

Treatment Approach in Gestational Diabetes Mellitus: A Narrative Review

Amirhossein Fakhre Yaseri¹  | Gelayol Chatrnour^{2,*}  | Seyed Amir Reza Nemati^{3,*}  | Bahar Farhadi⁴ 

¹School of Medicine, Qazvin University of Medical Sciences, Qazvin, Iran

²Independent Researcher, New Jersey, United States of America

³Pediatric Diseases Research Center, Guilan University of Medical Sciences, Rasht, Iran

⁴Faculty of Medicine, Islamic Azad University, Mashhad Branch, Mashhad, Iran

*Corresponding Author E-mail: gelayol.ch@gmail.com, dr.amirrezanemati.1991@gmail.com

Submitted: 2024-02-17, Revised: 2024-04-11, Accepted: 2024-04-20

Abstract

Background: Diabetes, specifically gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM), has become a global concern, impacting one out of every ten pregnancies. While previously more prevalent in developed nations, GDM is now increasingly common in developing regions, presenting a growing public health challenge. Despite often resolving after delivery, GDM raises the risk of recurrence in subsequent pregnancies and elevates the long-term risks of cardiovascular disease and diabetes for both the mother and child.

Methods: This narrative review consolidates global recommendations and diverse guidelines on GDM management. It underscores the importance of a multidimensional approach, focusing on lifestyle modifications tailored to individual needs. Aerobic and resistance training, combined with personalized dietary adjustments, emerge as effective interventions. Pharmacotherapy may be necessary for about one-third of GDM cases where optimal glycemic control proves challenging.

Results: The review highlights the primary strategy of GDM management, emphasizing lifestyle modifications such as diet and exercise adjustments. It also discusses the role of pharmacotherapy when needed for glycemic control.

Conclusions: By providing comprehensive insights into diverse treatment approaches, this review aims to benefit healthcare professionals, researchers, and policymakers. The holistic approach advocated ensures optimal care for individuals with GDM, addressing immediate needs and safeguarding the long-term health of both mother and child. This synthesis contributes to a nuanced understanding of GDM management, aiding informed decision-making and policy formulation in maternal healthcare.

Keywords: Gestational Diabetes Mellitus, Pregnancy, Treatment, Insulin, Metformin, Glyburide.

Introduction

Diabetes affects one in ten pregnancies globally, with the majority of cases being attributed to gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) [1]. While GDM was once considered a significant public health concern primarily in developed nations, it is now emerging as a challenge in developing countries. The South Asian region, Middle East, Western Pacific regions, North Africa, and many others are witnessing a rising prevalence of GDM, whereas its occurrence is comparatively lower in Europe [2].

GDM usually resolves post-delivery. However, women with a history of GDM are prone to its recurrence in subsequent pregnancies. In addition, they may confront an elevated risk of developing cardiovascular disease (CVD) and diabetes mellitus (DM) in the future, posing long-term implications for the well-being of both the mother and child [3].

Broadly, the specific risks linked to diabetes during pregnancy include spontaneous abortion, gestational hypertension, preeclampsia, fetal anomalies, neonatal hypoglycemia, fetal death, neonatal respiratory distress syndrome (NRDS), macrosomia, and hyperbilirubinemia [4].

The main goal of treating GDM is to regulate maternal blood sugar (BS) levels, aiming for normalization while minimizing the risk of hypoglycemia. Effectively managing GDM contributes to improved outcomes for infants and lowers the risk of adverse events [5].

A synthesis of global recommendations across diverse guidelines indicates that, as a primary intervention, aerobic training for a minimum of 3-4 sessions per week, totaling 50 minutes to 2.5 hours per week, with a daily upper limit of half an hour, coupled with resistance training at least twice a week, stands out as the most

effective physical activity (PA) intervention for GDM. This is recommended alongside dietary modifications [6].

While many individuals can achieve target glucose levels through exercise and nutritional therapy, approximately one-third may require pharmacotherapy. Notably, even pregnant individuals with mildly elevated glucose levels, who do not meet standard GDM criteria, may benefit from appropriate treatment, leading to enhanced pregnancy outcomes [7]. The emphasis is on tailoring treatment approaches to address specific glucose management needs, ensuring comprehensive care for optimal maternal and fetal well-being [8].

