

Il vostro laboratorio –
oggi e domani

RISCH.CH

Diabete

Labmed, 25.04.2023

Mauro Imperiali



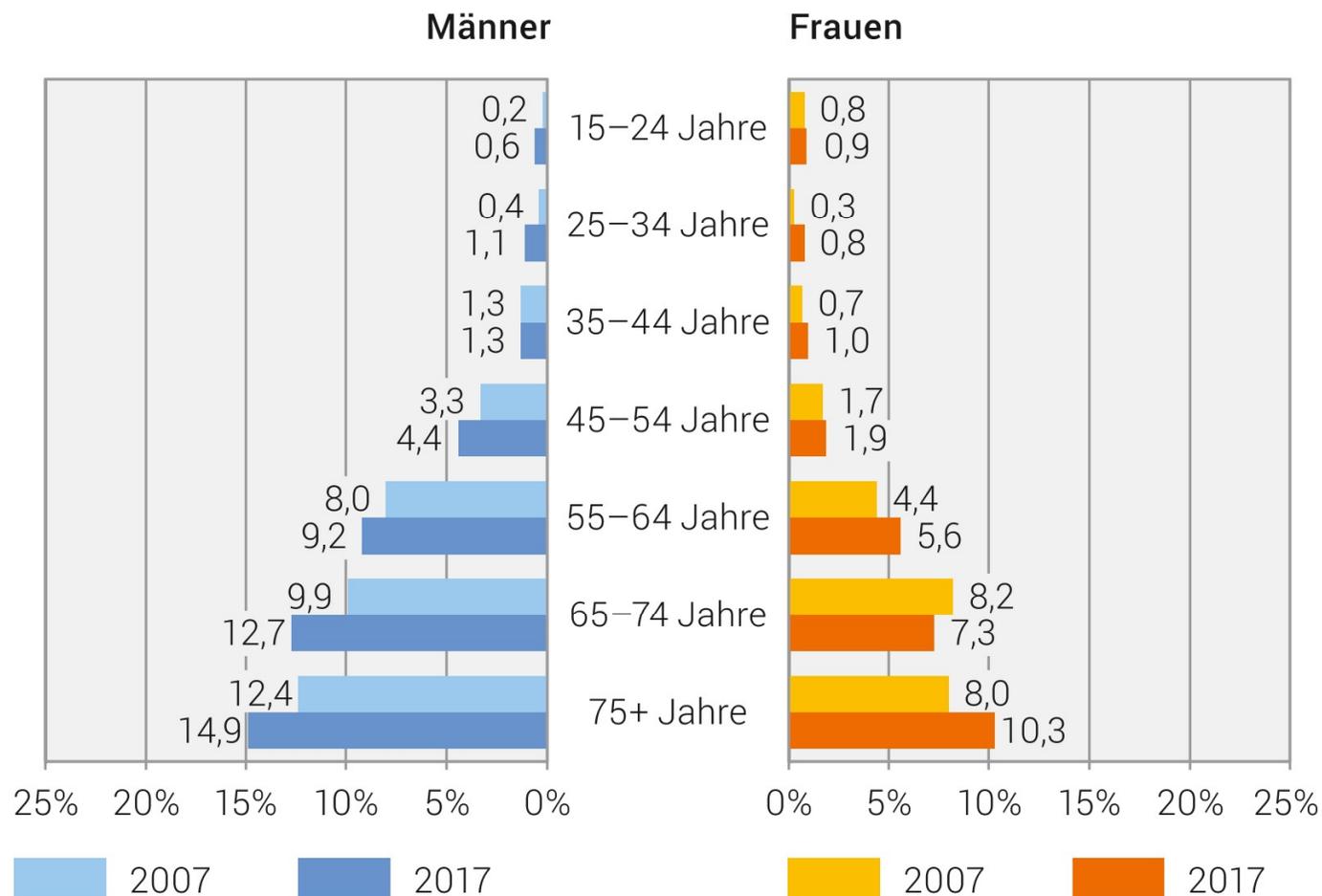
Diabete

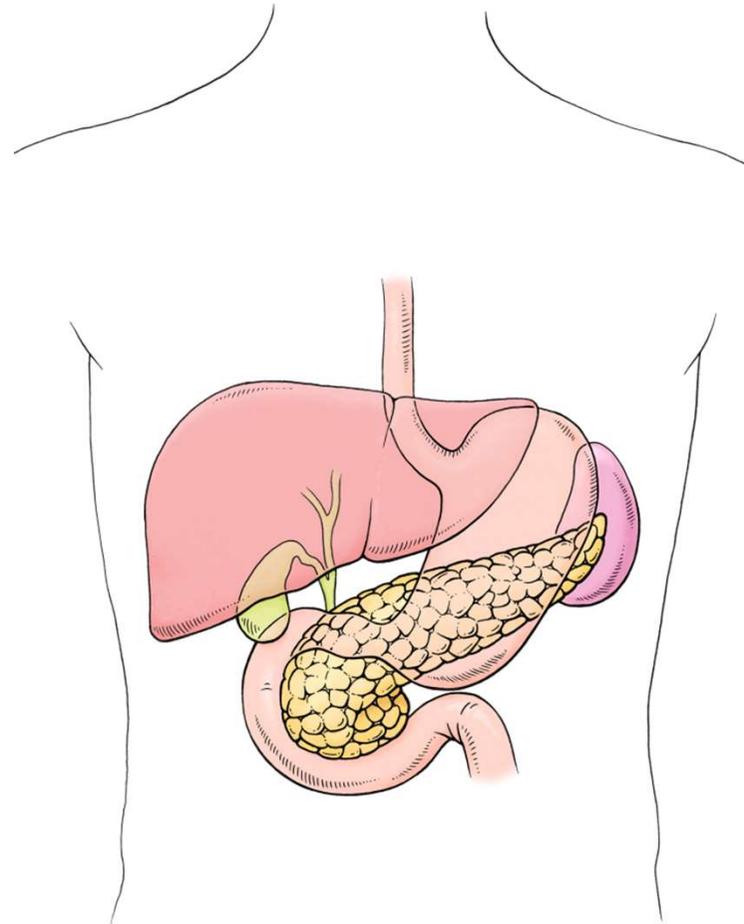
Il diabete è una malattia grave e un fattore di rischio per diverse patologie, soprattutto cardiovascolari. L'obesità e la mancanza di esercizio fisico aumentano il rischio di diabete del tipo 2 (insulino-resistenza), la forma più comune. Il diabete di tipo 1 (insufficiente produzione di insulina) si manifesta già nell'infanzia.



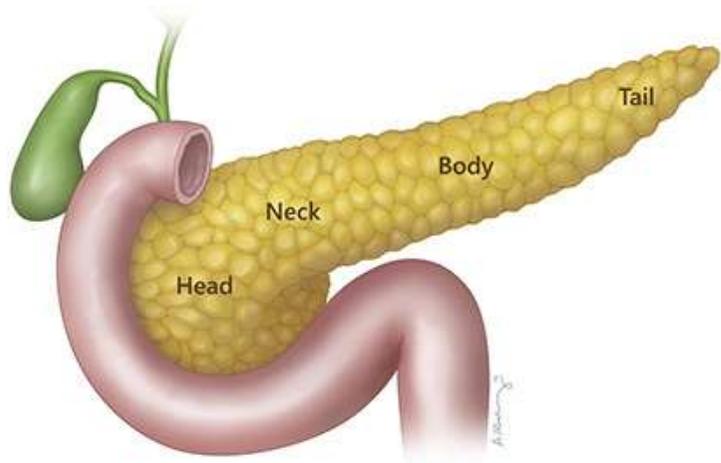
Personen mit Diabetes

Bevölkerung ab 15 Jahren in Privathaushalten

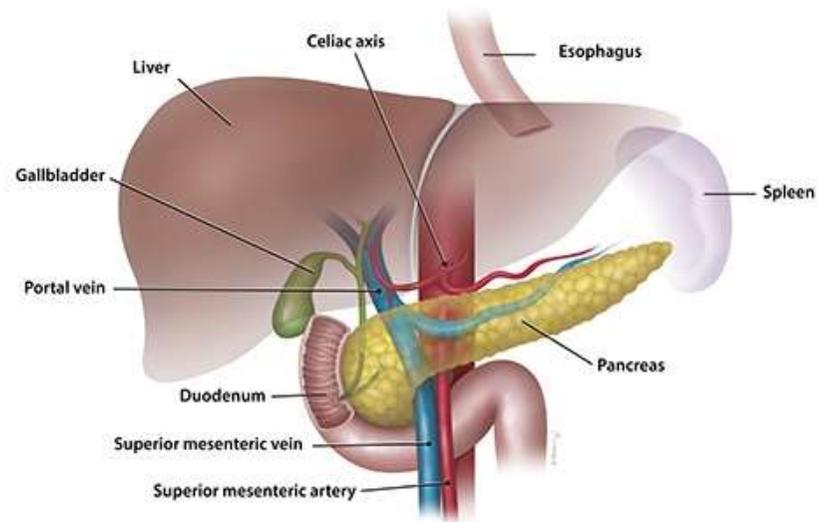




www.pancreas.ch



© 2016 Columbia University. All Rights Reserved.



© 2016 Columbia University. All Rights Reserved.



Il pancreas è nascosto dietro lo stomaco e davanti alla spina dorsale. È una ghiandola giallastra, lunga circa 15 centimetri, larga 5 centimetri e spessa da 2 a 3 centimetri, che pesa da 80 a 120 grammi. Si divide in testa pancreatico, corpo pancreatico e coda pancreatico. La testa pancreatico - attraverso la quale passa parte del dotto biliare - è strettamente legata al duodeno, l'intestino tenue. La coda pancreatico si estende fino alla milza sul lato sinistro. Il corpo del pancreas si trova proprio di fronte all'origine di importanti vasi dell'aorta che forniscono sangue al fegato, allo stomaco, all'intestino superiore e anche al pancreas e alla milza.

Bauchspeicheldrüse (Pankreas)

Funktion

Exokrin: Produktion von Verdauungssäften

Endokrin: Regulation des Blutzuckers über Insulin und Glucagon

Länge

12–15 cm

Gewicht

Ca. 70 g

Lage

Sekundär retroperitoneal quer im Oberbauch

Arterielle Versorgung

Caput:

- Truncus coeliacus → A. hepatica communis

- A. gastroduodenalis → Aa. pancreaticoduodenales superiores posterior und anterior

- A. mesenterica superior → A. pancreaticoduodenalis inferior

Korpus und Cauda:

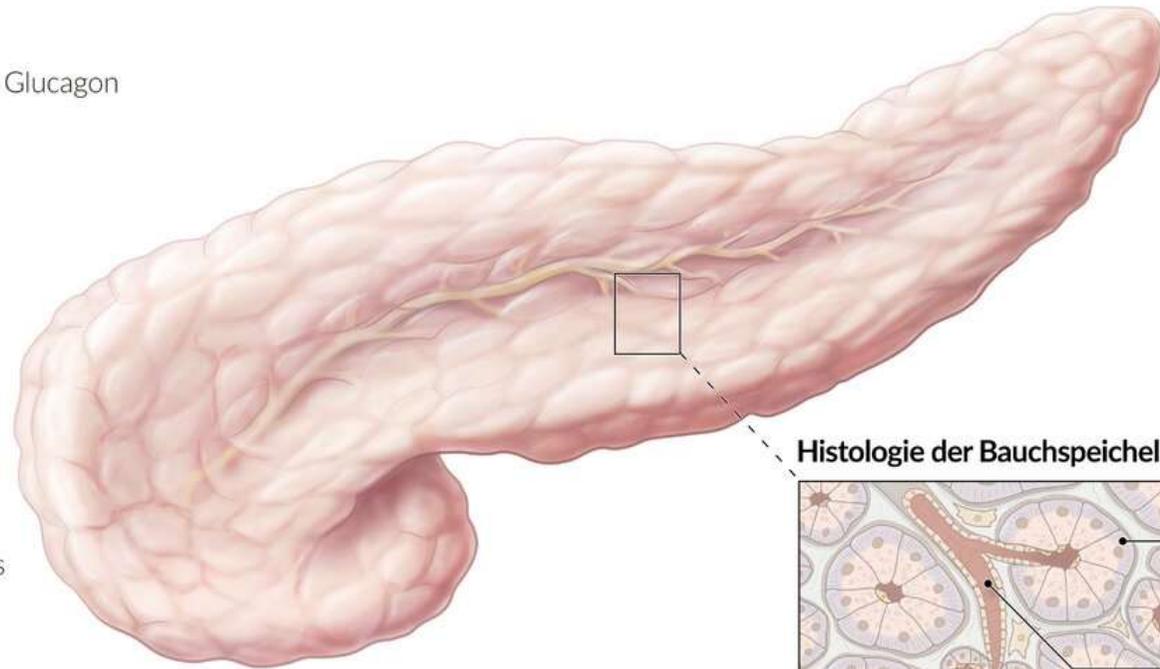
- Truncus coeliacus → A. splenica → A. pancreatica inferior / A. pancreatica dorsalis / A. caudae pancreatis / A. pancreatica magna

Venöser Abfluss

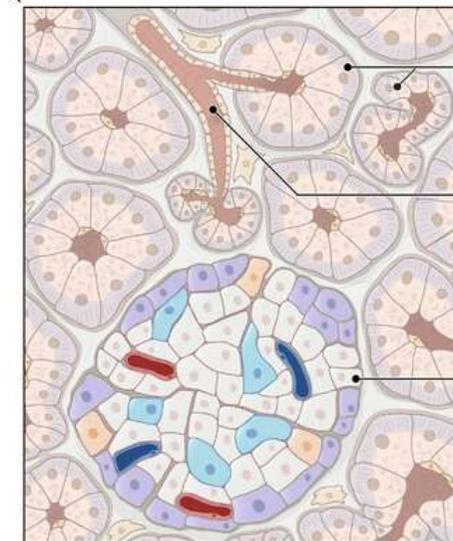
Vv. pancreaticae → V. splenica → V. portae hepatis

Mögliche Krankheitssymptome

Gürtelförmiger Bauchschmerz, Blutzuckerschwankungen, Fettstuhl, Gewichtsabnahme



Histologie der Bauchspeicheldrüse



Exokrine Acini

Schaltstück

Endokrine Langerhans-Insel



Funzioni del pancreas

- Ha un ruolo fondamentale nella digestione degli alimenti (funzione esocrina): **funzione esocrina**
- Controlla il livello di zucchero nel sangue mediante la produzione di ormoni (es. Insulina) **funzione endocrina**



Pancreas e digestione degli alimenti

- Il pancreas produce importanti enzimi digestivi. Produce giornalmente da 1.5 a 3L di secrezione ricca di enzimi. Tale produzione é regolata da cellule specializzate localizzate nella ghiandola pancreatica. Queste producono il succo pancreatico e lo riversano nel dotto principale che si trova al centro della ghiandola e si chiama dotto pancreatico. La bile prodotta dal fegato si unisce alla secrezione pancreatica poco prima di riversarsi nel duodeno attraverso un piccolo orifizio chiamato papilla Vateri



Pancreas e digestione degli alimenti

- Gli enzimi pancreatici rimasti inattivi fino all'entrata in duodeno vengono attivati a questo punto e acquisiscono il loro potere digestivo.

Il cibo che arriva dallo stomaco può essere ora digerito. Il pancreas produce più di 20 tipi diversi di enzimi. Essi digeriscono i cibi digerendo la loro struttura esterna. Vengono attivati solo quando sono in duodeno e per questo non possono digerire il pancreas stesso.



Pancreas e digestione degli alimenti

- tre enzimi più importanti sono:
 - Amilasi: digerisce i carboidrati
 - Tripsina: digerisce le proteine
 - Lipasi: digerisce i grassi



Il pancreas e la digestione degli alimenti

- La degradazione del cibo nei suoi elementi di base è necessaria perché esso possa essere assorbito dall'intestino. In assenza di secrezione pancreatica le proteine, i grassi e gli zuccheri non possono essere digeriti il che può generare diarrea, gonfiore addominale e crampi. Possono associarsi perdita di peso, carenze di vitamine, malfunzionamento di altri organi i quali si indeboliscono non ricevendo nutrimento e risultano carenti nella loro funzione.



Il pancreas e la regolazione degli zuccheri

- In aggiunta agli enzimi digestivi il pancreas produce anche diversi ormoni tra i quali l'insulina. Essa è prodotta da un gruppo speciale di cellule chiamate Isole di Langerhans che sono distribuite in tutto il pancreas. Esse rappresentano 2,5 gr del peso totale del pancreas (80-100 gr).



Il pancreas e la regolazione degli zuccheri

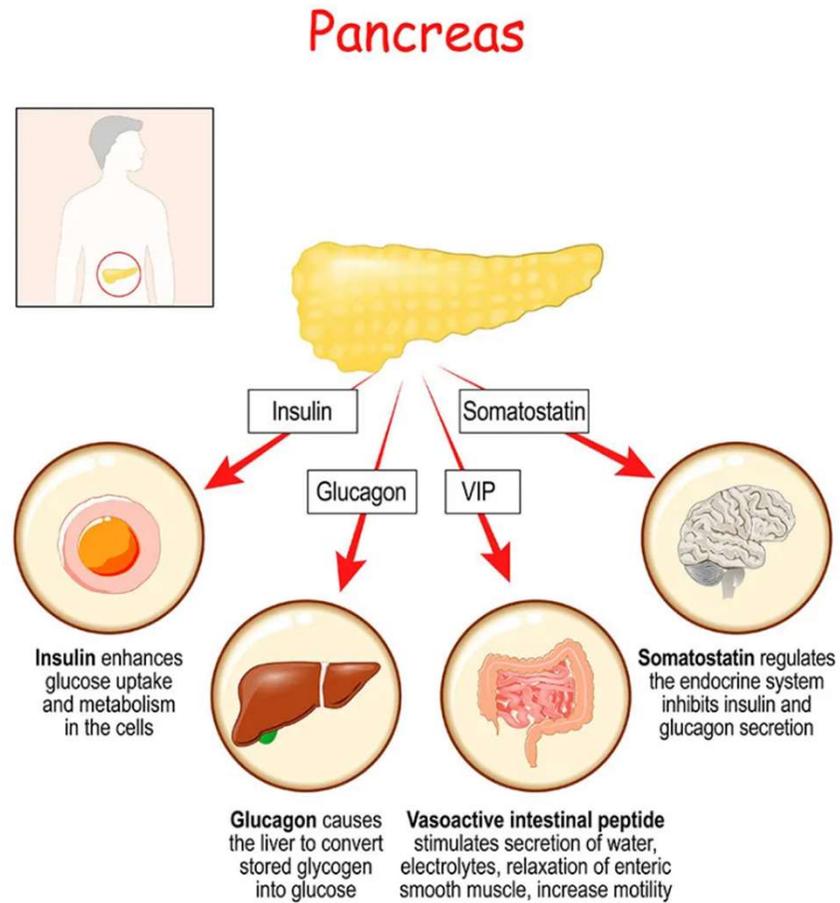
- Ci sono circa 1.5 milioni di queste cellule in tutto il pancreas. L'insulina secretata da queste cellule viene immessa direttamente dal pancreas nel sangue. Essa controlla i livelli di zucchero nel sangue facilitando l'entrata dello stesso nelle cellule e garantendo l'energia necessaria. In assenza di insulina lo zucchero non può entrare nelle cellule e resta nel sangue. Questa condizione è definita diabete e necessita di adeguata terapia.



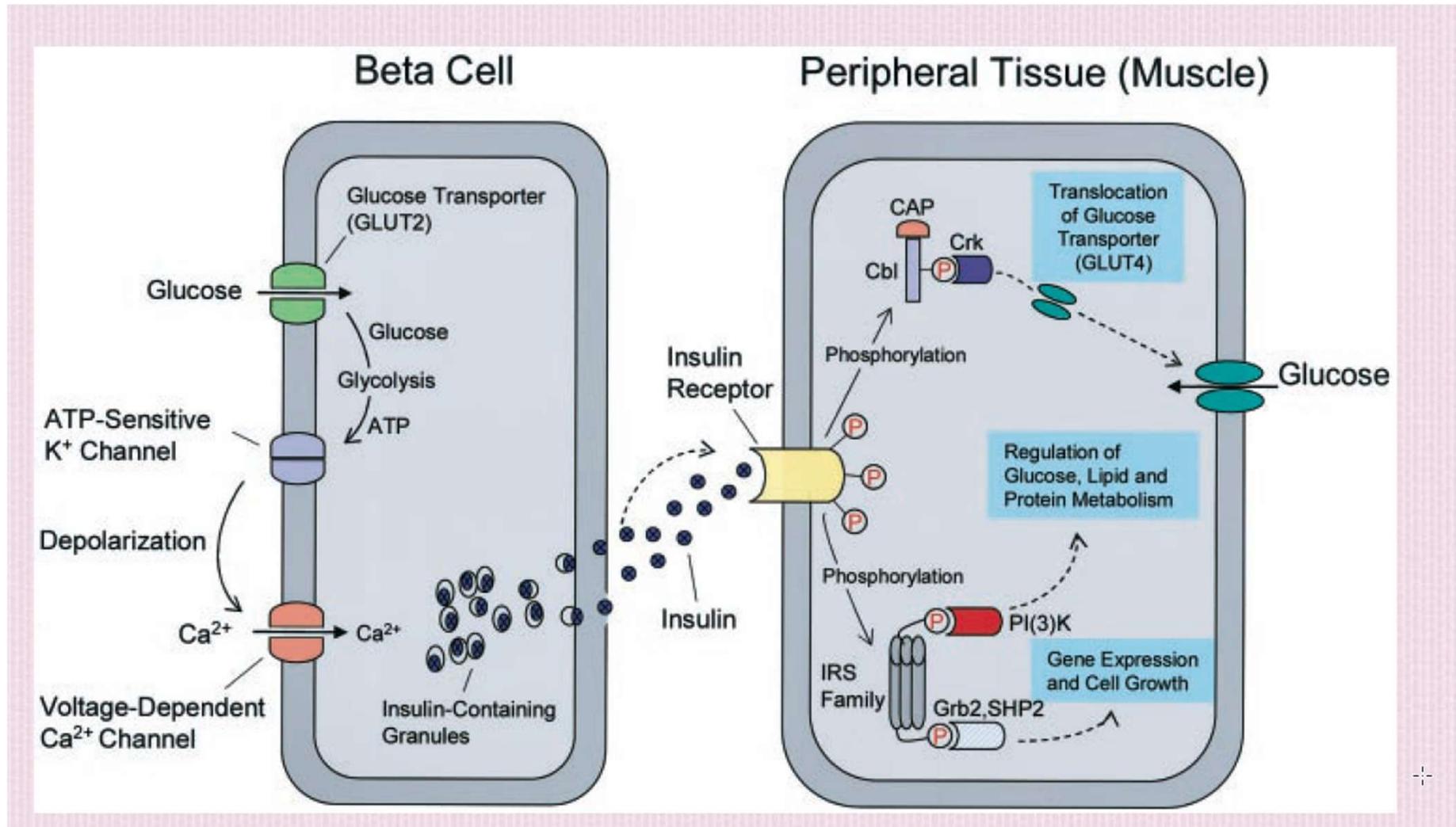
Il pancreas e la regolazione dello zucchero

