

1
2
3



4
5
6
7
8

9 2026 EASD evidence-based clinical
10 practice guideline for assessing and
11 managing diabetes distress among
12 adults with type 1 diabetes and type 2
13 diabetes

Authors

J Speight¹, N Hermanns², W Jensen³, K Kanc⁴, T Karagiannis⁵, M Law³, A Mocan⁶,
F Rutters⁷, J Sturt⁸, F Zaccardi⁹, RIG Holt¹⁰

1. The Australian Centre for Behavioural Research in Diabetes, Diabetes Victoria and Deakin University, Melbourne, Australia
2. Research Institute of the Diabetes Academy Mergentheim (FIDAM), Department of Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy, University of Bamberg, Bamberg, Germany
3. European Association for the Study of Diabetes
4. jazindiabetes (Diabetes & Me), Diabetes Centre, Ljubljana Slovenia
5. Clinical Research and Evidence-Based Medicine Unit, Second Medical Department, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Greece
6. Center for Diabetes, Nutrition and Metabolic Diseases, Emergency Clinical County Hospital Cluj-Napoca, Romania
7. Amsterdam UMC, location VUmc, Department of Epidemiology and Data Science, Amsterdam Public Health Research Institute, Amsterdam, the Netherlands
8. Florence Nightingale Faculty of Nursing, Midwifery & Palliative Care, King's College London
9. Leicester Real World Evidence Unit, Leicester Diabetes Centre, University of Leicester, United Kingdom
10. Human Development and Health, Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton, Southampton UK & University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust, Southampton, UK

Co-corresponding authors

Professor Jane Speight, The Australian Centre for Behavioural Research in Diabetes, Diabetes Victoria and Deakin University, Australia. E: jspeight@acbrd.org.au

Professor Richard Holt, Human Development and Health, Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton, Southampton SO16 6YD, UK. E: r.i.g.holt@soton.ac.uk

Publication approval



This clinical guideline was approved by the Guideline Oversight Committee of the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD). The EASD is satisfied that the guideline recommendations have been developed systematically based on the best available scientific evidence.

Disclaimer

This clinical guideline was developed to provide evidence-based recommendations to improve the quality of care and outcomes of adults with type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes. The Good Practice Statements and GRADE recommendations are based on the best evidence available at the time the guideline was prepared, as evaluated by methodologists, and experts in psychology, medicine and nursing, and experts with lived experience. While the aim of this guideline is to enable healthcare professionals and people living with diabetes to make evidence-informed decisions about appropriate and effective care, the recommendations are generalised. Following the recommendations in the guideline does not guarantee resolution of diabetes distress. Healthcare professionals are advised to make clinical decisions, in partnership with the person living with diabetes, on a case-by-case basis. Effective application of the recommendations will require consideration of the specific context, needs, priorities and preferences of the person living with diabetes; as well as the availability of services and resources in their healthcare setting and country.

While the authors and the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD) have made every reasonable effort to compile an accurate evidence-based guideline, they cannot guarantee the accuracy or completeness in every respect. Neither the EASD nor the authors make any warranty, express or implied, regarding the guideline, and shall not be liable for any direct or indirect consequences of its implementation.

Suggested citation

Speight J, Hermanns N, Jensen W, Kanc K, Karagiannis T, Law M, Mocan A, Rutters F, Sturt J, Zaccardi F, Holt RIG. 2026 EASD evidence-based clinical practice guideline for assessing and managing diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes. European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD), Düsseldorf, 2026.

Copyright information

This guideline is protected by copyright. © 2026 European Association for the Study of Diabetes. All rights reserved.

Access

80 The full guideline is freely available at www.easd.org

81 The EASD guideline standard operating procedure acknowledges the need for adoption,
82 adaptation and *de novo* development of recommendations according to the setting
83 where the guideline is being implemented. Such adaptations must adhere to the
84 GRADE-adolopment approach and receive approval from the EASD Guideline Oversight
85 Committee and EASD Board. All external translations or adaptations must clearly
86 acknowledge that the original guideline is the work and intellectual property of the
87 EASD. This approach is intended to promote the global dissemination of EASD
88 guidelines while maintaining the authenticity and recognition of the original documents.

89	Table of Contents	
90	Foreword by the President of the EASD.....	8
91	Foreword by the Chair of the EASD Guidelines Oversight Committee	10
92	Foreword by Lived Experience Experts	12
93	Foreword by the Co-Chairs of the Diabetes Distress Guideline Development Panel.....	13
94	Abbreviations and acronyms.....	15
95	Executive Summary	16
96	Objective.....	16
97	Community Engagement	16
98	Methods and Process.....	16
99	Clinical Questions	16
100	Recommendations	16
101	Strengths and Limitations.....	19
102	What the Guideline Does Not Address	19
103	Funding.....	19
104	Editorial Independence and Disclosures.....	19
105	Implementation	20
106	Keywords.....	20
107	Introduction	21
108	Background	21
109	Table 1: Validated measures for assessing diabetes distress among adults with type	
110	1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes	23
111	Objective.....	24
112	Users of this guideline	25
113	Methods	25
114	Guideline Development Panel.....	25
115	Management of conflicts of interest	26
116	Formulation of clinical questions	27
117	Categories of clinical practice recommendations.....	28
118	Table 2: Categories of EASD clinical practice recommendations	28
119	GRADE Recommendations	28
120	Table 3: Levels of certainty of evidence according to GRADE methodology	29

121	Table 4: Strength and direction of recommendations based on the GRADE 'Evidence	
122	to Decision' framework	30
123	Good Practice Statements	30
124	Recommendations based on Ungraded Evidence	30
125	Assessment of diabetes distress	31
126	Management of diabetes distress.....	32
127	Evidence synthesis	32
128	GRADE certainty of evidence assessments	32
129	Formulation of recommendations	33
130	Writing of the guideline	34
131	Review of the guideline	34
132	Dissemination plan and future update.....	35
133	Administrative support	35
134	Clinical practice recommendations	36
135	Table 5: Good Practice Statements for the assessment of diabetes distress among	
136	adults with type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes	36
137	Table 6: GRADE and ungraded recommendations for the management of diabetes	
138	distress among adults with type 1 diabetes	37
139	Table 7: GRADE and ungraded recommendations for the management of diabetes	
140	distress among adults with type 2 diabetes	38
141	Assessment of diabetes distress	39
142	Management of diabetes distress.....	43
143	Type 1 diabetes	43
144	Type 2 diabetes	52
145	Discussion.....	61
146	Acknowledgements	64
147	Data availability	64
148	Funding	64
149	Role of sponsor or funder	65
150	Authors' relationships and activities	65
151	Authors' roles and contributions.....	66
152	References	67
153	Supplementary materials.....	85

154	Supplementary Table 1: Guideline Development Panel members	85
155	Supplementary material A: Evidence Synthesis report	87
156	Supplementary material B: Bridging the evidence from the rapid realist review	
157	concepts to the Good Practice Statements.	87
158	Supplementary material C: GRADE Evidence Profiles for the management clinical	
159	questions	87
160	Supplementary material D: RIGHT checklist	87
161	Supplementary material E: AGREE II score sheet.....	87
162	Supplementary material F: GRADE evidence to decision (EtD) frameworks for the	
163	management clinical questions	87
164		
165		

Foreword by the President of the EASD

As a practising clinician in diabetes for over 35 years, I have seen the attitude towards diabetes of healthcare professionals, the general public and people living with diabetes themselves change substantially over time. Diabetes has evolved from a scary, obscure disease with lots of taboos, to a ‘can do’ situation, a so-called ‘condition’ rather than a disease even. And, of course, we as healthcare professionals have contributed to that, with our enthusiasm on being able to provide people with diabetes with fantastic, life-saving medications – like insulin, SGLT2 inhibitors and GLP-1 receptor agonists – and amazing technologies – like insulin pumps, capillary blood glucose monitors, sensors and, more recently, the automated insulin delivery systems. We believe these tools have dramatically changed the lives of people with diabetes – and, of course, they have!

However, in our enthusiasm, we have forgotten that the distress around living with diabetes has not decreased. For many, I would even say, it has increased.

My older patients remember the good old times, where they just injected their insulin twice a day, never measured glucose and lived happy blissfully ignorant lives, only meeting me three times a year.... with, sadly, dramatic health consequences later on. But, the acute distress of diabetes was actually less for many. Now, responsibility lies much more in the hands of the person (and the family) living with diabetes and awareness of the condition is there, all the time. I would even dare to say that this constant awareness and feeling of ‘it’s in my hands whether I do a good job with my diabetes or not’ has put more distress in the lives of many than before. Being aware of this and building it into our care of people with diabetes is crucial – it’s called clinical care for a reason.

The present guideline is evidence-based and, as guidelines go, it may make practising clinicians, like myself, raise their eyebrows sometimes when a recommendation is bold and not what we do in clinic. We must remember that the guideline represents what the evidence shows and should guide our clinical practice and inform further research. The bottom line of good clinical practice is still listening to the person with diabetes sitting in front of (or better next to) you and offering the personalised support they need to live long, healthy and happy lives with diabetes, until we find a cure!

I am immensely proud of presenting you with this first EASD clinical guideline, which has been the fruit of hard work by many. I thank the members of the EASD for suggesting this topic, the Guideline Oversight Committee for picking this topic for the first guideline and the Guideline Development Panel for a fantastic job!

Professor Chantal Mathieu

President: EASD

203 Professor of Medicine, Endocrinology, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven and University
204 Hospital Gasthuisberg, Leuven, Belgium

Foreword by the Chair of the EASD Guidelines Oversight Committee

The publication of this first European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD) guideline is a landmark moment for our Association and for the diabetes community. What began three years ago as an ambitious vision has now become a reality, thanks to the trust, support, and commitment of many colleagues. I wish to begin by expressing my deepest gratitude to the EASD Board, under the leadership of Professor Chantal Mathieu, for the confidence they placed on me when I was appointed to chair the Guidelines Oversight Committee, for embracing the Committee's proposals, and for providing the human and financial resources that made this project possible. Without their foresight, courage, and trust, this milestone would not have been achieved.

The Guidelines Oversight Committee was entrusted with building a framework for the production of trustworthy, evidence-based guidelines. Guided by formal training in internationally recognised standards, the Guideline Oversight Committee established a robust and pragmatic methodology, strict rules for the declaration and management of conflicts of interest, and transparent procedures for the appointment of content experts to the guideline development panels. Open calls to the EASD membership ensured that the topics chosen reflected the community's priorities, and similar processes enabled identification of outstanding evidence synthesis teams, selected through independent external review. A central principle throughout has been the meaningful involvement of people with lived experience of diabetes, whose perspectives are embedded in every stage of the guideline development process. From these efforts emerged the EASD Standard Operating Procedures for guidelines, a sustainable and transparent model designed to deliver at least one new guideline each year, starting with this inaugural publication.

No framework, however, can succeed without the tireless support of those who sustain it day by day. The dedication of the EASD Office has been instrumental in this journey, providing indispensable organisational and logistical assistance to both GOC and the guideline development panels. I wish to extend my warmest thanks to Petra, Natasha, Mercy, and Manuela for their professionalism, efficiency, and kindness, which have been invaluable at every stage.

Above all, this achievement belongs to the first Guideline Development Panel and its Evidence Synthesis Team. Their pioneering work set the standard for all that will follow. Under the skilful leadership of Professor Jane Speight and Professor Richard Holt (co-chairs) and the guidance of two excellent methodologists (Dr Thomas Karagiannis and Dr Francesco Zaccardi), the GDP – comprising content experts (including people living with diabetes, clinicians and researchers) and evidence synthesis specialists – worked with rigour, patience, and commitment to transform a framework into a guideline. Their

243 dedication and collegiality ensured that what we present today is not only scientifically
244 robust but also clinically relevant and person-centred.

245 Diabetes distress is not a marginal concern but a central element of living with diabetes.
246 Despite major advances in therapies and technologies, many people continue to
247 experience significant emotional and psychological burden in managing the relentless
248 demands of this condition. Therefore, assessing and managing diabetes distress is as
249 vital as assessing and managing glucose levels – and it is this recognition that makes the
250 present guideline so important for both clinical practice and future research.

251 This first EASD guideline is both the culmination of a demanding process and the
252 beginning of a new era. It reflects the values of transparency, inclusiveness, and
253 scientific integrity that will guide all future work. For me personally, it has been a
254 profound privilege to be part of this endeavour and to collaborate with such remarkable
255 colleagues. With gratitude and pride, I commend this inaugural guideline to the
256 community it is intended to serve, confident that it will be the first of many to follow.

257

258 **Professor Apostolos Tsapas**

259 Chair: EASD Guidelines Oversight Committee

260 Chair: EASD Committee on Clinical Affairs

261 Professor in Diabetes and Internal Medicine, School of Medicine, Aristotle University of
262 Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Greece

263

Foreword by Lived Experience Experts

What this guideline means to us, as people living with diabetes

Diabetes is a chronic condition and a mental challenge. Day in and day out, we're on constant watch: checking glucose levels, thinking about food, calculating insulin doses or other medications and juggling other invisible diabetes-related tasks that always take up some of our brain space. This constant vigilance creates a real emotional burden.

Diabetes distress shows itself through persistent worries, fatigue, nagging guilt, and feeling burnt out with diabetes demands. Healthcare professionals sometimes mistake these for depression. But it's different – these feelings relate specifically to managing a condition that never gives us a break and which we're handling alone for most of the time. It's completely natural that sometimes it becomes stressful and overwhelming.

We need a shift in how healthcare professionals approach people with diabetes. Mental health isn't separate from physical health – they directly impact each other. Instead of struggling silently, we need space to talk openly about these burdens and receive effective support.

These guidelines are crucial because they help ensure we're seen as whole people, not just clinical cases with a disease to be managed. They establish a standard approach, so our healthcare professionals know what to look for and how to support us, regardless of which clinic we attend. With these guidelines, healthcare appointments should routinely include questions about how we're coping emotionally, not just reviewing our medications or monitoring our latest numbers.

Most healthcare professionals now acknowledge the psychological impact of diabetes, but many feel that addressing these challenges is outside their expertise. These guidelines give them practical, evidence-based recommendations and clear pathways, bridging the gap between recognising our emotional struggles and actually helping us with them.

We both live with diabetes and know first-hand how tough it can be emotionally. That's why being part of this guideline process from the very beginning has meant so much to us. It's not something you see every day—real collaboration between people with lived experience and professionals. And it works! When we come together like this, we can create solutions that truly make a difference. Our hope is that these guidelines will be widely adopted and lead to real improvements in the care people with diabetes receive—finally addressing a gap that's been there for far too long.

Walther Jensen

Michelle Law

Foreword by the Co-Chairs of the Diabetes Distress Guideline Development Panel

As co-chairs of the EASD's diabetes distress guideline development panel, we are honoured to present this clinical guideline on assessing and managing diabetes distress among adults living with type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes.

The timing of this guideline is significant. The launch marks 30 years since the publication of the first tool to assess diabetes distress: the Problem Areas in Diabetes (PAID) scale. Over the past three decades, we have witnessed the development, validation and translation of several diabetes distress assessment tools, a growing body of evidence supporting interventions to reduce diabetes distress, and increasing recognition of the critical role of emotional and psychological well-being in diabetes care, self-care and outcomes.

Today, person-centred care is widely endorsed in clinical guidelines and embraced by clinical teams. This creates both the opportunity and imperative for a guideline that focuses specifically on the emotional burden of living with and managing diabetes. In the modern era, the "24/7" nature of diabetes management has intensified, making the need to acknowledge and address diabetes distress more urgent than ever.

We are proud that the EASD has chosen diabetes distress for its first-ever evidence-based clinical guideline. This decision affirms the importance of emotional health alongside physical health for people with diabetes.

This guideline is the result of a collaborative, multidisciplinary effort involving people living with diabetes, clinical and health psychologists, medical specialists, nurses, methodologists and evidence synthesis specialists, supported by the EASD Office team. Together, we formulated key clinical questions, identified and synthesised the best available evidence, and translated it into practical evidence-based recommendations to standardise clinical care and improve outcomes. From the outset, the guideline development panel has included two people with lived experience of diabetes. Their contributions have been invaluable for grounding our conversations and shaping our interpretation of evidence to ensure that the recommendations are relevant and meet the needs of people living with diabetes and the healthcare professionals who support them.

On behalf of the guideline development panel, we commend this guideline to you. We hope that it will empower healthcare professionals to routinely assess and address the emotional burden of living with diabetes in the healthcare setting, ultimately improving the experiences and outcomes of adults living with type 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes across Europe and beyond.

Professor Jane Speight CPsychol FBPSS

Co-Chair: EASD Diabetes Distress Guideline Development Panel

Chair: PsychoSocial Aspects of Diabetes (PSAD) Study Group, a reference group to the EASD on matters related to the psychosocial aspects of diabetes

Foundation Director: The Australian Centre for Behavioural Research in Diabetes, a partnership between Diabetes Victoria and Deakin University, Australia

Professor Richard IG Holt

Co-Chair: EASD Diabetes Distress Guideline Development Panel

Co-Chair: EASD Guidelines Oversight Committee

Chair: EASD Committee on Clinical Affairs

Professor in Diabetes and Endocrinology, Human Development and Health, Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton, UK

Honorary Consultant Physician, University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust, UK

336 **Abbreviations and acronyms**

AGREE II	Appraisal of Guidelines, Research and Evaluation II
CBT	Cognitive behavioural therapy
CGM	Continuous glucose monitoring
DDS	Diabetes Distress Scale
EtD	Evidence to Decision
EST	Evidence Synthesis Team
GDP	Guideline Development Panel
GIN	Guideline International Network
GOC	Guideline Oversight Committee
GRADE	Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development, and Evaluation
MCID	Minimum clinically important difference
NAM	National Academy of Medicine
PAID	Problem Areas in Diabetes
PICOT	Participants, Intervention, Comparator, Outcomes, Type of studies
RCT	Randomised controlled trial
RIGHT	Reporting of Items for practice Guidelines in HealThcare
RoB	Risk of Bias

337

Executive Summary

Objective

Recognising the emotional burden of diabetes as a critical component of care, the aim of this guideline is to standardise the assessment and management of diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes.

Community Engagement

From inception, the Guideline Development Panel (GDP) included a person living with type 1 diabetes and a person living with type 2 diabetes. Their contributions shaped the clinical questions, interpretation of evidence, and formulation of recommendations, fostering a guideline that reflects the real-world needs and priorities of people living with diabetes. Further input was invited via public consultation after the draft guideline was presented.

Methods and Process

The guideline was developed in accordance with the EASD standard operating procedure, the GRADE (Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation) methodology, and the Reporting of Items for practice Guidelines in Healthcare (RIGHT) statement. The GDP included multidisciplinary experts, methodologists, and lived experience representatives. For the management of diabetes distress, GRADE recommendations were developed based on a commissioned systematic review and meta-analyses of randomised controlled trials (RCTs). Clinical questions were structured using the PICOT (Participants, Intervention, Comparator, Outcome, Type of study) framework. For the assessment of diabetes distress, Good Practice Statements were informed by *de novo* realist reviews.

