Community Eye Health Journal



Myopia: a serious condition that needs our attention



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Myopia is a growing epidemic that will affect half the global population by 2050, and its complications can cause irreversible visual loss.

eople with myopia - or short-sightedness are unable to see objects that are far away, but can see near objects clearly. This affects every aspect of their life, including education, employment and safety.

Over 2 billion people worldwide are estimated to have myopia, defined as \leq -0.5 dioptres (D). Of these, around 10% have high myopia, defined as ≤-5 D.^{1,2} People with high myopia are at increased risk of potentially blinding eye conditions such as macular degeneration, retinal detachment, open-angle glaucoma and cataract.

Myopia is already a major public health challenge. In 2015, an estimated 480 million people worldwide were considered blind or visually

impaired because they did not have access to spectacles,3 making myopia the leading cause of visual impairment and blindness worldwide.

By 2050,² myopia is expected to affect 5 billion people, which is half of the projected global population at that time. This will place an even greater burden on health services to provide spectacles and to prevent and manage the conditions associated with high myopia.

Uncorrected myopia, together with macular degeneration, were estimated to be responsible for a US \$250 billion loss in global productivity in 2015.4 As myopia becomes more common, this is set to rise.

Continues overleaf ➤



About this issue

Myopia, or shortsightedness, is a major public health problem in East Asia. As low- and middle-income countries become more urbanised, the myopia 'epidemic' is likely to spread. This issue looks at ways to prevent and manage myopia and minimise its impact.

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Making a difference

Meeting the need for myopia correction, and slowing down or reversing the global increase in myopia, requires that we address service delivery, access to affordable correction, health promotion, advocacy and policy change at both national and global level. Collaboration between government, civil society, researchers, innovators and the private sector – rather than competition – is essential. The International Myopia Institute (www.myopiainstitute.org) is one example of a collaboration that is bringing about consensus on key issues such as definitions, clinical guidelines, clinical trials, and how to involve industry. We need more coalitions around education, service delivery, health promotion, advocacy, and research. Coalitions and partnerships will allow us to scale up efforts and make the impact that is needed.

Governments must take the lead in addressing the increase in myopia. National policies must address child eye health specifically; e.g., by making eye examinations compulsory for children at school entry and making it easier to import (or manufacture) products and drugs that can help to control myopia progression. Healthy school initiatives should include spending time outdoors as this has been shown to delay the onset of myopia (which means that children would be less likely to develop high myopia). Schools provide an ideal point of contact between health and refractive error services for children and their parents; e.g., by hosting health promotion activities that encourage parents to take children for an eye examination and to get the appropriate correction for them.

The private sector must support all components of a comprehensive approach, be it service delivery, human resource development, advocacy, policy change, research or health promotion. Industry should drive the agenda to create advanced, yet affordable, myopia control products, whether contact lenses or spectacle lenses, and make them accessible for all.

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) involved in eye health are key to supporting the comprehensive approach by prioritising advocacy and policy change.

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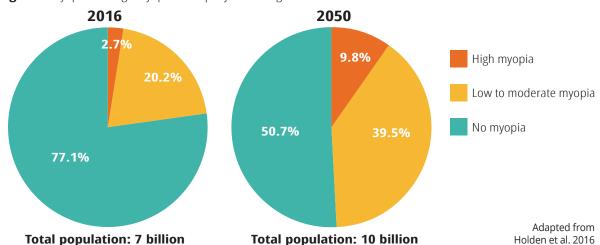
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Noela Prasad

Figure 1 Myopia and high myopia are rapidly increasing worldwide



NGOs must support the scaling up of services rather than see themselves as a replacement for either government or practitioners. They play a crucial role and can adopt a more active approach to influencing change. It is vital that myopia is included in World Health Organization, UNICEF, and other broader development agendas, as myopia has the potential to slow the education of our children and thus hamper efforts to achieve the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (www.un.org/ sustainabledevelopment).

Optometrists, ophthalmologists and allied eye **health professionals** can all play a role in reducing the detrimental impact on quality of life due to myopia. Health promotion and education need to become a critical component of patient management. Eye care professionals will also need to support efforts to change government policy and use their connection in the community to become advocates for these changes. This issue discusses evidence for the myopia epidemic and the risks of high myopia along with the interventions available to reduce the risk of myopia and slow down its progression. While there are clinical and optical interventions to slow down the progression

of myopia, lifestyle and environmental changes (less near work and more time outside) are arguably of greater importance as it protects children against the onset of myopia. We have included practical tips on how to detect, refer, diagnose and manage myopia. A list of data that are required for monitoring myopia management are described to encourage clinicians to begin monitoring myopia progression in patients.



School eye health programmes form an integral part of the global effort to address myopia. Read our 2017 issue on School Eye Health here: www.cehjournal.org/school-eye-health

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How myopia develops

Myopia is the result of abnormal elongation of the eye, so that light focuses in front of the retina rather than on its surface.

yopia, otherwise known as near- or short-sightedness, is a common type of refractive error. In someone without a refractive error, light rays entering the eye meet and focus on the surface of the retina: the light-sensitive tissue at the back of the eye (Figure 1B).



A baby's eyes will grow until they reach a normal length, with no refractive error. In children with myopia, the eye continues to grow. INDIA

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develop myopia (C).

In someone with myopia (Figure 1C), the light focuses at a point in front of the retina, which means that near objects are seen clearly, but objects further away are blurry. This can happen when the cornea is curved too much (is too 'steep') or the eye is too long.

Human babies are born long-sighted (hyperopic): distant objects are clear, but near objects are out of focus. This is because they have shorter eyes, so light focuses behind the retina instead of on it (Figure 1A). During the first few years of life, the eyes grow until they reach the expected length, when vision is normal (or emmetropic, see Figure 1B), without any refractive error. In most children, the eye remains like this for life. In some children, the eyes continue to grow and the child develops myopia (Figure 1C).

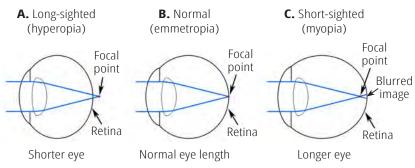
The eye tends to grow most rapidly during childhood and much slower in adolescence, when physical growth slows down. Children who developed myopia early (at 6–8 years of age) will have had more years during which their eyes can grow rapidly (and their myopia can progress) than those who develop myopia later, at age 12 onwards, when growth is slower.

Younger children are therefore at greater risk of eventually developing high myopia (\leq -5 dioptres (D) of correction). Conversely, postponing the onset of myopia, or slowing down the rate at which myopia progresses, will reduce the likelihood that a child will eventually develop high myopia.

High myopia is an irreversible and life-long condition. It can lead to physical changes in the eye, at which point it is referred to as pathologic myopia. In later life, people with high myopia are at greater risk of a range of potentially blinding eye conditions, including retinal detachment, glaucoma, cataract and macular degeneration.

A range of studies suggest that more time spent outdoors is effective at preventing or postponing the onset of myopia, although the precise mechanism for this is not fully understood. Time outdoors is not associated with a slowing of myopia progression in eyes that are already myopic,1 but there are optical (p. 19) and pharmacological (p. 21) interventions that have been shown to make a difference.

Figure 1 A and B. Normal development of the human eye: from hyperopia at birth (A) to emmetropia by early childhood (B). Some eyes grow longer and



Adapted from: Andrei V. Tkatchenko

What causes myopia?

Several different factors are thought to lead to abnormal elongation of the eyes. Genetic predisposition, environmental factors associated with urbanisation, increased near work and lack of time spent outdoors are all thought to be risk factors associated with myopia. When they act together, the risk increases.2,3

Blurred Many genes are associated with myopia, each affecting a different part of the pathways which influence eye growth. Although a gene location for high myopia has been identified, there are no conclusions about a possible gene location for moderate levels of myopia. The relationship between genetic, optical and environmental factors is difficult to disentangle and remains unclear.



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High myopia

The definition of high myopia as ≤-5 D was adopted as the World Health Organization (WHO) definition in 2015. A person who needs < -5 D of correction has a visual acuity that is far worse than the threshold for blindness (-3/6 in the better eye).

Odds ratios (OR) are used to express relative risk in case-control studies such as those referred to in this article. In these studies. participants are grouped according to the outcome, e.g., whether they had cataract surgery or not, and then information is obtained about their exposure to a risk factor. In these studies, the risk factor is high myopia.

High myopia and its risks

High myopia increases the risk of blinding eye conditions, so regular follow-up is essential.

igh myopia is said to occur when a person's myopia progresses until they need -5 dioptres (D) or more of spherical correction, 1,2 although the definitions used to grade myopia are variable.

The prevalence of myopia is increasing globally.3 It has been predicted that, by the year 2050, high myopia will affect 9.8% of the global population; a total of 938 million people.4 The highest prevalence of myopia is seen in younger adults, particularly in urbanised East and Southeast Asian countries.2

Even when appropriate refractive correction is provided, myopia continues to place an individual at an increased risk of sight-threatening diseases, including^{5,6}:

- Glaucoma (open-angle)
- Cataract (nuclear, cortical and posterior subcapsular)
- Retinal tears which may lead to a retinal detachment
- Myopic maculopathy or myopic macular degeneration

The incidence of these conditions is greatest in individuals with high myopia.

Glaucoma. A systematic review of the available evidence concluded that the risk of developing glaucoma was nearly 50% higher (or one and a half times as high) in individuals with moderate to high myopia, compared to those with low myopia (odds ratios [OR] of 2.5 and 1.7 respectively).7

Cataract. Higher rates of cataract surgery are seen in individuals with high myopia. Based on the available evidence, they are 17% more likely than those with moderate myopia to need cataract surgery (odds ratios of 3.4 and 2.9, respectively).8

Retinal detachment. The risk of developing a retinal detachment is five or six times greater in people with high myopia (OR >20) compared to those with low myopia (OR <4).9 People with high myopia have longer eyes (axial elongation), which means that the retina is more stretched and therefore prone to peripheral retinal tears. In addition, myopic eyes have a degenerate vitreous that is more likely to collapse and separate from the retina, also increasing the risk of retinal tears. High myopia can also cause central retinal degenerative changes such as posterior staphyloma, lacquer cracks and chorioretinal atrophy; these have been used to grade myopic maculopathy.¹⁰

Myopic macular degeneration (maculopathy). The risk of macular degeneration due to myopia rises sharply with age and increasing myopia.9 Myopic maculopathy may take the form of atrophic changes or be complicated by choroidal neovascular membrane



High myopia increases the risk of potentially blinding eye conditions. UK

(CNV) formation.¹⁰ Advanced myopic maculopathy causes loss of central vision and there is currently no treatment for the atrophic form. With the increasing prevalence of myopia, visual impairment caused by this condition will continue to rise.

Speaking to patients with myopia

It is important to make patients aware of these potentially sight-threatening conditions and that their risk appears to be proportionate their degree of myopia. Any sight loss should therefore prompt patients to seek a complete ophthalmic assessment.

Retinal detachment can affect any age group. Tell patients to contact an eye specialist immediately if they see flashing lights (usually seen in dim light in the temporal peripheral field) or floaters, or if they experience visual field loss. They must undergo an urgent dilated exam to exclude retinal tears and/or detachment.

Central visual loss as a result of advanced myopic macular degeneration can affect people of working age, so examine the macula at every visit. Individuals who develop CNV may be treated with intravitreal anti-VEGF therapies.¹¹ Refer those with central visual loss for low vision assessment and/or offer hand-held magnifiers.

Because the risk of open-angle glaucoma increases in individuals with high myopia, it is wise to assess intraocular pressure and optic disc appearance at every visit. Assess visual fields if possible.

Ophthalmic workers should acknowledge high myopia as a significant cause of visual impairment and a risk factor for a number of sight-threatening conditions.

Key messages

- High myopia is becoming more common
- Even if the refractive error is corrected, the eye is at risk of visual impairment, particularly if the myopia is ≤ -5 D
- Myopia increases the risk of open-angle glaucoma, retinal detachment, and myopic macular degeneration

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Cochrane Eyes and Vision:

systematic reviews on myopia

Systematic reviews offer high quality, evidence-based guidance to health professionals. These reviews address myopia and its complications.

ochrane Eyes and Vision (CEV) is an international network of individuals working to prepare, maintain and promote access to systematic reviews of interventions to treat or prevent eye diseases or visual impairment, and reviews of the accuracy of diagnostic tests. Systematic reviews are summaries of the best available evidence and are designed to answer a specific research question. The reviews featured here are published in the Cochrane Library, which is available free of charge in low- and middle-income countries via the Hinari Programme. www.who.int/hinari

1 Interventions to slow progression of myopia in children

www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/ doi/10.1002/14651858.CD004916.pub3

Date: December 2011. Update due in 2019.

Key findings: Anti-muscarinic topical medication slows the progression of myopia in children. Adverse effects include light sensitivity and near blur.

2 Vision screening for correctible visual acuity deficits in school-age children and adolescents www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/ doi/10.1002/14651858.CD005023.pub3

Date: February 2018

Key findings: Vision screening plus provision of free spectacles improves the number of children who have and wear the spectacles they need compared with providing a prescription only.



