

## Evolution of the Diet Plan for Patients with Diabetes Mellitus

Débora L Souto<sup>1\*#</sup>, Márcia S M S Lopes<sup>2#</sup> and Eliane L Rosado<sup>3#</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Nutrition Sciences at the Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

<sup>2</sup> Department of Biological Sciences at the Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

<sup>3</sup> Department of Food Science and Technology at the Federal University of Viçosa, Brazil

# Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Institute of Nutrition Josué de Castro, Brazil

### Abstract

A disciplined diet is essential to improve the glycemic control in patients with diabetes. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to discuss the evolution of the nutrition recommendations for people with diabetes. We reviewed the most common restrictive and non-restrictive diets, pointing advantages and disadvantages of the starvation, low-carbs, high-carbohydrate, glycemic index, exchange lists, carbohydrate counting, high-fat, and high-protein diets. Although the current American Diabetes Association recommendations have been shown to improve glycemic control, the best macronutrient distribution depending on individual circumstances, and each patient should receive individualized dietary counseling.

**\*Corresponding author:** Débora L Souto, 360 Felisbelo Freire Street, Apartment 202 – District: Ramos Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil, Zip Code: 21031-250, Tel: +55 (21) 2260-4139; E-mail: [deboralopessouto@gmail.com](mailto:deboralopessouto@gmail.com)

**Keywords:** Diabetes; Glycemic control; Carbohydrate-counting; Glycemic index; Low-carbs

Received date: Nov 09, 2014

Accepted date: Dec 19, 2014

Published date: Dec 24, 2014

**Citation:** Souto, D.L., et al. Evolution of the Diet Plan for Patients with Diabetes Mellitus (2014) *J Diabetes Obes* 1(2): 50-53.

### Introduction

Nutritional advices are essential for the diabetes management because a disciplined diet has been followed during all life<sup>[1]</sup>. Diabetes treatment is centered on controlling the blood glucose levels and some food choices help to improve the glycemic control<sup>[1,2]</sup>.

During the last century, the nutrition therapy guidelines were gradually revised and have undergone many changes over the past decades<sup>[3]</sup>. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to explore the evolution of the diet plan for patients with diabetes, discussing about most common restrictive and non-restrictive diets used to improve metabolic control.

### Review

#### Starvation diets

Prior to the development of insulin<sup>[4,5]</sup>, Frederick Allen and Elliott Joslin proposed a calorie-restricted diet called “starvation diets” or “inanition” to increase the life expectancy of individuals with diabetes. This diet based on prolonged undernourishment which contained 1,200.00kcal and 10g of carbohydrates/day<sup>[6]</sup>. In carbohydrate restriction, the energy sources must be derived from fatty acids and ketones<sup>[7]</sup>, contributing to ketoacidosis<sup>[8,9]</sup>.

#### Low-carbs

Popular diets are based on calories and carbohydrate restriction. The early stages of low and very low carbs suggest an intake less than 20g and 10g of carbohydrates a day, respec-

tively<sup>[10-12]</sup>. Studies have shown that these diets improve glycemic control, insulin resistance and weight loss in patients with type 2 diabetes<sup>[13,14]</sup>. However, when carbohydrates are almost eliminated, the diet has inadequate levels of other nutrients provided by carbohydrate-rich foodstuffs<sup>[7]</sup>.

In addition, a low-carbohydrate diet is accomplished by increases in saturated or monounsaturated fat, increasing the cardiovascular diseases risk<sup>[3]</sup>. Therefore, nutritional recommendations were being revised to moderate consumption of fats and reporting that carbohydrates are important sources of energy, fiber, vitamins, and minerals<sup>[1]</sup>.

