

**CGM
&
Insulin
Pumps**

USES & MISUSES OF

**Continuous Glucose Sensors
& Insulin Pumps:
Good Pumps Gone Bad**

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Disclosures & CME Statement

- No disclosures
- No relevant financial relationships to disclose

Learning Objectives

- 1 Explain the technical principles behind CGM and CSII (continuous subcutaneous insulin infusion)
- 2 Identify appropriate patient selection criteria for CGM and insulin pump therapy
- 3 Recognize common clinical misuses, errors, and pitfalls associated with these technologies
- 4 Troubleshoot real-world clinical scenarios involving CGM and pump malfunctions

The Diabetes Burden: Why Technology Matters

800 M

Adults with diabetes
worldwide

~40 M

DM patients in the
United States

10%

HbA1c reduction
with closed-loop systems

The DCCT (1993)-intensive glucose control reduces microvascular complications by 60–76%.
Achieving near-normal glycemia safely requires tools beyond traditional fingerstick and MDI therapy.



Technology Evolution

1922
Insulin



1970s
First Pumps



1970s
First Pumps

1980s
SMBG

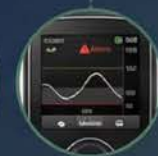


SMBG

1999
CGM Launch



Struggly
sensor
adhesion



Data screen
gaps and
alarms

2020s
Closed-Loop



System
complexity



Alerts



Device
wearability

History of Insulin Pumps

From backpack-sized devices to closed-loop systems

1963

Dr. Arnold Kadish:

First wearable insulin pump — worn as a backpack, delivered insulin.

1978

Dean Kamen's 'Auto-Syringe':

First commercially available CSII pump. Large, external, worn on belt.

1983

MiniMed 502:

Miniaturized pump. Subcutaneous infusion becomes feasible. Used by early adopters with T1DM.

1990s

Rapid proliferation:

Multiple manufacturers enter market. Programmable basal rates introduced. Infusion sets improved.

2006

OmniPod (tubeless):

First patch pump. Revolutionized wearability; pod adheres to skin with no tubing.

2016

MiniMed 670G:

First FDA-approved hybrid closed-loop (HCL) system. Automated basal insulin delivery using CGM

2023–24

iLet Bionic Pancreas & CamAPS FX: Fully automated closed-loop.

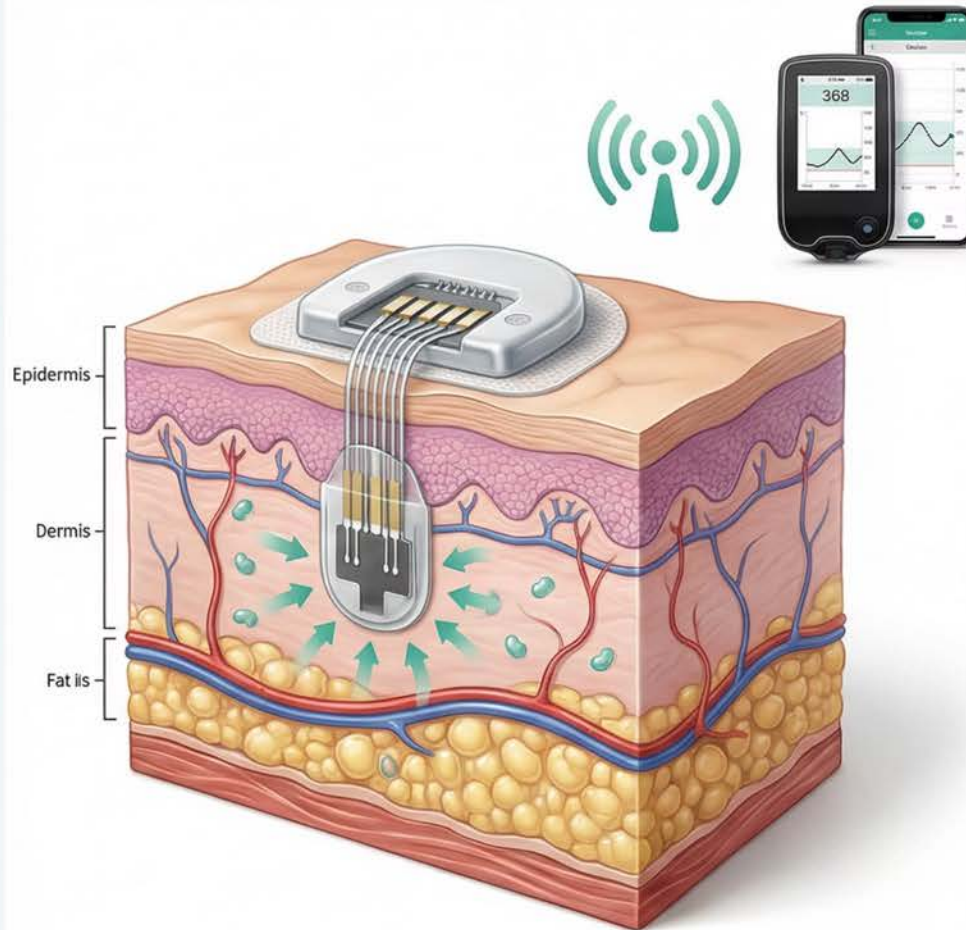
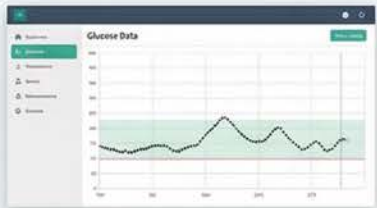


