

**A STUDY OF CARDIOVASCULAR AUTONOMIC DYSFUNCTION IN TYPE 2**

**DIABETES MELLITUS IN THANJAVUR MEDICAL COLLEGE**

**DISSERTATION SUBMITTED FOR**

**M.D GENERAL MEDICINE BRANCH - I**

MAY 2020



**THE TAMIL NADU**

**Dr. M G R MEDICAL UNIVERSITY, CHENNAI**

**TAMIL NADU, INDIA**

**CERTIFICATE FROM THE INSTITUTION**

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled "**A STUDY OF  
CARDIOVASCULAR AUTONOMIC DYSFUNCTION IN TYPE 2 DIABETES  
MELLITUS IN THANJAVUR MEDICAL COLLEGE "**

is the bonafide work of **Dr.VIGNESH T.A.I.**in partial fulfilment of the University regulations of the Tamil Nadu Dr. M.G.R Medical University, Chennai for M.D General Medicine Branch I examination to be held in MAY 2020.

**Prof. Dr. Kumudha Lingaraj MD DA.,**

The honourable dean

Thanjavur medical college & hospital

Thanjavur.

## **CERTIFICATE FROM THE HOD**

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled "**A STUDY OF  
CARDIOVASCULAR AUTONOMIC DYSFUNCTION IN TYPE 2 DIABETES  
MELLITUS IN THANJAVUR MEDICAL COLLEGE** "" is

the bonafide work of **Dr.VIGNESH T.A.I.** in partial fulfilment of the university regulations of the Tamil Nadu Dr. M.G.R Medical University, Chennai for M.D General Medicine Branch I examination to be held in MAY 2020.

**Prof. Dr. K.Namasivayam MD .,**  
HOD and professor of medicine  
Department of internal medicine  
Thanjavur medical college & hospital  
Thanjavur.

## **CERTIFICATE FROM THE GUIDE**

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled "**A STUDY OF  
CARDIOVASCULAR AUTONOMIC DYSFUNCTION IN TYPE 2 DIABETES  
MELLITUS IN THANJAVUR MEDICAL COLLEGE** " " is

the bonafide work of **Dr.VIGNESH T.A.I.** in partial fulfilment of the university regulations of the Tamil Nadu Dr. M.G.R Medical University, Chennai for M.D General Medicine Branch I examination to be held in MAY 2020.

**Prof. Dr. K. Namasivayam MD.,**  
HOD and professor of medicine  
Department of internal medicine  
Thanjavur medical college & hospital  
Thanjavur.

## **DECLARATION**

I, **Dr. VIGNESH T.A.I.** solemnly declare that this dissertation “**A STUDY OF CARDIOVASCULAR AUTONOMIC DYSFUNCTION IN TYPE 2 DIABETES MELLITUS IN THANJAVUR MEDICAL COLLEGE** ” is a bonafide record of work done by me at the Department of General Medicine, Thanjavur medical college, Thanjavur under the guidance of **Dr.K.NAMASIVAYAM** MD., Professor. Department of General Medicine, Thanjavur medical college, Thanjavur. This Dissertation is submitted to the Tamil Nadu Dr. M.G.R Medical University in partial fulfilment of the rules and regulations for the award of M.D GENERAL MEDICINE DEGREE BRANCH–I examination to be held in MAY 2020.

DATE :

PLACE : THANJAVUR

**(Dr.VIGNESH T.A.I.)**

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

I would like to thank our respected dean **Prof.Dr. KUMUDHA LINGARAJ MD DA.**, Thanjavur Medical college for permitting me to utilize the facilities of Thanjavur Medical college and Hospital for this dissertation. I wish to express my respect and sincere gratitude to my beloved teacher, Unit chief and Head of the Department, **Prof. Dr. K.NAMASIVAYAM M.D.**, Professor of Medicine for his valuable guidance, support and encouragement during the study and also throughout my course period.

I am greatly indebted to the Assistant Professors, **Dr.SUNDARARAJAN M.D., Dr.MANIMARAN M.D., D.T.C.D.**, for their valuable suggestions throughout the course of the study.

I am extremely thankful to **Prof. Dr.SENTHIL KUMAR MD. DM., Department of Cardiology** for their constant support, guidance, cooperation and to complete this study.

I sincerely thank all the staffs of department of medicine for the timely help rendered to me whenever and wherever needed.

I am extremely thankful to my beloved father **Mr T.A.ILANGO** and mother **Mrs S.VISALAKSHI** , my sisters for their constant support throughout my study and course period.

I extend my thanks to all my friends, batch mates, my juniors and senior colleagues who have stood by me and supported me throughout my study and course period.

Finally, I thank all the patients, who form the most vital part of my work, for their extreme patience and co-operation without whom this project would have been a distant dream and I pray God for their speedy recovery.

## CONTENTS

<b>S.NO</b>	<b>TOPICS</b>	<b>PAGE.NO.</b>
1.	INTRODUCTION	
2.	AIMS AND OBJECTIVES	
3.	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	
4.	MATERIALS AND METHODS	
5.	RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION	
6.	DISCUSSION	
7.	CONCLUSION	
8	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	
9	ANNEXURES	
	PROFORMA	
	MASTER CHART	
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	
	ETHICAL COMMITTEE APPROVAL LETTER	
	ANTI PLAGIARISM CERTIFICATE	



## INTRODUCTION

### DIABETES: A CHALLENGE OF 21st CENTURY

Change in the lifestyle of people along with globalization in the past century has increased the incidence of diabetes. Findings of a report by Ramachandran et al has proved (1)urbanization of India causing a high prevalence of diabetes.It has increased from 13.9 in 2002 to 18.2 in2006 in urban areas. The rural area also showed a increase in prevalence from 6.4 in 2002 to 9.2 in 2006. According to International Diabetic Federation diabetes atlas, (2)India is next only to china hosting the high number of people with diabetes. The number of people with diabetes is expected to increase from 65.1 million in 2013 to 109 million in 2035 in

India .. Indians develop diabetic complications at an early age. This results in increase in mortality and morbidity among Indians. Despite a high prevalence of diabetes in South -east Asian countries only 5 % of the global health care cost goes towards diabetes care. Prevention of complications associated with diabetes is achieved by primary prevention by modifying risk factors such as insulin resistance and obesity.(4)

Type 2 diabetes is a disorder characterized by insulin resistance, relative decrease in insulin secretion and hyperglycemia. Environmental and genetic factors play a role in the development of diabetes Diabetic neuropathy a set of clinical syndrome sometime silentand undetected, may be single or combined

with signs which are non specific, insidious and slow and often diagnosed by exclusion. Neurologic complications occur equally in all types of diabetes – type I, type II and all other types of diabetes **(19)**.

One fourth of patients attending diabetes clinic had diabetic neuropathy based on the symptoms present. A simple clinical examination like testing for ankle jerk or vibration test revealed a positive test in 50% of individuals. A more sophisticated test for autonomic neuropathy showed a 90% incidence of neuropathy in diabetic patients at diagnosis **(21)** Diabetic neuropathy is the most common cause of hospitalization than other known cause of complications **(22)**. So early diagnosis of cardiac autonomic neuropathy by using simple non invasive investigation – heart rate variability using ECG helps in the identification of individuals at risk.

This study aimed at assessing the prevalence of Cardiac autonomic neuropathy in type 2 diabetic individuals using simple bedside conventional testing methods and to estimate the association between prolonged QTc and presence of cardiac autonomic neuropathy.

## **AIMS AND OBJECTIVES**

1. To study the prevalence of Cardiac Autonomic Neuropathy among Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus patients in Tanjavur Medical College and Hospital.
2. To estimate the association between QTc prolongation and presence of cardiac autonomic neuropathy

## **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

### **DIABETES:- A MAJOR HEALTH PROBLEM**

Type 2 diabetes is a disorder characterized by insulin resistance, relative decrease in insulin secretion and hyperglycemia. Environmental and genetic factors play a role in the development of diabetes.

### **CLINICAL RISK FACTORS**

Individuals whose mother is a diabetic has a 5-6 fold increased risk of developing diabetes(5,6). Family history in a first degree relative increases the risk by about 2 to 3 times. Asians or African Americans are more susceptible than whites.(7) Obesity is a major risk factor in type 2 diabetes as it increases peripheral insulin resistance (8) Life style factors like decreased physical activity, high fat diet, smoking ,alcohol and obesity play a pathogenic role (9) Smoking has a definite relationship(10) with development of diabetes. Sleep duration has a definite relationship to the development of diabetes.(13) Both inadequate sleep of less than 5 to 6 hrs /day and excess sleep of more than 8 hrs /day is associated with increased risk of diabetes. Disruption of sleep produces low melatonin secretion which increases the risk of developing diabetes.(14) Dietary patterns like increased intake of sweets ,high fat dairy products, red meat, processed meat are associated with increased risk (15) Sugar sweetened soft drinks , producing weight gain, deficiency of vitamin D, Selenium(16)chromium(17) have a role in the development of diabetes. Women who had gestational diabetes, patients with heart

failure, MI, hyperuricemia, polycystic ovary syndrome are associated with increased risk of becoming diabetic.

### **ADA Criteria for the diagnosis of diabetes (18)**

1. HbA1C  $\geq 6.5$  % OR
2. Fasting plasma glucose  $\geq 126$  mg/dl . (Fasting is taken as no energy intake for 8 hours at least ) OR
3. 2hour plasma glucose  $\geq 200$  mg/dl in an OGTT. ( to be done using a 75 g glucose load) OR
4. In a patient with classic symptoms of hyperglycemia, a random plasma glucose  $\geq 200$  mg/dl

### **AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY**

Autonomic nervous system is crucial for the maintenance of normal body homeostasis. Given the widespread functions of the ANS, it is not surprising that its dysfunction affects every organ and system of the body. It has been rightly said that “knowing autonomic dysfunction is to know the whole medicine”. Autonomic neuropathy is one of the dreaded and troublesome complications of diabetes. Diabetic autonomic neuropathy has a significant negative impact on survival and quality of life in patients with diabetes. 25–50% of the patients with Diabetic autonomic neuropathy die within 5–10 years of diagnosis. It is also a major factor increasing the cost of care of a patient

with diabetes. However, it is one of the least recognized and understood complications of diabetes.

Autonomic nervous system (ANS), also called as the visceral or involuntary nervous system, innervates cardiac muscle, smooth muscle, and various endocrine and exocrine glands. Hence, this nervous system influences the activity of almost all tissues and organ systems in the body. The ANS contains two anatomically and functionally different divisions—the sympathetic and parasympathetic systems. Many tissues are innervated by both divisions, typically exerting the opposite effects on a given tissue. However, the two are dominant under different conditions. In general, sympathetic system is active during stressful (“fight-flight”) reactions and exercise, whereas parasympathetic predominates during quiet conditions (“rest-digest”). Autonomic neuropathy is one of the dreaded and troublesome complications of diabetes. The 5-year mortality rate is 3–5 times higher in diabetic patients with autonomic neuropathy than in those without. Studies have shown that diabetic autonomic neuropathy (DAN) is a marker of adverse cardiovascular, renal and cerebrovascular outcomes.

“One of the most neglected and underdiagnosed among complications related to diabetes mellitus is cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy. It is a chronic complication of diabetes which involves damage to sympathetic and

parasympathetic fibres of heart which results in alteration in control of heart rate and blood pressure”[52]. The clinical symptoms include high heart rate in resting state, fall in BP during standing, decreased tolerance to exercise, altered sweating response , loss of heart rate variation during deep breathing, painless and symptomless heart attack and even sudden cardiac death..Thus, autonomic dysfunction not only affects daily activities of diabetic individuals , but it may even cause potentially life threatening outcomes.

Diabetic Neuropathy is heterogenous in its clinical presentation. It is the commonest complication of diabetes and is associated with significant morbidity. When there are signs and symptoms of peripheral nerve involvement in diabetes patients, a diagnosis of diabetic neuropathy is made after excluding other causes. This condition poses a therapeutic challenge to the treating physician . It has multifactorial pathogenic mechanism and varied clinical presentations. Hence treating these patients and curing them is difficult and the effectiveness of therapy given is mostly not satisfying to the patient. Syndrome of diabetic neuropathy and its panaroma of clinical manifestations has been studied in greater detail with respect to pathogenesis and ultrastructural changes in peripheral nerves. Hyperglycemia contributes a major role in its pathogenesis.

## **Risk factors for diabetic neuropathy**

1. Poor glucose control
2. Long duration of DM
3. Damage to blood vessels
4. Genetic susceptibility
5. Autoimmune factors
6. Lifestyle factors
7. Smoking
8. Alcohol

## **Classification of Diabetic Neuropathy[8]:**

### **Rapidly reversible**

Hyperglycemic neuropathy

### **Generalised symmetric polyneuropathy**

- A.** Acute sensory neuropathy
- B.** Chronic sensorimotor neuropathy
  - (i) Small fibre neuropathy
  - (ii) Large fibre neuropathy

**C.**Autonomic neuropathy

### **Focal and multifocal neuropathies**

- A.**Focal-limb neuropathy
- B.**Cranial neuropathy
- C.**Proximal motor neuropathy(amyotrophy)



**D.**Truncal radiculoneuropathy

**E.**Coexisting chronic inflammatory demyelinating Neuropathy

**Autonomic neuropathy** is further classified as

a.Sudomotor

b .Gastrointestinal

c .Cardiovascular

d .Genitourinary

## **NATURAL HISTORY OF NEUROPATHY**

Two distinct groups of neuropathies exists

1. Sensory and autonomic neuropathies that keeps progressing
2. Focal and acute painful neuropathies that tends to regress

**Poor blood sugar control is the major risk factor for progression of neuropathies. (25)**

There is a steady rate of deterioration of Nerve Conduction Velocity(NCV) at the rate of 1 m/sec/yr in type 2 diabetics after diagnosis . In type 2 diabetics peripheral neuropathy may be present even at diagnosis **(26)** or may precede the diagnosis of diabetes. Distal symmetric sensory motor polyneuropathy is the most common type in diabetics. **(27)**Small fibre involvement occurs earlier. Patients present with positive symptoms like pain and burning sensation. Later in the course of disease numbness and paresthesia may develop . Large fibre involvement is characterized by ulcers and gangrene of the foot

## **CLINICAL FEATURES OF DIABETIC AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY**

### **Cardiovascular System**

- Resting tachycardia
- Orthostatic hypotension
- Exercise intolerance
- Silent myocardial ischemia

### **Gastro Intestinal System**

- Constipation
- Diarrhea
- Esophageal dysmotility
- Gastroparesis diabeticorum
- Fecal incontinence

### **Genitourinary System**

- Erectile dysfunction
- Retrograde ejaculation
- Neurogenic bladder (diabetic cystopathy)
- Female sexual dysfunction (e.g., loss of vaginal lubrication)

## **Metabolic**

- Hypoglycemia-associated autonomic failure
- Hypoglycemia unawareness

## **Sudomotor**

- Anhidrosis
- Heat intolerance
- Dry skin
- Gustatory sweating

## **Pupillary**

- impairment of pupillomotor function impairment decreased diameter of dark adapted Pupil
- Argyll-Robertson pupil

## **Clinical screening test for diabetic peripheral neuropathy**

**VIBRATION TESTING :**128 Hz tuning fork is used for testing. It is tested over the dorsum of great toe and other bony prominences. Graded tuning fork may also be used. Biothesiometer is an electronic tuning fork which based on the voltage used allows vibrations to be adjusted . The lowest voltage that a normal person can sense is 6 volts in individuals less than 30 yrs and 20 volts in age 75 yrs and above. The lowest voltage perceived is called vibration perception threshold

**PRESSURE SENSATION TESTING:** 10 g monofilament also called Semmes Weinstein monofilament (29) is used to assess the pressure sensation. The monofilament is placed at right angles to the skin on the plantar surface of the foot. Pressure is increased until the filament buckles indicating a 10 g pressure applied. Sites to be tested are plantar surface of great toe , metatarsal heads, heel, dorsum of great toe .

**PAIN /TEMPERATURE TESTING:** Pin prick sensation and hot cold sensation to be tested

## **NERVE CONDUCTION STUDIES**

Demonstrates axonal degeneration and decrease in compound muscle action potential. Electrophysiological abnormalities are characteristic of large fibre neuropathy .

