

EFFECT OF VITAMINS 'A' AND 'E' ON SPONDYLOSIS

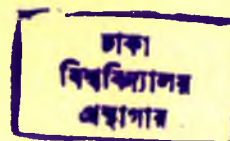
DIGITIZED

DR. ZEBA MAHMUD

EXAMINATION ROLL NO 1
REGISTRATION NO 95/1984-85



384614



INSTITUTE OF NUTRITION AND FOOD SCIENCE
UNIVERSITY OF DHAKA
DHAKA, BANGLADESH, 1991


DR. ZEBA MAHMUD HAS WORKED ON THE SUBJECT "EFFECT OF VITAMINS 'A' AND 'E' ON SPONDYLOSIS" UNDER MY DIRECT SUPERVISION. I HAVE GONE THROUGH THE DISSERTATION. THIS IS UP TO MY FULL SATISFACTION

DIGITIZED

GUIDE :

384614

ঢাকা
বিশ্ববিদ্যালয়
স্বাস্থ্যবিজ্ঞান


PROF. SHAH MD. KERAMAT ALI
PROFESSOR OF CLINICAL NUTRITION
AND DIRECTOR, INSTITUTE OF
NUTRITION AND FOOD SCIENCE
UNIVERSITY OF DHAKA, DHAKA.

THIS DISSERTATION IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF
DHAKA IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN NUTRITION.

384614



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Professor Shah Md. Keramat Ali, Director and Professor, Institute of Nutrition and Food Science, University of Dhaka for his excellent guidance, constant supervision, sincere effort and encouragement in this work for which the study was possible and this dissertation could be written.

I would also like to express my gratefulness to Dr. Harun K. H. Yusuf, Professor of Biochemistry and Human Nutrition, Department of Biochemistry Dhaka University for his keen interest in the study. His valuable suggestions, constructive criticisms and thorough review gave a positive impact to the study.

I would also acknowledge the help of Dr. Md. Mustafizur Rahman, Professor of Orthopaedics, S.S.M.C. without whose active support this study would not have been possible.

Dr. Khurshid Jahan, Professor of Clinical Nutrition, Institute of Nutrition and Food Science Dhaka University has always been a source of encouragement throughout the study for which I am so grateful to her.

I am also grateful to Dr. Quazi Salamatullah, Associate Professor of Nutritional Biochemistry Institute of Nutrition and Food Science, Dhaka University for his constant help throughout my study.

I would also like to acknowledge the help of Mr. Muhiduzzaman Lecturer Institute of Nutrition and Food Science, University of Dhaka for his expert help with the HPLC analysis.

Thanks are also due to all other teachers, staffs, technicians and librarians of the Institute of Nutrition and Food Science, University of Dhaka for their co-operation.

The constant support of my husband Dr. Mahbubur Rahman Chowdhury has helped me finish my study. My brother Javed Mahmud and the Technotron Computer, Ltd. have helped me in typing, composing and printing the manuscript of this study. Thanks are also due to them

ABSTRACT

A biomedical study was undertaken to observe the effect of the antioxidative roles of vitamins A and E on the degenerative process occurring in spondylosis in humans.

A single blind and a double blind study were done. Thirty two patients suffering from spondylosis were selected for the study on the basis of certain criteria. The patients were 40-60 years old and there were 24 males and 8 females. The patients were suffering from mild to severe neck pain and low back ache and the spondylotic degeneration in their cervical and lumber regions were confirmed by X-rays. The serum vitamin E level in most of the patients were lower ($5.8 \pm 2.7 \mu\text{mol}$) than normal (11-41 $\mu\text{mol/L}$). Vitamin E administration at a dose of 100 mg daily for three weeks resulted in a significant increase in serum vitamin E level. This was accompanied by complete relief of pain. This efficacy of vitamin E was observed in both the single and the double blind studies. The vitamin A level in serum of the patients was in most cases already within normal range (0.53-2 $\mu\text{mol/L}$) and vitamin A administration neither resulted in a significant increase in serum vitamin A level nor was this vitamin found to be effective in relieving the pain and other symptoms of the disease.

The results therefore strongly indicate that vitamin E is effective in curing spondylosis and this effect is most probably due to its antioxidant activity.

EFFECT OF VITAMIN E AND A ON SPONDYLOSIS

No. : _____ Date:.....

Name of the patient

Age:..... Sex: Religion:

Address: Present :

Parmanent.....

Occupation Income.....

Educational status Marital Status

Symptoms:

Duration:

(1) Early morning stiffness

(2) Limitation of movement

(3) Pain

(i) Site (a) Posterior neck region (b) Lower lumber region

(ii) Radiation (a) Occiput (b) Chest

(c) Shoulder girdle (d) Arm

(e) Scapular angle

(4) Paresthesis

(5) Pain exacerbetaed by

(a) Prolonged standing (b) Hotion (c) Prolonged sitting (d) Lying

(6) Pain releived by

(a) Rest (b) Motion (c) Drugs (i) Non steroidal antiinflammatory (ii) Others

Past history

(1) Injury (2) Fall (3) Fracture (4) Debilitating disease

On examination

General

- (1) Anaemia (2) Jaundice (3) Odema (4) Height (5) Weight
- (1) Liver (2) Spleen (3) Heart (4) Lungs (5) Pulse (6) Blood pressure
- (7) Temperature

Physical

Inspection

- (1) Vertebrel prominence (2) Interspinous process (3) Scapular angle

Palpation

- (1) Tenderness (2) Spinous process

Percussion

Testing spinal movement Cervical region Thoracic & Lumber region

- (1) Flexion
- (2) Extension
- (3) Lateral bending
- (4) Rotation
- (5) Prone
- (6) Supine-straight leg test

Motor system

Aupper extremity

	Biceps	Triceps	Interossei
(1) Inpection	Atropy		
	Tremor		
(2) Power	*		
(3) Tone			

(4) Reflex

(5) Spinal movements

Cervical region

Thoracic & Lumber region

Flexion

Extension

Lateral bending

Rotation

Prone

Supine

(6) Motor system

Upper extremity

Biceps

Triceps

Interview

Inspection

Power

Tone

Reflex

Lower extremity

Thigh

calf

Interosses

Inspection

Power

Tone

Reflex

II X-Ray findings

B. Lower extremity

Thigh

calf

Interossei

Inspection

Power

Tone

Reflex

Laboratory	Investigation	X-Ray
-------------------	----------------------	--------------

Blood	Urine	
-------	-------	--

Hb%	Quantity	
-----	----------	--

TC	Colour	
----	--------	--

DC	Poly	Sp. Gr.
----	------	---------

	Lymph	Reaction
--	-------	----------

	MOno	Albumin
--	------	---------

	Eosino	Sugar
--	--------	-------

	base	Pus cell
--	------	----------

ESR RBC

PCV C exalate crystals

Vitamin A

Vitamin E

Treatment received

Group A

Group B

Group C

Result:

I Elimination of symptoms

(1) Early morning stiffness

(2) Limitation of movement

(3) Pain

(4) Tenderness

Testing spinal movement Cervical region Thoracic & Lumber region

(1) Flexion

(2) Extension

(3) Lateral bending

(4) Rotation

(5) Prone

(6) Supine-straight leg test

CONTENTS

	Page No.
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. LITERATURE REVEIW	3
A. HISTOLOGY OF THE VERTEBRAL COLUMN	6
B. PATHOGENENIS IN SPONDYLOSIS	7
C. CLINICAL FEATURES	10
D. ROENTOGRAPHIC FEATURES	13
E. CLINICAL TREATMENT	14
F. AUTO-OXIDANTS AND ANTIOXIDANTS	15
G. VITAMIN 'E'	17
1. HISTORY	17
2. CHEMISTRY	17
3. FOOD SOURCES	19
4. METABOLISM	25
5. DEFICIENCY	27
6. NORMAL BLOOD LEVEL	29
7. HUMAN REQUIREMENT	30
H. VITAMIN 'A'	34
1. CHEMISTRY	34
2. FOOD SOURCES	35
3. ABSORPTION	37
4. HUMAN REQUIREMENT	37
5. PHYSIOLOGICAL FUNCTION	37
6. NORMAL BLOOD LEVEL	38
7. DEFICIENCY	38

III. PURPOSE OF PRESENT STUDY	41
IV. PATIENTS AND METHODS	42
V. RESULTS	55
VI. DISCUSSION	87
VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS	92
VIII. REFERENCES	93

LIST OF FIGURES

1. Pathological mechanism of herniation and protusion of Annulus fibrosus of Intervertebral disc	9
2. Structures of tocopherols and tocotrienols.	18
3. Structure of retinol.	31
4. Standard curve for retinol	49
5. Standard curve for peak height versus weight ratio for retinol: retinyl acetate	50
6. Standard curve for tocopherol	53
7. Standard curve for peak height versus wieght ratio for tocopherol: tocopheryl acetate	54
8. Income distribution of all patinets	61
9. Serum vitamin A level in patients in single blind trial	69
10. Serum vitamin E level in patients in single blind trial	70
11. Symptoms and percentage of patients in single blind trial	71
12. Serum vitamin A level in patients before and after intake of sample containing vitamin A	73
13. Serum vitamin E, level in patients before and after intake of sample containing vitamin A	74

14. Symptoms and percentage of patients before and after intake of sample containing vitamin A.	76
15. Serum vitamin A level in patients before and after intake of sample containing vitamin A and E	78
16. Serum vitamin E level in patients before and after intake of samples containing vitamin A & E.	79
17. Symptoms and percentage of patients before and after intake of samples containing vitamins 'A' and 'E'	81
18. Serum vitamin A level in patients before and after intake of sample containing vitamin E.	83
19. Serum vitamin E level in patients before and after intake of sample containing vitamin E.	84
20. Symptoms and percentage of patients before and after intake of samples containing vitamin E	86

LIST OF TABLES

1. Chemistry of tocopherols and tocotrienols	19
2. Tocopherol content of food	20
3. Tocopherol content of human tissues	26
4. Subcellular distribution of Tocopherol	27
5. Effects of vitamin E Deficiency	28
6. Normal Blood Tocopherol level	29
7. Vitamin A content of food	31
8. Age distribution of male patients	56
9. Age distribution of female patients	57
10. Age and Sex distribution of total patients	58
11. Educational background of patients	59
12. Occupation of the patients	60

13. Clinical presentation of patients	63
14. Duration of all symptoms of patients	64
15. Duration of two main symptoms of the patients	65
16. Radiation of pain to different areas	66
17. X-ray Findings of the patients	67
18. Intensity of pain in patients before and after intake of sample containing vitamin A.	75
19. Intensity of poain in the patients before and after intake of sample containing both vitamins A and E.	80
20 Intensity of pain in the patients before and after intake of sample containing vitamin E.	86

LIST OF PHOTOGRAHS

1. X-RAY OF CERVICAL SPINE (LATERAL VEIW) BEFORE TRIAL	44
2. X-RAY OF CERVICAL SPINE (LATERAL VEIW) AFTER TRIAL	44
3. X-RAY OF CERVICAL SPINE (ANTERO-POSTERIOR VIEW) BEFORE TRIAL	45
4. X-RAY OF CERVICAL SPINE (ANTERO-POSTERIOR VIEW) AFTER TRIAL	45

I. INTRODUCTION

The term spondylosis has been given to a chronic, progressive, involutinal process occurring due to degenerative changes in the intervertebral discs of the vertebral column. This is usually associated with secondary osteoarthritic changes in the adjacent vertebral joints ¹.

Epidemiological studies² have demonstrated that in degenerative condition of the vertebral column, cervical disc degeneration has the highest prevalence. Both males and females between the ages of 65 and 74 years show radiological evidence of cervical disc degeneration. This condition is usually manifested by severe neck pain, yet some people tend to be symptom free throughout their life. Post mortem studies² have shown that 90% of people above 60 years of age were suffering from symptomless spondylosis.

In no other systems of the human body do the changes of aging culminate in more suffering than in musculoskeletal system. As age increases the degenerative changes of the vertebral joints along with other major synovial joints constitute a great burden. Even though these degenerative changes have been blamed on the modern ways of living, it was present in our primitive ancestors, discovered in the Nubian caves³ dating back to 8,000 to 10,000 B. C.

Since 1950 ³ attention has been growing on the influence of aging on the fibrocartilaginous joints of the vertebral column. The importance of changes in these joints in which the intervertebral disc is situated has been emphasized by population studies. These studies³ show that back pain is the most common cause of lost working time.

Back pain caused an estimated loss to industry of around 15,000,000 working days per annum in Britain⁴. It was also asserted⁵ that more than 1 in 3 Swiss people became unable to work at least once in their life time because of low backache. Impairments of the back and spine were recorded as the most frequent cause of limitation of activity in persons of less than 45 years of age and they ranked third after heart disease and rheumatism in those aged between 45 and 64 years⁶. Over 8,000,000 Americans suffer from chronic back pain and it affects 65% to 80% of Americans⁷ sometime in their lives.

The intervertebral discs sandwiched between the vertebrae not only serve as the main weight bearing force but also help in the normal motion of daily life (lying, standing, walking, sitting). As such it suffers more degeneration than the other parts of the body. Causes for spondylosis have been searched for a long time. Finally it became known that free radicals could be responsible for intervertebral disc degeneration which manifests itself in the clinical form of spondylosis⁸.

Free radicals are groups of atoms which are produced during normal metabolism. For example are superoxide and hydrogen peroxide. They interact with oxygen to give a continuous supply of free radicals. Many organic systems would have undergone degeneration due to these free radicals had they not been protected by antioxidants. Antioxidants are antidotes for free radicals.

Vitamin E has long been known to act as an antioxidant in the body⁹. Other substances believed to act as antioxidants are beta-carotene, pro-vitamin-A and selenium.

The degenerative changes of spondylosis seldom kill but cause endless suffering and countless days of limitation of physical activity. The exact etiology is yet not known and hence its control and prevention remains to be discovered.

Our present study is only an attempt towards fulfillment of this goal. We have tried to put into use the antioxidant role of vitamin E in controlling the degenerative process of spondylosis. Furthermore, we have also used vitamin A for its stability effect¹⁰.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Spondylosis seems to be a slow involutinal process of wear and tear due to constant weight bearing through out the years. The intervertebral discs sandwiched in between the vertebrae each consists of an outer ring of fibrocartilage (the annulus fibrosus) which encloses a central mass, the nucleus pulposus¹¹. The nucleus pulposus consists of 70-80 percent water and its semifluid nature¹² is important in converting the vertical forces to which the annulus is subjected into radial forces, and allow deformation due to pressure during movement and weight bearing.

The structural molecule of the nucleus pulposus is made of proteoglycans synthesized by chondrocytes. These proteoglycans are complex protein molecules to which oligosaccharide chains are covalently attached to the polypeptide backbone¹³. The proteoglycan molecule exert an osmotic pressure of several atmospheres against it and is extremely important in maintaining the mechanical function of the intervertebral disc.

Age and chondrocyte injury due to years of wear and tear slows down the capacity of the chondrocytes to produce proteoglycans¹⁴. Also degradative enzymes causes decrease in size of the proteoglycans. Furthermore the proteoglycans also lose their ability to form aggregates¹⁵. This may lead to dehydration of the nucleus pulposus. Degeneration of the nucleus pulposus is characterised by the appearance of clefts due to fibres since it loses its water content and becomes more fibro cartilaginous. These clefts spread into the annulus fibrosus and cause separation of the concentric lamellae¹⁶. This is likely to alter the mechanical characteristics of the intervertebral disc. The overall effect cause reduction in disc thickness. So there is weakness of the annulus fibrosus which bulges into the spinal cord. Herniation of the intervertebral disc is followed by osteoblastic reparative activity causing bony spurs from opposing bones coming in contact leading to stiff neck and pain of the affected part¹. Compression of the spinal cord and impairment of its circulation by these bony overgrowth may cause numbness, weakness or muscular atrophy.¹⁷

The degenerative reactions associated with ageing is already known to be due to free radical chain reaction¹⁸. The proteoglycans of the intervertebral discs are

also subject to these radiolytic damages. The hydroxy radicals causes oxidation of the proline residues⁸ of the polypeptide core of the proteoglycans. This leads to their degradation.

As such many systems of the body would have undergone degeneration had these not been protected by antioxidants.

Such an antioxidant was discovered in 1936 as vitamin E or tocopherol. It acts as an antioxidant by virtue of its chain breaking action of the degenerative process¹⁹. Probably it is the only chain breaking (i.e. peroxy trapping) antioxidant in the human blood²⁰.

In a normal cell superoxide interacts with hydrogen to produce hydrogen peroxide during metabolism. Tocopherol²¹ located in the cell membrane interacts with the peroxides to provide defense against these oxidative damages and removing the free radicals.

It was observed by Leonard et al²², who studied 8 vitamin E deficient subjects. that vitamin E by virtue of its antioxidant role prevents haemolysis of RBC.

A study in Japan by Yoskikawa et al²³ done on female rats with induced arthritis were found to be significantly protected by a dietary supplement of vitamin E. This study accords with our study since arthritis is a disease pathologically and clinically similar to spondylosis.

During the late 1940's attention has been focused to retrolental fibroplasia of premature infants, where there is proliferation of retinal vessels of the eye with fibroplasia and multiple haemorrhage in the vitreous body leading to separation of retina²⁴. There is also bronchial fibroplasia of these infants. Since high oxygen tension is the main cause, low levels of the natural antioxidant tocopherol in the neonatal period might predispose to the disorder. If these children are supplied with exogenous vitamin E²⁵, then there is no such development due to the antioxidant role of vitamin E.

Exposure to high concentration of oxygen, ozone, nitrogen dioxide²⁶ and other gases results in oxidative damage both in the water soluble phase and membranous part of the alveolar cells of the lungs. These extensive pulmonary damages appear to be mediated by free radical formation but the lungs have biochemical defenses. Tocopherol²⁷ stationed in the membranes of the cell

there fore appears to be amongst the most important defensive systems against oxidative damage to the lungs. According to research at the University of California at Davis, USA these oxidative components are found in city smog²⁸. Tocopherol may also protect the lungs from air pollutants.

Vitamin E deficient diet was seen to decrease hepatic DNA activity²⁹ found in the liver cells. The DNA damage was correlated to other biochemical and physiological changes characteristic of cellular damage in aging and disease.

Aging is a very slow complex process in which free radicals are formed in the various thssues and organs. These free radicals results in lipid peroxidation causing membrane damage. In fact the accumulation of the pigment lipofuscin³⁰ in the aging heart and liver proves the presence of free radical in these tissues. Theoritically³¹ aging therefore might occur due to (1) continuous increased formation of free radicals and (2) diminished availability of antioxidants. So it has been suggested that since vitamin E as an antioxidant interacts with and neutralizes free redicals, it may perform³² the same function in the body andslow the aging process.

That vitamin A may play a role in ensuring the stability of cell membranes^{33,34} was first indicated in the early 1920's. Also vitamin A is believed to be essential for the maintenance of normal cellular membrane structure and function. The structure and stability of erythrocyte³⁵ membrane was seen to be markedly altered in vitamin A deficient rats.

It was also observed that if Vitamin A was not available at the time of assembly of a cell or its membrane, assembly may not occur or a defective cellular structure may result³⁵.

A. HISTOLOGY OF THE VERTEBRAL COLUMN:

Throughout the spine, weight bearing compressive forces are largely supported by one set of articulations-the intervertebral disc. The intervertebral discs are elastic organs composed of collagen fibres produced by chondrocytes, embedded in matrix or ground substance³⁶. Each collagen macromolecule consists of three tropocollagen fibre or alpha chains each of approximately 1,000 amino acid sequences rapped together in an alpha helix structure. These helical molecules are held in rigid rod like form³⁷. The tropocollagen molecules are cross linked into the extracellular matrix to form fibrils which in turn forms fibres³⁸. These fibres are then arranged into a three dimensional lattice.

The chondrocytes, also produce the ground substance, the proteoglycans in which the nucleus pulposus of the intervertebral discs are very rich. 38

The proteoglycans are large complex molecules consisting of chains of sulphated glycosamino glycan polymers, namely, chondroitin sulphate and keratin sulphate, attached to a central protein core¹³.

The function of the intervertebral disc depends on the properties of the somidehydrated proteoglycan molecules which exert an asmotic pressure of several atmospheres against the collagen network that retains it.

These proteoglycans are not only extremely important in maintaining the mechanical function of the disc but also in influencing the nutrient and metabolite trnsport ³⁹.

B. PATHOGENESIS IN SPONDYLOSIS:

Owing to man's upright position intervertebral discs are subjected to constant strain for which they were not originally intended so that degeneration in the discs is commoner than in any other organ with age. The commonest outcome associated with ageing and the intervertebral disc degeneration is the reduction in the ability to cope with in mechanical stress. The exact cause is yet to be known. It seems to be a slow involitional process due to the mechanical effects of trauma of wear and tear and weight bearing through out the years.

The nucleus pulposus of the intervertebral disc¹⁴ has a high water content which decreases rapidly after the fortieth year and this loss is associated with degenerative change in the central portion of the disc. The progressive dessication and decrease of the protein mucopolysaccharide complex of the nucleus pulpsus encourages disc, degeneration as age inceases. Degeneration of the nucleus pulposus is characterised by a loss of resilience, apparent dessiction and fibrosis and the appearance of clefts which spreads at right angle to the surface⁴⁰. These clefts may spread into the annulus fibrosus, producing what is referred to as cartilage fibrillation and cause separation of the concentric lamellae¹⁶.

The dehydration of the nucleuas pulposus seems to indicate that changes in the proteoglycans play a major role in disc degeneration.

Side by side ageing and chondrocyte inury slows down the capacity of the chondrocyte to synthesize proteoglycans¹⁴. Since chondrocyte inury leads to the production of degradative enzymes like proteoglycanases and cathepsin. As such there is decreas in the over all size of the proteoglycans due to decrease in the chain length. It also appears likely that there is an increase in the interaction between proteoglycans and collagen with age¹⁵. This phenomenon diminishes the ability of the proteoglycans to form aggregates, which in tuern is likely to alter the hydration and mechanical characteristic of the disc.

The proportion of keratin sulphate increases while the water, hexosamine, chondroitin sulphate, ash and sialoprotein content decreases⁴¹. The collagen fibrils left unsupported becomes more vulnerable to the mechanical effects of the trauma of wear and tear⁴². The overall mechanism causes reduction in disc

thickness. The resulting narrowing of the disc space causes bulging and weakness of the annulus fibrosus, so that the disc tends to protrude posteriorly into the spinal cord⁴³. There is osteoblastic reparative activity following this herniation of the disc resulting in the joint⁴⁴. They increase the available articular surface and may be compensatory in character.

These may form a bony bar or spondylotic ridge and enlarge backwards⁴². Large spurs may project from apposing bones, coming in contact with one another causing pain and limitation of motion⁴¹. The osteophytes may encroach upon the spinal canal, compress the spinal cord and adjacent nerve roots and the vertebral and segmental spinal arteries in the transverse and the intervertebral foramina⁴².

There seems to be a vicious circle of changing mechanical conditions and attempts at structural adaptations⁴⁵. Ultimately however permanent degeneration occurs causing the development of spondylosis.

