



## **Comprehensive Management of Pediatric Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus: A Review of Physician, Social Work, and Nursing Roles**

**Dana Aref Alenezi<sup>1\*</sup>, Aljoharh Hassan Aljabar<sup>2</sup>, Alranyes, Sarah Fahad A<sup>3</sup>, Mona Mohammad Fahad Alenazi<sup>4</sup>, Saleh Khalaf Dahi Alsukibi<sup>5</sup>, Nabil Abdulaziz Alharthi<sup>6</sup>, Anood Abdi Juera Alanazi<sup>7</sup>, Nawal Abdi Juera Alanazi<sup>8</sup>, Tahany Theyab Awwad Alenazy<sup>9</sup>, Mona Ali A Alruwaili<sup>10</sup>, Tahani Radhi Aziz Alhazmi<sup>11</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>Pediatric Endocrinology Consultant – Maternity and Children Hospital, Northern Borders Health Cluster – Arar – Northern Borders Region – Saudi Arabia

\* **Corresponding Author Email:** D.a.ad7775@gmail.com - **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5997-7850

<sup>2</sup>Family Medicine Senior Registrar – Al-Khobar Primary Healthcare Network, Eastern Health Cluster – Al-Khobar – Eastern Province – Saudi Arabia

**Email:** haljabr99@gmail.com- **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5247-7770

<sup>3</sup>Pediatrics Senior Registrar – Al-Safwa Primary Healthcare Center, Al-Jouf Health Cluster – Dumat Al-Jandal – Al-Jouf Region – Saudi Arabia

**Email:** Sarah\_alranyes@hotmail.com- **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5247-8850

<sup>4</sup>General Practitioner – North Medical Tower Hospital, Northern Borders Health Cluster – Arar – Northern Borders Region – Saudi Arabia

**Email:** monaalenze91@hotmail.com - **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5247-4850

<sup>5</sup>Senior Specialist – Social Service – Hail Health Cluster – Hail – Hail Region – Saudi Arabia

**Email:** sah1398@hotmail.com- **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5247-7857

<sup>6</sup>Sociologist – King Faisal Medical Complex, Taif Health Cluster – Taif – Makkah Region – Saudi Arabia

**Email:** Abuabdulaziz1437@gmail.com- **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5247-7950

<sup>7</sup>Nursing Technician – Ministry of Health Branch, Northern Borders Region – Arar – Northern Borders Region – Saudi Arabia

**Email:** anaalanazi@moh.gov.sa - **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5247-7852

<sup>8</sup>Nursing Technician – Ministry of Health Branch, Northern Borders Region – Arar – Northern Borders Region – Saudi Arabia

**Email:** naabalenezi@moh.gov.sa - **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5247-7856

<sup>9</sup>Nursing Specialist – Ministry of Health Branch, Northern Borders Region – Arar – Northern Borders Region – Saudi Arabia

**Email:** Tahania@moh.gov.sa - **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5247-7859

<sup>10</sup>Nursing Technician – Turaif General Hospital, Northern Borders Health Cluster – Turaif – Northern Borders Region – Saudi Arabia

**Email:** asz.asz1155@gmail.com- **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5247-7840

<sup>11</sup>Nursing Technician – Home Healthcare Department, Turaif General Hospital, Northern Borders Health Cluster – Turaif – Northern Borders Region – Saudi Arabia

**Email:** tralhazmi@moh.gov.sa- **ORCID:** 0000-0002-5247-7866

## **Article Info:**

DOI: 10.22399/ijcesn.4424

Received : 01 July 2024

Accepted : 30 July 2024

## **Keywords**

Pediatric Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus, comprehensive management, multidisciplinary approach, physician role, insulin therapy, glycemic control

