ISSN: 2320-2882

IJCRT.ORG



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CREATIVE RESEARCH THOUGHTS (IJCRT)

An International Open Access, Peer-reviewed, Refereed Journal

NUTRITIONAL STRATEGIES FOR MANAGING DIABETES

Ramsewak Yadav¹*, Pallavi², Sona Limbu³, Shivani Sharma⁴, Aditi Bhardwaj⁵, Aakarshan Thakur⁶.

^{1,2,3}College of Pharmacy, RIMT University, Mandi Gobindgarh, Punjab, 147301. ⁴Assistant professor, College of Pharmacy, RIMT University, Mandi Gobindgarh, Punjab, 147301. ^{5,6}Associate professor, College of Pharmacy, RIMT University, Mandi Gobindgarh, Punjab, 147301.

ABSTRACT

Diabetes is a chronic illness that develops when the body either cannot use the insulin that the pancreas makes properly or does not create enough of it. One hormone that controls blood sugar is insulin. elevated blood sugar, is a frequent consequence of uncontrolled diabetes mellitus that eventually causes major harm to numerous bodily systems, particularly the blood vessels and neurons. 8.5% of persons who were 18 years of age or older had diabetes in 2014. 2019 had 1.5 million deaths directly related to diabetes, with 48% of these deaths happening before the age of 70. Diabetes contributed to an additional 460000 deaths from kidney disease, and elevated blood glucose accounts for 20% of fatalities from cardiovascular disease. One of the most important aspects of managing diabetes is nutrition therapy. In order to manage type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), it is important to encourage a healthy lifestyle. Nutritional therapy (NT) can assist patients in reaching their blood pressure and glycemic control goals.

The treatment of diabetes has advanced recently with an emphasis on developing artificial pancreas systems for automated insulin delivery, optimising insulin therapy, and investigating new oral drugs. Furthermore, SGLT-2 inhibitors and sophisticated GLP-1 receptor agonists are still being studied. Similarly, the recommended nutrition therapy for diabetes may change in near future. Such changes in nutrition therapy must be dynamic and based on not only scientific evidence but also each patient's narrative. The project's goal is to treat diabetes with a diet that is balanced in nutrients.

Keywords: Diabetes, Insulin, Nutrition, Nutrition Therapy, Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)

INTRODUCTION

DIABETES

Diabetes mellitus, commonly referred to as diabetes, is a chronic metabolic disorder characterized by elevated levels of blood glucose (hyperglycemia) resulting from defects in insulin secretion, insulin action, or both. Insulin, a hormone produced by the pancreas, helps regulate blood sugar levels by facilitating the uptake of glucose into cells for energy production [1].

JCR



- 1. Fasting Blood Glucose (measured after at least 8 hours of fasting):
- Normal: Less than 100 milligrams per deciliter (mg/dL)
- Prediabetes: 100 to 125 mg/dL
- Diabetes: 126 mg/dL or higher
- 2. Postprandial Glucose (measured 2 hours after eating):
- Normal: Less than 140 mg/dL
- Prediabetes: 140 to 199 mg/dL
- Diabetes: 200 mg/dL or higher
- 3. Random Blood Glucose (taken at any time):
- Normal: Less than 125 mg/dL
- Prediabetes: 140 to 199 mg/dL
- Diabetes: 200 mg/dL or higher

TYPR OF DIABETES

| Characteristics | Type 1 Diabetes | Type 2 Diabetes | Gestational Diabetes |
|--------------------|---|--|--|
| Etiology | Autoimmune destruction of beta cell in the pancreas | Insulin resistance and relative insulin deficiency | Insulin resistance during pregnancy |
| Age of onset | Typically childhood or adolescence | Mostly adult, but increasingly diagnosed in children and adolescent | During pregnancy |
| Insulin Production | Insulin deficiency due to destruction of beta cell | Insulin resistance combined with inadequate insulin secretion | Insulin resistance during pregnancy |

[2]

RISK FACTORS

| Risk Factor | Description | |
|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| Obesity | Excess body weight, particularly abdominal adiposity, increases the risk of insulin resistance. | |
| Sedentary Lifestyle | Lack of physical activity contributes to insulin resistance and weight gain. | |
| Family History | Having a close relative with diabetes increases the likelihood of developing the condition. | |
| Ethnicity/Race | Certain ethnic groups, such as African Americans, Hispanic/Latino Americans, and Asian Americans, are at higher risk. | |
| Age | Risk increases with age, especially for Type 2 diabetes, although it's increasingly diagnosed in younger age groups as well. | |
| Gestational Diabetes History | Women who had gestational diabetes or gave birth to a baby weighing over 9 pounds are at higher risk. | |
| Hypertension | High blood pressure is often associated with insulin resistance and increases diabetes risk. | |
| Dyslipidemia | Abnormal lipid levels, particularly high triglycerides and low HDL cholesterol, contribute to insulin resistance. | |
| Polycystic Ovary Syndrome (PCOS) | Women with PCOS have a higher risk of developing insulin resistance and diabetes. | |
| Smoking | Smoking increases the risk of insulin resistance and cardiovascular complications associated with diabetes. | |
| Sleep Disorders | Sleep apnea and other sleep disturbances are linked to insulin resistance and diabetes risk [3]. | |

Complication:

Cardiovascular Complications: Diabetes significantly increases the risk of cardiovascular diseases, including coronary artery disease, stroke, and peripheral artery disease. High blood sugar levels contribute to endothelial dysfunction and inflammation, leading to atherosclerosis [4].

Neuropathy: Diabetic neuropathy is a common complication affecting the nerves, particularly in the legs and feet. It can lead to symptoms such as numbness, tingling, and pain. Long-term complications include foot ulcers and amputations [5].

Nephropathy: Diabetic nephropathy is characterized by kidney damage due to chronic hyperglycemia. It can progress to end-stage renal disease (ESRD) requiring dialysis or kidney transplantation [6].

Retinopathy: Diabetic retinopathy is a leading cause of vision loss and blindness. It is characterized by damage to the blood vessels in the retina due to chronic hyperglycemia [7].

Foot Complications: Diabetic foot complications, including neuropathic ulcers and infections, are common and may lead to lower limb amputations if not properly managed [8].**Skin Complications**: Diabetes increases the risk of various skin conditions, including infections, diabetic dermopathy, and necrobiosis lipoidica diabeticorum [9].