Cochrane Eyes and Vision

Providing free spectacles improves the number of children who have and wear their spectacles. PAKISTAN

3 Laser photocoagulation for choroidal neovascularisation in pathologic myopia

www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/ doi/10.1002/14651858.CD004765.pub2/

Date: March 2007

Key findings: The effect of laser photocoagulation to treat choroidal neovascularisation due to myopia is uncertain. Adverse effects include enlargement of the atrophic laser scar which is potentially vision threatening.

4 Anti-vascular endothelial growth factor for choroidal neovascularisation in people with pathological myopia

www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/ doi/10.1002/14651858.CD011160.pub2

Date: December 2016

Key findings: Low and moderate-certainty evidence that people receiving anti-vascular endothelial growth factor have a better outcome in terms of visual acuity compared with no treatment, photodynamic therapy or laser. Adverse effects occurred rarely.



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The impact of uncorrected myopia on individuals and society

"Myopia does not only

outcomes; disadvantages

arising from myopia also

psychological well-being."

extend to quality of life

affect educational

and personal and

The rising epidemic of myopia will have far-reaching consequences for individuals and society unless we provide adequate treatment and care.

ood distance vision is important for many activities; for example, recognising someone across the road, driving a vehicle and reading from a blackboard in school. The impact of uncorrected myopia varies depending on the age of the person affected. Those who develop high myopia, defined as ≤ -5 dioptres (D) are at increased risk of cataract, open-angle glaucoma, myopic macular degeneration and retinal detachment (p. 5), all of which has a personal and economic cost.

The impact on children's education

Myopia usually starts to develop after the age of 10 years, but in East Asia it can start earlier. Uncorrected myopia can affect children's ability to learn in school and their quality of life.

An important benefit of providing schoolaged children with spectacles is enhanced educational outcomes.

A randomised controlled trial among 20,000 children in 250 schools in Western China by Ma et al.¹ reported that mathematics test scores at the end of a school year had improved significantly among the 1,153 children who had failed visual acuity screening and were offered free spectacles; the difference was the equivalent of half a semester of

additional learning.

An important finding in this study was that the beneficial effect of providing spectacles increased when there was a greater use of blackboards (rather than textbooks) for teaching in the classroom; this points to the impact of providing spectacles for myopia, as near-sighted children would be expected to benefit more from spectacles when trying to

see a blackboard in the distance rather than a book that was close to them. Providing spectacles also exceeded the average educational impact observed in many other school-based health interventions in lowor middle-income countries, including dosing with iron to correct anaemia, giving vitamins and giving medications to eliminate parasites.1

These results are consistent with studies of varying designs, suggesting a causal association



Spectacles improve academic performance and may assist in myopia control. PAKISTAN

between better visual acuity and children's academic performance. In a prospective cohort study, Jan et al.2 have reported that Chinese children with better presenting vision at the beginning of the 7th grade had significantly better test scores at the end of the

> 9th grade (adjusted for baseline test performance). Additional studies are needed in school settings outside of China, and studies are also needed to determine whether provision of free spectacles can significantly improve other important indicators of children's academic success, such as remaining in school.

Although programmes of free spectacle delivery are shown to increase children's use of spectacles significantly,^{1,3} the impact has been

limited by sub-optimal spectacle wearing, which may be 40% or lower.^{1,4} Effective methods to increase spectacle wear may vary from place to place, but are important to maximise the educational impact for children.

The personal impact of myopia

Myopia does not only affect education outcomes; disadvantages arising from myopia also extend to quality of life and personal and psychological well-being and development, particularly when individuals develop high myopia.

Adolescents with vision impairment reported statistically significantly lower quality of life, psychosocial functioning and school functioning scores. Myopia has also been demonstrated to significantly increase levels of anxiety among adolescents,6 whereas studies in children have identified links between having myopia and experiencing low self-esteem. Dias et al.7 reported that children who experience more visual symptoms (e.g., tired eyes or headaches) tend to evaluate themselves less favourably in terms of their physical appearance, school work, social activities, and behavioural conduct. This finding is similar to another study in which more severe myopia was associated with lower self-esteem.8

Adolescents and younger children can experience social pressures against spectacle wear and may avoid wearing the spectacles they have been prescribed. These pressures have been identified in children across a range of contexts; for instance, children reported being teased or discriminated against (or being afraid of this) in studies from Brazil, India, 10,11 Tanzania 12 and Timor-Leste.¹³ Parents are also sensitive to social pressures and hesitate to obtain spectacles for their children due to the stigma associated with this.14

Studies from high-income countries have shown that adults with high myopia reported psychological, cosmetic, practical, and financial factors specifically related to myopia that affected their quality of life.15

The economic impact on society

In 2015, uncorrected myopia was estimated to have caused \$244 billion of potential lost productivity worldwide. Macular degeneration due to myopia was associated with another \$6 billion of potential productivity loss. 16 The greatest absolute economic burden was experienced in Asia.

There are very few economic evaluations of myopia correction and no economic evaluation of myopia prevention. However, disability weights have been used to estimate potential productivity loss as a proportion of the gross domestic product (GDP per person).16 In 2012, Fricke et al. found that the global cost of establishing educational and refractive care facilities was a small fraction of the projected global lost productivity for all types of uncorrected refractive error.¹⁷ In Singapore, for example, the cost of providing myopia care for adults in 2009 was an average of US \$709 per person,18 which is less than 2% of the GDP per person at the time. By comparison, the disability weights associated with blindness (0.187) and moderate visual impairment (0.031) due to uncorrected refractive error¹⁹ represent potential lost productivity of 18.7% and 3.1% of GDP per capita, respectively. Spending less than 2% of GDP per capita to avoid a bigger loss in productivity therefore makes economic sense.

Conclusion

The potential improvements in academic achievement for children who receive myopia correction, along with associated quality of life and psychosocial functioning gains – together with the economic case

for myopia treatment in terms of productivity – speak to the need for interventions. However, addressing parents' and children's concerns about wearing spectacles and making efforts to maximise spectacle wear are critical for realising the economic or academic benefits of correcting myopia.

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Myopia: a growing epidemic

Myopia is a serious and growing problem that will affect low- or middleincome countries as they become more urbanised - especially when educational demands increase.

vidence from various countries, age groups, and ethnicities¹ indicates that myopia, defined as refractive error ≤-0.50 D in the least myopic eye, currently affects approximately 28% of the global population.2 In the highly developed urban areas of East and South East Asia, as many as 90% of school leavers have myopia.^{2,3} In Europe and North America, 30–50% of school leavers are affected and, in sub-Saharan Africa, myopia affects 5-15% of these children.^{2,4}

Uncorrected myopia is the leading cause of blindness worldwide. In 2015, there were 124 million people around the world with moderate or severe vision impairment (MSVI) or blindness due to uncorrected refractive error. The other leading causes were cataract (66 million people) age-related macular degeneration (10 million people), glaucoma (7 million), diabetic retinopathy (3 million) and other (or unidentified) causes (37 million).5

There are two main ways myopia can cause visual impairment. The first is via un- or under-corrected refractive error. Distance vision impairment can result when a person with myopia is unable to get appropriate spectacles or contact lenses or have them updated as needed. Second, increasing myopia is associated with increasing prevalence of visual impairment from complications that cause irreversible visual loss, including glaucoma and vitreo-retinal diseases such as myopic macular degeneration and retinal detachment.

Evidence consistently suggests that the global prevalence of myopia is increasing,2 with the rate of increase being particularly alarming in many Asian countries.⁶ Holden et al. (2016) predicted that the global prevalence of myopia will rise from 28% (2 billion people) in 2010 to 50% (5 billion people) in 2050.2 The same study predicted that the global prevalence of high myopia will rise from 4% (227 million people) in 2010 to 10% (938 million) in 2050.2

Environmental factors and lifestyle changes, such as increased time indoors (related to increased educational demands⁷), increased use of electronic



Children waiting for an eye examination. ZAMBIA

devices and decreased time spent outside are highly associated with the increased prevalence of myopia.3 There are also reports implicating factors such as town planning (the design of our built environment) and diet (higher saturated fat and cholesterol intake).8

Changing demographics

The groups of people affected by myopia (or the demographics of myopia) appears to be changing in two ways that are important in the link between myopia and visual impairment²:

- 1 As countries develop and people become more urbanised, the myopia epidemic will increasingly affect areas with fewer resources and with health systems that are less ready to deal with myopia and its complications.
- Even though myopia will initially only affect children, the fact that it is a life-long condition means that it will 'spread' to all age groups over the next several decades.

People who live in a low-income setting will be less likely to have access to adequate optical correction and the health care systems needed to adequately manage the complications associated with myopia (p. 11).9,10

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Can myopia be prevented?

Increasing children's time outdoors, and reducing near work, can delay the onset of myopia – which reduces the risk of high myopia and its complications.

hildren who develop myopia at an early age have a greater risk of eventually developing high myopia $(\leq -5 \text{ dioptres } [D] \text{ of correction}).$ High myopia increases the risk of retinal detachment, macular degeneration, open-angle glaucoma and cataract. One of the most cost effective ways to reduce this is to prevent or delay the onset of myopia.

The rapid rise in myopia prevalence in recent decades is likely due to environmental factors. such as living spaces (urban versus rural locations), 1,2 indoor versus outdoor activity3,4 and increased near work.5 However, it may be possible to modify these

environmental factors in order to reduce or delay the onset of myopia. As early onset of myopia results in high levels of myopia, due to faster ocular growth and greater annual progression during the developmental years,6 intervention at an early age also appears to be critical.



Posters by the government of Singapore encourage children to spend more time

benefit if these are implemented.

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outdoors could be beneficial in delaying or preventing

myopia onset. These strategies also have other health

benefits, such as reduced risk of obesity and improved

physical activity and mental health, so all children will

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What is the main cause?

Children who perform more near work are more likely to have myopia, and the odds of this increases with additional near work activities each week.7 Although the exact mechanism is unclear, researchers suggest that hyperopic defocus from accommodative impairment could be a factor.

Interestingly, studies have also found that more time outdoors delays myopia onset.8 Exposure during school recess to outdoor light (sunlight) totalling 11.2 hours per week9 or exposure to light in school hallways or under the trees for a longer duration (3.3 hours per day)¹⁰ has been effective at reducing myopia incidence. Similarly, previous data involving Caucasian and East Asian children growing up in Australia, Singapore and United States found a total of 10–14 hours per week of outdoor time was effective for delaying myopia onset.^{4,11} A recent longitudinal study conducted in Australia evaluated children's light exposure using a wearable measuring device; it observed slower eye growth in children exposed to more light each day. 12 The intensity of artificial indoor light is substantially less than outdoors,13 and it also consists of a different spectrum of frequencies. The levels of dopamine, which may play a role in inhibiting eye growth, have also been shown to increase with exposure to light.14

Evidence suggests that a multi-pronged approach with reduced near work (especially for young children), living spaces with more natural light as well as promoting time



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Myopia in low-resource settings

Increasing levels of myopia will pose particular challenges in low- or middleincome countries. Preventing or delaying myopia onset is crucial.

Providing correction for myopia is a major challenge in low- and middle-income countries that have limited trained ophthalmic personnel and who are faced with other barriers; e.g., the cost of spectacles and misconceptions about spectacle wear. The challenge should not be underestimated: uncorrected refractive error is the single biggest cause of visual impairment and blindness worldwide.1

A second challenge is dealing with the pathological consequences of high myopia, defined as ≤ -5 dioptres (D). Myopia imposes a greater risk of retinal detachment from an early age,² and signs of pathological myopia, such as myopic macular degeneration and staphyloma, can start to appear in young adults with high myopia and worsen with age. Myopic macular degeneration is the first or second cause of blindness already in East Asia.3 In addition, high myopia is the most common cause of choroidal neovascularisation in people under 50 years of age in high-income countries,⁴ and people with myopia are at greater risk of developing cataract and glaucoma.5 Many of these secondary conditions are clinically challenging.

As the prevalence of myopia has increased, early onset of myopia has become more common, allowing more time for progression to take place.6 Based on existing data, a child who first becomes myopic in mainland China at the age of 6–8 years is likely to develop high myopia. One who develops myopia at the age of 12–13 or later is unlikely to end up highly myopic. It is therefore very important to delay the onset of myopia and to control its progression.

Fortunately, we know how to do both. Increasing time spent outdoors during childhood delays the onset of myopia as demonstrated in randomised clinical trials,7-9 and as a system-wide programme in Taiwan. The aim should be to ensure that children in the primary school years get at least 2-3 hours a day outdoors, based on epidemiological evidence⁶ and clinical trial results.⁷⁻⁹



Learning outdoors for all or part of the day protects children against the onset of myopia. The light under trees is bright enough to make a difference. ETHIOPIA

There are several treatments that can control myopia by slowing down its progression.¹⁰ Daily low-dose atropine (p. 21) is reported to reduce progression by close to 60%, and executive bifocal spectacles with +1.5D near addition is reported to reduce progression by 50% (p. 19). In terms of cost, the use of low-dose atropine is likely to be preferred in low- or middleincome settings. These interventions, where available and affordable, could eliminate or drastically reduce the risk of developing high myopia/pathological myopia and the conditions associated with it (p. 5)

For progression control efforts to be effective, prompt detection and referral is essential (p. 15). Annual refraction and eye examination (p. 17) makes a lot of sense, at least until progression rates have slowed.

