# Diabetes in adolescence

Cameron FJ<sup>1</sup>, Garvey K<sup>2</sup>, Hood KK<sup>3</sup>, Acerini CL<sup>4</sup>, Codner E<sup>5</sup>.

1. Royal Children's Hospital and Murdoch Childrens Research Institute, Department of Paediatrics, University of Melbourne.

- 2. Division of Endocrinology, Boston Children's Hospital
- 3. Department of Pediatrics, Stanford University School of Medicine
- 4. Department of Paediatrics, University of Cambridge.
- 5. Instituto de Investigaciones Materno Infantil, Facultad de Medicina, University of Chile.

#### Summary of what is new/different

-Pre-conceptional counseling should begin early during puberty

-New recommendations for type of contraception that should be used for girls are made.

-Transition programs and care for young adults are now included.

-Mental health problems that may be associated with poor metabolic control should be treated early.

-Adherence remains that greatest impediment to successful deployment of diabetes-related technologies.

#### **Executive summary and Recommendations**

• Adolescence is the transitional phase of development between childhood and emerging adulthood.

• Health care and emotional needs are distinctly different from younger children and physically mature adults.

• Carers should be alert to recognize the signs of mental health problems (depression, eating disorders, illicit drug usage, etc.) and the occasional need for psychiatric treatment (E). Carers also

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi: 10.1111/pedi.12702

should consider cognitive issues such as attention deficit and personality disorders that may impact upon adherence.

• Many adolescents may experience a deterioration in metabolic control – attributable to one or several of the following:

- endocrine changes leading to increased insulin resistance (B),
- erratic meal and exercise patterns (C),
- poor adherence to treatment regimens (C),
- eating disorders (C), and
- hazardous and risk-taking behaviours (C/E).

• It is essential to develop appropriate communication skills to facilitate teaching and education, and recognize the need for privacy and confidentiality for this age group (E).

• To-date, psychoeducation interventions have demonstrated modest benefit on psychological outcomes, but no effect on glycemic control (B).

• Maintaining parental support and involvement throughout adolescence is associated with better outcomes (C/E).

• Providing health education opportunities utilizing strategies that optimize self-care behaviour and that involve open-ended discussion, problem solving, negotiated target setting, and the use of modern technology are recommended (B/E).

• Education and advice on a variety of health care matters, including employment, driving, alcohol, drugs, sexual health, and contraception, should be provided taking into account background cultural and religious influences (E).

- In order to increase awareness of the risks of unplanned pregnancy and poor metabolic control preconceptional counselling should begin in puberty in all girls (E).
- Hormonal contraception can be used in patients with diabetes with no microvascular complications and less than 20 years of disease duration (E).
- Long-acting reversible contraception has been accepted as a first line choice during adolescence (B/E), but no studies have been performed in teenagers with diabetes.
  - Organize regular screening for diabetes complications (E).

• Encourage understanding of the need for and immediate benefits of improved metabolic control (C/E).

• Recognize that young people mature at different rates and may have differing views on the appropriate age of transfer of their care to young adult diabetes services (C/E).

• Planned coordinated transition to adult care should be provided at the most appropriate time (E).

#### Introduction

Adolescence is the transitional phase of development between childhood and emerging adulthood that incorporates the biological and psychosocial changes of puberty. It imposes unique challenges on the individual with diabetes, the family, and the diabetes care team (1, 2). Although the majority of adolescents adapt well to the challenges of puberty, it must be recognized that their health care and emotional needs are distinctly different from those of younger children or older adults. Adolescence involves training to become an independent adult and may result in failures and mistakes as well as success.

In the context of type 1 diabetes many adolescents may experience a deterioration in metabolic control (3–6) often attributable to erratic meal and exercise patterns (7, 8), poor adherence to treatment regimens (9–12), hazardous and risk-taking behaviours (1, 2, 13, 14), disordered eating behaviours (15–20), other mental health issues (21) and endocrine changes associated with puberty, leading to greater insulin resistance (22).

Changes in body habitus, particularly weight gain in females (3, 5, 23-26) may be unwanted diabetes related side effects, sometimes associated with changes in the tempo of pubertal maturation (26, 27) provoking insulin omission to effect weight loss (12, 16, 18). It is therefore recommended (1, 2, 28-33) that those providing care for adolescents with diabetes should:

• Understand the psychosocial and physiological development of adolescence (1, 2). This includes the recognition of the need for young people to shift (around the age of 10 yr onwards) from 'concrete thinking', with limited abstract capacity for understanding time perspectives or consequences of their actions, into adult cognitive capacity with a more realistic perspective of the future, which is achieved at a variable rate toward late adolescence (34).

• Recognize that chronic conditions may inhibit some young people from exploring life, while others deliberately explore risk-taking behaviour involving their diabetes care.

• Develop communication skills [e.g., trusting, authoritative (not authoritarian), allowing adequate time, open questioning, patient-centred, observing non-verbal messages and confidentiality].

• Understand that attending to the developmental needs of young people may be just as important

for quality of life as diabetes specific treatment (35, 36).

- Recognize the intensity of the changing social environment on behaviour. Adolescents experience a strong need to fit in and be accepted outside the family most importantly by peers.
- Acknowledge the emerging differences in lifestyle and changing needs of adolescents. Exploring various life styles is part of identity development and includes experimentation in many domains, most commonly in the company of peers.
- Identify the components of care unique to adolescents.
- Have an awareness of the likelihood of clinically significant mental health issues including anxiety, depression and disordered eating (21)
- Provide planned transition to adult care at the most appropriate time (36).

The weighted evidence base supporting these recommendations has been reviewed in both the Australian National Health and Medical Research Council guidelines (31), UK National Institute of Clinical Excellence (NICE) guidelines (33) and American Diabetes Association (30, 37).

The emerging needs of adolescents due to developing independence and lifestyle changes These needs relate to the following:

- Over-riding importance of belonging to a peer group and fitting in to the group's social norms and behavior.
- Experimentation and exploration of different lifestyles which conform less acceptably with family expectations and routines.
- Increasing independence from parental care.
- Sense of invincibility and not-yet developed cognitive skills to fully understand the consequence of today's behaviour on future outcomes
- Expectation for privacy and confidentiality.
- Expectation for the right to consent or to deny consent to medical treatment.

- Author Manuscri
- Pressures of academic achievement and competition.
- Entry into the work force.
- Exposure to smoking, alcohol and illicit or recreational drugs.
- Variable sleep patterns with lack of regular routine in day to day activities.
- Different levels of physical activity: sometimes major increases in sporting activity, but for many others, lowered physical activity with greater time spent on computer games, the Internet and television ('screen time').
- Difficulties in following advice and responding to conventional health education. Changing goals for diabetes self-management may not be on their priority list.

#### Identifying the components of care that are unique to adolescents

Most aspects of optimal care of adolescents with diabetes have not been subjected to rigorous enquiry, hence results are sometimes conflicting. This perhaps is reflective of the variable findings associated with factors likely to achieve optimal adolescent adherence and self-management (38).

Extensive review of psycho-educational interventions have concluded that they may have modest benefit on psychological outcomes but not on glycemic control, although the methodological quality of most studies was moderate to poor (39-41). Recent robustly designed randomized controlled trials of motivational interviewing interventions through training programs for pediatric diabetes teams appear to lead to no improvement in either psychosocial measures or HbA1c levels (42).

Suggested care strategies might involve:

• Developing a trusting relationship between the adolescent and the diabetes care team, including through familiarity with staff and continuity in care (1, 33, 43). Adolescents report

better self-care when health care professionals are motivating (1, 44).