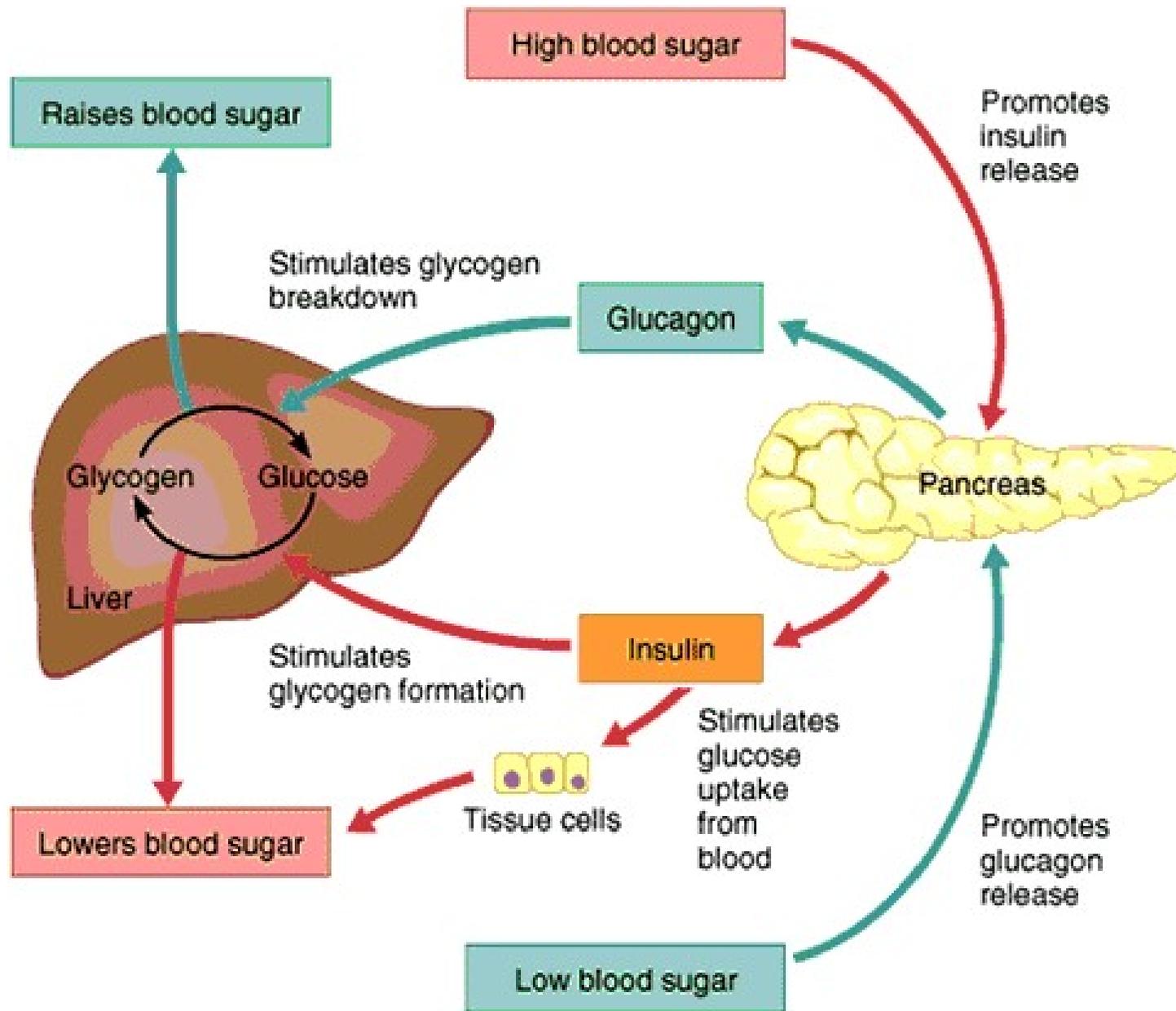
- Altro importante ormone prodotto dal pancreas è il glucagone. E' prodotto dalle stesse isole dove è prodotta l'insulina. Esso ha azione opposta all'insulina e serve ad aumentare i livelli di zucchero nel sangue quando necessario. Se il pancreas viene rimosso del tutto chirurgicamente sia l'insulina che il glucagone non sono più prodotti e ciò va tenuto presente e corretto con la terapia medica di supporto.
- La produzione di insulina ed enzimi pancreatici è un processo che può avvenire separatamente e se viene danneggiato uno non è detto che risulti alterata anche la funzione dell'altro.

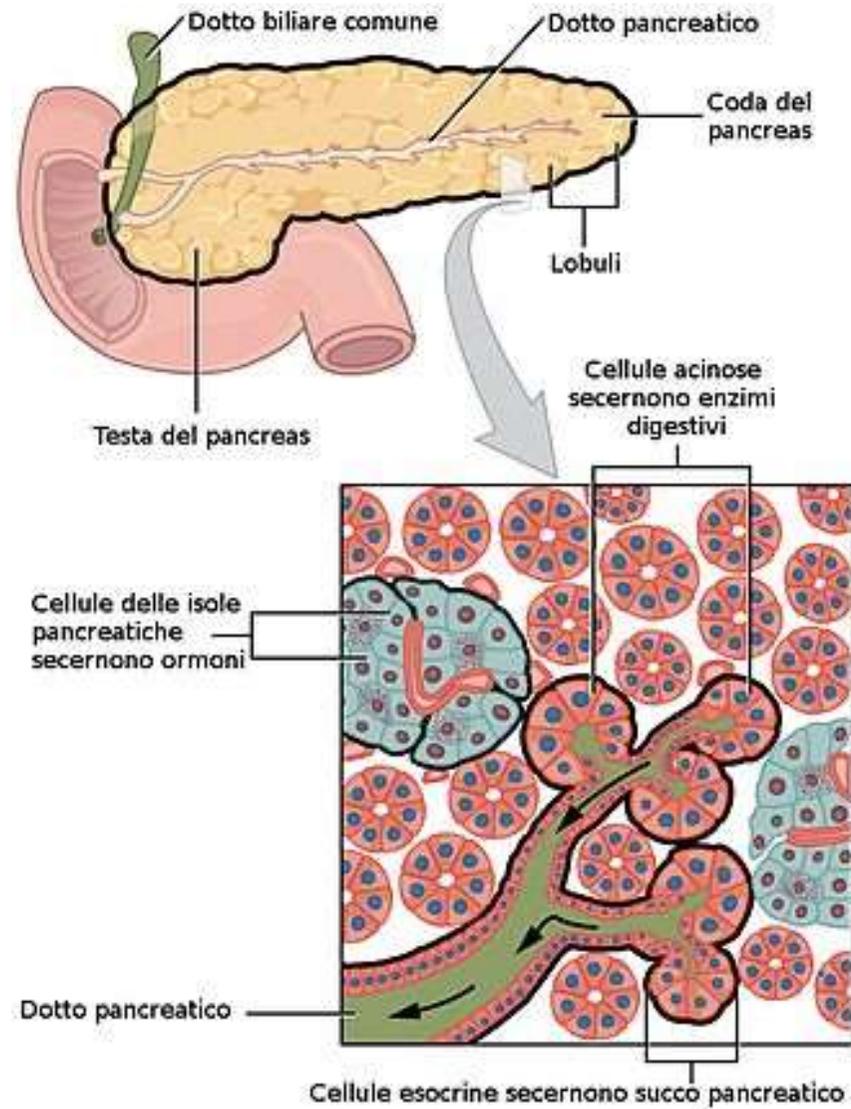
Pancreas endocrino



La Secrezione di insulina e la sua azione







Produzione di insulina

The NEW ENGLAND JOURNAL of MEDICINE

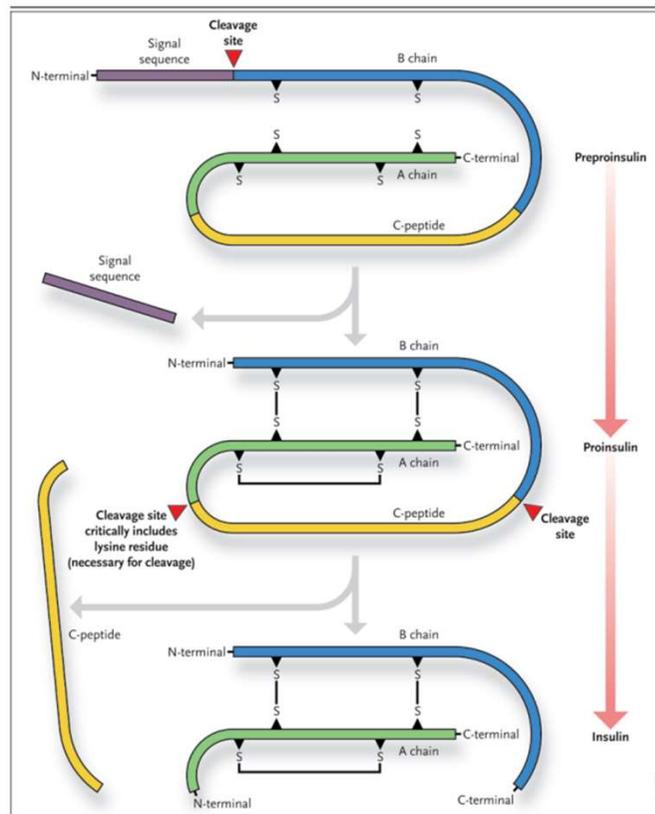
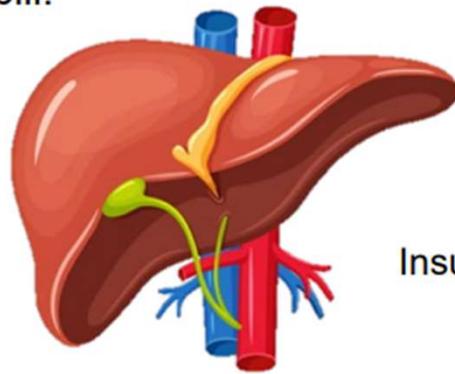


Figure 2. Interfering with Insulin Production.
The production of mature insulin takes place within the beta cell and depends on the cleavage of the preproinsulin and proinsulin molecules. The cleavage site at the junction of the A chain and the C-peptide contains a lysine residue, which is critical for cleavage.



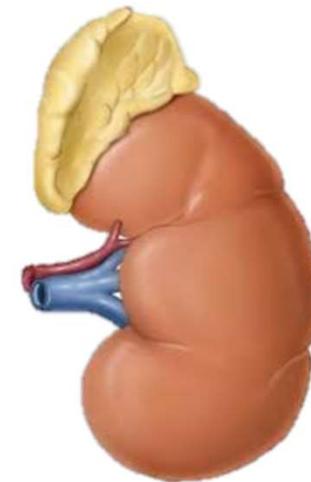
Il **C-peptide** è secreto in quantità equimolari rispetto all'insulina ma ha una concentrazione sierica 5-10 volte maggiore perché ha un'emivita più lunga e non viene estratto dal fegato e ciò consente di ottenere valori più stabili.



Emivita : C-peptide 10-20 min
Insulina 3-5 min

Insulina rimossa per il 50% dal fegato

Il C-peptide viene catabolizzato per via renale e la sua velocità di clearance è costante.





Standards of Care in Diabetes 2023

Standards of Care in Diabetes—2023 Abridged for Primary Care Providers

American Diabetes Association

The American Diabetes Association's (ADA's) Standards of Care in Diabetes is updated and published annually in a supplement to the January issue of *Diabetes Care*. The Standards of Care is developed by the ADA's multidisciplinary Professional Practice Committee, which comprises expert diabetes health care professionals (HCPs). It includes the most current evidence-based recommendations for diagnosing and treating adults and children with all forms of diabetes. ADA's grading system uses **A**, **B**, **C**, or **E** to show the evidence level that supports each recommendation.

- **A**—Clear evidence from well-conducted, generalizable randomized controlled trials that are adequately powered
- **B**—Supportive evidence from well-conducted cohort studies
- **C**—Supportive evidence from poorly controlled or uncontrolled studies
- **E**—Expert consensus or clinical experience

This is an abridged version of the current Standards of Care containing the evidence-based recommendations most pertinent to primary care. The recommendations, tables, and figures included here retain the same numbering used in the complete Standards of Care. All of the recommendations included here are substantively the same as in the complete Standards of Care. The abridged version does not include references. The complete 2023 Standards of Care, including all supporting references, is available at professional.diabetes.org/standards.

Further, social determinants of health (SDOH)—often out of direct control of the individual and potentially representing lifelong risk—contribute to health care and psychosocial outcomes and must be addressed to improve all health outcomes.

Recommendations

- 1.1** Ensure treatment decisions are timely, rely on evidence-based guidelines, include social community support, and are made collaboratively with patients based on individual preferences, prognoses, comorbidities, and informed financial considerations. **B**
- 1.2** Align approaches to diabetes management with the Chronic Care Model. This model emphasizes person-centered team care, integrated long-term treatment approaches to diabetes and comorbidities, and ongoing collaborative communication and goal-setting between all team members. **A**
- 1.3** Care systems should facilitate in-person and virtual team-based care, including those knowledgeable and experienced in diabetes management as part of the team and utilization of patient registries, decision support tools, and community involvement to meet patient needs. **B**

Strategies for System-Level Improvement

Care Teams

Collaborative, multidisciplinary teams are best suited to provide care for people with diabetes and to facilitate



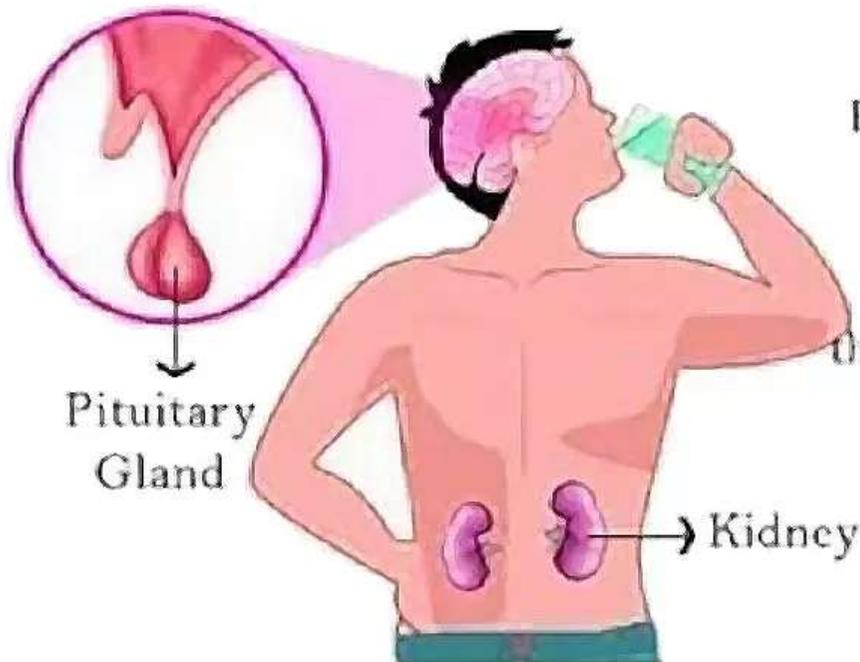
Classificazione e diagnosi del diabete

- Diabete di tipo 1: causata da una malattia autoimmune che porta alla distruzione delle cellule β portando in generale a un deficit assoluto di insulina
- Diabete di tipo 2: causata da una perdita progressiva delle cellule β di produrre insulina
- Tipi specifici di diabete dati da altre cause: diabete monogenico, malattie del pancreas esocrino (es CF e pancreatite), trattamenti contro HIV/AIDS, spesso dopo trapianti
- Diabete Gestazionale (GDM diabete diagnosticato nel secondo o terzo trimestre di gravidanza)
- **Attenzione diabete insipido: malattia metabolica rara provocata da una mancata o insufficiente secrezione o da una ridotta sensibilità dei reni all'azione della vasopressina**



Diabete insipido: non verrà trattato

DIABETES INSIPIDUS



Pituitary gland produces insufficient ADH, hence the kidneys make a lot of urine.

(diabete insipido sensibile alla vasopressina)

I FATTI IN BREVE

Di [John D. Carmichael](#), MD, Keck School of Medicine of the University of Southern California

Revisione completa mar 2021

[Cause](#) | [Sintomi](#) | [Diagnosi](#) | [Trattamento](#)

Il diabete insipido centrale è causato dalla carenza dell'ormone vasopressina (ormone antidiuretico) con conseguente produzione eccessiva di urina molto diluita (poliuria).

- Il diabete centrale insipido ha diverse cause, fra cui tumore cerebrale, lesione encefalica, intervento chirurgico al cervello, tubercolosi e alcune forme di altre malattie.
- I sintomi principali sono la sete continua e la produzione eccessiva di urine.
- La diagnosi si basa sull'esame delle urine, esami del sangue e il test di deprivazione idrica.
- Ai soggetti con diabete insipido centrale vengono di solito somministrati i farmaci vasopressina o desmopressina.

(Vedere anche [Panoramica sull'ipofisi](#))

La vasopressina è un ormone prodotto dall'ipotalamo (la parte del cervello immediatamente sopra l'ipofisi) che viene immagazzinato nel lobo posteriore dell'[ipofisi](#) e da lì rilasciato in circolo. La vasopressina contribuisce a [regolare la quantità di acqua nel corpo](#), inducendo i reni a diminuire la quantità di urina prodotta. Poiché un diuretico è una sostanza che [aumenta](#) la produzione di urina, la vasopressina in passato era nota con il nome di ormone *antidiuretico*.



TABELLA

Chiudi

Caratteristiche generali del diabete mellito di tipo 1 e 2



Caratteristica	Tipo 1	Tipo 2
Età d'esordio	Più frequentemente < 30 anni	Più frequentemente > 30 anni
Obesità associata	Non frequente	Molto comune
Propensione alla chetoacidosi con necessità di trattamento con insulina per il suo controllo	Sì	No
Livelli plasmatici di insulina endogena	Da estremamente bassi a irrilevabili	Variabile; possono essere bassi, normali o elevati a seconda del grado di resistenza all'insulina e del difetto di secrezione dell'insulina stessa
Concordanza tra gemelli	≤ 50%	> 90%
Associato a specifici antigeni HLA-D	Sì	No
Auto-Ac pancreatici alla diagnosi	Sì, ma può essere assente	No
Patologia insulare	Insulite, perdita selettiva della maggior parte delle cellule beta	Insule più piccole, apparentemente normali; deposizione di sostanza amiloide (amilina) evento frequente
Predisposizione a sviluppare complicanze diabetiche (retinopatia, nefropatia, neuropatia, patologia cardiovascolare aterosclerotica)	Sì	Sì
L'iperglicemia risponde a farmaci anti-iperglicemici non-insulinici	No	Sì, inizialmente nella maggior parte dei pazienti



Type 1 diabetes (beta cell destruction, usually leading to absolute insulin deficiency)
A. Immune-mediated
B. Idiopathic
Type 2 diabetes (may range from predominantly insulin resistance with relative insulin deficiency to a predominantly secretory defect with insulin resistance)
Other specific types
A. Genetic defects of beta cell function
1. Chromosome 12, HNF-1-alpha (MODY3)
2. Chromosome 7, glucokinase (MODY2)
3. Chromosome 20, HNF-4-alpha (MODY1)
4. Chromosome 13, insulin promoter factor-1 (IPF-1; MODY4)
5. Chromosome 17, HNF-1-beta (MODY5)
6. Chromosome 2, NeuroD1 (MODY6)
7. Mitochondrial DNA
8. Others
B. Genetic defects in insulin action
1. Type A insulin resistance
2. Leprechaunism
3. Rabson-Mendenhall syndrome
4. Lipotrophic diabetes
5. Others

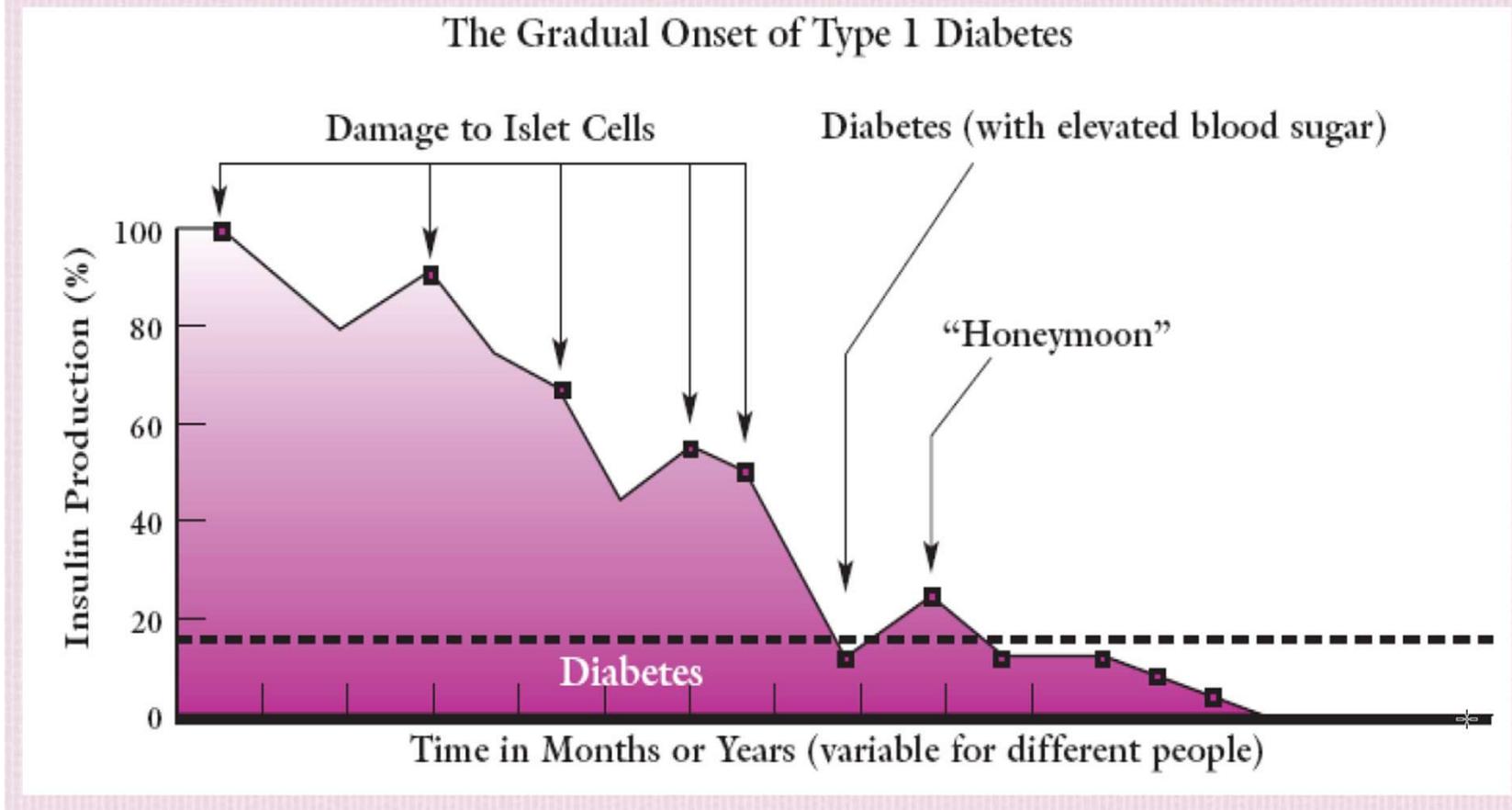
Other specific types
7. Aldosteronoma
8. Others
E. Drug or chemical induced
1. Vacor
2. Pentamidine
3. Nicotinic acid
4. Glucocorticoids
5. Thyroid hormone
6. Diazoxide
7. Beta-adrenergic agonists
8. Thiazides
9. Atypical antipsychotics
10. Dilantin
11. Alpha interferon
12. Others
F. Infections
1. Congenital rubella
2. Cytomegalovirus
3. Others

Other specific types
4. Lipotrophic diabetes
5. Others
C. Diseases of the exocrine pancreas
1. Pancreatitis
2. Trauma/pancreatectomy
3. Neoplasia
4. Cystic fibrosis
5. Hemochromatosis
6. Fibrocalculous pancreatopathy
7. Others
D. Endocrinopathies
1. Acromegaly
2. Cushing's syndrome
3. Glucagonoma
4. Pheochromocytoma
5. Hyperthyroidism
6. Somatostatinoma
7. Aldosteronoma
8. Others

Other specific types
2. Cytomegalovirus
3. Others
G. Uncommon forms of immune-mediated diabetes
1. "Stiff man" syndrome
2. Anti-insulin receptor antibodies
3. Others
H. Other genetic syndromes sometimes associated with diabetes
1. Down syndrome
2. Klinefelter syndrome
3. Turner syndrome
4. Wolfram syndrome
5. Friederich's ataxia
6. Huntington's chorea
7. Laurence-Moon-Biedl syndrome
8. Myotonic dystrophy
9. Porphyria
10. Prader-Willi syndrome
11. Others



Il processo autoimmune rimane subclinico: i sintomi si presentano quando più del 80% delle cellule è stato distrutto.