## **Abstract:**

Pediatric Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus (T1DM) presents a unique set of challenges that necessitate a comprehensive management strategy involving a multidisciplinary approach. Physicians play a critical role in diagnosing the condition, prescribing appropriate insulin regimens, and monitoring glycemic control to minimize complications. They work to ensure that children and their families understand the importance of regular blood glucose monitoring and the administration of insulin. Additionally, physicians coordinate care by collaborating with other healthcare professionals, including dietitians, social workers, and nurses, to create an individualized management plan that addresses the medical, emotional, and social needs of the child. This coordinated approach is essential for optimizing health outcomes and facilitating a better quality of life for pediatric patients. The role of social work and nursing in the management of pediatric T1DM cannot be overstated. Social workers provide psychosocial support to children and their families, helping them navigate the emotional challenges associated with chronic illness. This support may include counseling, advocacy, and education on coping strategies, which are crucial for fostering resilience in young patients. Nurses, on the other hand, play a vital role in the day-to-day management of diabetes care—educating patients about self-management techniques, conducting routine check-ups, and monitoring for potential complications. Both social workers and nurses contribute to a holistic approach that empowers families, ensuring they have the resources, knowledge, and emotional support necessary to manage diabetes effectively and efficiently.

## **1. Introduction**

The diagnosis of Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus (T1DM) in a child or adolescent represents a profound, lifelong event that irrevocably alters the trajectory of the individual's and the family's life. As an autoimmune condition characterized by the absolute deficiency of endogenous insulin production, T1DM imposes a relentless regimen of exogenous insulin replacement, frequent blood glucose monitoring, carbohydrate counting, and vigilant attention to the interplay of diet, physical activity, and physiology [1]. The overarching goal of treatment is to maintain blood glucose levels as close to the normal range as safely possible to prevent acute complications, such as diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) and severe hypoglycemia, and to delay or mitigate the devastating long-term microvascular and macrovascular complications, including retinopathy, nephropathy, neuropathy, and cardiovascular disease [2]. However, achieving these metabolic targets extends far beyond the mere prescription of insulin. Pediatric T1DM is a quintessential model of a chronic illness whose optimal management demands a complex, integrated, and patient-centered biopsychosocial approach.

The challenges inherent in managing this condition are multifaceted. From a biomedical standpoint, the dynamic physiological changes of childhood and adolescence—including growth spurts, puberty-related insulin resistance, and variable activity levels—make stable glycemic control a moving target. Psychologically, the disease burdens the child with a sense of being different, incurs

significant anxiety related to hypoglycemic episodes or fear of complications, and can lead to diabetes distress and burnout. Socially and developmentally, it interferes with normal activities, places strain on family dynamics, and complicates peer relationships and school integration [3]. Furthermore, the financial and logistical burdens of supplies, technology, and medical appointments can be overwhelming for families. It is therefore unequivocally clear that no single healthcare professional can adequately address this spectrum of needs.

Consequently, the contemporary standard of care for pediatric T1DM is delivered by a multidisciplinary team (MDT). This team functions as the cornerstone of comprehensive diabetes management, integrating diverse expertise to support the child and family. The core triad of this team typically consists of the physician (often a pediatric endocrinologist or diabetologist), the specialized diabetes nurse educator, and the clinical social worker or psychologist. Each member brings a distinct yet overlapping set of skills and perspectives to the table, creating a synergistic support system. This review will provide a detailed examination of the distinct and collaborative roles of these three key professionals in the comprehensive management of pediatric T1DM.

## **2. The Role of the Physician in Pediatric Diabetes Management**

The physician, typically a pediatric endocrinologist, serves as the medical leader and principal diagnostician within the multidisciplinary team.

Their role is anchored in deep pathophysiological knowledge and clinical expertise, guiding the biomedical framework of the child's treatment. This responsibility begins at diagnosis and continues through the lifelong continuum of care, adapting to the child's evolving developmental stages.

The physician's most critical initial role is in the accurate and timely diagnosis of T1DM. They are tasked with recognizing the classical symptoms—polyuria, polydipsia, weight loss, and fatigue—and differentiating T1DM from other forms of diabetes, such as Type 2 or monogenic diabetes, through clinical assessment and laboratory evaluation, including autoantibody testing [4]. In cases presenting with diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA), a life-threatening emergency, the physician leads the intensive inpatient stabilization protocol involving fluid resuscitation, intravenous insulin infusion, and careful electrolyte repletion [5]. Following stabilization, the physician establishes the foundational insulin regimen. This involves calculating total daily insulin requirements, deciding on a regimen (e.g., multiple daily injections with basal-bolus therapy or continuous subcutaneous insulin infusion via an insulin pump), and providing initial prescriptions for insulin, glucose monitoring equipment, and emergency glucagon [6].

