DIABETES MELLITUS (TDM, T2DM)

(Definition, Pathogenesis, Clinical presentation, Diagnosis & Management with guidelines)



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Epidemiology DM, T1DM & T2DM. Molecular mechanisms of Insulin signaling. Molicular Mechanism in Diabetes. Main pathology of T2DM. Predisposing factors for T1DM & T2DM. Clinical Presentation of T1DM & T2DM. Diagnosis of Diabetes.

Main pathology of Type 1 DM & Histopathology. The course of disease development T1DM & T2DM.



EPIDEMIOLOGY DM: TIDM 8 T2DM.

THE GROWING PROBLEM OF DIABETES GLOBALLY



Figures indicate projected increase in diabetes between 2017 and 2045

International Diabetes Federation. IDF Diabetes Atlas (Eighth Edition). 2017 Pew Research Center. The Future of World Religions: Population Growth Projections, 2010-2050. Accessed 17 February 2016.







International Diabetes Federation









EPIDIMIOLOGY



Incidence of T1DM, T2DM in youth in the USA, from the SEARCH for Diabetes in Youth study group, 2002 to 2003.

> **45%** of children present < 10 years of age

> > Males > Females



AGE AND GENDER...TYP1 DM



EPIDIMIOLOGY

T1D Incidence (# new cases/yr) is doubling every 20 yrs



TIME TRENDS TI DM

After 3003, T1DM appears to have blateaued USA, Australia





EPIDEMIOLOGY DM, T2DM.



International Diabetes Federation

60

40

20



A RION

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JATOS











RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BMI & RISK FOR T2DM



Body Mass Index (BMI; kg/m²)

Chan J, et al. Diabetes Care. 1994;17:961-969. Colditz G, et al. Ann Intern Med. 1995;122:481-486.



THE GROWING EPIDEMIC OF T2DM IN RELATION TO OBESITY



Diabetes Care 2000;23:1278-83. JAMA 1990;282:1519-22 JAMA 2001;286:1195-200







MOLECULAR MECHANISMS OF INSULIN SIGNALING





INSULIN RECEPTORS





INSULIN SECRETION IN RESPONSE TO GLUCOSE



Glucose Oxidation

Out side Beta Cell blood vessels





INSULIN RECEPTOR 8 SIGNALING PATHWAY

J Clin Invest. 2004;<u>114(9)</u>:1187-1195.

Insulin & insulin-like growth factors





MOLICULAR MECHANISM IN DIABETES





Peripheral Tissue (Liver, Muscle)

Normal



Diabetes









High Glucose

Lipogenesis (FA synthesis)

Glucose **Storage**

Peripheral Tissue (Fat Tissue)





TIDM TRUNCATED (CUT OFF) CYCLE









T2DM VICIOUS CYCLE - GLUCOTOXICITY



More insulin





MAIN PATHOLOGY OF TYPE 1 DM & HISTOPATHOLOGY.

ABSOLUTE INSULIN DEFICIENCY

Type 1 diabetes mellitus: results from

Destruction of the insulin-producing beta cells in the islets of Langerhans

Types:

Type1 A: Autoimmune destruction 95%

Type 1B: Non-autoimmune islet destruction 5%





PATHOGENESIS OF TIDM



GADA **Glutamic** acid decarpoxylase antibodies

IA₂A

Insulinoma-2 antigen antibodies

ZnT8A

Zinc transporter-8 antibodies

ity	Specificity	AUC	SE	95% CI
	96.6	0.807	0.034	0.74-0.86
	100.00	0.597	0.043	0.52-0.67
	97.73	0.648	0.041	0.57-0.71

TYPE 1 DIABETES





Abnormal insulin secretion.



ASSOCIATION WITH OTHER AUTOIMMUNE DISEASES

other organs including the following:

•Thyroid autoimmunity:

Affecting more than 25% of individuals. Recommend annual testing of TSH in children to detect early thyroid metabolic abnormalities. If anti-thyroid autoantibodies are present (eg, anti-thyroid peroxidase), risk of hypothyroidism is greatly increased.

- Antiadrenal antibodies & adrenal insufficiency: had adrenal insufficiency.
- •Polyglandular autoimmune disease, especially type II: other major components.

