A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CENTRAL CORNEAL THICKNESS IN DIABETICS AND NON-DIABETICS USING ULTRASONIC PACHYMETRY

By

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Dissertation submitted to the

B.L.D.E (DEEMED TO BE UNIVERSITY), VIJAYAPURA, KARNATAKA

In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SURGERY

In

OPHTHALMOLOGY

Under the guidance of

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2021

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I thank **God almighty** for all the blessings.

Dr. M.H. Patil, my guide, for his encouragement, active guidance, timely suggestions with kindness, constant supervision and also for providing necessary information regarding the dissertation. **Dr. Sunil G. Biradar, Dr. Vallabha. K,** for their support and words of encouragement to achieve new heights professionally over my course period.

Smt. K. Reddi Rani, Sri. C. Nadamuni Reddy - my parents and **C. Sai Bhava Teja Reddy**, my brother for their love and unconditional support.

Dr. R.K Ijeri, for his guidance and valuable suggestions.

Dr. Jyoti R.C for her constant support and guidance throughout the course.

Dr. Aravind.V. Patil, Principal of BLDE(DU)'s Shri B. M. Patil Medical College Hospital and Research Centre, Vijayapura, for permitting me to utilize resources in completion of my work.

Dr. Mohd Shahnawaz, statistician, for his guidance in statistical analysis.

Dr. Akhila, **Dr. Shruthi, Dr. Mariam**, **Dr. Varsha -** my friends and colleagues for their constant support, help and cooperation.

Dr. Magna, Dr.Namitha and Dr.Piyushi - my juniors for their cooperation and support.

My thanks to all the staff of library, Ophthalmology department and the hospital for their cooperation in my work.

Last but not the least I convey my heartfelt gratitude to all my patients without whose cooperation this study would be incomplete.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

LIST OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF GRAPHS

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND

Central corneal thickness (CCT) is an important indicator of corneal health status. Thicker and thinner corneas may lead to either overestimation or underestimation of intraocular pressure, which is the most important causal and treatable risk f actor for glaucoma. The findings in the previous studies on the association between diabetes and CCT are conflicting. CCT may also influence outcome in cataract and refractory surgeries.

AIM

The aim of the study is to determine an association between central corneal thickness and type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2 DM).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This is a cross-sectional and time-bound study carried out on patients attending the outpatient and inpatient departments of Ophthalmology, B.L.D.E.(DU)'s Shri B.M. Patil Medical College, Hospital and Research Centre, Vijayapura. The study includes 168 adult subjects divided into three groups:

- a. 40 patients with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus for duration more than 10 years
- b. 46 patients with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus for duration less than or equal to 10 years
- c. 82 controls

Details of the patient including history, clinical examination, investigations are recorded after obtaining consent from the patient. Clinical examination includes Visual Acuity (by Snellen's Chart), Slit Lamp Examination, Dry and Cycloplegic (if required) retinoscopy with streak retinoscope, subjective correction, Pachymetry (Ultrasound), B-Scan (if required) and intraocular pressure (by applanation tonometry).

RESULTS

A total of 168 patients were included in the study. A highly statistically significant difference was found between the mean central corneal thickness of diabetics (534.0581μ) in right eye and 534.3605μ in left eye) and non-diabetics (525.8659μ) in right eye and 525.8659µ in left eye), as the computed 'P' value through ANOVA (0.000726) is less than 0.05. Association between central corneal thickness and age, gender, laterality and duration of diabetes were not statistically significant.

CONCLUSION

A statistically significant difference in CCT was found between diabetics and non diabetics. Henceforth, it is important to measure the central corneal thickness in all diabetics, as it affects the IOP measurement which is vital for early diagnosis and timely treatment of glaucoma.

