

Case Study

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Multifactorial Secondary Autonomic Dysfunction Integrating Classical Orthostatic Hypotension, Delayed Orthostatic Deterioration, Exercise-Induced Hypotension, Supine Hypertension, and Chronotropic Limitation

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Abstract

Background: A single patient may show an immediate orthostatic blood-pressure fall, later deterioration during continued walking, and an apparently limited heart-rate response. These observations are related, but they do not automatically establish three separate diagnoses.

Case: This clinical narrative concerns a 74-year-old man with long-standing secondary autonomic dysfunction after severe post-infectious illness, later compounded by cardiac disease and major cardiac intervention. Classical orthostatic hypotension and supine hypertension are established features. More recently, sustained upright walking has become associated with a reproducible warning phase after approximately 10–15 minutes, followed by light-headedness, visual disturbance, weakness, loss of gait confidence, and recovery after stopping. Heart-rate acceleration during these episodes appears modest.

Interpretation: The most defensible formulation is an interaction between an established postural pressure deficit, finite vascular and volume reserve, additional haemodynamic demand during dynamic upright exercise, and a possible chronotropic bottleneck. Delayed symptoms do not by themselves prove delayed orthostatic hypotension or exercise-induced hypotension, and an apparently blunted pulse response does not establish chronotropic incompetence without workload-based exercise testing.

Conclusion: The case supports a testable reserve-failure model: compensation is present, but its endurance is limited. The model explains why standing may be initially manageable while sustained walking progressively becomes unsafe, without treating symptom predictability as proof of recovery or attributing the syndrome to heart rate alone.

Musical Composition Introduction: This linked musical composition presents the story in lyric performance, using music and words to bring forward the lived experience, emotional weight, and wider issues raised by hazing. It is offered as a creative companion to the clinical narrative, translating the subject into a form that can be heard, felt, and reflected upon.

<https://heyzone.com/flip-book/525d4ef4bb.html>

Keywords: Autonomic Dysfunction, Orthostatic Hypotension, Delayed Orthostatic Deterioration, Exercise-Induced Hypotension, Supine Hypertension, Chronotropic Incompetence, Haemodynamic Reserve

1. Introduction

Orthostatic hypotension is not a single experiential pattern. The same patient may have an early blood-pressure fall on standing, a later loss of stability during continued upright exposure, and further deterioration when walking adds metabolic and vasodilatory demand. The heart-rate response may also be insufficient for the workload or for the degree of circulatory stress. The clinical challenge is to integrate these observations without collapsing them into interchangeable labels. Consensus definitions classify orthostatic hypotension primarily by the timing and magnitude of the measured pressure fall. Classical orthostatic hypotension is identified within three minutes of standing or head-up tilt, whereas delayed orthostatic hypotension is identified when the qualifying fall occurs after three minutes [1,2]. In patients with hypertension, the absolute standing pressure, symptoms, treatment context, and the coexistence of supine hypertension also matter, management cannot be reduced to a single numerical threshold [3]. This paper develops the original integrated hypothesis around four questions. First, what is already established by the patient's postural blood-pressure record? Second, what does the delayed walking pattern add? Third, when is exercise-induced hypotension an appropriate term? Fourth, could a limited heart-rate response materially narrow cardiac-output reserve? The purpose is not to assign certainty where measurement is incomplete, but to convert a complex lived pattern into a clinically testable physiological model.

2. Clinical Context and Contemporary Phenotype

The patient is a 74-year-old man with chronic autonomic dysfunction that began after a severe infectious illness acquired in Indonesia and was subsequently complicated by cardiac disease, invasive cardiac treatment, and major cardiac surgery. Over more than a decade, formal and home observations have repeatedly demonstrated large orthostatic systolic pressure reductions, commonly in the range of 30–50 mmHg, together with episodes of marked supine or seated hypertension. These findings establish a substantial disturbance of cardiovascular autonomic regulation rather than isolated nonspecific dizziness. Historically, symptoms were closely linked to standing. The newer functional pattern is more time- and activity-dependent. After standing, the patient may initially feel sufficiently stable to walk. After approximately 10–15 minutes of continuous upright activity, however, head lightness, blurred or altered vision, weakness, deteriorating stride control, lateral instability, and an increasing risk of falling emerge. Stopping, sitting, or otherwise unloading the upright circulation usually permits improvement over several minutes. The delayed warning is now relatively recognisable, but the eventual endpoint remains clinically significant.

