

1 **Nurse-Led Diabetes Self-Management Education and Self-Care Support in Diabetes Care.**

2

3 **ABSTRACT**

4 Type 2 diabetes mellitus requires sustained self-management to achieve glycemic control and  
5 reduce the risk of complications. Because much of diabetes care occurs outside clinical settings,  
6 patients must routinely adhere to medication, nutrition, physical activity, blood glucose  
7 monitoring, and problem-solving behaviors. Nurses play a central role in supporting these  
8 activities through diabetes self-management education (DSME) and diabetes self-management  
9 education and support (DSMES). This narrative review examines nurses' contributions to  
10 diabetes outcomes through educational, behavioral, and supportive interventions. The available  
11 evidence shows that nurse-led DSMES improves diabetes knowledge, self-efficacy, self-care  
12 behaviors, medication adherence, and glucose monitoring, with associated reductions in glycosylated  
13 hemoglobin levels. These effects are strongest when education is individualized, reinforced over  
14 time, and integrated with counseling, motivational interviewing, behavioral coaching, and  
15 follow-up. Digital and telehealth approaches may further extend the reach of nurse-led support,  
16 although their effectiveness depends on access, engagement, and professional feedback. Barriers  
17 such as workforce constraints, health literacy, socioeconomic disadvantage, cultural differences,  
18 and implementation challenges may limit program impact. In conclusion, nurse-led DSMES is an  
19 important component of comprehensive diabetes care, supporting long-term self-management  
20 and improving patient outcomes.

21 **Keywords:**Diabetes Mellitus, Type 2; Self-Management; Patient Education as Topic; Self Care

## 22 **1 Introduction**

23 Diabetes mellitus is a major global public health challenge, with adult prevalence increasing  
24 from approximately 7% in 1990 to 14% in 2022, affecting more than 800 million adults  
25 worldwide[1,2]. Despite advances in pharmacological treatment and health-system capacity in  
26 many countries, substantial gaps in diabetes care persist, particularly in low- and middle-income  
27 regions where screening, treatment coverage, and follow-up remain suboptimal [3].

28 Beyond its high prevalence, diabetes is characterized by its need for continuous self-  
29 management. Effective disease control relies largely on patients' daily decisions regarding  
30 dietary habits, medication adherence, glucose monitoring, symptom recognition, and prevention  
31 of complications[1,2,4]. These activities occur outside formal healthcare settings and are strongly  
32 influenced by health literacy, numeracy, socioeconomic conditions, treatment complexity, family  
33 responsibilities, and psychological factors [5]. Deficits in understanding and applying treatment  
34 recommendations have been consistently associated with poorer glycemic control and higher  
35 complication rates in diverse populations [3,5].

36 Within this context, nursing assumes a critical role. Unlike interventions focused primarily on  
37 biomedical targets, nursing practice directly addresses the behavioral and practical demands of  
38 chronic disease management, helping patients integrate recommended self-care activities into  
39 everyday life [2,4].

40 Nurses commonly conduct individualized assessments, deliver tailored education, reinforce  
41 behavior change, monitor treatment responses, and coordinate multidisciplinary input across  
42 clinic, community, and virtual settings, functions that are central to sustainable self-management  
43 support [5,6].

44 The importance of self-management extends beyond patient education alone. Contemporary  
45 evidence indicates that improvements in glycemic outcomes are mediated through enhanced self-

46 care behaviors, greater self-efficacy, and improved problem-solving abilities. Structured self-  
47 management interventions consistently demonstrate that behavioral changes and increased  
48 patient confidence contribute substantially to improved diabetes control [2,7].

49 Multiple meta-analyses have reported clinically meaningful reductions in glycated hemoglobin  
50 (HbA1c) following diabetes self-management education (DSME), particularly when programs  
51 include behavioral components and sufficient contact time [8–10].

52 Glycemic control depends not only on medication use but also on education, behavior change,  
53 and the organization of ongoing support. The effectiveness of medications depends on patients’  
54 ability to understand treatment regimens, recognize glucose patterns, adapt to lifestyle demands,  
55 and respond appropriately to symptoms and treatment-related challenges. This perspective  
56 provides a strong rationale for nursing involvement, as nurses facilitate the development and  
57 maintenance of these essential self-management competencies [5,11].

58 Through structured assessment, collaborative goal setting, counseling, and longitudinal follow-  
59 up, nurses support patients in applying pharmacological prescriptions within the constraints of  
60 real-world daily life [5,6].

61 Nursing contributions to diabetes care extend beyond routine education and encompass  
62 continuity of care, individualized coaching, cultural adaptation, accessibility, and ongoing  
63 behavioral reinforcement. Through repeated patient contact and sustained support, nurses help  
64 translate clinical recommendations into practical actions that can be implemented in daily life.

65 In many programs, these activities are undertaken in collaboration with dietitians, physicians,  
66 and other health professionals as part of interdisciplinary diabetes care teams [5,6].

67 Evidence from meta-analyses indicates that nurse-led interventions consistently improve self-  
68 management behaviors and self-efficacy, with glycemic benefits becoming more pronounced

69 when interventions are maintained over longer follow-up periods and when contact time is  
70 greater [12]. Foundational DSME meta-analyses similarly show that greater contact hours and  
71 ongoing reinforcement are associated with larger and more durable reductions in HbA1c[8,9].  
72 This observation is supported by recent implementation studies demonstrating that nurse-led  
73 DSMES can be effectively delivered across outpatient, community, and technology-assisted  
74 settings while maintaining meaningful improvements in both behavioral and clinical outcomes  
75 [13,14].  
76 Nursing involvement is not merely supportive but intrinsically aligned with the requirements of  
77 diabetes management. Because successful diabetes care depends on repeated reinforcement,  
78 behavioral troubleshooting, and long-term engagement, nursing practice is particularly well  
79 suited to outpatient, community-based, virtual, and transitional-care settings where sustained  
80 self-management support is required [5,13,15].  
81 Current evidence strongly supports integrating diabetes self-management education (DSME)  
82 with ongoing self-care support. Although structured education improves knowledge and initial  
83 behavioral change, its benefits may diminish over time without reinforcement[5,16].  
84 Early meta-analyses documented attenuation of HbA1c effects several months after education is  
85 discontinued if ongoing support is not provided [8,17]. Consequently, contemporary standards  
86 increasingly emphasize diabetes self-management education and support (DSMES) as a  
87 comprehensive approach that combines knowledge acquisition with long-term behavioral  
88 maintenance [5,6,16].  
89 Recent comparative evidence further supports this integrated approach. In a network meta-  
90 analysis involving 108 studies and 17,735 participants, DSMES demonstrated superior effects on

91 HbA1c, fasting blood glucose, blood pressure, and lipid outcomes compared with usual care and  
92 achieved greater glycemic improvement than DSME alone [16].

93 These findings, together with accumulating evidence from nurse-led interventions and digital  
94 programs, underscore the central role of nurses in delivering effective DSMES and justify a  
95 focused examination of nurse-led DSME and self-care support in contemporary diabetes care.

96 DSME provides the knowledge and skills patients need, while self-care support helps them  
97 maintain those behaviors in daily practice. This distinction is particularly relevant to nursing  
98 practice, as nurses frequently provide ongoing reinforcement, problem-solving support, and  
99 behavioral coaching to maintain long-term adherence and self-management [5,16,18].

100 This narrative review examines the role of nurses in improving diabetes outcomes through  
101 diabetes self-management education and sustained self-care support. Particular emphasis is  
102 placed on the conceptual foundations of DSME and DSMES, the nursing interventions that  
103 facilitate effective self-management, and the mechanisms through which these interventions  
104 contribute to long-term behavioral and glycemic improvement among adults with type 2  
105 diabetes.

