

Common Endocrine Disorders in Children:

1. Approach for diagnosis and management of Type 1 Diabetes
2. Congenital adrenal hyperplasia
3. Congenital hypothyroidism

Approach to a Newly-Diagnosed Diabetic Patient

* Patient CKD + On dialysis → risk for pulmonary edema or metabolic acidosis → Presentation: Tachypnea and SOB
→ Treatment: Give Ca^{2+} then Bicarb

Definition of Diabetes mellitus :

- A metabolic disorder characterized by the presence of hyperglycemia due to defective insulin secretion, defective insulin action or both.

Classification:

- **Type 1 diabetes :**

→ Autoimmune disease → onset: 6 months or after (underdeveloped immune system)
2 peaks → 4 (school age) → more infections (triggers)
→ 13 → puberty

- **Type 2 diabetes:**

- **Other specific types:**

- specific genetically defined forms of diabetes.
- diabetes associated with other diseases or drug use.

Diagnosis:

- FPG ≥ 126 mg/dL \rightarrow convert to mmol/L by $\div 18$

or

- Random PG ≥ 200 mg/dL + symptoms of diabetes

or

- 2hr PG in a 75-g OGTT ≥ 200 mg/dL

Genetics:

- Familial clustering of T1DM:
 - monozygotic twins 30-65%
 - dizygotic twins 6-10%
 - siblings 6%
 - mother 2%
 - father 7%
- Monogenic Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus: Rare
ex. IPEX syndrome and APS

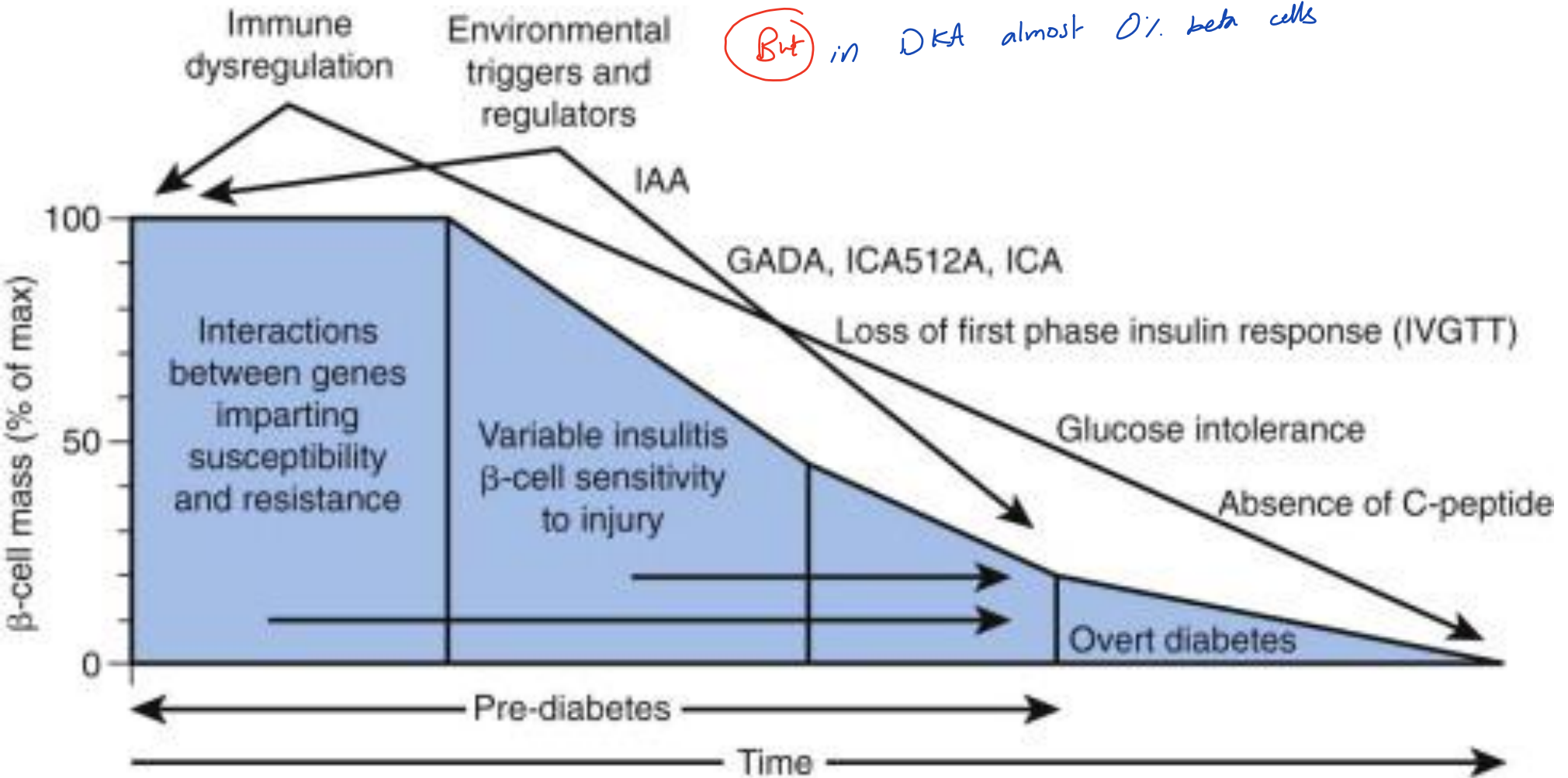
Environmental Factors:

