Subconjunctival corticosteroid injection for the treatment of non-necrotising anterior scleritis

Scleritis commonly is a recurrent disease that requires long term immunosuppressive treatment that can be associated with significant adverse effects.1–3 Although topical and peri-ocular steroids are accepted therapeutic options for treatment of scleritis, subconjunctival administration of depot corticosteroids has been considered unsafe owing to the risk of scleral thinning and perforation.1–3 Recently, this has been challenged by reports describing the safe and effective use of subconjunctival depot steroid injections in patients with non-necrotising scleritis.4–7 Based on these reports we reviewed our experience using subconjunctival corticosteroid injections (SCI) in the management of non-infectious, non-necrotising anterior scleritis.

Case reports

A retrospective, non-comparative review of the clinical records of patients with scleritis evaluated at the National Eye Institute was performed and four patients treated with SCI were identified. Subconjunctival triamcinolone acetonide (Kenalog 40 mg/ml, Westwood Squibb Pharmaceuticals, Buffalo, NY, USA) (2–12 mg per injection) was given to an area of active scleritis through a 30 gauge needle following topical anaesthesia in one quadrant of the eye at one time. The initial indication for SCI in all cases was an unilaterally active non-necrotising scleritis with adverse effects from systemic immunosuppressive therapy in patients with no known history of ocular hypertension associated with steroids and no underlying disease requiring additional systemic immunosuppressive therapy. Patients were evaluated within 1–2 weeks after injection and, 2–4 weeks thereafter. Mean follow up time was 15.75 (SD 7.5) months (range 5–22 months).

In all cases the scleral inflammation was controlled within 2–9 days of SCI without a concurrent increase in systemic immunosuppression. Although effective, each patient subsequently required additional injections because of recurrent disease activity in the treated or the fellow eye within an average time of 7.4 months. However, with one exception, all recurrences developed in a previously untreated quadrant of the eye. Only one patient showed a recurrence of active scleritis in a previously treated quadrant 21 months following the initial SCI. The maximum number of injections given in one eye was four. Following the initiation of the SCI each patient’s prednisone dose was tapered by >50% over an average of 9 months. Complications included subconjunctival haemorrhage and transient elevation in IOP that was managed with topical antiglaucoma medications and systemic acetazolamide (table 1). No patient showed enhanced scleral thinning or progression to necrotising scleritis.

Comment

Approximately 37% of patients with scleritis have associated systemic diseases.8 A seminal review of scleritis cases showed that 26.1% of patients with scleritis require systemic immunosuppressive therapy and, of these, 37.5% experience a treatment complication.9 Although associated with cataract and increased intraocular pressure, local steroid therapy offers the benefit of anti-inflammatory control without the side effects of systemic immunosuppressive drugs. However, because of the potential risk of scleral thinning and perforation subconjunctival steroid injections have been avoided for the treatment of scleritis.

Recently, two retrospective studies demonstrated rapid clinical improvement with SCI with no evidence of scleral thinning or serious side effects in non-necrotising scleritis during follow up extending to 23 years.10–11 However, recurrences occurred in both studies requiring repeated injections. In a prospective study, patients with recalcitrant scleritis were able to discontinue all immunosuppressive therapy after treatment with SCI.

Although SCIs were effective in rapidly controlling the active scleritis in our series, two patients developed steroid response and all developed recurrent scleritis requiring repeated injections. The major benefit of the SCI in this series was that they facilitated >50% reduction in each patient’s prednisone dose which could not be achieved or sustained before their use. This study confirms the existing literature that SCI may be an effective adjunct for the treatment of active non-necrotising anterior scleritis.

**Table 1** Clinical characteristics, treatment regimens, and adverse events with subconjunctival steroid injection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patient no</th>
<th>Scleritis type</th>
<th>Associated disease</th>
<th>Systemic treatment before SCI</th>
<th>Side effects from systemic treatment</th>
<th>Prednisone dose followed by relapse before SCI (mg)</th>
<th>Duration of scleritis before SCI (months)</th>
<th>Systemic treatment after SCI (first follow up)</th>
<th>Follow up (months)</th>
<th>Side effects from SCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1, 57, F</td>
<td>Dorsal anterior both eyes</td>
<td>Mixed connective tissue disease (inactive)</td>
<td>Pred 15 mg MTX 12.5 mg</td>
<td>Osteoporosis, Weight gain</td>
<td>7.5 mg 63</td>
<td>None 22</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2, 41, M</td>
<td>Diffuse anterior both eyes</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Pred 9 mg MMF 2 g</td>
<td>Pneumonia</td>
<td>9 mg 14</td>
<td>Pred 4 mg MMF 2 g 19</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3, 56, F</td>
<td>Diffuse posterior both eyes</td>
<td>Sjogren’s syndrome (inactive)</td>
<td>Pred 20 mg MTX 20 mg</td>
<td>Weight gain, Mysopathy, Recurrent UTI, GERD</td>
<td>15 mg 36</td>
<td>Pred 5 mg MTX 25 mg 17</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4, 11, M</td>
<td>Diffuse anterior both eyes + Posterior left eye</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Pred 50 mg CLE 150 mg</td>
<td>Weight gain, Persistent headache</td>
<td>50 mg 11</td>
<td>Pred 10 mg 5</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SCI, subconjunctival injection of triamcinolone acetonide; CsA, cyclosporine; MMF, mycophenolate mofetil; Pred, prednisone; UTI, urinary tract infection; GERD, gastrooesophageal reflux disease.

Doses in the table indicate daily oral dose for Prednisone and CsA and weekly dose for methotrexate.

*The patient was HLAB27* positive but did not have any associated systemic manifestations.
scleritis in appropriately selected patients and that this therapy is not unequivocally associated with the risk of scleral thinning or perforation. Local treatment with steroid injections may help reduce potential side effects from systemic therapy in patients with active scleritis in the absence of active systemic disease. As with all retrospective small case series our results should be interpreted with caution.

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References

Visual field defect in association with chiasmal migration of intraocular silicone oil
Silicone oil is used as a long term intraocular tamponade in vitreoretinal surgery for conditions such as rhegmatogenous retinal detachments. Complications such as silicone oil associated keratopathy, cataract formation, or emulsification with secondary glaucoma have been reported.

We report the unusual case of intracranial silicone oil migration with subsequent visual field defect in the fellow eye and the results of neurosurgical intervention.

Case report
A 66 year old male patient had undergone cataract surgery and lens implantation on both eyes 20 months earlier. Six months after cataract surgery a retinal detachment was seen in the left eye which was first treated with pars plana vitrectomy and gas tamponade (15% C2F6). After a period of 4 months, a retinal detachment occurred and silicone oil (Acri.Sil-ol 5000, 5000 cps, Acri.Tec, Hennigsdorf, Germany) was injected. One month later, a second retinal detachment occurred in the right eye which was treated similarly.