106 **2 Concept of DSME**

107 **2.1 Definition and Evolution from DSME to DSMES**

108 The concept of diabetes self-management education (DSME) has evolved considerably over the  
109 past two decades. While earlier literature primarily emphasized education as a means of  
110 improving patient knowledge and self-care skills, contemporary standards increasingly recognize  
111 that education alone is insufficient to sustain long-term behavioral change.

112 These findings highlighted the limitations of one-time or brief educational encounters and the  
113 need to embed self-management training within continuing care [17,19].

114 Consequently, the current framework of diabetes self-management education and support  
115 (DSMES) integrates structured education with ongoing support to facilitate implementation,  
116 maintenance of self-care behaviors, and adaptation to changing clinical circumstances[5,18,20].

117 Current consensus documents define DSMES as a structured, person-centered process that  
118 equips individuals with the knowledge, skills, and confidence required for effective diabetes self-  
119 management while providing continuous support for problem-solving, decision-making, and  
120 quality-of-life preservation[5,18,20–23].

121 Although many contemporary intervention studies continue to use the term DSME, their  
122 interventions frequently incorporate support elements such as coaching, follow-up contacts,  
123 digital reinforcement, and behavioral counseling. As a result, some terminological overlap  
124 persists within the literature. Nevertheless, DSMES has become the preferred terminology in  
125 current guidelines because it more accurately reflects the longitudinal and behavioral nature of  
126 diabetes management[12,24].

127 In practice, DSMES emphasizes an ongoing relationship in which education, skills training, and  
128 support are revisited and adapted over time as patients' clinical status, treatment regimens, and  
129 life circumstances change [5,6].

## 130 **2.2 Core Goals of DSME**

131 The primary objectives of DSME/DSMES encompass three interrelated domains: improving  
132 diabetes-related knowledge, strengthening self-efficacy, and promoting sustainable self-care  
133 behaviors. Effective programs enhance patients' understanding of diabetes and its treatment  
134 while supporting practical behaviors related to medication adherence, healthy eating, physical  
135 activity, glucose monitoring, foot care, and problem-solving [2,25].

136 Meta-analyses of theory-based self-management educational interventions have shown that  
137 programs grounded in behavioral and social-cognitive theories significantly improve HbA1c,  
138 diabetes knowledge, and self-efficacy, reinforcing the centrality of these goals [26].

139 These goals should be viewed as sequential and complementary rather than independent  
140 outcomes. Knowledge provides the foundation for informed decision-making, whereas self-  
141 efficacy facilitates translating knowledge into action. Sustained behavioral change ultimately  
142 depends on continued support that reinforces self-management practices and reduces the  
143 likelihood of behavioral decline over time [5,26].

144 Sustained behavioral change ultimately depends on continued support that reinforces self-  
145 management practices and reduces the likelihood of behavioral decline over time[7–  
146 9,12].DSMES operationalizes this sequence by linking educational content, skill-building, and  
147 ongoing support within a single, person-centered framework [6].

### 148 ***2.3 Standards, Timing, and Delivery Principles***

149 Contemporary DSMES standards emphasize that self-management support should be delivered  
150 throughout the course of diabetes rather than as a single educational event. Current guidelines  
151 identify four critical times when DSMES should be assessed, offered, or modified: at diagnosis,  
152 annually, when treatment targets are not achieved, and when new complicating factors emerge,  
153 as well as during transitions in health status or care settings[5,18].

154 Systematic review evidence focusing on adults within 12 months of diagnosis further  
155 demonstrates that DSMES initiated early in the disease course can improve HbA1c and self-care  
156 behaviors, supporting these timing recommendations [27].

157 Modern DSMES delivery is guided by person-centered care principles that emphasize  
158 collaborative goal setting, cultural responsiveness, consideration of social determinants of health,

159 and individualized behavioral support. Delivery methods have also expanded beyond traditional  
160 face-to-face education to include group-based programs, telephone support, remote monitoring,  
161 and digital health platforms. These approaches can increase accessibility and patient engagement  
162 across diverse populations[24,28].

163 Meta-analyses indicate that mode of delivery, contact hours, and provider mix influence  
164 glycemic outcomes; programs that combine individual and group sessions, provide at least 10–12  
165 hours of contact, and involve interdisciplinary teams (including nurses, dietitians, and other  
166 health professionals) tend to achieve larger HbA1c reductions than low-dose, single-provider  
167 education [9,10]. However, evidence suggests that technology-based interventions are more  
168 effective when combined with professional feedback, coaching, or other forms of individualized  
169 support. Therefore, digital tools should be viewed as mechanisms that extend and reinforce  
170 DSMES rather than replacements for healthcare professional involvement[24,28,29].

#### 171 ***2.4 Why Nurse-Led DSME Is Effective in Clinical Practice***

172 Both theoretical and practical considerations can explain the effectiveness of nurse-led DSME.  
173 From a theoretical perspective, nursing practice inherently incorporates patient assessment,  
174 health education, behavioral reinforcement, communication, and long-term follow-up, all of  
175 which are central components of effective self-management support. From a practical  
176 perspective, nurses frequently have greater opportunities than physicians for repeated patient  
177 contact, individualized counseling, and ongoing reinforcement across clinical, community, and  
178 remote-care settings[12,15]. Consequently, nurse-led DSME should be viewed as a core  
179 component within collaborative care frameworks rather than an isolated intervention.

180 In addition, recent implementation research increasingly recognizes nurse-led diabetes care as a  
181 scalable healthcare model capable of expanding access to self-management support, particularly

182 among vulnerable and underserved populations where specialist diabetes services may be limited  
183 [13,14].

## 184 *2.5 Evidence That Nurse-Led DSME Improves Knowledge, Self-Care, and Glycemic* 185 *Outcomes*

186 Evidence supporting nurse-led DSME is substantial, though intervention effects vary by program  
187 design, duration, and patient population. Improvements in self-efficacy and self-care behaviors  
188 are consistently reported, while glycemic outcomes demonstrate moderate but clinically  
189 meaningful benefits[12,30–32].

190 A recent meta-analysis of nurse-led DSME interventions reported reductions in HbA1c of  
191  $-0.92\%$  at 4–6 months and  $-0.54\%$  beyond 6 months, accompanied by a large pooled  
192 improvement in self-efficacy (SMD 1.48), despite considerable between-study  
193 heterogeneity[12].

194 These findings are supported by broader evidence on DSME/DSMES. A network meta-analysis  
195 demonstrated that DSMES reduced HbA1c by  $-0.61\%$  compared with usual care and achieved  
196 modestly greater glycemic improvement than education-only interventions ( $-0.23\%$ ).

197 Similarly, structured DSME programs in low- and middle-income countries produced pooled  
198 HbA1c reductions of  $-0.64\%$ , while DSMES interventions in the WHO African Region  
199 demonstrated a pooled effect size of SMD  $-0.468$ [16,25,33].

200 Collectively, these findings indicate that nurse-led DSME/DSMES improves diabetes  
201 knowledge, self-management behaviors, self-efficacy, and glycemic control. The available  
202 evidence further suggests that sustained interventions incorporating ongoing support are  
203 generally more effective than brief educational encounters alone[12,16,25,33].Evidence of  
204 DSME interventions further confirmed a significant overall positive effect on HbA1c while

205 emphasizing the need for integrated, multimodal self-management programs to maximize long-  
206 term effectiveness [34].

### 207 **3 Nurses' role in self-care support**

#### 208 ***3.1 Nurses as Translators of Treatment Plans into Daily Routines***

209 Nurses play a pivotal role in diabetes self-management by translating clinical recommendations  
210 into practical behaviors that patients can implement and sustain in daily life. Their contribution  
211 extends beyond the delivery of information to include assessment of readiness for change,  
212 adaptation of education to cultural and literacy needs, identification of barriers to adherence, and  
213 ongoing reinforcement of self-care practices[2,12].

