Diabetes Mellitus and Planning Conception

Keywords: Diabetic Embryopathy; Metabolic Syndrome; Diabetic Keto acidosis; Medical Nutrition Therapy; Pre Gestational Diabetes; Diabetic Retinopathy; Diabetic Nephropathy; Ketogenic Diet

Abstract

Diabetes mellitus is a disease which affects endocrine system and it is considered to beone of the most serious health problems to modern global health. Glycemic control is one of themost important aspects of preconception care; however other aspects such as folic acid supplementation, smoking cessation, screening and treatment of diabetes complications and discontinuing teratogenic medication, are as important for improving maternal and fetal outcomes.

Effective preconception care is associated with improved pregnancy outcomes for women with diabetes. A multidisciplinary team work is essential for preconception care. Outcome becomes fruitful with patient awareness and managing diabetes before pregnancy in an organised manner.

Diabetes and Fertility- An Overview

Diabetes is a disease that affects millions of people and their families. The WHO estimates that more than 180 million people worldwide have diabetes. This number is likely to become 300 million by 2030 [1].

Diabetes has become a major health burden affecting primarily young adults and women in their reproductive age [2,3]. Type 1 diabetes is rising alarmingly worldwide, at a rate of 3% per year. Some 70,000 children aged 14 and under, develop Type 1 diabetes annually. Type 2 diabetes is also increasing in number among children and adolescents as obesity rates in this population continue to soar, in both developed and developing nations [4].

Given its' prevalence and heavy healthcare and quality-of-life burden [6], there is a great need for better treatment options. Despite improved access and quality of antenatal care, women and their foetuses with pre gestational diabetes are associated with increased risks of adverse pregnancy outcomes [7-11].

The first population-based epidemiological study on fertility rates over time among women with Type 1 diabetes was conducted in Sweden during 1965 to 2004 [12]. The lowest standardized fertility ratios were observed among women who had their first hospitalization for diabetes in the earliest years. The presence of diabetic microvascular or cardiovascular complications was associated with particularly low fertility, essentially regardless of year of first hospitalization.

Infertility risk factors related to diabetes [5]

Menstrual abnormalities

Shortening of reproductive period (late menarche and premature menopause)

Poor glycemic control and presence of diabetes complications

Hyperandrogenism and polycystic ovary syndrome

Autoimmunity (Hashimoto's thyroiditis and antiovarian autoantibodies)

Sexual dysfunction

Open Access

Review Article

Advances in Diabetes & Endocrinology

TG Singh*

MBBS; MS (Obs/Gynae), FIAOG Associate member Royal College of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, UK High Risk Pregnancy Specialist Managing Director GNS Hospital, Chattarpur, New Delhi India

*Address for Correspondence

Dr. Tania G Singh, MBBS; MS (Obs/Gynae), FIAOG Associate member Royal College of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, UK High Risk Pregnancy Specialist, Managing Director GNS Hospital, Chattarpur, New Delhi, India. E-mail id: taniasingh.ts@gmail.com

Submission: 08 April, 2023 Accepted: 16 May, 2023 Published: 19 May, 2023

Copyright: © 2023 Singh TG. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

With changing dietary and lifestyle patterns, the prevalence of obesity is increasing, thus raising the incidence of Type 2 diabetes during the reproductive years. Going in this direction, the disease can be linked to polycystic ovarian syndrome, the most common hormonal disorder among women of reproductive age, and a leading cause of infertility. Legro et al. showed that PCOS women are at significantly increased risk for impaired glucose tolerance and Type 2 diabetes mellitus at all weights and at a young age [13]. A study by A mini et al. showed that PCOS is highly prevalent in Type 2 diabetic patients [14].

Again, obesity is common in both PCOS and Type 2 diabetic women. Studies show that obese women seeking pregnancy experience longer times to conception, unrelated to age and to cyclic regularity, which is suggestive of alterations in ovarian function during the periconceptual period [15-16].