In the management of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM), lifestyle modifications involving diet and exercise are the primary approach. However, if optimal glycemic control is not achieved, pharmacologic treatment becomes necessary. Insulin is recommended as the first-line treatment when lifestyle changes prove insufficient. Oral hypoglycemic agents like metformin and glyburide are increasingly used. This treatment approach aims to balance glycemic control while minimizing hypoglycemic risks [8]. In managing GDM, successful treatment strategies encompass individualized prenatal care and fetal monitoring. If lifestyle adjustments prove insufficient, the evaluation of metformin or insulin prescriptions remains pertinent, even amid the coronavirus disease 2019 pandemic, given the potential correlation between coronavirus disease and other pregnancy complications, such as Preeclampsia, as indicated by prior research [9,10].

The goal of this narrative review is to explore and assess the different treatment approaches employed in the management of GDM. By synthesizing existing literature, the study aims to offer

a comprehensive understanding of the effectiveness, challenges, and outcomes associated with various interventions, including lifestyle modifications, medical nutrition therapy, and insulin therapy. The objective is to provide valuable insights that can inform healthcare professionals, researchers, and policymakers in optimizing care and outcomes for individuals with gestational diabetes mellitus during pregnancy.

Methods

In this narrative review, our objective is to examine and evaluate diverse treatment approaches utilized in the management of GDM. To accomplish this, we conducted a thorough search and retrieved pertinent English publications from various databases, including PubMed, Web of Science (WOS), Google Scholar, and Scopus. Our search was guided by specific keywords such as Gestational Diabetes Mellitus, Diabetes, Gestational Diabetes, Pregnancy, Treatment, Insulin, Metformin, and Glyburide.

Results

The treatment approach for GDM mandates a multidimensional strategy to uphold optimal maternal and fetal health. Delving into nutrition therapy, physical activity, and medical interventions, this triad of strategies demands nuanced consideration in the management of GDM.

Nutrition Therapy

The nutrition therapy for GDM involves daily meal planning to ensure adequate maternal and fetal nutrition while achieving glycemic targets. Studies suggest potential benefits of following the dietary approaches to stop hypertension (HTN) as well as GDM for reducing cesarean section deliveries,

though evidence quality is considered low. Various dietary interventions have been explored, posing challenges in guiding specific clinical practices [11].

According to the global recommendations, women diagnosed with GDM are encouraged to promptly start a personalized nutritional plan and participate in physical activity to keep maternal fasting and post-meal blood glucose levels within recommended targets. An effective strategy to attain this objective involves modifying the type and timing of carbohydrate consumption, emphasizing low-to-medium glycemic index carbohydrates, and increasing the frequency of meals [12].

An individualized nutritional plan is required for GDM considering glycemic control, energy needs, pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI), macronutrient ratios, and the mother's preferences, lifestyle, and activity levels. The HbA1c assay (Hemoglobin subunit alpha), commonly used to measure hyperglycemia in epidemiological research, showed a reversed relationship with BMI [13].

The American Diabetes Association recommends specific daily nutrient intake for pregnant women, emphasizing the importance of prioritizing certain fats and avoiding others. 70 grams of protein, 175 grams of carbohydrates (around one-third of a 2,000 calories/day), and 30 grams of fiber are recommended daily for women during pregnancy as a minimum intake. Balancing both the quantity and quality of carbohydrates is crucial for managing glucose levels. Allowing a liberal intake of higher-quality carbohydrates has been associated with positive outcomes, including improved glucose levels and potential benefits for both mother and infant [14].