## **SMALL FIBRE AND LARGE FIBRE NEUROPATHY**

### **SMALL FIBRE NEUROPATHY**

1. Pain – superficial and burning type
2. Abnormal warm sensation
3. Abnormal autonomic function like dry skin , cold feet , decreased sweating , gastric and genitourinary disturbances .
4. Normal muscles strength and deep tendon reflexes
5. Nerve conduction studies – normal

### **LARGE FIBRE NEUROPATHY**

1. Abnormal vibration and joint position sense
2. Decreased / absent deep tendon reflexes
3. Deep , vague , dull , crushing or cramp like pain
4. Numbness , cotton wool sensation feet
5. Sensory ataxia
6. Small muscle wasting of feet
7. Hammer toes , pes equinus deformity
8. Warm feet due to increased blood flow

**The differential diagnosis of DAN involves excluding the following conditions:**

- a. Addison's disease and hypopituitarism
- b. Pheochromocytoma
- c. idiopathic orthostatic hypotension
- d. Shy Drager syndrome - multiple system atrophy with autonomic failure
- e. Hypovolemia
- f. Medications - anticholinergic, sympatholytic effects with insulin, vasodilators
- g. sympathetic blockers
- h. Peripheral autonomic neuropathies idiopathic autonomic neuropathy, amyloid neuropathy.

## **ASSOCIATION OF PERIPHERAL AND CARDIAC AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY**

Peripheral neuropathy is classified as small and large fibre neuropathy. Small fibre neuropathy presents as painful neuropathy where as large fibre affection presents as painless neuropathy and foot ulcers.painful small fibre neuropathy is associated more with autonomic dysfunction. (35) Llunch et al has studied autonomic dysfunction in type 1 diabetes. Frequency of autonomic dysfunction is more in type 1 diabetics and the prevalence increases with presence of peripheral neuropathy and increased duration of diabetes(36)

Another study conducted by rajiv et al has demonstrated that painful distal sensory neuropathy is associated with greater autonomic dysreflexia than painless neuropathy. CAN was assessed by frequency domain spectral analysis of HRV and somatic neuropathy by detailed neurophysiological testing. (37) Pain and autonomic sensation is carried via small myelinated and unmyelinated nerve fibres as against vibration and touch carried by large fibres. Hence small fibre neuropathy is associated with painful DSN and Autonomic involvement. Important clinical implication is that patients presenting with painful DSN should be assessed for autonomic dysfunction also for early detection.

## **DIABETES AND HEART**

### **1. DIABETIC DYSLIPIDEMIA**

Atherogenic dyslipidemia is characterized by

- Increased VLDL
- increased small LDL
- decreased HDL

This triad of lipid abnormalities is atherogenic and produces premature CHD. Most of these patients are insulin resistant.(38)

### **2. HYPERTENSION**

Hypertension is a independent risk factor for CAD, stroke, nephropathy(39) Some studies have shown a positive association of HT with insulin resistance(40)

### **3. PROTHROMBOTIC STATE**

Patients with metabolic syndrome are prothrombotic. **(41)** Patients with insulin resistance have raised levels of fibrinogen, plasminogen activator inhibitor – 1**(42)**

### **4. CARDIAC FAILURE**

Diabetic patients have increased incidence of heart failure with preserved systolic function as shown in Framingham heart study. Possible mechanisms

- Atherosclerosis
- Obesity
- Persistent hyperglycemia
- Sustained hypertension
- Microvascular alterations
- Altered myocardial proteins

Mortality rates of diabetics with cardiac failure is high **(43)**

### **5. DIABETIC CARDIOMYOPATHY**

Ventricular dysfunction that occurs per se in diabetics in absence of associated ischemia or HT. Probable mechanisms could be altered myocardial metabolism, microangiopathy.



## **6. CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE**

Both type 1 and type 2 diabetes are independent risk factors for CHD.(44) premature atherosclerosis and associated metabolic syndrome play a role. Due to associated cardiac denervation and dysautonomia silent myocardial infarction is common. (45)

## **7. CARDIAC AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY**

CAN as outlined elsewhere is associated with exercise intolerance, intraoperative lability, postural hypotension and silent myocardial infarction.

## **CARDIAC AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY**

### **Anatomy**

#### **Sympathetic nervous system**

Preganglionic fibres arise from lateral column of spinal cord. They synapse in the lower three cervical and upper three thoracic ganglion. The post ganglionic fibres forms the deep cardiac plexuses. They travel along arteries and are formed in the outer wall of blood vessel, atria, ventricles , SA- AV node and cardiac myocytes.

#### **Parasympathetic nervous system(PNS)**

PNS originates from medial medullary sites – nucleus ambiguus, dorsal motor nucleus of vagus, nucleus tractus solitarius. These are under control of hypothalamus. The vagal nerve, main parasympathetic innervations of heart exits from the medulla and enters the carotid sheath penetrates the chest and

synapses within the chain of ganglion located in the cardiac fat pads and the post ganglionic fibres supply the heart mainly SA and AV nodes. While the atrial musculature is also innervated by vagal efferents ventricular myocardium is only sparingly innervated.

### **Sympathetic activation**

Mediated by alpha receptors- causes

1. Positive chronotropic effect( increased heart rate)
2. Positive inotropy (contractility)
3. Positive dromotropy ( via B1 receptor)
4. Increase lusitropy (rate of relaxation)

### **Parasympathetic activation**

Mediated by muscarinic receptors causes

1. Negative chronotropy and dromotropy
2. Negative inotropy and lusitropy in atria

### **Sympathetic and parasympathetic interaction**

In the resting state vagal tone predominates. Efferent vagal activation inhibits sympathetic activation. During exercise sympathetic tone overtakes.

Chronic hyperglycemia produces distal dying back neuropathy in peripheral nerves. Similar to this the longest autonomic nerve vagus is affected. Hence CAN in diabetes is characterized by early affection of parasympathetics and compensatory augmentation of sympathetic tone. Later in the course parasympathetic imbalance develops. **(46)**

## **PATHOGENESIS**

Free radicals -a free radical is a species which has one or more unpaired free electron in its orbit.

### **Mechanism of generation of oxygen free radicals**

Electron transfer reactions like hydroxyl radicals , superoxide anion radical, lipid alkoxyl and peroxy radical and hydrogen peroxide generate free radicals. Energy transfer reactions like triplet carbonyl compounds and singlet oxygen are also involved in generation of free radicals

### **Hyperglycemia Induced Mitochondrial Superoxide Production**

During electron transfer in respiratory chain a proton gradient is created by extrusion of protons into inter membrane space of mitochondria This gradient stimulates ATP synthase. In diabetes with high intracellular glucose concentration, more glucose is oxidized via citric acid cycle and electron donors like NADH, FAD H<sub>2</sub> gets used up. After a critical threshold the electron transfer inside complex 3 gets blocked. This process produces electron to get backed-up to co enzyme Q which donates electron to oxygen producing superoxide anion. Hyperglycemia activates other pathways like redox changes, NADPH oxidases and uncoupled eNOS gets amplified and produce superoxide.

## **Hyperglycemia Induced Mitochondrial Superoxide Production- Activates Other Pathways By Inhibiting GAPDH**

Intracellular hyperglycemia reduces the glycolytic enzyme GAPDH. This causes other glycolytic intermediates to increase

1. High levels of glyceraldehydes 3 phosphate – glycolytic metabolite activates following two pathways.

a. AGE pathway - glyceraldehydes 3 phosphate is the source for AGE precursor methyl glyoxal.

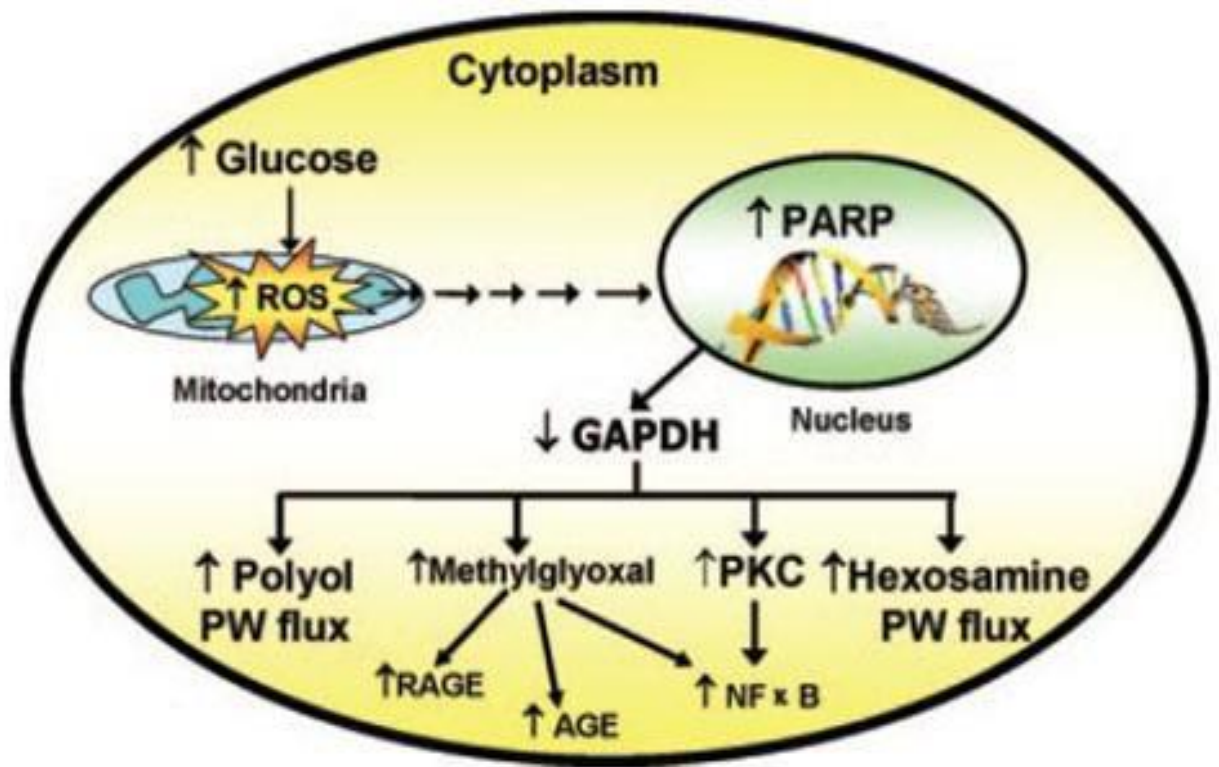
b. Classic protein kinase C (PKC) pathway : glyceraldehydes 3 phosphate is the source for diacyl glycerol which is the activator of PKC pathway

2. Levels of fructose 6 phosphate increase which is a glycolytic metabolite activates hexose amine pathway to form UDPGlcNAc.

3. GADPH inhibition also increases the intracellular glucose level which enters polyol pathway.

a. Sorbitol is formed from glucose by the enzyme aldolase reductase consuming NADPH. Increased sorbitol is neurotoxic causing Schwann cell damage by increasing cell osmolarity.

b. Depletion of NADPH in the above process decreases intracellular myoinositol which interfere with cellular metabolism.



## **Cellular injury due to increased reactive oxygen species**

1. Oxygen free radicals attack the iron – sulfur moiety of enzymes and proteins and inhibit them. the proteins more susceptible for inhibition are complexes I-III of electron transfer chain, biotin synthase and aconitase of citric acid cycle.
2. Lipids in membranes of mitochondria, plasma and endoplasmic reticulum undergoes peroxidation. The end products of this process- lipid peroxides are toxic to the cell.
3. Proteins and nucleic acid in the cells undergo peroxidation and nitrosylation which are toxic to the cell.
4. Oxidative modification of various transcription factor causes reduced expression of anti apoptic proteins like Bcl -2 and increase in proapoptic proteins.
5. Oxidative damage of DNA especially in non dividing cells like neurons affect axonal transport and signaling resulting in loss of function of neurons.

## **NRF2 and Oxidative Stress**

NRF2 is a transcription factor protects against oxidative stress. NRF2 expression is down regulated in diabetic nerves. DRG neurons are protected from free radical injury via NRF2 activation. Hence hyperglycemia induced down regulation of NRF2 makes Schwann cells and DRG more susceptible to oxidative stress.

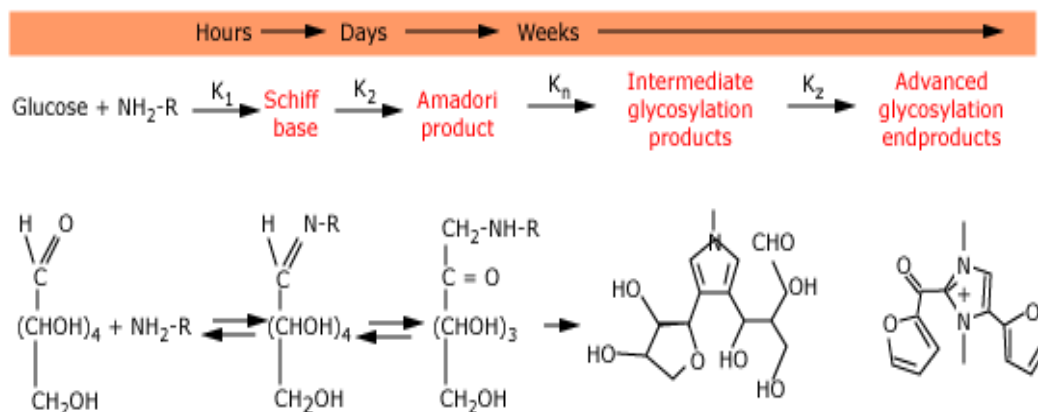
## Role Advanced Glycation End Products in the Pathogenesis of Diabetic Neuropathy

### AGEs

AGE are heterogenous compounds which are formed by non enzymatic glycation and oxidation of proteins and or lipids with aldose sugars.

### Formation of AGE

Aldehyde of glucose combines with amino acid side chain and forms covalent bond which is labile. Early glycation produces Schiff basis which are reversible. These undergo further glycation and amadori rearrangement to produce irreversible AGE products.



### Receptor for Age (RAGE)

RAGE belongs to immunoglobulin receptor super family. They are expressed minimally in normal non diabetic tissue and vessels. Chronic hyperglycemia produces more AGE products which by feedback mechanism

up regulates RAGE expression. RAGE stimulation produces pro inflammatory response.

### **AGE on Function of Extracellular Tissue**

1. AGE produces cross linking of elastin and type I collagen there by producing increase stiffness of vessels .
2. AGE interaction via RAGE decreases binding heparin sulfate, a proteoglycan in the vessel wall to the basement membrane producing a procoagulant state.
3. Glycation of LDL decreases nitrous oxide which will cause decrease in vaso dilatation.
4. Glycated LDL decreases clearance and uptake of LDL producing a pro atherogenic state promoting smooth muscle cell proliferation and atheroma formation in endo neurial vessels

### **AGE on Function of Intra Cellular Milieu**

1. Glycation of FGF affects vascular homeostasis.
2. AGE induced stimulation of monocytes and endothelial cells causes increased expression of E-selectin, VEGF, VCAM-1, ICAM-1, other pro inflammatory cytokines like IL1, IL6, TNF-A, RAGE.



## **Role of AGE in Diabetic Neuropathy**

1. AGE/RAGE induce oxidative stress that increases glycosidation products like pentosidine
2. Upregulation of nuclear product NF- kappa B and various pro inflammatory genes alter neurological function.
3. Atherosclerotic endoneurial vessels produces ischemic nerve damage.
4. Hyper glycemia induced AGE causes segmental demyelination of the peripheral nerves.
5. AGE alters cytoskeletal proteins of axons like tubulin, actin, neuro filament and produces atrophy of axons and degeneration.
6. Glycation of laminin produces reduced axonal regeneration.
7. Endoneurial deficiency of nitrous oxide affects microvasculature.

## **POLYOL PATHWAY**

Peripheral nerves uptake glucose in a noninsulin dependant manner. In hyperglycemia high glucose in the nerves enter polyol pathway.

Two enzymes are involved in the above pathway.

- a. Aldose reductase(AR)- in the presence of co factor NADPH reduces glucose to sorbitol.
- b. Sorbitol dehydrogenase (SDH) – in the presence of cofactor NAD<sup>+</sup> forms fructose from sorbitol.

1. Depletion of NADPH by AR decreases the formation of myoinositol. Myoinositol depletion alters phosphoinositide metabolism thereby reducing Na<sup>+</sup>K<sup>+</sup> ATPase activity and reducing nerve conduction velocity.
2. Depletion of NADPH causes reduction of nitric oxide and inhibits vascular relaxation producing chronic ischaemia.
3. NADPH is a cofactor for glutathione reductase and hence its depletion produces oxidative injury.
4. Sorbitol oxidation by SDH produces NADH from NAD<sup>+</sup>. NADH acts as a substrate for NADH oxidase to produce ROS.
5. Fructose formed is converted to 3 deoxy glucosone and fructose 3 phosphate. These are extremely potent nonenzymatic glycation agents. AGE acts via RAGE causing oxidative stress.

