

**“LIPID PROFILE IN DIABETIC RETINOPATHY
IN TYPE 2 DIABETIC MELLITUS”**

By

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OPHTHALMOLOGY

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CSME	-	Clinically significant macular edema
CWS	-	Cotton Wool spot
DM	-	Diabetes Mellitus
DR	-	Diabetic Retinopathy
DME	-	Diabetic Macular Edema
NPDR	-	Non proliferative Diabetic Retinopathy
DRS	-	Diabetic Retinopathy Study
ETDRS	-	Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy Study
H/Ma	-	Hemorrhage/microaneurysm
IOP	-	Intra ocular pressure
IRMA	-	Intra retinal microvascular abnormalities
IDDM	-	Insulin dependent diabetes mellitus
NIDDM	-	Non insulin dependent diabetes mellitus
NPDR	-	Non proliferative diabetic retinopathy
NVD	-	New Vessels on disc
NVE	-	New vessels elsewhere in the retina.
OCT	-	Optical Coherence Tomography
PDR	-	Proliferative diabetic retinopathy
PRP	-	Pan Retinal Photocoagulation
RD	-	Retinal detachment
VEGF	-	Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor
WESDR	-	Wisconsin Epidemiologic Study of Diabetic Retinopathy

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ABSTRACT

Background and Objective:

Diabetic retinopathy (DR) remains a leading cause of visual disability and blindness. It is a major microvascular complication of diabetes and is frequently accompanied by lipid exudation. Dyslipidemia leads to development of hard exudates and Clinically Significant Macular Edema (CSME). These, in turn, interfere with vision. The elevated lipid levels are associated with endothelial dysfunction which appears to play an important role in the pathogenesis of Diabetic Retinopathy, particularly in relation to breakdown of blood-retinal barrier. The current study was undertaken to determine the association of serum lipid profile with diabetic retinopathy and its severity. In the present study, 164 patients having type II diabetes mellitus of age group ranging from 30 to 80 years were studied. The patients were categorized with respect to the presence or absence of diabetic retinopathy. In the group having retinopathy, patients were subcategorized depending on the severity / grade of retinopathy and presence or absence of CSME. All the three groups had a near equal sex distribution with only a slight male predominance. A significant correlation was found between the patient age and diabetic retinopathy. In the present study, the duration since diagnosis of diabetes (diabetic age) ranged from 5 - 25 years. It is found that patients with retinopathy significantly had a longer mean duration of diabetes as compared to those diabetics without retinopathy. Most of the diabetics included in the study had poor glycemic control suggested raised FBS and PPBS levels.

The present study showed statistically significant correlation between diabetic retinopathy and raised total cholesterol level . Hypercholesterolemia was significantly

associated with the occurrence of diabetic retinopathy and CSME. Mean serum total cholesterol concentrations were higher in subjects with severe NPDR, very severe NPDR and PDR as compared with subjects without DR. No correlation was found between diabetic retinopathy and visual acuity. Thus, this study reinforces the observation that there is a strong association between dyslipidemia and diabetic retinopathy including CSME.

AIM AND OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY:

To study the relationship between diabetic retinopathy in type 2 diabetic mellitus and serum lipid levels.

METHODS:

All type 2 diabetic mellitus patients with diabetic retinopathy attending outpatient department of Ophthalmology at B.L.D.E. University's ShriB.M.Patil Medical College Hospital and Research Centre, Bijapur Karnataka from December 2014 - May 2016 fulfilling the inclusion and exclusion criteria.

RESULTS:

Diabetic retinopathy and its severity was dependent on the control of diabetes and dyslipidemia among the patients. Dyslipidemia played a role in the pathogenesis of diabetic retinopathy. The total cholesterol level of patients with different diabetic retinopathies were high($p=0.001$). The LDL value were also significantly high in subjects($p<0.001$). triglyceride level showed a rise with the severity of diabetic retinopathy($p=0.004$).Diabetes and dyslipidemia predispose to the pathogenesis and progression of diabetic retinopathy.

INTERPRETATION AND CONCLUSION:

There was significant correlation between total cholesterol, triglyceride, and low density lipoprotein , and severity of diabetic retinopathy.

Key Words : Diabetes Mellitus, Diabetic Retinopathy, Lipid Profile.

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes is a group of metabolic diseases characterized by hyperglycemia resulting from defect in insulin secretion, insulin action or both. It is a single most important disease which can affect nearly every organ system of the body.¹

Diabetes is the commonest metabolic abnormality in the humans.² Type 2 diabetes is the commonest form of diabetes constituting nearly 90% of the diabetic population.³ India with the largest number of diabetic subjects earned the title Diabetes capital of the world.

Diabetic retinopathy is a very common, potentially preventable, long-term, microvascular complication of Diabetes Mellitus and a leading cause of visual disability and blindness.⁴ It is considered the hallmark of generalized microangiopathy occurring in a diabetic patient. In India the prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in general population is 3.5%, and the prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in the population with diabetes mellitus was 18.0%. In a population-based study in South India, diabetic retinopathy was detected in 1.78% of the diabetic patients screened.⁵⁻⁶

While there are multiple risk factors which have been associated with the development and progression of diabetic retinopathy, the duration of the disease and the age of the patient are said to be the strongest predictors. Other risk factors like hypertension, pregnancy, blood glucose level control and presence of nephropathy are shown to have a strong association. Dyslipidemia, microalbuminuria, BMI and smoking are some of the factors whose role as predictors of diabetic retinopathy is not well established.⁷⁻⁹

Diabetic retinopathy is frequently accompanied by lipid exudation.¹⁰ Elevated serum lipid levels are associated with an increased risk of retinal hard exudate in persons with diabetic retinopathy. Although retinal hard exudate usually accompanies diabetic macular edema, increasing amounts of exudate appear to be independently associated with an increased risk of visual impairment.¹¹ The elevated lipid levels are also associated with endothelial dysfunction, which appears to play an important role in the pathogenesis of diabetic retinopathy, particularly in relation to the breakdown of blood-retinal barrier.

The association between serum lipid levels and diabetic retinopathy has been investigated in few studies. Some studies show a positive relationship between serum cholesterol and low-density lipoprotein levels and retinal hard exudation. Other studies show serum triglyceride levels as being important in the progression of retinopathy. Certain other studies show no relationship between serum lipid levels and diabetic retinopathy.¹²

The current study was undertaken to determine the association of serum lipid profile with diabetic retinopathy and its severity. The conflicting reports in the literature regarding the association between serum lipid levels and diabetic retinopathy and the paucity of studies relative to the existing case load warranted this study.

AIM AND OBJECTIVES

To study the relationship between diabetic retinopathy in type 2 diabetic mellitus and serum lipid levels.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

- Cetin EN. et al. studied the association of serum lipid levels with diabetic retinopathy. They found that no significant association between serum lipids and the severity of diabetic retinopathy.¹³
- According to Report 22 of Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy Study (ETDRS) the serum lipid profile measured in the 2709 patients enrolled showed that patients with elevated total serum cholesterol levels or serum low-density lipoprotein cholesterol levels at baseline were twice as likely to have retinal hard exudates as patients with normal levels. These patients were also at higher risk of developing hard exudate during the course of the study. The risk of losing visual acuity was associated with the extent of hard exudate even after adjusting for the extent of macular edema.¹⁴
- Gupta et al. studied 350 subjects with type 2 diabetes who were randomly selected for the study during the period of January 2003 to December 2003. The eye examination was scheduled in the first visit protocol, along with other screening of macro and microangiopathy. Diabetic retinopathy was detected in 119/350 cases [34%]. Diabetics with raised LDL-C (>130mg%) showed higher prevalence of Diabetic retinopathy (38%) compared to others.(28.3%) (p=0.05).¹⁵
- Al-Bdour et al. studied risk factors associated with diabetic retinopathy among diabetic patients. A total of 986 patients with diabetes mellitus were assessed with detailed relevant history, complete medical and ophthalmic evaluation. Out of the 1961 eyes examined, 64.1 percent had one form of diabetic retinopathy; 54.8 percent had nonproliferative diabetic retinopathy (NPDR), 9.3 percent had proliferative diabetic retinopathy (PDR) and 30.8 percent had maculopathy. The study showed a positive relation between diabetic retinopathy and hypercholesterolemia in which it was significantly associated with the development of maculopathy (p=0.04), but not NPDR(0.192) or PDR(0.364).¹⁶
- Ucgun et al. studied the lipid profile in 54 patients with NPDR, 27 patients with exudative diabetic macular edema and 27 patients without exudative diabetic

macular edema and found that total serum cholesterol and LDL levels were elevated in patients with macular edema and high hard exudates. Triglyceride, HDL, VLDL levels were not different between the two groups.¹⁷

- Sharma P K. et al. studied the lipid profile in diabetics with and without retinopathy. They found that Diabetics showed significantly raised levels of total and LDL cholesterol, (257.0 ± 68.88 mg% 173.5 ± 67.7 mg% respectively) compared to controls matched with age, sex and socioeconomic status. No significant difference was observed in these parameters in diabetics with and without retinopathy.¹⁸
- Association of elevated serum lipids with increased risk of progression to high risk Proliferative Diabetic Retinopathy(PDR) as well as their association with increased hard exudates and decreased visual acuity should provide additional motivation for lowering the frequently elevated lipid levels of diabetic patients.¹⁹
- In a study done by Iiechie AA.et al. no significant association between serum lipids with diabetic retinopathy in type 2 diabetic mellitus patients.²⁰

DIABETES MELLITUS

Diabetes mellitus (DM) refers to a group of common metabolic disorders that share the phenotype of hyperglycemia.

It is defined as a group of metabolic diseases that are characterized by hyperglycemia resulting from defects in insulin secretion, insulin action or both.

Diabetes may present with symptoms suggestive of hyperglycemia such as polyuria, polydipsia, polyphagia, and weight loss or may present with one of the acute or chronic complications or may be detected incidentally in hospitalized patients.

Diabetes may be seen intermittently only as in pregnancy.

CLASSIFICATION²¹

Diabetes mellitus is the most prevalent metabolic and non-communicable disorder in the world. There has been a lack of uniformity in manifestation, complications, management and genetics. This has led to epidemiological agencies to put forth varieties of classifications for this syndrome of chronic hyperglycemia.

I. Type 1 diabetes (beta cell destruction, usually leading to absolute insulin deficiency)

a) Immune mediated

b) Idiopathic

II. Type 2 diabetes (may range predominantly insulin resistance with relative insulin deficiency to a predominantly insulin secretory defect with insulin resistance)

III. Other specific types of diabetes

A. Genetic defects of beta cell function characterized by mutations in :

1. Hepatocyte nuclear transcription factor (HNF)4alpha (MODY 1)
2. Glucokinase (MODY 2)
3. HNF-1 alpha (MODY 3)
4. Insulin promoter factor-1 (IPF-1: MODY 4)
5. HNF-1beta (MODY 5)
6. Neuro D1 (MODY 6)
7. Mitochondrial DNA
8. Subunits of ATP sensitive potassium channel
9. Proinsulin or insulin

B. Genetic defects in Insulin action

1. Type A insulin resistance
2. Leprechaunism
3. Rabson-Mendenall syndrome
4. Lipodystrophy syndromes

C. Diseases of the exocrine pancreas- pancreatitis, pancreatectomy, neoplasia, cystic fibrosis, haemochromatosis, fibrocalculous pancreatopathy mutations in carboxyl ester lipase.

D. Endocrinopathies – acromegaly, cushing's syndrome, glucagonoma, pheochromocytoma, hyperthyroidism, somatostatinoma, aldosteronoma.

E. Drug or chemical induced- glucocorticoids, pentamidine, nicotinic acid, Beta adrenergic agonists, thiazides, alpha interferons, protease inhibitors, anti psychotics (Atypicals and others)

F. Infections- congenital rubella, cytomegalovirus, coxsackie virus

G. Uncommon forms of immune mediated diabetes – “Stiff person” syndrome, anti-insulin receptor antibodies.

H. Other genetic syndromes sometimes associated with diabetes- Wolfram's

syndrome, Down's syndrome, Klinefelter's syndrome, Turner's syndrome, Friedreich's ataxia, Huntington's chorea, Laurence –Moon Biedl syndrome, myotonic dystrophy, PraderWilli syndrome

IV. Gestational diabetes Mellitus (GDM)

DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA FOR DIABETES MELLITUS:

The International Expert Committee with members appointed by the American Diabetes Association (ADA), the European Association for the study of Diabetes and the International Diabetes Federation has issued diagnostic criteria for Diabetes mellitus based on the following premises:

- 1) The Fasting Plasma Glucose, the response to an oral glucose challenge (OGTT-oral glucose tolerance test) and HbA1c differ among individuals and
- 2) Diabetes mellitus is defined as the level of glycemia at which diabetes specific complications occur rather than on deviations from a population based mean.

Criteria for the diagnosis of Diabetes Mellitus:²¹

- 1) A random blood glucose concentration $> 200\text{mg/dl}$ (11.1 mmol/l) accompanied by classic symptoms of diabetes mellitus (polyuria, polydipsia, weight loss). (Random is defined as without regard to time since last meal.)

OR

- 2) Fasting plasma glucose (FPG) $> 126\text{ mg/dl}$ (7.0 mmol/l) (Fasting is defined as no caloric intake for at least 8 hours).

OR

- 3) HbA1C $> 6.5\%$

OR

- 4) Two-hour plasma glucose $> 200\text{mg/dl}$ (11.1mmol/l) during an oral glucose tolerance test. (The test should be performed using a glucose load containing the equivalent of 75gm anhydrous glucose dissolved in water, not recommended in routine use.)

EPIDEMIOLOGY

The worldwide prevalence of diabetes mellitus has risen dramatically over the past two decades, from an estimated 30 million cases in 1985 to 285 million in 2010. Based on current trend, the International Diabetes Federation projects that 438 million individuals will have diabetes by the year 2030.²²

Although the prevalence of both type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus is increasing worldwide, the prevalence of type 2 diabetes mellitus is rising much more rapidly because of increasing obesity, reduced activity levels as countries become more industrialized and the aging of population.

Type 2 diabetes is the predominant form of diabetes worldwide, accounting for 90% of cases globally. An epidemic of Type 2 diabetes mellitus is underway in both developed and developing countries, although the brunt of the disorder is felt disproportionately in Non-European populations. This is primarily due to rapid transition occurring in these countries as a consequence of urbanization, industrialization and globalization.

The epidemiology of diabetes in India, the second largest country with a population of over 1 billion is of prime importance as the prevalence of diabetes is growing rapidly not only in urban areas but also in rural areas.

In 2000, India (31.7 million) topped the world with the highest number of people with diabetes mellitus followed by China (20.8 million) with the United States (17.7 million) in second and third place respectively.

According to the recent WHO report, India has the highest number of people with diabetes in the world, with an estimated 32 million in 2000 which is set to increase to a staggering 80 million by 2030.

DIABETIC RETINOPATHY

EPIDEMIOLOGY

Diabetic retinopathy is among the most common ophthalmic complication of diabetes mellitus.²³ Studies have reported that the prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in India varies from 20-31%. The estimates of the prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in India suggests that there may be nearly 5.6 million people with diabetic retinopathy in India .

Pathogenesis of DR

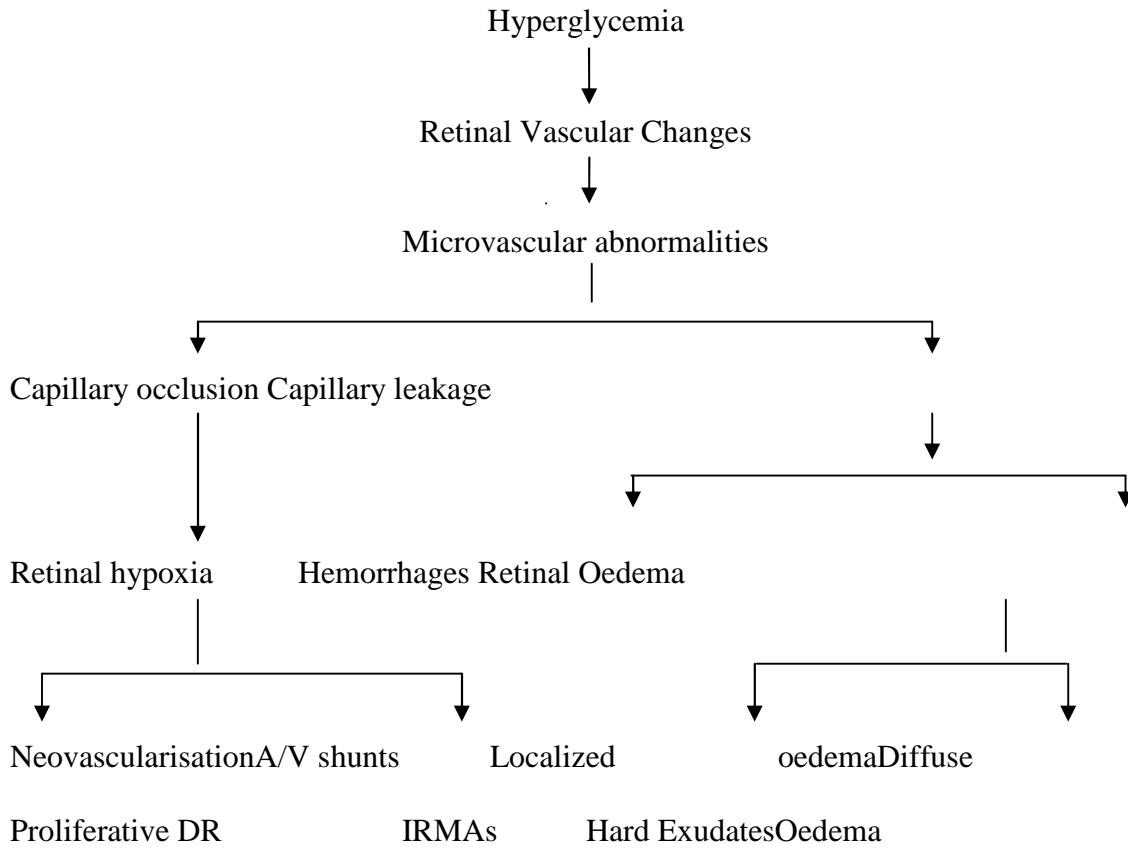


Table No. 1: Pathogenesis of Diabetic Retinopathy

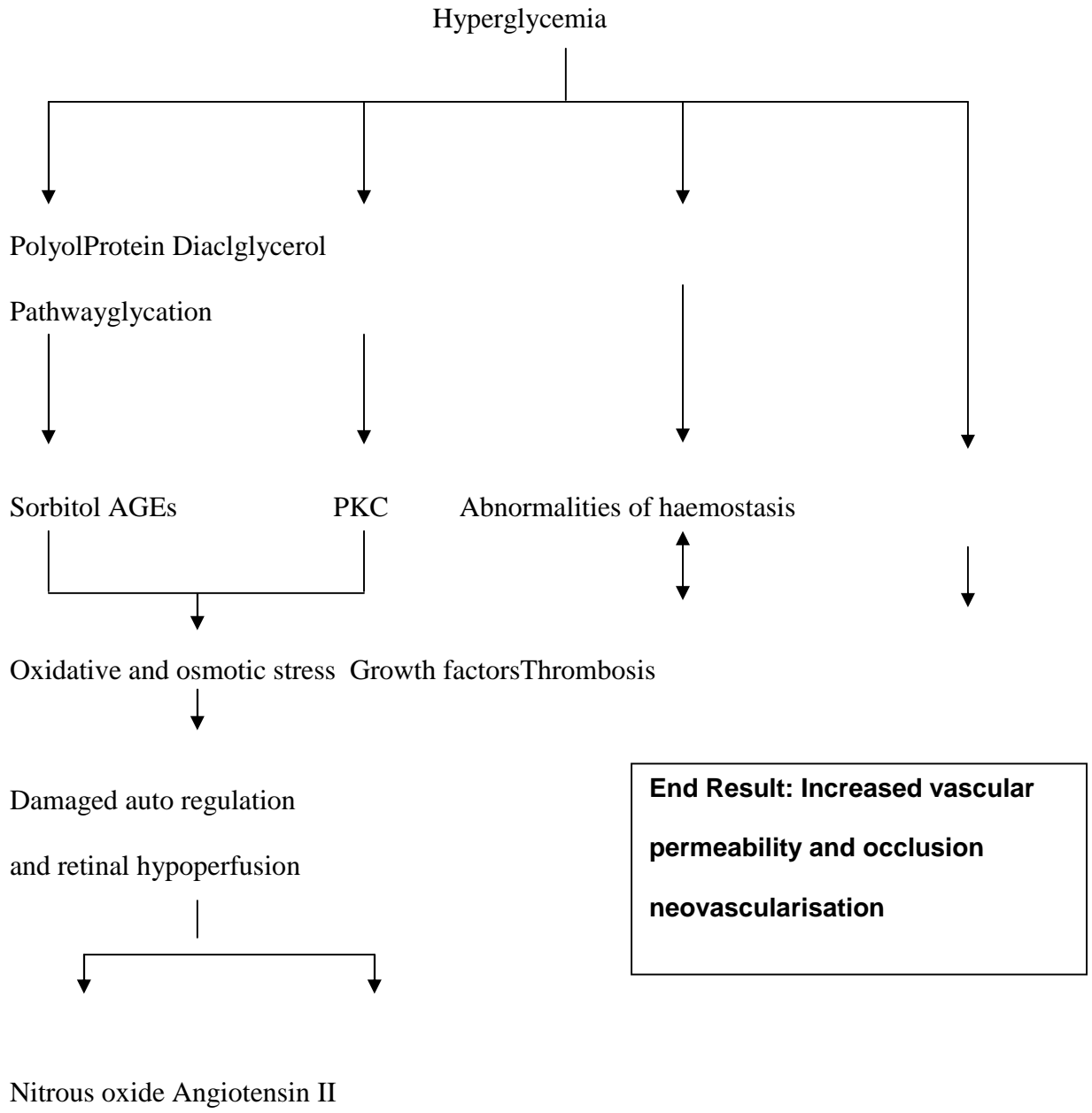


Table No. 2 : Effect of Hyperglycemia on pathogenesis of DR

CLASSIFICATIONS OF RETINOPATHY:

Many classifications have been proposed for diabetic retinopathy. Some of these are:

I. Hirschberg's Classification :

In 1980 Hirschberg²⁴ recognised three following types

1. Inflammatory – characterised by spots and haemorrhages
2. Haemorrhagic
3. Pigmentary

II. Ballantyne and Michaelson's Classification:

Ballantyne and Michaelson²⁵ divided diabetic retinopathy into 5 stages

1. Microlesions –comprised of microaneurysms
2. Macrolesions –dot and blot haemorrhages
3. Vascular changes-Gross changes in veins
4. Destructive changes-intraocular haemorrhages, retinitis proliferans, RD, Glaucoma
5. Mixed forms- diabetic changes associated with arteriosclerosis and /or hypertension.

