

Blood Glucose Monitoring System Accuracy: Why It Matters

For patients with diabetes, achievement of glycemic control must balance between its positive and negative impacts.¹ The positive: Intensive control of blood glucose has been shown to reduce the risk for development and progression of microvascular complications (retinopathy, nephropathy, and neuropathy) of Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes.²⁻⁴ However, the beneficial impacts of intensive glycemic control may be counterbalanced by the negative impacts of the resulting increased incidence of hypoglycemia.

In the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT), strict glycemic control in patients with Type 1 (insulin-dependent) diabetes mellitus (T1DM) resulted in a 3-fold increase in the number of hypoglycemic events (62 episodes of severe hypoglycemia per 100 patient-years in the intensive therapy group vs 19 episodes of severe hypoglycemia per 100 patient-years in the conventional therapy group; $P < 0.001$).² The DCCT Research Group concluded that the goal of intensive therapy in most patients with insulin-treated diabetes should be the maintenance of blood glucose levels as close to normal as possible, but without compromising patient safety.²

In patients with Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), although the frequency of both mild and severe hypoglycemia is generally lower than that in patients with T1DM, the frequency increases as the duration of diabetes increases.^{5,6} Another major contributor to the risk for hypoglycemia in patients with T2DM is the type of glucose-lowering medication they have been prescribed. In the UK Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS), maintaining tight glycemic control in patients with insulin-treated or sulfonylurea-treated T2DM led to a significant increase in the incidence of severe hypoglycemia.³ Therefore, hypoglycemia can be an important limiting factor in attaining optimal glycemic control for patients with T1DM and T2DM.^{3,7-10}

The burdens of hypoglycemia on patients with diabetes and their health care team

On average, persons with T1DM experience numerous episodes of asymptomatic hypoglycemia and approximately 2 episodes of symptomatic hypoglycemia each week, as well as 1 or more episodes of severe, temporarily disabling hypoglycemia per year.^{11,12} In a large global survey (the Global Attitude of Patients and Physicians 2 [GAPP2™]), 80% of people with T2DM who were using insulin had experienced hypoglycemia, with 36% experiencing a hypoglycemic episode within the past 30 days.¹³

Hypoglycemia has a number of negative effects on patients and the health care system.^{14,15} (See **Figure 1.**) Hypoglycemia reduces patients' feeling of well-being, and both the severity and frequency of hypoglycemic events are correlated with reduced patient quality of life.¹⁶ Hypoglycemic events can trigger fear and anxiety, disrupt sleep, and impact work and social lives.^{16,17} The negative clinical and psychological outcomes of hypoglycemia that can potentially result from intensive treatment aimed at optimal control of blood sugar may further diminish patients' ability and willingness to manage their blood sugar properly.¹⁶

FACULTY REVIEWER



Anne Peters, MD

Director, University of Southern California
Clinical Diabetes Program
Professor, Keck School of Medicine of USC
Beverly Hills, California

Fear of hypoglycemia leads to adverse health consequences

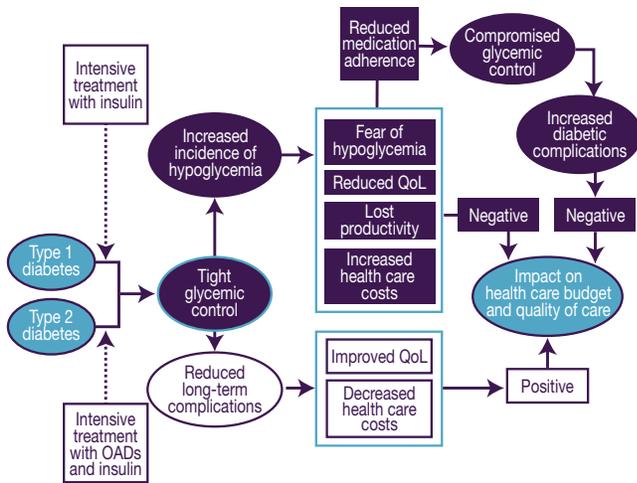
Fear of hypoglycemia on the part of both patients and their health care providers may create a barrier to effective diabetes management and promote compensatory behaviors, such as decreasing insulin and non-insulin medication doses, or not adding needed therapies, in order to avoid future hypoglycemia.^{18,19}