Clinical Questions

This guideline addresses two domains:

- Assessment: How and when to assess diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes?
- Management: What is the effectiveness of psychological, psychoeducational, educational, peer support, and technology-based interventions for reducing diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes?

Recommendations

Asking about and assessing diabetes distress should be a routine part of effective, person-centred care (see Good Practice Statements A1 to A8 below). For the management of diabetes distress, conditional recommendations support psychological

372 and psychoeducational interventions. Recommendations vary by diabetes type and
 373 intervention category (see GRADE recommendations M1.1 to M1.9 and M2.1 to M2.9
 374 below).

#	Good Practice Statements for the assessment of diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes
A.1	Healthcare professionals should discuss the emotional side of diabetes at every consultation as an integral component of person-centred diabetes care.
A.2	Healthcare professionals should <i>ask</i> about diabetes distress using open-ended questions, framed around the emotional burden or challenges of living with diabetes.
A.3	Healthcare professionals should <i>assess</i> diabetes distress using a valid and reliable tool.
A.4	Healthcare professionals should assess and monitor diabetes distress at regular intervals, as part of the annual cycle of care.
A.5	Healthcare professionals should acknowledge and discuss the person's assessment, irrespective of the findings, as part of effective, person-centred care.
A.6	Healthcare professionals should record the findings of the diabetes distress assessment in the clinical notes, and discuss them with relevant members of the healthcare team.
A.7	When diabetes distress is identified, healthcare professionals should make a joint plan with the person living with diabetes about next steps.
A.8	General and diabetes-specialist healthcare professionals should have the competency to offer psychological support to those experiencing diabetes distress and know how to enlist specialist support when it is needed.

375

#	GRADE recommendations for the management of diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes	GRADE Certainty of evidence
M1.1	We suggest using psychological interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Low ⊕⊕○○
M1.2	We do not suggest using psychoeducational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M1.3	We do not suggest using educational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Ungraded

M1.4	We do not suggest using peer support interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Ungraded
M1.5	We do not suggest using psychological interventions instead of psychoeducational interventions or vice versa to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Ungraded
M1.6	We do not suggest using psychological interventions instead of educational interventions or vice versa to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M1.7	We do not suggest psychoeducational interventions instead of educational interventions or vice versa to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Low ⊕⊕○○
M1.8	We suggest using continuous glucose monitoring (CGM), rather than capillary glucose monitoring (finger prick), to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Moderate ⊕⊕⊕○
M1.9	We do not suggest using automated insulin delivery (AID) systems, rather than no use of AID, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Moderate ⊕⊕⊕○

376

#	GRADE Recommendations for the management of diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes	GRADE Certainty of evidence
M2.1	We suggest using psychological interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M2.2	We suggest using psychoeducational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M2.3	We suggest using educational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Low ⊕⊕○○
M2.4	We do not suggest using peer support interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Low ⊕⊕○○
M2.5	We suggest using either psychological or psychoeducational interventions to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Ungraded

M2.6	We suggest using either psychological or educational interventions to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M2.7	We suggest using psychoeducational interventions, rather than educational interventions, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M2.8	We suggest using educational interventions rather than peer support interventions to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Low ⊕⊕○○
M2.9	We do not suggest using continuous glucose monitoring (CGM), rather than capillary glucose monitoring (finger prick), to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○

377

378 Strengths and Limitations

379 Strengths include rigorous methodology, stakeholder engagement, and a focus on
380 person-centred care. Limitations include the scarcity of high-quality RCTs for many
381 interventions, especially in type 1 diabetes. Some studies may have been missed if
382 diabetes distress was reported only as a secondary outcome.

383 What the Guideline Does Not Address

384 This guideline does not cover diabetes distress among children or adolescents with type
385 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes or among adults with gestational diabetes or rarer types of
386 diabetes. Nor does it address common mental health conditions, such as depression or
387 anxiety, which may also be relevant to consider as part of person-centred care. It does
388 not provide detailed implementation protocols for specific interventions.

389 Funding

390 The guideline was funded by the EASD, which supported the conduct of the systematic
391 review, the methodologists, travel and subsistence for GDP members to attend two 2-
392 day meetings, and a token honorarium to the two lived experience experts. The rapid
393 realist reviews, underpinning the Good Practice Statements, were jointly funded by the
394 UK National Institute of Health Research and Diabetes UK, as part of the D-Stress study.
395 No industry funding was involved. Additional support was provided by Diabetes Victoria
396 and Deakin University for one of the co-chairs.

397 Editorial Independence and Disclosures

398 Conflicts of interest were managed in accordance with EASD Standard Operating
399 Procedure for the development of clinical practice guidelines and the RIGHT statement.

400 All GDP members disclosed relevant interests, which were reviewed and managed by
401 the EASD Guidelines Oversight Committee.

402 Implementation

403 Implementation will require training, system-level support, and integration into routine
404 care. The guideline provides a foundation for improving emotional support in diabetes
405 care and may be adapted to local contexts using the GRADE-ADOLOPMENT approach.
406 Dissemination will include peer-reviewed publication, open access report via the EASD
407 website, and plain language, accessible formats.

408

409 Keywords

410 Diabetes distress, type 1 diabetes, type 2 diabetes, mental health, guideline, GRADE

411

Introduction

Background

Diabetes distress refers to the emotional strain or burden that arises from living with and dealing with the daily demands of diabetes [1, 2]. Adults with type 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes think about their condition, on average, every 12 minutes, varying by treatment type [3]. This can include worries, fears, guilt, frustration, or sadness due to the relentless management of medications, monitoring, low or high glucose levels, food, physical activity, other people's reactions, problem solving, coping with setbacks, and the possibility of long-term complications.

Meta-analyses show that elevated diabetes distress is common, affecting about one in three adults living with type 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes [4]. Rates appear to be similar across Europe, the USA and Australia (where most of the published assessments have taken place). More recently, it has been suggested that diabetes distress is more ubiquitous, with up to 80% of adults with diabetes endorsing at least one 'problem area', which may give rise to diabetes distress [5]. Regardless of the actual population prevalence, diabetes distress occurs when the individual perceives that the challenges of living with or managing the condition outweigh their ability to cope [6, 7]. Over periods of nine or eighteen months, the incidence of diabetes distress has been estimated at approximately 50% [8, 9]. Diabetes distress may be more prominent or more likely at or soon after diagnosis, when there is a change in treatment regimen or diagnosis of complications, or when there is a challenge to coping resources or social support (e.g. due to other life stressors, relationship or financial problems, or bereavement).

Diabetes distress is distinct from depression or other mood disorders, as it is not a diagnosable mental health condition and requires a different therapeutic approach. However, when diabetes distress becomes severe or chronic, it can negatively affect mental health, sometimes co-occurring with anxiety or depression, and can affect self-care, glycaemic indicators, and quality of life [2, 10–12]. A complete absence of diabetes distress may not necessarily be the ideal state, as it may indicate an inability to acknowledge relevant concerns or to ask for help. However, if left unaddressed, too much diabetes distress can seriously affect both mental and physical health. People who experience high levels of diabetes distress are more likely to develop depression and are less likely to recover from depressive symptoms once they appear [13, 14]. In addition, diabetes distress seems to be a risk factor for reduced quality of life [2, 15], elevated morbidity and premature mortality [16, 17].

As diabetes distress negatively impacts mental health and the long-term course of diabetes, it is crucial to identify individuals with high diabetes distress in a timely manner. Early recognition offers a strong opportunity to prevent more serious mental

449 health problems, to reduce the risk of long-term complications or their progression, to
450 reduce the risk of early death, and to support better quality of life [2, 4, 18, 19].

451 Diabetes distress has been operationalised in various ways [20]. For the purposes of
452 formal assessment in clinical practice or trials, there are two key validated tools or
453 person-reported outcome measures (PROMs): the Problem Areas in Diabetes (PAID)
454 scale [21] and the Diabetes Distress Scales for type 1 diabetes distress [7] and type 2
455 diabetes [22] Although there are some differences between these tools, which may
456 affect the selection of one measure over another in given healthcare settings, all have
457 satisfactory psychometric properties, show strong correlations with one another [23],
458 and are available in several languages. Table 1 shows that there are several validated
459 versions, including short forms, of each tool [24, 25].

Table 1: Validated measures for assessing diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes

<i>Name</i>	<i>Variations</i>	<i>Comments</i>	<i>Scoring / interpretation</i>
Diabetes Distress Scale (DDS or DDS17)	DDS2, T1-DDS, T2-DDS	DDS2: Screening version for Diabetes Distress consisting of 2 items (Items 6 and Item 14 of the DDS). Several versions available, varying in numbers of items (from 2 to 28; some versions are specific to type 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes (T1 or T2)).	DDS2: Scale scores range 1-6; elevated diabetes distress is indicated by ≥ 2 of mean item scores [8]; if positive, use full DDS17 [22]. DDS17 or T2-DDS: Scale scores range 1-6, mean item score of all items; < 2.0 =little or no distress, $2.0-2.9$ =moderate distress, ≥ 3.0 =high distress [1, 26]. T1-DDS: Total of 28 Items [7]. Score ranges are the same as the T2-DDS [27].
Problem Areas in Diabetes scale (PAID or PAID-20)	PAID-1, PAID-5, PAID-11, PAID-SF	Several versions available, varying in numbers of items (PAID-20 has 20 items, PAID-11 has 11 items, PAID-5 has 5 items and PAID-1 is a single item).	For all versions, items are rated from “no problem” to “serious problem”. For the PAID-20, the sum score is transformed to a scale of 0 to 100; Interpretation: < 17 =no or little distress, ≥ 17 and < 40 =moderate distress, ≥ 40 =high distress [21, 28]. Older classifications also mention cut-off scores of 30 to 33 as indicators of moderate distress [29, 30]. PAID-5: Includes 5 items (#3, 6, 12, 16, 19 of the PAID-20). The total scale range is 0 to 20. A cut-off score of 8 is suggested to define elevated distress [25]. This corresponds with 40% of the total scale range and is in line with the cut-off of 40 for the PAID-20. PAID-1 (#12 of the PAID-20): A score of ≥ 3 indicates elevated diabetes distress [25]. Given that all other versions of the PAID are scored 0-100, a cut-off of ≥ 40 can be interpreted accordingly as high diabetes distress.
Diabetes Distress Assessment Scales (DDAS)	T1-DDAS, T2-DDAS	Both scales include a ‘core scale’ (i.e. items that assess the emotional experience) and a ‘source scale’ (i.e. common sources that may be driving the distress). The scales have been validated and published [31][32].	

DDAS: Diabetes Distress Assessment Scale; DDS: Diabetes Distress Scale; PAID: Problem Areas in Diabetes; SF: Short Form; T1: type 1 diabetes; T2: type 2 diabetes.

Importantly, when diabetes distress is identified, there are effective interventions for health professionals to consider [1, 12, 33, 34]. As noted above, diabetes distress can include negative emotions related to treatment regimen, food and eating, low or high glucose levels, worries about the future, social support (interpersonal) and relationships with health professionals. Accordingly, interventions to manage diabetes distress vary in scope to address a wide range of needs. These may include psychotherapeutic support, structured education or psychoeducation programs, organised or ad hoc peer support,

the use of technology [33–36] or the simplification of treatment regimens [1]. In line with established criteria for population and clinical screening, diabetes distress meets the requirement of being a common experience with substantial adverse consequences for mental health, physical health, and quality of life. Reliable and efficient short-form screening instruments are available, enabling timely identification of individuals at elevated risk within routine diabetes care. Furthermore, diabetes distress is amenable to intervention, supporting its inclusion as a target for detection and management in a comprehensive care framework.

Rationale for this guideline

Despite the high prevalence of diabetes distress, and its potential impacts on self-care, physical health and mental health, there is considerable variation in the extent to which healthcare professionals assess and manage diabetes distress in routine clinical practice. Healthcare professionals report being unclear about the difference between diabetes distress and depression, on which screening tools to use, how to have conversations about diabetes distress, and lack guidance on structured approaches to managing diabetes distress when it has been identified [5, 37–40]. This leads to missed opportunities to support the person to reduce their diabetes distress and improve diabetes outcomes and quality of life.

Importantly, people living with diabetes report feeling that the emotional burden of diabetes is overlooked by their healthcare professionals [41–43] leading to missed opportunities for effective, person-centred care and for identifying solutions to barriers to effective self-management.

It is evident that these inconsistencies and missed opportunities are, in part, due to the lack of evidence-based guidelines to inform best practice. ‘Guidelines for encouraging psychological well-being’ have existed for more than 30 years [44, 45] and have been supported by recent position statements [46] and practical guides [39]. However, few are specific to diabetes distress and none include GRADE recommendations developed from systematic reviews and meta-analyses of the evidence. Several national and international clinical guidelines for type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes include brief recommendations to assess or screen for the presence of diabetes distress or psychological problems, but few provide detail about best practice for this assessment or for management if diabetes distress is detected.

Objective

The aim of this evidence-based clinical guideline is to support standardisation of the assessment and management of diabetes distress in clinical practice. This is the first guideline developed under the new EASD guideline development process, in accordance with its standard operating procedure [47] and aligned with internationally recognised principles for trustworthy guidelines [48–51].

Users of this guideline

This guideline is relevant for healthcare professionals supporting adults with type 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes. These may include diabetologists, diabetes specialist nurses, endocrinologists, family physicians or general practitioners, nurse practitioners, and practice nurses, as well as other members of multidisciplinary teams, such as dietitians, mental health professionals, pharmacists, and social workers. This guideline may be implemented across diverse healthcare settings from primary care to specialist tertiary centres, with the goal of standardising how to assess and manage diabetes distress to improve the experiences and outcomes of clinical care among adults living with type 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes.

Other potential users of the guideline include people living with diabetes; patient advocacy organisations, supporting and promoting the rights of people living with diabetes; policy makers, seeking to standardise clinical care in their region; professional organisations, establishing standards of practice or providing training to healthcare professionals; and researchers, studying diabetes care and ways to improve it.

Methods

The development of this guideline adhered to the standards established by the National Academy of Medicine (NAM) [48] and the Guidelines International Network (GIN) [49], ensuring transparency, methodological rigour, and stakeholder inclusivity. The process followed the EASD standard operating procedure for clinical practice guidelines [47]. Key components included the structured selection and roles of the Guideline Development Panel (GDP) members comprising multidisciplinary experts and individuals with lived experience of diabetes, the transparent management of conflicts of interest, adherence to the GRADE (Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation) methodology for guideline development [50, 51], and a transparent development and review process. The details underpinning each of these processes have been previously published [47].

Guideline Development Panel

The GDP comprised ten members: two co-chairs (JSp, RH), two members with lived experience of diabetes (WJ, ML), four clinical experts (NH, KK, AM, JSt), and two methodologists (TK, FZ). The EASD Guidelines Oversight Committee (GOC) oversaw the appointment and operation of the GDP, as they do for all EASD guidelines [47]. For the present guideline, which is the first to be commissioned under the new EASD guideline development process [47], the GOC appointed the two GDP co-chairs and selected two in-house EASD GOC methodologists. The GDP co-chairs then proposed additional GDP members, who were subsequently approved by the GOC. The selection process of GDP

members placed strong emphasis on lived experience expertise, and diversity in gender, geography, and professional background (e.g., psychology, medicine, nursing). Further details about each GDP member, including their role, discipline, and affiliation, are summarised in Supplementary Table 1.

The two GDP co-chairs played a central leadership role in coordinating the work of the GDP, facilitating discussions during meetings, ensuring adherence to timelines, and guiding the GDP in reaching consensus at key decisions. The two GDP methodologists provided essential support throughout the process, by ensuring consistent application of the GRADE methodology and EASD standard operating procedure [47]. They guided the GDP in formulating the clinical questions in structured PICOT formats, drafted the GRADE evidence profiles [52] and Evidence-to-Decision (EtD) frameworks [53] for the clinical questions on the management of diabetes distress, and ensured alignment between the evidence and the final recommendations.

The inclusion of two GDP members with lived experience of diabetes was integral to the development of the guideline, ensuring that lived experience was considered in every aspect of the process. They informed the GDP about how diabetes distress can affect daily life, ensuring that the guideline's clinical questions addressed issues that matter to people living with diabetes. They actively participated in all GDP discussions and contributed to the GDP's interpretation of the evidence, particularly in relation to the diversity of values and preferences of people living with diabetes and the acceptability and feasibility of assessing and managing diabetes distress in clinical practice.

All GDP members held equal voting rights and actively contributed to all stages of the guideline development process, including the formulation and refinement of the clinical questions, review and interpretation of the evidence, and drafting and finalisation of the clinical practice recommendations.

All GDP members completed the INGUIDE Level 1 training, which provides a foundational understanding of evidence-based guideline development and GRADE methodology [54]. In addition, the two GDP methodologists (TK, FZ) completed the INGUIDE Level 2 training, which is required for methodological leads and provides advanced instruction on applying the GRADE approach in guideline development [54].

Management of conflicts of interest

The management of conflicts of interest followed the EASD standard operating procedure [47], in alignment with the Reporting Items for practice Guidelines in Healthcare (RIGHT) statement [55]. Conflicts of interest disclosures from all GDP members were collected and categorised as either 'significant' or 'non-significant', based on their financial magnitude and relevance to the guideline topic [47]. The disclosures of GDP co-chairs and GDP methodologists were reviewed by the GOC, while

those of the remaining GDP members were reviewed jointly by the GDP co-chairs and GOC. All GDP members were required to update their disclosures annually or if new relevant interests emerged. Disclosures are provided at the end of this document, covering the duration of the guideline development and the year preceding its commencement.

Formulation of clinical questions

The development of the guideline began with a scoping stage to identify and prioritise the clinical questions to be addressed [47]. The GDP methodologists prepared and circulated a template to all GDP members, inviting suggestions for potential clinical questions, using a format adapted from GRADE guidance [56]. The responses were collected, grouped, and used to guide GDP discussions aimed at reviewing, refining, and selecting the most clinically relevant questions. To support this stage, the GDP methodologists also conducted PubMed literature searches for previously published systematic reviews on interventions for diabetes distress.

The findings were summarised in tabular form and shared with the GDP to inform decisions. The final clinical questions were selected based on their relevance to clinical practice, and aligned to the priorities of people living with diabetes, and feasibility of addressing them within the available timeframe and resources. These steps led to agreement within the GDP to organise the questions into two broad domains: assessment and management of diabetes distress.

The final set of clinical questions included two broad questions related to the assessment of diabetes distress, one for adults with type 1 diabetes and one for adults with type 2 diabetes, and six overarching questions related to its management. For the management questions, the GDP applied the PICOT (Participants, Intervention, Comparator, Outcomes, and Type of studies) framework [56]. The management questions were developed separately for adults with type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes and were further distinguished by the type of comparison. The aetiology, management, treatment and experiences of living with diabetes and associated distress differ for people with type 1 diabetes and 2 diabetes and therefore can require different support to address their distress [57].

Eligible interventions were classified into three broad categories: (1) psychological interventions, based on psychotherapeutic approaches such as cognitive behavioural therapy, (2) psychoeducational interventions, which combined psychological components with educational content, and (3) miscellaneous interventions, encompassing approaches that did not fall into the previous categories, including education-only interventions, peer support interventions without a psychological component, or device-based interventions (e.g., continuous glucose monitoring systems). Comparators included either no active intervention (e.g., usual care alone) or

an active intervention from a different category. The GDP also reviewed available validated scales for assessing diabetes distress, and also a minimum clinically important difference (MCID) for the outcome of diabetes distress was defined to support interpretation of the magnitude and clinical relevance of intervention effects. The only study design considered eligible for addressing the management questions was the randomised controlled trial (RCT).