In countries already gripped by a myopia epidemic, putting these measures in place is urgent. In other countries, regular visual acuity screening for referral, as well as surveillance of trends, would also be useful. Increased time outdoors provides a simple, low-cost primary intervention that should be backed up with progression control, where possible. Where climate or pollution limits this possibility, innovative solutions such as bright classrooms, or bright desk lamps for home study, may be required.

We know how to control myopia – now we need to do it.

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Advocacy to reduce the risk of myopia

Encouraging and supporting the changes needed to prevent or delay the onset of myopia is complex. Co-ordinated advocacy is key.

he evidence for a global rise in the prevalence of myopia paints a worrying picture for the eye health of future generations. Although the causes are not completely understood, it is clear that myopia development and progression is multifactorial, and that environmental, lifestyle, and genetic factors are involved.1 The evidence is also clear that the myopia epidemic is real and that controlling it will require cross-sectoral efforts at collective and individual levels.

Although we have little ability to modify demographic risk factors such as ancestry, age and gender, it appears that myopia is also heavily influenced by modifiable risks such as near activity and outdoor time.

Modifying lifestyle factors, especially in young children, is likely to delay or prevent myopia onset. However, the influences on child behaviour are complex and vary with place and culture. Given these complexities, multi-dimensional approaches are

needed to provide strategies that suit local situations and facilitate support from individuals, families, governments, health and educational bodies.

Advocacy to minimise the risk factors for myopia onset

Advocacy – practical engagement through positive action and communication with the people and organisations who can make these changes – is essential. The suggestions below can be delivered by eye care practitioners, health bodies, governments, schools, etc. to individuals, families, schools, communities in order to modify the three risk factors with potential to influence myopia onset: an over-emphasis on education in children younger than 12 years old, lack of time outdoors, and too much time on near activities.

Over-emphasis on education, particularly in children younger than 12 years of age Advocacy aimed at:

 Encouraging balanced lifestyles for the purpose of eye health



Posters by the government of Singapore encourage children to spend more time outdoors and reduce their screen time. SINGAPORE

- Improving 'visual hygiene' (sensible working distances, regular breaks from near tasks, good illumination)
- Making the educational environment 'anti-myopic' (e.g. bright classrooms).

Lack of time outdoors

Advocacy aimed at:

- Encouraging balanced lifestyles for the purpose of eye health
- Town planning that encourages outdoor time
- Incorporation of outdoor time into education.

Too much time on near activities

Advocacy aimed at:

- Encouraging balanced lifestyles for the purpose of eye health
- Limiting screen time.

We are facing a global myopia epidemic which requires combined efforts of researchers, parents, teachers, communities and governments to work together to reduce this burden that will affect us all economically via lost productivity, and will impact individuals' quality of life.



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Preventing myopia in East Asia

Spending enough time outdoors can drastically reduce the risk that a child will develop myopia.

he prevalence of myopia among school-aged children has been increasing over several decades, reaching up to 80% among junior high school graduates in East Asian populations,¹ particularly in China's most developed cities, Hong Kong, Taiwan and in those of Chinese descent living in Singapore.

To cope with this epidemic, risk factors and effective methods of prevention must be identified. Although increasing educational pressures and near work time have been highlighted as important risk factors for the increasing prevalence of myopia,² it is unlikely that there will be a cultural shift in the

focus on academic performance in these communities. Therefore, there is an urgent need to identify other modifiable risk factors for myopia.

Increased time spent outdoors was first proposed as a protective factor in a 3-year follow-up study³ and then reported in various studies, such as the Sydney Myopia Study,⁴ Orinda Study⁵ and a cohort study from Singapore.⁶ However, such reports can only prove association rather than a causal effect.

In 2009, a 3-year randomised trial in Guangzhou, China proved that an additional 40 minutes of outdoor activity at school reduced the 3-year cumulative incidence of myopia from 39.5% to 30.4%, a relative reduction of nearly 25%, among grade 1 primary school students.⁷ Another clinical trial in Taiwan suggested that 80 minutes of outdoor time per day could reduce the incidence by 50%.⁸ It is possible that outdoor intervention may have a dose-response preventative effect for myopia, though further studies are needed to substantiate this.⁸

A few approaches to maximise outdoor exposure have been suggested, given the fact that it is unlikely that class time will be reduced in the East Asian setting. One

Figure 1 A bright classroom designed to delay the onset of myopia





Outdoor activities help to delay the onset of myopia. CHINA

approach is to incorporate class time in an outdoor environment, while another is to lock classroom doors during break or play time (recess) which could add an additional 60 minutes of outdoor time.

Another approach is to increase in-classroom illumination during lessons. Our research group has proposed an innovative classroom design that incorporates a glass roof and walls in an attempt to maximise light intensity while students study indoors (Figure 1).⁹ We have also attempted to develop an LED lamp that resembles outdoor light intensity in the classroom. The efficacy of these two interventions are currently being investigated.

When school leaders or parents try to implement interventions that increase students' time spent outdoors, they must also consider protecting the students against sunburn or damage caused by ultraviolet radiation. A recent study in Taiwan suggests that a much lower illumination of 1,000–3,000 lux (equivalent to illumination levels under tree shade) is sufficient to generate a protective effect.¹⁰

Other interventions, such as targeting smart device screen time or eye exercises, are yet to be supported by scientific evidence.

China has recently proposed a country-wide myopia control strategy engaging both the education and health sectors, which involves government policy reform, involvement of schools and parents in myopia prevention, improved health services targeting myopia, and health promotion discouraging risky behaviours leading to myopia.¹¹

The impact of increasing outdoor time is far-reaching. A 25% reduction in incidence among primary school students would mean a significant delay in the onset of myopia, and this could reduce the prevalence of myopia and perhaps high myopia in the wider population. The challenge is how to translate these findings into an intervention that can be delivered during day-to-day school activities.

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How to detect myopia in the eye clinic

Ophthalmic nurses and other allied health personnel can detect myopia using a Snellen chart and a pinhole occluder.

yopia is a refractive error that occurs when the eye is longer than normal or has a cornea which is too steep (p. 4). People with myopia, also known as short- or near-sightedness, can see near objects clearly, but objects further away appear blurred and out of focus. Normal vision can be restored by prescribing the correct spectacles or contact lenses.

Ideally, refractive errors in children (myopia, hypermetropia and/or astigmatism) should be detected in eye screening programmes in schools or in the community. In the absence of such programmes, adults and children will present at the clinic with a range of conditions.

It is therefore important to be aware of myopia and to look out for it when performing an eye examination.

About myopia

Myopia can be inherited, and there is also evidence that it is more likely to occur in communities where children spend less time outdoors and more time doing near work. It can be corrected using spectacles

or contact lenses of the correct power, expressed in dioptres (D). People who require ≤ -0.50 D of optical correction are considered as having myopia.

High myopia affects around 10% of people with myopia, and is defined by the World Health Organization as requiring ≤ -5 D of correction. People with high myopia are at greater risk of macular degeneration, retinal detachment, glaucoma and cataract. Of these, cataract is the only reversible condition: sight can be restored in a single, quick surgical procedure. Retinal

detachment can cause sudden visual loss and requires urgent surgical treatment to re-attach the retina; failure to do so can result in a complete loss of vision in that eye. Macular degeneration and glaucoma cause progressive visual loss that cannot be reversed, so early detection is essential as medication or surgery can, at best, slow down or halt their progression.

This article describes how to detect myopia and when to refer someone to the appropriate health professional for a comprehensive eye examination, refraction and spectacle prescription.

1 History, symptoms and signs

Indicators of myopia in children include:

- Poor distance vision
- Viewing objects from an unusually short distance
- Poor concentration in school
- Squinting or peering though narrowed eyes.



Testing visual acuity using a tumbling E chart. UGANDA

People with myopia may complain of:

- Blurred distance vision
- Frontal headaches.

Ask about the person's previous eye history, e.g. spectacles or lazy eye, and about family history, including myopia (due to the familial link), glaucoma, diabetes mellitus and hypertension. Floaters and flashes of light are associated with retinal detachment and requires urgent referral to an ophthalmologist. Double vision is associated with a range of conditions, including strabismus (lazy eye) and neurological disorders, and requires referral to a medical professional or ophthalmologist.

Ask about general health, medications, whether the person drives, and their hobbies.

End with the open-ended question: "Is there anything else that you feel I should know about your eyes or your health?" If you have been thorough in your questioning, the answer should be no, which can be recorded in the notes as NOC (no other comments).

2 Measure visual acuity

Visual acuity testing must form part of every eye examination. 'No refractive error' at this distance is deemed to be 6/6 or 20/20, even though there may be even smaller lines on the chart, such as 6/5 or 6/4.

- Use a Snellen chart, placed 6 metres (20 feet) away from the person.
- For younger children or those who cannot read, use a tumbling E or a tumbling C chart and ask them to point in the direction of the opening in each letter.
- Ensure there is good natural light or illumination on the chart, as Snellen charts are designed to test

- central vision at high contrast.1
- Explain the procedure to the person.
- Position the person, sitting or standing, at a distance of 6 metres (20 feet) from the chart.
- Clean and dry the occluder. If no plain occluder is available, use clean card or a tissue. Ask the patient to cover one eye but not to press on it.
- Test one eye at a time. Starting from the top of the chart, ask the person to read the letters (Snellen chart) or point in the direction of the open end of the letter (tumbling E or C chart). Position the chart at 3 metres (10 feet) if the person's vision is less than 6/60 and record as 3 metres instead of 6 (e.g. 3/60).
- Record the visual acuity (written as a fraction next to the smallest line the person can read). For example, if the person cannot read the bottom row (visual acuity of 6/6) but can read the next row of letters (6/9) then their visual acuity is 6/9.
- If the patient cannot see the letters on the 6/6 line, they may have a refractive error, such as myopia.

3 Perform a pinhole test

Pinhole testing is mainly used for adults and older children. Children under 7-8 years old would struggle to see with a single pinhole. Occluders with multiple pinholes may work better, but if these are unavailable, refer all children with VA of < 6/6 for refraction.

A pinhole occluder (an opaque disc with one or more small holes) is used to determine whether reduced vision is caused by refractive error. If this is the case, the pinhole will cause an improvement in visual acuity.

If the pinhole worsens vision, this can indicate macular disease, central lens opacities or other causes of reduced vision. If there is no change in visual acuity, this might be caused by amblyopia. Children and adults suspected of having these conditions must be referred.



Steps

- Clean and dry the pinhole occluder.
- Ask the patient to cover one eye with the occluder and position the pinhole so they can see through it.
- Test one eye at a time by following the same procedure used to test visual acuity.

4 Should I refer?

If the person can read more letters with the pinhole than without, they are likely to have a refractive error, such as myopia. All patients (adults and children) whose acuity improves with a pinhole, and/or who present with symptoms consistent with a refractive error, should be referred for a full refraction and an eye health examination. Refer patients with signs or symptoms of eye disease for a comprehensive eye examination (including a slit lamp examination, if possible) if you are unable to carry one out yourself.

A pinhole occluder is an opaque disc with one or more small holes. In people with myopia, visual acuity increases with the use of a pinhole. TANZANIA

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Who is at risk of myopia?

By **Tim Fricke**, **Priya Morjaria** and **Padmaja Sankaridurg**

Ethnicity is a significant risk factor, with individuals from East and South East Asian countries at greater risk of developing myopia. More importantly, myopia begins at an earlier age in these individuals, resulting in a greater number of years during which myopia can progress. This increases the risk that they will develop high myopia. ²

Older children are more likely to develop myopia.³ However, annual progression is significantly greater in younger children.⁴ A 6-year old child with myopia will have significantly greater progression than, for example, a 10-year-old, placing them at greater risk of high myopia.

Parental myopia may also influence onset with those with both parents being myopic at greater risk of developing myopia.²

There is also a small difference in prevalence between males and females, with females at greater risk of myopia than males.⁵



Girls are more likely than boys to develop myopia, although the difference is small. INDIA

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Practical tips for managing myopia

This article presents a summary of practical approaches to diagnosing myopia, myopia management (with particular attention to low resource settings), reviewing myopia progression, and collecting data for myopia management programmes.

Part 1 Diagnosing and prescribing for myopia

While myopia might be initially detected by a patient (e.g. reporting distance blur), or an adult observing behaviour changes in a child (e.g. squinting or viewing things closer than expected), myopia is generally diagnosed by an eye care professional.

Equipment

The minimum required equipment to diagnose myopia and assess progression includes:

- A high-contrast distance visual acuity (VA) chart (e.g., Snellen, logMAR, E, or LEA)
- A room or space where the viewing distance for VA is at least 3m/10ft. The chart should be well lit and calibrated for the working distance
- Occluder (ideally with pinhole occluder)
- Retinoscope
- Trial lens set (including Jackson Cross Cylinder) or phoropter

Equipment that could assist with myopia diagnosis, management and estimation of progression:

- Near VA chart
- Autorefractor
- Heterophoria measurement method (e.g., MIM card or Howell phoria card)
- Lens flippers (±1.00 and ±2.00 D)
- Prism bars
- Optical biometer for axial length measurement
- Cycloplegic eye drops (e.g., tropicamide, cyclopentolate or atropine).