- Helping the adolescent to clarify priorities and have a target-driven or goal orientated approach (45). When there is conflict between the needs of diabetes management and the adolescent's social development and peer activities, a stepwise approach with interim achievable goals can be used to bridge competing priorities
- Providing well directed education to help understand the physiological changes of puberty, their effect on insulin dose, difficulties of weight control and dietary regulation.
- Organizing regular screening for early signs of complications to encourage a practical understanding of the options available and the immediate, long-term and individual benefits of improved metabolic control.
- Recognizing the emerging maturity of the adolescent, encouraging self-reliance and selfefficacy thus allowing consultations to be increasingly directed towards the adolescent but also retaining the trust and support of parents (46).
- Helping the adolescent and parents to negotiate new levels of parental involvement in diabetes care tasks, which may involve non-verbal strategies for communicating (e.g., text messaging).
- Helping parents in their changing role from full responsibility towards a gradual transition to cooperative care with the adolescent. This role change needs to be slow and gradual as continued parental support and involvement in day to day care is a strong determinant of improved clinical outcomes. This is based on evidence that parental support and involvement throughout adolescence is associated with better outcomes. (1, 46-51). Identifying and advising on which parenting styles are more likely to be successful than others [see Table 1 and (52, 53)]. The *authoritative* parent sets age-appropriate demands respecting the maturity level and developmental needs, carefully explaining reasons for prohibiting certain behaviors and agreeing on strategies for behavior together with the young person in a respectful dialogue. The authoritative parent, however, does not bargain

about serious matters and has a clear goal of what is important in the long run. Authoritative parents do not need much support but need medical information. The *authoritarian, rigid* parent gives orders, puts his/her own ambitions first and does not consider needs and feelings of the child. The rigid and demanding families may need support to develop more adequate parenting individually or in groups. The *lenient, permissive* parents are highly empathetic who seem to care too much about their children, over- identify themselves with the needs of their children and hate hurting them by getting into conflicts over routines. The *unconcerned, neglectful and indifferent* parents may have significant mental health problems keeping them from understanding and helping their children. Neglectful parents require a careful social work-up to explore the roots of dysfunction.

 Table 1. Parenting styles according to L Steinberg (52) and freely interpreted by K Berg-Kelly 2007

 (53)

	Demanding Challenging	Not demanding Not challenging
Empathic with young person	Authoritative	Lenient Permissive
Non-empathic Cold	Authoritarian Rigid	Unconcerned Neglectful Indifferent

Emerging independence is best pursued gradually:

- Having an index of suspicion for signs of mental health problems such as depression, disordered eating and eating disorders, "diabetes burnout", illicit or recreational drug use, mental slowness, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and neglectful or abusive family situations. Identifying the need for, and effectiveness of, specialized psychological counseling in some situations (54). The HEADSS technique (acronym for Home, Education, Activities during spare time, Drugs, Sexual activities and Suicide Depression) is helpful when screening for psychosocial problems that might interfere with self-management (55).
- Providing health education, utilizing strategies that promote optimal healthcare behavior

[See ISPAD Guideline Chapters on Psychological Issues and Education]. Although there is consistent evidence that knowledge *per se* is predictive of better self-care and control this association is weak in adolescence (1). Thus, while it is essential that adolescents are provided with information about diabetes and its care, providing this information by conventional education alone may be insufficient to lead them to adopt optimal health care.

- Encouraging the adolescent to participate with parents and health care team members in making decisions about diabetes management.
- Offering a variety of educational opportunities including open-ended adolescent-orientated discussion and negotiation (53), discussing health-related quality of life issues (54), problem solving, target setting (45), age-appropriate written materials, CDs/videos, text messaging (56), the use of the internet, social media, peer involvement and group learning.
- Facilitated meetings with peers who have diabetes in order to receive advice, reflect and share experiences and reduce feelings of isolation (57).

## Sub-optimal metabolic control

The DCCT has unequivocally shown that intensive insulin therapy reduces risk of long-term vascular complications, largely through improved HbA1c levels, and that better metabolic control in the early years of diabetes is also important in reducing this risk (58, 59). Metabolic control commonly deteriorates during adolescence in many, but not all, patients with T1D (60-63). This may be due to physiological and to psychosocial influences, leading to insulin resistance, poor treatment adherence, eating disorders, and depression (6, 48). Certain demographic and socioeconomic factors are also associated with higher HbA1c (60, 61). Metabolic control during adolescence appears to have a greater association of microvascular complication in later life when compared with subsequent metabolic control in adult years (64).

r Manusch A LITNO

The availability of continuous subcutaneous insulin infusion (CSII) pumps and subcutaneous continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) devices have increased in recent years (62; 65). Use of these technologies either alone or in combination may benefit some adolescents in terms of improved blood glucose control and reduced hypoglycaemia frequency (66), but is only observed in those patients who maintain strict adherence with the treatment regimen (62, 67). Interestingly though, and against the overall trend in paediatric control, in one large survey of Swedish, German and Austrian adolescents a lower mean HbA1C Of 0.3% in Swedish adolescents appeared to be associated with a tripling in the rate of severe hypoglycaemia (63). However, it is recognised that acceptance and adherence rates with CSII and CGM use are typically lower in adolescents with T1D and may be a limiting factor in their use (62, 68, 69).

The health care team should also consider the following:

- socializing with peers is of utmost importance to most adolescents which often conflicts with their capacity to manage diabetes optimally and communicate with parents.
- adolescents with diabetes have the same needs for exploration as other young people but studies have shown that many of them are more vulnerable and subjected to more pressures to conform to peer norms (35, 36).
- studies demonstrate slightly more involvement in health hazardous behavior in those with chronic conditions (14, 59).
- adolescents may adopt non-demanding low risk metabolic control by deliberately adjusting their diabetes to a blood glucose level where they do not risk hypo- or hyperglycemia/ketonemia and thus do not have their everyday life disturbed by diabetes.
  - some adolescents, particularly female, may manipulate insulin doses or dietary habits in order to reduce weight gain, which has the inevitable consequence of worse metabolic control and increased vascular complications risk (13).

Immediate reinforcement for engaging in diabetes management behaviors will have more powerful effects (ie increase likelihood it will happen again) than the potential for long-term

gains (e.g., avoidance of complications later in life) as most adolescents have not internalized the importance of doing something now so that the future is better.

it may be helpful to negotiate from a cost-benefit stand-point to assist the young person to understand the short and long-term costs of certain behaviors as well as the potential benefits.

#### Severe hypoglycaemia

Severe hypoglycemia may be experienced during adolescence due to poor metabolic control, exacerbated by irregularities of lifestyle and risk taking behavior. In addition to the immediate effects on neurocognitive function, evidence shows an important link between severe hypoglycemia and pre-clinical atherosclerosis and acute and chronic cardiovascular events in later life (70, 71). This is relevant in the context of intensive insulin therapy that may increase the risk of severe hypoglycemia (72), although there is evidence that contemporary approaches to diabetes selfmanagement, and careful attention to detailed education (73-75) may reduce hypoglycemia frequency.

Specific concerns during adolescence include:

- Development of hypoglycemic unawareness or altered prodromal symptoms. An episode of severe hypoglycemia may lead to a period of altered awareness
- Fears about hypoglycemia may be associated with poorer metabolic control (76)
- Confusion with alcohol intoxication
- Confusion with illicit or recreational drug effects
- Nocturnal or early morning episodes due to altered sleep patterns

- The effect of hypoglycemia on driving
- The effect of hypoglycemia on academic, sports or work performance.

Young people should be encouraged to understand the benefits to them of better metabolic control, with a focus on the immediate benefits (e.g., perform better at a sport). Advice should be given about hypoglycemia to enable adolescents to take positive measures in recognizing, managing and preventing hypoglycemia (75, 77). Adolescents should be encouraged to inform friends about the risks, symptoms and treatment of hypoglycemia during the altered routine of social engagements (1).

#### Alcohol, smoking, and drugs

Alcohol, tobacco and illicit or recreational drug use is a serious concern in some communities during high school years (78) and is common amongst youth with chronic medical conditions (79). Youth with type 1 diabetes self-reports of alcohol use vary from 10-90% (80-81), though their knowledge as to its impacts upon diabetes is generally poor (82). This risk is heightened by an apparent association between alcohol consumption, poorer metabolic control and risk of diabetic ketoacidosis (82). There is some evidence though that diabetic youth may use illicit or recreational drugs less commonly (83) and smoke less commonly (84) than healthy peers. Smoking in the context of type 1 diabetes during youth is a marker of social deprivation (85). Notwithstanding the apparent wide contextual variation in alcohol consumption in adolescents with diabetes (86), advice on alcohol, smoking and drugs should include:

- Encouragement to refrain from smoking and binge drinking, and advice on avoiding the dangers of drugs that may affect brain function or lead to dependence or addiction.
- Adopting a realistic advisory approach to alcohol rather than an absolute ban on medical grounds.
- Information on the effects of alcohol, particularly in young adolescents, on the liver by inhibiting gluconeogenesis with the possibility of either delayed severe hypoglycemia. This can variably combine with the carbohydrate content of the beverage to result in an

unpredictable glycemic response (87).

- Methods of avoiding nocturnal hypoglycemia after drinking alcohol in the evening by ingesting carbohydrate while drinking, maintenance of good hydration, measuring blood glucose levels before bedtime and having carbohydrate before sleep to minimize the risk of hypoglycemia.
- Ensuring that adolescents and their friends at parties and events where alcohol is consumed, are aware that hypoglycemia may occur when drinking alcohol without eating; that vomiting, particularly with omission of usual insulin, is dangerous and that vomitus may be inhaled or lead to ketoacidosis; that hypoglycemia might be confused with intoxication and that it is important to check blood glucose levels before sleep.

