DOI: https://doi.org/10.53555/nnmhs.v9i7.1756

Publication URL: https://nnpub.org/index.php/MHS/article/view/1756

A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF RISK OF DEVELOPING TYPE 1 DIABETES IN EARLY INFANT FEEDING

M. Hadi*

*Faculty of Medicine, University of Malahayati, Indonesia

*Corresponding Author: mhadi.official2023@gmail.com

Abstract

Background:

Aim: The primary goal of this study consists of looking at nutritional risk factors, particularly breastfeeding early in infancy, that may be linked to the development of type 1 diabetes and to identify the relationship between these variables and the disease's progression.

Methods: Prior as long as July 2015, the Cochrane Library, MEDLINE, EMBASE, Web of Science, and CINAHL were searched for research on any kind of design. In March 2016, MEDLINE and EMBASE were also searched. T1D or T1D-associated autoimmunity (T1DA) development was the major outcome measure.

Results: There were nine publications found. Breastfeeding at the moment of gluten administration did not lessen the likelihood of developing TIDA or TID when compared to gluten administration following weaned. Except for gluten introduction at 3 months or younger vs gluten introduction at later than 3 months, which raised the risk of TIDA in children at high risk of developing TID, the age of gluten introduction in babies had no influence on the risk of developing TID.

Conclusion: Recent data, primarily from observational studies, disagrees with the idea that early infant feeding habits, such as breastfeeding at gluten administration or infant age at gluten introduction, may reduce the chance of developing T1D. More strong results from randomized controlled trials are required.

NPublication

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a chronic metabolic condition that involves hyperglycemia caused by deficiencies in insulin production and/or insulin effect. Diabetes affects 537 million people globally today. This figure is expected to rise to 643 million in 2030 and 783 million in 2045, which is regarded frightening.¹ Type 1 diabetes (T1D) is a medical condition marked by insulin deficiency and hyperglycemia, which often begin during childhood when pancreatic beta-cells are damaged by autoimmune or non-autoimmune mechanisms.²

Many variables related to the environment, including dietary antibodies, as well as genetic risk factors, have been proposed to influence the epidemiology of type 1 diabetes. Although not all genes associated with risk have been discovered identified, only around 10-15% of people at genetic risk acquire type 1 diabetes.³ A recently published comprehensive individual patient data meta-analysis (43 studies, 9874 T1D participants) found a slight beneficial link between exclusive breastfeeding in the early weeks of life and T1D development (15% risk decrease in infants who had been exclusively breastfeeding for more than 2 weeks).⁴

The purpose of this systematic review was to determine if nursing at the time of gluten introduction, as well as the timing of gluten introduction, increase the risk of T1D development.

Methods

Prior conducting the keyword searches, the procedure underlying the systemic review in question was registered with PROSPERO (registration number: CRD42015024310). as long as discover suitable studies, Cochrane Library, MEDLINE, EMBASE, Web of Science, and CINAHL databases were searched up until July 2015. In March 2016, further searches of MEDLINE and EMBASE were conducted, which included the majority of the published findings. The search tactics did not include any date or language constraints. The outcomes of the search had been imported and de-duplicated into Endnote bibliographic software, yielding a total of 2592 items for the research team to review.

Correspondence addressed to the publisher and materials from scientific events were not accepted until the writers provided the relevant data. Papers of any kind were accepted, with a preference for randomized controlled trials (RCTs). Subjects had to be infants who were at high risk of developing T1D in the general community. Strategies that involved the ingestion of gluten-containing goods of any kind (cereals, flour, or any other gluten-containing food items) were eligible for evaluation. A placebo or no intervention/no exposure might be used as a comparative. T1D or T1DA (presence of T1D-specific autoantibodies) development was the major outcome measure.

We aimed to look for evidence of the probable effect of exclusive or any breastfeeding, as well as the length of breastfeeding, on the risk of developing T1D during the early step of establishing the methodology for this systematic review. The discovery of the aforementioned huge, individual patient data meta-analysis, which has recently been released;⁵ these are the important questions for an update of existing guidelines on optimum infant feeding practices.