Figure 1 (A) Temporal hemianopia of the right eye. Visual acuity was 20/20. (B) The optic disc of the left eye shows atrophy and glaucomatous damage, the cup-disc ratio is 1.0. Note the reflex on the retinal surface, caused by the silicone oil tamponade. (C) Axial T1 weighted MRI scans demonstrate intraocular silicone oil (S) which is hyperintensive compared to the normal vitreous (V). Note the hyperintensive signal in the area of the intracranial portion of the optic nerve and the chiasm (arrow). (D) T2 weighted scans demonstrate hypointensive signals in the silicone filled eye (S) as well as in the area of the optic nerve and chiasm.

Figure 2 (A) Left optic nerve (ON) before incision. Arrows point at translucent thinned perineural sheath with silicone oil beneath. OC, entrance to optic canal; ICA, internal carotid artery. (B) Silicone oil (arrow) evading from left optic nerve after incision of perineural sheath. (C) View into left optic nerve after complete removal of the silicone oil. The nerve has been hollowed out by the oil with just thin nerve walls remaining. (D) After intracranial surgery, a regression of the visual field defect was observed.
was used as a permanent tamponade. Postoperative visual acuity was 20/300 in the left eye. Twelve months later, the patient was referred to our institution for further evaluation of a temporal hemianopia of sudden onset in the right eye (fig 1A) and for treatment of elevated intraocular pressure in the left eye. At presentation, visual acuity was 20/20 in the right eye and light perception in the left eye. Intraocular pressure was in a normal range in the right eye and elevated to 35 mm Hg in the left eye despite local antiglaucoma monotherapy using latanoprost (Xalatan). Emulsified silicone oil was detected in the anterior chamber angle during gonioscopy of the left eye. Funduscopic revealed a glaucomatous excavation and atrophy of the optic nerve in the left eye with a cup-disc ratio of 1.0 (fig 1B); the retina was attached, with silicone oil filling of the globe being incomplete. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the brain was then performed for further evaluation. T1 weighted MRI scan revealed a hyperintensive signal in the left vitreous cavity characteristic for silicone oil. An identical hyperintensive signal was also observed in the left optic nerve and the left half of the optic chiasm (fig 1C); in contrast, in T2 weighted sections the silicone oil located in the vitreous system and in the left vitreous cavity appeared hypointensive (fig 1D). In order to prevent a further progression of the visual field defect of the right eye, a decompression of the optic nerve seemed prudent. After informed consent, the patient underwent left subfrontal craniotomy and the left optic nerve and the optic chiasm were explored. No oil was found in the subarachnoid space or in the brain tissue. Therefore, the left optic nerve at the transition to the optic chiasma was slit open and the intracranial and intraneural silicone oil was removed by smooth suction and irrigation. The nerve was completely hollowed out by the oil with only thin perineural structures remaining (fig 2A, B, C). At the end the small opening in the nerve was covered with a collagen fleece coated with fibrin glue (TachoComb H, Nycomed Pharma GmbH, Unterschleissheim, Germany). The neurosurgical intervention was performed without intraoperative or postoperative complications. In addition, a re-vitrectomy with gas tamponade was performed to remove the silicone oil from the vitreous cavity of the left eye. One month later, a regression of the visual field defect in the right eye was observed (fig 2D) and best corrected visual acuity was 20/32. Intraocular pressure in the left eye was normal without treatment after surgery.

Comment

This case indicates that silicone oil can migrate intracranially under certain, yet unknown, conditions. Referring to the literature, there is only one case by Eller and co-authors describing the intracranial migration of silicone oil in a patient with AIDS who had undergone vitrectomy with silicone oil tamponade for treatment of retinal detachment secondary to cytomegalovirus infection of the retina. As in our patient, there was a coincidence of uncontrolled high intraocular pressure associated with atrophy and glaucomatous damage of the optic nerve. It seems likely that elevated intraocular pressure and optic nerve atrophy allowed intracranial silicone oil to migrate intracranially, although a definite conclusion cannot be drawn from two case reports. However, a histopathological study previously demonstrated silicone cavities posterior to the lamina cribrosa in an silicone filled eye with glaucomatous nerve damage. The case presented in this report is unique because of the additional affection of the fellow eye as a result of optic nerve compression caused by silicone oil within the optic nerve sheath and its close proximity to the chiasm and the visual field defect after neurosurgical intervention.

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References

Figure 1  (A) Fundus photograph of the left eye showing an elliptical area of congenital retinal pigment epithelial (RPE) lesion temporal to the foveola. The lesion is depigmented in the nasal aspect with scalloped hypopigmentation temporally. (B) Normal RPE cells, with prominent apical melanosomes and basal nuclei. Normal Bruch's membrane (B) and chorocapillaris (haematoxylin and eosin ×330). (C) Hypertrophic, thickened retinal pigment epithelial cells from pigmented areas of CHRPE. These are thickened, and packed with melanosomes, in both apical and basal areas (haematoxylin and eosin, ×500). (D) Atrophic, thinned RPE cells from depigmented areas of CHRPE lesion. Almost no melanosomes remain in these cells (haematoxylin and eosin, ×500). (E) Electron micrograph of a retinal pigment epithelial cells from pigmented areas of CHRPE. Nuclei are both apical and basal. Melanosomes are dense and rounded. Bruch's membrane is normal (electron microscopy ×2000). (F) Electron microscopy from the depigmented area of the CHRPE. RPE cells are atrophic and vacuolated, with very few small melanosomes. Bruch's membrane consists of the RPE basement membrane (arrow), a lumen thickened inner collagenous layer (below) extending to the elastic layer (mid-dark layer). Note the RPE cell (*) within the outer collagenous layer of Bruch's membrane. The choriocapillaris (C) is separated from this by a thickened lumen outer collagenous layer (right), but choriocapillaris (and endothelial cell basement membrane) are missing from most areas (central and left) (electron microscopy ×2000).
Table 1  Summary of previously published histopathological findings in congenital hypertrophy of retinal pigment epithelium (CHRPE)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Age (years)</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>RPE cells</th>
<th>Pigment granules</th>
<th>Shape</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kurz²</td>
<td>1962</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Solitary</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Increased Spherical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buettner³</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>62, 23</td>
<td>Solitary</td>
<td>Hypertrophy –</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>Spherical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shields¹</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Grouped</td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Increased Ellipsoid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wirz²</td>
<td>1982</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Solitary</td>
<td>Hypertrophy Hyperplasia</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Increased Spherical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Champion⁷</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>Solitary</td>
<td>Hypertrophy –</td>
<td>Macro-melanosomes</td>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>Spherical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lloyd⁴</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>Solitary</td>
<td>Hyperplasia</td>
<td>Macro-melanosomes</td>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>Spherical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traboulsi¹⁰</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>FAP</td>
<td>Hyperplasia</td>
<td>Hyperplasia</td>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>Spherical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parker¹¹</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>37, 46</td>
<td>FAP</td>
<td>Hyperplasia –</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kasner¹²</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>FAP</td>
<td>Hyperplasia –</td>
<td>Hyperplasia</td>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>Spherical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regillo¹³</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Grouped</td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Increased Ellipsoid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present case</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>Solitary</td>
<td>Hyperplasia Atrophy</td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>Spherical</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FAP, familial adenomatous polyposis with or without extracolonic manifestations (Gardner’s syndrome).