### **PROTEIN KINASE C PATHWAY**

Hyperglycemia increases diacyl glycerol which activates PKC. Active PKC increases expression of TGF B and other pro inflammatory cytokines which produces oxidative damage of the diabetic nerves.

### **HEXOSAMINE PATHWAY**

Fructose 6 phosphate is converted to glucosamine 6 phosphate by hexosamine. Increased flux through this pathway causes PKC activation and inflammatory cytokines over expression..

## **ROLE OF ISCHAEMIA IN THE PATHOGENESIS OF DIABETIC NEUROPATHY**

### **Nerve- Vascular Supply**

- A. Intrinsic system- micro vessels within endoneurium
- B. Extrinsic system – nutritive arteries, arterioles and epineurial vessels. There are extensive anastomosis between the two systems thereby preventing neural ischaemia. Diabetic nerve tissues demonstrate many endoneurial abnormalities of micro vessels like
  - a. Thickening of basement membrane
  - b. Proliferation of smooth muscle
  - c. Swelling and proliferation of endothelial cell
  - d. Platelet thrombi

### Pathways involved in ischaemic nerve damage

- a. AGE induce various cytokine and growth factors from macrophage resulting in atheroma and obstruction of vessels
- b. Hypoxic insult further stimulate oxygen free radical production, lipid peroxidation thromboxane increase decrease in prostacyclin producing vasoconstriction
- c. Polyol pathway results in production of sorbitol which affects prostacyclin production and sodium pump and depletion of NADPH thereby decreasing NO production.

d. Nerve Growth Factor(NGF) are produced in the peripheral organs and reach the cell bodies of neuron by retrograde axon transport.NGF are essential for nervous system regeneration and endurance.Chronic hyperglycemia blunts the above response

## **CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS**

### **1. Exercise Intolerance**

Kahn et al studied persons with and without CAN. He showed a decreased response in blood pressure and heart rate in individuals with cardiac autonomic neuropathy.(48)

Roy et al showed decreased cardiac output with exercise in persons with CAN(49)

Exercise induced heart rate increase and maximum heart rate increase achieved with exercise is inversely related to the severity of CAN.Cardiac autonomic dysreflexia produces reduced exercise tolerance, decreased cardiac ejection fraction, systolic and diastolic dysfunction.

### **2. Cardiovascular Liability During Intraoperative Period**

Burgos et al described need for increased vasopressor support in diabetics with autonomic dysreflexia(50) Kitamura et al has shown increased hypothermia during intra operative period in patients with CAN.(51)

Sobotka et al has demonstrated decreased hypoxia related ventilatory drive in individuals with CAN. (52). Patients with CAN anaesthesia related vaso dilatation is not compensated by autonomic response of vaso constriction and increase in heart rate. Intraoperative reduction of core temperature causes decrease in metabolism of drugs and impairs healing of wounds.

### **3. Orthostatic Hypotension**

A decrease in systolic pressure of more than 20mmhg and diastolic of more than 10 mmhg from supine to standing posture is called as orthostatic hypotension.

1. In response to change in posture there is stimulation of sympathetic nervous system by activation of baroreceptor reflex and there is release of norepinephrine which causes splanchnic vasoconstriction and a raise in blood pressure . in diabetics efferent sympathetic are damaged and blunting of this response associated with a decreased total vascular resistance produces a postural fall in blood pressure .

2. Also associated extravascular fluid retention due to cardiac and renal failure produces a reduction of blood volume .

3. Insulin per se has hypotensive action

4. Splanchnic vasodilation associated with post prandial state

5. decreased cardiac stimulation and decreased cardiac output has a role.

## **Symptomatology**

- a. light headedness , black outs, presyncope
- b. dizziness, easy fatigue, blurring of vision , neck pain.

## **4. Silent Myocardial Infarction**

Ambepityia et al had studied perception of angina pain threshold in persons with and without diabetes . He had also assessed the autonomic function tests in these individuals. He had documented a decreased angina pain perception in persons with diabetes and also had correlated this association with presence of autonomic neuropathy in these individuals . **(53)** Vinick et al has documented a definitive relation between CAN and silent MI **(54)**

n DIAD study (detection of ischemia in asymptomatic diabetics) 1123 patients were studied and CAN was found to be a strong predictor of silent MI and cardiovascular deaths in diabetics . **(55)** Detection of CAN is essential in diabetics as they continue to exert despite developing myocardial ischemia as they do not perceive the pain

## **CLINICAL SIGNS OF CAN**

### **HRV –Impaired**

- a. Earliest sign
- b. Beat to beat variation is a function of integrity of sympathetic and parasympathetic activity.

- c. Heart rate varies in response to normal respiration producing sinus arrhythmias which disappears with ANS dysfunction

### **Resting Tachycardia**

- a. Parasympathetic dysfunction produces a state of increased sympathetic tone which produces an increment of heart rate at rest more than 100/ min
- b. But other causes like thyrotoxicosis, stress, exercise, heart failure, anaemia to be ruled out.
- c. A fixed heart rate despite stress exercise indicates CAN.

### **Cardiac Stress Testing**

Poor Exercise tolerance can be assessed by stress test. Individuals with CAN have decreased heart rate, BP, and cardiac output with exercise.

### **Non Dipping BP at Night**

With sleep, in normal persons parasympathetic tone predominates hence heart rate and BP falls at night. But in presence of autonomic dysfunction sympathetic tone predominates and these persons are nocturnal nondippers. These individuals develop concentric left ventricular hypertrophy.

### **Orthostatic Hypotension**

- a. Late manifestation
- b. Damage to sympathetic vasomotor system. light headedness, black outs, presyncope, dizziness, easy fatigue, blurring of vision , neck pain are the clinical presentations.

## **DIAGNOSIS OF CARDIOVASCULAR AUTONOMIC DYSFUNCTION**

In 1970, Ewing et al put forth 5 noninvasive tests to assess the sympathovagal response (74) other causes of autonomic dysfunction like alcohol intake, drugs like diuretics, insulin, antidepressants, vasodilators, aspirin, age use of caffeine, exercise, smoking to be taken into consideration for the validity of the test.

### **“Parasympathetic function testing”[55]:**

**“Heart –rate response to Valsalva manoeuvre”[55]:** “During the strain period of Valsalva manoeuvre, BP falls and heart rate rises after release, BP rises, overshooting the resting value and the heart rate slows down’[55]. Though these reflex changes are complex,” the heart rate response can be abolished by atropine, but remains unaffected by propranolol, which suggests that it is mediated by the vagus nerve”[55].

Patients with autonomic damage have slow fall in the blood pressure during the strain phase and it slowly returns to normal after release, with no overshoot rise in BP and no change in HR.

“In healthy people the Valsalva manoeuvre has a four phased response”[48].

- **Phase I:** “There is a transient rise in BP and a fall in heart rate mainly due to aorta compression and propulsion of blood into the peripheral circulation. These hemodynamic changes mostly occur due to mechanical factors”[48].



- **Phase II:** “There is an early fall in BP followed by normalization of blood pressure. The change in BP is associated with rise in heart rate. Impaired venous return results decreased cardiac output, causing an increased peripheral resistance and rise in sympathetic activity”[48].

- **Phase III:** With cessation of expiration, there is a fall in BP with rise in heart rate

- **Phase IV[48]:** “There is an overshoot of BP value from the resting rate. This occurs because due to venous return and cardiac output is restored with residual vasoconstriction”[48].

The test is performed by the patient blowing into a mouthpiece connected to a modified sphygmomanometer and holds it at a pressure of 40 mm Hg for 15 seconds during which a continuous ECG is recorded. This test is performed 3 times with one minute interval between each. Patients with proliferative retinopathy should not undergo Valsalva because of the risk of retinal haemorrhage”[55].”The result of Valsalva test is expressed as the ratio of the longest R-R interval[55] after the manoeuvre(overshoot bradycardia following release) to the shortest R-R

interval during the manoeuvre(tachycardia during the phase of strain), measured using a ruler from the electrocardiogram tracing..The mean of the three valsalva ratios is taken as the final value “

### **“ HR variation with breathing” [29]**

“Normally the heart rate varies continually depending on an intact parasympathetic nerve supply”[29, 55]. “At slow HR, deep respiration and in adolescent patients and children, it becomes more evident. There is total abolition of HRV or considerable decrease in this response, in diabetic patients with cardiac dysautonomia. HRV can be assessed by different types of breathing. quiet breathing. Deep inspiration and expiration at 6 times a minute is usually used. The patient is asked to do the above for 60 seconds, 5 seconds taking deep inspiration and 5 seconds deep doing deep exhalation. sits quietly and breathes deeply at a rate of six breaths a minute . An ECG is recorded all along the manoeuvre taken throughout the period of deep breathing, and beginning of inhalation and exhalation tracings are marked”. The values of longest and shortest between two R waves is measured during each respiratory cycle and is measured with the help of a scale and converted to heart rate per minute. The longest and shortest RR interval is measured and its mean is taken. This bedside method is objective, comparatively easier when compared to other methods . “HRV can also be expressed as the ratio of the HR at expiration to heart rate at inspiration, the so-called E:I ratio”[29,55].

### **“Heart-rate response to standing”[18] :**

During change from lying to standing position, there is an immediate rapid increase in heart rate which occurs maximally at about the 15th beat following

standing position. At about 30th beat there is a relative overshoot bradycardia<sup>18</sup>. This is a vagus nerve mediated response. In diabetic patients with CAN, heart rate either shows minimal response or no response at all to standing position. Continuous ECG recordings are taken with patient lying comfortably in supine position. The patient is then asked to stand up without help and the point at which he begins to stand is noted in ECG. Using a ruler, the shortest distance between two R waves at about 15 the beat and the longest R-R interval at about 30 th beat post standing is noted<sup>[18]</sup>. “ The typical HR response to postural change is represented as 30:15 ratio. With little patient cooperation, this test is simple and reproducible and donot depend other confounding factors”<sup>[18]</sup>.

### **Sympathetic Autonomic Function Test:**

#### **“BP response to standing position”<sup>[21]</sup>:**

“Usually during standing there is stagnation of blood in lower limbs which causes drop in BP, which is normally rectified by peripheral vasoconstriction”<sup>[21]</sup>. In diabetic patients with dysautonomia the drop in BP persists and continues to be at a lower level than that of lying position.

“This test is performed by recording patient’s blood pressure using a sphygmomanometer, with the patient lying comfortably and then two minutes after standing position .. The difference between the systolic BP in supine

position and the systolic BP in standing position is calculated as the postural drop in BP"[21].

### **Blood pressure variation to sustained handgrip[21]:**

Isometric exercises mostly are associated with increase in BP. Hand grip is one among the isometric exercises, which cause elevation of BP due to HR dependent increase in cardiac output with unaltered peripheral vascular resistance[21].

.In patients with CAN, the normal reflex pathways are damaged and this is associated with extensive sympathetic abnormalities. As a result, there is significant reduction in rise of BP during hand grip. Using hand grip dynamometer, initial maximum voluntary contraction is estimated. Hand grip is sustained at 30% of initial maximum contraction for long as possible upto 5minutes. BP is recorded 3 times before and after hand grip. The mean of three diastolic BPs before hand grip is calculated. Result is expressed as a difference between highest DBP recorded during sustained hand grip and the mean diastolic BP before the hand grip.

## Summary of cardiovascular autonomic tests

Test	Posture	Appropriate test time	Apparatus required
Heart rate response to valsalva	Sitting	5 min	Sphygmomanometer, ECG
Heart rate variation to deep breathing	Sitting	2 min	ECG
BP to sustained hand grip	Sitting	5 min	Sphygmomanometer
Heart rate response standing	Lying to standing	3 min	ECG
BP response to standing	Lying to standing	3 min	sphygmomanometer

## BATTERY OF AUTONOMIC TESTS-EWING AND CLARKE<sup>22</sup>

Five simple, non invasive cardiovascular reflex tests based on works of

Ewing et al [22] is used to assess autonomic function

Score	Deep breathing	Heart rate ratio during Valsalva	Heart rate variability to standing	BP variability to hand grip	BP change to standing
0	$\geq 15$	$\geq 1.21$	$\geq 1.04$	$\geq 16$	$\leq 10$
1	11- 14	1.11 -1.20	1.01 -1.03	11-15	11- 29
2	$\leq 10$	$< 1.20$	$\leq 1$	$\leq 10$	$\geq 30$ mm

### **1. Postural fall in systolic blood pressure (BP)[20]**

Systolic BP was measured with the patient in supine position and 2 minutes after standing.

A fall of systolic BP more than 30 mm Hg considered abnormal -Score 2

11-29mm Hg fall in BP is considered as borderline-Score 1

Less than or equal to 10 mm Hg is taken as normal -Score 0

### **2. Increase in diastolic pressure during hand grip[20]**

Hand grip is sustained at 30% of the maximum for 5 minutes.

A rise in diastolic BP in the opposite upper limb is measured.

Rise in diastolic BP  $\geq 16$ mmHg considered Normal-Score 0

11-15mmHg considered Borderline-Score 1

$< 10$  mm Hg considered Abnormal -Score-2

### **3. Heart rate response to Valsalva manoeuvre-**

The patient is made to exhale forcefully into manometer after closing the nostrils to raise the pressure to 40 mmHg for 15 seconds. Ratio of longest RR interval to the shortest RR interval is measured and is expressed as Valsalva ratio.

Value  $\geq 1.21$  is considered as Normal and score of 0 is given.

Value 1.11-1.20 is considered Borderline and score of 1 is given.

Value  $\leq 1.10$  considered as Abnormal and a score of 2 is given

#### **4. Heart rate response to deep breathing**

Patient in lying down position, breathes in and out 6 times per minute. The differences in maximum and minimum heart rate during each cycle of breathing is being accurately calculated for accurate results.

$\geq 15$  beats per minute considered Normal Score 0

11-14 beats per minute considered Borderline Score 1

$\leq 10$  beats per minute considered Abnormal Score 2

#### **5. Heart rate response to standing**

The RR interval is measured at 15 th and 30 th beat after standing from supine position

A ratio of 30th beat :15 th beat is being precisely measured and a

Value of  $\geq 1.04$  is considered as Normal and as Score 0

Value of 1.01-1.03 is considered as Borderline and as Score 1

Value of  $\leq 1.00$  is considered as Abnormal and as Score 2

#### **CAN SCORING**

Total score out of 10 is calculated.

1. An overall score of '0' or '1' is considered normal
2. A score 2,3,4 are considered borderlines
3. A score  $\geq 5$  is judged is abnormal autonomic function



CARTs (cardiovascular autonomic reflex testing) are done after avoiding confounding factors. Patients are advised to avoid strenuous exercises in the preceding 24 hours of tests. Caffeine, alcoholic beverages, smoking, and alcohol are avoided at least 2 hours before testing. Testing are done at fasting or

after 2 hours after a light meal. In patients who are on insulin therapy, tests are done at least 2 hours after taking short-acting insulin, and not during time of hypoglycemia or hyperglycemia. These test results are to be cautiously interpreted in patients having chronic respiratory illness, obstructive sleep apnea, cardiac

diseases, in particular in heart failure. Medications like diuretics, sympatholytics, antipsychotics which interfere with the test result should be advised to withdraw before performing these tests or the patients who needed these drugs for their survival should not be included in this study.

## **QTc INTERVAL AND CARDIAC AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY**

QT interval is the time interval measured between the beginning of the Q wave and the end of the T wave in the ECG. The QT interval represents the total duration of the ventricular activity, that is the electrical depolarisation and repolarisation of ventricles[23]. QT interval may vary in different parts of the ventricles.

1. The QT decreases with tachycardia, that is, with a diminution of R-R interval.

2. The QT lengthens with bradycardia

For a meaningful evaluation, the QT interval cannot be viewed in absolute terms and must be corrected for the effect of associated heart rate.