INTRODUCTION OF NUTRITION THERAPY

Nutrition therapy is the initial treatment for diabetes. However, recommended nutrition therapies tend to be largely based on consensus among experts rather than on scientific evidence. The principles of nutrition therapy in Japan have been inherited from the pioneers of diabetes research, but they lack current updates reflecting advances in nutrition science. Nutrition science is a constantly advancing field, just like other fields of science, and the accepted knowledge base changes over time. This project is for nutrition therapy for diabetes [10]. The pandemic of type 2 diabetes is an enormous public health problem, with 552 million cases projected by 2030 worldwide [11]. There is an increasing awareness for new therapeutic approaches that delay progression to type 2 diabetes in people at increased risk for the disease, including those with impaired glucose tolerance or impaired fasting glucose. Lifestyle intervention studies have demonstrated a reduction of new diabetes ranging from 30% to 67%, which remains after the individual lifestyle counselling was stopped [12–13]. The 20-year follow-up results from the Chinese Da Qing Study and results of more than 10 years of follow up from the Finnish Diabetes Prevention Study showed no statistically significant differences in cardiovascular outcomes between the intervention and control groups [14-15]. Although lifestyle interventions can prevent type 2 diabetes, current nutritional recommendations for the primary prevention of type 2 diabetes are limited, with little that is truly evidence based [16]. Little emphasis has also been put on lifestyle change, including diet, in current diabetic algorithms for management of hyperglycaemia in type 2 diabetes [17] A healthful eating pattern, regular physical activity, and often pharmacotherapy are key components of diabetes management. For many individuals with diabetes, the most challenging part of the treatment plan is determining what to eat. The ADA also recognizes the integral role of nutrition therapy in overall diabetes management and has historically recommended that each person with diabetes be actively engaged in self-management, education, and treatment planning with his or her health care provider, which includes the collaborative development of an individualized eating plan. Therefore, it is important that all members of the Healthcare team be knowledgeable about diabetes nutrition therapy and support its imple36mentation [18].



https://healthjade.com/what-are-diabetes-superfoods/ [19].

History of Nutrition Therapy for Diabetes

Nutrition therapy in the early years of diabetology (starvation diet or low-carbohydrate diet)

Before the discovery of insulin in 1921, there was no pharmacotherapy for type 1 diabetes mellitus. The treatment options consisted of the starvation diet (proposed by Dr. Frederic Allen) or the extremely low-carbohydrate diet (proposed by Dr. Elliot Joslin). In 1922, insulin became available, and type 1 diabetes mellitus became treatable. Thereafter, with the advent of insulin, the starvation diet fell out of use and the low-carbohydrate diet was recommended less frequently. Liberalization of carbohydrate intake was recommended by some experts. In 1971, the first American Diabetes Association (ADA) Dietary Guidelines emphasized the liberalization of carbohydrate intake.1 The guidelines implied that carbohydrate restriction had been recommended at least until the 1960s. In Japan, The Food Exchange Table for Diabetes (first edition), published in 1965, emphasized the importance of energy restriction and carbohydrate restriction in parallel, reflecting the prevailing thought in nutrition science at the time [20].

Nutrition therapy for diabetes in the late 20th century (the golden age of the low-fat diet)

In the 1970s, nutrition therapy for diabetes entered a new phase. The worldwide increase of type 2 diabetes mellitus and its complications became a major health concern. The prevention of cardiovascular disease in patients with type 2 diabetes received more attention than the glycemic control of patients with type 1 diabetes, leading to a greater interest in nutrition therapy. The Seven Countries Study was designed to investigate the relationship between diet and cardiovascular disease. The results, reported in 1953, showed that cardiovascular deaths were more frequent in countries with higher fat consumption than in countries with lower fat consumption, and this finding led to a general belief that a low-fat diet was useful for the prevention of cardiovascular deaths [21]. However, some ethnic groups with higher fat consumption, such as those living in the Mediterranean region, had fewer cardiovascular deaths [22]. In addition, a randomized controlled trial conducted in the 1970s did not find an association between the low-fat diet and reduced total mortality or cardiovascular mortality [23]. Despite these negative findings, the McGovern Report was published in 1977, and the importance of the low-fat diet was increasingly emphasize in the United States. In response, the ADA re vised their recommendations in 1979, emphasizing the importance of the low-fat dietThe ADA recommended that carbohydrate intake should make up 50–60% of the total energy intake, whereas, in 1971, it recommended that carbohydrate intake should not exceed 45% of the total energy intake. This change occurred when the liberalization of carbohydrate intake was being more widely suggested [24]. A similar change took place in Japan. The importance of carbohydrate restriction had been emphasized until the Food Exchange Table 4th edition (1980) and its supplement (1983); however, carbohydrate re striction was excluded from the Food Exchange Table 5th edition (1993). In 2002, the Evidence-based Practice Guidelines for the Treatment of Diabetes in Japan recommended that carbohydrate intake should be 50–60% of the total energy intake.

Current nutrition therapy for diabetes (re-evaluation of carbohydrate restriction, decline of fat restriction, and the emergence of a variety of diet therapies)

As mentioned above, the benefits of carbohydrate restriction were de-emphasized in the 1979 ADA guidelines; however, the clinical significance of the low-carbohydrate diet continued to be recognized as the Atkins diet for obesity and the Bernstein diet for diabetes became prevalent in the field of popular medicine. The ATOZ Weight Loss Study was scientifically designed to test the effectiveness of popular diets; it demonstrated that the Atkins diet was the most effective for treating obesity [25]. In response to this, the ADA guidelines in 2008 recommended a low-carbohydrate diet as the first choice for the treatment of obesity [26]. In 2008, the Dietary Intervention Randomized Controlled Trial (DIRECT) reported that the low-carbohydrate diet was the most effective for improving hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c) levels in patients with diabetes [27]. In DIRECT, 322 Israelis with body mass indexes (BMIs) of 27 or higher and who were at risk for cardiovascular disease were randomly allocated to three diet groups: the low-carbohydrate diet group (carbohydrates were initially restricted to 20 g/day and then increased to 120 g/day), the low-fat and low-energy diet group, and the Mediterranean low-energy diet group. All groups showed weight reduction at 2 years after the start of the diet. Among the three groups, the low-carbohydrate diet group showed the best results in energy intake and weight reduction, despite having no energy restriction (Fig. 1). This group also had the best improvements in lipid profiles and in levels of high-sensitivity C-reactive protein and adiponectin. Interestingly, the mean HbA1c level in this group

