



ISSN - 2320-6039 (Print) ● ISSN - 2320-608X (Electronic)

Volume 7 / Number 2 / April-June 2019

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF PHYSIOLOGY



Website: www.ijop.net

International Journal of Physiology

Editor-in-Chief

Prof (Dr) R.K. Sharma,

Formerly at All-India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi

Chairman, Editorial Board

Prof. (Dr) J.L. Agarwal

Head, Department of Physiology, Saraswathi Institute of Medical Sciences, Hapur, Uttar Pradesh

E-mail: editor.physiology@gmail.com

INTERNATIONAL EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

1. **Dr. Nisha Shantakumari**
Gulf Medical University, Ajman, United Arab Emirates
2. **Dr. Sonal Agarwal**, U'Mass Boston, USA
3. **Prof Sumitabha Ghosh** Quest International University Perak, Malaysia
4. **Rabiul Ahasan**, Adjunct Professor/Docent University of Oulu, Finland.
5. **Bassim Khamess Kuoti Takhikh Al-Rekabi**, Assistant Professor University of Sumer/ College of Agriculture/ Department of Animals Production

NATIONAL EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

1. **Prof. O. P. Tandon**, SGT Medical College, Gurgaon, Haryana
2. **Prof. Rashmi Mathur**, AIIMS New Delhi
3. **Prof. Kamal Kishore**, AIIMS New Delhi
4. **Prof. H N Mallick**, AIIMS New Delhi
5. **Prof. S. C. Mahapatra**, AIIMS, Bhuvaneshwar, Orissa
6. **Prof. Rashmi Babbar**, MAMC, New Delhi
7. **Prof. Ramji Singh**, AIIMS, Patna, Bihar
8. **Prof. Vinay Agarwal**, LLRM Medical College, Meerut, Uttar Pradesh
9. **Prof. Rajesh Mishra**, Subharti Medical College, Meerut, Uttar Pradesh
10. **Prof. N. S. Verma**, KGMU, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh
11. **Prof. Manish Bajpai**, KGMU, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh
12. **Prof. Jalaj Saxena**, GSVM Medical College, Kanpur, Uttar Pradesh
13. **Prof. Anita Padam**, IGMC, Shimla, Himachal Pradesh
14. **Prof. Sheena Singh**, CMC, Ludhiana, Punjab
15. **Prof. D.K. Agarwal**, JLN Medical College, Aligarh, Uttar Pradesh
16. **Prof. Sunita Mittal**, SGRRIMHS, Dehradun, Uttarakhand
17. **Prof. Geetanjali Sharma**, Pt. B. D. Sharma Univ of Health Sciences, Rohtak, Haryana
18. **Prof. Manisha Jindal**, SMC & R, Sharda Univ, Greater Noida, Uttar Pradesh
19. **Prof. S.K. Singh**, Pramukhswami Medical College, Karmasad, Gujarat

International Journal of Physiology is a double blind peer reviewed international journal which has commenced its publication from January 2013. The journal is half yearly in frequency. The journal covers all aspects of physiology. The journal has been assigned ISSN 2320-6039 (Print Version) and ISSN 2320-608X (Online Version). The journal is covered by Index Copernicus, Poland and many other international data bases. **All rights reserved.** The views expressed by authors in journal are not necessarily views of International Journal of Physiology. The advertisements are purely commercial in nature and journal does not guarantee their efficacy.

NATIONAL EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

20. **Prof. S. Bhunia**, UP RIMS, Etawah, Uttar Pradesh
21. **Dr. Ashokan**, K.V. P.V.P. College, Sangli, Maharashtra
22. **Prof. Shradha Singh**, King George's Medical University, Lucknow, U.P.
23. **Prof. Deben Laishram**, JNIMS, Imphal, Manipur
24. **Prof. Venkatesh**, D.M.S. Ramaiah Medical College, Bangalore
25. **Prof. S.Meenakshi**, Tagore Medical College and Hospital Chennai
26. **Dr. Ratna Sharma**, *Additional Professor*, AIIMS New Delhi
27. **Prof. Poonam Verma**, SGRRIMHS, Dehradun
28. **Prof. Nidhi Jain**, SGRRIMHS, Dehradun, Uttarakhand
29. **Prof. Sudeepa Chaudhary**, RMCH, Bareilly, Uttar Pradesh

SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE

1. **Dr. Shobita M**, Jamia Hamdard Medical College, New Delhi
2. **Dr. Rajiv Bandhu**, LHMC, New Delhi
3. **Dr. Shailesh Gupta**, SHKM Govt. Medical College, Mewat, Haryana
4. **Dr. Sharad Jain**, SIMS, Hapur, Uttar Pradesh
5. **Dr. Syed Sadat Ali**, Dr. BRAMC, Bangalore
6. **Dr. Srinivasa Jayachandra**, KMCT Medical College, Calicut, India
7. **Dr. Manisha Gupta**, SIMS, Hapur, Uttar Pradesh
8. **Dr. Bharti Bhandari**, AIIMS, Jodhpur, Rajasthan
9. **Venkappa S Mantur**, *Senior Lecturer*, Dept of Physiology, USM-KLE International Medical College Belgaum, Karnataka
10. **Dr Sunil B Rapolu** (MD Ayu Physiology), *Asst Prof* Dept of Kriyasharir, OH Nazar Ayurveda College, Surat, Gujarat
11. **Dr. Amit Bandyopadhyay**, *Assistant Professor*, Department of Physiology, University College of Science & Technology, University of Calcutta, Kolkata, India

Print-ISSN: 2320-6039 Electronic-ISSN: 2320-608X Frequency: Quarterly
Website: www.ijop.net

Editor

Dr. R.K. Sharma
Institute of Medico-legal Publications
Logix Office Tower, Unit No. 1704, Logix City Centre Mall,
Sector- 32, Noida - 201 301 (Uttar Pradesh)

Printed, published and owned by

Dr. R.K. Sharma
Institute of Medico-legal Publications
Logix Office Tower, Unit No. 1704, Logix City Centre Mall,
Sector- 32, Noida - 201 301 (Uttar Pradesh)

Published at

Institute of Medico-legal Publications
Logix Office Tower, Unit No. 1704, Logix City Centre Mall,
Sector- 32, Noida - 201 301 (Uttar Pradesh)



CONTENTS

Volume 7, Number 2

April-June 2019

1. Determination of Muscles of Head Acting in Whistling 01
S Nalini
2. A Comparative Study of QTC in Obese, Non-Obese Hypertensive and Obese Normotensive Males 06
Divya R, Ashok V
3. Effect of Yoga on Respiratory Endurance Test in Medical Students 12
Kondam Ambareesha, S. Pradeep Reddy, C. Saroja
4. Assessment of Bronchomotor Tone in Normal and Overweight/Obese Normal Subjects 17
Hari Mohan Prasad Sinha, Bipin Bihari Pradhan, Arsalan Moinuddin, Ashish Goel, Rajesh Misra, Manisha Gupta, Sukhmani Saini
5. Influence of Smart Phone Addiction on Depression and Aggression in Medical Students 23
Shobha MV, Jagadamba Aswathappa, Hima Varshini
6. A Study to Evaluate the Effectiveness of Open Book Tests Over Close Book Tests and Perception of Medical Students in Physiology 30
G. Vidya
7. Comparative Analysis of CMAP Amplitudes of Electro-physiologically Evaluated Facial Muscles in Facial Palsy Patients 35
Virendra Verma, Gaurav Jain
8. Effect of Visual Evoked Potential in Myopic Individuals 40
Rathnavel Kumaran Murugesan, Kiranya R, Anitha Achutan, Anitha B
9. Effects of 40 days of Pranayama Training in Hypertensive Subjects 45
Prashant Kumar Jain, Varun Malhotra, Neera Goel, Shivani Gupta
10. Heart Rate Variability among Long Distance Bus Drivers after a Night Shift 50
Kunal Tarane, Jean Fredrick, G.S.Gaur, Aruna R, Dhanalakshmi Y
11. To Evaluate Auditory Evoked Potentials in Non Alcoholic Liver Cirrhosis Subjects Attending a Tertiary Care Hospital: A Cross Sectional Study 55
Gowri Velayutham
12. Retrospective Analysis of N75-P100 Amplitudes and P100 Latencies of VEPs in Patients Having One-Sided Visual Problems 60
Munindra Pratap Singh, Gaurav Jain, Virendra Verma, Ajit Singh Rajput

13. Assessment of Pulse Wave Velocity in Obese Adults using ECG and Finger Tip Photo Pulse Plethysmography	66
<i>M. Jahnvi, Sharan. B. Singh M, Uma B.V., K.N. Maruthy</i>	
14. Effect of Smartphone Addiction on Motor Efficiency in Upper Limb Assessed by Bimanual Coordination in Young Adults	70
<i>Jagadamba Aswathappa, Shobha MV, Kedara Harshitha</i>	
15. Effect of Acute Exercise on Cognitive Control	75
<i>Manish Kumar, Sunita, Ashok Sharan, Tarun Kumar, Sanaul Mustafa Ansari, Kumar Siddharth</i>	
16. Relevance of 2D:4D Ratio as a Marker of Depression in Adolescents of a South Indian Medical College – A Cross Sectional Study	80
<i>Saravanakumar Jeevanandam, K. Muthu Prathibha, Raman. K</i>	
17. Correlation Between Body Mass Index (BMI), Body Appreciation Score and Emotional Intelligence in Undergraduate Medical Students	86
<i>Kamalakaran Vadivel, Nilesh N Kate, Arshiya Zeba</i>	
18. A Study of Introduction of Concept of Emotional Intelligence in Medical Students	92
<i>Pratibha Mehta, Veenodini Warhade</i>	
19. Effect of Treadmill Exercise on Blood Glucose Control in Type-2 Diabetes Mellitus Patients	96
<i>Paras Arvindbhai Parekh</i>	
20. HRV During One Minute Controlled Deep Breathing for Evaluation of Sympatho Vagal Imbalance in Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus Patients	99
<i>M.Janet Sugantha, M.Rathnavelkumaran, K.Muralikrishnan</i>	
21. Impact of Single Use of Energy Drink on Blood Pressure and Heart Rate in Healthy Medical Students	105
<i>Kavya Patil, M.S.Kusumadevi</i>	
22. Effect of Short Term Pranayama on Perceived Stress, Sleep Quality, Heart Rate, and Blood Pressure	111
<i>Mamatha Shree C, Prashanth K.S, Girija B</i>	
23. Cardiovascular Risks Assessment of Tobacco Smokers (Cigarette & Bidi) using hs CRP & Lipid Profile in Muzaffarnagar City	116
<i>Salman Shafi Siddiqui, Mohd Amir, Deepankar Singh, Tanu Aggarwal, Bhawana Sharma, Sudha Agarwal</i>	
24. Study of Variations in Handgrip Strength in Asthmatic and Non Asthmatic People	119
<i>Pooja Sakshi, Swati Sinha, Manish Shankar, Ashok Sharan, Tarun Kumar, Manish Kumar, Sunita</i>	
25. Impact of Parental History of Hypertension on Heart Rate by Treadmill	123
<i>Kunipuri Sarala, Reddipogu Pavani, Akumalla Krishnaveni</i>	
26. Assessment of Neurocognitive Impairment in Obstructive Sleep Apnea	126
<i>Nazia Uzma, Juhi Fatima Sultan, NoorUddin Owaisi, Mariya Syed, Abid Ali Khan, Ashfaq Hasan</i>	
27. Glycated Haemoglobin and its Association with Lipid Profile in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus	131
<i>Santosh Palekar, Umesh Balgi, Sandhya M</i>	
28. High Sensitivity C Reactive Protein: A Surrogate Marker Appalling the Impact of Inflammation in Obese Young Adults	135
<i>R.Hemavathy, S.Ramesh Kannan, M.JhansiRani, B.Adikesavan</i>	

29.	Should Problem based Learning be Included in Teaching Physiology along with Traditional Method of Learning? A Student's Perception	140
	<i>Manish Kumar, Sunita, Ashok Sharan, Tarun Kumar, Swati Sinha, Anita Kumari, Pooja Sakshi</i>	
30.	The ECG Change in QRS Complex- A Tool for Evaluation of Heart Disease in Asymptomatic Type II Diabetics	145
	<i>Siraj Ahmed Shirbadgi, Aftab Begum</i>	
31.	Gender Differences in Spatial Localization of Sound in the Azimuthal Plane in Normally Sighted Young Adults	150
	<i>Sowmya Rajaram, Ganesh Prasanna</i>	
32.	Critical Fusion Frequency and Audio-Visual Reaction Time as a Function of Age	154
	<i>Shankarappa V, Prakash S B, Prabha V</i>	
33.	Dyselectrolytaemia in Middle Aged Type II Diabetes Mellitus – A Harbinger of Cardiac Function Abnormalities	159
	<i>Siraj Ahmed Shirbadgi, Aftab Begum</i>	
34.	Spatial Localization of Sound in Early Blind During Spatial Bisection Task and Minimum Audible Angle Task	164
	<i>Sowmya Rajaram, Ganesh Prasanna</i>	
35.	Relation of Anthropometric and Lifestyle Related Factors with Primary Dysmenorrhea	169
	<i>Maroosha Farooq, Iram Jaan, Varun Malhotra, Yogesh Tripathi, Shivani Gupta, Jagmohan Singh Dhakar</i>	
36.	The Relationship between Performance of Students in Internal Assessment and Final Summative Assessment in the Subject of Physiology in a North Indian Medical College	175
	<i>Nida Nowreen, Farhana Ahad</i>	
37.	Comparison of Electrolyte Changes in Term Neonates before and after Phototherapy	179
	<i>Usha Rani M</i>	
38.	A Comparative Study of Pain Thresholds between Diabetic Neuropathy Patients & Non Diabetic Subjects	185
	<i>Prakash S B, Shankarappa V, Prabha V</i>	
39.	Assessment of Pulmonary Function in Type II Diabetes Patients	188
	<i>Iram Jaan, Mir Maroosha Farooq, Varun Malhotra</i>	
40.	Assessment of Heart Rate Variability in Patients with Fibroid Uterus	193
	<i>Dhanalakshmi Y, Pal. G. K, Sirisha.A, Jothi Marie Feula.A, Saranya K, Bhavya R.L, Prethissha S</i>	
41.	Etiological Profile of Azoospermic Patients attending Male Biological Reproductive Unit of Mahatma Gandhi Institute of Medical Sciences, Sewagram (Maharashtra), India	198
	<i>Santosh Balgote, Anil Chaudari</i>	
42.	Effect of Modified Valsalva Maneuver on Heart Rate and ECG among Young Non –Athletes and Athletes	204
	<i>Santosh Balgote, Atul Manohar rao Deshkar</i>	

Determination of Muscles of Head Acting in Whistling

S Nalini

Associate Professor, Government Theni Medical College, Tamilnadu, India

Abstract

Background: Whistling without using a whistle or fingers considered as a manly skill in our patriarchal society is taught as a means of testing for integrity of facial muscles and Facial nerve for UG students in I MBBS under clinical examination of VII cranial nerve. But this test has been mentioned only in a very few books of clinical examination. This fact raised the need for this study

Aims and Objectives: To determine percentage of population who can whistle, muscles of head involved in whistling & gender variation

Study Design: A descriptive, cross sectional study by convenient sampling method conducted among 200 UG MBBS students of age group 18 – 25 of GTMC.

Results: 80% of participants were able to whistle; Whistling is not a manly skill. An element of social inhibition is there in women to whistle; 90.5% of subjects used muscles innervated by both Facial nerve and Hypoglossal nerves simultaneously.

Conclusion: There is subtle knowledge gap between clinicians and non - clinicians probably due to lack of need to update for the later which will become evident to students when they enter clinical side. Hence we, teachers too need to refer clinical subject text books and clinical examination manuals to accept, ignore and criticise as appropriate.

Keywords: *Whistling; Facial nerve; Hypoglossal nerve; blow air test*

Introduction

Whistling is generally considered a manly skill in many communities of our society which are basically patriarchal. It is a complex skill that requires observation and integration of CNS, Peripheral Nervous System, muscles of Expiration, Vocal cord & Head to perform. Whistling without using a whistle or fingers is one of the tests being taught to under graduate MBBS students to asses Facial nerve functions. Out of five practical Physiology books one book¹ does not mention whistling

as a test, one² says buccinators is partly responsible with Orbicularis Oculi and others^{3,4,5} have included whistling as a test for buccinators; Whereas in staunch contrast, only two^{13,14} of ten books of Clinical Examination have mentioned whistling as a test for Facial nerve. One Clinical Medicine book states that action of buccinators is helpful in playing wind instruments & in whistling as do two of Anatomy books^{14, 15} directly and one¹⁶ indirectly. Therefore it is assumed that though the Buccinators help in whistling it is not the sole muscle for this action. Hence this study was designed to determine % of population who can whistle, muscles of head involved in whistling and to know whether there is any gender variation in the ability to whistle.

Corresponding author:

S Nalini,

Associate Professor, Government Theni Medical College, Tamilnadu, India.

Email id: nalini.santhalingam@gmail.com

Materials & Method

A pilot study was conducted in 10 of our faculty

who were unaware of the aim of the study. They were requested to whistle without using fingers or a whistle, carefully observe what happen in head during whistling and report. . The actions they reported were

Retraction of cheeks

Spouting of Lips

Protrusion & Folding of tongue – in U shape

Out of 10 one said she could not whistle at all even after repeated attempts and one blushed and said this is my first attempt and let me see whether I succeed. Based on their report a form to collect data was designed as follows

Table 1: Form for Data Collection

S. No	Sex	Knows Y/N	If does not know		Pursing / Protrusion of lips		Retraction of Cheeks		Folding of Tongue	
			Failed	Succeeded	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No

Institutional ethical committee clearance was obtained; the students were explained of the aim of the study and of the fact how much significance their cooperation in the form of giving honest answers carries in their vernacular language; a written consent was obtained after explaining what they have to do, note and report from those who were willing to participate.

Exclusion Criteria: Persons who are suffering from Bell’s Palsy, Tongue Tie, Cleft Lip & Palate, Painful mouth conditions such as infected Caries Tooth, Wisdom tooth eruption, Gingivitis, Respiratory and Cardiac Illnesses, CNS disorders, Chest Injury, Costo Chondritis, Residual Poliomyelitis, Kypho – scoliosis & Vocal Cord Lesions

Screening Procedure: General Examination,

Examination of CVS, RS & CNS

Study Procedure:

Participants were requested to whistle without using fingers. Each participant was also observed by a researcher when the subject whistled. Those who knew and who succeeded were enquired on what actions took place. During the study students reported additional actions too. Hence the form to collect data was modified with a column for any additional action. On analysis it was found that all actions involved muscles innervated by Facial and Hypoglossal nerve only. In order to simplify, the format was further modified grouping all the actions of muscles innervated by Facial nerve and all the actions of muscles innervated by Hypoglossal nerve into one column for each and analysed.

Table 2: Modified Form

S. No	Sex	Knows Y/N	If does not know		Protrusion of lips/ Retraction/ Blowing out and retraction of cheeks alternatively	Folding in U Shape / Pushing the tongue to place it behind lower teeth / Folding tip to touch floor and curving lateral edge down
			Failed	succeeded		

Statistical Analysis: Data was analysed and expressed in terms of percentage.

Table 3: Consolidated & Analysed Data

Sex	No of participants	Whistled		1 st attempt		Used muscles innervated by Facial Nerve		Used muscles innervated by Hypoglossal Nerve	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Female	112	85	76	47	42	83	97.6	71	83.5
Male	88	75	85	18	20.5	75	100	72	96
Total	200	160	80	65	32.5	158	98.8	143	90.5

*Two persons whistled by using only tongue.

80% of participants were able to whistle.

Muscles innervated by both nerves were used simultaneously by 90.5%. Two subjects were able to whistle using tongue alone.

Gender variation in the ability to whistle is insignificant

Females attempting to whistle for the first time were > 200 % to that of males

Discussion

Buccinator compresses or retracts cheeks against teeth and thus helps to blow out air from mouth. It compresses blown out cheek and raises intra oral pressure^{13, 14, 15,18,19,20} an activity important in whistling as well as when playing wind instruments accounting for the name of the muscle (In Latin Buccinator means Trumpeter). Orbicularis Oris by protruding lips forms a slit through which forcibly exhaled air escapes¹⁸.

Action of tongue in whistling is variable. Those who fold the tongue in U shape turning the apex and sides upwards to make the dorsum concave and slightly elongate by narrowing, depress & push the tongue to place it behind lower teeth use the intrinsic muscles - Superior Longitudinal & Transverse and Post fibers of Genioglossus, Hyoglossus & Geniohyoid^{15,18,19,20}. Those few who curve the tip of tongue to touch floor make use of anterior fibers of Genioglossus²⁰. Thus many tongue muscles intrinsic and extrinsic, all innervated by Hypoglossal nerve act in coordination. Thus 90% subjects require intact and functional Hypoglossal nerve with the muscles innervated to whistle. In fact two subjects were able to whistle using exclusively tongue

and one subject informed that he gained the ability to whistle only after he underwent surgery for tongue tie.

Though mono neuropathy of Lower Motor Neuron palsy of Facial nerve especially Bell's palsy is the commonest, unilateral Hypoglossal Nerve palsy is not an uncommon finding²². XII nerve palsy is more common cranial mono neuropathy due to metastasis as stated by Walker HK²¹. It occurs also due to causes like post-operative inflammation, impacted tooth, Post Viral, Bacterial infections & vaccination, Auto Immune, even Idiopathic²² and due to trauma during air way management for General Anaesthesia during surgery²³. The person will have inability to whistle too though the dominant symptoms will be slurred speech, deviation of tongue and chewing difficulty.

Conclusion

Paralysis of Hypoglossal nerve will affect one's ability to whistle as do paralysis of Facial nerve.

Whistling is not a manly skill as there is only insignificant sex difference in the % of participants who whistled

Social inhibition may be the reason for significant number of women having had not attempted to whistle earlier

There is a subtle knowledge gap between clinicians and non-clinicians probably due to lack of need to update for the later which will become evident to students when they enter clinical side. Hence we, teachers too need to refer text books and clinical examination manuals of clinical subjects to accept, ignore and criticise as appropriate what has been given in text books and manuals of Physiology.

When clinicians were enquired told that they ask the subjects to “Blow Air” to test Buccinators; neither whistling nor blowing out the Cheeks and noting on tapping whether air escapes as mentioned in two Practical Physiology ^{4,5} and one Clinical Examination ¹⁰ book which shall actually be a test for the function of Orbicularis Oculi – to shut mouth tightly for both inflating as well as holding tight when tapped. Neither whistling nor ability to hold air in vestibule of mouth not letting out when tapped is being used to test integrity of buccinator and Facial nerve is being used by clinicians.

The study suggests that teaching whistling as a test for Buccinator’s function of retraction of Cheeks shall be stopped and we, Physiologists shall adapt clinician’s “Blow Air” test, and shall modify it. If the subject is asked to blow forcibly on the surface of a square piece of paper held vertically 10 cm in front of mouth which will visibly retract the Cheek it will be an objective test – “Blow Air on Paper” - that allows visualization and tactile sensation of movement of the paper. The action of blowing air does not require action of tongue muscles too.

Limitations

This study result is based more on subjective observation. It would have been more valid if temporary Hypoglossal nerve paralysis was induced by blocking it with local anaesthetic drug infiltration and the subjects were tested. But this becomes an invasive procedure and is unwarranted. Patients suffering from Hypoglossal nerve lesions are best option but it is not a very common disorder.

Source of Funding: Self

Conflict of Interest: None

Ethical Clearance: Obtained from Institutional Ethical Committee

References

1. Geetha N, Practical Physiology, Examination of Cranial Nerves, 1st Edition, “Jaypee the Health Sciences Publisher”:2017, Page no 204.
2. Pal GK, Pravati Pal, Clinical Examination of Cranial Nerves, “Text Book of Practical Physiology”, 3rd Edition. Universities Press (India) pvt Ltd; 2012: page no 273.
3. Chandrasekar M & Nitesh Mishra, Clinical Examination 13: Examination of Cranial Nerves, “Physiology”, 2nd Edition. Jaypee Brothers Medical Publishers (P) Ltd; 2014: Page no 148.
4. Ghai CL, Clinical Examination of Nervous System, “Text Book of Practical Physiology”, 8th Edition. Jaypee Brothers; 2013: Page no 281.
5. Jain AK, Examination of Cranial Nerves, Clinical Examination of Nervous System, “Manual of Practical Physiology”, 5th Edition. Arya Publications; 2016: Page no 239.
6. Graham Douglas, Fiona Nicol, Colin Robertson, The Nervous System, “Macleods Clinical Examination”, 12th Edition, Elsevier Churchill Livingstone; 2009: Page no 283.
7. Michael Glynn, William M Drake, Nervous System, “Hutchinson’s Clinical Methods”, 23rd Edition, Saunders Elsevier; 2012: Page no 298.
8. Geraint Fuller, Cranial Nerve V & VII, “Neurological Examination made easy”, 5th Edition, Elsevier Churchill Livingstone; 2013: Page no 94.
9. Michael J Ford, John F Munro, The Nervous System, “Introduction to Clinical Examination”, 7th Edition, Churchill Livingstone; 2000: Page no 92.
10. Nicholas J Talley, Simon O Connor, The Nervous System, “Examination Medicine - A Guide to Physician Training”, 4th Edition. Jaypee Brothers Medical Publishers (P) Ltd; 2003: Page no 257.
11. William J Larsen, Chapter 24, Scalp & Face, Section III, Head & Neck “Anatomy, Development, Function & Clinical Correlations”, Saunders; 2002: Page no 634.
12. Owen Ebstein, David Perkin, John Cookson, David P, de Bono, The Nervous System, The Facial Nerve, Clinical Examination, 3rd Edition, Mosby, Elsevier; 2003: page No 334.
13. Fitz Gerald MJT, Jean Folan – Curran, Facial Nerve, “Clinical Neuroanatomy and related Neuro Science” 4th Edition, Saunders WB - Elsevier Science; 2003: page no 181.
14. Neetha V Kulkarni, Head and Neck, Chapter 38, Face, “Clinical Anatomy – A Problem solving Approach”, 2nd Edition. Jaypee Brothers Medical Publishers (P) Ltd; 2012: Page no 331.

15. Richard S, Snell MD, Chapter 11, Head & Neck, "Clinical Anatomy by Regions", 8th Edition, Wolter Kluwer, Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2008: Page no 730.
16. James D Fix, Cranial Nerves, "Neuro Anatomy", 3rd Edition, Board Review Series, Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2002: Page no 224.
17. Gerard, Tortora, Sandra Reynolds, Grabowski, Chapter 14, The Brain and Cranial Nerves, "Principles of Anatomy and Physiology", 10th Edition, John Wiley & Sons, Inc; 2003: page no 488.
18. Susan Standing PhD Dsc, Gray's Anatomy, 39th Edition, Page no 506.
19. Thandon B K, Chapter 4 – Face, Head, Neck & Brain, "Text Book of Human Anatomy", 1st Edition, Ahuja Publishing House; 2006: Page no 49-50.
20. GJ Ramones CBE, The Deeper Dissection of Face, Head and Neck and Brain, Volume III, "Cunningham's Manual of Practical Anatomy", 15th Edition, Oxford Medical Publications; 1986: page no 98.
21. Walker HK, Cranial Nerve XII: The Hypoglossal Nerve, Chapter 65, "Clinical Methods: The History, Physical & Laboratory Examinations", 3rd Edition, Boston: Butterworths; 1990. XII nerve palsy – unilateral – more common cranial mono neuropathy due to metastasis
22. Stino AM, Smith BE, T Emkit M, Reddy SN, Hypoglossal Nerve Palsy – 245 Cases, Muscle – Nerve. 2016. Dec; 54 (6): 1050 – 1054, doi: 10.1002/mus.25197 – Epub 2016. Nov 1
23. Aalap Cshah, Christopher Barnes, Charles F , Spiekerman, Laurent A Bollag, Hypoglossal Nerve Palsy after airway management for General Anaesthesia, Anaesthesia Analog, 2015 Jan; 120 (1): 105 – 120. doi: 10 -1213 / ANE. 0000000000000495

A Comparative Study of QTc in Obese, Non-Obese Hypertensive and Obese Normotensive Males

Divya R¹, Ashok V²

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, ²Assistant Professor, Department of Biochemistry, Government Medical College, Palakkad, Kerala, India

Abstract

Background: QTc (corrected QT interval) is an index of physiological variability of ventricular repolarization. Prolonged QTc has been reported in cardiac failure, arterial hypertension, ischaemic heart disease and in obesity.

Aims and Objectives: This study was aimed at evaluating the effect of hypertension and obesity on QTc. The objective of the study was to compare the QTc in obese, non-obese hypertensive and normotensive obese male subjects.

Method: We compared the QTc in obese-hypertensives (n=15), in nonobese hypertensives (n=15) and in obese-normotensives (n=15), comparable for age and sex. Blood pressure was measured in supine position by mercury sphygmomanometer. Body mass index (BMI), WC (waist circumference) and WHR (waist hip ratio) of all patients were calculated.

Results: QTc was longer in obese hypertensives and obese normotensives compared to nonobese hypertensives (p<0.00). WC and WHR had positive correlation with QTc prolongation in obese hypertensives and obese normotensives.

Conclusion : This study indicates that obesity is an important predictor of QTc prolongation than blood pressure. Waist circumference and WHR which reflects abdominal obesity have greater association with QTc prolongation.

Keywords: hypertension, QT interval, obesity, Bazett's formula

Introduction

Electrocardiogram is a useful tool to detect cardiac changes with hypertension.¹ QTc is an index of physiological variability of ventricular repolarization and an increase of QTc is a possible risk factor for ventricular arrhythmias and sudden death.²

Hypertension is defined as persistent elevation in blood pressure $\geq 140/90$ mmHg. The prevalence of hypertension in India is 23.10 % men and 26.60% women.³ Prevalence of hypertension in South India is found to be 20% according to 2007 CURES study.⁴ It is recognized as a common cardiovascular disease and a major risk factor for congestive heart failure, ischemic heart disease, chronic renal failure and stroke. cardiac damage is a common early complication of hypertension.¹

Obesity has been reported as the cause of QT interval prolongation. QTc prolongation has also been associated with abnormalities of insulin and glucose metabolism with a preponderance to make age, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, hypercholesterolemia, fibrinogen and BMI. There was significant association between BMI and electrocardiographic values such as P wave and QTc dispersion which were increased.⁵

Prolonged QTc is an index of sympathetic over activity under several cardiac conditions and previous studies have shown that increased sympathetic activation is present in both obesity and hypertension particularly when two conditions coexist.²

This study was aimed at evaluating the effect of hypertension and obesity on QTc.

Objectives

To compare the QTc in obese, non-obese hypertensive and normotensive obese male subjects.

Materials and Method

This study was conducted in Sri Manakula Vinayagar medical college hospital Madagadipet, Puducherry. This was a hospital-based case control study. This study was approved by the Institutional Ethics committee, Sri Manakula Vinayagar medical college hospital.

The sample size was 45 subjects aged 35-55 years and they were divided into three groups

15 obese hypertensive male subjects of 35-55 years of age- Group 1

15 obese normotensive male subjects of 35-55 years of age – Group 2

15 non-obese hypertensive male subjects of 35-55 years of age – Group 3

Inclusion criteria

1. Male subjects 35 -55 years of age.
2. Obese Hypertensive subjects having blood pressure $\geq 140/90$ mmHg (according to WHO criteria)
3. Non-obese Hypertensive subjects having blood pressure $\geq 140/90$ mmHg (according to WHO criteria)
4. Obese normotensive subjects having blood pressure $\leq 120/80$ mmHg.

Exclusion criteria

- H/o cardiovascular disease
- H/o respiratory disease
- H/o drug, Medications
- H/o renal disease
- H/o endocrine disease

1. Measurement of Blood pressure:

Blood pressure was measured by a mercury sphygmomanometer in supine position. Blood pressure was measured two times. The average of two readings was taken as correct systolic and diastolic blood pressure.⁶

The classification of blood pressure is as follows

Normal BP: <120/80 mmHg

Prehypertension: 120-139/ 80-89 mmHg

Stage I Hypertension: 140-159 / 90-99 mmHg

Stage II Hypertension: > 160/100 mmHg.

2. Body weight:

Body weight was measured while the subject minimally clothed and without shoes, standing steady on a weighing scale and it was recorded to the nearest 0.1kg.⁷

3. Height:

Height was measured to the nearest 0.1 cm while the subject was standing barefoot in erect position with a wall mounted stadiometer.⁷

4. Body mass index:

BMI was measured by weight in kilograms divided by square of height in meters (kg/m²).

(BMI in the range of 18.50 to 24.99 kg/m² is considered to be normal.⁷

5. Waist circumference:

Waist circumference was measured in centimeters over light clothing at a point mid-way between the lower rib and iliac crest.⁷

6. Hip circumference:

Hip Circumference was measured in centimeters over light clothing at the widest girth of the hip. For waist and hip circumference two consecutive readings were made at each site on a horizontal plane without compression of the skin. The mean was taken as the final reading.⁷

7. Waist Hip Ratio: It was calculated by dividing waist circumference by hip circumference.⁷

8. Electrocardiography

ECG is the graphical record of electrical activity of heart obtained by placing electrodes on the surface of the body that records voltage differences generated by the heart. Using a standard 12 conventional ECG lead,

the difference in potential was recorded. QT interval was measured from the earliest onset of QRS complex to the terminal portion of the T wave where it meets the baseline. QT interval was measured by computerized measurements from limb lead II. RR interval from the preceding cardiac cycle was measured from the peaks of the R waves to correct the QT interval for heart rate (QTc). QT intervals was corrected with Bazzet's formula which was done by the computer. $(QTc=QT/\sqrt{RR})$.²

Based on European regulatory guidelines to stratify baseline QTc prolongation (ms) in men:

Normal QTc prolongation ≤ 430 ms

Borderline QTc prolongation 431–450ms

Abnormal QTc prolongation ≥ 451 ms.⁸

Statistical analysis

The data collected were entered and analyzed using software Statistical Package for the Social Science 16.0 (SPSS 16.0). All parameters were presented as mean \pm standard deviation (mean \pm SD). Comparison of parameters between various groups was done with student 't' test. Correlation analysis was done with Pearson's correlation method. A linear regression analysis was performed to evaluate the independent

predictors of QTc. A p value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

The results were presented as mean \pm standard deviation in table 1. Table 1 summarizes the descriptive statistics of anthropometric measurements, ECG recordings and blood pressure among the three groups. The mean values of QTc were significantly increased in obese hypertensives in comparison with the obese normotensives and nonobese hypertensives ($p < 0.05$).

Table 2, 3 and 4 shows the correlation of anthropometric indicators with QTc. WHR, WC and BMI were found to be positively correlated with QTc among the obese hypertensives. WC was found to be positively correlated with QTc among the obese normotensives.

A linear regression analysis was performed to evaluate the independent predictors of QTc. Regression analysis with QTc as a dependent variable showed a linear relationship with WC and WHR among the obese hypertensives (Table 5). Regression analysis with QTc as a dependent variable showed a linear relationship with WC among the obese normotensives (Table 6).

Table 1- Comparison of anthropometric indicators and various other parameters between the three groups

Parameters	Group 1 Obese hypertensives N=15	Group 2 Obese normotensives N=15	Group 3 nonobese hypertensives N=15	P value
Age (years)	46.00 \pm 6.26	46.86 \pm 5.16	44.86 \pm 6.22	0.652
Height (m)	1.45 \pm 0.07	1.43 \pm 0.08	1.51 \pm 0.08	0.024
Weight (Kg)	68.06 \pm 6.04	67.33 \pm 6.85	53.46 \pm 5.33	<0.001
BMI (kg/m ²)	32.07 \pm 1.68	32.71 \pm 1.43	23.28 \pm 1.31	<0.001
HC (cm)	106.80 \pm 4.75	107.80 \pm 6.59	97.80 \pm 5.01	0.006
WC (cm)	99.60 \pm 9.23	97.13 \pm 6.22	80.33 \pm 4.67	0.000
WHR	0.92 \pm 0.05	0.90 \pm 0.03	0.82 \pm 0.03	0.000
Systolic Bp(mmHg)	156 \pm 6.13	115 \pm 4.48	154 \pm 5.05	0.000
Diastolic Bp(mmHg)	102 \pm 7.55	72 \pm 7.16	101 \pm 6.87	0.000
QT (millisec)	364.40 \pm 27.06	370.47 \pm 34.50	324.27 \pm 53.19	0.05
QTc (millisec)	465.53 \pm 34.49	434.13 \pm 21.71	375.93 \pm 57.52	0.00

Data are presented as Mean \pm SD. BMI=Body Mass Index, HC=Hip circumference, WC=Waist Circumference, WHR=Waist Hip Ratio, Bp=Blood pressure. * $p < 0.05$ is considered statistically significant.

Table 2- Correlation of QTc with various parameters among the obese hypertensives

Parameters (n=15)	P value	R value
BMI	0.01*	0.635
WC	0.00*	0.967
WHR	0.00*	0.869

Pearson correlation analysis was performed to analyze the data. * p<0.05 is considered statistically significant. BMI=Body Mass Index, HC=Hip circumference, WC=Waist Circumference, WHR=Waist Hip Ratio

Table 3- Correlation of QTc with various parameters among the obese normotensives

Parameters (n=15)	P value	R value
BMI	0.95	0.017
WC	0.00*	0.910
WHR	0.85	0.050

Pearson correlation analysis was performed to analyze the data. * p<0.05 is considered statistically significant. BMI=Body Mass Index, HC=Hip circumference, WC=Waist Circumference, WHR=Waist Hip Ratio

Table 4- Correlation of QTc with various parameters among the obese hypertensives

Parameters (n=15)	P value	R value
BMI	0.35	0.255
WC	0.63	0.134
WHR	0.28	0.255

Pearson correlation analysis was performed to analyze the data. * p<0.05 is considered statistically significant. BMI=Body Mass Index, HC=Hip circumference, WC=Waist Circumference, WHR=Waist Hip Ratio

Table 5: Linear regression analysis to find the effect of QTc on WC, WHR and BMI among the obese hypertensives cases

Independent variables	Non standardized coefficients B value	Standardized coefficients β	P value
BMI	13.14	0.635	0.07
WC	3.64	0.967	0.00*
WHR	51.68	0.869	0.00*

* p<0.05 is considered statistically significant. BMI=Body Mass Index, HC=Hip circumference, WC=Waist Circumference, WHR=Waist Hip Ratio

Table 6: Linear regression analysis to find the effect of QTc on WC, WHR and BMI among the obese normotensives cases

Independent variables	Non standardized coefficients B value	Standardized coefficients β	P value
BMI	0.265	0.017	0.95
WC	3.175	0.910	0.00*
WHR	29.75	0.050	0.85

* p<0.05 is considered statistically significant. BMI=Body Mass Index, WC=Waist Circumference, WHR=Waist Hip Ratio

Discussion

Ventricular repolarization is most commonly assessed electrocardiographically by measuring the corrected QT interval (QTc) and either QT or QTc dispersion.⁹ Known causes of

QTc prolongation include the congenital long QT syndromes, the Brugada syndrome, electrolyte disturbances (hypokalemia, hypomagnesemia, hypocalcemia), selected drugs (e.g., certain anti-arrhythmic drugs, phenothiazines, tricyclic antidepressants, erythromycin in combination with certain antihistamines, pentamidine, and certain anti-malarials), liquid protein and starvation diets, hypothyroidism, central nervous system lesions, severe bradycardia, mitral valve prolapse, acute myocardial

infarction, and possibly obstructive sleep apnea.^{10,11}

Multiple studies of obese subjects have reported prolonged QTc, suggesting an association between obesity and delayed ventricular repolarization. Seyfeli *et al.* reported that mean QTc and QTc dispersion values were significantly longer/greater in 42 obese than in 25 lean women.¹² Study by Rita M showed a significant, but weak positive correlation between BMI and QTc in 50 normotensive severely obese subjects.¹³ BMI correlated positively and significantly with QTc and QTc dispersion in Seyfeli's study and independently predicted QTc.¹² In a study of 122 men including 59 with uncomplicated obesity and 63 lean controls QTc correlated positively and significantly with BMI and waist circumference.⁵

QT interval prolongation is associated with ventricular arrhythmia and sudden cardiac death.¹⁴ It has also been shown to be associated with increased mortality in ischemic heart disease and diabetic nephropathy.^{15,16} Obesity has been reported as the cause of QT interval prolongation. However, studies conducted in patients with uncomplicated obesity have demonstrated no effect of weight gain on cardiac repolarization.¹⁷

Pontiroli AE suggested that QTc was higher in morbidly obese subjects, with or without hypertension, and in lean hypertensive subjects than in lean controls. Sustained and prolonged haemodynamic burden is required to induce structural changes of the left ventricle as it happens in long-lasting obesity and in hypertension.¹⁸

The standard clinical correction is to use the Bazett's formula which calculates the heart rate-corrected QT interval of QTC with the formula of $QTC = QT/\sqrt{RR}$.¹⁹ QT interval in women is longer compared with men because of the effect of sex hormones on cardiac electrophysiology.²⁰

Linear regression analysis also showed a linear relationship between WC and QTc among obese hypertensives and normotensives and also a linear relationship between WHR and QTc among obese hypertensives. This indicates that abdominal obesity can be used to predict changes in QTc.

Increased QTc dispersion can therefore serve as non-invasive marker of increased cardiovascular risk and can therefore be an effective screening for reduction of cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in obese

individuals. Therefore, aggressive control of blood pressure, appropriate lifestyle modification campaign may be the best form of preventive strategy to reduce the frequency of prolonged QTc in subjects with obesity and hypertension

From the present study, it is evident that abdominal obesity can cause significant increase in QTc, which indicates that WC and WHR can be used as parameters to predict changes in QTc. A large-scale study is warranted to further validate the findings of the present study.

There are multiple limitations to this study. These include the small sample size and the absence of data derived from newer measures of ventricular repolarization such as transmural dispersion of repolarization. Polysomnography was not performed in most patients; thus, we were unable to assess the role of obstructive sleep apnea on ventricular repolarization in normotensive severely obese patients. Several metabolic factors that might influence ventricular repolarization like plasma insulin levels, free fatty acids, and catecholamines were not measured.

Conclusion

This study indicates that obesity is an important predictor of QTc prolongation than blood pressure. Waist circumference and WHR which reflects abdominal obesity have greater association with QTc prolongation. QTc can be used in routine screening of the obese and hypertensive patients for cardiac complications and prognosis.

Declaration of Conflict of Interest: Nil

Source of Funding: Self

References

1. Olusegun B, George O, Timothy O, Abo O, Ahmed J. Electrocardiographic correlates of microalbuminuria in adult Nigerians with essential hypertension. *Cardiol J.* 2010;17(3):281–287.
2. Pontiroli AE, Pizzocri P, Saibene A, Girola A, Koprivec D, Fragasso G. Left ventricular hypertrophy and QT interval in obesity and in hypertension: effects of weight loss and of normalization of blood pressure. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord.* 2004; 28:1118-1123.

3. World Health Organisation. Global Health Statistics 2012. India has low rates of hypertension reveals WHO study. Jyotsna Singh. New Delhi, DHNS: 2012.
4. Mohan V, Deepa M, Farooq S, Datta M, Deepa R. Prevalence, awareness and control of hypertension in Chennai-the Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology Study (CURES-52). *J Assoc Physicians India*. 2007; 55:326-332.
5. Arslan E, Yiginer O, Yavasoglu I, Ozcelik F, Kardesoglu E, Nalbant S. Effects of uncomplicated obesity on QT interval in young men. *Pol Arch Med Wewn*. 2010;120(6):209 -210.
6. The seventh report of the Joint National Committee on prevention, detection, evaluation and treatment of high blood pressure. *JAMA*2003; 289:2560-71.
7. Tambe B, Phadke V, Kharche S, Joshi R. Correlation of blood pressure with body mass index and waist to hip ratio in middle aged men. *Internet Journal of Medical Update*. 2010;5(2):26-30.
8. Strauss SM, Kors JA, De Bruin ML, Vanderhooft CS, Hoffman A, Heeringa J et al. Prolonged QTc interval and risk of sudden cardiac death in a population of older adults. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2006;47:362-367.
9. Goldenberg I, Moss AJ. Long QT syndrome. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2008; 51:2291-2300
10. Moss AJ. Measurement of the QT interval and the risk associated with QTc interval prolongation: a review. *Am J Cardiol*. 1993; 72:23-25.
11. Malik M, Batchvarov VN. Measurement, interpretation and clinical potential of QT dispersion. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2000; 36:1749-1766.
12. Seyfeli E, Duru M, Kuvandik G, Kaya H, Yalcin F. Effect of obesity on P-wave dispersion and QT dispersion in women. *Int J Obes*. 2006;30:957-961.
13. Rita M, Boyd E, John L, Marius P, Gurushankar G and Martin A. Relation of Left Ventricular Mass to QTc in Normotensive Severely Obese Patients. *Obesity*. 2012;20:1950-1954.
14. Algra A, Tijssen JG, Roelandt JR, et al. QTc prolongation measured by standard 12-lead electrocardiography is an independent risk factor for sudden death due to cardiac arrest. *Circulation*. 1991; 83:1888-1894.
15. Ahnve S, Gilpin E, Madsen EB, et al. Prognostic importance of QTc interval at discharge after acute myocardial infarction: a multicenter study of 865 patients. *Am Heart J* 1984; 108:395-400.
16. Sawicki PT, Dähne R, Bender R, Berger M. Prolonged QT interval as a predictor of mortality in diabetic nephropathy. *Diabetologia* 1996; 39:77-81.
17. Girola A, Enrini R, Garbetta F, et al. QT dispersion in uncomplicated human obesity. *Obes Res*. 2001; 9:71-77.
18. Pontiroli AE, Pizzocri P, Saibene A, Girola A, Koprivec D and Fragasso G. Left ventricular hypertrophy and QT interval in obesity and in hypertension: effects of weight loss and of normalisation of blood pressure *Int J Obes*. 2004; 28:1118-1123.
19. Schwartz PJ, Moss AJ, Vincent GM, Crampton RS. Diagnostic criteria for the long QT syndrome. An update. *Circulation* 1993; 88:782-784.
20. Rodriguez I, Kilborn MJ, Liu XK, et al. Drug-induced QT prolongation in women during the menstrual cycle. *JAMA* 2001; 285:1322-1326.

Effect of Yoga on Respiratory Endurance Test in Medical Students

Kondam Ambareesha¹, S. Pradeep Reddy¹, C. Saroja²

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, MNR Medical College & Hospital, Sangareddy,

²Associate Professor, Department of Physiology, Osmania Medical College, Koti, Hyderabad

Abstract

Introduction: Yogic practices can be considered to be a very good exercise for maintaining proper health and also has a profound effect on the lung functions of an individual. They are also used as psychophysiological stimuli to increase the physiological functions and human performance. The present work is undertaken as there was no reported data on comparison of pranayama & suryanamaskar practitioners in various pulmonary endurance functions. **Materials & Method:** The present study was conducted at MNR Medical College & Hospital, Sangareddy. The Institute Ethical Committee approved the study protocol. Informed consent was taken from all the subjects. The study was conducted with 80 subjects (aged between 18 to 20 years), under the supervision of a qualified yoga trainer. Inclusion Criteria: Medical students of age between 18-20 years, Only volunteers who are interested in practicing Yoga, Non alcoholic & non smokers. Exclusion criteria: Previous experience of yoga training and physically challenged persons. **Results:** The MVV, 40 mm endurance and chest expansion were significantly increased ($p < 0.005$) in the pranayama group (Group-II) and suryanamaskar group (Group-III). But the RR was significantly decreased ($p < 0.005$) in pranayama (Group-II), suryanamaskar (Group-III) and combined group (Group-IV) than control group (Group-I), ($p < 0.005$). **Conclusion:** The regular practice of pranayama and Suryanamaskar practice induces more beneficial effects than physical exercise which mostly affects skeletal muscles. To meet the modern life style which is full of challenges and stress, an all-round personality development has become mediatory for the student, this aspect of relaxation and detachment is lacking in our education system and it is this new dimension (yoga) that needs to be added to the curriculum.

Keyword: pranayama, suryanamaskar(SN), respiratory endurance, peak expiratory flow rate, vital capacity

Introduction

Yoga is an ancient science of technique exercise associated with a set of principles and practices. Yogic lifestyle modification leads to remarkable improvement in the subjective wellbeing and can make an appreciable contribution to primary prevention and management of lifestyle diseases in day-to-days life¹. Suryanamaskar and pranayama have been shown to reduce the resting respiratory rate; increase vital capacity, Timed Vital

Capacity, Maximal Voluntary Ventilation, Breath Holding Time, Maximal Inspiratory Pressure and Maximal Expiratory Pressure². Yogic exercises are popular all over the world in these days which increase longevity and have therapeutic and rehabilitative actions³. Asanas involved in surya namaska, a component in the yogic system tunes the range of flexibility of the practitioners. Hence selective package of yogic exercises (pranayama and suryanamaskar) would prove a positive impact among the student population in executing the skills for the better performance in their education as wholesome shaping of human body and mind⁴. Govindarajulu (2003) observed the effects of Yoga practices on flexibility and cardio respiratory endurance on high an out school girls where he found significant improvement on those selected variables after the training period⁵.

Corresponding author :

S. Pradeep Reddy

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, MNR Medical College & Hospital, Sangareddy, Telangana.

Email: coolsun_19oo@yahoo.com

There was enough literature on the effect of pranayama and suryanamaskar on pulmonary functions. In view of this, the present study was designed to evaluate the effects of combined yoga training on respiratory efficiency functions in healthy individuals aged 18 to 24 years.

Aim & Objectives

To investigate the effect of suryanamaskar practice on various respiratory endurance tests i.e. MVV (L/min), chest expansion, RR/Min and 40mm/sec after six months of training programme.

Materials & Method

This study was conducted in the Department of Physiology, MNR Medical College Hospital & hospital, Sangareddy, Telangana. After approval of Institutional Human Ethical Committee, eighty medical students between the age group of 18 to 24 years (20 ± 2 years) of both the sexes were selected. Informed and written consent were taken from all the participants involved in the study. The duration of the study was six months. 80 normal medical students of MBBS were randomly selected and included in our study. The participants were divided into four groups namely; control, pranayama, suryanamaskar and combined group of pranayama and suryanamaskar.

Table 1: Equal distribution of participants into groups for the 6 months duration of the study

S. No	Groups	No. of participants	Duration of training
1	Group-I (before yoga group)	20	-
2	Group- II (Pranayama)	20	6 months
3	Group-III (Suryanamaskar group)	20	6 months
4	Group-IV (Combined group of pranayama & suryanamaskar)	20	6 months

General characteristics (age, body weight, height, and body mass index: BMI) were observed in subjects. All subjects were assigned to learn the whole yoga protocol and were explained in detail by the investigator. On the first day of study, subjects came

to the training room and endurance tests were assessed using standard test. These were pre yoga exercise values. After six months of yoga training, the same tests were conducted which were designated as the post yoga values. **Inclusion criteria:** Medical students of age between 18-24 years. Only volunteers who were interested in practicing Yoga. Non alcoholic & non smokers. **Exclusion Criteria:** Previous experience of yoga training. History of major medical illness in the past e.g., Tuberculosis, Hypertension, Diabetes mellitus, Bronchial asthma etc. History of major surgery in the recent past.

All tests were carried out in the laboratory of the Department of Physiology, MNR Medical College & Hospital, Sangareddy. The laboratory environment was, quiet the temperature was between 33 0C–35 0C and the lighting subdued. The study did not involve intravascular instrumentation at any stage. The participants were explained in detail about the study protocol and written informed consent was obtained from them. The subjects were advised to come at 4 pm completely relaxed with empty bowel and bladder. All subjects who were included in the study (yoga group) were advised to refrain from smoking and alcohol during the entire study period.

All the subjects were asked to practice daily for about one hour. Yoga classes started with a brief prayer. Preparatory practices like breath-body coordination and joint loosening exercises were undertaken for 10 minutes. The duration of the study was six months; the yoga training was performed for 30 min, daily for 5 days a week. This was followed by 30 minutes of either pranayama (Group-II) or suryanamaskar (Group-III) or combined Group (pranayama and suryanamaskar).

At the end of yoga training exercise, attendance was taken and the subjects were motivated to practice regularly. Some of the classes were preceded by talk on diet and lifestyle modification in controlling chronic lifestyle disorders.

Endurance Test

MVV (Maximum Voluntary Ventilation): was measured by asking the subject to breathe as deeply and rapidly as possible for 15 seconds into the computerized spirometer model, RMS 401 with the Helios software and the results in L/min were recorded in sec.

40 mm Endurance Test: After a deep expiration, the subjects were asked to inspire to the maximum. A clip was applied to the nose and the subject asked to expire into the mercury manometer up to the level of 40mm and to maintain it as long as possible. The maximum possible maintenance time were recorded in sec.

Chest Wall Expansion: The degree of expansion of chest was measured by placing an inch tape just below the nipple around the chest with its mark at the middle of the sternum. Instruction was given to the subjects to breath in and out as deep as possible. Readings were taken after 2 or 3 breaths. Measurement of the chest circumference was done at the end of deep inspiration and expiration and values were expressed in centimeters.

Respiratory rate (RR): The right palm was placed over the upper part of abdomen of the subject and the number of respirations in one minute was counted.

Table 2: Comparison of respiratory endurance in pranayama, suryanamaskar and combined pranayama and suryanamaskarar procedures.

S.No	Parameters	Before yoga (Group-I) (n=20) (Control)	After Pranayama (Group -II) (n=20)	After Surya namaskar (Group -III) (n=20)	Combined Group- (Group-IV) (n=20)
1	RR/min	18.14 ± 1.57	16.03 ± 1.46*	15.59 ± 0.32*	14.0 ± 1.69*
2	MVV (L/min)	97.01 ± 1.15	107.23 ± 0.91*	110.83 ± 1.45*	110.10 ± 1.67*
3	40mm endurance	25.95 ± 0.57	26.19 ± 1.23*	27.09 ± 0.52*	27.02 ± 1.51*
4	Chest expansion (cm)	2.27 ± 0.57	3.00 ± 0.52*	3.79 ± 0.91*	3.01 ± 1.14*

Values are expressed as mean ± SD; *p<0.05 significant, **p<0.001 highly significant

Discussion

Pranayama and suryanamaskar practice showed a significant improvement in MVV. These findings concur with the study conducted by Joshi, et al in 1992 who reported a statistically significant increase in MVV. The RR was significantly decreased in the post yoga group (p< 0.05) than the pre yoga group⁶.

Practicing Pranayama and suryanamaskara for few weeks, there was a new pattern of breathing which

Results

Statistical analysis

All the values obtained before and after performing Pranayama, Suryanamaskar and combined pranayama, suryanamaskar yogic exercises were expressed as mean ± SD. The data were analyzed by SPSS 16.0 version one way ANOVA followed by paired t test (Dennett's test) which was used to compare pre and post training results. P values of less than 0.05 were accepted as significant difference between the compared values. Comparison of respiratory endurance in pranayama, suryanamaskar and combined pranayama and suryanamaskarar procedures

The MVV, 40 mm endurance and chest expansion were significantly increased (p<0.005) in the pranayama group (Group-II) and suryanamaskar group (Group-III). But the RR was significantly decreased (p<0.005) in pranayama (Group-II), suryanamaskar (Group-III) and combined group (Group-IV) than control group (Group-I), (p<0.005).

was slower than its basal rhythm leading to decrease in respiratory rate. Yogic practices also improved respiratory muscle endurance. 40mm endurance time, also a showed statistically significant improvement, indicates better respiratory endurance in post yoga group after regular practice of pranayama and suryanamaskar. At the end of 6 weeks Yoga training, chest wall expansion significantly increased (p < 0.05) in middle level of the thoracic cage (4th intercostal space) when compared to their pretest values. Combined Pranayama and

suryanamaskar training improved respiratory capacity especially chest wall expansion and lung volumes. This study agrees with previous reports in Indian adolescent children (**Mandanmohan et al., 2003**) supports the benefit of Yoga as an alternative exercise for health and treatment of some common respiratory disorders⁷.

Rajesh et al (2004) found a significant improvement in all pulmonary function with a significant decrease in RR could be mainly due to regulated, slow, deep and controlled breathing for prolonged period during pranayama practice leading to increase in the strength and endurance of expiratory as well as inspiratory muscles and contributing to enhanced voluntary control of breathing. As a technique, pranayama can assume rather complex forms of breathing, but the essence of the practice is slow and deep breathing. Such breathing is economical because it reduces dead space ventilation. It also refreshes air throughout the lungs, in contrast with shallow breathing that refreshes air only at the base of the lungs⁸.

Bhutkar et al (2008) showed a statistically significant improvement in SBP, DBP, FEV1, PEFr, MVV, lung compliance and airway resistance as compared to baseline in CAD patients after 3months of regular practice of pranayama and asanas⁹.

Regular yogic practices strengthen the respiratory muscles; increase the excursions of diaphragm and lungs as well as thoracic compliance. Also yogic practices decrease airway resistance. All these factors contribute to improvement in the various lung function tests after regular practice of SN. Yogic practices also improve respiratory muscle endurance. 40mm endurance test, which also showed statistically significant improvement, indicates better respiratory endurance in both the groups after regular practice of SN. Yogic asanas and pranayama have been shown to reduce the resting respiratory rate and increase vital capacity, timed vital capacity, maximum voluntary ventilation, breath holding time and maximal inspiratory and expiratory pressures. Regular practice of suryanamaskar together with pranayama enhances the strength and force of contraction of respiratory muscles like diaphragm and upper abdominal muscles resulting in improvement of MVV and PEFr according to **Joshi et al (1992)**.

Increase in inspiratory and expiratory pressures suggests that yoga training improves the strength

of expiratory and as well as inspiratory muscles. Respiratory muscles are like skeletal muscles. Yogic techniques involve isometric contraction which is known to increase skeletal muscle strength. Breath holding time depends on initial lung volume. Greater lung volume decreases the frequency and amplitude of involuntary contractions of respiratory muscles, thereby lessening the discomfort of breath holding (**Mandanmohan et al., 2003**). During yoga practice, one consistently and consciously over-rides the stimuli to respiratory centers, thus acquiring control over the respiration. This, along with improved cardio-respiratory performance may explain the prolongation of breath holding time in yoga trained subjects.

Hence daily practice of both Suryanamaskar and pranayama could also be part of physical fitness and life style modification program in maintaining better physical and mental health¹⁰.

Conclusion

Pranayama is an ancient yoga technique. The regular practice of Pranayama integrates the mind and the body. It differs from other forms of exercises as it mainly focuses on the sensations in the body. Pranayama thus acts directly on the various functions of the body and affords benefits in a positive way. Our study showed that the pulmonary function test values improved after short term (6 months) pranayama practice. Regular, slow and forceful inspiration and expiration for a longer duration during the pranayama practice, leading to strengthening of the respiratory muscles. Pranayama training causes improvement in the expiratory power and decreases the resistance to the air flow in the lungs. Pranayama training causes an increase in the voluntary breath holding time. This may be due to acclimatization of the chemoreceptors to hypercapnoea. Pranayama is a type of yogic breathing exercise. This resultant effect of pranayama can be used as lung strengthening tool to treat many lung diseases like asthma, allergic bronchitis, post pneumonia recoveries, tuberculosis and many occupational diseases.

Ethical Clearance- Institutional Ethics Committee (IEC) approval was taken prior to the study.

Source of Funding- Nil

Conflict of Interest - None.

References

1. Sharma R, Gupta N, Bijlani RL.. Effect of yoga based lifestyle intervention on subjective well-being. *Indian J Physiol Pharmacol.* (2008) P.123-31.
2. Joshi. LN, Joshi. ND, Ghokale LV.. Effect of short term pranayama practice on breathing rate and ventilatory function of lung. *Indian J Physiol pharmacol.* (1992) P.105-108.
3. Karmur, K. A., Joshi, V. S., Padalia, M. S., Sarvaiya, J. L., & Karmur, K. A.. Effect of ten weeks yoga practice on pulmonary function tests. *Correspondence Info.* (2015) P. 682–685.
4. Johnson, Premkumar.. Effect of Selected Hathayogic Practices in Enhancing Kicking Ability in Soccer Playing. *Journal of Exercise Science and Physiotherapy.* (2007) P.168-170
5. Govindarajulu, E.. Effect of Yoga Practices on Flexibility and Cardio Respiratory Endurance on High School Girls. *Yoga Mimamsa.* (2003) P. 35: 1
6. Joshi LN, Joshi VD, Gokhale LV.. Effect of short term pranayama on breathing rate and ventilatory functions of lungs. *Indian J Physiol Pharmacol.* (1992) P.105-118
7. Madan Mohan, Thombre DP.. Effects of yoga training on reaction time, respiratory endurance and muscle strength. *Indian journal of physiology and pharmacology.* (2003) P. 229-254
8. Rajesh. K. Sharma, K. K. Deepak, R. L. Bijlani, P. S. Rao.. Short term physical training alters cardiovascular autonomic response amplitude and latencies. *IJJP.* (2004) P. 165-173.
9. Bhutkar, P. M., Bhutkar, M. V & Taware, G. B.. Effect of Suryanamaskar Practice on Cardio-respiratory Fitness Parameters : A Pilot Study. (2008) P. 126–129.
10. Madanmohan, Mahadevan SK, Balakrishnan S, Gopalakrishnan M, Prakash ES.. Effect of six weeks yoga training on weight loss following step test, respiratory pressures, handgrip strength and handgrip endurance in young healthy subjects. *Indian J Physiol Pharmacol.* (2008) P. 164-170

Assessment of Bronchomotor Tone in Normal and Overweight/Obese Normal Subjects

Hari Mohan Prasad Sinha¹, Bipin Bihari Pradhan², Arsalan Moinuddin¹, Ashish Goel³, Rajesh Misra⁴, Manisha Gupta⁵, Sukhmani Saini¹

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, Shridev Suman Subharti Medical College, Dehradun, Uttarakhand, ²Professor, Department of Physiology, SCB Medical College, Cuttack, Orissa, ³Associate Professor, ⁴Professor, Department of Physiology, Shridev Suman Subharti Medical College, Dehradun, Uttarakhand, ⁵Professor, Department of Physiology, Saraswathi Institute of Medical Sciences, Hapur, UP

Abstract

Background: Obesity in children and young adults is on a stupendous rise over the last decade globally making the individual highly susceptible to various diseases. Pulmonary functions are well reported complications of obesity in adults with reduced lung volume & expiratory flow rates being the most frequent reported abnormalities. **Methodology:** This cross sectional analytical study was undertaken in the research lab of the Department of Physiology, M.K.C.G. Medical College over a period of 12 months on 300 students to determine baseline anthropometric measurements and pulmonary function tests using spirometry. Independent 't' test and multiple linear regression in SPSS 20.0 is used to statistically ascertain the aforementioned objective stated in the background. **Results:** VC, ERV, TV, dynamic pulmonary functions; FEV₁, MEF₂₅, along with PIF and MIF₅₀ showed statistically significant decline in overweight/obese individuals. The aforementioned findings of VC, ERV & FEV₁ showed a similar diminished trend in overweight/obese individuals on further evaluation using multiple linear regression analysis. **Conclusion:** Overall most of the pulmonary functions tests showed compromised status in overweight/obese individuals with VC, ERV, TV, FEV₁, MEF₂₅, PIF and MIF₅₀ exhibiting statistically significant reduction. Mechanistically, this can be attributed to the presence of adipose tissue around the rib cage, in the abdomen and visceral cavity loading the chest wall leading to small airway collapse and subsequent lowering of pulmonary function tests.

Keywords: Pulmonary function test, Obesity,

Introduction

Globally, the epidemic of obesity in children and young adults is rapidly increasing, rising by more than 30% over the past decade with its prevalence in India ranges from 10% to 40%¹. It is classically characterized by increased body fat (BF), associated with dyslipidemia, insulin resistance, cell organelles stress, and vascular inflammation. Increased weight makes obese individual

highly susceptible to various diseases.

In general obesity results from greater energy intake than expenditure *with* greater amount of energy from food enter the body than required the body weight increases, and this excess energy is stored as fat thus causing excessive adiposity (obesity). The etiology of obesity is multifactorial and complex with genes determining food intake whilst lifestyle and environmental factors. The rapid rise in obesity off late vehemently suggests the key role of lifestyle and environmental factors because genetic changes could not have occurred so rapidly.

The American Heart Association has reported greater prevalence of hypertension amongst obese individuals. Chronically augmented sympathetic activity is one of the possible mechanisms underlying the pathophysiology

Corresponding author:

Dr. Hari Mohan Prasad Sinha

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology,
Shridev Suman Subharti Medical College, Dehradun,
Uttarakhand, Contact no: 8092084456
Email:hmpps2002@gmail.com

of hypertension in obese population. The potential abnormalities predisposing these individuals perhaps include enhanced baseline sympathetic activity as well as demented response to sympathetic stimuli.

Pulmonary functions are well reported complications of obesity in adults with reduced lung volume & expiratory flow rates being the most frequent reported abnormalities. Studies exhibited an inverse relationship between BMI and FVC, FEV1. Other parameters such as expiratory and inspiratory flow rates (PEF, MEF50, PIF and MIF50) and MVV also decrease linearly with increasing BMI. Decreases in expiratory flows are most likely to occur once decreased FVC causes flow to move to a lower position on the maximal flow-volume curve.

Paucity of studies available on the pulmonary functions in young obese adults compel us to take the present study with an aim to investigate the derangement of pulmonary function tests in young obese medical students of M.K.C.G. Medical College, Berhampur

Methodology

Study design: This cross sectional analytical study was undertaken to investigate the derangement of sympathetic autonomic parameters and pulmonary functions in young obese students of M.K.C.G. Medical College, Berhampur, Orissa. The research was carried out in the research lab of the Department of Physiology, M.K.C.G. Medical College over a period of 12 months after obtaining written consent from all participants and approval by the institutional ethics committee.

Sample population: 300 participants were included in the analysis after excluding subjects with history of asthma or any other past/concurrent pulmonary illness, history of smoking, symptoms of atopy/allergy. They were divided into 2 groups of 150 each as per the WHO criteria of obesity; BMI of $<25 \text{ kg/m}^2$ (Normal) and $>25 \text{ kg/m}^2$ overweight/obese

Sample size: A sample size of 150 for each group was calculated through Cohen flexible algorithm using Fischer's 'F' distribution by comparing means between two group(s) with ' α '=0.05, ' β '= 80%, ' F '= $0.7 / 2 * 1 = 0.35$ and effect size (es) which is difference b/w the two groups / $2 * \text{within the group SD} = 0.7$

Pulmonary function test analysis using spirometry: A baseline spirometry was done in which both static and dynamic lung function parameters were recorded. All the spirometric measurements were done using FLOWHANDY ZAN 100USB spirometer using ZANsoftware GP1.3.xx based on windows. Before performing the spirometry, the subjects were explained how to perform the test, also there were live demonstration how to perform the test. The subject was comfortably seated with the Flowhandy 100 USB perfectly positioned at his/her mouth level. The subject was connected to ClarityMed PMS 320 cardiac monitor for simultaneous recording of pulse, blood pressure and oxygen saturation of arterial blood (SpO_2). The nose-clip was tightly applied and the subject breathed in and out to the tightly placed mouthpiece through his/her mouth. With the recording system on, the subject had to breathe slowly at least 6-8 times at a rate of about 30 breaths /minute with depth around 0.5 – 1.0 L. After that, the subjects inspired slowly to his total lung capacity and then expire as quick and deep as possible; the expiration must last at least for 6 seconds. A computerised spirometer was used. Flowhandy ZAN 100 USB is an open spirometry system.

Statistical Analysis

Dataset was analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences; version 20.0 for Windows). Independent 't' test was used for comparing continuous variables (anthropometric indices and pulmonary function test parameters) between the groups. Furthermore, multiple linear regression analysis is used to ascertain the findings of the Independent 't' test.

Results

Table 1: Independent ‘t’ test for the comparison of pulmonary function test parameters among non-obese and obese subjects

S. no	Pulmonary function test parameters	Non-obese (n=150) Mean \pm SE	Obese (n=150) Mean \pm SE	‘p’ value	
1.	Static Lung Volume & capacities	Vital capacity (L/min)	4.00 \pm 0.05	3.80 \pm 0.05	<0.01
		Expiratory reserve volume	1.27 \pm 0.03	1.18 \pm 0.03	<0.01
		Inspiratory reserve volume	2.09 \pm 0.04	2.00 \pm 0.04	>0.01
		Tidal Volume	0.59 \pm 0.2	0.70 \pm 0.01	<0.01
		Inspiratory capacity	2.70 \pm 0.04	2.68 \pm 0.03	>0.01
2.	Dynamic Lung Volume & capacities	FVC _{ex}	3.95 \pm 0.62	3.89 \pm 0.61	>0.01
		FEV ₁	3.54 \pm 0.49	3.47 \pm 0.54	<0.01
		FEV ₁ /IVC	89.78 \pm 0.41	89.07 \pm 0.39	>0.01
		FEV ₁ /FVC	89.78 \pm 0.41	89.07 \pm 0.38	>0.01
		MEF ₂₅	7.63 \pm 0.06	7.33 \pm 0.05	<0.01
4.	Mean Expiratory Flow	MEF ₂₅₋₇₅	4.44 \pm 0.07	4.42 \pm 0.08	>0.01
		MEF ₅₀	5.15 \pm 0.08	5.14 \pm 0.08	>0.01
5.	PIF	4.47 \pm 0.11	4.32 \pm 0.11	<0.01	
6.	MIF ₅₀	4.24 \pm 0.11	4.17 \pm 0.11	<0.01	

Values are Mean \pm SE; Independent ‘t’ test: 1. Compared with Non-obese: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.001;

Table 1 shows comparative analysis of pulmonary function test parameters among non-obese and obese subjects using Independent ‘t’ test. Obese subjects exhibit a decline in all the measured static lung volumes and capacities with vital capacity (VC), expiratory reserve volume (ERV), and tidal volume (TV) significantly reduced (p<0.01) in obese as compared to non-obese individuals. A similar pattern of diminished however insignificant dynamic lung volumes and capacities of FEV_{ex}, FEV₁, FEV₁/IVC, FEV₁/FVC and MEF₂₅ is

again observed in obese subjects with only FEV₁ and MEF₂₅ delineating a statistically significant waning pattern. The mean expiratory flow parameters of MEF₂₅₋₇₅ and MEF₅₀ showed no significant between the two groups despite being minutely on a lower side in obese individuals. They also exhibited significant decline in PIF and MIF₅₀.

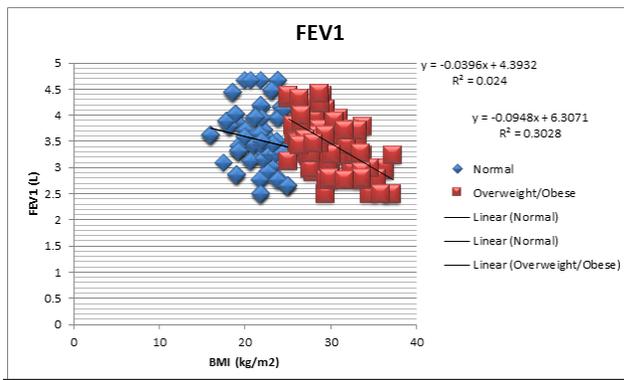
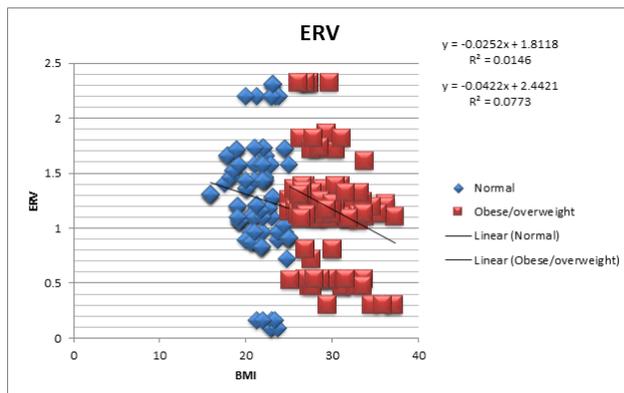
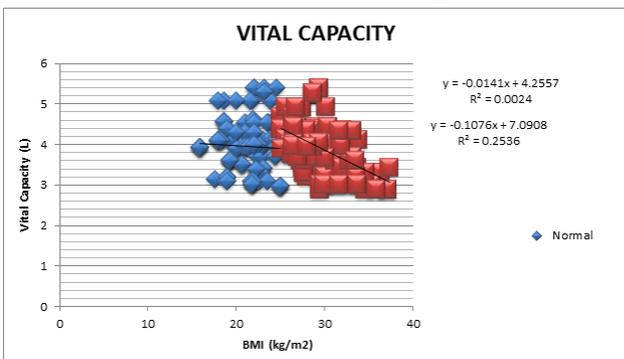


Fig-1 compares dependency of forced expiratory volume in first second (FEV_1) on BMI between non-obese and overweight/obese subjects using multiple linear regression analysis. Among overweight/obese subjects, the slope of best fitted regression line ' β ' was estimated as -0.09 which means that average baseline FEV_1 decreases by -0.09 L or 9ml for every 1 kg/m^2 increase in BMI. Furthermore, a value of $R^2=0.28$ vehemently explains 28% of FEV_1 on BMI.



A similar dependency of expiratory reserve volume (ERV) on BMI between non-obese and overweight/obese subjects using multiple linear regression analysis is depicted in Fig-2. Among overweight/obese subjects, the slope of best fitted regression line ' β ' was estimated as -0.03 which means that average baseline ERV decreases by -0.03 L or 3 ml for every 1 kg/m^2 increase in BMI. Furthermore, a value of $R^2=0.03$ somewhat explains 3% dependency of ERV on BMI.



Again, Fig-3 shows multiple linear regression analysis of vital capacity (VC) on BMI between non-obese and overweight/obese subjects. Among overweight/obese subjects, the slope of best fitted regression line ' β ' was estimated as -0.10 which

means that average baseline VC decreases by -0.10 L or 10 ml for every 1 kg/m^2 increase in BMI. Furthermore, a value of $R^2=0.21$ to a great extent explains 21% dependency of VC on BMI.

Discussion

Obesity was thought to have an influence on lung functions and in turn somewhat correlated with compromised pulmonary function test parameters. Amongst overweight and obese subjects we exhibited a significant decrease in TV, ERV, VC, and FEV_1 as compared to normal individuals. A waning trend in IRV & IC was found in overweight and obese subjects but this reduction is statistically insignificant. Our results are in concordance with the findings of many other studies that have shown various lung volume and capacities especially ERV, FEV_1 and VC decreases with increase in BMI^{1, 2, 6, 8}.

The aforementioned results are in close proximity with many previous studies. For example a study conducted by Richard L Jones et al showed decrease in ERV from a predicted 118% to 55% when BMI increased from 20 kg/m^2 to 30 kg/m^2 . A similar comprise in FRC from 112% predicted at 20 kg/m^2 to 84% predicted at 30 kg/m^2 BMI¹. Similar findings are reiterated in a study done by Zerah F et al, showing significant decline in pulmonary functions i.e. TLC, VC, FEV_1 , FRC and ERV with rising obesity⁸.

Unlike most of the studies exploring pulmonary function tests in obese subjects, we measured and compared inspiratory flow rates in the form of PIF and MIF_{50} between overweight/obese and normal individuals. Cases exhibited a significant decline in both PIF and MIF_{50} . Rubenstein et al reported reduced FRC, TLC, ERV, FVC, FEV_1 and MEF ratio at low lung volumes and increased RV, RV/TLC ratio and airway resistance in marked obese, non smoker⁴. Ray and associates studied respiratory function in young obese subjects and found reduced VC, ERV, TLC, FRC and MVV^{24} . Our study showed the effect of BMI on lung volumes and it will help the clinicians to interpret PFT results with normal airway function. About 0.5% decrease in VC, TLC & RV can be expected for each unit increase in BMI.

It's postulated that presence of adipose tissue around the rib cage, in the abdomen and visceral cavity loads the chest wall subsequently reducing the functional residual capacity (FRC)²⁵. This reduction in FRC and expiratory

reserve volume is detectable, even at a modest increase in weight²⁵. However, obesity has little direct effect on airway calibre which means spirometric variables decline in proportion to the lung volumes rarely falling below the normal range²⁵. Both FEV₁ and FVC declined equally (in terms of percentage predicted), FEV₁ to FVC ratio was found normal whereas static lung volume was found decreased reiterating that this reduction is due to restriction as opposed to air flow obstruction.

Lazarus et al. reiterated the fact that FEV₁ to FVC ratio decreases with increasing BMI in overweight and obese individuals¹⁹. In morbidly obese subjects (defined as individuals with a body weight (in kilograms) to height (in centimetres) ratio greater than 0.9 kg/cm), Biring et al found a reduction in mid-expiratory flows and the FEV₁ to FVC ratio. Obese and overweight individuals most often exhibit marked reduction in the expiratory reserve volume (ERV) reason being the mass loading effect of obesity which consequently diminish FRC. With reduced FRC and a constant RV, decline in ERV is evident. It is appreciated maximum in supine position once the diaphragm ascends in the chest and lungs bearing the weight of lower thorax and abdomen²⁶.

Spirometry is usually normal in mild obesity but expiratory flow, FEV₁ and forced vital capacity (FVC) reduce subsequently with elevated BMI particularly in morbid obesity. Sahebjami et al. showed reduction in FEV₁, FVC and maximal inspiratory flow rate in obese subjects along with significance association with low MVV¹⁵.

Conclusion

Spirometric abnormalities in person with mild to moderate obesity pose somewhat a restrictive defect whereas severe and morbid obesity represents true air flow obstruction. The mechanistic basis can be related to small airway collapse due to decreased lung volumes with increasing obesity or it may be independent.

Source of Funding: Self funded

Conflicts of Interest: Nil

References

1. Jones RL¹, Nzekwu MM Effect of body mass index on lung volume. *Chest*. 2006 Sep;130(3):827-33
2. Sahebjami H¹, Gartside PS Pulmonary function test in obese subjects with normal FEV₁/FVC ratio. *Chest*. 1996 Dec; 110(6):1425-9.
3. Suratt PM, Wilhoit SC, Hsiao HS, Atkinson RL, Rochester DF. Compliance of chest wall in obese subjects *J ApplPhysiolRespir Environ Exerc Physiol*. 1984 Aug;57(2):403-7
4. Rubinstein I¹, Zamel N, DuBarry L, Hoffstein V. Airflow limitation in morbid obesity non smoking men. See comment in PubMed Commons below *Ann Intern Med*. 1990 Jun 1;112(11):828-32
5. GILBERT R, SIPPLE JH, AUCHINCLOSS JH Jr Respiratory control & work of breathing in obese subjects. *J Appl Physiol*. 1961 Jan;16:21-6.
6. Kollias J, Boileau RA, Barlett HL, Buskirk ER. Pulmonary function & physical conditioning in lean & obese subjects. *Arch Environ Health*. 1972 Aug;25(2):146-50
7. Ogden CL¹, Fryar CD, Carroll MD, Flegal KM Mean body weight & body mass index *Adv Data*. 2004 Oct 27;(347):1-17
8. Zerah F¹, Harf A, Perlemuter L, Lorino H, Lorino AM, Atlan G Effect of obesity on respiratory resistance *Chest*. 1993 May;103(5):1470-6.
9. Ferretti A¹, Giampiccolo P, Cavalli A, Milic-Emili J, Tantucci C. Expiratory flow limitation & orthopnea in massively obese subjects *Chest*. 2001 May;119(5):1401-8
10. King GG¹, Brown NJ, Diba C, Thorpe CW, Muñoz P, Marks GB, Toelle B, Ng K, Berend N, Salome CM. Effect of body weight on airway calibre *EurRespir J*. 2005 May;25(5):896-901
11. Watson RA¹, Pride NB. Postural changes in lung volumes and respiratory resistance in subject with obesity. *J ApplPhysiol* (1985). 2005 Feb;98(2):512-7. Epub 2004 Oct 8.
12. Sin DD¹, Jones RL, Man SF Obesity is a risk factor for dyspnea but not for airflow obstruction. *Arch Intern Med*. 2002 Jul 8;162(13):1477-81
13. L Schachter, C Salome, J Peat, and AWoolcock Obesity is a risk factor for asthma & wheeze but not airway hyperresponsiveness. *Thorax*. 2001 Jan; 56(1): 4–8.
14. P S Thomas, E R Cowen, G Hulands, and J S Milledge Respiratory function in the morbidity obese before and after weight loss *Thorax*. 1989 May; 44(5): 382–386.

