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GUWAHATI, ASSAM, INDIA



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Scope : Journal of Ophthalmological Society of Assam covers all aspects of clinical, experimental, basic science, interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary and translational research studies related to ophthalmology and vision science, with a preference for articles of applied interest.

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Editorial

Madhurjya Gogoi

It is encouraging to note that in the midst of the pandemic, ophthalmic services have resumed in some measure; and with it interest in clinical research too. Submissions based on original research has not been forthcoming for the last two years, and as such, this issue largely features review articles, invited articles, and for the first time, a guest editorial on the issue of plagiarism.

A brief overview of JOSA since inception (2017) is tabulated below.

Year	Received/Invited	Accepted	Under Review	Withdrawn	Rejected
2017	8	7	1	0	0
2018	7	6	0	0	1
2019	15	9	2	2	2
2020	6	6	2	0	1
2021	8	8	0	0	0
Total	30	22	3	2	3

JOSA has been attempting to strengthen and expedite the peer review process, as well as the stated aims of a biannual publication, and metrics like indexing and abstracting. The following are under consideration:

- Online manuscript management and peer review system;
- Creating and managing journal website (with domain);
- Pre-press and print services (including copyediting, typesetting, printing, distribution services);
- Post-publication services (including indexing & marketing support, subscription services)

However, the core issue remains the quality of the submission, and in this regard, attention is invited to the Up-Dated ICMJE Recommendations of December 2021. The fundamental role of robust methodology and collaborative research are highlighted.

JOSA takes the opportunity to gratefully acknowledge all who have nursed it in its formative years. Inadvertent errors of omission and commission may have crept in; and for that the editor takes responsibility.

With prayers for the wellbeing of one and all,

----Editorial team

30 November 2021
Guwahati, Assam

-
- Suggestions / feedback regarding JOSA are most welcome at: journal.osa@gmail.com
Website: www.osa.ind.in; Weblink to JOSA: <https://www.osa.ind.in/journal.php>
Facebook group 'Ophthalmological Society of Assam'
 - Presently, only the PDF is being emailed to all life members. The print issue shall be made available in due course.

Guest Editorial

GENIUS BORROWS NOBLY – AVOID PLAGIARISM

Rolika Bansal, MS, Santosh G Honavar, MD, FACS, FRCOphth
Centre for Sight, Hyderabad, India

“If you steal from one author it’s plagiarism; if you steal from many it’s research”. – Wilson Mizner

The origin of the word *plagiarism* is derived from the Latin word *plagiarius* which literally means *kidnapper* or *thief*. *Marcus Valerius Martialis* a Roman poet described it as stealing someone else’s creative work. Plagiarism or literary theft happens to be the commonest form of scientific misconduct that authors commit and is considered an ethical offense.¹

Often as authors begin writing a manuscript, while looking for inspiration during review of literature, they fall into the trap of plagiarism pertaining to factors like peer pressure to publish, limited knowledge, lack of vocabulary to express thoughts, technology advancement, urgent need for career progression or even an accidental mention. Sure, plagiarism saves time, however it blocks unsculptured creativity and prevents authors from providing original information to the readers resulting in academic dishonesty.

As per Stanford University, plagiarism is defined as the "use, without giving reasonable and appropriate credit to or acknowledging the author or source, of another person's original work, whether such work is made up of code, formulas, ideas, language, research, strategies, writing or other form"² which basically refers to using previously published work by another author without valid consent, credit or acknowledgement and quoting it as one’s own work. Fishman³ described the five key elements of plagiarism as the *“use of words, ideas, or work products attributable to another identifiable person or source, without attributing the work to the source with legitimate expectation of original authorship too obtain some benefit, credit or gain which need not be monetary”*. These elements establish the components of **actus reus** (using others ideas or

words without duly attributing them) and **mens rea** (illegitimately earned credit).³

It has been quoted that academic plagiarism need not be necessarily deliberate. The possibility of unintentional failure of inserting a citation must be considered. Often collusion is considered as a part of academic plagiarism i.e. “the behaviour of authors, who write collaboratively, or copy from one another, although they are required to work independently.”

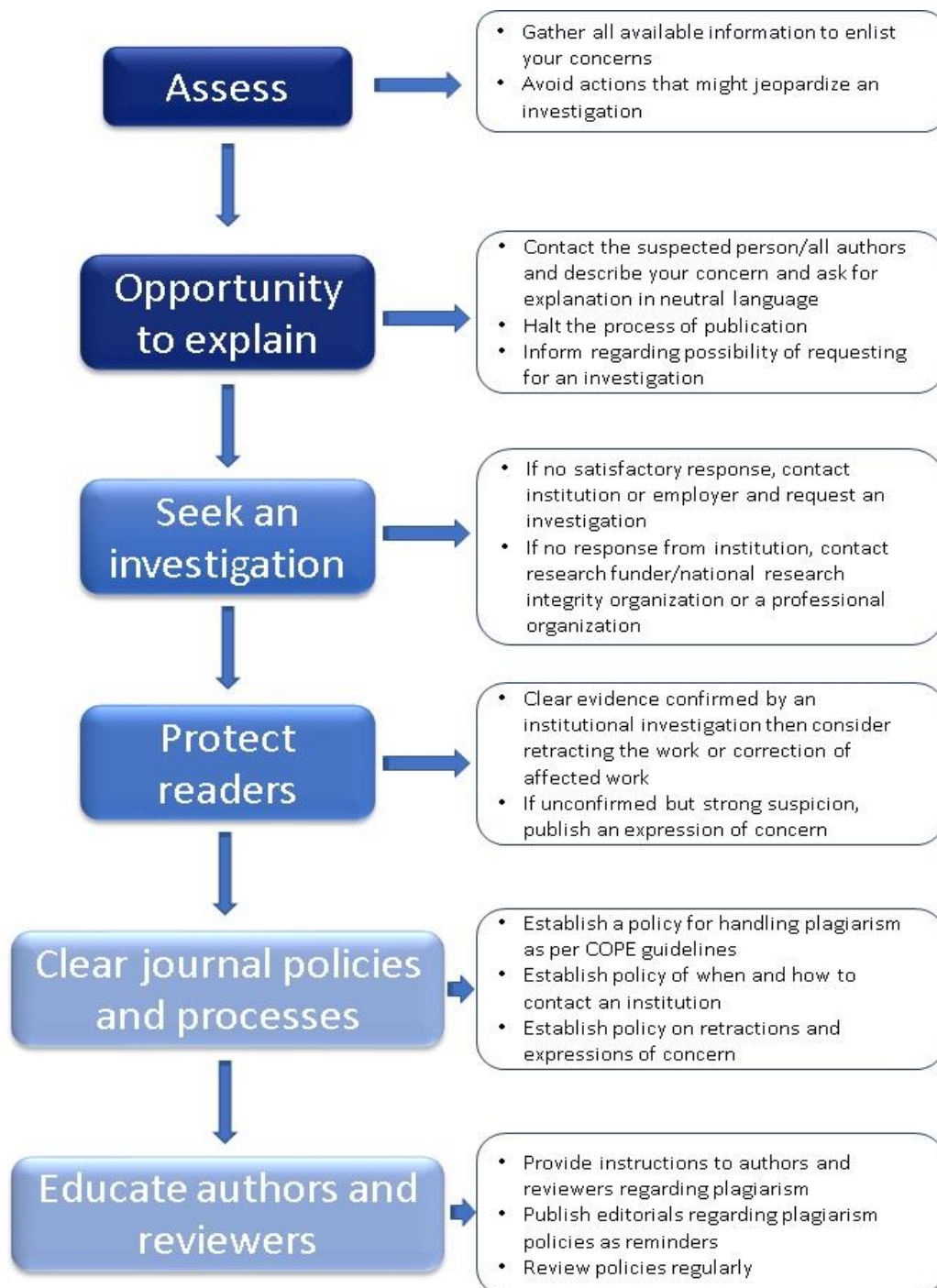
Types of plagiarism

1. *Verbatim plagiarism* – word-by-word facsimile of a previously published manuscript. This includes substantial copying, paraphrasing and recycling the work previously published without citation of the prior work. Minor copying of short phrases can also occur without misattribution of data.⁴
2. *Mosaic or patchwork plagiarism* – Contents obtained from multiple sources without using quotation marks or maintaining the original layout.
3. *Loose plagiarism* - Copying with minimal changes in someone else’s work
4. *Text recycling* – matter gets recirculated in the same article or in some other.
5. *Image recycling* – photographs minimally edited by either cropping or rotation.
6. *Segmented or “salami-slicing”* – Often the authors tend to submit all the work done as original article with few case reports to derive more publications out of a project.
7. *Self-plagiarism* – Recycling previously published own work by reframing the text in different journals. Duplication is also included in this wherein the same article is repeatedly published in several similar manuscripts.

Plagiarism can be successfully avoided by⁵:

1. Reframing the sentences based on our own understanding of the previously quoted information along with additional supportive data therefore adding to the already available pool of knowledge. Paraphrasing with no added intellectual contribution is of no advantage.⁶
2. By writing the text in quotation marks with a legitimate citation to the original article
3. Without text repetition, refer to the original publication
4. Properly cited relevant appendix should be included

“Originality is undetected plagiarism” –William Ralph Inge



As defined by “The Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE)”, the protocol suggested to be followed by the editors as they come across plagiarism has been enlisted in figure 1.¹ It is recommended for the editors to follow this protocol to avoid scientific misconduct and to ensure a flow of creativity and standards of their journal especially in developing countries.⁷

Moylan and Kowalczyk reported that over 15 years articles from BioMed Central journals (who complied with COPE guidelines) 134 (0.07%) retraction notices were issued out of which plagiarism was noted in 22 (16%) articles.⁸ Whereas Fang et al stated that out of the 2047 articles retracted articles by PubMed, 9.8% were due plagiarism and that the retractions have increased by 10 fold since 1975, mainly constituting authors from India, the United States, China and Italy (India being the highest).⁹ Amos reported that out of the 53 countries with retracted literature from 2008-2012, India ranked second after China in terms of plagiarized articles.¹⁰

With the advent of technology, there has been a significant increase in plagiarism. However, instructional strategies and several innovative plagiarism detection software have been created due to technology advancement to forestall plagiarism.¹¹ Turnitin, eTBLAST, Plagiarism Checker X, iThenticate, Citeplag, Plagiarism detect, Plagium, Plagiarism detector, Plagiarisma are the most effective detection websites and softwares available. Universities and institutions are advised to be associated with one of these genuine software to check dissertations, thesis and assignments for assessment of plagiarism.¹² However, it has been noted that mass retractions of plagiarized articles indicates inability of software to detect manipulative paraphrasing.¹³ Therefore, these require timely updates and an overall improvement in terms of strategy planning to eliminate plagiarism.

Plagiarism is considered as intellectual theft and is highly condemned as it questions the author’s credibility and affects the standards of

the journals without adding any information to the already available scientific information. An anti-plagiarism strategy formation includes utilization of semantic digital technologies and following COPE protocols at the editor level to prevent publication of falsified information and retraction of plagiarized articles to maintain the journal reputation by adhering to global editorial guidance.

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Review article

Low concentration atropine for the control of myopia progression: an overview

Batriti Shympliang Wallang

Abstract:

The increasing trend in the prevalence of myopia around the world and the associated ocular complications of high myopia has made it an important public health issue. Various strategies for the slowing of myopia progression in childhood have been researched, of which low concentration atropine has shown the best efficacy to date. This review discusses the rationale and mechanism of action of atropine. It also provides an overview of the emerging data regarding the best low dose concentration which balances efficacy with adverse effects, as well as a summary of the proposed treatment protocols in regular practice.

Key words: Low concentration atropine, myopia

Introduction:

Axial myopia is a refractive condition of the eye characterized by a mismatch between the focal length of the lens and axial length of the eye resulting in images focusing in front of the retina. Any refractive error of $-0.5D$ or more is defined as myopia^[1]. While myopia was previously considered to be an inconvenient refractive state of the eye, determined by various genetic and environmental factors^[2-6], it has now become a growing health concern. Various epidemiological studies have demonstrated a growing prevalence of myopia that is expected to affect 50% of the global population, or 4.8 billion people, by the year 2050^[7]. Of these, 9.8% are expected to have high myopia. Prevalence rates around the world show regional variations. The highest rates are reported from the east Asian region where up to 80-90% of young adults at high school are myopic^[3,8]. Prevalence of high myopia ($< -5.00D$) varies from 2-5% in Caucasian populations and 5-10% in Asian populations^[9].

A recent systematic review on myopia prevalence in Indian urban children between 5 to 15 years of age showed an increase in myopia prevalence from 4.44% in 1999 to 21.5% in 2019 and predicted an increase to 48.1% by 2050^[10]. A hospital-based study in 2020 estimated an overall prevalence of 2.5% of high myopia in Indians^[11]. These figures are particularly alarming because high axial myopia is associated with a higher risk of other vision-threatening ocular morbidities like retinal detachments, choroidal neovascularization^[12], myopic macular degeneration, glaucoma, and cataract^[13,14]. The

risk of developing high myopia has been shown to significantly increase with younger age of onset^[15]. This carries with it both a social impact, in terms of lower quality of life indicators and negative psychosocial effect, as well as a large economic burden^[16,17]. Taking these facts into consideration, there has been a growing interest in developing means of delaying either myopia onset or progression in school-aged children to limit high and pathological myopia in later life.

Various treatments have been studied for controlling the progression of myopia in children and include optical therapies (under-corrected eyeglasses, multifocal eyeglasses, bifocal and multifocal contact lenses), orthokeratology contact lenses, topical anti-muscarinic agents, and topical timolol maleate 0.5%^[18,19]. Modification of environmental factors such as increased outdoor activities and reduced near work have also been shown to reduce myopia progression^[2-6]. As of 2011, a Cochrane database review concluded that anti-muscarinic agents are the “the most likely effective treatment” for myopia progression^[18]. More recent studies have shown promising results with orthokeratology or combined treatment as well^[20].

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Mechanism of action of atropine:

Atropine is a non-selective competitive muscarinic acetylcholine receptor antagonist. It has a high affinity for all 5 types of muscarinic receptors. Muscarinic receptors are found in the cornea, iris, ciliary body, and muscles, epithelium of crystalline lens, amacrine cells of the retina, retinal pigment epithelium, choroid and scleral fibroblasts^[21].

Atropine was initially thought to exert its effects by inhibiting accommodation. The hypothesis was that excessive accommodation resulted in myopia. However, a study on the use of atropine in chicks showed inhibition of myopia despite the absence of muscarinic receptors in their striated ciliary muscles refuting this^[22]. Further animal studies showed that eyes unable to accommodate, by the destruction of the Edinger Westphal nucleus or sectioning of the optic nerve, also developed myopia in response to imposed hyperopic defocus^[23]. This has shifted the research to non-accommodative mechanisms.

The exact mechanisms of emmetropisation and myopization are still not fully understood. It is hypothesized that emmetropisation occurs by a feedback mechanism consisting of an afferent arm, perhaps located in the retro-equatorial, mid-peripheral fundus, and an efferent arm. It has been shown in animal studies that peripheral defocus results in axial elongation of the eye, pointing to this area as the afferent sensory part of emmetropisation^[24]. The messengers transmitting signals between the afferent and efferent arms and the exact target tissues causing axial elongation are not clear. Possible messengers have been thought to be dopamine, levodopa, or dopamine-like agonists^[25], and muscarinic antagonists. The potential target tissues may be the sclera, choroid, Bruch's membrane, or retinal pigment epithelium (RPE)^[22].

Dopamine agonists have been shown to inhibit myopia progression in various animal models. Atropine causes increased dopamine release in chick retinas. GABAergic transmission is known to have an important role in the control of eye growth and refractive development in animals and dopamine reduced levels of GABA transporter 1 and 3^[22]. However, muscarinic receptors in the retina are specifically found in

amacrine cells, but studies on chick eyes with ablated amacrine cells found atropine to still inhibit form-deprivation myopia^[26]. This suggested the involvement of muscarinic receptors in other ocular tissues or the action of atropine through non-muscarinic receptors.

