Diabetes type 1

Clinical Management (1) -Standards of care & Challenges-

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Diabetes type I- Introduction

- T1D is a multi-system disorder with immune mediated destruction of beta cells in pancreatic islets.
- The peak of onset is puberty after the presentation of weight loss, polyuria and thirst.

 \rightarrow In adults mainly weight loss and lethargy.

Diabetes type I- Introduction

- May also present as acute medical emergency (DKA).
- -Precipitated by intercurrent infection
- -Nausea, anorexia, vomiting and abdominal pain, may lead to electrolyte imbalance and death in severe cases.
- The aim is to prevent DKA and maintain near normal glucose values

Diabetes type I- Introduction children and adolescents

- ¾ of all cases of T1DM are diagnosed in patients <18 yrs.
- Providers must consider many unique aspects to care of children & adolescents with T1DM:
- Changes in insulin sensitivity related to physical growth and sexual maturation.
- Ability to provide self-care.
- Supervision in the child care and school environment.

American Diabetes Association Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes. Children and adolescents. *Diabetes Care* 2017; 40 (Suppl. 1): S105-S113 STUDENTS-HUB.com

Diabetes type I- Introduction children and adolescents



- Neurological vulnerability to hypoglycemia and hyperglycemia in young children.

Possible adverse neurocognitive effects of diabetic ketoacidosis

 Attention to family dynamics, developmental stages, and physiological differences related to sexual maturity

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Diabetes type I- Management basics



- -Dietitian
- -Diabetes nurse
- -Physicians
- -Psychologists.
- Control reduce complications.

 Intensive therapy is better than conventional therapy for preventing complications

Diabetes type I- Management basics

- Management of type 1 diabetes comprises a package of measures including:
- Multiple daily injections.
- -Assessment of glycaemic control
 - blood glucose self-monitoring
 - glycated haemoglobin (HbA1c)
- -Insulin dosage adjustment according to diet and exercise
- –A healthy diet and carbohydrate counting
- -Intensive diabetes education.
- Psychosocial support.

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Type 1 Diabetes: DSME & DSMS

Patients /parents/caregivers should receive

culturally sensitive & developmentally appropriate individualized DSME and DSMS.

- Family involvement is a vital component of optimal management in childhood.
- Diabetes care team must be capable of evaluating the educational, behavioral, emotional, and psychosocial factors that impact implementation of a treatment plan
- And must work with the individual and family to overcome barriers or redefine goals as appropriate.

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Type 1 Diabetes: Psychosocial Issues



- At diagnosis and during routine follow-up care, assess psychosocial issues and family stresses that could impact adherence to diabetes mgmt.
- Provide referrals to trained mental health professionals if needed.

 Encourage family involvement in diabetes mgmt. tasks for children & adolescents

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Type 1 Diabetes: Psychosocial Issues



- Mental health professionals should be considered integral members of the pediatric diabetes multidisciplinary team.
- Providers should assess diabetes distress, social adjustment, and school performance to determine whether further intervention is needed.
- Adolescents should have time by themselves with their care provider(s) starting at age 12 years.

Type 1 Diabetes: Glycemic Control

- An A1C goal of <7.5% is recommended across all pediatric age-groups
- Current standards reflect the need to lower glucose as safely as possible.
- Special consideration should be given to the risk of hypoglycemia in young children (aged <6 years)
- → who are often unable to recognize, and/or manage their hypoglycemic symptoms.

-individualized glycemic targets-

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Type 1 Diabetes: Glycemic Control

Blood glucose goal range			
Before meals	Bedtime/ overnight	A1C	Rationale
90–130 mg/dL (5.0–7.2 mmol/L)	90–150 mg/dL (5.0–8.3 mmol/L)	<7.5%	A lower goal (<7.0%) is reasonable if it can be achieved without excessive hypos

- **1.** Goals should be individualized; lower goals may be reasonable.
- 2. Modify BG goals in youth w/ frequent hypos or hypoglycemia unawareness.
- 3. Measure postprandial BG if discrepancy between preprandial BG and A1C & to assess glycemia in basal-bolus regimens.

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- Assess for the presence of autoimmune conditions associated with type 1 diabetes soon after the diagnosis and if symptoms develop.
- Consider testing for Autoimmune thyroid disease.
 Consider screening for celiac disease soon after diagnosis.

