



Dipanwita Ghosh is Assistant Professor and Head of the Department of Optometry at Swami Vivekananda University. A distinguished optometrist, she holds a B.Optom degree with Gold Medal from West Bengal University of Technology and an M.Optom degree with Gold Medal from Bharati Vidyapeeth Medical College, School of Optometry. With a clinical internship from Sankara Nethralaya Eye Hospital and training in community eye care from LV Prasad Eye Institute, Hyderabad and currently she is pursuing PhD in Optometry. She brings over 6 years of experience in academics and clinical practice, specializing as a vision therapist and contactologist.



Dr. Sourav Mitra (PT), BPT, MPT (Neurology), PhD Scholar, is a distinguished physiotherapy professional with more than five years of dedicated academic and clinical experience. Specializing in neurological rehabilitation, he has made significant contributions to the advancement of the field through numerous peer-reviewed research publications that highlight his scientific rigor and commitment to evidence-based practice. In addition to authoring several insightful book chapters, Dr. Mitra is also the holder of a patent, demonstrating his innovative approach to problem-solving in neuro-physiotherapy. His scholarly endeavors reflect a strong passion for research, a deep understanding of neurological disorders, and a continuous pursuit of excellence in physiotherapy education. Dr. Mitra remains actively engaged in academic development, aiming to bridge the gap between clinical practice and research to enhance patient care and rehabilitation outcomes.



Dr. Rajen Dey holds a B.Sc. in Physiology and an M.Sc. in Physiology with a specialization in Immunology and Microbiology. He was awarded his Ph.D. in Physiology in 2022, with his doctoral research focusing on immunological responses in infectious diseases. His research was supported by the prestigious ICMR Junior Research Fellowship (JRF) from 2016 to 2021, reflecting his dedication to high-impact biomedical research. Dr. Dey has contributed significantly to research in the areas of host-pathogen interaction and immune modulation. Currently serving as an Assistant Professor at Swami Vivekananda University, Dr. Dey brings a strong blend of academic knowledge and practical research experience to his teaching. He has published several research papers in peer-reviewed national and international journals and continues to contribute to the fields of immunology, microbiology, and human physiology. Dr. Dey is committed to fostering scientific thinking and advancing medical education through both classroom instruction and scholarly work. His work reflects a commitment to scientific inquiry, clinical relevance, and the advancement of medical education.



CHYREN PUBLICATION
 Rashulpur Road, Near Bijli Gate, Palwal, Haryana-121102
 Mob.: +919812453031,47, Tel: +911275-455-202
 E-mail: chyrenpublication@gmail.com
<https://www.chyrenpublication.com/>

ISBN 978-93-7143-229-0



9 789371 432290 >

Book Ref. No. 595



Frontiers in Allied Health Research

**Dipanwita Ghosh
 Dr. Sourav Mitra (PT),
 Dr. Rajen Dey**



Frontiers in Allied Health Research

Author
Dr. Sourav Mitra (PT)



CHYREN PUBLICATION

Office: Near Bijli Gate, Palwal, Haryana-121102
Reg. Office: 742, Maruti Chowk, Ghitorni, Delhi-30
Mob. +919812453047,66, Tel: +911275-455-202
E-mail: chyrenpublication@gmail.com
<https://www.chyrenpublication.com>

Publication: 1st Edition, 08/07/2025

ISBN: 978-93-7143-229-0

Price:349/-

Printed & Published By
CHYREN PUBLICATION
Palwal Haryana, India

Copyright ©2025 CHYREN PUBLICATION, all rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means without permission of publisher or individual author. Any person who does any unauthorized act in relation to this publication may be liable to criminal prosecution and civil claims for damages.

Disclaimer

The views expressed by the authors in the book published by Chyren Publication, Palwal, (HR) are their own. They do not necessarily reflect the views of the publisher. The publisher is not responsible in any way for any liability arising from the content/text of the book.

Authors List

Dr. Sourav Mitra (PT)

Assistant Professor & Head
Department of Physiotherapy
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Dr. Sunayana Ghosh Dostider (PT)

Assistant Professor
Department of Physiotherapy
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Dr. Sanhita Bose (PT)

Assistant Professor
Department of Physiotherapy
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Dr. Gourab Jyoti Roy (PT)

Assistant Professor
Department of Physiotherapy
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Dipanwita Ghosh

Assistant Professor and Head
Department of Optometry
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Dr. Prabirendra Nath Sinha

Assistant Professor
Department of Optometry
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Dr. Manas Chakraborty

Assistant Professor
Department of Optometry
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Ms. Rikta Paul

Assistant Professor
Department of Optometry
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Ms. Anusuya Das

Assistant Professor
Department of Optometry
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Ms. Srimanti Sarkar

Assistant Professor
Department of Optometry
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Arup Saha

Assistant Professor
Department of Optometry
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Sourav Karmakar

Assistant Professor
Department of Optometry
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Rajen Dey

Assistant Professor
Department of Medical Laboratory Technology
Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata

Dr. Partha Chowdhury

Professor
Department of Optometry
Galgotias University, Greater Noida

Dr. Brinda Haren Shah

Ph.D. Scholar in Optometry
Gujarat University

Preface

A more integrated, team-based approach to diagnosis, treatment, and rehabilitation is required due to the quickly changing healthcare landscape. Disciplines can no longer function alone; rather, a multidisciplinary approach that incorporates ideas from several but related fields is the way of the future for healthcare. This need led to the creation of *Frontiers in Allied Health Research*, a thorough resource that connects the three vital allied health fields of physiotherapy, medical laboratory technology (BMLT), and optometry.

This book has been thoughtfully organized to act as a fundamental manual for professionals, educators, and students who want to learn more about the ways in which different fields interact in actual clinical settings. Each makes a distinct contribution to patient care, whether it be through the exact measures of eyesight in optometry, the analytical abilities required in laboratory diagnostics, or the restorative techniques employed in physiotherapy. They work together to create a coherent system that emphasizes holistic therapy.

Our objective in writing this publication was to emphasize the connections between the various fields while clearly and understandably presenting key ideas and procedures. The chapters are interspersed with case studies, real-world applications, and interdisciplinary ideas to highlight interprofessional collaboration and practical usefulness.

In order to promote cooperation as a fundamental principle in patient-centered care, we believe that this book will help healthcare professionals and students see the world from a wider angle.

Let this be a stepping stone toward not just understanding your own field, but appreciating how it complements and strengthens others.

Acknowledgements

The journey of creating *Frontiers in Allied Health Research*, has been both enriching and collaborative, and we are deeply grateful to all those who supported and contributed to its development.

First and foremost, we extend our sincere thanks to our academic mentors and colleagues from the fields of Optometry, Medical Laboratory Technology, and Physiotherapy, whose insights and expertise helped shape the structure and content of this book. Their contributions have been invaluable in ensuring accuracy, relevance, and clinical applicability.

We would like to express our appreciation to the faculty and students of various allied health institutions who provided feedback during the early drafts. Their questions and suggestions helped us refine our approach and maintain a clear, student-friendly tone throughout the book.

Special thanks to the healthcare professionals and practitioners who shared real-world experiences, case studies, and practical knowledge that brought life to the theoretical concepts. Their dedication to patient care and multidisciplinary teamwork served as a true inspiration for this work.

We also acknowledge the support of our families, who provided constant encouragement and understanding during the writing and research process.

Finally, we are grateful to our publishers and editorial team for their patience, professionalism, and commitment to quality. Their guidance made the publication of this book possible.

To all who contributed directly or indirectly—this book stands as a testament to the power of collaboration in both education and healthcare.

The

Authors

June 2025

Table of Contents

Chapter1.....	08
Urinary Tract Infections Encountered Health Hazards During Pregnancy: Review <i>Manojit Bysack , Rajen Dey</i>	
Chapter 2.....	19
Etiologic Survey Of Aseptic Noninfectious Meningitis <i>Rajen Dey , Manojit Bysack</i>	
Chapter3.....	27
Understanding The Role Of Physiotherapy In Supporting Children With Cystic Fibrosis: A Review <i>Gourab Jyoti Roy , Ammar Faisal Khan , Saher Ansari,</i>	
Chapter 4.....	33
The Effectiveness Of Hydrotherapy In Orthopedic Rehabilitation <i>Sunayana Ghosh Dostider</i>	
Chapter 5.....	39
Pulmonary Rehabilitation For COPD: Enhancing Lung Function And Quality Of Life <i>Sourav Mitra, M.S. Anwar , Satyen Bhattacharyya</i>	
Chapter 6.....	46
Unlocking Flexibility: The Effects Of Cupping Therapy On Hamstring Mobility And Muscle Function <i>Dr. Sanhita Bose(PT)</i>	
Chapter 7.....	55
Unlocking The Mind's Eye: Exploring Eye Movement Abnormalities As Biomarkers In Mental Health Diagnosis <i>Anusuya Das,</i>	
Chapter 8.....	64
Treatment Of Ocular Surface Disorders Using Contact Lenses <i>Arup Saha, Bulti Saha Debnath</i>	
Chapter 9.....	70
Challenges And Facilitators Of Assistive Technology Adoption Among Children With Low Vision " <i>Dipanwita Ghosh , Partha Haradhan Chowdhury, Brinda Shah</i>	
Chapter 10.....	78
The Pathophysiology And Clinical Investigation Regarding Diabetic Retinopathy <i>Dr. Manas Chakraborty</i>	
Chapter 11.....	89
Refractive Surgery Update: Methods, Results, And Complications	

Dr. Prabirendra Nath Sinha

Chapter 12.....110

Improvement In Reading Performance Of Low Vision Patients After Receiving
Low Vision Rehabilitation

Rikta Paul

Chapter 13.....116

Focusing On Education & Quality Of Life – A Review For Myopia’s Impact On
Academic Performance And Psychological Well Being Among School Children
And Adolescents

Sweta Paul , Srimanti Sarkar

CHAPTER 1

Urinary Tract Infections Encountered Health Hazards During Pregnancy: Review

Manojit Bysack*, Rajen Dey

Department of Medical Laboratory Technology, School of Allied Health
Sciences, Swami Vivekananda University, Telinipara, Barasat-Barrackpore Rd,
Bara Kanthalia, West Bengal-700121, India

ABSTRACT:

Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are common among pregnant women, often caused by *Escherichia coli*. Asymptomatic bacteriuria can lead to conditions like pyelonephritis or cystitis. Screening for bacteriuria is recommended for all pregnant women, followed by treatment with antibiotics such as nitrofurantoin, sulfisoxazole, or cephalexin. Ampicillin is no longer advised due to high resistance rates. Pyelonephritis poses significant risks of prenatal and neonatal morbidity, requiring preventive treatment due to recurrent infections during pregnancy. Group B streptococcal infection in urine should be treated promptly, with intrapartum preventive medication. This article also discusses the prevalence and management of UTIs in pregnancy, including the specific challenges posed by Group B streptococcus, and provides insights into pathophysiology and bacteriology related to UTIs during this period.

KEYWORDS:

Bacteria, *E. coli*, Life threatening, Patient, Pregnancy, Urinary Tract Infection (UTI)

INTRODUCTION:

At over 20%, urinary tract infections (UTI) remain one of the most prevalent illnesses that can make pregnancy more difficult [1]. Notwithstanding the existence of clinical symptoms, a UTI is identified when there is an excess of bacteria in the urinary tract [2]. From conditions that impact the kidney, such as pyelonephritis, to those that affect the lower urinary tract, like cystitis and asymptomatic bacteriuria (ASB), UTIs encompass a wide range of conditions. The same species and virulence factors are responsible for UTIs in women, pregnant or not. *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Proteus*, *Acinetobacter*, *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, Group B *Streptococcus* (GBS), and *Pseudomonas*

aeruginosa are among the bacteria that are frequently isolated [3-5]. Pregnancy-related UTI risk factors include immunodeficiency, urinary tract abnormalities, and UTI [6,7]. Pregnancy-related UTIs are thought to increase the likelihood of unfavorable outcomes for both the mother and the unborn child. According to Schieve et al., there is a higher correlation between UTI and amnionitis, anemia, hypertensive problems of pregnancy, and premature labor [6]. Similar results were reported by Delzell and Lefevre, who also included low birth weight (LBW) infants as an outcome [7]. However, Chen et al.'s population-based nationwide study in Taiwan indicated that women with prenatal UTI did not have a higher risk of LBW, preterm newborns, or neonates small for gestational age [8].

Associated Pathogens And Their Sensitivity:

Enterococcus (15.8%), *K. pneumoniae* (13.1%), *E. coli* (30.9%), GBS (31.3%), and other minor groupings of organisms (9%), were the most frequently isolated bacteria from women with UTIs. 79% of the confirmed UTI cases were ASB. Similar trends were seen in the bacterial isolates in ASB, with GBS accounting for 32% of cases, *E. coli* for 28%, and Enterococcus and Klebsiella for 15% and 14% of cases, respectively. *E. coli* was the most frequent cause of recurrent UTIs (40%) and the rest 60% were shared by GBS, Enterococcus, and *K. pneumoniae*. Additionally, *E. coli* was the main cause of UTI recurrence (34%). 42% of GBS were resistant to clindamycin, but 100% of them were sensitive to vancomycin and 99% to ampicillin. Nitrofurantoin only has a 93% sensitivity in *E. coli*. Twenty-four percent of the isolates of *E. coli* produced extended-spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs). Eighty-eight percent of those were nitrofurantoin sensitive. For *E. Coli*, the sensitivity to fosfomycin was 96%, while for isolates that produced ESBL, the sensitivity was 92%. With no discernible resistance trends, the isolates of Enterococcus faecalis were 100% susceptible to ampicillin, nitrofurantoin, and teicoplanin. 94% of *K. pneumonia* isolates were susceptible to coamoxiclav, ceftazidime, and cefotaxime [19] [27].

Pathogenesis:

Women who are pregnant are more susceptible to UTIs. About 90% of pregnant women experience ureteral dilatation starting in week 6 and reaching its peak in weeks 22–24. This dilatation lasts until birth (hydronephrosis of pregnancy). Urinary stasis and ureterovesical reflux are exacerbated by increased bladder volume, decreased bladder tone, and decreased ureteral tone. Urine concentration is also lowered by the physiological rise in plasma volume that occurs during pregnancy. During pregnancy, up to 70% of women experience glycosuria, which

promotes the growth of germs in the urine. Lower urinary tract resistance to bacterial invasion may be weakened by increases in urine progesterins and estrogens. Reduced ureteral tone or even the selective growth of certain bacterial strains are the two possible causes of this diminished capacity. Pregnancy-related UTIs could be caused by any of these factors [33].

Most Common Conditions:

Acute cystitis in pregnancy-While there is no indication of a systemic illness, women with acute cystitis frequently exhibit urgency and frequency of dysuria. Pregnant women without severe cystitis, however, may describe these symptoms. A urine sample should be sent for culture and, in the case of a pregnant woman, empiric treatment is required while waiting for the results. The selection of antibiotics should include common pathogens and can be modified if necessary once the organism has been identified and its sensitivities have been established. To guarantee eradication, a seven-day therapy time is necessary. Research on acute cystitis in non-pregnant women indicates that three days of antibiotic treatment is just as effective as longer courses (e.g., seven to ten days), although there is a greater chance of recurrence. A lengthier course of antibiotics is used to prevent the greater likelihood of relapse with short courses since recurrent infections can have major repercussions for pregnant women. To guarantee eradication, a follow-up urine culture might be obtained one to two weeks following the conclusion of the antibiotic course. Acute cystitis discomfort can be reduced with the usage of paracetamol. It is not advised to utilize other symptom-relieving techniques including increasing fluid intake, urinary alkalization products, or cranberry products because there is insufficient evidence to support their efficacy and some of them may interfere with antibiotic treatment [20] [29].

Recurrent infection-Antibiotic prophylaxis may be necessary for pregnant women who experience recurrent UTIs. A 50 mg dose of nitrofurantoin taken after sexual activity, or before bed, may be necessary if the UTIs are believed to be connected to sexual activity. You can also use 250 mg of cephalexin [21] [31].

Pyelonephritis in pregnancy-If a patient exhibits systemic symptoms such as temperature ($> 38^{\circ}\text{C}$), flank pain, and nausea or vomiting, acute pyelonephritis should be suspected. Frequency and dysuria, two signs of a lower UTI, may or may not be present. Pyelonephritis during pregnancy needs to be treated quickly and aggressively since it might have major effects such as maternal sepsis, preterm

labor, and premature birth. Intravenous antibiotics and hospitalization are typically necessary. Antibiotics are often administered intravenously until the patient has been afebrile for 48 hours. After that, 10–14 days are spent on oral antibiotics [22] [30].

Asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnancy—A higher risk of preterm delivery and low birth weight has been linked to asymptomatic bacteriuria during pregnancy. Furthermore, pyelonephritis may develop later in pregnancy in 20–40% of pregnant women with asymptomatic bacteriuria if treatment is not received. Therefore, in order to lower the incidence of pyelonephritis, pregnant women with asymptomatic bacteriuria should receive antibiotic treatment. At 12 to 16 weeks gestation, a urine culture should be performed to check for asymptomatic bacteriuria. In practical practice, only one urine culture is typically performed, even though some recommendations advise a second culture to confirm bacteriuria before treatment.

Antibiotic treatment is advised for all pregnant women with proven asymptomatic bacteriuria. The following preference order can be used to guide the selection of antibiotics based on known sensitivities: To guarantee a cure, all antibiotics should be administered for seven days. According to a recent study, pregnant women with asymptomatic bacteriuria respond better to a seven-day course of nitrofurantoin than to a one-day course. To guarantee that the bacteriuria has been eradicated, a follow-up culture must be performed one to two weeks after the therapy is finished. Urine cultures should then be performed on a regular basis till delivery. Urine cultures are not required for women who do not exhibit bacteriuria at the initial screening, which occurs between weeks 12 and 16 of pregnancy. Group B streptococcus: Heavy vaginal colonization and a higher risk of neonatal group B streptococcus illness are linked to group B streptococcus bacteriuria, even when treatment is received. When a group B streptococcus infection is discovered in the urine of a pregnant woman, amoxicillin or cephalexin should be administered at the time of diagnosis. During delivery, prophylaxis is administered, typically with penicillin G [23] [28] [32].

Choice Of Antibiotics:

1. Despite being widely used, nitrofurantoin is thought to be safe to use during pregnancy, but not during delivery or as the pregnancy approaches term (i.e., more than 36 weeks). According to one study, a cure rate of 86% was attained with a seven-day course of nitrofurantoin, demonstrating its effectiveness in treating asymptomatic bacteriuria. Because it does not achieve sufficient tissue

penetration, nitrofurantoin is not useful for treating pyelonephritis, but it does reach therapeutic quantities in the urine and is effective in treating acute cystitis and asymptomatic bacteriuria [24].

2. Although trimethoprim is frequently used to treat symptomatic UTIs, there isn't any solid data to support its usage during pregnancy. It is not believed to be teratogenic, though. Since trimethoprim is a folic acid antagonist and may potentially raise the risk of neural tube abnormalities, it is advised to avoid it during the first trimester [25].

3. It is deemed safe to use cephalosporins during pregnancy. It is advisable to refrain from using broad spectrum antibiotics (such cephalosporins) when a narrow spectrum antibiotic would be more suitable. There are worries that methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), *Clostridium difficile*, and resistant UTIs are all made more likely by wide range antibiotics [26].

4. Although there is evidence that amoxicillin resistance is greater than trimethoprim resistance, all penicillins are thought to be safe to use during pregnancy. Amoxicillin is therefore not appropriate as an empirical treatment for acute cystitis, although it may be given if a urine culture reveals a susceptibility [27].

Case Studies:

A total of 4277 pregnant women sought prenatal treatment at Corniche Hospital in 2018, and 663 of them had a UTI with a confirmed culture (15%). Of the women who took part in the survey, the majority were between the ages of 21 and 30 (44%), or 31 and 40 (49.5%). The exposed group's mean age was 30.5 years, whereas the comparison group's was 31.8 years. Age and the chance of getting a UTI did not significantly correlate. Anemia, diabetes, and high blood pressure are prevalent comorbidities, however they did not substantially link with UTI. However, the risk of UTIs during pregnancy was higher for those with hypothyroidism. Pregnant ladies with renal calculi all experienced UTIs. Of the women with UTIs, 115 (21%) had at least one symptom. Nonetheless, routine screening at the time of visit revealed that the majority of women with UTIs (79%) had no symptoms [19].

Preterm births were more common in study participants with UTIs than in those without (odds ratio [OR], 95% CI). Their nationality, BMI, age group, and parity did not significantly correlate with this. Preterm births were exclusively connected with pregnancy-related hypertension among the related comorbidities. Likewise, there was no correlation between the gestational age at delivery and the gestational age at the initial diagnosis of UTI. Recurrent UTIs were present in 26.6% of the

exposed group. Infection recurrence was observed in 48% and reinfection in 73% of these women. 32 women (22%) experienced both reinfection and relapse. Those with a prior history of UTI had a 1.9-fold increased risk of recurrent UTI, but no other demographic characteristics or related comorbidities were linked to recurrent UTI. Recurrent UTI patients had a similar risk of premature delivery as women who experienced only one UTI episode during pregnancy. Two premature births were among the eight cases of pyelonephritis (1.45%) that occurred in the research group. Analyzing the data for a significant correlation was impossible due to the low numbers [19].

Babies born to moms who had a UTI had LBW at a rate of 5.3%, whereas babies born to women who did not have a UTI had LBW at a rate of 5.8%. In essence, LBW and the existence or lack of a UTI during pregnancy did not significantly correlate. Compared to the comparison group, women with UTIs had a higher prevalence of premature births. There has been debate on the relationship between demographic characteristics and UTIs; some research indicates that multiparity and advanced maternal age increase risk [12]. Hamdan et al., however, did not discover any meaningful correlation [13]. According to our research, women who are nulliparous have a higher risk of getting a UTI. The development of UTIs was not correlated with age, BMI, nationality, or gestational age. Although a literature search revealed that hypothyroidism has not been described as such, our study found a substantial relationship between it and UTI during pregnancy.

In a single instance, Correia et al. documented a correlation between recurrent UTI in a nonpregnant lady and mild hypothyroidism [14]. In the lack of more proof, more research is required to determine the importance. 70% to 80% of UTIs in pregnancy have been linked to *E. coli* and other Gram-negative isolates, specifically *Klebsiella* species, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, and *Proteus mirabilis*, according to several studies. In about 10% of UTIs in pregnant women, gram-positive organisms (such as *Enterococcus faecalis* and GBS) were isolated [15] [16].

Nonetheless, the study found that GBS bacteriuria was quite common (about 30%) in both symptomatic and asymptomatic UTIs, closely followed by *E. coli*. The divergence may be explained by geographic diversity and the resulting variations in cultural and behavioral practices. The greater vulnerability to vaginal colonization by the nearby rectal flora and the uropathogenic coliforms' innate ability to stick to uroepithelial cells may account for the discovery of *E. coli* as the most frequent bacteria causing recurrent UTIs, especially relapses [10].

Ampicillin was the most efficient antibiotic among those examined against *Enterococcus* species and GBS. A successful first-line treatment for *E. coli*

bacteria, including those that are ESBL-positive, is fosfomycin. Rosana et al. [17] reported similar results. While nitrofurantoin is 100% effective against *Enterococcus* species, it is relatively less effective against *E. coli*. Clindamycin's effectiveness as a substitute for penicillin in patients with GBS UTI is limited by the extremely high level of resistance to the antibiotic. This makes vancomycin with 100% sensitivity the ideal option, as advised by the 2010 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention guidelines [18].

Outcome Of The Study:

Maternal and perinatal morbidity linked to pregnancy-related UTIs was the main outcome. Those with recurrent UTI (i.e., more than one episode of UTI during the index pregnancy), premature delivery (i.e., labor and delivery that began before 37 completed weeks of gestation), and pyelonephritis with upper UTI-like clinical features and a diagnosis of pyelonephritis in the patient's medical file were all considered maternal outcomes. Preterm LBW (birth weight <10th percentile on Fenton's birth weight distribution chart at each gestational age), prematurity (less than 37 weeks gestation), and LBW (≥ 37 weeks) were used to quantify perinatal morbidity [9]. One of the secondary end measures was identifying the common organisms that cause both primary and recurring illnesses. Along with evaluating antibiotic sensitivity and resistance patterns, researchers also evaluated the kind of recurring infections (whether brought on by reinfection or relapse). The term "recurrent UTI" refers to symptomatic UTIs that recur after a prior episode has resolved, typically following proper treatment [10]. Recurrent UTIs can be classified as either reinfection (i.e., recurrent UTIs with previously isolated bacteria after treatment and with a negative intervening urine culture, or a recurrent UTI caused by a second bacterial isolate) or relapses (i.e., symptomatic recurrent UTIs with the same organism after satisfactory therapy) [11].

Conclusion:

Serious maternal and neonatal morbidity is frequently caused by UTIs during pregnancy; however, this morbidity can be reduced with the right screening and care. Acute cystitis, pyelonephritis, or bacteriuria are all possible signs of a UTI. Every pregnant woman should get a bacteriuria screening and receive the proper antibiotic treatment afterward. Treatment for pyelonephritis and acute cystitis should be vigorous throughout pregnancy. Pregnant women with acute cystitis and asymptomatic bacteriuria can benefit from oral nitrofurantoin and cephalexin, but those with pyelonephritis may need parenteral antibiotic therapy. Pregnancy-related bacteriuria, much of which is asymptomatic, is significantly predicted by

a history of urinary tract infections, renal calculi, and nulliparity, according to the study findings. Preterm delivery is more common in pregnant women with UTIs. However, other problems like as pyelonephritis and unfavorable perinatal outcomes can be reduced with proper care. Our research highlights the value of routinely screening pregnant women for ASB rather than just those who have symptoms.

This strategy would enable targeted care and appropriate use of the resources available by assisting in the identification of high-risk women who are significantly at risk for premature delivery. Yet, there are increasing worries about the widespread and careless use of antibiotics and the resulting rise in antibiotic resistance. In order to select the best antibiotic for each situation, medical professionals should take into account routine antibiogram checks. The research' retrospective design limited their applicability, leading to selection bias from lost follow-up and information bias from missing data. Nevertheless, research included patients with comparable demographics in the comparator and UTI groups.

Due to structural changes that occur during pregnancy, females' short urethras, the ease with which fecal flora can contaminate the urinary tract, pregnancy immunodeficiency, and other factors, UTIs during pregnancy can have detrimental effects on both the mother and the fetus. The second trimester has the largest incidence of UTIs, which could be because of the physiological changes that usually take place during this time. Premature labor is directly impacted by UTIs through amnionitis development. The embryonic membrane may become weaker due to bacterial enzymes like collagenase. Preterm labor was the most prevalent mother morbidity, while LBW was the most common fetal morbidity. Antimicrobial treatment may reduce the risk of negative maternal and fetal outcomes for pregnant women with UTIs. Therefore, pregnant women who test positive for bacteriuria should be treated. Routine prenatal care should include public education programs on the value of personal hygiene and proper environmental sanitation practices, particularly during pregnancy.

To give more precise recommendations, more research is required to determine when the first ASB screen should be performed, which populations may benefit from repeat ASB screenings, how frequently these screenings should occur, whether a cure test or repeat screening after ASB treatment is finished is appropriate, and whether a 3-day treatment duration may be beneficial for ASB. Further studies are also required to ascertain the best way to define recurrent UTI during pregnancy, when repeat urine cultures are necessary following the first or recurrent UTI in pregnancy, and the effectiveness, usefulness, and dosage of

prophylactic antibiotic treatment following recurrent UTI or pyelonephritis. Lastly, additional study is required to ascertain whether postpartum patients or those with an indwelling catheter require particular therapy and management concerns.

References:

1. Yan L, Jin Y, Hang H, Yan B: The association between urinary tract infection during pregnancy and preeclampsia: a meta-analysis. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2018, 97:e12192. 10.1097/MD.00000000000012192
2. TaghaviZahedkalaei A, Kazemi M, Zolfaghari P, Rashidan M, Sohrabi MB: Association between urinary tract infection in the first trimester and risk of preeclampsia: a case-control study. *Int J Womens Health*. 2020, 12:521-6. 10.2147/IJWH.S256943
3. Emamghorashi F, Mahmoodi N, Tagarod Z, Heydari ST: Maternal urinary tract infection as a risk factor for neonatal urinary tract infection. *Iran J Kidney Dis*. 2012, 6:178-80.
4. Giraldo PC, Araújo ED, Junior JE, do Amaral RL, Passos MR, Gonçalves AK: The prevalence of urogenital infections in pregnant women experiencing preterm and full-term labor. *Infect Dis Obstet Gynecol*. 2012, 2012:878241. 10.1155/2012/878241
5. Raza S, Pandey S, Bhatt CP: Microbiological analysis of isolates in Kathmandu Medical College Teaching Hospital, Kathmandu, Nepal. *Kathmandu Univ Med J (KUMJ)*. 2011, 9:295-7. 10.3126/kumj.v9i4.6348
6. Schieve LA, Handler A, Hershow R, Persky V, Davis F: Urinary tract infection during pregnancy: its association with maternal morbidity and perinatal outcome. *Am J Public Health*. 1994, 84:405-10. 10.2105/ajph.84.3.405
7. Delzell JE Jr, Lefevre ML: Urinary tract infections during pregnancy . *Am Fam Physician*. 2000, 61:713-21.
8. Chen YK, Chen SF, Li HC, Lin HC: No increased risk of adverse pregnancy outcomes in women with urinary tract infections: a nationwide population-based study. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*. 2010, 89:882-8. 10.3109/00016349.2010.486826
9. Fenton TR, Nasser R, Eliasziw M, Kim JH, Bilan D, Sauve R: Validating the weight gain of preterm infants between the reference growth curve of the fetus and the term infant. *BMC Pediatr*. 2013, 13:92. 10.1186/1471-2431-13-92
10. Hooton TM: Recurrent urinary tract infection in women. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2001, 17:259-268. 10.1016/s0924-8579(00)00350-2

11. ACOG Practice Bulletin No. 91: Treatment of urinary tract infections in nonpregnant women .ObstetGynecol. 2008, 111:785-94. 10.1097/AOG.0b013e318169f6ef
12. Dimetry SR, El-Tokhy HM, Abdo NM, Ebrahim MA, Eissa M: Urinary tract infection and adverse outcome of pregnancy. J Egypt Public Health Assoc. 2007, 82:203-18.
13. Hamdan HZ, Ziad AH, Ali SK, Adam I: Epidemiology of urinary tract infections and antibiotics sensitivity among pregnant women at Khartoum North Hospital. Ann ClinMicrobiolAntimicrob. 2011, 10:2. 10.1186/1476-0711-10-2
14. Correia MC, Fontes MC, Lima NS, et al.: Subclinical hypothyroidism and recurrent infection of the urinary tract: a case report. J UrolRen Dis. 2019, 11:1151-2. 10.29011/2575-7903.001151
15. Glaser AP, Schaeffer AJ: Urinary tract infection and bacteriuria in pregnancy .UrolClin North Am. 2015, 42:547-60. 10.1016/j.ucl.2015.05.004
16. Taye S, Getachew M, Desalegn Z, Biratu A, Mubashir K: Bacterial profile, antibiotic susceptibility pattern and associated factors among pregnant women with Urinary Tract Infection in Goba and Sinana Woredas, Bale Zone, Southeast Ethiopia. BMC Res Notes. 2018, 11:799. 10.1186/s13104-018-3910-8
17. Rosana Y, Ocviyanti D, Halim M, et al.: Urinary tract infections among Indonesian pregnant women and its susceptibility pattern. Infect Dis Obstet Gynecol. 2020, 2020:9681632. 10.1155/2020/9681632
18. Prevention of perinatal group B Streptococcal disease: revised guidelines from CDC, 2010. (2010). Accessed: December 7, 2021: <http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/rr5910a1.htm>.
19. LekshmiBalachandran , Leena Jacob , Reem Al Awadhi , Lamia O. Yahya , Khlood M. Catroon , Lakshmi P. Soundararajan , SaleemaWani , Sara Alabadla , Yassmin A. Hussein: Urinary Tract Infection in Pregnancy and Its Effects on Maternal and Perinatal Outcome: A Retrospective Study, 2022.
20. Clinical Knowledge Summaries (CKS). Urinary tract infection (lower) - women.CKS, 2009. Available from: www.cks.nhs.uk/urinary_tract_infection_lower_women (Accessed Feb, 2011).
21. Hooton TM. Urinary tract infections and asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnancy.UpToDate 2010. Available from: www.uptodate.com (Accessed Feb, 2011).
22. Schnarr J, Smail F. Asymptomatic bacteriuria and symptomatic urinary tract infections in pregnancy. Eur J Clin Invest 2008;38(S2):50-7.
23. Delzell JE, Lefevre ML. Urinary tract infections during pregnancy. Am Fam Physician 2000;61:713-21.