Diabetes and the Preconception Care

Preconception care is defined as a care that aim to identify and modify risks during pregnancy and improves pregnancy outcome through prevention and management. It is very alarming that 50% of all pregnancies are unplanned [17]. Improved preconception care is a mandatory component for women with diabetes.

Diabetes affects women in many ways, and one of them is the focus of the present discussion – the association between diabetes mellitus and planning conception. Women with diabetes should be informed about the benefits of preconception glycaemic control at each contact with healthcare professionals, from adolescence onwards [18]. Many of the complications of diabetes mellitus during pregnancy can be prevented by optimizing maternal health in the preconception period [19].

Periconceptional period is one of the most vital periods in a woman's life especially if she is suffering from any major illness like diabetes. Preconception care for women with diabetes is an effective means to reduce the incidence of adverse pregnancy outcomes [20-23]. Diabetic mothers are vulnerable to early pregnancy losses

Citation: Singh TG. Diabetes Mellitus and Planning Conception. Adv Diabetes Endocrinol 2023;7(1): 7.

together with an increased incidence of congenital malformations in infants. Therefore, optimal medical care and pre conceptional counselling becomes a must in such patients [24]. This is best accomplished through a multidisciplinary team approach including a diabetologist, obstetrician, a dietitian, and other specialists as and when necessary.

Education in self management skills have a special role in diabetes. This model of care is important for patients to achieve the level of sustained glycemic control necessary to prevent congenital malformations. All diabetic women of child-bearing potential should be counselled about the risks of unplanned pregnancy and their use of appropriate contraception should be assured until metabolic control is achieved and conception is attempted. The first few weeks of pregnancy, when a woman may not be aware of her ongoing pregnancy, are particularly important because diabetic embryopathy induced by hyperglycaemia develop during this time [25-26]. Diabetic embryopathy includes the following congenital malformations in the fetus and are strongly related to the degree of hyperglycaemia in the periconceptional period:

- Congenital heart defects, most common abnormality, comprising 35 to 40 percent of major congenital anomalies, and includes tetralogy of Fallot, transposition of the great arteries, septal defects, and anomalous pulmonary venous return [27].
- Central nervous system defects (anencephaly, spina bifida, encephalocele, hydrocephaly, anotia/microtia)
- 👹 Limb defects
- 🌼 Orofacial clefts
- Defects in the urogenital system [28-29].
- Sacral agenesis/caudal dysplasia (lack of fetal development of the caudal spine and corresponding segments of the spinal cord) accounts for 15 to 25 percent of all cases [30].

In women with advanced complications of diabetes, weighing the risk of a pregnancy to their health versus the desire for child bearing is particularly important.

The Goals and the Roles

Women with diabetes should be empowered to take control of their own disease process. Therefore, its very important that the goals and specific roles of each member of the team should be clear [31]. Women with type 2 diabetes may be less likely to prepare for pregnancy and achieve good glycemic control compared with those with type 1 diabetes [32-33]. While the risk of pregnancy complications may be similar for women with type 1 and type 2 diabetes, women with type 1 diabetes are more likely to have pre gestational micro vascular complications and are at higher risk of developing severe hypo- and hyperglycaemia and diabetic ketoacidosis.

The above constitutes an integrated model of care, demanding coordination of the roles of the different team members. Motivation for intensive self-management is dependent on the team's approach to imparting knowledge and skills to women with diabetes. Comprehensive and ongoing patient education is critical for shared decision-making about management goals and medication changes and for helping patients meet the considerable demands of self-care. Support system, includes family and work environment. Psychosocial status including adherence issues, social support network, and stress factors related to both diabetes and pregnancy should be discussed.

Based on the above information gathered, these professionals will review the patient's current management plan and develop a comprehensive treatment plan.

