

# ECHO Diabetes

## Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy (DPN)

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**Pre-question** — select the correct option

**Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy in people with T2D**

- A. Is almost entirely due to effects of hyperglycemia
- B. Is always associated with neuropathic pain
- C. Is usually symmetric and progresses from most distal to proximal
- D. Requires nerve conduction studies for diagnosis

# Diabetic Neuropathy

## focus on Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy

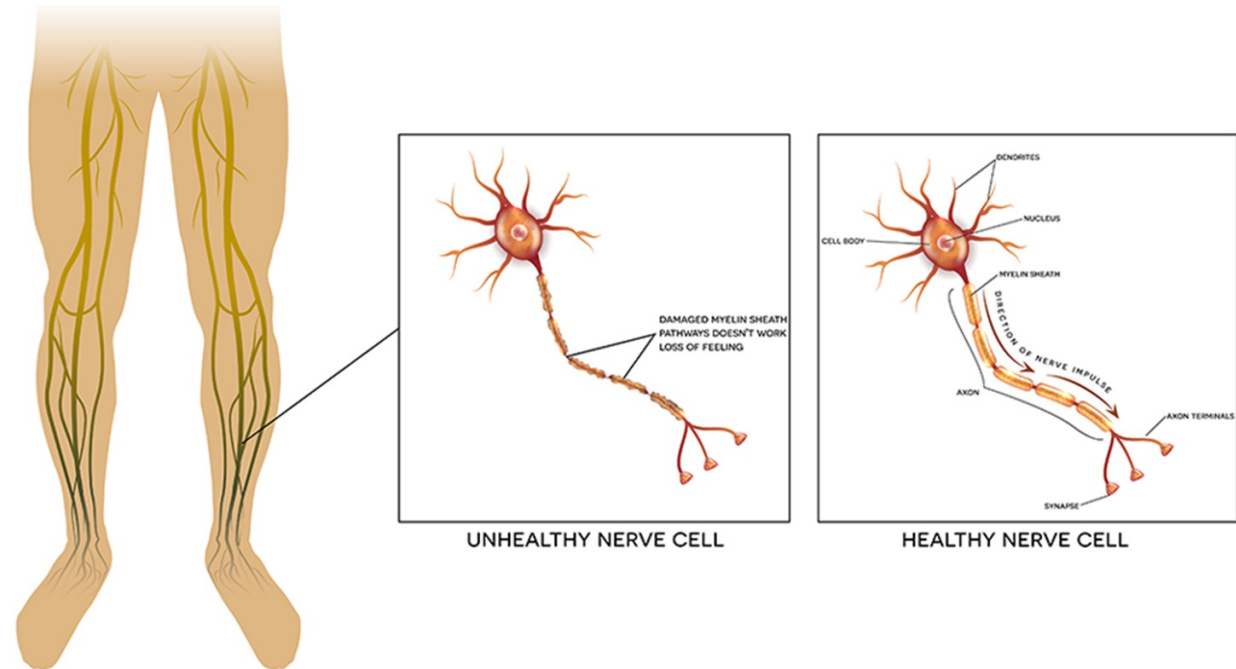
- **Diabetic neuropathy** – heterogenous group of disorders with an estimated lifetime prevalence exceeding 50% occurring in
  - adults with type 1 diabetes (at least 20% after 20 years)
  - adults with type 2 diabetes (at least 10%–15% of newly diagnosed T2D increasing to 50% after 10 years of disease duration)
  - young people with diabetes (~levels seen in adults with diabetes)
  - individuals with prediabetes ( ~10-30% of subjects)
- ***Diabetic peripheral neuropathy (DPN)*** (also called *diabetic polyneuropathy (DPN)* & *distal symmetric polyneuropathy (DSPN)*) is the most common (~ 75% of all DN) and most studied form of DN
  - **DPN** affects multiple peripheral sensory and motor nerves that branch out from the spinal cord into the arms, hands, legs and feet.
    - Typically, the longest nerves — those that extend from the spine to the feet — are affected the most.

# Background – Peripheral Nervous System

- Diabetes preferentially affects the *peripheral nervous system* (PNS), a likely reflection of the unique anatomy of the PNS.
  - PNS *sensory* neurons and their receptors *lie outside the blood-brain barrier* and are *more vulnerable to injury* resulting from diabetes than motor neurons, which lie within the barrier.
  - PNS axons are frequently  $\geq 3$  feet long (>20,000 times the length of their supporting cell bodies).
    - The process starts at the tip of toes & progresses in a “stocking & glove” pattern

## PERIPHERAL NEUROPATHY

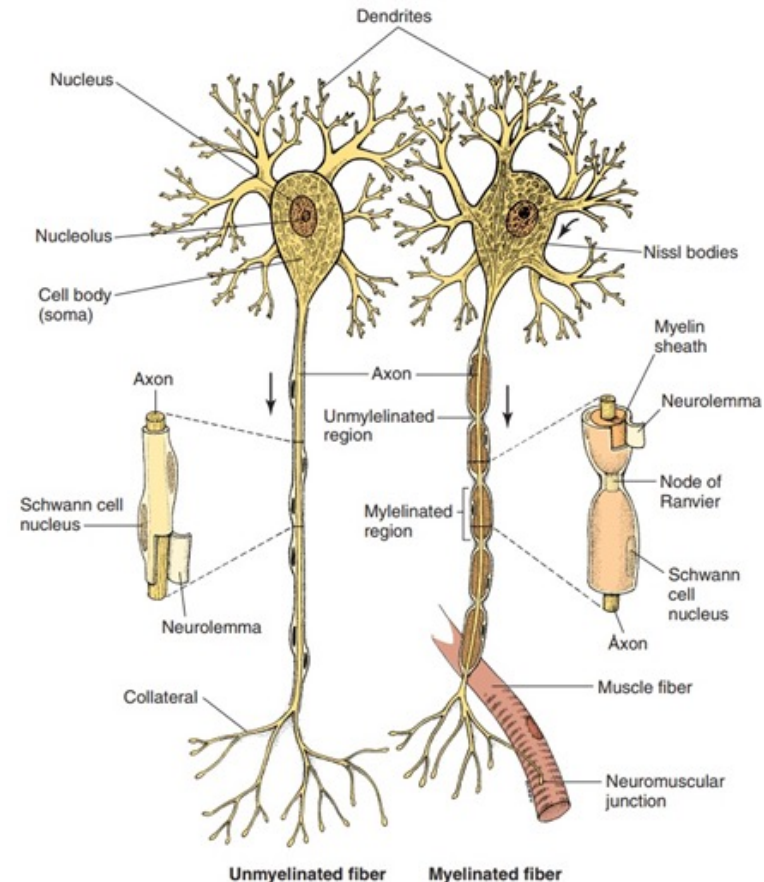
NERVE DAMAGE OCCURRING OUTSIDE OF THE SPINAL CORD AND BRAIN



*DPN progresses distal → proximal*

# Background – Neurons

- “Small fibers”
  - small unmyelinated neurons known as C-fibers constitute most of the sensory axons in the PNS.
    - carry *nociceptive* information, particularly related to *heat* and *pain*
- “Large fibers”
  - small, thinly myelinated A $\delta$  fibers
    - relay information on *touch*, *pressure*, and *cold*
  - fully myelinated fibers of different diameters, designated A $\beta$  and A $\alpha$  –
    - responsible for *vibratory* and *position sense*