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes is fast gaining the status of a potential epidemic in India with more than 62 million diabetic individuals currently diagnosed with the disease. In 2000, India (31.7 million) topped the world with the highest number of people with Diabetes Mellitus. According to Wild et al. the prevalence of Diabetes is predicted to double globally from 171 million in 2000 to 366 million in 2030 with a maximum increase in India i.e. 79.4 million. (1)

Worldwide, the incidence of Type2 Diabetes Mellitus is increasing, reaching epidemic proportions in developing countries. The disease entity is characterized by hyperglycemia and the development of micro-macro vascular disorders, leading to functional and morphological disorders in several organs. Ocular manifestations include anterior ischemic neuropathy, glaucoma, cataract, retinal vein and arterial occlusions and retinopathy/maculopathy. The development of many of the diabetic complications is related to duration of the disease and the degree of metabolic dysregulation. (2-4)

Several studies have indicated changes in human corneal endothelial cell morphology in patients with Type2 Diabetes Mellitus. $(2.5-7)$ Hypothetically, these phenomena could be caused by chronic metabolic changes at the cellular level that primarily affect the single layer of coherent endothelial cells. (2,8) These largely hexagonal cells have practically no proliferative activity. They are responsible for maintaining the hydration of the stroma by actively removing water, thus playing a pivotal role in maintaining the transparency of the cornea. (2)

The central corneal thickness is a sensitive indicator of health of cornea and serves as an index for corneal hydration and metabolism. Thicker and thinner corneas may lead to either overestimation or underestimation of intraocular pressure, which is the most important causal and treatable risk factor for glaucoma. It is also an important indicator of patency of corneal endothelial pump and can be objectively measured by a variety of techniques like optical pachymetry, ultrasound pachymetry, confocal microscopy, ultrasound bio microscopy, optical ray path analysis or scanning slit corneal topography and optical coherence tomography. Ultrasound pachymetry is the current standard for corneal thickness measurement. As per a study done in 2008 in Malay individuals, central corneas were significantly thicker in patients with diabetes than in those without diabetes (547.2 micron vs.539.3micron, $p<0.001$). ⁽⁹⁾

Factors influencing the corneal pachymetry include the time of the day, patient age, the use of contact lens, or any corneal degeneration.

NEED FOR THE STUDY:

The effect of diabetes on corneal thickness has not yet been clearly established. Few studies state that the central corneal thickness is unaffected by diabetes, while few studies state that central corneal thickness would significantly increase in diabetics when compared to non-diabetics. Moreover, the studies on this subject in the Indian population are quite a very few. This necessitated further evaluation of the association between central corneal thickness and diabetes mellitus.

AIM OF THE STUDY

AIM OF THE STUDY

To study central corneal thickness in diabetics and non-diabetics using ultrasonic pachymetry.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Diabetes mellitus

Definition

"Diabetes mellitus is now defined as a group of metabolic diseases characterized by hyperglycemia resulting from defects in insulin secretion, insulin action, or both." (10)

Epidemiology of diabetes mellitus

Global

There is a worldwide rise in the incidence of diabetes mellitus reaching epidemic proportions in developing countries like India and China. As per the WHO global report on diabetes, the prevalence of diabetes mellitus worldwide among adults has mounted from 4.7% in 1980 to 8.5% in 2014. (11)

India

India (31.7 million) had the maximum number of people with diabetes mellitus followed by China (20.8 million) in the year 2000. (1)

According to Wild et al. the prevalence of diabetes mellitus is expected to doub le globally from 171 million in the year 2000 to 366 million in the year 2030 with the highest rise in India. Also, there is a prediction that, diabetes mellitus may affect up to 79.4 million people in India, 42.3 million in China and 30.3 million in the United States by the year 2030. (12) (13)

Classification of diabetes mellitus

Diabetes mellitus is classified into the following categories

- 1. Type 1 diabetes It occurs due to β-cell destruction resulting in insulin deficiency.
- 2. Type 2 diabetes It occurs due to a defect in insulin secretion & insulin resistance.
- 3. Gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) It is not overt diabetes and it is diagnosed in the 2nd or 3rd trimester of pregnancy.
- 4. Specific types of diabetes Ex: due to diseases of the exocrine pancreas, monogenic diabetes syndromes, chemical-induced diabetes⁽¹⁴⁾