Autoimmune Markers in Diabetes

William E. Winter^{1,2*} and Desmond A. Schatz²

BACKGROUND: Type 1 diabetes (T1DM) results from cell-mediated autoimmune destruction of the β cells of the islets of Langerhans. Autoantibodies directed against the islets are useful clinical tools that allow the recognition and confirmation of β -cell autoimmunity.

CONTENT: In this review we define the term “islet autoantibody,” describe the pathogenesis of autoantibody generation, and explain the uses of islet autoantibodies in clinical medicine and in research studies that concern the interruption or prevention of T1DM. We also discuss the biology of islet autoantibodies and their rates of appearance at the time of onset of T1DM and their appearance before the development of T1DM.

SUMMARY: The presence of islet autoantibodies in persons with diabetes confirms an autoimmune etiology. In nondiabetic individuals, islet autoantibodies are strong predictors of the later development of T1DM.

© 2010 American Association for Clinical Chemistry

“Islet autoantibody” is a generic term for any one of a group of autoantibodies that are directed against the islets of Langerhans or, in some circumstances, are directed specifically against autoantigens of the insulin-secreting β cells. β -Cell death that causes type 1A diabetes (T1DM)³ seems to result from a cell-mediated autoimmune process (1) initiated by yet-to-be-discovered environmental triggers (2) occurring in individuals with a genetic predisposition to the disease (3).

If destruction of the β cells by CD8 T-killer cells and macrophages is the “fire,” the “smoke” (e.g., clinical evidence of β -cell autoreactivity) represents islet autoantibodies (4). Islet autoantibodies are commonly present at the onset of T1DM and persist for varying durations after onset. Most importantly, islet autoantibodies precede the onset of T1DM by months to many years (5). From the German BABY-DIAB study (6) and the Diabetes Autoimmunity Study in the Young (DAISY) study, islet autoantibodies can first appear very early in life and are predictive of the later onset of T1DM. Other similar studies are in progress [e.g., TEDDY (The Environmental Determinants of Diabetes in the Young) (7)].

Islet autoantibodies are considered unlikely to be the cause of T1DM. However, islet autoantibodies provide proof that in islet autoantibody-positive individuals certain islet antigens are recognized as foreign, resulting in a humoral immune response.

What Causes Islet Autoantibodies to Appear in the Sera of People with T1DM or before Their Development of T1DM?

Autoantibodies form because of a breakdown in tolerance (8, 9). For autoantibodies to appear, the autoantigen must become available (i.e., accessible) to the immune system so that an immunization event can occur. Immunization that results in an IgG autoantibody response requires switching of B-lymphocyte class, and therefore CD4 T cells must be involved in addition to naive mature B cells. After the naive mature B lymphocyte contacts the immunogen through surface IgM and/or IgD [with or without the B-lymphocyte CD21 (CR2), CD19, CD81 coreceptor interaction], help must be supplied by T-helper 1 or 2 cells to class switch to IgG (affinity maturation takes place as well). Other

Marcatori autoimmuni nel diabete

channel, subfamily J, member 11 (*KCNJ11*)⁴ or SUR1 [encoded by ATP-binding cassette, sub-family C (CFTR/MRP), member 8 (*ABCC8*)] have been shown to cause neonatal diabetes (11). Recently, the appearance of islet autoantibodies has been described in older children who many years earlier had developed neonatal diabetes from *KCNJ11* gene mutations (12). In this situation, there was no a priori autoimmunity to islet cells (i.e., the β -cell defects were inherited); however, if the β cells were to die, β -cell death might have then led to subsequent islet autoantigen immunization. These observations provide evidence to support the sequestered-antigen theory of autoimmunity in T1DM as an explanation for the appearance of islet autoantibodies. Nonetheless, islet autoantibodies have not been detected in any other destructive form of diabetes such as cystic fibrosis- or hemochromatosis-induced diabetes.

An alternative hypothesis (among many possible alternatives) to explain autoimmunity is that molecular mimicry occurs between an environmental agent, such as a viral or bacterial pathogen or other environmental molecule or chemical, and a primary β -cell antigen (13). If the immune system is not tolerant to the self antigen, because the self antigen is normally sequestered, the immunizing event resulting from the infection or some other environmental exposure leads to cross-reactive immunity to the self antigen with the appearance of islet autoantibodies (assuming that the immunoassay system is using an islet autoantigen as its target). If antibodies were sought against the molecule causing the mimicry, and not the cross-reactive autoantigen, the resulting antibodies would not be considered autoantibodies.

What Islet Autoantibody Determinations Are Available for Clinical and Research Use?

The list of islet autoantibodies and autoantigens to which islet autoantibodies have been detected is expansive (Table 1) (14–34). With the exclusion of islet-cell cytoplasmic autoantibodies (ICA), glutamic acid decarboxylase (GAD) autoantibodies (GADA), insulinoma 2 (IA-2)-associated autoantibodies (IA-2A), insulin autoantibodies (IAA), and zinc transporter 8 protein (ZnT8) islet autoantibody (ZnT8A), the other autoantibodies are difficult to measure and/or are not sufficiently sensitive or specific to warrant their use in present day studies of T1DM or its pathogenesis.

Table 1. Selected autoantibodies in T1DM.	
Insulin, insulin processing and insulin storage	
Carboxypeptidase H autoantibodies [Yang et al. (14)]	
IAA [Palmer et al. (15)]	
Proinsulin autoantibodies [Kuglin et al. (16)]	
ZnT8A [Wenzlau et al. (17)]	
Protein tyrosine phosphatases	
IA-2A [Verge et al. (18)]	
IA-2 β autoantibodies (IA-2BA) [Kawasaki et al. (19)]	
Enzymes	
Carbonic anhydrase II [Taniguchi et al. (20)]	
Chymotrypsinogen-related 30-kDa pancreatic autoantibody [Kim et al. (21)]	
DNA topoisomerase II autoantibodies [Chang et al. (22)]	
GADA [Baekkeskov et al. (23)]	
51-kDa aromatic-L-amino-acid decarboxylase autoantibodies [Rorsman et al. (24)]	
Miscellaneous	
Aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase autoantibodies [Park et al. (25)]	
Glima 38 autoantibodies [Aanstoot et al. (26)]	
GLUT2 autoantibodies [Johnson et al. (27)]	
Glycolipid autoantibodies [Cabrera-Rode et al. (28)]	
GM2-1 islet ganglioside autoantibodies [Dotta et al. (29)]	
Heat shock protein autoantibodies [Jones et al. (30)]	
Islet cell surface autoantibodies (ICSA) [Maclaren et al. (31)]	
ICA [Bottazzo et al. (32)]	
Islet cell-specific 38-kDa autoantibodies [Pak et al. (33)]	
52-kDa RIN (rat insulinoma) autoantibodies [Karounos and Thomas (34)]	

Most major T1DM autoantigens, with the exception of insulin, are not unique to the β cell. Because of the early appearance of IAA in the pathogenesis of human and nonobese diabetic (NOD) mouse T1DM, insulin has been proposed as a primary autoantigenic target (e.g., loss of tolerance to insulin or failure to develop tolerance to insulin is the trigger to β -cell autoimmunity and eventual β -cell destruction) (35). The seminal findings of Pugliese and colleagues showed that variable-number tandem-repeat polymorphisms of the insulin gene, while not affecting the insulin molecule amino acid sequence, do affect the degree of insulin's expression in the thymus (36). Insufficient thymic expression of insulin theoretically allows insulin-autoreactive clones of CD4 T cells and CD8 T cells to

Table 2. Sensitivity and specificity of the 4 major islet autoantibodies for the diagnosis of T1DM (47, 48).

	Sensitivity ^a	Specificity
ICA	70%–80%	>99%
GADA	70%–80%	97%–98%
IA-2A	60%	97%–98%
IAA	60% ^b	95%

^a Frequency in new-onset T1DM patients.
^b This value is for children; IAA are uncommon in adults.



Criteria per screening e diagnosi del prediabete e diabete

6

TABLE 2.2/2.5 Criteria for the Screening and Diagnosis of Prediabetes and Diabetes

	Prediabetes	Diabetes
A1C	5.7-6.4% (39-47 mmol/mol)*	≥6.5% (48 mmol/mol)†
FPG	100-125 mg/dL (5.6-6.9 mmol/L)*	≥126 mg/dL (7.0 mmol/L)†
2-hour plasma glucose during 75-g OGTT	140-199 mg/dL (7.8-11.0 mmol/L)*	≥200 mg/dL (11.1 mmol/L)†
Random plasma glucose	—	≥200 mg/dL (11.1 mmol/L)‡

Adapted from Tables 2.2 and 2.5 in the complete 2023 Standards of Care. *For all three tests, risk is continuous, extending below the lower limit of the range and becoming disproportionately greater at the higher end of the range. †In the absence of unequivocal hyperglycemia, diagnosis requires two abnormal test results from the same sample or in two separate samples. ‡Only diagnostic in a patient with classic symptoms of hyperglycemia or hyperglycemic crisis.



Criteria di screening per diabete in pazienti adulti asintomatici

TABLE 2.3 Criteria for Screening for Diabetes or Prediabetes in Asymptomatic Adults

1. Testing should be considered in adults with overweight or obesity ($\text{BMI} \geq 25 \text{ kg/m}^2$ or $\geq 23 \text{ kg/m}^2$ in Asian American individuals) who have one or more of the following risk factors:
 - First-degree relative with diabetes
 - High-risk race/ethnicity (e.g., African American, Latino, Native American, Asian American, Pacific Islander)
 - History of CVD
 - Hypertension ($\geq 130/80$ mmHg or on therapy for hypertension)
 - HDL cholesterol level < 35 mg/dL (0.90 mmol/L) and/or a triglyceride level > 250 mg/dL (2.82 mmol/L)
 - Individuals with polycystic ovary syndrome
 - Physical inactivity
 - Other clinical conditions associated with insulin resistance (e.g., severe obesity, acanthosis nigricans)
2. People with prediabetes ($\text{A1C} \geq 5.7\%$ [39 mmol/mol], IGT, or IFG) should be tested yearly.
3. People who were diagnosed with GDM should have lifelong testing at least every 3 years.
4. For all other people, testing should begin at age 35 years.
5. If results are normal, testing should be repeated at a minimum of 3-year intervals, with consideration of more frequent testing depending on initial results and risk status.
6. People with HIV.

IFG, impaired fasting glucose; IGT, impaired glucose tolerance.



Screening in adolescenti e bambini

Table 2.4—Risk-based screening for type 2 diabetes or prediabetes in asymptomatic children and adolescents in a clinical setting

Screening should be considered in youth* who have overweight (≥ 85 th percentile) or obesity (≥ 95 th percentile) **A** and who have one or more additional risk factors based on the strength of their association with diabetes:

- Maternal history of diabetes or GDM during the child's gestation **A**
- Family history of type 2 diabetes in first- or second-degree relative **A**
- Race/ethnicity (Native American, African American, Latino, Asian American, Pacific Islander) **A**
- Signs of insulin resistance or conditions associated with insulin resistance (acanthosis nigricans, hypertension, dyslipidemia, polycystic ovary syndrome, or small-for-gestational-age birth weight) **B**

GDM, gestational diabetes mellitus. *After the onset of puberty or after 10 years of age, whichever occurs earlier. If tests are normal, repeat testing at a minimum of 3-year intervals (or more frequently if BMI is increasing or risk factor profile deteriorating) is recommended. Reports of type 2 diabetes before age 10 years exist, and this can be considered with numerous risk factors.



Are you at risk for type 2 diabetes?

Diabetes Risk Test:

WRITE YOUR SCORE IN THE BOX.

- How old are you?
 - Less than 40 years (0 points)
 - 40–49 years (1 point)
 - 50–59 years (2 points)
 - 60 years or older (3 points)
- Are you a man or a woman?
 - Man (1 point) Woman (0 points)
- If you are a woman, have you ever been diagnosed with gestational diabetes?
 - Yes (1 point) No (0 points)
- Do you have a mother, father, sister or brother with diabetes?
 - Yes (1 point) No (0 points)
- Have you ever been diagnosed with high blood pressure?
 - Yes (1 point) No (0 points)
- Are you physically active?
 - Yes (0 points) No (1 point)
- What is your weight category?

See chart at right.

Height	Weight (lbs.)		
4' 10"	119–142	143–190	191+
4' 11"	124–147	148–197	198+
5' 0"	128–152	153–203	204+
5' 1"	132–157	158–210	211+
5' 2"	136–163	164–217	218+
5' 3"	141–168	169–224	225+
5' 4"	145–173	174–231	232+
5' 5"	150–179	180–239	240+
5' 6"	155–185	186–246	247+
5' 7"	159–190	191–254	255+
5' 8"	164–196	197–261	262+
5' 9"	169–202	203–269	270+
5' 10"	174–208	209–277	278+
5' 11"	179–214	215–285	286+
6' 0"	184–220	221–293	294+
6' 1"	189–226	227–301	302+
6' 2"	194–232	233–310	311+
6' 3"	200–239	240–318	319+
6' 4"	205–245	246–327	328+
	1 point	2 points	3 points

If you weigh less than the amount in the left column: 0 points

Adapted from Bang et al., Ann Intern Med 151:775–783, 2009 • Original algorithm was validated without gestational diabetes as part of the model.

ADD UP YOUR SCORE.

If you scored 5 or higher:

You are at increased risk for having type 2 diabetes. However, only your doctor can tell for sure if you do have type 2 diabetes or prediabetes, a condition in which blood glucose levels are higher than normal but not yet high enough to be diagnosed as diabetes. Talk to your doctor to see if additional testing is needed.

Type 2 diabetes is more common in African Americans, Hispanics/Latinos, Native Americans, Asian Americans, and Native Hawaiians and Pacific Islanders.

Higher body weight increases diabetes risk for everyone. Asian Americans are at increased diabetes risk at lower body weight than the rest of the general public (about 15 pounds lower).

Lower Your Risk

The good news is you can manage your risk for type 2 diabetes. Small steps make a big difference in helping you live a longer, healthier life.

If you are at high risk, your first step is to visit your doctor to see if additional testing is needed.

Visit diabetes.org or call 1-800-DIABETES (800-342-2383) for information, tips on getting started, and ideas for simple, small steps you can take to help lower your risk.

Learn more at diabetes.org/risktest | 1-800-DIABETES (800-342-2383)

Downloaded from <http://diabetesjournals.org/advance-article-abstract-pdf/doi/10.2337/1311969898d233002.pdf> by guest on 24 April 2013

Diabetes Risk Test | American Diabetes Association®

Figure 2.1—ADA risk test (diabetes.org/socrisktest).

Complicazioni del diabete

- Nei pazienti con diabete mellito, anni di iperglicemia scarsamente controllata determinano molteplici complicanze, principalmente vascolari, che colpiscono i piccoli vasi (microvascolari), i grandi vasi (macrovascolari) o entrambi.
- I meccanismi con cui si sviluppa una malattia vascolare comprendono
 - Glicosilazione delle proteine del siero e dei tessuti con formazione di prodotti finali di glicazione avanzata
 - Produzione di superossido
 - L'attivazione della protein-chinasi C, una molecola di segnale che aumenta la permeabilità vascolare e causa disfunzione endoteliale
 - Le vie di biosintesi accelerate delle esosammine e dei polialcoli portano all'accumulo di sorbitolo nei tessuti
 - Ipertensione e dislipidemie che comunemente accompagnano il diabete mellito
 - Microtrombosi arteriose
 - Effetti proinfiammatori e protrombotici di iperglicemia e iperinsulinemia che compromettono l'autoregolazione vascolare
 - La microangiopatia sottende 3 gravi e frequenti complicanze del diabete mellito:
 - Retinopatia
 - Nefropatia
 - Neuropatia
 - La microangiopatia può compromettere anche la cicatrizzazione cutanea, così che anche piccole lesioni della cute possano progredire in ulcere profonde e infettarsi facilmente in particolar modo a livello degli arti inferiori. Il controllo intensivo della glicemia può prevenire o ritardare molte di queste complicanze, ma non può far sì che il processo si inverta una volta instaurato.



Retinopatia diabetica (da manuale msd professionisti)

Retinopatia diabetica

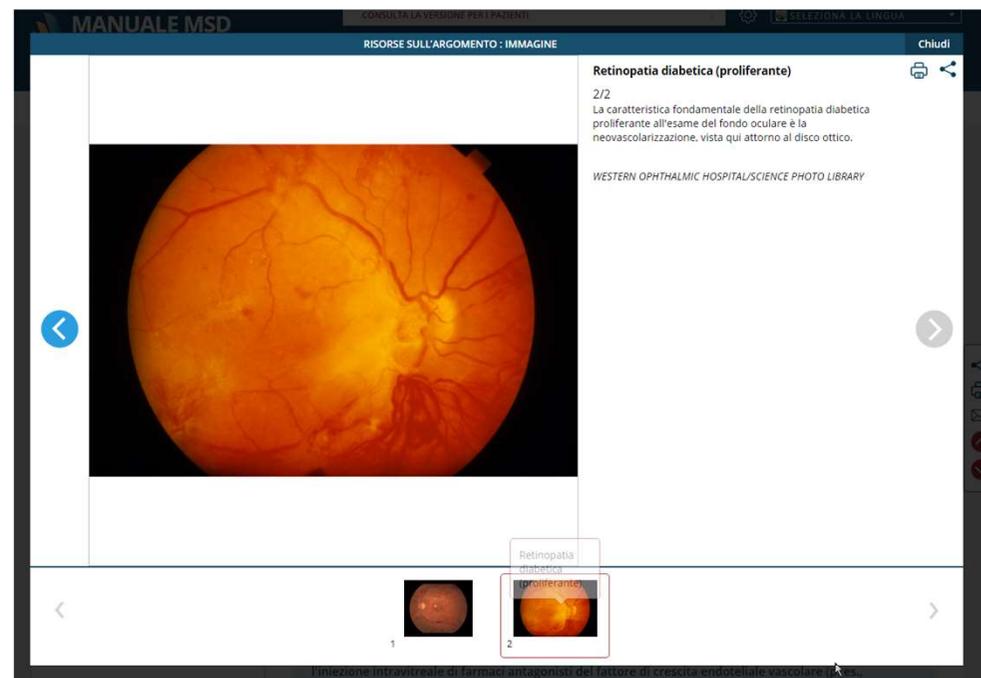
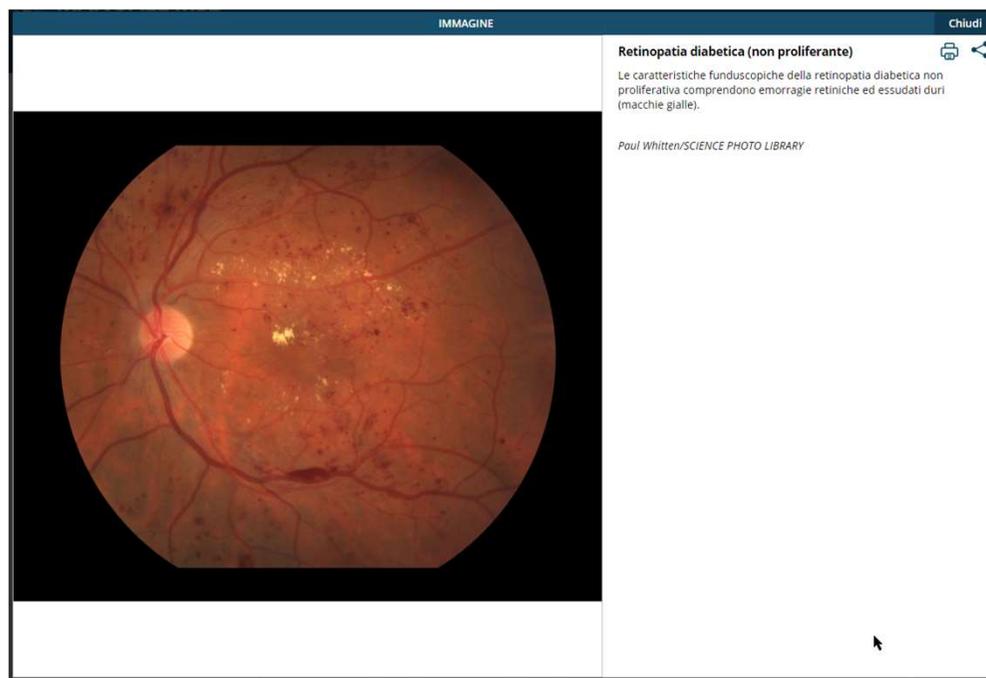
La **retinopatia diabetica** è una causa diffusa di cecità degli adulti negli Stati Uniti. Essa è caratterizzata inizialmente da microaneurismi dei capillari retinici (retinopatia di fondo) e successivamente da neovascolarizzazione (retinopatia proliferativa) e edema maculare. Non vi sono sintomi o segni precoci ma, infine, si possono sviluppare una visione sfocata, il distacco del vitreo o della retina e una cecità parziale o totale; la velocità di progressione del danno è molto variabile.

Lo screening e la diagnosi si basano su un esame della retina eseguito da un oftalmologo, che deve essere fatto regolarmente (di solito ogni anno) sia nel diabete mellito di tipo 1 che di tipo 2. Una diagnosi e un trattamento precoci sono fondamentali per prevenire la cecità. Il trattamento per tutti i pazienti include il controllo intensivo glicemico e della pressione arteriosa. La fotocoagulazione panretinica laser è utilizzata per la retinopatia diabetica proliferante e talvolta per la retinopatia diabetica non proliferante grave. Gli inibitori del fattore di crescita vascolare endoteliale (Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor [VEGF]) come l'aflibercept, il bevacizumab e il ranibizumab sono utilizzati per l'edema maculare e possono essere utilizzati anche per la retinopatia proliferativa, ma questo trattamento richiede frequenti visite regolari.



Nefropatia diabetica

Retinopatia diabetica (da manuale msd professionisti)





Nefropatia diabetica (da manuale msd professionisti)

Nefropatia diabetica

La [nefropatia diabetica](#) è una delle principali cause della [malattia renale cronica](#) negli Stati Uniti. È caratterizzata da un ispessimento della membrana basale glomerulare, dall'espansione del mesangio e dalla sclerosi glomerulare. Queste modificazioni causano ipertensione glomerulare e progressiva diminuzione della velocità di filtrazione glomerulare. L'[ipertensione](#) sistemica può accelerarne la progressione. La malattia è di solito asintomatica fin quando non si sviluppa la [sindrome nefrotica](#) o l'insufficienza renale.

La diagnosi si ottiene mediante il riscontro di albumina nelle urine. Una volta che il diabete viene diagnosticato (e successivamente ogni anno), il livello di albumina urinario deve essere monitorato in modo da diagnosticare precocemente la nefropatia. Il monitoraggio può essere eseguito tramite la misurazione del rapporto albumina:creatinina su un campione estemporaneo di urina o di albuminuria totale su una raccolta di urine delle 24 h. Un rapporto > 30 mg/g ($> 3,4$ mg/mmol), oppure un'escrezione d'albumina tra **30 e 300 mg/die**, indica la presenza di albuminuria moderatamente aumentata (precedentemente chiamata microalbuminuria) e di una nefropatia diabetica precoce. Un'eliminazione di albumina > 300 mg/die è considerata un'albuminuria gravemente aumentata (precedentemente chiamata macroalbuminuria), o proteinuria conclamata, e implica una nefropatia diabetica più avanzata. Tipicamente l'esame delle urine è positivo solo se l'escrezione proteica supera i 300-500 mg/die.