15. Sahebji H¹ Dyspnea in obese healthy man. *Chest*. 1998 Nov;114(5):1373-7
16. Littleton SW¹ Effect of obesity on respiratory function See comment in PubMed Commons below *Respirology*. 2012 Jan;17(1):43-9. doi: 10.1111/j.1440-1843.2011.02096.
17. Collins LC¹, Hoberty PD, Walker JF, Fletcher EC, Peiris AN Effect of body fat distribution on pulmonary function test *Chest*. 1995 May;107(5):1298-302.
18. Jenkins SC¹, Moxham J. The effects of mild obesity on lung function *Respir Med*. 1991 Jul;85(4):309-11
19. Lazarus R¹, Sparrow D, Weiss ST Effect of obesity and fat distribution on ventilation function. *Chest*. 1997 Apr;111(4):891-8.
20. Wannamethee SG¹, Shaper AG, Whincup PH Body fat distribution, body composition, and respiratory function in elderly men. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2005 Nov;82(5):996-1003.
21. A Li, D Chan, E Wong, J Yin, E Nelson, and T Fok The effects of obesity on pulmonary function *Arch Dis Child*. 2003 Apr; 88(4): 361–363.
22. Boran P¹, Tokuc G, Pisgin B, Oktem S, Yegin Z, Bostan O. Impact of obesity on ventilatory function *J Pediatr (Rio J)*. 2007 Mar-Apr;83(2):171-6
23. Santana H¹, Zoico E, Turcato E, Tosoni P, Bissoli L, Olivieri M, Bosello O, Zamboni M Relation between body composition, fat distribution, and lung function in elderly men. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2001 Apr;73(4):827-31
24. Ray CS, Sue DY, Brey G, et al. Effect of obesity on respiratory function. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1983; 128:501-06.
25. Salome CM¹, King GG, Berend N. Physiology of obesity and effects on lung function. *J Appl Physiol* (1985). 2010 Jan;108(1):206-11.
26. Krishnan Parameswaran, MD PhD FRCP FCCP, David C Todd, MD FRCPC, and Mark Soth, MD FRCPC Altered respiratory physiology in obesity. *Can Respir J*. 2006 May-Jun; 13(4): 203–210.
27. Naimark A, Cherniack RM. Compliance of the respiratory system and its components in health and obesity. *J Appl Physiol*. 1960;15:377–82.
28. Yap JC, Watson RA, Gilbey S, Pride NB. Effects of posture on respiratory mechanics in obesity. *J Appl Physiol*. 1995;79:1199–205.

Influence of Smart Phone Addiction on Depression and Aggression in Medical Students

Shobha MV¹, Jagadamba Aswathappa¹, Hima Varshini²

¹Associate Professor, ²Undergraduate Student, Department of Physiology/ SDUM, Sri Devaraj URS Higher Education & Research Centre, Tamaka, Kolar, Karnataka, India

Abstract

To determine the relationship of smart phone addiction with depression and aggression scores. **Materials & Method;** Cross sectional observational data was collected from 205 young adults in the age group 18-25 years who uses smartphone more than 6 months. Smartphone addiction was assessed using scale-SV questionnaire. Beck Depression Inventory is widely used self-rated instrument to assess depression. Buss-Perry Aggression Scale(BRAQ) is a 29 item self-report measure of subject's present level of aggressiveness. **Results:** Spearman correlation coefficients were used to evaluate the relationship among the different variables. Multiple linear regression was used to assess the relationship between mental health problems (depression, aggression) and smartphone addiction score, after controlling for the effects of confounders. From this data smartphone addiction emerged as an independent predictor for aggression & depression in young adults($P < 0.001$).

Conclusion: In conclusion, smartphone addiction symptoms has a potential influence on the mental health factors (Depression & aggression) among young adults.

Keywords: Smartphone addiction, Depression, Aggression, young adults.

Introduction

The popularity of smart phones usage is increasing rapidly leading to its overuse. Addiction consists of elements such as engagement in the behavior to achieve appetitive effects, preoccupation with the behavior, temporary satiation, loss of control, and suffering negative consequences as continuous use of something for the sake of relief or stimulation, which often causes cravings when it is absent.¹

A new kind of health disorder among young adults, "smartphone's addiction/abuse/misuse" is now a herculean task for health policy makers globally to think on this rapidly emerging issue. Smartphone

addiction which is a type of behavioural addiction has been defined as the overuse of smartphones to the extent that it disturbs users' daily lives. This might lead to behavioural difficulties, reduced performance in school or work, decreased real-life social interaction, neglect of personal life, mental preoccupation, mood modifying experiences and leading to relationship disorders.²

The age group of 25-34 is found to have the highest Smartphone usage rate of 62%.³ 53% youngsters are currently driving Smartphone's market in India. The number of smartphone users worldwide is projected to amount to nearly 2.7 billion by 2019. With a rise in smartphone ownership globally, China will have highest number of smartphone users, 1.3 billion, in 2018, followed by India with 530 million users. The US being in third, with 229 million users.⁴ Aggression is apparent, harmful, social interaction which is intended to inflict damage or other unpleasantness upon another individual.⁵ It includes aggression-related feelings such as anger or hostility, and aggression-related behaviors such as physical or verbal aggression.⁶ In Depression an

Jagadamba Aswathappa

Corresponding author:

Associate Professor, Department of Physiology/
SDUMC, Sri Devaraj URS Higher Education &
Research Centre, Tamaka, Kolar, Karnataka, India
E-mail: jagguravi@gmail.com

individual cannot control the emotions, and symptoms last for a long time. If left untreated, depression can lead to serious incidents and fatalities.⁷

Since smart phone usage has become a trend in present society especially in young adults and excessive usage has an effect on psychological behavior, hence there is a need to study the influence of smart phone addiction on depression and aggression in this particular vulnerable group to take necessary preventive measures.

Objectives;

1. To determine the Smart phone addiction in young adults using Smart Phone Addiction questionnaire.
2. To determine Depression score in young adults using Becks Depression inventory in smart phone users.
3. To determine Aggression in young adults using Buss Perry questionnaire in smart phone users.
4. To determine the relationship of smart phone addiction with depression and aggression scores.

Material and Method

This is a descriptive cross sectional study carried out in 205 young adults in the age group of 18-25years. Institutional ethical clearance & informed consent was obtained. Subjects with history of sleep disorders, psychological disorders neurological and endocrine disorders was excluded from the study.

The data was collected by self-administering the questionnaire to the students which was consist of two parts. First part recorded the demographic information including age,gender,smart phone usage,time spent on smartphone usage, facebook, whatsapp,webusage, education purpose,Email. Second part consists of Smartphone addiction scale-SV questionnaire was given to young adults to know whether they are Smartphone addicts or non-addicts.⁸ Beck Depression Inventory is widely used self-rated instrument to assess depression. It contains 21 questions being scored on Likert scale from 0 to 3. A score of 0 to 13 indicates minimal depression, 14 to 19 mild depressions, 20 to 28 moderate depressions and 29 to 63 severe depressions. The inventory has shown high internal consistency.⁹

Buss–Perry Aggression Scale(BRAQ) is a 29 item self-report measure of subject's present level of aggressiveness. Participants mark responses on a 5 point scale ranging from 1 (extremely uncharacteristic of me) to 5 (extremely characteristic of me). BRAQ consists of four subscales: physical aggression (PA), verbal aggression (VA), the emotional component of anger (A) and hostility (H). Each question is based on a 7-point Likert scale scoring from one to seven (“extremely uncharacteristic of me”to“extremely characteristic of me”). For each student, score of each subscale of aggression will be calculated. Total aggression score also will be calculated.¹⁰

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses was performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 for Windows. Descriptive statistics for the total sample were performed. Quantitative and qualitative measurements were summarized as mean \pm standard deviation and n (%), respectively. Spearman correlation coefficients were used to evaluate the relationship among the different variables. Multiple linear regression was used to assess the relationship between mental health problems (depression, aggression) and smartphone addiction score, after controlling for the effects of confounders. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity. Model 1 was unadjusted, showing the main effect of smartphone addiction level (total SAVS score-independent variable) on depression/anxiety (Dependent variables); Model 2 was adjusted for smartphone addiction score,& duration of usage of phone. Model 3 was our fully adjusted model in which Smartphone addiction score, Duration of usage of smart phone, Webusage ,Education purpose, Email ,Facebook ,Whatsapp usage, were controlled for. A p-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Out of 205 questionnaires distributed majority participants were females(53.7%) .Their age range from 18-25 years with a mean age of 19.13 \pm 1.16 years. Frequency distribution of time spent on smart phone perday,apps installed, apps uninstalled, email usage, education purpose, facebook,games, text messages, webusage & whatsapp usage in young adults was done. 62% of them used smart phones more than 3 hours /

day.46.8% of them used smartphone daily for webusage and 29.8% of them used smart phone for education purpose once per week.59.5% of them used smartphone daily for facebook usage & 95.6% of them spent daily on whatsapp usage.

Table-1: Frequency distribution of Smartphone addiction, Becks depression scale and Bussy Perry aggression scale in young adults(n=205)

Variable		N (%)
Smart phone addiction	Non adductors	166(81%)
	Addictors	39(19%)
Becks Depression score	Minimal depression	112(54.6%)
	Mild	70(34.1%)
	Moderate/severe	23(11.2%)
Bussy Perry Aggression score	Normal	152(74.1%)
	Aggressive	53(25.9%)

Table-1 shows 81% were smart phone non addicts and 19% were addicts. In Becks depression score 54.6% of young adults had minimal depression,34.1% mild and 11.2% moderate to severe depression. In Bussy Perry aggression score, 74.1% of them were normal and 25.9% of them showed aggressive behavior.

Table -2: Spearman's rank correlation analysis of duration of Smartphone usage with web usage, education purpose, e-mail, facebook, whatsapp, & Smart phone addiction score

Variable	Duration of usage of smart phone	
	R	P
Web usage	0.065	0.356
Education	-0.069	0.323
E-mail	0.046	0.514
Facebook	0.142	0.043
Whatsapp	0.048	0.498
Smart phone addiction score	0.379	0.001**

Duration of smart phone usage shows a significant positive correlation with the smart phone addiction score($r=0.379, p<0.001$)

Table-3; Spearman's rank correlation analysis of Becks depression score and Bussy perry Aggression score with,duration of smart phone usage, web usage, education,E-mail,Facebook,Whatsapp, Smart phone addiction score.

Variable	Depression		Aggression	
	r	P	r	P
Smart phone addiction score	0.345**	0.001	0.316**	0.001
Duration of smart phone usage	0.230**	0.001	0.179*	0.01
Web usage	0.076	0.279	0.111	0.114
Education	-0.066	0.350	-0.22	0.755
E-mail	0.038	0.587	0.112	0.111
Face book	0.170*	0.015	0.116*	0.018
Whatsapp	0.019	0.785	0.003	0.968

Table -3 shows Correlation between Depression & smart phone addiction score showed a significant positive correlation ($r=0.345, p<0.001$) and also showed significant positive correlation for aggression with smart phone addiction score ($r=0.316, p<0.001$). Both depression and aggression scores shows significant positive correlation for facebook usage among the young adults.

Table- 4: Association between smartphone addiction & Becks depression score as assessed by multiple linear regression analysis

BD score	Unstandardized β	SE	Standardized β	pvalue	R ²
Model -1	Constant:4.606,F(df:1,203)=25.186,p<0.001				
Smartphone addiction score	0.274	0.055	0.332	<0.001	0.110
Model -2	Constant :3.987,F(df:2,202)=15.667,p<0.001				
Smartphone addiction score	0.222	0.058	0.269	<0.001	0.134
Duration of usage of smart phone	1.418	0.600	0.167	<0.019	
Model-3	Constant :2.461,F(df:7,197)=4.795,p<0.001				
Smartphone addiction score	0.2016	0.061	0.249	0.001	0.146
Duration of usage of smart phone	1.325	0.611	0.156	0.031	
Webusage	0.248	0.451	0.046	0.584	
Education purpose	0.463	0.469	-0.070	0.325	
Email	0.049	0.488	0.009	0.920	
Facebook	0.376	0.390	0.072	0.336	
Whatsapp usage	0.218	1.023	0.015	0.832	

Multiple linear regression was used to assess the ability of smart phone addiction to predict two mental health problems (depression & aggression), after controlling for the influence of confounding variables.

Table-4: In the unadjusted model (Model 1), higher depression (total BDS scores) were found to be significantly associated with higher smartphone addiction score, whereby the total BDS score increases by about 4.606 units for each unit increase in smartphone addiction score, and with smartphone score explaining about 11% of the variance in total BDS score, respectively.

Smartphone addiction score,& duration of usage of phone were entered in Model 2, increasing the variance in BDS explained by the independent variables

(smartphone addiction score & duration of usage of phone) to 13%. After additional entry of the independent variables that pertain to smartphone use habits in the final model (Model 3) (Smartphone addiction score, Duration of usage of smart phone,Webusage, Education purpose, Email, Facebook,Whatsapp usage), the total variance explained by the model as a whole increased to 14.6% , $p < 0.000$, respectively.

In the final model in which smartphone addiction score was entered as the main independent variable in model 1, higher BDS score was found to be significantly associated with higher duration of smartphone usage ,smartphone addiction score with the highest beta value ($\beta = 0.249$, $p < 0.001$) followed by duration of smartphone usage ($\beta = 0.156$, $p < 0.001$), (Table 4).

Table -5: Association between smartphone addiction & BPAS score as assessed by multiple linear regression analysis

BPAS	Unstandardized β	SE	Standardized β	pvalue	R ²
Model -1	Constant:61.104, F(df:1,203)=22.368,p<0.001				
Smartphone addiction score	0.54	0.116	0.315	<0.001	0.099
Model -2	Constant :60.376,F(df:2,202)=12.067,p<0.001				
Smartphone addiction score	0.485	0.125	0.280	<0.001	0.107
Duration of usage of smart phone	1.668	1.283	0.093	0.195	
Model-3	Constant :53.572,F(df:7,197)=3.950,p<0.001				
Smartphone addiction score	0.470	0.129	0.270	0.001	0.123
Duration of usage of smart phone	1.437	1.304	0.081	0.272	
Webusage	0.202	0.962	-0.018	0.834	
Education purpose	0.622	1.001	-0.044	0.535	
Email	1.384	1.039	0.115	0.185	
Facebook	0.480	0.832	0.043	0.564	
Whatsapp usage	0.918	2.181	0.030	0.674	

Table- 5: In the unadjusted model (Model 1), higher aggression (total Busserry Aggression scores) were found to be significantly associated with higher smartphone addiction score, whereby the total Busserry Aggression score increases by about 61.104 units for each unit increase in smartphone addiction score with overall significance(F=22.638,p<0.001) and with smartphone score explaining about 10% of the variance in total BDS score, respectively.

Smartphone addiction score,& duration of usage of phone were entered in Model 2, increasing the variance in Busserry Aggression score explained by the independent variables (, smartphone addiction score & duration of usage of phone) to 11% ,p<0.001. After additional entry of the independent variables that pertain to smartphone use habits in the final model (Model 3) (Smartphone addiction score,Duration of usage of smart phone,Webusage ,Education purpose, Email ,Facebook

,Whatsapp usage), the total variance explained by the model as a whole increased to 12.3% , p < 0.001, respectively.

In the final model in which smartphone addiction score was entered as the main independent variable in model 1, higher Busserry Aggression score score was found to be significantly associated with ,smartphone addiction score with the beta value ($\beta = 0.270$, p < 0.001) (Table-5).

Discussion

The present study examined the association while controlling simultaneously for the effects of all the confounding variables such as (Duration of usage of smart phone, Webusage, Education purpose, Email, Facebook, Whatsapp usage) for depression & aggression.

Most of the participants used smartphone for >3 hours/day(62%) & 95.6% of them spent their time daily on whatsapp usage. Among the participants the prevalence of smartphone addiction was 19%, mild depression 34.1% & aggression was 25.9%.

In our study duration of smartphone usage shows a significant positive correlation with smartphone addiction score, which is consistent with other studies done among the college students.¹¹ Result from this study found 45.0% of students spent 4-6 hours a day to use the smartphone. The findings of this study supported by Hatice et al. who found 40.1% of students spend 4 to 6 hours a day on smart phone.¹²

The present study shows a significant positive correlation between depression & smartphone addiction score, duration of smart phone usage & facebook usage among the participants, which is comparable in the study done by Kim et al.¹³ The time spent on smartphone usage is of serious concern as it hampers academic performance in young adults.¹⁴ In another study, depression emerged as a significant independent positive predictor of smartphone addiction.¹⁵

In the present study shows a significant positive correlation between aggression & smartphone addiction score, duration of smart phone usage & facebook usage among the participants, which is comparable in the study done by Kang et al.¹⁶ This might be of serious concern as it may lead to sleep disturbances, & in between the usage of smartphone getting more aggressive if they get disturbed & becomes unresponsive. Thus the cycle moves on where the social interaction decreases.¹⁷

In our study, smartphone addiction score emerged as independent positive predictor of depression & aggression. Our findings shows similar results from multiple studies which looked at the relationship between smart phone addiction, & depression, aggression & impulsion among college students.¹⁸ Preoccupation with use of smartphone for longer duration for various uses as mentioned above, their will be increase tendencies towards aggression, which might lead to physical harm to others. Thus increased access to smartphone for various usages like facebook, whats app usage etc.. can lead to difficult to withdraw from it, leading anger, stress & depression. All this might lead to arguments, poor academic performance, isolation & fatigue.¹⁹

According to a study excessive smart phone users experienced difficulty in expressing emotions and had higher level of interpersonal anxiety than their counterparts. Smartphone abuse and addiction can become cause of an accident and ruining the personal or social life.²⁰

Conclusion

In conclusion, smartphone addiction symptoms has a potential influence on the mental health factors (Depression & aggression) among young adults. Smart phone addiction emerged as an independent risk factor risk factor for depression & aggression. Thus it is important bring in preventive measures, so that they can move towards positive stress coping and psycho-behavioural management techniques.

Conflicts of Interest---NIL

Source of Funding ----Self

Ethical Clearance---Taken from Institute ethics committee (order No.DMC/KLR/IEC/ 11/2016-17) SDUMC

References

1. Sussman S, Sussman AN. Considering the Definition of Addiction. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* 2018;8:4025-4038.
2. Kuss DJ, Griffiths MD. Online social networking and addiction—a review of the psychological literature. *Inter J Environ Res Pub Health* 2011; 8(9):3528-52.
3. Katz JE, Akhus M. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press; 2002. Perpetual contact: Mobile communication, private talk, public performance.
4. India set to have 530 million smartphone users in 2018. *The Indian Express*: 2017 October 16.
5. Anderson CA, Bushman BJ. Human aggression. *Annu Rev Psychol* 2002; 53: 27–51.
6. Ramírez JM, Andreu JM. Aggression and some related psychological constructs (anger, hostility, and impulsivity); some comments from a research project. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 2006; 30:276–91.
7. Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, DSM-5. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association. 2013.

8. Kwon M, Kim D-J, Cho H, Yang S. The Smartphone Addiction Scale: Development and Validation of a Short Version for Adolescents. *PLoS ONE* 2013; 8(12): e83558.
9. Beck A, Ward CH, Mendelson M, Mock J, Erbaugh J. An inventory for measuring depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1961; 4:561–71.
10. Buss, A.H., & Perry, M. The Aggression Questionnaire. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 1992 63:452-459.
11. Hwang KH, Yoo YS, Cho OH. Smartphone overuse and upper extremity pain, anxiety, depression, and interpersonal relationship among college students. *The Journal of the Korea Contents Association* 2012; 12(10):365–75.
12. Hatice Y, Sut K, Kurt S. Effects of smartphone addiction level on social and educational life in Health Sciences Students. *Euras J Fam Med.* 2016;5(1):13-933.
13. Kim SM, Huh HJ, Hyun Cho H, Kwon M, Choi JH, June Ahn H et al. The effect of depression, impulsivity, and resilience on smartphone addiction in university students. *J Korean Neuropsychiatr Assoc.* 2014; 53(4):214-20)
14. Kibona L, Mgaya G. Smartphones' Effects on Academic Performance of Higher Learning Students. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Engineering Science and Technology.* 2015;2(4):3159.
15. Kim M, Kim H, Kim K, Ju S, Choi J, Yu M. Smartphone Addiction: (Focused Depression, Aggression and Impulsion) among College Students. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology* 2015; 8(25):1-6.
16. Kang HY, Park CH. Smartphone addiction scale, factor analysis, cross-validation, preoccupation, life difficulty, usual, excessiveness, relationship. *Kor J Psychol Gen* 2012; 31(2):563–80.
17. Demirci K, Akgonul M, Akpinar A. Relationship of smartphone use severity with sleep quality, depression and anxiety in university students. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions* 2015; 4(2):85-92
18. Boumosleh JM, Jaalouk D. Depression, anxiety, and smartphone addiction in university students- A cross sectional study. *PLoS ONE* 2017;12(8): e0182239
19. Weinstein, A, Lejoyeux, M. Internet addiction or excessive internet use. *The American journal of drug and alcohol abuse* 2010; 36(5):277-283.
20. Davey S, Davey A. Assessment of Smartphone Addiction in Indian Adolescents: A Mixed Method Study by Systematic-review and Meta-analysis Approach. *Int J Prev Med* 2014;5:1500–1511.

A Study to Evaluate the Effectiveness of Open Book Tests Over Close Book Tests and Perception of Medical Students in Physiology

G. Vidya

Associate Professor, Department of Physiology, Kamineni Academy of Medical Sciences & Research Centre, LB Nagar, Hyderabad

Abstract

Introduction: At present, the Medical knowledge is expanding and changing rapidly and there is increasing need to concentrate on education based on competencies. Closed book exam is an established approach to assessment in medical education which is widely accepted method of superficial learning. Adding open book test to the formative assessment can assist in handling this growth of knowledge.

Objectives: To evaluate the effectiveness of open book test on student's performance in summative assessment and to know the perception of students on open book test.

Methodology: The study was conducted on I MBBS students (n=150), who were divided into 2 groups, Group I: subjected to open book test for 4 weeks and Group II : subjected to closed book tests for 4weeks. There was a cross-over of the two groups and Group I were subjected to the closed book test and Group II students were subjected to open book tests. The mean marks obtained in summative assessment were statistically compared. Perception of the students was taken through feedback questionnaire.

Results: The mean marks obtained by the students (n= 141) in the summative assessment after open book test (Mean± SD =26.37±6.235) are statistically significant than those after closed book tests(mean± SD =24.09± 6.3513(p value< 0.005).

Conclusion: 71% of students recommended open book tests for the formative assessment. Hence, adding open book test to the medical curriculum along with regularly used closed book test are expected to stimulate deep learning.

Keywords: *Open book tests, Closed book test, formative assessment, deep learning, medical education.*

Introduction

At present, the medical education has to deal with two important trends: The first is that the medical knowledge is expanding and changing rapidly⁽¹⁾and second is there is increasing need to concentrate on education based on competencies and integration of knowledge, skill and attitudes. It is neither possible for the medical students to master all the knowledge nor desirable to remember this growing information and by the time they have done so, this knowledge would have expanded or changed in content. Therefore, it is important that medical students are able to use and manage knowledge when dealing with new problems

and situations appropriately. The medical colleges also have the responsibility to manage this growing amount of knowledge by looking for doctors who have a variety of skills and attributes along discipline based knowledge and skills. The learning outcomes are now formulated as competencies- integrating knowledge, skills and attitudes based on the new curriculum for undergraduates going to be introduced by the Medical Council of India from 2019 . This change in learning objectives implies change in assessment, because assessment drives students learning behaviour⁽²⁻⁴⁾. Two types of learning approaches are consistently distinguished in literature: Deep learning and surface learning. Closed book

test(CBT) is an established approach to assessment in medical education which is widely accepted method of superficial learning. It basically tests how well a student recalls his knowledge.

Open Book Tests (OBTs) permit the use of different kinds of course related resource materials during the exam under test conditions. While studying for open book test, students read and think rather than read and memorize. Therefore, it is expected to stimulate deep learning^(5,6) and to assess higher cognitive levels. Students have to find the right information at the right moment and apply this information properly. Adding open book tests to the formative assessment program in the medical curriculum can assist in handling this growth of knowledge⁽⁷⁾. Additionally, open book tests might be the format that best suits these developments as they are expected to stimulate deep learning and reduce the need for cramming and memorization of facts which is considered preferable to surface learning approach^(8,9). Using open book tests along with the traditional close book test might help in assessing a broader body of knowledge than when using only close book tests.

Aim of the Study

-To know the perception of students on Open book tests compared to closed book test.

-To evaluate whether open book tests significantly impacted student's performance in summative assessment.

Materials and Methodology

After obtaining the Institutional Ethics Committee clearance and written consent from the head of the department of physiology and the students, this study was conducted in first year medical students of 2017-18 batch (n=150) at Kamineni Academy of Medical Sciences, L B Nagar, Hyderabad. Study design: Cross-sectional study

The students were divided into 2 groups.

Group I: 75 students

Group II: 75 students

In order to compare the influence of open book versus closed book tests, I focused our study on 4 examinations conducted once every week after covering

4 topics in didactic lectures in physiology. Group I students (n= 75) were subjected to open book test at the end of every week for 4 weeks on the topic covered in didactic lectures in the respective weeks followed by discussion in small groups of 7-8 students and each small group was provided with a facilitator who was subject expert in the given topic and Group II students (Control group, n=75) were subjected to closed book test on the same topic once every week for 4 weeks on the same topics. At the end of 4 weeks, a summative assessment was conducted for both group I and group II students. Both open and closed book tests were conducted in the form of theory exams containing short analytical type of open-ended questions which assessed comprehension and application with a time limit. The marks of the summative assessment of both group I and group II were compared statistically.

There was a cross-over of the two groups and this time Group I students(n=75) were subjected to the closed book test and group II students (n=75) were subjected to open book test followed by small group discussions, each small group of 7-8 students provided with a facilitator, at the end of every week in the topics covered in didactic lectures. At the end of 4 weeks, another summative assessment in the form of theory exam was conducted for both the group I and group II students and the marks of the students of both the groups were compared statistically and analyzed.

Perception of the students of both the groups (Group I and Group II) on open book test and closed book test was taken using a pre-validated standard feedback questionnaire consisting of 10 questions using 5 point likert scale and 4 themes for free comments (table 1). The data was entered in MS office and analyzed by software SPSS 19.0 statistically and compared using paired t-test. The values $p < 0.005$ was considered as significant.

Results

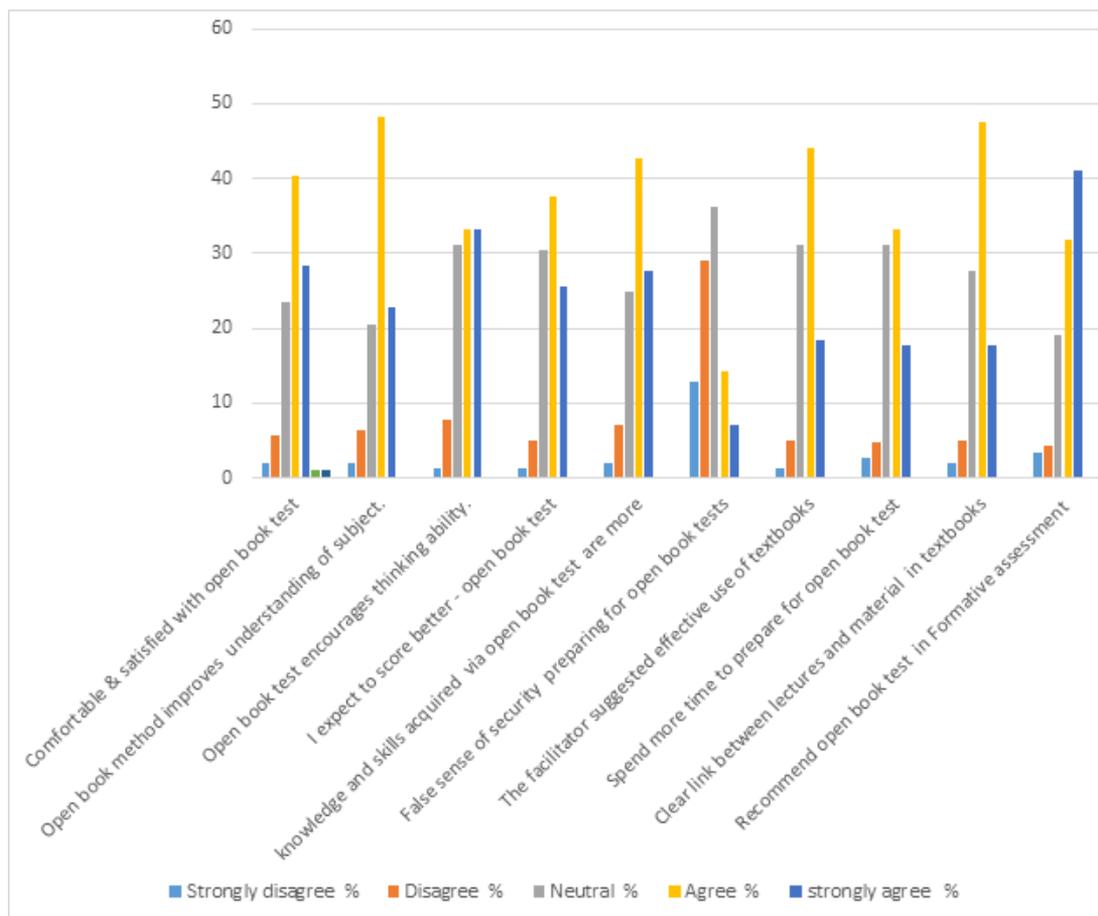
The Results of the study show that the mean marks obtained by the students (n=141)(7 students were absent for the test) in the summative assessment after open book test (Mean \pm SD = 26.37 \pm 6.235) are statistically significant than those obtained by the students in summative assessment after closed book tests(Mean \pm SD= 24.090 \pm 6.3513) (P value < 0.005)(table 1). This shows that open book tests are a better discriminator among the students than closed book tests.

Table 1: Comparison of Mean marks of Summative assessment after Open book test and Close book test (n=141)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T value	Significance (P value)
Total marks after closed book test	24.090	6.3513	0.5330		0.000
Total marks after open book test	26.37	6.235	0.523	-8.903	

The results of the feedback from the student’s feedback questionnaire show that open book tests received the highest rating for the assessment of conceptual knowledge. Majority of the students i.e: 22% strongly agreed and 48% of them agreed that open book method improves understanding of the subject and most of the students ,43% agree and 27% strongly agree that knowledge and skills obtained about the topic is more via open book test and will help them in clinical practise. A major portion, 41% strongly agreed and 32% agreed for recommending open book test approach in formative

assessment before the summative assessment (Graph 1). 37% of the students agreed and 25% strongly agreed that they expect to score better in the relevant topic as a result of open book test. Many of the students 44% agreed and 18% strongly agreed that the small group discussions after open book tests were very useful and the facilitators provided suggestions on how to effectively use textbooks. 20% of the students agreed that they do not have any false sense of security preparing for open book tests.



Graph 1: Responses of the students on feedback questionnaire on 5 point likert scale (n=141)

There are some drawbacks of the open book tests. The results of the study show that 50% of the students agreed that they spend more time working on problems and exercises to prepare for open book test.

The students indicated through their free comments that many of the students felt that the concept of open book test is innovative and open book tests improves better understanding of topic and correlation. Most of the students commented they were able to make connections not only on that particular topic but also beyond that area covered in didactic lectures and they felt that open book tests should be implemented as a routine before internal assessment.

Discussion

Present day students have grown up with technology who are accustomed to multi-tasking and can deal with information differently compared with the past. Perhaps, the traditional way of learning is no longer appropriate for today's students.

The results of the study show that mean marks of the students obtained in summative assessment after OBTs (Mean \pm SD = 26.37 \pm 6.235) are statistically significant than those obtained after CBT (Mean \pm SD= 24.090 \pm 6.3513). This shows that OBTs are a better discriminator among students than closed book tests. While the literature on the benefits of OBT versus CBT is highly variable, the results of our study are similar to the results obtained in the study done by P.A. Phiri.¹⁰

Open-book tests seem to represent the professional setting better than closed-book test, because students have full access to their references to find answers to the questions and solutions for the given problems, just as they would in practise. Majority of the students in my study agreed that open book method improves understanding of the subject and that conceptual knowledge and skills obtained about a particular topic is more via open book test which will help them in their clinical practise. Similar results were obtained in the study done by Bouman and Reichelman¹¹ who compared essay questions from closed and open book test and concluded that open book tests provide opportunity to stimulate deeper understanding and assess this.

Through the free comments, the students in this study indicated that open-book tests offered an opportunity to apply knowledge they gained during the course in a

creative manner and they were able to demonstrate a true understanding of the topics covered in didactic lectures. Students also indicated that they experience less stress before and during an open book test and open book test reduce the need for cramming and memorization of factual material. These results are in congruence with those in study done by Tussing L¹²

In this study, many of the students also indicated that open-book tests offered an opportunity to apply knowledge they gained during the course in a creative manner and they were able to demonstrate a true understanding and a clear link between the topics covered in didactic lectures and the text books as also suggested by Theophilides C¹³ in their study. In addition, open book tests seem to represent the professional setting better than closed book tests because students have full access to their references to find answers to the questions and answers for the given problems, just as they do would do in clinical practise.

There are some disadvantages of open book tests. Several previous studies revealed that students underestimate the time and effort needed to prepare for open-book tests. The results of this study also show that the students agreed that they spend a considerable less amount of time preparing and writing, consulting notes and texts for the OBT. These results are in accordance with the results of other studies done by Kountselini MK¹⁴ and Lubawy W.¹⁵

Conclusion

Open book tests are not generally accepted in public examinations but there are no clear reasons for that. In this study, 41% of students strongly recommended and 32% of the students recommended open book tests for the formative assessment. In my opinion, students who prepared for OBTs seem to develop high-order thinking and study the course material in-depth. Hence, they scored more marks in summative assessment. OBTs should not be thought as an alternative to CBTs but their value may be expanding beyond what is measured by CBT.

Adding open book tests to the formative assessment program in the medical curriculum can assist in handling the expanding and constantly changing knowledge as they are expected to stimulate deep learning and reduce the need for cramming and memorization of facts which is considered preferable to surface learning approach.

Funding: Self

Conflict of Interest: None

Ethical Clearance: Taken from institutional ethics committee

References

1. Mifflin BM, Campbell CB, Price DA. A Conceptual framework to guide the development of self-directed, lifelong learning in problem based medical curricula. *Med Educ* 2000; 34:299-306.
2. Frederiksen N. The real test bias: Influences of testing on teaching and learning. *Am psychol* 1984;39: 193-202
3. Cohen-schotanus J. Student and examination rules. *Med teach* 1999;21:318-21
4. Van der vleuten CPM, Schuwirth LWT. Assessment professional competence from methods to programmes *Med Educ* 2005; 39:309-17
5. Feller M. Open book testing and education for the future. *Stud Educ Eval* 1994; 20:235-8
6. Smith SR. Is it time to close the book on closed book examinations? *Med Health* 1999;82: 285-8
7. Heijne Penninga M Kuks JBM, Schonrock- Adema J et al. Open book tests to complement assessment programmes. Analysis of open book and closed book tests. *Adv Health Sci Educ* 2006
8. Lizzio A, Wilson K, simsons R. University students perception of the learning environment and academic outcome: implications of theory and outcome. *Stud High Educ* 2002;27:27-50.
9. Abraham RR, Kamath A, Upadhy S etal. Learning approaches to physiology of undergraduates in a Indian medical school. *Med Educ* 2006; 40: 916-23.
10. P.A.Phiri . A Comparison of assessment by closed book and open book tests. *Int J Mathematical Edu in Science and Technology*1993; 24: 23-26.
11. Bouman IN, Reichelman HW. Open book exams: aims, facts and future. *Med Teach*1995;17:240
12. Tussing L. A consideration of the open book examination. *Educ Psychol Meas* 1951;11:597-602.
13. Theophilides C, Dionysiou O. The major functions of the open-book examination at the university level: a factor analytic study. *Stud Educ Eval* 1996;22:157-70.
14. Kountselini-Ioannidou MK. Testing and life long learning : open book test and closed book examination in a university course. *Study Educ Eval* 1997.23:131-9.
15. Lubawy W, Brandt B. A variable structure, less resource intensive modification of problem based learning for pharmacology instruction to health science students. *Naunyn- Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol* 2002: 366:48-57.

Comparative Analysis of CMAP Amplitudes of Electro-physiologically Evaluated Facial Muscles in Facial Palsy Patients

Virendra Verma¹, Gaurav Jain¹

¹Associate Professor, G. R. Medical College, Gwalior, MP

Abstract

Background: The study describes the retrospective analysis of compound motor action potential (CMAP) amplitudes in 50 cases (25 males & 25 females) of facial nerve palsy seen in our neurophysiology Laboratory during last two years.

Methodology: Clinically diagnosed cases of facial nerve palsy encountered at neurophysiology laboratory went under facial nerve conduction studies. Patients evaluated for CMAPs of orbicularis oculi, Nasalis and Orbicularis oris muscles were analyzed

Results: Study included 50 male and female (n=25 each) patients of unilateral facial palsy with the mean age of 33.98 ± 14.13 yr. CMAP amplitudes of all the three muscles on affected side were significantly (p value <0.0001) lower compared to that of normal side. CMAP amplitudes in males and females were not significantly different over both affected and normal side muscles. ANOVA of affected and normal side muscles of all the patients showed significantly (p value <0.05) different CMAP amplitudes among both affected side and normal side muscles.

Conclusion: It was concluded that CMAP amplitudes are significantly reduced on the affected side in facial palsy patients and they do not reflect any gender differences. CMAP amplitudes show an increasing trend from orbicularis oculi, nasalis to orbicularis oris muscle.

Keywords: Facial palsy, Bell's palsy, electro-physiology, Compound motor action potential (CMAP), Facial Muscles, Orbicularis oculi, Nasalis, Orbicularis oris.

Introduction

Facial paralysis occurs as a consequence of wide array of disorders and heterogeneous etiologies, including congenital, traumatic, infectious, neoplastic, and metabolic causes¹. Nerve conduction studies of facial nerve are considered as the most reliable tool for the diagnosis of facial paralysis and assess the facial nerve degeneration^{2,3}. There is a spectrum of electrophysiological abnormalities in facial palsy cases⁴.

Electro-physiological studies are helpful in localizing the lesion and assessing the prognosis of recovery. CMAP of orbicularis oculi, nasalis and orbicularis oris are recorded to assess facial nerve conduction. Latency measurements of facial nerve are not as useful as the CMAP amplitude to assess the prognosis of facial nerve lesion⁵.

We aimed to retrospectively assess the CMAP amplitudes of electro-physiologically evaluated of facial palsy patients.

Material and Method

The study was conducted at Gajara Raja Medical College, Gwalior, MP, India. 50 unilateral peripheral facial paralysis cases, with equal number of males (n=25) and females (n=25) were selected. Thus, total 100 facial nerves of 50 subjects were tested of which 50 nerves were on the side of facial palsy (affected side) and another 50 nerves were of normal side.

Data of CMAP amplitudes in bilateral orbicularis oculi, nasalis and orbicularis oris muscles was retrieved. CMAP amplitudes of all the subjects for each of the above muscles on affected side were grouped (affected CMAP

amplitude). Similar grouping was done on normal side (normal CMAP amplitude). The CMAP amplitudes of each of the three muscles were then compared between the above groups (affected vs. normal side comparison).

Further, in-house comparison of CMAP amplitudes among facial muscles of affected side was done. Similar comparison was done for normal side muscles.

Paired t test, unpaired t test and One-way repeated-measures ANOVA were used for statistical analysis. p value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. All statistical analysis was done using Graphpad Prism 5.01 software for Windows (Graph-Pad Software, Inc., USA).

Results

The study was conducted at Department of physiology and Department of Neurology, Gajara Raja Medical College (GRMC) and associated Jaya Arogya Hospital (JAH) Gwalior, M.P., India. This was a cross sectional retrospective study done on subjects affected with peripheral facial paralysis.

Study included 50 male and female (n=25 each) patients of facial palsy. The mean age of the patients was 33.98 ± 14.13 yr. All the selected patients had unilateral facial palsy.

CMAP amplitudes of affected side were compared with that of normal side. CMAP amplitudes of all the

three muscles on affected side were significantly lower compared to normal side (Table 1, Figure 1).

CMAP amplitudes of males and females were compared for affected and normal sides respectively. No significant (p value >0.05) difference was observed between males and females for either of the above two sides (Table No. 2).

We also made an in-house comparison of the CMAP amplitudes of all three facial muscles on affected and normal sides respectively. One-way repeated-measures ANOVA followed by post hoc Bonferroni's Multiple Comparison analysis of affected side showed that CMAP amplitudes of orbicularis oculi & nsalis, orbicularis oculi & orbicularis oris and nasalis & orbicularis oris were significantly different with p values of <0.001, <0.001 and <0.05 respectively. Similarly above mentioned analysis of normal side showed that CMAP amplitudes of orbicularis oculi & nsalis, orbicularis oculi & orbicularis oris and nasalis & orbicularis oris were significantly different with p values of <0.001 for all the three measurements. Further, significantly lowest amplitude was of orbicularis oculi and the significantly highest amplitude was of the orbicularis oris muscle with the nasalis amplitude in between the two. Moreover, similar trend of observation was observed over normal side (Figure 2 and 3).

Table No. 1 – Comparison of CMAP amplitudes of facial muscles on affected side and unaffected side in facial palsy patients (n=50)

Muscles tested	Affected Side (n=50)	Unaffected Side (n=50)	p Value
Orbicularis Oculi (CMAP amplitude in mV)	1.374 ± 0.73	2.014 ± 0.74	< 0.0001*
Nasalis (CMAP amplitude in mV)	1.886 ± 0.94	2.83 ± 1.11	< 0.0001*
Orbicularis Oris (CMAP amplitude in mV)	2.224 ± 1.16	3.464 ± 1.37	< 0.0001*

*p Value <0.05 was considered significant

Table No. 2 - Comparison of CMAP amplitudes of facial muscles on affected side and unaffected side in facial palsy patients (n=50)

Muscles tested	In the side of facial palsy (Affected side)			Normal Side (Unaffected Side)		
	Males (n = 25)	Females (n = 25)	p value	Males (n = 25)	Females (n = 25)	p value
Orbicularis Oculi (CMAP amplitude in mV)	1.52 ± 0.79	1.22 ± 0.65	>0.05	2.14 ± 0.69	1.89 ± 0.78	>0.05
Nasalis (CMAP amplitude in mV)	1.90 ± 0.90	1.87 ± 0.99	>0.05	2.90 ± 1.13	2.76 ± 1.11	>0.05
Orbicularis Oris (CMAP amplitude in mV)	2.16 ± 1.20	2.28 ± 1.14	>0.05	3.61 ± 1.28	3.32 ± 1.46	>0.05

*p Value <0.05 was considered significant

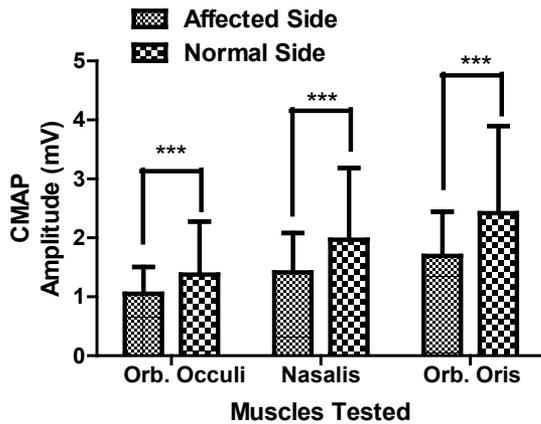


Figure 1 – Figure shows significantly higher CMAP amplitudes in normal side compared to affected side (*represents significant difference * = p<0.05; ** = p<0.01; *** = p<0.001.)

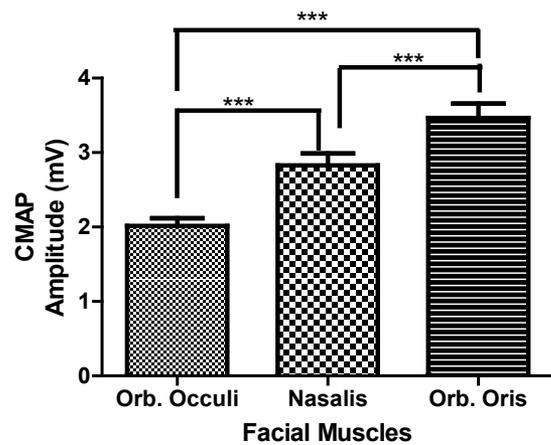


Figure 3 – Figure shows significant difference of CMAP amplitudes of the facial muscles over normal side of all the patients (*represents significant difference * = p<0.05; ** = p<0.01; *** = p<0.001.)

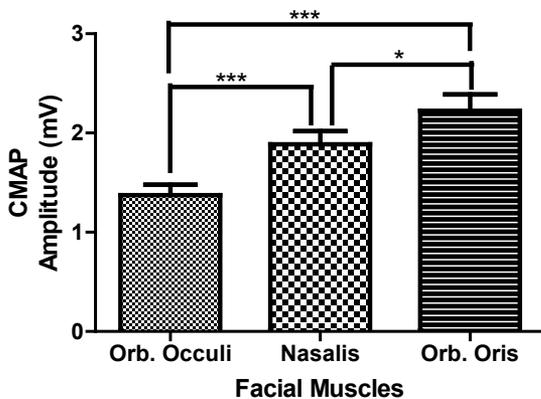


Figure 2 – Figure shows significant difference of CMAP amplitudes of the facial muscles over affected side of all the patients (*represents significant difference * = p<0.05; ** = p<0.01; *** = p<0.001.)

Discussion

This study retrospectively analyzed the CMAP amplitudes of facial nerve in neurophysiologically diagnosed facial palsy patients. In this study equal number of males and female patients (total cases n=50) of facial palsy were analyzed. All the patients had unilateral facial palsy and CMAP amplitudes of orbicularis oculi, nasalis and orbicularis oris muscles were recorded on affected and normal side

We observed that CMAP amplitudes of facial nerve over all the above mentioned muscles were significantly (p value <0.0001) lower in affected side compared to normal side. Previous studies have also found that

electro-diagnosis significantly confirms the facial nerve palsy⁶⁻¹⁰.

We observed no significant difference in facial nerve CMAP amplitudes of males and females on either of the sides. No difference in normal side indicates that the strength of contraction of facial muscles is similar in males and females. Further, no difference in affected side indicates that the facial palsy similarly affects the facial nerves of males and females. However, HB Jacob (1954) found that strength of orbicularis oculi is higher in males¹¹. The method of strength evaluation was quite different in their study and their study involved voluntary muscle contraction.

In-house comparison of the CMAP amplitudes showed significantly different CMAP amplitudes over both affected and normal sides individually. Further, amplitude order from low to high was; orbicularis oculi < nasalis < orbicularis oris. This comparison of CMAP amplitudes has not been done previously. Most of the CMAP amplitude studies either quote amplitude changes in percentage or have measured amplitude of only one muscle¹²⁻¹⁴ and hence comparisons are not possible. This finding shows that in any patient if an investigator gets different amplitude order across the three muscles then it may reflect the either the abnormality of muscle or of the nerve branch supplying that muscle.

Conclusion

We conclude that CMAP amplitudes are significantly reduced on the affected side in facial palsy patients and they do not reflect any gender differences. Increasing order of CMAP amplitudes was observed as orbicularis oculi < nasalis < orbicularis oris muscles across the facial muscles.

Funding: NA

Conflict of Interest: There is no conflict of Interest

Ethical approval: Study is approved by institutional Ethics Committee.

References

- Melvin T-AN, Limb CJ. Overview of facial paralysis: current concepts. *Facial Plast Surg.* 2008 May;24(2):155–63.
- Batra SP, Sinha A, Singh NN, Abrol BM. Electro-diagnosis in peripheral facial nerve paralysis. *Ind J Otol.* 1973 Jun 1;25(2):76.
- Prakash KM. The Use of Nerve Conduction Studies in Determining the Short Term Outcome of Bell's Palsy. 2003;58(1):10.
- Hill M, Midroni G, C. Goldstein W, L. Deeks S, E. Low D, Morris A. The Spectrum of Electrophysiological Abnormalities in Bell's Palsy. *The Canadian journal of neurological sciences Le journal canadien des sciences neurologiques.* 2001 Jun 1;28:130–3.
- Misra, Uk M, Al E. *Clinical Neurophysiology (2Nd Edition).* Elsevier India; 2010. 482 p.
- Batra SP, Sinha A, Singh NN, Abrol BM. Electro-diagnosis in peripheral facial nerve paralysis. *Ind J Otol.* 1973 Jun 1;25(2):76.
- Taverner D. Electrodiagnosis in Facial Palsy. *Arch Otolaryngol.* 1965 May 1;81(5):470–7.
- Alford BR. Electrodiagnostic Studies in Facial Paralysis. *Arch Otolaryngol.* 1967 Mar 1;85(3):259–64.
- de Bisschop G, Sarabian A, de Bisschop E, Sarabian N, Zanaret M. [Selection of electrophysiological investigations for diagnosis in idiopathic facial palsy. Twenty years experience in an ENT department]. *Rev Laryngol Otol Rhinol (Bord).* 1998;119(2):75–85.
- III DB James W Hall. *Electroneuronography (ENoG): Neurophysiologic Evaluation of the Facial Nerve* Douglas Beck James W. Hall III. *AudiologyOnline.*
- Jacobs HB. Strength of the Orbicularis Oculi. *British Journal of Ophthalmology.* 1954 Sep 1;38(9):560–6.
- Conte A, Fabbrini G, Belvisi D, Marsili L, Di Stasio F, Berardelli A. Electrical activation of the orbicularis oculi muscle does not increase the effectiveness of botulinum toxin type A in patients with blepharospasm. *European journal of neurology : the official journal of the European Federation of Neurological Societies.* 2009 Nov 1;17:449–55.
- Nowak DA, Linder S, Topka H. Diagnostic relevance of transcranial magnetic and electric stimulation of the facial nerve in the management of facial palsy. *Clinical Neurophysiology.* 2005 Sep 1;116(9):2051–7.

14. Acioly M, Gharabaghi A, Liebsch M, Carvalho C, Henrique Aguiar P, Tatagiba M. Quantitative parameters of facial motor evoked potential during vestibular schwannoma surgery predict postoperative facial nerve function. *Acta neurochirurgica*. 2011 Apr 1;153:1169–79.

Effect of Visual Evoked Potential in Myopic Individuals

Rathnavel Kumaran Murugesan¹, Kiranya R², Anitha Achutan³, Anitha B⁴

¹Senior Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, ²II year MBBS, ³Professor, Department of Physiology,

⁴Associate Professor, Department of Physiology, Chengalpattu Medical College, Chengalpattu

Abstract

Background: Visual evoked potentials (VEPs) are electrical potential differences recorded from the scalp in response to visual stimulus. Refractive errors blur the stimuli, causing defocus and tend to affect the VEP parameters [1]. Among the refractive errors, the incidence of myopia is increasing globally, due to the increased usage of illuminated electronic screens.

Objective: To study the changes in latency of VEP waves in myopic individuals and to compare them with normal healthy controls.

Methodology: 30 individuals with myopia in the age group 18-35 years were selected from Ophthalmology OPD and VEP was recorded in the Neurophysiology Lab, Chengalpattu Medical College and were compared with 30 age and gender matched healthy controls. The data was statistically analyzed with student independent unpaired 't' test using SPSS 23.0 version.

Results: As compared with controls the VEP latencies were significantly increased in myopic individuals ($p < 0.05$).

Conclusion: Uncorrected myopia per se can cause prolongation of VEP latencies. So routine VEP recording should be done after correction of myopia to avoid false positive results.

Keywords: Refractive error, Myopia, Visual Evoked Potentials.

Introduction

According to the National Programme for Control of Blindness (NPCB), uncorrected refractive errors are the second most common cause of avoidable blindness in India, accounting for 19.7 percent of the total cases of blindness.² Globally, uncorrected refractive errors are the major cause of visual impairment.³ Among the refractive errors, the prevalence of myopia is increasing globally, with a recent study estimating that around 30% of the current population is myopic.^{4,5} Myopia is defined as a condition in which the spherical equivalent objective refractive error is ≤ -0.05 diopter (≤ -0.05 D) in either eye.⁴ The increase in prevalence of myopia is particularly more in children and young adults, who spend less time outdoors and more time with illuminated electronic gadgets like computers and smart phones.⁶

Visual evoked potentials (VEP) are electrical potential differences recorded from the scalp in response

to visual stimuli.⁷ A normal VEP denotes the integrity of the visual pathway. VEP consists of two negative waves (N) and a positive wave (P). The waves are N_{75} , P_{100} and N_{145} , wherein 75, 100 and 145 are the latencies in millisecond. Of these, P_{100} is the most consistent and least variable peak.⁸ The latency is a more reliable and generally a more useful parameter than the amplitude.⁹

The aim of this study is to evaluate the changes in latency of VEP waves in myopic individuals and to study the correlation between increasing refractive error and latency of P_{100} .

Materials and Method

Thirty stable myopic individuals of both genders in the age group of 18-35 years were selected from the Ophthalmology Outpatient Department of Chengalpattu Medical College. VEP was recorded in the Neurophysiology Lab, Department of Physiology,

Chengalpattu Medical College. The VEP recordings were compared with 30 age and gender matched healthy individuals from the Master Health Checkup Programme. This Case Control study was conducted after obtaining approval from the Institutional Ethics Committee. Written and informed consent was obtained from all the participants. Following a clinical examination, the visual acuity was tested using Snellen's chart and the refractive error was assessed using autorefractometer.

Inclusion Criteria:

Age: 18-35 years

Both genders

Refractive error [Myopia \leq -0.05 D] ⁴

Exclusion Criteria:

Age <18 years and >35 years

Other refractive errors [hypermetropia, astigmatism]

H/O color blindness, glaucoma, cataract, optic neuritis and any other eye pathology

H/O seizures, eye surgery, demyelinating diseases

H/O diabetes mellitus, hypertension, thyroid abnormalities

Known smokers, alcoholics, tobacco chewers

Subjects on barbiturates, neuroleptics, antidepressants

PROCEDURE:

Prerequisites:

Thorough hair washing before the experiment, to render scalp grease free.

Application of oil or any other hair products should be avoided.

Mydriatics and myotics should not be used for a minimum of 12 hours before the procedure.

Removal of glasses or contact lenses during the procedure.

VEP was recorded using Physiopac [Neuroperfect EMG 2000]. The stimulus given was Pattern reversal using a checkerboard monitor.

Technical settings:

Low cut filter: 2Hz

High cut filter: 100Hz

Sweep duration: 350ms

Sweep sensitivity: 10 μ V

Number of epochs: 200

After giving proper instructions, the subjects were asked to sit straight at a distance of 100cm from the stimulus monitor, in a dark room.

Three standard disc electrodes were placed on the scalp, according to the 10-20 International System of EEG electrode placement.

Recording electrode Oz – 3 cm from the inion

Reference electrode Fz – 12 cm from the nasion

Ground electrode Cz – over the forehead.

After cleansing the skin in the area of electrode placement using spirit, the electrodes were fixed using electrode paste.

The subjects were asked to fix their gaze at the red point in the centre of the monitor and monocular stimulation was done.

The latencies of N₇₅, P₁₀₀ and N₁₄₅ were recorded.

The collected data were analysed with IBM.SPSS statistics software 23.0 version using student independent unpaired sample 't' test and Pearson's correlation.

p <0.05 was taken as significant.

p \leq 0.01 was taken as highly significant.

Results

Table 1: Comparison of basic parameters between controls and cases

PARAMETER	CONTROLS (n=30) MEAN \pm SD	CASES (n=30) MEAN \pm SD	p VALUE
AGE	19.8 \pm 1.56	19.8 \pm 1.27	1.000
HEIGHT in cm	167.3 \pm 8.7	166.77 \pm 11.3	0.838
WEIGHT in kg	60.27 \pm 10.95	58.73 \pm 11.37	0.597
BMI	21.53 \pm 3.46	21.01 \pm 3.18	0.548

The basic parameters of age, height, weight and BMI matched between controls and cases.

Comparison of VEP parameters between controls and cases

Table 2: VEP recordings of right eye

VEP PARAMETER	CONTROLS MEAN±SD	CASES MEAN±SD	pVALUE
LATENCY OF N ₇₅ [ms]	73.9±5.61	79.75±6.43	<0.01
LATENCY OF P ₁₀₀ [ms]	100.22±3.11	110.7±4.41	<0.01
LATENCY OF N ₁₄₅ [ms]	145.59±12.54	156.58±11.15	<0.01

TABLE 3: VEP recordings of left eye

VEP PARAMETER	CONTROLS MEAN±SD	CASES MEAN±SD	p VALUE
LATENCY OF N ₇₅ [ms]	74.59±5.12	79.99±5.16	<0.01
LATENCY OF P ₁₀₀ [ms]	100.98±2.79	110.87±4.14	<0.01
LATENCY OF N ₁₄₅ [ms]	145.82±11.57	157.37±12.26	<0.01

There was a highly significant increase in the latencies of N75, P100 and N145 in myopic individuals when compared to the controls for both right and left eye.

Discussion

Visual evoked potential is a non-invasive study that measures the evoked response to visual stimuli.¹⁰ Visual cortex is activated primarily by central visual field. VEP depends on the functional integrity of central vision at any level of visual pathway including the eye, retina, optic nerve, optic radiation and occipital cortex.¹¹ Myopia is a dioptric condition of the eye in which, with the accommodation at rest, incident parallel rays come to a focus anterior to the light sensitive layer of the retina.⁹ In pattern reversal VEP, the stimulus contains clear contours which are markedly affected by any optical blur,⁸ caused by refractive errors like myopia. In this study, latencies of VEP waves were recorded for individuals with myopia and was compared with normal controls. There was a significant increase in the latency of P₁₀₀ in myopic individuals compared to the controls. This was consistent with Kothari *et al*,¹² wherein it was established that myopia significantly increases the latency of P₁₀₀ and decreases the amplitude. Collins *et al*,¹³ illustrated that induced refractive error significantly

increased both absolute and relative latency of P₁₀₀. Winn B J *et al*,¹⁴ observed that simulated refractive errors caused significant centrally located abnormalities, blurring the stimulus.

In our study, the mean latency of P₁₀₀ was significantly prolonged in myopic individuals and as there was a strong positive correlation between increasing refractive error and the latency of P₁₀₀. This is because refractive errors like myopia causes optical blurring of the stimulus, resulting in defocus, which causes prolongation of latency.

This signifies that myopia per se can cause prolongation of P₁₀₀ latency. The prolongation of P₁₀₀ is a clinically significant tool in diagnosis of conditions like optic neuritis and demyelinating diseases like multiple sclerosis. Hence while doing routine diagnostic VEP testing, myopia should be corrected to avoid false positive results.

Conclusion

There is significant delay in the wave pattern of VEP recorded in subjects with myopia. There is significant prolongation of the latency of P100, N75 and N145 in the study group compared to the controls. The change

in amplitude of the waves was not recorded. This study did not include the recording of VEP after the correction of myopia, which would have given a better insight into the impact of blurring vision on the recording of visual evoked potentials. To conclude correction of refractive errors is essential before VEP recordings for clinical investigation.

Limitations:

Small Sample size.

The correlation between uncorrected and corrected refractive error was not studied.

Conflict of Interest: None

Source of Funding: None

Ethical Clearance: The study was approved by the Institutional Ethical Committee, Chengalpattu Medical College, Chengalpattu.

References

1. Kothari R, Bokariya P, Singh S, Narang P, Singh R. Refractive errors and their effects on visual evoked potentials. *J Clin Ophthalmol Res* [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2018 Jul 8];2:3-6. Available from: <http://www.jcor.in/text.asp?2014/2/1/3/122625>
2. National Programme for Control of Blindness (NPCB), Directorate General of Health Services, Ministry of Health & Family Welfare, Government of India [Internet]. Ministry of Health & Family Welfare; 2010 [cited 2018 Jul 7]. Available from <http://npcb.nic.in>
3. World Health Organization [Internet]. Blindness and visual impairment. 2017 Oct 11 [cited 2018 Jul 7]. Available from www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/blindness-and-visual-impairment
4. The impact of myopia and high myopia: report of the Joint World Health Organization – Brien Holden Vision Institute Global Scientific Meeting on Myopia. University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia, 16 – 18 March 2015. Geneva: World Health Organization [Internet]. 2017 [cited 2018 Jul 8]. Available from <http://www.who.int/blindness/publications/en/>
5. Brien Holden Vision Institute. Myopia-Growing Prevalence [Internet]. [cited 2018 Jul 8] ABN 49 081 303 282. Available from <https://www.brienholdenvision.org/myopia-prevalence.html>
6. Elie Dolgin. The Myopia Boom [Internet]. *Nature* 2015 March 18 [cited 2018 Jul 8]. Available from <https://www.nature.com/news/the-myopia-boom-1.17120>
7. Pal GK, Pal P. Visual Evoked Potential. *Textbook of Practical Physiology*. 3rd ed. University Press (India) Private Limited; 2010. 303-4p.
8. Guideline 9B: Guidelines on Visual Evoked Potentials. American Clinical Neurophysiology Society. *J Clin Neurophysiol* [Internet]. 2006 [cited 2018 Jul 7].23(2): 138-156p. Available from <https://www.acns.org/practice/guidelines>
9. Assessment of Visual Function. In: Sihota R, Tandon R. *Parson's Diseases of the Eye*. 22nd ed. Elsevier; 2015. 111p.
10. Daube J R, Rubin D I, Visual Evoked Potentials. *Clinical Neurophysiology*. 3rd ed. New York: Oxford University Press. 311-16p.
11. Odom J V, Bach M, Brigell M, Holder G E, McCulloch D L, Tormene A P *et al*. ISCEV standard for clinical visual evoked potentials (2009 update). *Doc Ophthalmol* [Internet]. 2010 Feb [cited 2018 Jul 7].120(1):111-9. Available from <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10633-009-9195-4> Doi: 10.1007/s10633-009-9195-4.
12. Kothari R, Bokariya P, Singh R, Singh S. Influence of refractory error on the pattern reversal VEPs of myopes and hypermetropes. *Int J Physiol* 2013; 1:57-61
13. Collins DW, Carroll WM, Black JL, Walsh M. Effect of refractive error on the visual evoked response. *Br Med J* [Internet]. 1979 [cited 2018 Jul 7].1:231-2. Available from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1597881/>
14. Winn B J, Shin E. Interpreting the multifocal visual evoked potential : the effects of refractive errors, cataracts and fixation errors. *Br J Ophthalmol* [Internet]. 2005 [cited 2018 Jul 8]:89:340-344p. Available from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bjo.2004.047910>
15. Allison T, Wood C C. Brainstem auditory, pattern reversal visual and short latency somatosensory evoked potentials: Latencies in relation to age, sex & brain and body size. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 1983 Jun,55(6):619-36p.

16. Zislina NN, Sorokina RS. Possibilities of the use of visual evoked potentials in the evaluation of visual acuity in congenital myopia in children. *Vestn Oftalmol* 1992;108:35-7.
17. Walsh T J. Electrodiagnosis – Visual evoked potential. In: Walsh T J, editor. *Neuro – ophthalmology: Clinical Signs and Symptoms*. 2nd edition. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger; 1985. P.303-340.
18. Sherman J. Visual evoked potential(VEP): Basic concepts and clinical applications. *J American Optometric Association* 1979;50(1):19-30.
19. Bobak P, Bodis-Wollner I, Guillory S. The effect of blur and contrast on VEP latency; Comparison between check and sinusoidal and grating patterns. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 1987;68:247-255.
20. Millodot M, Riggs LA. Refraction determined electrophysiologically. Responses to alteration of visual contours. *Archives of Ophthalmology*.1970;84:272-278.
21. Dandona R, Dandona L. Refractive error blindness. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 2001 [cited 2018 May 18]:79; 237-43p. Available from http://www.who.int/bulletin/archives/volume79_3/en/
22. Jha A T, Yousuf P S, Gupta S B. Effect of myopia on visual evoked potential. *IOSR-JDMS* [Internet].2015, Apr. [cited 2018 May 20];14(4): 49-52p. Available from www.iosrjournals.org DOI:10.9790/0853-14474952
23. Wadhwa J, Dudhmal V. Visual evoked Potential (VEP): Physiological variation in normal children and adolescent up to 20 years of age. *Int J Med Res Rev* [Internet]. 2015 Apr [cited 2018 Jun 2];3(3):335-40p. Available from <http://medresearch.in/index.php/IJMRR/article/view/260/597> DOI:10.17511/ijmrr.2015.i3.067
24. Mishra U K, Kalita J. Visual evoked potential. *Clinical Neurophysiology* 3rd ed. New Delhi: Elsevier. 2014: 283-296p.
25. Visual Evoked Potentials. In: Blum A S, Rutkove S B, *The Clinical Neurophysiology Primer*. New Jersey: Humana Press. 2007:461-71p.
26. Heckenlively J R, Arden G B. History of Visual Evoked Cortical Testing. *Principles and Practice of Clinical Electrophysiology of Vision*. Mosby Year Book:1991;17-20p.

Effects of 40 days of Pranayama Training in Hypertensive Subjects

Prashant Kumar Jain¹, Varun Malhotra², Neera Goel³, Shivani Gupta⁴

¹Post graduate Student Santosh Medical College, Ghaziabad, ²Associate Professor AIIMS, Bhopal, ³Associate Professor, Santosh Medical College, ⁴MBBS Student Santosh Medical College

Abstract

Hypertension is the most important modifiable risk factor for coronary heart disease, stroke, congestive heart failure, end-stage renal disease and peripheral vascular disease. It accounts for a major part of morbidity and mortality due to cardiovascular diseases (CVD). Relaxation and stress relieving methods like Pranayama, Meditation has been shown to be capable of lowering blood pressure This study was undertaken to scientifically determine the effects of Pranayamas namely anulomaviloma and Bhramari etc for mental relaxation and their effects on blood pressure with the help of following parameters viz. Heart rate, Bloodpressure (systolic + Diastolic blood pressure) in the hypertensive subjects and to compare the effects of Pranayama in two groups i.e. Group A, subject to Pranayama and with control Group B, who will not be subjected to any kind of Pranayama training. The mean BP profile parameters for patients after 40 days of Yoga were SBP 134.21±7.02 (mmHg), DBP 84.92±6.39 (mmHg), Pulse rate 76.00±3.43 (beats/min) & Respiratory rate 12.83±1.01 (resp./min). The corresponding values for controls were SBP 157.00±7.50 (mmHg), DBP 94.04±3.25 (mmHg), Pulse rate 76.71±7.62 (beats/min) & Respiratory

rate 14.42±2.24 (resp./min) respectively. The variation in respect of SBP not statistically significant. P>0.05. At the outset, before commencement of Yoga exercise the SBP

was 160.46±7.02 (mmHg), DBP was 96.63±3.83 (mmHg), Pulse rate was 80.83±6.18 (beats/min), & Respiratory rate was 15.33±1.49 (resp./min). After 20 days of commencement of Yoga exercise SBP became 153.58±6.65 (mmHg), DBP 91.50±5.41 (mmHg), Pulse rate

became 79.25±4.68 (beats/min) & Respiratory rate was 15.04±1.04 (resp./min) and after 40 days of Yoga exercise SBP turned out to be 134.21±7.00 (mmHg), DBP 84.92±6.39 (mmHg), Pulse rate 76.00±3.43 (beats/min), and Respiratory rate 12.83±1.01 (resp./min). While the

variations in all these parameters except for the Pulse rate (beats/min) was statistically highly significant as P<0.001, Pulse rate changes were also statistically significant P=0.004. Thus, we conclude that yogic practices combined with antihypertensive drugs were found effective in reducing BP & PR in resting condition and during stimulus induced conditions as well in mild to moderate hypertension. It reduced the requirement of the dose of antihypertensive drugs in majority of the hypertensive patients. Specifically it was found to affect cardiovascular autonomic regulation and tends to normalize it.

Keywords: Hypertension Pranayama Blood pressure respiratory rate

Corresponding author:

Varun Malhotra,

Associate Professor, Department of Physiology, Saket Nagar, AIIMS Bhopal-462024

Varun.physiology@aiimsbhopal.edu.in

Introduction

Hypertension is the most important modifiable risk factor for coronary heart disease, stroke, congestive heart failure, end-stage renal disease and peripheral vascular disease.¹ It accounts for a major part of morbidity and mortality due to cardiovascular diseases (CVD).² As per

World Health Organization (WHO), CVD will be the largest cause of death and disability in India by 2020³ and nearly half of this mortality will be in young and middle-aged individuals. According to JNC-7 (Joint National Committee 1997) the definition of hypertension is SBP as

140mmHg or higher or DBP as 90mmHg or higher or both and is estimated that it is effecting approximately 1 billion worldwide Whereas <120mm of Hg as SBP and <80mm of Hg as DBP is considered as normal blood pressure.⁴ Currently, Indians experience CVD deaths at least a decade earlier than their counterparts in countries with well-established market economies.⁵ Out of so many risk factors for essential hypertension, stress is one of modifiable risk factors as recently reviewed by WHO scientific group. Yoga is an ancient science in this Pranayama plays a very important role in hypertension. Relaxation and stress relieving methods like Pranayama, Meditation has been shown to be capable of lowering blood pressure. There has been evidence that slow and regular breathing i.e. Pranayama technique for a certain time everyday has been known to have a effect over cardio-vascular reflex control system. Numerous approaches are available for stress management that can decrease this patient's suffering and enhance their quality of life.⁶ Pranayama breathing has shown to alter autonomic activity as it increases parasympathetic activity.⁷ If hypertensive patients could adopt a simple relaxation technique that would reduce stress and its physiological effects, they may be able to control their BP better, decrease the requirements for antihypertensive drugs and respond better during such physiologically stressful events. Studies have shown a decrease in BP with pranayama.⁷ This study was planned to examine the assess the effect of Pranayama for a period of 40 days for lowering blood pressure is to bring internal awareness of breathing and therapeutic benefits of Pranayama over stress level. This study was undertaken to determine the effects of Pranayamas namely anulomaviloma and Bhramari etc for mental relaxation and their effects on blood pressure with the help of following parameters viz. Heart rate, Bloodpressure (systolic + Diastolic blood pressure) in the hypertensive subjects and to compare the effects of Pranayama in two groups i.e. Group A, subject to Pranayama and with control Group B, who will not be subjected to any kind of Pranayama training.

Materials and Method

Materials:-

The study population was drawn from patients who presented to department of Physiology at Santosh Medical College. There were 50 patients, who were diagnosed and selected for study. All 50 patients were had hypertension and divided into 2 groups,

Group A: consisted 25 patients who were practiced 40 days pranayama for the period of 40 days,

Group B: consisted 25 patients with hypertension those were not doing any pranayama practice.

Methodology

A written consent was taken from all potentially eligible subjects and excluded from the study if they were not matched with inclusion criteria of the study. After taking detailed history, all subjects were having high blood pressure, non-alcoholic, non-smokers, not taking any drug other than antihypertensive medicine and were having similar dietary habits, physical and mental activities in working and home atmosphere. 40days Yoga Training was given to the subjects in the morning hrs for 45min at 8:00 A.M to 8:45 A.M and two times in a week. Subjects were advised to come empty stomach for YOGA Training. The parameters were measured on 1st day and every month for 3 months of the study in both study and control group. The study group was asked to take yoga training along with anti-hypertensive drug treatment. The schedule of yoga training was explained to all participants and after three days practice session, the actual practice of yoga was introduced.

The training includes Surya Namaskar for 5 minutes, rest for 5 minutes, Bhramari Pranayama for 5 minutes, Sukha Pranayama for 5 minutes, Nadisodhan (Anulom Vilom) for 5 minutes, rest for 5 minutes, Chandra nadi Pranayama for 5 minutes, Shavasana for 5 minutes and 'OM' meditation for 05 minutes. Blood pressure was measured in both arms using a mercury sphygmomanometer after a 15 minute rest. The average value was recorded as the patient's BP. Hypertension was being defined as the systolic blood pressure >140 mmHg and diastolic blood pressure >90 mmHg.

Statistical analysis:- Data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 23 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL). Results for continuous variables

are presented as mean \pm standard deviation, whereas results for categorical variables are presented as number (percentage).

The level $P < 0.05$ was considered as the cutoff value or significance.

Observations and Results

There were 50 patients, who were diagnosed

and selected for this study. All 50 patients were had hypertension and divided into 2 groups;

Group A: consisted 25 patients who were practiced 40 days pranayama for the period of 40 days;

Group B: consisted 25 patients with hypertension those were not had any pranayama practice.

The following observations were made:-

Table 1:- Demographic profile of patients before Yoga

	Group A [n=25] [Mean \pm S.D.]	Group B [n=25] [Mean \pm S.D.]	P Value
Weight	66.46 \pm 11.31	65.13 \pm 8.62	0.582
BMI	25.27 \pm 4.10	25.90 \pm 4.43	0.454

Table 2:- Distribution of Mean BP profile parameters before Yoga

Parameters	A[Mean \pm S.D.]	B[Mean \pm S.D.]	P Value
SBP [mmHg]	160.46 \pm 7.02	160.71 \pm 8.46	0.912
DBP [mmHg]	96.63 \pm 3.83	96.58 \pm 3.55	0.962
Pulse rate	80.83 \pm 6.18	78.88 \pm 8.57	0.371
Respiratory rate	15.33 \pm 1.49	15.25 \pm 1.33	0.845

Table 3:- Distribution of demographic profile of patients after 40 days of Yoga

Parameters	Group A[n=25] [Mean \pm S.D.]	Group B[n=25] [Mean \pm S.D.]	P Value
Weight	62.96 \pm 10.24	63.33 \pm 8.27	0.891
BMI	23.94 \pm 3.68	25.17 \pm 4.21	0.287

Table 4:- Distribution of Mean BP profile of patients after 40 days of Yoga

Parameters	A[Mean \pm S.D.]	B[Mean \pm S.D.]	P value
SBP [mmHg]	134.21 \pm 7.02	157.00 \pm 7.50	<0.001
DBP [mmHg]	84.92 \pm 6.39	94.04 \pm 3.25	0.213
Pulse rate	76.00 \pm 3.43	76.71 \pm 7.62	0.679
Resp. Rate	12.83 \pm 1.01	14.42 \pm 2.24	0.003

Table 5:- Changes in demographic profile before and after Yoga exercises [Case group]

Parameters	Before yoga	After 20 days of yoga	After 40 days of Yoga	P value
WEIGHT	66.46 \pm 11.31	65.46 \pm 10.70	62.96 \pm 10.24	0.513
BMI	25.27 \pm 4.10	24.87 \pm 3.77	23.94 \pm 3.68	0.475

Table 6:- Changes in BP profile of patients before and after Yoga [Case Group]

Parameters	Before yoga	After 20 days	After 40 days	P value
SBP[mmHg]	160.46±7.02	153.58±6.65	134.21±7.00	<0.001
DBP[mmHg]	96.63±3.83	91.50±5.41	84.92±6.39	<0.001
Pulse rate	80.83±6.18	79.25±4.68	76.00±3.43	0.004
Resp. rate	15.33±1.49	15.04±1.04	12.83±1.01	<0.001

Discussion

Yoga is an ancient science in this Pranayama plays a very important role in hypertension. Relaxation and stress relieving methods like Pranayama, Meditation has been shown to be capable of lowering blood pressure. There has been evidence that slow and regular breathing i.e. Pranayama technique for a certain time everyday has been known to have a effect over cardio-vascular reflex control system. Numerous approaches are available for stress management that can decrease this patient's suffering and enhance their quality of life.⁶

Patients of age between 30-45 years were selected for the study. There were 50 patients, who were diagnosed and selected for this study. All 50 patients were had hypertension and divided into 2 groups, Group A: consisted 25 patients (mean age 38.88±4.12) of 17 male & 8 female who were practiced 40 days pranayama for the period of 40 days, Group B: consisted 25patients (mean age 37.05±4.01) 15 male & 10 female with hypertension those were not had any pranayama practice.

Blood pressure is mainly dependent on cardiac output and total peripheral resistance. The possible mechanism is believed to be sympathetic nervous system over activity and consequent increase in peripheral vascular resistance. In addition, direct pressure effect by the sympathetic nervous system and catecholamine released from the adrenal medulla may also be involved. Hypothalamus is also closely related to limbic system which plays an important role in emotional and instinctual behavior. Since many manifestations of emotional changes like anger involve sympathetic responses, all these parts of the brain are likely to have some effect on the blood pressure. Stress too is likely to influence blood pressure through these pathways. Since, cerebral cortex is necessary for all voluntary actions, voluntary reduction of stress may be achieved by training the cerebral cortex. In the present study, the mean values of

pulse rate, systolic blood pressure and diastolic blood pressure were recorded low in study group than in control group after the intervention. It is well known that yoga training decreases PR and BP. Environmental conditions and variety of behavioral factors such as stress, anxiety, affective and attitudinal dispositions of the individual influence the cardiovascular responses. Our findings of decrease in BP, and PR after yoga training are consistent with the findings of Rayet al.⁸ that yoga training increases muscular endurance, delays onset of fatigue and enables one to perform work at lesser VO₂ max. An exaggerated cardiovascular reactivity to the stressors is known to be a risk factor for cardiovascular diseases whereas reduced reactivity is an indicator of fitness. The result revealed that both Yoga intervention and drugs treatment helped. However, only mild and moderate cases of hypertension may be controlled easily without drugs. Severe case may need pharmacological intervention. The physical and physiological responses in the form of immediate effects of Kapalbhathi Kriya or Ujjayi Pranayama of 15 minutes practice period show a gradual adaptive response over the 12 weeks training period. In the beginning the magnitude of these changes is much more but as one developed more and more mastery, these immediate changes reduce. But the neurophysiologic responses to these practices in the form of alterations in the EEG and in the subjective feeling of mental quietude and restful alertness instead of becoming less, actually become more and more intense. This indicates that the body learns to be more efficient and effective in dealing with any physical or physiological stress as one progress in Pranayama and thus makes the inner energy more easily and in more quantity accessible for the inner psychospiritual transformation. All these observations confirm the various claims about the various effects of Pranayama, as well as the significance of its various technical components including the part of inner awareness and also the need to practice it for the

fairly long time. It also shows that part form the many beneficial effects on the body, the practice of Pranayama trains the mind by reducing its restlessness and prepares it for the higher spiritual experiences of yoga.⁹

Conclusion

The mean BP profile parameters for patients after 40 days of Yoga were SBP 134.21±7.02 (mmHg), DBP 84.92±6.39 (mmHg), Pulse rate 76.00±3.43 (beats/min) & Respiratory rate 12.83±1.01 (resp./min). The corresponding values for controls were SBP 157.00±7.50 (mmHg), DBP 94.04±3.25 (mmHg), Pulse rate 76.71±7.62 (beats/min) & Respiratory rate 14.42±2.24 (resp./min) respectively. The variation in respect of SBP not statistically significant. $P > 0.05$. At the outset, before commencement of Yoga exercise the SBP was 160.46±7.02 (mmHg), DBP was 96.63±3.83 (mmHg), Pulse rate was 80.83±6.18 (beats/min), & Respiratory rate was 15.33±1.49 (resp./min). After 20 days of commencement of Yoga exercise SBP became 153.58±6.65 (mmHg), DBP 91.50±5.41 (mmHg), Pulse rate became 79.25±4.68 (beats/min) & Respiratory rate was 15.04±1.04 (resp./min) and after 40 days of Yoga exercise SBP turned out to be 134.21±7.00 (mmHg), DBP 84.92±6.39 (mmHg), Pulse rate 76.00±3.43 (beats/min), and Respiratory rate 12.83±1.01 (resp./min). While the variations in all these parameters except for the Pulse rate (beats/min) was statistically highly significant as $P < 0.001$, Pulse rate changes were also statistically significant $P = 0.004$. Thus, we conclude that yogic practices combined with antihypertensive drugs were found effective in reducing BP & PR in resting condition and during stimulus induced conditions as well in mild to moderate hypertension. It reduced the requirement of the dose of antihypertensive drugs in majority of the hypertensive patients. Specifically it was found to affect cardiovascular autonomic regulation and tends to normalize it.

