THE JOURNAL OF CLINICAL AND APPLIED RESEARCH AND EDUCATION

VOLUME 43 | SUPPLEMENT 1

JANUARY 2020

Diabetes Care®

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JANUARY 2020

SUPPLEMENT 1

AMERICAN DIABETES ASSOCIATION

STANDARDS OF MEDICAL CARE IN DIABETES—2020

American Diabetes Association®

ISSN 0149-5992

Diabetes Care®

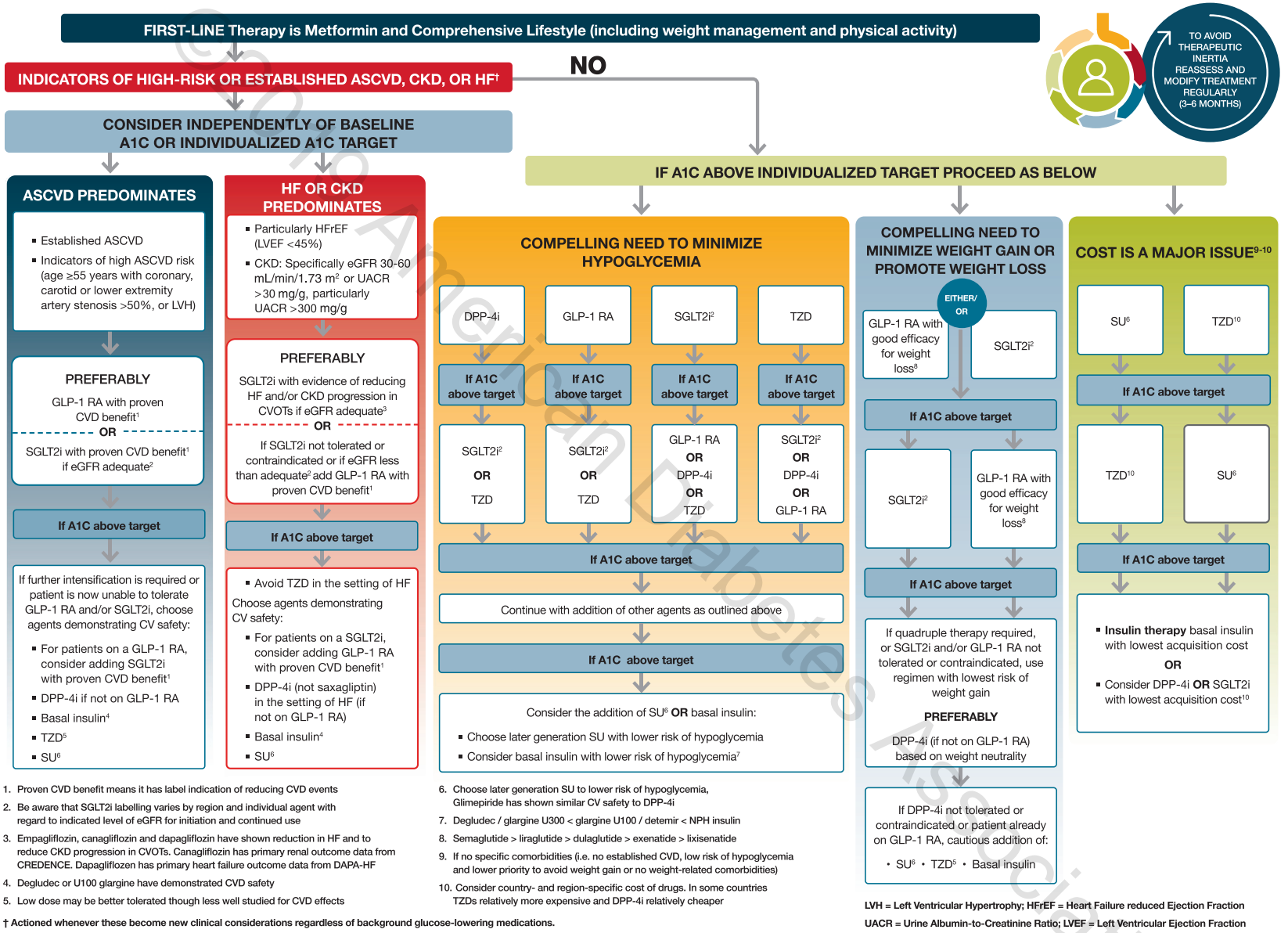
JANUARY 2020

VOLUME 43 | SUPPLEMENT 1 | PAGES S1–S212

Table 9.1—Drug-specific and patient factors to consider when selecting antihyperglycemic treatment in adults with type 2 diabetes