#### High-carbohydrate diets

The types of carbohydrates influence the postprandial glucose, insulin secretion, serum lipids, thermogenesis, substrate utilization and body composition<sup>[15,16]</sup>. This macronutrient may be classified according to the number of monosaccharide: sugars are sub-divided into monosaccharides (glucose, galactose, fructose) and disaccharides (sucrose, lactose, trehalose, maltose, isomaltulose); oligosaccharides (maltodextrins, raffinose, stachyose, fructooligosaccharides, galactooligosaccharides); polysaccharides comprise starches (amylose and amylopectin) and non-starch polysaccharides (cellulose, hemicelluloses, pectins, inulin, hydrocolloids); and hydrogenated carbohydrates (polyols)<sup>[7]</sup>.

According to their physiological effects, Crapo et al. suggested that the different types of carbohydrates affect the body differently and this effect may be related to differences in digestion rather than to differences in absorption. The concept of simple and complex carbohydrates has often been used to

explain the influence on blood glucose<sup>[17]</sup>. Studies showed that simple carbohydrates produce higher blood glucose, insulin responses<sup>[16,18,19]</sup> and exogenous carbohydrate oxidation (a higher respiratory quotient) than complex starches and fiber<sup>[20]</sup>. These peak glucose concentrations and higher respiratory quotient immediately after consumption of simple carbohydrates may relate to greater hunger later<sup>[21]</sup> and higher triglycerides levels<sup>[22,23]</sup>. Therefore, the nutrition recommendations began to focus on the quality of carbohydrate than the quantity alone<sup>[24]</sup>. However, the diets in most of these studies contained unusually high amounts of dietary fiber<sup>[25,26]</sup> and insoluble fibers have a greater influence on bowel function, whereas, soluble fiber may contribute to a reduction of postprandial blood glucose, serum and lipids concentrations. The content of dietary soluble fiber may affect the blood glucose response after a meal by delaying the emptying of the stomach and the passage of the food into the intestine because they are viscous and form gels in the intestine<sup>[25,26]</sup>.

Very high-fiber diet (about 50g/day) are not recommended because possible negative effects on mineral absorption and reduced acceptability, being not well tolerated and impossible to eat over long time periods<sup>[25,26]</sup>. In summary, to obtain a better glycemic control, individuals with diabetes have to match doses of insulin and insulin secretagogues to the carbohydrate content of meals. A variety of methods can be used to estimate the nutrient content of meals, including carbohydrate counting, the exchange system, and experience based estimation<sup>[1]</sup>.

### Glycemic index and glycemic load

The ranking of specific foods based on the blood glucose response was first proposed by Jenkins et al.<sup>[27,28]</sup>. The glycemic index is a concept that ranks foods on the basis of their acute glycemic impact, using a scale of zero to hundred, with higher values given to foods that cause the fastest increase the blood glucose. To determine the glycemic index, blood samples were collected from health subjects before, during regular intervals, and 2-hours after a test food that provides 50g of carbohydrates and a control food (white bread or pure glucose) that provides the same amount of carbohydrate on different days. The changes in blood glucose over time are plotted as a curve and the glycemic index is calculated as the area under the glucose curve after the test food is eaten, divided by the corresponding area after the control food is eaten. The value is multiplied by 100 to represent a percentage of the control food<sup>[29]</sup>. The concept of glycemic load had also to be created to describe the quality and quantity of carbohydrates in a meal or diet. The glycemic load is calculated by multiplying the glycemic index value by the grams of available carbohydrates in the serving and dividing by 100<sup>[29]</sup>. However, several factors may affect the glycemic index of a food, among them we can mention: the fat and protein content of food (a lower glycemic index is associated with a slowing of gastric emptying); the presence of soluble fibers (that slow absorption of the carbohydrates); the type of carbohydrate (fructose have a lower glycemic index than sucrose and glucose); the ripeness of fruit; the food preparation (such as grinding or cooking because it makes those food quicker and easier to digest); individual differences (glycemic response is different from one person to another, and even in the same person from day to day)<sup>[30,31]</sup>.

The difficulty to adoption this diet is another disadvantage because there are a limited number of foods with their re-

spective glycemic index<sup>[30,31]</sup>. Similar foods could have different glycemic index values and it is not possible to estimate glycemic index from either food type or composition<sup>[30-32]</sup>.