The titles as well as the abstracts of the papers discovered by the search approach were separately checked by the two investigators (A.C., M.P.-L.). The entire text of possibly applicable research was retrieved and evaluated. Any differences of opinion were discussed within the research committee until a consensus was established. The reviewers independently assessed the risk of bias in the included studies. The Newcastle-Ottawa Scale,⁶ was used to evaluate observational research. This contains a "star system," whereby an experiment is rated on each of the following criteria: the group of researchers selection accurate representation (4 items, equal to 4 stars); group comparability (2 items); and ascertainment of either the exposure or result (3 things). The Newcastle-Ottawa Scale scores range from 0 to 9 (the greatest degree of excellence). The Cochrane Collaboration's approach for assessing risk of bias was employed for interventional studies.⁷

The Review Manager (RevMan) ([Computer application] Version 5.3. Copenhagen: The Nordic Cochrane Centre, The Cochrane Collaboration, 2014) was used to examine the data. The binary measure for individual studies was given as the risk ratio, the odds ratio (OR), or the hazard ratio (HR), all with a 95% confidence interval (CI) depending on the original publication. The mean with standard deviation or the median with ranges were used to represent continuous outcomes. We planned to pool adjusted ORs from primary studies for meta-analyses of observational studies. If no data for pooling was available, we just reported the results in narrative style. I² calculated statistical heterogeneity. A number of 0% implies that no heterogeneity was recorded, whereas greater numbers imply increasing heterogeneity. Because observational studies were included, substantial variation was predicted; hence, random effects models were utilized for pooling, if applicable. We utilized raw data with no adjustments for baseline differences or confounding variables. The last type was especially difficult for empirical studies. However, no significant differences between unadjusted and adjusted risk ratio/OR/HR were detected in the studies that provided adjusted risk ratio/OR/HR.

Results

The inclusion requirements were satisfied by nine publications. Results from five cohorts (DAISY, BABYDIAB, Australian Baby Diab, MIDIA, and All Babies in Southeast Sweden [ABIS]) were published in seven observational investigations including 14,315 individuals.⁸⁻¹² Two articles^{13,14} presented the findings of a single randomized controlled trial with 150 participants (BABYDIET research).

NPublication

Observational Research

The Diabetes Autoimmunity Study in the Young (DAISY)^{8,9} looked into the natural course of islet autoimmunity in 1835 babies and children who were at moderate to high risk of developing T1D (based on HLA status or having a first-degree relative with T1D). Participants have been tracked since 1994.

The BABYDIAB research, conducted in Germany, looked at the natural progression of islet autoimmunity including CD autoimmunity in the children of T1D parents. 1610 participants were followed up on for an average of 6.5 years (range: 9 months to 12.5 years). The ABIS research was conducted on a large population. The ABIS study sought to identify environmental variables that impact the development of autoimmune illness.^{10,11} 548 newborns with a first-degree relative with T1D were followed up on for an average of 5.7 years in the prospective, cohort Australian Baby Diab Study. Autoimmunity to islet cells was investigated.¹¹



Figure 1. Breastfeeding with gluten administration and the possibility for T1DA/T1D. Observational research. BF = breastfeeding; CI = confidence interval; T1D = type 1 diabetes; T1DA = type 1 diabetes autoimmunity.

Interventional Study

Infants at risk for T1D (at least two first-degree relatives with T1D or one first-degree relative having T1D along with one of five T1D-associated HLA genotypes) were randomly assigned to either early (6 months, N = 77) or delayed (12 months, N = 73) gluten introduction in the BABYDIET trial. T1D and T1D autoimmunity were examined after three years, and subsequently yearly for the next 8.1 years.^{15,16}

Breastfeeding During Gluten Administration

This result was evaluated in four observational investigations.^{8,9,10,11} Breastfeeding at the time of gluten administration was not proven to lessen the likelihood of getting T1DA or T1D when compared to gluten introduction after weaning (Fig. 1). Welander et al¹⁰ conducted that an HR of 1.2 (95% CI 0.5-2.7) for T1D, but no raw data were supplied.

Age of Gluten Administration

Observational Research

Figure 2 depicts the impact of gluten administration during different ages upon the risk for developing T1DA, as reported in 5 studies.^{8,9,10,11,12} The combined results of two trials demonstrated an increased risk of T1D among kids at a significant risk of developing T1D with gluten administration at 3 months or younger compared to gluten administration later than 3 months (OR 4.2, 95% CI 1.32-13.39). However, wide confidence intervals need care in interpreting the data. Aside than that, no major changes were discovered. Furthermore, the ABIS cohort analysis found that introducing gluten later than 6 months of age was associated with an increased risk of T1DA.¹⁰ Nonetheless, the finding was marginally significant (OR 1.4, 95% CI 1.0-1.8).

