Treatment of Hyperglycemia in Type 2 Diabetes

- Upon diagnosis, set a patient-specific A1C target. Implement comprehensive lifestyle modifications with MNT, physical activity, weight loss if obese, smoking cessation, and psychologic support upon diagnosis and reinforce them at every visit.
- Initiate metformin as first-line therapy in patients without contraindications or tolerability issues. Start with a low dose and titrate to the maximum effective dose over time to improve tolerability.
- If the initial A1C is close to goal (eg, ≤7.5%)
 consider initial treatment with lifestyle
 modifications alone if the patient is motivated.

- Consider starting two medications (metformin plus a second agent) if the initial A1C is >1.5% higher than the target A1C.
- Consider early introduction of basal insulin in patients with very high A1C levels (>10%), symptoms of hyperglycemia, or evidence of catabolism (eg, weight loss).
- See patients at least every 3 months if they are not meeting their goals and at least every 6 months if they are meeting goals. At those times, check an A1C level, assess medication adherence, and reinforce lifestyle recommendations. Add additional therapy if glucose targets have not been met.

- For patients maximized on metformin therapy but with A1C levels above the target, add a second-line antihyperglycemic agent. The ADA Standards of Care identify six drug classes to consider:
- (1) DPP-4 inhibitors, (2) GLP1-RAs, (3) SGLT-2 inhibitors, (4) sulfonylureas, (5) TZDs, and (6) basal insulin.
- Patient-specific factors to consider in medication selection include the individualized A1C target and presence of comorbidities (eg, ASCVD, HF, CKD, obesity).

- Established ASCVD or CKD: SGLT-2 inhibitor (eg, empagliflozin) or GLP1-RA (eg, liraglutide) with proven CV benefit.
- Established ASCVD and HF: SGLT-2 inhibitor with proven benefit in reducing HF progression. Avoid TZDs in patients with HF.
- **CKD (with or without ASCVD):** SGLT-2 inhibitor with proven benefit in reducing CKD progression.
- Need to minimize weight gain or promote weight loss in patients without ASCVD or CKD: GLP1-RA or SGLT-2 inhibitor. If these agents cannot be used, use a weightneutral medication such as a DPP-4 inhibitor. Avoid sulfonylureas, insulin, and TZDs due to weight gain.
- **Compelling need to minimize hypoglycemia**: DPP-4 inhibitor, GLP1-RA, SGLT-2 inhibitor, or TZD could be added to metformin.

- If the A1C target is not achieved after 3 months of dual therapy or if the patient did not tolerate the selected drug(s), then triple therapy is warranted, adding a drug from another class.
- Insulin is recommended for extreme (A1C >10%) or symptomatic hyperglycemia. Otherwise, GLP-1 RAs are preferred over basal insulin because they have equal or superior A1C lowering efficacy and lead to weight loss instead of weight gain with a low risk of hypoglycemia.

- Basal insulin can be initiated if additional glucose lowering is needed after the GLP-1 RA dose has been maximized.
- If the A1C target is not reached by maximally titrating basal insulin, PPG levels are likely elevated and a GLP1-RA or SGLT-2 inhibitor should be considered if the patient is not already taking one.
- Prandial insulin is also an option. Titrate the dose over time to achieve target PPG levels
 <180 mg/dL. A second or third injection can be added to the other meals if needed

Treatment of Hyperglycemia in Type 1 Diabetes

- Intensive insulin regimens can be given with either multiple daily injections (MDI) or use of continuous subcutaneous insulin infusion (CSII) via an insulin pump.
- A common MDI approach is one injection of longacting insulin (eg, insulin glargine) for the basal component and three injections of rapid acting insulin (eg, insulin lispro) for the prandial component.
- Insulin pump therapy or CSII infuses rapid-acting insulin to cover both the basal and prandial insulin needs. The pump infuses a basal rate constantly throughout the day and allows the patient to give bolus doses using a bolus dose calculator based on current glucose levels, carbohydrate intake, and insulin on board.

- The total daily insulin dose is divided to give 50% as basal insulin and 50% as prandial insulin (distributed across meals). The insulin doses would then be adjusted based on SMBG data. Ideally, patients should learn to count carbohydrates so they can match their prandial insulin doses to their carbohydrate intake.
- **Pramlintide is indicated as adjunctive treatment** in patients with type 1 DM who are not achieving glycemic targets despite optimization of mealtime insulin.
- Pramlintide may improve glycemic control and minimize weight gain caused by insulin, but its use is limited by adverse effects such as nausea and vomiting, modest glucose improvements, increased injections and cost, and increased risk of hypoglycemia.