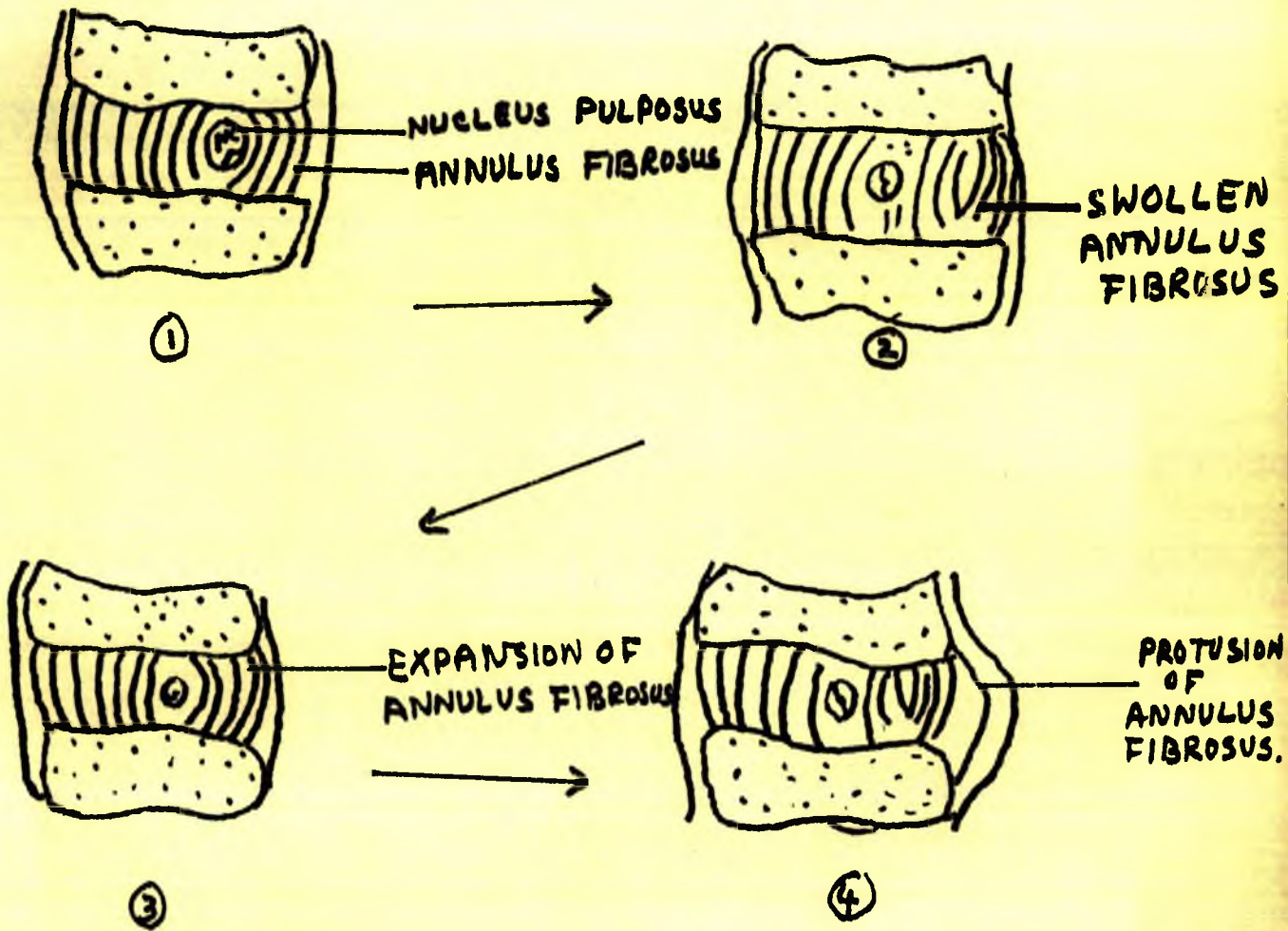


FIGURE 1 : PATHOLOGICAL MECHANISM OF HERNIATION AND PROTUSION OF ANNULUS FIBROSUS OF INTERVERTEBRAL DISC.

C. CLINICAL FEATURES

The cardinal clinical feature of spondylosis is pain of the affected part, which early in the disease occurs with motion and is relieved by rest. As the disease progresses the pain may occur with minimal motion and also at rest. It may often be troublesome at night, awaken the individual from sleep and is of aching quality and poorly localised. It may lead to protective reflex muscle spasm, which in turn causes further pain and may result in abnormal posture and limitation of movement. Stiffness for several minutes after inactivity and on awakening may occasionally occur.

The clinical features of spondylosis is much clearly understood if it is divided into the regions affected.

1. Cervical Region

A. Pain

Majority of the patients do not complain of neck pain or limitation of neck movement. However some may experience dull, vague aching pain in the neck and crepitus when the neck is rotated.

Normally, the diameter of the spinal canal averages about 17 mm in the cervical area⁴¹. The protruding degenerated disc and the secondary osteophytes form a bar of calcified or fibrous tissue which narrows the diameter of the canal.

Patients with cervical spondylosis have been seen to have narrow spinal canals. When the diameter of the canal is decreased to 10-11 mm⁴⁶, then the spinal cord is likely to be compressed.

The cord compression may be further caused by certain other additional factors. The normally thin dentate ligaments which pass between the dura mater and the wall of the spinal canal may become anchored within the canal, rendering it susceptible to pressure during movement of the neck causing pain.

Narrowing of the disc spaces and shortening of the cervical spine produces malalignment of the vertebral bodies and interpeduncular joints., This further contributes to disc degeneration, osteophyte formation and narrowing of the

spinal canal. Due to the osteoarthritic changes in the joints, pain arises in the neck and the patient complains of head ache. This leads to reduced range of movement accompanied by reflex muscle spasm¹⁷.

Normally the nerve root occupies about one fourth of the intervertebral occupies about one fourth of the intervertebral foramina. Due to lateral encroachment of the degenerated discs and osteophytes, the foramen becomes narrowed and the nerve root becomes thickened by fibrosis. Thus the mobility of the nerve root is reduced increasing its susceptibility to compression. Such compression may easily produce wallerian degeneration in the posterior and lateral columns and loss of neurons in the grey matter of the anterior horns⁴⁷. The pain which arises due to nerve root compression suddenly or insiduously is often severe in nature.

Nerve root irritation may result from cervical disc protrusion or foraminal encroachment by osteophytes. The area affected is in the distribution⁴⁸ of the dermatomes supplied by the affected nerve root causing hyperaesthesia and hyperalgesia. When the sixth cervical root is irritated the pain occurs in the neck and radiates down the anterior chest wall, shoulder, down the upper arm and forearm to the hand and index finger.

Further compression on the nerves causes a variable amount of wasting of the small muscles of the hand and forearm, ⁴⁹ along with dysesthesia and paraesthesia. The deep tendon reflexes (biceps, triceps) innervated by these nerve roots are absent or depressed.

A number of patients complain of sub occipital headaches. ¹⁷ Other symptoms such as vertigo and drop attack ⁵⁰ may be precipitated along with rotation of the neck or its extension. These are symptoms of vertebral basilar arterial insufficiency. The vertebral and segmental arteries supplying the spinal cord pass through the transverse and intervertebral foramina. These may become compressed by the formation of secondary osteophytes specially when the head is rotated. Furthermore there may be kinking or obstruction of these arteries which may result in infarction of the spinal cord and even of the brain stem.

2. Dorsal Region

The dorsal spine is also a common site of spondylosis but its affection rarely produces symptoms. Occasionally there may be localised pain in the dorsal region due of osteoarthritic changes in the intervertebral discs. This may be accompanied with radiation of the pain to the appropriate intercostal space⁵¹. The pain may be exacerbated by percussion or palpation of the individually affected area. The pain may also be felt by rotating the upper part of the trunk in either direction.

3. The lumbar region:

The lumbar spine is also predisposed to spondylotic changes. The degenerative changes⁵² that arise may be part of the generalized disorder associated with advancing age or it may result from other disc lesions acquired earlier in life.

Severe backache is the usual presenting symptom⁵³. There is flattening of the normal lumbar curve, at the level of the prolapsed disc, so that the patient cannot stand erect. There is also reduction in the range of spinal movements in all directions (flexion, extension, lateral bending, rotation)⁵⁴.

Due to spondylotic involvement of the lumbar 4 nerve root, there may be radiation of pain to the anterior part of the thigh and the sciatic nerve resulting in sciatica. Compression of the lumbar 4-5 and sacral nerve root by acutely prolapsed disc result in pain in the groin and anterior thigh along with absent knee jerk⁵⁵.

There may be weakness and spastic paralysis of the lower limbs. Involvement of the spinothalamic tracts leads to disturbance of pain and thermal sensation in lower limbs¹⁷. There is also development of increased deep tendon reflexes, ankle clonus and bilateral extensor plantar responses. The gait may be spastic and ataxic⁴⁸. Walking or standing immobile for hours together or leaning backward tends to precipitate the symptoms.

D. ROENTOGRAPHIC FEATURES:

The use of roentographs is so self evidently important that its limitations are often over looked. However it still remains the conventional screening investigation for spondylosis despite its limitation.

To make an adequate diagnosis and evaluation of the extent of the spondylosis, it is better to take anteroposterior and lateral views of the affected part in the position of flexion and extension. It is even better to supplement it by two oblique views (right and left) of the vertebral column. These films permit adequate visualisation of the disc spaces, measurements of the anteroposterior diameter of the spinal canal and evaluation of osteophyte formation on the vertebral bodies and around the interpeduncular joints.

Due to destruction of the articular cartilage the radiolucent interosseous joint spaces can usually be seen to be narrower than normal. Degeneration of the intervertebral discs result in narrowing of the spaces in between the vertebral bodies. A vacuum sign or marked translucency in the intervertebral disc may be seen. Evidence for disc degeneration is usually documented in ⁵⁶ the anteroposterior and lateral roentgenogram.

The oblique views are of particular importance for visualization and assessment of the degree of encroachment in the Intervertebral foramina by the formation of the osteophytes. Oblique views are also valuable for defining bony sclerosis and joint spaces and narrowing of the spine⁵⁷.

The distance from the target site should not be more than 85cm, ray given in 60-65 KB and 25-30 MAS. The exposure time is 5 seconds for the cervical spine and 7-11 seconds for the spinal column ⁵⁸.

E. CLINICAL TREATMENT

Uptil now prevention or life long relief from spondylosis has not been found.

Patients who have sudden onset or exacerbation of pain may benefit somewhat from medical therapy.

During the acute phase, bed rest and adequate use analgesics may help. Diazepam (5 mg thrice daily) may be given as a muscle relaxant. For treatment of pain and spasm indomethacin (25mg twice daily) is often effective.

When the pain is controlled traction⁷ may be given with the patient in a prone position. The initial period should not exceed 15 minutes and the initial weight not more than 10 lbs.

If there is no obvious benefit from traction within a few days, it should be discontinued and a neck collar may be substituted. Certain types of physical therapy like short wave diathermy, infra red radiation and massage are useful in reducing muscle spasm and alleviating pain. A course of active exercises designed to strengthen the muscles of the affected part may be beneficial to some patients.

Patients who have persistent and disabling symptoms of nerve root compression or cord compression or arterial insufficiency may also require surgery⁵⁹. Nerve root compression may be treated by the anterior approach, with removal of degenerated disc material and the osteophytes encroaching on the intervertebral foramina, spinal cord compression is best treated by a wide laminectomy and the dentate ligaments are sectioned to give the cord mobility.

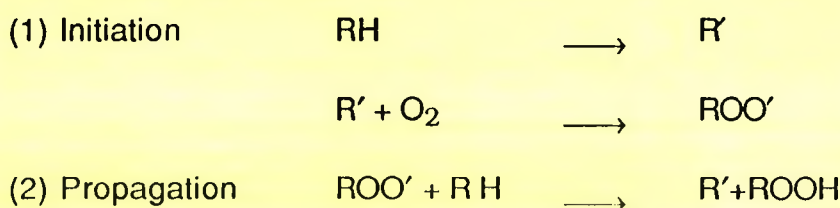
The postoperative course is short since immobilization and bed rest are unnecessary and the patient may begin walking the day after the surgery.

Even so, many patients are not relieved after such treatment and tend to suffer throughout life.

F. AUTOOXIDANTS AND ANTIOXIDANTS

It is now widely recognised that the basic mechanism in degenerative reactions associated with ageing is free radical chain reactions¹⁸.

Free radicals can be defined as atoms or groups of atoms having an odd (unpaired) number of electrons that may enter into chemical bond formation. These may be positively charged, negatively charged or neutral. They are potentially extremely reactive and chemically unstable and usually occur in low concentration. They generally induce chain reaction that occur slowly under normal conditions but may be rapidly accelerated if chain initiators other free radicals are introduced.



Normal cellular metabolism produces superoxide and hydrogen peroxide which reacts with each other to produce hydroxyl free radicals (OH). A continuous supply of free radicals are provided which interacts with oxygen during oxidation-reduction reactions⁶⁰.

Free radical propagation occurs principally through atom transfer or addition reaction.

In an unprotected cell these free radicals produced, attack the membrane lipids at the double bonds of the polyunsaturated fatty acids to form free radical intermediates and semi stable lipid peroxides. This propagates a chain reaction with the formation of lipid hydroperoxides OH that result in membrane damage and the production of terminal aldehydes. Free radicals can also catalyze amino acid oxidation, protein-protein cross linking and protein strand scission.

The intervertebral disc of the vertebral column is susceptible to these sort of free radical or radiolytic damage. It is the polypeptide⁸ core which appears to be more susceptible than the glycosaminoglycan, causing damage to the proteoglycans. The OH radical is said to have a 100 fold greater reactivity with proteins than with polysaccharides. The hydroxy radicals mediate protein

damage in a nonrandom fashion, possibly due to oxidation of its proline residues.

Protein rich in proline such as the collagen of the proteoglycans of the cartilage matrix give rise to many fragments of defined length after exposure to OH.

Less potent oxidants than OH produce subtler modification to protein but increase the susceptibility of the proteins to hydrolysis.¹⁸ Other than that well defined inflammatory changes are also sometimes seen in the early stages of the disease.¹⁸

Antioxidants may be defined as substance which reduce or altogether prevent auto-oxidation in the body. It falls in two classes.¹³

1. Primary or preventive antioxidant which reduce the rate of chain initiation that is formation of new free radicals. For example catalase and other peroxidases.
2. Secondary or chain breaking antioxidants, which interfere with chain propagation by trapping down the highly reactive peroxy free radicals.

In vivo the principal chain breaking antioxidants are superoxide dismutase and vitamin E.⁶¹

The tocopherols act as chain breaking antioxidants as a result of their ability to transfer a phenolic hydrogen to phenoxyradical¹⁹.

G. VITAMIN " E "

1. History

Vitamin E was discovered in 1922 when Evans and his colleague Bishop,⁶² while experimenting on the effect of nutrition on rat reproduction, discovered that female rats even though ovulating and conceiving normally, suffered foetal death and resorption, when fed on a rancid lard diet. The situation could be prevented on feeding either lettuce or whole wheat. Subsequently it was found that wheat germ oil contained the factor. The unknown substance was designated vitamin E by B. Sure in 1924. During the 1922 to 1924 period, Mattilland and his collaborators Carman and Clayton were also engaged in work on this new substance, so the vitamin nature of his new compound was readily accepted long before the vitamin discovering era reached its zenith.

In 1936, Evans, Emerson, and Emerson⁶³ finally isolated pure vitamin E and named it tocopherol after the greek word 'tocos' which means child birth and the verb pherein meaning to bring forth. The 'ol' was added to indicate the alcohol nature of the factor.

In 1938, Fernholz established the structure of tocopherol and shortly after that Karrer of Switzerland and Smith of USA first synthesized α tocopherol.

Olcott and Emerson⁹ in 1936 had discovered the antioxidant properties of tocopherol but the attractiveness of the action of vitamin E on the process of reproduction somewhat overwhelmed the significance of this study and for many years assays for vitamin E were largely related to reproductive organs functions. Now the full significance of the function of tocopherol as an antioxidant, which can protect the integrity of compounds in the tissues has been more clearly understood.

2. Chemistry

Vitamin E is a generic term for a group of lipid soluble compounds, the tocopherol and tocotrienols that possess varying degrees of vitamin activity.

The multiple nature of this vitamin was first noted in 1936⁶⁴ by Evans et al, when they first isolated a tocopherol and β . tocopherol from wheat germ oil.

Two distinct classes of compounds comprise the vitamin E group. All are isoprenoid substituted 6 hydroxychromanes ring structure and a side chain, The first series-the tocopherols derive from tocol, which contains a 16 carbon saturated isoprenoid side chain The second series, the toco trienols have a similar structure with a triple unsaturated side chain with double bonds at 3. 7 and 11 position of the side chain.

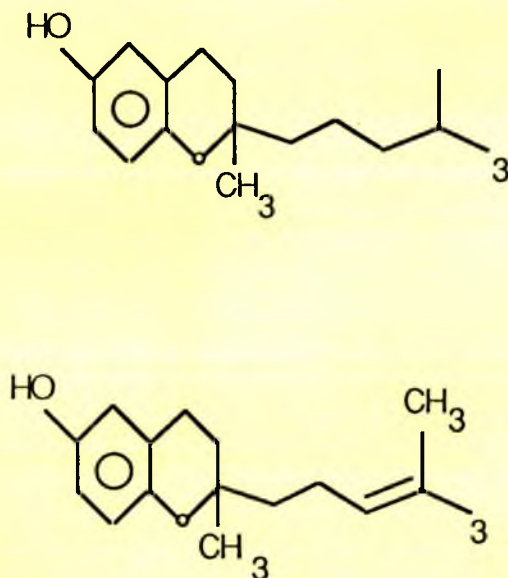


Fig. 2. Structures of tocopherols and tocotrienols

Within each series the compounds differ only in number and position of methyl groups in the ring structure, The ring structure of the corresponding tocotrienol is similar to the tocopherols designated α . β . γ . δ .

TABLE 1.

Tocols	Tocotrienols	CH ₃ Substitution
$R_1 = (\text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH} - \text{CH}_2)_3 \text{H}$ $\text{CH}_2)_3 \text{H}$		$R_2 = (\text{CH}_2 - \text{CH} - \text{C} - \text{CH}_2)_3 \text{H}$
$\alpha\text{T}(R_1 - R_2 = \text{CH}_3)$	$\alpha\text{T}-3(R_1 = R_2 = \text{CH}_3)$	5,7,8 Trimethyl
$\beta\text{T}(R_1 = \text{CH}_3, R_2 = \text{H})$	$\beta\text{T}-3(R_1 = \text{CH}_3, R_2 = \text{H})$	5,8 Dimethyl
$\gamma\text{T}(R_1 = \text{H}, R_2 = \text{CH}_3)$	$\gamma\text{T}-3(R_1 = \text{H}_3, R_2 = \text{CH}_3)$	7,8 Dimethyl
$\delta\text{T}(R_1 = R_2 = \text{H})$	$\delta\text{T}-3(R_1 = R_2 = \text{H})$	8-Methyl

Thus there are four tocopherols and four tocotrienols occurring in nature out of which alpha tocopherol is the most widely distributed in nature and is the most active biologically of the compounds.

3. Food Sources

Even though tocopherol is widely distributed in nature, they are not very stable and there are often significant losses from food during storage and during cooking⁶⁵. For example there is 48% loss of tocopherol in potato chips after storage for two weeks at room temperature. Losses of natural tocopherol during storage of vegetable oils are usually minimal, but during cooking can be appreciable. The vitamin E content of vegetable oils and fats has been reported to vary according to source of the plant, time of harvest, stability after harvest and refining procedure⁶⁶. Losses also occur during food processing, particularly if there is any significant exposure to heat and oxygen.

So to know the precise value for vitamin E intake, analytical assay of all foods just prior to ingestion has to be done.

Wheat germ and wheat germ oil offer the richest source of these factor, but it is also widely distributed in nature. All other vegetable oils, like sunflower seed oil, cotton seed oil, palm oil, rapeseed oil, coconut oil etc. are rich source of vitamin E.

TABLE 2.

Tocopherol Content mg/100gm of Food ^{67, 68, 69}

Vegetable Oils	Total Vit. E	α Tocopherol	α Tocotrienol
Wheat germ oil	254.58	149.44	
Sunflower seed oil	63.62	59.50	
Cotton seed oil	65.24	35.26	
Palm oil	35.53	18.32	11.46
Rape seed oil	44.81	17.65	
Coconut oil	3.58	0.35	1.29
Olive oil	12.64	11.92	
Soyabean oil	93.74	10.99	
Rye	192.11	71.42	
Bean		0.05	
Lentils	0.07		
Peas	2.71		

Fruits			
Apple	0.66	0.59	
Banana	0.32	0.27	
Mango		1.12	
Pineapple	0.10	0.10	
Orange	0.24	0.24	
Tomato	0.49	0.34	
Cereal grains			
Rice Brown	2.04	0.68	
White	0.39	0.11	0.05
Flour Dark	6.68	1.41	2.89
Light	0.93	0.43	0.17
Puffed rice	2.15	0.36	
Shredded rice	4.05	1.06	
Nuts			
Cocount		0.7	
Cashew nut	4.20	0.19	
Peanut	16.37	8.33	
Sesame	11.0	1.8	

Vegetables		
Beet		0.03
Cabbage	1.67	1.67
Carrot	0.13	0.12
Cauliflowers	0.09	0.03
Cucumber	0.31	0.15
Egg plant		0.03
Garlic		0.01
Lettuce	0.75	0.40
Mint		5.00
Onion	0.31	0.12
Potatoe	0.07	0.06
Sweet Potatoe	4.60	4.56
Pumpkin		1.02
Radish	3.76	3.06
Spinach		0.21
Squash		0.02
Turnip		0.03
Animal Products		
Beef	0.43	0.41
Mutton	0.46	0.43
Liver (Cow)	0.67	0.67

Chicken	0.34	0.29
Liver (Chicken)	1.44	
Duck	2.80	
Pigeon		
Egg (Chicken)	1.06	0.70
Dairy Products		
Butter	2.40	2.40
Cheese	0.63	
Milk (Cow)	0.90	
Fish		
Carp	0.31	0.63
Cod		0.23
Herring	2.00	2.00
Mackerol (Liver)	5.97	
Mackerol	1.2	1.52
Lobster		1.47
Prawn		2.85

Processed Food		
Bread	1.19	0.01
Biscuit	2.48	
Cake	7.27	
Candy	0.48	
Coffee	0.48	

Improved analytical techniques in the past decade not only have resulted in more accurate determination of the tocopherol content of foods but have also permitted a more complete description of the content of other tocopherols and tocotrienols.

Relatively high intakes of vitamin E are possible only when the dietary fat derived from vegetable oils is abundant. The tocopherol content of most beans and seed oils (soybean, corn, peanut etc.) is much higher than that of animal fats.

So it is very much probable that many diets throughout the world which are low in vegetable fats and oil contain less than 5 mg of tocopherol (17.5 IU). The most typical example is the vitamin E content of typical rural diet in Bangladesh⁷⁰, where 400-500 gm of polished rice is the daily staple food. This indicates at most 3.5-4 mg of tocopherol. In many of these low income population, fat intake is very low, 10-15% of total calorie. Vitamin E there fore mostly comes from the staple grain.

This means that vitamin E intake is not only determined by geographical consideration but also by economic factors , since vegetable oils are usually an expensive dietary component for low income group, especially in developing countries.

4. Metabolism

a. Absorption

Like other fat soluble vitamins the relative absorption of tocopherol and its esters is only 20-40% depending on the animals ability to digest and absorb fat. Tocopheryl esters are hydrolyzed in the gut lumen prior to absorption. The intestinal absorption of vitamin E follows the pattern for fat and other fat soluble nutrition of vitamin E follows the pattern for fat and other fat soluble nutrients, reaching the blood as chylomicrons through the lymph⁷¹ The percentage of dietary vitamin E absorbed seems to be relatively constant over a narrow range of normal dietary intakes and it decreases with increasing dose from high intakes of tocopherol.