History of Continuous Glucose Monitoring

Decades of innovation

1967	Updike & Hicks:	Glucose oxidase electrode concept published. Theoretical basis for electrochemical CGM.
1975	Clemens et al.:	First 'artificial pancreas' — bedside glucose sensor + insulin delivery in closed loop.
1999	GlucoWatch G2 Biographer (Cygnus):	First FDA-approved wearable CGM. Reverse iontophoresis. Inaccurate, skin irritation — withdrawn 2007.
1999	Medtronic MiniMed CGMS Gold:	First retrospective CGM for clinical review. Blinded, 72-hour wear, downloaded by physician.
2006	DexCom STS:	First real-time CGM for patient use. 7-day wear. Required 2x daily fingerstick calibration.
2014	Dexcom G4/G5:	Share system introduced real-time remote monitoring. Follower app for caregivers/parents.
2017	Abbott FreeStyle Libre (FSL):	Flash glucose monitoring. No fingerstick calibration. 14-day wear. Factory calibrated.
2022–24	Dexcom G7, Libre 3:	One-piece, factory calibrated, 10–15 day wear

CGM DOWNLOADS



Reads glucose every 1-5 minutes

CHALLENGES OF USE

Sensor Accuracy
& Calibration

Adhesive Issues
& Skin Irritation

Signal
Interference

Cost & Accessibility

How CGM Works: Technical Principles

Glucose in
Interstitial Fluid

Glucose
Oxidase
Reaction

Hydrogen
Peroxide
Oxidation

Electrical
Current
Generated

Algorithm
Converts to
mg/dL

Filament Sensor

Platinum/iridium wire coated with glucose oxidase enzyme.
Inserted 5–7mm into subcutaneous tissue.

Interstitial-Blood Lag

5–15 minute physiologic lag between blood and ISF glucose.
Critical during rapid glucose changes.

Transmitter

Sends glucose readings via Bluetooth every 1–5 minutes to receiver,
smartphone, or insulin pump.