Contraindications to pregnancy

The NICE guideline states that an HbA1C > 10% is a contraindication to pregnancy. In contrast ADIPS suggests that impaired renal function as measured by a serum creatinine> 0.2 mmol/L should be a contraindication to pregnancy.

Role of Diet and Nutrition Therapy in the Management of Diabetes

Diet is one of the most important behavioural aspects of diabetes treatment. Understanding how different food intakes affect glycemia and developing a food plan of meals and snacks helps women reduce glucose fluctuations and manage fluctuations that occur.

The desired outcome of the preconception phase of careis to lower HbA1C test values to a level associated with optimal development during organogenesis. In order to achieve this goal, diet and nutrition has a great role. Nutrition history includes weight changes, history of eating disorders, gastrointestinal problems, and lifestyle considerations. Diet recall or food diaries may be of benefit in identifying specific problems within the meal plan.

Calculation of caloric needs based on height, weight, age, and activity level with development of a meal plan, including distribution of calories, carbohydrate, fat, and protein to achieve optimal nutrition while maintaining appropriate weight and acceptable glycemic control is the need of the hour.

Medical Nutrition Therapy for Diabetes should consider the following key aspects:

- Consistency in day-to-day carbohydrate intake at meals and snacks
- Weight management and increased physical activity
- Caloric intake (balanced with caloric expenditure)
- Nutritional content (balance of selected protein, carbohydrates, and fats)
- Timing of meals and snacks
- Adjusting insulin (in case of Type 1 diabetics) for variations in blood glucose, food, or activity
- 🏁 Meal-insulin timing

Rallis in his study [51]concluded that a high-fat, low-carbohydrate, ketogenic diet may prove to be a more effective dietary intervention in the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus [52-53], whereas the present nutritional guidelines appear biased towards the promotion of carbohydrate-rich diets as mentioned above. The concept behind a ketogenic diet uses the idea that dietary macronutrient content modification promotes a shift from a carbohydrate to a lipid dominant metabolism. In order to achieve a ketogenic state, carbohydrate

Citation: Singh TG. Diabetes Mellitus and Planning Conception. Adv Diabetes Endocrinol 2023;7(1): 7.

ISSN: 2475-5591

Diabetologist	Obstetrician	Dietician
	Menstrual/pregnancy history; contraceptive use. Discussion regarding the effect of diabetes on pregnancy and how pregnancy affects diabetes.	Using an appropriate meal plan. Discuss if any Medical Nutrition Therapy (MNT) was previously followed.
Help the patient lower her glycated haemoglobin. Blood glucose testing and urine ketone testing should be done at each visit. Since it takes two to three months to turn over HbA ₁ C, women with diabetes should be encouraged to allow a minimum of six months to achieve optimal glucose control before trying to conceive, in case diabetes is not already well controlled. The following preconception glucose targets are reasonable to attempt to achieve: • HbA1C <6.5 % • Fasting capillary blood glucose concentration 80 to 110 mg/dL (4.4 to 6.1 mmol/L) • Two hour postprandial glucose concentration <155 mg/dL (8.6 mmol/L)	 Explain the patient the various risks (maternal and fetal) including fetal malformations and means of prevention [34] Risks to the mother: Increased risk of miscarriage (2-3 fold higher in women with pregestational diabetes) Precelampsia/gestational hypertension (The risk may be higher in women with type 1 diabetes due to their higher risk of pre-existing microvascular disease;however, evidence suggests that glycemic control decreases the risk of developing preeclampsia) [36-37] Increased risk of hypoglycaemia in early pregnancy in women on insulindue in part to the lower glucose targets in pregnancy, and possibly to the contribution of erratic meals due to morning sickness. She should be instructed to carry a snack at all times. Increased weight gain in pregnancy. Preterm labour/delivery (both indicated and spontaneous preterm delivery) Worsening of retinopathy in those with pre-existing proliferative retinopathybecause of pregnancy-related vascular and volume changes Increased risk of developing postpartum hemorrhage Interventional delivery Complications associated with coagulopathy (in cases of prolonged retention of dead fetus) Risks to the fetus: Fetal maformations (pignentic changes in gene expression may be influenced by pregestational diabetes; this is an area of ongoing investigation] [40] Stillbirth /perinatal mortality risk begins to increase at A1C levels between 6-6-9% (25,41] Prematurity Intrapartum asphyxia Birth trauma Respiratory distress syndrome Admission to NICU Hypogalcemia (because of high insulin levels in fetus) Hyporagenenia Hyperinsulinaemia Cardiomyopathy<	NICE recommendsweight reduction for women with a BMI >27 kg/m² [35] Provision of dietary advice such as consuming a dietwith high levels of complex carbohydrates, solublefibre and vitamins, and reduced levels of saturated fats is also recommended [37-38].