III. Scott's Classification :²⁶

Stage 1a - capillary microaneurysms

Stage 1b - phlebosclerosis; loops; coils; or knots in distended veins

Stage 11a - punctuate haemorrhages with or without discrete flecks of exudates

Stage 11b - larger round or blot haemorrhages, with confluent exudates

Stage 11a - more numerous haemorrhages and exudates

Stage 11b - haemorrhage into the vitreous

Stage 1V - Retinitis proliferans, retinal detachment, gross degenerative changes.

IV. Alaert's and Slosse's Classification :

They suggested a classification²⁷ which allows the fact that in some cases there is preponderance of vascular whereas in others exudative lesions are seen, although in most cases they occur side by side.

V. Lee's Classification :²⁸

1. Angiopathy type-venous dilation; microaneurysms, haemorrhage & neovascularisation
2. Exudative type
3. Proliferative retinopathy
4. Vitreous haemorrhage

VI. Duke Elder Classification :²⁴

1. Pre retinopathic stage- characterised by uniform distension and turgescence of Veins
2. Simple diabetic retinopathy- characterised by microaneurysms, exudates, haemorrhage and venous changes.
3. Proliferative diabetic retinopathy- formation of new vessels in the retina and proliferation into the vitreous

VII. Peyman's Classification :²⁹

1. Non proliferative/simple diabetic retinopathy- characterised by microaneurysms, dot and blot haemorrhages , exudates.
2. Proliferative/malignant diabetic retinopathy- characterised by new vessel and glial tissue proliferation.

VIII. Clinical classification of diabetic retinopathy-Kanski :³⁰

1. Background diabetic retinopathy
2. Diabetic maculopathy- focal; diffuse; ischaemic
3. Pre proliferative diabetic retinopathy
4. Proliferative diabetic retinopathy
5. Advanced diabetic eye disease
 - persistent vitreous haemorrhage
 - retinal detachment
 - opaque membrane formation
 - neovascular glaucoma

IX. Modern ETDRS :

The ETDRS in the 1980s developed a staging system which is recognised as the gold standard for clinical trials. The ETDRS classification of DR³¹ is based on the grading of fundus photography of seven stereoscopic fields and the severity of the retinopathy is determined after assessment of these photographs. Each ETDRS grade can predict the prognosis for developing sight-threatening retinopathy. In particular IRMA and venous beading have been identified as high risk for the development of PDR, and cotton wool spots are low risk. The ETDRS grading scheme is too complex to be easily used in clinical practice. Therefore an adaptation of the ETDRS classification is now widely

used. This classification system translates features identified by ETDRS as high and low risk into clinical practice. The level of retinopathy represents the risk of developing sight threatening DR and is used to plan follow-up and treatment.

Levels of Retinopathy:

NPDR

A. Mild NPDR

At least one microaneurysm Fig. No. 1

Definition not met for B, C, D, E, F



Fig No. 1 showing Mild NPDR

B. Moderate NPDR

Standard photograph Fig. No. 2

SE (CWS), VB, and IRMAs definitely present

Definition not met for C, D, E and F

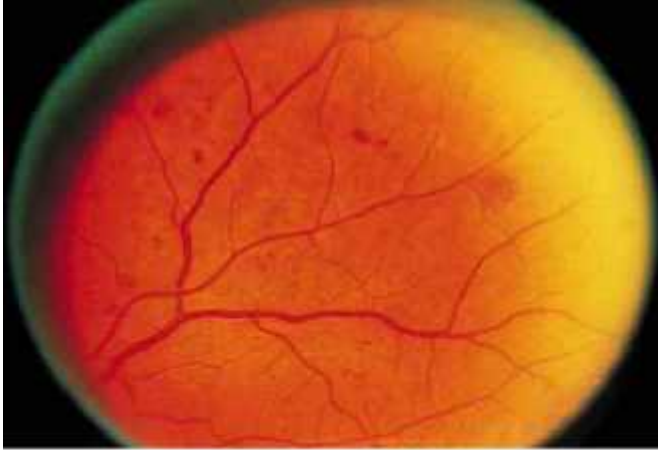


Fig No. 2 showing Moderate NPDR

C. Severe NPDR

H/Ma standard photograph Fig. No. 2 in all four quadrants

VB in two or more quadrants (Fig. No. 3)

IRMA standard photograph (Fig No. 4) in at least one quadrant

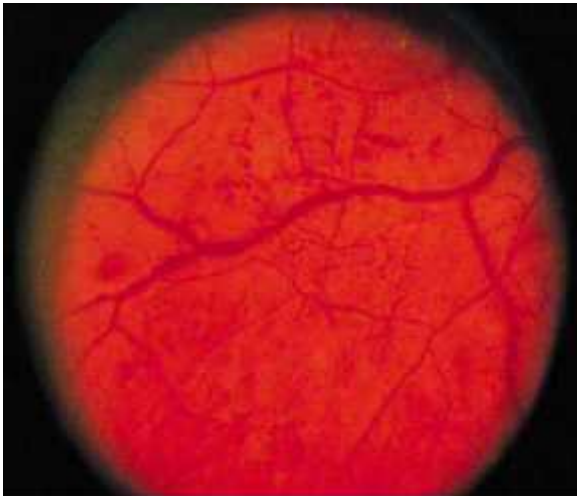


Fig No. 3: Severe NPDR

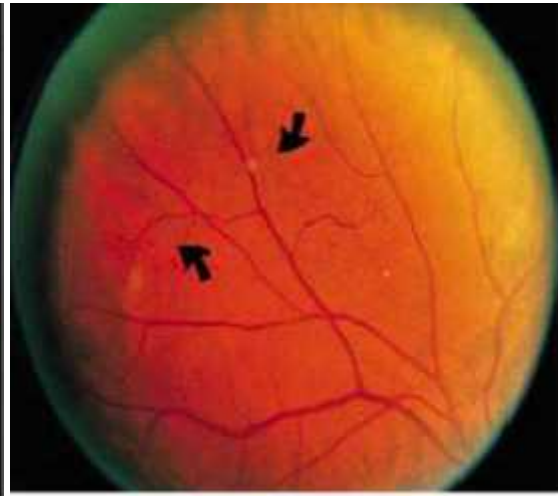


Fig No .4 : VB in > 2Quadrants

D. Very Severe NPDR

Any two or more of C(Fig. No. 5)

Definition not met for E, F.

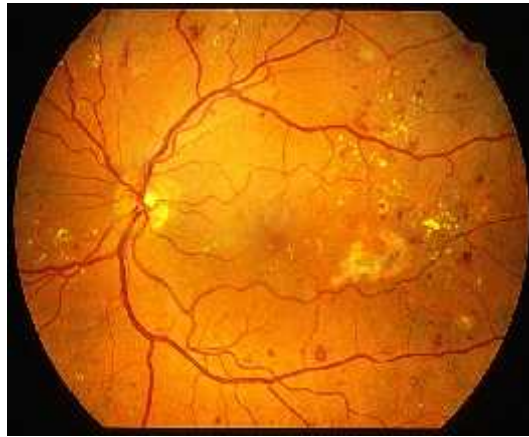


Fig No. 5 showing Very Severe NPDR

PDR

(Composed of: [1] NVD or NVE, [2] preretinal or vitreous haemorrhage, [3] fibrous tissue proliferation)

E. Early PDR- New vessels

Definition not met for F

F. High-risk PDR

NVD 1/3-1/2 disc area (Fig. No. 6) or

NVD and vitreous or preretinal haemorrhage or

NVE 1/2 disc area and preretinal or vitreous haemorrhage



Fig No. 6: High risk PDR

X. International Clinical Diabetic Retinopathy Disease Severity Scale:³²

Disease Severity Level	Clinical features
No apparent Retinopathy	No abnormalities
Mild NPDR	Microaneurysm only
Moderate NPDR	More than just microaneurysms, but less than severe NPDR
Severe NPDR	Any of the following: >20 intra-retinal hemorrhages in each 4 quadrants definite venous beading in > 2 quadrants and no signs of PDR
Very severe NPDR	All of the following: >20 intra-retinal hemorrhages in each of 4 Quadrants definite venous beading in > 2 quadrants prominent IRMA in > 1 quadrant
PDR	One or more of the following: neovascularisation vitreous/pre-retinal hemorrhage

Table No. 3: International Clinical Diabetic Retinopathy Disease Severity Scale

CSME :

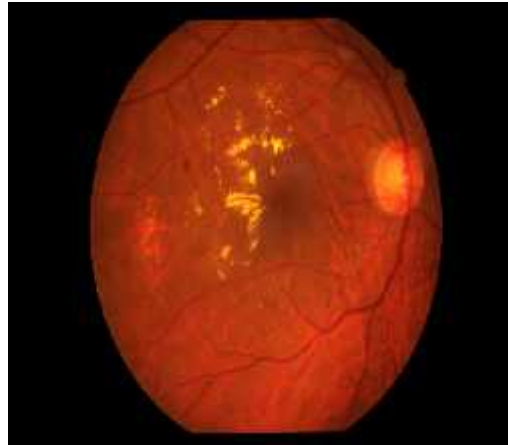


Fig No. 7: Showing CSME

1. Thickening of the retina located 500 μm from the centre of the macula (Fig. No. 7).or
2. Hard exudate with thickening of the adjacent retina located 500 μm from the centre of the macula or
3. A zone of retinal thickening, 1 disc area or larger in size located 1 disc diameter from the centre of the macula

Diabetic macular oedema: divided into two broad levels:

Macular oedema apparently absent- no apparent retinal thickening or hard exudates in the posterior pole and Macular oedema apparently present- some retinal thickening or hard exudates in the posterior pole.

The below table shows the classification system for retinopathy and maculopathy; adapted from Scottish DRS grading scheme.

Retinopathy	Description
RO	No DR
R1 mild	Background DR The presence of > 1 of the following: dot hemorrhages microaneurysms hard exudates cotton wool spots superficial/flame shaped hemorrhages
R2 (Observable)	Background DR-observable >4 blot haemorrhages in 1 hemifield only
R3 (referable)	Background DR-referable Any of the following: > 4 blot hemorrhages in both superior & inferior fields venous bleeding IRMA
R 4 (proliferative)	PDR Any of the following: active new vessels vitreous hemorrhage refer ophthalmology
Maculopathy	Description
MO	No blot haemorrhages/hard exudates <2 disc diameters of the centre of fovea
M1 (observable)	Blot hemorrhages /hard exudates within a radius of >1 but <2disc diameters of centre of fovea
M2 (referable)	Blot haemorrhages /hard exudates within a radius of < 1disc diameter of the centre of fovea

Table No. 4: Classification system for retinopathy and maculopathy.

Lesions of diabetic retinopathy:

Micro aneurysms: Originally noted by Mackenzie and Nettleship - Seen as red, round intraretinal lesions. Appear to derive from retinal capillaries and found in vicinity of occluded capillaries. Microaneurysms are clinically visible only when they are above 30 microns and the upper limit is 125 microns. More microaneurysms are seen on fundus angiography than clinically. On angiography they appear as hyperfluorescent dots.

Generally they fill during early venous stage and some may leak dye to the surrounding retina.

Intraretinalhaemorrhages: This appears secondary to ruptured microaneurysms, capillaries and venules. The shape of the intraretinalhaemorrhage depends on the location within the retinal layer. Dot and blot haemorrhage – located in deeper layers of retina (between outer plexiform and inner nuclear layer of the retina) Flame shaped haemorrhages – located in the superficial nerve fibre layer Intraretinalhaemorrhages resolve in 6-12 week period.

Hard exudates: These are collection of lipid adjacent to microvascular leakage. Intraretinal exudates appears as creamy – yellow flakes, flecks or dots. They may be arranged in individual streaks, in clusters, or in large circinate rings (if so almost always surround leaking microaneurysms or areas of capillary non perfusion). The hard exudates have an affinity for the posterior pole, particularly the macula.³³

Soft exudates: Also known as cotton wool spots, it is seen secondary to arteriolar closure. It occurs in more advanced NPDR. These are small infarcts of nerve fibre layer. These appear as fluffy white/yellow white striations of nerve fibre layer. Cotton wool spots generally resolve in 2-3 months.

Venous beading and loops

Represent focal areas of venous dilatation. Other venous abnormalities include loops and reduplication of venous segments. The degree of venous beading in ocular fundus images has been shown to be a more powerful predictor of conversion to proliferative diabetic retinopathy than any other type of retinal abnormality. Further, the

degree of venous beading has been shown to be well correlated with disease progression. Reduplication of veins is the least common retinal abnormality but is of the most important prognostic significance. These changes are associated with capillary non perfusion and retinal ischemia.³⁴

Foveal Avascular Zone Abnormalities: Normally FAZ is approximately 350 to 750 microns in diameter. Abnormalities seen in the FAZ are irregular intercapillary spaces. Decrease vision without macular oedema warrants a suspicious outlook towards the FAZ.

Intraretinalmicrovascular abnormalities: Intraretinalmicrovascular abnormalities (IRMA) represent either new vessel growth or remodelling of pre-existing vessels through endothelial cell proliferation within the retinal tissues to act as shunts through areas of nonperfusion. They are irregular, segmental dilatation of the capillary bed running between the arteriole and venule adjacent to capillary non perfusion area. They stain on fluorescein angiography, but usually do not leak fluorescein. These eyes are at high risk of developing PDR.³⁵

Proliferative lesions: Proliferative diabetic retinopathy .As a response to retinalischemia there is development of extra retinal fibrovascular proliferation. For thediagnosis of PDR the following lesions are necessary: presence of newly formed blood vessel and/or presence of fibrous tissue arising from retina or optic disc and extending along the inner surface of the retina or into the vitreous cavity. These immature vessels have a propensity to bleed. They also cause development of firm adhesion between retina and vitreous body, and when they contract can cause tractional retinal detachment.³⁵

Neovascularisation of disc (NVD): It is seen as fine vessels bridging across physiological cup. NVD has a tendency to follow temporal arcade. Grows between the internal limiting membrane of the retina and posterior hyaloids face of the vitreous and adheres to it. As NVD matures fibrous tissue grows to accompany it. With time the fibrovascular bridge may form linking the superior and inferior temporal arcade.³⁵

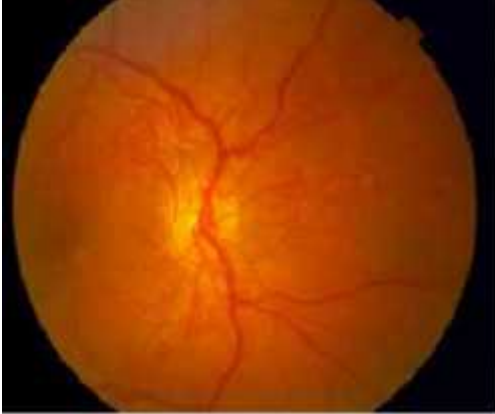


Fig No. 8: Neovascularisation of disc

New vessels arising from elsewhere (NVE): Seen as wheel like networks with vessels radiating like spokes from centre and circumferential vessel bounding the periphery. When vitreous haemorrhage does occur it assumes a classic boat like configuration.

High risk characteristics:

NVD -1/4th TO 1/3rd in extent

NVD with pre-retinal haemorrhage

NVE with vitreous haemorrhage

Advanced diabetic eye:

Advanced diabetic eye disease is the end stage of proliferative retinopathy defined by any of the following potentially blinding complication of proliferative diabetic retinopathy.³⁶

Severe vitreous haemorrhage

New vessels in the iris

Neovascular glaucoma

Tractional retinal detachment

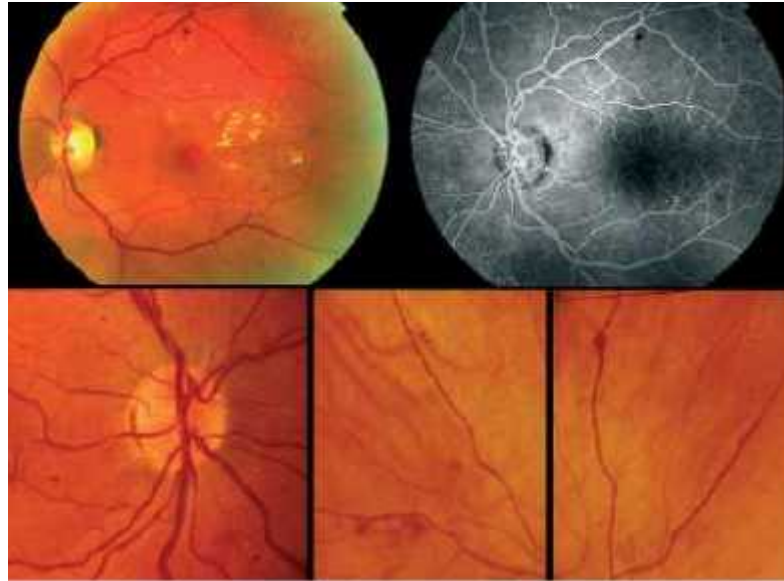


Fig No. 9: Non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy Cardinal signs are retinal microaneurysms, haemorrhages, and hard exudates ; and intraretinal microvascular abnormalities; venous beading ; and venous loop formation.

Preretinopathy	Mild NPDR	Moderate NPDR	PDR	Advanced DED
Abnormalities of:	Microaneurysms	Venous bleeding	NVE	NVI
Electrophysiology	Intra-retinal Hemorrhages	Venous loop	NVD	NVG
Psychophysics	Cotton wool spots	Cotton wool spots	Fibrovascular proliferation	Vitreous Hemorrhage
Retinal blood Flow	Venous dilatation	Cluster hemorrhages		TRD
Vascular Permeability	Exudates	IRMA		

Table No.5: Progression of diabetic retinopathy

Glycemic Control:

Glycemic control has a strong influence on many indices of diabetic retinopathy such as prevalence of retinopathy, incidence of retinopathy, progression of retinopathy, need for focal and scatter photocoagulation, and loss of visual acuity.³⁷ The influence of glycemic control is apparent in both type 1 and type 2 diabetes. The concept of a laboratory cutpoint for blood glucose normality is vague. However, 5–9.8% of patients over age 40 in developed countries have typical lesions of diabetic retinopathy even though they do not meet criteria for diabetes.³⁸ Retinopathy consistent with diabetic retinopathy can develop in certain patients whose blood glucoses range in the normal range for the population; in adults over the age of 49, the 5-year incidence of such an event is 10%. This may in part reflect increased genetic susceptibility to the effects of hyperglycemia. Responsiveness to treatments for manifestations of diabetic retinopathy may also depend on glycemic control. Failure of DME to respond to focal/grid laser photocoagulation has been associated with higher glycosylated hemoglobin.³⁹

INVESTIGATIONS for a case of diabetic Retinopathy:

1. Regular:

Technique	Advantages	Disadvantages	Recommendations
Direct Ophthalmoscopy	-Mobile -Inexpensive	-Requires pupil dilatation -Small field -Low sensitivity -Less effective than slit-amp biomicroscopy	-Optional for Screening -Pupils must be dilated
Indirect Ophthalmoscopy	-Mobile -Large field -Relatively Inexpensive	-Requires pupil dilatation -small abnormalities maybe missed -Less effective than Slitlamp biomicroscopy	-Optional for Screening -Pupils must be Dilated
	-Large field	-Requires pupil	-Required for

Slit-Lamp Biomicroscopy		dilatation -Immobile -Requires special lenses	ophthalmologic examination
Non Mydriatic retinal photography	-Large field -non-medical staff can be trained to use -can be digitally stored	-Relatively inexpensive -dark space required	Recommended for screening

Table No. 6: Investigations available for Diabetic Retinopathy

2. Fluorescein angiography:

Fluorescein angiography ranks as one of the crucial diagnostic aids for detecting ocular pathophysiologic mechanisms. Chao and Flocks provided the earliest description of fluorescein angiography in 1958 and it was introduced into clinical use in 1861 by Novotny and Alvis.⁴⁰ The interaction of phthalic acid anhydride and resorcinol results in the formation of sodium fluorescein (C₂₀ H₁₀ O₅ Na₂). It has a low molecular weight. It is highly soluble in water. It absorbs light maximally between 480 to 510nm wavelength whilst its emission spectrum peaks at 530nm. Toxic reaction to fluorescein is rare. These mainly include nausea, vomiting, urticaria, skin rashes; hypotension and shock.

The various phases of fluorescein angiography normally observed are as follows.

1. Choroidal phase

- 8 to 10 seconds after injection of dye in antecubital vein. (arm to retina time)
- Seen as a diffuse fluorescent flush
- Patchy filling may be seen

2. Retinal arterial phase

- 8.5 to 11.0 seconds after injection of dye in antecubital vein.

- Temporal artery fills somewhat earlier than the nasal one and the upper artery slightly before the lower one.

3. Capillary phase

- Around the disc are seen the radial peri-papillary capillaries.
- Macula shows the typical capillary pattern with the central avascular Zone (500microns in diameter).
- No special pattern can be recognised in the middle and far fundus periphery.

4. Venous phase

- Earliest venous filing occurs at the posterior pole.