*DPN usually progresses small → large*

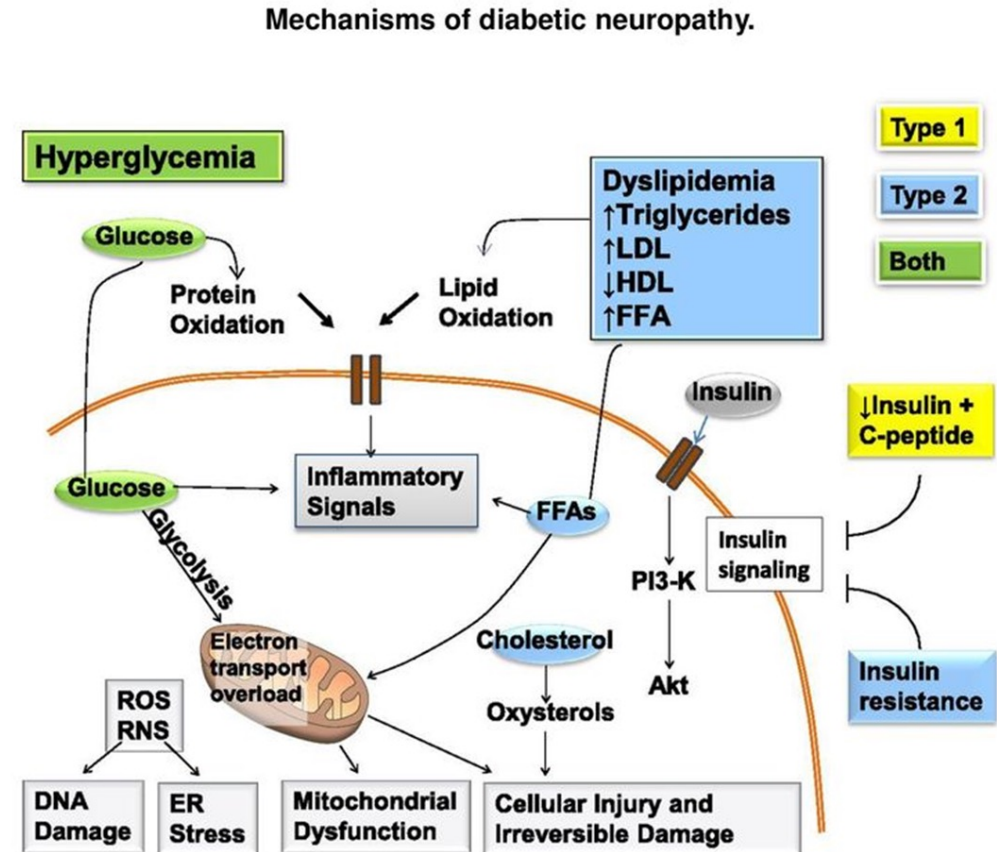
# Background - Pathophysiology

“DPN has been associated with **glycemia, height** (perhaps as a proxy for nerve length), **smoking, blood pressure, weight, and lipid measures**”

- **Glycemic control** can prevent DPN in type 1 diabetes (78% relative risk reduction) & may modestly slow the progression of DPN in type 2 diabetes (5%–9% relative risk reduction)
- There is now consensus that *glycemic control alone cannot prevent the progression of DPN in patients with type 2 diabetes.*
- The **metabolic syndrome** has emerged as a crucial risk factor for neuropathy based on data from multiple clinical studies
  - The metabolic syndrome encompasses hyperglycemia, obesity, and dyslipidemia, and **the risk of developing neuropathy increases with the number of these components present in an individual.**
  - Clinical trials led to new thinking about the pathophysiology of diabetic neuropathy focused on the idea that **disruption in whole-nerve bioenergetics** (i.e., *how the nerve accesses energy along its entire length*) is **the crucial factor leading to disease.**

# Background - Pathophysiology

- In the diabetic environment, excess glucose and lipids disrupt the normal pathways used for their own breakdown & produce excess electron donors that the **mitochondria** are unable to process.
- The result is **bioenergetic failure** leading to inflammation, endoplasmic reticulum stress, **apoptosis of neurons**, and **axonal failure**.