The American Diabetes Association based on methodological studies concluded that there is insufficient evidence of substantial long-term benefit to recommend use of glycemic index in the management of diabetes<sup>[1,33]</sup>.

### Exchange lists

Created in the 1950s, the exchange lists have foods with the same amount of carbohydrate, protein, fat and calories, allowing a more flexibility in choosing foods because each meal may be exchanged for any other food on the list<sup>[34]</sup>.

The meals are grouped according the macronutrients compositions: carbohydrate group contains approximately 15g of carbohydrates, 3-8g of protein, less than 1g of fat and 25-80 calories in each portion; the items in fat group contain approximately 5g of fat and are composed for monounsaturated, polyunsaturated and saturated fatty acids lists; each serving in meat group contains about 7g of protein, and the amount of carbohydrates, fat and calories varies, depending on the choice; the free food contains less than 20 calories or less than 5g of carbohydrates per serving<sup>[35]</sup>.

To use the exchange lists, the subjects with diabetes needs an individualized meal plan with the number of exchanges from each list for each meal.

A disadvantage of the food exchange system is the different types of foods that included in the same group, for example we may mention the monounsaturated should be substituted for saturated fats or fruits may be exchange by breads<sup>[36,37]</sup>.

### Carbohydrate-counting

As previous describe, carbohydrates is the primary nutrient that affects the postprandial glycemic response because 100% of carbohydrate must be converted to glucose, while, 35-60% of protein and 10% of fat can be converted to glucose. Thus, monitoring total grams of carbohydrates intake is a key strategy in achieving glycemic control, since the total amount of carbohydrates in meals or snacks is more important than the source or type<sup>[1,38]</sup>. Carbohydrate-counting had been created in Europe and adopted by The Diabetes Control and Complication Trial in the 1990s that used to helping people achieve glycemic control while allowing flexibility in their food choice<sup>[39]</sup>. There are three levels of carbohydrate counting<sup>[38]</sup>, however the basic and advanced carbohydrate counting are the common methods used currently in clinical practice<sup>[40-42]</sup>.

At the basic level, individuals must eat a consistent amount of carbohydrates at meals. It is useful to understand the effect of food and medication and to identify normal portion sizes, considering that one serving is equal to 15 g of carbohydrates. The advanced level includes pattern management and understanding how to use insulin to carbohydrate ratios<sup>[38]</sup>.

Advanced carbohydrate counting should be adopted in type 1 diabetes considering that the subjects have to use insulin-to-carbohydrate ratios. To determining this ratio, the diabetes educator divides the grams of carbohydrates in a meal by the units of bolus insulin given<sup>[5]</sup>.

Carbohydrates counting also have disadvantages. Requires the ability to determine the amount of carbohydrates in each food (particularly in homemade recipes), and it may pro-

mote weight gain when patients don't pay attention to their food choices<sup>[41]</sup>.

### High-fat diets

As described previously, a small amount of fat is converted into glucose<sup>[43]</sup>. Therefore, adolescents with type 1 diabetes sometimes consume fewer calories from carbohydrates and exceed the recommended levels of fat intake because their families may perceive foods high in fat and cholesterol as more acceptable than carbohydrates, avoiding foods high in sugar<sup>[44]</sup>. This occurs probably because of a delay in gastric emptying, which may be mediated through an effect of fat on the duodenum and/or ileum<sup>[45]</sup>.

High fat diets are not recommended because may be related to overweight or obesity in patients with type 1<sup>[46,47]</sup> and 2 diabetes<sup>[48]</sup>.

In addition, study assessing patients with type 2 diabetes have shown that a high intake of saturated fat is associated with increased risk of coronary heart disease, whereas high intakes of polyunsaturated and monounsaturated fatty acids are associated with reduced risk<sup>[49]</sup>. Others results were found in patients with type 1 diabetes, suggesting that these individuals have a low cholesterol synthesis high cholesterol absorption compared with healthy or patients with type 2 diabetes<sup>[50-52]</sup>.