Maintaining blood sugar levels with such a "safety margin" (that is, at a higher than recommended level) can lead to a prolonged state of *hyperglycemia*. Following this "margin" strategy leads to elevated hemoglobin A1C (HbA1C) levels, which are associated with an increased risk for diabetic complications and increased health care costs.^{20,21} Moreover, the frequency of hypoglycemic events is underreported, because many patients do not inform their health care team about episodes of hypoglycemia.¹⁶

Economic effects of hypoglycemia

In addition to its effects on clinical outcomes in persons with diabetes, hypoglycemia is associated with substantial economic burdens.^{22,23} Data from a large health insurance database was used to estimate the economic impact of hypoglycemic events that resulted in a visit to a health care provider among a cohort of patients with T2DM.²³ The treatment settings included emergency room (ER), inpatient, ER-to-inpatient, and outpatient. Mean direct costs were lowest for a hypoglycemic event treated in the outpatient setting (\$285 per event, all drug regimens) and highest for a hypoglycemic event treated initially in the ER and then admitted to the hospital as an inpatient (more than \$10,000, all drug regimens).²³

A study that simulated the additional annual risk for hypoglycemia due to blood glucose monitoring system (BGMS) errors showed that use of



Reprinted from Fidler C, et al. *J Med Econ.* 2011;14(5):646-655,¹⁴ by permission of Taylor & Francis, Ltd.

Figure 1. Impact of hypoglycemia on patients and the health care system.¹⁴ OADs = oral antidiabetic drugs; QoL = quality of life.

more accurate BGMS could help prevent nearly 300,000 additional severe hypoglycemic episodes in patients with T1DM and more than 100,000 severe hypoglycemic episodes in patients with T2DM, with potential savings for the United States (US) health care system of more than \$500 million per year.²² The true cost of hypoglycemia is even higher if its negative effects on good glycemic control over time are considered. (See Figure 1.) As patients maintain higher than optimal glucose levels in order to avoid future hypoglycemic events, their risk for long-term complications is increased.^{14,19}

Even nonsevere or mild episodes of hypoglycemia can have substantial clinical and economic impacts. In a study of patients with T1DM or insulin-treated T2DM, self-reported, nonsevere hypoglycemic events adversely affected patient well-being, with the most frequent complaints being tiredness/fatigue, feeling less alert, and feeling irritable.¹⁶ (See Figure 2.) Slightly more than half of nonsevere hypoglycemic events led to patients reporting loss of work-time, including time away from work as well as lost productivity, where patients were present at their jobs but felt they were not as effective as usual (for example, rescheduling tasks, postponing appointments, or struggling to focus).¹⁶

A study that investigated the economic consequences of nonsevere hypoglycemia (defined as hypoglycemia not requiring assistance from another individual) for patients with self-reported diabetes and their employers in the US, the United Kingdom (UK), Germany, and France, found that nonsevere hypoglycemia generated a substantial economic burden, due to the frequency of events and lost productivity.²⁴ Based on the proportion of respondents reporting missed work, multiplied by hourly income and hours missed, the estimated cost per nonsevere hypoglycemic event due to absenteeism ranged from \$15.26 to \$35.58 (USD) in Germany, \$26.43 to \$55.16 (USD) in the US, \$46.30 to \$83.59 (USD) in the UK, and \$48.33 to \$93.47 (USD) in France.²⁴