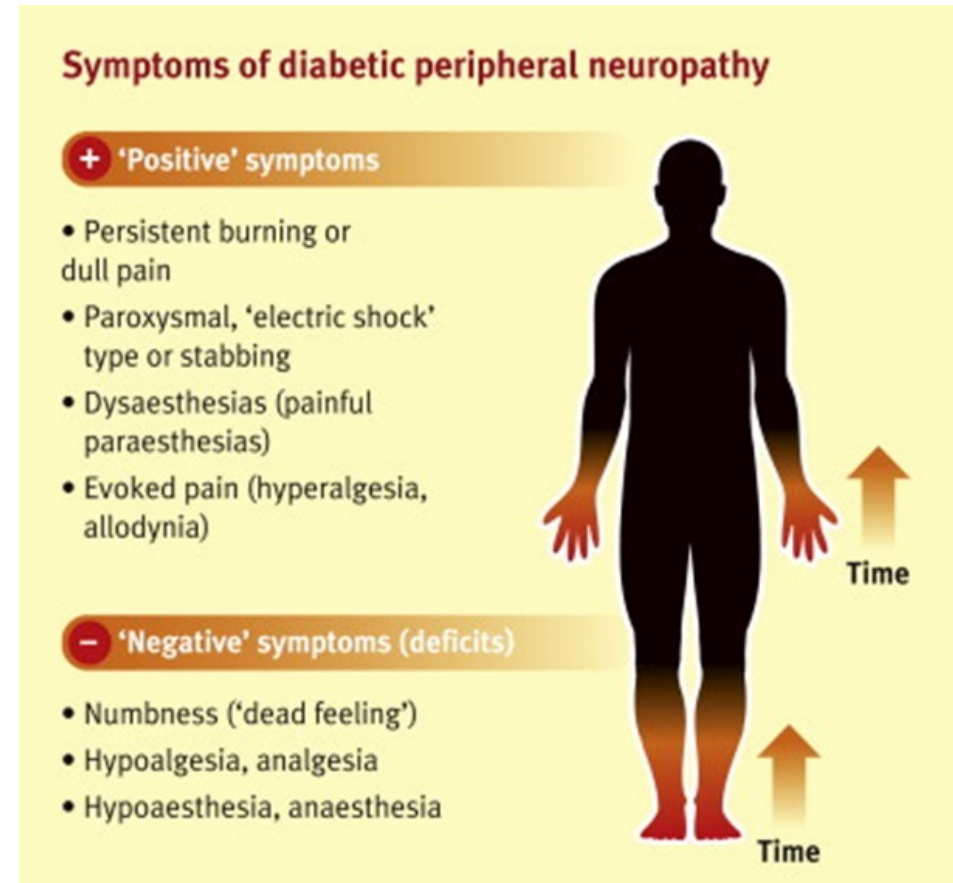


Rodica Pop-Busui et al. Dia Care 2017;40:136-154

# Background – Clinical Symptoms

- Early degeneration and loss of C fibers are evident in patients experiencing new-onset pain, burning, or prickling (dysesthesias) in their feet
  - Also exaggerated response to painful stimuli (hyperalgesia) and/or
  - pain evoked by contact with ordinarily unpainful stimuli such as socks, shoes, and bedclothes (allodynia)
- As the disease progresses, large fiber axonal loss eventually occurs, and patients experience numbness and loss of proprioception in the feet that travels upward over time.

*This distal-to-proximal axonal loss and its accompanying symptoms are the hallmark of diabetic neuropathy.*





# Background – Clinical caveats -Lack of symptoms &/or signs

- 25–30% of people with diabetes will experience DPN pain (heralding *early* disease)
  - Characteristically, the pain is burning, lancinating, tingling, or shooting (electric shock–like); occurs with paresthesias; presents in varying combinations; and is typically worse at night.
  - Neuropathic pain may be present in individuals with newly diagnosed diabetes or even prediabetes
    - Consider screening patients with prediabetes who have symptoms of peripheral neuropathy.
  - Neuropathic pain may be present even in the absence of any neurological deficits
    - And with normal nerve conduction studies (NCS) (better at detecting large fiber deficits)
- DPN pain may be underreported
  - Some individuals may not voluntarily report some symptoms to their health care providers because of a variety of sociocultural factors
- Some people with DPN do not have pain

Women, members of some racial/ethnic minority groups, and individuals with type 2 diabetes appear to be at greater risk for developing DPN pain

# Asymptomatic DPN

- Up to half of all people with DPN may be either asymptomatic or reluctant to report some symptoms.
  - In such cases, **neurological deficits** may be discovered during a routine clinical examination (emphasizing the importance of screening exam)
- Other individuals with neuropathic symptoms may become *asymptomatic later* in the course of the disease, as they experience **severe sensory loss** in all types of nerve fibers and develop **insensate feet**.
  - A serious consequence of insensate feet is an increased risk for **painless injury**, leading to an increased risk for foot ulceration and amputation. For example,
    - objects lodged in the shoe, including a wrinkled stocking; unrecognized, increased pressure during walking and weight bearing; or
    - contact with very sharp or hot objects without the appropriate protection may produce blisters that erode through the skin and lead to more severe complications.
  - It is **the loss of the so-called “gift of pain”** that causes people with plantar neuropathic ulcers to unknowingly walk on their lesions, inducing chronicity that is frequently complicated by infection.



# Acute (Subacute) Painful Diabetic Neuropathy

“treatment-induced neuropathy of diabetes”

- It is characterized by very severe neuropathic symptoms that typically occur within 2–4 weeks (occasionally up to 6+ weeks) after the achievement of rapid and sustained glycemic control with insulin, oral antidiabetic agents, or dietary measures. (A1c drop of >2% over 3 months or >4% over 6 months) - may be induced by
  - acute weight loss or diabetes treatment (this variety of neuropathy was originally called “insulin neuritis”, but it can be precipitated by any treatment that rapidly improves glycemic control).
  - after normalization of blood glucose levels after simultaneous pancreas and kidney transplantation.
  - can follow an episode of ketoacidosis, and in young people, particularly females, it may be associated with eating disorders.
- Clinical presentation dominated by foot and lower-limb pain and progresses to constant burning dysesthesias and allodynia (small fiber) involving the legs in a stocking distribution. (Occasionally, the pain spreads to proximal sites, including the trunk)
- The prognosis of this acute form of painful neuropathy is good, typically with resolution of symptoms within 12 months.
  - However, pharmacological treatment of the severe symptoms is invariably required.
  - Despite the prominent pain, sensory loss may be mild or absent, there is no weakness, and reflexes are generally preserved.
- Can also have acute-onset autonomic symptoms (especially orthostatic hypotension)

# Background – Critical Points to Know

- DPN starts with the longest neurons and progresses
  - from distal → proximal
    - a specific symmetrical, distal-to-proximal pattern, starting at the tip of the toes and progressing proximally creating the typical “stocking-and-glove” clinical presentation
  - from “small fibers” (pain) → “large fibers” (loss of sensation & protection)
- Glucose is not the only factor contributing to nerve damage & loss
  - The metabolic syndrome components are critical factors

## KEY POINTS

- Early injury and loss of small fibers, susceptible to energy flux, occur in people with diabetes, resulting in symptomatic pain and burning in their feet.
- As the disease progresses, larger nerve fibers also become injured by the lack of energy sources, and individuals experience numbness and loss of position sense in their feet.
- These signs and symptoms progress from the feet upward into the leg and reflect a distal-to-proximal fiber loss that is the hallmark of diabetic neuropathy.

# Late Complications of DPN

- DPN is the most important cause of **foot ulceration**, and it is also a prerequisite in the development of **Charcot neuroarthropathy (CN)**.
  - Foot ulceration and CN are both recognized as **late complications** of DSPN.
  - These late complications **drive amputation risk** and **economic costs** of diabetic neuropathy and are also predictors of **mortality**.
  - Mortality risk: 11% by 30 d & 18% by 90 d postop – 50% + by 5 years (overall 5-year mortality rate ranging from 29% to 69% following minor amputations and from 52% to 80% for patients with major amputations)
    - Age >65, especially >75 – CKD – CAD – Cerebral Vascular Ds – PAD – HF – Depression
  - *It is unclear if amputation hastens death or is a marker of underlying disease severity*
- DPN is also a major contributor to **falls and fractures**
  - More advanced small- and large-fiber dysfunction, with loss of sensory, proprioception, temperature discrimination, and pain, all ultimately lead to unsteadiness, recurrent minor injuries, and an increased risk of falls
  - These recurrent minor injuries may further contribute to the pathogenesis of CN.