At the level of the RPE, atropine is thought to act by altering the growth factors and neurotransmitters regulating scleral growth and choroidal changes. The RPE may be a relay station for transmitting a signaling cascade to the sclera or choroid^[22]. Atropine increased dopamine release but reduced b and d waves on electroretinogram (ERG), with dampening of RPE oscillations. It is suggested that dampening of retinal function boosts dopamine release.

The role of the choroid in axial elongation is suggested by changes in its thickness in response to optical defocus to adjust the retinal plane of focus (choroidal accommodation)^[22]. Atropine has been found to transiently increase the choroidal thickness in animal and human eyes^[27].

The sclera as an effector tissue is suggested due to scleral thinning and scleral tissue remodeling with axial elongation. Studies on chick and mouse eyes have shown a reduction in synthesis of glycosaminoglycans in the scleral extracellular matrix by atropine, increasing the thickness of the scleral fibrous layer and possibly retarding axial elongation^[22].

While various studies have pointed to these potential sites, the exact mechanism of atropine in myopia progression control is still not clear.

Which concentration is the best?

A summary of landmark studies:

Atropine 1%:

Atropine use in the control of myopia progression has been described since the 1920s. Earlier studies had confirmed that myopia progression varied with age, with maximum progression occurring before 12 years of age as compared to the later teens. Accordingly, this has been the target age group for initiation of atropine therapy to have the greatest impact in delaying myopia progression. There was also an indication that cessation of atropine resulted in a recurrence of myopia progression^[28] and there was uncertainty over whether this rebound may

perhaps negate the overall effect of atropine administration in the first place.

The first randomized placebo-controlled trial providing robust data on the efficacy of atropine 1% was carried out in 1989 by Yen et al. There was no data on the effect of atropine on the axial length (AL)^[29]. Complications associated with high axial myopia and pathological myopia may have a direct relation with AL and changes in Bruch's membrane. Therefore, when looking at the rationale for atropine in myopia progression control, this becomes an important outcome measure^[30,31].

A greater clinical acceptance of atropine for myopia in regular practice came with the Atropine for the Treatment of Childhood Myopia (ATOM) studies.

ATOM 1 was a randomized placebo-controlled (RCT) trial of 1% atropine on 400 Asian children was published by Chua et al in 2006^[31].

- It showed that 1% atropine brought about a 77% reduction in myopia progression compared to placebo over a 2-year study period.
- There was also no AL change in this period.
- This was followed by a 1-year washout period of observation published separately^[32]. As expected, there was a rebound increased myopia progression and change in AL in the atropine treatment group but the overall myopia progression remained lower in the atropine group as compared to placebo over the total 3 years.
- There was also no long-term or permanent effect of atropine on pupil size and amplitude of accommodation which reverted to the pretreatment levels.

Although these studies had proven the efficacy of 1% atropine, there was still some concern in adopting it in regular clinical practice due to the theoretical side effects of the medication. These included possible increased exposure of the lens and retina to UV rays from a mydriatic pupil and possible cataract or retinal damage, direct toxicity of long-term atropine itself to the retinal tissues, and possible systemic side effects of long-term topical atropine administration. ATOM 1 reported no significant adverse effects with the use of photochromatic glasses as well as only one eye

being used for medication, preserving the second eye for near vision, in the study protocol.

There has been a large body of literature since for the use of atropine in myopia^[33-39]. In broad summary, successively lower concentrations of atropine have been studied in an attempt to balance the efficacy in myopia progression control with the side effects of its mydriatic and cycloplegic action. Summarized details of RCTs can be found in Tables 1 and 2.

Atropine 0.01%:

At present, practice patterns for the use of low concentration atropine are largely based on the Atropine for the Treatment of Childhood Myopia 2 (ATOM 2) study. The ATOM 2 study looked at lower concentrations of atropine of 0.5%, 0.1%, and 0.01%. The study had been designed in 3 phases. Phase 1 studied the effect of atropine 0.5%, 0.1%, and 0.01% on myopia progression and AL elongation over 2 years^[40]. Phase 2 looked into the difference in rebound phenomenon between these concentrations after 1 year of wash out⁴¹, and phase 3 followed up myopia progressors from phase 2 that were restarted on 0.01% atropine over another 2 years^[42]. Salient information that emerged from ATOM 2 is as follows:

- Concentration as low as 0.01% atropine had a significant effect in reducing myopia progression (in terms of change in spherical equivalent (SE)) over the first 2 years.
- The efficacy may be dose-dependent with 0.5% showing the maximum retardation in myopia progression and AL elongation and least with 0.01%. However, the difference between them became insignificant over 2 years of follow-up. The efficacy of 0.01% atropine improved in the second year, (not seen with 0.5% or 0.1%), which suggests a plateau in myopia progression with time and possibly a concentration threshold beyond which there is no further improvement in efficacy as seen with the higher concentrations.
- 0.01% showed the minimum, clinically negligible, side effects on pupil diameter and accommodative amplitude compared to 0.5% or 0.1%.

- 0.01% showed the least rebound in myopia progression, after 1 year of washout, as well as the minimum number of progressors (24% vs 59% and 68% for 0.1% and 0.5% respectively). Progressors were those children who increased by more than 0.5D of SE over 1 year of washout.
- Younger children and those with greater myopia progression in the 1st year of the study were more likely to be progressors in the washout period.
- The overall 5-year myopia progression was least for 0.01% atropine concentration. 0.01% showed a 50% reduction in myopia progression when compared historically to the placebo group of ATOM 1.

A subset of patients from ATOM and ATOM 2 were also studied for changes in ERG and there was no significant effect of atropine found suggesting no or minimal retinal toxicity over the study period^[43]. There was also no significant effect found on intraocular pressure or astigmatism^[44]. These findings have been corroborated by other studies^[45].

The ATOM studies concluded by recommending 0.01% atropine as the best dose showing sustained efficacy with minimal adverse effects. The data from ATOM has led to the wide adoption of 0.01% atropine in the control of myopia progression in regular clinical practice. Other studies and meta-analyses for 0.01% atropine have found similar results^[46-56].

There were, however, several drawbacks of the ATOM studies and several unanswered questions:

- The absence of a placebo group was the greatest limitation of the ATOM 2 study. There was no comparison of natural myopia progression and AL elongation of a placebo group against the effect of low concentration atropine to determine its true significance. It was considered medically unethical to have a placebo group when there was a clear efficacy of atropine therapy established.
- A meta-analysis of low dose atropine in one study showed no actual dose-dependency of atropine on myopia progression as there was clinically a small difference between the 0.01% and 0.1% group^[57].

- When comparing axial elongation of the 0.01% group of ATOM 2 against the placebo group of ATOM, there was no real effect of 0.01% in slowing AL (0.41mm/ 2 years vs 0.38mm/ 2 years in placebo).
- There is also still uncertainty over how atropine affects eye growth in the longer term. Will slowing or control in the rate of myopia progression and AL be sustained once achieved? When exactly should it be stopped? The design of the study with washout of all concentration groups meant that there is no data on the effect of atropine over a longer period of sustained administration. The authors mention that the fact that the 5-year follow-up of ATOM2 found slower progression across all groups in older children is suggestive that the natural history of axial elongation slows with age and that this should allow the medication to be tapered off or stopped safely.
- Despite the efficacy in myopia control of all concentrations, there were still poor responders with the continued high progression of myopia despite the administration of atropine. The exact factors associated with poor response were still not clear. It had been postulated by other authors that these children may benefit from higher concentrations of atropine^[58,59].

0.05% Atropine:

In an attempt to address some of these questions, a more recent study, the Low-Concentration Atropine for Myopia Progression (LAMP) Study was carried out and published in 2018. It aimed at studying the efficacy and safety of 0.05%, 0.025%, and 0.01% concentration atropine in 4 phases.

The first phase compared these 3 concentrations to placebo over 1 year^[60]. The second phase followed up the same group of patients for another year^[61]. The placebo group, however, was switched to 0.05% atropine (“switchover group”) for ethical reasons considering the superior efficacy of atropine 0.05% demonstrated in phase 1. Phase 3 involved randomizing the children of each concentration group into continued treatment or washout over another year^[62].

- All concentrations were found effective in slowing myopia progression in comparison to placebo. The efficacy of 0.05% atropine remained the best over 3 years, in both the continued treatment and washout subgroups.
- Continuing therapy with 0.05% atropine into the 3rd year showed better efficacy than stopping treatment at 2 years.
- The rebound effect was concentration-dependent as was seen with ATOM 2. The difference between the treatment groups however was small. Factors found to be associated with greater rebound were the use of higher concentration of atropine and younger age at cessation of therapy. Older ages showed lesser rebound progression in all concentrations with less difference between the concentrations, probably due to the natural slowing down in progression with age.
- There was a definite concentration-dependent response for both myopia progression and AL elongation that was in question from ATOM 2. This dose-dependency persisted in the second year of follow-up.
- There was no significant difference between AL elongation of 0.01% and placebo group, as with ATOM 2.
- The safety profile of all concentration groups was found to be good. There was no clinically significant increase in pupil size or reduction in accommodative amplitude over 3 years and it went back to pretreatment levels within 4 months of washout for all groups. The best-corrected distance and near vision were unaffected.
- A validated vision and quality of life questionnaire administered over the different phases also showed no significant difference across all groups.
- The effect of age on treatment response was published separately and showed that younger age was associated with a poorer response to all concentrations of atropine^[63]. It was found that younger children on 0.05% atropine achieved a similar reduction in myopia progression as older children on the lowest concentration of 0.01% atropine.
- As with ATOM 2, this study also found a better efficacy of 0.01% atropine in the 2nd

year compared to the 1st. The authors postulate that this may be due to a lower concentration taking more time to reach its concentration threshold for maximal effect compared to higher concentrations.

The study found 0.05% atropine to be the best concentration when balancing efficacy with adverse effects. With the recent publication of phase 3, it appears that sustained administration of atropine will be more efficacious than 2-year administration followed by washout. Sustained administration of 0.05% also appeared to be well tolerated. This is in contrast to an earlier study on the safety profile of low concentration atropine had concluded that 0.02% was the maximum concentration at which there was no clinically significant change in pupil size and accommodative amplitude^[64]. It also showed 0.01% to have no significant effect on axial elongation. As with ATOM 2, a drawback of the study is the absence of a placebo group to directly analyze the data against the natural progression of myopia.

A 4th phase wherein all continued treatment groups will be switched to 0.05% atropine, based on the superior efficacy findings of phases 1 to 3, and followed up to 5 years for data on sustained, long-term administration of low dose atropine. Patients from the washout groups will be followed up as such unless found to progress by $\geq 0.5D$ wherein they would be re-started on 0.05% atropine.

Low concentration atropine in Indian children:

Most of the data on which use of low concentration atropine has been based on has been on East Asian ethnicity. It is known that there is a racial difference in type and distribution of muscarinic receptors which affects the bioavailability of atropine at target receptors and likely affects its ultimate efficacy^[65]. Various studies have demonstrated differences in efficacy between Caucasian and Asian eyes^[38,66-70]. A study published by Kothari and Rathod in 2017 on atropine 1% in 60 eyes of myopic Indian children, between the ages of 5-16 years, showed a 67% reduction in myopia progression over 1 year^[71]. The concentration was well tolerated with the use of progressive photo grey spectacles. Up to 57% of children continued to progress by

$\geq 0.5D$ of sphere in their study as compared to 14 % in ATOM. The studies, however, cannot be directly compared due to differences in mean age, baseline myopia, and sample size. The authors felt that 1% atropine for myopia progression was still relevant as an option for progressors using low concentration atropine.

Saxena et al published with I-ATOM study, a multicentric randomized trial on 0.01% atropine in 100 children of 6-14 years over 1 year [72]. There was a 54% reduction in myopia progression in the atropine group with no side effects. There was a greater reduction in axial length as

compared to the placebo group but was not found to be clinically significant. A progression of $>0.5D$ of SE was found in 13% for the atropine group as compared to 38% for placebo. It was found that younger age and greater myopia at baseline were associated with more progression. Another study by Sivaraman et al on 0.01% atropine in 60 Indian children in southern India showed approximately 55% reduction in myopia progression over 1 year[73]. These published studies were limited by short-term follow-up and cannot be directly compared to other large sample RCTs.

Study (Author, Year)	Intervention	Country, Mean age /age range(y), Total no. of patients	Baseline refraction (D)	Follow up, (m)	Mean increase in myopia, D/y	Mean change in axial length, mm	Reported adverse effects	Conclusion
Yen et al, 1989 ^[29]	A1% vs C1% vs. placebo	Taiwan, 6-14, 247	-0.50 to -4.00	12	A1%: 0.22±0.54 C1%: 0.58±0.49 Placebo: 0.91±0.58 <i>p</i> <0.01	-	Photophobia, loss of near vision	A1% is efficacious. Large drop out (final no.96)
Shih et al, 1999 ^[33]	A0.1% with full eye glass correction vs. A0.25% with partially undercorrected eye glasses vs. A0.5% with bifocals vs. T0.5% with full correction	Taiwan, 6-13, 200	-0.50 to -6.75	24	A0.5%: 0.04±0.63 A0.25%: 0.45±0.55 A0.1%: 0.47±0.91 T0.5%: 1.06±0.61 <i>p</i> <0.01	-	0.5%: Photophobia, recurrent allergic blepharitis 0.25%, 0.1%: no ocular side effects No systemic side effects	All concentrations efficacious. Best effect with 0.5%. Maximum drop out with 0.5% No masking.
Shih et al, 2001 ^[34]	0.5% with MF lenses vs. MF lenses vs. SV lenses	Taiwan, 6-13, 227	-3.3±0.1D	18	A0.5%: 0.42±0.07/18m MF lenses: 1.19±0.07/18m SV lenses: 1.4±0.09/18m <i>p</i> <0.0001	A0.5%: 0.22 MF lenses: 0.49 SV lenses: 0.59 <i>p</i> <0.0001	Not reported	A0.5% and MF lenses significantly slowed MP. MF and SV lenses did not significantly slow MP so effect may be largely due to Atropine. 17.2% drop out.
Chua et al, 2006 ^[31] (ATOM 1)	A1% (in one eye) vs. placebo (in one eye)	Singapore, 6-12, 400	-1 to -6,	24	A1%: -0.28±0.92 Placebo: -1.2±0.69 <i>P</i> <0.001	A1%: -0.14±0.28 Placebo: 0.20±0.30 <i>p</i> <0.001	No serious adverse effects. Hypersensitivity reactions, blurred near vision reported	A1% efficacious for MP in low to moderate myopia Further studies needed to evaluate safety and efficacy in bilateral administration.
Tong et al, 2009 ^[32] (ATOM 1)	A1% with 1 year washout	Singapore, 6-12, 400	-1 to -6	12	A1%: -1.14±0.8 Control: -0.38±0.39 <i>p</i> <0.0001	A1%: 0.29±0.37 Placebo: 0.52±0.45 <i>p</i> <0.0001	Amplitude of accommodation and near vision reverted to pre treatment levels by 6 months	Greater rebound with A1% compared to control. Overall better progression control with A1% (over 3 years)
Chia et al, 2009 ^[78] (ATOM 1)	A1% on astigmatism	Singapore, 6-12, 400	-1 to -6, Astig \leq 2.00	24	A1%: 0.3±0.19 Control eye: 0.24±0.17 Placebo: 0.33±0.18 Control eye: 0.33±1.16 <i>p</i> <0.05	-	-	No effect on astigmatism
Kumaran et al, 2015 ^[44]	A1% vs placebo on biometric measures	Singapore, 6-12, 400	-3.36	36	Minimal change in biometric measures	-	-	Reduction in vitreous chamber depth seemed to cause reduction in AL
Yi et al, 2015 ^[55]	A1% vs. placebo	China, 7-12	-1.23 (0.32)	12	A1%: 0.32±0.22 Placebo: -0.85±0.31 <i>p</i> <0.0001	A1%: -0.03±0.07 Placebo: 0.32±0.15 <i>p</i> <0.0001	No ocular side effects	Myopia reduction and no change in AL in treatment group

