

Treatment of Gestational Diabetes Mellitus and Maternal Risk of Diabetes After Pregnancy

Ravi Retnakaran, Chang Ye, Anthony J. Hanley, Philip W. Connelly, Mathew Sermer, and Bernard Zinman

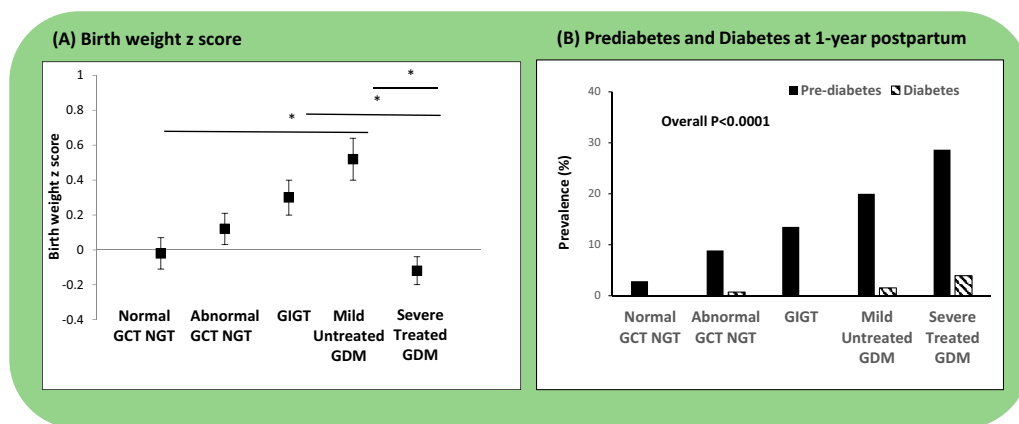
Diabetes Care 2023;46(3):587–592 | <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc22-1786>

Summary of the study design, results, and conclusions. *A*: Birth weight z scores. *B*: Prediabetes/diabetes at 1 year postpartum. * $P < 0.05$ by pairwise comparison. GCT, glucose challenge test; GDM, gestational diabetes mellitus; GIGT, gestational impaired glucose tolerance; NGT, normal glucose tolerance; OGTT, oral glucose tolerance test.

Study Design

599 women with OGTT in pregnancy and 1st year postpartum

Results



Conclusion

Treating GDM lowers birth weight but does not disrupt the association between gestational glycemia and maternal pre-diabetes/diabetes after pregnancy

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

- Whether treating gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) affects the association between gestational glycemia and maternal risk of prediabetes/diabetes after pregnancy is unknown.
- We compared postpartum glucose tolerance between women with severe treated GDM and those with mild, untreated GDM.
- Although treatment of severe GDM yielded lower birth weight than mild, untreated GDM, the risk of maternal postpartum prediabetes/diabetes remained higher in women with severe treated GDM.
- Postpartum metabolic surveillance is essential in women with GDM, irrespective of the effect of their antenatal treatment on birth weight at delivery.



Treatment of Gestational Diabetes Mellitus and Maternal Risk of Diabetes After Pregnancy

Diabetes Care 2023;46:587–592 | <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc22-1786>

Ravi Retnakaran,^{1–3} Chang Ye,¹
Anthony J. Hanley,^{1,2,4}
Philip W. Connelly,^{2,5,6} Mathew Sermer,⁷
and Bernard Zinman^{1–3}

OBJECTIVE

To compare postpartum glucose tolerance between women treated for gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) and those not treated.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

Metabolic testing was performed at 3 and 12 months postpartum in 599 women comprising the following gestational glucose tolerance groups: 1) normal glucose challenge test (GCT) and oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) during pregnancy, 2) abnormal GCT with normal OGTT, 3) gestational impaired glucose tolerance, 4) mild untreated GDM, and 5) severe treated GDM.

RESULTS

Birth weight progressively increased across groups 1–4 before falling steeply in treated GDM ($P < 0.0001$). In contrast, at 3 and 12 months, insulin sensitivity and β -cell function progressively decreased across the five groups, mirrored by rising fasting and 2-h glucose (all $P < 0.0001$). Accordingly, prevalence of prediabetes/diabetes at 12 months increased in a stepwise manner across groups 1–5 (2.8%, 9.6%, 13.5%, 21.5%, and 32.6%, respectively; $P < 0.0001$).

CONCLUSIONS

Treating GDM lowers birth weight but does not disrupt the association between gestational glycemia and maternal prediabetes/diabetes after pregnancy.