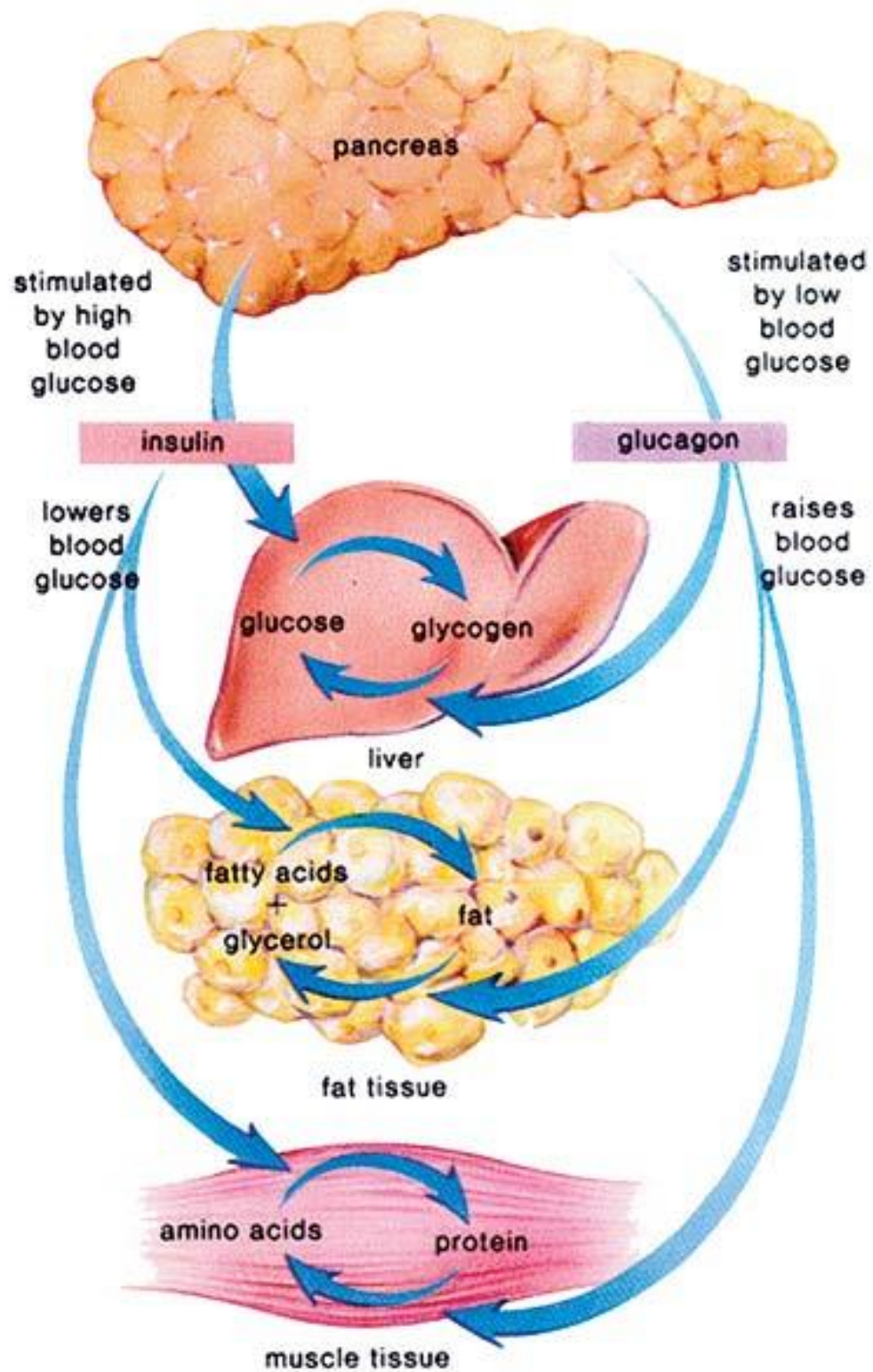
- ~ 50% of monozygotic twins are discordant for T1DM.
- Variation in urban and rural areas populated by the same ethnic group.
- Change in incidence with migration.
- Increase in incidence in almost all populations in the last few decades.

Pathogenesis of type 1 diabetes :

*When Beta cells < 10% → onset of DM symptoms

But in DKA almost 0% beta cells





Insulin

- Secreted by beta cells of pancreas
- Inhibits glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis in liver
- Stimulates protein synthesis and lipogenesis
- Inhibits lipolysis and proteinolysis

Absence of Insulin

- ↓ lipogenesis + ↑ lipolysis
- ↓ protein synthesis + ↑ proteinolysis
- ↑ glycogenolysis + ↑ gluconeogenesis

Counter-regulatory Hormones:

	↓ insulin secretion	↓ insulin action	↑ Glycogenolysis	↑ Gluconeogenesis	↑ Lipolysis, ketogenesis	↓ glucose utilization
Epinephrine	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cortisol		+	+	+	+	+
GH		+	+	+	+	+
Glucagon			+	+	+	

Clinical Manifestations:

- Polyuria, polydipsia, polyphagia
- weight loss
- Fatigability

- DKA as first presentation.

- Progression may be accelerated by intercurrent illness or stress. (triggers)

Diabetic Ketoacidosis

- The end result of the metabolic abnormalities resulting from a severe deficiency of insulin.
- DKA is 100% preventable.
- Occurs due to:
 - Non compliance to insulin therapy or wrong site for injection (lipohypertrophy)
or inappropriate storage
 - Intercurrent illnesses not managed according to the sick day management guidelines.

DKA – History:

- ①
 - Polyuria , polydipsia , weight loss
- ②
 - Abdominal pain → *peritoneum irritation due to acidosis*
- ③
 - Vomiting
- ④
 - Confusion
- ⑤
 - Tiredness
- ⑥
 - Difficulty breathing

DKA – Clinical signs:

① • Kussmaul breathing

② • Lethargy

③ • Dehydration

④ • Signs of infection

Diagnosis of DKA:

- Glucose > 200 mg/dL

- pH < 7.3

- Ketonuria or ketonemia

- Serum Bicarbonate < 18 mmol/L → Do VBGs not ABGs
(safer) to avoid thrombosis (They are at higher risk)

Management: If hyperglycemia only → Subcutaneous insulin

If ketones without acidosis → subcutaneous insulin but in higher doses

*Rate of insulin = 0.1 unit/kg/hour

*When to give glucose saline?

if blood glucose < 52

or ↓ more than 90-100 mg/dl in one hour

Management of DKA with vascular decompensation:

- ABCs.
- Normal saline 10 mL/kg to expand vascular space.
- Decrease to 5-7 mL/kg/hr with KCl.
- Not to infuse NaHCO₃ except in certain circumstances.
- Continuous IV insulin infusion 0.1 units/kg/hr.
- Observation and monitoring.
- If acidosis is improving and BG < 270 mg/dL or falls > 90 mg/dL/hr → change IV to D5/Normal Saline with potassium and decrease insulin infusion rate.