Three research examined the relationship between the time of gluten administration and the risk of T1D, but none found a link (Fig. 3).^{9,10,11}

Interventional Research

The BABYDIET trial found no disparity in the risk of developing T1DA or later T1D in children exposed to gluten initially (at 6 months) vs subsequently (at 12 months) (Fig. 4).^{15,16}

Discussion

Based on observational data, the primary outcomes of our investigation imply that breastfeeding at the time of gluten administration had no influence on the chance of developing T1D or T1DA. Furthermore, within the precise periods investigated in the included trials, the timing of gluten introduction into the infant's diet had no influence on the likelihood of developing T1D or T1DA. Because of these factors, it would be premature to advise that a future advice on gluten introduction in the context of the risk of T1DA be formulated based on this data.

NNPublication

The adoption of rigorous methods adopted by the Cochrane Collaboration is an essential strength of this systematic review and metaanalysis. To eliminate bias, we used a variety of strategies, including a complete research search, predetermined requirements for methodological review and analysis, no constraints on language or year of publication, and efforts to uncover unpublished trials. Important limitations of our analysis include the availability of mostly observational research and the modest number of investigations. Furthermore, no information on the quantity of gluten was available in these investigations. This creates a significant problem for caregivers who are interested in understanding not merely when gluten ought to be given to their kid who is at risk of T1D, but also what amounts are required as well as how the quantity should be increased (dosage and intervals). According to recent findings from a Swedish case-control research, high-dose gluten intake is related with an increased risk of CD at the age of 2 years.¹⁷ These questions, however, remain unresolved for T1D, which has a genetic basis with CD.



Figure 2. The intake of gluten and the risk of T1DA. Observational studies. ABIS = All Babies in Southeast Sweden; CI = confidence interval; T1DA = type 1 diabetes autoimmunity.

Despite the methodology and accuracy of the observational studies examined was usually excellent, the relationships that were observed are insufficient for determinism to be established, and potential biases and confounding factors may only be evaluated substantially. As a result, RCT findings are required. Despite assigning all infants registered in experiments to breastfeeding or infant formula might be unethical, establishing the consequences of earlier versus later gluten implementation in RCTs can be accomplished and could end up with various recommendations, as has been demonstrated most recently for gluten administration and CD.^{18,19} The maximum further investigation period in the studies considered was 8 years. As a result of this, our findings are confined to the time periods examined. Long-term follow-up studies are required.

T1D is a chronic illness that has a significant impact upon health as well as quality of life, resulting in the advent of underlying issues during the course of the disease. These problems include retinopathy, nephropathy, neuropathy, and, most notably, cardiovascular illness, which has a tenfold increased risk of development and less beneficial medical results in T1D patients compared to nondiabetic patients.^{20,21} These issues add to T1D's significant health and economic impact. In the United States, the illness is projected to cost more than \$14 billion every year.²²









There are no preventative mechanisms in place, despite significant organizational, research, and financial efforts. Establishing early dietary modification as a medical condition control strategy would make it possible for population-wide deployment. Reducing or at least postponing the onset of this devastating, continuous illness would have a significant health impact. As a result, the idea that early newborn intake might reduce the prevalence of T1D was an appealing alternative that made its way into prior infant feeding guidelines.²³ However, our systematic study could not back up these statements.

In conclusion, the impact of early dietary consumption on the eventual emergence of illnesses, including T1D, still unknown. Available data, mainly from studies of observation, does not support the notion that early baby feeding behaviors, such as breastfeeding at gluten introduction and infant age at gluten administration, may reduce the chance of developing T1D. More strong data, especially RCT data, are required. Until further evidence is available, none of these behaviors can be considered or suggested as a way to reduce the risk of having T1D.