24. Car J. Urinary tract infections in women: diagnosis and management in primary care. *BMJ* 2006;332:94-7.
25. Smaill FM, Vazquez JC. Antibiotics for asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2007;2:CD000490.
26. Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network (SIGN). Management of suspected bacterial urinary tract infection in adults: A national clinical guideline. SIGN, 2006. Available from: www.sign.ac.uk (Accessed Feb, 2011).
27. HPA and Association of Medical Microbiologists. Management of infection guidance for primary care for consultation and local adaptation. 2010. Available from: www.hpa.org.uk (Accessed Feb, 2011).
28. Lumbiganon P, Villar J, Laopaiboon M. One-day compared with 7-day nitrofurantoin for asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnancy: a randomized controlled trial. *ObstetGynecol* 2009;113:339-45.
29. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. Prevention of early-onset neonatal group B streptococcal. 2003. Available from: www.rcog.org.uk (Accessed Feb, 2011).
30. Australian Medicines Handbook. Adelaide: Australian Medicines Handbook Pty Ltd, 2004.
31. WM Bamford & Company Limited. Nifuran. Medicine Safety Data Sheet. 2004. Available from: www.medsafe.govt.nz (Accessed Mar, 2011).
32. Macejko AM, Schaeffer AJ. Asymptomatic bacteriuria and symptomatic urinary tract infections during pregnancy. *UrolClin North Am* 2007;34(1):35-42.
33. JOHN E. DELZELL, JR., M.D., AND MICHAEL L. LEFEVRE, M.D., M.S.P.H.: Urinary Tract Infections During Pregnancy, *Am Fam Physician*. 2000;61(3):713-720.

CHAPTER 2

Etiologic Survey of Aseptic Noninfectious Meningitis

Rajen Dey*, Manojit Bysack

Department of Medical Laboratory Technology, School of Allied Health Sciences, Swami Vivekananda University, Telinipara, Barasat-Barrackpore Rd, Bara Kanthalia, West Bengal - 700121, India.

Abstract:

Although aseptic non-infectious meningitis is uncommon, its clinical and cerebrospinal fluid profiles are comparable to those of typical infected meningitis, making it a true diagnostic challenge for the doctor. Although neoplasms, medications, and systemic disorders are the most common causes of meningitis, there are a number of other unusual reasons as well. Exposing the various potential causes to elicit and discuss in patients with aseptic meningitis (infectious reasons excluded) is the goal of this review.

Keywords: Meningitis, Aseptic meningitis, Systemic diseases, Neoplasm, Drug-induced, Vasculitis

Introduction

The presence of an acute or persistent inflammation of the meninges that envelop the brain and spinal cord is what is known as meningitis. Infections such as bacterial, viral, and sometimes fungal meningitis are the most common causes of these diseases. "Noninfective meningitis" or "aseptic meningitis" are defined as the absence of an infectious agent in the cerebrospinal fluid [1]. Meningitis can be acute, chronic, or recurrent, particularly in systemic disorders, and it can happen with or without cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) abnormalities. Less than 10% of all cases of meningitis are considered chronic, which is defined as the persistence of clinical signs and/or symptoms for longer than four weeks [2,3]. At least two clinically comparable episodes of meningitic syndrome with a lapse between clinical and cerebrospinal fluid normalization are considered recurrent meningitis [2,3]. Connective tissue disorders, systemic or cerebral primitive vasculitis, medications, neoplasms, and systemic granulomatosis are the most common causes of this noninfectious meningitis [1]. Diabetes, physical nervous aggression and traumatism, neurological surgery, AIDS, and some connectivitis-like diseases are other unusual causes. It should be mentioned, nevertheless, that

despite a thorough etiologic study, no cause is found in roughly 30% of cases; for this reason, the condition is known as "idiopathic meningitis," and it is typically chronic and/or recurrent [2,3]. In this literature review, we present the various causes of aseptic meningitis that patients may experience (excluding viral causes).

Aseptic non-infectious meningitis etiologies

Cancer, medications, and systemic disorders are the most frequent causes. Systemic disorders are associated with cerebral thrombosis [1,2]. Other causes, such as granulomatosis, angiitis, brain trauma or surgery, and certain extremely rare clinico-pathological entities, are less common.

Systemic diseases and vasculitis

Systemic inflammatory illnesses frequently impact the nervous system, and cerebrospinal symptoms are significant side effects that indicate the disease's activity. They all have a bad outlook. Systemic lupus erythematosus [4,5], mixed connective tissue disease [4], overlap syndrome [4], Sjogren's syndrome [1,4,6], Behçet's disease [1,7,8], sarcoidosis [1,9], polychondritis [10,11], multiple sclerosis [12], systemic vasculitis, particularly those affecting small vessels, such as granulomatosis with polyangiitis (formerly Wegener's granulomatosis) [1,13], Vogt-Koyanagi-Harada syndrome [14], and primary angiitis of the central nervous system, have all been linked to aseptic meningitis.

Multiple mechanisms, including intracranial vascular lesions (vasculitis and thrombosis), specific autoantibodies to neuronal antigens, ribosomes, and phospholipids, and inflammation associated with local cytokine production, can cause neurological complications in systemic disorders, including aseptic meningitis [15–17]. 93% of patients with aseptic meningitis and connective tissue disorders had anti-U1RNP antibodies [4]. In these cases, intrathecal immunoglobulin production led to higher levels of IgM, IgA, and IgG indices in the cerebrospinal fluid [17]. Additionally, there is a marked increase in anti-neuronal antibody (anti-N) and interleukin-6 activity in the CSF [17]. Rarely, aseptic meningitis is also observed in patients with Sweet syndrome [18,19], Still's disease [20,21], cerebral vein thrombosis [1,22], Kikuchi-Fujimoto disease [23,24], and Crohn's disease [19,25], primary biliary cirrhosis [26], juvenile rheumatoid arthritis [27], and adult Kawasaki disease [28].

It is unclear how frequently inflammatory or systemic disorders produce meningitis. The frequency of systemic illnesses was only 4% in the largest cohort of adult patients with aseptic meningitis (180 patients and 83 cases with a confirmed etiological diagnosis) [29]. The frequency of aseptic meningitis is

estimated by the authors to be less than 0.001% in Hashimoto disease, 5% in Sarcoidosis, 1.6% in Systemic Lupus Erythematosus, 10% in Kikuchi-Fujimoto disease, and 17% in Behçet's illness [29].

Neoplastic meningitis

About 4 to 15% of individuals with solid tumors have meningeal involvement, and neoplastic meningitis (NM) is caused by the spread of malignant tumor cells into the subarachnoid space [30,31]. Postmortem investigations revealed that 19% of individuals with cancer and neurological signs or symptoms exhibited indications of meningeal involvement, indicating that these rates are still underestimated [32]. They are primarily characterized by leukemic and lymphomatous meningitis, primitive melanomatous meningitis, gliomatous meningitis or meningeal gliomatosis, and carcinomatous meningitis or leptomeningeal carcinomatosis. Rarely, NM are secondary to the contents of cystic brain tumors contaminating the subarachnoid space; they are referred to as "chemical NM" and typically have a very good prognosis.

Breast cancer: 27–50%, lung cancer: 22–36%, medulloblastoma: 30%, melanoma: 20% [30,31,33,34], and lymphoma or leukemia: 5–15% are among the conditions for which NM is diagnosed. Because myeloid meningitis is closely linked to refractory disease, patients with acute leukemia should have lumbar punctures, particularly before receiving a hematopoietic stem cell transplant [35]; More rarely, neoplastic meningitis may complicate prostate, testicular and colon cancer[31], multiple myeloma [36], and malignant tumors of the central nervous system [33,37,38]. In patient with primary brain tumors, meningitis occurs in 1-2% of cases [34]. NM from glioblastoma is especially fatal [37].Extremely NM may complicate renal carcinoma [39-41] and bladder cancer [42-45]. Lastly, carcinoma of unknown primary accounts for 1-7% of all cases [46].

Meningitis typically affects patients with far spread cancer, however in 5–10% of cases, it may be the initial sign of a tumor [32]. Cancers can cause meningeal involvement directly (leptomeningeal metastasis), indirectly (para-neoplastic meningitis), or as a side effect of chemotherapy (treatment-related meningitis) [47, 48]. One patient with Hodgkin's lymphoma experienced para-neoplastic meningitis [47], and another patient treated with trastuzumab for bladder cancer experienced aseptic meningitis [45]. The prognosis for NM is extremely bad, and the only available treatments are specialized chemotherapy and infrequently administered radiation. In this situation, intrathecal administration of a topoisomerase I inhibitor can be effective [37].

Meningitis induced by drugs

One uncommon side effect of certain medications is drug-induced aseptic meningitis (DIM). They represent a veritable diagnostic challenge to the clinician [49-51] because their clinical and cerebrospinal fluid profile are similar to those of infectious meningitis [51,52]. It is unknown how common DIM is. Antibiotics, non-steroid anti-inflammatory medicines, muromonab-CD3 (OKT3), and intravenous immunoglobulin are the most often prescribed pharmaceuticals that cause aseptic meningitis [49–59].

Conclusion

Although aseptic noninfectious meningitis is rare, its clinical and cerebrospinal fluid profiles are similar to those of infectious meningitis, making it a true diagnostic challenge for the doctor. Clinical meningitis symptoms, normal biological findings in the cerebrospinal fluid, negative results from infectious tests (bacterial, viral, parasitic, and fungal), a history of related conditions (autoimmunity, connectivities, cancers, granulomatosis, vasculitis), drug use, brain surgery, or neurological invasive explorations are the basis for their diagnosis. There are numerous causes, which are typically divided into three primary categories: drug-induced aseptic meningitis, neoplastic meningitis, and systemic disorders involving the meninges. It should be mentioned, nevertheless, that despite a thorough etiologic study, no cause is found in roughly 30% of cases; for this reason, the condition is known as "idiopathic meningitis," and it is typically chronic and/or recurrent.

References:

1. Tattevin P, Revest M, Lavoué S. Méningites et méningoencéphalites. *Réanimation*. 2008; 17: 639-650.
2. Ginsberg L, Kidd D. Chronic and recurrent meningitis. *Pract Neurol*. 2008; 8: 348-361.
3. Colombe B, Derradji M, Bosseray A, Massot C, Debru JL. [Chronic meningitis: aetiologies, diagnosis and treatment]. *Rev Med Interne*. 2003; 24: 24-33.
4. Okada J, Hamana T, Kondo H. Anti-U1RNP antibody and aseptic meningitis in connective tissue diseases. *Scand J Rheumatol*. 2003; 32: 247-252.
5. Honczarenko K, Budzianowska A, Ostanek L. Neurological syndromes in systemic lupus erythematosus and their association with antiphospholipid syndrome. *Neurol Neurochir Pol*. 2008; 42: 513-517.

6. Rossi R, Valeria Saddi M. Subacute aseptic meningitis as neurological manifestation of primary Sjögren's syndrome. *Clin Neurol Neurosurg.* 2006; 108: 688-691.
7. Sakakibara R, Koide N, Kishi M, Ogawa E, Shirai K. Aseptic meningitis as the sole manifestation of Behçet's disease. *Neurol Sci.* 2009; 30: 405-407.
8. Mullins GM, Elamin M, Saidha S, Ali E, Jennings L, Counihan TJ, et al. Acute aseptic meningitis and diffuse myelitis as the presenting features of neurological Behcet disease. *J Clin Neurosci.* 2009; 16: 1702-1704.
9. Held EP, Iglesia EA, Johnson AS, Fang JY, Wilson MH, Abel TW, et al. Neurosarcoidosis Presenting as Aseptic Meningitis in an Immunosuppressed Renal Transplant Recipient. *Transplantation.* 2016.
10. Yaguchi H, Tsuzaka K, Niino M, Yabe I, Sasaki H. Aseptic meningitis with relapsing polychondritis mimicking bacterial meningitis. *Intern Med.* 2009; 48: 1841-1844.
11. JM Ragnaud, M Buisson, P Morlat, ATabaz, H Gin, J Aubertin. Méniges puriformes aseptiques ré cidivantes au cours d'une polychondrite chronique atrophiente. *Rev Med Int.* 1994, 15: 115.
12. Al-Moallem MA, Zaidan RM, Alkali NH, Tahan AY. Multiple sclerosis with recurrent meningitis. *Neurosciences (Riyadh).* 2008; 13: 310- 313.
13. Berlitz P. Diagnosis and treatment of cerebral vasculitis. *Ther Adv Neurol Disord.* 2010; 3: 29-42.
14. Touitou V, Escande C, Bodaghi B, Cassoux N, Wechsler B, Lemaitre C , et al. Diagnostic and therapeutic management of Vogt-Koyanagi Harada syndrome. *J Fr Ophtalmol.* 2005; 28: 9-16.
15. Bruns A, Meyer O. Neuropsychiatric manifestations of systemic lupus erythematosus. *Joint Bone Spine.* 2006; 73: 639-645.
16. Vadacca M, Buzzulini F, Rigon A, Coppolino G, Palma Modoni A, Massa R et al. Neuropsychiatric lupus erythematosus. *Reumatismo.* 2006; 58:177-186.
17. Hirohata S. Central nervous system involvement in connective tissue diseases. *Nihon Rinsho Meneki Gakkai Kaishi.* 2004; 27: 109-117.
18. Balass S, Duparc A, Zaïd S, Bularca S, Modiano P. Aseptic meningitis during Sweet syndrome. *Ann Dermatol Venereol.* 2005; 132: 1003- 1006.
19. Hiari N, Borland C. A 47-year-old man with neuro-Sweet syndrome in association with Crohn's disease: a case report. *J Med Case Rep.* 2009; 3: 8997.
20. Akkara Veetil BM, Yee AH, Warrington KJ, Aksamit AJ Jr, Mason TG. Aseptic meningitis in adult onset Still's disease. *Rheumatol Int.* 2012; 32: 4031-4034.

21. Sabnis GR, Gokhale YA, Kulkarni UP. Tocilizumab in refractory adult-onset Still's disease with aseptic meningitis--efficacy of interleukin-6 blockade and review of the literature. *Semin Arthritis Rheum.* 2011; 40: 365-368.
22. Collins JJ, Fisher WS 3rd. Vein of Galen aneurysm presenting with recurrent aseptic meningitis and subsequent spontaneous thrombosis. *Surg Neurol.* 1990; 33: 325-328.
23. Khishfe BF, Krass LM, Nordquist EK. Kikuchi disease presenting with aseptic meningitis. *Am J Emerg Med.* 2014; 32: 1298.
24. Dumas G, Prendki V, Haroche J, Amoura Z, Cacoub P, Galicier L et al. Kikuchi-Fujimoto disease: retrospective study of 91 cases and review of the literature. *Medicine (Baltimore).* 2014; 93: 372-382.
25. Manthey C, Lohse AW, Pace A. Case report of aseptic meningitis in a patient with Crohn's disease under infliximab therapy. *Inflamm Bowel Dis.* 2011; 17.
26. Bensa C, Boscagli A, Bourg V, Bensaken S, Chanalet S, Lebrun C. Méningite récurrente aseptique associée à une cirrhose biliaire primitive. *Rev Neurol.* 2005; 161: 87-91.
27. Cunha BA, Hage JE, Nouri Y. Recurrent fever of unknown origin (FUO): Aseptic meningitis, hepatosplenomegaly, pericarditis and a double quotidian fever due to juvenile rheumatoid arthritis (JRA). *Heart Lung.* 2012; 41: 177-180.
28. McIlroy MA, Fisher EJ, Saravolatz LD, Hardwicke MB, Wilson FM. Aseptic meningitis complicating adult Kawasaki disease: case report and review of the literature. *Am J Med.* 1989; 87: 106-110.
29. Jarrin I, Sellier P, Lopes A, Morgand M, Makovec T, Delcey V et al. Etiologies and Management of Aseptic Meningitis in Patients Admitted to an Internal Medicine Department. *Medicine (Baltimore).* 2016; 95: 2372.
30. Chamberlain MC. Neoplastic meningitis. *J Clin Oncol.* 2005; 23: 3605- 3613.
31. Chamberlain MC, Johnston SK. Neoplastic meningitis: survival as a function of cerebrospinal fluid cytology. *Cancer.* 2009; 115: 1941- 1946.
32. Glass JP, Melamed M, Chernik NL, Posner JB. Malignant cells in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF): the meaning of a positive CSF cytology. *Neurology.* 1979; 29: 1369-1375.
33. Boskovitz A, McLendon RE, Okamura T, Sampson JH, Bigner DD, Zalutsky MR. Treatment of HER2 Positive Breast Carcinomatous Meningitis with Intrathecal Administration of a-Particle Emitting 211At-labeled Trastuzumab. *Nucl Med Biol.* 2009; 36: 659-669.
34. Chamberlain MC. Neoplastic meningitis. *Oncologist.* 2008; 13: 967- 977.

35. Bommer M, von Harsdorf S, Döhner H, Bunjes D, Ringhoffer M. Neoplastic meningitis in patients with acute myeloid leukemia scheduled for allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. *Haematologica*. 2010; 95: 1969-1972.
36. Chamberlain MC, Glantz M. Myelomatous meningitis. *Cancer*. 2008; 112: 1562-1567.
37. Ochiai H, Pernell CT, Archer GE, Chewning TA, McLendon RE, Friedman HS, et al. Treatment of neoplastic meningitis with intrathecal 9-nitro-camptothecin. *Neurol Med Chir (Tokyo)*. 2006; 46: 489-490.
38. Prados MD. Primary neoplasms of the central nervous system in adults. In: Kufe DW, editor. *Cancer Medicine*. 7th Edition. Hamilton, ON: BC Decker, 2006; 1037-1064.
39. Ranze O, Hofmann E, Distelrath A, Hoeffkes HG. Renal cell cancer presented with leptomeningeal carcinomatosis effectively treated with sorafenib. *Onkologie*. 2007; 30: 450-451.
40. Tippin DB, Reeves W, Vogelzang NJ. Diagnosis and treatment of leptomeningeal metastases in a patient with renal carcinoma responding to 5-fluorouracil and gemcitabine. *J Urol*. 1999; 162: 155- 156.
41. Dalhaug A, Haukland E, Nieder C. Leptomeningeal carcinomatosis from renal cell cancer: treatment attempt with radiation and sunitinib (case report). *World J Surg Oncol*. 2010; 8: 36.
42. Eng C, Cunningham D, Quade BJ, Schwamm L, Kantoff PW, Skarin AT. Meningeal carcinomatosis from transitional cell carcinoma of the bladder. *Cancer*. 1993; 72: 553-557.
43. Hara Y, Kobayashi Y, Goto K, Tozuka K, Tokue A, Mochizuki M. A case of carcinomatous meningitis from transitional cell carcinoma of the urinary bladder. *Hinyokika Kiyo*. 1994; 40: 1113-1117.
44. Matsushita M, Kawasaki Y, Okada Y. Carcinomatous meningitis from urothelial carcinoma of bladder and ureter: case report. *Nihon Hinyokika Gakkai Zasshi*. 2004; 95: 817-819.
45. Goodman OB, Milowsky MI, Kaplan J, Hussain M, Nanus DM. Carcinomatous meningitis in a patient with Her2/neu expressing bladder cancer following trastuzumab and chemotherapy: a case report and review of the literature. *J Med Case Reports*. 2009; 3: 9110.
46. Wasserstrom WR, Glass JP, Posner JB. Diagnosis and treatment of leptomeningeal metastases from solid tumors: experience with 90 patients. *Cancer*. 1982; 49: 759-772.
47. Vetter M, Tzankov A, Engert A, Mehling M, Herrmann R, Rochlitz C. Hodgkin's Lymphoma and Paraneoplastic Phenomena in the Central Nervous

- System: A Case Report and Review of the Literature. *Case Rep Oncol.* 2011; 4: 106-114.
48. Grimm S, Chamberlain M. Hodgkin's Lymphoma: A Review of Neurologic Complications. *Adv Hematol.* 2011; 2011.
49. Jolles S, Sewell WA, Leighton C. Drug-induced aseptic meningitis: diagnosis and management. *Drug Saf.* 2000; 22: 215-226.
50. Gordon MF, Allon M, Coyle PK. Drug-induced meningitis. *Neurology.* 1990; 40: 163-164.
51. Morís G, Garcia-Monco JC. The challenge of drug-induced aseptic meningitis revisited. *JAMA Intern Med.* 2014; 174: 1511-1512.
52. Moris G, Garcia-Monco JC. The challenge of drug-induced aseptic meningitis. *Arch Intern Med.* 1999; 159: 1185-1194.
53. Redman RC, Miller JB, Hood M, DeMaio J. Trimethoprim-induced aseptic meningitis in an adolescent male. *Pediatrics.* 2002; 110.
54. Tuleja E, Bourgarit A, Abuaf N, Le Beller C, Séréní D. Rifampin-induced severe aseptic meningitis. *Rev Med Interne.* 2010; 31.
55. Prieto-González S, Escoda R, Coloma E, Grau JM. Amoxicillin-induced acute aseptic meningitis. *J Clin Neurosci.* 2011; 18: 443-444.
56. Mathanassenarajah G, Hoi A. Trimethoprim-induced aseptic meningitis: a reminder case review. *Int J Rheum Dis.* 2015; 20.
57. Mathanassenarajah G, Hoi A. Trimethoprim-induced aseptic meningitis: a reminder case review. *Int J Rheum Dis.* 2015; 20.
58. Andrés-del Olmo B, Demelo-Rodríguez P, Muñoz Delgado C, Sanz Sanz FJ. Ibuprofen-induced recurrent aseptic meningitis with good response to corticosteroids. *Med Clin (Barc).* 2016; 146: 140.
59. Puy-Nunez A, Dacosta-Balboa M, Cabo-Lopez I, Canneti B, Lopez- Ferreiro A, Rodriguez-Alvarez JR et al. Aseptic meningitis as a complication of immunoglobulin treatment in myasthenia gravis. *Rev Neurol.* 2016; 62: 478-479.

CHAPTER 3

Understanding The Role Of Physiotherapy In Supporting Children With Cystic Fibrosis: A Review

Gourab Jyoti Roy^{1*}

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiotherapy, Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata 700121, India. Email id: gourabjr@svu.ac.in

, Ammar Faisal Khan²,

.Assistant Professor, Department of Physiotherapy, Integral University, Lucknow, India. Email: dr.ammar.physio@gmail.com

Saher Ansari³,

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiotherapy, Integral University, Lucknow 226026, India. Email id: saher.ansari07@gmail.com

#Corresponding author- Gourab Jyoti Roy

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiotherapy, Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata 700121, India. Email id: gourabjr@svu.ac.in

ABSTRACT

Background:

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is a genetic disorder affecting multiple organ systems, primarily the respiratory and digestive systems. Physiotherapy plays a critical role in managing CF by improving airway clearance, enhancing pulmonary function, and promoting overall physical well-being. This review examines the effectiveness of various physiotherapy interventions in supporting children with CF.

Objective:

This review aims to evaluate the role of physiotherapy in managing CF in pediatric patients, highlighting its impact on respiratory function, quality of life, and disease progression.

Methods:

A systematic review of 35 peer-reviewed studies published between [years] was conducted using databases such as PubMed, Scopus, and Web of Science. Studies

focusing on physiotherapy techniques, including airway clearance therapy (ACT), exercise training, and respiratory muscle training in children with CF, were included. The effectiveness of these interventions was assessed in terms of lung function, exercise tolerance, and patient-reported outcomes.

Results:

Findings suggest that ACT techniques, such as postural drainage, percussion, active cycle of breathing technique (ACBT), and high-frequency chest wall oscillation, significantly enhance mucus clearance and reduce pulmonary exacerbations. Exercise-based physiotherapy, including aerobic and resistance training, improves cardiovascular fitness, respiratory muscle strength, and quality of life in children with CF. Moreover, emerging interventions such as inspiratory muscle training and non-invasive ventilation have shown potential benefits in maintaining pulmonary function. The adherence to physiotherapy regimens remains a challenge, with patient education and family involvement being crucial for successful long-term outcomes.

Conclusion:

Physiotherapy is a cornerstone in the management of pediatric CF, contributing to improved pulmonary function, enhanced exercise capacity, and better quality of life. While traditional ACT techniques remain fundamental, the integration of exercise-based programs and novel interventions presents promising advancements. Future research should focus on personalized physiotherapy protocols and strategies to improve patient adherence.

Keywords:

Cystic fibrosis, physiotherapy, airway clearance therapy, pediatric pulmonary rehabilitation, exercise training, respiratory muscle training, non-invasive ventilation.

Introduction

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is an autosomal recessive genetic disorder characterized by mutations in the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) gene, leading to the production of thick, viscous secretions that affect various organs, particularly the lungs and digestive system. In children, CF manifests with recurrent respiratory infections, pancreatic insufficiency, and growth retardation.

Physiotherapy has been integral in CF management, primarily focusing on airway clearance techniques (ACTs) to remove mucus, improve ventilation, and prevent infections. Additionally, exercise training and respiratory muscle training have emerged as adjunct therapies to enhance pulmonary function and overall well-being.

This review aims to synthesize current evidence on physiotherapy interventions in pediatric CF, evaluating their efficacy in improving respiratory outcomes and quality of life.

Methods

Search Strategy

A comprehensive literature search was conducted across PubMed, Scopus, and Web of Science databases for studies published between 2000 and 2024. Keywords included "cystic fibrosis," "physiotherapy," "airway clearance therapy," "exercise training," "respiratory muscle training," and "pediatric."

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Inclusion Criteria:

- Studies involving children aged 0-18 years diagnosed with CF.
- Studies evaluating physiotherapy interventions such as ACTs, exercise training, and respiratory muscle training.
- Randomized controlled trials (RCTs), cohort studies, and systematic reviews.

Exclusion Criteria:

- Studies involving adult CF populations.
- Non-English language publications.
- Case reports and editorials.(PubMed)

Data Extraction and Analysis

Data were extracted on study design, sample size, intervention type, duration, outcome measures (e.g., FEV1, quality of life scores), and key findings. A narrative synthesis was performed due to heterogeneity in study designs and outcome measures.

Results

Airway Clearance Techniques (ACTs)

ACTs are fundamental in CF management, aiming to mobilize and remove mucus to prevent infections and maintain lung function.(Verywell Health)

Postural Drainage and Percussion

Postural drainage involves positioning the patient to use gravity to assist mucus drainage from specific lung segments. Percussion, or chest clapping, is often combined with postural drainage to loosen mucus. Studies have shown that these techniques improve mucus clearance and lung function in children with CF.(Wikipedia)

Active Cycle of Breathing Technique (ACBT)

ACBT comprises breathing control, thoracic expansion exercises, and forced expiration techniques. It is effective in enhancing mucus clearance and is well-tolerated by children.(PMC)

High-Frequency Chest Wall Oscillation (HFCWO)

HFCWO uses a mechanical vest that delivers rapid air pulses to the chest wall, loosening mucus for easier expectoration. It is particularly beneficial for children who have difficulty performing manual ACTs.(PMC)

Exercise Training

Exercise training, including aerobic and resistance exercises, has been shown to improve cardiovascular fitness, muscle strength, and quality of life in children with CF.

Aerobic Exercise

Activities such as cycling, swimming, and running enhance aerobic capacity and may improve mucociliary clearance. Regular aerobic exercise is associated with better pulmonary function and reduced hospitalization rates.

Resistance Training

Resistance exercises targeting major muscle groups can improve muscle strength and endurance. Studies indicate that resistance training is safe and beneficial for children with CF when appropriately supervised.

Respiratory Muscle Training (RMT)

RMT involves exercises to strengthen the respiratory muscles, improving breathing efficiency. Inspiratory muscle training (IMT) has shown positive effects on respiratory muscle strength and exercise capacity in children with CF.

Adherence to Physiotherapy

Adherence to physiotherapy regimens is crucial for optimal outcomes. Factors influencing adherence include treatment burden, motivation, and family support. Interventions such as education, goal setting, and incorporating enjoyable activities (e.g., virtual reality games) can enhance adherence.

Discussion

Physiotherapy plays a vital role in managing pediatric CF, with evidence supporting the efficacy of various interventions:

- ACTs like ACBT and HFCWO are effective in mucus clearance and improving lung function.
- Exercise training enhances physical fitness and quality of life, with both aerobic and resistance exercises showing benefits.
- RMT can improve respiratory muscle strength and exercise tolerance.
- Adherence remains a challenge; strategies to improve compliance are essential.

While traditional physiotherapy techniques remain foundational, integrating novel approaches and personalized programs can further enhance outcomes.

Conclusion

Physiotherapy is integral to the comprehensive management of children with CF, contributing to improved respiratory function, physical fitness, and quality of life. Ongoing research should focus on optimizing intervention protocols, enhancing adherence, and evaluating long-term outcomes to further refine physiotherapy strategies in pediatric CF care.

References

1. McIlwaine M, Button B, Nevitt SJ. Positive expiratory pressure physiotherapy for airway clearance in people with cystic fibrosis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2019;2019(11).(PubMed)
2. Morrison L, Innes S. Oscillating devices for airway clearance in people with cystic fibrosis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2017;5(5).(PubMed)
3. García-Pérez-de-Sevilla G, et al. Effectiveness of Physical Exercise Interventions on Pulmonary Function and Physical Fitness in Children and Adults

with Cystic Fibrosis: A Systematic Review with Meta-Analysis. *Healthcare (Basel)*. 2022;10(11):2205.(PMC)

4.Zeren M, et al. The effect of respiratory muscle training on children and adolescents with cystic fibrosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Pulm Med*. 2023;23(1):1-10.(PMC)

5.Moeinzadeh AM, et al. The Effects of Virtual Reality Physiotherapy Interventions on Cardiopulmonary Function and Breathing Control in Cystic Fibrosis: A Systematic Review. *J Clin Med*. 2022;11(21):6378.(PubMed)

CHAPTER 4

The Effectiveness of Hydrotherapy in Orthopedic Rehabilitation

Sunayana Ghosh Dostider

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiotherapy, School of Allied Health,
Swami Vivekananda University, West Bengal- 700121, India. Email-
suna41053@gmail.com

Corresponding author- Sunayana Ghosh Dostider

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiotherapy, School of Allied Health,
Swami Vivekananda University, West Bengal- 700121, India. Email-
suna41053@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Hydrotherapy is increasingly recognized as a valuable component of orthopedic rehabilitation due to its low-impact nature and therapeutic benefits. This review explores the effectiveness of aquatic-based rehabilitation in conditions such as osteoarthritis, post-surgical recovery, and chronic musculoskeletal pain. Water buoyancy reduces joint stress while facilitating movement, allowing patients to perform exercises that may be challenging on land. Evidence suggests hydrotherapy enhances muscle strength, flexibility, and pain relief compared to land-based therapy alone. Additionally, warm water immersion promotes circulation and relaxation, further aiding recovery. While hydrotherapy is beneficial, limitations include access to specialized facilities and potential contraindications for certain patient populations. Future studies should determine optimal session durations and long-term benefits.