# Attention to Feet & Foot Care in DPN

- Due to a lack of treatments that target the underlying nerve damage, **prevention** is the key component of diabetes care.
- **Screening** for symptoms and signs of diabetic neuropathy is critical in clinical practice, as it may **detect the earliest stages** of neuropathy, enabling **early intervention**.

# ADA Standards of Care 2022: Neuropathy – Screening

- 12.15 All patients should be assessed for diabetic peripheral neuropathy starting at diagnosis of type 2 diabetes and 5 years after the diagnosis of type 1 diabetes and at least annually thereafter. B
- 12.16 Assessment for distal symmetric polyneuropathy should include a careful history and assessment of either *temperature or pinprick sensation (small fiber function)* and *vibration sensation* using a 128-Hz tuning fork (for large fiber function). All patients should have *annual 10-g monofilament testing to identify feet at risk for ulceration and amputation*. B

## When to screen for diabetic peripheral neuropathy

- **For type 1 diabetes**
  - Because diabetic peripheral neuropathy is uncommon within the first five years after onset of type 1 diabetes, annual screening for diabetic peripheral neuropathy should begin **after five years of diabetes diagnosis**.
  - For children with type 1 diabetes, screening should be done once the child is past puberty and has had diabetes for at least five years.
- **For type 2 diabetes**
  - For people with type 2 diabetes, screening for diabetic peripheral neuropathy **should begin right away, at diagnosis of diabetes**, and every year after that.

- Evaluate DPN-associated **small-fiber damage** by testing
  - pinprick sensation using a sharp object such as a safety pin
  - temperature threshold sensation with a cold metal object such as a tuning fork
- Evaluate DPN-associated **large-fiber damage** by assessing
  - vibration perception using a 128-Hz tuning fork
  - proprioception
  - light-touch pressure with a 10-g monofilament on the dorsal aspect of the great toe
  - bilateral ankle reflexes.



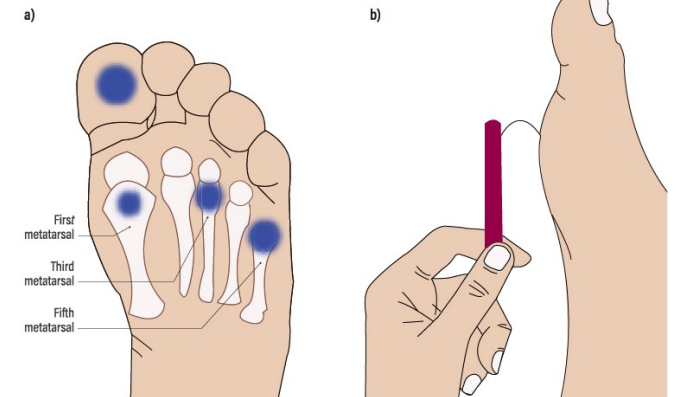
# Monofilament testing

- Clinicians should use a standardized 10-g instrument and should apply the monofilament at the *dorsal aspect of the great toe* to ensure standardized assessment.
  - Although the 10-g monofilament is arguably the most often used test to screen for DPN in routine care, its ***use alone is not recommended*** for effective ***screening or diagnosis***, as the loss of light-touch sensation occurs in *advanced stages* of neuropathy
    - relying solely on this test could miss opportunities to implement early preventive care measures in many people with DPN.
  - Sensation testing with pin [or temperature] and vibration is more sensitive.
- Clinicians should note that the 10-g monofilament test included for the annual *DPN screening and diagnosis* is different than the *diagnosis of the “high-risk foot” for ulceration* (detection of LOPS), a late DPN complication (testing 4 sites on planter surface)

ADA Standards suggest both are important



Figure 2. Monofilament testing sites and procedure





# Suggestions for doing a sensory exam

- All of these sensory modalities should be tested initially by application of the sensory stimulus to a body site where normal responses are expected, such as the forehead [*familiarity with what “it feels like”*]
- Then the stimulus is applied to the great toe and then moved proximally up the limb to the level where the sensation is felt to be normal.
- In addition, for many of these evaluations (e.g., vibration perception using a 128-Hz tuning fork or the 10-g monofilament) using a blinded, forced-choice testing procedure will reduce the potential for bias and increase the sensitivity of the evaluations.
  - This procedure involves applying a stimulus (either true vibration or just a touch with the tuning fork) at one of two times while a **patient’s eyes are closed** and then asking whether the patient felt the stimulus at time A or time B.
    - Those with sensation loss may choose the incorrect time or state that they did not feel the stimulus either time.
  - All of these assessments should follow the typical DPN pattern, ***starting distally (the dorsal aspect of the hallux) and moving proximally until a sensory threshold is identified***, with the same evaluations being performed on **both sides** to confirm a symmetrical, distal-to-proximal distribution
  - A combination of at **least two of these evaluations**, with at least ***one targeting small fibers and one targeting large fibers***, is recommended to screen for and diagnose DPN in routine clinical care

# Exam

The following clinical tests may be used to assess small- and large-fiber function distal to proximal:

- Small-fiber function: pinprick and temperature sensation
- Large-fiber function: vibration perception, proprioception, 10-g monofilament, and ankle reflexes

# DPN Diagnosis

- These tests not only screen for the presence of dysfunction but also predict future risk of complications.
- The diagnosis of DPN/DSPN is principally a clinical one.
  - A combination of typical symptomatology and symmetrical distal sensory loss or typical signs in the absence of symptoms in a patient with diabetes is highly suggestive of DPN
    - As up to half of the patients may be asymptomatic, a diagnosis may only be made on examination or, in some cases, when the patient presents with a painless foot ulcer.
  - Electrophysiologic testing or referral to a neurologist is *rarely needed* except in situations where the clinical features are atypical, or the diagnosis is unclear.
  - In all patients with diabetes and DPN, causes of neuropathy other than diabetes should be *considered*, including toxins (e.g., alcohol), neurotoxic medications (e.g., chemotherapy), vitamin B12 deficiency (~30% of patients on metformin), hypothyroidism, renal disease, malignancies (e.g., multiple myeloma, bronchogenic carcinoma), infections (e.g., HIV), chronic inflammatory demyelinating neuropathy and vasculitis.