Ethical Clearance- Taken from Institutional ethical committee

Source of Funding- Self

Conflict of Interest - Nil

References

1. Park K. Textbook of Preventive and Social Medicine. 19th ed. Jabalpur: Banarsidas Bhanot; 2007. Epidemiology of communicable diseases; pp. 310–3.
2. Schoen FJ. Blood vessels. In: Kumar V, Abbas AK, Fausto N, editors. Robbins and Cotran Pathologic Basis of Disease. India: WB Saunders Company; 2005. pp. 525–6.
3. Murray CJL, Lopez AD. The global burden of disease: a comprehensive assessment of mortality and disability from diseases, injuries and risk factors in 1990 and projected to 2020. Report on behalf of the WHO and World Bank, Cambridge: Harvard University; 1996.
4. Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR, Cushman WC, Green LA, Izzo JL Jr, Jones DW, Materson BJ, Oparil S, Wright JT Jr, et al.: The Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure: the JNC 7 report. JAMA 2003; 289(19):2560-2572.
5. Global Burden of Disease: 2004 Update. Geneva: WHO; [Last accessed on 2013 Jun 30]. Who's certified. Available from: http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/GBD_report_2004update_full.pdf.
6. Fokkema DS. The psychobiology of strained breathing and its cardiovascular implications: A functional system review. Psychophysiology. 1999;36:164–75.
7. Bhavanani AB, Madanmohan, Sanjay Z. Immediate effect of chandra nadi pranayama (left unilateral forced nostril breathing) on cardiovascular parameters in hypertensive patients. Int J Yoga. 2012;5:108–11. [PMC free article] [PubMed]
8. Ray US, Hegde KS & Selvamurthy W (1986). Improvement in muscular efficiency as related to a standard task after yogic exercises in middle aged men. Indian Journal of Medical Research, 83 343-348.
9. Shrikrishna, "Essence Of Pranayama" (Lonavala, Kaivalyadhama Ashram Publication, second edition 1996), pp. 124-126.

Heart Rate Variability among Long Distance Bus Drivers after a Night Shift

Kunal Tarane¹, Jean Fredrick², G.S.Gaur³, Aruna R⁴, Dhanalakshmi Y⁵

¹B.Sc [MLT] Student, JIPMER, Puducherry, ²Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, Mahatma Gandhi Medical College and Research Institute, Puducherry, ³Professor, Department of Physiology, JIPMER, Puducherry, ⁴Senior Resident, Department of Physiology, JIPMER, Puducherry, ⁵Associate Professor, Department of Physiology, JIPMER, Puducherry

Abstract

Introduction: Most of the fatal accidents were found to be due to fatigue among the drivers. Long distance bus drivers are more prone to fatigue following driving and hence increase in the risk of road traffic accident among them. Techniques such as Electroencephalography (EEG), Electrooculography (EOG) and Electrocardiography (ECG) were used to detect fatigue among the drivers during and after driving. Heart rate variability (HRV) assessment in drivers was found to be a useful tool to detect fatigue and drowsiness. Data on HRV and fatigue among bus drivers post night shift is scarce in the literature.

Method: HRV was assessed during resting state among 12 long-distance bus drivers immediately after their night shift. HRV was also assessed among non-bus drivers who were not involved in shift works. Obese, Hypertensive and diabetic patients were excluded from the study. Time domain and frequency domain measures of HRV were compared between bus drivers and non bus drivers.

Result: Baseline heart rate and blood pressure were normal in both the groups. All the time domain and frequency domain measures were found to be normal in both the groups. Though time domain measures such as SDNN, rMMSSD, NN50, pNN50 were increased and frequency domain measures such as LFnu and LF/HF ratio were decreased in study group, they were not statistically significant.

Conclusion: There seems to be an increase in parasympathetic activity among long-distance bus drivers probably due to fatigue because of prolonged driving overnight.

Keywords: Heart rate variability; Long Distance Drivers; Fatigue

Introduction

Driver fatigue has been found to be one of the major problem in road safety ¹. One of the factors of road traffic accidents is found to be fatigue and drowsiness among the long distance drivers ^{1,2}. Fatigue is the loss of efficiency of the driver to drive a vehicle due to prolonged driving, sleep deprivation

and exhaustion. It is estimated by The Royal society for prevention of accidents that 20% of fatal accidents in Australia are due to fatigue among the drivers ³. Several studies have included various methods such as Electroencephalography (EEG), electrooculography and Electrocardiography (ECG) for detection of fatigue ². Heart rate variability (HRV) is defined as the measure of beat to beat variation in heart rate due to the result of adaptive changes caused by the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous system. It is calculated by analyzing the time series R-R intervals in ECG ⁴. HRV can be evaluated using time domain measures and frequency domain measures. Time domain measures can be assessed with calculations from standard deviations from R-R intervals. Frequency domain analysis is

Corresponding author:

Dr. Dhanalakshmi.Y

Associate Professor, Department of Physiology,
JIPMER, Puducherry,

Email: saidhanalakshmi04@yahoo.com

Mobile: 9444781210

based on Fast Fourier Transformations of the signals from time domain to frequency domain. Power spectral density (PSD) analysis provides the basic information of how power (i.e., variance) distributes as a function of frequency. Low frequency (LF) component of HRV power spectrum is influenced by both sympathetic and parasympathetic activity whereas high frequency (HF) component is influenced by parasympathetic activity. Thus, the LF: HF ratio is considered to be a measure of sympathovagal balance^{4,5}.

Several studies have studied the changes in physiological parameters while driving to detect fatigue⁶. Verser et al studied the nocturnal effects of driving and reported that 2 hours of continuous nocturnal driving were sufficient to produce driving impairment⁷. Vehicle Crash rate was higher in drivers with excessive drowsiness compared to alert individuals⁸. A state of reduced mental alertness which affects the cognition and driving performance been found to be influenced by fatigue². Inadequate sleep, sleep loss, disrupted sleep and disturbances in circadian rhythm were the attributed reasons for fatigue among long distance drivers^{9,10}. Assessment of HRV for the detection of fatigue while driving were studied by several studies and were found to be an useful tool for the detection of fatigue while driving⁴. Assessment of HRV is found to be a cost effective tool to detect fatigue than other methods. While most of the studies have assessed the heart rate variability of drivers during driving, in this study we assessed the heart rate variability post night duty. We intended to study the influence of overnight driving for long distance bus drivers on HRV. We hypothesized that there would be decrease in HRV for drivers after an overnight shift of driving for more than 12 hours. The aim of our study was to assess HRV in bus drivers and to compare it with non-bus drivers.

Methodology

The study was approved by Institutional Ethics Committee. Participants between 30 and 55 years were included in the study. Twelve apparently healthy bus drivers were recruited who had at least one year experience of long distance bus driving. Twelve healthy subjects who were non bus drivers were recruited as control group. Obese (BMI ≥ 30 Kg/m²), Hypertensive (SBP ≥ 140 mm Hg and /or DBP ≥ 100 mm Hg) and Diabetic patients were excluded from the study.

The study was conducted in a temporarily set lab in Pondicherry Road Transport Corporation (PRTC) office, Puducherry. Participants in study group were asked to report to the lab after their night shift. Participants in control group (non bus drivers) were asked to report to the lab when they come for regular work in the morning. They were instructed to come in fasting state and to refrain from tea or coffee before the test.

After obtaining the informed consent, their age, height and body weight were recorded. Body Mass Index (BMI) was calculated using Quetelet's index¹¹. Baseline blood pressure of all the subjects was recorded in sitting posture using Omron (SEM 1 Model, Omron Healthcare Co. Ltd, Kyoto, Japan).

After 15 minutes of supine rest on a couch in AFT lab, ECG was recorded for 5 minutes for short-term HRV analysis following the standard procedures as practiced in the laboratory. HRV was recorded by using BioHarness AcqKnowledge 4.1 version and analyzed by Kubios HRV 2.00 software. Recommendation of the Task Force on HRV was followed for recording and analysis⁸.

Following parameters were derived

Time domain measures:

- a) Standard deviation of normal-to-normal RR intervals (SDNN)
- b) Root mean square successive difference (RMSSD)
- c) Number of pairs of adjacent N-N intervals differing by more than 50 ms (NN50 count)
- d) The proportion of NN50 to the total number of NN intervals (pNN50)

2. Frequency domain measures:

- a) Total power (TP)
- b) Very low frequency power (VLF)
- c) Low frequency power (LF)
- d) Normalized low frequency power (LFnu)
- e) Normalized high frequency power (HFnu)
- f) Ratio of low frequency power to high frequency power (LF-HF ratio)

Statistical Analysis

All data were expressed as Mean and Standard Deviation. Comparison of HRV indices between bus

drivers and the control group using Mann Whitney U Test since they were non parametric data. Data was analyzed using SPSS 17.

Results

Subject Characteristics of bus drivers and control group are represented in Table 1. Subjects were between 30 and 50 years of age in study group and between 30 and 55 years of age in control group. 10 out of 12 subjects were found to be overweight ($BMI \geq 25 \text{ Kg/m}^2$) in both the groups. None of the subjects were obese. Baseline Heart rate and Blood pressure in all the subjects were found to be normal.

Table 2 shows the time domain measures of HRV in both the groups. All the time domain measure SDNN, RMSSD, NN50 and pNN50 were found to be in normal range in both the groups. Though not statistically significant, the time domain measures SDNN, rMSSD, NN50 and pNN50 show an increase in the bus drivers group.

Table 3 shows the frequency domain measures of HRV. Frequency domain measures such as TP, VLF, LF, HF and LF/HF were found to be within normal range in both the groups. There was no statistically significant difference in frequency domain measures TP, VLF, LFnu, HFnu and LF/HF ratio between the bus drivers and the control group. Though not statistically significant, LFnu and LF/HF ratio were reduced in the bus drivers. There was also an increase in TP and HFnu observed in the bus drivers.

Discussion

In this study, HRV indices seems to be within normal range in both the groups. Yet, the frequency domain indices, LF and HF values are comparatively higher in study group. LF component represents both the sympathetic and parasympathetic tone. HF component in specific represents the parasympathetic tone of the autonomic nervous system^{12,13}. An increase in HF component has been observed in the study group. The LF/HF ratio seems to be decreased in the study group than the control group which may be contributed by the increased parasympathetic tone on the study group. Also increase in the time domain parameters such as RMSSD, SDNN, NN50 and pNN50 were also seen in bus drivers indicating an increase in the parasympathetic tone.

Sato et al¹⁴ studied 24 hrs HRV on long distance driving truck drivers which revealed that there were parasympathetic predominance among the truck drivers. This parasympathetic predominance was attributed to the fatigability of the drivers due to prolonged driving overnight. Driving with increase in parasympathetic activity were also found to induce drowsiness and also deteriorate the attentiveness of the drivers¹⁴. Adverse events especially road traffic accident were reported to be high among long distance automobile drivers due to fatigue¹⁵. Many studies has used indices of HRV as a tool for detecting the fatigue and drowsiness in drivers^{6,9}.

Adams et al assessed ambulatory blood pressure and ECG before, during and after the night shifts among physicians working in emergency department, in which they reported that there was a significant decrease in LF/HF ratio which indicated an increase in vagal tone post night shift compared to pre night shift¹⁶. Freitas et al assessed the influence of day night shift on the circadian pattern on HRV and reported that LF/HF ratio was lowest during post shift work compared to pre and during shift work among nurses¹⁷.

In this study, increase in parasympathetic tone among bus drivers could be due to the disturbance in circadian rhythm, irregular shift works or fatigue due to overnight driving in the study population¹⁴. This effect may due to the sleep debt due to the night shift work nature leading to physical and mental fatigue specifically leading to parasympathetic overdrive amongst the drivers denoting catchup of the lost sleep period. Our study is the first of its kind amongst drivers in Puducherry region.

We conclude that there seems to be a slight increase in parasympathetic activity after night shift among the bus drivers. There is a need to extend our understanding on driver fatigue by performing long term HRV during long distance driving along with other sensors such as Electroencephalogram (EEG) and electro oculogram (EoG).

Limitation: Assessment of their fatigue score and Sleepiness scale would have given us more insights regarding the contents of this study. We intend to continue this study in a larger population and have a better understanding so that this could alert the drivers to take adequate rest after driving.

Table 1: Subject Characteristics of Study and Control group. (Mean \pm SD)

Subject Characteristics	Bus Drivers	Control
Age	40 \pm 7	44 \pm 8
BMI	27.34 \pm 3.58	27.11 \pm 3.11
Heart Rate	74.67 \pm 11.84	75.58 \pm 10.08
SBP	121.58 \pm 11.60	122.75 \pm 11.09
DBP	75.25 \pm 7.02	75.75 \pm 8.28

BMI - Body Mass Index (11), SBP – Systolic Blood Pressure, DBP – Diastolic Blood Pressure

Table 2: Frequency Domain parameters of HRV in study and Control Group. (Mean \pm SD)

HRV Parameters	Bus Drivers	Control	P value*
Total Power	1244.33 \pm 780.92	808.64 \pm 471.01	0.149
VLF	676.05 \pm 580.61	414.45 \pm 378.04	0.184
LF	268.41 \pm 147.02	219.91 \pm 204.28	0.248
HF	299.19 \pm 215.42	173.73 \pm 96.48	0.133
LF/HF ratio	1.20 \pm 1.01	1.35 \pm 0.95	0.419
LF nu	49.03 \pm 14.30	52.38 \pm 12.15	0.236
HF nu	50.89 \pm 14.28	47.37 \pm 12.01	0.371

TP - Total power, VLF - Very low frequency power, LF - Low frequency power, LFnu - Normalized low frequency power, HFnu - Normalized high frequency power, LF-HF ratio - Ratio of low frequency power to high frequency power

* Mann Whitney U test was done to compare bus driver and control group.

Table 3: Time Domain Parameters of HRV in study and Control Group. (Mean \pm SD)

HRV Parameters	Bus Drivers	Control	P value*
SDNN	38.71 \pm 14.19	33.20 \pm 13.55	0.298
RMSSD	32.04 \pm 17.31	21.38 \pm 6.02	0.112
NN50	40.67 \pm 47.49	10.33 \pm 9.50	0.139
PNN50	14.16 \pm 17.36	2.88 \pm 2.91	0.132

SDNN - Standard deviation of normal-to-normal, RMSSD -RR intervals Root mean square successive difference (RMSSD) , NN50 count - Number of pairs of adjacent N-N intervals differing by more than 50 ms, pNN50 - The proportion of NN50 to the total number of NN intervals

* Mann Whitney U test was done to compare bus driver and control group.

Conflict of Interest: No conflict of interest

Source of Funding: Nil

Ethical Clearance: This study is approved by

Institute ethics committee (Human studies) of JIPMER, Puducherry. (Approval No: JIP/IEC/2016/26/859)

References

- Oron-Gilad T, Ronen A. Road characteristics and driver fatigue: A simulator study. *Traffic Inj Prev*. 2007;8(3):281–9.
- Abang Abdullah DN, Von HL. Factors of Fatigue and Bus Accident. *Int Conf Innov Manag Serv* [Internet]. 2011;14:317–21. Available from: <http://www.ipedr.com/vol14/57-ICIMS2011S30010.pdf>
- Dagli R. Driver fatigue and Road safety - Implication in an indian context. *Int J Adv Eng Tehnol*. 2004;9(4):1–5.
- Patel M, Lal SKL, Kavanagh D, Rossiter P. Applying neural network analysis on heart rate variability data to assess driver fatigue. *Expert Syst Appl* [Internet]. Elsevier Ltd; 2011;38(6):7235–42. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2010.12.028>
- Acharya UR, Joseph KP, Kannathal N, Lim CM, Suri JS. Heart rate variability: A review. *Medical and Biological Engineering and Computing*. 2006. p. 1031–51.
- Sahayadhas A, Sundaraj K, Murugappan M. Detecting driver drowsiness based on sensors: A review. *Sensors (Switzerland)*. 2012. p. 16937–53.
- Verster JC, Taillard J, Sagaspe P, Olivier B, Philip P. Prolonged nocturnal driving can be as dangerous as severe alcohol-impaired driving. *J Sleep Res*. 2011;20(4):585–8.
- Drake CL, Roehrs T, Breslau N, Johnson E, Jefferson C, Scofield H, et al. The 10-year risk of verified motor vehicle crashes in relation to physiologic sleepiness. *Sleep*. 2010;33(6):745–52.
- Egelund N. Spectral analysis of heart rate variability as an indicator of driver fatigue. *Ergonomics*. 1982;25(7):663–72.
- Kee S, Tamrin SBM, Goh YM. Driving fatigue and performance among occupational drivers in simulated prolonged driving. *Glob J Health Sci*. 2010;2(1):167–77.
- Garrow JS, Webster J. Quetelet's index (W/H²) as a measure of fatness. *Int J Obes*. 1985;9(2):147–53.
- Pal GK, Pal P. *Textbook of Practical Physiology*. 3rd ed. University press;
- Chu Duc H, Nguyen Phan K, Nguyen Viet D. A Review of Heart Rate Variability and its Applications. *APCBEE Procedia* [Internet]. Elsevier B.V.; 2013;7:80–5. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S2212670813001188>
- Sato S, Taoda K, Kawamura M, Wakaba K, Fukuchi Y, Nishiyama K. Heart rate variability during long truck driving work. *J Hum Ergol (Tokyo)*. 2001;30(1–2):235–40.
- Brown ID. Driver Fatigue. *Hum Factors Ergon Soc*. 1994;36(2):298–314.
- Adams SL, Roxe DM, Weiss J, Zhang F, Rosenthal JE. Ambulatory blood pressure and Holter monitoring of emergency physicians before, during, and after a night shift. *Acad Emerg Med*. 1998;5(9):871–7.
- Freitas J, Lago P, Puig J, Carvalho MJ, Costa O, De Freitas AF. Circadian heart rate variability rhythm in shift workers. *J Electrocardiol*. 1997;30(1):39–44.

To Evaluate Auditory Evoked Potentials in Non Alcoholic Liver Cirrhosis Subjects Attending a Tertiary Care Hospital: A Cross Sectional Study

Gowri Velayutham

*Senior Assistant Professor of Physiology, Institute of Physiology and Experimental Medicine,
Madras Medical College, Chennai*

Abstract

Introduction: There is a definite relationship between the brain and the liver that has been known and the patients with liver cirrhosis frequently experience neurological problems. The commonest and most widely recognized is the syndrome of Hepatic Encephalopathy (HE). HE is generally taken as that refer to a collection of neuropsychiatric, neuropsychological and neurological disturbances that may arise as a complication of liver cirrhosis and which is reversible. The present study was designed to evaluate the involvement of central nervous system in non alcoholic liver cirrhosis by using auditory evoked potentials to assess conduction in auditory pathway. **Materials and Method:** 20 non alcoholic liver cirrhotic subjects were selected and 10 age and gender matched healthy subjects with normal liver functions from the Master Health Check Up. AEP Recording was done in electrophysiology laboratory of Physiology using Neuro Perfect Plus Medicaid Polyrite. **Results :** The parameter for the study was absolute wave latencies which was considered the important cortical wave latencies. Results were analysed by student's independent t-test using Statistical Package for Social Sciences 11.5 version. P value was calculated to test the statistical significance. The level of significance chosen for the study was 1% ($p < 0.01$). **Conclusion:** The finding of absolute wave latency prolongation in clinically non encephalopathic non alcoholic cirrhotic patients signify the presence of MHE. Therefore the ethanol induced demyelination thought to be the basic cause of AEPs is also over ruled. AEP is such a simple non invasive technique to be used as a prognostic marker and in follow up of even comatose patients. The emergence of MHE is significantly correlated with the severity of liver functions.

Keywords: *non alcoholic liver cirrhosis Auditory Evoked Potentials Neuropathy*

Introduction

There is a definite relationship between the brain and the liver that has been known and the patients with liver cirrhosis frequently experience neurological problems. The commonest and most widely recognized is the syndrome of Hepatic Encephalopathy (HE).

HE is generally taken as that refers to a collection of neuropsychiatric, neuropsychological and neurological disturbances that may arise as a complication of liver cirrhosis and which is reversible. Minimal hepatic encephalopathy is the term now has replaced the previous terms of Latent or sub clinical hepatic encephalopathy. The older terms seems not to reflect the significant effects that influence the liver cirrhotic patient's life¹. There is really a need to evaluate the liver cirrhotic patients who are showing to be completely free from hepatic encephalopathy The very true incidence and prevalence of HE in the cirrhotic patients is difficult to establish, because of the considerable heterogeneity in etiology and disease severity. It is also difficult to diagnose the more subtle forms of HE such as stage I

Corresponding author:

Gowri Velayutham

Senior Assistant Professor of Physiology
Institute of Physiology and Experimental Medicine
Madras Medical College, Chennai-3.

Phone : 443431451

Email : gowrivelayutham07@gmail.com

and minimal HE². The clinical electro diagnosis involves the recording, display, measurement and interpretation of action potentials arising from the central nervous system eg: evoked potentials. Evoked potentials are visual, auditory, somatosensory and P 300 event related have been proposed to be diagnostic techniques in evaluation and assessment of the brain related functional impairments like dementia, encephalopathy etc., Halliday³ stated evoked potentials can reflect neurotransmitter changes⁴ in cortical and sub cortical neurons. Despite the controversy, Evoked Potentials remain an attractive possibility for the diagnosis of minimal HE. Brainstem Auditory Evoked Potentials (AEP) has extended the possibility of objective testing of hearing functions. This is an effective and simple method that requires less co operation of the patient and also measures specific part of the auditory pathway. It is not significantly altered by the consciousness, literacy, much common drugs and environmental factors.

Materials and Method

The present study was designed to evaluate the involvement of central nervous system in non alcoholic liver cirrhosis by using auditory evoked potentials to assess conduction in auditory pathway. In this cross-sectional study, the liver cirrhotic patients from liver clinic who had etiology of not using alcohol were considered. Ethical approval from the Institutional Ethical Committee was obtained for the study. 20 non alcoholic liver cirrhotic subjects were selected and 10 age and gender matched healthy subjects with normal liver functions from the Master Health Check Up. (case control ratio was 2:1)

Inclusion Criteria: Age group was 30 to 50 years, both genders, diagnosed liver cirrhosis subjects due to Hepatitis Virus B,D and E, Wilson's disease and cryptogenic aetiology.

Exclusion Criteria : Smokers, alcohol intake within last 6 weeks, occupational history with continuous noise back ground, hearing impairment, external or middle ear diseases, systemic diseases like diabetes mellitus, hypertension, primary psychiatric disorders, complete drug history of antibiotics to rule out ototoxic drugs, cardiac and renal disease , cochlear implant/ cardiac pacemaker.

The study subjects were allowed to relax and be comfortable. A clinical history about the liver cirrhosis

was collected. The complete procedure and objectives of the study was explained to the subjects in their regional language. The written and informed consent was obtained before subjects entered the study. The complete examination of external ear was done for both ears, wax was removed and tests for hearing done. The basic parameters of subjects like height, weight, pulse including body temperature were recorded. Auditory evoked potentials were first recorded in few normal subjects of both genders with age ranging from 30- 50 years. In order to establish reliability of the method, several repetitions of brainstem auditory evoked potential recording were performed on different days and at different hours. After this preliminary investigation, BAEP in 20 nonalcoholic liver cirrhosis subjects were recorded. The subjects were instructed clearly to have shampoo head bath, avoid oil on hair, hair spray and metal accessories especially ear studs. Auditory evoked potentials comprise of 5 or more peaks within 10 ms of the stimulus⁵. The gold plated copper disc (1 cm) electrodes filled with conducting paste for recording AEPs were used. The electrode impedance was kept below 5 kΩ. The BAEP is recorded from the ipsilateral ear referred to the vertex. Two channels recorded from ipsilateral and contra lateral mastoid processes were referred to as Oz and Cz respectively and ground as Fz. Vertex is the suitable location since waves II – V has good amplitude with little muscle artifact. AEPs were recorded using an amplification of 200,000-500,000. 2000 trials were averaged to get a good quality recording. A 10 ms epoch after the click stimulus is averaged, amplified and displayed on the computer monitor. The low filter is set at 100 Hz and high filter at 3000 Hz. AEPs were produced by a brief click stimulus, which is usually a square wave pulse of 0.1 ms duration. The pulse moves the ear phone diaphragm away from the subject's ear which is a rarefaction phase stimulus. Wave I amplitude is greater with rarefaction compared to condensation stimulus. Since recognition of wave I is very important, rarefaction click polarity was chosen. Clicks were usually presented 10- 70 times per second. A click rate of 11Hz was used. The click stimulates not only the ipsilateral ear, but also travels by bone and air conduction to stimulate the contra lateral ear at an intensity of 40- 50 dB lower than the ipsilateral ear. White noise at 30- 40 dB blocks the stimulation of contra lateral ear thus prevents false AEP responses. Recording was done in electrophysiology laboratory of Physiology using Neuro Perfect Plus Medicaid Polyrite. The left

and right ears were tested separately in the uniform laboratory temperature, in sitting posture reclined on a chair with their feet placed on wooden board. The body temperature was measured since hypo or hyperthermia may cause alterations in latencies of both absolute and inter peak. The disc electrodes were placed on scalp by 10-20 standard system with conducting jelly. The skin and electrode impedance were checked. Since the potentials recorded are in far field, well displaced from the site of impulse generation, the wave forms recorded were very weak and hence amplified. This amplification is achieved by improving the signal: noise ratio. The automatic artefact rejection was used. The sweep velocity was 1 ms. The click acoustic stimuli at a rate of 11 pulse per second at an intensity of 90 dB hearing level to the ear stimulated and masking sound (white noise) of 40 dB in non stimulated ear was given through head phone supplied by Medicaid^{6,7,8}. The continuous 1000 auditory click responses were summated, averaged and displayed. All the techniques of measurement, duration, instruments including research laboratory temperature were maintained uniformly throughout the study⁹. The wave latency I, II, III, IV and V, inter peak latency I-III, I-V, III-V and amplitudes of waves were measured. The wave pattern in BAEP recording is 5 or more peaks within 10 ms of stimulus. Initial five peaks have clinical value¹⁰. The succeeding peaks VI-VIII are quite variable and are not clinically useful. In normal subjects waveform IV-V forms complex. Absolute amplitudes are too variable to be of any clinical use even in inter ear comparison. Hence the absolute wave latencies are taken into consideration in this study.

Findings

The total non alcoholic cirrhotic patients were 20 and they were age, gender matched with 10 healthy controls. All the data were expressed as mean \pm SD. The study had a ratio of 2:1 ratio of cases with the control. The mean age was 44.00 ± 4.86 with BMI as detailed in table.1. There was no statistical difference between non alcoholic liver cirrhosis subject group and controls with regards to age and BMI. Auditory evoked potentials of both the ears were tested. The absolute and interpeak wave latencies were measured. The parameter for the study was absolute wave latencies which was considered the important cortical wave latencies. Results were analysed by student's independent t- test using Statistical Package for Social Sciences 11.5 version. P value was calculated to test the statistical significance. The level

of significance chosen for the study was 1% ($p < 0.01$).

Interpretation: There is considerable prolongation of the important Absolute Wave latency III and V in nonalcoholic liver cirrhosis subjects which is statistically significant.

Table 1: Baseline characteristics of nonalcoholic liver cirrhosis subjects and controls:

Baseline characteristics	Cirrhosis subjects n = 20 Mean \pm SD	Controls n = 10 Mean \pm SD	P Value
Age(yrs)	44.00 \pm 4.86	42.00 \pm 4.16	1.00
Height(cms)	156.70 \pm 10.25	153.70 \pm 11.25	1.00
Weight(Kgs)	66.87 \pm 9.22	60.87 \pm 8.22	1.00
BMI(Kg/m ²)	27.14 \pm 1.95	27.14 \pm 1.95	1.00

BMI = Body mass Index

* $P \leq 0.05$ Significant

Table 2 : Left ear Absolute latencies of nonalcoholic liver cirrhosis subjects and control group:

Variables Wave Latency (ms)	Cirrhosis subjects n = 20 Mean \pm SD	Controls n = 10 Mean \pm SD	P Value
I	1.44 \pm 0.05	1.44 \pm 0.05	0.62
II	2.72 \pm 0.12	2.721 \pm 0.12	0.76
III	3.78 \pm 0.16	3.56 \pm 0.07	< 0.001 *
IV	4.98 \pm 0.09	4.89 \pm 0.07	0.06
V	5.90 \pm 0.34	5.66 \pm 0.07	< 0.001 *

* $P \leq 0.05$ Significant

Table 3: Right ear Absolute latencies of nonalcoholic liver cirrhosis subjects and control group:

Variables Wave Latency (ms)	Cirrhosis subjects n = 20 Mean \pm SD	Controls n = 10 Mean \pm SD	P Value
I	1.45 \pm 0.05	1.44 \pm 0.05	0.20
II	2.71 \pm 0.13	2.72 \pm 0.12	0.61
III	3.68 \pm 0.16	3.54 \pm 0.07	< 0.001 *
IV	4.89 \pm 0.08	4.88 \pm 0.07	0.41
V	5.89 \pm 0.35	5.66 \pm 0.07	0.001 *

* P \leq 0.05 Significant

Discussion

In the above study, AEP recorded in 20 non alcoholic cirrhosis subjects who fulfilled selection criteria and compared with 10 age and gender matched controls. Both the ears tested individually. These potentials reflect functional integrity of the sensory tract (auditory pathway) in the brain and help in identifying the sites impaired due to neurotoxic factors. Absolute wave latencies were considered mainly. In patients with minimal HE usually there will be no neurological findings detected but there may be subtle changes brought out by neuropsychological and neurophysiologic testing. The true prevalence of minimal HE in cirrhotic patients is variable, but expected to be more ¹¹⁻¹⁴. Many studies have shown that these patients have poor quality of life and daily routine living activities ¹⁵. There is no single method which will accurately measure the severity of HE. The techniques involved for assessing mental state involves consciousness, orientation, behavior, literacy and intellectual functions etc ^{15,16}. Patients with MHE appeared to have no clinical symptoms. But they are vulnerable to overt HE. So the present study observed that the absolute wave latencies were much prolonged especially middle latencies (III, V) indicating the central neuropathy.

The liver supplies certain nutrients that the brain itself cannot produce. Liver also cleanses the blood off the substances that can damage the brain cells

(neurotoxins). Although the brain is protected from neurotoxic substances by Blood Brain Barrier (BBB), certain neurotoxins penetrate BBB by damaging it. So the previous studies were not clear in standing delineated the influence of alcohol on AEP and the real pathology of liver cirrhosis affecting the brain potentials considerably. The following hypothesis is derived supporting our study which is evidenced by prolongation of central absolute latencies especially. The detoxifying function of liver carried out through the portal vein in normal functioning liver. The main cause for the neurological deterioration is because of porto systemic shunting. There is lack of detoxification by liver and toxic substances rise in general circulation and increase the level of neurotoxins. These toxins first damage the nerve cells and second bring about the changes in structure of supporting glia especially astrocytes.

The essential functions of astrocytes are to take up neurotransmitters released by neurons and minerals as K which is released during brain energy metabolism. Astrocytes eliminate neurotoxins. The improper functioning of astrocytes leads to abnormal astrocytes as Alzheimer type II astrocytosis which cause physiological or functional delay in potentials. There is also loss of cerebral biochemical homeostasis on reason out that compromise of detoxifying function of cirrhotic liver. Since the astrocytes are 1/3 rd of cortical volume, regulation of BBB, maintains brain neurons electrolytes and homeostasis with special effects of detoxification by itself. The prolongation results also from the cerebral overloading of neurotoxins such as ammonia, glutamate^{17,18}. The levels of ammonia increases in central nervous system due to astrocyte damage also affects nerve signal transmission, brain energy metabolism and alteration in expression of gene that encodes key proteins.

Drawbacks:

The study has to improve the sample size to stand a better way to generalize the results into the whole population. A follow up study is needed to record AEP during every visit of the cirrhotic subjects get their viral load checked, status of oesophageal varices etc, too and to correlate with the parameters.

Conclusion

The finding of absolute wave latency prolongation in clinically non encephalopathic non alcoholic cirrhotic

patients signify the presence of MHE. Therefore the ethanol induced demyelination thought to be the basic cause of AEPs is also over ruled. AEP is such a simple non invasive technique to be used as a prognostic marker and in follow up of even comatose patients. The emergence of MHE is significantly correlated with the severity of liver functions. The non alcoholic cirrhosis patients might be at risk always whenever they perform complex motor activities such as operating heavy machinery or drivers during driving their vehicles.

Conflict of Interest: None declared

Source of Funding: No funding sources

Ethical Clearance: The study was approved by Institutional Ethical Committee

References

1. Ferenci P, Lockwood A, Mullen K, Tarter R, Weissenborn K, Blei AT, Hepatic Encephalopathy – definition, nomenclature, diagnosis, and qualification : final report of the working party at the 11th World Congresses of Gastroenterology ,Vienna 1998 .Hepatology 2002;35:716-21.
2. M G Davies, M J Rowan, J Feely Metabolic Brain Disease. EEG and event related potentials in hepatic encephalopathy (1991). Volume 6, Issue:4, Pages:175-186 Pub Med :1812391.
3. Halliday AM, McDonald WI, Mushin J. Delayed visual evoked response in optic neuritis. Lancet 1972; 1:982-5.
4. Bodis-Wollner I, Onofry M. System disease and auditory evoked potential diagnosis in neurology: changes due to synaptic malfunction. Ann NY Acad Sci 1981; 388:327-48
5. Chiappa KH, Ropper AH. Evoked potentials in clinical practice (first of two parts). N Engl J Med 1982; 306:1140–50.
6. UK Misra J Kalita. In: An introduction to Electrodiagnosis signals and their measurements. Clinical Neurophysiology 2nd edition Elsevier publishers: New Delhi.2006; Chapter 2: Page 11 - 21.
7. Colin Binnie, Ray Cooper, Francois Mauguiere, John Osselton, Pamela Prior and Brian Tedman. In : Evoked Potentials .Clinical Neurophysiology, Volume 1 Revised and Enlarged edition, Edited by: Elsevier. Netherland.2004;Part 3 : Page 353 – 415.
8. Michael J.Aminoff., In: Brainstem auditory evoked potentials ,Methodology, Interpretation and Clinical Application. Electrodiagnosis in clinical neurology ,fifth edition Elsevier publications Philadelphia, 5th edition. 2008 : chap 23: Page 490-492.
9. Colin Binnie, Ray Cooper, Francois Mauguiere, John Osselton, Pamela Prior and Brian Tedman. Clinical Neurophysiology, Volume 1 Revised and Enlarged edition, Edited by: Elsevier. Part 3 : Page 416 – 615.
10. Cynamon HA, Norcross K, Isenberg JN. Evoked potential abnormalities in children with chronic cholestasis. Hepatology 1988; 8: 1596 –1601.
11. Romero-Gomez M, Boza F, Garcia-Valdecasas MS, Garcia E, Aguilar-Reina J. Subclinical hepatic encephalopathy predicts the development of overt hepatic encephalopathy .Am J Gastroenterol 2001;96:2718-23.
12. Das A, Dhiman RK, Saraswat VA, Verma M. Naik SR. Prevalence and natural history of Subclinical hepatic encephalopathy in cirrhosis. J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2001 ; 16: 531-5.
13. Slowik A, Cieccko-Michalska I, Bogdal J, Szczudlik. The diagnosis of Subclinical hepatic encephalopathy . J Gastroenterol Hepatol . 2001 Mar; 16(3): 322-7.
14. Hartmann IJ, Groeneweg M, Quero JC, Beijeman SJ, de Man RA, HOP WC, Schalm SW. The prognostic significance of Subclinical hepatic encephalopathy . Am J Gastroenterol . 2000 ;95: 2029-34.
15. Groeneweg M, Quero Jc, De Bruijn I, Hartmann IJ, Essink-bot ML, Hop WC, Schalm SW. Subclinical hepatic encephalopathy impairs daily functioning. Hepatology. 1998 Jul;28(1):459.
16. Yang S-S, Wu C-H, Chiang T-R et al. Evoked potentials in subclinical portasystemic encephalopathy: a comparison with psychometric tests. Hepatology 1998; 27:357.
17. Sherlock S, Summerskill WHJ, White LP, Pear EA. Portal systemic encephalopathy. Neurological complications of liver diseases. Lancet 1954; 2: 453-7.
18. Harrison's Principles of Medicine Edition 15, Mc Graw Hill, Page 1923 Table 295 - 4.

Retrospective Analysis of N75-P100 Amplitudes and P100 Latencies of VEPs in Patients Having One-Sided Visual Problems

Munindra Pratap Singh¹, Gaurav Jain², Virendra Verma², Ajit Singh Rajput³

¹PG Student, ²Associate Professor, ³Professor, Department of Physiology, G. R. Medical College, Gwalior, M.P.

Abstract

Background: VEPs of patients who had unilateral visual problems were retrospectively analyzed. The patients N75-P100 amplitudes and P100 latencies of the affected and normal fellow eye were compared. An alternative way of percentage change in amplitude and latency was also correlated with existing (amplitude ratio and absolute prolongation of latency) ways of analysis.

Method: 66 subjects (52 males & 14 Females) selected for study who had either affected left or right eye. Further, mean of N75-P100 amplitudes & mean P100 latencies were compared in affected and normal eye. On the basis of percentage reduction in the N75-P100 amplitude and percentage increase in the P100 latency on affected eye subjects were categorized in to those only with reduced amplitude (Group A), only with increased latency (Group B) or with both reduced amplitude & increased latency (Group C).

Results: Out of 66 patients (mean age 39.50±19.06 yr), 52 were males (78.79%, mean age 38.04±19.22 yr) & 14 were females (21.21%, mean age 44.93±18.11 yr). The patients had nearly equal frequency of affection in right and left eye, with slight preponderance to left eye (LE- n= 38, 57.58%; RE – n= 28, 42.42%). The amplitude reduction (p<0.0001) and latency (p<0.0001) prolongation were significant in affected eye. Group A had maximum number of subjects (n=35; 53.03%) followed by Group C (n=21; 31.82%). We observed a significant inverse correlation (Pearson r = -1.00, p<0.0001) between amplitude ratio & percentage change method and a significant direct correlation (Pearson r = 0.98, p<0.0001) between latency increase and percentage increase of latency.

Conclusion: Frequency of unilateral involvement in both the eyes is nearly equal. Reduction of N75-P100 amplitude is the most commonly observed abnormal VEP parameter. Percentage Change method can be utilized in future for such studies.

Keywords – Visual Evoked Potential (VEP); N75-P100 Amplitude; P 100 Latency; amplitude ratio; latency prolongation; percentage change.

Introduction

Visual evoked potentials (VEPs) depicts electrical phenomena occurring during the visual processing and are a graphic illustration of the cerebral electrical potentials generated by the occipital cortex evoked

by a defined visual stimulus¹. VEP is considered as a procedure of diagnostic and prognostic importance in ophthalmology².

VEP wave components are designated according to their apparent polarity and peak latency. Negative and positive polarities are designated N and P, respectively. Peak latencies are expressed in milliseconds after stimulus. Peaks N75, P100, and N145 are recorded over the occiput after 75, 100 and 145 ms respectively³. N75–P100 amplitude is measured from positive peak of P100 wave to negative peak of preceding N75 wave. The P100

Corresponding Author –

Dr. Gaurav Jain, MD

Department of Physiology, G. R. Medical College,
Gwalior (M.P.)-474009, Contact No.- 8871801696

Email ID - drgrvjain7@gmail.com

latency is time of onset of P100 peak after stimulus.

P100 amplitude is considered as the most consistent and reliable wave therefore N75-P100 amplitude and P100 latency can be used as the best parameter for evaluating VEP^{3,4}.

VEP provides a sensitive indication of abnormal conduction in the visual pathway^{5,6}. Increase in conduction time attributed to demyelination can be detected by measuring the P100 latency. Abnormalities in the amplitude of VEP are caused by axonal lesion in the pathway. Hence VEPs are widely used in investigating demyelinating diseases, optic neuritis, and other optic neuropathies^{6,7}.

As there are large differences in VEP among individuals, earlier studies involved comparison of the results for two eyes in the same individual rather than using absolute values of amplitude or latency period^{8,9}. Hence, it is difficult to assess visual function with VEP in cases where both eyes have visual pathway disturbance or functional visual loss combined with visual pathway disability⁸. Previous studies have compared the bilateral eye VEP amplitude, in patients having unilateral eye affection, using amplitude reduction or amplitude ratio i.e. affected/normal eye amplitude and VEP latency in terms of absolute prolongation of latency in ms in affected eye compared to normal eye¹⁰⁻¹³.

Hence we designed a study to retrospectively analyze the N75-P100 amplitudes and P100 latencies of VEPs of patients who presented with diverse visual problems in one of their two eyes. We analyzed N75-P100 amplitudes and P100 latencies of the affected eye and also compared them with that of normal fellow eye of the subjects. We further aimed to validate an alternative method of assessing unilateral VEP abnormalities using percentage decrease of amplitude and percentage increase of latency in affected eye compared to normal eye.

Material and Method

This study was conducted at Saksham Imaging Diagnostic Center and G. R. Medical College Gwalior, M.P., India. This study involves cross sectional retrospective analysis of 66 subjects having unilateral visual problems. The patients either with bilateral eye affection or with bilateral normal VEP were excluded from the study. The patients below 10 yr of age were also excluded as VEP is variable and under maturation

at this stage¹⁴.

The selected patient's data and VEP findings were retrieved. VEPs of normal eye functioned as each subject's internal control. We calculated an N75-P100 amplitude ratio of the affected/normal side for all individuals¹⁰.

Patients were further divided, in to affected left eye or affected right eye on the basis of which of their eye is having visual symptoms and abnormal VEP parameter (Table No.1).

Further mean of N75-P100 amplitudes and P100 latencies of affected and normal fellow eye were compared (Table No.2). Percentage change in amplitude and latency were calculated as follows.

$$\% \downarrow \text{ in Amplitude}^* = (\text{Normal eye Amplitude}^* - \text{Affected eye Amplitude}^*) \times 100$$

$$\text{Normal eye Amplitude}^*$$

$$\% \uparrow \text{ in latency}^\# = (\text{Affected eye Latency}^\# - \text{Normal eye Latency}^\#) \times 100$$

$$\text{Normal eye Latency}^\#$$

Where-

$$^* \text{Amplitude} = \text{N75-P100 amplitude and } ^\# \text{Latency} = \text{P100 latency}$$

Subjects having amplitude ratio <0.80 in affected eye or having >10 ms increase in P100 latency in the affected eye were considered abnormal. Subjects were categorized in to those only with reduced N75-P100 amplitude (Group A), those only with increased P100 latency (Group B) and those with both reduced amplitude & increased latency (Group C)(Table No.3 and Figure No.1).

Correlation analysis between subject's amplitude ratio & percentage change in amplitude and increase in latency & percentage change in latency was done to validate this method for future studies (Figure No.2&3).

Bilateral eye comparisons were done using paired t test. $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. Spearman Pearson analysis was used for correlation. All statistical analysis was done using Graphpad Prism 5.01 software for Windows (Graph-Pad Software, Inc., USA).

Results

VEPs of 66 patients, who had unilateral eye visual affection, were analyzed retrospectively. The mean age of the patients was 39.50 ± 19.06 yr. The number of male patients (78.79%, n=52; mean age 38.04 ± 19.22 yr) was higher than the female patients (21.21%, n=14; mean age 44.93 ± 18.11 yr).

The patients had nearly equal frequency of affection in right and left eye, with slight preponderance to left eye (LE- n=38, 57.58%; RE – n=28, 42.42%) (Table No.1).

On affected side the N75-P100 amplitude was significantly reduced ($p < 0.0001$) and P100 latency was significantly ($p < 0.0001$) increased (Table no.2).

Of the total 66 subjects, 56 subjects had reduced N75-P100 amplitude and 31 subjects had prolonged P 100 latency, where 21 subjects had both reduced amplitude and prolonged latency. Hence 35 (53.03 %) subjects had only reduced N75-P100 amplitude (Group A), 10 (15.15%) subjects had only prolonged P100 latency (Group B) and 21 (31.82 %) subjects had both reduced amplitude & prolonged latency (Group C) (Table No.3 and Figure No.1).

43.78 ± 31.11 % decrease in N75-P100 amplitude (amplitude ratio - 0.5638 ± 0.3082) and 12.52 ± 21.98 % increase in latency (prolongation of 9.397 ± 17.65 ms) were observed in affected eye of all subjects. Approximately 50 % decrease in amplitude was observed in Group A (55.26 ± 23.88 % decrease) and Group C (49.09 ± 20.95 % decrease), whereas nearly 30 % increase in latency

was observed in Group B (33.77 ± 20.49 % increase) and Group C (27.79 ± 18.68 % increase) (Table No.3).

There was a significant inverse correlation (Pearson $r = -1.00$, $p < 0.0001$) between amplitude ratio and percentage change method (Figure no.2). Further, we also observed a significant direct correlation (Pearson $r = 0.98$, $p < 0.0001$) between latency increase in the affected eye and percentage increase of latency in the affected eye (Figure no.3).

Table No.1 – Patients grouping on the basis of their affected eye having abnormal VEP parameters

Affected Eye	Males	Females	Total (% of Total)
Right Eye	22	6	28 (42.42%)
Left Eye	30	8	38 (57.58%)
Total	52 (78.79 %)	14 (21.21 %)	66

Table No.2 – Comparison of VEP parameters in affected eye and Normal eye of all the subjects

VEP parameter	Affected eye (n=66)	Normal Eye (n=66)	Level of significance
N75-P100 Amplitude (μ V)	2.294 ± 1.39	4.36 ± 1.98	< 0.0001
P 100 Latency (ms)	104.7 ± 14.69	95.33 ± 17.13	< 0.0001

Table No.3 – Table shows comparative values of VEP parameters in all patients and different groups

Groups	Subjects Showing Change of Parameters in affected eye compared to normal Fellow eye (Number of subjects; % of Total)	Affected/normal eye N75-P100 Amplitude ratio (mean \pm SD)	% Decrease in Amplitude Compared to Fellow eye (mean \pm SD)	Affected - Normal Eye P100 Latency Difference in ms (mean \pm SD)	% Increase in in Latency compared to fellow eye (mean \pm SD)
All subjects	All Subjects (n=66; 100%)	0.5638 ± 0.3082	43.78 ± 31.11	9.397 ± 17.65	12.52 ± 21.98
Group A	Subjects Showing Reduced N75-P100 Amplitude (n=35; 53.03%)	0.4503 ± 0.2332	55.26 ± 23.88	-3.701 ± 10.89	-2.70 ± 9.59
Group B	Subjects Showing Prolonged P100 Latency (n=10; 15.15 %)	1.076 ± 0.1874	-7.55 ± 18.74	28.13 ± 14.03	33.77 ± 20.49
Group C	Subjects showing change in Both Amplitude and Latency (n=21; 31.82 %)	0.5091 ± 0.2095	49.09 ± 20.95	21.6 ± 11.43	27.79 ± 18.68

Discussion

This study retrospectively analyzed the data of 66 patients with unilateral eye various visual problems where 132 VEP recordings (66 eyes with normal VEP and 66 eyes with abnormal VEP) were analyzed.

The male subjects were more than the female participants. Some eye conditions have been found to be more prevalent in males¹⁵, where other reports the females more commonly affected with blindness^{16,17}. As this was retrospective analysis of patients referred for VEP, hence this study may not reflect the actual population demographics.

We observed little higher frequency of affection of left eye. There are no any subtle reasons to presume that any one eye is more affected with visual problems than the other^{18,19}. This may be an incidental finding due to small sample size.

Previous studies have compared the bilateral eye amplitudes in patients with one affected eye using the amplitude ratio and absolute increase in latency. They obtained amplitude ratio of affected eye by dividing the affected eye amplitude with normal eye amplitude. Further, they compared the bilateral eye latencies in terms of absolute difference of time in ms (10). We utilized the same method and also used an alternative way of comparison in terms of percentage change as mentioned above. This way has not been used in earlier studies reflecting that it is not a reliable way of comparison. Hence, we correlated percentage change method with the previous method and found a promising correlation between the two methods indicating that this method can also be utilized in future for such studies, where comparison is to be done with one normal eye.

N75-P100 amplitude was reduced in more number of the subjects compared to the number of subjects with prolonged latency. The N75-P100 amplitudes are considered the marker of axonal integrity of optic nerve and P100 latencies are considered to be related to demyelination of optic nerve^{20,21}. Thus more number of subjects were having axonal lesion of optic nerve as the cause of their reduced vision. Optic neuropathy involving axonal lesion have been previously documented as the most common cause of blindness²².

Subjects were grouped on the basis of decrease of amplitudes and increase of P100 latencies in the affected

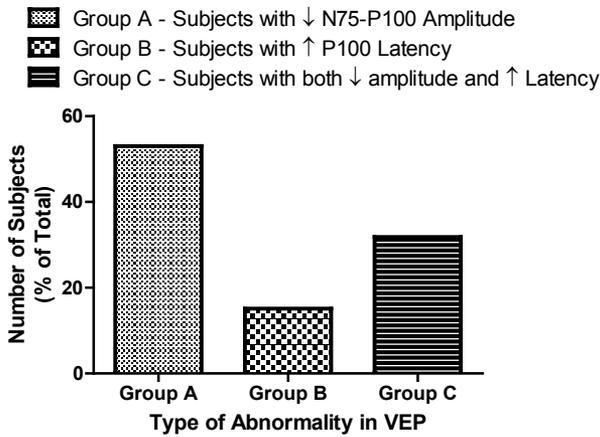


Figure No.1 – Figure shows proportion of subjects in each group based on percentage of Total number of subjects

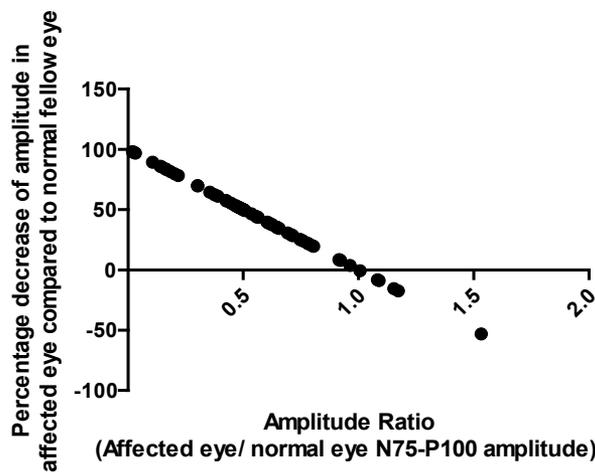


Figure No.2 – Correlation of previously used amplitude ratio method with percentage decrease in N75-P100 amplitude; n=66 (Pearson $r = -1.00$, $p < 0.0001$)

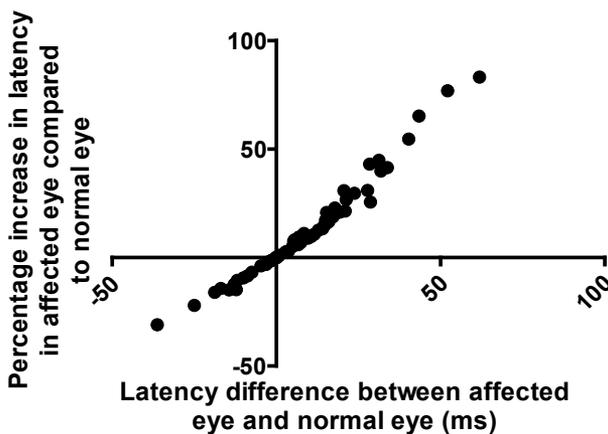


Figure No.3 – Correlation of previously used affected eye and normal eye latency difference method with percentage increase of latency in affected eye; n=66 (Pearson $r = 0.98$, $p < 0.0001$)

eye compared to normal fellow eye in to three groups; Group A only with reduction of N75-P100 amplitude, Group B only with prolongation of P100 latency and Group C having both reduction of amplitude and prolongation of latency. Maximum numbers of subjects were in the Group A followed by Group C. Group B had the least number of subjects. This suggests that there is possibility of all kinds of lesion in reduction of vision. Further, maximum numbers of cases were due to pathologies causing axonal lesion. Moreover, pathologies which lead to both decrease in amplitude and increase in latency were the next common cause of visual loss and least numbers of cases were due to pure demyelinating causes.

Literature have evidences that there are pathological conditions which decrease amplitude or increase latency or do both i.e. decrease amplitude and increase latency together^{10,23-25}. Our study shows the relative frequency of pathological etiologies of axonal, demyelinating and combined axonal and demyelinating lesions in the unilateral visual problems.

Conclusion

Reduction of N75-P100 amplitude is the most commonly observed abnormal VEP parameter suggesting that maximum number of subjects have axonal lesion of optic nerve as the cause of their reduced vision. Percentage change method is also a valid way of comparing the VEP parameters in bilateral eyes if one of the tow eyes has normal VEP.

Funding: NA

Conflict of Interest: There is no conflict of Interest

Ethical approval: Study is approved by institutional Ethics Committee.

References

1. Kothari R, Bokariya P, Singh S, Singh R. A Comprehensive Review on Methodologies Employed for Visual Evoked Potentials. *Scientifica*. 2016; 2016:1-9.
2. Weinstein GW. Clinical aspects of the visually evoked potential. *Trans Am Ophthalmol Soc*. 1977 ;75:627-73.
3. American Clinical Neurophysiology Society. Guideline 9B: guidelines on visual evoked potentials. *Am J Electroneurodiagnostic Technol*. 2006 Sep;46(3):254-74.
4. Kim MK, Kim US. The parameters of pattern visual evoked potential in the severe visual loss patients in Korean. *Korean J Ophthalmol*. 2015 Jun;29(3):185-9.
5. Odom JV, Bach M, Barber C, Brigell M, Marmor MF, Tormene AP, et al. Visual evoked potentials standard (2004). *Documenta Ophthalmologica*. 2004 Mar; 108(2):115-23.
6. Walsh P, Kane N, Butler S. The clinical role of evoked potentials. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry*. 2005 Jun 1; 76(suppl 2):ii16-22.
7. You Y, Klistorner A, Thie J, Graham SL. Latency delay of visual evoked potential is a real measurement of demyelination in a rat model of optic neuritis. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2011 Aug 29;52(9):6911-8.
8. Jeon J, Oh S, Kyung S. Assessment of visual disability using visual evoked potentials. *BMC Ophthalmol*. 2012 Aug 6; 12:36.
9. Sokol S. Pattern visual evoked potentials: their use in pediatric ophthalmology. *Int Ophthalmol Clin*. 1980; 20(1):251-68.
10. Holmes MD, Sires BS. Flash visual evoked potentials predict visual outcome in traumatic optic neuropathy. *Ophthalmic Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2004 Sep;20(5):342-6.
11. Alshowaeir D, Yiannikas C, Fraser C, Klistorner A. Mechanism of delayed conduction of fellow eyes in patients with optic neuritis. *Int J Ophthalmol*. 2018;11(2):329-32.
12. Gündüz K, ZengİN N, Okudan S, Okka M, Özbayrak Ni. Pattern-reversal electroretinograms and visual evoked potentials in branch retinal vein occlusion. *Doc Ophthalmol*. 1995 Jun 1;91(2):155-64.
13. Andrade EP, Berezovsky A, Sacai PY, Pereira JM, Rocha DM, Salomão SR, et al. Dysfunction in the fellow eyes of strabismic and anisometropic amblyopic children assessed by visually evoked potentials. *Arquivos Brasileiros de Oftalmologia*. 2016 Oct;79(5):294-8.
14. Yadav R, Hari Poudel B, Limbu N, Thakur D, Kumar Yadav S. Normative data of Visual Evoked

- Potential in children and correlation with age. Asian Journal of Medical Sciences. 2015 Nov 5;7:39.
15. Akhtar F, Micheal S, Khan M, S Y, M B, Ahmed A, et al. Does gender have an effect in the Prevalence of types of glaucoma in Pakistani population? Al-Shifa Journal of Ophthalmology. 2010 Jan 1;6:30–6.
 16. Courtright P, Bassett K. Gender and Blindness: Eye Disease and the Use of Eye Care Services. Community Eye Health. 2003; 16(45):11–2.
 17. Khandekar R, Mohammed AJ. Gender inequality in vision loss and eye diseases: Evidence from the Sultanate of Oman. Indian J Ophthalmol. 2009 ;57(6):443–9.
 18. Buch H, Vinding T, La Cour M, Nielsen NV. The prevalence and causes of bilateral and unilateral blindness in an elderly urban Danish population. The Copenhagen City Eye Study. Acta Ophthalmol Scand. 2001 Oct;79(5):441–9.
 19. Bajracharya K, Gautam P, Yadav SK, Shrestha N. EPIDEMIOLOGY AND CAUSES OF OPTIC ATROPHY IN GENERAL OUTPATIENT DEPARTMENT OF LUMBINI EYE INSTITUTE. :4.
 20. Walsh P, Kane N, Butler S. The clinical role of evoked potentials. Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry. 2005 Jun 1;76(suppl 2):ii16–22.
 21. Diem R, Tschirne A, Bähr M. Decreased amplitudes in multiple sclerosis patients with normal visual acuity: A VEP study. Journal of clinical neuroscience : official journal of the Neurosurgical Society of Australasia. 2003 Feb 1;10:67–70.
 22. Ghaffarieh A, Levin LA. Chapter One - Optic Nerve Disease and Axon Pathophysiology. In: Goldberg JL, Trakhtenberg EF, editors. International Review of Neurobiology. Academic Press; 2012. p. 1–17. (Axon Growth and Regeneration: Part 1; vol. 105).
 23. Samsen P, Chuenkongkaew WL, Masayaanon P, Chirapapaisan N, Ruangvaravate N, Loket S. A comparative study of visual evoked potentials in optic neuritis and optic neuritis with multiple sclerosis. J Med Assoc Thai. 2007 Feb;90(2):313–8.
 24. Papathanasopoulos PG, Papakostopoulos D. Pattern reversal visual evoked potentials in retinitis pigmentosa. International Journal of Psychophysiology. 1994 May 1;16(2):245–50.
 25. Alshuaib WB. Progression of visual evoked potential abnormalities in multiple sclerosis and optic neuritis. Electromyogr Clin Neurophysiol. 2000 Jun;40(4):243–52.

Assessment of Pulse Wave Velocity in Obese Adults using ECG and Finger Tip Photo Pulse Plethysmography

M. Jahnavi¹, Sharan. B. Singh M², Uma B.V.³, K.N. Maruthy⁴

¹MBBS, ²Professor at SVIMS-SPMC(W), ³Associate Professor, ⁴Professor & Hod, Department of Physiology, Narayana Medical College, Nellore

Abstract

Introduction : The World Health Organization has recently defined obesity as a disease. Obesity is the result of imbalance between food intake and energy expenditure. Obese individuals with excess fat deposition in the abdominal region are at risk for CHD, hence this study was taken up to see if any association is there between obesity and PWV.

Aim : 1. To measure the pulse wave velocity (PWV) in obese individuals.

2. To compare if there is any correlation between pulse pressure, PWV and BMI.

Material and Method: 68 obese adults were included for the study, 45 males and 23 females. The study was started after getting clearance from IEC. Informed oral consent was obtained from the subjects. Height and weight of the subjects were recorded. All of them were in the age group of 27 to 62 years and had BMI > 30.

Resting blood pressure was recorded, then Lead II ECG was recorded along with left forefinger tip photo pulse for a period of 15 secs. Distance between the R wave and the foot of the finger pulse was measured in msec. The arm span was measured from the left lateral border of sternum to tip of left forefinger which was taken as distance(D) travelled by the pulse. Using $V = \Delta T/D$, PWV was calculated.

Results : The mean BP in male and female was 106 ± 9 & 94.7 ± 4.4 mmHg respectively where as the PWV was 5.8 ± 0.7 mts/sec in male and 5 ± 0.5 mts/sec in females which is in normal limits. Analysis of data was done by applying Pearson's Correlation and paired Student T test which revealed there was positive correlation between mean BP versus PWV $r = 0.21$ & BMI versus mean BP $r = 0.26$. P value were highly significant which was < 0.001

PWV is influenced by tethering of vessel and stiffening of the arterial wall, so increase in velocity may not be a good index to assess risk factor in all cardiac conditions.

Conclusion : PWV is influenced by tethering of vessel and stiffening of the arterial wall, so increase in velocity may not be a good index to assess risk factor in all cardiac conditions unless it is corrected with respect to age and Blood pressure .

Keywords – pulse wave velocity , obesity, photo pulse plethysmography

Corresponding author:

Dr. Mundlapudi Jahnavi

MBBS, Narayana Medical College,

Chinthareddypalem, Nellore – 524 003

Mobile: 8106105516, E mail ID: jan.rdy@gmail.com

Introduction

Obesity is a fast growing global health, social and economical problem. It is also called as disease of 21st century. It develops due to imbalance of energy intake and energy expenditure. Obesity is defined by WHO

as “A Medical condition in which excess body fat has accumulated to the extent that it may have adverse effects on health consequences”. The BMI is an attempt to quantify the amount of fatty mass in an individual, and then categorize as underweight, normal weight, overweight, or obese, based on BMI value.¹

Arterial stiffness is a general term for the elasticity (or compliance) of the arteries. Structural and cellular changes results in hardening or stiffening of the arteries which is called arteriosclerosis. Arterial stiffening is a marker for increased cardiovascular disease risk such as Coronary Heart Diseases. The stiffness of arteries indicates how hard the heart has to work to pump blood through the body.

Obesity is a world-wide epidemic with massive socioeconomic consequences; in particular, it increases the likelihood of associated pathologies including cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes, dyslipidemia, and sleep apnea. Early vascular aging and therefore elevated arterial stiffness, an independent marker of cardiovascular events and mortality, has been found to be associated with all these pathologies. Therefore, obesity could be expected to be directly related to increased arterial stiffness. However, conflicting results have been reported in adults, some studies found a positive relationship between obesity and arterial stiffness. Whereas others found no such relationship or even a negative relationship. A recent review indicated that only 13% of the relevant publications reported a positive association between body mass index (BMI) and PWV.²

Vascular stiffness, increases the load on the ventricles, decreases cardiac ejection. Blood ejecting into a stiffer arterial system, generates high end-systolic pressure for the same net stroke volume using greater energy. Chronic ejection into a stiffer vasculature induces cardiac hypertrophy.

Vascular stiffening also changes the manner by which the heart is perfused. Isolated systolic hypertension (defined as systolic blood pressure > 140 and diastolic blood pressure < 90 mm Hg) and elevated pulse pressure are two clinical manifestations of decreased vascular distensibility (Increases vascular stiffness).

Pulse wave velocity helps in assessment of arterial stiffness. It increases in certain diseases that are associated with increased cardiovascular risk.³

Photoplethysmography (PPG) is a non invasive method for the measurement of arterial blood volume changes at a peripheral site where the blood vessels are close to the skin. It is an instrument mainly used to determine and register the variations in blood volume or blood flow in the body which occur with each heartbeat. Here infrared light rays are transmitted through index finger to measure pulse wave.

The plethysmogram waveform represents pulsatile peripheral blood flow, which reflects both peripheral and central hemodynamic.⁴

Aim

1. To measure the pulse wave velocity (PWV) in obese individuals.
2. To compare if there is any correlation between pulse pressure, PWV and BMI.

Materials and Method

After getting clearance from ethics committee, informed consent was taken from all the participants and detailed clinical examination was done as per study protocol. All experiments were performed in the Department of Physiology, Narayana medical College, Nellore.

Participants:

68 Apparently healthy volunteers were recruited after obtaining Institutional ethical clearance - 45 subjects were males & 23 subjects were females.

Inclusion criteria

Age between 25 - 60 years, Male and female (irrespective of menstrual phase) adults with BMI >30 [kg/m²] without past history of diabetes, hypertension, any cardio vascular conditions.

Exclusion criteria

Age less than 25 or more than 60 years male and female adults, BMI < 30[kg/m²], with

past history of diabetes, hypertension, any cardiovascular conditions.

Parameters recorded - Height, Weight, BMI, Arm span, SBP, DBP & PWV

Procedure

The data was collected in the morning hours between 7- 8 am. Informed written consent was taken. Subjects were asked to take rest for 15 minutes after which blood pressure was recorded.

Weight & Height were measured, Body mass index (BMI) was calculated. Standard ECG electrodes were connected to record Lead II ECG and simultaneously Left fore finger Photo pulse was recorded using Audacity software (freeware) by using computers sound card as analog to digital converter.

Results

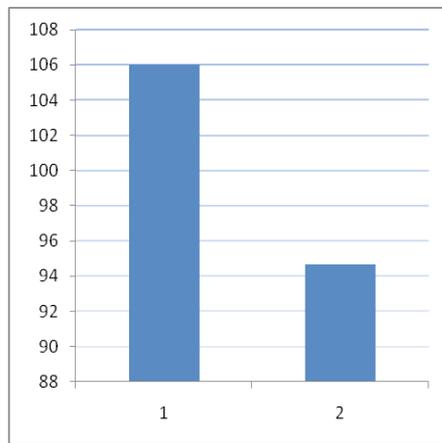
Table - 1 General characteristics of the subjects

Parameters Mean \pm SD	Males [n = 45]	Female [n = 23]
Age (yrs)	44 \pm 7.4	42.2 \pm 10.13
Height (cms)	165.9 \pm 6.7	155.7 \pm 5.3
Weight (Kgs)	84.95 \pm 10.44	73.92 \pm 10.18
BMI	30.78 \pm 2.95	30.68 \pm 3.19
Arm span	83.2 \pm 4.38	76.66 \pm 3.44

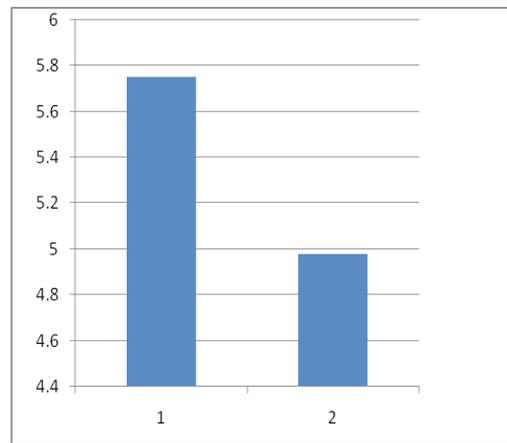
Table - 2 Cardiovascular parameters of smokers

Parameters Mean \pm SD	Males [n = 45]	Female [n = 23]
SBP (mmHg)	129.48 \pm 13.8	113.65 \pm 5.03
DBP (mmHg)	94.2 \pm 7.7	85.21 \pm 5.69
Mean B.P	105.99 \pm 9.03	94.69 \pm 4.37
PWV (mt/sec)	5.75 \pm 0.65	4.98 \pm 0.53

Graph – 1 Analysis of data was done by applying Pearson's Correlation and paired Student T test



Mean B.P(mm Hg). Male & Female



Mean PWV (mts./sec) Male & Female

Normal pulse wave velocity = 5 - 6 mts./ sec

There was Positive correlation between mean B.P with PWV, BMI and Age which were statistically significant.

Discussion

Arterial stiffening reflects the changes of arterial wall degeneration. It has become clear that, the arterial stiffness is not only determined by structural elements with in vessel wall and distending pressure, but also by functional regulation by the sympathetic nervous system

and endothelium of the vessel wall. Increase in arterial stiffness may results in higher systolic blood pressure; lower diastolic blood pressure and wide pulse pressure all conferring greater cardiovascular and total mortality risk. Increased arterial stiffness through an elevation of SBP enhances the left ventricular load and favors cardiac

hypertrophy and through reduction of DBP, results in a decrease in the perfusion pressure of the coronary arteries, thus contributing to myocardial ischemia.

Conclusion

Endothelial dysfunction is an important risk factor for hypertension because it leads not only to functional alterations, represented by the impaired control of the vascular tonus, but also to structural changes, such as thickening of the intima and media of the vessel wall. The association between endothelial dysfunction and increased blood pressure in obesity comes from studies showing that obese individuals display blunted vasodilatation in response to classical endothelium dependent vasodilators such as acetylcholine in resistance arteries, as well as reduced capillary recruitment in response to reactive hyperemia and shear stress and that the severity of endothelial dysfunction correlates with the degree of visceral adiposity

Measuring arterial stiffness provides good data on the endothelial condition. In our study we have seen increase in PWV which is a early marker of arterial stiffness. Therefore complete understanding the effects of obesity on vascular endothelium is useful in treatment and in preventing deleterious complications.

Over the next few years measurement of arterial stiffness might become an important part of risk assessment. It will become necessary for physicians both

in primary care and hospital practice to understand the importance of arterial stiffness and different techniques are available for its clinical assessment.

Conflict of Interest :- Nil

Source of Funding:- Self

References

1. Shinde B. V. et al “The Impact of Obesity on Respiratory Muscle Strength in Adults” International Journal of Contemporary Medical Research ISSN (Online): 2393-915X, Volume 4 | Issue 9 | September 2017.
2. Gaëlle Desamericq et al “Carotid–Femoral Pulse Wave Velocity Is Not Increased in Obesity” Original article, American Journal of Hypertension 28(4) April 2015 546 – 550.
3. Susan J. Zieman et al “ Arteriosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology (Mechanisms, Pathophysiology, and Therapy of Arterial Stiffness) ” Published online before print February 24, 2005,doi: 10.1161/01.ATV.0000160548.78317.29, 2005; 25: 932 – 943.
4. www.level1diagnostics.com,“Pulse Wave Analysis, Digital Plethysmography, Finger Plethysmography, Accelerated Plethysmography, Clinical Bottom Line - The Simple Explanation.

Effect of Smartphone Addiction on Motor Efficiency in Upper Limb Assessed by Bimanual Coordination in Young Adults

Jagadamba Aswathappa¹, Shobha MV², Kedara Harshitha³

¹Associate Professor, ²Associate Professor, Department of Physiology/ SDUMC, ³Undergraduate Student, SDUMC, Sri Devaraj URS Higher Education & Research Centre, Tamaka, Kolar, Karnataka, India

Abstract

Objectives: To compare efficiency index by bimanual coordination in smartphone addicts & non-addicts
Materials & Method: Cross sectional observational data was collected from Professional students in the age group 18-25 years who uses smartphone more than 6 months. Smartphone addiction was assessed using scale-SV questionnaire. Among them 50 smartphone non addicts & 50 addicts . Bimanual coordination of upperlimbs was done by using two hand coordination test apparatus with electric chronoscope & efficiency index was calculated. **Results:** A Mann Whitney U test was conducted to determine whether there was a difference in the score of addiction & nonaddiction. From this data it can be concluded that there was a significantly higher score in smartphone addicts compared to nonaddicts ($U=0.500$, $n_1=n_2=50$, $P < 0.001$) The effect of smartphone addiction on efficiency index assessed by bimanual coordination were compared using an independent t test .Mean of efficiency index in smart phone non addicts & addicts was 78.90 ± 17.04 & 53.70 ± 18.06 ($t=-7.17$ $p < 0.001$), which is statistically significant.

Conclusion: Motor efficiency in upper limb assessed by bimanual coordination in young adults is significantly decreased in smart phone addicts compared to the non-addicts.

Keywords: Smartphone addiction, bimanual coordination, efficiency index, young adults.

Introduction

Smart phone usage among the general population is increasing widely. According to online surveys, almost 30 billion messages were sent per day using whatsapp and 20 billion SMS messages in 2015. Literature reports an adverse impact on the physical and psychological health of the users of mobile and other information technology¹. Though it has many uses like social, interactions, information retrieval & entertainment, but loss of control over smartphone use might lead to negative impacts on our daily life. Among the smartphone users, young adults are widely using the smartphone & getting addicted to the same. Most of the times students stress on usage of smartphone is hidden & its addiction is not

known. The use of these hand-held devices is on the rise. Mobile phone users can able to communicate other than voice by a wide range of text button usage by means of SMS (short message service), whats app, viber, line in, and social networking applications like facebook, twitter and skype². Survey-based research has shown that many respondents would give up brushing their teeth, exercising, wearing shoes, showering, and eating chocolate instead of living without their smartphones for the same period of time . A study conducted by South Korea's university students have also proven the relationship of smartphone addiction to mental health, campus life, personal relations, self-control and life stress³.

It is a wellknown fact that many young adults suffer from smartphone addiction, which is almost similar to narcomania or alcoholism. Smartphone addiction is defined as a behavior addiction, loss of control by excessive immersion and obsessions to smartphone use, consequent daily disorder by nervousness and

Jagadamba Aswathappa

Corresponding author:

Associate Professor, Department of Physiology/
SDUMC, Sri Devaraj URS Higher Education &
Research Centre, Tamaka, Kolar, Karnataka, India

anxiety, and inclination toward virtual world that feels more enjoyable with smartphone than with friends⁴. As with heavy smartphone usage, the incidence of musculoskeletal disorders of hand, wrist, forearm, arm and neck has been increasing all over the world due to prolonged, forceful, low amplitude, repetitive use of hand held devices⁵. Sustained and gripping and repetitive movements with the thumb and fingers have all been identified as risk factors which may lead to disorders of the thumb and thumb musculature in the forearm. In day to day activities two hands are used together for a number of activities. To achieve this goals our hand movements, have to be finely coordinated & this functional ability depends on the muscle strength, sensation and coordination of the muscles & dexterity⁶. Bimanual movements has to have intralimb coordination, & integration and sequencing of actions between limbs (i.e., interlimb coordination). It is a complex self-organizing system that is subject to both internal (biopsychological) and contextual (task) constraints. corpus callosum of the brain that connects the left and right sides of the brain facilitates communication between the two hemispheres—a process that is essential to interlimb coordination⁷.

In an individual various of bimanual coordination is observed, & most research task items have focused on the patterns of coordination that appear in cyclic movements: like, continuous finger tapping with index fingers of both hands, finger tapping with one hand while tracing a circle with the other hand, or circle drawing with both hands⁸.

Repetitive flexing and extending of tendons in hands & wrists particularly when done forcefully and for prolonged periods without rest also can increase pressure in carpal tunnel. Injury to wrist can cause swelling that exerts pressure on median nerves and causes carpal tunnel syndrome⁹.

The present study aims to study the effect of smartphone addiction on efficiency index assessed by bimanual hand coordination in young adults.

Objectives

- To assess smart-phone addiction in young adults by smartphone addiction scale questionnaire
- To determine efficiency index by bimanual coordination in young adults(18-25 years)

- To compare efficiency index by bimanual coordination in smartphone addicts & non-addicts.

Materials & method

Design: Cross sectional observational data was collected from Professional students in the age group 18-25 years who uses smartphone more than 6 months. Institute ethical clearance & Written Informed consent was obtained.

Sample size: Sample size was estimated based on the previous study of smartphone addiction at 24.8% & non addicts 57.8%. By using the formula calculated by G* power

$$n = (Z_{\alpha/2} + Z_{\beta})^2 * (p_1(1-p_1) + p_2(1-p_2)) / (p_1 - p_2)^2, \quad n1 \text{ (smartphone Addicts)}=50, n2 \text{ (Smartphone non-addicts)}=50$$

where $Z_{\alpha/2}$ is the critical value of the Normal distribution at $\alpha/2$ (e.g. for a confidence level of 95%, α is 0.05 and the critical value is 1.96), Z_{β} is the critical value of the Normal distribution at β (e.g. for a power of 90%) and p_1 -24.8% and p_2 - 57.8% are the expected sample proportions of the two groups.

Interventions: none

The data was collected by self-administering the questionnaire to the students which consisted of two parts. First part recorded the demographic information including age, sex, education, type of phone used and time spent on smartphone per day & per week. Second part was smartphone addiction scale-SV questionnaire given to young adults to know whether they are smartphone addicts or non-addicts¹⁰.

Bimanual coordination of upperlimbs of smartphone addicts & non-addicts was done by using two hand coordination test apparatus with electric chronoscope (Anand agencies, Pune). The subjects traced the figure on the apparatus with the help of the pointer from start to end using two handles with both hands simultaneously. If the pointer touches the walls of figure on the apparatus it was noted as error (e) committed & was digitally recorded by chronoscope in seconds. They were given trial twice before the actual task to be performed. Time required for completion of the test (T) & error (e) committed during completion of task was noted in seconds¹¹. Known history of

motor,behavioural,orthopaedic,reported history of learning or neurologic deficits & participants with primary uncorrected visual defect or medical condition that might interfere with ability to carry out motor task were excluded from the study.

Statistical Analysis: Descriptive statistics, Independent t test was done to analyze the quantitative data & Mann Whitney U test was conducted to determine whether there was a difference in the score of addiction & nonaddiction. & chi square test was done to analyze categorical variables & $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Results

Relationship of smartphone addiction with time spent on smartphone per day,apps installed,apps uninstalled, emailusage, education purpose,facebook, games, text messages, webusage & whatsapp usage. The following sections details the results of cross-tabulations that have established a Significant relationship through Chi-square tests & significant relationship was found with the time spent on using smartphone /day & smartphone addiction($\chi^2=24.74,p<0.001$).Significant relationship was also found between for apps installed,email usage,facebook usage,games text messages.There was no significant relationship on apps uninstalled,education purpose & whats-app usage.

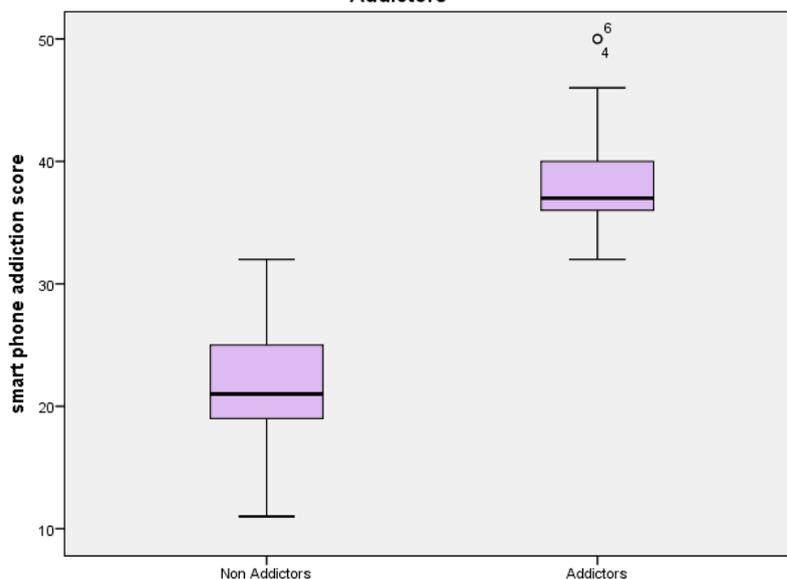
Table-1: Comparison of efficiency index in smartphone addicts & nonaddicts in young adults

Variable	Nonaddictors	Addictors	t value	P value
Age (years)	19.20+1.01	19.62+1.19	1.90	0.061
Efficiency index	78.90+17.04	53.70+18.06	-7.17	0.001

There was no significant difference for age among smartphone addicts & nonaddicts. There was a significant reduction of efficiency index among the smartphone addicts as compared to nonaddicts ($p < 0.001$)

Mann Whitney U test indicated that smartphone addiction score was significantly higher in addicts (median-37) than for nonaddicts (median-27) $U=0.500, n_1=n_2=50, P < 0.001$.

