourage Problem Solving.....	12
Contraceptive Considerations Following a Pregnancy with GDM.....	12
Monitoring Blood Glucose and Taking other Medications.....	12
Encourage Risk Reduction.....	12
Encourage Healthy Coping.....	13
References	14
Appendix	18

Tables

Table 1. High Risk Indicators for Early Screen for GDM.....	1
Table 2. Fetal Complications Due to Poorly Controlled Maternal Blood Glucose.....	2
Table 3. Blood Glucose Targets During Pregnancy.....	3
Table 4. Glyburide Protocol.....	4
Table 5. Metformin Protocol.....	5
Table 6. Insulin Calculation by Gestational Age and Body Weight for GDM.....	6
Table 7. Labor, Delivery and Postpartum Education for GDM.....	7
Table 8. GDM Protocol for Days 1 - 3 Postpartum.....	9
Table 9. Risk Factors for Recurring GDM.....	10
Table 10. Postpartum Recommendations for Women with GDM.....	11

Appendix

A - Guidelines for Diagnosis of Hyperglycemia in Pregnancy.....	18
---	----

4 MEDICAL MANAGEMENT AND EDUCATION FOR GESTATIONAL DIABETES MELLITUS

INTRODUCTION

Glucose intolerance of variable severity that is first recognized during pregnancy is referred to as gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM).¹ New diagnostic criteria allow for the diagnosis of preexisting diabetes at the initial prenatal visit. The American Diabetes Association (ADA) position statement, based on recommendations from the International Association of Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Groups (IADPSG), recommends that a high-risk woman found to have diabetes at her initial prenatal visit should receive a diagnosis of type 2 diabetes and not gestational diabetes.² Based on this, CDAPP Sweet Success has developed the algorithm “Guidelines for Diagnosis of Hyperglycemia in Pregnancy-2011” which includes early detection of GDM (*Appendix A*).

GDM accounts for as high as 90% of all diabetic pregnancies. There is variation in prevalence of GDM at the state level related to differences in rates of risk factors for GDM. In 2008, the estimated prevalence of GDM in California was 5.9% overall with rates as low as 4.7% for non-Hispanic whites and as high as 8.7% for Asians.³ Obesity, unhealthy diet, sedentary lifestyle, improved screening, maternal exposure to high blood glucose levels in-utero, and new diagnostic guidelines have contributed to increasing prevalence of GDM.^{2,4,5}

Table 1^{5,6} lists high risk indicators for an early GDM screen.

RISK ASSESSMENT AND EARLY SCREENING

Table 1. HIGH RISK INDICATORS FOR EARLY SCREEN FOR GDM (First Prenatal Visit)
❖ Overweight or obese
❖ History of GDM in a prior pregnancy
❖ Presence of glucosuria
❖ Diagnosis of Polycystic Ovary Syndrome (PCOS)
❖ Women of ethnic groups with a high prevalence of diabetes: African American, Latino, Native American, Asian American and Pacific Islander
❖ Family history of diabetes (e.g. first degree relative with DM)
❖ Previous delivery of large-for-gestational age infant
❖ Chronic use of medication that may affect blood glucose levels (e.g. steroids, betamimetics, atypical antipsychotics)

According to the International Association of Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Group (IADPSG), the diagnosis criteria of GDM is established when, “any single threshold value on the 75-g, 2-hour OGTT was met or exceeded (fasting value, 92 mg/dL; 1-hour value, 180 mg/dL; and 2-hour value, 153 mg/dL).⁷

The Hyperglycemia and Adverse Pregnancy Outcomes (HAPO) Study illustrated the impact of elevated blood glucose. The study concluded that elevated fasting and 1 hour blood glucose levels were highly correlated with macrosomia, and increased newborn hypoglycemia. A mother’s fasting blood glucose greater than 90 mg/dL is associated with a nearly three-fold increase of macrosomia and a nearly 20% increase in the rate of newborn hypoglycemia.⁸

A major reason we are concerned about early diagnosis of GDM and control of a pregnant woman’s blood sugars is the impact that poorly controlled blood sugar has on her fetus.

Table 2⁵ lists fetal complications and long-term risks to offspring due to poorly controlled maternal blood glucose.

Table 2. FETAL COMPLICATIONS DUE TO POORLY CONTROLLED MATERNAL BLOOD GLUCOSE	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shoulder dystocia • Other birth injuries • Hypoglycemia • Poor feeding • Hyperbilirubinemia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jaundice • Respiratory distress • Polycythemia • Hypocalcemia • Stillbirth

Long- term risks to offspring from poor maternal glycemic control include⁹:

- ❖ Obesity
- ❖ Cardiovascular disease
- ❖ Impaired glucose tolerance
- ❖ Type 2 diabetes

The American Diabetes Association (ADA) recommends using any one of the following 4 criteria for diagnosis of overt diabetes.¹⁰ The first 3 criteria listed have also been adopted by the International Association of Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Group (IADPSG) as criteria for overt diabetes in pregnancy.²

- ❖ HgbA1c ≥ 6.5%
- ❖ Fasting blood sugar ≥ 126 mg/dL (no caloric intake for 8 hours or more)
- ❖ Random plasma glucose more than 200 mg/dL
- ❖ 2 hour glucose of ≥200 mg/dL after initiating an oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) with a 75 gm glucose load (WHO criteria for test)

Some patients may not tolerate an oral glucose load including those with a history of bariatric surgery or hyperemesis. For these women, one option is to have patients monitor fasting and post-prandial blood sugars for a 1-week time period between 24-28 weeks.¹¹

Initial Prenatal Visit

The initial visit for diabetes care while pregnant including¹²:

- ❖ A thorough review of the medical and obstetric history, current condition(s), and medications taken by the pregnant woman.¹³
- ❖ Physical Assessment including:
 - Height
 - Weight
 - Blood pressure during the initial visit and on subsequent visits¹⁴
 - Test urine protein during the initial visit and as indicated, especially if the woman has signs and symptoms of preeclampsia¹⁵

SELF-MONITORING OF BLOOD GLUCOSE (SMBG)

Women who are diagnosed with GDM are taught to periodically self-monitor or test their blood glucose.