DAFTAR PUSTAKA

- [1]. Çiçekli, İ. and Durusoy, R., 2022. Breastfeeding, nutrition and type 1 diabetes: a case-control study in Izmir, Turkey. *International Breastfeeding Journal*, 17(1), pp.1-11.
- [2]. International diabetes federation. Diabetes atlas 2021. 10th ed. Brussels: International Diabetes Federation; 2021. https://diabetesatlas.org/idfawp/ resource-fles/2021/07/IDF Atlas 10th Edition 2021.pdf.
- [3]. Redondo MJ, Concannon P. Genetics of type 1 diabetes comes of age. Diabetes Care. 2020;43:16-8. https://doi.org/10.2337/dci19-0049.
- [4]. Cardwell CR, Stene LC, Ludvigsson J, et al. Breast-feeding and childhood-onset type 1 diabetes: a pooled analysis of individual participant data from 43 observational studies. Diabetes Care 2012;35:2215–25.
- [5]. Cardwell CR, Stene LC, Ludvigsson J, et al. Breast-feeding and childhood-onset type 1 diabetes: a pooled analysis of individual participant data from 43 observational studies. Diabetes Care 2012;35:2215–25.
- [6]. Wells GA, Shea B, O'Connell D, et al. The Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) for assessing the quality of nonrandomised studies in metaanalyses. Ottawa, ON: Ottawa Hospital Research Institute. www.ohri.ca/programs/clinical_epidemiology/oxford.asp. Published 2009. Accessed March 1, 2016.
- [7]. Higgins JPT, Green S (editors). Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions Version 5.1.0 [updated March 2011]. The Cochrane Collaboration; 2011. www.cochrane-handbook.org. Accessed March 1, 2016.
- [8]. Norris JM, Barriga K, Klingensmith G, et al. Timing of initial cereal exposure in infancy and risk of islet autoimmunity. JAMA 2003;290:1713–20.
- [9]. Frederiksen B, Kroehl M, Lamb MM, et al. Infant exposures and development of type 1 diabetes mellitus: the Diabetes Autoimmunity Study in the Young (DAISY). JAMA Pediatr 2013;167:808–15.
- [10]. Welander A, Montgomery SM, Ludvigsson J, et al. Infectious disease at gluten introduction and risk of childhood diabetes mellitus. J Pediatr 2014;165:326–31.
- [11]. Wahlberg J, Vaarala O, Ludvigsson J. the ABIS-study group. Dietary risk factors for the emergence of type 1 diabetes-related autoantibodies in 2 1/2-year-old Swedish children. Br J Nutr 2006;95:603–8.
- [12]. Lund-Blix NA, Stene LC, Rasmussen T, et al. Infant feeding in relation to islet autoimmunity and type 1 diabetes in genetically susceptible children: the MIDIA Study. Diabetes Care 2015;38:257–63.
- [13]. Hummel S, Pflu^{*}ger M, Hummel M, et al. Primary dietary intervention study to reduce the risk of islet autoimmunity in children at increased risk for type 1 diabetes: the BABYDIET study. Diabetes Care 2011;34:1301–5.
- [14]. Beyerlein A, Chmiel R, Hummel S, et al. Timing of gluten introduction and islet autoimmunity in young children: updated results from the BABYDIET study. Diabetes Care 2014;37:e194–195.
- [15]. Hummel S, Pflu"ger M, Hummel M, et al. Primary dietary intervention study to reduce the risk of islet autoimmunity in children at increased risk for type 1 diabetes: the BABYDIET study. Diabetes Care 2011;34:1301–5.
- [16]. Beyerlein A, Chmiel R, Hummel S, et al. Timing of gluten introduction and islet autoimmunity in young children: updated results from the BABYDIET study. Diabetes Care 2014;37:e194–195.

NN Publication

- [17]. Aronsson CA, Lee HS, Koletzko S, et al., The TEDDY Study Group. Effects of gluten intake on risk of celiac disease: a case-control study on a Swedish birth cohort. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol 2016;14:403–9.
- [18]. Vriezinga SL, Auricchio R, Bravi E, et al. Randomized feeding intervention in infants at high risk for celiac disease. N Engl J Med 2014;371:1304–15.
- [19]. Lionetti E, Castellaneta S, Francavilla R, et al. Introduction of gluten, HLA status, and the risk of celiac disease in children. N Engl J Med 2014;371:1295–303.
- [20]. Orchard TJ, Costacou T, Kretowski A, et al. Type 1 diabetes and coronary artery disease. Diabetes Care 2006;29:2528-38.
- [21]. Eckel RH, Eisenbarth GS. Autoimmune diabetes inflames the heart. Sci Transl Med 2012;4:138fs18
- [22]. Tao B, Pietropaolo M, Atkinson M, et al. Estimating the cost of type 1 diabetes in the US: a propensity score matching method. PLoS One 2010;5:11501
- [23]. Agostoni C, Decsi T, Fewtrell M, et al., ESPGHAN Committee on Nutrition. Complementary feeding: a commentary by the ESPGHAN Committee on Nutrition. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 2008;46:99–110.