The predominant route of absorption is the lymph, in which 45% appears almost entirely as unchanged tocopherol. Only 10% is absorbed via the portal vein.

b. Transport

Most tocopherol enters the blood stream via lymph where it is associated with chylomicrons and very low density lipoproteins⁷². There is no evidence of a specific transport protein. Upon entering the blood, the tocopherol in chylomicrons rapidly equilibrates with the other plasma lipoproteins. Most of it is transported in the lipoprotein fraction of blood.

There is positive correlation between total plasma lipid and plasma tocopherol in both children and adults. Normal plasma tocopherol values in adults range from 0.5 mg to 1.6 mg per kl. Some investigators prefer measurement of vitamin E adequacy in the ratio of plasma tocopherol (mg) to total lipids (g); a ratio of 0.8 or greater is considered normal²⁵. New born infants tend to have low plasma level of vitamin E ($\frac{1}{3}$ rd of of adult level) due not only to lower concentration and also to limited placental transfer. It begins to rise after birth, more in breast fed infants and reaches normal concentration by about one month of age⁷³.

c. Storage

Circulating vitamin E is readily taken up from plasma lipoprotein by erythrocytes and other body tissues, maximum concentration reaching 4-8 hours after intake. The uptake of tocopherol into tissues varies directly with the logarithm of the tocopherol intake over a period of time. Adipose tissue differs however in that it continually accumulates tocopherol. So excessive adiposity can result in reduced concentrations of tocopherol in some tissues even though blood levels are high. The adrenal and pituitary glands, testis and platelets have the highest concentration of the vitamin. The adipose tissue, liver and muscle represent the major storage depots of the vitamin⁷⁴.

TABLE 3.

Tocopherol contents of human tissues⁷⁴

	ug/g	mg/g lipid
1. Plasma	9.5	1.4
2. Erythrocytes	2.3	0.5
3. Platelets	30.0	1.3
4. Adipose tissue	150.0	0.2
5. Kidney	7.0	0.3
6. Liver	13.0	0.3
7. Muscle	19.0	0.4
8. Ovary	11.0	0.6
9. Uterus	9.0	0.7
10. Heart	20.0	0.7
11. Adrenal	132.0	0.7
12. Testis	40.0	1.0
13. Pituitary	40.0	2.0

The mitochondria comprise the richest subcellular fraction. It appears to be concentrated in the phospholipid of the cellular and subcellular portion.

TABLE 4.**Subcellular distribution of Tocopherol ug/mg protein**

Cell fraction	Liver	Heart
Soluble	0.002	0.02
Mitochondria	0.17	0.27
Microsome	0.08	0.37
Nucleus	0.03	0.25

The rate of depletion of tocopherol upon withdrawal from the diet varies considerably from tissue to tissue, being relatively rapid in plasma and liver, slower from skeletal and heart muscle, and very slow from adipose tissue.

d. Excretion

The major route of excretion is through bile into faeces as unaltered vitamin E. Its oxidative products are tocoquinone and tocohydroquinone⁷⁵. Some oxidative products are also excreted in the urine.

5. Deficiency

Vitamin E deficiency state may be produced in human with severely impaired intestinal fat absorption. The signs of vitamin E deficiency in humans are muscular weakness, creatinuria and fragile erythrocytes⁷⁶. All disappear after administration of tocopherol. So vitamin E deficiency not only causes pathology in the vascular and nervous system but also results in pathology in the adipose tissue, liver and testes.

TABLE 5.
EFFECTS OF VITAMIN E DEFICIENCY

TISSUE	OBSERVATIONS	SPECIES
1 Skeletal muscle	Myopathy	Monkey, pig, rat, rabbit, chicken, duck, horse, calf
2 Heart muscle	Myopathy	Pig, rat, cow, sheep, goat
3 Uterine muscle	Lipofuscin Accumulation	Rat
4 Blood vessels	Foetal death and resorption	Pig, rat, mouse, cow, chicken
5 Erythrocytes	Anamia, haemolyse, shortened life span.	Men, monkey, rat
6 Platelets	Increased number	Man, rat
7 Brain	Encephelomalacin	Chicken
8 Nerves	Axonal dystrophy	Rat
9 Adipose tissue	Lipofuscin accumulation	Pig, rat, mouse
10 Liver	Neurosis	Pig, rat, mouse
11 Testis	Atrophy	Monkey, rat, pig, rabbit, chicken.

There are some special conditions in which adequate vitamin E status may develop. This has been clearly demonstrated in premature infants, who have low plasma vitamin E level because of its poor transfer across the placental barrier

and immaturity of the intestine reduces the absorption of dietary vitamin E. As a result vitamin E deficiency syndrome characterized by haemolytic anaemia, thrombocytopenia, oedema and skin lesions may develop⁷⁷.

Vitamin E supplementation in premature infants has been reported to decrease retrolental fibroplasia and chronic bronchopulmonary dysplasia⁷⁸.

Adequate vitamin E may be important in protecting the lungs against oxidative damage in patients receiving pure oxygen and against damage by air pollutants, such as Ozone (O₃) and nitrous oxide (NO)⁷⁹.

Patients with cystic fibrosis and other conditions secondary to intestinal malabsorption, showing a lowered plasma vitamin E and decreased RBC survival time, has been seen to correct all abnormalities with tocopherol acetate or vitamin E supplementation promptly reverses the condition.

6. Normal blood tocopherol level

TABLE 6.

NORMAL BLOOD TOCOPHEROL LEVEL⁸⁰

	mg/dl	μ mol/L
1 Adults	0.95	or 22.00
2 Adolescent	0.86	or 20.00
3 Children 2-12 years	0.76	or 17.65
4 Infants	0.40	or 09.29
5 Premature infants	0.26	or 06.04
6 Children with PEM	0.45	or 10.45
7 Patients with cystic fibrosis	0.23	or 05.34

7. Human Requirement

Most studies of requirements of vitamin E for mammals have been conducted on small animals with short life span. When vitamin E has been removed from the diets of such animals, the various, severe pathological reactions obtained have presented such a confusing picture that it has been difficult to relate these multiple disorders to human beings. It has been seen that vitamin E is required for the maintenance of the structural and functional integrity of endocrine tissue, skeletal muscle, cardiac muscle, smooth muscle and the peripheral vascular system of growing animals. Furthermore there are accumulations of lipofuscin products in man's muscle and brain cells, which tend to increase with age.

Since the complete removal of vitamin E from the diet has produced severe and often irreversible pathology in all animals that has been investigated, it would not be ethically proper to study such study on the human being.

One long term study was sponsored at Elgin, Illinois, USA by the Food and Nutrition Board of the N. R. C. where adult human subjects were fed a partially deficient diet, providing 5 IU of vitamin E, for more than five years⁸⁰.

From the data on rates of depletion and repletion recorded during the Elgin studies, an estimate of human requirements of vitamin E was obtained.

a. Recommended daily allowance

i. Adults

It is generally accepted that a dietary intake of vitamin E that maintained a blood concentration of above 0.5 mg/dl will ensure adequate concentration in all tissues.

However the adequacy of these intakes will vary if the polyunsaturated fatty acid content of the diet deviates significantly from the customary. Therefore the ratio of tocopherols to PUFA in tissues should be such that the normal physiological function is permitted.

Even though the daily intakes may vary considerably, the average over several days should fall between 7 mg and 13 mg of a tocopherols equivalents (10-20 IU) from diets supplying 1800 K cal to 3000 K cal. The recommended allowance

for boys and men is 10 mg TE (15 IU) beginning at 15 years and 8 mg TE (12 IU) for girls and women beginning at 11 years.

ii. Children

Vitamin E allowances for children increase

with increasing body weight being about 7-12 IU.

iii. Infants

The blood tocopherol level of breast fed infants rises from 0.37 mg/dl to 0.72 mg/dl, which is the adult level within two to three weeks. Therefore the vitamin E content of human milk, 2-5 IU/L is enough to provide an adqate intake for nursing infants up to the first year. The RDA for infants is therefore 4-5 IU days.

The adult female allowance for vitamin E is increased to about 10 mg TE (15 IU) during pregnancy and to 11 mg TE during lactation.

TABLE 7.

RECOMENDED DIETARY ALLOWANCES RDA

	AGE YEARS	WEIGHT Kg	VITAMIN E IU	TE mg
1 Infants	0-0.5	6	4	2.5
2 Children	1-3	9	5	3.5
	4-6	13	7	4.5
	7-10	30	10	6-5
	11-14	44	12	8
3 Adolescent and adult male	15	70	15	10
4 Adolescent and adult female	15	58	12	8
Pregnant and lactating female	.		15	10

b. Factors Affecting Vitamin E Requirement

i. Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA)

It has been seen in animals that the requirement for vitamin E is increased by increased intake of PUFA⁸¹. However in human diets, the significance of the relationship between dietary tocopherol and PUFA is not clear. Since the tocopherol rich food like soybean, cotton seed and corn oils are also the usual sources of PUFA, increased PUFA intake are usually accompanied by an increased intake of vitamin E. However during the process of processing, storing, and cooking the oils, the vitamin E content is reduced. Further if an individual who has been consuming excessive quantities of vegetable oil such as more than 20g/day for a long period of time should abruptly terminate this intake, a state of relative deficiency could develop, since tocopherol is lost from the tissues faster than polyunsaturated fatty acids⁸².

ii. Selenium:

Selenium spares vitamin E or reduces vitamin E requirement in at least three ways:

a. Selenium is required for normal pancreatic function and their for the digestion and fat soluble lipids including vitamin E.

b. As a component of glutathione peroxidase⁸³, selenium helps destroy peroxides and thereby reduces the peroxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acid layer of the membranes. The diminished peroxidation greatly reduces the vitamin E requirement for the maintenance of membrane integrity.

c. In some unknown way, selenium aids in the retention of vitamin E in the blood plasma lipoproteins.

However most of the classical symptoms of vitamin E deficiency, such as foetal resorption and testis degeneration in rats, muscular dystrophy in rabbits and encephalomalacia in chickens are not responsive to dietary selenium. In cases of exudative diathesis it has been seen that selenium can either spare the requirement for vitamin E or completely replace the vitamin.

Conversely vitamin E appears to reduce the selenium requirement, at least in experimental animals, by preventing loss of selenium from the body or maintaining it in an active form.

iii. Iron

When iron is given, vitamin E is required for its absorption, therefore the availability of vitamin E is decreased with iron supplementation.

iv. Drugs

Oral contraceptives lower plasma vitamin E levels, suggesting that women taking the 'pill'⁸⁴ should increase their vitamin E intake. Animal experiments have shown that subjects receiving alcohol, acetaminophen, aspirin and adriamycin are required to increase their intake of vitamin E.

In conclusion, therefore the choice of a satisfactory level of vitamin E intake to be recommended to the public will however remain controversial for some time. That is so, because in man, rapid development of tocopherol deficiency does not apparently occur owing to the resistance of tissue stores to depletion as well as the wide distribution of the vitamin in foodstuffs. Therefore it seems improbable that all of the animal deficiency syndromes will be found in men. Also the free radical promoted peroxidative processes that are inhibited by the tocopherols produce slow tissue changes that cannot be evaluated in less than thirty years. Obviously small animals do not live long enough to facilitate such studies and humans cannot be subjected to such study of such tissue changes.

H. VITAMIN "A"

(1) Chemistry:

Vitamin A is a generic term referring to all compounds other than carotenoids, that exhibit the biological activity of retinol. Its correct structure was first proposed by Karrer et al⁸⁷ in 1931. It is a polyisoprenoid compound containing a cyclohexenyl ring.

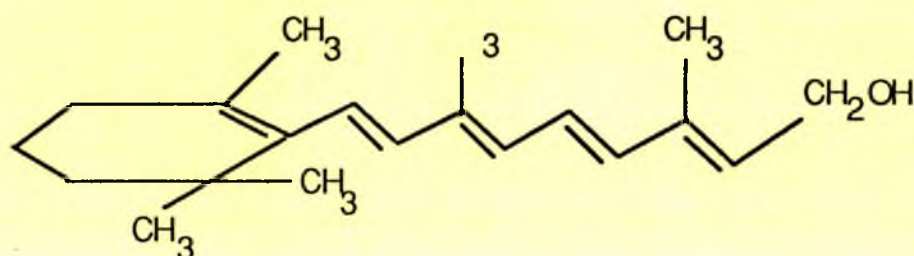


Fig-3 : Structure of Retinol

Vitamin "A" or Retinol

Vegetable foods also has vitamin A activity which was found to be related to their contents of carotenoids-carotene, cryptoxanthin and other yellow pigments frequently found in association with chlorophyll and largely responsible for the colour of red and yellow vegetables. In 1932 it was found by Moore⁸⁶ that the carotene were precursors of vitamin A. Beta carotene is the most active form, one molecule yielding 2 molecules of vitamin A but the human body is only 50% efficient at this conversion. Alpha and gamma carotenes yield only one molecule of vitamin A, the other half being inactive. Animals cannot synthesise carotene but can convert it to vitamin A.

Vitamin A has been isolated⁸⁷ in pure form as pale yellow, almost colourless crystals, soluble in fat and fat solvents but not in water.

Both retinol and carotene are stable to ordinary cooking methods, although some loss may occur at above 100°C temperature. Fruits and other food stuffs lose much of their vitamin A potency when dried in sunlight. But this vitamin is rapidly destroyed by rancidity or oxidation of fats.

(2) Food Sources⁸⁸

The dietary sources of preformed vitamin A are all animals products. Human and animal organisms tend to concentrate most of the Vitamin A in the liver where it is stored. Other significant pools of the vitamin are found in the kidney, milk and plasma.

Therefore the best sources of preformed vitamin A is the animal liver and milk. Milk products and eggs are also rich sources of vitamin A. The milk of cows on green pasture is usually higher in vitamin A than the milk of stall fed animals. Butter, cheese and egg yolk is generally quite rich in Vitamin A. The yellow colour usually present in diary products, cheese, butter and ghee is due to carotenoids present.

The richest natural sources of vitamin A are fish liver oils, which are usually classed as food supplements, They vary according to the species and the season when caught.

Although more than 80 naturally carotenoids are known, only 10 have provitamin activity. These are found chiefly in dark green leafy vegetables. Other sources are yellow and red fruits and vegetables. The deeper the green or the yellow of the vegetable, the more carotene (provitamin) it contains.

Among the vegetable oils, the richest source of provitamin A is red palm oil.

Vitamin A (IU/100 gm) ⁸⁸

Milk (cow)	150
(human)	170
Cheese	1000
Cream	500
Butter	3500
Liver(beef)	5000
(sheep)	4500
Egg (whole)	1000

(white)	0
(yolk)	3000
Fish-codliver	7500
oil	
Carotene (IU/100 gm)	
Carrots	11,000
Sweet potatoes	8000
Green spinach	8000
Cabbage	130
Cauliflower	50
Lettuce	970
Peas	500
Pumpkin	1600
Fruits	
Apples	50
Bananas	190
Melons	251
Orange	84
Pineapple	100
Plums	300
Nuts	0
Bread(corn)	300
Cereals	Neglegible

Animal foods containing preformed vitamin A seems to be sufficient as a source of this factor. However the ample availability of plant food containing carotene may well contribute a large share of vitamin A requirement.

(3) Absorption⁸⁹

In animal products, vitamin A exists as long chain fatty acid esters of retinol. These retinyl esters are hydrolysed within the intestinal lumen and absorbed in this form across the mucosal cell membrane into the intestinal cell.

In vegetables, dietary vitamin A esters are hydrolysed within the intestinal lumen and absorbed in this form across the mucosal cell membrane into the intestinal cell.

In vegetables,⁹⁰ dietary vitamin A⁸⁹ exists as a provitamin in the form of β carotenes (yellow pigments) The ingested β carotenes are oxidatively cleared by β carotene dioxygenase requiring molecular oxygen and the bile salt lecithin. Two molecules of retinaldehyde (retinal) is obtained which is further reduced by a specific reductase, utilising NADPH, to retinol.

(4) HUMAN REQUIREMENT

Requirements of vitamin A are usually expressed in terms of international units.⁹¹ A unit is equivalent to the activity of 0.344 μ g vitamin A acetate, 0.3 μ g vitamin A alcohol or 0.6 μ g β carotene.⁹⁰

The general assumption has been made that about two-thirds of vitamin A of the average diet consists of carotene precursors and one-third of preformed vitamin A. But in most developing countries a much higher proportion comes from carotenoids.

The recommended daily allowances⁹² for the normal male and female adult are 1000 and 800 retinol equivalents per day respectively (1 R.E. = 1 μ g retinol or 6 μ g β carotene) and 400 to 700 μ g R.E. for children up to ten years.

(5) PHYSIOLOGICAL FUNCTION

Vitamin A has a number of important functions in the body. It plays an essential role in the function of the retina⁹³. It is apparently essential for growth and differentiation of epithelial tissue⁹⁴. The vitamin is required for growth of

bone⁹⁵, reproduction and embryonic development. It also has a stabilizing effect on various membranes and acts to regulate membrane permeability⁹⁵.

Many physiological functions are affected by vitamin A. It is believed to be essential for maintenance of normal cellular membrane structure and function. The structure and stability of cell membranes are markedly altered in vitamin A deficient rats.

(6) NORMAL VITAMIN "A" SERUM LEVEL

Studies⁹⁷ undertaken in the United States, Great Britain, South Africa and Norway indicates a serum vitamin A level of approximately 40ug/100ml. Serum levels do not reflect liver reserves of vitamin A. Only after complete exhaustion of liver reserves, serum vitamin A level falls drastically.

Levels below 20ug/100ml serum are certainly on the low side and levels below 10ug/100ml are very low indeed.

The range of normal plasma vitamin A level is between 15-60ug/100ml⁴⁸. or 0.53-2.1 mmol/L.

(7) DEFICIENCY STATE:

In man, vitamin A deficiency rarely occurs in isolation. It is a frequent accompaniment of marasmus, kwashiorkor⁹⁸ and other malnourished states. There is also evidence that a deficiency of circulating plasma protein, to which vitamin A is bound, may be a contributory factor in tissue depletion of the vitamin. Carotene is poorly absorbed when the diet is low in fat. In the case of low plasma levels of vitamin E, vitamin A may be oxidised.

1. The Eye:

Xerophthalmia, the most ancient of human diseases is a descriptive term applied to any ocular manifestation of vitamin A deficiency. Clinical classification of Xerophthalmia⁹⁹.

Night blindness (XN)¹⁰⁰

Conjunctival xerosis (XIA)

Bitot's spot (XIB)

Corneal xerosis (X2)

Corneal ulceration (X3A) $\frac{1}{3}$ rd

Corneal ulceration (X3B) $\frac{1}{3}$ rd

Corneal Scar (XS)

Xerophthalmia fundus (XF)

Night blindness (XN)¹⁰⁰

It results from impaired visual pigment metabolism vitamin A is required for regeneration of the visual pigment rhodopsin.

Conjunctival Xerosis (XIA)

Vitamin A deficiency induces a squamous metaplasia throughout the conjunctiva, making the surface irregular.

Bitot's Spot (XIB) ¹⁰⁰

It is a small plaque of a silvery gray hue, with a foamy surface situated on the bulbar conjunctiva.

Corneal Xerosis (X2)

There is corneal haziness and loss of luster and the corneal surface becomes dry.

Corneal Ulceration (X3A)

Small corneal ulcer, sharply demarcated limited to less than $\frac{1}{3}$ rd corneal surface appear.

Corneal Ulceration (X3B)

There may be localised stromal necrosis. Complete unilateral or bilateral corneal necrosis may occur.

Corneal scar (XS)

There is corneal scarring

Xerophthalmia fundi

Description of the globe and complete blindness .

THE SKIN⁴⁸

There may be a widespread dryness, wrinkling, slate gray discolouration and hyperkeratosis of the skin. There may also be loss of luster of the hair a dry irregular, straight appearance of the eye lashes, Longitudinal furrowing with horny appearance of the finger and nail has been seen.

III. PURPOSE OF PRESENT STUDY

Spondylosis is one of the leading causes of chronic limitation of activity in person in all countries.

It contributes to an enormous financial expense as well as lost time and energy. The following table represents the morbidity and disablement from selected conditions (expressed as rates per 1000 persons of both sexes in the United States and Great Britain.^(2, 7)

<u>CONDITION</u>	<u>MORBIDITY</u>	<u>DISABLEMENT</u>
<u>U.S.A.</u>		
ARTHRITIS	79	21
SPONDYLOSIS	52	18
CARDIAC PROBLEM	29	20
HYPERTENSION	47	9
<u>GREAT BRITAIN</u>		
ARTHRITIS	30	22
SPINAL PROBLEM	34	20

Even though no specific study on spondylosis has been done in Bangladesh, it appears that a large number of people attend a physician with complaints of backache and neck pain at some time or other in their lives. X-ray studies of these patients clearly indicate signs and symptoms similar to those found in spondylosis. Therefore it can be assumed that in our country too, the prevalence of the disease is not negligible.

We have therefore undertaken a project to make a biomedical study on patients suffering from spondylosis. The purpose of the present study is to investigate the known antioxidant effects of vitamin E and vitamin A on the degenerative process seen in these patients as confirmed by X-ray studies.

IV. PATIENTS AND METHODS :

The patients were first diagnosed by prominent orthopedic surgeons of Dhaka city and referred to the Institute of Nutrition and Food Science. By using predetermined criterion we considered thirty two patients for inclusion in our study.

The criteria are:-

- (1) subjects were between forty to seventy years.
- (2) subjects were of both sexes
- (3) subjects had the following salient features.
 - (a) Morning stiffness of the affected joints on getting up after night rest.
 - (b) Limitation of movement and posture
 - (c) Pain of dull aching quality at (i) Posterior neck region and/or Lower Lumbar region
 - (d) Radiation of pain to (i) Occiput (ii) Chest (iii) Shoulder girdle (iv) Arm (v) Scapular angle (vi) Other sites (e.g. groin, back of thigh).
 - (e) Conditions exacerbating pain (i) Prolonged standing (ii) Motion (iii) Prolonged sitting (iv) Lying at rest.
 - (f) Conditions relieving pain (i) rest (ii) Motion (iii) Pain relieving drugs.
- (4) Subjects had no other complications
- (5) Subjects had radiological evidences of spondylosis.
- (6) Conventional treatment had no effect on their symptoms.

A questionnaire developed by us which also included a general history (name, sex, religion, address, occupation, income, educational status) and past history (injury, fall, fracture or any other debilitating disease).

A general examination of height, weight measurement, pulse rate and blood pressure checking was also done.

A physical examination based on inspection, palpation, percussion and testing of spinal movement was done. The testing included flexion, extension, lateral bending and rotation. The motor system of both the upper extremity (thigh, calf and interossei) was examined for muscular atrophy, tremor, power, muscle tone and reflex.

X-Ray of the affected region (cervical or lumbar) on anteroposterior and lateral view was taken to confirm the diagnosis.



PHOTOGRAPH 1



PHOTOGRAPH 2

PHOTOGRAPH 1: X-RAY OF CERVICAL REGION (LATERAL VIEW) SHOWING DEGENERATIVE CHANGE BETWEEN C₅-C₆ AND OSTEOPHYTE FORMATION BEFORE TRIAL

PHOTOGRAPH 2 : X-RAY OF CERVICAL REGION (LATERAL VIEW) SHOWING NO FURTHER DEGENERATIVE CHANGE IN SAME PATIENT AFTER TRIAL.



PHOTOGRAPH 3



PHOTOGRAPH 4

PHOTOGRAPH 3 : X-RAY OF CERVICAL REGION (ANTERO POSTERIOR VEIW)
SHOWING DEGENERATIVE CHANGE BETWEEN C₅-C₆.