Table 1. Table of Randomised Controlled trials for Atropine 1% and 0.5% concentration

*Abbreviations: y – years, m – months, D – Dioptres, A – Atropine, C – Cyclopentolate, T – Tropicamide, MF – multifocal, SV – Single Vision, MP – Myopia Progression, AL – Axial Length

Study (Author, Year)	Intervention	Country, Mean age/ age range(y), Total no. of patients, Follow up (m)	Baseline refraction (D)	Mean increase in myopia, D/y	Mean change in axial length, mm	Reported adverse effects	Conclusion
Chia et al, 2012 ^[40] (ATOM 2)	A0.01% vs. A0.1% vs. A0.5%	Singapore, 6-12, 400, 24	≥-2	<u>A0.5%</u> : -0.30±0.6/2y <u>A0.1%</u> : -0.38±0.6/2y <u>A0.01%</u> : -0.49±0.63/2y p=0.02	<u>A0.5%</u> : 0.27±0.25 <u>A0.1%</u> : 0.28±0.28 <u>A0.01%</u> : 0.41±0.32 p<0.01	Allergic conjunctivitis. Decreased visual acuity, light sensitivity, impaired accommodative amplitude more for A0.05%	Discussed in text
Chia et al, 2014 ^[41] (ATOM 2)	A0.01% vs A0.1% vs. A0.5% after 1 year wash out	Singapore, 6-12, 400, 12	≥-2	<u>A0.5%</u> : -0.87±0.52 <u>A0.1%</u> : -0.68±0.45 <u>A0.01%</u> : -0.28±0.33 p<0.001	<u>A0.5%</u> : 0.35±0.20 <u>A0.1%</u> : 0.33±0.18 <u>A0.01%</u> : 0.19±0.13 p<0.001	Pupil size and near visual acuity returned to normal. Reduced amplitude of accommodation for A0.5% group	Discussed in text
Chia et al, 2016 ^[42] (ATOM 2)	A0.01% vs. A0.1% vs. A0.5% over 5 years followup	Singapore, 6-12, 192, 24	Baseline ≥2 Included those who progressed ≥0.5 in washout phase	<u>A0.5%</u> : -1.98±1.1/ 5y <u>A0.1%</u> : -1.83±1.16/ 5y <u>A0.01%</u> : -1.38±0.98/ 5y <u>A0.01%</u> vs. <u>A0.1%</u> : p<0.003 <u>A0.01%</u> vs. <u>A0.5%</u> : p<0.001	<u>A0.5%</u> : 0.87±0.49/ 5y <u>A0.1%</u> : 0.85±0.53/ 5y <u>A0.01%</u> : 0.75±0.48/5y p<0.185	No significant ocular side effects mentioned.	Discussed in text. (There may be some bias in comparison of groups at 5 years since only some patients from each group were re-treated at 3 years)
Yam et al, 2018 ^[60] (LAMP phase 1)	A0.01% vs A0.025% vs. A0.05% vs. placebo	Hong Kong, 4-12, 438, 12	>-1 (-1.9 to -5.8)	<u>A0.05%</u> : -0.27±0.61 <u>A0.025%</u> : -0.46±0.45 <u>A0.01%</u> : -0.59±0.61 p<0.001	<u>A0.05%</u> : 0.20±0.25 <u>A0.025%</u> : 0.29±0.20 <u>A0.01%</u> : 0.36±0.29 p<0.001	Photophobia (became comparable to placebo at 1 year) Allergic conjunctivitis	Discussed in text
Yam et al, 2020 ^[61] (LAMP phase 2)	A0.01% vs. A0.025% vs A0.05%	Hong Kong, 4-12, 383, 12 (extension of phase 1)	>-1 Patients from phase 1 (-2.0 to -5.9)	<u>A0.05%</u> : -0.55±0.86/ 2y <u>A0.025%</u> : -0.85±0.73/ 2y <u>A0.01%</u> : -1.12±0.85/ 2y <u>A0.05%</u> vs. <u>A0.025%</u> : p<0.015 <u>A0.05%</u> vs. <u>A0.01%</u> : p<0.001 <u>A0.025%</u> vs. <u>A0.01%</u> : p<0.02	<u>A0.05%</u> : 0.39±0.35/2y <u>A0.025%</u> : 0.50±0.33/2y <u>A0.01%</u> : 0.59±0.38/2y <u>A0.05%</u> vs. <u>A0.01%</u> : p<0.04 <u>A0.05%</u> vs. <u>A0.025%</u> : p<0.001 <u>A0.025%</u> vs. <u>A0.01%</u> : p<0.10	Photophobia, allergic conjunctivitis	Discussed in text
Fu et al, 2020 ^[47]	A0.01% vs A0.02% vs. control	China, 6-14, 400, 12	-1.25 to -6.00	<u>A0.02%</u> : -0.38±0.35 <u>A0.01%</u> : -0.47±0.45 <u>Control</u> : -0.70±0.60 p<0.001	<u>A0.02%</u> : 0.30±0.21 <u>A0.01%</u> : 0.37±0.22 <u>Control</u> : 0.46±0.35 p<0.001	Photophobia, mild near vision blur (disappeared on follow up), allergic conjunctivitis and blepharitis (n=1).	A0.02% had better efficacy than 0.01%. Similar changes in biometric parameters between groups
Wee et al, 2020 ^[50]	A0.01% vs placebo (crossover of groups at 12m)	China, 6-12, 220, 24	-1 to -6.00	<u>A0.01%</u> : -0.49±0.42 <u>Placebo</u> : -0.76±0.50 p<0.001	<u>A0.01%</u> : 0.32±0.19 <u>Placebo</u> : 0.41±0.19 p<0.004	Photophobia, allergic conjunctivitis	A0.01% effective in reducing myopia progression and AL elongation with good tolerance
Heida et al, 2021 ^[51]	A0.01% vs. placebo	Japan, 6-12, 168, 24	-1.00 to -6.00	<u>A0.01%</u> : -1.26 (95%CI, -1.35, -1.17)/2y <u>Placebo</u> : -1.48 (95%CI, -1.57, -1.39)/ 2y P<0.001	<u>A1%</u> : 0.63 (95%CI, 0.59, 0.67)/ 2y <u>Placebo</u> : 0.77 (95%CI, 0.73,0.81)/ 2y P<0.001	Photophobia with suspected hemiplegic alteration migraine due to light sensitivity (n=1)	A0.01% efficacious over a longer period of time in Japanese school children with no significant adverse effects
Saxena et al, 2021 ^[72]	A0.01% vs placebo	India, 100, 6-14, 12	-0.5 to -6	<u>A0.01%</u> : -0.16±0.4 (p=0.005) <u>Placebo</u> : -0.35±0.4 (p<0.01) <u>Difference between groups</u> : 0.19 (p=0.02)	<u>A0.01%</u> : 0.22±0.2 (p<0.001) <u>Placebo</u> : 0.28±0.28 (p<0.001) <u>Difference between groups</u> : 0.06 (p<0.001)	No clinically significant ocular side effects	Discussed in text
Yam et al, 2021 (LAMP phase 3) ^[62]	A0.01%, A0.025%, A0.05% each in continued treatment (CT) vs. washout (WO) over 1 year	Hong Kong, 350, 4-12, 12 (extension of phase 2)	>-1 Patients from phase 2: (-2.0 to -8.7)	<u>A0.05%</u> : <u>WO</u> : -0.68±0.49 <u>CT</u> : -0.28±0.42 P<0.001 <u>A0.025%</u> : <u>WO</u> : -0.57±0.38 <u>CT</u> : -0.35±0.37 p<0.004 <u>A0.01%</u> : <u>WO</u> : -0.56±0.40 <u>CT</u> : -0.38±0.49 p<0.04 <u>WO group over 3 y</u> : <u>A0.05%</u> : -1.15±1.13 <u>A0.025%</u> : -1.47±0.77 <u>A0.01%</u> : -1.81±1.10 P<0.03 <u>CT group over 3 y</u> : <u>A0.05%</u> : -0.73±1.04 <u>A0.025%</u> : -1.31±0.92 <u>A0.01%</u> : -1.60±1.32 P<0.001	<u>A0.05%</u> : <u>WO</u> : 0.33±0.17 <u>CT</u> : 0.17±0.14 p<0.001 <u>A0.025%</u> : <u>WO</u> : 0.29±0.14 <u>CT</u> : 0.20±0.15 p<0.04 <u>A0.01%</u> : <u>WO</u> : 0.29±0.15 <u>CT</u> : 0.24±0.18 p<0.13 <u>WO group over 3 y</u> : <u>A0.05%</u> : 0.70±0.47 <u>A0.025%</u> : 0.82±0.37 <u>A0.01%</u> : 0.98±0.48 P<0.04 <u>CT group over 3 y</u> : <u>A0.05%</u> : 0.50±0.40 <u>A0.025%</u> : 0.74±0.41 <u>A0.01%</u> : 0.89±0.53 P<0.001	No clinically significant side effects. Photophobia not significantly different between WO and CT groups. Allergic conjunctivitis similar across groups	Discussed in text

Table 2: Table of Randomised Controlled Trials for Atropine concentrations of <0.05%

*Abbreviations: y- years, D – Dioptres, m- months, A – atropine, AL – axial length

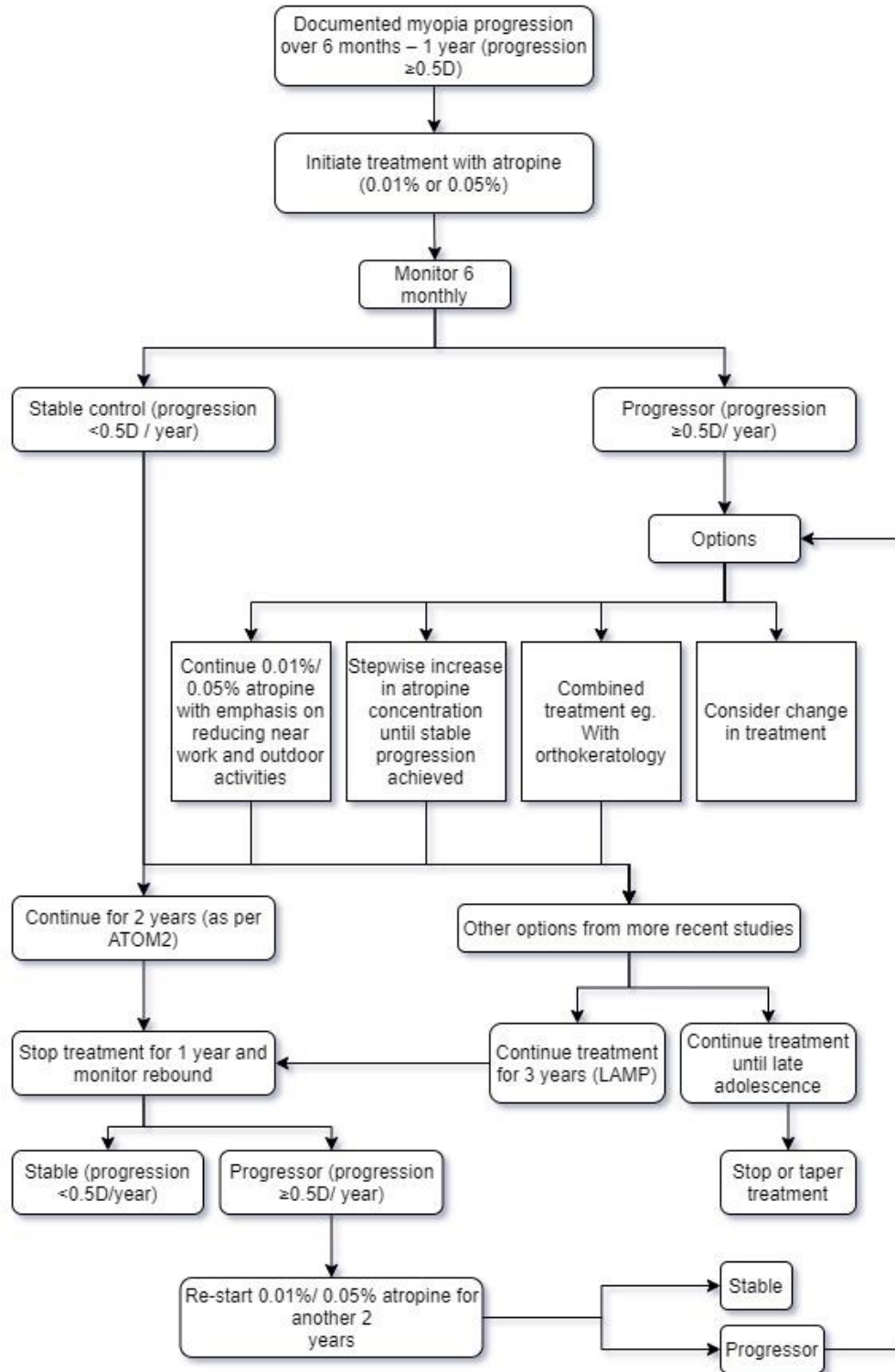


Figure 1. Proposed treatment protocols for low concentration atropine

How to initiate low concentration atropine in clinical practice:

It has been recommended that children be watched for progression over the preceding 6 months to one year before deciding on initiating them on measures for myopia control^[42,62,74,75]. A progression of $\geq 0.5D$ is an indication to start treatment. However, there is still no consensus on the age to start treatment. Published studies have administered low concentration atropine at a minimum of 4 years of age and a maximum of 14 years. However, some clinicians feel that it may be left at the discretion of the ophthalmologist to start earlier or later in case of risk factors for progression like strong family history, or moderate to high myopia, or continued progression into the late teens^[76]. The safety profile on long-term low-dose atropine in younger ages is still not established. The efficacy of atropine treatment in genetically predisposed individuals is also not known. Figure 1 shows a summary of the treatment protocols that have been advocated.

Parents and guardians should optimally be counseled on the risks and benefits of atropine therapy. Specific baseline parameters to be checked on initiation of therapy, other than the routine clinical examination, are cycloplegic refraction and axial length for follow-up. A 6 monthly follow-up is advised to check for the response. At the initiation of therapy, it may be prudent to re-assess the patient over a shorter period to ensure compliance and the absence of any adverse effects.

With the recent publication of the 3rd phase of the LAMP study, there is evidence for a longer period of sustained atropine administration of at least 3 years rather than a washout period after 2 years. The 4th phase will provide stronger evidence for sustained administration. However, the absence of commercially available 0.05% atropine, at present, may make it more difficult to initiate this treatment in many practices.

In the case of non-responders (who continue to progress by $\geq 0.5D$) despite atropine treatment, various suggestions include progressively increasing the concentration of atropine^[58,59], or else combining treatment such as emphasis on outdoor activities, reducing near

work, and combined treatment with orthokeratology^[20] or switching treatment.

There is still some controversy regarding whether it will be more effective to initiate therapy in pre-myopic children (refractive error of $< +0.75$) or to wait for progression^[77].

Conclusion:

Low concentration atropine is certainly efficacious in the control of myopia progression and limitation of axial length elongation in simple myopia and can be adopted in routine clinical practice. There is still some debate as to the best concentration of atropine, but recently emerging data points towards 0.05% atropine and a longer, sustained administration to be the best approach. Treatment protocols would likely need to be tailored to the patient according to their response. Despite the positive evidence for use of low concentration atropine, it is not foolproof. There is still a sizeable percentage of non-responders to treatment. Since multiple variables affect AL elongation, it is difficult to accurately determine the factors involved. It is also not known whether atropine would be effective for other types of myopia such as pathological myopia. Better knowledge of the exact mechanisms of refractive control of the eye would allow for the development of even better-targeted approaches for myopia progression control.