Type 2 Diabetes ADA Diagnostic criteria

"The American Diabetes Association Expert Panel recommends a diagnosis of diabetes mellitus when 1 of the following 4 criteria are met and confirmed with retesting on a subsequent day:

- HbA1c $\geq 6.5\%$ (<5.7% = normal)
- FPG level \geq 126 mg/dL (7.0 mmol/L)
- 2-hour plasma glucose level \geq 200 mg/dL (11.1 mmol/L) with 75-g OGTT
- Random plasma glucose level ≥ 200 mg/dl (11.1 mmol/L) in a patient with classic symptoms of hyperglycaemia, including polyphagia, polyuria, and polydipsia." (15)

Effects of hyperglycemia on the eye

Lids/Lashes

Diabetic patients are more prone for infections and hence at a higher risk of developing blepharitis (16), orbital cellulitis (17), recurrent hordeolum. (18)

Conjunctiva

According to a study conducted by Siefart et al, 86% of diabetics showed pathological changes in conjunctiva. (19)

Another study reported an increase in squamous metaplasia and reduction in the density of goblet cells in diabetics. (20,21)

Cornea

Various structural and physiological changes occur in diabetics and are discussed elaborately later.

Iris

One of the most deleterious effect on iris is neovascularization. It is often present around the pupillary margin but in advanced cases, it may involve the angle of anterior chamber and even the whole of iris. (22) These changes result in neo vascular glaucoma.

Depigmentation of iris epithelium occurs which results in the release of pigments. (23)

Pupil

Diabetics present a small pupil with normal light reflexes because the sympathetic nerve supply is affected. (24) Histological studies on irides revealed loss of nerve

6

terminals from the dilator muscle. (25) Small pupil causes intraoperative difficulties leading to more manipulations of the pupil during surgery, which can result in excessive postoperative inflammation.

Changes in refraction and lens

Furushima et al conducted a study in Otia, Japan to establish changes in refraction in healthy subjects by inducing an acute hyperglycemic state. The purpose of the study was to determine changes in intraocular pressure and myopia after a load of glucose. Oral glucose tolerance tests were performed on 7 healthy young volunteers with normal visual acuity. After the glucose load, hematologic parameters and changes in the refractive system were measured periodically for 150 minutes. After the glucose load, a raise was observed in the plasma glucose level, plasma osmosis level, myopic change in refractive power, ocular hypotension and thickening of lens. Power of residual accommodation was excelled by the degree of myopic change. Normalization of plasma glucose level resulted in normalization of intraocular pressure and reversal of myopic changes. These findings suggest that the myopic changes ass ociated with hyperglycemia were caused by lens thickening, which was due to a reduction in the tension of the zonular fibers of Zinn. (26)

Wiemer et al reported that diabetes has an effect on the refractive power of posterior cornea, but the total corneal refractive power remained unaffected. This suggests that the refractive changes in diabetics were due to changes in lens. (27)

Diabetics have an increased risk of early onset cataracts. Many large population studies such as Blue Mountains Eye Study (28) and Beaver Dam Eye Study (29) reported an increased incidence and prevalence of posterior subcapsular cataracts in diabetics.

The following are the hypotheses which explain lens changes in diabetics

1. The first mechanism is increased flux mediated by aldose reductase.

2. The second mechanism is glucose mediated activation of a specific isoform of protein kinase C that results in early onset cataracts in diabetics.

3. The third mechanism is increase in the production of advanced glycation end products (AGEs), which are produced by the non-enzymatic reaction of aldehydes such as glucose. (30)

Aqueous humor

According to some studies, the effect of diabetes on aqueous humor dynamics is not consistent, while some studies reported a decreased rate of aqueous humor formation in diabetics. (31-32) Few studies reported that this decreased aqueous humor secretion is mild and not clinically significant (33)

Vitreous

Non-enzymatic glycation and abnormal collagen crosslinking (34) occur in the vitreous of diabetics which can result in posterior vitreous detachment (PVD) and precocious vitreous liquefaction. (35-36)

Retina

Small vessels become vulnerable to damage in diabetic microangiopathy due to hyperglycemia. Also, retinal cells are directly affected by hyperglycemia.

