

Testing for Gestational Diabetes Mellitus: International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics Recommendations

¹Moshe Hod, ²Anil Kapur, ³David A Sacks, ⁴Eran Hadar, ⁵Mukesh Agarwal, ⁶Gian CD Renzo
⁷Luis C Roura, ⁸Harold D McIntyre, ⁹Jessica L Morris, ¹⁰Hema Divakar

How to cite this article: Hod M, Kapur A, Sacks DA, Hadar E, Agarwal M, Renzo GCD, Roura LC, McIntyre HD, Morris JL, Divakar H. Testing for Gestational Diabetes Mellitus: International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics Recommendations. *J South Asian Feder Obst Gynae* 2017;9(2):73-78.

Source of support: Nil

Conflict of interest: None

Date of received: 20 January 2017

Date of acceptance: 2 February 2017

Date of publication: March 2017

THE ISSUE: PROBLEMS OF MULTIPLE CRITERIA

Global health care organizations and professional bodies have advocated a plethora of diverse algorithms for screening and diagnosis of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM). Unfortunately, even the endocrine, diabetes, and obstetric associations within particular countries often used markedly dissimilar protocols and cut-off values for screening and diagnosis of GDM. These recommendations for GDM were criticized for lacking validation, as they were developed based on tenuous data; the results of expert opinions were biased owing to economic considerations or were convenience oriented,¹ thereby creating confusion and uncertainty among care providers. One underlying, yet fundamental problem, as shown consistently by

several studies including the Hyperglycemia and Adverse Pregnancy Outcomes (HAPO) study, is that the risk of poor pregnancy outcomes associated with hyperglycemia is continuous with no clear inflection points.²⁻⁶

It is, therefore, clear that any set of criteria for the diagnosis of GDM proposed will need to evolve from a consensus approach, balancing risks and benefits in particular social, economic, and clinical contexts.⁷ In 2010, the International Association of Diabetes in Pregnancy Study Groups (IADPSG) proposed consensus-derived cut-off values for fasting, 1-hour, and 2-hour 75-g oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) threshold values, defining GDM based on odds ratio thresholds of 1.75 in comparison with the mean, for markers of diabetic fetopathy [large for gestational age (LGA), excess fetal adiposity, and fetal hyperinsulinemia] in the multinational observational HAPO study.⁸ These criteria have been widely accepted and recently adopted by the World Health Organization (WHO) and the American Diabetes Association (ADA).^{9,10} However, LGA and fetal adiposity are also dependent on factors other than maternal glucose alone. For example, using the 2-hour glucose cut-off value of 8.5 mmol/L (153 mg/dL) selected by the IADPSG may not be as efficient in identifying women at risk for fetal overgrowth as those identified by a 2-hour glucose value corresponding to that at a slightly lower odds ratio of 1.5 compared with the mean. The latter corresponds to the older, WHO criteria 2-hour value of 7.8 mmol/L (140 mg/dL).

Apart from the different cut-off values, the lack of consensus among the different professional bodies for an algorithm for screening and diagnosis of GDM is perhaps an even larger problem. Despite repeated pleas for a single process and criteria,¹¹ the ideal protocol for the diagnosis of GDM continues to be debated.

Universal vs Selective Testing

Selective testing based on clinical risk factors for GDM evolved from the view that in populations with a low risk of GDM, subjecting all pregnant women to a laboratory test was not considered cost-effective. Traditionally, the risk factor-based approach was popular in Europe. Some of the aforementioned risk factors used were age and body mass index (BMI) (at varying thresholds); ethnicity; polyhydramnios; macrosomia (current or past pregnancy); GDM in the past; unexplained stillbirth; type II diabetes

^{1,4}Division of Maternal Fetal Medicine, Rabin Medical Center Tel Aviv University, Petah Tikva, Israel

²World Diabetes Foundation, Gentofte, Denmark

³Department of Research and Evaluation, Kaiser Permanente Southern California, Pasadena, CA, USA

⁵Department of Pathology, UAE University, Al Ain, United Arab Emirates

⁶Centre of Perinatal and Reproductive Medicine, Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University of Perugia, Perugia, Italy

⁷Maternal Fetal Medicine Unit, Vall d'Hebron University Hospital Barcelona, Spain

⁸University of Queensland Mater Clinical School, Brisbane, Australia

⁹International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics, London, UK

¹⁰Divakars Specialty Hospital, Bengaluru, Karnataka

Corresponding Author: Hema Divakar, Divakars Specialty Hospital, Bangalore, India, e-mail : drhemadivakar@gmail.com

mellitus (T2DM) in a first-degree relative; and polycystic ovary syndrome. The Toronto Tri-hospital Gestational Diabetes Project¹² developed a scoring system based on maternal age, BMI, and race. However, variations in risk factors have resulted in different approaches, generally with poor sensitivity and specificity. The major problem of risk factor-based screening is its high demand on the health care providers with more complex protocols for testing, which result in lower compliance by both patients and health care providers.