The autoimmune response in type 1 diabetes may be accompanied by antibodies directed against

1.7% with type 1 diabetes have antibodies against 21-hydroxylase a common autoantigen in primary adrenal insufficiency. 3 of 8 patients 37% with anti-21-hydroxylase antibodies

which adrenal insufficiency, autoimmune thyroid disease, & gonadal insufficiency are the



Normal histology of pancreas



Exocrine Cells:

It secretes a digestive enzyme rich alkaline fluid into the duodenum via the pancreatic duct.

Endocrine Cells:

- •alpha secrete glucagon
- beta secrete insulin
- delta secrete somatostatin



Type 1 DM histology



Chronic, atrophic, lymphocytic insulitis where mononuclear cells infiltrate the islets & selectively destroy pancreatic β-cells.





AUTOIMMUNITY

What are the confirmed targets (Auto antigenes) of autoantibodies in T1DM of man?

Insulin

Studies on the NOD (non-obese diabetic) mouse model indicate that proinsulin/insulin itself is the likely primary target for the autoantibodies

Insulin autoantibodies are often the first to appear in children followed from birth & progressing to diabetes, & are **the highest in young children developing diabetes.**

Of note, **once insulin is administered subcutaneously, essentially all individuals develop insulin antibodies**, & thus insulin autoantibody measurements after approximately **two weeks of insulin injections** cannot be used as a marker of immune mediated diabetes (type 1A)

Insulinoma associated antigens 2 {IA-2 alpha & IA-2 beta}

Antibodies to this antigen were found in the serum of **58 %** of patients with type 1 diabetes at the time of diagnosis .

Appear later than autoantibodies to insulin & GAD, & are highly associated with expression of multiple anti-islet autoantibodies & progression to diabetes.

One of the best predictors of progression to T1A DM:

is expression of 2 or 3 autoantibodies: GAD, IA-2 or insulin autoantibodies

Glutamic acid decarboxylase GAD

which is present in the islets as well as in the central nervous system & testes.

Antibodies to GAD (a 65-kD protein) are found in about **70 %** of patients with type 1 diabetes at the time of diagnosis.

ZnT8 (zinc transporter)

60-80 % of patients with newly diagnosed type 1 diabetes

26 % of subjects with antibody negative (insulin, GAD, IA-2 and ICA) type 1 diabetes have ZnT8 autoantibodies

ZnT8 autoantibodies appear later than insulin autoantibodies, & the antibody is typically lost very early after the onset of diabetes





PATHOGENESIS OF TYPE 2 DM.

PATHOGENESIS OF T2DM

Decreased Insulin secretion

Increased Glucagon secretion



Increased Glucose hepatic production



DeFronzo RA. Diabetes 2009



Neurotransmitter dysfunction



Increased Lipolysis inflammation

TYPE 2 DIABETES



Increased Glucose reabsorption





Decreased Incretin effect

Decreased Glucose Uptake



PATHOGENESIS OF T2DM

TYPE 2 is cha





TYPE 2 DIABETES

is characterized

Abnormal insulin secretion.



ADIPOSE TISSUE & INFLAMMATION

In the lean state

- Lipolysis FFA
- Adiponectin

Eosinophil Tregulatory (Treg)

IL-10

IL-4

IL-13

Anti-inflammatory

Insulin Sensitive

Osborn O, Olefsky JM. The cellular and signaling networks linking the immune system and metabolism in disease. Nat Med 2012;18(3):363-374.

Olefsky JM, Glass CK. Macrophages, inflammation, and insulin resistance. Annu Rev Physiol 2010;72:219-246.






TIME COURSE OF TIDM & T2DM DEVELOPMENT

TIME COURSE OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF TYPE 1 DIABETES

GENETICALLY AT RISK

Genetic markers are present from birth.



Immune markers first appear at the time of the environmental triggering events.

Sensitive metabolic markers of deficient insulin secretion begin to appear.



TIME COURSE OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF TYPE 1 DIABETES



Time-months, years



NATURAL HISTORY OF T2DM





PREDISPOSING FACTORS TIDM.

WHAT ARE THE FACTORSFOR TIDM??

Genetically susceptible subjects



Triggered by

one or more environmental factors

Progresses over many months or years during which the subject is asymptomatic & euglycemic.





GENETIC SUSCEPTIBILITY

• The lifetime risk of developing T1DM is significantly increased in close relatives of a patient with T1DM

- No family history 0.4 %
- Offspring of an affected mother 1-4 %
- Offspring of an affected father 3-8 %
- Offspring with both parents affected Reported as high as 30 %
- Non-twin sibling of affected patient 3-6 % by age 20 years, & 10 % by 60 years
- Dizygotic twin 8 %
- age 60 years.

