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# ACUTE METABOLIC COMPLICATIONS IN THE EMERGENCY DEPARTMENT: A REVIEW OF THE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

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## Abstract:

Diabetes management in the emergency department (ED) is critical due to the potential for acute complications such as diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) and hyperglycemic hyperosmolar state (HHS), and severe hypoglycemia. Effective management protocols in the ED should include guidelines for assessing blood glucose levels, administering insulin, and addressing these acute complications. Therefore, establishing comprehensive diabetes protocols can enhance patient outcomes and reduce complications, ensuring timely and effective care in emergency settings. This review aims to explore the spectrum of acute complications associated with diabetes that commonly present in the emergency department, including diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA), hyperosmolar hyperglycemic state (HHS), and severe hypoglycemia. The PubMed and Google Scholar Search Engines were the primary databases used for the search process, with articles collected from 1970 to 2024.

**Keywords:** Diabetes, ED, Ketoacidosis, Hyperosmolar hyperglycemic state (HHS) and Hypoglycemia.

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## INTRODUCTION

Diabetes emergencies encompass a range of acute complications that can arise from uncontrolled blood sugar levels, necessitating immediate medical intervention. In the emergency department, hyperglycemic emergencies, particularly diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) and hyperglycemic hyperosmolar nonketotic syndrome (HHNS), are among the most common diabetic cases encountered. It is frequently seen in both type 1 and type 2 diabetes, especially in children and adolescents, where early recognition and treatment are crucial. [1,2] Another significant emergency is insulin overdose, which can result in dangerously low blood sugar levels, leading to hypoglycemia, seizures, or even death. This condition requires prompt treatment to restore normal glucose levels.[3] Additionally, hypoglycemia unawareness

complicates management, as individuals may not recognize the symptoms of low blood sugar, increasing the risk of severe hypoglycemic episodes. Overall, understanding these emergencies and their management is vital for improving outcomes in individuals with diabetes. Regular monitoring, education on recognizing symptoms, and timely intervention can significantly reduce the risks associated with these life-threatening conditions.

## DIABETIC KETOACIDOSIS (DKA)

### CLINICAL PRESENTATION

Diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) is a critical condition that requires immediate attention in the emergency department (ED), characterized by the production of high levels of blood acids known as ketones, primarily due to insufficient insulin levels. It is most commonly associated with type 1 diabetes, where there is an absolute deficiency of insulin production, but it is increasingly recognized in individuals with type 2 diabetes as well. The causes of DKA can include inadequate insulin administration, infections, and certain medications, which can lead to elevated ketone levels. [4,5] Key signs of DKA include hyperglycemia, which is marked by elevated blood glucose levels and is critical for diagnosis. Alongside hyperglycemia, the body produces ketones as it breaks down fat for energy, leading to an accumulation of ketones in the blood, a hallmark of DKA. Patients often present with severe dehydration due to osmotic diuresis caused by high blood glucose levels, which can lead to shock and organ failure if not promptly treated. Additional symptoms include nausea and vomiting, which are frequently observed and can exacerbate dehydration. [6,7] Electrolyte imbalances, particularly involving potassium, sodium, and chloride, are also common and can result in serious complications such as cardiac arrhythmias. [8] Rapid breathing, known as Kussmaul breathing, occurs as the body attempts to compensate for metabolic acidosis, serving as another critical sign of DKA. Confusion and altered mental status may arise from the combined effects of hyperglycemia, dehydration, and electrolyte imbalances, indicating a need for urgent intervention. A distinctive fruity breath odor, due to acetone, can also be a significant clue for healthcare providers in emergency settings. Furthermore, abdominal pain is a common symptom that may mimic other acute conditions, necessitating careful differentiation to ensure appropriate treatment. [9]