DPN can occur with other causes of peripheral neuropathy

# When to Refer

- Although the norm in clinical care historically was to refer people with suspected DPN to a neurologist and to order electrophysiological testing to confirm the diagnosis, more recent evidence has shown that **these measures *are not necessary*** except in specific cases in which clinical features are atypical, onset is abrupt, and a different etiology is suspected
  - Specialized ***electrophysiological testing is usually not cost-effective***
    - high associated costs and typically long waiting times would place unnecessary additional burden on both people with DPN and the health care system.
- A timely *referral to a neurologist* should be made in *atypical cases* involving
  - asymmetrical distribution of symptoms and clinical signs,
  - a motor predominance, or
  - an acute onset and rapid progression of signs such as severe weakness

# ADA Standards of Care 2022: Neuropathy – Treatment

- 12.18 Optimize glucose control to prevent or delay the development of neuropathy in patients with type 1 diabetes (A) and to slow the progression of neuropathy in patients with type 2 diabetes (B)
- 12.19 Assess and treat patients to reduce pain B

## Recommendations

- Consider either **pregabalin** or **duloxetine** as the initial approach in the symptomatic treatment for neuropathic pain in diabetes. A
  - Both have received regulatory approval for treatment of neuropathy
- **Gabapentin** may also be used as an effective initial approach, taking into account patients' socioeconomic status, comorbidities, and potential drug interactions. B
- Although not approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration, **tricyclic antidepressants** are also effective for neuropathic pain in diabetes but should be used with caution given the higher risk of serious side effects. B
- Given the high risks of addiction and other complications, the use of **opioids**, including tapentadol or tramadol, is ***not recommended*** as first- or second-line agents for treating the pain associated with DSPN. E
  - The opioid, tapentadol, has regulatory approval in the U.S. and Canada, but the evidence of its use is weaker

**Nonpharmacological therapies:**

- Health behavior interventions
  - Exercise
  - Reduced sedentary behavior
  - Dietary modification
- Energy or nerve stimulation
  - High-frequency (10-kHz) spinal cord stimulation\*



**Topical treatment:**

- Capsaicin 8% patch\*



**PERSON WITH PAINFUL DPN**

Exclude other causes of neuropathy  
Aim for good and stable glycoemic control



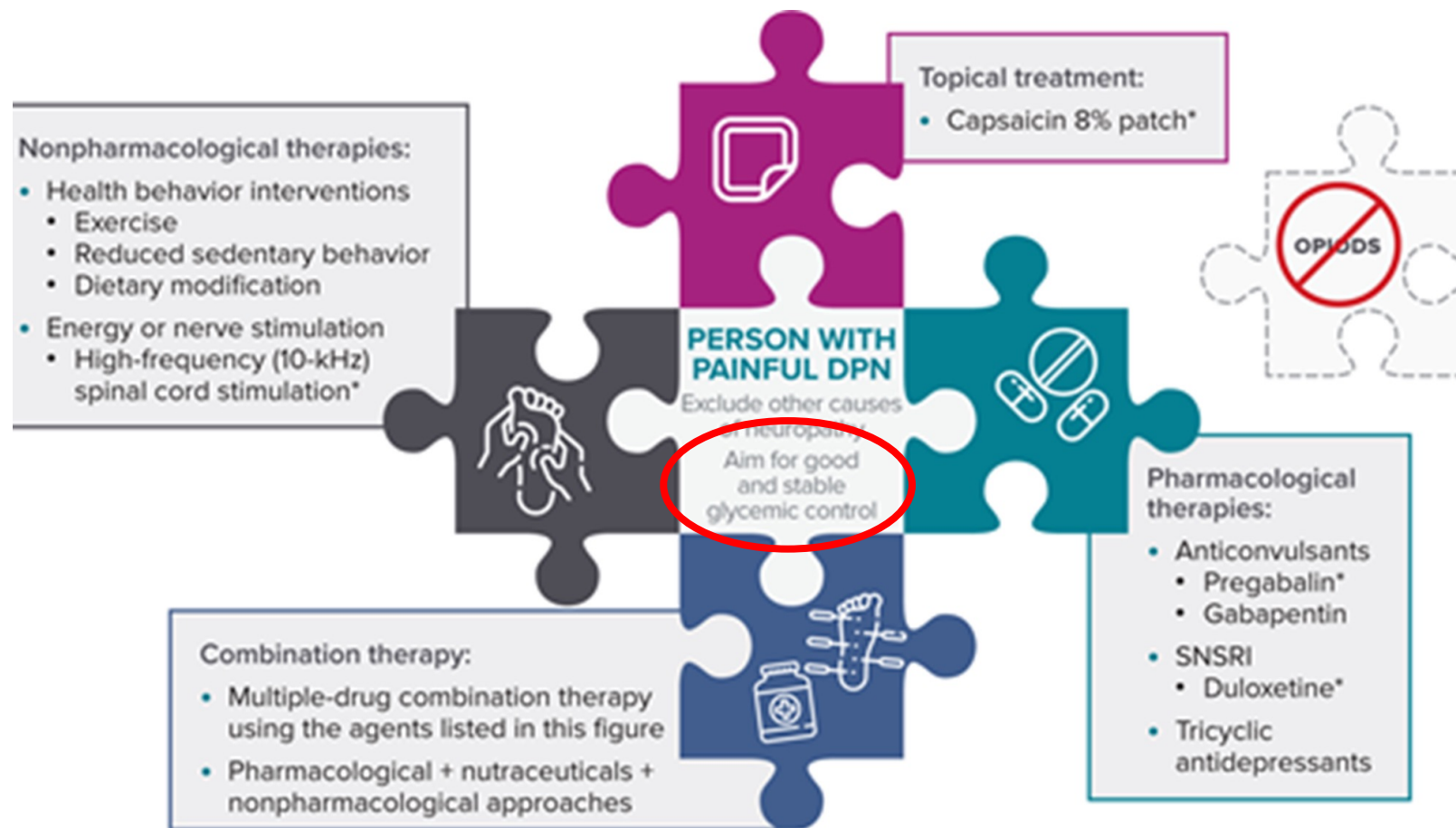
**Pharmacological therapies:**

- Anticonvulsants
  - Pregabalin\*
  - Gabapentin
- SNSRI
  - Duloxetine\*
- Tricyclic antidepressants

**Combination therapy:**

- Multiple-drug combination therapy using the agents listed in this figure
- Pharmacological + nutraceuticals + nonpharmacological approaches





### AAN guidelines for DPN

- Updated 2021
- “the recommended drugs and topical treatments in this guideline *may not eliminate pain*, but they have been shown to *reduce pain*”
- “if one treatment class doesn’t work try a different one, but do not use opioids.”