Clinical techniques

To prescribe for myopia appropriately, the clinical techniques below are recommended as a minimum:

- Visual acuity (VA)
- Retinoscopy
- Subjective refraction
- Ocular health assessment.

The following clinical techniques are recommended and should be conducted where possible:

- Cycloplegic refraction / autorefraction
- Axial length measurement.

The binocular vision tests below can measure the effect of a myopia management strategy on the individual's binocular vision status and visual comfort. This will help you to determine the appropriateness of a myopia management strategy for that person.



Refraction is the first step. MEXICO

- Monocular estimate method (MEM) retinoscopy. An objective method to determine a child's accommodative (near focussing) status at near. Retinoscopy should be conducted with a near target.
- Accommodative facility. A subjective method to assess accommodation function (ability of eye to focus at near).
- **Subjective phorias.** A subjective method to determine whether the eyes prefer to converge in or diverge out, at distance and near.
- Vergence reserves. A subjective method that measures the eyes' ability to converge in and
- **AC/A ratio.** Assesses the interaction between accommodation and convergence.

Cycloplegic refraction

An accurate refraction is very important in diagnosing myopia and monitoring myopia progression. Ideally, a child with myopia should undergo cycloplegic refraction at the initial presentation and then at least every 12 months. This allows the clinician to accurately determine the refractive error without the effect of an active accommodation system. However, if cycloplegic refraction is not possible, a careful subjective refraction must suffice.

Common agents used for cycloplegia include cyclopentolate (0.5% or 1%), tropicamide (0.5% or 1.0%) and atropine (1%). Studies have found tropicamide 1% to be effective in monitoring standard cases of myopia progression.^{1,2} Therefore, tropicamide 1% is worth considering for cycloplegic refraction as it reduces the duration of glare and near symptoms compared to other options.

If conducting cycloplegic refraction, inform patients that the eye drops may sting for a few seconds before instilling them into the eye. Advise that their vision may be blurred, especially at near, and they may be light sensitive for a few hours, so sunglasses should be worn if possible.

What should you prescribe?

Use the cycloplegic refraction results from retinoscopy or autorefraction as the starting point and then refine to achieve the best possible VA. If there is a large difference between the cycloplegia objective and subjective refraction, recheck your results.

Uncorrected astigmatism

In low-resource settings where sphero-cylindrical lenses are unavailable to correct astigmatism, spherical lenses might be prescribed to correct myopia. The level of blur is dependent on the amount and type of astigmatism and currently there is no evidence on the effect of uncorrected astigmatism on myopia progression.

Under-correction is ineffective

Studies show prescribing single vision lenses with under-correction (less minus) made no difference compared to full correction, and in some cases, it made the myopia progression worse.^{3,4} This suggests that if you are only able to prescribe single vision spectacles, full correction is recommended.

Part 2 Options for managing myopia

For children at risk of developing myopia, advise at least 90 minutes of outdoor time daily,⁵ and regular breaks from near work.

Myopia management interventions for children with progressive myopia can be divided into three categories (Table 1). These may not all be available in low- or middle-income countries. Each intervention is generally prescribed alone. However, you could consider combination treatment (for example, adding low-dose atropine to an optical treatment) if there is a high risk of fast progression or poor response to individual treatment. You can prescribe single vision lenses if you consider the patient's myopia to be stable, especially if the patient is an adult.

Table 1 Myopia management interventions

<i>y</i> 1	O	
Pharmacological	Optical: spectacles	Optical: contact lenses
• Low-dose atropine (might require a specialist compounding pharmacy)	Executive bifocalsProgressive addition lenses	 Dual-focus and multifocal centre- distance contact lenses Orthokeratology

Choosing a myopia management strategy

Consider:

- The options are available in your setting
- Their effectiveness
- Patient suitability
- Patient and carer preference

Using your clinical judgement, decide which of the available options is most appropriate for your patient. If you are unable to prescribe that option, refer to a colleague who has experience with, and access to, that intervention.

What next?

Review periods

Review every 6 months. More frequent reviews may be required for patients when first introduced to each treatment strategy. Ongoing follow-up should be based on the patient's progress, treatment modality and performance.

What is fast progression?

Fast progression is progression of myopia of 1.00 D or more, per year. 6 Younger children with myopia are more likely to progress faster than older children.⁷

How to estimate progression

You can estimate progression by comparing the difference in myopia before and after using a myopia management strategy. Ideally, you will be comparing cycloplegic refractions over at least 12 months. Table 2 is an example of estimating the rate and reduction of myopia progression:

Table 2 Recording and estimating the rate of progression: an example

Examination date	Age	Refraction
3 years ago	7	R –1.00 D L –0.75 D
2 years ago (started myopia management)	8	R -2.00 D L -1.75 D
Today	10	R -3.00 D L -3.00 D

- Prior to using myopia management, this patient had progressed -1.00 D in one year.
- With myopia management, they then progressed to R (right eye) -1.00 D and L (left eye) -1.25 D over 2 years, which is -0.50 D and -0.62 D per year, respectively.
- This in an approximate reduction of 50% in the right eye and 38% in the left eye.

Estimating progression might be difficult for patients prescribed orthokeratology, and measuring axial length might assist in these cases. However, you need to be aware that axial length also increases with age in children with emmetropia (normal eye length).8

Data collection for myopia management

Record keeping is important to monitor a child's myopia onset, progression, and their response to treatment. This information can also assist in developing a database to use when planning programmes. Record:

- The child's age at the onset of myopia (-0.50 D in either eye) from a cycloplegic refraction
- Ethnicity
- Family history of myopia
- Number of hours or minutes spent outdoors each day
- Number of hours or minutes spent on near work
- The type(s) of myopia management prescribed
- When the myopia management was initiated/ceased
- The amount of myopia (i.e. prescription) at each visit, at least annually, with cycloplegia
- Axial length (where possible).

Summary: managing myopia in low- or middle-income countries

- It is important that progressive myopia is diagnosed and managed appropriately.
- Know which myopia management strategies are available in your setting (such as executive or large segment bifocal spectacles, multifocal contact lenses, orthokeratology and low-dose atropine).
- Consider which myopia management strategy would be most appropriate for your patient.
- If that option is within your scope of practice, prescribe it. If not, refer your patient to a colleague who can prescribe it.
- Compare the annual rate of progression with and without myopia management using subjective refraction, ideally with cycloplegia.

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Optical interventions to slow the progression of myopia

Bifocal spectacles, progressive addition spectacles, dual focus contact lenses and orthokeratology each appear to reduce myopia progression.

eople with myopia need vision correction (single vision glasses or contact lenses) to see objects that are far away. If their amount of myopia is increasing over time, there is a range of options to slow down the progression of myopia. This article will review the optical options that may be available where you work.



Spectacles improve academic performance and may assist in myopia control. PAKISTAN

Myopia management is a challenge, because:

- We have an incomplete understanding of what causes myopia to develop and progress.
- Myopia usually starts early in life and people have to live with it for a long time.
- Myopia can progress over many years or even decades.

Eye care practitioners should stay up to date with the latest available evidence and involve patients and their families in deciding what treatment is best for them. Explain that current methods can slow down the progression of myopia, not stop or reverse it.

Recommended interventions

Progressive addition lens spectacles

Progressive addition lens (PAL, or multi-focal) spectacles provide distance correction and a near addition without a visible line in the lenses, meaning they can correct myopia and reduce accommodative strain in a cosmetically appealing form. Practitioners who thought accommodative strain was the main cause of myopia progression expected that PALs would reduce progression; however, research results have been disappointing.

PALs have been assessed in well-sized, randomised (between PALs and single vision spectacles), double masked, multi-centre trials with robust testing procedures.¹ The studies used +2D near additions over each participant's distance refraction and monitored progression over 3 years.1 Findings included:

Lower compliance and higher drop out in the PAL

- spectacles group compared to the single vision spectacles group, suggesting that some children did not like wearing the PALs.
- Across all participants, there was statistically significantly slower myopia progression in the PAL group in the first year, followed by equivalent progression between PAL and single vision spectacles.
- Across a subset of participants (children with high accommodative lag and near esophoria), there was an ongoing, cumulative, statistically significant reduction (24% on average) in myopia progression in the PAL spectacles group compared to single vision spectacles group.1

Bifocal spectacles

Similar to PALs, bifocal spectacles provide a distance correction and a near addition, but with a visible line in the lenses, meaning bifocals are generally considered less cosmetically appealing. The near section of bifocal lenses can have different shapes (e.g., roundor flat-topped) and widths (e.g., 28 mm, 35 mm or executive/full width). If reduced accommodation strain is responsible for the small but significant reduction in myopia progression seen in specific children wearing PAL spectacles, results should be similar with any bifocal spectacles. However, myopia progression results may be different between PALs and various bifocal options if some other factor (e.g. dioptric demand across the visual field or peripheral focus) is more important in optically-mediated myopia control.

A randomised, controlled, but unmasked study compared myopia progression in Chinese Canadian children wearing executive bifocal spectacles compared to single vision spectacles. Myopic refractive error and axial length both progressed significantly slower in children wearing the executive bifocals: around 50% less than single vision spectacles. The reduced progression appeared ongoing and cumulative over 3 years, and were independent of binocular vision profile.2

On face value, improved myopia control in executive bifocals compared to PALs suggests that progression is determined more by dioptric demand across the visual field and/or peripheral focus, than by accommodative strain. However, design weaknesses in the bifocal study mean it would be useful to see the comparison replicated in a masked, multi-centre trial without ethnicity-specific selection.

Dual-focus and multifocal soft contact lenses

Specifically designed soft contact lenses (e.g., dual-focus and centre-distance multifocal) provide a pattern of focus/defocus that animal models suggest will reduce myopia progression.3 The exact pattern of focus/ defocus varies between lens types and manufacturers, but the centre of the lenses generally corrects the myopia permitting clear distance vision, while myopic blur is provided in the periphery with the intention of controlling myopia progression.

Randomised, masked studies have shown that both dual-focus and centre-distance multifocal contact lenses can reduce progression of both axial length growth and refractive change compared to single vision contact lens controls. Reductions of up to 80% in the first year have been published, but tend to average around 45% in the first year and a little less in subsequent years.6,7

Orthokeratology

Orthokeratology (ortho-k) contact lenses are specifically designed to be worn while sleeping. They flatten the front surface of the corneas during the night, which reduces the eyes' optical power. The lenses are removed upon waking, but the corneas hold their new shape during the day, providing myopia correction without wearing any lenses during the day.

Ortho-k has been used for many years for myopia correction, but more recently was shown to affect myopia progression. While the exact mechanism for myopia control with ortho-k is unknown, peripheral myopic defocus appears to play a role. Modern ortho-K



Orthokeratology lenses are worn at night to change the shape of the cornea. They have been shown to reduce the rate of axial elongation by 50%. AUSTRALIA

lens design creates a flatter central cornea and steeper peripheral cornea resulting in relative peripheral myopic defocus. Published studies have shown a reduction in the rate of increase of axial length of up to 50% over 2 years.8 Concern has been expressed regarding infection risk associated with ortho-K. While no significant adverse events were caused by orthoK in the largest longitudinal studies published, 8,9 it is certainly worth giving due attention to maintenance of patient/lens hygiene and follow-up care.

Combination therapy

There are limited data available from randomised, controlled clinical trials as to what happens when interventions are combined; e.g., if low-dose atropine eye drops are combined with dual-focus contact lenses. However, a recent pilot study suggests that using orthoK with low-dose atropine is more effective in reducing the rate of myopia progression than ortho-k alone.¹⁰

Not recommended

Peripheral plus spectacles

Animal models have suggested that peripheral myopic defocus can produce central hyperopic growth that can override myopic growth signals from central vision.3 In practical terms, these spectacles could provide clear central vision while controlling myopia progression by blurring peripheral vision. However, the theories and models have not been translated to success in human trials. Peripheral plus spectacles are not a proven intervention and so we do not recommend them at this stage.

Under-corrected spectacles

Evidence of the effect of under-correction of myopia is weak and mixed. There are some results that suggest faster progression with under-correction, while other results suggest slower progression with undercorrection.4 We do not recommend employing this strategy unless more robust evidence suggests it is worthwhile.5

Key messages

Myopia correction should be carried out as early as possible to improve quality of life, productivity and educational performance.

Myopia, once present, progresses over a number of years. It is worthwhile considering the following optical interventions that reduce myopic progression as well as correct myopia:

- PAL spectacles with +2D near addition reduce progression by 24% over three years, but only for children with accommodative insufficiency and convergence excess.
- Executive bifocal spectacles with +1.5D near addition reduce progression by 50% over three years, but results need to be replicated in a multi-centre trial with masking.
- Specially-designed contact lenses (dual-focus soft, centre-distance multifocal soft, and ortho-k) can reduce myopia progression by up to 50% over 2 years. These tend to be expensive and are available mainly in high-income settings.

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Pharmacological interventions in myopia management

Daily low-dose atropine has been shown to result in a reduction of >50% in myopia progression over 3 years - with little to no rebound effect.