Complications of DKA

- Arrhythmias/cardiac arrest – 2° to electrolyte abnormalities or possibly long QTc
- Venous thrombosis 2° hypercoagulable state *(that's why we avoid ABG)*
- Pulmonary edema/ARDS
- Acute renal failure (ATN)
- Bowel ischemia – necrosis, stricture formation

Pathophysiology of DKA-related cerebral edema

- Previous hypothesis assumed that fluid shifts caused by osmotic changes were central to DKA-related cerebral edema
- This assumption has not been well supported by clinical data
- Cerebral edema during DKA may be predominantly vasogenic and may result from activation of cell membrane ion transporters in the brain

Risks factors for CE

- Younger age (<5 years)
- New-onset diabetes
- High initial serum urea
- Low initial partial pressure of arterial CO₂
- Rapid administration of hypotonic fluids
- IV bolus of insulin
- Early IV insulin infusion (within first hour of administration of fluids)
- Use of bicarbonate

Strategies to prevent Diabetic Ketoacidosis

- To raise public awareness about symptoms and signs of diabetes.
- Beyond diagnosis:
 - Comprehensive diabetes education programs
 - Mental health intervention
 - Home monitoring of ketones or beta-hydroxybutyrate

Maturity onset diabetes of the young (MODY):

- A heterogeneous group of disorders that result in β -cell dysfunction.
- It is rare, accounting for just 1%–2% of all diabetes.
- It is often misdiagnosed as type 1 or type 2 diabetes, as it is often difficult to distinguish MODY from these two forms.

GENETIC DEFECTS OF β -CELL FUNCTION

Maturity-Onset Diabetes of Youth

- Onset 9-25 yr,
- AD inheritance *3 consequent generations one of them less than 25 (age of onset)*
- A primary defect in insulin secretion.
- Diagnostic Criteria:
 - Diabetes in at least 3 generations with AD
 - Diagnosis before age 25 yr in at least 1 affected subject.

Wolfram Syndrome:

- Diabetes mellitus, diabetes insipidus, optic atrophy, and deafness (DIDMOAD): most prominent findings.
- Other common manifestations:
 - Neurogenic bladder with hydroureteronephrosis,
 - Neurodegenerative illness (most commonly manifesting as ataxia), psychiatric problems, --
 - Hypogonadism.

Insulin Therapy:

Endogenous Insulin Profile

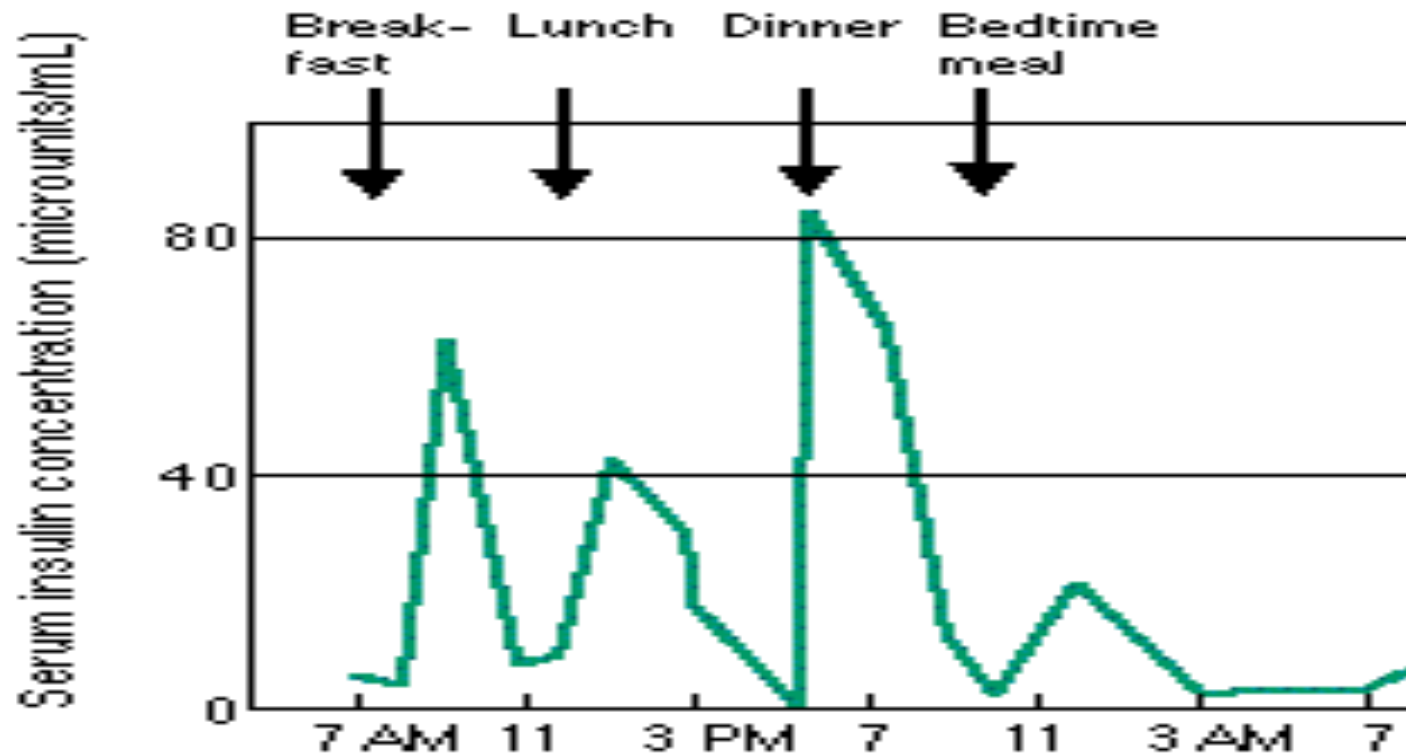