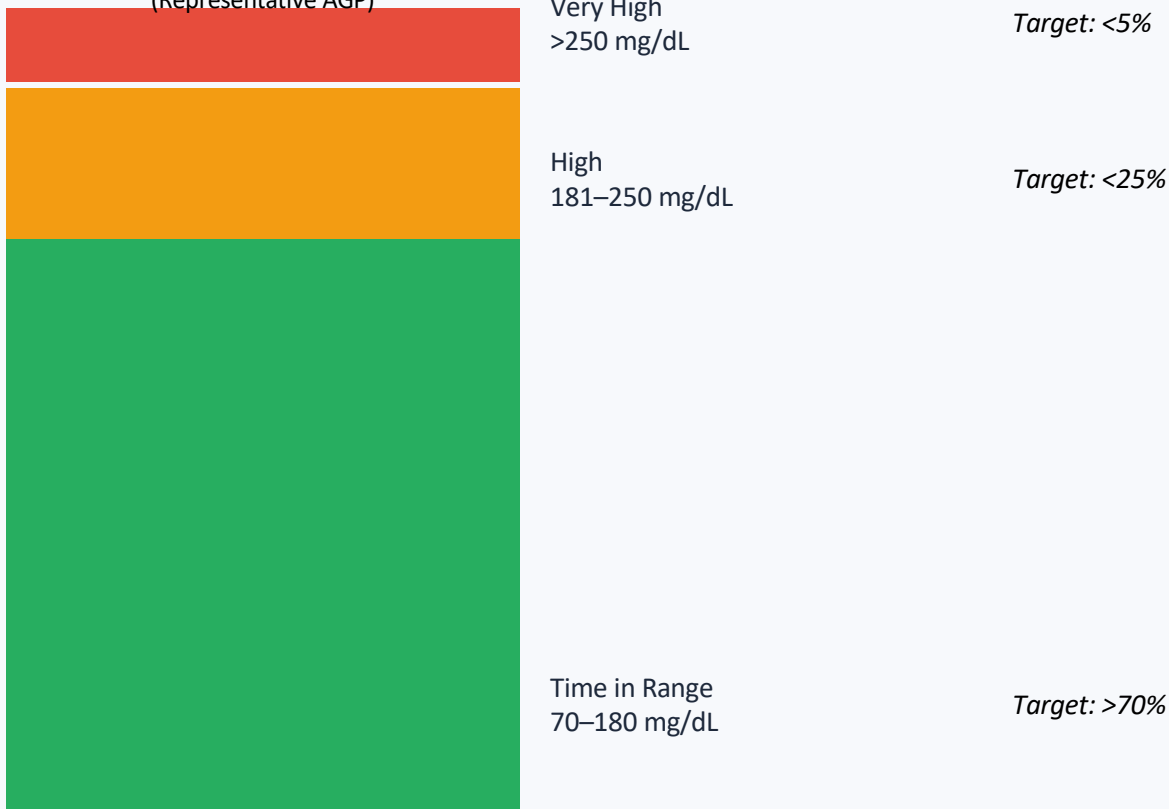
MARD

Mean Absolute Relative Difference-CGM accuracy
Current CGMs: Dexcom G7 ~8.2%, Libre 3 ~7.8% (factory calibrated).

CGM Metrics & the Ambulatory Glucose Profile (AGP)

International consensus targets for time-in-range

Glucose Distribution
(Representative AGP)



Metric	Definition	Target (T1DM)
GMI	Glucose Management Indicator \approx HbA1c	<7%
TIR	Time in Range 70–180 mg/dL	>70%
TAR L1	Time Above Range 181–250	<25%
TAR L2	Time Above Range >250	<5%
TBR L1	Time Below Range 54–69	<4%
TBR L2	Time Below Range <54	<1%
CV	Coefficient of Variation	<36%

Current CGM Devices: Clinical Comparison

Feature	Dexcom G7	Abbott Libre 3	Medtronic Guardian 4	Senseonics Eversense
Type	rtCGM	isCGM/rtCGM	rtCGM	Implantable
Wear Duration	10–15 days	14 days	7 days	180 days
Calibration	Factory	Factory	Required 2×/day	Monthly transmitter
Warm-up	~30 min	60 min	2 hours	N/A (implanted)
MARD	~8.2%	~7.8%	~9.0%	~9%
Pump Integration	Tandem t:slim X2	Not directly	MiniMed 780G	None currently
Cost/Month	~\$300–350	~\$75–90	~\$300+	~\$300 (after implant)

FDA device labeling 2024. Pickering TS, et al. Diabetes Technol Ther 2023. Senseonics prescribing information 2022.

How Insulin Pumps Work: CSII Fundamentals

Continuous subcutaneous insulin infusion

**Insulin Reservoir
(U-100 rapid-acting)**

**Microprocessor
& Motor Drive**

**Infusion Tubing
(60–110cm)**

**Cannula/Infusion Set
(6–9mm subcutaneous)**

BASAL INSULIN DELIVERY

- Programmed in units/hour (e.g., 0.8 U/hr baseline)
- Multiple basal rate programs possible (overnight, exercise, sick day)
- Mimics physiologic fasting insulin secretion

BOLUS INSULIN DELIVERY

- Standard (normal) bolus: rapid injection for meals
- Extended/square-wave: for high-fat/protein meals (gastroparesis)
- Dual-wave (combo): immediate + extended portions
- Correction bolus: calculated