5. Recirculation phase

- Begins within the first minute after injection.

In diabetic retinopathy, fluorescein angiography is useful for early detection of neovascularization, areas of capillary non perfusion, intraretinal microvascular abnormalities, microaneurysms etc. It is also done before the retina is subjected to photocoagulation.

3. OCT

The development of imaging equipment is allowing new features of diabetic macular oedema to be identified, which may have implications for treatment in the future.⁴¹ OCT has identified macular pathologies that cannot be observed by clinical examination and therefore have not been part of prognosis and treatment planning in the past.

TREATMENT OF DIABETIC RETINOPATHY

- I. Medical line of treatment
- II. Photocoagulation
- III. Surgical line of treatment

I. Medical line of treatment

Control of diabetes by oral hypoglycaemic drugs, conventional insulin treatment or continuous insulin pumps play an important role. Clofibrate has been claimed to be useful in clearing retinal hard exudates.⁴² Calcium dobesylate has been shown to have a beneficial effect on abnormal retinal capillary permeability.

Agent	Molecules tried
Antiplatelet/anti-coagulants	Aspirin Ticlopidine
Aldolase reductase inhibitors	Ponalrestat Tolrestat
GH suppressors	Octreotide
Anti-angiogenesis	Curcumin
ACE inhibitors	Candesartan Perindopril
PKC-beta inhibitors	Ruboxistaurin

Table No. 7: Potential molecules for the management of diabetic retinopathy

II (i) Panretinal Photocoagulation (PRP)

a. Pretreatment Discussion with Patients:

Patients usually need numerous follow-up visits and may require supplementary laser treatment.

- PRP reduces the risk of visual loss and blindness.
- Although laser treatment is effective, some patients may still develop vitreous hemorrhage. The hemorrhage is caused by the diabetes and not by the laser; it may mean the patient needs more laser treatment.
- Laser treatment often reduces peripheral and night vision; treatment may moderately reduce central vision. This short-term side effect is compensated

by the significant long-term reduction in severe vision loss and blindness in laser-treated patients.

b. Lenses for PRP:

The three-mirror Goldmann contact lens has a central opening for treating the posterior pole, and side mirrors for treating the mid peripheral and periphera retina. Disadvantages: small field of view, which requires continual manipulation of the lens to complete treatment. Spot size is set at 500 μ m.

Newer wide-angle contact lenses are often used. Although the image is inverted, there is a large field of view allowing for many burns with the field while easily maintaining orientation to the disc and macula. The optics of these wide-angle lenses will affect the laser spot size on the retina. Wide-angle indirect ophthalmoscopy lenses provide an inverted image, but show a large field of view and a magnification of the spot in the retina. Scatter treatment can be applied to a large area of retina in a single image, and it is easy to visualize the disk and the macula.

c. Technique for PRP:

- i. The pupil should be fully dilated and topical anesthesia is used. Retrobulbar subtenon's anesthesia to reduce pain and decrease eye motion can be employed as necessary.
- ii. The most common wavelengths used are Argon green, blue green (generally avoided currently), and 532 green laser, using the slit-lamp delivery system. In case of hazy media, Krypton red or diode red laser (814 nm) can be used.

Slit lamp treatment is most commonly done through a contact lens but can also be performed using indirect ophthalmoscopy. For example, when treatment is given under general anesthetic.

- iii. Typical initial settings on the Argon laser would be 500 μ m spot size, a 0.1 second exposure and 250-270 mw power. The power is gradually increased until a

whitish reaction is obtained on the retina. The lesions are placed 1 burn width apart.

- iv. A total of 1600-3000 burns are placed in 1 or more sittings, carefully avoiding the macular area and any areas of tractional elevation of the retina. The burns are placed 2 to 3 disc diameters away from the center of the macula and 1 disc diameter away from the disc, usually outside the arcades and extended peripherally up to the equator and beyond.
- v. Laser treatment should not be applied over major retinal veins, preretinal hemorrhages, darkly pigmented chorioretinal scars, or within 1 DD (200-300 μm) of center of macula, so as to avoid risk of hemorrhage or large scotomas.
- vi. Other considerations:
 - Additional photocoagulation is needed if there is evidence of worsening of proliferative DR.
 - Add laser burns in between scars of initial treatment further peripherally and also at the posterior pole, sparing the area within 500-1500 μm from the center of macula.
 - Favor quadrants with active new vessels or areas with intraretinal microvascular abnormalities where scars are more widely spaced and areas of severe ischemia not previously treated, such as the temporal part of the posterior pole.
 - Direct treatment of NVE in between scars is possible.

d. Panretinal (Scatter) Photocoagulation Technique Following Diabetic Retinopathy Clinical Research Network (DRCRNet) Consensus.

Panretinal (scatter) photocoagulation initially consists of 1200 to 1600 burns (or the equivalent area treated with a multi-spot laser), with a spot size on the retina of approximately 500 μm given over 1 to 3 sittings and completed within eight weeks days of initiation, As shown in the below table No.8.

Burn Characteristic	Direct/Grid Photocoagulation(Modified ETDRS technique)	Mild Macular Grid Photocoagulation technique
Direct treatment	Directly treat all leaking microaneurysms in areas of retinal thickening 500 to 3000 µm from centre of the macula	Not applicable
Change in MA color with direct treatment	Not required, but atleast a mildgray white burn should be evident beneath all microaneurysms.	Not applicable
Burn size for direct treatment	50-100µm	Not applicable
Burn duration for direct treatment	0.05-0.1 sec	Not applicable
Grid treatment	Applied to all areas with diffuse leakage /non-perfusion within area described below for Treatment	Applied to entire area described below for treatment
Area considered for grid treatment	-500-300 µm superiorly, nasally and inferiorly from center of macula. -500-3500 µm temporally from macular center. -No burns are placed < 500µm of disc	-500-300 µm superiorly, nasally and inferiorly from center of macula. -500-3500 µm temporally from macular center. -No burns are placed < 500 µm of disc

Burn size for grid treatment	50-100 μm	50 μm
Burn duration for grid Treatment	0.05-0.1 sec	0.05-0.1 sec
Burn intensity	Barely visible (light gray)	Barely visible (light gray)
Wavelength(grid and focal treatment)	Green to yellow	Green

Table No.8: Modified-EDTRS and the Mild Macular Grid Photocoagulation Techniques

II(ii)Laser photocoagulation

Focal laser

Possible mechanisms of action

- Direct closure of leaking microaneurysms
- Laser induced endovascular thrombosis
- Heat-induced contraction of the vessel wall Procedure – compare vascular landmarks on fluorescein angiograms are compared to the fundus.
- Fundus is precisely located.
- All fluorescein leaks are directly treated.
- Laser burns are spaced one burn width apart.
- The end point is whitening or darkening of the treated area.
- Laser parameters- 100-200 microns spot size, 0.1 second duration, 50-100 Mw power

II (iii) Grid laser

Photoreceptor destruction increases inner retinal oxygenation resulting in vasoconstriction, decreased retinal blood flow and decreased vascular leakage

- Retinal pigment epithelium damage causes retinal capillary and venule endothelial dysfunction.
- Photocoagulation debridement of dysfunctioning RPE cells may result in enhanced blood retinal barrier
- Grid photocoagulation is performed in areas of thickened retina showing diffuse leakage or capillary dropout.
- Laser parameters- 100-200 micron spot size, 0.1 to 0.5 sec duration, 50-100mw power, light intensity burns.
- Grid is not done within 500 microns of the macula/disc margin

Pan retinal photocoagulation for proliferative diabetic retinopathy:

It may alter the extracellular modulating factors responsible for control of intraocular neovascularisation. Destruction of oxygen consuming photoreceptors and RPE may improve inner retinal oxygenation, thus decreasing stimulus for vasoproliferative factors

Procedure – laser spots are placed outside the arcades and extend peripherally up to the equator and beyond

- Laser settings- 300-500 micron spot size, 0.1 second, 220-27- mw power.
- Power and duration are adjusted till gray white reaction is achieved
- Burns are placed one burn width apart; a total of 1600-2000 burns are applied in 2-3 sittings starting first with the inferior quadrant, because if vitreous haemorrhage occurs then the inferior quadrant will be difficult to treat.

Size (on retina)	500 μm
Exposure	0.1sec recommended
Intensity	Mild white(i.e. 2+ to 3+)
Distribution of sessions	Edges 1 burn width apart
Number	1-3
Nasal proximity to disk	No closer than 500 μm
Temporal proximity to center	No closer than 3000 μm
Superior/inferior limit	No further posterior than 1 burn within temporal arcades
Extent	Arcades (3000 μm from macular center) to atleast the equator
Total number of burns	1200-1600n
Wavelength	Green or yellow(red can be used if vitreous hemorrhage)

Table No. 9: The burn characteristics for panretinal photocoagulation

III. Surgical line of treatment

Pituitary ablation by yttrium 90 implantation or hypophysectomy advocated as a treatment for proliferative retinopathy following a case report by Poulstein in 1953 Kohner and co-workers have advocated pituitary ablation as a treatment of choice for diabetic retinopathy characterised by progressive capillary dilatation, capillary occlusion, cotton wool spot formation and severe proliferative diabetic retinopathy.⁴³

(i)Vitrectomyforms a mainstay of the surgical line of proliferative treatment of diabetic retinopathy with its attendant complications.⁴⁴

Indications for vitrectomy in severe diabetic retinopathy

(a) Media opacity

- Non clearing vitreous haemorrhage
- Pre macular haemorrhage

(b) Traction

- Progressive fibrovascular proliferation
- Tractional retinal detachment involving macula
- Combined rhegmatogenous and tractional retinal detachment
- Macular oedema associated with taut posterior hyaloids

(c) Others

- Recurrent vitreous haemorrhage
- Anterior hyaloidfibrovascular proliferation
- Goals of vitrectomy in proliferative diabetic retinopathy
- To clear the media
- To relieve all tractions on the retina
- To reattach retina where needed
- Closure of retinal breaks if any

The aims of vitrectomy:

1. To clear media opacities such as vitreous haemorrhage;
2. To remove proliferative tissue causing tractional forces on the retina;

3. Prevent further neovascularization by laser endophotocoagulation and by removal of vitreous gel so removing the scaffold along which fibrovascular tissue can proliferate;
4. Repair retinal detachment by excising tractional membranes and removing fibrovascular tissue from the surface of the retina.

Surgical technique:

The central core vitreous gel is first removed with the vitrectomy probe. If there is no posterior vitreous separation then this is next elevated in an accessible area without tight vitreo-retinal adhesion. The optic disc is often a good location for this if no posterior vitreous separation exists elsewhere. The neovascular membrane complexes are now dissected away from the retina being careful to ensure that the dissection is in the correct plane and not in a false plane of vitreo-schisis, which can occur in PDR. This can be achieved using an 'en-bloc' dissection then delamination technique using the remaining posterior hyaloid face to exert antero-posterior traction to open up the plane of dissection. Alternatively via circumcision from the posterior hyaloid face and then segmentation of neovascular complexes followed by their delamination from the surface of the retina. 'En-bloc' dissection and delamination involve the use of horizontal cutting scissors to cut through vascular 'pegs' joining the membrane complexes to the retina.

Segmentation may involve vertical cutting scissors to divide membranes between pegs in order to relieve traction between these. Once the traction has been relieved the retina is carefully inspected for signs of retinal breaks. If identified these are treated with laser to form a surrounding chorioretinal adhesion and then gas or oil is used as tamponade. PRP is completed if deficient using indirect or endolaser and often continued up to the pars plana, which possibly reduces the rate of post vitrectomy bleeding.

Complications:

1. Post-vitrectomy vitreous cavity haemorrhage can occur in some patients.(10-20%)
2. Retinal tears and holes

3. Raised IOP
4. Cataracts can develop following vitrectomy surgery, especially in patients over 60 years.
5. Rubeosis-rare.

Visual prognosis post vitrectomy: Overall, about 70–90% of patients will get an improvement in vision with vitrectomy surgery with the final acuity result depending largely on the degree of maculopathy. Less than 5% may be made worse.

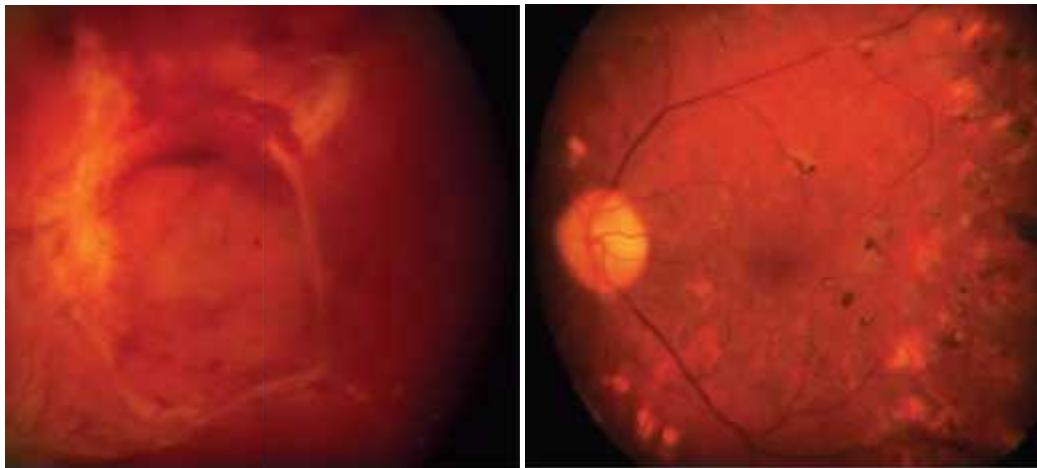


Fig No. 10: (a,b) Pre and post vitrectomy for vitreous haemorrhage and traction retinal detachment. VA postoperatively 6/12.

(ii) Intravitreal drugs:

Intravitreal triamcinolone has been used for macular oedema refractory to laser treatment.⁴⁵ Using OCT has shown this treatment to reduce retinal thickness.

Improvement in vision has been recorded in some cases. However, this effect is transient and appears not to be sustained despite repeat injections. A recent randomised clinical trial showed that laser is more effective than intravitreal triamcinolone at preventing visual loss. There are also significant side-effects with intravitreal triamcinolone, with raised intraocular pressure and cataract being very common.

Intravitreal injections of anti-VEGF such as ranibizumab, pegaptanib and bevacizumab are currently being explored as therapies for DR. Several trials have shown a beneficial

effect when anti-VEGF agents are used alone or combined with laser for macular oedema.⁴⁶

A recent randomised trial of 854 eyes has shown that ranibizumab combined with laser for ‘centre involving’ diabetic macular oedema (ie DMO that involves the fovea) is more effective than laser alone.⁴⁷ At 1 year there was a significantly greater mean increase in visual acuity in eyes treated with ranibizumab and laser, than those who had only laser. Multiple injections were required, however, and were also necessary in the second year of the study, but the authors report no systemic side-effects attributable to the treatment. There is concern that these drugs can, though rarely, affect patients systemically to increase the risk of stroke and myocardial infarction. Additionally, VEGF may be necessary in maintaining the function of healthy retina. However, it is very likely that anti-VEGF therapy in combination with laser has a place in the management of both PDR and macular oedema.

Severity of Retinopathy	Presence of CSME	Follow-up (Months)	Scatter (Panretinal) Photocoagulation	Fluorescein Angiography	Focal laser
Normal/ Mild NPDR	No	12	No	No	No
Mild to Mod NPDR	No	6-12	No	No	No
	Yes	2-4	No	Usually	Usually
Severe to very Severe NPDR	No	2-4	Sometimes	Rarely	No
		2-4	Sometimes	Usually	Usually
Non high- risk PDR	No	2-4	Sometimes	Rarely	No
		2-4	Sometimes	Usually	Usually

High risk PDR	No	3-4	Usually	Rarely	No
		3-4	Usually	Usually	Usually
High risk PDR Not amenable to PC	-	1-6	Not possible	Occasionally	Not possible

Table No. 10: Management recommendations for patients with Diabetes retinopathy

The recommended follow up regimen for newly diagnosed diabetic patients is as given in table no.11

	IDDM	NIDDM
1st Examination	5years after onset if patient's age < 30 yr. At puberty after diagnosis	On diagnosis immediately if patient's age > 31 yr.
Follow-up	Annually *	Annually *

* normal at first examination

Table No. 11: Ocular examination and follow up schedule in diabetes subjects

BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE LIPID CHEMISTRY

The lipids are a heterogenous group of compounds including fats, oils, steroids, waxes and related compounds that are related more by their physical than chemical properties.

The lipids have following functions.

1. They are important dietary constituents not only because of their high energy value, but also because of the fat soluble vitamins and essential fatty acids contained in the fat of natural foods.
2. Fat is stored in adipose tissue, where it also serves as a thermal insulator in the subcutaneous tissues and around certain organs.
3. Non polar lipids act as electrical insulators, allowing rapid propagation of depolarization waves along myelinated nerves.
4. Combination of lipid and protein (lipoproteins) serve as the means of transporting lipids in the blood.

The lipids are classified as given below.⁴⁸

A) Simple lipids (esters of fatty acid with various alcohols)

- Fats: esters of fatty acids with glycerol. Oils are fats in liquid state
- Waxes: esters of fatty acids with higher molecular weight monohydric alcohols.

B) Complex lipids: These are esters of fatty acids containing groups in addition to an alcohol and a fatty acid groups)

- Phospholipids: lipids containing in addition to fatty acids and an alcohol, a phosphoric acid residue.
- Glycolipids: lipids containing a fatty acid, sphingosine and carbohydrate.

Other complex lipids: lipids such as sulfolipids and aminolipids. Lipoproteins may also be placed in this category.

C) Derived lipids: These include fatty acids, glycerol, steroids, other alcohols, fatty aldehydes, hydrocarbons, lipid soluble vitamins and hormones.

FATTY ACIDS

They are present as such in minute concentrations in plasma cells. Fatty acids occur mainly as esters in natural fats and oils but do occur in the unesterified form as free fatty acids, a transport form found in the plasma. Fatty acids that occur in natural fats are usually straight chain derivatives containing an even number of carbon atoms.

Lipid Chemistry

Fatty acids are of two types

- a. Saturated fatty acids - Those which contain no double bonds.
- b. Unsaturated fatty acids- Those which contain one or more double bonds.

Saturated fatty acids having 10 or less carbon atoms are called "Lower fatty acids"

e.g. - Acetic acid, butyric acid

Saturated fatty acids having more than 10 carbon atoms are called "higher fatty acids".

e.g. - Palmitic acid, stearic acid.

Unsaturated fatty acids are classified according to degree of saturation.

1. **Mono unsaturated fatty acids** - These are those fatty acids which contain one double bond. E.g. Oleic acid.
2. **Polyunsaturated fatty acids** - These are fatty acids which contain more than one double bond.

eg. Linoleic acid series

 Linolenic acid series

 Arachidonic acid series

Essential fatty acids are those which cannot be synthesized in body and must be provided in the diet. Lack of these essential fatty acids in diet can produce growth retardation and other deficiency syndromes. Free fatty acids are immediately available energy source and provide much of the energy requirements of body. Normal value ranges from 250 - 400 mg / dl.

CHOLESTEROL

Cholesterol is widely distributed in all cells of the body. It is the best known steroid because of its association with atherosclerosis and heart disease.

It occurs as a white or faintly yellow, almost odorless, pearly leaflets or granules. It is insoluble in water. Sparingly soluble in alcohol and soluble in ether, chloroform, hot alcohol, ethyl acetate alcohol and vegetable "oil".

Cholesterol is found in largest amounts in normal human adult brain and nervous tissue of about 20%, in liver - 0.3%, skin - 0.3%, intestinal mucosa 0.2% and certain endocrine glands namely adrenal cortex contain about 10%.

The normal level of serum total cholesterol in adults varies from 150-250 mg/dl

TRIGLYCERIDES (NEUTRAL FATS)

These molecules are used to provide energy. In the body, stored fat in adipose tissue is the storage form of energy.

Important sites of adipose tissue are subcutaneous tissue around some internal organs and omentum. Fat under the skin prevents heat loss in winter and the internal organs get support from fat around them. The triglycerides constitute the body's main caloric reserve. Normal value ranges from 40-150 mg %.

PHOSPHOLIPIDS

Phospholipids are compound lipids. They contain in addition to fatty acids and glycerol one more alcohol or phosphatidic acid, residue nitrogen containing base and other substituents.

Phosphatidic acid is important as an intermediate in the synthesis of triacylglycerols as well as phosphoglycerols but is not found in any great quantity in tissues.

They are classified into 3 groups.

1. **Glycerophospholipid**- Here glycerol is the alcohol group.

eg - Lecithin, Cephalin

2. **Phosphoinositides**- Here inositol is the alcohol group.

eg - phosphatidylinositol

3. **Sphingophospholipids**- Here sphingosine is the alcohol group.

eg - Sphingomyelin

The lecithins are the most abundant phospholipids at the cell membrane and represent a large portion of body's store of choline.

Dipalmitoyl lecithin is a very effective surface active agent and a major constituent of the surfactant preventing adherence, due to surface tension of the inner surface of lungs.

Phosphatidylethanolamine (cephalin) and phosphatidyl serine differ from phosphatidylcholine in that ethanolamine or serine, respectively replaces choline.

Sphingomyelins are found in large quantities in brain and nerve tissue.

On hydrolysis, the sphingomyelins yield a fatty acid, phosphoric acid, choline and a complex amino alcohol, sphingosine. No glycerol is present. The combination of sphingosine plus fatty acid is known as ceramide, a structure also found in the glycolipids.

GLYCOLIPIDS

Glycolipids are widely distributed in every tissue of the body, particularly in nervous tissue such as brain. They occur particularly in the outer leaflet of the plasma membrane, where they contribute to cell surface carbohydrates.

The major glycolipids found in animal tissues are glycosphingolipids. They contain ceramide and one or more sugars. Galactosylceramide is a major glycosphingolipid of brain and other nervous tissue, found in relatively low amounts elsewhere. It contains a number of characteristic C24 fatty acids, eg, cerebrosic acid.