For the assessment questions, the GDP opted to issue Good Practice Statements, as described in the next sections of the present document, due to the lack of RCTs to inform the clinical questions. For the management questions, the GDP commissioned a *de novo* systematic review, which was conducted by an independent Evidence Synthesis Team (EST). The EST collaborated closely with the GDP to finalise the review protocol and to operationalise the PICOT elements for each question. Further details on the characteristics of the questions and the methodology of the evidence synthesis are available in Supplementary Material A: Evidence Synthesis Technical Report.

Categories of clinical practice recommendations

EASD clinical practice guidelines include three categories of recommendations: GRADE recommendations, Good Practice Statements, and Recommendations based on Ungraded Evidence (Table 2). These categories reflect the methodological principles described in the EASD standard operating procedure for guideline development [47].

Table 2: Categories of EASD clinical practice recommendations

Category	Description
GRADE Recommendation	Evidence-based recommendation based on GRADE certainty of evidence assessment and GRADE EtD framework, following a commissioned systematic review and meta-analysis results.
Good Practice Statement	Issued when necessary for safe and effective care, when the expected benefit is substantial and clear. Not based on a commissioned systematic review and meta-analysis, but supported by summaries of existing evidence.
Recommendation based on Ungraded evidence	Developed when insufficient evidence is found to permit a meta-analysis and GRADE certainty assessment. Based on other GRADE EtD parameters and the judgement of the GDP.

EtD: Evidence-to-Decision; GDP: Guideline Development Panel; GRADE: Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation

GRADE Recommendations

GRADE recommendations are developed based on a structured assessment of the evidence, starting with the structured formulation of clinical questions (i.e., in PICOT format for management questions), and followed by a formal systematic review and meta-analyses by an EST and commissioned by the EASD. For each clinical question,

the certainty of evidence is assessed (Table 3), and GRADE evidence profiles are developed based on the following domains: risk of bias, inconsistency, indirectness, imprecision, and additional domains (e.g., publication bias) [52].

Table 3: Levels of certainty of evidence according to GRADE methodology

Certainty	Explanation
High ⊕⊕⊕⊕	We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect
Moderate ⊕⊕⊕○	We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: the true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different
Low ⊕⊕○○	We have limited confidence in the effect estimate: the true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect
Very low ⊕○○○	We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: the true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect

GRADE: Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation

In addition to the GRADE evidence profiles, additional considerations are incorporated in the development of a recommendation using the GRADE EtD framework [53]. These include parameters such as balance between desirable and undesirable effects, values and preferences, resource use and cost-effectiveness, equity, acceptability, and feasibility [53]. GRADE recommendations are labelled according to both strength (e.g., strong or conditional) and direction (e.g., in favour of or against an intervention) [58], as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Strength and direction of recommendations based on the GRADE 'Evidence to Decision' framework

Strength and direction	Explanation ^a
Strong in favour of the intervention	Desirable effects of the intervention clearly outweigh undesirable effects
Conditional (weak) in favour of the intervention	Desirable effects of the intervention probably outweigh undesirable effects but uncertainty exists (e.g. because of low certainty of evidence or because desirable and undesirable effects are closely balanced)
Conditional (weak) for either the intervention or the comparator	The balance of desirable and undesirable effects does not clearly favour either the intervention or the comparator.
Strong against the intervention	Undesirable effects of the intervention clearly outweigh desirable effects
Conditional (weak) against the intervention	Undesirable effects of the intervention probably outweigh desirable effects but uncertainty exists (e.g. because of low certainty of evidence or because desirable and undesirable effects are closely balanced)

^a Desirable and undesirable effects include both the evidence on clinical outcomes (GRADE evidence profiles) and consideration of additional GRADE EtD parameters. GRADE: Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation; EtD: Evidence-to-Decision; GRADE: Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation

Good Practice Statements

Good Practice Statements are issued when a recommendation is considered ethically imperative, clearly beneficial, and unlikely to change in light of new evidence. A Good Practice Statement is appropriate when the following criteria are met: the action is necessary for safe, effective healthcare; the expected net benefit is substantial and clear; and conducting a formal evidence synthesis would be an inefficient use of the GDP's resources due to high opportunity cost [47, 59, 60]. Although a formal systematic review was not commissioned by the EASD for these recommendations, they are supported by existing evidence, such as prior systematic reviews or other types of pertinent research. Each Good Practice Statement is labelled as such [47].

Recommendations based on Ungraded Evidence

Recommendations based on ungraded evidence are formulated when a systematic review is commissioned for an important clinical question, but no meta-analysis and a subsequent GRADE certainty assessment can be conducted, due to lack of primary studies. Although GRADE evidence profiles are not developed in such cases, the GDP still considers relevant domains of the GRADE EtD framework before formulating a

recommendation. These considerations are complemented by the collective expertise and judgement of the GDP. Such a recommendation is labelled as a Recommendation based on Ungraded Evidence [47].

Assessment of diabetes distress

The clinical questions on the assessment of diabetes distress were addressed using Good Practice Statements in accordance with the EASD guidelines standard operating procedure [47]. Good Practice Statements were considered appropriate because the GDP judged that key aspects of assessing diabetes distress could not be primarily informed by RCTs, but rather by a broader body of conceptual, theoretical, observational and experiential evidence. In particular, the GDP recognised a clinical imperative to make recommendations that reflect real-world practice, professional consensus, and the practical needs of people living with diabetes. The aim was to provide clear and actionable guidance on core components of good clinical practice for identifying and assessing diabetes distress, without the use of a formal evidence synthesis and meta-analysis commissioned by the EASD, which would have entailed a high opportunity cost.

To inform the Good Practice Statements, the GDP used the findings of two opportunistic *de novo* realist reviews, which were conducted by the D-Stress project, an independent team of researchers within a separate research programme supported by the UK National Institute for Health Research Programme Grants for Applied Research (NIHR PGfAR reference number NIHR205441). Recognising the relevance and rigour of the realist reviews, the GDP sought and obtained approval from the D-Stress project to use their findings as the foundation for formulating the Good Practice Statements on the assessment of diabetes distress. The EASD had no role in commissioning or funding these reviews.

To support this process, the lead investigator of the realist reviews (JSt), also a member of the GDP, shared a report with the GDP describing the realist reviews' methodology, key concepts and findings [61]. This report provided both the conceptual framework and evidentiary foundation for the development of the Good Practice Statements. In brief, the realist reviews used a theory-driven approach to synthesise data from diverse sources and settings, with the goal of understanding how, for whom, and in what contexts various approaches to assess diabetes distress are effective. Separate realist syntheses were undertaken for type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes, and the findings were integrated into a set of coherent theoretical and practical insights relevant to clinical practice. Based on this information, two GDP members (JSt and JSp) prepared an initial draft of clinical questions, Good Practice Statements and rationales. These drafts were reviewed and discussed by the full GDP, and the Good Practice Statements were finalised by expert consensus (See Supplementary Material B: Bridging the evidence from the rapid realist review concepts to the Good Practice Statements).

Management of diabetes distress

The recommendations on the management of diabetes distress were based on a *de novo* evidence synthesis commissioned by the EASD and were formulated using the GRADE EtD framework.

Evidence synthesis

For the clinical questions on the management of diabetes distress, a systematic review of RCTs was conducted by the EST. The selection of the EST followed the procedures outlined in the EASD standard operating procedure, including an EASD open call and evaluation of tender applications both by the EASD GOC and external reviewers. In particular, the selection of the EST was based on the team's track record and experience in conducting high-quality systematic reviews and meta-analyses in topics relevant to the guideline, their professionalism, motivation and readiness to undertake the required tasks, and presence of minimal conflicts of interest [47].

The EST developed the protocol in collaboration with the GDP, and applied standardised methods for literature searching, screening, data extraction, risk of bias assessment, and meta-analyses. A detailed presentation of the evidence synthesis methodology including the protocol, data analyses, and findings is available in Supplementary material A: Evidence Synthesis Report. The EST Lead (FR) participated in regular meetings, approximately twice per month, with the GDP to provide updates and ensure alignment between the evidence synthesis and the clinical questions. In parallel, the GDP methodologists maintained close communication with the EST Lead, acting as the main liaison between the EST and the GDP to ensure methodological consistency and clarity throughout the process. All RCTs included in the meta-analyses assessed diabetes distress using either the DDS or the PAID scale, including validated variations of these instruments. To facilitate interpretation of effect sizes across trials, results were expressed as standardized mean differences (SMDs). An effect was considered clinically meaningful if the SMD was equal to or larger than 0.3 in absolute value. The magnitude of effect was categorized as follows: $SMD \leq -0.5$, large effect; $-0.5 < SMD \leq -0.3$, moderate effect; $-0.3 < SMD \leq -0.2$, small effect; $SMD > -0.2$, trivial or no effect. More negative values indicated greater benefit (i.e., reduction in diabetes distress).

GRADE certainty of evidence assessments

For each management clinical question where meta-analysis was feasible, the certainty of evidence was assessed using the GRADE approach [52]. Independent assessments were conducted by the two GDP methodologists using the GRADEpro web application (available at <https://www.gradepro.org/>), based on five GRADE domains: risk of bias, inconsistency, indirectness, imprecision, and other domains (i.e., publication bias). The certainty of evidence for each meta-analysis estimate was categorised as high, moderate, low, or very low (Table 3), and findings were documented in GRADE evidence

profiles. The two GDP methodologists then reviewed and compared their independent GRADE certainty assessments and resolved any differences by consensus. These evidence profiles were subsequently presented to the GDP during an in-person meeting, discussed, and finalised by unanimous agreement of all GDP members. The final GRADE evidence profiles (available in Supplementary material C: GRADE Evidence Profiles for the management clinical questions) served as the basis for constructing the GRADE EtD frameworks and formulating clinical practice recommendations.

Formulation of recommendations

The two GDP methodologists drafted the GRADE EtD framework for each management clinical question, integrating both the GRADE evidence profiles and additional EtD parameters, including the balance of desirable and undesirable effects, values and preferences of people living with diabetes, resource use and cost-effectiveness, equity, acceptability, and feasibility [53]. Information for these parameters was drawn from focused PubMed searches conducted by the GDP methodologists, expert judgement of GDP members, inclusion of any additional pertinent evidence, and input from the two GDP members with lived experience of diabetes distress. The draft EtD frameworks and proposed recommendations were discussed and refined during an in-person meeting of the GDP using GRADEpro web application (available at <https://www.gradepro.org/>). Final recommendations were reached by consensus, with additional feedback incorporated from follow-up review rounds as needed.

The wording of the recommendations was formulated using standardised GRADE terminology, indicating both the strength and direction of each recommendation (Table 3). Recommendations for the management questions were categorised as follows (Table 2):

- GRADE recommendations: Developed when the EST conducted a meta-analysis and GRADE evidence profiles could be produced.
- Recommendations based on ungraded evidence: Developed when a meta-analysis was not possible due to insufficient primary research, precluding the development of GRADE evidence profiles. In these cases, GRADE EtD domains and GDP expertise and judgment were used to formulate recommendations. Such recommendations were considered only when the clinical question involved a comparison between intervention types that were commonly evaluated in the literature and deemed by the GDP to be particularly relevant to clinical practice. For example, we issued recommendations based on ungraded evidence for psychological compared to psychoeducational interventions, despite the absence of eligible RCTs, because these two intervention categories are the most frequently studied against usual care in RCTs and represent distinct theoretical frameworks.

Writing of the guideline

The writing of the guideline followed the procedures outlined in the EASD standard operating procedure for guideline development [47] and was structured according to the RIGHT statement and checklist [62]. The completed RIGHT checklist is available in Supplementary material D: RIGHT checklist.

Drafting responsibilities were shared among GDP members according to their roles and areas of expertise. The GDP methodologists (TK, FZ) took responsibility for drafting the methods section, as well as the GRADE evidence profiles and GRADE EtD frameworks that supported the development of the GRADE recommendations related to the management of diabetes distress. Recommendations related to the assessment of diabetes distress, formulated as Good Practice Statements, were primarily drafted by a GDP content expert (JSt), who also served as the lead researcher of the realist review underpinning the Good Practice Statements, and by one of the GDP co-chairs (JSp). The initial draft of the introduction was prepared by NH and JSp and the initial draft of the discussion was prepared by RH. GDP members with lived experience, clinical and content expertise reviewed all sections, ensuring that the recommendations were clinically relevant and appropriately contextualised. All GDP members reviewed the full guideline and provided feedback, suggestions, and additional contributions. Drafts were shared and revised using tracked versions, with successive iterations refined collaboratively until consensus was reached. The GDP co-chairs (JSp and RH) coordinated the writing process and ensured timely progression through each drafting stage.

Each recommendation is presented in a consistent and structured format comprising: (1) the clinical question; (2) the recommendation; and (3) a rationale and explanation, which summarises the key considerations or concepts that informed the recommendation. For management-related clinical questions that were supported by a GRADE certainty of evidence assessment, a concise summary of the corresponding GRADE evidence profile is also presented.

Review of the guideline

The guideline underwent a review process in accordance with the EASD standard operating procedure for guideline development [47]. The process included an initial internal review conducted by the GDP and EST lead. GDP members reviewed the complete draft, and the GDP co-chairs coordinated the integration of feedback ensuring consensus across the GDP and consistency with the EASD standard operating procedure. In addition, the Appraisal of Guidelines, Research and Evaluation (AGREE) II score sheet [63] was completed independently by two methodologists from the EASD GOC who were not members of the GDP. Their completed score sheets are available in Supplementary Material E: AGREE II score sheet.

Following the internal GDP review, the guideline was submitted to the EASD GOC for formal internal review. Where comments were provided, the GDP addressed them and incorporated revisions accordingly. After this stage, the guideline was presented in draft form at the EASD Annual Meeting in September 2025 and was then made available for external review through a 6-week period of public consultation, open to people living with type 1 diabetes or type 2 diabetes, healthcare professionals and any other interested parties.

The final stage of peer review involves an external review group including clinicians, researchers, and representatives of working partners and community collaborators directly affected by the recommendations. These reviewers are appointed by the EASD GOC and their role is to assess the clarity, completeness, and relevance of the guidance, without altering the recommendations issued by the GDP.

Dissemination plan and future update

In accordance with the EASD standard operating procedure for guideline development [47], a dissemination plan will be developed to support the accessibility and implementation of this guideline. This includes publication of the full guideline document in a peer-reviewed journal, free availability of this report (open access) on the EASD website and/or through the websites of partner organisations (e.g. the PsychoSocial Aspects of Diabetes (PSAD) Study Group) and communication via social media or other channels. Additionally, accessible plain language formats (e.g., summaries for people living with diabetes) may be developed to support broader awareness and uptake. The dissemination plan may also include the use of the GRADE-ADOLOPMENT approach [64], enabling other groups to adopt, adapt, or selectively implement the recommendations according to their local context. Such adaptations will require approval from the EASD Guideline Oversight Committee and EASD Board.

The EASD standard operating procedure further outlines the potential for future updates to EASD guidelines [47], based on the emergence of new evidence or changes in clinical practice. Any decision to update this guideline will be made by the GOC in consultation with the GDP, based on the relevance and magnitude of new evidence or other justifying factors.

Administrative support

The EASD Office team provided crucial support throughout the development of this guideline. Although not formal members of the GOC, the GDP, or the EST, the EASD Office team ensured the smooth operation of the process by coordinating meetings, distributing materials, facilitating communication between parties involved, and record-keeping. Their efficiency and responsiveness contributed greatly to the effective collaboration across all parties involved.

Clinical practice recommendations

The clinical practice recommendations are categorised as Good Practice Statements for the assessment of diabetes distress (Table 5) or GRADE and ungraded recommendations for the management of diabetes distress (Table 6 and Table 7). Each recommendation is in response to a clinical question and the rationale for the recommendation is summarised, based on the appropriate evidence.

Table 5: Good Practice Statements for the assessment of diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes

#	Recommendations
A.1	Healthcare professionals should discuss the emotional side of diabetes at every consultation as an integral component of person-centred diabetes care.
A.2	Healthcare professionals should <i>ask</i> about diabetes distress using open-ended questions, framed around the emotional burden or challenges of living with diabetes.
A.3	Healthcare professionals should <i>assess</i> diabetes distress using a valid and reliable tool.
A.4	Healthcare professionals should assess and monitor diabetes distress at regular intervals, as part of the annual cycle of care.
A.5	Healthcare professionals should acknowledge and discuss the person's assessment, irrespective of the findings, as part of effective, person-centred care.
A.6	Healthcare professionals should record the findings of the diabetes distress assessment in the clinical notes, and discuss them with relevant members of the healthcare team.
A.7	When diabetes distress is identified, healthcare professionals should make a joint plan with the person living with diabetes about next steps.
A.8	General and diabetes-specialist healthcare professionals should have the competency to offer psychological support to those experiencing diabetes distress and know how to enlist specialist support when it is needed.

886 Table 6: GRADE and ungraded recommendations for the management
887 of diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes

#	Recommendations	GRADE Certainty of evidence
M1.1	We suggest using psychological interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Low ⊕⊕○○
M1.2	We do not suggest using psychoeducational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M1.3	We do not suggest using educational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Ungraded
M1.4	We do not suggest using peer support interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Ungraded
M1.5	We do not suggest using psychological interventions instead of psychoeducational interventions or vice versa to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Ungraded
M1.6	We do not suggest using psychological interventions instead of educational interventions or vice versa to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M1.7	We do not suggest psychoeducational interventions instead of educational interventions or vice versa to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Low ⊕⊕○○
M1.8	We suggest using continuous glucose monitoring (CGM), rather than capillary glucose monitoring (finger prick), to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Moderate ⊕⊕⊕○
M1.9	We do not suggest using automated insulin delivery (AID) systems, rather than no use of AID, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.	Moderate ⊕⊕⊕○

889 Table 7: GRADE and ungraded recommendations for the management
890 of diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes

#	Recommendations	GRADE Certainty of evidence
M2.1	We suggest using psychological interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M2.2	We suggest using psychoeducational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M2.3	We suggest using educational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Low ⊕⊕○○
M2.4	We do not suggest using peer support interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Low ⊕⊕○○
M2.5	We suggest using either psychological or psychoeducational interventions to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Ungraded
M2.6	We suggest using either psychological or educational interventions to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M2.7	We suggest using psychoeducational interventions, rather than educational interventions, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○
M2.8	We suggest using educational interventions rather than peer support interventions to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Low ⊕⊕○○
M2.9	We do not suggest using continuous glucose monitoring (CGM), rather than capillary glucose monitoring (finger prick), to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.	Very low ⊕○○○

891

Assessment of diabetes distress

Detailed results of the realist reviews supporting the good practice statements for the assessment of diabetes distress can be found in Supplementary material B: Bridging the evidence from the rapid realist review concepts to the Good Practice Statements. All clinical questions and Good Practice Statements related to both type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes.