Timing of Self-Monitoring

The recommended timing of self-monitoring and blood glucose targets are based on documented results from Continuous Glucose Monitoring Systems (CGMS). These systems found that interstitial glucose in pregnant women peaks within 60-90 minutes of the beginning of the meal.^{16,17} Another study demonstrated that the average peak blood sugar is at the 1 hour mark.¹⁸ Based on this, monitoring at one hour after beginning the meal is preferred, since postmeal glycemic peak values correlate most closely with outcomes such as macrosomia and neonatal hypoglycemia.¹⁹

The blood glucose targets CDAPP Sweet Success aims for are included in Table 3.

Table 3. BLOOD GLUCOSE TARGETS DURING PREGNANCY^{8,20}	
Fasting/Premeal*	60 - 89 mg/dL
Premeal/ Bedtime/ Overnight	60 - 99 mg/dL
Peak postprandial (test at 1 hour from beginning of meal)	100 - 129 mg/dL
Mean daily glucose	>87 mg/dL, <100 mg/dL
* In women with GDM, fasting blood glucose greater than 90 mg/dL was associated with an odds ratio of 2.73 for macrosomia and an odds ratio of 3.62 for c-peptide levels in cord blood at delivery for neonates that had birth weights >90th percentile.	

MEDICATION**Oral Hypoglycemic Agents (OHA)**

When diet and exercise fail to maintain normal blood glucose levels, medication therapy is indicated. Either insulin or oral agents can be used as first-line therapy. There is no specific threshold at which medication should be initiated but some have suggested to do so when >20% of the blood glucose (BG) values in one week are out of range, or BG values are repeatedly elevated at a specific time of day; and meal plan or activity cannot be modified to correct the elevated blood glucose.⁷

While insulin has long been the treatment of choice, new evidence supports the use of OHAs in the management of GDM.^{21,22} Women utilizing OHA should continue diet, exercise, blood glucose testing and receive fetal surveillance as with insulin management.

Glyburide

Glyburide Facts:

- ❖ Second generation sulphonylurea.
- ❖ “First phase insulin response” interacts on the β -cell plasma membrane, allowing immediate insulin release of preformed insulin adjacent to the membrane.
- ❖ “Second phase insulin response” is prolonged as newly formed insulin is moved to the cell membrane from inside the β -cell.²³
- ❖ Hypoglycemia is common with glyburide use.^{23,24}
- ❖ Maximum drug peak in pregnancy occurs 2-4 hours after intake with a prolonged “second stage” response.
- ❖ The glucose peak after a carbohydrate load is 90 minutes.¹⁷
- ❖ Generally, the medication is taken twice daily, 1 hour before meals.
- ❖ Glyburide failure occurs in approximately 20% of patients.^{24,25}

Table 4 describes the Glyburide Protocol.

Table 4. GLYBURIDE PROTOCOL^{26,27}
❖ Begin with 1.25 mg/day (maternal body weight < 200 lbs) or 2.5 mg (maternal body weight \geq 200 lbs).
❖ Administer 60 minutes premeal. Administration closer to the meal may result in symptomatic hypoglycemia 1-2 hours post meal.
❖ To control fasting plasma glucose, glyburide can be given at 10 to 11 PM.
❖ Increase by 1.25 mg to 2.5 mg, every 3-7 days until glycemic targets are met or maximum daily dose of 20 mg.
❖ Teach hypoglycemia prevention and management.
❖ Adhere to MNT meal and snack regimen to avoid hypoglycemia.
❖ Monitor weight as glyburide is associated with weight gain.
❖ Glyburide can be used postpartum.

Please note that not everyone will benefit from the use of glyburide.

Predictors of glyburide failure include:

- ❖ Maternal age (> 34 years)
- ❖ Early diagnosis of GDM (<25 weeks)
- ❖ Higher gravidity and parity
- ❖ Elevated mean fasting blood glucose values²⁸

Metformin

Metformin, another OHA is a biguanide or an insulin sensitizer.

Metformin, with its smaller molecular weight, crosses the placental barrier.²⁹⁻³¹ Among 126 infants of 109 mothers with polycystic ovary syndrome who used metformin at the time they became pregnant and continued to use it throughout their pregnancy, there were no teratogenic affects. These infants had normal height, weight and motor-social development within the first 1.5 years of life.³²

Metformin Facts:

- ❖ Does not cause hypoglycemia³³
- ❖ If women are taking metformin prior to pregnancy or at the first prenatal visit, it is recommended they continue to take metformin^{34,35}
- ❖ Crosses the placenta and crosses into breast milk^{29,33}
- ❖ Metformin utilization is associated with improved fertility and reduced risk of pregnancy loss in the first trimester in women with Polycystic Ovary Syndrome (PCOS)^{33,34}

Table 5 describes the protocol for the use of Metformin.

Table 5. METFORMIN PROTOCOL ^{36,37}	
❖	Begin with 500 mg once or twice daily with food, depending on the pattern of hyperglycemia.
❖	Increase dose by 500 mg every 3-7 days as limited by GI side effects until glycemic targets are met or maximum daily dose of 2500 mg.
❖	Obtain serum creatinine at start of therapy if renal dysfunction is suspected. Metformin is cleared in the kidneys.
❖	Drug should be discontinued prior to major surgery, or radiological studies involving contrast materials.
❖	Metformin may be associated with mild weight loss.