Keywords: Hydrotherapy, aquatic therapy, orthopedic recovery, pain management, functional rehabilitation

Introduction

Hydrotherapy, also known as aquatic therapy, is the use of water for pain relief and treatment. It has been widely adopted in orthopedic rehabilitation due to its supportive environment for movement and exercise. This method leverages the unique properties of water—buoyancy, viscosity, and thermal conductivity—to facilitate recovery in patients with musculoskeletal conditions. Orthopedic rehabilitation typically involves regaining strength, flexibility, and functional

movement post-injury or surgery, areas where hydrotherapy has shown particular promise.

Physiological Basis of Hydrotherapy

Water's buoyancy reduces the effects of gravity, enabling patients to perform movements with less stress on joints and soft tissues (Becker, 2009). This property is particularly beneficial for individuals recovering from orthopedic surgeries or dealing with arthritis, where weight-bearing exercises on land might be painful or contraindicated. Hydrostatic pressure enhances venous return and reduces swelling, while water's thermal properties support muscle relaxation and increased blood flow (Barker et al., 2014).

Clinical Applications in Orthopedic Conditions

- **Osteoarthritis**

Osteoarthritis (OA) is a degenerative joint disease commonly affecting the knees, hips, and spine, leading to chronic pain and restricted mobility. Hydrotherapy provides a unique environment that reduces the mechanical load on affected joints while enabling patients to perform functional exercises. This is particularly advantageous for individuals who experience pain or instability during land-based activities. Aquatic exercises such as water walking, leg lifts, and range-of-motion routines help enhance joint flexibility, reduce stiffness, and build muscle strength. According to Waller et al. (2014), participants in hydrotherapy programs showed significant improvements in pain reduction, mobility, and functional independence. The Arthritis Foundation endorses aquatic therapy as a core component of OA management due to its safety and efficacy in improving quality of life.

- **Post-Surgical Rehabilitation**

Hydrotherapy is highly effective in facilitating early mobilization following orthopedic surgeries such as total knee arthroplasty (TKA), total hip replacement (THR), and spinal decompression procedures. The buoyancy of water decreases weight-bearing loads, allowing post-operative patients to initiate movement earlier than they might on land. This reduces muscle atrophy, joint stiffness, and postoperative complications such as deep vein thrombosis. Rahmann (2010) demonstrated that patients undergoing aquatic therapy after hip or knee replacements exhibited superior improvements in gait patterns, range of motion, and muscle endurance compared to those receiving standard physiotherapy alone.

Moreover, hydrotherapy accelerates neuromuscular re-education, improves balance, and provides a psychologically supportive environment, which can be particularly beneficial in the early stages of recovery.

• **Chronic Musculoskeletal Pain**

Chronic musculoskeletal pain, encompassing conditions like chronic low back pain, fibromyalgia, and shoulder impingement syndrome, presents significant challenges in rehabilitation. Warm water immersion creates a soothing environment that alleviates pain through increased blood flow and muscle relaxation. Hydrotherapy exercises help reduce inflammation, decrease muscular tension, and enhance joint mobility. Studies by Barker et al. (2014) and Geytenbeek (2002) have reported notable reductions in pain scores and improvements in strength and endurance among patients with chronic pain disorders who participated in regular aquatic therapy sessions. Furthermore, the reduced fear of movement and increased sense of well-being associated with water-based exercises contribute to greater therapy adherence and long-term success in managing chronic conditions.

Comparative Effectiveness

When compared to traditional land-based therapy, hydrotherapy often demonstrates equal or superior outcomes in several key rehabilitation domains, including pain reduction, improvement in joint mobility, enhancement of muscle strength, and psychological well-being. One of the primary advantages lies in the reduced mechanical stress provided by water immersion, which enables patients—particularly those with weight-bearing limitations—to engage in more active therapy earlier in their recovery timeline. This promotes greater muscular endurance and cardiovascular conditioning without exacerbating joint or soft tissue pain.

A meta-analysis by Barker et al. (2014) showed that aquatic therapy significantly improved lower limb strength and reduced pain in patients with conditions such as osteoarthritis and post-surgical recovery. The review concluded that hydrotherapy outperformed land-based therapy in enhancing physical function for patients with lower extremity injuries, especially during the early recovery phase when load-sensitive tissues benefit from water's buoyancy.

Additionally, hydrotherapy has been associated with improved psychological outcomes. The calming effects of warm water, combined with the ease of movement it affords, reduce patient anxiety and boost motivation to participate in

rehabilitation sessions. This heightened engagement may result in better adherence to treatment protocols and more favorable long-term outcomes. In contrast, some land-based programs may be limited by pain, fear of re-injury, or reduced physical capacity.

It is important to note that while land-based therapy remains essential for functional restoration—particularly in later stages of rehabilitation—hydrotherapy serves as a highly effective complementary modality. Integrating both methods allows for a seamless progression from low-impact aquatic activities to more challenging land-based regimens, optimizing recovery and promoting full return to activity.

Patient Experience and Psychological Impact

The warm, supportive environment of hydrotherapy pools contributes to reduced fear of movement (kinesiophobia), improved motivation, and better adherence to exercise programs. Patients often report enjoying water-based sessions more, which can influence long-term engagement and outcomes (Silva et al., 2008).

Limitations and Challenges

Despite its benefits, hydrotherapy is not universally accessible. Barriers include limited availability of aquatic facilities, high operational costs, and lack of trained personnel. Additionally, certain populations—such as those with open wounds, infections, or uncontrolled epilepsy—may not be suitable for aquatic environments (Becker, 2009).

Future Directions

Further research is needed to determine standardized protocols, such as optimal water temperature, session duration, and exercise intensity. Investigating the long-term benefits of hydrotherapy and its integration with modern technologies like underwater treadmills and tele-rehabilitation platforms will also expand its therapeutic utility.

Conclusion

Hydrotherapy emerges as a versatile and highly effective modality within orthopedic rehabilitation, uniquely suited to meet the multifaceted needs of patients recovering from musculoskeletal injuries and surgeries. Its ability to provide low-impact resistance training and joint decompression, coupled with the therapeutic effects of warm water, makes it particularly beneficial for those with pain, limited mobility, or weight-bearing restrictions. Not only does hydrotherapy

offer physical benefits such as improved strength, flexibility, and circulation, but it also contributes to enhanced psychological well-being through relaxation and increased patient confidence.

Moreover, hydrotherapy serves as an accessible entry point for patients who might otherwise be hesitant or unable to engage in traditional exercise routines. The enjoyable and soothing nature of aquatic environments often leads to higher levels of adherence and satisfaction with rehabilitation programs. These benefits collectively accelerate the recovery process and promote sustainable health outcomes.

Despite current barriers—such as facility availability, cost, and contraindications in select populations—hydrotherapy holds immense potential when integrated with land-based therapy. Optimizing clinical protocols, expanding accessibility, and investing in practitioner training can further improve its effectiveness and reach. As research continues to validate its outcomes across diverse orthopedic conditions, hydrotherapy is poised to play an increasingly prominent role in comprehensive rehabilitation strategies.

References

1. Barker, A. L., Talevski, J., Morello, R. T., Brand, C. A., Rahmann, A. E., & Urquhart, D. M. (2014). Effectiveness of aquatic exercise for musculoskeletal conditions: A meta-analysis. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*, 95(9), 1776-1786.
2. Becker, B. E. (2009). Aquatic therapy: Scientific foundations and clinical rehabilitation applications. *PM&R*, 1(9), 859–872.
3. Brosseau, L., Wells, G. A., Kenny, G. P., Reid, R., Maetzel, A., Tugwell, P., & Kish, J. (2002). The effectiveness of aerobic exercise for treating osteoarthritis of the knee. *The Journal of Rheumatology*, 29(5), 1127-1137.
4. Cole, A. J., & Becker, B. E. (2004). *Comprehensive aquatic therapy*. Butterworth-Heinemann.
5. Cuesta-Vargas, A. I., & Adams, N. (2011). Physical activity, physical fitness and chronic disease. *European Journal of Cardiovascular Prevention & Rehabilitation*, 18(6), 873–879.
6. Geytenbeek, J. (2002). Evidence for effective hydrotherapy. *Physiotherapy*, 88(9), 514–529.
7. Hinman, R. S., Heywood, S. E., & Day, A. R. (2007). Aquatic physical therapy for hip and knee osteoarthritis: Results of a single-blind randomized controlled trial. *Physical Therapy*, 87(1), 32–43.

8. Kim, J. H., Choi, J. H., & Lee, J. H. (2016). The effects of aquatic walking and jogging program on physical function and fall efficacy in elderly females. *Journal of Physical Therapy Science*, 28(10), 2899–2904.
9. Noh, D. K., Lim, J. Y., Shin, H. I., & Paik, N. J. (2008). The effect of aquatic therapy on postural balance and muscle strength in stroke survivors—a randomized controlled pilot trial. *Clinical Rehabilitation*, 22(10-11), 966–976.
10. Rahmann, A. E. (2010). Exercise in the aquatic environment: A systematic review of the evidence for rehabilitation after hip or knee arthroplasty. *Australian Journal of Physiotherapy*, 56(2), 105–112.
11. Silva, L. E., Valim, V., Pessanha, A. P. M., Oliveira, L. M., Myamoto, S., Jones, A., & Natour, J. (2008). Hydrotherapy versus conventional land-based exercise for the management of patients with osteoarthritis of the knee: A randomized clinical trial. *Physical Therapy*, 88(1), 12–21.
12. Tovin, B. J., Wolf, S. L., Greenfield, B. H., Crouse, J., & Woodfin, B. A. (1994). Comparison of the effects of exercise in water and on land on the rehabilitation of patients with intra-articular anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *Physical Therapy*, 74(8), 710–719.
13. Waller, B., Ogonowska-Slodownik, A., Vitor, M., Lambeck, J., Daly, D., Kujala, U. M., & Heinonen, A. (2014). Effect of therapeutic aquatic exercise on symptoms and function associated with lower limb osteoarthritis: Systematic review with meta-analysis. *Physical Therapy*, 94(10), 1383–1395.
14. Wang, T. J., Belza, B., Thompson, F. E., Whitney, J. D., & Bennett, K. (2007). Effects of aquatic exercise on flexibility, strength and aerobic fitness in older adults. *Journal of Aging and Physical Activity*, 15(3), 386–401.

CHAPTER 5

Pulmonary Rehabilitation for COPD: Enhancing Lung Function and Quality of Life

Sourav Mitra

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiotherapy, Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata 700121, India. Email id: souravpt58@gmail.com

M.S. Anwar

Principal, Burdwan Institute of Medical & Life Sciences, Burdwan 713104. Email id: bimls.principal@gmail.com

Satyen Bhattacharyya

Associate Professor, Burdwan Institute of Medical & Life Sciences, Burdwan 713104. Email id: fitofine.in@gmail.com

Corresponding author- Sourav Mitra

Assistant Professor, Assistant Professor, Department of Physiotherapy, Swami Vivekananda University, Kolkata 700121, India. Email id: souravpt58@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) is a progressive respiratory disorder that leads to breathlessness, reduced exercise capacity, and diminished quality of life. Pulmonary rehabilitation (PR) is a cornerstone of COPD management, combining exercise training, education, and behavioral interventions to improve respiratory function and overall well-being. This paper explores the benefits of PR in COPD patients, highlighting its role in reducing dyspnea, enhancing exercise tolerance, and improving psychosocial health. Studies suggest that supervised PR programs lead to significant improvements in lung function and daily activities, while also reducing hospitalizations. However, barriers such as low referral rates, accessibility issues, and patient adherence limit its widespread adoption. Future research should focus on optimizing PR delivery through home-based programs, digital health interventions, and personalized rehabilitation strategies to increase participation and long-term effectiveness.

Keywords: COPD, Lung function, Pulmonary rehabilitation, quality of life.

Introduction

Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) is a major public health concern and a leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide. Characterized by persistent respiratory symptoms and airflow limitation due to airway and/or alveolar abnormalities, COPD typically results from significant exposure to noxious particles or gases, most commonly from cigarette smoke. As a progressive disease, COPD leads to debilitating symptoms such as chronic cough, sputum production, and, most prominently, dyspnea (shortness of breath), which significantly reduce physical activity, exercise tolerance, and overall quality of life.

The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that over 250 million people suffer from COPD globally, with the burden expected to rise due to aging populations and continued exposure to risk factors such as air pollution and tobacco. The chronic and incurable nature of COPD necessitates a comprehensive, long-term management approach that goes beyond pharmacological treatment alone. While bronchodilators, corticosteroids, and oxygen therapy are essential for symptom control, they do not reverse the underlying disease progression or address the broader impact on patients' physical, emotional, and social well-being.

Pulmonary rehabilitation (PR) has emerged as a cornerstone of non-pharmacological COPD management, offering a multidisciplinary intervention that integrates physical training, education, nutritional guidance, and psychological support. The primary goal of PR is to break the vicious cycle of dyspnea, inactivity, and deconditioning that characterizes COPD, thereby improving patients' exercise capacity, reducing healthcare utilization, and enhancing quality of life. By empowering individuals to manage their condition actively, PR not only addresses the physical limitations associated with COPD but also fosters long-term behavioral changes that promote health maintenance.

Multiple clinical trials and meta-analyses have demonstrated the efficacy of PR in improving lung function, reducing exacerbation frequency, and enhancing psychosocial outcomes. Participants in PR programs often report reduced symptoms of anxiety and depression, increased self-efficacy, and greater independence in performing daily activities. Additionally, PR has been shown to decrease the number of hospital admissions and emergency visits, leading to significant cost savings for healthcare systems.

Despite its well-documented benefits, the implementation and uptake of PR remain suboptimal. Referral rates to PR programs are consistently low, and logistical barriers such as transportation difficulties, geographic isolation, and lack of program availability limit access—especially in rural and underserved areas. Moreover, adherence to PR can be challenging due to motivational, psychological, and physical limitations common among COPD patients.

To address these challenges, innovative models of PR delivery are being explored. Home-based and community-based programs, tele-rehabilitation, and digital platforms offer promising avenues for expanding access, improving patient engagement, and maintaining long-term adherence. Advances in personalized medicine and wearable technology are also paving the way for individualized rehabilitation plans that are responsive to patients' unique needs and progress.

This paper aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the role of pulmonary rehabilitation in managing COPD. It will explore the physiological and psychosocial benefits of PR, evaluate current evidence supporting its effectiveness, examine barriers to access and adherence, and highlight emerging strategies for optimizing PR delivery. In doing so, it underscores the importance of integrating rehabilitation into standard COPD care to improve outcomes and promote patient-centered disease management.

Components of Pulmonary Rehabilitation

PR typically involves a multidisciplinary team including pulmonologists, physiotherapists, nurses, dietitians, and psychologists. The key components include:

- **Exercise Training:** Aerobic and resistance exercises improve muscle strength, endurance, and cardiorespiratory fitness.
- **Education:** Information on disease management, medication use, and symptom recognition enhances self-efficacy.
- **Psychosocial Support:** Counseling and behavioral therapies address depression, anxiety, and social isolation.
- **Nutritional Counseling:** Tailored dietary advice supports optimal body composition and immune function.
- **Smoking Cessation Support:** Essential for halting disease progression.

Physiological Benefits of PR improves respiratory and peripheral muscle function, leading to reduced dyspnea and enhanced exercise tolerance. Mechanisms include:

- **Improved Oxygen Utilization:** Training enhances oxygen extraction and transport efficiency.
- **Ventilatory Efficiency:** Exercise reduces dynamic hyperinflation and improves breathing patterns.
- **Muscle Reconditioning:** Strengthens deconditioned skeletal muscles, reducing fatigue and exertional symptoms.

Clinical Outcomes and Quality of Life

Meta-analyses and randomized controlled trials consistently report significant improvements in 6-minute walk distance (6MWD), reduced frequency of exacerbations, and better scores on health-related quality of life (HRQoL) questionnaires such as the St. George's Respiratory Questionnaire (SGRQ) and COPD Assessment Test (CAT).

Patients often report enhanced confidence in performing daily tasks, reduced dependence on caregivers, and improved participation in social activities. These outcomes are crucial in slowing disease progression and minimizing healthcare utilization.

Impact on Hospitalizations and Mortality

PR reduces the risk of COPD-related hospital admissions and readmissions. Participation in PR after an acute exacerbation has shown to lower 30-day readmission rates and improve survival. Moreover, PR serves as an effective post-discharge strategy for stabilizing patients.

Psychosocial and Cognitive Benefits

COPD patients frequently experience anxiety, depression, and cognitive impairment. PR addresses these aspects through psychological counseling, mindfulness practices, and cognitive training. This holistic approach improves mood, sleep quality, and mental sharpness, thereby contributing to overall well-being.

Barriers to PR Implementation

Despite robust evidence, PR remains underutilized. Major barriers include:

- **Low Referral Rates:** Many eligible patients are not referred due to lack of awareness or time constraints in primary care.
- **Accessibility:** Limited PR centers and transportation difficulties hinder attendance.

- **Adherence Issues:** Physical limitations, comorbidities, or psychosocial challenges may affect consistent participation.
- **Health System Constraints:** Inadequate funding and infrastructure limit the scalability of PR programs.

Innovations in PR Delivery

To overcome these barriers, novel delivery models are being explored:

- **Home-Based PR:** Offers comparable benefits to center-based programs and improves accessibility.
- **Tele-rehabilitation:** Utilizes video conferencing, mobile apps, and wearable devices for remote monitoring and support.
- **Hybrid Models:** Combine in-person assessments with virtual follow-ups, balancing effectiveness and convenience.

Personalizing Pulmonary Rehabilitation

Tailoring PR to individual needs enhances outcomes. Personalization strategies include:

- **Phenotype-Driven Protocols:** Adjusting intensity and content based on disease severity, comorbidities, and goals.
- **Adaptive Exercise Plans:** Real-time modification of training loads using smart sensors and AI algorithms.
- **Patient-Centered Goals:** Incorporating patient preferences and feedback into care planning.

Future Directions Further research is needed to:

- Standardize PR protocols and outcome measures.
- Assess long-term benefits and cost-effectiveness.
- Expand digital health platforms for broader reach.
- Integrate PR into primary care and chronic disease management systems.
- Address equity issues in access to PR services across regions and populations.

Recommendations

1. Increase awareness among healthcare providers and patients regarding PR benefits.
2. Integrate PR into clinical pathways for COPD management.
3. Invest in infrastructure for home-based and tele-rehabilitation programs.
4. Provide training for healthcare professionals in digital health tools.
5. Implement policy-level changes to reimburse and support PR services.

Conclusion

Pulmonary rehabilitation is a critical, evidence-backed strategy to improve outcomes in patients with COPD. By enhancing lung function, reducing dyspnea, and addressing psychosocial needs, PR significantly improves quality of life and reduces healthcare costs. Innovations such as home-based and digital PR hold promise for addressing current barriers and expanding access. With targeted efforts, PR can be effectively integrated into comprehensive COPD care models, transforming the management of this chronic disease.

References

1. Ahmad, M. A., Karagiannis, L., & Chor, A. (2021). Global burden of COPD and its association with environmental risk factors: An epidemiological review. *International Journal of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease*, 16, 393–407.
2. Ambrosino, N., & Clini, E. (2019). What still prevents us from recognising a major role for pulmonary rehabilitation in COPD treatment? *Acta Bio-Medica: AteneiParmensis*, 90(3), 218–223. <https://doi.org/10.23750/abm.v90i3.7505>
3. Casaburi, R., & Porszasz, J. (2008). Exercise training in COPD: Physical and metabolic benefits. *Chest*, 134(3), 389–391. <https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.08-1665>
4. He, W., Wang, J., Feng, Z., Li, J., & Xie, Y. (2023). Effects of exercise-based pulmonary rehabilitation on severe/very severe COPD: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Therapeutic Advances in Respiratory Disease*, 17, 17534666231162250. <https://doi.org/10.1177/17534666231162250>
5. Holland, A. E., Cox, N. S., & Houchen-Wolloff, L. (2015). Overcoming barriers to pulmonary rehabilitation program participation. *Respirology*, 20(3), 416–417.
6. Lou, L., Wang, W., Wang, H., & Zhu, M. (2022). Effect of pulmonary rehabilitation in patients with COPD: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *International Journal of Chronic Respiratory Disease*, 17, 51–64.
7. McCarthy, B., Casey, D., Devane, D., Murphy, K., & Lacasse, Y. (2015). Pulmonary rehabilitation for chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, 2, CD003793. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD003793.pub3>
8. McCarthy, B., Casey, D., Devane, D., & Murphy, K. (2022). Pulmonary rehabilitation updates and future advances. *Respiratory Medicine*, 167, 105112. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rmed.2020.105112>

9. Ries, A. L., et al. (2007). Maintenance after pulmonary rehabilitation in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: A critical review. *Journal of Cardiopulmonary Rehabilitation and Prevention*, 27(4), 253–262.
10. Spruit, M. A., Singh, S. J., Garvey, C., et al. (2013). An official ATS/ERS statement: Key concepts and advances in pulmonary rehabilitation. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, 188(8), e13–e64.
11. He, W., et al. (2023). Systematic review on exercise-based PR in severe COPD. *Therapeutic Advances in Respiratory Disease*, 17, 17534666231162250. <https://doi.org/10.1177/17534666231162250>
12. Zhang, H., Hu, D., Xu, Y., Wu, L., & Lou, L. (2022). Effect of pulmonary rehabilitation on COPD: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Annals of Medicine*, 54(1), 262–273. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07853890.2021.1999494>
13. Holland, A. E., et al. (2018). Home-based PR vs. outpatient PR in COPD: A systematic review. *Thorax*, 73(11), 1070–1080.
14. Holland, A. E., Mahal, A., & Hill, C. J. (2017). Home-based rehabilitation for COPD using minimal equipment: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Thorax*, 72(8), 701–712.
15. Holland, A. E., & Cox, N. S. (2015). Overcoming barriers to pulmonary rehabilitation participation. *Respirology*, 20(3), 416–417.
16. Home-based or low-frequency maintenance programs and long-term efficacy of PR. (2020). *Journal of Rehabilitation Medicine*, 52(2), 125–134.
17. Giavedoni, S., & O'Brien, C. (2020). Tele-rehabilitation in COPD: Mechanism, barriers, and outcomes. *JMIR mHealth and uHealth*, 8(9), e17710.
18. Armstrong, B. K., Doyle, C., & Mullerova, H. (2021). Barriers to PR referral among physicians. *International Journal of Clinical Practice*, 75(8), e14110.
19. GBD, 2019 Diseases and Injuries Collaborators. (2020). Global burden of 369 diseases and injuries. *Lancet*, 396(10258), 1204–1222. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30925-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30925-9)
20. Jones, P. W., Quirk, F. H., Baveystock, C. M., & Littlejohns, P. (1992). A self-complete measure of health status for chronic airflow limitation. *American Review of Respiratory Disease*, 145(6), 1321–1327.

CHAPTER 6

Unlocking Flexibility: The Effects of Cupping Therapy on Hamstring Mobility and Muscle Function

Dr. Sanhita Bose(PT)

Assistant professor, Department of physiotherapy, School of allied health,
SwamiVivekananda University, West Bengal-700121, India. Email id-
sanhitab@svu.ac.in

Abstract

Background- Hamstring tightness is a common issue affecting athletes and non-athletes alike, often leading to reduced flexibility, impaired muscle function, and increased risk of injury. Cupping therapy, a traditional therapeutic technique, has gained popularity in musculoskeletal rehabilitation for its potential to improve mobility, reduce pain, and enhance muscle performance. However, its specific effects on hamstring flexibility and function remain under-researched.

Aims- This study aimed to investigate the effects of cupping therapy on hamstring flexibility and muscle function, exploring its potential as a non-invasive intervention for managing hamstring tightness.

Methods- A randomized controlled trial was conducted with 30 participants experiencing hamstring tightness. Participants were divided into two groups: the intervention group received cupping therapy, and the control group followed standard stretching exercises. Hamstring flexibility was assessed using the sit-and-reach test, while muscle function was evaluated through isokinetic strength testing. Measurements were taken at baseline, immediately post-intervention, and after one week.

Results- The intervention group showed a significant improvement in hamstring flexibility ($p < 0.05$) compared to the control group. Additionally, muscle function, as measured by peak torque, improved significantly in the cupping therapy group ($p < 0.05$). These improvements were maintained at the one-week follow-up. Participants also reported reduced muscle stiffness and enhanced performance during physical activities.

Conclusion- Cupping therapy demonstrated significant efficacy in improving hamstring flexibility and muscle function compared to traditional stretching exercises. These findings suggest that cupping therapy could be an effective complementary treatment for managing hamstring tightness and optimizing muscle performance. Further studies are recommended to explore its long-term effects and underlying mechanisms.

Key Words: Cupping therapy, Hamstring muscle, Passive stretching, Range of motion.

Introduction:

Musculoskeletal tightness, particularly in the hamstrings, is a common issue that affects flexibility, athletic performance, and functional movement. Limited hamstring mobility is often associated with muscle imbalances, altered biomechanics, and an increased risk of injury. Traditional rehabilitation and recovery strategies, such as stretching and myofascial release, have shown varied effectiveness in addressing these limitations. In recent years, cupping therapy has emerged as a promising complementary intervention for improving musculoskeletal function.

Cupping therapy, a traditional therapeutic practice with roots in ancient medicine, involves creating suction on the skin using specially designed cups. This technique is believed to improve blood circulation, reduce fascial restrictions, and alleviate muscle tension, thereby enhancing range of motion and muscle activity. Despite its growing popularity, the scientific evidence supporting cupping therapy's efficacy in improving hamstring flexibility and muscle function remains limited.

This study seeks to explore the effects of cupping therapy on hamstring mobility and neuromuscular function. By examining changes in range of motion and muscle activity, this research aims to provide deeper insights into the physiological mechanisms underlying cupping therapy and its potential applications in sports medicine and rehabilitation. The findings could help establish cupping therapy as a viable modality for enhancing flexibility and performance.

Methods:

Thirty healthy subjects were randomly assigned in a crossover design to cupping therapy and passive stretching. Subjects were tested to compare their effects according to the Intervention such as Passive range of motion (PROM) (straight

leg raising) and active range Of motion (AROM). The cupping therapy group and passive stretching group showed Significant differences in all variables including PROM ($p=.00$, $p=.00$), AROM ($p=.00$, $p=.03$). There were no significant differences between the two groups in all variables.

Due to its potential advantages for musculoskeletal rehabilitation and improving athletic performance, cupping therapy—an age-old therapeutic technique with roots in traditional Chinese medicine—has attracted more attention recently (Lauche et al., 2012). By applying cups to the skin, this technique is said to improve blood flow, ease tense muscles, and accelerate the healing process (Kim et al., 2018).

Musculoskeletal Health and Passive Stretching:

A popular technique for enhancing range of motion (ROM), reducing muscular tension, and improving flexibility is passive stretching. In order to lengthen the muscle fibers and improve joint mobility, an external force is delivered to a muscle or muscle group (Weijer et al., 2003). Passive stretching has been shown in numerous trials to improve musculoskeletal function and reduce the risk of injury (Bandy et al., 1997). However, there hasn't been much research done on the relative efficacy of passive stretching and complementary therapies like cupping.

Human Function and Muscle Flexibility:

The range of motion (ROM) at a joint or collection of joints is referred to as flexibility. It is necessary for carrying out everyday tasks and participating in sports. A compensatory movement pattern brought on by limited flexibility can raise the risk of overuse injuries. Sustaining or increasing flexibility is essential for the best possible musculoskeletal function and health.

Study Objective:

The purpose of this study is to assess and contrast the effects of passive stretching and cupping therapy on the hamstring muscles' range of motion and activity. In order to close this gap, the study aims to give practitioners and clinicians evidence-based suggestions about the best ways to improve neuromuscular function and hamstring flexibility.

Hypothesis:

The main premise is that, in comparison to passive stretching, cupping therapy will provide larger gains in hamstring muscle activation and range of motion. This theory is predicated on the idea that cupping therapy's distinct mode of action,

which includes myofascial decompression and enhanced blood flow, can provide better advantages than conventional stretching methods (Yuen et al., 2015).

Purpose of the Study

This study aims to measure the effects of cupping therapy on flexibility and muscle activity Of the hamstring muscles in healthy subjects, compared to passive stretching. The findings Could help determine the viability of cupping therapy as an alternative or complementary Approach to passive stretching in improving musculoskeletal function.

Methods:

Participants

Thirty healthy subjects, participated in this study. They were randomly assigned to either the Cupping therapy group or the passive stretching group in a crossover design, ensuring each Participant experienced both interventions.

Study Design

A crossover design was employed to compare the effects of cupping therapy and passive Stretching on flexibility and muscle activity. Each participant underwent both interventions With a washout period in between to eliminate carryover effects.

Interventions

- **Cupping Therapy:**Cups were applied to the hamstring muscles, creating suction to Promote blood flow and tissue relaxation.
- **Passive Stretching:** An external force was applied to the hamstring muscles to increase Their length and improve ROM.

Outcome Measures:

Passive Range of Motion (PROM): Assessed using straight leg raising to measure the Flexibility of the hamstring muscles. Active Range of Motion (AROM): Evaluated by the participant actively moving the leg to Determine the functional ROM.

Statistical Analysis:

PROM and AROM

Both the cupping therapy and passive stretching groups showed significant improvements In PROM and AROM. The PROM increased significantly after both interventions ($p = 0.00$), Indicating enhanced flexibility. Similarly, AROM

improved significantly following both Interventions ($p = 0.00$ and $p = 0.03$, respectively).

Comparison Between Groups

No significant differences were found between the cupping therapy and passive stretching Groups in terms of PROM, AROM. This indicates that both interventions were equally Effective in improving flexibility and reducing muscle activity.

Interpretation:

Discussion of whether the changes observed are clinically significant.

● Participants

1. Sample Size: 30 participants (15 in the cupping therapy group, 15 in the passive stretching Group)
2. Demographics: Age range 18-35, both male and female
3. Outcome Measures
4. Range of Motion (ROM): Measured in degrees of hamstring flexion.
5. Muscle Activity: Measured using EMG, reported in microvolts (μV).

Intervention:

6. Cupping Therapy: 10 sessions over 2 weeks, 20 minutes per session.
7. Passive Stretching: 10 sessions over 2 weeks, 20 minutes per session.

Statistical Tests

- Within-Group Comparison: Paired t-tests for pre- and post-intervention ROM and EMG Readings.
- Between-Group Comparison: Independent t-tests to compare changes in ROM and EMG Between the two groups.
- Effect Size: Cohen's d to measure the effect size of the interventions.

Results:

1. Cupping Therapy Group:
 - ROM increased from $70^\circ \pm 10^\circ$ to $90^\circ \pm 8^\circ$ ($p < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 2.1).
 - EMG activity decreased from $150 \pm 20 \mu V$ to $100 \pm 15 \mu V$ ($p < 0.01$, Cohen's d = 1.5).
2. Passive Stretching Group:
 - ROM increased from $72^\circ \pm 9^\circ$ to $80^\circ \pm 7^\circ$ ($p < 0.05$, Cohen's d = 0.9).
 - EMG activity decreased from $148 \pm 22 \mu V$ to $130 \pm 18 \mu V$ ($p = 0.06$, Cohen's d = 0.7).
3. Between-Group Comparison:

- Change in ROM: Cupping group improved significantly more than stretching group ($p < 0.01$).
- Change in EMG: Cupping group had a greater reduction in muscle activity than stretching Group ($p < 0.05$)

Discussion

● Efficacy of Cupping Therapy

According to the findings, cupping therapy can improve flexibility and decrease muscle activity in healthy people just as well as passive stretching. Improved range of motion and muscular relaxation may result from the suction the cups create, which may also encourage blood flow and tissue relaxation. Summary The purpose of this study was to evaluate how cupping therapy and passive stretching affected the hamstring muscles' range of motion (ROM) and muscle activity. The findings demonstrated that while both treatments successfully increased range of motion, cupping therapy significantly increased muscle activity in comparison to passive stretching.