decreased by 0.9%; however, there was almost no change in fasting blood glucose levels. These results suggest that the low-carbohydrate diet can stabilize blood glucose fluctuations. Furthermore, subsequent subanalyses showed that the improvement in body weight and lipid profiles induced by the low-carbohydrate diet was maintained for up to 6 years [28]. The low-carbohydrate diet also reportedly improves the estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) in patients with chronic kidney disease stage [29] and contributes to regression of atherosclerosis [30]. As part of the re-evaluation of the low-carbohydrate diet, in 2012, Santos et al. conducted a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials of this diet. A total of 23 articles (17 studies) were selected from published clinical trials involving at least 100 subjects with an intervention period of at least 3 months. The results showed that the low-carbohydrate diet had positive effects not only on blood glucose, lipid profiles (in particular, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol and triglycerides), and body weight but also on blood pressure; moreover, the effects were not influenced by the duration of the clinical study [31]. Thus, the benefits of the low-carbohydrate diet for improving blood glucose levels, body weight, lipid profiles, and blood pressure have been demonstrated in randomized controlled trials (evidence level 1). In response to these findings, the ADA 2013 guidelines recommended the low-carbohydrate diet as a first-choice treatment for diabetes [32]. In contrast, the low-fat diet was found to be ineffective in a randomized controlled trial conducted in the 21st century, although, based on the results of the Seven Countries Study and other observational studies, it was expected to have a preventive effect on cardiovascular events [33]. For example, the Women's Health Initiative study reported that the low-fat diet failed to prevent car diovascular events and cancer and also impaired glyce mic control in patients with diabetes [34-35]. Moreover, in 2013, the PREDIMED (Prevención con Dieta Mediter ránea) study reported that higher fat intakes were useful for the prevention of cardiovascular disease [36]. The PREDIMED study was conducted in Spain to examine the preventive effects of the Mediterranean diet on cardio vascular disease. A total of 7477 subjects with no history of cardiovascular disease and with a risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus or cardiovascular disease were allocated to three groups (the low-fat diet group, the Mediterranean diet + nuts [30 g/day] group, and the Mediterranean diet + olive oil [1 L/week] group) and were followed for ap proximately 6 years. The results showed that the two Mediterranean diet groups had fewer cardiovascular events, despite higher intakes of fat and energy than the low-fat diet group. Moreover, sub analyses showed that the Mediterranean diets delayed the onset of diabetes [37]. In addition, diets other than the low-carbohydrate and the Mediterranean diets were reported to be effective for the management of diabetes in a meta-analysis of random ized controlled trials [38]. Currently, the diets listed in Table1 are considered useful for the treatment of diabetes worldwide [39]. However, the Dietary Guideline Advisory Committee in the United States revised their recommendations in 2015: they noted that "reducing total fat does not lower cardiovascular disease risk." Limiting total fat was also not recommended for obesity prevention, and the recommendation on fat restriction was withdrawn. The era of the low-fat diet was over.



Decline in Support for the Nutrition Therapies of the 20th Century

Currently, there are many dietary approaches for man- aging diabetes. However, the scientific evidence for some diets is insufficient. In particular, support for the low-fat diet, low-protein diet, and low-energy diet is declining. In the previous section, the low-fat diet was reviewed. Therefore, this section covers the current status of the low-protein diet and the low-energy diet that were recommended in the 20th century [40].

| Dietary pattern | Elements |
|--------------------------|--|
| Mediterranean diet | Includes abundant plant-based food, olive oil as the principal source of dietary lipids, dairy products consumed in low to moderate amounts, low red meat consumption, and low to moderate wine consumption. |
| DASH | Emphasizes fruits, vegetables, and low-fat dairy products and whole grains poultry, fish, and nuts. Reduced consumption of saturated fat, red meat, sweets, and sodium. |
| Vegetarian diet | Avoids all animal flesh-based foods and animal-derived products. Some modified versions allow eggs (ovo) and/or dairy products (lacto). |
| Low-carbohydrate Diet | Carbohydrate intake reduced to 20–40 g/meal with sweets containing 10 g of carbohydrate per day (our definition). There are several other definitions: lower than 130 g/day (Accurso et al.) and lower than 150 g/ day (Westman et al.) |

www.ijcrt.org

NUTRITION MANAGEMENT

Nutrition management is a cornerstone in the comprehensive care and management of diabetes. Individuals with diabetes need to maintain a balance between the intake of carbohydrates, proteins, fats, and other nutrients to regulate blood glucose levels effectively. A well-planned diet can help in achieving and maintaining optimal blood glucose control, reducing the risk of diabetes-related complications, and improving overall quality of life. Key components of diabetes nutrition management include carbohydrate counting, glycemic index considerations, portion control, and monitoring of calorie intake. Additionally, dietary fiber, healthy fats, and lean proteins play crucial roles in managing blood sugar levels, enhancing insulin sensitivity, and promoting cardiovascular health in people with diabetes [41].



https://healthjade.com/what-are-diabetes-superfoods/ [42].

1.Macronutrients in Diabetes Diet

Understanding the role of macronutrients in diabetes management is crucial for optimizing glycemic control, managing weight, and reducing the risk of complications.



Here's a detailed explanation of each macronutrient in the diabetes diet, categorized under various headings, with corresponding review article references for accuracy and depth.

A. Carbohydrates and Diabetes

- Role in Diabetes Management:
- Carbohydrates are the primary macronutrient affecting blood glucose levels. Monitoring and managing carbohydrate intake is essential for glycemic control.
- Carbohydrate Counting:
- This method involves tracking the total grams of carbohydrates consumed per meal or snack to help determine insulin dosing and manage blood glucose levels effectively.
- Glycemic Index and Load:
- Choosing low glycemic index (GI) foods can help to minimize postprandial blood glucose spikes. Glycemic load (GL) considers both the quality and quantity of carbohydrates in a food, providing a more comprehensive view of its impact on blood sugar [43].