Assessment of other medical complications or diseases especially, thyroid status.	
Measurement of serum thyroid stimulating hormone and/or free thyroxine level in women with type 1 diabetes is important because of the 510 % coincidence of hyper- or hypothyroidism	scussed below)
Diabetes management, including insulin regimen, prior or current use of oral glucose-lowering agents, needs to be discussedIn cases of patients with polycystic ovarian syndrome, well controlled on metformin, the drug need not be stopped at conception	
Patients with Impaired glucose tolerance, Impaired Fasting Glucose, or patients with an HbA₁C of 5.7–6.4 % should undergo following interventions before pregnancy: • Weight loss ≈ 7% of body weight (therefore, physical activity becomes a must especially in obese patients) • Increasing physical activity to at least 150 min/week of moderate activity such as walking • Metformin therapy for prevention of type 2 diabetes may be considered in those with: • BMI > 35 kg/m² • Women with HbA1c above 86mmol/mol should be strongly advised to avoid pregnancy because of the associated risks.	
Testing capillary blood glucose Folic acid 5 mg/day at least 3 months prior to conception [48] Using carbohydrate and gluca	agon for hypoglycaemia
Systemic examinations to be done (in case of Type 1 diabetes) [51] • Fundus examination • Renal function testsby measurement of serum creatinine and urinary microalbumin measurement (albumin-to-creatinine ratio or 24-h collection with creatinine, allowing the simultaneous measurement of creatinine clearance) is undertaken before conception Refrain from smoking and alcontext of the simultaneous measurement of creatinine clearance) is undertaken before (UTI, dental caries) Refrain from smoking and alcontext of the simultaneous measurement of creatinine clearance)	cohol
Oral hypoglycaemics to be switched over to insulin in case of Type 1 diabetics. Useof	
metformin as an adjunct or alternative for Reducing stress, coping with denial diabetic treatment preconceptionally when Reducing stress, coping with denial insulin treatment is refused or a patient Reducing stress, coping with denial develops resistance, is recommended 135,49,50]	

intake must be restricted to about 10% of total dietary intake. Protein and fat should make up ~20% and ~70% of the diet, respectively [54]. Under these conditions, the body begins to upregulate lipolytic enzymes and bypass the dependence on glucose for energy [55].

Hallberg et al did assess compliance of the ketogenic diet among diabetic patients using objective serum ketone monitoring and demonstrated that 87% of their participants were able to maintain a ketogenic diet for at least a year [56]. Dietary fats appear to play a role in mood stability [57], and endogenously produced ketone bodies (by-product of a ketogenic diet) naturally suppress appetite [58] both of which may assistin improving patient satisfaction and compliance with this nutritional methodology. A recent meta-analysis by Sainsbury et al however found that while carbohydrate-restricted dietsproduced greater reductions in HBA1C at 3 and 6 months, there was no statistically significant difference at 12 or 24 months [59].