Fig-1: Comparison of smartphone addiction score between Nonaddictors & Addictors



Discussion

In the current day of events, the younger generation are becoming vulnerable to lucrative information technology devices which makes them addicted. Hand held devices such as Smartphones have become increasingly popular and more advanced over the last decade. Its use compels the user to use both hands simultaneously to perform the tasks like texting, gaming, browsing internet etc, in turn spending more time using both hands continuously. Thus the current study has focussed to assess functional evaluation of smartphone addiction on bimanual coordination in young adults.

Regular user is defined as those who use smartphone at least 6 or more times in 6 months¹². In the present study the data was collected in the age group 18-25 years which is age matched who were using smartphone >6 months. Smartphone addiction score between addicts & nonaddicts was significantly higher ($p < 0.001$). (Fig-1) Time spent on smartphone /day was significantly more in addicts i.e 81.5% & 71.4% were spending their time was between 4-6 hours & >6hrs. similar results was found in a study done by Inal et al, where the students were spending more than 3 hours on using smartphone for various purposes¹³. One more study showed a major component of daily smartphone usage time among students was 4-6 hours (40.1%) per day¹⁴.

The present study also showed a significant relationship where smartphone addicts were spending >once/week for app installation, but both the groups once the apps were installed spent less time on uninstalling. For emailing, facebook usage, games, texting messages, web usage smartphone addicts spent almost daily compared to nonaddicts. Similar results are found where the facebook users considered their Facebook dependency, are known as salience, tolerance, and conflict. But an interesting fact is that most of them in both the groups spent > 3-4 times daily for education purpose which is statistically not significant. Another study showed the primary purpose of smartphone use was to access social networking services (56.8%), such as Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp, and Instagram¹⁴. In the present study both the groups most of them used Whatsapp daily, but showed no statistical significance.

Smartphone usage in day to daily activities requires bimanual coordination of hands. Bimanual coordination neurophysiology studies are very few. The present study showed most of them were using the smart-

phone for various activities almost daily which was statistically significant. The efficiency index assessed by bimanual coordination is significantly decreased in smartphone addicts compared to the non addicts ($p < 0.001$), (Table-1) thus indicating delay & also increase in error committed for the completion of the task. Increase in smartphone usage in young adults in the present study has decreased the rhythmicity of movements and the ability to synchronize limbs. Due to this there is decreased interlimb coordination, which is occurring at a slower pace & the individual is not aware of the damage occurring by using the gadget for a longer time.

When using Hand held devices the user is compelled to engage both the hands simultaneously where on repeated use it decreases the efficiency index of bimanual coordination. Possible explanation for the decrease in efficiency index might be due to chronic usage of smartphone in the hands there occurs fatigue in the distal muscles & the smartphone addicts demonstrated errors while performing the task. As distal muscles of the hand are primarily under the control of contralateral primary motor cortex. The corpus callosum which allows reciprocal information exchange between homologous cortical areas in the 2 hemisphere has been a source of neural cross-talk. This suggests that the corpus callosum plays a crucial role in exchanging sensory information about both limb motions to accomplish goal-directed task integration, which might be delayed¹⁵. The synchronisation of motor output will be decreased when there is repetitive flexing & extending of tendons in hands & fingers for prolonged period without rest. Our results corroborate in a study done by Inal et al¹³. Another study showed that Smartphone overuse assessed by ultrasound examination was found to be linked with higher signs of inflammation of musculoskeletal structures of hands joints in both psoriasis and controls, indicating its overuse may be a factor which speed up the possible development of psoriatic arthritis¹⁶.

Conclusion

In the present study in smartphone addicts efficiency index of bimanual coordination has significantly decreased compared to nonaddicts. As time spent on smartphone usage was more in smartphone addicts for various purposes, thus the best approach in them will be to attain self control & achieve level of balance while using smartphone, which might prevent

problems with interlimb coordination.

Conflicts of Interest---NIL

Source of Funding ----Self

Ethical Clearance---taken from Institute ethics committee (order No.DMC/KLR/IEC/08/2016-17 from SDUMC.

References

- Gustafsson E, Dellve L, Edlund M, Hagberg M. The use of information technology among young adults– experience, attitudes and health beliefs. *Applied Ergonomics* 2003; 34: 565-570.
- Jonsson P, Johnson PW, Hagberg M. Thumb joint movement and muscular activity during mobile phone texting – A methodological study. *Journal of Electromyography and Kinesiology* 2011; 21: 363-370.
- Kim NS, Lee KE. Effects of self-control and life stress on smart phone addiction of university students. *Journal of the Korea Society of Health Informatics and Statistics* 2012;37:72–83.
- Kim MO, Kim H, Kim K, Sejin Ju, Choi J, Mi Yu. Smartphone Addiction: (Focused Depression, Aggression and Impulsion among College Students. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology* 2015;8:1-6.
- Eapen C, Bhat AK. Prevalence of cumulative trauma disorders in cell phone users. *Journal of Musculoskeletal Research* 2010; 13: 137-145.
- Johansson RS, Westling G, Backstrom A, Flanagan JR. Eye-hand coordination in object manipulation. *Journal of Neuroscience* 2001; 21: 6917-32.
- Bobbio T, Gabbard C, Caçola P. Interlimb Coordination: An Important Facet of Gross-Motor Ability. *Early childhood & research practice* 2009;11:1-4.
- Jacqueline F, Léger H, Isabelle, Kervella, Claude, Marks et al. Changes in interhemispheric transfer rate and the development of bimanual coordination during childhood. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology* 2001; 80(1):1-22.
- Adam RD, Victor M, Rooper AH, 1997. Principles of neurology: Normal development of the nervous system. 6th Ed. Mc Graw Hill.
- Kwon M, Kim D-J, Cho H, Yang S. The Smartphone Addiction Scale: Development and Validation of a Short Version for Adolescents. *PLoS ONE* 2013; 8(12): e83558.
- Shetty AK, Shankar S, Annamalai N. Study of bimanual coordination among drivers. *IJBR* 2013;04:691-694.
- Ybama ML. Linkages between depressive symptomatology and Internet harassment among young regular users. *CyberPsychology & Behavior* 2004;7:247–257.
- İnal EE, Demirci k, Çetintürk A, Akgönül M, Savaş S. Effects of smartphone overuse on hand function, pinch strength, and the median nerve. *Muscle Nerve*. 2015;52(2):183-8.
- Sut HK, Kurt S, Uzal O, Ozdilek S. Effects Of Smartphone Addiction Level On Social And Educational Life In Health Sciences Students. *Euras J Fam Med* 2016;5(1):13-9.
- Stephan P, Swinnen, Wenderoth N. Two hands, one brain: cognitive neuroscience of bimanual skill *TRENDS in Cognitive Sciences*. 2004;8:1.
- Megna M, Gisonni P, Napolitano M, Orabona GD, Patruno C, Ayala F et al. The effect of smartphone addiction on hand joints in psoriatic patients: an ultrasound-based study. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2017;32:73-78.

Effect of Acute Exercise on Cognitive Control

Manish Kumar¹, Sunita¹, Ashok Sharan², Tarun Kumar³, Sanaul Mustafa Ansari⁴, Kumar Siddharth⁴

¹Associate Professor, ²Professor & Head, ³Additional Professor, ⁴Junior Resident (Academic), Department of Physiology, Indira Gandhi Institute of Medical Sciences, Patna

Abstract

Aim: To assess effect of acute exercise on attention and memory (Cognitive Control). **Introduction:** Studies have shown that exercise and cognition are positively correlated. Cognitive control encompasses core cognitive process like inhibition, working memory and cognitive flexibility. Key elements like selection, scheduling and coordinated programming process are needed for cognitive control is brought about by target oriented, self-regulatory operations of brain. This study was specifically designed to assess effect of acute exercise on attention and memory (Cognitive Control) in fifty healthy young male subjects in the age group of 17-25 years. **Material and Method:** Participant were instructed on methodology of Stroop colour Word Test, Ray Auditory Verbal Test and Complex figural test. Following instruction on methodology they were given five practice sessions. They were then divided in two group i.e. Group A had resting session on the second day and exercise session on the third day where as Group B had the session in exactly reverse order to that of group A. **Result:** After an acute session of exercise, the reaction time for Stroop colour condition, Stroop word condition and Strop colour word condition were decreased and this was found to statistically significant when compared to resting stage(before exercise). In case of backward digit span test and RAVLT total score, delayed recall and average recall no significant change was observed. The immediate recall time changed significantly after exercise. **Conclusion:** A single bout of moderate intensity acute exercise has its effect on selective attention subset of cognitive control.

Key words: Cognitive control, Acute aerobic exercise, Memory, Attention

Introduction

Several aspects of the cognitive function such as Executive function, Attention, Memory and Visual-spatial skills etc. were found to be enhanced after regular aerobic exercise both in person suffering from psychiatric disorder as well as in healthy subjects ^{1,2,3,4,5,6,7}.

Using investigational tool such as SPECT, PET and fMRI shows that aerobic exercise leads to change in the pattern of perfusion, glucose uptake and neurotransmitter release by areas of the brain tasked with cognitive control ^{8,9,10}.

Cognitive control encompasses core cognitive process like inhibition, working memory and cognitive flexibility. Key elements like selection, scheduling and coordinated programming process are needed for cognitive control that are brought about by target oriented, self-regulatory operations of brain ¹¹.

Works of Angevaren et al ¹². shows that particularly in adult population the effect of exercise on tasks falling under the canopy of cognitive control is relatively more compared to the other subsets of populations. This is supported by evidence gathered by Colcombe et al. Differential increment in gray and white matter volume in the areas of the brain i.e. prefrontal, parietal and temporal cortex which are known to play role in cognitive control was observed after exercise by them ^{13, 14}.

Corresponding Author:

Dr. Sunita,

Associate Professor, Department of Physiology
IGIMS, Patna. Email: dr.sunitaprasad@hotmail.com
Mobile: 8544413190

Most of the studies till date are directed towards elder population and have shown a positive correlation between physical activities and cognition. The recent

upsurge in the studies have somewhat ignored the age group of 17-25 Years. Research on this age group is particularly important in the sense that if this particular age group can be convinced of beneficial effect of exercise even for short duration on their cognitive functions then there are chances that they will imbibe the habit of regular exercise. This may as well act as a primordial prevention of dementia.

Material and Method

The study was specifically designed to assess effect of acute exercise on selective attention and memory (Cognitive Control) in fifty healthy young male subjects in the age group of 17-25 years.

Criteria for selection:

Not suffering from any illness like diabetes mellitus, hypertension, CKD, Psychiatric disorder, Neurological disease or any other illness which is known to impair cognitive performance.

No History of drug abuse including alcoholism.

Not practicing Yoga, Meditation, Biofeed back technique or any other relaxation technique.

No family history of Psychiatric illness.

The study was explained to the subjects and their informed consent was taken according to the ethical principles of Indian Council of Medical Research, New Delhi.

Procedure

The study was modeled as within the subject design; where participant themselves acted as a control. Participant came to the Exercise physiology laboratory in the department of Physiology on three different days (7 ± 6.5). They were instructed to come at the same time on all the three occasions and were also instructed not to indulge in any form physical exercise on the day of their scheduled visit.

Informed written consent was taken from the participant and resting heart rate was recorded after 15 minutes of seated rest using Cardivision Stress Test System, Medicaid India, on the first day of their visit. They were instructed on methodology of Stroop colour Word Test, Ray Auditory Verbal Test and Backward digit span. Following instruction on methodology they

were given five practice sessions. Any query about the test was answered. Participants were then divided in two group i.e. Group A had resting session on the second day and exercise session on the third day where as Group B had the session in exactly reverse order to that of group A. This was done to remove any change in the result due to the order of the session.

Exercise Protocol:

The participant exercised for twenty minutes on treadmill (Cardivision Stress Test System, Medicaid India) at 60% of maximum heart rate estimated by the formula i.e. $HR_{max}; 220 - Age$. Mean HR for this intensity was 120.4 ± 3.0 bpm which equaled to 59.7 ± 0.6 % of HR_{max} .

Stroop Colour Word Test ¹⁵:

Vitoria version of Stroop Colour Word Test was used. It consists of three 21.5X14 cm cards, each containing six rows of four items (Helvetica, 28 point in rows which are placed one centimeter apart. In Part D (Dots), the subject is instructed to name as quickly as possible the colour of 24 dots printed in blue, green, red, or yellow ink. Each color is used six times, and the four colors are arranged in a pseudorandom order within the array, each color appearing once in each row. Part W (Words) is similar to Part D, except that the dots are replaced by common words, printed in lowercase letters. The subject is required to name the colors in which the stimuli are printed and to disregard their verbal content. Part C (Colors) is similar to Parts D and W, but here the colored stimuli are the color names "blue, green, red, and yellow" printed in lowercase so that the print color never corresponds to the color name. This latter task thus requires the individual to inhibit an automatic reading response and to produce a more effortful color naming response. The time difference between part C and Part W is known as interference effect or Stroop effect.

The Rey Auditory Verbal learning Test (RAVLT) ¹⁶

RAVLT assessed verbal memory and learning. Participants were read a list of 15 common words five times. Immediately after each time, they were asked to recapitulate as many words as possible. After completion of the fifth trial, an interference list was presented following which subject had to spontaneously recall the original words. Finally, participants were required to spontaneously recall the original words after a 20 minute

delay. Scores were calculated as the total number of words recalled (1) across the five trials (total acquisition); (2) after the interference list (recall after interference); (3) on the fifth trial minus after the interference (loss after interference); and (4) after the delay (long delay free recall).

Backwards Digit Span test ¹⁷

In a standard Backwards Digit Span test, the length of the number-string increases by 1 and continues until participants fail two consecutive attempts at reciting strings of a given length—generating a score in relation to the maximum string-length successfully recited. Participants attempted to recite nine number-strings which were 3–11 digits in length, increasing with order.

Statistical Analysis

All data are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation

Table1: Comparison of before–exercise and after-exercise Neuropsychological tests score

Neuropsychological Test	Before-exercise Score(Mean \pm SD)	After-exercise Score(Mean \pm SD)	p-Value
RAVLT-Total Score	44.93 \pm 10.07	45.74 \pm 10.28	>0.05
RAVLT-Average Score	8.78 \pm 2.02	8.15 \pm 2.06	>0.05
RAVLT-Immediate Recall	8.98 \pm 2.86	7.95 \pm 2.68	<0.01
RAVLT-Delayed Recall	9.55 \pm 3.27	9.83 \pm 2.23	>0.05
Backward digit span test	4.61(1.54)	4.89(1.08)	>0.05
Stroop color condition(time in second)	18.87 \pm 6.9	13.82 \pm 2.2	<0.001
Stroop word condition(time in second)	26.68 \pm 5.2	19.5.4 \pm 2.7	<0.001
Stroop color-word condition(time in second)	38.56 \pm 8.3	29.80 \pm 3.6	<0.001
Stroop Interference(time in second)	16.82 \pm 7.1	12.57 \pm 4.2	<0.001

All results are expressed as Mean \pm standard deviation, p< 0.05 is considered significant

Discussion

Our finding suggests that a single acute session of moderate intensity aerobic exercise yielded a positive influence on the tasks requiring cognitive control.

In our study, the inhibitory control, a component of cognitive control, was assessed using Stroop's colour word test (SCWT). In SCWT, the colour condition and word condition are congruent task where as colour word

(SD).The analysis was performed using SPSS 17. Statistical significance was accepted at P<0.05. Comparisons among after exercise and before exercise were performed by two tailed paired t test.

Result

After an acute session of exercise, the reaction time for Stroop colour condition, Stroop word condition and Stroop colour word condition were decreased and this was found to be statistically significant when compared to resting stage(before exercise)

In case of backward digit span test and RAVLT total score, delayed recall and average recall no significant change was observed. The immediate recall time changed significantly after exercise.

condition is an incongruent task requiring sustained and selective attention to the task at hand and inattention to distracting task.

The reaction times were significantly decreased after an acute session of moderate intensity exercise in all the three condition i.e. Stroop colour, Stroop word and Stroop colour word condition when compared to the reaction time score before exercise condition.

Statistically significant change in interference (difference in reaction times for congruent and incongruent condition). The mean value of interference changed from 16.82 ± 7.1 second at before exercise to 12.57 ± 4.2 second in after exercise condition.

Acute moderate intensity continuous aerobic exercise can improve specific cognitive functions, such as short-term memory and selective attention. Before and after each experimental session, cognitive performance was assessed by the Victoria Version of the Stroop test (a selective attention test) by Alves CR et al. They were of opinion that following the exercise session, the time to complete the Stroop «Color word» test was significantly lower when compared with that of the control session. Our findings of change in reaction times in congruent and incongruent task conditions are similar to those of Alves CR et al.¹⁸.

Other studies also report similar finding on the Stroop colour word test but they were on either the preadolescent or elderly population^{7, 8, 11, 19}.

Backward Digit span test is primarily employed as a test for short term memory. Alves CR et al. assessed the effects of an acute high-intensity interval training (HIT) session on short-term memory tasks. The performances Digit Span test was not significantly different and thus their result being congruent with that of our observation, but in their case the mean age group was 53.7 years¹⁸.

Vasques PE et al after their study on elderly depressed patients were of conclusion that the Digit Span Test did not change significantly on comparison between the control and the exercise sessions. The results of the Stroop Color-Word Test improved after physical exercise, indicating a positive effect of exercise on cognition. Their finding is also similar to ours but again there is the difference in the age group.

We observed that RAVLT score didn't change significantly after exercise session in terms of total recall, average recall and delayed recall. The change was significant when immediate recall was considered.

RAVLT as a test for short term memory was included in the study undertaken by Nagamatsu LS et al. They had a similar finding but in their case the study group consisted of elderly adult with mild cognitive impairment.

Conclusion

A single bout of moderate intensity acute exercise has its positive effect on selective attention, a subset of cognitive control.

Conflict of Interest: None

Ethical Clearance: Taken

Source of Funding: Self

Acknowledgement: Nil

References

1. Etner J, Salazar W, Landers D, Petruzzello S, Han M, Nowell P. The influence of physical fitness and exercise upon cognitive functioning: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*. 1997; 19:249–277.
2. Etner JL, Nowell PM, Landers DM, Sibley BA. A meta-regression to examine the relationship between aerobic fitness and cognitive performance. *Brain Research Reviews*. 2006; 52:119–130. [PubMed: 16490256]
3. Colcombe S, Kramer AF. Fitness effects on the cognitive function of older adults: A meta-analytic study. *Psychological Science*. 2003; 14:125–130. [PubMed: 12661673]
4. Heyn P, Abreu BC, Ottenbacher KJ. The effects of exercise training on elderly persons with cognitive impairment and dementia: A meta-analysis. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*. 2004; 85:1694–1704. [PubMed: 15468033]
5. Logsdon RG, Gibbons LE, McCurry SM, Teri L. Assessing quality of life in older adults with cognitive impairment. *Psychosomatic Medicine*. 2002; 64:510–519. [PubMed: 12021425]
6. Palleschi L, Vetta F, De Gennaro E, Idone G, Scottosanti G, Gianni W, Marigliano V. Effect of aerobic training on the cognitive performance of elderly patients with senile dementia of Alzheimer type. *Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics*. 1996; 5:47–50.
7. Vogel T, Brechat PH, Lepretre PM, Kaltenbach G, Berthel M, Lonsdorfer J. Health benefits of physical activity in older patients: A review. *International Journal of Clinical Practice*. 2009; 63:303–320. [PubMed: 19196369]

8. Erickson KI, Prakash RS, Voss MW, Chaddock L, Hu L, Morris KS, Kramer AF: Aerobic fitness is associated with hippocampal volume in elderly humans. *Hippocampus* 2009, 19(10):1030–1039
9. Erickson KI, Voss MW, Prakash RS, Basak C, Szabo A, Chaddock L, Kramer AF: Exercise training increases size of hippocampus and improves memory. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2011, 108(7):3017–3022.
10. Chaddock L, Erickson KI, Prakash RS, Kim JS, Voss MW, Vanpatter M, Pontifex MB, Raine LB, Konkel A, Hillman CH, Cohen NJ, Kramer AF. A neuroimaging investigation of the association between aerobic fitness, hippocampal volume, and memory performance in preadolescent children. *Brain Research*. 2010:1–12.
11. Hillman CH, Pontifex MB, Raine LB, Castelli MD, Hall EC, Kramer AF. The effect of acute treadmill walking on cognitive control and academic achievement in preadolescent children. *Neuroscience*. 2009 March 31; 159(3): 1044–1054.
12. Angevaren, M.; Aufdemkampe, G.; Verhaar, HJJ.; Aleman, A.; Vanhees, L. The Cochrane Collaboration. West Sussex: Wiley & Sons; 2008. Physical activity and enhanced fitness to improve cognitive function in older people without known cognitive impairment (Review); p. 1-98.
13. Colcombe SJ, Kramer AF, Erickson KI, Scalf P, McAuley E, Cohen NJ, Webb A, Jerome GJ, Marquez DX, Elavsky S. Cardiovascular fitness, cortical plasticity, and aging. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2004;101:3316–3321. [PubMed: 14978288]
14. Colcombe SJ, Erickson KI, Scalf PE, Kim JS, Prakash R, McAuley E, Elavsky S, Marquez DX, Hu L, Kramer AF. Aerobic exercise training increases brain volume in aging humans. *J Gerontol: Med Sci* 2006;61:1166–1170.
15. Strauss, E. Sherman, E. and Spreen, O.(2003) *A compendium of neuropsychological tests*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
16. Williamson JD, Espeland M, Kritchevsky BS, Newman AB, King AC, Pahor M, Guralnik JM, Pruitt LA, Miller EM, 9 for the LIFE Study Investigators. Changes in Cognitive Function in a Randomized Trial of Physical Activity: Results of the Lifestyle Interventions and Independence for Elders Pilot Study. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 2009. Vol. 64A, No. 6, 688–694.
17. Rogerson M, Barton J. Effects of the Visual Exercise Environments on Cognitive Directed Attention, Energy Expenditure and Perceived Exertion. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* 2015, 12, 7321-7336.
18. Alves CR, Tessaro VH, Teixeira LA, Murakava K, Roschel H, Gualano B, Takito MY. Influence of acute high-intensity aerobic interval exercise bout on selective attention and short-term memory tasks. *Percept Motor Skills* 2014 Feb;118(1):63-72.
19. Haverson AT, Hannon JC, Brusseau TA, Podlog L, Papadopolus C, Durrant LH, Hall MS, Kang KD. Res Q Exel Sport. Acute Effects of 30 Minutes Resistance and Aerobic Exercise on Cognition in a High School Sample. 2016 Jun; 87(2):214-20.
20. Vasques PE, Moraes H, Silveira H, Deslandes AC Laks J. Acute exercise improves cognition in the depressed elderly: the effect of dual-tasks. *Clinics(Sao Paulo)*. 2011;66(9):1553-7.
21. Nagamatsu LS, Chan A, Davis JC, Beattie BL, Grat P, Voss MW, Liu Ambrose T. Physical activity improves verbal and spatial memory in older adults with probable mild cognitive impairment: a 6-month randomized controlled trial. *J Aging Res*. 2013;2013:861893.

Relevance of 2D:4D Ratio as a Marker of Depression in Adolescents of a South Indian Medical College – A Cross Sectional Study

Saravanakumar Jeevanandam¹, K. Muthu Prathibha², Raman. K³

¹CRRI, Saveetha Medical College, Thandalam, Chennai, ²Associate Professor, Department of Physiology, ³Associate Professor, Department of Psychiatry, Saveetha Medical College, Thandalam, Chennai

Abstract

Context: Digit ratio is a sexually dimorphic trait which is negatively correlated to prenatal testosterone exposure. 2D:4D ratio has been associated with numerous physiological, psychological and performance traits in adulthood. The alarming rise of depression in adolescents poses a huge worldwide threat. Men with lower 2D:4D ratios showed lower aggression scores while those with higher ratios had higher incidence of depression.

Aim: To compare the 2D:4D ratio of the adolescents between sexes and evaluate the association between digit ratio & depression.

Settings & Design: In the present cross sectional study, 269 adolescents of 18-19 years of age were included by stratified random sampling. A single trained examiner measured the 2D:4D ratios of the participants using digital vernier calipers. Depression scores were calculated using Beck's Depression Inventory.

Statistical analysis: Using SPSS version 17.0, comparison of digit ratios was done using unpaired Student t test.

Results: Mean 2D:4D ratio of the study population was 0.97 ± 0.082 . There was no significant difference in mean 2D:4D ratios (Males=Females) and mean depression scores between sexes (Males >Females). Mean 2D:4D ratios of the depressed individuals were lower than that of the non-depressed individuals. ($p=0.05$) There was no significant correlation between 2D:4D ratio and the depression scores.

Conclusion: The present study revealed borderline significance in difference in 2D:4D ratios between the depressed and non-depressed individuals among the study population. 2D:4D ratio could be used as a non-invasive tool to predictably forecast the proneness of child to depression in future.

Keywords: Digit ratio; 2D:4D ratio; depression; adolescence; prenatal testosterone

Introduction

2D:4D ratio or the ratio of the lengths of index finger (2D) and the ring finger (4D) is sexually dimorphic with

males showing lower ratios when compared to females. Digit lengths and ratios have been hypothesized to be proxy markers for prenatal androgen exposure.¹ The fourth digit tends to be longer than the second in men. On the other hand, in women, the two digits tend to be identical in length or occasionally the ring finger is longer.^{2,3} Masculine or lower 2D: 4D ratios indicate higher prenatal testosterone exposure and vice versa.⁴ An earlier study reported the average digit ratios to be 0.947 ± 0.029 and 0.965 ± 0.026 , respectively in males and females.⁵ In an Indian population, the mean digit ratios

Corresponding author:

Dr. K. Muthu Prathibha MD

Associate Professor, Department of Physiology,
Saveetha Medical College, Thandalam,
Chennai - 602 105, e-mail: drmuthuprathi@gmail.com
Mobile No: 9840699742

were found to be 0.96 and 0.97 in males and females, respectively.^{6,7} At the molecular level, studies have reported that prenatal sex steroids affect the expression of Hox A genes, which are also responsible for the growth of digits.⁸

Traits ranging from handedness, musical abilities, numerical and spatial skills and sporting capabilities have been reported to be associated with the digit ratios in different populations.⁹ Lower or masculinised 2D:4D ratios showed a relationship with better arithmetic, visual and spatial skills.¹⁰ Men with lower (masculine) 2D:4D ratios showed lower aggression scores while men with higher (feminine) ratios scored higher on a test for depression.¹¹

Depression is forecasted to be a huge burden on all nations with projections expecting depression to reach the second place in the ranking of disability-adjusted life years.¹² A school based cross sectional study among urban adolescents in South India reported 60.8% of the study population to be depressed.^{13,14} The findings of research conducted on the relationship between depression and digit ratios are highly variable. Further, the prevalence of depression amongst adolescents is also on alarming rise. Hence, we conducted the present study to understand the relevance of 2D:4D ratio as a marker of depression.

Material and Method

Study setting and population:

After obtaining ethical clearance and informed consent, the present cross sectional study was conducted on 168 adolescents of 18 – 19 years of age pursuing Medicine at South Indian Medical College. Participants with any history of injury in the second and/or fourth digits were excluded from the study.

Measurement of 2D:4D ratio:

The lengths of the second and fourth digits were measured from the fingertip to the ventral proximal crease using digital vernier calipers. It has been consistently shown that digit ratio is more strongly differentiated on the right hand than left.¹⁵ Further, personality and behavioural traits have also been found to correlate

more strongly with right hand digit ratio than left.^{7,15} Hence, we measured 2D:4D ratios of the right hand only. Two measurements were taken on the right hand by the same examiner. The examiner was well trained and the instrument was calibrated prior to the conduct of the experiment. The ratio was calculated by dividing the mean index finger length (mm) and mean ring finger length (mm) for the right hand.

Administration of Beck's Depression Inventory:

The BDI (Beck Depression Inventory) was used to measure depression. It is a self-reported questionnaire containing 21 questions with four possible responses to measure the intensity, severity & depth of depression.¹⁶ Each response is assigned a score ranging from zero to three, indicating the severity of the depression. The subject required about 10 minutes for completing the questionnaire.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was done using SPSS 16.0 and STATA 11.0. The correlation between 2D:4D ratio and mean scores for the depression questionnaire was tested using Spearman correlation coefficient. The mean 2D:4D ratios and scores of the Beck Depression Inventory were compared between the sexes and right & left hands using student t test and Mann Whitney U Test, respectively. Comparison between the mean 2D:4D ratios of the 5 groups based on depression scores was done using one way ANOVA.

Findings

The sample size of the present study was 270 (Males = 100; Females = 170) according to the stratification applied while sampling. The mean age of the study participants was 18.32 ± 0.988 . The mean 2D:4D ratio of the population was 0.97 ± 0.082 . The mean depression score of the study population was 11.84 ± 9.009 . Males had 2D:4D ratios that were almost equal to that of females. Males were found to have higher depression scores when compared to females, though not statistically significant. (Table 1)

Table 1: Comparison of 2D:4D ratio and depression scores of males and females

Variable	Sex	Mean	SEM	Mann whitney U/ T statistic	p value
Depression score	Male	12.62	1.064	8342.5 ¹	0.254
	Female	11.39	0.605		
2D:4Dratio	Male	0.968	0.0082	0.459 ²	0.647
	Female	0.964	0.0062		

¹ Mann Whitney U, ² t statistic

The study participants were broadly grouped into depressed and non-depressed individuals. Overall, 78 (28.9%) of the study participants were depressed. Thirty one (31%) males and 47(27.6%) females were found to be depressed. The mean 2D:4D ratios of the depressed individuals were lower than that of the non-depressed individuals. (Depressed: 0.950 ± 0.113 ; Non depressed: 0.971 ± 0.0604) The difference achieved borderline statistical significance. (t statistic =1.941; p value: 0.053). However, there was no significant correlation between 2D:4D ratio and the depression scores. (Spearman correlation = -0.016, p=0.798).

The study participants were further categorized based on their depression scores into 5 groups – Normal (Score: 0 -10), Mild mood disturbance (Score: 11 -14), Borderline Clinical depression (Score:15 -20), Moderate depression (Score:0 -10),Severe depression (Score:0 -10) and extreme depression (Score:0 - 10). Using ANOVA, the differences between the mean 2D:4D ratios of the 5 groups were found to be statistically significant, however with a borderline p value of 0.055. (Table 2)

Table 2: Comparison of mean 2D:4D ratios across various categories of depression

Depression category	Mean	SD	95% CI for Mean		ANOVA F statistic	p value
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Normal	0.975565	0.0727876	0.962885	0.988246	2.195	0.055**
Mild mood disturbance	0.962984	0.0382766	0.953344	0.972624		
Borderline clinical depression	0.976914	0.0340232	0.962547	0.991281		
Moderate depression	0.922647	0.1864526	0.848889	0.996406		
Severe depression	0.961823	0.0222793	0.948360	0.975286		
Extreme depression	0.944882	0.0357652	0.923269	0.966495		
Total	0.965281	0.0817864	0.955463	0.975098		

Discussion

Digit ratio is a sexually dimorphic trait. Analysis of amniocentesis samples showed that, digit ratio is negatively correlated to prenatal testosterone & positively to oestrogen levels. It has been reported that prenatal testosterone may modulate striatally based dopaminergic circuits and place boys at greater risk of disruptive behavioural disorders. Further, oestrogen at puberty may have certain effects on the serotonergic pathways and place girls at greater risk for mood disorders. Also, higher digit ratios, more commonly observed in females have been reported to be associated with depression.¹¹

The mean 2D:4D ratio of the study population was 0.97 ± 0.082 . The mean 2D:4D ratios of males and females were almost equal without any statistically significant difference. The ratios tabulated in the participants of the present study were similar with those reported by Bailey et al.¹¹ Lack of gender difference in the present study was in concurrence with the observations of Bull et al.¹⁷ Non significant differences between 2D:4D ratios between the sexes were observed in the adolescents by Austin et al.¹⁸ Findings similar to the present study were also observed in a study Meera Jacob et al.¹⁹ They reported almost equal digit ratio for the left hand and males had greater 2D:4D for right hand. In a study on association of digit ratios to ethnicity, the 2D:4D ratio was lower in males than in females and this was significant for the Uygur, Han and Jamaican samples.⁷

The mean depression score of the study population was 11.84 ± 9.009 . In the present study, males were found to have higher depression scores when compared to females, though not statistically significant. This was in concurrence with Bailey et al.¹¹ One out of every four secondary school students in Trinidad was found to have significant depression.²⁰ In urban adolescents of Chennai and South India, the prevalence was estimated to be approximately 60%.^{13,19}

The authors grouped the study population as two broad categories - depressed and non-depressed individuals. The cut off score of >16 was the criteria for depression. The mean 2D:4D ratios of the depressed individuals were lower than that of the non-depressed individuals. In the present study, there was no statistically significant correlation between 2D:4D ratios & depression. This finding in our study was contradictory to Bailey et al and Martin et al.^{1,11} The former showed

higher digit ratios to be associated with high scores of depression while low digit ratios showed correlation in the study conducted by the latter.

Austin et al. (2002) also failed to find a significant relationship between severity of depression and finger length ratio.¹⁸ However, the mean 2D:4D ratio of the depressed individuals was lower than those without depression. Martin, Manning and Dowrick have attributed the increased risk of clinical depression to high organizational testosterone in men.¹¹ They have reported data demonstrating a non-significant trend towards higher depression in men with more masculine finger length ratios. This finding was similar to the present study. On the contrary, depression being more common in women globally, Bailey et al hypothesised and then reported higher prevalence of depression in men with feminine ratios and low prenatal testosterone exposure.²¹

At the start of the present study, the authors hypothesised that higher or more feminine digit ratios should correlate with higher scores for depression within each sex. This hypothesis was predominantly assumed based on the fact that the risk and prevalence of major depression is about twice as high for females compared to males.²² The authors conducted a pilot study of measurement of 2D:4D ratios in 30 clinically diagnosed cases of Major Depressive Disorders and compared it with 30 healthy controls which reported that 84% of study population had higher digit ratios and the difference was statistically significant. (Submitted for publication elsewhere). The pilot study results were concurrent with those of Bailey P Hurd et al.^{11,23} However, when the authors pursued the study on a larger scale in 270 adolescents, lower 2D:4D ratios were associated with higher depression scores. The results of the main study were concurrent with Martin et al and contradictory to Bailey P Hurd et al.^{1,11}

Depression, being a sexually dimorphic trait is more likely to be influenced by prenatal testosterone. It was surprising to note borderline significance between the 2D:4D ratios of depressed and non-depressed groups, despite an adequate sample size of both males and females. One of the probable reasons could be that depression was rated using a different scale (Neo PI scale) by the other studies, while the authors of the current study used the Beck's Depression Inventory. It has been suggested that tests like Beck's Depression

Inventory and Zung Self rating depression scale might not be able to detect small differences in non-clinical populations.

Further, the study conducted by Bailey P Hurd et al used scanned copies of hands and digits and the lengths and ratios were calculated using the GNU Image Manipulation Program (GIMP) measure tool.¹¹ The present study used measurements taken by a single investigator using digital vernier calipers. Photocopies yielded lower digit ratio measurements when compared to digital callipers and hence the authors preferred the latter to pick significant differences, if any.^{24,25} The authors might have been unable to detect a highly significant correlation between depression scores and 2D:4D ratios due to a limited amount of variation in 2D:4D in the study population as well as using a state depression assay on a non-clinical population. Further, the role of uncontrolled effects of menstrual cycles and/or hormonal medications have been implicated in concealing the variations in depression scores in females and these factors were not taken into account in the present study.²⁵

Conclusion

Digit ratio, being constant since birth, can be used as a marker in the early identification of children prone to depression. It is a non-invasive measure that can predictably forecast the proneness of a child to depression in the future. Based on the digit ratios, one can plan early life style interventions to avoid or delay the onset of the depression or at the least, facilitate its early diagnosis. The present study revealed borderline significance in difference in 2D:4D ratios between the depressed and non-depressed individuals among the study population. Significant variations could be appreciated if future studies can be planned and conducted on even larger samples and subjects with a clinical diagnosis of depression.

Conflict of Interest: The authors hereby declare that there are no conflicting interests.

Source of Funding: The project was funded by the ICMR STS -2015 - Reference ID: 2015 – 00473.

Ethical Clearance: Obtained from Institutional Human Ethics Committee

References

1. Martin S. Fluctuating Asymmetry, Relative Digit Length, and Depression in Men. *Evol Hum Behav.* 1999;20(3):203–14.
2. Phelps VR. Relative index finger length as a sex-influenced trait in man. *Am J Hum Genet.* 1952;4(2):72–89.
3. Manning JT, Scutt D, Wilson J, Lewis-Jones DI. The ratio of 2nd to 4th digit length: a predictor of sperm numbers and concentrations of testosterone, luteinizing hormone and oestrogen. *Human Reproduction (Oxford, England).* 1998 Nov 1;13(11):3000-4.
4. Swaddle JP. Digit Ratio: A Pointer to Fertility, Behavior, and Health. *Heredity (Edinb).* 2002;89(5):403–403.
5. A.E. Einige Bemerkungen über einen Schwankenden Charakter in den Hand des Menschen [Some remarks about a varying character in the hand of humans]. 8th ed. *Archiv für Anthropologie*; 1875. 68–74 p.
6. Jain M, Dhall U, Pandey S, Jain S. Second to Fourth Digit Ratio(2D:4D) in North-West Indians: Sexual Dimorphism. *J Anat Soc India.* 2012;61(2):242–5.
7. Manning JT, Henzi P, Venkatramana P, Martin S, Singh D. Second to fourth digit ratio: Ethnic differences and family size in English, Indian and South African populations. *Ann Hum Biol.* 2003;30(5):579–88.
8. Kondo T, Zakany J, Innis JW, Duboule D. Of fingers, toes and penises. Vol. 390, *Nature.* 1997. p. 29.
9. Luxen MF, Buunk BP. Second-to-fourth digit ratio related to Verbal and Numerical Intelligence and the Big Five. *Pers Individ Dif.* 2005;39(5):959–66.
10. Geary DC, Saults SJ, Liu F, Hoard MK. Sex Differences in Spatial Cognition Psychology, Computational Fluency and Arithmetical Reasoning. *J Exp Child.* 2000;77(4):337–53.
11. Bailey AA, Hurd PL. Depression in men is associated with more feminine finger length ratios. *Pers Individ Dif.* 2005;39(4):829–36.
12. Basker M, Moses PD, Russell S, Russell PSS. The psychometric properties of beck depression Inventory for adolescent depression in a primary-care paediatric setting in India. *Child Adolesc*

- Psychiatry Ment Health. 2007;1(1):8.
13. Mohanraj R, Subbaiah K. Prevalence of Depressive Symptoms among Urban Adolescents of South India. *J Indian Assoc Child Adolesc Ment Heal*. 2010;6(2):33–43.
 14. Goyal S, Srivastava K, Bansal V. Study of prevalence of depression in adolescent students of a public school. *Ind Psychiatry J*. 2009 ;18(1):43.
 15. Malas MA, Dogan S, Hilal Evcil E, Desdicioglu K. Fetal development of the hand, digits and digit ratio (2D : 4D). *Early Hum Dev*. 2006;82(7):469–75.
 16. Beck AT, Steer RA, Carbin MG. Psychometric properties of the Beck Depression Inventory: Twenty-five years of evaluation. *Clin Psychol Rev*. 1988;8(1):77–100.
 17. Bull R, Davidson WA, Nordmann E. Prenatal testosterone, visual-spatial memory, and numerical skills in young children. *Learn Individ Differ*. 2010;20(3):246–50.
 18. Austin EJ, Manning JT, McInroy K, Mathews E. A preliminary investigation of the associations between personality, cognitive ability and digit ratio. *Personality and individual differences*. 2002 Nov 1;33(7):1115-24.
 19. Meera Jacob, Ramakrishna Avadhani , Bindhu Nair RN. Cross sectional study of second and fourth digit ratio with physical attributes in South Indian population. *Int J Anat Res*. 2015;Vol 3:1133–7.
 20. Maharaj RG, Alli F, Cumberbatch K, Laloo P, Mohammed S, Ramesar A, et al. Depression among adolescents, aged 13-19 years, attending secondary schools in Trinidad prevalence and associated factors. *West Indian Med J*. 2008;57(4):352–9.
 21. Bailey AA, Hurd PL. Finger length ratio (2D:4D) correlates with physical aggression in men but not in women. *Biol Psychol*. 2005;68(3):215–22.
 22. Poongothai S, Pradeepa R, Ganesan A, Mohan V. Prevalence of depression in a large urban South Indian population—The Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology study (CURES–70). *PLoS One*. 2009;4(9):e7185.
 23. Manning JT, Wood S, Vang E, Walton J, Bundred PE, Van Heyningen C, Lewis-Jones DI. Second to fourth digit ratio (2D: 4D) and testosterone in men. *Asian Journal of Andrology*. 2004;6(3):211-6.
 24. Manning JT, Fink B, Neave N, Caswell N. Photocopies yield lower digit ratios (2D: 4D) than direct finger measurements. *Archives of sexual behavior*. 2005 Jun 1;34(3):329-33.

Correlation Between Body Mass Index (BMI), Body Appreciation Score and Emotional Intelligence in Undergraduate Medical Students

Kamalakaran Vadivel¹, Nilesh N Kate², Arshiya Zeba³

¹Assistant Professor, ²Associate Professor, ³Tutor, Dept. of Physiology, ESIC Medical College, Gulbarga, Karnataka

Abstract

Introduction: Body appreciation score (BAS) is used to assess the positive attitude towards body image. Individuals with positive image were found to have higher emotional intelligence (EI). Body perception is influenced by the body weight. In this study we proposed to correlate the relationship between BMI, BAS and EI.

Materials and Method: It is an observational study. The study population comprised of undergraduate medical students aged between 18 – 24 years. Subjects on chronic medication for medical illness were excluded. We recruited 100 subjects (male 44, female 56, age 18 – 21).

A stadiometer was used to measure the height. We measured weight using digital weighing machine. BMI was calculated using Quetelet formula. The BAS2 questionnaire and The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) were administered to the participants. They were asked to score each questions on the Likert scale from 1 to 5.

Results: The means of the various parameters between males and females were compared using Student's t-test. There were no statistically significant differences between male and female students in terms of age, BMI, BAS2 and EI. The BAS2 score of different BMI categories were not different. The SSEIQ scores were not statistically different between each BMI categories. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between BMI and BAS 2 score ($r = -0.002$), BMI and SSEIQ ($r = 0.051$) and BAS 2 score and SSEIQ ($r = 0.19$). There was no correlation between the two variables in any of the above cases.

Conclusion: BAS2 score was similar in both males and females of varying BMI. The SSEIQ scores were less for underweight students when compared with students with normal weight. The SSEIQ scores are relatively more in females than males. The BMI, BAS score and EI were not related.

Key words: BMI, body appreciation, body image, emotional intelligence

Introduction

Body image is a complex, multidimensional construct which includes self-perception and attitude towards body. Body appreciation considers positive components of the body image^{1,2}. Body appreciation is

defined as accepting, holding favorable opinions toward and respecting the body, while also rejecting media promoted appearance ideals as the only form of beauty³. Positive body image is associated with favorable health outcome, wellbeing, and high self-esteem¹. Earlier reports have suggested that higher BMI is negatively associated with well-being and quality of life⁴⁻⁷.

Corresponding author:

Dr Kamalakannan V

Assistant Professor, Dept. of Physiology, ESIC Medical College, Gulbarga, Karnataka;
email: vk.kannan83@gmail.com

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a type of intelligence which enables an individual to observe the emotions of self and of other's, to discriminate them and to use the

information to modulate the thinking and action. EI is used as tool for the prediction of leadership abilities, which in turn governs the performance and attitude⁸. It is also found to be a predictor of academic and professional success^{9,10}. Reports have shown that individual with positive body perception were found to have higher EI¹¹ and higher EI is associated with health and well-being¹².

In this study we proposed to study the correlation between BMI, body appreciation score 2 (BAS2) and Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) score among the first year medical undergraduate students as the data for the same is not available for Indian setting.

We hypothesized that individuals with extremes of BMI will be associated with lesser BAS2 score in both gender and individuals with normal BMI will have higher BAS2 score. Individuals with higher BAS2 score will have higher EI. We also propose to study the relationship between BMI and EI.

Materials and Method

It is an observational study, conducted in the Dept. of Physiology, ESIC Medical College, Gulbarga. The study was approved by the institutional ethical committee for human studies. The study population comprised of medical students aged between 18 – 24 years. Subjects on chronic medication for medical illness were excluded.

We recruited 100 subjects (male 44, female 56, age 18 – 21) with above inclusion and exclusion criteria. Written informed consent was obtained after detailed explanation of the study.

A wall mounted stadiometer, accurate to the nearest 0.1 cm is used to measure the height. We measured weight using digital weighing machine accurate to the nearest 0.1 kg. BMI was calculated by using Quetelet formula i.e. $BMI = \text{body weight (kg)} \div \text{Height (m}^2\text{)}$. All the measurements were taken by the same investigator.

The BAS2 questionnaire was given to all the

participants and were asked to score each of the questions on the Likert scale from 5 to 1¹³ (Table 1).

The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) comprising of 33 questionnaire were administered to the participants¹⁴ (Table 2). The questions were to be scored based on the Likert's scale from 1 to 5. The total score is given on a scale from 33 to 165. Score less than 111 will be considered to be low and scores above 137 will be considered to be high¹⁵.

Body Appreciation Scale-2

Directions for participants: For each statement below, using the Likert scale please indicate the best response that represents how you feel about your body

1 = Never, 2 = Seldom, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Always

Table 1: Body appreciation scale2

I respect my body.
I feel good about my body.
I feel that my body has at least some good qualities.
I take a positive attitude towards my body.
I am attentive to my body's needs.
I feel love for my body.
I appreciate the different and unique characteristics of my body.
My behavior reveals my positive attitude toward my body; for example, I hold my head high and smile.
I am comfortable in my body.
I feel like I am beautiful even if I am different from media images of attractive people (e.g, models, actresses/actors)

Instructions: For each question below, using the Likert scale please indicate how much you agree or disagree with it.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

Table 2: The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

I know when to speak about my personal problems to others
When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them
I expect that I will do well on most things I try
Other people find it easy to confide in me
I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people*
Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important
When my mood changes, I see new possibilities
Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living
I am aware of my emotions as I experience them
I expect good things to happen
I like to share my emotions with others
When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last
I arrange events others enjoy
I seek out activities that make me happy
I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others
I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others
When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me
By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing
I know why my emotions change
When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas
I have control over my emotions
I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them
I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on
I compliment others when they have done something well
I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send
When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself
When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas
When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail*
I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them
I help other people feel better when they are down
I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles
I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice
It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do*

Results

The descriptive statistics of the various parameters are summarized in Table 3. The means of the various parameters between males and females were compared

using Student's t-test. There were no statistically significant differences between male and female students in any of the parameters studied.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of Age, BMI, BAS2 & SSEIQ

Participants	Age (mean and SD)	BMI	BAS2 (mean and SD)	SSEIQ
Male = 44	19.045 ± 0.94	19.89 ± 2.71	43.5 ± 5.35	125.16 ± 16.40
Female = 56	18.92 ± 0.91	19.44 ± 2.73	43.05 ± 4.47	129.39 ± 13.34
p value	0.53	0.41	0.65	0.15

The relative percentage of underweight, normal weight, overweight and obese individuals in males and females is shown in Table 4. Percentage of overweight and underweight was relatively more in females than in males. Male were found to have higher percentage of normal weight.

Table 4: BMI Characteristics of study population

BMI	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage
Underweight	16	36	23	41
Normal	27	62	29	52
Overweight	1	2	4	7
Obese	0	0	0	0

The mean and SD of BAS2 scores of male and female students in the different BMI categories are summarized in Table 4. The BAS 2 scores for each BMI category in both males and females. There was no significant difference in BAS 2 scores in both gender for different BMI categories. The BAS 2 score was relatively less in overweight individuals than normal and underweight category in both gender although not

statistically significant as shown in Table 5.

The mean BAS 2 scores of the different BMI categories of the male students and female students were compared amongst themselves using ANOVA. There were no statistically significant differences seen in both the cases ($p = 0.42$ in case of males and $p = 0.48$ in case of females).

Table 5: Mean BAS 2 scores for each BMI category

BMI	Female	Male	p value
Underweight	43.65 ± 3.71	42.75 ± 6.31	0.57
Normal	42.89 ± 4.59	44.18 ± 4.74	0.32
Overweight	40.75 ± 7.68	38 ± 0.0	0.77
Obese	0	0	0

The mean and SD of SSEIQ scores of male and female students belonging to the different BMI categories are summarized in Table 6. The mean SSEIQ scores for each category of BMI were compared between the female and the male students using the Student's t-test. There were no statistically significant differences in any of the categories. Also the means of the SSEIQ scores

of the male and females in the different BMI categories were compared using ANOVA. There was no statistically significant difference in the both the comparisons ($p = 0.58$ in male students and $p = 0.85$ in female students). The SSEIQ score is found to be higher in females of all BMI category than males though not statistically significant.

Table 6: Mean SSEIQ score for each BMI category

BMI	Female	Male	p value
Underweight	130.61 ± 14.03	122.19 ± 23.79	0.17
Normal	128.59 ± 12.84	127.19 ± 10.33	0.65
Overweight	128.25 ± 16.21	118.00 ± 0.00	0.61
Obese	0	0	0

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to assess the relation between BMI and BAS 2 score ($r = -0.002$), BMI and SSEIQ ($r = 0.051$) and BAS 2 score and SSEIQ ($r = 0.19$). There was no correlation between the two variables in any of the above cases.

Discussion

In our study population we found that over 36% of males and 41% of female students were underweight and 2% of males and 7% of females were overweight and none were obese based on BMI. The BAS2 is a positive measure of body image and is associated with appreciation evaluation, body-esteem, and mental well-being¹³. Our results have shown that there is no significant difference in BAS 2 scores between males and females. We observed that BAS2 score was comparatively less in both males and females who were overweight based on BMI. Individuals who are overweight have tendency to have lower body appreciation as evidenced by relatively low BAS2 scores compared to normal and underweight individuals. It is well established that individuals who have high body appreciation were found to have eating behavior in accordance with physiological hunger and satiety cues¹⁶.

In our study we observed that there was no significant difference between SSEIT scores in both males and females of study population. There are many studies which emphasize the role of EI in health and well-being¹². Higher EI is associated with higher empathy, which is considered to be an important trait in medical students¹⁷. Though it is said that there is a difference in emotional intelligence between males and females^{18,19}, we could not find any difference statistically in our study population.

The SSEIT scores were relatively higher in females of all BMI when compared with that of males of BMI

category though not statistically significant. The role of empathy has been emphasized as a critical element for effective communication between doctors and the patient.^{17,18,20-22} Females tend to be emotionally more emphatic than males and were found to have higher EQ than males. They also tend to express emotions more skillfully than males. The observed difference in EQ with respect to gender may be due to differential cortical processing in females.

Conclusion

BAS2 score was similar in both males and females of varying BMI. In our study, we observed that there is NO relationship between BAS2 score, SSEIT score and the BMI. The BMI, BAS score and EI were not related.

Limitations

The sample size in our study is 100. We have considered BMI as a measure to differentiate the groups.

Conflicts of Interest: None

Funding: Self

References

- Swami V, Weis L, Barron D, Furnham A. Positive body image is positively associated with hedonic (emotional) and eudaimonic (psychological and social) well-being in British adults. *J Soc Psychol.* 2017 Oct 20;1-12.
- Tylka TL, Wood-Barcalow NL. What is and what is not positive body image? Conceptual foundations and construct definition. *Body Image.* 2015 Jun;14:118-29.
- Avalos L, Tylka TL, Wood-Barcalow N. The Body Appreciation Scale: Development and psychometric evaluation. *Body Image.* 2005

- Sep;2(3):285–97.
4. Williams EP, Mesidor M, Winters K, Dubbert PM, Wyatt SB. Overweight and Obesity: Prevalence, Consequences, and Causes of a Growing Public Health Problem. *Curr Obes Rep*. 2015 Sep;4(3):363–70.
 5. Fontaine KR, Barofsky I. Obesity and health-related quality of life. *Obesity Reviews*. 2001 Dec 21;2(3):173–82.
 6. Sullivan PW, Ghushchyan V, Wyatt HR, Wu EQ, Hill JO. Impact of cardiometabolic risk factor clusters on health-related quality of life in the U.S. *Obesity (Silver Spring)*. 2007 Feb;15(2):511–21.
 7. de Wit L, Luppino F, van Straten A, Penninx B, Zitman F, Cuijpers P. Depression and obesity: a meta-analysis of community-based studies. *Psychiatry Res*. 2010 Jul 30;178(2):230–5.
 8. Allen RB. Emotional Intelligence as a Leadership Predictor [Internet]. *Huffington Post*. 2016 [cited 2018 Apr 8]. Available from: https://www.huffingtonpost.com/rita-balian-allen/emotional-intelligence-as_b_11072138.html
 9. Romanelli F, Cain J, Smith KM. Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of Academic and/or Professional Success. *Am J Pharm Educ [Internet]*. 2006 Jun 15 [cited 2018 Apr 8];70(3). Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1636947/>
 10. Deary IJ, Strand S, Smith P, Fernandes C. Intelligence and educational achievement. *Intelligence*. 2007 Jan 1;35(1):13–21.
 11. Swami V, Begum S, Petrides KV. Associations between trait emotional intelligence, actual–ideal weight discrepancy, and positive body image. *Personality and Individual Differences*. 2010 Oct 1;49(5):485–9.
 12. Zeidner M, Matthews G, Roberts RD. The Emotional Intelligence, Health, and Well-Being Nexus: What Have We Learned and What Have We Missed? *Appl Psychol Health Well Being*. 2012 Mar;4(1):1–30.
 13. Tylka TL, Wood-Barcalow NL. The Body Appreciation Scale-2: Item refinement and psychometric evaluation. *Body Image*. 2015 Jan 1;12:53–67.
 14. Schutte NS, Malouff JM, Hall LE, Haggerty DJ, Cooper JT, Golden CJ, et al. Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*. 1998 Aug 1;25(2):167–77.
 15. How can we measure emotional intelligence? [Internet]. *Using Psychology*. 2014 [cited 2018 Apr 8]. Available from: <https://blog.une.edu.au/usingpsychology/2014/04/27/how-can-we-measure-emotional-intelligence/>
 16. Avalos LC, Tylka TL. Exploring a model of intuitive eating with college women. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*. 2006;53(4):486–97.
 17. Abe K, Niwa M, Fujisaki K, Suzuki Y. Associations between emotional intelligence, empathy and personality in Japanese medical students. *BMC Med Educ [Internet]*. 2018 Mar 27 [cited 2018 Jul 3];18. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5870303/>
 18. Austin EJ, Evans P, Magnus B, O’Hanlon K. A preliminary study of empathy, emotional intelligence and examination performance in MBChB students. *Med Educ*. 2007 Jul;41(7):684–9.
 19. Aithal AP, Kumar N, Gunasegeran P, Sundaram SM, Rong LZ, Prabhu SP. A survey-based study of emotional intelligence as it relates to gender and academic performance of medical students. *Educ Health (Abingdon)*. 2016 Dec;29(3):255–8.
 20. Birks Y, McKendree J, Watt I. Emotional intelligence and perceived stress in healthcare students: a multi-institutional, multi-professional survey. *BMC Med Educ*. 2009 Sep 17;9:61.
 21. Johnson DR. Emotional intelligence as a crucial component to medical education. *Int J Med Educ*. 2015 Dec 6;6:179–83.
 22. Arora S, Ashrafian H, Davis R, Athanasiou T, Darzi A, Sevdalis N. Emotional intelligence in medicine: a systematic review through the context of the ACGME competencies. *Med Educ*. 2010 Aug;44(8):749–64.

A Study of Introduction of Concept of Emotional Intelligence in Medical Students

Pratibha Mehta¹, Veenodini Warhade¹

¹Associate Professor, Department of Physiology, American International Institute of Medical Sciences, Udaipur

Abstract

Introduction: Despite high clinical skills of Indian medical graduates, there is growing mistrust between doctors and patients. Currently there is no programme of developing emotional intelligence (EI) in medical curriculum. **Material and Method:** A cross-sectional study based on questionnaire was conducted on 35 medical students. Demographic data was collected by semi open ended questionnaire. EI data was collected by Schutte's Self-Report EI test questionnaire of on a 5 point Likert scale. After collecting the responses, the students were asked to attend a one hour lecture on emotional intelligence. Data was entered in MS-EXCEL and analyzed by SPSS version 19. Student's t-test was used to calculate p value. Data was considered significant for $p < 0.05$. **Results:** Out of total 35 subjects, 20 (57.14%) were male. 26 (74.28%) stayed in hostel. Mean EI score was 102.42. EI in hostel vs. family accommodation was 98.34 and 103.27 respectively. Mean EI score males and females was 98.41 and 104.25 respectively. **Conclusion:** IMG have low EI. Gender and type of accommodation have no significant effect on EI. Sensitization of IMG is required to develop EI.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, medical graduates, doctor patient mistrust.

Introduction

Emotional intelligence (EI) is defined as the ability to perceive one's own emotions, to understand others' emotions and to utilize emotions in such a way that it helps in emotional as well as intellectual growth.^[1] Studies have found that higher EI leads to better interpersonal relationship which reflects in better doctor-patient communication.^[2,3] Indian Medical graduates (IMG) have high clinical skills as shown by their high demands not only in India but also in foreign countries including United States and United Kingdom.^[4] Despite their high academic and intellectual abilities there has been growing mistrust among patients, rising number of incidences of violence and medico-legal cases against doctors and hospitals across the country.^[5] This signifies a breakdown of doctor-patient relationship which in turn can be a result of low EI among IMG.

Since the current curriculum in medical colleges in India revolves only around development of intellectual abilities but not on development of EI, IMG find them at a loss when it comes to development of doctor-patient relationship. Since there is no programme related with the development of EI among IMG, a study was conducted if the introduction of concept of EI will be beneficial to them.

Materials and Method

A cross sectional study based on questionnaire was conducted at American International Institute of Medical Sciences, Udaipur, India in October 2017. Permission from institutional ethics committee was taken. Informed written consent was obtained from 35 second year medical students who volunteered to be the subjects. Demographic Data of the subjects was collected by a semi-open-ended questionnaire. It comprised of subjects' name, age, sex, type of residence (hostel /family). EI data was collected by Schutte's Self-Report EI test questionnaire of on a 5 point Likert scale. The questionnaire comprised of 33 questions with five responses options to each. The 33 questions

Corresponding Author:

Pratibha Mehta

Department of Physiology, American International Institute of Medical Sciences, Udaipur
E-mail: pratibhamehta74@gmail.com.

were subdivided into 4 groups namely: perception of emotions, management of own emotions, management of others; emotions and utilization of emotions. The score assigned to the responses for each question ranged on a scale from 1 to 5 (range of score: 33-165). After collecting the responses, the subjects were asked to attend a one hour lecture on the concept and relevance of EI. Feedback of the students was collected by a semi open ended questionnaire on 5 point Likert scale. Data was

entered in MS-EXCEL and analyzed by SPSS version 19. Student's t-test was used to calculate p value. Data was considered significant for $p < 0.05$.

Results

Out of total 35 subjects, 20 (57.14%) were male. The age (years) of males ranged from 17-20 (mean 18.52) and of females from 17-19 (mean 18.13).

Table-1: Distribution of subjects according to type of accommodation (n=35)

	Accommodation		Total
	Hostel	Family	
Male	14 (40%)	6 (17.1%)	20 (57.14%)
Female	12 (34.28%)	3 (8.57%)	15 (42.85%)
Total	26 (74.28%)	9 (25.71%)	35

Table-2: Distribution of EI score (n=35)

	Overall Score	Perception of emotions	Management of own emotions	Management of others' emotions	Utilization of emotions
Mean Score	102.42	28.77	28.94	23.00	19.71
Standard Deviation	11.91	4.26	5.23	4.97	3.25

Table-3: Distribution of EI score according to type of stay

Type of stay	n	EI score	SD	p value
Hostel	26	98.34	10.31	0.137
Family	9	103.27	11.52	

Difference of EI score between those staying at hostel and those staying with family was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$)

Distribution of EI score among males and females (n=35)

Overall mean EI score males was 98.41 (SD : 10.13) and in females was 104.25 (SD : 11.29). No statistically significant difference in EI score was observed among males and females ($p > 0.05$).

Discussion

EI encompasses a wide spectrum of intelligence

which is related with the processing of emotions. [6] It includes not only the perception of own emotions but also the management and utilization of others' emotions. [7-9]

In our study we found that the overall score of EI of IMG was low. Since EI is directly related with the performance of interpersonal skills, a low EI score is bound to create weak interpersonal bonds and mistrust among doctors and patients. [10] It has been observed that emotionally intelligent individuals are better able to provide social support and develop interpersonal bonds. [11]

The need to develop interpersonal skills among medical graduates is exemplified by a report in which the patients experienced significantly less pain when painkillers were administered to them in a warm and reassuring environment .^[12] This need is further strengthened by another report in which the patients recovered faster after tonsillectomy when the medical practitioners were friendly to them .^[13] The need to develop interpersonal skills, which is also known as 21st century skill or soft skills , among medical graduates, has been acknowledged recently .^[14-17]

Now interpersonal skills have been included in the definition of professional competence in medical practice.^[18]

Although we made an attempt to find the factors responsible for the low EI among IMG, we did not find any statistically significant difference according to the difference in their gender or type of accommodation. The factors responsible for low EI among IMG remains obscure. In our study when the medical students were introduced to the concept of EI by the method of 1 hour lecture it was received favorably and agreed by all the students that they have been sensitized towards the concept of EI and its need to develop among them for better interpersonal skills.

The major limitation of this study is small size of the study group. Also only quantitative data was obtained in this study. Post sensitization EI score of the subjects is yet to be studied. So a prospective study comprising of bigger study group which includes qualitative data analysis is suggested.

Conclusion

IMG have low EI. Gender and type of accommodation have no significant effect on EI. Sensitization of IMG is required to develop EI.

Conflict of Interest – NIL

Financial support- NIL

Ethical Clearance- From institutional ethics committee.

References

1. Brackett MA, Salovey P. Measuring emotional intelligence with the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) *Psicothema*. 2006; 18(Suppl):34–41.
2. Arora S, Ashrafian H, Davis R, Athanasiou T, Darzi A, Sevdalis N. Emotional intelligence in medicine: a systematic review through the context of the ACGME competencies. *Med Educ*. 2010; 44(8):749–764. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2923.2010.03709.x.
3. Satterfield J, Swenson S, Rabow M. Emotional Intelligence in Internal Medicine Residents: Educational Implications for Clinical Performance and Burnout. *Ann Behav Sci Med Educ*. 2009.
4. Mullan F. Doctors for the world: Indian physician emigration. *Health Aff (Millwood)*. 2006 Mar-Apr; 25(2):380-93.
5. Madhiwalla N, Roy N. Assaults on Public Hospital Staff by Patients and Their Relatives: An Inquiry. *Ind J Med Ethics* 2006; 3:51-3.
6. Mayer, J. D., Roberts, R. D., & Barsade, S. (2008). Human abilities: Emotional intelligence. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 59, 507–536.
7. Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1989-1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9, 185–211.
8. Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 243–274.
9. Matthews, G., Emo, A. K., Funke, G., Zeidner, M., Roberts, R. D., Costa, P. T., & chulze, R. (2006). Emotional intelligence, personality, and task-induced stress. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied*, 12, 96–107.
10. Nele Libbrecht, Filip Lievens, and Bernd Carette. Emotional Intelligence Predicts Success in Medical School, *Emotion*, 2014, Vol. 14, No. 1, 64–73.
11. Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010). Emotional Intelligence: An integrative meta-analysis and cascading model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95, 54–78.
12. Gryll & Katahn, 1978) [Gryll, S. L., & Katahn, M. (1978). Situational factors contributing to the placebo effect. *Psychopharmacology*, 57, 253–261.
13. Olsson, B., Olsson, B., & Tibblin, G. (1989). Effect of patients expectations on recovery from acute

- tonsillitis. *Family Practice*, 6, 188–192.
14. Oswald, F. L., Schmitt, N., Kim, B. H., Ramsay, L. J., & Gillespie, M. A. (2004). Developing a biodata measure and situational judgment inventory as predictors of college student performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 187–207.
 15. Barr, D. A. (2010). Science as superstition: Selecting medical students. *Lancet*, 376, 678–679.
 16. Kaplan, R. M., Satterfield, J. M., & Kington, R. S. (2012). Building a better physician: The case for the new MCAT. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 366, 1265–1268.
 17. Lievens, F., & Sackett, P. (2012). The validity of interpersonal skills assessment via situational judgment tests for predicting academic success and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97, 460–468.
 18. Epstein, R. M., & Hundert, E. M. (2002). Defining and assessing professional competence. *The Journal of the American Medical Association*, 287, 226–235.

Effect of Treadmill Exercise on Blood Glucose Control in Type-2 Diabetes Mellitus Patients

Paras Arvindbhai Parekh

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, Ananta Institute of Medical Sciences and Research Center, Rajasthan

Abstract

Background: Diabetes mellitus type 2 is because of resistance to insulin resulting in inability to utilize glucose. In addition to medicines and diet control, regular exercise helps in increase in utilization of glucose.

Aims & Objectives: To study efficacy of exercise especially treadmill walking on controlling blood glucose homeostasis in diabetes mellitus.

Material and Method: The study was conducted on 40 clinically confirmed cases of type-2 diabetes mellitus male patients who were divided in study group and control group with 20 patients in each group. Study was conducted for period of 8 weeks. Diet plan was formed by expert during this period and subjects were instructed to follow it strictly. Fasting blood glucose and postprandial blood glucose was measured before and after exercise programme.

Findings: There is significant decrease in fasting blood glucose and Postprandial blood glucose level in study group as compared to control group with inter-group difference was significant ($P < 0.05$).

Conclusion: Treadmill exercise is very useful for blood glucose control in addition to diet control and medicines.

Keywords: *Type-2 diabetes mellitus, Treadmill exercise, Fasting blood glucose, Postprandial blood glucose, Glycemic control.*

Introduction

Diabetes mellitus (DM) refers to a group of common metabolic disorders that share the phenotype of hyperglycemia. The two broad categories of DM are designated type 1 and type 2. Both types of diabetes are preceded by a phase of abnormal glucose homeostasis as the pathogenic processes progress. Type 1 DM is the result of complete or near-total insulin deficiency. Type 2 DM is a heterogeneous group of disorders characterized by variable degrees of insulin resistance, impaired insulin secretion, and increased glucose production.¹

The prevalence of diabetes is going to double globally from 171 million in 2000 to 366 million in 2030 with maximum increase in India. By 2030, around 79.4 million people will be affected by diabetes according to prediction made by Wild et al.²

In addition to medication and diet control, exercise is also helpful in increasing insulin sensitivity. American diabetes association recommends moderate aerobic physical activity of 150 minutes/week.³ Walking is considered to be the best exercise as it involves larger muscles of lower limb as well as muscular work of upper limb. Treadmill machine which is electronically driven or manual simulates all the features of natural walking.

Corresponding Author:

Paras Arvindbhai Parekh

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, Ananta Institute of Medical Sciences and Research Center, Rajasthan, Mobile no. 8875873713
Email: paras_parekh13@yahoo.com

Material & Method

In our study we used treadmill (Phillips, Novafit turbo) machine, oscilloscope for measuring heart rate and respiratory rate, Sphygmomanometer for measuring

blood pressure, weighing scale. Permission from institutional ethical committee was taken.

From diabetes OPD 40 male patients of age group 45-55 years who were clinically and biochemically confirmed cases of diabetes included in study after obtaining informed consent. Patients with known case of cardiac, respiratory, renal and musculoskeletal disorders were excluded from programme. Those who were willing to do exercise were included in study group and who were not willing to do exercise were included in control group.

Whole programme was conducted for period of 8 weeks. At the beginning of study, fasting blood sugar (FBS) and postprandial blood sugar (PPBS) was measured for all subjects. Additionally weight, height and body mass index was measured. Subjects were examined for any muscular weakness in lower limb. Regular diet may vary in different subjects so diet plan was formed for whole day by advice of dietician and they were explained to follow it strictly during the whole exercise programme so as to avoid effects of diet on blood glucose level.

Treadmill machine (Phillips, Novafit turbo) used for the study can measure speed in form of RPM, total distance travelled in kilometers and calories used during exercise. All subjects in study group were first given demonstration of treadmill machine to make them familiarize. Programme was conducted for total 40 minutes which include 5 minutes of warm up, 30 minutes of treadmill walking followed by 5 minutes of rest. All subjects were instructed to report immediately if they feel breathlessness, headache, dizziness or any other symptoms which are indicative for stopping exercise. Blood pressure, heart rate and respiratory rate were taken in supine at the beginning of exercise.

First warm up was done in the form of active limb movements and muscle stretching. Then oscilloscope was attached for monitoring of heart rate, respiratory rate and blood pressure. Subjects were instructed to walk on treadmill for 30 minutes. Speed of treadmill machine was set to 3.5 km/hour with fixed inclination. All the subjects were constantly monitored for development of any symptoms and any noticeable change in parameters. At the end of thirty minutes, parameters were measured immediately and then they are instructed to take rest for five minutes. Vital parameters were also taken during

recovery period of five minutes. This completed session was conducted for five days in a week for total 8 weeks. At the end of 8 weeks FBS and PPBS was taken again for both groups. Statistical analysis was done using student's t test with p value < 0.05 is considered as statistically significant.

Findings

All the subjects in study group completed exercise programme without any event. Pre and post exercise blood glucose levels are compared in both study and control group.

In study group, FBS and PPBS level before exercise was in the range of 150-196 mg% and 180-212 mg% respectively. After exercise programme range of FBS and PPBS was 130-162 mg% and 156-170 mg% respectively.

In control group, FBS and PPBS level before exercise was in the range of 154-202 mg% and 184-210 mg% respectively. After 8 weeks of observation range of FBS and PPBS was 150-188 mg% and 168-200 mg% respectively.

Difference between FBS and PPBS before and after programme in both the group was compared (Table-1). Mean decrease in FBS in study group was 38.6 mg% while in control group it was 26.8 mg% with intergroup difference is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). In study group decrease in PPBS was 42.8 mg% as compared to control group having difference of 30.4 mg%. So inter group difference in PPBS is statistically significant (p value < 0.05). Also subjects in study group reported of feeling of well being with loss of average two kilograms weight.

Table-1 Comparison between study and control group for change in FBS and PPBS after programme

Difference	Study group (mean±SD)
Control group (mean±SD) n=10	
FBS1-FBS2 26 ± 8.910*	38 ± 8.275
PPBS1-PPBS2 30 ± 8.623*	42 ± 6.784
FBS1- Fasting blood glucose before exercise FBS2- Fasting blood glucose after exercise PPBS1- Postprandial blood glucose before exercise PPBS2- Postprandial blood glucose after exercise *p<0.05, student t-test	

Discussion

Diabetes Mellitus is a clinical syndrome comprising a heterogeneous group of metabolic diseases that are characterized by chronic hyperglycemia and disturbances in carbohydrate, fat and protein metabolism secondary to defects in insulin secretion, insulin action or both.⁴ Comprehensive management of diabetes includes drugs, insulin, lifestyle changes comprising of diet control, exercise and education.⁵ In this study, efficacy of treadmill exercise on control of blood glucose was studied in addition to diet control and medication. Exercise improves insulin sensitivity and therefore has a positive effect on blood glucose control. In addition it also has positive effects on lipid profile and blood pressure and it is important part of weight management programme. For inactive person it is better to start with at least 5 minutes daily and then gradually increase 5 minutes to up to at least 30 minutes of daily walking.⁶ Only problem with diet and exercise is that it requires strong motivation and self confidence. So for the patient's perspective oral drugs for diabetes is the best management.

At the beginning of exercise, muscle utilizes stored glycogen as fuel consumption. But it is available only for short period only. If activity is continued, glycogenolysis becomes source of glucose and then after few minutes gluconeogenesis starts in liver. After depletion of glycogen store in liver, stored fat in adipose tissue converted into fatty acids which are used as fuel by muscle.⁷

Wahren et al. reported that working muscles are more sensitive to insulin as compared to resting muscle, which increase utilization of glucose. Also during exercise blood flow to working muscle increase which increase size of capillaries and number of insulin receptors which ultimately balance sensitivity of insulin.⁸

Shivananda nayak et al. reported that after six weeks of treadmill exercise, glucose utilization is increased in muscle which has positive effects on glucose homeostasis with significant fall in fasting and postprandial blood glucose level.⁹

Exercise programme is also affected by some factors like type of exercise, duration of exercise, intensity and frequency of exercise. According to American college of sports medicine, exercise with low intensity but long duration gives better result as compared to high intensity short duration exercise. Duration of exercise should be gradually increased over days. Exercise programme

should be restricted to five days per week. Intensity can be controlled by counting target heart rate with formula of subtracting your age from 220. In this study it was found that endurance exercise helps in control of blood glucose level. It works by increasing insulin sensitivity in exercising muscle. As compared to resting condition, numbers of insulin receptors are more in working muscle which ultimately helps to utilize glucose despite low production by pancreas as in diabetes mellitus.

Conclusion

Well planned exercise programme which is strictly followed can improve glycemic control and also helps to reduce weight. In addition to mental well being it reduces cardiovascular risk factors in patients of diabetes mellitus.

Conflict of Interest: None

Source of Funding: Institution

References

1. Powers AC. Harrison's Principles of Internal Medicine. 18th ed.: 344.
2. 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.
3. Fauci, Braunwald, Kasper, Hauser, Longo, Jameson et al. Harrison's principles of Internal Medicine. 17th Ed., United States of America, McGraw Hill 2012:2275-2304.
4. Dereje A et al. Diabetes Mellitus, for the ethopian health center team. 2006;11.
5. Krall LP & Beaser RS. *Joslin diabetes manual.* 12th ed. Lea & Febiger, Philadelphia. 1989;81-91.
6. Sherri Shafer RD. Nutrition and exercise intervention for diabetes. Senior clinical dietician UCSF clinical center. 2012;8-9
7. Eberle SG. *Endurance sports nutrition.* 3rd ed. 2014;110-11
8. Wahren J & Felig P. Glucose metabolism during leg exercises. *J clinical investigation.* 1971;(50): 2715-25.
9. Nayak S et al. Influence of aerobic treadmill exercise on blood glucose homeostasis in noninsulin dependent diabetes mellitus patients. *Indian journal of clinical Biochemistry.* 2005;20(1): 47-51

HRV During One Minute Controlled Deep Breathing for Evaluation of Sympatho Vagal Imbalance in Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus Patients

M.Janet Sugantha¹, M.Rathnavelkumaran², K.Muralikrishnan³

¹Associate Professor, Department of Physiology, K.A.P.V. Govt. Medical College, Tiruchirappalli,
²Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, Chengalpet Medical College, ³Professor, Department of Physiology, Kilpauk Medical College, Chennai

Abstract

Introduction: The Autonomic nervous system is the principle way by which the heart rate can be controlled effectively. The integrity of the autonomic control of the cardiovascular system in diabetic patients can be studied by observing the heart rate variability (HRV)

Materials and Method: 30 type 1 diabetic patients attending the Diabetology clinic of Stanley Medical College, Chennai and 30 age matched controls were enrolled. Heart rate variability analysis during one minute controlled deep breathing was performed on all the subjects and the results obtained were compared between the groups

Results: HRV analysis in type 1 diabetes mellitus patients show

Significant reduction in SDNN, RMSSD, NN50 and pNN50

Significant reduction of mean RR, HF and HF nu, compared to that of controls

Conclusion: HRV during one minute controlled deep breathing is a simple non invasive test to detect cardiac autonomic neuropathy. Hence HRV db should be recommended as a screening test for diabetes mellitus patients.

Keywords: Type 1 diabetes mellitus, Autonomic neuropathy, heart rate variability, HRV with deep breathing

Introduction

The heart and vascular system are innervated by both parasympathetic and sympathetic nerves. The predominant supply of vagus is to the pace maker and conducting system and the sympathetic supply is more for cardiac muscle and vascular system. So the changes in the heart rate are predominantly modulated by the vagus and the contractility of cardiac muscle is brought about

by sympathetic pathway. Although some local factors, such as temperature, hormone changes and stretch of tissues can change the heart rate, the Autonomic nervous system is the principle way by which the heart rate can be controlled effectively. The integrity of the autonomic control of the cardiovascular system in diabetic patients can be studied by observing the heart rate variability (HRV)

The first report linking HRV to respiration has been credited to Karl Ludwig, who in 1847 noted that heart rate increased with inspiration and decreased with expiration ^(1,2)

Clinical interest in HRV was sparked by the 1973 report of Wheeler and Watkins, who first drew attention

Corresponding author:

Dr. M. Janet Sugantha,

Associate Professor, Department of Physiology,
K.A.P.V.Govt. Medical College, Tiruchirappalli
Email id: janet.sugantha@gmail.com

to cardiac vagal innervations as the mediator of HRV and its potential value as a clinical test of cardiovagal function⁽³⁾

These investigators studied HRV with deep breathing (HRVdb) in normal subjects and diabetic patients, some with and some without evidence of autonomic neuropathy. They noted that HRV db was reduced or abolished in diabetic subjects with autonomic neuropathy and concluded that HRV db was a clinically useful test for autonomic neuropathy in diabetic patients.

Analysis of HRV can be studied in the frequency domain by using Fourier transformation and converting heart rate to a power spectrum⁽⁴⁾ The peak power at the highest frequencies (> 0.15Hz) reflects respiratory sinus arrhythmia, while the lower frequencies reflect both sympathetic and parasympathetic influences. Marked reduction in the power spectrum was noted in patients with diabetic autonomic neuropathy⁽⁵⁾

Aim of the Study: To study the Cardiovascular Autonomic function in Type 1 Diabetics by doing Heart Rate Variability (HRV) analysis during one minute controlled deep breathing

Materials and Method

The study was conducted in the Research Lab of the Department of Physiology, Stanley Medical College, Chennai.

Cases:

Inclusion Criteria

Type 1 Diabetes mellitus patients (based on WHO criteria) attending Diabetology out-patient department

Age: 10 to 40 years, both gender

Type 1 diabetic patients on Insulin treatment and with fairly good glycemic control

Type 1 DM patients with duration of disease > 2 years

Exclusion Criteria

Smokers

Alcoholics

Hypertension, Coronary artery disease, Renal

disorders, Thyroid disorders

Patients with history of autonomic dysfunction

Controls

30 age and gender matched healthy subjects attending the Master health check up programme, Stanley Medical College.

Study Design : Cross-sectional study.

The study protocol was approved by the Ethical committee of Stanley Medical College.

The detailed procedure and purpose of the study was explained in the regional language, and then an **informed and written consent** was obtained from the subjects if they were 16 years of age or over and from their parents if they were younger than 16 years.

Equipment and Methodology Of HRV

ECG was acquired using RMS Polyrite D hardware 2.2 (India), and instantaneous heart rate at RR intervals were plotted using RMS 2.5.2 software on a Microsoft window based PC. The RMS Polyrite 2.5.2 helps to save multiple records and provided with additional filter settings, calculation tools, automated analysis and auto report generation. Respiratory movements were recorded using respiratory belt.