		Efficacy	Hypoglycemia	Weight change	CV effects		Cost	Oral/SQ	Renal effects		Additional considerations
					ASCVD	HF			Progression of DKD	Dosing/use considerations*	
Metformin		High	No	Neutral (potential for modest loss)	Potential benefit	Neutral	Low	Oral	Neutral	▪ Contraindicated with eGFR <30 mL/min/1.73 m²	▪ Gastrointestinal side effects common (diarrhea, nausea) ▪ Potential for B12 deficiency
SGLT-2 inhibitors		Intermediate	No	Loss	Benefit: empagliflozin†, canagliflozin	Benefit: empagliflozin†, canagliflozin, dapagliflozin‡	High	Oral	Benefit: canagliflozin§, empagliflozin, dapagliflozin	▪ Renal dose adjustment required (canagliflozin, dapagliflozin, empagliflozin, ertugliflozin)	▪ **FDA Black Box:** Risk of amputation (**canagliflozin**) ▪ Risk of bone fractures (canagliflozin) ▪ DKA risk (all agents, rare in T2DM) ▪ Genitourinary infections ▪ Risk of volume depletion, hypotension ▪ ↑LDL cholesterol ▪ Risk of Fournier's gangrene
GLP-1 RAs		High	No	Loss	Neutral: lixisenatide Benefit: See label indication of reducing CVD events	Neutral	High	SQ; oral (semaglutide)	Benefit: liraglutide	▪ Renal dose adjustment required (exenatide, lixisenatide) ▪ Caution when initiating or increasing dose due to potential risk of acute kidney injury	▪ **FDA Black Box:** Risk of thyroid C-cell tumors (**liraglutide, albiglutide, dulaglutide, exenatide extended release**) ▪ Gastrointestinal side effects common (nausea, vomiting, diarrhea) ▪ Injection site reactions ▪ ?Acute pancreatitis risk
DPP-4 inhibitors		Intermediate	No	Neutral	Neutral	Potential risk: saxagliptin	High	Oral	Neutral	▪ Renal dose adjustment required (sitagliptin, saxagliptin, alogliptin); can be used in renal impairment ▪ No dose adjustment required for linagliptin	▪ Potential risk of acute pancreatitis ▪ Joint pain
Thiazolidinediones		High	No	Gain	Potential benefit: pioglitazone	Increased risk	Low	Oral	Neutral	▪ No dose adjustment required ▪ Generally not recommended in renal impairment due to potential for fluid retention	▪ **FDA Black Box:** Congestive heart failure [**pioglitazone, rosiglitazone**] ▪ Fluid retention (edema; heart failure) ▪ Benefit in NASH ▪ Risk of bone fractures ▪ Bladder cancer (pioglitazone) ▪ ↑LDL cholesterol (rosiglitazone)
Sulfonylureas (2nd generation)		High	Yes	Gain	Neutral	Neutral	Low	Oral	Neutral	▪ Glyburide: not recommended ▪ Glipizide and glimepiride: initiate conservatively to avoid hypoglycemia	▪ FDA Special Warning on increased risk of cardiovascular mortality based on studies of an older sulfonylurea (tolbutamide)
Insulin	Human insulin	Highest	Yes	Gain	Neutral	Neutral	Low	SQ; inhaled	Neutral	▪ Lower insulin doses required with a decrease in eGFR; titrate per clinical response	▪ Injection site reactions ▪ Higher risk of hypoglycemia with human insulin (NPH or premixed formulations) vs. analogs
	Analogs						High	SQ			

*For agent-specific dosing recommendations, please refer to the manufacturers' prescribing information. †FDA approved for CVD benefit. ‡FDA-approved for heart failure indication; §FDA-approved for CKD indication. CV, cardiovascular; DPP-4, dipeptidyl peptidase 4; DKA, diabetic ketoacidosis; DKD, diabetic kidney disease; GLP-1 RAs, glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor agonists; HF, heart failure; NASH, nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; SGLT2, sodium–glucose cotransporter 2; SQ, subcutaneous; T2DM, type 2 diabetes.