Galactosylceramide can be converted to sulfogalactosylceramide (sulfatide), present in high amounts in myelin. Glucosylceramide is the predominant simple glycosphingolipid of extraneural tissues, also occurring in the brain in small amounts.

Gangliosides are complex glycosphingolipids derived from glucosylceramide that contain in addition one or more molecules of sialic acid. Neuraminic acid is the principal sialic acid found in human tissues. Gangliosides are present in nervous systems in high concentration.

LIPO PROTEINS OF PLASMA

In plasma, cholesterol and triglycerides form integral component of macromolecule complex called lipoprotein which are conjugated proteins. Lipid part is the prosthetic group and lipid free protein are designated as apolipoproteins or apoproteins. Protein separation including electrophoresis and ultracentrifugation shows progress in lipoprotein chemistry.

Teselius et al in 1941 reported existence of two lipoprotein classes separated by moving boundary electrophoresis.

In 1954 Gofmen et al separated lipoproteins by ultra centrifugation into five major density classes.

OVERVIEW OF LIPOPROTEINS AND LIPOPROTEIN METABOLISM

Lipoproteins are microemulsions composed of lipids (cholesterol, cholesteryl ester, triglyceride and phospholipid) and proteins (apoproteins). Their function is to transport non water soluble cholesterol and triglycerides in plasma. Lipoproteins are spherical particles containing a central core of non-polar lipids (primarily triglycerides and cholesteryl ester) and a surface monolayer of phospholipids and apoproteins.

Lipoproteins have been classified on the basis of their densities during ultracentrifugation into :⁴⁹

- 1) Chylomicrons
- 2) Very low density lipoprotein (VLDL)
- 3) Low density Lipoprotein (LDL)
- 4) High density lipoprotein
- 5) Lipoprotein a

Table 12 CLASSIFICATION OF LIPOPROTEINS⁴⁹

Lipoprotein	Source	Diameter (nm)	Density (g/ml)	Composition		Main lipid components
				Protein (%)	Lipid (%)	
Chylomicrons	Intestine	90-1000	<0.95	1-2	98-99	Triacylglycerol
VLDL	Liver	30-90	0.95-1.006	6-8	92-94	Triacylglycerol
LDL	VLDL	20-25	1.019-1.063	21	79	Cholesterol
Lp(a)		25-35	1.040-1.063	36	55	Cholesterol
HDL	Liver, intestine, VLDL chylomicrons					Phospholipids Cholesterol
HDL1		20-25	1.019-1.063	32	68	
HDL2		10-20	1.063-1.125	33	67	
HDL3		5-10	1.125-1.210	57	43	

CHYLOMICRONS

Chylomicrons are the largest of lipoproteins. They measure about 90-1000nm in diameter and they have the least density as compared to other classes of lipoproteins.⁴⁹

These are particles that are primarily triglyceride bearing and are produced by the intestine after exogenous fat undergoes digestion. These are responsible for the transport of dietary triglycerides and cholesterol. Dietary triglycerides are hydrolyzed in the gut,

releasing monoglycerides and fatty acids that are then reesterified to form triglycerides in the intestinal mucosal cell.

These triglycerides are assembled with newly absorbed cholesterol, apoprotein B48 and the A apoproteins. Upon secretion from the enterocyte, these assembled particles enter the lymphatic circulation and then the bloodstream, where they acquire C apoproteins and apo E by transfer from HDL.

As chylomicrons enter the plasma, the triglycerides are rapidly hydrolyzed by the enzyme lipoprotein lipase (LPL), which resides on the surface of capillary endothelial cells. LPL is synthesized primarily in adipose tissue and striated muscle. It is secreted and transported to the endothelial surface, where it acts on triglyceride rich particles. Its action requires the presence of apo CII on the surface of the lipoprotein, whereas apo CIII inhibits LPL.

As triglyceride is depleted from the chylomicrons, phospholipids and A and C apoproteins are transferred to HDL. The residual chylomicron particle, which has lost 80 to 90 % of its triglyceride and is now relatively cholesterol enriched is called chylomicron remnant.

VERY LOW DENSITY LIPOPROTEINS

VLDLs are synthesized in the endoplasmic reticulum of hepatocytes and are composed of endogenous triglyceride derived from plasma free fatty acids, chylomicron remnants and from de novo lipogenesis.⁴⁹

Nascent VLDLs are secreted into the circulation; contain apo B100 and small amounts of apo C and apo E. After VLDLs enter the circulation, they are metabolized in the same manner as chylomicrons by the enzyme LPL, with the fatty acids that are liberated following the same fate as those liberated from chylomicrons. After secretion, VLDLs acquire more C and E apoproteins by transfer from HDL. In addition, free cholesterol is progressively exchanged to HDL, where it is esterified and the cholesteryl ester is returned to VLDL.

As VLDLs become progressively depleted of triglyceride, a portion of the surface, including cholesterol, apolipoproteins C and E and phospholipids is removed and contributes to nascent HDL particles.

LOW DENSITY LIPOPROTEINS

LDLs are products of the metabolism of VLDL. They have got a diameter of 18-25nm. The only apoprotein in LDL is apo B and only one molecule of apo B is present per particle of LDL. Clearance of LDL is mediated by a specific receptor present on the surface of both liver and peripheral cells. Once it is bound to the receptor, the lipoprotein is internalized by an endocytic process. The vesicle then fuses with a lysosome, where enzymes degrade the apoB and hydrolyze the cholesteryl ester to free cholesterol.

The smaller remnants of VLDL are triglyceride depleted, cholesterol rich particles, some of which are isolated in the IDL compartment, although some remain in the VLDL compartment.

VLDL particles are believed to be secreted in a spectrum of sizes with various degrees of triglyceride enrichment. The larger VLDL particles appear to be more rapidly cleared and less likely to be converted to LDL. On the other hand, smaller VLDL particles that are richer in cholesterol may be preferentially converted to LDL.

All peripheral cells express the LDL-receptor (LDL-R), and recycle it to the cell surface upon need for cholesterol. Cholesterol is delivered to these cells through binding of LDL to LDL-R, which triggers endocytosis (internalization) of both species. When the need for cholesterol is satisfied, the recycling of LDL-R is discontinued. Normally, an LDL particle stays in circulation for no more than a few days before being consumed by a cholesterol needing cell.

However, under conditions of sustained cholesterol excess, the particle stays in circulation for longer periods of time, and becomes more vulnerable to undesired modifications (e.g. oxidation). As high levels of oxidized LDL are commonly found in atherosclerotic plaques, they are thought to be the major inducer of atherosclerotic lesions. Hence, LDL became known as bad cholesterol.

HIGH DENSITY LIPOPROTEINS

HDLs also are represented by a spectrum of particles of various sizes and densities. HDLs are 18-25nm in diameter.

HDL is synthesized in the liver and intestine as a nascent, discoid-shaped particle that contains predominantly apoA-I, and some phospholipids.⁴⁹ Upon

maturation, HDL assumes a spherical shape, and the composition of its core lipids becomes very similar to that of LDL. However, the relative higher protein content in HDL renders the particle denser and more resistant to undesired modifications.

Unlike LDL, HDL is not recognized by LDL-R, and cannot deliver cholesterol to tissue cells. Instead, it has the ability to remove excess peripheral cholesterol and return it to the liver for recycling and excretion. This process, called reverse cholesterol transport, is thought to protect against atherosclerosis. Observational studies over the last 2 decades have consistently shown strong correlation between elevated HDL levels and low incidents of coronary artery disease (CAD). Hence HDL has been dubbed “good” cholesterol.

LIPOPROTEIN (a)

Lipoprotein (a) or Lp (a) has been established as an independent CAD risk factor. The structure is similar to that of an LDL molecule linked by a disulphide bridge to apoprotein A. Lp (a) levels range from 1-100mg /dl with the largest number of values below 20 mg/dl.

Although Lp (a) is structurally similar to LDL, the former appears to be regulated independently and carries an independent relation to overall coronary risk. If serum levels of both LDL and Lp (a) are elevated the risk of CAD is markedly increased.

The mechanism by which high levels of Lp (a) are related to coronary atherosclerosis is unclear. It has been suggested that because of the structural similarities of Lp (a) to plasminogen, high levels of Lp (a) may inhibit the thrombolytic activity of naturally occurring tissue plasminogen activity.

An alternative explanation for the association between elevated Lp (a) levels and atherosclerosis is that Lp (a) may somehow alter the LDL mediated delivery of cholesterol to the atherosclerotic plaque.

CHARACTERISTICS AND MECHANISMS OF DYSLIPIDEMIA IN DIABETES

Dyslipidemia is a relatively common problem in patient with diabetes mellitus as compared to non-diabetics. Patients with diabetes typically have an atherogenic lipid profile characterized by elevated triglycerides, increased LDL, VLDL and cholesterol and decreased HDL.

There are several reasons for this association:

First, insulin plays an important role in the regulation of intermediary lipid metabolism and fluctuations in the degree of diabetic control thus produce a variable effect on plasma lipoprotein metabolism.

Secondly, many non-insulin dependent diabetic patients are obese, and obesity leads to the development of hyperlipidemia.

Increased LDL

There is an increased proportion of small dense LDL particles. Total LDL levels may be modestly increased but are comparable with those of the general population, although an individual with type 2 diabetes mellitus and a total LDL of 100 mg/dl may actually have many more circulating small, dense LDL particles than an individual with normal insulin sensitivity and the same LDL level.

Hypertriglyceridemia

Triglycerides come from the diet (exogenous) or are newly synthesized by the liver (endogenous) using dietary carbohydrate precursors and re esterified fatty acids absorbed from peripheral tissues. Exogenous triglycerides circulate as chylomicrons, while endogenous triglycerides combine with hepatic cholesterol to form VLDL particles, which are secreted into the circulation by hepatocytes.

Abnormalities of LPL activity, HSL activity, and fatty acid metabolism all contribute to baseline and often extreme postprandial hypertriglyceridemia associated with type 2 diabetes and insulin resistance.

Although fasting LPL levels are typically increased in the setting of obesity because of the large number of adipocytes, insulin resistance at the level of the fat cell causes decreased LPL activity and therefore, an abnormal response of LPL to a glucose load.

Diminished LPL activity leads to an accumulation of atherogenic LDL precursors, such as VLDL in the circulation. HSL activity is increased in type 2 diabetes, which causes increased circulating FFA.

In the setting of insulin resistance, adipocytes take up less circulating FFA.

This situation, called reduced fatty acid trapping, allows excess FFA delivery to the liver, which, in turn, causes increased hepatic secretion of VLDL particles. This is most pronounced and prolonged after a meal.⁵⁰⁻⁵²

Decreased HDL

The decreased HDL in NIDDM is mostly reflected in decreases in the HDL₂ subfraction.⁵³

Although it is not completely understood how hepatic lipase acts in the regulation of HDL, it is possible that the lower HDL concentrations in NIDDM may in part be attributable to higher hepatic lipase activity. Hepatic lipase is elevated in obese female NIDDM subjects and increased in thin male NIDDM individuals, the activity in the latter group decreasing after normalization of glycemia with insulin therapy.

Reduced HDL leads to diminished clearance of cholesterol from peripheral tissues. The actions of CETP illustrate why hypertriglyceridemia and reduced HDL typically go hand in hand in patients with type 2 diabetes. In the setting of elevated circulating triglycerides, CETP allows an increased influx of VLDL triglycerides into HDL particles. This occurs as an exchange reaction, with a simultaneous efflux of cholesteryl ester out of HDL

particles. This process leads to reduced HDL levels owing to increased clearance of HDL particles.

There is also reduced production of HDL particles in type 2 diabetes owing to abnormal LPL activity, causing decreased conversion of dense, triglyceride-rich HDL to more buoyant particles.

Qualitative Changes in LDL: LDL Particle Size

As already mentioned, although the total LDL level may be normal or only modestly elevated in patients with type 2 diabetes and obesity there are frequently qualitative changes in LDL particles that confer increased risk of CAD.

As individuals proceed from normal insulin sensitivity to insulin resistance, VLDL particles become larger and LDL particles become smaller. Individuals with type 2 diabetes have been shown to have smaller, denser LDL particles even after adjusting for elevated triglyceride levels and lower HDL levels.

LDL particles are divided into two subclasses based on particle size and atherogenicity. Pattern A particles are buoyant and pattern B particles are small, dense and more atherogenic. Pattern B molecules are formed by a lipid exchange process similar to that that occurs in HDL particles in the setting of elevated triglycerides. Through the actions of CETP, triglyceride from VLDL is exchanged with cholesteryl ester from LDL. Hydrolysis of the triglyceride-rich LDL particle produces smaller, denser LDL particles.

Pattern B particles are considered more atherogenic than pattern A particles for several reasons: they adhere to and penetrate the arterial wall more easily, they are more toxic to endothelial cells, they exert a procoagulant effect by causing greater production of plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 by endothelial cells, and they are oxidized more easily.

Studies done in the general population and in diabetic populations have shown that individuals with elevated levels of pattern B particles are at higher risk of CAD.

Glycosylation of LDL

Epidemiological data have demonstrated that higher HbA1C levels are

associated with higher rates of CAD. Severe hyperglycemia may worsen diabetic dyslipidemia via glycosylation of LDL particles. Glycosylated LDL particles are thought to have increased atherogenicity. Advanced glycation end products may modify LDL particles such that they have reduced affinity for hepatic LDL receptors and thereby a prolonged half-life.

LDL particles that "live longer" may have a greater likelihood of becoming

oxidized or taken up by macrophages, in turn leading to the formation of foam cells.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁵

Increased VLDL:

The most common alteration of lipoproteins in NIDDM is an elevation in VLDL, as reflected by either increased total triglyceride or VLDL triglyceride concentrations. Abnormalities in both production and clearance of VLDL triglyceride have been reported in NIDDM. Several studies have observed an overproduction of VLDL triglyceride. Although there are fewer studies of VLDL Apo B metabolism in NIDDM, results indicate that there is a clearance defect similar to that for VLDL triglyceride, whereas VLDL Apo B production may be influenced primarily by obesity. Subjects with type 2 diabetes mellitus have a decrease in fractional catabolic rate (FCR) for VLDL Apo B.⁵⁶

Haffner et al⁵⁷ found slower clearance of chylomicron Apo B in

hyperlipidemic subjects with NIDDM. The proportional decrease in clearance of VLDL Apo B was similar to that observed for VLDL triglyceride.⁵⁸

There appear to be changes in the composition of VLDL in NIDDM which may either reflect or be the cause of alterations in VLDL metabolism. Several studies have suggested that diabetics may have a large, triglyceride rich VLDL.⁵⁹

There are multiple alterations in VLDL metabolism in non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. NIDDM appears to induce an overproduction of VLDL triglyceride and to a lesser extent, of VLDL Apo B. FCR for both VLDL triglyceride and Apo B are lower and are associated with lower activities of LPL.

Finally, there are indications that the VLDL particle in NIDDM has altered composition. The mechanism for the overproduction of VLDL is not clear. The most likely explanation is that it is a result of the increased flow of substrates, particularly glucose and free fatty acids, to the liver.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

SOURCE OF DATA:

All type 2 diabetic mellitus patients with diabetic retinopathy attending outpatient department of Ophthalmology.

METHOD OF COLLECTION OF DATA:

STUDY DURATION- December 2014 - May 2016.

SAMPLE SIZE:.

With 33.9%⁶⁰ prevalence of diabetic retinopathy among the type 2 diabetes mellitus patients (type 2 diabetes mellitus prevalence is 12.4%⁶¹) and margin of error as $\pm 3\%$. The minimum sample size is 164.

Total sample size =164

Formula;⁶²

$$n = \frac{z^2 p(1-p)}{d^2}$$

Where :

n = sample size

z = z statistic(1.96) for 95 % level of confidence

p = expected prevalence

d = margin of error

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS:

All characteristics were summarized descriptively. For continuous variables, the summary statistics of N, mean, standard deviation (SD) were used. For categorical data, the number and percentage were used in the data summaries. Chi-square (χ^2)/ Freeman-Halton Fisher exact test was employed to determine the significance of differences

between groups for categorical data. The difference of the means of analysis variables was tested by ANOVA. If the p-value was < 0.05 , then the results were considered to be significant. Data were analyzed using SPSS software v.23.0.

INCLUSION CRITERIA:

All Patients who has been diagnosed type 2 Diabetes Mellitus with Diabetic retinopathy.

EXCLUSION CRITERIA:

- a) Patient with type 1 diabetes mellitus.
- b) Patients with hypertension.
- c) Patients who have undergone treatment earlier for any form of diabetic eye disease.
- d) Diabetes patients on hypolipidemic drugs.
- e) Patients retinal disease mimicking diabetic retinopathy.

INVESTIGATIONS:

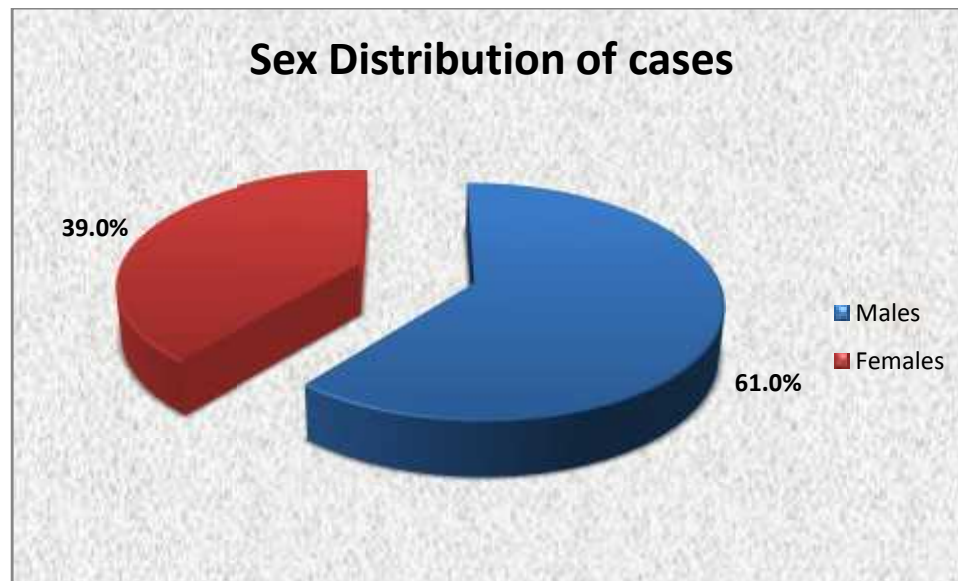
- Blood sugar levels (FBS, PPBS,)
- Lipid profile(Total cholesterol, HDL, LDL, Triglycerides, VLDL)
- Urine Albumin
- HbA_{1C}
- Fundus Fluorescein Angiography if necessary.
- Fundus photograph will be taken wherever feasible.

OBSERVATIONS AND RESULTS

Table No. 13 :Sex Distribution of patients

Sex	N	Percent
Males	100	61.0
Females	64	39.0
Total	164	100

Graph No. 1 : Sex Distribution of patients

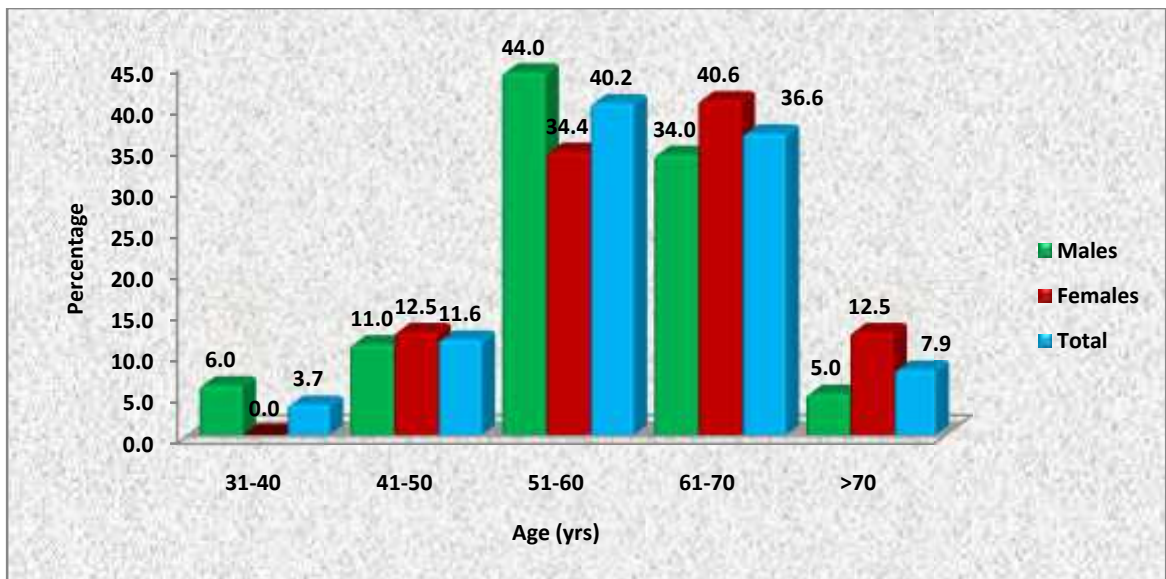


The observation study was conducted on totally 164 consecutive patients of NIDDM. Out of 164, 100 were male and 64 were females.