Continuous associations exist between maternal glycemia in pregnancy and both neonatal birth weight and future maternal risk of prediabetes/diabetes (1–3). Antenatal treatment of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) can lower birth weight and disrupt the former association (4); however, whether this treatment affects the latter association is unclear (5). Thus, we compared postpartum glucose tolerance between women treated for GDM and those not treated.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

The study protocol has been previously described in detail (6). In brief, 599 women underwent a 50-g glucose challenge test (GCT) and 3-h 100-g oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) during pregnancy, followed by a 2-h 75-g OGTT at both 3 and 12 months postpartum. Per institutional practice, pregnant women who met National Diabetes Data Group (NDDG) criteria for GDM (7) (Supplementary Table 1) were treated with antenatal lifestyle modification (diet and physical activity), targeting a fasting glucose < 5.3 mmol/L and 2-h postprandial glucose < 6.7 mmol/L on self-monitoring. Women

¹Leadership Sinai Centre for Diabetes, Mount Sinai Hospital, Toronto, Canada

²Division of Endocrinology, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada

³Lunenfeld-Tanenbaum Research Institute, Mount Sinai Hospital, Toronto, Canada

⁴Department of Nutritional Sciences, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada

⁵Keenan Research Centre for Biomedical Science of St. Michael's Hospital, Toronto, Canada

⁶Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathobiology, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada

⁷Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Mount Sinai Hospital, Toronto, Canada

Corresponding author: Ravi Retnakaran, ravi.retnakaran@sinaihealth.ca

Received 13 September 2022 and accepted 9 December 2022

This article contains supplementary material online at <https://doi.org/10.2337/figshare.21704180>.

© 2023 by the American Diabetes Association. Readers may use this article as long as the work is properly cited, the use is educational and not for profit, and the work is not altered. More information is available at <https://www.diabetesjournals.org/journals/pages/license>.

exceeding these targets >50% of the time in 1 week were treated with insulin therapy, with doses titrated to the targets.

Since NDDG thresholds for diagnosing GDM are higher than those of the American Diabetes Association (ADA) (8), ADA criteria can define two groups of women within this study population: those meeting both ADA and NDDG criteria (who received treatment for GDM) and those meeting only ADA criteria (who were not treated). Accordingly, by applying ADA criteria to the antepartum OGTT (Supplementary Table 1), we stratified the population into the following groups: 1) severe treated GDM, which included women meeting ADA and NDDG criteria for GDM; 2) mild untreated GDM, which included women meeting only ADA criteria; 3) gestational impaired glucose tolerance (GIGT), which included women with only one glucose value meeting ADA criteria; 4) abnormal GCT normal glucose tolerance (NGT), which included women with an abnormal GCT followed by NGT on OGTT (ADA criteria); and 5) normal GCT NGT, which included women with normal GCT and OGTT (ADA criteria).

Outcomes and Statistical Analyses

Maternal outcomes of prediabetes and diabetes on the OGTT at 3 and 12 months postpartum were defined according to Diabetes Canada clinical practice guidelines (9) (Supplementary Table 1). Women were notified if the OGTT showed prediabetes/diabetes. On each OGTT, insulin sensitivity/resistance was assessed by Matsuda index and HOMA of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR), and β-cell function was assessed by insulin secretion-sensitivity index 2 (ISSI-2) and insulinogenic index/HOMA-IR (10–12). Neonatal outcomes were birth weight z score and large-for-gestational-age (LGA) delivery based on Canadian birth weight centiles for sex and gestational age (13).

Statistical analyses were performed using SAS 9.4 software (SAS Institute, Cary, NC). Birth weight z score and LGA rate at delivery and maternal prediabetes/diabetes at 3 and 12 months postpartum were compared across the five groups (Fig. 1). Maternal metabolic function at 3 and 12 months postpartum was compared across the groups by multiple linear regression, adjusted for age, ethnicity, family history

of diabetes, current BMI, and duration of breastfeeding (Fig. 2). Multiple logistic regression analyses were performed to determine whether study groups were independently associated with prediabetes/diabetes at 3 and 12 months postpartum, after adjustment for the same covariates (Fig. 3).