Insulin

Hyperglycemia, both fasting and 1-hour postprandial, is positively associated with excess fetal growth and macrosomia. Initiation of insulin therapy should be decided after careful consideration of both fetal growth and maternal glycemic control.

Insulin has been the treatment of choice for pregnant women with diabetes, although there is growing support for the use of oral

hypoglycemic drugs as discussed earlier in this chapter.

The insulin regimen should be tailored to the individual, taking into account the woman's blood glucose levels, lifestyle, food intake, teachability, literacy level, stress level, activity level, and cultural factors.

An option for insulin calculation is in the following table which is modified from a study conducted by Hone and Jovanovic through The Endocrine Society.³⁸ This is recommended in women presenting with blood glucose values higher than or equal to 120 mg/dL fasting and 180 mg/dL postmeal.

Table 6. INSULIN CALCULATION BY GESTATIONAL AGE AND BODY WEIGHT FOR GDM³⁸	
Gestational Age	Insulin Dose
0-12 weeks	0.6-0.7 units per kg actual body weight
13-28 week	0.7-0.8 units per kg actual body weight
29-34 weeks	0.8-0.9 units per kg actual body weight
35-40 weeks	0.9-1 units per kg actual body weight
<p>Instructions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calculate the total daily dose (TDD) of insulin for 24 hours • Divide into 50% mealtime rapid acting insulin analog (bolus) and 50% NPH insulin (basal) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bolus: Divide total bolus into three doses given before breakfast, lunch and dinner • Basal (NPH): Divide total basal into three doses given before breakfast, dinner and bedtime • Adjust based on blood glucose patterns, meal plan and activity, increasing or decreasing insulin by 2 units based on blood glucose findings 1 hour after meals <p><i>Example:</i> A 50 kg woman at 29 weeks gestation has a TDD of 40-45 units (0.8-0.9 units kg x 50 kg = 40-45 units) Divided in equal parts as bolus and basal (20-22.5 units total) Bolus: Divided into three equal parts = 6.6-7.5 units before breakfast, lunch and dinner Basal: Divided into three equal parts = 6.6-7.5 units before breakfast, dinner and bedtime</p>	

Key Points for Initiating Insulin Therapy

Self-monitoring of blood glucose using a blood glucose meter with memory (including date and time) is essential for optimal diabetes management with insulin. It is advised that women with GDM who are taking insulin should monitor blood glucose: AM fasting, premeal, and 1 hour after the start of each meal. Rapid-acting insulin may be increased 1-2 units (or approximately 10%) every 2- 3 days until blood glucose levels are within target range. Review blood glucose results at each visit. Once control is established and premeal blood glucose values

are consistently within target range, monitoring can be reduced to AM fasting, and 1 hour after the start of each meal. The premeal blood glucose testing can be eliminated.

Use a premeal insulin correction algorithm to adjust rapid-acting insulin when premeal blood glucose levels are not within target range. Do not use a post meal sliding scale to adjust insulin, as this practice leads to over treatment and possible fetal exposure to hyperglycemia.

Provide education on the progressive nature of insulin resistance in pregnancy. Initiating insulin must include instruction on insulin injection technique, carbohydrate counting to control postmeal peak glucose levels, and prevention and treatment of hypoglycemia.

If appropriate, teach patients how to self-adjust insulin every two to three days based on glucose patterns. Pattern control is an effective method for insulin self-adjustment. Tailor the insulin regimen to the needs and lifestyle of the patient.

Individuals with GDM and/or obesity in pregnancy are insulin-resistant and often require marked increases in total daily insulin dose. There is no maximum insulin dose. Insulin adjustments may be required every few days, or once a week as insulin needs increase during pregnancy.

Women with GDM may require antepartum hospitalization for similar problems as those impacting women with preexisting diabetes. These may include glycemic control, preeclampsia, pyelonephritis, and preterm labor.³⁹ If medications such as betamimetics or betamethasone are used for preterm labor or preeclampsia, women with GDM on oral hypoglycemic medication or insulin may require, at least temporarily, doubling of their insulin doses. Algorithms for increased insulin needs can be found in *Chapter 3: Medical Management and Education for Preexisting Diabetes During Pregnancy* in the section that addresses antepartum hospitalization for women with preexisting diabetes.

**HELPING WOMEN
PREPARE FOR LABOR
AND DELIVERY**

Table 7 outlines educational issues to discuss in preparation for labor delivery and postpartum. All items should be discussed with the woman and her partner. This education should take place before the 37th week of gestation.

Table 7. LABOR, DELIVERY & POSTPARTUM EDUCATION FOR GDM⁴⁰
❖ Timing of delivery
❖ Intrapartum blood glucose targets and monitoring of blood glucose
❖ Maternal - fetal intrapartum management including potential complications
❖ Newborn management due to diabetes during pregnancy
❖ Reinforcement of benefits of breastfeeding to both mother and infant
❖ Postpartum follow-up and blood glucose retesting
❖ Lifestyle and dietary changes aimed at prevention of diabetes in the future
❖ Planning for future pregnancies

Timing of Delivery

According to American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG), diagnosis of GDM alone is not an indication for delivery prior to 40 weeks gestation. ACOG advises balancing the maternal risks versus those of fetal compromise.⁴¹ Delivery prior to 38 weeks gestation may still be indicated, and the woman should undergo amniocentesis to document fetal pulmonary maturity when feasible.⁴¹

Intrapartum Blood Glucose Control

Intrapartum management of GDM is aimed at maintaining normoglycemia (plasma blood glucose levels of 70-100 mg/dL) during labor and delivery. Elevated maternal blood glucose levels in the last 8 hours before delivery have been associated with neonatal hypoglycemia. Control of maternal blood glucose levels during labor can reduce the incidence of neonatal hypoglycemia, even among women with poor antepartum glycemic control.⁴² Maternal blood glucose concentrations greater than 110 mg/dL – 117 mg/dL increase the incidence of neonatal hypoglycemia.^{43,44} During the active phase of labor, glucose usage increases but slows down after the last component of the active phase is reached. Jovanovic explains that “labor requires very little additional exogenous insulin and appears to mimic the serum insulin concentrations of a trained runner during a marathon.”⁴⁵ Refer to each hospital’s policy and procedure for management of GDM during labor and delivery.