Providing information for and education of colleagues or friends is increasingly important as the young person develops independence from the family, especially when living away from home at work, college or university.

- Authoritative, but empathic, advice about smoking as an additional risk for the vascular complications of diabetes (88, 89). It also appears to be associated with very early onset of peripheral neuropathy (90)
- Helping the adolescent who does smoke to stop by providing specific interventions that help with smoking cessation (nicotine-patch, cognitive-behavioral therapy, prescription drugs etc.).
- Recognition that cannabis may alter eating habits (excess snacking during and loss of appetite after cannabis smoking), impair judgement around diabetes management decisions, and may reduce motivation to maintain good metabolic control.
- Illicit or recreational drugs may alter brain function, increasing the risks of mistakes and mishaps with diabetes management.

- Acknowledgment that a risk reduction policy may be more realistic than an absolute ban on illicit or recreational drug experimentation.
- Introduce strategies for managing stress during adolescence other than medication e.g. relaxation training, exercise, psychological evaluation for anxiety or depression, hypnosis, etc.

Healthcare professionals should understand that educational messages which are motivating, problem solving, target setting and which encourage adolescents towards developing their own strategies to avoid these problems are more successful than threats or inducing fear (1, 36).

#### Sexual health

The imperative adequate sexual health counselling is underscored by data from youth with type 2 diabetes in the TODAY study. Despite recommendation about early counselling on contraception and pre-pregnancy counselling high rates of unplanned pregnancies in adolescents with diabetes still occur (91). Advice to young people with regards to sexual health will vary between different countries and cultures but would usually include:

- Pre-pregnancy counselling and education should begin during early puberty (30)
- A non-judgmental approach to sexual activity or sexual orientation (30).
- Advice where applicable on methods of avoiding pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections (STIs) for all adolescents.
- Prevention of hypoglycemia during or after intercourse.
- Advice on genital hygiene, vulvovaginal candidiasis, menstrual disorders and STIs.

Adolescent girls with diabetes should be aware of the importance of a planned pregnancy. Poor glycemic control around the time of conception increases the risks of congenital malformations, spontaneous abortion and fetal death. Pre-pregnancy counselling and education well

in advance of the possibility of pregnancy is advisable with emphasis on:

Ovulation is preserved, even when poor metabolic control and menstrual irregularities are present (92).

- The importance of good glycemic control before pregnancy, particularly the risks to the developing embryo and fetus.
- Understanding the importance of good control throughout pregnancy to avoid fetal macrosomia and neonatal hypoglycemia and also the avoidance of maternal hypoglycemia and ketoacidosis.
- Discussion with the young person and partner regarding the genetic risks of diabetes to their offspring.
- Access to expert pregnancy management should include:
- Cooperative management by an obstetrician and physician with special experience in diabetes and pregnancy.
- Delivery of the baby in a hospital able to provide expert maternal, fetal, perinatal and neonatal care.
- Males with long-standing diabetes may become impotent because of autonomic neuropathy (93). Younger males may fear this complication and require expert counselling. Impotence in adolescence is rare and may be due to psychological reasons rather than diabetes itself.

#### Contraception

The diabetes care team should be sensitive to the religious and cultural influences affecting an individual's choice of contraceptive method (94).

• When a female with diabetes becomes sexually active she should do so with knowledge of

how to avoid an unplanned pregnancy and STIs.

A planned pregnancy in a person with diabetes in excellent metabolic control and in good health carries risks which are slightly higher than those in the general population, but not as elevated as previously reported in patients with poor metabolic control (95). However in the face of suboptimal metabolic control and lack of preparation for pregnancy, there is a high risk of congenital anomalies (91).

## Barrier methods

- Worldwide safe sex, STIs and HIV campaigns have made adolescents more aware of barrier methods, particularly condoms (96, 97).
- Male condoms offer the greatest protection against STI's to the whole genital tract (less against herpes), and substantial protection against pregnancy.
- Diaphragms and female condoms are not recommended for the adolescent. Diaphragms are less effective contraception than the condom and do not protect against vaginal infection.
- Coitus interruptus, a common practice among teenagers, is not recommended because it is associated with a high pregnancy rate.

## Long acting reversible contraception (LARCS)

- Recently, LARCs, which include intrauterine devices (IUDs) and the implantable rod, have been accepted as a first line contraceptive choice for adolescents even if they are nulliparous (98-101)
- Implantable rod and hormonal IUDs offer better protection against unintended pregnancy than oral contraceptives (99), and therefore should be considered in the adolescents with diabetes, but the effect on metabolic control in the very young women has not been evaluated
- Non- hormonal IUDs may be considered in the patient that has a contraindication for using

hormonal methods.

• LARC methods provide no protection against STIs, but are not associated with more episodes of STIs.

Combined hormonal oral contraceptives (OCs)

- Patients without micro or macrovascular complications and diabetes duration less than 20 yr may use any hormonal method.
- Patients with diabetes duration longer than 20 years, or having micro or macrovascular complications should avoid using OCs, but may use progestin only methods, intrauterine device or barrier methods.
- Newer OCs with a lower estrogen dose (≤35 µg or less ethinyl estradiol) and newer progestogens has not been demonstrated to be associated with detrimental effects on metabolic control, weight or lipid profile.
- Young people with diabetes on OCs should be monitored regularly, particularly blood pressure, side effects such as headaches, mood changes, breast changes, genital infections.
- Diabetes per se is not a risk factor of venous thromboembolism (102).
- All women taking OCs, including patients with diabetes, should be educated on the signs of thromboembolic diseases. Educate about clinical signs of alert using the acronym ACHES (abdominal pain, chest pain, headaches, eye, severe leg pain).
- Women with personal history of thrombotic disease should not use combined hormonal contraception.
- If acne or hirsutism are problems, the use of an OC containing an anti-androgenic progestins may be helpful (103-105).
- Progesterone-only OCs may provide insufficient contraception for teenagers who are likely

to forget the OCs.

- Similar to other adolescents without diabetes, in some circumstances if there is the
  possibility of an unwanted pregnancy it may be beneficial to advise sexually active young
  people about the availability of the 'morning after' hormone pill. No special considerations
  for the adolescent with diabetes are recommended in this setting (106).
- Very obese patients should be aware of a decrease of contraceptive efficacy of hormonal contraception and higher risk of venous thromboembolism (107).
- In the past, OCs with 50 micrograms of ethinyl estradiol (EE) were thought to have an adverse effect on metabolic control and lipid profiles and increase the risks of hypertension, cardiovascular and thromboembolic diseases. Nowadays, OCs with 50 micrograms EE are rarely prescribed.

#### **Hormonal Injections**

- Medroxyprogesterone injections have been associated with decreased bone mass gain, which may be especially detrimental for the adolescent with type 1 diabetes.
- Combined hormonal monthly injection may be a contraceptive method for the patients with T1D who has an erratic life-style and is at high risk of pregnancy and cannot access to LARCs methods. No safety study has been performed in patients with T1D.

#### Study and examinations

Most adolescents will engage in a level of secondary and/or tertiary education that will require some form of formal assessment such as examinations. These may be significant life events in that they will to varying extent determine further educational and vocational opportunities. Advice as to how a student may deal with their diabetes to optimise academic performance is frequently sought. Many students are well aware of the cognitive effects of hypoglycaemia (108, 109) and thus may choose to run their glucose levels higher than usual during exam times. They should however be

counselled as to the equally negative cognitive impacts of hyperglycaemia (110, 111). Glycaemic responses to exams may vary with individual student stress responses, the type and length of the exam and the time of day. Consequently, students should undertake practice examinations in conditions that are as near as possible to those that will be experienced in the actual examination (i.e., same exam duration time, same time of the day etc).

Accommodations for students with diabetes should include free access to food (low treatment), drink, and lavatory, as well as diabetes equipment (including blood glucose meter, continuous glucose monitors, and insulin delivery devices. Blood glucose levels should be checked immediately prior to and midway if a long exam (such as 3 hours). Adjustments to insulin regimens and/or diet can then be made accordingly so as to maintain euglycemia during the exam. As a general principle over the course of the academic year, exercise should be encouraged to reduce stress, improve physical fitness, improve sleep patterns and improve cognitive performance (112).

#### Employment

There should be no discrimination or stigma against people with diabetes in the workplace (113). Most young people with diabetes should make good employees because of their ability to organise their lives and healthcare.

