



Figure 1 Flowchart describing the methodology for this review.

The Food and Drug Administration (commonly known as the FDA), in 2014, recommended that the use of point-of-care (POC) BG monitors were not suitable for critically ill patients^[27]. In addition, the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services indicated that “off-label” use of such glucometers in the ICU could be subject to citations and fines during site evaluations^[28]. The main reasons for the FDA and Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services concerns was that ICU patients are unstable and that might cause erroneous BG readings.

In general, POC glucose monitors cost less, require smaller blood samples, and provide almost instant results. For years, they have been the preferred bedside glucose monitoring devices for glycemic management^[29]. In a study of a large academic hospital, POC showed significant accuracy^[30]. Results from glycemic POC paired to results of central laboratory testing of samples drawn no more than 60 min and passed the FDA’s 98% criteria^[30].

New software incorporating current guidelines may be just as beneficial for glycemia control^[31]. Some studies have used the Clinical Notification System that relies on specific criteria and notifies nursing staff of imminent hypoglycemia and persistent hyperglycemia, defined as two consecutive readings > 150 mg/dL^[32,33]. The sensitivity and specificity of this system are excellent, being 98.1% and 99.1% respectively^[32,33].

Continuous BG monitoring is now available^[34-36]. In a single-center study comparing the benefits of continuous with intermittent glucose monitoring, a peripheral venous catheter was inserted with the GlucoClear™ probe^[35]. These monitors were flushed with heparin, calibrated, and began BG monitoring every 5 min using a glucose oxidase-based method. Target glycemic ranges for this study were between 90-150 mg/dL. The number of patients with BG < 70 mg/dL in continuous versus the intermittent groups was 8/39 (20.5%) and 15/38 (39.5%) respectively. The time spent with BG < 70 mg/dL was calculated with a continuous glucose monitoring device, and resulted in 0.4% + -0.9% versus 1.6%+ -3.4% ($P < 0.05$) in intermittent glucose monitoring group^[35].

In a study by Flower *et al*^[36], utilizing a novel intravascular continuous glucose monitoring with chemical fluorescence sensing mechanism, 92.4% (404/437) were in target glycemic control (108-180 mg/dL), with no values < 72 mg/dL.

There are now subcutaneous continuous glucose monitoring sensors in case intravenous access is not available^[37]. In a small cohort of 14 surgical ICU patients, the Sentrino continuous glucose monitoring glucometer (Medtronic, Dublin, Ireland) was used^[38]. The study showed that the sensor provided good accuracy, overestimating glycemia by only 1.5 mg/dL^[38].

BG CONTROL IN DIABETIC PATIENTS IN THE ICU

The glycemic control protocols vary among different institutions and according to whether the patient has preexisting diabetes mellitus or not. The effects of IIT, for example, have been more noticeable in nondiabetic critical patients^[39,40]. In one study, the mortality rates for nondiabetic patients undergoing IIT was 36.8%, as compared to

Table 1 Glycemic range recommendations

Study	Glycemic range	Ref.	Comments
American College of Physicians	140-200 mg/dL	Qaseem <i>et al</i> ^[17] , 2014	Recommend use of moderate glucose control to avoid hypoglycemic episodes
American Diabetes Association	140-180 mg/dL	American Diabetes Association ^[18] , 2012	Intensive insulin therapy in TGC can cause severe hypoglycemia
Society of Critical Care Medicine	150-180 mg/dL	Jacobi <i>et al</i> ^[19] , 2012	Recommend the use of moderate use of glucose control
COITSS study	80-110 mg/dL	Annane <i>et al</i> ^[21] , 2010	No significant mortality in patients with TGC compared to MGC
Standards of medical care in diabetes	Nondiabetic HbA1c < 7% 140-200 mg/dL. HbA1c > 7% 160-220 mg/dL	Marik <i>et al</i> ^[22] , 2014	Different approach between diabetics and nondiabetics, due to glucose variability in tolerance

MGC: Moderate glucose control; TGC: Tight glucose control.

40.9% in the control group^[39]. In addition, when compared to patients with diabetes, the interventional group mortality was 39.6% versus 36.8% in the diabetic group^[39]. In fact, some authors have also suggested that diabetes may be “protective” in the ICU^[40].

Mortality is lower for the ICU diabetic population when it comes to hyperglycemia and glucose variability, as compared to nondiabetics. However, hypoglycemia and severe hypoglycemia have an equal mortality rate for both types of patients^[10,41]. In a study evaluating both nondiabetic patients and diabetic patients with tight and moderate glycemic control (80-110 mg/dL and 90-140 mg/dL), nondiabetic mortality was 11.9% in the moderate glycemic control group when compared to 8.1% in the TGC group^[42]. In contrast, patients with diabetes had a 12.3% mortality with TGC compared to 9.8% for the moderate glycemic control group^[42].

COST-EFFECTIVENESS

Cost analysis in the ICU remains an important topic. In one study, an economic analysis reported a cost-saving of 2638 Euros per patient in the group that was treated with intensive glycemic control^[43]. Some have suggested that blood gas analyzers capable of monitoring continuous BG levels are the best option for accuracy and cost-saving, if they are in proximity to the ICU, even when the cost per device is \$40000. The single test cost is very similar to a POC meter (\$100) and the accuracy is equal to a central laboratory device^[44]. It is clear that euglycemia and avoidance of hypoglycemia decreases the length of stay in the hospital (from 29 d to 24 d) and has a lower health-care cost (mean \$5847), showing a notable amount of money-saving in 5 d^[45].

Another factor to consider when analyzing cost savings is the role of TGC in reducing blood stream infections. Some studies have reported that decreasing 5% of hospital-acquired infections could improve cost savings considerably; in fact, one of these studies showed a cost-saving of \$1580 per patient, driven by the decreased length of stay in the ICU^[46,47]. Such goals can be achieved by attempting to control BG with avoidance of hypoglycemia.

FUTURE APPROACHES

As noted above, dysregulation of glycemia is a significant factor in the poor prognosis of an ICU patient^[48]. There are other contributing factors that can change the glycemic status, such as age (older), underweight condition, and type of feeding that is managed in the ICU, since these are labile and can create fluctuations in a more noticeable way compared with the rest of the patients. Critical care clinicians may not be fully aware of these findings. Indeed, some survey studies have shown that clinicians vary significantly in how they manage glycemic index in the ICU and very few are aware that hypoglycemia is associated with an increased hospital mortality^[49]. Educational programs aimed at understanding these important risk factors are needed. The development of professional awareness of current guidelines and introduction of new technologies are the first step for improving patient care outcomes.

We believe that computerized, protocol-driven and continuous BG monitoring will become the standard of care in ICUs across the world.

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