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Review article

Current trends in the use and outcome of anterior chamber intraocular lens (IOL) implantation

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Abstract:

Anterior chamber placement of intraocular lenses is a necessity for eyes with aphakia and poor capsule or zonular support. There are mainly two types of anterior chamber intraocular lens (ACIOL), angle supported and iris claw lenses. The review was based on extensive Pubmed and Medline database regarding the design, history, surgical techniques, outcomes and complications in these ACIOLs. The visual acuity improved in majority patients for both types of ACIOL. The commonest complications noted were glaucoma, corneal decompensation, uveitis, pupillary distortion, cystoid macular edema and retinal detachment. However, with improvement in technique and ACIOL designs, these complications were low in incidence. As these lenses are placed in compromised eyes, the benefits outweigh the risk of surgery considerably. This review attempts to understand the position of ACIOL in today's ophthalmology practice and the current concepts in their usage.

Key words: Anterior chamber, intraocular lens, angle supported, iris claw, corneal decompensation, glaucoma, vitrectomy.

1. Introduction

The need of secondary intraocular lens (IOL) implantation after a cataract surgery arises due to multiple reasons, such as trauma, complicated cataract extraction, lens coloboma, Marfans syndrome, pseudoexfoliation syndrome and other congenital or metabolic syndromes where the capsule and/ or zonules are either absent or unable to support a conventional posterior chamber IOL. ^[1] The three major methods for secondary IOL implantation are anterior chamber IOL (ACIOL), iris fixated IOL and scleral fixated IOL. There is no clear consensus on the best option for secondary IOL in the absence of large prospective, randomised trials. Hence, it is imperative for the surgeon to decide the IOL choice based on the ocular status, surgical skills, patient's requirements and resources available. ACIOLs are also used in refractive error correction in phakic condition. ^[2] However, this review will attempt to understand the history, indications, outcome and complications of ACIOL (angle supported and iris supported in anterior chamber) use in aphakia.

1.1 History of ACIOLs

The use of ACIOL in aphakic cases started in 1950s with the Baron ACIOL. ^[3] However, due to the rigid nature of the IOL inherent to the polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) material used and the closed loop design leading to high incidence of pigment dispersion, glaucoma, cystoid macular edema and corneal decompensation, these early ACIOLs rapidly fell into disfavour. ^[4,5] The advent of open loop, flexible haptics in ACIOL since the 1980's changed the scenario and ACIOL became more acceptable. ^[5,6] Charles D Kelman pioneered the design and usage of this IOL. ^[5,7,8] Gradually, iris claw ACIOL, in use since the 1970s, also found favour for aphakia correction. ^[5,8,9] As of today, US FDA approves use of only angle supported open loop ACIOL for use in aphakic correction. ^[10] However, off label use of iris claw ACIOL is popular around the world.

2. Types of ACIOL

2.1 Closed loop ACIOL: As early as 1953, Strampelli and Danheim designed a triangular ACIOL, followed by multiple other designs such

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as Choyce, Barraquer, Leiske, Surgidev, Cisco Optiflex etc. ^[5,11-13] The rigid design, closed non-flexible haptics of these ACIOLs led to increased chaffing of iris and anterior chamber angle tissue, causing synechiae formation, pigment dispersion, uveitis-glaucoma-hyphema syndrome and cystoid macular edema. Due to endothelial cell loss, corneal decompensation was also higher. ^[5,12,13] With advent of open loop ACIOL, these lenses were discontinued worldwide.

2.2 Open loop ACIOL: After intense research on the design, material quality and manufacturing techniques of ACIOL, changes were made in the newer lenses. These included open loop flexible haptics, flexible material, better IOL vaulting, tumble-polishing to avoid sharp and brittle optic edge or haptics and four point touch at the anterior chamber angle for better rotational stability. ^[5] The Kelman Multiflex III (Alcon Inc, USA) is the prototype of these newer ACIOLs, and is popular worldwide (Figure 1). This IOL is made of PMMA and comes in a range of 12 to 14.5mm diameter. The vault is 0.5mm anteriorly, preventing pupillary block. The two haptics are flexible and provides fixation at four points in the angle. The sizing is calculated as roughly 1mm bigger than the horizontal corneal white-to-white diameter. ^[14]

A randomised control trial conducted in Nepal comparing aphakia versus Kelman Multiflex III after intracapsular cataract extraction showed only 5% patients having poor visual outcome less than 6/60 at 1 year. The commonest cause was uveitis with secondary glaucoma, followed by correctable refractive error. ^[7] The L122UV (Bausch and Lomb Inc, USA) is another angle supported ACIOL. The design is similar to the Kelman Multiflex III, except that it is biconvex as opposed to the plano-convex design of the latter.. The MTA3UO ACIOL (Alcon Inc, USA) is another plano-convex ACIOL made of PMMA. A study comparing these two ACIOLs in aphakic patients with and without uveitis showed good outcome till 5 years follow up, with uveitic eyes showing greater risk of epiretinal membrane formation. ^[15] Newer ACIOLs made of acrylic material are also being evaluated. These include foldable Acri.Lyc

15A (Acritec) and Acrysof ACIOL (Cachet, Alcon Surgical, USA), a foldable hydrophobic acrylate IOL. ^[16,17] Both lenses are delivered using an IOL injecting system.

A case series on Acri.Lyc usage showed minor complications following implantation, including corneal edema, increased IOP, hyphema, distorted pupil shape, iris bombe, vitreous hemorrhage, displaced ACIOL and cystoid macular edema. However, statistically significant visual improvement occurred postoperatively and was not influenced by the complications. ^[17] Similar results were demonstrated in a retrospective case series on Acrysof ACIOL. ^[16]

2.3 Iris claw ACIOL: Although the US FDA has approved only angle supported ACIOL use in aphakia correction, trials on iris claw ACIOLs on pediatric and adult cases of aphakia are ongoing in US. In other countries, iris claw IOLs are popularly used, placed either in anterior chamber or retro-pupillary fixated. The Medallion IOL which is a precursor of the modern iris claw IOL was introduced in the 1970s by Binkhorst and Worst. ^[18] Further modification was made by Worst and Singh and other surgeons, finally leading to the Artisan IOL (Ophtec BV) that has been used since then. ^[8,19] It is made of PMMA with a rigid 5mm optic and two haptics with flexible claws for iris enclavement. Standard diameter is 8.5mm with availability of 6.5mm and 7.5mm. As the corneal white-to-white measurement is not needed, hence sizing issues are not seen, even in eyes with abnormal angle or anterior segment dimensions. The Artisan IOL is available from +2.0 diopter (D) to +30.0 D power. Fixation to mid-peripheral iris is done with enclavation forceps, needle or sutures. Proper centration over pupil is needed to maintain mydriasis and protect iris vessels (Figure 2).

The Artisan IOL has consistently shown excellent results in visual outcome in aphakia. Chen et al. assessed the efficacy and safety of this IOL to correct aphakia. The visual acuity was improved in all 72 recruited patients till 3 years follow up, except 2 patients with postoperative ischaemic optic neuropathy and retinal detachment. ^[20] The mean endothelial loss was

9.78%, iris pigment deposits was 5.6%, while postoperative intraocular pressure (IOP) was not significantly increased throughout the follow-up. 16.7% patients noted glare and halos during night driving. A case report by Kheirkhah et al. about the Artisan IOL use in aphakic correction in Fuchs' heterochromic iridocyclitis mentioned best corrected visual acuity (BCVA) of 20/20 one month postoperatively with no subsequent iris atrophy, glaucoma, IOL displacement, pupil ovalization, vitreous inflammation or clinical cystoid macular oedema.^[21]

Artisan ACIOL when compared to scleral-sutured posterior chamber IOL (PCIOL) after vitrectomy and lens extraction showed shorter surgical time and faster BCVA recovery, with comparable long-term BCVA and IOP. Iris depigmentation, iritis, pupil distortion and single case of IOL dislocation was noted.^[22] A study on 5 year follow up of this IOL in 128 patients showed improved BCVA at 1 year which remained stable up to 5 years. The mean endothelial cells density decreased slightly during follow up.^[23] Koss et al. reported non-significant loss of corneal endothelial cells in 18 aphakic eyes with these lenses. The rate of loss was inversely proportional to the axial length, being minimal for eyes with axial length of 24 mm or more.^[24] Most studies report endothelial cell loss in the first year.^[25] Cagini *et al.* reported that simultaneous keratoplasty (Descemet's stripping automated endothelial keratoplasty, DSAEK) and aphakic iris claw ACIOL implantation in patients with aphakia and bullous keratopathy was safe, without major postoperative complications.^[26]

3. Surgical technique :

3.1 Angle supported ACIOL- The primary aim is to place the ACIOL gently in the iridocorneal angle touching the scleral spur with no iris tissue entrapment.

The steps involved are-

- The implantation of angle supported ACIOL in aphakic cases should be preceded by complete bimanual anterior vitrectomy.
- The scleral tunnel should be made either superiorly or temporally. Any clear corneal incision made earlier need to be closed with single 10-0 nylon suture. Some surgeons prefer to extend

the incision to 6mm positioning the extensions more posteriorly.

c. The ACIOL needs to be around 3 diopter less in power than the calculated posterior chamber IOL. A common formula used is: Power of PCIOL Calculated- (PCIOL A constant- ACIOL A constant).

d. The white-to-white diameter (WTW) along the determined axis of ACIOL placement is measured, and 1mm needs to be added to WTW for sizing of the ACIOL.

e. The pupil must be constricted with acetylcholine 1% intracamerally.

f. An iridotomy is created away from the haptics to prevent pupil block and also ensure haptic does not rotate into the iridotomy. Anterior vitrectomy cutter is used with a low cut rate of around 100. The cutter is turned posteriorly and foot pedal is activated to vacuum and cut active (level 3). As soon as iris is sucked in, the pedal is released and the opening examined for patency. In case an intraoperative iridotomy is not done, Nd: YAG laser peripheral iridotomy can be done next day.

g. The ACIOL is inserted via the scleral tunnel under ophthalmic viscosurgical device (OVD) cover into the anterior chamber with plain angulated forceps. A sheet glide can be used to ensure smooth entry over iris plane till the opposite angle.

h. Since this ACIOL has a 0.5mm anterior vaulting, the orientation of the IOL needs to be checked before insertion.

i. The trailing haptic is then tucked into the angle with forceps.

j. Once the scleral tunnel is secure, the haptics are checked for any iris tissue entrapment. This is done by lifting one haptic centrally and anteriorly with Sinsky hook and releasing it, followed by same manouvere in other haptic. If the pupil is peaked or oval shaped, it signifies that iris or vitreous may be trapped between haptic and angle. The angle supported ACIOLs should not be rotated as it may tear the angle tissue or lead to hyphema.

3.2 Iris claw ACIOL- This IOL can be used in the anterior chamber in eyes with pupil size less than 5 mm, central pupil position and adequate iris tissue. If pupil is irregular or torn, suture

pupilloplasty can be done prior to IOL placement. Small iris defects, corectopia where optic can be placed over pupil are included for this IOL. This IOL is avoided in cases with uveitis and large corectopia or iris tissue loss. An A constant of 115 (ultrasound biometry) or 115.7 (optical biometry) is recommended. The steps include-

- a. Two paracentesis are done at 2 and 10 o'clock and pupil constricted with intracameral acetylcholine 1%.
- b. A limbal incision of 5.5mm is made in the desired axis, followed by a superior iridotomy by anterior vitrector or iridotomy scissors.
- c. Under OVD cover, the Artisan iris claw IOL is inserted through the limbal tunnel and centered over the pupil. The IOL is gently rotated till 3 and 9 o'clock position so that haptic slots are positioned over mid peripheral iris. If any localized iris thinning is present, the haptics can be adjusted accordingly.
- d. The IOL is slightly tilted down towards the nondominant hand and enclavation forceps or needle or Vacufix is inserted via paracentesis using the nondominant hand. The instrument is then used to pick up the midperipheral iris tissue and pulled up towards inferior part of the claw. Once the iris tissue is properly entrapped into the claw, the procedure is repeated for the other haptic.
- e. Pupil shape should not be distorted on completion of these steps. The OVD is removed and the incision wound is closed.

4. Complications in use of ACIOL:

4.1 Iris fixated ACIOL:

- a. *Visual outcome:* Multiple studies have shown good results in the best corrected visual acuity (BCVA) after iris claw ACIOL use.^[8] A meta-analysis of 6 studies comparing anterior chamber versus retropupillary placed iris claw ACIOL (RPCIOL) demonstrated substantial improvement in vision in both groups.^[27] Teng et al compared visual outcome in iris claw and posterior chamber IOL till 1 year. The BCVA was better in iris claw IOL group (mean= 0.40) as compared to the other IOL (mean= 0.30).^[28] Guell et al. noted similar

improvement in BCVA up to 5 years in cases without capsule support.^[23] Chen et al. also reported improvement in 70 of 72 eyes undergoing this IOL implantation.^[20] De Silva et al. studied visual outcome in iris claw IOL use during primary surgery or as a secondary procedure, and found around 70% eyes had BCVA of 6/12 or better at 22.4 months.^[29]

- b. *IOP increase:* The American Academy of Ophthalmology reported a 0 to 3.3% rate of glaucoma in iris claw IOL use.^[22] Helvaci et al. noted a high but transient IOP elevation in eyes post iris claw IOL insertion.^[30] Teng et al. and Guell et al. also observed rise in IOP on first post-operative day, which normalized by 1 month.^[23,28] De Silva et al. noted 9.5% eyes showed transient IOP increase in their study.^[29] Cagini et al. studied IOP post DSAEK with iris claw IOL and found it to be stable.^[26] Use of peripheral iridotomies significantly reduced the risk of glaucoma in iris claw IOL usage.^[27]
- c. *Corneal endothelial cell loss:* The proximity of the ACIOLs to the corneal endothelium is a major concern, and phakic ACIOLs have shown endothelial cell loss in a progressive manner.^[31] Iris claw lens have shown equal cell loss at 1 year compared to PCIOL in Teng et al. study.^[23] Guell et al. also noted slight decrease in cell count until 5 years follow up.^[28] Comparative meta-analysis between AC and RPCIOL showed no significant difference in cell loss till 33 +/- 21.8 years.^[27] Koss and Kohnen noted that cell loss was more in eyeballs having axial length more than 24mm.^[24]
- d. *Pupillary irregularities:* Helvaci et al. studied changes in pupil in AC versus RPCIOL for iris claw IOL, and found similar changes (3% in AC and 5% in RPCIOL respectively).^[30] In a study by Chen et al., no pupillary irregularities were detected except loss of iris pigments.^[20] Improvement in the surgical technique and IOL material has probably resulted in negligible cases of pupil distortion post usage of this IOL recently.