The role of self-monitoring of blood glucose

Self-monitoring of blood glucose (SMBG) is an important tool for helping patients with diabetes to achieve blood glucose levels as close to normal as possible without developing hypoglycemia.²⁵ Both patients

and their health care providers can use SMBG to assess the effectiveness of their diabetes management plan on glycemic control.²⁵ For example, in the Structured Testing Program (STeP) study—a large, 12-month, cluster-randomized, multicenter (in the US) clinical trial in primary care—poorly controlled, insulin-naive patients with T2DM who used structured SMBG had significantly greater reductions in mean HbA1C at 12 months (−1.2% vs −0.9%; $P=0.04$).²⁶

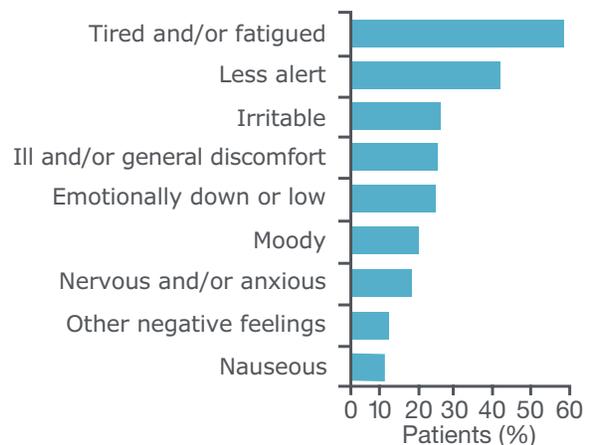
Technology-supported behavioral health interventions such as SMBG can encourage more frequent assessment of health parameters, support exchange of health information between patients and the health care team, enable better health decision-making, and encourage positive health behaviors, including self-management and health promotion.^{26,27}

Accuracy standards for blood glucose monitoring systems

The 2003 International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 15197 accuracy standard for glucose meters required that 95% of the values obtained be accurate within ± 15 mg/dL for blood glucose values <75 mg/dL and within $\pm 20\%$ for blood glucose values ≥ 75 mg/dL.²⁸ These standards were updated in 2013 to require that BGMS accuracy be within $\pm 15\%$ of the reference measurement for samples with glucose concentrations ≥ 100 mg/dL, and ± 15 mg/dL when glucose concentrations are <100 mg/dL.²⁹

In 2014, the US Food and Drug Administration proposed even smaller allowable errors for BGMS in the hypoglycemic range and fewer errors outside the range (see Table 1); this guidance is still considered a draft.³⁰

Even within the boundaries of these standards, considerable differences exist in the performance of commercially available BGMS.²² Such error patterns over the operating range of BGMS may lead to relevant differences in clinical and economic outcomes. These differences can potentially increase the risk for not detecting hypoglycemic events when they occur, and therefore inadequately identifying and treating them.²²



Reprinted from Geelhoed-Duijvestijn PH, et al. *J Med Econ.* 2013;16(12):1453-1461,¹⁶ by permission of Taylor & Francis, Ltd.

Figure 2. Patient feelings following a nonsevere hypoglycemic event. Data reported are for the last nonsevere hypoglycemic event reported in the 7-day period.¹⁶

Table 1. BGMS accuracy standards: past, present, and proposed²⁸⁻³⁰

Standard	Accuracy Criteria	Margin of Error
ISO 15197: 2003²⁸ (adopted by the FDA 2004; recognized by the FDA until January 2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 95% of results to fall within $\pm 20\%$ of a laboratory reference value for blood glucose concentrations ≥ 75 mg/dL, and 95% of results to fall within ± 15 mg/dL of a laboratory reference value for blood glucose concentrations < 75 mg/dL 	Up to $\pm 20\%$ for blood glucose levels ≥ 75 mg/dL
ISO 15197: 2013²⁹ (not adopted by the FDA)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 95% of results to fall within ± 15 mg/dL of a laboratory reference value for blood glucose concentrations < 100 mg/dL 95% of results to fall within $\pm 15\%$ of a laboratory reference value for blood glucose concentrations ≥ 100 mg/dL, and 99% of individual glucose measured values shall fall within zones A and B of the Consensus Error Grid 	Up to $\pm 15\%$ for blood glucose levels ≥ 100 mg/dL
FDA: 2014³⁰ proposed DRAFT guidance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 95% of results should be within $\pm 15\%$, and 99% of results within $\pm 20\%$ of reference values across the entire glycemic range 	Up to $\pm 20\%$ for blood glucose levels 50-400 mg/dL

FDA = US Food and Drug Administration; ISO = International Organization for Standardization.