Myopia can get worse very quickly. Drugs such as low-dose atropine can help. CAMBODIA

he long-term burden of myopia on the health care system, the global economy and individual quality of life requires that we do what we can to avoid or delay myopia onset and, when myopia is present, that we provide optical correction and do our best to slow its progression. Behaviour modifications such as increased time outdoors and reduced near work appear useful in avoiding or at least delaying onset of myopia, but have not been shown to slow progression once myopia is present. There is evidence that optical interventions (pp. 19-20) and the pharmacological options presented here can reduce myopia progression in children. This may reduce the risk of vision impairment later in life from complications such as retinal detachment and myopic macular degeneration.

Daily low-concentration atropine

Atropine is known for its cycloplegic and pupil dilation effects. It cannot correct the blurred vision caused by myopia, but appears to have myopia control effects that are probably mediated in the retina or sclera. This means that doses too small to cause side effects or other symptoms can still reduce myopia progression.

High quality (large cohort, randomised, masked and controlled) trials of 0.01%, 0.025% and 0.05% atropine eye drops have demonstrated significant myopia control effects over 1 year of daily use.1,2

Comparison of the ATOM studies suggests that 0.01% atropine reduces myopia progression (as measured by spherical equivalent refraction) by >50% over 3 years (2 years of use, then 1 of non-use).1 At present, it is less clear to what extent 0.01% atropine reduces myopia progression in terms of axial length. This is an important distinction, because we suspect that axial length is a stronger determinant than spherical equivalent of the lifelong risk of complications such as retinal detachment and myopic macular degeneration. However, further studies are required to confirm this.

With 0.01% atropine, there was little to no rebound effect (i.e., increased myopia progression) during the year of non-use. The potential rebound effects of other low concentrations (0.025% and 0.05%) are not known.1,2

Depending on uveal pigmentation and individual sensitivity, all three dosages (0.01%, 0.025% and 0.05%) have subclinical effects on pupil size and accommodation, and are therefore very well tolerated.^{1,2}

Low-concentration atropine: unresolved questions

Unsettlingly, we do not know exactly how atropine reduces myopia progression. Atropine has a dose-related effect on accommodation, pupil size, dopamine levels in the retina, and scleral fibroblast activity. Any or all of these mechanisms potentially explain atropine's myopia progression effect, as this effect also appears to be atropine dose-related, as does post-treatment rebound. However, retinal dopamine levels and/or scleral fibroblast activity appear the most likely candidates.

Low-concentration atropine: the challenges

Low-concentration atropine needs to be compounded in most countries, making it too expensive for many people who would benefit from it. It is also commonly an 'off-label' use - meaning reduction in myopia progression was not the reason atropine was approved for use in most countries, which can cause insurance and payment issues. Absence of a local compounding pharmacy can be overcome, as compounding pharmacists commonly post or courier drops to patients, even between countries, depending on drug importation rules.

The biggest problem remains cost. Pharmaceutical companies have not shown an interest in manufacturing low-concentration atropine commercially, because of regulatory hurdles in the countries they are most likely to make profits in. This may change if preferred dosage and axial length efficacy questions are resolved.

We have not observed any significant complications from daily low concentrations of atropine, and none have been reported. However, given the potential complications of atropine generally, caution is warranted. Practitioners should note contra-indications (e.g., Down's Syndrome or spastic paralysis), provide patient information (including critical information about complications), advise sun protection if prescribing concentrations above 0.02%, and advise to return immediately or attend a hospital emergency department if signs of adverse reactions are observed.

Recommendation

Given the current lack of evidence about the potential rebound effect of other concentrations of low-dose atropine, the only treatment regimen we can safely recommend is 0.01% atropine, one drop in each eye, once a day (preferably at night, just before bed). We recommend reviewing patients one week after the initiation of atropine use to assess visual function (including distance visual acuity, refraction, accommodation accuracy, and pupil reactions) and to check for any adverse reactions.

After that, it is sensible to regularly review a child with progressive myopia as usual, e.g., every 6–12 months. The practitioner should have clear criteria for ceasing atropine management (e.g., a wash-out period after each 2 years of use, as used in the ATOM studies).2 Various groups are actively investigating the effects of a range of low-concentration atropine regimens on myopia progression. Recommendations may change as future studies are published.

Warning: avoid regular-concentration atropine

We do not recommend the use of daily regularconcentration atropine. Although 1% atropine is widely available, and high-quality randomised controlled trials of 0.1%, 0.5% and 1% atropine eye drops have demonstrated strongly significant myopia control effects over 2 years of daily use,1,3 there is a significant rebound effect. One year after ceasing 2 years of daily 1% atropine, study participants showed almost as much cumulative myopia progression as if atropine had never been used.1 Several options for reducing

Other candidates

Pirenzepine. The use of pirenzepine 2% twice a day has been shown to have a significant myopia control effect over 2 years⁴ There have been no studies about progression once treatment has stopped, so there is no information about a potential rebound effect. We are unaware of any jurisdictions in which pirenzepine is commercially available.

7-methylxanthine. 7-methylxanthine (7-mx) appears to exhibit a safe, significant myopia control effect in both animals and humans.5 As is the case with pirenzepine, there have been no studies about progression once treatment has stopped, so there is no information about a potential rebound effect. Denmark is the only jurisdiction we are aware of in which 7-mx is available and permitted for use.

the rebound effect have been proposed (e.g. tapering atropine in either concentration or frequency of use), but none has been shown safe in prospective randomised controlled trials.

Conclusion

Daily, low-concentration atropine appears safe and beneficial, with 0.01% atropine leading to a reduction in myopia progression of >50% over 3 years, as measured by spherical equivalent refraction. This has the potential to reduce the frequency of high myopia by over 73%⁶ and to reduce the risk of visual impairment associated with high myopia.

Even so, questions remain about the mechanism of action, efficacy (e.g., does it moderate the progression of axial elongation?), the optimal dosage for myopia control, the effect of place and/or ethnicity on optimal dosage, and how atropine interacts with other myopia control interventions (e.g., does combining atropine with dual focus contact lenses or bifocal spectacles result in additive myopia control, does it multiply the effect, or do they interfere with each other?).

We advocate the evidence-based role of daily low-concentration atropine in moderating myopia progression, so long as drug cessation guidelines are employed and there is a clear administrative framework and patient safety protocols.

In our opinion, this currently means considering a prescription of 0.01% atropine for use in both eyes, once per day, at night, in appropriate patients.

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Sustaining trachoma elimination: lessons from North Africa and the Middle East

Governments play a leading role in successful trachoma elimination programmes.

here has been significant progress to eliminate trachoma as a public health problem in the Eastern Mediterranean region. In 2012, Oman became the world's first country to be validated by the World Health Organization as having eliminated the disease, followed by Morocco in 2016 and the Islamic Republic of Iran in 2018.1

Government leadership, and a commitment to protect the 10.4 million people at risk of trachoma in the region have led to more than 11 million doses of antibiotics being distributed there since 2001. Access to clean water and sanitation has also improved, contributing to a reduction in transmission. However, as more countries move towards elimination targets, new strategies are needed so that national eye health care services are able to monitor, track and manage any new cases that occur and thereby prevent a resurgence of trachoma. Recent experience from Oman, Morocco and Iran provide valuable lessons.

Morocco

In 2005, Morocco developed a robust system of epidemiological surveillance to monitor its five formerly endemic provinces. Surveillance included screening in schools, exhaustive house-to-house screening for trachomatous trichiasis (TT) and population-based surveys that included the country's most disadvantaged populations. The system was integrated into existing national epidemiological surveillance in order to improve sustainability and reduce costs.

Trachoma is continuously monitored. At the community level, school health nurses screen all primary school children through its national school health programme. Nurses at local health facilities are trained to identify and treat trachoma whenever it appears. If trachoma is detected, an investigation is conducted that includes screening of the affected person's family and close contacts. Adults are screened for TT as part of routine primary health care visits.

Access to primary health care in Morocco has been extended to 100% of the population. By integrating trachoma activities into national eye health plans, Morocco has ensured that cases are identified and managed before the disease can spread.

Oman's work to sustain elimination demonstrates the importance of integrating surveillance into existing programmes. Most significantly, Oman integrated trachoma surveillance into its routine health services and its national school programme. Doctors at local health centres are trained to identify trachoma and school health nurses are trained to refer suspected cases to the nearest ophthalmologist. When trachoma is identified, the following steps are taken as per ministry of health guidelines:



Screening for trachomatous trichiasis. OMAN

- 1 Trachoma screening is conducted for all people who live with the patient.
- Antibiotics are provided to clear infection.
- Health and ocular hygiene education are provided.
- 4 The governorate's (region's) epidemiologist documents each case via the electronic Al-Shifa 3+ case monitoring system.

Islamic Republic of Iran

Iran achieved trachoma elimination without a standalone programme. Trachoma was eliminated through comprehensive primary health care services and broader development objectives, such as universal access to clean water and sanitation. The steering committee for the country's national water programme is committed to providing water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) services and continued education about facial cleanliness to areas where poor environmental sanitation remains.

The Islamic Republic of Iran demonstrates that, with strong health systems and social improvements, trachoma can be eliminated without relying on donated medicines. Iran placed a strong emphasis on establishing and strengthening its health care network, which now reaches nearly all rural areas covered by the national primary health care system.

Conclusion

Post-elimination activities in Oman, Morocco and Iran showcase the essential element of national government leadership in their successful programmes and the importance of integrating programmes into existing systems for monitoring the health of the nation.

All national trachoma programmes and their partners can learn from these positive examples of government leadership in order to integrate ongoing surveillance and response into national eve health plans and to include elimination efforts within the WASH sector and school health programmes. This will be crucial in order to sustain the elimination of trachoma as a public health problem.





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Advancing a standardised approach to onchocerciasis elimination mapping

The focus in onchocerciasis is shifting from the control of disease to the elimination of transmission. Completing onchocerciasis elimination mapping is key.

nchocerciasis, also known as river blindness, is classified as a neglected tropical disease. It causes visual impairment and blindness, stigmatising skin disease and severely debilitating itching. It was estimated in 2017 that there were 20.9 million people infected with onchocerciasis, of whom 14.6 million were suffering from skin disease and 1.15 million were visually impaired or blind.¹

The donation of the medicine ivermectin (Mectizan®) by Merck & Co., Inc. (which operates as MSD outside of the United States and Canada), and the subsequent reductions in disease prevalence, has seen a shift in focus from control of clinical disease to elimination of disease transmission. There are still 205 million people living in known endemic areas, although the risk of infection to most people is low, as long as Mectizan distribution continues.² Elimination of onchocerciasis transmission will ensure that this risk is removed for good, permanently protecting the health and eyesight of millions of people.

Previous mapping efforts focused on identifying the moderate to high endemic areas for priority treatment. In the context of elimination, however, low endemic areas (classified as hypo-endemic areas during previous surveys) must also be identified. Treatment must be instigated in any such area where there is ongoing transmission.

Elimination of onchocerciasis can be achieved if it is possible to increase the rate at which onchocerciasis elimination mapping is completed. In collaboration with ministries of health, WHO/ESPEN (the expanded special programme to eliminate NTDs in Africa and in Yemen), the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Sightsavers and other partners have begun a series of pilot studies to test and refine the tools and strategies that will be needed for OEM. The overall aim is to operationalise and scale-up the draft OEM protocols outlined by the WHO Onchocerciasis Technical Advisory Subgroup (OTS), and to provide data and learning to support their refinement and wider use.

The first phase of OEM pilot studies were successfully completed in 2018 in Ghana and Nigeria. The studies verified onchocerciasis endemicity status in several important implementation units (the administrative level at which each country decides mapping should be conducted) and provided opportunities to test and validate the proposed protocol and data flow system. Best practices were developed and tested in relation to the operational roll-out of OEM, including field-level data collection, technical and epidemiological support, and quality control (embedded in every process). A comprehensive training package for mapping teams, and a framework for preparatory desk-based data reviews, were also developed and tested. Ministries of health will have access to real-time information on OEM as it is conducted. They will



The OEM survey team get ready to screen community members in Sokoto. **NIGERIA**

receive standardised outputs from the electronic data capture platform, which will allow them to integrate validated data into national databases and make it easier to report to WHO/ESPEN. Detailed cost analysis is underway to develop accurate cost estimations at the implementation unit level.

The necessary preparatory work is underway for the final part of the OEM pilot; to conduct mapping in Mozambique in mid-2019 in several implementation units. Findings from the latest WHO OTS meeting in February 2019 are currently being included in planned activities in Mozambique. Due to the devastating impact of cyclone Idai, we are closely monitoring the situation and will work with our Mozambique partners to assess the most appropriate time for completion of this work.

On completion, the consortium will be able to offer national programmes and partner organisations in the remaining countries in need of OEM a fully piloted, costed approach to operationalising the OEM protocols outlined by the OTS on a quality-assured online platform. We anticipate that these countries will require close technical guidance from WHO/ESPEN to assist with the prioritising of areas to be mapped.

Integral to the successful roll-out of OEM pilots to date has been ensuring close ties, collaboration and coordination with partners, key stakeholders and experts.

These pilot studies are an essential step in facilitating the rapid expansion and acceleration of OEM while ensuring rigorous data quality standards are maintained.