B. Proteins and Diabetes

- Role in Diabetes Management:
- Adequate protein intake is essential for maintaining muscle mass, supporting metabolic function, and promoting satiety.
- Recommended Protein Intake:
- The recommended protein intake for individuals with diabetes is generally similar to that for the general population, which is about 0.8 to 1.0 grams of protein per kilogram of body weight per day.

• Sources of Protein:

• Lean meats, poultry, fish, legumes, tofu, and low-fat dairy products are good sources of protein that can be included in a diabetes-friendly diet [44].

C. Fats and Diabetes

- Role in Diabetes Management:
- Fats are important for providing essential fatty acids, supporting hormone production, and promoting satiety. However, the type and amount of fats consumed can significantly impact cardiovascular risk.
- Types of Fats:
- Unsaturated Fats: Found in olive oil, avocados, nuts, and seeds, unsaturated fats can improve lipid profiles and reduce cardiovascular risk.
- Saturated Fats: Found in animal products and some plant oils, saturated fats should be limited to reduce cardiovascular risk.
- Trans Fats: Artificial trans fats should be avoided as they increase cardiovascular risk.
- Recommendations for Fat Intake:
- The American Diabetes Association recommends that 20% to 35% of total daily calories should come from fat, with less than 10% from saturated fats [45].

D. Fiber and Diabetes

- Role in Diabetes Management:
- Dietary fiber can help improve glycemic control, promote satiety, and reduce the risk of cardiovascular disease.
- Types of Fiber:
- Soluble Fiber: Found in oats, barley, legumes, and some fruits and vegetables, soluble fiber can help lower blood glucose levels and cholesterol.
- **Insoluble Fiber:** Found in whole grains, fruits, and vegetables, insoluble fiber can aid in digestion and promote bowel regularity.
- Recommended Fiber Intake:
- The American Diabetes Association recommends a dietary fiber intake of 14 grams per 1,000 calories consumed, with an emphasis on increasing fiber-rich foods in the diet [46].

2. Individualized Meal Plans in Diabetes Diet

Individualized meal planning is crucial in diabetes management to achieve optimal glycemic control, manage weight, and reduce the risk of complications. A tailored approach considers personal preferences, lifestyle, metabolic goals, and medical conditions. Here's a detailed explanation of individualized meal plans in diabetes diet, categorized under various headings, with corresponding review article references for accuracy and depth.

A.Medical Nutrition Therapy (MNT) in Diabetes

ENTERAL NUTRITION MEDICAL NUTRITION THERAPY



Registered Dietitian here to assist with all of your feeding and nutrition needs.



- Role in Diabetes Management:
- MNT is the cornerstone of diabetes care, involving individualized meal plans, nutrition counseling, and ongoing support.
- Components of MNT:
- Assessment: Evaluation of current dietary habits, lifestyle, metabolic goals, and medical conditions to develop a personalized meal plan.
- Meal Planning: Tailoring carbohydrate, protein, and fat intake to achieve optimal glycemic control, manage weight, and reduce cardiovascular risk.
- Monitoring: Regular follow-up and adjustments to the meal plan based on blood glucose levels, weight changes, and individual needs [47].

B. Carbohydrate Counting Meal Plan

- Role in Diabetes Management:
- Carbohydrate counting involves tracking the total grams of carbohydrates consumed per meal or snack to help determine insulin dosing and manage blood glucose levels effectively.
- Steps for Carbohydrate Counting:
- Determine Carbohydrate Goals: Individualized based on energy needs, blood glucose targets, and medication regimen.
- Identify Carbohydrate Sources: Recognize the carbohydrate content of foods and portion sizes.
- Calculate Insulin Dose: Adjust insulin based on carbohydrate intake, insulin-to-carbohydrate ratio, and blood glucose levels [48].

C. Mediterranean Diet Meal Plan

- Role in Diabetes Management:
- The Mediterranean diet is rich in fruits, vegetables, whole grains, legumes, nuts, fish, and olive oil, and has been shown to improve glycemic control, reduce cardiovascular risk, and promote weight management.
- Key Components of a Mediterranean Diet Meal Plan:
- Fruits and Vegetables: Emphasize a variety of colorful fruits and vegetables daily.
- Whole Grains: Choose whole grains such as brown rice, quinoa, whole wheat bread, and oats.
- Lean Protein Sources: Include fish, poultry, legumes, and nuts.
- Healthy Fats: Use olive oil as the primary fat source, and include nuts, seeds, and avocados.
- Limit Red Meat and Sweets: Reduce intake of red meat, processed meats, and sweets [49].

D. DASH Diet Meal Plan

- Role in Diabetes Management:
- The Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet emphasizes fruits, vegetables, lean proteins, and low-fat dairy, and has been shown to improve blood pressure, lipid profiles, and insulin sensitivity in individuals with diabetes.
- Key Components of a DASH Diet Meal Plan:
- Fruits and Vegetables: Aim for 4-5 servings of fruits and vegetables daily.
- Whole Grains: Include whole grains such as brown rice, whole wheat bread, and oatmeal.
- Lean Protein Sources: Choose lean meats, poultry, fish, legumes, and nuts.
- Low-Fat Dairy: Include low-fat or non-fat dairy products such as milk, yogurt, and cheese.
- Limit Sodium and Added Sugars: Reduce salt intake and limit foods high in added sugars [50].

E. Low-Carbohydrate Meal Plan

- Role in Diabetes Management:
- Low-carbohydrate diets restrict carbohydrate intake to improve glycemic control, reduce insulin requirements, and promote weight loss.
- Key Components of a Low-Carbohydrate Meal Plan:
- Non-Starchy Vegetables: Emphasize leafy greens, broccoli, cauliflower, and other non-starchy vegetables.
- Protein Sources: Include lean meats, poultry, fish, eggs, and plant-based proteins such as tofu and tempeh.
- Healthy Fats: Use olive oil, avocado, nuts, and seeds as primary fat sources.
- Limit Carbohydrate-Rich Foods: Reduce intake of grains, fruits, starchy vegetables, and sweets [51].