Advice on employment and diabetes should include the following:

- Recommendation not to conceal diabetes if asked about health and to inform potential employers about diabetes and how it is managed.
- Provision of a medical report from the diabetes care team to reassure employers that diabetes should not be a disadvantage in employment.
- Discussion of those careers which may be unavailable to persons with diabetes, e.g. police, fire, armed and certain public services, driving large goods vehicles or piloting airplanes. Legal regulations vary between countries. New technological developments may change these restrictions.

- Reassurance to employers that young people with diabetes make excellent employees if they have shown mature self-care, self-discipline and responsibility.
- In addition to being candid about diabetes with their employer and providing a medical report, young people with diabetes should prepare for the workplace with responsible selfcare, including monitoring of blood glucose levels and avoidance of significant hypoglycemia.

#### Driving

Hypoglycemia is the main factor which increases driving risk in people with diabetes (114-116), however this risk is mitigated in an individual with glycemic awareness, stable metabolic control and no visual disability to the extent where in most settings patients with diabetes are able to drive non-commercial vehicles E. Regulations though vary in different countries. Studies have variably shown increased rates of driving accidents in drivers with type 1 diabetes (117, 118), although this may be due to an over-representation of a particular subgroup of drivers with poorer glycaemic awareness (119). Studies have also shown reductions in automobile accidents following specific hypoglycemia awareness training programs (120).

The young person who plans to obtain a driving license should be advised on the appropriate regulations and in particular:

- Prevention of hypoglycemia whilst driving (particularly if hypoglycemic unawareness is a problem) by blood glucose monitoring before starting to drive and appropriate food intake.
- Encouraging stable metabolic control (particularly avoidance of hypoglycemia) which may help determine whether a person with diabetes is eligible to hold a driving licence. Severe hypoglycemia in the preceding months causes many authorities to delay granting a license.
- Regular visual acuity checks.

#### Transition from pediatric to adult services

In addition to assuming increased self-care responsibility, adolescents growing into young adulthood will eventually need to transfer from pediatric to adult diabetes providers. The developmental stage from the late teens through the twenties has been defined as "emerging adulthood," a period of significant competing educational, social, work, and financial priorities (121, 122). As young adults with T1D experience competing life priorities and decreased parental support, adherence and glycemic control may decline. Young adults with T1D are at risk for acute diabetes complications as well as chronic microvascular complications and early mortality (123-126).

The concept of transition implies a "planned, purposeful movement of the adolescent or young adult with a chronic disease from a child (and family) centred to an adult oriented health care system" (127). Suboptimal coordination of the pediatric to adult care transition may lead to fragmentation of care delivery and increased risk for adverse outcomes. Transition care challenges documented in the literature include deficiencies in transition preparation (128-131), prolonged gaps between pediatric and adult care (129, 130, 132-134), and increased post-transition diabetes hospitalizations (135).

The transition from a pediatric to an adult orientated service should not involve a sudden unanticipated transfer but an organized process of preparation and adaptation. The process should be a component of a high quality, multi-disciplinary diabetes service (including medical records transfer and, where possible, the use of linked databases) and must involve both teams of carers, an understanding of the two different systems of care and the differing expectations of those providing and those receiving care.

The appropriate age for transfer from a pediatric or adolescent service to adult care varies according to the maturity of the adolescent, the availability of appropriate services for the young person in an adult clinic, and hospital and clinic facilities and regulations. In many countries, patients are required to transition from pediatric to adult diabetes care at age 18 years. In the U.S, there is currently no mandated transition age, and available data describe a mean transition age of 19-21 years (129, 135). Two observational studies from the U.S. suggest worse deterioration of glycemic control in

patients receiving adult care compared to those still receiving pediatric care (136, 137). There is no established best practice regarding transition age; further research and consensus in this area is needed, but delay of transition based on the developmental needs of the patient may be appropriate (138). ISPAD recommends that adolescents and young adults with diabetes continue to be seen by a diabetes team (pediatric or adult care providers as appropriate) every 3 months or more if required.

Some transition intervention programs for type 1 diabetes patients have shown promising results, including dedicated young adult clinics (139-141), intensive transition coordination efforts (142-144), and use of a care ambassador/patient navigator to support the transition process (141, 145). However, controlled studies are limited (144), and there have been few robust studies investigating best models of transition care for type 1 diabetes patients (146). A recently published randomised control trial in transitioning youth showed higher clinic attendance and lower disengagement rates in those who received an appointment management intervention (147). Several other trials are currently underway attempting to address the overall lack of evidence base (148). As a result, the following recommendations are largely based on expert consensus opinion (122).

For successful transition to an adult service, the following steps should be considered:

- Discussion with the patient and family well in advance as to the best time for transfer, based on their own preference and readiness, but also on the availability of services and, in some countries, health care insurance requirements. It is preferable to have flexibility about age of transition as family circumstances and an adolescent's psychosocial maturity differ widely.
- Transition preparation education and transition readiness assessment by pediatric providers, starting in the adolescent years. Transition preparation should include counseling on diabetes self-management, health care navigation (e.g., maintenance of supplies, scheduling of appointments), diabetes complications, and differences between pediatric and adult care systems.
- Identification of an adult service able to provide for the needs of young adults with diabetes.

- Provision of a joint adolescent or young adult clinic with members of both professional teams working together to facilitate the transition process for both adolescents and their parents.
- Liaison between the pediatric and adult services. Ideally this should involve identifying a specific person in the service (care navigator) who is able to help coordinate the transition of the young person into the adult service (141, 145). If such a person is not available, one of the pediatric staff should take responsibility for liaison with the adult service and both groups must have understanding of the services involved.
- Documentation of written patient transition plan and provision of a clinical summary of the young person's medical history, including indices of control, the results of complication screening and information on any co-morbidities that may impact on how the person is managed medically.
- Formal clinic-specific transition policies and clear communication between all services providing care for transitioning patients, particularly all members of the two diabetes teams and including, where available, primary care physicians and community nursing staff.
- Implementation of systems to avoid gaps in care between leaving the pediatric service and entering the adult service and that the transitioning patient is not lost to follow-up care. This may occur if the young person fails to make or keep an appointment, or feels uncomfortable in the new service and loses contact with a specific named team member.
- The pediatric service should have mechanisms in place, including a database and a named professional, to identify and locate all young people who fail to attend follow-up consultations.
- The adult service should also be strongly encouraged to ensure long term follow-up and outcome measurements of those diagnosed with diabetes as children and adolescents, as many studies show that poor glycemic control leads to longer-term morbidities (123-125, 149).

#### References

1. Skinner TC, Channon S, Howells L, Mcevilly A. Diabetes during adolescence. In: SNoek FJ, Skinner TC, eds. Psychology in Diabetes Care. Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons, 2000: XX–XX.

2. Werther GA, Court JM (Eds). Diabetes and the Adolescent. Melbourne: Miranova Publishers, 1998.

3. Mortensen HB, Robertson KJ, Aanstoot HJ et al. Insulin management and metabolic control of type 1 diabetes mellitus in childhood and adolescence in 18 countries. Hvidore Study Group on Childhood Diabetes. Diabet Med 1998: 15: 752–759.

4. Vanelli M, Chiarelli F, Chiari G et al. Metabolic control in children and adolescents with diabetes: experience of two Italian Regional Centers. J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab 1999: 12: 403–409.

5. Dabadghao P, Vidmar S, Cameron FJ. Deteriorating diabetic control through adolescence – do the origins lie in childhood? Diabet Med 2001: 18: 889–894.

6. King PS, Berg CA, Butner J et al. Longitudinal trajectories of metabolic control across adolescence: associations with parental involvement, adolescents' psychosocial maturity, and health care utilization. J Adolesc Health 2012: 50: 491–496.

7. Webb KL, Dobson AJ, O'Connell DL et al. Dietary compliance among insulin-dependent diabetics. J Chronic Dis 1984: 37: 633–643.

8. Loman DG, Galgani CA. Physical activity in adolescents with diabetes. Diabetes Educ 1996: 22: 121–125.

9. Lagreca A, Auslander W, Greco P, Spetter D, Fisher E, Santiago J. I get by with a little help from my family and friends: adolescents' support for diabetes care. J Pediatr Psychol 1995: 20: 449– 476. 10. Du Pasquier-Fediaevsky L, Tubiana-Rufi N. Discordance between physician and adolescent assessments of adherence to treatment: influence of HbA1c level. The PEDIAB Collaborative Group. Diabetes Care 1999: 22: 1445–1449.

11. Morris AD, Boyle DI, Mcmahon AD, Greene SA, Macdonald TM, Newton RW. Adherence to insulin treatment, glycaemic control and ketacidosis in insulin dependent diabetes mellitus. The DARTS/MEMO Collaboration. Diabetes Audit and Research in Tayside, Scotland. edicinesMonitoring Unit. Lancet 1997: 350: 1505–1510.