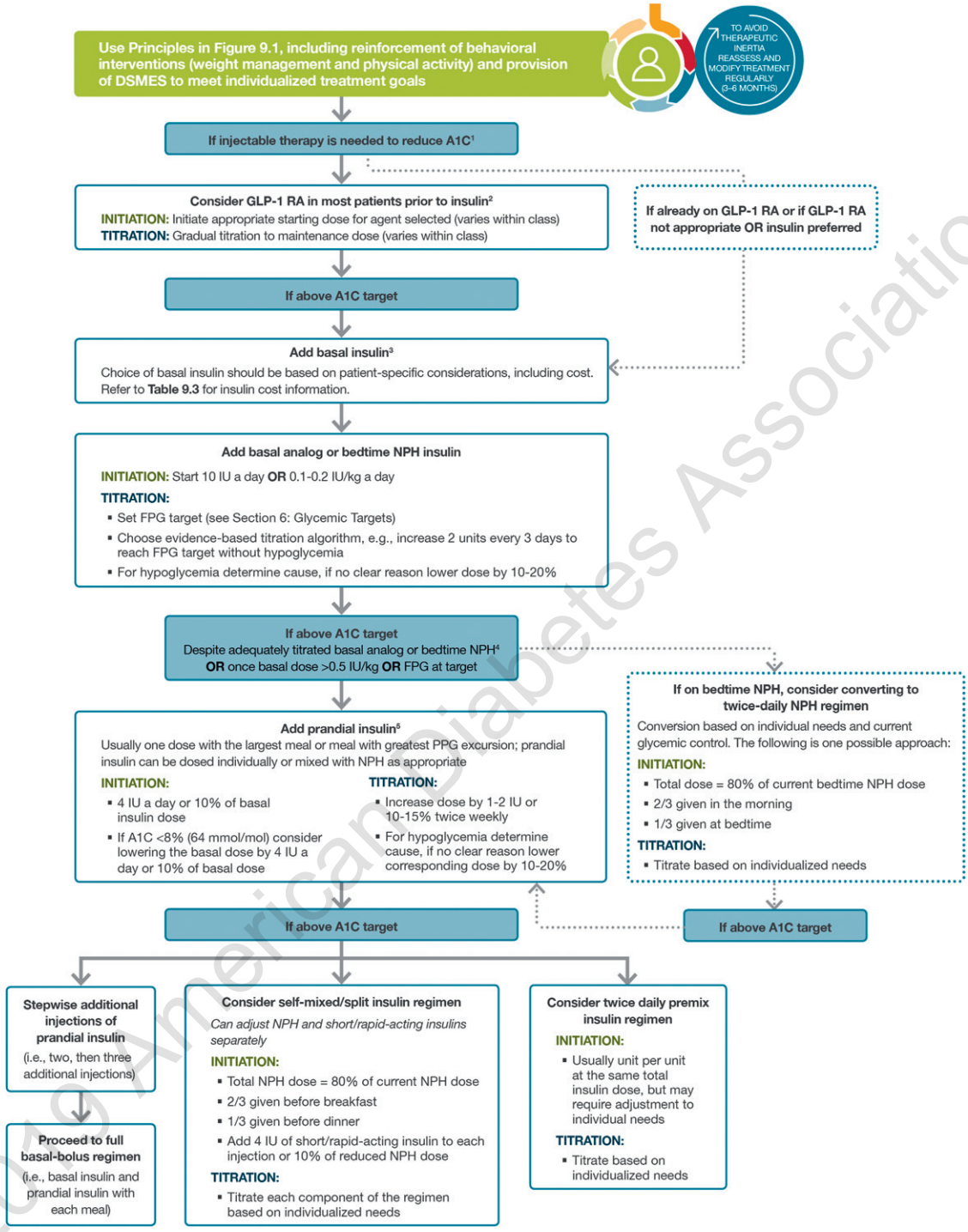


1. Proven CVD benefit means it has label indication of reducing CVD events
2. Be aware that SGLT2i labelling varies by region and individual agent with regard to indicated level of eGFR for initiation and continued use
3. Empagliflozin, canagliflozin and dapagliflozin have shown reduction in HF and to reduce CKD progression in CVOTs. Canagliflozin has primary renal outcome data from CREDENCE. Dapagliflozen has primary heart failure outcome data from DAPA-HF
4. Degludec or U100 glargine have demonstrated CVD safety
5. Low dose may be better tolerated though less well studied for CVD effects
6. Choose later generation SU to lower risk of hypoglycemia, Glimepiride has shown similar CV safety to DPP-4i
7. Degludec / glargine U300 < glargine U100 / detemir < NPH insulin
8. Semaglutide > liraglutide > dulaglutide > exenatide > lixisenatide
9. If no specific comorbidities (i.e. no established CVD, low risk of hypoglycemia and lower priority to avoid weight gain or no weight-related comorbidities)
10. Consider country- and region-specific cost of drugs. In some countries TZDs relatively more expensive and DPP-4i relatively cheaper

† Actioned whenever these become new clinical considerations regardless of background glucose-lowering medications.

LVH = Left Ventricular Hypertrophy; HFrEF = Heart Failure reduced Ejection Fraction
UACR = Urine Albumin-to-Creatinine Ratio; LVEF = Left Ventricular Ejection Fraction