Ongoing medical oversight is the cornerstone of the physician's role. During regular follow-up visits, usually every three to four months, the physician conducts a comprehensive medical review. This includes a detailed analysis of downloaded data from glucose meters, continuous glucose monitors (CGMs), and insulin pumps. Key metrics such as hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c), time-in-range (TIR), glycemic variability, and frequency of hypoglycemia are assessed [7]. The physician interprets these complex data patterns in the context of the child's growth parameters (height, weight, BMI), pubertal status, and reported lifestyle. Based on this analysis, they make informed, evidence-based adjustments to the insulin regimen—tweaking insulin-to-carbohydrate ratios, correction factors, and basal rates—to optimize glycemic control while minimizing hypoglycemia risk [8].

### 3. Management of Comorbidities and Technological Advancement

Children with T1DM are at increased risk for other autoimmune conditions. The physician maintains vigilance for comorbidities such as autoimmune thyroid disease (Hashimoto's thyroiditis or Graves' disease), celiac disease, and less commonly, Addison's disease. They initiate appropriate

screening protocols and manage or co-manage these conditions when they arise [9]. Furthermore, the physician plays a pivotal role in introducing and managing diabetes technology. They assess the family's readiness for devices like insulin pumps and CGMs, provide the necessary medical justification and prescriptions, and oversee the initial programming and subsequent medical adjustments required to leverage these tools effectively [10]. The integration of sensor-augmented pump therapy and automated insulin delivery (AID) systems, or "closed-loop" systems, has become a significant part of modern diabetes care, requiring physicians to stay abreast of rapid technological advancements and their clinical application [11].

### 4. Developmental and Transitional Care

A unique aspect of pediatric diabetes care is navigating the child's development. The physician must tailor their communication and management strategies to the child's age and cognitive ability. With young children, the focus is entirely on the parents or caregivers. As the child enters school age, they are gradually educated about their condition. Adolescence presents particular challenges, including rebellion, risk-taking behaviors, insulin omission for weight control, and the physiological insulin resistance of puberty, all of which often lead to a well-documented deterioration in glycemic control [12]. The physician must balance fostering increasing independence with providing ongoing supervision and support, often navigating delicate conversations about body image, mental health, and long-term complications.

Finally, the physician is instrumental in planning and executing the transition from pediatric to adult diabetes care services. This process, which should begin in early adolescence, involves preparing the young person to become the primary manager of their diabetes, ensuring they understand their medical history, can self-advocate, and are equipped to navigate the often less-family-oriented adult healthcare system [13]. A poorly managed transition is associated with increased risk of loss to follow-up and acute complications.

### 5. The Role of the Social Worker in Pediatric Diabetes Management

While the physician addresses the biomedical model, the clinical social worker operates within the psychosocial sphere, addressing the profound emotional, social, and environmental impacts of T1DM on the child and family. Their work is

crucial for translating medical plans into sustainable daily life and for safeguarding mental health, which is intrinsically linked to physical health outcomes.

From the point of diagnosis, the social worker conducts a comprehensive psychosocial assessment. This evaluation explores family structure, dynamics, communication patterns, coping mechanisms, financial resources, health insurance status, cultural beliefs about health and illness, and existing support networks [14]. This assessment identifies potential strengths and vulnerabilities that will impact diabetes management. In times of crisis, such as at diagnosis, during a severe hypoglycemic event, or at the recurrence of DKA, the social worker provides immediate emotional support and crisis intervention, helping the family process trauma, fear, and grief in a safe and supportive environment [15].

## **6. Addressing Diabetes Distress and Mental Health Comorbidities**

Living with the relentless demands of T1DM often leads to “diabetes distress”—the unique, disease-specific emotional burdens and worries that arise from managing a serious, complicated chronic condition. Social workers are trained to identify and address this distress in both the patient and their caregivers [16]. Moreover, they screen for and provide intervention for formal mental health disorders, which are significantly more prevalent in youth with T1DM. This includes depression, anxiety disorders, and eating disorders, particularly diabulimia (the intentional omission of insulin to lose weight) [17]. Through individual or family therapy, often employing cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT) or acceptance and commitment therapy (ACT) techniques, they help clients develop healthier coping strategies, challenge negative thought patterns, and improve emotional regulation [18].