### Congenital hypertrophy of retinal pigment epithelium: a clinicopathological case report

Congenital hypertrophy of retinal pigment epithelium (CHRPE) is a peculiar congenital anomaly of the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) diagnosed by its characteristic ophthalmoscopic appearance. It is now realised that sporadic CHRPE is distinct from the similar appearing retinal lesions described in patients with Gardner’s syndrome. We recently encountered an eye with a choroidal melanoma that also had a distinct area of solitary CHRPE with lacunae formation. This provided us with a unique opportunity to correlate clinical and histopathological features of a solitary CHRPE.

### Case report

A 62 year old woman with a large cilio-choroidal melanoma was observed to have an elliptical retinal pigment epithelial lesion about 1 mm temporal to the foveola (fig 1A). The lesion was about 3 mm x 2 mm in basal dimension and appeared flat. The lesion was depigmented in the nasal aspect with scalloped hypopigmentation temporally. The eye was enucleated and processed routinely for histological examination.

On histopathological evaluation, cilio-choroidal melanoma was confirmed. In areas just outside the CHRPE lesion, the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) was normal (fig 1B). The pathology of the “CHRPE” lesion varied across the lesion, correlating with the level of pigmentation. Highly pigmented temporal areas showed hypertrophic RPE cells with loss of nuclear basal polarity and variable numbers melanosomes (fig 1C). By contrast, RPE cells were thinned and atrophic in depigmented areas (fig 1D), with a marked reduction in (or loss of) melanosomes and decreased melanosome size. Between these areas, “transitional zones” showed variable changes. Electron microscopy confirmed that, in pigmented areas of CHRPE, hypertrophic RPE cells had dense rounded intact melanosomes, but little or no lipofuscin (fig 1E). In these areas, Bruch’s membrane was normal. Depigmented areas had thin atrophic RPE cells, with cytoplasmic vacuoles and very few, much smaller melanosomes (fig 1F). Here, Bruch’s membrane thickening (of the inner and outer collagenous layers) was most marked, with occasional insertion of RPE cells through the RPE basement membrane into the inner collagenous layer, but not beyond the elastic layer.

### Comment

Only few reports exist regarding the histopathological findings of CHRPE and its variants (table 1). In solitary CHRPE, hypertrophic RPE cells with hyperpigmentation have been reported. Additional findings have included presence of macromelanosomes and absence of lipofuscin. In contrast, the grouped CHRPE is composed of normal sized RPE cells with hyperpigmentation. The CHRPE-like lesions seen in Gardner’s syndrome show evidence of RPE hyperplasia and even hamartomatous changes in addition to RPE hypertrrophy and hyperpigmentation.

Our case shows many of the features previously described in CHRPE. Pathologically in our case, there appears to be gradation of changes from the pigmented areas to the non-pigmented areas. Depigmentation and atrophy of RPE cells, starting with fragmentation of melanosomes progresses to gradual loss of melanosomes and RPE atrophy. Both the fragmentation of melanosomes and eventual atrophy appear to correlate with increasing changes in Bruch’s membrane—namely, an increased thickness of the inner and outer collagenous layers, by electron lucent material may represent water, lipid or proteinaceous deposit. To our knowledge, this has not been reported previously, although review of an electron micrograph from the 23 year old patient of Buettner suggests that this feature may be present in a depigmented area of CHRPE.

A close inter-reaction between the functions of RPE cells and Bruch’s membrane is well recognised. It remains possible that the degeneration of RPE cells caused the changes in the Bruch’s membrane (“ancient” CHRPE). It is also possible that, in our patient, changes affecting Bruch’s membrane are non-specific and are unrelated to CHRPE.

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References

Finding malignant change in a necrotic choroidal melanocytoma: a clinical challenge
Melanocytic intraocular tumours can grow as to exceed their vascular supply, become necrotic, and induce inflammation. They present with atypical signs and become a diagnostic challenge. We present a case of a large melanocytic intraocular tumour that offered an atypical presentation, unexpected cytology, and finally diagnostic histopathology.

Case report
A 37 year old white woman presented with a painful right eye and vision loss. Examination showed no light perception, a relative afferent pupillary defect, a shallow anterior chamber, and an intraocular pressure of 58 mm Hg. Dense vitreous haemorrhage and tumour obscured her fundus.

Three dimensional ultrasonography revealed vitreous haemorrhage, a total retinal detachment, and a large choroidal mass (fig 1A, B). Computed tomography and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the orbits showed a 2 cm intraocular mass with a collar-button extension (arrow) consistent with a choroidal melanoma (fig 1C).

The patient participated in a discussion of the risks and benefits of treatment, found primary enucleation unacceptable, and preferred fine needle aspiration biopsy (FNAB) before treatment.

Cytology
Transvitreal FNAB showed small, well preserved, spindle-shaped, dendritic, and epithelioid cells with evenly distributed melanin pigment (fig 2A) and no evidence of malignancy. Both cytology and subsequent immunohistochemistry were consistent with melanocytoma.

Though a combination of topical glaucoma medications and oral prednisone decreased her ocular pain, the patient consented to enucleation.

Macroscopic examination
A large evenly pigmented choroidal mass measuring 12 mm in height and 17×18 mm in greatest dimension was noted. The tumour extended from the ciliary body to the optic disc.

Light microscopy
Extensive infarction of the tumour was present. The cell outlines revealed a tumour composed of uniform large and heavily pigmented cells with round, small central nuclei. Many of these cells were magnocellular and histopathologically consistent with melanocytoma. However, distinct cells with larger nuclei and prominent nuclei were present singly and in small clusters. In these areas, rare atypical mitoses were noted. These features were diagnostic of malignant transformation of a large melanocytoma (fig 2B). At 6 months post-enucleation there is no evidence of metastatic disease.