Il trattamento è rappresentato dal rigoroso controllo glicemico associato al controllo della pressione arteriosa. Un ACE-inibitore o un inibitore dei recettori dell'angiotensina II devono essere impiegati al primo segno di albuminuria (rapporto albumina-creatinina ≥ 30 mg/g), per arrestare il progredire della malattia renale, poiché questi farmaci abbassano la pressione arteriosa intraglomerulare e, pertanto, hanno un effetto nefroprotettivo. Tuttavia, questi farmaci non hanno dimostrato di essere utili nella prevenzione primaria (ossia, in pazienti che non hanno albuminuria). Gli inibitori del Sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 (SGLT-2) ritardano anche la progressione della malattia renale in pazienti selezionati con nefropatia diabetica (tasso di filtrazione glomerulare stimato [eGRF] < 25 -30 mL/minuto e rapporto albumina/creatinina urinaria > 300 mg/g). Il fineronone, un antagonista non steroideo del recettore dei mineralcorticoidi, ha dimostrato di ridurre il rischio di progressione della malattia renale diabetica e degli eventi cardiovascolari.



CURRENT CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE (CKD) NOMENCLATURE USED BY KDIGO

CKD is defined as abnormalities of kidney structure or function, present for > 3 months, with implications for health and CKD is classified based on cause, GFR category, and albuminuria category (CGA).

Prognosis of CKD by GFR and albuminuria category

Prognosis of CKD by GFR and Albuminuria Categories: KDIGO 2012				Persistent albuminuria categories Description and range		
				A1	A2	A3
				Normal to mildly increased	Moderately increased	Severely increased
				<30 mg/g <3 mg/mmol	30-300 mg/g 3-30 mg/mmol	>300 mg/g >30 mg/mmol
GFR categories (ml/min/1.73 m ²) Description and range	G1	Normal or high	≥90			
	G2	Mildly decreased	60-89			
	G3a	Mildly to moderately decreased	45-59			
	G3b	Moderately to severely decreased	30-44			
	G4	Severely decreased	15-29			
	G5	Kidney failure	<15			

Green: low risk (if no other markers of kidney disease, no CKD); Yellow: moderately increased risk;
Orange: high risk; Red, very high risk.



Neuropatia diabetica (da manuale msd professionisti)

Neuropatia diabetica

La neuropatia diabetica è il risultato dell'ischemia dei nervi periferici causata dalla microangiopatia, dall'effetto diretto dell'iperglicemia sui neuroni e dalle modificazioni metaboliche intracellulari che compromettono la funzionalità dei nervi. Ne esistono diversi tipi, tra cui

- [Polineuropatia](#) simmetrica (con le varianti di piccole e grandi fibre)
- [Neuropatia autonoma](#)
- [Radicolopatia](#)
- Neuropatia dei nervi cranici
- [Mononeuropatia](#)



Neuropatia Diabetica Definizione

Polineuropatia

La **polineuropatia simmetrica** è la più diffusa e colpisce la parte distale di piedi e mani (distribuzione a calza e a guanto); si manifesta con parestesie, disestesie (sensazione anomala, sgradevole) o con una perdita indolore della sensibilità tattile, vibratoria, propriocettiva o termica. Nella parte più distale degli arti inferiori, tali sintomi possono condurre a una ridotta percezione dei traumi del piede derivanti da scarpe strette o da un'errata distribuzione del peso corporeo; ciò può causare ulcerazioni e infezioni del piede o fratture, sublussazioni e dislocazioni o distruzione della normale architettura del piede (artropatia di Charcot). La neuropatia delle piccole fibre è caratterizzata da dolore, parestesie, perdita della sensibilità termica, con conservata sensibilità vibratoria e propriocettiva. I pazienti sono predisposti allo sviluppo di ulcerazioni del piede e di degenerazione articolare neuropatica e hanno un'elevata incidenza di neuropatia autonoma. La neuropatia con prevalente interessamento delle grandi fibre è caratterizzata da debolezza muscolare, perdita della sensibilità vibratoria e propriocettiva e da perdita dei riflessi tendinei profondi. Possono verificarsi atrofia dei muscoli del piede e piede cadente

Neuropatia autonoma

La **neuropatia autonoma** può causare ipotensione ortostatica, intolleranza all'esercizio, tachicardia a riposo, disfagia, nausea e vomito (dovute alla gastroparesi), stipsi e/o diarrea, incontinenza fecale, ritenzione e/o incontinenza urinaria, disfunzione erettile e eiaculazione retrograda, e diminuita lubrificazione vaginale.

Radicolopatia

Le **radiculopatie** interessano il più delle volte le radici nervose lombari prossimali (da L2 a L4) causando dolore, debolezza e atrofia delle estremità degli arti inferiori (amiotrofia diabetica) o le radici nervose toraciche prossimali (da T4 a T12), causando dolore addominale (poliradiculopatia toracica).

mononeuropatia

Le **mononeuropatie** possono causare debolezza e intorpidimento delle dita (nervo mediano) o caduta del piede (nervo peroneo). I pazienti con diabete sono anche propensi allo sviluppo di disturbi da compressione nervosa, come la sindrome del tunnel carpale. Le mononeuropatie possono verificarsi contemporaneamente in diverse sedi (mononeurite multipla). Tutte interessano maggiormente i pazienti anziani e scompaiono di solito spontaneamente nel corso di mesi; tuttavia, i disturbi di compressione del nervo non lo fanno.



Il piede diabetico



Cellulite (ulcere del piede)

1/4

Un paziente con diabete sviluppa spesso una microangiopatia, che può compromettere la cicatrizzazione cutanea, così che anche piccole lesioni della cute possono progredire in ulcere profonde e infettarsi facilmente, soprattutto negli arti inferiori.

© Springer Science+Business Media



Macroangiopatie

Patologia macrovascolare

L' aterosclerosi dei grandi vasi è una conseguenza dell'iperinsulinemia, delle dislipidemie e dell'iperglicemia caratteristiche del diabete mellito. Manifestazioni cliniche sono

- Angina pectoris e infarto del miocardio
- Attacco ischemico transitorio e ictus
- Arteriopatia periferica

La diagnosi si basa sull'anamnesi e sull'esame obiettivo. Il trattamento consiste in un rigoroso controllo dei fattori di rischio per l'aterosclerosi, che comprende la normalizzazione della glicemia, dell'assetto lipidico e della pressione arteriosa, insieme alla cessazione del fumo, all'assunzione giornaliera di aspirina (se indicato) e di statine. Un approccio multifattoriale che comprende la gestione del controllo glicemico, dell'ipertensione, della dislipidemia e può essere efficace nel ridurre il tasso di eventi cardiovascolari. Al contrario della malattia microvascolare, il controllo intensivo della sola glicemia ha mostrato di ridurre il rischio nel diabete mellito di tipo 1 ma non in quello di tipo 2. Alcuni farmaci per il diabete riducono il rischio di eventi cardiovascolari avversi maggiori, tra cui la metformina e alcuni inibitori di SGLT2 e agonisti del recettore del glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1).

Altre complicazioni del diabete

Necrobiosi Lipoidica

La necrobiosi lipoidica (NL) è una malattia granulomatosa rara, cronica e idiopatica della degenerazione del collagene. Presenta un rischio associato di ulcerazione ed è classicamente associata al diabete mellito, di solito di tipo 1. Si verifica un ispessimento delle pareti dei vasi sanguigni e un deposito di grasso. La principale complicanza della malattia è la formazione di un'ulcera, che si verifica soprattutto in seguito a un trauma. Non di rado, possono verificarsi anche infezioni. Inoltre, se la necrobiosi lipoidica diventa cronica, raramente può trasformarsi in un carcinoma a cellule squamose.

Acantocitosis nigrans

L'acantosi nigricans è una condizione che provoca aree di pelle scura, spessa e vellutata nelle pieghe del corpo. In genere colpisce le ascelle, l'inguine e il collo.

L'acantosi nigricans (tende a colpire le persone con obesità. Raramente, la condizione della pelle può essere un segno di cancro in un organo interno, come lo stomaco o il fegato.

Il trattamento della causa dell'acantosi nigricans può ripristinare il colore e la consistenza abituali della pelle.

Granuloma Anulare

Il Granuloma Anulare (GA) è una patologia caratterizzata dalla comparsa di papule rossee o lievemente eritematose che, nella variante classica, tendono a formare delle lesioni anulari o arciformi, che insorgono con maggior frequenza sul dorso delle mani e piedi, ginocchia e caviglie. Solitamente interessa bambini o giovani adulti con un rapporto maschi: femmine di 1:2. La manifestazione ha un andamento recidivante con tendenza a risoluzione spontanea. Ben nota è la possibile associazione del GA con il diabete mellito (DM).



Necrobiosi lipoidica

La necrobiosi lipoidica è caratteristica ma non diagnostica del diabete. Le lesioni appaiono il più delle volte sulle gambe e iniziano come papule eritematose che si sviluppano in lesioni atrofiche e ceree di colore giallo o marrone.

Immagine fornita da Thomas Habif, MD.



Acanthosis nigricans

L'acanthosis nigricans consiste nell'ispessimento e nella pigmentazione della cute che si sviluppa più tipicamente sotto le ascelle e sulla nuca (in alto); nei soggetti dalla pelle scura, la cute può avere un aspetto coriaceo (in basso). È in genere una manifestazione cutanea di ridotta tolleranza al glucosio, ma può riflettere il cancro degli organi interni, soprattutto se l'esordio è rapido e la distribuzione è diffusa.

Immagine fornita da Thomas Habif, MD.



Granuloma anulare

Questa immagine mostra protuberanze eritematose disposte in un anello o un modello circolare sul tronco di un paziente con diabete.

SCIENCE PHOTO LIBRARY

Terapia del diabete

Table 9.2—Medications for lowering glucose, summary of characteristics

	Efficacy ¹	Hypoglycemia	Weight change ²	CV effects		Renal effects		Oral/SQ	Cost	Clinical considerations
				Effect on MACE	HF	Progression of DKD	Dosing/use considerations [*]			
Metformin	High	No	Neutral (potential for modest loss)	Potential benefit	Neutral	Neutral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contraindicated with eGFR <30 mL/min per 1.73 m² 	Oral	Low	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> GI side effects common; to mitigate GI side effects, consider slow dose titration, extended release formulations, and administration with food Potential for vitamin B12 deficiency; monitor at regular intervals
SGLT2 inhibitors	Intermediate to high	No	Loss (intermediate)	Benefit: canagliflozin, empagliflozin	Benefit: canagliflozin, dapagliflozin, empagliflozin, ertugliflozin	Benefit: canagliflozin, dapagliflozin, empagliflozin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> See labels for renal dose considerations of individual agents Glucose-lowering effect is lower for SGLT2 inhibitors at lower eGFR 	Oral	High	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> DKA risk, rare in T2DM; discontinue, evaluate, and treat promptly if suspected; be aware of predisposing risk factors and clinical presentation (including euglycemic DKA); discontinue before scheduled surgery (e.g., 3–4 days), during critical illness, or during prolonged fasting to mitigate potential risk Increased risk of genital mycotic infections Necrotizing fasciitis of the perineum (Fournier gangrene), rare reports; institute prompt treatment if suspected Attention to volume status, blood pressure; adjust other volume-contracting agents as applicable
GLP-1 RAs	High to very high	No	Loss (intermediate to very high)	Benefit: dulaglutide, liraglutide, semaglutide (SQ) Neutral: exenatide once weekly, lixisenatide	Neutral	Benefit for renal endpoints in CVOTs, driven by albuminuria outcomes: dulaglutide, liraglutide, semaglutide (SQ)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> See labels for renal dose considerations of individual agents No dose adjustment for dulaglutide, liraglutide, semaglutide Monitor renal function when initiating or escalating doses in patients with renal impairment reporting severe adverse GI reactions 	SQ; oral (semaglutide)	High	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Risk of thyroid C-cell tumors in rodents; human relevance not determined (liraglutide, dulaglutide, exenatide extended release, semaglutide) Counsel patients on potential for GI side effects and their typically temporary nature; provide guidance on dietary modifications to mitigate GI side effects (reduction in meal size, mindful eating practices [e.g., stop eating once full], decreasing intake of high-fat or spicy food); consider slower dose titration for patients experiencing GI challenges Pancreatitis has been reported in clinical trials but causality has not been established. Discontinue if pancreatitis is suspected Evaluate for gallbladder disease if cholelithiasis or cholecystitis is suspected
GIP and GLP-1 RA	Very high	No	Loss (very high)	Under investigation	Under investigation	Under investigation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> See label for renal dose considerations No dose adjustment Monitor renal function when initiating or escalating doses in patients with renal impairment reporting severe adverse GI reactions 	SQ	High	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Risk of thyroid C-cell tumors in rodents; human relevance not determined Counsel patients on potential for GI side effects and their typically temporary nature; provide guidance on dietary modifications to mitigate GI side effects (reduction in meal size, mindful eating practices [e.g., stop eating once full], decreasing intake of high-fat or spicy food); consider slower dose titration for patients experiencing GI challenges Pancreatitis has been reported in clinical trials but causality has not been established. Discontinue if pancreatitis is suspected Evaluate for gallbladder disease if cholelithiasis or cholecystitis is suspected
DPP-4 inhibitors	Intermediate	No	Neutral	Neutral	Neutral (potential risk, saxagliptin)	Neutral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Renal dose adjustment required (sitagliptin, saxagliptin, alogliptin); can be used in renal impairment No dose adjustment required for linagliptin 	Oral	High	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pancreatitis has been reported in clinical trials but causality has not been established. Discontinue if pancreatitis is suspected Joint pain Bullous pemphigoid (postmarketing); discontinue if suspected
Thiazolidinediones	High	No	Gain	Potential benefit: pioglitazone	Increased risk	Neutral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No dose adjustment required Generally not recommended in renal impairment due to potential for fluid retention 	Oral	Low	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Congestive HF (pioglitazone, rosiglitazone) Fluid retention (edema; heart failure) Benefit in NASH Risk of bone fractures Weight gain; consider lower doses to mitigate weight gain and edema
Sulfonylureas (2nd generation)	High	Yes	Gain	Neutral	Neutral	Neutral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Glyburide: generally not recommended in chronic kidney disease Glicipizide and glimepiride: initiate conservatively to avoid hypoglycemia 	Oral	Low	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FDA Special Warning on increased risk of CV mortality based on studies of an older sulfonylurea (tolbutamide); glimepiride shown to be CV safe (see text) Use with caution in persons at risk for hypoglycemia
Insulin	High to very high	Yes	Gain	Neutral	Neutral	Neutral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lower insulin doses required with a decrease in eGFR; titrate per clinical response 	SQ; inhaled	Low (SQ)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Injection site reactions Higher risk of hypoglycemia with human insulin (NPH or premixed formulations) vs. analogs
Human Analogs								SQ	High	

CV, cardiovascular; CVOT, cardiovascular outcomes trial; DKA, diabetic ketoacidosis; DKD, diabetic kidney disease; DPP-4, dipeptidyl peptidase 4; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; FDA, U.S. Food and Drug Administration; GI, gastrointestinal; GIP, gastric inhibitory polypeptide; GLP-1 RA, glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor agonist; HF, heart failure; NASH, nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; MACE, major adverse cardiovascular events; SGLT2, sodium–glucose cotransporter 2; SQ, subcutaneous; T2DM, type 2 diabetes mellitus. *For agent-specific dosing recommendations, please refer to manufacturers’ prescribing information. ¹Tsapas et al. (62). ²Tsapas et al. (114). Reprinted from Davies et al. (45).

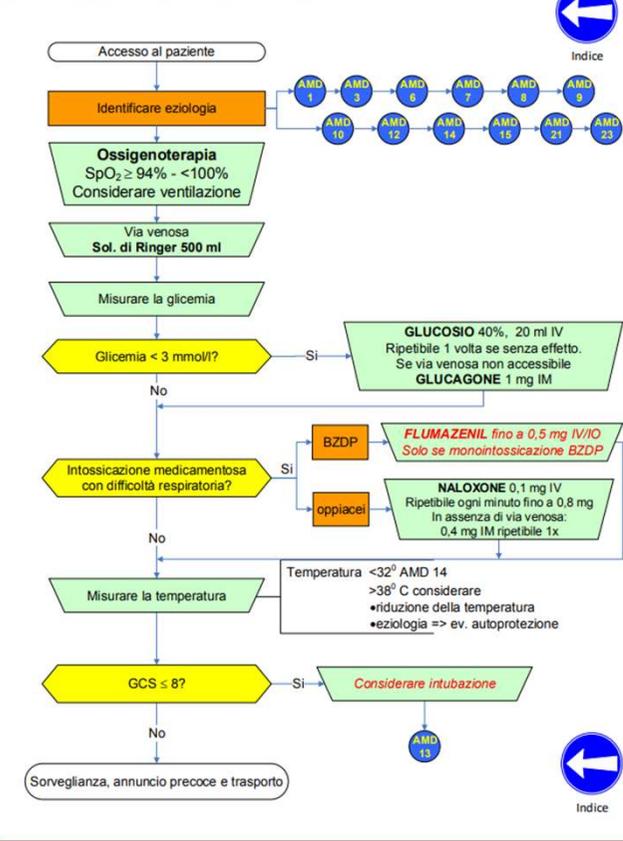


↖ VERKLEINERN 🔗 QUIZ STARTEN

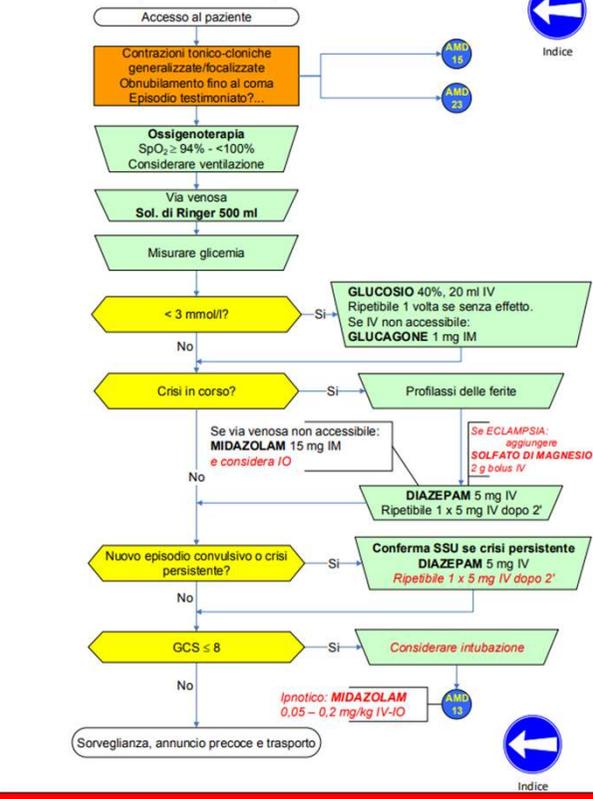
Stufenschema für Typ-2-Diabetiker ^[1]	
	Therapieempfehlung
Stufe I	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Basistherapie: Gewichtsnormalisierung, körperliche Aktivität, Ernährungstherapie, „Lifestyle“-Schulung
Stufe II	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Monotherapie: 1. Wahl <u>Metformin</u> <input type="checkbox"/> ^[5]
Stufe III	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Zweifachtherapie: Antidiabetische Kombinationstherapie oder Antidiabetikum in Kombination mit <u>Insulin</u><ul style="list-style-type: none">◦ 1. Wahl <u>Metformin</u> +<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Zweites orales Antidiabetikum <input type="checkbox"/>▪ <u>GLP-1-Rezeptor-Agonisten</u> <input type="checkbox"/>▪ <u>Insulin</u> <input type="checkbox"/>
Stufe IV	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Dreifachtherapie: Zwei <u>Antidiabetika</u> + <u>Insulin</u> oder drei <u>Antidiabetika</u><ul style="list-style-type: none">◦ 1. Wahl <u>Metformin</u> +◦ Zweites orales Antidiabetikum <input type="checkbox"/> oder <u>GLP-1-Rezeptor-Agonisten</u> <input type="checkbox"/> +◦ Drittes Antidiabetikum <input type="checkbox"/> oder <u>Insulin</u> <input type="checkbox"/>
Stufe V	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Intensivierte Insulintherapie, ggf. in Kombination mit <u>Antidiabetika</u> (insb. <u>Metformin</u>)



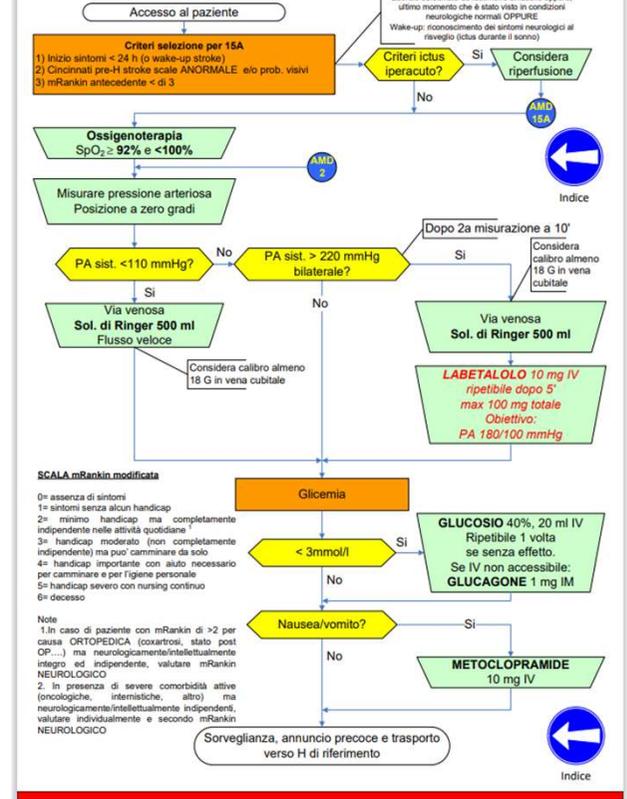
AMD 2. Stato di coscienza alterato



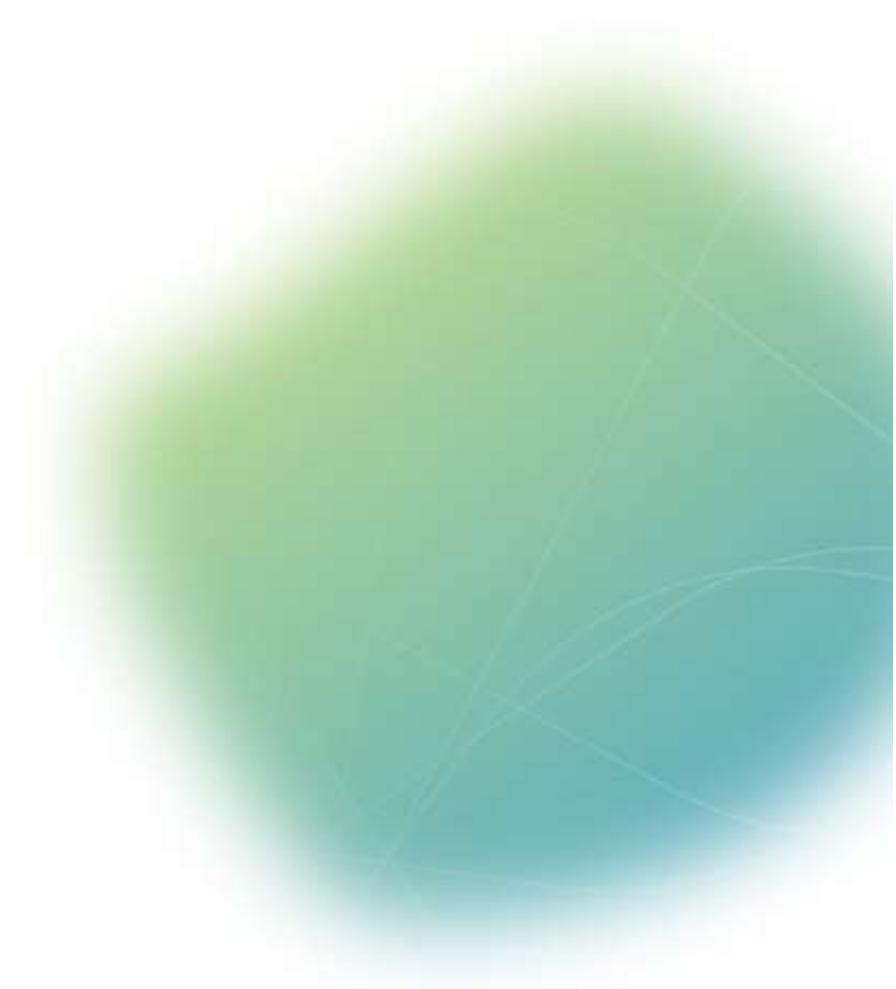
AMD 3. Crisi epilettica/stato epilettico



