



12. Older Adults: *Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes—2019*

American Diabetes Association

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The American Diabetes Association (ADA) “Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes” includes ADA’s current clinical practice recommendations and is intended to provide the components of diabetes care, general treatment goals and guidelines, and tools to evaluate quality of care. Members of the ADA Professional Practice Committee, a multidisciplinary expert committee, are responsible for updating the Standards of Care annually, or more frequently as warranted. For a detailed description of ADA standards, statements, and reports, as well as the evidence-grading system for ADA’s clinical practice recommendations, please refer to the Standards of Care Introduction. Readers who wish to comment on the Standards of Care are invited to do so at professional.diabetes.org/SOC.

Recommendations

- 12.1** Consider the assessment of medical, psychological, functional (self-management abilities), and social geriatric domains in older adults to provide a framework to determine targets and therapeutic approaches for diabetes management. **C**
- 12.2** Screening for geriatric syndromes may be appropriate in older adults experiencing limitations in their basic and instrumental activities of daily living as they may affect diabetes self-management and be related to health-related quality of life. **C**

Diabetes is an important health condition for the aging population; approximately one-quarter of people over the age of 65 years have diabetes and one-half of older adults have prediabetes (1), and this proportion is expected to increase rapidly in the coming decades. Older individuals with diabetes have higher rates of premature death, functional disability, accelerated muscle loss, and coexisting illnesses, such as hypertension, coronary heart disease, and stroke, than those without diabetes. Older adults with diabetes also are at greater risk than other older adults for several common geriatric syndromes, such as polypharmacy, cognitive impairment, urinary incontinence, injurious falls, and persistent pain. These conditions may impact older adults’ diabetes self-management abilities (2). See Section 4 “Comprehensive Medical Evaluation and Assessment of Comorbidities” for comorbidities to consider when caring for older adult patients with diabetes.

Screening for diabetes complications in older adults should be individualized and periodically revisited, as the results of screening tests may impact therapeutic approaches and targets (2–4). Older adults are at increased risk for depression and should therefore be screened and treated accordingly (5). Diabetes management may require assessment of medical, psychological, functional, and social domains. This may provide a framework to determine targets and therapeutic approaches, including whether referral for diabetes self-management education is appropriate (when complicating factors arise or when transitions in care occur) or whether the current

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regimen is too complex for the patient's self-management ability. Particular attention should be paid to complications that can develop over short periods of time and/or would significantly impair functional status, such as visual and lower-extremity complications. Please refer to the American Diabetes Association (ADA) consensus report "Diabetes in Older Adults" for details (2).

NEUROCOGNITIVE FUNCTION

Recommendation

12.3 Screening for early detection of mild cognitive impairment or dementia and depression is indicated for adults 65 years of age or older at the initial visit and annually as appropriate. **B**

Older adults with diabetes are at higher risk of cognitive decline and institutionalization (6,7). The presentation of cognitive impairment ranges from subtle executive dysfunction to memory loss and overt dementia. People with diabetes have higher incidences of all-cause dementia, Alzheimer disease, and vascular dementia than people with normal glucose tolerance (8). The effects of hyperglycemia and hyperinsulinemia on the brain are areas of intense research. Clinical trials of specific interventions—including cholinesterase inhibitors and glutamatergic antagonists—have not shown positive therapeutic benefit in maintaining or significantly improving cognitive function or in preventing cognitive decline (9). Pilot studies in patients with mild cognitive impairment evaluating the potential benefits of intranasal insulin therapy and metformin therapy provide insights for future clinical trials and mechanistic studies (10–12).

The presence of cognitive impairment can make it challenging for clinicians to help their patients reach individualized glycemic, blood pressure, and lipid targets. Cognitive dysfunction makes it difficult for patients to perform complex self-care tasks, such as glucose monitoring and adjusting insulin doses. It also hinders their ability to appropriately maintain the timing and content of diet. When clinicians are managing patients with cognitive dysfunction, it is critical to simplify drug regimens and to involve caregivers in all aspects of care.

Poor glycemic control is associated with a decline in cognitive function (13), and longer duration of diabetes is associated with worsening cognitive function. There are ongoing studies evaluating whether preventing or delaying diabetes onset may help to maintain cognitive function in older adults. However, studies examining the effects of intensive glycemic and blood pressure control to achieve specific targets have not demonstrated a reduction in brain function decline (14,15).