Figure 1 (A) B-scan ultrasonography demonstrated a large intraocular tumour with scleral thickening and retrobulbar oedema. There was almost no intrinsic vascularity noted within the tumour. No extracocular tumour extension was noted. (B) A-scan ultrasonography of the right eye showed relative low internal reflectivity. (C) MRI images it displayed low signal intensity. Note the small eccentric collar-button (arrow). There was no evidence of extracocular tumour extension.

Figure 2 (A) The cytological preparations from FNAB showed very small, pigmented dendritic and epithelioid cells with small dark oblong nuclei. No mitoses or necrosis was present. Some of the very deeply pigmented cells seen were melanophages. These cells were macrophage-like, there were no cells that were large enough or that had appropriate nuclear morphology to be called melanoma (original magnification ×100). (B) Histopathology of the enucleated eye showed a necrotic mass (left inset; original magnification ×100). Histopathology demonstrated spindle and small epithelioid melanoma cells (right inset; original magnification ×100) and a melanoma with a mitotic figure in the centre (arrow). These findings suggested malignant change (original magnification ×100).
Melanocytomas are darkly pigmented tumours that commonly arise at the optic nerve margin. They also occur in the iris, ciliary body, and the choroid. Though largely benign and stationary, melanocytomas can (albeit rarely) undergo malignant transformation.1

When this occurs, it can be difficult to differentiate between melanocytomas and malignant melanomas by ultrasonography or fluorescein angiography. Adenoma and adenocarcinoma of the retinal pigment epithelium should also be considered.

In this case, FNAB did not establish the diagnosis of a malignant melanocytoma and clearly demonstrates the potential dangers of relying on FNAB (alone) for the diagnosis in atypical and necrotic intraocular tumours. Foci of malignant change were missed, leading to the diagnosis of melanocytoma. Fortunately, enucleation was performed.

This case also demonstrates that melanocytomas can undergo necrosis resulting in atypical features such as opaque media, pain and inflammation. They can induce vaso-occlusive disease within the optic nerve, ischaemic necrosis of the tumour, ischaemic retinopathy, neovascular glaucoma, and melanocytic glaucoma.7 Since both necrotic melanocytomas and necrotic malignant uveal melanocytomas can (albeit rarely) undergo malignant transformation, it can detract the clinician’s ability to differentiate between these tumours.

Malignant change in a melanocytoma is a rare event. It is actually more common for a uveal melanoma to undergo spontaneous necrosis and present with intraocular inflammation, haemorrhage, secondary neovascularisation, and orbital inflammation. Such necrotising tumours have an increased incidence of penetration through the Bruch’s membrane, scleral invasion, and extrascleral extension.8 Clearly, large necrotic intraocular tumours can be a diagnostic challenge for both clinician and pathologist.

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References


Improvement after transvitreal limited arteriovenous crossing manipulation without vitrectomy for complicated branch retinal vein occlusion using 25 gauge instrumentation

Although arteriovenous adventitial sheathotomy (AAS) has been proposed as an alternative treatment for patients with branch retinal vein occlusion (BRVO) complicated by macular haemorrhage, persistent macular oedema after grid laser photocoagulation, and macular ischaemia, the inner retinal incision may increase the risk of retinal detachment and spontaneous vitreous haemorrhage.10 Han et al.11 recently proposed that incomplete separation of the common adventitial sheath without lysis may achieve comparable results. Thus, we propose transvitreal limited arteriovenous crossing manipulation (LAM) without vitrectomy as an alternative to AAS.

Case report

A 70 year old man with a medical history of hypertension, presented with BRVO of 14 weeks’ duration, visual acuity of 7/200, intreternal macular haemorrhages, macular oedema assessed by ocular coherence tomography, and capillary non-perfusion on fluorescein angiography (fig 1). After informed consent and institutional review board approval was obtained, the patient underwent LAM without vitrectomy using the 25 gauge transconjunctival standard vitrectomy system (MADLAB, Bausch & Lomb, St Louis, MO, USA). Next, the blunt, flexible extendable pick (MADLAB) was introduced into the vitreous, and, once extended, makes a slit in the internal limiting membrane approximately 1.5 mm next to the pathological arteriovenous crossing. Then, LAM was initiated by first lifting the proximal portion of the artery followed by the portion distal to the crossing. Then, the artery was lifted at the crossing site, stretching but not severing the common adventitial sheath. Visualisation of clot dislodgement and perfusion were noted. No vitrectomy was performed and no vitreous cutter was used during the procedure. There was no evidence of posterior vitreous detachment.

Figure 1 Preoperative fundus photography, fluorescein angiography, and optical coherence tomography. (A) Fundus photography of the left eye exhibiting severe intraretinal haemorrhage and macular oedema secondary to superotemporal secondary order branch retinal vein occlusion. Arrowhead denotes site of occlusion. The course of the vein is outlined by the white dots underneath and points towards 2 o’clock from the optic disc. (B) Fluorescein angiography of the left eye at 12 seconds exhibiting widespread blocked fluorescence secondary to haemorrhage, hyperfluorescence of the vessel wall, and extensive capillary dropout estimated at 10 disc diameters with vessel “pruning.” Arrowhead denotes site of occlusion. The course of the occluded vein is better outlined in this angiogram by the underlying white dots. (C) Fluorescein angiography of the left eye at 4 minutes exhibiting consistent capillary dropout, blocked fluorescence secondary to haemorrhage, and extensive leakage along capillary vessel walls. Arrowhead denotes site of occlusion. (D) Optical coherence tomography of the left eye exhibiting extensive macular oedema with large cystic spaces in the foveal area. Foveal thickness was calculated to be 512 μm.
At the 2 month postoperative visit, the patient’s visual acuity was 20/40. Fundus
photography and fluorescein angiography revealed markedly decreased intraretinal
haemorrhages and good macular perfusion, respectively. Macular thickness decreased
from 512 μm to 133 μm on optical coherence
tomography (fig 2). No cataract progression was noted and intraocular pressure remained
stable throughout the postoperative course. The patient has remained stable for over
12 months.

Comment
Our group has previously published a case report of 25 gauge AAS with vitrectomy
where improvement was noted in visual acuity, macular thickness (as measured by
optical coherence tomography), and refixation (as shown by scanning laser ophthalmo-
scopy).1 Han et al12 postulated that incomplete separation of the common adventitial sheath
may be an alternative to AAS. The LAM without vitrectomy procedure may provide a
minimally invasive way of clot dislodgment and reperfusion without need for large retinal
incisions near retinal vessels as with AAS.