Table No. 14 : Sex Distribution according to Age of the patients

Age (yrs)	Males		Females		Total		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
31-40	6	6.0	0	0.0	6	3.7	0.09
41-50	11	11.0	8	12.5	19	11.6	
51-60	44	44.0	22	34.4	66	40.2	
61-70	34	34.0	26	40.6	60	36.6	
>70	5	5.0	8	12.5	13	7.9	
Total	100	100.0	64	100.0	164	100.0	

Graph No. 2 : Sex Distribution according to Age of the patients

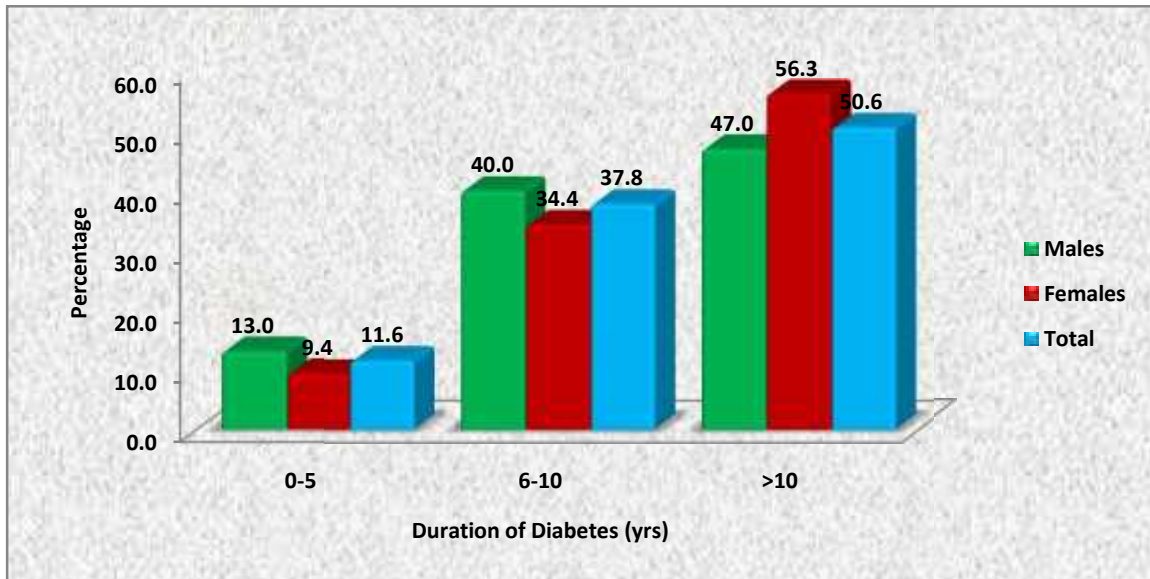


Among both the sexes the age group between 51-60 year had maximum number of patients (40.2%). While between 31-40 years had 3.7%,41-50 had 11.6%, 61-70 had 36.6% and >70 had 7.9%. Sex was not significant different among age groups.

Table No. 15 : Sex Distribution according to Duration of Diabetes

Duration of Diabetes (yrs)	Males		Females		Total		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
0-5	13	13.0	6	9.4	19	11.6	0.489
6-10	40	40.0	22	34.4	62	37.8	
>10	47	47.0	36	56.3	83	50.6	
Total	100	100.0	64	100.0	164	100.0	

Graph No. 3 : Sex Distribution according to Duration of Diabetes

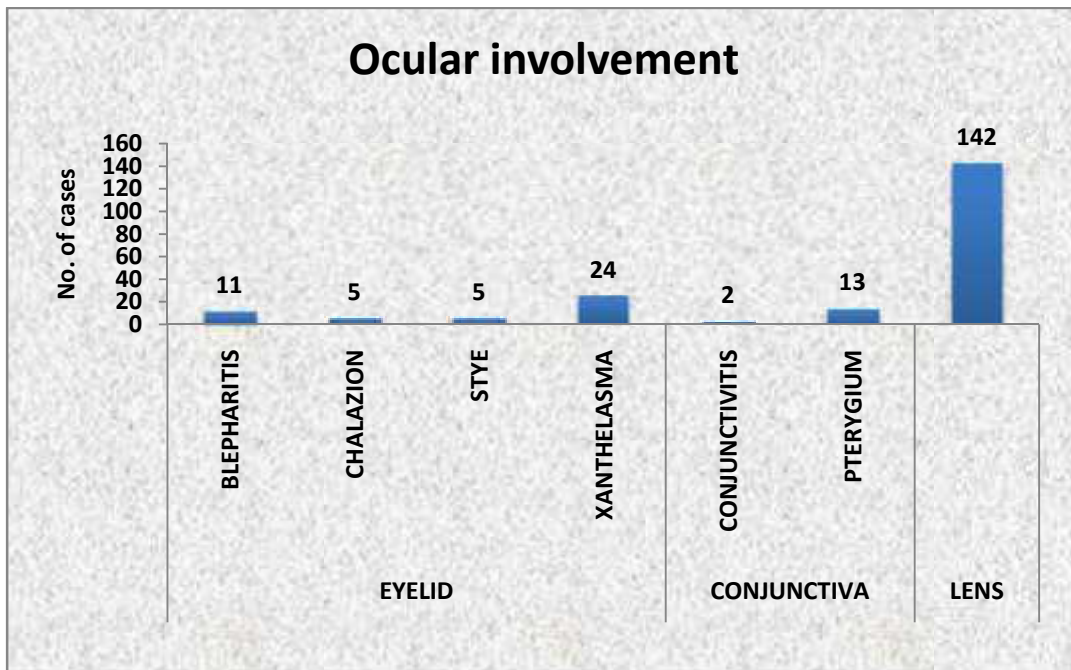


We have accumulated data of duration of diabetes according to the sex distribution . It shows that in both male and female the maximum number of patients had more than 10 years of diabetes (50.6%).Sex was not significant different among duration of diabetes.

Table No. 16 :Ocular involvement among patients

Ocular involvement		N	Percent
EYELID	BLEPHARITIS	11	6.7
	CHALAZION	5	3.0
	STYE	5	3.0
	XANTHELASMA	24	14.6
CONJUNCTIVA	CONJUNCTIVITIS	2	1.2
	PTERYGIUM	13	7.9
LENS		142	86.6
Total		164	100.0

Graph No. 4 :Ocular involvement among patients



We have accumulated data of all the positive ocular involvement, in this study population it shows that most common prevalent ocular involvement is of lens, 142 patients (86.6%), 45 patients have some eyelid lesions out of which 24 have xanthelasma, 11 had blepharitis, 5 had stye, and 5 had chalazion.

Table No. 17 :Distribution of severity of diabetic retinopathy and presence of CSME

Grade of Retinopathy	Retinopathy		Retinopathy With CSME	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
Mild NPDR	34	20.7	0	0.0
Moderate NPDR	82	50	4	36.4
Severe NPDR	24	14.6	3	27.3
Very severe NPDR	2	1.2	0	0.0
PDR	22	13.4	4	36.4
Total	164	100	11	100.0

Graph No. 5 : Distribution of severity of diabetic retinopathy

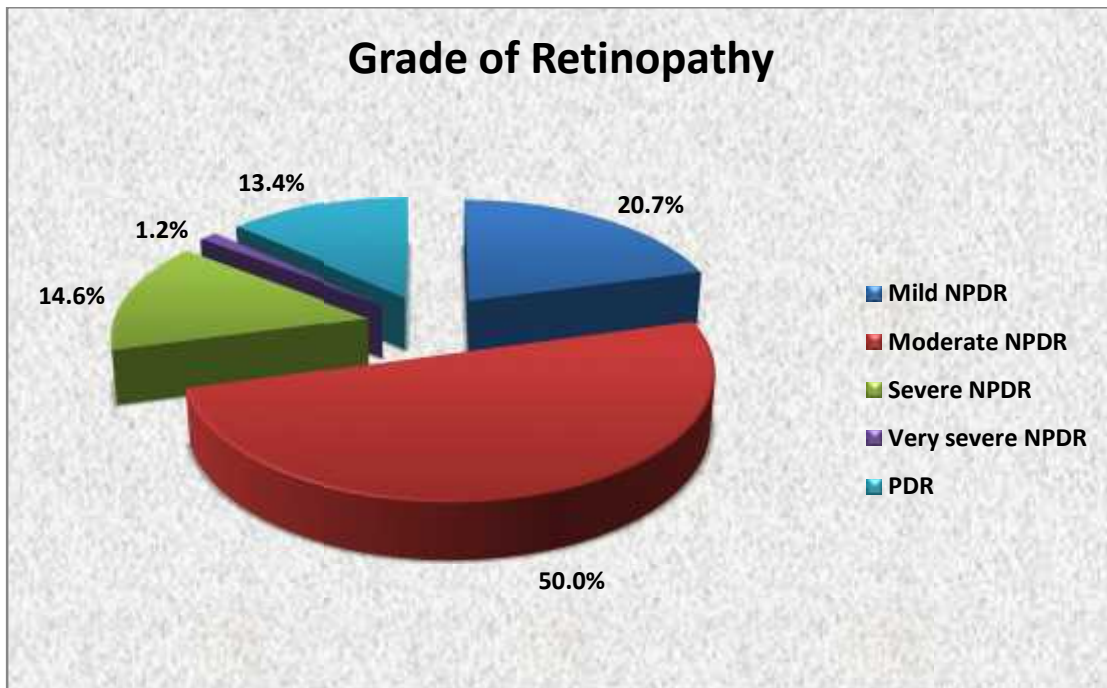
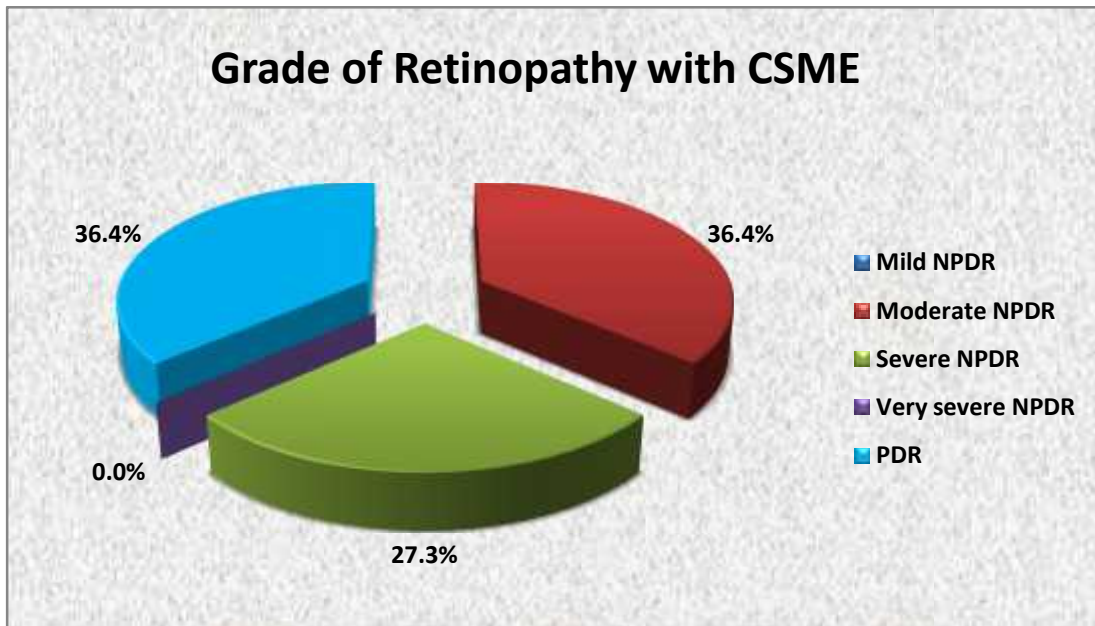


Figure No.6 : Distribution of severity of diabetic retinopathy and presence of CSME

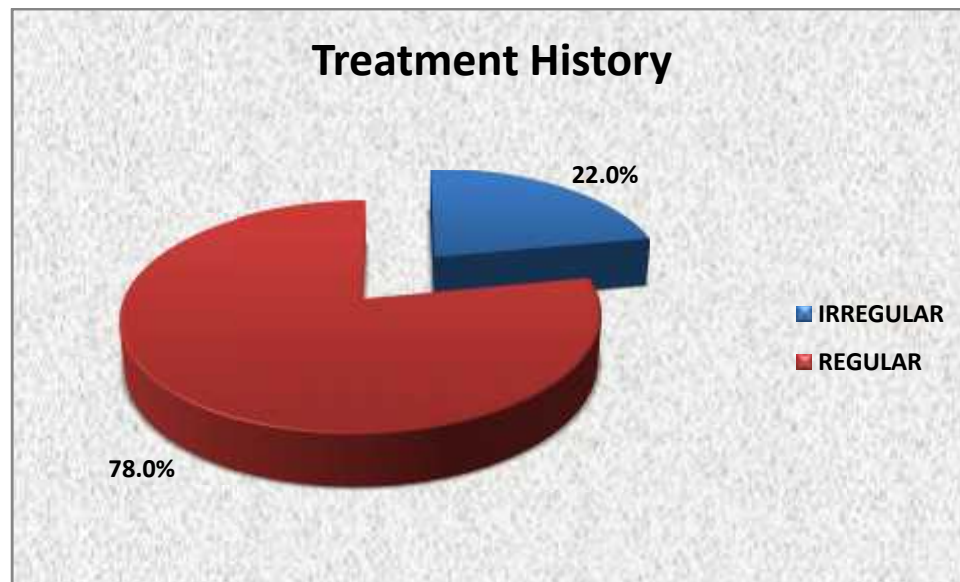


In this study Mild NPDR was present in 34 (20.7%), Moderate NPDR in 82 (50%), Severe NPDR in 24 (14.6%), very severe NPDR 2 (1.2%), PDR in 22 (13.4%) of patients. Among these 11 patients had CSME.

Table No.18 :Distribution ofpatients according to Treatment History

Treatment History	N	Percent
IRREGULAR	36	22.0
REGULAR	128	78.0

GraphNo .7 :Distribution ofpatients according to Treatment History



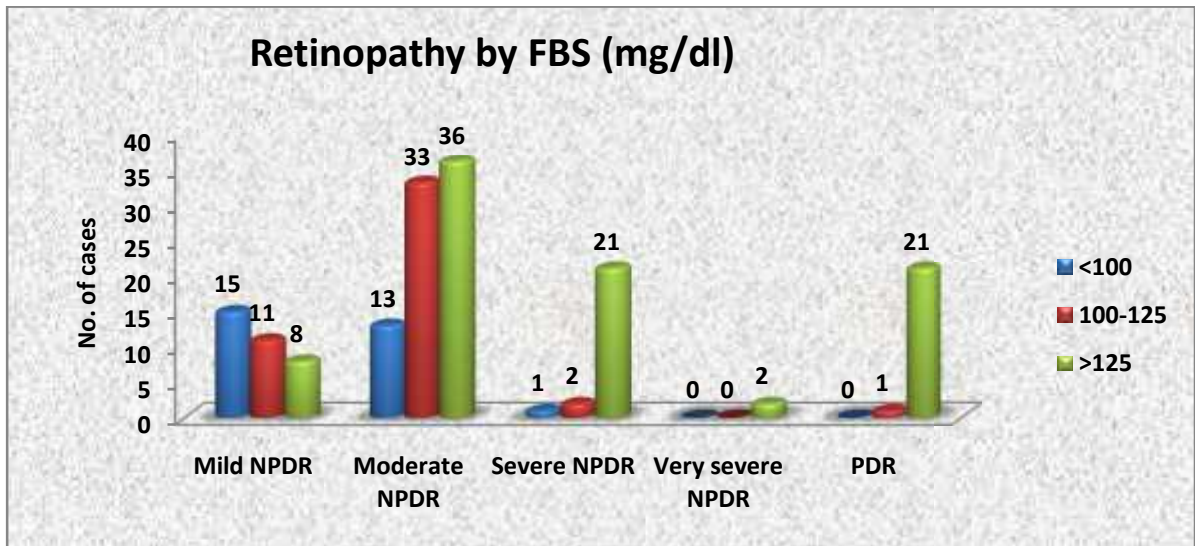
In this study 36 (22%) patients had history of irregular treatment while 128 (78%) had regular treatment.

Table No. 19 :Association of FBS with severity of diabetic retinopathy

FBS (mg/dl)	Mild NPDR		Moderate NPDR		Severe NPDR		Very severe NPDR		PDR		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
<100	15	44.1	13	15.9	1	4.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	<0.001*
100-125	11	32.4	33	40.2	2	8.3	0	0.0	1	4.5	
>125	8	23.5	36	43.9	21	87.5	2	100.0	21	95.5	
Total	34	100.0	82	100.0	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	

Note: *significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No. 8 : Association of FBS with severity of diabetic retinopathy



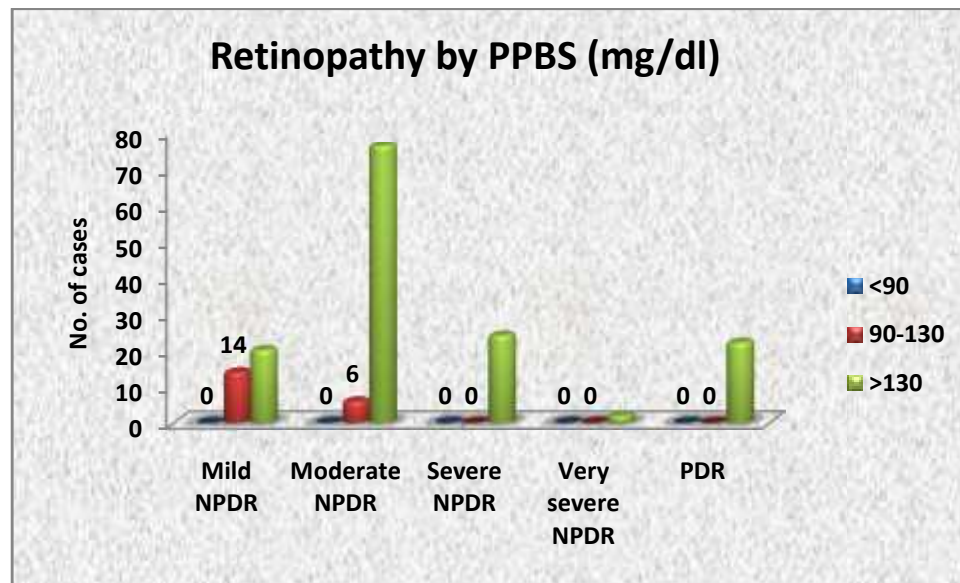
The fasting blood sugar level of patients with different type of retinopathies were examined and found significant with p value of <0.001. The maximum number of Mild NPDR 15 (44.1%) had FBS >100, Moderate NPDR 36 (43.9%) had FBS >125, Severe NPDR 21 (87.5%) had FBS >125, Very severe NPDR 2 (100%) had >125, and PDR 21 had >125. FBS was significant different by severity of diabetic retinopathy.

Table No. 20 :Association of PPBS with severity of diabetic retinopathy

PPBS (mg/dl)	Mild NPDR		Moderate NPDR		Severe NPDR		Very severe NPDR		PDR		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
<90	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0	0	0.0	<0.001*
90-130	14	41.2	6	7.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	
>130	20	58.8	76	92.7	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	
Total	34	100.0	82	100.0	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	

Note: *significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No.9 :Association of PPBS with severity of diabetic retinopathy



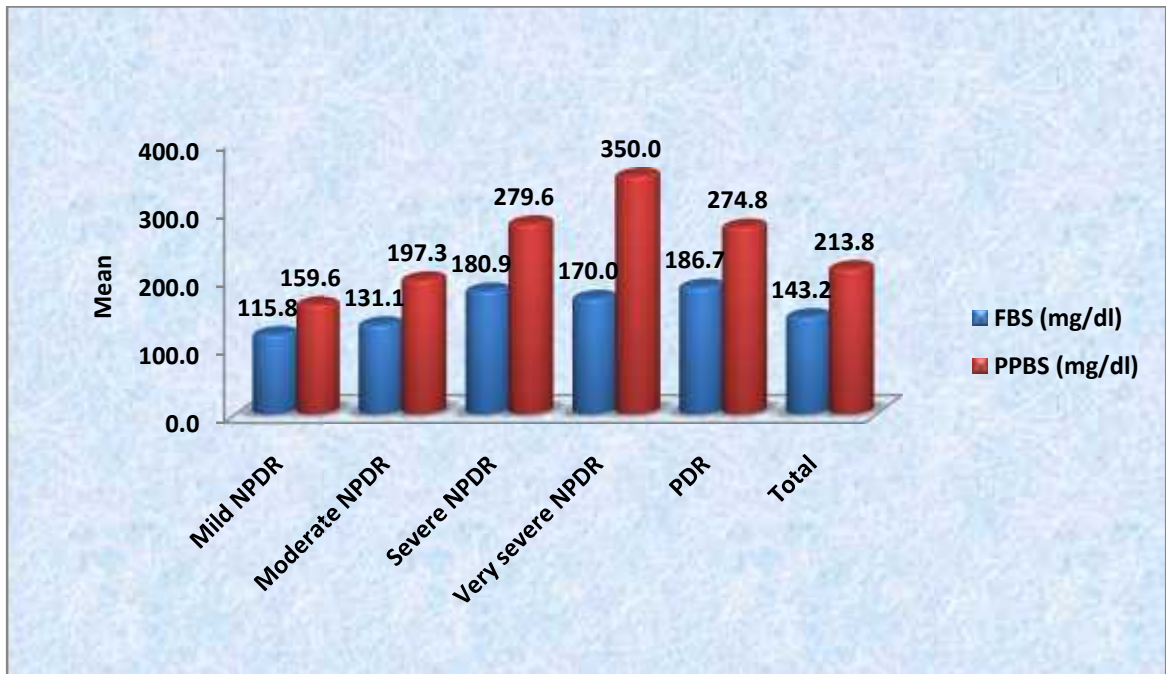
The PPBS value of diabetic retinopathy patients included in the study was examined and found significant with p value of <0.001. Maximum patients with all the different forms of retinopathy had PPBS value >130mg/dl. PPBS was significant different by severity of diabetic retinopathy.