Clinical question A.1

Should healthcare professionals discuss the emotional side of diabetes during routine consultations?

Good Practice Statement A.1

Healthcare professionals should discuss the emotional side of diabetes at every consultation as an integral component of person-centred diabetes care.

Rationale for the recommendation

Routine discussion of the emotional side of diabetes is important as it: a) acknowledges that diabetes is a challenging and long-term condition, and that the emotional side of diabetes is important (both for emotional and physical well-being); b) ensures that the emotional side of diabetes is valued alongside other metabolic and clinical indicators, as an essential component of effective clinical care; c) prompts reflection, and acknowledges, identifies and enables consideration of unmet needs, enabling insights to be gained into how clinical care can be tailored to support the individual's circumstances and context; and d) enables early, appropriate intervention to reduce the distress due to living with and managing diabetes.

Clinical question A.2

How should healthcare professionals ask about diabetes distress in routine consultations?

Good Practice Statement A.2

Healthcare professionals should *ask* about diabetes distress using open-ended questions, framed around the emotional burden or challenges of living with diabetes.

923 **Rationale for the recommendation**

924 Routinely asking about diabetes distress with curiosity, and further exploring responses,
925 results in an expectation for both the health care professional and the person with
926 diabetes that this is an expected part of usual diabetes care. Doing so extends the role
927 of the healthcare professional and increases expectation for both that this discussion
928 will take place.

929

930 **Clinical question A.3**

931 How should healthcare professionals assess for the presence of diabetes distress?

932 **Good Practice Statement A.3**

933 Healthcare professionals should assess diabetes distress using a valid and reliable tool.

934 **Rationale for the recommendation**

935 This practice enables the healthcare professional and the person living with diabetes to
936 identify specific experiences and sources of diabetes distress. It enables the person
937 living with diabetes to direct the consultation to issues that are important to them and/or
938 acting as barriers to optimal self-care. The use of valid and reliable assessment tools
939 also ensures consistency in clinical assessments, to facilitate appropriate shared
940 decision making and development of joint plans, and to monitor changes over time.
941 Validated tools have guidance for scoring and interpretation, which can be used to guide
942 whether diabetes distress is substantive enough to require further support or
943 intervention.

944

945 **Clinical question A.4**

946 How often should healthcare professionals assess for diabetes distress?

947 **Good Practice Statement A.4**

948 Healthcare professionals should assess and monitor diabetes distress at regular
949 intervals, as part of the annual cycle of care.

950 **Rationale for the recommendation**

951 Assessing diabetes distress as part of the annual cycle of care ensures it is considered
952 alongside other metabolic and clinical indicators. It also ensures that the emotional side
953 is considered at 'turning points' in the course of the condition (e.g. changing
954 medications, onset or progression of complications) and that no one experiencing
955 diabetes distress is missed.

956

957 **Clinical question A.5**

958 When diabetes distress is assessed, how should healthcare professionals respond?

959 **Good Practice Statement A.5**

960 Healthcare professionals should acknowledge and discuss the person's assessment,
961 irrespective of the findings, as part of effective, person-centred care.

962 **Rationale for the recommendation**

963 This practice ensures that the person's experiences and emotional responses to living
964 with diabetes are validated and that appropriate actions can be considered to support
965 the person. Discussion following assessment enables people to acknowledge their own
966 emotional health status, which supports them to take note and recognise if they may
967 need to take action themselves. Prioritising these health needs is important for a person
968 in addressing their own emotional regulation alongside available or necessary support
969 provided by the healthcare team.

970

971 **Clinical question A.6**

972 How should healthcare professionals communicate the findings of the assessment?

973 **Good Practice Statement A.6**

974 Healthcare professionals should record the findings of the diabetes distress
975 assessment in the clinical notes, and discuss them with relevant members of the
976 healthcare team.

977 **Rationale for the recommendation**

978 This practice promotes continuity of care across a multidisciplinary team, ensuring that
979 all members of the team are aware of the person's experiences. This may be particularly
980 important if the next consultation is with a different member of the healthcare team.
981 This practice enables people living with diabetes to feel that emotional health is a
982 common thread across the healthcare team, and valued alongside other issues, such as
983 screening and glucose metrics.

984

985 **Clinical question A.7**

986 When diabetes distress is identified, how should healthcare professionals respond?

987 **Good Practice Statement A.7**

988 When diabetes distress is identified, healthcare professionals should make a joint plan
989 with the person living with diabetes about next steps.

990 **Rationale for the recommendation**

991 This practice enables development of a clear, person-centred plan for reducing diabetes
992 distress. It facilitates a greater understanding of the person's specific sources of
993 diabetes distress enabling targeted shared decision-making. Shared follow up planning
994 may include direct support, referral to appropriate services, and arrangements for timely

995 follow-up care. Joint planning requires healthcare professionals to consider their
996 personal training needs.

997

998 *Clinical question A.8*

999 When diabetes distress is identified, should healthcare professionals deliver
1000 psychological support or refer to a mental health professional?

1001 *Good Practice Statement A.8*

1002 General and diabetes-specialist healthcare professionals should have the competency
1003 to offer psychological support to those experiencing diabetes distress and know how to
1004 enlist specialist support when it is needed.

1005 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1006 This practice is effective and welcomed by people living with diabetes. Having
1007 competency extends the scope of the healthcare professional and results in greater role
1008 satisfaction.

1009 Management of diabetes distress

1010 Detailed results of the meta-analyses supporting the clinical practice
1011 recommendations for the management of diabetes distress can be found in
1012 Supplementary Material A: Evidence Synthesis Report. The corresponding GRADE
1013 Evidence Profiles and GRADE EtD frameworks for each management clinical question
1014 are provided in Supplementary Material C and Supplementary Material F, respectively.

1015

1016 Type 1 diabetes

1017

1018 *Clinical question M1.1*

1019 Should psychological interventions be used, rather than usual care, to reduce diabetes
1020 distress among adults living with type 1 diabetes?

1021 GRADE Recommendation M1.1

1022 We suggest using psychological interventions in addition to usual care, rather than
1023 usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes

1024 (Conditional recommendation based on low certainty of evidence).

1025 GRADE Certainty of Evidence

1026 Low certainty evidence ⊕⊕○○

1027 This recommendation is conditional, based on low-certainty evidence from a meta-
1028 analysis of 16 RCTs (17 comparisons) [65–80] including 1,342 adults with type 1
1029 diabetes (n=642 randomised to psychological interventions). The pooled SMD was
1030 –0.22 (95% CI: –0.35 to –0.08), favouring psychological interventions over usual care for
1031 reducing diabetes distress.

1032 Rationale for the recommendation

1033 We suggest considering psychological interventions alongside usual care, given their
1034 small but beneficial effect in reducing diabetes distress and the lack of evidence for
1035 potential harm. While the certainty of evidence is low, these interventions appear
1036 acceptable to adults with type 1 diabetes, may promote health equity, and are
1037 consistent with stakeholder values that prioritise emotional well-being. Furthermore,
1038 considerations around feasibility and resource use support the potential integration of
1039 these interventions into clinical practice.

1040

1041 *Clinical question M1.2*

1042 Should psychoeducational interventions be used, rather than usual care, to reduce
1043 diabetes distress among adults living with type 1 diabetes?

1044 *GRADE Recommendation M1.2*

1045 We do not suggest using psychoeducational interventions in addition to usual care,
1046 rather than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1
1047 diabetes.

1048 (Conditional recommendation based on very low certainty of evidence)

1049 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1050 Very low certainty evidence ⊕○○○

1051 This recommendation is conditional, based on low-certainty evidence from a meta-
1052 analysis of 2 RCTs [81, 82] including 133 adults with type 1 diabetes (n=62 randomised
1053 to psycho-educational interventions). The pooled SMD was -0.17 (95% CI: -0.62 to
1054 0.28), comparing psycho-educational to usual care on diabetes distress.

1055 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1056 We make a conditional recommendation against the routine use of psycho-educational
1057 interventions, as compared to usual care, for reducing diabetes distress among adults
1058 with type 1 diabetes. This recommendation is based on evidence of very low certainty
1059 derived from two studies. Although the potential for undesirable effects appears to be
1060 minimal, the overall balance of benefits and harms does not support the intervention.
1061 Implementation of such interventions may require additional training for healthcare
1062 professionals, as well as integration into routine diabetes care. Feasibility of delivery
1063 across diverse healthcare settings may be enhanced by using general or diabetes health
1064 professionals trained in the delivery of such interventions (i.e. they do not necessarily
1065 require a mental health specialist for delivery) or using digital delivery formats (where
1066 evidence suggests equivalent effectiveness).

1067 *Clinical question M1.3*

1068 Should educational interventions be used, rather than usual care, to reduce diabetes
1069 distress among adults living with type 1 diabetes?

1070 *Recommendation based on ungraded evidence M1.3*

1071 We do not suggest using educational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than
1072 usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.

1073 (Recommendation based on ungraded evidence)

1074 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1075 Ungraded

1076 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1077 As no RCTs were identified that directly compared the effects of educational
1078 interventions versus usual care on diabetes distress among adults living with type 1
1079 diabetes, we made an ungraded recommendation. This recommendation reflects an
1080 evidence gap and should not be interpreted as evidence of no benefit or harm. Future
1081 studies should directly compare educational interventions with usual care in terms of
1082 their effect on diabetes distress, and ideally include assessments of resource use,
1083 feasibility, and cost-effectiveness to inform future decision-making.

1084 *Clinical question M1.4*

1085 Should peer support interventions be used, rather than usual care, to reduce diabetes
1086 distress among adults living with type 1 diabetes?

1087 *Recommendation based on ungraded evidence M1.4*

1088 We do not suggest using peer support interventions in addition to usual care, rather
1089 than usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.

1090 (Recommendation based on ungraded evidence)

1091 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1092 Ungraded

1093 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1094 No eligible RCTs were identified for inclusion in a meta-analysis comparing peer
1095 support interventions with usual care for their effects on diabetes distress among
1096 adults with type 1 diabetes. In the absence of synthesised direct evidence supporting
1097 likely benefit, we made an ungraded recommendation not to suggest peer support
1098 interventions in addition to usual care. This reflects the current evidence gap and does
1099 not imply that peer support is ineffective or harmful. Future studies should compare
1100 peer support interventions with usual care in terms of their impact on diabetes distress,
1101 and should also assess feasibility, resource use, and cost-effectiveness in real-world
1102 healthcare settings.

1103 *Clinical question M1.5*

1104 Should psychological interventions be used, rather than psychoeducational
1105 interventions, to reduce diabetes distress among adults living with type 1 diabetes?

1106 *Recommendation based on ungraded evidence M1.5*

1107 We do not suggest using psychological interventions instead of psychoeducational
1108 interventions or vice versa to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1
1109 diabetes.

1110 (Recommendation based on ungraded evidence).

1111 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1112 Ungraded

1113 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1114 No eligible RCTs were identified for inclusion in a meta-analysis that directly compared
1115 the effect of psychological interventions with psycho-educational interventions on
1116 diabetes distress. There was also no indirect evidence suggesting a benefit of one
1117 approach over the other. As a result, we issue an ungraded recommendation not to
1118 suggest one intervention over the other for adults with type 1 diabetes. This
1119 recommendation reflects a lack of comparative evidence. It does not reflect evidence of
1120 equivalence, superiority, or harm of one treatment compared to the other. Future
1121 research should prioritise direct comparisons of psychological and psycho-educational
1122 interventions, assessing their relative impacts on diabetes distress, their feasibility of
1123 implementation and their cost-effectiveness.

1124

1125 *Clinical question M1.6*

1126 Should psychological interventions be used, rather than educational interventions, to
1127 reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes?

1128 *GRADE Recommendation M1.6*

1129 We do not suggest using psychological interventions instead of educational
1130 interventions or vice versa to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1
1131 diabetes.

1132 (Conditional recommendation based on very low certainty of evidence)

1133 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1134 Very low certainty evidence ⊕○○○

1135 This conditional recommendation is based on very low-certainty evidence from a meta-
1136 analysis of 2 RCTs [83, 84] including 482 adults with type 1 diabetes (242 randomised to
1137 psychological interventions) and resulting in a pooled SMD of –0.11 (95% CI: -0.44 to
1138 0.23) comparing psychological interventions vs. educational without psychological
1139 interventions.

1140 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1141 We issue a conditional recommendation not to prefer psychological interventions over
1142 educational interventions or vice versa for reducing diabetes distress in adults with type
1143 1 diabetes. This recommendation is based on very low certainty of evidence from a
1144 meta-analysis of two RCTs, which found no significant difference on diabetes distress
1145 between the two intervention types. No important differences are expected in terms of
1146 undesirable effects, acceptability, feasibility, or cost-effectiveness, although these
1147 factors may vary depending on context and implementation. It remains uncertain
1148 whether psychological interventions offer a greater advantage in reducing disparities
1149 compared to educational interventions; therefore, no conclusions can be drawn
1150 regarding their relative impact on health equity.

1151 *Clinical question M1.7*

1152 Should psychoeducational interventions be used, rather than educational
1153 interventions, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes?

1154 *GRADE Recommendation M1.7*

1155 We do not suggest psychoeducational interventions instead of educational
1156 interventions or vice versa to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1
1157 diabetes.

1158 (Conditional recommendation based on low certainty of evidence)

1159 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1160 Low certainty evidence ⊕⊕○○

1161 This conditional recommendation is based on low-certainty evidence from a meta-
1162 analysis of 3 RCTs [85–87] including 327 adults with type 1 diabetes (n=165 randomised
1163 to psychoeducational interventions) and resulting in a pooled SMD of –0.02 (95% CI: -
1164 0.23 to 0.20) comparing psycho-educational interventions vs. miscellaneous
1165 interventions.

1166 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1167 We made a conditional recommendation not preferencing psychoeducational
1168 interventions over educational interventions (or vice versa) for reducing diabetes
1169 distress among adults with type 1 diabetes. We found no difference in effect on
1170 diabetes distress between the two intervention types, with an almost perfectly
1171 symmetrical 95% CI. The certainty of the evidence was low, and although some
1172 contextual variability is likely, no important differences are expected in terms of
1173 undesirable effects, acceptability, feasibility, or cost-effectiveness. A conditional
1174 recommendation reflects that, while the balance of evidence does not support a clear
1175 preference for either intervention, further research may influence this decision. Future
1176 studies should explore comparative effectiveness and also consider context-specific
1177 factors that may influence implementation and outcomes.

1178 *Clinical question M1.8*

1179 Should continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) be used, rather than capillary glucose
1180 monitoring (finger prick), to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1
1181 diabetes?

1182 *GRADE Recommendation M1.8*

1183 We suggest using continuous glucose monitoring (CGM), rather than capillary glucose
1184 monitoring (finger prick), to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.

1185 (Conditional recommendation based on moderate certainty of evidence)

1186 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1187 Moderate certainty evidence ⊕⊕⊕○

1188 This conditional recommendation is based on moderate certainty evidence from a
1189 meta-analysis of 6 RCTs [88–93] including 723 adults with type 1 diabetes (425
1190 randomised to CGM): the pooled SMD was -0.26 (95% CI: -0.41 to -0.11) comparing
1191 CGM to capillary glucose monitoring.

1192 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1193 We issued a conditional recommendation for the use of CGM over capillary glucose
1194 monitoring in adults with type 1 diabetes, based on moderate certainty of evidence.
1195 Evidence from RCTs indicates that CGM results in a small reduction in diabetes distress
1196 compared to capillary glucose monitoring. Although undesirable effects such as alarm
1197 fatigue and information overload may occur, they are unlikely to outweigh the benefits.
1198 The cost-effectiveness of CGM appears favourable in certain populations, although this
1199 remains context dependent. This conditional recommendation reflected also as the
1200 variability in values, resources, and implementation capacity which may influence
1201 decision-making in specific settings. Furthermore, further research may increase
1202 certainty or clarify the impact in subpopulations and under different implementation
1203 models.

1204 *Clinical question M1.9*

1205 Should automated insulin delivery (AID) systems be used, rather than no use of AID, to
1206 reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes?

1207 *GRADE Recommendation M1.9*

1208 We do not suggest using automated insulin delivery (AID) systems, rather than no use of
1209 AID, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes.

1210 (Conditional recommendation based on moderate certainty of evidence)

1211 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1212 Moderate certainty evidence ⊕⊕⊕○

1213 This conditional recommendation is based on moderate certainty evidence from a
1214 meta-analysis of 4 RCTs [94–97] including 484 adults with type 1 diabetes (310
1215 randomised to AID): the pooled SMD was -0.05 (95% CI: -0.26 to 0.16) comparing AID to
1216 no AID.

1217 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1218 As the evidence from RCTs did not demonstrate a meaningful difference in diabetes
1219 distress between AID and non-AID groups, we issued a conditional recommendation for
1220 either the use or non-use of AID systems for the purpose of reducing diabetes distress
1221 in adults with type 1 diabetes, based on moderate certainty of evidence. This
1222 recommendation applies specifically to the outcome of diabetes-related distress and
1223 does not consider the other potential clinical benefits of AID systems for glycaemic
1224 outcomes or other endpoints outside the scope of this question. Further studies should
1225 be designed to assess the impact of AID systems on psychosocial outcomes, with pre-
1226 specified measures and adequate power to detect meaningful effects on diabetes
1227 distress.

1228 Type 2 diabetes

1229

1230 *Clinical question M2.1*

1231 Should psychological interventions be used, rather than usual care, to reduce diabetes
1232 distress among adults with type 2 diabetes?

1233 GRADE Recommendation M2.1

1234 We suggest using psychological interventions in addition to usual care, rather than
1235 usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.

1236 (Conditional recommendation based on very low certainty of evidence)

1237 GRADE Certainty of Evidence

1238 Very low certainty evidence ⊕○○○

1239 This recommendation is based on a meta-analysis of 20 RCTs [69–71, 74, 76, 80, 98–
1240 111] including 4,435 adults with type 2 diabetes (2,196 assigned to psychological
1241 interventions and 2,239 to usual care). The pooled SMD for diabetes distress was –0.31
1242 (95% CI: –0.50 to –0.13), indicating a moderate beneficial effect of psychological
1243 interventions compared to usual care.

1244 Rationale for the recommendation

1245 We suggest psychological interventions in addition to usual care due to their moderate
1246 beneficial effect on reducing diabetes distress and minimal associated harms. Although
1247 the certainty of evidence is very low, the intervention can be acceptable to adults with
1248 type 2 diabetes, may support equity, and aligns with stakeholder values prioritising
1249 emotional well-being. Considerations of feasibility and resource use also support its
1250 potential implementation in clinical practice.

1251 *Clinical question M2.2*

1252 Should psychoeducational interventions be used, rather than usual care, to reduce
1253 diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes?

1254 *GRADE Recommendation M2.2*

1255 We suggest using psychoeducational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than
1256 usual care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.

1257 (Conditional recommendation based on very low certainty of evidence)

1258 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1259 Very low certainty evidence ⊕○○○

1260 This recommendation is based on a meta-analysis of 23 RCTs (26 comparisons) [81, 82,
1261 112–132] including 3,617 adults with type 2 diabetes (1,880 assigned to
1262 psychoeducational interventions and 1,737 to usual care). The pooled SMD for diabetes
1263 distress was –0.18 (95% CI: –0.37 to 0.02), indicating a small, borderline effect in favour
1264 of psychoeducational interventions over usual care.