Physical Activity

Incorporating physical activity as a treatment for gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) is recommended, particularly when initiated before and during early pregnancy, as it demonstrates a protective effect by lowering the risk of GDM development. After GDM diagnosis, exercise contributes positively to blood glycemic control, fostering enduring changes in health-related behaviors [15]. Widely recognized as an adjunctive therapy for managing type 2 diabetes in non-pregnant individuals, physical activity enhances blood sugar control by improving insulin sensitivity and increasing muscle glucose uptake stimulated by insulin [16]

Maternal physical activity is pivotal in managing and treating GDM, reducing complications, improving overall health for both mother and child. A personalized exercise program, overseen by qualified professionals, is essential for a safe and effective pregnancy approach [17]

The specific guidelines for physical activity as a treatment for women with GDM advocate engaging in moderate-intensity exercise for 30-60 minutes, three times a week. Research indicates that GDM women participating in over one hour of exercise per day experience a reduced risk of abnormal plasma glucose levels. However, there is limited evidence regarding the optimal duration and quantity of physical activity necessary to effectively manage elevated glucose levels in women with GDM [18].

In the absence of contraindications, current observational studies indicate that participating in physical activity during pregnancy is considered safe. Pregnant individuals can safely initiate and continue activities such as walking, low-intensity fitness exercises, cycling, and swimming. With guidance from their obstetrician, individuals are permitted to

continue, though not commence, activities like strength exercises, yoga, tennis, running, and badminton. It is recommended for pregnant individuals to avoid participating in contact sports, skiing, horse riding, diving, and surfing [19].

Medical Treatment

Among the ongoing debate about medical interventions for gestational diabetes, challenges arise in some GDM cases. Factors such as language barriers, comprehension difficulties, cultural influences, or financial constraints pose obstacles to the safe and effective use of insulin during pregnancy. When dietary adjustments fall short of achieving glycemic goals, the discussion often shifts toward pharmacological interventions [20].

While studies predominantly advocate insulin therapy as the safest option, the consideration of orally administered medications like metformin or glyburide emerges, contingent upon individual circumstances and a thorough evaluation by healthcare professionals. However, their limited use as a first-line treatment stems from concerns about their potential to cross the placenta, raising uncertainties about the long-term safety of the offspring [21].

Insulin

Throughout pregnancy, insulin doses are regularly adjusted based on BS levels, symptomatic hypoglycemia, dietary intake, physical activity, compliance, and infections. Insulin dosage and the time of injection hinge on factors like gestational age (GA) and weight. The currently available types of insulin are categorized as follows [22]:

- 1- Rapid-Acting: Aspart (NovoLog)-Lispro (Humalog)
- 2- Short Acting: Regular Insulin

3- Intermediate Acting: NPH (Neutral Protamine Hagedorn)

4- Long Acting: Glargine (Lantus)-Detemir (Levemir)

5- Ultra-Long Acting: Degludec (Tresiba)

6- Premixed: NPH/REGULAR 70/30

The utilization of short-acting insulin in GDM has been associated with an elevated risk of hypoglycemia and potential variations in glycemic control. New experiences with aspart have been reassuring, although the use of lispro has been linked to an increase in birth weight and a higher occurrence of neonates classified as large for gestational age. In contrast, when considering intermediate- and longer-acting insulin, studies comparing detemir to NPH have revealed no notable differences between them in terms of perinatal outcomes and controlling BS. In addition, detemir has demonstrated a lower incidence of hypoglycemia in non-pregnant women diagnosed with diabetes [23,24]. Metformin exhibits a transfer from mother to fetus, and its long-term impact remains unclear. The Metformin in Gestational Diabetes trial, a randomized multicenter study involving women diagnosed with GDM, revealed that the primary outcomes of metformin on neonatal morbidity rates were nearly identical to those in the insulin group [25].

Glyburide

Glyburide, or glibenclamide, is an FDA-approved second-generation sulfonylurea for treating type 2 diabetes (T2D). Available in generic form, it serves as an adjunct to physical activity and diet. Effective in lowering blood glucose levels, it is typically prescribed in small daily doses [26].

Sulfonylureas are a class of medications that exert their action by binding to receptors on pancreatic beta

cells. This mechanism has been making sulfonylureas a well-established and cost-effective option. Despite their affordability, predictability, and safety, the significant risk of hypoglycemia, a common side effect, restricts their widespread use. Weight gain is another prevalent side effect associated with the use of sulfonylureas [27].