Common insulin regimens

- (A) Multiple-component insulin regimen consisting of one injection of long-acting insulin (detemir, glargine degludec) to provide basal glycemic coverage and three injections of rapid-acting insulin (aspart, lispro, glulisine) to provide glycemic coverage for each meal.
- (B) Insulin regimen consisting of two injections of intermediate-acting insulin (NPH) and rapid-acting insulin (aspart, lispro, glulisine), or short-acting regular insulin. Only one formulation of short-acting insulin is used.
- (C) Insulin administration by insulin infusion device. The basal insulin rate is decreased during the evening and increased slightly prior to the patient awakening in the morning. Rapid-acting insulin (aspart, lispro, or glulisine) is used in the insulin pump.

Hypoglycemia

- Hypoglycemia is a common complication of some diabetes medications and is associated with falls, injury, motor vehicle accidents, decreased quality of life, and increased risk of developing dementia, CV events, arrhythmias, and death.
- The severity of hypoglycemia is classified as follows:
- Level 1 (hypoglycemia alert value; ≤70 mg/dL: May not cause symptoms but should be treated with a fastacting carbohydrate and may need medication dose adjustment
- Level 2 (clinically significant hypoglycemia; <54 mg/dL: Serious, clinically important hypoglycemia
- Level 3 (severe hypoglycemia): Associated with cognitive impairment requiring external assistance for recovery and can be life threatening.

- Initial autonomic symptoms include tachycardia, palpitations, sweating, tremors, and hunger.
 Neuroglycopenic symptoms often occur with BG <60 mg/dL and can include cognitive impairment, confusion, behavioral changes, anger, irritability, blurred vision, headaches, seizures, and loss of consciousness.
- **hypoglycemia unawareness** increased risk for the serious sequelae associated with severe hypoglycemia.
- SMBG and CGM can be useful in preventing hypoglycemia. Patients must be educated to understand situations that increase risk of hypoglycemia (eg, delaying meals, during or after exercising, or fasting).
- Treatment of hypoglycemia requires ingestion of carbohydrates, preferably glucose. Patients should carry a source of fast-acting glucose with them at all times and use the "rule of 15" for proper treatment:

- First use SMBG to confirm BG <70 mg/dL and then ingest 15 g of fast-acting carbohydrates such as 1/2 cup (4 oz or 125 mL) of milk, juice, or soda; 1 tablespoon of honey; hard candy; jelly beans; or glucose tablets.
- Repeat SMBG in 15 minutes; if the BG is <70 mg/dL, repeat the process.
- Once the BG is normalized, eat a snack or meal that includes complex carbohydrates and protein to prevent further hypoglycemic episodes.
- If the patient is <u>unconscious</u>, give IV glucose or glucagon injection.
- 1 mg (1 unit) IM/SC/IV if no IV for dextrose
- Repeat q15min once or twice; give dextrose as soon as it is available and if no response

 A glucagon kit should be prescribed and readily available to all patients on insulin who have a history of or high risk for severe hypoglycemia. It can take 10–15 minutes before glucose levels start to rise, and patients often vomit.



Diabetic Ketoacidosis (DKA)

- In patients with type 1 DM, DKA is usually precipitated by omitting insulin, infection, or acute illness with resultant increases in cortisol, catecholamines, glucagon, and growth hormone.
- Patients may be alert, stuporous, or comatose at presentation. Diagnostic laboratory values include hyperglycemia, anion gap acidosis, and large ketonemia or ketonuria.
- Patients have fluid deficits of several liters and significant sodium and potassium deficits. Treatment requires restoration of intravascular volume with normal saline followed by hypotonic saline to replace free water, potassium supplements, and insulin

- Constant infusion of a fixed insulin dose and administration of IV glucose when the BG level decreases to <250 mg/dL are preferred over titrating the insulin infusion based on the glucose level.
- Rapid correction of the glucose (a decrease >75–100 mg/dL/hr) is not recommended because it has been associated with cerebral edema, especially in children. Continue the insulin infusion until the urine ketones clear and the anion gap closes

- Give long-acting insulin 1–3 hours before discontinuing the insulin infusion. Perform hourly bedside monitoring of glucose and frequent monitoring of potassium (every 2–4 hours).
- Treatment with bicarbonate to correct the acidosis is generally not needed and may be harmful.
- It is essential to correct the underlying situation or medical condition that precipitated DKA. Metabolic improvement is manifested by an increase in serum bicarbonate and pH.