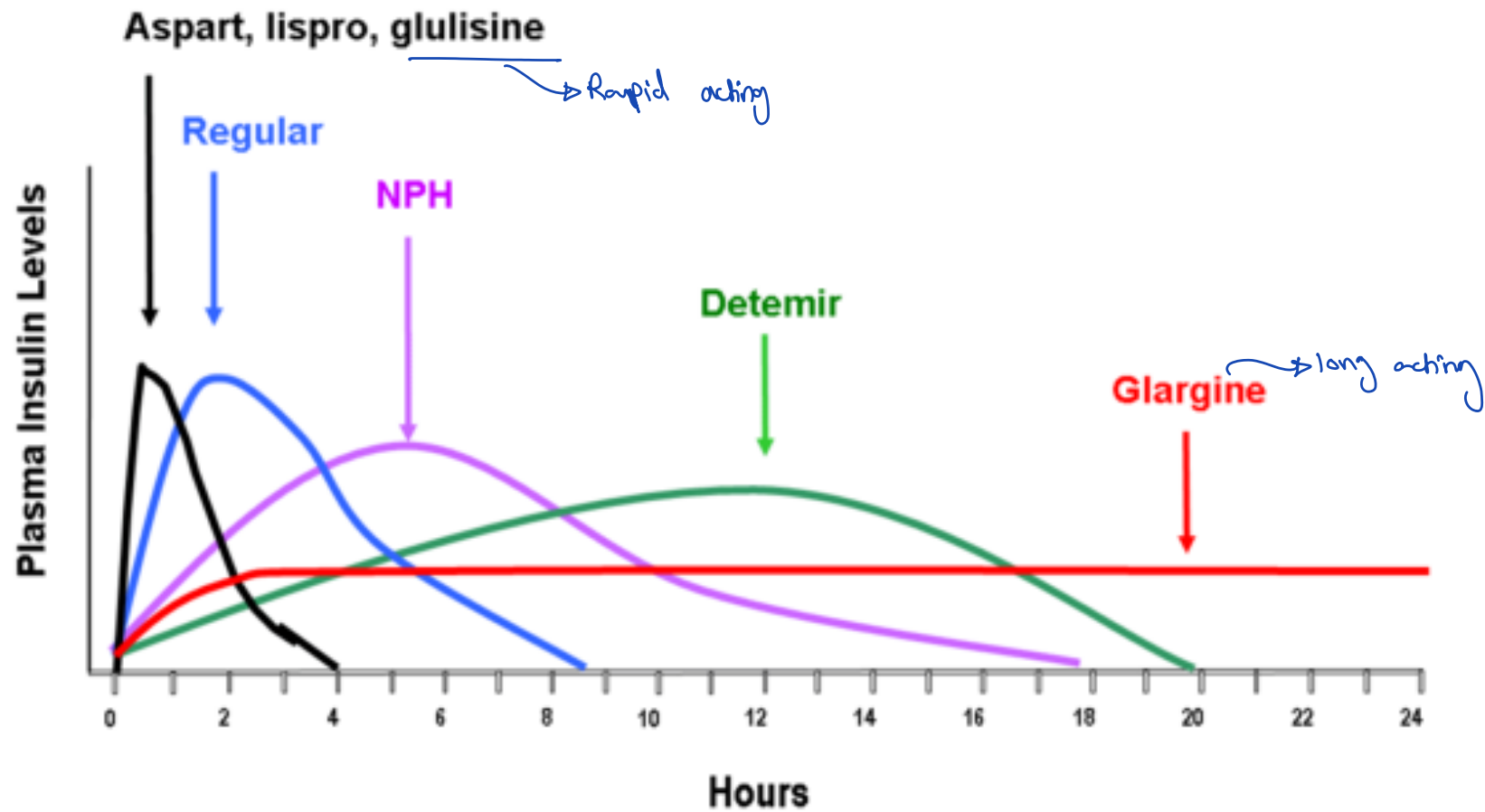
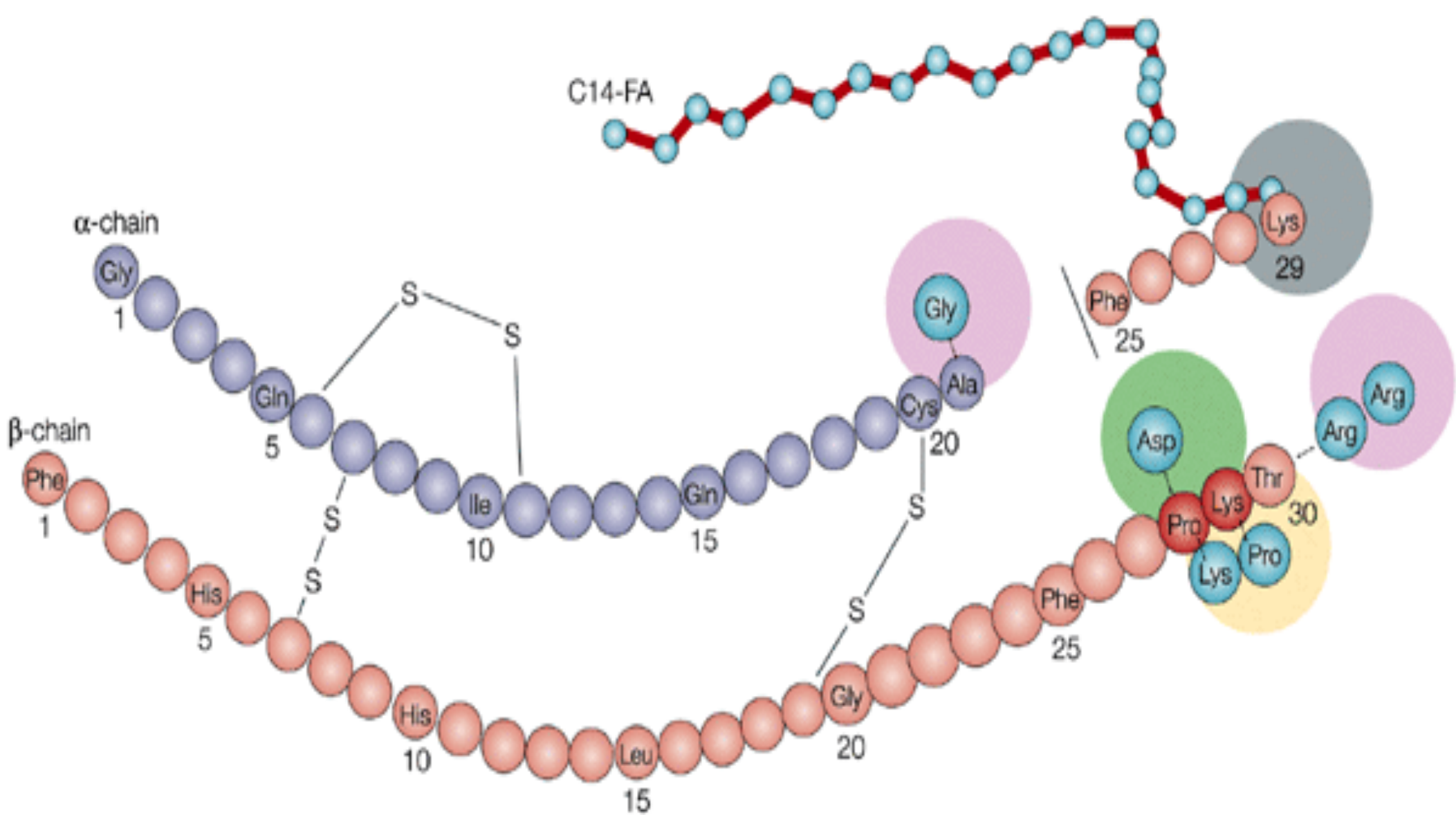