IMMEDIATE POSTPARTUM MANAGEMENT OF GDM

Insulin Management

Insulin needs are reduced postpartum and are generally cut in half. Therapy goal is to keep blood glucose in the following range:
FBG < 100 mg/dL; and 1 hour postprandial < 140 mg/dL

The GDM protocol for the first three days postpartum is included in Table 8.

Table 8. GDM PROTOCOL FOR DAYS 1 - 3 POSTPARTUM	
GDM A1 (diet and exercise controlled)	GDM A2 (requires addition of oral agents and/or insulin for control)
Diet	
When eating: Resume healthy diet using same caloric allotment as pregnancy for breastfeeding. It may be more valuable to evaluate BG with regular diet that patient will be eating at home rather than using a hospital carbohydrate controlled diet.	
Medication	
Glucose lowering medications not needed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is rarely a need for subcutaneous insulin postpartum. • May consider use of metformin if medication is needed to bring BG into normal range. Metformin use in breastfeeding was found to be efficacious.
Blood Glucose Monitoring	
At least 1 fasting, and 1 one hour after a meal before discharge	FBG and 1 hr after meals for at least 24 hours. If blood glucose remains elevated, continued monitoring is warranted. Consider possibility of type 2 diabetes.
Breastfeeding to Reduce Risk of Type 2 Diabetes	
<p>Breastfeeding has been shown to reduce the risk of type 2 diabetes in the mother and baby whether delivered vaginally or by cesarean section.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Early (preferably in the first half hour of life) and often (10 -12 times per 24 hours) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - breastfeeding can reduce the risk of hypoglycemia for the newborn. 2. Provide care (physical assessment and glucose monitoring) needed by couplet without separating them. 3. The newborn's first blood glucose should be obtained after breastfeeding within 30 to 60 minutes of life or earlier when indicated by symptoms in the newborn of low blood sugar. (See Chapter 5: <i>Impact of Maternal Diabetes on Fetal Development & Neonatal Care</i>) 	
Follow up	
Review lifestyle changes aimed at prevention of diabetes in the future and family planning. The need for reclassification of diabetes may be necessary prior to the 6 week postpartum visit when insurance coverage is an issue. Optimally women should be retested in 6 - 12 weeks. Remind patient that a 75 g, 2-hour OGTT is recommended.	

LOOKING TOWARD THE FUTURE

Women with GDM are at increased risk for GDM in future pregnancies and the subsequent development of type 2 diabetes.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸ In a study of women 6 weeks to 28 years postpartum by Kim et al, it was determined that the cumulative incidence of type 2 diabetes ranged from 2.6% to over 70%. This incidence increased significantly within 5 years post-delivery and tapered off after 10 years.⁴⁹ Research has demonstrated the 2 hour OGTT is more definitive than the fasting plasma glucose in diagnosing Type 2 diabetes in women with a history of GDM.⁵⁰

Table 9 summarized the risk factors for recurring GDM pregnancy.

Table 9. RISK FACTORS FOR RECURRING GDM^{1,46,48}
❖ Obesity
❖ Failure to lose pregnancy weight gain
❖ Failure to maintain normal BMI
❖ Excessive weight gain
❖ Need for insulin during pregnancy
❖ Presence of anti-insulin antibodies
❖ Delivery of macrosomic infant
❖ Diagnosis of IGT or IFG on the postpartum oral glucose tolerance test
❖ Use of progesterone-only contraceptives in breastfeeding women

Women with GDM are at increased risk of developing cardiovascular disease.^{51,52} The offspring of women with GDM, who were large or small for gestational age, are at future risk for cardiovascular disease, obesity and diabetes.⁹ This risk level can be lowered if the mother chooses to breastfeed.⁵³ Well in advance of delivery, education concerning long-term risk reduction should be incorporated during all CDAPP Sweet Success visits.

Monitor Health Status

Women with GDM should be reclassified at 5-12 weeks postpartum using a 75 g, 2-hour OGTT, or an A1c 2-3 months postpartum. At 5-6 years postpartum 15% of women who had GDM will have impaired glucose tolerance or diabetes mellitus.⁵⁴ Lifestyle changes can reduce the rate of conversion to diabetes by up to 58%.^{46,55} Some studies support the use of insulin sensitizers (such as metformin) for beta cell rest, and have shown delay in the progression to type 2 diabetes.^{46,56} Women with a history of GDM have three times the likelihood of developing abnormal lipid profiles and metabolic syndrome^{50 57}

Table 10 summarizes the postpartum recommendations for women with GDM.