There is still much speculation about the reasons for these differences in cholesterol absorption and synthesis between patients with type 1 and type 2 diabetes.

However, glycated haemoglobin was associated with saturated fat and there was no evidence of an association with monounsaturated or polyunsaturated fat intake<sup>[53]</sup>. Several mechanisms have been proposed that may link dietary fat intake and glycemia, nevertheless, among some general aspects of potential theory to explain is that of the dietary fat may have an effect on glycemia through obesity, promoting a body weight gain, which is in turn associated with insulin resistance in type 2 diabetes<sup>[54]</sup>. Additionally, a meta-analysis including ten randomized, cross-over trials with type 2 diabetes revealed that high-monounsaturated-fat diets improve lipoprotein profiles and the glycemic control for patients with type and type 2 diabetes<sup>[55]</sup>. Although, the diet conditions of most studies have contained higher amounts of monounsaturated fatty acids (average 30% of energy) and achieve these recommended levels of intake is very difficult<sup>[56]</sup>.

### High-protein diets

The bedtime snack always included a cup of milk always because protein is a good source of long-term energy, providing a sustained elevation in blood glucose concentrations and prevents recurrent (or nocturnal) hypoglycemia<sup>[1]</sup>, since, the glucose produced from ingested protein does not increase blood glucose<sup>[57]</sup>, however, excessive protein intake increased renal function in diabetics, leading to renal problems<sup>[58]</sup>. Diabetic nephropathy is a commonly complication occurred due to persistent high blood glucose levels, increasing the glomerular filtration rate and persistent microalbuminuria<sup>[59-61]</sup>. Thus, high-protein diets are not recommended<sup>[1]</sup>.

### Currently recommendations and future perspectives

The American Diabetes Association<sup>[1]</sup> recommends a dietary intake similar to that of the general public, in other words, equal reported in the Dietary Reference Intakes<sup>[62]</sup>: ener-

gy content of 45-55% carbohydrate (14g of fiber per 1,000 kcal and  $\leq 10\%$  of simple carbohydrate); 15-20% of protein; less than 30% of total fat ( $\leq 7\%$  of saturated, 10-15% of monounsaturated and  $\leq 10\%$  of polyunsaturated fatty acids). The current American Diabetes Association recommendations are based on evidence regarding the effects of diet in reducing body weight and cardiovascular risk factors. However, not all patients require a caloric restriction and there are several differences between types of diabetes (type 1, type 2, gestational diabetes, maturity onset diabetes of the young, latent autoimmune diabetes mellitus in adults, and other forms of diabetes) that require others specific therapies (as example: prevent hypoglycemia, ketoacidosis, kidney and renal diseases).

Therefore, the ideal macronutrient distribution varies by circumstances (like as, body weight, ethnic differences, socio-cultural perceptions, beliefs, attitudes). Even as more effective treatments with oral hypoglycemic agents and insulin analogs with improved pharmacokinetic profiles are developed, the nutritionists should master counseling skills to assist their patients in acquiring knowledge to control nonroutine situations like parties, illness/disorders, fasting preparation before surgery, and other situations.

### Conclusions

The macronutrient distribution depending on individual circumstances and each patient should receive individualized dietary counseling to optimize their blood glucose control.

**Competing Interests:** None of the authors declared a conflict of interest. No funding or grants were received for this project.

**Authors' Contributions:** All authors contributed equally to this work. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