214 In this context, nurses operationalize self-care by helping patients translate therapeutic  
215 recommendations into realistic meal plans, medication schedules, glucose-monitoring routines,  
216 and contingency strategies to manage disruptions to daily life. Many failures in diabetes  
217 management arise not from a lack of medical advice but from difficulties integrating that advice  
218 into everyday routines. Through individualized coaching and continuous follow-up, nurses  
219 bridge this gap between treatment planning and sustained self-management[2,12].

220 These translation activities often occur within multidisciplinary teams that include dietitians,  
221 physicians, and other health professionals, with nurses frequently acting as coordinators who  
222 align clinical plans with patients' daily contexts. Qualitative and implementation studies suggest  
223 that this coordinating role is particularly important for patients with multimorbidity or complex  
224 treatment regimens, in whom fragmented guidance can otherwise lead to confusion and reduced  
225 adherence [13,32,35,36].

226 **3.2 Dietary Guidance and Healthy Eating Education**

227 Dietary counseling remains a core component of nursing support in diabetes care. Contemporary  
228 evidence indicates that nutritional guidance is most effective when individualized and aligned  
229 with patients' cultural practices, food preferences, financial circumstances, and daily routines.  
230 Rather than providing prescriptive instructions alone, nurses facilitate collaborative goal setting  
231 and behavioral change strategies that support long-term adherence to healthy eating  
232 patterns[2,5].

233 Nurses also help patients understand the relationship between food choices, meal timing, portion  
234 size, and glycemic outcomes. By integrating dietary recommendations into patients' social and  
235 environmental contexts, they promote more sustainable lifestyle modifications.

236 Further evidence from patient-centered interventions further supports this approach.  
237 Multicomponent programs incorporating individualized education, counseling, behavioral  
238 training, and home-based support have demonstrated significant improvements in self-efficacy  
239 and self-care behaviors, accompanied by modest but clinically meaningful reductions in  
240 HbA1c[7]. These findings suggest that dietary education is most effective when delivered as an  
241 ongoing behavioral coaching process rather than a one-time educational activity.

242 Many of these programs are delivered by interdisciplinary teams in which nurses play a central  
243 but not exclusive role; recognizing this helps avoid overstating the uniqueness of nursing while  
244 still highlighting their contribution to day-to-day dietary support [7,32,37].

245 The evidence suggests that dietary counseling is most effective when integrated into broader  
246 behavioral support and tailored to the patient's social and cultural context.

### 247 3.3 Medication Adherence Support and Follow-Up

248 Medication adherence remains a major challenge in type 2 diabetes management. Factors  
249 contributing to nonadherence include treatment complexity, medication costs, adverse effects,  
250 limited health literacy, misconceptions about therapy, and competing personal or occupational  
251 demands[11,38].

252 Nurses support adherence by explaining treatment regimens, addressing misconceptions,  
253 teaching correct medication administration, monitoring adverse effects, and collaborating with  
254 prescribers to simplify treatment plans when appropriate. Equally important, they use regular  
255 follow-up interactions to identify early signs of adherence difficulties and implement corrective  
256 strategies before glycemic control deteriorates[11,38].

257 Medication adherence support is both educational and relational. While many patients  
258 understand the importance of prescribed therapy, they often encounter practical challenges  
259 related to work schedules, meal timing, travel, injections, or treatment-related side effects.  
260 Nurses are uniquely positioned to address these challenges through individualized problem-  
261 solving and ongoing support integrated into routine diabetes care [11].

262 Similarly, a randomized trial evaluating a personalized nurse-led engagement program reported  
263 significant improvements in treatment adherence, self-efficacy, and patient engagement, further  
264 supporting the value of individualized follow-up and behavioral coaching in medication  
265 management [39].

266 At the same time, systematic reviews indicate that improvements in adherence measures do not  
267 invariably translate into large or sustained changes in glycemic indices, particularly when  
268 interventions are brief or low intensity [11,38,40]. This underscores the importance of  
269 embedding adherence support within comprehensive DSMES models and of evaluating both

270 behavioral and clinical outcomes when assessing the impact of nurse-led adherence  
271 interventions.

### 272 ***3.4 Blood Glucose Monitoring Teaching and Interpretation***

273 Effective glucose monitoring requires both technical proficiency and interpretive understanding.  
274 Nurses educate patients on the use of self-monitoring devices and continuous glucose monitoring  
275 systems while also helping them understand how glucose values relate to dietary intake, physical  
276 activity, stress, illness, and medication timing[24,41].

277 The interpretive component of glucose monitoring is particularly important because glucose data  
278 become clinically meaningful only when patients can translate readings into informed self-  
279 management decisions. Through individualized feedback, nurses help patients recognize  
280 patterns, identify triggers of glycemic fluctuations, and modify behaviors accordingly.

281 Structured nurse-led education programs have also demonstrated significant improvements in  
282 blood glucose monitoring behaviors, reinforcing the importance of combining technical  
283 instruction with individualized interpretation and feedback [37].

284 Evidence from digital DSMES interventions further supports the role of nurses in interpreting  
285 glucose monitoring results and providing feedback. Programs that combine remote monitoring  
286 with professional coaching appear particularly effective in helping patients recognize glycemic  
287 patterns and apply monitoring data to self-management decisions [24,42].

288 However, not all self-monitoring or technology-intensive programs lead to substantial  
289 improvements in glycemic outcomes, and benefits appear greatest when monitoring is explicitly  
290 linked to treatment adjustment, problem-solving, and structured education rather than performed  
291 in isolation. These observations support an emphasis on nurse-led interpretation and action

292 planning, while detailed clinical outcome effects are best considered in the dedicated clinical and  
293 behavioral outcomes section.

### 294 ***3.5 Problem-Solving for Hypoglycemia, Hyperglycemia, Missed Doses, and Lifestyle*** 295 ***Barriers***

296 Problem-solving is a fundamental component of effective diabetes self-management support.  
297 Patients must frequently adapt to fluctuating glucose levels, missed medications, acute illness,  
298 dietary deviations, changing schedules, physical limitations, and psychological stress.  
299 Consequently, contemporary diabetes standards identify problem-solving as a core self-  
300 management competency[2,5].

301 Nurses help patients develop adaptive strategies to manage these challenges, promoting  
302 resilience and confidence in self-care decision-making. Their role extends beyond preventing  
303 errors to assisting patients in responding effectively when setbacks occur.

304 Evidence from tele-nursing and motivational interviewing interventions supports the value of  
305 counseling-based approaches for helping patients manage real-world diabetes challenges and  
306 sustain self-management behaviors over time [43].

307 In practice, these approaches help patients identify specific barriers, discuss readiness for  
308 change, and develop realistic action plans for common diabetes-related problems. Evidence  
309 indicates that interventions incorporating coaching, motivational support, and repeated patient  
310 contact are particularly effective in strengthening adaptive self-management skills. Similarly,  
311 digital interventions demonstrate greater effectiveness when combined with personalized  
312 professional guidance, while motivational interviewing approaches have shown benefits for both  
313 behavioral outcomes and glycemic control[24,44].

314 Nonetheless, many available trials are relatively small and of limited duration, which limits the  
315 ability to draw firm conclusions about long-term effectiveness; this limitation is further  
316 addressed in the clinical and behavioral outcomes section.

### 317 **3.6 Reinforcement of Physical Activity, Foot Care, and Risk Reduction**

318 Risk-reduction behaviors represent a practical extension of diabetes self-care support. Nurses  
319 promote regular physical activity, encourage symptom-aware exercise planning, reinforce foot  
320 inspection practices, educate patients regarding footwear selection and skin care, and facilitate  
321 early recognition of complications requiring medical attention[2,45].

322 These preventive behaviors are essential because the long-term prevention of diabetes-related  
323 complications depends largely on sustained patient engagement in daily self-care activities.