### **QT interval measurement**

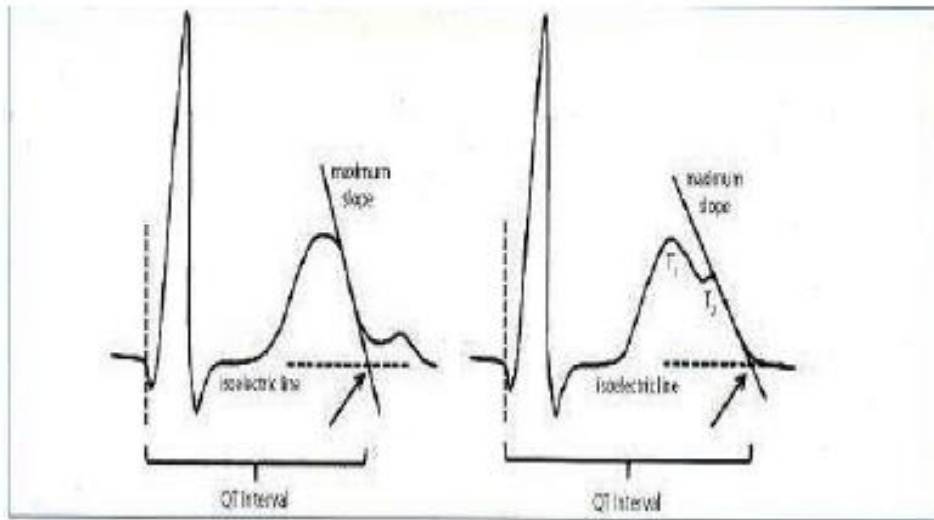
Measurement of QT interval may present some difficulty at times. This happens because, it may be difficult to determine the exact beginning and end of the interval

1) “Measured in either lead I, II or V5, V6. the beginning of QRS complex is best appreciated in leads with an initial q wave”[50].

2) “The end of the T wave may be obscured by a superimposed U wave. Larger U waves are taken into consideration for measurement”[50]

3) The end of T WAVE is determined by the *maximum slope intercept method* [50].

### Maximum slope intercept method



### Corrected QT interval[49,23]

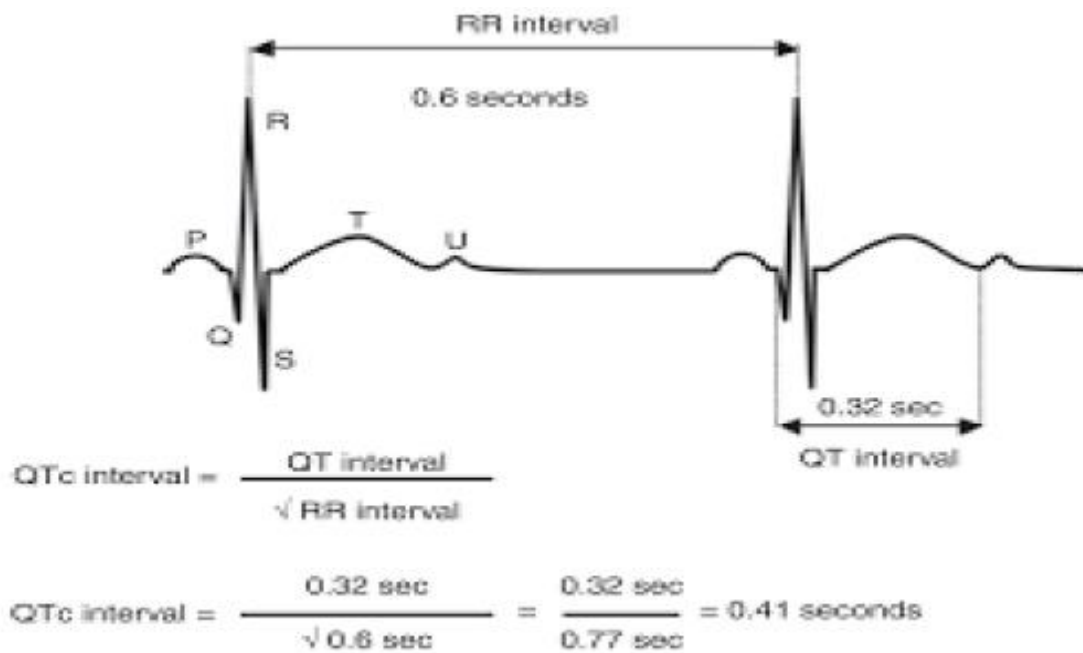
QTc interval is corrected for a theoretical heart rate of sixty beats /min

### Bazett's formula:

$$QTc = QT / \sqrt{RR}.$$

The RR interval measured between two consecutive R waves is expressed in seconds.

- **Bazett's formula** is the most commonly used as it is simplest among all.
- It under-corrects at heart rates less than 60
- It over corrects at heart rates more than 60
- provides an adequate correction for heart rates between 60 – 100 bpm.



### **Causes of a prolonged QTc (>440ms)[23]**

1. During sleep-longer during sleep
2. Hypokalemia
3. Acute myocarditis from any cause, particularly rheumatic carditis
4. Hypocalcemia-mainly due to prolongation of ST segment
5. Hypothermia
6. MI-are more likely to develop complex arrhythmias
7. Post-cardiac arrest
8. Raised intracranial pressure
9. Certain drugs-quinidine,procainamide,tricyclic antidepressants
10. Congenital long QT syndrome

An association between cardiac autonomic neuropathy and QT interval prolongation was demonstrated in many studies and it may predispose to sudden death in diabetes[24,25].Increased QT dispersion was also suggested as a marker of diabetic autonomic neuropathy[26].

## **MANAGEMENT OF CARDIAC AUTONOMIC**

### **DYSREFLEXIA:**

#### **1. Aid Tight Glycemic Control**

Long term poor blood sugar control is the prime risk factor which increases the incidence and progression of cardiac autonomic neuropathy. Mustonen et al documented the association between poor glycemic control and progression of autonomic dysfunction in a 4 year follow up study conducted in a type 2 diabetics(80)DCCT has showed that type 1 diabetics with intensive blood sugar control, has less incidence in the development of abnormal HRV. Intensive insulin therapy has been effective in preventing the complications in both type 1 and type 2 diabetics. Delay in treatment of diabetes worsens the autonomic neuropathy. Tight blood sugar control produces stabilization and prevents further worsening of neuropathy but reversal is less likely. Hypoglycemic unawareness is more among the individuals with cardiac autonomic neuropathy which warrants regular, more vigilant glycemic monitoring

## **2. To Initiate Treatment For CAN**

Early identification of autonomic dysreflexia in diabetics helps in early initiation of

- a. Pharmacological and non pharmacological treatment for BP and dyslipidemia
- b. ACE and aspirin prophylaxis
- c. Cessation of alcohol and tobacco intake
- d. Good nutrition
- e. Antioxidants like alpha lipoic acid has promising results in slowing the progression in some studies. Vitamin has also shown some improvement but needs further testing
- f. Cardioselective beta blockers by antagonizing sympathetic activity has shown to improve parasympathetic tone. Metoprolol given in type I diabetics has shown improved autonomic functioning. Aldose reductase inhibitors eg., sorbinil and eparlestat have demonstrated improved MIBG uptake in patients with mild CAN.

It has no role in advanced disease.

### **3. To Recommend Desired Adherence to Diet And Exercise**

#### **Regimen**

Recently a small study report has shown not only diabetes also prediabetes is associated with diabetic neuropathy. Preventive measures, lifestyle modifications, regular exercise has a definite role in the prevention of micro and macro vascular

complications. CAN testing would enable the physician to explain and intensify

non pharmacological therapies among diabetics. CAN testing also enable physician for a proper exercise regimen that would suit the patient.

### **4. Anaesthetic Implications of CAN Testing**

Preoperative cardiovascular autonomic testing in diabetics enables the anaesthesiologist to fore see the intra operative complications especially during general anaesthesia as these patients have a increased fall of heart rate and blood pressure during induction of anaesthesia. Also these patients have reduced ventilatory drive during the post operative period. Also the need for vasopressors is more in these patients with significant cardiac autonomic neuropathy.

### **5. Treatment for Orthostatic Symptoms**

#### **A. Non Pharmacological Measures:**

1. to increase the intake of water

2. lower extremity elastic stockings
3. frequent small feeds to prevent post prandial hypotension
4. avoid straining as raised intra abdominal and intrathoracic pressures impedes venous return
5. physical maneuvers like squatting, leg crossing increased cardiac filling and stroke volume
6. checkout for drugs that aggravate hypotension eg., TCAs, phenothiazides

## **B. Pharmacological Measures**

### 1. Midodrine

- selective, peripheral A 1 receptor agonist
- only agent approved by FDA for the treatment of orthostatic hypotension
- dose 2.5 – 10 mg three times a day
- fewer CNS side effects as it does not cross the blood brain barrier
- adverse effects- pruritis, paresthesias, urinary retention, piloerection, supine hypertension (**81**)

### 2. Fludrocortisone acetate

- synthetic mineralocorticoid
- long plasma half life
- Increases the sensitivity of the blood vessels to circulating catecholamines
- increases plasma expansion
- dose 0.05 mg @ bed time titrate slowly to a maximum dose of 0.2 mg/day



- adverse effects –supine hypertension , hypokalemia, fluid retention, hypomagnesemia, congestive cardiac failure **(82)**

### 3. Erythropoietin

- increases RBC mass, blood volume, mediates neuro humoral effects on blood vessel wall and regulates the vascular tone by mediating interaction of haemoglobin and nitric oxide.

- dose 25- 75 units per kg body wt three times a week sc/iv until patient achieves normal haematocrit. Maintain on a low dose of 25 units/kg thrice a week **(82)**

### 4. Nonselective B blockers

- these drugs blocks the B2 receptors of blood vessel which mediate vaso dilatation and thereby facilitates unopposed alpha receptor mediator vasoconstriction

- limited role for these drugs **(82)**

### 5. Clonidine

- Alpha 2 blocker

- central sympatholytic activity

- in patients with severe CAN the central sympathetic efferent activation is blunted and clonidine produces increase in venous return without affecting peripheral

vascular resistance

- limited use due to serious adverse effects **(82)**

## 6. Somatostatin analogues

- these drugs inhibit vasoactive peptides released from GIT, increases splanchnic vasoconstriction , venous return and cardiac output
- dose 25-200 micrograms /day
- development of severe hypertension precludes its use

## 7. Pyridostigmine bromide

- cholinesterase inhibitor
- increases ganglionic transmission without affecting supine hypertension **(83)**

## 8. Fluoxetine

- SSRI has shown improvement in symptoms in patients with Parkinson disease

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### **PLACE OF STUDY**

Department of General Medicine – OP department ,Thanjavur Medical College and Hospital,Thanjavur

### **DURATION**

January 2018 to January 2019

### **STUDY DESIGN**

CROSS SECTIONAL OBSERVATIONAL STUDY to evaluate the prevalence of cardiac autonomic neuropathy among Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus patients and to estimate the association between prolonged QTc interval and presence of cardiac autonomic neuropathy.

### **PATIENT SELECTION**

100 TYPE 2 DIABETIC PATIENTS both male and female, who satisfy all inclusion and exclusion criteria, from the outpatient department of Medicine, Thanjavur Medical College and Hospital will be included in this study

### **EXCLUSION CRITERIA**

Patients with the following are excluded from the study

1. Anemia
2. Alcohol consumption
3. Chronic kidney disease
4. Use of beta blockers or drugs that affect autonomic nervous system

5. Serum electrolyte abnormalities
6. Bronchial asthma or Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
7. Use of drugs that prolong QTc interval
8. Non complying patients who do not consent to participate in the study

## **DATA COLLECTION:**

All the patients are evaluated by detailed history including duration of diabetes, symptoms of autonomic neuropathy and relevant basic blood investigation.

Battery of five autonomic function tests done in all cases (as described by Ewing and Clarke et al). Autonomic neuropathy testing using simple bedside tests was done in OP department and medical ward with the use of 12 lead ECG monitor, Pulse oxymeter and BP apparatus. The same 100 patients were tested after obtaining proper informed consent, with 10 minutes interval after each manoeuvre.

The following 5 tests for detecting Cardiac Autonomic Neuropathy will be :

## **BLOOD PRESSURE FOR POSTURAL OR ORTHOSTATIC HYPOTENSION**

“Blood pressure recording is done when the subject is made to lie down and again 2 minutes after standing up. The difference in systolic pressure from lying to standing is a measure of orthostatic hypotension”[46].

## **“CHANGE IN HEART RATE TO VALSALVA MANOEUVRE”[46]:**

This test can be performed using a modified b.p apparatus. Patient blows in to the rubber tubing to raise the pressure to 40 mm of Hg, a long strip ECG in lead II is taken. Ratio of longest to shortest R-R interval is measured and mean ratio is obtained

## **“DEEP BREATHING ASSOCIATED CHANGES IN HEART RATE”[46]:**

ECG is recorded continuously while patient is taking breath at a regular rate of 6-12 breaths/min. A difference of in heart rate <15 beats/min between expiration and inspiration is taken as abnormal

## **“BLOOD PRESSURECHANGES DURING SUSTAINED HAND GRIP”[46]**

“Subject is given a ball and is asked to press the ball in his or her left hand for about 5 minutes Failure to rise the diastolic blood pressure more than 15 mm of Hg is considered as an abnormal finding and graded accordingly.

## **HEART RATE RESPONSE TO STANDING**

R-R interval is measured at beats 15 and 30.

A 30:15 ratio is calculated

**EWING'S AUTONOMIC FUNCTION TESTS AND SCORING**

Score	Deep breathing	Heart rate response to Valsalva ratio	Heart rate variability to standing	BP variability to hand grip	BP change during standing
0	≥15	≥1.21	≥1.04	≥16	≤10
1	11- 14	1.11 -1.20	1.01 -1.03	11-15	10- 29
2	≤10	<1..20	≤1	≤10	≥30 mm

h test is graded as

- Score 0 – normal
- Score 1- borderline
- Score 2 – abnormal

1. An overall score of ‘0’ or ‘1’ is considered normal
2. Score 2,3,4 are considered borderlines
3. Score ≥5 is judged is abnormal autonomic function

**QTc INTERVAL:** QT interval is determined on a 12 lead ECG taken at rest and correction for cardiac cycle is made.

The QTc is determined by using **Bazetts** formula :

$$QTc = QT/\sqrt{RR \text{ interval}}$$

**QTc>440 ms is taken as abnormal**

Apart from these cardiac autonomic reflex testing,,symptoms suggestive of autonomic dysfunction like light headedness, vertigo, palpitations, sweating abnormalities, diarrhea, constipation etc.were asked .,using detailed questionnaire.

### **BENEFIT TO THE PATIENTS**

They will be explained that having high blood glucose levels for many years may damage nerves through out body and CAN interferes with body's ability to adjust blood pressure and heart rate. So keeping blood sugars under control is important. Exercises with gradual prolonged warm up and cool down periods is encouraged. Avoid sudden changes in postures, isometric exercises and straining. Avoid large,high carbohydrate meals, as it may cause sudden fall in bp.

### **DATA ANALYSIS**

Prevalence of cardiac autonomic neuropathy in diabetes mellitus was calculated.

Difference in mean QTc interval between patients with CAN and without CAN is analysed

Specificity and sensitivity of QT interval in diagnosing diabetic autonomic neuropathy is calculated using Ewing's cardiac autonomic dysfunction scoring as gold standard

The statistical analysis were performed using Graph pad Prism version 5 software. Data were presented as mean with Standard deviation for normal distribution/scale data and as frequency with proportion n(%) for categorical data.

Fisher's exact test was used to compare the frequencies between the groups.

Unpaired 't' test was used to compare the means between the two groups. Sensitivity and specificity was calculated using 2\*2 contingency table.

ROC curve was constructed to identify the cut-off point values.  $p < 0.05$  were considered statistically significant.