Older adults with diabetes should be carefully screened and monitored for cognitive impairment (2) (see **Table 4.1** for depression and cognitive screening recommendations). Several organizations have released simple assessment tools, such as the Mini-Mental State Examination (16) and the Montreal Cognitive Assessment (17), which may help to identify patients requiring neuropsychological evaluation, particularly those in whom dementia is suspected (i.e., experiencing memory loss and decline in their basic and instrumental activities of daily living). Annual screening for cognitive impairment is indicated for adults 65 years of age or older for early detection of mild cognitive impairment or dementia (4,18). Screening for cognitive impairment should additionally be considered in the presence of a significant decline in clinical status, inclusive of increased difficulty with self-care activities, such as errors in calculating insulin dose, difficulty counting carbohydrates, skipping meals, skipping insulin doses, and difficulty recognizing, preventing, or treating hypoglycemia. People who screen positive for cognitive impairment should receive diagnostic assessment as appropriate, including referral to a behavioral health provider for formal cognitive/neuropsychological evaluation (19).

HYPOGLYCEMIA

Recommendation

12.4 Hypoglycemia should be avoided in older adults with diabetes. It should be assessed and managed by adjusting glycemic targets and pharmacologic interventions. **B**

Older adults are at higher risk of hypoglycemia for many reasons, including

insulin deficiency necessitating insulin therapy and progressive renal insufficiency. In addition, older adults tend to have higher rates of unidentified cognitive deficits, causing difficulty in complex self-care activities (e.g., glucose monitoring, adjusting insulin doses, etc.). These cognitive deficits have been associated with increased risk of hypoglycemia, and, conversely, severe hypoglycemia has been linked to increased risk of dementia (20). Therefore, it is important to routinely screen older adults for cognitive dysfunction and discuss findings with the patients and their caregivers.

Hypoglycemic events should be diligently monitored and avoided, whereas glycemic targets and pharmacologic interventions may need to be adjusted to accommodate for the changing needs of the older adult (2). Of note, it is important to prevent hypoglycemia to reduce the risk of cognitive decline (20) and other major adverse outcomes. Intensive glucose control in the Action to Control Cardiovascular Risk in Diabetes-Memory in Diabetes study (ACCORD MIND) was not found to benefit brain structure or cognitive function during follow-up (14). In the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT), no significant long-term declines in cognitive function were observed, despite participants' relatively high rates of recurrent severe hypoglycemia (21). To achieve the appropriate balance between glycemic control and risk for hypoglycemia, it is important to carefully assess and reassess patients' risk for worsening of glycemic control and functional decline.

TREATMENT GOALS

Recommendations

- 12.5** Older adults who are otherwise healthy with few coexisting chronic illnesses and intact cognitive function and functional status should have lower glycemic goals (such as A1C <7.5% [58 mmol/mol]), while those with multiple coexisting chronic illnesses, cognitive impairment, or functional dependence should have less stringent glycemic goals (such as A1C <8.0–8.5% [64–69 mmol/mol]). **C**
- 12.6** Glycemic goals for some older adults might reasonably be

relaxed as part of individualized care, but hyperglycemia leading to symptoms or risk of acute hyperglycemia complications should be avoided in all patients. **C**

12.7 Screening for diabetes complications should be individualized in older adults. Particular attention should be paid to complications that would lead to functional impairment. **C**

12.8 Treatment of hypertension to individualized target levels is indicated in most older adults. **C**

12.9 Treatment of other cardiovascular risk factors should be individualized in older adults considering the time frame of benefit. Lipid-lowering therapy and aspirin therapy may benefit those with life expectancies at least equal to the time frame of primary prevention or secondary intervention trials. **E**

The care of older adults with diabetes is complicated by their clinical, cognitive, and functional heterogeneity. Some older individuals may have developed diabetes years earlier and have significant complications, others are newly diagnosed and may have had years of undiagnosed diabetes with resultant complications, and still other older adults may have truly recent-onset disease with few or no complications (22). Some older adults with diabetes have other underlying chronic conditions, substantial diabetes-related comorbidity, limited cognitive or physical functioning, or frailty (23,24). Other older individuals with diabetes have little comorbidity and are active. Life expectancies are highly variable but are often longer than clinicians realize. Providers caring for older adults with diabetes must take this heterogeneity into consideration when setting and prioritizing treatment goals (25) (**Table 12.1**). In addition, older adults with diabetes should be assessed for disease treatment and self-management knowledge, health literacy, and mathematical literacy (numeracy) at the onset of treatment. See **Fig. 6.1** for patient- and disease-related factors to consider when determining individualized glycemic targets.