Current Insulin Pump Systems

Medtronic MiniMed 780G

Type: Advanced Hybrid CL

CGM: Guardian 4

Auto-correction boluses every 5 min; targets 100 mg/dL

Tandem t:slim X2 + Control-IQ

Type: Hybrid Closed-Loop

Predictive basal suspend, auto-bolus, sleep mode

Insulet OmniPod 5

Type: Hybrid Closed-Loop

Tubeless, smartphone-controlled, adaptive algorithm

iLet Bionic Pancreas

Type: Fully Automated

Weight-based dosing only; no I:C ratio or correction factor needed

Patient Selection Criteria: CGM

INDICATIONS

- T1DM — all patients (ADA Grade A)
- T2DM on intensive insulin (basal-bolus or pump)
- T2DM on sulfonylureas with hypoglycemia risk
- Hypoglycemia unawareness or history of severe hypo
- Gestational diabetes with insulin therapy
- HbA1c above goal despite standard monitoring
- Athletes and patients with variable glucose patterns
- Pre- and perioperative glucose monitoring (hospitalized)

CAUTIONS

- ✗ Skin allergy to adhesive/sensor material
- ✗ MRI compatibility
- ✗ Acetaminophen interference (Libre systems, older Dexcom)
- ✗ Poor dexterity/vision preventing transmitter changes
- ✗ Cognitive impairment without support
- ✗ Financial barriers — CGM costs \$75–350/month

Patient Selection Criteria: Insulin Pumps (CSII)

Optimal candidates and factors that predict success or failure

PUMP CANDIDATES

T1DM inadequately controlled on MDI

Strong evidence; HbA1c ↓ 0.3–0.5%

Dawn phenomenon on MDI

Variable basal rates eliminate early AM hyperglycemia

Hypoglycemia unawareness

Automated suspend prevents severe events

Highly variable glucose (high CV)

Flexible basal rates reduce variability

Active lifestyle / athletes

Temporary basal rates during exercise

Frequent travel across time zones

No adjustments needed for schedule changes

Pregnancy (T1DM)

Tighter control achievable with pump + CGM

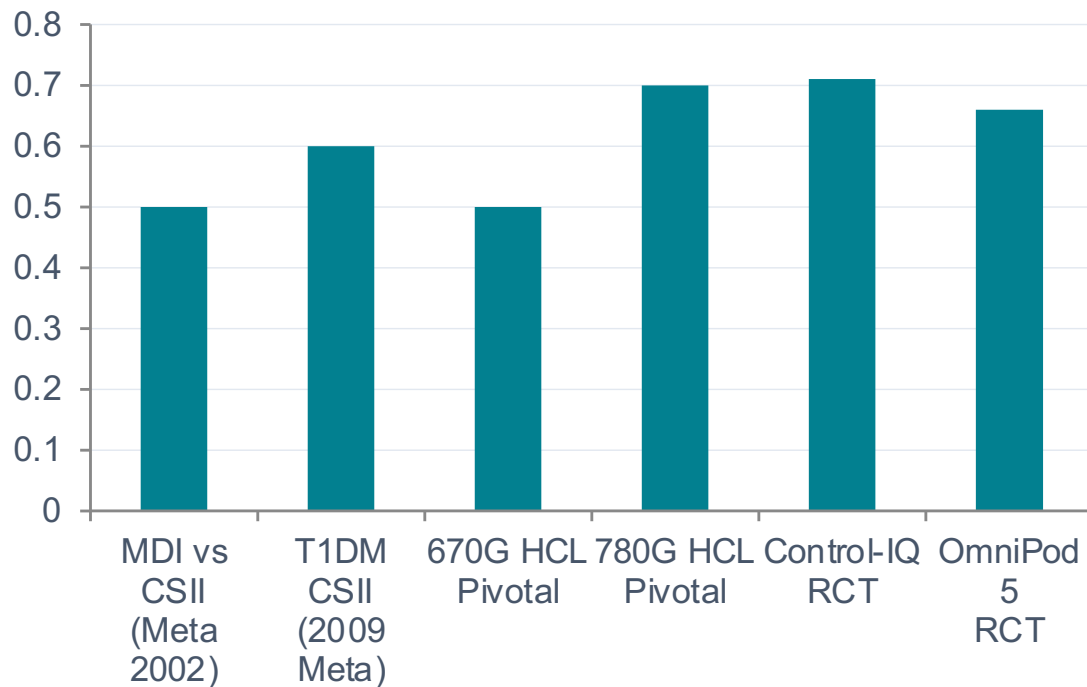


PREDICTORS OF PUMP FAILURE

- ✗ Poor self-management prior to pump initiation
- ✗ Inability to count carbohydrates
- ✗ Skin or adhesive reactions limiting site rotation
- ✗ Active eating disorder (DKA risk)
- ✗ Unrealistic expectations of 'automated' control
- ✗ Lack of trained support team (CDE)
- ✗ Social/economic barriers to supplies and follow-up