Figure 9.1—Glucose-lowering medication in type 2 diabetes: overall approach. For appropriate context, see **Fig. 4.1**. ASCVD, atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease; CKD, chronic kidney disease; CV, cardiovascular; CVD, cardiovascular disease; CVOTs, cardiovascular outcomes trials; DPP-4i, dipeptidyl peptidase 4 inhibitor; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; GLP-1 RA, glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor agonist; HF, heart failure; SGLT2i, sodium–glucose cotransporter 2 inhibitor; SU, sulfonylurea; TZD, thiazolidinedione. Adapted from Davies and colleagues (33,34).



1. Consider insulin as the first injectable if evidence of ongoing catabolism, symptoms of hyperglycemia are present, when A1C levels (>10% [86 mmol/mol]) or blood glucose levels (≥300 mg/dL [16.7 mmol/L]) are very high, or a diagnosis of type 1 diabetes is a possibility.
2. When selecting GLP-1 RA, consider: patient preference, A1C lowering, weight-lowering effect, or frequency of injection. If CVD, consider GLP-1 RA with proven CVD benefit.
3. For patients on GLP-1 RA and basal insulin combination, consider use of a fixed-ratio combination product (iDegLira or iGlarLixi).
4. Consider switching from evening NPH to a basal analog if the patient develops hypoglycemia and/or frequently forgets to administer NPH in the evening and would be better managed with an AM dose of a long-acting basal insulin.
5. If adding prandial insulin to NPH, consider initiation of a self-mixed or premixed insulin regimen to decrease the number of injections required.

Figure 9.2—Intensifying to injectable therapies. DSMES, diabetes self-management education and support; FPG, fasting plasma glucose; FRC, fixed-ratio combination; GLP-1 RA, glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor agonist; max, maximum; PPG, postprandial glucose. Adapted from Davies et al. (33).