Complete initial evaluation. Check capillary glucose and serum/urine ketones to confirm hyperglycemia and ketonemia/ketonuria. Start IV fluids: 1.0 L of 0.9 percent NaCl per hour.* Assess need for bicarbonate IV fluids Insulin Potassium Determine hydration status Uncomplicated Establish adequate pH <6.9 pH ≥6.9 IV route DKA-SC route renal function (urine output ~50 mL/hr) Mild Cardiogenic Insulin: Rapid-acting insulin: No HCO₃ Severe Dilute NaHCO3 hypovolemia Regular 0.1 U/kg 0.3 U/kg, then shock If serum K is <3.3 mEa/L, (100 mmol) in 400 mL hypovolemia 0.2 U/kg one hr later as IV bolus hold insulin and give H₂O with 20 mEq KCl. 20-40 mEg K/hr until Infuse over two hrs . K >3.3 mEq/L Evaluate Hemodynamic 0.1 U/kg/hr IV Administer Rapid-acting insulin: 0.9 percent monitoring/ continuous insulin corrected 0.2 U/kg SC every two hrs serum Na*¶ infusion∆ NaCl (1.0 L/hr) pressors If K is >5.3 mEq/L, Repeat NaHCO₃ do not give K but check administration every serum K every two hrs two hrs until pH >7.0. Monitor serum K Serum Na¶ Serum Na¶ Serum Na¶ If serum glucose does not fall by 50-70 mg/dL in first hour, every two hrs. double IV or SC insulin bolus high low normal 0.9 percent NaCl When serum glucose reaches 200 mg/dL, If K is 3.3-5.3 mEq/L, 0.45 percent NaCl reduce regular insulin infusion to 0.02-0.05 U/kg/hr IV, (250-500 mL/hr) (250-500 mL/hr) give 20-30 mEg/K depending on depending on or give rapid-acting insulin at 0.1 U/kg SC every two hours. in each liter of IV fluid Keep serum glucose between 150 and 200 mg/dL until volume state volume state to keep serum K resolution of DKA.§ between 4-5 mEq/L When serum glucose reaches 200 mg/dL, Check electrolytes, BUN, venous pH, creatinine and change to 5 percent dextrose with glucose every 2-4 hrs until stable. After resolution of 0.45 percent NaCl at 150-250 mL/hr DKA and when patient is able to eat, initiate SC multidose insulin regimen. Continue IV insulin infusion for 1-2 hr after SC insulin begun to ensure adequate plasma insulin levels. In insulin naïve patients, start at 0.5 U/kg to 0.8 U/kg body weight per day and adjust insulin as needed. Look for precipitating cause(s).

Hyperosmolar Hyperglycemic State (HHS)

- HHS is a potentially life-threatening acute complication of diabetes associated with very high glucose concentrations, typically >400 mg/dL.
- It usually occurs in older patients with type 2 DM or in younger patients with prolonged hyperglycemia and dehydration or significant renal insufficiency.
- The patient presentation is similar to DKA, but HHS patients usually have much higher BG, elevated serum osmolality, and little to no ketonuria or ketonemia.
- HHS typically evolves over several days to weeks, whereas DKA evolves much faster.

- Large ketonemia is not usually seen because residual insulin secretion suppresses lipolysis. Infection or another medical illness is the usual precipitant.
- Fluid deficits are often greater and BG levels higher (sometimes >1000 mg/dl) in patients with HHS than in patients with DKA.
- **BG should be lowered very gradually** with hypotonic fluids and low-dose insulin infusions (1–2 units/hr)

Macrovascular Complications

- Macrovascular complications (eg, CHD, stroke) are the leading causes of death in people with diabetes.
- The ADA recommends **low-dose aspirin therapy** (75– 162 mg daily) **in all patients with established ASCVD.** Clopidogrel may be used in patients allergic to aspirin.
- The role of antiplatelet therapy for primary CV prevention is unclear because the benefits may be offset by a higher risk of bleeding; some practice guidelines recommend aspirin if the 10-year risk of a CV event is >20%.
- n patients with established ASCVD, use of a GLP1-RA or an SGLT-2 inhibitor should be strongly considered.
- For all patients whose **BP exceeds 120/80 mm Hg**, the ADA recommends dietary changes, physical activity, and weight loss in overweight or obese patients.