<https://www.aan.com/Guidelines/home/GuidelineDetail/1037>

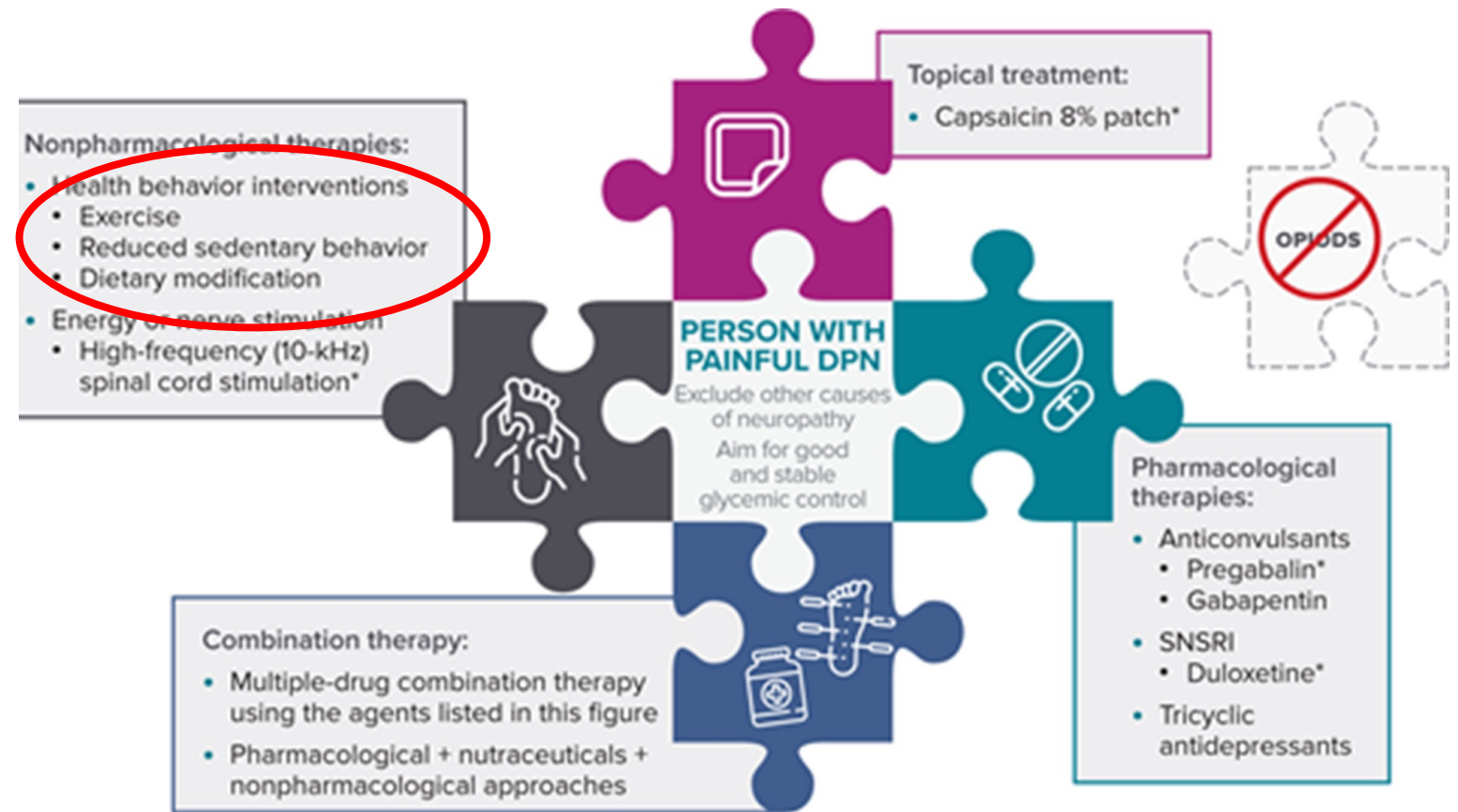
### “Aim for good & stable glycemic control” (Reduction in glucose variability)

- Studies suggested that stable glycemic control with few excursions into hyperglycemia or hypoglycemia was associated with *reduced pain scores*
- the **stability of glycemic control** may be more important than the actual level of control, as indicated by A1C, in the management of painful DPN.



Pro-inflammatory cytokines and free fatty acids released from enlarged adipocytes are neurotoxic to axons.

- Recommend a calorie-restricted diet high in anti-oxidants & plants (such as the DPP curriculum or Mediterranean diet) \*



**Exercise** is perhaps the only intervention shown to improve the **regenerative capacity of small-diameter cutaneous sensory axons** in people with metabolic syndrome and those with diabetes.

- increase in intraepidermal nerve fiber density & regenerative capacity
- randomized trials of scheduled aerobic exercise using modes such as cycling, treadmill, and progressive walking programs have reported *significant improvement in pain scale scores, pain interference measures, and/or quality-of-life metrics*
- anti-sedentary behavioral modification is an alluring future research direction for DPN



# Alpha-Lipoic Acid

- Not recommended in guidelines in US or Canada (but in guidelines in other countries)
  - ALA is suggested as an option in the ADA Clinical Compendia on Painful DPN
- Some studies show symptom relief in painful DPN using IV or oral ALA; some show improvement in neuropathy (in deficits) – (usually 600 mg QD but can increase to BID or TID if <30% improvement in pain)
- **Systematic Review** (Abubaker S A, Alonazy A M, Abdulrahman A (June 08, 2022) Effect of Alpha-Lipoic Acid in the Treatment of Diabetic Neuropathy: A Systematic Review. Cureus 14(6): e25750. doi:10.7759/cureus.25750)
  - ***Eight studies comprising 1,500 diabetic patients*** were evaluated in this systematic review. The ***findings were inconsistent*** among the literature concerning the effectiveness of  $\alpha$ -lipoic acid in the treatment of diabetic neuropathy, with
    - three trials (37.5%) observing significant improvements in symptoms and
    - five trials (62.5%) not observing any notable results.
  - All studies found  $\alpha$ -lipoic acid to be a safe and tolerable intervention, with no reported adverse effects.
  - The administration of  $\alpha$ -lipoic acid may result in symptom reduction and offers a safe and tolerable treatment option.
    - However, there is *limited evidence* to support the beneficial outcomes of this approach.
    - Further trials are warranted to corroborate or contradict the hypothesis that  $\alpha$ -lipoic acid is an effective intervention for the treatment of diabetic neuropathy.