Given the high rates of hyperglycemia in pregnancy in most populations and that selective testing based on known risk factors has poor sensitivity for the detection of GDM, it seems appropriate to recommend universal rather than risk factor-based testing. This approach is strongly recommended by the International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics (FIGO) and is particularly relevant to low-, low-middle-, and middle-resource countries, where 90% of all cases of GDM are found and ascertainment of risk factors is poor owing to low levels of education and awareness, and poor record keeping. In many of these countries, there is little justification for selective testing, as they also have ethnic populations considered to be at high risk.¹³

In 2010, the IADPSG proposed screening of all pregnant women with a single-step 75-g OGTT.⁸ This position has since been supported by the ADA and the International Diabetes Federation (IDF).¹⁴ However, there continues to be a lack of uniformity of testing protocols within and between hospitals in the same city, county, and country,¹⁵ let alone internationally.

The case for universal testing (i.e., testing all pregnant women) with some biochemical test has its supporters.^{16,17} However, among advocates of universal testing, there is a lack of uniformity in the approach to testing methodology.

The 50-g glucose challenge test (GCT) has been the most popular test for this purpose. This is part of the two-step algorithm (50-g GCT followed by the 100-g OGTT) still advocated by the ACOG, and offered as an alternative diagnostic strategy in the latest ADA guideline.

The one-step 75-g OGTT in all women is endorsed by the WHO, IDF, and many other organizations that agree with the recommendations of the IADPSG.

In the overall cost of providing care to women with GDM, the cost of administering a GTT to all pregnant women is likely to be minimal if the initial fasting GTT level result can be used to decide if the full GTT is needed.^{18,19} In situations where women may not be able to come for testing in a fasting state, a single-step 75-g 2-hour nonfasting test, as used in India, may be applied.^{20,21}

The FIGO initiative for GDM is meant to provide a practical guide for national associations to adopt and promote a uniform approach to testing, diagnosis, and management of GDM for all countries and regions based on their financial, human, and infrastructure resources.

- The FIGO adopts and supports the IADPSG/WHO/IDF position that all pregnant women should be tested for hyperglycemia during pregnancy using a one-step procedure.
- The FIGO encourages all countries and its member associations to adapt and promote strategies to ensure universal testing of all pregnant women for hyperglycemia during pregnancy.

Diagnostic Criteria

Diabetes in Pregnancy

The diagnosis of diabetes in pregnancy as defined by the WHO criteria⁹ should be based on one or more of the following results recorded by routine testing at any time during the course of pregnancy:

- Fasting plasma glucose ≥ 7.0 mmol/L (126 mg/dL); and/or
- 2-hour plasma glucose ≥ 11.1 mmol/L (200 mg/dL) following a 75-g oral glucose load; or
- Random plasma glucose ≥ 11.1 mmol/L (200 mg/dL) in the presence of diabetes symptoms.

Additionally, the ADA also recommends hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c) ($\geq 6.5\%$), confirmed by repeat testing, as sufficient to diagnose diabetes in the presence or absence of pregnancy.¹⁰

Gestational Diabetes Mellitus

As per the recommendation of the IADPSG (2010) and WHO (2013), the diagnosis of GDM is made using a single-step 75-g OGTT when one or more of the following results are recorded during routine testing, specifically between weeks 24 and 28 of pregnancy or at any other time during the course of pregnancy:

- Fasting plasma glucose 5.1 to 6.9 mmol/L (92–125 mg/dL);
- 1-hour post 75-g oral glucose load ≥ 10 mmol/L (180 mg/dL);
- 2-hour post 75-g oral glucose load 8.5 to 11.0 mmol/L (153–199 mg/dL)

- FIGO adopts the WHO (2013) criteria for diagnosis of diabetes mellitus in pregnancy.
- FIGO adopts the WHO (2013) and IADPSG (2010) criteria for diagnosis of GDM. Given the resource constraints in many low-resource countries, other strategies described herein are considered equally acceptable.
- FIGO suggests various options for diagnosis of GDM based on resource settings in Table 1.