The use of glyburide in gestational diabetes raises concerns based on meta-analyses revealing suboptimal short-term outcomes. Linked to higher birth weight, increased macrosomia, and greater neonatal hypoglycemia, glyburide prompts discouragement for further trials. Evidence suggests that when metformin or insulin is available, glyburide should not be the preferred choice for managing gestational diabetes due to its inferior performance [28]. A study involving women with GDM did not demonstrate any significant difference in perinatal complications including neonatal hypoglycemia, macrosomia, and hyperbilirubinemia between the use of glyburide and subcutaneous insulin. However, these results provide insufficient support for considering glyburide as the primary treatment option [29].

Metformin

Metformin, an oral antihyperglycemic agent, enhances glucose tolerance in T2DM. by reducing basal BS and postprandial plasma glucose levels. Its distinct mechanisms include decreasing hepatic glucose production, enhancing insulin sensitivity, and reducing intestinal glucose absorption. Metformin avoids hyperinsulinemia and hypoglycemia, unlike sulfonylureas. It doesn't alter insulin secretion but may decrease fasting insulin levels [30].

Metformin demonstrates positive maternal outcomes by addressing issues related to weight gain and pregnancy-

induced hypertension. While fetal outcomes pose challenges, including a higher incidence of preterm births and less severe neonatal hypoglycemia, metformin shows a slight advantage, particularly when used in conjunction with insulin as needed, for short-term management of gestational diabetes. Despite concerns about its elevated treatment failure rate and uncertain long-term safety, metformin remains a viable option [31].

The results of a meta-analysis indicated that in women diagnosed with GDM, there were no noticeable differences in short-term maternal outcomes between those treated with glyburide and those administered insulin. However, the glyburide group showed a higher incidence of neonatal hypoglycemia compared to the insulin-treated group [32].

Certain women dealing with gestational diabetes and requiring medical intervention may face challenges hindering the safe and effective use of insulin during pregnancy. In such situations, considering oral medication as an alternative is plausible after discussing known risks and emphasizing the need for more comprehensive long-term safety data for offspring. Nevertheless, exercising careful consideration is paramount, and it is advisable to avoid using metformin during pregnancy in cases of preeclampsia, hypertension, or for those at risk of intrauterine growth restriction due to potential complications like acidosis or growth restriction associated with placental insufficiency [33,34].

Conclusion

The multifaceted management of GDM necessitates a comprehensive strategy, blending lifestyle adjustments, personalized nutrition, and moderate-intensity exercise. While medical

interventions such as insulin, metformin, and glyburide offer tailored options, insulin retains its prominence. This holistic approach aims to ensure optimal care for individuals with GDM by addressing both immediate needs and long-term maternal and fetal well-being.

Conceptualization

Study concept and design: A. F. Y., G. C., S. A. R. N., and B. F.; data acquisition: G. C., S. A. R. N., and B. F.; data analysis and interpretation: A. F. Y., G. C., and B. F.; drafting the manuscript: A. F. Y., G. C., and S. A. R. N.; critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: S. A. R. N., and B. F.; statistical analysis: G. C., S. A. R. N., and B. F.; administrative, technical, and material support: A. F. Y., G. C., S. A. R. N., and B. F.; study supervision: A. F. Y., G. C., B. F., and S. A. R. N.

Conflict of Interest

The authors confirm no conflicts of interest, financial support, or employment related to this research. They have no personal financial interests, shares, stocks, patents, consultation fees, or unpaid memberships in organizations. No editorial board members or reviewers from this journal are associated with the study.