### References

1. Evert, A.B., Boucher, J.L., Cypress, M., et al. Nutrition therapy recommendations for the management of adults with diabetes. (2014) *Diabetes care* 36(11):3821-3842.
2. American Diabetes Association: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes 2014. (2014) *Diabetes care* 37(Supplement 1): S14-S80.
3. Eckel, R.H. Diabetes and dietary macronutrients: is carbohydrate all that bad? (2004) *Am J Clin Nutr* 80(3): 537-538.
4. Rosenfeld, L. Insulin: discovery and controversy. (2002) *Clin Chem* 48(12): 2270-2288.
5. Ginsberg, B.H. System for determining insulin dose using carbohydrate to insulin ratio and insulin sensitivity factor. (2008) United States Google Patents: 7404796.
6. Allen, F.M. The treatment of diabetes. (1915) *The Boston Medical and Surgical Journal* 172(7): 241-247.
7. Westman, E.C. Is dietary carbohydrate essential for human nutrition? (2002) *Am J Clin Nutr* 75(5): 951-953.
8. McGarry, J.D., Foster, D.W. Regulation of hepatic fatty acid oxidation and ketone body production. (1980) *Annu Rev Biochem* 49: 395-420.
9. Laffel, L. Ketone bodies: a review of physiology, pathophysiology and application of monitoring to diabetes. (1999) *Diabetes Metab Res Rev* 15(6): 412-426.
10. Dansinger, M.L., Schaefer, E.J. Low-carbohydrate or low-fat diets for the metabolic syndrome? (2006) *Curr Diab Rep* 6(1): 55-63.
11. Accurso, A., Bernstein, R.K., Dahlqvist, A., et al. Dietary carbohydrate restriction in type 2 diabetes mellitus and metabolic syndrome. (2008) *Nutr Metab* 5: 9.
12. Volek, J.S., Westman, E.C. Very-low-carbohydrate weight-loss diets revisited. (2002) *Cleve Clin J Med* 69(11):849.