12. Datye KA, Moore DJ, Russell WE, Jaser SS. A review of adolescent adherence in type 1 diabetes and the untapped potential of diabetes providers to improve outcomes. Curr Diab Rep 2015; 15:51.

13. Bryden KS, Neil A, Mayou RA, Peveler RC, Fairburn CG, Dunger DB. Eating habits, body weight, and insulin misuse. A longitudinal study of teenagers and young adults with type 1 diabetes. Diabetes Care 1999: 22: 1956–1960.

14. Sawyer SM, Drew S, Yeo MS, Britto MT. Adolescents with a chronic condition: challenges living, challenges treating. Lancet 2007: 369: 1481–1489.

15. Rodin G, Johnson L, Garfinkel P, Daneman D, Kenshole A. Eating disorders in female adolescents with insulin dependent diabetes mellitus. Int J Psychiatry Med 1986: 16: 49–57.

16. Daneman D, Olmsted M, Rydall A, Maharaj S, Rodin G. Eating disorders in young women with type 1 diabetes. Prevalence, problems and prevention. Horm Res 1998: 50 (Suppl. 1): 79–86.

17. Jones JM, Lawson ML, Daneman D, Olmsted MP, Rodin G. Eating disorders in adolescent females with and without type 1 diabetes: cross sectional study. BMJ 2000: 320: 1563–1566.

18. Peveler RC, Fairburn C, Boller I, Dunger DB. Eating disorders in adolescents with IDDM. Diabetes Care 1992: 15: 1356–1360.

19. Peveler RC, Bryden KS, Neil HA et al. The relationship of disordered eating habits and attitudes to clinical outcomes in young adult females with type 1 diabetes. Diabetes Care 2005: 28: 84–88.

20. Colton PA, Olmsted MP, Daneman D, Rodin GM. Depression, disturbed eating behavior, and metabolic control in teenage girls with type 1 diabetes. Pediatr Diabetes 2013: 14: 372–376.

21. Cameron FJ, Northam EA, Ambler G, Daneman D. Routine psychological screening in youth with type 1 diabetes and their parents: a notion whose time has come? Diabetes Care 2007; 30:2716-2724.

22. Amiel SA, Sherwin RS, Simonson DC, Luritano AA, Tamborlane W. Impaired insulin action in puberty: a contributing factor to poor glycemic control in adolescents with diabetes. N Engl J Med 1986: 315: 1273–1280.

23. Bognetti E, Macellaro P, Novelli D, Meschi F, Ciralli F, Chiumello G. Prevalence and correlates of obesity in insulin dependent diabetic patients. Arch Dis Child 1995: 73: 239–242.

24. Domargard A, Sarnblad S, Kroon M, Karlsson I, Skeppner G, Aman J. Increased prevalence of overweight in adolescent girls with type 1 diabetes mellitus. Acta Paediatr 1999: 88: 1223–1228.

25. Ingberg CM, Sarnblad S, Kroon M, Karlsson I, Skeppner G, Aman J. Body composition in adolescent girls with type 1 diabetes. Diabet Med 2003: 20: 1005–1011.

26. Codner E, Barrera A, Mook-Kanamori D, Bazaes RA, Unanue N, Gaete X, Avila A, Ugarte F, Torrealba I, Pérez V, Panteón E, Cassorla F. Ponderal gain, waist-to-hip ratio and pubertal development in girls with type-1 diabetes mellitus. Pediatr Diabetes 2004: 5: 182–189.

27. Danielson KK, Palta M, Allen C, D'Alessio DJ. The association of increased glycosylated haemoglobin levels with delayed age at menarche in young women with type 1 diabetes. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2005: 90: 6466–6471.

28. Werther GA, Cameron FJ, Court JM. In: Sperling MA, ed. Adolescent Diabetes in Type 1 Diabetes: Etiology andTreatment.Ottowa: Humana Press, 2003.

29. Canadian Diabetes Association 2013. Clinical practice guidelines for the prevention and management of diabetes in Canada. Canadian Journal of Diabetes 2013: 37: S153–S167.

30. American Diabetes Association. Children and adolescents. Diabetes Care 2017;40(Suppl. 1):S105– S113

31. National Evidence Based Clinical Guidelines for Type 1 Diabetes in Children, Adolescents and Adults 2011 (available from <a href="http://www.nhmrc">http://www.nhmrc</a>. gov.au/guidelines/publications/ext4).

32. Resources to Support the Delivery of Care for Children and Young People With Diabetes.Diabetes UK. 2005 (available from <a href="http://www.diabetes.org.uk/good\_practice/children/downloads/resource.pdf">http://www.diabetes.org.uk/good\_practice/children/downloads/resource.pdf</a>).

33. Type 1 Diabetes: Diagnosis and Management of Type 1 Diabetes in Children, Young People and Adults. National Institute for Clinical Excellence:2004 (available from http://www.nice.org.uk/pdf/CG015NICEguideline.pdf).

34. Cromer BA, Tarnowski KJ. Noncompliance in adolescents: a review. J Dev Behav Pediatr 1989: 10: 207–215.

35. Suris J-C, Michaud P-A, Viner R. The adolescent with a chronic condition. Part I: developmental issues. Arch Dis Child 2004: 89: 938–942.6

36. Michaud P-A, Suris J-C, Viner R. The adolescent with a chronic condition. Part II: healthcare provision. Arch Dis Child 2004: 89: 943–949.

37. Young-Hyman D, de Groot M, Hill-Briggs F, Gonzalez JS, Hood K, Peyrot M. Psychosocial Care for People With Diabetes: A Position Statement of the American Diabetes Association. Diabetes Care 2016; 39:2126-2140.

38. Martinez K, Frazer SF, Dempster M, Hamill A, Fleming H, McCorry NK. Psychological factors associated with diabetes self-management among adolescents with Type 1 diabetes: A systematic review. Health Psychol 2016 e-pub

39. Northam EA, Todd S, Cameron FJ. Interventions to promote optimal health outcomes in children with Type 1 diabetes--are they effective? Diabet Med 2006; 23:113-21.

40. Murphy HR, Rayman G, Skinner TC. Psycho-educational interventions for children and young people with Type 1 diabetes. Diabet Med 2006; 23:935-43.

41. Winkley K, Landau S, Eisler I, Ismail K. Psychological interventions to improve glycaemic control in patients with type 1 diabetes: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. BMJ 2006: 333: 65–68.

42. Robling M, McNamara R, Bennert K et al. The effect of the Talking Diabetes consulting skills intervention on glycaemic control and quality of life in children with type 1 diabetes: cluster randomised controlled trial (DEPICTED study). BMJ 2012: 344:e2359.

43. Patino AM, Sanchez J, Eidson M, Delamater AM. Health beliefs and regimen adherence in minority adolescents with type 1 diabetes. J Pediatr Psychol 2005: 30: 503–512.

44. Anderson B, Ho J, Brackett J, Finkelstein D, Laffel L. Parental involvement in diabetes management tasks: relationships to blood glucose monitoring adherence and metabolic control in young adolescents with insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. J Pediatr 1997: 130: 257–265.

45. Swift PG, Skinner TC, de Beaufort CE et al. Target setting in intensive insulin management is associated with metabolic control: the Hvidoere childhood diabetes study group centre differences study 2005. Pediatr Diabetes 2010: 11: 271–278.

46. Duke DC, Geffken GR, Lewin AB, Williams LB, Storch EA, Silverstein JH. Glycemic control in youth with type 1 diabetes: family predictors and mediators. J Pediatr Psychol 2008: 33: 719–727.

47. Grabill KM, Geffken GR, Duke A et al. Family functioning and adherence in youth with type 1diabetes: a latent growth model of glycemic control. Child Health Care 2010: 39: 279–295.

48. Helgeson VS, Siminerio L, Escobar O, Becker D. Predictors of metabolic control among adolescents with diabetes: a 4-year longitudinal study. J Pediatr Psychol 2009: 34: 254–270.

49. Seiffge-Krenke I, Laursen B, Dickson DJ, Hartl AC. Declining metabolic control and decreasing parental support among families with adolescents with diabetes: the risk of restrictiveness. J Pediatr Psychol 2013: 38: 518–530.

50. Cameron FJ, Skinner TC, de Beaufort CE et al. Are family factors universally related to metabolic outcomes in adolescents with type 1 diabetes? Diabet Med 2008: 25: 463–468.