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the characteristics of the five groups defined by gestational glucose tolerance status and treatment of GDM as follows: 1) normal GCT NGT, 2) abnormal GCT NGT, 3) GIGT, 4) mild untreated GDM, and 5) severe treated GDM. As anticipated, these groups exhibited a progressively more severe metabolic phenotype by OGTT in pregnancy, characterized by rising glycemia, declining insulin sensitivity, and worsening β-cell function (all *P* < 0.0001). At delivery, infants of women with severe treated GDM had the lowest birth weight (mean ± SD 3,235 ± 481 g) and length of gestation (38.2 ± 1.9 weeks). Birth weight z score

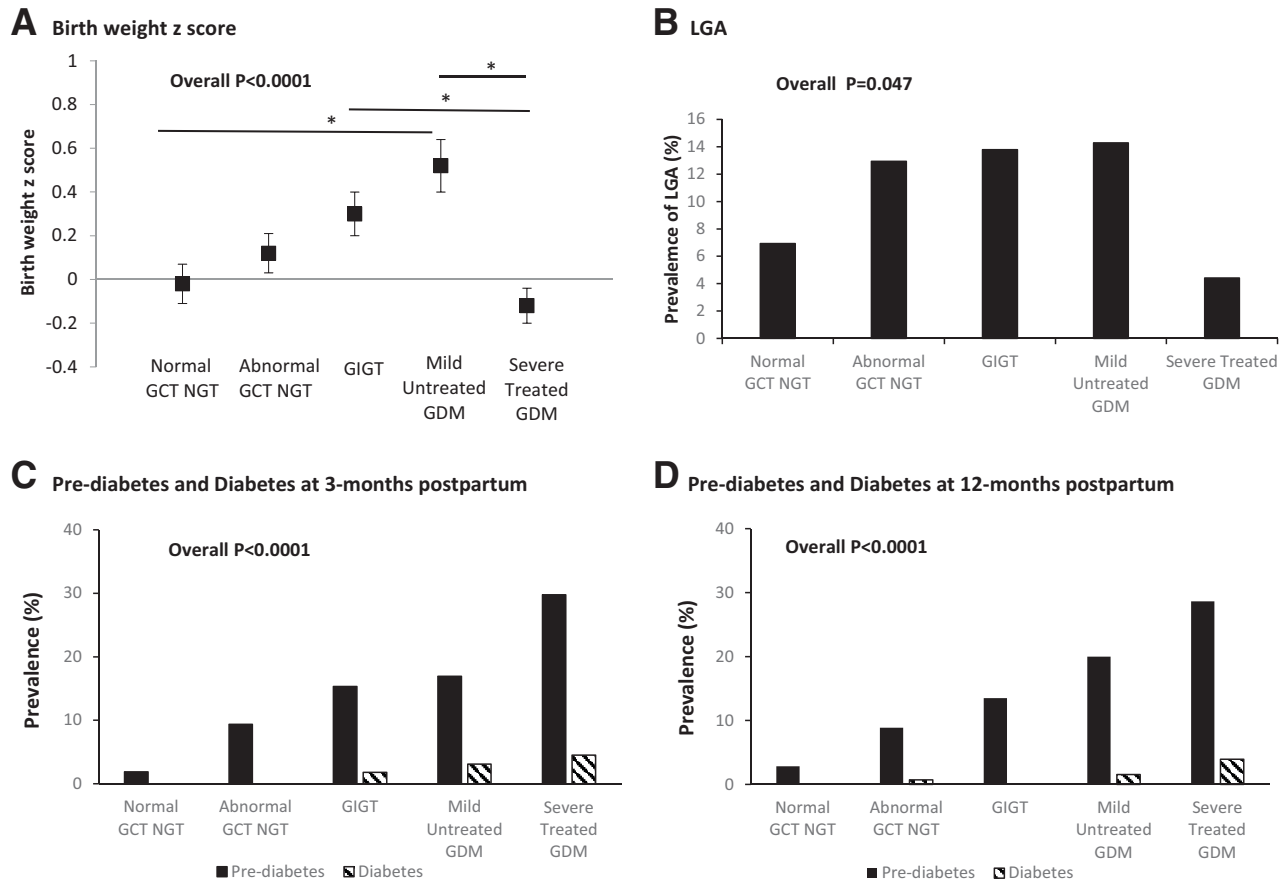


Figure 1—Gestational glucose tolerance status/treatment and maternal/neonatal outcomes. A: Birth weight z score. B: LGA. C: Maternal prediabetes and diabetes at 3 months postpartum. D: Maternal prediabetes and diabetes at 12 months postpartum. **P* < 0.05 by pairwise comparison.