Table 1: Options for diagnosis of GDM based on resource settings

Setting	Who to test and when	Strategy		Grade
		Diagnostic test	Interpretation ^a	
Fully resourced settings	All women at booking/ first trimester	Measure fasting plasma glucose (FPG), random blood glucose (RBG), or HbA1c to detect diabetes in pregnancy		1 +++O
	24–28 weeks	If negative: Perform 75-g 2-hour OGTT		
Fully resourced settings serving ethnic populations at high risk ^b	All women at booking/ first trimester	Perform 75-g 2-hour OGTT to detect diabetes in pregnancy		2 +OOO
Any setting (basic): Particularly medium- to low-resource settings serving ethnic populations at risk	All women between 24 and 28 weeks	Perform 75-g 2-hour OGTT		1 +++O

FPG: Fasting plasma glucose

^aInterpret as per IADPSG/WHO/IDF guidelines unless stated otherwise.

^bAsians are at high risk of hyperglycemia during pregnancy, which may include previously undiagnosed diabetes. The proportion of previously undiagnosed diabetes is highest in the youngest age group, particularly among women.²² In Asian populations, FPG and HbA1c have much lower sensitivity to diagnose diabetes than the 2-hour postglucose value.²³ In a study of 11 Asian cohorts, more than half of the diabetic subjects had isolated postchallenge hyperglycemia.²⁴ In a study in China, 46.6% of the participants with undiagnosed diabetes (44.1% of the men and 50.2% of the women) had isolated increased 2-hour plasma glucose levels after an OGTT.²⁵ Therefore, the need to identify postprandial hyperglycemia seems especially relevant in Asian populations.

Resource-based Approach to Diagnosis

Implementation of guidelines is a constant challenge. The reality is that most low-resource countries around the world are unable to implement a GDM detection program based on a universal 75-g OGTT or rely on just high-risk women undergoing a 75-g OGTT. These challenges and barriers have been reviewed extensively.²⁸ The applicability of the IADPSG cut-off value for fasting glucose to diagnose GDM, especially in the first trimester, has been contested in a recent study from China.²⁹

Recommendations that are rigid and impractical in real-life settings are unlikely to be implemented and, hence, may produce little or no impact. On the contrary, pragmatic, but less-than-ideal recommendations may produce significant impact owing to more widespread implementation.

The FIGO approach is three-pronged:

1. To promote, encourage, and advocate ideal evidence-based guidance;
2. To offer pragmatic options for resource-constrained situations based on local experience backed by less-than-optimal evidence;
3. To promote research aimed at improving the evidence base in both well-resourced and resource-constrained contexts.

The FIGO recommendations are based on available resources at country level and evidence of local practice. Countries worldwide fall into four resource categories. There are also variations seen within any country. An affluent country may have pockets of poorly funded care and, conversely, a low- or middle-resource country may have state-of-the-art care in the private sector for a selected few.

High-resource countries: Countries or regions, such as Canada, Western Europe, Japan, South Korea, USA, etc.

Upper middle-resource countries: Countries, such as Brazil, China, Colombia, Hungary, Malaysia, Mexico, Romania, South Africa, Turkey, etc.

Low middle-resource countries: Countries, such as India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Nigeria, Egypt, Vietnam, etc.

Low-resource countries: Countries, such as Bangladesh, Nepal, Cambodia, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Ethiopia, Congo, etc.

Risk Models

If a country cannot afford any laboratory testing, risk models are available. Many have been advocated from studies in Canada,¹² Denmark,³⁰ Thailand,³¹ and Vietnam.³² They use a permutation of various clinical risk factors, including age, BMI, family history of diabetes mellitus, GDM in past pregnancies, LGA newborns, and glycosuria. Their widespread applicability in large settings in low-resource countries has not been tested and is not recommended by FIGO.

Eight low- and middle-resource countries – India, China, Nigeria, Pakistan, Indonesia, Bangladesh, Brazil, and Mexico – account for 55% of the global live births (70 million live births annually) as well as 55% of the global burden of diabetes (209.5 million), and should be key targets for any focused strategy on addressing the global burden of GDM pregnancies.

A few examples of current approaches to diagnoses of GDM in different parts of the world, particularly from the large-burden countries where systematic testing for GDM is being implemented, are provided in Appendix 1. These examples have inspired FIGO's pragmatic options and guidance for resource-constrained situations.

