



TO IMPROVE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EARLY DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT OF NEUROLOGICAL DISORDERS THAT DEVELOP IN DIABETES MELLITUS

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ABSTRACT

Diabetes mellitus is a condition in which blood glucose levels are consistently elevated above the normal range. It can be caused by a shortage of insulin or by the presence of factors that prevent insulin from working properly. Insufficient insulin activity causes hyperglycemia. Many metabolic abnormalities are connected with it, including the development of hyperketonaemia when there is a significant absence of insulin, as well as changes in fatty acids, lipids, and protein turnover. Except in a few rare circumstances, diabetes is a permanent condition. In patients with diabetes mellitus, a wide range of abnormalities affecting the central and peripheral nerve systems can occur, either directly or indirectly. This brief review focuses on recent advances in the delineation of clinical aspects of diabetes-related neurological disorders and their therapy. The goal of this article is to increase the effectiveness of early detection and treatment of neurological diseases that arise in people with diabetes.

Mitochondrial diabetes usually appears between the ages of 30 and 40, and is caused by a lack of insulin secretion rather than insulin resistance. Some people will require insulin, and some will develop diabetic ketoacidosis. Other neuromuscular characteristics, in addition to deafness, have been reported in diabetic patients with this mutation: some may have a myopathy, and a group of five patients with insulin-induced painful neuropathy has been documented.⁵ The prevalence of problems appears to be identical to that of diabetic patients without this mutation, implying that precise diabetes treatment is just as crucial in this disease as it is in others.

Diabetic ketoacidosis develops in people with type 1 diabetes as a result of either absolute or relative insulin deficiency. It can occur as a symptom of newly diagnosed diabetes, as a result of omitting or improperly lowering insulin doses, or in the presence of concurrent illness, particularly severe infections, when insulin is not provided in time to counteract relative insulin resistance. Patients with ketoacidosis may be drowsy, but they are seldom unconscious unless they are in a life-threatening situation. The degree of hyperosmolality is

proportional to the level of consciousness. Patients are typically stuporose and, on rare occasions, unconscious. Seizures can be focal or generalized, and dystonic movements are seen on rare occasions. When the metabolic state returns to normal, these neurological symptoms go completely.

Cerebral oedema is a well-known but rare and possibly fatal consequence of diabetic ketoacidosis that can arise even when treatment appears to be working. Children are more sensitive, and between 1% and 2% of them may develop clinically visible cerebral oedema during treatment. The specific cause is unknown, but electrolyte transfers in and out of cells, as well as a net inflow of sodium into cells, could be to blame. Cerebral oedema commonly develops after 8 to 24 hours of initiating intravenous fluids and insulin therapy. Precipitating factors are assumed to be excessively quick correction of hyperosmolality or the use of hypotonic saline. Patients who appeared to be on the mend suddenly begin to deteriorate. Those who show symptoms of increased intracranial pressure or brain herniation are unlikely to make a full recovery.

Diabetic sensory polyneuropathy is not the same as this unusual syndrome. It has an acute or subacute onset and is characterized by burning or agonizing pain in the lower limbs, with very few cases involving the hands, upper limbs, or trunk. There is extensive cutaneous contact hyperesthesia associated with it. With just mild distal sensory loss in the legs and depression of the ankle jerks, the accompanying neurological indications are typically unnoticeable. There are no motor signs. The lack of aberrant findings could point to a psychogenic cause for the symptoms. It's possible that there's a link between the two. Impotence can occur in men, although no additional autonomic signs are noticeable.

Patients with clinical indications of significant neuropathy are more likely to be diagnosed with a neurogenic bladder. However, bladder neck obstruction and, in particular, prostatic obstruction in men, should be ruled out as possible causes of the patient's symptoms. The goal of treatment is to compensate for a lack of bladder sensation and prevent the formation of a large residual urine volume. Education is vital and may suffice for diabetic patients who have little signs of cystopathy. Patients should be told to void every three hours during the day, in particular. More active measures are required when the symptoms are more acute.

A thorough history is required for sensible therapy of diabetic impotence, particularly to assess any psychological component. If this component is present, appropriate discussion and guidance may be beneficial to the patient and his partner. Rigid penile implants are commonly successful in younger patients, especially because ejaculation is frequently held. Inflatable prosthesis can also be used, however they have a higher failure rate. Intracavernous injections of the vasodilator prostaglandin E1 induce erection in patients without severe vascular disease, and provide a treatment that some men find satisfactory; however, infection and penile fibrosis are risks, and this treatment should only be administered under expert supervision.