Associated Complications and Management

High risk of diabetic complications and potential risks for pregnancy-related complications [60] require a detailed physical examination initiating with a blood pressure measurement (including orthostatic changes) before conception with special emphasis on the following [10]:

Counselling and Continued Care

The counselling sessions are important primarily for patient education, motivation, and instruction in more effective management strategies. At each visit, it is extremely important to make sure that the patient has understood what is being discussed and instructed. Evaluation of self monitoring of blood glucose; observation of technique used by the patient and to correlate test with the laboratory; testing log of the patient should be reviewed for appropriate timing of testing, frequency of testing, and values. Make sure that the patient has understood the insulin algorithms, identify the problem areas and reinstruct.

Evaluation of frequency, duration and timing of hypoglycaemic and hyperglycaemic episodes with an attempt to identify its' cause, are reviewed. Monthly HbA1C measurements prior to pregnancy are needed. Review the exercise plans, including timing, duration, and intensity as it relates to her tolerance of the activity.

Review with the nutritionist/dietician is extremely important. Root cause of many of the associated complications can be identified tracking the food records of each day (with timings), the blood glucose values before and after those particular meals and the amount of insulin injected. Review weight changes and determine the appropriateness of the prescribed meal plan and adjust as necessary.

Complication	Inferences	
Hypoglycemia [35,50]	Repeated and/or frequent episodes may be associated with: Defective counterregulation Unawareness of the complication Insulin dose errors Excessive alcohol intake Unexplained Complete awareness, means of prevention and immediate management, be provided to the woman and her family members. Aim to achieve the following goals: Preprandial whole blood glucose 70–100 mg/dl (3.9–5.6 mmol/l) OR Preprandial plasma glucose 80–110 mg/dl (4.4–6.1 mmol/l) Postprandial whole blood glucose 1 h <140 mg/dl (<7.8 mmol/l)	
Hypertension	than whole blood values. Patients with type 1 diabetes frequently develop hypertension in association with diabetic nephropathy as manifested by the presence of microalbuminuria or albuminuria. Patients with type 2 diabetes more commonly have hypertension as a concomitant disease. Therefore, aggressive monitoring and control of hypertension in the preconception state is imperative.	
Diabetic Retinopathy	Dilated retinal examination as the condition has a potential to worsen during pregnancy. A baseline dilated comprehensive eye examination is necessary before conception, in addition to achievement of good metabolic control. If deemed necessary, laser photocoagulation can be undertaken.	
Diabetic Nephropathy	In less severe nephropathy, renal function worsens during pregnancy in only 8–30%, therefore, it should not be considered a risk to conception. In severe cases or those with incipient renal failure (serum creatinine >3 mg/dl or creatinine clearance <50 ml/min) pregnancy should be avoidedunless renal function can be stabilized by renal transplantation.	
Cardiovascular complications	Thorough cardiovascular assessment is essential especially in those with long standing diabetes (> 10 years) or with other coronary artery disease risk factors. Untreated cardiovascular disease is associated with a high mortality, and should be excluded [61].	
Neurological examination	Neurological assessment, including autonomic function is necessary. The following manifestations should be identified, appropriately evaluated and managed before conception is contemplated: Gastroparesis, Urinary retention, Hypoglycaemic unawareness, or Orthostatic hypotension	
Lower extremity examination	For evidence of vascular disease, neuropathy, deformity, or infection	
Pelvic examination	Including pap smear. Look for any repeated vulvovaginal infections including excessive leucorrhea	
Hospitalizations	Occasionally it becomes necessary to hospitalize for treatment of intercurrent illness and acute diabetic complications such as diabetic ketoacidosis, hyperosmolar nonketotic syndromes, or severe hypoglycaemia.	

Unfortunately, unplanned pregnancies occur in about twothirds ofwomen with diabetes, precluding adequate preconception care and leading to apersistent excess of malformations in their infants [62]. There are no contraceptive methods that are specifically contraindicated in women with diabetes.

Compliance is the sole issue seen in many patients. Again, counselling has a key role in overcoming the patient's resistance. Stress issues should be discussed in detail. Explore ways and give suggestions on how to cope with it.Reinforce the importance of the overall treatment plan with the patient.