Test your knowledge and understanding

These questions are designed to help you to test your own understanding of the concepts covered in this issue.



child is measured for spectacles. INDIA

We hope that you will also discuss the questions with your colleagues and other members of the eye care team, perhaps in a journal club. To complete the activities online – and get instant feedback – please visit www.cehjournal.org

Tick ALL that are TRUE			
 Question 1 When considering the management of myopic children: a. It does not matter at what age the intervention is implemented; it has the same effect throughout childhood b. Under-correction using spectacles is preferred as the first choice of intervention c. There is not much difference between the amount of myopic progression resulting from the use of progressive addition lenses (PALs) and executive bifocal spectacles in children d. It is possible that combining orthoK with low-dose atropine to reduce the rate of myopia progression has an additive effect 	 Question 2 In children at risk of developing myopia: a. It is advised that they spend a minimum of 90 minutes of outdoor time daily b. It is ideal to compare non-cycloplegic refractions over at least 12 months c. Measuring axial length increase is recommended to predict myopia progression d. It is a good idea to record data on ethnicity, family history of myopia, time spent outdoors and time spent on near work 		
 Question 3 When detecting myopia a. It is important to ask questions about the person's family eye health history b. Visual acuity should always be measured for both eyes separately, followed by pinhole acuity c. If pinhole acuity improves, this suggests the patient is myopic. It is not necessary to do any further eye health checks d. Multiple pinholes are easier for young children to use than single pinholes 	 Question 4 Considering the myopia epidemic a. Myopia is currently associated with an increase in urbanisation, reduced educational pressures and moderate near work b. Children are more likely to develop high myopia (≤ –5 D) if they become myopic at a young age (6–8 years old) c. One strategy is for all school children to spend time outdoors as this delay or prevent the onset of myopia, and slow down myopia progression d. A 25% reduction in incidence among primary school children would mean a significant delay in onset of myopia and perhaps high myopia 		

ANSWERS

children (10-12 years old) than in younger children (6-8 years old). d. True. However, if children become myopic only when they are older, their myopia will progress more slowly, as myopia progression is slower in older they enter adulthood. c. False - spending time outdoors does not slow down the progression of myopia in those children that are already myopic. younger children also have more time during which their myopia can develop. These children are therefore more likely to have high myopia when b. True. Myopia progresses faster in children who are young (6-8 years old, or even younger). Myopia continues to progress until adolescence, so 4. a. False. Myopia is currently associated with increased educational pressures and excessive near work, particularly in East Asian populations.

indicated when a patient is not able to see the 6/6 line. c. False. A full eye health check is always required, even it pinhole acuity improves the vision. d. Irue. 3. a. True. Myopia is heritable, particularly if both parents have myopia. However, it also depends on environmental factors. b. False. Pinhole acuity is only

orthokeratology. However, be aware that axial length increases with age, even in children with emmetropia. d. True. 2. a. True. b. False. Cycloplegic refraction is more accurate. c. False. Measuring axial length increase may assist when assessing children prescribed

spectacles with +1.5D near addition: 50% control over 3 years. d. True.

myopia is weak and this strategy is not recommended. c. False. PAL spectacles with +2D near addition: 24% control over 3 years. Executive bifocal 1. a. False. It is essential to implement the intervention during the early years of childhood. b. False. Evidence of the effect of under-correction of

Picture quiz



Tick ALL that are TRUE

Ouestion 1

What is wrong with this eye?

- **a.** Dry age-related macular degeneration
- b. Retinitis pigmentosa
- c. High myopia
- d. Primary open-angle glaucoma

Which of the following are more common in patients with this condition?

- **a.** Retinal detachment
- **b.** Choroidal neovascularisation
- c. Acute angle-closure glaucoma
- d. Open-angle glaucoma
- **e.** Ptosis

Ouestion 3

Which of the following have been shown to delay the onset or the progression of this condition?

- a. Not wearing spectacles
- b. Avoiding playing sports
- c. Using low-dose atropine drops
- d. Spend more time outside
- e. Avoiding sunlight

ANSWERS

school-aged children.

uss been shown to reduce progression of myopia in prevent or delay the onset of myopia and low-dose atropine 3. c and d. Spending more time outside has been shown to

> associated with high myopia. neovascularisation and open angle glaucoma are all 2. a, b and d. Retinal detachment, choroidal

atrophy of the retinal pigment epithelium. throughout the fundus, associated with a pale retina due to with chorio-retinal atrophy around the optic disc and 1. c. It is high myopia. There is tilting of the optic disc

ANNOUNCEMENTS & RESOURCES

British Council for Prevention of Blindness Grant Programme

British Council for Prevention of Blindness

The British Council for Prevention of Blindness supports research into the prevention of blindness in low- and low-middle-income countries throughout the world. Grants are offered for research projects that further the goals of 'VISION 2020: The Right to Sight', in the following categories:

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CEHJ app

Work is underway to develop an Android and iPhone app for the Community Eye Health Journal. The CEHJ app will make it possible to download articles and issues to read - and search even when you are



If you would like to be notified when the app becomes available, please subscribe to our email newsletter here: www.cehjournal.org/subscribe/

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Erratum

Due to a printing error, the last three bullet points in the article 'Emergency management: acute endophthalmitis' were not printed.

The instructions for preparing ceftazidime 2 mg/0.1 ml for intravitreal injection are as follows:

Ceftazidime 2 mg/0.1 ml

- Reconstitute 500 mg vial with 10 ml saline
- Withdraw all 10 ml into 10 ml syringe
- Inject 2ml of this solution back into vial
- Add 3ml saline into vial to make up to 5 ml (20 mg/ml)
- Use 1 ml syringe to draw 0.1 ml of this solution (2 mg/0.1 ml)

The corrected article is available here: www.cehjournal.org/article/ emergency-management-acuteendophthalmitis/

Courses

MSc Public Health for Eye Care, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, London, UK

Fully funded scholarships are available for Commonwealth country nationals. For more information visit www.lshtm. ac.uk/study/masters/mscphec.html or email romulo.fabunan@lsthm.ac.uk

Small Incision Cataract Surgery Training at Lions Medical Training Centre in Nairobi, Kenya

Courses begin every six weeks and cost US \$1,000 for training and approximately US \$1,000 for accommodation. Email training@lionsloresho.org or call/message +254 728 970 601 or +254 733 619 191.

Myopia calculator and courses

Brien Holden Vision Institute Academy offers a series of online courses (free and paid) and a free online myopia calculator that allows practitioners to model the impact of of various strategies to control the progression of myopia. Visit https://academy. brienholdenvision.org

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Next issue



The next issue of the Community Eye Health *Journal* is on the theme Medical errors in

eve care

Key community eye health messages

Myopia is an epidemic that needs to be managed



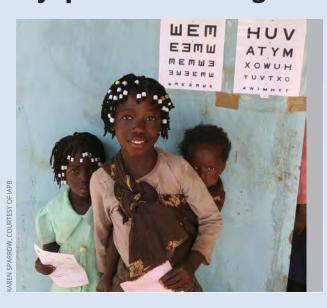
- Uncorrected myopia is the leading cause of avoidable blindness worldwide.
- Myopia (≤ -0.50 D) and high myopia
 (≤ -5 D) is on the increase. By 2050, half the global population could have myopia.
- This will place a huge burden on already overstretched health budgets, not only to provide spectacle correction, but also to treat the potentially blinding conditions caused by high myopia.

The onset of myopia can be prevented or delayed



- Spending more time outdoors and less time doing close work can prevent or delay the development (onset) of myopia.
- Myopia progresses faster in younger children. Progression slows down during adolescence and ends in early adulthood.
- As a result of faster progression and more time during which progression can take place, younger children are more likely to eventually develop high myopia.

Myopia can be managed and progression slowed down



- Children with myopia need spectacles in order to achieve at school. Early detection and referral is essential, and school eye heath programmes play an important role.
- Slowing down progression reduces the risk of developing high myopia. Interventions incude daily low-dose atropine, bifocals and orthokeratology lenses. Time outdoors does not slow down progression.
- It is important to measure myopia progression in order to check how effective a particular intervention is.

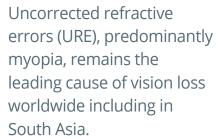
Myopia: an emerging public health

challenge in **South Asia**



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Refraction being performed at a vision centre. INDIA

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ision impairment (VI) is a global public health challenge that affects an estimated 253 million people.1 Uncorrected refractive errors (URE), predominantly myopia remains the leading cause of vision loss worldwide including South Asia (SA).2 Myopia or near-sightedness, is a refractive error, a condition in which the eye does not bend or refract light properly. This means that while close objects look clear, distant objects look blurred. Although the definition of myopia in terms of magnitude varies across the studies, it is measured in dioptres.

According to projections reported by Holden et al it is estimated that URE and mainly myopia was the most common cause of distance vision impairment affecting over 108 million people worldwide in the year 2010.3 Recent meta-analysis reported a prevalence of myopia (spherical equivalent of 0.5 D or less myopia) as 20.2 per cent in 2010 and is projected to increase to 28.6 per cent by 2020 and 53 per cent by 2050.3 It is also estimated that by 2050, 50 per cent of the global population will be myopic and 10 per cent will have high myopia.³ It is evident that myopia is an emerging public health challenge that needs to be addressed worldwide.

The South Asia region comprises eight countries, including India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, three of the 10 most populated countries in the world. The region hosts 23 per cent of the world population and shares a disproportionately large burden of 30 per cent of the global VI.1 While URE contributes to 50 per cent of the global VI, in this region it is as high as 63 per cent.²

Myopia in children and young adults

The Refractive Errors Studies in Children (RESC) reported a higher prevalence of myopia in children from urban India (Delhi) compared to rural India (Mahbubnagar). The prevalence of refractive errors in rural Nepal was the least (1.2 per cent). This two-to three-fold higher prevalence of myopia in urban children is predominantly due to increased near work activities. A recent longitudinal study conducted among children in India revealed that an increase in near-work activities such as reading and writing per week, excessive use of electronic gadgets such as computers,

tablets, video games and watching television were significant risk factors for progression of myopia.4 The same study also revealed that outdoor activities or time spent outdoors (>2 hours) were protective against progression of myopia. There is also evidence from studies done in other regions of the world showing that an increase in outdoor activity may have a protective effect on onset and progression of myopia. An increase in outdoor activities for children and a restriction on screen-time can be a useful public health intervention for myopia in this region.

Myopia in older populations

The prevalence of myopia in older adults is highly variable in the region ranging from close to 20 per cent in central India to 43 per cent in Myanmar. This large variability is due to several factors including the age of the participants and other risk factors such as ethnicity. Some myopia in the older age groups may be due to nuclear cataract (cataract in the central zone (nucleus) of the lens). A good cataract surgery programme will be able to address myopia caused due to cataract.

Models for correcting myopia

Addressing the myopia challenge in SA needs a multipronged approach based on early detection and appropriate correction. As school children form a captive group, school-based eye health programmes or camps can detect myopia in children and provide appropriate correction. Community-based screening programmes (CSP) are often conducted by non-government organisations in this region. The CSPs are conducted as "make-shift clinics" set-up in areas where limited eye care services are available. All those visiting these clinics are screened for vision impairment. Those with refractive errors are provided spectacles and those with uncorrectable vision loss are referred to a base hospital where services including cataract surgery are provided. The vision centre (VC) model of primary eye care service delivery has evolved in India and now spread to other countries with relevant local modifications.



Dispensing spectacles at a vision centre.

Modalities for correcting myopia in SA

Myopia is considered to be a correctable form of vision loss. Spectacles remain the mainstay for correction of myopia in the SA region. However, with new technological innovations and more predictable outcomes, refractive surgery is increasing especially in urban areas. Recognising the importance of preventing the progression of myopia, several modes of prevention are being tried. Orthokeratology (ortho-k) reverse geometry contact lenses are one such modality. These contact lenses worn overnight temporarily aim to reshape the corneal surface. Pharmacological interventions to reduce myopia and axial elongation have been evaluated in a few studies.

This issue of the South Asia edition will provide a comprehensive review of myopia in the region. Ravilla et al provide an overview on spectacle dispensing at the community level. Acharya et al describe the current trends in surgical options for correction of myopia. Murthy et al describe the models of myopia correction at a population level. Verkicherla et al highlight new promising technologies and artificial intelligence in early detection and management of myopia in the region. These models for correction of myopia and application of innovation and technology to address the myopia challenge are also presented.

Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank Shashank Yellapragada and Dr Rohit C Khanna for contributing to this article.

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Spectacle dispensing for myopia at

primary eye care level



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Primary eye care services must include refractive error assessment and spectacle dispensing.



Spectacle dispensing at a rural Aravind eye camp. An optician helps patients choose from a selection of frames while technicians select the prescribed lenses, edge and fit them. INDIA



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he prevalence of myopia has been progressively increasing^{1,2,3} and this is due to changes in lifestyle or reduced outdoor activity. Myopia is easily corrected with a pair of spectacles. However, lack of access to refractive assessment and availability of spectacles remain the key challenge in addressing uncorrected refractive error.4 Primary eye care services are best positioned to create and sustain such accessibility. Well-designed primary eye care can provide the required refractive correction for the community.