### MANAGEMENT

The management of DKA involves a multifaceted approach, including fluid replacement, insulin therapy, and electrolyte management, all aimed at correcting metabolic derangements and preventing complications. Prompt recognition and accurate diagnosis are essential, as DKA can present with severe symptoms that necessitate swift intervention to reduce morbidity and mortality. In the ED, the initial management of DKA focuses on fluid replacement to address dehydration and restore blood volume, which is crucial for improving renal function. Insulin therapy is another cornerstone of treatment, aimed at lowering glucose levels and suppressing ketone production; careful monitoring is required to avoid complications such as hypoglycemia. Additionally, electrolyte imbalances, particularly those concerning potassium, must be closely monitored and managed to prevent serious complications, such as cardiac arrhythmias. The ED must also be prepared to differentiate DKA from related conditions such as hyperglycemic hyperosmolar state (HHS), as each requires distinct management strategies. [4,7,9] Special populations, including pediatric patients and pregnant women, present unique challenges that necessitate tailored approaches to treatment. The clinical presentation in pregnancy may differ slightly, as blood glucose levels may not be as elevated as in non-pregnant individuals, yet the urgency of therapy remains critical. [10] The physiological changes during pregnancy, particularly the development of pregnancy-induced insulin resistance, significantly contribute to the risk of DKA. As pregnancy progresses, the demand for insulin increases, and some women may struggle to produce adequate amounts, resulting in heightened insulin resistance. Preventive strategies are equally important, particularly for women with pre-existing diabetes or gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM), who are at an increased risk for DKA.

### COMPLICATIONS

DKA is associated with several serious complications that can significantly impact patient outcomes. One of the most critical complications is cerebral edema, which occurs in approximately 1-3% of children undergoing DKA treatment. This condition can lead to severe neurological damage if not recognized and treated promptly. [11] Acute kidney injury (AKI) is another common complication, often resulting from dehydration and acidosis. AKI can prolong hospital stays and increase the risk of chronic kidney disease, making its early identification and management essential in DKA patients. [12] Additionally, respiratory failure may arise due to severe acidosis and electrolyte imbalances,

necessitating mechanical ventilation in some cases. [13] Cardiovascular complications, including myocardial infarction and arrhythmias, are also prevalent in DKA patients, primarily due to dehydration and electrolyte disturbances. Finally, the overall mortality associated with DKA is a significant concern, particularly in patients experiencing severe complications like cerebral edema and respiratory failure. Prompt recognition and management of these complications are crucial to reducing mortality rates. [14,15]

## HYPEROSMOLAR HYPERGLYCEMIC STATE (HHS)

### CLINICAL PRESENTATION

Hyperosmolar Hyperglycemic State (HHS) is a severe complication primarily associated with Type 2 diabetes, characterized by extremely high blood glucose levels, often exceeding 600 mg/dL, and significant serum osmolality elevation. Unlike Diabetic Ketoacidosis (DKA), HHS is marked by the absence of substantial ketosis, making differentiation between the two conditions crucial for effective management [Figure 1]. Various factors, including infections, certain medications, and poor adherence to diabetes management can trigger the onset of HHS. The hallmark symptoms of HHS include hyperglycemia, dehydration, polyuria, confusion, fatigue, blurred vision, weight loss, and in severe cases, coma. Hyperglycemia, or high blood sugar, is a primary indicator of HHS, resulting from the body's inability to produce or effectively use insulin. This condition leads to polyuria, where the body attempts to eliminate excess glucose through increased urination, further exacerbating dehydration.

Dehydration itself is a critical symptom, as it can lead to severe complications such as seizures and brain damage if not addressed promptly. Confusion and fatigue are also significant symptoms, particularly in older adults, as high glucose levels can impair cognitive function and energy utilization. Blurred vision is another alarming symptom, caused by the effects of high glucose levels on the eye's lenses, prompting individuals to seek medical attention. Additionally, unintentional weight loss occurs as the body resorts to fat breakdown for energy due to its inability to utilize glucose effectively. In severe cases, HHS can lead to coma, a life-threatening condition requiring immediate medical intervention. Electrolyte imbalances, resulting from dehydration, can further complicate the clinical picture and lead to serious cardiac and neurological issues. Lastly, seizures may occur due to severe dehydration and electrolyte disturbances, highlighting the critical need for timely recognition and treatment of HHS symptoms. [14,16]