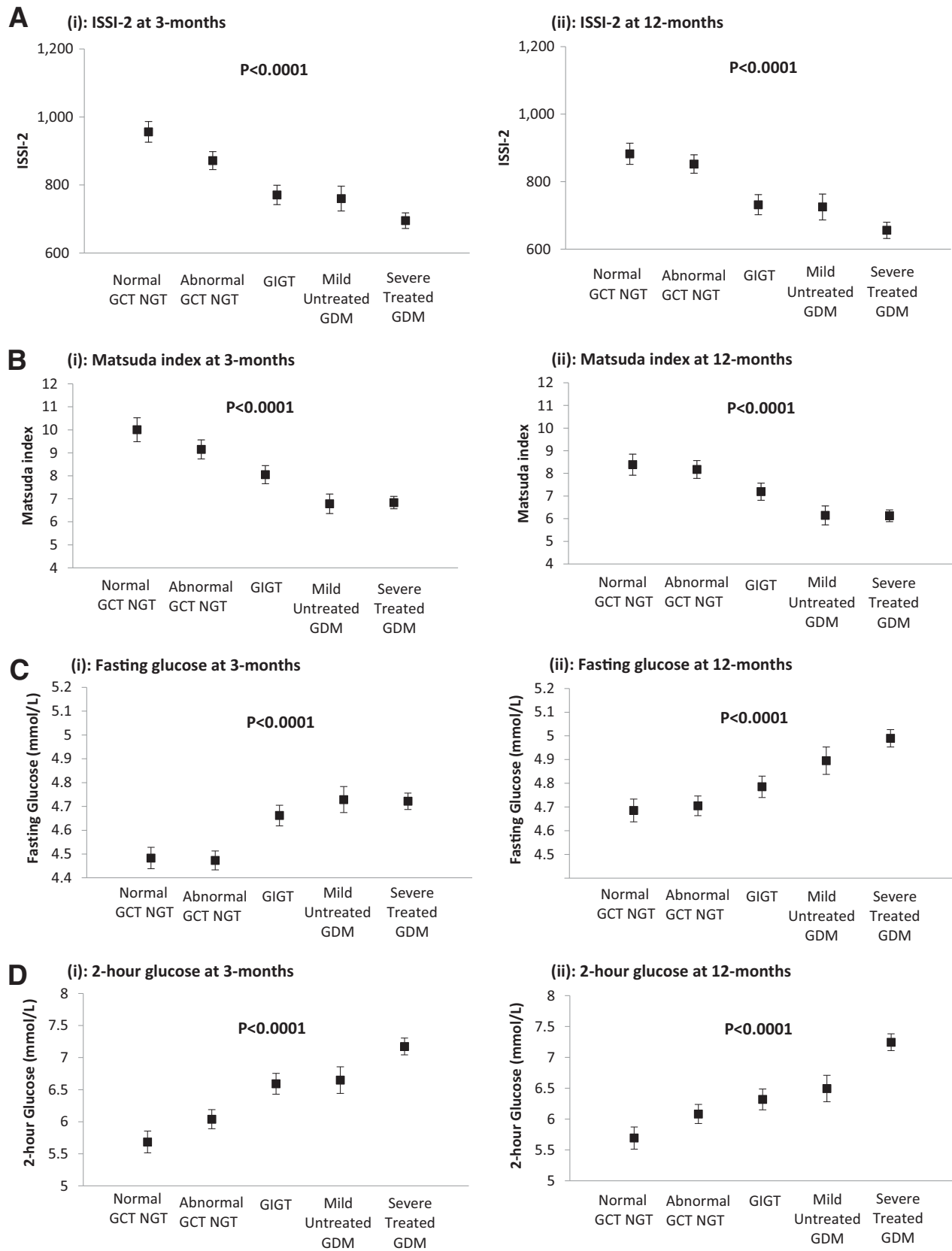
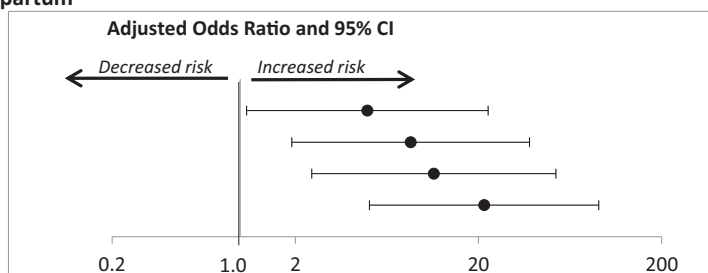


Figure 2—Maternal metabolic function at 3 and 12 months postpartum by study group. A: ISSI-2. B: Matsuda index. C: Fasting glucose. and D: Two-hour glucose on OGTT. Data are mean \pm SE. All data are adjusted for age, ethnicity, family history of diabetes, current BMI, and duration of breastfeeding. Adjusted means and SEs were obtained using the least squares method for each group at 3 and 12 months postpartum.