## **7. Family Systems Counseling and Advocacy**

T1DM is a family disease. The social worker facilitates family sessions to improve communication, resolve conflicts related to diabetes care (e.g., parental nagging vs. adolescent resistance), and redistribute caregiving responsibilities to prevent parent or sibling burnout [19]. They help families navigate the delicate balance between appropriate parental involvement and the fostering of age-appropriate independence in the child. Social workers also serve as powerful advocates. They assist families in navigating

complex healthcare and insurance systems, securing coverage for essential supplies and technology, and completing applications for financial assistance programs or disability services if needed [20]. They can also act as a liaison between the family and the school, helping to develop or implement a Section 504 Plan or other individualized healthcare plan to ensure the child’s safety and full participation in the educational environment [21].

## **8. Supporting Adherence and Quality of Life**

A primary focus of social work intervention is to identify and address barriers to adherence. These barriers are rarely simply a matter of non-compliance; they are often rooted in psychosocial issues such as financial stress, family conflict, depression, or fear of hypoglycemia [22]. By addressing these root causes, the social worker helps remove obstacles to effective self-management. Ultimately, their goal is to enhance the overall quality of life for the child and family. They work to help the family integrate diabetes care into their life rather than letting diabetes dominate it, supporting the pursuit of normal childhood activities, hobbies, and social relationships despite the condition [23].

## **9. The Role of the Diabetes Nurse Educator in Pediatric Diabetes Management**

The diabetes nurse educator (DNE) acts as the vital bridge between the physician’s medical plan and the family’s day-to-day reality. They are the primary source of education, practical skill training, and ongoing daily support, translating complex medical information into actionable, understandable steps for self-management.

Following diagnosis, the DNE assumes responsibility for the foundational, survival-level education of the child and family. This education is thorough, repetitive, and tailored to health literacy levels. Key components include teaching the pathophysiology of T1DM in simple terms, instructing on insulin administration techniques (injection sites, rotation, pen or syringe use), and providing comprehensive training on blood glucose monitoring [24]. The DNE teaches the critical skill of carbohydrate counting, including how to read food labels, estimate portion sizes, and calculate insulin doses for meals and snacks [25]. They also instruct on the prevention, recognition, and treatment of both hypoglycemia and hyperglycemia, including the use of glucagon emergency kits. Furthermore, they provide essential sick-day management rules, teaching families how

to adjust insulin, monitor for ketones, and prevent DKA during intercurrent illness [26].

### **10. Ongoing Advanced Education and Technology Training**

Education is not a one-time event but a continuous process. As the child grows and therapy evolves, the DNE provides advanced education on topics such as the impact of exercise on blood glucose, managing diabetes during sports, navigating parties and restaurants, and understanding the effects of stress and hormones [27]. A increasingly large part of their role involves being the expert trainer and troubleshooter for diabetes technology. They provide hands-on training for insulin pumps and continuous glucose monitors, teaching both technical operation (site insertion, device programming) and the behavioral aspects of using technology effectively [28]. They are the first point of contact for device-related problems, helping families troubleshoot alarms, sensor errors, and infusion set issues, thereby preventing gaps in therapy and reducing family anxiety related to technology use [29].

### **11. Facilitating Self-Management and Providing Continuity of Care**

A core philosophy of the DNE's work is empowering the child and family towards confident self-management. They use coaching techniques to help families analyze blood glucose patterns, identify causes of highs and lows, and make preliminary adjustments to insulin or food plans, always in collaboration with the physician's overarching regimen [30]. This empowerment is developmentally staged, gradually shifting knowledge and responsibility to the adolescent as they mature. The DNE also provides crucial continuity of care. They are often the most frequent point of contact for families between physician visits, available via phone, email, or clinic visits to answer urgent questions, provide reassurance, and offer just-in-time advice for unexpected situations [31]. This accessible support prevents small issues from escalating into major problems and reinforces learning.