A1C is used as the standard biomarker for glycemic control in all patients with

diabetes but may have limitations in patients who have medical conditions that impact red blood cell turnover (see Section 2 “Classification and Diagnosis of Diabetes” for additional details on the limitations of A1C) (26). Many conditions associated with increased red blood cell turnover, such as hemodialysis, recent blood loss or transfusion, or erythropoietin therapy, are commonly seen in older adults with functional limitations, which can falsely increase or decrease A1C. In these instances, plasma blood glucose and fingerstick readings should be used for goal setting (**Table 12.1**).

Healthy Patients With Good Functional Status

There are few long-term studies in older adults demonstrating the benefits of intensive glycemic, blood pressure, and lipid control. Patients who can be expected to live long enough to reap the benefits of long-term intensive diabetes management, who have good cognitive and physical function, and who choose to do so via shared decision making may be treated using therapeutic interventions and goals similar to those for younger adults with diabetes (**Table 12.1**).

As with all patients with diabetes, diabetes self-management education and ongoing diabetes self-management support are vital components of diabetes care for older adults and their caregivers. Self-management knowledge and skills should be reassessed when regimen changes are made or an individual's functional abilities diminish. In addition, declining or impaired ability to perform diabetes self-care behaviors may be an indication for referral of older adults with diabetes for cognitive and physical functional assessment using age-normalized evaluation tools (3,19).

Patients With Complications and Reduced Functionality

For patients with advanced diabetes complications, life-limiting comorbid illnesses, or substantial cognitive or functional impairments, it is reasonable to set less intensive glycemic goals (**Table 12.1**). Factors to consider in individualizing glycemic goals are outlined in **Fig. 6.1**. These patients are less likely to benefit from reducing the risk of microvascular complications and more likely to suffer serious adverse effects from hypoglycemia. However, patients

with poorly controlled diabetes may be subject to acute complications of diabetes, including dehydration, poor wound healing, and hyperglycemic hyperosmolar coma. Glycemic goals at a minimum should avoid these consequences.

Vulnerable Patients at the End of Life

For patients receiving palliative care and end-of-life care, the focus should be to avoid symptoms and complications from glycemic management. Thus, when organ failure develops, several agents will have to be downtitrated or discontinued. For the dying patient, most agents for type 2 diabetes may be removed (27). There is, however, no consensus for the management of type 1 diabetes in this scenario (28). See **END-OF-LIFE CARE** below, for additional information.

Beyond Glycemic Control

Although hyperglycemia control may be important in older individuals with diabetes, greater reductions in morbidity and mortality are likely to result from control of other cardiovascular risk factors rather than from tight glycemic control alone. There is strong evidence from clinical trials of the value of treating hypertension in older adults (29,30). There is less evidence for lipid-lowering therapy and aspirin therapy, although the benefits of these interventions for primary prevention and secondary intervention are likely to apply to older adults whose life expectancies equal or exceed the time frames of the clinical trials.

LIFESTYLE MANAGEMENT

Recommendation

12.10 Optimal nutrition and protein intake is recommended for older adults; regular exercise, including aerobic activity and resistance training, should be encouraged in all older adults who can safely engage in such activities. **B**

Diabetes in the aging population is associated with reduced muscle strength, poor muscle quality, and accelerated loss of muscle mass, resulting in sarcopenia. Diabetes is also recognized as an independent risk factor for frailty. Frailty is characterized by decline in physical performance and an increased risk of poor

Table 12.1—Framework for considering treatment goals for glycemia, blood pressure, and dyslipidemia in older adults with diabetes (2)