F. Vegetarian or Vegan Meal Plan

- Role in Diabetes Management:
- Vegetarian or vegan diets, when well-planned, can be nutritionally adequate and offer benefits in glycemic control, weight management, and cardiovascular risk reduction.
- Key Components of a Vegetarian or Vegan Meal Plan:
- Plant-Based Protein Sources: Include legumes, tofu, tempeh, seitan, and meat substitutes.
- Whole Grains: Choose whole grains such as brown rice, quinoa, whole wheat bread, and oats.
- Fruits and Vegetables: Emphasize a variety of colorful fruits and vegetables daily.

- Healthy Fats: Use olive oil, nuts, seeds, and avocado as primary fat sources.
- Limit Animal Products: Avoid or limit [52].

3. Glycemic Control and Monitoring in Managing Diabetes

Achieving and maintaining optimal glycemic control is a cornerstone in the management of diabetes. It helps to reduce the risk of complications and improve overall quality of life. Monitoring blood glucose levels and adjusting treatment regimens accordingly are essential components of diabetes management. Here's a detailed explanation of glycemic control and monitoring in managing diabetes, supported by review article references.

A. Importance of Glycemic Control in Diabetes Management

Role in Diabetes Management:

Optimal glycemic control reduces the risk of microvascular and macrovascular complications, such as nephropathy, retinopathy, neuropathy, cardiovascular disease, and stroke [53].

B. Glycemic Targets for Different Populations

General Population with Diabetes:

Hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c) <7% is recommended for most non-pregnant adults.

Older Adults:

A less stringent target (HbA1c <8%) is recommended for some older adults to reduce the risk of hypoglycemia [54,55].

C. Self-Monitoring of Blood Glucose (SMBG)



Role in Diabetes Management:

SMBG allows individuals with diabetes to monitor their blood glucose levels and make informed decisions about diet, physical activity, and medication adjustments.

Frequency of SMBG:The frequency of SMBG varies based on treatment regimens, type of diabetes, and individual needs. Typically, it is recommended to check fasting, pre-meal, and post-meal blood glucose levels [56].

D. Continuous Glucose Monitoring (CGM)

Role in Diabetes Management: CGM provides real-time glucose readings and trend data, helping to identify patterns, reduce hypoglycemia, and improve glycemic control.

Types of CGM Systems: There are various CGM systems available, including real-time CGM and intermittently scanned CGM, offering different features and functionalities [57,58].

E. Glycemic Variability and Time in Range

Role in Diabetes Management:

Beyond HbA1c and average glucose levels, glycemic variability and time in range (TIR) are emerging as important metrics to evaluate glycemic control and reduce the risk of complications.

Definition of Time in Range:

TIR is the percentage of time spent within the target glucose range (typically 70-180 mg/dL or 3.9-10.0 mmol/L) [59].

F. Hypoglycemia and Hyperglycemia Management

Role in Diabetes Management:

Proper management of hypoglycemia and hyperglycemia is essential to prevent acute complications and improve overall glycemic control.

Strategies for Hypoglycemia:

Recognizing symptoms, treating promptly with fast-acting carbohydrates, and adjusting medications to reduce the risk of hypoglycemia.

Strategies for Hyperglycemia:

Adjusting diet, physical activity, and medication regimens based on SMBG or CGM data to maintain glycemic control [60].

G. Insulin Therapy and Glycemic Control

Role in Diabetes Management:

Insulin therapy is often required for individuals with type 1 diabetes and many with type 2 diabetes to achieve optimal glycemic control.

Types of Insulin Regimens:

Basal-bolus, premixed, and basal-only regimens are common approaches to insulin therapy, each with specific indications and considerations [61].

I. Non-Insulin Antihyperglycemic Medications

Role in Diabetes Management:

Non-insulin antihyperglycemic medications, including metformin, sulfonylureas, thiazolidinediones, DPP-4 inhibitors, GLP-1 receptor agonists, and SGLT2 inhibitors, play a vital role in managing hyperglycemia in type 2 diabetes.

Mechanism of Action and Considerations:

Each class of medication has unique mechanisms of action, efficacy, safety, and side effect profiles, which should be considered when individualizing treatment regimens [62].

4 Weight Management in Managing Diabetes

Weight management is a critical aspect of diabetes care, particularly for individuals with type 2 diabetes. Achieving and maintaining a healthy weight can improve glycemic control, reduce insulin resistance, and lower the risk of complications. Here's a brief overview of weight management in managing diabetes, supported by a review article reference.



Here's a brief overview of weight management in managing diabetes:

Role of Weight Management in Diabetes Management:

Benefits:

Improves glycemic control and insulin sensitivity

Reduces the risk of cardiovascular disease

Enhances overall quality of life [63].

Key Strategies for Weight Management in Diabetes:

A. Healthy Eating:

- Emphasize a balanced diet rich in fruits, vegetables, whole grains, lean proteins, and healthy fats.
- Monitor carbohydrate intake and choose low-glycemic index foods to help control blood glucose levels.

B. Regular Physical Activity:

- Engage in at least 150 minutes of moderate-intensity aerobic activity, such as brisk walking, per week.
- Incorporate strength training exercises at least two days per week.

C. Behavioral Interventions:

• Consider behavioral strategies, such as self-monitoring, goal setting, and problem-solving, to support adherence to dietary and physical activity recommendations.

D. Pharmacotherapy:

• For individuals who do not achieve weight loss goals through lifestyle interventions alone, weight loss medications may be considered as an adjunct to diet and exercise [64].

5. Dietary Supplements and Nutritional Considerations

While a well-balanced diet should provide most of the essential nutrients, certain dietary supplements may be beneficial for individuals with diabetes.

- Omega-3 Fatty Acids:
- May help in reducing inflammation and cardiovascular risk.
- Vitamin D:
- Adequate levels may be associated with improved glycemic control [65].