A Risk of pre-diabetes/diabetes at 3-months postpartum

	Adjusted OR (95% CI)
Normal GCT NGT	Reference
Abnormal GCT NGT	4.9 (1.1 to 22.6)
GIGT	8.5 (1.9 to 38.0)
Mild Untreated GDM	11.4 (2.5 to 52.9)
Severe Treated GDM	21.5 (5.1 to 90.7)

**B** Risk of pre-diabetes/diabetes at 12-months postpartum

	Adjusted OR (95% CI)
Normal GCT NGT	Reference
Abnormal GCT NGT	3.2 (0.9 to 12.0)
GIGT	3.7 (1.0 to 13.8)
Mild Untreated GDM	8.3 (2.2 to 31.2)
Severe Treated GDM	12.9 (3.8 to 43.8)

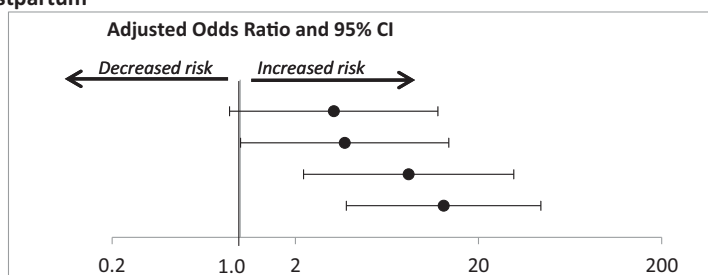


Figure 3—Adjusted odds ratio (OR) for each gestational glucose tolerance group in predicting prediabetes/diabetes at 3 and 12 months postpartum. *A*: Three months postpartum. *B*: Twelve months postpartum. Each OR is adjusted for maternal age, ethnicity, family history of diabetes, BMI, and duration of breastfeeding. Reference group is normal GCT NGT.

progressively increased from normal GCT NGT to abnormal GCT NGT to GIGT to mild untreated GDM before falling precipitously in women with severe treated GDM ($P < 0.0001$) (Fig. 1A). LGA rates showed the same pattern, rising from 6.9% to 12.9% to 13.8% to 14.3% before falling to 4.4% in women treated for GDM ($P = 0.047$) (Fig. 1B). Treatment of GDM thus disrupts the continuous association between maternal glycemia and infant birth weight.

In contrast, the association between gestational glycemia and maternal risk of prediabetes/diabetes showed no such disruption. Indeed, at both 3 and 12 months postpartum, the prevalence of prediabetes and diabetes progressively increased across the five groups (both $P < 0.0001$) (Fig. 1C and D). Thus, antenatal treatment of GDM did not appear to influence maternal risk of prediabetes/diabetes.

At both 3 and 12 months postpartum, mean adjusted ISSI-2 progressively decreased from normal GCT NGT to abnormal GCT NGT to GIGT to mild untreated GDM to severe treated GDM (both $P < 0.0001$) (Fig. 2A). The secondary measure of β -cell function, insulinogenic index/HOMA-IR, showed the same pattern (both $P < 0.0001$) (data not shown). Mean adjusted insulin sensitivity (Matsuda index) also displayed this pattern

(both $P < 0.0001$) (Fig. 2B), coupled with concordant findings for HOMA-IR (data not shown). These patterns of declining β -cell function and insulin sensitivity across the five groups were mirrored by a rising mean adjusted fasting glucose and 2-h glucose at both 3 and 12 months postpartum (all $P < 0.0001$) (Fig. 2C and D). Furthermore, adjusted odds ratios for prediabetes/diabetes at 3 and 12 months postpartum progressively increased across the groups from normal GCT NGT (reference) to abnormal GCT NGT to GIGT to mild untreated GDM to severe treated GDM ($P < 0.0001$) (Fig. 3A and B).