• Polymorphisms of multiple genes are reported to influence the risk of T₁A DM

- ISPAD Clinical Practice Consensus Guidelines 2018: Definition, epidemiology, and classification of diabetes in children and adolescents. Mayer-Davis EJ, Kahkoska AR, Jefferies C, Dabelea D, Balde N, Gong CX, Aschner P, Craig ME Pediatr Diabetes. 2018;19 Suppl 27:7.
- Age-corrected empirical genetic risk estimates for first-degree relatives of IDDM patients. Tillil H, Köbberling J. Diabetes. 1987;36(1):93.
- Secondary attack rate of type 1 diabetes in Colorado families. Steck AK, Barriga KJ, Emery LM, Fiallo-Scharer RV, Gottlieb PA, Rewers MJ. Diabetes Care. 2005 Feb; 28(2): 296-300.



•Monozygotic twin – 30 % within 10 years of diagnosis of the first twin & 65 % concordance by



ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

- respiratory distress & jaundice.
- •Viral infections, particularly respiratory or enterovirus infections.
- Immunizations.
- Diet (Vitamin D & Omega-3 supplements, Nitrates).
- Vitamin D deficiency.
- Higher socioeconomic status.
- Obesity.

• Low birth weight (Protective) decreases the risk of developing T1DM, while high birth weight for gestational age & lower gestational age at birth may increase the risk for T1DM.

Seasonal variation.

Perinatal factors such as maternal age >25 years, history of preeclampsia, Neonatal





PREDISPOSING FACTORS T2DM.

WHAT ARE THE FACTORS FOR T2DM??

•Age ≥45 years

- continuum, with significantly increased risk for obese individuals (eg, BMI ≥30 kg/m2)
- Diabetes mellitus in a first-degree relative
- •Sedentary lifestyle
- American, and Pacific Islanders)
- History of gestational diabetes mellitus
- Hypertension (blood pressure ≥140/90 mmHg)
- L] and/or serum triglyceride concentration ≥ 250 mg/dL [2.8 mmol/L])
- •A1C \geq 5.7 %, impaired glucose tolerance (IGT) or impaired fasting glucose (IFG)
- Polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS)
- History of vascular disease



• Overweight (body mass index [BMI] ≥ 25 kg/m2); the risk with increased weight is also a

• High-risk ethnic or racial group (eg, African American, Hispanic, Native American, Asian

•Dyslipidemia (serum high-density lipoprotein cholesterol concentration ≤35 mg/dL [0.9 mmol/



WHAT ARE THE FACTORS CHILDHOOD-ONSET T2DM??

- •Obesity
- Positive family history
- •Specific racial and ethnic groups
- •Female gender
- Conditions associated with insulin resistance













CLINICAL PRESENTATION OF TIDM

CLINICAL PRESENTATION:

<u>Childhood type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) can present in several different ways:</u>

- Classic new onset of chronic polydipsia, polyuria, & weight loss with hyperglycemia & ketonemia (or ketonuria)... most common
- Diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA)
- Silent (asymptomatic) incidental discovery

Other presentations include:

- perineal candidiasis.
- •Visual disturbances/cataracts.









Abnormal thirst and dry mouth



Frequent urination



Lack of energy, fatigue



Constant hunger

SYMPTOMS OF TIDM





Bedwetting



Blurred vision



CLINICAL PRESENTATION:

T2DM can present in several ways:

- •Asymptomatic Approximately 40 %
- Diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) 5-12 %
- •Hyperosmolar hyperglycemic state (HHS) Uncommon but serious

Other presentations include:

- perineal candidiasis.
- •Visual disturbances/cataracts.



Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) can present in several different ways & Childhood

•Symptomatic (eg, polydipsia & polyuria) without ketonuria or acidosis – 57 -70%







Excessive thirst and dry mouth



Frequent and abundant urination



Lack of energy, extreme tiredness



Tingling or numbness in hands and feet

SYMPTOMS OF T2DM





Spectrum of metabolic abnormalities:

1-Two hormonal abnormalities are largely responsible for the development of (DKA) & (HONK/HHS) in patients with uncontrolled diabetes:



Insulin deficiency &/or resistance.



Glucagon Insulin

DM

Glucagon excess, which may result from removal of the normal suppressive effect of insulin.