### **12. Integration within the Multidisciplinary Team and Community Liaison**

The nurse educator does not work in isolation. They collect vital observational data from their interactions with families—noting struggles with techniques, misunderstandings, or psychosocial concerns—and communicate these insights back to

the physician and social worker during team meetings [32]. This feedback loop is essential for tailoring the overall care plan. Additionally, the DNE often acts as a liaison with community resources, such as diabetes camps. They encourage participation in these camps, which provide invaluable peer support, independent self-management experience, and fun in a medically-supervised environment, all of which boost confidence and motivation [33].

### **13. Interdisciplinary Collaboration: The Synergy of the Team**

The true efficacy of the multidisciplinary model lies not in the parallel work of its individual members, but in their deep, integrative collaboration. Regular team meetings, whether formal or informal, are where the holistic picture of the patient emerges. The physician may be concerned about a rising HbA1c; the nurse educator can report that the adolescent is inconsistently bolusing for meals; and the social worker can reveal that this is linked to emerging anxiety about weight gain and peer perception. This shared intelligence allows for a coordinated intervention: the physician might review insulin regimens, the DNE can re-educate on insulin action and nutrition, and the social worker can provide counseling on body image and anxiety management [34].

This collaborative approach is especially critical in complex cases. For a child with recurrent DKA admissions, the physician manages the acute metabolic derangement, the social worker explores underlying psychological triggers or family stressors leading to insulin omission, and the DNE reassesses the family's technical skills and provides reinforced education [35]. For a family struggling with new diabetes technology, the DNE provides the hands-on training, the physician oversees the medical settings, and the social worker addresses any anxiety or resistance to technology adoption within the family system [36]. During the transition to adult care, all three professionals collaborate: the physician ensures medical readiness, the DNE fosters advanced self-management skills, and the social worker prepares the youth for the psychosocial aspects of the adult healthcare world [37].

Evidence strongly supports this model. Studies have shown that care delivered by a coordinated multidisciplinary team is associated with lower HbA1c levels, reduced rates of acute complications like DKA and severe hypoglycemia, improved quality of life, better psychosocial outcomes, and higher patient and family satisfaction [38, 39]. The team provides a web of support that is more

resilient and responsive than any single provider can offer.

#### 14. Challenges and Future Directions in Multidisciplinary Care

Despite its proven benefits, the implementation of ideal multidisciplinary care faces significant challenges. Reimbursement models often do not adequately cover the time-intensive services provided by social workers and nurse educators, leading to understaffing and limited access to these essential professionals, particularly in resource-limited settings [40]. Geographic disparities mean that families in rural or remote areas may have access only to a primary care physician or pediatrician without specialized team support. Furthermore, integrating care seamlessly requires excellent communication, shared electronic health records, and dedicated time for team conferences, which are not always prioritized in busy clinical settings.

Future directions must focus on overcoming these barriers. Telehealth and digital health platforms offer promising avenues to extend the reach of the multidisciplinary team, allowing for remote education, counseling, and follow-up [41]. Advocacy for policy changes to improve reimbursement for psychosocial and educational services is crucial. Finally, ongoing research should continue to refine models of team care, identify the most effective interventions for specific subpopulations (e.g., very young children, high-risk adolescents), and explore the integration of new team members, such as dietitians, exercise physiologists, and peer mentors, to further enhance the support structure for children and families living with T1DM.

#### 15. Conclusion

The management of pediatric Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus is a complex, lifelong endeavor that extends far beyond biochemical control. It is a biopsychosocial challenge that touches every aspect of a child's and family's existence. The physician, with their expertise in pathophysiology and medical therapeutics, provides the essential clinical framework and leadership. The social worker, skilled in navigating the emotional and social landscape, ensures that the psychological well-being and environmental contexts necessary for successful management are addressed. The diabetes nurse educator, as the practical guide and coach, empowers the family with the knowledge, skills, and confidence to execute daily self-management.