Importance of the accuracy of BGMS on blood glucose control

At $\pm 20\%$, a single blood sample could potentially provide a fairly broad range of blood glucose readings: An actual blood glucose level (that is, the reading that would be obtained under ideal laboratory conditions) of 360 mg/dL could appear as low as 288 mg/dL using a meter with -20% error margin, and as high as 432 mg/dL at an error margin of $+20\%$.

The higher the margin of error of the BGMS, the greater the predicted risk that hypoglycemic events will be missed—and thus inadequately treated. For example, fewer than 1 in 100 hypoglycemic events will be missed via SMBG when the margin of error of the system is $\pm 10\%$.³¹ At a 15% margin of error of the BGMS, the risk increases 4-fold, to 4 in 100 hypoglycemic events missed, and when the BGMS error increases to 20%, the risk for missing a hypoglycemic event rises sharply, to 1 in 10.³¹ (See Figure 3.) Therefore, a $\pm 20\%$ margin of error could potentially lead a patient to take the wrong course of action to correct his or her blood sugar and result in undercorrection or overcorrection.^{31,32}

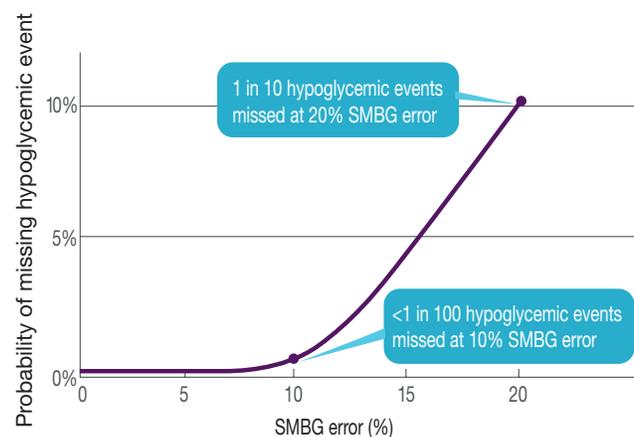


Figure 3. The probability for missing a reference hypoglycemic level of 60 mg/dL as a function of the error in self-monitoring of blood glucose (SMBG).³¹

Commercially available systems can exhibit such differences in performance and may not fulfill minimum accuracy requirements.^{22,33}

Meaningful monitoring

Although the ability to maintain good glycemic control depends in part on obtaining accurate readings of blood glucose levels,³⁴ blood glucose monitoring cannot on its own improve glycemic control. To be useful, the information obtained should be shared with the health care team at and between visits and integrated into the patient's treatment plans.³⁵ Patients utilize BGMS to detect hypoglycemia and hyperglycemia, titrate insulin dosing, calibrate continuous glucose monitoring devices, and adjust diet and exercise accordingly.²⁵ Therefore, BGMS are an important tool for helping patients—and their health care providers—to assess the effectiveness of their management plan on glycemic control. The American Diabetes Association considers SMBG to be an integral part of diabetes management for patients with either T1DM or T2DM.²⁵

The 2016 consensus statement on outpatient glucose monitoring from the American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists and American College of Endocrinology encourages “meaningful monitoring,” which is the idea that monitoring should be used in a way that informs decisions on disease management.³⁵ Meaningful monitoring implies that, in order to be useful, the information obtained via SMBG must be understood by the patient, communicated to the patient's health care team, and then integrated into self-management plans for maintaining glycemic control.