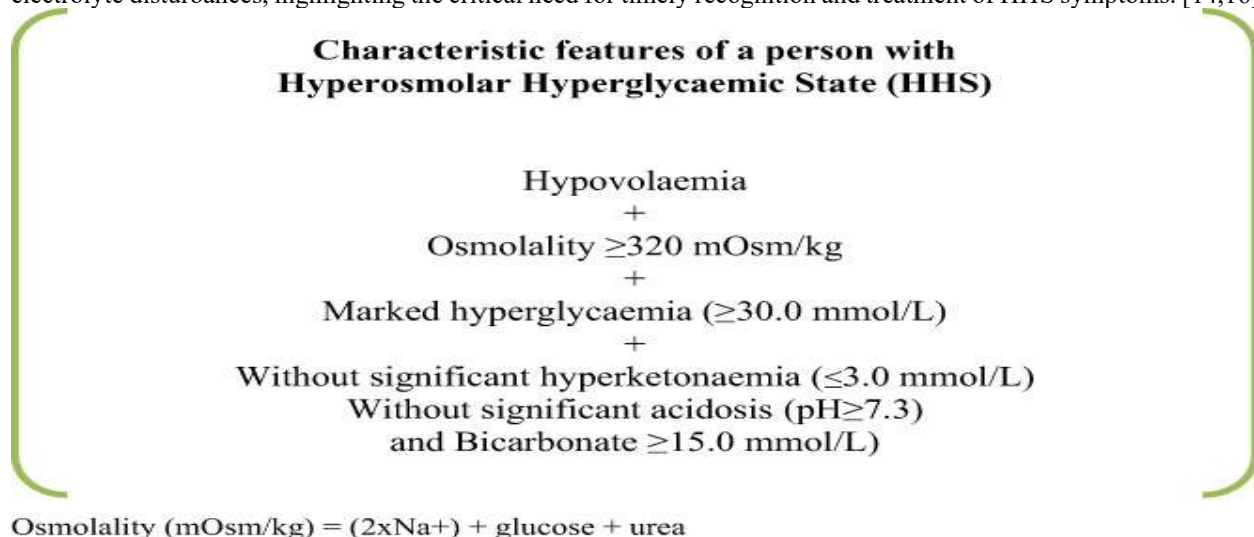


FIGURE (1): HHS DEFINITION AND CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES. [17]

### MANAGEMENT

HHS management is a multifaceted approach that requires careful consideration of various clinical factors [Figure 2]. Fluid replacement therapy is a cornerstone of HHS management, aimed at correcting dehydration and aggressive hydration through intravenous administration of with isotonic fluid, electrolytes, and glucose. This is particularly important as patients often present with significant electrolyte imbalances, necessitating close monitoring and