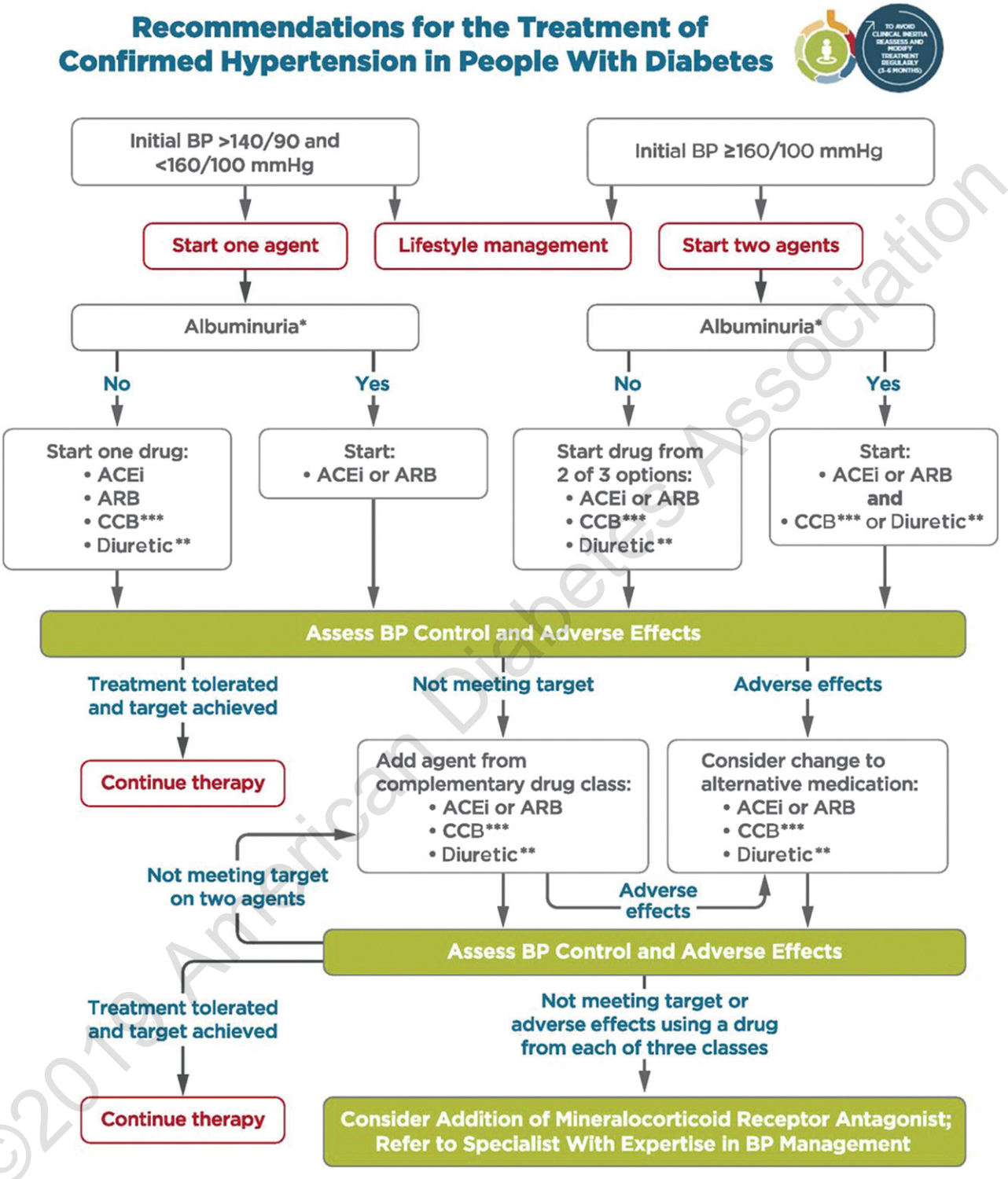


Figure 10.1—Recommendations for the treatment of confirmed hypertension in people with diabetes. *An ACE inhibitor (ACEi) or angiotensin receptor blocker (ARB) is suggested to treat hypertension for patients with urine albumin-to-creatinine ratio 30–299 mg/g creatinine and strongly recommended for patients with urine albumin-to-creatinine ratio ≥300 mg/g creatinine. **Thiazide-like diuretic; long-acting agents shown to reduce cardiovascular events, such as chlorthalidone and indapamide, are preferred. ***Dihydropyridine calcium channel blocker (CCB). BP, blood pressure. Adapted from de Boer et al. (17).

drugs belonging to different classes at adequate doses. Prior to diagnosing resistant hypertension, a number of other conditions should be excluded, including medication nonadherence, white coat hypertension, and secondary hypertension. In general, barriers to medication adherence (such as cost and side effects) should be identified and addressed (**Fig. 10.1**). Mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists are effective for management of resistant hypertension in patients with