Figure 1. Normal insulin secretion. In the stimulated phase, serum insulin levels increase from within a few minutes before to 30 minutes after a meal. Return to basal level occurs within 2 hours.

Adapted from Galloway and Chance [5].

Idealized insulin time-action profiles






Fast-acting analogues

 Insulin lispro

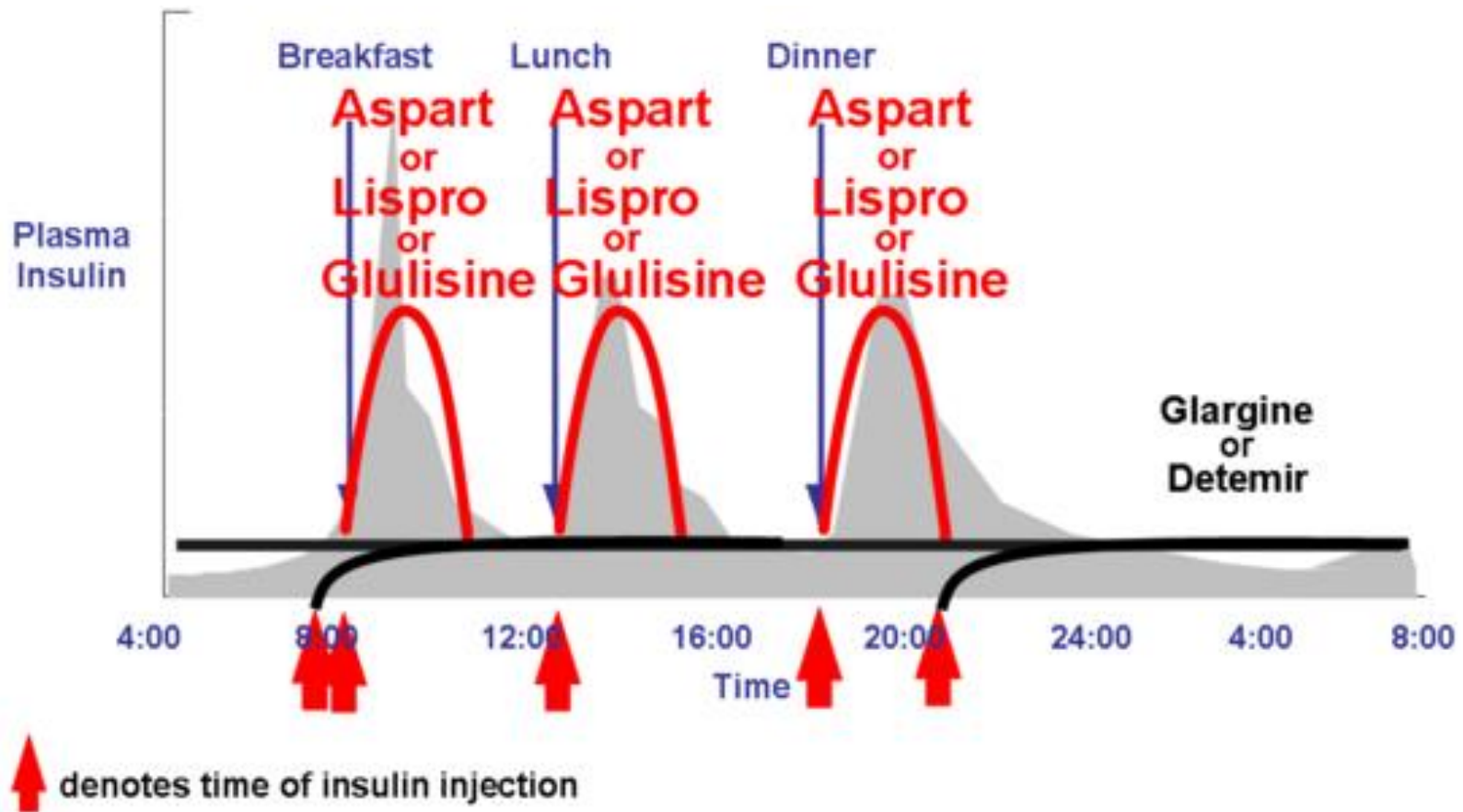
 Insulin aspart

Long-acting analogues

 Insulin glargine

 Detemir insulin

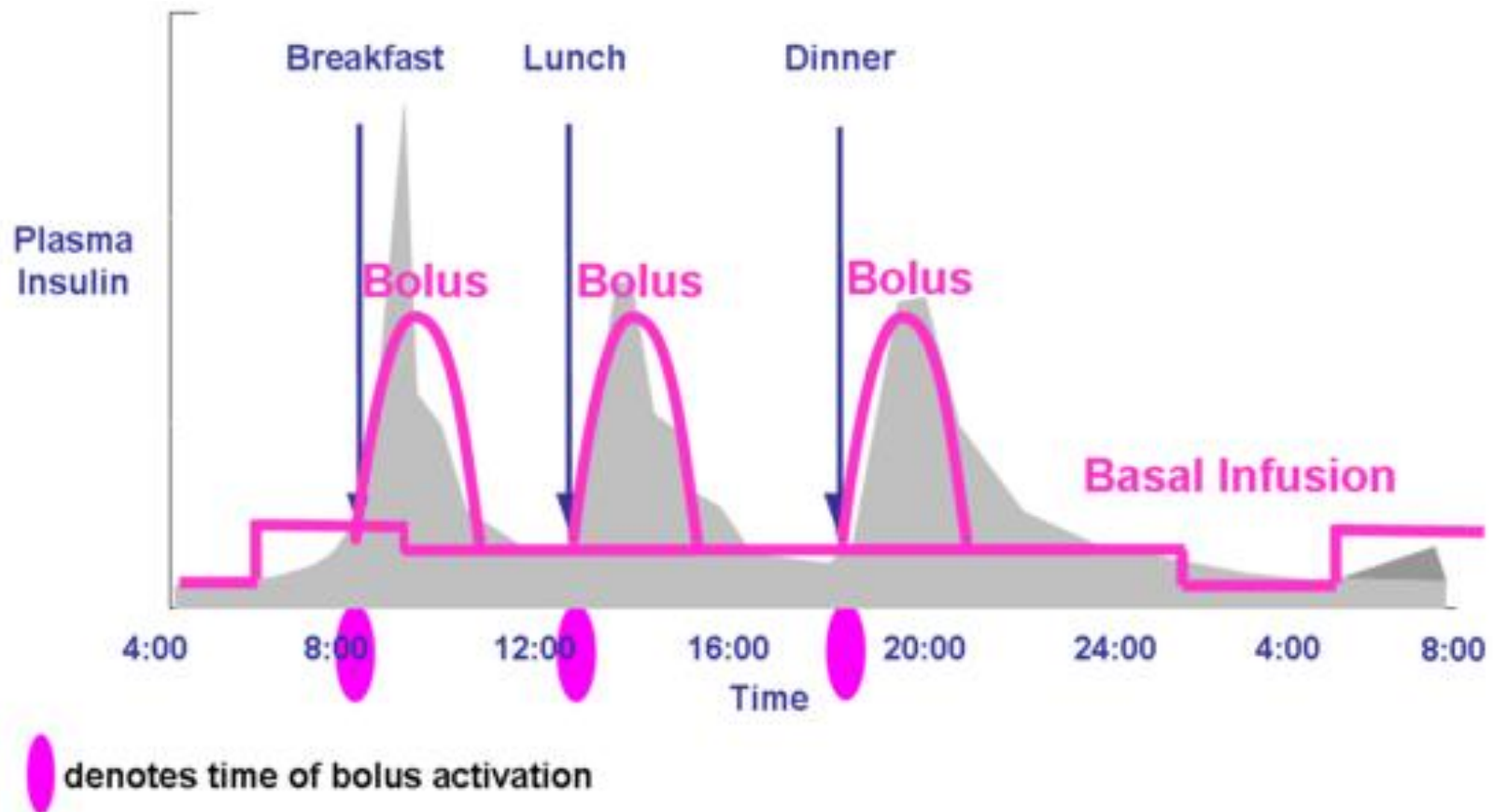
Long and Rapid-acting insulin



Insulin Pens :



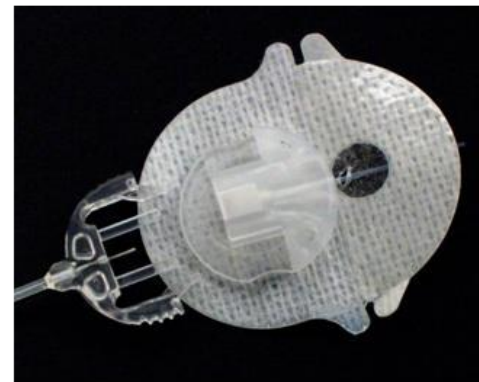
Continuous subcutaneous Insulin Infusion (insulin pump):



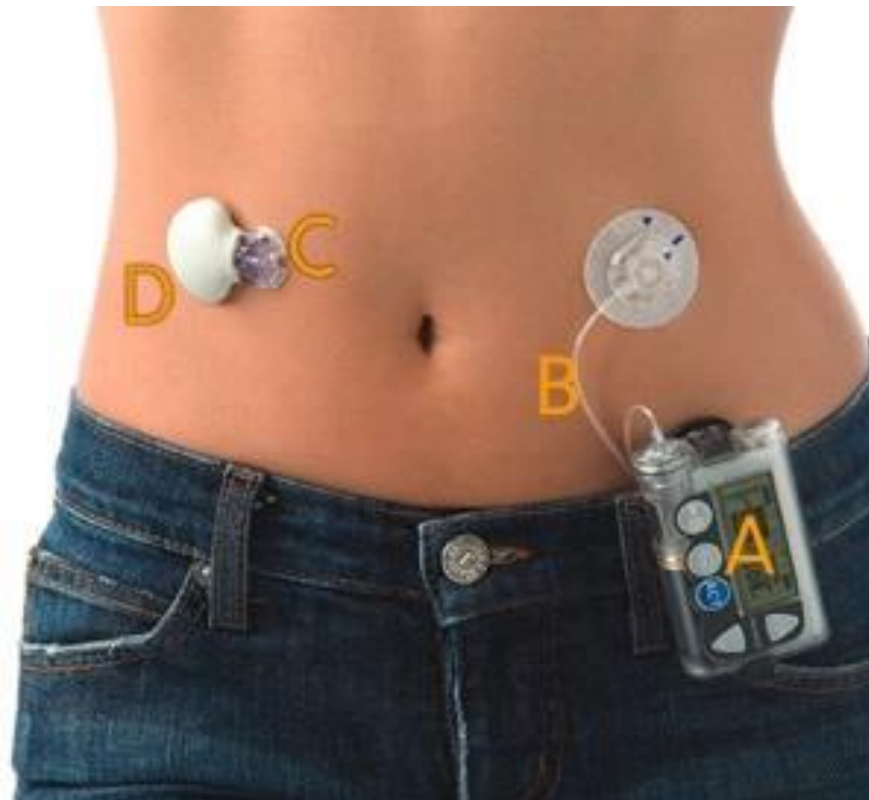
Insulin Pump:



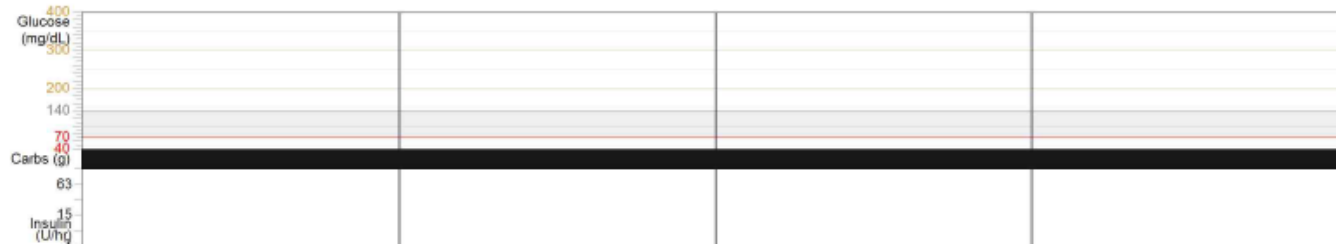
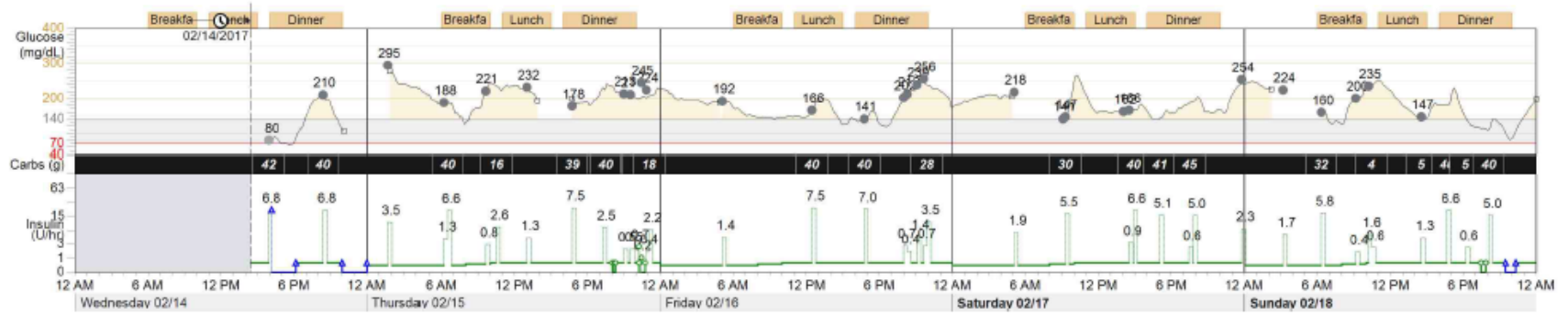
Inserting insulin pump:











Glucose monitoring system



→ Sensing the glucose in the interstitial fluid

HbA1c :

- A reliable index of long-term glycemic control .
- the fraction of hemoglobin to which glucose has been nonenzymatically attached in the blood stream.
- A HbA1c measurement reflects the average blood glucose concentration from the preceding 2-3 mo.

Hypoglycemia

Symptoms of Low Blood Sugar Include:

- Hunger
- Trembling
- Sweating
- Extreme Mood changes
- Extreme tiredness
- Pale
- Dizziness
- Blurred Vision
- Headaches

Hypoglycemia

- These symptoms will always precede NEUROGLYCOPENIA except in long standing type 1 diabetes/hypoglycemia unawareness.
- Action : confirm blood sugar is less than 72 mg/dL and TREAT WITH CARBOHYDRATE

(sth that cause rapid response like juices not chocolate for example because it has fat that will prolong the digestion process)

Hypoglycemia

- Make sure the family has **GLUCAGON** and knows how to use it





- On 10/Sep./2019:
FDA approved the Gvoke
HypoPen, an emergency
glucagon rescue
treatment for severe
hypoglycemia.



- In July/2019:

FDA approved the first non-injectable form of glucagon, BAQSIMI. The rescue device from Eli Lilly is a powder form of glucagon administered into the nose, and comes in a single-use dispenser.





Sick Day Management

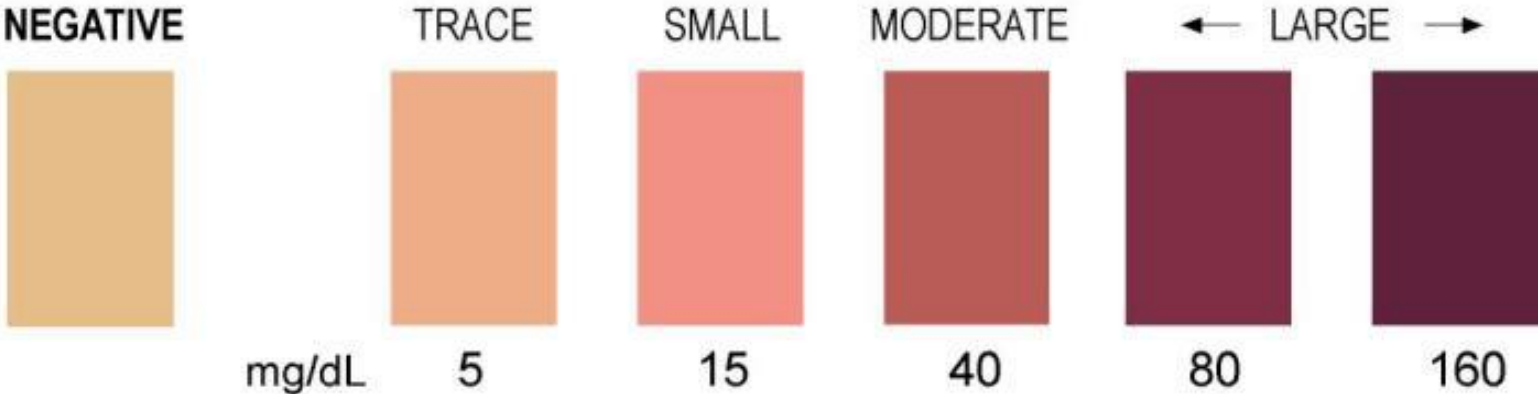
- ✓ Counter-regulatory hormones blunt insulin action and elevate glucose levels.
- ✓ Frequent blood glucose and ketone monitoring with adjustment of insulin doses.
- ✓ The overall goals are to maintain hydration, control glucose levels, and avoid ketoacidosis.
① ②
③
- ✓ **DO NOT OMIT INSULIN.**