Although this intervention may suggest benefit, it is certainly possible that the macular
oedema spontaneously resolved as a result of reperfusion from recanalisation. We are uncer-
tain as to which of these factors (LAM or recanalisation) resulted in significant improve-
ment. It is our belief that the reperfusion after the procedure was mainly responsible for the
dramatic clearing of haemorrhage and the resolution of the macular oedema. A prospec-
tive, randomised trial examining the potential

Figure 2 Postoperative fundus photography, fluorescein angiography, and optical coherence
tomography. (A) Fundus photography of the left eye exhibiting marked resolution of intraretinal
haemorrhage and macular oedema, particularly in the foveal region. Arrowhead denotes site of
previously complete occlusion. The course of the now ghost vessel is outlined by the white dots
underneath. (B) Fluorescein angiography of the left eye at 10 seconds exhibiting noticeably
decreased blocked fluorescence secondary to haemorrhage, continued hyperfluorescence of the
vessel wall, and extensive but decreased capillary dropout estimated at approximately 5 disc
 diameters. Persistent, but less severe, vessel “pruning” was also evident. Arrowhead denotes site of
previously complete occlusion. (C) Fluorescein angiography of the left eye at 6 minutes exhibiting
decreased capillary dropout, persistent blocked fluorescence secondary to haemorrhage, and
decreased leakage along capillary vessel walls. Decreased leakage is particularly noted in the
foveal region. Arrowhead denotes site of occlusion. The course of the occluded vein is outlined in
this angiogram by the underlying white dots. (D) Optical coherence tomography of the left eye
exhibiting markedly decreased macular oedema and the absence of cystic spaces. Foveal thickness
was calculated to be 133 μm.

benefits of 25 gauge without vitrectomy and 20 gauge AAS with vitrectomy procedures for
BRVO is warranted.

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“Ecstasy” induced immunosuppression and herpes zoster ophthalmicus

It is uncommon for younger patients to
develop herpes zoster ophthalmicus (HZO)
without underlying immunocompromise.

3,4-Methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA, “ecstasy”) is a widely abused psy-
chomotor stimulant shown to cause a transi-
ent immunosuppression.1,4 In this report, we
present the relation between MDMA induced
immune dysfunction and the development of
HZO in a previously healthy young male.

Case report
A 24 year old African-American male without
significant past medical history presented
with an eruptive, vesicular rash on his left
forehead and eyelid consistent with the
diagnosis of herpes zoster ophthalmicus (fig 1).
Although he reported using safe sexual practice and denied injecting drug
use, he admitted using an oral drug, ecstasy,
three times a day for 4 days before the
development of his symptoms. He tested
negative for HIV and underlining malignancy,
and slowly improved on intravenous aciclovir
during his admission.

Varicella zoster reactivation is a potential
complication of immunosuppression. Predis-
posing factors to reactivation include increasing age,
neoplastic diseases, HIV, immunosuppressive therapy, or debilitating systemic
disease.5 Since zoster in patients under 50 years old is uncommon, a search for pre-
disposing factors is indicated. It has been
shown, in short term studies, that ecstasy use results in immune suppression.6 Therefore,
we believe that our patient’s prolonged use of
ecstasy facilitated the development of HZO.

3,4-Methylenedioxymethamphetamine is a widely abused psychomotor stimulant with
behavioural effects similar to those elicited by amphetamines and hallucinogens. MDMA has
become a popular drug of abuse over the past
two decades.6 A study in 1988 found that 39%
of students on a college campus had admitted to having taken the drug at least once in the
previous year.7 Surveys have also shown a
steady increase in MDMA use in 8th, 10th, and
12th graders.8 MDMA produces a profound
euphoria, heightened feelings of empathy,
emotional warmth, and self acceptance.9
Adverse effects include hyperthermia, seizures,
cardiac arrhythmias, hepatotoxicity, and
many psychiatric disorders.10 There has been
an increase in reports of presumed ecstasy
related fatalities and severe adverse effects
such as aortic dissection and myocardial
infarction.11,12

Connor et al11,12 demonstrated that acute
MDMA administration produced a variety of
time dependent neurochemical, endocrine,
and immune alterations in rats. Their studies

2 Han DP, Bennett SR, Williams DF, et al. Arteriovenous crossing dissection without
separation of the retina vessels for treatment of branch retinal vein occlusion. Retina
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eathotomy to decompress branch retinal vein

4 Fujii SY, de Juan E Jr, Humayun MS. Improvements after sheathotomy for branch
retinal vein occlusion documented by optical
coherence tomography and scanning laser

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These changes in immune function were also and an increase in natural killer cell count. 1 hour after administration, there was a surgical parameters. They demonstrated that MDMA administered to humans at causes rapid changes in certain immunological parameters. They demonstrated that 1 hour after administration, there was a significant reduction in CD4 T cell count and an increase in natural killer cell count. These changes in immune function were also linked to increased cortisol concentration.

Comment
The studies discussed above provide evidence for the relation between MDMA and immune dysfunction. We have demonstrated a case where MDMA abuse led to the development of herpes zoster ophthalmicus. This relation has important implications for the examination of an atypical infectious process. Given the rising use of MDMA, especially among high school and college students, this case may help to increase awareness among the public regarding the potential risks associated with its use.

References

Reversible posterior leukoencephalopathy syndrome: a cause of temporary cortical blindness
Reversible posterior leukoencephalopathy (RPLS) describes a syndrome of headaches, confusion, seizures, and visual disturbances associated with transient characteristic lesions on neuroimaging, predominantly affecting the posterior region of the brain.

Case report
A 10 year old boy with B cell acute lymphoblastic leukaemia affecting his maxilla was commenced on chemotherapy with intravenous vincristine and cyclophosphamide, oral prednisolone and folic acid, together with intrathecal methotrexate, cytarabine, and hydrocortisone for central nervous system extension.

Ten days after the onset of chemotherapy he complained of sudden bilateral visual loss. On examination his visual acuity was perception of light in both eyes. His pupils were equal and reactive to light and funduscopy was normal; there was no other neurological deficit. His blood pressure was elevated at 150/102 mm Hg. Over the next 24 hours his speech and conscious state became disturbed, his Glasgow coma scale (GCS) score dropped to 7/15 and he developed increased tone and clonus on his left side. A computed tomography (CT) scan showed symmetrical areas of low density involving both occipital and parietal regions (fig 1). Cerebral arteriography revealed a normal intracranial circulation.

Nifedipine was prescribed to control the patient’s mean arterial blood pressure to approximately 90 mm Hg. The chemotherapy regimen was not changed because he was between courses. His GCS score and speech improved. Two weeks later, his visual acuity had improved to 6/12 in both eyes. A repeat MRI scan, 23 days after the first study, showed a dramatic improvement with slight residual signal change in the parieto-occipital region on T2 weighted images (fig 2). Nine months after the onset of symptoms, and having completed his chemotherapy, he maintains a visual acuity of 6/6 in the right eye and 6/9 in the left eye, with full visual fields and normal colour vision.