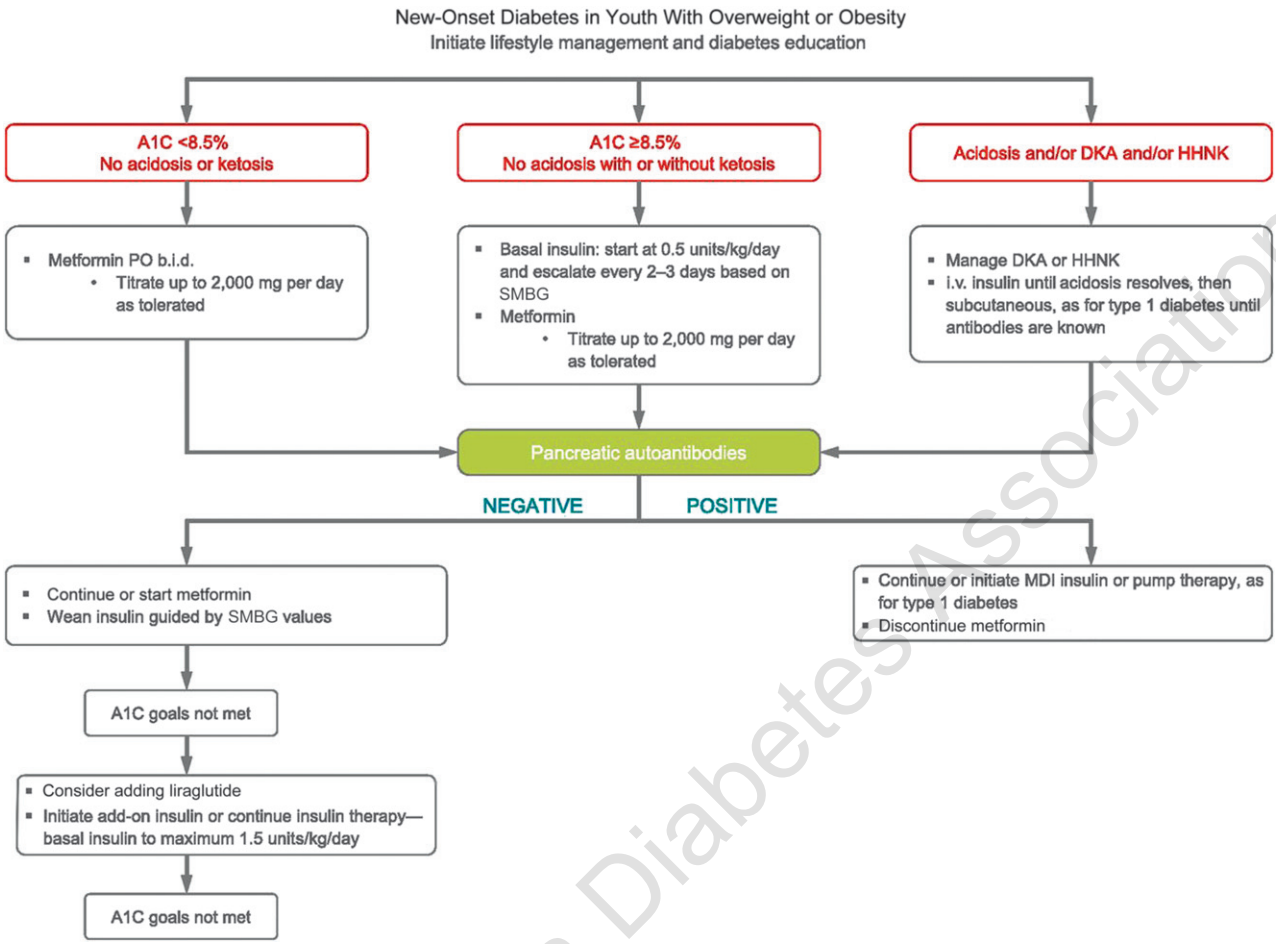


Figure 13.1—Management of new-onset diabetes in youth with overweight or obesity. A1C 8.5% = 69 mmol/mol. Adapted from the ADA position statement "Evaluation and Management of Youth-Onset Type 2 Diabetes" (2). DKA, diabetic ketoacidosis; HHNK, hyperosmolar hyperglycemic nonketotic syndrome; MDI, multiple daily injections.

and maintaining a healthy weight, and exercising regularly. A family-centered approach to nutrition and lifestyle modification is essential in children with type 2 diabetes, and nutrition recommendations should be culturally appropriate and sensitive to family resources (see Section 5 "Facilitating Behavior Change and Well-being to Improve Health Outcomes," https://doi.org/10.2337/dc20-S005). Given the complex social and environmental context surrounding youth with type 2 diabetes, individual-level lifestyle interventions may not be sufficient to target the complex interplay of family dynamics, mental health, community readiness, and the broader environmental system (2).