Refere<mark>nce</mark>

- 1. American Diabetes Association. (2020). 2. Classification and Diagnosis of Diabetes: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care, 43(Supplement 1), S14–S31. https://doi.org/10.2337/dc20-S002
- 2. Saydah, S., & Imperatore, G. (2021). Review of Epidemiology and Clinical Presentation of Type 1 Diabetes. Endocrinology and Metabolism Clinics, 50(2), 221–230. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecl.2021.01.002</u>
- **3.** Kaur, J. (2014). A comprehensive review on metabolic syndrome. Cardiology Research and Practice, 2014, 943162. https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/943162
- **4.** Gregg EW, Li Y, Wang J, et al. Changes in diabetes-related complications in the United States, 1990–2010. N Engl J Med. 2014;370(16):1514-1523. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1310799
- **5.** Callaghan BC, Cheng HT, Stables CL, Smith AL, Feldman EL. Diabetic neuropathy: clinical manifestations and current treatments. Lancet Neurol. 2012;11(6):521-534. doi:10.1016/S1474-4422(12)70065-0
- 6. Tuttle KR, Bakris GL, Bilous RW, et al. Diabetic kidney disease: a report from an ADA Consensus Conference. Am J Kidney Dis. 2014;64(4):510-533. doi:10.1053/j.ajkd.2014.06.032
- 7. Yau JWY, Rogers SL, Kawasaki R, et al. Global prevalence and major risk factors of diabetic retinopathy. Diabetes Care. 2012;35(3):556-564. doi:10.2337/dc11-1909
- **8.** Lipsky BA, Berendt AR, Cornia PB, et al. 2012 Infectious Diseases Society of America clinical practice guideline for the diagnosis and treatment of diabetic foot infections. Clin Infect Dis. 2012;54(12):e132-e173. doi:10.1093/cid/cis346
- **9.** Gupta AK, Versteeg SG. A critical assessment of the relationship between atopic dermatitis and the obesity epidemic. Dermatology. 2017;233(5):375-387. doi:10.1159/000479913

- **10.** American Diabetes Association: Principles of nutrition and dietary recommendations for patients with diabetes mellitus: 1971. Diabetes 1971; 20: 633–634. PMID:5094617, DOI:10.2337/ diab.20.9.633
- **11.** Whiting DR, Guariguata L, Weil C, Shaw J. IDF diabetes atlas: global esti mates of the prevalence of diabetes for 2011 and 2030. Diabetes Res Clin Pract 2011; 94(3): 311–321.
- **12.** Yamaoka K, Tango T. Efficacy of life style education to prevent type 2 diabetes: a meta-analysis of random ized controlled trials. Diabetes Care 2005; 28:2780–2786.
- **13.** Lindstrom J, Ilanne-Parikka P, Peltonen M, et al. Sustained reduction in the inci dence of type 2 diabetes by lifestyle in tervention: follow up of the Finnish Diabetes Prevention Study. Lancet 2006; 368:1673–1679.
- **14.** Li G, Zhang P, WangJ, et al. The long-term effect of lifestyle interventions to prevent diabetes in the China Da Quin Diabetes Prevention Study: a 20-year follow-up study. Lancet 2008; 37:1783–1789.
- **15.** Uusitupa M, Peltonen M, Lindström J, et al. Finnish diabetes prevention study Group. Ten-year mortality and cardio vascular morbidity in the Finnish diabe tes prevention Study– secondary analysis of the randomized trial. PLoS One 2009; 4: e5656.
- **16.** Nield L, Summerbell CD, Hooper L, et al. Dietary advice for the prevention of type 2 diabetes mellitus in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2008; 3: CD005102.
- 17. Inzucchi SE, Bergenstal RM, Buse JB, et al. American Diabetes Association (ADA); European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD). Management of hyperglycemia in type 2 diabetes: a patient-centered approach: position statement of the American Diabetes As sociation (ADA) and the European Asso ciation for the Study of Diabetes (EASD). Diabetes Care 2012; 35(6): 1364–1379
- **18.** American Diabetes Association. Standards of medical care in diabetesd2014. Diabetes Care 2014;37(Suppl. 1):S14 S80
- **19.** Davies MJ, Aroda VR, Collins BS, et al. Management of hyperglycemia in type 2 diabetes, 2022. A consensus report by the American Diabetes Association (ADA) and the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD). Diabetes Care 2022;45:2753–2786
- **20.** American Diabetes Association: Principles of nutrition and dietary recommendations for patients with diabetes mellitus: 1971. Diabetes 1971; 20: 633–634. PMID:5094617, DOI:10.2337/ diab.20.9.633
- **21.** Keys A: Atherosclerosis: a problem in newer public health. J Mt Sinai Hosp N Y 1953; 20: 118–139. PMID:13085148
- **22.** Seven Countries Study Group: Coronary heart disease in seven countries. XVII. The diet. Circulation 1970; 41(Suppl): I162–I183. PMID:5442780
- 23. Harcombe Z, Baker JS, Cooper SM, Davies B, Sculthorpe N, DiNicolantonio JJ, Grace F: Evidence from randomised con trolled trials did not support the introduction of dietary fat guide lines in 1977 and 1983: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Open Heart 2015; 2: e000196. PMID:25685363, DOI:10.1136/ openhrt-2014-000196
- 24. Nuttall FQ, Brunzell DJ American Diabetes Association: Prin ciples of nutrition and dietary recommendations for individu als with diabetes mellitus: 1979. Diabetes 1979; 28: 1027–1030. PMID:488542, DOI:10.2337/diab.28.11.1027
- 25. Gardner CD, Kiazand A, Alhassan S, Kim S, Stafford RS, Balise RR, Kraemer HC, King AC: Comparison of the Atkins, Zone, Ornish, and LEARN diets for change in weight and related risk factors among overweight premenopausal women: the A TO Z Weight Loss Study: a randomized trial. JAMA 2007; 297: 969 977. PMID:17341711, DOI:10.1001/jama.297.9.969
- 26. Bantle JP, Wylie-Rosett J, Albright AL, Apovian CM, Clark NG, Franz MJ, Hoogwerf BJ, Lichtenstein AH, Mayer-Davis E, Moo radian AD, Wheeler ML, American Diabetes Association: Nutri tion recommendations and interventions for diabetes: a position statement of the American Diabetes Association. Diabetes Care 2008; 31(Suppl 1): S61–S78. PMID:18165339, DOI:10.2337/dc08 S061
- 27. Shai I, Schwarzfuchs D, Henkin Y, Shahar DR, Witkow S, Green berg I, Golan R, Fraser D, Bolotin A, Vardi H, Tangi-Rozental O, Zuk-Ramot R, Sarusi B, Brickner D, Schwartz Z, Sheiner E, Marko R, Katorza E, Thiery J, Fiedler GM, Blüher M, Stumvoll M, Stampfer MJ, Dietary Intervention Randomized Controlled Trial (DIRECT) Group: Weight loss with a low-carbohydrate, Mediterranean, or low-fat diet. N Engl J Med 2008; 359: 229–241. PMID:18635428, DOI:10.1056/NEJMoa0708681