PHOTOGRAPH 4 : X-RAY OF CERVICAL REGION (ANTERO-POSTERIOR VEIW)
SHOWING NO FURTHER DEGENERATVIE CHANGE IN SAME PATIENT AFTER TRIAL

An informed consent explaining the purpose of the study was taken from the study subjects.

Five millilitres of blood were aseptically collected with a disposable plastic syringe from the antecubital veins of each subject for vitamin A and E assay. The plasma was separated by centrifugation with due care to prevent haemolysis and transferred to a 5 ml labelled, screw capped glass test tube, wrapped in aluminium foil and stored under -20°C until analysis.

To test the efficacy of the experimental drugs (Vitamin A and E), twelve of the thirty two were given a single blind trial. The patients were unaware of the fact that the experimental drugs were vitamins A and E. One tablet of vitamin A contained 50,000 IU retinol and one tablet of vitamin E contained 100mg tocopherol. The subjects were divided into three groups. One group was supplied with both vitamins A and E. One group was given only vitamin A and the third group received only vitamin E. The subjects were asked to take one tablet daily. The drugs were administered for three weeks and the patients were examined again after the third week.

A preliminary analysis indicated that vitamin E was found to play a role in relieving the symptoms of spondylosis.

Next we designed a double blind study. The experimental drugs were prepared in the same size, shape and colour by pharmacists. The samples were divided into three groups (1,2 and 3) and their codes were kept strictly confidential with the pharmacists. Each group of sample contained twenty one tablets. The remaining twenty patients participated in the double blind study and neither they nor the investigators were aware of the type of drug being given. Using a random number table, the investigators gave sample No. 1 to six subjects, sample No. 2 to six and sample No. 3 to the remaining eight subjects. The drug therapy continued for three weeks and the patients were requested to come back after the third week for assessment of prognosis of their condition and assay of vitamin A and E levels in the blood.

Two sample t tests¹⁰¹ were used to compare blood levels of vitamin A and vitamin E before and after intake of experimental drugs among the subjects.

Chemical and Reagents Used:

Trans-retinol, retinyl acetate, d a-tocopherol and tocopheryl acetate were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. St. Louis, U.S.A., HPLC grade methanol, n-hexane, ethanol and nitrogen gas were supplied by the Institute of Nutrition and Food Science, Dhaka University.

Chromatography:

A Pye Unicom high performance liquid chromatograph (HPLC) of Model 2040 was used for the study. It consisted of a M-45 pump, a UK injector, a 5 cm guard column, 15mX4.5nm analytic column and a 440 UV absorbance detector. The latter was fitted with a 292 nm filter for vitamin E assay and a 326 nm filter for vitamin A assay. Both the guard and analytic columns were maintained at 31°C. The mobile phase was composed of 96% methanol in deionized water. Prior to use the mobile phase was filtered through a 0.5 u filter and degassed. The flow rate was maintained at 1.5 ml/min.

All samples and analytic materials were protected from light and their analysis was performed with minimum exposure to any light.

Methods of Estimation:

Vitamin A and E levels in plasma were estimated by the method of Bieri and Tolliver¹⁰² with adaptation from Horwitt et al¹⁰³ and Huang et al¹⁰⁴.

ANALYSIS OF PLASMA VITAMIN A:

Reagents required:

- (a) HPLC grade absolute alcohol (ethanol)
- (b) Spectrograde n hexane
- (c) Nitrogen gas
- (d) Retinyl acetate:

(1) 10 mg retinyl acetate was dissolved in 100 ml ethanol. The concentration of retinyl acetate in this solution was 100 ug/ ml. One ml of this solution was

diluted to 100 ml with ethanol to give a concentration of 1 ug/ml retinyl acetate. This was used as the internal standard for the serum.

(ii) 10mg retinyl acetate was dissolved in 100ml ethanol. The concentration of retinyl acetate in this solution was 100ug/ml. Five ml of this solution was diluted to 100ml with ethanol. Now the concentration of retinyl acetate was 5ug/ml. 20ml of the latter solution was diluted to 50 ml with ethanol so that the concentration of retinyl acetate become 2ug/ml. This was used as the internal standard of the standard solution for the standard curve, when the above solution was mixed with 50 ml of the retinol solution, the concentration of retinyl acetate beocmes 1 ug/ml.

(e) Retinol:

10 mg retinol was dissolved in 100 ml ethanol. The concentration of retinol in this solution was 100 ug/ml Five ml of this solution was diluted to 100 ml with ethanol. Now the concentration of retinol was 5 ug/ml. One ml of this stock solution was diluted to 50 ml with ethanol so that the concentration of retinol beocme 0.1 ug/ml. When this was mixed with the 50ml solution of retinyl acetate internal standard solution (ii) the concentration of retinol became 0.05 ug/ml.

Similarly 2,4,6,12,16,20 ml of the stock solution was diluted in the same manner to get a retinol concentration of 0.1 ug/ml, 0.2ug/ml, 0.4 ug/ml, 0.6 ug/ml, 0.8ug/ml and 1 ug/ml. The standard curve for retinol was thus prepared.

Procedure:

The working standard solution of known calibration with the internal standard was injected daily before the samples to ensure quality and to determine line arity. Calibration curves obtained from the standard solutions of retinol (0.05-1 ug/ml that is 0.17-3.50 umol per litre) gave the linear regression equations $Y=4.46+0.52X$ and coefficients of correlation $r=0.91$. The within-day and the inter day coefficients of variations were 4.6% ($X=1.71 \text{ umol/L} \pm 0.08$) ($n=10$) and 4.6% ($X=1.07 \text{ umol/L} \pm 0.05$) ($n=10$) respectively. The mean recoveries ($n=3$) at each concentrations were 103% (0.05-1ug/ml retinol).

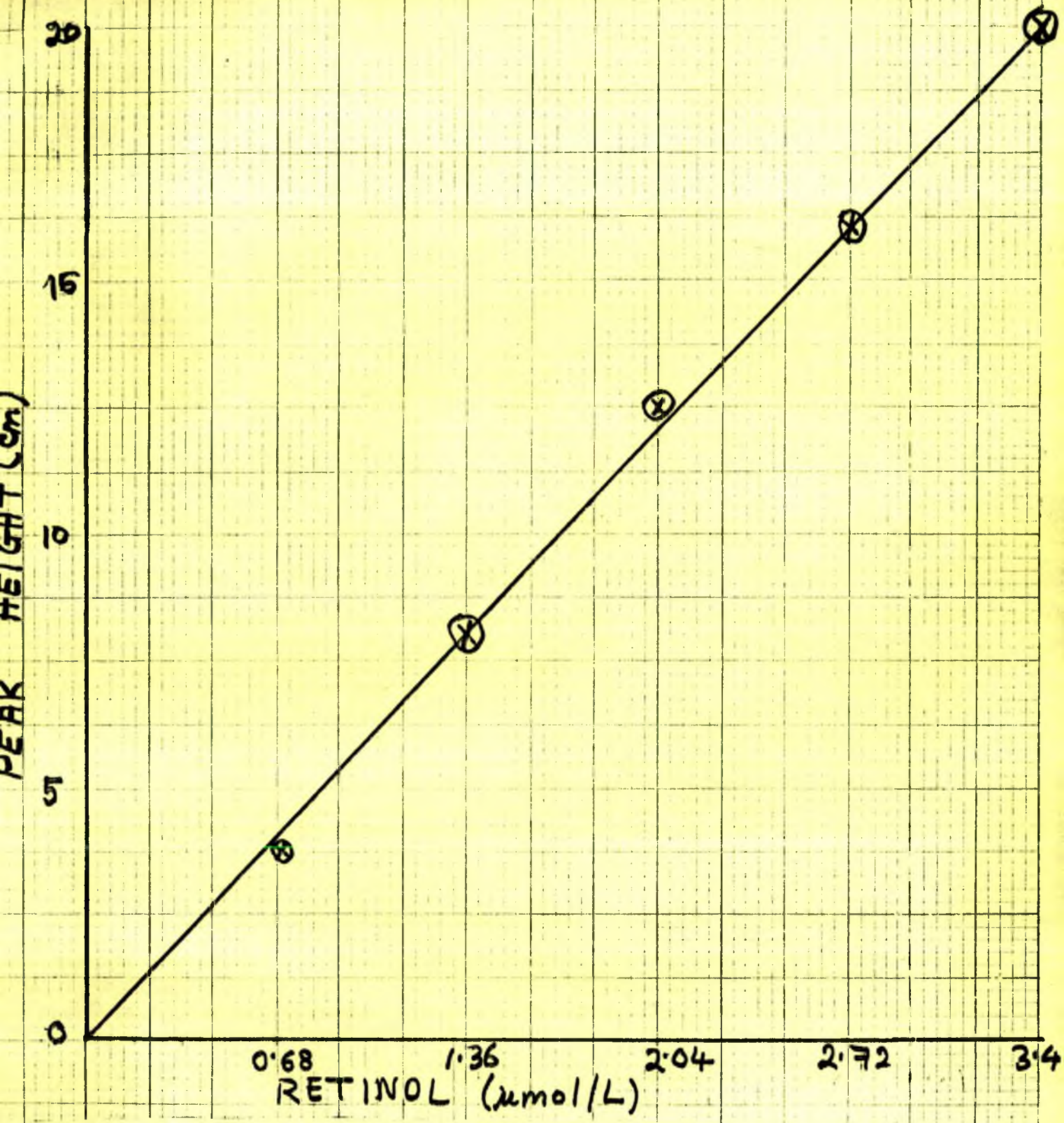


FIGURE 4: STANDARD CURVE FOR RETINOL

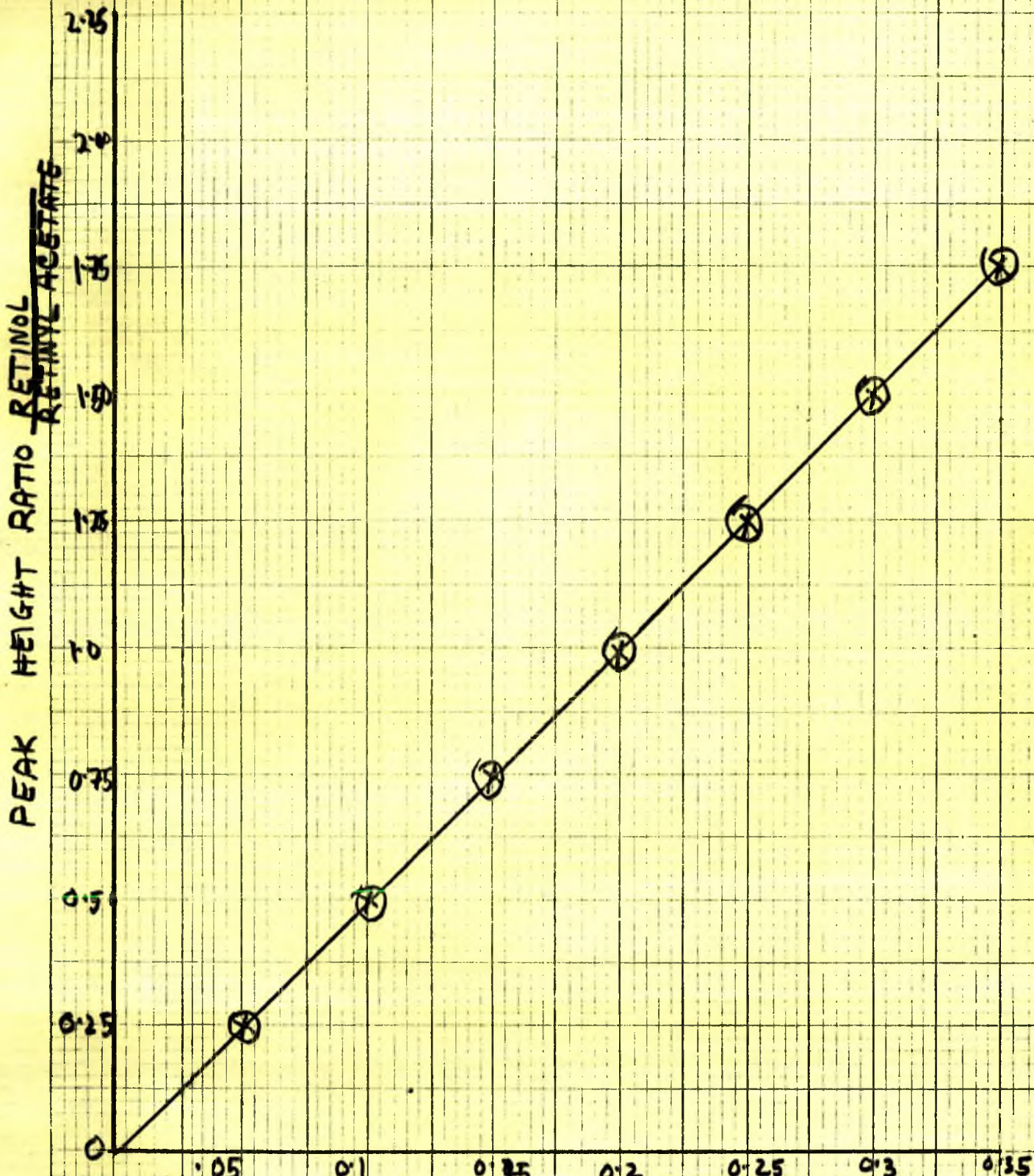


FIGURE 5

STANDARD CURVE FOR PEAK HEIGHT RATIO VERSUS WEIGHT RATIO FOR RETINOL : RETINYL ACETATE

Sample Preparation:

Plasma 100ul was taken into a 6X50mm glass test tube. To it was added 50 ul of the internal standard (retinylacetate (i) 1ug/ml in ethanol and 50ul ethanol. The contents were mixed and the lipids were extracted with 200 ul spectrograde n hexane with vigorous shaking, intermittently for 45 seconds, on a vortex mixture. The tubes were centrifuged at 1200g for 10 minutes to separate the phases. As much of the solvent as possible was carefully drawn off from the upper phase with a 75ul Lang Levy pipette and transferred to a 3 ml conical centrifuge tube. The solvent was evaporated under a stream of nitrogen with the tube in a 60°C water bath. For injection into the chromatograph, the lipid in the centrifuge tube was dissolved in 50 ul absolute ethanol with gentle mixing by finger tapping. About 20 ul of the solution was gently injected followed by a flush of ethanol.

ANALYSIS OF PLASMA VITAMIN "E" :

Reagents required:

(a) HPLC grade absolute alcohol (ethanol)

(b) spectrograde n hexane

(c) nitrogen gas

(d) tocopheryl acetate:

(i) 10mg tocopheryl acetate was dissolved in 100ml ethanol. The concentration of tocopheryl acetate in this solution was 100 ug/ml. One ml of this solution was diluted by mixing with 1 ml ethanol. Now the concentration of tocopheryl acetate in this solution was 50 ug/ml. This was the internal standard for the serum (ii) 10 mg tocopheryl acetate was dissolved in 100 ml ethanol. The concentration of tocopheryl acetate in this solution was 100 ug/ml. 50 ul of this internal standard when mixed with 50ml of the tocopheryl solution gave a tocopheryl acetate concentration of 50 ug/ml.

(e) Tocopherol: 10 mg of tocopherol was dissolved in 100ml ethanol. The concentration of tocopherol was 100 ug/ml. One ml of this stock solution was diluted to 50 ml with ethanol so that the concentration of tocopherol was 2

ug/ml. When the latter solution was mixed with 50 ml of the internal standard solution (ii) the concentration of tocopherol was 1 ug/ml.

Similarly 5,10,15,20,25ml of the stock solution was diluted in the same manner to get a tocopherol concentration of 5ug/ml, 10 ug/ml, 15ug/ml, 20 ug/ml, 25 ug/ml. The standard curve for tocopherol was thus prepared.

Procedure:

To quantitate tocopherol in the samples the working standard of known quantity was prepared daily. It was injected before analysis daily to determine linearity. Calibration curves obtained from the standard solutions of increasing concentrations of tocopherol (1-25 ug/ml that is 2.32-58 umol/L) gave the linear regression equations: $Y=0.25+1.005X$ and coefficients of correlation $r=0.63$. The within-day and inter-day coefficients of variations were 2.6% ($X=13.47$ umol/L ± 0.35) and 2.2% ($X=10.34$ umol/L ± 0.23). The mean recoveries ($n=3$) at each concentration were 90% (1-25 ug/ml tocopherol).

Sample Preparation:

Plasma 100 ul was taken into a 6X5mm glass test tube and to it was added 50ul of the internal standard (tocopheryl acetate⁽ⁱ⁾ 50 ug/ml in ethanol) and 50 ul ethanol. The contents were mixed well. For extraction of the lipid 200 ul spectrograde hexane were added and the contents mixed vigorously intermittently for 45 seconds on a vortex mixture. The tubes were centrifuged at 1200g for 10 minutes to separate the phases. As much of the solvent as possible was carefully drawn off from the upper phase with a 75ul Lang Levy pipette and transferred to a 3 ml conical centrifuge tube. The solvent was evaporated under a stream of nitrogen with the tube in a 60°C water bath. For injection into the chromatograph, the lipid in the centrifuge tube was dissolved in 50 ul absolute ethanol with gentle mixing by finger tapping. About 20 ul of the solution was gently injected followed by a flush of ethanol.

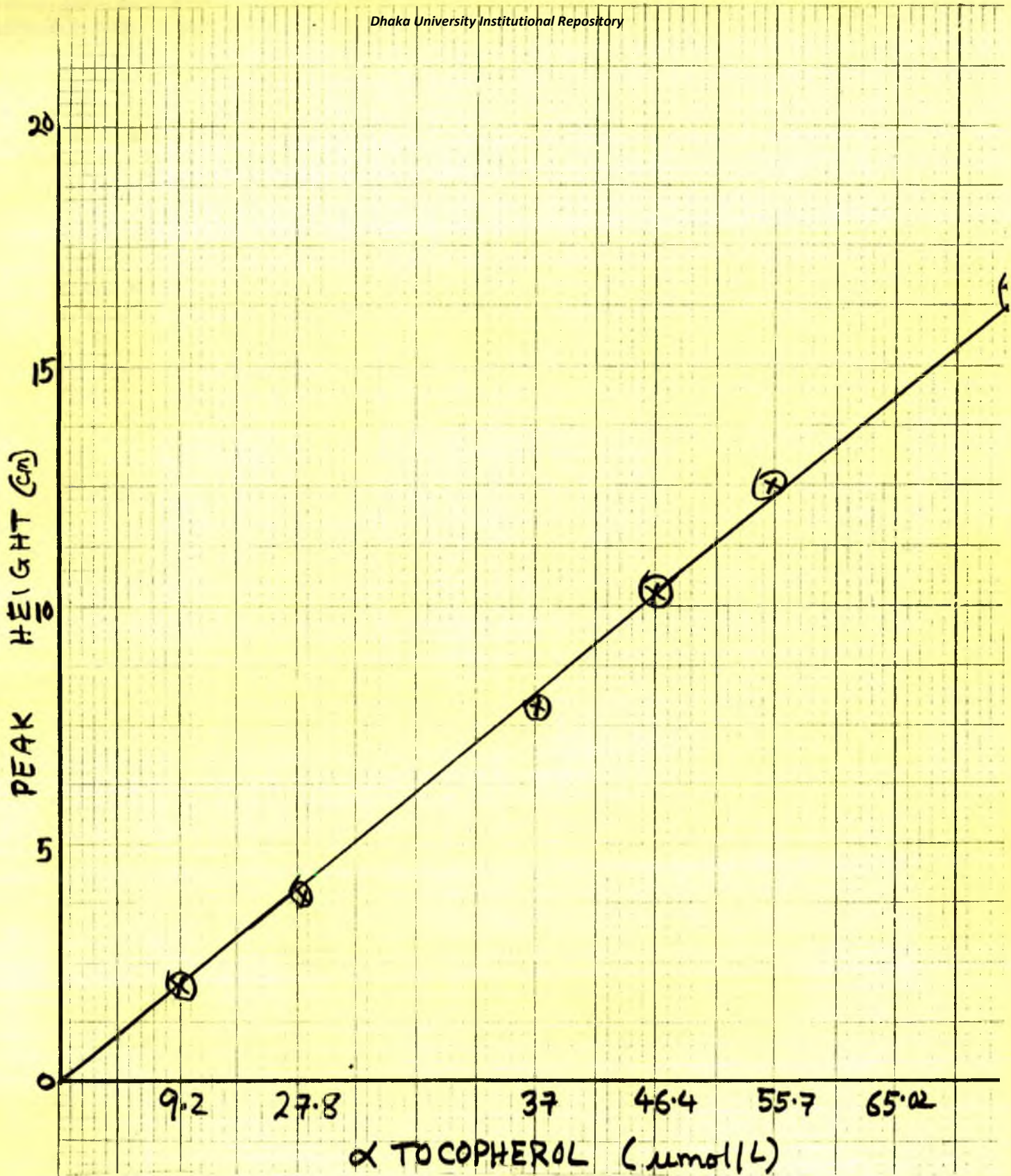


FIGURE 6: STANDARD CURVE FOR α TOCOPHEROL

FLUORIMETRY

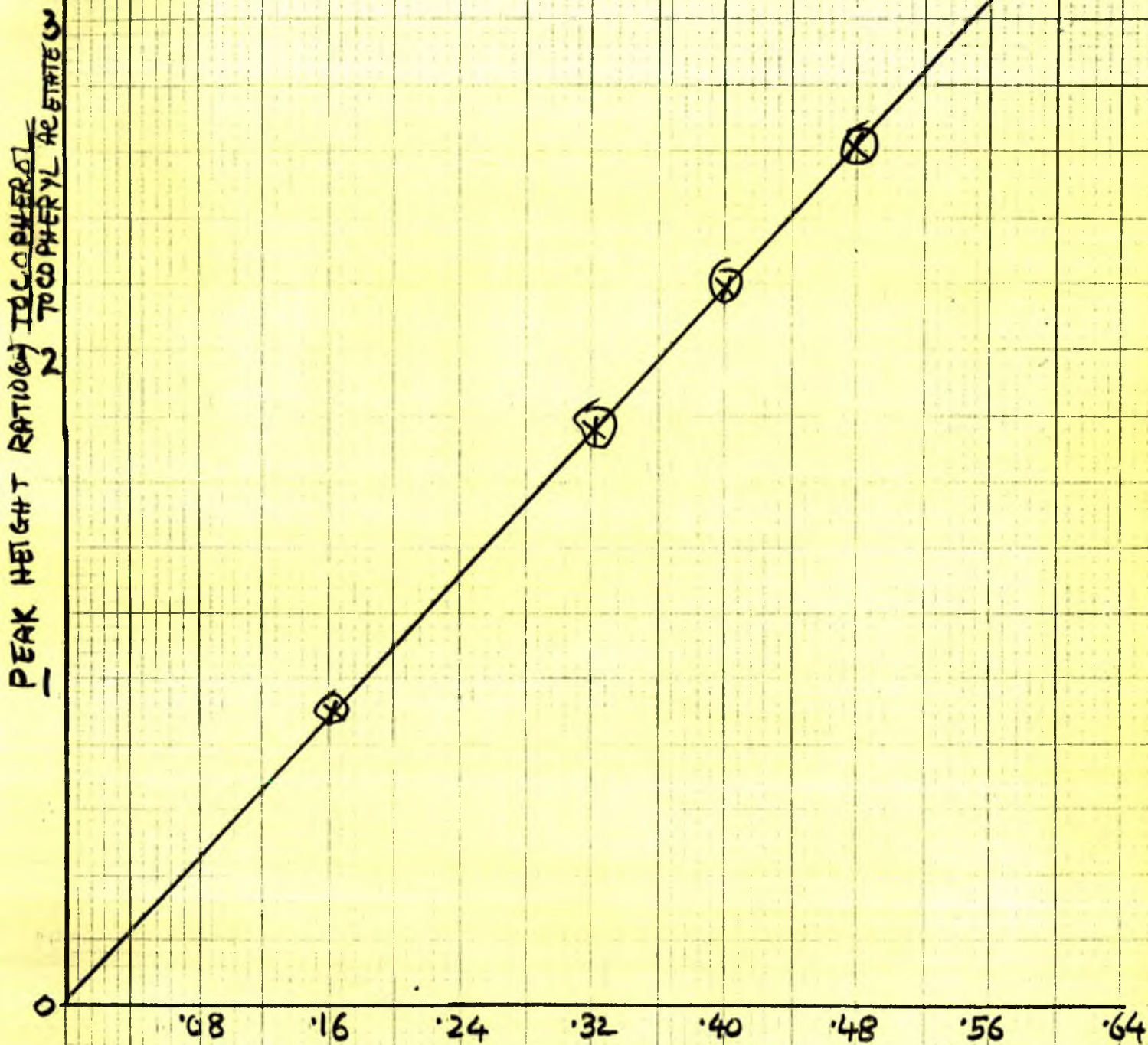


FIGURE 7
STANDARD CURVE FOR PEAK HEIGHT RATIO VERSUS
WEIGHT RATIO FOR α -TOCOPHEROL : TOCOPHERYL ACETATE

RESULTS:

Table No. 8 shows that the number of male patients is 24. The mean age is 50 years with a S.D. of 6.6.