13. National Asthma Education and Prevention Program. Expert Panel Report 3 (EPR-3): Guidelines for the Diagnosis and Management of Asthma-Summary Report 2007. (2007) *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 120(5 Suppl): 94-138.
14. Knowler, W.C., Fowler, S.E., Hamman, R.F., et al. 10-year follow-up of diabetes incidence and weight loss in the Diabetes Prevention Program Outcomes Study. (2009) *Lancet* 374(9702): 1677-1686.
15. Kiens, B., Richter, E.A. Types of carbohydrate in an ordinary diet affect insulin action and muscle substrates in humans. (1996) *Am J Clin Nutr* 63(1): 47-53.
16. Blaak, E.E., Saris, W.H. Postprandial thermogenesis and substrate utilization after ingestion of different dietary carbohydrates. (1996) *Metabolism* 45(10): 1235-1242.
17. Crapo, P.A., Reaven, G., Olefsky, J. Plasma glucose and insulin responses to orally administered simple and complex carbohydrates. (1976) *Diabetes* 25(9): 741-747.
18. Wolever, T., Miller, J.B. Sugars and blood glucose control. (1995) *Am J Clin Nutr* 62(1): 212S-221S.
19. Wolever, T.M., Hamad, S., Chiasson, J.L., et al. Day-to-day consistency in amount and source of carbohydrate intake associated with improved blood glucose control in type 1 diabetes. (1999) *J Am Coll Nutr* 18(3): 242-247.
20. Blaak, E., Saris, W. Health aspects of various digestible carbohydrates. (1995) *Nutrition research* 15(10): 1547-1573.
21. Melanson, K.J., Westertep-Plantenga, M.S., Campfield, L.A., et al. Blood glucose and meal patterns in time-blinded males, after aspartame, carbohydrate, and fat consumption, in relation to sweetness perception. (1999) *Br J Nutr* 82(6): 437-446.
22. Parks, E.J. Effect of dietary carbohydrate on triglyceride metabolism in humans. (2001) *J Nutr* 131(10): 2772S-2774S.
23. Parks, E.J., Hellerstein, M.K. Carbohydrate-induced hypertriglyceridemia: historical perspective and review of biological mechanisms. (2000) *Am J Clin Nutr* 71(2): 412-433.
24. Hu, E.A., Toledo, E., Diez-Espino, J., et al. Lifestyles and risk factors associated with adherence to the Mediterranean diet: a baseline assessment of the PREDIMED trial. (2013) *PLoS one* 8(4): e60166.
25. Vessby, B. Dietary carbohydrates in diabetes. (1994) *Am J Clin Nutr* 59(3 Suppl): 742S-746S.
26. Vessby, B., Karlstrom, B., Ohrvall, M., et al. Diet, nutrition and diabetes mellitus. (2000) *Ups J Med Sci* 105(2): 151-160.
27. Jenkins, D.J., Wolever, T.M., Jenkins, A.L., et al. The glycaemic index of foods tested in diabetic patients: a new basis for carbohydrate exchange favouring the use of legumes. (1983) *Diabetologia* 24(4): 257-264.
28. Jenkins, D.J., Wolever, T.M., Taylor, R.H., et al. Glycemic index of foods: a physiological basis for carbohydrate exchange. (1981) *Am J Clin Nutr* 34(3): 362-366.
29. Brand-Miller, J.C., Stockmann, K., Atkinson, F., et al. Glycemic index, postprandial glycemia, and the shape of the curve in healthy subjects: analysis of a database of more than 1,000 foods. (2009) *Am J Clin Nutr* 89(1): 97-105.
30. Vega-Lopez, S., Ausman, L.M., Griffith, J.L., et al. Interindividual variability and intra-individual reproducibility of glycemic index values for commercial white bread. (2007) *Diabetes care* 30(6): 1412-1417.
31. Pi-Sunyer, F.X. Glycemic index and disease. (2002) *Am J Clin Nutr* 76(1): 290S-298S.
32. Foster-Powell, K., Holt, S.H., Brand-Miller, J.C. International table of glycemic index and glycemic load values: 2002. (2002) *Am J Clin Nutr* 76(1): 5-56.
33. Wolever, T., Gibbs, A., Mehling, C., et al. The Canadian Trial of Carbohydrates in Diabetes (CCD), a 1-y controlled trial of low-glycemic-index dietary carbohydrate in type 2 diabetes: no effect on glycated hemoglobin but reduction in C-reactive protein. (2008) *Am J Clin Nutr* 87(1): 114-125.
34. Kitamura, S. Diet therapy and food exchange lists for diabetic patients. (1994) *Diabetes research and clinical practice* 24: S233-S240.
35. Geil, P.B. Choose your foods: exchange lists for diabetes: the 2008 revision of exchange lists for meal planning. (2008) *Diabetes Spectrum* 21(4): 281-283.
36. Franz, M.J., Bantle, J.P., Beebe, C.A., et al. Evidence-Based Nutrition Principles and Recommendations for the Treatment and Prevention of Diabetes and Related Complications. (2002) *Diabetes care* 25(1): 148-198.
37. Nathan, D.M. The glycemic index: meat and potatoes or just gravy? (1987) *Diabetes care* 10(4): 524-525.