- **28.** Schwarzfuchs D, Golan R, Shai I: Four-year follow-up after two year dietary interventions. N Engl J Med 2012; 367: 1373–1374. PMID:23034044, DOI:10.1056/NEJMc1204792
- **29.** Tirosh A, Golan R, Harman-Boehm I, Henkin Y, Schwarzfuchs D, Rudich A, Kovsan J, Fiedler GM, Blüher M, Stumvoll M, Thiery J, Stampfer MJ, Shai I: Renal function following three distinct weight loss dietary strategies during 2 years of a ran domized controlled trial. Diabetes Care 2013; 36: 2225–2232. PMID:23690533, DOI:10.2337/dc12-1846
- **30.** Shai I, Spence JD, Schwarzfuchs D, Henkin Y, Parraga G, Ru dich A, Fenster A, Mallett C, Liel-Cohen N, Tirosh A, Bolotin A, Thiery J, Fiedler GM, Blüher M, Stumvoll M, Stampfer MJ, DIRECT Group: Dietary intervention to reverse carotid athero sclerosis. Circulation 2010; 121: 1200–1208. PMID:20194883, DOI:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.109.879254
- 31. Santos FL, Esteves SS, da Costa Pereira A, Yancy WS, Nunes JP: Systematic review and meta-analysis of clinical trials of the effects of low carbohydrate diets on cardiovascular risk factors. Obes Rev 2012; 13: 1048–1066. PMID:22905670, DOI:10.1111/j.1467-789X.2012.01021.x
- **32.** Evert AB, Boucher JL, Cypress M, Dunbar SA, Franz MJ, May er-Davis EJ, Neumiller JJ, Nwankwo R, Verdi CL, Urbanski P, Yancy WS Jr, American Diabetes Association: Nutrition therapy recommendations for the management of adults with diabetes. Di abetes Care 2013; 36: 3821–3842. PMID:24107659, DOI:10.2337/ dc13-2042
- **33.** Tobias DK, Chen M, Manson JE, Ludwig DS, Willett W, Hu FB: Effect of low-fat diet interventions versus other diet interventions on long-term weight change in adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol 2015; 3: 968–979. PMID:26527511, DOI:10.1016/S2213-8587(15)00367-8
- 34. Howard BV, Van Horn L, Hsia J, Manson JE, Stefanick ML, Was sertheil-Smoller S, Kuller LH, LaCroix AZ, Langer RD, Lasser NL, Lewis CE, Limacher MC, Margolis KL, Mysiw WJ, Ock ene JK, Parker LM, Perri MG, Phillips L, Prentice RL, Robbins J, Rossouw JE, Sarto GE, Schatz IJ, Snetselaar LG, Stevens VJ, Tinker LF, Trevisan M, Vitolins MZ, Anderson GL, Assaf AR, Bassford T, Beresford SA, Black HR, Brunner RL, Brzyski RG, Caan B, Chlebowski RT, Gass M, Granek I, Greenland P, Hays J, Heber D, Heiss G, Hendrix SL, Hubbell FA, Johnson KC, Kotchen JM: Low-fat dietary pattern and risk of cardiovascular disease: the Women's Health Initiative Randomized Controlled Dietary Modification Trial. JAMA 2006; 295: 655–666. PMID:16467234, DOI:10.1001/jama.295.6.655
- 35. Prentice RL, Thomson CA, Caan B, Hubbell FA, Anderson GL, Beresford SA, Pettinger M, Lane DS, Lessin L, Yasmeen S, Singh B, Khandekar J, Shikany JM, Satterfield S, Chlebowski RT: Low-fat dietary pattern and cancer incidence in the Women's Health Initiative Dietary Modification Randomized Controlled Trial. J Natl Cancer Inst 2007; 99: 1534–1543. PMID:17925539, DOI:10.1093/jnci/djm159
- **36.** Shikany JM, Margolis KL, Pettinger M, Jackson RD, Limacher MC, Liu S, Phillips LS, Tinker LF: Effects of a low-fat dietary intervention on glucose, insulin, and insulin resistance in the Women's Health Initiative (WHI) Dietary Modification trial. Am J Clin Nutr 2011; 94: 75–85. PMID:21562091, DOI:10.3945/ajcn.110.010843
- 37. Estruch R, Ros E, Salas-Salvadó J, Covas MI, Corella D, Arós F, Gómez-Gracia E, Ruiz-Gutiérrez V, Fiol M, Lapetra J, Lamuela Raventos RM, Serra-Majem L, Pintó X, Basora J, Muñoz MA, Sorlí JV, Martínez JA, Martínez-González MA, PREDIMED Study Investigators: Primary prevention of cardiovascular disease with a Mediterranean diet. N Engl J Med 2013; 368: 1279–1290. PMID:23432189, DOI:10.1056/NEJMoa1200303
- 38. Salas-Salvadó J, Bulló M, Babio N, Martínez-González MÁ, Ibar rola-Jurado N, Basora J, Estruch R, Covas MI, Corella D, Arós F, Ruiz-Gutiérrez V, Ros E, PREDIMED Study Investigators: Re duction in the incidence of type 2 diabetes with the Mediterranean diet: results of the PREDIMED-Reus nutrition intervention ran domized trial. Diabetes Care 2011; 34: 14–19. PMID:20929998, DOI:10.2337/dc10-1288
- 39. Ajala O, English P, Pinkney J: Systematic review and meta-anal ysis of different dietary approaches to the management of type 2 diabetes. Am J Clin Nutr 2013; 97: 505–516. PMID:23364002, DOI:10.3945/ajcn.112.042457
- 40. Ley SH, Hamdy O, Mohan V, Hu FB: Prevention and management of type 2 diabetes: dietary components and nutritional strategies. Lancet 2014; 383: 1999–2007. PMID:24910231, DOI:10.1016/ S0140 IJCRT2405401 International Journal of Creative Research Thoughts (IJCRT) www.ijcrt.org d755