Table No. 21 :Mean Sugar levels according to severity of diabetic retinopathy

Mean±SD	Mild NPDR	Moderate NPDR	Severe NPDR	Very severe NPDR	PDR	Total	p value
FBS (mg/dl)	115.8±46.7	131.1±48.2	180.9±57.3	170±14.1	186.7±40.2	143.2±54.5	<0.001*
PPBS (mg/dl)	159.6±50.9	197.3±61	279.6±72.6	350±42.4	274.8±59.4	213.8±75.5	<0.001*

Note: *significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No. 10 : Mean Sugar levels according to severity of diabetic retinopathy

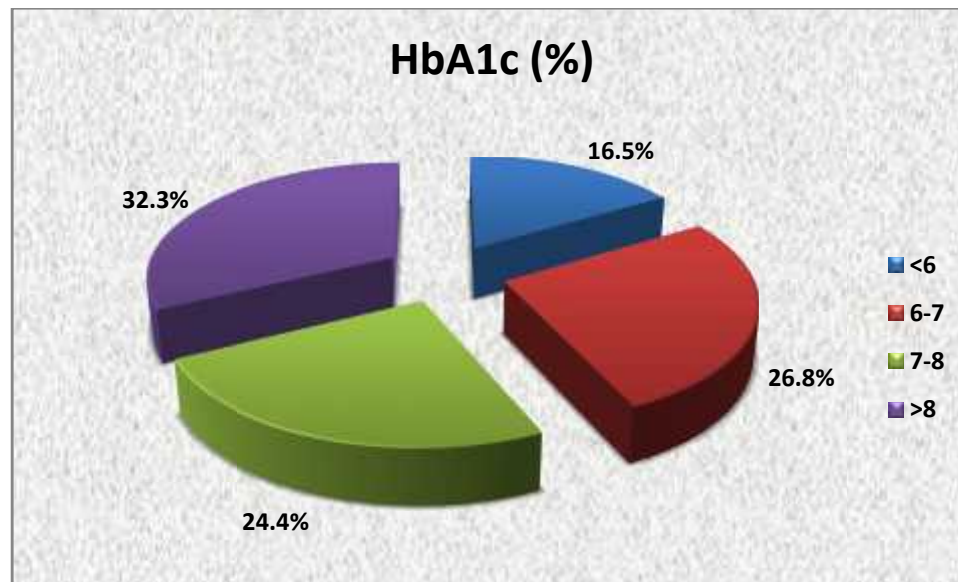


Mean sugar level according to severity of diabetic retinopathy shows a significant relation between the fasting blood sugar level with $p = <0.001$ and PPBS ($p = <0.001$).

Table No. 22 :Distribution of patients according to HbA1c

HbA1c (%)	N	Percent
<6	27	16.5
6-7	44	26.8
7-8	40	24.4
>8	53	32.3
Total	164	100

Graph No. 11: Distribution of patients according to HbA1c

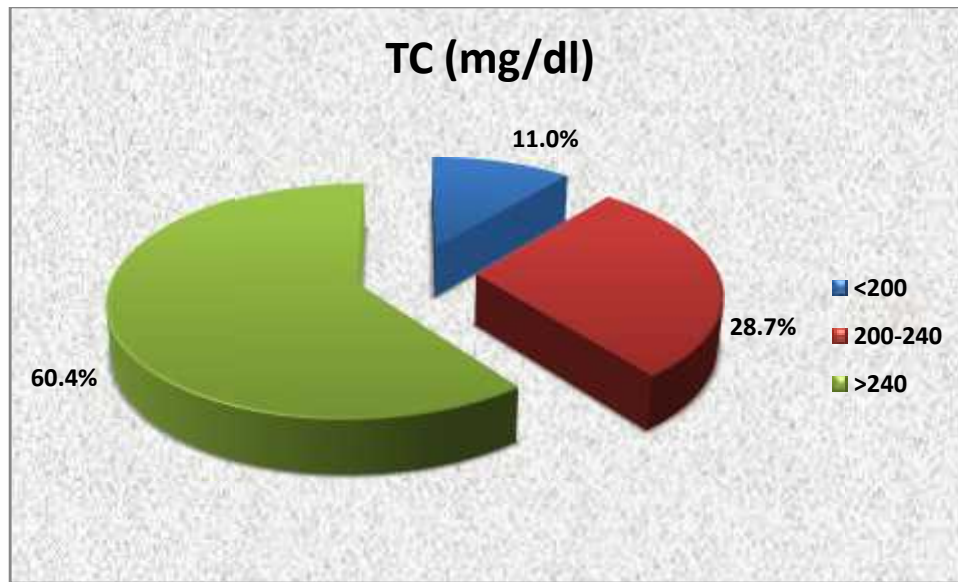


It shows the HbA1c % of patients . According to this study 27 (16.5%) patients has HbA1c value <6, 44 (26.8%) has 6-7, 40 (24.4%) had 7-8,and 53 (32.3%) patients had >8.

Table No. 23 : Distribution of patients according to TC

TC (mg/dl)	N	Percent
<200	18	11
200-240	47	28.7
>240	99	60.4
Total	164	100

Graph No. 12 : Distribution of patients according to TC

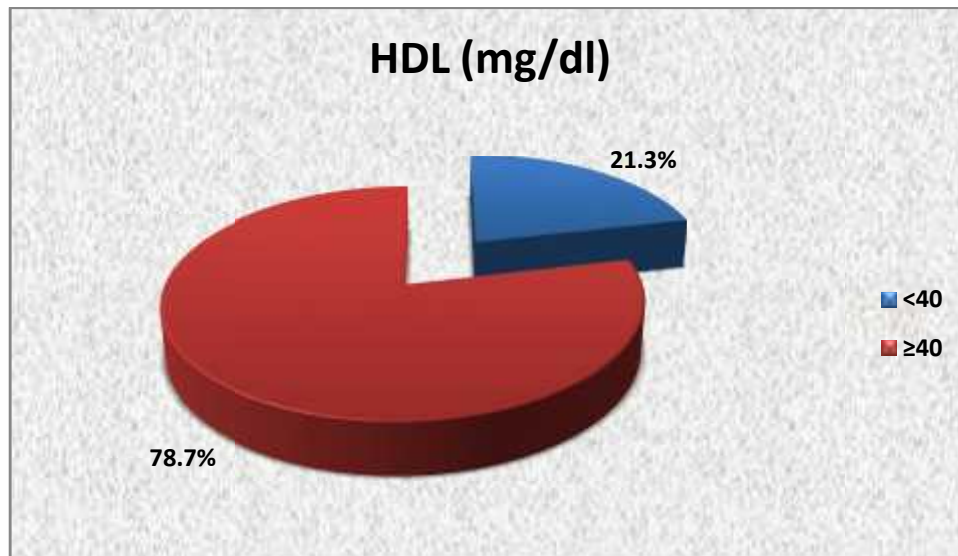


The TC value of patients were recorded which shows 18 patients (11%) had TC value <200mg/dl, 47 (28.7%) had 200-240, 99 (60.4%) had >240.

Table No. 24 :Distribution of patients according to HDL

HDL (mg/dl)	N	Percent
<40	35	21.3
40	129	78.7
Total	164	100

Graph No. 13 : Distribution of patients according to HDL

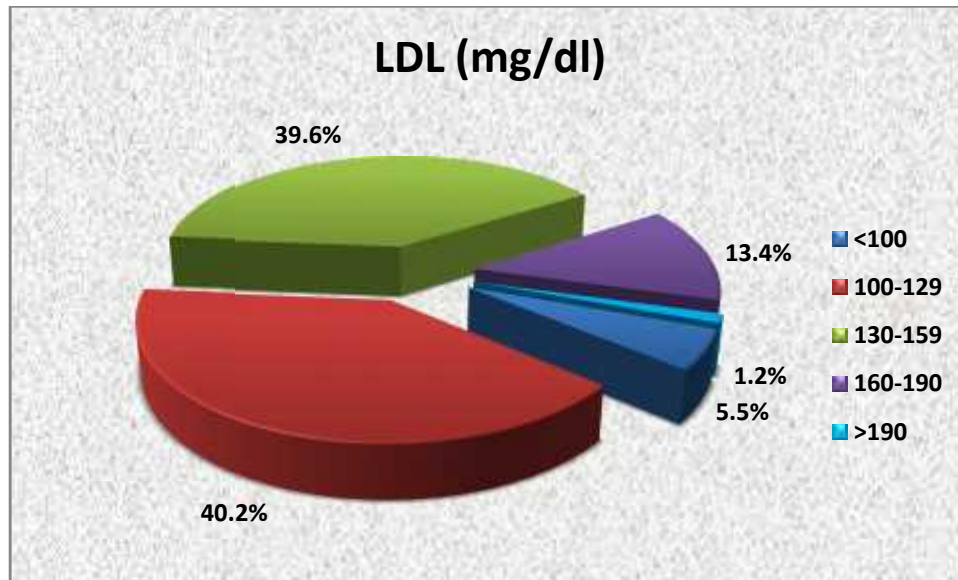


The HDL value shows that 35 (21.3%) had <40mg/dl, 129 (78.7%) have ≥40.

Table No. 25 :Distribution of patients according to LDL

LDL (mg/dl)	N	Percent
<100	9	5.5
100-129	66	40.2
130-159	65	39.6
160-190	22	13.4
>190	2	1.2
Total	164	100

Graph No. 14 : Distribution of patients according to LDL

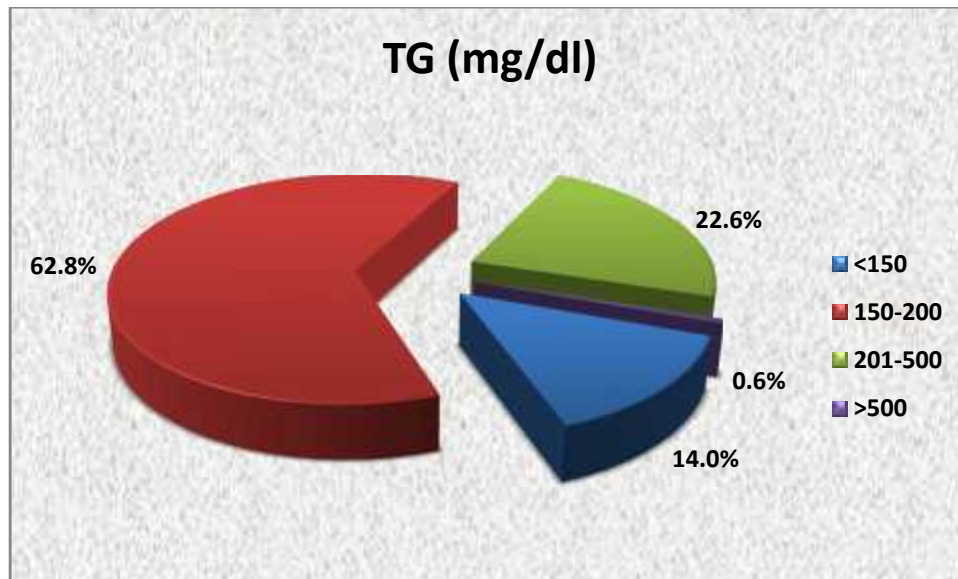


LDL value shows that 9 patients (5.5%) had <100, 66 (40.2%) had 100-129, 65 (39.6%) had 130-159, 22 (13.4%) had 160-190 and 2 (1.2%) had >190.

Table No. 26 : Distribution of patients according to TG

TG (mg/dl)	N	Percent
<150	23	14
150-200	103	62.8
201-500	37	22.6
>500	1	0.6
Total	164	100

Graph No. 15 : Distribution of patients according to TG



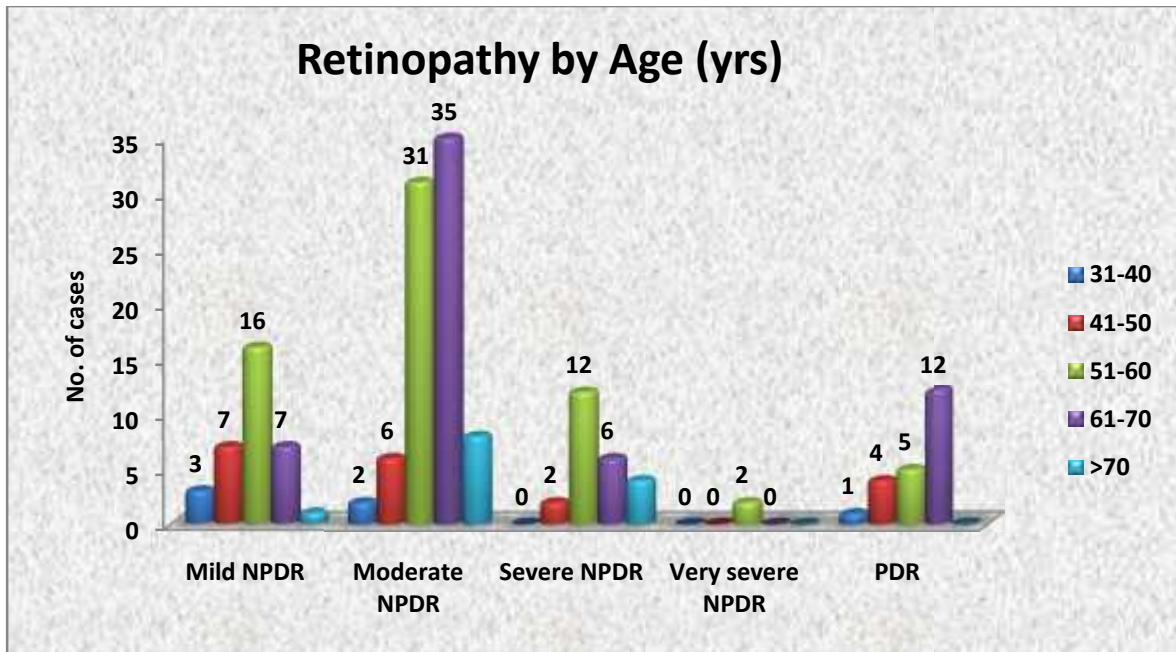
TG record shows that 23 (14%) patients had <150, 103 (62.8%) had 150-200, 37 (22.6%) had 201-500, 1 (0.6%) had >500.

Table No. 27 : Association of age with severity of diabetic retinopathy

Age (yrs)	Mild NPDR		Moderate NPDR		Severe NPDR		Very severe NPDR		PDR		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
31-40	3	8.8	2	2.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	4.5	0.049*
41-50	7	20.6	6	7.3	2	8.3	0	0.0	4	18.2	
51-60	16	47.1	31	37.8	12	50.0	2	100.0	5	22.7	
61-70	7	20.6	35	42.7	6	25.0	0	0.0	12	54.5	
>70	1	2.9	8	9.8	4	16.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	
Total	34	100.0	82	100.0	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	

Note:*significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No. 16 : Association of age with severity of diabetic retinopathy



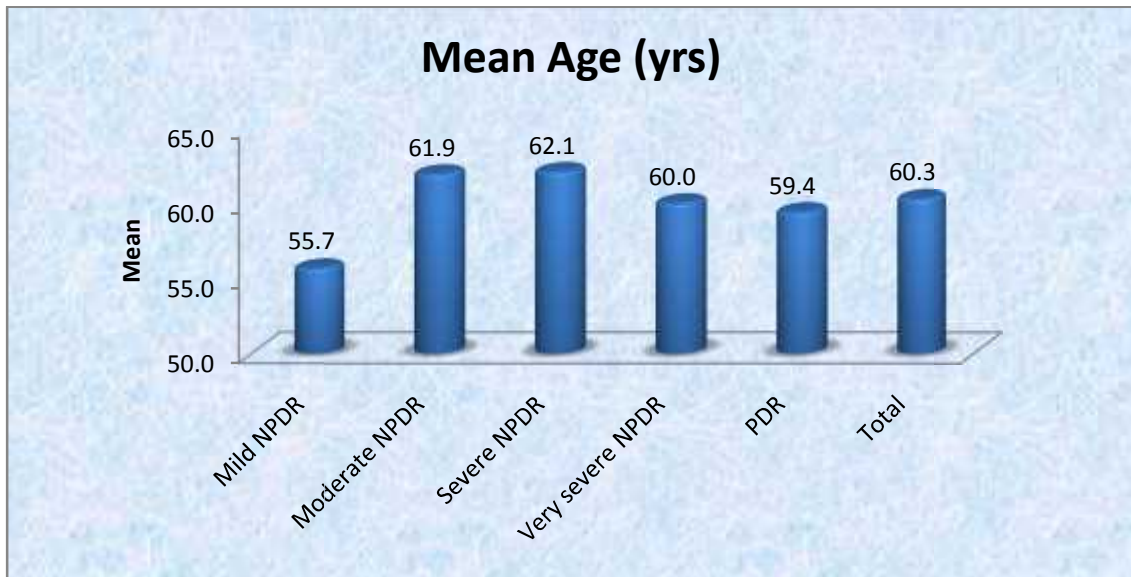
In this study, most of the patients were found to be in the age group of 51-60 years. A significant association was found between age group and diabetic retinopathy (p=0.049), with moderate NPDR most common (82) followed by Mild NPDR.

Table No. 28 :Mean age according to severity of diabetic retinopathy

Mean±SD	Mild NPDR	Moderate NPDR	Severe NPDR	Very severe NPDR	PDR	Total	p value
Age (yrs)	55.7±9.4	61.9±7.9	62.1±7.9	60±0	59.4±8.8	60.3±8.6	0.006*

Note:*significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No. 17 :Mean age according to severity of diabetic retinopathy

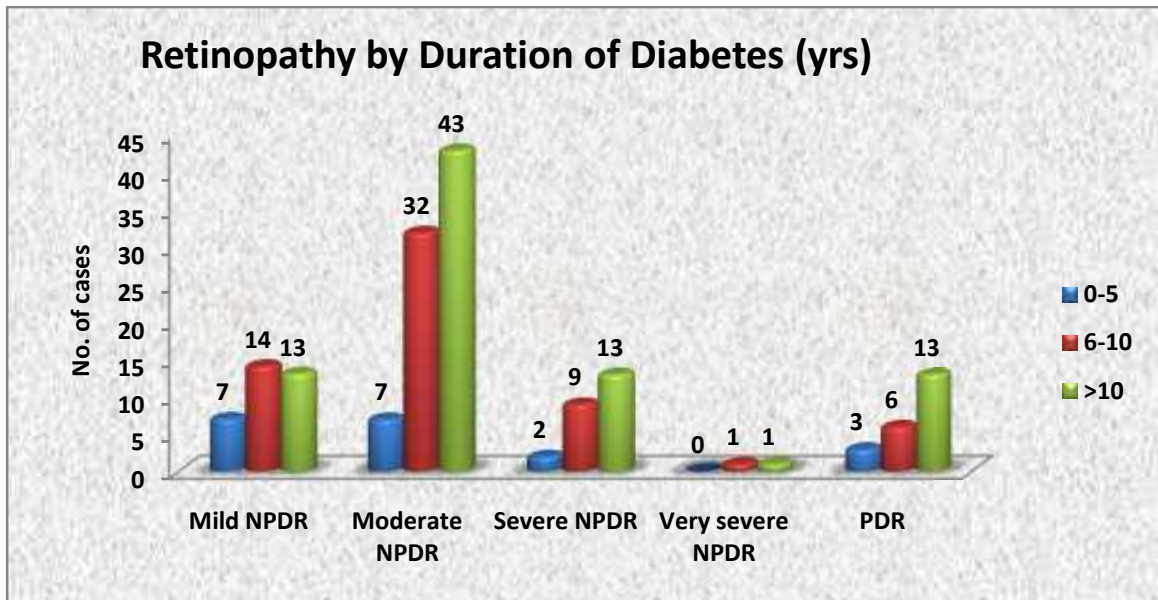


The study that the average age of severity of retinopathy with 55.7±9.4 of Mild NPDR, 61.9±7.9 of Moderate NPDR, 62.1±7.9 of Severe NPDR, 60 of Very severe NPDR and 59.4±8.8 of PDR. The age was significantly different with severity of retinopathy.

Table No. 29 : Association of Duration of Diabetes with severity of diabetic retinopathy

Duration of Diabetes (yrs)	Mild NPDR		Moderate NPDR		Severe NPDR		Very severe NPDR		PDR		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
0-5	7	20.6	7	8.5	2	8.3	0	0.0	3	13.6	0.66
6-10	14	41.2	32	39.0	9	37.5	1	50.0	6	27.3	
>10	13	38.2	43	52.4	13	54.2	1	50.0	13	59.1	
Total	34	100.0	82	100.0	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	

Graph No. 18: Association of Duration of Diabetes with severity of diabetic retinopathy

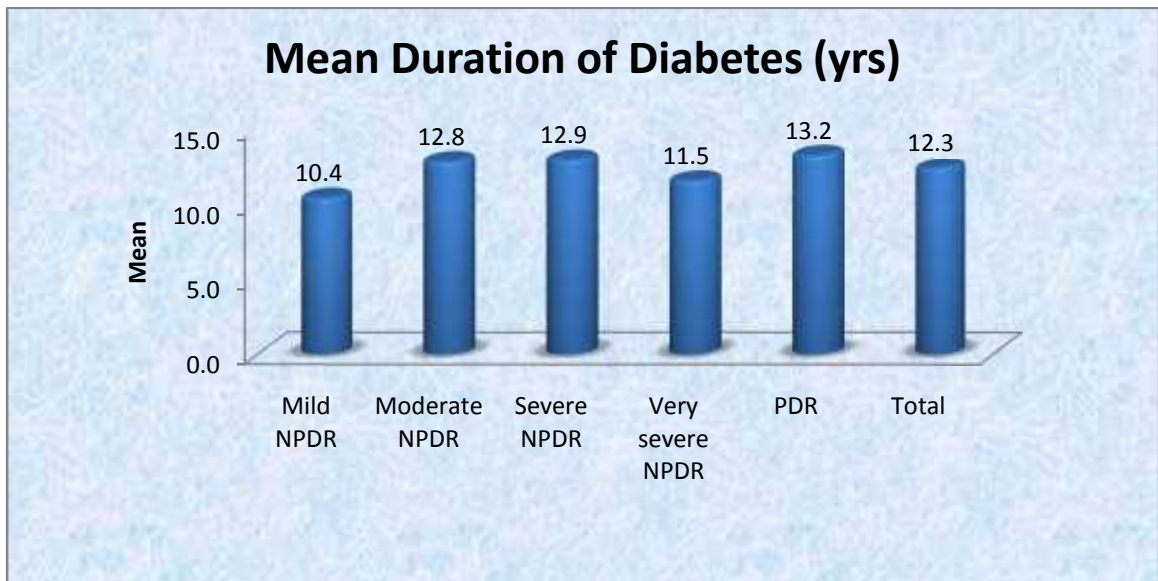


It shows association of duration of diabetes with severity of diabetic retinopathy. According to which the severity of diabetic retinopathy was not significant to duration ($p=0.66$) and the maximum patients of different retinopathies were above 10 years. The age groups were not significantly distributed with severity of retinopathy.