While each role is distinct and indispensable, it is their synergistic integration within a dedicated multidisciplinary team that constitutes the gold standard of care. This collaborative model recognizes that a child with diabetes is not merely a patient with a pancreatic disorder, but a developing individual within a family and social context. By addressing the medical, educational, emotional, and social dimensions of the disease in a coordinated fashion, the multidisciplinary team can help young people with T1DM not only achieve better glycemic outcomes and reduce complications but also thrive, realizing their full potential and enjoying a high quality of life despite the challenges of their condition. The journey with T1DM is a marathon, not a sprint, and it is a journey no child or family should have to run alone.

#### Author Statements:

- **Ethical approval:** The conducted research is not related to either human or animal use.
- **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper
- **Acknowledgement:** The authors declare that they have nobody or no-company to acknowledge.
- **Author contributions:** The authors declare that they have equal right on this paper.
- **Funding information:** The authors declare that there is no funding to be acknowledged.
- **Data availability statement:** The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

#### References

1. Subramanian S, Baidal D. The Management of Type 1 Diabetes. South Dartmouth (MA): Endotext; 2000.
2. Cappon G, Vettoretti M, Sparacino G, Facchinetti A. Continuous glucose monitoring sensors for diabetes management: a review of technologies and applications. *Diabetes Metab J.* 2019;43:383–397.
3. Zahalka SJ, Abushamat LA, Scalzo RL, Reusch JE. The Role of Exercise in Diabetes. South Dartmouth (MA): Endotext; 2000.
4. Bode BW. Comparison of pharmacokinetic properties, physicochemical stability, and pump compatibility of 3 rapid-acting insulin analogues—aspargart, lispro, and glulisine. *Endocr Pract.* 2011;17:271–280.