The recordings were done between 10 a.m. and 12 noon to avoid circadian variations. Height and weight were taken. Blood Pressure was recorded using sphygmomanometer. The lab environment was quiet, the temperature was maintained between 25 to 28°C and the lighting subdued. Subjects were asked to empty their bladder before the test. The test did not involve any intravascular instrumentation or administration of any drugs at any stage.

The subjects were made to sit in the lab for 10 minutes to get accustomed to the new environment. The subjects were clearly instructed not to take coffee, tea or cool drinks 1½ hours before test.

1. Electrodes were fixed in the following position after cleaning with spirit to record the ECG

Electrode	Position
Exploring Electrode	Left shoulder/forearm
Exploring Electrode	Right shoulder/forearm
Reference Electrode	Right leg

2. Respiratory belt was tied around the chest at the level of the nipple to record respiratory movement

3. The electrodes and the respiratory belt were connected to RMS Polyrite D equipment. Task force guidelines⁽⁶⁾ were followed

HRV during one minute controlled deep breathing

Table 1: Anthropometric measurements of subjects

(Age, Height, Weight & BMI expressed as Mean \pm SD)

	CASES	CONTROLS	't' value	p value
n	30	30	-	-
Males:Females	18:12	18:12	-	-
Age in years	23.06 \pm 6.06	22.86 \pm 5.92	0.12	0.89
Height in cm.	155.96 \pm 9.25	156.80 \pm 9.57	-0.34	0.73
Weight in kg.	53.83 \pm 7.86	54.23 \pm 7.88	-0.19	0.84
B.M.I. kg/m ²	22.07 \pm 2.31	21.98 \pm 2.17	0.15	0.87

Table 2: Heart rate & blood pressure measurements

	GROUP (n=30)	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	Student independent 't' test
Resting Heart rate In bpm	Cases	87.3	8.4	t = 4.05 p < 0.01**
	Controls	76.4	12.01	
Systolic B.P. (mm.Hg.)	Cases	120.60	5.61	t=1.597 p=0.116
	Controls	118.00	6.92	
Diastolic B.P. (mm.Hg).	Cases	79.40	4.64	t=0.858 p=0.395
	Controls	78.33	4.98	

The subject was asked to lie down comfortably in the supine position. He was then instructed to breathe slowly and deeply at the rate of 6 breaths per minute in such a way that he takes 5 seconds for inspiration and 5 seconds for expiration. The entire procedure was monitored on the screen. Deep breathing will produce maximum Respiratory Sinus Arrhythmia.

Results

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software 11.5 version was used for statistical analysis.

The Student independent unpaired 't' test was used to compare cases and controls.

p < 0.05* is taken as significant ;

p < 0.01** is taken as highly significant

Table 3: Comparison of blood sugar level

	GROUP (n=30)	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	Student independent 't' test
Fasting mg%	Cases	124.06	18.20	t= 12.22 p< 0.01**
	Controls	82.33	4.29	
Post prandial mg%	Cases	158.34	31.22	t=8.77 p<0.01**
	Controls	107.93	3.94	

Table 4: Frequency Domain Measures During One Minute Deep Breathing

Frequency Domain Measures	Cases (n=30)		Controls (n=30)		Student independent 't' test
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Mean RR in sec.	0.72	0.07	0.83	0.11	t= -4.091 p<0.01**
HF in ms ²	0.82	1.01	1.91	1.72	t= - 3.008 p<0.01**
HF in n.u.	18.89	9.10	28.40	11.89	t= - 3.47 p<0.01**

Table 5: Time Domain Measures During One Minute Deep Breathing

Time Domain Measures	Cases (n=30)		Controls (n=30)		Student independent 't' test
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
SDNN ms	50.33	19.17	88.76	20.56	t= - 7.48 p<0.01**
RMSSD ms	56.62	32.12	98.76	24.18	t= - 5.74 p<0.01**
NN50	8.73	7.82	28.16	11.56	t= - 7.62 p<0.01**
pNN50%	14.25	14.43	38.72	15.76	t= - 6.27 p< 0.01**

Discussion

HRV with deep breathing is the simplest and most widely performed measure of autonomic control of the heart. This test produces a sensitive, specific and reproducible indirect measure of vagal cardiac function.

Fareedabanu et al ⁽⁷⁾ found a statistically significant decrease in mean minimal heart rate and one minute HRV during deep breathing among type 2 diabetic patients on comparison with that of healthy controls

Respiratory sinus arrhythmia (RSA) is a change of heart rate generated by a combination of respiration-induced biochemical changes, changes in intrathoracic pressure, and central vagal stimulation⁽⁸⁾. Respiration has a significant effect on the Heart rate oscillations and parasympathetic activity is very closely related to respiratory sinus rhythm. Frequency of RSA component falls in High Frequency range of HRV (0.15-0.4 Hz) for more than 6 breaths/min. On one minute controlled deep breathing at 6 breaths/min, with inspiration and expiration each lasting for 5 secs. the mean RR was significantly reduced in diabetic patients(p<0.01**).

In the frequency domain measures the HF in absolute power and HF in normalized units was significantly reduced in diabetics ($p < 0.01^{**}$) which might have been due to vagal neuropathy^{18,25}. HRV during timed deep breathing is a major index of HR variation in the time domain because it has been shown to be one of the most reliable and reproducible markers of parasympathetic modulation of cardiac function⁽¹¹⁾. All the time domain variables were significantly reduced in diabetics ($p < 0.01^{**}$). Reduced HRV during deep breathing in type 1 diabetics clearly indicates that cardiac vagal effects are diminished in this condition. This may possibly be due to vagal neuropathy.

In diabetes mellitus associated neuropathy, a reduction in time domain parameters of HRV seems not only to carry a negative prognostic value but also to precede the clinical expression of autonomic neuropathy^(12,13)

HRV db represents a very sensitive measure of cardiovagal or parasympathetic cardiac function and thus is an important component of the cardiovascular autonomic function tests used in clinical autonomic laboratories. In most autonomic disorders, parasympathetic function is affected before sympathetic function, so HRV db provides a sensitive screening measure for parasympathetic dysfunction in many autonomic disorders⁽¹⁴⁾

Conclusion

HRV analysis in type 1 diabetes mellitus patients show

Significant reduction in SDNN, RMSSD, NN50 and pNN50

Significant reduction of mean RR, HF and HF nu, compared to that of controls

HRV during one minute controlled deep breathing is a simple non invasive test to detect cardiac autonomic neuropathy. Hence HRV db should be recommended as a screening test for diabetes mellitus patients.

Conflict of Interest: Nil

Sources of Funding: Nil

References

- Heymans C. Neil E. Reflexogenic Areas of the Cardiovascular System. London JA Churchill 1958
- Melcher A. Respiratory sinus arrhythmia in man: a study in heart rate regulating mechanisms. *Acta Physiol Scand Suppl* 1976;435:1-31
- Wheeler T. Watkins PJ. Cardiac denervation in diabetes. *Br Med J* 1973;4:584- 586
- Akselrod S, Gordon D, Ubel FA, Shannon DC, Berger AC, Cohen RJ. Power spectrum analysis of heart rate fluctuation: a quantitative probe of beat-to-beat cardiovascular control. *Science* 1981;213:220-222
- Freeman R, Saul JP, Robert MS, Berger RD, Broadbridge C, Cohen RJ. Spectral analysis of heart rate in diabetic autonomic neuropathy. A comparison with standard tests of autonomic function. *Arch Neurol* 1991;48:185-190
- Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and the North American Society of Pacing and Electrophysiology. Heart rate variability. Standards of measurements, physiological interpretation and clinical use. *Eur Heart J* 1996; 17:354-381
- Fareedabanu AB, Gorkal AR, Narasimha Setty KR. A simple test of one minute heart rate variability during deep breathing for evaluation of sympathovagal imbalance in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Pak J Physiol* 2011;7(1)33-36
- P. Zhang, W. Tapp, S. Reisman, B. Natelson, "Respiration Response Curve Analysis of Heart Rate Variability", *IEEE Trans. Biomed Eng.*, April 1997, 44(4):321-325.
- Dariusz Korczak et al - Evaluation of cardiac autonomic function in insulin dependent diabetic patients using power spectral analysis of heart rate variability, *on Sci Monit*, 1997; 3(4): 530-535.
- Massimo Chessa, et al Role of Heart Rate Variability in the Early Diagnosis of Diabetic Autonomic Neuropathy in children, *Herz* 2002;27:785-90.
- Ewing DJ, Martin CN, Young RJ, Clarke BF. The value of cardiovascular autonomic function tests: 10 years's experience in diabetes. *Diabetes care*. 1985;8:491- 498.
- Kamath MV, Fallen EL. Power spectral analysis of heart rate variability; a non invasive signature of cardiac autonomic function. *Crit Rev Biomed Eng* 1993; 1:245-311

1. Heymans C. Neil E. Reflexogenic Areas of the

13. Kitney RI, Byme S, Edmonds ME, Watkins PJ, Roberts VC. Heart rate variability in the assessment of autonomic diabetic neuropathy. *Automedica* 1982;4:155-167
14. Robert W Shields JR. Heart rate variability with deep breathing as a clinical test of cardiovagal function. *Cleveland Clinic Journal of Medicine* Volume 76, supplement 2, April 2009, S37-40.

Impact of Single Use of Energy Drink on Blood Pressure and Heart Rate in Healthy Medical Students

Kavya Patil¹, M.S.Kusumadevi²

¹Third Year Student, ²Professor, Department of Physiology, Bangalore Medical College and Research Institute

Abstract

Background: Globally, the popularity of energy drinks is steadily increasing. After being first introduced around 1960, they have been increasingly used all over the world for the promotion of mental concentration and vigilance. Although few of these claims have been partly demonstrated in a few athlete-targeted surveys, many more health concerns are increasingly unfolded about the excessive consumption of energy drinks. A number of investigations focused on the hemodynamic effects of the consumption of energy drinks on healthy individuals; some of which found a statistically significant effect on heart rate (HR) and blood pressure (BP)

Objective: To evaluate the acute effects of the consumption of energy drinks on blood pressure and heart rate in a group of healthy medical students.

Materials and Method: The study was conducted on 40 healthy MBBS students studying in Bangalore Medical College and Research Institute in the age group of 19 to 22 years. Blood pressure and pulse rate were recorded pre and 1 hour post consumption of energy drink in the subjects.

Results : Descriptive statistical analysis was carried out on the data obtained in the present study. The systolic and diastolic blood pressure increased 1 hour post consumption of energy drink but not statistically significant. Heart rate increased significantly 1 hour post consumption of energy drink.

Conclusion: A statistically significant increase in heart rate was observed in the subjects one hour after consumption of energy drink (pre=78.6±9.03, post=83.4±10.08, p value=0.05*). Though there was no statistically significant change in blood pressure, systolic BP increased by 3 mm of Hg (from 112.2±9.96 to 115.3±9.86) and diastolic BP increased by 2mm of Hg (from 71±7.32 to 72.2±6.75).

Keywords: energy drinks, blood pressure, heart rate, medical students

Introduction

Energy drinks (EDs) are gaining popularity every year with a broad consumer base including athletes, amateur competitors, and even those experiencing work-related fatigue. EDs represent a relatively new class of caffeinated beverages that are generally marketed to

improve energy, athletic performance, concentration, endurance, weight loss and to provide a short-term energy boost but they do not constitute suitable sources of rehydration or restoration of electrolytes in association with athletic activity. The main contents in these EDs are caffeine, water, sucrose, glucose, acidity regulators, acidulant (citric acid), glucuronolactone, taurine and vitamins.

In recent years the marketing of these energy drinks has increased drastically due to their easy availability. Adolescents and young adults are the most vulnerable group who fall prey to these energy drinks especially those in a transitional stage of physical and psychological development. Dependence on energy drinks could be

Corresponding author

Dr M.S.Kusumadevi

Professor, Department of Physiology
Bangalore Medical College and Research Institute
Fort, K.R. Road, Bangalore- 560002
Karnataka, Email ID: kusumadevi.viji@gmail.com

a potential risk of substance abuse later in life ¹. The body develops a tolerance to the positive effect of these energy drinks and not to the negative effects. A number of studies have shown the high consumption rate of these energy drinks among college students and also medical students ^{2,4}. This shows the lack of awareness among college students and adolescence about the importance of good nutrition and the high caloric and caffeine content of energy drinks.

Numerous studies have associated EDs and their ingredients with acute hypertension ^{5,6}. This is consistent with known hemodynamic changes caused by caffeine consumption ^{7, 8}. Caffeine is a sympathomimetic. Acute caffeine consumption can increase plasma renin, catecholamines, and dopamine. These substances stimulate the central nervous system, thereby increasing blood pressure and heart rate ^{9,10}. A study on impact of acute consumption of EDs found that the systolic and diastolic blood pressures increased on an average by 4.44 mm of Hg and 2.73 mm of Hg respectively and the heart rate increased by 0.80 beats per minute ¹¹.

Medical students are exposed to various stressors ¹² that may precipitate a variety of health risk behaviours, such as smoking ^{13,14} and consumption of high levels of caffeinated beverages ¹⁵. Comparatively medical students' stress level is higher than non-medical students. Similarly stress level increases as one moves from junior to senior level at his/her college or university. There are also little researches done on energy drink consumption patterns among medical students.

Hence the present study was undertaken to assess the acute influence of energy drinks on blood pressure and pulse rate in medical students.

Materials and Method

Source of data:

The study was done on 40 healthy MBBS students studying in Bangalore Medical College and Research Institute in the age group of 19 to 22 years.

Method of collection of data (including sampling procedure):

Subjects were matched in for age & sex and selected based on inclusion and exclusion criteria after taking a written informed consent.

Study period: February 2017- April 2017

Study group: Healthy MBBS students studying in Bangalore Medical College and Research Institute

Sample size: 40 healthy medical students.

Inclusion Criteria:

1. 40 healthy medical students
2. Subjects who have given written informed consent.

Exclusion Criteria:

1. Those with a BMI greater than 30 kg m⁻²
2. Competition athletes
3. Individuals with a daily exercise workload exceeding 60 min per day.
4. Subjects having any diseases or taking any medication affecting cardiovascular or autonomic regulation.
5. Subjects whose caffeine intake in excess of 150 mg daily from food and beverages.
6. Subjects who reported to be on psychiatric treatment.
7. Subjects suffering from any chronic disorders.
8. Subjects with history of smoking or alcohol use.

Methodology

All experiments were conducted in a quiet, temperature-controlled (20–22 °C) laboratory and started between 08.00 and 09.00 a.m. Every subject would attend the experimental sessions at the lifestyle laboratory, centenary building, Victoria Hospital, BMCRI. On arrival at the laboratory, subjects were asked to empty their bladders if necessary and to sit in a comfortable armchair. All the subjects were asked to relax for a period of 30 minutes following which a baseline recording of BP using mercury sphygmomanometer and pulse rate were made. Then the test subjects would ingest 355 mL of a degassed energy drink containing caffeine (114 mg), taurine (1,420 mg), glucuronolactone (84.2 mg), sucrose and glucose (39.1 g) at room temperature. Subjects were asked to ingest their drink in a convenient pace over 4 min. After 1 hour of post-drink, BP and pulse

rate recording was repeated. Throughout the procedures, subjects were permitted to watch neutral documentaries on a flat TV screen set at eye level.

Results

The study was conducted on 40 healthy first and second year MBBS students.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistical analysis has been carried out on the data obtained in the present study. Results on continuous measurements are presented on Mean \pm SD. Significance is assessed at 5 % level of significance. Student t test (two tailed, independent) has been used to find the significance of study parameters on continuous scale between two groups. Significance was reckoned as: $0.01 < P \leq 0.05$ significant (*); $P \leq 0.01$ highly significant

Microsoft word and Excel have been used to generate tables.

Table 1: Mean \pm SD of different parameters pre and 1 hour post consumption of energy drink

Parameters	BEFORE	AFTER	P Value
SBP	112.2 \pm 9.96	115.3 \pm 9.86	0.23
DBP	71 \pm 7.32	72.2 \pm 6.75	0.52
HR	78.6 \pm 9.03	83.4 \pm 10.08	0.05*

Inference: The systolic and diastolic blood pressure increased 1 hour post consumption of energy drink but not statistically significant. Heart rate increased significantly 1 hour post energy consumption drink.

Table 2: Mean \pm SD of different parameters in females pre and 1 hour post consumption of energy drink

Parameters	BEFORE	AFTER	P Value
SBP	105.4 \pm 5.6	110.3 \pm 8.3	0.05*
DBP	70 \pm 8.1	72.5 \pm 6.45	0.34
HR	79.6 \pm 9.96	86.4 \pm 9.7	0.07

Inference: systolic blood pressure significantly increased in the female participants post 1 hour consumption of energy drink. Diastolic blood pressure and heart rate has increased but not statistically significant.

Table 3: Mean \pm SD of different parameters in males pre and 1 hour post consumption of energy drink

Parameters	BEFORE	AFTER	P Value
SBP	119.4 \pm 8.6	122.3 \pm 3.87	0.5
DBP	72 \pm 7.5	71.8 \pm 7.3	0.9
HR	77.4 \pm 8.2	86.4 \pm 9.7	0.07

Inference: Systolic blood pressure and heart rate increased in the male participants 1 hour post consumption of energy drink but not statistically significant. Diastolic blood pressure has decreased minimally but not statistically significant.

Discussion

There are currently more than 500 energy drink products available on the market purported to boost physical and mental alertness.¹⁶ In line with their increased popularity is a coinciding rise in energy drink-associated emergency department visits and deaths, which has led to questions about their true safety profile.^{17, 18, 19}

In this present interventional study we administered an energy drink containing caffeine (114 mg), taurine (1,420 mg), glucuronolactone (84.2 mg), sucrose and glucose (39.1 g) in 40 healthy first and second year medical students. We evaluated blood pressure and heart rate pre and 1 hour post consumption of energy drink in them. The results were tabulated and statistically analyzed.

Table 1 shows that the systolic and diastolic blood pressure increased 1 hour post consumption of energy drink but not statistically significant. Heart rate increased significantly 1 hour post energy drink consumption. These results are similar to the results quoted in the studies conducted by Emily A. Fletcher et al and G. Geethavani et al.²⁰

Caffeine increases systolic blood pressure to extent of 17% and mean arterial blood pressure by about 11%. Heart rate was also increased. The increase in systolic blood pressure was attributed more to the increased stiffness of the aorta and larger blood vessels rather than increased stroke volume. The increase of aortic stiffness is attributed to the increased production of angiotensin II and catecholamines potentially nor adrenaline. These changes are attributable to the inhibition of adenosine A_{2α} receptors activity in the smooth muscles of blood vessels. The concomitant increase in the release of renin from the kidneys because of the direct stimulation by caffeine and similar activity on sympathetic ganglions releasing noradrenaline contributes to the increased activity of vascular smooth muscles

Adenosine is a potent vasodilator but caffeine, an adenosine analogue competitively inhibits the adenosine receptors and brings out vasoconstriction. The psychoactive effects of caffeine are due to the blockade of adenosine receptors of brain. It can increase the systolic blood pressure by enhancing angiotensin II and epinephrine. It can also increase the heart rate by increasing the levels of catecholamines.²¹

Jonson w. daniels et al²² showed that angiotensin II levels were increased with caffeine. As we know that angiotensin II is a powerful vasoconstrictor, it causes increase in blood pressure. In the present study we noticed increase in values of blood pressure after caffeine intake which clearly substantiates the above statement.

Angiotensin II (ANG) potently enhances catecholamine release from the peripheral sympathetic system.²³ Catecholamines released by this mechanism contribute to the vasoconstricting and sodium-retaining properties of ANG6. In particular, the chronic effects of ANG at moderately elevated levels are promoted by adrenergic pathways that are significantly involved in the development of hypertension.^{24, 25}

Caffeine with its multiple effects is (1) an adenosine receptor blocker. (2) Increases levels of angiotensin II (3) increases the levels of catecholamines.

Table 2 systolic blood pressure significantly increased in the female participants post 1 hour consumption of energy drink. Diastolic blood pressure and heart rate has increased but not statistically significant.

This could be due to the varying levels of sex steroids during different phases of the menstrual cycle.²⁶

Energy drinks generally contain more than the recommended amount of potentially harmful chemicals. The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulates the amount of caffeine in sodas and other caffeinated drinks but not in energy drinks.

Students should be counseled regarding the consumption of energy drinks like Red Bull and Monster energy drinks which contain a high amount of caffeine and have poor nutritive value. This increased caffeine consumption serves as a gateway for drug abuse later in life.

One has to outweigh the benefits and hazards of consuming an energy drink before consuming it in high amounts which raises concerns about its safety. Energy drinks also contain taurine and glucuronolactone which do not directly affect reaction time but may alter it in combination. Therefore consuming these ingredients in excess also raises concern regarding their toxicity. An ideal energy drink should have the lowest amount of caffeine and sugar while still accomplishing the needed results without addiction. Further research needs to be done to evaluate the effects of the individual components of energy drinks like taurine and glucuronolactone. Well-designed randomized placebo controlled studies are needed to assess the benefits of an energy drink.

Implementation of educational awareness campaigns, especially in medical colleges, about healthy dietary habits, potential benefits, side effects and correction of wrong perceptions about energy drinks is urgently needed. Policies for energy drinks consumption and control programs are also recommended.

Conclusion

An interventional study was taken up to see the acute effect of energy drink commonly available in the market on blood pressure and heart rate in medical students. The data was tabulated, analyzed statistically and discussed.

The following conclusions were obtained from the study:

In all the 40 participants

Systolic and diastolic blood pressure increased 1 hour post consumption of energy drink but not statistically

significant and Heart rate increased significantly 1 hour post energy consumption drink in all the 40 subjects.

Systolic blood pressure significantly increased in the female participants post 1 hour consumption of energy drink. Heart rate increased but not statistically significant

Systolic blood pressure and heart rate increased in the male participants 1 hour post consumption of energy drink but not statistically significant.

Conflict of Interest – Nil

Source of Funding- Self

Ethical Clearance – was obtained from the institutional ethical committee.

References

1. Meagan A Howard, Cecile A Marczynski. Acute Effects of a Glucose Energy Drink on Behavioral control. *Experimental and Clinical Psychopharmacology* 2010; 18(6):553-561.
2. Malinauskas BM, Aeby VG, Overton RF, Carpenter, Aeby T, Barber Heidal K. A survey of energy drink consumption among college students. *Nutrition Journal* 2007; 6: 1-7.
3. Mathew H Gendle, Darren M, Smucke R, Jason A et al. Attention and Reaction time in University Students Following Consumption of Red Bull. *The Open Nutrition Journal* 2009; 3: 8-10.
4. Jacob S, Tambawel J, Trooshi FM, Alkhoury Y. Consumption pattern of nutritional health drinks and energy drinks among university students in Ajman, UAE. *Gulf Medical Journal* 2013; 2 (1):22-26.
5. Grasser, E.K.; Yepuri, G.; Dulloo, A.G.; Montani, J.P. Cardio- and cerebrovascular responses to the energy drink Red Bull in young adults: A randomized cross-over study. *Eur. J. Nutr.* 2014, 53, 1561–1571
6. Elitok, A.; Oz, F.; Panc, C.; Sarikaya, R.; Sezikli, S.; Pala, Y.; Bugan, Ö.S.; Ateş, M.; Parıldar, H.; Ayaz, M.B.; et al. Acute effects of Red Bull energy drink on ventricular repolarization in healthy young volunteers: A prospective study. *Anatol. J. Cardiol.* 2015, in press.
7. Higgins, J.P.; Tuttle, T.D.; Higgins, C.L. Energy beverages: Content and safety. *Mayo Clin. Proc.* 2010, 85, 1033–1041
8. Higgins, J.P.; Babu, K.M. Caffeine reduces myocardial blood flow during exercise. *Am. J. Med.* 2013, 126, 730.e1–730.e8
9. Heckman, M.A.; Weil, J.; Gonzalez de Mejia, E. Caffeine (1, 3, 7-trimethylxanthine) in foods: A comprehensive review on consumption, functionality, safety, and regulatory matters. *J. Food Sci.* 2010, 75, R77–R87.
10. Robertson, D.; Frolich, J.C.; Carr, R.K.; Watson, J.T.; Hollifield, J.W.; Shand, D.G.; Oates, J.A. Effects of caffeine on plasma renin activity, catecholamines and blood pressure. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 1978, 298, 181–186.
11. García A., Romero C., Arroyave C., Giraldo F., Sanchez L., Sanchez J. (2016). Acute effects of energy drinks in medical students. *Eur J Nutr* (2016). doi:10.1007/s00394-016-1246-5
12. Ibrahim N, Al-Kharboush D, El-Khatib L, Al-Habib A, Asali D. Prevalence and predictors of anxiety and depression among female medical students in King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. *Iranian Journal of Public Health* 2013; 42 (7): 726-736.
13. Al-Turki YA. Smoking habits among medical students in Central Saudi Arabia. *Saudi Med J.* 2006; 27: 700-3.
14. Abdulghani HM, Alrowais NA, Alhaqwi AI, Alrasheedi A, Al-Zahir M, Al-Madani A, Al-Eissa A, Al-Hakmi B, Takroni R, Ahmad F. Cigarette smoking among female students in five medical and nonmedical colleges. *Int J Gen Med* 2013; 6: 719-27.
15. Bawazeer NA, AlSobahi NA. Prevalence and Side Effects of Energy Drink Consumption among Medical Students at Umm Al-Qura University, Saudi Arabia. *The International Journal of Medical Students* 2013; 1 (3): 104-108.
16. Reissig CJ, Strain EC, Griffiths RR. Caffeinated energy drinks—a growing problem. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 2009; 99: 1–10.
17. Arria AM, O'Brien MC. The “high” risk of energy drinks. *JAMA.* 2011; 305: 600–601.
18. The DAWN report. Substance Abuse and Mental Services Administration. January 10, 2013. Available at: <http://archive.samhsa.gov/data/2k13/DAWN126/sr126-energy-drinks-use.pdf>. Accessed October 1, 2017.

19. Documents link more deaths to energy drinks. Center for Science in the Public Interest. June 25, 2014. Available at: <http://www.cspinet.org/new/201406251.html>. Accessed October 1, 2017.
20. Emily A. Fletcher, Carolyn S. Lacey, Melenie Aaron, Mark Kolasa, Andrew Occiano, Sachin A. Shah. Randomized Controlled Trial of High-Volume Energy Drink Versus Caffeine Consumption on ECG and Hemodynamic Parameters. *Journal of the American Heart Association*. 2017; 6: e004448.
21. G. Geethavani, M. Rameswarudu, R. Rameshwari Reddy. Effect of caffeine on heart rate and blood pressure. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, Volume 4, Issue 2, February 2014, pg 1-232. Janson w.daniels et al. Effects of caffeine on blood pressure, heart rate and fore arm blood flow during dynamic leg exercise. *J Applied physiology*, 1998; 85: 154-159.
22. Janson w.daniels et al. Effects of caffeine on blood pressure, heart rate and fore arm blood flow during dynamic leg exercise. *J Applied physiology*, 1998; 85: 154-159.
23. Andreas dendorfer et al. Angiotensin II Induces Catecholamine Release by Direct Ganglionic Excitation. *Hypertension*, 2002; 40: 348-354.
24. Li Q, Dale WE, Hassler EM, Blaine EH. Acute and chronic angiotensin hypertension: neural and nonneural components, time course, and dose dependency. *Am J Physiol*. 1996; 271: R200–R207.
25. Csiky B, Simon G. Effect of Neonatal Sympathectomy on development of angiotensin II-induced hypertension. *Am J Physiol*. 1997; 272: H648–H656.
26. Viswanathan Shanti and Dube Manjree. Comparison of the effect of caffeine containing energy drink and Glucon D on auditory and visual reaction time. *International Journal of Medical Research & Health Sciences*, 2016, 5, 7:94-100

Effect of Short Term Pranayama on Perceived Stress, Sleep Quality, Heart Rate, and Blood Pressure

Mamatha Shree C¹, Prashanth K.S², Girija B³

¹Post-Graduate Student, ²Assistant Professor, ³Professor & Head, Department of Physiology, Bangalore Medical College & Research Institute, Bengaluru, Karnataka

Abstract

Background: Pranayama (breathing exercises), involves manipulation of breath, consists of three phases: “Puraka” (inhalation), “kumbhaka” (retention) and “rechaka” (exhalation) that can be either fast or slow. Among all yogic practices pranayama is simplest to learn and to practice regularly in daily life. So a study was conducted to explore whether pranayama practiced alone over a short duration, has any tangible effect on stress, sleep, and cardiovascular parameters

Objectives: To evaluate the effect of short term practice of pranayama on Perceived Stress, Sleep Quality, Heart rate & Blood Pressure.

Materials and method: 40 healthy subjects in the age group of 19-61 years were recruited in pranayama centers, prior to enrollment in pranayama course. Their HR, BP were recorded and they answered Perceived Stress Scale & Pittsburg Sleep Quality Questionnaire on the 1st day of enrollment. Then they practiced pranayama under supervision for 20 days, at the end of which HR, BP were recorded and they answered the same questionnaires. Data was statistically analyzed using students ‘t’ test, with P value <0.05 taken to be statistically significant.

Results: Practicing pranayama for 20 days significantly ($p < 0.05$) decreased stress, systolic & diastolic blood pressure, improved sleep quality. Heart rate changes were insignificant ($p = 0.9$).

Conclusion: Pranayama alone when practiced even over a short term, significantly reduces perceived stress, improves sleep quality, and decreases blood pressure.

Keywords: Pranayama, Heart Rate, Blood Pressure, Perceived Stress Scale, Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index

Introduction

Stress can be considered as a state of mental or emotional strain or tension resulting from adverse or demanding circumstances.¹ Exposure to stressful stimuli is perceived as a threat to an organism’s homeostasis and elicits a variety of physiological adaptation, encompassing endocrine, autonomic and behavioral aspects². Studies have shown that perceived stress negatively affects cardiovascular function by raising

blood pressure (BP) and diminishing cardiovascular reactivity in the subjects. Stress also adversely affects sleep quality

Increasing body of evidence points to the benefit of Yoga in reducing stress, and indirectly reversing several of its ill effects. Yoga is also being advocated as an adjunct to pharmacotherapy of disorders like hypertension and dyssomnias¹

Yoga encompasses a wide range of practices, including physical exercises, breathing exercises, meditation, and relaxation exercises. Yoga provides various physical and mental health benefits including reduction of stress, anxiety, depression, somatic and mental hyper-arousal, improves sleep quality³

Corresponding author:

Dr. Prashanth K.S,

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology,
Bangalore Medical College & Research Institute,
Bengaluru, Karnataka. kspdoc@gmail.com

Pranayama also called as breathing exercises, involves manipulation of breath that is a dynamic bridge between body and mind. “Pranayama” is a Sanskrit word constructed of two separate words, “Prana” and “Ayama”. Prana can be translated as breath, respiration, life, vitality and energy. Ayama can be translated as restraint, control and regulation. Put together Pranayama means regulation of breath and/or energy. Pranayama consists of three phases: “Puraka” (inhalation), “kumbhaka” (retention) and “rechaka” (exhalation) that can be either fast or slow.¹

Among all yogic practices pranayama is simplest to learn and to practice regularly in daily life. So present study was conducted to explore whether pranayama practiced alone (independently of other yogic practices) has tangible health benefits, particularly over stress, sleep, and cardiovascular parameters. If so, whether these effects are observable after short duration of practice.

Objectives

To evaluate the effect of short term practice of pranayama on Perceived Stress, Sleep Quality, Heart rate, and Blood Pressure.

Methodology

Clearance for the study was obtained from ethics committee of Bangalore Medical College & Research Institute.

This was an interventional study for which subjects were recruited from a particular organization in Bengaluru, which imparts training in yogic practices through multiple yoga centers across the city. One particular course offered by these centers was chosen which typically lasts for twenty days and comprises of training and practice of Pranayama only.

Subjects were chosen according to pre-set criteria, as listed below:

Inclusion Criteria:

1. Apparently healthy individuals
2. Subjects who had not practiced pranayama or other forms of Yoga yet in their lifetime.

Exclusion Criteria:

1. Subjects with sleep disorders.
2. Subjects with anxiety disorders.
3. Smokers, alcoholics or subjects with any substance abuse.
4. Subjects with endocrinal disorders.
5. Subjects with history of hypertension & cardiovascular disorders.
6. Subjects with respiratory disorders.
7. Subjects on continuous medication for any condition.

Written consent was obtained from willing participants. General and medical history was taken.

Physical examination was done. 40 subjects were finally enrolled in the study. The sample included both male and female subjects, ranging in age, from 19 to 61 years. First assessment of the subjects was done, at the time of joining the Pranayama course, before the actual training and practice started.

Subjects were asked to relax for 10 minutes following which HR & BP were recorded. Three readings each of HR & BP were recorded 10 minutes apart and average of two closest values was considered. BP was recorded using sphygmomanometer and stethoscope. Each subject was asked to answer “Perceived stress scale” and “Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index” questionnaires.

Perceived stress scale

PSS is the most widely used psychological questionnaire for measuring the perception of stress. Questions asked are of general nature, relatively free of content specific to any sub-population group and enquire about feelings and thoughts to measure the “degree to which situations in one’s life is appraised as stressful” especially, over last 1 month. Total score ranges from 0 to 40. Score of 0-13 is considered low stress, 14-26 is moderate stress & 27-40 is severe stress.⁴

The Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI)

The Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI) is a self-rated questionnaire designed specifically to measure sleep quality and sleep disturbances in clinical

populations. The PSQI asks subjects to rate sleep quality and disturbances over the month preceding test administration. The PSQI questionnaire consists of 19 items eliciting information on usual sleep habits, nature of sleep disturbances, suspected causes for sleep disturbances, use of sleep medication, overall sleep quality, daytime sleepiness, and vitality. Global score of >5 is considered poor sleep & <5 is good sleep⁵.

Subjects then began a course in which they practiced pranayama under supervision, 2 hours per day from 6PM to 8 PM, for the next 20 days. Pranayama was taught to the subjects by trained instructors and further practice was also done under their supervision. The sessions involved practice of various types of Pranayama like anuloma viloma, mudra pranayama, meru dhanda, dhavthi, kapala bhathi & each session was structured to incorporate these techniques for fixed durations

of time over 7 cycles. So all the subjects practiced similar techniques for similar duration of time, ensuring uniformity.

At the end of this period, the subjects underwent repeat assessment. Their heart rate, BP were recorded using the same procedure as earlier, and they answered earlier mentioned questionnaires.

The Pre and post Pranayama data was converted to mean and standard deviation, which were statistically analyzed using students 't' test. P value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

40 subjects with 15 females and 25 males were included in the study. Mean age of subjects was 37 ± 10 yrs

Table 1: Comparison of Perceived stress, Sleep quality, heart rate, and BP in 40 subjects before & after the course of pranayama

Parameter	Before course of pranayama	After course of pranayama	P value
PSS score	17.02 ± 5.73	7.2 ± 6.65	0.01
PSQI score	5.5 ± 3.27	3.9 ± 2.75	0.01
Heart rate (bpm)	78.87 ± 9.12	79 ± 8.05	0.93
SBP (mmHg)	128.15 ± 17.76	117.15 ± 10.36	<0.001
DBP (mmHg)	80.05 ± 9.96	76.1 ± 5.54	0.01

SBP: Systolic Blood Pressure

DBP: Diastolic Blood Pressure

PSS: Perceived Stress Scale

PSQI: Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index

Practicing pranayama for 20 days significantly ($p<0.05$) decreased stress, systolic & diastolic blood pressure, improved sleep quality. Heart rate changes were insignificant ($p=0.9$).

We also observed that before beginning the course, 11(27.5%) participants perceived low stress, 27(67.5%) perceived moderate stress & 2(5%) perceived high stress. But after practicing pranayama for 20 days 32(80%)

participants perceived low stress, 7(17.5%) perceived moderate stress & 1(2.5%) perceived high stress as seen by PSS scores.

16(40%) participants reported poor sleep & 24(60%) reported good sleep before practicing pranayama. After the course of pranayama 6(15%) participants reported poor sleep & 34(85%) reported good sleep as seen by PSQI scores.

Discussion

Our study reveals that practicing pranayama even for a relatively short duration of 20 days significantly decreased stress, SBP, DBP & improved sleep quality. It did not have significant effect on heart rate.

The mechanisms by which Pranayama brings about these effects is not yet clear, as the pathophysiological basis of stress and its ill effects, is itself not yet fully understood. From available literature, the following may be construed.

Psychosocial stresses of our modern life precipitates various cardiovascular and other disorders by distorting basic neuro-endocrine mechanism. The psychosocial stresses activate limbic system & hypothalamus which controls the autonomic nervous system. When this system is stimulated, increase in output of both adrenaline & nor-adrenaline occur, both from sympathetic fibres as well as from adrenal medulla causing increase in heart rate, systolic and diastolic blood pressures. Chronic exposure to psychosocial stimuli will result in the development of increase in blood pressure, coronary thrombosis and heart failure. In addition to the activation of sympatho-adreno-medullary system, exposure to psychosocial stresses also activates the hypothalamus centre governing pituitary adrenal axis. An increased secretion of corticotrophin releasing hormone from hypothalamus which stimulates the release of adrenocorticotrophic hormone from anterior pituitary which in turn stimulates adrenal cortex. Hence psychosocial stressful situation activates hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal gland axis, glucocorticoid and aldosterone levels increase in the plasma causing salt and fluid retention which increases blood volume and blood pressure imposing severe strain on the heart. The harmful effects of these stresses on bodily systems can be reduced effectively by enhancing the adaptive mechanisms of our body⁶

Bodhe et al, in their study, have explained that a significant decrease in systolic blood pressure (SBP) observed in their study to be due to following reasons: decrease in Sympathetic tone, increase in parasympathetic tone, decrease in stress (reduced baseline glucocorticoid level), increase in plasma melatonin level, and relaxation of mind.⁷

Satyanand et al, in their study proved that practice of anuloma-viloma and Bhramari pranayama gives good result to maintain normal blood pressure and also to reduce the stress level that we get in our day to day life⁸

Some studies have proved that regular practice of Pranayama for 5 minutes which causes mental relaxation and reduction of stress levels in daily life also induces parasympathetic dominance on cardiovascular system.

Resting HR is mainly determined by parasympathetic nervous system (PNS) and DBP is a function of peripheral vascular resistance (PVR) which is mainly determined by sympathetic nervous system (SNS). Decrease in DBP represents increase in parasympathetic and decrease in sympathetic activity following pranayama.

Sharma et al in their study have explained that, Pranayamic breathing interacts with the nervous system affecting metabolism and autonomic functions. During above-tidal inspiration, stretch of lung tissue produces inhibitory signals by action of slowly adapting stretch receptors and stretch of connective tissue (fibroblasts) localized around the lungs generates hyperpolarization currents, which are propagated through neural and non-neural tissues and both of them cause synchronization of neural elements in heart, lungs, limbic system and cortex. Inhibitory current synchronizes rhythmic cellular activity between cardiopulmonary center and central nervous system and also regulates excitability of nervous tissues indicative of state of relaxation.

Hyperpolarization of tissues manifests itself in parasympathetic like change. Synchronization within the hypothalamus and the brain stem is mainly responsible for the parasympathetic response. Modulation of the nervous system and decreased metabolic activity is indicative of the parasympathetic state.¹

Pranayama can be either slow or fast. More beneficial effects are seen with slow pranayamic breathing which can be due to the reason that slow breathing has been found to increase baroreflex sensitivity, reduce sympathetic activity and chemo-reflex activation in healthy subjects.

Furthermore, strongest cardio-ventilatory coupling is seen when there is decreased breathing frequency like slow pranayamic breathing. Increase in parasympathetic activity decreases resting HR and decrease in sympathetic tone in skeletal muscle blood vessels decreases peripheral vascular resistance resulting in decrease in DBP, MAP, reduced work load on heart and improved tissue perfusion.¹

Our study demonstrates that practicing pranayama decreased stress levels as perceived by the subjects, improved sleep quality, reduced both systolic and diastolic blood pressures. These changes were observable after practice of Pranayama alone, independent of other yogic practices, and after a relatively short duration of

twenty days. Implications of this finding are large.

Pranayama is easy to learn and practice. It does not require any material infrastructure. It is not physically demanding, so it can be practiced by persons of all age groups and even by those who may have physical limitations to engage in other types of exercise. These factors make pranayama easy to incorporate into daily routine. It can be used a tool to improve general wellbeing and may be very well used as an adjunct to treatment of a host of medical conditions.

Conclusion

Pranayama alone when practiced even over a short term, significantly reduces perceived stress, improves sleep quality and decreases blood pressure.

Limitations: Though the good results were obtained with 40 subjects the study should be reproduced with larger sample size. Stress levels and Sleep quality were assessed only by self- reporting by subjects. Tools like polysomnography and serum markers of stress, may be used for a more objective measurement.

Conflict of Interest: Nil

Source of Funding: Self

References

- Halpern J, Cohen M, Kennedy G, Reece J, Cahan C, Baharav A. Yoga for improving sleep quality and quality of life for older adults. *Altern Ther Health Med.* 2014;20(3):37-46
- Shankar N, Yadav A, Gautam S, Agarwal M. Effect of stress and yogic relaxation techniques (Anulomvilom & Shavasana) on cold induced pain perception in medical undergraduate students. *Indian J Tradit Knowl.* 2013;12(3):530-4.
- Sharma V, Trakroo M, Subramaniam V, Sahai A, Bhavanani A, Rajajeyakumar M. Effect of fast and slow pranayama on perceived stress and cardiovascular parameters in young health-care students. *Int J Yoga.* 2013;6(2):104-10.
- Cohen S, Kamarck T, Mermelstein R. A global measure of perceived stress. *Journal of Health & Social behavior.* 1983;24:386-96
- Buysse DJ, Reynolds CF, Monk TH, Berman SR, Kupfer DJ. The Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index: A new instrument for psychiatric practice and research. *Psychiatry Research.* 1989;28(2):193-213
- Devasena I, Narhare P. Effect of yoga on heart rate and blood pressure and its clinical significance. *Int J Biol Med Res.* 2011;2(3):750-3.
- Bodhe CD, Bhave SN, Jankar DS. Effects of short term pranayama on certain cardiovascular risk factors. 2015;6(2):83-6.
- Satyanand V, Bhakthavasala R, Lilly N, Shaik M, Shaik AB and Aditya M. Studying the role of yogic Pranayama in the management of Blood pressure. *Int J of Biomedical And Advance Research.* 2014;5(12):609-11

Cardiovascular Risks Assessment of Tobacco Smokers (Cigarette & Bidi) using hs CRP & Lipid Profile in Muzaffarnagar City

Salman Shafi Siddiqui¹, Mohd Amir², Deepankar Singh³, Tanu Aggarwal³,
Bhawana Sharma², Sudha Agarwal³

¹Associate Professor, ²Assistant Professor, ³Professor, Deptt. of Physiology, Muzaffarnagar Medical College,
Muzaffarnagar

Abstract

Cigarette and Bidi smoking are quite common in Uttar Pradesh. The present study was conducted in Muzaffarnagar city of Western Uttar Pradesh to assess the cardiovascular status of young male chronic smokers by estimating their hsCRP and lipid levels. A total of 100 subjects divided into two groups of control and smokers having a chronic history of smoking were taken for the study. Proper exclusion criteria were applied to the case selection. After applying the standard statistical tests we found that dyslipidemia and hsCRP level significantly increased ($p < .05$)* in smokers (2.72 ± 2.02)* as compared to normal population (1.13 ± 1.07). So we can confer these smokers with higher hsCRP levels and dyslipidemias are at higher risk of CADs in future.

Keyword: Smokers Cigarette Bidi hsCRP Lipid Profile Cardiovascular Status CAD

Introduction

Muzaffarnagar is a district located in Western Uttar Pradesh with a population of around 40 lakh (2011 census). Here tobacco smoking (cigarette & bidi) are quite common as rest of Uttar Pradesh. According to NFHS (National Family Health Survey) conducted in UP in late 90s revealed that 34% of adult males and 3.1% of adult females are current smokers. Rules and Regulation for tobacco use are almost absent in the state. As we all know WHO report 2002¹ tobacco is the most preventable cause of cardiovascular mortality world wide. Tobacco smoking has resulted in two fold increase in risk of Coronary Artery Disease (CAD).

In present study we tried to assess the levels of hsCRP (High Sensitivity C Reactive Protein) and lipid profiles in chronic tobacco smokers. Both hsCRP level

²and dyslipidemia³ are established risk factors for CAD. American Heart Association AHA has described level of hsCRP > 3 mg/l as higher risk of CAD.

WHO predicts that 70% of death from smoking related illness will occur in developing countries by 2020.

Aims & Objective of the study

To assess the levels of hsCRP and dyslipidemias in tobacco smokers as a marker of CAD in Muzaffarnagar city.

Material & Method

The present study was conducted in the Department of Physiology Muzaffarnagar Medical College over a period of 1 year from June 2017 to June 2018. More than 50 chronic male smokers with a history of smoking cigarette or bidi for more than 5 years in the age group 18-45 years, which are otherwise healthy, were taken as cases.

50 subjects in the same age group who don't have any history of tobacco consumption in any form were

Corresponding Author :

Mohd Amir,

Assistant Professor, Deptt of Physiology,
Muzaffarnagar Medical College, NH 58 Begrajpur
Industrial Area, Muzaffarnagar Pin 251203
Mail id – amirkazmi992003@yahoo.co.in

taken as controls.

The subjects having history of any cardiovascular event (Angina, Myocardial Infarction, Coronary syndrome, Stroke), known hypertensive, diabetics, renal disease, drug abuse, COPD were not taken in the study.

Proper informed consent was taken in written form signed by the subjects before conducting the study.

Ethical Clearance from society of human experimentation was taken before starting the study.

The subjects were divided into to 2 groups of 50 each

Group 1 - Controls (normal subjects)

Group 2 - Cases (Tobacco Smokers – cigarette or bidi)

These groups were evaluated for following tests

1. Serum hs CRP levels
2. Serum Lipid Profiles

Serum hs CRP level was estimated using ELISA kit method.

Lipid Profile Estimation –Triglycerides (TG) was estimated using GPO PAP method, total cholesterol was estimated by Wybenga & Pollegi method, HDL by spectrophotometry, VLDL & LDL by formulas.

Statistical Analysis

It was done by software SPSS 17 & Microsoft excel. Result was expressed as mean±SD. Unpaired t-test was used for comparison between the groups. p value < .05 was taken as significant.

Findings

Table 1 Serum hsCRP levels of two groups

Parameter	Control	Smoker
hsCRP(mg/L)	1.13±1.07	2.72±2.02*

hsCRP in tobacco smokers was statistically significant p<.05 as marked by *

Table 2 LIPID PROFILES OF TWO GROUPS(All values in mg /dl)

Parameters	Control	Smoker
Total Cholesterol	184.97±40.43	245.57±91.32*
Serum Triglycerides	115.91±28.2	122.41±45.17
HDL	56.52±6.0	54.31±4.13*
LDL	123.39±28.17	183.40±78.45*
VLDL	23.73±5.88	24.4±5.76
T Choles./HDL	3.3±.80	4.5±1.55*
LDL/HDL	1.80±.55	3.39±1.4*
NonHDL/HDL	2.3±.8	3.3±1.1*

All the values marked by * are statistically significant values with p <.05 .

Discussions

hs CRP levels has been found to be significantly increased in smokers as compared to control with p coming out be less than .05. The mean values of hsCRP is coming out be 2.72±2.02 mg/l which is accordance with AHA recommendation where values 1-3 recommend moderate risk and values >3 indicate high risks of CAD. These values in smokers are just approaching very high risk category. Tonstad et al⁴, Yanbaeva et al⁵, Wannamethee⁶, LoweGDO et al⁷ and Cushman et al⁸ all have shown rise of hsCRP in smokers as compared to past or never smokers. Nicotine present in tobacco smoke is responsible for creation of chronic inflammatory state Celermajer et al⁹ and Burke et al¹⁰. Tobacco smoke leads to activation of IL -6 and IL-β which are increased in response to lung inflammation and implicated in induction of hs CRP. These findings support the idea that induction or exacerbation of inflammation could be a mechanism by which smoking promotes Atherosclerosis.

Total cholesterol, LDL, Atherogenic indexes- T.Chol/HDL, LDL/HDL & Non HDL/HDL are found to be increased in our study in smokers as compared to normal population. HDL is found to be significantly decreased in smokers in our study as compared to normal

population. These findings are in consistence with similar results in past studies conducted by Gupta et al³, Yusuf et al¹¹, Khurana et al¹² & Venkatesan et al¹³. The basis of dyslipidemias in smokers is sympathomimetic effect of nicotine. Release of adrenaline leads to lipolysis by increasing activity of lipolytic lipase enzyme in adipose tissue. This leads to increase in serum concentration of free fatty acids, triglycerides, LDL and VLDL.

Conclusion

The people who smoke tobacco (cigarette or bidi) with elevated hsCRP levels and dyslipidemias are at higher risks of CAD in future.

Conflict of Interest None

Source of Fundings Self

Ethical Clearance From medical society on human experimentation taken.

References

1. WHO Report 2002 Reducing risks, promoting healthy life. Geneva WHO 2002 ; 47-98
2. Tracy RP, Lemaitre RN, Psaty BM, Ives DG, Evans RW, Cushman M et al –Relation of CRP to risk of CVD in elderly. Results from Cardiovascular health study and rural health promotion project. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 1997 ;17:11217.
3. Gupta V, Tiwari S, Agarwal CG- Effect of cigarette smoking on insulin resistance and lipid profile in asymptomatic adult. *IJPP* 2006
4. Tonstad S, Cowan et al –CRP as a predictor of disease in smokers and former smokers. *International Journal of Clinical Practise* 2009; 63:1634-1641
5. Yanbaeva, Denter MA et al –Systemic effects of smoking: *Chest* 2007;131:1557-66
6. Wannamethee SG, Lowe GD, Shaper AG et al. Association between cigarette smoking, pipe smoking and smoking cessation and haemostatic and inflammatory marker for cardiovascular disease. *Eur Heart J* 2005;26:1765-73
7. Lowe GDO, Yarnell JWG, Rumley A et al C-reactive protein, fibrin D –dimer and incident ischaemic heart disease in speedwell study are inflammation and fibrin turnover linked in pathogenesis?; *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 2001;21:603-10
8. Cushman M, Arnold AM, Psaty BM, Manolio TA, Kuller et al –C –reactive protein and 10 year incidence of coronary heart disease in older men and women; the cardiovascular health study; *Circulation*, 2005;112:25-31
9. Celermajer DS, Sorensen KE, Georgakopoulos D, et al Cigarette smoking is associated with dose related and potentially reversible impairment of endothelium dependent dilation in health young adults; *Circulation*:1993;88 2149-2155
10. Burke A, Fitzgerald GA et al- Oxidative stress and smoking induced vascular injury; *Prog Cardiovascular Dis* : (2003) :46;79-90
11. Yusuf PS, Hawkens S, Ounpuu S et al Effect of potentially modifiable risk factors associated with myocardial infarction in 52 countries : case control study; *Lancet* :2004;vol.364, no.9438 pp. 937-952
12. Khurana M, Sharma, Khandelwal P. D et al. Lipid profile in smokers and tobacco chewers a comparative study; *J Assoc Physician India* :2000 sep ; 48 (9):895-7
13. Venkatesan A, Hemlatha A, Bobby Zachariah, Sathiyapaya V –Effects of smoking on lipid profile and lipid peroxidation in normal subjects; *IJPP*: 2006, 50 (3) 273-278.

Study of Variations in Handgrip Strength in Asthmatic and Non Asthmatic People

Pooja Sakshi¹, Swati Sinha¹, Manish Shankar², Ashok Sharan³, Tarun Kumar⁴, Manish Kumar⁵, Sunita⁵

¹Tutor, Department of Physiology, Indira Gandhi Institute of Medical Sciences, Patna, ²Associate Professor, Dept. of T.B. & Chest, Indira Gandhi Institute of Medical Sciences, Patna, ³Professor & Head, Dept. of Physiology, Indira Gandhi Institute of Medical Sciences, Patna, ⁴Additional Professor, Dept. of Physiology, Indira Gandhi Institute of Medical Sciences, Patna, ⁵Associate Professor, Dept. of Physiology, Indira Gandhi Institute of Medical Sciences, Patna

Abstract

Background: Asthma is a major public health problem worldwide. It causes a deterioration of physical condition and cardiorespiratory capacity. However, little is known about muscular strength differences between patients with asthma and healthy subjects. So this study is focused on determining whether asthma has any effect on muscular strength or not.

Aims and Objective: In this study, we aimed to find the variations in handgrip strength in mild asthmatic and healthy subjects.

Material & Method: This cross sectional study was done to analyze the handgrip strengths in 40 people diagnosed with mild asthma of age 15-40 years, and compare the findings with that of age and sex matched 40 healthy subjects (for control) by using a hand-grip dynamometer (B.D.Instrumations).

Results: This study showed a significant (with $p < 0.05$) increase in the body mass index of mild asthmatic subjects. The Maximum handgrip strength was lower in mild asthmatic subject approximately by 6.62%, although it was not significant.

Conclusion: There was a significant increase in BMI when comparing subjects with mild asthma and healthy individuals. The maximum handgrip strength (MHGS) was lower in mild asthmatic subjects, although it was not significant. The height of healthy subjects was positively correlated with the handgrip strength whereas the age was negatively correlated with MHGS.

Keywords: Asthma, handgrip strength, hand-held dynamometer.

Introduction

Asthma is a heterogeneous disease, usually characterized by chronic airway inflammation. It may be defined by the history of respiratory symptoms such as shortness of breath, chest tightness and cough that varies over the time and in intensity together with expiratory airflow limitation.¹ It has been reported that the airway

distensibility in subjects with asthma is lower than normal.²

Even in asymptomatic patient airways can be edematous and infiltrated with eosinophils, neutrophils and lymphocytes, with or without increase in the collagen content of the epithelial basement membrane. They can contribute mediators and cytokines to initiate and amplify both acute inflammation and long-term pathological changes.³

Patient with asthma undergoes some activity limitation leading to reduced functional capacity. Muscle weakness can be due to reduced motor neuron activity,

Corresponding Author:

Dr Swati Sinha

Tutor (Physiology) IGIMS, Patna, Bihar
drpsnhakshi@rediffmail.com, Mob.: 9661548621

decreased percentage of type I fibers and increased percentage of type IIB fibers and reduced activity of enzymes involved in oxidative energy conversion.^{4,5}

Drugs like corticosteroid frequently used in asthma have risk for steroid induced myopathy.^{6,7}

It has been reported that muscular strength is significantly reduced in moderate to severe asthmatic subjects when compared to healthy subjects.^{8,9}

But little is known about muscle strength difference between mild asthmatic subjects and healthy subjects. In this context, the handgrip strength test is a quick and easy-to-perform muscular fitness test that provides useful information about overall muscular strength, and it could potentially be used in the clinical setting. So this study was undertaken to find out the effect of mild asthma on maximum hand grip strength (MHGS).

Aims & Objective

To determine the effect of mild asthma on maximum hand grip strength.

Material & Method

This was a cross sectional study done on 40 male subjects diagnosed with mild asthma of age 15-40 years and 40 healthy age, height, weight and sex matched volunteers (for control). It was carried out in the pulmonary function test laboratory, the Department of Physiology, IGIMS Medical College, Patna.

The study as approved by the ethical committee of the Institute. The study subjects who provided informed written consent were interviewed and a detailed clinical history was taken. Their age, height, weight and sex were recorded.

Inclusion criteria

Subjects were 15 - 40 years of age, diagnosed with mild asthma.

Exclusion criteria

Subjects with any other cardiac or pulmonary disease.

Subjects with any musculoskeletal and neuromuscular disease.

Either current or ex-smokers.

Subjects with inflammatory diseases.

History of hand or wrist surgery in last 3 months

Materials used for the study

The diagnosis of asthma and its assessment of severity were done according to the criteria of the Global Initiative for Asthma (GINA).¹ The following anthropometric Parameters were measured: height (cm), body mass (kg), and body mass index (BMI), which was calculated by dividing body mass (in kilograms) by the square of the height (in meters). A hand-grip dynamometer (B.D.Instrumations) was used to measure handgrip strength. For this, warm up was done. The warm up exercises included shaking both hands three times and bending and stretching all fingers three times. When adjusting the grip size, the hand was in line with the wrist and forearm. The grip size of the dynamometer was adjusted until the second joint of the index finger was at a 90 degree angle on the handle. The dynamometer was grasped between the fingers and the palm at the base of the thumb, held in line with the forearm at the thigh level so that it didn't touch the body or any other object during the test. The subject stood with the feet hip width apart with their toes pointing forward. After that, Subject took a breath in before starting the squeeze, then blew out the air during the squeeze.¹⁰

For the test, dominating hand was tested three times, with a 60- second rest between trials. Grip strength measurements are more accurate when using the mean of three grip trials as compared to either a single grip trial or the highest reading of three trials.¹¹

Statistical analysis

All data were expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Statistical significance was accepted at $P < 0.05$. Comparison between asthmatic and non asthmatic subjects for all parameters was performed by independent t-test. Spearman correlation coefficients were used to examine the relationships of maximum hand grip strength with age, height, weight and BMI within both groups.

Results

Table-1: Subject characteristics and studied variables

	Asthmatic n = 40	Control n = 40	Significance P
Age (years)	25.75±6.41	31.03±8.3	>0.05, NS
Height (m)	1.64±0.07	1.63±0.07	>0.05, NS
Weight (kg)	63.08±11.9	56.88±8.69	>0.05, NS
BMI (kg/m ²)	23.38±3.79	21.57±3.49	<0.05, S
MHGS (kg)	17.78±3.66	19.04±4.59	>0.05, NS

BMI, body mass index, MHGS, Maximum hand grip strength

All values are expressed as Mean ± SD

Analysis of all parameters done by Independent T- test
S- significant, NS-Not significant

No significant difference ($p < 0.05$) was observed in the distribution of age, weight and height among the asthmatic and healthy subjects. The body mass index was significantly increased in asthmatic subjects. The Maximum handgrip strength was lower in asthmatic subject approximately by 6.62%, although it was not significant.

Table-2: Pearson correlation between anthropometric variables and maximum hand grip strength in healthy male subjects (n=40)

Parameters	R(correlation coefficient)	Significance P
Age (years)	-0.508	<0.01 (HS)
Height (m)	0.501	<0.01 (HS)
Weight (kg)	0.248	>0.05 (NS)
BMI (kg/m ²)	-0.08	>0.05 (NS)

Table-3: Pearson correlation between anthropometric variables and maximum hand grip strength in asthmatic male subjects (n=40)

Parameters	R(correlation coefficient)	Significance P
Age (years)	-0.305	>0.05 (NS)
Height (m)	0.195	>0.05 (NS)
Weight (kg)	-0.107	>0.05 (NS)
BMI (kg/m ²)	-0.226	>0.05 (NS)

HS-Highly significant, S- significant, NS-Not significant

Maximum handgrip strength has significant positive correlations with height, whereas age has a significant negative correlation with maximum handgrip strength in healthy subjects.

Discussion

In this study we have taken 40 case of diagnosed mild bronchial asthma patients and 40 healthy subjects, whose MHGS test was done and relevant observation was made. All subjects were male of age 15 to 40 years. It was seen that the parameters weight and body mass index are all increased in asthmatic subjects as compared to healthy subjects, whereas MHGS was decreased in asthmatic subjects. Weight (kg), BMI (kg/m²) and MHGS (kg) in the asthmatic subjects and healthy subjects were 63.08±11.9, 23.38±3.79, 17.78±3.66 and 56.88±8.69, 21.57±3.49, 19.04±4.59 respectively. The BMI was significantly increased in asthmatic subjects.

Peoples with asthma tend to have a sedentary lifestyle and they have a lower aerobic capacity than healthy persons.¹² The fear of breathlessness and of exercise-induced asthma inhibits the participation of many patients¹³ in physical activity and sport, which causes a deterioration of their physical condition and cardiorespiratory capacity in relation with healthy people. Moreover, a sedentary lifestyle causes a higher prevalence of obesity among persons with asthma.

In our study, the height of healthy subjects is positively correlated ($R = 0.501$) with the hand grip strength. It could be due to various factors such as with greater heights that would lead to longer arms, with greater lever arm force generation, resulting in an efficient amount of force.¹⁴

Moreover, the age is negatively correlated ($R = -0.508$) with MHGS in this group. It can be explained by the decline in musculoskeletal strength and mass associated with aging.¹⁵ MHGS is not significantly correlated with weight and BMI. Koley S *et al.* also reported that weight and BMI is not associated with MHGS in Indian collegiate population.¹⁶

Conclusion

In conclusion, there was significant increase in BMI when comparing subjects with mild asthma and healthy individuals. The Maximum handgrip strength was lower in mild asthmatic subjects, although it was not significant. The height of healthy subjects was positively correlated with the Maximum hand grip strength whereas the age was negatively correlated with MHGS.

Ethical Clearance- Taken

Source of Funding- Self

Conflict of Interest - Nil

References

1. Global Initiative for Asthma (GINA). Global strategy for asthma management and prevention 2018. Available from www.ginasthma.org Date last updated 2018.
2. Ward C, Johns DP, Bish R, Pais M, Reid DW, Ingram C, Feltis B, Walters EH. Reduced airway distensibility, fixed airflow limitation, and airway wall remodeling in asthma. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2001 Nov 1;164(9):1718-21.
3. Harrison's principles of internal medicine. Kasper, Dennis L. 19th edition / editors, Dennis L. Kasper, Anthony S. Fauci, Stephen L. Hauser, Dan L. Longo, J. Larry Jameson, Joseph Loscalzo. New York :McGraw Hill Education Medical, [2015].
4. Gosker H, Wouters E, van der Vusse G, Schols AM. Skeletal muscle dysfunction in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and chronic heart failure: underlying mechanisms and therapy perspectives. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2000;71:1033-47.
5. Couillard A, Prefaut C. From muscle disuse to myopathy in COPD: potential contribution of oxidative stress. *Eur Respir J.* 2005;26:703-19.
6. Cluley S, Cochrane GM. Psychological disorder in asthma is associated with poor control and poor adherence to inhaled steroids. *Respir Med.* 2001;95:37-9.
7. Fahy JA, Kim K, Liu J, Boushey HA. Prominent neutrophilic inflammation in sputum from subjects with asthma exacerbation. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 1995;95:843-52.
8. Andrade LB, Silva DA, Salgado TL, Figueroa JN, Lucena-Silva N, Britto MC. Comparison of six-minute walk test in children with moderate/severe asthma with reference values for healthy children. *J Pediatr (Rio J).* 2014 May-Jun;90(3):250-7. doi: 10.1016/j.jpmed.2013.08.006. Epub 2013 Nov 1.
9. Ramos E, de Oliveira LV, Silva AB, Costa IP, Corrêa JC, Costa D, Alves VL, Donner CF, Stirbulov R, Arena R, Sampaio LM. Peripheral muscle strength and functional capacity in patients with moderate to severe asthma. *Multidiscip Respir Med.* 2015 Jan 21;10(1):3. doi: 10.1186/2049-6958-10-3. eCollection 2015.
10. Newman AB, Kupelian V, Visser M, et al. Strength, but not muscle mass, is associated with mortality in the health, aging and body composition study cohort. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 2006;61:72-7.
11. Hossain MG, Zyroul R, Pereira BP, et al. Multiple regression analysis of factors influencing dominant hand grip strength in an adult Malaysian population. *J Hand Surg Eur Vol* 2012;37: 65-70.
12. Norman K, Stobäus N, Gonzalez MC, Schulzke JD, Pirlich M. Hand grip strength: outcome predictor and marker of nutritional status. *Clin Nutr.* 2011 Apr;30(2):135-42.
13. Flood A, Chung A, Parker H, Kearns V, O'Sullivan TA. The use of hand grip strength as a predictor of nutrition status in hospital patients. *Clin Nutr.* 2014 Feb;33(1):106-14.
14. Sartorio A, Lafortuna CL, Pogliaghi S, Trecate L. The impact of gender, body dimension and body composition on hand-grip strength in healthy children. *Journal of Endocrinological Investigation.* 2002; 25: 431- 435.
15. Marmon AR, Pascoe MA, Schwartz RS, Enoka RM. Associations among strength, steadiness, and hand function across the adult life span. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2011;43(4):560-567.
16. Koley S and Singh AP. An association of dominant hand grip strength with some anthropometric variables in Indian collegiate population. *Anthropol Anz* 2009; 67: 21-28.

Impact of Parental History of Hypertension on Heart Rate by Treadmill

Kunipuri Sarala¹, Reddipogu Pavani², Akumalla Krishnaveni³

¹Associate Professor, ²Assistant Professor, Physiology, Kurnool Medical College, Kurnool, Andhra Pradesh,

³Professor and Hod Physiology, Mamata Medical College, Khammam, Telangana State

Abstract

The heart rate response to exercise is another determinant of the healthy cardiovascular system. Increased heart rate has been shown to be predictive of mortality and morbidity. A total of 100 subjects with parental history of hypertension were divided into two groups during pre exercise and post exercise period by treadmill. There was a significant decrease in heart rate after training. Heart rate variation has been shown to be predictive of mortality and morbidity in subjects with parental history of hypertension.

Keywords: Heart rate Parental history Tread mill pre exercise post exercise

Introduction

Hypertension is commonly asymptomatic, readily detectable usually easily treatable and often leads to lethal complications if left untreated. Given the health costs and potential importance of early detection of hypertension, several studies have examined the heart rate response to exercise as a risk factor for the development of hypertension.^{1,2}

Family history of hypertension is a contributory risk factor for cardiovascular abnormalities. Exercise tests bring about changes in the haemodynamics of the cardiovascular system.³

Materials and Method

The study was carried out at Government Medical College Kurnool in the department of Physiology and cardiology of Government General Hospital Kurnool for the selection of subjects.

We have selected 100 male subjects in the age group of 18-30 years with normal BMI and divided each 50 subjects as control group with parental history of hypertension during pre exercise and case group with post exercise by excluding any acute illness, Diabetes Mellitus, Anti-hypertensive medication, History of chest pain, breathlessness, orthopnoea, Physical disability like arthritis of the knee, any recent illness during the past two weeks.

A brief history, general and systemic examination was performed. Subjects were interviewed on the previous day with a detailed description of the protocol of the study and written consent was taken from them.

Study was done in a quiet room during which subjects lay supine, awake and breathing normally. After instrumentation, subjects were given a 30 min mandatory rest period. At the end of 30 minutes rest period, the ECG (II lead) recordings were started along with Blood pressure recording every 5 minutes for the next 10 minutes. Least Basal Heart Rate and Blood pressure was determined.

The target Heart Rate was then calculated

Maximum Heart Rate = 220-Age

Heart Rate Reserve = Maximum Heart Rate – Basal Heart Rate

Target Heart Rate = 60% Heart Rate Reserve + Basal Heart rate

The subject was instructed to walk on treadmill for 3 minutes at a speed of 1.75 kmph and speed increased to 2.4.kmph for 3 minutes , speed increased to 5.4 kmph. The subject was told to walk till he reached the target heart rate and the stop watch was started. The ECG and the heart rate were recorded during this period. At the end of 6minutes of exercise he is instructed to stop.

Recovery period began from the cessation of exercise and lasted for 10 minutes. The heart rate was recorded during 1st min, 3rd min, 6thmin during the recovery period. The recording was stopped at the end of 10 minutes.

Results

Table 1. Comparison of heart rate changes in pre and post training of exercise in group with p/h of HTN

HEART RATE	WITH P/H OF HTN (n=50)	WITH P/H OF HTN AFTER TRAINING (n=50)
At 1 st min	147.83 ± 7.25	139.69±3.56
At 3 rd min	150.61 ± 7.63	145.69±5.28
At 6 th min	153.33 ± 4.42	150.38±4.09

There is significant decrease in heart rate during 1st min 3rd min and 6th min in the group with parental history of hypertension after exercise training with $p < 0.0001$

Discussion

Physical activity inhibits vagal nerve impulses to heart and increases sympathetic discharge. The concerted inhibition of parasympathetic areas and activation of sympathetic areas of the medulla on the heart results in an increase in heart rate and myocardial contractility. The tachycardia and enhanced contractility increases cardiac output. As a result there is an increase in heart rate and blood pressure⁶.

Persons with high-normal resting blood pressure or unusually high blood pressure response to exercise are prone to develop hypertension⁷ and elevated exercise systolic blood pressure response was also predictor of new-onset hypertension. Subjects with parental history of hypertension also show an exaggerated blood pressure response.

Individuals with dysfunctional autonomic heart rate responses may be more predisposed to lethal cardiac arrhythmias and thus increased mortality regardless of the presence or extent of coronary artery disease. An example of attenuated response is chronotropic incompetence.

The increase in heart rate that accompanies exercise is due in part to a reduction in vagal tone. Attenuated heart rate response to exercise has been shown to be predictive of mortality and coronary heart disease risk⁸.

Abnormal heart rate response to exercise is associated with a significantly increased risk of cardiovascular mortality after adjusting for age, exercise capacity, cardiovascular risk factors, and ST segment depression.

Conclusion

Physical exercise is associated with parasympathetic withdrawal and increased sympathetic activity resulting in increases in heart rate. So, isotonic exercise in young age is beneficial to prevent many diseases. Heart rate rises linearly with increasing grades of exercise and comes back to basal value within 5 -10 minutes. Normotensive young adults with a family history of hypertension will show an exaggerated heart rare response to exercise.

Conflict of Interest: No

Ethical Clearance: Taken from Kurnool Medical College, Kurnool, Andhra Pradesh committee

Source of Funding: Self

References

1. Wilson MF, Sung BH, Pin comb GA, and Lovallo WR. Exaggerated pressure response to exercise in men at risk for systemic hypertension. *Am J Cardio* 1990; 66:731-6.
2. Dlin RA, Hanne N, Silverberg DS, Bar-Or O. Follow up of normotensive men with exaggerated blood pressure response to exercise. *Am Heart Journal* 1983; 106:316-20.
3. Biswas DA, Kher JR. Cardio respiratory changes associated with grade Exercise and determination of aerobic power in male medical students. *Indian J Physiol Pharmacol* 1996; 40(1): 79-82.
4. College step test for estimation of maximum oxygen uptake in female students. *Indian Journal Med Res* 2005 January; 121: 32 – 35
5. Berne RM, Levy MN. *Physiology*. 3rdEd. StLouis, Missouri: Mosby Year Book; 1993
6. Lauer MS, Francis GS, Okin PM, Pashkow FJ, Snader CE, Marwick TH. Impaired chronotropic

- response to exercise stress testing as a predictor of mortality. *JAMA* 1999; 281:524-9.
7. Chatterjee S, Chatterjee P, Bandyopadhyay A. Validity of queen's College step test for estimation of maximum oxygen uptake in female students. *Indian Journal Med Res* 2005 January; 121: 32 – 35
 8. Berne RM, Levy MN. *Physiology*. 3rdEd. StLouis, Missouri: Mosby Year Book; 1993
 9. Singh JP, Larson MG, Manolia TA, O' Donnell CJ, Lauer M, Evans JC, Levy D, et al. Blood pressure response during treadmill testing as a risk factor for Newonset hypertension. *Circulation* 1999;99: 1831-6.
 10. Sutter JD, de Veire NV, Elegeert I. Chronotropic incompetence: are the carotid arteries to blame? *European Heart Journal*, 2006, 27(8):897-8.
 11. Balady GJ, Larson MG, Vasan RS, Leip EP, O'Donnell CJ, Levy D. Usefulness Of exercise testing in the prediction of coronary disease risk among Asymptomatic persons as a function of the Framingham risk score. *Circulation* 2004; 110:1920–5
 12. Javorka M, Zila I, Balharek T, Javorka K. Heart rate recovery after exercise: Relations to heart rate variability and complexity. *Braz J Med Biol Res* 2002 Aug; 35 (8):991-1000.
 13. Jouven X, Empana JP, Schwartz PJ, Desnos M, Courbon D, Ducimetiere P. Heart-rate profile during exercise as a predictor of sudden death. *N Engl J Med* 2005; 352:1951–8.
 14. Guyton AC, Hall JE. *Textbook of Medical Physiology*. 10th ed. Philadelphia : W.B. Saunders Company; 2000.
 15. Thulin T, Werner O. Exercise test and 24 hour heart rate recording in men with high and low causal blood pressure levels. *British Heart Journal* 1978;48:534 540.

Assessment of Neurocognitive Impairment in Obstructive Sleep Apnea

Nazia Uzma¹, Juhi Fatima Sultan², NoorUddin Owaisi², Mariya Syed², Abid Ali Khan², Ashfaq Hasan³

¹ Department of Physiology, ²MBBS Student, Deccan College of Medical Sciences, Hyderabad, India,

³Department of Respiratory Medicine, Owaisi Hospital and Research Center, Hyderabad, India

Abstract

Sleep apnea is usually reported in south Indian population. The indications of obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) comprise of breathing difficulties particularly owing to obstruction in the upper airway tract. The present study investigated the effect of the syndrome, the patients documented with OSA, by categorizing the patients into mild, moderate and severe OSA groups depending on apnea-hypopnea index (AHI), derived from sleep study (polysomnographic findings). The comparative evaluation of various outcomes considered in this study included healthy individuals (control group, AHI < 5), mild OSA (AHI 5-15), moderate (OSA 15-30) and severe (AHI > 30). Investigations were conducted on the subjects which evaluated baseline characteristics, polysomnographic data and neuro-cognitive performances by Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE). The results revealed significantly higher body mass index (BMI), snoring and decreased sleep efficiency in patients with sleep apnea syndrome when compared with control group. OSA patients further exhibited compromised neuro-cognitive. The intensity of the impairments and difficulties increased with upsurge in severity of the syndrome among all patients. The findings of this work strongly indicated that impaired executive functioning; neuro-cognitive abnormalities exist in a heightened state among OSA patients, than in the normal healthy individuals, the control group. These findings in aggregate would help clinicians in diagnosis and in understanding the disease prognosis.

Keywords: Obstructive Sleep Apnea, apnea-hypopnea index (AHI), Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE), Polysomnographic findings.

Introduction

Sleep is a vivacious part of good health and wellbeing. Pathologic disruption of sleep is related with a number of adverse health and safety outcomes¹⁻². Episodic cessation of breathing during sleep is referred as sleep apnea³. Sleep apnea is broadly classified into three principal types: obstructive, central and mixed. Obstructive sleep apnea, is caused by collapse of the soft tissues of upper airway during sleep whereas, Central apnea, which occurs when brain does not send proper signals to the muscles that controls breathing.

Additionally some people have complex sleep apnea which is a combination of both. The distinctive features of obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) includes repeated episodes of high-resistance breathing, reduced breathing (hypopnea events), and breathing pauses (apnea events) during a single night of sleep⁴⁻⁵. OSA is generally defined as five or more apneas and/or hypopnic events as per hour of sleep [(apnea-hypopnea index (AHI)>5)]. The severity of OSA is measured by the apnea-hypopnea index (AHI), obtained by counting the total number of apneas and hypopneas during sleep and dividing that by the hours of sleep. An AHI lower than 5 per hour is considered as normal; an AHI of 5 to 15 is mild OSA, 15 to 30 is moderate OSA, and greater than 30 events per hour is severe disease. The common symptoms of OSA is excessive daytime sleepiness, which may be mild or severe enough to interfere with employment or driving an automobile, day to day activities and could also leads

Corresponding author:

Dr. Nazia Uzma,

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology,
Deccan College of Medical Sciences, Hyderabad,
India-500 058, Email: naziauzma@rediffmail.com
Tel: 09985651224, +91-40-24340547

to cognitive decline⁶⁻⁷.

OSA is being progressively renowned as a cause of substantial medical, social and psychological morbidity as well as an increased mortality⁸⁻⁹. The concerns of OSA are diverse and in most of the cases are often serious; nevertheless the syndrome remains largely under-diagnosed. Early recognition and treatment are essential to alleviate the symptoms and consequence of sleep related disorders. The aim of this study was to determine the strength of association of OSA and its sequelae of events to morbidity in a representative sample and to assess the neurocognitive functioning in patients with OSA and its correlation with the severity of OSA.

Material and Method

Study protocol

100 OSA patients and 50 control subjects of both the genders were recruited for the study. Prior to the study, informed consent will be obtained from the patients and the ethical clearance was obtained from Institutional Ethics Committee of Deccan College of Medical Sciences and allied hospitals. Data on demographic characteristics, sleep pattern, medical history, medication use, and habits was obtained with the use of a standardized questionnaire administered by a trained technologist before the initiation of overnight polysomnography (PSG); the questionnaires was reviewed by a physician. Patients on continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) therapy, oral appliances or any other treatment for OSA, Diabetics and any other disorders such as Parkinson's disease which are known to affect peripheral neuropathy, smokers, pregnant and lactating female were excluded from the study.

Assessment of Sleep apnea

Based upon the symptoms the patient's undergone full-night polysomnographic study within the premises of a sleep lab. Continuous polygraphic recordings was acquired applying electroencephalographic, electrocardiographic, electro-oculographic and actigraphic leads. Total cessation of airflow for at least 10 seconds was classified as apnea and partial airway closure, resulting in a reduction of airflow by more than 30% for at least 10 seconds and associated with oxygen desaturation of 4% or more, was termed as hypopnea. Calculated polysomnographic variable was including

the apnea-hypopnea index¹⁵.

Cognitive function test

The Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) is a well-validated screening tool and was used for appraisal of cognitive impairment. The test measures orientation to time and place, attention, immediate recall, short-term verbal memory, calculation, language, and the ability to follow simple verbal and written commands. The division of scores were according to the task allotted in each part of the test such as for orientation (10 points), registration (3 points), attention and calculation (5 points), recall (3 points) and 9 points for language and praxis. The scores were summed and the interpreted. An aggregate score in the range of 24-30 showed no cognitive impairment, 18-23 mild cognitive impairment and 0-17 severe cognitive impairment

Statistical Analysis

Student's t-test was used to compare mean values at baseline among OSA patients with those in the control group. The data will be analyzed by an analysis of variance (ANOVA), chi-square, t-tests, correlation and regression analysis and other necessary statistical analysis wherever necessary. The differences was considered significant if $p < 0.05$. All the analysis was processed by the software's; SPSS 18.0 and Origin 8.

Observations and Results

The average time for administration of the OSA questionnaire and cognitive test was 30 minutes. A total of 123 patients were enrolled to the sleep center during the study period, of whom, 100 (M/F, 1/0.27) were considered eligible to participate in the sleep study and underwent polysomnography. Based on the past history, 23 patients were deemed ineligible as they were taking Continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) treatment for OSA. A total of 100 of the 123 study participants (71%) were identified as having obstructive sleep apnea. Table 1 shows the demographic data of the study group and controls. Apnea-hypopnea index (AHI) was acquired by including the total number of apneas and hypopneas during sleep and dividing that by the hours of sleep. Among all the OSA patients 26% were having mild OSA, 16% moderate and 48% were having severe OSA (with respect to the AHI criteria discussed above) respectively.

Table 1: Socio- demographic characteristics of participants.

Characteristics	OSA patients (n=100)	Controls (n=50)	Significance (P value)
Age (Yr) (Mean ± SD)	51 ± 12	62 ± 3	0.836
Male Sex (%)	52	36	0.04
Habitual Snoring (%)	29	11	<0.001
Body Mass Index (Mean ± SD)	36 ± 5	21 ± 3	<0.001
Obesity (%)	23	08	<0.001
Apnoea-Hypopnea Index (AHI)	34.6±16.5	1.4±0.8	<0.001
Current Consumption of Alcohol (%)	15	9	0.12

Table 2 shows the evaluation of MMSE for cognitive assessment in both OSA patients and control. We observed a significant decrease in MMSE score in OSA patients when compared to control. Orientation 3.2±0.8 was low in OSA patients whereas it was found

to be 3.9±1.1 in controls. Memory (immediate and delayed recall), registration, attention and calculation skills, language and constructive praxis was observed to be 7.9± 1.3, 2.2±0.6, 3.7±1.2 and 2.2±0.6 respectively in OSA patients which was found to significantly low in contrast with controls.