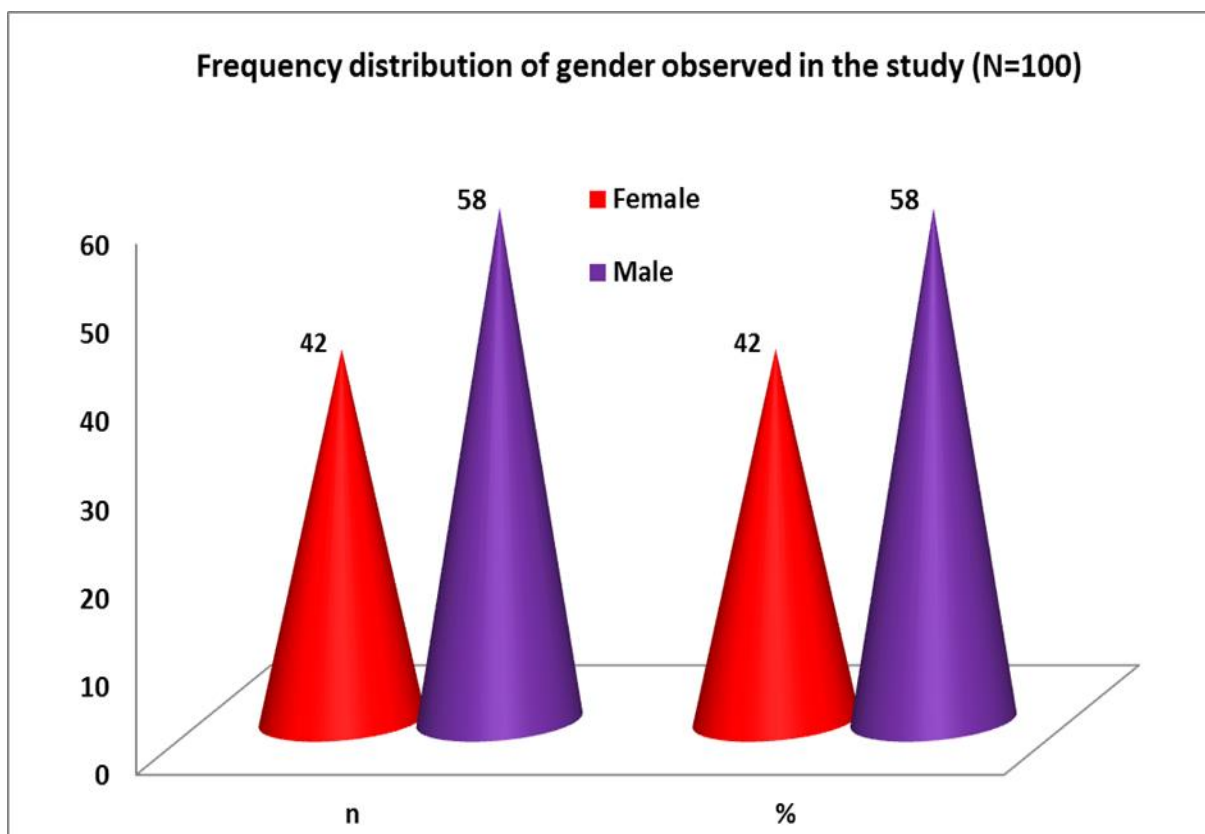


## FREQUENCY TABLES

### SEX DISTRIBUTION

S.No	Gender	n	%
1	Female	42	42
2	Male	58	58

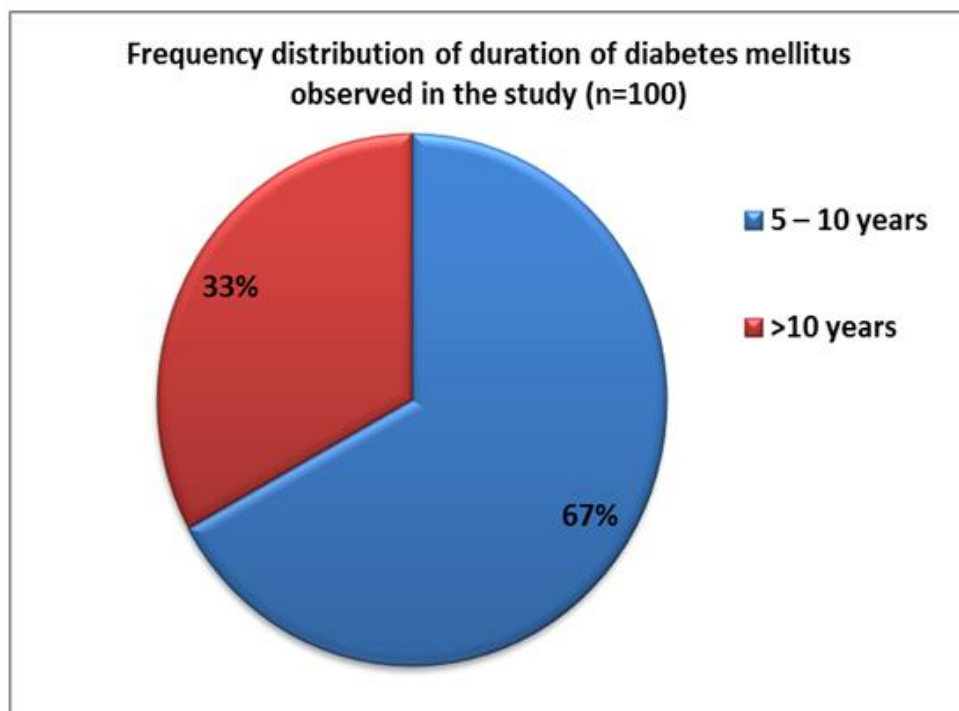
Among the study population of 100 diabetic patients included in the study, from TMC, 42 were females and 58 were males.



## DURATION OF DIABETES

S.No	Duration of diabetes mellitus	n	%
1	5 – 10 years	67	67
2	>10 years	33	33

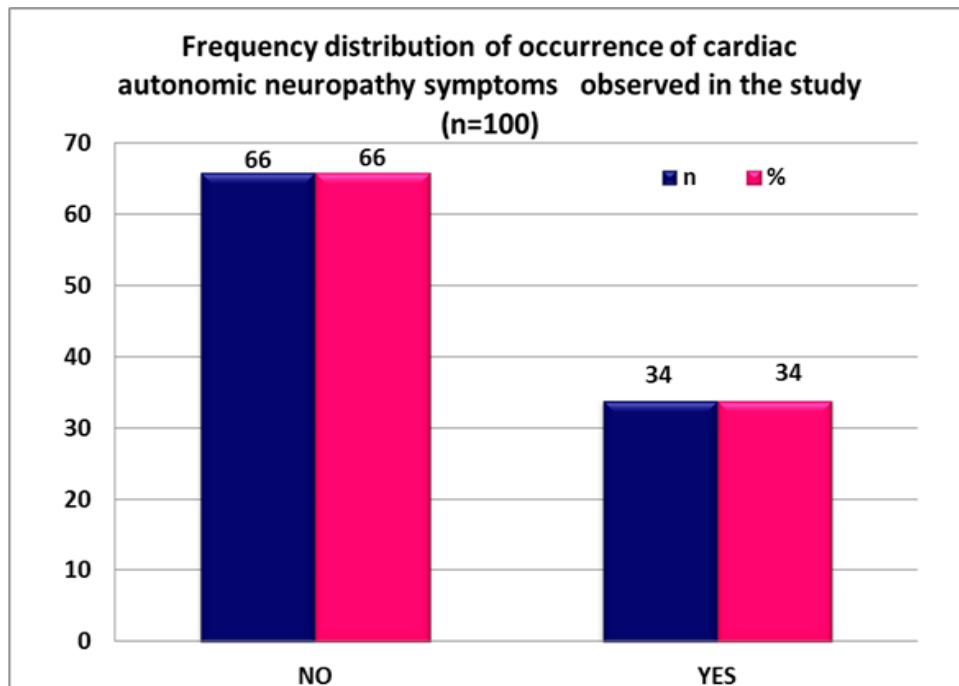
Among 100 patients from the study group, 33 had duration of diabetes >10 years, 67 had duration 5-10 years.



## SYMPTOMS OF CARDIAC AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY

S.No	Cardiac autonomic neuropathy	n	%
1	No	66	66
2	Yes	34	34

Among 100 patients, 34 were symptomatic and 66 were asymptomatic.

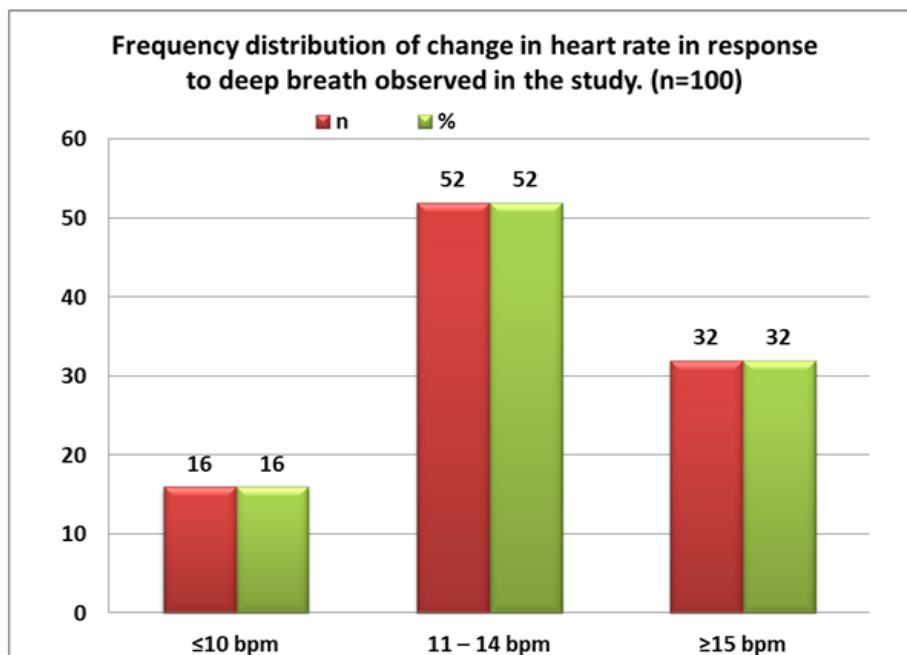


## CARDIAC AUTONOMIC REFLEX TESTS

Heart rate response to deep breathing

S.No	Change in HR in response to deep breath (bpm)	n	%
1	$\leq 10$	16	16
2	11 – 14	52	52
3	$\geq 15$	32	32

Among 100 patients, for heart rate response to deep breathing testing, 16 had abnormal scores, 52 had borderline scores and 32 were normal.

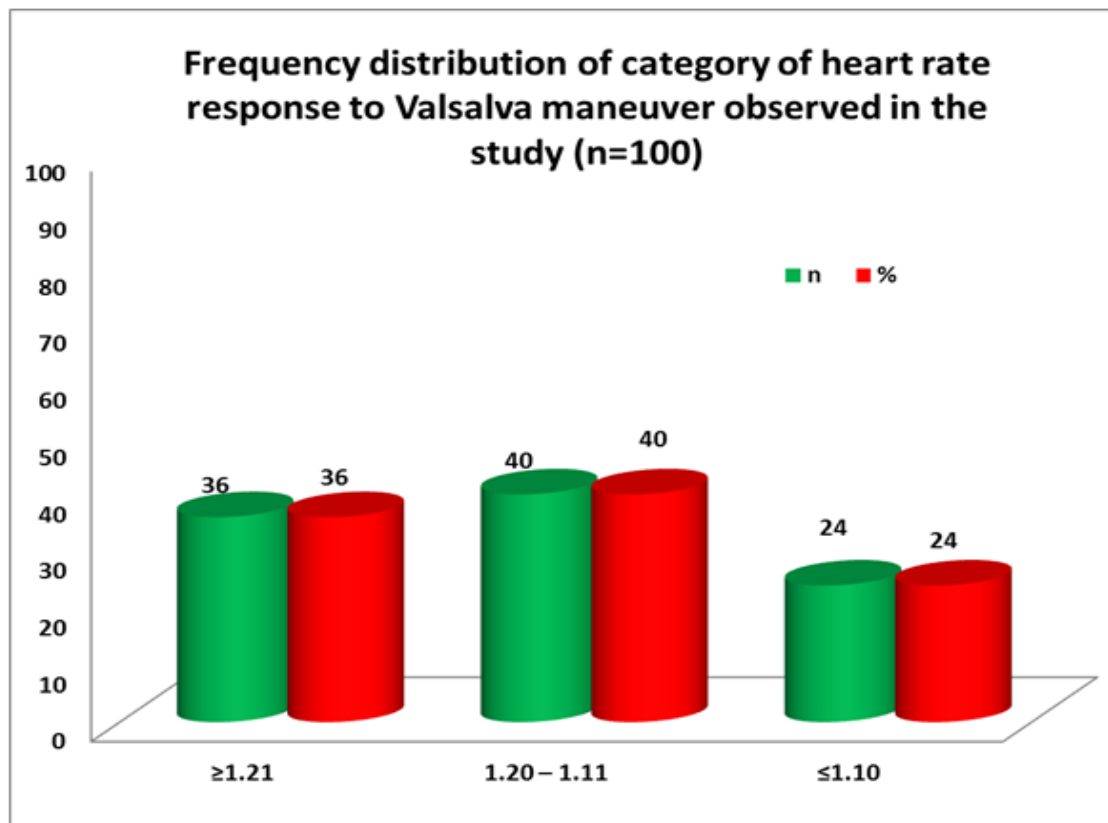


## HEART RATE RESPONSE

Heart rate response to Valsalva

S.No	Heart rate response to Valsalva maneuver	n	%
1	$\geq 1.21$	36	36
2	1.20 – 1.11	40	40
3	$\leq 1.10$	24	24

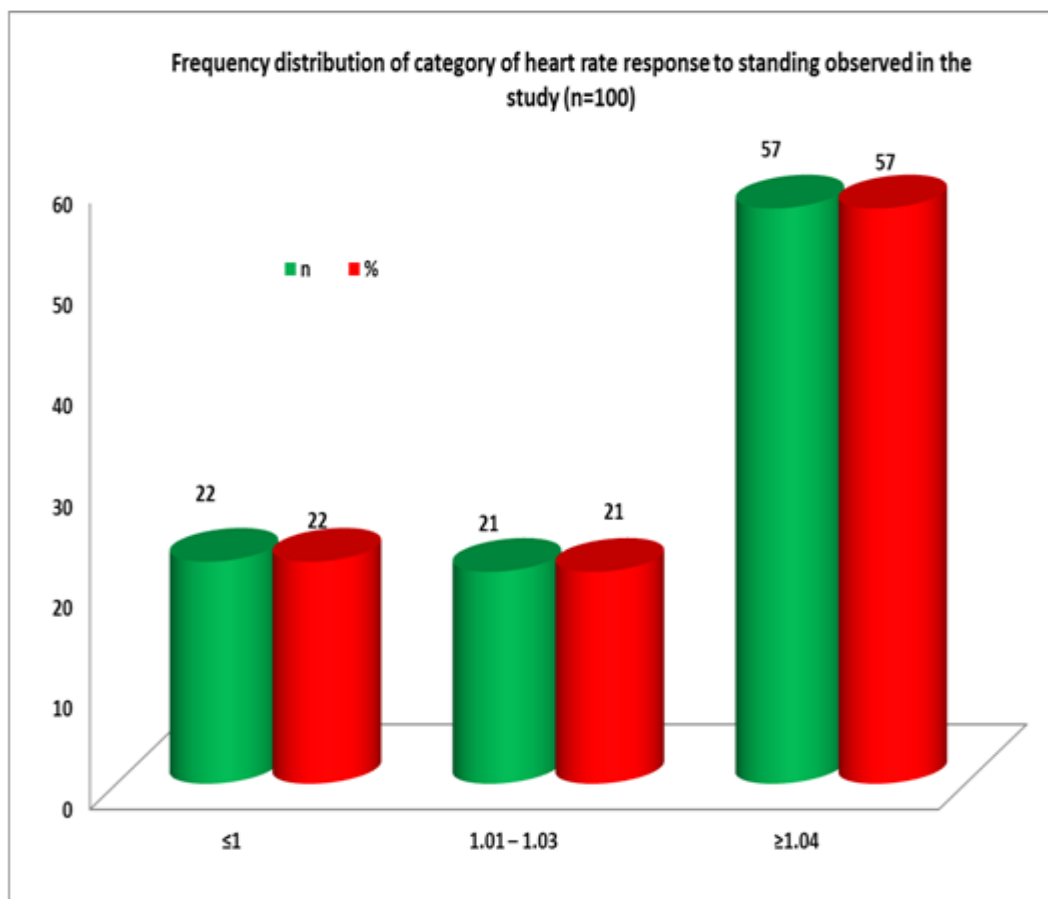
Heart rate response to Valsalva tests showed, normal scores for 36 patients, borderline scores for 40 people and abnormal scores for 24 people.