These services need to be comprehensive and include not only refractive assessment and prescription, but also, spectacle dispensing. It has been noted that making spectacles available on the spot is important to ensure uptake and use.5

This article discusses guidelines for how myopia correction can be provided at the community level through outreach camps and primary care centres. To make spectacle dispensing available, we need to have systems in place to provide the right inventory of lenses and the right kind of frames stocked to ensure uptake and patient satisfaction.

Guidelines for prescribing spectacles

Spectacles need to be prescribed based on the needs and symptoms. Most practitioners prescribe spectacles for a refractive error of -0.7 dioptres (D) and less only if the patient is symptomatic. Spectacles should be prescribed based on the patient's subjective refraction and not merely retinoscopy findings. Those with presbyopia may be given the option to remove their myopia spectacles for reading or use bifocals.

Cycloplegic refraction is recommended when prescribing spectacles for the first time especially in children less than 15 years of age. The AAO paediatric ophthalmology panel recommends prescribing spectacles for myopia of:

- 5.0 D or more in infants
- 4.0 D or more in children between one to two years
- 3.0 D or more in those between two to three years of age and

2.5 D or more in children over three years of age.⁷

Spectacles need to be prescribed for even lower refractive errors in those with anisometropia.

Guidelines for dispensing spectacles

While dispensing spectacles, it is important to take into account the patients need, vocation and socioeconomic background. Opticians need to guide patients to choose appropriate frames. Frames that are too large can slip down the nasal bridge and could disturb the alignment of optic centre of the lenses to the patients' pupil. In younger children, plastic frames and plastic lenses are recommended to avoid injury to the eye if the spectacles break.

- Plastic lens (CR 39) has the advantage of being safe and more durable. However, the edging and fitting of these lenses need more sophisticated equipment which is neither suitable for portable use nor feasible for a small scale of operations. Also, as these lenses tend to yellow over time, they cannot be stocked for long periods. Plastic lenses are available with additional features such as anti-reflection, UV protection, scratch resistance, high refractive index lenses etc.
- Glass lenses are cheaper, easier to process and are less prone to scratches; although they are heavier and can break more easily. Glass lenses are used for eye camps as they are less expensive and can be edged by hand using a portable edging machine.
- For patients with high myopia, lenses with a high refractive index are thinner and give a better cosmetic result. They are available both in plastic and glass and are best if dispensed with anti-reflection coating.
- Polycarbonate lenses are recommended for children for safety but they are more expensive; these are especially recommended for those who are one-eyed and need spectacles for protection.

Spectacle dispensing in outreach camps

Outreach camps are designed to include a refraction assessment as part of the standard clinical examination. On-the-spot dispensing of spectacles at the campsite ensures uptake and use of spectacles. Often 15-25 per cent of the patients at a camp will require spectacles and the lens inventory stock must be planned accordingly and at affordable prices. Refraction camps conducted at workplaces are a good way to address uncorrected refractive error in the working age group. As the number of patients who require spectacles is around 35 per cent in these camps, a larger inventory needs to be planned.

Patients are offered a choice of spectacle frames to choose from. A standard inventory of ready-made lenses has been developed for different sized camps. Ready-made lenses in common power ranges are easily available in the market. Usually this can cater to about 90 per cent of the prescriptions. Lenses for high powers, mixed astigmatism and hyperopic astigmatism are rarely required and hence not stocked – these are made to order against a prescription and couriered to the patient. This arrangement can ensure an increased spectacle uptake of about 80 per cent among those who are given prescriptions.⁹

Spectacle dispensing at primary eye care centres

Primary eye care services must include refractive error assessment and spectacle dispensing. A simple way to provide spectacles is to offer a range of spectacle frames and outsource edging and fitting of the lenses. At Aravind Eye Care System in India, a network of primary eye care centres or vision centres (VCs) are linked to the central spectacle processing unit at the base hospital.

These VCs are managed by two vision technicians. Patients receive a comprehensive eye examination including refractive evaluation and consult with an ophthalmologist using telemedicine. Each VC carries a standard display of about 80 frames of varying colours, models and sizes, besides a small inventory of reading glasses. An online ordering system conveys the choice of frame, lens type and prescription details to the central spectacle processing unit. This allows the patient to have the choice of ordering plastic lenses. Spectacles are delivered to the patient within one to three days. This ensures over 90 per cent uptake of spectacles and spectacle sales contribute over 60 per cent of these centres' income.

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The right frame will ensure proper alignment of the optic centre of the lens to the patient's pupil. INDIA

What do you need to dispense spectacles at an outreach camp?

For an average of 200 camp patients

- 30-40 patients expected to be prescribed spectacles
- Inventory:
 - Presbyopic glasses: 25
 - Frames: 80
 - Lenses: 300 (varying powers)
- Human resources: two opticians for sales and fitting
- Equipment: lens markers, chipper, cutter, lens edger, screwdrivers, frame warmer, adjustment pliers
- Percentage of on the spot delivery: 85 per cent

Current trends in surgical management

of myopia



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We describe various surgical options for correction of myopia, the advantages and disadvantages of the procedures, current practices and emerging trends.

ver the last few decades, refractive surgery for treatment of myopia has gained popularity as both a cosmetic procedure to avoid spectacles and as a means of complying with occupational vision standards. Refractive surgery procedures include:

- Incisional refractive surgery
- Excimer laser refractive surgery and
- Intraocular surgery

Incisional refractive surgery

The first report of using an incision to alter the shape of the human cornea was in the 19th century, when Schiotz¹ used a limbal relaxing incision in a patient who underwent cataract surgery. In the 1980s Radial Keratotomy (RK) was used to treat thousands of patients with myopia with good predictability; however complications including infection, weakening of the cornea and night vision problems has made RK a more or less obsolete procedure for myopia management.

Excimer laser refractive surgery

- Photorefractive keratectomy (PRK)
- · Laser subepithelial keratectomy (LASEK) and
- Epithelial laser in situ keratomileusis (epi-LASIK, referred to as LASIK)

In PRK, the epithelium is removed either mechanically by scraping it with a blade or chemically by using a diluted solution of ethanol. In the latter approach the epithelial sheet is not repositioned after laser ablation.

In LASEK the epithelial flap is repositioned gently over the ablated tissue.

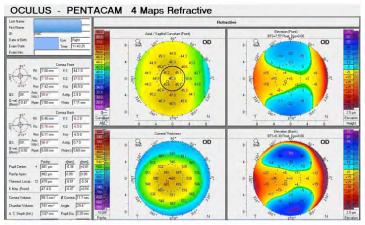


Figure 1 Surgeon performing LASIK surgery.

Comparative studies of surface ablation techniques (PRK versus LASEK) have shown similar refractive outcomes. These procedures work best for myopia up to 6.0 D (dioptres). Laser surface ablation is a better option than LASIK in patients with epithelial irregularities, dry eye syndrome, thin corneas, possible risk of post LASIK flap dislocation and possible risk of keratectasia.

LASIK is currently the most popular surgical option for myopia correction. It is superior to PRK in terms of patient comfort, visual stabilisations and stromal haze formation. It was first popularised by Pallikaris² and Buratto³ as a technique of laser ablation of the corneal stroma, which involved the creation of a flap of anterior stroma including Bowman's and epithelium with the aid of a microkeratome. It can be used to treat up to 15.0 D of myopia, however due to risk of long-term ectasia, the recommendation has been revised to a maximum of minus 10.0 D (Figure 1).

As with any other surgery, LASIK also has its own share of complications; these include free flaps, buttonhole flaps, irregular flaps and post LASIK traumatic flap displacement; epithelial ingrowth and dry eye syndrome also need to be kept in mind.



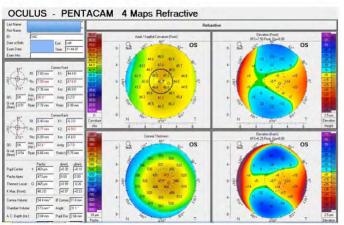


Figure 2A & B Pentacam image of right and left eye, performed in the pre-operative workup period



Figure 3 Refractive lens exchange (RLE)

NR SHROFFS CHARITY EYE HOSPITAL

Figure 4 Implantation of a Phakic Intraocular Lens (pIOL)

Recently, Wavefront-guided LASIK is being used to preserve the asphericity of the cornea, thus inducing less spherical aberration compared with standard LASIK (Figure 2A and B).

Intraocular surgery

For very high degrees of myopia (more than minus 10.0 D), LASIK is unpredictable and runs a risk of regression and ectasia. Refractive lens exchange (RLE), also known as clear lens extraction, was first described by Fukala in 1890, as one of the options to treat high myopia (Figure 3).4 The availability of a wide range of lens powers both for sphere and cylinder have made this approach more attractive when LASIK is contraindicated. This procedure is best suited for treating high myopia up to myopia -23 D, or in other myopes where optical correction or refractive surgery is contraindicated. Even though good refractive outcomes are reported, high myopes run a risk of retinal detachment after surgery, a complication that the patients should be counseled about. Implantation of a pIOL can also be considered (Figure 4).

Recent advancements

These days, Femtosecond lasers⁵ (IntraLase, Irvine, California, USA) have been reported to create more accurate and thinner flaps resulting in more predictable results. The flap dimension can be adjusted based on the needs of the patient and the type of excimer laser used. This also aids in faster recovery, and reduces the risk of further corneal problems.

The most recent addition to this list is that of Small incision lenticule extraction (ReLEx® SMILE) which is a minimally invasive procedure, and combines the advantage of both PRK and LASIK that is flapless and fast recovery.⁶ During this procedure, an intrastromal lenticule is created, and is removed from a small tunnel incision. Since 2011, when the procedure started in Europe, China and India, it has proved to be ideal.

Surgical options for refractive errors have come a long way since 1990. In a field like ophthalmology, which is dependent on technology, we can only expect that treatment options will become more sophisticated and patient-friendly in the coming years.

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Models for correction of myopia in the South Asia region



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Models for correction of myopia need to target identification and correction of those with myopia on the one hand and interventions for modifiable factors to prevent onset and slow down progression on the other.

he prevalence of myopia is increasing in South Asia with earlier onset and high progression rates. Among school-aged children, population studies indicate a prevalence of myopia of (<= -0.5 D) ranging from 1.2-7.4 per cent while school-based studies indicate a higher prevalence between 6-10 per cent in the South Asia region.¹ Among adults, prevalence rates have varied from 17 per cent to 42.7 per cent (<-0.5 D).2

Models for correction of myopia need to target identification and correction of those with myopia on the one hand and interventions for modifiable factors to prevent onset and slow down progression on the other. The modifiable factors are mostly related to nurture. Controlling the modifiable factors is also dependent on whether it is at a clinic level or at a programme level. Some interventions such as use of pharmacologic agents like low-dose atropine are more suited for clinic-based interventions (e.g. percentage (%) atropine drops instilled in the eye every alternate day), while others such as encouraging children to spend more time outdoors (e.g. spending the recess time outside the class room for up to 11 hours a week) are a significant public health approach.

In the South Asia region where prevalence among children is low, it is operationally pragmatic to integrate such activities into overall physical health improvement to reduce the risk of obesity, non-communicable diseases like diabetes, along with reducing the risk of myopia. Such optimisation has comprehensive benefits which also impact vision and can be offered at a more affordable cost. Cost effectiveness of interventions needs to be carefully considered, especially when prevalence is low. In such a context, searching for myopia alone increases the cost of care compared to integrating vision screening in school health screening programmes.

South Asia has been the cradle of innovation in eye care. School vision screening programmes have been in vogue, especially in India, for more than three decades while comprehensive school health screening, including vision and hearing, has been established for more than 60 years.

Programme models for myopia

Models for myopia correction can be categorised by population age

- 5–17 years
- 18–39 years
- 40+ years

Some models cater to all ages at the same time as is done in a population-screening camp model; this approach is opportunistic. Those aged 18-39 years, when symptomatic may attend an eye care facility that includes an optician for their vision correction. It is probably not efficient to organise an activity exclusively for this group as the numbers will be low unless it is done as part of occupational health in factories and work places.



Villagers collecting their spectacles after eye check-up.

Models for older populations

Evidence shows that 70 per cent of older age adults with myopia have cataract3; therefore the focus of any programmatic intervention for myopia should be a comprehensive eye service so that the underlying pathology can be managed effectively. Modalities like vision centres or comprehensive eye screening camps are appropriate options for this age group. Such an approach also ensures that people who are prescribed and dispensed spectacles do not go away with the notion that this 'rectifies' their underlying pathology. Additional challenges in this group is the loss to follow up and compliance with treatment advice.

Models targeting children

The significant population segment that can benefit from a programmatic approach to myopia are schoolaged children. In most countries of South Asia, school enrollment rates have increased significantly over the past two decades, except in difficult geographical terrain. When more than 80-90 per cent of children are in schools, it is logistically pragmatic and efficient to search for children with myopia in schools. Studies have shown that the prevalence of myopia is insignificant below the age of five years and increases between 11 to 15 years. This epidemiologic characteristic has led to the rationale of targeting children in grades from five to ten for school vision screening programmes.