Comment
RPLS is characterised by altered mental status, headache, seizures, and visual disturbance, often occurring in patients receiving chemotherapy. Seventy six per cent of children with RPLS have at least three of these four signs.1 The most common visual abnormality is cortical blindness1; although the parieto-occipital region is principally affected, the syndrome may affect the frontal lobes, basal ganglia, brainstem, or cerebellum.2 While not completely understood, the cerebral oedema is thought to result from increased vascular permeability and cerebral hyperperfusion as a result of a combination of autoregulatory failure in the cerebral vessels and hypertension.3 This patient was treated with methotrexate and cytarabine, followed by intrathecal methotrexate and hydrocortisone in an attempt to reduce visual symptoms and brain swelling. The patient made a full recovery and was discharged after 5 weeks. Follow up 12 months after the presentation revealed no neurological deficit or visual abnormalities.

Figure 1  A 24 year old patient developed herpes zoster ophthalmicus after using the drug ‘ecstasy.’

Figure 2 Axial T2 weighted magnetic resonance imaging performed 2 months after the onset of symptoms, showing high signal intensity involving the white matter of both occipital lobes (arrows).

Figure 1 Axial T2 weighted magnetic resonance imaging performed 2 months after the onset of symptoms, showing high signal intensity involving the white matter of both occipital lobes (arrows).
both of which have been reported to cause RPLS. These drugs may have a direct cytotoxic effect on vascular endothelial cells, may induce and exacerbate hypertension and may lower seizure threshold. Intrathecal chemotherapy may cause cerebral vasospasm, contributing to cerebral vascular autoregulatory impairment. The parieto-occipital region may be preferentially involved because of less extensive sympathetic innervation of the posterior cerebral circulation compared to other intracranial arteries, which reduces the ability of an already impaired cerebral autoregulation to compensate.

This case illustrates that the neurological impairment from RPLS is substantially reversible with prompt treatment of the associated hypertension and the dose reduction or discontinuation of inciting drugs. It highlights the importance of the recognition of RPLS and the prompt start of appropriate treatment to prevent irreversible brain injury.

Mucopolysaccharidosis (MPS) are a group of hereditary storage diseases secondary to deficiencies of lysosomal enzymes. MPS type IV is known as Morquio syndrome. In “classic” or type A Morquio syndrome the deficient enzyme is N-acetylgalactosamine-6-sulphatase. Morquio syndrome has been associated with cataract, optic atrophy, tapetoretinal pigmentary degeneration, and corneal clouding. We report a case of type A Morquio syndrome with electron microscopic findings.

Case report

A 38 year old man was referred for progressive corneal haze following intrathecal methotrexate treatment of acute lymphoblastic leukaemia. He was diagnosed with Morquio syndrome in 1995, with symptoms of corneal haziness of several years’ duration. He had normal vision in the acute phase. A 38 year old man was referred for progressive corneal haze following intrathecal methotrexate treatment of acute lymphoblastic leukaemia. He was diagnosed with Morquio syndrome in 1995, with symptoms of corneal haziness of several years’ duration. He had normal vision in the acute phase.

References

Every keratocyte, to a varying degree, appeared to be involved in the overproduction of mucopolysaccharide and glycolipids. Intracytoplasmic inclusions in the form of uniformly circular bodies, fingerprint whorl patterns, fibrillar granular inclusions, small lipid vacuoles, and clear vacuoles were all observed (figs 1 and 2). The collagen bundles in the stromal lamellae appeared normally aligned but scattered throughout the stroma were distended spaces or lacunae occupied by disrupted keratocytes and these distorted the lamellae. In the stromal lamellae around the keratocyte lacunae, there was deposition of an encircling layer of granular material and bundles of wide banded collagen fibres were present in the surrounding corneal stroma (fig 2).

The endothelial cell cytoplasm contained similar abnormalities to those described in the keratocytes with small clear membrane bound vacuoles which had fused to form large empty cytoplasmic spaces causing the cell membranes to collapse. By scanning electron microscopy the endothelial cells possessed a cobblestone appearance because of numerous small nodular bulges on the apical surface but the majority were of normal size and shape and the hexagonal integrity was maintained. Small linear groups of degenerate cells with cytoplasmic disruption were scattered throughout the monolayer. The graft remained clear with no evidence of recurrence 2 years postoperatively with a best corrected visual acuity of 6/6.

**Comment**

This patient had corneal opacification but none of the other common ocular associations of Morquio syndrome. As with the two previous studies which investigated the corneal opacification type A Morquio syndrome with electron microscopy, we found the most obvious abnormality to be mucopolysaccharide inclusions in the form of intracytoplasmic, multilaminar concentric bodies particularly within keratocytes but also affecting the epithelium and endothelium. The degree of keratocyte disruption was striking and possibly related to the late stage of the disease in this case. We confirmed the previous findings of bundles of abnormal collagen fibres, which were present in the corneal stroma around the lacunae and of areas of epithelial membrane bound vacuoles.

We identified areas of basement membrane thickening and areas where Bowman’s layer was discontinuous with fibrocytic and/or inflammatory cells invading beneath the basal layer. Numerous small unmyelinated nerves were distributed throughout the basal cell layer. These epithelial changes have not been commented on previously and are possibly secondary to the epithelial oedema which had been identified in this case by light microscopy.

Although early recurrence of opacification has been reported in the corneal graft in this case remains clear at the 2 year follow up.

**Reference**


**Importance of early morning intraocular pressure recording for measurement of diurnal variation of intraocular pressure**

Intraocular pressure (IOP) is subject to cyclic fluctuations through the day. Diurnal variation in glaucoma was first reported in 1898. Duke-Elder and others reported high IOP on awakening. There is therefore a chance of missing a pressure elevation with single readings.

Phasing is mainly carried out from 0900 to 1800 hours, thereby missing any early morning spikes of IOP. Any delay in the first measurement will miss variations in IOP that are present immediately on awakening. We carried out a retrospective study, where patients under the care of the senior author (CL) are routinely admitted for phasing in order to obtain an early morning recording of IOP immediately on awakening.

**Report**

A total of 93 patients (mean age 73.2 years) were admitted for phasing under the care of the author between December 1997 and August 2002. The first measurement of IOP took place between 0800–1000 hours. Further measurements were taken every 2 hours until 2000 hours. The final measurement was taken early morning (between 0600–0800 hours) immediately on awakening. Goldmann applanation tonometry was carried out by experienced staff.

In all, 17 patients requiring treatment or change in management for their glaucoma were identified. Of these, 13 were identified as having POAG. Four patients out of 13 (30.8%) showed peak IOP (23–28 mm Hg,
mean 24.5) in the early morning (0600–0800 hours) immediately on awakening (fig 2). These cases would have been missed if routine outpatient measurements of diurnal variation only had been carried out.