- Drug therapy using agents proven to reduce CV events should be started for BP >140/90 mm
 Hg. A combination of two medications should be used for BP >160/100 mm Hg.
- Initiate high-intensity statin therapy in all patients with diabetes and preexisting ASCVD regardless of baseline lipid levels. In the absence of ASCVD, prescribe a moderateintensity statin to all patients with type 1 or type 2 DM over the age of 40.

- In patients <40 years of age, a moderate intensity statin may be appropriate for patients with multiple CV risk factors.
- A fibrate (eg, fenofibrate), omega-3 fatty acid, or niacin can be added for patients with marked hypertriglyceridemia.
- **Peripheral arterial disease** can lead to claudication, nonhealing foot ulcers, and limb amputation.
- Smoking cessation, statin therapy, good glycemic control, and antiplatelet therapy are important strategies.
- **Cilostazol** may be useful in select patients to reduce symptoms.
- Revascularization surgery can be considered in some situations.

Microvascular Complications Nephropathy:

- Albuminuria is a marker of renal damage
- Screening with type 1 DM should begin with puberty and after 5-years' disease duration.
- BP control is important for preventing and slowing progression of nephropathy. ACE inhibitors and ARBs can slow the progression of renal disease in patients with diabetes.
- **Diuretics** are often necessary due to volume expanded states and are recommended **second-line therapy**.
- The ADA recommends a BP goal <140/90 mm Hg in patients with nephropathy but a lower target (eg, <130/80 mm Hg) if it can be achieved without undue burden or side effects. Three or more antihypertensives are often needed to reach goal BP.

Retinopathy:

- Patients with diabetes should have routine dilated eye examinations to fully evaluate the retina.
- Early background retinopathy may reverse with improved glycemic control and optimal BP control.
- Laser photocoagulation has markedly improved sight preservation.
- Intravitreal antivascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) therapy is also highly effective for sight preservation.
- Bevacizumab (used off-label) and ranibizumab are anti-VEGF monoclonal antibodies, and aflibercept is a VEGF decoy receptor

Neuropathy:

- **Peripheral neuropathy** is the most common complication in patients with type 2 DM.
- Paresthesias, numbness, or pain are the predominant symptoms. The feet are involved (diabetic foot)far more often than the hands.
- Improved glycemic control is the primary treatment and may alleviate some symptoms. Pharmacologic therapy is symptomatic and includes low-dose tricyclic antidepressants (nortriptyline or desipramine), duloxetine, gabapentin, pregabalin, venlafaxine, topical capsaicin, and tramadol.
- Gastroparesis can be severe and debilitating. Improved glycemic control, discontinuation of medications that slow gastric motility, and use of metoclopramide or low-dose erythromycin may be helpful.

- Diabetic diarrhea is often nocturnal and frequently responds to a 10- to 14-day course of an antibiotic such as doxycycline or metronidazole. Octreotide may be useful in unresponsive cases.
- Orthostatic hypotension may require mineralocorticoids (eg, fludrocortisone) or adrenergic agonists (midodrine).
- Erectile dysfunction is common, and initial therapy should include a trial of an oral phosphodiesterase-5 inhibitor (eg, sildenafil, vardenafil, or tadalafil).

Evaluation of therapeutic outcomes

- Measure A1C every 3–6 months to follow longterm glycemic control for the previous 2–3 months.
- SMBG provides an opportunity to adjust medications, food intake, or physical activity and enables patients to detect hypoglycemia.
- For patients with type 1 DM, SMBG is typically performed 4–6 times per day—prior to food intake and physical activity and at bedtime.
- The optimal frequency of SMBG in patients with type 2 DM on oral agents is controversial.
- At each visit, ask patients with type 1 DM about the frequency and severity of hypoglycemia.

- -Screen for eye exams in type 2 DM and an initial exam in the first 5 years in type 1 DM, then yearly.
- Assess **BP at each visit**.
- Examine the feet at each visit. Screen for pedal sensory loss annually.
- Screen for albuminuria. At least once a year, assess urinary albumin (urine albumin-to-creatinine ratio) and eGFR in all patients with type 2 DM and in patients with type 1 DM for at least 5 years.
- Check fasting lipid panel annually if the patient is on lipid-lowering therapy.
- Administer an annual influenza vaccine and assess for administration of the pneumococcal vaccine and hepatitis B vaccine series along with management of other CV risk factors (eg, smoking).