Table 2: Cognitive performance of OSA patients and controls .

Cognitive test	Patients with OSA (n=100)	Controls (n=50)	Significance (P value)
MMSE	26.7 ± 1.6	28.9 ± 0.9	0.01
<i>Orientation</i>	3.2±0.8	3.9±1.1	0.042
<i>Registration</i>	2.2±0.7	2.6±0.4	0.038
<i>Attention and Calculation</i>	3.7±1.2	4.2±0.7	0.046
<i>Recall</i>	7.9± 1.3	8.7± 1.0	0.02
Language and Praxis	2.2±0.6	2.7±0.3	0.041

Discussion

OSA syndrome, estimated to occur in about 1 in 20 of all adults, is usually unrecognized, undiagnosed and results in behavioral, metabolic and cardiovascular morbidity. The patients with OSA have difficulty with attention, task learning and performing any task at work compared with the general population¹⁶. As such cognitive impairment can also disrupt a patient's ability to gain or maintain employment because their behaviour may be misunderstood as laziness or a lack of motivation¹⁷. The present study, included adults

from Hyderabad, South India, attempted to examine the epidemiological and cognitive status of obstructive sleep apnea, particularly its relationship with AHI, obesity and cognitive parameters.

Executive and cognitive functioning are integral parts of daily life. The data suggested serious impairment by day time sleepiness, sleep fragmentation on cognitive abilities in OSA patients. The negative effects of these attributes have also been extensively discussed in research findings of other researchers as well, such as impaired cognitive function reduced attention, vigilance,

memory, executive dysfunction, with worsening effects with increase in severity; resulting in a global cognitive impairment..

Our results demonstrated that, sleep disordered breathing was strongly associated with the impaired cognitive functioning. The Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE), a well-validated selection tool was used for evaluation of cognitive impairment. In our study while assessing attention, memory, language and executive functions, we found that the performance of OSA patients was impaired in comparison to healthy controls in. The impact of OSA on cognitive performance provided insight into important parameters in ascertaining the degree of damage in OSA subjects. Low attention, loss in memory and low executive function capabilities are useful indicators in understanding the symptoms of OSA. MMSE, being a global measure of cognitive functioning, showed significant categorical changes in various aspects of executive function, and the overall score indicated the implication of the score.

Hence, a variability of cognitive fields seems to be exaggerated in this condition and brief cognitive testing may detect such changes which are in consistent with the previous findings by Bawden CF et al 2011¹⁰.

Our analysis suggests that OSA of reasonable severity may be associated with moderate to large impairments. While assessing the cognitive performance in patients with mild OSA, a noteworthy impairments may not be evident at low levels of sleep disordered breathing and symptomatology.

One of the probable reason could be either of nocturnal hypoxaemia or severe sleepiness in the impairment to cognitive performance both reported by ^{18,19} and measured patients with OSA^{20,21}

As revealed previously, cognitive dysfunction may be an important denominator in the increased risk of occurrence of road accidents in patients with OSA. We believe that the assessment of cognitive impairment, even being of mild severity, is enough to persuade further studies targeting at explicating the etiology of these deficits.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we found that OSA was responsible for inconsistencies in attention, memory and executive

functioning. We observed cognitive impairment in patients with OSA, which is a significant factor in averting road accidents and may help the patient to improve or maintain employment. The early medical treatment may help to prevent such symptoms in patients with OSA and can improve the quality of life.

Summary

In summary, the results of this study provide compelling evidence that OSA is related with cognitive decline. Although hypoxemic stress and sleep disruption are likely the key players in the pathogenetic mechanisms behind such derangements, the role of an underlying common denominator needs to be scrutinized. Further studies are needed to define the driving mechanisms through which sleep-disordered breathing promotes many of these consequences.

Funding: No funding was received for this research.

Conflict of Interest: All authors certify that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest or non-financial in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

Ethical approval: All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

Informed consent: Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

References

1. Gabrielle B, Jean E and Martin B. Sleep Stage 2: An Electroencephalographic, Autonomic, and Hormonal Duality. *Sleep* 2005; 28(12):1535-40
2. Nabil M. Al Lawati, Sanjay R. Patel and Najib TA. Epidemiology, Risk Factors, and Consequences of Obstructive Sleep Apnea and Short Sleep Duration. *Progress in Cardiovascular Diseases* 2009; 51(4): 285-293
3. Lee S, Chiu HFK, Chen CN. Sleep apnea- an overview. *Singapore Medical Journal* 1989;30: 24-27.

4. Remmers JE. Obstructive sleep apnea – a common disorder exacerbated by alcohol. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1984;130: 153-5.
5. Dolly FR, Block AJ. Effect of Flurazepam on sleep-disordered and nocturnal oxygen desaturation in asymptomatic subjects. *Am J Med* 1982;73: 239-43.
6. American academy of sleep medicine,2005. The international classification of sleep disorders. American academy of sleep medicine. Westchester, IL.
7. Paul P. Doghramji. Recognition of obstructive sleep apnea and associated excessive sleepiness in primary care. *Supplement to The Journal of Family Practice* 2008; 57(8): 19-23.
8. Kales A, Vela-Bueno A, Kales JD. Sleep disorders: Sleep apnea and narcolepsy. *Ann Intern Med* 1987; 106:434-43.
9. Findley LJ, Levinson MP, Bonnie RJ. Driving performance and automobile accidents in patients with sleep apnea. *Clin Chest Med.* 1992;13:427-435.
10. Bawden FC, Oliveira CA, Caramelli P. Impact of obstructive sleep apnea on cognitive performance. *Arq Neuropsiquiatr* 2011;69(4):585-589
11. Engleman HM and Douglas NJ. Sleepiness, cognitive function, and quality of life in obstructive sleep apnoea/hypopnoea syndrome. *Thorax* 2004;59:618–622.
12. Alchanatis M et al studied ‘Sleep apnea-related cognitive deficits and intelligence: an implication of cognitive reserve theory. *Journal of Sleep Research* 2005; 14(1): 69–75.
13. Akashiba T, Kawahara S, Akahoshi T, et al. Relationship between quality of life and mood or depression in patients with severe obstructive sleep apnea syndrome. *Chest.* 2002;122: 861-865.
14. Wells RD, Day RC, Carney RM, et al. Depression predicts self-reported sleep quality in patients with obstructive sleep apnea. *Psychosom Med.* 2004; 66:692-697.
15. Meoli AL, Casey KR, Clark RW, Coleman JA et al. Hypopnea in sleep-disordered breathing in adults. *Sleep* 2001;24: 469-70.
16. Jackson, M. L., Howard, M. E., and Barnes, M. (2011). Cognition and daytime functioning in sleep-related breathing disorders. *Prog. Brain Res* 2001; 190: 53–68.
17. Dinges, D. F., Pack, F., Williams, K., Gillen, K. A., Powell, et al. Cumulative sleepiness, mood disturbances and psychomotor vigilance performance decrements during a week of sleep restricted to 4-5 h per night. *Sleep* 1997;20: 267–271
18. Kales A, Caldwell AB, Cadieux RJ, et al. Severe obstructive sleep apnea-II: Associated psychopathology and psychosocial consequences. *J Chron Dis* 1985;38:427–34.
19. Ulfberg J, Carter N, Talback M, et al. Excessive daytime sleepiness at work and subjective work performance in the general population and among heavy snorers and patients with obstructive sleep apnea. *Chest* 1996;110:659–63.
20. Engleman HM, Martin SE, Deary IJ, et al. Effect of CPAP therapy on daytime function in patients with mild sleep apnoea/hypopnea syndrome. *Thorax* 1997;52:114–9.
21. Engle man HM, Cheshire KE, Deary IJ, et al. Daytime sleepiness, psychometric performance and mood after CPAP therapy for the sleep apnoea/ hypopnoea syndrome. *Thorax* 1993;48:911–4.

Glycated Haemoglobin and its Association with Lipid Profile in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus

Santosh Palekar¹, Umesh Balgi², Sandhya M³

¹Associate Professor, ²Professor, ³Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, Kamineni Institute of Medical Sciences, Narketpally, Nalgonda

Abstract

Background: . Patients with type 2 diabetes have an increased prevalence of lipid abnormalities, contributing to their high risk of cardiovascular diseases (CVD)¹. Glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) is the indicator of glycemic status over long term. This study is an attempt to evaluate the diagnostic value of HbA1c in predicting diabetic dislipidemia. **Method:** Venous blood was collected from 100 type 2 diabetic patients age 35 – 75 years, 50 males and 50 females attending the Diabetic OPD, Civil hospital Gulbarga were enrolled in the study. Investigations like fasting and post prandial blood sugar, HbA1c and lipid profile (Cholesterol, Triglycerides, HDL, LDL & VLDL). Both males and females patients with worse glycemic control (HbA1c > 9%) had significantly high cholesterol and LDL levels. **Result:** HbA1c showed direct and significant correlation with cholesterol, triglycerides and LDL cholesterol, and reverse correlation with HDL cholesterol. .

Keywords: Glycemic control, HbA1c, Serum lipid profile, Type 2 diabetes

Introduction

Diabetes mellitus is a group of metabolic disease characterized by hyperglycaemia resulting from defects in insulin secretion, insulin action, or both. Diabetes causes about 5% of all deaths globally each year⁴. The chronic hyperglycaemia of diabetes is associated with long-term damage, dysfunction, and failure of various organs, especially the eyes, kidneys, nerves, heart, and blood vessels. 50% of people with diabetes die of cardiovascular disease (primarily heart disease and stroke). The risk of chronic complications increases as a function of the duration of hyperglycemia; they usually become apparent in the second decade of hyperglycemia².

Glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) is routinely used as a diagnostic tool for measuring long term glycemic control³. In accordance with its function as an indicator for the mean blood glucose level, HbA1c predicts the

risk for the development of diabetic complication in diabetes patients.

Glycemic control with decreased level of HbA1c is likely to reduce the risk of complications.

Avogaro et al (Avogaro A et colab) have suggested that type 2 diabetic dislipidemia in females and hyperglycemia in males are important risk factors are amenable to more aggressive treatment⁴.

Material and Method

Study comprised a total of 100 type 2 diabetic patients who were examined at a private laboratory, in a national study of HbA1c in type 2 diabetic patients. There were 50 males and 50 females. Informed consent was taken from the subjects. Ethical clearance was taken from ethical committee of M.R. medical college and research center. The age of patients ranges between 35 and 75 years. All the patients were categorized into four age groups : < 50; 50-60; 60- 70' > 75 years. Venous blood samples from all the subjects were collected in serum separator tubes. The sera were analyzed for glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c), fasting blood glucose (FBS), total cholesterol, triglycerides (TS) and high

Corresponding author:

Umesh Balgi,

Professor, Department of Physiology,
Kamineni Institute of Medical Sciences,
Narketpally, Nalgonda-585105

density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL) using an auto analyzer Hitachy 17 The level of low density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL) was determined using the formula: $LDL = (Cholesterol - TG) / (2,2 HDL)$. The impact of glycemic control on various parameters was evaluated by categorizing all the patients into 3 categories on the basis of HbA1c levels : HbA1c < 6% (good glycemic control, HbA1c > 6-9% (poor glycemic control) and HbA1c > 9 % (worse glycemic control)⁴ .

Hypercholesterolemia is defined as TC > 200 mg/dl, high LDL when value > 100 mg / dl, hypertriglyceridemia as TG > 150 mg/dl and low HDL when value < 40 mg/dl. Dyslipidemia was defined by presence of one or more than one abnormal serum lipid concentration³ .

Statistical analysis was done by using student's unpaired 't' test using Graph pad software¹¹. Pearson's correlation coefficient was also calculated using online calculator to find the correlation between HbA1c and lipid parameters³. Value of HbA1c was given as percentage

of total haemoglobin and values of all other parameters were given in mg/dl. All Values are expressed as mean \pm SD. The results were considered non-significant when $P > 0.05$.

Result

Among total 100 type 2 diabetic individuals included in this study, 50 were male and 50 were female. The mean age \pm SD of male and female subjects were 51.14 ± 6.40 and 50.46 ± 5.62 years respectively. The mean value of HbA1c and FBG were slightly higher in females in comparison to male patients but the differences were not significant. When lipid profiles were taken in to consideration, 61 patients (41.3%) had TG levels > 150 mg/dl; 28 patients (18%) had LDL > 100 mg/dl; 15 patients (10.6%) had TC > 200 mg/dl & 1 (0.7%) patient had HDL < 40 mg/dl. There was no statistically significant difference in Total cholesterol, Serum Triglyceride, LDL or VLDL levels among both the genders though HDL levels in females were significantly more than males.(Table 1)

Table 1: Male and female lipid parameters results of male and female type 2 Diabetes patients

Parameter	Males (n= 50)	Females (n=50)	Total (n=100)
FBG(mg/dl)	120.64 \pm 33.80	131.05 \pm 37.71	124.92 \pm 34.51
HbA1c(%)	7.27 \pm 1.40	7.67 \pm 1.44	7.49 \pm 1.42
TC (mg/dl)	146.36 \pm 34.38	155.25 \pm 30.42	152.91 \pm 34.06
TG(mg/dl)	143.33 \pm 50.31	160.42 \pm 65.20	152.80 \pm 58.59
LDL(mg/dl)	64.87 \pm 34.60	72.81 \pm 28.78	71.40 \pm 32.00
VLDL(mg/dl)	27.80 \pm 09.87	32.08 \pm 12.24	30.54 \pm 10.92
HDL(mg/dl)	44.70 \pm 4.10	53.32 \pm 3.22	51.95 \pm 7.20

Table 2: Lipid parameters categorized by patient's glycaemic control (HbA1c)

Parameter	HbA1c<7 (Good glycaemic control)	HbA1c >7 (Poor glycaemic control)	P value
FBG (mg/dl)	106.19 \pm 21.24	142.54 \pm 37.65	P <0.0001
HbA1c(%)	6.24 \pm 0.46	8.54 \pm 1.12	P <0.0001
TC (mg/dl)	140.95 \pm 27.01	158.30 \pm 28.54	P=0.0010
TG(mg/dl)	136.60 \pm 44.76	164.36 \pm 67.42	P=0.0052
LDL(mg/dl)	64.56 \pm 20.84	72.86 \pm 22.60	P=0.0210
VLDL(mg/dl)	26.72 \pm 9.12	32.08 \pm 12.46	P=0.0052
HDL(mg/dl)	52.62 \pm 7.26	50.00 \pm 7.3	P=0.0320

Out of 100 patients, 50 patients had HbA1c values less than or equal to seven (Good Glycaemic control) while rest of 50 patients had HbA1c values more than seven (Poor Glycaemic Control). Strong positive correlation was observed between FBG and HbA1c as shown by Pearson's correlation coefficient. Similarly, values of TC, TG, LDL & VLDL in Good Glycaemic Control group were significantly lower than Poor Glycaemic Control group. Values of TG had moderate positive correlation with HbA1c values while TC, LDL & VLDL values had only weak positive relationship. HDL levels were significantly high in Good Glycaemic Control group as compared to Poor Glycaemic Control group and demonstrated a weak negative correlation.

Discussion

In this study, association of glycated haemoglobin and lipid profile among diabetic patients has been studied. There is no significant difference in glycemic parameters as well as lipid profile between males and females. The HDL values which are significantly higher in females. A good number of diabetic patients have hypercholesterolemia, hypertriglyceridemia, high LDL and low HDL levels and these are risk factors for cardiovascular diseases.

There is a positive correlation between glycated haemoglobin and lipid profile. Khan et al., also reported that severity of dyslipidaemia increases in patients with higher HbA1c value¹⁶. Khaw et al. has reported that reducing the HbA1c level by 0.2% could lower the mortality by 10%¹⁷. The glycemic control is important in prevention of cardiovascular diseases in type 2 diabetics.

Conclusion

There is a greater association of HbA1c with lipid profile in type 2 diabetes mellitus and showed positive correlations with TC, TG, LDL & VLDL and negative correlations between HbA1c and HDL levels is found. HbA1c level can be used as good parameter for predicting the lipid profile of both male and female diabetic patients⁹. Timely intervention with lipid lowering drugs can be done in patient with elevated glycated haemoglobin screened for type 2 diabetes mellitus to reduce the risk of cardiovascular diseases¹¹.

Source of Financial Support- Nil

Conflict of Interest- None

References

1. Irene M Stratton, Amanda I Alder et al., Association of glycemia with macrovascular and microvascular complications of type 2 diabetes (UKPDS 35); *Brit Med J.* 2000 Vol 321 : 405-416
2. Ram Vinod Mahato, Prajwal Gyawali, Pramod P. Raut et al., Association between glycaemic control and serum lipid profile in type 2 diabetic patients: Glycated haemoglobin as a dual biomarker. *Biomedical Research* 2011; 22 (3): 375-380
3. Jain Meenu, Jadeja Jayendrasinh M, Mehta Neeta. Correlation Between HbA1c Values And Lipid Profile In Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus. *International Journal of Basic and Applied Physiology* 2013 vol 2(1):47-50
4. Khaw KT, Wareham N, Bingham S, Luben R, Welch A and Day N. Association of hemoglobin A1c with cardiovascular disease and mortality in adults: the Euro-pean Prospective Investigation into Cancer in Norfolk. *Ann Intern Med* 2004; 141: 413-420.
5. Gligor Ramona et al. Relationship between glycosylated hemoglobin and lipid metabolism in patients with type 2 diabetes. *Studia Universitatis "Vasile Goldiș", Seria Științele Vieții* 2011;21(2): pp. 313-318
6. Goldberg IJ. Lipoprotein lipase and lipolysis: central roles in lipoprotein metabolism and atherogenesis. *J Lipid Res* 1996; 37: 693-707.
7. Erciyas F et al. Glycemic control, oxidative stress and lipid profile in children with type 1 Diabetes Mellitus. *Arch. Med. Res.* 2004; 35: 134-140
8. Khan, H.A. et al. Association between glycaemic control and serum lipids profile in type 2 diabetic patients: HbA1c predicts dyslipidaemia. *Clin. Exp. Med.* 2007; 7: 24- 29.
9. Berry C, Tardif JC, Bourassa MG. Coronary heart disease in patients with diabetes: part I: recent advances in prevention and noninvasive management. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2007; 49:631-642

10. Wattanakit, K., Steffes, M.W., Coresh, J. and Sharrett, A.R. 2006. HbA1c and peripheral arterial disease in diabetes: the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities study. *Diabetes Care* 29: 877-882.
11. D.J., Grant, R.W., Meigs, J.B., Nathan, D.M. and Cagliero, E. 2005. Sex disparities in treatment of cardiac risk factors in patients with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, 28: 514-520.
12. T., Wareham, N., Luben, R., Bingham, S., Oakes, S., Welch, A., 2001. Glycated haemoglobin, diabetes, and mortality in men in Norfolk cohort of European Prospective Investigation of Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC-Norfolk). *Br. Med. J.* 322: 15-18.
13. Brimberry, J.L., Langford, D., Nakashima, A., Sepe, S.J., Teutsch, S.M. and Mazze, R.S. 1984. An Epidemiologic model for diabetes mellitus: incidence, prevalence & mortality. *Diabetes Care* 7: 367-371.

High Sensitivity C Reactive Protein: A Surrogate Marker Appalling the Impact of Inflammation in Obese Young Adults

R.Hemavathy¹, S.Ramesh Kannan², M.JhansiRani³, B.Adikesavan⁴

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, Government Vellore Medical College & Hospital, Adukkamparai, Vellore, ²Assistant Professor, Madras Medical College in Chennai, ³Professor, Sri Lakshmi Narayana Institute of Medical Sciences in Pondy, ⁴Professor, Government Vellore Medical College in Vellore

Abstract

Introduction: Obesity is primarily considered to be a disorder of energy balance, and it has recently been suggested that some forms of obesity are associated with chronic low-grade inflammation. Obesity is a chronic, multifactorial and complex disease which poses a major public health issue increasing the risk of non-communicable diseases like, Type-2-DM, Cardiovascular disease, Hypertension etc. **Aim:** The present study aims to emphasize the burden of obesity in inflammation by associating with elevated levels of hs CRP in adults. **Materials and Method:** The study was a Hospital based cross sectional study including 30 obese individuals in the age group of 17-30 years, (15 males and 15 females) with BMI > 30 were included. Other systemic diseases were excluded. Assessment was done by Weight, Height, BMI by Quetelet index and measurement of hs CRP by Immunoturbidometer. The results were tabulated and analysed. **Results:** Total of 30 obese subjects were included of which 15 were males and 15 were Females. In obese subjects hs-CRP was elevated significantly. The level of hs-CRP was proportionally elevated in relation to BMI in obese subjects. **Conclusion:** Elevated hs-CRP levels in obese individuals indicates a proinflammatory state. This further concludes a risk for metabolic and cardiovascular manifestations in obese individuals.

Key words: BMI, hs CRP.

Introduction

Obesity is defined as a state of being overweight with excess body fat resulting in a significant impairment of health of a person. The most widely used method to gauge obesity is BMI which is [weight kg / height (m²)]. So BMI of 30 is the most commonly used threshold for obesity in both men and women.¹ Approximately 55% of adults in the United States are overweight, and nearly 22% of adults are obese.²

Genes that predispose to obesity in humans and animals have already been identified - the faulty gene

-FTO, indicating the importance of genetic factor in the development of this disorder³ and currently regarded as a proinflammatory state. Recent research has shown that the number as well as the size of adipocytes in obese people is more than people with normal body weight. Weight loss in an obese adult can reduce the size but not the number of adipocytes.⁴

CRP a trace protein is synthesized by the liver⁷ with a medium concentration of 1 mg/L⁵ increasing 1000 fold in diseases. Hence, it is an acute phase protein which gets elevated during episodes of acute-inflammation or infection.⁶ The physiologic role of CRP is to bind to phosphocholine expressed on the surface of dead or dying cell (and some types of bacteria) in order to activate the complement system via the C1Q complex as an immunologic defense mechanism⁸ and considered as a novel biomarker, since it measures even low levels of CRP in human serum or plasma.⁹

Corresponding Author:

Dr. R. Hemavathy MD,

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology,
Government Vellore Medical College & Hospital,
Adukkamparai, Vellore 11, TamilNadu.

Email id: rhbnithin@gmail.com

The adipokine imbalance characterizing obesity, including low levels of adiponectin, high levels of leptin, inflammatory mediators (IL-6 and TNF- α) and antifibrinolytic factors (PAI-1) may induce oxidative stress and endothelial dysfunction- initial steps of atherogenesis.¹⁰ Many studies have suggested that higher BMI is associated with higher CRP concentrations indicating a state of low – grade inflammation. Elevated CRP levels were present in 27.6% women and 6.7 % men of US adult population in obese persons with BMI > 30.¹¹ Only a few studies have been done based on the impact of hs CRP (High Sensitivity C – reactive protein) prevalence in obesity.

Due to the paucity of information for correlation between BMI and hs CRP in Indian settings, the present study was undertaken. Elevated hs-CRP levels in young obese individuals is an indication of an existing pro-inflammatory state in them, which might lead to complications in future. Thus the present study aimed to correlate the concentration of hs-CRP in obese individuals and create awareness regarding risk factors.

Aim: : The present study aims to emphasize the burden of obesity in inflammation by associating with elevated levels of hs CRP in adults.

Materials and Method

Study was conducted at Sri Manakula Vinayagar Medical College and Hospital, Madagadipet , Puducherry between the period October 2012 to August 2013 after getting approved from the Institutional Research Council and Ethical committee. The subjects included into the study were selected after obtaining informed consent on the basis of fulfillment of inclusion criteria whilst excluding exclusion criteria. The study was a cross sectional study. 30 obese individuals such as Staff, Students, Persons attending medicine OPD (15 males and 15 females) in the age group of 17-30 years with BMI > 30 constituted the study population. other systemic diseases like diabetes, hypertension, hyperlipidemia were excluded.

Procedures:

Body Mass Index :

For the assessment of obesity, height and weight measurements were taken on each subject, and using Quetelet index, the value of BMI was calculated for

each subject.

$$\text{BMI} = \text{weight (kg)} / \text{height (m)}^2$$

Classification of BMI:

Underweight : 18.5

Normal weight: 18.5-24.9

Overweight : 25-29.9

Obesity :

Class 1 : 30-34

Class 2 : 35-39.9

Class 3: ≥ 40

Height and Weight was measured using standard apparatus.

High Sensitivity C-Reactive Protein:¹² Immunoturbidometer (Beacon) : Version 3.81.¹²

Principle:¹²

The analyzer is designed on the basis of Lambert-Beer Law. The hs- CRP Turbilatex test is a quantitative turbidimetric test for the measurement of low levels of CRP in human serum or plasma. Latex particles coated with specific anti-human CRP were agglutinated when mixed with samples containing CRP.

reference values :

Below 3 mg/ L is considered as normal.

Procedure:

2 ml of blood was taken in a test tube and left undisturbed for half an hour for complete clot formation. The sample was then centrifuged at 3000 rpm to separate the serum from the clot. After centrifugation, the serum was stored at 20° C in Ependorf tubes till the analysis for hs-CRP was conducted. Serum hs-CRP levels were measured by turbidimetry method, using commercial kit (Beacon Diagnostics Pvt Ltd, India). hsCRP kit : Code no -T05, Pack size - 32 ml. Statistical analysis: At 95 % CI, 80% Power, minimum sample needed is 30.¹⁸ The values of mean \pm SD for the obese subjects to evaluate hs CRP levels are 1.710 ± 0.3434 and 2.450 ± 0.5130 respectively. The data collected was entered in Microsoft Excel and analyzed using SPSS software package Version 19. Pearson correlation was used to analyse the hs CRP thresholds with BMI of obese individuals.

Results: Total of 30 obese individuals were selected for the study of which 15 were males and remaining 15 were females categorised by calculating their BMI. The results were tabulated and analysed.

Table 1: Age and gender distribution in obese subjects.

Age (years)	Females n (%)	Males n (%)	Total n (%)
20-24	6 (40%)	7 (47%)	13 (43.3%)
25-27	3 (20%)	4 (27%)	7 (23.3%)
28-30	6 (40%)	4 (27%)	10 (33.3%)

Among these individuals 43.3% were between the age 20-24 yrs, 23.3% were between 25-27 yrs of age and 33.3% were between the age 28-30 yrs.

Table 2: BMI and gender distribution in study subjects.

BMI	Females n (%)	Males n (%)
30-34.9	9 (60%)	9 (60%)
35-39	5 (33.3%)	6 (40%)
≥ 40	1 (7%)	0 (0%)

Among the 30 obese individuals (15 Females and 15 Males) whose BMI was categorized as Class I 30 to 34.9 Kg/ m², Class II 35 to 39.9 Kg/ m², Class III ≥ 40 Kg/ m² respectively. Among them 60% of both males and females had BMI of Class I, 40% males and 33.3% females had BMI of Class II and 7% of females and none of the males had BMI of Class III which showed no significant association between BMI and gender distribution in obese individuals.

Table 3: Association between hs CRP and gender in subjects.

Reported hs CRP (mg/L)	Females n(%)	Males n (%)
< 3	3 (20%)	6 (40%)
≤ 3	12 (80%)	9 (60%)
Total	15 (100%)	15 (100%)

On the basis of gender, all the individuals included in this study were divided in two groups and were screened for the hs CRP levels. Total of 15 females and 15 males

were screened and found that 80% females showed elevated hs CRP, as compared to 60% of males. The gender specificity was assessed for their association with hsCRP levels and no statistical significant association was reported (chi square 1.67 with a p value of > 0.5 NS).

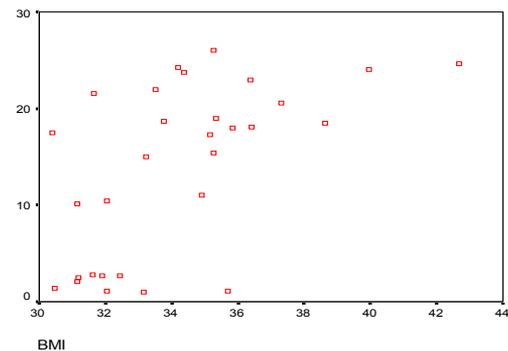


Figure 1: Scatter plot to show relation between BMI and hs CRP in study subjects.

A total of 30 individuals were screened for the strength of association of obesity with high sensitivity CRP. Based on the BMI calculation they were categorized as obese subjects which showed that, there was a significant relationship between BMI and levels of hsCRP, Pearson correlation coefficient $r = 0.59$, $P = 0.01$. Obesity was associated with high values of hsCRP.

All the individuals included in this study were also interviewed for the risk factors i.e. hypertension, hyperlipidemia, diabetes mellitus, drug intake, alcohol and smoking and found that these conditions did not illustrate any relation with obesity and levels of hs CRP.

Discussion

Obesity is a long term disease having many serious consequences on the health of a person.² It is a state of excess adipose tissue mass and the most widely used method to calculate obesity is BMI.¹ Recently it has also been described as a pro inflammatory state which is involved in the pathophysiology of many diseases. The main aim of the present study was to explore the association between the body mass index and hsCRP level among the obese individuals.

Total of 30 obese individuals were selected for the study of which 15 were males and remaining 15 were

females categorised by calculating their BMI. Among these individuals 43.3% were between the age 20-24 yrs, 23.3% were between 25-27 yrs of age and 33.3% were between the age 28-30 yrs. Among the 30 obese (15 males and 15 females) individuals who were subjected to relative BMI by using Quetelet index, no statistical significant difference in BMI was observed among males and females. The similar observation was made by other studies determined by Deepa M¹⁴ and her colleagues and Desigamani Kanniyappan¹⁵ and his colleagues.

The high sensitivity C-reactive protein is considered as the marker of inflammation inside the body. In this cross sectional study all obese individuals were analysed for the level of hsCRP and BMI and found that hsCRP was significantly elevated among the obese individuals, but there was no significant elevation in any specific gender in accordance with obesity. Our results, together with the evidence of previous studies by Visser M et al¹⁶, Hussain S D¹⁷, Preethi B L¹⁸, Chieh Lin C et al¹⁹, Shilpa B A et al²⁰, Rogowski O et al²¹ indicates the overweightness and obesity as a risk factor for one's own health.

In recent reports obesity has linked with development of fatty liver diseases.²² In obesity there is increased secretion of IL - 6 which activates the hepatic pathways to release the large amount of acute-phase proteins CRP in circulation.²³ The older experimental studies and cross-sectional studies have showed that CRP along with IL - 6 are contributing in the development of hyperglycemic, insulin resistance and Type 2 - DM.²⁴ CRP a liver derived pentraxin, recently has emerged as one of the most promising biomarker for future cardiovascular events and peripheral vascular diseases in the obese individuals.²⁵

The link between obesity and inflammation is based on two basic theories. According to first theory, obesity - induced inflammation has been considered as a protective mechanism, which stops the body from losing activity or fitness by storing the fat in tissues and organs by anabolic process. Second theory suggest that inflammation as an catabolic process which break down the organs and tissue to control the body weight within the normal limits.²⁶

Conclusion

Higher the BMI, the levels of hs CRP increases, suggesting that obesity represents a major risk factor

and constitutes a serious threat to the current and future health of all population on earth, in which inflammation acts as a major driver in the pathogenesis of obesity.

The present study advocated strongly to encourage people for healthy dietary patterns, regular assessment of BMI and biochemical parameters.

Conflict of Interest: Due to paucity of information regarding obesity, hence this study is aimed to create awareness among young obese adults to prevent individuals from metabolic syndrome and other high risk complications related to obesity.

Source of Funding: Self.

Ethical Clearance: Obtained from Pondyicherry University, Pondy.

References

1. Fauci A, Branwald E, Kasper L, Larry L. Harrison's principles of internal medicine. 18th edition. USA: McGraw Hill; 2012; Vol (1), Chapter 77 and 78, Biology of Obesity, Evaluation and Management of Obesity. P 622-636.
2. Guyton AC, Hall JE. Text Book of Medical Physiology. 12th ed. Noida: Elsevier; 2012; Chapter 71, Metabolism and Temperature Regulation. P 850-851.
3. Wu J, Xu J, Zhang Z, Ren J, Li Y, Wang J et al. Association of FTO polymorphisms with obesity and metabolic parameters in Han Chinese adolescents. PLOS ONE 2014; 9(6):e 98984
4. Kershaw EE, Flier JS. Adipose tissue as an endocrine organ. The journal of clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism 2004; 89(6):2548-2556.
5. Pepys MB, Baltz ML. Acute phase proteins with special reference to C-reactive protein and related proteins (pentraxins) and serum amyloid A protein. Adv Immunol 1983; 34:141-212.
6. Lau DC, Dhillon B, Yan H, Szmítko PE, Verma S. Adipokines: molecular links between obesity and atherosclerosis. AMJ Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 2004; 288(5):2031-2041.
7. Van DM, De Maat MP, Hak AE, Kiliaan AJ, Delsol AI, Vander Kuip et al. CRP predicts progression of atherosclerosis measured at various sites in the

- arterial tree. *Stroke* 2002; 33:2750-2755.
8. Thompson D, Pepys MB, Wood SP. The physiological structure of human C-reactive protein and its complex with phosphocholine. *Structure* 1999; 7(2):169-177.
 9. Napoli MD, Shwaninger M, Cappelli R, Ceccarelli E, Donati C. Evaluation of C-reactive protein measurement for assessing the risk and prognosis in ischemic stroke: A statement for health care professionals from the CRP pooling project members. *Stroke* 2005; 36:1316-1329.
 10. Van Gaal LF, Mertens IL, De Block CE. Mechanisms linking obesity with cardiovascular disease. *Nature* 2006; 444(7121):875-880.
 11. Alley DE, Seeman TE, Kikim J, Karlamangla A, Hup et al. Socioeconomic status and C-reactive protein levels in the US population: NHANES IV. *Brain Behav Immun* 2006; 20:498-504. . Chetana
 12. Vaishnavi. *Immunology and Infectious Diseases* 1996; 6:139-144.
 13. Rajendran K, Devarajan N, Ganesan M, Ragunathan M. Obesity, inflammation and acute myocardial infarction - expression of leptin, IL-6 and high sensitivity - CRP in Chennai based population. *Thrombosis Journal* 2012; 10:13.
 14. Deepa M, Farooq S, Deepa R, Manjula D, Mohan V. Prevalence and significance of generalized and central body obesity in an urban Asian Indian population in Chennai, India (CURES: 47). *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 2009; 63:259-267.
 15. Kanniyappan D, Kalidhas P, Mary Aruna R. Age, gender related prevalence of cardiovascular risk factors in overweight and obese South Indian Adults. *International Journal of Biological and Medical Research* 2011; 2(2):513-522. .
 16. Visser M, Bouter LM, McQuillan GM, Wener MH, Harris TB. Elevated C-reactive protein levels in Overweight and Obese Adults. *JAMA* 1999; 282(22):2131-2135.
 17. Hussain SD. The correlation between serum high sensitivity C-reactive protein and leptin in reproductive age Overweight/ Obese women in Erbil city. *Zanco J Med Sci* 2012; 16(3):167-175.
 18. Preethi BL, Jaisri G. Risk stratification of Body Mass Index. *National Journal of Medical Research* 2014 4(1):1-6.
 19. Chieh Lin C, Kardias SLR, Ing Li C, Shong Liu C, May Lai M, Yuan Lin W et al. The relationship of high sensitivity C-reactive protein to percent body fat mass, body mass index, waist-to-hip ratio and waist circumference in a Taiwanese population. *BMC Public Health* 2010; 10:579.
 20. Shilpa BA, Jayashree SB, Amruta M, Mangesh T, Balaji NA. High sensitivity C-reactive protein : An independent proinflammatory cardiac marker in Healthy Overweight and Obese individuals. *Journal of Research in Obesity* 2014; 17:1-8.
 21. Rogowski O, Shapira I, Toker S, Melamad S, Shiron A, Berliner S et al. Obesity-related correlation between C-reactive protein and the calculated 10-Y Framingham Coronary Heart Disease Risk Score. *International Journal of Obesity* 2005. 29:772-777.
 22. Farrell GC, Larter CZ. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease : from steatosis to cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 2006; 43(2 supplement 1):S99-S112.
 23. Yudkin JS, Stehouwer CD, Emeis JJ, Coppack SW. C-reactive protein in healthy subjects : associations with obesity, insulin resistance and endothelial dysfunction : a potential role for cytokines originating from adipose tissue? *Arteriosclerosis, Thrombosis and Vascular Biology* 1999; 19(4):972-978.
 24. Sandler S, Bendtzen K, Eizirik DL, Welsh M. Interleukin-6 affects insulin secretion and glucose metabolism of rat pancreatic islets in vitro. *Endocrinology* 1990; 126(2):1288-1294.
 25. Ridker PM, Cushman M, Stampfer MJ, Tracy RP, Hennekens CH. Inflammation, aspirin and the risk of cardiovascular disease in apparently healthy men. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1997; 336(14):973-979
 26. McLaughlin T, Abbasi F, Lamendola C, Liang L, Reaven G, Schaaf P et al. Differentiation between obesity and insulin resistance in the association with C-reactive protein. *Circulation* 2002;106:2908-2912.

Should Problem based Learning be Included in Teaching Physiology along with Traditional Method of Learning? A Student's Perception

Manish Kumar¹, Sunita¹, Ashok Sharan², Tarun Kumar³, Swati Sinha⁴, Anita Kumari⁴, Pooja Sakshi⁴

¹Associate Professor, ²Professor & Head, ³Additional Professor, ⁴Tutor, Department of Physiology, Indira Gandhi Institute of Medical Sciences, Patna

Abstract

Aim: To evaluate students' perceptions about the role of Problem Based Learning (PBL) in Hybrid curriculum. **Background:** Problem Based Learning is an approach which has more leaning towards student centered pedagogy. The general consensus is that PBL inculcate self directed learning which help them in learning core concept, improves communication skill, formulation of their own learning objectives and team work. Particularly in basic sciences the triggers which are used in PBL gives the students prior idea of the clinical relevance of the topic and this act as a great impetus for the student towards self directed learning. **Material and Method:** This questionnaire-based study was conducted in the Department of Physiology, IGIMS, Patna. 98 Medical students from first professional MBBS were inducted in the study. Questionnaire consisted of 15 items and used three point Likert scale as "disagree," "neutral," or "agree," to measure students' perception of Problem Based Learning effectiveness. Questionnaire judged the perception in the field of quality of learning, ability to inculcate team work, confidence, interpersonal communication skill with colleague as well as seniors and role of facilitators.

Result: Statement enquiring about the role of PBL in clarifications of doubt, learning from the peers, in overcoming the nervousness and anxiety while speaking in front of class, ability to communicate more effectively, better understanding of the applied aspect and in ability to develop acute clinical acumen, we got a positive (agree) response which was well above ninety percent. For the rest of the statement the answer had a stronger leaning towards agree and the mean percentage for them was hovering around eighty five percent. **Conclusion:** The student's perception is strongly in favor of PBL. According to them PBL will help them to excel in all the aspect of Blooms taxonomy.

Keyword: Problem based Learning Self directed learning, Communication skill, team work

Introduction

Recent history has seen a quantum leap in the field of medical education. Newer methodology and techniques of imparting medical knowledge are abundant, and it's a herculean task to choose the best among them to teach our medical student a particular

topic. Now the curriculum development is in fluid state and it needs serious research with due diligence to develop a curriculum which imparts in-depth knowledge to the student as well as to incline the students towards self-directed learning, critical analysis and application of the knowledge towards the treatment of the patient as a whole.^{1,2,3,4,5}

Corresponding Author:

Dr. Manish Kumar

Associate Professor, Department of Physiology
IGIMS Medical College Patna-800014

Email: krmanish77@gmail.com

Mobile: 9798860092

Age old tradition of teaching by using didactic lecture has lost its relevance of late since it is teacher centric and autocratic in nature and doesn't promote active participation from the students. It blunts students own critical thinking, reasoning and analysis.

In hybrid curriculum students gets exposed to two different type of teaching strategy i.e. PBL in small group and traditional didactic lecture and practical classes. In this set up students gets opportunities to utilize their earlier exposure to the topic instructed through didactic lecture and practical classes.^{6,7}

Problem Based Learning is an approach which has more leaning towards student centered pedagogy. The general consensus is that PBL inculcate self directed learning which help them in learning core concept, improves communication skill, formulation of their own learning objectives and team work. Particularly in basic sciences the triggers which are used in PBL gives the students prior idea of the clinical relevance of the topic and this act as a great impetus for the student towards self directed learning.^{8,9,10,11,12}

Objectives

To evaluate students' perceptions about the role of Problem Based Learning in Hybrid curriculum.

Methodology

This questionnaire-based study was conducted in the Department of Physiology, IGIMS, Patna. 98 Medical students from first professional MBBS were inducted in the study. Students were informed about the research methodology, objectives and formal written consent was obtained and permission was taken from the institute ethics committee.

98 students were further divided into were divided into small group of 8 to 10 students. A facilitator was assigned to each group. Among the group a chair and scribe was selected for each PBL scenario. The chair and the scribe rotated for each PBL scenario. The group stayed together for the entire duration study to allow positive group dynamics. Study group was instructed in cardiovascular physiology using didactic lectures and practical classes and Problem based learning method (PBL).

Creation of the scenario was done with utmost diligence since it should lead to compilation of learning objective by students matching to those of faculty. It was pertaining to the current stage of learning, and had future clinical relevance and capability to involve the entire group. The facilitators or tutors were trained in PBL methodology.

PBL tutorial Step followed in our study:¹³

1. Identification and clarification of unfamiliar term included in the problem scenario

2. Consensus of the students on the problem scenario to be included i.e. every student must be satisfied that their learning objective will be achieved by problem scenario and facilitator must himself be satisfied that learning objectives set by the students is relevant, compact and achievable.

3. Orchestrated in a way so that there is through brainstorming and everyone's individual knowledge should complement that of others. Group should share their result of private study. Restructuring can be done when ever needed.

Questionnaire consisted of 15 items and used three point Likert scale as "disagree," "neutral," or "agree," to measure students' perception of Problem Based Learning effectiveness. The questionnaire was prepared in such a manner that it judged the perception in the field of quality of learning, ability to inculcate team work, confidence, interpersonal communication skill with colleague as well as seniors and role of facilitators

Results & Observations

98 students were part of the study. Among 98 participant 56 were male and 42 were female and they fell in the in the age bracket of 17 to 23 years (Mean±SD= 18.76±0.53). For all the statement of the questionnaire we did not observe any change in pattern on the basis of gender.

For the statement enquiring about the role of PBL in clarifications of doubt, learning from the peers, in overcoming the nervousness and anxiety while speaking in front of class, ability to communicate more effectively, better understanding of the applied aspect and in ability to develop acute clinical acumen we got a positive (agree) response which was well above ninety percent.

For the rest of the statement the answer had a stronger leaning towards agree and the mean percentage for them was hovering around eighty five percent.

Few statements of the questionnaire were purposefully similar to obviate any misunderstanding the question.

Table: 1 Perception of undergraduate medical Students towards PBL (n=98)

S.N.	Statements	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Score(Mean±SD)
1.	PBL will help me to acquire better clinical acumen.	5	8	85	2.81±0.50
2.	Discussion during the PBL helps to clarify my doubts on the subject matter.	3	2	93	2.91±0.37
3.	Healthy peer competition makes the learning more interesting and challenging.	8	7	83	2.76±0.45
4.	PBL gives me chance to know about the methodology my peers adopt and imbibe into my learning process if I find it useful.	4	3	91	2.88±0.42
5.	Allowed to overcome nervousness while speaking in front of class.	3	2	93	2.91±0.00
6.	PBL boosted my confidence and my ability to express my thought and gathered information.	4	5	89	2.86±0.17
7.	PBL improved my interpersonal communication skill, leadership quality and how to approach any problem as team.	7	5	86	2.86±0.30
8.	Small group made the learning more challenging, interesting, motivating, engaging and fun.	8	6	84	2.77±0.34
9.	Small group enhanced my ability to communicate more effectively	3	5	90	2.88±0.32
10.	Knowledge and skill acquired in group will help me in clinical practice.	2	3	93	2.92±0.00
11.	I have understood the applied aspect in a better way	2	3	93	2.92±0.00
12.	In general, tutors stimulate students to make use of different sources of information and stimulated my learning activity.	6	8	84	2.79±0.28
13.	PBL will help me to become doctor with better teaching ability	6	5	87	2.82±0.22
14.	PBL will help me to understand the subjects of the other professionals easier and interesting	3	2	93	2.89±0.01
15.	Facilitators have a positive influence	7	9	82	2.74±0.40

Discussion

This study was undertaken with the purpose of finding out student's point of view with respect to small group teaching particularly Problem Based Learning in addition to didactic lecture. PBL effectiveness was assessed for five major domains of learning i.e. self directed learning, ability for critical analysis and its application in clinical scenario, building up of self confidence and motivation, Communication and ability to work as a team.

In our study mean score of almost all the questions asked hovered mainly around three (on a three point Likert scale) which is in alignment with the studied opinion of Dochev et al. and that of Saha et al and others. In their view PBL enhances self directed learning, ability to critically analyze and brings about increment in the self confidence and critical analysis and has over all positive bend in the learning attitude of students ^{14, 15,16,17,18}

Students were strongly of opinion that PBL gave them the opportunities to acquire the art of team work and to imbibe the learning methods of others and got motivated from each other. Similar observation was made by Dolmans et al in their study.¹⁹

On the question of problem solving skill, self directed learning and the opportunities to clarify doubt students vehemently supported PBL. Studies undertaken by several researchers had showed similar observation.^{14, 15, 16,17,18,20}

A number of studies have reported advantages for small group teaching method which include increasing opportunities to ask questions; increasing student faculty and peer to peer interaction; improving communication skills, and improving presentation skills of the students.¹⁵. In our study, students indicated that learning in small group settings have helped them communicating effectively.

On the issues of improving communication and presentation skill, doubt solving with the help of peers and facilitators we had a similar finding to that of studies done by Euliano TY et al.¹⁵

One of the statements of our questionnaire was enquiry about effectiveness of the PBL in overcoming the nervousness of speaking in front of class. Our study found out PBL is an effective tool in this regard which is in contradiction to the observation made by Rehman et al.²¹

Our study also draws a conclusion that facilitators or tutors had a positive influence on the students with respect to their process of learning. Similar observation was made by Chung et al. and others^{16,22}

The questionnaire used by Saha et al in their study had few open ended question regarding the role of facilitators. They observed that students were uncomfortable by dominating role of the tutor. For overcoming the above mentioned difficulty they suggested proper training of the tutor by medical education unit for conducting a fruitful PBL session

Limitations of the study

The current study was confined to Department of Physiology so we cannot extrapolate the observation to other subject of the same professional and to that of other professionals. The questionnaire prepared is influenced

by the subject of physiology and therefore it cannot be used as an umbrella questionnaire.

Conclusion

The student perception is strongly in favor of PBL. According to them PBL will help them to excel in all the aspect of Blooms taxonomy.

Source of Funding: Self

Ethical Clearance: Taken

Conflict of Interest: None

Acknowledgement: Nil

References

1. Diana F Wood. ABC of learning and teaching in medicine: Problem based learning. *BMJ*. 2003; 326(7384); 328-30.
2. Kumar S. An innovative method to enhance interaction during lecture sessions. *Adva Physiol Educ* 2003; 25: 20-5.
3. Meo SA. Undergraduate medical student's perceptions on traditional and problem based curricula: pilot study. *J Pak Med Association*. 2014 Jul; 64(7):775-9.
4. Tiwari A, Lai P, So M, Yuen K. A comparison of the effects of problem-based learning and lecturing on the development of students' critical thinking. *Med Edu* 2006; 40: 547-54.
5. Hung W. The 9-step problem design process for problem-based learning: Application of the 3C3R model. *Educational Research Review*. 2009; 4(2):118-41.
6. Nandi, PL, Chan JNF, Chan CPK, Chan P, Chan LP. Undergraduate medical education: comparison of problem-based learning and conventional teaching. *Hong Kong Med J* 2000; 6: 301-6.
7. Addae JI, Wilson JI, Carrington C. Carrington, Students' perception of a modified form of PBL using concept mapping. *Med Teach*. 2012; 34(11):e756-62. [PubMed: 23140306]
8. Addae JI, Sahu P, Sa B. The relationship between the monitored performance of tutors and students at PBL tutorials and the marked hypotheses generated by students in a hybrid curriculum. *Med Educ Online*. 2017; 22(1):1270626. [PMCID:

- PMC5328341] [PubMed: 28178915]
9. Edmunds S, Brown G. Effective small group learning: AMEE Guide No.48. *Med Teach.* 2010; 32:715–26. [PubMed: 20795801]
 10. Jaques D. Teaching small groups. *BMJ.* 2003;326(7387):492–4. [PMCID: PMC1125374] [PubMed: 12609949]
 11. Singaram VS, Dolmans DH, Lachman N, van der Vleuten CP. Perceptions of problem-based learning (PBL) group effectiveness in a socially-culturally diverse medical student population. *Educ Health (Abingdon)* 2008; 21(2):116. [PubMed: 19039743]
 12. Steinert Y. Twelve tips for effective small-group teaching in the health professions. *Medical Teacher.* 1996; 18:203–7.
 13. Wood DF. *ABC Of Learning And Teaching In Medicine: Problem Based Learning.* *BMJ Clinical Research.* Feb 2003 326(7384):328-330
 14. Dochy F, Segers M, Bossche PVD, Struyven K. Students' Perceptions of a Problem-Based Learning Environment. *Learning Environments Research.* 2005; 8(1):41–66.
 15. Euliano TY. Small group teaching: clinical correlation with a human patient simulator. *Adv Physiol Educ.* 2001;25(1-4):36–43. [PubMed: 11824207]
 16. Al-Drees AA, Khalil MS, Irshad M, Abdulghani HM. Students' perception towards the problem based learning tutorial session in a system-based hybrid curriculum. *Saudi Med J.* 2015;36(3):341–8. [PMCID: PMC4381020] [PubMed: 25737178]
 17. Walton H. Small group methods in medical teaching. *Med Educ.* 1997; 31(6):459–64. [PubMed: 9463650]
 18. Sahu PK, Nayak S, Rodrigues V. Medical students' perceptions of small group teaching effectiveness in hybrid curriculum. *J Educ Health J Educ Health Promot.* 2018; 7:30
 19. Dolmans DH, De Grave W, Wolfhagen IH, van der Vleuten CP. Problem-based learning: future challenges for educational practice and research. *Med Educ.* 2005; 39(7):732–41. [PubMed: 15960794]
 20. Saleh AM, Shabila NP, Dabbagh AA, Al-Tawil NG, Al-Hadithi TS. A qualitative assessment of faculty perspectives of small group teaching experience in Iraq. *BMC Med Educ.* 2015; 15:19. [PMCID: PMC4349223] [PubMed: 25888892]
 21. Rahman SM, Sarkar MA, Gomes JJ, Mojumder FA. Student'perceptions of learning science in small groups: A case study in higher education. *Brunei Int J Sci Math Educ.* 2010; 2(1):32–47.
 22. Azer SA. Challenges facing PBL tutors: 12 tips for successful group facilitation. *Med Teach.* 2005; 27(8):676–81. [PubMed: 16451886]

The ECG Change in QRS Complex- A Tool for Evaluation of Heart Disease in Asymptomatic Type II Diabetics

Siraj Ahmed Shirbadgi¹, Aftab Begum^{2*}

¹Professor, Department of Anatomy, ²Assistant Professor Department of Physiology, BMCH Chitradurga, Karnataka

Abstract

Background: The chronic hyperglycemia of diabetes mellitus is associated with long term damage, dysfunction and failure of various organs especially the eyes, kidneys, nerves, heart, and blood vessels. Electrocardiographic (ECG) abnormalities are found to be predictors of silent ischemia in asymptomatic persons. **Aim and Objective of the study:** The purpose of this study is, to detect & compare the electrocardiographic changes (QRS complex) in asymptomatic type II diabetics & controls. **Materials and Method:** Fifty type II DM cases aged between 30-55 years and minimum of fifty age and sex matched controls for each group were selected from the general population satisfying the inclusion criteria. **Findings:** There was statistically highly significant increase in QRS duration among type II Diabetics when compared to controls ($p < 0.001$). There was no statistically significant difference in QRS axis between type II DM cases and controls ($P > 0.05$). There was no statistically significant difference in QRS amplitude among type II diabetics when compared to controls ($p > 0.05$). **Conclusion:** The prolonged QRS complex can be considered as the evidence that the heart of diabetic patients is damaged by cardiomyopathy. Hence the screening of diabetics for electrocardiographic abnormalities is strongly recommended at the time of diagnosis for proper interventions & to prevent complications at the earliest.

Keywords; QRS complex, ECG change in type II diabetics, heart disease asymptomatic type II diabetics.

Introduction

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a group of metabolic disorders characterized by hyperglycemia. The chronic hyperglycemia of diabetes mellitus is associated with long term damage, dysfunction and failure of various organs especially the eyes, kidneys, nerves, heart, and blood vessels. Electrocardiographic (ECG) abnormalities are found to be predictors of silent ischemia in asymptomatic persons. An abnormal ECG response is associated with statistically significant high risk for cardiac mortality and morbidity.¹

Normal Electrocardiographic Complexes

P wave is due to deflexion produced by atrial depolarization. It does not exceed 0.11 second in duration and 2.5 mm in height.

QRS complex is due to ventricular depolarization and measures normally 0.04 to 0.10 seconds.

Corresponding Author

***Dr. Aftab Begum**

Assistant Professor Department of Physiology, BMCH Chitradurga, Karnataka

E-mail draf84@gmail.com

7899837589

PR interval is the interval between the beginning of the p wave and the beginning of QRS complex and it represents interval between onset of atrial depolarization and onset of ventricular depolarization. The normal duration is 0.12 to 0.20 seconds in the adults.

ST segment represents greater part of ventricular repolarization. Normally it is isoelectric.

T wave represents ventricular repolarization, atleast 10% of R wave in the same lead. No upper limit.

The purpose of this study is, to detect & compare the electrocardiographic changes (QRS complex) in asymptomatic type II diabetics & controls.

Materials and Method

Fifty type II DM cases aged between 30-55 years and minimum of fifty age and sex matched controls for each group were selected from the general population satisfying the inclusion criteria. Following an

explanation about the nature and purpose of the study, those subjects who were willing to participate in the study were included after obtaining written informed consent. A detailed assessment was done and a pretested structured proforma was used to record the relevant information from each individual case selected. Data acquisition was performed in the morning. The subjects who were selected, a detailed physical and systemic examination was done. Physical examination of all the subjects included measuring height in centimeters, weight in kilograms, recording of resting pulse rate by palpating the radial artery and blood pressure recording with a mercury sphygmomanometer using the appropriate sized cuff. Clinical examination of the cardiovascular system was done in detail. Following detailed assessment of the subjects, they were screened for the presence of inclusion and exclusion criteria and dropped if any exclusion criteria were present.

Inclusion Criteria

Subjects between 30-55 yrs of age with Type II DM.

Diagnosed Type II DM cases of more than five years duration.

Age and sex matched controls

Exclusion Criteria

Known diabetics of duration less than five years.

Subjects with history of cardiac diseases, hypertension, smoking and alcoholism. Subjects above 55 yrs of age.

Electrocardiographic Recording

The instrument used to record electrocardiogram is the twelve channel Electrocardiograph HEWLETT PACKARD page writer manufactured by Philips electronic Ltd. The PageWriter 100 offers all the features, functions and portability that we need to record superior ECG. This high-quality cardiograph captures accurate 12-lead ECGs on full-size paper with no cutting or pasting. It records 3 or 6 channels at speeds ranging from 5 mm to 50 mm per second, so we can capture multiple levels of detail. We can activate an ECG at the press of a single button.

The instrument contains following components:

On/Standby button: To switch on the ECG

machine.

Stop button: To switch off the ECG machine.

Chart speed button: 5, 10, 25 or 50 mm/Sec speed paper movement can be selected by operation of this button.

ECG size button: 5, 10, 20 mm/mv ECG graph size can be selected by this button.

Filter A/C: Muscle tremor interference in the recording of the ECG can be eliminated by using this switch. Operation of this switch will prevent any distortion of the ECG wave.

Page advance button: The paper starts moving if this switch is depressed.

Auto button: Pressing of auto button leads to automatic movement of ECG paper. A flashing auto light indicates that an ECG is being acquired. When the light stays on, the acquisition is complete.

Manual: A flashing manual lead group light indicates an electrode placement problem.

Copy: Pressing of this button gives extra copy of the previous recorded ECG.

An isolated ECG input: The machine is operated from AC mains supply. The instrument can also be operated on rechargeable batteries, which are available optionally along with the machine.

Accessories: Patient cable, Clipper electrodes, Chest electrodes, Cardijelly bottle, Recording paper.

Recording paper;

The paper used is thermo sensitive. The paper upon which the ECG is recorded is ruled in lines apart both horizontally and vertically. Each 5th line in both directions is heavier than the rest. The vertical axis represents voltage (amplitude). With normal standardization, each 1mm represents 0.1 mV. The horizontal axis represents time (duration). With normal speed 1 mm represents 0.04 sec .i.e. each 5mm represents 0.2 sec and in one minute the ECG paper moves by 300 thick lines or 1500 mm (25 mm per second).



Fig. 1: Electrocardiograph;

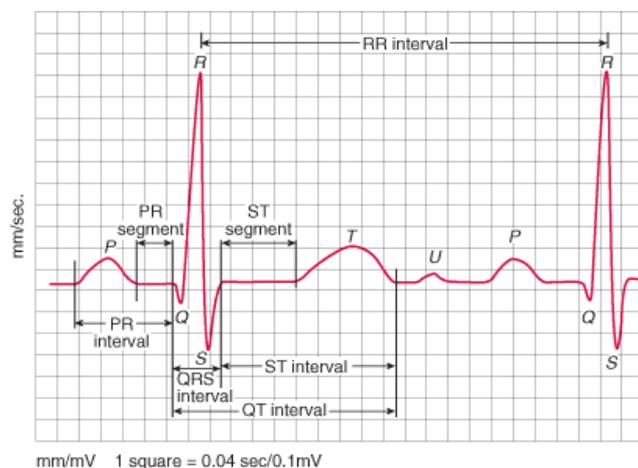


Fig.No.2 –Waves of ECG

Statistical Analysis

SPSS version 16 software was used for all the analysis. Results were expressed as Mean \pm SD for continuous data and number and percentages for discrete data. Unpaired t test was used for statistical analysis.

Findings

Subject Information

Sex Distribution : Out of 50 subjects 20 were male's and 30 were female in type II DM cases and controls of each group respectively (Table- 01) .

Age;The mean age (yrs) was 45.8 ± 4.9 and 45.9 ± 5.0 in type II DM cases and type II DM controls respectively (Table-01).

Height; The mean height (in cms) were 161.58 ± 8.3 and 160.98 ± 6.02 in type II DM cases and controls

respectively (Table-02). There was no significant difference in height between type I DM cases and controls ($p > 0.05$).

Weight; The mean weight (in kgs) were 64.44 ± 7.78 and 57.46 ± 5.65 in type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-02). There was statistically highly significant increase in weight in type II diabetics when compared to controls ($p < 0.001$).

Body Mass Index (BMI); The BMI (in kg /m²) were 24.55 ± 2.19 and 22.15 ± 1.37 in Type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-02). There was highly significant increase in BMI among type II diabetics when compared to controls ($p < 0.001$).

Pulse; The mean pulse rates (bpm) were 75.18 ± 1.11 and 76.21 ± 10.2 in type II DM cases and controls respective (Table-02). There was no significant difference in pulse rate between type II diabetic cases and controls ($p > 0.05$).

Systolic Blood Pressure; The mean SBP (in mmHg) were 123.5 ± 1.11 and 120.42 ± 12 in Type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-02). There was no significant difference in SBP among type II diabetics and controls ($p > 0.05$).

Diastolic blood Pressure; The mean DBP (in mmHg) were 79.44 ± 3.23 and 79.16 ± 2.65 in Type II Diabetics and controls respectively (Table-02). There was no significant difference in DBP among type II DM cases and controls ($p > 0.05$).

Electrocardiographic Report

QRS Complex

Duration : QRS duration (in sec) in type II DM cases and controls were 0.10 ± 0.02 and 0.08 ± 0.01 respectively (Table-03). There was statistically highly significant increase in QRS duration among type II Diabetics when compared to controls ($p < 0.001$).

Axis: The QRS axis (in degrees) among type II DM Cases and controls were 51.42 ± 16.44 and 52.20 ± 14.83 respectively (Table-03). There was no statistically significant difference in QRS axis between type II DM cases and controls ($P > 0.05$).

Amplitude: The amplitude (in mm) were 17.74 ± 5.34 and 17.64 ± 3.90 in type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-03). There was no statistically

significant difference in QRS amplitude among type II diabetics when compared to controls ($p > 0.05$).

Table -01: Age and Sex Comparison of the Group's Studied

Variables		DM- II	CONTROLS
Subjects	NO	50	50
Gender	Male	20	20
	Female	30	30
Age (yrs)	Mean \pm SD	45.8 \pm 4.9	45.9 \pm 5.0
	Range	35-54 Yrs	35-54 Yrs

Table – 02: Comparison of variables Between Type - II DM cases and Controls

Type II DM				
Variable	Group	Mean	SD	p value
HEIGHT(cms)	DM II	161.58	8.34	0.68
	Controls	160.98	6.02	
WEIGHT(kg)	DM II	64.44	7.78	0.000 **
	Controls	57.46	5.65	
BMI(kg/m ²)	DM II	24.55	2.19	0.000 **
	Controls	22.15	1.37	
PULSE(mmHg)	DM II	75.18	1.11	0.47
	Controls	76.21	10.2	
SBP(mmHg)	DM II	123.5	1.11	0.08
	Controls	120.42	12.4	
DBP(mmHg)	DM II	79.44	3.23	0.64
	Controls	79.16	2.65	

Unpaired t test , * $p < 0.05$ sig, ** $p < 0.001$ HS

Table – 03: Comparison of Electrocardiographic Changes in Between Type II DM Cases and Controls

Variables	Group	Mean	SD	t value	p value	
QRS COMPLEX	DUR(sec)	DM II	0.10	0.02	5.76	0.000 **
		Controls	0.08	0.01		
	AXIS(degrees)	DM II	51.42	16.44	0.24	0.80
		Controls	52.20	14.83		
	AMP(mm)	DM II	17.74	5.34	0.11	0.915
		Controls	17.64	3.90		

Unpaired t test , * $p < 0.05$ sig, ** $p < 0.001$ HS , $p > 0.05$: not Sig.

Discussion

In our study increased weight and BMI in diabetics could be due to increase in adiposity associated with insulin resistance attributed to more of sedentary life style and less physical activity^{2,3}.

Significant increase in QRS duration was noticed among type II diabetics . This could be due to diffuse damage of myocardium caused by increased accumulation of collagen in the interstitium of the cardiac muscle in diabetes mellitus ^{4,5,6}.

Conclusion

The prolonged QRS complex can be considered as the evidence that the heart of diabetic patients is damaged by cardiomyopathy. Hence the screening of diabetics for electrocardiographic abnormalities is strongly recommended at the time of diagnosis for proper interventions & to prevent complications at the earliest.

Conflicts of Interest: Nil

Ethical Clearance- Taken from JJMMC ethical committee Davangere.

Source of Funding- Self.

References

1. Stern S, Sclarowsky S. The ECG in diabetes mellitus. *Circulation* 2009;120:1633-36.
2. Sani FB, Anumah FEO. Electrocardiographic abnormalities with type 2 diabetes in Kaduna, Northern Nigeria. *Int J Diabetes & Metabol* 2009;17: 99-103.
3. Arora M, Koley S, Gupta S, Sandhu JS. A Study on Lipid Profile and Body Fat in Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. *Anthropologist* 2007;9(4):295-98.
4. A, Brady W, Morris F. Recognising signs of danger: ECG changes resulting from an abnormal serum potassium concentration. *Emerg Med J* 2002; 19:74-77.
5. . Montague B T, Ouellette J R, Buller G K. Retrospective review of the frequency of ECG changes in hyperkalemia. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 2008; 3(2): 324-30.
6. Krahulec B, Mikes Z, Balazovjeck I. The effect of cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy on resting ECG in type 1 diabetic patients. *Bratisl Lek Listy* 2002;103(2):54-58.

Gender Differences in Spatial Localization of Sound in the Azimuthal Plane in Normally Sighted Young Adults

Sowmya Rajaram¹, Ganesh Prasanna²

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, ²Student, Third year MBBS, Bangalore Medical College and Research Institute, Fort, KR Road, Bangalore

Abstract

Background: Research studies have shown that there are differences in the neuroanatomy of males and females. The aim of our study was to find whether there are any gender differences in the spatial localization of sound.

Method: A total of eighteen blindfolded subjects, consisting of nine males and nine age-matched females with normal hearing, were subjected to the spatial bisection task where they had to localize the second sound, whose location varied from -20° to $+20^\circ$ in the azimuthal plane, while the first and third sound were fixed at -20° and $+20^\circ$ respectively. The Minimum audible angle task was administered, where the subjects had to say whether the 2 sounds presented were from same location or from two different speakers.

Results and Conclusion: There was no significant difference between the males and females with respect to their performance of spatial bisection task and minimum audible angle task.

Keywords: gender difference, spatial bisection task, Minimum audible angle task, spatial localization of sound

Background

Men and women are equal in intelligence but differ in their skills and capacities. There are papers that support the view that there are differences between the neuroanatomy of males and female. The size of the male brain is on an average 8-10% larger than the female brain¹. The hemispheric asymmetry in the cerebral hemispheres is more in males than in females². This is supported by the fact that in the male brain, the functions are lateralized to one hemisphere³. Ruytjens et al explained that there is gender difference in the regional cerebral blood flow in the left and right primary auditory cortex when responding to music or noise⁴.

Localization of sound is defined as a listener's ability to identify the location or origin of the detected sound in direction and distance. The human auditory system uses several cues to localize sound. One such mechanism is the inter-aural time difference used in sound localization in the azimuthal plane. For sounds less than 2 kHz, the sound reaches the ear closer to the origin of sound first and then goes around the head and enters into the other ear. Using this cue, the human brain can identify the

location of sound source⁵.

An essential consideration is of the reference frame which is used to localize sounds. The frame of reference is defined as the means of representing the location of entities in space⁶. The dominant ones are egocentric and allocentric frames of reference. The egocentric frame uses the subject as the center of the environment whereas the allocentric frame is centered around external objects or the environment itself. The spatial bisection task assesses the spatial localization of sound in the allocentric frame while the minimum audible angle task is based on the egocentric frame⁷.

The Objective of our study was to find out whether there was any gender difference in spatial localization of sound assessed by the spatial bisection task and minimum audible angle task in the azimuthal plane.

Subjects, Materials and Method

Subjects:

Ethical approval was obtained from the Institutional ethical clearance committee as part of a larger ICMR

Short Term Studentship - 2017 project. Nine males and nine age matched females, who were in the age group between 20 and 29 years were recruited for the study from the staff and student population of Bangalore Medical College, based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Inclusion criteria: healthy young adults with normal hearing. Exclusion criteria: history of any past or present ear disease, any neurological illness, usage of ototoxic drugs and occupational exposure to loud sounds. Informed consent was obtained from each of the participants. The hearing threshold of all the subjects had to conform to the normal range and this was tested by the audiometry. Only those with 'Normal Hearing' were recruited.

Materials

The Audiometer mobile application 'Hearing Test version 1.1.2' (by developer: hearingtest@e-audiologia.pl), calibrated according to the default headphones of the phone was used to assess hearing by pure tone audiometry.

The horizontal array of speakers was placed on a table 150 cm away from the height-adjustable chair where the subject was seated. An angular separation of 2° was maintained between adjacent speakers such that 21 speakers covered the total angular range of +20° to -20° with respect to the position of the subject. The speakers were Generic Passive 5Volt-Speaker modules, compatible with Arduino microcontroller board. Arduino is an open-source platform based on easy-to-use hardware and software that provides a programming tool. Arduino IDE (Integrated Development Environment) was used for writing code and uploading it to the Arduino board. The duration of sound production and intervals between successive sounds were programmed on the IDE software on the laptop to which the microcontroller was connected.

Methodology

All experiments were conducted in an anechoic room in the department of physiology, Bangalore medical college and research institute. The subjects were informed of the procedure before the start of the experiment and all doubts adequately clarified. Informed consent was taken from each subject before the procedure. All subjects were blindfolded to rule out any visual distractions.

Spatial Bisection Task:

In this method, the blindfolded subject was made to sit on the height-adjustable chair whose height was adjusted such that the subject's ears were in the same horizontal plane as the speakers. Three sounds each of 1.5kHz frequency, lasting 75 ms were successively presented at 500ms intervals, the first sound from -20°, third sound at +20°, and the middle sound from an arbitrary point in between the first and last sounds. The subject was required to verbally indicate whether the second sound source was closer in space to the first or the third sound. Thirty such trials were performed for each subject

Minimum Audible Angle Task:

For this task, the same setup was used as for the spatial bisection task. Two 75 ms sounds were presented successively with a 500 ms interval, first on the central speaker (0°), and the second sound from the point adjacent to the central speaker. After every trial the subject was required to indicate whether the two sounds seemed to arise from the same point or not. Trials were repeated with successive increase in angular distance of the second sound from the central speaker till the subject was able to distinguish the two sounds sources as from 2 different speakers. 5 sets of such trials were done on each side of the central speaker alternately for each subject⁷. The data collected for each subject consisted of the 10 values of Minimum Audible Angles (correct to 2°) and their means.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics were done and data expressed as Mean \pm Standard deviation (SD). Inferential statistics for the spatial bisection task was done and the two groups were compared using student's t-test. $P < 0.05$ was considered to be significant. The proportion of the total number of correct responses to the number of wrong responses in each group was compared using Chi-square test. Similarly, the mean of the two groups were compared during the minimum audible angle task by student's t test when the second sound fell to the left and the right of the central speaker individually.

Observations and Results

Table 1: Baseline characteristics of the male and female group

	Males n = 9 (Mean ± SD)	Females n = 9 (Mean ± SD)	P - value
Age (years)	23 ± 4	23 ± 4	0.631

Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) of the number of correct responses out of 30 trials per subject in the spatial bisection task

	Males (n=9) Mean ± SD	Females (n=9) Mean ± SD	P - value
Number of correct responses	26 ± 2	27 ± 2	0.63

Table 3: Comparison of proportion of right to wrong responses in the 3 groups for Spatial Bisection task:

	Males (n = 9)	Females (n = 9)
Number of correct responses	236	240
Number of wrong responses	34	30
Total	270	270

P = 0.6892 (by chi squared test); Chi square – 0.16

Table 4: Angular separation of the 2 sounds to denote Minimum audible angle:

	Males (n = 9)	Females (n = 9)	P - value
Right of central speaker (°) (Mean ± SD)	3 ± 2	3 ± 1	0.745
Left of central speaker (°) (Mean ± SD)	3 ± 1	3 ± 1	0.259
Mean of both sides (°) (Mean ± SD)	3 ± 1	3 ± 1	0.464

Results

Table 1 shows that there was no difference between the means of the 2 groups with respect to the age of the subject.

Table 2 shows that the mean and standard deviation of the number of correct responses out of 30 trials done by each of the 9 participants in each group. While the males showed a mean and standard deviation of 26 and 2 respectively, the females showed a better response of 27(mean) and 2(standard deviation). However there was no significant difference between the means of the two groups.

Table 3 shows the proportion of correct to wrong responses compared between the two groups by Chi square test which showed a P value of 0.689. There was no significant difference between the two groups

Table 4 shows the mean and standard deviation in either group with respect to minimum audible angle when the second sound was to the left of median speaker or to the right of the median speaker. When the mean of both groups were compared, it yielded a P value which was not significant.

Discussion

There was no significant difference between the mean ages of the two groups. This supports the fact that the two groups were age matched.

Of the 30 trials of spatial bisection task for each subject, the number of correct responses in each group was 26 and 27 in the male and female groups respectively. At this point, we can say that not all could score 30 out of 30 correct responses as blindfolding itself put them at a disadvantaged position. What the subjects had been doing with their eyes open all their life, they had to do after blindfolding. They had only a few minutes to adapt themselves to this situation. We blindfolded them to rule out any visual distractions during the task. Tabry et al compared the effect of blind folding of normal sighted subjects to the not blindfolded condition. They stated that blindfolding put them at a disadvantage compared to the not blindfolded controls⁸.

Ruytjens et al described that there is a difference between males and females in brain activation in the primary auditory cortex in response to different types of acoustic stimuli. They concluded that there was a significant sexual dichotomy in auditory gating. Males

showed inhibition of acoustic stimuli by corticofugal networks. This put them in an evolutionarily advantageous position, where in their role as hunters, they could focus on relevant acoustic stimuli and they could ignore the irrelevant acoustic stimuli. However, in our study, we could not find any significant difference between males and females in spatial localization of sound during the spatial bisection task and minimum audible angle task.

Sound localization can be studied in 3 dimensions - Azimuthal plane or horizontal plane, elevation or vertical plane, distance of stationary sound or the velocity of moving sound. In our study, we have studied sound localization in the azimuthal plane.

The medial superior olivary nucleus, which is a component of superior olivary complex, helps in localizing sound in the azimuthal plane at the ear level. When the source of sound is in the azimuthal plane, it reaches the two ears at different times. The ear closer to the sound receives first. The sound then has to travel around the head (takes 700 microseconds) and reaches the other ear. This difference in time is used by the medial superior olivary nuclei to localize sound in the azimuthal plane⁵. Sexual dichotomy in localization of sound in the azimuthal plane has not been studied much. Our study where we found that there is no gender difference in spatial bisection task and minimal audible angle task in spatial localization of sound is one of the few studies conducted on this topic.

Strength and limitations: An important strength of the study was the age matching. There are some studies which explain how the ability to localize sounds varies with age⁹. Another important aspect was the use of Arduino micro controller board. These scientific advancements eliminated the noise that would have been produced had it been necessary to shift the speakers during each trial manually.

Limitations of the study: Inclusion of a wider age group including middle aged and the elderly would have provided a complete answer as to whether there is any gender difference in middle aged and elderly.

Conclusion

This study showed that there was no significant difference in sound localization between males and females during spatial bisection task and minimum audible angle task.

Future directions should focus on gender dichotomy in spatial localization of sound in the vertical plane.

Conflict of Interest: Nil

Source of Funding: Nil

Ethical Approval: Obtained as part of the ICMR Short Term Studentship-2017 project from Institutional Ethical clearance committee

Acknowledgement: We acknowledge the Indian Council of Medical Research for selecting Ganesh Prasanna for the ICMR- Short Term Studentship-2017.

References

1. Peters M, Jäncke L, Staiger JF, Schlaug G, Huang Y, Steinmetz H. Unsolved problems in comparing brain sizes in Homo sapiens. *Brain and cognition*. 1998 Jul 1; 37 (2):254-85.
2. Kovalev V, Kruggel F, von Cramon D. Gender and age effects in structural brain asymmetry as measured by MRI texture analysis. *NeuroImage*. 2003; 19 (3):895-905.
3. Ruytjens L, Willemsen AT, Van Dijk P, Wit HP, Albers FW. Functional imaging of the central auditory system using PET. *Acta oto-laryngologica*. 2006 Jan 1; 126 (12):1236-44.
4. Ruytjens L, Georgiadis JR, Holstege G, Wit HP, Albers FW, Willemsen AT. Functional sex differences in human primary auditory cortex. *European journal of nuclear medicine and molecular imaging*. 2007 Dec 1; 34 (12):2073-81.
5. Siegelbaum SA, Hudspeth AJ. Principles of neural science. Kandel ER, Schwartz JH, Jessell TM, editors. New York: McGraw-hill; 2000 Jan.
6. Kosslyn SM. Seeing and imagining in the cerebral hemispheres: a computational approach. *Psychological review*. 1987 Apr; 94(2):148.
7. Gori M, Sandini G, Martinoli C, Burr DC. Impairment of auditory spatial localization in congenitally blind human subjects. *Brain*. 2013 Nov 21; 137(1):288-93.
8. Tabry V, Zatorre RJ, Voss P. The influence of vision on sound localization abilities in both the horizontal and vertical planes. *Frontiers in psychology*. 2013 Dec 12; 4: 932.
9. Dobрева MS, O'Neill WE, Paige GD. Influence of aging on human sound localization. *Journal of neurophysiology*. 2011 Mar 2; 105(5):2471-86.

Critical Fusion Frequency and Audio-Visual Reaction Time as a Function of Age

Shankarappa V¹, Prakash S B², Prabha V³

¹Associate Professor, Department of Physiology, Sambram Institute of Medical Sciences, Kolar Gold Fields, Karnataka, India, ²Assistant professor, Department of Physiology, Koppal Institute of Medical Sciences, Koppal, Karnataka, India, ³Associate professor, Department of Physiology, Chamarajanagar Institute of Medical Sciences, Chamarajanagar, Karnataka, India

Abstract

Background & objective: Aging is associated with physiological changes in functioning of different parts of the body. One of the changes commonly seen in elderly persons is slowness of the movements. Many studies concluded that audio-visual reaction time (RT) increases with age. Critical fusion frequency (CFF) is the frequency at which an intermittent light stimulus appears to be completely steady to the observer. It is been observed that CFF decreases with age. But whether this decrease is a progressive phenomenon is not clear. Hence, the present study was designed to investigate CFF in various age groups.

Materials & method: The study involved hundred subjects within the age group of 20-70 years. Subjects were divided into five age groups. Audio-visual reaction time and critical fusion frequency were measured. Data was statistically analyzed by using one way ANOVA for group wise changes in RT and CFF. Relationship between visual RT and CFF was found out by Pearson's coefficient of correlation.

Results: Visual RT and Audio RT were positively and significantly correlated with age whereas CFF was significantly and negatively correlated with age in male and females separately as well as when combined together. ($p < 0.001$)

Conclusion: From our study we conclude that the RT increases and CFF decreases with age. These changes are similar in both male and female subjects.

Keywords: Audio-visual reaction time, Critical Fusion Frequency, Age.

Introduction

Aging in humans is a multidimensional process of physical, psychological, and social change. It is associated with physiological changes in functioning of different parts of the body. One of the changes commonly seen in elderly persons is slowness of the movements.¹ Adequate and timely response to the auditory and visual stimuli are necessary in day to day activities & these

activities are executed by reflex mechanisms involving cerebral cortex. Many studies concluded that reaction time (RT) increases with age.² But relationship between the age and changes in RT is not clear.

Critical fusion frequency is the frequency at which an intermittent light stimulus appears to be completely steady to the observer. Stimuli presented at a higher rate than the CFF are perceived as continuous stimuli. Measurement of CFF is used as a test for fatigue of the central nervous system, cortical processing capacity and level of cortical activity or arousal in a person.³ It has also been observed that CFF decreases with age.^{4,5} But whether this decrease is a progressive phenomenon is not clear.⁶⁻⁸

Corresponding Author:

Dr. Prakash S B,

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology,
Koppal Institute of Medical Sciences,
Koppal, Karnataka, India.

Email: prakashdiabetology@gmail.com

Hence, the present study was designed to investigate changes in audio-visual RT and CFF in various age groups. To find out age wise changes in auditory and visual reaction time in healthy subjects. To study changes in critical fusion frequency in healthy subjects of various age groups. To compare changes in critical fusion frequency in healthy subjects of both gender groups.

Materials and Method

The study was conducted in a sample of hundred healthy individuals within the age group of 20-70 years in Kolar. They had been divided into five age groups as follows- Group I; 20-29 years, group II; 30- 39 years, group III; 40-49 years, group IV; 50-59 years and group V; 60-69 years. In each group, 20 subjects were included. Subjects were selected based on inclusion and exclusion criteria.

Inclusion criteria [study group]

Hundred healthy individuals of both the sex aged between 20 and 70years were included.

