

Empfehlung der WHO zur Umstellung auf tierisches Insulin bei fehlender Hypoglykämiewahrnehmung

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WHO Model Formulary English edition 2004 Hormones and other endocrine drugs and contraceptives
Insulins and other antidiabetic drugs

Insulin

Appropriate insulin regimens should be worked out for each patient. Insulin requirements may be affected by variations in lifestyle (diet and exercise)—drugs such as corticosteroids, infections, stress, accidental or surgical trauma, puberty and pregnancy (second and third trimesters) may increase insulin requirements; renal or hepatic impairment and some endocrine disorders (for example Addison disease, hypopituitarism) or coeliac disease may reduce requirements. In pregnancy insulin requirements should be monitored frequently.

If possible patients should monitor their own blood-glucose concentration using blood glucose strips. Since blood-glucose concentration varies throughout the day, patients should aim to maintain blood-glucose concentration between 4 and 10 mmol/litre for most of the day while accepting that on occasions it will be higher; strenuous efforts should be made to prevent blood-glucose concentrations falling below 4 mmol/litre because of the risk of hypoglycaemia. Patients should be advised to look for troughs and peaks of blood glucose and to adjust their insulin dosage only once or twice a week. Insulin doses are determined on an individual basis, by gradually increasing the dose to optimise blood-glucose concentration while avoiding hypoglycaemia.

In the absence of blood-glucose monitoring strips, urine-glucose monitoring strips can be used; in fact this is the method of personal choice for many patients with Type 2 diabetes mellitus. It is less reliable than blood glucose but is easier and costs much less. All patients should monitor either blood- or urine-glucose concentration daily.

Hypoglycaemia is a potential complication in all patients treated with insulin or oral hypoglycaemic agents. The consequences of hypoglycaemia, include confusion, seizures, coma and cerebral infarction.

Loss of warning of hypoglycaemia is common among insulin-treated patients and can be a serious hazard especially for drivers and those in dangerous occupations. Very tight control lowers the blood glucose concentration needed to trigger hypoglycaemic symptoms; increase in the frequency of hypoglycaemic episodes reduces the warning symptoms experienced by patients. Beta-blockers can also blunt hypoglycaemic awareness (and delay recovery). Some patients report loss of hypoglycaemic warning after transfer to human insulin. Clinical studies do not confirm that human insulin decreases hypoglycaemic awareness. **If a patient believes that human insulin is responsible for loss of warning it is reasonable to revert to animal insulin.** To restore warning signs, episodes of hypoglycaemia must be reduced to a minimum; this involves appropriate adjustment of insulin dose and frequency, and suitable timing and quantity of meals and snacks.

Drivers need to be particularly careful to avoid hypoglycaemia. They should check their blood-glucose concentration before driving and, on long journeys, at intervals of approximately two hours; they should ensure that a supply of sugar is always readily available. If hypoglycaemia occurs, the driver should stop the vehicle in a safe place, ingest a suitable sugar supply and wait until recovery is complete (may be 15 minutes or longer). Driving is particularly hazardous when hypoglycaemic awareness is impaired.

For sporadic physical activity, extra carbohydrate may need to be taken to avert hypoglycaemia. Blood glucose should be monitored before, during and after exercise. Hypoglycaemia can develop in patients taking oral antidiabetics, notably the sulfonylureas, but this is uncommon and usually indicates excessive dosage. Sulfonylurea-induced hypoglycaemia may persist for several hours and must be treated in hospital.

Diabetic ketoacidosis is a potentially lethal condition caused by an absolute or relative lack of insulin; it commonly occurs when adjustments to insulin dosage fail to compensate for increases in insulin requirements, for example during severe infection or major intercurrent illness. Diabetes ketoacidosis occurs mostly in patients with Type 1 diabetes mellitus. It also occurs in Type 2 diabetics who have a

temporary need for insulin. Diabetic ketoacidosis is characterized by hyperglycaemia, hyperketonaemia and acidaemia with dehydration and electrolyte disturbances. It is essential that soluble insulin (and intravenous fluids) is readily available for its treatment.

Infections are more likely to develop in patients with poorly controlled diabetes mellitus. These should be treated promptly and effectively to avoid diabetic ketoacidosis.

Surgery . Particular attention should be paid to insulin requirements when a patient with diabetes undergoes surgery that is likely to need an intravenous infusion of insulin for longer than 12 hours. Soluble insulin should be given in intravenous infusion of glucose and potassium chloride (provided the patient is not hyperkalaemic), and adjusted to provide a blood-glucose concentration of between 7 and 12 mmol/litre. The duration of action of intravenous insulin is only a few minutes therefore the infusion must not be stopped unless the patient becomes frankly hypoglycaemic. For non-insulin dependent diabetics, insulin treatment is almost always required during surgery (oral hypoglycaemic drugs having been omitted).

Insulin must be given by injection because it is inactivated by gastrointestinal enzymes. Generally, insulin is given by subcutaneous injection into the upper arms, thighs, buttocks, or abdomen. There may be increased absorption from a limb, if the limb is used in strenuous exercise following the injection. It is essential to use only syringes calibrated for the particular concentration of insulin administered.

There are three main types of insulin preparations, classified according to duration of action after subcutaneous injection:

- those of short duration which have a relatively rapid onset of action, for example soluble or neutral insulin;
- those with an intermediate action, for example isophane insulin and insulin zinc suspension;
- those with a relatively slow onset and long duration of action, for example crystalline insulin zinc suspension.

Soluble insulin , when injected subcutaneously, has a rapid onset of action (after 30–60 minutes), a peak action between 2 and 4 hours, and a duration of action up to 8 hours. Soluble insulin by the intravenous route is reserved for urgent treatment and fine control in serious illness and perioperatively. When injected intravenously, soluble insulin has a very short half-life of only about 5 minutes.

When injected subcutaneously, **intermediate-acting insulins** have an onset of action of approximately 1–2 hours, a maximal effect at 4–12 hours and a duration of action of 16–24 hours. They can be given twice daily together with short-acting insulin or once daily, particularly in elderly patients. They can be mixed with soluble insulin in the syringe, essentially retaining properties of each component.

The duration of action of different insulin preparations varies considerably from one patient to another and this needs to be assessed for every individual. The type of insulin used and its dose and frequency of administration depend on the needs of each patient. For patients with acute onset diabetes mellitus, treatment should be started with soluble insulin given 3 times daily with medium-acting insulin at bedtime. For those less seriously ill, treatment is usually started with a mixture of pre-mixed short- and medium-acting insulins (for example 30% soluble insulin with 70% isophane insulin) given twice daily. The proportions of soluble insulin can be increased in patients with excessive post-prandial hyperglycaemia.

Regimens should be developed by each country.

Quelle:

<http://mednet3.who.int/EMLib/ModelFormulary/modelFormulary.asp>