ORCID

Amirhossein Fakhre Yaseri

<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8893-9802>

Gelayol Chatrnour

<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5074-6415>

Seyed Amir Reza Nemati

<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7290-4779>

Bahar Farhadi

<https://orcid.org/0009-0001-2027-0185>

References

1. Veeraswamy S, Vijayam B, Gupta VK, Kapur A. Gestational diabetes: the public health relevance and approach. *Diabetes Research and Clinical Practice*. 2012 Sep 1;97(3):350-8. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
2. Zhu Y, Zhang C. Prevalence of gestational diabetes and risk of progression to type 2 diabetes: a global perspective. *Current Diabetes Reports*. 2016 Jan;16:1-1. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
3. Daly B, Toulis KA, Thomas N, Gokhale K, Martin J, Webber J, Keerthy D, Jolly K, Saravanan P, Nirantharakumar K. Increased risk of ischemic heart disease, hypertension, and type 2 diabetes in women with previous gestational diabetes mellitus, a target group in general practice for preventive interventions: a population-based cohort study. *PLoS Medicine*. 2018 Jan 16;15(1):e1002488. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
4. Holmes VA, Young IS, Patterson CC, Pearson DW, Walker JD, Maresh MJ, McCance DR, Diabetes and pre-eclampsia intervention trial study group. Optimal glycemic control, pre-eclampsia, and gestational hypertension in women with type 1 diabetes in the diabetes and pre-eclampsia intervention trial. *Diabetes Care*. 2011 Aug 1;34(8):1683-8. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
5. Hartling L, Dryden DM, Guthrie A, Muise M, Vandermeer B, Donovan L. Benefits and harms of treating gestational diabetes mellitus: a systematic review and meta-analysis for the US Preventive Services Task Force and the National Institutes of Health Office of Medical Applications of Research. *Annals of Internal Medicine*. 2013 Jul 16;159(2):123-9. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
6. Savvaki D, Taousani E, Goulis DG, Tsiros E, Voziki E, Douda H, Nikolettos N, Tokmakidis SP. Guidelines for exercise during normal pregnancy and gestational diabetes: a review of international recommendations. *Hormones*. 2018 Dec;17:521-9. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
7. Society of Maternal-Fetal Medicine (SMFM) Publications Committee. Electronic address: pubs@smfm.org. SMFM Statement: Pharmacological treatment of gestational diabetes. *American Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology*, 2018 May;218(5):B2-B4.. [[Crossref](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
8. Quintanilla Rodriguez BS, Mahdy H. Gestational Diabetes. [Updated 2023 Aug 8]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2023 Jan. [[Publisher](#)]
9. Rad AH, Yaseri AF. The association between COVID-19 and gestational diabetes mellitus: A narrative review. *Journal of Renal Endocrinology*. 2022 Aug 30;8(1):e17062. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
10. Rad AH, Chatrnour G, Yaseri AF. The association between preeclampsia and COVID-19; a narrative review on recent findings. *Journal of Renal Injury Prevention*. 2022 Aug 4;11(4):e32061. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
11. Han S, Middleton P, Shepherd E, Van Ryswyk E, Crowther CA. Different types of dietary advice for women with gestational diabetes mellitus. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2017(2). [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
12. Mirabelli M, Chiefari E, Tocci V, Greco E, Foti D, Brunetti A. Gestational diabetes: Implications for fetal growth, intervention timing, and treatment options. *Current Opinion in Pharmacology*. 2021 Oct 1;60:1-0. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
13. Dalili S, Koohmanae S, Nemati SA, Hoseini Nouri SA, Hassanzadeh Rad A, Kooti W. The association between hemoglobin HbA1c with serum inorganic phosphate in children with type 1

diabetes. *Diabetes, Metabolic Syndrome and Obesity*. 2020 Sep 29;3405-9. [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

14. American Diabetes Association Professional Practice Committee, American Diabetes Association Professional Practice Committee. Management of diabetes in pregnancy: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2022. *Diabetes Care*. 2022 Jan 1;45(Supplement_1):S232-43. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

15. Hopkins SA, Artal R. The role of exercise in reducing the risks of gestational diabetes mellitus. *Women's Health*. 2013 Nov;9(6):569-81. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

16. Ruchat SM, Mottola MF. The important role of physical activity in the prevention and management of gestational diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes/Metabolism Research and Reviews*. 2013 Jul;29(5):334-46. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

17. Rad AH, Yaseri AF, Chatrnour G. The influence of maternal physical activity on gestational diabetes mellitus. *Journal of Renal Endocrinology*. 2024 Jan 29;10(1):e25141. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