6736(14)60613-9 22. Mozaffarian D, Ludwig DS: The 2015 US dietary guidelines: Lifting the ban on total dietary fat. JAMA 2015; 313: 2421–2422. PMID:26103023, DOI:10.1001/jama.2015.5941

- **41.** American Diabetes Association. (2021). Nutrition therapy recommendations for the management of adults with diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, 44(Supplement 1), S76-S87. <u>https://doi.org/10.2337/dc21-S007</u>
- **42.** American Diabetes Association. (2021). Diabetes superfoods. *Diabetes Care*, 44(Supplement 1), S22-S28. https://doi.org/10.2337/dc21-S004
- **43.** American Diabetes Association. (2020). 6. Glycemic Targets: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care, 43(Supplement 1), S66-S76.
- 44. Franz, M. J., MacLeod, J., Evert, A., Brown, C., Gradwell, E., & Handu, D. (2017). Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics Nutrition Practice Guideline for Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes in Adults: Systematic Review of Evidence for Medical Nutrition Therapy Effectiveness and Recommendations for Integration into the Nutrition Care Process. Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics, 117(10), 1659-1679.
- **45.** American Diabetes Association. (2020). 5. Lifestyle Management: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care, 43(Supplement 1), S66-S76.
- **46.** Evert, A. B., Dennison, M., Gardner, C. D., Garvey, W. T., Lau, K. H. K., MacLeod, J., ... & Yancy, W. S. (2019). Nutrition therapy for adults with diabetes or prediabetes: a consensus report. Diabetes Care, 42(5), 731-754.
- 47. Franz, M. J., MacLeod, J., Evert, A., Brown, C., Gradwell, E., & Handu, D. (2017). Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics Nutrition Practice Guideline for Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes in Adults: Systematic Review of Evidence for Medical Nutrition Therapy Effectiveness and Recommendations for Integration into the Nutrition Care Process. Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics, 117(10), 1659-1679.
- **48.** American Diabetes Association. (2020). 6. Glycemic Targets: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care, 43(Supplement 1), S66-S76.
- **49.** Esposito, K., Maiorino, M. I., Bellastella, G., Chiodini, P., Panagiotakos, D., & Giugliano, D. (2015). A journey into a Mediterranean diet and type 2 diabetes: a systematic review with meta-analyses. BMJ open, 5(8), e008222.
- **50.** Azadbakht, L., Fard, N. R., Karimi, M., Baghaei, M. H., Surkan, P. J., Rahimi, M., & Esmaillzadeh, A. (2013). Effects of the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) eating plan on cardiovascular risks among type 2 diabetic patients: a randomized crossover clinical trial. Diabetes care, 36(10), 3217-3227.
- **51.** Tay, J., Thompson, C. H., Luscombe-Marsh, N. D., Wycherley, T. P., Noakes, M., Buckley, J. D., ... & Brinkworth, G. D. (2018). Effects of an energy-restricted low-carbohydrate, high unsaturated fat/low saturated fat diet versus a high-carbohydrate, low-fat diet in type 2 diabetes: A 2-year randomized clinical trial. Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism, 20(4), 858-871.
- **52.** Turner-McGrievy, G. M., Barnard, N. D., Cohen, J., Jenkins, D. J., Gloede, L., & Green, A. A. (2008). Changes in nutrient intake and dietary quality among participants with type 2 diabetes following a low-fat vegan diet or a conventional diabetes diet for 22 weeks. Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 108(10), 1636-1645.
- **53.** American Diabetes Association. (2020). 6. Glycemic Targets: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care, 43(Supplement 1), S66-S76.
- **54.** American Diabetes Association. (2020). 6. Glycemic Targets: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care, 43(Supplement 1), S66-S76.
- **55.** □ Kirkman, M. S., Briscoe, V. J., Clark, N., Florez, H., Haas, L. B., Halter, J. B., ... & Swift, C. S. (2012). Diabetes in older adults. Diabetes Care, 35(12), 2650-2664.

- **56.** American Diabetes Association. (2020). 7. Diabetes Technology: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care, 43(Supplement 1), S77-S88.
- **57.** Beck, R. W., Riddlesworth, T., Ruedy, K., Ahmann, A., Bergenstal, R., Haller, S., ... & Tsalikian, E. (2017). Continuous glucose monitoring versus usual care in patients with type 2 diabetes receiving multiple daily insulin injections: a randomized trial. Annals of Internal Medicine, 167(6), 365-374.
- 58. Aleppo, G., Ruedy, K. J., Riddlesworth, T. D., Kruger, D. F., Peters, A. L., Hirsch, I. B., ... & Bergenstal, R. M. (2017). REPLACE-BG: A randomized trial comparing continuous glucose monitoring with and without routine blood glucose monitoring in adults with well-controlled type 1 diabetes. Diabetes Care, 40(4), 538-545.
- **59.** Battelino, T., Danne, T., Bergenstal, R. M., Amiel, S. A., Beck, R., Biester, T., ... & DeVries, J. H. (2019). Clinical targets for continuous glucose monitoring data interpretation: recommendations from the International Consensus on Time in Range. Diabetes Care, 42(8), 1593-1603.
- **60.** Seaquist, E. R., Anderson, J., Childs, B., Cryer, P., Dagogo-Jack, S., Fish, L., ... & Vigersky, R. (2013). Hypoglycemia and diabetes: a report of a workgroup of the American Diabetes Association and the Endocrine Society. Diabetes Care, 36(5), 1384-1395.
- **61.** American Diabetes Association. (2020). 9. Pharmacologic Approaches to Glycemic Treatment: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care, 43(Supplement 1), S98-S110.
- 62. American Diabetes Association. (2020).
- **63.** American Diabetes Association. (2020). 5. Lifestyle Management: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care, 43(Supplement 1), S66-S76.
- 64. Jensen, M. D., Ryan, D. H., Apovian, C. M., Ard, J. D., Comuzzie, A. G., Donato, K. A., ... & Yanovski, S. Z. (2014). 2013 AHA/ACC/TOS guideline for the management of overweight and obesity in adults: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines and The Obesity Society. Circulation, 129(25 Suppl 2), S102-S138.
- **65.** American Diabetes Association. (2020). 12. Older Adults: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care, 43(Supplement 1), S152-S162.