PATHOGENESIS OF DKA & HONK

Spectrum of metabolic abnormalities:

2-Increased secretion of catecholamines, cortisol, & growth hormone, which oppose the actions of insulin, also contribute to the increases in glucose & ketoacid production





Glucagon Insulin

DM





Pathogenesis of diabetic ketoacidosis and hyperosmolar hyperglycemic state







DIAGNOSIS OF DIABETES

DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA OF DIABETES & PRE-DIABETES

Diagnostic criteria for Diabetes (
Fasting (8hours)	>/= 7 mm	
OR 2 hours (75 gm OGTT)	>/= 11.1 m	
OR HbA1c	>/= 6.5 %	
OR	Clinical sy	

Diagnostic criteria for Pre-Diabetes (ADA)

IFG: Fasting (8hours)	5.5-6.9 mn
IGT: 2 hours (75 gm OGTT)	8-11 mmol
НЬА1С	5.7-6.4 %

(ADA)

ol/L (126 mg/dl)

mol/L (200 mg/dl)

mptoms with random glucose of 200 mg/dl

nol/L (100-125 mg/dl)

l/L (144-199 mg/dl)





	T1DM	T2DM
Age	45% <10 yrs	>30 yrs, can present in younger
Pathogenesis	Autoimmunity Absolute Insulin reduction, no receptor defect, association with other autoimmune disease	Obesity Insulin resistance (receptor defect), relative insulin reduction
Genetic Susibtability	5-10%	85-90%
Predisposing factors	Genetic, environmental factors	Age, genetic, obesity, metabolic syndrome, smoking, HTN, PCOS
Body hapitus & Clinical presentation	Thin, rapid progression symptoms, DKA, over weeks to month	Obese, asymptomatic, or gradual symptoms of hyperglycemia over years Neuropathy can be first presentation
Treatment	Insulin	Insulin, Non Insulin therapy

COMPARISONSTIDM & T2DM



DIABETES MELLITUS (TIDM, T2DM)





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(Management of DM & guidelines)





PHARMACOTHERAPY IN DIABETES MANAGEMENT

- NON-INSULIN



WHEN & WHICH PATIENTS NEED INSULIN?





Autoimmune islet-cell injury that eventually leads to virtually complete insulin deficiency

Both insulin resistance & relative insulin deficiency, consider in severe persistent hyperglycemia, patient with symptoms of weight loss as initial therapy.

Occasionally difficult to distinguish between type 1 & atypical presentations of type 2 diabetes (LADA)

Secondary diabetes due to pancreatic insufficiency, including from cystic fibrosis, chronic pancreatitis, or after pancreatectomy.

Atypical presentation

Pancreatic Insufficiency





• THE MAINSTAY OF TREATMENT FOR TIDM is Insulin. •THE GOAL OF INSULIN THERAPY is to replace the deficient hormone & to attain normoglycemia.

- exogenous insulin to completely mimic physiologic insulin secretion.
- selected regimen is individualized for the child & family to fit their lifestyle & optimize compliance while providing glycemic control.

•The acute & chronic complications of diabetes are attributable to the failure of

•There are many different insulin preparations & delivery systems available. The



HISTORY OF INSULIN DEVELOPMENT OVER THE LAST 100 YEARS



Rapid acting



NATURAL INSULIN & BLOOD GLUCOSE LEVELS OVER 24 HOURS



To keep the blood glucose in a narrow range throughout the day, there is a low steady secretion of insulin overnight, fasting & between meals with spikes of insulin at mealtimes.

Glucose Levels

Insulin Levels

Normal (Non-diabetic) Blood Glucose and Insulin Levels over 24 Hours



Adapted: Jacobs DM Care 20:1279, 1997



PHYSIOLOGIC BLOOD INSULIN SECRETION PROFILE



Adapted from White JR, Campbell RK, Hirsch I. Postgraduate Medicine. June 2003;113(6):30-36.



(MDI) INTENSIVE INSULIN REPLACEMENT COMPARED **TO NATURAL INSULIN SECRETION**

Intensive insulin therapy tries to duplicate the body's natural pattern of insulin secretion. With intensive insulin therapy, a low steady level of insulin overnight, fasting, between meals, & a rapid surge of insulin at mealtime are needed.