324 However, such behaviors often decline over time without reinforcement and monitoring.

325 Emerging evidence from diabetic-foot care interventions highlights the value of targeted nurse-  
326 led support. A randomized controlled trial evaluating a nurse-led, self-efficacy-based hybrid foot  
327 self-management program demonstrated significant improvements in foot-care knowledge, self-  
328 care practices, and self-efficacy among individuals with diabetes [46].

329 Similar improvements in foot-care behaviors have been reported in theory-based nurse-led  
330 DSMES interventions that integrate practical skills training, behavioral reinforcement, and  
331 continuous follow-up [37,46]. Although focused on a specific complication, these findings  
332 support the broader principle that combining education with reinforcement, behavioral feedback,  
333 and ongoing support enhances adherence to preventive self-care behaviors.

334 These findings suggest that nurse-led reinforcement is especially important for complex or low-  
335 salience behaviors (such as foot care and routine physical activity) that may not be maintained

336 without structured support, while detailed clinical outcomes (e.g., ulcer incidence) are more  
337 appropriately discussed in the outcomes section.

338 Overall, nurses contribute substantially to diabetes self-management by integrating education,  
339 behavioral coaching, monitoring, and reinforcement into routine care. Through these activities,  
340 they help patients translate knowledge into sustained self-care behaviors, ultimately improving  
341 both behavioral and clinical outcomes.

342 *Figure 1* summarizes the nurse-led self-care support pathway, illustrating how assessment,  
343 education, reinforcement, monitoring, and escalation form a continuous cycle that supports  
344 sustained diabetes self-management.

#### 345 **4 Educational strategies used by nurses**

346 Effective diabetes self-management support depends not only on what patients are taught but  
347 also on how education is delivered. Contemporary evidence increasingly favors individualized,  
348 theory-informed, and multimodal educational approaches over traditional didactic teaching.  
349 Current DSMES standards emphasize structured curricula, trained educators, quality assurance,  
350 and outcome evaluation as key components of effective educational programs [18,37].

##### 351 **4.1 Individual Education Sessions**

352 Individualized education remains a cornerstone of nurse-led diabetes care, particularly for newly  
353 diagnosed patients, individuals with limited health literacy, those receiving complex treatment  
354 regimens, or patients facing psychosocial barriers. Personalized educational sessions allow  
355 nurses to assess self-care deficits, confidence, readiness for change, and individual barriers,  
356 enabling tailored interventions that address specific patient needs rather than providing generic  
357 recommendations [39,47].Recent nurse-led interventions support the use of individualized

358 educational approaches to address treatment-related barriers, strengthen patient engagement, and  
359 facilitate personalized self-management planning [39,47].

360 Such one-to-one encounters are especially important for aligning educational content with  
361 patients' cognitive, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds and for initiating collaborative goal-  
362 setting that can later be reinforced in group or digital formats. However, they are resource-  
363 intensive, and their optimal frequency and integration with other DSMES components remain  
364 areas for further study[12,18,34], which are addressed in more detail when clinical and  
365 behavioral outcomes are considered.

#### 366 **4.2 Group Teaching and Peer Support**

367 Group-based education remains an important strategy within DSME and DSMES programs.  
368 Beyond improving efficiency, group teaching creates opportunities for peer interaction, shared  
369 learning, normalization of challenges, and mutual accountability. These psychosocial benefits  
370 may enhance motivation and long-term engagement in self-management activities [48,49].

371 Evidence suggests that peer-supported DSME interventions can improve glycemic outcomes,  
372 particularly when contact is frequent and integrated within structured education programs. A  
373 meta-analysis of peer-support interventions reported a pooled HbA1c improvement of SMD  
374  $-0.41$ , with stronger effects observed in interventions characterized by frequent contact, shorter  
375 program duration, and active group participation [50]. Consequently, group-based education  
376 should be viewed not only as a resource-efficient teaching method but also as a mechanism for  
377 strengthening social support and behavioral maintenance.

378 Earlier evidence of group-based DSME similarly highlights improvements in knowledge, self-  
379 management skills, and selected cardiometabolic risk factors, supporting the integration of group  
380 formats within comprehensive DSMES models[25,48,49].At the same time, findings on long-

381 term durability beyond 12 months are mixed, underscoring the need for ongoing reinforcement  
382 and follow-up outside the initial group program.

### 383 **4.3 *Counseling and Motivational Interviewing***

384 Counseling-based interventions have become increasingly important within nurse-led diabetes  
385 education. Motivational interviewing and other patient-centered counseling approaches are  
386 particularly valuable for addressing ambivalence, strengthening self-efficacy, reducing diabetes-  
387 related distress, and facilitating long-term behavior change.

388 Recent evidence supports tele-nursing motivational interviewing as an effective strategy for  
389 promoting behavior change, strengthening patient engagement, and addressing barriers to self-  
390 management [43,51]. Broader evidence further supports the effectiveness of motivational  
391 interviewing in improving behavioral outcomes and glycemic control in adults with type 2  
392 diabetes [43,44,52,53]. These findings suggest that educational interventions are most effective  
393 when they actively engage patients in behavior change rather than relying solely on information  
394 transfer.

395 This reinforces the view that counseling and motivational interviewing should be positioned as  
396 complementary components within DSMES, with their detailed impact on clinical endpoints  
397 described in the clinical and behavioral outcomes section.

### 398 **4.4 *Demonstrations, Printed Materials, and Culturally Appropriate Teaching***

399 Practical demonstrations and skills rehearsal are essential components of effective diabetes  
400 education. Nurses commonly supplement verbal instruction with written materials, visual aids,  
401 structured handbooks, and practical exercises that reinforce key self-management skills. Such  
402 approaches are particularly valuable for teaching blood glucose monitoring, medication  
403 administration, and foot-care practices [37,46].

404 Equally important is the cultural adaptation of educational content. Effective diabetes education  
405 should account for dietary customs, family roles, local beliefs, socioeconomic constraints, and  
406 health literacy levels. Evidence from culturally tailored and family-supported DSMES programs  
407 indicates that adapting interventions to local contexts improves self-management practices and  
408 quality of life, particularly among underserved populations [18,54].

409 Accordingly, demonstrations, written materials, and cultural tailoring should be regarded as  
410 integral elements of educational design rather than supplementary teaching aids.

411 From a methodological standpoint, these components are often embedded within  
412 multicomponent interventions, making it difficult to isolate their specific effects on clinical  
413 outcomes; however, process evaluations consistently link them to improved comprehension, skill  
414 performance, and program acceptability. A more granular evaluation of these components,  
415 alongside overall clinical outcomes, remains an important research priority.

#### 416 ***4.5 Technology-Based Support and Digital Reinforcement***

417 Technology-assisted support has emerged as a major component of contemporary nurse-led  
418 DSMES. Mobile phones, telehealth platforms, text messaging, smartphone applications, remote  
419 monitoring systems, and hybrid digital programs enable nurses to extend support beyond face-to-  
420 face encounters while maintaining continuity of care [14,55].

421 Recent evidence supports the use of nurse-led digital interventions as effective adjuncts to  
422 conventional DSMES. Benefits have been reported across telehealth, SMS-based, app-supported,  
423 remote-monitoring, and nurse-coordinated care models, particularly when digital tools are  
424 integrated with individualized feedback and ongoing professional support [14,55].

425 Evidence suggests that technology is most effective when it enhances ongoing nursing support  
426 rather than replacing it. Digital interventions incorporating self-monitoring, medication

427 reminders, action planning, feedback, and professional coaching consistently outperform passive  
428 information-delivery systems [14,55–58].

429 Meta-analytic findings indicate that the average effects of digital DSMES on HbA1c are  
430 generally modest and heterogeneous, and that sustained patient engagement with apps and  
431 remote-monitoring platforms can be challenging[24,28,57].In addition, digital health tools may  
432 exacerbate inequities among individuals with limited access to reliable internet, low digital  
433 literacy, or limited device availability, underscoring the need to pair technology-based support  
434 with tailored training and alternative delivery modes for these populations.