Intercurrent Illness

- Check ketones EARLY
 - Always test when nausea or vomiting
 - Urine ketodiastix
 - Precision Xtra meter: Earlier detection, no need to collect urine



KETONE-Read at exactly 15 seconds.



ISPAD guidelines for retinopathy and nephropathy screening:

- Annually from age 11 years with after 2 years duration

And

- from 9 years with 5 years duration

Congenital Adrenal Hyperplasia

Salt-Losing Crisis in Infancy:

- - Severe hyponatremic dehydration
- Hyperkalemia
- Metabolic acidosis
- A life-threatening condition in infancy that requires immediate treatment to prevent death.

Differential diagnosis for salt-losing crisis:

- Congenital adrenal hypererplasia
- Congenital adrenal hypoplasia
- Isolated aldosterone deficiency,
- Pseudohypoaldosteronism

- It is vital to identify this condition and to manage it appropriately, if not → it can result in death.
- All cases benefit from volume replacement.
- Glucocorticoid /mineralocorticoid replacement will not correct electrolyte abnormalities in all cases.

- Defective conversion of 17-hydroxyprogesterone to 11-deoxycortisol accounts for more than 95 percent of cases of congenital adrenal hyperplasia. This conversion is mediated by 21-hydroxylase, deficiency of which is caused by mutations in the CYP21A2 gene.

- The initial goals are treatment of hypotension and dehydration, reversal of electrolyte and glucose abnormalities, and correction of cortisol deficiency.
- An intravenous bolus of 10 to 20 mL/kg of normal saline should be administered.
- An intravenous bolus of 2 to 4 mg/kg of 10 percent dextrose should be considered if there is significant hypoglycemia.
- Hyperkalemia should be corrected with the administration of glucose and insulin if necessary, although it typically improves rapidly as a result of the potent mineralocorticoid action of high-dose hydrocortisone.

- An initial dose of hydrocortisone of 50 to 100 mg/m² should be administered as an IV bolus (typical neonatal dose is 25 mg), followed by hydrocortisone at a dose of 50 to 100 mg/m² IV per day divided every six hours. Stress doses of hydrocortisone should be continued until the patient is stable and feeding normally.
- During treatment with stress doses of hydrocortisone, mineralocorticoid replacement is unnecessary.
- If the diagnosis of classic 21-hydroxylase deficiency is confirmed, infants should receive glucocorticoid and mineralocorticoid therapy and salt supplementation

Congenital Hypothyroidism

- The detection and treatment of neonates with hypothyroidism should be considered a pediatric emergency. If therapy is not begun soon after birth , developmental delay will result within few weeks to few months.
- Neonatal screening is essential because of the difficulty in making a clinical diagnosis early enough.

Epidemiology

- Prevalence of 1:3500 in white infants.
- Differ significantly among different ethnic groups.
- Female : Male ratio is 2 : 1.

Clinical manifestations of congenital hypothyroidism

- Most infants with C.H. are asymptomatic at birth.
- Birth weight and length are normal, but head size may be slightly increased.
- Prolongation of physiological jaundice may be the earliest sign.
- Decrease activity.
- Feeding difficulties.
- Respiratory difficulties.
- Constipation.
- Subnormal temperature .
- Slow pulse .

- If congenital hypothyroidism goes undetected, these manifestations progress. Retardation of physical and mental development becomes greater over the following months and by 3-6 months of age the clinical picture is fully developed.
- Stunted growth. Short extremities.
- The AF and PF are opened widely.
- Coarse features.
- Protrusion of large tongue.
- Dry, scaly skin.
- Coarse, brittle and scanty hair.
- The muscles are usually hypotonic.

Actions of the thyroid hormones

- Increase the oxidative metabolism: -↑ oxygen consumption -↑ BMR -↑ glucose metabolism -↑ fat metabolism.
- Promote growth and development.
- Influence nervous system development and function. Essential for normal myelination and development of CNS.
- Augmentation of cardiac function.
- Important for normal reproductive function.

Causes of congenital hypothyroidism

A. PERMANENT :

A.a. Permanent primary hypothyroidism.

↓ T₄, ↑ TSH .

1. Thyroid dysgenesis: 85% of permanent C.H.

most common cause of congenital hypothyroidism → - ectopy - agenesis. – hypoplasia. – hemiagenesis.

2. Thyroid dyshormogenesis :

-Goiter .

-TPO M/C.

3. TSH resistance due to TSH receptor mutation: Rare.

A.b. Permanent central : ↓T4 , ↓ TSH or inappropriately NL TSH.

1. Developmental defect : pituitary or hypothalamic disorders. May have midline defects.

2. Inactivating mutations : - TRH receptor.

- TSH β subunit. – Pit. Transcription factors.

B. TRANSIENT :

1. severe iodine deficiency.
2. acute iodine overload from iodine-containing antiseptic. – rare.
3. maternal antithyroid drug treatment : clears in 3-4 days after birth.
4. transplacental transfer of TSH-receptor blocking antibodies: - \downarrow T4, \uparrow TSH.
5. Hypothyroximemia of prematurity:
 - \downarrow T4, \downarrow T3, NL TSH.
 - adaptation to prematurity rather than true central hypothyroidism.

- Treatment

Levothyroxine

THANK YOU