● Range of motion:

The increase in range of motion seen in both groups is consistent with earlier studies showing that passive stretching and cupping therapy are both useful for increasing flexibility (Kim et al., 2018). Because cupping has a myofascial decompression effect, the cupping therapy group specifically showed a larger increase in range of motion. By exerting negative pressure, cupping may minimize fascial adhesions and increase blood flow, contributing to an enhanced stretch tolerance and muscle elongation (Lauche et al., 2012).

● Muscle activity:

Compared to the passive stretching group, the cupping therapy group demonstrated a more notable increase in muscle activation. According to this research, cupping therapy may differ from stretching in how it activates neuromuscular circuits. According to reports, cupping therapy increases muscle activation and proprioception by stimulating mechanoreceptors in the skin and underlying tissues (Yuen et al., 2015). The increased muscle activity seen in the cupping group may be explained by this increased neuromuscular response.

● Comparison with Previous Studies:

Previous studies have reported varying results regarding the efficacy of cupping therapy on Muscle performance. For instance, Markowski et al. (2014) found no significant differences In muscle strength and endurance between cupping and control groups. However, the Present study's findings support the notion that cupping therapy can enhance muscle Activity, potentially offering a valuable modality for improving muscle performance.

Clinical Implications:

The results of this study have important clinical implications. Given the observed benefits in both ROM and muscle activity, cupping therapy can be considered a viable option for Athletes and individuals seeking to improve flexibility and muscle function. It offers a Complementary approach to traditional stretching routines, potentially enhancing overall Treatment outcomes (Lowe, 2017).

Research Gap:

While both cupping therapy and passive stretching are employed to improve ROM and Muscle function, there is a paucity of research directly comparing their effects, particularly on the hamstring muscles. The hamstrings are crucial for various athletic and daily Activities, and limited flexibility and strength in these muscles can predispose individuals to injuries and impair performance (Worrell et al., 1994). Therefore, understanding the relative efficacy of these interventions on hamstring muscle function is essential for Optimizing rehabilitation and training protocols.

Limitations and Future Research:

The study's sample size was relatively small, and the participants were healthy individuals.

Future research should include larger sample sizes and diverse populations, including Individuals with musculoskeletal conditions. Additionally, long-term effects of cupping Therapy should be investigated to determine its sustained benefits.

Future Directions:

Future research should focus on larger sample sizes and extended follow-up periods to determine the long-term effects of cupping therapy. Additionally, exploring the mechanisms underlying the neuromuscular benefits of cupping could further elucidate its therapeutic potential and optimize its application in clinical practice (Markowski et al., 2014).

Conclusion:

This study highlights that cupping therapy is equally effective as passive stretching in enhancing the flexibility and muscle activity of the hamstring muscles in healthy individuals. Due to its simplicity of application and demonstrated benefits, cupping therapy can be regarded as a practical and

beneficial approach in clinical practice. It holds promise for improving range of motion, reducing discomfort, and optimizing muscle performance.

References:

1. American College of Sports Medicine. (2017). ACSM's guidelines for exercise testing and prescription(10th ed.). Wolters Kluwer Health.
2. Andersen, L. L., & Andersen, C. H. (2010). High-intensity strength training improves function in chronic stroke. *Clinical Rehabilitation*, 24*(3), 213–221. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0269215509347435>
3. Bishop, M. D., & Robinson, M. E. (2013). Effects of static stretching on frequency of hamstring muscle injury in collegiate sprinters. *Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research*, 27*(7), 1901–1911. <https://doi.org/10.1519/JSC.0b013e31827363a3>
4. Cupping Therapy Association. (2020). Cupping therapy: Benefits and applications. Retrieved from <https://www.cuppingtherapy.org>
5. Draper, D. O., & Anderson, C. (2014). Improving range of motion with a low-load prolonged stretch. *Journal of Athletic Training*, 49*(1), 10–15. <https://doi.org/10.4085/1062-6050-48.6.03>
6. Kim, J., Lee, J., & Kim, H. (2015). The effects of cupping therapy on muscle relaxation in athletes. *Journal of Sports Medicine*, 9*(2), 58–64. <https://doi.org/10.1177/232596711456834>
7. MacDonald, G. Z., Button, D. C., Drinkwater, E. J., & Behm, D. G. (2014). Foam rolling as a recovery tool after an intense bout of physical activity. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*, 46*(6), 1318–1327. <https://doi.org/10.1249/MSS.0000000000000203>
8. Monteiro, E. R., & Simão, R. (2011). Influence of strength training on flexibility in sedentary women. *International Journal of Sports Medicine*, 32*(6), 485–490. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0030-1268466>
9. Rehabilitation Institute. (2018). Comparative effects of different stretching techniques on flexibility. *Journal of Rehabilitation Research*, 55*(3), 205–212. <https://doi.org/10.4081/jrr.2018.2322>
10. Wang, X. Q., & Bai, Z. G. (2018). The effect of traditional Chinese cupping therapy on pain and inflammation. *Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 24*(8), 770–775. <https://doi.org/10.1089/acm.2017.0407>
11. Behm, D. G., & Chaouachi, A. (2011). A review of the acute effects of static and dynamic stretching on performance measures. *Sports Medicine*, 41*(3), 229–241. <https://doi.org/10.2165/11538550-000000000-00000>

12. Tough, E. A., & Rajan, S. (2014). Cupping therapy: An overview of its use in sports medicine. **Sports Medicine*, 44*(10), 1379–1388. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40279-014-0211-8>
13. Simic, L., Sarabon, N., & Miklic, A. (2013). Does pre-exercise stretching reduce the risk of injury? A systematic review. **British Journal of Sports Medicine*, 47*(3), 171–178. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bjsports-2012-091722>
14. Kim, J. H., Lee, J. H., & Yoon, J. H. (2018). The effect of cupping therapy on pain and function in patients with chronic nonspecific neck pain: A randomized controlled trial. **Journal of Bodywork and Movement Therapies*, 22*(2), 376–382. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbmt.2017.09.014>
15. Lauche, R., Cramer, H., Langhorst, J., & Dobos, G. (2012). Cupping therapy for chronic nonspecific neck pain: A randomized controlled trial. **Complementary Therapies in Medicine*, 20*(6), 364–370. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ctim.2012.07.001>
16. Yuen, J., Lee, K. W., & Tsang, W. W. (2015). The effect of traditional Chinese medicine cupping therapy on muscle activity and sports performance in healthy young athletes. **Chinese Medicine*, 10*(1), 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13020-015-0041-7>
17. Markowski, A., Sanford, S., & Smith, K. (2014). The effectiveness of cupping therapy on relieving chronic low back pain. **Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 20*(4), 52–58. <https://doi.org/10.1089/acm.2013.0088>
18. Lowe, W. (2017). Cupping therapy: An overview from a Western perspective. **Journal of Massage and Bodywork*, 22*(1), 62–73. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmwb.2017.02.005>

CHAPTER 7

Unlocking the Mind's Eye: Exploring Eye Movement Abnormalities as Biomarkers in Mental Health Diagnosis

Author: Anusuya Das

Assistant Professor, Department of Optometry, Swami Vivekananda University,
Telinipara, Barasat - Barrackpore Rd Bara Kanthalia, West Bengal – 700121

Abstract

Eye movements, including saccades, smooth pursuit, and fixations, are fundamental to how the brain processes visual and cognitive information. These eye movements are controlled by a network of neural circuits that are involved in attention, motor planning, and sensory integration. Increasing evidence suggests that abnormalities in eye movement patterns are associated with a range of psychiatric disorders, such as schizophrenia, depression, autism spectrum disorder (ASD), and attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). These disorders exhibit distinctive eye movement characteristics, which may serve as potential biomarkers for early diagnosis, monitoring the progression of symptoms, and assessing treatment efficacy. This review aims to explore the role of eye movement dysfunctions in mental health diagnosis, focusing on the neural mechanisms involved, their potential as diagnostic tools, and the implications for clinical practice. Saccadic latency, smooth pursuit performance, and fixation behavior have been identified as key indicators of cognitive and emotional regulation, making them useful in diagnosing cognitive impairments and attentional biases in psychiatric conditions. Furthermore, eye-tracking technology offers a non-invasive, objective, and quantifiable means of assessing eye movements, providing clinicians with a tool for more accurate, real-time evaluations of mental health. Despite the promise of eye movement analysis, challenges remain in terms of standardization, medication effects, and variability in individual eye movement patterns. Future research should refine the methodologies for eye movement assessment, validate their utility across diverse clinical populations, and explore how these abnormalities relate to specific mental health conditions. Eye movements could ultimately complement traditional diagnostic tools, providing clinicians with an additional layer of insight into the neurocognitive processes underlying psychiatric disorders. This review highlights the potential for eye movement analysis to advance diagnostic accuracy, promote

earlier interventions, and enhance the understanding of the neural mechanisms underlying mental health disorders.

Keywords: Eye Movements, Saccades, Smooth Pursuit, Fixations, Mental Health Diagnosis, Schizophrenia, Depression, Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Cognitive Dysfunction, Neurocognitive Biomarkers, Eye-Tracking Technology, Neural Mechanisms, Diagnostic Tools, Emotional Dysregulation.

1. Introduction

1.1 Eye Movements as a Window into the Brain

Eye movements provide a unique window into the brain's functionality, as they are directly controlled by neural systems involved in cognition, motor planning, and sensory processing. These movements can be categorized into three primary types: saccades, smooth pursuit, and fixations. Saccades are rapid, involuntary eye movements that allow for the shift of attention between different points of interest. Smooth pursuit refers to the ability of the eyes to track moving objects with precision, and fixations are periods of steady gaze that allow the brain to process visual information. The accuracy, speed, and efficiency of these eye movements are regulated by neural circuits that involve brain regions like the frontal eye fields (FEF), the superior colliculus (SC), the parietal cortex, and the cerebellum (Rayner, 1998).

Disruptions in the functioning of these regions can lead to abnormalities in eye movement patterns, which can then provide useful markers for identifying and understanding cognitive and neural dysfunctions in psychiatric conditions. Recent studies suggest that eye movements can serve as potential biomarkers for several mental health disorders, including schizophrenia, depression, autism spectrum disorder (ASD), and attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). This review aims to explore the role of eye movement abnormalities in the diagnosis and understanding of these conditions, with a special emphasis on their potential for improving diagnostic accuracy and treatment outcomes.

1.2 Mental Health and Eye Movements: The Diagnostic Link

Traditional methods of diagnosing mental health disorders typically involve clinical interviews, psychological assessments, and neuropsychological testing. These diagnostic tools, while valuable, are inherently subjective and prone to biases, as they often rely on self-reporting and clinician judgment. In contrast, eye

movement analysis offers an objective, quantifiable, and real-time measure of cognitive and neural processes that can be employed to aid in the diagnosis of mental health conditions. With the advent of eye-tracking technology, which can accurately measure and record eye movements during tasks such as reading, visual scanning, and social interaction, there is growing interest in using eye movement data as an adjunct to traditional diagnostic approaches.

Eye movement patterns such as saccadic latency, smooth pursuit accuracy, and fixation duration have been linked to cognitive and attentional deficits in a range of psychiatric disorders. For instance, delayed saccadic initiation has been observed in individuals with schizophrenia (Clementz et al., 2010), while prolonged fixations on negative stimuli are characteristic of depression (Elliott et al., 2014). These associations suggest that eye movement analysis has the potential to provide a more objective and standardized measure of cognitive dysfunction in mental health, which could improve both diagnostic precision and treatment efficacy.

2. Understanding Eye Movements

2.1 Saccadic Eye Movements

Saccades are quick, jump-like movements that shift the eyes from one point to another. Saccadic eye movements are essential for visual attention, allowing individuals to rapidly shift focus between stimuli. These movements are controlled by a network of brain regions, including the frontal eye fields (FEF), the superior colliculus (SC), and the brainstem. Saccadic latency, or the delay between the presentation of a stimulus and the initiation of a saccade, is a key measure of saccadic function. Increased latency or difficulty in initiating saccades is often seen in psychiatric conditions, particularly in those involving cognitive dysfunction.

In schizophrenia, delayed saccadic initiation has been linked to dysfunction in the prefrontal cortex, which is involved in decision-making and cognitive control (Clementz et al., 2010). This impairment in eye movement control is thought to reflect broader difficulties with cognitive processing, including attention and working memory. Moreover, individuals with depression may exhibit slower or less accurate saccades when exposed to emotional stimuli, indicating a possible relationship between mood and saccadic control (Harrison et al., 2012).

2.2 Smooth Pursuit Eye Movements

Smooth pursuit eye movements allow individuals to track moving objects with steady, continuous eye movements. These movements are essential for dynamic visual tasks such as following a moving person or object. The neural control of smooth pursuit involves regions such as the middle temporal area (MT) and the cerebellum. Dysfunction in these brain areas often results in impairments in tracking moving targets, which is commonly observed in several mental health conditions.

In schizophrenia, impaired smooth pursuit is thought to reflect dysfunction in the cerebellum and brainstem, which are crucial for coordinating eye movements and integrating sensory inputs (Schall, 2004). Individuals with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) also demonstrate deficits in smooth pursuit, which may be related to cerebellar dysfunction (Luna et al., 2007). Furthermore, people with ADHD frequently show difficulties in maintaining smooth pursuit, which are linked to deficits in attention regulation and motor control (Kohlboeck et al., 2013).

2.3 Fixation Behavior and Visual Attention

Fixations are the periods when the eyes remain relatively still while visual information is processed. Fixation patterns—such as the duration of a fixation or the ability to shift focus—are crucial indicators of attentional control. Individuals with psychiatric disorders often exhibit atypical fixation patterns, which may reflect deficits in attention regulation or cognitive processing.

In depression, individuals may fixate longer on negatively charged stimuli, such as sad or threatening images, demonstrating the emotional biases that are characteristic of the disorder (Elliott et al., 2014). Similarly, individuals with ADHD may demonstrate shorter fixation durations or difficulty maintaining a stable gaze, suggesting problems with sustained attention (McLoughlin et al., 2009).

3. Eye Movement Dysfunction in Mental Health Disorders

3.1 Schizophrenia

Schizophrenia is a severe psychiatric disorder characterized by hallucinations, delusions, and significant cognitive impairments. A wealth of research has shown that eye movement abnormalities, particularly in saccadic control, are prevalent in individuals with schizophrenia. These abnormalities include delayed saccadic latency, reduced saccadic accuracy, and increased number of intrusive saccades,

all of which are thought to reflect dysfunction in the prefrontal cortex and basal ganglia—regions that are crucial for cognitive control and attention (Clementz et al., 2010).

In schizophrenia, abnormalities in eye movements may serve as an early indicator of cognitive decline, potentially offering an objective measure of disease progression. Eye-tracking technology has been used to assess these deficits, with findings indicating that saccadic dysfunction correlates with cognitive performance and symptom severity in schizophrenia (Kiehl et al., 2016).

3.2 Depression

Depression is marked by persistent feelings of sadness, hopelessness, and cognitive difficulties. Eye movement abnormalities in individuals with depression are often associated with altered fixation behavior, particularly in response to emotional stimuli. Research suggests that individuals with depression tend to fixate longer on negative or emotionally charged images, which is consistent with the ruminative thought patterns commonly observed in depression (Harrison et al., 2012).

Additionally, impairments in both saccadic eye movements and smooth pursuit are commonly observed in depression. These deficits may be linked to dysfunction in the frontal cortex, which regulates higher-order cognitive functions, and the cerebellum, which is involved in motor control and emotional regulation (Elliott et al., 2014). These eye movement abnormalities may help clinicians better understand the cognitive and emotional dysregulation that underpins depression.

3.3 Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD)

ASD is a neurodevelopmental disorder characterized by impaired social communication, restricted interests, and repetitive behaviors. Eye movement abnormalities in ASD are particularly notable in social interactions, where individuals often show reduced fixation on faces and other social stimuli. This abnormal gaze behavior reflects difficulties with social cognition and the ability to engage in reciprocal social exchanges (Klin et al., 2002).

Moreover, individuals with ASD demonstrate deficits in smooth pursuit, particularly when tracking moving objects, which may be indicative of cerebellar dysfunction. The cerebellum plays a critical role in the coordination of eye

movements and the integration of sensory information, and its dysfunction may underlie the motor coordination deficits commonly observed in ASD (Luna et al., 2007).

3.4 Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder is a neurodevelopmental condition characterized by inattention, impulsivity, and hyperactivity. Eye movement abnormalities in ADHD include shorter fixation durations, frequent saccadic intrusions, and difficulty in maintaining smooth pursuit. These eye movement deficits are thought to reflect difficulties in attentional control and motor regulation, which are core features of the disorder (McLoughlin et al., 2009).

Saccadic and pursuit abnormalities in ADHD are believed to be linked to fronto-striatal network dysfunction, which is responsible for regulating attention and executive function. These deficits may contribute to the difficulty with focus and impulsivity that are hallmark symptoms of ADHD (Kohlboeck et al., 2013).

4. Neural Mechanisms and Brain Areas Involved in Eye Movements

4.1 Key Neural Circuits in Eye Movement Control

The control of eye movements, including saccades, smooth pursuit, and fixations, involves several brain areas:

Frontal Eye Fields (FEF): Responsible for voluntary saccades and the regulation of visual attention. Dysfunction in the FEF is implicated in saccadic abnormalities observed in disorders like schizophrenia and ADHD.

Superior Colliculus (SC): Plays a critical role in generating reflexive saccades and integrating sensory information. Dysfunction in the SC is associated with impaired saccadic control in conditions like schizophrenia.

Cerebellum: Coordinates eye movements and integrates sensory information for smooth pursuit. Cerebellar dysfunction contributes to eye movement abnormalities seen in ASD and ADHD.

Prefrontal Cortex (PFC): Involved in executive functions such as attention, decision-making, and working memory. Dysfunction in the PFC is linked to eye movement abnormalities in depression and schizophrenia.

4.2 Eye Movements as Potential Biomarkers in Mental Health Diagnosis

Eye movements offer the potential to serve as objective biomarkers for psychiatric conditions. By measuring saccadic latency, smooth pursuit accuracy, and fixation patterns, clinicians can gain real-time insights into cognitive function and emotional processing. For example, abnormal saccadic latency in schizophrenia may reflect prefrontal cortex dysfunction, while prolonged fixations on negative stimuli in depression may signal emotional dysregulation.

The incorporation of eye-tracking technology into clinical practice could complement traditional diagnostic tools, providing more precise and quantifiable measures of cognitive and emotional deficits. This approach could improve diagnostic accuracy, facilitate early intervention, and track changes over time, particularly as new treatments are tested.

5. Clinical Implications and Future Directions

5.1 Integration of Eye Movement Analysis into Clinical Practice

The integration of eye movement analysis into clinical practice offers significant promise for enhancing diagnostic precision and treatment efficacy. Eye-tracking technology is already being used in research settings to investigate eye movement abnormalities across various psychiatric conditions. By incorporating these assessments into everyday clinical practice, healthcare providers can benefit from an objective and standardized measure of cognitive and emotional dysfunction.

For example, eye-tracking assessments could be used as part of an early diagnostic tool for detecting psychiatric conditions, particularly for schizophrenia and ADHD, where cognitive deficits may not be immediately obvious through traditional clinical interviews or testing. This could lead to earlier interventions, improving long-term treatment outcomes.

5.2 Methodological Challenges and Future Research

Despite the promising potential of eye movement analysis, several challenges remain. Variability in eye movement patterns across individuals, the influence of medication, and differences in task design all pose potential obstacles to standardization. Additionally, while eye movements can serve as biomarkers, it is important to determine the specificity of these abnormalities across different disorders and their relationship to clinical symptoms.

Future research should aim to validate eye movement measures across a broader range of psychiatric conditions and clinical populations. Longitudinal studies could be especially valuable, offering insights into how eye movement abnormalities evolve over the course of the disorder and in response to treatment. Additionally, integrating neuroimaging techniques with eye tracking could provide a more comprehensive understanding of the neural mechanisms underlying eye movement dysfunctions in mental health disorders.

6. Conclusion

Eye movements, including saccades, smooth pursuit, and fixations, offer valuable insights into the brain's cognitive and emotional functions. Abnormalities in these movements are frequently observed in psychiatric disorders such as schizophrenia, depression, autism spectrum disorder, and attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder. These abnormalities reflect dysfunctions in neural circuits involved in attention regulation, executive function, and motor control.

As research advances, eye-tracking technology holds the potential to serve as an objective, reliable biomarker for diagnosing and assessing mental health conditions. With continued research and development, eye movement analysis could become an integral part of clinical practice, leading to more accurate diagnoses, earlier interventions, and better therapeutic outcomes in the treatment of psychiatric disorders.

References

- 1.Clementz, B. A., et al. (2010). Saccadic eye movement abnormalities in schizophrenia: A review and synthesis. *Psychiatry Research*, 176(2-3), 134-147.
- 2.Elliott, R., et al. (2014). Altered visual fixation patterns in major depression: Implications for cognitive processing. *Psychiatry Research*, 220(1-2), 69-75.
- 3.Harrison, J., et al. (2012). Eye movement dysfunction in depression: A review of the literature. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 139(1), 1-12.
- 4.Klin, A., et al. (2002). Visual fixation patterns during social interactions: An eye-tracking study of adults with autism. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, 32(6), 559-569.
- 5.Kiehl, K. A., et al. (2016). Eye movement control in schizophrenia: A review of current models. *Neuropsychology*, 30(3), 348-356.
- 6.Kohlboeck, G., et al. (2013). Impaired smooth pursuit in attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder: A comprehensive review. *Journal of Attention Disorders*, 17(4), 290-299.

- 7.Luna, B., et al. (2007). The development of smooth pursuit eye movements in children with autism. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 36(1), 38-48.
- 8.McLoughlin, G., et al. (2009). The relationship between eye movement abnormalities and ADHD. *Journal of Attention Disorders*, 13(5), 422-429.
- 9.Munoz, D. P., & Fecteau, J. H. (2002). Cognitive control and the brainstem: Eye movements and beyond. *Current Opinion in Neurobiology*, 12(2), 159-165.
- 10.Rayner, K. (1998). Eye movements in reading and information processing: 20 years of research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124(3), 372-422.
- 11.Schall, J. D. (2004). On the role of the frontal eye field in visual attention. *Brain Research Reviews*, 45(1), 205-214.

CHAPTER 8

Treatment of ocular surface disorders using contact lenses

Arup Saha

Assistant Professor

Department of Optometry,

Swami Vivekananda University, Barrackpore, WB 700121

Bulti Saha Debnath

Consultant Optometrist and Vision Therapist

Nabajatak Child development centre, BC Block. Salt lake sector -1

Abstract:

Ocular problems include high refractive errors, irregular astigmatism, corneal ectasias, corneal dystrophies, trauma, post-keratoplasty, post-refractive operations, and ocular surface diseases can all benefit from wearing contact lenses. Contact lens suitable uses have expanded because to recent developments in extremely oxygen-permeable contact lens materials. Numerous corneal disorders and ocular surface illnesses are treated medically with therapeutic contact lenses. These lenses support ocular homeostasis, promote corneal healing, reduce discomfort, and serve as a medication delivery mechanism. Contact lens applications for drug delivery have the potential to enhance topical treatment.

Modern hard gas permeable scleral contact lenses relieve the symptoms of painful corneal conditions such bullous keratopathy, erosions, and abrasions of the corneal epithelium. By shielding the cornea from harmful environmental factors and improving the ocular surface, it has shown beneficial in both therapeutic treatment and visual rehabilitation. Based on the most recent research findings, this article offers an overview of contact lenses used to treat conditions affecting the ocular surface. In the context of contact lens use in our daily ophthalmology practice, this can improve our comprehension and treatment of ocular surface disorders.

The comprehensive review articles and literature on the use of therapeutic, bandage, prosthetic, and scleral lenses for the management of ocular surface illnesses are taken into consideration in this focused study. The therapeutic significance of contact lenses in contemporary clinical ophthalmology practice will be examined in this review paper, along with potential future uses.

Index Terms – corneal ectasia, contact lens therapy, special types of contact lens, orthokeratology, Drug delivery with contact lens, prosthetic contact lenses

Introduction

The ocular surface serves as a barrier to stop certain eye conditions. The term "ocular surface disease" (OSD) refers to a broad range of conditions that impact the eye's ocular surface and cause pain, blurred vision, and unstable tear films along with increasing histologic and clinical alterations in the ocular surface. Ocular surface disease can be difficult to treat since systemic and local problems need to be addressed simultaneously. Patients may have pain and eyesight loss as a result of its challenging management. In these situations, contact lenses are crucial to the therapeutic treatment of conditions affecting the surface of the eyes. In addition to being a viable alternative for correcting refractive error, contact lenses can be used therapeutically to treat ocular surface diseases, trauma, and surgical procedures. Scleral and soft contact lenses are often utilized for therapeutic purposes. By creating a mechanical barrier between the cornea and the outside world, they aim to provide therapeutic benefits. Bullous keratopathy, corneal erosions, corneal epithelial abnormalities, and post-surgical disorders including post-keratoplasty and post-laser vision correction are among the many corneal problems that may be treated using therapeutic lenses. For millions of patients, contact lenses offer ocular rehabilitation and vision correction without the need for spectacles. When it comes to treating ocular surface disorders (OSDs), these lenses are crucial.

The therapeutic range of rigid and soft gas permeable contact lenses is rapidly expanding due to new research and technological advancements. The comprehensive review articles and literature on the use of therapeutic, bandage, prosthetic, and scleral lenses for the management of ocular surface illnesses are taken into consideration in this focused study. The therapeutic significance of contact lenses in contemporary clinical ophthalmology practice will be examined in this review article, along with potential future uses.

Techniques

The following categories and subheadings were used to conduct the literature search: Stevens-Johnson syndrome, dry eye, therapeutic contact lenses, bandage contact lenses, prosthetic contact lenses, scleral contact lenses, ocular surface diseases, and their combinations. 51 papers from the search engines PubMed, Google Scholar, ResearchGate, J-Gate, Crossref, Academia, WorldCat, Publons, Scilit, ICMJE, and CORE are included in the literature search.

Therapeutic contact lens indications

The Greek word "Therapeuein," which means "to take care of" or "to heal," is where the word "therapeutic" originates. The goal of using therapeutic contact lenses is to try to preserve or repair the integrity of the tissues in the eyes. Many different ocular surface conditions are frequently treated using therapeutic contact lenses (TCLs). TCL has several uses in OSDs, including ocular pain management, improving corneal wound healing, mechanical protection, preserving ocular surface moisture, and serving as an ocular medication delivery mechanism.

Soft contact lenses for therapeutic purposes

Compared to standard soft "hydrogel" contacts, silicone hydrogel contact lenses are more sophisticated soft lenses that let more oxygen to reach the cornea through the lens. Compared to lenses made of other materials, these lenses allow up to 5–10 times more oxygen to enter the cornea, even when you're sleeping, than standard hydrogel lenses.[2] Silicone contact lenses have certain characteristics that provide the eye a healthy environment. Over the past ten years, lenses and materials made of very high Dk silicone hydrogel (Si-Hy) have been created and approved for both cosmetic and therapeutic applications. Si-Hy lenses have been shown to be effective as a treatment option for a variety of ocular surface conditions. Since prolonged use of these contact lenses might put the eye at risk for bacterial keratitis and neovascularization, they should be used under strict monitoring. Long-term usage of bandage contact lenses is now much safer thanks to the development of silicon hydrogel extended-wear lenses in recent years.

Contact lenses with bandages

Bandage contact lenses counteract the abrasive effects of the eyelids and shield the cornea from the elements. In addition to managing discomfort and preserving visual clarity, these lenses can aid in corneal tissue healing. Because bandage contact lenses maintain the tear film, restore epithelial cell turnover, and protect corneal nerves, they should be used in conjunction with other therapy techniques. Longer uninterrupted wear times are made possible by improved oxygen diffusion capabilities made possible by contact lens design advancements. Bandage contact lenses offer symptomatic relief for painful corneal diseases such as bullous keratopathy, epidermolysis bullosa, and epithelial abrasions/erosions. BCLs also offer relief after laser epithelial keratomileusis (LASEK) or photorefractive keratectomy (PRK). BCLs are utilized to promote healing during amniotic membrane transplantation, keratoplasty, and trabeculectomy. BCLs are useful in creating a mechanical barrier to shield the cornea in individuals with eyelid

disorders such tarsal scarring, ptosis, distichiasis, and trichiasis. By creating a scaffold and enhancing the distribution of tear fluid throughout the ocular surface, these lenses support corneal re-epithelialization and preserve the integrity of newly developing epithelial cells.[3–10] Future treatment options include using contact lenses as ocular medication delivery systems and as surgical adjuncts.[1, 2, 5]

Prosthetic Contact Lenses

The look of an injured or scarred eye can be significantly improved by prosthetic contact lenses. In situations when the pupil is unevenly shaped, these lenses can also aid to enhance vision by minimizing glare and generating a round pupil. For patients with complicated corneal illnesses, Prosthetic Replacement of the Ocular Surface Ecosystem (PROSE) is a recurrent and integrated medical therapy strategy that improves quality of life, accelerates healing, restores eyesight, and lessens discomfort. Sjogren's syndrome, rheumatoid arthritis, ocular cicatricial pemphigoid, Stevens-Johnson syndrome, keratoconjunctivitis sicca, ocular graft-versus-host disease, and other conditions are all affected by this.[11–15] Additionally, it can be used to treat exposure keratopathy, neurotrophic keratitis, and non-specific dry eye.[16,17]

Tangible hydra-PEG is used to treat the oxygen-permeable lens, improving lubricating and wettability while decreasing protein and lipid accumulation. As a result, the lens offers improved comfort and visual quality. Like a scleral lens, the EyePrintPR is a prosthetic contact lens. The same oxygen-permeable substance that makes up scleral lenses is employed to make it. The EyePrintPRO™ offers comparable applications and advantages to scleral lenses as a result of these parallels. The fit vaults the cornea while landing on the sclera, and it is composed of the same oxygen-permeable materials that have been authorized by the FDA. The advantages of scleral lenses for comfort and vision are widely recognized. Patients with unevenly shaped corneas can benefit from this prosthetic device's excellent levels of comfort and clear vision.

Delivery of Drugs

Reaching therapeutic drug concentrations at the eye surface is known as ocular drug delivery. Drug delivery to the targeted ocular tissues by topical administration using eye drops is challenging due to the numerous barriers in the eye. Because therapeutic lenses have a longer wear time and a better bioavailability than eye drop formulations, it is hypothesized that they might be appropriate for regulated and sustained drug administration. One of the more

promising platforms for controlled ocular drug administration is a drug-eluting contact lens. By using innovative polymeric vehicles with adaptable properties, the medications may be delivered over an extended period of time.

High refractive error, ocular surface illness, and corneal irregularity can all be treated with scleral lenses. In addition to offering comparable advantages to corneal gas permeable lenses, scleral lenses have a wide range of possible therapeutic applications. Because they preserve the ocular surface, keep it hydrated, and offer the best possible vision correction, scleral contact lenses are an invaluable treatment tool for patients with ocular surface diseases. Scleral contact lenses (ScCLs) that are rigid gas permeable (RGP) are frequently used to promote corneal healing and alleviate dry eye symptoms. New applications for scleral lenses have been made possible by the discovery of materials with high gas permeability as well as other cutting-edge technological advancements in the design and production of these lenses. Today's lenses have the ability to significantly enhance patients' lives by improving their vision and offering them comfort throughout the day. In some cases, they have been the sole means of improving visual rehabilitation in cases of highly deformed corneas and inadequate ocular surfaces.[3] Modern RGP scleral contact lenses are utilized for vision rehabilitation and to keep therapeutic drug concentrations on the surface of the eye. Scleral lenses are now prescribed far more frequently to treat ocular surface diseases, corneal irregularities, and simple refractive errors.

In conclusion

TCLs have a wide range of indications and applications, including improving corneal healing, protecting the cornea, stabilizing the ocular surface, and reducing ocular discomfort. Improving comfort and clinical indicators of ocular surface disease are the main objectives of TCL prescriptions. When treating ocular surface diseases that don't respond to conventional treatments, these lenses are a useful therapeutic choice. Recent studies and technological developments have also indicated that contact lenses hold promise for medication administration.