A multidisciplinary diabetes team, including a physician, diabetes nurse educator, registered dietitian, and psychologist or social worker, is essential. In addition to achieving glycemic targets and self-management education (185–187), initial treatment must include management of comorbidities such as obesity, dyslipidemia, hypertension, and microvascular complications.

Current pharmacologic treatment options for youth-onset type 2 diabetes are limited to three approved drugs—insulin, metformin, and liraglutide (2). Presentation with ketoacidosis or marked ketosis requires a period of insulin therapy until fasting and postprandial glycemia have been restored to normal or near-normal levels. Metformin therapy may be used as an adjunct after resolution of ketosis/ketoacidosis. Initial treatment should also be with insulin when the distinction between type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes is unclear and in patients who have random blood glucose concentrations ≥250 mg/dL (13.9 mmol/L) and/or A1C ≥8.5% (69 mmol/mol) (188).

When insulin treatment is not required, initiation of metformin is recommended. The Treatment Options for Type 2 Diabetes in Adolescents and Youth (TODAY) study found that metformin alone provided durable glycemic control (A1C ≤8% [64 mmol/mol] for 6 months) in approximately half of the subjects (189). The RISE Consortium study did not demonstrate differences in measures of glucose or β-cell function preservation between metformin and insulin, but there was more weight gain with insulin (190).

To date, the TODAY study is the only trial combining lifestyle and metformin therapy in youth with type 2 diabetes; the combination did not perform better than metformin alone in achieving durable glycemic control (189).

A recent randomized clinical trial in children aged 10–17 years with type 2 diabetes demonstrated the addition of subcutaneous liraglutide (up to 1.8 mg daily) to metformin (with or without basal insulin) as safe and effective to

agents. Cost may be an important consideration, especially as older adults tend to be on many medications and live on fixed incomes (47). Accordingly, the costs of care and insurance coverage rules should be considered when developing treatment plans to reduce the risk of cost-related nonadherence (48,49). See **Tables 9.2** and **9.3** for median monthly cost in the U.S. of noninsulin glucose-lowering agents and insulin, respectively. It is important to match complexity of the treatment regimen to the self-management ability of older patients and their available social and medical support. Many older adults with diabetes struggle to maintain the frequent blood glucose testing and insulin injection regimens they previously followed, perhaps for many decades, as they develop medical conditions that may impair their ability to follow their regimen safely. Individualized glycemic goals should be established (**Fig. 6.3**) and periodically adjusted based on coexisting chronic illnesses, cognitive function, and functional status (2). Tight glycemic control in older adults with multiple medical conditions is considered overtreatment and is associated with an increased risk of hypoglycemia; unfortunately, overtreatment is common in clinical practice (50–54). Deintensification of regimens in patients taking noninsulin glucose-lowering medications can be achieved by either lowering the dose or discontinuing some medications, so long as the individualized glycemic target is maintained. When patients are found to have an insulin regimen with complexity beyond their self-management abilities, lowering the dose of insulin may not be adequate (55). Simplification of the insulin regimen to match an individual's self-management abilities and their available social and medical support in these situations has been shown to reduce hypoglycemia and disease-related distress without worsening glycemic control (56–58). **Fig. 12.1** depicts an algorithm that can be used to simplify the insulin regimen (56). There are now multiple studies evaluating deintensification protocols; in general, the studies demonstrate that deintensification is safe and possibly beneficial for older adults (59). **Table 12.2** provides examples of and rationale for situations where deintensification and/or insulin regimen simplification may be appropriate in older adults.