Hyperosmolar Hyperglycaemic State (HHS) care pathway in adults				JBDs-IP Joint British Diabetes Societies for important data		
Clinical features (all the below)		Aims of therapy		Criteria for resolution of HHS: <i>Naïve assessment of the following:</i>		
1) Marked hyperosmolality 2) Osmolality $\geq 320$ mOsm/kg 3) Marked hyperglycaemia $\geq 300$ mmol/L 4) Without significant ketonaemia $\leq 3.0$ mmol/L 5) Without significant anion gap (a7.7) and bicarbonate $\geq 15$ mmol/L		1) Improvement in clinical status and replacement of all estimated fluid losses by 24 hours 2) Gradual decline in osmolality: drop of 3-6 mOsm/kg/hr 3) Blood glucose aim to keep to 10-15 mmol/L in the first 24 hours 4) Avoid hyponatraemia and hypokalaemia 5) Prevent heart, VTE, cerebral complications, fluid overload, fluid diuresis		1) Clinical and cognitive status is back to the pre-morbid state 2) Osmolality $<300$ mOsm/kg 3) Hyperosmolality has been corrected (serum osmol $\leq 315$ mOsm/kg) 4) Blood glucose $<15$ mmol/L		
Theme	Time	0-60 minutes	60 minutes - 6 hours	6-12 hours	12-24 hours	24-72 hours
<b>Clinical assessment and monitoring</b>						
0 blood tests / MHW		electrolytes, urea, creatinine, liver, renal, cardiac monitoring, urine output Monitor adequate intravenous flow (preferably 2 large bore if corrected) (Review with on-call/ICU team early if there are markers of high severity (see Table 1 severity))			Check for continuing improvement	
Monitoring (severe)		Monitor for pre-emptive events: sepsis, diabetic foot infection, bacterial pneumonia, pulmonary emboli, vascular events (myocardial infarction, stroke)			Ongoing management of the pre-existing event(s)	
Observation (MHW/Severe)		Check every hour for 6 hours Until the urine is available, substitute using 1 x 4L + 4L + glucose. Reassess osmolality until urine is available, and then use 1 x 4L + 4L + glucose + urine			Check every 6 hours (if no enough improvement then check every 2 hours) Replacement of an estimated fluid loss by 24 hours Individual BG target 8-10 mmol/L	
See for gradual decline of 3-6 mOsm/kg/hr						
How to interpret osmolality results		Check Figure 1 essential	Check Figure 1 essential	Check Figure 1 essential	Check Figure 1 essential	
Blood glucose (BG)		Check every hour Fall in BG should be up to 4 mmol/L per hour Check Figure 1 essential for details	Check every hour Fall in BG should be up to 4 mmol/L per hour Check Figure 1 essential for details	Check every hour Check every hour Check Figure 1 essential for details	Check every hour Check every hour Check Figure 1 essential for details	
<b>Interventions</b>						
Subcutaneous fluids (if HHS severe) (do for flow 1)		1 litre over 1 hour (solution is 0.9% NaCl + 0.3% KCl)	Aim for 3-4 litres positive balance by 6 hours	Aim for up to 10 litres positive balance by 24 hours	Reassess fluid balance to plan fluid replacement for the next 24 hours	1 can be dropped if patient is eating and drinking
Insulin infusion (0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr using Actrapid*) (do for flow 1)		Use 0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr of Actrapid* (0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr) or Actrapid* (0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr) or Actrapid* (0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr)	Only commence if positive fluid balance and BG plateaued on repeated measurements (at 60 minutes)		Step down insulin to 0.1 units/kg/hr to achieve BG target (8-10 mmol/L)	0.1 can be stopped if patient is eating and drinking 0.1 can be stopped if patient is eating and drinking
Ureae balance (24 hr or 48 hr or 72 hr or 100% of BG)		Not required at this stage	Only initiate if BG not normal		Continue infusion at 0.1 units/kg/hr	1 can be dropped if patient is eating and drinking
Precautions		Review osmolality / BG if potassium $<3.0$ or $<3.5$ mmol/L	Check Table 2 essential for potassium replacement guidelines	Check Table 2 essential for potassium replacement guidelines	Check Table 2 essential for potassium replacement guidelines	Check HHS daily
<b>Assessments and prevention</b>						
Prevent loss		1) 1 litre per hour (0.9% NaCl + 0.3% KCl) 2) 1 litre per hour (0.9% NaCl + 0.3% KCl) 3) 1 litre per hour (0.9% NaCl + 0.3% KCl)				1) 1 litre per hour (0.9% NaCl + 0.3% KCl) 2) 1 litre per hour (0.9% NaCl + 0.3% KCl) 3) 1 litre per hour (0.9% NaCl + 0.3% KCl)
Prevent hyperglycaemia		Insulin 0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr (0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr) or Actrapid* (0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr) or Actrapid* (0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr)				Insulin 0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr (0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr) or Actrapid* (0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr) or Actrapid* (0.1-0.2 units/kg/hr)
Prevent fluid overload		Daily fluid checks				Daily fluid checks
Refer to the regional diabetes team early		Daily fluid checks				Review to prevent diabetes team
Discharge management (if flow is clinical 100% of BG)		Daily fluid checks				Review to prevent diabetes team

**TABLE (1): DIFFERENCES BETWEEN DKA AND HHS.**

Clinical feature / Laboratory	DKA	HHS
<b>Onset</b>	Rapid (hours to 1-2 days)	Gradual (several days to weeks)
<b>Blood glucose</b>	200-600 mg/dL (11.1-13.3 mmol/L)	>600 mg/dl (13.3 mmol/L)
<b>Ketones</b>	Ketonemia >3 mmol/L or ketonuria 2+ or higher	Absent or <3 mmol/L
<b>pH (acidosis)</b>	<7.3	≥7.3
<b>Bicarbonate</b>	<18 mmol/L	≥ 15 mmol/L
<b>Osmolality</b>	Moderately elevated	Severely elevated (>320 mOsm/kg)
<b>Neurological symptoms</b>	Mild to moderate confusion	Severe confusion, seizures, coma