- e. *Chronic uveitis*: De Silva et al. reported an incidence of anterior uveitis in 7.7% patients implanted with iris claw ACIOL. [29] Similar findings were noted by Teng et al. when comparing with PCIOL usage. [23] Figure 3 shows a case of chronic iritis with pupil ovalisation following use of Artisan ACIOL in complicated cataract surgery.
- f. *Cystoid macular edema (CME)*: The primary cause of CME in iris claw ACIOL use is the constant chaffing of iris tissue resulting in a low grade, chronic uveal insult, along with the aphakic status of the eye. [22,31] If insufficient iris tissue is entrapped, then long standing movement of the IOL on the iris can also cause CME. Guell et al. noted CME at 1 year after surgery, as also in a study by De Silva et al. (7.7%). [28,29]
- g. *Other complications*: Retinal detachment, spontaneous IOL dislocation, intraocular haemorrhage, glare and haloes at night, wound leak were some of the rare complications mentioned in different studies of eyes with iris claw ACIOL implantation. [8]

4.2 Angle supported ACIOL:

a. *Visual outcome*: Since the time closed loop rigid ACIOL have been replaced by open loop flexible ACIOL, the visual outcome have improved drastically after surgery. Auffurth et al and Drolsum noted a significant drop in complications with BCVA approaching 6/6 in their studies of open loop ACIOLs. [5,32] The Kelman Multiflex III ACIOL has consistently shown good visual outcome in most studies, comparable to scleral fixated PCIOL. [14] Newer acrylic angle supported ACIOL have also reported good visual outcome, including a study by Omulecki et al. where the use of a foldable Acri.Lyc 15A ACIOL showed increase in BCVA till 6 months post-surgery. [17] Similar results were reported by Giles et al. [33]

b. *IOP increase*: Older ACIOLs had higher rate of glaucoma (32.1%) due to rigid nature and fixation of haptics to the iris as reported by Dai et al. [34] A comparative study between open loop flexible ACIOL and scleral-fixated PCIOL by Evereklioglu et al. showed

increased IOP in the former group, although visual acuity was better in the same patients. [35] Newer ACIOLs such as Kelman Multiflex III, Acri.Lyc 15A, MTA3UO, L122UV have shown lower incidence of glaucoma. [14,16,17,33]

c. *Corneal endothelial cell loss*: Older ACIOL had a higher incidence of corneal decompensation, as high as 42.9%. [34] With newer designs, the incidence has reduced presently (Figure 4). The use of these IOLs along with penetrating keratoplasty in aphakic bullous keratopathy showed good visual outcome, with raised IOP, graft rejection and CME being the main complications. [36] Inadvertent upside down insertion of Kelman Multiflex ACIOL led to corneal decompensation in a case series, along with iritis, raised IOP, pupil capture and CME. [37] The loss of endothelial cells is reported to be more in secondary ACIOL surgery rather than in primary implantation. [38] Esquenazi et al. showed a 24% and 28% reduction in endothelial cell count in first and second year respectively after DSAEK with ACIOL implantation. [39] Agarwal et al. had studied endothelial cell loss at 6 months in air assisted ACIOL implantation and noted statistically significant reduction. [40] Omulecki et al. also noted minor changes of corneal edema in their study of foldable acrylic ACIOL usage in aphakia. [17]

d. *IOL stability*: Few earlier studies found IOL dislocation at 7.1%. [34] However, recent AAO safety update showed no such complication with the newer models of angle supported ACIOLs. [25]

e. *Cystoid macular edema*: In the study by Evereklioglu et al., CME was reported in the ACIOL group. [35] Other studies showed varying incidence of CME from 0.1% to 5% in acrylic ACIOL. [16,17,33] Moreover, the AAO safety update also noted higher incidence of CME in scleral fixated PCIOL compared to these ACIOL. [25]

f. *Other complications*: Some studies have reported sporadic incidence of retinal detachment, hyphema, pupil distortion with angle supported ACIOL. [33,41,42]

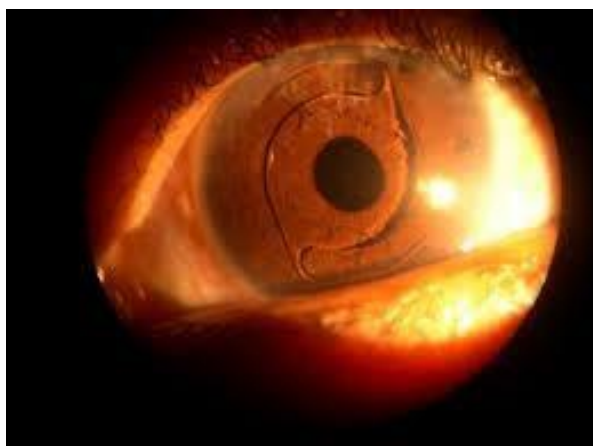


Figure 1: Kelman Multiflex III angle supported intraocular lens (ACIOL)



Fig 3: Chronic iritis with pupil ovalisation in Artisan iris claw ACIOL implantation (post-operative 1 year)

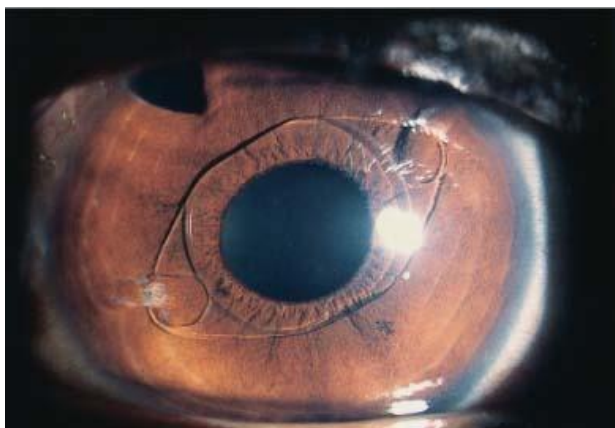


Fig 2: Artisan iris claw ACIOL with peripheral iridotomy



Fig 4: Corneal decompensation with irregular pupil after ACIOL implantation

5. Conclusion:

The armamentarium of IOLs available in cases of capsule or zonular support loss has increased in recent years. Both angle supported and iris claw ACIOLs have shown consistently good results in terms of visual outcome and longevity. The improvement in IOL material, manufacturing process and design of optic and haptic has greatly reduced the previous major complications of cystoid macular edema, glaucoma and corneal decompensation.

6. Literature search

PubMed and MEDLINE search was done with combinations of following search terms: Aphakia; anterior chamber intraocular lens; iris claw; angle supported; surgical procedures;

complications;diagnosis; treatment and management.

Relevant articles from literature search and their references when applicable were included. Articles published after 1950 and articles published in non-English languages were included if there was an English comprehensive summary of the article. Clinical studies, randomized control trial, review articles, case series, and case reports were included in the review.

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Invited article

Intraocular lens exchange, Indications and Outcome

Arundhati Tamuli

When Harold Ridley introduced intra ocular lens to the world, very few could realise that intraocular lens (IOL) explantation will be another job over and above implantation. In fact, it happened that the very first IOL, Ridley did implant, eventually became the first ever IOL explanation as well as the first ever IOL exchange of the world as it was a huge refractive surprise of -14 dioptre.

As IOL explantation is rather a difficult procedure than implantation, IOL exchange has become a subject of much needed discussion. Earlier, complications of anterior chamber IOL were predominant causes of IOL exchange. Gradually, with introduction of posterior chamber (PC) IOL, the main indication of IOL exchange became IOL malposition, along with refractive surprises, wrong IOL implantations etc. With recent advances in IOL technology to provide visual acuity at all distances, despite achieving perfect visual acuity, the commonest cause for IOL exchange became patient dissatisfaction due to dysphotopsia, glare, halo or reduced contrast sensitivity. Over time, the rate of IOL exchange has declined as surgeons became more experienced and IOL technology improved to reduce subjective symptoms.

Indications of IOL exchange:

1. Refractive surprise⁽¹⁻⁵⁾: Post-operative refraction that is way away from the desired goal, can be considered a refractive surprise. It can be due to a myriad of reasons. In most situations these can be corrected by Lasik or other means, taking patient satisfaction into consideration. However refractive surprise is one of the most common indication of IOL exchange.
2. IOL related complications: IOL malposition, torn or broken IOL, IOL haze/opacity, IOL induced inflammatory reactions are some notable complications related to IOL where IOL exchange procedure is executed. A recent study showed that procedures like Descemet stripping endothelial keratoplasty, Descemet stripping automated endothelial keratoplasty,

Descemet membrane endothelial keratoplasty, and pars plana vitrectomy with intraocular gas or air injection predisposed lenses to opacification⁽⁶⁾. ACIOLs were notorious for many anterior segment complications and were frequently explanted some time ago. Dissatisfied patients with Multifocal IOLs who may experience dysphotopsia, glare, halo, contrast sensitivity issues are newer indications of IOL exchange.

3. Pseudophakic children with large myopic shift to reduce anisometropia & associated aniseikonia⁽⁷⁾ where IOL exchange is considered best option.
4. Phakic IOLs: Refractive IOLs are needed to be explanted when we need to address a cataract where phakic IOLs are in situ.
5. Explantation of IOL along with vitreo-retinal procedure may be needed when required.

Procedure of IOL explant and exchange:

The approach to a case planned for IOL exchange depends on several factors, such as

- Corneal/ wound condition
- Severity of Anterior chamber inflammation
- Condition of Iris
- Condition of capsule (to consider rhexis continuity, capsular phimosis, posterior capsule integrity, cyclitic membrane etc)
- Whether Rigid or foldable IOL and the make.

Upon considering the above parameters several combined approaches were described by different authors. We need to understand that explantation is a difficult procedure than implantation and should be handled by experienced surgeon only.

1. Explantation of rigid IOL requires an incision equivalent to IOL diameter. It can even be a self-sealing one. Implanted IOL may be positioned in the capsular bag, sulcus or even intra-scleral fixation as per the situation. In many cases even iris claw lenses are placed in absence of adequate capsular support.

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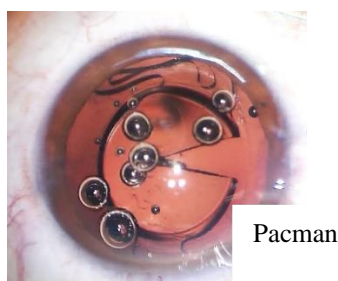
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2. Explantation of foldable IOL may be considered with a smaller incision. Explantable IOL can be cut, folded or manipulated out with several techniques.
3. Additional procedures like vitrectomy, Descemet stripping endothelial keratoplasty can be carried out along with IOL exchange procedures.
4. IOL power calculation still remains a challenge in such cases, as recalculation is frequently needed as previous biometry may be considered invalid or unavailable.



Harmoni modular IOL



Pacman

Surgical principle and techniques

- The IOL that requires explantation should be liberated from capsular adhesions, fibrous band or entangled iris, otherwise disasters may ensue in many situations.
- ‘Pacman technique’ is a widely practiced technique to explant a foldable IOL. In this technique a quarter of the IOL is cut and removed with specialized scissors (or by a vannus scissor). The remaining three quarter is manipulated out through a wound equivalent to the radius of the IOL optic. When the IOL is cut, it looks like the ‘Pacman’, which is a cartoon character of a popular computer game.
- Arup Bhaumik’s technique of refolding the IOL for explantation into IOL cartridge while in the anterior chamber has gained much appreciation and acceptance.⁽⁸⁾

Outcome of IOL exchange

One study found that IOL decentration was the topmost indication of IOL exchange, and

also that in the bag re-implantation shows best visual outcome and iris supported one the least⁽⁹⁾. The outcome of monofocal IOL exchange for multifocal IOL due to subjective symptoms are mostly satisfactory, as reported in many studies.

Conclusion

IOL explantation procedure is required to be learnt by every anterior segment surgeon. One may require to handle such a case when situation arises. Every single case requiring IOL explant and exchange is unique. Indication for exchange, IOL power calculation, surgical technique and experience matters much to the final outcome of the procedure.

The much talked about Light Adjustable Lens (LAL) and Harmoni Modular Lens (ClarVista Medical) were developed to reduce the need for IOL exchange when desired refractive goal is not achieved. We are still waiting for the perfections in the future.

Keywords: IOL exchange, IOL explantation

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Invited article

Vision Care Centre's modified Guidelines during pandemic in 2021

Nilanjana Ghosh

Background and the essence of these amends:

World underwent a change when they got locked down and did again come out with new rules and regulations to embrace the new normal. Life was never the same again. Ophthalmology requires close contact check up and hence new regulations were formulated to ensure safety of both patients and health care providers. Vision Care Centres (VCC) underwent few makeovers as well. Few changes suggested by various institutes have been incorporated. However, each set up has its own set of limitations and challenges. Hence the modifications need to be customized according to the local need so that the safety is ensured alongside providing services effectively. Eye care is a close contact care and hence infection transmission are high. Preventions need to be utmost to enhance service provision interrupted and assure effective service delivery and health service utilization ensuring a disease-free cure and care.

Modifications recommended by a private institute of repute after in-depth searching and review from all other private sectors –

Panellists, researchers, clinicians and all other stakeholders participated and suggested the recommendations under the following subheadings for effective treatment being met minimizing transmission. Some areas where the modifications are made are Vision Technicians procuring consumable in adequate quantities from the secondary centre (“COVID-19 VC Supplies pack”) and aid in preparation of the vision centre before starting the services from the first day after the lockdown to start patient care. As dress code and Personal Protective Equipment (PPE) for Vision Technicians are in direct contact with the patients and come under Red Category the PPE may re-used after a break if the exposed portion of the mask is untouched. Cleaning protocol for equipment and the VC facility with a modified workflow flowchart for COVID 19 are another

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mandate with temperature guns to be made available in VCs if more than 15 patients per day report. Assistance from field assistants for these VCs and temperature monitoring should be done. Along with these the clinical examination protocol and guidelines for spherical equivalent prescriptions along with optical outlet protocols need to be maintained. Alongside the usual preventive precautionary general information COVID-19 Symptoms protocols needs to be reiterated for every visit¹.

GoI recommendations for the same amalgamates similar guidelines in realm of its scope of work:

MoHFW on Safe Ophthalmology Practices in Covid-19 also reinforced its own set of preventive guidelines for practicing care in ophthalmology and made a mandate that not practising these are liable to be taken as offence in eve of any complaint or disease caused. As the examination & procedures related to ophthalmology involves close interactions with the patient, the document outlines the preventive and response measures to be observed to minimize and avoid the spread of COVID-19 in eye care facilities among Ophthalmologist, Ophthalmic assistants/technicians, nurses, support staff, patients and their attendants. Eye care facilities in containment zones shall remain closed and those operating outside will be allowed to open up within stipulated times. The basic preventive measures for elderly (above 65 years of age), persons with comorbidities, pregnant women and children below the age of 10 years should be encouraged to stay at home, unless they are patients themselves needs to be

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reiterated. Preventive measures of COVID 19 are to be followed along with self-monitoring of health and immediate reporting in event of any illness.

Eye-care facilities need to follow some universal dictums like encouraging tele-counselling and teleconsultation, practicing screening of cataract and other ocular morbidity patients in outreach areas only after duly following social distancing, hand hygiene and personal protective measures. Remote consultations by the NGOs in vision centres is also to be encouraged. Retrieval of eye balls/Corneas from home settings is allowed only if spread of infection is reduced and cornea may be utilized for therapeutic as well as optical purposes.

Queue discipline, ensuring social distancing in the premises, mandatory hand hygiene and thermal screening provisions and staff manning entry points equipped with appropriate personal protection as entailed in guidelines. Query regarding Covid-19 like symptoms and contact history, attendants & any hospital visitors with their mobile numbers and IDs should needs to be maintained for contact tracing. Preliminary screening of patients should be done as per flow chart of Annexure-I.