1265 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1266 We suggest psychoeducational interventions in addition to usual care due to their
1267 potential to provide small reductions in diabetes distress with no evidence of
1268 associated harms. Despite the very low certainty of evidence and a borderline effect
1269 estimate, the panel judged that the potential benefits, particularly in enhancing patient
1270 understanding and coping strategies, outweighed the minimal risks. These interventions
1271 may be acceptable to people with type 2 diabetes and align with expressed values
1272 around emotional well-being and informed disease management. While feasibility may
1273 vary by setting, their integration into routine care remains a reasonable option where
1274 resources and personnel permit.

1275 *Clinical question M2.3*

1276 Should educational interventions be used, rather than usual care, to reduce diabetes
1277 distress among adults with type 2 diabetes?

1278 *GRADE Recommendation M2.3*

1279 We suggest using educational interventions in addition to usual care, rather than usual
1280 care alone, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.

1281 (Conditional recommendation based on low certainty of evidence)

1282 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1283 Low certainty evidence ⊕⊕○○

1284 This recommendation is based on a meta-analysis of 3 RCTs [133–135] including 317
1285 adults with type 2 diabetes (138 assigned to educational interventions and 179 to usual
1286 care). The pooled SMD for diabetes distress was –0.34 (95% CI: –0.56 to –0.11),
1287 indicating a moderate beneficial effect of educational interventions compared to usual
1288 care.

1289 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1290 We suggest educational interventions in addition to usual care due to their moderate
1291 beneficial effect on reducing diabetes distress and minimal associated harms. Although
1292 supported by only a few RCTs, the observed effect was meaningful, and there is no
1293 evidence suggesting that these interventions are associated with any important harms.
1294 Educational interventions may be acceptable to adults with type 2 diabetes and
1295 contribute to improved self-management and emotional well-being. While feasibility
1296 may vary depending on context, integration into routine care is possible, particularly
1297 where training and delivery infrastructure are available.

1298 *Clinical question M2.4*

1299 Should peer support interventions be used, rather than usual care, to reduce diabetes
1300 distress among adults with type 2 diabetes?

1301 *GRADE Recommendation M2.4*

1302 We do not suggest using peer support interventions in addition to usual care, rather
1303 than usual care alone to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.

1304 (Conditional recommendation based on low certainty of evidence)

1305 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1306 Low certainty evidence ⊕⊕○○

1307 This recommendation is based on a meta-analysis of 4 RCTs (5 comparisons) [136–139]
1308 including 815 adults with type 2 diabetes (410 assigned to peer support and 405 to
1309 usual care). The pooled SMD for diabetes distress was –0.07 (95% CI: –0.25 to 0.11),
1310 indicating no meaningful effect of peer support interventions compared to usual care.

1311 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1312 We do not suggest peer support interventions over usual care because the evidence
1313 showed no clear benefit in reducing diabetes distress. The certainty of evidence is low,
1314 and the pooled effect was close to null. While peer support may still offer value through
1315 secondary outcomes like improved self-management or emotional support, it does not
1316 appear to meaningfully reduce diabetes distress when added to usual care. Harms are
1317 considered minimal, and feasibility may vary depending on program design, leadership,
1318 and integration into existing care systems.

1319 *Clinical question M2.5*

1320 Should psychological interventions be used, rather than psychoeducational
1321 interventions, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes?

1322 *Recommendation based on ungraded evidence M2.5*

1323 We suggest using either psychological or psychoeducational interventions to reduce
1324 diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.

1325 (Recommendation based on Ungraded evidence)

1326 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1327 Ungraded

1328 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1329 No meta-analysis could be conducted due to the paucity of eligible data directly
1330 comparing psychological with psychoeducational interventions on the outcome of
1331 diabetes distress in adults with type 2 diabetes. While both types of interventions
1332 showed beneficial effects in separate comparisons with usual care, there is no indirect
1333 evidence indicating a clear benefit of one over the other. This recommendation reflects
1334 a lack of comparative evidence and not evidence of equivalence, superiority, or harm of
1335 one intervention over the other. Future research should prioritise direct head-to-head
1336 comparisons of these interventions, assessing their relative impact on distress,
1337 feasibility, and cost-effectiveness across diverse settings.

1338 *Clinical question M2.6*

1339 Should psychological interventions be used, rather than educational interventions, to
1340 reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes?

1341 *GRADE Recommendation M2.6*

1342 We suggest using either psychological or educational interventions to reduce diabetes
1343 distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.

1344 (Conditional recommendation based on very low certainty of evidence)

1345 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1346 Very low certainty evidence ⊕○○○

1347 This recommendation is based on a meta-analysis of 10 RCTs (12 comparisons) [140–
1348 149] including 2,419 adults with type 2 diabetes (1,359 assigned to psychological
1349 interventions and 1,060 to educational interventions). The pooled SMD for diabetes
1350 distress was –0.29 (95% CI: –0.98 to 0.39), reflecting a highly uncertain estimate with
1351 very low certainty.

1352 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1353 We suggest that either psychological or educational interventions may be suitable for
1354 reducing diabetes distress in adults with type 2 diabetes, given their demonstrated
1355 benefits in separate comparisons with usual care. The available evidence does not
1356 allow firm conclusions about the relative superiority of one approach over the other,
1357 and the wide confidence intervals indicate considerable uncertainty in the estimated
1358 effects. Despite this, both interventions are potentially valuable, and their
1359 implementation can be guided by local context, patient preferences, and resource
1360 availability.

1361 *Clinical question M2.7*

1362 Should psychoeducational interventions be used, rather than educational
1363 interventions, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes?

1364 *GRADE Recommendation M2.7*

1365 We suggest using psychoeducational interventions, rather than educational
1366 interventions, to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.

1367

1368 (Conditional recommendation based on very low certainty of evidence)

1369

1370 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1371 Very low-certainty evidence ⊕○○○

1372 This recommendation is based on a meta-analysis of 13 RCTs [150–162] including 1,693
1373 adults with type 2 diabetes (881 assigned to psychoeducational interventions and 812
1374 to educational interventions). The pooled SMD for diabetes distress was –0.15 (95% CI:
1375 –0.34 to 0.03), indicating a small and uncertain effect in favour of psychoeducational
1376 interventions.

1377 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1378 We suggest psychoeducational over educational interventions due to a small potential
1379 benefit in reducing diabetes distress and minimal associated harms. Although the
1380 certainty of evidence is very low and the effect estimate is borderline,
1381 psychoeducational approaches may offer additional support through their combined
1382 focus on education and emotional coping strategies. Given the overlap in intervention
1383 content and variability in implementation, either approach could be considered
1384 depending on contextual factors, but psychoeducational interventions may provide
1385 added value in addressing emotional aspects of diabetes care.

1386 *Clinical question M2.8*

1387 Should educational interventions be used, rather than peer support interventions, to
1388 reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes?

1389 *GRADE Recommendation M2.8*

1390 We suggest using educational interventions rather than peer support interventions to
1391 reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2 diabetes.

1392

1393 (Conditional recommendation based on low certainty of evidence)

1394

1395 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1396 Low-certainty evidence ⊕⊕○○

1397 This recommendation is based on a meta-analysis of 3 RCTs [163–165] including 476
1398 adults with type 2 diabetes (241 assigned to educational interventions and 235 to peer
1399 support). The pooled SMD for diabetes distress was –0.10 (95% CI: –0.28 to 0.08),
1400 indicating a small trend favouring educational over peer support interventions.

1401 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1402 We suggest educational interventions over peer support due to a small trend toward
1403 benefit in reducing diabetes distress and minimal associated harms. While the certainty
1404 of evidence is low, educational approaches may be more systematically implemented
1405 and structured, especially in settings with established diabetes education
1406 infrastructure. Peer support may still hold contextual value in underserved groups, but
1407 overall, the evidence supports educational interventions as a more favourable option
1408 for broader implementation.

1409 *Clinical question M2.9*

1410 Should continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) be used, rather than capillary glucose
1411 monitoring (finger prick), to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2
1412 diabetes?

1413 *GRADE Recommendation M2.9*

1414 We do not suggest using continuous glucose monitoring (CGM), rather than capillary
1415 glucose monitoring (finger prick), to reduce diabetes distress among adults with type 2
1416 diabetes.

1417

1418 (Conditional recommendation based on very low certainty of evidence)

1419

1420 *GRADE Certainty of Evidence*

1421 Very low-certainty evidence ⊕○○○

1422 This recommendation is based on a meta-analysis of 3 RCTs [166–168] including 611
1423 adults with type 2 diabetes (345 assigned to CGM and 266 to capillary glucose
1424 monitoring). The pooled SMD for diabetes distress was –0.35 (95% CI: –0.80 to 0.28),
1425 indicating no clear benefit of CGM over capillary glucose monitoring for reducing
1426 diabetes distress

1427 *Rationale for the recommendation*

1428 We do not suggest using CGM over capillary glucose monitoring solely for the purpose
1429 of reducing diabetes distress due to the absence of a demonstrated beneficial effect
1430 and the very low certainty of evidence. While CGM may offer important advantages for
1431 glycaemic control and diabetes self-management, its specific impact on emotional
1432 well-being remains unclear. Implementation should therefore be guided by individual
1433 patient needs, preferences, and other clinical considerations.

Discussion

This guideline represents a significant milestone in the assessment and management of diabetes distress in clinical practice, and is notable as the first time the EASD has issued an evidence-based clinical practice guideline. Developed through a rigorous, transparent, and inclusive process, the guideline provides evidence-based recommendations for the assessment and management of diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes. It addresses a long-standing gap in diabetes care by offering practical guidance to healthcare professionals seeking to integrate emotional support into routine clinical practice.

In terms of the assessment of diabetes distress, eight Good Practice Statements highlight the importance of recognising that emotional health and healthcare is as critical as physical health and healthcare. By encouraging open, empathic conversations (A.1, A.2) and the use of a validated tool to identify diabetes distress (A.3), these recommendations enable healthcare professionals to have opportunities to understand the challenges people experience due to living with and managing diabetes every day. Regular monitoring as part of the annual cycle of care (A.4) ensures that emotional needs are not overlooked. Acknowledging and discussing responses to assessments (A.5) builds trust, validates experiences and supports person-centred care. Recording and communicating these findings across the multidisciplinary team (A.6) facilitates continuity of care and collaboration in care planning. Importantly, developing a joint plan with the person experiencing diabetes distress (A.7) also promotes truly person-centred care. Finally, general and diabetes-specialist healthcare professionals should have the competency to offer psychological support or refer to specialist support when it is needed (A.8). Together, these practices create a structured and compassionate approach to integrating the emotional side of diabetes into high-quality diabetes care.

For the management of diabetes distress, the GRADE recommendations reflect a cautious approach to selecting interventions to support adults with type 1 diabetes experiencing diabetes distress, highlighting both the potential and the limitations of the evidence base. The strongest GRADE recommendations relate to the use of technology, supporting the use of CGM, rather than capillary glucose monitoring (M1.8), but highlighting that automated insulin delivery (AID) systems does not automatically reduce diabetes distress (M1.9). Psychological interventions are recommended in addition to usual care, rather than usual care alone, for adults with type 1 diabetes (M1.1). It is difficult to recommend psychoeducational, educational or peer support interventions as effective strategies to reduce diabetes distress (M1.2-1.4). Similarly, the evidence does not support substituting one type of psychosocial intervention for another (M1.5-1.7), which may support the need for nuanced, person-centred care, tailored to individual needs, priorities and preferences. Taken together, these

1473 recommendations show that while some strategies – especially psychological
1474 intervention and CGM – are likely to be effective for reducing diabetes distress in adults
1475 with type 1 diabetes, many commonly considered interventions lack a robust evidence
1476 base, reinforcing the importance of ongoing research and individualised, holistic
1477 clinical care.

1478 Among adults with type 2 diabetes, several psychosocial and educational interventions
1479 may help to reduce diabetes distress. Overall, however, the quality of the evidence base
1480 remains low to very low, suggesting that the recommendations need to be considered
1481 with some caution. Psychological, psychoeducational and educational interventions
1482 offer benefits for reducing diabetes distress, when added to usual care, rather than
1483 usual care alone (M2.1-2.3). Psychological and psychoeducational interventions may
1484 be used interchangeably, as may psychological and educational interventions (M2.5-
1485 2.6), suggesting that person-centred approaches can be considered without
1486 compromising effective intervention. There is some indication that psychoeducational
1487 interventions may offer advantages over purely educational interventions (M2.7).
1488 Educational interventions appear to be preferable to peer support (M2.8), suggesting
1489 that structured information-giving by health professionals may reduce diabetes distress
1490 more than informal discussions with others who have the same condition. Peer support
1491 alone is not recommended (M2.4), due to insufficient evidence of effectiveness. Unlike
1492 in type 1 diabetes, there is no consistent evidence that CGM reduces diabetes distress
1493 among adults with type 2 diabetes (M2.9), which may reflect differences in
1494 management needs and day-to-day burden between the two conditions. Overall, these
1495 GRADE recommendations emphasise the value of integrating psychological and
1496 educational strategies into routine care to support adults with type 2 diabetes
1497 experiencing diabetes distress. They also highlight the pressing need for stronger,
1498 higher-quality studies to guide future practice with greater certainty.

1499 A key strength of this guideline is its robust foundation in both evidence and lived
1500 experience. The inclusion of people living with diabetes on the GDP ensured that the
1501 recommendations reflect real-world needs and priorities. The use of the GRADE
1502 methodology and the commissioning of a *de novo* systematic review of RCTs to provide
1503 the evidence to inform the management recommendations were critical to ensuring the
1504 credibility and applicability of the recommendations. By drawing on findings from realist
1505 reviews to formulate Good Practice Statements for the assessment of diabetes distress,
1506 the GDP recognised the value of conceptual, observational and experiential evidence,
1507 rather than RCTs, for informing some aspects of clinical care.

1508 The guideline highlights the diversity of interventions for supporting people experiencing
1509 diabetes distress, including psychological, psychoeducational, and educational
1510 approaches, but the evidence base remains limited in several areas. Many
1511 recommendations are conditional and based on low or very low certainty of evidence. In

1512 part, this reflects the inherently, self-report nature of diabetes distress as the outcome
1513 of interest, but it also reflects the need for further high-quality research. In particular,
1514 there is a lack of studies in which diabetes distress is considered the primary endpoint,
1515 a lack of head-to-head comparisons between intervention types, limited data on long-
1516 term outcomes, and insufficient evidence on the impact of interventions in
1517 underrepresented populations and healthcare settings.

1518 An important limitation of the guideline is related to the scope of the evidence base for
1519 interventions that are not primarily psychological or psychoeducational. As many of
1520 these studies did not focus specifically on diabetes distress, reporting of this outcome
1521 was inconsistent or only available in supplementary materials. Consequently, the
1522 search strategy may have missed studies reporting diabetes distress as a secondary
1523 outcome. Further research that reports diabetes distress findings is needed.

1524 Implementation of the guideline will require a concerted effort across healthcare
1525 systems. Barriers may include limited time during consultations, lack of healthcare
1526 professional training, and insufficient access to mental health services to support
1527 referrals where needed. However, facilitators may include a growing awareness of the
1528 importance of mental health, person-centred care, and the availability of validated
1529 assessment tools. The guideline provides a foundation for professional training, service
1530 development, and policy advocacy to ensure that diabetes distress is no longer
1531 overlooked in diabetes care.

1532 In conclusion, this guideline offers a timely and essential framework for addressing
1533 diabetes distress. By embedding emotional support into routine care, it has the
1534 potential to improve both the experiences and outcomes of people living with diabetes.
1535 Continued research, investment in implementation, and commitment to person-
1536 centred care will be critical to realising the full impact of the EASD's first clinical
1537 guideline on the assessment and management of diabetes distress in adults with type 1
1538 diabetes and type 2 diabetes.

Acknowledgements

We thank the EASD Office team (Petra Niemann, Manuela Meireles, Mercy Osadolor, Natasha Buckley-Mühge) for their support throughout the guideline development process. We also thank the Evidence Synthesis Team (EST) at Amsterdam UMC who conducted the systematic review and meta-analyses for the clinical questions on the management of diabetes distress. This team comprises Samantha Schipper, Sharon Remmelzwaal, Marieke Blom, Noa Dagan, Linda Schoonmade, Miranda Langendam, Petra Elders, Joline W. Beulens. We thank the D-stress study team led by the Florence Nightingale Faculty of Nursing, Midwifery and Palliative care, King's College London for access to their Rapid Realist Reviews. This team comprises Ruth Harris, Megan Peck, Sarah Simms, Shalini Ahuja, Mette Due Christensen, Clara Fabian Therond, Iliatha Papachristou Nadal, Siobhan O'Connor and Vibeke Stenov. We also thank Oliver Kuss and Valentina Lorenzoni for independently completing the AGREE II appraisals.

Data availability

All data extracted and analysed for the clinical practice recommendations of this guideline are available via Supplementary Material. These data were based on systematic and realist reviews. Contact the lead authors of those reviews for further access to additional data. For the systematic review which informed the management questions, contact Associate Professor Femke Rutters (email: rutters@amsterdamumc.nl). For the realist reviews which informed the assessment questions, contact Professor Jackie Sturt (email: jackie.sturt@kcl.ac.uk).

Funding

This guideline was conducted on behalf of, and sponsored by, the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD). The EASD funded the work of Associate Professor Femke Rutters and her team on the systematic reviews and meta-analyses. The EASD funded the travel expenses of the Guideline Development Panel to attend several face-to-face meetings over the course of the 2-year period.

Speight is supported by core funding to the Australian Centre for Behavioural Research in Diabetes, provided by the partnership for better health between Diabetes Victoria and Deakin University.

The D-stress study rapid realist reviews underpinning the Good Practice Statements, is jointly funded by the UK National Institute of Health Research and Diabetes UK (reference NIHR205441). The views expressed are those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of Diabetes UK, the NIHR or the Department of Health and Social Care.

Role of sponsor or funder

The development of this clinical guideline was sponsored and funded by the EASD. The topic for the guidelines was selected by the Guideline Oversight Committee following a survey of the EASD membership. The Guideline Oversight Committee appointed the GDP co-chairs and members. It ensured that the conflicts of interest of the GDP were scrutinised and that the GDP following the standard operating procedure during the development of the guideline. It oversaw the peer review process of the guideline. The EASD office team ensured the smooth operation of the process by coordinating meetings, distributing materials, facilitating communication between parties involved, and record-keeping. The EASD had no role in the formulation of the clinical questions or recommendations or the writing of this document. Manuela Meireles provided support with the referencing of this guideline.

The realist reviews underpinning the Good Practice Statements were jointly funded by the UK National Institute of Health Research and Diabetes UK (reference NIHR205441). Neither organisation had any role in the development of the guideline. Similarly, one of the co-chairs is supported by Diabetes Victoria and Deakin University, and neither organisation had any role in the development of the guideline.

