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Diabetic Ketoacidosis

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Introduction

- Diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) is a major complication of diabetes and often the initial admitting diagnosis in type I diabetes diagnosis (Sharma, Kumar & Yadav, 2017).
- •The incidence of DKA has risen by 30% over the past decade, with more than 140,000 hospital admissions every year in the United States (Basam et al., 2017).
- DKA hospitalizations account for 2.4 billion dollars annually (Basam et al., 2017).
- DKA can be a life threating complication for any diabetic.
- As a future family nurse practitioner (FNP), managing patient's diabetes is a crucial aspect in my future job prospects.
- •The best treatment for DKA is prevention. As a FNP, close monitoring and education is crucial in the prevention of DKA.
- DKA being a major complication, understanding the etiology and pathophysiology is imperative in treatment and educating patients in prevention.
- Over the past 20 years (1986-2006), there has been no reduction in the DKA mortality rates, which remained between 3.4% and 4.6% (Singh, Thangaraju, Kumar, Aravindan, Balasubramanian, & Selvan, 2014).
- •20% to 30% of cases of DKA occur in newly diagnosed diabetes mellitus patients (Singh, Thangaraju, Kumar, Aravindan, Balasubramanian, & Selvan, 2014)

Underlying Pathophysiology

- hyperglycemia and lipolysis.

Significance of Pathophysiology

- acetone excretion.

- creatinine.
- from acidosis.
- magnesium, and phosphorus.

Diabetic Ketoacidosis (DKA)

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•DKA begins with a state of little to no insulin. •Often brought on by infections and increases in counter regulatory hormones such as

catecholamines, cortisol, glucagon and growth hormone leading to increase metabolic demand. Insulin deficiency leads to cells inability to uptake glucose from the bloodstream resulting in

•Fatty acid formation from lipolysis of adipocytes leading to production of ketone bodies

(acetoacetate, hydroxybutyrate, and acetone) by the mitochondria of the liver.

 Accelerated gluconeogenesis, glycogenesis, and ketongenesis that exceeds peripheral use.

•Hyperglycemia leads to solute diuresis.

Hirsch & Emmett, 2017 •Excess ketone bodies cause acidosis, and

bicarbonate buffering HC03 <18 leading to anion gap acidosis pH <7.3 and additional hydrogen ions Misra & Oliver, 2015

•No insulin results in ketoacidosis and hyperglycemia. Leading to Kussmaul respirations to treat acidosis and

•Osmotic diuresis caused by glucosuria and preventing glucose from being greater than 800 vs hyperosmotic hyperglycemic nonketotic state which is usually has glucose level greater than 1000.

•Volume depletion leads to dehydration of the tissues. •Hypovolemia leads to acute kidney injury and elevated

 Acidosis from ketone bodies cause bicarbonate depletion and anion gap acidosis which is a disassociation of anions and cations.

•Hyperkalemia and potassium depletion within the cells

• Diuresis leads to electrolyte abnormalities of Sodium,

- (Kussmaul respirations) (CNS depression)

- Hyperventilation •Alter mental status •Anorexia •Weight loss Nausea and vomiting Abdominal pain

Risk Factors •Antipsychotic agents: Infection Insulin pump •Acromegaly •Arterial thrombosis malfunction •Illicit drug use •Cushing disease •Non-compliant •Hemochromatosis Myocardial infarction diabetic •Pancreatitis Diabetic Ketoacidosis • Pregnancy Insufficient or •Psychological stress **Absent Insulin** Shock/hypovolemia Muscle cell •Trauma glucagon Westerberg, 2013 P Amino nausea and vomiting ' Other substrates Liver . diabetic ketoacidosis Converted to ketones bodies. converted to glucose Glycogenolysis Gluconeogenesis Ketogenesis increased Glycogen chain urination -Increased ketone and glucose production reased ketone and https://www.medicostuff.com/diabetic-ketoacidosis/ lucose in bloodstream hormones tp://www.imreference.com/c a-hhs-hypoalycemic



Signs and Symptoms

- •Ketonuria
- Polydipsia
- Polyuria
- •Tachycardia
- •Orthostatic hypotension

Implications for Nursing

 Monitor mentation for S&S of cerebral edema. •Monitor glucose closely with IV insulin.

•Monitor EKG due to electrolyte abnormalities.

Monitor urine output, and trend lab values.

•Keep patient NPO until anion gap is less than 12, and long acting insulin administration and fast acting insulin sliding scale.

•Educate patients on DKA prevention.

Westerberg, 2013 •Sick day regimen such as closer glucose

monitoring q2-3 hours, adequate fluid intake and q4 hours ketones urine strip tests.

Fusco, Gonzales, & Yeung, (2015)

Conclusion

•DKA is a major complication of DM.

 DKA is preventable with proper patient education. •Although new diagnosis of DM presents as DKA, it's often not preventable.

•With a large financial burden of 2.4 billion annually and as a future advance practice provider this is directly link to my job.

•Educating patients and families for optimal DM management and DKA prevention and when to seek medical attention before DKA becomes profound in individuals.

Treatment

• Fluids- hydrates tissue, corrects dehydration and flush ketone

 Insulin- stops lipolysis, and allows glucose to enter the cell as optimal energy source.

• Electrolytes- needs replaces

due to fluid shifts with

rehydration Mg, Phos, K.

Treat underlying cause of

increases in counter regulatory

Fusco, Gonzales, & Yeung, (2015

References