Evidence: Insulin Pump Outcomes

HbA1c Reduction Across Pump Technologies



DKA hospitalizations

39% ↓ with pump vs MDI (Pickup 2014)



Severe hypoglycemia

4.2 → 0.7 events/patient-year (Control-IQ RCT)



Time in Range

+2.6 hrs/day with hybrid closed-loop vs MDI



Quality of Life

Automated Insulin Delivery: How It Works



✓ BENEFITS

- TIR improves 70–75% vs 60–65% with standard pump therapy
- 40–60% reduction in severe hypoglycemic episodes
- Dramatically reduced nocturnal hypoglycemia
- Decreased patient/caregiver decision burden
- ADA 2026: AID now PREFERRED over MDI and CSII

⚠ LIMITATIONS & CONSIDERATIONS

- Hybrid systems still require meal announcements and carb counting
- Learning curve: algorithms take weeks to adapt to individual patterns
- Technology dependence: requires reliable CGM data and pump function
- Cost and insurance access remain significant barriers

Bergenstal RM, et al. NEJM 2021. Breton MD, et al. NEJM 2020. ADA Standards 2026 Rec 7.25a, 7.27.

Misuses of CGM: Clinical Errors & Pitfalls

Common mistakes by patients, caregivers, and clinicians

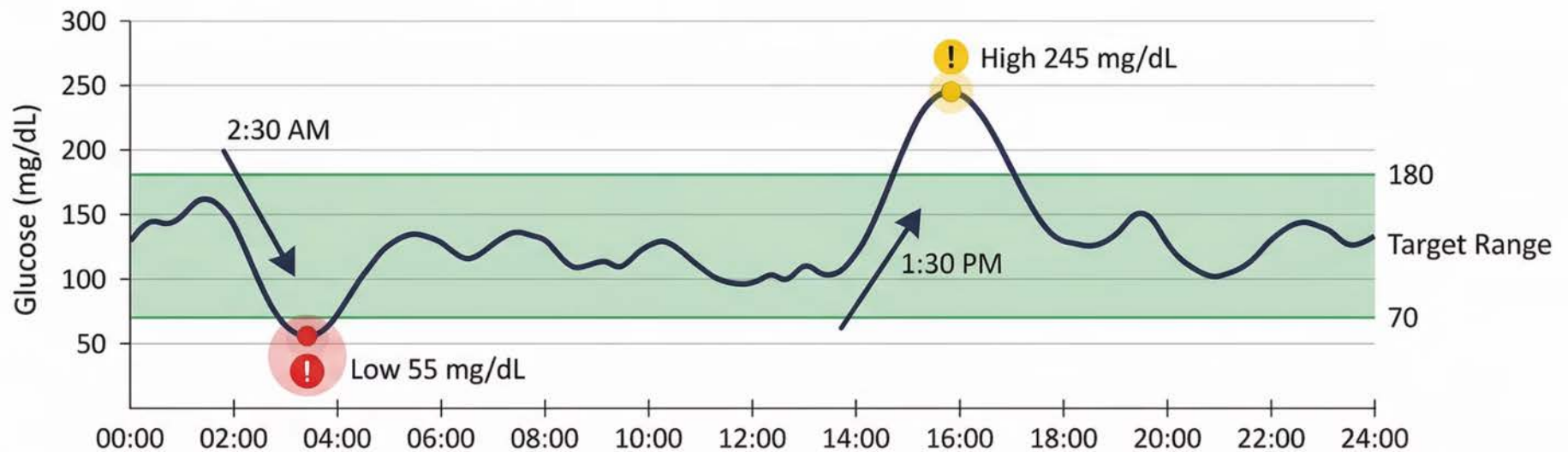
PATIENT ERRORS

- ! Treating ISF glucose lag as blood glucose — dosing insulin on dropping ISF reading when BG is rising
- ! Ignoring trend arrows: treating a 140↓↓ the same as 140→→
- ! Over-treating alarms: alarm fatigue leads to disabling critical alerts
- ! Not confirming with fingerstick
- ! Applying sensor over tattoos or lipohypertrophy — potential inaccurate readings

CLINICIAN ERRORS

- Using GMI interchangeably with HbA1c — GMI underestimates A1c by ~0.4% on average
- Not reviewing AGP at clinic visits — defaulting to HbA1c alone
- Prescribing CGM without education on alarms, calibration, and trends
- Ignoring CV and TBR when TIR looks acceptable