AMD 15. Ictus acuto



Il diabete gestazionale





Il diabete gestazionale

- Un diabete non controllato in gravidanza può avere come conseguenze, tra le altre:
 - Preeclampsia
 - macrosomia



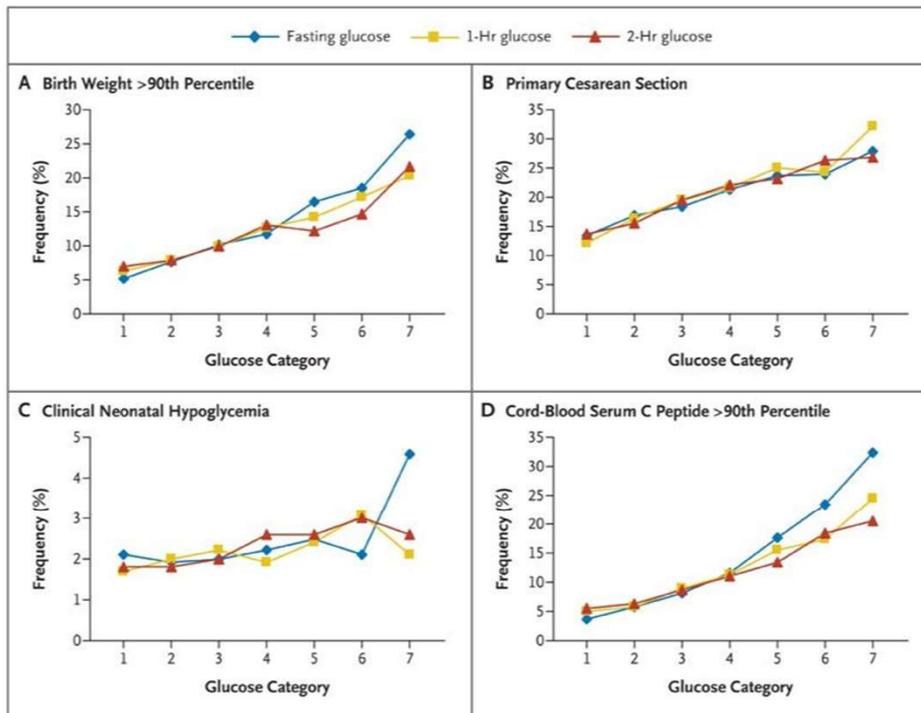
Hyperglycemia and adverse pregnancy outcomes

HAPO Study Cooperative Research Group¹; Boyd E Metzger, Lynn P Lowe, Alan R Dyer, Elisabeth R Trimble, Udom Chaovarindr, Donald R Coustan, David R Hadden, David R McCance, Moshe Hod, Harold David McIntyre, Jeremy J N Oats, Bengt Persson, Michael S Rogers, David A Sacks

Collaborators, Affiliations + expand

PMID: 18463375 DOI: 10.1056/NEJMoa0707943

[Free article](#)



Conclusions: Our results indicate strong, continuous associations of maternal glucose levels below those diagnostic of diabetes with increased birth weight and increased cord-blood serum C-peptide levels.

Copyright 2008 Massachusetts Medical Society.



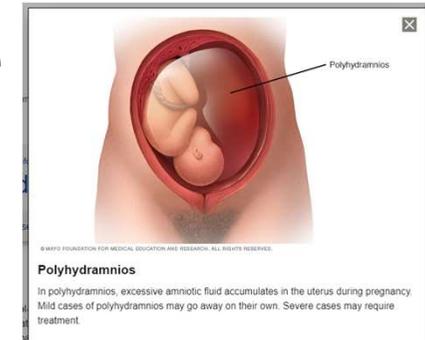
Macrosomia

- Peso alla nascita > 4 Kg
- Macrosomia severa >4.5 Kg
- Aumento del rischio di taglio cesareo a causa delle possibili complicazioni al parto
- Aumento del rischio di mortalità infantile perinatale



Altre conseguenze del diabete gestazionale

- Conseguenze immediate
 - Macrosomia
 - Preeclampsia e ipertensione gestazionale
 - Polyhydramnios (possibile complicazione parto pre termine, fiato corto..)
 - Morte in utero
- Conseguenze a lungo termine
 - Rischi materni: marcatore sviluppo successivo di T2DM, sindrome metabolica, CVD
 - Rischi per i nascituri: aumento del rischio di obesità, può avere un impatto sullo sviluppo neurologico





Avis d'expert No 37

Commission Assurance Qualité
Prof. Dr Daniel Surbek

DEPISTAGE DU DIABETE GESTATIONNEL

Auteurs: M. Boulvain, M. Brändle*, G. Drack, I. Hoesli, C. Honegger, R. Lehmann*, L. Raio, M. Singer, D. Surbek, A. Troendle*, R. Zimmermann

*Société Suisse d'Endocrinologie et de Diabétologie

Il est recommandé de dépister le diabète gestationnel entre 24 et 28 semaines de grossesse par une glycémie à jeun, suivie d'une épreuve de surcharge orale par 75gr de glucose, avec dosage de la glycémie 1 heure et 2 heures après la surcharge.



Diagnostica del diabete gestazionale in Svizzera

Empfohlene Screeningmethode

Standardvorgehen ist die Durchführung eines oralen Glucosetoleranztests 75g bei allen schwangeren Frauen zwischen der 24. und 28. SSW.

Die Grenzwerte zur Diagnose eines GDM sind dabei wie folgt:

- Nüchternblutzucker ≥ 5.1 mmol/L
- Blutzucker nach einer Stunde ≥ 10 mmol/L
- Blutzucker nach zwei Stunden ≥ 8.5 mmol/L

Ein einziger pathologischer Wert genügt, um die Diagnose GDM zu stellen.

- Die Bestimmung des BZ muss in **venösem** Plasma erfolgen. Es ist wichtig, sich zu vergewissern, dass die Frau tatsächlich seit **Mitternacht** nüchtern ist. ~~Kapilläre Blutentnahmen genügen den Anforderungen zur exakten BZ-Bestimmung nicht.~~
- Es muss ein für die BZ-Bestimmung spezielles Blutentnahmeröhrchen verwendet werden, das mit einem Glucose-Oxydase-Hemmer beschichtet ist, sonst vermindert sich der Glucosewert um 1 mmol/L pro Stunde, die bis zur Bestimmung vergeht.



Diagnostica del diabete gestazionale: possibili alternative in CH

Mögliche Alternativen:

- Da die Einnahme von 75g Glucose von manchen Schwangeren als unangenehm empfunden wird, kann ein zweistufiges Vorgehen gewählt werden: Zuerst wird ein Nüchtern-BZ bestimmt. Ist sein Wert ≥ 5.1 mmol/L (und die Frau ist tatsächlich nüchtern), ist die Diagnose GDM gegeben. Ist der Wert < 4.4 mmol/L, so ist die Diagnose eines GDM wenig wahrscheinlich (Sensibilität 95%). Diese Variante würde es erlauben, bei 40 – 45% der Frauen auf den oralen Belastungstest zu verzichten (< 4.4 mmol/L : 35% und ≥ 5.1 mmol/L : 8.3%). Bedingung für diese Strategie ist, dass das Laborresultat sehr schnell zur Verfügung steht oder aber, dass der allfällig notwendige orale Glucosetoleranztest mit 75g Glucose an einem anderen Tag wiederholt wird, wenn der Wert zwischen 4.4 und 5.0 mmol/L liegt. Sollte die Glucose erbrochen werden, kann man auch anhand des Nüchtern-Blutzuckerwerts entscheiden, ob der Test wiederholt wird oder nicht. Um das Resultat aus venösem Plasma rasch zu erhalten, ist es eine vertretbare Strategie, ein schnelles Laborgerät mit einer Variabilität von $\leq 3\%$ zu verwenden, (z.B. „Hemocue 201“, der Vollblut verwendet und das Resultat der Plasma-Kalibration entsprechend korrigiert, oder „Fuji-Drichem“, der Plasma verwendet, was eine vorgängige Zentrifugierung des Blutes bedingt).
- Auch folgende Alternative ist vertretbar, obwohl dadurch die Sensibilität vermindert wird und gegenüber dem Standardvorgehen wenig Vorteile bestehen: Man beschränkt sich auf die Bestimmung des Nüchtern-BZ und des BZ eine Stunde nach oraler Belastung mit 75g Glucose. Damit vermindert man die Sensibilität auf 87% im Vergleich zum ganzen Test. Trotzdem muss sich die schwangere Frau dem Belastungstest unterziehen.

Criteri ADA 2023

Table 2.7—Screening for and diagnosis of GDM

One-step strategy

Perform a 75-g OGTT, with plasma glucose measurement when patient is fasting and at 1 and 2 h, at 24–28 weeks of gestation in individuals not previously diagnosed with diabetes.

The OGTT should be performed in the morning after an overnight fast of at least 8 h.

The diagnosis of GDM is made when any of the following plasma glucose values are met or exceeded:

- Fasting: 92 mg/dL (5.1 mmol/L)
- 1 h: 180 mg/dL (10.0 mmol/L)
- 2 h: 153 mg/dL (8.5 mmol/L)

Two-step strategy

Step 1: Perform a 50-g GLT (nonfasting), with plasma glucose measurement at 1 h, at 24–28 weeks of gestation in individuals not previously diagnosed with diabetes.

If the plasma glucose level measured 1 h after the load is \geq 130, 135, or 140 mg/dL (7.2, 7.5, or 7.8 mmol/L, respectively), proceed to a 100-g OGTT.

Step 2: The 100-g OGTT should be performed when the patient is fasting.

The diagnosis of GDM is made when at least two* of the following four plasma glucose levels (measured fasting and at 1, 2, and 3 h during OGTT) are met or exceeded (Carpenter-Coustan criteria [251]):

- Fasting: 95 mg/dL (5.3 mmol/L)
- 1 h: 180 mg/dL (10.0 mmol/L)
- 2 h: 155 mg/dL (8.6 mmol/L)
- 3 h: 140 mg/dL (7.8 mmol/L)

GDM, gestational diabetes mellitus; GLT, glucose load test; OGTT, oral glucose tolerance test. *American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists notes that one elevated value can be used for diagnosis (247).



Emoglobina glicata-1

- Diversi studi hanno dimostrato come la concentrazione di A1C sia direttamente correlata alle complicazioni del diabete
 - DCCT: Diabetes Control and Complications Trial
 - UKPSD: Uk prospective diabetes study Group
 - EDIC: Epidemiology of Diabetes Intervention and complications

Effect of Prior Intensive Therapy in Type 1 Diabetes on 10-Year Progression of Retinopathy in the DCCT/EDIC: Comparison of Adults and Adolescents

Neil H. White,¹ Wanjie Sun,² Patricia A. Cleary,² William V. Tamborlane,³ Ronald P. Danis,⁴ Dean P. Hainsworth,⁵ and Matthew D. Davis,⁴ for the DCCT-EDIC Research Group*

OBJECTIVE—The aim of this study was to examine differences between adolescents and adults in persistence of the benefits of intensive therapy 10 years after completion of the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT).

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS—During the Epidemiology of Diabetes Interventions and Complications (EDIC) study, progression of retinopathy from DCCT closeout to EDIC year 10 was evaluated in 1,055 adults and 156 adolescents.

RESULTS—During 10 years of follow-up, HbA_{1c} (A1C) was similar between original intensive (INT) and conventional (CON) groups and between former adolescents and adults. At EDIC year 10, adults in the former INT group continued to show slower progression of diabetic retinopathy than those in the CON group (adjusted hazard reduction 56%, $P < 0.0001$), whereas in adolescents this beneficial effect had disappeared (32%, $P = 0.13$). Seventy-nine percent of observed differences in the prolonged treatment effect between adults and adolescents at year 10 were explained by differences in mean A1C during DCCT between adolescents and adults (8.9 vs. 8.1%), particularly between INT adolescents and adults (8.1 vs. 7.2%).

CONCLUSIONS—Prior glycemic control during DCCT is vital for the persistence of the beneficial effects of INT therapy 10 years later. Lowering A1C to as close to normal as safely possible without severe hypoglycemia and starting as early as possible should be attempted for all subjects with type 1 diabetes. These results underscore the importance of maintaining A1C at target values for as long as possible because the benefits of former INT treatment wane over time if A1C levels rise. *Diabetes* 59: 1244–1253, 2010

From ¹Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri; ²The George Washington University, The Biostatistics Center, Rockville, Maryland; the ³the School of Medicine, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut; the ⁴University of Wisconsin–Madison, Madison, Wisconsin; and the ⁵University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri.

The Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT) clearly demonstrated the benefits of intensive diabetes therapy aimed at lowering blood glucose and HbA_{1c} (A1C) as near to the normal range as safely possible (1). A marked reduction in retinopathy onset, retinopathy progression, and microalbuminuria was demonstrated in both the adult (18–39 years old at enrollment) and adolescent (13–17) cohorts (2) treated with intensive therapy for a mean of 6.5 years. The Epidemiology of Diabetes Interventions and Complications (EDIC) study, the observational follow-up of the DCCT cohort (3), demonstrated that the differences in complication occurrence and progression between former intensive (INT) and conventional (CON) treatment groups continued in adolescent and adult cohorts during the first 4 years of EDIC (4,5) despite similar A1C in the treatment groups during this time period. This phenomenon has been termed “metabolic memory.”

The demonstration of metabolic memory suggests that hyperglycemia contributes to the development of diabetes complications over a long period of time and that halting or reversing prior effects of hyperglycemia or prior benefits of improved glycemic control would also take an extended period of time (6). Indeed, although the difference in retinopathy progression between former DCCT INT and CON groups was recently shown to persist at least 10 years after the DCCT, the differences between the two groups appeared to be waning (79% hazard reduction in further retinopathy progression at EDIC year 4 vs. 53% at year 10) (7).

We now present analyses of the EDIC year-10 retinopathy data that were undertaken to determine whether persistence of metabolic memory differed based on age at the time of randomization in the DCCT (adults: 18–39 years vs. adolescents: 13–17) and, if so, what factors contribute to this difference. Specifically, retinopathy results at year 10 of the EDIC study for the adult DCCT cohort were compared with those of the adolescent cohort. The results from EDIC year 4 have previously been

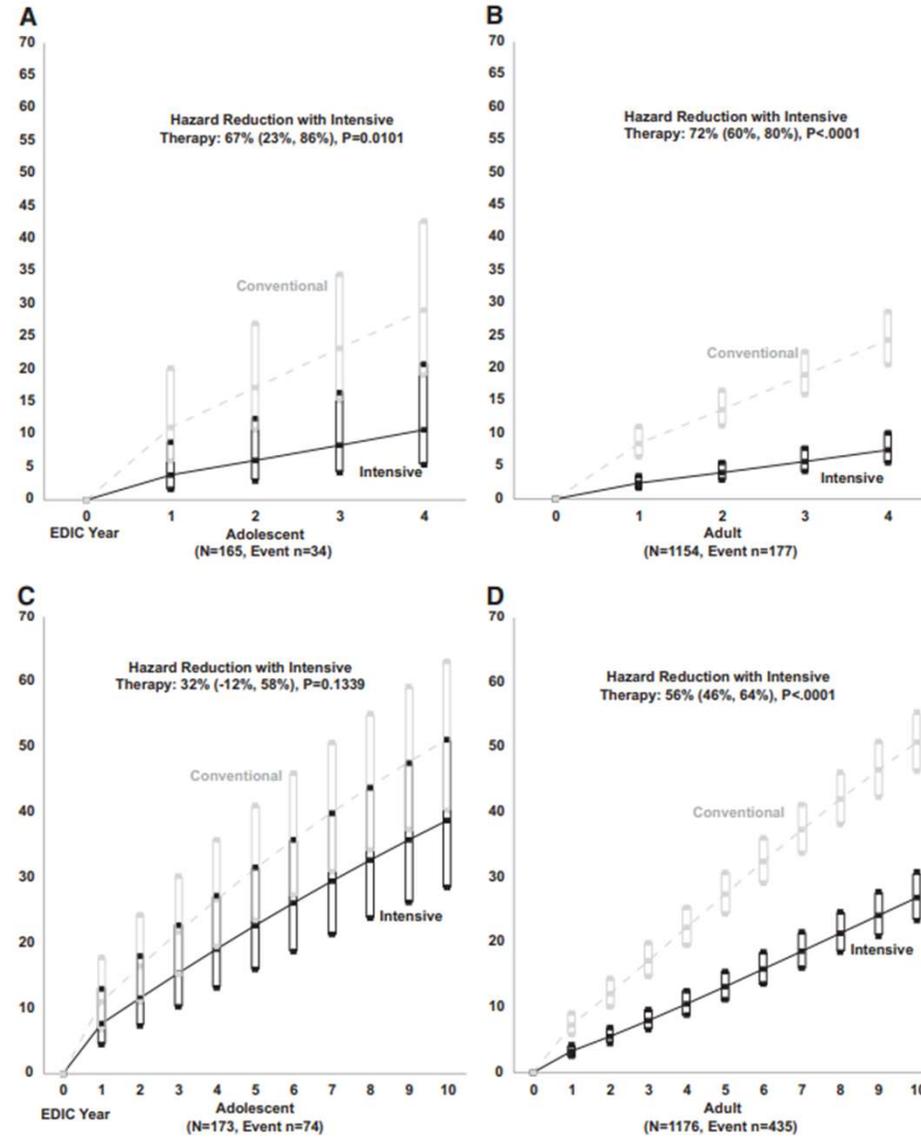


FIG. 2. Estimated cumulative incidence of further 3-step progression of retinopathy from DCCT closeout, by DCCT treatment group, through EDIC year 4, for adolescents (A) and for adults (B); through EDIC year 10, for adolescents (C) and for adults (D). Subjects with prior scatter photocoagulation during DCCT (7 adolescents and 29 adults) were excluded from analyses. Based on Weibull regression models adjusted for the level of retinopathy at the end of the DCCT, primary vs. secondary cohort, the AIC value on entry to the DCCT, and diabetes duration at DCCT baseline. Hazard reduction was for intensive therapy compared with conventional therapy.



Emoglobina Glicata

Clinical Trial > N Engl J Med. 1993 Sep 30;329(14):977-86. doi: 10.1056/NEJM199309303291401.

The effect of intensive treatment of diabetes on the development and progression of long-term complications in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus

Diabetes Control and Complications Trial Research Group; D M Nathan, S Genuth, J Lachin, P Cleary, O Crofford, M Davis, L Rand, C Siebert

PMID: 8366922 DOI: 10.1056/NEJM199309303291401

FULL TEXT LINKS



ACTIONS

Cite

Collections

SHARE

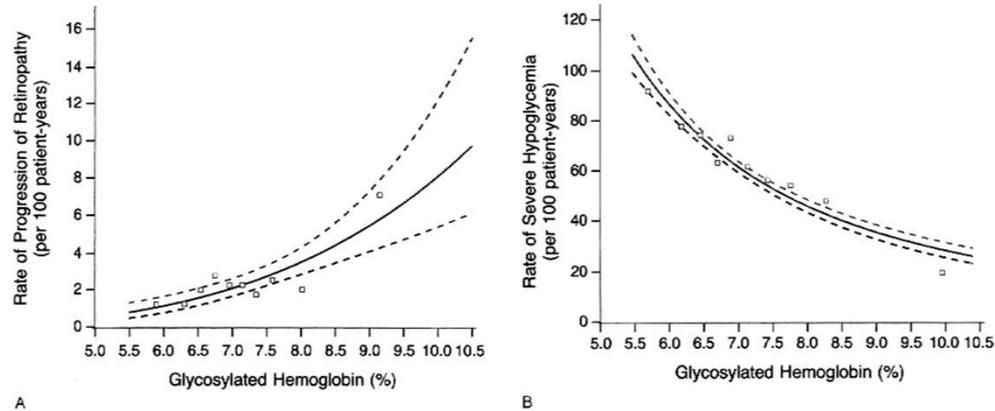


Figure 5. Risk of Sustained Progression of Retinopathy (Panel A) and Rate of Severe Hypoglycemia (Panel B) in the Patients Receiving Intensive Therapy, According to Their Mean Glycosylated Hemoglobin Values during the Trial.

Progression of retinopathy was defined as in the legend to Figure 2. In Panel A, the glycosylated hemoglobin values used were the mean of the values obtained every six months. In Panel B, the mean of the monthly values was used. Squares indicate the crude rates within deciles of the mean glycosylated hemoglobin values during the trial; each square corresponds to more than 400 patient-years. The solid lines are regression lines estimated as a function of the log of the mean glycosylated hemoglobin value in Panel A and the log of the glycosylated hemoglobin value in Panel B; the dashed lines are 95 percent confidence intervals.

Emoglobina glicata... la storia (a grandi...linee)

- DCCT raccoglie dati e mostra la correlazione tra la concentrazione di A1C e le conseguenze del diabete
- DCCT propone in seguito die target terapeutici
- Tuttavia, l'assenza di standardizzazione, non permette l'uso ottimale di questi test.
- A partire dal 1993 the American Association for clinical chemistry (AACC) richiede l'instaurarsi di un comitato per la standardizzazione degli ASSAY A1C in maniera che tutti i laboratori potessero allineare i propri assay con quelli effettuati dai grandi studi come quello della DCCT
- Nonostante il grosso studio DCCT termina nel 1993, altri studi (EDIC) sono stati cominciati usando la stessa metodologia usata in DCCT
- → il comitato decide quindi di utilizzare il metodo DCCT come «standard»
- Il processo di standardizzazione procede con la NGPS (“National Glycohemoglobin Standardization Program) e IFCC



Harmonizing Hemoglobin A_{1c} Testing

A better A1C test means better diabetes care

Search NGSP

- Home
- News
- About the NGSP
- More About HbA_{1c}
- Obtaining Certification
- Certified Methods and Laboratories
- CAP GH5 Data
- Enter Monitoring Data
- Links
- Contact Us

Welcome to the NGSP Web Site

The purpose of the NGSP is to standardize Hemoglobin A_{1c} test results to those of the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT) and United Kingdom Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS) which established the direct relationships between HbA_{1c} levels and outcome risks in patients with diabetes.

[Download Certification Packets](#)

[The Relationship Between HbA_{1c} and Estimated Average Glucose \(eAG\)](#)

[More about the DCCT](#) | [More about the UKPDS](#)

Convert between NGSP, IFCC and eAG

We have added a tool for converting between NGSP(%), IFCC (mmol/mol) and eAG (mg/dL) units. [Click here...](#)

Interferences with HbA_{1c} Measurements

Factors that can result in falsely elevated or lowered HbA_{1c} results include hemoglobin variants and conditions which affect red cell lifespan. [Read more...](#)

Manufacturer Forum at the AACC

The 2023 NGSP/IFCC Manufacturer Forum will take place on July 24, 2023 during the AACC Annual Meeting and Clinical Lab Expo. [More info...](#)

CAP 2022c Summary Report

The summary report for the CAP 2022 GH5c proficiency survey is now available. [Download...](#)

© 2010 NGSP

The NGSP is supported in part by [National Institutes of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases](#) 1UC4DK096587-01.