A further observation is that heart rate does not appear to accelerate in proportion to the developing symptoms or apparent haemodynamic burden. That observation is important but incomplete. It raises a hypothesis of impaired chronotropic reserve, it does not by itself establish chronotropic incompetence, because workload, rhythm, medication effects, age-predicted response, heart-rate reserve, blood pressure, and oxygen consumption have not yet been measured together during a symptom-limited protocol.

No single recent change in medication, body weight, hydration, or fluid balance has been identified that fully explains the evolution. Nevertheless, day-to-day volume status, meal timing, ambient heat, sleep, medication timing, anaemia, deconditioning, and cardiac reserve remain potential modifiers. The paper therefore treats the syndrome as multifactorial and the proposed sequence as a working model rather than a completed causal diagnosis.

3. The Component Phenomena

3.1. Classical Orthostatic Hypotension: the Established Postural Deficit

Classical orthostatic hypotension is conventionally defined as a sustained fall in systolic pressure of at least 20 mmHg or diastolic pressure of at least 10 mmHg within three minutes of standing or head-up tilt. A systolic threshold of at least 30 mmHg is commonly used when supine hypertension is present [1-3]. The patient's documented large early postural falls meet this component of the framework. This early fall matters because it changes the interpretation of everything that follows. Walking does not begin from a normal haemodynamic baseline. It begins after gravitational translocation of blood, reduced venous return, and an already demonstrated limitation in arterial-pressure regulation. A person may remain conscious and mobile because some compensatory mechanisms are still operating, but initial function should not be mistaken for normal stabilisation.

3.2. Delayed Orthostatic Hypotension Versus Delayed Deterioration

Delayed orthostatic hypotension is the development of a qualifying orthostatic pressure fall after the first three minutes of upright posture. It is generally understood as a later failure of compensatory vasoconstriction and volume support after an initially non-qualifying response [2,4]. It is therefore a timing phenotype demonstrated by extended standing or tilt, not simply a synonym for symptoms that happen later. A critical distinction follows. During a single test, if the diagnostic pressure threshold has already been crossed within three minutes, that test has shown classical orthostatic hypotension. A further fall or later symptom escalation may be clinically important, but it is more precisely described as progressive orthostatic deterioration, prolonged orthostatic intolerance, or late worsening superimposed on classical orthostatic hypotension. The same patient may show classical and delayed patterns on different occasions, but the labels should be assigned from the measured time course rather than accumulated as simultaneous diagnoses without separate evidence.

In the present case, the 10–15-minute warning window is therefore evidence of delayed functional deterioration, not yet definitive proof that the contemporary walking episodes meet the formal definition of delayed orthostatic hypotension. Extended beat-to-beat standing or tilt testing is required to determine whether pressure initially remains above the diagnostic threshold and only later crosses it, or whether classical hypotension is present from the outset and subsequently worsens.

3.3. Exercise-Induced Hypotension: An Activity-Linked Measurement

Exercise-induced hypotension is a fall in systolic pressure during exercise, in the autonomic-disorder literature, a reduction of at least 10 mmHg during exercise has been used as an operational definition.⁵ Dynamic exercise requires coordinated sympathetic activation, venous return, cardiac output, and redistribution of vascular resistance. In autonomic disorders, impaired or blunted sympathetic activation and excessive splanchnic vasodilation are recognised candidate mechanisms, and dynamic activity may be more provocative than static exercise [5]. The patient's walking pattern is compatible with exercise-associated hypotension, but symptoms alone cannot confirm it. A post-walk pressure reading may miss the nadir, may reflect early recovery, or may be altered by the transition from walking to standing still, sitting, or lying down. To establish exercise-induced hypotension, pressure must be recorded during the activity or at sufficiently short intervals to demonstrate the direction, magnitude, and timing of change relative to a stable pre-exercise upright baseline. Exercise-induced hypotension must also be distinguished from post-exercise hypotension. The former occurs while activity is continuing, the latter develops or persists after exercise stops. In an individual with classical orthostatic hypotension, an exercise-associated fall may represent an additional dynamic stress layered onto an existing upright deficit. The two mechanisms can interact, but they are not diagnostically identical.