Guidelines of CPWD for air conditioners needs to be practiced with maintaining effective and frequent sanitation within premises with focus on lavatories and other water use areas. Proper disposal of face covers / masks / gloves in accordance with the Bio-Medical Waste

Management Rules is needed. App-based mobile phone check in & payment, digital prescription, artificial intelligence is the new normal needs to be appreciated and accepted like app-based registration system. However, ***triaging by an ophthalmologist/ trained ophthalmic personnel through telephonic conversation to determine the emergency/non-emergency needs to be.***

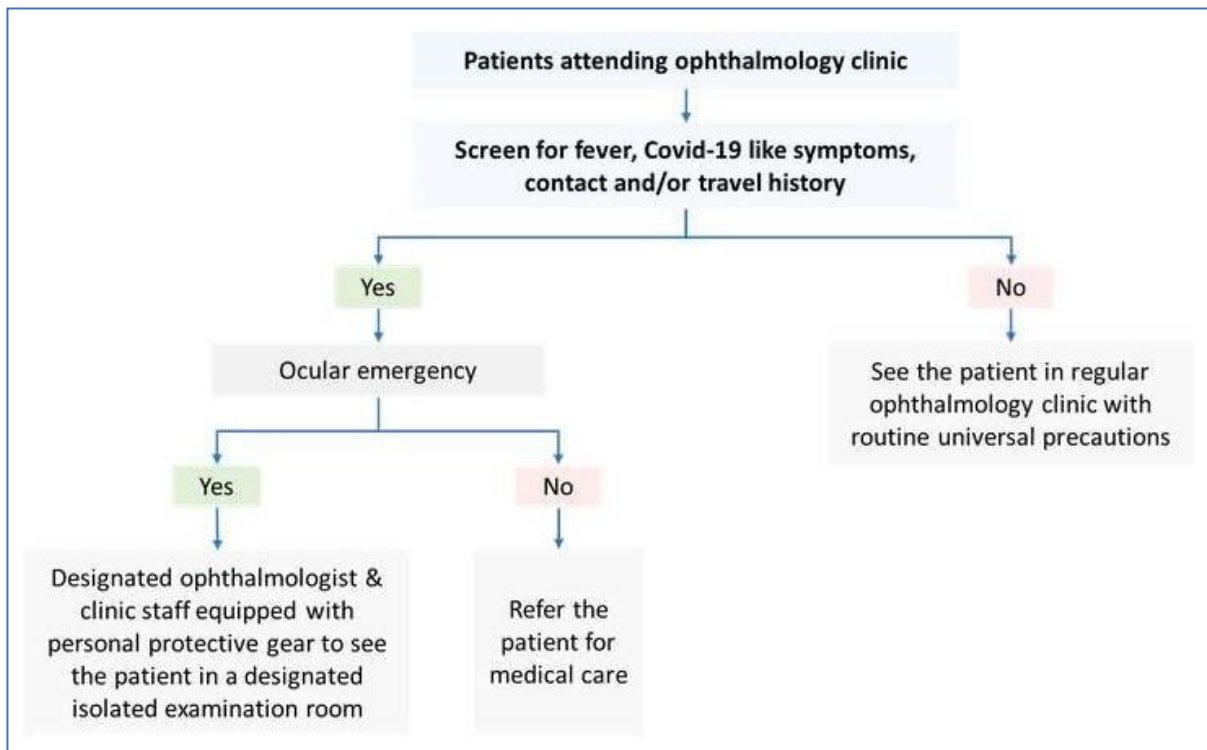
Modify process flow (like unidirectional flow of patients) in OPD is need of hour and it to minimize people's movements. (Fig.1)

Rearranging seating arrangement and reinforcing cleaning with regular disinfection (using 1% sodium hypochlorite) of frequently touched equipment such as Trial Frame, Trial Lenses, etc. is needed. Contact procedure like Tonometry, Gonioscopy, Keratometry, A- Scan, B-Scan, UBM, OCT, FFA etc., the instruments should be cleaned with 70% alcohol swab, before and after every new case or iatrogenic injuries may result. A no touch patient care and screening of patients before entering the wards with minimal attendant is enforced. Cleanliness and hygiene of the ward is to be duly maintained as is instrument sterilization as per the manufacturer's protocol.

In event of a Covid-19 patient being admitted the COVID Care Protocols will come into forth like an isolation ward and protocols for OT services. Although a pre-surgical Covid-19 test may be evaded a thorough history taking & examination must be done to ensure wellbeing of both service provider and beneficiary.

Disinfecting equipment's as per protocol before next use is in place. Duty staggering with self-monitoring of symptoms with immediate reporting remains the mainstay. Alongside the usual protocols like ill person in isolated, providing a mask before each check-up, informing on premise nodal officer, a risk assessment by the designated public health authority and actions initiated in accordance and disinfection of the premises if the person is found positive remains in place per se.

Hence the covid cure and care guidelines have undergone brief modifications to accommodate the operationally feasible sustainable solutions in eye care. However, the usual protocols remain unchanged from 2020. May the world get free of the pandemic and people of the new normal. Till then prevention is the only cure.

Fig.1 – Patient flow modified**References:**

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Newer medications in Glaucoma management

Shahinur Tayab

The management of glaucoma is primarily focused on lowering of intraocular pressure (IOP) as it is the only modifiable risk factor. IOP lowering with topical medications is the most commonly offered treatment before surgical options are explored. In this article we will focus on 1) Newer medications 2)

Newer methods of drug delivery

Newer medications

The IOP lowering in glaucoma was possible through 5 pharmacological classes (prostaglandin analogs, β -adrenoceptor antagonists, carbonic anhydrase inhibitors, α_2 -adrenoceptor agonists, cholinergic agents) of drugs until very recently. However, despite strict adherence some patients continue to progress. This was an indicator to develop novel IOP lowering agents with novel mechanisms of action. In POAG the site of aqueous resistance is believed to be the trabecular outflow pathway. But most of the medications acted either through the alternative pathway i.e. uveoscleral outflow pathway or by reducing the production of aqueous humor. Now we have 3 drugs which act through the conventional outflow pathway- netarsudil, ripasudil and latanoprostene bunod.

ROCK inhibitors

Rho is a small GTP binding protein belonging to the Rho family. It is responsible for regulating cell shape, motility, proliferation and apoptosis.^{1,2} Rho kinases (ROCKs) are the downstream effectors of Rho which mediate RhoA-induced actin cytoskeletal changes through effects on myosin light chain phosphorylation.^{3,4} ROCKs are protein serine/threonine kinases. Two ROCK isoforms have been identified in mammals- ROCK 1 and ROCK 2. Both RhoA GTPase and ROCK 1 and ROCK 2 isoforms are expressed in trabecular meshwork.⁵ The inhibition of this pathway leads to relaxation of trabecular meshwork by decreasing actin stress fibers, focal adhesion and cell to cell interactions. Giant vacuoles increase in the inner wall of Schlemm's canal when trabecular meshwork relaxes. This causes widening of Schlemm's canal and washout of extracellular material.⁶ This is how ROCK inhibitors cause IOP lowering.

Ripasudil, a Rho-associated kinase was initially approved for clinical use in Japan in 2014. It is available as 0.4% solution, to be applied twice daily. After topical application, Ripasudil is rapidly absorbed into the ocular tissue. The maximum IOP reduction is achieved at 2-3 hrs after topical application. The peak

effect during the day was found to be 6.7 mm Hg and 7.3 at night.⁷ When Ripasudil was added to Latanoprost it gave an additive IOP lowering of 3.2 mm Hg and when given along with Timolol it had an additive effect of 2.9 mm Hg.⁸

A second ROCK inhibitor Netarsudil was approved for use in the USA in 2017. It is available as a 0.02% solution to be applied once daily in the evening. Netarsudil has a dual action mechanism- as a ROCK inhibitor and an inhibitor of norepinephrine transporter.⁹ Norepinephrine is believed to decrease IOP by increasing α adrenergic signaling which ultimately causes decreased aqueous humor production. So, by inhibiting norepinephrine transporter the action of norepinephrine can be prolonged, leading to a decrease in aqueous humor formation.¹⁰ Netarsudil has also been found to increase the outflow facility from 0.27+/-0.10 to 0.33+/-0.22 μ l/min/mm Hg in treated eyes.¹¹ Another important use of ROCK inhibitors is in the healing of corneal endothelium. They can increase endothelial proliferation and decrease apoptosis.¹²

The main side effect of ROCK inhibitors is conjunctival hyperaemia which is due to its vasodilatory effect. It is usually transient. Subconjunctival haemorrhage and corneal verticillata were also noted with use of Netarsudil in the ROCKET trials. Rarely reported are cases of bullous epithelial keratopathy.¹³ Both ripasudil and netarsudil are available in the Indian market since 2020.

Nitric oxide Donors

As early as 1990s evidence was available regarding the IOP lowering potency of nitric oxide (NO).¹⁴ NO binds to soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC) which converts guanosine-5'-triphosphate (GTP) into cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP). cGMP is believed to effect changes in trabecular meshwork and Schlemm's canal cell volume thereby decreasing the resistance to aqueous humor outflow which leads to IOP reduction.¹⁵ This knowledge led to the development of a NO-donating prostaglandin agent. Latanoprostene bunod 0.024% (Vyzulta) was approved by FDA for use in USA in 2017.

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Latanoprostene bunod is metabolized into latanoprost acid and butanediol mononitrate. Butanediol was further metabolized into 1, 4 butanediol and NO. IOP lowering starts 1-3 hours after topical application with the peak effect at 11 to 13 hours later. Latanoprostene bunod is applied once daily in the evening. Prostaglandin lowers IOP through uveoscleral pathway and NO moiety through trabecular pathway. A fixed dose combination of latanoprost and netarsudil has been approved and made available in the USA in 2019 (Rhopressa). Vyzulta and Rhopressa are currently not available in India.

Newer methods of drug delivery

All IOP lowering medications are applied as topical/ eye drops. Topical application of anti-glaucoma medications has a number of disadvantages. First disadvantage being related to adherence. Patients often forget to apply the medications regularly and on time. The next disadvantage of topical medication use is the inability to properly instill the eye drop. This leads to wastage and also disease progression as the medications fail to reach its target site. Another important disadvantage is the ocular surface related problems due to prolonged exposure to preservatives contained in eye drops. So, an ideal approach would be to have a drug delivery system which would ensure sustained and continuous release of medication without the patient requiring to apply the medication himself. There are mainly two routes for sustained drug delivery system- extraocular and intraocular. All the PG analogues namely, bimatoprost, travoprost and latanoprost are being developed for the sustained release delivery system.

Extraocular sustained release system

There are 3 sustained release drug delivery system which are under trial (phase 2 and phase 3).

- 1) OTX-TP Ocular Therapeutix's travoprost-containing intracanalicular plugs¹⁶
- 2) Mati Therapeutics latanoprost-eluting punctal plugs¹⁷
- 3) Allergan's bimatoprost-releasing periocular rings¹⁸

Intraocular sustained release system

There are eight different technologies being evaluated for sustained intraocular release of drug despite being invasive in nature. Most notable among all is Allergan's bio erodible intracameral implant of bimatoprost (Bimatoprost SR). It is in phase 3 and phase 3 extension studies and the results are encouraging. It employs the Novadur platform which is already validated for Ozurdex intravitreal injection(19).

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Case Report

Spontaneously reattached retinal detachment with macular hole – A case report

Debdulal Chakraborty, Dipankar Das, Sabiha Mashuda Khanam

Abstract: Spontaneous reattachment of rhegmatogenous retinal detachment (SRRRD) is a rare presentation. A macular hole coexisting in a patient with a SRRRD is rarer still. The authors describe a case of SRRRD with a macular hole presenting with decreased vision which has never been described before in scientific literature. The patient underwent vitrectomy with internal limiting membrane peeling and gas tamponade, leading to type I closure of the macular hole and subsequent visual improvement.

Keywords: Spontaneous reattachment of rhegmatogenous retinal detachment, Macular Hole

Introduction:

Spontaneous reattachment of rhegmatogenous retinal detachment (SRRRD) is a rare phenomenon. It was first described by Cantrill^[1]. Many eyes with asymptomatic SRRRD may remain undetected^[2]. While epiretinal membrane (ERM) has been known to develop in SRRRD^[3] A macular hole (MH) in a patient of SRRRD has never been described before.

Case report

A 27 year old lady presented with decreased vision (20/80) in the left eye (OS) for 2 months. There was no history of prior trauma, retinal disease, surgery or consanguineous marriage of parents. Anterior segment was unremarkable and intraocular pressure was 12mmHg in OS. Dilated fundus examination in OS revealed a pigment-stippled retinal lesion with convex superior margin from 3-o'clock to 8-o'clock sparing the macula, consistent with diagnosis of SRRRD. Axial length was 23.8mm.

The other eye of the patient had 20/20 vision with normal anterior and posterior segment. Ultra-widefield Optos-image (Fig.1) documented SRRRD sparing the macula and a MH confirmed on spectral domain optical coherence tomography (SDOCT) (Fig.2a). In the temporal quadrant just beneath the demarcation line of the SRRRD, suspected breaks with a membrane sealing it were noted. MH surgery was advised which was refused initially by the patient. After two months, the patient returned with complaint of further decrease of vision in the affected eye (20/100). Persistence of the MH was confirmed again on clinical and SD OCT

examination. At this visit, the patient agreed to our advice and underwent surgery comprising of triamcinolone assisted pars plana vitrectomy (PPV), staining of the internal limiting membrane (ILM) with Brilliant Blue G (BBG) (Ocublue, Auro labs Madurai, India), followed by ILM peeling and C3F8 gas tamponade (Fig. 3). Intra-operatively a small ERM inferior to the fovea was noted. Type 1 closure of the MH was observed 1 month post-operatively (Fig.4), and confirmed on SDOCT (Fig.2b). VA at 1 month had improved to 20/60. At 12 months follow-up, the MH was still closed with VA of 20/30.

Discussion:

Rhegmatogenous retinal detachment (RRD) is a progressive condition requiring surgical intervention. SRRRD is a rare event with only few reported cases^[1-3]. SRRRD can be misdiagnosed as retinitis pigmentosa (RP), healed choroiditis or vasculitis^[1-3]. While RP is usually bilateral with pale disc, attenuated retinal arteries, and history of night blindness, a healed vasculitis exhibits irregular pigmentary change and sclerosed vessels which were absent in the current patient. Macular holes have been described along with various retinal co-morbidities such as diabetic retinopathy, retinal vein occlusions, familial exudative vitreoretinopathy, hereditary macular disorders^[2-4] and also following ocular trauma. Till date a macular hole developing in a patient of SRRRD has never been reported.

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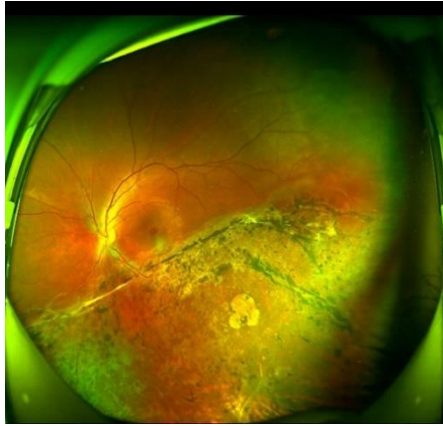


Fig1. Pre-operative widefield (Optos) image of left eye showing macular hole and inferior SRRRD

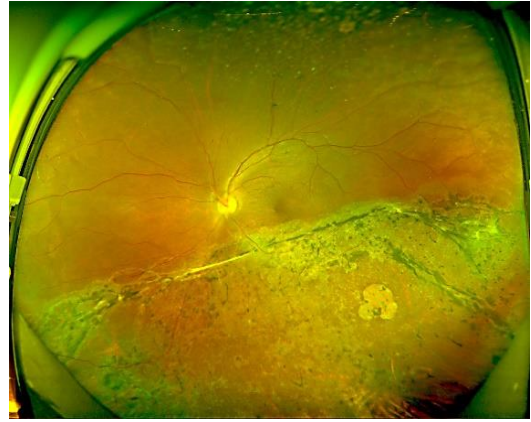


Fig2. (a) Pre-operative SDOCT image showing macular hole (b) SD OCT at one month following surgery showing type 1 closure of the macular hole.

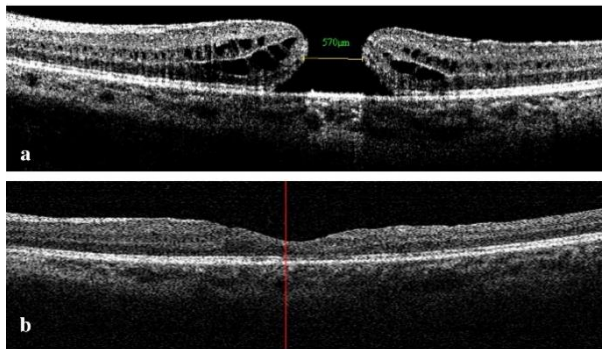


Fig3. Intra-operative image of macular area after ILM peeling and fluid air exchange.