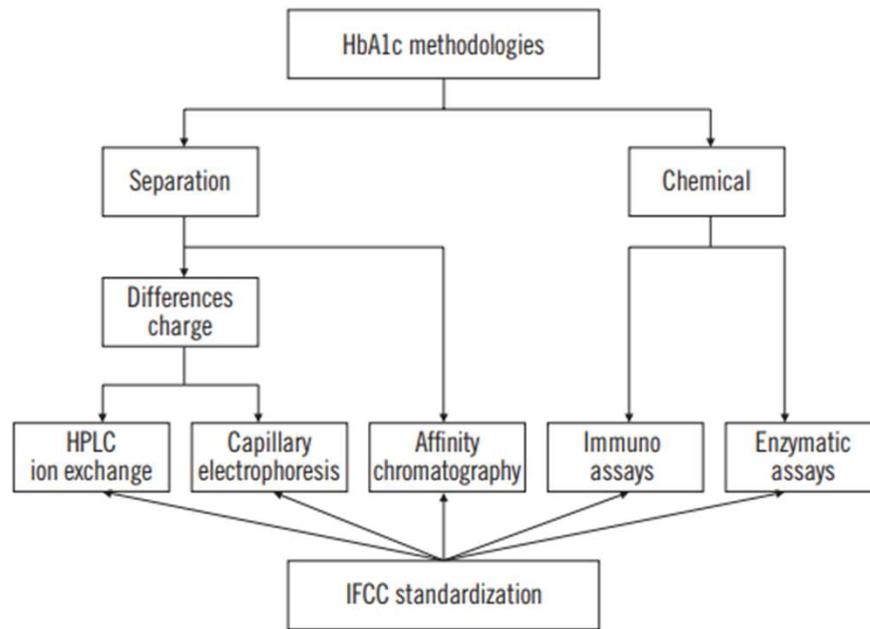


Fig. 1. Analytical concepts of HbA1c measurement methods and their traceability to the IFCC- RMP.

Abbreviations: IFCC, International Federation of Clinical Chemistry; RMP, Reference Measurement Procedure.

Review Article
Clinical Chemistry

Ann Lab Med 2013;33:393-400
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3343/alm.2013.33.6.393>
ISSN 2234-3806 · eISSN 2234-3814

**ANNALS OF
LABORATORY
MEDICINE**

HbA1c: A Review of Analytical and Clinical Aspects

Cas Weykamp, Ph.D.

MCA Laboratory, Queen Beatrix Hospital, Winterswijk, Netherlands



Consenso

- Scopo della IFCC è la standardizzazione di tutti i metodi
- La concentrazione va espressa in SI
- Tuttavia, riportare i risultati in SI è risultato difficile, si è quindi passati al questo compromesso
 - 1) Il metodo di riferimento per la standardizzazione è quello proposto esclusivamente dalla IFCC
 - 2) i Risultati vanno riportati nelle due unità di misura (SI e DCCT)
 - 3) I risultati della NGPS/DCCT units vengono trasformati dai risultati IFCC



5) Master equations for conversion IFCC/NGSP

The master equations for converting IFCC units into NGSP units ($\text{NGSP}\% = 0.0915 \times \text{IFCC mmol/mol} + 2.15$) and vice versa ($\text{IFCC mmol/mol} = 10.93 \text{ NGSP}\% - 23.5$) are established and monitored by the IFCC and NGSP networks [20].

In summary, full (all routine methods are calibrated against the IFCC-RMP) and partial standardization of reported patient results (IFCC and NGSP units) have been established.



HbA1c Assay Interferences

HbA1c methods: Effects of Hemoglobin Variants (HbC, HbS, HbE and HbD traits) and Elevated Fetal Hemoglobin (HbF)

Updated June 2022

[More comprehensive information regarding HbA1c assay interferences](#)

HbA1c, also called A1C, is a measure of the amount of glucose attached to hemoglobin (Hb) in red blood cells. The higher the glucose levels over the previous 2-3 months, the higher the A1C. The A1C test is used to monitor the glucose levels of patients who have been diagnosed with diabetes. In people who have hemoglobin variants such as HbS (sickle cell trait), some A1C tests give falsely high or low readings that can lead to the over-treatment or under-treatment of diabetes.

Laboratories use many different methods for measuring A1C, but some of these methods can give inaccurate results when the patient has a hemoglobin variant such as sickle cell trait or if there is an elevated level of fetal hemoglobin (HbF). Doctors or patients interested in getting information about the accuracy of a particular A1C method for patients with hemoglobin variants should first find out which method your laboratory is using.

The following table lists the 20 methods most often used to measure A1C and whether the method is affected by HbC, HbS, HbE or HbD trait or by elevated HbF. Methods are listed in alphabetical order by manufacturer. **The criteria used to determine whether or not a method shows interference that is clinically significant (indicated by "Yes") is $\geq \pm 6\%$ at 6 and/or 9% A1C.** If your diabetes patient has a hemoglobin variant, your lab should use a method that does not show interference from that variant in order to produce an accurate A1C result.

Method	Interference from HbC	Interference from HbS	Interference from HbE	Interference from HbD	Interference from elevated HbF
Abbott Architect c Enzymatic	No	No	No	No	-
Alere Afinion	No	No	No	No	\$
Arkray ADAMS A1c HA-8180V (Menarini)	No	No	HbA1c not quantified (no for ver. EU 1.41)	HbA1c not quantified (no for ver. EU 1.41)	No <30%
Beckman HbA1c Advanced B00389 Manual Application on DxC 700 AU AU system	No	No	No	No	\$
Beckman HbA1c Advanced B93009 Online Application on DxC 700 AU	No	No	No	No	\$



Glicata e i problemi

- HbA1C o A1c misura il glucosio medio per un periodo approssimativo di tre mesi aiutando medici e pazienti a meglio dosare l'eventuale terapia.
- Pazienti con diabete dovrebbero sottoporsi al test A1C almeno due volte l'anno con l'obiettivo di raggiungere un livello di A1C <7% nei pz diabetici e tra il 4-6% in pazienti senza diabete
- I goal terapeutici sono dati in base alla concentrazione di A1C
- Nonostante l'importanza di A1C, il paziente con diabete va monitorato giornalmente tramite glicemia capillare, per esempio. Non é possibile, per esempio, aggiustare la dose di insulina solo sulla base di A1C



Glicata e ... i problemi

- Il paziente però si monitora giornalmente misurando le glicemie in mmol/L
- La nuova standardizzazione (IFCC) per gli ASSAY A1C porta a dei valori più bassi di glicata di ca 1.5-2% (i calibratori misurano solo una specie di A1C a seguito di purificazioni)
- IFCC propone le unità in mmol/mol
- → confusione per pazienti e curanti



Glucosio stimato medio (AG)-La soluzione

Clinical Care/Education/Nutrition/Psychosocial Research
ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Translating the A1C Assay Into Estimated Average Glucose Values

DAVID M. NATHAN, MD¹
JUDITH KUENEN, MD²
RIKKE BORG, MD³
HUI ZHENG, PHD^{1,4}

DAVID SCHOENFELD, PHD^{1,4}
ROBERT J. HEINE, MD²
FOR THE A1C-DERIVED AVERAGE GLUCOSE
(ADAG) STUDY GROUP*

OBJECTIVE— The A1C assay, expressed as the percent of hemoglobin that is glycated, measures chronic glycemia and is widely used to judge the adequacy of diabetes treatment and adjust therapy. Day-to-day management is guided by self-monitoring of capillary glucose concentrations (milligrams per deciliter or millimoles per liter). We sought to define the mathematical relationship between A1C and average glucose (AG) levels and determine whether A1C could be expressed and reported as AG in the same units as used in self-monitoring.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS— A total of 507 subjects, including 268 patients with type 1 diabetes, 159 with type 2 diabetes, and 80 nondiabetic subjects from 10 international centers, was included in the analyses. A1C levels obtained at the end of 3 months and measured in a central laboratory were compared with the AG levels during the previous 3 months. AG was calculated by combining weighted results from at least 2 days of continuous glucose monitoring performed four times, with seven-point daily self-monitoring of capillary (fingerstick) glucose performed at least 3 days per week.

RESULTS— Approximately 2,700 glucose values were obtained by each subject during 3 months. Linear regression analysis between the A1C and AG values provided the tightest correlations ($AG_{mg/dl} = 28.7 \times A1C - 46.7$, $R^2 = 0.84$, $P < 0.0001$), allowing calculation of an estimated average glucose (eAG) for A1C values. The linear regression equations did not differ significantly across subgroups based on age, sex, diabetes type, race/ethnicity, or smoking status.

CONCLUSIONS— A1C levels can be expressed as eAG for most patients with type 1 and type 2 diabetes.

National Glycohemoglobin Standardization Program values (13), potentially causing confusion for patients and health care providers. Moreover, the International Federation of Clinical Chemists results would be expressed in new units (millimoles per mole), which would add to the confusion. Chronic glycemia (A1C) is usually expressed as a percentage of hemoglobin that is glycated, whereas the day-to-day monitoring and therapy of diabetes are based on acute glucose levels expressed as milligrams per deciliter or millimoles per liter. This discrepancy has always been problematic. If we could reliably report chronic metabolic control and long-term management goals as average glucose (AG), i.e., in the same units of measurement as acute glycemia, it would eliminate these potential sources of confusion.

The relationship between A1C and chronic glycemia has been explored in several studies that have supported the association of A1C with AG levels over the preceding 5–12 weeks (14–21). However, the older studies have been limited, including relatively small homogeneous cohorts of patients, usually with type 1 diabetes (14–19). Moreover, almost all of

Diabetes Care 31:1473–1478, 2008



A1c-Derived Average Glucose (ADAG) study

- Studio internazionale sponsorizzato da ADA E EASD e IDF
- Eseguito in risposta all'introduzione di una nuova standardizzazione
- Scopo dello studio ADAG era quello di definire una relazione matematica tra la concentrazione di A1c e il glucosio medio stimato=estimated average glucose (eAG) determinando così se A1C può essere riportato come eAG. In questa maniera le unità di misura sarebbero le stesse come quelle del self-monitoring



ADAG study

- Vengono reclutate 507 persone da 10 centri internazionali:
 - 268 con T1DM, 159 con T2DM e 80 senza diabete
- Vengono ottenuti i campioni di sangue per 3 mesi consecutivi
- I campioni per la misurazione della glicemia utilizzano misurazioni interstiziali oppure capillari
- I campioni per la determinazione di A1C vengono analizzati con 4 metodiche allineate alla DCCT che comprendono anche HPLC, due immunoassay e un affinity assay → vengono utilizzati i valori medi di A1C

A1C assay and estimated average glucose values

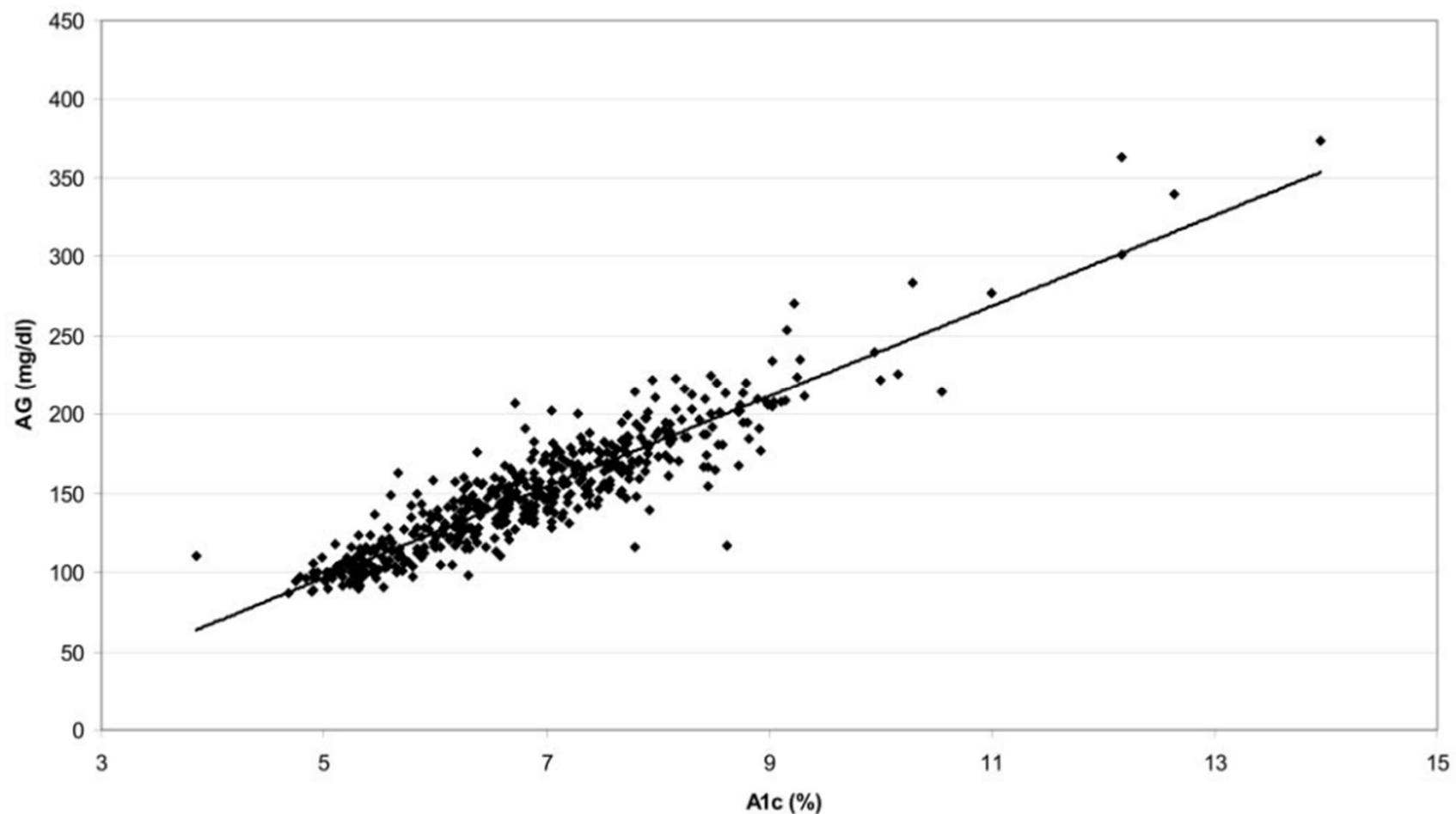


Figure 1—Linear regression of A1C at the end of month 3 and calculated AG during the preceding 3 months. Calculated $AG_{mg/dl} = 28.7 \times A1C - 46.7$ ($AG_{mmol} = 1.59 \times A1C - 2.59$) ($R^2 = 0.84$, $P < 0.0001$).



ing at (10,11), raise for the entire study cohort.

CONCLUSIONS— The results of the A1c-Derived Average Glucose (ADAG) study support the notion of a close relationship between A1C levels and AG for both type 1 and type 2 diabetes. The A1C assay plays a central role in the clinical management of diabetes. Treatment goals designed to reduce the development of long-term complications were adopted in

tion, which is more stable and should further improve the co of assays worldwide (11,12) method measures a well-defi of only one molecular species hemoglobin, the reference lower, compared with the DCCT-aligned assays. To avoi and potential deterioration o control as a result of havin lower A1C values (24), the cu set out to determine the relat tween A1C and AG. The ultim to determine whether the A1 chronic glycemia could be rep same units as used for day-to toring (12,25).

Previous studies of the r between A1C and average gly generally been hampered by li surements of glucose valu doubt on the reliability of the AG. CGM provides the opp measure all glucose levels. A r that included CGM for 3 mo at a relationship between A. very similar to that presentc viding external validation, b

Table 2—Estimated average glucose

	mg/dl*	mmol/l†
A1C (%)		
5	97 (76–120)	5.4 (4.2–6.7)
6	126 (100–152)	7.0 (5.5–8.5)
7	154 (123–185)	8.6 (6.8–10.3)
8	183 (147–217)	10.2 (8.1–12.1)
9	212 (170–249)	11.8 (9.4–13.9)
10	240 (193–282)	13.4 (10.7–15.7)
11	269 (217–314)	14.9 (12.0–17.5)
12	298 (240–347)	16.5 (13.3–19.3)

Data in parentheses are 95% CIs. *Linear regression eAG (mg/dl) = $28.7 \times \text{A1C} - 46.7$. †Linear regression eAG (mmol/l) = $1.5944 \times \text{A1C} - 2.594$.



DiabetesPro®

All types Search

eAG/A1C Conversion Calculator

ADA is recommending the use of a new term in diabetes management, estimated average glucose, or eAG. Health care providers can now report A1C results to patients using the same units (mg/dl or mmol/l) that patients see routinely in blood glucose measurements. The calculator and information below describe the ADAG Study that defined the relationship between A1C and eAG and how eAG can be used to help improve the discussion of glucose control with patients.

Choose source:

- A1C to eAG
- eAG to A1C

Unit to calculate from

To:

- mg/dl
- mmol/l

Unit to calculate to

Source value *

6

Calculate

Results

7



eAG to A1C mmol/l
 Unit to calculate from Unit to calculate to

Source value *

6

Calculate

Results

7

The relationship between A1C and eAG is described by the formula $28.7 \times A1C - 46.7 = eAG$.

A1C		eAG	
%	mg/dl	mmol/l	
6	126	7.0	
6.5	140	7.8	
7	154	8.6	
7.5	169	9.4	
8	183	10.1	
8.5	197	10.9	
9	212	11.8	
9.5	226	12.6	
10	240	13.4	



Characteristics of traditional and nontraditional markers of hyperglycemia

	Brief description	Duration of glycemia reflected	Strengths	Limitations
Traditional markers of hyperglycemia				
Fasting glucose	Direct measure of circulating blood glucose	Acute/immediate	Direct measure; widely accepted; inexpensive	Requires fasting; affected by acute illness and stress; pre-analytical issues (sample stability) ^[1] ; moderate within-person variability
A1C	Proportion of hemoglobin that is glycated	2 to 3 months	Reflects 2- to 3-month control Low within-person variability; no patient preparation needed; not affected by acute illness, stress, or recent activity levels	Affected by alterations in red cell turnover; some methods for measurement can give inaccurate results in the presence of certain hemoglobin variants*; requires whole blood; cost
Nontraditional markers of hyperglycemia				
Fructosamine	Total serum protein glycation	2 to 3 weeks	Does not require fasting; highly reliable automated methods are widely available; can be measured in serum or plasma; inexpensive	Affected by changes in serum protein metabolism (mostly albumin), thyroid dysfunction; limited evidence linking to outcomes
Glycated albumin	Proportion of albumin that is glycated	2 to 3 weeks	Does not require fasting; can be measured in serum or plasma	Affected by changes in albumin metabolism, thyroid dysfunction; method performance may vary; availability in the United States is limited; limited evidence linking to outcomes
1,5-AG	Monosaccharide filtered by the kidney and normally reabsorbed; reabsorption inhibited and it is excreted at high levels of glycemia, so serum levels drop	2 to 14 days	Does not require fasting; can be measured in serum or plasma; test is available from major laboratories in the United States; expense	Affected by changes in renal threshold for glucose, dialysis, or stage 4 or 5 kidney disease, pregnancy; limited evidence linking to outcomes

A1C: glycated hemoglobin; 1,5-AG: 1,5-anhydroglucitol.

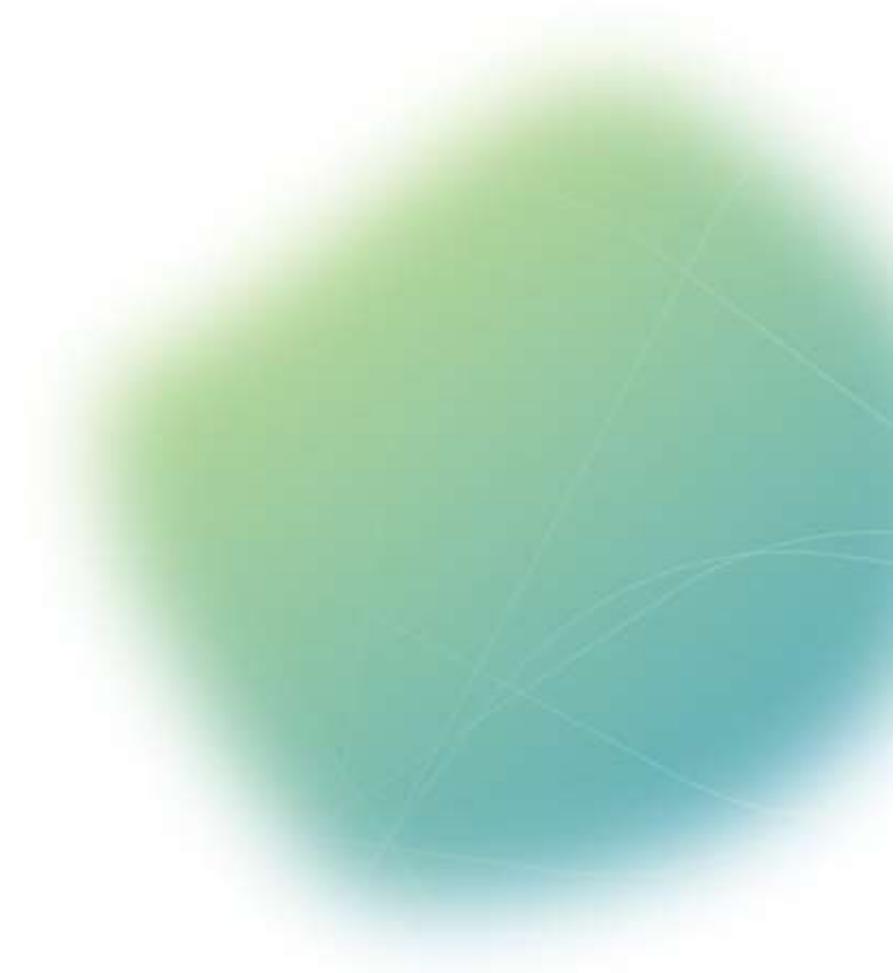
* Refer to www.ngsp.org for comprehensive list.

Reference:

1. Gambino R. Glucose: A simple molecule that is not simple to quantify. *Clin Chem* 2007; 53:2040. Reprinted by permission from Springer: *Current Diabetes Reports*. Parrinello CM, Selvin E. Beyond HbA1C and glucose: The role of nontraditional glycemia markers in diabetes diagnosis, prognosis, and management. *Curr Diab Rep* 2014; 14:548. Copyright © 2014. <https://www.springer.com/journal/11892>.