Finally, we sought to determine whether insulin treatment of GDM affected postpartum metabolic function compared with management with lifestyle modification alone (Supplementary Table 2). At the antepartum OGTT, women who subsequently required insulin therapy ($n = 53$) had lower insulin sensitivity, poorer β -cell function, and greater glycemia than those in whom GDM was managed with lifestyle alone ($n = 125$). Though birth weight did not differ between these groups, the differences in insulin sensitivity, β -cell function, and glycemia persisted at both 3 and 12 months postpartum (Supplementary Table 2), suggesting no enduring metabolic effect of antenatal insulin therapy. This interpretation was further supported when comparing all

six groups (Supplementary Table 3), as well as baseline-adjusted changes between 3 and 12 months (Supplementary Fig. 1).

CONCLUSIONS

The question of whether antenatal treatment of GDM affects postpartum risk of diabetes would be best addressed with a clinical trial in which women with GDM are randomly assigned to either treatment or no treatment and then undergo postpartum metabolic testing. However, such a trial would be difficult to perform now that antenatal glucose-lowering therapy (lifestyle or pharmacologic) is standard management for GDM (4). Thus, in the absence of such a trial, we postulated that relevant insight might be obtained from observational data by determining whether treating GDM disrupts the continuous association of maternal glycemia with postpartum prediabetes/diabetes (as it does for the association of maternal glycemia with birth weight).

In this study, the reduction in birth weight with treatment of GDM appeared greater than that observed in previous trials (14,15), possibly reflecting the greater severity of GDM herein and subsequent treatment to stringent glycemic targets, which may have collectively yielded a greater glycemic contrast between treated

Table 1—Characteristics of study population, stratified according to gestational glucose tolerance status and treatment of GDM

	Normal GCT NGT (n = 106)	Abnormal GCT NGT (n = 139)	GIGT (n = 111)	Mild untreated GDM (n = 65)	Severe treated GDM (n = 178)	P
At OGTT during pregnancy						
Age (years)	34.2 ± 4.4	33.9 ± 3.9	34.9 ± 3.9	35.3 ± 4.2	34.9 ± 4.4	0.09
Ethnicity						0.28
Caucasian	81 (76.4)	92 (66.2)	74 (66.7)	46 (70.8)	112 (62.9)	
Asian	7 (6.6)	18 (13.0)	16 (14.4)	10 (15.4)	32 (18.0)	
Other	18 (17.0)	29 (20.8)	21 (18.9)	9 (13.8)	34 (19.1)	
Family history of diabetes	50 (47.2)	80 (58.0)	76 (68.5)	33 (50.8)	120 (67.4)	0.002
Prepregnancy BMI (kg/m ²)	23.3 (21.3–26.7)	22.7 (21.0–25.6)	24.8 (22.2–27.7)	24.1 (21.9–27.3)	24.7 (21.6–30.0)	0.003
Smoking status						0.58
Remote	37 (34.9)	39 (38.1)	28 (25.2)	17 (26.2)	42 (23.7)	
Current	1 (0.9)	2 (1.4)	3 (2.7)	2 (3.1)	2 (1.1)	
Never	68 (64.2)	98 (70.5)	80 (72.1)	46 (70.8)	133 (75.1)	
Insulin sensitivity and resistance						
Matsuda index	6.0 (4.2–8.6)	5.5 (3.8–7.6)	3.9 (2.7–5.5)	3.2 (2.7–4.0)	3.0 (2.1–4.4)	<0.0001
HOMA-IR	1.5 (0.9–2.0)	1.3 (1.0–2.1)	1.8 (1.3–2.9)	2.3 (1.6–2.9)	2.3 (1.4–3.7)	<0.0001
β-Cell function						
ISSI-2	930 ± 267	910 ± 246	679 ± 162	616 ± 155	528 ± 155	<0.0001
IGI/HOMA-IR	13.7 (9.7–20.2)	13.9 (10.0–21.1)	8.9 (6.8–13.0)	6.5 (4.3–10.0)	5.8 (3.3–8.8)	<0.0001
Glucose on OGTT (mmol/L)						
Fasting	4.2 ± 0.4	4.4 ± 0.3	4.6 ± 0.5	4.8 ± 0.5	4.9 ± 0.7	<0.0001
1 h	7.5 ± 1.3	8.1 ± 1.2	9.2 ± 1.3	10.5 ± 1.0	11.3 ± 1.5	<0.0001
2 h	6.6 ± 1.0	7.1 ± 1.0	8.1 ± 1.1	8.7 ± 1.0	10.4 ± 1.4	<0.0001
3 h	5.7 ± 1.2	5.9 ± 1.2	6.9 ± 1.3	6.9 ± 1.5	8.2 ± 1.7	<0.0001
At delivery						
Length of gestation (weeks)	39.0 ± 1.6	38.8 ± 1.5	39.1 ± 1.4	38.7 ± 1.6	38.2 ± 1.9	0.0007
Male infant	46 (43.4)	72 (52.9)	48 (44.9)	40 (64.5)	83 (50.0)	0.07
Birth weight (g)	3,373 ± 511	3,402 ± 487	3,482 ± 457	3,546 ± 624	3,235 ± 481	<0.0001
At 3 months postpartum						
Breastfeeding (months)	3 (3–3)	3 (3–3)	3 (3–4)	3 (3–4)	3 (2–3)	0.02
BMI (kg/m ²)	26.1 ± 4.6	25.8 ± 5.2	27.3 ± 4.9	27.1 ± 4.4	27.3 ± 6.0	0.06
At 12 months postpartum						
Breastfeeding (months)	11 (6–12)	9 (6–12)	11 (6–12)	10.5 (4.5–12)	9 (3–12)	0.03
BMI (kg/m ²)	24.9 ± 4.4	25.0 ± 5.2	26.5 ± 5.3	26.2 ± 4.9	26.8 ± 6.8	0.02