Those with symptomatic autonomic neuropathy, on the other hand, did not fare as well, though 73 percent of them were still alive after a decade. Although the patient selection was different: the patients were older and some had renal impairment, Ewing et al 70 found a worse prognosis. Orthostatic hypotension appears to be associated with the highest mortality, maybe due to the early development of left ventricular hypertrophy. Renal failure or myocardial infarction are the leading causes of death in these patients. There are a few abrupt

unexplained deaths among people with autonomic neuropathy, which can be attributed to respiratory arrest rather than cardiac arrest or arrhythmia.

Established autonomic neuropathy symptoms, such as diarrhoea, vomiting from gastroparesis, and postural hypotension, have a long but intermittent course and rarely become disabling, even after 10 to 15 years.⁶⁹ Postural hypotension varies significantly, as does the severity of symptoms. Gustatory sweating is another symptom that tends to linger without remission, however many patients report that it goes away following a kidney transplant. The overall absence of development to severe disease remains unexplained and contrasts with catastrophic and, yes, often fatal progression of the underlying autonomic failure. Many of these discoveries were made by Malins a few years ago, who said, "The prognosis for autonomic symptoms is dismal, although the handicap is often unexpectedly minor."

Diabetes patients have a higher rate of focal peripheral nerve lesions than the normal population. They are caused by a variety of factors. Isolated third cranial nerve lesions are thought to have an ischemic origin, although they differ from ischemia lesions in that they are demyelinating rather than involve axonal loss. Reperfusion damage, which has been shown experimentally to cause demyelination in peripheral nerves, could be the pathogenic etiology. The good prognosis of diabetic third cranial nerve injuries can be explained in terms of remyelination recovery. Diabetic nerves are more susceptible to compression injury than the normal population, resulting in entrapment neuropathies and localized lesions from external compression. It's unclear what's causing the heightened susceptibility.

Diagnosing this kind of diabetes might be difficult because the symptoms suggest spinal nerve root compression. The symptoms include radicular discomfort, focal truncal sensory loss, cutaneous hyperesthesia, and focal weakening of the anterior abdominal wall muscles. The symptoms might be unilateral or bilateral, and they can affect many adjacent dermatomes or intercostal nerve regions. In most cases, spontaneous recovery takes 3 to 6 months. This inadequate designation is applied to cases of unilateral or frequently asymmetric bilateral lower limb motor neuropathy (diabetic amyotrophy). Muscles in the distal lower limb may also be impacted. There may be radicular sensory loss, which can be severe in some situations.

In conclusion, diabetes mellitus is divided into two types: type 1 insulin-dependent diabetes and type 2 non-insulin-dependent diabetes. It can be seen in hereditary syndromes with neurological manifestations, the most frequent of which are mitochondrial diseases. Diabetes causes a wide spectrum of neurological symptoms. These can be a direct effect of the metabolic illness or its therapy, or they can be secondary symptoms. Conditions that arise directly from the diabetic condition can indicate acute metabolic decompensation, such as diabetic ketoacidosis, which is common in type 1 cases and causes widespread cerebral oedema, which is especially common in youngsters. In type 2 cases, hyperosmolar non-ketotic coma is common. The most serious effects of hypoglycemia, which can occur as a side effect of insulin or sulphonylurea therapy. Peripheral neuropathy and cerebrovascular illness are the most common diseases that impact the neurological system. There is no single type of diabetic neuropathy; rather, there are a variety of syndromes, with distal predominant sensory polyneuropathy being the most common. The most major risk factor for persistent foot ulceration is sensory polyneuropathy. Severe autonomic neuropathy is unusual, and it is most

commonly seen in people with type 1 diabetes. Isolated cranial and limb neuropathies, truncal radiculoneuropathies, and proximal lower limb neuropathy are examples of localized and multifocal neuropathies (diabetic amyotrophy). Some localized neuropathies are caused by a diabetic nerve's increased vulnerability to external compression or entrapment. Diabetic patients experience more transient ischemic attacks and strokes than non-diabetic patients, indicating that diabetes increases the risk of macrovascular disease. Diabetic people are more likely to contract infections, but some forms, such as rhinocerebral mucormycosis and malignant external otitis, are more common. Finally, in diabetic pregnancies, congenital abnormalities, notably those affecting the neurological system, are more likely, with anencephaly and spina bifida being the most common.

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