Comment

The evaluation of IOP is usually based on measurements performed during office hours. As IOP is considered a major risk factor for glaucoma, an undetected IOP spike could be the missing link that has not been taken into account. Various investigators have shown that IOP just after awakening is increased. Phasing during routine office hours only would miss this. In our series we detected four patients with high IOPs in the early morning.

Goldmann tonometry was done in the sitting position, which might have reduced our chance to detect more cases, as IOP could be higher in the supine position. We did our best to take measurements immediately on awakening although there was a time delay in some patients because of reduced mobility. These limitations could have been avoided to some extent by using a portable tonometer such as the Perkins tonometer.

The disadvantages of our study were its retrospective nature, small population of study, and different members of staff involved in IOP measurements, thereby introducing variability. Staff members were not blind to the results but they do not have any vested interest in whether the early morning result is important. IOP could be overestimated in patients with thicker corneas, which we have not controlled for. We believe this factor, and its own diurnal variation, should be taken into consideration in future studies.

Figure 1 Mean IOP during phasing in our unit at different intervals.

Figure 2 Mean IOP variation in the four patients detected with early morning IOP spikes.

Based on our study we believe that more cases of glaucoma could be identified by early morning measurement of IOP during phasing.

Acknowledgements

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Autoimmune retinopathy associated with intravesical BCG therapy

Intravesical BCG is used as adjunctive immuno-therapy for superficial carcinoma of the urinary bladder. Endophthalmitis and uveitis are the reported ocular complications. We report an unusual case of autoimmune retinopathy in a 58 year old man treated with intravesical BCG. The clinical features resembled CAR (cancer associated retinopathy) but there was no serum reaction to the CAR antigen. We believe that this is the first reported case of autoimmune retinopathy caused by BCG treatment.

Case report

A 58 year old white man was referred with reduced vision and photophobia for 4 months following a 6 week (one instillation per week) course of intravesical BCG immunotherapy for recurrent transitional cell bladder carcinoma. On examination, after 4 months of complaints, the visual acuity was 6/24 in each eye and N18 for near. Anterior segment examination revealed bilateral early nuclear cataracts. The anterior chamber and vitreous were quiet. The fundus examination showed mildly attenuated arterioles (RE>LE) with a mild pigmentary disturbance in the mid-periphery. Intraocular pressure was normal. Colour vision showed a protan-deutan axis in both eyes. There was no family history of colour blindness. Full field electroretinogram (ERG) amplitudes were sub-normal for photopic and scotopic conditions in both eyes. Latency was normal. An electro-oculogram (EOG) was borderline normal in both eyes. Automated perimetry revealed bilaterally enlarged blind spots. Fundus fluorescein angiography showed narrowed arterioles. The chorioid was normal. Serum analysis revealed no reaction to 23 kD CAR autoantigen. However, an unusual reaction which may represent a form of autoimmune degeneration was reported by the laboratory.

The photophobia increased over the next 2 months. A repeat full field ERG revealed that photopic responses were indistinguishable from noise in the right eye and just detectable in the left eye. On examination visual acuity in each eye was 6/24. Oral prednisolone 20 mg daily was commenced. After a year it was decided to stop it as there was no improvement in vision. On his last follow up visit, the visual acuity was counting fingers in each eye and N36 at 10 cm. This had remained stable for 3 years. The photophobia was stable owing to dense cataracts and was well controlled with dark glasses. The fundus remained unchanged. The primary bladder carcinoma was unchanged and no secondaries were found.

Comment

BCG has been used for the treatment of bladder cancers for many years. Ocular toxicity caused by BCG resulting in granulomata, uveitis with vitiligo has been reported. The first case of endogenous endophthalmitis after use of BCG for metastatic bladder carcinoma was reported in 1988. The patient developed bilateral infiltrative retinitis and vitritis. Vitreectomy revealed Mycobacterium bovis CAR.

CAR is associated with melanomas, cancers of lung, cervix, colon, bladder, prostate, and breast. Progressive visual loss, night blindness with normal ERG, and markedly abnormal ERG findings were described. Fundus revealed mild retinal pigmentation. Histopathology of CAR affected eyes revealed loss of retinal receptors and atrophic changes in the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE), most marked in the macula. An abnormal state of RPE hypersensitivity contributing to retinal degeneration has been reported. Grunwald et al, Kornuth et al and Keilmann et al found antibodies to normal retina in serum of cancer patients with associated retinopathies. One key autoantigen was identified as a 23 kD photoreceptor component “recovery” later found to be expressed by small cell carcinomas. Other CAR antigens have also been identified. Corticosteroids, gamma globulin, and plasmapheresis do help in some cases.

Induction of autoimmune reactions within the eye by extracellular diseases brings into question the possibility of involvement of the M levis component of the BCG vaccine. The live attenuated mycobacterium of intravesical BCG infects normal and cancerous
bladder epithelial cells. The infection then initiates a cascade of immune events including a rapid influx of CD4+ T cells, cytokine release (IL-2, IFN-γ and alpha) with an increase of gamma/delta T cells. These cells are not MHC type II restricted. We propose this is how activation of cellular immunity may lead to autoimmune phenomena in the eye.

Our case demonstrated the clinical features of an autoimmune retinopathy but the reaction to CAR antigen was absent. However, the unusual reaction reported suggests the presence of an immune mechanism which has the potential to cause a progressive type of retinopathy, the prognosis of which is unknown and which does not respond to steroids.

We may not have presented enough evidence to link the use of intravitreal BCG with the ocular changes, although the temporal relation to the BCG therapy suggests that BCG is the most likely trigger of the autoimmunity. We suggest the bladder neoplasm is also a possibility. Ophthalmologists need to be aware of this rare possibility in order to improve their diagnostic yield in investigations of patients with similar clinical profiles. Patients also need to be warned of this rare but serious complication. This ocular complication in a previously normal patient necessitates regular ophthalmic screening in potential patients.

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References


Preoperative videotape sessions and patient satisfaction with cataract surgery

We read with interest the article by Pager.1 The study showed that a preoperative video-tape session describing the experience of day

stay cataract surgery resulted in a significant increase in overall satisfaction during the immediate postoperative period.

Patient satisfaction has drawn increasing attentions in all field of medicine, medical, and litigation reasons. Age, types of aphakic correction, information received by patients, ocular co-morbidity, and postoperative visual acuity were identified as important factors affecting the overall satisfaction in patients undergoing cataract surgery.2 While this study addressed the psychosomatic response in the perioperative period, it would be interesting to know how the videotape session can affect the perception of surgical outcome. It would be even more worthwhile to assess how such a videotape session can modify the patient response to unfavourable outcomes when surgical complications occur. Further information on patient satisfaction in either group during the follow up period would be relevant.