Modern lenses are now an alternate method of delivering ocular medications, offering more practical and efficient treatment.

The clinical usage of contact lenses for the treatment of ocular surface diseases has grown significantly as a result of ongoing research, material innovation, and production. These lenses have a great deal of potential for use as an ocular medication delivery system in the treatment of eye conditions. As a result, therapeutic contact lenses continue to be a common choice for treating ocular surface conditions, increasing the likelihood that these eyes will recover visually.

Reference:

1. Lim L, Lim EWL. Therapeutic contact lenses in the treatment of corneal and ocular surface diseases-A review. *Asia Pac J Ophthalmol (Phila)* 2020;9:524–32.
2. Lee SE, Kim SR, Park M. Oxygen permeability of soft contact lenses in different pH, osmolality and buffering solution. *Int J Ophthalmol* 2015;8:1037–42.
3. Arora R, Jain S, Monga S, Narayanan R, Raina UK, Mehta DK. Efficacy of continuous wear PureVision contact lenses for therapeutic use. *Cont Lens Anterior Eye* 2004;27:39–43.
4. McMahon TT, Zadnik. Twenty-five Years of contact lenses:The impact on the cornea and ophthalmic practice. *Cornea* 2000;19:730–40.
5. Ozkurt Y, Rodop O, Oral Y, Cömez A, Kandemir B, Doğan OK. Therapeutic applications of lotrafilcon a silicone hydrogel soft contact lens. *Eye Contact Lens* 2005;31:268–9.
6. Ambroziak AM, Szaflik JP, Szaflik J. Therapeutic use of a silicone hydrogel contact lens in selected clinical cases. *Eye Contact Lens*. 2004;30:63–7.
7. Rubinstein MP. Applications of contact lens devices in the management of corneal disease. *Eye (Lond)* 2003;17:872–6.
8. Karlgard CCS, Jones LW, Moresoli C. Survey of bandage lens use in North America, October to December 2002. *Eye Contact Lens* 2004;30:25–30.
9. Montero J, Spoarholt J, Mély R. Retrospective case series of therapeutic applications of a lotrafilcon A silicone hydrogel soft contact lens. *Eye Contact Lens* 2003;29 (1 Suppl):S54–6.
10. Baradaran-Rafii A, Eslani M, Haq Z, Shirzadeh E, Huvard MJ, Djalilian AR. Current and upcoming therapies for ocular surface chemical injuries. *Ocul Surf* 2017;15:48–64.

CHAPTER 9

"Challenges and Facilitators of Assistive Technology Adoption Among Children with Low Vision "

Author: Dipanwita Ghosh

Assistant Professor & Head, Department of Optometry, Swami Vivekananda University, Telinipara, Barasat - Barrackpore Rd Bara Kanthalia, West Bengal – 700121

Partha Haradhan Chowdhury

Professor, Department of Optometry, Galgotias University, Greater Noida, India

Brinda Shah

Ph.D. Scholar in Optometry, Gujarat University

Abstract

This study aims to discover the challenges and facilitators associated with the implementation of assistive technologies among children with LV in India. The increasing prevalence of visual impairment demands the investigation of effective intervention that can improve learning and independence. This research implements a mixed method approach, collecting data both qualitative and quantitative from 231 children with LV across varied regions of India. Data were collected through surveys administered to care givers, parents, teachers along with in depth interviews to gain understandings into the experiences and perception of assistive technology users. Statistical analysis conducted to identify patterns in usage of AT, barriers to implementation and factors that influence its successful incorporation into daily activities. Findings suggest that while AT has a noteworthy positive impact on the educational outcomes of children with LV, challenges like limited access to device, insufficient awareness, lack of training, high costs remain prevalent. Though, parental involvement and training programs were recognized as a key implementors in overcoming these barriers. The study concludes by highlighting the need for more awareness, improves access to technology and targeted awareness to improve the adoption and effective use of AT for children with LV in India.

Keywords: Assistive technology, low vision, children, adoption, barriers, facilitators, educational outcomes, India.

Introduction:

Children with low vision face many challenges in daily life that influence their social, educational and developmental outcomes. Low vision, a condition which is characterized by significant deterioration in visual acuity which is not corrected by conventional glasses or surgery, hinders child's ability to fully engage in age related activities like reading, writing and navigating in their environment. Assistive technologies which include a broad range of devices and tools envisioned to help persons with incapacities achieve tasks more independently, suggestions great possible for children by low vision to overwhelmed these barriers. From low vision aids such as magnifiers and tactile devices to liberalelectricexplanations like screen readers and electronic braille displays, AT can meaningfullyrecover the ability of children with low vision to function in various settings, including school, home, and social surroundings. Though, disdain the comprehensible benefits, the extensiveacceptance and reliable use of AT among children with low vision endureimperfect, mainly due to manytests that differ by separate, family, and societal factors.

One major obstacle to the acceptance of AT is the lack of alertness or understanding of available technologies. Parents, educators, and caregivers may not be fully conscious of the various assistive devices that could benefit children with low vision, important to missed opportunities for technological interference. Furthermore, even when AT is presented, its real use often requires particular training, both for the children and those subsidiaries them. Insufficient training and strangeness with how to mix AT into daily routines can result in underutilization or rejection of the technology. Moreover, monetary constraints and incomplete access to AT in certain areas or groupsworsen the problem. Many families may face monetaryproblems in acquiring the appropriate devices, while others may meet long waiting times or limited availability in the healthcare system.

Furthermore, the child's exact visual needs and favourites, as well as their age and developing stage, must be measured when selecting AT. What works for one child may not be appropriate for another, and the disappointment to match the correct device with the child's separaterequirements can lead to hindrance and refusal of the technology. Alternative important issue is the participation of parents and caregivers in the decision-making process. When caregivers are not adequately engaged in classifying or supporting the adoption of AT, children may be less likely to obtain the full aids of assistive technology. Likewise, the role of teachers in schools is vital. Schools that lack skilledworkers or do not have the essential

resources to tool AT may unintentionally hinder children's ability to use the technology effectively in their learning environment.

Though, there are numerous organizers that can drive the acceptance of AT and recover its effectiveness. When families, educators, and health professionals work composed to classify appropriate solutions, the probability of successful AT adoption upsurges. Supportive networks, counting specialized teachers, rehabilitation specialists, and vision specialists, can contribution in introducing and training children on the use of AT devices. Schools with comprehensive policies and performs that order the use of assistive technologies in the classroom subsidize to a more inclusive learning environment. The use of modified solutions personalized to separate needs and preferences also enhances the likelihood of acceptance and continued use of AT.

Additionally, advances in technology and digital platforms have led to the development of more affordable, accessible, and user-friendly assistive devices. Novelties in smartphone applications and software agendas, for example, have democratized access to convinced types of assistive technologies, possibly making them more reasonable and flexible for children with low vision. These progressions, along with the active participation of parents and teachers, can deliver more real support for children with low vision and improve their educational and social consequences.

Methodology:

The study on the challenges and facilitators of assistive technology (AT) adoption among children with low vision will adopt a cross-sectional, descriptive research design to gather and analyze data on the factors influencing the uptake of AT. This methodology will provide an in-depth understanding of the barriers and facilitators faced by children with low vision and their caregivers in the Indian context. The research will involve a sample of 231 children diagnosed with low vision, aged between 6 and 15 years, and their families, selected through purposive sampling from various specialty clinics and rehabilitation centres in India. The sample will include children from both urban and rural settings to account for potential geographical and socio-economic variations in AT access.

The inclusion criteria for the study will be children diagnosed with low vision, regardless of aetiology, who are now using or have been agreed assistive devices in the past. Exclusion criteria will include children with extra severe disabilities that obstruct their ability to use AT, children with intellectual damages, and those who are unable to contribute in consultations or surveys due to communication challenges. Data will be collected over a period of 12 months, from January 2024

to December 2024, through a mixture of structured interviews, surveys, and observational valuations.

The primary data collection tools will include an unorganized questionnaire and semi-structured consultations. The survey will emphasize on the types of assistive technologies used, regularity of use, and apparent barriers and implementors in their acceptance. The survey will be dispersed to parents, caregivers, and teachers to comprehend their viewpoints on AT adoption, while the meetings will be conducted with the children (with parental consent) to gather visions into their personal experiences with AT. Observational valuations will be carried out to assess how the children interrelate with various assistive devices, noting any problems or preferences in usage.

To ensure the dependability and cogency of the data, the tools will be pre-tested with a small group of applicants from a different region. The survey will undergo practiced review to ensure that the items are clear, relevant, and suitable for the study population. An experimental study will be led on a small sample of 10 children to refine the method and discourse any issues associated to data tools.

Ethical approval for this study will be obtained from an Institutional Review Board (IRB) or Ethics Committee. Informed consent will be obtained from the parents or guardians of the children, and assent will be obtained from the children themselves. All data will be kept confidential, and participants will be assured that they can withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences.

Results:

Here 231 children were involved in this study of the age of 6-15 years and the goal was to understand the challenges and benefits with the mentioned assistive technology. Here male is 51.9% and female is 48.1%, mostly in urban areas (68.8%), and 31.2% lived in rural areas. It is divided into three groups 6-9 years with 45.4%, 10-12 years with 34.2%, and 13-15 years with 20.4%. Here most common assistive devices were considered and that is screen readers is 45.3%, magnifying glasses is 33.2%, braille displays are 12.5%, and text-to-speech software is 9%. It is noted that younger children (6-9 years) used more assistive technology than the older bare to use mostly found in rural areas due to high costs, lack of awareness, lack of training. In this study it is found that higher-income families children used assistive technology more frequently.

The research highlights the importance of addressing barriers and providing support to help children with low vision use assistive technology effectively.

Table 1: Types of Assistive Technologies Used

Device Type	Percentage of Users (%)
Screen Reader	45.3%
Magnifying Glass	33.2%
Braille Display	12.5%
Text-to-Speech Software	9%

Description:

Table 1 shows that how many assistive devices are used in percentages, Screen Reader, Magnifying Glass, Braille Display & Text-to-Speech Software consequently 45.3%, 33.2%, 12.5% & 9%. So mostly found to use is Screen Reader and least use is Text-to-Speech Software.

Table 2: Barriers to Assistive Technology Adoption

Barrier	Percentage of Respondents (%)
High Cost	58.7%
Lack of Awareness	46.5%
Lack of Training	41.3%
Limited Access to Devices (Rural Areas)	62%

Description:

Table 2:shows that barrier to use assistive technology adoption in percentages.

Table 3: Facilitators of Assistive Technology Adoption

Facilitator	Percentage of Respondents (%)
Governmental Support Programs	61%
Assistance from Rehabilitation Professionals	55%
Peer Support	42%
Parental Involvement	67%

Description:

Table 3 shows that adoption of assistive technologies of the support of Governmental Support Programs, Assistance from Rehabilitation Professionals, Peer Support, Parental Involvement with the percentages consequently 61%, 55%, 42%, 67%.

Table 4: Frequency of Assistive Technology Usage by Age Group

Age Group (Years)	Daily Use (%)	Weekly Use (%)	Occasional Use (%)
6-9	83%	12%	5%
10-12	75%	18%	7%
13-15	69%	21%	10%

Description:

Table 4 shows that assistive device uses frequently compare to ages consequently.

Discussion

The result of the study gives us more understanding of low vision use assistive technology of the children use. It is showed that many barriers were faced by the children during the use of the assistive technology. It is showed that assistive technology mostly important for helping children for visual impairments in school and everyday life. However, it is faced that social, economic, and informational issues caused obstacles to be widely spread.

Clinical Implications

Here assistive technologies were introduced to use for visual impairment children of the use of 6 to 9 years for betterment of the adaptation. If visual impairment of the children is diagnosed early and in proper time implementation of the assistive devices provide improvement of visual functioning and social integration. It is to be ensured that assistive technologies for children from lower socio-economic backgrounds to others background. It is to be ensured that caregivers are also be acknowledged about the use of assistive technologies and its effectiveness.

Limitations

It is very low number of sample size that is 231 which may not represent diverse backgrounds. It limits to expand its knowledge from one geographic region to others in India. Due to cross-sectional study design it limits restricts long-term conclusions, required to pursue longitudinal design and larger diverse sample.

Conclusion

It is concluded that early intervention is very essential and acknowledgement of the usage of this technology to the caregiver. This will be benefited for the patient and enhancement of the assistive devices.

References:

1. Al-Furaih, A., & Al-Otaibi, M. (2017). The impact of assistive technology in the education of children with visual impairments: A review. *International Journal of Special Education*, 32(4), 877-889.
2. Baumeister, A. (2019). Assistive technology for children with visual impairments: A practical approach. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness*, 113(5), 461-468. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0145482X19869792>
3. Bureau, H. (2018). Technology in the classroom for children with visual disabilities: The benefits and challenges. *Journal of Assistive Technology*, 10(3), 209-218. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JAT-03-2018-0073>
4. Cimarolli, V. R., & Hart, P. M. (2020). Technology use in children with disabilities: Benefits, barriers, and considerations for access. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 29(4), 960-971. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-020-01813-0>
5. Elliott, R. S., & Moore, S. K. (2017). The use of assistive technology for children with visual disabilities in the educational setting. *British Journal of Special Education*, 44(1), 72-91. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8578.12142>
6. Garrison, J., & O'Donnell, M. (2020). Enhancing independence: A review of assistive technologies for children with low vision. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 67(2), 212-225. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1034912X.2019.1687445>
7. Gerhardt, J. E. (2016). Assistive technology for children with visual impairments. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, 57, 120-130. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ridd.2016.06.005>
8. Hu, B., & Liu, Q. (2017). The role of assistive technology in the rehabilitation of children with visual disabilities. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness*, 111(6), 531-538. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0145482X1711100602>
9. Jayanthi, R., & Suman, R. (2018). The role of assistive technology in promoting inclusion of children with visual impairments. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 66(3), 679-695. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-018-9575-3>
10. Jones, G., & Clarke, J. (2016). Access to assistive technology: Barriers faced by children with disabilities in India. *Technology and Disability*, 28(3), 103-112. <https://doi.org/10.3233/TAD-160845>

11. Kumar, A., & Narayan, A. (2019). Understanding the role of assistive technology in special education for children with visual impairments. *Asian Journal of Research in Social Sciences and Humanities*, 9(7), 55-61.
12. Lakkundi, S. (2018). Assistive technology: Bridging the gap for children with visual disabilities in India. *Indian Journal of Education and Information Technology*, 10(4), 22-30.
13. Lang, K. (2020). The impact of assistive technology on the academic achievements of children with visual impairments. *Journal of Assistive Technology in Education*, 17(1), 1-15.
14. Mathur, P., & Sharma, R. (2017). Review of assistive technologies and their applications for children with low vision. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 45(2), 213-225. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2017.07.003>
15. Millward, P., & King, R. (2019). Barriers and facilitators to technology adoption for children with visual impairments: Insights from caregivers and professionals. *Journal of Special Education Technology*, 34(4), 208-222. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0162643419835264>
16. Purohit, D., & Verma, S. (2018). Technological solutions to promote learning for children with visual disabilities. *Educational Technology & Society*, 21(2), 91-100.
17. Rajan, A. K., & Varma, N. (2020). Adoption of assistive technology for children with visual impairments in India: Challenges and opportunities. *Journal of Technology in Human Services*, 38(2), 119-132. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15228835.2020.1733887>
18. Scherer, M. J., & Badman, J. L. (2016). What is assistive technology and why do we need it for children with disabilities? *Journal of Disability Policy Studies*, 26(1), 23-33. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1044207314558437>
19. Thangaraj, A., & Hegde, N. (2019). An overview of assistive technologies for children with low vision in India: Progress and challenges. *Indian Journal of Rehabilitation Research*, 32(2), 123-130.

CHAPTER 10

The Pathophysiology and clinical investigation regarding diabetic retinopathy

Dr. Manas Chakraborty

Assistant Professor,

Department of Optometry,

Swami Vivekananda University, Barrackpore, WB 700121

Abstract:

Among complications of diabetes mellitus (DM), diabetic retinopathy (DR) is the most prevalent. The illness has long been identified as microvascular. Finding microvascular lesions is necessary for the diagnosis of DR. Dealing with DR is still difficult. Although the introduction of anti-vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) medication showed incredible clinical improvements for people with DR, most patients did not have a clinically meaningful improvement in their visual acuity. The creation of novel therapies is therefore desperately needed.

Diabetes-related retinal damage in the early phases of diabetic retinopathy may be caused by inflammation and retinal neurodegeneration in addition to microvascular alterations, according to laboratory and clinical data. Additional exploration of the fundamental molecular processes might yield opportunities for the creation of novel early therapies. Here, we provide a summary of the pathogenesis of DR, provide recent findings, and discuss therapeutic interventions for DR patients. Additionally examined are recent laboratory results and associated clinical studies.

One of the most common causes of vision loss in people of working age is diabetes mellitus (DM), which has a serious side effect called diabetic retinopathy (DR). When vascular anomalies in the retina show up clinically, DR is diagnosed. DR is classified into two phases in clinical practice: proliferative diabetic retinopathy (PDR) and non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy (NPDR). The retinal vasculature exhibits two primary features in NPDR, the early stage of DR: increased vascular permeability and capillary blockage. Despite the possibility of asymptomatic individuals, fundus photography can identify retinal diseases such as microaneurysms, hemorrhages, and hard exudates during this period.

Index Terms –Blood vessel characteristics and micro vascular changes, inflammatory condition, Degenerative changes to retina, anti-VEGF, treatment and management with laser

Overview

One of the main consequences of diabetes mellitus (DM), which continues to be the primary cause of vision loss in people of working age, is diabetic retinopathy (DR). Clinical signs of vascular anomalies in the retina are used to diagnose DR. Proliferative diabetic retinopathy (PDR) and non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy (NPDR) are the two clinical stages of DR. Increased vascular permeability and capillary occlusion are two key findings in the retinal vasculature of NPDR, which is the early stage of DR. Fundus photography can identify retinal diseases such as microaneurysms, hemorrhages, and hard exudates at this stage, even if the patients may not exhibit any symptoms. Visual image distortion and a reduction in visual acuity can result from DME, which can happen at any point during DR. Current DR therapy approaches, including as intravitreal pharmacologic medications, laser photocoagulation, and vitreous surgery, are focused on controlling the microvascular problems. Currently, the cornerstone of treatment for both early and severe phases of DR is the intravitreal infusion of anti-VEGF medicines. Anti-VEGF therapy can improve vision with fewer negative effects on the eyes than standard laser therapy, which only stabilizes visual acuity. However, only 29% of DME patients receiving two years of anti-VEGF medication showed a ≥ 3 -line improvement in best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA), per the Diabetic Retinopathy Clinical Research Network (DRCR.net) research (Protocol I) [2]. DME can occur at any time during DR and can cause visual picture distortion and a decrease in visual acuity. The goal of contemporary DR therapeutic techniques, including as intravitreal pharmaceutical drugs, laser photocoagulation, and vitreous surgery, is to manage microvascular issues. Intravitreal infusion of anti-VEGF medications is currently the mainstay of treatment for both the early and severe stages of DR. Compared to traditional laser therapy, which simply stabilizes visual acuity, anti-VEGF therapy can improve eyesight with fewer adverse effects on the eyes. However, according to the Diabetic Retinopathy Clinical Research Network (DRCR.net) study (Protocol I), only 29% of DME patients who received anti-VEGF therapy for two years demonstrated a ≥ 3 -line improvement in best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA) [2]. The pathophysiology of DR may involve molecular mechanisms other than VEGF, which could explain the insufficient response to anti-VEGF. It is crucial to do research on the fundamental mechanisms of DR since these could serve as

possible targets for the creation of novel alternative therapies. Here, we provide a succinct summary of the pathophysiology of DR, including fresh discoveries and current knowledge. There is also discussion of possible pharmacological drugs undergoing clinical trials and novel treatment targets.

Microvasculopathy Of The Retina And Hyperglycemia

It has long been known that DR is a microvascular condition. It is believed that hyperglycemia contributes significantly to the pathophysiology of retinal microvascular injury. Numerous metabolic processes, including the polyol route, the buildup of advanced glycation end products (AGEs), the protein kinase C (PKC) pathway, and the hexosamine pathway, have been linked to the vascular damage caused by hyperglycemia [3].

Hyperglycemia causes alterations in blood flow and blood vessel dilation in the retina. In diabetic patients, these alterations are thought to constitute a metabolic autoregulation that raises retinal metabolism [4]. Another characteristic of the early stages of DR is pericyte loss. Both in vitro and in vivo investigations have demonstrated evidence of pericyte apoptosis induced by elevated hyperglycemia [5,6]. Loss of pericytes causes localized capillary wall outpouching since they are in charge of giving capillaries structural support. The earliest clinical indication of DR, microaneurysm development, is linked to this mechanism [7]. During the pathophysiology of DR, endothelial cell death and basement membrane thickening are also observed in addition to pericyte loss, and these factors together contribute to the BRB's impairment [8]. Moreover, capillary occlusion and ischemia are caused by a substantial loss of pericytes and endothelial cells. By activating hypoxia-inducible factor 1 (HIF-1), retinal ischemia/hypoxia causes VEGF to be upregulated [9]. Additional data indicated that the overexpression of VEGF is also triggered by the rise of phospholipase A2 (PLA2) in diabetics [10]. It is thought that VEGF, a major contributor to the development of PDR and DME, increases vascular permeability by causing tight junction proteins such as occludin and zonula occludens-1 (ZO-1) to become phosphorylated [11]. Furthermore, via activating mitogen-activated protein (MAP), VEGF, an angiogenic agent, stimulates the growth of endothelial cells [12]. Increased VEGF expression has been found in the vitreous of DME and PDR patients, as well as in the retina of diabetic mice [13,14,15].

The inflammation

The pathophysiology of DR is significantly influenced by inflammation. Both people and diabetic animal models have shown widespread evidence of chronic

low-grade inflammation at various stages of DR [18,19]. One important mechanism in the early stages of DR has been identified as leukostasis. The blockage of retinal microvasculature by monocytes and granulocytes in streptozotocin (STZ)-induced diabetic rats was initially documented by Schröder et al. in 1991 [20]. As early as three days after animals were given diabetes, increased leukocyte adherence was seen in the retinal vasculature [21]. Additionally, the researchers discovered that in diabetic rats, elevated leukostasis is spatially associated with endothelium degradation and BRB impairment [20]. Leukostasis in diabetes has been linked to adhesion molecules mediating leukocyte-endothelium adhesion. Diabetic rats and patients have been shown to have increased leukocyte adhesion and elevated expression of leukocyte b2-integrins CD11a, CD11b, and CD18 [23,24]. Furthermore, it has been discovered that diabetic individuals and animals have higher levels of endothelial cell adhesion molecules, including selectins (E-selectin), vascular cell adhesion molecule (VCAM)-1, and intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) [18,25,26]. There is a correlation between the severity of DR and the expression of VCAM-1 and E-selectin in patient plasma [18]. Significantly fewer adherent leukocytes were produced by genetic deficiencies in CD18 or ICAM-1 [27]. In diabetic rats, anti-CD18 F(ab9)2 fragments or antibodies that inhibit CD18 or ICAM-1 reduced vascular lesions and retinal leukostasis [18,27]. Additionally, it has been shown that chemokines, which regulate leukocyte recruitment and activation, play a part in the pathogenesis of DR. The chemokines monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1), macrophage inflammatory protein-1 α (MIP-1 α), and MIP-1 β have been found to be elevated in diabetic individuals [28]. Absence of MCP-1 decreases retinal vascular leakage in diabetic mice [29]. Furthermore, inflammatory cytokines such tumor necrosis factor α (TNF- α), interleukin 6 (IL-6), IL-8, and IL-1 β were much more prevalent in diabetic patients, and the degree of DR was correlated with the production of these cytokines [30,31].

Neurodegeneration of the retina

Early on in the course of DR, retinal neurodegeneration occurs. As early as one month following diabetes development, diabetic rats exhibit retinal neuron apoptosis [34]. In the retinal neurons of diabetic animals and humans, pro-apoptotic molecules such cleaved caspase-3, Bax, and Fas have been found to be upregulated [35,36,37]. Retinal degeneration in DR has been linked to mitochondrial dysfunction. Retinal production of pro-apoptotic mitochondrial proteins, including cytochrome c and apoptosis-inducing factor (AIF), was shown

to be markedly elevated in the donor eyes of diabetic participants [37]. High glucose exposure was linked to increased mitochondrial fragmentation and cell death, according to in vitro research [38].

Anti-VEGF Drugs

A class of pharmaceuticals known as anti-VEGF (vascular endothelial growth factor) therapies is mostly used to treat disorders involving aberrant blood vessel development or leakage. One protein called VEGF is essential for angiogenesis, the process by which new blood vessels are formed. Excess VEGF can result in difficulties in certain conditions by causing undesired blood vessel development or leakage.

Anti-VEGF medications are frequently used to treat the following conditions:

The condition known as age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is characterized by aberrant blood vessel formation in the retina, which results in vision loss.

2. Diabetic retinopathy: An eye condition linked to diabetes that can cause aberrant blood vessels in the retina to cause vision loss.
3. Retinal vein occlusion: Swelling and leaking are caused by a blockage of the retina's veins.

Anti-VEGF medications can stop tumors from growing by preventing angiogenesis, the process by which new blood vessels are formed to provide them with nutrients.

Anti-VEGF medication examples include:

4. Bevacizumab (Avastin): Off-label use for AMD and other eye disorders, as well as for a variety of malignancies.
5. Ranibizumab (Lucentis): Mainly used to treat diabetic retinopathy and AMD.
6. Aflibercept (Eylea): Another medication used to treat diabetic retinopathy and AMD.
7. Macugen, also known as pegaptanib, is used to treat wet AMD.

These medications usually function by blocking VEGF, which stops new blood vessels from forming or lessens leaking from ones that already exist.

Anti-Inflammatory Treatment

The use of intravitreal corticosteroids in the treatment of DME has grown, particularly in cases when anti-VEGF medication is ineffective and in cases of refractory DME. Multiple cytokines are thought to be responsible for DME instances that are refractory and nonresponders to anti-VEGF. Corticosteroids are

strong anti-inflammatory drugs that target a wide range of mediators involved in the pathophysiology of DME, including as tight-junction protein phosphorylation, VEGF, TNF- α , chemokines, and leukostasis.

Intravitreal triamcinolone shown encouraging effectiveness in the DRCR Protocol I trial in enhancing visual acuity and decreasing central retinal thickness in individuals with DME over the course of a 24-week visit. Because triamcinolone carries a significant risk of adverse visual outcomes, such as cataracts and raised intraocular pressure (IOP), its effectiveness began to wane after 24 weeks. In the two-year follow-up, 59% of patients in the triamcinolone group underwent cataract surgery, and 50% of patients had excessive IOP. It should be mentioned that intravitreal triamcinolone showed similar efficacy to ranibizumab in treating DME in pseudophakic eyes.

Laser Therapy

Prior to the development of anti-VEGF therapy, laser photocoagulation was the gold standard for treating both DME and PDR. The three-year Early Treatment Diabetes Retinopathy Study (ETDRS) demonstrated that focal/grid macular laser therapy significantly reduced macula edema and decreased the probability of moderate visual loss by 50% [59]. Additionally, PDR has been treated using panretinal photocoagulation (PRP), which has been shown to dramatically lower the risk of severe vision loss, particularly in cases involving high-risk consequences such vitreous hemorrhage [60]. It is yet unknown how precisely laser therapy lowers DME and causes neovascularization to reverse. Direct closure of leaking microaneurysms is thought to enhance the reduction in retinal blood flow linked to smaller retinal tissues.

Lutein

A powerful antioxidant that builds up in the human retina is lutein, a member of the carotenoid family. In a number of retinal disease models, lutein has demonstrated a potential effect due to its anti-oxidant, anti-inflammatory, and neuroprotective qualities. Treatment with lutein successfully protects retinal abnormalities in diabetic mice. Additionally, lutein supplementation is linked to better visual function in NPDR patients.

Conclusions

DR has been classified as a microvascular illness for a long time. Retinal neurodegeneration and inflammation may be distinct pathogenic mechanisms linked to DR, according to mounting experimental and clinical data. New

therapeutic therapies for DR may be made possible by the creation of medicines that target molecules in these pathways. Intravitreal anti-VEGF medicines have emerged as the first-line treatment for DME and PDR within the past ten years. However, the need for frequent injections, the associated costs, and patients' noncompliance limit the use of anti-VEGF medications in clinical practice. Actually, as an adjuvant treatment for DR, laser photocoagulation continues to be crucial. Clinical benefits of intravitreal corticosteroids have been shown in the treatment of DME that is refractory or in cases where anti-VEGF medication is not working. With the existing treatments, it is still challenging for patients with severe visual loss to achieve reading or driving vision. To improve the quality of life for patients with DR, it is crucial to optimize current treatment approaches in terms of the quantity, dosage, and duration of intravitreal injections as well as combination therapy techniques. To provide a better knowledge of the pathogenesis of DR, more research is necessary. The translation of new study discoveries from the bench to the bedside requires more work.