435 The most effective nurse-led DSMES programs combine individualized assessment, structured  
436 teaching, counseling, practical skills training, and follow-up support delivered in culturally  
437 appropriate ways, including digital formats when access is available. These complementary  
438 strategies facilitate both knowledge acquisition and the long-term maintenance of self-  
439 management behaviors, thereby improving clinical and behavioral outcomes.

440 *Table 1* summarizes the principal educational strategies employed by nurses in DSMES  
441 programs, their proposed mechanisms of action, implementation considerations, and supporting  
442 evidence.

## 443 **5 Clinical and behavioral outcomes**

444 The effectiveness of nurse-led diabetes self-management education and support (DSMES) is best  
445 understood across multiple outcome domains rather than solely through glycemic control.

446 Contemporary evidence indicates that these interventions influence diabetes knowledge, self-  
447 efficacy, self-care behaviors, clinical indicators, and psychosocial well-being, reflecting the  
448 multidimensional nature of diabetes management[2,5].

449 **5.1 *Improvement in Diabetes Knowledge and Self-Efficacy***

450 Knowledge acquisition and self-efficacy represent important proximal outcomes through which  
451 educational interventions influence long-term diabetes control. Nurse-led DSMES consistently  
452 improves patients' understanding of diabetes management and enhances their confidence in  
453 performing daily self-care activities.

454 Recent evidence demonstrates substantial improvements in self-efficacy following nurse-led  
455 interventions. A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials reported a pooled self-efficacy  
456 effect size of SMD 1.48, while multicenter educational interventions and personalized nurse-led  
457 engagement programs similarly documented significant gains in self-efficacy, treatment  
458 engagement, and self-management confidence[12,37,39]. These findings support the view that  
459 nurse-led DSMES works not only by increasing knowledge but also by strengthening patients'  
460 confidence in their ability to apply that knowledge effectively in everyday situations.

461 These proximal changes are consistent with broader meta-analytic findings from theory-based  
462 self-management interventions, which report significant improvements in self-efficacy and  
463 diabetes-related knowledge when educational content is explicitly grounded in behavioral and  
464 social-cognitive theories, suggesting that nurse-led DSMES benefits from similar mechanisms  
465 [59].

466 However, most self-efficacy outcomes are self-reported and measured using heterogeneous  
467 instruments, and relatively few studies follow patients beyond 12 months, limiting conclusions  
468 about the durability of these proximal gains [26,60,61].

469 **5.2 Improvement in Self-Care Behaviors**

470 Evidence supporting improvements in self-care behaviors is particularly robust. Nurse-led  
471 interventions have demonstrated positive effects across multiple domains, including healthy  
472 eating, medication management, blood glucose monitoring, physical activity, and foot care.

473 In a multicenter randomized controlled trial, participants receiving nurse-led structured education  
474 demonstrated improvements in dietary behaviors, including increased fruit and vegetable  
475 consumption and reduced intake of high-fat foods, together with better glucose monitoring,  
476 medication management, and foot-care practices [37]. Similar improvements have been reported  
477 across culturally tailored DSMES programs, personalized engagement interventions, mobile-  
478 health approaches, and nurse-led digitalized care models[47,54,55]. A recent meta-analysis of  
479 nurse-led digital interventions reported a pooled improvement in self-care behaviors of SMD  
480 1.15 [55].

481 These findings suggest that nurse-led DSMES can produce moderate-to-large improvements in  
482 self-reported frequency of self-care behaviors across multiple domains. Nevertheless, behavioral  
483 outcomes are predominantly assessed using self-report questionnaires with variable  
484 psychometric properties, and few studies incorporate objective indicators (e.g., device  
485 downloads, pharmacy refill data, accelerometry), which may increase the risk of social  
486 desirability and recall bias. Future trials incorporating standardized, validated self-care measures  
487 and objective behavioral indicators would allow more precise estimation of the behavioral  
488 impact of nurse-led DSMES.

489 **5.3 Clinical Outcomes: Glycemic Control and Other Indicators**

490 Clinical outcomes provide the most direct evidence of intervention effectiveness. Recent  
491 systematic reviews consistently demonstrate clinically meaningful improvements in glycemic  
492 control associated with participation in DSMES.

493 Early landmark meta-analyses of DSME [8,9] showed that structured DSME leads to average  
494 HbA1c reductions of approximately 0.5–0.8 percentage points compared with usual care, with  
495 larger effects observed when contact time exceeds about 10 hours and when education is  
496 combined with behavioral support components.

497 These foundational findings are corroborated by more recent syntheses that incorporate DSMES  
498 and complex behavioral programs. The strongest evidence comes from a network meta-analysis  
499 of 108 studies involving 17,735 participants, which reported an HbA1c reduction of –0.61% for  
500 DSMES compared with usual care and an additional –0.23% improvement compared with  
501 DSME alone[16]. Within nurse-led interventions specifically, a meta-analysis of randomized  
502 controlled trials demonstrated HbA1c reductions of –0.92% at 4–6 months and –0.54% beyond  
503 six months, together with improvements in fasting blood glucose and lipid profiles[12].  
504 Additional evidence from digitalized nurse-led programs reported a pooled HbA1c reduction of  
505 –0.25%, while multicenter nurse-led trials documented significant improvements in HbA1c and  
506 multiple self-management outcomes [37,55].

507 A behavioral program network meta-analysis further indicates that DSME/DSMES interventions  
508 offering  $\geq 11$  contact hours and integrating lifestyle or psychosocial support are more likely to  
509 achieve clinically important HbA1c reductions ( $\geq 0.4\%$ ) than brief, education-only programs with  
510  $\leq 10$  contact hours[10].

511 Despite these favorable findings, substantial heterogeneity exists across intervention intensity,  
512 duration, delivery methods, and patient populations. Recent umbrella reviews therefore

513 emphasize that while DSMES consistently improves glycemic outcomes, intervention  
514 effectiveness varies considerably across settings and implementation models[12,34].

515 Heterogeneity reflects differences in baseline HbA1c, patient characteristics (e.g., age,  
516 comorbidities, socioeconomic status), theoretical underpinnings, and program fidelity, and many  
517 trials are at moderate or high risk of bias due to unclear allocation concealment, limited blinding,  
518 and incomplete follow-up [9]. In addition, effect sizes tend to attenuate over time once intensive  
519 contact ceases, suggesting that maintenance strategies and ongoing support are essential if  
520 glycemic improvements are to be sustained beyond the first 6–12 months [8].

521 Other cardiometabolic indicators, including blood pressure and lipid profiles, show generally  
522 favorable but smaller and less consistently reported improvements, and data on hard outcomes  
523 (microvascular and macrovascular events) remain limited.

#### 524 ***5.4 Psychological and Quality-of-Life Outcomes***

525 Psychological outcomes are increasingly recognized as a benefit of nurse-led diabetes care.  
526 Beyond improving glycemic indicators, nursing interventions frequently reduce diabetes-related  
527 distress, strengthen coping skills, and improve quality of life.

528 Randomized studies of nurse-led motivational interviewing have also reported improvements in  
529 self-management confidence and selected metabolic indicators, suggesting that behavioral  
530 counseling may contribute to both psychological and clinical benefits [43].

531 A recent systematic review and meta-analysis reported a significant reduction in diabetes distress  
532 (SMD -0.36) following nurse-led psychological interventions, although effects on depression  
533 were less consistent[62]. Similarly, community-based, culturally tailored DSMES programs and  
534 digitally enabled nurse-led interventions have demonstrated meaningful improvements in quality  
535 of life and psychosocial well-being[54,55].