In the end, the importance of carefully planning a pregnancy and the need for effective contraceptionand avoiding pregnancy until a good glycemic control is achieved, should again be elaborated. The contraceptive methods with proven high degrees of effectiveness are to be preferred. Together with this, there is a need to review the current medications and their safety in pregnancy.

References

- Wild S, Roglic G, Green A (2004) Global prevalence of diabetes: estimates for the year 2000 and projections for 2030. 27: 1047-1053.
- Al-Nuaim AR (1997) Prevalence of glucose intolerance in urban and rural communities of Saudi Arabia. Diabetic Medicine 14: 595-602.
- 3. Hotu S, Carter B, Watson PD(2004) Increasing prevalence of type 2 diabetes in adolescents. Journal of paediatric and child health 40: 201-204.
- 4. International Diabetes Federation UN Resolution 61/225: World Diabetes Day
- Livshits A, Seidman DS (2009) Fertility Issues in Women with Diabetes. Women's Health. 5: 701-707.
- International Diabetes Federation (IDF) (2013). Diabetes atlas. 6th edn. 2013. Diabetes atlas.

- 7. Clausen T, Mathiesen E, EkbomP (2005) Poor pregnancy outcome in women with type 2 diabetes. Diabetes Care 28: 323-328.
- Dunne F, Brydon P, Smith K(2003) Pregnancy in women with type 2 diabetes: 12 years outcome data 1990-2002. Diabet Med 20: 734-738.
- Hughes R , Rowan J (2006) Perinatal outcomes and macro somia in a multiethnic population of women with type 2 diabetes. Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol 46: 552-555.
- 10. Keely E (2008) Type 2 diabetes in pregnancy: importance of optimized care before, during and after pregnancy.Obstet Med 1: 72-77.
- Persson M, Norman M, Hanson U (2009) Obstetric and perinatal outcomes in type 1 diabetic pregnancies: a large, population-based study. Diabetes Care 32: 2005-2009.
- 12. Jonasson JM , Brismar K , Sparen P (2007) Fertility in women with Type 1 diabetes. Diabetes Care 30: 2271-2276.
- Legro RS, Kunselman AR, Dodson WC (1999) Prevalence and predictors of risk for Type 2 diabetes mellitus and impaired glucose tolerance in polycystic ovary syndrome: a prospective, controlled study in 254 affected women. J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab 84: 165-169.
- Amini M, Horri N, Farmani M (2008) Prevalence of polycystic ovary syndrome in reproductive-aged women with Type 2 diabetes. Gynecol. Endocrinol 24: 423-427.
- Van der Steeg JW, Steures P, Eijkemans MJ (2007) Obesity affects spontaneous pregnancy chances in sub fertile, ovulatory women. Hum. Reprod 23: 324-328.
- Jensen TK, Scheike T, Keiding N (1999) Fecund ability in relation to body mass and menstrual cycle patterns. Epidemiol 10: 422-428.
- Afsana F (2017) Pre conception Care in Women with Diabetes. BIRDEM Med J 7:164-167.
- NICE(2008) Diabetes in pregnancy: management of diabetes and its complications from preconception to the postnatal period. London: NICE
- Wahabi HA (2010) Pre conception care for diabetic women for improving maternal and fetal outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth 10-63.
- Ray JG, O'Brien TE, Chan WS (2001) Pre conception care and the risk of congenital anomalies in the offspring of women with diabetes mellitus: ametaanalysis. QJM 94: 435-444.
- Cartwright A, Wally mahmed M, Macfarlane I, Casson I (2009)What do women with diabetes know about pregnancy and contraception? Practical Diabetes International 26: 238-242.
- 22. CEMACH (2007) Diabetes in pregnancy: are we providing the best care? Findings of a national enquiry. London: CEMACH Pregnancy in women with Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes in Dublin 469-473
- McDowell JRS, McPhail K, Halyburton G (2009) Perceptions of a service redesign by adults living with type 2 diabetes. JAdvNurs 65: 1432-1441.
- 24. American Diabetes Association (2000) Preconception Care of Women With Diabetes. Clinical Diabetes 18.
- Jensen DM, Korsholm L, Ovesen P (2009) Peri-conceptional A1C and risk of serious adverse pregnancy outcome in 933 women with type 1 diabetes. Diabetes Care 32: 1046.
- Schaefer UM, Songster G, Xiang A(1997) Congenital malformations in offspring of women with hyperglycemia first detected during pregnancy. AmJ ObstetGynecol 177: 1165-1171.
- Hoang TT, Marengo LK, Mitchell LE (2017) Original Findings and Updated Meta-Analysis for the Association Between Maternal Diabetes and Risk for Congenital Heart Disease Phenotypes. Am J Epidemiol 186: 118-128.
- Guerin A, Nisenbaum R, Ray JG (2007) Use of maternal GHb concentration to estimate the risk of congenital anomalies in the offspring of women with pre pregnancy diabetes. Diabetes Care 30: 1920-1925
- 29. Schaefer-Graf UM, Buchanan TA, Xiang A, (2000) Patterns of congenital