Appendix 1: Alternative strategies as currently used in specified countries

China: Medium- to low-resource settings serving populations at high risk	All women at booking/ first trimester	Measure FPG to detect diabetes in pregnancy	>7.0 mmol/L or >126 mg/dL. FPG values between 5.6 and 6.9 mmol/L, (100–125 mg/dL) consider as GDM ¹⁸	2 +OO
	24–28 weeks	If negative: Perform 75-g 2-hour OGTT Or To reduce number of OGTTs, measure FPG. Only in women with values between 4.5 and 5.0 mmol/L (81–90 mg/dL), perform 75-g 2-hour OGTT	Value >5.1 mmol/L or >92 mg/dL diagnostic of GDM	1 +++O 2 +OOO
Indian subcontinent: Medium- to low-resource settings serving rural/ semiurban/urban ethnic populations at high risk	All women at booking/ first trimester	Measure fasting or nonfasting 2-hour value after 75-g OGTT	Reading between 7.8 and 11.0 mmol/L or 140 and 199 mg/dL indicates GDM ^{19,20c}	2 +OOO
	24–28 weeks	If negative: Repeat test		
Latin America: Medium- to low-resource settings	All women at booking/ first trimester	Measure FPG to detect diabetes in pregnancy	>7.0 mmol/L or >126 mg/dL. FPG values between 5.6 and 6.9 mmol/L (100–125 mg/dL), consider as GDM	2 +OOO
	24–28 weeks	If negative: Perform 75-g 2-hour OGTT	75-g 2-hour glucose value >7.8 mmol/L or >140 mg/dL is diagnostic of GDM ^d	
UK: All settings	Selected women at booking/as soon as possible ^e	Perform 75-g 2-hour OGTT	FPG of 5.6 mmol/L or above or 2-hour plasma glucose of 7.8 mmol/L or above is diagnostic ^f	
	24–28 weeks	If negative: Perform 75-g 2-hour OGTT		
	Offered also to other women with risk factors for GDM ^g			

^cDiabetes in Pregnancy Study Group in India (DIPSI) guideline.⁸

^dLatin America Study Group.²⁶

^eWomen with a past history of GDM or women with glycosuria of 2+ or above on one occasion or of 1+ or above on two or more occasions (as detected by reagent strip testing during routine prenatal care in the current pregnancy).

^fNational Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE).²⁷

^gBMI above 30 (calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared), previous macrosomic baby weighing 4.5 kg or above, family history of diabetes, first-degree relative with diabetes, minority ethnic family origin with a high prevalence of diabetes.

COST-EFFECTIVENESS OF GDM TESTING AND MANAGEMENT

Apart from infrastructure and capacity constraints, implementation of universal testing for GDM is challenged by lack of good evidence to support cost-effectiveness in both the high- and low-resource countries. To facilitate decision-making, countries need reliable information on the cost and cost-effectiveness of GDM screening and treatment. Almost all cost-effectiveness analyses have assessed only short-term complications,³³ omitting consideration of reductions in long-term T2DM. A recent study from the USA evaluated the potential cost-effectiveness of new GDM screening criteria for both time periods.³⁴ Another study, based on the Gestational Diabetes Formulas for Cost-Effectiveness or the GeDiForCE Model³⁵ described in, showed that the interventions are “highly cost-effective” in both Indian and Israeli settings when long-term effects are taken into account.³⁶

All countries have an obligation to implement the best GDM testing and management practices they can.

The FIGO acknowledges that for global progress to be made, India, China, Nigeria, Pakistan, Indonesia, Bangladesh, Brazil, and Mexico must be key targets for focused GDM attention.

REFERENCES

1. Agarwal, MM. Evolution of screening and diagnostic criteria for GDM worldwide. In: Kim C, Ferrara A, editors. Gestational diabetes during and after pregnancy. Illustrated edition. London: Springer-Verlag Ltd; 2010. p. 35-48.
2. HAPO Study Cooperative Research Group, Metzger BE, Lowe LP, Dyer AR, Trimble ER, Chaovarindr U, Coustan DR, Hadden DR, McCance DR, Hod M, et al. Hyperglycemia and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *N Engl J Med* 2008 May;358(19):1991-2002.
3. Sacks DA, Greenspoon JS, Abu-Fadil S, Henry HM, Wolde-Tsadik G, Yao JF. Toward universal criteria for gestational