Caso Clínico





Caso Clinico paziente del 1991: anamnesi remota

- Celiachia dall'età di 18 mesi
- Diabete mellito tipo 1 dall'età di 10 anni
- Difficile situazione sociale con abbandono da parte della madre nell'infanzia
- **ATTENZIONE LA PZ AVEVA APPENA COMPIUTO 16 ANNI**



Caso Clinico paziente del 1991: anamnesi attuale

- si presenta la sera di un giorno prefestivo alle ore 22:00 al PS con la madre
- dolori addominali e nausea con vomito dalle ore 14:00 di pomeriggio
- ha mangiato a mezzogiorno normalmente, la glicemia alle ore 12:00 era 10 mmol/l, ha però dimenticato di fare la correzione con Novorapid
- dopo il pranzo litiga con la sorella e in seguito sente un peso sullo stomaco, poi comincia a vomitare
- vomita durante la giornata circa 10 volte
- la madre le misura la glicemia alle ore 15:15 che era 25, così somministra 10U s.c. di Novorapid, un'ora dopo misurano glicemia 17,5
- alle ore 19:00 quando si fa la Lantus (26U) ha una glicemia di 9,3
- mangia di sera pochissimo riso in bianco e subito dopo vomita
- è agitata tutto il pomeriggio e lamenta tanta sete
- all'arrivo al PS la paziente vomita, è agitata e non collaborante
- nega diarrea, riferisce di essere andata di corpo normale, non crampi addominali, solo dolore allo stomaco



Caso Clinico paziente del 1991: Status

- condizioni generali buone, FC 90 bpm, PA 139/75 mmHg, temperatura 36.2°C, eupnoica, sat O₂ 100% all'aria ambiente
- mucosa orofaringea normale
- addome trattabile, lieve dolenzia diffusa alla palpazione ubiquitaria con punto massimo epigastrico, peristalsi conservata, Murphy negativo, Giordano negativo
- resto dello stato internistico e neurologico senza particolarità



Caso Clinico paziente del 1991: Laboratorio

Analisi	Risultato	Un. Misura	Valori Normali	Validazione
CHIMICA CLINICA:				
Età	17	anni		07.12.08 22:18
↑ Glucosio	18,2	mmol/L	3,1 - 6,4	07.12.08 22:43
Creatinina	74	µmol/L	< 90	07.12.08 22:43
GFR (formula MDRD)	90	ml/min/1....	88 - 180	07.12.08 22:43
Gamma-GT	7	U/L	< 36	07.12.08 22:43
ASAT (GOT)	36	U/L	< 36	07.12.08 22:43
ALAT (GPT)	31	U/L	< 37	07.12.08 22:43
Fosfatasi alcalina	98	U/L	35 - 104	07.12.08 22:43
Sodio	135	mmol/L	135 - 145	07.12.08 22:43
Potassio	4,3	mmol/L	3,5 - 5,0	07.12.08 22:43
↑ Proteina C-reattiva (CRP)	9	mg/L	< 5	07.12.08 22:43
EMATOLOGIA				
↑ Leucociti	14,6	x1000/ul	4,0 - 10,0	07.12.08 22:38
Eritrociti	4,50	x10E6/ul	4,00 - 5,50	07.12.08 22:38
Emoglobina	14,0	g/dl	12,0 - 16,0	07.12.08 22:38
Ematocrito	41,4	%	36,0 - 48,0	07.12.08 22:38
MCV	92	fl	80 - 100	07.12.08 22:38
MCH	31,1	pg	26,0 - 34,0	07.12.08 22:38
MCHC	33,8	g/dl	31,0 - 36,0	07.12.08 22:38
Trombociti	432	x1000/ul	150 - 450	07.12.08 22:38
Reticolociti	1,4	reti/100Ec	0,5 - 2,5	07.12.08 22:38
Reticolociti assoluti	64	x1000/ul	20 - 120	07.12.08 22:38
Reticolociti low	85	%		07.12.08 22:38
Reticolociti medium	14	%		07.12.08 22:38
Reticolociti high	2	%		07.12.08 22:38
Differenziazione manuale:				
Bastoncini	22,5	%	< 25,0	08.12.08 12:04



Caso Clinico paziente del 1991: problematiche

- Nausea e vomito
 - DD gastroenterite, gastrite, su scompenso glicemico

- Diabete mellito tipo 1 con
 - attualmente scompenso glicemico (glicemia all'entrata 18,2 mmol/l)
 - st. d. ricovero per scompenso glicemico nell'ambito di Angina tonsillare 2006 (OSG)



Caso Clinico paziente del 1991: labor 2

Parametro	Misurato	Unit. Misura	Valori Normali	Validazione
URINE				
Getto medio	.			08.12.08 08:14
Peso specifico	1,025		1,015 - 1,025	08.12.08 09:44
pH	5,0		4,5 - 7,5	08.12.08 09:44
Leucociti	neg.		neg.	08.12.08 09:44
Nitriti	neg.		neg.	08.12.08 09:44
Proteine ql	neg.	g/L	neg.	08.12.08 09:44
Glucosio ql	+++ Forte presenza		neg.	08.12.08 09:44
Acetone	+++ Forte presenza		neg.	08.12.08 09:44
Urobilinogeno	normale		neg.	08.12.08 09:44
Bilirubina	neg.		neg.	08.12.08 09:44
Sangue	neg.		neg.	08.12.08 09:44
E.s. micr. del sedimento:	leucociti: 0-2 per camp...			08.12.08 09:44



TABELLA ACIDO-BASE SIGGAARD-ANDERSEN

VALORI DI RIFERIMENTO:

pH: 7.35-7.45

pCO₂: 35-45 mmHg/4.3-6.4 kPa

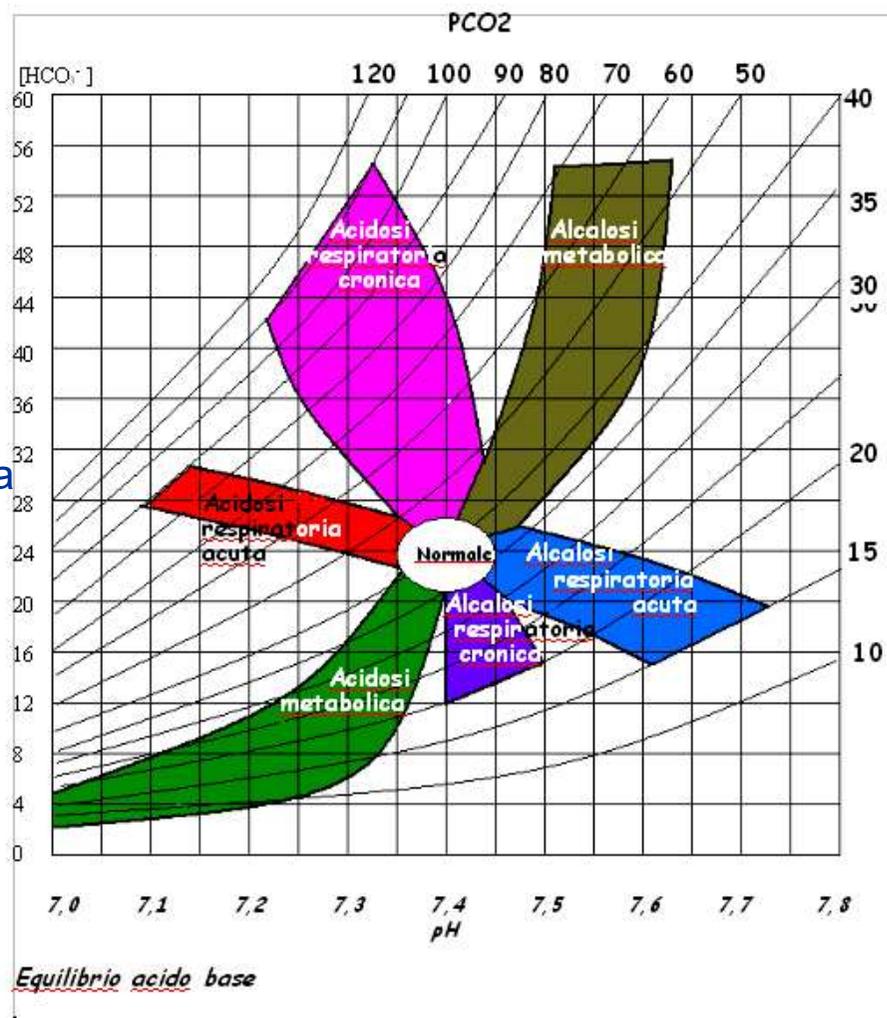
HCO₃⁻: 22-26 mmol/l

Cl⁻: 97-107 mmol/l

Na⁺: 135-145 mmol/l

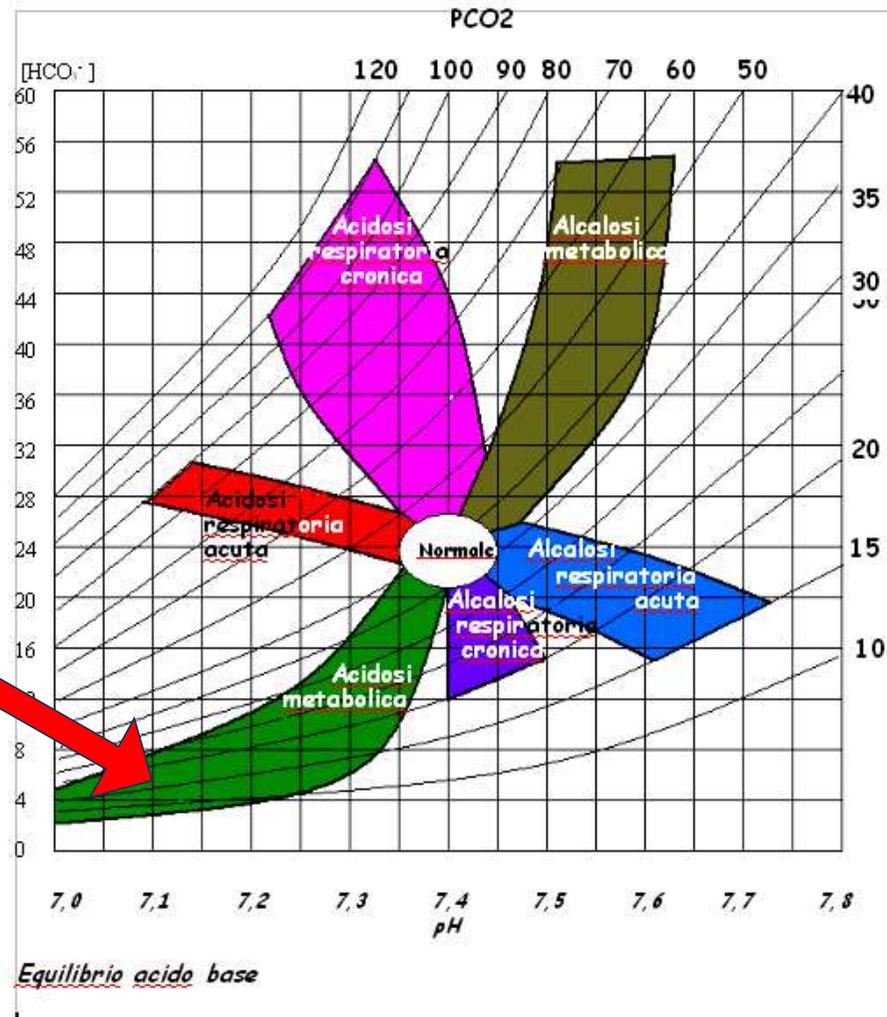
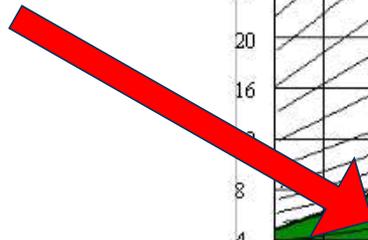
K⁺: 3.50-5.00 mmol/l

ANION GAP: 12±4





CASO CLINICO





Acidosi metabolica

ACIDOSI METABOLICA → **pH < 7.35**

L' **ANION GAP** consente di classificare le cause dell'acidosi metabolica.

$$\mathbf{AG = [Na^+] - [Cl^-] - [HCO_3^-]}$$



pCO₂=16.5 mmHg

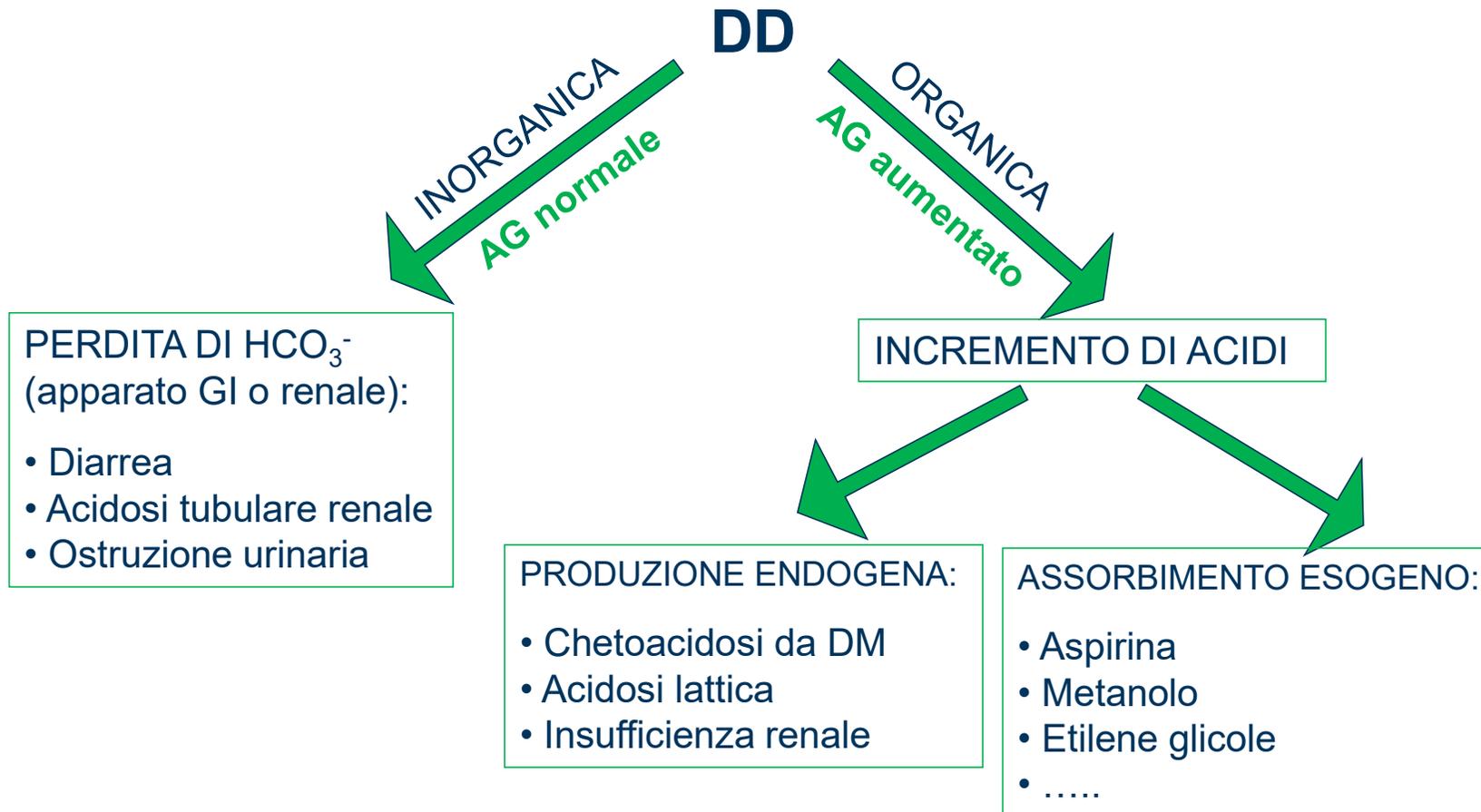
AG = 19.6 ↑

Analisi	Risultato	Un. Misura	Valori Normali	Validazione
Prelievo venoso	p. in rep			08.12.08 10:29
Emogasanalisi LAB:				
↓ pH (Temp.att.)	7,103		7,350 - 7,450	08.12.08 11:09
↓ pCO2 (Temp.att.)	2,03	kPa	4,27 - 6,00	08.12.08 11:09
↓ pO2 (Temp.att.)	10,6	kPa	11,1 - 14,4	08.12.08 11:09
↓ HCO3 attuale	4,6	mmol/L	22,0 - 26,0	08.12.08 11:09
↓ Eccesso di base attuale	-24,6	mmol/L	-2,0 - +2,0	08.12.08 11:09
↓ Saturazione ossigeno att.	92,6	%	95,0 - 99,0	08.12.08 11:09
↑ Glucosio (sangue intero)	20,3	mmol/L	3,9 - 5,9	08.12.08 11:09
↓ Sodio (gas)	134	mmol/L	135 - 145	08.12.08 11:09
↑ Potassio (gas)	5,10	mmol/L	3,50 - 5,00	08.12.08 11:09
↑ Calcio ioniz. (gas)	1,37	mmol/L	1,14 - 1,29	08.12.08 11:09
↑ Cloro (gasometria)	110	mmol/L	97 - 107	08.12.08 11:09
■ Lattato (gas)	0,90	mmol/L	art. 0,50 - 1,60	08.12.08 11:09
■ Emoglobina con emogasan.	14,1	g/dL	12,0 - 16,0	08.12.08 11:09