Also in individuals who have a first degree relative with celiac disease, growth failure, weight loss, gastrointestinal symptoms or in children with frequent unexplained hypoglycemia or deterioration in glycemic control.
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- Hypertension (HTN) → Measure BP at each routine visit.
 - → Treatment for high blood pressure; diet, exercise & weight control.
 - → If target blood pressure is not reached with 3–6 months of consider pharmacological treatment

- Dyslipidemia → Obtain a fasting lipid profile in children
 ≥10 years soon after diagnosis
 - → If lipids are abnormal, annual monitoring is reasonable.
 - → Initial therapy: Optimize glucose control & MNT.
 - \rightarrow Statins might be considered.
- Smoking CVD risk

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Nephropathy:

→Annual screening for albuminuria using albuminto-creatinine ratio once the child has had diabetes for 5 years.

→Estimate glomerular filtration rate at initial evaluation and then based on age, diabetes duration & treatment.

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- Retinopathy :
- →At age ≥10 years or after puberty has started, whichever is earlier, once the child has had diabetes for 3–5 years.
- →After the initial exam, annual follow-up is recommended.
- →Less frequent exams, every 2 years, may be acceptable on the advice of an eye care professional.

• Neuropathy :

→Neuropathy rarely occurs in prepubertal children or after only 1–2 years of diabetes

→ Annual foot exam at the start of puberty or at age
 ≥10 years, whichever is earlier, once the child has had
 DM I for 5 years.

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DM I - Self-management

 The management of T1 diabetes is 'painful, difficult and time-consuming' invading every aspect of child/ adolescent life and involves:

- 1) Multiple injections of insulin or use of insulin pump.
- 2) Careful counting of carbohydrate (CHO) content of meals and snacks and matching insulin to this.
- 3) Regular monitoring of blood glucose levels.
- 4) Lifestyle considerations, e.g. stress, exercise, and timing of meals.
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Challenges in treating children with DM I

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Challenges in treating toddlers

- Missed diagnosis because of rarity
- Non specific symptoms
- Rapid metabolic decompensation
- Total dependence on the adults around them
- Psychological effects on the parents
- How to give injections & Lipohypertrophy
- Extended family carers
- Nursery & preschool.
- Irregular food patterns

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Challenges in teaching school aged children

- Large variation in development, and ability
- Awareness of being different from their peers
- Variable learning styles visual, rote, auditory.
- Level of priority
- School involvement



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What about adolescents?



Adolescence is often a time that is associated with a period of poor metabolic control- therefore it is a significant time for the development of diabetes-related complications.

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Why is adolescence so problematic?



• Hormonal influences cause blood glucose levels and subsequently insulin requirements to increase.

•However, these difficulties cannot be explained on a purely physiological level.

*******We NEED to consider Psychological impact of Diabetes.

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(Some) psychosocial factors during adolescence



 Becoming part of a peer group-accepted rules and normsimportant aspect of adolescent life.

 Peer-pressure report more peer-support for certain diabetes-related behaviours than younger children-change.

 Move from parental control towards independence is vitally important for self-esteem.

✓ Intra-familial conflict-parental involvement
✓ and may lead to a decrease in metabolic control. Can lead to conflicting opinions!
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(Some) psychosocial factors during adolescence

 Adolescents often feel that they are being judged by everyone, in particular their friends. Highlights the importance of the patient-provider relationship and the dynamics of that relationship.

✓ They can experience poor self-esteem and self-efficacy!

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Biopsychosocial Model



• Consideration of biological, psychological and social factors that underpin health-related behaviours.

- Explicit appreciation of mind-body-behaviour link.
- Balance of power-knowledge and expertise.
- Decision-making-treatment plans and implementation.

Central importance is patient relationship with health care professional.

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Relationship with Health Care Provider (HCP)

- A good relationship can facilitate good self-management.
- Important in two ways:
 - Honest exchange of info from parents/adolescent to clinicians regarding level of management.
 - Reliance on HCP's to share expertise and encourage good selfmanagement.
- A higher degree of conflict in the relationship was reported in those adolescents whose diabetes was poorly controlled than if it was moderately or well controlled .
- Generally these arguments centred around lying, a common coping mechanism used in order to avoid negative responses from health care providers.

Relationship with Health Care Provider (HCP)

Study: <u>Freeman and Loewe (2000) Barriers to</u> <u>communication -differing patient-provider perspectives.</u>

Highlighted the importance of <u>qualitative</u> outcome measures → HCP often ignore psychological factors, e.g. quality of life, that are often more important to the patient.