Education is an essential part of clarifying the relationship between specific glucose data and medication, as well as other therapeutic interventions. Health professionals should educate patients about interpreting and using SMBG data in a way that helps them identify glucose patterns and responses to various components of their therapy, enhance patients' ability to self-adjust their therapy between office visits, and help them decide when to seek medical assistance.³⁵

Clinical practice guidelines from all of the major diabetes organizations recommend that patients with T1DM monitor their blood sugar on a routine basis.³⁵ For patients with T2DM, meaningful monitoring should be individualized by the physician and the health care team in partnership with the patient, depending on the patient's risk for hypoglycemia. Assessment of this risk is based on factors such as prior history, the patient's own awareness of when he or she is experiencing an episode of hypoglycemia, and current therapy (for example, whether the patient is receiving medications that increase the risk for hypoglycemia, such as insulin, sulfonylureas, or glinides).³⁵ (See Table 2.) Meaningful SMBG can help empower patients to play a more active role in managing their diabetes and can help maximize the efficacy and safety of all glucose-lowering therapies.

Technology and meaningful monitoring

Recently, technology-supported mobile applications (apps) have aided meaningful monitoring by permitting more frequent and more convenient assessment of health parameters, supporting the exchange of health information between patients and health care providers, enabling informed health decision-making, and encouraging positive health behaviors.³⁶ The pooled results of a meta-analysis of 11 studies that evaluated computer-based diabetes self-management interventions in

adults with T2DM found that there was a small but statistically significant beneficial effect on HbA1C (-0.2% ; $P=0.009$) in the intervention groups; the effect on HbA1C was greater among patients in the subgroup using mobile phone interventions (-0.5% ; $P<0.00001$).³⁷

Table 2. Clinical situations that may require greater glucose monitoring accuracy³⁵

Patients requiring the highest possible accuracy in glucose monitoring

- History of severe hypoglycemia
- Hypoglycemia unawareness
- Pregnancy
- Infants and children receiving insulin therapy
- Patients at increased risk for hypoglycemia, including:
 - Patients receiving basal insulin
 - Patients receiving basal bolus insulin therapy with multiple injections per day
 - Patients receiving insulin secretagogues
 - Patients with irregular schedules, skipped or small meals, vigorous exercise, travel between time zones, disrupted sleep schedules, shift work
- People with occupational risks that enhance possible risks from hypoglycemia (for example, involving driving or operating hazardous machinery)

Reprinted from Bailey TS, et al. *Endocr Pract.* 2016;22(2):231-261,³⁵ with permission from the American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists.

Why BGMS accuracy matters

The fear of hypoglycemia, its clinical and psychological impacts, and its substantial associated “hidden” costs, all have major negative effects on the overall burden of diabetes. Patients’ use of BGMS that provide accuracy close to laboratory reference values—especially at blood glucose levels for which the incorrect reading is most likely to cause a clinical error—may help reduce this burden.²² Patients with diabetes rely on accurate BGMS to detect and properly manage hypoglycemia, titrate medication doses, adjust diet and activity, and improve overall decision-making in managing their disease.²⁵ Accurate BGMS play a role in ensuring that patients and their health care providers have confidence in their blood sugar readings and can trust that those results will help the patient attain optimal glycemic control.

REFERENCES: 1. Cryer PE. Glycemic goals in diabetes: trade-off between glycemic control and iatrogenic hypoglycemia. *Diabetes.* 2014;63(7):2188-2195. 2. The Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT) Research Group. The effect of intensive treatment of diabetes on the development of long-term complications in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. *N Engl J Med.* 1993; 329(14):977-986. 3. UK Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS) Group. Intensive blood-glucose control with sulphonylureas or insulin compared with conventional treatment and risk of complications in patients with type 2 diabetes (UKPDS 33). *Lancet.* 1998; 352(9131):837-853. 4. The ADVANCE Collaborative Group. Intensive blood glucose control and vascular outcomes in patients with type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med.* 2008;358(24):2560-2572. 5. UK Hypoglycaemia Study Group. Risk of hypoglycaemia in types 1 and 2 diabetes: effects of treatment modalities and their duration. *Diabetologia.* 2007;50(6):1140-1147. 6. Seaquist ER, Anderson J, Childs B, et al. Hypoglycemia and diabetes: a report of a workgroup of the American Diabetes Association and the Endocrine Society. *Diabetes Care.* 2013;36(5):1384-1395. 7. The DCCT Research Group. Hypoglycemia in the diabetes control