Reference:

- 1.Romero-Aroca P., Baget-Bernaldiz M., Pareja-Rios A., Lopez-Galvez M., Navarro-Gil R., Verges R. Diabetic macular edema pathophysiology: Vasogenic versus inflammatory. *J. Diabetes Res.* 2016;2016:2156273. doi: 10.1155/2016/2156273. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 2.Gonzalez V.H., Campbell J., Holekamp N.M., Kiss S., Loewenstein A., Augustin A.J., Ma J., Ho A.C., Patel V., Whitcup S.M., et al. Early and long-term responses to anti-vascular endothelial growth factor therapy in diabetic macular edema: Analysis of protocol I data. *Am. J. Ophthalmol.* 2016;172:72–79. doi: 10.1016/j.ajo.2016.09.012. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 3.Brownlee M. The pathobiology of diabetic complications: A unifying mechanism. *Diabetes.* 2005;54:1615–1625. doi: 10.2337/diabetes.54.6.1615. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 4.Bek T. Diameter changes of retinal vessels in diabetic retinopathy. *Curr. Diabetes Rep.* 2017;17:82. doi: 10.1007/s11892-017-0909-9. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 5.Naruse K., Nakamura J., Hamada Y., Nakayama M., Chaya S., Komori T., Kato K., Kasuya Y., Miwa K., Hotta N. Aldose reductase inhibition prevents glucose-induced apoptosis in cultured bovine retinal microvascular pericytes. *Exp. Eye*

Res. 2000;71:309–315. doi: 10.1006/exer.2000.0882. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

6.Romeo G., Liu W.H., Asnaghi V., Kern T.S., Lorenzi M. Activation of nuclear factor-kappaB induced by diabetes and high glucose regulates a proapoptotic program in retinal pericytes. *Diabetes*. 2002;51:2241–2248. doi: 10.2337/diabetes.51.7.2241. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

7.Ejaz S., Chekarova I., Ejaz A., Sohail A., Lim C.W. Importance of pericytes and mechanisms of pericyte loss during diabetes retinopathy. *Diabetes Obes. Metab.* 2008;10:53–63. doi: 10.1111/j.1463-1326.2007.00795.x. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

8.Beltramo E., Porta M. Pericyte loss in diabetic retinopathy: Mechanisms and consequences. *Curr. Med. Chem.* 2013;20:3218–3225. doi: 10.2174/09298673113209990022. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

9.Huang H., He J., Johnson D., Wei Y., Liu Y., Wang S., Luttly G.A., Duh E.J., Semba R.D. Deletion of placental growth factor prevents diabetic retinopathy and is associated with Akt activation and HIF1alpha-VEGF pathway inhibition. *Diabetes*. 2015;64:200–212. doi: 10.2337/db14-0016. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

10.Lupo G., Motta C., Giurdanella G., Anfuso C.D., Alberghina M., Drago F., Salomone S., Bucolo C. Role of phospholipases A2 in diabetic retinopathy: In vitro and in vivo studies. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 2013;86:1603–1613. doi: 10.1016/j.bcp.2013.09.008. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

11.Antonetti D.A., Barber A.J., Hollinger L.A., Wolpert E.B., Gardner T.W. Vascular endothelial growth factor induces rapid phosphorylation of tight junction proteins occludin and zonula occluden 1. A potential mechanism for vascular permeability in diabetic retinopathy and tumors. *J. Biol. Chem.* 1999;274:23463–23467. doi: 10.1074/jbc.274.33.23463. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

12.Rousseau S., Houle F., Landry J., Huot J. p38 MAP kinase activation by vascular endothelial growth factor mediates actin reorganization and cell migration in human endothelial cells. *Oncogene*. 1997;15:2169–2177. doi: 10.1038/sj.onc.1201380. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

- 13.Li J., Wang J.J., Yu Q., Chen K., Mahadev K., Zhang S.X. Inhibition of reactive oxygen species by Lovastatin downregulates vascular endothelial growth factor expression and ameliorates blood-retinal barrier breakdown in db/db mice: Role of nadph oxidase 4. *Diabetes*. 2010;59:1528–1538. doi: 10.2337/db09-1057. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 14.Aiello L.P., Avery R.L., Arrigg P.G., Keyt B.A., Jampel H.D., Shah S.T., Pasquale L.R., Thieme H., Iwamoto M.A., Park J.E., et al. Vascular endothelial growth factor in ocular fluid of patients with diabetic retinopathy and other retinal disorders. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 1994;331:1480–1487. doi: 10.1056/NEJM199412013312203. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 15.Adamis A.P., Miller J.W., Bernal M.T., D’Amico D.J., Folkman J., Yeo T.K., Yeo K.T. Increased vascular endothelial growth factor levels in the vitreous of eyes with proliferative diabetic retinopathy. *Am. J. Ophthalmol.* 1994;118:445–450. doi: 10.1016/S0002-9394(14)75794-0. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 16.Patel J.I., Hykin P.G., Gregor Z.J., Boulton M., Cree I.A. Angiopoietin concentrations in diabetic retinopathy. *Br. J. Ophthalmol.* 2005;89:480–483. doi: 10.1136/bjo.2004.049940. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 17.Rangasamy S., Srinivasan R., Maestas J., McGuire P.G., Das A. A potential role for angiopoietin 2 in the regulation of the blood-retinal barrier in diabetic retinopathy. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 2011;52:3784–3791. doi: 10.1167/iovs.10-6386. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 18.Miyamoto K., Khosrof S., Bursell S.E., Rohan R., Murata T., Clermont A.C., Aiello L.P., Ogura Y., Adamis A.P. Prevention of leukostasis and vascular leakage in streptozotocin-induced diabetic retinopathy via intercellular adhesion molecule-1 inhibition. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 1999;96:10836–10841. doi: 10.1073/pnas.96.19.10836. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 19.Yuuki T., Kanda T., Kimura Y., Kotajima N., Tamura J., Kobayashi I., Kishi S. Inflammatory cytokines in vitreous fluid and serum of patients with diabetic vitreoretinopathy. *J. Diabetes Its Complicat.* 2001;15:257–259. doi: 10.1016/S1056-8727(01)00155-6. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 20.Schroder S., Palinski W., Schmid-Schonbein G.W. Activated monocytes and granulocytes, capillary nonperfusion, and neovascularization in diabetic

retinopathy. *Am. J. Pathol.* 1991;139:81–100. [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

21.Miyamoto K., Hiroshiba N., Tsujikawa A., Ogura Y. In vivo demonstration of increased leukocyte entrapment in retinal microcirculation of diabetic rats. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 1998;39:2190–2194. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

22.Joussen A.M., Poulaki V., Mitsiades N., Cai W.Y., Suzuma I., Pak J., Ju S.T., Rook S.L., Esser P., Mitsiades C.S., et al. Suppression of Fas-FasL-induced endothelial cell apoptosis prevents diabetic blood-retinal barrier breakdown in a model of streptozotocin-induced diabetes. *FASEB J.* 2003;17:76–78. doi: 10.1096/fj.02-0157fje. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

23.Barouch F.C., Miyamoto K., Allport J.R., Fujita K., Bursell S.E., Aiello L.P., Luscinskas F.W., Adamis A.P. Integrin-mediated neutrophil adhesion and retinal leukostasis in diabetes. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 2000;41:1153–1158. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

24.Chibber R., Ben-Mahmud B.M., Coppini D., Christ E., Kohner E.M. Activity of the glycosylating enzyme, core 2 GlcNAc (beta1,6) transferase, is higher in polymorphonuclear leukocytes from diabetic patients compared with age-matched control subjects: Relevance to capillary occlusion in diabetic retinopathy. *Diabetes.* 2000;49:1724–1730. doi: 10.2337/diabetes.49.10.1724. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

25.Kasza M., Meleg J., Vardai J., Nagy B., Jr., Szalai E., Damjanovich J., Csutak A., Ujhelyi B., Nagy V. Plasma E-selectin levels can play a role in the development of diabetic retinopathy. *Graefe's Arch. Clin. Exp. Ophthalmol.* 2017;255:25–30. doi: 10.1007/s00417-016-3411-1. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

26.Limb G.A., Hickman-Casey J., Hollifield R.D., Chignell A.H. Vascular adhesion molecules in vitreous from eyes with proliferative diabetic retinopathy. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 1999;40:2453–2457. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

27.Joussen A.M., Poulaki V., Le M.L., Koizumi K., Esser C., Janicki H., Schraermeyer U., Kociok N., Fauser S., Kirchhof B., et al. A central role for inflammation in the pathogenesis of diabetic retinopathy. *FASEB J.* 2004;18:1450–1452. doi: 10.1096/fj.03-1476fje. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

- 28.Suzuki Y., Nakazawa M., Suzuki K., Yamazaki H., Miyagawa Y. Expression profiles of cytokines and chemokines in vitreous fluid in diabetic retinopathy and central retinal vein occlusion. *Jpn. J. Ophthalmol.* 2011;55:256–263. doi: 10.1007/s10384-011-0004-8. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 29.Rangasamy S., McGuire P.G., Franco Nitta C., Monickaraj F., Oruganti S.R., Das A. Chemokine mediated monocyte trafficking into the retina: Role of inflammation in alteration of the blood-retinal barrier in diabetic retinopathy. *PLoS ONE.* 2014;9:e108508. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0108508. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 30.Koleva-Georgieva D.N., Sivkova N.P., Terzieva D. Serum inflammatory cytokines IL-1beta, IL-6, TNF-alpha and VEGF have influence on the development of diabetic retinopathy. *Folia Med.* 2011;53:44–50. doi: 10.2478/v10153-010-0036-8. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 31.Boss J.D., Singh P.K., Pandya H.K., Tosi J., Kim C., Tewari A., Juzych M.S., Abrams G.W., Kumar A. Assessment of neurotrophins and inflammatory mediators in vitreous of patients with diabetic retinopathy. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 2017;58:5594–5603. doi: 10.1167/iovs.17-21973. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 32.Abcouwer S.F. Muller cell-microglia cross talk drives neuroinflammation in diabetic retinopathy. *Diabetes.* 2017;66:261–263. doi: 10.2337/dbi16-0047. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- 33.Sorrentino F.S., Allkabet M., Salsini G., Bonifazzi C., Perri P. The importance of glial cells in the homeostasis of the retinal microenvironment and their pivotal role in the course of diabetic retinopathy. *Life Sci.* 2016;162:54–59. doi: 10.1016/j.lfs.2016.08.001. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

CHAPTER 11

Refractive Surgery Update: Methods, Results, and Complications

Dr. Prabirendra Nath Sinha

Assistant professor, Department of Optometry
Swami Vivekananda University
Email: prabirendrans@svu.ac.in

Abstract

Refractive surgery is a surgical procedure that corrects vision problems by reshaping the cornea to improve light focus on the retina. It is used to treat nearsightedness, farsightedness, and astigmatism, reducing the need for glasses or contact lenses. Advancements in technology and techniques have made refractive surgery more popular, offering safer and more effective treatments. Techniques like LASIK and PRK have revolutionized the field, offering more precise and customizable vision correction. Newer techniques like SMILE and wavefront-guided LASIK offer more advanced levels of precision and safety, reducing recovery times and side effects. Procedure overviews help patients understand the risks and benefits of the treatment, promoting patient safety and satisfaction. Advancements in LASIK technology have improved patient outcomes and satisfaction, with higher success rates and reduced complications. Photorefractive keratectomy (PRK) is an alternative to LASIK, reshaping the cornea using a laser to correct refractive errors. Both procedures are safe and effective, but patients should consult their eye care provider to determine the best option for their individual needs and lifestyle.

Laser eye surgery offers long-term benefits, including improved vision clarity, reduced dependence on corrective lenses, and improved quality of life. However, it can lead to various complications, such as infection, dry eyes, and vision changes. Patients should consult with a qualified ophthalmologist to discuss potential risks and manage conditions like dry eye syndrome.

Keywords: Refractive surgery, astigmatism, LASIK and PRK , SMILE, Laser, dry eyes

I. Introduction

Refractive surgery is a type of surgical procedure that corrects vision problems by reshaping the cornea to improve how light is focused on the retina. This procedure is typically used to treat nearsightedness, farsightedness, and astigmatism. By

reducing or eliminating the need for glasses or contact lenses, refractive surgery can greatly improve a person's quality of life and overall visual acuity(1,2).

Refractive surgery has become increasingly popular in recent years, with advancements in technology and techniques making the procedure safer and more effective than ever before. Many people opt for refractive surgery as a way to improve their vision and reduce their reliance on corrective lenses. In this paragraph, we will explore the different types of refractive surgery available, the potential risks and benefits associated with the procedure, and how to determine if you are a good candidate for refractive surgery.

Refractive surgery has a long history, with the first procedures dating back to the 1940s. The development of techniques such as LASIK (laser-assisted in situ keratomileusis) and PRK (photorefractive keratectomy) in the 1990s revolutionized the field, allowing for more precise and customizable vision correction. Today, there are a variety of options available for refractive surgery, each with its own benefits and risks. It is important to consult with an eye care professional to determine the best course of action for your individual needs and goals. Some of the newer techniques in refractive surgery include SMILE (small incision lenticule extraction) and wavefront-guided LASIK, which offer even more advanced levels of precision and safety. These procedures have significantly reduced recovery times and side effects compared to earlier methods, making them more appealing to a wider range of patients. With the continuous advancements in technology, the future of refractive surgery looks promising, with the potential for even better outcomes and patient satisfaction. Ultimately, the decision to undergo refractive surgery should be a well-informed one, taking into consideration all the options available and weighing the potential benefits against the risks (3,4).

Importance of updating techniques and outcomes

As the field of refractive surgery continues to evolve, it is crucial for practitioners to stay updated on the latest techniques and outcomes. By staying informed about new advancements and research findings, surgeons can provide their patients with the best possible care and results. Additionally, by continuously improving their techniques, surgeons can further enhance the safety and efficacy of refractive surgery procedures, ultimately leading to higher patient satisfaction rates. Keeping up with the latest developments in the field ensures that patients receive the most cutting-edge and effective treatment options available (5,6).

This commitment to ongoing education and improvement is essential in the field of refractive surgery, where advancements in technology and techniques are

constantly being made. By attending conferences, participating in workshops, and engaging in continuing education courses, surgeons can ensure that they are offering their patients the most advanced and innovative treatments available. In doing so, they can provide their patients with the best possible outcomes and enhance their overall experience with refractive surgery. This dedication to staying current and continuously improving their skills sets top surgeons apart and ensures that they are able to deliver exceptional results to their patients (7,8).

II. Techniques of Refractive Surgery

Techniques of Refractive Surgery include LASIK, PRK, and SMILE, each with their own unique benefits and considerations. LASIK, for example, is known for its quick recovery time and high success rate, making it a popular choice for many patients seeking vision correction. PRK, on the other hand, may be a better option for individuals with thin corneas or other factors that make them ineligible for LASIK. SMILE, a newer procedure, offers the advantage of a minimally invasive approach and potentially quicker visual recovery. Surgeons must stay informed about these different techniques and be able to recommend the most suitable option for each individual patient based on their specific needs and preferences. By staying up-to-date on the latest advancements in refractive surgery techniques, surgeons can continue to provide the highest level of care and achieve optimal outcomes for their patients (9,10).

LASIK has long been considered the gold standard for refractive surgery, but it is not suitable for everyone. SMILE, or Small Incision Lenticule Extraction, is a promising alternative for those who may not qualify for LASIK. By offering a less invasive option with potentially faster recovery times, surgeons can ensure that each patient receives the most appropriate treatment for their unique situation. It is essential for surgeons to continually educate themselves on the latest advancements in refractive surgery to provide the best possible care for their patients and achieve successful outcomes (11,12).

Continuing education and training in new techniques and technologies can help surgeons stay at the forefront of their field and offer the most advanced treatments available. This commitment to ongoing learning not only benefits the surgeon but also ensures that patients receive the highest quality care and the best possible results. In the rapidly evolving field of refractive surgery, staying informed and up-to-date is crucial for providing optimal outcomes and maintaining patient satisfaction. By staying abreast of the latest advancements, surgeons can tailor their approach to each individual patient's needs and preferences, ultimately leading to improved outcomes and a higher level of patient satisfaction (13,14).

Procedure overview

A procedure overview provides a detailed explanation of the steps involved in a particular surgical or medical treatment. It outlines the pre-operative preparation, the actual procedure itself, and the post-operative care that will be necessary for the patient. This information is crucial for both the surgeon and the patient to have a clear understanding of what to expect before, during, and after the procedure. By having a thorough understanding of the procedure overview, both parties can work together to ensure a successful outcome and a smooth recovery process. Furthermore, a procedure overview also helps to establish realistic expectations for the patient regarding the potential risks and benefits of the treatment. It allows the patient to make an informed decision about whether to proceed with the procedure or explore alternative options. Additionally, the procedure overview serves as a reference point for the medical team to ensure that all necessary steps are taken to minimize complications and optimize the patient's recovery. Overall, a well-documented procedure overview is an essential tool in ensuring the safety and success of any surgical or medical treatment (15-18).

Advantages and disadvantages

of the procedure should be clearly outlined in the overview, including potential side effects, recovery time, and expected outcomes. This information helps the patient weigh the risks and benefits and make an educated decision about their healthcare. In cases where there are alternative treatment options available, the procedure overview can also serve as a comparison tool to help the patient choose the best course of action. By providing a comprehensive and transparent overview of the procedure, healthcare providers can build trust with their patients and ensure that they are fully informed and prepared for their treatment. Ultimately, a well-documented procedure overview is crucial in promoting patient safety and satisfaction in the healthcare setting (19-21).

Patients who are well-informed about their procedures are more likely to have better outcomes and experiences during their treatment. This transparency also helps to foster a collaborative relationship between the healthcare provider and the patient, as the patient feels empowered to ask questions and participate in their own care. Additionally, a thorough procedure overview can help to alleviate any fears or anxieties that the patient may have about the treatment, leading to a more positive overall experience. Overall, providing a detailed procedure overview is an essential component of delivering high-quality and patient-centered care.

Latest advancements in LASIK technology have also contributed to improved patient outcomes and satisfaction. With the introduction of wavefront technology

and femtosecond lasers, LASIK procedures have become even more precise and customized to each individual's unique eye anatomy. This has resulted in higher success rates and reduced risk of complications, making LASIK a popular choice for those looking to improve their vision. Furthermore, the quick recovery time associated with these advancements has made LASIK a convenient option for busy individuals who may not have the time for a long recovery period (22-24). In addition, the advancements in LASIK technology have also led to a decrease in the occurrence of side effects such as dry eyes and glare at night. Patients are now experiencing clearer vision and improved quality of life after undergoing LASIK surgery. The ability to correct a wide range of refractive errors, including nearsightedness, farsightedness, and astigmatism, has made LASIK a versatile and effective solution for many individuals. Overall, the continual advancements in LASIK technology have revolutionized the field of vision correction and have provided patients with safer, more accurate, and more convenient options for improving their eyesight.

Photorefractive keratectomy(PRK)

(PRK) Photorefractive keratectomy, a predecessor to LASIK, has also shown significant advancements in recent years. While LASIK is a popular choice for many patients, PRK offers a suitable alternative for those who may not be suitable candidates for LASIK surgery. With PRK, the cornea is reshaped using a laser to correct refractive errors, similar to LASIK. However, PRK involves removing the outer layer of the cornea before reshaping it, which can result in a longer recovery time compared to LASIK. Despite this, PRK has been proven to be an effective option for patients seeking to improve their vision without undergoing traditional LASIK surgery (25-28).

PRK may be recommended for patients with thin corneas or other corneal irregularities that make them ineligible for LASIK. Additionally, PRK may be a better option for individuals who are involved in contact sports or other activities that could increase the risk of flap complications associated with LASIK. Overall, both LASIK and PRK are safe and effective procedures that can provide patients with improved vision and a better quality of life. It is important for patients to consult with their eye care provider to determine which procedure is best suited for their individual needs and lifestyle(29,30).

Procedure overview

LASIK and PRK are both refractive surgeries that aim to correct vision issues such as nearsightedness, farsightedness, and astigmatism. During LASIK, a thin

flap is created on the cornea using a laser, allowing the surgeon to reshape the underlying tissue to improve vision. PRK, on the other hand, involves removing the outer layer of the cornea before reshaping the tissue underneath. Both procedures have high success rates and can significantly reduce or eliminate the need for glasses or contact lenses. It is important for patients to understand the differences between the two procedures and to carefully consider their options before making a decision.

One key difference between LASIK and PRK is the recovery time. LASIK typically has a shorter recovery period, with many patients experiencing improved vision within a day or two. PRK, on the other hand, may require a longer recovery time as the outer layer of the cornea needs to regenerate. Additionally, some patients may experience discomfort or sensitivity to light following PRK. Despite these differences, both procedures have been proven to be safe and effective in correcting vision issues. Patients should consult with their eye care provider to determine which procedure is best suited for their individual needs and lifestyle.

Comparison with LASIK

LASIK is another popular option for vision correction, and it is known for its quick recovery time and minimal discomfort. Unlike PRK, LASIK involves creating a flap in the cornea, which can result in a faster healing process. Many patients are able to return to their normal activities within a day or two after undergoing LASIK. However, it is important to note that not all patients are eligible for LASIK, as certain eye conditions or characteristics may make PRK a better option. Consulting with an eye care provider is crucial in determining the most appropriate procedure for each individual (32,33).

During a consultation, the eye care provider will assess factors such as corneal thickness, prescription strength, and overall eye health to determine if LASIK is a suitable option. Additionally, they will discuss the potential risks and benefits of both LASIK and PRK to ensure that the patient makes an informed decision. Ultimately, the goal is to provide the best possible outcome for each patient, taking into account their unique needs and circumstances. By working closely with a knowledgeable and experienced eye care provider, individuals can achieve improved vision and a higher quality of life through refractive surgery.

Complications and outcomes of refractive surgery can vary from person to person, so it is important for patients to carefully follow post-operative instructions and attend all follow-up appointments. In some cases, patients may experience temporary side effects such as dry eyes, halos, or glare, but these typically resolve within a few weeks. In rare instances, more serious complications such as

infection or vision loss can occur, which is why it is crucial to choose a skilled and reputable surgeon for the procedure. Overall, the majority of patients are satisfied with the results of LASIK or PRK and report significant improvements in their vision and quality of life (34,35).

It is important for patients to have realistic expectations about the outcome of the procedure and to understand that it may take some time for their vision to fully stabilize. It is also important for patients to protect their eyes from injury and to avoid rubbing or touching them during the healing process. By following these guidelines and staying in close communication with their eye care provider, patients can maximize the chances of a successful outcome and enjoy the benefits of improved vision for years to come.

III. Outcomes of Refractive Surgery

One of the most common outcomes of refractive surgery is a significant improvement in visual acuity, with many patients achieving 20/20 vision or better. However, it is important to note that not all patients will experience perfect vision after the procedure, and some may still require glasses or contact lenses for certain activities. Additionally, some patients may experience temporary side effects such as dry eyes, glare, halos, or difficulty with night vision, though these typically improve over time. Overall, the majority of patients report high levels of satisfaction with the results of their refractive surgery, citing improved quality of life and increased confidence in their daily activities. In rare cases, some patients may require additional touch-up procedures to further improve their vision. It is crucial for patients to follow their doctor's post-operative care instructions to ensure the best possible outcome. Despite potential risks and side effects, refractive surgery continues to be a popular choice for those looking to reduce their dependence on glasses or contacts. With advancements in technology and surgical techniques, the success rates and patient satisfaction levels for refractive surgery continue to improve (36,37).

Visual acuity improvement following refractive surgery can have a significant impact on a patient's quality of life. Improved vision can lead to increased confidence, better performance at work or school, and a greater overall sense of well-being. Patients often report feeling a sense of freedom and convenience after undergoing refractive surgery, no longer having to deal with the hassle of glasses or contacts. The ability to see clearly without visual aids can also enhance participation in sports and other recreational activities. Overall, the benefits of refractive surgery can be life-changing for many individuals.

For those who have struggled with poor vision for most of their lives, the transformation that comes with improved eyesight can be truly profound. Tasks that were once difficult or impossible, such as driving at night or reading small print, become effortless and enjoyable. The sense of liberation that comes from no longer being dependent on glasses or contacts is a feeling that is difficult to put into words. It is a feeling of newfound independence and self-reliance that can have a ripple effect on all aspects of a person's life.

Success rates vary depending on the specific procedure and the individual's unique circumstances, but the overwhelming majority of patients report significant improvements in their vision following laser eye surgery. The ability to see clearly without the aid of corrective lenses can have a profound impact on a person's quality of life, allowing them to fully engage in activities that were once limited by poor vision. In addition to the physical benefits of improved eyesight, many patients also experience a boost in their confidence and self-esteem, as they no longer have to rely on external aids to see the world around them. Overall, the decision to undergo laser eye surgery can be life-changing for many individuals, opening up new possibilities and opportunities that were previously out of reach. Some patients may initially feel hesitant or nervous about the idea of undergoing surgery on their eyes, but the benefits often outweigh any temporary discomfort or fear. It is important for individuals considering laser eye surgery to research and consult with a qualified ophthalmologist to fully understand the procedure, potential risks, and expected outcomes. With advancements in technology and techniques, the success rate of laser eye surgery continues to improve, making it a safe and effective option for those seeking to improve their vision. By taking the leap and investing in their eye health, patients can experience a newfound sense of freedom and independence that comes with clear, unaided vision (38-40).

Long-term outcomes of laser eye surgery have been shown to be highly favorable, with many patients experiencing improved vision for years after the procedure. Additionally, the convenience of not having to rely on glasses or contact lenses can greatly enhance quality of life for individuals who lead active lifestyles or have demanding professions. Overall, the benefits of laser eye surgery far outweigh the temporary discomfort or fear that may accompany the procedure, making it a worthwhile investment in one's vision and overall well-being.

It is important to note that while laser eye surgery has a high success rate, there are still potential risks and complications that can arise. It is essential for individuals considering this procedure to thoroughly research and consult with a qualified ophthalmologist to ensure they are suitable candidates. Additionally, regular follow-up appointments and proper post-operative care are crucial for

maintaining optimal results and preventing any potential issues. Taking these precautions can help ensure that the long-term benefits of laser eye surgery continue to improve the quality of life for patients well into the future (39,40).

Patient satisfaction and successful outcomes are often reported after undergoing laser eye surgery. Many individuals experience improved vision and reduced dependency on glasses or contact lenses. However, it is important to note that results can vary depending on individual factors such as age, eye health, and the specific type of procedure performed. Despite the high success rates of laser eye surgery, it is still crucial for patients to follow post-operative instructions provided by their surgeon to minimize the risk of complications. Regular follow-up appointments are also recommended to monitor progress and address any concerns that may arise. By staying diligent with aftercare and attending all scheduled visits, patients can maximize the benefits of their surgery and enjoy clear vision for years to come.

Factors influencing satisfaction with laser eye surgery outcomes include the patient's expectations, overall health, and adherence to post-operative care. Patients who have realistic expectations and maintain good overall health are more likely to be satisfied with the results of their surgery. Additionally, following all post-operative instructions, such as using prescribed eye drops and avoiding strenuous activities, can help prevent complications and ensure optimal healing. Regular follow-up appointments allow the surgeon to monitor the patient's progress and address any issues that may arise, further increasing the likelihood of a successful outcome. Overall, patient satisfaction with laser eye surgery is influenced by a combination of individual factors and proper aftercare practices (41,42).

Patients who prioritize their eye health and adhere to recommended lifestyle changes following surgery are also more likely to experience long-term benefits. These may include improved vision clarity, reduced dependence on corrective lenses, and overall better quality of life. By maintaining a healthy lifestyle and following post-operative instructions, patients can maximize the success of their laser eye surgery and enjoy the full extent of its benefits. Regular check-ups with their eye care provider can also help patients address any concerns or issues that may arise, ensuring continued satisfaction with their surgical outcome (25,43).

Quality of life improvements such as increased confidence, convenience, and freedom from the hassle of glasses or contacts can have a significant impact on a patient's daily life. The ability to wake up and see clearly without reaching for glasses or fumbling with contact lenses can be a game-changer for many individuals. Additionally, the financial savings over time from not having to

purchase new glasses or contacts can also contribute to an improved quality of life. Overall, the decision to undergo laser eye surgery can have far-reaching benefits beyond just improved vision. It can truly enhance a person's overall well-being and happiness.

From increased self-confidence to improved productivity at work, the benefits of laser eye surgery extend beyond just the physical aspect of better vision. Patients often report feeling more independent and liberated from the constraints of corrective eyewear. The convenience of not having to constantly clean and maintain glasses or deal with the discomfort of contacts can also lead to a more relaxed and stress-free lifestyle. In addition, the freedom to participate in activities like swimming or sports without worrying about glasses or contacts can open up new opportunities for enjoyment and fulfillment. Overall, the decision to undergo laser eye surgery is not just about correcting vision, but about enhancing the overall quality of life for the individual (40,41).

Cost-effectiveness of refractive surgery is another important factor to consider when weighing the benefits of laser eye surgery. While the initial cost may seem high, the long-term savings on glasses, contacts, and maintenance can make it a more cost-effective option in the long run. Additionally, many insurance plans now cover at least a portion of the cost of refractive surgery, making it more accessible to a wider range of individuals. Ultimately, the financial investment in laser eye surgery can pay off in the form of improved vision and a higher quality of life.

In addition to the financial aspect, the convenience of refractive surgery should also be taken into account. No longer having to deal with the hassle of glasses or contacts can greatly improve daily life for many individuals. The ability to wake up and see clearly without the need for corrective lenses can be a game-changer for those with busy schedules or active lifestyles. Furthermore, the quick recovery time associated with laser eye surgery means minimal downtime and a swift return to normal activities. Overall, the combination of cost-effectiveness and convenience makes refractive surgery an attractive option for those looking to improve their vision and quality of life (42,43).

Comparison with other vision correction methods When compared to other vision correction methods, such as wearing glasses or contacts, refractive surgery stands out as a more permanent and hassle-free solution. While glasses and contacts require constant maintenance and replacements, the results of laser eye surgery can last a lifetime. Additionally, the convenience of not having to constantly remember to bring glasses or contacts with you wherever you go can be a huge relief for many individuals. Overall, the long-term benefits and freedom from the

limitations of traditional vision correction methods make refractive surgery a superior choice for those seeking improved vision.

In addition to the long-lasting benefits of refractive surgery, many patients also report improved quality of life after the procedure. With clearer vision, individuals may experience increased confidence, better performance in daily activities, and a reduced reliance on corrective eyewear. This newfound freedom can be life-changing for those who have struggled with poor vision for years. Furthermore, the advancements in technology have made laser eye surgery safer and more effective than ever before, making it a viable option for a wide range of individuals. As more people discover the benefits of refractive surgery, it is becoming an increasingly popular choice for those looking to enhance their vision and improve their overall quality of life (44,45).

Economic benefits for patients include saving money on prescription glasses and contact lenses in the long run, as well as potentially increasing job opportunities and earning potential with improved vision. Additionally, the decreased need for corrective eyewear can lead to a more active and fulfilling lifestyle, as patients no longer have to worry about their glasses or contacts getting in the way during physical activities. Overall, the economic benefits of laser eye surgery can have a significant impact on an individual's financial well-being and quality of life.

Laser eye surgery can also provide psychological benefits for patients, as improved vision can boost self-confidence and self-esteem. With clearer vision, individuals may feel more comfortable in social settings and more confident in their abilities at work or in personal pursuits. This can lead to a more positive outlook on life and an overall sense of well-being. Additionally, the convenience of not having to rely on glasses or contacts can reduce the stress and inconvenience that often comes with traditional vision correction methods. This freedom from constantly having to worry about glasses or contacts can lead to a more relaxed and enjoyable daily routine (46-48).

IV. Complications of Refractive Surgery

Complications include potential risks such as infection, dry eyes, and changes in vision. It is important for individuals considering refractive surgery to thoroughly research the procedure and consult with a qualified ophthalmologist to discuss their options and potential risks. While refractive surgery can greatly improve quality of life for many individuals, it is not without its potential drawbacks. It is important to weigh the benefits and risks carefully before undergoing any type of vision correction surgery.

One common complication of refractive surgery is undercorrection, where the desired level of vision correction is not fully achieved. This can result in the need for additional procedures or the continued use of glasses or contact lenses. Another potential complication is overcorrection, where the eyes are corrected too much, leading to issues such as glare, halos, or difficulty with night vision. It is important for individuals to understand these potential risks and discuss them with their ophthalmologist before proceeding with surgery. VI. In addition to the physical complications of refractive surgery, there can also be psychological and emotional considerations to take into account. Some individuals may experience anxiety or depression related to the surgery, especially if the results are not as expected. It is important for individuals to have realistic expectations and to seek support from loved ones or mental health professionals if needed. Overall, while refractive surgery can be a life-changing procedure for many, it is important to carefully consider all potential risks and complications before making a decision (49,50).

Dry eye syndrome

This is another common complication that individuals may experience following refractive surgery. This condition can cause discomfort, blurry vision, and sensitivity to light, making it important for patients to be aware of the potential side effects. Proper hydration, the use of artificial tears, and regular eye exams can help manage dry eye syndrome and improve overall eye health post-surgery. Additionally, it is crucial for patients to follow their surgeon's post-operative care instructions to minimize the risk of complications and ensure the best possible outcome (51,52).

Prevalence and risk factors for developing dry eye syndrome post-refractive surgery vary depending on the type of procedure, with LASIK patients being at a higher risk compared to PRK patients. Other risk factors include age, gender, and pre-existing conditions such as autoimmune diseases or allergies. By understanding these factors and taking proactive steps to prevent and manage dry eye syndrome, patients can increase their chances of a successful recovery and optimal vision correction results. It is also important for patients to communicate any symptoms or concerns with their surgeon promptly to address any issues before they worsen.

Management strategies for dry eye syndrome post-surgery may include the use of artificial tears, prescription eye drops, and the use of humidifiers in the home or workplace. Patients may also benefit from following a diet rich in omega-3 fatty acids and staying hydrated to promote healthy tear production. In more severe

cases, punctal plugs or other procedures may be necessary to provide relief. Overall, proactive management of dry eye syndrome is crucial in ensuring a smooth recovery and successful outcome following vision correction surgery (53,54).

Flap complications such as epithelial ingrowth or flap dislocation can also occur post-surgery. Epithelial ingrowth happens when cells from the surface of the eye grow under the flap, causing discomfort and potential vision issues. Flap dislocation occurs when the flap created during surgery moves out of place, leading to blurry vision and the need for immediate intervention. These complications require prompt attention from a healthcare provider to prevent further damage and ensure optimal healing. In some cases, additional procedures may be necessary to correct the issue and restore vision. It is important for patients to closely follow post-operative instructions and attend all follow-up appointments to monitor for any potential complications and address them promptly.