- diabetes: the 75-gram glucose tolerance test in pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1995 Feb;172(2 Pt 1):607-614.
4. Sermer M, Naylor CD, Gare DJ, Kenshole AB, Ritchie JW, Farine D, Cohen HR, McArthur K, Hoizapfel S, Biringer A, et al. Impact of increasing carbohydrate intolerance on maternal-fetal outcomes in 3637 women without gestational diabetes. The Toronto Tri-Hospital Gestational Diabetes Project. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1995 Jul;173(1):146-156.
 5. Jensen DM, Damm P, Sørensen B, Mølsted-Pedersen L, Westergaard JG, Klebe J, Beck-Nielsen H. Clinical impact of mild carbohydrate intolerance in pregnancy: a study of 2904 nondiabetic Danish women with risk factors for gestational diabetes mellitus. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2001 Aug;185(2):413-419.
 6. Schmidt MI, Duncan BB, Reichelt AJ, Branchtein L, Matos MC, Costa e Forti A, Spichler ER, Pousada JM, Teixeira MM, Yamashita T, et al. Gestational diabetes mellitus diagnosed with a 2-h 75-gram glucose tolerance test and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Diabetes Care* 2001 Jul;24(7):1151-1155.
 7. McIntyre HD, Colagiuri S, Roglic G, Hod M. Diagnosis of GDM: a suggested consensus. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol* 2015 Feb;29(2):194-205.
 8. International Association of Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Groups Consensus Panel, Metzger BE, Gabbe SG, Persson B, Buchanan TA, Catalano PA, Damm P, Dyer AR, Leiva Ad, Hod M, et al. International association of diabetes and pregnancy study groups recommendations on the diagnosis and classification of hyperglycemia in pregnancy. *Diabetes Care* 2010 Mar;33(3):676-682.
 9. World Health Organization. Diagnostic criteria and classification of hyperglycaemia first detected in pregnancy. Geneva: WHO; 2013 [cited 2013]. Available from: http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/85975/1/WHO_NMH_MND_13.2_eng.pdf.
 10. American Diabetes Association. Standards of medical care in diabetes – classification and diagnosis of diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 2015;38(Suppl 1):S8-S16.
 11. Sacks DB. Diagnosis of gestational diabetes mellitus: it is time for international consensus. *Clin Chem* 2014 Jan;60(1):141-143.
 12. Naylor CD, Sermer M, Chen E, Farine D. Selective screening for gestational diabetes mellitus. Toronto Trihospital Gestational Diabetes Project Investigators. *N Engl J Med* 1997 Nov;337(22):1591-1596.
 13. Neilsen KK, De Courten M, Kapur A. The urgent need for universally applicable simple screening procedures and diagnostic criteria for gestational diabetes mellitus – lessons from projects funded by the World Diabetes Foundation. *Glob Health Action* 2012 Jul;5:17277.
 14. Colagiuri S, Falavigna M, Agarwal MM, Boulvain M, Coetzee E, Hod M, Meltzer SJ, Metzger B, Omori Y, Rasa I, et al. Strategies for implementing the WHO diagnostic criteria and classification of hyperglycaemia first detected in pregnancy. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2014 Mar;103(3):364-372.
 15. Jiwani A, Marseille E, Lohse N, Damm P, Hod M, Kahn JG. Gestational diabetes mellitus: results from a survey of country prevalence and practices. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2012 Jun;25(6):600-610.
 16. Moses RG, Cheung NW. Point: universal screening for gestational diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care* 2009 Jul;32(7):1349-1351.
 17. Simmons D, Moses RG. Gestational diabetes mellitus: to screen or not to screen? Is this really still a question? *Diabetes Care* 2013 Oct;36(10):2877-2878.
 18. Agarwal MM, Dhatt GS, Shah SM. Gestational diabetes mellitus: simplifying the International Association of Diabetes and Pregnancy diagnostic algorithm using fasting plasma glucose. *Diabetes Care* 2010 Sep;33(9):2018-2020.
 19. Zhu WW, Fan L, Yang HX, Kong LY, Su SP, Wang ZL, Hu YL, Zhang MH, Sun LZ, Mi Y, et al. Fasting plasma glucose at 24-28 weeks to screen for gestational diabetes mellitus: new evidence from China. *Diabetes Care* 2013 Jul;36(7):2038-2040.