Insulin Levels

Adapted: Jacobs DM Care 20:1279, 1997











MIMICKING NORMAL PHYSIOLOGY WITH



INSULIN PREPARATIONS





OLD CLASSES HUMAN INSULIN

Short acting Insulin 4-6 hours



Intermediate acting Insulin 10-18 hours



Mixed Insulin





(GLP-1) Non-Insulin Injection (GLP1)

Exinatide



Liraglutide

Dulaglutide



Victoza®

Lixisenatide













Oral Semagutide


Insulin Deludec



Insulin therapy

Liraglutide

Non-Insulin therapy (GLP1)







TABLE OF INSULIN ACTION

Type of Insulin	Onset	Peak	Duration of action	Appearance
Fast-acting				
Regular U-100 (Novolin R, Humulin R)	30-60 min.	2-4 hr.	6-10 hr.	clear
Regular U-500	30-60 min.	2-4 hr.	Up to 24 hr.	clear
Lispro (Humalog)/ Aspart (Novolog)/ Glulisine (Apidra)	<15 min.	I-2 hr.	4-6 hr.	clear
Intermediate-acting				
NPH	I-2 hr.	6-10 hr.	10-18 hr.	cloudy
Long-acting				
Detemir (Levemir)	l hr.	Flat, Max effect in 5 hrs.	12-24 hr.	clear
Glargine IU-100 (Lantus)	1.5 hr.	Flat, Max effect in 5 hrs.	24 hr.	clear
Glargin U-300 (Togueo)	6 hr.	No significant peak	24 hr.	clear
Degludec U-100 U-200 (Trisiba)	I-4 hr.	No significant peak	24 hr.	clear
Afrezza	<15 min	Approx. 50 min.	2-3 hr.	



INSULIN ADMINISTRATION

Emergent diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) management in adults: Rapid overview

Clinical features

DKA usually evolves rapidly over a 24-hour period.

Common, early signs of ketoacidosis include nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, and hyperventilation. The earliest symptoms of marked hyperglycemia are polyuria, polydipsia, and weight loss.

As hyperglycemia worsens, neurologic symptoms appear and may progress to include lethargy, focal deficits, obtundation, seizure, and coma.

Common causes of DKA include: infection; noncompliance, inappropriate adjustment, or cessation of insulin; new-onset diabetes mellitus; and myocardial ischemia.



TREATMENT OF DKA

Protocol for the management of adult patients with DKA





TIDM POST DKA

Patient young presented with DKA, or hyperglycemia with symptoms

Basal Insulin: (40-50%)

- Degludec once
- (Glargine, Detemir, NPH) once or twice

 Fasting hyperglycemia consider adjustment of evening dose Prandial hyperglycemia through Carbs counting or prandial adjustment



Overlap Insulin Infusion with Subcutaneous Insulin 30-60 min





Patient needs & Type of DM



COMMON INTENSIVE REGIMENS FOR TYPE 1 DIABETES

Intensive insulin therapy requires:

- Multiple daily injections of insulin (MDI) •
- Insulin pump therapy (CSII) ullet





Adapted: Jacobs DM Care 20:1279, 1997



Insulin Infusion Rate

Insulin Effect







INSULIN SIDE EFFECTS

SIDE EFFECTS OF INSULIN

• Weight gain • Hypoglycemia













HISTORY OF ANTI-HYPERGLYCEMIC MEDICATIONS OVER THE LAST 100 YEARS

1774, Mathew Dobson



1988, Joseph von Mering



1922, Sir Frederick Grant Banting



1923, John Macleod





•THE TREATMENT FOR T2DM is Non Insulin or Insulin.

•THE GOAL OF THERAPY is to attain normoglycemia & Cardiovascular risk factor management.



NON-INSULIN PHARMACOTHERAPY FOR T2DM



MECHANISM OF ACTION OF OHA CLASSES

NEW CLASSES





Bigunide TZDs

> dec hepatic production for glucose

Metformin

OLD CLASSES



Glucobay dec glucose absorption



Gliclazide Glyburide(glibenclamide) Repaglinide

inc peripheral glucose uptake

TZDs Bigunide

Bioglitazone Rosiglitazone



EFFICACY OF HYPOGLYCEMIC AGENTS (OLD & NEW)

Clinical Efficacy of Oral Hypoglycemic Agents

Class of hypoglycemic agents

Re

Sulfonylureas Meglitinides Biguanides Thiazolidinediones Alpha-glucosidase inhibitors DPP-4 inhibitor SGLT-2 Inhibitor GLP-1 Agonist

eduction in HbA _{1c} (%)	Reduction in FPG (mg per dl)		
0.8 to 2.0	60 to 70		
0.5 to 2.0	65 to 75		
1.5 to 2.0	50 to 70		
0.5 to 1.5	25 to 50		
0.7 to 1.0	35 to 40		
0.5 to 0.9	20 to 30		
0.4 to 0.67	15 to 20		
0.7-1.8	35 to 65		



SIDE EFFECTS OF AHA CLASSES









BEYOND GLYCEMIC BENEFIT OF AHA CLASSES

Weight Reduction

benefit

DDP-4 Inh. GLP-1 SGLT2 inh.