1. The following are the mechanisms of cell death

- a. Intracellular sorbitol accumulation,
- b. activation of a specific isoform of protein kinase C,
- c. oxidative stress due to radical excess,
- d. increased production of advanced glycation end products.

A salient early feature is disruption of ion channel function.

- 2. Damage to the retinal capillaries is marked by the death of pericytes, loss of vascular smooth muscle cells, thickening of the capillary basement membrane and proliferation of the endothelial cells.
- 3. Haematological abnormalities seen are erythrocyte and leucocyte abnormalities, increased platelet adhesion and increased plasma viscosity. This results in capillary leakage and occlusion.
- 4. Capillary non perfusion results in retinal hypoxia, which in turn leads to neovascularization. Neovascularization extends both preretinally and intraretinally, where intraretinally they are referred to as intraretinal microvascular abnormalities. Imbalance between angiogenic and anti – angiogenic factors is the cause for this new vessel growth. Various angiogenic factors such as vascular endothelial growth factor, platelet derived growth factor and hepatocyte growth factor are produced to revascularize hypoxic retina. (37)

Brownlee M in his study on biochemistry and molecular cell biology in the evolution of diabetic retinopathy reported that increased polyol pathway flux, increased advanced glycation end products (AGEs), activation of a specific isoform of protein kinase C (PKC) and increased hexosamine pathway flux are the mechanisms responsible for diabetic retinopathy. (38)

Diabetic retinopathy is broadly categorized into non proliferative diabetic retinopathy and proliferative diabetic retinopathy.

In non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy, there is development of microaneurysms, dot and blot hemorrhages, exudates and venous changes. It is a stage prior to proliferative diabetic retinopathy.

Proliferative diabetic retinopathy is marked by the formation of new blood vessels on or within 1disc diameter of the optic disc and /or formation of new vessels elsewhere in the fundus. (39)

Cornea

Cornea is a transparent and avascular tissue. It consists of 6 layers from anterior to posterior:

- Epithelium,
- Bowman's membrane,
- Stroma,
- Dua's layer
- Descemet's membrane &
- Endothelium.

Fig 1: Layers of cornea

It measures 11–12 mm horizontally and 10–11 mm vertically in adults. At the centre, it is approximately 500–600 μ thick and increases in thickness gradually towards the periphery.

Corneal Epithelium

The corneal epithelium consists of 4–6 layers. Superficial 1–2 layers are squamous cells, then 2–3 layers of broad wing cells and the innermost is the layer of columnar basal cells. It is 40–50 μ thick. An optically smooth surface is formed by the epithelium and tear film. Penetration of tear fluid into the stroma is prevented by tight junctions between superficial epithelial cells. Other layers arise from the continuous proliferation of the limbal stem cells, which subsequently differentiate into superficial cells. These differentiated cells become coated with microvilli on the outermost surface with maturation & then they desquamate into tears. Differentiation approximately takes 7–14 days. Basal epithelial cells produce a continuous, 50- nmthick basement membrane, which is made up of type IV collagen, laminin & other proteins. Corneal clarity depends on the tight packing of epithelial cells.

Bowman Layer

Anterior to the corneal stroma lies bowman's layer. It is an acellular condensate of the anterior most portion of the stroma. It is 15μ thick and maintains the shape of the cornea. It does not regenerate.

Corneal Stroma

90% of the total corneal thickness is constituted by the corneal stroma. For a clear cornea, the regular arrangement of stromal cells (keratocytes), fibers and extracellular matrix is necessary. Keratocytes differ in size and density & form a 3-dimensional network throughout the cornea. They are located between the stromal collagen lamellae and are flattened fibroblasts. They continuously digest and produce stromal molecules. The density of keratocytes declines with age, by 0.9% per year for anterior density $& 0.3\%$ per year for posterior density. It also decreases with refractive laser surgery.