Authors' relationships and activities

Jane Speight has served on Advisory Boards for Insulet, Sanofi and Vertex, for which her research centre (the Australian Centre for Behavioural Research in Diabetes) has received honoraria. Norbert Hermanns has received Advisory Board fees from Abbott Diabetes Care and Dexcom and honoraria for lectures from Abbott Diabetes Care, Roche Diagnostics and Sanofi. Walther Jensen declares no conflict of interest. Karin Kanc declares no conflict of interest. Thomas Karagiannis received financial reimbursement from the EASD for his contribution as methodologist for this guideline, and declares no conflicts of interest. Michelle Law declares no conflict of interest. Andreia Mocan declares no conflict of interest. Femke Rutters received financial reimbursement from the EASD for execution of the systematic review and meta-analyses, which was commissioned and funded by the EASD to support the work of the Guideline Development Panel. Jackie Sturt was a member of the Novo Nordisk Foundation Global Diabetes Forum between 2024-25 during which in person meeting attendance was supported. Francesco Zaccardi received financial reimbursement from the EASD for his contribution as methodologist for this guideline, and declares no conflicts of interest. Richard Holt has received honoraria for speaker engagements from Boehringer-Ingelheim, Eli Lilly, Encore, Liberum, Novo Nordisk and ROVI Pharma and consultancy fees from SPOTLIGHT-AQ.

1611 Authors' roles and contributions

1612 The Guideline Development Panel (GDP) comprised: Jane Speight (Co-Chair), Richard
1613 Holt (Co-Chair; Co-Chair of the EASD Guideline Oversight Committee), Norbert
1614 Hermanns, Walther Jensen, Karin Kanc, Thomas Karagiannis, Michelle Law, Andreia
1615 Mocan, Jackie Sturt, Francesco Zaccardi.

1616 Speight and Holt conceived the topic for the guideline and convened the GDP.
1617 Karagiannis and Zaccardi advised the GDP on all the methodology for developing the
1618 GRADE-based recommendations and conducted the GRADE assessments on the basis
1619 of the systematic review. Sturt led the D-stress research team to contribute realist
1620 review evidence. GDP members undertook GRADE training and contributed to the
1621 development of clinical questions, and the protocol of the systematic reviews and
1622 reviewed the realist review evidence.

1623 Femke Rutters led the systematic review and meta-analyses, which was commissioned
1624 and funded by the EASD to support the work of the Guideline Development Panel.

References

1. Fisher L, Polonsky WH, Hessler D (2019) Addressing diabetes distress in clinical care: a practical guide. *Diabetic Medicine* 36(7):803–812. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.13967>
2. Snoek FJ, Bremmer MA, Hermanns N (2015) Constructs of depression and distress in diabetes: time for an appraisal. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol* 3(6):450–460. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-8587\(15\)00135-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-8587(15)00135-7)
3. Ehrmann D, Schmitt A, Priesterroth L, Kulzer B, Haak T, Hermanns N (2022) Time With Diabetes Distress and Glycemia-Specific Distress: New Patient-Reported Outcome Measures for the Psychosocial Burden of Diabetes Using Ecological Momentary Assessment in an Observational Study. *Diabetes Care* 45(7):1522–1531. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc21-2339>
4. Perrin NE, Davies MJ, Robertson N, Snoek FJ, Khunti K (2017) The prevalence of diabetes-specific emotional distress in people with Type 2 diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabetic Medicine* 34(11):1508–1520. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.13448>
5. Fisher L, Guzman S, Polonsky W, Hessler D (2024) Bringing the assessment and treatment of diabetes distress into the real world of clinical care: Time for a shift in perspective. *Diabetic Medicine* 41(12):e15446. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.15446>
6. Fisher L, Hessler D, Polonsky W, et al (2018) Emotion regulation contributes to the development of diabetes distress among adults with type 1 diabetes. *Patient Educ Couns* 101(1):124–131. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2017.06.036>
7. Fisher L, Polonsky WH, Hessler DM, et al (2015) Understanding the sources of diabetes distress in adults with type 1 diabetes. *J Diabetes Complications* 29(4):572–577. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdiacomp.2015.01.012>
8. Fisher L, Skaff MM, Mullan JT, Arean P, Glasgow R, Masharani U (2008) A longitudinal study of affective and anxiety disorders, depressive affect and diabetes distress in adults with Type 2 diabetes. *Diabetic Medicine* 25(9):1096–1101. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-5491.2008.02533.x>
9. Fisher L, Hessler D, Polonsky W, Strycker L, Masharani U, Peters A (2016) Diabetes distress in adults with type 1 diabetes: Prevalence, incidence and change over time. *J Diabetes Complications* 30(6):1123–1128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdiacomp.2016.03.032>

- 1660 10. Powers MA, Richter SA, Ackard DM, Craft C (2017) Diabetes Distress Among
1661 Persons With Type 1 Diabetes. *Diabetes Educ* 43(1):105–113.
1662 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0145721716680888>
- 1663 11. Egede LE, Dismuke CE (2012) Serious Psychological Distress and Diabetes: A
1664 Review of the Literature. *Curr Psychiatry Rep* 14(1):15–22.
1665 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11920-011-0240-0>
- 1666 12. Skinner TC, Joensen L, Parkin T (2020) Twenty-five years of diabetes distress
1667 research. *Diabetic Medicine* 37(3):393–400. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.14157>
- 1668 13. Ehrmann D, Kulzer B, Haak T, Hermanns N (2015) Longitudinal relationship of
1669 diabetes-related distress and depressive symptoms: analysing incidence and
1670 persistence. *Diabetic Medicine* 32(10):1264–1271.
1671 <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.12861>
- 1672 14. Yang Q-Q, Sun J-W, Shao D, Zhang H-H, Bai C-F, Cao F-L (2021) The Association
1673 between Diabetes Complications, Diabetes Distress, and Depressive Symptoms
1674 in Patients with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus. *Clin Nurs Res* 30(3):293–301.
1675 <https://doi.org/10.1177/1054773820951933>
- 1676 15. Lim SM, Siaw MYL, Tsou KYK, Kng KK, Lee JY-C (2019) Risk factors and quality of
1677 life of patients with high diabetes-related distress in primary care: a cross-
1678 sectional, multicenter study. *Quality of Life Research* 28(2):491–501.
1679 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11136-018-1994-1>
- 1680 16. Nouwen A, Adriaanse MC, van Dam K, et al (2019) Longitudinal associations
1681 between depression and diabetes complications: a systematic review and meta-
1682 analysis. *Diabetic Medicine* 36(12):1562–1572.
1683 <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.14054>
- 1684 17. Hayashino Y, Okamura S, Tsujii S, Ishii H (2018) Association between diabetes
1685 distress and all-cause mortality in Japanese individuals with type 2 diabetes: a
1686 prospective cohort study (Diabetes Distress and Care Registry in Tenri [DDCRT
1687 18]). *Diabetologia* 61(9):1978–1984. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-018-4657-4>
- 1688 18. ElSayed NA, McCoy RG, Aleppo G, et al (2025) 5. Facilitating Positive Health
1689 Behaviors and Well-being to Improve Health Outcomes: Standards of Care in
1690 Diabetes—2025. *Diabetes Care* 48(Supplement_1):S86–S127.
1691 <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc25-S005>
- 1692 19. Sturt J, Dennick K, Due-Christensen M, McCarthy K (2015) The Detection and
1693 Management of Diabetes Distress in People With Type 1 Diabetes. *Curr Diab Rep*
1694 15(11):101. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11892-015-0660-z>

- 1695 20. Dennick K, Sturt J, Speight J (2017) What is diabetes distress and how can we
1696 measure it? A narrative review and conceptual model. *J Diabetes Complications*
1697 31(5):898–911. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdiacomp.2016.12.018>
- 1698 21. Polonsky WH, Anderson BJ, Lohrer PA, et al (1995) Assessment of Diabetes-
1699 Related Distress. *Diabetes Care* 18(6):754–760.
1700 <https://doi.org/10.2337/diacare.18.6.754>
- 1701 22. Polonsky WH, Fisher L, Earles J, et al (2005) Assessing Psychosocial Distress in
1702 Diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 28(3):626–631. <https://doi.org/10.2337/diacare.28.3.626>
- 1703 23. Schmitt A, Reimer A, Kulzer B, Haak T, Ehrmann D, Hermanns N (2016) How to
1704 assess diabetes distress: comparison of the Problem Areas in Diabetes Scale
1705 (PAID) and the Diabetes Distress Scale (DDS). *Diabetic Medicine* 33(6):835–843.
1706 <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.12887>
- 1707 24. Fisher L, Glasgow RE, Mullan JT, Skaiff MM, Polonsky WH (2008) Development of a
1708 Brief Diabetes Distress Screening Instrument. *The Annals of Family Medicine*
1709 6(3):246–252. <https://doi.org/10.1370/afm.842>
- 1710 25. McGuire BE, Morrison TG, Hermanns N, et al (2010) Short-form measures of
1711 diabetes-related emotional distress: the Problem Areas in Diabetes Scale (PAID)-
1712 5 and PAID-1. *Diabetologia* 53(1):66–69. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-009-1559-5>
1713
- 1714 26. Fisher L, Hessler DM, Polonsky WH, Mullan J (2012) When Is Diabetes Distress
1715 Clinically Meaningful? *Diabetes Care* 35(2):259–264.
1716 <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc11-1572>
- 1717 27. Fisher L, Glasgow RE, Strycker LA (2010) The Relationship Between Diabetes
1718 Distress and Clinical Depression With Glycemic Control Among Patients With
1719 Type 2 Diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 33(5):1034–1036. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc09-2175>
1720
- 1721 28. Welch GW, Jacobson AM, Polonsky WH (1997) The Problem Areas in Diabetes
1722 Scale: An evaluation of its clinical utility. *Diabetes Care* 20(5):760–766.
1723 <https://doi.org/10.2337/diacare.20.5.760>
- 1724 29. Hermanns N, Kulzer B, Krichbaum M, Kubiak T, Haak T (2006) How to screen for
1725 depression and emotional problems in patients with diabetes: comparison of
1726 screening characteristics of depression questionnaires, measurement of
1727 diabetes-specific emotional problems and standard clinical assessment.
1728 *Diabetologia* 49(3):469–477. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-005-0094-2>
- 1729 30. Pouwer F, Skinner TC, Pibernik-Okanovic M, et al (2005) Serious diabetes-specific
1730 emotional problems and depression in a Croatian–Dutch–English Survey from the

- 1731 European Depression in Diabetes [EDID] Research Consortium. *Diabetes Res*
1732 *Clin Pract* 70(2):166–173. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diabres.2005.03.031>
- 1733 31. Hessler DM, Polonsky WH, Strycker L, Naranjo D, Greenberg K, Fisher L (2025)
1734 Stability and impact of diabetes distress over time: The potential value and uses
1735 of the type 1 diabetes distress assessment system (T1- DDAS). *Diabetic Medicine*
1736 42(7):e70066. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.70066>
- 1737 32. Fisher L, Polonsky WH, Perez-Nieves M, Desai U, Strycker L, Hessler D (2022) A
1738 new perspective on diabetes distress using the type 2 diabetes distress
1739 assessment system (T2-DDAS): Prevalence and change over time. *J Diabetes*
1740 *Complications* 36(8):108256. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdiacomp.2022.108256>
- 1741 33. Perrin N, Bodicoat DH, Davies MJ, Robertson N, Snoek FJ, Khunti K (2019)
1742 Effectiveness of psychoeducational interventions for the treatment of diabetes-
1743 specific emotional distress and glycaemic control in people with type 2 diabetes:
1744 A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prim Care Diabetes* 13(6):556–567.
1745 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pcd.2019.04.001>
- 1746 34. Sturt J, Dennick K, Hessler D, Hunter BM, Oliver J, Fisher L (2015) Effective
1747 interventions for reducing diabetes distress: systematic review and meta-
1748 analysis. *International Diabetes Nursing* 12(2):40–55.
1749 <https://doi.org/10.1179/2057332415Y.0000000004>
- 1750 35. Roos T, Hermanns N, Groß C, Kulzer B, Haak T, Ehrmann D (2024) Effect of
1751 automated insulin delivery systems on person-reported outcomes in people with
1752 diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *EClinicalMedicine* 76:102852.
1753 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eclinm.2024.102852>
- 1754 36. Liang D, Jia R, Zhou X, et al (2021) The effectiveness of peer support on self-
1755 efficacy and self-management in people with type 2 diabetes: A meta-analysis.
1756 *Patient Educ Couns* 104(4):760–769. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2020.11.011>
- 1757 37. Benton M, Baykoca J, Ismail K, Price H (2023) Healthcare professionals’
1758 experiences in identifying and supporting mental health problems in adults living
1759 with type 1 diabetes mellitus: A qualitative study. *Diabetic Medicine*
1760 40(7):e15103. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.15103>
- 1761 38. Halliday JA, Speight J, Bennet A, Beeney LJ, Hendrieckx C (2020) The Diabetes and
1762 Emotional Health Handbook and Toolkit for Health Professionals Supporting
1763 Adults With Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes: Formative Evaluation. *JMIR Form Res*
1764 4(2):e15007. <https://doi.org/10.2196/15007>
- 1765 39. Hendrieckx C, Halliday J, Beeney L, Speight J (2019) Diabetes and emotional
1766 health A practical guide for healthcare professionals supporting adults with Type
1767 1 and Type 2 diabetes, 2nd edn (UK). London: Diabetes UK

- 1768 40. Stuckey HL, Vallis M, Kovacs Burns K, et al (2015) “I Do My Best To Listen to
1769 Patients”: Qualitative Insights Into DAWN2 (Diabetes Psychosocial Care From the
1770 Perspective of Health Care Professionals in the Second Diabetes Attitudes,
1771 Wishes and Needs Study). Clin Ther 37(9):1986-1998.e12.
1772 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clinthera.2015.06.010>
- 1773 41. Davies M, Dempster M, Malone A (2006) Do people with diabetes who need to
1774 talk want to talk? Diabetic Medicine 23(8):917–919.
1775 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-5491.2006.01892.x>
- 1776 42. Hendrieckx C, Halliday JA, Russell-Green S, et al (2020) Adults With Diabetes
1777 Distress Often Want to Talk With Their Health Professionals About It: Findings
1778 From an Audit of 4 Australian Specialist Diabetes Clinics. Can J Diabetes
1779 44(6):473–480. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcjd.2020.02.004>
- 1780 43. Litterbach E, Holmes-Truscott E, Pouwer F, Speight J, Hendrieckx C (2020) “I wish
1781 my health professionals understood that it’s not just all about your HbA_{1c}!”.
1782 Qualitative responses from the second Diabetes MILES – Australia (MILES-2)
1783 study. Diabetic Medicine 37(6):971–981. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.14199>
- 1784 44. Bradley C, Gamsu DS, Apfel J, et al (1994) Guidelines for Encouraging
1785 Psychological Well-being. Diabetic Medicine 11(5):510–516.
1786 <https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1464-5491.1994.TB00316.X>
- 1787 45. Speight J, Hendrieckx C, Pouwer F, Skinner TC, Snoek FJ (2020) Back to the future:
1788 25 years of ‘Guidelines for encouraging psychological well-being’ among people
1789 affected by diabetes. Diabetic Medicine 37(8):1225–1229.
1790 <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.14165>
- 1791 46. Young-Hyman D, De Groot M, Hill-Briggs F, Gonzalez JS, Hood K, Peyrot M (2016)
1792 Psychosocial Care for People With Diabetes: A Position Statement of the
1793 American Diabetes Association. Diabetes Care 39(12):2126–2140.
1794 <https://doi.org/10.2337/DC16-2053>
- 1795 47. Karagiannis T, Advani A, Davies MJ, et al (2025) European Association for the
1796 Study of Diabetes (EASD) Standard Operating Procedure for the development of
1797 guidelines. Diabetologia 68(8):1600–1615. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-025-06370-1>
- 1799 48. Institute of Medicine (2011) Clinical Practice Guidelines We Can Trust. Clinical
1800 Practice Guidelines We Can Trust. <https://doi.org/10.17226/13058>
- 1801 49. Qaseem A, Forland F, Macbeth F, Ollenschläger G, Phillips S, van der Wees P
1802 (2012) Guidelines International Network: Toward International Standards for
1803 Clinical Practice Guidelines. Ann Intern Med 156(7):525–531.
1804 <https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-156-7-201204030-00009>

- 1805 50. Guyatt G, Oxman AD, Akl EA, et al (2011) GRADE guidelines: 1. Introduction—
1806 GRADE evidence profiles and summary of findings tables. *J Clin Epidemiol*
1807 64(4):383–394. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2010.04.026>
- 1808 51. Guyatt G, Agoritsas T, Brignardello-Petersen R, et al (2025) Core GRADE 1:
1809 overview of the Core GRADE approach. *BMJ* 389:e081903.
1810 <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj-2024-081903>
- 1811 52. Guyatt G, Oxman AD, Sultan S, et al (2013) GRADE guidelines: 11. Making an
1812 overall rating of confidence in effect estimates for a single outcome and for all
1813 outcomes. *J Clin Epidemiol* 66(2):151–157.
1814 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2012.01.006>
- 1815 53. Piggott T, Baldeh T, Dietl B, et al (2022) Standardized wording to improve efficiency
1816 and clarity of GRADE EtD frameworks in health guidelines. *J Clin Epidemiol*
1817 146:106–122. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2022.01.004>
- 1818 54. Schünemann H, Okwen P, Akl E, et al (2025) An international guideline training
1819 and certification programme. *Bull World Health Organ* 103(4):281–284.
1820 <https://doi.org/10.2471/BLT.24.291587>
- 1821 55. Xun Y, Estill J, Khabisa J, et al (2024) Reporting Conflicts of Interest and Funding in
1822 Health Care Guidelines: The RIGHT-COI&F Checklist. *Ann Intern Med* 177(6):782–
1823 790. <https://doi.org/10.7326/M23-3274>
- 1824 56. Guyatt GH, Oxman AD, Kunz R, et al (2011) GRADE guidelines: 2. Framing the
1825 question and deciding on important outcomes. *J Clin Epidemiol* 64(4):395–400.
1826 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2010.09.012>
- 1827 57. Orben K, Ritholz MD, McCalla M, Beverly EA (2022) Differences and similarities in
1828 the experience of living with diabetes distress: A qualitative study of adults with
1829 type 1 and type 2 diabetes. *Diabetic Medicine* 39(10):e14919.
1830 <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.14919>
- 1831 58. Andrews J, Guyatt G, Oxman AD, et al (2013) GRADE guidelines: 14. Going from
1832 evidence to recommendations: the significance and presentation of
1833 recommendations. *J Clin Epidemiol* 66(7):719–725.
1834 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2012.03.013>
- 1835 59. Guyatt GH, Schünemann HJ, Djulbegovic B, Akl EA (2015) Guideline panels
1836 should not GRADE good practice statements. *J Clin Epidemiol* 68(5):597–600.
1837 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2014.12.011>
- 1838 60. Guyatt GH, Alonso-Coello P, Schünemann HJ, et al (2016) Guideline panels
1839 should seldom make good practice statements: guidance from the GRADE