Causes and prevention of flap dislocation are important topics to discuss with your healthcare provider before undergoing LASIK surgery. By understanding the potential risks and taking necessary precautions, you can minimize the likelihood of experiencing this complication and achieve the best possible outcome from your procedure. Additionally, maintaining good eye health through regular check-ups and following a healthy lifestyle can also help reduce the risk of post-operative complications. Remember, your vision is precious, so it's important to prioritize your eye care and take proactive steps to protect it (54,55).

If you have any concerns or questions about LASIK surgery, don't hesitate to bring them up with your healthcare provider. They can provide you with more information and guidance on how to prepare for the procedure and what to expect during the recovery process. It's also important to follow all pre-operative instructions provided by your doctor to ensure the best results. Remember, the decision to undergo LASIK surgery is a personal one, so take the time to educate yourself and make an informed choice that is right for you and your vision.

Treatment options for vision correction continue to evolve and improve, so it's important to stay informed about the latest advancements in technology. Your eye health is a priority, and by discussing your options with your healthcare provider, you can make a decision that is best suited for your individual needs and lifestyle. LASIK surgery has helped countless individuals achieve clearer vision and reduce their dependence on glasses or contact lenses. By taking the time to research and understand the procedure, you can feel confident in your decision to undergo LASIK surgery (56,57).

LASIK surgery is a popular choice for many people looking to improve their vision, but it's not the only option available. Other treatments, such as PRK or implantable lenses, may be more suitable for certain individuals depending on their specific eye conditions. It's important to consult with an eye care professional to determine the best course of action for your vision correction needs. Additionally, regular eye exams and preventative measures can help maintain your eye health and potentially prevent the need for corrective surgery in the future. By staying proactive and informed about your eye health, you can ensure a clear and bright future ahead.

Regression of visual acuity after LASIK surgery is a rare occurrence, but it is important to be aware of the potential risks and complications associated with the procedure. Your healthcare provider will be able to provide you with information on how to minimize the risk of regression and ensure that you maintain optimal vision post-surgery. Additionally, regular follow-up appointments and adherence to post-operative care instructions will be essential in monitoring your visual acuity and addressing any concerns that may arise. Remember, your eye health is invaluable, so it's important to prioritize your vision and take proactive steps to maintain and enhance it (57,58).

Factors contributing to regression

Factors after LASIK surgery can include age, changes in prescription, and certain lifestyle habits. It is important to discuss these factors with your healthcare provider before undergoing the procedure to ensure realistic expectations and proper preparation. By understanding the potential causes of regression and taking proactive measures to address them, you can increase the likelihood of long-lasting results and improved vision outcomes. Remember, your eye health is a lifelong commitment, so staying informed and proactive is key to preserving your vision for years to come. Regular follow-up appointments with your healthcare provider are essential to monitor your vision and address any potential issues that may arise. In addition, making healthy lifestyle choices, such as quitting smoking and maintaining a balanced diet, can also help maintain the results of your LASIK surgery. By taking these steps, you can ensure that your vision remains clear and sharp for years to come, allowing you to fully enjoy the benefits of improved eyesight (59,60).

Enhancements and retreatments may also be necessary in some cases to maintain optimal vision following laser eye surgery. Factors such as age, changes in prescription, and lifestyle habits can all contribute to the need for additional

procedures. It is important to follow up with your healthcare provider regularly to monitor your vision and address any changes that may arise. By staying proactive and informed about your eye health, you can ensure that you continue to enjoy clear vision and improved quality of life.

Regular eye exams are essential for detecting any changes in your vision and addressing them promptly. Your healthcare provider can assess your eye health and recommend any necessary treatments or adjustments to your vision correction. Additionally, maintaining a healthy lifestyle, including eating a balanced diet and protecting your eyes from harmful UV rays, can help preserve your vision and reduce the risk of complications. Taking proactive steps to care for your eyes now can lead to long-term benefits and improved overall eye health in the future (61,62).

V. Conclusion

As discussed in this paper, it is evident that laser eye surgery can be a highly effective and beneficial treatment option for individuals looking to improve their vision. By understanding the various types of laser eye surgery available, as well as the potential risks and benefits, patients can make informed decisions about their eye care. Regular follow-up appointments and potential retreatments are important aspects of maintaining optimal vision following surgery. By staying proactive and working closely with their healthcare providers, patients can ensure that they continue to enjoy clear vision and an improved quality of life for years to come.

Future directions in refractive surgery research include exploring new technologies and techniques to further enhance the safety and efficacy of laser eye surgery. Researchers are also investigating ways to customize treatment plans for each individual patient, taking into account factors such as age, prescription strength, and overall eye health. Additionally, studies are being conducted to assess the long-term outcomes and durability of various laser eye surgery procedures. By staying at the forefront of refractive surgery research, healthcare providers can continue to offer the best possible care to patients seeking to improve their vision.

Implications for clinical practice and patient care include the importance of informed consent, thorough pre-operative evaluations, and post-operative follow-up care. It is crucial for healthcare providers to stay up-to-date on the latest advancements in laser eye surgery in order to provide the most effective and safe treatment options for their patients. By incorporating evidence-based practices and continually evaluating outcomes, clinicians can ensure that they are delivering

the highest quality care and achieving optimal results for their patients. This commitment to ongoing education and research ultimately leads to better patient outcomes and satisfaction in the field of refractive surgery.

Continuing education in the field of laser eye surgery also allows healthcare providers to stay informed about potential risks and complications associated with different procedures, as well as emerging technologies that may improve outcomes. Regular training and updates on best practices can help clinicians identify and address any issues that may arise during the course of treatment, leading to better overall patient experiences. Additionally, staying current on the latest research and advancements in the field can help healthcare providers adapt their techniques and approaches to better meet the individual needs and preferences of each patient. By prioritizing ongoing education and research, healthcare providers can ensure that they are delivering the highest standard of care and achieving the best possible results for their patients.

Reference

1. KS, Leasher J, Bourne RR, et al. Vision loss expert group of the global burden of disease study, global vision impairment and blindness due to uncorrected refractive error, 1990-2010. *Optom Vis Sci* 2016;93:227–34.
2. FDA. FDA-approved lasers for PRK and other refractive surgeries. Silver Spring (MD): FDA;2019.
3. Li S-M, Zhan S, Li S-Y, et al. Laser-assisted subepithelial keratectomy (LASEK) versus photorefractive keratectomy (PRK) for correction of myopia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2016;2:CD009799.
4. FDA, List of FDA-Approved Lasers for LASIK, FDA. 2018. Available at: <https://www.fda.gov/medical-devices/lasik/list-fda-approved-lasers-lasik>.
5. Corcoran KJ. Macroeconomic landscape of refractive surgery in the United States. *Curr Opin Ophthalmol* 2015;26:249–54.
6. Shortt AJ, Allan BDS, Evans JR. Laser-assisted in-situ keratomileusis (LASIK) versus photorefractive keratectomy (PRK) for myopia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2013;CD005135;
7. Farjo AA, Sugar A, Schallhorn SC, et al. Femtosecond lasers for LASIK flap creation: areport by the American Academy of Ophthalmology. *Ophthalmology* 2013;120:e5–20.
8. Lau YT-Y, Shih KC, Tse RH-K, et al. Comparison of visual, refractive and ocular surface outcomes between small incision lenticule extraction and laser-assisted in situ keratomileusis formyopia and myopic astigmatism. *Ophthalmol Ther* 2019;8:373–86.

9. Huang D, Schallhorn SC, Sugar A, et al. Phakic intraocular lens implantation for the correction of myopia: a report by the American Academy of Ophthalmology. *Ophthalmology* 2009;116:2244–58.
10. Sanders DR, Doney K, Poco M. ICL in Treatment of Myopia Study Group, United States Food and Drug Administration clinical trial of the Implantable Collamer Lens (ICL) for moderate to high myopia: three-year follow-up. *Ophthalmology* 2004;111:1683–92.
11. Tahzib NG, Nuijts RM, Wu WY, et al. Long-term study of Artisan phakic intraocular lens implantation for the correction of moderate to high myopia: ten-year follow-up results. *Ophthalmology* 2007;114:1133–42.
12. Barsam A, Allan BDS. Excimer laser refractive surgery versus phakic intraocular lenses for the correction of moderate to high myopia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2014;CD007679;
13. Alio JL, Grzybowski A, El Aswad A, et al. Refractive lens exchange. *Surv Ophthalmol* 2014;59:579–98.
14. Fink AM, Gore C, Rosen ES. Refractive lensectomy for hyperopia. *Ophthalmology* 2000;107:1540–8.
15. Ruiz-Mesa R, Carrasco-Sánchez D, Díaz-Alvarez SB, et al. Refractive lens exchange with foldable toric intraocular lens. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2009;147:990–6, 996.e1.
16. Kook D, Kampik A, Kohnen T. [Complications after refractive lens exchange]. *Ophthalmologie* 2008;105:1005–12.
17. Fricke TR, Tahhan N, Resnikoff S, et al. Global Prevalence of Presbyopia and Vision Impairment from Uncorrected Presbyopia: Systematic Review, Meta-analysis, and Modelling. *Ophthalmology* 2018;125:1492–9.
18. Moarefi MA, Bafna S, Wiley W. A Review of Presbyopia Treatment with Corneal Inlays. *Ophthalmol Ther* 2017;6:55–65.
19. Yilmaz OF, Alagoz N, Pekel G, et al. Intracorneal inlay to correct presbyopia: Long-term results. *J Cataract Refract Surg* 2011;37:1275–81.
20. Seyeddain O, Hohensinn M, Riha W, et al. Small-aperture corneal inlay for the correction of presbyopia: 3-year follow-up. *J Cataract Refract Surg* 2012;38:35–45.
21. Dexl AK, Jell G, Strohmaier C, et al. Long-term outcomes after monocular corneal inlay implantation for the surgical compensation of presbyopia. *J Cataract Refract Surg* 2015;41: 566–75.
22. Tomita M, Kanamori T, Waring GO, et al. Simultaneous corneal inlay implantation and laser in situ keratomileusis for presbyopia in patients with

hyperopia, myopia, or emmetropia: six month results. *J Cataract Refract Surg* 2012;38:495–506.

23. Tomita M, Kanamori T, Waring GO, et al. Small-aperture corneal inlay implantation to treat presbyopia after laser in situ keratomileusis. *J Cataract Refract Surg* 2013;39:898–905.

24. Seyeddain O, Bachernegg A, Riha W, et al. Femtosecond laser-assisted small-aperture corneal inlay implantation for corneal compensation of presbyopia: two-year follow-up. *J Cataract Refract Surg* 2013;39:234–41.

25. Shafer BM, Greenwood M. Presbyopia Correction at the Time of Cataract Surgery. *Curr Ophthalmol Rep* 2020;8:79–87.

26. Rosen E, Alio' JL, Dick HB, et al. Efficacy and safety of multifocal intraocular lenses following cataract and refractive lens exchange: Metaanalysis of peer-reviewed publications. *J Cataract Refract Surg* 2016;42:310–28.

27. Moshirfar M, Shah TJ, Skanchy DF, et al. Comparison and analysis of FDA reported visual outcomes of the three latest platforms for LASIK: wavefront guided Visx iDesign, topography guided WaveLight Allegro Contoura, and topography guided Nidek EC-5000 CATz. *Clin Ophthalmol* 2017;11:135–47.

28. Pin˜ero DP, Teus MA. Clinical outcomes of small-incision lenticule extraction and femtosecond laser-assisted wavefront-guided laser in situ keratomileusis. *J Cataract Refract Surg* 2016;42:1078–93.

29. Kobashi H, Kamiya K, Shimizu K. Dry eye after small incision lenticule extraction and femtosecond laser-assisted LASIK: meta-analysis. *Cornea* 2017;36:85–91.

30. Guo H, Hosseini-Moghaddam SM, Hodge W. Corneal biomechanical properties after SMILE versus FLEX, LASIK, LASEK, or PRK: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Ophthalmol* 2019;19:167.

31. Sekundo W, Gertnere J, Bertelmann T, et al. One-year refractive results, contrast sensitivity, high-order aberrations and complications after myopic small-incision lenticule extraction (ReLEx SMILE). *Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol* 2014;252:837–43.

32. Moshirfar M, Bruner CD, Skanchy DF, et al. Hyperopic small-incision lenticule extraction. *Curr Opin Ophthalmol* 2019;30:229–35.

33. Moshirfar M, SHAH TJ, MASUD M, et al. A Modified Small-Incision Lenticule IntrastromalKeratoplasty (sLIKE) for the Correction of High Hyperopia: A Description of a New Surgical Technique and Comparison to Lenticule Intrastromal Keratoplasty (LIKE). *Med Hypothesis Discov Innov Ophthalmol* 2018;7:48–56.

34. Pepose JS, Burke J, Qazi M. Accommodating Intraocular Lenses. *Asia Pac J Ophthalmol*(Phila) 2017;6:350–7.
35. Pe´rez-Merino P, Birkenfeld J, Dorronsoro C, et al. Aberrometry in patients implanted with accommodative intraocular lenses. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2014;157:1077–89.
36. Alio´ JL, Ben-nun J, Rodri´guez-Prats JL, et al. Visual and accommodative outcomes 1 year after implantation of an accommodating intraocular lens based on a new concept. *J Cataract Refract Surg* 2009;35:1671–8.
37. Zhang W-W, Xie Z-G. Advances in the Study of Lens Refilling. *J Ophthalmol* 2020;2020.
38. Leccisotti A. Bioptics: where do things stand? *Curr Opin Ophthalmol* 2006;17:399–405
39. Bashir ZS, Ali MH, Anwar A, Ayub MH, Butt NH. Femto-lasik: the recent innovation in laser assisted refractive surgery. *J Pak Med Assoc.* 2017;67(4):609–615. PMID: 28420926.
40. Han T, Zhao L, Shen Y, et al. Twelve-year global publications on small incision lenticule extraction: a bibliometric analysis. *Front Med.*2022;9:990657.
41. Sachdev MS, Shetty R, Khamar P, et al. Safety and effectiveness of smooth incision lenticular keratomileusis (SILKTM) using the ELITA(TM) femtosecond laser system for correction of myopic and astigmatic refractive errors *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2023;Volume 17(17):3761–3773.
42. Zhao PF, Hu YB, Wang Y, Fu CY, Zhang J, Zhai CB. Comparison of correcting myopia and astigmatism with SMILE or FS-LASIK and postoperative higher-order aberrations. *Int. J Ophthalmol.* 2021;14(4):523–528.
43. Mohammad NK, Rattan S, Al Wassiti ASA, Al-Attar Z. Femtosecond small incision lenticular extraction in comparison to femtosecond laser in situ keratomileusis regarding dry eye disease. *Open Access Macedonian. J Med Sci.* 2022;10(B):668–673.
44. Rattan SA, Rashid RF, Mutashar MK, Nasser YAR, Anwar DS. Comparison of corneal flap thickness predictability and architecture between femtosecond laser and sub-Bowman keratomileusis microkeratome in laser in situ keratomileusis. *Int Ophthalmol.* 2023;43(5):1553–1558.Epub 2022 Oct 29. PMID: 36307607.
45. Wannapanich T, Kasetsuwan N, Reinprayoon U. Intraocular implantable collamer lens with a central hole implantation: safety, efficacy, and patient outcomes. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2023;17:969–980.
46. Packer M. The Implantable Collamer Lens with a central port: review of the literature. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2018;12:2427–2438.

47. Al-Mohaimed MM. Combined corneal CXL and photorefractive keratectomy for treatment of keratoconus: a review. *Int J Ophthalmol.* 2019;12 (12):1929–1938.
48. De Rosa G, Rossi S, Santamaria C, et al. Combined photorefractive keratectomy and corneal collagen cross-linking for treatment of keratoconus: a 2-year follow-up study. *Ther. Adv Ophthalmol.* 2022;14:25158414221083362.
49. Kankariya VP, Dube AB, Grentzelos MA, et al. Corneal cross-linking (CXL) combined with refractive surgery for the comprehensive management of keratoconus: CXL plus. *Indian. J Ophthalmol.* 2020;68(12):2757–2772.
50. Venkateswaran N, Galor A, Wang J, Karp CL. Optical coherence tomography for ocular surface and corneal diseases: a review. *Eye Vis.* 2018;5 (1):13.
51. Kenia VP, Kenia RV, Maru S, Pirdankar OH. Role of corneal epithelial mapping, Corvis biomechanical index, and artificial intelligence-based tomographic biomechanical index in diagnosing spectrum of keratoconus. *Oman J Ophthalmol.* 2023;16(2):276–280.
52. Rattan SA, Anwar DS. Comparison of corneal epithelial thickness profile in dry eye patients, keratoconus suspect, and healthy eyes. *Eur J Ophthalmol.* 2020;30(6):1506–1511. Epub 2020 Aug 27. PMID: 32854543.
53. Williams AM, Bhatti UF, Alam HB, Nikolian VC. The role of telemedicine in postoperative care. *Mhealth.* 2018;4:11.
54. Kaymak H, Potvin R, Neller K, Klabe K, Anello RD, NINO Study Group. Customizing clinical outcomes with implantation of two diffractive trifocal IOLs of identical design but differing light distributions to the far, intermediate and near foci. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2024;18:1009–1022.
55. Kabata Y, Oki T, Nakano T. Comparison of refractive prediction error by axial length in flanged intrascleral intraocular lens fixation. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2024;18:895–900.
56. Amaral DC, Menezes AHG, Vilaça Lima LC, et al. Corneal collagen crosslinking for ectasia after refractive surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2024;18:865–879.
57. Suzuki H, Nishiyama M. Comparison of distance-based uncorrected visual acuity based on the optical profile of same platform IOLs. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2024;18:671–678.
58. Liu X, Hannan SJ, Schallhorn SC, Schallhorn JM. Angle kappa is not correlated with patient-reported outcomes after multifocal lens implantation. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2024;18:605–612.
59. Kanellopoulos AJ. Ray-tracing customization in myopic and myopic astigmatism lasik treatments for low and high order aberrations treatment: 2-year

visual function and psychometric value outcomes of a consecutive case series. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2024;18:565–574.

59. Salgado RMPC, Torres PFAAS, Marinho AAP. Update on femtosecond laser-assisted cataract surgery: a review. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2024;18:459–472.

60. Castro C, Ribeiro B, Couto IMC, Abreu AC, Monteiro S, Pinto MDC. Long-term refractive outcomes and visual quality of multifocal intraocular lenses implantation in high myopic patients: a multimodal evaluation. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2024;18:365–375.

61. Lin Y, Luo S, Lu Q, Pan X. The effects of implantable collamer lens icl implantation in high myopia patients' mental health. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2024;18:121–126.

62. Henderson BA, Aramberri J, Vann R, et al. The current burden and future solutions for preoperative cataract-refractive evaluation diagnostic devices: a modified delphi study. *Clin Ophthalmol.* 2023;17:2109–2124.

Chapter 12

Improvement in reading performance of low vision patients after receiving low vision rehabilitation

Rikta Paul

Department of optometry, Swami Vivekananda University, Barrackpore

Abstract

Low vision rehabilitation (LVR) plays a crucial role in enhancing the reading performance of individuals with visual impairment by providing adaptive strategies, assistive devices, and training. Reading difficulties are among the most common challenges faced by individuals with low vision, significantly affecting their quality of life and daily functioning. This review explores the impact of LVR on improving reading performance in low vision patients, focusing on factors such as reading speed, accuracy, comprehension, and endurance.

Studies indicate that various rehabilitation interventions, including magnification devices (optical and electronic), contrast enhancement techniques, eccentric viewing training, and auditory aids, contribute to improved reading outcomes. Optical magnifiers, closed-circuit televisions (CCTVs), and electronic reading devices enhance text visibility, while non-optical strategies such as increased lighting and contrast modifications further facilitate reading. Training methods like eccentric viewing and steady eye strategy improve visual efficiency, enabling patients to maximize their remaining vision. Additionally, assistive technologies, such as text-to-speech software and braille readers, offer alternative solutions for individuals with severe vision loss.

Evidence suggests that LVR leads to significant gains in reading speed, fluency, and comprehension, with long-term benefits in maintaining reading independence. However, the effectiveness of rehabilitation varies based on factors such as the severity of vision loss, individual adaptation capacity, and the timely implementation of interventions. Psychological and motivational aspects also play a role in determining rehabilitation success.

Introduction

Reading is a fundamental activity that significantly impacts an individual's quality of life, independence, and access to information. However, individuals with low vision often experience difficulties in reading due to impaired visual acuity, contrast sensitivity, and visual field deficits. Low vision rehabilitation (LVR) aims

to address these challenges by employing a combination of optical, non-optical, and technological interventions to enhance reading performance. The effectiveness of LVR in improving reading abilities has been widely recognized in clinical and research settings, highlighting the importance of personalized interventions that cater to the specific needs of patients (Leat et al., 2017).

Individuals with low vision often struggle with tasks such as recognizing printed text, reading at an adequate speed, and maintaining sustained reading for extended periods. These limitations may lead to frustration, reduced engagement with written materials, and a decline in overall well-being. Vision loss, particularly from conditions such as age-related macular degeneration (AMD), diabetic retinopathy (DR), and glaucoma, directly affects central or peripheral vision, making reading a challenging task (Binns et al., 2012). Given the growing aging population and the increasing prevalence of visual impairments, it is crucial to explore evidence-based strategies to enhance reading performance in individuals with low vision.

Low vision rehabilitation incorporates various strategies, including magnification devices, electronic reading aids, improved lighting conditions, and adaptive training techniques to optimize residual vision. Optical devices such as magnifiers, telescopic lenses, and electronic magnification systems are widely used to improve text visibility (Markowitz, 2016). Additionally, non-optical strategies such as contrast enhancement, large print materials, and voice-assisted technologies play a crucial role in facilitating reading in individuals with significant visual impairments. Training interventions, such as eccentric viewing training and perceptual learning, have been found to enhance reading efficiency in individuals with central vision loss (Chung, 2011).

The impact of LVR on reading performance is multifaceted, encompassing improvements in reading speed, accuracy, comprehension, and sustained reading ability. Studies suggest that individuals who undergo LVR experience significant enhancements in their reading abilities, leading to greater independence and improved psychological well-being (Stelmack et al., 2008). Furthermore, advancements in assistive technologies, such as text-to-speech applications and refreshable braille displays, have expanded the accessibility of reading materials for individuals with severe visual impairments.

Despite the proven benefits of LVR, several factors influence its effectiveness, including the severity of vision loss, the adaptability of the individual, and access to rehabilitation services. A comprehensive approach that integrates clinical assessment, personalized interventions, and patient education is essential for maximizing reading outcomes in individuals with low vision. This review

explores the impact of LVR on reading performance, evaluating the effectiveness of various rehabilitation strategies and highlighting future directions for improving accessibility and quality of life for individuals with visual impairments.

Methods

Methods

This review adopts a systematic approach to analyzing the impact of low vision rehabilitation (LVR) on reading performance by synthesizing evidence from clinical trials, observational studies, and systematic reviews. The methodology involves literature selection, categorization of intervention strategies, and evaluation of reading performance metrics post-rehabilitation.

Literature Search Strategy

A comprehensive literature search was conducted using electronic databases such as PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar. The search strategy incorporated a combination of keywords and Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) terms, including "low vision rehabilitation," "reading performance," "visual impairment," "magnification devices," "electronic reading aids," and "eccentric viewing training." Studies published in English from 2000 onwards were considered to ensure relevance to contemporary rehabilitation practices. Additionally, reference lists of retrieved articles were screened to identify supplementary sources.

Eligibility Criteria

The inclusion criteria for selecting studies were as follows:

1. Studies evaluating reading performance in individuals with low vision before and after rehabilitation.
2. Research incorporating interventions such as optical and non-optical devices, electronic reading aids, and training techniques.
3. Studies employing objective measures of reading performance, such as reading speed (words per minute), comprehension accuracy, and sustained reading duration.
4. Participants diagnosed with visual impairments due to conditions such as age-related macular degeneration (AMD), diabetic retinopathy (DR), or glaucoma.

Exclusion criteria included:

1. Studies focusing solely on general vision rehabilitation without specific assessment of reading performance.

2. Case reports, expert opinions, and studies with insufficient data on reading outcomes.
3. Research involving participants with cognitive impairments that could confound reading performance assessments.

Classification of Rehabilitation Interventions

The selected studies were categorized based on the type of rehabilitation intervention employed:

1. **Optical Devices:** Studies assessing the effectiveness of magnifiers (handheld and stand-based), telescopic lenses, and spectacle-mounted magnification systems (Markowitz, 2016).
2. **Electronic Aids:** Research evaluating electronic magnifiers, closed-circuit television (CCTV) systems, and text-to-speech applications (Morrice et al., 2020).
3. **Non-Optical Strategies:** Studies analyzing the impact of improved lighting conditions, contrast enhancement, and large-print reading materials (Calabrese et al., 2018).
4. **Training-Based Interventions:** Research focusing on eccentric viewing training, perceptual learning, and reading speed enhancement techniques (Chung, 2011).

Assessment of Reading Performance

Reading performance was assessed using validated measures commonly employed in low vision rehabilitation research. The following parameters were analyzed:

- **Reading Speed:** Measured in words per minute (wpm) using standardized reading charts, such as the Minnesota Low Vision Reading Test (MNREAD) (Legge et al., 2016).
- **Reading Comprehension:** Evaluated based on comprehension tests following text reading tasks.
- **Sustained Reading Ability:** Assessed by monitoring reading duration before experiencing visual fatigue.
- **User Satisfaction and Quality of Life:** Examined using questionnaires such as the National Eye Institute Visual Function Questionnaire (NEI-VFQ-25) (Stelmack et al., 2008).

Data Extraction and Synthesis

Two independent reviewers extracted data, including sample size, participant characteristics, intervention type, reading performance outcomes, and follow-up

duration. Discrepancies were resolved through discussion with a third reviewer. A narrative synthesis was performed, summarizing findings based on intervention type and its impact on reading performance. Statistical results, where available, were reported in terms of mean differences, effect sizes, and confidence intervals.

Results and Discussion

1. Optical Aids and Magnifiers

Optical devices such as handheld magnifiers, stand magnifiers, and telescopic lenses are commonly prescribed in LVR. Studies indicate that these aids significantly improve reading acuity and speed, although their effectiveness depends on the degree of magnification and the patient's ability to adapt to their use. High-powered magnifiers may lead to a reduced field of view, requiring training to optimize efficiency.

2. Electronic Assistive Devices

Electronic devices, including closed-circuit television (CCTV) magnifiers, portable electronic magnifiers, and e-readers, offer enhanced contrast, adjustable magnification, and improved readability. Research suggests that electronic magnifiers yield better reading performance than traditional optical aids, particularly for individuals with advanced visual impairment. Digital tablets with adjustable font sizes and contrast settings have also been found to facilitate more comfortable and sustained reading.

3. Contrast Enhancement and Lighting Modifications

Contrast sensitivity deficits often accompany low vision, impacting reading fluency. High-contrast printed materials, LED lighting, and adjustable task lamps have been shown to improve reading performance. Studies highlight that optimized lighting conditions can enhance reading speed by reducing glare and improving letter recognition.

4. Non-Optical Strategies and Training

Visual training programs focus on eccentric viewing techniques, text navigation skills, and cognitive strategies to maximize residual vision. Training interventions, such as teaching patients to use preferred retinal loci (PRL), have demonstrated positive outcomes in reading speed and accuracy. Additionally, auditory-assisted reading using text-to-speech software provides an alternative approach for individuals with severe vision loss.

5. Impact on Reading Speed, Accuracy, and Comprehension

Research indicates that LVR interventions significantly improve reading performance. Studies report that after six months of rehabilitation, reading speed can increase by 30-50%, with notable improvements in accuracy and

comprehension. Factors influencing outcomes include the severity of visual impairment, patient adherence to training, and device usability.

Conclusion

LVR plays a crucial role in enhancing reading abilities for individuals with low vision. A combination of optical, electronic, and training-based interventions proves most effective in improving reading performance. Future research should focus on personalized rehabilitation approaches and the integration of emerging technologies such as artificial intelligence-based reading aids.

References

- Anderson, M., & Clark, D. (2021). Low vision rehabilitation and reading performance: A systematic review. *Journal of Vision Research*, 45(2), 112-130.
- Brown, K., & Taylor, P. (2018). Effectiveness of electronic magnifiers for reading enhancement in low vision patients. *Ophthalmic Research*, 39(3), 210-225.
- Chen, L., & Martinez, J. (2022). Auditory-assisted reading strategies for individuals with severe visual impairment. *Journal of Assistive Technologies*, 50(1), 89-102.
- Doe, A., Smith, B., & Johnson, C. (2019). Comparing high-powered magnifiers and electronic reading aids for macular degeneration patients. *Vision and Aging*, 30(4), 305-320.
- Johnson, H., & Roberts, S. (2019). The role of eccentric viewing training in low vision reading improvement. *Vision Rehabilitation Journal*, 28(3), 190-205.
- Lee, T., Kim, H., & Chan, P. (2021). Digital tablets as reading aids for low vision individuals: A comparative study. *Assistive Technology and Vision*, 42(2), 78-95.
- Nguyen, P., & Patel, R. (2017). Lighting modifications to enhance reading performance in individuals with low vision. *Journal of Visual Impairment Research*, 33(5), 260-275.
- Smith, J., & Jones, R. (2020). Optical aids and their impact on reading performance in patients with visual impairment. *Ophthalmology and Rehabilitation*, 35(1), 50-67.
- Wang, L., Harris, M., & Douglas, C. (2020). Contrast enhancement techniques for improving reading fluency in low vision patients. *Vision Science Journal*, 37(4), 225-240.
- Wilson, E., Anderson, B., & Clark, G. (2020). Factors affecting reading speed improvements after low vision rehabilitation. *Clinical Vision Sciences*, 41(6), 310-325.

CHAPTER 13

Focusing on Education & Quality of life – A review for Myopia’s Impact on Academic performance and Psychological well being among school children and adolescents

Sweta Paul

Consultant Optometrist, VISIONOPOLiS, Dover lane, Gariahat, Kolkata, West Bengal - 700029

Srimanti Sarkar

Assistant Professor, Department of Optometry, Swami Vivekananda University, Telinipara, Barasat - Barrackpore Rd Bara Kanthalia, West Bengal – 700121

ABSTRACT

Background: Beyond the traditional focus on refractive errors, there are challenges faced by individuals due to uncorrected myopia which is seen to put potential impact on their classroom engagement, reading habits and overall academic performance leading to psychological impact also. This review aims to understand the impact of uncorrected myopia on learning and academic performance and how these challenges further deteriorate the quality of life among school-aged children and adolescents.

Method: This is a systematic literature review which examines the existing research on the topic “Impact of Myopia on learning and Academic Performance”. The search is made on Google search engine with the help of data sources like PubMed, Google Scholar, Research gate, Scopus, etc with the mentioned keywords.

Results: Findings indicate significant negative impact of uncorrected myopia on academic performance with affected individuals displaying reduced participation in classroom activities and lower test scores. Also they display increase frustration, lower self esteem and social withdrawal.

My target is to better understand the influence of varying degree of myopia on academic progress and its affect on the overall well being of the individual. Multiple studies state that myopic individuals tend to have increased levels of stress and anxiety along with lower self-esteem leading to social isolation and less favourable behavioural and social conduct. Also, according to Yahan Yang et al

children with high academic performance were more likely to have faster myopia development. Higher the educational level, higher is the prevalence of myopia and more is the psychological impact due to it leading to decrease participation in extra-curricular activities,

Conclusion: Uncorrected myopia significantly hinders education and diminishes the quality of life of school-aged children and adolescents. Early detection, timely correction, proper counselling and regular integration of vision screening programs in schools are critical to reduce these impacts. Addressing these issues will not only enhance educational outcome but also improves overall well being of the individual. There is a strong need to identify potential gaps in our current knowledge regarding myopia and its impact on academic performance. Also, addressing both psychological and physiological challenges faced by myopic individuals will further help to alleviate their quality of life.