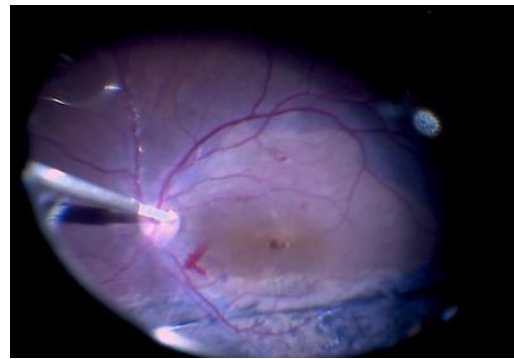


Fig4. Post-operative widefield (Optos) image of left eye showing sealed macular hole and inferior SRRRD

Supplementary video1: surgical procedure. This is not available in the PDF version-Ed

The exact mechanism of the retina re-attaching in SRRRD is not known. Thin membranes extending over the area of SRRRD running parallel to the retina developing as a wound healing response have been noted by Brüggemann et al^[3]. Those membranes have been found to proliferate over retinal breaks leading to closure of the breaks and spontaneous reattachment of the retina^[3]. Our patient had thin membranes covering suspected retinal breaks in the temporal periphery. Chung et al^[3] have noted partial detachment of the vitreous in eyes with SRRRD. In our patient, there was no pre-existing posterior vitreous detachment (PVD) and triamcinolone assisted PVD induction was

necessary. BBG was used to stain ILM. Inferior to the fovea a small epiretinal membrane was noted, which was removed along with the ILM. (supplemental video1). In heredo-macular degenerations, chronic degenerative changes in the macula and tangential traction by ERM and cystoid macular edema have been reported to be causative factors of MH^[5-8].

Surgical intervention in MH has been noted to be less successful when surgery was performed beyond three months of presentation especially in idiopathic macular holes^[7-9]. However in secondary macular holes, a period of observation has been recommended, especially in traumatic MH which may show spontaneous closure^[6]. While the MH noted in our patient had OCT characteristics of an idiopathic macular

hole^[10], whether the ERM noted in our patient had a role to play in the formation of the macular hole, thereby making it a secondary macular hole is a matter of conjecture. An untreated MH in an eye with a SRRRD may significantly decrease visual acuity in an already compromised eye and hence, early surgical closure of the MH may be best for the patient. Our patient with decreased vision for four months, however, did have type 1 closure of the MH and visual improvement following surgery. Shukla et-al^[10] reported macular holes having oedematous edges in eyes with other

retinal co-morbidities may behave like idiopathic holes and are better candidates for surgery. Our patient also had a macular hole with oedematous, edges noted on SD OCT and the surgical result was gratifying.

Conclusion:

We report a macular hole in SRRRD, which has never been described in literature and its treatment with PPV, ILM peeling and C3F8 gas tamponade leading to hole closure and improvement of vision in that eye.

Declarations:

- i. Funding: No funding was received in any form by any of the authors
- iii. Ethics approval : Ethics committee approval received from Institutional review board(Regn Number ECR/846/Inst/WB/2016/RR-19 : EC-CT-2020-138)
- iv. Consent to participate: Written consent obtained from the patient for publication. The identity of the patient will not be disclosed in any way
- v. Consent for publication: The authors hereby give you full permission, transfer, assign, or otherwise convey all copyright ownership, including any and all rights incidental there to, exclusively to the journal, in the event that such work is published by the journal
- vi. Availability of data and material: Any supplementary data/ information will be available from the corresponding author on reasonable request
- vii. Code availability : not applicable
- viii. Authors' contributions
Dr Debdulal Chakraborty : Concept, Data collection, literature search, manuscript writing and review
Dr Dipankar Das: literature search, critical analysis of manuscript
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The therapeutic dilemma in a non-responsive case of chronic central serous chorioretinopathy with secondary choroidal neovascular membrane – a case report

Tania Basaiawmoit, Jennifer V Basaiawmoit

Keywords: Central serous chorioretinopathy, choroidal neovascular membrane, OCTA, Scleroderma

A 66-year-old female presented with gradual progressive diminution of vision in the right eye for 8 months. She also was a known case of hypertension, diabetes, hypercholesterolemia, hyperthyroidism and compromised renal parameters. Her left eye was diagnosed elsewhere with a scarred choroidal neovascular membrane (CNVM) in 2014 for which she had received many intravitreal injections and had been off treatment since 2016.

Her Visual Acuity in the right eye was 6/60 and in the left eye was finger counting at 3 meters. She was pseudophakic in both eyes. Fundus examination of the right eye revealed retinal pigment epithelial (RPE) changes at the macula with subretinal fluid (SRF) and the left eye showed features of scarred CNVM at the macula. There was no evidence of diabetic or hypertensive retinopathy in either eye. Optical coherence tomography (OCT) and OCT Angiography (OCTA) of both the eyes are shown in images 2, 3 and 4. OCTA showed normal superficial and deep plexus in both eyes.



Fig 1: RE shows RPE changes at macula with SRF and LE showing scarred CNVM

The right eye was treated with three monthly consecutive doses of anti-vascular endothelial growth factor (anti-VEGF). The treatment showed no significant improvement in visual gain and suboptimal reduction of subretinal fluid after the 3 doses of anti-VEGF injection. OCTA however showed some reduction in the size of the tangled vessels at the final visit.

Due to unresponsiveness to anti-VEGF, the diagnosis was reconsidered as chronic central serous chorioretinopathy (CSCR) with secondary CNVM. The patient's detailed history at this visit revealed that the patient was on local triamcinolone injections in the scalp along with minoxidil application for 6 months for alopecia. The patient was thus advised to stop topical minoxidil and triamcinolone injections and was again given a trial of injection of anti-VEGF one month after stopping the steroids. However, the patient's vision remained at 6/60 with OCT features as shown in the figure below. A diagnosis of sick RPE syndrome was made and she was advised for a low vision device to aid in near vision.

The patient came back one year later for a follow-up visit, with vision in the right eye improved to 6/36 and near vision N 14 with additional light. RE fundus examination showed resolved SRF and OCT showed near-total resolution of sub-retinal fluid as seen in images 8 and 9. The patient informed that she was diagnosed by a dermatologist to have scleroderma and was started on oral Methotrexate (MTX) 7.5mg, 6 months before the patient came back for follow up.

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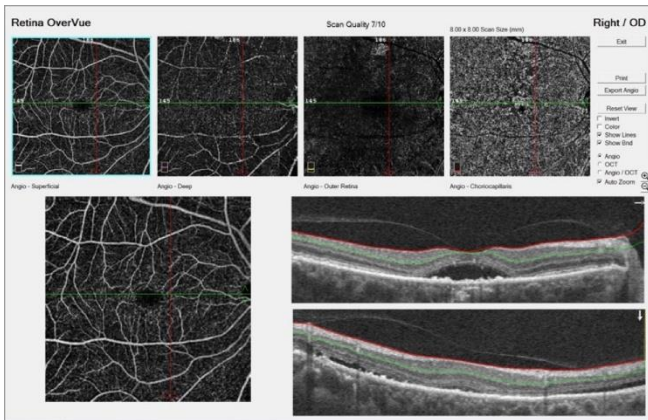


Fig 2: OCT and OCTA of RE showing irregular RPE with SRF and a central foveal thickness of 371 microns.

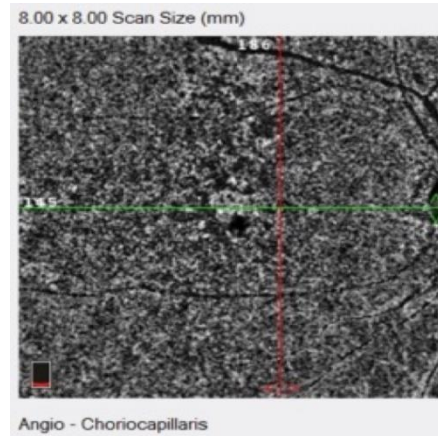


Fig 3: Segmentation of the choriocapillaris layer revealed a small suspicious area by the appearance of abnormal choroidal vessels with relatively high flow as compared to surrounding choriocapillaris

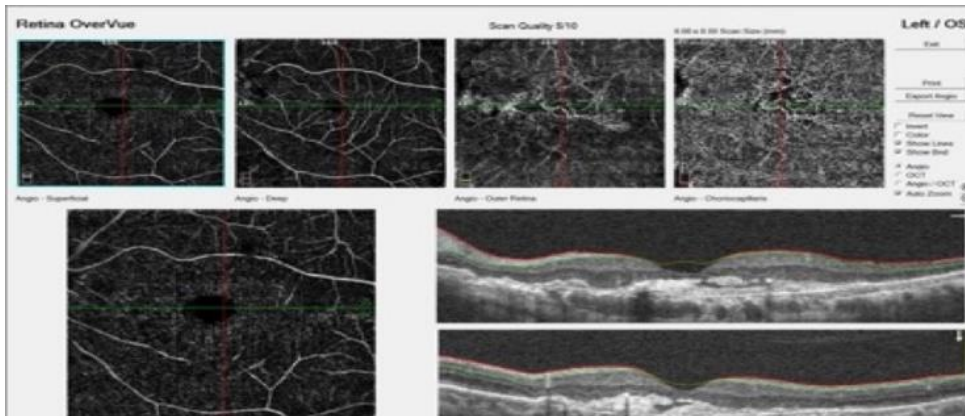


Fig 4: LE showing scarred CNVM complex with no subretinal or intraretinal fluid collection. OCTA shows the appearance of hyperreflective vessels in the outer retina and the choriocapillaris showed large choroidal vessels.

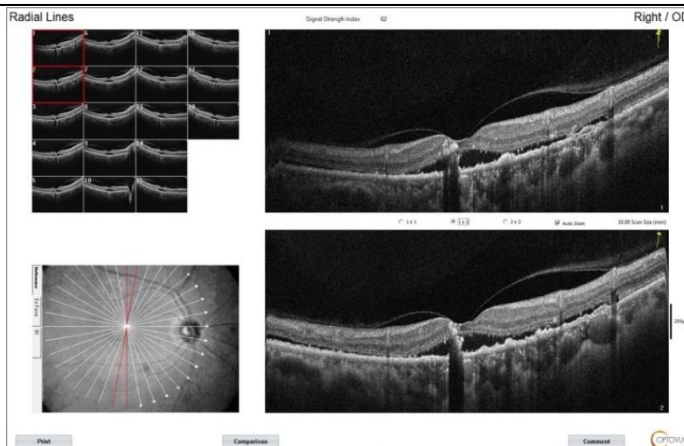


Fig 5: OCT image post 3rd dose of anti-VEGF showed vitreomacular adhesion, irregular RPE and persistent SRF with shaggy elongated photoreceptors.

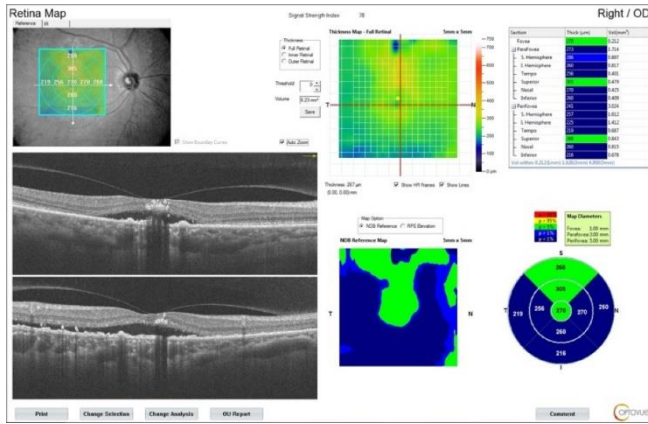


Fig 6: Persistent SRF with CFT was 270 microns is seen with altered RPE and multiple hyperreflectivity spots in inner retinal layers

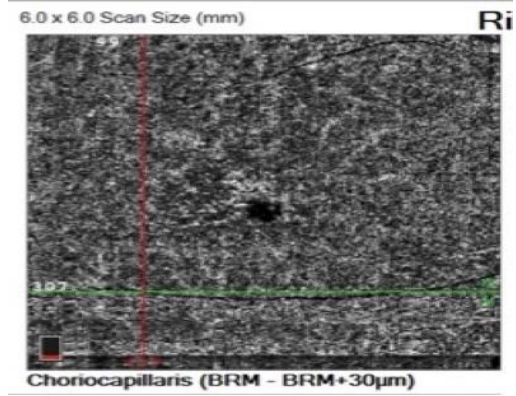


Fig 7: CNVM complex seems to have regressed in size as compared to the first visit OCTA

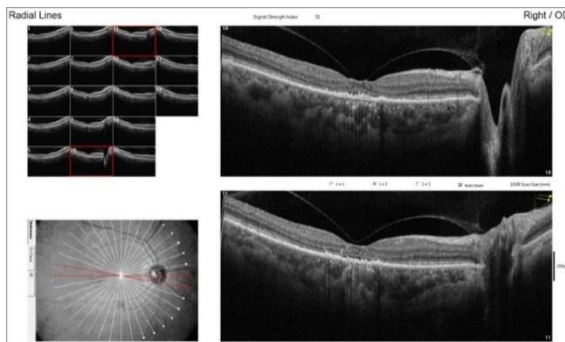


Fig 8: Near-total resolution of SRF seen with irregularity in photoreceptor layer.

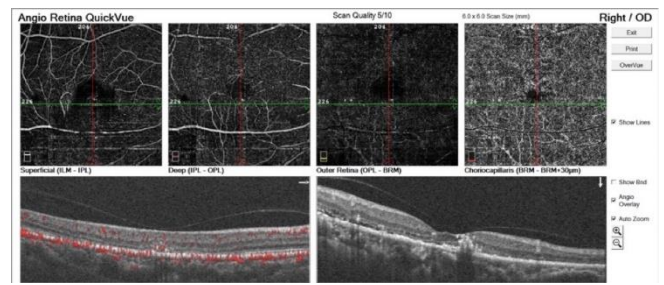


Image 9: OCTA shows no active CNVM complex.

Discussion:

Choroidal neovascularization (CNV) is an important complication of chronic central serous chorioretinopathy (CSC). The development of CNV is one of the major causes of reduced vision seen during long-term follow-up of patients with CSC. The prevalence of CNV secondary to CSC ranges from 2–15.6 per cent [1,2]

The detection of CNV in patients with CSC can be more challenging than the diagnosis of idiopathic CNV, because of the diffuse decompensation and abnormalities of the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) layer seen in CSC [3,4,5] OCT angiography allows quick, non-invasive detection of CNVM and is claimed to be as sensitive as FA in detecting CNVM in CCSC eyes [6]. Several studies have demonstrated the superiority of OCTA over other imaging

techniques in detecting CNVM in CCSC eyes [7,8,9,10,11].

Several treatments for CNVM secondary to CSCR have been reported such as PDT, intravitreal injections or a combination of both. Intravitreal injections alone can cause a significant reduction in foveal thickness with regression of CNVM [12,13].

In our case, we did not find a significant reduction of the SRF despite intravitreal injections. The patient’s systemic diagnosis of Scleroderma could be the reason for the development of sick RPE syndrome or chronic CSCR and non-resolution of the subretinal fluid to intravitreal injections alone. Ocular findings in patients with scleroderma have been described by Gomes et al [14]. The retinal findings described in the article are retinal microvascular abnormalities,

drusen, central retinal vein occlusion, chorio-retinal scar and congenital hypertrophy of the RPE. CSCR was not mentioned as a retinal finding in their study.

One case report of a patient with scleroderma developing CSCR was published by Masako Taga et al where they concluded that damage to the retinal pigment epithelium secondary to the vascular lesion at the choroidal level plays a causative role in CSR. The findings in their case suggested that the deposition of immune complex in choroidal tissues as well as the gastrointestinal tract caused hyperpermeability of choroidal vessels and led to the development of CSC and the treatment of the systemic condition helped improve the CSCR despite a continuation of the systemic corticosteroids, which are a known causative factor in the non-resolution of CSCR^[15]

In our case report, we found that the patient had significant improvement in vision and resolution of SRF after she was diagnosed and managed for scleroderma. There could be two possible

explanations for the resolution of macular oedema; the first is the total cessation of triamcinolone injections to the scalp for the alopecia and the second contribution could be the initiation of MTX to treat the scleroderma. There have been studies that have shown the efficacy of MTX in chronic CSCR however a randomized control trial is warranted to better understand the effects of MTX in such patients.[16,17] The purpose of this case report is to highlight the importance of a comprehensive evaluation in patients with chronic non-resolving CSCR and, if necessary, referral of such patients to physicians for systemic evaluation to rule out any other systemic disease that could be contributing to the ocular pathology. Scleroderma, though rare, should be considered in the differential diagnosis of systemic diseases causing chronic CSCR to help early management of such patients and prevent the development of sight-threatening complications such as CNVM.