## HEART RATE RESPONSE TO STANDING

S.No	Heart rate response to standing	n	%
1	$\leq 1$	22	22
2	1.01 – 1.03	21	21
3	$\geq 1.04$	57	57

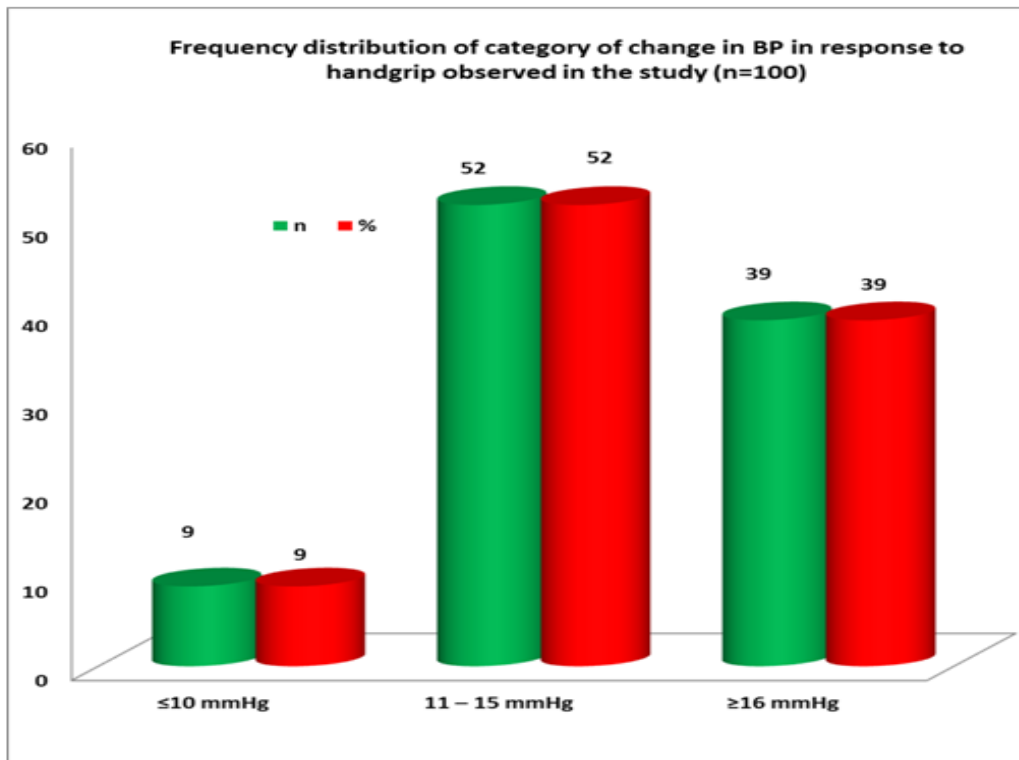
Out of 100 study population, 22 had abnormal heart rate response to standing, 21 had borderline scores and 57 were normal.



## BP RESPONSE TO HAND GRIP

S.No	BP change with handgrip (mm Hg)	n	%
1	≤10	9	9
2	11 – 15	52	52
3	≥16	39	39

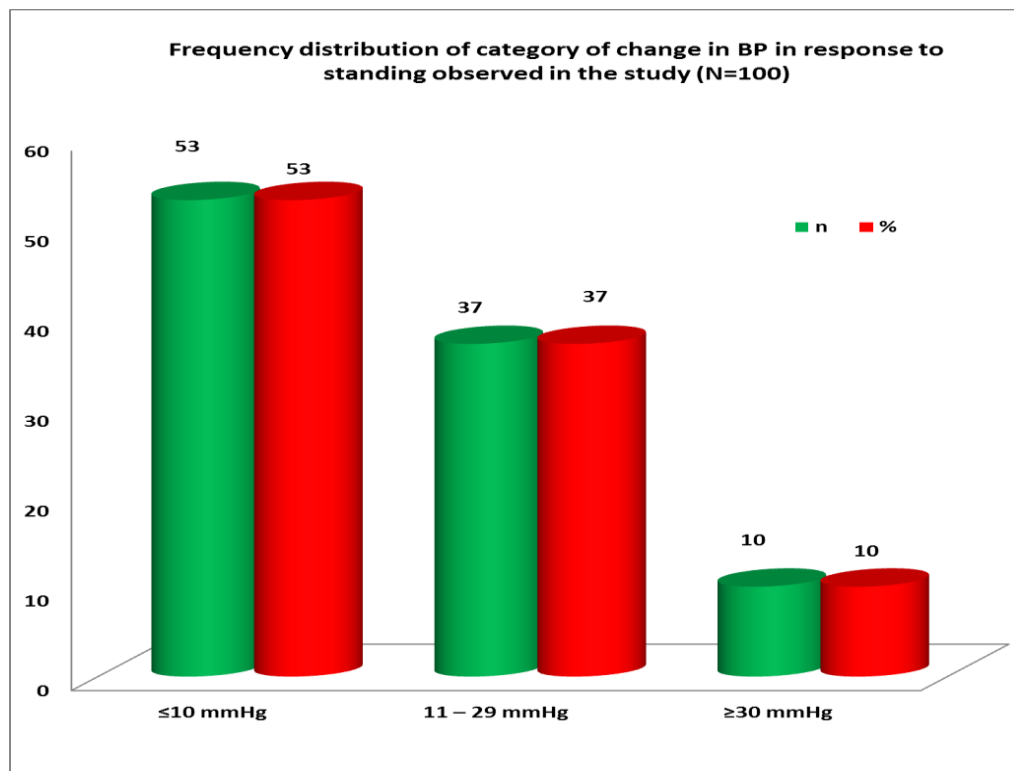
39 patients had normal response to hand grip, 52 had borderline scores and 9 were abnormal.



## BP RESPONSE TO STANDING

S.No	BP change with standing (mm Hg)	n	%
1	$\leq 10$	53	53
2	11 – 29	37	37
3	$\geq 30$	10	10

Among 100 patients, 10 patients had abnormal BP response to standing, 37 had borderline scores and 53 were normal.





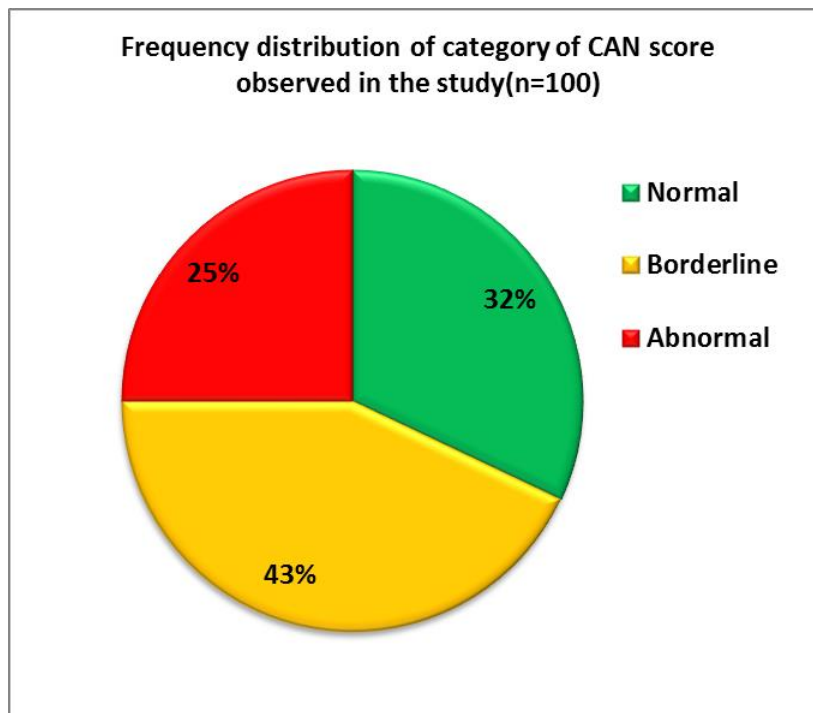
## **SUMMARY OF CAN TEST RESULTS**

Overall, among 100 patients in the study group, 16 people had abnormal results (score 2) for heart rate variability to deep breathing, 24 had abnormal results for heart rate response to Valsalva, 22 showed abnormal results for heart rate response to standing, 9 had abnormal results for BP response to hand grip, 10 had abnormal BP response to standing.

## CAN SCORE – FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

S.No	Category of CAN score	n	%
1	Normal	32	32
2	Borderline	43	43
3	Abnormal	25	25

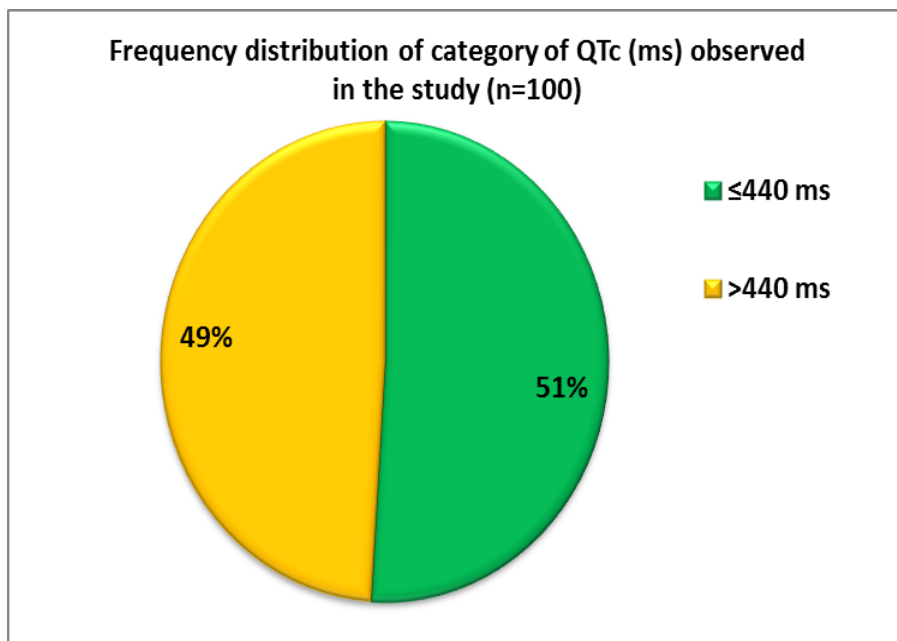
Among 100 patients, 25 had an abnormal CAN scores, 43 had borderline scores and 32 had normal CAN scores.



## QTc INTERVAL AMONG THE STUDY GROUP

S.No	Category of QTc (ms)	n	%
1	$\leq 440$	51	51
2	$> 440$	49	49

Among 100 diabetic patients, 49 patients showed a prolongation in corrected QTc (more than 440 milliseconds)

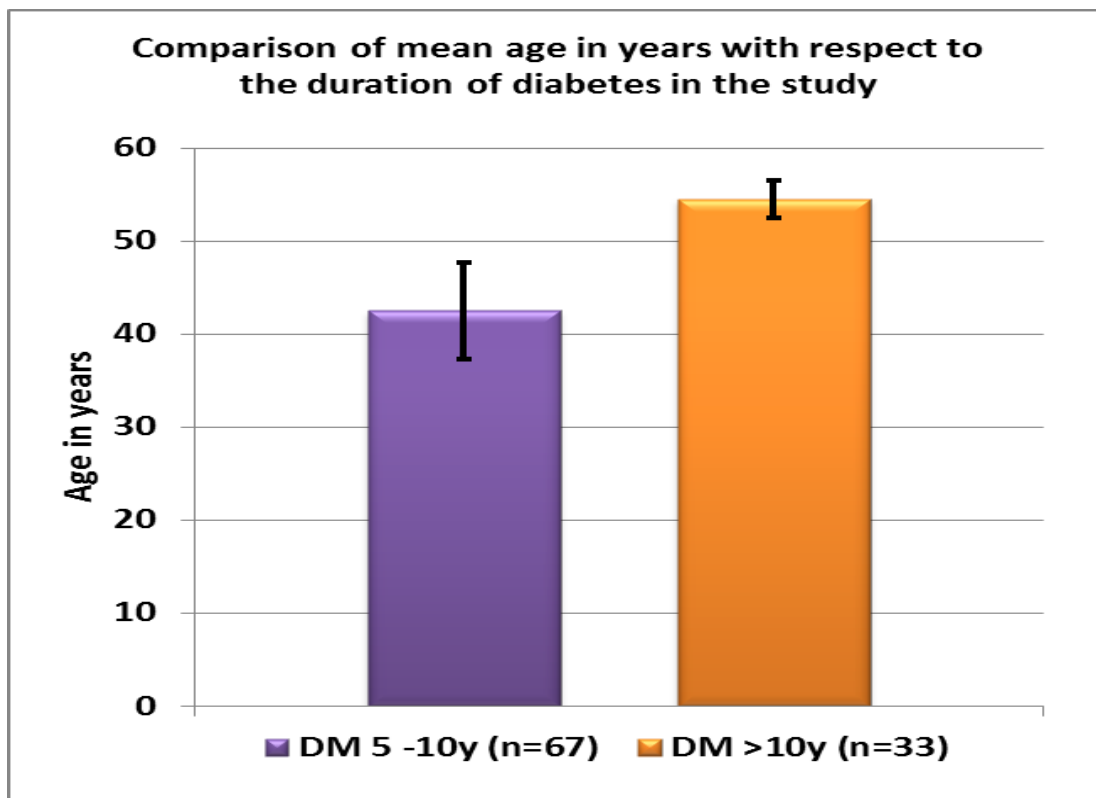


## DURATION OF DM AND AGE

S. No	Duration of diabetes	n	Mean	SD	SEM	t value	df	P value
1	5 – 10 years	67	42.5	5.16	0.63	12.83	98	<0.0001*
2	>10 years	33	54.5	2.04	0.35			

Unpaired ‘t’ test was used to compare the means between the group. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$  and considered statistically significant.

Among the study group of 100 patients, 33 had duration of diabetes more than 10 years, and the mean age was 54.5yrs, and 67 had duration of 5 – 10 years and the mean age was 42.5 yrs.

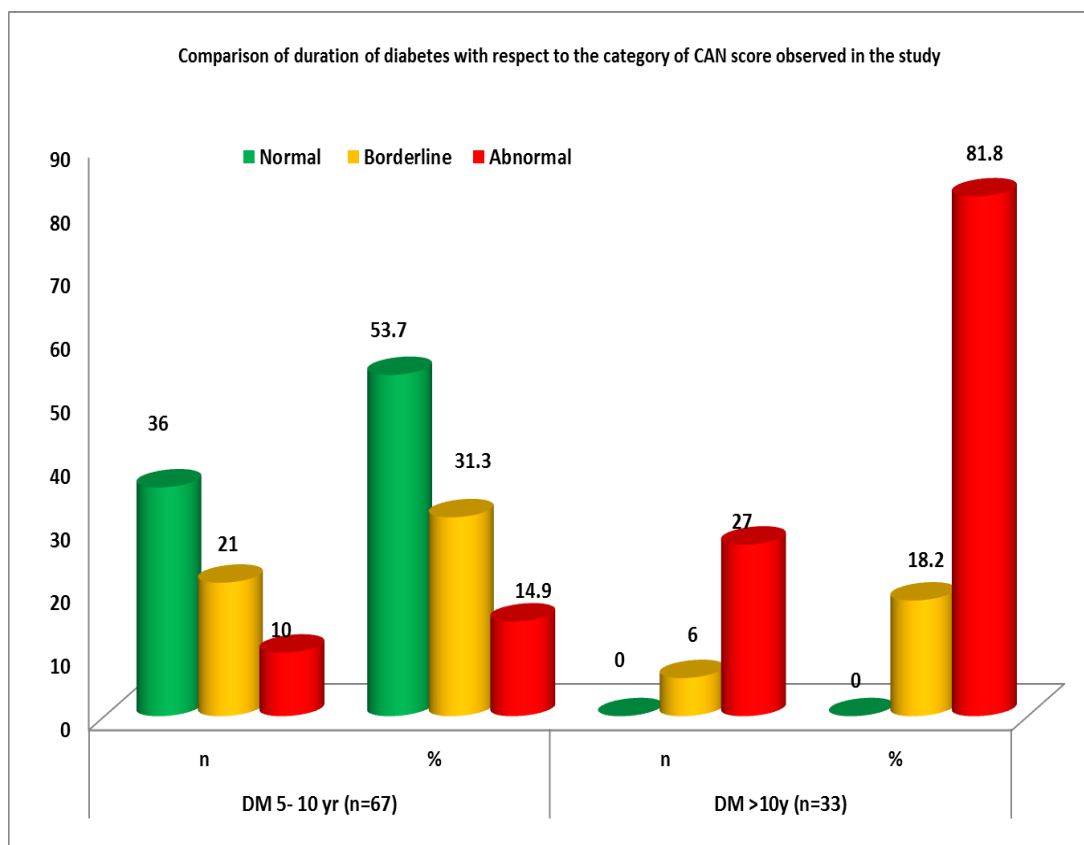


## CAN SCORE AND DURATION OF DM

S. No	CAN score category	Duration of diabetes mellitus				Chi square value	df	P value
		5 – 10 years (n=67)		> 10 years (n=33)				
		n	%	n	%			
1	Normal	36	53.7	0	0	45.8	2	<0.0001*
2	Borderline	21	31.3	6	18.2			
3	Abnormal	10	14.9	27	81.8			

Fisher's exact test was used to compare the frequencies between the groups. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$  and considered statistically significant.

Among the study group of 100, 14.9% of 5 – 10yr diabetics, 81.8% of >10yrs diabetics showed abnormal CAN scores.