It was shown that the majority of patients could not recall relevant information after verbal consent.3 Remembering the information deteriorated significantly after the operation, even more so in those of an advanced age and with less than high school education.

4 Videotape has been used in the informed consent process in other medical fields. Patients having gastrointestinal endoscopy were found to be more satisfied with videotape followed by physician discussion than either method alone.4 It has been demonstrated to lead to higher knowledge scores, especially in patients with lower education levels.5 Since cataract patients are usually old and come with very high expectations, we think that further research is required to explore the use of videotape in order to achieve a better informed consent.

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Optical coherence tomography in photodynamic therapy

Sahni et al presented a new terminology to validate the reliability of optical coherence tomography (OCT) and studied the effect of photodynamic therapy (PDT) in patients with subfoveal, predominantly classic choroidal neovascularisation (CNV) secondary to age related macular degeneration (AMD). A new terminology introduced neuroretinal foveal thickness (NFT), bilateral foveal thickness (BFT), outer high reflectivity band thickness (OHRBT), intraretinal fluid (IRF), subretinal fluid (SRF), and vitreomacular hyaloid attachment. A heterogenous group of patients were included. Whereas in three patients OCT scanning was performed before PDT, 53 had already undergone up to seven treatment sessions. The results showed a significant correlation of mean neuroretinal foveal thickness and intraretinal fluid. Additionally, there was a high correlation between bilateral foveal thickness and visual acuity (VA). The authors also reported a poor agreement between OCT and clinical examination in the detection of cystoid macular oedema (CMO) and subretinal fluid, indicating the usefulness of OCT.

We congratulate the authors and want to add two aspects from our clinical experience. A previous study we reviewed indicated the group of CMO and increased foveal thickness to correlate with a poorer visual outcome in non-treated neovascular AMD.2 Sahni et al demonstrated no correlation between VA and IRF and SRF in patients undergoing PDT, giving evidence that a beneficial effect of PDT, especially for the group with exudative AMD associated with CMO, arises. OCT seems to be valuable in predicting functional outcome following PDT.

The current study presented no data on the actual time when the OCT evaluation has been performed, although several authors described remarkable OCT findings following PDT. In a prospective study we evaluated 24 patients (53 PDT sessions) before PDT as well as 2 days and 1 week after PDT by VA and OCT.1 Here, a transient hypertropic shift corresponded with a consecutive increased retinal thickness up to 680 μm on OCT. The cross sectional OCT scan in the macular area revealed a retinal detachment, whereas the anatomy of the neurosensory retina maintained intact, no relevant thickening or schisis-like changes were observed. Previous examinations by Costa et al, determined a few hours after PDT, indicated an increased subretinal leakage on indocyanine green angiography (ICG) and consecutive retinal elevation on OCT, confirming our functional and OCT findings.1 Long term OCT findings presented by Rogers et al demonstrated structural alterations in terms of persistent retinal thinning 3 months after PDT.7 Therefore, OCT findings before the first PDT are necessary to determine predictable signs for functional outcome. OCT is a useful technique describing morphological findings of the photodynamic therapy. Nevertheless, a higher number of patients before the first PDT application have to be evaluated by OCT to define predictable signs elucidating visual outcome.

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Optical coherence tomography of the vitreomacular interface in photodynamic therapy

We would like to comment on the excellent article by Sahni et al.1 In their paper, a number of descriptive terms for optical coherence tomography (OCT) analysis are defined in patients with age related macular degeneration (AMD) with subfoveal choroidal neovascularisation undergoing treatment with photodynamic therapy. One term, “vitreomacular hyaloid attachment (VMHA),” was used to refer to incomplete separation of the posterior hyaloid with attachment at the macula. Twenty of 56 patients (35.7%) included in the study had VMHA on OCT. We would like to point out that this vitreomacular configuration is identical to that described in a previous report of normal eyes.2

The study by Uchino et al reported OCT findings at the vitreoretinal interface in 209 normal eyes. In their study, they defined five individual stages of posterior vitreous detachment (PVD). Two stages represented partial PVD with persistent macular attachment, identical to VMHA as defined by Sahni et al. Stage 1 was defined as focal perifoveal PVD in one to three quadrants with persistent vitreofoveal attachment, and stage 2 was defined as perifoveal PVD in all four quadrants with persistent vitreofoveal attachment. Of the 209 normal eyes, 47.8% had stage 1 PVD and 12.6% had stage 2 PVD. Mean age of the patients in the study was 52.3 years (range 31–74 years).3

We find it interesting that the percentage of AMD patients with VMHA in the Sahni study is less than the percentage of normal eyes with stage 1 or 2 PVD in the Uchino study.4 5 This suggests that the vitreomacular configuration defined as VMHA by Sahni et al is probably not a finding specific to the AMD patients included in the study.

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Author’s reply

We thank Mennel et al and Duker and Witkin for their interesting comments regarding our article.

Mennel et al make some interesting points on the immediate structural changes that occur after photodynamic therapy (PDT), a topic that we thought was outside the scope of our study. I agree that the short term and long term changes after treatment are important and need to be taken into account in future studies on patients undergoing PDT.

We are grateful to Duker and Witkin for pointing out the article by Uchino and colleagues.1 Our patients were older (mean 76 years (range 59–94)) than those reported by these authors (mean 52.3 years). Uchino et al had 20 patients in the same age group and only two patients were above 70 years of age. Both these had a complete posterior vitreous detachment (PVD). All our patients had associated pathology and the majority had undergone PDT, all of which may have influenced the outcome. While the finding of vitreomacular attachment may be more common in normal eyes (>50%), our study6 suggests that the incidence may be lower in patients with exudative age related macular degeneration (35.7%).

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NOTICES

EVER 2005 meeting

This will take place on 5–8 October 2005 in Vilamoura, Portugal. For further details please contact: Christy Lacroix, EVER Secretary, Kapucijnenover 33, B-3000 Leuven, Belgium (tel: +32 (0)16 233 849; fax +32 (0)16 234 097; email:ever@skynet.be).

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Red eye

The latest issue of Community Eye Health (No 53) discusses the role of primary care in the treatment of red eye. For further information please contact: Journal of Community Eye Health, International Resource Centre, International Centre for Eye Health, Department of Infectious and Tropical Diseases, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, Keppel Street, London WC1E 7HT, UK (tel: +44 (0)20 7612 7964; email: Anita.Shah@lshtm.ac.uk; online edition: www.jche.co.uk). Annual subscription (4 issues) UK £28/US$45. Free to developing country applicants.
Optical coherence tomography in photodynamic therapy

S Mennel, F Liu and C H Meyer

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