CGM 24-Hour Glucose Trend Analysis & Challenges



Data Overload & Interpretation

Too much data, hard to analyze



Sensor Accuracy & Discomfort

Skin reactions, signal loss



CGM Misuse Pitfalls



- Lag time misinterpretation



- False compression lows



- Ignoring SMBG confirmation



- Alarm fatigue



Misuses of Insulin Pumps: Clinical Pitfalls

Pump-related errors are a significant cause of DKA hospitalizations

Infusion Set Occlusion

Most common cause of pump-related DKA.
No insulin delivered but alarm may not trigger immediately.

Risk of DKA within 4–6 hours.

Site Lipohypertrophy

Failure to rotate sites → fibrotic tissue → unpredictable insulin absorption.

Up to 52% of pump users have lipohypertrophy.

Always palpate infusion sites at visits.

Incorrect Carb Ratios / Correction Factors

Using outdated pump settings.
Insulin sensitivity changes with illness, weight, activity.

Annual or PRN review with certified diabetes educator

Forgetting to Reconnect After Disconnect

Showering, swimming, intimate activity.
Common in younger patients

Maximum safe disconnect: 1–2 hours.

Alarm Fatigue / Over-reliance on Closed loop

Trusting HCL system completely without understanding override situations.

System reverts to manual if Bluetooth lost, reservoir empty, or sensor errors.

Wrong Insulin Concentration

U-500 insulin in a U-100 calibrated pump = 5x overdose.

U-100 rapid-acting insulins.

Pump-Related DKA: Recognition & Prevention

RISK FACTORS FOR PUMP DKA

- ✗ Infusion set in >3 days without change
- ✗ Kinked/bent cannula or tubing
- ✗ Air bubbles in reservoir or tubing
- ✗ Insulin degradation (overheated pump)
- ✗ Illness with increased insulin resistance
- ✗ Issues with pump management

PREVENTION STRATEGIES

- ✓ Change infusion set every 2–3 days (max 3)
- ✓ Urine or blood ketone check when glucose >250 mg/dL
- ✓ Sick day rules
- ✓ Keep backup insulin pens/syringes at ALL times
- ✓ Educate patient on 'pump vacation' protocol using MDI
- ✓ Inspect site with every set change; rotate systematically

CGM in the Inpatient / Hospital Setting

Does NOT replace POC for treatment decisions in critical illness, but reduces fingerstick burden.

ADVANTAGES

- ✓ Detects nocturnal hypoglycemia in sleeping patients
- ✓ Trend arrows enable proactive insulin dose adjustments
- ✓ Remote monitoring reduces patient room entries (infection control)
- ✓ Continuous data during procedures when periodic testing missed

LIMITATIONS

- ✗ Inaccurate with tissue edema, shock, vasopressors
- ✗ Interference from IV acetaminophen, dopamine (older models)
- ✗ Calibration required in ICU (G7 factory-calibrated helps)
- ✗ Technical staff training burden
- ✗ Not approved as standalone decision tool for insulin dosing
- ✗ Cost not universally reimbursed in inpatient setting

Troubleshooting CGM: Clinical Scenarios

Practical approach to inaccurate readings and alarm management

CGM reads much higher than fingerstick

Causes: Sensor compression artifact, hyperosmolar state, malocclusion at site

Action: Rotate sensor site. Confirm with calibrated fingerstick. If fingerstick normal and symptomatic, treat symptoms not sensor.

CGM reads much lower than fingerstick

Causes: Delay vs. rapidly falling BG. Paracetamol (acetaminophen) interference (older sensors)

Action: Check 15 min later. Discontinue acetaminophen if possible

Constant LOW alarms, no symptoms

Causes: Sensor failure, poor site, compression (sleeping on sensor)

Action: Confirm with fingerstick. If BG normal, restart sensor or replace. Rotate to new site.

Sensor warmup failure

Causes: Defective sensor, extreme temperature, expired sensor

Action: Re-insert new sensor. Avoid application at <40°F or >104°F. Check expiration date.