Patient characteristics/ health status	Rationale	Reasonable A1C goal†	Fasting or preprandial glucose	Bedtime glucose	Blood pressure	Lipids
Healthy (few coexisting chronic illnesses, intact cognitive and functional status)	Longer remaining life expectancy	<7.5% (58 mmol/mol)	90–130 mg/dL (5.0–7.2 mmol/L)	90–150 mg/dL (5.0–8.3 mmol/L)	<140/90 mmHg	Statin unless contraindicated or not tolerated
Complex/intermediate (multiple coexisting chronic illnesses* or 2+ instrumental ADL impairments or mild-to-moderate cognitive impairment)	Intermediate remaining life expectancy, high treatment burden, hypoglycemia vulnerability, fall risk	<8.0% (64 mmol/mol)	90–150 mg/dL (5.0–8.3 mmol/L)	100–180 mg/dL (5.6–10.0 mmol/L)	<140/90 mmHg	Statin unless contraindicated or not tolerated
Very complex/poor health (LTC or end-stage chronic illnesses** or moderate-to-severe cognitive impairment or 2+ ADL dependencies)	Limited remaining life expectancy makes benefit uncertain	<8.5%† (69 mmol/mol)	100–180 mg/dL (5.6–10.0 mmol/L)	110–200 mg/dL (6.1–11.1 mmol/L)	<150/90 mmHg	Consider likelihood of benefit with statin (secondary prevention more so than primary)

This represents a consensus framework for considering treatment goals for glycemia, blood pressure, and dyslipidemia in older adults with diabetes. The patient characteristic categories are general concepts. Not every patient will clearly fall into a particular category. Consideration of patient and caregiver preferences is an important aspect of treatment individualization. Additionally, a patient's health status and preferences may change over time. †A lower A1C goal may be set for an individual if achievable without recurrent or severe hypoglycemia or undue treatment burden. *Coexisting chronic illnesses are conditions serious enough to require medications or lifestyle management and may include arthritis, cancer, congestive heart failure, depression, emphysema, falls, hypertension, incontinence, stage 3 or worse chronic kidney disease, myocardial infarction, and stroke. "Multiple" means at least three, but many patients may have five or more (54). **The presence of a single end-stage chronic illness, such as stage 3–4 congestive heart failure or oxygen-dependent lung disease, chronic kidney disease requiring dialysis, or uncontrolled metastatic cancer, may cause significant symptoms or impairment of functional status and significantly reduce life expectancy. †A1C of 8.5% (69 mmol/mol) equates to an unmet average glucose of ~200 mg/dL (11.1 mmol/L). Looser A1C targets above 8.5% (69 mmol/mol) are not recommended as they may expose patients to more frequent higher glucose values and the acute risks from glycosuria, dehydration, hyperglycemic hyperosmolar syndrome, and poor wound healing. ADL, activities of daily living.

health outcomes due to physiologic vulnerability to clinical, functional, or psychosocial stressors. Inadequate nutritional intake, particularly inadequate protein intake, can increase the risk of sarcopenia and frailty in older adults. Management of frailty in diabetes includes optimal nutrition with adequate protein intake combined with an exercise program that includes aerobic and resistance training (31,32).

PHARMACOLOGIC THERAPY

Recommendations

- 12.11** In older adults at increased risk of hypoglycemia, medication classes with low risk of hypoglycemia are preferred. **B**
- 12.12** Overtreatment of diabetes is common in older adults and should be avoided. **B**
- 12.13** Deintensification (or simplification) of complex regimens is recommended to reduce the risk of hypoglycemia, if it can be achieved within the individualized A1C target. **B**

Special care is required in prescribing and monitoring pharmacologic therapies in older adults (33). See **Fig. 9.1** for general recommendations regarding antihyperglycemia treatment for adults with type 2 diabetes and **Table 9.1** for patient- and drug-specific factors to consider when selecting antihyperglycemia agents. Cost may be an important consideration, especially as older adults tend to be on many medications. See **Tables 9.2** and **9.3** for median monthly cost of noninsulin glucose-lowering agents and insulin in the U.S., respectively. It is important to match complexity of the treatment regimen to the self-management ability of an older patient. Many older adults with diabetes struggle to maintain the frequent blood glucose testing and insulin injection regimens they previously followed, perhaps for many decades, as they develop medical conditions that may impair their ability to follow their regimen safely. Individualized glycemic goals should be established (**Fig. 6.1**) and periodically adjusted based on coexisting chronic illnesses, cognitive function, and functional status (2). Tight glycemic control in older adults with multiple medical conditions is considered overtreatment