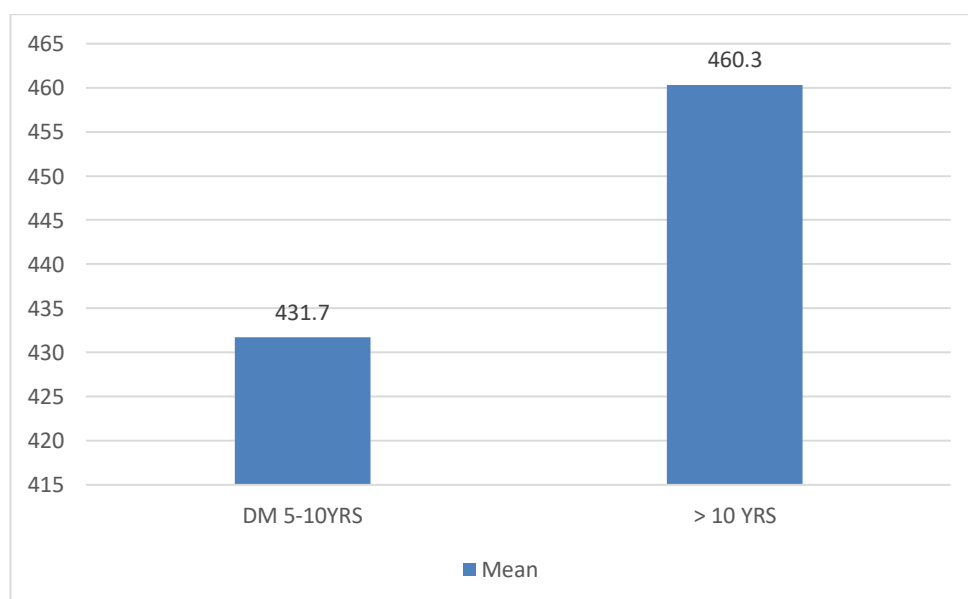


## QTc AND DURATION OF DIABETES

S. No	Duration of diabetes	n	Mean	SD	SEM	t value	df	P value
1	5 – 10 years	67	431.7	15.7	1.9	8.81	98	<0.0001*
2	>10 years	33	460.3	14.3	2.5			

Unpaired ‘t’ test was used to compare the means between the group. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$  and considered statistically significant.

Among patients with duration of diabetes 5 – 10 years, mean QTc interval was 431.7 and among > 10 years group, mean QTc was 460.3. There was prolongation of QTc interval as duration of Diabetes increases.



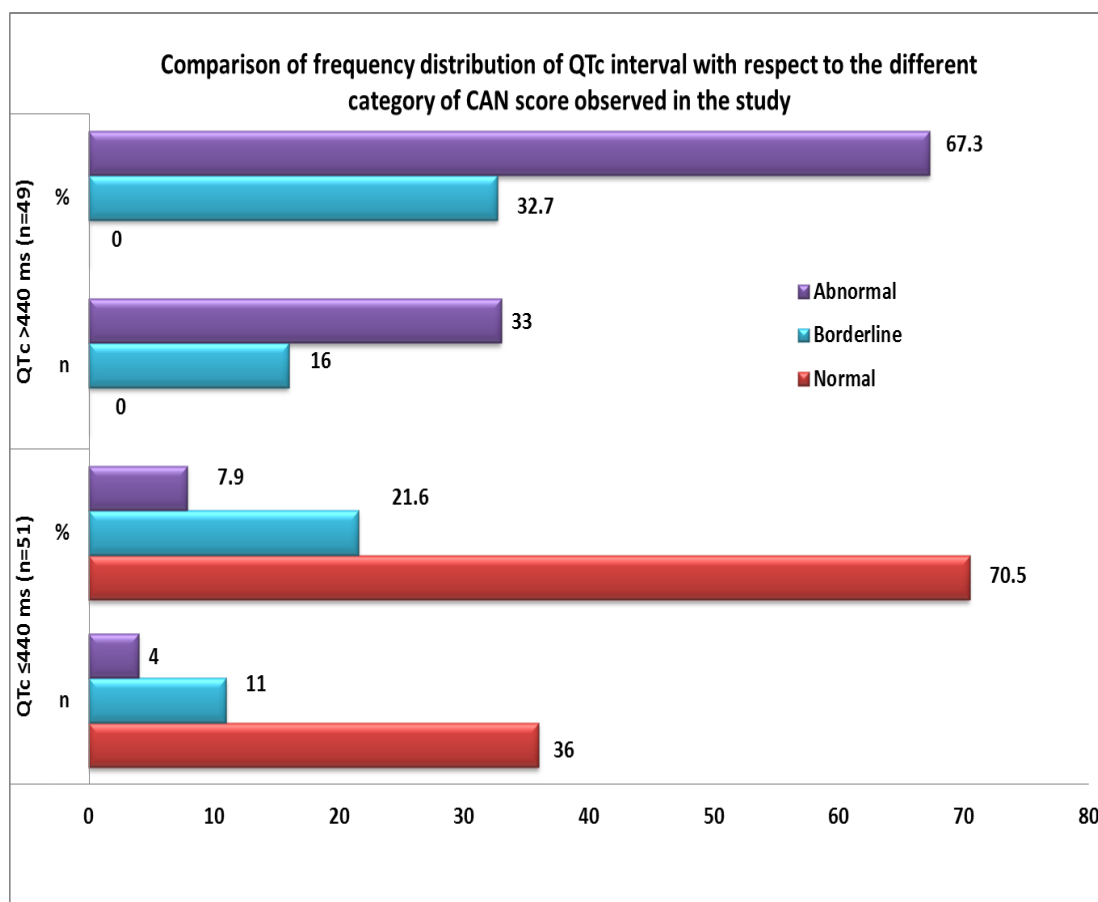
### QTc AND CAN SCORE

S. No	CAN score category	QTc (ms)				Chi square value	df	P value
		≤440 (n=51)		> 440 (n=49)				
		n	%	n	%			
1	Normal	36	70.5	0	0	59.6	2	<0.0001*
2	Borderline	11	21.6	16	32.7			
3	Abnormal	4	7.9	33	67.3			

Fisher's exact test was used to compare the frequencies between the groups. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$  and considered statistically significant.

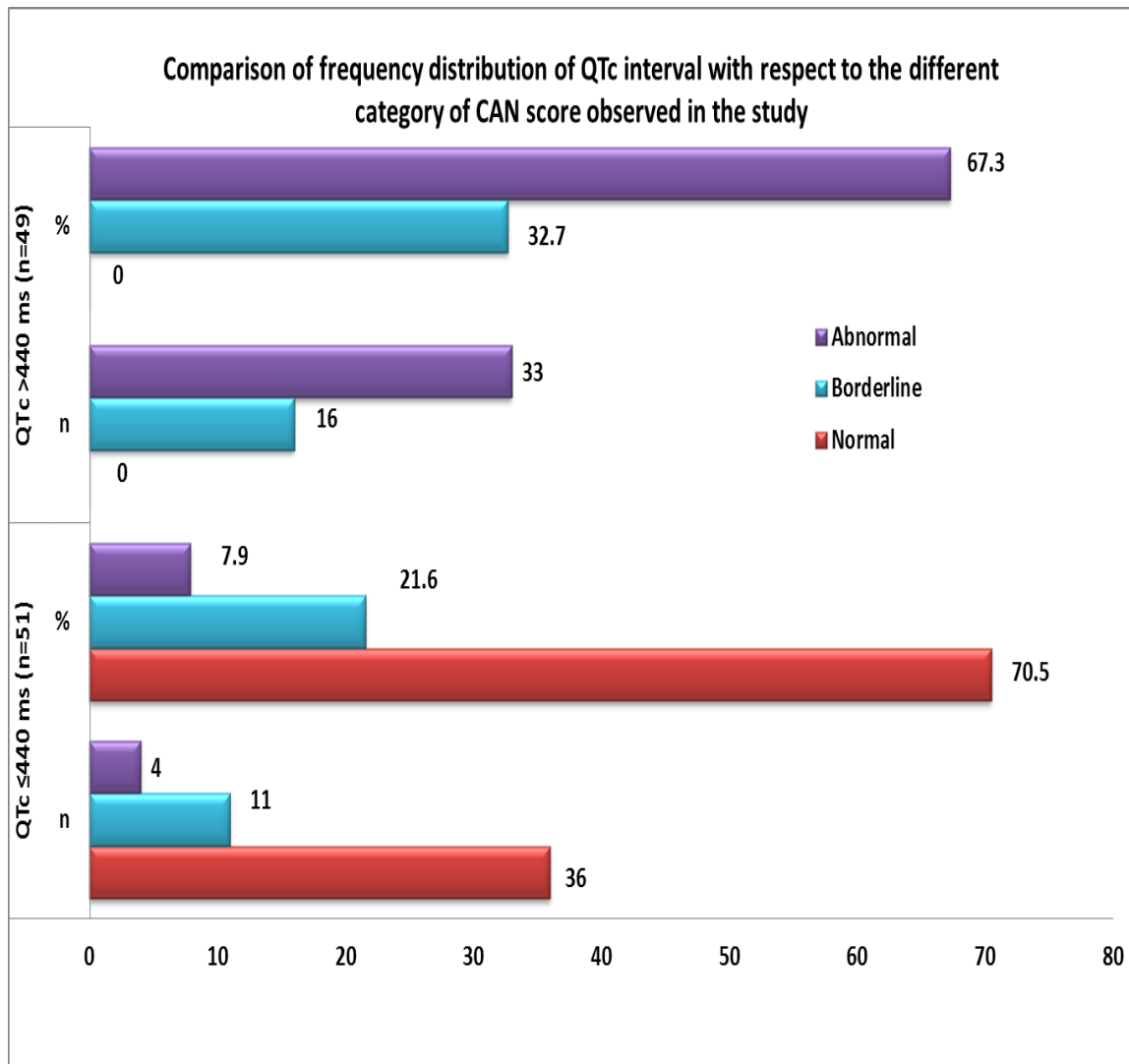
### QTc \* CAN Crosstabulation

S. No	2 X 2 table	CAN abnormal (n=64)		CAN normal (n=36)		Chi square value	df	P value
		n	%	n	%			
1	QTc>440 ms	49	76.6	0	0	54.04	1	<0.0001*
2	QTc ≤ 440 ms	15	23.4	36	100			
Diagnostic test values								
3	Sensitivity	76.5% (64.3% to 86.3%)						
4	Specificity	100% (90.3% to 100%)						
5	Positive predictive value	100%						
6	Negative predictive value	70.5%						
7	Accuracy	85% (76.4% to 91.4%)						





QTc prolongation had 76.5% sensitivity and 100% specificity in diagnosing CAN in Diabetes Mellitus patients, with a 100% positive predictive value and 70.5% negative predictive value and accuracy of 85%.



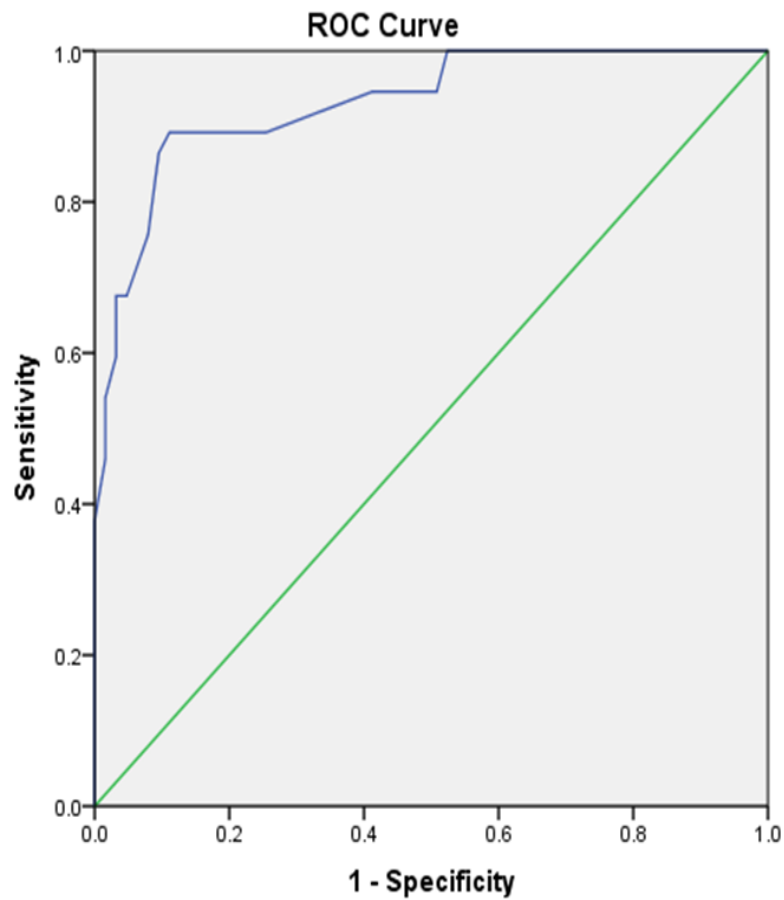
.In patients with CAN score abnormality, there was an increase in QTc interval.

# ROC CURVE

ROC Curve is an excellent way to compare diagnostic tests in statistics.

its draws on the power of statistical tests.the curve is drawn between sensitivity on X –axis and 1-specificity on Y axis.

Area	Accuracy
0.9-1	Excellent
0.8-0.9	Good
0.7-0.8	Fair
0.6-0.7	Poor
0.5-0.6	Fail



Diagonal segments are produced by ties.

### AREA UNDER THE CURVE

Area under the curve	Std. Error	Asymptotic Sig	Asymptotic 95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.931	.026	.000	.880	.982

From the above ROC curves, area under curve was calculated for QTc.

It came as 0.931. Thus QTc is excellent in diagnosing CAN score.

## DISCUSSION

Various previous studies demonstrated that cardiac dysfunction is common in Type 2 DM patients, and shows an increase in prevalence as the duration of diabetes mellitus increases. Our study among 100 diabetics in Thanjavur medical college showed significant cardiac autonomic dysfunction among diabetes patients. 42 females and 58 males were included in our study, selected after considering exclusion and inclusion criteria. Among 100 patients, 67 patients had duration 5-10 yrs, 33 patients had duration more than 10 yrs. Among 100 patients, 34 were symptomatic and 66 were asymptomatic. Among 100 patients in the study groups, 16 people had abnormal results (score 2) for heart rate variability to deep breathing, 24 had abnormal results for heart rate response to valsalva, 22 showed abnormal results for heart rate response to standing, 9 had abnormal results for BP response to hand grip, 10 had abnormal BP response to standing respectively. Among 100 patients, 25 had an abnormal CAN Score, 43 had borderline and 32 had normal CAN Scores. CAN score of 0,1 was taken as normal, 2 to 4 was considered as borderline and  $\geq 5$  was considered as abnormal.

Among our study group of 100 diabetics, 49 people showed a prolongation in corrected QTc (more than 440 milliseconds). Among the study group of 100, 14.9% of 5-10 yrs diabetics and 81.8% of >10 yrs diabetics showed abnormal CAN. Fisher's exact test showed there is a significant relation

between duration of DM and CAN scores. Out of 100 patients, mean QTc interval in patients with duration of DM of 5-10 yrs was 431.7 and >10 yrs was 460.3 There was a statistically significant relation between QTc and diabetes. Among 49 patients with prolonged QTc interval, 33 had abnormal CAN score, 16 had borderline score. Only 4 patients with abnormal CAN score had normal QTc

Mohan et al 42 study from India ,studied can in 336 patients,which showed an increase in prevalence of CAN and duration of diabetes. Pappachan J M et46 al studies evaluated the usefulness of (QTc) in the Electrocardiogram to diagnose Cardiac autonomic neuropathy in patients with diabetes. Sensitivity and specificity of QTc prolongation in diagnosing CAN were 77% and 62.5% in type 1 diabetes mellitus and 76.5% and 75% in type 2 diabetes.. The study concluded that QTc interval can be used to diagnose CAN with reasonable sensitivity and specificity. In our study,QTc prolongation had 76.5% sensitivity and 100% specificity in diagnosing CAN in Diabetes Mellitus patients,with a 100 %positive predictive value,70.5% negative predictive value and an accuracy of 85%. Thus, prevalence of CAN among diabetic patients in our hospital is fairly high comparable to previous similar study and QTC interval prolongation can be used as a relatively easier diagnostic tool.