Exclusion criteria

History of Neuro endocrine disorders

History of Musculo-skeletal disorders

History of audio-visual pathology and or surgery

History of visual acuity more than $\pm 5D$ spherical or $\pm 2D$ cylindrical

History of Hypertension

History of Diabetes Mellitus

Methodology

The subjects were selected by a detailed history & thorough physical examination. The experimental protocol was fully explained to the participants to allay apprehension. Informed consent was taken from all the subjects. The study was approved by Institutional Ethical Committee. For all the subjects, basic vital data i.e. name, age, sex, address was noted. History of tea, caffeine, alcohol intake was also noted.

Each subject was given 10 trial sessions to get familiarized with both the techniques i.e. audio-visual reaction time and critical fusion frequency measurement. Auditory and visual reaction time was measured by the audio-visual reaction time apparatus (PC1000, software based instrument designed by one of the authors. Software used is Audacity; freely available). Here, subject has to respond to the auditory and visual stimulus as quickly as possible by pressing the switch. Best of three measurements was considered as the subject's auditory and visual reaction time respectively.



Reaction time from A to B

Figure1: Recording of visual reaction time. (A) Onset of stimulus; (B) End of Response by the subject. Distance between A and B is visual reaction time in msec as marked at the bottom of the screen.

CFF apparatus was also a portable software-based apparatus designed by in house Bio-medical Engineer. Software used was SweepGen which was freely available on the net. Red LED of 5 mm diameter was used against the white background as a light source. It was kept at a distance of 30 cm from the subject's eye at the eye level. Flicker frequency was gradually increased by the rate of 1.5 Hz/sec. The frequency at which stimuli appear continuous was noted. Also by gradually decreasing the frequency of stimulation, the point at which flicker is felt was noted. Mean of such six frequencies was considered as CFF.

Data was statistically analyzed by using one way ANOVA for group wise changes in RT and CFF. Relationship between visual RT and CFF was found out by Pearson's coefficient of correlation.

Results

As shown in table 1, both VRT and ART in male subjects showed progressive increase whereas CFF was decreased. Increase in VRT and ART was statistically significant from the age-group 40-49 years onwards when compared with the younger age groups. Decrease in CFF was statistically significant in all the age-groups when compared with 20-29 years age-group.

Table 1: Comparison of VRT, ART & CFF in different age groups in males

Age group (years)	N	VRT (msec)	ART (msec)	CFF (Hz)
20-29	20	179.87 ± 25.75	143.55 ± 20.09	38.80 ± 1.00
30-39	20	208.48 ± 24.48	157.44 ± 19.34	37.17 ± 0.88*
40-49	20	236.28 ± 34.39*	183.83 ± 52.98*	36.33 ± 1.02*
50-59	20	270.05 ± 30.47*	214.65 ± 33.56*	35.64 ± 1.35*
60-69	20	276.00 ± 44.35*	229.58 ± 34.81*	35.84 ± 1.47*
F Value		31.01	24.65	24.31
P value		0.0000*	0.0000*	0.0000*

In females, as shown in table 2, findings of CFF were similar to that of males. But VRT and ART were significantly higher at from the age group 50-59 years onwards when compared with the previous age-groups.

Table 2: Comparison of VRT, ART & CFF in different age groups in females

Age group (years)	N	VRT (msec)	ART (msec)	CFF (Hz)
20-29	20	213.32 ± 38.26	170.87 ± 30.45	38.17 ± 1.00
30-39	20	245.08 ± 43.10	174.62 ± 39.92	36.77 ± 0.83*
40-49	20	243.04 ± 52.47	192.02 ± 29.12	36.19 ± 1.23*
50-59	20	261.57 ± 42.97*	204.10 ± 31.41*	35.95 ± 1.31*
60-69	20	269.15 ± 44.70*	220.22 ± 36.00*	35.57 ± 0.47*
F Value		4.86	8.04	21.30
P value		0.001278*	0.000012*	0.00000*

Table 3 shows the result of unpaired t test. When compared the male and female of same age-groups, VRT and ART were significantly higher in females of age-group 20-29 and 30-39 years only. In higher age-groups the change was not significant. CFF results also

do not show any significant change between the male and females of same age-groups.

Table 3: Gender-wise comparison of VRT, ART & CFF in different age groups

Age group (yr)	N	VRT (msec)		p value	ART (msec)		p value	CFF (Hz)		p value
		Male	female		Male	female		Male	female	
Total	200									
20-29	20	179.87 ±25.75	213.32 ± 38.26	0.0027*	143.55 ± 20.09	170.89 ± 30.45	0.002*	38.80 ± 1.00	38.17 ± 0.1	0.056
30-39	20	208.48 ±24.92	245.08 ± 43.10	0.0026*	157.44 ±19.34	174.62 ± 39.92	0.095*	37.17 ±0.88	36.77 ± 0.83	0.139
40-49	20	236.28 ±34.39	243.04 ± 52.47	0.63	183.83 ±52.98	192.02 ± 29.12	0.55	36.33 ±1.02	36.19 ± 1.23	0.70
50-59	20	270.05 ±30.47	261.57 ±42.97	0.48	214.65 ±33.56	224.10 ± 31.41	0.31	35.64 ±1.35	35.95 ± 1.31	0.46
60-69	20	276.00 ±44.35	269.15 ± 44.70	0.6172	229.58 ±34.81	220.22 ± 36.00	0.39	35.84 ±1.47	35.57 ± 0.47	0.44

As depicted in table 4, VRT and ART were positively and significantly correlated with age whereas CFF was significantly and negatively correlated with age in male and females separately as well as when combined together.

Table 4: Correlation of age with VRT, ART & CFF in males & females

	N	VRT (msec)	ART (msec)	CFF (Hz)	Std. alpha
Male	100	0.75	0.71	-0.64	0.38
p value		0.000*	0.000*	0.000*	
Female	100	0.43	0.52	-0.63	0.2
p value		0.000007*	0.0000*	0.0000*	
Both	200	0.58	0.62	-0.63	0.29
p value		0.0000*	0.0000*	0.0000*	

We have also found statistically significant but negative correlation of CFF with VRT and ART in both male and female group, separately as well as when combined together.

Discussion

In our study we have found that there is a progressive increase in VRT and ART in both males and females with age. James L. Fozard *et al* also found slowing of simple RT in both male and female subjects across the decades. According to Waneen Wyrick Spirduso most of the slowing of responses in the aged is attributable to CNS processing.⁸

J. Richard Simon *et al* proposed that aging affects stimulus encoding but not response selection in elderly

subjects when tested with choice RT. They have also shown that information processing is affected prior to the encoding stage but the encoding stage was the primary locus of the slowing which accompanied aging.⁹

In our study CFF showed a small but consistent decrease with age. Similar results were found by Brozek, J Keys. CFF is one of the measures of cortical processing capacity and central fatigue. This was evident by increase in CFF value with exercise induced arousal¹⁰ as well as with the regular yogic practices including meditation.¹¹

It has been shown by many researchers that with advancing age, there is degeneration of the optic nerve and cerebrium.⁵ Also there is an accelerated increase of lens absorption and scatter or an accelerated loss of cellular elements of the retina, the afferent visual system,

or the combination of both.¹² According to Curcio the number of rods decreases linearly with increasing age, whereas cone density is not reduced significantly throughout adulthood.¹³ Hence, decrease in CFF across the age groups can be attributed to decrease in neurons in visual pathway or in the visual cortex.

As shown in table 3, both VRT and ART were significantly higher for females in younger age groups when compared with males of same age groups but not after the age of 40 years. Also the difference in CFF values was not significant in any of the age groups. This suggests that aging related decrease in cortical processing may be responsible for these changes in both males and female subjects. VRT and ART were positively and significantly correlated with age whereas CFF was significantly but negatively correlated with age. Also the CFF is significantly and negatively correlated with VRT and ART. This suggests that changes in RT with age are partly associated with prolongation of central processing speed.

Conclusion

In our study we conclude that the RT increases and CFF decreases with age. These changes are similar in both male and female subjects. As CFF is negatively correlated with RT, and also the age, it can be the reason for changes in RT as age advances.

Source of Support: Nil

Conflict of Interest: None declared.

References

1. Waneen Wyrick, Spirduso, EdD. Reaction and Movement Time as a Function of age and Physical Activity Level. *Journal of gerontology* Volume 30, Issue 4 Pp. 435-440.
2. James L. Fozard, Max Verduyssen, Sara L. Reynolds, P. A. Hancock, and Reginald E. Quilter. Age Differences and Changes in Reaction Time: The Baltimore Longitudinal Study of Aging. *Journal of Gerontology* Volume 49, Issue 4 Pp. P179-P189.
3. Azcona, M. J. Barbanoj, J. Torrent & F. Janei. Evaluation of the central effects of alcohol and caffeine interaction *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1995; 40: 393-400
4. Brozek, J.; Keys, A. Changes in flicker-fusion frequency with age. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, Vol 9(2), Mar 1945, 87-90. doi: 10.1037/h0053488
5. Misiak, Henryk. Age and sex differences in critical flicker frequency. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, Vol 37(4), Aug 1947, 318-332. doi: 10.1037/h0061531
6. Simonson, E. Enzer, N. Blankstein, S. S. The influence of age on the fusion frequency of flicker. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, Vol 29(3), Sep 1941, 252-255. doi: 10.1037/h0056872
7. McFarland, Ross A.; Warren, A. Bertrand; Karis, Charles. Alterations in critical flicker frequency as a function of age and light:dark ratio. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, Vol 56(6), Dec 1958, 529-538. doi: 10.1037/h0049128.
8. Misiak, Henryk. The decrease of critical flicker frequency with age. *Science*, 113, 1951, 551-552. doi: 10.1126/science.113.2941.551)
9. J.Richard Simon, A. Reza Pouraghabagher. The Effect of Aging on the Stages of Processing in a Choice Reaction Time Task. *Journal of Gerontology*, Volume 33, Issue 4 Pp. 553-561 1978.
10. Kate Lambourne; Michel Audiffren; Phillip D. Tomporowski. Effects of Acute Exercise on Sensory and Executive Processing Tasks. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2010;42(7):1396-1402.
11. Vani PR, Nagarathna R, Nagendra HR, Telles S. Progressive increase in critical flicker fusion frequency following yoga training. *Indian J Physiol Pharmacol.* 1997 Jan;41(1):71-4.
12. Bernhard J. Lachenmayr, Sigrid Kojetinsky, Nikolaus Ostermaier, Klemens Angstwurm, Patrick M. Vivell, and Markus Schaumberger. The Different Effects of Aging on Normal Sensitivity in Flicker and Light-Sense Perimetry. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci.* 1994;35:274 1-2748.
13. Curcio CA, Millican CL, Allen KA, Kalina RE. Aging of the human photoreceptor mosaic: Evidence for selective vulnerability of rods in central retina. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci.* 1993;34:3278-3296

Dyselectrolytaemia in Middle Aged Type II Diabetes Mellitus – A Harbinger of Cardiac Function Abnormalities

Siraj Ahmed Shirbadgi¹, Aftab Begum^{2*}

¹Professor, Department of Anatomy, ²Assistant Professor Department of Physiology, BMCH Chitradurga, Karnataka

Abstract

Background : Diabetes mellitus(DM) is a chronic metabolic disorder. The management of blood glucose and other modifiable risk factor is a key element in the multifactorial approach to prevent complications of diabetes and decreasing the mortality and morbidity.

Aim and Objective of the Study: To determine the serum electrolyte (sodium & potassium) in asymptomatic type II diabetic cases and with controls. **Materials and Method:** Fifty type II DM cases aged between 30-55 years and fifty age and sex matched controls were selected from general population. Detailed physical and systemic examination was done. Ethical clearance and informed consent was taken. Estimation of Serum electrolytes (Sodium and Potassium) is done by Ion selective electrode method. Unpaired t-test was used to compare the parameters between type II DM cases & controls by using SPSS version 16. Level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$. **Results:** There was statistically significant increase in Serum potassium level among type II diabetics when compared to controls ($p < 0.001$) **Conclusion:** There was significant increase in Serum potassium level among type II diabetics when compared to controls . Hence the screening tests such as estimation of serum electrolytes are strongly recommended at the time of diagnosis for proper interventions which could prevent the complications at an earlier date.

Keywords: Type II Diabetes mellitus, Serum electrolytes. Cardio vascular abnormalities, Serum Potassium, Serum Sodium.

Introduction

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a chronic metabolic disorder¹. The management of blood glucose and other modifiable risk factor is a key element in the multifactorial approach to prevent complications of diabetes and decreasing the mortality and morbidity.

Materials and Method

Estimation Serum Sodium and Potassium²

Method: Ion selective electrode method (ISE) using undiluted specimens (ISE direct method)

Principle; Analyzer fitted with ISEs usually contain Na^+ electrodes with glass membrane and K^+ electrodes with liquid ion exchange membranes that incorporate valinomycin. Potentiometry is the determination of change in electromotive force (E potential) in a circuit between a measurement electrode, as the selected ion interacts with the membrane of the ISE. In instrument applications the measuring system is calibrated by introduction of calibrator solutions containing defined amounts of Na^+ and K^+ . The potentials of the calibrators are determined, and the $\Delta E / \Delta \log$ concentration is stored in microprocessor memory as a factor for calculating unknown concentration when E of the unknown is measured.

Corresponding Author :

***Dr. Aftab Begum**

Assistant Professor Department of Physiology, BMCH
Chitradurga, Karnataka

E-mail draf84@gmail.com7899837589

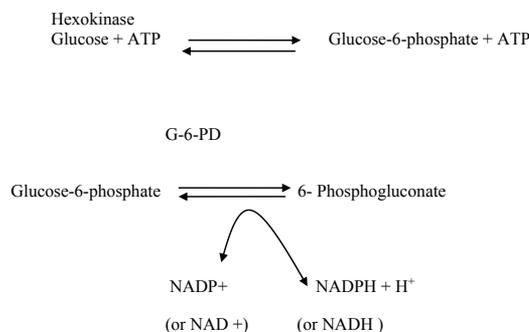
Normal Values S.Sodium : 135-148 mmol/L

S.Potassium : 3.7-5.3 mmol/L

Blood Sugar level

Estimated by Hexokinase method³

Glucose is phosphorylated by ATP in the presence of hexokinase and magnesium (Mg^{2+}). The glucose-6-phosphate formed is oxidized by glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD) to 6-phosphogluconate in the presence of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADP⁺). The amount of NADPH produced is directly proportional to the amount of glucose in the sample and is measured by absorbance at 340 nm. G6PD derived from yeast is used in the assay with NADP⁺ as the cofactor. The oxidized form of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD⁺) is the cofactor if bacterial (*Leuconostoc mesenteroides*) G6PD is used, and the NADH produced is also measured at 340 nm.



Reference value: FBS : 74-106 mg/dL

Findings

Subject Information

Sex Distribution: Out of 50 subjects 20 were male's and 30 were female in type II DM cases and controls of each group respectively (Table- 01).

Age : The mean age (yrs) was 45.8 ± 4.9 and 45.9 ± 5.0 in type II DM cases and type II DM controls respectively (Table-01).

Height : The mean height (in cms) were 161.58 ± 8.3 and 160.98 ± 6.02 in type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-02). There was no significant difference in height between type II DM cases and controls ($p > 0.05$).

Weight : The mean weight (in kgs) were 64.44 ± 7.78 and 57.46 ± 5.65 in type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-02). There was statistically highly significant increase in weight in type II diabetics when compared to controls ($p < 0.001$).

Body Mass Index (BMI) : The BMI (in kg/m^2) were 24.55 ± 2.19 and 22.15 ± 1.37 in Type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-02). There was highly significant increase in BMI among type II diabetics when compared to controls ($p < 0.001$).

Pulse : The mean pulse rates (bpm) were 75.18 ± 1.11 and 76.21 ± 10.2 in type II DM cases and controls respective (Table-02). There was no significant difference in pulse rate between type II diabetic cases and controls ($p > 0.05$).

Systolic Blood Pressure: The mean SBP (in mmHg) were 123.5 ± 1.11 and 120.42 ± 12 in Type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-02). There was no significant difference in SBP among type II diabetics and controls ($p > 0.05$).

Diastolic blood Pressure: The mean DBP (in mmHg) were 79.44 ± 3.23 and 79.16 ± 2.65 in Type II Diabetics and controls respectively (Table-02). There was no significant difference in DBP among type II DM cases and controls ($p > 0.05$).

Bio-Chemical Parameters

Fasting blood Sugar: The fasting blood sugar (in mg/dl) levels were 162.32 ± 57.09 and 86.98 ± 9.66 in type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-03). There was statistically high significant increase in FBS level in Type II diabetics when compared to controls ($p < 0.001$).

Serum Sodium: The mean serum sodium (in mmol /L) levels were 141.12 ± 3.50 and 140.96 ± 2.04 in type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-03). There was no significant difference in serum sodium levels among type II diabetics when compared to controls ($p > 0.05$).

Serum Potassium: The mean serum potassium (in mmol/L) levels were 4.86 ± 0.49 and 4.40 ± 0.13 in type II DM cases and controls respectively (Table-03). There was statistically highly significant increase in Serum potassium level among type II diabetics when compared to controls ($p < 0.001$).

Table -01: Age and Sex Comparison of the Group's Studied

Variables		DM- II	CONTROLS
Subjects	NO	50	50
Gender	Male	20	20
	Female	30	30
Age (yrs)	Mean \pm SD	45.8 \pm 4.9	45.9 \pm 5.0
	Range	35-54 Yrs	35-54 Yrs

Table-02: Comparison of variables Between Type - II DM cases and Controls

Type II DM					
Variable	Group	Mean	SD	t value	p value
HEIGHT(cms)	DM II	161.58	8.34	0.41	0.68
	Controls	160.98	6.02		
WEIGHT(kg)	DM II	64.44	7.78	5.13	0.000 **
	Controls	57.46	5.65		
BMI(kg/m ²)	DM II	24.55	2.19	6.57	0.000 **
	Controls	22.15	1.37		
PULSE(mmHg)	DM II	75.18	1.11	0.70	0.47
	Controls	76.21	10.2		
SBP(mmHg)	DM II	123.5	1.11	1.74	0.08
	Controls	120.42	12.4		
DBP(mmHg)	DM II	79.44	3.23	0.47	0.64
	Controls	79.16	2.65		
Unpaired t test					
** p < 0.001, HS					
p > 0.05: not Sig.					

Table - 03: Comparison of FBS, Electrolytes and Lipid Profile Parameters between Type II DM Cases and Controls

Variable	Group	Mean	SD	t value	p value
FBS(mg/dl)	DM II	162.32	57.09	9.20	0.000 **
	Controls	86.98	9.66		
SODIUM(mmol/L)	DM II	141.12	3.50	0.29	0.775
	Controls	140.96	2.04		
POTASIUM(mmol/L)	DM II	4.86	0.49	6.38	0.000 **
	Controls	4.40	0.13		
	Controls	32.97	16.76		
Unpaired t test					
* p < 0.05, Sig					
** p < 0.001, HS p > 0.05: not Sig.					

Discussion

India leads the world today with the largest number of diabetics in any given country. Diabetes is a major cause of mortality, but several studies indicate that diabetes is likely under reported as a cause of death. A recent estimate suggested that diabetes was the fifth leading cause of death worldwide.

Weight and Body Mass Index

In this study increase in weight and BMI was seen in both type I and type II diabetics when compared to controls.

This increased weight and BMI in diabetics could be due to increase in adiposity associated with insulin resistance attributed to more of sedentary life style and less physical activity. Increase in body weight and BMI are important predictors of metabolic disturbances including dyslipidemia, hypertension and cardiovascular diseases.⁴

Similar findings were also seen in study done by Sani FB et al.¹

Fasting blood sugar

There was significant increase in blood sugar level in both type I and type II diabetics when compared to controls. This higher blood sugar values observed in diabetics were expected because, a person is said to be diabetic if fasting blood sugar is more. The increased FBS level in diabetics arises from the deficiency of insulin, the key hormone in the regulation of glucose metabolism.⁵

This increased blood sugar level can be taken as a simple biochemical marker in diabetic subjects to indicate their state of metabolic control and to intervene early in the treatment. The persistent hyperglycemia is an indicator of developing early complications in diabetics.

Similar findings were consistent with the study done by Onwuliri VA et al,⁵ Banerjee S et al⁶ and Gayoum AGAA et al.⁷

Serum Sodium

In our study there was statistically significant increase in serum sodium levels in type I diabetics when compared to controls and no significant difference in

type II diabetics and controls.

This increase in serum sodium level can be explained as that, the $\text{Na}^+ - \text{K}^+$ ATPase is a ubiquitous enzyme that ensures that the transmembrane gradient of sodium and potassium concentrations are maintained. Alterations of this transport enzyme are thought to be linked to several complications of diabetes mellitus. As the activity of $\text{Na}^+ - \text{K}^+$ ATPase enzyme is dependent on insulin and the dysfunction of this enzyme is probably connected with the relative insulinopenia of hyperglycemic type I diabetic patients promoting sodium retention and causing expansion of total body sodium levels. This increased serum sodium level could also be attributed by the transitionary sodium retention due to increased sodium reabsorption from proximal renal tubules.⁸

Similar findings were also reported in earlier studies done by Shahid SM et al,⁸ Onwuliri VA et al⁵ and Saito T et al.⁹

Serum Potassium

In our study serum potassium level was significantly increased in type II diabetics whereas it was decreased in type I diabetics when compared to controls.

This altered distribution of serum potassium levels in diabetics could be due to hyperglycemia. The higher level of plasma glucose level results in greater reduction in circulating blood volume, as there was a significant negative correlation between plasma glucose and percent changes in blood volume. These changes might have increased the serum potassium levels. Also hyperosmolality would promote cellular dehydration, thus providing an increase in K^+ efflux from the cells leading to increased serum potassium levels in diabetics. The altered distribution of electrolytes is not merely dependent on hyperosmolality but also on insulin which affects the activity of $\text{Na}^+ - \text{K}^+$ ATPase enzyme. The dysfunction of $\text{Na}^+ - \text{K}^+$ ATPase is implicated in the altered distribution of electrolytes (Na^+ & K^+) between intra and extracellular spaces.

Similar findings were also reported in earlier studies by Shahid SM et al,⁸ Onwuliri VA et al,⁵ and Saito T et al.⁹

Conclusion

The following conclusion can be drawn from the results of our study.

There was significant increase in weight, BMI and fasting food sugar level in both type I and type II diabetics when compared to controls.

Pulse rate was significantly increased in type I diabetics than non diabetics.

Serum sodium levels were significantly increased in type I diabetics than controls.

Serum potassium level was significantly decreased among type I diabetics whereas it is increased in type II cases when compared to controls.

Conflicts of Interest: Nil

Ethical Clearance: Taken from JJMMC Davangere ethical committee

Source of Funding: Self

References

1. Sani FB, Anumah FEO. Electrocardiographic abnormalities with type 2 diabetes in Kaduna, Northern Nigeria. *Int J Diabetes & Metabol* 2009;17: 99-103.
2. Scott MG, LeGreys VA, Klutts JS. Electrolytes and blood gases. In: Brutis CA, Ashwood ER, Burns DE eds., Teitz textbook of clinical chemistry and molecular diagnostics .4th ed. New Delhi: Elsevier; 2006: p. 983-89.
3. Sacks DB, Brutis CA, Ashwood ER, Burns DE eds., Teitz textbook of clinical chemistry and molecular diagnostics .4th ed. New Delhi: Elsevier; 2006: p. 868-70.
4. Arora M, Koley S, Gupta S, Sandhu JS. A Study on Lipid Profile and Body Fat in Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. *Anthropologist* 2007;9(4):295-98
5. Onwuliri VA, Bitrus S, Puppert F, Maduka HCC. Blood lipids and electrolyte profiles of male and female diabetics in Plateau State Nigeria. *J Med Sci* 2004;4(3):221-24.
6. Banerjee S, Ghosh US, Biswas D. Profile of young diabetes mellitus and its clinical implications. *Int J Diab Dev Ctries* 2007;27(2):50-55.
7. Gayoum AGAA, Musa AS. The effect of glycemic control on serum lipids and calcium- phosphate profiles in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *The Egyptian Journal of Biochemistry & Molecular Biology* 2008;27(1):79-92
8. Shahid SM, Rafique R, Mahboob T. Electrolytes and sodium transport mechanism in diabetes mellitus. *Pakistan Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences* 2005; 18(2):6-10.
9. Saito T, Ishikawa S, Higashiyama M, Nakamura T, Rokkaku K, Hayashi H et al. Inverse Distribution of serum sodium and potassium in uncontrolled in patients with diabetes mellitus. *Endocri J* 1999;46(1):75-80.

Spatial Localization of Sound in Early Blind During Spatial Bisection Task and Minimum Audible Angle Task

Sowmya Rajaram¹, Ganesh Prasanna²

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, ²Student, Third year MBBS, Department of Physiology, Bangalore Medical College and Research Institute, Fort, KR Road, Bangalore

Abstract

Background: Research has shown that early blind have supra-normal localization abilities in the azimuthal plane while performing a minimum audible angle task which is based on egocentric paradigm. An opposing view has been proposed that the early blind have a deficit in spatial localization of sound in the horizontal plane during an allocentric based task such as spatial bisection of sound. The objective of our study was to assess spatial localization of sound in the early blind by means of minimum audible angle task and spatial bisection task.

Methods: A total of ten early blind and ten normal sighted blind folded controls were subjected to minimum audible angle task and spatial bisection task in the azimuthal plane.

Results: The early blind subjects performed significantly poorer than controls in the spatial bisection task which was based on the allocentric model. However, they performed as well as the controls in the Minimum audible angle task which was based on egocentric model.

Conclusion: The minimum audible angle task based on the egocentric paradigm does not require a metric representation of auditory space whereas allocentric paradigm based task would require the same. However the spatial bisection task which is based on the allocentric paradigm taxes the retinotopic maps. Hence the poor performance in this task

Key words: *spatial bisection task, Minimum audible angle task, early blind, cross sensory calibration*

Background

The consequence of blindness in the development of sound localizing abilities in the early blind has been a subject of research in the last decade. The research work in this area of neuroscience has yielded two different and opposing viewpoints. One set of research studies has proved that early blind are blessed with supra-normal abilities in the azimuthal plane ¹. An opposing view is that the early blind have a deficit in the spatial localization of sound in the horizontal plane ².

At this point, we need to consider the reference frames that are used to localize sounds. The frames of reference are the means of representing the location of entities in space ³. The two dominant ones include the egocentric frame of reference which uses the subject as the centre of environment ⁴ and the allocentric frame of

reference, which is centred on external objects or the environment itself ⁵.

The objective of our research study was to study spatial localization of sound in the early blind during minimum audible angle task which is an egocentric task and during spatial bisection task which is an allocentric task.

Subjects, Materials and Method

Subjects:

Ethical approval was obtained from the institutional ethical clearance committee as part of an ICMR short term studentship 2017 project. Ten early blind subjects and ten age and gender matched controls were recruited for the study based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Early blind were defined as those who had complete

blindness by eleven years of age. Of the ten early blind subjects, eight were blind since birth and the remaining two had lost vision completely by the age of five years. Blindness was defined by World Health Organization criteria as visual acuity of less than 3/60 in both eyes. Inclusion criteria were: age more than nineteen years and normal hearing as screened by hearing test @audiologia 1.1.2. Exclusion criteria were: history of occupational exposure to loud sounds, history of consumption of ototoxic drugs, history of neurological impairment, ear diseases or any acute or chronic ailments other than blindness.

A total of twenty subjects included in the study were screened for deafness by 'Hearing Test version 1.1.2'. They were explained about the procedure of the test and each of them gave their informed consent. The blind gave their left thumb impression upon reading the informed consent in Braille.

Instrument:

The Audiometer mobile application 'Hearing Test version 1.1.2' (by developer: hearingtest@e-audiologia.pl), calibrated according to the default headphones of the phone was used which gives a result as (i) 'Normal hearing', or Hearing loss in increasing degrees as (ii) 'Mild', (iii) 'Moderate' or (iv) 'Severe' hearing loss and (v) 'Deafness'.

The horizontal arrangement of Generic Passive 5-Volt Speaker modules, compatible with Arduino microcontroller board was placed on a table 150 cm away from the height-adjustable chair where the subjects took their seat. An angle of 2° was maintained between neighbouring speakers such that a total of 21 speakers covered the total angular distance from +20° to -20° with respect to the position of the subject. 'Arduino' is an open-source platform based on easy-to-use hardware and software that provides a programming tool, Arduino IDE (Integrated Development Environment), for writing code and uploading it to the Arduino board and was used in the study. The duration of sound production and the intervals between successive sounds were programmed on the IDE software on the laptop to which the microcontroller was connected.

Method

The study was carried out in an anechoic room, in the Department of Physiology, Bangalore Medical

College and Research Institute. Each subject sat on a height adjustable chair and the row of twenty one 5-Volt speakers was placed such that the subject's ears and speakers were at the same horizontal level. The central speaker was placed in front of subject 150 cms away.

Minimum audible angle task:

Two sounds each of 1.5 kHz frequency and of 75ms duration which were separated by a gap of 500msec duration were produced: The first from central speaker and the second sound from the speakers to the left of central speaker for 5 trials and from the speaker to the right of central speaker for 5 trials. During each trial, the subject had to say whether the two sounds were from same speaker or two different speakers. The angular separation between the 2 sounds was noted in each trial. The data was noted as the minimum angular separation between the 2 speakers.

Spatial bisection task:

The subject was seated as for the minimum audible angle task. The same instrument was used for this test. Three sounds of 75ms duration and 1.5 kHz frequency were presented from the speakers to each subject. The first sound was produced from -20° speaker, the third sound from + 20° speaker and the second sound from any other speaker except the central speaker. The subject had to say whether the second sound was closer to the first or third sound. The number of correct responses was noted. A total of 30 trials were done for each subject and their responses were noted. The angular distance of the second sound from the central speaker was noted from the computer programme.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics were performed and data were expressed as mean and standard deviation. Inferential statistics were done to compare the means between early blind and age and gender matched controls. P-value less than 0.05 was considered to be significant. Graph was plotted using Microsoft excel.

Observations and Results

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for age and gender matching of the subjects

	Early blind n = 10	Sighted controls n = 10	P - value
Age (in years)	22 ± 4	20 ± 1	0.2
Gender (M : F)	7 : 3	7 : 3	0.6242

Table 2: Minimum audible angle expressed as mean and Standard deviation from minimum audible angle task in the early blind and blindfolded sighted controls

	Early blind n = 10	Sighted Controls n = 10	P-Value
Minimum audible angle (°) (left of the central speaker) (Mean ± SD)	3 ± 1	3 ± 1	P = 0.06
Minimum audible angle (°) (right of the central speaker) (Mean ± SD)	3 ± 1	3 ± 2	P = 0.134
Minimum audible angle (°) (mean of both sides) (Mean ± SD)	3 ± 1	3 ± 1	P = 0.672

Table 3: Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) of the number of correct responses out of 30 trials per subject in the spatial bisection task

	Early blind n = 10	Sighted controls n = 10	P - Value
Number of correct responses (Mean ± SD)	25 ± 4	26 ± 2	0.0095*
Percentage of correct responses	82%	87%	

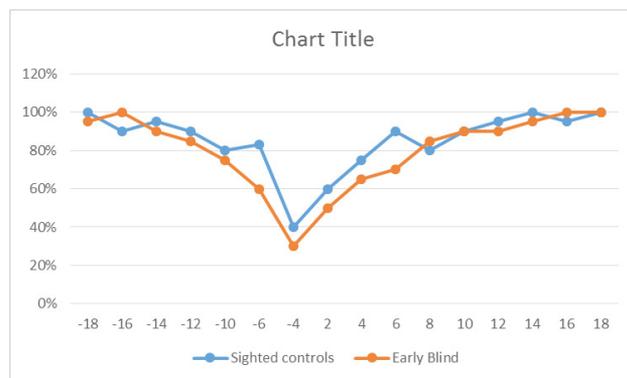
* P<0.01: hence highly significant

Graph 1: Angular position of the 2nd sound in spatial bisection task in X-axis and the percentages of correct answers in the Y-axis

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the subjects in each group expressed as mean and standard deviation. There was no significant difference in means of age in years between the two groups. The two groups were gender matched and male to female ratio was 7:3

Table 2 shows that there was no significant difference between the 2 groups with respect to their performance in the minimum audible angle task. This means that the early blind performed this task as good as the blindfolded sighted controls.

Table 3 shows that the comparison of mean of correct responses during spatial bisection task between two groups was significant. The early blind performed the task significantly poorly compared to the controls.



Graph 1 shows the angular position of the second sound during spatial bisection task in X-axis and the percentages of correct answers in the Y-axis.

Discussion

In this study, table 1 shows that there is no significant difference between the two groups with respect to age and gender. This emphasizes that the two groups were age and gender matched.

Table 2 shows minimum audible angle task performance of both groups. There was no significant difference between the two groups. This means that the early blind were as good as controls. Gori et al had conducted a study on minimum audible angle in congenital blind and found similar results in the minimum audible angle task² This task is based on the egocentric frame of reference. In this task the subject localizes the sound with respect to himself and hence

does not require a metric representation of auditory space which an allocentric paradigm requires.

Table 3 shows the performance of the subjects on spatial bisection task. The P-value of 0.0095 shows that early blind performed significantly worse than the controls. This task is based on allocentric frame of reference. To perform this task successfully, the subject needs to have had intact vision in his childhood. To visualize space, a person needs to have intact vision in childhood when utilizing the retinotopic mapping to calibrate their sound localization skills. In the retinotopic blind, this development would not have taken place as the visually impaired lacked visual calibration of the ability to localize sound in space⁵.

There is sufficient evidence that the visual system plays a major role in calibrating auditory localization. Owls reared with distorting prisms show persistent and systematic biases in auditory localization. A study has shown that visually deprived ferrets show impaired development of auditory spatial map in the superior colliculus. The above cited examples indicate that vision is very important for the formation of auditory spatial maps^{2,7}. Gori et al described that cross sensory calibration is a general property of the sensory system especially during the early years when the sensory apparatus is still developing². They explained that while the sensory systems are still developing and have not yet reached complete maturity, the more accurate and robust sensory system calibrates the other sensory system. In these ten early blind subjects, lack of visual calibration of the developing spatial localization of sound in their childhood resulted in their poor localization abilities.

Strengths and limitations of the study:

The strength of this study was its adequate sample size and thorough age and gender matching of the subjects of the two groups. Another feature in this study was utilization of the Arduino microcontroller board to control the speakers. This removed bias by enabling the sound stimuli to be completely identical for each subject.

In our study, the tasks were performed only in the horizontal plane and not in vertical plane. This was chosen as it is the more commonly used plane during way finding in the blind. For a more thorough understanding of spatial localization of sound, the vertical plane should also be studied. Also, further insight can be gained by examining localization in different directions other than

the front as was done in this study.

Future directions look at studying spatial bisection and minimum audible angle in the vertical plane in early blind and late onset blind and at finding out whether sensory motor feedback training will improve spatial localization of sound in early blind⁵.

Conclusion

The early blind group performed poorer than the normal sighted blindfolded controls in the spatial bisection task. However their performance in minimum audible angle task was as good as the controls. This means that they did well on the egocentric task which does not require a metric representation of auditory space which an allocentric paradigm-based spatial bisection task would require. In the early blind, the absence of vision when the sensory systems were developing results in lack of visual calibration of auditory spatial localization skills. Hence this supports the cross sensory calibration hypothesis.

Conflict of Interest: Nil

Source of Funding: Nil

Ethical approval: Obtained as part of ICMR Short Term Studentship project from the Institutional Ethical Clearance Committee.

Acknowledgement: We acknowledge the Indian Council of Medical Research for selecting Ganesh Prasanna for the ICMR- Short Term Studentship-2017.

We also wish to express our gratitude to all the blind subjects who were recruited for the study. We thank 'Premaanjal Educational Trust', JP Nagar, Bangalore and 'The Karnataka Welfare Association for Blind', Sampangirama Nagar, Bangalore for their sincere cooperation.

References

1. Voss P, Lassonde M, Gougoux F, Fortin M, Guillemot J-P, Lepore F. Early-and late-onset blind individuals show supra-normal auditory abilities in far-space. *Current Biology*. 2004; 14(19):1734–8.
2. Gori M, Sandini G, Martinoli C, Burr DC. Impairment of auditory spatial localization in congenitally blind human subjects. *Brain*. 2014 Jan; 137(Pt 1):288–93.

3. Kosslyn SM. Seeing and imagining in the cerebral hemispheres: a computational approach. *Psychol Rev.* 1987 Apr; 94(2):148–75.
4. Klatzky RL. Allocentric and egocentric spatial representations: Definitions, distinctions, and interconnections. In Springer; 1998. p. 1–17.
5. Voss P. Auditory spatial perception without vision. *Frontiers in Psychology.* 2016; 7.
6. Gori M, Sandini G, Martinoli C, Burr D. Poor haptic orientation discrimination in nonsighted children may reflect disruption of cross-sensory calibration. *Current Biology.* 2010 Feb 9; 20(3):223-5.
7. Witten IB, Knudsen EI. Why seeing is believing: merging auditory and visual worlds. *Neuron.* 2005 Nov 3; 48(3):489-96.

Relation of Anthropometric and Lifestyle Related Factors with Primary Dysmenorrhea

Maroosha Farooq¹, Iram Jaan¹, Varun Malhotra², Yogesh Tripathi³, Shivani Gupta⁴,
Jagmohan Singh Dhakar⁵

¹Senior resident, SKIMS medical college Srinagar; ²Associate Professor, AIIMS, Bhopal, ³Professor, Santosh Medical College, ⁴Student, Santosh Medical College, ⁵ Statistician cum Assistant Professor, Department of Community Medicine, Santosh Medical College

Abstract

Menstrual cycle is a cycle of natural changes that occurs in the uterus and ovaries as an essential part of making sexual reproduction possible. The biological activity of the menstrual cycle is created by coordination among hypothalamic, hypophyseal and ovarian hormones. Many females suffer from dysmenorrhea, painful cramping sensation in the lower abdomen during menstruation. It is one of the most frequently encountered gynaecological disorders, often accompanied by other biologic symptoms, including fatigue, dizziness, sweating, headaches, back ache, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhoea, all occurring just before or during menses

Our aim was to assess the anthropometric measurements during the different phases of menstrual cycle in premenopausal girls and women. The present study was targeted at further unveiling the effect of menstrual cycle on weight changed during its different phases. Body mass index was calculated and the interconnection of the same with the prevalence and the severity of dysmenorrhea was sought. The major findings of the present study are high prevalence of dysmenorrhea (68%) among healthy female volunteers. Among them 36% suffered from severe pain during their menstruation when they had to cut down on their activities and take medications to ameliorate their pain. There is **no** significant relation existed between dysmenorrhea and age at menarche, nature of diet, and BMI. On the other hand, weight changes were of equal significance in women afflicted and not afflicted with dysmenorrhea. Hence they are not related to occurrence of painful periods.

Key words: Menstrual cycle Dysmenorrhea Anthropometry

Introduction

One of the most important attributes of female body that makes it the seat of procreation is menstrual cycle. Menstrual cycle is a cycle of natural changes that occurs in the uterus and ovaries as an essential part of making sexual reproduction possible.^{1,2} The first cycle usually begins between twelve and fifteen years of age, a point in time known as menarche.³ The biological activity of the menstrual cycle is created by coordination among hypothalamic, hypophyseal and ovarian hormones.⁴

Menstrual cycle has been divided into two major phases, one before ovulation known as follicular phase and one after ovulation known as luteal phase. During follicular phase of each menstrual cycle, a cohort of follicles begins to grow in the ovary.⁵ As the dominant follicle grows, there is a concomitant rise in estrogen levels.⁵ In the same phase, increasing levels of estrogen are responsible for the growth of fresh uterine endometrium post menstruation.⁵ As the estrogen levels peak, the resulting LH surge occurs 10-12 hrs before ovulation.⁵ Once ovulation occurs, a cascade of changes transform the remnant follicle into corpus luteum.⁶ Nine to eleven days after ovulation corpus luteum regresses rapidly, a process known as luteolysis.⁵ This is followed by a massive dip in circulating levels of estradiol and progesterone, a phenomenon heralding

Corresponding email:

Varun Malhotra

E-mail: varun.physiology@aiimsbhopal.edu.in

phase of menstruation. Menstruation in many females is associated with painful cramping sensation in the lower abdomen. It is known as dysmenorrhea.

Dysmenorrhea is one of the most frequently encountered gynecologic disorders.⁷ More than 50% of postpubescent menstruating women are affected by dysmenorrhea, with 10% to 12% of them having severe dysmenorrhea with incapacitation for 1 to 3 days each month.^{8,9,10} Dysmenorrhea is most common in women between the ages of 20 and 24 years, with most of the severe episodes occurring before 25 years of age.¹¹ Primary dysmenorrhea is painful menstruation seen only in ovulatory cycles usually developing within 6 to 12 months of menarche with no pathology or organic basis.^{7,12,13} Primary dysmenorrhea usually begins a few hours before or just after the onset of menstruation. The main causes of primary dysmenorrhoea are prostaglandins, leukotrienes and genetic factors. The cramps are most severe on the first or second day of menstruation. Secondary dysmenorrhea is usually due to pelvic pathology and it is not common in adolescent girls. The causes of secondary dysmenorrhea include endometriosis, presence of the intrauterine device, pelvic inflammatory disease and infection, adenomyosis, uterine myomas, polyps and adhesions, congenital malformation of the müllerian system, cervical stricture or stenosis, ovarian cyst, pelvic congestion syndrome, and Allen-Masters syndrome. The appearance of painful menstrual cramps years after the menarche may be a sign of secondary dysmenorrhea, frequently caused by endometriosis. In women with anovulatory cycles, the menstrual pain is likely to be secondary dysmenorrhea.¹⁴

In some studies, it has been demonstrated that women suffering from primary dysmenorrhea had higher BMI.¹⁵ Also U-shaped association between dysmenorrhea and BMI has been shown, revealing a higher risk of dysmenorrhea for both underweight and obese women. Hence maintaining a healthy weight over time may be important for women to have pain-free periods.¹⁶

The present study was targeted at further unveiling the effect of menstrual cycle on weight as it changed during its different phases. Body mass index was calculated and the interconnection of the same with the prevalence and the severity of dysmenorrhea were sought.

Materials and Method

This cross sectional study was carried out on healthy female volunteers in the age group of 15 to 45 years. A total of 50 subjects were included in the study using a predesigned proforma and by measuring physiological parameters of weight, height and BMI during the two major phases of menstrual cycle, follicular and luteal phases. Participants were asked to report their menstruation characteristics based on their experience over the last twelve months. The first day of bleeding was to be considered as the first day of cycle. Duration of bleeding was to be defined by the first day of the appearance of any spots until the complete spotlessness. Physical activity was measured using a semantic scale in which participants were asked to rate their physical activity from 'inactive' to 'very active.' The severity of dysmenorrhea was assessed by a scoring system reported by Anderch and Milsom [1982].¹⁷ The height was measured using a non-elastic measuring tape fastened to a vertical wall in an erect standing position. Weight was recorded twice during the menstrual cycle. Once in follicular phase (on average 9th day of cycle) and once in luteal phase (on average 25th day of cycle). Weight was recorded using standard bathroom weighing scale. BMI [Body Mass Index] was calculated using internationally accepted formula:

$$\text{BMI} = \text{Weight (Kg)} / \text{Height (m)}^2 \text{ i.e., Kg/m}^2^{18}$$

Observations and Results

Out of 50 subjects included in the study, majority [28] were in the age groups 15-20 and 20-25 [13] years, with mean age being 26.18 years. Their mean weight was 60.43 kg and the mean height was 5.32 feet. Their mean BMI was in healthy range 23.04.

The mean age at menarche was 13.08 years. 19 out of 50 subjects had their menarche at the age of 12 and 17 out of 50 at the age of 14.

32 % subjects were without Dysmenorrhea, majority 68% were with Dysmenorrhea of which 12% suffered mild pain, 20% suffered from moderate pain and 36% severe pain..

Mean \pm SD of BMI in subjects with dysmenorrhea was 22.97 \pm 4.18 and in subjects without dysmenorrhea was more at 23.19 \pm 3.91. Subjects who are thinner seem to suffer more but the difference is not statistically significant at $p < 0.858$.

Table 1:- Association between Dysmenorrhea and diet

	Number of subjects	No. of sub. Consuming veg. diet	No. of sub. Consuming mixed diet	P value
Dysmenorrhea	34	15	19	0.193
No Dysmenorrhea	16	4	12	

Table 2:- Interconnection between Dysmenorrhea and Family History

	Number of subjects	Number of subjects with positive family history	Number of subjects with negative Family history	P value
Dysmenorrhea	34	29	05	0.008
No Dysmenorrhea	16	08	08	

Table 3:- Relationship Between age and severity of dysmenorrhea

Age group [years]	Number of subjects	No. of sub. With no pain	No. of sub. With mild pain	No. of sub. With moderate pain	No. of subjects with severe pain
15-20	15	2	0	3	10
20-25	13	2	4	2	5
25-30	6	3	0	3	0
30-35	5	2	2	0	1
35-40	5	3	0	1	1
40-45	6	4	0	1	1

Table 4:- Effect of follicular and luteal phases of menstrual cycle on different physiological parameters

Physiological parameters	Follicular phase	Luteal Phase	t-value	p-value
Weight	59.78±9.36	61.08±9.43	12.876	0.000
BMI	22.79±4.02	23.29±4.09	12.34	0.000

Table 5:- Association of weight gain during follicular and luteal phases with severity of Dysmenorrhea

History of painful periods	Number of subjects	Weight [Follicular Phase]	Weight [Luteal Phase]	T value	P value
No pain	16	60.91±8.76	62.16±8.55	8.257	0.000
Mild pain	6	54.58±3.77	55.58±3.87	7.74	0.001
Moderate pain	10	56.80±6.16	58.10±6.77	4.80	0.001
Severe pain	18	62.17±11.76	63.62±11.79	7.49	0.000

Table 6:- Inter relationship between dysmenorrhea and weight gain

History of painful periods	Number of subjects	Weight [Follicular phase]	Weight [Luteal phase]	t value	P value
No pain	16	60.91±8.76	62.17±8.55	8.25	0.000
Pain	34	59.25±9.70	60.58±9.90	10.06	0.000

Discussion

The current study shows that 68% of healthy subjects (34 out of 50) included in the study suffered from dysmenorrhea. Out of these 50 subjects, 12%, 20% and 36% suffered from mild, moderate, and severe dysmenorrhea respectively (categorized on the basis of Andersch and Milsom scoring scale).¹⁷ Similar findings were reported by McKay and Diem (67%)¹⁹, Sundel et al (67%)²⁰, Harlow and Park (71.6%)²¹ and Ibrahim NK et al (60.9%).²² Two more studies reported prevalence of 72.4% in Sweden¹² and 72% in Nigeria.^{23,24} An Indian study reported relatively lower prevalence of 33.84%.²⁵ A Turkish study also showed a slightly lower prevalence of dysmenorrhea (55.5%).²⁶ Higher prevalence was reported by an Egyptian study.²⁷ The results of this study showed that the prevalence of dysmenorrhea was 76.1% (n = 643); of these, 26.6% described their menstrual pain as mild, 32.0% as moderate and 41.4% as severe.²⁷ The causes of discrepancies may be attributed to the use of different scales for grading pain.²⁸ Pain is an extremely subjective symptom which is very difficult to quantify. Researchers have, therefore, reported different ways to measure pain by various scoring systems. Some studies used VAS whereas others used Andersch & Milsom scale. Further, the variations may be due to differences between the target populations, lifestyle, or due to absence of a

standardized universally accepted method for defining dysmenorrhea.^{29,30} Present study showed an insignificant association between BMI and dysmenorrhea ($p > 0.05$). The results are in coherence with studies conducted in Sweden and New Zealand, that demonstrated severity and prevalence of dysmenorrhea were unaffected by women's weight.^{17,20,31} However, it has been shown in studies in US and Poland that being overweight was an important risk factor for experiencing menstrual pain.^{21,32} The findings could be attributed to possibility of obese women tending to have higher estrogen levels.³³ It has also been shown that people with higher BMI have higher levels of prostaglandin.³⁴ Both high estrogen and high prostaglandins are probable mechanisms of dysmenorrhea. On the other hand, a study done in Taiwan found that nurses with dysmenorrhea had both lower body weight and Body Mass Index.³⁵ The results of the present study showed that the mean weight of subjects increased significantly by 1.3 kg during luteal phase compared to follicular phase of the menstrual cycle ($p < 0.05$). Almost similar results were shown by a study conducted by Oian P et al, reporting a significant, average weight gain of 0.7 kg in the subjects during the luteal phase.³⁶ The same study reported that the plasma and interstitial colloid osmotic pressures were reduced with no significant change in the serum albumin levels during the luteal phase and concluded it could be due to

water retention.³⁷In another study, Robinson and Watson noted daily fluctuations in weight, of 0.59 to 2.07 kg, in women throughout the menstrual cycle with an increase in weight prior to menstruation and a decrease in weight eight days after the onset of menses. A slight increase in weight was also noted two days after ovulation.³⁸ The study by Rosenfeld et al also revealed exaggerated increases in Plasma renin angiotensin (PRA) and plasma aldosterone levels during the late luteal phases of women suffering from PMS. Furthermore, plasma levels of both fluid regulatory hormones positively and significantly correlated with plasma levels of progesterone. Summing it all up, the study pointed towards a relation between fluid retention and increased levels of plasma aldosterone and PRA which in turn seemed to be due to imbalance in levels of estrogen and progesterone during the late luteal phase. Present study also shows that the weight gain that occurred during the luteal phase of the menstrual cycle was statistically significant in both groups ($p < 0.05$), subjects who suffered from dysmenorrhea and those who didn't. As the p values are similar for both the groups, weight gain during the luteal phase has no significance in relation to dysmenorrhea.

Conclusion and Summary

Menstrual cycle is a cycle of natural changes that occurs in the uterus and ovaries as an essential part of making sexual reproduction possible. The biological activity of the menstrual cycle is created by coordination among hypothalamic, hypophyseal and ovarian hormones. Many females suffer from dysmenorrhea, painful cramping sensation in the lower abdomen during menstruation³⁹. It is one of the most frequently encountered gynaecological disorders, often accompanied by other biologic symptoms, including fatigue, dizziness, sweating, headaches, back ache, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhoea, all occurring just before or during menses. The major findings of the present study are high prevalence of dysmenorrhea (68%) among healthy female volunteers. Among them 36% suffered from severe pain during their menstruation when they had to cut down on their activities and take medications to ameliorate their pain. There is no significant relation existed between dysmenorrhea and age at menarche, nature of diet, and BMI. On the other hand, weight changes were of equal significance in women afflicted and not afflicted with dysmenorrhea. Hence they are not related to occurrence of painful periods.

Ethical Clearance- Taken from Institute Ethical committee, Santosh Medical College

Source of Funding- Self

Conflict of Interest - Nil

References

1. Silverthorn, Dee Unglaub. Human Physiology: An integrated approach. 6th ed. Glenview, IL: Pearson Education, Inc.;2013.pp.850-890.
2. Sherwood, Laurelee. Human Physiology: From Cells to Systems. 8th ed. Belmont, CA: Cengage;2013.p.735-794.
3. Jones and Barlett. Women's gynaecologic health. 2011. P.94.
4. Cooke WH, Ludwig DA, Hogg PS, Eckburg DL, Convertino VA. Does the menstrual cycle influence the sensitivity of the vagally mediated baroreflexes. Clin Sci. 2002;102:639-644.
5. Cunningham, Leveno, Bloom, Hauth, Rouse, Spong. Williams Obstetrics.23rd ed. US.McGraw-Hill. P 38-43
6. Browning HC.The evolutionary history of the corpus luteum. Biol Reprod.1973; 8:128.
7. Dawood MY. Primary Dysmenorrhea: Advances in pathogenesis and management. Am J Obstet and Gynaecol. 2006;108:428-44.
8. Dawood MY. Dysmenorrhea. J Reprod Med. 1985;30:154.
9. Dawood MY. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and changing attitude towards dysmenorrhea. Am J Med. 1998;84(suppl SA):23.
10. Dawood MY. Dysmenorrhea and ibuprofen. Am J Med. 1984;77:87.
11. Dawood MY. Dysmenorrhea and prostaglandins. In Gold JJ, Josimovich JB (eds): Gynaecologic Endocrinology, p 405, 4th ed. New York. Plenum Press.1987.
12. Stenchever MA. Primary and secondary dysmenorrhea and premenstrual syndrome. In: Stenchever MA, Droegenmueller W, Herbst AI, Mishell DR, editors. Comprehensive gynaecology. St. Louis: Mosby;2001.p. 1065-1078.
13. Keith L, Guys S. Dysmenorrhea. The Obstetrician and Gynaecologist. 2001;13:13-18.

14. AB Dawood MY. Hormones, prostaglandins, and dysmenorrhea. In: Dawood MY ,[ed]. Dysmenorrhea. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins; 1981.
15. Kiran S, Divya S, Archana, Rajesh M, Mamta T. Cardiac autonomic activity in young females with primary dysmenorrhea. *India J PhysiolPharmacol.* 2013;57(3):246-254.
16. Ju H, Jones M, Mistra GD. A U-shaped relationship between BMI and dysmenorrhea: A longitudinal study. *PLoS One.* 2015;10(7)
17. Andersch B, Milson I. An epidemiologic study of young women with dysmenorrhea. *Am J obstet Gynaecol.*1982; 144(6):655-60.
18. Garrow JS, Webster J. Quetelet's index (W/H^2) as a measure of fatness. *Int J Obes.*1985;9(2):147-153
19. Mc Kay L, Diem E. Health concerns of adolescent girls. *J Paediatr Nurs.*1995;10(1):19-27
20. Sundell G, Milson I, Andersch B. Factors affecting the prevalence of dysmenorrhea in young women. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol.*1990;97:588-94.
21. Harlow SD, Park M. A longitudinal study of risk factors for the occurrence, duration and severity of menstrual cramps in a cohort of college women. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol.*1996;103(11):1134-42.
22. Ibrahim NK, AlGhamdi MS, Al-Shaibani AN, et al. Dysmenorrhea among female students in King Abdul Aziz University: Prevalence, Predictors and Outcome. *Pak J Med Sci.*2015;31(6):1312-7.
23. Thomas KD, Okonofna FE, Chiboks O. A study of menstrual patterns of adolescents in Ile-Ife, Nigeria. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet.*1990;33:31-33.
24. Odujinrin OM, Ekinwe EO. Epidemiological survey of menstrual patterns among adolescents in Nigeria. *West Afr J Med.*1991;10:244-249.
25. Nag RM. Adolescent in India. *Calcutta Medical Allied Agency.*1982.p.18-26.
26. Ozerdogan N, Sayiner D, Ayranci U, Unsal A, Giray S. Prevalence and predictors of dysmenorrhea among students at a university in Turkey. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet.*2009;107(1):39-43.
27. Eman M. Mohammad. Epidemeology of dysmenorrhea among adolescent students in Assuit City, Egypt. *Life Science Journal.*2012;9(1):348-353.
28. Tawallae M, Joffres MR, Corber SJ, Bayanzadeh M, Rad M. The prevalence of menstrual pain and associated risk factors among Iranian women. *J ObstetGynaecol Res.*2011;37:442-51
29. Hilen TI, Grbavac SL, Johnson PJ, Straton JA, et al. *J Adolesc Health.*1999;25(1):40-45.
30. Chia CF, Lai JH, Cheung PK, et al. Dysmenorrhea among Hong Kong university students: Prevalence, impact, and management. *Hong kong Med J.*2013;19(3):222-8.
31. Pullon S, Reinkin J, Sparrow M. Prevalence of dysmenorrhea in Wellington women. *NZ Med.*1988;101:52-54.
32. Teul I, Klisk, Jarzebak K, Wronka I. Prevalence and correlates of menstrual pain in healthy university students. *Ann Acad Med Stetin.*2014;60(2):89-94.
33. Olson BM, Kaizar EE, Kelsey SF, Bittner V, Reis SE, Smith K, et al. Obesity distribution and reproductive hormone levels in women: a report from the NHLBI- sponsored WISE study. *J womens's Health.*2006;15(7):836-42.
34. Martinez ME, Heddens D, Eamest DL, et al. Physical activity, Body Mass Index and prostaglandin E2 levels in rectal mucosa. *J Natl Cancer Inst.*1999;91:950-3
35. Chung FF, Yao CC, Wan GH. The association between menstrual function and life style and working conditions among nurses in Taiwan. *J of Occupational Health.*2005;47:149-156.
36. Oian P, Tollan A, Fadness HO, Noddeland H, Maltan JM. Trans capillary fluid dynamics during the menstrual cycle. *Am J Obstet Gynaecol.*1987;156(4):952-5.
37. Tollan A, Oian P, Fadness HO, Maltan JM. Evidence from altered transcapillary fluid balance in women with premenstrual syndrome. *Acta ObstetGynaecol Scand.*1993;72(4):238-42.
38. Watson PE, Robinson MF. Variations in body weight of young women during menstrual cycle. *Br J Nutr.*1965;19:237-248.
39. Rinku Garg, Varun Malhotra, Usha Dhar, Yogesh Tripathi. A Study of Sympathetic Function Tests During Different Phases of Menstrual Cycle in Normal Healthy Females. *JEMDS ;* 2014; 3(24):6590-6600.

The Relationship between Performance of Students in Internal Assessment and Final Summative Assessment in the Subject of Physiology in a North Indian Medical College

Nida Nowreen¹, Farhana Ahad²

¹Demonstrator, ²Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, SKIMS Medical College, Bemina, Srinagar, J&K, India

Abstract

Background. Assessments, if suitably conducted, can serve several goals and provide many advantages to all stakeholders - the medical students, the teaching faculty, the universities and the society as a whole. Assessment in medical education is mostly of two forms either formative or summative. Although it is generally assumed that the performance of a student in formative assessment will act as a predictor for performance in the summative examination not many studies are available support it.

Objectives. To explore whether performance in the continuous internal assessment, correlates with the final summative assessment in first year medical students in the subject of Physiology for the last three years.

Materials and Method. This study was conducted over a period of six months at SKIMS medical college, Srinagar. It was a observational record-based study on 280 students who took a thorough internal assessment and final examination in the subject of physiology in the batches 2014-15, 2015-16 and 2016-17.

Results. The internal assessment marks showed a positive correlation with marks obtained in final assessment or final university exams in all three batches, which is statistically highly significant ($p < 0.01$). It was also observed that the percentage of final university marks was higher as compared to internal assessment marks in all batches.

Conclusion. The present study revealed a positive correlation between internal assessment and final university marks supporting the general assumption that the performance of a student in formative assessment will act as a predictor for performance in the final summative examination.

Keywords: Assessments, Medical students, Internal assessment, Summative assessment, Physiology.

Introduction

A precisely framed system of assessment and evaluation is a powerful educational tool.^[1] Assessments, if suitably conducted, can serve several goals and provide many advantages to all stakeholders - the medical students, the teaching faculty, the universities and the society as a whole.^[2] Student learning is steered

by assessment and these assessments are essential to the student's experience.^[3] It is universally believed that the role of assessment is not merely to assess a student on predesigned criteria but also to facilitate learning through a continuous process of feedback, at the same time providing him/her with the opportunity to improve.^[4] The evaluation of the competence of undergraduate medical students is a very crucial task, as in future, these 'to be physicians' have to cater with human lives.^[5]

Corresponding author:

Nida Nowreen

Demonstrator, Department of Physiology, SKIMS Medical College, Bemina, Srinagar, J&K, India.

E-mail: nowreen.n3@gmail.com

Assessment in medical education is mostly of two forms either formative or summative. The formative or internal assessment has multiple benefits. Its continuous nature throughout the training period has the potential

to drive the students' learning in the right direction over the time. There is a chance to provide well timed remedial feedback that can be used both by the instructor to improve teaching and by the students to improve learning. Internal assessment can evaluate a wide range of capabilities, such as, skill in performing routine clinical procedures, professionalism, ethics, communication, and interpersonal skills, which can be hardly assessed in the summative examinations. On the other hand summative assessment is a test which is usually given at the end of a course to summarize the students' learning and effectiveness of the instructional program. [6-8]

Assessment of competency of medical students without subjective and methodological biasness is a troublesome task faced by many medical institutions of India. [9] As per MCI regulations, internal assessment should be based on continuous day-to-day assessment. The draft of the 2012 revised Regulations on Graduate Medical Education (GME) that was released by the Medical Council of India (MCI) makes it compulsory for the undergraduate students to have passed in their internal assessment to be eligible for appearing in the final university examinations. It means student have to secure at least 35% marks of the total marks fixed for internal assessment in a particular subject in order to be eligible for appearing in the final university examination. Weight age for the internal assessment is 20% of the total marks in each subject. The mean percentage in each subject in university examination is 50%. [10]

Although it is generally assumed that the performance of a student in formative assessment will act as a predictor for performance in the final summative examination not many studies are available support it. The objective of this study is to explore whether performance in the continuous internal assessment, correlates with the final summative assessment in first year medical students in the subject of Physiology for the last three years.

Materials and Method

This observational record based study was conducted in the department of physiology, SKIMS medical college, Srinagar from July 2017 to December 2017. The study included the marks of 280 students who took a thorough internal assessment and appeared in final university exam in the subject of physiology in the batches 2014-15, 2015-16 and 2016-17. The subject

physiology has a total of 200 marks. According to MCI guidelines 160 marks are awarded in external assessment and 40 marks are for internal assessment.

First the internal assessment marks of students were collected from the score sheets that are maintained by the department. Similarly, the total marks in this subject were also collected from the record section. Then internal assessment marks were subtracted from the total marks to obtain the marks scored by a student in the final university examination alone. Confidentiality and anonymity were maintained.

In our institution we follow a comprehensive system of formative or internal assessment, which takes into consideration the following:

1. Class tests after completion of each topic which includes essay type questions, short answer questions (SAQ) and multiple choice questions (MCQ).
2. Practical tests after completion of each practical portion (hematology, human, clinical and amphibian) which focus on the actual performance of the practical.
3. One terminal and one pre-university exams based on the pattern of university exams having a theory, a practical and a grand viva component.
4. Seminar preparations and presentations
5. Regular quizzes and vivas
6. Punctuality in submission of assignments and journals.

All teachers of the subject are involved in assessment process. No teacher contributes to more than 20% of the marks. This reduces the examiners bias and also prevents any favoritism or misuse of power. No single component of internal assessment contributes to more than 25 % of marks. Results of each component are shown to students. Regular feedback is provided to help them improve their performance. Counseling is given to poor performers and remedial measures are suggested.

Statistical analysis was performed using statistical software SPSS version 20. Standard tests for descriptive statistics were applied, which commonly included the use of correlation. Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated to determine whether performance in internal assessment correlated with the performance in the final summative examination. P-value of less than 0.05 was

considered to be statistically significant.

Results

Marks of 280 students (89 students in batch 2014-15, 95 students in batch 2015-16 and 96 students in batch 2016-17) were taken into consideration for the study. The batch wise marks distribution of the students is given in table 1. Table 1. Batch wise distribution of marks.

Batch	No. of students	Mean marks obtained in internal assessment (%)	Mean marks obtained in final university exams (%)
2014-15	84	17.58(44.48)	92.12(58.47)
2015-16	95	17.92(44.56)	93.23(59.23)
2016-17	96	18.36(45.62)	90.47(57.43)

A comparison of percentages of marks obtained by students in internal assessment and final university exam (total marks – internal assessment marks) shows that the mean percentage in finals is higher for all three batches.

The internal assessment marks show a positive correlation with marks obtained in final assessment or final university exams in all three batches, which is statistically highly significant ($p < 0.001$).

Table 2. Correlation between internal assessment and final assessment.

Batches	Form of assessment	Marks obtained (%)	R	P value
2014-15	Internal assessment	17.58(44.48)	0.501**	<0.001
	Final assessment	92.12(58.47)		
2015-16	Internal assessment	17.92(44.56)	0.555**	<0.001
	Final assessment	93.23(59.23)		
2016-17	Internal assessment	18.36(45.62)	0.602**	<0.001
	Final assessment	90.47(57.43)		

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Discussion

In our study we observed that there is a positive significant relationship between performance of students in internal assessment and final assessment indicating that better marks in internal assessment are related to better marks in final university exams. Which means that the performance of a student in the internal assessment can be presumed to be a predictor of his/her performance in final university examination.

Very few studies have been performed on this subject in north India. Our study is in accordance with a study conducted in a north Indian medical college which found a positive linear relationship between internal

assessment and university marks in one selected subject each from all the four professionals.^[11] Another study conducted in a medical college in Kolkata observed a partial direct correlation in their study which means the association between internal assessment and final examination performance is not completely linear, thereby indicating presence of other possible variables that may influence the final result.^[12]

The comparison of internal assessment and final university marks shows that the university marks are higher than internal assessment, in all the batches. This is in contrast with previous reports that internal assessment marks tend to be inflated.^[13,14] Our well designed step by step assessment system that provides timely feedback

to students could have contributed to better performance in finals.

An important limitation of this study is that the other possible variables like socio demographic characteristics and preferred learning styles which can have an impact of performance were not taken into consideration.

Conclusion

The present study revealed a positive correlation between performance of students in internal assessment and final university exams supporting the general assumption that the performance of a student in formative assessment will act as a predictor for performance in the final summative examination.

Ethical Clearance- Not Required

Source of Funding- Self

Conflict of Interest- Nil

References

- Pai M, Sanji N, Pai P, Kotian S. Comparative assessment in pharmacology multiple choice questions. *J Clin Diagn Res* 2010;4:43–50.
- Amin Z, Seng C Y, Eng K H. *Practical Guide to Medical Student Assessment, Section 1, Assessment in Medical Education: An Overview, Chapter 1*. Singapore: World Scientific Publishing Co. Pte Ltd; 2006. pp. 3–7.
- Rust C. The impact of assessment on student learning: How can the research literature practically help to inform the development of departmental assessment strategies and learner-centered assessment practices? *Active Learning in Higher Education* 2002;3(2):145-58
- Archer J. State of the science in health professional education: effective feedback. *Med Educ* 2010; 44: 101-08.
- Ebstein RM. Assessment in medical education. *N Engl J Med* 2007;356:387–96.
- Singh T, Anshu, Nath J. The quarter model: A proposed approach for in-training assessment of undergraduate students in Indian medical schools. *Indian Pediatr* 2012;49:871–6.
- Singh T, Natu MV. Examination reforms at the grassroots: Teacher as the change agent. *Indian Pediatr* 1997;34:1015-9.
- Gogri MH, Shaikh SA, Iyengae VV. Evaluation of student performance based on formative assessment using data mining. *Int J. Comp Appl.* 2007;67(2):8-22.
- Badyal DK, Desai C, Tripathi SK, Dhaneria SP, Chandy SJ and Bezbaruah BK. Postgraduate pharmacology curriculum in medical institutions in India: Time for need-based appraisal and modifications. *Indian Journal of Pharmacology* 2014; 46(6):584-589.
- Medical Council of India. Regulations on graduate medical education, 1997 (amended up to July 2017). Available at www.mciindia.org/documents/rulesAndRegulations/GME_REGULATIONS.pdf (accessed on 24 march 2018).
- Badyal DK, Singh S, Singh T. Construct validity and predictive utility of internal assessment in undergraduate medical education. *medical education*. *Natl Med J India* 2017 ; 30 (3) : 151-54
- Santra R, Pramanik S, Mandal A, Sengupta P, Das N, and Raychaudhuri P. A Study on the Performance of Medical Students in Internal Assessment and its Correlates to Final Examinations of 2nd MBBS Pharmacology Curriculum in a Medical College of Eastern India. *J Clin Diagn Res.* 2014 Dec; 8(12): HC01–HC02.
- Gitanjali B. Academic dishonesty in Indian medical colleges. *J Postgrad Med* 2004;50:281–84.
- Mukaka MM. Statistics corner: A guide to appropriate use of correlation coefficient in medical research. *Malawi Med J* 2012;24:69–71.

Comparison of Electrolyte Changes in Term Neonates before and after Phototherapy

Usha Rani M

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, Government Theni Medical, College, Theni

Abstract

Background: Jaundice or hyperbilirubinemia is one of the most common problems occurring in the neonatal period. Phototherapy plays a major role in its treatment. However, this treatment modality may itself result in complications which even contribute to the development of convulsions. Hence in this study changes in serum electrolytes are evaluated in term neonates receiving phototherapy for unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia. **Aim and objective:** To estimate and compare the serum electrolytes levels in term neonates with unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia before and after phototherapy. **Method:** After getting Ethical Committee approval informed, written consent, medical history were obtained from the neonate's mother, general examination, systemic examination was carried out for 30 full-term jaundiced neonates receiving phototherapy. Laboratory tests including total serum bilirubin by Diazo method, serum calcium level by Arsenazo III method and serum electrolytes by Ion selective electrodes analyser were performed before and after 48 hours of phototherapy. Blood samples taken from the newborn babies before the commencement of phototherapy was regarded as control group. Blood samples taken 48 hours following establishment of phototherapy was regarded as study group. **Results:** Statistical analysis was done using Paired t test. There was a significant decrease in serum bilirubin after 48 hours of phototherapy. This was accompanied by a significant decrease in serum calcium levels with a p value of 0.014 in eighteen neonates (60%). None of the neonates were clinically symptomatic. There was no alteration in the values of serum bicarbonate, chloride, sodium and potassium. **Conclusion:** This study shows a decrease in serum calcium levels in term infants exposed to phototherapy. Hence serum calcium, sodium, potassium, chloride, bicarbonate along with routine measurement of serum bilirubin should be monitored regularly for neonates receiving phototherapy to prevent the development of complications.

Keywords: Jaundice, phototherapy, serum bilirubin, serum calcium, serum electrolytes, term neonates, unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia,.

Introduction

Neonatal hyperbilirubinemia has been the most common physical finding during the first week of life. It affects nearly 80% preterm and 60% term neonates. Hyperbilirubinemia in neonate is due to liver's immature excretory pathway for bilirubin.

Jaundice looks as if to proceed in a course starting from head and ending in foot, as bilirubin levels rises. When the level increases to 15 mg/dL (258 μ mol/L) it

becomes apparent upto the level of umbilicus and when the level increases to 20 mg/dL (340 μ mol/L) it becomes apparent upto the feet. In the first week of living slightly additional than 50% of all neonates become apparently jaundiced.

Based on its reason and the degree of increase hyperbilirubinemia may be safe or dangerous. No matter what may be the bilirubin level few reasons of jaundice are very hazardous. Once the level is elevated enough hyperbilirubinemia of any cause is a concern. Depending on age level of prematurity and health position the threshold for concern changes.

Unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia is a normal physiological occurrence in most of the infants. High

Corresponding author:

Usha Rani. M,

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology,
Government Theni Medical College, Theni.

values of unconjugated bilirubin could proceed towards bilirubin encephalopathy and later kernicterus through overwhelming permanent neurological development problems⁸. Hence managing neonatal hyperbilirubinemia appropriately is of utmost importance.

Neonatal hyperbilirubinemia can be managed in three means which includes:

a. Mechanical removal of bilirubin by exchange transfusion b. Conversion of bilirubin into substances which can bypass the liver's system of conjugation and their excretion either through the bile or through the urine devoid of metabolism by phototherapy³ c. Hastening the usual metabolic pathways for clearance of bilirubin or inhibition of enterohepatic circulation for bilirubin by meddling with heme degradation and synthesis of bilirubin through the action of pharmacologic substances. Subsequent to publications of **Dr. Cremer's** in the *Lancet* during **1958** paediatricians in the United Kingdom started to employ phototherapy³.

Phototherapy plays a major role in prevention and management of hyperbilirubinemia. Phototherapy was suggested by the American Academy of Paediatrics¹. A practical consideration which deals through the treatment in the healthy newborn, born at term with hyperbilirubinemia was formed during 1994 October by **the Subcommittee on Hyperbilirubinemia and Provisional Committee for Quality Improvement of the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP)**.

During month of July in **2004**, **the American Academy of Paediatrics** published protocols which would decrease beginning of avoidable circumstances². Ultimate value of phototherapy relies on the kind of light source used (i.e. dosage, spectral release curve, deepness of infiltration), the space amidst the light and the infant, the surface area to be treated, the etiology of the jaundice and also value of total serum bilirubin at phototherapy's onset.

Phototherapy transforms bilirubin into water soluble isomers which can be excreted without conjugation in the liver. The goals of phototherapy are to prevent the already elevated total serum bilirubin level from rising, to prevent the occurrence of encephalopathy or kernicterus and to prevent the total serum bilirubin from rising to a level that requires exchange transfusion. The foremost exhibited phototherapy's value has been diminishing the need for exchange transfusion. When

the total serum bilirubin reduces less than the level at which phototherapy was started phototherapy can be safely terminated in infants who were treated⁹.

As any treatment has its side effects, phototherapy also has its adverse effects like hyperthermia, feeding intolerance, loose stools, skin rashes, bronze baby syndrome, retinal changes, dehydration, hypocalcemia, redistribution of blood flow and genotoxicity.

Numerous investigations have been carried out to establish the safety of phototherapy in the management of neonatal hyperbilirubinemia. Hypocalcemia is one of the known adverse effects. Hypocalcemia is defined as total serum calcium level less than 8mg/dl in term and less than 7mg/dl in preterm babies.

90% of preterm and 75% of fullterm neonates develop hypocalcemia after being subjected to phototherapy. Hypocalcemia can cause serious complication like irritability, jitteriness, convulsion and apnea. Therefore this study is aimed to evaluate and compare phototherapy induced changes in serum electrolyte levels in term neonates with unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia.

Aim

To estimate and compare the serum electrolytes in term neonates before and after phototherapy.

Material and Methodology

Prospective study was conducted in the Department of Paediatrics, Government Theni Medical College Hospital, in association with the Physiology Department, Government Theni Medical College, Theni. Approval was obtained from the ethical committee of Government Theni Medical College, Theni. This study was performed on 30 full-term jaundiced neonates (15 males and 15 females) receiving phototherapy. A detailed antenatal, perinatal history and examination of the neonates was done.

Control group :

It consists of blood samples of the neonates in which serum bilirubin and calcium, potassium, chloride, bicarbonate, sodium were measured before the onset of phototherapy.

Study group :

It consists of blood samples of the neonates in which serum bilirubin and calcium, potassium, chloride, bicarbonate, sodium were measured after 48 hrs of phototherapy.

- **Inclusion criteria :**

1. Cephalohematoma
2. External bruising
3. Breast feeding jaundice
4. Breast milk jaundice
5. Physiological jaundice

- **Exclusion criteria :**

1. Neonatal asphyxia.
2. Preterm infants.
3. Infants of diabetic mothers.
4. Infants undergoing exchange transfusion.
5. Hemolytic anaemia / Rh /ABO incompatibility

6. Conjugated hyperbilirubinemia.

7. Sepsis.

8. Congenital malformations.

9. Respiratory distress.

Blood investigations:

The investigations include indirect bilirubin measured by Diazo method, Serum calcium measured by Arsenazo III method, serum electrolytes measured by Ion selective electrodes analyser .

Results and Observation

The serum electrolyte changes in term neonates receiving phototherapy for jaundice was analysed before and after phototherapy using **Paired t test**. By means of **SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) software version 16**, analysis of statistics was performed.

The **statistical significance** was drawn at '**p**' value < **0.05**.

Table – I : Analytical statistics of total serum bilirubin and serum calcium before and after Phototherapy

S No	Parameters	Before phototherapy (Mean ± Standard deviation)	After phototherapy (Mean ± Standard deviation)	p value
1.	Serum bilirubin (mg/dl)	14.04 ± 0.71	8.13 ± 0.40	0.001 Significant
2.	Serum calcium (mg/dl)	9.51 ± 0.29	8.38 ± 0.31	0.014 Significant

In the table above we compare the total serum bilirubin before and after phototherapy. It was found that the mean ± SD of total serum bilirubin before phototherapy was 14.04 ± 0.71 mg / dl and after phototherapy was 8.13 ± 0.40 mg / dl. The total serum bilirubin decreased significantly after phototherapy with a p value of 0.001.

The mean±SD of serum calcium before phototherapy was 9.51 ± 0.29 mg / dl and after phototherapy it was 8.38 ± 0.31 mg / dl. Levels of serum calcium decreased significantly after phototherapy when compared to values before phototherapy with p value 0.014.

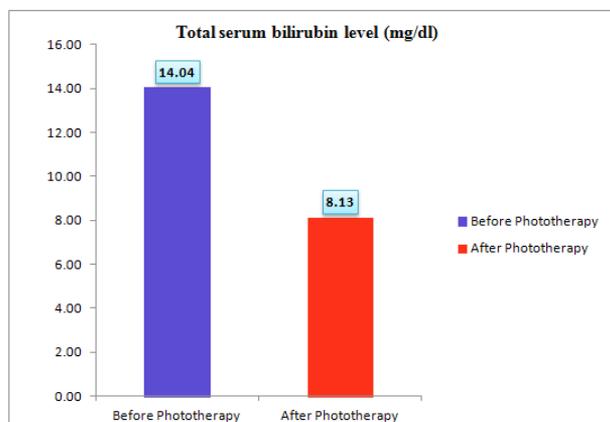


Figure-1 : The diagram above shows the decrease in total serum bilirubin after phototherapy

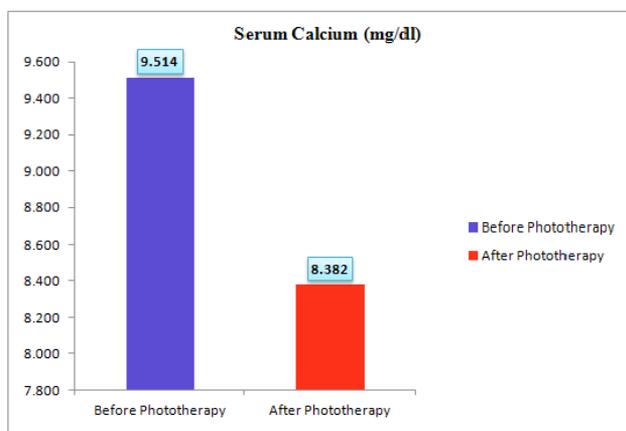


Figure – 2 : The diagram above shows the decrease in serum calcium after phototherapy

Discussion

The general atypical physical finding in the initial week of life is neonatal hyperbilirubinemia . Phototherapy has emerged as the most widely used form of treatment. In order to diminish the rigorosity of neonatal unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia this is the recent therapy of preference.

As any treatment has, phototherapy also has its side effects. Unlike other side effects a very few studies are currently available that depicts the adverse effects of phototherapy on serum electrolytes. A few studies in the recent past have stressed on the incidence of hypocalcemia following phototherapy. The differential effect of other electrolytes with phototherapy has not been studied by other workers except that for **Curtis MD et al (1989)**.

The plan of this study was intended to establish the serum electrolyte changes in neonates receiving

phototherapy for neonatal jaundice. In this present study we have estimated the serum electrolytes in 30 jaundiced term neonates before and after phototherapy. We compared the occurrence of phototherapy induced electrolyte changes in them. We excluded neonates having risk factors from this study.

Romagnoli et al in 1979 noticed the relationship in preterm newborns of phototherapy and hypocalcemia¹⁰. Likewise **Bergstrom and Hakanson** in 1981 experimented in newborn rat the same findings. **Odell and Gutcher** in 1983 suggested considerable reduction in levels of serum calcium in rats which were newborn subsequent to keeping them in fluorescent daylight.

Eghbalian et al (2008) in his study found that serum calcium levels declined considerably after neonates with hyperbilirubinemia treated with phototherapy. **Sethi et al** in 1990 proposed that after phototherapy 75% of term neonates begin to build up hypocalcaemia. In the same way **Medhat** in 2006 belonging to Cairo University suggested development of hypocalcaemia in 75% of term neonates after phototherapy.