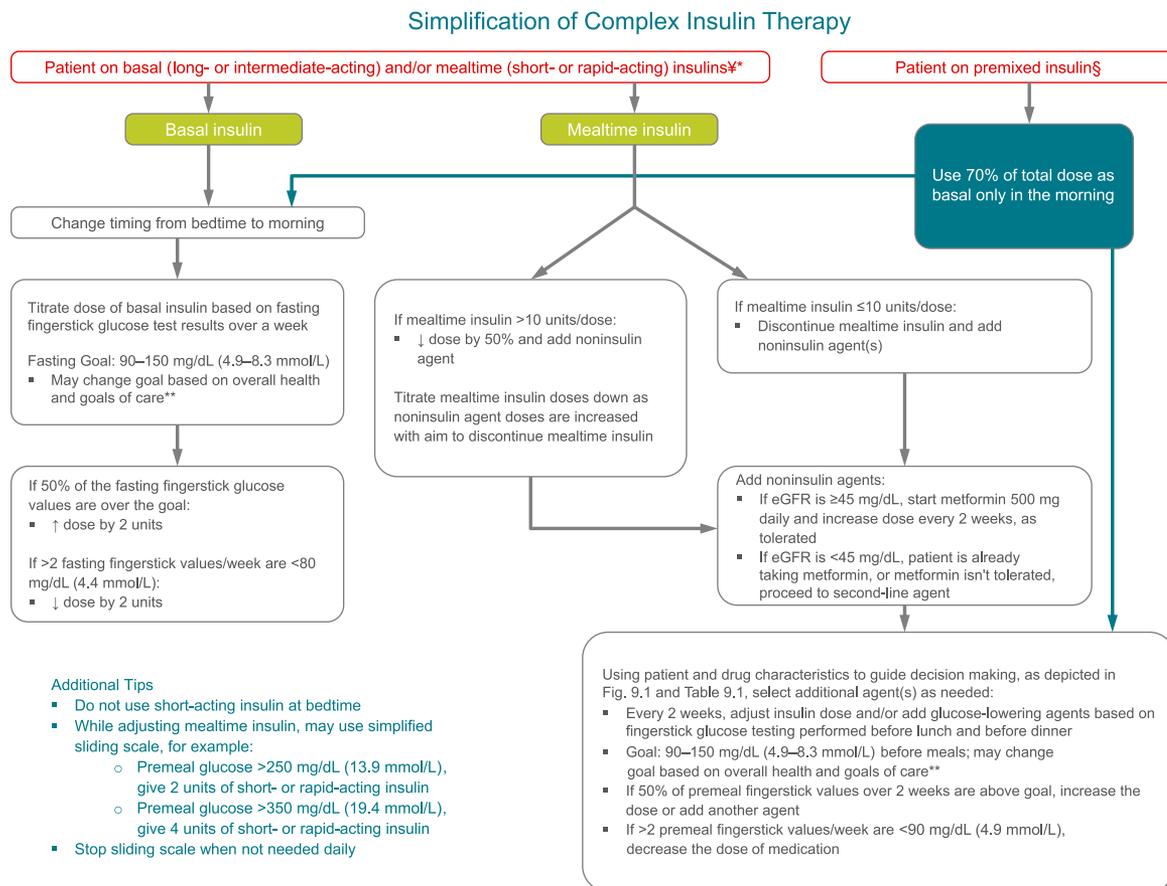


Fig. 12.1—Algorithm to simplify insulin regimen for older patients with type 2 diabetes. eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate. *Basal insulins: glargine U-100 and U-300, detemir, degludec, and human NPH. **See Table 12.1. †Mealtime insulins: short-acting (regular human insulin) or rapid-acting (lispro, aspart, and glulisine). ‡Premixed insulins: 70/30, 75/25, and 50/50 products. Adapted with permission from Munshi and colleagues (39,55,56).

and is associated with an increased risk of hypoglycemia; unfortunately, overtreatment is common in clinical practice (34–38). Deintensification of regimens in patients taking noninsulin glucose-lowering medications can be achieved by either lowering the dose or discontinuing some medications, so long as the individualized A1C target is maintained. When patients are found to have an insulin regimen with complexity beyond their self-management abilities, lowering the dose of insulin may not be adequate. Simplification of the insulin regimen to match an individual's self-management abilities in these situations has been shown to reduce hypoglycemia and disease-related distress without worsening glycemic control (39–41). **Figure 12.1** depicts an algorithm that can be used to simplify the insulin regimen (39). **Table 12.2** provides examples of and rationale for situations where deintensification and/or insulin regimen

simplification may be appropriate in older adults.