and complications trial. *Diabetes.* 1997;46(2):271-286. 8. Workgroup on Hypoglycemia, American Diabetes Association. Defining and reporting hypoglycemia in diabetes: a report from the American Diabetes Association Workgroup on Hypoglycemia. *Diabetes Care.* 2005;28(5):1245-1249. 9. Oyer DS. The science of hypoglycemia in patients with diabetes. *Curr Diabetes Rev.* 2013;9(3):195-208. 10. Chamberlain JJ, Rhinehart AS, Shaefer CF Jr, Neuman A. Diagnosis and management of diabetes: synopsis of the 2016 American Diabetes Association Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes. *Ann Intern Med.* 2016;164(8):542-552. 11. Cryer PE. The barrier of hypoglycemia in diabetes. *Diabetes.* 2008;57(12):3169-3176. 12. Elliott L, Fidler C, Ditchfield A, Stissing T. Hypoglycemia event rates: a comparison between real-world data and randomized controlled trial populations in insulin-treated diabetes. *Diabetes Ther.* 2016;7(1):45-60. 13. Tahrani A, Barnett AH, Brod M, Rana A, Peyrot M. GAPP2™: Global survey finds three quarters of patients experience hypoglycaemia on insulin analogue causing dose irregularities and increased blood glucose monitoring. Presented at the 48th Annual Meeting of the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD). October 2012. October 1-5, 2012. Berlin, Germany. Presentation 222. 14. Fidler C, Emelund Christensen T, Gillard S. Hypoglycemia: an overview of fear of hypoglycemia, quality-of-life, and impact on costs. *J Med Econ.* 2011;14(5):646-655. 15. Cryer PE, Davis SN, Shamoon H. Hypoglycemia in diabetes. *Diabetes Care.* 2003;26(6):1902-1912. 16. Geelhoed-Duijvestijn PH, Pedersen-Bjergaard U, Weitgasser R, et al. Effects of patient-reported non-severe hypoglycemia on healthcare resource use, work-time loss, and wellbeing in insulin-treated patients with diabetes in seven European countries. *J Med Econ.* 2013;16(12):1453-1461. 17. Frier BM, Jensen MM, Chubb BD. Hypoglycaemia in adults with insulin-treated diabetes in the UK: self-reported frequency and effects [published online ahead of print Aug 6, 2015]. *Diabet Med.* doi: 10.1111/dme.12878. 18. Amiel SA, Dixon T, Mann R, Jameson K. Hypoglycaemia in Type 2 diabetes. *Diabet Med.* 2008;25(3):245-254. 19. Wild D, von Maltzahn R, Brohan E, et al. A critical review of the literature on fear of hypoglycemia in diabetes: implications for diabetes management and patient education. *Patient Educ Couns.* 2007;68(1):10-15. 20. Willis WD, Diago-Cabezudo JI, Madec-Hily A, et al. Medical resource use, disturbance of daily life and burden of hypoglycemia in insulin-treated patients with diabetes: results from a European online survey. *Expert Rev Pharmacoecon Outcomes Res.* 2013; 13(1):123-130. 21. Leiter LA, Yale JF, Chiasson JL, et al. Assessment of the impact of fear of hypoglycemic episodes on glycemic and hypoglycemia management. *Can J Diabetes.* 2005;29(3):1-7. 22. Budiman ES, Samant N, Resch A. Clinical implications and economic impact of accuracy differences among commercially available blood glucose monitoring systems. *J Diabetes Sci Technol.* 2013;7(2):365-380. 23. Curkendall SM, Zhang B, Oh KS, et al. Incidence and cost of hypoglycemia among patients with type 2 diabetes in the United States: analysis of a health insurance database. *J Clin Outcomes Manage.* 2011;18(10):455-462. 24. Brod M, Christensen T, Thomsen TL, Bushnell DM. The impact of non-severe hypoglycemic events on work productivity and diabetes management. *Value Health.* 2011;14(5):665-671. 25. American Diabetes Association. Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes-2015. *Diabetes Care.* 2015;38(suppl 1):S1-S94. 26. Polonsky WH, Fisher L, Schikman CH, et al. Structured self-monitoring of blood glucose significantly reduces A1C levels in poorly controlled, noninsulin-treated type 2 diabetes: results from the Structured Testing Program study. *Diabetes Care.* 2011;34(2):262-267. 27. Parkin CG, Buskirk A, Hinnen DA, Axel-Schweitzer M. Results that matter: structured vs. unstructured self-monitoring of blood glucose in type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2012;97(1):6-15. 28. International Organization for Standardization. ISO 15197:2003. In vitro diagnostic test systems—requirements for blood-glucose monitoring systems for self-testing in managing diabetes mellitus. Geneva: International Organization for Standardization; 2003. 29. International Organization for Standardization. In vitro diagnostic test systems—requirements for blood-glucose monitoring systems for self-testing in managing diabetes mellitus. ISO 15197:2013. Geneva: International Organization for Standardization; 2013. 30. US Food and Drug Administration. Self-monitoring blood glucose test systems for over-the-counter use. Draft guidance for industry and Food and Drug Administration staff. www.fda.gov/downloads/medicaldevices/deviceregulationandguidance/guidancedocuments/ucm380327.pdf. Accessed April 18, 2016. 31. Breton MD, Kovatchev BP. Impact of blood glucose self-monitoring errors on glucose variability, risk for hypoglycemia, and average glucose control in type 1 diabetes: an in silico study. *J Diabetes Sci Technol.* 2010;4(3):562-570. 32. Raine CH 3rd, Schrock LE, Edelman SV, et al. Significant insulin dose errors may occur if blood glucose results are obtained from miscoded meters. *J Diabetes Sci Technol.* 2007;1(2):205-210. 33. Freckmann G, Baumstark A, Jendrike N, et al. System accuracy evaluation of 27 blood glucose monitoring systems according to DIN EN ISO 15197. *Diabetes Technol Ther.* 2010;12(3):221-231. 34. Walsh J, Roberts R, Vigersky RA, et al. New criteria for assessing the accuracy of blood glucose monitors meeting, October 28, 2011. *J Diabetes Sci Technol.* 2012;6(2):466-474. 35. Bailey TS, Grunberger G, Bode BW, et al. American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists and American College of Endocrinology 2016 outpatient glucose monitoring consensus statement. *Endocr Pract.* 2016;22(2):231-261. 36. Burke LE, Ma J, Azar KM, et al; American Heart Association Publications Committee of the Council on Epidemiology and Prevention, Behavior Change Committee of the Council on Cardiometabolic Health, Council on Cardiovascular and Stroke Nursing, Council on Functional Genomics and Translational Biology, Council on Quality of Care and Outcomes Research, and Stroke Council. Current science on consumer use of mobile health for cardiovascular disease prevention: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation.* 2015;132(12):1157-1213. 37. Pal K, Eastwood SV, Michie S, et al. Computer-based diabetes self-management interventions for adults with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2013;(3):CD008776.



ConNext ED – Pharmacy Education Program App now available!
 Advise your patient • Share resources • Build a relationship

The makers of CONTOUR®NEXT products now have a new name.
 Introducing Ascensia Diabetes Care

©2016 Ascensia Diabetes Care. All Rights Reserved.

Ascensia, the Ascensia Diabetes Care logo and CONTOUR are trademarks and/or registered trademarks of Ascensia Diabetes Care.

85484370