Sourabh dutta (2001) in his study concluded that 75% of fullterm neonates with unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia developed hypocalcemia after phototherapy. A significant drop in level of calcium was observed after phototherapy among 66.6% of the term neonates which was noted by **Yadav RK and Rajesh KY** in 2011.

Taheri PA et al (2013) in his study found decrease in serum calcium level in 56% babies after 48 hours of phototherapy. **Arora S et al** (2014) in her study found hypocalcemia in 56% of term neonates after 48 hours of phototherapy.

In our study 60% of term neonates developed decrease in serum calcium levels 48 hours after phototherapy. Findings in the present study are in concurrence with the studies mentioned above.

In 1998 **Jain et al** in his study suggested among fullterm neonates with hyperbilirubinemia 30% developed hypocalcemia after 48 hours of phototherapy⁶. **Karamifar et al** (2002) in his study found that prevalence of hypocalcemia was 8.7% in fullterm neonates after 48 hours of phototherapy for hyperbilirubinemia

This study was conducted on 30 term neonates with jaundice managed with phototherapy. Serum bilirubin, potassium, chloride, bicarbonate, sodium and calcium were measured and compared before and after phototherapy. After 48 hours of phototherapy there was a **significant decrease** in serum calcium levels with **p value 0.014** in eighteen neonates (60%). None of the neonates were clinically symptomatic. There was no alteration in the values of serum bicarbonate, sodium, chloride and potassium .

Normal level of serum calcium is 9-11 mg per 100 ml. Calcium is an essential structural component of the skeleton and plays a key role in muscle contraction, blood coagulation, enzyme activity, neural excitability, secondary messengers, hormone release and membrane permeability.

In Hypocalcaemia cellular permeability to sodium ions increases and thereby increasing cell membrane excitability leading to the development of seizures, apnea, jitteriness, increased extensor tone, clonus, hyperreflexia and stridor .

Conclusion

The mechanism of hypocalcaemic effect of phototherapy was hypothesised by **Hunter and Hakinson in 2004** . There is inhibition of pineal gland secretion via transcranial illumination, resulting in decline of melatonin secretion. This blocks the effect of cortisol on bone calcium. Cortisol has a direct hypocalcaemic effect and increases bone uptake of calcium and induces hypocalcaemia⁵.

Kim (2001) in his study suggested that hypocalcaemia was caused due to a reduction in parathormone secretion in jaundiced neonates who were treated with phototherapy⁷.

In **Hooman's** study (2005) the significantly higher level of urinary calcium excretion was proposed to be the cause of hypocalcaemia in phototherapy treated jaundiced neonates⁴ .

Substantial reduction in the level serum calcium was seen in newborns with icterus which was induced by phototherapy were the observations of current study. There was no signs and symptoms suggestive of hypocalcaemia which may present like convulsions, cyanosis and apnea due to diminished calcium in the

neonates who received phototherapy.

Proper monitoring of electrolytes after phototherapy in the neonates can prevent dyselectrolytemia and its associated complications. In the newborns who were treated with phototherapy level of calcium need to be measured and should be treated accordingly. Significant decrease in calcium level was well evident in our study. Although the signs were not remarkable this decline may continue down to the threshold of hypocalcaemia development.

Hence we suggest assessment of serum calcium, sodium, potassium, chloride, bicarbonate along with routine measurement of serum bilirubin in neonates before and after phototherapy. Thus by regular monitoring and maintaining normal serum electrolyte levels we can avoid the development of neurological complications in icteric neonates receiving phototherapy.

Ethical Clearance- Taken from ethical committee of Government Theni Medical College, Theni.

Source of Funding- Self

Conflict of Interest - Nil

References

1. American Academy of Pediatrics. Practice Parameter management of hyperbilirubinemia in healthy term and preterm newborn. *Pediatric*, 1994; 94: 554 - 556.
2. American academy of Pediatrics Subcommittee on Hyperbilirubinemia. Management of hyperbilirubinemia in the newborn infant 35 or more weeks of gestation . *Pediatrics* 2004; 114:297316.
3. Cremer RJ , Perryman PW, Richards DH . Influence of light on the hyperbilirubinemia of infants . *Lancet* 1958; 1 (7030): 1094 – 1097.
4. Hooman N, Honarpisheh A. The effect of phototherapy on urinary calcium excretion in newborns. *Pediatric Nephrology* 2005;20(9):1363-1364.
5. Hunter KM : Hypocalcaemia. In : *Manual of Neonatal Care*. JP Cloherty, EC Eichenwald, AR Stark (Eds) ; 7th Edn; Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Philadelphia, 2004 ; 579-588.
6. Jain BK, Harmesh Singh, Daljit Singh, NS Toor:

- Phototherapy induced hypocalcemia. *Indian pediatrics* 1998; 35(6):566-567.
7. Kim SH, Park JH. Effect of phototherapy on bone metabolism in newborn. *Journal of Korean Soceity for Neonatology* 2001;8(2): 206-210.
 8. Maisels J: Jaundice, in: Avery G, *Neonatology*, 4th edition, Philadelphia, Lippincott Company, 1994: 705-706.
 9. Meharban Singh: Jaundice.In: Meharban Singh *Care of the newborn*. 6th edition, 2004; 253-254.
 10. Romagnoli C, Polidori G, Cataldi L, Tortorlo SG, Segni G : Phototherapy induced hypocalcemia. *The Journal of Pediatrics*, 1979 ; 94 (5) : 813-816.

A Comparative Study of Pain Thresholds between Diabetic Neuropathy Patients & Non Diabetic Subjects

Prakash S B¹, Shankarappa V², Prabha V³

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology, Koppal Institute of Medical Sciences, Koppal, Karnataka, India,

²Associate professor, Department of Physiology, Sambram Institute of Medical Sciences, Kolar Gold Fields, Karnataka, India, ³Associate professor, Department of Physiology, Chamarajanagar Institute of Medical Sciences, Chamarajanagar, Karnataka, India

Abstract

Background & Objective: Disturbance of sensory function can be a major feature of neurological illness. Objective measurement of the nature and degree of sensory disturbance is needed to understand and characterize the disorder. Among the many sensory modalities pain is the one which attracts the patient to the physician. Pain is a complex sensory experience. Decrease in pain thresholds, increase in magnitude of sensation is useful for the clinician and researcher. Diabetes Mellitus leads to several recognizable clinic-pathological neuropathic syndromes. Diabetic peripheral neuropathy (DPN) likely affects up to one third of adults with diabetes. The current study is designed to evaluate pain thresholds in DPN patients & to compare with non-diabetic healthy subjects.

Materials & Method: Thirty diabetic neuropathy patients & thirty non diabetic subjects in the age group of 35- 60 years were included for the study. Informed consent & IEC was obtained. The pain a threshold was measured by digital algometer. Subjects were instructed to indicate when the pressure sensation begins to hurt, and they first feel pain, which was noted as the pain threshold.

Results: The pain thresholds were significantly higher in DPN (11.74 ± 4.12) kg/cm² than in non diabetics (3.02 ± 0.31) kg/cm² ($p < 0.05$).

Conclusion: Pain threshold is a useful parameter for assessing response to the treatment, but not useful in diagnosis or even as a screening method in diabetic neuropathy patients.

Keywords: Pain threshold, Algometer, Diabetes Mellitus.

Introduction

Pain is a complex sensory experience. Disturbance of sensory function is a major feature of neurological illness. Objective measurement of the nature and degree of sensory disturbance is needed to understand and characterize the disorder. Quantification of sensory function can be used to detect disruption of sensory

pathways and modify the course and treatment at all levels of the nervous system. Among the many sensory modalities pain is the one which attracts the patient to the physician. Decrease in pain thresholds, increase in magnitude of sensation is useful for the clinician and researcher in evaluation of neurological diseases.

Instrument used to quantify pain sensation is Algometer, used by Head and Holmes to measure pressure pain¹. Green and Swets described three methods for threshold detection². These methods are now recognized as valuable in testing sensory function and examining the integrity of the small nerve fibers which are not examined by nerve conduction studies. Thus, the recent decade has provided a flurry of reports

Corresponding Author:

Dr. Shankarappa V

Associate professor, Department of Physiology,
Sambram Institute of Medical Sciences,
Kolar Gold Fields, Karnataka, India.
Email: shankarappa.v1@gmail.com

on the clinical use of quantitative sensory testing (QST) in diagnosis, follow-up and evaluation of therapy for many clinical entities. The main clinical applications seem to be the neuropathies and pain-centered disorders.

For clinical purposes, threshold is the function that can most easily and conveniently be measured in non-painful modalities. The rate of diabetes has substantially increased over the past five decades. The most common complication of diabetes is diabetic peripheral neuropathy (DPN). Diabetes Mellitus leads to several recognizable clinic-pathological neuropathic syndromes. DPN likely affects up to one third of adults with diabetes. Hence the current study is designed to measure pain thresholds in DPN patients & to compare with non-diabetic healthy subjects.

Materials & Method

The study was conducted in a sample of forty healthy male subjects and forty healthy female subjects in the age group of 35- 60 years included for the study. Informed consent was taken from all the participants who volunteered for the study. The study was approved by Institutional Ethical Committee.

Inclusion criteria [control Group]:

1. Forty healthy subjects of both sex between 35-60 years.

Exclusion criteria [control Group]:

1. History of consumption of alcohol/smoking.
2. History of depressive disorders in the past.
3. History of sleep disorders
4. History of neurological disorders
5. Hypertension
6. Diabetes mellitus
7. History of consumption of drugs acting on CNS
8. Inclusion criteria [Study Group]:
9. Forty DPN patients of both sex between 35- 60 years.

Exclusion criteria [Study Group]:

1. History of consumption of alcohol/smoking.

2. History of depressive disorders in the past.
3. History of sleep disorders
4. Hypertension
5. History of consumption of drugs acting on CNS

Experimental design: The subjects were selected by a detailed history & thorough physical examination.

Pain threshold was measured by digital algometer.

Pain thresholds were measured by delivering gradually increasing pressure stimuli. The pressure at which subject perceives it as pain stimuli will be noted by the change in expression & instructed the subject to raise the hand when he perceives pain. Pain thresholds were measured at different areas. Mean of such six were points was considered as Pain threshold.

Statistical Analysis

The results were expressed as mean ± standard deviation (SD). A p value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Statistical analysis was performed using the statistical package for social & sciences. Students unpaired ‘t’ test was applied to compare between the parameters.

Results

Pain thresholds were estimated in thirty healthy non diabetics in the age group of 35- 60 (36.85 ± 4.99) years and thirty DPN patients in the age group of 35- 60 (37.29 ± 4.76) years. Pain thresholds in DPN patients (11.74 ± 4.12) kg/cm² were significantly higher at 95% confidence interval than non-diabetics (3.02 ± 0.31) kg/cm², p < 0.001. The results are shown in the table 1.

Table:1 Comparison of pain thresholds between diabetic neuropathy and non diabetics

	Non-Diabetics	Diabetics	p
Pain Threshold Kg/cm ² (Mean ± SD)	3.02 ± 0.31	11.74 ± 4.12	< 0.001

Discussion

Pressure algometers are advantageous for quantifying the pressure pain thresholds. Algometer is used for the evaluation of pain, the determination of therapeutic effects, and follow-up surveys of treatment in many neurological & musculoskeletal diseases. Pressure pain thresholds measured by pressure algometry may produce different results depending on many factors as sex, investigator, and apparatus.

Diabetes Mellitus is a major cause of peripheral neuropathy. Sensory symptoms like sensory loss & numbness predominate usually. However some patients also suffer painful or “positive” symptoms, which can be extremely distressing and difficult to treat^{3,4}. Microangiopathy is the leading cause of diabetic neuropathy associated with metabolic, vascular ischemic and immunologic injury. In many types of peripheral neuropathy large diameter nerve fibres are predominantly affected. However, in diabetic neuropathy small diameter fibres are particularly liable to be involved⁵. Autonomic denervation is common in diabetics with neuropathic foot lesions⁶⁻⁸ and Guy et al⁹ have found that temperature appreciation (subserved by A δ and C fibres) is more frequently abnormal than vibration perception threshold (large A β fibre function) in diabetic neuropathy. Involvement of large nerve fibres was shown by abnormalities in electrophysiological tests.

Reduced appreciation of noxious stimuli was observed in diabetic neuropathy patients; however hyperglycemic patients the pain thresholds were reduced⁹. Hyperglycemic states contribute to a decrease in pain threshold in the alloxan diabetic rats. In contrast, increase in pain threshold was observed in diabetic rats with normalization of blood glucose level¹⁰. We conclude from this study that measurement of pressure pain thresholds in diabetic neuropathy patients may give qualitative information about disturbances in pain pathways. However, it is of limited value as a quantitative measure of small nerve fibre dysfunction.

Conclusion

1. There is increase in pain thresholds in DPN patients compared to healthy controls.
2. Pain thresholds determined by Digital Algometer is simpler, less time consuming,

economical, easier to apply and non-invasive method.

3. Pain threshold is a useful parameter for assessing response to the treatment.
4. Can be used for defining the onset of diabetic neuropathy.
5. But not useful in diagnosis or even as a screening method.
6. Quantification of sensory function can be used to detect disruption of sensory pathways at all levels of the nervous system.

Source of Support: Nil

Conflict of Interest: None declared.

References

1. Head, H. and Holmes, G. M. Sensory disturbances from cerebral lesions. *Brain* 1911;34:192–254.
2. Green, D. M. and Swets, J. A. (1966) *Signal Detection Theory and Psychophysics*, John Wiley, New York. 2016; 6(1): 4 37-486.
3. Watkins PJ Pain and diabetic neuropathy. *BMJ*. 1984;228: 168-169.
4. Tesfaye S, Watt J, Benbow SJ, Pang KA, Miles J Mac-Farlane IA. Electrical spmsl stimulation for painful diabetic peripheral neuropathy. *Lancet* 1996; 348: 1696-1701.
5. Said G, Slama G, Selva J. Progressive centripetal degeneration of axons in small fibre diabetic polyneuropathy. A clinical and pathological study. *Brain* 1983;106: 791-807.
6. Ward JD. The diabetic leg. *Diabetologia* 1982;22:141-7.
7. Watkins PJ, Edmonds ME. Sympathetic nerve failure in diabetes. *Diabetologia* 1983;25:73-7.
8. Guy RJC, Clark CA, Malcolm PN, Watkins PJ. Evaluation of thermal and vibration sensation in diabetic neuropathy. *Diabetologia* 1985;28: 131-7.
9. Lee JH, Cox DJ, Mook DG, McCarty RC. Effect of hyperglycemia on pain threshold in alloxan-diabetic rats. *Pain* 1990;40(1):105-7.
10. Ibrionke GF, Saba OJ, Olopade FO. Glycemic control and pain threshold in alloxan diabetic rats. *African Journal of Biomedical Research* 2004; 7:149 – 151.

Assessment of Pulmonary Function in Type II Diabetes Patients

Iram Jaan¹, Mir Maroosha Farooq¹, Varun Malhotra²

¹Senior resident, SKIMS medical college Srinagar, ²Associate Professor, AIIMS, Bhopal

Abstract

Various metabolic and clinical disorders are associated with diabetes mellitus, the most prominent being vascular disease. There may be a relationship between diabetes and reduced lung function, so this study was designed to evaluate the impairment of lung function on spirometry among diabetic patients. The study included 50 type II diabetic patients and 50 healthy persons, confirmed by normal blood glucose levels, as control group. There was a significant reduction in spirometric pulmonary function tests (FEV1 and FVC) of a restrictive pattern in type 2 diabetic patients compared to control subjects. Since the diabetes affects the pulmonary vasculature and the connective tissue, therefore it can cause reduction in the pulmonary function tests. So, it is recommended that simple tests like spirometry may be performed in patients of type II diabetes as early as possible or be used as a preventive measure.

Keywords: Diabetes mellitus Pulmonary function FEV1 FVC

Introduction

Various metabolic and clinical disorders are associated with diabetes mellitus, the most prominent being vascular disease. It is generally agreed that hyperglycemic patients have a higher incidence of pulmonary infections may lead to develop tuberculosis, emphysema, asthma, fibrosis and mucormycosis during course of disease ¹⁻⁶. All these respiratory disorders cause altered pulmonary function tests ⁷. Among others peripheral airflow obstruction increase significantly with age in diabetics as compared to healthy subjects which is obvious against environmental challenges e.g. smoking or minor airway infection. Deterioration of the pulmonary function is proportional to the degree of hyperglycemia ^{8,9}. Its complications give rise to micro and macrovascular diseases which affect eyes, kidneys, heart, blood vessels, nerves and also lungs. There may be a relationship between diabetes and reduced lung function, so this study was designed to evaluate the impairment of lung function on spirometry among diabetic patients.

Material and Method

The present study was a case control hospital based study conducted in the Department of Physiology in collaboration with the Department of Internal Medicine and Department of TB and Chest in Santosh Medical College and Hospital, Ghaziabad. The study included 50 type II diabetic patients and 50 healthy persons, confirmed by normal blood glucose levels, as control group. Control group were matched to the patients by age, BMI and WC. The patients were collected randomly from the outpatient department of internal medicine, Santosh Medical College and Hospital. Pulmonary function test was conducted in collaboration with the department of TB and Chest in Santosh Medical College and Hospital.

Selection of subjects

Diabetic patients on oral medication and/or insulin administration for last 5 years of age group of 40- 60 yrs were included in the study. An informed consent was taken. Patients who had a history of smoking, chewing tobacco, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, Asthma, Interstitial lung disease, Acute respiratory tract infection, occupational diseases like pneumoconiosis, neuromuscular diseases, chest surgeries or other major surgeries were excluded from the study.

Corresponding

Varun Malhotra

email: varun.physiology@aiimsbhopal.edu.in

Method

A detailed medical history was taken from patients. The patients for participation in the study were divided into two Groups:

Group 1: Type II diabetic patients on oral and/or insulin administration (50 subjects)

Group 2: apparently healthy subjects, matched for age, BMI and waist circumference (50 subjects)

General physical examination was performed on all the subjects.

Pulmonary function tests of these patients were performed with the help of SPIROSCOUT LF 8 (Ganshorn medizin electronic). The subjects were made comfortable in sitting position for at least 5 minutes for a steady state. The following protocol was used for measurement of the spirometric indices¹⁰. The patient was explained the purpose of the test and demonstrated the correct technique before inviting the patient to use a spirometer. The patient's sex, age and height, was recorded as this is needed to compare FVC and FEV1 with the predicted normal values. A clean, disposable, one-way mouthpiece is attached to the spirometer. The patient is asked to wear a nose clip. He is asked to breathe in as deeply as possible (full inspiration) then to blow the breath out, forcibly, as hard and as fast as possible, until there is nothing left to expel. The procedure is repeated three times and the best reading is chosen.

All tests were carried out at a fixed time of the day (10.00- 14.00 hours) to minimise diurnal variation. After all the tests were performed, the necessary flow and volume data was plotted as parameter table.

For FVC Test: The subjects were asked to exhale through mouthpiece with full force after forceful inspiration. Results are usually given in both raw data (litres per second) and percent predicted- the test result as a percent of the 'predicted values' for the patients of similar characteristics (height, age, sex and weight). Generally speaking, results nearest to 100% predicted are the most normal and results over 80% are often considered normal. After the completion of the maneuver, four most important parameters i.e. FVC, FEV1, FEV3 and PEFr were recorded.

Biochemical Parameters

Estimation of blood glucose levels was done by

Glucometer (Optium Xceed, Abbot, Alameda, USA) Statistical analysis was performed using Computer Software Microsoft Excel and SPSS version 21(IBM Inc.). Chi squared test was used to compare nominal data and student t test was used for the comparison of other types of data. A p value of < 0.05 was taken as significant.

Observations and Results

Comparison of percentage of the predicted FVC and FEV1 between diabetic patients and control group Table1,2,3. According to percentage of the predicted value of the spirometry, out of 50 patients in the diabetic group, 36 patients (71.5%) had percentage of the predicted FVC of < 80%, and 27 patients (54%) had percentage of the predicted FEV1 of < 80%. Out of 50 subjects in the control group, 9 subjects (18%) had percentage of the predicted FVC of < 80%, and 5 subjects (10%) had percentage of the predicted FEV1 of < 80%. On the other hand, all members of diabetic and control groups had FEV1% more than 70%. There was a significant reduction in the percentage of the predicted FVC and FEV1 in diabetic patients compared to the control group. According to the definition of restrictive and obstructive spirometric values, 27 patients (54%) of the diabetic group, and 5 subjects (10%) of the control group had a restrictive spirometric pattern. However, none of the participants had an obstructive spirometric pattern.

Table 1: The percentage of the predicted Spirometric indices in diabetics & control group

Spirometric indices		Diabetic group (n=50)	Control group (n=50)
FVC (% predict)	≥80%	14(28%)	41(82%)
	<80%	36(72%)	9(18%)
FEV 1 (% predict)	≥80%	23(46%)	45(90%)
	<80%	27(54%)	5(10%)
FEV 1 %	>70%	50(100%)	50(100%)
	≤70%	---	---

*p<0.0001

*p<0.0001

*p<0.0001

Discussion

Diabetes is a slowly progressive disease that deteriorates the normal functioning of lung as can also be observed from the findings. There is growing evidence regarding the deleterious effect of DM on pulmonary function as reflected by spirometric measurement. The current study, which involved 50 type 2 diabetic patients, reveals a significant reduction of spirometric indices (FVC and FEV1), with FEV1 ratio (normal or high) suggestive of restrictive pattern, compared to a matched normal subjects. The results are in agreement with results of Davis *et al.*¹¹ who reported that the Forced Vital Capacity (FVC), Forced Expiratory Volume in 1 sec (FEV1), and Vital Capacity (VC) were reduced in diabetic patients compared to control group. Walter *et al.*¹² conducted a cross sectional study to assess the association between glycemic state and lung function, and reported that the FVC and FEV1 were significantly reduced in patients with diabetes, with FEV1% suggestive of restrictive ventilatory disorder. Rosenecker *et al.*¹³ demonstrated that in patients with diabetes, FVC and FEV1 declined significantly over the five year study period, whereas patients without diabetes did not show a significant decline during this period. Meo *et al.*¹⁴ reported that lung function parameters; Forced Vital Capacity (FVC) and Forced Expiratory Volume in 1 sec (FEV1), and Peak Expiratory Flow (PEF) in type 1 and type 2 diabetic patients were impaired, as compared to their matched controls. Bram *et al.*¹⁵ meta-analysis shows that diabetes, in the absence of overt pulmonary disease, is associated with a modest, albeit statistically significant, impaired pulmonary function in a restrictive pattern. The results were irrespective of BMI, smoking, diabetes duration, and HbA1c levels. In sub analyses, the association seemed to be more pronounced in type 2 diabetes than in type 1 diabetes. There are different hypotheses that explain the reduced spirometric measurements in diabetic patients. Preliminary reports of histopathologic changes in the lungs of diabetic patients, reveal basal lamina thickening and fibrosis¹⁶. Other possible contributory factors include glycation of chest wall/bronchial tree proteins¹⁷, autonomic and/or phrenic neuropathy causing alterations in bronchial reactivity and respiratory muscle function¹⁸, and an increased propensity to, and severity of, respiratory infections¹⁹. In both human and animal studies, diabetic lungs have demonstrated diabetic microangiopathy of the alveolar septal capillaries, with a thickened epithelial and capillary basement membrane, and increased

extracellular matrix and connective tissue²⁰. The strength and stability of the connective tissue is provided by the cross-link formation of both collagen and elastin components and the stocking mesh arrangement of these fibers²¹. In diabetic patients, chronic hyperglycemia can bring about a rise in collagen molecule synthesis and cross-linking via the acceleration of advanced glycation end-products, which can also negatively influence lung function²². Arnalich *et al.*²³ observed a reduction in serum markers of inflammation with the treatment of diabetes, which suggests that diabetes may itself be a cause of systemic inflammation. In addition, expression of the transmembrane receptor for advanced glycation end-points is seen in the lung, preferentially localized to the basal face of type I pneumocytes²⁴. Defects in the bronchiolar surfactant layer, which is involved in maintaining airway stability and diameter, may be also considered a contributing factor to the impairment of calibre regulation in type 2 diabetes. When the alveolocapillary barrier is damaged, surfactant proteins leak into the bloodstream. A recent population-based random sample has described how increased circulating levels of surfactant protein A, the major surfactant-associated protein, were associated with altered glucose tolerance and insulin resistance. Therefore, surfactant defects in diabetic individuals may also lead to an increase in airway resistance and to a reduction in FEV1 and FEV1/ FVC ratio²⁵. The proinflammatory effects of advanced glycation end-products (AGEs), which result from interaction between intracellular proteins and decomposing saccharides and polysaccharides, can alter matrix proteins, affect the expression of cytokines, alter expression of inflammatory mediators by endothelial cells and induce apoptosis²⁶. Limited joint mobility that occurs as a consequence of changes in structural proteins of the joints of the chest and elastin, collagen abnormalities of the pulmonary capillaries and smooth muscles of airways may be the reason for reduced total lung capacity and the disordered lung mechanisms²⁷. A reduction of inspiratory capacity is due to reduced capacity of the muscles.^{28, 29, 30} However, a concomitant reduction in MVV among diabetics was seen only in subjects with severe obesity (Weight/ Height greater than 1.1 kg/cm)^{31, 32, 33}

Conclusions

There was a significant reduction in spirometric pulmonary function tests (FEV1 and FVC) of a restrictive pattern in type 2 diabetic patients compared to control

subjects. Since the diabetes affects the pulmonary vasculature and the connective tissue, therefore it can cause reduction in the pulmonary function tests. So, it is recommended that simple tests like spirometry may be performed in patients of type II diabetes as early as possible or be used as a preventive measure.

Ethical Clearance- Taken from Institutional Ethical committee, Santosh Medical College

Source of Funding- Self

Conflict of Interest - nil

References

1. Abramowitz S, Leiner GL, Small MJ. Chronic respiratory diseases and diabetes. *Rev Allergy* 1961; 23: 972
2. Holden Hm, Hiltz JE. The tuberculous diabetic. *Can Med Assoc J* 1962; 87: 797
3. Textbook of Pulmonary Disease. 3rd Edition. Edited by Gerald L. Baum, Emanuel Wolinsky 1983:1167-68
4. Textbook of Pulmonary Disease. 4th Edition. Edited by Gerald L. Baum, Emanuel Wolinsky 1994:1149-50.
5. Goto Y, Sato S and Masuda. Causes of death in 2151 diabetic autopsy cases. *Tohoku J Exp Med* 1974; 112: 339-353
6. Tunbridge WMG. Factors contributing to deaths of diabetics, less than fifty year to age. *Lancet* 1972; 11:569-572.
7. Cooper BG, Taylor R, Albeit KGM and Gibson GH. Lung functions in-patients with diabetes mellitus. *Rspir Med* 1990; 84:235-239
8. Ramirez LC, Nogare DA, Hsia C, Araur C, Butt I, Strowig MS, Breen SL. Relationship between diabetes control and pulmonary function in insulin dependent control and pulmonary function in insulin dependent diabetes mellitus. *Am J Med* 1991;91:371
9. Lange P, Groth S, Kastrup J, Appleyard M, Nyboe J, Jensen G, Schnohr P. Diabetes mellitus, plasma glucose and lung function in a cross-sectional population study. *Eur Respir J* 1989;2: 14-19.
10. Bullo M, Garcia- Lorda P, Salas Salvado J. Plasma soluble tumor necrosis factor alpha receptors and leptin levels in normal weight and obese women: effect of adiposity and diabetes. *Eur J Endocrinol.* 2002; 146: 325-331.
11. Davis TME, Knuiman M, Kendall P, VuH, Davis WA. Reduced pulmonary function and its associations in type 2 diabetes: the Fremantle Diabetes Study. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2000; 50: 153-159.
12. Walter RE, Beiser A, Givelber RJ, O' Connor GT, Gottlieb DJ. Association between glycemic state and lung function: the Framingham heart study. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2003; 167: 911-916.
13. Rosenecker J, Hoffer R, Steinkamp G, Eichler I, Smaczny C, et al. Diabetes mellitus in patients with cystic fibrosis: the impact of diabetes mellitus on pulmonary function and clinical outcome. *Eur J Med Res.* 2001; 27 6(8):345-350.
14. Meo SA, Al Drees AM, Arif M. Lung function in Type 2 Saudi Diabetic patients. *Saudi Med. J.* 2006; 27(3):338-343.
15. Bram Van DEN b, Harry R, Maurice P, Annemie. Pulmonary Function in Diabetes, meta analysis study. *Chest.* 2010, 138; 393-406.
16. Popov D, Simionescu M. Alterations of lung structure in experimental diabetes, and diabetes associated with hyper lipidaemia in hamsters. *Eur Resp. J.* 1997; 10: 1850-8.
17. Brownlee M. Biochemistry and molecular cell biology of diabetic complications. *Nature.* 2001; 414: 813-20.
18. Mazade MA, Edwards MS. Impairment of type III group B Streptococcus- stimulated superoxide production and opsonophagocytosis by neutrophils in diabetes. *Mol Genet Metab.* 2001; 73: 259-67.
19. Oldenborg PA, Sehlin J. Hyperglycemia in vitro attenuates insulin- stimulated chemokinesis in normal human neutrophils. Role of protein kinase C activation. *J Leukoc Biol.* 1999; 65: 635-40.
20. Sandler M, Bunn AE, Stewart RI. Cross section study of pulmonary function in patients with insulin dependant diabetes mellitus. *Am rev Respir Dis.* 1987;135(1): 223-229.
21. Goldman MD. Lung dysfunction in Diabetes. *Diabetes care.* 2003;26:1915-1918.
22. Goldman M. Clinical application of forced

- oscillation. *Pulm Pharmacol Ther.* 2001; 14: 341-350.
23. Arnalich F, Hernanz A, Lopez- Maderuelo D, Pena JM, Camacho J, et al. Enhanced acute phase response and oxidative stress in older adults with type 2 diabetes. *Horm Metab Res.* 2000; 32: 407-412.
 24. Fehrenbach H, Kasper M, Tschernig T, Shearman MS, Schuh D, et al. Receptor for advanced glycation endproducts (RAGE) exhibits highly differential cellular and subcellular localisation in rat and human lung. *Cell Mol Biol* 1998; 44: 1147-1157.
 25. Fernandez Real JM, Chico B, Shiratori M, Nara Y, Takahashi H, Ricart W. Circulating surfactant protein A (SP-A), a marker of lung injury, is associated with insulin resistance. *Diabetes care.* 2008; 31: 958-963.
 26. Brownlee M. Biochemistry and molecular cell biology of diabetic complications. *Nature.* 2001; 414: 813-20.
 27. Schuyler MR, Niewoehner RI, Inkley SR, Kohn R. Abnormal lung elasticity in juvenile diabetes mellitus *Am Rev Respir* 1991;143-197.
 28. Wanke T, Formanek D, Auinger M, Popp W, Zwick H, Irsigler K. Inspiratory muscle performance and pulmonary function changes in IDDM . *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1991; 143-197.
 29. Cooke BG, Taylor R, Alberti KGMM, Gibson GJ. Lung function in patients with Diabetes Mellitus. *Resp Med* 1990;84:235-239.
 30. Primhak RA, Whincup G, Tsanakas JN, Milner RDG: Reduced vital capacity in insulin dependent Diabetes Mellitus. *Diabetes* 1987;36:324-326.
 31. Kollias J, Boileau RA, Ballett HI, Buskirk ER. Pulmonary function and physical conditioning in lean and obese subjects. *Arch Environ Health* 1972; 25:146-150.
 32. Ray CS, Sue DM, Bray G, Hansen JE, Wasserman K. Effects of obesity on respiratory function. *Am Rev Respir* 1983;128:501-508.
 33. Malhotra V, Singh S, Singh K P, Gupta P, Sharma S B, Madhu S V, Tandon O P. Study of Yoga Asanas in assessment of pulmonary function in NIDDM patients. *Indian J PhysiolPharmacol* 46(3) : 313-320, 2002

Assessment of Heart Rate Variability in Patients with Fibroid Uterus

Dhanalakshmi Y¹, Pal. G. K², Sirisha.A³, Jothi Marie Feula.A⁴, Saranya K⁵, Bhavya R.L⁴, Prethissha S⁶

¹Associate Professor, ²Senior Professor, ³PhD Scholar, ⁴Senior Resident, ⁵Assistant Professor, Dept of Physiology, ⁶MSc. Medical Physiology, Post Graduate, Dept of Physiology, Jipmer, Puducherry

Abstract

Background & Aims: Uterine leiomyoma's represent 29.4% and 41.4% of the hysterectomies in women aged

18–44 and 45–64, respectively. They are characterized by an increase in smooth muscle cell proliferation and excessive deposition of extracellular matrix proteins, collagens type I and III. The reactive oxygen species (ROS) has been shown to be involved in the signaling pathways of several growth factors that stimulate proliferation of a variety of cell types. The underlying inflammation leads to the genesis of benign tumors and cardiac autonomic dysfunction. The cumulative effect of oxidative stress, inflammation and ageing make these patients more vulnerable for cardiovascular autonomic imbalance. Therefore, the study was conducted to assess the heart rate variability as a non-invasive tool for assessing cardiac autonomic function in these patients.

Method: Thirty four female patients in the age group of 25 -50 yrs with newly diagnosed uterine fibroid were recruited from the department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology of JIPMER. Thirty four female healthy volunteers aged between 25-50 years were recruited as controls. The parameters measured were Basal Heart rate (BHR), Systolic blood pressure (SBP), Diastolic blood pressure (DBP) and Heart rate variability parameters (time and frequency domain indices).

Results: SBP and diastolic BP were elevated in fibroid patients compared to controls. SBP was statistically significant (P value <0.001). Time domain indices were significantly reduced (SDNN: P < 0.001, RMSSD: P < 0.001, PNN50: 0.001) in fibroid patients. Among frequency indices, Total power was significantly reduced (P < 0.001), LFnu was significantly high (P < 0.001), HFnu was significantly decreased (P < 0.001) and LF-HF ratio was significantly increased (P < 0.001) in fibroid patients.

Conclusion: We conclude that fibroid patients have altered autonomic tone in the form of increased sympathetic tone and decreased parasympathetic tone.

Keywords: Fibroid, heart rate variability, autonomic imbalance.

Background

Uterine leiomyomas represent 29.4% and 41.4% of the hysterectomies in women aged 18–44 and 45–

64, respectively ⁽¹⁾. Uterine leiomyomas, or fibroids, are characterized by an increase in smooth muscle cell proliferation and excessive deposition of extracellular matrix proteins, primarily collagens type I and III ^(2, 3,4). Oxidative stress is considered to be involved in pathogenesis of many disorders of the female genital tract ⁽⁵⁾. The reactive oxygen species (ROS) producing NADPH oxidase complex has been shown to be involved in the signaling pathways of several growth

Corresponding author:

Dr. Y.Dhanalakshmi

Associate Professor, Dept of Physiology, Jipmer, Puducherry.

factors, cytokines, and vasoactive agents that stimulate proliferation of a variety of cell types ⁽⁶⁾. Oxidative stress marker level in the serum and tissue samples of fibroid uterus have been documented in earlier studies ⁽⁷⁾. This was further evidenced from reports on decrease in size of the leiomyoma following supplementation of antioxidants (Epigallocatechin gallate), which resulted in decrease in the levels of malondialdehyde MDA and TNF- α ⁽⁸⁾. The cumulative effect of oxidative stress, inflammation and ageing make these patients more vulnerable for cardiovascular autonomic imbalance. However, till date no study has been conducted to assess the autonomic dysfunction in uterine fibroids. Therefore, in this study we propose to assess the cardiovascular autonomic functions in fibroid uterus patients and age and BMI matched subjects and their correlation with the level of oxidative stress and inflammatory markers. Therefore, the study was conducted to assess the heart rate variability as a non-invasive tool for assessing the cardiac autonomic function in these patients.

Objectives of the Study:

- To assess the Heart rate Variability in Fibroid uterus patients
- To compare the heart rate variability parameters between fibroid uterus patients and healthy controls.

Materials & Method

Inclusion criteria

After obtaining permission from the institute ethics committee, thirty four female patients in the age group of 25 -50 yrs with newly diagnosed uterine fibroid were recruited from the department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology of JIPMER.

Thirty four healthy female volunteers aged between 25 and 50 years were recruited as controls.

Exclusion criteria:

- Patient with other gynaecological problems
- Patients with Hypothyroidism, Hypertension, Diabetes mellitus, Menstrual irregularities, hormonal therapy

Statistical analysis

The sample size was calculated using Open Epi version 2 Software. Assuming 30% prevalence of fibroid uterus in women beyond 30 years of age, with 95% CI and 10% allowable error (Absolute precision) the sample size calculated was 34 in each group

Recording of HRV

- Subjects were asked to lie down in supine position. After 15 minutes of supine rest baseline heart rate and blood pressure were recorded using oscillator (Omron MX3). Lead IIECG electrodes were connected from the subject to polygraph .After 10minutes. From Lead II ECG, RR intervals were extracted and analysed using Kubios Software. Time domain parameters were derived from normal R-R interval. Frequency domain HRV indices were obtained by Power Spectral Density (PSD) analysis using Fast Fourier transformation.

Results

SBP was significantly high (table-1), statistically significant and diastolic high though statistically not significant in fibroid patients compared to controls. Time domain indices (Table -3) were significantly reduced (SDNN: $P < 0.001$, RMSSD: $P < 0.001$, PNN50: 0.001) in fibroid patients when compared to controls. Among frequency indices (Table -2), Total power was significantly reduced ($P < 0.001$), LFnu was significantly high ($P < 0.001$), HFnu was significantly decreased ($P < 0.001$) and LF-HF ratio was significantly increased ($P < 0.001$) in fibroid patients.

BASAL PARAMETERS

(Table-1) Comparison of baseline parameters between study and the control group.

Parameter	Fibroid Uterus (N=34)	Controls (N=34)	p Value
Age	38.411 ± 6.035	28.688 ± 7.350	0.0001
BMI	23.278 ± 4.064	24.326 ± 4.457	0.314
SBP	112 ± 12.027	103.469 ± 11.648	0.004*
DBP	70.176 ± 8.547	66.500 ± 8.710	0.08
HR	82.088 ± 12.263	73.313 ± 10.870	0.0027
PP	41.823 ± 7.229	36.969 ± 9.114	0.017
MAP	84.117 ± 9.236	78.823 ± 8.795	0.0182
RPP	92.327 ± 19.087	76.411 ± 17.020	0.0006

Analysed by unpaired 't' test. *P values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant

HRV- FREQUENCY DOMAIN PARAMETERS

(Table-2) Comparison of HRV frequency domain parameters between study and control group

Parameter	Fibroid Uterus (N=34)	Controls (N=34)	p Value
VLF	117.281 ± 82.553	70.40 ± 80.259	0.0001
LF	236.188 ± 119.071	94.697 ± 117.475	0.0001
HF	108.276 ± 174.903	325.875 ± 174.242	0.0001
TP	273.382 ± 335.565	679.344 ± 321.190	0.0001
LF nu	54.597 ± 17.837	44.900 ± 10.607	0.008
HF nu	45.402 ± 17.837	55.100 ± 10.607	0.008
LF:HF	1.639 ± 1.386	0.758 ± 0.343	0.005

Analysed by unpaired 't' test. *P values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant

HRV- TIME DOMAIN PARAMETERS**(Table-3) Comparison of HRV time domain parameters between study and control group**

Parameter	Fibroid Uterus (N=34)	Controls (N=34)	p Value
Mean RR	0.730 ± 0.158	0.818 ± 0.122	0.0154
SDNN (ms)	30.441 ± 18.986	46.188 ± 23.870	0.001
RMSSD	24.279 ± 16.593	49.181 ± 20.606	0.001
NN50	20.617 ± 40.482	79.313 ± 40.350	0.0001
p NN50	5.147 ± 10.385	39.022 ± 17.031	0.0001

Analysed by unpaired 't' test. *P values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant

Discussion

The regulation of heart rate relies on the balance between sympathetic and parasympathetic branches of the autonomic nervous system⁽¹⁰⁾. Though there are numerous methods to assess the autonomic modulation of the cardiovascular system, HRV has been one of the most reliable non-invasive method to evaluate heart rate regulation.

Oxidative stress has been implicated in cardiovascular autonomic imbalance. A relation also exists between an impaired immune system, especially the process of inflammation and the pathogenesis of these tumors⁽⁷⁾. Also in normal women, alterations of mitochondrial bioenergetics in the heart, consequence from normal aging process, result in decreased fatty acid oxidation and accumulation of fatty acid intermediates in the cardiac myocyte cytosol, resulting in lipotoxicity and increases the cardiovascular risk⁽⁶⁾.

The pathophysiology of uterine leiomyomas is similar to that of other fibrotic conditions such as atherosclerosis, vascular restenosis, and liver, pancreatic, and renal interstitial fibrosis, in which an injury triggers the quiescent cells to dedifferentiate into a myofibroblast-cell like, more proliferative phenotype^(7, 8). Inadequate sympathetic preponderance and stimulation in individuals with uterine fibroids

independent of sex steroids was observed in study conducted by Yun AJ et al (2005)⁽⁹⁾. Our study corroborates with the findings of Yun AJ et al. Increased exposure of the uterine environment to seminal fluid that contains catecholamines, aldosterone, prostaglandins and earlier age of pregnancy enables helper Th(2) cell activation and decreased fibroid growth. Also exposure of the uterine environment to intra uterine devices enabled Th(1) helper mediated immune response to foreign body may also be attributed to the genesis of fibroid in the study subjects. Also decreased intercourse also could be one of the attributes. Sympathetic function variables seem to be increased amongst the subjects in comparison to the parasympathetic function which may be due to the sex steroid influence. Lesser exposure of the uterine environment to the seminal fluid could be another reason for the increased sympathetic response. Also increased non specific inflammatory markers could influence the sympathetic nervous system. Though statistically not significant the diastolic blood pressure was observed to be high in the study group as compared to the controls due to sympathetic preponderance.

Conclusion

We conclude that fibroid patients have altered autonomic tone in the form of increased sympathetic tone and decreased parasympathetic tone.

Conflict of Interest: We authors declare that we do not have any conflict of interest.

Source of Funding: Nil.

Ethical Clearance: We have obtained ethical clearance from the institute ethics committee for conducting this study.

References

- Merrill RM. Hysterectomy Surveillance in the United States, 1997 Through. 2005. *Med Sci Monit* 2008; 14: CR24–CR31.CR31.
- Paulo J. Oliveira, Rui A. Carvalho, PieroPortincasa, LeonildeBonfrate and VilmSardao. Fatty Acid Oxidation and Cardiovascular Risk during Menopause: A Mitochondrial Connection?.*J Lipids*. 2012; 2012: 365798.
- Stewart EA, Friedman AJ, Peck K, Nowak RA. Relative overexpression of collagen type I and collagen type III messenger ribonucleic acids by uterine leiomyomas during the proliferative phase of the menstrual cycle. *J ClinEndocrinolMetab* 1994; 79: 900– 906.906.
- Walker CL, Stewart EA. Uterine fibroids: the elephant in the room. *Science* 2005; 308: 1589–1592.1592.
- Pejic S, Kasapovic J, Todorovic A, Stojiljkovic V, Pajovic SB. Lipid peroxidation and antioxidant status in blood of patients with uterine myoma, endometrial polypus, hyperplastic and malignant endometrium.*Biol Res*. 2006;39(4):619-29. Epub 2007 Jul 20.
- Fernando S. Mesquita, Summer N. Dyer, Daniel A. Heinrich, Serdar E. Bulun, Erica E. Marsh, and Romana A. Nowak. Reactive Oxygen Species Mediate Mitogenic Growth Factor Signaling Pathways in Human Leiomyoma Smooth Muscle Cells.*BiolReprod*. 2010 February; 82(2): 341–351.
- M Vural, H Camuzcuoglu, H Toy, ACamuzcuoglu, N Aksoy. Oxidative stress and prolidase activity in women with uterine fibroids.*J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2012 Jan ;32 (1): 68 - 72.
- Ozercan IH, Sahin N, Akdemir F, Onderci M, Seren S, Sahin K, Kucuk O. Chemoprevention of fibroid tumors by epigallocatechin-3-gallate in quail. *Nutr Res*. 2008 Feb; 28(2):92-7. doi: 10.1016/j.nutres.2007.11.009.
- YunAJ, Daniel SM. Sympathetic and Thelper (Th)2 bias may ameliorate uterine fibroids, independent of sex steroids.*Med Hypotheses*. 2005;65(6):1172-5.
- Vanderlei LC, Pastre CM, Hoshi RA, Carvalho TD, Godoy MF. Basic notions of heart rate variability and its clinical applicability. *Rev Bras Cir Cardiovasc*. 2009;24:205–17.

Etiological Profile of Azoospermic Patients attending Male Biological Reproductive Unit of Mahatma Gandhi Institute of Medical Sciences, Sewagram (Maharashtra), India

Santosh Balgote¹, Anil Chaudari²

¹Assistant Professor Department of Physiology, Late Shree Barat Ratana Atal Bihari Vajpeyi Memorial Medical College, Rajnandgaon (C.G.), ²Professor & HOD, Department of Physiology, MGIMS, Sewagram Wardha

Abstract

Introduction- The term “Azoospermia” is defined as the complete absence of sperm in the ejaculate, is identified in approximately 1% of all men and in 10 to 15% of infertile males. The semen analysis should be performed according to the 2010 WHO guidelines, and at least two semen samples obtained more than two weeks apart should be examined.

Material and Method- The present cross sectional hospital based study was conducted in reproductive biology unit of department of physiology, MGIMS, Sewagram (M.S.) India, during study period September 2011 to August 2013. Subjects belonged to age group of 21 to 45 year. The semen samples were obtained from male partner (referred from gynecology department) of infertile couples attending the reproductive biology unit. 90 freshly diagnosed patients were selected for study. The patients were interviewed about their case histories, their reproductive problems, and their family background. All WHO Guidelines was strictly followed so that identity of subject should not be revealed. In subject with absence of spermatozoa in semen three consecutive semen analysis were performed at an interval of one month each.

Observations- The prevalence rate of Azoospermic patient was found to be 19.90%. We observed that out of 90 azoospermic patients, 40 % of patient was of Obstructive Azoospermia and remaining 60 % was of Non- Obstructive Azoospermia. We found that the most common aetiology of obstruction was Epididymal cyst (23 patients), contributing 63.89 % to its aetiology. Most common aetiology of Non-obstruction was Varicocele (23 patients) contributing 42.59%.

Conclusions- The current study highlighted the etiological spectrum of azoospermia cases.

Keywords- Infertility, Azoospermia, Obstructive, Non obstructive, Varicocele.

Introduction

From the time of the earliest records in every culture there has been reference to infertility & in every culture there are prayers or ceremonies to try to ensure fertility. Fertility denotes the ability of a men & woman to reproduce. Conversely infertility denotes

lack of fertility, an involuntary reduction in the ability to reproduce children. Infertility is relative; sterility is total inability to produce.

According to World Health Organization, “Infertility is the inability of a sexually active non contracepting couple to achieve pregnancy in one year”. Infertility is a common condition with important psychologic, economic, demographic and medical implications. Demand for infertility services has grown substantially even though the prevalence of infertility has been stable.

The misconception that infertility is typically associated with the female is commonly faced in the

Corresponding author:

Dr Anil Chaudari,

Professor & HOD, Department of Physiology, MGIMS, Sewagram Wardha.

E-mail: dhiraj.bhawnani@gmail.com

management of infertile men. It is uncommon for a patient to present for an infertility evaluation with an abnormal semen analysis report before an extensive female partner workup has been performed. Usually, even men with potentially treatable causes of infertility are treated with assisted reproductive techniques (ARTs) instead of specific therapy.

However, once the diagnosis of azoospermia is established, no sperm can be found in the ejaculate; as a consequence, assisted reproduction cannot be applied due to the absence of sperm. Therefore, an understanding of azoospermia is very important for us. Infertility varies across regions of the world and is estimated to affect 8 to 12 per cent of couple worldwide (**Sciarrà J. et.al., 1994**)¹. Underlying these numbers exists a core group of couples, estimated to be 3 to 5 per cent, who are infertile due to unknown or unpreventable conditions. A prevalence of infertility above this level suggests preventable or treatable causes (**Fathalla MF et.al., 1991**)². Infertility tends to be highest in countries with high fertility rates, an occurrence termed “**barrenness amid plenty**” (**van Balen F et.al., 2001**)³.

Definitions of Primary infertility vary between studies, but the operational definition, put forth by the WHO, defines Primary infertility as the “Inability to conceive within two years of exposure to pregnancy (*i.e.*-sexually active, non-contracepting, and non-lactating) among women 15 to 49 yr old” (**Reproductive health indicators Report Geneva: WHO; 2001**)⁴. Secondary infertility refers to the inability to conceive following a previous pregnancy. Globally, most infertile couples suffer from Primary infertility (**Inhorn MC. Global et.al.,2003**)⁵.

The term “Azoospermia” is defined as the complete absence of sperm in the ejaculate, is identified in approximately 1% of all men and in 10 to 15% of infertile males (**Jarow JP et.al.,1989**)⁶. This diagnosis must be confirmed by centrifugation of a semen specimen for 15 min at room temperature with high-powered microscopic examination of the pellet and a centrifugation speed of at least 3,000 rotation per minute. The semen analysis should be performed according to the 2010 WHO guidelines, and at least two semen samples obtained more than two weeks apart should be examined. (**WHO Lab. Manual. Geneva:WHO Press,2010**)⁷ and **Schlegel PN et.al.,2004**)⁸.

There are scarcity of studies on the current topic in the study area. With the above background, the present study was planned to see the aetiological profile of azoospermic infertile males attending a tertiary care hospital of Central India region.

Material and Method

The present cross sectional hospital based study was conducted in reproductive biology unit of department of physiology, MGIMS, Sewagram (M.S.) India, during study period September 2011 to August 2013. Subjects belonged to age group of 21 to 45 year. The semen samples were obtained from male partner (referred from gynecology department) of infertile couples attending the reproductive biology unit.

We obtained an informed written consent from all study participants. The use of confidential patient data in this study was fully within the recent guidelines.

Selection of Patient :-

During the above mentioned period 603 patients visited the reproductive biology unit, out of which 120 patients were diagnosed as Azoospermic. Out of 120 azoospermics patients 30 were follow up cases. They were excluded and 90 freshly diagnosed patients were selected for study. The patients were interviewed about their case histories, their reproductive problems, and their family background. All WHO Guidelines was strictly followed so that identity of subject should not be revealed.

Samples were analyzed as per WHO guidelines (**WHO laboratory Manual, 2010**)⁷. In subject with absence of spermatozoa in semen three consecutive semen analysis were performed at an interval of one month each. Finding of absence of spermatozoa was confirmed by centrifuging the sample at 3000 rpm for 15 min and examining the sample under compound microscope.

Inclusion criteria :-

Subjects belonged to active Reproductive age group and which demonstrated azoospermia in semen analysis.

Exclusion criteria :-

Unmarried male attended reproductive unit for complaints other than infertility & vasectomized subject.

Semen analysis :-

The semen samples were collected after a sexual abstinence of 3 to 5 days (Preidt.R.,2003)⁹. The most preferred method for collection of sample was Masturbation (Self-Stimulation), another method was Coitus interruptus (withdrawal of penis just prior to ejaculation during sexual intercourse). The semen specimen was collected in a small, clean wide mouthed jar of 10 to 20 ml. Micro & Macroscopic examination of Semen was performed. The following parameters were studied for confirmation of etiology of azoospermia:

Hormonal assay of FSH, LH & free testosterone.

Karyotyping for detecting defect in sex chromosomes.

Testicular size measurement by Electronic Digital Caliper.

Fructose test for estimation of fructose in seminal plasma.

Transrectal ultrasonography.

Scrotal ultrasonography.

All the data was abstracted on a standardized data collection form. We used a spreadsheet to enter the data electronically and used statistical software SPSS.

Observations

Our study was conducted during the period of September 2011 to August 2013 and total 603 patients were visited out the Biological Reproductive Unit. Out of these, 120 patients were Azoospermic. Out of 120 Azoospermic patients, 30 follow-up patients were excluded from the study. Only 90 newly diagnosed Azoospermic Patients along with 10 controls (exhibiting normal seminogram characteristics) were selected for study.

Table- 1: Distribution of Infertile male with different Seminogram characteristics

Seminogram characteristics	No. of Patient	Prevalence (%)
Normozoospermia	46	7.63
Oligo-astheno-teratozoospermia	252	41.79
Astheno-teratozoospermia	185	30.68
Azoospermia	120	19.90
Total	603	100.00

The prevalence rate of Azoospermic patient was found to be 19.90. The prevalence rate of Astheno-teratozoospermia was 30.68, of Oligo-astheno-teratozoospermia were 41.79, and of Normozoospermia were 7.63 respectively. 90 newly diagnosed Azoospermic patients were distributed depending upon their Aetiological factor. The incidence rate of each Aetiological factor causing Azoospermia was calculated separately.[Table-1]

Table 2: Distribution of patients according to Pathophysiology of Azoospermia

Type of Azoospermia	No. of patient	Percentage (%)
Obstructive Azoospermia	36	40
Non-Obstructive Azoospermia	54	60
Total	90	100.00

In this study, 90 Azoospermic patients were classified on the basis of Pathophysiology diagnosed in Sonological findings as Obstructive and Non-Obstructive Azoospermic patient.

We found 36 cases had obstruction and were classified into Obstructive Azoospermia while in 54 cases obstruction was not seen and were classified into Non- Obstructive Azoospermia.

We observed that out of 90 azoospermic patients, 40 % of patient was of Obstructive Azoospermia and remaining 60 % was of Non- Obstructive Azoospermia. [Table-2]

Table-3: Aetiological factors of Obstructive Azoospermia in the Study Population

Aetiological factors of Obstructive Azoospermia	No. of patient	Percentage (%)
Seminal vesicle cyst	3	8.33
Epididymal cyst	23	63.89
Epididymal nodules	5	13.89
Calcification in Seminal vesicle	5	13.89
Total	36	100.00

36 Obstructive patients diagnosed by Sonological study were distributed on the basis of their Aetiology. We found that the most common aetiology of obstruction was Epididymal cyst (23 patients), contributing 63.89 % to its aetiology. Epididymal nodules and Calcification in Seminal vesicle were the second most common aetiology seen which account for 13.89 % each. It is followed by Seminal vesicle cyst obstruction with 8.33 %.[Table-3]

Table-4: Aetiological factors of Non-obstructive Azoospermia in the Study Population

Aetiological factors of Non-Obstructive Azoospermia	No.	(%)
Klinefelter's syndrome	4	7.40
Microdeletion	5	9.25
Hypergonadotrophic hypogonadism (Primary testicular failure)	19	35.20
Varicocele	23	42.59
No detectable aetiology	3	5.56
Total	54	100.00

54 Non-Obstructive patients were distributed on the basis of their Aetiology. We found that the most common aetiology of Non-obstruction was Varicocele (23 patients) contributing 42.59%. Hypergonadotrophic hypogonadism (Primary testicular failure), was the second most common aetiology (19 patient) seen in with 35.20 %. It is followed by next aetiology Microdeletion contributing 9.25%. Next to it, Klinefelter's syndrome was observed which account for 7.40%. Lastly, No detectable aetiology were observed in 3 cases with the Incidence rate of 3 % . [Table-4]

Discussion

In the present study in population of central India region, we observed that the prevalence rate of Azoospermic patient was 19.58 % which is similar to those reported by American society for Reproductive Medicine.

Azoospermia have various etiologies. The most common Aetiological factor causing Azoospermia observed in this study was Epididymal Cyst and

Varicocele with the Incidence rate of 25.56 % each. It is followed by Hypergonadotrophic hypogonadism (Primary testicular failure) with the Incidence rate of 21.10%. Next to this, the Incidence rate of Y-Chromosome Microdeletion, Epididymal Nodule and Seminal Vesicle calcification was observed at the rate of 5.56 % each. It is then accompanied by Klinefelter's syndrome with the Incidence rate of 4.44 %. The Incidence of seminal vesicle cyst and idiopathic azoospermia ranked last with the least contribution of 3.33% each. We did not find any case of Hypogonadotrophic hypogonadism.

Moon M H et.al.,2006¹⁰ studied on "Scrotal US for Evaluation of Infertile Men with Azoospermia" and found that Epididymal Obstruction was the major cause in obstructive azoospermia. Our observation of higher incidence of epididymal cyst in obstructive azoospermia is supported by this study.

T. XA et.al,2010¹¹ studied 56 cases of obstructive azoospermia and found 23.21% (13 cases) of them had epididymal obstruction.

In our study, we found that the incidence rate of Epididymal obstruction was 25.56 %

Varicocele is an abnormally dilated pampiniform plexus, which is the venous network that drains blood from the testicles. The impaired venous drainage leads to disruption of the counter-current exchange of heat mechanism from the spermatic cord, which elevates scrotal temperature and impairs spermatogenesis. Other postulated mechanisms include impaired drainage of gonadotoxins from the testes and hypoxia (**Goldstein M.,1989**)¹².

The detrimental effects of varicoceles on fertility and the benefit gained by their repair have been debated for so many year. One of the primary benefits of varicocelectomy in NOA patients is that it has the potential to produce motile sperm; however, the value of varicocelectomy in patients with NOA remains unclear. Nonetheless, cumulative data reveal that varicocelectomy can improve spermogram results (**Cakan M et.al.,2004**)¹³.

Gorelick JI et al.,1993¹⁴ studied , the role of varicocelectomy in patients with NOA-related infertility. He found that among the patient with primary infertility, Varicocele was observed with the incidence of 35%

A study conducted by the **Marcello Cocuzza et.al.,2007**¹⁵ reported that varicocele presence in 25.4% of infertile men.

Kubilay Inci.,2013¹⁶ from Turkey provides a critical appraisal on the role of varicocele repair for men with NOA.

In our study, we found that the incidence rate of varicocele was 25.56 %. So from the above discussion we can conclude that Varicocele should be taken under consideration while evaluating Azoospermic subject.

In this study, We classified 90 Azoospermic patients were on the basis of Pathophysiology diagnosed in Sonological findings as Obstructive and Non-Obstructive Azoospermic patient.

Kim ED et.al.,1999¹⁷ suggested that in azoospermic patients, it is important to distinguish nonobstructive azoospermia from obstructive azoospermia because not all men with azoospermia are ideal candidates for intracytoplasmic sperm injection.

Jing Du et.al.,2010¹⁸ China did study in on Evaluations of male infertility and found in his study that, out of 100 infertile men with azoospermia, 64 were found to have obstructive azoospermia, and the remaining 36 had nonobstructive azoospermia.

M. Moon et.al.,2006¹⁰ evaluated prospectively the accuracy of scrotal ultrasonography in distinguishing obstructive azoospermia from nonobstructive azoospermia in infertile men and found 61 % were found to have non-obstructive azoospermia, and the remaining 39 % had obstructive azoospermia.

In our study, we found 36 cases had obstructions and were classified into Obstructive Azoospermics. While in 54 cases obstructions was not seen and were classified into Non- Obstructive Azoospermics. We conclude that from the study population, the Incidence rate of Obstructive Azoospermia was 40 % and that of Non-Obstructive Azoospermia was 60%.

Our study also observed similar incidence of Obstructive and Non-obstructive azoospermia as seen in the study of M. Moon et al.¹⁰

We distributed 36 Obstructive cases On the basis of their Aetiology, diagnosed by Sonological study. We noticed that the most common aetiology of obstruction

was Epididymal cyst with the incidence of 63.89%. Epididymal nodules and Calcification in Seminal vesicle were the second most common aetiology seen with the Incidence of 13.89 % each. It is followed by Seminal vesicle cyst obstruction with the incidence rate of 8.33 %.

Similarly, on aetiological basis we distributed 54 Non- Obstructive cases diagnosed by Sonological study. We found that the most common aetiology of Non-obstruction was Varicocele contributing 42.59% (23 patients). Hypergonadotrophic hypogonadism (Primary testicular failure), was the second most common aetiology (19 patient) with 35.20 % incidence. It was followed next by Microdeletion contributing 9.25%. Klinefelter's syndrome as a cause of azoospermia had a incidence of 7.40%. Lastly, Idiopathic azoospermia was observed in 3 cases with a incidence of 5.56 %.

Conclusions

The current study highlighted the etiological spectrum of azoospermia cases. Finding of the present study will be useful for early diagnosis & appropriate management of these types of cases.

Funding: No funding sources

Conflict of interest: None declared

Ethical approval: The study was approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee.

References

1. Sciarra J. Infertility: an international health problem. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet.* 1994;46:155–63
2. Fathalla MF. Reproductive health: a global overview. *Ann NY Acad Sci.* 1991;626:1–10.
3. van Balen F, Gerrits T. Quality of infertility caPHYre in poor-resource areas and the introduction of new reproductive technologies. *Hum Reprod.* 2001;16:215–9.
4. Reproductive health indicators for global monitoring: Report of the second interagency meeting, 2001. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2001. World Health Organization; p. 23.
5. Inhorn MC. Global infertility and the globalization of new reproductive technologies: illustrations from Egypt. *Soc Sci Med.* 2003;56:1837–51.

6. Jarow JP, Espeland MA, Lipshultz LI. Evaluation of the azoospermic patient. *J Urol.* 1989;142(1):62-5.
7. WHO Laboratory manual for the examination and processing of human semen - 5th ed. Geneva: WHO Press, 2010.
8. Schlegel PN. Causes of azoospermia and their management. *Reprod Fertil Dev.* 2004; 16(5):561-72.
9. Preidt R. Male reproductive dysfunction ,European Society for Human Reproduction and Embryology,2003.
10. Min Hoan Moon, Seung Hyup Kim, Jeong Yeon Cho, Ju Tae Seo,MD Yi Kyeong Chun, *Journal of Radiology: Volume 239: Number 1—April 2006.*
11. Tu XA, Zhao LY, Deng LW, Wang WW, Zhao L, Liang H, Zeng LY, Deng CH *Journal of urology* 2010 Jan;16(1):48-51. PMID: 20180405.
12. Goldstein M, Eid JF. Elevation of intratesticular and scrotal skin surface temperature in men with varicocele. *Journal of Urology* 1989;142 (3): 743–5.
13. Cakan M, Altug U. Induction of spermatogenesis by inguinal varicocele repair in azoospermic men. *Arch Androl.* 2004;50(3):145–50.
14. Gorelick JJ, Goldstein M. Loss of Fertility in Men with Varicocele. *Fertil Steril.* 1993;59(3):613-6.
15. Marcello Cocuzza, Edmund Sabanegh, Ashok Agarwal Varicocele—A Dilemma for the Urologist *Current Concepts*,2007.
16. Kubilay Inci K, Gunay LM. The role of varicocele treatment in the management of non-obstructive azoospermia. *Clinics.* 2013;68(S1):89–98.
17. Kim ED, Lipshultz LI. Evaluation and imaging of the infertile male. *Infert Reprod Med Clin North Am* 1999;10:377–409.
18. Jing Du Feng Hua Li ,Yi Fen Guo , Li Ming Yang , Ju Fen Zheng, Bin Chen , Jian Shan Zhu , Qiang Liu. *Radiology: Volume 256: Number 2—August 2010*

Effect of Modified Valsalva Maneuver on Heart Rate and ECG among Young Non –Athletes and Athletes

Santosh Balgote¹, Atul Manohar Rao Deshkar²

¹Assistant Professor, ²Professor & HOD, Department of Physiology, Late Shree Barat Ratana Atal Bihari Vajpeyi Memorial Medical College, Rajnandgaon (C.G), India

Abstract

Introduction: Valsalva maneuver (VM) is an indicator of cardiac Autonomic function as well as it is used clinically for testing patency of Eustachian tube in Ear examination. According to one Cochrane systematic review, the modified maneuver may be effective in 19-54% of cases and there is insufficient evidence to either recommend it or advise against it in supra-ventricular tachycardia.

Material and Method: The present cross sectional study was conducted in research lab, Department of Physiology, Late Shree Barat Ratana Atal Bihari Vajpeyi Memorial Medical college, Rajnandgaon (C.G) India, during study period April to october 2016. There are two study groups – young athletes engaged in endurance sports and non athletes, first year students of medical college. All the subjects had been demonstrated and practiced modified Valsalva Maneuver and after that subjects was selected for the study (30 in each group comprising of males and females). During modified Valsalva Maneuver continuous recording of Heart Rate and ECG is done. Data obtained so will be recorded and analyzed.

Observations-Heart rate was significantly higher after Modified Valsalva Maneuver in athlete, while it was significantly lower in non athlete after Modified Valsalva Maneuver. No significant difference in heart rate between athlete & non athlete group before Modified Valsalva Maneuver. But there was significant difference heart rate between both groups after Modified Valsalva Maneuver. Significantly higher no. of Athletes showed increase t wave duration & prolonged TP Segment as compared to non athletes.

Conclusion: Modified Valsalva Maneuver is good index of cardiovascular system.

Keywords- Modified Valsalva Maneuver, Athletes, Non athletes, Supraventricular tachycardia.

Introduction

Valsalva maneuver (VM) is an indicator of cardiac Autonomic function as well as it is used clinically for testing patency of Eustachian tube in Ear examination. ⁽¹⁾ The Valsalva Manoeuvre is a tactic that demonstrates a basic cardiovascular physiologic feedback loop. The purpose of it is to induce vagal firing from the

cardiovascular control centre in the medulla, in order to slow the heart rate, and interrupt the rapid ventricular rate in a supraventricular tachycardia.

The Valsalva maneuver or Valsalva manoeuvre is performed by moderately forceful attempted exhalation against a closed airway, usually done by closing one's mouth, pinching one's nose shut while pressing out as if blowing up a balloon. Variations of the maneuver can be used either in medical examination as a test of cardiac function and autonomic nervous control of the heart, or to "clear" the ears and sinuses (that is, to equalize pressure between them) when ambient pressure changes, as in diving, hyperbaric oxygen therapy, or air travel. ⁽²⁾

Corresponding author:

Dr Atul Manohar Rao Deshkar

Professor & HOD, Department of Physiology, Late Shree Barat Ratana Atal Bihari Vajpeyi Memorial Medical college, Rajnandgaon (C.G), India

E-mail: dhiraj.bhawnani@gmail.com

The technique is named after Antonio Maria Valsalva, a 17th-century physician and anatomist from Bologna whose principal scientific interest was the human ear. ⁽³⁾ He described the Eustachian tube and the maneuver to test its patency (openness). He also described the use of this maneuver to expel pus from the middle ear.

A modified version is done by expiring against a closed glottis and maintaining pressure of a mercury column at 40mm Hg by lying down face up and raising legs with the help of an assistant. ⁽⁴⁾ This will elicit the cardiovascular responses described below but will not force air into the Eustachian tubes.

Modified Valsalva maneuver is used to terminate an attack of abnormal heart rhythm (arrhythmia)

According to one Cochrane systematic review, the modified maneuver may be effective in 19-54% of cases and there is insufficient evidence to either recommend it or advise against it in SVT. ⁽⁵⁾

Modified version of Valsalva maneuver has therapeutic role in terminating Supraventricular Tachycardia (SVT). The hemodynamic Effect of Valsalva maneuver is well known- it affects Cardiac output, Blood Pressure, Stroke volume and Heart rate. Few studies had done in this context but data regarding the effect of VM among athletes and non athletes is lacking. ^(6, 7, 8) Hence we tried to explore Modified Valsalva maneuver as a test for cardiac function with respect to its effect on Heart Rate and ECG.

In the Present study we tried to evaluate modified Valsalva maneuver and its effect on two hemodynamic parameters first Heart rate and secondly on ECG (wave morphology and durations) among young athletes and non athletes.

Aims and objectives:

To evaluate effect of modified Valsalva Maneuver on hemodynamic parameters Heart rate and ECG (wave morphology and durations) among young athletes and non athletes.

Material and Method

The present cross sectional study was conducted in research lab department of physiology. There are two

study groups – young athletes engaged in endurance sports and non athletes, first year students of medical college. Consent from IEC had been taken before the study.

All the subjects had been demonstrated and practiced modified Valsalva Maneuver and after that subjects was selected for the study (30 in each group comprising of males and females). Informed consent from the subjects was taken. Basic anthropometric parameters like Age, Height, Weight, BMI was recorded in both the groups.

Heart rate was recorded by using pulse oximeter and ECG is recorded by ECG machine (Philips ECG) in supine and resting condition. After that the subject is encouraged to perform modified Valsalva Maneuver of 25 to 30 seconds by exerting maximum effort and keeping the mercury column in the sphygmomanometer to value of 40 mm of Hg and lying down face up and raising legs with the help of an assistant.

Inclusion criteria:

We included 60 subjects out of which 30 subjects are athlete and practising daily exercise.

Exclusion criteria

Pt. With P/H/O high Blood pressure, Coronary Artery Disease, Flutter & Fibrillation.

Also we took 30 non athlete student who are not practising any kind of exercise. We excluded subjects who is suffering from hypertension as well as hypotension, who is having Diabetes or having any kind of respiratory diseases. Along with that we also excluded smokers and alcoholic.

During modified V Maneuver continuous recording of Heart Rate and ECG is done. Data obtained so will be recorded and analyzed. Statistical analysis was done by using descriptive and inferential statistics using students paired and unpaired t test and chisquare test and software used in the analysis were SPSS17.0 version and GraphPad Prism 6.0 version and $p < 0.05$ is considered as level of significance ($p < 0.05$).

Observations**Table-1: Comparison of heart rate in athletes and non athletes before and after Valsalva Maneuver (VM)**

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	t-value	p-value
Athletes	Before VM	76.00	30	5.63	1.02	6.63±4.49	7.26	0.0001,S
	After VM	69.36	30	6.86	1.25			
Non Athletes	Before VM	76.56	30	5.03	0.91	8.53±9.22	5.06	0.0001,S
	After VM	85.10	30	10.23	1.86			

Table 2: Comparison of heart rate in athletes and non athletes before and after VM

		No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	t-value	p-value
Before VM	Athletes	30	76.00	5.63	1.02	0.56±1.37	0.41	0.68, Non Significant
	Non Athletes	30	76.56	5.03	0.91			
After VM	Athletes	30	69.36	6.86	1.25	15.73±2.24	6.99	0.0001 Significant
	Non Athletes	30	85.10	10.23	1.86			

Heart rate was significantly higher after Modified Valsalva Maneuver in athlete, while it was significantly lower in non athlete after Modified Valsalva Maneuver. No significant difference in heart rate between athlete & non athlete group before Modified Valsalva Maneuver. But there was significant difference heart rate between both groups after Modified Valsalva Maneuver. [Table-1, 2]

Table 3: Comparison of T Wave duration (ECG) findings in two groups

ECG Finding	Athletes	Non Athletes	Chi square value, d. f. , p value
Normal	11 (%)	14(%)	27.745, 2, <0.0001 Highly Significant
Increase T Wave duration	18 (%)	0	
Short T Wave duration	1 (%)	16 (%)	
Total	30 (100%)	30 (100%)	

Significantly higher no. of Athletes showed increase t wave duration as compared to non athletes. [Table-3]

Table 4: Comparison of other ECG findings (TP Segment & QRS complex) in athletes group

ECG Finding	Athletes	Non Athletes	Chi square value, d. f. , p value
Prolonged TP Segment	15 (%)	0	28.125, 3, <0.00001 Highly Significant
Reduce TP Segment	0	17 (%)	
Short QRS complex	1 (%)	0	
Normal ECG	14 (%)	13 (%)	
Total	30 (100%)	30 (100%)	

Significantly higher no. of Athletes showed prolonged TP Segment as compared to non athletes. [Table-4]

Discussion

Valsalva manoeuvre is defined as the effort to breathe out forcibly while the mouth and nose are firmly closed or the vocal cords pressed together. The Valsalva manoeuvre is employed while straining at stool and in other circumstances. It causes a rise in blood pressure followed by a sharp drop and then a second sharp rise in blood pressure. This may be dangerous in people with heart disease and should be avoided.

A modified Valsalva manoeuvre is done by expiring against a closed glottis and maintaining pressure of a mercury column at 40mm Hg by lying down face up and raising legs with the help of an assistant. This will elicit the cardiovascular responses described below but will not force air into the Eustachian tubes. Modified Valsalva maneuver is used to terminate an attack of abnormal heart rhythm (arrhythmia).⁽⁹⁾

Seyed Mehran Hosseini et.al in 2015 did study on Valsalva Maneuver and Strain-Related ECG Changes and saw that Following the Valsalva Maneuver, the RR and PR intervals, corrected QT interval (QTc), P wave duration and amplitude, T wave amplitude, and the ratio of T/R amplitudes showed significant changes. The QRS duration and R wave amplitude did not show significant changes. The Valsalva Maneuver caused time and voltage changes in some ECG waves during the strain phase.⁽⁸⁾

Alterations in heart or lung volume, electrode-related alterations, and autonomic tone may cause these changes. In the current study found that, after practising the modified Valsalva maneuver in athletes we observe that there occur increase in T wave duration and also they had prolonged TP segment. While, in non-athletes

subject we saw that there occur decrease in T wave duration and with reduced TP segment.

Looga in 2005 did study on The Valsalva manoeuvre-cardiovascular effects and performance technique and found that the changes in heart rate and blood pressure during an expiratory Valsalva Maneuver are greater than the responses observed during completion of an inspiratory Valsalva Maneuver.⁽⁹⁾ In the present study we found that in athlete initially heart rate is more (but within physiological limit) and after practicing Modified Valsalva Maneuver the heart rate reduces significantly in them. We, also concluded in this study that in non- athlete initially heart rate is more (but within physiological limit) but after practicing Modified Valsalva Maneuver the heart rate increases significantly in non- athlete subject even it crosses physiological limit in some subjects .

De jong et.al in 1997 studied The Valsalva manoeuvre as a cardiovascular reflex test in healthy children and teenagers and observe that the Valsalva manoeuvre seems applicable as a cardiovascular reflex test to assess neurocardiovascular control in children and teenagers.⁽¹⁰⁾ We also concluded that after regular exercising the modified Valsalva manoeuvre there occur significant reduction in the heart rate with more ventricular filling during ventricular repolarization by increasing the T wave duration.

A.E. Navarro et.al in 1996 assess Heart rate changes during the Valsalva maneuver in patients with isolated aortic insufficiency and found that When compared to the normal sedentary controls the Valsalva ratio was slightly lower in the asymptomatic patients with aortic insufficiency.⁽¹¹⁾ Our study also prove that with regular practicing Modified Valsalva Maneuver the cardiac

output increases with increase in duration of ventricular filling time period which ultimately reduces the chances of aortic insufficiency.

Conclusion

Modified Valsalva Maneuver is good index of cardiovascular system. By regular practicing Modified Valsalva Maneuver subject can enhance the autonomic response. Modified Valsalva Maneuver indirectly help in increasing the the cardiac output by increase in duration of ventricular filling time period.

Modified Valsalva Maneuver also decreases the heart rate with prolonged T wave duration meaning it provide a good time period for ventricular filling. Therefore, our study stress to practise the Modified Valsalva Maneuver by healthy individual so get a better cardiovascular response for betterment of life.

Funding: No funding sources

Conflict of Interest: None declared

Ethical approval: The study was approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee.

References

1. Longo, Harrison's Principles of Internal Medicine, 18th Edition, 2014, Mcgraw Hill.
2. Taylor, D. "The Valsalva Manoeuvre: A critical review". South Pacific Underwater Medicine Society Journal. (1996) 26 (1).
3. Barret KE, Ganong's Review of medical Physiology, 24th Edition, 2012, Tata Mcgraw Hill.
4. Appelboam et al, Postural modification to the standard Valsalva manoeuvre for emergency treatment of supraventricular tachycardias (REVERT): a randomised controlled trial *The Lancet*. 2015. Volume 386, Issue 10005, P1747-1753
5. Smith GD, Fry MM, Taylor D, Morgans A, Cantwell K. Effectiveness of the Valsalva Manoeuvre for reversion of supraventricular tachycardia. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2015, Issue 2.
6. P. I. Korner, A. M. Tonkin, and J. B. Uther. Reflex and mechanical circulatory effects of graded Valsalva maneuvers in normal man. *J Appl Physiol*. 1976 Mar;40(3):434-40.
7. Peter Novak, Assessment of sympathetic index from the Valsalva maneuver, *Neurology*, 2011, 76 (23) 2010-2016.
8. Seyed MH, Valsalva maneuver and strain related ECG changes. *Res Cardiovasc Med*, 2015; 4 (4): e28136.
9. Looga R *Respir Physiol Neurobiol*. The Valsalva manoeuvre--cardiovascular effects and performance technique: a critical review. 2005 May 12;147(1):39-49.
10. de Jong-de Vos van Steenwijk et al. The Valsalva manoeuvre as a cardiovascular reflex test in healthy children and teenagers. *Clinical Autonomic Research*, August 1997, Volume 7, Issue 4, pp 167-171
11. A.E. Navarro, D.F. Dávila, A. Torres, G. Bellabarba, J.H. Donis and J. Casado, Heart rate changes during the Valsalva maneuver in patients with isolated aortic insufficiency *Braz J Med Biol Res*, September 1997, Volume 30(9) 1075-1080.

Call for Papers/ Article Submission

Article submission fee

- Please note that we charge manuscript handling charges for all publications. Charges can be enquired by sending mail.
- In cases of urgent publication required by author, he /she should write to editor for discretion.
- Fast tracking charges are applicable in urgent publication
- Please note that we charge only after article has been accepted for publication, not at the time of submission.
- Authors have right to withdraw article if they do not wish to pay the charges.

Article Submission Guidelines

Please submit paper in following format as far as applicable

1. Title
2. Names of authors
3. Your Affiliation (designations with college address)
4. Corresponding author- name, designations, address, E-mail id
5. Abstract with key words
6. Introduction or back ground
7. Material and Method
8. Findings
9. Discussion / Conclusion
10. Ethical Clearance
11. Conflict of Interest
12. Source of Support
13. References in Vancouver style.
14. Word limit 2500-3000 words, MSWORD Format, single file
15. Please quote references in text by superscripting.

OUR CONTACT INFO

Institute of Medico-Legal Publications

Logix Office Tower, Unit No. 1704, Logix City Centre Mall
Sector- 32, Noida - 201 301 (Uttar Pradesh)

Mob: 09971888542, E-mail: editor.physiology@gmail.com

Website: www.ijop.net



International Journal of Physiology

CALL FOR SUBSCRIPTIONS

ABOUT THE JOURNAL **International Journal of Physiology** is a double blind peer reviewed international journal which has commenced its publication from January 2013. The journal is quarterly in frequency. The journal covers all aspects of physiology. The journal has been assigned ISSN 2320-6039 (Print Version) and ISSN 2320-608X (Online Version). The journal is covered by Index Copernicus, Poland and many other international data bases.

Journal Title	Print Only
International Journal of Physiology	INR 9000

NOTE FOR SUBSCRIBERS

- Advance payment required by cheque/demand draft in the name of **"Institute of Medico-Legal Publications"** payable at Noida, Uttar Pradesh.
- Cancellation not allowed except for duplicate payment.
- Claim must be made within six months from issue date.
- A free copy can be forwarded on request.

Send all payment to :

Institute of Medico-Legal Publications

Logix Office Tower, Unit No. 1704, Logix City Centre Mall
Sector- 32, Noida - 201 301 (Uttar Pradesh)

Mob: 09971888542, E-mail: editor.physiology@gmail.com, Website: www.ijop.net

Published, Printed and Owned : Dr. R.K. Sharma

Printed : Printpack Electrostat G-2, Eros Apartment, 56, Nehru Place, New Delhi-110019

Published at: Institute of Medico Legal Publications Pvt. Ltd., Logix Office Tower, Unit No. 1704, Logix City Centre Mall Sector- 32,
Noida - 201 301 (Uttar Pradesh) Editor : Dr. R.K. Sharma, Mobile: + 91 9971888542, Ph. No: +91 120 429 4015