Metformin

Metformin is the first-line agent for older adults with type 2 diabetes. Recent studies have indicated that it may be used safely in patients with estimated glomerular filtration rate ≥ 30 mL/min/1.73 m² (42). However, it is contraindicated in patients with advanced renal insufficiency and should be used with caution in patients with impaired hepatic function or congestive heart failure due to the increased risk of lactic acidosis. Metformin may be temporarily discontinued before procedures, during hospitalizations, and when acute illness may compromise renal or liver function.

Thiazolidinediones

Thiazolidinediones, if used at all, should be used very cautiously in those with, or at risk for, congestive heart failure and those at risk for falls or fractures.

Insulin Secretagogues

Sulfonylureas and other insulin secretagogues are associated with hypoglycemia and should be used with caution. If used, shorter-duration sulfonylureas, such as glipizide, are preferred. Glyburide is a longer-duration sulfonylurea and contraindicated in older adults (43).

Incretin-Based Therapies

Oral dipeptidyl peptidase 4 (DPP-4) inhibitors have few side effects and minimal hypoglycemia, but their costs may be a barrier to some older patients. DPP-4 inhibitors do not increase major adverse cardiovascular outcomes (44).

Glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1) receptor agonists are injectable agents, which require visual, motor, and cognitive skills for appropriate administration. They may be associated with nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Also, weight loss with GLP-1 receptor agonists may not be desirable in some older

Table 12.2—Considerations for treatment regimen simplification and deintensification/deprescribing in older adults with diabetes (39,55)

Patient characteristics/ health status	Reasonable A1C/ treatment goal	Rationale/considerations	When may regimen simplification be required?	When may treatment deintensification/ deprescribing be required?
Healthy (few coexisting chronic illnesses, intact cognitive and functional status)	A1C <7.5% (58 mmol/mol)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Patients can generally perform complex tasks to maintain good glycemic control when health is stable • During acute illness, patients may be more at risk for administration or dosing errors that can result in hypoglycemia, falls, fractures, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If severe or recurrent hypoglycemia occurs in patients on insulin therapy (even if A1C is appropriate) • If wide glucose excursions are observed • If cognitive or functional decline occurs following acute illness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If severe or recurrent hypoglycemia occurs in patients on noninsulin therapies with high risk of hypoglycemia (even if A1C is appropriate) • If wide glucose excursions are observed • In the presence of polypharmacy
Complex/intermediate (multiple coexisting chronic illnesses or 2+ instrumental ADL impairments or mild-to-moderate cognitive impairment)	A1C <8.0% (64 mmol/mol)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comorbidities may affect self-management abilities and capacity to avoid hypoglycemia • Long-acting medication formulations may decrease pill burden and complexity of medication regimen 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If severe or recurrent hypoglycemia occurs in patients on insulin therapy (even if A1C is appropriate) • If unable to manage complexity of an insulin regimen • If there is a significant change in social circumstances, such as loss of caregiver, change in living situation, or financial difficulties 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If severe or recurrent hypoglycemia occurs in patients on noninsulin therapies with high risk of hypoglycemia (even if A1C is appropriate) • If wide glucose excursions are observed • In the presence of polypharmacy
Community-dwelling patients receiving care in a skilled nursing facility for short-term rehabilitation	Avoid reliance on A1C Glucose target: 100–200 mg/dL (5.55–11.1 mmol/L)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Glycemic control is important for recovery, wound healing, hydration, and avoidance of infections • Patients recovering from illness may not have returned to baseline cognitive function at the time of discharge • Consider the type of support the patient will receive at home 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If treatment regimen increased in complexity during hospitalization, it is reasonable, in many cases, to reinstate the prehospitalization medication regimen during the rehabilitation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If the hospitalization for acute illness resulted in weight loss, anorexia, short-term cognitive decline, and/or loss of physical functioning
Very complex/poor health (long-term care or end-stage chronic illnesses or moderate-to-severe cognitive impairment or 2+ ADL dependencies)	A1C <8.5% (69 mmol/L) [†]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No benefits of tight glycemic control in this population • Hypoglycemia should be avoided • Most important outcomes are maintenance of cognitive and functional status 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If on an insulin regimen and the patient would like to decrease the number of injections and fingerstick blood glucose monitoring events each day • If the patient has an inconsistent eating pattern 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If on noninsulin agents with a high hypoglycemia risk in the context of cognitive dysfunction, depression, anorexia, or inconsistent eating pattern • If taking any medications without clear benefits
Patients at end of life	Avoid hypoglycemia and symptomatic hyperglycemia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goal is to provide comfort and avoid tasks or interventions that cause pain or discomfort • Caregivers are important in providing medical care and maintaining quality of life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If there is pain or discomfort caused by treatment (e.g., injections or fingersticks) • If there is excessive caregiver stress due to treatment complexity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If taking any medications without clear benefits in improving symptoms and/or comfort