In Table 9 is shown that the number of female patients is 8. The mean age is 50 years with a S.D. of 5.34.

Table 10 shows the age and sex distribution of all the 32 patients. There are 24 male patients and 8 female patients in the study giving a M.F. ratio of about 3:1. In the age group between 40 to 50 years there were 15 male patients (62.5%) and 37.5% (29.17+8.33) were above 50 years of age. There were 50% female patients between 40-50 years and 50% (4 patients) between 50-60 years. A total of 19 patients (59%) were between the age group of 40-50 years. 34.37% of the total patients were between 50 to 60 years age group. There were only 2 male patients above the age of 60 years.

Table 11 shows that 6 patients (18.75%) had education up to S.S.C. level, 3(9.38%) up to H.S.C. 7(21.87%) patients completed degree or equivalent and 16 patients (50%) had post-graduate qualification.

Table 12 shows that 7 patients (21.62%) were officers and 5 (15.62%) were clerks. Four patients (12.50%) were engineers 3 patients (9.37%) were physicians, 2(6.25%) were teachers and one was a writer.

Figure 8 shows the income distribution of all the patients. 81.25% had an average monthly income of Taka 2000-5000 only. 6.25% patients Taka 5000-8000 and the rest 12.50% had a monthly income of Taka 8000 and above.

TABLE : 8AGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE PATIENTS (n-24)

AGE RANGE (YEAR)	NUMBER	MEAN WITH SD
40 - 50	15	-
51 - 60	07	50
61 - 70	02	±6.6

TABLE : 9

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE PATIENTS (n=8)

AGE	RANGE	(YEAR)	NUMBER	MEAN WITH SD
40	-	50	04	-
51	-	60	04	50
61	-	70	00	±5.3

TABLE : 10

AGE AND SEX DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL PATIENTS (n=32)

AGE RANGE	MALE PATIENTS		FEMALE PATIENTS		TOTAL	PERCENTAGE
(M)	(24)	(F)	(08)	(M+F)		
In Years	NUMBER	%	NUMBER	%	No. of patients 32	
40-50	15	62.5	04	50	19	59.37
51-60	07	29.17	04	50	11	34.37
61-70	02	8.33	00		02	6.26

TABLE NO. 11EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF PATIENTS (n-32)

LEVEL OF EDUCATION	MALE	FEMAL	PERCENTAGE
1. S.S.C.	1	5	18.75
2. H.S.C.	3	0	9.38
3. B.A.-equivalent	4	3	21.87
4. M.A./equivalent	14	2	50
TOTAL	22	10	100

TABLE 12

OCCUPATION OF PATIENTS (n=32)

OCCUPATION	NUMBER OF PATIENTS	PERCENTAGE
1. HOUSEWIFE	7	21.87
2. BUSINESSMAN	5	15.62
3. OFFICERS	5	15.62
4. CLERKS	5	15.62
5. TEACHERS	2	6.25
6. ENGINEER	4	12.50
7. PHYSICIAN	3	9.37
8. WRITER	1	3.15
TOTAL	32	100

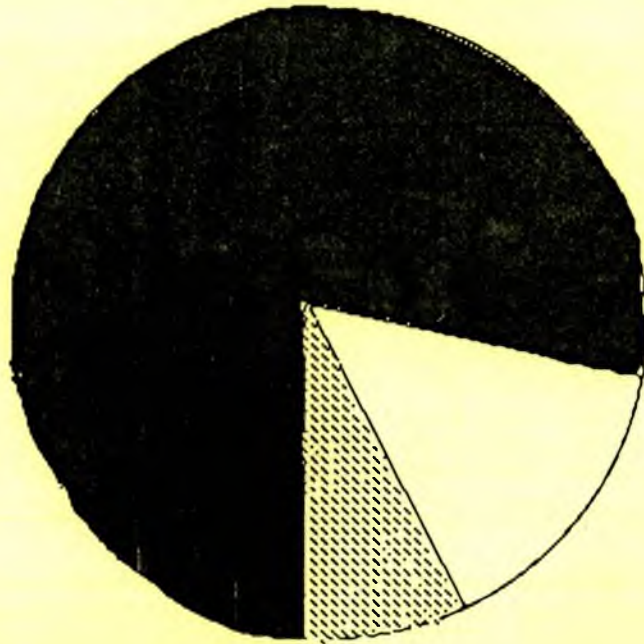


FIGURE-8 INCOME DISTRIBUTION OF THE PATIENTS
INCOME PER MONTH PER CENTAGE OF PATIENTS

■	TAKA 2000-5000	81.25%
▨	TAKA 5000-8000	6.25%
□	TAKA 8000-ABOVE	12.50%

Table No. 13 shows the clinical presentation of all the thirty two patients. Thirty of them (93.75%) had neck pain, in addition eleven had low back pain also. There was restricted spinal movement in seventeen (53.21%) patients and radiation of pain to other areas in 26 (81.25%) patients. Two patients (6.25%) had tremor of the hands and there was thenar and hypothenar muscle wasting in four (12.25%) patients.

In Table 14 is shown that twenty three patients had symptoms for less than a year to a year. Five patients had symptoms for more than a year upto 2 years and 4 patients (12.50%) had symptoms for more than 2 years.

Table No. 15 shows the duration of the two main symptoms. A total numbers of thirteen patients were suffering from morning stiffness of which 61.54% were suffering for less than a year, 015.38% for 1 to 2 years and 23.08% for more than 2 years. Fifteen patients were suffering from limitation of movement. 66.67% were suffering for less than a year, 6.66% for 1 to 2 years and 26.67% for more than 2 years.

In Table No. 16 is shown the different areas to which pain is radiated. Pain is radiated to the occiput in four patients (9.30%), to the shoulder girdle in nine patients (20.93%) to the scapula in nine (20.93%). 39.54% patients (17) had radiation of pain to the arm and 9.30% had radiation to the chest.

The radiological features of the patients are shown in Table No. 17. Fourteen patients (43.7%) had mild degeneration, twelve patients (37.5%) had moderate changes and six patients (18.75%) had severe degenerative changes.

TABLE NO. 13

CLINICAL REPRESENTATION OF PATIENTS

CLINICAL FEATURES	NUMBER OF PATIENTS	PERCENTAGE
1. NECK PAIN	30	93.75
2. LOW BACK PAIN	11	34.37
3. RESTRICTED MOVEMENT	17	53.12
4. RADIATION OF PAIN	26	81.25
5. TREMOR	2	6.25
6. MUSCLE WASTING	4	12.25

TREMOR : An involuntary trembling.

MUSCLE WASTING : Gradual decay or diminution of bulk of muscle.

TABLE 14DURATION OF ALL SYMPTOMS OF PATIENTS (n-32)

DURATION OF SYMPTOMS (YEARS)	NO. OF PATIENTS	PERCENTAGE
LESS THAN 1	23	71.87
1 —————>2	05	15.63
MORE THAN 2	04	12.50
TOTAL	32	100

TABLE NO. 15

DURATION OF TWO MAIN SYMPTOMS OF THE PATIENTS

YEARS OF TWO MAIN SYMPTOMS OF THE PATIENTS				
YEARS OF DURATION	SYMPTOMS			
	MORNING STIFFNESS		LIMITATION OF MOVEMENT	
	NUMBER OF PATIENTS	%	NO. OF PATIENTS	%
LESS THAN 1	8	61.54	10	66.67
1 to 2	2	15.38	1	6.65
MORE THAN 2	3	23.08	4	26.67
TOTAL	13		15	

MORNING STIFFNESS: Rigidity of the joints for 15-30 minutes in the morning which occurs in patients with arthritis of related disorder.

LIMITATION OF MOVEMENT: Confinement of specific movement of the body.

TABLE NO. 16

RADATION OF PAIN TO DIFFERENT AREAS

AREA INVLOVED	NUMBER OF PATEINTS	PERCENTAGE
OCCIPUT	4	9.30
SHOULDER GIRDLE	9	20.93
SCAPULA	9	20.93
ARM	17	39.54
CHEST	4	9.30
TOTAL	43	100

OCCIPUT: BACK OF THE READ

SHOULDER GIRDLE: PART OF THE UPPER ARM AND TRUNK

SCAPULA : BACK OF THE SHOULDER

TABLE NO. 17

X-RAY FINDINGS OF 32 PATIENTS

X-RAY DIAGNOSIS	NUMBER OF PATIENTS	%
MILD DEGENERATION	14	43.75
MODERATE DEGENERATION	12	37.50
SEVERE DEGENERATION	6	18.75
TOTAL	32	100

MILD: Mild degenerative change seen in C5 and C6

MODERATE: Degenerative change seen in more than two vertebral.

SEVERE: Other signs like osteophyte, spur formation and liping are seen along with degenerative change in more than two vertebral.

DEGENERATIVE CHANGE: Dimunation of bony density of vertebral shown by radioluscent area at the upper or lower anterior angle of the vertebral. These changes are due to stress of wear and tear on the vertebral.

In figure 9 is shown the serum vitamin A level of the patients who participated in the single blind study. Before intake of the drugs the patients who had an average serum value of 0.43 umol/L had an increase of their serum level to 0.82 umol/L after the trial. The average serum vitamin A level was 1.00 umol/L after intake in those patients whose mean serum A level was 0.85 umol/L initially. The patients having a mean serum vitamin A level of 1.4 umol/L before intake had an average serum vitamin A level of 1.5 umol/L after intake. The overall mean value of serum vitamin A level was 0.70 ± 0.39 umol/L before intake. The mean serum vitamin A level of all the patients increased to only 0.90 ± 0.06 umol/L after intake of the experimental drugs. The rise was not statistically very significant ($P < 0.5$).

In contrast to vitamin A, the mean serum vitamin E level increased from 3.20 ± 1.09 umol/L to 13.93 ± 6.29 umol/L, as shown in Figure 10, during the therapy. The rise was about 400% and highly significant ($P < 0.005$). The patients with serum level of 2 umol/L had an increase of serum vitamin E level to 14 umol/L of those patients whose serum level was initially 3.5 umol/L. After three weeks of drug intake the serum level rose to 18 umol/L in those who had 4.5 umol/L before intake.

The next Figure 11 depicts the symptoms and percentage of the patients. Before intake of the experimental drugs in the single blind trial, 91.6% were suffering from neck pain, 66.6% from restricted spinal movement and radiation of pain. 58.3% and 33.3% of the patients were suffering from low back pain and muscle wasting respectively. After the trial all the patients were relieved except 33.3% who were still suffering from muscle wasting.

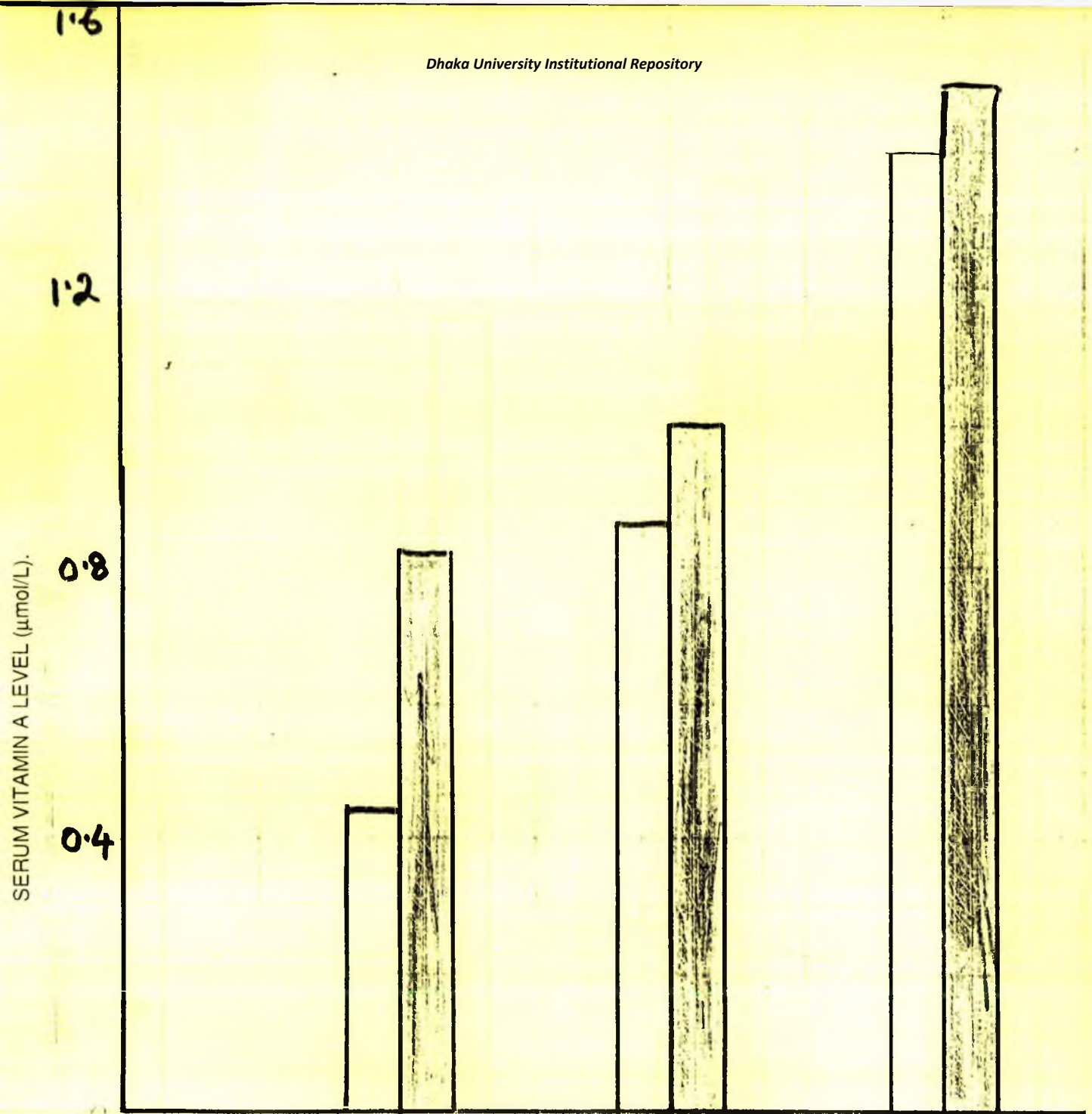


FIGURE 9: SERUM VITAMIN A LEVEL ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) IN PATIENTS BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF DRUGS IN SINGLE BLIND TRAL.

BEFORE INTAKE MEAN = 0.70 ± 0.39 .

AFTER INTAKE MEAN = 0.95 ± 0.60

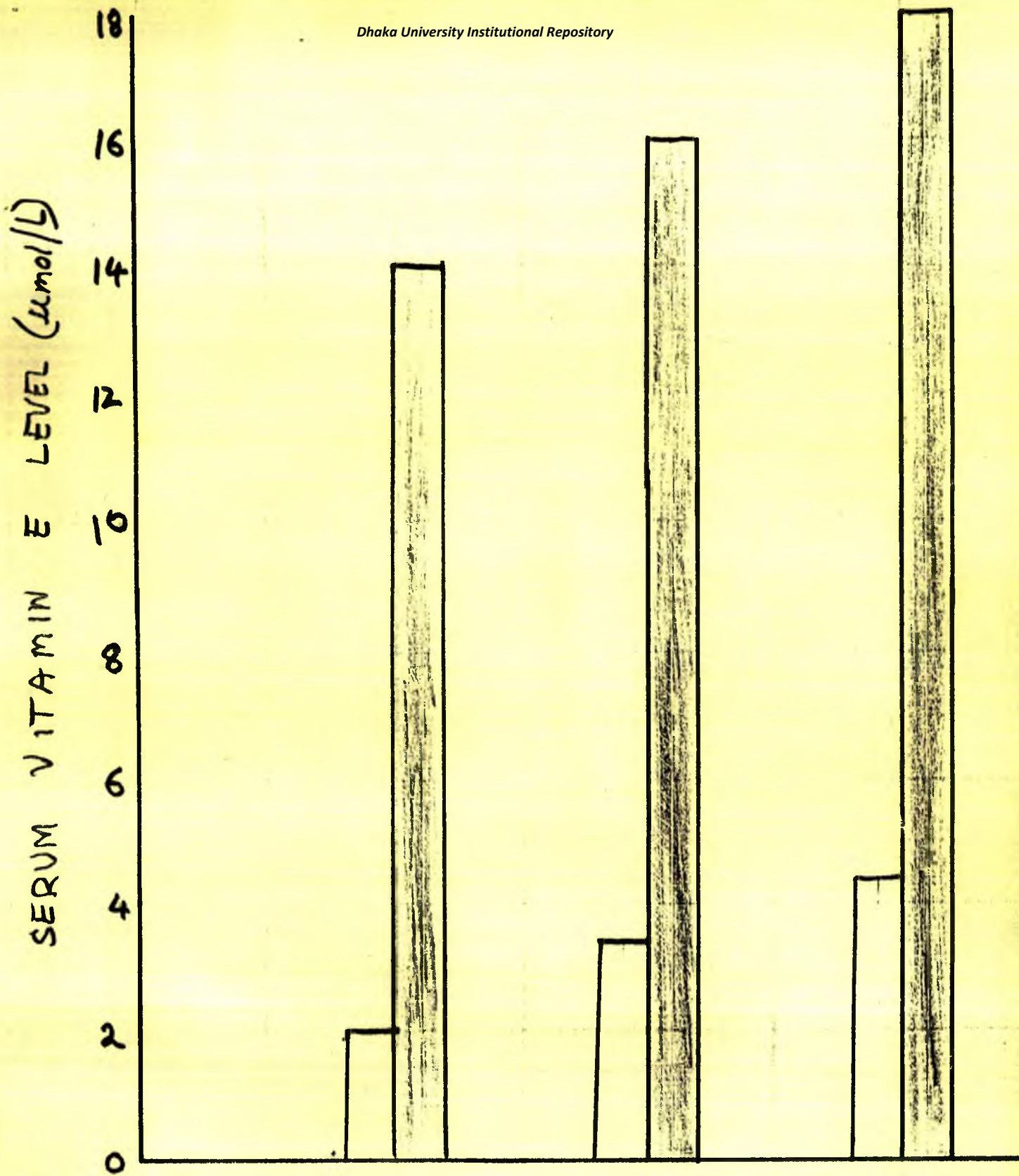


FIGURE 10: SERUM VITAMIN E LEVEL ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) IN PATIENTS BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF DRUGS IN SINGLE BLIND TRIAL

BEFORE INTAKE MEAN 3.20 ± 1.09 .

AFTER INTAKE MEAN 13.93 ± 6.29

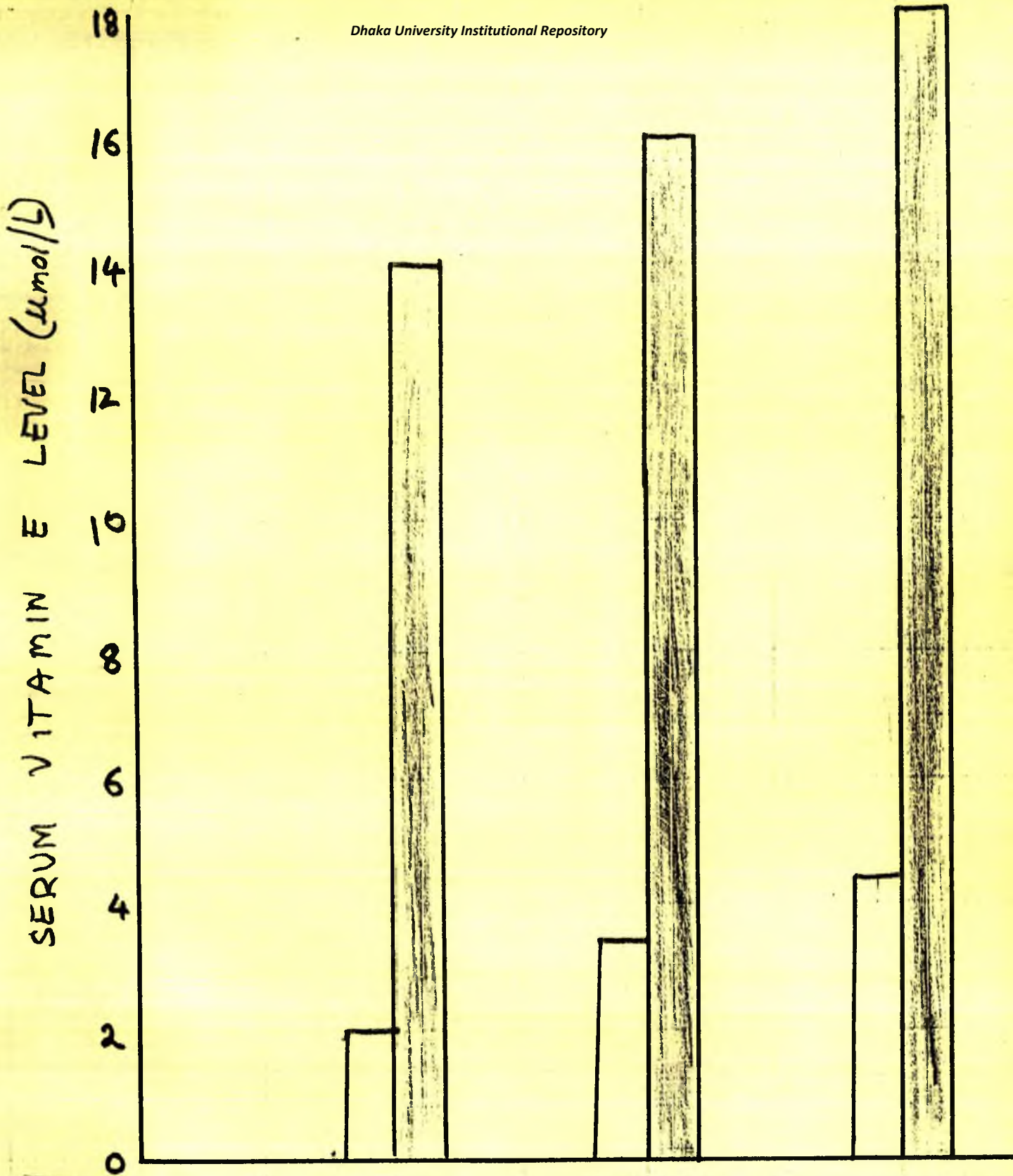


FIGURE 10: SERUM VITAMIN E LEVEL ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) IN PATIENTS BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF DRUGS IN SINGLE BLIND TRIAL

BEFORE INTAKE MEAN 3.20 ± 1.09 .