Transmitter not connecting

Causes: Dead battery, Bluetooth interference, phone settings

Action: Restart app. Ensure Bluetooth enabled. Replace transmitter

Troubleshooting Insulin Pumps: Clinical Scenarios

Systematic approach to unexplained hyperglycemia and pump alarms

Unexplained hyperglycemia on pump

Step 1: Check reservoir — is insulin present?
Step 2: Check infusion set — kinked? Air bubble? Site reaction?
Step 3: Prime tubing and inspect cannula on removal
Step 4: If BG >250 with ketones → inject correction via pen, change set, consider sick day protocol

Pump alarm: 'NO DELIVERY'

Indicates motor stall or high delivery pressure. Change infusion set and site immediately.
.Administer correction dose by injection.
If alarm persists, call manufacturer helpline — pump may need replacement.

Auto-mode suspension (HCL)

HCL exits auto-mode when: CGM signal lost, glucose >300 mg/dL for >60 min, or sensor errors.
Manually monitor BG. Resume auto-mode only when CGM signal restored and glucose trending down.
Ensure backup supplies.

Site infection / abscess

Remove infusion set immediately.
Review site rotation practices. Avoid sites with visible lipohypertrophy.

Access Barriers: Insurance, Cost & Equity

Disparities in CGM and pump access

Access to CGM and insulin pump technology is profoundly shaped by insurance coverage, socioeconomic factors, and systemic health inequities.

**Since 2017
(therapeutic
CGM)**

CGM Coverage
(Medicare)

**Since 1999
(T1DM, qualifying
criteria)**

Pump Coverage
(Medicare)

**~80–90%
(T1DM), varies
T2DM**

Private Insurance
CGM Coverage

**Highly variable
by state**

Medicaid CGM
Coverage









RACIAL AND SOCIOECONOMIC DISPARITIES

Black and Hispanic youth with T1DM are 50–70% less likely to use CGM or insulin pump therapy despite equivalent clinical indication (Lipman et al., Diabetes Care 2013)

Physicians should proactively address cost, connect to patient assistance programs, and advocate for equitable prescribing.

Current Guidelines: ADA 2026 & EASD Consensus

Key recommendations from the 2026 ADA Standards of Care

ADA 2026 7.15		CGM recommended at diabetes ONSET and anytime thereafter for anyone on insulin, non-insulin therapies that cause hypoglycemia, or any treatment where CGM helps management [NEW 2026]
ADA 2026 7.25a		AID systems are the PREFERRED insulin delivery method over MDI, CSII, and sensor-augmented pumps in T1DM, T2DM on insulin, and insulin-deficient diabetes — no longer requires prior treatment steps [NEW 2026]
ADA 2026 7.25b		Consider AID systems for T2DM on basal insulin not achieving individualized glycemic goals — expanded eligibility [NEW 2026]
ADA 2026 7.27		Support and provide advice to people who choose open-source AID systems (e.g., Loop, AndroidAPS) — first explicit endorsement [NEW 2026]
ADA 2026 7.29		Continue personal CGM during hospitalization with confirmatory POC glucose for insulin dosing and hypoglycemia treatment, per institutional protocol
ADA 2026 7.30		Continue insulin pump or AID during hospitalization when clinically appropriate, with institutional protocols, trained personnel, and ongoing competency assessment
ADA 2026 6.3c		Goal TBR <70 mg/dL of <4% (or <1% for older adults); TBR <54 mg/dL of <1%. Deintensify therapy if these goals are not met.
EASD 2022		Offer CGM to all T1DM patients; HCL systems preferred over CSII alone when available and accessible

Clinical Workflow: Integrating CGM + Pump Data

How to efficiently review diabetes technology data at clinic visits

Step 1: Download AGP Report

2 min

Access via Dexcom Clarity, LibreView, or Glooko. Review 14-day AGP pattern before seeing patient.

Step 2: Review TIR / TBR / GMI

1 min

Is TBR >1% or >4%?
Hypoglycemia takes priority.

Is TIR <70%?
What time of day is glucose out of range?

Step 3: Review Pump History

2 min

Download pump: review basal rates, total daily dose, bolus frequency, and IOB. Compare to carb intake history.

Step 4: Identify Pattern

1 min

Overnight lows? Post-meal spikes? Mealtime omitted boluses? Use AGP modal day to identify consistent patterns.

Step 5: Adjust Settings

3 min

Modify basal rate, I:C ratio, correction factor, target glucose, or insulin-to-carb timing based on pattern.

Step 6: Patient Education

3–5 min

Reinforce site rotation, alarm response, sick day rules, and tech troubleshooting at every visit.