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A tale of Stage 4B to Stage 5 ROP in 10 days: a case report

Ronel Soibam

Introduction

Retinopathy of prematurity (ROP) is one of the most common causes of preventable blindness in children worldwide. It is a severe vasoproliferative vitreoretinal disorder seen in premature infants and is characterized by anomalous vascularization at the confluence of the vascular and avascular retina. Most of these cases resolve spontaneously but some cases show rapid progression of the disease. Patients with severe progressive partial tractional retinal detachment (Stage 4 ROP) and total tractional retinal detachment (Stage 5 ROP) require urgent surgery to prevent poor visual outcome. (1–3) Preferred surgical approach in these babies is simultaneous bilateral vitrectomy as both eyes can be treated in a single sitting under general anesthesia. (4, 5) We report here a case which showed an acute progression from Stage 4 ROP to stage 5 ROP in a short span of 10 days.

Case report

A female baby with gestational age of 27 weeks and birth weight of 720 g presented to us at postmenstrual age (PMA) of 39 weeks and at a weight of 2010 g. The baby had respiratory distress and hyperbilirubinemia after birth. She was treated with oxygen therapy for 20 days and was admitted in neonatal intensive care unit for 90 days after birth. At presentation the baby had stage 4B ROP in both the eyes. After extensive discussion with the parents about the risks and benefits of surgical treatment, they consented to the treatment of OD first. So, lens sparing vitrectomy and one-third dose intravitreal ranibizumab under general anesthesia was planned for OD (Fig.1a). On the post-operative day 1 and day 7, OD retina appeared to be settling (Fig1b). For OS vitrectomy with one-third dose intravitreal ranibizumab under general anesthesia was planned (Fig.2a). The baby developed upper respiratory tract infection and OS surgery was deferred. The baby reported after 10 days, OD retina appeared to be settling but in OS the ROP progressed from stage 4B to stage 5

(Fig.2b). The baby then underwent vitrectomy with lensectomy and one-third dose intravitreal ranibizumab under general anesthesia for OS (Fig.2c). At day 1, week 1, month 1 and month 2 the retina appeared to be settling in both eyes (Fig.2d).

Discussion

ROP is a blinding disease of preterm low birth weight babies. It can rapidly progress from stage of partial retinal detachment to total retinal detachment in a span of few weeks. If one eye is operated at a time, the other eye is at risk of progression and poor visual outcome. (3) Also, If both the eyes are operated separately the baby will require administration of general anesthesia twice. Since these preterm infants suffer from multiple systemic comorbidities, administration of general anesthesia twice will increase mortality. (6) van der Griend et al have reported that the risk of general anesthesia related mortality in children and preterm infants is as high as 1 in 10,000.

To overcome this obstacle a new approach, immediate sequential bilateral vitreoretinal surgery has been suggested. (5,7) In this approach vitreoretinal surgeries are performed in both eyes under the same general anesthesia session. (4) The advantages of this approach are that only one time administration of general anesthesia is required and the second eye is operated without delay. This surgical approach was based on the concept of sequential bilateral cataract surgery which has been performed in pediatric cataract babies for the past many years. (8) The only disadvantage of this approach is development of endophthalmitis in both eyes.

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Patients undergoing pars plana vitrectomy have 0.03%–0.08% risk of developing endophthalmitis but endophthalmitis after vitrectomy for ROP has not been reported in the literature. Also Yonekawa et al have documented that the risk of post vitrectomy bilateral endophthalmitis is 0.0009%–0.0064%. (4) The risk of endophthalmitis can be reduced and the safety margin can be increased if second eye of the baby is operated using fresh set of

instruments and rescrubbing by the entire surgical team. Literature review also shows that the risk of endophthalmitis after bilateral intravitreal injection and bilateral cataract surgery is comparable to one eye surgery. (8,9) The advantages of performing bilateral vitreoretinal simultaneous bilateral vitreoretinal surgery in ROP babies far outweigh the disadvantages.

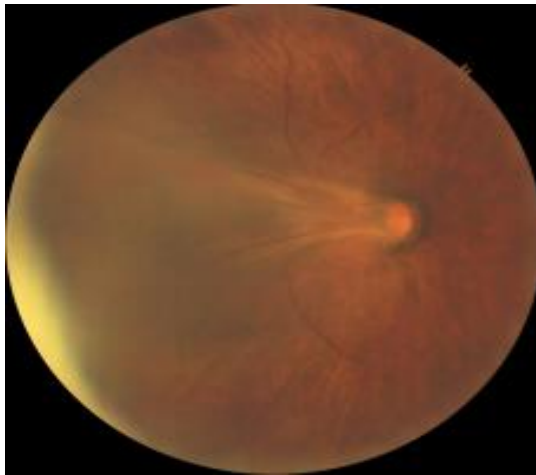


Fig.1a. Pre-Operative fundus photograph of right eye showing Stage 4B ROP



Fig.1b. Post Operative fundus photograph

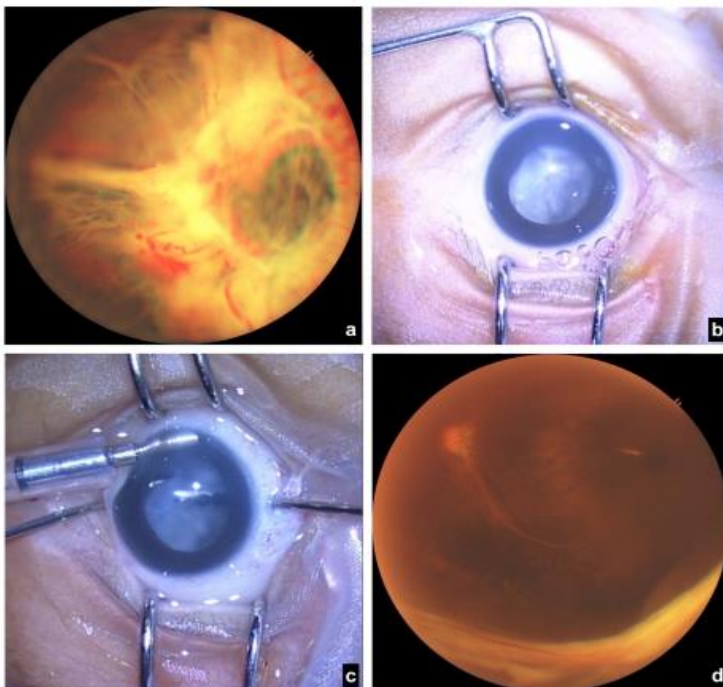


Fig. 2 (left)

(a) Fundus photograph of the left eye at presentation showing stage 4B ROP.

(b) Operation room photograph of the left eye showing stage 5 ROP.

(c) Intraoperative photograph showing membrane dissection using vitreous forceps and scissors.

(d) 1 month postoperative fundus photograph showing well settled retina.

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- * Purite is a brand of Stabilised Oxylchloro Complex, a disappearing oxidative preservative that breaks down into sodium chloride and water when exposed to light
- 1. Aldrich DS, Bach CM, Brown W, Chambers W, Fellman J, Hunt D, et al. Ophthalmic Preparations. Vol. 39(5) (Sept.–Oct. 2013)
- 2. Allergan: Data on File (Quality control report)
- 3. Allergan: Data on File (Manufacturers packaging report)

Abbreviated Prescribing Information

AmplinakTM contains Nepafenac 0.1%, w/v. **Indication:** AmplinakTM ophthalmic suspension is indicated for the treatment of pain and inflammation associated with cataract surgery. **Dosage and administration:** One drop of AmplinakTM ophthalmic suspension should be applied to the affected eye three-times-daily beginning 1 day prior to cataract surgery, continue the day of surgery and through the first 2 weeks of the postoperative period. **Contraindication:** AmplinakTM is contraindicated in patients with previously demonstrated hypersensitivity to any of the ingredients in the formula or to other NSAID. **Adverse Reactions:** The most frequently reported ocular adverse reactions following cataract surgery were capsular opacity, decreased visual acuity, foreign body sensation, increased intraocular pressure, and sticky sensation. These reactions occurred in approximately 5 to 10% of patients. Other ocular adverse reactions occurring at an incidence of approximately 1 to 5% including conjunctival edema, corneal edema, dry eye, lid margin crusting, ocular discomfort, ocular hyperemia, ocular pain, ocular pruritus, photophobia, tearing and vitreous detachment. **Warnings and precautions:** For topical ophthalmic use only, not for injection. **Pregnancy:** Pregnancy category C. There are no adequate and well-controlled studies in pregnant women. AmplinakTM should be used during pregnancy only if the potential benefit justifies the potential risk to the fetus. **Storage:** Store AmplinakTM Ophthalmic Suspension below 30.0 C. Protect from sunlight. Show supplied; AmplinakTM Ophthalmic Suspension is supplied in 5 mL dropped bottles



Frequent **Ocular Discomfort** can be a sign of **Ocular Dryness**

For patients with **Ocular Dryness**

opt for
optive[®]
...Science In Every Drop
Right From The Start



**Works from inside the epithelial cells &
improves Ocular Surface damage^{1,2}**

For any Allergan product or disease related query, please write to medinfo.india@allergan.com

Abridged Prescribing Information:

Optive® is a lubricant eye drop consisting of Sodium Carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) 0.5%, mild preservative P-URTE along with Glycerin, Ethylnal, Levocarnitine, Boric acid and some essential Calcium and Magnesium salts. **Indications:** For temporary relief of burning, irritation and discomfort due to dryness of the eye or exposure to wind or sun. Also, may be used as a protectant against further irritation. **CONTRAINDICATIONS:** Optive® is contraindicated in patients with hypersensitivity to any ingredients in this product. **WARNINGS AND PRECAUTIONS:** To avoid contamination or possible eye injury, do not touch tip of the bottle or vial to any surface and avoid contact with the eye. Recap after use. Do not use if OPTIVE® packaging shows evidence of tampering. Do not use if solution changes color or becomes cloudy. Discontinue use of OPTIVE® and consult a doctor if you experience eye pain, changes in vision, continued redness, or irritation of the eye, or if the condition worsens. Use before the expiration date marked on the container. **Side effects:** Eye stinging, burning, irritation or itching, excessive tearing, eye redness, sensitivity to light and dry eyes (lack of effect). **Dosage:** 1 or 2 drops in the affected eye(s) as needed. **Packaging:** Supplied in 5ml (Physician's sample) and 10ml (Sales pack) plastic dropper bottles.

References:

1. Comparison of Artificial Tears of Optive® and Systane® In Corneal Epithelial Cell Plumping Mark McDermott, Keping Xu, Presented at 180th Annual Meeting of the Association of Research in Vision and Ophthalmology (ARVO): April 27 May 1, 2008, Fort Lauderdale, FL.

2. M Guillon, C. Maissa, Evaluation of the effects on conjunctival tissues of Optive eye drops over one month usage, Contact lens & Anterior Eye 33(2010) 93-99.



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In the treatment of **Bacterial Conjunctivitis**

ZYMAXID™

Gatifloxacin 0.5%

a class **Z** Ocular Surface Security*



Lower Resistance^{1,2}



Faster speed of kill of bacteria⁴



Ocular surface Security³



Flexible BD dosing⁵



*Allergan coined terminology

1. Hedlin P et al. Poster Presented at Annual Meeting of the Association for Research in Vision and Ophthalmology (ARVO): April 25-29, 2004

2. AK Reddy, P Garg, MR Alam, U Gopinathan, S Sharma and S Krishniah, Comparison of in vitro susceptibilities of Gram-positive cocci isolated from ocular infections against the second and fourth generation quinolones at a tertiary eye care centre in South India, Eye (2010) 24, 170-174

3. Allergan: Data on file

4. Callagan MC, Novosad BD, Ramadan RT, Wiskur B and Moyer AL, Rate of Bacterial Eradication by Ophthalmic Solutions of Fourth-Generation Fluoroquinolones, Adv Ther (2009) 26(4):447-454

5. Heller et al, Gatifloxacin 0.5% Administered Twice Daily for the Treatment of Acute Bacterial Conjunctivitis in Patients One Year of Age or Older, Journal Of Ocular Pharmacology and Therapeutics Volume 00, Number 00, 2014

Abridged Prescribing Information:

INDICATION: ZYMAXID™ (gatifloxacin ophthalmic solution) 0.5% is a topical fluoroquinolone anti-infective indicated for the treatment of bacterial conjunctivitis caused by susceptible strains of the following organisms: *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, *Streptococcus mitis* group, *Streptococcus oralis*,* and *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. *Efficacy for this organism was studied in fewer than 10 infections. **DOSAGE AND ADMINISTRATION:** Patients 1 year of age or older: Instill 1 drop every 2 hours in the affected eye(s) while awake, up to 8 times on day 1. Instill 1 drop 2 to 4 times daily in the affected eye(s) while awake on days 2 through 7. **IMPORTANT SAFETY INFORMATION: WARNINGS AND PRECAUTIONS:** ZYMAXID™ solution should not be introduced directly into the anterior chamber of the eye. As with other anti-infectives, prolonged use of ZYMAXID™ may result in overgrowth of non-susceptible organisms, including fungi. If super infection occurs, discontinue use and institute alternative therapy. Patients should be advised not to wear contact lenses if they have signs and symptoms of bacterial conjunctivitis or during the course of therapy with ZYMAXID™. **PREGNANCY:** Because there are no adequate and well-controlled studies in pregnant women, ZYMAXID™ solution should be used during pregnancy only if the potential benefit justifies the risk to the fetus. **NURSING MOTHERS:** It is not known whether this drug is excreted in human milk. Because many drugs are excreted in human milk, caution should be exercised when ZYMAXID™ is administered to a nursing woman. **PEDIATRIC USE:** The safety and effectiveness of ZYMAXID™ in infants below one year of age have not been established. ZYMAXID™ has been demonstrated in clinical trials to be safe and effective for the treatment of bacterial conjunctivitis in pediatric patients one year or older. **GERIATRIC USE:** No overall differences in safety or effectiveness have been observed between elderly and younger patients. **ADVERSE REACTIONS:** ZYMAXID™ The most frequently reported adverse reactions occurring in ≥ 1% of patients in the gatifloxacin study population (N=717) were: worsening of the conjunctivitis, eye irritation, dysgeusia, and eye pain. Additional adverse events reported with other formulations of gatifloxacin ophthalmic solution include chemosis, conjunctival hemorrhage, dry eye, eye discharge, eyelid edema, headache, increased lacrimation, keratitis, papillary conjunctivitis, and reduced visual acuity. Note- to representative: Please provide full prescribing information when presenting this material. **Clinical Pharmacology:** Mechanism Of Action: Gatifloxacin is an 8-methoxy fluoroquinolone with a 3-methylpiperazinyl substituent at C7. The antibacterial action of gatifloxacin results from inhibition of DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV. DNA gyrase is an essential enzyme that is involved in the replication, transcription and repair of bacterial DNA. Topoisomerase IV is an enzyme known to play a key role in the partitioning of the chromosomal DNA during bacterial cell division. The mechanism of action of uroquinolones including gatifloxacin is different from that of aminoglycoside, macrolide and tetracycline antibiotics. Therefore, gatifloxacin may be active against pathogens that are resistant to these antibiotics and these antibiotics may be active against pathogens that are resistant gatifloxacin. There is no cross-resistance between gatifloxacin and the aforementioned classes of antibiotics. Cross resistance has been observed between systemic gatifloxacin and some other uroquinolones. **How Supplied:** Zymaxid™ is supplied sterile in a 5 mL LDPE bottle. **ADVERSE REACTIONS:** ZYMAXID™ The most frequently reported adverse reactions occurring in ≥ 1% of patients in the gatifloxacin study population (N=717) were: worsening of the conjunctivitis, eye irritation, dysgeusia, and eye pain. Additional adverse events reported with other formulations of gatifloxacin ophthalmic solution include chemosis, conjunctival hemorrhage, dry eye, eye discharge, eyelid edema,