AFTER INTAKE MEAN 13.93 ± 6.29

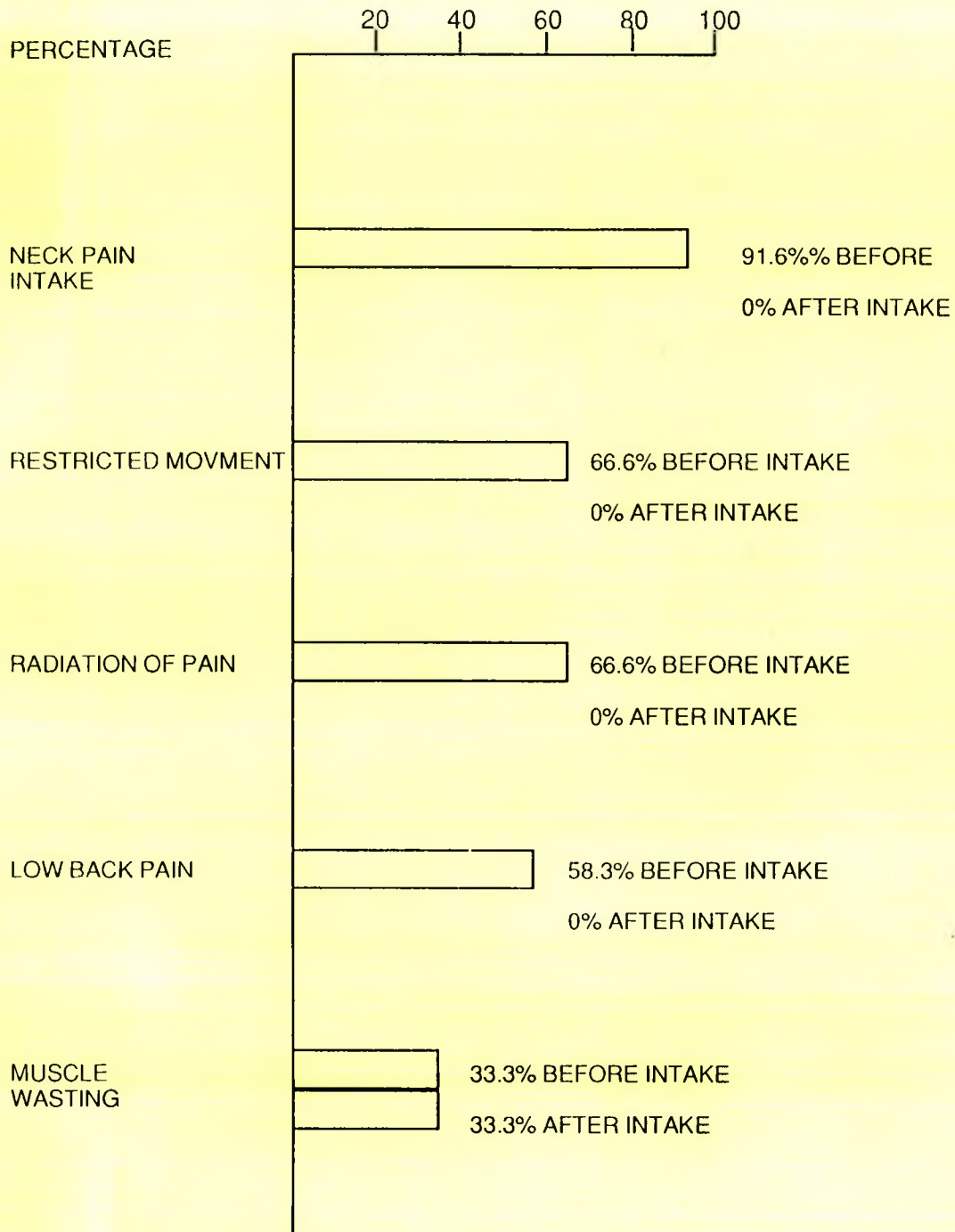


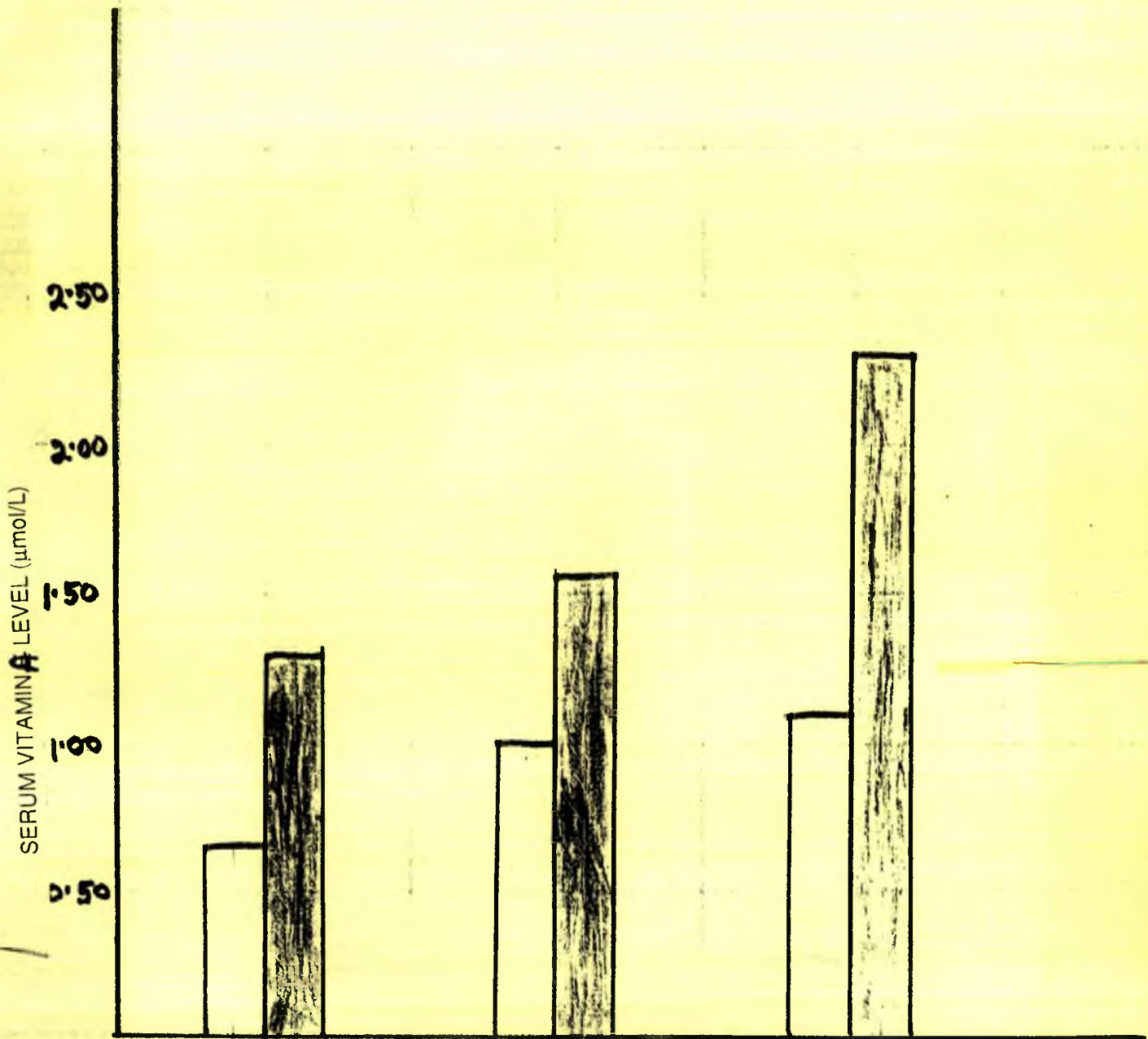
FIGURE 11 : SYMPTOMS AND PERCENTAGE OF PATIENTS BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF DRUGS IN THE SINGLE BLIND TRIAL.

In Figure 12 is shown that before intake of sample No. 1 containing vitamin A, the mean serum vitamin A level was 0.87 ± 0.28 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. The mean serum vitamin A level was 1.67 ± 0.6 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ after intake ($P < 0.1$) for three weeks. The patients with serum level of 0.60 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ had arise in serum level to 1.26 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. Before intake of the drugs, the patients who had an average serum value of 1.00 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ had an increase of their serum level to 1.55 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. The patients whose serum level was 1.2 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ initially had an increased value of 2.3 $\mu\text{mol/L}$.

Figure 13 show that the difference of mean serum vitamin E level before and after intake of sample containing vitamin A only is not at all significant. The mean serum vitamin E level was 10.44 ± 4.6 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ and after intake the mean serum level was 10.10 ± 4.3 $\mu\text{mol/L}$.

The intensity of pain in the patients in the double blind trial who took sample containing vitamin A is shown in Table No. 18. The intensity of pain ranged from mild to severe in 6 patients before intake. After intake, the intensity of pain remained the same in 4 patients, in one patient it rose from mild to moderate and in another it rose from moderate to severe intensity.

Figure No. 14 represents a bar chart showing some symptoms of the patients before and after intake of sample No. 1 containing vitamin A. 83.3% patients were suffering from neck pain an 33.3% from low back pain. There was restricted spinal movement in 66.6% patients. Even after intake of the sample, the patients were still suffering.



SERUM VITAMIN A LEVEL ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) IN PATIENTS ($n=6$) BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE CONTAINING VITAMIN A.

□ BEFORE INTAKE MEAN 0.87 ± 0.28 .

■ AFTER INTAKE MEAN 1.67 ± 0.60

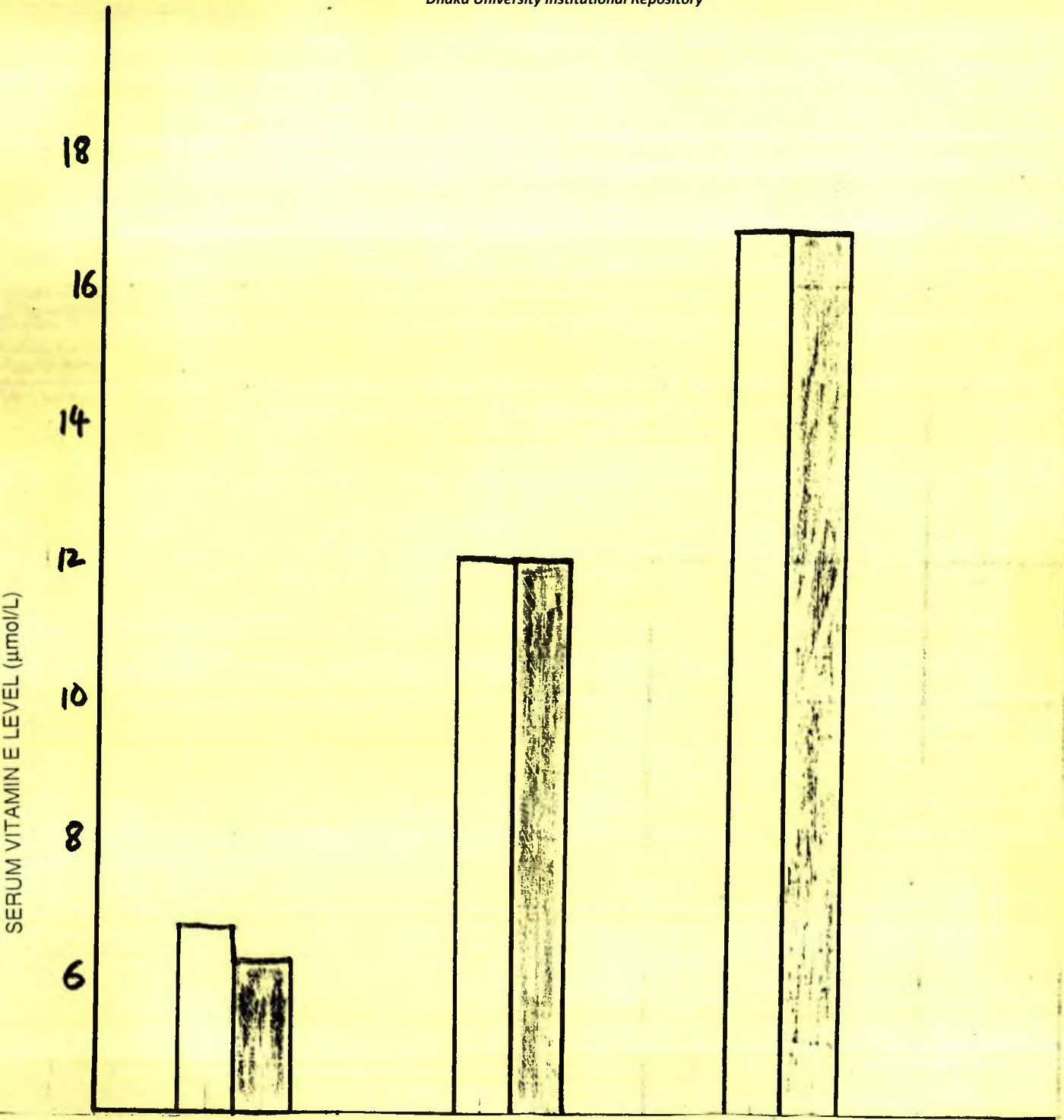


FIGURE 13: SERUM VITAMIN E LEVEL ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) IN PATIENTS ($n=6$) BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE CONTAINING VITAMIN A.

BEFORE INTAKE MEAN 10.14 ± 4.6 .
AFTER INTAKE MEAN 10.10 ± 4.3

TABLE NO -18

INTENSITY PAIN IN PATIENTS BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE NO 1 CONTAINING VITAMIN A.

NO.	INTENSITY OF PAIN	
	BEFORE INTAKE	AFTER INTAKE
1.	++	++
2.	+	++
3.	++	++
4.	++	++
5.	+++	+++
6.	++	+++

+ = mild intensity of pain.

++=moderate intensity of pain.

+++= Severe intensity of pain.

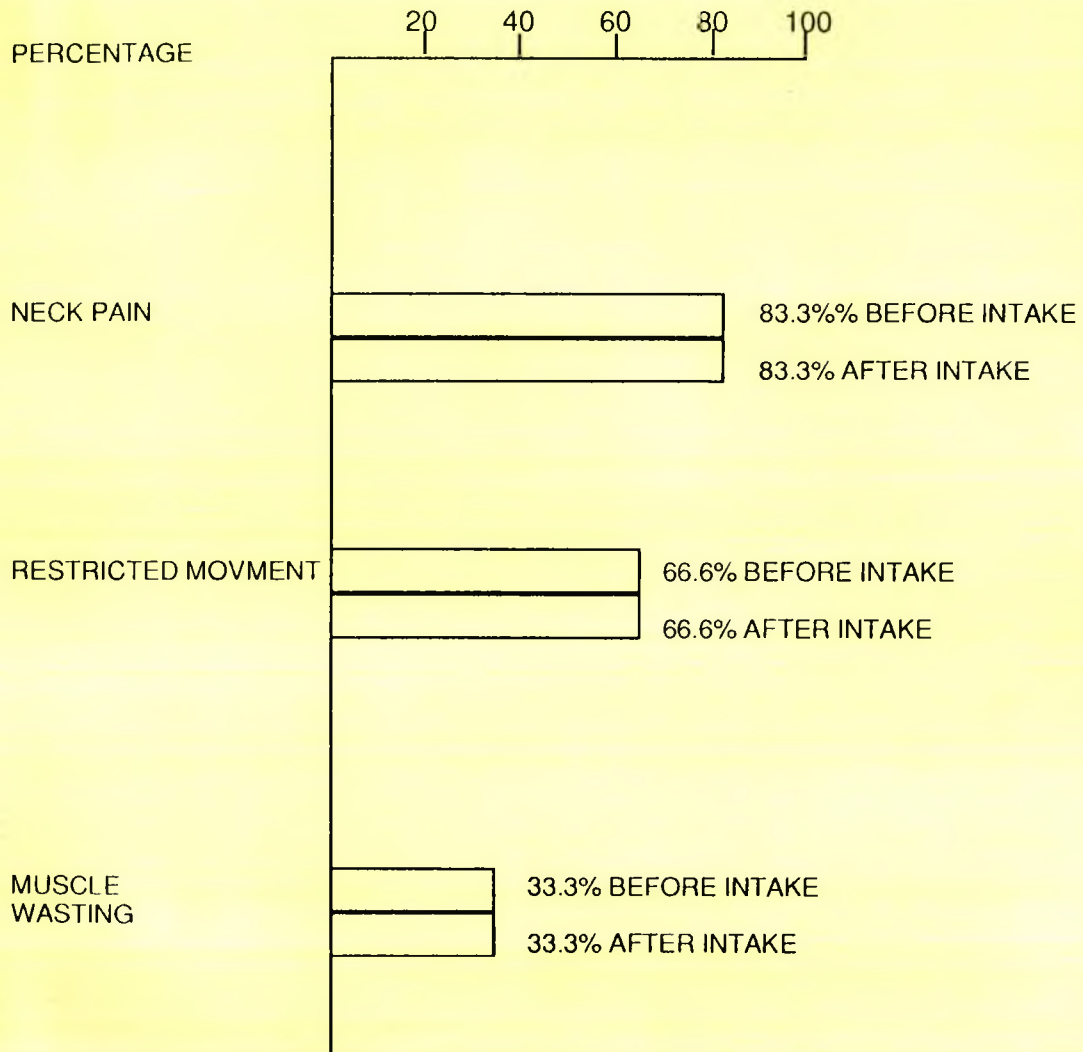


FIGURE 14 : SYMPTOMS AND PERCENTAGE OF PATIENTS BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF OF SAMPLE CONTAINING VITAMIN A.

In Figure No. 15 is shown the serum vitamin A level of the patients who took sample containing both vitamins A and E. Patients whose mean serum vitamin A level was 0.80 umol/L initially had an increased value to 1.70 umol/L. The mean serum level was 1.76 umol/L after intake in those who had 1.0 umol/L before intake. In those, who had an serum value of 1.24 umol/L before intake had a rise to 2.2 umol/L after. The mean serum vitamin A level was 1.09 ± 0.30 umol/L of all the patients before intake. After intake the average vitamin A level rose to 4.61 umol/L ($P < 0.2$).

The Figure No. 16 shows the serum vitamin E level of the patients taking the sample containing vitamin A and E. Before intake the average serum vitamin E was 4.06 ± 1.97 umol/L which rose to 17.14 ± 6.81 umol/L. The rise was over 4000% and was statistically significant ($P < 0.005$). The patients who were initially 2 umol/L had increased to 20 umol/L there level of vitamin E. Those who had a mean value of 4 umol/L rose to 23 umol/L. The mean serum level was 24 umol/L after intake in those patients who had 6 umol/L before intake.

Table No. 19 shows that after intake of sample No. 2 (i. e. vitamin A and E), all the patients were completely relieved of their pain after the therapy.

In Figure No. 17 is shown the symptoms and percentage of patients who took sample containing vitamin A and E by a bar chart. All the patients were suffering from neck pain before intake. 66.6% were suffering from restricted movement, 16.6% from low back pain and 16.6% from radiation of pain before intake of the drugs. All the patients were relieved after intake of the sample.

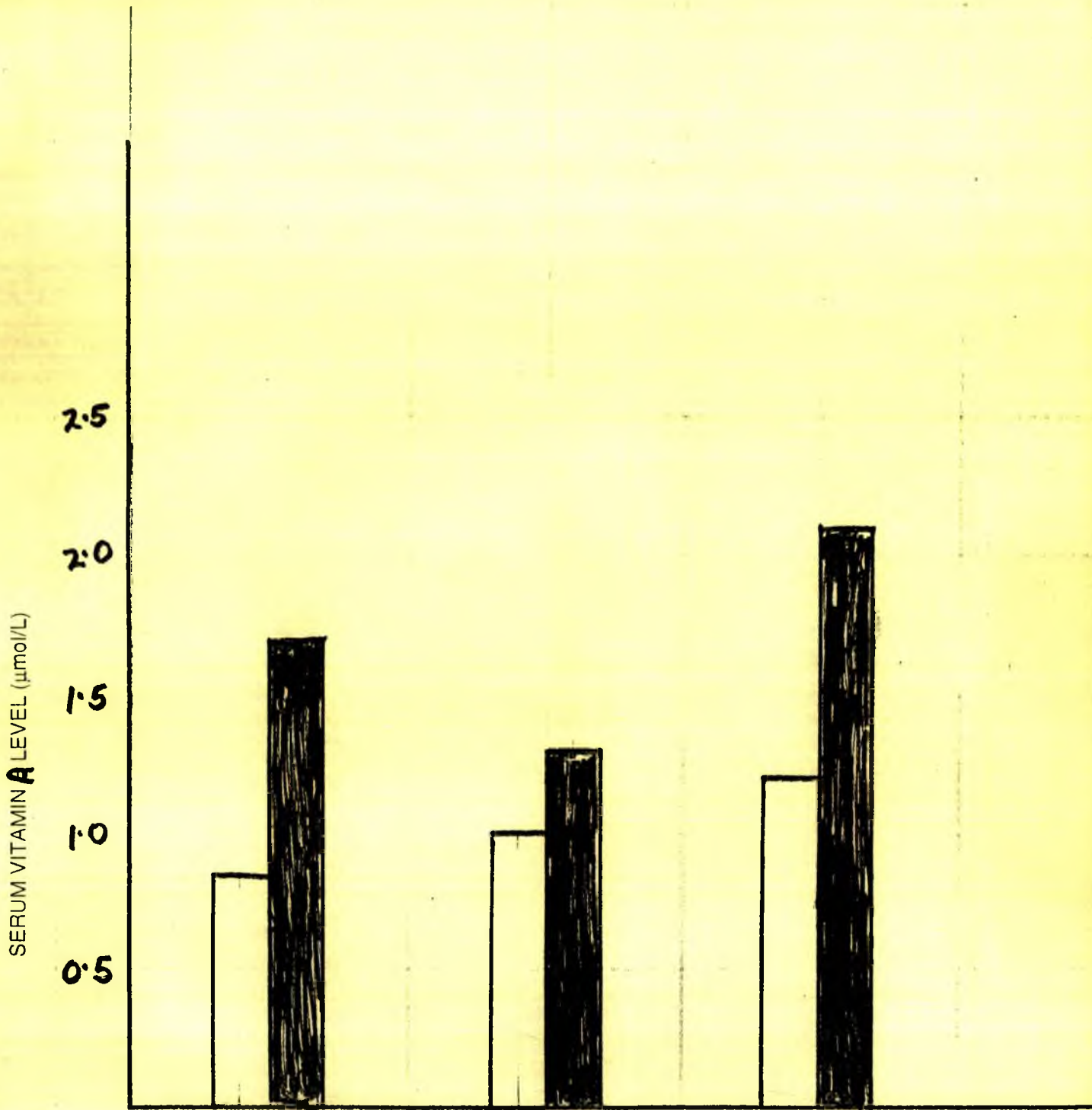


FIGURE 15: SERUM VITAMIN A LEVEL ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) IN PATIENTS ($n=6$) BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE CONTAINING VITAMIN A AND E.

□ BEFORE INTAKE MEAN 1.09 ± 0.30 .