DIAGNOSI: Chetoacidosi con compensazione respiratoria



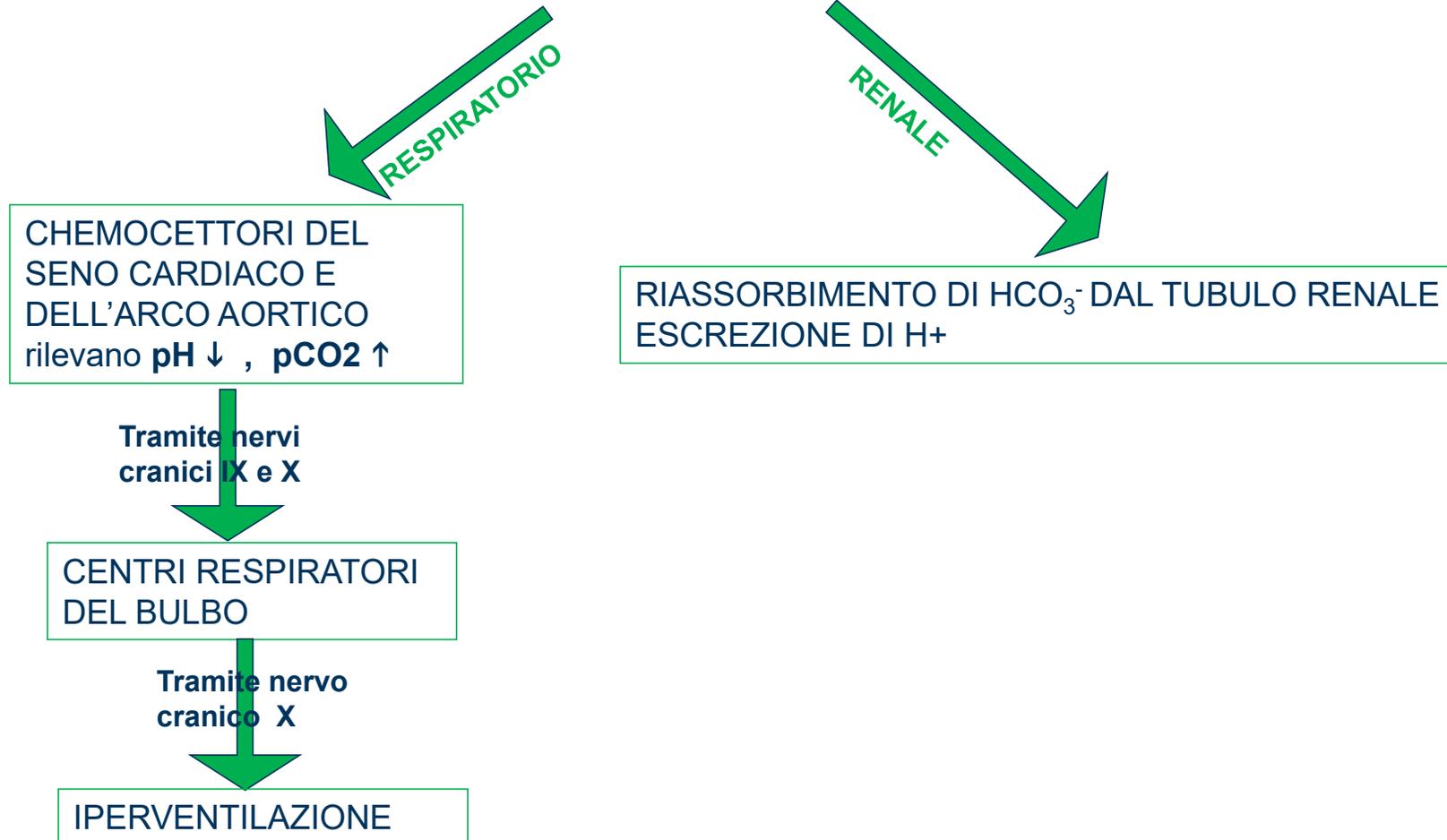
ACIDOSI METABOLICA



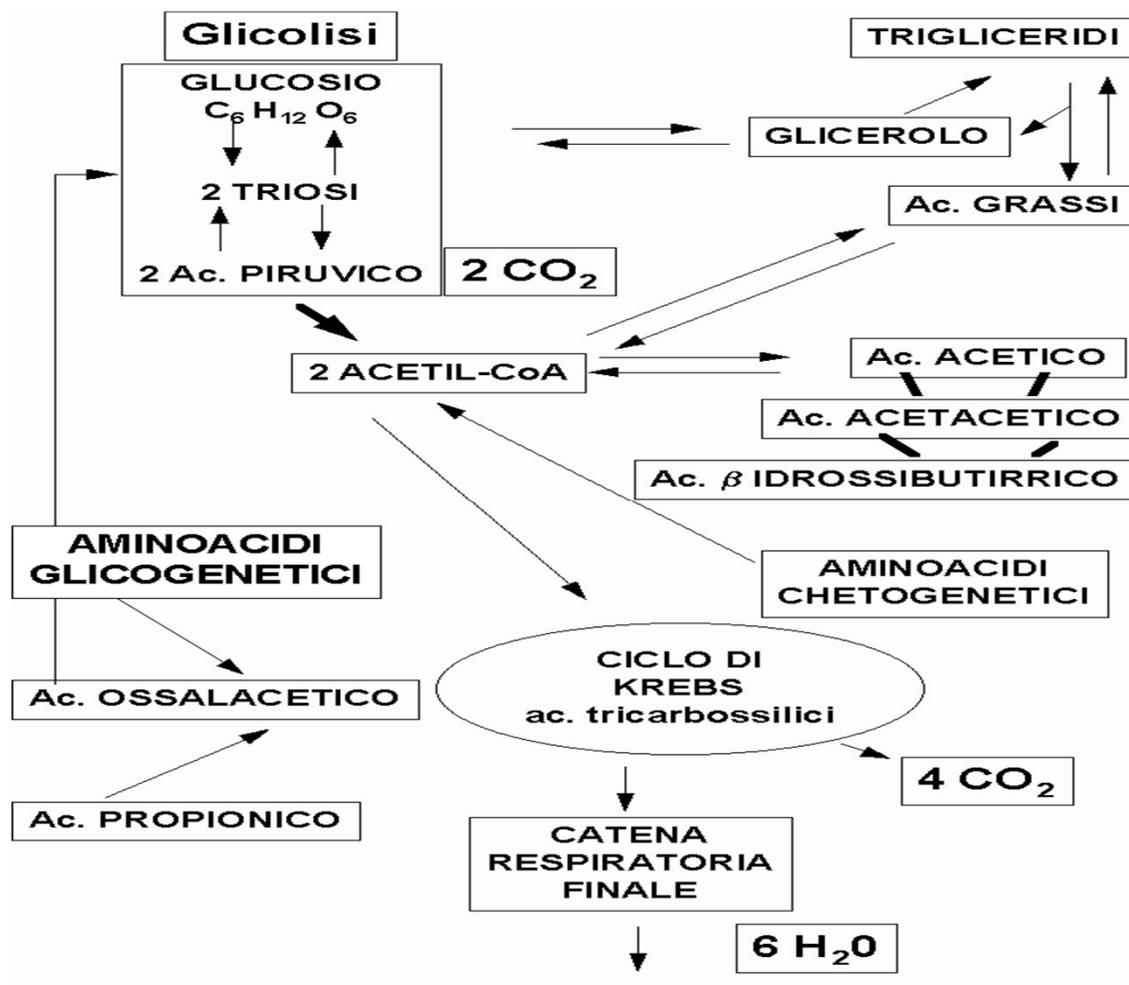


ACIDOSI METABOLICA

MECCANISMI DI COMPENSAZIONE



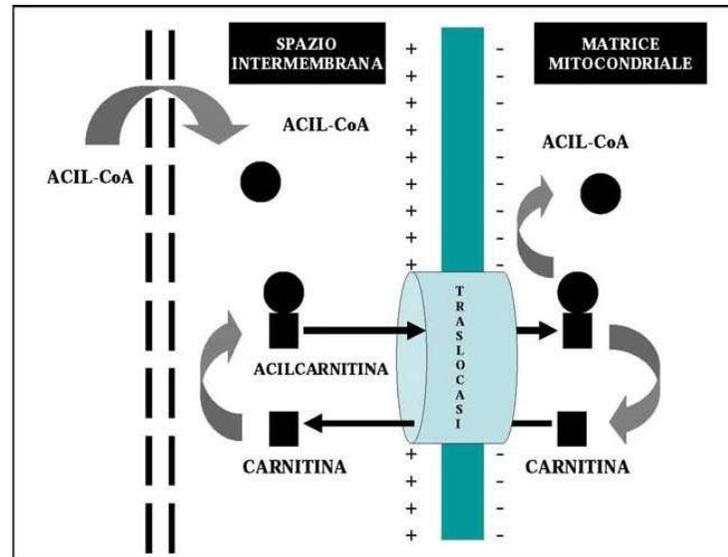
Cenni di biochimica



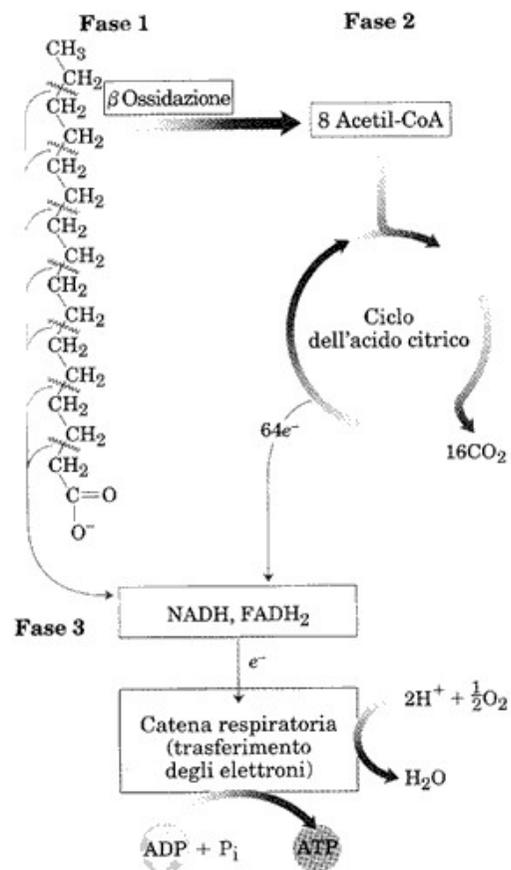


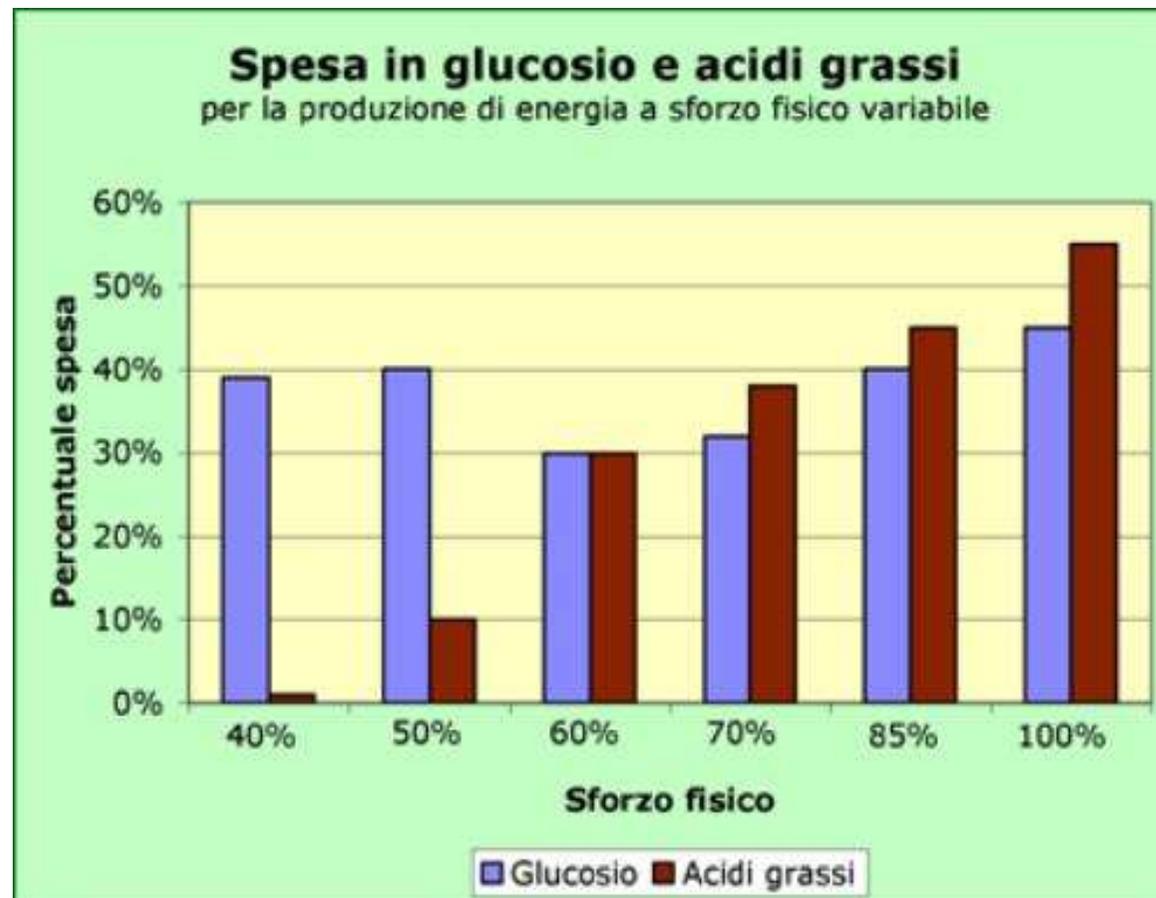
Cenni di biochimica

TRASPORTO DEGLI ACIDI GRASSI ALL'INTERNO DEL MITOCONDRIO



Cenni di biochimica: β -ossidazione degli acidi grassi







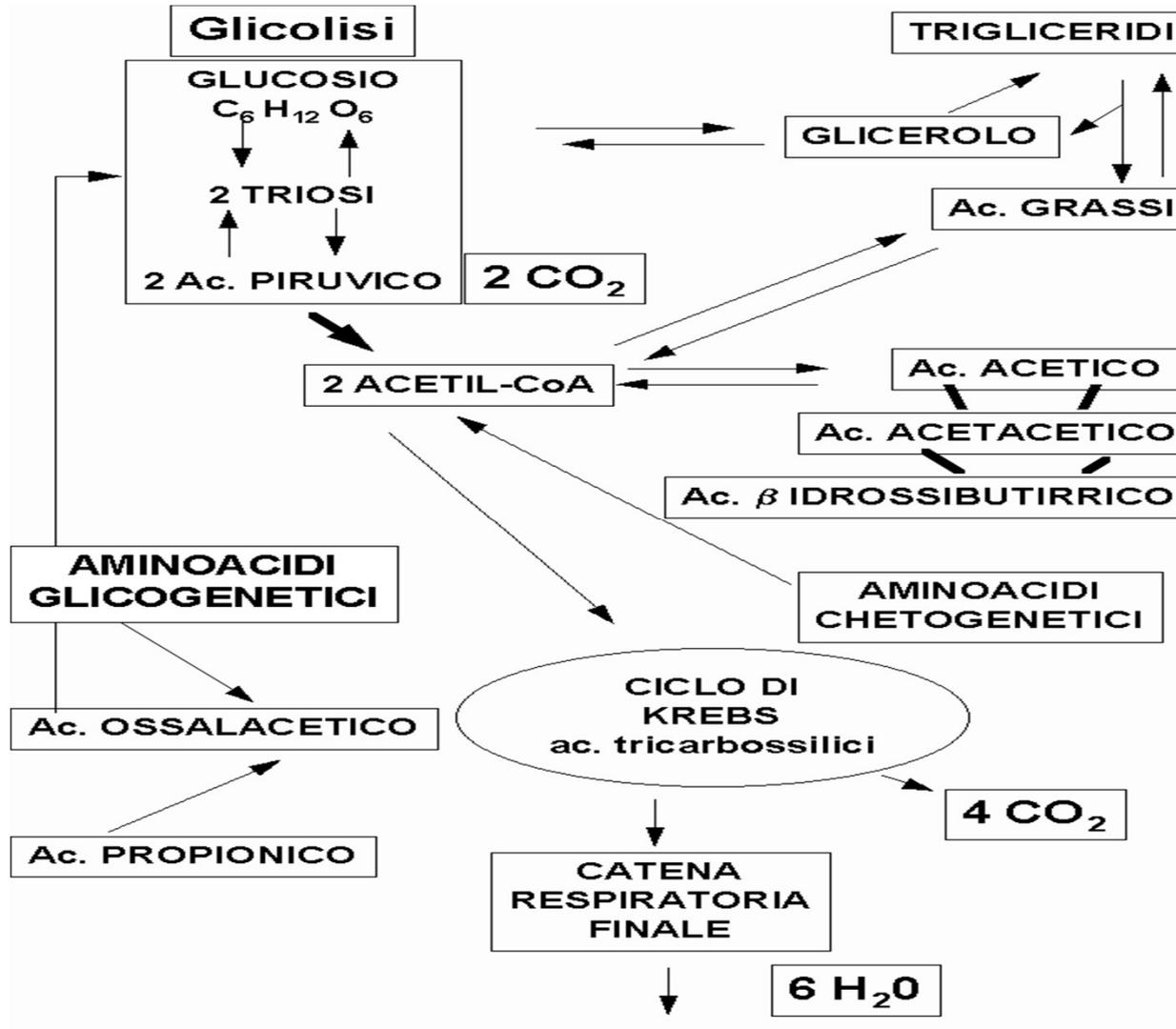
Resa Energetica

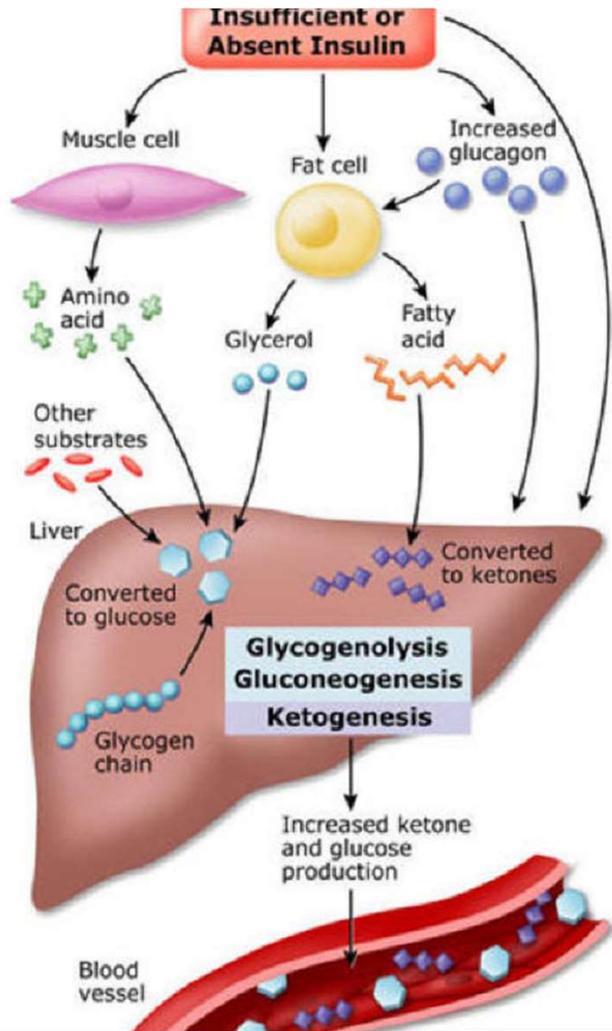
1 molecola GLUCOSIO  38 ATP



1 molecola AC.PALMITICO  129 ATP







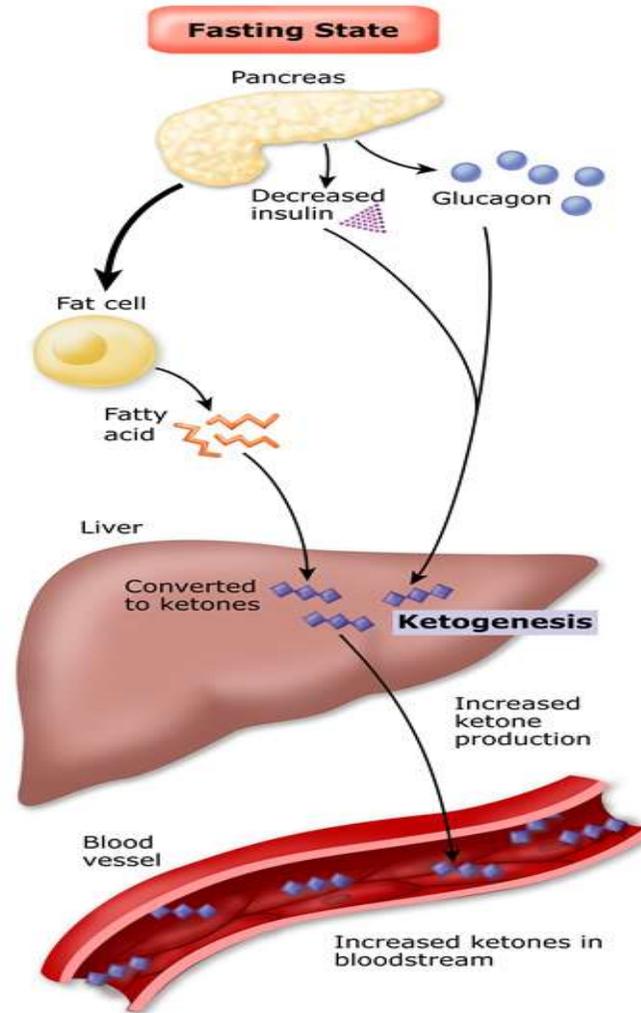


CHETOGENESI



↓ pH

Ketone Production by Liver During Fasting Conditions (Ketosis)



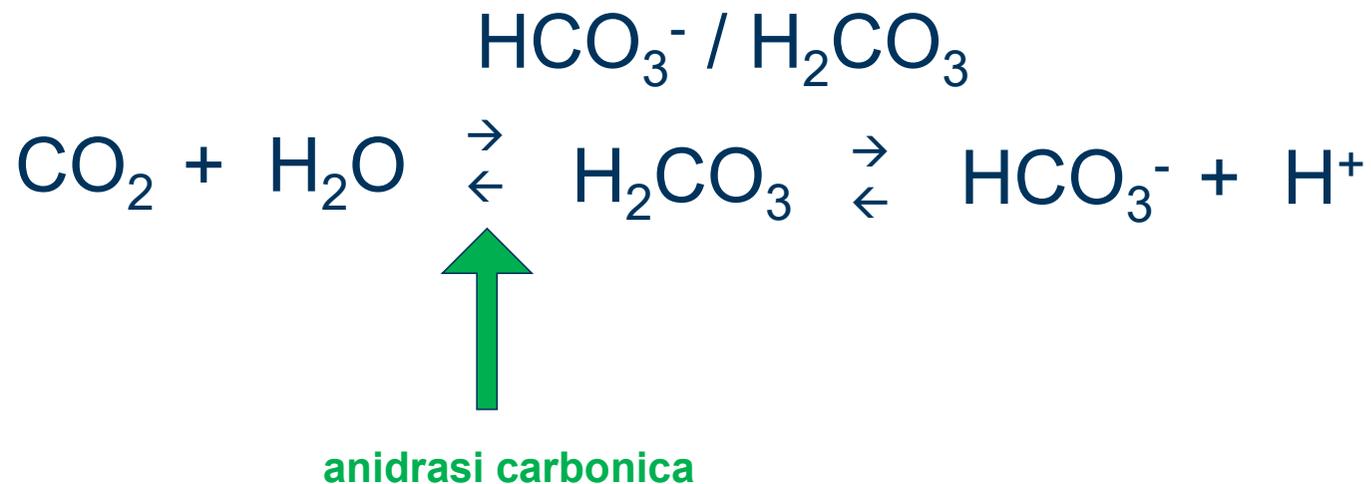


Equilibrio acido-base

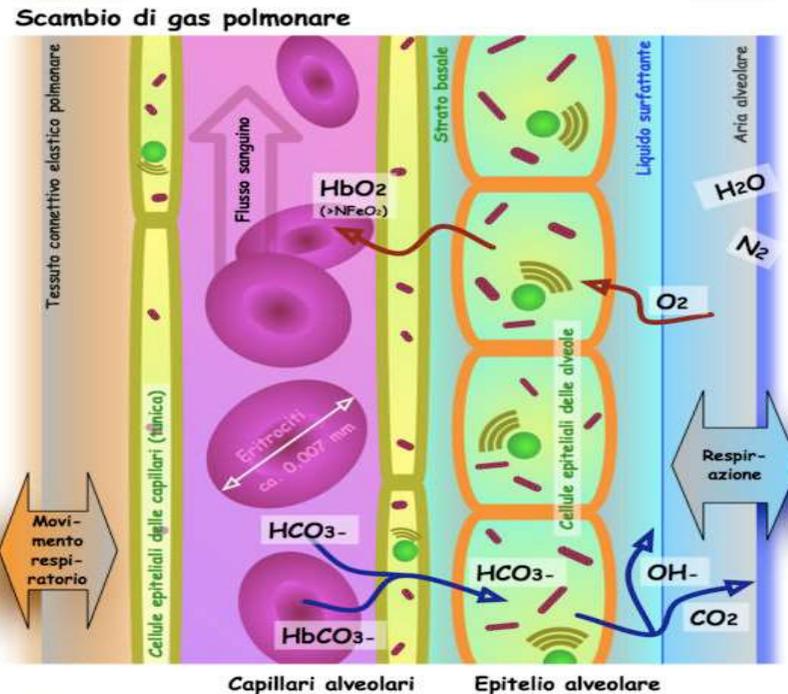
SISTEMA TAMPONE:

Esso è in grado di prevenire sensibili variazioni di pH in una soluzione all'aggiunta di acidi o basi.

Il sistema tampone più efficace del circolo ematico è rappresentato dalla coppia



Equilibrio acido-base



CO₂ è trasportata nel circolo ematico

10% dissolta nel plasma
(responsabile di pCO₂)

70% dissolta nel plasma
sotto forma di HCO₃⁻

20% trasportata nel plasma
come HbCO₂ (carbaminoHb)

Acido-Base

Per i sistemi tampone vale l'equazione di Henderson-Hasselbach:

$$\text{pH} = \text{pKa} + \log \frac{\text{Cs}}{\text{Ca}}$$

Cs: concentrazione del sale prov. da acido debole (nel caso specifico il bicarbonato HCO_3^-)

Ca: concentrazione dell'acido debole (nel caso specifico H_2CO_3 presente sotto forma di CO_2)

pKa (cost. di eq. di H_2CO_3)=6.1

Il mantenimento dell'omeostasi acido-base è funzione del rapporto tra

HCO_3^- e pCO_2



Regolazione renale

Regolazione respiratoria

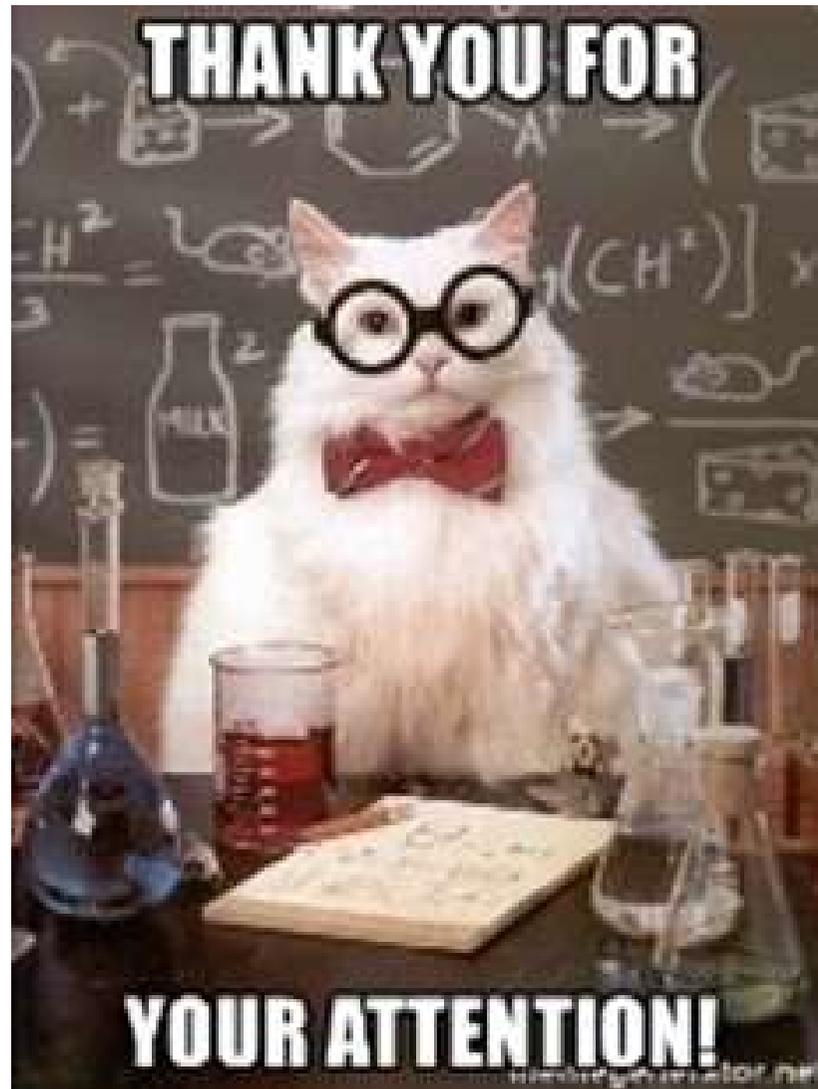
Caso Clinico: interpretazione dei risultati

pCO₂=16.5 mmHg

AG = 19.6 ↑

Analisi	Risultato	Un. Misura	Valori Normali	Validazione
 Prelievo venoso	p. in rep			08.12.08 10:29
Emogasanalisi LAB:				
 pH (Temp.att.)	7,103		7,350 - 7,450	08.12.08 11:09
 pCO ₂ (Temp.att.)	2,03	kPa	4,27 - 6,00	08.12.08 11:09
 pO ₂ (Temp.att.)	10,6	kPa	11,1 - 14,4	08.12.08 11:09
 HCO ₃ attuale	4,6	mmol/L	22,0 - 26,0	08.12.08 11:09
 Eccesso di base attuale	-24,6	mmol/L	-2,0 - +2,0	08.12.08 11:09
 Saturazione ossigeno att.	92,6	%	95,0 - 99,0	08.12.08 11:09
 Glucosio (sangue intero)	20,3	mmol/L	3,9 - 5,9	08.12.08 11:09
 Sodio (gaso)	134	mmol/L	135 - 145	08.12.08 11:09
 Potassio (gaso)	5,10	mmol/L	3,50 - 5,00	08.12.08 11:09
 Calcio ioniz. (gaso)	1,37	mmol/L	1,14 - 1,29	08.12.08 11:09
 Cloro (gasometria)	110	mmol/L	97 - 107	08.12.08 11:09
 Lattato (gaso)	0,90	mmol/L	art. 0,50 - 1,60	08.12.08 11:09
 Emoglobina con emogasan.	14,1	g/dL	12,0 - 16,0	08.12.08 11:09

DIAGNOSI: Chetoacidosi con compensazione respiratoria



Il vostro laboratorio –
oggi e domani

RISCH.CH