Periodically Evaluate Glucose Tolerance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Women with GDM should be screened for diabetes with a 75 g, 2-hour OGTT at 6-12 weeks (before 3 months) postpartum; or after 3 months postpartum. An A1c should be done to determine her diabetic status. ❖ If the screen is normal, repeat at 1 year after delivery and every three years thereafter as long as values remain within normal limits. ❖ Encourage women to obtain a glucose screen before conceiving again. ❖ Subsequent pregnancy should include early prenatal care, risk assessment, and testing for GDM or diabetes with a 2 hr-75 gm OGTT. ❖ If prediabetes, Impaired Glucose Tolerance (IGT) or Impaired Fasting Glucose (IFG) is diagnosed, refer for aggressive lifestyle change. This includes seeing a registered dietitian for medical nutrition therapy; receiving instruction regarding activity and/or evaluation for the need for insulin sensitizer medication such as metformin. ❖ If diabetes is diagnosed postpartum, refer the woman to a diabetic health care provider for follow up and ongoing care.
Evaluate for Metabolic Risk Factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ 1 year after delivery and yearly thereafter. ❖ Follow American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists (AACE) and National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) recommendations for testing and evaluation such as lipids, waist-hip ratio, etc.
Coordination of Care	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Coordinate care with the primary care provider or obstetrician and the baby's pediatrician. ❖ Notify them of the woman's gestational diabetes and need for continued follow-up. ❖ Refer to a provider familiar with diabetes care who will be vigilant concerning interconception and preconception health concerns for women with previous GDM.

Encourage Healthy Eating

A primary focus of GDM education throughout pregnancy and postpartum is to encourage healthy eating. Women with GDM are given information to empower them to make healthy food choices for themselves and their families. Refer to *Chapter 7: Medical Nutrition Therapy* for additional information.

Breastfeeding provides unique benefits for women with diabetes and their offspring. Refer to *Chapter 8: Breastfeeding* for more information.

Encourage Activity

Research has demonstrated that a physically active lifestyle plays an important role in the prevention of type 2 diabetes. Physical inactivity

postpartum is associated with poor physical function, poor vitality, depressive symptoms, and increased risk of developing Type 2 diabetes.⁵⁸⁻⁶² Refer to *Chapter 6: Exercise* for additional information.

Encourage Problem Solving

Women who have had GDM should be taught to recognize signs and symptoms that are indicative of diabetes. These include increase thirst and urination, repeat vaginal yeast infection or urinary tract infections, unexplained weight loss, blurring of vision, or extreme tiredness. She should space future pregnancies at least 2 years apart and ask their healthcare provider to order a 75 g, 2-hour OGTT or A1c before her next pregnancy. A woman who has had GDM should be screened for hyperglycemia at the first prenatal visit.

Contraceptive Considerations Following a Pregnancy with GDM

Maximizing BG control during the interconception period is a priority. Delaying pregnancy for 2 years during this transition period is recommended. As is similar for women with type 2 diabetes, it is desirable to use the most effective method of birth control with the least adverse effect on carbohydrate metabolism.^{63,64} Refer to *Chapter 2: Preconception and Interconception Care for Preexisting Diabetes* for a review of contraception options.

Monitoring Blood Glucose and Taking other Medications

Prescribed or over-the-counter medications may have detrimental effects on blood glucose tolerance. If an alternative is available that does not adversely affect blood glucose tolerance, it should be considered. This recommendation applies to herbal supplements and vitamins such as niacin.

Encourage Risk Reduction

In the first five years after a pregnancy with GDM, a subsequent pregnancy may increase the conversion to overt diabetes. A pregnancy longer than 5 years after a GDM pregnancy has a slower rate of conversion to type 2 diabetes and plateaus after 10 years. A systematic review by Kim discovered that conversion time from a GDM pregnancy to Type 2 diabetes was relatively similar for different racial groups despite known baseline differences in prevalence.^{46,49}

Women with gestational diabetes are at increased risk of developing cardiovascular disease.^{51,52} Regular physical check-ups including blood pressure, eye, dental and foot examinations is recommended. Encourage smoking cessation. Without adequate follow-up evaluation and testing, type 2 diabetes can go undetected for 7-10 years, during which time cardiovascular damage from elevated blood glucose can be a major problem.

Encourage Healthy Coping

It is important to recognize and treat depression. Depression increases the release of cortisol and other stress hormones resulting in insulin resistance and decreased energy which impacts a woman's activity level. It may also lead to increased non-optimal behaviors such as unhealthy eating or smoking. Depression can interfere with her attachment to her newborn.^{65,66} In addition, assess for sleep deprivation which can increase depression and result in unhealthy coping. Refer to *Chapter 9: Behavioral and Psychosocial Components of Care* for additional information.