18. Wang R, Yang Q, Sun T, Qiang Y, Li X, Li H, Tang Y, Yang L, Sun J, Li B. Physical exercise is associated with glycemic control among women with gestational diabetes mellitus: Findings from a prospective cohort in Shanghai, China. *Diabetes, Metabolic Syndrome and Obesity*. 2021 Apr 30;1949-61. [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

19. My AC, Connection C, Rounds AC. Physical activity and exercise during pregnancy and the postpartum period. Physical activity and exercise during pregnancy and the postpartum period. 2015. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

20. Nguyen L, Chan SY, Teo AK. Metformin from mother to unborn child—Are there unwarranted effects?.

EBioMedicine. 2018 Sep 1;35:394-404. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

21. Caughey AB, Turrentine M. ACOG PRACTICE BULLETIN: gestational diabetes mellitus. *Obstetrics and Gynecology*. 2018;131(2):E49-64. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

22. Lende M, Rijhsinghani A. Gestational diabetes: overview with emphasis on medical management. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*. 2020 Dec;17(24):9573. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

23. Lv S., Wang J., Xu Y. Safety of insulin analogs during pregnancy: A meta-analysis. *Archives of Gynecology and Obstetrics*. 2015;292:749–756. [[Crossref](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

24. Herrera KM, Rosenn BM, Foroutan J, Bimson BE, Al Ibraheemi Z, Moshier EL, Brustman LE. Randomized controlled trial of insulin detemir versus NPH for the treatment of pregnant women with diabetes. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*. 2015 Sep 1;213(3):426-e1. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

25. Rowan JA, Hague WM, Gao W, Battin MR, Moore MP. Metformin versus insulin for the treatment of gestational diabetes. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2008 May 8;358(19):2003-15. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

26. Adis Editorial. Glibenclamide: A Review. *Drugs*. 1971 Feb;1:116-40. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

27. Quianzon CC, Cheikh IE. History of current non-insulin medications for diabetes mellitus. *Journal of Community Hospital Internal Medicine Perspectives*. 2012 Jan 1;2(3):19081. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

28. Balsells M, García-Patterson A, Solà I, Roqué M, Gich I, Corcoy R. Glibenclamide, metformin, and insulin for the treatment of gestational diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Bmj*. 2015 Jan 21;350. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

29. Sénat MV, Affres H, Letourneau A, Coustols-Valat M, Cazaubiel M, Legardeur H, Jacquier JF, Bourcigaux N, Simon E, Rod A, Héron I. Effect of glyburide vs subcutaneous insulin on perinatal complications among women with gestational diabetes: a randomized clinical trial. *Jama*. 2018 May 1;319(17):1773-80. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
30. Food and Drug Administration. Glucophage (metformin hydrochloride) Tablets; 2017 Jan. [[PDF](#)],
31. Balsells M, García-Patterson A, Solà I, Roqué M, Gich I, Corcoy R. Glibenclamide, metformin, and insulin for the treatment of gestational diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Bmj*. 2015 Jan 21;350. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
32. Song R, Chen L, Chen Y, Si X, Liu Y, Liu Y, Irwin DM, Feng W. Comparison of glyburide and insulin in the management of gestational diabetes: a meta-analysis. *PloS One*. 2017 Aug 3;12(8):e0182488. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
33. Barbour LA, Scifres C, Valent AM, Friedman JE, Buchanan TA, Coustan D, Aagaard K, Thornburg KL, Catalano PM, Galan HL, Hay Jr WW. A cautionary response to SMFM statement: pharmacological treatment of gestational diabetes. *American journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*. 2018 Oct 1;219(4):367-e1. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]
34. Barbour LA, Feig DS. Metformin for gestational diabetes mellitus: progeny, perspective, and a personalized approach. *Diabetes Care*. 2019 Mar 1;42(3):396-9. [[Crossref](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)], [[Publisher](#)]

How to cite this article:

A. Fakhre Yaseri, G. Chatrnour, S. A. R. Nemati, B. Farhadi. Treatment Approach in Gestational Diabetes Mellitus: A Narrative Review. *International Journal of Advanced Biological and Biomedical Research*, 2024, 12(3), 291-299.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.48309/IJABBR.2024.2025095.1504>

Link: https://www.ijabbr.com/article_712695.html