Cardiovascular



INSULIN PHARMACOTHERAPY FOR T2DM

Intensive insulin therapy:

• Multiple daily injections of insulin (MDI)



NON-PHARMACOTHERAPY FOR DIABETES MANAGEMENT

GLUCOSE MONITOR







CORRELATION OF HBA1C WITH AVERAGE GLUCOSE





LIFE STYLE MODIFICATIONS





Exercise

Healthy Diet







Blood Pressure control



Smoking cessation



Lipids control



PATIENT EDUCATION







GUIDELINES FOR DM MANAGEMENT





Triple Therapy

Lifestyle Management + Metformin + Two Additional Agents

Add third agent based on drug-specific effects and patient factors[#] (See Table 8.1)

A1C at target after 3 months of triple therapy?

- **Yes:** Monitor A1C every 3–6 months
- **No:** Assess medication-taking behavior
 - Consider Combination Injectable Therapy (See Figure 8.2)

Combination Injectable Therapy

(See Figure 8.2)



Antihyperglycemic Therapy in Adults with Type 2 Diabetes

At diagnosis, initiate lifestyle management, set A1C target, and initiate pharmacologic therapy based on A1C:





T2DM

Initiate Basal Insulin Usually with metformin +/- other noninsulin agent

Start: 10 U/day or 0.1–0.2 U/kg/day

Adjust: 10–15% or 2–4 units once or twice weekly to reach FBG target **For hypo:** Determine & address cause; if no clear reason for hypo,

For hypo: Determine & address cause; if no c ↓ dose by 4 units or 10–20%

> If A1C not controlled, **consider combination injectable therapy**

> > Add GLP-1 RA

If not tolerated or A1C

target not reached,

insulin regimen

insulin regimen

change to 2 injection

If goals not met, **consider**

changing to alternative

Add 1 rapid-acting insulin injection before largest meal

Start: 4 units, 0.1 U/kg, or 10%
basal dose. If A1C <8%, consider
↓ basal by same amount</pre>

Adjust: ↑ dose by 1–2 units or 10–15% once or twice weekly until SMBG target reached

For hypo: Determine and address cause; if no clear reason for hypo, ↓ corresponding dose by 2-4 units or 10-20%

If A1C not controlled, advance to basal-bolus

Add ≥2 rapid-acting insulin injections before meals ('basal-bolus')

Start: 4 units, 0.1 U/kg, or 10% basal dose/meal. If A1C <8%, consider ↓ basal by same amount

Adjust: ↑ dose(s) by 1–2 units or 10–15% once or twice weekly to achieve SMBG target

For hypo: Determine and address cause; if no clear reason for hypo, ↓ corresponding dose by 2-4 units or 10-20% If goals not met, consider
 changing to alternative
 insulin regimen



Combination injectable therapy for type 2 diabetes. FBG, fasting blood glucose; hypo, hypoglycemia.

Change to premixed insulin twice daily (before breakfast and supper)

Start: Divide current basal dose into ²/₃ AM, ¹/₃ PM or ¹/₂ AM, ¹/₂ PM

Adjust: ↑ dose by 1–2 units or 10–15% once or twice weekly until SMBG target reached

For hypo: Determine and address cause; if no clear reason for hypo, ↓ corresponding dose by 2-4 units or 10-20%

If A1C not controlled, advance to 3rd injection

Change to premixed analog insulin 3 times daily (breakfast, lunch, supper)

Start: Add additional injection before lunch

Adjust: ↑ doses by 1-2 units or 10-15% once or twice weekly to achieve SMBG target

For hypo: Determine and address cause; if no clear reason for hypo, ↓ corresponding dose by 2-4 units or 10-20%



FIRST-LINE therapy is metformin and Comprehensive lifestyle (including weight management and physical activity) if HbA_{1c} above target proceed as below











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