REFERENCES

1. Buchanan TA, Xiang A, Kjos SL, Watanabe R. What is gestational diabetes? *Diabetes Care*. 2007;30 Suppl 2:S105-S111.
2. International Association of Diabetes Pregnancy Study Groups Consensus Panel. International association of diabetes and pregnancy study groups recommendations on the diagnosis and classification of hyperglycemia in pregnancy. *Diabetes Care*. 2010;33(3):676-682.
3. Bardenheier BH, Elixhauser A, Imperatore G, et al. Variation in prevalence of gestational diabetes mellitus among hospital discharges for obstetric delivery across 23 states in the United States. *Diabetes Care*. 2013;36(5):1209-1214.
4. Pettitt DJ, Jovanovic L. Birth weight as a predictor of type 2 diabetes mellitus: the U-shaped curve. *Curr Diab Rep*. 2001;1(1):78-81.
5. Metzger BE, Buchanan TA, Coustan DR, et al. Summary and recommendations of the Fifth International Workshop-Conference on Gestational Diabetes Mellitus. *Diabetes Care*. 2007;30 Suppl 2:S251-S260.
6. American Diabetes Association. Standards of medical care in diabetes-2011. *Diabetes Care*. 2011;34 Suppl 1:S11-S61.
7. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Practice Bulletin No. 137: gestational diabetes mellitus. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2013;122(2 Pt 1):406-416.
8. Hapo Study Cooperative Research Group, Metzger BE, Lowe LP, et al. Hyperglycemia and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *N Engl J Med*. 2008;358(19):1991-2002.
9. Dabelea D. The predisposition to obesity and diabetes in offspring of diabetic mothers. *Diabetes Care*. 2007;30 Suppl 2:S169-S174.
10. American Diabetes Association. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care*. 2011;34 Suppl 1:S62-S69.
11. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. ACOG Practice Bulletin No. 105: bariatric surgery and pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2009;113(6):1405-1413.
12. Villar J, Carroli G, Wojdyla D, et al. Preeclampsia, gestational hypertension and intrauterine growth restriction, related or independent conditions? *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2006;194(4):921-931.
13. Yogev Y, Xenakis EM, Langer O. The association between preeclampsia and the severity of gestational diabetes: the impact of glycemic control. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2004;191(5):1655-1660.
14. Carpenter MW. Gestational diabetes, pregnancy hypertension, and late vascular disease. *Diabetes Care*. 2007;30 Suppl 2:S246-S250.
15. Mulholland C, Njoroge T, Mersereau P, Williams J. Comparison of guidelines available in the United States for diagnosis and management of diabetes before, during, and after pregnancy. *J Womens Health (Larchmt)*. 2007;16(6):790-801.
16. Kestila KK, Ekblad UU, Ronnema T. Continuous glucose monitoring versus self-monitoring of blood glucose in the treatment of gestational diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 2007;77(2):174-179.

17. Ben-Haroush A, Yogev Y, Chen R, Rosenn B, Hod M, Langer O. The postprandial glucose profile in the diabetic pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2004;191(2):576-581.
18. Parretti E, Mecacci F, Papini M, et al. Third-trimester maternal glucose levels from diurnal profiles in nondiabetic pregnancies: correlation with sonographic parameters of fetal growth. *Diabetes Care*. 2001;24(8):1319-1323.
19. de Veciana M, Major CA, Morgan MA, et al. Postprandial versus preprandial blood glucose monitoring in women with gestational diabetes mellitus requiring insulin therapy. *N Engl J Med*. 1995;333(19):1237-1241.
20. Kitzmiller JL, Block JM, Brown FM, et al. Managing preexisting diabetes for pregnancy: summary of evidence and consensus recommendations for care. *Diabetes Care*. 2008;31(5):1060-1079.
21. Langer O, Conway DL, Berkus MD, Xenakis EM, Gonzales O. A comparison of glyburide and insulin in women with gestational diabetes mellitus. *N Engl J Med*. 2000;343(16):1134-1138.
22. Rowan JA, Hague WM, Gao W, Battin MR, Moore MP. Metformin versus insulin for the treatment of gestational diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2008;358(19):2003-2015.
23. Groop LC. Sulfonylureas in NIDDM. *Diabetes Care*. 1992;15(6):737-754.
24. Bertini AM, Silva JC, Taborda W, et al. Perinatal outcomes and the use of oral hypoglycemic agents. *J Perinat Med*. 2005;33(6):519-523.
25. Moore TR. Glyburide for the treatment of gestational diabetes: a critical appraisal. *Diabetes Care*. 2007;30 Suppl 2:S209-S213.
26. Drugs and supplements: glyburide and metformin (oral route). Mayo Clinic Web Site. Updated February 6, 2015. <http://www.mayoclinic.org/drugs-supplements/glyburide-and-metformin-oral-route/before-using/drg-20061991>. Accessed September 30, 2015.
27. Drug summary: glyburide. Physician Desk Reference Web site. <http://www.pdr.net/drug-summary/glyburide?druglabelid=3527>. Accessed September 30, 2015.
28. Rochon M, Rand L, Roth L, Gaddipati S. Glyburide for the management of gestational diabetes: risk factors predictive of failure and associated pregnancy outcomes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2006;195(4):1090-1094.
29. Feig DS, Briggs GG, Koren G. Oral antidiabetic agents in pregnancy and lactation: a paradigm shift? *Ann Pharmacother*. 2007;41(7):1174-1180.
30. Charles B, Norris R, Xiao X, Hague W. Population pharmacokinetics of metformin in late pregnancy. *Ther Drug Monit*. 2006;28(1):67-72.
31. Nanovskaya TN, Nekhayeva IA, Patrikeeva SL, Hankins GD, Ahmed MS. Transfer of metformin across the dually perfused human placental lobule. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2006;195(4):1081-1085.
32. Glueck CJ, Goldenberg N, Pranikoff J, Loftspring M, Sieve L, Wang P. Height, weight, and motor-social development during the first 18 months of life in 126 infants born to 109 mothers with polycystic ovary syndrome who conceived on and continued metformin through pregnancy. *Hum Reprod*. 2004;19(6):1323-1330.
33. Merlob P, Levitt O, Stahl B. Oral antihyperglycemic agents during pregnancy and lactation: a review. *Paediatr Drugs*. 2002;4(11):755-760.