Table No. 30 : Mean Duration of Diabetes according to severity of diabetic retinopathy

Mean±SD	Mild NPDR	Moderate NPDR	Severe NPDR	Very severe NPDR	PDR	Total	p value
Duration of Diabetes (yrs)	10.4±5.4	12.8±5.6	12.9±4.9	11.5±4.9	13.2±7.2	12.3±5.7	0.262

Graph No.19 :Mean Duration of Diabetes according to severity of diabetic retinopathy



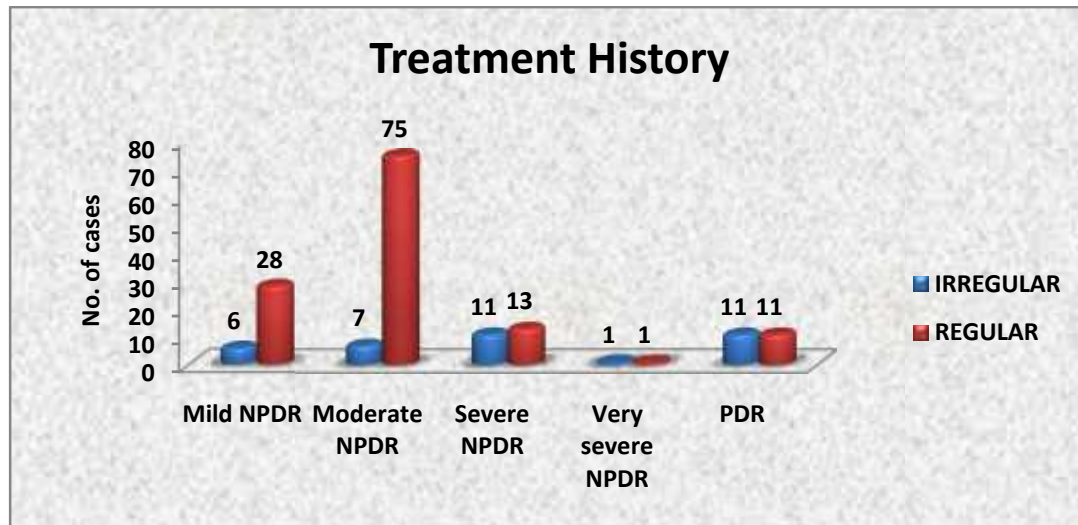
This shows mean duration of diabetes according to severity of diabetic retinopathies with value $p=0.262$. The duration was not significantly different with severity of retinopathy.

Table No. 31 : Association of Treatment History with severity of diabetic retinopathy

Treatment History	Mild NPDR		Moderate NPDR		Severe NPDR		Very severe NPDR		PDR		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
IRREGULAR	6	17.6	7	8.5	11	45.8	1	50.0	11	50.0	<0.001*
REGULAR	28	82.4	75	91.5	13	54.2	1	50.0	11	50.0	
Total	34	100.0	82	100.0	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	

Note:*significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No. 20 : Association of Treatment History with severity of diabetic retinopathy



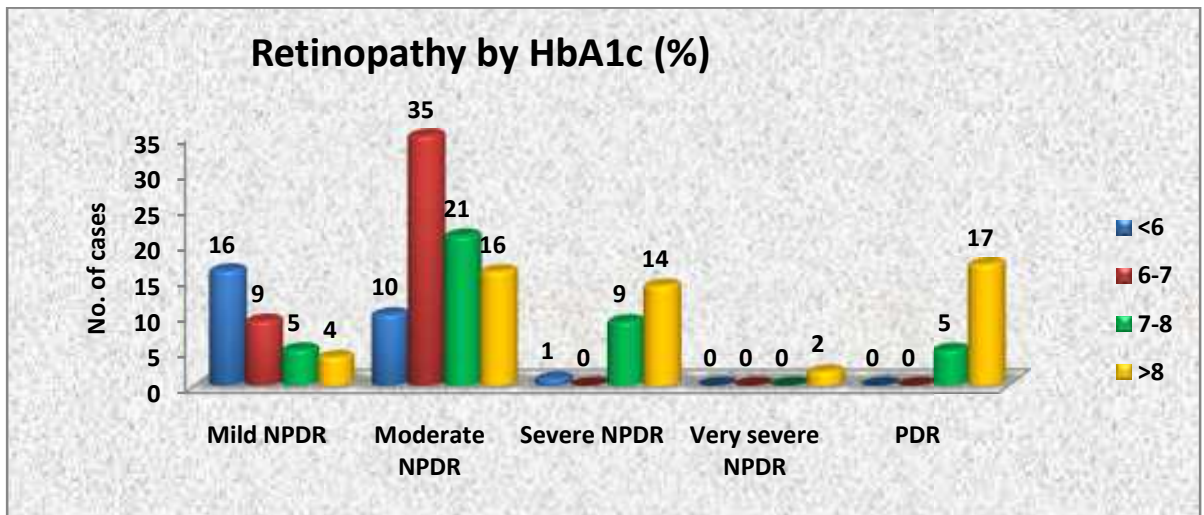
Association of treatment history with severity of diabetic retinopathy is significant (p=0.001) with most patients of different severity of diabetic retinopathies had regular treatment.

Table No. 32 : Association of HbA1c with severity of diabetic retinopathy

HbA1c (%)	Mild NPDR		Moderate NPDR		Severe NPDR		Very severe NPDR		PDR		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
<6	16	47.1	10	12.2	1	4.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	<0.001*
6-7	9	26.5	35	42.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	
7-8	5	14.7	21	25.6	9	37.5	0	0.0	5	22.7	
>8	4	11.8	16	19.5	14	58.3	2	100.0	17	77.3	
Total	34	100.0	82	100.0	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	

Note:*significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No . 21 : Association of HbA1c with severity of diabetic retinopathy



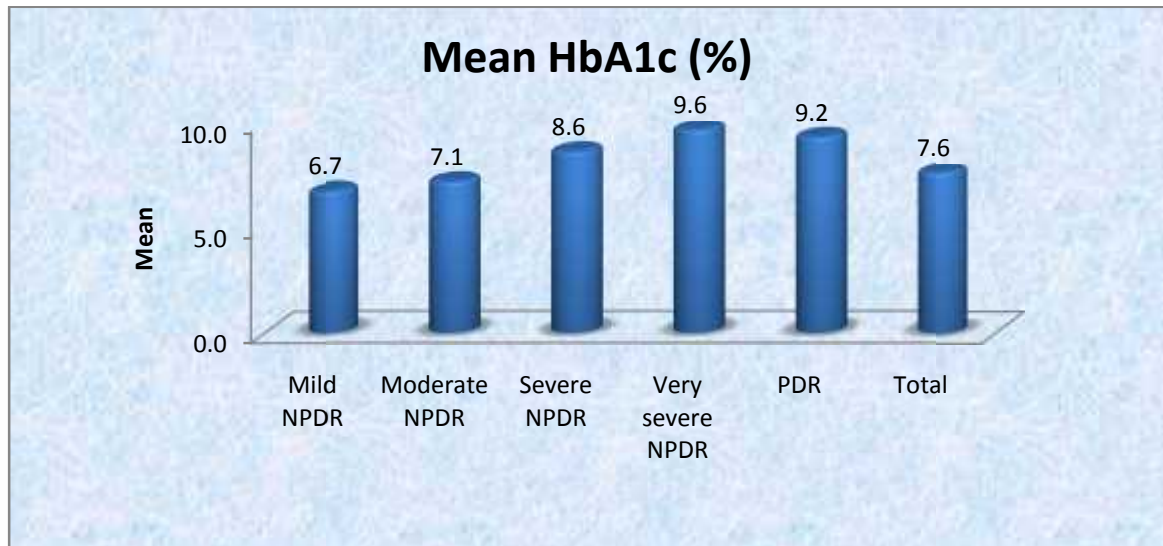
HbA1c has been known as a marker of glycemic control. We used this serum marker to identify the relation between the level of uncontrolled hyperglycemia with prevalence of different retinopathies. The study yielded a highly significant result (P=<0.001). Our study found that with increasing HbA1c levels, prevalence of retinopathies increases. From above table it is clear that Mild NPDR (47.1%) is seen at low levels of HbA1c (<6%), Moderate NPDR (42.7%) is most prevalent between 6-7% of HbA1c and Severe NPDR(58.3%) is most common at >8% levels while PDR at >8% levels.

Table No. 33 : Mean HbA1c according to severity of diabetic retinopathy

Mean±SD	Mild NPDR	Moderate NPDR	Severe NPDR	Very severe NPDR	PDR	Total	p value
HbA1c (%)	6.7±1.7	7.1±1.1	8.6±1.6	9.6±0.8	9.2±1.6	7.6±1.6	<0.001*

Note:*significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No. 22 :Mean HbA1c according to severity of diabetic retinopathy



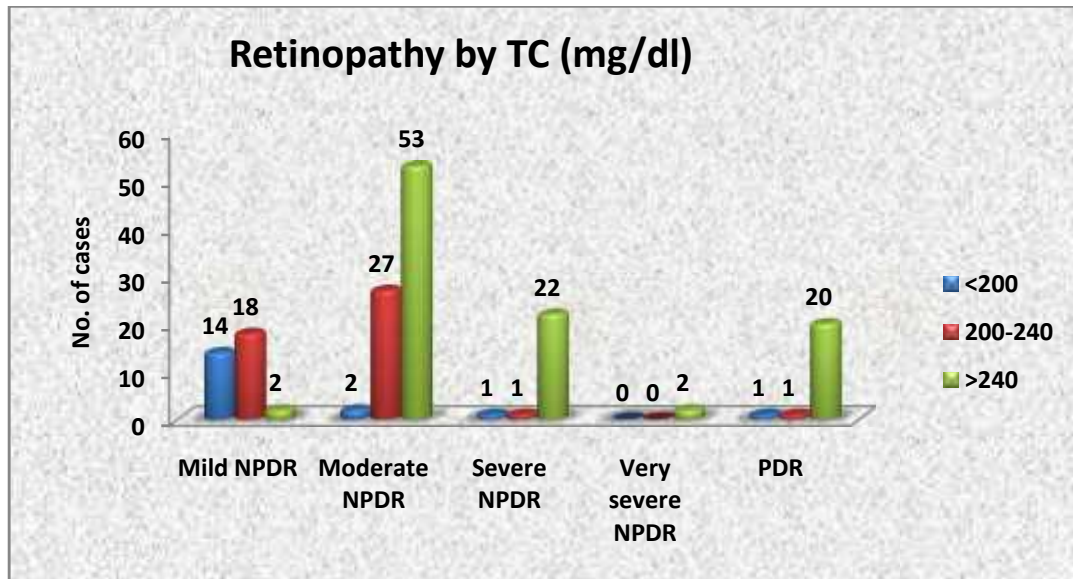
The mean value of HbA1c according to severity of diabetic retinopathy is significant with a value of $p = <0.001$.

Table No. 34 :Association of TC with severity of diabetic retinopathy

TC (mg/dl)	Mild NPDR		Moderate NPDR		Severe NPDR		Very severe NPDR		PDR		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
<200	14	41.2	2	2.4	1	4.2	0	0.0	1	4.5	<0.001*
200-240	18	52.9	27	32.9	1	4.2	0	0.0	1	4.5	
>240	2	5.9	53	64.6	22	91.7	2	100.0	20	90.9	
Total	34	100.0	82	100.0	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	

Note:*significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No. 23 : Association of TC with severity of diabetic retinopathy

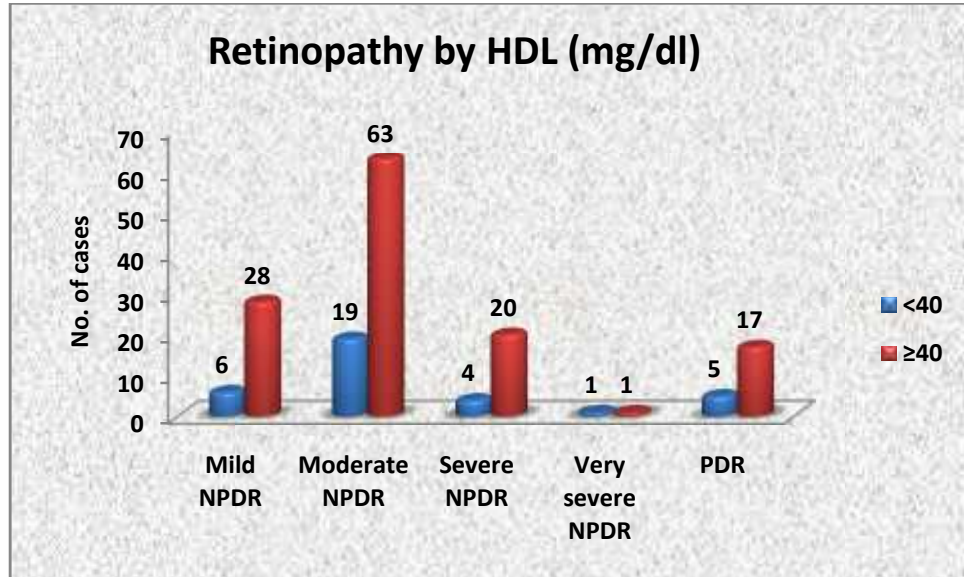


The present study showed statistically significant correlation between diabetic retinopathy and raised total cholesterol level (p=<0.001). The table shows that Mild NPDR patients were maximum (52.9%) for Tc 200-240, Moderate NPDR (64.6%) at TC >240, Severe NPDR (91.7%) at TC >240, Very Severe NPDR (100%) at TC >240 and PDR (90.9%) at TC >240.

Table No. 35 : Association of HDL with severity of diabetic retinopathy

HDL (mg/dl)	Mild NPDR		Moderate NPDR		Severe NPDR		Very severe NPDR		PDR		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
<40	6	17.6	19	23.2	4	16.7	1	50.0	5	22.7	0.781
40	28	82.4	63	76.8	20	83.3	1	50.0	17	77.3	
Total	34	100.0	82	100.0	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	

Graph No24 :Association of HDL with severity of diabetic retinopathy



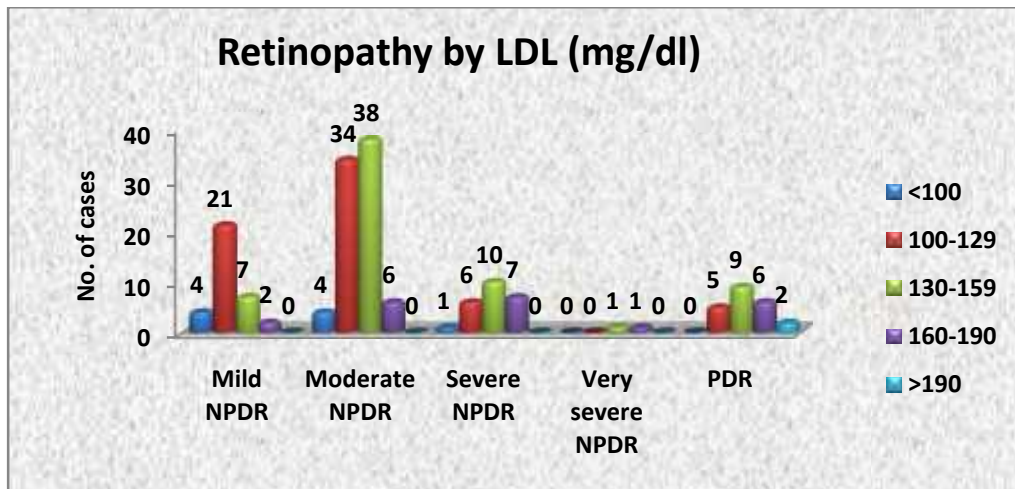
While comparing the association of different retinopathies with HDL (mg/dl) it was found that all these retinopathies were maximum for HDL value of > 40 mg/dl with Mild NPDR 82.4%, Moderate NPDR 76.8%, Severe NPDR 83.3%, Very severe NPDR 50% and PDR 77.3%. HDL was not significantly different with severity of retinopathy.

Table No. 36 : Association of LDL with severity of diabetic retinopathy

LDL (mg/dl)	Mild NPDR		Moderate NPDR		Severe NPDR		Very severe NPDR		PDR		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
<100	4	11.8	4	4.9	1	4.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	<0.001*
100-129	21	61.8	34	41.5	6	25.0	0	0.0	5	22.7	
130-159	7	20.6	38	46.3	10	41.7	1	50.0	9	40.9	
160-190	2	5.9	6	7.3	7	29.2	1	50.0	6	27.3	
>190	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	9.1	
Total	34	100.0	82	100.0	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	

Note:*significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No. 25 : Association of LDL with severity of diabetic retinopathy



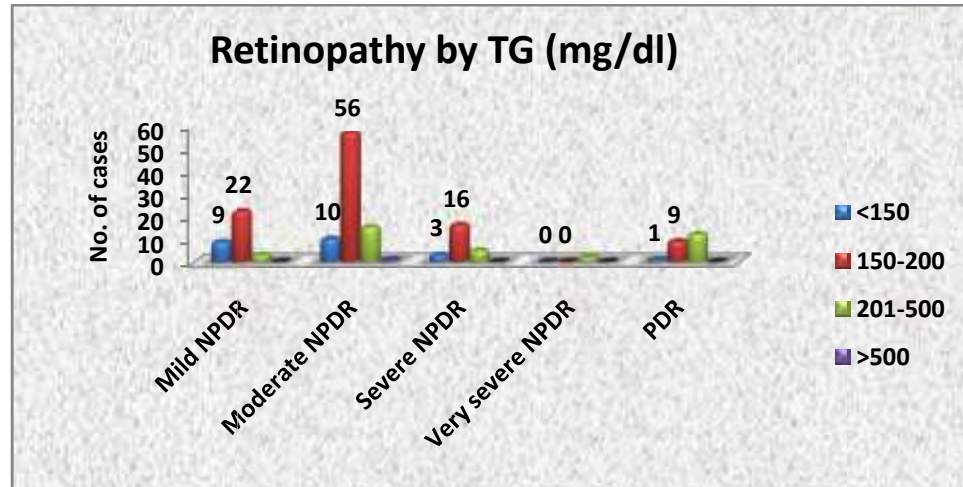
The association of LDL level and different retinopathies was found significant (<0.001) with maximum number of Mild NPDR 21 (61.8%) at 100-129 value of LDL and others retinopathies, Moderate , Severe , Very severe and PDR at 130-159.

Table No. 37 : Association of TG with severity of diabetic retinopathy

TG (mg/dl)	Mild NPDR		Moderate NPDR		Severe NPDR		Very severe NPDR		PDR		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
<150	9	26.5	10	12.2	3	12.5	0	0.0	1	4.5	0.004*
150-200	22	64.7	56	68.3	16	66.7	0	0.0	9	40.9	
201-500	3	8.8	15	18.3	5	20.8	2	100.0	12	54.5	
>500	0	0.0	1	1.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	
Total	34	100.0	82	100.0	24	100.0	2	100.0	22	100.0	

Note:*significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No. 26 : Association of TG with severity of diabetic retinopathy



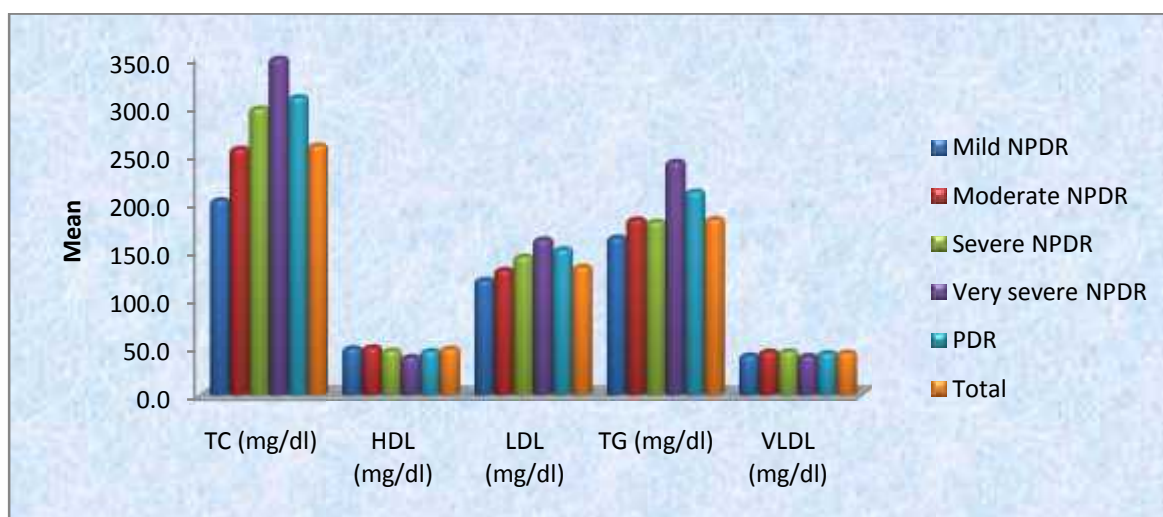
The triglyceride level where determined in different type of retinopathies which showed a significant correlation (p=0.004). All forms of retinopathies were found at high triglyceride level, with Mild NPDR max (64.7%) at 150-200, Moderate NPDR (68.3%) at 150-200, Severe NPDR (66.7%) at 150-200, and PDR (54.5%) at >500 value of TG. While comparing the association of levels of different lipid profiles of patients of different type of retinopathies a clear significant correlation was found between TC, LDL and TG (0.005).