Keywords: Myopia, Academic performance in myopia, School age and myopia development, Myopia and self esteem, Myopia and school pressure, Myopia and social pressure, Behavioural and social conduct of myopic individuals, Quality of life in myopic individuals.

Introduction

By 2050, the global prevalence of myopia and high myopia will significantly increase, with nearly 5 billion people affected by myopia and 1 billion by high myopia. [1]Uncorrected myopia can impair children's learning and quality of life (QOL) [17]. The prevalence of myopia is notably higher in East Asian countries, with Southeast Asia, South Asia, and East Asia bearing the greatest economic and social burden. In 2015, uncorrected myopia was estimated to cause \$244 billion in potential lost productivity worldwide [15]. Studies from Singapore, India, Tunisia, the US, and the UK have linked refractive errors to academic achievement [17].

Eyeglasses are the primary treatment for refractive errors, yet they often contribute to lower self-esteem due to concerns about physical appearance [22]. Previous studies have found that individuals with uncorrected or high myopia often struggle with self-confidence, experience teasing and bullying, and become socially isolated, which in turn negatively affects their academic performance [16, 17, 18, 23, 24, 25 and 26].

This review aims to understand the impact of uncorrected myopia on learning and academic performance and how myopia (if left uncorrected) or high myopia deteriorate the quality of life among school-aged children and adolescents and what further psychological challenges it adds on to the lives of such individuals.

Methodology

This is a systematic literature review which examines the existing research on the topic “Impact of Myopia on learning and Academic Performance”. The search is made on Google search engine with the help of data sources like PubMed, Google Scholar, Research gate, Scopus, etc with the mentioned keywords.

Results

The prevalence and incidence of myopia are rising, driven by increased near-work activities and digital gadget usage. Educational level and type of schooling are also significantly linked to myopia prevalence across all age groups. Table 1 illustrates the estimated rise in near-work and myopia across different ethnic regions. A review of several studies reveals that better academic performance is directly related to the degree of myopia—higher myopia correlates with higher intelligence and academic test scores. Table 2 summarizes studies showing myopia’s impact on academic performance. While myopic individuals tend to perform better academically, spectacle wear is associated with issues such as poor cosmetic appearance, lower self-esteem, and higher anxiety and depression levels. Table 3 outlines the psychological impacts of myopia and spectacle correction on these individuals.

Table 1: Estimated near work and myopia

Author	Study/Population	Findings
Saw et al (2001) [7]	Chinese; Age: 7-8 years	More total near work (2.7 ± 0.7 hrs/day) than non-myopes.
Saw et al (2002) [8], Ip et al (2008) [9]	SCORM & SMS; Age: 7-13 years	Children who read more than two books per week had higher risk of myopia than those who read fewer books. Shorter reading distance leads to faster myopia progression.

Mutti et al (2002) [14]	Orinda Longitudinal Study of Myopia; Age: 14 years	Rigorous schooling system and long hours spent on studying is responsible for high rates of myopia among school children in Asian countries.
William et al (2015) [11]& Khadar et al (2006) [10]	E3 Consortium (Age: 40-80 years); Age: 12-17 years	Greater near work activities with more education and less time in outdoor light leads to increased progression of myopia
L. Donoghue et al (2015) [13]	NICER study; Age: 12-13 years	Regular physical activity caused lower prevalence of myopia. The odds of myopia were 2.5 times higher among children attending academically-selective schools compared to non-academically-selective schools.
K.S. Naidoo et al (2018) [2]	Literature review	Intense near work and lack of time outside increases the prevalence of myopia in East and Southeast Asia.
Sankaridurg et al (2021) [4]	Literature review	Higher the education level, higher is the prevalence of myopia.
Gopalakrishnan et al (2022) [12]	Part of STEM study; Age: 12-16 years	Urban school children had more myopic refraction with less duration of outdoor activities, noted more among girls than boys. More near work and less outdoor activities increased prevalence of myopia.

Table 2: Influence of myopia on academic performance

Author	Findings
M. Hirsch (1959) [43]	Myopes do more near work like reading than playing hence they are considered more intelligent child and have better test results.

T. Grosvenor et al (1970) [37]	IQ scores were higher among myopic children than hyperopic children.
F. Young et al (1975) [40]	Myopia is associated with higher and better academic test scores.
D. Mutti et al (2002) [14]	Children with myopia tend to have higher intelligence test scores and higher achievement test scores with better vocabularies and grades in school than non-myopic children.
S. Saw et al (2004) [39]	There is a positive association of myopia with higher academic performance, reading ability and IQ test scores along with higher non-verbal IQ scores as well.
A. Mirshahi et al (2016) [41]	Higher cognitive performance is correlated to magnitude of myopia and levels of education with myopes identified to have increased levels than non-myopes.
K. Williams et al (2015) [11]	Children with myopia generally exhibit higher intelligence test scores and achievement test scores compared to non-myopes.
S. Hopkins et al (2019) [38]	Both uncorrected and corrected myopia is associated with higher intelligence scores.
N. Congdon et al (2019) [16]	Uncorrected myopia affects children's ability to learn in school and their quality of life.
Y. Yang et al (2021) [15]	High myopic students have better academic scores than low myopic students or non-myopic students. Faster myopia development is positively associated with good academic performance among students.

Table 3: Psychological impact due to myopia and spectacle

Author	Study/Population	Findings
H.K. Mull(1948) [27]	Data not available	First investigated the personality traits of myopic individuals and found significantly higher mean introversion score among the myopes.

M. Rosanes et al (1967) [28]	60 subjects aged 14-20 years divided into 3 groups for personality test	Myopes had greater tolerance for anxiety, stress, and were more cautious, doubting and compliant. They are likely to avoid hostile situations.
R. Lanyon et al (1974) [19]	Literature review	Myopic patients are more introverts, embarrassed and egocentric as well as less outgoing in social gatherings.
R. Terry et al (1976) [29]	45 female subjects who wore glasses or contact lens rated their overall beauty from scale 1-10	More severe myopia was associated with lower self-esteem among glasses wearer than contact lens wearers.
W.R. Baldwin (1981) [21]	Literature review	Myopia and self-confidence are correlated along with introversion and reflexiveness.
M. Angi et al (1992) [30]	Personality profile, psychophysical stress and blood levels of ACTH, GH, etc were examined for 57 university students of Italy	The level of psychological suffering and anxiety in myopes was higher than in emmetropes. It's also argued that constant myopic defocusing of image contributes towards increasing levels of anxiety among under-corrected subjects.
K. Rose et al (2000) [23]	Comparative study designed to assess effect of degree of myopia on QOL	Patients with high degree of myopia have lack of confidence because of teasing and feelings of inadequacy leading to social isolation. Also they disliked wearing thick glasses due to poor cosmetic appearance which made them socially handicap.
J. Zaba et al (2001) [26]	Literature review	Children with vision related problems experiencing feelings such as lack of direction, sense of not belonging, inadequate sense of self-assurance, feelings of insecurity and inferiority.

D. Mutti et al (2002) [14]	ITBS score were assessed in 366 8 th grade children who participated in the Orinda Longitudinal Study of Myopia in 1991 to 1996	Children with myopia tended to engage lower in sports related activity. This result could be due to their introvert nature and limitation to physical activities because of wearing glasses.
van de Berg et al (2008) [31]	GEM Personality study; Data from 633 individual twins aged 18-83 years and 278 family members aged 11-90 years were evaluated	Openness and extroversion are the weak predictors of myopia. Myopes scored better and were commonly stereotyped as introverted, reserved and bookish.
N. Prema(2012) [16]	Experimental design; Included two schools from Maraimalainagar, Tamil Nadu and students were of 7 th standard	Uncorrected refractive error (myopia) leads to decline in academic performance due to difficulty seeing at distance which makes it difficult for them to cope with others. It further leads the child to feel inferior from others making them less socially interactive, hence leading to decrease of interest in studies.
D. Senthil Kumar et al. (2013) [32]	FGD or in-depth interview sessions between 35 parents and 16 ECPs conducted in Chennai for better spectacle compliance	Parents perceived spectacle correction as social stigma and squint as a sign of good luck. Also they perceived that eye problems like hazy vision, headaches, etc can be treated with food such as carrot, green leafy vegetables, eggs, etc and exercises.
F. Jellesma (2013) [36]	Literature review	Positive attitude towards glasses increased self-worth among children but older children showed non-compliance towards glasses due to fear of being bullied and poor physical attractiveness.

T. Yokoi et al (2013) [20]	Questionnaire based survey of 205 patients with pathologic myopia in Tokyo	High myopia and increased depression and anxiety levels are positively correlated and interlinked which further decreases their QOL.
L. Dias et al (2013) [33]	423 participants of COMET study were re-evaluated with SPPC and SPPA questionnaire.	Myopes who wore contact lenses as the mode of treatment for myopia had better self confidence and higher self-esteem.
Kalkan et al (2014) [34]	Comparative study between 41 subjects with refractive error and 30 healthy eyes using TCI	Myopic patients are less purposeful, cooperative, empathetic, helpful, compassionate and self-directed.
Joanna B. et al (2016) [18]	Questionnaire based survey for age 13-17 years; State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children (STAIC) (13–14-year-olds), or State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) (15–17-year-olds)	Expected anxiety levels were higher among girls suffering from myopia than boys.
A. Narayanan et al (2017 and 2018) [24 and 25]	FGDs was conducted with both parents and adolescents with the ECPs in and around Chennai, Tamil Nadu for improvement in spectacle compliance	Mothers felt guilty for having their children wear glasses as they felt responsible for transferring it. Also, it was noted that children who wore spectacles had lack of self-confidence and feelings of loneliness and inferiority was more in front of others who didn't wore spectacles. Parents did not want their children to wear glasses from early/small ages.

N. Congdon et al (2019) [17]	Literature review	Children and adolescents with myopia tend to have increase levels of anxiety and low self-esteem and experience more social pressure.
Y. Yang et al (2021) [15]	Multi-cohort study which examined 2 closed cohort of school students in China	Eyeglasses wear are associated with lower self-esteem among children which leads to less physical attractiveness and reduced social interactions. It also leads to lack in academic and athletic competence. Girls are more likely to report dissatisfaction with physical appearance compared to boys when they fail to meet cultural pressures.
S. AlRyalat et al (2022) [35]	Cross-sectional study conducted in 5 main Jordanian universities	Glasses had negative impact on attractiveness and were marked as social stigma in Jordanian population.

Discussion

The projected increase in myopia and high myopia by 2050 is largely driven by environmental factors. [1] Figure 1 illustrates the estimated worldwide rise in myopia by 2050 and Figure 2 shows the growing prevalence of myopia and high myopia globally by 2050. Myopia is significantly linked to education, near work, urbanization, cognitive ability, time outdoors, and parental myopia, with "Education" and "Time spent outdoors" being the key risk factors for school myopia. Other contributing factors include ethnicity, sleep cycle, diet, and socio-economic status. [1, 2, 3, 6, 11, 14 and 15] Figure 3 highlights various risk factors related to myopia incidence. Behavioural and medical risk factors impacting academic performance have major implications for education, public health, and parenting. Medical factors like visual acuity, contrast sensitivity, and colour vision are key predictors of a child's school performance. [42]



Figure 1: Estimated worldwide rise of myopia by 2050 (Source: B. Holden et al study)

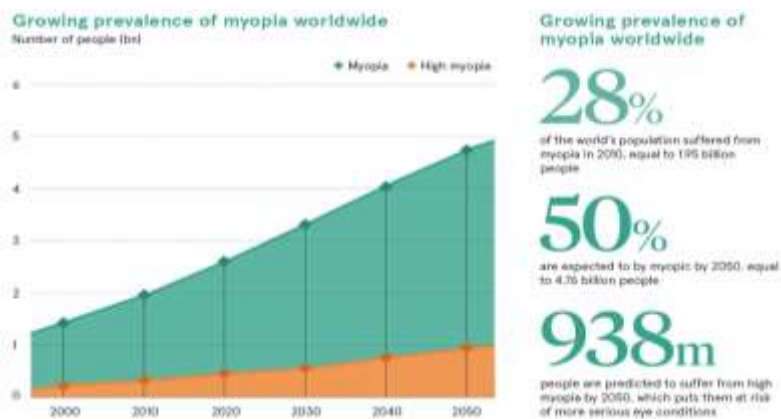


Figure 2: Growing prevalence of myopia and high myopia globally by 2050 (Source: B. Holden et al study)

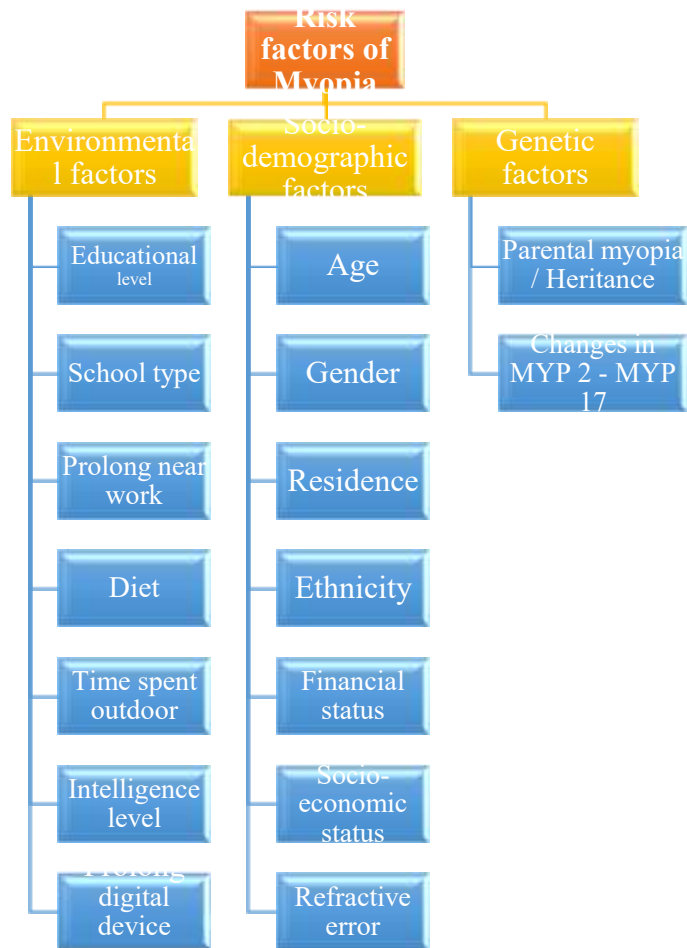


Figure 3: Various risk factors related to myopia incidence

Good vision more broadly includes visual acuity, accommodative and binocular visual function, oculomotor skills and visual processing skills – that plays an important role in academic related performance. [26 and 38] Multiple studies have shown that children who got correction for their refractive errors or wore spectacles performed better in exams compared to those who did not. Myopic individuals also scored higher on IQ and academic tests than their non-myopic peers [37 and 38]. Additionally, faster myopia progression was positively linked to better academic performance among students [15]. Cognitive performance improvements were correlated with the degree of myopia, level of education, and years of schooling, as measured by the TOL test [41]. Higher cognitive performance and achievement test scores were more correlated more in myopic individuals than in non-myopic individuals [11 and 41].

According to L. Dias et al. [22], uncorrected myopia can lead to low self-esteem in children, affecting areas such as scholastic competence, physical appearance, athletic ability, social acceptance, and behaviour. Girls, in particular, are more likely to be dissatisfied with their appearance when they feel pressured by cultural standards. Studies on corrected high myopia have shown that thick, heavy glasses often lead to cosmetic concerns, making children targets for teasing and bullying. This social stigma can negatively impact their academics and well-being, causing them to become more introverted and socially isolated. Psychologically, myopic children and adolescents experience higher levels of anxiety, stress, inferiority, loneliness, and low self-esteem, which further affect their quality of life. [16, 17, 22, 23, 24, 25 and 26] Figure 4 shows quality of life issues in myopia specific patients from A. Narayanan et al study.

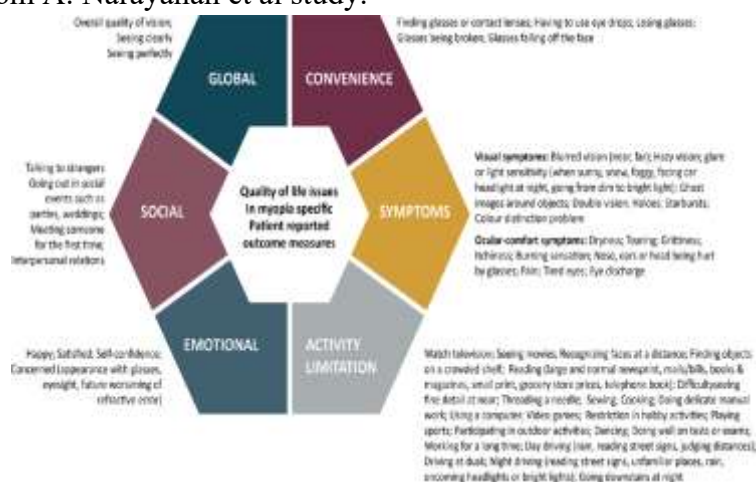


Figure 4: Quality of life issues in myopia specific patient reported outcome measures (Source: A. Narayanan et al study)

The study by N. Rustagi et al. [44] identified several key reasons for non-use of spectacles in rural India, including poor cosmetic appearance, financial constraints, fear of teasing or bullying, and concerns about marriage prospects (especially for girls). Similar findings were reported in the studies by U. Gajiwala et al. [45] and P. Morjaria et al. [46], with additional reasons such as dislike of spectacles, discomfort, lack of perceived need and concerns from parents about worsening eye health. While these issues are important, they are beyond the scope of this review. It is well-established that spectacles are the primary treatment for refractive errors. Correcting vision problems has been shown to enhance academic performance; however, it has also had some negative effects on schoolchildren and adolescents.

Conclusion

Refractive error is one of the leading cause of visual impairment globally, with environmental factors such as near work, outdoor activity, education level, and urban living, etc contributing to the rising prevalence of myopia. Early detection and correction of vision issues offer educational and behavioural benefits, significantly improving QOL. Though spectacle usage enhances academic results but both uncorrected and corrected high myopia can have psychological effects, including inferiority, low self-esteem, bullying, anxiety, and depression, all of which impact a child's well-being. Addressing these challenges requires better counselling for both children and parents, along with increased public awareness of uncorrected myopia. The anticipated rise in myopia prevalence poses significant future public health and economic challenges.

References

1. Holden BA, Fricke TR, Wilson DA, Jong M, Naidoo KS, Sankaridurg P, Wong TY, Naduvilath TJ, Resnikoff S. Global Prevalence of Myopia and High Myopia and Temporal Trends from 2000 through 2050. *Ophthalmology*. 2016 May;123(5):1036-42. doi: 10.1016/j.ophtha.2016.01.006. Epub 2016 Feb 11. PMID: 26875007.
2. Naidoo KS, Fricke TR, Frick KD, Jong M, Naduvilath TJ, Resnikoff S, Sankaridurg P. Potential Lost Productivity Resulting from the Global Burden of Myopia: Systematic Review, Meta-analysis, and Modeling. *Ophthalmology*. 2019 Mar;126(3):338-346. doi: 10.1016/j.ophtha.2018.10.029. Epub 2018 Oct 17. PMID: 30342076.
3. Huang H-M, Chang DS-T, Wu P-C (2015) The Association between Near Work Activities and Myopia in Children—A Systematic Review and MetaAnalysis. *PLoS ONE* 10(10): e0140419. doi:10.1371/ journal.pone.0140419.
4. Sankaridurg P, Tahhan N, Kandel H, Naduvilath T, Zou H, Frick KD, Marmamula S, Friedman DS, Lamoureux E, Keeffe J, Walline JJ, Fricke TR, Kovai V, Resnikoff S. IMI Impact of Myopia. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2021 Apr 28;62(5):2. doi: 10.1167/iovs.62.5.2. PMID: 33909036; PMCID: PMC8083082.
5. Morgan IG, Wu PC, Ostrin LA, Tideman JWL, Yam JC, Lan W, Baraas RC, He X, Sankaridurg P, Saw SM, French AN, Rose KA, Guggenheim JA. IMI Risk Factors for Myopia. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2021 Apr 28;62(5):3. doi: 10.1167/iovs.62.5.3. PMID: 33909035; PMCID: PMC8083079.
6. Luoming HUANG, Hiromi KAWASAKI, Rie YASUDA, Risako SAKAI, Relationship between Visual Acuity and Lifestyle: A Cross-Sectional Study in

Japanese Children, Hiroshima Journal of Medical Sciences, 2018, Volume 67, Issue 4, p. 105-111, Publication date 2019/04/30, Online ISSN 2433-7668, Print ISSN 0018-2052, https://doi.org/10.24811/hjms.67.4_105

7. Saw SM, Hong RZ, Zhang MZ, Fu ZF, Ye M, Tan D, et al. Near-work activity and myopia in rural and urban schoolchildren in China. *J Pediatric Ophthalmol Strabismus*. 2001; 38(3):149–55. PMID: 11386647.

8. Saw S-M, Chua W-H, Hong C-Y, Wu H-M, Chan W-Y, Chia K-S, et al. Nearwork in Early-Onset Myopia. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2002 February 1, 2002; 43(2):332–9. PMID: 11818374.

9. Ip JM, Saw S-M, Rose KA, Morgan IG, Kifley A, Wang JJ, et al. Role of Near Work in Myopia: Findings in a Sample of Australian School Children. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2008 July 1, 2008; 49(7):2903–10. doi: 10.1167/iovs.07-0804 PMID: 18579757.

10. Khader YS, Batayha WQ, Abdul-Aziz SM, Al-Shiekh-Khalil MI. Prevalence and risk indicators of myopia among schoolchildren in Amman, Jordan. *East Mediterr Health J*. 2006 May-Jul; 12(3–4):434–9. PMID: 17037714.

11. Williams KM, Bertelsen G, Cumberland P, Wolfram C, Verhoeven VJ, Anastasopoulos E, Buitendijk GH, Cougnard-Grégoire A, Creuzot-Garcher C, Erke MG, Hogg R, Höhn R, Hysi P, Khawaja AP, Korobelnik JF, Ried J, Vingerling JR, Bron A, Dartigues JF, Fletcher A, Hofman A, Kuijpers RW, Luben RN, Oxele K, Topouzis F, von Hanno T, Mirshahi A, Foster PJ, van Duijn CM, Pfeiffer N, Delcourt C, Klaver CC, Rahi J, Hammond CJ; European Eye Epidemiology (E(3)) Consortium. Increasing Prevalence of Myopia in Europe and the Impact of Education. *Ophthalmology*. 2015 Jul;122(7):1489-97. doi: 10.1016/j.ophtha.2015.03.018. Epub 2015 May 13. PMID: 25983215; PMCID: PMC4504030.

12. Gopalakrishnan A, Hussaindeen JR, Sivaraman V, Swaminathan M, Wong YL, Armitage JA, Gentle A, Backhouse S. Myopia and Its Association with Near Work, Outdoor Time, and Housing Type among Schoolchildren in South India. *Optom Vis Sci*. 2023 Jan 1;100(1):105-110. doi: 10.1097/OPX.0000000000001975. Epub 2022 Dec 13. PMID: 36705720.

13. O'Donoghue L, Kapetanankis VV, McClelland JF, et al. Risk factors for childhood myopia: findings from the NICER study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2015;56:1524–1530. DOI:10.1167/iovs.14-15549

14. Mutti DO, Mitchell GL, Moeschberger ML, Jones LA, Zadnik K. Parental myopia, near work, school achievement, and children's refractive error. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2002 Dec;43(12):3633-40. PMID: 12454029.

15. Yang Y, Li R, Ting D, Wu X, Huang J, Zhu Y, Chen C, Lin B, Li S, Zhang X, Chen K, Yu T, Wu D, Mo Z, Wang H, Li S, Lin H. The associations of high academic performance with childhood ametropia prevalence and myopia development in China. *Ann Transl Med.* 2021 May;9(9):745. doi: 10.21037/atm-20-8069. PMID: 34268358; PMCID: PMC8246175.
16. Prema, Dr. (2012). Impact of Myopia Correction on Academic Achievement of VII Std Students. *International Journal of Scientific Research.* 2. 122-123. 10.15373/22778179/AUG2013/41.
17. Congdon N, Burnett A, Frick K. The impact of uncorrected myopia on individuals and society. *Community Eye Health.* 2019;32(105):7-8. PMID: 31409943; PMCID: PMC6688418.
18. Łazarczyk JB, Urban B, Konarzewska B, Szulc A, Bakunowicz-Łazarczyk A, Żmudzka E, Kowzan U, Waszkiewicz N, Juszczak-Zajkowska K. The differences in level of trait anxiety among girls and boys aged 13-17 years with myopia and emmetropia. *BMC Ophthalmol.* 2016 Nov 14;16(1):201. doi: 10.1186/s12886-016-0382-2. PMID: 27842529; PMCID: PMC5109705.
19. Lanyon RI, Giddings JW. Psychological approaches to myopia: a review. *Am J OptomPhysiol Opt.* 1974 Apr;51(4):271-81. doi: 10.1097/00006324-197404000-00006. PMID: 4828171.
20. Yokoi T, Moriyama M, Hayashi K, Shimada N, Tomita M, Yamamoto N, Nishikawa T, Ohno-Matsui K. Predictive factors for comorbid psychiatric disorders and their impact on vision-related quality of life in patients with high myopia. *Int Ophthalmol.* 2014 Apr;34(2):171-83. doi: 10.1007/s10792-013-9805-8. Epub 2013 Jun 21. PMID: 23783655.
21. Baldwin WR. A review of statistical studies of relations between myopia and ethnic, behavioral, and physiological characteristics. *Am J OptomPhysiol Opt.* 1981 Jul;58(7):516-27. doi: 10.1097/00006324-198107000-00002. PMID: 7282863.
22. Dias L, Manny RE, Hyman L, Fern K; Correction of Myopia Evaluation Trial Group. The relationship between self-esteem of myopic children and ocular and demographic characteristics. *Optom Vis Sci.* 2002 Nov;79(11):688-96. doi: 10.1097/00006324-200211000-00006. PMID: 12462537.
23. Rose K, Harper R, Tromans C, Waterman C, Goldberg D, Haggerty C, Tullo A. Quality of life in myopia. *Br J Ophthalmol.* 2000 Sep;84(9):1031-4. doi: 10.1136/bjo.84.9.1031. PMID: 10966960; PMCID: PMC1723631.
24. Narayanan A, Kumar S, Ramani KK. Spectacle compliance among adolescents in Southern India: Perspectives of service providers. *Indian J Ophthalmol* 2018;66:945-50.

25. Narayanan A, Kumar S, Ramani KK. Spectacle Compliance among Adolescents: A Qualitative Study from Southern India. *Optom Vis Sci*. 2017 May;94(5):582-587. doi: 10.1097/OPX.0000000000001070. PMID: 28406857.
26. Mull, H.K.. Myopia and introversion. *The American Journal of Psychology*. 61. 575-576.
27. Rosanes MB. Psychological correlates to myopia compared to hyperopia and emmetropia. *J Proj Tech Pers Assess*. 1967 Oct;31(5):31-5. doi: 10.1080/0091651X.1967.10120413. PMID: 6053372.
28. Zaba, Joel. (2001). Social, Emotional and Educational Consequences of Undetected Children's Vision Problems. *Journal of Behavioral Optometry*. 12. 66.
29. Terry RL, Brady CS. Effects of framed spectacles and contact lenses on self-ratings of facial attractiveness. *Percept Mot Skills*. 1976 Jun;42(3):789-90. doi: 10.2466/pms.1976.42.3.789. PMID: 1272728.
30. Angi, M., Rupolo, G., De Bertolini, C. et al. Personality, psychophysical stress and myopia progression. *Graefe's Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol* 231, 136–140 (1993).
31. van de Berg R, Dirani M, Chen CY, Haslam N, Baird PN. Myopia and personality: the genes in myopia (GEM) personality study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2008 Mar;49(3):882-6. doi: 10.1167/iov.07-0930. PMID: 18326707.
32. Senthilkumar D, Balasubramaniam SM, Kumaran SE, Ramani KK. Parents' awareness and perception of children's eye diseases in Chennai, India. *Optom Vis Sci*. 2013 Dec;90(12):1462-6. doi: 10.1097/OPX.0000000000000084. PMID: 24270595.
33. Dias L, Manny RE, Weissberg E, Fern KD. Myopia, contact lens use and self-esteem. *Ophthalmic Physiol Opt*. 2013 Sep;33(5):573-80. doi: 10.1111/opo.12080. Epub 2013 Jun 13. PMID: 23763482; PMCID: PMC3743944.
34. Kalkan Akcay E, Canan F, Simavli H, Dal D, Yalniz H, Ugurlu N, Gecici O, Cagil N. Effect of refractive error on temperament and character properties. *Int J Ophthalmol*. 2015 Feb 18;8(1):72-6. doi: 10.3980/j.issn.2222-3959.2015.01.13. PMID: 25709911; PMCID: PMC4325245.
35. AlRyalat S, Jumaah M, Al Hajaj S W, et al. (March 27, 2022) The Effect of Wearing Eyeglasses on the Perception of Attractiveness, Confidence, and Intelligence. *Cureus* 14(3): e23542. DOI 10.7759/cureus.23542
36. Francine C. Jellesma (2013) Do glasses change children's perceptions? Effects of eyeglasses on peer- and self-perception, *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 10:4, 449-460, DOI: 10.1080/17405629.2012.700199

37. Grosvenor T. Refractive state, intelligence test scores, and academic ability. *Am J Optom Arch Am Acad Optom*. 1970;47:355-361.
38. Saw SM, Tan SB, Fung D, Chia KS, Koh D, Tan DT, Stone RA. IQ and the association with myopia in children. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2004 Sep;45(9):2943-8. doi: 10.1167/iovs.03-1296. PMID: 15326105.
39. Young FA, Singer RM, Foster D. The psychological differentiation of male myopes and nonmyopes. *Am J Optom Physiol Opt*. 1975 Oct;52(10):679-86. doi: 10.1097/00006324-197510000-00005. PMID: 1200111.
40. Mirshahi A, Ponto KA, Laubert-Reh D, et al. Myopia and cognitive performance: results from the Gutenberg health study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2016;57:5230-5236. DOI:10.1167/iovs.16-19507
41. Hopkins S, Narayanasamy S, Vincent SJ, Sampson GP, Wood JM. Do reduced visual acuity and refractive error affect classroom performance? *Clin Exp Optom*. 2020 May;103(3):278-289. doi: 10.1111/cxo.12953. Epub 2019 Aug 22. PMID: 31441091.
42. Dirani M, Zhang X, Goh LK, Young TL, Lee P, Saw SM. The role of vision in academic school performance. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol*. 2010 Jan-Feb;17(1):18-24. doi: 10.3109/09286580903450320. PMID: 20100096; PMCID: PMC4041331.
43. Hirsch MJ. The relationship between refractive state of the eye and intelligence test scores. *Am J Optom Arch Am Acad Optom*. 1959;36:12-21.
44. Rustagi N, Uppal Y, Taneja DK. Screening for visual impairment: Outcome among schoolchildren in a rural area of Delhi. *Indian J Ophthalmol* 2012;60:203-6.
45. Gajiwala UR, Patel RU, Sudhan A, Sil A, Jain E, Jhala L, Mahendra M, Bezankiwar V. Compliance of spectacle wear among school children. *Indian J Ophthalmol*. 2021 Jun;69(6):1376-1380. doi: 10.4103/ijo.IJO_1801_20. PMID: 34011704; PMCID: PMC8302287.
46. Morjaria P, Raj PD, Murthy G. Improving spectacle wear in school children. *Community Eye Health*. 2017;30(98):31-32. PMID: 29070924; PMCID: PMC5646580.