38. Gillespie, S.J., Kulkarni, K.D., Daly, A.E. Using carbohydrate counting in diabetes clinical practice. (1998) *J Am Diet Assoc* 98(8): 897-905.
39. Effect of intensive diabetes treatment on the development and progression of long-term complications in adolescents with insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus: Diabetes Control and Complications Trial. Diabetes Control and Complications Trial Research Group. (1994) *J pediatr* 125(2): 177-188.
40. Lopes Souto, D., Lopes Rosado, E. Use of carb counting in the dietary treatment of diabetes mellitus. (2010) *Nutr Hosp* 25(1): 18-25.
41. Kulkarni, K.D. Carbohydrate Counting: A Practical Meal-Planning Option for People with Diabetes. (2005) *Clinical Diabetes* 23(3): 120-122.
42. Souto, D.L., Zajdenverg, L., Rodacki, M., et al. Impact of advanced and basic carbohydrate counting methods on metabolic control in patients with type 1 diabetes. (2014) *Nutrition* 30(3): 286-290.
43. Burton, F., Alkaade, S., Collins, D., et al. Use and perceived effectiveness of non-analgesic medical therapies for chronic pancreatitis in the United States. (2011) *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 33(1): 149-159.
44. Helgeson, V.S., Viccaro, L., Becker, D., et al. Diet of adolescents with and without diabetes: Trading candy for potato chips? (2006) *Diabetes care* 29(5): 982-987.
45. Welch, I.M., Bruce, C., Hill, S.E., et al. Duodenal and ileal lipid suppresses postprandial blood glucose and insulin responses in man: possible implications for the dietary management of diabetes mellitus. (1987) *Clin Sci (Lond)* 72(2): 209-216.
46. Sarnblad, S., Ekelund, U., Aman, J. Dietary fat intake predicts 1-year change in body fat in adolescent girls with type 1 diabetes. (2006) *Diabetes care* 29(6): 1227-1230.
47. Maffei, C., Pinelli, L. Teaching children with diabetes about adequate dietary choices. (2008) *Br J Nutr* 99(Suppl 1): 33-39.
48. Coppel, K.J., Kataoka, M., Williams, S.M., et al. Nutritional intervention in patients with type 2 diabetes who are hyperglycaemic despite optimised drug treatment--Lifestyle Over and Above Drugs in Diabetes (LOADD) study: randomised controlled trial. (2010) *BMJ* 341:c3337.
49. Soinio, M., Laakso, M., Lehto, S., et al. Dietary fat predicts coronary heart disease events in subjects with type 2 diabetes. (2003) *Diabetes care* 26(3): 619-624.
50. Gylling, H., Tuominen, J.A., Koivisto, V.A., et al. Cholesterol metabolism in type 1 diabetes. (2004) *Diabetes* 53(9): 2217-2222.
51. Jarvisalo, M., Raitakari, O., Gylling, H., et al. Cholesterol absorption and synthesis in children with type 1 diabetes. (2006) *Diabetes care* 29(10): 2300-2304.
52. Miettinen, T.A., Gylling, H., Tuominen, J., et al. Low synthesis and high absorption of cholesterol characterize type 1 diabetes. (2004) *Diabetes care* 27(1): 53-58.
53. Harding, A.H., Sargeant, L.A., Welch, A., et al. Fat consumption and HbA(1c) levels: the EPIC-Norfolk study. (2001) *Diabetes care* 24(11): 1911-1916.
54. Storlien, L.H., Higgins, J.A., Thomas, T.C., et al. Diet composition and insulin action in animal models. (2000) *Br J Nutr* 83(Suppl 1): S85-S90.
55. Garg, A. High-monounsaturated-fat diets for patients with diabetes mellitus: a meta-analysis. (1998) *Am J Clin Nutr* 67(3 Suppl): 577S-582S.
56. Kris-Etherton, P.M. Monounsaturated Fatty Acids and Risk of Cardiovascular Disease. (1999) *Circulation* 100(11): 1253-1258.
57. Gannon, M.C., Nuttall, J.A., Damberg, G., et al. Effect of protein ingestion on the glucose appearance rate in people with type 2 diabetes. (2001) *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 86(3): 1040-1047.
58. Kupin, W.L., Cortes, P., Dumler, F., et al. Effect on renal function of change from high to moderate protein intake in type I diabetic patients. (1987) *Diabetes* 36(1): 73-79.
59. American Diabetes Association. Standards of medical care in diabetes--2013. (2013) *Diabetes care* 36(1): S11-66.
60. Steinke, J.M., Sinaiko, A.R., Kramer, M.S., et al. The early natural history of nephropathy in Type 1 Diabetes: III. Predictors of 5-year urinary albumin excretion rate patterns in initially normoalbuminuric patients. (2005) *Diabetes* 54(7): 2164-2171.
61. Martin, W.F., Armstrong, L.E., Rodriguez, N.R., et al. Dietary protein intake and renal function. (2005) *Nutr Metab (Lond)* 2:25.
62. Trumbo, P., Schlicker, S., Yates, A.A., et al. Dietary reference intakes for energy, carbohydrate, fiber, fat, fatty acids, cholesterol, protein and amino acids. (2002) *J Am Diet Assoc* 102(11): 1621-1630.