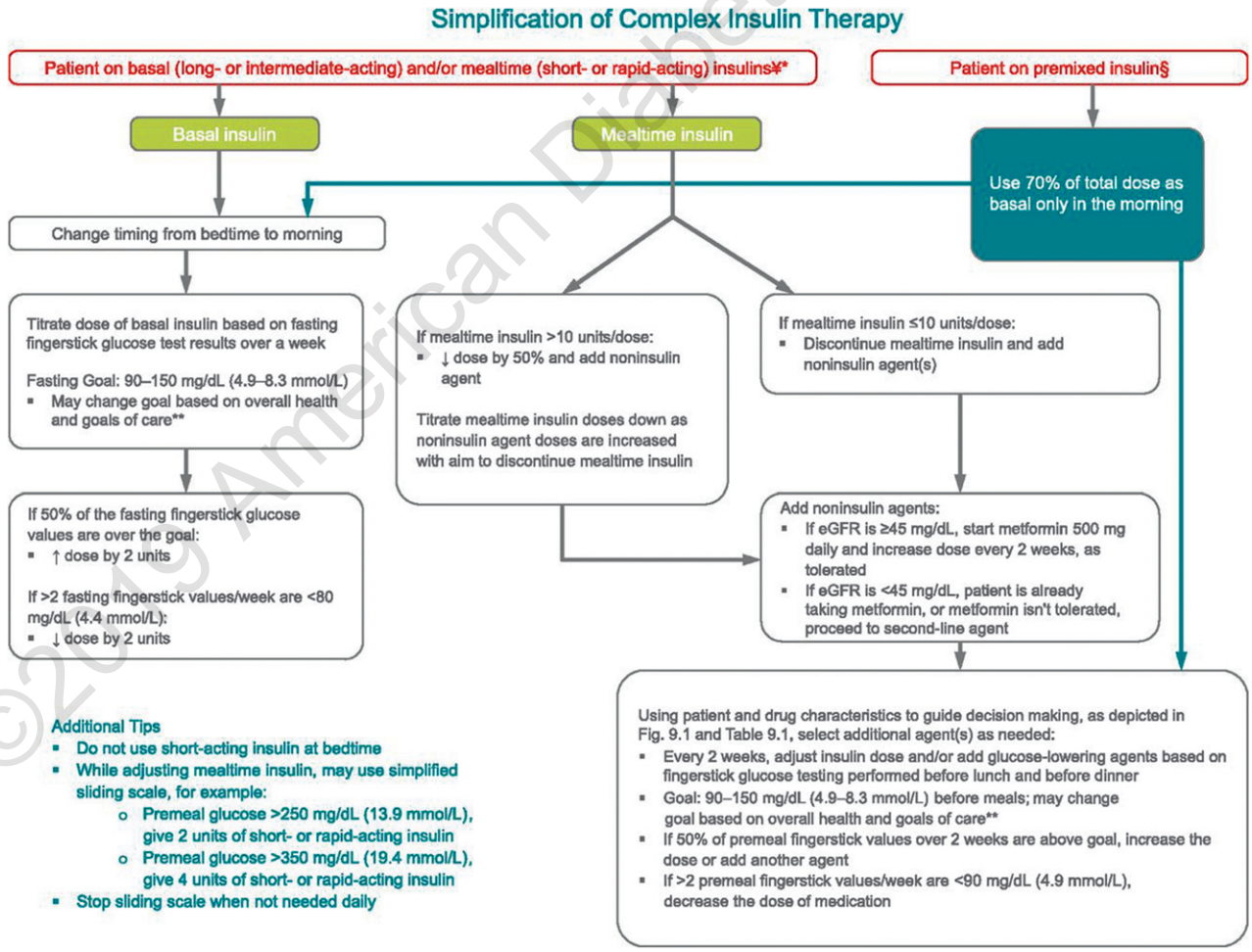


Figure 12.1—Algorithm to simplify insulin regimen for older patients with type 2 diabetes. eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate. *Basal insulins: glargine U-100 and U-300, detemir, degludec, and human NPH. **See Table 12.1. ¥Mealtime insulins: short-acting (regular human insulin) or rapid-acting (lispro, aspart, and glulisine). §Premixed insulins: 70/30, 75/25, and 50/50 products. Adapted with permission from Munshi and colleagues (56,82,83).