 20. Anjalakshi C, Balaji V, Balaji MS, Ashalata S, Suganthi S, Arthi T, Thamizharasi M, Seshiah V. A single test procedure to diagnose gestational diabetes mellitus. *Acta Diabetol* 2009 Mar;46(1):51-54.
 21. Seshiah V, Balaji V, Shah SN, Joshi S, Das AK, Sahay BK, Banerjee S, Zargar AH, Balaji M. Diagnosis of gestational diabetes mellitus in the community. *J Assoc Physicians India* 2012 Aug;60:15-17.
 22. Qiao Q, Hu G, Tuomilehto J, Nakagami T, Balkau B, Borch-Johnsen K, Ramachandran A, Mohan V, Iyer SR, Tominaga M, et al. Age- and sex-specific prevalence of diabetes and impaired glucose regulation in 11 Asian cohorts. *Diabetes Care* 2003 Jun;26(6):1770-1780.
 23. Ramachandran A, Ma RC, Snehalatha C. Diabetes in Asia. *Lancet* 2010 Jan;375(9712):408-418.
 24. Qiao Q, Nakagami T, Tuomilehto J, Borch-Johnsen K, Balkau B, Iwamoto Y, Tajima N, International Diabetes Epidemiology Group, DECODA Study Group. Comparison of the fasting and the 2-h glucose criteria for diabetes in different Asian cohorts. *Diabetologia* 2000 Dec;43(12):1470-1475.
 25. Yang W, Lu J, Weng J, Jia W, Ji L, Xiao J, Shan Z, Liu J, Tian H, Ji Q, et al. Prevalence of diabetes among men and women in China. *N Engl J Med* 2010 Mar;362(12):1090-1101.
 26. de Sereday MS, Damiano MM, González CD, Bennett PH. Diagnostic criteria for gestational diabetes in relation to pregnancy outcome. *J Diabetes Complications* 2003 May-Jun;17(3):115-119.
 27. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE). Diabetes in pregnancy: management of diabetes and its complications from preconception to the postnatal period. NICE guidelines [NG3]; 2015 [cited Feb 2015]. Available from: <http://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng3/evidence>.
 28. Nielsen KK, Kapur A, Damm P, de Courten M, Bygbjerg IC. From screening to postpartum follow-up – the determinants and barriers for gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) services, a systematic review. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2014 Jan;14:41.
 29. Zhu WW, Yang HX, Wei YM, Yan J, Wang ZL, Li XL, Wu HR, Li N, Zhang MH, Liu XH, et al. Evaluation of the value of fasting plasma glucose in the first prenatal visit to diagnose gestational diabetes mellitus in China. *Diabetes Care* 2013 Mar;36(3):586-590.
 30. Jensen DM, Mølsted-Pedersen L, Beck-Nielsen H, Westergaard JG, Ovesen P, Damm P. Screening for gestational diabetes mellitus by a model based on risk indicators: a prospective study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2003 Nov;189(5):1383-1388.
 31. Phaloprakarn C, Tangjitgamol S, Manusirivithaya S. A risk score for selective screening for gestational diabetes mellitus. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 2009 Jun;145(1):71-75.
 32. Tran TS, Hirst JE, Do MAT, Morris JM, Jeffery HE. Early prediction of gestational diabetes mellitus in Vietnam: clinical

- impact of currently recommended diagnostic criteria. *Diabetes Care* 2013 Mar;36(3):618-624.
33. Poncet B, Touzet S, Rocher L, Berland M, Orgiazzi J, Colin C. Cost-effectiveness analysis of gestational diabetes mellitus screening in France. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 2002 Jul;103(2):122-129.
34. Werner EF, Pettker CM, Zuckerwise L, Reel M, Funai EF, Henderson J, Thung SF. Screening for gestational diabetes mellitus: are the criteria proposed by the International Association of the Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Groups cost-effective? *Diabetes Care* 2012 Mar;35(3):529-535.
35. Lohse N, Marseille E, Kahn JG. Development of a model to assess the cost-effectiveness of gestational diabetes mellitus screening and lifestyle change for the prevention of type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2011 Nov;115(Suppl 1): S20-S25.
36. Marseille E, Lohse N, Jiwani A, Hod M, Seshiah V, Yajnik CS, Arora GP, Balaji V, Henriksen O, Lieberman N, et al. The cost-effectiveness of gestational diabetes screening including prevention of type 2 diabetes: application of a new model in India and Israel. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2013 May;26(8):802-810.