536 These contemporary findings align with earlier meta-analyses of diabetes self-management  
537 training, which documented small-to-moderate improvements in quality-of-life measures, despite  
538 substantial variability in instruments and reporting practices [63]. However, psychological and  
539 quality-of-life outcomes remain under-reported relative to glycemic endpoints, and follow-up  
540 periods are often short, making it difficult to determine the long-term impact of nurse-led  
541 DSMES on emotional well-being and treatment satisfaction.  
542 More consistent inclusion of validated measures of distress, depression, and quality of life,  
543 together with longer follow-up, would substantially strengthen the evidence base in this domain.  
544 These findings suggest that nurse-led DSMES addresses both the behavioral and emotional  
545 challenges associated with long-term diabetes management.  
546 By targeting self-efficacy, coping skills, and diabetes-related distress, nurse-led interventions  
547 may enhance patients' capacity to sustain self-management behaviors, thereby indirectly  
548 supporting glycemic and cardiometabolic outcomes.

### 549 **5.5 *Real-World Effectiveness of DSMES***

550 Evidence from routine clinical practice further supports the effectiveness of DSMES. In a  
551 retrospective cohort study involving 13,087 patients, participation in DSMES was associated  
552 with an adjusted HbA1c reduction of 1.03% over 24 months, representing a 0.19% greater  
553 decline than that observed among non-participants [42]. This real-world evidence strengthens the  
554 argument that the benefits of DSMES are not confined to controlled research settings but can  
555 also be achieved in routine clinical care when educational and supportive interventions are  
556 systematically implemented.

557 Additional pragmatic and implementation studies in primary care and community settings  
558 similarly report feasible integration of DSMES into clinical workflows, modest but meaningful

559 improvements in glycemic control, and increased uptake when referral systems and practice-  
560 level supports are optimized [32,35,36]. *Table 2* summarizes key contemporary evidence  
561 regarding the clinical, behavioral, and psychosocial outcomes associated with nurse-led DSMES  
562 interventions.

563 Overall, the evidence indicates that nurse-led DSMES produces meaningful improvements in  
564 diabetes knowledge, self-efficacy, self-care behaviors, glycemic control, and psychosocial well-  
565 being. Although effect sizes vary across intervention types and populations, the consistency of  
566 findings across randomized trials, systematic reviews, and real-world studies supports integrating  
567 nurse-led DSMES as a core component of comprehensive diabetes care.

568 At the same time, substantial heterogeneity, risk of bias, reliance on self-reported outcomes, and  
569 limited long-term data highlight the need for further high-quality, theory-informed, nurse-led  
570 DSMES trials and pragmatic implementation studies that incorporate longer follow-up and more  
571 robust clinical and psychosocial endpoints.

572

## 573 **6 Barriers to effective nursing support**

574 Despite the growing evidence supporting nurse-led diabetes self-management education and  
575 support (DSMES), multiple patient-, provider-, and system-level barriers continue to limit its  
576 effectiveness and scalability. Understanding these challenges is essential for translating research  
577 findings into sustainable clinical practice.

### 578 **6.1 Health-System and Workforce Barriers**

579 One of the most frequently reported barriers is insufficient time and workforce capacity.  
580 Diabetes self-management support requires repeated assessment, individualized coaching,  
581 behavioral reinforcement, and follow-up; however, these activities are often constrained by

582 staffing shortages, increasing patient volumes, and competing clinical priorities. In many  
583 healthcare settings, educational encounters remain brief and episodic, limiting opportunities for  
584 reinforcement, reassessment, and collaborative problem-solving[18,64].

585 Fragmented continuity of care further weakens the effectiveness of interventions. Patients may  
586 receive education during hospitalization or clinic visits, but experience little structured follow-up  
587 thereafter. Such discontinuity reduces opportunities to identify emerging self-management  
588 difficulties and may contribute to declining adherence over time. Current DSMES standards  
589 emphasize longitudinal engagement, yet implementation remains inconsistent across healthcare  
590 systems [18,64].

## 591 **6.2 Health Literacy and Numeracy Challenges**

592 Health literacy represents another major determinant of successful diabetes self-management.  
593 Many patients struggle to interpret blood glucose readings, understand medication schedules,  
594 recognize symptoms requiring intervention, or apply dietary recommendations in everyday  
595 situations. Limited numeracy may further impair the ability to adjust insulin doses, interpret  
596 nutrition labels, or understand trends in glucose monitoring data[65,66].

597 Educational attainment alone does not guarantee adequate health literacy. Patients may  
598 demonstrate good factual knowledge while still experiencing difficulty applying this knowledge  
599 to complex self-management decisions. Consequently, literacy-sensitive communication, teach-  
600 back methods, visual learning tools, and simplified educational materials should be considered  
601 essential components of nursing practice rather than optional enhancements.

## 602 **6.3 Socioeconomic Determinants of Self-Management**

603 Socioeconomic barriers frequently undermine self-management despite adequate educational  
604 support. Financial constraints, transportation difficulties, food insecurity, unstable employment,

605 medication costs, and limited access to monitoring supplies can substantially restrict patients'  
606 ability to implement recommended behaviors[64,67].

607 These challenges highlight an important distinction between knowledge deficits and resource  
608 deficits. Patients may fully understand recommended self-care practices but remain unable to  
609 perform them because of structural barriers. Consequently, effective nursing support increasingly  
610 requires attention to social determinants of health, referral to community resources, and  
611 adaptation of care plans to patients' economic realities.

#### 612 **6.4 Cultural, Linguistic, and Contextual Barriers**

613 Cultural and linguistic mismatches can reduce engagement with DSMES programs and limit the  
614 uptake of self-management recommendations. Educational approaches that fail to account for  
615 cultural food practices, family structures, health beliefs, language preferences, and community  
616 norms may be less effective, even when clinically accurate.

617 Recent evidence indicates that participation in culturally tailored DSMES programs is influenced  
618 by multiple factors, including cultural beliefs, emotional support, language accessibility,  
619 perceived program relevance, and trust in healthcare providers[68]. These findings underscore  
620 the importance of culturally responsive nursing practice and suggest that intervention  
621 effectiveness depends not only on educational content but also on contextual relevance.

#### 622 **6.5 Digital Divide and Technology-Related Challenges**

623 Digital health technologies offer opportunities to expand nursing reach; however, they do not  
624 eliminate existing barriers. Technology-based interventions may be less effective among  
625 individuals with limited digital literacy, inadequate internet connectivity, low confidence in  
626 technology use, or restricted access to smartphones and digital devices[24,69].

627 Furthermore, digital platforms cannot fully replace the relational aspects of nursing support.  
628 Evidence increasingly suggests that technology is most effective when integrated with  
629 personalized feedback, coaching, and professional follow-up rather than functioning as a stand-  
630 alone educational tool [24,69].

### 631 **6.6 Implementation and Sustainability Challenges**

632 Implementation challenges extend beyond individual patients and providers to the organization  
633 of diabetes services themselves. In many healthcare systems, DSMES remains inconsistently  
634 integrated into routine care pathways, resulting in variable referral practices, incomplete  
635 documentation, limited outcome monitoring, and inconsistent follow-up. As a result, many  
636 eligible patients never receive structured self-management support despite strong evidence of its  
637 benefits. The challenge is therefore not only to generate evidence for DSMES effectiveness but  
638 also to embed evidence-based programs into routine clinical workflows. Future implementation  
639 efforts should focus on improving referral systems, increasing program accessibility,  
640 strengthening workforce capacity, and developing sustainable models adaptable across primary  
641 care, community, and technology-enabled settings [18].

642 A further challenge concerns the sustainability of interventions. While short- and medium-term  
643 benefits are well established, uncertainty remains regarding the optimal intensity, duration, and  
644 combination of educational and supportive components needed to maintain behavioral change  
645 over many years. Differences in age, comorbidity burden, socioeconomic circumstances, and  
646 healthcare infrastructure may influence intervention effectiveness, suggesting that flexible and  
647 context-specific implementation strategies will be necessary for long-term success [34,70].