Identifying children with myopia

School eye screening programmes prioritise myopia detection as it is the most prevalent refractive error in this age group. Most of the studies both globally and in the South Asia region observed that the prevalence of childhood myopia is significantly higher in urban environments.^{3,4} This could be related to lifestyle factors and early exposure to near-work and parental pressure on academic achievements. Therefore the first priority in South Asia is children aged 11+ in urban schools as they have a higher risk of myopia.

Integrating vision screening in a school health programme is a cost-effective and sustainable approach compared to a stand-alone vision screening. In India the commonest approach has been training school teachers to do the initial vision test, followed by referral of those with 'suspected abnormal vision' to an ophthalmic assistant or optometrist. In some areas, all the school teachers have been trained so that the class teacher can undertake the screening. This is thought to improve compliance as the students are more comfortable with their regular teacher. Another approach involves trained ophthalmic personnel screening the children at school. This is not an affordable approach as there is a paucity of skilled eye care personnel in most of South Asia. Models have also been developed to reach school dropouts and out-ofschool children in India.

In all these models, the essential parameter for success is provision of spectacles. If this is not part of a vision 'screening' initiative the entire exercise is futile. The modality of providing spectacles differs from one initiative to another. Most commonly, children are prescribed correction and this is provided through a designated optician. Some organisations dispense spectacles on the spot. Since wearing spectacles is a stigma in South Asian cultures, measures to improve compliance include provision of an array of colorful frames, and more recently, the use of smartphonebased screening (PEEK school eye health) where screened children, their guardians and teachers are shown a simulated sight on the smart-phone.⁵



Children being screened at school. INDIA

Prevention of myopia

Since environmental risk factors have been postulated to be responsible for significant increases in myopia there have been attempts to 'modify' this risk. Time spent outdoors and away from near work activities in a class room has been found to reduce the risk of myopia development and progression of myopia. Large scale



Identifying children with myopia. INDIA

trials of prevention have not been done in South Asia but outdoor activity is a promising intervention as it has a positive effect not only on myopia but also on reducing obesity and the risk of non-communicable diseases in later life. The use of pharmacologic agents like low-dose atropine are not warranted as a public health measure in South Asia where the prevalence of childhood myopia is low. It may however find use in a clinical setting when parents are willing to accept the option.

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Technology and myopia

From mobile diagnostic devices to electronic medical record (EMR) systems, digitisation and artificial intelligence in eye care are fast evolving in South Asia.



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he use of technology has become integral to healthcare delivery globally. From mobile diagnostic devices for identifying causes of visual impairment (VI) to the electronic medical record (EMR) systems, digitisation is fast evolving in South Asia.

The EMR system can collect large datasets ("big data") that are characterised by the four 'V's - volume, variety, velocity and veracity.1 Refractive error data conform to all of the four criteria. Uncorrected refractive error is a major cause of visual impairment globally. The use of large datasets has the potential to understand the natural history of myopia at a population level. The advent of cloud technology enables aggregation, analysis and application of machine learning (ML) algorithms on large datasets from many hospitals.

Big data and machine learning models will help identify those children at risk of developing high myopia/ pathological myopia. However, the true potential of big data is still to be unlocked. Researchers at the LV Prasad Eye Institute are busy developing a machine learning model that will be able to predict the amount of myopia or refractive error progression in people under 25 years of age over a period of two years following their first visit.

The summary of artificial intelligence pipeline is given in Figure 1. The first step of the process is digitisation through EMR systems that includes variables such as age, gender, visual acuity, ocular diagnosis, and refractive error i.e. sphere, cylinder and axis for the prediction of myopia progression. The dataset is



Open-field auto-refractor to determine peripheral refraction. INDIA

Recent advancements in instrumentation

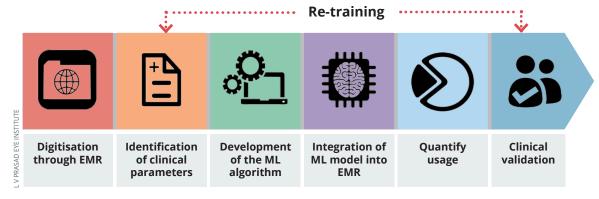
Research studies indicate that the risk factors for myopia can be classified into the following categories:

- genetic (both parents with myopia),
- optical (relative peripheral hyperopic refraction),
- structural (choroid, sclera in periphery, distorted or steeper retinal shape) and
- environmental factors (time spent outdoors and light exposure)2

Most of the instruments that determine either optical or the structural changes in the eye are designed to measure only the on-axis parameters. There is some evidence³ showing the importance of the peripheral

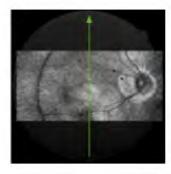
Figure 1 AEye pipeline for the application of machine learning models.

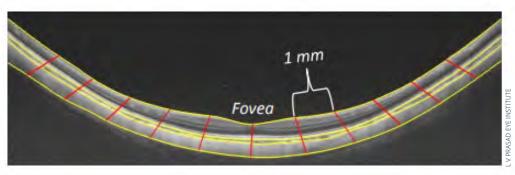
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analysed with a machine learning (ML) model using gradient boosted tree regression, which is integrated into the EMR system through the cloud. Clinical validation of the ML model for prediction of myopia progression within an error range of 0.3 D is currently on-going.

retina in the genesis of myopia and thus triggering for modifications/customisations to the existing commercial systems to counter myopia progression based on measurements from peripheral retina. "Open-field" auto-refractors, unlike the regular auto-refractors, enable the fixation target to be placed in peripheral locations in the visual field to determine peripheral refraction. This technology has been used to assess peripheral refraction up to 30 degrees along horizontal and vertical meridian.4





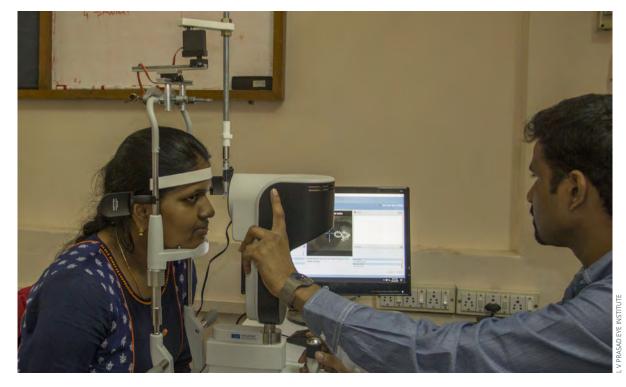
Imaging algorithms have been developed using optical coherence tomography (OCT) to determine choroidal thickness and scleral thickness in different eccentricities along different meridians. Research is underway to identify any early signs in the periphery of the eye that can act as a marker for myopia, high myopia or pathologic myopia.

With regards to the environmental factors, in the last few decades, children were found to spend more time indoors with electronic gadgets and less time outdoors. Recent evidence from animal models and human studies indicate that time spent outdoors could be a

modifiable risk factor for myopia development. This has led to development of wearable light sensing devices to quantify the amount of time spent outdoors and motivate children to increase this time.5

Emerging technologies that quantify risk factors for myopia present an opportunity to understand myopia progression and management. Customised open-field auto-refractors, state-of-the-art OCT image processing and machine learning algorithms can create a platform for characterising myopia and help in accurate prediction of its progression.

En-face image of retina (left) and segmented **B-scan** image of posterior ocular coats i.e. retina, choroid and sclera at different eccentricities (right). INDIA



Instrument setup for peripheral eye length measurements and eye shape. INDIA

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Evidence for managing quality and financial health for sustainability



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Figure 1a DMAIC strategy

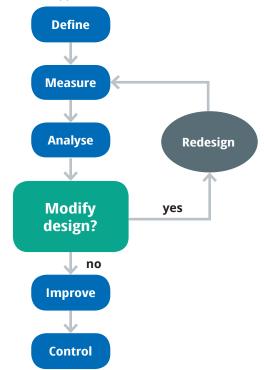
Quality improvement (QI) initiatives should be based on sound evidence to be effective since human resources, efforts and a lot of time is invested into the process.

ontinuous quality improvement is crucial for patient satisfaction which subsequently leads to financial viability. Quality improvement (QI) initiatives should be based on sound evidence to be effective since human resources, efforts and a lot of time is

invested into the process. Also, quality improvement processes affect the financial health of an organisation.

Sackett et al defined evidence-based medicine (EBM) as "the conscientious, explicit, and judicious use of current best evidence in making decisions about the care of individual patients, integrating individual clinical expertise with the best available external clinical evidence from systematic research". There are two key aspects of this evidence base:

- Quality improvement initiatives should lead to improvements in patient outcomes that are, ideally, both clinically important and cost-effective.2
- Quality improvement initiatives should be based on sound evidence of what works to implement these products or approaches.3





Continuous quality improvement is crucial for patient satisfaction. INDIA

Evidence-based quality improvement (EBQI) requires an evidence-based problem that needs assessment. Also, guidelines governing the process to be improved are essential and there has to be sufficient relevant evidence regarding potential methods for improvement (barriers/facilitators, care models). A team of experts is needed for the propagation of EBQI. EBQI aims to systematically insert evidence, knowledge, and data at all points in development of a QI intervention.

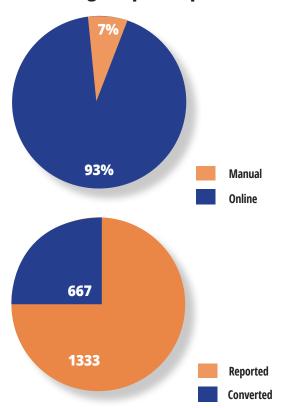
In a reputed National Accreditation Board for Hospitals (NABH) accredited eyecare hospital in North India various EBOI measures are taken in a continuous manner

A set of quality indicators (quantitative measures that can be used to monitor and evaluate governance, management, clinical, and support functions) are monitored in the hospital regularly (Table 1) which describe the patient or health related outcomes and performance. Patient care is evaluated for consistency through the indicators based on evidence-based standards of care. Every month the top management holds a meeting with the key stakeholders where

Table 1 Quality indicators monitored regularly

- Patient satisfaction rate (benchmark= 95%)
- OT starting time (benchmark=90%)
- Inter-operative time (benchmark= < 10 minutes)
- Post-operative infection rate (benchmark= <0.08%)
- Surgical scrubbing rate (benchmark= 100%)
- Surgical conversion rate (benchmark= 80%)
- Postponed cases (benchmark= 4%)
- OPD starting time
- Medical records completion rate
- Cataract outcomes
- Surgical complication rate

Percentage of prescriptions



the data is presented. The improvements, gaps and interventions are discussed in the meetings and crucial decisions are made to make continuous improvements.

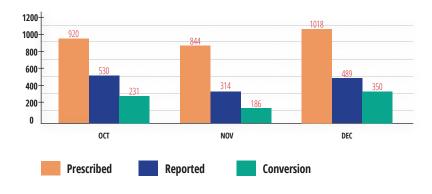
The standard operating procedures of all the departments of the hospital are reviewed and updated each year by the technical experts. Latest national and international guidelines are used for this purpose as evidence.

The quality team of the hospital also takes up various lean Six Sigma projects for continuous quality improvement. These initiatives are based on the evidence and effectiveness of DMAIC strategy. DMAIC is a data driven quality strategy used to improve processes. It is an integral part of a Six Sigma initiative, but in general can be implemented as a standalone quality improvement procedure. DMAIC is an acronym for five phases that make up the process (Figure 1a)4:

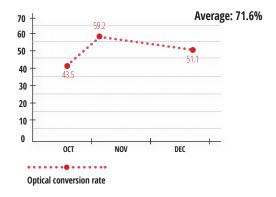
- Define the problem, improvement activity, opportunity for improvement, the project goals, and customer (internal and external) requirements.
- Measure process performance.
- Analyse the process to determine root causes of variation, poor performance (defects).
- Improve process performance by addressing and eliminating the root causes.
- Control the improved process and future process performance.

In the year 2016, continuous quality improvement projects were on:

- Project Chakshjyoti: to improve the quality of optical services and optical conversion rate (Fig.1b);
- Project to improve surgical conversion rate;



Optical conversion rate



 Project to reduce patient waiting time in out patient department (OPD)

These projects were taken up and successfully accomplished with evidence-based DMAIC strategy leading to improved quality of services, patient care and sustained the financial health of the hospital.

The hospital also uses EBOI tools like "audit and feedback" to improve its quality of services. A prescription error audit was also done at the hospital in the last financial year taking MCI (Medical Council of India) guidelines as evidence. The results were communicated to the clinicians and post intervention a re-audit was done which showed significant improvement in the system.

Operating theatre starting time is also monitored at all the secondary centres of the hospital. At one of the secondary centres it was showing higher non-compliance consistently. NABH guidelines make it mandatory to have hospital committees to ensure patient safety and prevention from hospital-acquired infections. Evidence suggests that these committees are essential and play an important role in patient care.

Hence, such examples illustrate that quality and evidence-based practice are mutually linked. To make quality improvement interventions effective, evidencebased methods are essential. This ultimately leads to improved patient care along with patient satisfaction and sustained financial health of the organisation.

Figure 1b

Illustrates the improved outcome after evidencebased quality improvement initiative undertaken in project Chakshjyoti.

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