## CONCLUSION

The conclusions from our study are

1. Prevalence of CAN among type 2 diabetes patients in our hospital is fairly high, 68%
2. There is a relation between prevalence of CAN and duration of diabetes.  
Prevalence of cardiac autonomic neuropathy increases with duration of diabetes
3. QT c interval prolongation increases with increasing duration of diabetes and CAN
4. QTc prolongation can be used as a diagnostic tool in evaluating cardiac autonomic neuropathy with excellent specificity and sensitivity

## **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

1. Joshi SR, Parikh RM. India - diabetes capital of the world: now heading towards hypertension. *J Assoc Physicians India*. 2007;55:323–4. [PubMed]
2. Kumar A, Goel MK, Jain RB, Khanna P, Chaudhary V. India towards diabetes control: Key issues. *Australas Med J*. 2013;6(10):524–31. [PMC free article] [PubMed]
3. Wild S, Roglic G, Green A, Sicree R, King H. Global prevalence of diabetes-estimates for the year 2000 and projections for 2030. *Diabetes Care*. 2004;27(3):1047–53. [PubMed]
4. Whiting Dr, Guariguata L, Weil C, Shawj. IDF Diabetes atlas: Global estimates of the prevalence of diabetes for 2011 and 2030. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 2011;94:311–21.[PubMed]
5. Flugelman MR, Kanter Y, Abinader EJ, Brazilai. Rest electrocardiographic patterns in diabetic patients without ischemic heart disease. *Diabetes* 1980; 29 (20); 76A. 4. Ewing DJ, Campbell IW, Clark BF.
6. <http://accessmedicine.mhmedical.com/book.aspx?bookid=1130>
7. Vinik, Aaron I., et al. "Diabetic autonomic neuropathy." *Diabetes care* 26.5 (2003): 1553-1579.
8. Thomas PK. Metabolic neuropathy. *Jr Coll Physicians Lond* 1973; 7:154-60.

9. Diabetes in cardiovascular disease :A companion to Braunwald's heart disease ISBN: 978-1-4557-5418-2 .
10. Bellavere F, Cacciatori V, Moghetti P, et al: Acute effect of insulin on autonomic regulation of the cardiovascular system: a study by heart rate spectral analysis,*DiabetMed* 13:709,1996.
11. Van De Borne P, Hausberg M, Hoffman RP, et al: Hyperinsulinemia produces cardiac vagal withdrawal and nonuniform sympathetic activation in normal subjects, *Am J Physiol* 276:178,1999 .
12. Spallone V, Ziegler D, Freeman R, et al: on behalf of the Toronto Consensus Panel on Diabetic Neuropathy: Cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy in diabetes: clinical impact, assessment,diagnosis, and management, *Diabetes Metab Res Rev* 2011 [Epub ahead of print].
13. Vinik, Aaron I., et al. "Diabetic autonomic neuropathy." *Diabetes care* 26.5 (2003): 1553-1579.
14. Ayad, F., et al. "Association between cardiac autonomic neuropathy and hypertension and its potential influence on diabetic complications." *Diabetic Medicine* 27.7 (2010): 804-811. 78
15. Spallone, Vincenza, et al. "Relationship between the circadian rhythms of blood pressure and sympathovagal balance in diabetic autonomic neuropathy." *Diabetes* 42.12 (1993): 1745-1752.



16. Spallone, V., et al. "Usefulness of ambulatory blood pressure monitoring in predicting the presence of autonomic neuropathy in type I diabetic patients." *Journal of human hypertension* 21.5 (2007): 381-386.
17. Position paper. Orthostatic hypotension, multiple system atrophy (the Shy Drager Syndrome). *J Auton Nerv Syst.* 1996; **58**: 123–124.
18. Ewing DJ, Campbell IW, Murray A, Neilson JMM, Clarke BF. Immediate heart-rate response to standing: simple test for autonomic neuropathy in diabetes. *BrMedJ* 1978;i:145-7.
19. Freeman R, Landsberg L, Young J. The treatment of neurogenic orthostatic hypotension with 3,4-DL-threo-dihydroxyphenylserine: a randomized, placebo-controlled, crossover trial. *Neurology.* 1999; **53**: 2151–2157
20. Pillai JN, Madhavan S. Cardiac Autonomic Neuropathy and QTc Interval in Type 2 Diabetes. *Heart India* 2015;3:8-11
21. Ewing DJ. Cardiovascular reflexes and autonomic neuropathy. *Clin Sci Mol Med* 1978;55:321-7
22. Ewing, D. J., and Clarke, B. F.: Diagnosis and management of diabetic autonomic neuropathy. *Br. Med. J.* 1982; 285:916-18.
23. Viskin S. The QT interval: too long, too short or just right. *Heart Rhythm.* 2009 May;6(5):711-5. Epub 2009 Mar 3

24. Sawicki PT, Dähne R, Bender R, Berger M. Prolonged QT interval as a predictor of mortality in diabetic nephropathy. *Diabetologia* 1996;39:77-81
25. Ewing DJ, Boland O, Neilson JM, Cho CG, Clarke BF. Autonomic neuropathy, QT interval lengthening, and unexpected deaths in male diabetic patients. *Diabetologia* 1991;34:182-5.
26. Arildsen H, May O, Christiansen EH, Damsgaard EM. Increased QT dispersion in patients with insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. *Int J Cardiol* 1999;71:235-42.
27. Maser, R. E., Mitchell, B. D., Vinik, A. I., & Freeman, R. (2003). The association between cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy and mortality in individuals with diabetes a meta-analysis. *Diabetes care*, 26(6), 1895-1901.
28. Spallone V, Ziegler D, Freeman R, et al: on behalf of the Toronto Consensus Panel on Diabetic Neuropathy: Cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy in diabetes: clinical impact, assessment, diagnosis, and management, *Diabetes Metab Res Rev* 2011 [Epub ahead of print].
29. Ewing DJ, Borsev DQ, Bellavere F, Clarke BF. Cardiac autonomic neuropathy in diabetes-comparison of measures of R-R interval variation. *Diabetologia* 1981;21:18-24.
30. Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and the North American Society of Pacing and Electrophysiology: Heart rate variability: standards of

measurement, physiological interpretation and clinical use. *Circulation* **93**:1043–1065, 1996

31. Freeman R, Saul P, Roberts M, Berger RD, Broadbridge C, Cohen R: Spectral analysis of heart rate in diabetic autonomic neuropathy. *Arch Neurol* **48**:185–190, 1991 CrossRefMedlineWeb of Science

32. Kahn JK, Zola B, Juni JE, Vinik AI. Radionuclide assessment of left ventricular diastolic filling in diabetes mellitus with and without cardiac autonomic neuropathy. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1986; **7**:1303–1309.

33. DCCT Research Group: The effect of intensive diabetes therapy on measures of autonomic nervous system function in the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT). *Diabetologia* **41**:416–423, 1998CrossRefMedlineWeb of Science 81

34. Vinik AI, Erbas T: Neuropathy. In *Handbook of Exercise in Diabetes*. Ruderman N, Devlin JT, Schneider SH, Kriska A, Eds. Alexandria, VA, American Diabetes Association, p. 463–496, 2002

35. Fraser DM, Campbell IW, Ewing DJ, Murray A, Neilson JM, Clarke BF: Peripheral and autonomic nerve function in newly diagnosed diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes* **26**:546–550, 1977 Pfeifer MA, Schumer MP: Clinical trials of diabetic neuropathy: past, present, and future. *Diabetes***44**:1355–1361, 1995

36. Diabetes Care 2003 May; 26(5): 1553-1579 Diabetic AutonomicNeuropathy

37. Aaron I. Vinik, Raelene E. Maser, Braxton D. Mitchell, Roy Freeman
38. Diabetes Care May Greene DA, Lattimer SA, Sima AA: Are disturbances of sorbitol, phosphoinositide, and Na<sup>+</sup>-K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase regulation involved in pathogenesis of diabetic neuropathy? *Diabetes* **37**:688–693, 1988;2003, 26 (5) 1553- 1579; **DOI**: 10.2337/diacare.26.5.1553
39. Brownlee M: Glycation products and the pathogenesis of diabetic complications. *Diabetes Care***15**:1835–1843, 1992 82
40. Feldman EL, Stevens MJ, Greene DA: Pathogenesis of diabetic neuropathy. *Clin Neurosci* **4**:365–370,1997
41. Low PA, Nickander KK: Oxygen free radical effects in sciatic nerve in experimental diabetes.*Diabetes* **40**:873–877, 1991
42. Mohan V et al. Autonomic Neuropathy in NIDDM and fibrocalculus pancreatic diabetes in south India, *Diabet Med* 1996; 13: 1038-43
43. Toyry J P et al. Occurance, Predictors and Clinical significance of Autonomic neuropathy in NIDDM. Ten year follow-up from the diagnosis.*Diabetes*. 1996 Mar ;45 (3):308-15.
44. Doran A and Andrew J B et al. Diabetic Autonomic Neuropathy. The clinical interpretation of improved technology. *Diabetes Technology and Therapeutics* 2001; 3:77-79.

45. Ratzmann K P et al. Prevalence of Peripheral and Autonomic Neuropathy in newly diagnosed Type 2 Diabetes mellitus. *J Diabet Complications*, 1991; 5: 1-5
46. Pappachan J M et al. Cardiac autonomic neuropathy in diabetes mellitus: prevalence, risk factors and utility of 83 corrected QT interval in the ECG for its diagnosis *Postgraduate Medical Journal* 2008; 84:205-210.
47. Brahim, M., et al. "[Arterial rigidity and cardiovascular vagosympathetic activity in normotensive and hypertensive obese patients and type 2 diabetics]." *Archives des maladies du coeur et des vaisseaux* 94.8 (2001): 944-946.
48. Vinik, Aaron I., et al. "Diabetic autonomic neuropathy." *Diabetes care* 26.5 (2003): 1553-1579.
49. [http://lifeinthefastlane.com/ecg-library/basics/qt\\_interval/](http://lifeinthefastlane.com/ecg-library/basics/qt_interval/)
50. Wikipedia contributors. "QT interval." *Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia*. Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia, 13 Sep. 2016. Web. 21 Sep. 2016
51. Rani, Rozina. *Drug and Diabetic Nephropathy*. INTECH Open Access Publisher, 2012.
52. Diabetic Cardiovascular Autonomic Neuropathy Aaron I. Vinik and Dan Ziegler, *Circulation*. 2007;115:387- 397, published online before print January 22, 2007 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.106.634949> 53.
- <http://clinicalgate.com/diabetes-mellitus-complications/>

54. Diabetic Autonomic Neuropathy, Aaron I. Vinik, Raelene E. Maser, Braxton D. Mitchell, Roy Freeman 84 *Diabetes Care* May 2003, 26 (5) 1553- 1579; **DOI:** 10.2337/diacare.26.5.1553

55. Ewing DJ, Clarke BF. Diagnosis and management of diabetic autonomic neuropathy. *British Medical Journal (Clinical research ed)*. 1982;285(6346):916-918.

**PROFORMA**

NAME:

AGE:

SEX:

SMOKING/ALCOHOL STATUS:

DURATION OF DIABETES:

HISTORY SUGGESTIVE OF AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY:

BLOOD PRESSURE:

PULSE RATE:

EXAMINATION OF CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM:

TEST FOR CARDIOVASCULAR AUTONOMIC FUNCTION:

	TEST 1	TEST 2	TEST3	MEAN
VALSALVA RATIO				
DEEP BREATHING TEST (HEART RATE VARIABILITY)				
SUPINE TO STANDING HEART RATE RESPONSE				
BP RESPONSE TO STANDING				
BP RESPONSE TO SUSTAINED HAND GRIP				

EXAMINATION OF GIT:

EXAMINATION OF CNS:

ECG FINDING WITH QT<sub>c</sub> INTERVAL

INVESTIGATIONS:

HEAMOGLOBIN:

TOTAL COUNT : DIFFRENTIAL COUNT:

COMPLETE RFT :

SERUM POTASSIUM:

SERUM CALCIUM:

ECHOCARDIOGRAM



# **PATIENT CONSENT FORM**

Study detail: **“STUDY OF CARDIOVASCULAR AUTONOMIC**

**DYSFUNCTION IN TYPE 2 DIABETES MELLITUS IN THANJAVUR**

**MEDICAL COLLEGE”**

Study centre : THANJAVUR MEDICAL COLLEGE AND HOSPITAL,

THANJAVUR

Patients Name :

Patients Age :

Identification Number :

Patient may check ( ) these boxes

I confirm that I have understood the purpose of procedure for the above study. I have the opportunity to ask question and all my questions and doubts have been answered to my complete satisfaction. I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving reason, without my legal rights being affected. I understand that sponsor of the clinical study, others working on the sponsor’s behalf, the ethical committee and the regulatory authorities will not need my permission to look at my health records, both in respect of current study and any further research that may be conducted in relation to it, even if I withdraw from the study I agree to this access. However, I understand that my identity will not be revealed in any information released to

third parties or published, unless as required under the law. I agree not to restrict the use of any data or results that arise from this study. I agree to take part in the above study and to comply with the instructions given during the study and faithfully cooperate with the study team and to immediately inform the study staff if I suffer from any deterioration in my health or well-being or any unexpected or unusual symptoms. I hereby consent to participate in this study. I hereby give permission to undergo complete clinical examination and diagnostic tests including hematological, biochemical, radiological tests.

Signature/thumb impression:

Patients Name and Address:

place

date

Signature of investigator :

Study investigator's Name :

place

date

## Urkund Analysis Result

**Analysed Document:** TAI thesis final.docx (D57281122)  
**Submitted:** 10/19/2019 2:23:00 PM  
**Submitted By:** vickytaimmc@gmail.com  
**Significance:** 9 %

### Sources included in the report:

<https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fnins.2018.00591/full>  
<https://www.touchendocrinology.com/diabetic-cardiovascular-autonomic-neuropathy/>  
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6112121/>  
<https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/BF02732120>  
<https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/BF03216217>  
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2809298/>  
<https://www.msjonline.org/index.php/ijrms/article/view/6009>  
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5763036/>  
<https://www.dissercat.com/content/variabelnost-glikemii-kak-faktor-riska-diabeticheskoi-atvonomnoi-kardiovaskulyarnoi-neiropat>  
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2645418/>  
<https://www.mdpi.com/1010-660X/55/9/534/pdf>  
<https://care.diabetesjournals.org/content/26/6/1895>  
<https://www.intechopen.com/books/type-1-diabetes/diabetic-autonomic-neuropathy-and-circadian-misalignment-in-type-1-diabetes>  
[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/6121459\\_Heart\\_Rate\\_Variability\\_and\\_Heart\\_Rate\\_Turbulence\\_in\\_Patients\\_With\\_Type\\_2\\_Diabetes\\_Mellitus\\_With\\_Versus\\_Without\\_Cardiac\\_Autonomic\\_Neuropathy](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/6121459_Heart_Rate_Variability_and_Heart_Rate_Turbulence_in_Patients_With_Type_2_Diabetes_Mellitus_With_Versus_Without_Cardiac_Autonomic_Neuropathy)  
<https://pmj.bmj.com/content/79/933/408>  
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4922213/>  
[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/51019816\\_Natural\\_progression\\_of\\_cardiac\\_autonomic\\_neuropathy\\_in\\_patients\\_with\\_type\\_1\\_diabetes\\_A\\_four-year\\_follow-up\\_study](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/51019816_Natural_progression_of_cardiac_autonomic_neuropathy_in_patients_with_type_1_diabetes_A_four-year_follow-up_study)  
[http://lifeinthefastlane.com/ecg-library/basics/qt\\_interval/060eed8e-3283-4e5d-aa72-d9f236ada705](http://lifeinthefastlane.com/ecg-library/basics/qt_interval/060eed8e-3283-4e5d-aa72-d9f236ada705)



# Thanjavur Medical College

THANJAVUR, TAMILNADU, INDIA - 613001  
(Affiliated to the T.N.Dr.MGR Medical University, Chennai)



## INSTITUTIONAL ETHICAL COMMITTEE CERTIFICATE

Approval No. : 480

This is to certify that The Research Proposal / Project titled

A STUDY OF CARDIOVASCULAR AUTONOMIC DYSFUNCTION  
IN TYPE 2 DIABETES MELLITUS IN THANJAVUR MEDICAL COLLEGE

submitted by Dr. T.A.I. VIGNESH of  
Dept. of GENERAL MEDICINE Thanjavur Medical College, Thanjavur

was approved by the Ethical Committee.

Thanjavur

Dated : 14-12-2017

Secretary  
Ethical Committee  
TMC, Thanjavur.

THE SECRETARY  
INSTITUTIONAL ETHICAL COMMITTEE  
THANJAVUR MEDICAL COLLEGE  
THANJAVUR