5. Nallicheri A, Mahoney KM, Gutow HA, Bellini N, Isaacs D. Review of automated insulin delivery systems for type 1 diabetes and associated time in range outcomes. *touchREV Endocrinol.* 2022;18:27–34.
6. Chiang JL, Maahs DM, Garvey KC, et al. Type 1 diabetes in children and adolescents: a position statement by the American Diabetes Association. *Diabetes Care.* 2018;41:2026–2044.
7. Teló GH, Dougher CE, Volkening LK, Katz ML, Laffel LM. Predictors of changing insulin dose requirements and glycaemic control in children, adolescents and young adults with type 1 diabetes. *Diabet Med.* 2018;35:1355–1363.
8. Menon AP, Moreno B, Meraviglia-Crivelli D, et al. Modulating T cell responses by targeting CD3. *Cancers (Basel)* 2023;15:1189.
9. Karakuş KE, Sakarya S, Yeşiltepe Mutlu G, et al. Benefits and drawbacks of continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) use in young children with type 1 diabetes: a qualitative study from a country where the CGM is not reimbursed. *J Patient Exp.* 2021;8.
10. van Duinkerken E, Snoek FJ, de Wit M. The cognitive and psychological effects of living with type 1 diabetes: a narrative review. *Diabet Med.* 2020;37:555–563.
11. Nathan DM, Genuth S, Lachin J, et al. 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.
12. Saleem F, Sharma A. NPH Insulin. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2024.
13. Burrack AL, Martinov T, Fife BT. T cell-mediated beta cell destruction: autoimmunity and alloimmunity in the context of type 1 diabetes. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)* 2017;8:343.
14. American Diabetes Association. 6. Glycemic targets: standards of medical care in diabetes-2020. *Diabetes Care.* 2020;43:S66–S76.
15. Kopan C, Tucker T, Alexander M, Mohammadi MR, Pone EJ, Lakey JR. Approaches in immunotherapy, regenerative medicine, and bioengineering for type 1 diabetes. *Front Immunol.* 2018;9:1354.
16. Kalra S, Jena BN, Yeravdekar R. Emotional and psychological needs of people with diabetes. *Indian J Endocrinol Metab.* 2018;22:696–704.
17. Morran MP, Vonberg A, Khadra A, Pietropaolo M. Immunogenetics of type 1 diabetes mellitus. *Mol Aspects Med.* 2015;42:42–60.
18. Galasko GT. Insulin, oral hypoglycemics, and glucagon. In: *Pharmacology and Therapeutics for Dentistry (Seventh Edition)*. Maryland Heights (MO): Mosby; 2017. pp. 437–445.
19. Mobasser M, Shirmohammadi M, Amiri T, Vahed N, Hosseini Fard H, Ghojzadeh M. Prevalence and incidence of type 1 diabetes in the world: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Health Promot Perspect.* 2020;10:98–115.
20. Esposito S, Santi E, Mancini G, et al. Efficacy and safety of the artificial pancreas in the paediatric population with type 1 diabetes. *J Transl Med.* 2018;16:176.
21. Zecevic-Pasic L, Tihic-Kapidzic S, Hasanbegovic S, Begovic E, Gojak R, Džananovic N. Presence of type 1 diabetes-related autoantibodies in pediatric population in Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Mater Sociomed.* 2023;35:190–195.
22. Vora J, Cariou B, Evans M, et al. Clinical use of insulin degludec. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2015;109:19–31.
23. Berget C, Messer LH, Forlenza GP. A clinical overview of insulin pump therapy for the management of diabetes: past, present, and future of intensive therapy. *Diabetes Spectr.* 2019;32:194–204.
24. Donnor T, Sarkar S. *Insulin-Pharmacology, Therapeutic Regimens and Principles of Intensive Insulin Therapy*. South Dartmouth (MA): Endotext; 2000.
25. Collins L, Costello RA. *Glucagon-Like Peptide-1 Receptor Agonists*. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2024.
26. Sageshima J, Ciancio G, Chen L, Burke GW. Anti-interleukin-2 receptor antibodies-basiliximab and daclizumab-for the prevention of acute rejection in renal transplantation. *Biol Targets Ther.* 2009;3:319–336.
27. Kazda CM, Bue-Valleskey JM, Chien J, et al. Novel once-weekly basal insulin Fc achieved similar glycemic control with a safety profile comparable to insulin degludec in patients with type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Care.* 2023;46:1052–1059.
28. Chendke GS, Kharbikar BN, Ashe S, et al. Replenishable prevascularized cell encapsulation devices increase graft survival and function in the subcutaneous space. *Bioeng Transl Med.* 2023;8.
29. Schmeltz L, Metzger B. *Diabetes/syndrome X*. In: *Comprehensive Medicinal Chemistry II*. Vol. 6. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 2007. pp. 417–458.
30. Yao PY, Ahsun S, Anastasopoulou C, Tadi P. *Insulin Pump*. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2024.
31. EL-Mohandes N, Yee G, Bhutta BS, Huecker MR. *Pediatric Diabetic Ketoacidosis*. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2024.
32. Padda IS, Mahtani AU, Parmar M. *Sodium-Glucose Transport Protein 2 (SGLT2) Inhibitors*. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2024.
33. Los E, Wilt AS. *Type 1 Diabetes in Children*. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2024.
34. Zakir M, Ahuja N, Surksha MA, et al. Cardiovascular complications of diabetes: from microvascular to macrovascular pathways. *Cureus.* 2023;15.
35. Kandemir N, Vuralli D, Ozon A, et al. Epidemiology of type 1 diabetes mellitus in children and adolescents: a 50-year, single-center experience. *J Diabetes.* 2024;16.
36. Lohiya NN, Kajale NA, Lohiya NN, Khadilkar VV, Gondhalekar K, Khadilkar A. Diabetes distress in Indian children with type 1 diabetes mellitus and

- their mothers. *J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab.* 2021;34:209–216.
37. Monnier L, Owens DR, Bolli GB. The new long-acting insulin glargine U300 achieves an early steady state with low risk of accumulation. *Diabetes Metab.* 2016;42:77–79.
  38. Doupis J, Festas G, Tsilivigos C, Efthymiou V, Kokkinos A. Smartphone-based technology in diabetes management. *Diabetes Ther.* 2020;11:607–619.
  39. Lucier J, Weinstock RS. *Type 1 Diabetes. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2024.*
  40. Atkinson MA, Eisenbarth GS, Michels AW. Type 1 diabetes. *Lancet.* 2014;383:69–82.
  41. Pozzilli P, Battelino T, Danne T, Hovorka R, Jarosz-Chobot P, Renard E. Continuous subcutaneous insulin infusion in diabetes: patient populations, safety, efficacy, and pharmacoeconomics. *Diabetes Metab Res Rev.* 2016;32:21–39.