34. Jakubowicz DJ, Iuorno MJ, Jakubowicz S, Roberts KA, Nestler JE. Effects of metformin on early pregnancy loss in the polycystic ovary syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2002;87(2):524-529.
35. Khattab S, Mohsen IA, Foutouh IA, Ramadan A, Moaz M, Al-Inany H. Metformin reduces abortion in pregnant women with polycystic ovary syndrome. *Gynecol Endocrinol.* 2006;22(12):680-684.
36. Bailey CJ. Metformin-an update. *Gen Pharmacol.* 1993;24(6):1299-1309.
37. McCarthy EA, Walker SP, McLachlan K, Boyle J, Permezel M. Metformin in obstetric and gynecologic practice: a review. *Obstet Gynecol Surv.* 2004;59(2):118-127.
38. Hone J, Jovanovic L. Approach to the patient with diabetes during pregnancy. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2010;95(8):3578-3585.
39. Yogev Y, Langer O. Spontaneous preterm delivery and gestational diabetes: the impact of glycemic control. *Arch Gynecol Obstet.* 2007;276(4):361-365.
40. American Diabetes Association. Jovanovic L, ed in chief. *Medical Management of Pregnancy Complicated by Diabetes.* Alexandria: VA: American Diabetes Association; 2000.
41. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. ACOG Practice Bulletin No 30: gestational diabetes. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2001;98(3):525-538.
42. Curet LB, Izquierdo LA, Gilson GJ, Schneider JM, Perelman R, Converse J. Relative effects of antepartum and intrapartum maternal blood glucose levels on incidence of neonatal hypoglycemia. *J Perinatol.* 1997;17(2):113-115.
43. Creasy RK, Resnik R, Greene MF, Iams JD, Lockwood CJ. *Creasy and Resnik's Maternal-Fetal Medicine: Principles and Practice.* 7th ed. Philadelphia, PA: Elsevier/Saunders; 2014.
44. Grylack LJ, Chu SS, Scanlon JW. Use of intravenous fluids before cesarean section: effects on perinatal glucose, insulin, and sodium homeostasis. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1984;63(5):654-658.
45. Jovanovic L. Glucose and insulin requirements during labor and delivery: the case for normoglycemia in pregnancies complicated by diabetes. *Endocr Pract.* 2004;10 Suppl 2:40-45.
46. Ratner RE. Prevention of type 2 diabetes in women with previous gestational diabetes. *Diabetes Care.* 2007;30 Suppl 2:S242-S245.
47. Simmons D, Eaton S, Shaw J, Zimmet P. Self-reported past gestational diabetes mellitus as a risk factor for abnormal glucose tolerance among Australian women. *Diabetes Care.* 2007;30(9):2293-2295.
48. Kim C, Berger DK, Chamany S. Recurrence of gestational diabetes mellitus: a systematic review. *Diabetes Care.* 2007;30(5):1314-1319.
49. Kim C, Newton KM, Knopp RH. Gestational diabetes and the incidence of type 2 diabetes: a systematic review. *Diabetes Care.* 2002;25(10):1862-1868.
50. Kitzmiller JL, Dang-Kilduff L, Taslimi MM. Gestational diabetes after delivery: short-term management and long-term risks. *Diabetes Care.* 2007;30 Suppl 2:S225-S235.
51. Kim C, Cheng YJ, Beckles GL. Cardiovascular disease risk profiles in women with histories of gestational diabetes but without current diabetes. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2008;112(4):875-883.
52. Retnakaran R, Shah BR. Mild glucose intolerance in pregnancy and risk of cardiovascular disease: a

population-based cohort study. *CMAJ*. 2009;181(6-7):371-376.

53. Gunderson EP. Breastfeeding after gestational diabetes pregnancy: subsequent obesity and type 2 diabetes in women and their offspring. *Diabetes Care*. 2007;30 Suppl 2:S161-S168.
54. Coustan DR, Carpenter MW, O'Sullivan PS, Carr SR. Gestational diabetes: predictors of subsequent disordered glucose metabolism. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1993;168(4):1139-1145.
55. Wong MS, Gu K, Heng D, Chew SK, Chew LS, Tai ES. The Singapore impaired glucose tolerance follow-up study: does the ticking clock go backward as well as forward? *Diabetes Care*. 2003;26(11):3024-3030.
56. Gruber A, Nasser K, Smith R, Sharma JC, Thomson GA. Diabetes prevention: is there more to it than lifestyle changes? *Int J Clin Pract*. 2006;60(5):590-594.
57. Babu A, Fogelfeld L. Metabolic syndrome and prediabetes. *Dis Mon*. 2006;52(2-3):55-144.
58. Tuomilehto J, Lindstrom J, Eriksson JG, et al. 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.
59. Pan XR, Li GW, Hu YH, et al. Effects of diet and exercise in preventing NIDDM in people with impaired glucose tolerance. The Da Qing IGT and Diabetes Study. *Diabetes Care*. 1997;20(4):537-544.
60. Knowler WC, Barrett-Connor E, Fowler SE, et al. Reduction in the incidence of type 2 diabetes with lifestyle intervention or metformin. *N Engl J Med*. 2002;346(6):393-403.
61. Palmer AJ, Roze S, Valentine WJ, Spinass GA, Shaw JE, Zimmet PZ. Intensive lifestyle changes or metformin in patients with impaired glucose tolerance: modeling the long-term health economic implications of the diabetes prevention program in Australia, France, Germany, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. *Clin Ther*. 2004;26(2):304-321.
62. Delahanty LM, Meigs JB, Hayden D, Williamson DA, Nathan DM, Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group. Psychological and behavioral correlates of baseline BMI in the diabetes prevention program (DPP). *Diabetes Care*. 2002;25(11):1992-1998.
63. Damm P, Mathiesen ER, Petersen KR, Kjos S. Contraception after gestational diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2007;30 Suppl 2:S236-S241.
64. Kjos SL, Peters RK, Xiang A, Thomas D, Schaefer U, Buchanan TA. Contraception and the risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus in Latina women with prior gestational diabetes mellitus. *JAMA*. 1998;280(6):533-538.
65. Moehler E, Brunner R, Wiebel A, Reck C, Resch F. Maternal depressive symptoms in the postnatal period are associated with long-term impairment of mother-child bonding. *Arch Womens Ment Health*. 2006;9(5):273-278.
66. Davis EP, Glynn LM, Schetter CD, Hobel C, Chicz-Demet A, Sandman CA. Prenatal exposure to maternal depression and cortisol influences infant temperament. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry*. 2007;46(6):737-746.
67. Coustan DR, Lowe LP, Metzger BE, Dyer AR. The Hyperglycemia and Adverse Pregnancy Outcome (HAPO) study: paving the way for new diagnostic criteria for gestational diabetes mellitus. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2010;202(6):654 e651-e656.