Table No. 38 : Association of Mean Lipid profiles with severity of diabetic retinopathy

Mean±SD	Mild NPDR	Moderate NPDR	Severe NPDR	Very severe NPDR	PDR	Total	p value
TC (mg/dl)	201.2±30.8	254.4±30	295.9±46	347.5±10.6	307.7±41.1	257.7±49.8	<0.001*
HDL (mg/dl)	47.9±11.1	48.8±20	45.5±10.2	39±1.4	45±10.2	47.5±16	0.73
LDL (mg/dl)	118.3±19.6	128.6±19.1	142.4±25.4	160±28.3	149.9±28.9	131.7±24	<0.001*
TG (mg/dl)	161.9±25.6	180.5±58.2	178.2±36.4	240±28.3	209.4±49.4	180.9±50.5	0.005*
VLDL (mg/dl)	40.5±11.1	44.3±14.9	44.6±24.7	40±28.3	43±15.8	43.4±16.1	0.816

Note:*significant at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)

Graph No. 27 : Association of Mean Lipid profiles with severity of diabetic retinopathy



While comparing the association of levels of different lipid profiles of patients of different type of diabetic retinopathies, a clear significant correlation was found between TC (p=0.001), LDL (p=<0.001) and TG (p=0.005).

DISCUSSION

It is believed that the Indian population generally has an unusually efficient glucose metabolism. But with westernisation and the associated weight increase and sedentary lifestyle, the former advantage is lost and incidence of diabetes has increased. Paralleling this high prevalence of diabetes is a concern that the complications of diabetes, mainly diabetic retinopathy is increasing.⁶³

Hyperglycemia and dyslipidemia are two major metabolic disorders seen in patients with diabetes mellitus. The role of diabetic dyslipidemia in the development of microvascular complications has received much less attention.⁶⁴ This study aimed to determine the relationship between plasma lipid profile and the severity of diabetic retinopathy in type 2 diabetes patients.

The present study had 164 patients with male predominance of 100 males and 64 females. The male to female ratio [M: F] was 1.5:1. In a clinical cohort in Chennai Diabetic retinopathy appeared to be prevalent more in the males compared to females (sex ratio 2:1).⁶⁵ Similar male preponderance was also seen in the CURES Eye study,⁶⁶ UKPDS study⁶⁷ Gupta et al⁶⁸ and the Andhra Pradesh Eye Disease study (APEDS).⁶⁹

Most patients were in the age group of 51-60 years. The relationship of retinopathy with age was in concordance to that found in many other studies. Like several other epidemiologic studies, this study also showed an increased prevalence of DR with increasing age. Dondana et al⁵ CURES Eye Study⁶⁶ and APED Study⁶⁹ also have found significant correlation between the patient age and diabetic retinopathy.

In the present study, the duration since diagnosis of diabetes (diabetic age) ranged from 5 - 25 years. The study population had maximum patients with diabetic of duration more than 10 years. There may be some bias in estimating the real duration of diabetes in these patients, as the discovery of diabetes could have been delayed due to lack of symptoms and the insidious onset of type 2 diabetes. While recording the different type of retinopathies, 34 (20.7%) had Mild NPDR, 82 (50%) Moderate NPDR, 24 (14.6%)

Severe NPDR, 2(1.2%) Very severe NPDR and 22(13.4%)PDR. The mean age of different retinopathies being 60.3+8.6.

The present study showed statistically significant correlation between diabetic retinopathy and raised total cholesterol level ($p < 0.001$) and low density lipoprotein ($p < 0.001$). the correlation of diabetic retinopathy and TG was also significant ($p = 0.004$). Rema et al (CURES eye study)⁶⁶ and Haddad et al⁷⁰ also found that both serum triglyceride ($p = 0.001$) levels and total cholesterol ($P = 0.014$) were higher in patients with diabetic retinopathy as compared to those without diabetic retinopathy. While Gupta et al⁷¹ demonstrated that diabetics with raised LDL levels showed higher prevalence of Diabetic retinopathy (38%) compared to others (28.3%) ($p = 0.05$). In contrast to this study, Al-Bdouret al⁸ and Larsson et al⁷¹ also found significant correlation between higher levels of serum total cholesterol and retinopathy.

The drawbacks of the study are that the fundus photograph, which is the standard pattern of recording of fundus changes were not taken for all patients. In such conditions it is more common to underestimate than to overestimate fundus changes related to diabetic retinopathy. In the present study CSME was diagnosed by Slit lamp biomicroscopy with 78D/ 90D lens and indirect ophthalmoscope. Because of the non-availability, the newer, the more sensitive method of assessing retinal thickening such as with optical coherence tomography were. The study did not evaluate other risk factors for the development of retinopathy like anemia. Also, the referral of uncontrolled diabetics to the tertiary centre would have allowed the possibility of selection bias to creep into the study.

CONCLUSION

The present study demonstrated statistically significant correlation between diabetic retinopathy and hypercholesterolemia.

Increased cholesterol level was significantly associated with the occurrence of all grades of retinopathy especially severe NPDR, very severe NPDR and PDR.

- Increased significant total cholesterol levels in patients with different type of retinopathies.
- Increased significant low density lipoprotein in different severities of diabetic retinopathies.
- Increased significant triglyceride levels in patients with different retinopathies.

It also showed that hypercholesterolemia is significantly associated with CSME. The current treatment for diabetic retinopathy is laser photocoagulation. With the advent of systemic lipid lowering therapy over the last decade, there may be potential for medical therapy also. There is some anecdotal evidence of the effect of lipid lowering agents in reducing hard exudates.¹⁰ Further studies are required to establish the causal relationship between dyslipidemia and diabetic retinopathy. If established, these data can lend additional support to current treatment guidelines recommending aggressive lowering of elevated lipids among diabetic patients. Rigorous lipid control, in addition to its known health benefits in preventing cardiovascular disease, may also lessen ocular morbidity and associated health care costs, thereby potentially improving quality of life and vision among people with type 2 diabetes.

SUMMARY

Diabetic retinopathy is a very common potentially preventable, long term, microvascular complication of diabetes mellitus and a leading cause of visual disability and blindness. In India the prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in general population is 3.5% and the prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in the population with NIDDM was 18%. While there are multiple risk factors which have been associated with development and progression of retinopathy. Elevated serum lipid levels are associated with an increased risk of retinal hard exudates in retinopathy and play an important role in pathogenesis of retinopathy.

This was a prospective observational study on 164 type 2 diabetes patients. Collected data of each patient included detailed diabetes history, ophthalmological examination, serum lipid profile. The data gathered was tabulated into master chart and statistical analysis done for relevant tables.

Significant results included:

1. Different types of diabetic retinopathies are correlated with the raised level of total cholesterol($p=0.001$).
2. Types of retinopathy and its severity is related to the increase in triglyceride value($p=0.004$).
3. Diabetic retinopathy patients had raise LDL($p<0.001$).

Appropriate treatment of diabetes and optimal control of dyslipidemia is the prevention of different type of diabetic retinopathies. At the same time, following the various guidelines to screen and detect these complication will make a difference in the final outcome of patients.

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ANNEXURE -I

ANNEXURE - II

**INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN
DISSERTATION/RESEARCH**

I, the undersigned, _____, S/O D/O W/O _____, aged _____ years, ordinarily resident of _____ do hereby state/declare that

has examined me thoroughly on _____ at _____ (place) and it has been explained to me in my own language that I am suffering from _____ disease (condition) and this disease/condition mimic following diseases. Further Dr. _____ informed me that he/she is conducting dissertation/research titled “Lipid Profile In Diabetic Retinopathy In Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus” under the guidance of Dr Sunil G. Biradar requesting my participation in the study. Apart from routine treatment procedure, the pre-operative, operative, post-operative and follow-up observations will be utilized for the study as reference data.

Doctor has also informed me that during conduct of this procedure like adverse results may be encountered. Among the above complications most of them are treatable but are not anticipated hence there is chance of aggravation of my condition and in rare circumstances it may prove fatal in spite of anticipated diagnosis and best treatment made available. Further Doctor has informed me that my participation in this study help in evaluation of the results of the study which is useful reference to treatment of other similar cases in near future, and also I may be benefited in getting relieved of suffering or cure of the disease I am suffering.

The Doctor has also informed me that information given by me, observations made/ photographs/ video graphs taken upon me by the investigator will be kept secret and not assessed by the person other than me or my legal hirer except for academic purposes.

The Doctor did inform me that though my participation is purely voluntary, based on information given by me, I can ask any clarification during the course of treatment / study related to diagnosis, procedure of treatment, result of treatment or prognosis. At the same time I have been informed that I can withdraw from my participation in this study at any

time if I want or the investigator can terminate me from the study at any time from the study but not the procedure of treatment and follow-up unless I request to be discharged.

After understanding the nature of dissertation or research, diagnosis made, mode of treatment, I the undersigned Shri/Smt _____ under my full conscious state of mind agree to participate in the said research/dissertation.

Signature of patient:

Signature of doctor:

Witness: 1.

2.

Date:

Place

Consent form for Fundus Fluorescein Angiography:

Fluorescein angiography is a diagnostic test which uses special camera to photograph the structures of the back of the eye. This test is used to detect any leakage or damage to the blood vessels that nourish the retina.

Flourescein dye glows in visible light and is injected into a vein in the arm of the patient , the dye reaches the retinal vessels through the vascular system. This test does not involve the use of X-ray or any other harmful form of radiation.

Fundus fluorescein angiography is considered to be a very safe test and side effects are uncommon. However the possibility of side effects cannot be completely ruled out. Fluorescein does not contain iodine and hence can be used in patients allergic to iodine. Some patients can experience slight nausea and vomiting. some patients who are allergic to the dye can develop rashes, which require medications such as antihistaminics and steroids. Very rarely a life threatening allergic reaction known as anaphylaxis can occur which requires prompt medical treatment. There may be infiltration of the dye into the skin at the site of injection, which could cause discolouration of the skin at that site. Flourescein dye will turn a patients urine orange and may slightly discolour the skin as well for a brief period of time.

I understand that fluorescein angiography is only a test and not a treatment modality. I understand the risks involved with this test and hereby give consent to undergo this test.

I hereby also give my consent to be included as a participant in the study

“Lipid profile in diabetic retinopathy in type 2 diabetes mellitus”

Name of the patient _____ Date _____

Signature of the patient _____ Time _____

Name of the impartial Witness _____

Signature of the impartial witness _____

Name of Investigator _____

Signature of the Investigator _____

ANNEXURE - III

PROFORMA

NAME :

AGE/SEX :

I.P/OP. NO:

OCCUPATION :

ADDRESS:

CONTACT NO:

SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS:

CHIEF COMPLAINTS:

HISTORY OF PRESENT ILLNESS:

TYPE OF DIABETES:

DURATION OF DIABETES:

PAST HISTORY: HTN / TB / DRUG ALLERGY / NEPHROPATHY

HISTORY OF SIMILIAR COMPLAINTS:

HISTORY OF OCULAR DISEASES:

TREATMENT HISTORY: REGULAR / IRREGULAR

PREVIOUS OCULAR CHECK UP: YES/NO

FAMILY HISTORY:

GENERAL PHYSICAL EXAMINATION :

BP :PULSE : PALLOR : ICTERUS:

CLUBBING : OEDEMA : CYNOSIS:

OCULAR EXAMINATION:

LOCAL OCULAR EXAMINATION:

Head posture:

Facial Symmetry:

Ocular position:

Ocular movements: (RE) (LE)

Visual Acuity:

Lids:

Conjunctiva:

Cornea:

Anterior Chamber :

Iris:

Pupil:

Lens:

Sac Syrnging:

Fundus examination:

Media:

Disc:

Bloodvessels:

Background:

Macula:

Grades of Diabetic retinopathy:

INVESTIGATIONS

FBS:

PPBS:

HbA_{1C}:

LIPID PROFILE : (Total cholesterol, HDL, LDL, Triglycerides, VLDL)

URINE ALBUMIN:

IOP :

FUNDUS FLUORESCIN ANGIOGRAPHY(whenever indicated):

TREATMENT ADVISED:

FOLLOW-UP:

ANNEXURE IV

KEYS TO MASTER CHART

M - male

F - female

DUR OFDIAB -Duration of Diabetes

FBS - Fasting Blood Sugar

RE - right eye

LE - left eye

PSEUDO P - PseudoPhakia

PSC - posterior subcapsular cataract

PRP - Pan Retinal Photocoagulation

NS - Nuclear sclerosis

CF - Counting fingers

PPBS - Post Prandial Blood Sugar

MT - Meter

CSME - Clinically significant macular edema

MOD - Moderate

SEV - Severe

V SEV - Very severe

NPDR - Non proliferative diabetic retinopathy

PDR - Proliferative diabetic retinopathy

HbA1C - Glycosylated haemoglobin
TC - Total cholesterol
HDL - High density lipoprotein
LDL - Low density lipoprotein
TG - Triglycerides
VLDL - Very low density lipoprotein
SUR - Surgery
MED MAG - Medical management

88	ANNAPPA	83251	56	F	6	IRREGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/12	6/12	XANTHELASMA	XANTHELASMA	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N51	10.2	10.2	PDR	PDR	220	310	9.8	++	310	60	150	210	50	PRP +MED MAG	
89	CHANDRASA	87291	60	M	10	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/12	6/12	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	13.4	13.4	MILD NPDR	MILD NPDR	100	125	5	NHl	180	60	130	160	45	MED MAG	
90	MAHADEV	91051	58	M	10	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N51	10.2	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	130	180	6.6	NHl	280	60	135	160	42	MED MAG	
91	MAHADEV	91061	78	M	25	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	10.2	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	120	160	6	NHl	210	60	120	160	40	MED MAG	
92	NIRMALA	93008	60	F	15	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/12	6/12	XANTHELASMA	XANTHELASMA	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N51	14.6	14.6	V SEV NPDR	V SEV NPDR	160	320	9	+	340	40	140	220	60	PRP +MED MAG	
93	KIRALI	99975	64	M	13	IRREGULAR	6/12	6/24	6/9	6/18	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSC WITH N52	10.2	13.4	PDR	PDR	160	320	10.2	+	320	130	190	60			
94	MAHADEV	108624	60	M	8	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/18p	6/18p	XANTHELASMA	XANTHELASMA	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	14.6	14.6	V SEV NPDR	V SEV NPDR	180	380	10.2	+	355	38	180	260	20	PRP +MED MAG	
95	RATANABAI	109335	63	F	10	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	108	165	6.4	NHl	250	40	120	160	40	MED MAG	
96	GANGABAI	109377	71	F	25	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/12	6/12	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	130	180	6.2	NHl	260	60	120	180	40	MED MAG	
97	GANGABAI	109377	71	F	20	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	14.6	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	90	120	6.1	NHl	210	60	120	160	40	MED MAG	
98	NIRMALA	93008	60	F	15	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/12	6/12	XANTHELASMA	XANTHELASMA	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N51	14.6	14.6	V SEV NPDR	V SEV NPDR	160	320	9	+	340	40	140	220	60	PRP +MED MAG	
99	KIRALI	99975	64	M	13	IRREGULAR	6/12	6/24	6/9	6/18	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSC WITH N52	10.2	13.4	PDR	PDR	160	320	10.2	+	320	130	190	60			
100	MAHADEV	108624	60	M	8	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/18p	6/18p	XANTHELASMA	XANTHELASMA	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	14.6	14.6	V SEV NPDR	V SEV NPDR	180	380	10.2	+	355	38	180	260	20	PRP +MED MAG	
101	RATANABAI	109335	63	F	10	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	108	165	6.4	NHl	250	40	120	160	40	MED MAG	
102	GANGABAI	109377	71	F	25	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/12	6/12	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	130	180	6.2	NHl	260	60	120	180	40	MED MAG	
103	GANGABAI	109377	71	F	20	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	14.6	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	90	120	6.1	NHl	210	60	120	160	40	MED MAG	
104	TANMAY	109411	60	M	10	REGULAR	6/18p	6/24p	6/9	6/9p	BLEPHARITIS	BLEPHARITIS	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	126	160	6.2	NHl	210	50	120	180	45	MED MAG
105	GAURAMMA	112439	65	F	15	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N51	10.2	10.2	MILD NPDR	MILD NPDR	90	120	6	NHl	260	50	120	180	30	MED MAG	
100	GANGABAI	116846	78	F	20	IRREGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/18	6/18	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	13.4	SEV NPDR	SEV NPDR	160	310	8.1	+	320	50	140	180	40	MED MAG	
101	BASAPPA	116872	68	M	10	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/18	6/18	CHALAZION	CHALAZION	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	13.4	10.2	MILD NPDR	MILD NPDR	120	180	6.2	NHl	200	50	110	170	62	MED MAG	
102	PRAMILABAI	123601	76	F	20	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	14.6	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	100	160	6.2	NHl	248	40	120	180	40	MED MAG	
103	YAMNAWWA	127366	75	F	25	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	120	165	6	NHl	240	50	120	150	40	MED MAG	
104	JAYACHAND	132308	60	M	12	IRREGULAR	6/60	6/60	6/18p	6/18p	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	13.4	12.3	EV NPDR WITH CSMV	NPDR WITH CSN	232	399	11.7	+	256	44	181	153	30	PRP +MED MAG	
105	YAMNAWWA	135438	70	M	15	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/12	6/12	XANTHELASMA	XANTHELASMA	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	10.2	17.3	SEV NPDR	SEV NPDR	210	350	8.2	++	340	50	120	180	140	PRP +MED MAG	
106	PRATHIBA	135455	66	F	15	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/12	6/12	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N52	10.2	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	110	140	6	NHl	260	30	110	180	30	MED MAG	
107	LALITABAI	153336	72	F	20	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	13.4	SEV NPDR	SEV NPDR	210	300	7.8	++	350	50	160	180	40	PRP +MED MAG	
108	KAMILAKASI	164265	55	F	8	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N52	10.2	13.4	MILD NPDR	MILD NPDR	100	150	6	NHl	210	50	120	130	35	MED MAG	
109	SHIVAPPA	177551	75	M	20	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/18	6/18	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	10.2	13.4	SEV NPDR	SEV NPDR	220	330	8.6	++	280	60	100	180	40.1	PRP +MED MAG	
110	SHIVLINGAPPA	177687	53	M	8	REGULAR	6/12	6/12	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	STYE	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N51	10.2	10.2	MILD NPDR	MILD NPDR	90	120	6.2	NHl	240	40	130	170	60	MED MAG	
111	DANNAMMA	181427	45	F	4	REGULAR	6/6p	6/6p	6/6	6/6	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	TRANSPARENT	TRANSPARENT	12.2	12.2	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	130	180	8.2	NHl	260	30	110	180	30	MED MAG	
112	SATTAWWA	186760	65	M	12	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/9p	6/9p	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N51	13.4	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	90	220	6.3	NHl	260	60	120	150	66	MED MAG	
113	SATTAWWA	186760	65	F	12	REGULAR	6/12	6/12	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	13.4	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	108	185	6.2	NHl	280	160	110	170	30	MED MAG	
114	SURESH	238312	57	M	10	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/18	6/12	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	10.2	10.2	SEV NPDR	SEV NPDR	160	180	7.2	+	280	55	120	170	35	PRP +MED MAG	
115	CHANDASA	238600	65	M	15	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/12	6/12	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	13.4	10.2	PDR	PDR	180	210	7.1	+	360	58	120	180	30	PRP +MED MAG	
116	MAHADEV	240482	60	M	15	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/18	6/18	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	14.6	14.6	SEV NPDR	SEV NPDR	130	320	9	NHl	280	30	150	180	45	PRP +MED MAG	
117	AMESH	257712	64	M	15	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/18	6/18	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	13.4	13.4	PDR	PDR	210	321	9	+	320	40	180	210	40	PRP +MED MAG	
118	MAHADEV	261601	60	F	12	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N51	13.4	13.4	MILD NPDR	MILD NPDR	80	120	6	NHl	210	60	120	140	60	MED MAG	
119	BASAVARAJ	267309	60	M	12	REGULAR	6/12	6/12p	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N51	14.6	14.6	MILD NPDR	MOD NPDR	110	200	6.4	NHl	240	50	150	150	42	MED MAG	
120	MALLANA	274950	65	M	6	REGULAR	6/36	6/36	6/18p	6/18p	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSC WITH N51	PSC WITH N51	14.6	13.4	EV NPDR WITH CSMV	NPDR WITH CSN	175	240	9	+	280	40	179	180	25.4	PRP +MED MAG	
121	BASAPPA	282480	65	M	15	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/18	6/18	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	13.4	13.4	PDR	PDR	180	220	7.4	+	340	50	140	280	50	PRP +MED MAG	
122	SHIVAPPA	293689	65	F	18	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/12	6/12	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	10.2	10.2	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	130	155	6.2	NHl	270	50	120	180	40	MED MAG	
123	NEELAMMA	287693	65	F	18	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/12	6/12	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	PSEUDO P	PSEUDO P	13.4	13.4	MILD NPDR	MOD NPDR	120	140	6.2	NHl	250	40	110	170	30	MED MAG	
124	GANGABAI	287703	62	F	10	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/12	6/12	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	13.4	14.6	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	100	160	6	NHl	270	50	120	180	42	MED MAG	
125	KAMALANA	303385	65	F	15	REGULAR	6/18	6/18	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	10.2	10.2	MOD NPDR	MOD NPDR	98	130	6	NHl	240	30	160	210	60	MED MAG	
126	LAGAMAWWA	316707	50	M	5	REGULAR	6/12	6/12	6/9	6/9	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N51	N51	10.2	10.2	MILD NPDR	MILD NPDR	82	120	6	NHl	190	55	140	160	60	MED MAG	
127	CHANDAPPA	326446	60	M	12	REGULAR	6/24	6/24	6/18	6/18p	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	NORMAL	N52	N52	10.2	10.2	PDR	PDR	190	315	8.1		320	30	180	220	60	PRP +MED MAG	
128	RULABAI	335717	65	F	11	REGULAR	6/18	6/																											