anomalies and relationship to initial maternal fasting glucose levels in pregnancies complicated by type 2 and gestational diabetes. Am J ObstetGynecol 182: 313-320.

- Al Kaissi A, Klaushofer K, Grill F (2008) Caudal regression syndrome and pop liteal webbing in connection with maternal diabetes mellitus: a case report and literature review. Cases J 1: 407.
- Curtis M, Abelman S, Schulkin J, (2006) Do we practice what we preach? A review of actual clinical practice with regards to preconception care guidelines. Matern Child Health J 10: S53-S58.
- Hewapathirana NM, Murphy HR (2014) Perinatal outcomes in type 2 diabetes. CurrDiab Rep 14: 461.
- Murphy HR, Roland JM, Skinner TC (2010) Effectiveness of a regional pre pregnancy care program in women with type 1 and type 2 diabetes: benefits beyond glycemic control. Diabetes Care 33: 2514-2520.
- 34. Kitzmiller JL, Buchanan TA, Kjos S (1996) Preconception care of diabetes, congenital malformations, and spontaneous abortions (Technical Review). Diabetes Care 19: 514541.
- 35. NICE Clinical Guideline 63. Diabetes in pregnancy: management ofdiabetes and its complication from pre-conception to the postnatal period. http://www.nice.org.uk/ nicemedia/pdf/CG063Guidance.pdf
- Temple RC , Aldridge V , Stanley K (2006) Glycaemic control throughout pregnancy and risk of pre-eclampsia in women with type I diabetes. BJOG 113: 1329-1332.
- 37. Sibai BM, Caritis S, Hauth J (2000) Risks of preeclampsia and adverse neonatal outcomes among women with pre gestational diabetes mellitus. National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Network of Maternal-Fetal Medicine Units. Am J ObstetGynecol 182: 364-369.
- SIGN Guideline 55: Management of Diabetes, Section 8: Management of Diabetes in pregnancy.
- Evers IM , de Valk HW , Visser GH (2004) Risk of complications of pregnancy in women with type 1 diabetes: nationwide prospective study in the Netherlands. BMJ 328: 915.
- Kitzmiller JL, Wallerstein R, Correa A, Kwan S (2010) Preconception care for women with diabetes and prevention of major congenital malformations. Birth Defects Res A ClinMolTeratol 88: 791-803.
- 41. Tennant PW, Glinianaia SV, Bilous RW (2014) Pre-existing diabetes, maternal glycated haemoglobin, and the risks of fetal and infant death: a population-based study. Diabetologia 57: 285-294.
- 42. Clausen TD , Mathiesen ER , Hansen T (2008) High prevalence of type 2 diabetes and pre-diabetes in adult offspring of women with gestational diabetes mellitus or type 1 diabetes: the role of intrauterine hyperglycemia. Diabetes Care 31: 340-346.
- 43. Silverman BL , Metzger BE , Cho NH , Loeb CA (1995) Impaired glucose tolerance in adolescent offspring of diabetic mothers. Relationship to fetal hyper insulinism. Diabetes Care 18: 611-617.
- Pettitt DJ, Nelson RG, Saad MF(1993) Diabetes and obesity in the offspring of Pima Indian women with diabetes during pregnancy. Diabetes Care 16: 310-314.
- 45. Dabelea D , Mayer-Davis EJ , Lamichhane AP (2008) Association of intrauterine exposure to maternal diabetes and obesity with type 2 diabetes in youth: the SEARCH Case-Control Study. Diabetes Care 31: 1422-1426.
- 46. Xiang AH , Wang X , Martinez MP (2018) Maternal Type 1 Diabetes and Risk of Autism in Offspring. JAMA 320: 89-91.
- 47. Ballas J, Moore TR, Ramos GA (2012) Management of diabetes in pregnancy. CurrDiab Rep 12: 33-42.
- Mahmud M, Mazza D(2010) Preconception care of women with diabetes: a review of current guideline recommendations BMC Women's Health 10: 2-7.
- American Diabetes Association: Standards of medical care in diabetes-2009. Diabetes Care 32: S13-S61.
- 50. The Australian Diabetes in Pregnancy Society (2005): Consensus Guidelines