### SEVERE HYPOGLYCEMIA

#### CLINICAL PRESENTATION:

Severe hypoglycemia presents a range of symptoms that can escalate quickly if not addressed. One of the most critical symptoms is loss of consciousness, which occurs when the brain is deprived of glucose, highlighting the life-threatening nature of untreated hypoglycemia. [19] Additionally, seizures may occur in severe cases, particularly if the condition remains untreated, emphasizing the neurological risks associated with low blood sugar levels. [19] Other significant symptoms include confusion and disorientation, which arise from the brain's inability to function properly without adequate glucose. This can lead to long-term cognitive impairments if not recognized and treated promptly. Slurred speech is another alarming indicator of severe hypoglycemia, as it reflects impaired brain function and necessitates immediate medical attention. Early signs of hypoglycemia often include shakiness and tremors, which are the body's stress responses to low glucose levels. These symptoms can serve as crucial warning signs, allowing for timely intervention. Sweating, rapid heartbeat, dizziness, and lightheadedness are also common early indicators, resulting from the body's physiological response to hypoglycemia. Furthermore, hunger and nausea signal the body's urgent need for glucose, and recognizing these symptoms can prevent the progression to more severe manifestations of hypoglycemia. [20] the signs and symptoms of severe hypoglycemia are diverse and can lead to serious complications if not promptly addressed, underscoring the importance of awareness and immediate action in managing this condition.

#### MANAGEMENT:

Individuals with diabetes should be educated about these symptoms to empower them in managing their condition effectively. In cases of severe hypoglycemia, the administration of glucagon is a critical intervention, especially for individuals who are unconscious or unable to consume glucose orally. Treatment guidelines recommend that healthcare providers and individuals with diabetes follow established protocols, which include administering glucagon and providing oral glucose once the person regains consciousness. [21] Additionally, having an emergency hypoglycemia kit, which includes glucagon and glucose tablets, can significantly improve response times during hypoglycemic episodes. Continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) systems represent a significant advancement in diabetes management, providing real-time data that can alert users to low glucose levels, thereby preventing severe hypoglycemia. [22] For those experiencing hypoglycemia unawareness, where typical warning symptoms are absent, CGM can be particularly beneficial. Dietary management also plays a vital role in preventing severe hypoglycemia. Balancing carbohydrate intake with insulin doses and being mindful of food choices can help maintain stable blood glucose levels. Furthermore, understanding insulin therapy and adjusting doses in relation to food intake and physical activity is essential to minimize the risk of hypoglycemic episodes. [21,22]

#### COMPLICATIONS

Severe hypoglycemia can lead to a range of serious complications that affect multiple systems in the body. One of the most immediate risks is neurological damage, as the brain relies heavily on glucose for energy. Severe hypoglycemia can result in seizures, coma, and even permanent cognitive impairment, impacting memory and decision-making abilities. Additionally, individuals may experience neuropsychiatric complications such as anxiety and depression,

which can further complicate their overall health status. Furthermore, severe hypoglycemia is associated with an increased risk of mortality, especially in individuals with underlying health issues, highlighting the critical need for timely intervention. Hormonal imbalances may also occur, affecting the regulation of blood sugar levels and potentially leading to adrenal insufficiency. Gastrointestinal complications, including nausea and vomiting, can arise, further complicating the management of hypoglycemia. Autonomic dysfunction is another complication, where the body's ability to regulate automatic functions like heart rate and blood pressure is impaired. This can lead to symptoms such as orthostatic hypotension and syncope. [23,24]

## CONCLUSION

Acute complications include diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA), hyperglycemic hyperosmolar state (HHS), and severe hypoglycemia can occur, making diabetes management in the emergency department (ED) crucial. The dangers connected to these potentially fatal illnesses can be considerably decreased by routine monitoring, symptom recognition training, and prompt action. The ED should have effective management protocols that outline how to measure blood glucose, give insulin, and deal with these immediate issues. As a result, developing thorough diabetes guidelines can improve patient outcomes and lower complications, guaranteeing prompt and efficient rescue care. The goal of this review is to examine the range of acute diabetes-related problems that frequently show up in the emergency room, such as severe hypoglycemia, hyperosmolar hyperglycemic state (HHS), and diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA). Articles from 1970 to 2024 were gathered from the main databases used for the search procedure, which were the PubMed and Google Scholar search engines. In general, improving outcomes for people with diabetes requires an understanding of these emergencies and how to handle them.

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Authors declare they don't have any conflict of interest.

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## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

The initial author wrote the original text, although all authors contributed significantly through data collection and literature searches. Each author engaged in the manuscript's critical revision, accepted full responsibility for the work, and gave their approval to the final draft.

## ETHICAL APPROVAL

Not Applicable

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