## 648 **7 Implications for Practice**

649 The current evidence suggests that the future role of nurses in diabetes care extends beyond  
650 patient education toward coordination of long-term self-management support. As diabetes  
651 management becomes increasingly complex, nurses are uniquely positioned to integrate clinical  
652 care, behavioral counseling, psychosocial assessment, and community resource navigation within  
653 a single patient-centered framework. Consequently, healthcare systems should recognize  
654 DSMES as a core chronic disease management service rather than an optional educational  
655 intervention [18,34]. This implies that nurse-led DSMES should be embedded in routine care  
656 pathways, supported by dedicated time, training, and reimbursement mechanisms, rather than  
657 delivered on an ad hoc or “as-available” basis.

658 A second implication concerns service design. Effective diabetes support requires continuity  
659 rather than isolated encounters. Clinical pathways should therefore facilitate ongoing  
660 reassessment of patient needs, adaptation of self-management goals, and timely intervention  
661 when barriers emerge. Such an approach aligns more closely with the chronic and dynamic  
662 nature of diabetes than traditional episodic education models [55,71].

663 Practical strategies include scheduled DSMES review points aligned with guideline-  
664 recommended “critical times,” use of nurse-led follow-up calls or digital contacts between clinic  
665 visits, and clear criteria for re-referral to more intensive support when treatment targets are not  
666 met.

667 The findings also highlight the importance of equity-oriented care. Nurses increasingly encounter  
668 populations affected by limited health literacy, socioeconomic disadvantage, cultural barriers,  
669 and restricted access to healthcare resources. Future DSMES programs should therefore  
670 incorporate culturally responsive communication, literacy-sensitive educational materials, and  
671 strategies that address social determinants of health alongside clinical management [68,72].

672 This may involve integrating structured health literacy and social needs assessments into nursing  
673 practice, building partnerships with community organizations, and tailoring DSMES content and  
674 delivery modes to the needs of specific populations (e.g., rural residents, migrants, young adults).  
675 Family and social support networks should also be considered within routine diabetes care.  
676 Sustained self-management often depends on factors beyond the individual patient, including  
677 household routines, caregiving responsibilities, transportation, and emotional support.  
678 Incorporating family members or care supporters, where appropriate, may strengthen adherence  
679 and facilitate the maintenance of behavioral changes over time [73,74].  
680 Interdisciplinary collaboration remains essential, but nurses should continue to serve as key  
681 coordinators within diabetes care pathways. Their position at the interface of clinical  
682 management, patient education, psychosocial support, and community engagement enables them  
683 to facilitate communication across disciplines and promote continuity of care [18,75].  
684 Finally, outcome evaluation should reflect the multidimensional objectives of DSMES. Although  
685 HbA1c remains an important indicator, successful self-management support should also be  
686 assessed through measures of self-efficacy, self-care performance, treatment engagement,  
687 diabetes distress, quality of life, and program participation. Broader evaluation frameworks may  
688 provide a more accurate representation of nursing contributions to diabetes outcomes and  
689 facilitate continuous improvement of DSMES services [54,62].

690

## 691 **8 Conclusion**

692 The shift in diabetes care from education-focused approaches to comprehensive self-  
693 management support has underscored the central role of nursing in chronic disease management.  
694 The literature reviewed in this article shows that nurses contribute not only to knowledge transfer

695 but also to the ongoing processes through which patients interpret information, adapt behaviors,  
696 address barriers, and maintain self-care over time. Nurse-led DSMES is effective because it links  
697 clinical recommendations to the practical decisions patients make every day. Through  
698 individualized assessment, behavioral coaching, psychosocial support, and continuous follow-up,  
699 nurses help make self-management more feasible in routine life. This role is especially important  
700 in contemporary healthcare settings marked by increasing treatment complexity, a growing  
701 diabetes burden, and persistent inequities in access to care. Despite these advances, important  
702 challenges remain in implementation, sustainability, and equitable reach. Future research should  
703 focus on identifying the most effective implementation models, clarifying the mechanisms that  
704 support long-term behavior change, and improving access for underserved populations.  
705 Addressing these priorities will be essential to maximizing the contribution of nurse-led DSMES  
706 to population-level diabetes outcomes.

707 **Abbreviation List**

<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Definition</b>
<b>ADA</b>	American Diabetes Association
<b>ADCES</b>	Association of Diabetes Care & Education Specialists
<b>CGM</b>	Continuous Glucose Monitoring
<b>DSME</b>	Diabetes Self-Management Education
<b>DSMES</b>	Diabetes Self-Management Education and Support
<b>FBG</b>	Fasting Blood Glucose
<b>HbA1c</b>	Glycated Hemoglobin
<b>LMICs</b>	Low- and Middle-Income Countries
<b>QoL</b>	Quality of Life
<b>RCT</b>	Randomized Controlled Trial
<b>SDM</b>	Shared Decision-Making
<b>SMD</b>	Standardized Mean Difference
<b>SMBG</b>	Self-Monitoring of Blood Glucose
<b>T2DM</b>	Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus
<b>WHO</b>	World Health Organization

708

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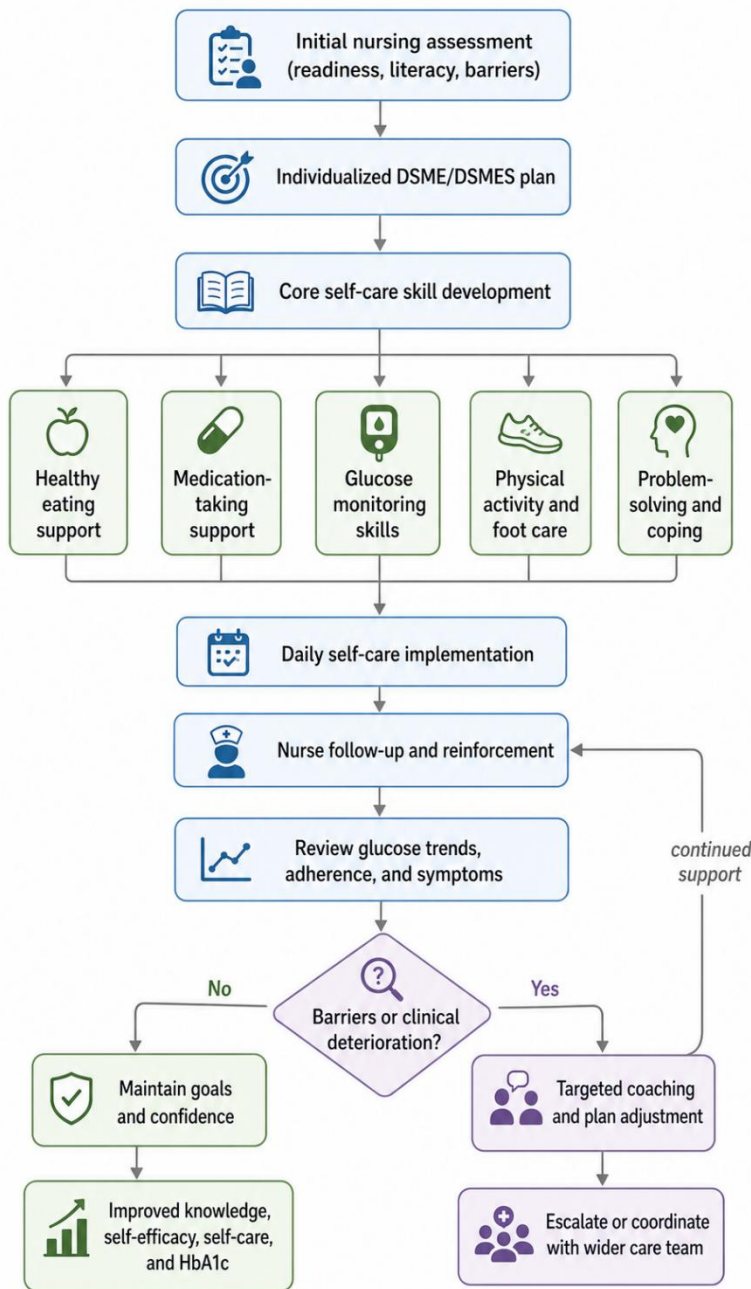
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991

992 **Figure 1. Nurse self-care support flowchart.**



993

994 This flowchart illustrates the nurse-led DSMES process from initial assessment and individualized planning through  
 995 skill development, implementation, follow-up, and response to barriers or clinical deterioration. It shows how nurses  
 996 reinforce self-care behaviors, review glucose trends and adherence, and provide either maintenance support or  
 997 targeted escalation when needed.