51. Steinberg L. The family at adolescence: transition and transformation. J Adolesc Health 2000: 27: 170–178.

52. Goldenring JM, Rosen DS. Getting into adolescents heads: an essential update. Contemp Pediatr 2004: 21: 64.

53. Howells L, Wilson A, Skinner TC, Newton R, Morris AD, Greene SA. A randomised control trial of the effect of negotiated telephone support on glycaemic control in young people with type 1 diabetes. Diabet Med 2002: 19: 643–648.

54. De Wit M, Delamarre-Van DE, Waal H, Bokma JA et al. Monitoring and discussing health-related quality of life in adolescents with type 1 diabetes improve psychosocial well-being. Diabetes Care 2008: 31: 1521–1526.

55. Cohen E. Mackenzie RG, Yates GL. HEADSS, a psychosocial risk assessment instrument:Implications for designing effective intervention programs for runaway youth. J Adol Health 1991;12:539-44.

56. Franklin VL, Waller A, Pagliari C, Greene SA. A randomised controlled trial of Sweet Talk, a text messaging system to support young people with diabetes. Diabet Med 2006: 23: 1332–1338.

57. Christie D, Romano GM, Thompson R, Viner RM, Hindmarsh PC. Attitudes to psychological groups in a paediatric and adolescent diabetes service – implications for service delivery. Pediatr Diabetes 2008: 9 (4 Pt 2): 388–392.

58. The Diabetes Control and Complications Trial Research Group. The effect of intensive treatment of diabetes on the development and progression of long-term complications in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. N Engl J Med 1993: 329: 977–986.

59. Suris J-C. Chronic conditions and adolescence. J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab 2003: 6: 247–251.

60. Clements MA, Foster NC, Maahs DM, Schatz DA, Olson BA, Tsalikian E, Lee JM, Burt-Solorzano CM, Tamborlane WV, Chen V, Miller KM, Beck RW; T1D Exchange Clinic Network. Hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c) changes over time among adolescent and young adult participants in the T1D exchange clinic registry. Pediatr Diabetes 2016; 17:327-36.

61. Clements, M. A., M. Lind, S. Raman, S. R. Patton, K. J. Lipska, A. G. Fridlington, F. Tang, P. G. Jones, Y. Wu, J. A. Spertus and M. Kosiborod. Age at diagnosis predicts deterioration in glycaemic control among children and adolescents with type 1 diabetes. BMJ Open Diabetes Research Care 2014: 7;2(1)

62. Miller KM, Foster NC, Beck RW, Bergenstal RM, DuBose SN, DiMeglio LA, Maahs DM, Tamborlane WV; T1D Exchange Clinic Network. Current state of type 1 diabetes treatment in the U.S.: updated data from the T1D Exchange clinic registry. Diabetes Care 2015; 38:971-8.

63. Hanberger L, Samuelsson U, Holl RW, Fröhlich-Reiterer E, Åkesson K, Hofer S. Type 1 diabetes during adolescence: International comparison between Germany, Austria, and Sweden. Pediatr Diabetes 2017 (e-pub)

64. White M, Sabin MA, Magnussen CG, O'Connell MA, Colman PG, Cameron F. Long term risk of severe retinopathy in childhood-onset type 1 diabetes: a data linkage study. Med J Aust 2017; 206:398-401.

65. Bohn B, Karges B, Vogel C, Otto KP, Marg W, Hofer SE, Fröhlich-Reiterer E, Holder M, Plamper M, Wabitsch M, Kerner W, Holl RW; DPV Initiative. 20 Years of Pediatric Benchmarking in Germany and Austria: Age-Dependent Analysis of Longitudinal Follow-Up in 63,967 Children and Adolescents with Type 1 Diabetes. PLoS One 2016; 11:e0160971.

66. Sherr JL, Hermann JM, Campbell F, Foster NC, Hofer SE, Allgrove J, Maahs DM, Kapellen TM, Holman N, Tamborlane WV, Holl RW, Beck RW, Warner JT; T1D Exchange Clinic Network, the DPV Initiative, and the National Paediatric Diabetes Audit and the Royal College of Paediatrics and Child Health registries. Use of insulin pump therapy in children and adolescents with type 1 diabetes and its impact on metabolic control: comparison of results from three large, transatlantic paediatric registries. Diabetologia 2016; 59:87-91.

67. Beck RW, Tamborlane WV, Bergenstal RM, Miller KM, DuBose SN, Hall CA; T1D Exchange Clinic Network. The T1D Exchange clinic registry. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2012; 97:4383-9.

68. O'Connell MA, Donath S, Cameron FJ. Poor adherence to integral daily tasks limits the efficacy of CSII in youth. Pediatr Diabetes 2011: 12: 556–559.

69. Wong JC, Foster NC, Maahs DM, Raghinaru D, Bergenstal RM, Ahmann AJ, Peters AL, Bode BW, Aleppo G, Hirsch IB, Kleis L, Chase HP, DuBose SN, Miller KM, Beck RW, Adi S; T1D Exchange Clinic Network. Real-time continuous glucose monitoring among participants in the T1D Exchange clinic registry. Diabetes Care 2014; 37:2702-9.

70.Tsujimoto T, Yamamoto-Honda R, Kajio H, Kishimoto M, Noto H, Hachiya R, Kimura A, Kakei M, Noda M. Vital signs, QT prolongation, and newly diagnosed cardiovascular disease during severe hypoglycemia in type 1 and type 2 diabetic patients. Diabetes Care 2014; 37:217-25.

71. Giménez M, Gilabert R, Monteagudo J, Alonso A, Casamitjana R, Paré C, Conget I. Repeated episodes of hypoglycemia as a potential aggravating factor for preclinical atherosclerosis in subjects with type 1 diabetes. Diabetes Care 2011; 34:198-203.

72. Diabetes Control and Complications Research Group. Effect of intensive diabetes treatment on the development and progression of long-term complications in adolescents with insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. J Pediatr 1994: 125: 177–188.

Nordfeldt S, Ludvigsson J. Severe hypoglycemia in childrenwith IDDM.DiabetesCare 1997: 20:
 497–503.

74. Dorchy H. Insulin regimens and insulin adjustments in young diabetic children, adolescents and young adults: personal experience. Diabetes Metab 2000: 26: 500–507.

75. Cox DJ, Gonder-Frederick L, Julian DM, Clarke W. Long-term follow-up evaluation of blood glucose awareness training. Diabetes Care 1994: 17: 1–5.

76. Green LB, Wysocki T, Reineck BM. Fear of hypoglycemia in children and adolescents with diabetes. J Pediatr Psychol 1990: 15: 633–641.

77. Gonder-Frederick L, Cox D, Kovatchev B, Schlundt D, Clarke W. A biopsychobehavioral model of risk of severe hypoglycemia. Diabetes Care 1997; 20:661-9.

78. Martinez-Aguayo A, Araneda JC, Fernandez D, Gleisner A, Perez V, Codner E. Tobacco, alcohol and illicit drug use in adolescents with diabetes mellitus. Pediatr Diabetes 2007: 8: 265–271.

79. Weitzman ER, Ziemnik RE, Huang Q, Levy S. Alcohol and Marijuana Use and Treatment Nonadherence Among Medically Vulnerable Youth. Pediatrics 2015; 136:450-7.

80. Perkins BA, Halpern EM, Orszag A, Weisman A, Houlden RL, Bergenstal RM, Joyce C. Sensoraugmented pump and multiple daily injection therapy in the United States and Canada: post-hoc analysis of a randomized controlled trial. Can J Diabetes 2015; 39:50-4.

81. Hermann JM, Meusers M, Bachran R, Kuhnle-Krahl U, Jorch N, Hofer SE, Holl RW; DPV initiative. Self-reported regular alcohol consumption in adolescents and emerging adults with type 1 diabetes: A neglected risk factor for diabetic ketoacidosis? Multicenter analysis of 29 630 patients from the DPV registry. Pediatr Diabetes 2017 (e-pub)

82. Barnard KD, Dyson P, Sinclair JM, Lawton J, Anthony D, Cranston M, Holt RI. Alcohol health literacy in young adults with type 1 diabetes and its impact on diabetes management. Diabet Med 2014; 31:1625-30.

83. Hogendorf AM, Fendler W, Sieroslawski J, Bobeff K, Wegrewicz K, Malewska K, Przudzik MW, Szmigiero-Kawko M, Sztangierska B, Mysliwiec M, Szadkowska A, Mlynarski W. Breaking the Taboo: Illicit Drug Use among Adolescents with Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus. J Diabetes Res 2016; (e-pub)

84. Kummer S, Stahl-Pehe A, Castillo K, Bächle C, Graf C, Straßburger K, Salgin B, Mayatepek E, Giani G, Holl RW, Meissner T, Rosenbauer J. Health behaviour in children and adolescents with type 1 diabetes compared to a representative reference population. PLoS One 2014; 9:e112083.