Patient Education Checklist: CGM & Pump Initiation

Minimum education requirements before technology initiation

CGM Initiation

- How to insert sensor correctly
- Understanding trend arrows and lag time
- Configuring alert thresholds appropriately
- When to confirm with fingerstick
- How to use the AGP report
- Recognizing and managing sensor errors
- Data sharing with caregivers/physicians
- Proper disposal of sensor waste

Pump Initiation

- Programming basal rates and boluses
- Carbohydrate counting fundamentals
- Infusion set changes every 2–3 days
- Site selection and rotation map
- Sick day protocol and when to switch to MDI
- Hypoglycemia treatment on pump
- Emergency insulin injection supplies always available
- Understanding HCL system limitations

Emerging Directions in Diabetes Technology



Fully Automated Closed-Loop

Zero user input required. iLet Bionic Pancreas (T1DM) — FDA approved 2023. Weight-based only. 3rd-gen algorithms eliminate carb counting.



Dual-Hormone Systems

Insulin + glucagon
Better hypoglycemia prevention.



Implantable CGM

Senseonics Eversense
Eliminates daily wearable changes.



Non-Invasive CGM

Spectroscopic methods (NIR, Raman, optical coherence tomography).

Apple Watch glucose sensing — multiple patents filed. Not yet clinically validated.



Artificial Intelligence

Predictive meal detection without carb entry.
Stress, illness, exercise recognition.
Personalized adaptive algorithms



Wearable Metabolite Panels

Multi-analyte patches: glucose + lactate + ketones + cortisol . (UC Berkeley, 2023).

Case Study 1: The Over-Responding Patient

CASE PRESENTATION

A 28-year-old woman with T1DM (10 years) presents with HbA1c of 6.2% and reports 3–4 episodes of symptomatic hypoglycemia per week. She uses Dexcom G7 + OmniPod 5. She checks her phone "every 5 minutes" when an alert fires. She treats any reading <90 mg/dL with 15g carbohydrates regardless of trend arrow. Sleep quality: poor.

AGP REVIEW:

TIR: 82% ✓ TBR L1 (54–69): 9% X X TBR L2 (<54): 2% X X GMI: 6.5% CV: 42% (high)

TEACHING POINTS

1. TBR >1% is the priority concern — not perfect TIR
2. Over-treating ISF readings without trend arrow context creates rebound hyperglycemia
3. Alarm fatigue: customize alerts (disable non-urgent), use CGM vibration only at night
4. Lower TBR by raising glucose target in OmniPod 5 to 120 mg/dL; reduce overnight basal 20%
5. Refer to diabetes educator for alarm management counseling and carb counting refresher

Case Study 2: The Pump Patient with Recurrent DKA

Infusion set misuse and site lipohypertrophy

CASE PRESENTATION

18-year-old male with T1DM since age 4, on MiniMed 780G + Guardian 4. Third DKA admission in 18 months. Each episode: glucose >500, bicarbonate <10. No infection identified. Pump shows no alarms prior to admissions. He reports 'the pump just stops working.' HbA1c has risen from 7.8% to 9.4% over 2 years.

PHYSICAL EXAM FINDING:

Bilateral periumbilical lipohypertrophy — firm, rubbery, non-tender plaques 8–12 cm diameter. Infusion sets always placed in same site.

CLINICAL MANAGEMENT & TEACHING

1. Root cause: lipohypertrophied tissue has markedly impaired/erratic insulin absorption — pump delivers dose but it pools subcutaneously
2. Management: mandatory site rotation map (8+ sites: abdomen quadrants, flanks, upper buttocks, lateral thighs)
3. Infusion set change every 48 hours
4. Guardian 4 sensor alerts for rapid glucose rise — patient had alarm disabled; re-enable
5. Structured pump education with CDE

KEY TAKEAWAYS

01

ADA 2026: CGM is NOW recommended at diabetes onset — not just when control is poor. Earlier is better for all patients on insulin or at hypoglycemia risk.

02

ADA 2026: AID (automated insulin delivery) is the PREFERRED method over MDI and standard CSII

03

TIR >70% and TBR <1% are the primary CGM targets. CV <36% indicates acceptable glucose variability. GMI ≠ HbA1c — discordance requires investigation.

04

Pump-related DKA can develop within 4–6 hours. Educate patients on ketone monitoring, infusion set changes every 2–3 days, and backup injection protocol.

05

Site lipohypertrophy is underdiagnosed and drives insulin absorption failure. Palpate infusion sites at every clinic visit and enforce rotation.

06

Address health equity proactively. Technology disparities are real — connect patients to manufacturer assistance programs and advocate for equitable prescribing.

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