3.4. Chronotropic Limitation and Chronotropic Incompetence

Chronotropic incompetence is the inability of the heart to increase its rate appropriately for metabolic demand. It is not diagnosed from an isolated pulse, an age-predicted maximum alone, or the subjective impression that heart rate “should have been higher”. Definitions vary, and valid assessment normally requires graded, symptom-limited exercise with attention to achieved workload, heart-rate reserve or chronotropic index, rhythm, medication effects, and effort [6]. The term chronotropic limitation is therefore preferable at this stage. It acknowledges that the observed response may be physiologically insufficient without claiming that formal criteria have been met. Potential contributors include autonomic impairment, sinus-node dysfunction, conduction disease, cardiac structural limitations, rate-limiting medication, low achieved workload, and deconditioning. These alternatives cannot be resolved by pulse rate alone. A limited heart-rate response could nevertheless be important in this case. Cardiac output is the product of heart rate and stroke volume. If venous return and stroke volume are falling during prolonged upright activity, an appropriate rate increase may become more important for maintaining flow. If the rate response is also constrained, the compensatory margin narrows. The inference is conditional: chronotropic limitation becomes a bottleneck only when stroke-volume and vascular-resistance support are already inadequate. It should not be presented as the sole cause of the pressure fall.

3.5. Supine Hypertension as a Competing Haemodynamic State

Supine hypertension commonly complicates autonomic failure and creates a therapeutic tension: measures that raise upright pressure may worsen recumbent hypertension, whereas antihypertensive or diuretic strategies may reduce upright reserve. Neurogenic supine hypertension is defined from blood pressure measured after at least five minutes supine, but classification does not itself establish the underlying cause in this secondary case [7]. For interpretation, a high supine starting pressure can make the absolute systolic fall appear especially dramatic, while a lower upright pressure may still be tolerated if cerebral autoregulation and perfusion remain adequate. Conversely, symptoms can occur at pressures that might appear acceptable in another person. The clinically relevant question is therefore not only how far pressure falls, but whether perfusion is sustained during the task and whether the fall corresponds to the patient's characteristic visual, head, gait, and presyncopal symptoms.

4. An integrated Reserve-Failure Model

The proposed model does not require classical orthostatic hypotension, delayed deterioration, exercise-associated hypotension, and chronotropic limitation to be competing explanations. They can describe different points in one haemodynamic sequence, provided each is kept at its proper level of evidence.

4.1. Stage One: the Upright Circulation Begins with a Deficit

On standing, blood is displaced into the dependent and splanchnic circulations. Venous return and stroke volume fall. In healthy physiology, baroreflex-mediated vasoconstriction, increased skeletal-muscle tone, and humoral support preserve mean arterial pressure. In this case, the documented early pressure fall indicates that these responses are incomplete. The patient may still walk because partial compensation, muscle-pump activity, and cerebral autoregulation provide a functional margin.

4.2. Stage Two: Residual Compensation has Finite Endurance

Continued upright exposure maintains gravitational pooling and may progressively reduce central blood volume. The reserve-failure hypothesis proposes that the remaining compensatory response is real but shallow: it can delay failure without preventing it. This explains why immediate standing may be manageable even though the circulation is not normal. It also explains why the timing of symptoms can become more predictable without the magnitude or danger of the later event necessarily improving.

4.3. Stage Three: Walking adds a Dynamic Vascular Demand

Walking is not merely standing for longer. It adds rhythmic muscle work, metabolic vasodilation, heat production, and a requirement to distribute flow while maintaining systemic pressure. The leg-muscle pump may initially improve venous return, which can mask instability. As activity continues, however, inadequate sympathetic recruitment or excessive vasodilation can outweigh that benefit. The pressure burden then reflects the interaction of

posture, duration, intensity, and autonomic capacity rather than gravity alone [5].