Treatment regimen simplification refers to changing strategy to decrease the complexity of a medication regimen, e.g., fewer administration times, fewer fingerstick readings, decreasing the need for calculations (such as sliding scale insulin calculations or insulin-carbohydrate ratio calculations). Deintensification/deprescribing refers to decreasing the dose or frequency of administration of a treatment or discontinuing a treatment altogether. ADL, activities of daily living. [†]Consider adjustment of A1C goal if the patient has a condition that may interfere with erythrocyte life span/turnover.

patients, particularly those with cachexia. In patients with established atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease, GLP-1 receptor agonists have shown cardiovascular benefits (44).

Sodium–Glucose Cotransporter

2 Inhibitors

Sodium–glucose cotransporter 2 inhibitors are administered orally, which may be convenient for older adults with diabetes; however, long-term experience in this population is limited despite the initial efficacy and safety data reported with these agents. In patients with established atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease, these agents have shown cardiovascular benefits (44).

Insulin Therapy

The use of insulin therapy requires that patients or their caregivers have good visual and motor skills and cognitive ability. Insulin therapy relies on the ability of the older patient to administer insulin on their own or with the assistance of a caregiver. Insulin doses should be titrated to meet individualized glycemic targets and to avoid hypoglycemia.

Once-daily basal insulin injection therapy is associated with minimal side effects and may be a reasonable option in many older patients. Multiple daily injections of insulin may be too complex for the older patient with advanced diabetes complications, life-limiting coexisting chronic illnesses, or limited functional status. **Figure 12.1** provides a potential approach to insulin regimen simplification.

Other Factors to Consider

The needs of older adults with diabetes and their caregivers should be evaluated to construct a tailored care plan. Impaired social functioning may reduce their quality of life and increase the risk of functional dependency (45). The patient's living situation must be considered as it may affect diabetes management and support needs. Social and instrumental support networks (e.g., adult children, caretakers) that provide instrumental or emotional support for older adults with diabetes should be included in diabetes management discussions and shared decision making.

Older adults in assisted living facilities may not have support to administer their own medications, whereas those living in a nursing home (community living

centers) may rely completely on the care plan and nursing support. Those receiving palliative care (with or without hospice) may require an approach that emphasizes comfort and symptom management, while de-emphasizing strict metabolic and blood pressure control.

TREATMENT IN SKILLED NURSING FACILITIES AND NURSING HOMES

Recommendations

12.14 Consider diabetes education for the staff of long-term care facilities to improve the management of older adults with diabetes. **E**

12.15 Patients with diabetes residing in long-term care facilities need careful assessment to establish glycemic goals and to make appropriate choices of glucose-lowering agents based on their clinical and functional status. **E**

Management of diabetes in the long-term care (LTC) setting (i.e., nursing homes and skilled nursing facilities) is unique. Individualization of health care is important in all patients; however, practical guidance is needed for medical providers as well as the LTC staff and caregivers (46). Training should include diabetes detection and institutional quality assessment. LTC facilities should develop their own policies and procedures for prevention and management of hypoglycemia.

Resources

Staff of LTC facilities should receive appropriate diabetes education to improve the management of older adults with diabetes. Treatments for each patient should be individualized. Special management considerations include the need to avoid both hypoglycemia and the complications of hyperglycemia (2,47). For more information, see the ADA position statement “Management of Diabetes in Long-term Care and Skilled Nursing Facilities” (46).

Nutritional Considerations

An older adult residing in an LTC facility may have irregular and unpredictable meal consumption, undernutrition, anorexia, and impaired swallowing. Furthermore, therapeutic diets may inadvertently

lead to decreased food intake and contribute to unintentional weight loss and undernutrition. Diets tailored to a patient's culture, preferences, and personal goals may increase quality of life, satisfaction with meals, and nutrition status (48).