Data are mean ± SD (if normal distribution), median (interquartile range) (if skewed distribution), or n (%). IGI, insulinogenic index.

and untreated GDM than in the earlier trials. However, there were no observed effects on β-cell function, insulin sensitivity, or glucose tolerance at either 3 or 12 months postpartum. Indeed, these findings are not surprising when one considers that although the spectrum of gestational glycemia identifies gradients of risk for both neonatal macrosomia and future maternal diabetes (1–4), it does so through very different mechanisms. Specifically, macrosomic risk is driven by the anabolic effects of hyperglycemia-induced fetal insulin secretion that can be modified by lowering maternal glycemia (through lifestyle or pharmacotherapy). In contrast, future maternal risk of diabetes arises over time because of progressive worsening of β-cell compensation for insulin resistance (16,17) that exists before, during, and after

pregnancies complicated by GDM (18–20). Thus, to reduce future risk of prediabetes/diabetes in these women, antenatal treatment of GDM would likely need to modify postpartum β-cell function or its deterioration over time (neither of which was observed). In the same way, studies of preconception/early pregnancy intervention to prevent GDM have been similarly unsuccessful, reflecting the difficulty of modifying this chronic pathophysiology.

A limitation of this study is the observational design wherein only severe GDM was treated, while milder GDM was not, such that the two GDM groups differed both in severity and treatment. This design precludes definitive attribution of causality to the impact of GDM treatment. However, recognizing the improbability of conducting a trial of treated versus untreated

GDM, the current analysis provided an analytic approach for addressing the research question with observational data. Another limitation is that generalizability may be limited since the study population was 67.6% Caucasian. It is also possible that some women in the severe treated GDM group could have had undiagnosed prepregnancy diabetes. In addition, β-cell function and insulin sensitivity were measured with surrogate indices on OGTT rather than by clamp studies. Finally, participant awareness of prediabetes/diabetes at 3 months postpartum could have influenced lifestyle and glucose tolerance at 12 months.

In conclusion, these data suggest that while treatment of GDM appeared to disrupt the association between gestational glycemia and birth weight, there

was no discernible effect on the association between gestational glycemia and postpartum maternal metabolic function. Thus, the clinical implications of these findings are support for antenatal glucose-lowering therapy in women with GDM, coupled with the reminder that postpartum metabolic surveillance remains essential in this patient population, irrespective of the effect observed at delivery.

Acknowledgments. R.R. holds the Boehringer Ingelheim Chair in Beta-Cell Preservation, Function and Regeneration at Mount Sinai Hospital. B.Z. is the Stephen and Suzie Pustil Diabetes Research Scientist at Mount Sinai Hospital.

Funding. This study was supported by Canadian Institutes of Health Research operating grants MOP-84206 and PJT-156286.

Duality of Interest. R.R.'s research program is supported by the Sun Life Financial Program to Prevent Diabetes in Women. No other potential conflicts of interest relevant to this article were reported.