85. Inman M, Daneman D, Curtis J, Sochett E, Clarke A, Dunger DB, Deanfield J, Mahmud FH. Social Determinants of Health Are Associated with Modifiable Risk Factors for Cardiovascular Disease and Vascular Function in Pediatric Type 1 Diabetes. J Pediatr 2016; 177:167-72.

86. Barnard K, Sinclair JM, Lawton J, Young AJ, Holt RI. Alcohol-associated risks for young adults with type 1 diabetes: a narrative review. Diabet Med 2012: 29: 434–440.

87. Ismail D, Gebert R, Vuillermin PJ, Fraser L, McDonnell CM, Donath SM, Cameron FJ. Social consumption of alcohol in adolescents with Type 1 diabetes is associated with increased glucose lability, but not hypoglycaemia. Diabet Med 2006; 23:830-3.

88. International Diabetes Federation (IDF). Diabetes and Tobacco Use: A Harmful Combination. Position Statement 2003 (available from http://www.idf.org).

89. Sinha RN, Patrick AW, Richardson L, Wal-Lymahmed M, Macfarlane IA. A six-year follow up study of smoking habits and microvascular complications in young adults with type 1 diabetes. Postgrad Med J 1997: 73: 293–294.

90. Jaiswal M, Divers J, Dabelea D, Isom S, Bell RA, Martin CL, Pettitt DJ, Saydah S, Pihoker C, Standiford DA, Dolan LM, Marcovina S, Linder B, Liese AD, Pop-Busui R, Feldman EL. Prevalence of and Risk Factors for Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy in Youth With Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes: SEARCH for Diabetes in Youth Study. Diabetes Care 2017 (e-pub).

91. Klingensmith GJ, Pyle L, Nadeau KJ, Barbour LA, Goland RS, Willi SM, Linder B, White NH; TODAY Study Group. Pregnancy Outcomes in Youth With Type 2 Diabetes: The TODAY Study Experience. Diabetes Care 2016; 39:122-9.

92. Codner E, Eyzaguirre FC, Iñiguez G, López P, Pérez-Bravo F, Torrealba IM, Cassorla F; Chilean Group for the Study of Ovarian Function in Type 1 Diabetes. Ovulation rate in adolescents with type 1 diabetes mellitus. Fertil Steril 2011; 95:197-202

93. Fedele D, Coscelli C, Cucinotta D, Forti G, Santeusanio F, Viaggi S, Fiori G, Velonà T, Lavezzari M; Diade Study Group. Incidence of erectile dysfunction in Italian men with diabetes. J Urol 2001; 166:1368-71.

94. Codner E, Soto N, Merino PM. Contraception and pregnancy in adolescents with type 1 diabetes: a review. Pediatr Diabetes 2012: 13: 108–123.

95. Owens LA, Egan AM, Carmody L, Dunne F. Ten Years of Optimizing Outcomes for Women With Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes in Pregnancy-The Atlantic DIP Experience. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2016; 101:1598-605.

96. Committee on Adolescence. Condom Use by Adolescents. Pediatrics 2013; 132:973-981.

97. Schuyler AC, Masvawure TB, Smit JA, Beksinska M, Mabude Z, Ngoloyi C, Mantell JE. Building young women's knowledge and skills in female condom use: lessons learned from a South African intervention. Health Educ Res 2016; 31:260-72.

98. World Health Organisation. Medical eligibility criteria for contraceptive use, Fourth edition. 2015

99. Secura GM, Madden T, McNicholas C, Mullersman J, Buckel CM, Zhao Q, Peipert JF. Provision of no-cost, long-acting contraception and teenage pregnancy. N Engl J Med 2014; 371:1316-23.

100. Ott MA, Sucato GS; Committee on Adolescence. Contraception for adolescents. Pediatrics 2014; 134:e1257-81.

101. Committee on Adolescence. Contraception for adolescents. Pediatrics 2014; 134:e1244-56.

102. O'Brien SH, Koch T, Vesely SK, Schwarz EB. Hormonal Contraception and Risk of Thromboembolism in Women With Diabetes. Diabetes Care 2017; 40:233-238.

103. Legro RS, Arslanian SA, Ehrmann DA, Hoeger KM, Murad MH, Pasquali R, Welt CK; Endocrine Society. Diagnosis and treatment of polycystic ovary syndrome: an Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2013;98:4565-92.

104. Martin KA, Chang RJ, Ehrmann DA, Ibanez L, Lobo RA, Rosenfield RL, Shapiro J, Montori VM, Swiglo BA. Evaluation and treatment of hirsutism in premenopausal women: an endocrine society clinical practice guideline. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2008; 93:1105-20.

Author Manuscrip

105. Mastorakos G, Koliopoulos C, Creatsas G. Androgen and lipid profiles in adolescents with polycystic ovary syndrome who were treated with two forms of combined oral contraceptives. Fertil Steril 2002: 77: 919–927.

106. Verhaeghe J. Clinical practice: contraception in adolescents. Eur J Pediatr 2012: 171: 895–899.

107. Gourdy P. Diabetes and oral contraception. Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab 2013: 27: 67–76.

108. Ryan CM, Atchison J, Puczynski S, Puczynski M, Arslanian S, Becker D. Mild hypoglycemia associated with deterioration of mental efficiency in children with insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. J Pediatr. 1990; 117:32-8.

109. McCrimmon RJ, Ryan CM, Frier BM. Diabetes and cognitive dysfunction. Lancet. 2012; 379:2291-9.

110. Davis EA, Soong SA, Byrne GC, Jones TW. Acute hyperglycaemia impairs cognitive function in children with IDDM. J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab. 1996; 9:455-61.

111. Gonder-Frederick LA, Zrebiec JF, Bauchowitz AU, Ritterband LM, Magee JC, Cox DJ, Clarke WL. Cognitive function is disrupted by both hypo- and hyperglycemia in school-aged children with type 1 diabetes: a field study. Diabetes Care. 2009; 32:1001-6.

112. Hillman CH, Kamijo K, Scudder M.A review of chronic and acute physical activity participation on neuroelectric measures of brain health and cognition during childhood. Prev Med. 2011; 52 Suppl 1:S21-8.

113. American Diabetes Association, Anderson JE, Greene MA, Griffin JW Jr, Kohrman DB, Lorber D, Saudek CD, Schatz D, Siminerio L. Diabetes and employment. Diabetes Care 2014; 37 Suppl 1:S112-7.

114. Inkster B, Frier BM. Diabetes and driving. Diabetes Obes Metab 2013: 15: 775–783.

115. Graveling AJ, Frier BM. Driving and diabetes: problems, licensing restrictions and recommendations for safe driving. Clin Diabetes Endocrinol 2015; 1:8.

116. Cox DJ, Singh H, Lorber D. Diabetes and driving safety: science, ethics, legality and practice. Am J Med Sci 2013; 345(4):263-5.

117. Cox DJ, Penberthy JK, Zrebiec J, Weinger K, Aikens JE, Frier B, Stetson B, DeGroot M, Trief P, Schaechinger H, Hermanns N, Gonder-Frederick L, Clarke W. Diabetes and driving mishaps: frequency and correlations from a multinational survey. Diabetes Care 2003; 26:2329-34.

118. Cox DJ, Ford D, Gonder-Frederick L, Clarke W, Mazze R, Weinger K, Ritterband L. Driving mishaps among individuals with type 1 diabetes: a prospective study. Diabetes Care 2009; 32:2177-80.

119. Cox DJ, Kovatchev BP, Anderson SM, Clarke WL, Gonder-Frederick LA. Type 1 diabetic drivers with and without a history of recurrent hypoglycemia-related driving mishaps: physiological and performance differences during euglycemia and the induction of hypoglycemia. Diabetes Care 2010; 33:2430-5.

120. Cox DJ, Gonder-Frederick LA, Singh H, Ingersoll KS, Banton T, Grabman JH, Schmidt K, Clarke W. Predicting and Reducing Driving Mishaps Among Drivers With Type 1 Diabetes. Diabetes Care 2017; 40:742-750.

121. Arnett JJ. Emerging adulthood. A theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. Am Psychol. 2000 May;55(5):469-80.