One HCP said: "I think most of them have 10 or 15 concerns that are ahead of DM , so we're having to get through all those things before we hit the behaviour change in dealing with diabetes. You know, child- care issues, transportation issues, violence. Everything. You've got to find out those things that are ahead of the diabetes"

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- Diabetes doesn't occur in isolation-families and relationships.
- Significant anxiety about hypoglycaemia and future complications.
- This may be the source of conflict and may increase relationship stress.

(Trief, Sandberg, Dimmock, Forken and Weinstock, 2013).

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• Study (1) : Elevated anxiety symptoms were found in 40% of participants, with no reported difference between diabetes type (Grigsby, Anderson, Freedland, Clouse and Lustman (2002)

→ It may compromise metabolic control at a <u>behavioural</u> level by interfering with self-management behaviours.

BUT stress itself can elicit a hormonal response that is counter-regulatory and energy mobilising.
 → This can lead to an increase in blood glucose levels.

(Hermanns, Kulzer, Krichbaum, Kubiak & Haak, 2005).

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- Study (2) : 276 adolescents with DM I and their caregivers completed measures of anxiety symptoms.
- →Trait anxiety symptoms that suggest further clinical assessment is needed were present in 17% of adolescents.
- →Higher levels of state anxiety symptoms were associated with less frequent BGM (p < .0001) and suboptimal glycemic control (p < .0001).</p>

(Herzer & Hood, 2010).

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Multiple levels of anxiety:

✓ Hypo-based anxiety and personal safety at work.

✓ Peer-related anxiety.

Capability being questioned.

✓ Social acceptance.

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Anxiety within diabetes- How to manage it ?

Thinking points:

✓ Maturity of the patient.

Fear of hypoglycaemia or related comorbidities.
Relationship with the healthcare provider.

 \checkmark Relationship with family & friends.

✓ Feeling of embarrassment.

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Anxiety within diabetes- Management?

 Consider screening for anxiety in people exhibiting anxiety or worries regarding DM complications, insulin injections, taking medications, and/or hypoglycemia that interfere with self-management behaviors.

✓ Refer for treatment if anxiety is present.

 Persons with hypoglycemic unawareness, which can co-occur with fear of hypoglycemia, should be get intensive training to help re-establish awareness of hypoglycemia and reduce associated fear.

American Diabetes Association Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes. Comprehensive Medical STUEValuation and Comorbidities. Diabetes Care 2017; 40 (Suppl. 1): S25-S32 Uploaded By: anonymous

DM I- Depression



- 8-27% incidence
- Depression is associated with:
- Poor glycemic control
- Impact on concordance (harmony or conformity)
- Impact on self care
- Impact on health related behaviors.
- Comorbidity
- Impact on quality of life

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DM I- Depression



Diabetes Worsens Depression:

- Poor glycemic control worsens mood
- Psychological impact
- ✓ Social impact
- Comorbidity renal, cardiac, retinopathy
- Sexual dysfunction
- Access to means of suicide

DM I- Depression



Diabetes-Depression

- Increased risk of depression particularly IDDM
- Depression increases risk of type II DM

Diabetes

abnormal levels of norepinephrine and serotonin

high levels of cortisol (impairs insulin sensitivity)

loss of energy

nervousness/anxiety

suicidal thoughts

change in appetite

stress of daily diabetes management (primarily, daily difficulty of keeping blood sugar levels under control)

> occasional tension between patient and doctor

fatigue/exhaustion excercising

difficulty making dietary changes

Depression

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DM I- Depression/ Management

✓ Screening/Assessment

✓ Psychoeducation

✓ Self management

Motivational interviewing

Psychological treatment – CBT

✓ Pharmacological approaches

✓ Risk management

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DM I- Depression/ Management

- Consider annual screening with age-appropriate depression screening measures.
- Beginning at dx of complications or when there are significant changes in medical status.
- Referrals for treatment of depression should be made to mental health providers with experience using evidence-based treatment approaches.

American Diabetes Association Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes. Comprehensive Medical Evaluation and Assessment of Comorbidities. Diabetes Care 2017; 40 (Suppl. 1): S25-S32

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In conclusion ...



It is important to consider psychological and social factors that often impact detrimentally on metabolic control and what could be done to combat the effects of these.