# Key Points - Summary

- DPN starts bilaterally with the longest neurons and progresses from distal to proximal (stocking-glove) and from “small fibers” (pain) to “large fibers” (loss of sensation & protection)
- Glycemia is not the only factor; Met Sn components are critical factors for the development of DPN
- DPN assessment should be performed annually starting at diagnosis for type 2 diabetes and 5 years after the diagnosis for type 1 diabetes.
  - People with prediabetes and young people with symptoms or signs of DPN should also be screened.
- Assessment should include a detailed history and at least two sensation and reflex tests.
  - Not all patients with DPN have pain – exam is critical for detection
  - Electrophysiological testing is rarely needed for people with typical signs and symptoms.
  - A complex differential is recommended, and ambiguous or atypical cases should be referred to a neurologist and/or have additional testing.
- Stabilizing glycemia (reducing glucose variability) can sometimes help improve pain
- Regular aerobic, strengthening, and balance exercise, alone or in combination; reduction of sedentary behavior; and dietary modification aimed at reducing calorie intake and increasing plant-based foods and polyunsaturated fats have all demonstrated positive outcomes for individuals with DPN.
- Effective pharmacological therapies for painful DPN include anti-epileptic agents (pregabalin and gabapentin) and anti-depressants (duloxetine and tricyclics), although often effective pain reduction requires higher doses that may be less tolerated or have a higher incidence of adverse effects.
  - For those with severe painful symptoms not responding to a single agent, combination therapy with two to three agents may be effective at much lower doses, as well as combinations of pharmacological and nonpharmacological approaches.
    - Caution in older patients and note autonomic neuropathy/ CAN is common in patients with DPN – increased orthostatic hypotension
- Avoid treatment with opioids

# Post-question

Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy in people with T2D

- A. Is almost entirely due to effects of hyperglycemia
- B. Is always associated with neuropathic pain
- C. Is usually symmetric and progresses from most distal to proximal
- D. Requires nerve conduction studies for diagnosis

Extra Slides

**Nearly 50% of diabetes patients develop diabetic peripheral neuropathy (DPN) & 20% of type 2 diabetes patients have DPN *at diabetes presentation***

- Diabetes is the most common cause of peripheral neuropathy, accounting for 50% of cases.
- Most patients with *non-diabetic* neuropathy have ***cryptogenic sensory peripheral neuropathy (CSPN)***.
  - A growing body of literature ***links prediabetes, obesity and metabolic syndrome*** to the risk of both DPN and CSPN. This association might be particularly strong in type 2 diabetes patients.
- There are no effective medical treatments for CSPN or DPN
  - ***Aggressive glycemic control*** is an effective approach to neuropathy risk reduction ***only in type 1 diabetes***
  - Several studies ***suggest lifestyle-based treatments that integrate dietary counseling with exercise*** might be a promising therapeutic approach ***to early DPN in type 2 diabetes and CSPN associated with prediabetes, obesity and metabolic syndrome.***

# Risk factors for diabetic peripheral neuropathy

- High blood sugar levels
  - poor glycemic control in patients with type 1 or type 2 diabetes
- Cardiovascular disease risk factors including
  - smoking
  - hypertension
  - dyslipidemia, including isolated hypertriglyceridemia
  - obesity

## **MetS accelerates the rate of DPN *progression* in patients with established diabetes**

- Obesity, hypertriglyceridemia and MetS were independent risk factors for early DPN independent of glycemic control
  - Obesity and triglycerides correlated with loss in IENFD (small unmyelinated axons),
  - Elevated hemoglobin A1C correlated with motor conduction velocity slowing on NCS (large myelinated axons),
  - Suggesting obesity and MetS might preferentially injure small fibers, whereas hyperglycemia might differentially impact large fibers

**Treatment must extend beyond treatment of hyperglycemia and should be started as early in the disease course as possible.**

- **MetS**, particularly *hypertriglyceridemia and obesity*, play a central role in peripheral nerve injury
- The most obvious therapeutic strategy *is treatment of the underlying metabolic changes*
- The timing of treatment is also likely to be important, once established, neuropathy is difficult to reverse (can stabilize but not reverse)
  - CSPN-MetS is often painful, facilitating early recognition
  - Unmyelinated C fibers *regenerate* with much greater ease than large diameter fibers. Therefore, this population represents an ideal opportunity to explore potential therapeutic approaches.



# Lifestyle-based Intervention for DPN

- The Impaired Glucose Tolerance Neuropathy Study utilized a lifestyle-based intervention with target ***weight loss of 7% and increased weekly exercise of at least 150 min for 1 year*** (per the Diabetes Prevention Program protocol)
  - Both objective (QSART and IENFD) and subjective (visual analog pain scale) measures showed that **metabolic improvement was associated with small nerve fiber improvement**. (intraepidermal nerve fiber density (IENFD) allows the morphological quantification of the unmyelinated C-fibers)
  - After 1 year of therapy, there was a significant improvement in IENFD and foot sweat volume using QSART
- After the lifestyle modification regimen, there was a ***significant improvement in axon regeneration rate*** (from 0.51 to 0.72 fibers/mm,  $P < 0.002$ ). Those who achieved ***improvement in more MetS criteria experienced a greater degree of improvement***.
- These findings suggest that lifestyle modification exerts its positive effect at least in part through ***improvement in the ability of axons to regenerate***.

# The effect of treating multiple metabolic risk factors on DPN

- The Steno-2 study randomized patients with type 2 diabetes to a ***multifactorial pharmacologic approach*** addressing hyperglycemia, hypertension, dyslipidemia and smoking cessation or simply to conventional therapy.
  - After 8 years of follow up, patients in the intervention arm had more marked reduction in hemoglobin A1c, systolic and diastolic blood pressure, serum cholesterol and triglycerides, and urine albumin excretion, with a nearly 50% reduction in the risk of cardiovascular and microvascular events.
  - Those in the conventional therapy group were also twice as likely to develop autonomic neuropathy compared with those in the treatment cohort
- An alternative approach to pharmacological treatment of multiple individual risk factors is implementation of ***lifestyle-based strategies aimed at improving diet, increasing exercise and reducing weight***

# Lifestyle interventions for DPN

- The best models to date regarding parameters for an evidence-based, intensive lifestyle intervention come from the Diabetes Prevention Program (DPP), the Steno-2 Study, the Italian supervised treadmill study, and the University of Utah type 2 diabetes study.
  - The latter study recently reported ***nerve fiber regeneration*** in patients with type 2 diabetes engaged in an exercise program compared with loss of nerve fibers in those who only followed standard of care.
  - Overall, such an approach focuses on either exercise alone (supervised aerobic and/or resistance training) or combined dietary modification and exercise.
  - There is no consensus regarding dietary regimens, and although the DPP used a low-calorie, low-fat diet, others have championed a Mediterranean diet that is moderately lower in carbohydrate (45%) and higher in fat (35%–40%), with less than 10% of saturated fat

# Effects of Sedentary Behavior

- Sedentary lifestyle is a major source of morbidity and a contributor to all-cause mortality in the general population.
  - It is associated with ***increased waist circumference, elevated lipid and cholesterol levels, and decreased glycemic control***
  - Prolonged sitting contributes to ***insulin resistance, even in the setting of reduced caloric intake***
  - The limited use and contraction of postural support muscles also leads to ***reduced glucose uptake, unbalanced regulation of lipoprotein lipase, increased free fatty acid formation and toxic lipid secretion by the liver***
- An alternative approach to exercise-based lifestyle modification is to integrate strategies to reduce sedentary behavior.