Guidelines for Diagnosis of Hyperglycemia in Pregnancy – 2011

First Prenatal Visit (< 13 wks)*

Many cases of diabetes or abnormal glucose tolerance are not detected until pregnancy. Early detection reduces complications.

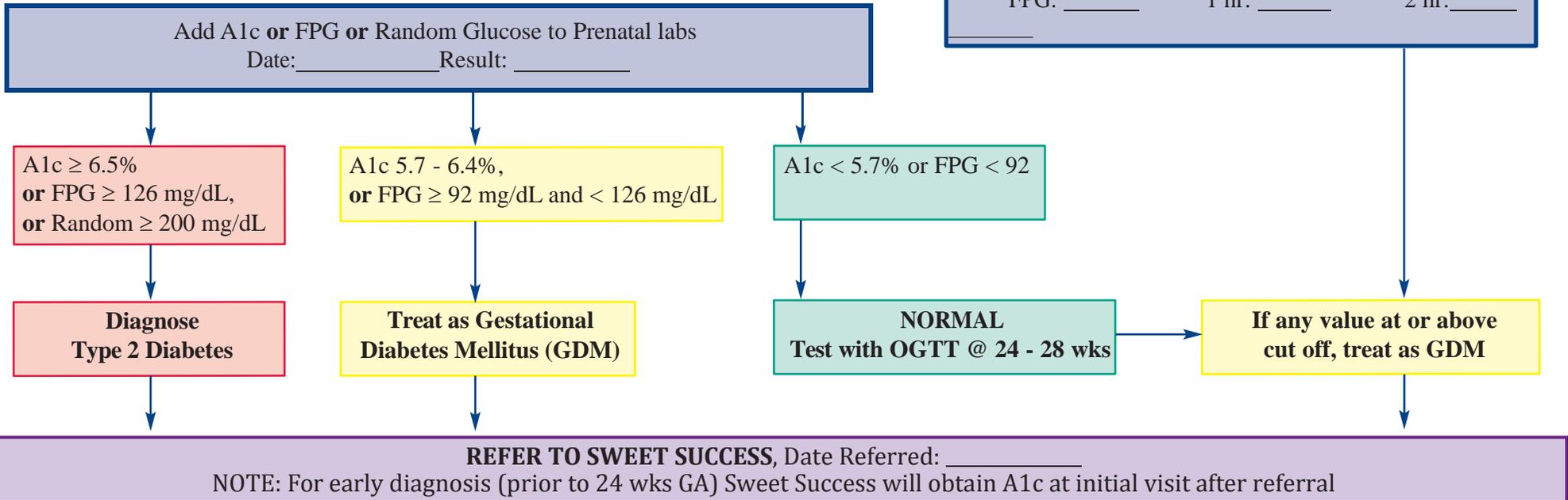
Test: Women who have ANY risk factor:

- Non-Caucasian
- BMI ≥ 25 (at risk BMI may be lower in some ethnic groups)
- History of GDM or pre-diabetes, unexplained stillbirth, malformed infant
- Previous baby 4000 gm or more (8 lbs 13 oz)
- 1st degree relative with DM
- Glucosuria
- Medications that raise glucose (e.g. steroids, betamimetics, atypical antipsychotics)
- Polycystic ovarian syndrome (PCOS), CVD, HTN, hyperlipidemia

ALTERNATE: Test all women for undiagnosed hyperglycemia at the first visit

Universal Testing at 24-28 wks

- 2011 ADA standard is 75 gm 2h OGTT for all women not previously diagnosed with diabetes @ 24-28 wks GA
- Fast 8 - 10 hours, remain seated during test
- Consider adding to third trimester labs



Date: _____
 FPG: _____ 1 hr: _____ 2 hr: _____

*** If entry to care is at 13 - 23 6/7 wks, and risk factors are present, test ASAP with a 75 gm 2h OGTT**



3. International Association of Diabetes Pregnancy Study Groups Consensus Panel. International association of diabetes and pregnancy study groups recommendations on the diagnosis and classification of hyperglycemia in pregnancy. Diabetes Care. 2010;33(3):676-682.
 6. American Diabetes Association. Standards of medical care in diabetes-2011. Diabetes Care. 2011;34 Suppl 1:S11-S61.
 10. American Diabetes Association. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. Diabetes Care. 2011;34 Suppl 1:S62-S69.
 63. Coustan DR, Lowe LP, Metzger BE, Dyer AR. The Hyperglycemia and Adverse Pregnancy Outcome (HAPO) study: paving the way for new diagnostic criteria for gestational diabetes mellitus. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2010;202(6):654 e651-e656.

For more information:

California Department of Public Health, Center for Family Health,
Maternal Child and Adolescent Health Division,
California Diabetes and Pregnancy Program (CDAPP) Sweet Success
(916) 650-0300

<http://www.cdph.ca.gov/programs/CDAPP>

or

California Diabetes and Pregnancy Program (CDAPP) Sweet Success
Resource and Training Center
Tracy Esquivel, BA
(714) 921-9755

<http://www.CDAPPSweetSuccess.org>