Hypoglycemia

Older adults with diabetes in LTC are especially vulnerable to hypoglycemia. They have a disproportionately high number of clinical complications and comorbidities that can increase hypoglycemia risk: impaired cognitive and renal function, slowed hormonal regulation and counterregulation, suboptimal hydration, variable appetite and nutritional intake, polypharmacy, and slowed intestinal absorption (49). Oral agents may achieve similar glycemic outcomes in LTC populations as basal insulin (34,50).

Another consideration for the LTC setting is that, unlike the hospital setting, medical providers are not required to evaluate the patients daily. According to federal guidelines, assessments should be done at least every 30 days for the first 90 days after admission and then at least once every 60 days. Although in practice the patients may actually be seen more frequently, the concern is that patients may have uncontrolled glucose levels or wide excursions without the practitioner being notified. Providers may make adjustments to treatment regimens by telephone, fax, or in person directly at the LTC facilities provided they are given timely notification of blood glucose management issues from a standardized alert system.

The following alert strategy could be considered:

- 1. Call provider immediately:** in case of low blood glucose levels (≤ 70 mg/dL [3.9 mmol/L]).
- 2. Call as soon as possible:** a) glucose values between 70 and 100 mg/dL (3.9 and 5.6 mmol/L) (regimen may need to be adjusted), b) glucose values greater than 250 mg/dL (13.9 mmol/L) within a 24-h period, c) glucose values greater than 300 mg/dL (16.7 mmol/L) over 2 consecutive days, d) when any reading is too high for the glucometer, or e) the patient is sick, with vomiting, symptomatic hyperglycemia, or poor oral intake.

END-OF-LIFE CARE

Recommendations

12.16 When palliative care is needed in older adults with diabetes, strict blood pressure control may not be necessary, and withdrawal of therapy may be appropriate. Similarly, the intensity of lipid management can be relaxed, and withdrawal of lipid-lowering therapy may be appropriate. **E**

12.17 Overall comfort, prevention of distressing symptoms, and preservation of quality of life and dignity are primary goals for diabetes management at the end of life. **E**

The management of the older adult at the end of life receiving palliative medicine or hospice care is a unique situation. Overall, palliative medicine promotes comfort, symptom control and prevention (pain, hypoglycemia, hyperglycemia, and dehydration), and preservation of dignity and quality of life in patients with limited life expectancy (47,51). A patient has the right to refuse testing and treatment, whereas providers may consider withdrawing treatment and limiting diagnostic testing, including a reduction in the frequency of fingerstick testing (52). Glucose targets should aim to prevent hypoglycemia and hyperglycemia. Treatment interventions need to be mindful of quality of life. Careful monitoring of oral intake is warranted. The decision process may need to involve the patient, family, and caregivers, leading to a care plan that is both convenient and effective for the goals of care (53). The pharmacologic therapy may include oral agents as first line, followed by a simplified insulin regimen. If needed, basal insulin can be implemented, accompanied by oral agents and without rapid-acting insulin. Agents that can cause gastrointestinal symptoms such as nausea or excess weight loss may not be good choices in this setting. As symptoms progress, some agents may be slowly tapered and discontinued.

Different patient categories have been proposed for diabetes management in those with advanced disease (28).

1. A stable patient: continue with the patient's previous regimen, with a

focus on the prevention of hypoglycemia and the management of hyperglycemia using blood glucose testing, keeping levels below the renal threshold of glucose. There is very little role for A1C monitoring and lowering.

- 2. A patient with organ failure:** preventing hypoglycemia is of greater significance. Dehydration must be prevented and treated. In people with type 1 diabetes, insulin administration may be reduced as the oral intake of food decreases but should not be stopped. For those with type 2 diabetes, agents that may cause hypoglycemia should be downtitrated. The main goal is to avoid hypoglycemia, allowing for glucose values in the upper level of the desired target range.
- 3. A dying patient:** for patients with type 2 diabetes, the discontinuation of all medications may be a reasonable approach, as patients are unlikely to have any oral intake. In patients with type 1 diabetes, there is no consensus, but a small amount of basal insulin may maintain glucose levels and prevent acute hyperglycemic complications.

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