<b>Educational Strategy</b>	<b>Primary Role in DSMES</b>	<b>Key Implementation Considerations</b>	<b>Supporting References</b>
<b>Individualized nurse assessment and tailored teaching</b>	Aligns education with the treatment regimen, health literacy, motivation, readiness for change, and self-care deficits	Assess confidence, behavioral barriers, and social context; tailor education to individual needs rather than providing generic recommendations.	[18,37,39]
<b>Structured curriculum delivered by trained educators</b>	Enhances consistency, reproducibility, and quality of DSMES delivery	Use standardized curricula, educator training, outcome monitoring, and quality-assurance processes.	[18,37]
<b>Group teaching and peer-supported learning</b>	Promotes social support, normalization of challenges, accountability, and shared problem-solving	Most effective when integrated into structured DSMES and delivered through regular contact sessions.	[50]
<b>Counseling and motivational interviewing</b>	Supports self-efficacy, behavior maintenance, and management of psychological barriers	Particularly useful when barriers are motivational or emotional rather than informational; effectiveness increases with ongoing follow-up.	[43,44]
<b>Demonstrations and skills rehearsal</b>	Develops practical competence in glucose monitoring, medication administration, and foot care	Consider as an active intervention component rather than a supplementary educational aid.	[37,46]
<b>Culturally tailored and family-supported education</b>	Improves relevance, acceptability, and sustainability of self-management behaviors	Adapt educational content to dietary customs, family structures, health beliefs, and socioeconomic context.	[54]
<b>Phone-, SMS-, app-, and hybrid-based follow-up</b>	Extends nursing support between clinic visits and promotes ongoing behavioral reinforcement	Most effective when technology supplements nurse-patient interaction through reminders, monitoring, and feedback.	[14,47,55]
<b>Behavior-change techniques embedded in digital tools</b>	Supports adherence, self-monitoring, and action planning	Self-monitoring functions, medication reminders, and action-planning features are associated with improved glycemic outcomes.	[76]
<b>Workflow and referral interventions</b>	Improves DSMES enrollment, participation, and completion rates in routine care	Integration into clinical workflows and referral pathways is essential for maximizing program reach and effectiveness.	[35]

**Table 2. Recent Key Evidence on Clinical and Behavioral Outcomes of Nurse-Led DSMES**

<b>Citation</b>	<b>Design</b>	<b>Population</b>	<b>Nurse-led details</b>	<b>Main outcomes and effect sizes</b>
<b>Romadlon et al, 2024 [16]</b>	Systematic review and network meta-analysis of 108 studies	Adults with type 2 diabetes; 17,735 participants	Not exclusively nurse-led; compares DSME, DSMS, and DSMES	DSMES vs usual care: HbA1c $-0.61\%$ ; FBG $-23.33$ mg/dL; SBP $-3.05$ mmHg; DBP $-2.15$ mmHg. DSMES outperformed DSME for HbA1c by $-0.23\%$ .
<b>Ma et al, 2026 [34]</b>	Umbrella review of meta-analyses	Type 2 diabetes	Broad DSME evidence synthesis	DSME had a significant positive effect on HbA1c; heterogeneity remained important. The review supported integrated multimodal models.
<b>Sun et al, 2025 [12]</b>	Systematic review and meta-analysis of RCTs	Adults with type 2 diabetes	Nurse-led DSME, at least 3 structured sessions	HbA1c: $-0.92\%$ at 4–6 months and $-0.54\%$ beyond 6 months; FBG $-0.20$ ; self-efficacy SMD 1.48; HDL improved; heterogeneity was high.
<b>Makhfudli et al, 2025 [55]</b>	Systematic review and meta-analysis of 11 RCTs	Community-dwelling adults with type 2 diabetes; 2,943 participants	Nurse-led digitalized diabetes management programs	Self-care SMD 1.15; QoL SMD 0.65; HbA1c $-0.25\%$ .
<b>Alhaiti et al, 2025 [14]</b>	Systematic review	Adults with type 1 or type 2 diabetes	Nursing-led technology-enabled interventions, including telehealth, SMS, apps, and telemonitoring	Multiple studies showed improved HbA1c and FBG. The strongest effects were reported in intensive, nurse-coordinated models.
<b>Yimer et al, 2025 [33]</b>	Systematic review and meta-analysis	Adults with type 2 diabetes in the WHO African Region	DSMES interventions, mixed delivery models	DSMES was moderately effective for blood glucose control; most interventions showed statistically significant HbA1c benefit.
<b>Yu et al, 2022 [37]</b>	Multicenter randomized controlled trial	Newly diagnosed type 2 diabetes; 128 participants; four tertiary hospitals in Xi'an	4-week nurse-led structured education, theory-based, group format	Improved fruit and vegetable intake, reduced high-fat food intake, better glucose monitoring, foot care, and medication management; HbA1c $\beta$ $-0.32\%$ ; self-efficacy improved.
<b>Diriba et al, 2024 [54]</b>	Pilot randomized controlled trial	Adults with type 2 diabetes in Western Ethiopia; 76 participants	Nurse-led, culture-tailored, community-based, family-supported DSMES	Self-management practice improved with large effect sizes postintervention and at 2 months; QoL improved at 2 months.

<b>Cengiz et al, 2023 [39]</b>	Randomized controlled trial	Turkish adults with type 2 diabetes; 51 participants	Individually delivered nurse-led personalized engagement intervention with in-person sessions, phone consultation, and written exercises	Treatment adherence, self-efficacy, and patient engagement improved at follow-up, with large effect sizes.
<b>İşleyen et al, 2025 [43]</b>	Randomized controlled trial	Adults with type 2 diabetes; 70 participants	Eight-session tele-nursing motivational interviewing	Self-efficacy and self-management improved; FBG and triglycerides decreased; HbA1c improved only at post-test.
<b>Asante et al, 2025 [47]</b>	Randomized controlled trial	Adults with type 2 diabetes in Ghana	3-month nurse-led mobile phone intervention plus usual care	High implementation fidelity; the trial reported favorable direction for glycemic variability and self-management outcomes.
<b>Polat et al, 2026 [46]</b>	Randomized controlled trial	Adults with type 2 diabetes; 48 participants	Hybrid foot self-management program using face-to-face sessions, WhatsApp, YouTube, and follow-up	Knowledge F 37.50; foot care behavior F 12.8; foot self-efficacy F 3.87; no improvement in chronic-illness adaptation.
<b>Changsieng et al, 2023 [36]</b>	Cluster randomized controlled trial	Thai adults with uncontrolled diabetes in community hospitals	Nurse-led supportive education after self-care deficit assessment	Improved self-care behavior and HbA1c according to the trial abstract and journal record.
<b>Lalani et al, 2026 [42]</b>	Retrospective cohort	13,087 patients in routine care	DSMES participation documented in real-world care	HbA1c declined by 1.03% over 24 months among DSMES participants, 0.19% more than non-participants.
<b>Hu et al, 2025 [62]</b>	Systematic review and meta-analysis	Adults with type 2 diabetes	Nurse-led psychological interventions	Diabetes distress reduced (SMD -0.36); depression and HbA1c findings were inconsistent.

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