4.4. Stage Four: Heart Rate may become a Flow-Limiting Variable

When stroke volume or systemic vascular resistance cannot be sustained, cardiac output may depend increasingly on heart-rate augmentation. A blunted response would then remove one of the remaining compensatory options. The expected consequence is not necessarily an immediate collapse. Instead, the patient may cross a threshold at which cerebral perfusion, visual processing, attention, balance, and gait control become progressively less reliable. This produces the lived sequence of warning, deteriorating motor confidence, and near-fall risk.

4.5. Stage five: stopping reverses several loads at once

Stopping, sitting, bracing, or adopting a recumbent posture reduces muscular demand, shortens or removes the vertical hydrostatic column, and may restore venous return. Improvement over several minutes is therefore consistent with a haemodynamic mechanism, although it does not identify which component was dominant. Relative preservation of recumbent cycling, if reproduced under measurement, would support the importance of posture and venous return, it would not prove normal exercise capacity or exclude cardiac limitation.

5. What the Model Explains—and what it does not

5.1. Findings that are Already Established

The strongest evidence concerns the existence of substantial orthostatic blood-pressure instability, including classical orthostatic hypotension and supine hypertension, and the reproducible functional deterioration during sustained upright walking. The consistency of the symptom sequence and its relationship to posture make a haemodynamic contribution highly plausible.

5.2. Interpretations that are Strongly Supported

It is reasonable to infer that immediate compensation is incomplete and that the ability to sustain compensation under combined postural and exertional stress is limited. It is also reasonable to treat the delayed warning as a safety interval rather than evidence that the underlying cardiovascular autonomic disorder has resolved. The emerging pattern can coexist with genuine recovery in other autonomic domains.

5.3. Mechanisms that Remain Unproven

The available observations do not yet establish that every walking episode meets the formal definition of delayed orthostatic hypotension, that systolic pressure falls by at least 10 mmHg during exercise, that cardiac output fails, that cerebral blood flow falls, or that chronotropic incompetence is present. Nor do they determine whether vascular, volume, medication, rhythm, structural cardiac, or non-haemodynamic gait factors dominate. These are testable propositions, not completed findings.

6. Does Delayed Predictability Indicate Recovery?

A longer and more recognisable warning interval can be clinically valuable. It may show that early compensation still exists, that the patient has learned to recognise symptoms earlier, or that pacing and exposure have changed. It may also represent partial recovery when compared with a previous state of immediate failure. None of these possibilities should be dismissed. However, predictability is not a validated surrogate for restored autonomic function. If large orthostatic falls, supine hypertension, visual disturbance, gait disruption, and near-falls remain present, cardiovascular autonomic regulation is still significantly impaired. The warning interval describes the timing of failure, it does not by itself measure the depth of the underlying injury. Long-term studies of delayed orthostatic hypotension have reported progression to classical orthostatic hypotension and later neurodegenerative diagnoses in some cohorts [8]. Those findings are important but cannot be transferred directly to a case with a long secondary/post-infectious and post-surgical history. Prognosis must be anchored in aetiology, neurological examination, autonomic testing, medication exposure, cardiac status, and longitudinal change. The present pattern supports neither a confident claim of progressive synucleinopathy nor a confident claim of complete recovery.

7. Diagnostic Priorities Generated by the Model

The integrated hypothesis is useful only if it leads to measurements capable of separating its components. The highest-yield next step is not another isolated post-walk reading, but a supervised protocol that reproduces the functional problem while recording the relevant physiology.

7.1. Extended Orthostatic Testing

An active stand or head-up tilt extending beyond 10–15 minutes, ideally with continuous beat-to-beat blood pressure and ECG, can determine whether the qualifying pressure fall is classical, delayed, or progressive after an early fall. Symptom annotation is essential, because the timing of visual, head, gait, and presyncopal symptoms must be compared with the pressure trace.

7.2. Upright Walking with a Postural Comparator

A supervised symptom-limited walking protocol should record workload or pace, blood pressure, heart rate, rhythm, symptoms, and recovery. A recumbent-cycle comparator on a separate occasion can help distinguish the effects of dynamic exercise from the effects of upright posture. The comparison should not be interpreted from exercise duration alone, workload and physiological response must be comparable enough to support inference.