■ AFTER INTAKE MEAN 4.61 ± 0.40

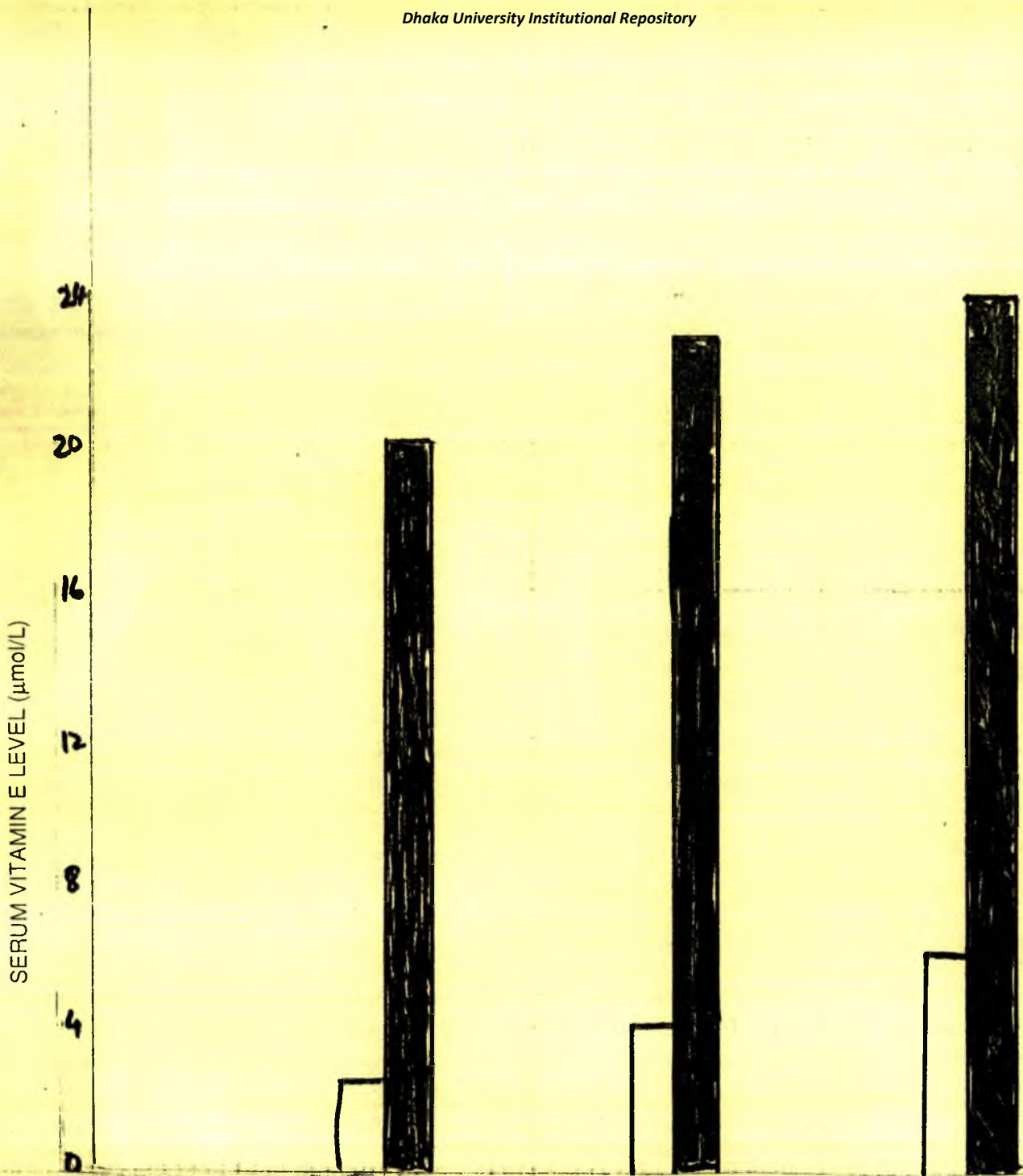


FIGURE 16 : SERUM VITAMIN E LEVEL ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) IN PATIENTS ($n = 6$) BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE CONTAINING VITAMIN A AND E.

 BEFORE INTAKE MEAN 4.06 ± 1.92 .

 AFTER INTAKE MEAN 17.14 ± 6.81

TABLE NO -19

INTENSITY OF PAIN OF PATIFINTS (N=6) BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE NO 2 CONTAINING UITAMIN A AND E.

INTENSITY OF PAIN		
NO.	BEFQRE INTAKE	AFTER INTAKE
1.	+ + +	Complete relief
2.	+ +	Complete relief
3.	+ +	Complete relief
4.	+ + +	Complete relief
5.	+ +	Complete relief
6.	+ +	Complete relief.

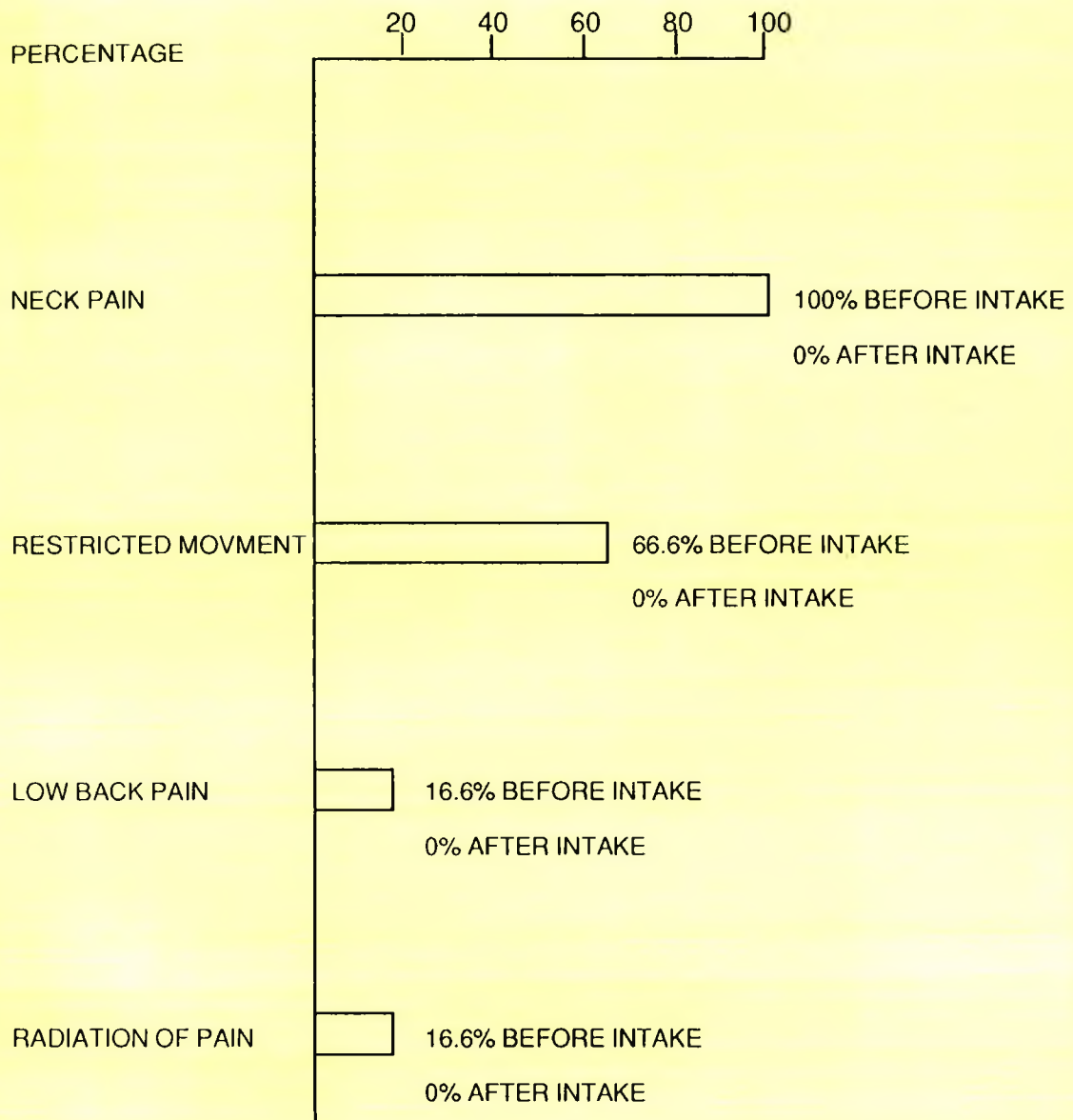


FIGURE 17 : SYMPTOMS AND PERCENTAGE OF PATIENTS BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE CONTAINING VITAMIN A AND E.

Figure No. 18 shows that after three weeks of drug intake. Sample No. 3 containing vitamin E only, the rise in mean serum level of vitamin A is not significant.

Figure No. 19 shows the serum vitamin E level of the patients taking sample containing vitamin E for three weeks. The patients whose mean level was initially 2.2 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ had an increase to 11 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. Those who had initially 4 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ had a rise upto 24 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. In those whose mean serum value was 9.5 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ before, had an increase. to 26 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ after intake. This rise was 3.5 fold altogether and was statistically significant ($P < 0.01$).

The clinical features of the patients taking sample No. 3 (i.e. vitamin E) are depicted in Table 20. It was found that same as sample No. 2, Sample No. 3 also resulted in complete relief of pain of all patients irrespective of whether they had moderate to severe pain before the therapy.

Fig. 20 represents a bar chart showing the symptoms of patients before and after intake of Sample No. 3. 87.5% patients were suffering from neck pain, 12.5% from low back pain 25% from restricted spinal movement and 12.5% from radiation of pain before the therapy. None were suffering from these symptoms after the intake of Sample No. 3.

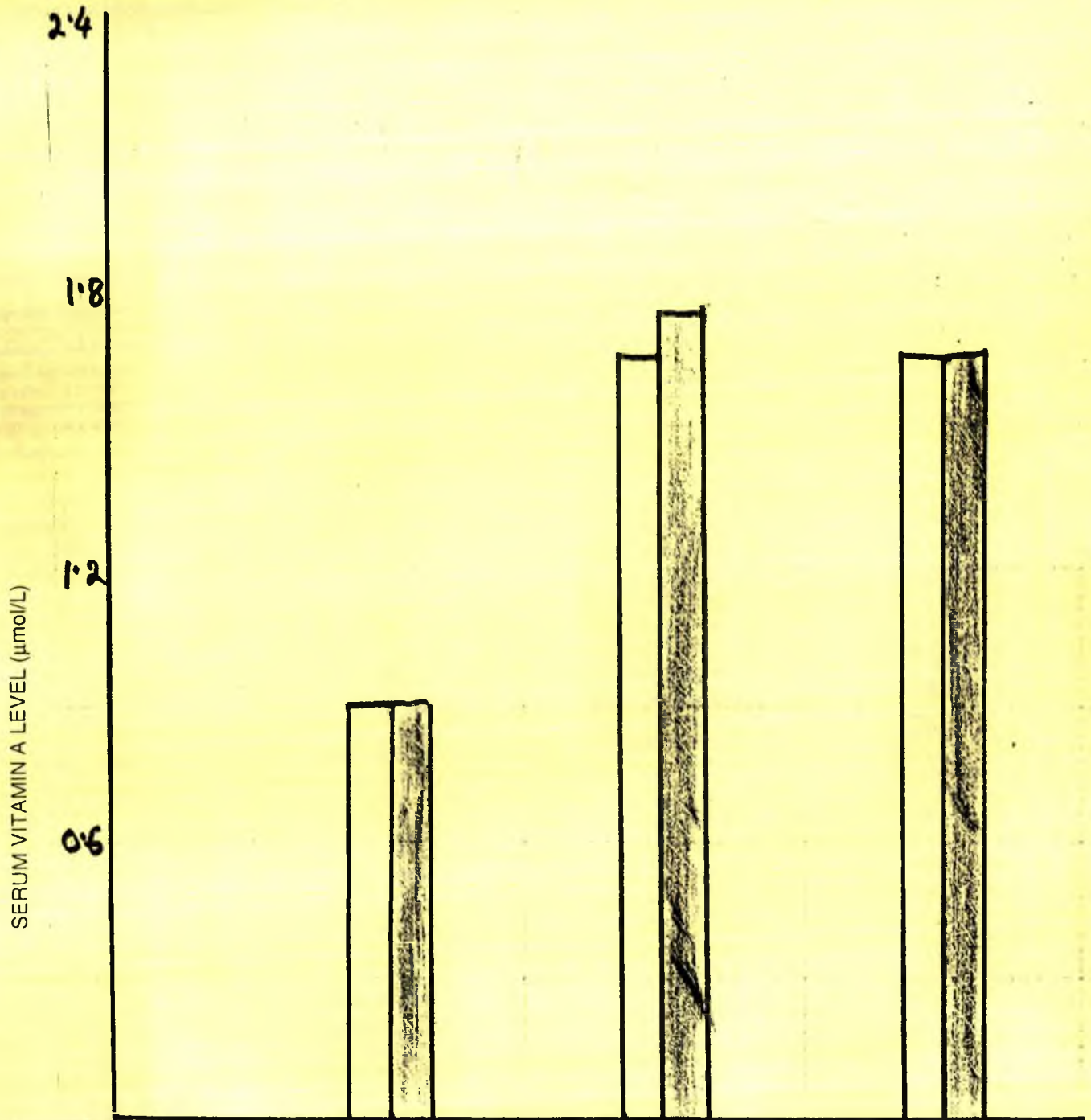


FIGURE 18: SERUM VITAMIN A LEVEL ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) IN PATIENTS ($n=8$) BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE CONTAINING VITAMIN E ONLY

BEFORE INTAKE MEAN 1.38 ± 0.43 .

AFTER INTAKE MEAN 1.40 ± 0.51

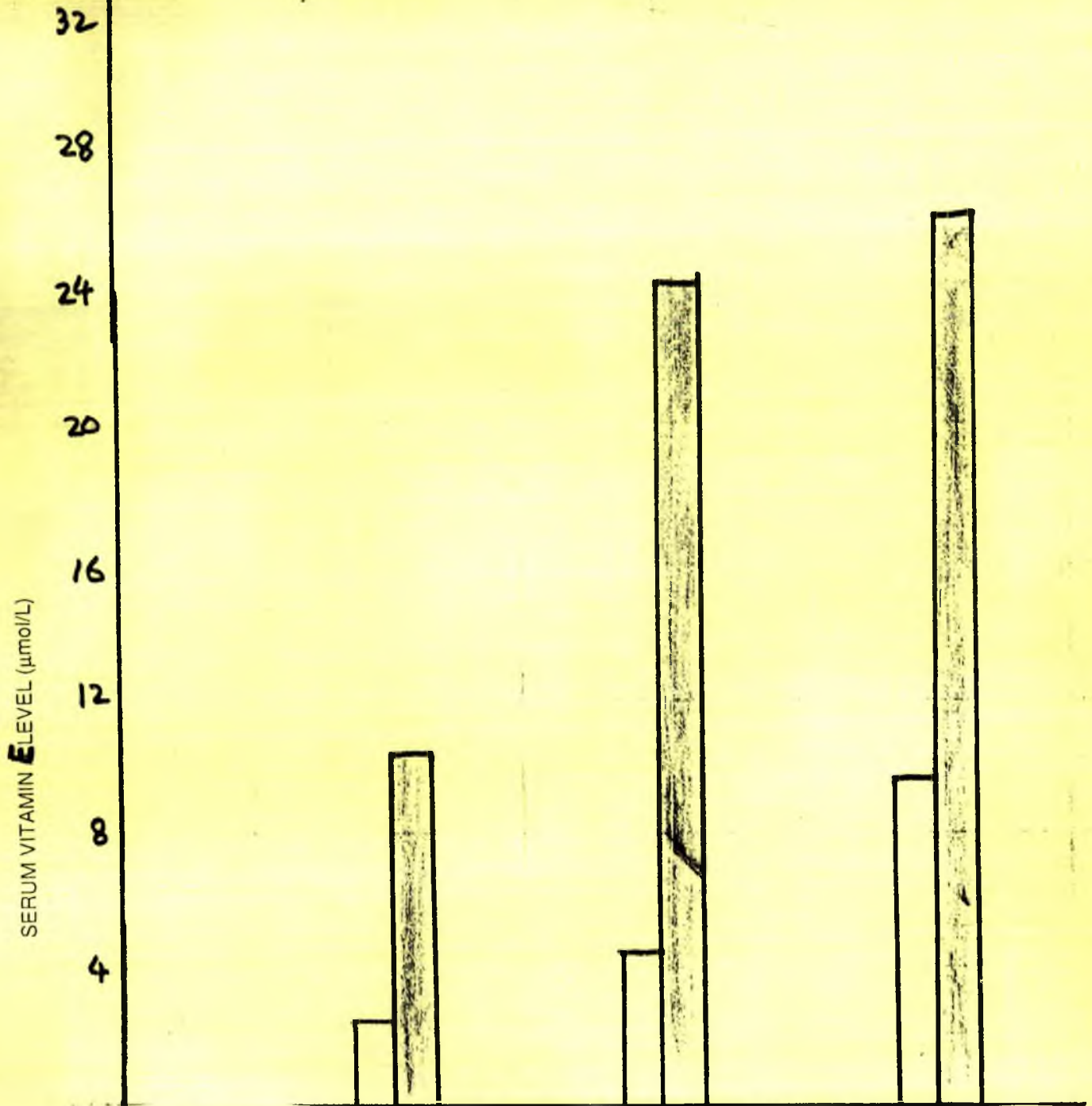


FIGURE 19: SERUM VITAMIN E LEVEL ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) IN PATIENTS ($n=8$) BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE CONTAINING VITAMIN E ONLY

BEFORE INTAKE MEAN 5.80 ± 3.23

AFTER INTAKE MEAN 20.43 ± 11.53

TABLE NO-20

INTENSITY OF PAIN IN PATIENTS (N=8) BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE NO 3 CONTAINING VITAMIN E.

INTENSITY OF PAIN		
NO.	BEFORE INTAKE	AFTER INTAKE
1.	++	Complete relief
2.	+++	Complete relief
3.	++	Complete relief
4.	++	Complete relief
5.	++	Complete relief
6.	++	Complete relief
7.	++	Complete relief
8.	+++	Complete relief.

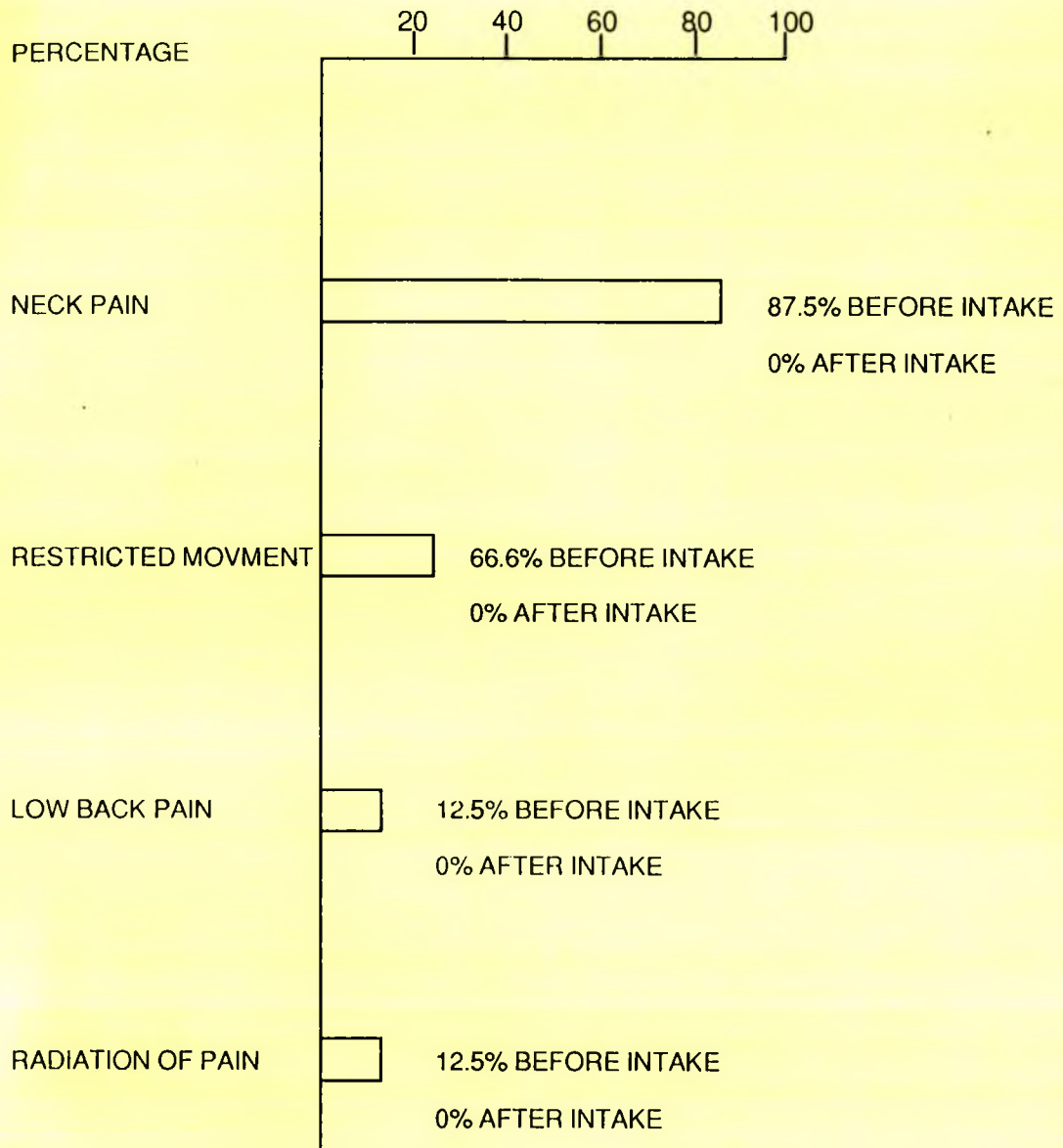


FIGURE 20 : SYMPTOMS AND PERCENTAGE OF PATIENTS (n=8) BEFORE AND AFTER INTAKE OF SAMPLE CONTAINING VITAMIN E.

VI. DISCUSSION:

The present study gives a clear indication that vitamin E has a remedial action against spondylosis.

The mean age of the patients included in the study was 50 ± 6.6 years. We did not find any patients below forty years of age. Furthermore our study shows that 59.4% of the patients were from the age group 40-50 years, 34.4% were in the age group 51-60 years and 6.2% were aged more than that. This therefore shows that the disease spondylosis is one of old age occurring after the fortieth year. This agrees with Garrett and Ahmad⁶ who observed that impairments of the spine ranked third after heart disease in patients aged 45 to 64 years and also with Ghusid¹⁰⁵ who recorded spondylosis as occurring in the mid fifties in both sexes.

We had twenty four male patients but only eight female patients. Schmorl and Junghan⁹ also observed a higher prevalence of the disease in the males (87%) than in females (74%). This observed sex difference in prevalence of spondylosis could be due to the fact that because of socio-economic reasons and traditional beliefs, females tend to attend medical facilities less than the male patients.

The educational background of the patients show 50% of the patients had a Masters or equivalent degree. Out of the remaining 50%, 21.90% held a bachelors or equivalent degree, 9.4 had finished the Higher Secondary Certificate (H.S.C.) examination and 18.7% had the Secondary School Certificate (S.S.C.) degree. All the patients were thus more or less educated. They also appeared to be quite health conscious.