Author Contributions. R.R. wrote the manuscript. R.R. and C.Y. verified the data. C.Y. performed the statistical analyses. R.R., A.J.H., P.W.C., M.S., and B.Z. designed and implemented the study. All authors critically revised the manuscript for important intellectual content and approved the final manuscript. R.R. is the guarantor of this work and, as such, had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

References

- Metzger BE, Lowe LP, Dyer AR, et al.; HAPO Study Cooperative Research Group. Hyperglycemia and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *N Engl J Med* 2008;358:1991–2002
- Lowe WL Jr, Scholtens DM, Lowe LP, et al.; HAPO Follow-up Study Cooperative Research Group. Association of gestational diabetes with maternal disorders of glucose metabolism and childhood adiposity. *JAMA* 2018;320:1005–1016
- Kramer CK, Swaminathan B, Hanley AJ, et al. Each degree of glucose intolerance in pregnancy predicts distinct trajectories of β -cell function, insulin sensitivity, and glycemia in the first 3 years postpartum. *Diabetes Care* 2014;37:3262–3269
- McIntyre HD, Catalano P, Zhang C, Desoye G, Mathiesen ER, Damm P. Gestational diabetes mellitus. *Nat Rev Dis Primers* 2019;5:47
- Wexler DJ, Powe CE, Barbour LA, et al. Research gaps in gestational diabetes mellitus: executive summary of a National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases workshop. *Obstet Gynecol* 2018;132:496–505
- Retnakaran R, Ye C, Hanley AJ, et al. Treating gestational diabetes reduces birthweight but does not affect infant adiposity across the 1st year of life. *Diabetes Care* 2022;45:1230–1238
- National Diabetes Data Group. Classification and diagnosis of diabetes mellitus and other categories of glucose intolerance. *Diabetes* 1979;28:1039–1057
- American Diabetes Association Professional Practice Committee. 2. Classification and diagnosis of diabetes: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes-2022. *Diabetes Care* 2022;45(Suppl. 1):S17–S38
- Punthakee Z, Goldenberg R; Diabetes Canada Clinical Practice Guidelines Expert Committee. Definition, classification and diagnosis of diabetes, prediabetes and metabolic syndrome. *Can J Diabetes* 2018;42(Suppl. 1):S10–S15
- Matsuda M, DeFronzo RA. Insulin sensitivity indices obtained from oral glucose tolerance testing: comparison with the euglycemic insulin clamp. *Diabetes Care* 1999;22:1462–1470
- Retnakaran R, Qi Y, Goran MI, Hamilton JK. Evaluation of proposed oral disposition index measures in relation to the actual disposition index. *Diabet Med* 2009;26:1198–1203
- Kahn SE. The relative contributions of insulin resistance and beta-cell dysfunction to the pathophysiology of type 2 diabetes. *Diabetologia* 2003;46:3–19
- Kramer MS, Platt RW, Wen SW, et al.; Fetal/Infant Health Study Group of the Canadian Perinatal Surveillance System. A new and improved population-based Canadian reference for birthweight for gestational age. *Pediatrics* 2001;108:e35–e41
- Crowther CA, Hiller JE, Moss JR, McPhee AJ, Jeffries WS; Australian Carbohydrate Intolerance Study in Pregnant Women (ACHOIS) Trial Group. Effect of treatment of gestational diabetes mellitus on pregnancy outcomes. *N Engl J Med* 2005;352:2477–2486
- Landon MB, Spong CY, Thom E, et al.; Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Maternal-Fetal Medicine Units Network. A multicenter, randomized trial of treatment for mild gestational diabetes. *N Engl J Med* 2009;361:1339–1348
- Xiang AH, Wang C, Peters RK, Trigo E, Kjos SL, Buchanan TA. Coordinate changes in plasma glucose and pancreatic beta-cell function in Latino women at high risk for type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes* 2006;55:1074–1079
- Xiang AH, Kawakubo M, Trigo E, Kjos SL, Buchanan TA. Declining β -cell compensation for insulin resistance in Hispanic women with recent gestational diabetes mellitus: association with changes in weight, adiponectin, and C-reactive protein. *Diabetes Care* 2010;33:396–401
- Catalano PM, Huston L, Amini SB, Kalhan SC. Longitudinal changes in glucose metabolism during pregnancy in obese women with normal glucose tolerance and gestational diabetes mellitus. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1999;180:903–916
- Homko C, Sivan E, Chen X, Reece EA, Boden G. Insulin secretion during and after pregnancy in patients with gestational diabetes mellitus. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2001;86:568–573
- Buchanan TA, Xiang A, Kjos SL, Watanabe R. What is gestational diabetes? *Diabetes Care* 2007;30(Suppl. 2):S105–S111