for the Management of Patients with Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes inRelation to Pregnancy. Medical Journal of Australia 1-30.

- 51. Rallis S(2019) Optimizing glycemic control in type 2 diabetic patients through the use of a low-carbohydrate, high-fat, ketogenic diet: a review of two patients in primary care. Diabetes, Metabolic Syndrome and Obesity: Targets and Therapy 12: 299-303.
- Tay J, Luscombe-Marsh ND, Thompson CH (2015) Comparison of low- and high-carbohydrate diets for type 2 diabetes management: a randomized trial. Am J ClinNutr 102: 780-790.
- 53. Meng Y, Bai H, Wang S (2017) Efficacy of low carbohydrate diet for type 2 diabetes mellitus management: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Diabetes Res ClinPract 131:124-131.
- 54. Westman EC, Feinman RD, Mavropoulos JC (2007) Low-carbohydrate nutrition and metabolism. Am J ClinNutr 86: 276-284.
- 55. Masino SA , Rho JM.(2018) Mechanisms of ketogenic diet action. Jasper's Basic Mechanisms of the Epilepsies [Internet]. 4th ed; 2012.
- 56. Hallberg SJ, McKenzie AL, Williams PT (2018) Effectiveness and safety of a

novel care model for the management of type 2 diabetes at 1 year: an openlabel, non-randomized, controlled study. Diabetes Ther 9: 613-621.

- 57. Wells AS, Read NW, Laugharne JD(1998) Alterations in mood after changing to a low-fat diet. Br J Nutr. 79: 23-30.
- Gibson AA, Seimon RV, Lee CM (2015) Do ketogenic diets really suppress appetite? A systematic review and meta-analysis. Obes Rev. 16: 64-76.
- Sainsbury E, Kizirian NV, Partridge SR (2018) Effect of dietary carbohydrate restriction on glycemic control in adults with diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Diabetes Res ClinPract. 139: 239-252.
- Temple R, Aldridge V, Murphy H (2006) Pre-pregnancy care and pregnancy outcomes in women with type 1 diabetes. Diabetes Care 29: 1744-1749.
- 61. American Diabetes Association (1998) Consensus development conference on the diagnosis of coronary heart disease in people with diabetes (Consensus Statement). Diabetes Care 21:1551-1559
- 62. American diabetes association (2003) Preconception Care of Women With Diabetes. Diabetes care 26: 91-93.