7.3. Formal Assessment of Chronotropic Response

Graded exercise or cardiopulmonary exercise testing can assess achieved workload, heart-rate reserve or chronotropic index, rhythm, blood pressure, oxygen uptake, effort, and recovery. Medication timing must be documented. This is the appropriate setting in which to decide whether “chronotropic limitation” meets formal criteria for chronotropic incompetence and whether the limitation is clinically important [6].

7.4. Contextual Monitoring

Twenty-four-hour ambulatory pressure monitoring paired with a posture, activity, meal, sleep, hydration, and medication diary can characterise supine hypertension, post-prandial effects, and time-of-day variability. Blood count, renal function, electrolytes, volume status, and medication review may identify reversible contributors. Falls and gait assessment remain necessary because haemodynamic and non-haemodynamic causes can coexist.

8. Clinical and Safety Implications

Management of orthostatic hypotension is generally directed toward symptoms, safety, and function rather than normalising one blood-pressure value [9]. Non-pharmacological measures—including careful hydration and salt where medically appropriate, compression, physical counter-maneuvres, head-up sleeping, smaller meals, pacing, and recumbent or semi-recumbent conditioning—are commonly used, but they must be individualized [9-11]. In a patient with supine hypertension, cardiac disease, diuretic exposure, or renal considerations, changes require clinician oversight because improving one haemodynamic state may worsen another. The delayed warning interval should be treated as time to reduce risk: slow, stop, sit, brace, or use an appropriate mobility aid. It should not become permission to continue until gait control fails. Attempts to reproduce severe symptoms at home are unsafe given the history of falls and near-falls. Diagnostic provocation should occur in a monitored setting with a predefined stopping plan.

9. Strengths and Limitations

The case is strengthened by its long longitudinal history, repeatedly demonstrated large orthostatic pressure changes, detailed symptom phenomenology, and the reproducible delay between commencing upright activity and developing severe functional impairment. The patient-author can describe the temporal relationship between head symptoms, visual change, stride disruption, and recovery with unusual precision. The limitations are substantial. This is a self-authored single-patient narrative. Several readings were obtained outside standardised laboratory conditions, continuous pressure during walking and cerebral blood flow were not measured, workload was not quantified, medication dose and timing are not fully tabulated here, and formal exercise criteria for chronotropic incompetence have not been applied. Recall, expectation, measurement-order effects, and day-to-day physiological variability are possible. Accordingly, the paper offers a coherent and falsifiable model, not proof of one mechanism or prognosis.

10. Conclusion

The original “integrated” insight is retained but made more precise. Classical orthostatic hypotension describes the established early postural pressure deficit. Delayed orthostatic hypotension is a formal timing phenotype that requires a qualifying fall after three minutes, where classical criteria are already met, later worsening is better described as delayed orthostatic deterioration unless separate testing shows otherwise. Exercise-induced hypotension requires a measured fall during exercise. Chronotropic limitation

is a plausible cardiac-output bottleneck, but chronotropic incompetence requires workload-based confirmation. These components can still interact within one reserve-failure sequence. The patient begins upright activity with a compromised pressure baseline, retains enough compensatory capacity to function briefly, then encounters accumulating postural and dynamic exercise demand. If vascular resistance, venous return, stroke volume, and heart-rate augmentation cannot collectively sustain cardiac output and pressure, cerebral and gait-related symptoms emerge. This model explains the coexistence of an initial functional window and a later severe endpoint without mistaking delayed predictability for normality. The central clinical proposition is therefore concise: compensation is present, but its endurance is limited. The next task is to measure where that compensation fails—during extended standing, during dynamic upright exercise, in cardiac-rate response, or through their interaction.

Declarations

Consent for Publication: The author is the patient described and consents to publication of this clinical narrative.

Ethics: This self-authored single-patient narrative does not report an interventional research study. Journal-specific requirements should be confirmed before submission.

Funding: No external funding was reported.

Competing Interests: The author declares no competing interests. Data Availability: The observations discussed are contained within the article, source medical records remain private.

Assistive Technology Declaration: The author identifies as dyslexic and as a person with Level 1 autism. Assistive technologies and structured writing supports were used to support drafting, organisation, proofreading, and formatting. The intellectual content, clinical interpretation, and final responsibility for the manuscript remain with the author.

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