It could be seen from the income distribution of our study that 81.3% of the patients had monthly income between Taka 2,000 and Taka 5,000 and the remainder had monthly income above this amount. Even though their income appears more than the average per capita income in the country it is possible that because of lack of nutritional awareness particularly with regard to the vegetable oils and other foods rich in vitamin A and Vitamin E, the patients were suffering from the degenerative disease that is known to arise from

chronic lack of anti-oxidants in the body. This agrees with the findings of Martin³¹ who suggested that degeneration in ageing is not only due to formation of free radicals in the tissues but also due to lack of antioxidants.

Our study revealed that 93.8% of the patients presented with the cardinal clinical features²⁹ of neck pain on movement. Eleven of the patients suffered from low back pain as well. It could be that they were suffering from lumbar disc degeneration in addition to cervical disc degeneration. As already mentioned earlier, this is a disease occurring in old age, probably due to constant wear and tear of the vertebral joints. It might be that due to more use of the neck (nodding, talking) and the back (sitting, walking), the cervical and lumbar vertebral joints are most affected.

There was restricted range of movement in 53% patients which might be due to osteoarthritic change in the joints. Radiation of pain occurred in the shoulder or upper arm or fingers in 81.37 of the patients (Table 13). This pain might be occurring due to compression of a nerve root supplying that specific dermatome by cervical disc protusion²⁹ or foraminal encroachment by osteophytes.

At the time of the study about $\frac{3}{4}$ ths (71.8%) of the patients were suffering for nearly a year (Table 14) and the rest more than that. Since it is a chronic disease of insidious onset it could be that the sufferings were not that marked or they had been getting medical attention off and on. It would also be that patients attended a physician only during the acute phase of the disease and once he got used to it, he started getting irregular medical attention.

That more than 60% of the patients were suffering from morning stiffness and limitation of activity for a year also indicated the chronic nature of the disease.

Seventeen patients (39.5%) had radiation of pain (Table 16) to the arm and nearly 21% felt the radiation of pain to the shoulder girdle and scapula. The shoulder and the arms are the most used parts of the body whatever may be the occupation of the patients and these being innervated by nerves from C₆₋₇ tend to become subject to degenerative changes more than the rest of the body.

From the roentographic features it was observed that 43.8% had mild, 37.5% had moderate, and 18.3% had severe degeneration. These X-rays confirmed our diagnosis (Table 17).

In the single blind study which was begun with twelve patients to test the efficacy of vitamins A and E it was observed that the mean serum vitamin A of the patients who participated in the trial was 0.70 ± 0.4 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ before intake of the drugs. This value is within the normal range of 0.53 to 2 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. After intake of vitamin A (50,000 IU daily), the mean serum vitamin A level rose to 0.95 ± 0.6 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ (Fig 9). The rise however was not statistically significant ($P < 0.5$). The reason for this low rise in vitamin A level is not clear but low level of retinol binding protein (RBP)⁹⁸ could be responsible for this. A reason for low RBP level in the patients of the present study could be low protein intake.

It was observed that the serum vitamin E (Fig 10) before intake of the drugs was 3.0 ± 1.09 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. This level was thus much lower than that normal value of 11.61 to 44 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. Since even a very low plasma tocopherol level for a long time show very little deficiency⁸⁰ symptoms as was proved by the Elgin project, the patients were able to lead a more or less normal life. After intake of vitamin E (100 mg daily) the average serum vitamin E level increased to 13.93 ± 6.3 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. The rise was highly significant ($P < 0.005$).

In the single blind study, more than 90% of the patients were suffering from neck pain and more than 50% from low back pain as well. Before intake of the drugs, about $\frac{2}{3}$ (66%) of the patients were suffering from restricted spinal movement and radiation of pain. After the trial with vitamin E all patients were found to have recovered completely from the symptoms they had before the study began. This proves the efficacy of vitamin E as the experimental drug for which purpose the single blind trial was undertaken. The patients who were suffering from muscle wasting did not respond to vitamin E administration because once there is wasting of the muscles due to nerve degeneration, muscles do not regenerate.

After the efficacy of the drugs (vitamin E) was seen in the single blind study, a randomised double blind study was carried out with twenty patients in which neither the patients nor the investigators were aware of the type of drug being given.

Out of these twenty patients, six were given vitamin A (sample No. 1) (at a dose of 50,000 IU daily) six patients received a mixture of vitamins A and E (sample no 3) at the dose of 50,000 IU and 100 mg daily respectively and the remaining eight patients were given vitamin E (sample No 3) at a dose of 100 mg daily. All the patients were asked to take their drugs every day for three weeks. It was fortunate that all twenty patients of this double blind study turned up for the second examination and therefore effect of the drugs could be examined fully and the results obtained might be taken as satisfactory.

In the patients taking the sample containing vitamin A only (Fig 12) the average serum vitamin A level increased from 0.87 ± 0.9 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ to 1.67 ± 0.6 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. This change was significant. On the other hand, the mean serum vitamin E level remained unchanged at the level of 10.1 ± 4.3 $\mu\text{mol/L}$.

Patients taking this sample for three weeks had no relief what so ever in spite of having an increased average serum vitamin A level in fact there was an increase in the intensity of pain in two patients of this group (Table 18). These patients were not also relieved of the other symptoms too (Fig 14) such as restricted spinal movement.

The serum vitamin E level before intake of sample no 2, containing both vitamin A and E averaged 4.06 ± 1.97 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. After intake the average serum vitamin E level rose to 17.14 ± 6.81 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ (Fig 15). The difference was highly significant ($P < 0.005$). The mean serum vitamin A level also changed from 1.09 ± 0.30 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ to 4.61 ± 1.61 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ Unlike the patients taking sample no 1. all patients receiving sample no 2 were completely relieved of their pain, regardless of whether they had moderate or severe pain before the study (Table 19) Fig 17).

In patients who received, sample no 3 containing vitamin E only, the average serum vitamin E level rose from 5.8 ± 3.2 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ to 20.43 ± 11.53 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ with obviously no change in vitamin A level (Fig 18). All eight patients receiving this drug were completely relieved of their pain (Table 20) and other symptoms as well (Fig 19).

However, there were patients who already had normal vitamin E level in their plasma (13.25 ± 2 $\mu\text{mol/L}$) and upon administration of vitamin E for three weeks (100 mg/day) there was no or little change in this level. But until interestingly, the patients reported to be relieved of their pain. Relief of pain in these patients

with no concomitant rise in their plasma vitamin E level can not be explained at this time. Pain is a symptom in response to motor nerve stimulation in the pain perception pathway and in human it is a relative term varying widely from person to person. Because we did not have any device to measure the intensity of pain of the patients we had to depend on the patients regarding the intensity of the pain they were complaining. Therefore it could be plausible that the so-called relief of these patients from pain upon administration of a drug could just be a psychological phenomenon.

From the results and the foregoing discussion, it thus appears that the patients suffering from spondylosis had serum vitamin E level below normal and the patients in whom the serum vitamin E level rose up to the normal value after three weeks of vitamin E intake there was relief of pain. The serum vitamin A level of these patients were observed to be well within the normal value ⁴⁸ and this vitamin did not seem to have any effect whatsoever on the symptoms.

P. T. O

VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

During the process of free radical reaction that takes place in spondylosis, termination or inactivation of these free radicals is obviously of great benefit, and naturally this is the mechanism by which normal cells protect themselves from free radical injury. In biological system, termination is achieved by several means. Out of all the exogenous or endogenous antioxidants vitamin E is by far the most important which either block the initiation of free radical formation or inactivate (i.e. scavenge) the free radicals.

Many early investigators had already recognised that tocopherols could function as an antioxidant *in vitro*. Later, when peroxide residues were detected in the adipose tissues of vitamin E deficient animals, it was proposed²⁹ that vitamin E also functioned as an *in vivo* antioxidant.

Vitamin E inadequacy has been seen in many biochemical and pathological conditions in which there is alteration in membrane structure and function by free radical attack.

Pathologically it was seen that degeneration that occurs in spondylosis may be due to free radical damage of the proteoglycans of the intervertebral discs. It may be that vitamin E given to the patients in our study prevents further degeneration of the intervertebral discs, so that patients got relief from pain. Since the serum vitamin E level of these patients were low according to normal value, they suffered from the degenerative effects due to lack of antioxidants. When the serum vitamin E level of the patients in our study were within the normal level, they were relieved of pain.

Because of the small number of patients examined the present study may be considered as a pilot study. A large scale study comprising of a sizeable number of patients (hundreds) should be initiated on the basis of the findings of the present study. Also because tocotrienols are now claimed to be 40-60% more potent antioxidant¹⁰⁶ than the tocopherols (both known as vitamin E), the study should be done, if possible with tocotrienols, or at least with a mixture of the two.

VIII. REFERENCES

1. Krupp & Chatton Current Medical Diagnosis & Treatment 28th Edn. Lange Medical Publication 1989 pg. 51, 661, 1091.
2. Schmorl G. Junghanns H. The Human spine in health and disease. Grune & Starton New York & London 1971.
3. Brugsch HG. Rheumatic Diseases, Rheumatism and Arthritis, Philadelphia 1957, pg. 8.
4. Sweetman BJ. Anderson JAD Dalton ER. The relationship between little finger mobility, lumber mobility, straight leg test and low back pain, RheumReheb, 1974, 13:161-6.
5. Tini PG, Wiesser C., Zini WM, The transitional vertebrae of the lumbosacral spine. Rheum Rehab, 1977, 16:180-7.
6. Garret JT, Ahmad, I. The Industrial back problem, role of the industrial hygienist and ergonomics. Am. Ind. Hyg. Assoc. J. 1977, 38:560-2.
7. Kelsey J, White A, pastides H., Bisobec G. The impact of musculo & skeletal disorder on the population of the United States.
8. Blake DR, Allen RE, Lunch J. Free radicals in biological systems a review oriented to inflammatory processes. Brit. Med. Bull. 1987, Vol. 43:2 371-85.
9. Olcott HS and OH Emerson. Antioxidant properties of the tocopherols. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1937, 59, 1008.
10. E. Mellanhby J. Physiol (London) 61X XXVI) (1926).
11. Kithara H. Histochemical Study of an intervertebral disc. Nippon Seikogekagakhai Zasshi 1979, 55:817-30.
12. Hamilton J. Textbook of Human Anatomy (Edn. 2) ELBS Edn. Printed in Great Britain By A. Wheaton & Co. Ltd. Exeter Pg. 43-52.
13. Harper's Review of Biochemistry 20th ed 1983, Edn. David N. Martin.

14. Vernon RB, Pathology of degenerative spondylosis in the lumber spine and back pain ed. M Jayson 1976, Sector Publishing Ltd., Pg. 55.
15. Howell DS, A view on the pathogenesis of osteoarthritis. *Am. J. Med.* 1986, 4.
16. Adams, P., Muir H, Qualitative changes with age of proteoglycans of human lumber discs, *Am. Chem. Dis.* 1976, 35:289-96.
17. Harrison's Principal of Internal Medicine. Ed. Durt J. Isselbacher Raymond, D. Adams Engene Brainwald. Robert PeHersdorf Jean D, Wilson, 11th Edn. 1987, 36, 38, 1044.
18. Lungberg WO Eds. (1961), Autooxidants and Antioxidants Vol. I, Interscience New York.
19. Makerova TB (USSR), Machanism of the Anitoxidative action of tocopherol in biological membranes. Deposited Doc Viriti 198, 5913-61.
20. Burton GW, Joyce A, Ingold KU (Div Che., Nalt, Res. Council, Canada, Ottawa, ontario (DIAORC) First Proof that vitamin E is a major lipid soluble chain breaking antioxidant in human blood plasma, *Lanset* 198::37.
21. Machlin LJ. ed. Vitamin E a comprehensive tretise Vol. I, New York, March Dekker 1980.
22. Leonard PJ, & Losowsky MS. Effect of tocopherol administration in red cell survival in vitamin E. deficiencye subjects, *Am, J. Clin. Nutr.* 1971 4:388.
23. Yoskikawa T, Tanaka H, Tami M. Marakami M, Furukawa Y, Takemura S, Kondo M, Cept Int. Med. Kyoto prefeet Med. Coll. Kyoto, Japan. Adjuvant arthritis and vitamin E, *Igaku No. Ayumi* 1982, 892-4.
24. Johnson LD, Scheffer D and Boggs TR, The premature infant, Vitamin E dificiency and retrolental fibroplasia. *An. J. Clin. Nutr.* 1974, 27:1158.
25. Kittner H, Godes LB, Rudolph AJ, Retrolental fibroplasia and efficacy of vitamin E in a double blind study of preterm infacnts. *N Eng. J. Med.* 1981 305, 305, 1365-1371.
26. Flecher BL and Tappel AL *Environ Res* 1973, 6:165.

27. Suttorp N and Sompn LM, Lung Cell Oxidant Injury J. Clin. Invest, 1982, 70:342.
28. Martin WJ, Oxidant injury of lung parenchymal cells. J. Clin. Invest, 1981, 68-1277.
29. Summerfield FW, Tappel AL, Effects of dietary polyunsaturated fats and vitamin E on aging and peroxidative damage to DNA, Arch Bioch, Biophy 1984, 233, 408-16.
30. Porta EA and Hart Craft WS, Lipid pigments in relation to aging and dietary fats. In Wolman M (ed.) Pigments in pathology NY, Academic Press, 1969.
31. Martin GW, Cellular aging (Parts I and II), Am. J. Pathol. 1977, 89:484.
32. Tappel AL Vitamin E Nutrition Today, July Aug. 1973, Pg. 4.
33. Pokrovsky AR, Lashnava NV, Study of vitamin A effects upon lipid peroxidation in rat liver. International Journal for Vitamin & Nutritional Research 1974, 44(4), 477.
34. Hayes KG, Nutr. Rev. 1971 9:3.
35. Deluca LM, Ross GC & Wolf G, Biochem, Biohyps, Res Commun (1970b), 41, 615.
36. Prockop DJ, Kivirikko L, Tuderman L, Guzman NA. The biosynthesis of collagen and its disorders. N. Engl. J. Med. 1979, 301:13-23.
37. Bailey AJ, Robbins SP, Balian G, Biological significance of the intermolecular crosslinks of collagen. Nature 9, 1974, 251:105.
38. Naylor A. The biophysical & biochemical aspects of intervertebral disc herniation and degeneration. Ann. Roy Coll. Surg. 1962, 31:91-94.
39. Urban T, Holm S, Marodes A, Nachemson A, Nutrition of the intervertebral disc. Clin orthop, 1977, 129:101-44.
40. Pathological basis of diseases 4th Ed. Stanely L. Robbins, Ramzi S, Cotran, Vinay Kumar, 1987, pg. 715.

41. Devitt CA. Biochemistry of articular cartilage, nature of proteoglycans and collagen of articular cartilage and their role in aging & in osteoarthritis. *Ann. Rheum. Dis.*, 1973, 32:364.
42. Murayama K, Biochemical studies in the age related variation of the human intervertebral disc. *J. Jap. Orthop. Assoc.*, 1972, 46, 81-104.
43. Textbook of pathology, 8th Edn., 1970, William Boylston, Lea & Febiger, 1360, 1378.
44. Collins DH. The Pathology of Articular and Spinal Diseases. Baltimore, pg. 949.
45. Price's Textbook of Preventive Medicine, 12th Edn. Edn. by Sir Ronald Brodley Scott, Oxford Medical Publication, 1978 pg. 946.
46. Holts Yates PO. Cervical Spondylosis and nerve root lesions. *J. Bone. Jt. Surg*, 1960, 48 B 407.
47. Moskowitz RW. Clinical & Laboratory Findings in osteoarthritis. In DJ McCarty (Ed.), *Arthritis & Allied Conditions* (19th Ed.), Philadelphia Lea & Febiger 1979.
48. Davidson's Principles & Practice of Medicine, 15th Edn. 1987, Edn. John Macleod, Christopher Edwards, Ian Bauchier, pg. 559-661 tables.
49. Brain WR, Northfield DWC & Wilkinson M (1952). The neurological manifestations of cervical spondylosis. *Brain* 75, 187.
50. Sheehan S, Bauer RB, Meyer JS, Vertebral Artery compression in cervical spine. Arteriographic demonstration during life of vertebral artery insufficiency due to rotation & extension of the neck. *Neurology*, 1960, 10:968.
51. Arsen C, Mash F, Protusion of thoracic intervertebral discs *Acta Neurochir*, 1963, 11:3.
52. Klein HA, Kirkaldy WH, Lowback Pain, *Clin. Symp.* 1980, 3(6):2.
53. Hamilton Bailey Demonstration of Physical signs in Clinical Surgery, 17th Edn. 1984, Edn. by Allain Claim, 391-400.

54. Vernon Roberts B, Pieri CJ, Degenerative changes in the intervertebral discs of the lumbar spine and the sequela, *Rheum Rehab*, 1977, 16:13-21.
55. Wilson C, Significance of small lumbar spinal canal: Cauda equina compression syndrome due to spondylosis, *J. Neurosurg*, 1969, 31:499.
56. Gell E, Lumbar Spine X-Rays *Occup Health Saf* 1979, 48-32-33.
57. Eisenberg R, Akin J, Dedcock MA JR, 1979, 133 711-713.
58. Meschan E, A radiographic study of spondylosis with special reference. *Radiology* Sept. 1946, 47:249-262.
59. *Handbook of Surgery*, 5th Edn. Ed. John L Wilson, pg. 692-694.
60. Harman D, The free radical theory of aging, In *Free Radicals in Biology* 1982, Ed. WA Pryor Academic Press Inc. New York. Edn. 5. 255-271.
61. Machlin LJ, *Vitamin E a comprehensive treatise* 1980, New York, March Dekker Vol. I.
62. Evan HM and Bishop KS. On the existence of a hitherto unrecognised dietary factor essential for reproduction 1922, *J. Metab. Res.* 1319.
63. Evans HM, Emerson OH and Emerson GH. The isolation from wheat germ oil of an alcohol, tocopherol having the properties of vitamin E, *J. Biol. Chem.* 1936, 113:319.
64. Sebrel WH, Harrison RS, *The Vitamins Chemistry Physiology, Pathology Methods*, New York Academic Press 1972, pp. 259-272.
65. Brown G, *Pike Nutrition, An Integrated Approach* 3rd Edn. 1984, pg. 151-152.
66. Mc Laughlin PJ, Weihrauch JL. Vitamin E. *J. Am. Diet. Assoc.*, 1979, 75:647.
67. *Vitamin E Nutrition in Health and Disease*. 17th Edn. (1982-19).
68. Bunnell RH, Keating A, Auaresimo and G. K. Parman., Alphetocopherol content of foods. *J. Nutr.* 1950, 40:367.

69. Bieri K JC & Evarts PR. Vitamin E (1973), J. Am. Diet. Assoc. 1950, 62.
70. Nutrition survey of East Pakistan (1966), US Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, Public Health Service Bethesda, Maryland, USA.
71. MacMehon AJ and Neale E. The absorption of tocopherol in control subjects. *Oin Sci.* 1970, 38, 197-210.
72. McCormick EC, Cornwell DG and Brown JB, Studies on the distribution of tocopherol in human serum, *J. Lipid Res.*, 1960, 1, 221-225.
73. Vobecky TS, Vobecky Josef, Desis Shopcott, Roger Blancherd, Vitamin E and C levels in infants during the first year of life *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.*, 1978, 31, 767.
74. Drepa HH, Csallany AS, Metabolism of Vitamin E. In the Fat Soluble Vitamins (Deduca HF and Stuttrie JW, eds.), University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, 1970, pp. 347-353.
75. Green J, and MChale D, Quinones related to vitamin E, In *Bio New York* 1965, p. 261-285.
76. Binder HJ. Herting DC Hrust V Finch SC & Spire HM. Tocopherol deficiency in man. *New England J. Med* 1965, 273:1289.
77. Nitowsky HM Tildon JT Levin S & Gordon HH. Studies of Tocopherol deficiency in infant and children,. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 1962, 10:368.
78. Finer NN, Schindler RF Grant G. Hill GB, Peters KB, Effect of intramuscular vitamin E on frequency and severity of retrolental flikroplasia. *The Lancet* May 15, 198, 1089.
79. Chow CK & Tappel AL. An enzymetic protective mechanism against lipid peroxidation damage to lungs of exposed rats *lipid* 1972, 7:518.
80. Horwitt HK, Status of human requirement for vitamin E. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 1974, 27:1182.
81. Horwitt MK, Vitamin E and lipid metabolism in man. *Am. J. Clin. Nutrition*, 1960, 8:451.

82. Horwitt MK, Interrelationships between vitamin E and polyunsaturated fatty acids in adult human beings. *Vitamins Hormones* 1962, 20:541.
83. Chow CK Reddy K and Rappel AL, Effect of dietary vitamin E in the activities of the glutathione peroxidase system in rat tissue, *J. Nutr.* Vol. 103, 1973, 618.
84. Aftergood L & Alfin Slates RB, Oral contraceptives tocopherol interrelationship, 1974, 9:91.
85. Karrer P Mof R. *Vitamin A* *Helm Chim Acta* 1931, 14, 1431, 1436.
86. Moore, T. Relation of carotene to vitamin A, *Lancet* 1929, 2 380-381.
87. IUPAC Commission on the Nomenclature of Biological Chemistry. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* (1960), 82, 5581.
88. The vitamins by IM Barrett and EM Widdowson, *The composition of foods.*
89. Ganguly J. Absorption of vitamin A. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 1969, 22 923-33.
90. Goodman D, Blomstrend R, Werner B Hung HS, The intestinal absorption and metabolism of vitamin A and B carotene in man, *J. Clin. Invest.* 1966 45 1615-1823.
91. Hume EM Kreks HA 1949, *Vitamin A requirements of adults*, Spec. Rep. Ser. Med. Res. No. 264.
92. Passmore R Nicol BM Rao MN 1989, *Handbook on human nutritional requirements.* FAO. Nutr. Stud. WHO Mongr.
93. Wald G *Molecular basis of visual function science* NY. 162 230-239.
94. Hubbard R. *J. Gen. Physiol.* 37, 381 (1954).
95. Wolbach SB Wowe PR, Tissue changes following deprivation of fat soluble vitamins, *A. J. Exp. Med.* 1925. 42 753-775.
96. Roel, Trout, Guhe, Vitamin A deficiency and acid hydrolases, *Biochem. J.* 93:23, 1964.
97. Moore *Vitamin A* New York, Eloosin Publishing Co. pp. 299, 1957.

98. McLaren DS, Present knowledge of the role of vitamin A in health and disease. *Trans. R. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg.* 1966 60:436-462.
99. Tech. Rep. Ser. No. 627 World Health Organization, Geneva, 1982.
100. Syed Modasser Ali: Xerophthalmia, basic Ophthalmology: 1st Edition Dec. 1983 249-251.
101. Principles and Procedures of statistic steel R.G.D. Torrie J. H. McGraw Hill Book Co. Inc. NY 1960.
102. Bieri J. G. Tolliver TJ Catignani GL Simultaneous determination of tocopherol and retinol in plasma or red cells by HPLC. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 1973 39:2143-2149.
103. Horwitt K Eliot H William Kanjangupan Phitsamai Fitch D Coy Serum Concentration of tocopherol after ingestion of various vitamin E preparation. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 1984 40 240-245.
104. Huang May Lynn Gilbert J Burkart Ranan Venketarama, Sensitive high performance liquid chromatographic analysis of plasma vitamin E and vitamin A using amperometric and ultraviolet detection. *Jr. of Chromotography* 1986 380 331-338.
105. Ghusid J. G. Correlative neuroanatomy and functional neurology 18th Edition Lange Medical Publication 1982 Pg. 348.
106. Packer L. Morning Sun July 8, 1991.