# “Metabolic Neuropathy”

- Patients with MetS and prediabetes are at elevated risk for CSPN, and CSPN patients are at increased risk for MetS and prediabetes.
- It has been suggested that CSPN-MetS and early DPN associated with type 2 diabetes represent a common disorder, which might be termed '*metabolic neuropathy*'.
- Although no pharmacological agent has been found to alter the natural history of DPN or CSPN-MetS, *exercise-based lifestyle modification* regimens have consistently shown promising results, likely because of enhanced peripheral nerve *regenerative* capacity.
- Although this approach might not be sustainable for many patients, integrating *strategies to reduce sedentary behavior* represent a promising alternative approach, as does *pharmacological treatment aimed at weight loss and improved insulin sensitivity*.

# References / Resources

- <https://diabetesjournals.org/compedia/article/2022/1/1/147001/Diagnosis-and-Treatment-of-Painful-Diabetic>
- [Oral and Topical Treatment of Painful Diabetic Polyneuropathy: Practice Guideline Update Summary | Neurology](#)
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[https://diabetesjournals.org/care/issue/45/Supplement\\_1](https://diabetesjournals.org/care/issue/45/Supplement_1)
- Treatment Induced (acute) DN  
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4285188/>

- [https://diabetesjournals.org/journals/pages/pdn\\_podcasts](https://diabetesjournals.org/journals/pages/pdn_podcasts) ADA podcast series on diabetic peripheral neuropathy
- <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6977405/#B82> – ADA 2015 position paper on diabetic neuropathy
- [https://diabetesjournals.org/DocumentLibrary/Compendia/ada\\_2022\\_neuropathy\\_compendium\\_fin-web.pdf](https://diabetesjournals.org/DocumentLibrary/Compendia/ada_2022_neuropathy_compendium_fin-web.pdf) ADA monograph Diagnosis & Treatment of Painful Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy

- Diabetes Care. 2017 Jan; 40(1): 136–154.
- Published online 2016 Dec 10. doi: 10.2337/dc16-2042
- PMCID: PMC6977405
- PMID: 27999003
- Diabetic Neuropathy: A Position Statement by the American Diabetes Association
- Rodica Pop-Busui, corresponding author<sup>1</sup> Andrew J.M. Boulton,<sup>2</sup> Eva L. Feldman,<sup>3</sup> Vera Bril,<sup>4</sup> Roy Freeman,<sup>5</sup> Rayaz A. Malik,<sup>6</sup> Jay M. Sosenko,<sup>7</sup> and Dan Ziegler<sup>8</sup>



- *“Oral and topical treatment of painful diabetic polyneuropathy practice guideline update summary,”* which was published in Neurology<sup>®</sup> online on December 27, 2021, and appears in the January 4, 2022, print issue. Please refer to the full guideline at [AAN.com/guidelines](https://www.aan.com/guidelines) for more information, including for descriptions of the processes for classifying evidence, deriving conclusions, and making recommendations.

# Practical Neurology 01.04.22

## AAN Guidelines for Diabetic Neuropathy Updated

The guideline recommends treatments from the following drug classes for nerve pain:

- tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs)
  - amitriptyline
  - nortriptyline
  - imipramine
- serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs)
  - duloxetine
  - venlafaxine
  - desvenlafaxine
- gabapentinoids
  - gabapentin
  - pregabalin
- sodium channel blockers
  - carbamazepine
  - oxcarbazepine
  - lamotrigine
- lacosamide

- Supervised exercise improves cutaneous reinnervation capacity in metabolic syndrome patients
- J. Robinson Singleton MD, Robin L. Marcus PhD, Margaret K. Lessard BS, Justin E. Jackson MS, A. Gordon Smith MD
- First published: 12 November 2014  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/ana.24310>Citations: 67

- <https://drc.bmj.com/content/8/1/e001355> - Survival and factors predicting mortality after major and minor lower-extremity amputations among patients with diabetes: a population-based study using health information systems
- Silvia Cascini<sup>1</sup>, <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3385-1197>Nera Agabiti<sup>1</sup>, Marina Davoli<sup>1</sup>, Luigi Uccioli<sup>2</sup>, Marco Meloni<sup>2</sup>, Laura Giurato<sup>2</sup>, Claudia Marino<sup>1</sup>, Anna Maria Bargagli<sup>1</sup>
- Thorud JC, Plemmons B, Buckley CJ, et al. Mortality After Nontraumatic Major Amputation Among Patients With Diabetes and Peripheral Vascular Disease: A Systematic Review. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 2016;55:591–9. doi:10.1053/j.jfas.2016.01.012 pmid:<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26898398>

# Mortality after LEA

- A recent review considering long-term mortality after LEA reported an overall mortality rate of 48%, 61%, and 71%, at 1-year, 2-year, and 3-year follow-up, respectively, among patients with diabetes and peripheral vascular disease
- Of the individuals 33% with major LEA died within 1 year and 65% within 4 years after the amputation. Among subjects enrolled after minor LEA, mortality rates at 1 and 4 years were 18% and 45%, respectively (data not shown). The median survival time varied significantly by age class for both groups of patients. In particular, among subjects with a major LEA, the survival time ranged from 30.6 months for the age group 35–54 to 16.8 months for those aged 85 years and older. Among subjects with a minor LEA, the median survival times were 38.4 months and 24.4 months for the age groups 35–54 and 85 years and older, respectively (online supplementary figure S1). Survival rate at 1 year after major LEA was 69% among men and 61% among women, decreasing to 35% and 31%, respectively, after 4 years. For patients who underwent minor LEA, the survival rate at 1 year was 83% among men and 79% among women, and 60% and 53%, respectively, for men and women after 4 years
- A recent systematic review reported an overall 5-year mortality rate ranging from 29% to 69% following minor amputations and from 52% to 80% for patients with major amputations

# Spinal Cord Stimulators for painful DPN

- [Spinal cord stimulation advances therapy for painful diabetic peripheral neuropathy \(healio.com\)](#)
- [FDA approves spinal cord stimulation for diabetic peripheral neuropathy chronic pain \(healio.com\)](#)