- 1840 Working Group. *J Clin Epidemiol* 80:3–7.
1841 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2016.07.006>
- 1842 61. Sturt J, Peck M, Ahuja A, et al (2025) Technical report of rapid realist reviews to
1843 identify the causal mechanisms by which the assessment, monitoring and follow-
1844 up of diabetes distress supports adults living with diabetes
- 1845 62. Chen Y, Yang K, Marušić A, et al (2017) A Reporting Tool for Practice Guidelines in
1846 Health Care: The RIGHT Statement. *Ann Intern Med* 166(2):128–132.
1847 <https://doi.org/10.7326/M16-1565>
- 1848 63. Brouwers MC, Kho ME, Browman GP, et al (2010) AGREE II: Advancing guideline
1849 development, reporting and evaluation in health care. *J Clin Epidemiol*
1850 63(12):1308–1311. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2010.07.001>
- 1851 64. Schünemann HJ, Wiercioch W, Brozek J, et al (2017) GRADE Evidence to Decision
1852 (EtD) frameworks for adoption, adaptation, and de novo development of
1853 trustworthy recommendations: GRADE-ADOLOPMENT. *J Clin Epidemiol* 81:101–
1854 110. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2016.09.009>
- 1855 65. Amsberg S, Anderbro T, Wredling R, et al (2009) A cognitive behavior therapy-
1856 based intervention among poorly controlled adult type 1 diabetes patients—A
1857 randomized controlled trial. *Patient Educ Couns* 77(1):72–80.
1858 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2009.01.015>
- 1859 66. Carreira M, Ruiz de Adana MS, Pinzón JL, Anarte-Ortiz MT (2023) Internet-based
1860 cognitive-behavioral therapy is effective in reducing depressive symptomatology
1861 in type 1 diabetes: results of a randomized controlled trial. *Frontiers in Clinical*
1862 *Diabetes and Healthcare* 4:1209236.
1863 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fcdhc.2023.1209236>
- 1864 67. Crawford J, Wilhelm K, Proudfoot J (2019) Web-Based Benefit-Finding Writing for
1865 Adults with Type 1 or Type 2 Diabetes: Preliminary Randomized Controlled Trial.
1866 *JMIR Diabetes* 4(2):e13857. <https://doi.org/10.2196/13857>
- 1867 68. Friis AM, Johnson MH, Cutfield RG, Consedine NS (2016) Kindness Matters: A
1868 Randomized Controlled Trial of a Mindful Self-Compassion Intervention Improves
1869 Depression, Distress, and HbA1c Among Patients With Diabetes. *Diabetes Care*
1870 39(11):1963–1971. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc16-0416>
- 1871 69. Griva K, Rajeswari M, Nandakumar M, et al (2019) The combined diabetes and
1872 renal control trial (C-DIRECT) - a feasibility randomised controlled trial to evaluate
1873 outcomes in multi-morbid patients with diabetes and on dialysis using a mixed
1874 methods approach. *BMC Nephrol* 20(1):2. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12882-018-1183-z>
1875

- 1876 70. Kampling H, Köhler B, Germerott I, et al (2022) An integrated psychosomatic
1877 treatment program for people with diabetes (psy-PAD). *Dtsch Arztebl Int*
1878 119(14):245–252. <https://doi.org/10.3238/arztebl.m2022.0094>
- 1879 71. Newby J, Robins L, Wilhelm K, et al (2017) Web-Based Cognitive Behavior Therapy
1880 for Depression in People With Diabetes Mellitus: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *J*
1881 *Med Internet Res* 19(5):e157. <https://doi.org/10.2196/jmir.7274>
- 1882 72. Popelier M, Ciangura C, Flahault C, et al (2019) Évaluation de deux approches de
1883 médecine narrative, le théâtre du vécu et un atelier d'écriture, dans une prise en
1884 charge éducative intégrée de patients diabétiques de type 1. *Education*
1885 *Thérapeutique du Patient - Therapeutic Patient Education* 11(1):10203.
1886 <https://doi.org/10.1051/tppe/2019003>
- 1887 73. Schmitt A, Kulzer B, Reimer A, et al (2022) Evaluation of a Stepped Care Approach
1888 to Manage Depression and Diabetes Distress in Patients with Type 1 Diabetes and
1889 Type 2 Diabetes: Results of a Randomized Controlled Trial (ECCE HOMO Study).
1890 *Psychother Psychosom* 91(2):107–122. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000520319>
- 1891 74. Schroevers MJ, Tovote KA, Keers JC, Links TP, Sanderman R, Flier J (2015)
1892 Individual Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy for People with Diabetes: a Pilot
1893 Randomized Controlled Trial. *Mindfulness (N Y)* 6(1):99–110.
1894 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-013-0235-5>
- 1895 75. Shukla R, Gupta M, Agarwal N, Bajpai A (2021) Mindfulness Meditation as
1896 Adjunctive Therapy to Improve the Glycemic Care and Quality of Life in Patients
1897 with Type 1 Diabetes. *Medical Sciences* 9(2):33.
1898 <https://doi.org/10.3390/medsci9020033>
- 1899 76. van Bastelaar KMP, Pouwer F, Cuijpers P, Riper H, Snoek FJ (2011) Web-Based
1900 Depression Treatment for Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetic Patients. *Diabetes Care*
1901 34(2):320–325. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc10-1248>
- 1902 77. Wijk I, Amsberg S, Johansson U-B, Livheim F, Toft E, Anderbro T (2023) Impact of
1903 an Acceptance and Commitment Therapy programme on HbA1c, self-
1904 management and psychosocial factors in adults with type 1 diabetes and
1905 elevated HbA1c levels: a randomised controlled trial. *BMJ Open* 13(12):e072061.
1906 <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2023-072061>
- 1907 78. Zoffmann V, Lauritzen T (2006) Guided self-determination improves life skills with
1908 Type 1 diabetes and A1C in randomized controlled trial. *Patient Educ Couns* 64(1–
1909 3):78–86. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2005.11.017>
- 1910 79. Mohn J, Graue M, Assmus J, et al (2017) The effect of guided self-determination
1911 on self-management in persons with type 1 diabetes mellitus and HbA_{1c} ≥64

- 1912 mmol/mol: a group-based randomised controlled trial. *BMJ Open* 7(6):e013295.
1913 <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2016-013295>
- 1914 80. Petrak F, Herpertz S, Albus C, et al (2015) Cognitive Behavioral Therapy Versus
1915 Sertraline in Patients With Depression and Poorly Controlled Diabetes: The
1916 Diabetes and Depression (DAD) Study: A Randomized Controlled Multicenter
1917 Trial. *Diabetes Care* 38(5):767–775. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc14-1599>
- 1918 81. Karlsen B, Idsoe T, Dirdal I, Rokne Hanestad B, Bru E (2004) Effects of a group-
1919 based counselling programme on diabetes-related stress, coping, psychological
1920 well-being and metabolic control in adults with type 1 or type 2 diabetes. *Patient*
1921 *Educ Couns* 53(3):299–308. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2003.10.008>
- 1922 82. O’Brien CL, Apputhurai P, Knowles SR, et al (2024) Initial evaluation of the
1923 Optimal Health Program for people with diabetes: 12-month outcomes of a
1924 randomised controlled trial. *Psychol Health* 39(3):358–378.
1925 <https://doi.org/10.1080/08870446.2022.2060507>
- 1926 83. Fisher L, Hessler D, Polonsky WH, et al (2018) T1-REDEEM: A Randomized
1927 Controlled Trial to Reduce Diabetes Distress Among Adults With Type 1 Diabetes.
1928 *Diabetes Care* 41(9):1862–1869. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc18-0391>
- 1929 84. Hermanns N, Schmitt A, Gahr A, et al (2015) The Effect of a Diabetes-Specific
1930 Cognitive Behavioral Treatment Program (DIAMOS) for Patients With Diabetes and
1931 Subclinical Depression: Results of a Randomized Controlled Trial. *Diabetes Care*
1932 38(4):551–560. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc14-1416>
- 1933 85. Bisno DI, Reid MW, Fogel JL, Pyatak EA, Majidi S, Raymond JK (2022) Virtual Group
1934 Appointments Reduce Distress and Improve Care Management in Young Adults
1935 with Type 1 Diabetes. *J Diabetes Sci Technol* 16(6):1419–1427.
1936 <https://doi.org/10.1177/19322968211035768>
- 1937 86. Hermanns N, Kulzer B, Ehrmann D, Bergis-Jurgan N, Haak T (2013) The effect of a
1938 diabetes education programme (PRIMAS) for people with type 1 diabetes: Results
1939 of a randomized trial. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 102(3):149–157.
1940 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diabres.2013.10.009>
- 1941 87. Hermanns N, Kulzer B, Kubiak T, Krichbaum M, Haak T (2007) The effect of an
1942 education programme (HyPOS) to treat hypoglycaemia problems in patients with
1943 type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Metab Res Rev* 23(7):528–538.
1944 <https://doi.org/10.1002/dmrr.710>
- 1945 88. Ehrmann D, Heinemann L, Freckmann G, Waldenmaier D, Faber-Heinemann G,
1946 Hermanns N (2019) The Effects and Effect Sizes of Real-Time Continuous
1947 Glucose Monitoring on Patient-Reported Outcomes: A Secondary Analysis of the

- 1948 HypoDE Study. *Diabetes Technol Ther* 21(2):86–93.
 1949 <https://doi.org/10.1089/dia.2018.0332>
- 1950 89. Murata T, Hosoda K, Kunihiro Nishimura, et al (2023) Prevention of hypoglycemia
 1951 by intermittent-scanning continuous glucose monitoring device combined with
 1952 structured education in patients with type 1 diabetes mellitus: A randomized,
 1953 crossover trial. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 195:110147.
 1954 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diabres.2022.110147>
- 1955 90. Leelarathna L, Wilmot E, Evans M, et al (2022) Flash glucose monitoring with the
 1956 Freestyle Libre 2: Results from the FLASH-UK randomised controlled trial (on
 1957 behalf of the study group). *Diabetes Technol Ther* 24(SUPPL 1):A21.
 1958 <https://doi.org/10.1177/2164957X221096590>
- 1959 91. Polonsky WH, Hessler D, Ruedy KJ, Beck RW (2017) The Impact of Continuous
 1960 Glucose Monitoring on Markers of Quality of Life in Adults With Type 1 Diabetes:
 1961 Further Findings From the DIAMOND Randomized Clinical Trial. *Diabetes Care*
 1962 40(6):736–741. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc17-0133>
- 1963 92. Pratley RE, Kanapka LG, Rickels MR, et al (2020) Effect of Continuous Glucose
 1964 Monitoring on Hypoglycemia in Older Adults With Type 1 Diabetes. *JAMA*
 1965 323(23):2397. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.6928>
- 1966 93. Hermanides J, Nørgaard K, Bruttomesso D, et al (2011) Sensor-augmented pump
 1967 therapy lowers HbA1c in suboptimally controlled Type 1 diabetes; a randomized
 1968 controlled trial. *Diabetic Medicine* 28(10):1158–1167.
 1969 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-5491.2011.03256.x>
- 1970 94. Benhalima K, Beunen K, Van Wilder N, et al (2024) Comparing advanced hybrid
 1971 closed loop therapy and standard insulin therapy in pregnant women with type 1
 1972 diabetes (CRISTAL): a parallel-group, open-label, randomised controlled trial.
 1973 *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol* 12(6):390–403. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-8587\(24\)00089-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-8587(24)00089-5)
 1974
- 1975 95. Lee TTM, Collett C, Bergford S, et al (2023) Automated Insulin Delivery in Women
 1976 with Pregnancy Complicated by Type 1 Diabetes. *New England Journal of*
 1977 *Medicine* 389(17):1566–1578. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa2303911>
- 1978 96. McAuley SA, Lee MH, Paldus B, et al (2020) Six Months of Hybrid Closed-Loop
 1979 Versus Manual Insulin Delivery With Fingerprick Blood Glucose Monitoring in
 1980 Adults With Type 1 Diabetes: A Randomized, Controlled Trial. *Diabetes Care*
 1981 43(12):3024–3033. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc20-1447>
- 1982 97. McAuley SA, Trawley S, Vogrin S, et al (2022) Closed-Loop Insulin Delivery Versus
 1983 Sensor-Augmented Pump Therapy in Older Adults With Type 1 Diabetes (ORACL):

- 1984 A Randomized, Crossover Trial. *Diabetes Care* 45(2):381–390.
1985 <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc21-1667>
- 1986 98. Hoyo MLL del, Rodrigo MTF, Urcola-Pardo F, et al (2022) The TELE-DD
1987 Randomised Controlled Trial on Treatment Adherence in Patients with Type 2
1988 Diabetes and Comorbid Depression: Clinical Outcomes after 18-Month Follow-
1989 Up. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 20(1):328.
1990 <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20010328>
- 1991 99. Abbas Q, Latif S, Ayaz Habib H, et al (2023) Cognitive behavior therapy for
1992 diabetes distress, depression, health anxiety, quality of life and treatment
1993 adherence among patients with type-II diabetes mellitus: a randomized control
1994 trial. *BMC Psychiatry* 23(1):86. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12888-023-04546-w>
- 1995 100. Chiu CJ, Hu YH, Wray LA, et al (2016) Dissemination of evidence-base minimal
1996 psychological intervention for diabetes management in Taiwan adults with type 2
1997 diabetes. *Int J Clin Exp Med* 9(7):14489–14498
- 1998 101. Gabbay RA, Añel-Tiangco RM, Dellasega C, Mauger DT, Adelman A, Van Horn DHA
1999 (2013) Diabetes nurse case management and motivational interviewing for
2000 change (DYNAMIC): Results of a 2-year randomized controlled pragmatic trial. *J*
2001 *Diabetes* 5(3):349–357. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1753-0407.12030>
- 2002 102. Juul L, Maindal HT, Zoffmann V, Frydenberg M, Sandbaek A (2014) Effectiveness of
2003 a Training Course for General Practice Nurses in Motivation Support in Type 2
2004 Diabetes Care: A Cluster-Randomised Trial. *PLoS One* 9(5):e96683.
2005 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0096683>
- 2006 103. Lamers F, Jonkers CCM, Bosma H, Knottnerus JA, van Eijk JThM (2011) Treating
2007 depression in diabetes patients: does a nurse-administered minimal
2008 psychological intervention affect diabetes-specific quality of life and glycaemic
2009 control? A randomized controlled trial. *J Adv Nurs* 67(4):788–799.
2010 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2010.05540.x>
- 2011 104. Lutes LD, Cummings DM, Littlewood K, et al (2018) COMRADE: A randomized trial
2012 of an individually tailored integrated care intervention for uncontrolled type 2
2013 diabetes with depression and/or distress in the rural southeastern US. *Contemp*
2014 *Clin Trials* 70:8–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cct.2018.04.007>
- 2015 105. Maghsoudi Z, Razavi Z, Razavi M, Javadi M (2019) Efficacy Of Acceptance And
2016 Commitment Therapy For Emotional Distress In The Elderly With Type 2 Diabetes:
2017 A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Diabetes Metab Syndr Obes* Volume 12:2137–
2018 2143. <https://doi.org/10.2147/DMSO.S221245>

- 2019 106. Pearson S, Wills K, Woods M, Warnecke E (2018) Effects of Mindfulness on
2020 Psychological Distress and HbA1c in People with Diabetes. *Mindfulness* (N Y)
2021 9(5):1615–1626. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-018-0908-1>
- 2022 107. Rees G, O'Hare F, Saeed M, et al (2017) Problem-solving therapy for adults with
2023 diabetic retinopathy and diabetes-specific distress: a pilot randomized controlled
2024 trial. *BMJ Open Diabetes Res Care* 5(1):e000307. [https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjdr-](https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjdr-2016-000307)
2025 2016-000307
- 2026 108. Rosenbek Minet LK, Wagner L, Lønvig EM, Hjelmberg J, Henriksen JE (2011) The
2027 effect of motivational interviewing on glycaemic control and perceived
2028 competence of diabetes self-management in patients with type 1 and type 2
2029 diabetes mellitus after attending a group education programme: a randomised
2030 controlled trial. *Diabetologia* 54(7):1620–1629. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-011-2120-x)
2031 011-2120-x
- 2032 109. Simson U, Nawarotzky U, Friese G, et al (2008) Psychotherapy intervention to
2033 reduce depressive symptoms in patients with diabetic foot syndrome. *Diabetic*
2034 *Medicine* 25(2):206–212. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-5491.2007.02370.x>
- 2035 110. Trevisan DD, São-João T, Cornélio M, et al (2020) Effect of an ‘implementation
2036 intention’ intervention on adherence to oral anti-diabetic medication in Brazilians
2037 with type 2 diabetes. *Patient Educ Couns* 103(3):582–588.
2038 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2019.10.003>
- 2039 111. van Son J, Nyklíček I, Pop VJ, Blonk MC, Erdtsieck RJ, Pouwer F (2014)
2040 Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for people with diabetes and emotional
2041 problems: Long-term follow-up findings from the DiaMind randomized controlled
2042 trial. *J Psychosom Res* 77(1):81–84.
2043 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychores.2014.03.013>
- 2044 112. Anjali M, Khapre M, Kant R, Kumar S, Pandey P (2023) Effectiveness of Diabetes
2045 Self-Management Education on Distress and HbA1C among Indian Type 2
2046 Diabetes Mellitus Patients: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Indian Journal of*
2047 *Community Medicine* 48(5):702–708. https://doi.org/10.4103/ijcm.ijcm_843_22
- 2048 113. Bond GE, Burr RL, Wolf FM, Feldt K (2010) The Effects of a Web-Based
2049 Intervention on Psychosocial Well-Being Among Adults Aged 60 and Older With
2050 Diabetes. *Diabetes Educ* 36(3):446–456.
2051 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0145721710366758>
- 2052 114. Davies MJ, Heller S, Skinner TC, et al (2008) Effectiveness of the diabetes
2053 education and self management for ongoing and newly diagnosed (DESMOND)
2054 programme for people with newly diagnosed type 2 diabetes: cluster randomised