122. Peters A, Laffel L: Diabetes Care for Emerging Adults: Recommendations for Transition From Pediatric to Adult Diabetes Care Systems: A position statement of the American Diabetes Association, with representation by the American College of Osteopathic Family Physicians, the American Academy of Pediatrics, the American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists, the American Osteopathic Association, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Children with Diabetes, The Endocrine Society, the International Society for Pediatric and Adolescent Diabetes, Juvenile Diabetes Research Foundation International, the National Diabetes Education Program, and the Pediatric Endocrine Society (formerly Lawson Wilkins Pediatric Endocrine Society). Diabetes Care

123. Bryden KS, Peveler RC, Stein A, Neil A, Mayou RA, Dunger DB. Clinical and psychological course of diabetes from adolescence to young adulthood: a longitudinal cohort study. Diabetes Care

124. Bryden KS, Dunger DB, Mayou RA, Peveler RC, Neil HA. Poor prognosis of young adults with type 1 diabetes: a longitudinal study. Diabetes Care 2003;26:1052-7.

2011;34:2477-2485. 2001;24:1536-40.

125. Laing SP, Jones ME, Swerdlow AJ, Burden AC, Gatling W. Psychosocial and socioeconomic risk factors for premature death in young people with type 1 diabetes. Diabetes Care. 2005;28(7):1618-1623.

126. Dabelea D, Stafford JM, Mayer-Davis EJ, D'Agostino R, Dolan L, Imperatore G, Linder B, Lawrence JM, Marcovina SM, Mottl AK, Black MH, Pop-Busui R, Saydah S, Hamman RF, Pihoker C, for the SEARCH for Diabetes in Youth Research Group. Association of Type 1 Diabetes vs Type 2 Diabetes Diagnosed During Childhood and Adolescence With Complications During Teenage Years and Young Adulthood. JAMA. 2017;317(8):825–835.

127. Blum RW, Garell D, Hodgman CH, Jorissen TW, Okinow NA, Orr DP, Slap GB. Transition from child-centered to adult health-care systems for adolescents with chronic conditions. A position paper of the Society for Adolescent Medicine. J Adolesc Health 1993; 14:570-6.

128. Busse FP, Hiermann P, Galler A, et al. Evaluation of patients' opinion and metabolic control after transfer of young adults with type 1 diabetes from a pediatric diabetes clinic to adult care. Horm Res 2007;67:132-8.

129. Garvey KC, Wolpert HA, Rhodes ET, et al. Health Care Transition in Patients With Type 1 Diabetes: Young adult experiences and relationship to glycemic control. Diabetes Care 2012;35:1716-22.

130. Garvey KC, Foster NC, Agarwal S, DiMeglio LA, Anderson BJ, Corathers SD, Desimone ME, Libman IM, Lyons SK, Peters AL, Raymond JK and Laffel LM. Health Care Transition Preparation and Experiences in a U.S. National Sample of Young Adults with Type 1 Diabetes. Diabetes Care 2017; 40: 317-324.

131. White M, O'Connell MA, Cameron FJ. Transition in Type 1 diabetes mellitus from a tertiary pediatric center: what are we doing before they walk out the door? Diabetes Management 2012;2(5), 379-384.

132. Kipps S, Bahu T, Ong K, Ackland FM, Brown RS, Fox CT, Griffin NK, Knight AH, Mann NP, Neil HA, Simpson H, Edge JA, Dunger DB. Current methods of transfer of young people with Type 1 diabetes to adult services. Diabet Med 2002; 19:649-54.

133. Pacaud D, McConnell B, Huot C, Aebi C, Yale J. Transition from pediatric to adult care for insulindependent diabetes patients. Canadian J Diabetes 1996;20:14–20.

134. Pacaud D, Yale J, Stephure D, Dele-Davies H. Problems in transition from pediatric to adult care in individuals with diabetes. Canadian J Diabetes 2005;40:29-35.

135. Nakhla M, Daneman D, To T, Paradis G, Guttmann A. Transition to adult care for youths with diabetes mellitus: findings from a Universal Health Care System. Pediatrics 2009;124:e1134-41.

136. Lotstein DS, Seid M, Klingensmith G, Case D, Lawrence JM, Pihoker C, Dabelea D, Mayer-Davis EJ, Gilliam LK, Corathers S, Imperatore G, Dolan L, Anderson A, Bell RA, Waitzfelder B; SEARCH for Diabetes in Youth Study Group. Transition from pediatric to adult care for youth diagnosed with type 1 diabetes in adolescence. Pediatrics 2013; 131(4):e1062-70.

137. Helgeson VS, Reynolds KA, Snyder PR, Palladino DK, Becker DJ, Siminerio L, Escobar O. Characterizing the transition from paediatric to adult care among emerging adults with Type 1 diabetes. Diabet Med 2013; 30:610-5.

139. Lane JT, Ferguson A, Hall J, McElligott M, Miller M, Lane PH, Pfeffer E. Glycemic control over 3 years in a young adult clinic for patients with type 1 diabetes. Diabetes Res Clin Pract 2007; 78:385-91.

140. Logan J, Peralta E, Brown K, Moffett M, Advani A, Leech N. Smoothing the transition from paediatric to adult services in type 1diabetes. J Diabetes Nurs 2008; 12:328–38.

141. Holmes-Walker DJ, Llewellyn AC, Farrell K. A transition care programme which improves diabetes control and reduces hospital admission rates in young adults with Type 1 diabetes aged 15-25 years. Diabet Med 2007; 24:764-9.

142. Vidal M, Jansa M, Anguita C, Torres M, Gimenez M, Esmatjes E, Levy I, Conget I. Impact of a special therapeutic education programme in patients transferred from a paediatric to an adult diabets unit. European Diabetes Nursing. 2004; 1:23–27.

143. Cadario F, Prodam F, Bellone S, Trada M, Binotti M, Trada M, Allochis G, Baldelli R, Esposito S, Bona G, Aimaretti G. Transition process of patients with type 1 diabetes (T1DM) from paediatric to the adult health care service: a hospital-based approach. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 2009; 71:346-50.

144. Sequeira PA, Pyatak EA, Weigensberg MJ, Vigen CP, Wood JR, Ruelas V, Montoya L, Cohen M, Speer H, Clark S, Peters AL. Let's Empower and Prepare (LEAP): Evaluation of a Structured Transition Program for Young Adults With Type 1 Diabetes. Diabetes Care 2015; 38:1412-9.

145. Van Walleghem N, Macdonald CA, Dean HJ. Evaluation of a systems navigator model for transition from pediatric to adult care for young adults with type 1 diabetes. Diabetes Care 2008;31:1529-30.

146. Lyons SK, Becker DJ, Helgeson VS. Transfer from pediatric to adult health care: effects on diabetes outcomes. Pediatr Diabetes 2014; 15:10-7.

147. White M, O'Connell MA, Cameron FJ. Clinic attendance and disengagement rates posttransition: Results from the TrACeD (Transition to adult care in type 1 Diabetes) randomized controlled trial. *Lancet Child Adol Health (in press)* 

148. Spaic T, Mahon JL, Hramiak I, Byers N, Evans K, Robinson T, Lawson ML, Malcolm J, Goldbloom EB, Clarson CL; JDRF Canadian Clinical Trial CCTN1102 Study Group. Multicentre randomized controlled trial of structured transition on diabetes care management compared to standard diabetes care in adolescents and young adults with type 1 diabetes (Transition Trial). BMC Pediatr. 2013; 13:163.

149. Wills CJ, Scott A, Swift PGF, Davies MJ, Mackie ADR, Mansell P. Retrospective review of care and outcomes in young adults with type 1 diabetes. BMJ 2003: 327: 260 – 261.

146. Lyons SK, Becker DJ, Helgeson diabetes outcomes. Pediatr Diabete 147. White M, O'Connell MA, Came transition: Results from the TrACeD controlled trial. *Lancet Child Adol He* 148. Spaic T, Mahon JL, Hramiak I, E EB, Clarson CL; JDRF Canadian Clinic controlled trial of structured transit diabetes care in adolescents and yo

Author Manuscri

# **University Library**



# A gateway to Melbourne's research publications

Minerva Access is the Institutional Repository of The University of Melbourne

Author/s:

Cameron, FJ;Garvey, K;Hood, KK;Acerini, CL;Codner, E

Title:

ISPAD Clinical Practice Consensus Guidelines 2018: Diabetes in adolescence

Date:

2018-10-01

Citation:

Cameron, F. J., Garvey, K., Hood, K. K., Acerini, C. L. & Codner, E. (2018). ISPAD Clinical Practice Consensus Guidelines 2018: Diabetes in adolescence. PEDIATRIC DIABETES, 19, pp.250-261. https://doi.org/10.1111/pedi.12702.

Persistent Link: http://hdl.handle.net/11343/284609