- 2055 controlled trial. *BMJ* 336(7642):491–495.
 2056 <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.39474.922025.BE>
- 2057 115. Dobson R, Whittaker R, Jiang Y, et al (2018) Effectiveness of text message based,
 2058 diabetes self management support programme (SMS4BG): two arm, parallel
 2059 randomised controlled trial. *BMJ* 361:k1959. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.k1959>
- 2060 116. Hilmarsdóttir E, Sigurðardóttir ÁK, Arnardóttir RH (2021) A Digital Lifestyle
 2061 Program in Outpatient Treatment of Type 2 Diabetes: A Randomized Controlled
 2062 Study. *J Diabetes Sci Technol* 15(5):1134–1141.
 2063 <https://doi.org/10.1177/1932296820942286>
- 2064 117. Lamptey R, Amoakoh-Coleman M, Barker MM, et al (2023) Change in glycaemic
 2065 control with structured diabetes self-management education in urban low-
 2066 resource settings: multicentre randomised trial of effectiveness. *BMC Health Serv*
 2067 *Res* 23(1):199. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-023-09188-y>
- 2068 118. Lerman I, López-Ponce A, Villa AR, et al (2009) [Pilot study of two different
 2069 strategies to reinforce self care behaviors and treatment compliance among type
 2070 2 diabetes patients from low income strata]. *Gac Med Mex* 145(1):15–19
- 2071 119. Li F, Lou Q, Yao P, Hsue C, Xu J (2016) Impact of “Conversation Maps” on diabetes
 2072 distress and self-efficacy of Chinese adult patients with type 2 diabetes: a pilot
 2073 study. *Patient Prefer Adherence* 10:901. <https://doi.org/10.2147/PPA.S95449>
- 2074 120. McEwen MM, Pasvogel A, Murdaugh C, Hepworth J (2017) Effects of a Family-
 2075 based Diabetes Intervention on Behavioral and Biological Outcomes for Mexican
 2076 American Adults. *Diabetes Educ* 43(3):272–285.
 2077 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0145721717706031>
- 2078 121. Misra R, Shawley-Brzoska S, Khan R, Kirk BO, Wen S, Sambamoorthi U (2021)
 2079 Addressing Diabetes Distress in Self-Management Programs: Results of a
 2080 Randomized Feasibility Study. *J Appalach Health* 3(3):68–85.
 2081 <https://doi.org/10.13023/jah.0303.06>
- 2082 122. Munshi MN, Segal AR, Suhl E, et al (2013) Assessment of Barriers to Improve
 2083 Diabetes Management in Older Adults. *Diabetes Care* 36(3):543–549.
 2084 <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc12-1303>
- 2085 123. Odnoletkova I, Goderis G, Nobels F, et al (2016) Optimizing diabetes control in
 2086 people with Type 2 diabetes through nurse-led telecoaching. *Diabetic Medicine*
 2087 33(6):777–785. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.13092>
- 2088 124. Quinn CC, Shardell MD, Terrin ML, Barr EA, Ballew SH, Gruber-Baldini AL (2011)
 2089 Cluster-Randomized Trial of a Mobile Phone Personalized Behavioral Intervention

- 2090 for Blood Glucose Control. *Diabetes Care* 34(9):1934–1942.
2091 <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc11-0366>
- 2092 125. Rezaeemanesh M, Solhi M, Fard Azar FE, Javaheri J, Alaghemand A (2020) The
2093 effect of educational intervention based on Pender’s health promotion model for
2094 distress management in patients with type 2 diabetes. *Pakistan journal of*
2095 *medical and health sciences* 14(3):969–975
- 2096 126. Rondhianto, Kusnanto, Melaniani S (2018) The effect of diabetes self-
2097 management education, based on the health belief model, on the psychosocial
2098 outcome of type 2 diabetic patients in Indonesia. *Indian J Public Health Res Dev*
2099 9(11):1718. <https://doi.org/10.5958/0976-5506.2018.01691.1>
- 2100 127. Rosales CB, Denman CA, Bell ML, et al (2021) *Meta Salud Diabetes* for
2101 cardiovascular disease prevention in Mexico: a cluster-randomized behavioural
2102 clinical trial. *Int J Epidemiol* 50(4):1272–1282. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyab072>
- 2103 128. Rygg LØ, Rise MB, Grønning K, Steinsbekk A (2012) Efficacy of ongoing group
2104 based diabetes self-management education for patients with type 2 diabetes
2105 mellitus. A randomised controlled trial. *Patient Educ Couns* 86(1):98–105.
2106 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2011.04.008>
- 2107 129. Sigurdardottir AK, Benediktsson R, Jonsdottir H (2009) Instruments to tailor care
2108 of people with type 2 diabetes. *J Adv Nurs* 65(10):2118–2130.
2109 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2009.05040.x>
- 2110 130. van Dijk-de Vries A, van Bokhoven MA, Winkens B, et al (2015) Lessons learnt
2111 from a cluster-randomised trial evaluating the effectiveness of Self-Management
2112 Support (SMS) delivered by practice nurses in routine diabetes care. *BMJ Open*
2113 5(6):e007014. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2014-007014>
- 2114 131. Welch G, Zagarins SE, Santiago-Kelly P, et al (2015) An Internet-Based Diabetes
2115 Management Platform Improves Team Care and Outcomes in an Urban Latino
2116 Population. *Diabetes Care* 38(4):561–567. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc14-1412>
- 2117 132. Whittemore R, Melkus GD, Sullivan A, Grey M (2004) A Nurse-Coaching
2118 Intervention for Women With Type 2 Diabetes. *Diabetes Educ* 30(5):795–804.
2119 <https://doi.org/10.1177/014572170403000515>
- 2120 133. Clark TL, Gallo L, Euyoque JA, Philis-Tsimikas A, Fortmann A (2020) Does
2121 Diabetes Distress Influence Clinical Response to an mHealth Diabetes Self-
2122 Management Education and Support Intervention? *Diabetes Educ* 46(3):289–296.
2123 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0145721720913276>

- 2124 134. Sturt JA, Whitlock S, Fox C, et al (2008) Effects of the Diabetes Manual 1:1
2125 structured education in primary care. *Diabetic Medicine* 25(6):722–731.
2126 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-5491.2008.02451.x>
- 2127 135. Zheng F, Liu S, Liu Y, Deng L (2019) Effects of an Outpatient Diabetes Self-
2128 Management Education on Patients with Type 2 Diabetes in China: A Randomized
2129 Controlled Trial. *J Diabetes Res* 2019:1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/1073131>
- 2130 136. Dale J, Caramlau I, Sturt J, Friede T, Walker R (2009) Telephone peer-delivered
2131 intervention for diabetes motivation and support: The telecare exploratory RCT.
2132 *Patient Educ Couns* 75(1):91–98. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2008.09.014>
- 2133 137. Ju C, Shi R, Yao L, et al (2018) Effect of peer support on diabetes distress: a
2134 cluster randomized controlled trial. *Diabetic Medicine* 35(6):770–775.
2135 <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.13625>
- 2136 138. Kunik ME, Evans TL, Christie IC, et al (2023) The impact of veteran support and
2137 resources for diabetes (iNSPiRED) on diabetes distress: Results from a
2138 randomized, parallel-group trial. *Gen Hosp Psychiatry* 85:55–62.
2139 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.genhosppsych.2023.09.013>
- 2140 139. van der Wulp I, de Leeuw JRJ, Gorter KJ, Rutten GEHM (2012) Effectiveness of
2141 peer-led self-management coaching for patients recently diagnosed with Type 2
2142 diabetes mellitus in primary care: a randomized controlled trial. *Diabetic*
2143 *Medicine* 29(10):e390–e397. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-5491.2012.03629.x>
- 2144 140. Anderson RM, Funnell MM, Aikens JE, et al (2009) Evaluating the efficacy of an
2145 empowerment-based self-management consultant intervention: results of a two-
2146 year randomized controlled trial. *Education thérapeutique du patient -*
2147 *Therapeutic patient education* 1(1):3–11. <https://doi.org/10.1051/tpe/2009002>
- 2148 141. Baldwin PA, Sanatkar S, Clarke J, et al (2020) A Web-Based Mental Health
2149 Intervention to Improve Social and Occupational Functioning in Adults With Type
2150 2 Diabetes (The Springboard Trial): 12-Month Outcomes of a Randomized
2151 Controlled Trial. *J Med Internet Res* 22(12):e16729. <https://doi.org/10.2196/16729>
- 2152 142. Cheng L, Sit JWH, Choi K, et al (2021) The effects of an empowerment-based self-
2153 management intervention on empowerment level, psychological distress, and
2154 quality of life in patients with poorly controlled type 2 diabetes: A randomized
2155 controlled trial. *Int J Nurs Stud* 116:103407.
2156 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2019.103407>
- 2157 143. Fisher L, Hessler D, Glasgow RE, et al (2013) REDEEM: A Pragmatic Trial to
2158 Reduce Diabetes Distress. *Diabetes Care* 36(9):2551–2558.
2159 <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc12-2493>

- 2160 144. Guo J, Wang H, Ge L, Valimaki M, Wiley J, Whittemore R (2022) Effectiveness of a
2161 nurse-led mindfulness stress-reduction intervention on diabetes distress,
2162 diabetes self-management, and HbA1c levels among people with type 2
2163 diabetes: A pilot randomized controlled trial. *Res Nurs Health* 45(1):46–58.
2164 <https://doi.org/10.1002/nur.22195>
- 2165 145. Kasteleyn MJ, Vos RC, Rijken M, Schellevis FG, Rutten GEHM (2016) Effectiveness
2166 of tailored support for people with Type 2 diabetes after a first acute coronary
2167 event: a multicentre randomized controlled trial (the Diacourse-ACE study).
2168 *Diabetic Medicine* 33(1):125–133. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.12816>
- 2169 146. Li Z, Chen Q, Yan J, Liang W, Wong WCW (2020) Effectiveness of motivational
2170 interviewing on improving Care for Patients with type 2 diabetes in China: A
2171 randomized controlled trial. *BMC Health Serv Res* 20(1):57.
2172 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-019-4776-8>
- 2173 147. Roddy MK, Spieker AJ, Nelson LA, et al (2023) Well-being outcomes of a family-
2174 focused intervention for persons with type 2 diabetes and support persons: Main,
2175 mediated, and subgroup effects from the FAMS 2.0 RCT. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*
2176 204:110921. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diabres.2023.110921>
- 2177 148. Trief PM, Fisher L, Sandberg J, et al (2016) Health and Psychosocial Outcomes of
2178 a Telephonic Couples Behavior Change Intervention in Patients With Poorly
2179 Controlled Type 2 Diabetes: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *Diabetes Care*
2180 39(12):2165–2173. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc16-0035>
- 2181 149. Yanhong GE, Lihong YU, Yue Z, et al (2020) Curative effects of mindfulness
2182 training based on “meta-awareness” combined with intermittent pneumatic
2183 compression therapy on TcPO₂, distress, mindful attention awareness and blood
2184 glucose in diabetic patients with lower extremity arterial disease. *Chinese*
2185 *Nursing Research* 34(7):574–579. [https://doi.org/10.12102/j.issn1009-](https://doi.org/10.12102/j.issn1009-6493.2020.04.002)
2186 [6493.2020.04.002](https://doi.org/10.12102/j.issn1009-6493.2020.04.002)
- 2187 150. Basak Cinar A, Schou L (2014) Health promotion for patients with diabetes:
2188 health coaching or formal health education? *Int Dent J* 64(1):20–28.
2189 <https://doi.org/10.1111/idj.12058>
- 2190 151. Binesh M, Shafaroodi N, Mirmohammadkhani M, et al (2023) A randomized
2191 controlled trial for evaluating an occupational therapy self management
2192 intervention in adults with type 2 diabetes. *Sci Rep* 13(1):10128.
2193 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-37231-9>
- 2194 152. Crowley MJ, Tarkington PE, Bosworth HB, et al (2022) Effect of a Comprehensive
2195 Telehealth Intervention vs Telemonitoring and Care Coordination in Patients With

- 2196 Persistently Poor Type 2 Diabetes Control. *JAMA Intern Med* 182(9):943.
2197 <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2022.2947>
- 2198 153. Heisler M, Choi H, Palmisano G, et al (2014) Comparison of Community Health
2199 Worker–Led Diabetes Medication Decision-Making Support for Low-Income
2200 Latino and African American Adults With Diabetes Using E-Health Tools Versus
2201 Print Materials. *Ann Intern Med* 161(10_Supplement):S13–S22.
2202 <https://doi.org/10.7326/M13-3012>
- 2203 154. Hermanns N, Kulzer B, Maier B, Mahr M, Haak T (2012) The effect of an education
2204 programme (MEDIAS 2 ICT) involving intensive insulin treatment for people with
2205 type 2 diabetes. *Patient Educ Couns* 86(2):226–232.
2206 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2011.05.017>
- 2207 155. Jiang X-J, Jiang H, Chen Y, et al (2021) The Effectiveness of a Self-Efficacy-Focused
2208 Structured Education Program (SSEP) in Improving Metabolic Control and
2209 Psychological Outcomes of Type 2 Diabetes Patients: A 12-Month Follow-Up of a
2210 Multicenter Randomized Controlled Trial. *Diabetes Metab Syndr Obes* Volume
2211 14:305–313. <https://doi.org/10.2147/DMSO.S290029>
- 2212 156. Jung HY, Lee H, Park J (2015) Comparison of the effects of Korean mindfulness-
2213 based stress reduction, walking, and patient education in diabetes mellitus. *Nurs*
2214 *Health Sci* 17(4):516–525. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nhs.12229>
- 2215 157. Liu Y, Han Y, Shi J, et al (2015) Effect of peer education on self-management and
2216 psychological status in type 2 diabetes patients with emotional disorders. *J*
2217 *Diabetes Investig* 6(4):479–486. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jdi.12311>
- 2218 158. Pyatak EA, Carandang K, Vigen CLP, et al (2018) Occupational Therapy
2219 Intervention Improves Glycemic Control and Quality of Life Among Young Adults
2220 With Diabetes: the Resilient, Empowered, Active Living with Diabetes (REAL
2221 Diabetes) Randomized Controlled Trial. *Diabetes Care* 41(4):696–704.
2222 <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc17-1634>
- 2223 159. van Puffelen AL, Rijken M, Heijmans MJWM, Nijpels G, Schellevis FG (2019)
2224 Effectiveness of a self-management support program for type 2 diabetes patients
2225 in the first years of illness: Results from a randomized controlled trial. *PLoS One*
2226 14(6):e0218242. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0218242>
- 2227 160. Wagner JA, Bermudez-Millan A, Damio G, et al (2016) A randomized, controlled
2228 trial of a stress management intervention for Latinos with type 2 diabetes
2229 delivered by community health workers: Outcomes for psychological wellbeing,
2230 glycemic control, and cortisol. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 120:162–170.
2231 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diabres.2016.07.022>

- 2232 161. Woodard L, Amspoker AB, Hundt NE, et al (2022) Comparison of Collaborative
2233 Goal Setting With Enhanced Education for Managing Diabetes-Associated
2234 Distress and Hemoglobin A_{1c} Levels. *JAMA Netw Open* 5(5):e229975.
2235 <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2022.9975>
- 2236 162. Zhang Q, Zhang Y, Long T, Wu Y, Zhang Y, Li M (2024) Effects of nudge strategy-
2237 based dietary education intervention in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: A
2238 cluster randomized controlled trial. *Diabetes Metab* 50(5):101563.
2239 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diabet.2024.101563>
- 2240 163. Heisler M, Vijan S, Makki F, Piette JD (2010) Diabetes Control With Reciprocal Peer
2241 Support Versus Nurse Care Management. *Ann Intern Med* 153(8):507–515.
2242 <https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-153-8-201010190-00007>
- 2243 164. Gagliardino JJ, Arrechea V, Assad D, et al (2013) Type 2 diabetes patients
2244 educated by other patients perform at least as well as patients trained by
2245 professionals. *Diabetes Metab Res Rev* 29(2):152–160.
2246 <https://doi.org/10.1002/dmrr.2368>
- 2247 165. Ing CT, Zhang G, Dillard A, et al (2016) Social Support Groups in the Maintenance
2248 of Glycemic Control after Community-Based Intervention. *J Diabetes Res* 2016:1–
2249 8. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2016/7913258>
- 2250 166. Haak T, Hanaire H, Ajjan R, Hermanns N, Riveline J-P, Rayman G (2017) Flash
2251 Glucose-Sensing Technology as a Replacement for Blood Glucose Monitoring for
2252 the Management of Insulin-Treated Type 2 Diabetes: a Multicenter, Open-Label
2253 Randomized Controlled Trial. *Diabetes Therapy* 8(1):55–73.
2254 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13300-016-0223-6>
- 2255 167. Beck RW, Riddlesworth TD, Ruedy K, et al (2017) Continuous Glucose Monitoring
2256 Versus Usual Care in Patients With Type 2 Diabetes Receiving Multiple Daily
2257 Insulin Injections. *Ann Intern Med* 167(6):365–374. <https://doi.org/10.7326/M16-2855>
- 2259 168. Furler J, O’Neal D, Speight J, et al (2020) Use of professional-mode flash glucose
2260 monitoring, at 3-month intervals, in adults with type 2 diabetes in general practice
2261 (GP-OSMOTIC): a pragmatic, open-label, 12-month, randomised controlled trial.
2262 *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol* 8(1):17–26. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-8587\(19\)30385-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-8587(19)30385-7)
2263
2264
2265

Supplementary materials

Supplementary Table 1: Guideline Development Panel members

<i>Guideline Panel Member</i>	<i>Contribution</i>	<i>Discipline</i>	<i>Position, Affiliation</i>
Norbert Hermanns	GDP member	Psychologist	Research Institute of the Diabetes Academy Mergentheim (FIDAM), Department of Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy, University of Bamberg, Bamberg, Germany
Richard Holt	GDP Co-Chair, GOC Chair	Academic physician with special interest in diabetes	Professor in Diabetes and Endocrinology, Human Development and Health, Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton, Southampton UK Honorary Consultant Physician, University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust, Southampton, UK
Walther Jensen	GDP member	Diabetes advocate	
Karin Kanc	GDP member	Internal medicine / diabetology; Psychotherapy	jazindiabetes (Diabetes & Me), Diabetes Centre, Ljubljana Slovenia PsychoSocial Aspects of Diabetes (PSAD) Study Group; International Integrative Association of Psychotherapy (IIPA)
Thomas Karagiannis	GDP member, Methodologist	Evidence-based medicine, internal medicine	Clinical Research and Evidence-Based Medicine Unit, Second Medical Department, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Greece
Michelle Law	GDP member	Diabetes advocate	Honorary Professor, Faculty of Health and Life Sciences, University of Exeter
Andreia Mocan	GDP member	Clinical psychology; psychotherapy	Center for Diabetes, Nutrition and Metabolic Diseases, Emergency Clinical County Hospital Cluj-Napoca, Romania PsychoSocial Aspects of Diabetes (PSAD) Study Group
Jane Speight	GDP Co-Chair	Health psychology, behavioural science	Chair, PsychoSocial Aspects of Diabetes (PSAD) Study Group; Foundation Director, The Australian Centre for Behavioural Research in Diabetes, Diabetes Victoria and Deakin University, Melbourne, Australia
Jackie Sturt	GDP member	Nursing, behavioural science	Vice Chair, PsychoSocial Aspects of Diabetes (PSAD) Study Group;

<i>Guideline Panel Member</i>	<i>Contribution</i>	<i>Discipline</i>	<i>Position, Affiliation</i>
			Professor of Behavioural Medicine in Nursing and Head of Research Division, Care in Long-term Conditions, Florence Nightingale Faculty of Nursing, Midwifery and Palliative Care, King's College London. UK
Francesco Zaccardi	GDP member, Methodologist	Evidence-based medicine, internal medicine	Associate Professor Clinical Epidemiology and Health Data Science, Diabetes Research Centre, University of Leicester, Leicester UK

2269 GDP: Guideline Development Panel; GOC: Guideline Oversight Committee

2270	Supplementary material A: Evidence Synthesis report
2271	
2272	Supplementary material B: Bridging the evidence from the rapid realist
2273	review concepts to the Good Practice Statements.
2274	
2275	Supplementary material C: GRADE Evidence Profiles for the
2276	management clinical questions
2277	
2278	Supplementary material D: RIGHT checklist
2279	
2280	Supplementary material E: AGREE II score sheet
2281	
2282	Supplementary material F: GRADE evidence to decision (EtD)
2283	frameworks for the management clinical questions