The corneal stroma consists of an extracellular matrix made of collagens and proteoglycans. Type I & type V fibrillar collagens are entwined with filaments of type VI collagen. Major corneal proteoglycans are decorin (associated with dermatan sulfate) & lumican (associated with keratan sulfate).

Fig 2: Keratocytes are flattened fibroblasts situated between the stromal lamellae

Corneal transparency is maintained by regulating the water content of corneal stroma at 78%. Intact epithelial and endothelial barriers and endothelial pump f unctioning, which is linked to an ion-transport system regulated by temperature dependent enzymes such as Na+, K+-ATPase maintain corneal hydration. Stromal glycosaminoglycans, which are negatively charged repel each other, resulting in a swelling pressure (SP). Since the intraocular pressure (IOP) tends to compress the cornea, the total imbibition pressure of the corneal stroma is taken as IOP – SP. Corneal hydration changes from anterior to posterior and increases closer to endothelium.

Descemet Membrane

The Descemet membrane is considered as the basement membrane of the corn eal endothelium. It is 3 μ at birth & increases in size to 10–12 μ by adulthood. This is because the endothelium gradually lays down a posterior amorphous, non -banded

zone. Though controversial, a novel layer called **pre-Descemet layer or Dua's layer** in the posterior part of the cornea has been reported. This layer may be of importance while performing deep anterior lamellar keratoplasty. The Schwalbe line defines the end of Descemet membrane and the beginning of trabecular meshwork and it's a gonioscopic landmark.

Corneal Endothelium

Corneal endothelium is composed of a single layer of closely interdigitated cells organized in a mosaic pattern of mostly hexagonal shapes. Human endothelial cells do not proliferate in vivo, but they can divide in cell culture. In case of cell loss, especially due to trauma or surgery, the defective area is covered by the enlargement and spread of residual cells or perhaps peripheral stem cells. These cell findings can be noted on specular microscopy as polymegathism (variability in cell size) $\&$ polymorphism (variability in cell shape). The endothelial cell concentration is highest at the periphery. Central endothelial cell density declines with age at the rate of approximately 0.6%/year. It reduces from a count of about 3400 cells/mm2 at age 15 years to about 2300 cells/mm2 by age 85 years. The normal central endothelial cell count is between 2000 and 3000 cells/mm2. Those eyes with an endothelial cell count below 500 cells/mm2 are at risk of corneal edema. The endothelium maintains corneal transparency by regulating corneal hydration and maintains stromal deturgescence by its barrier function to the aqueous humor & by its metabolic pump function, that moves ions and draws water osmotically, from the stroma into the aqueous humor. Decreased endothelial cell density causes increased permeability and insufficient pump functioning resulting in clinically evident edema.

Both structural and functional changes in cornea have been studied and reported in diabetics. Diabetics are at a higher risk of various corneal complications such as superficial punctuate keratitis, persistent epithelial defects, recurrent corneal erosions, corneal endothelial damage. (40-42) These corneal complications are associated with tear film abnormalities, improper adhesion between epithelial cells and the basement membrane and reduced corneal sensations. (40), (43)

Changes in corneal biomechanical properties and corneal thickness have also been reported. Cornea, in total has five layers. The major bulk (up to 90% of its thickness) of cornea is the stroma which is externally bounded by bowman's membrane and epithelium, internally bounded by Descemet's membrane and endothelium. Cornea is composed of 78% water, 15%collagen, 5%other proteins, 0.7% keratan sulphate, 0.3%chondroitin sulphate, 1% salts. (44)

REVIEW OF FEW RELATED STUDIES

Studies on changes in corneal epithelium and endothelium:

 Taylor et al obtained corneas from 12 donor eyes of patients with maturity onset diabetes mellitus and studied corneal epithelial basement membranes by transmission electron microscopy. Similar tissue was obtained from 12 donor eyes from age matched (within 2 years) and race matched nondiabetic individuals. The mean corneal epithelial basement membrane thickness in nondiabetic individuals was 0.33 fim $(\pm 0.11 \text{ S.D.})$, which gives a normal range of 0.11 to 0.55 f im. None of the nondiabetic basement membranes lie outside this range. The basement membranes of 4 out of the 12 diabetic patients exceeded this range of thickness. No sex difference or race difference was noted in the basement membrane thickness. And no clear trend was observed with age. Eight diabetic patients and six nondiabetic patients showed multilaminate basement membranes. This suggests that multilamination was more related to basement membrane thickness than to the absence or presence of diabetes. (4.5)

 Choo et al did a hospital based observational study in which they included 200 eyes from 100 controls and 100 type II diabetic patients and they used specular microscopy and pachymetry to measure endothelial cell density, size, hexagonality, coefficient of variation in cell area and corneal thickness. It was observed that endothelial cell density in the diabetic group $(2541.6 \pm 516.4 \text{ cells/mm2})$ was strikingly lower than that of the control group $(2660.1 \pm 515.5 \text{ cells/mm2})$. ⁽⁴⁶⁾

 Lee et al compared the corneal thickness and corneal endothelial morphology of diabetics with age matched healthy control subjects. They performed ultrasound pachymetry and noncontact specular microscopy on 100 control subjects and 200

16

patients with diabetes. A partial correlation 24 coefficient was used to find correlation between subject parameters and duration of diabetes. It was found that the diabetics had thicker corneas, less hexagonality and cell density and more irregular cell size of the corneal endothelium when compared to controls. Central corneal thickness and the coefficient of variation for cell size were significantly higher in diabetics of over 10 years' duration when compared to diabetics of less than 10 years' duration. The corneal endothelial cell density and percentage of hexagonal cells were lesser in diabetics of over 10 years' duration when compared to diabetics of less than 10 years duration. (47)

 Roszkowska et al studied corneal endothelium in both type I and type II diabetics. A total of 75 diabetics divided into type I and type II groups $\&$ 62 healthy individuals were included in the study. The mean central corneal thickness, endothelial cell density and morphology were measured and statistical analysis was performed. All the parameters that were evaluated showed a significant difference in both the diabetic groups with reduction in the mean endothelial cell density of 5% in type II diabetic group and of 11% in type I diabetic group when compared to the normal age-matched control group. Significant alterations in endothelial cell morphology were noted. The central corneal thickness was significantly more in diabetics, with $p < 0.01$ in type I diabetic group and $p < 0.05$ in type II diabetic group. This study concludes that corneal endothelium in diabetics should be regarded as a tissue under continuous metabolic stress with high vulnerability, mainly if there is any external insult such as surgical procedure. (6)

 Busted et al captured corneal endothelium by specular microscopy in 81 insulin dependent juvenile diabetic patients and found minute folds in the corneal endothelial cell layer among 13 diabetics from the diabetic group and in 1 individual among the normal group. There was no significant difference found in corneal endothelial cell density and dystrophic changes between diabetics and normal individuals. The increased corneal thickness in diabetics is deciphered as minimal corneal swelling. It presents very early in the disease and hence may be regarded as one of the earliest changes that can be clinically detectable in the diabetic eye. (48)

 Calvo- Maroto et al compared 77 eyes of type 2 diabetics (33 males and 44 females) with 80 eyes of healthy individuals (42 males and 38 females) in the age group of 38 to 56 years. Central corneal thickness, corneal endothelial cell density (ECD), HbA1c levels, and Goldmann applanation tonometry were measured in all. It was observed that the CCT was remarkably higher and ECD was notably lower in long-term diabetics $(10 \text{ years} + \text{ since diagnosis})$ when compared to short-term diabetics (\lt 0.001). No significant differences were found in CCT ($p = 0.30$) and ECD $(p = 0.31)$ between the control groups. (49)

Schultz et al conducted a study on corneas from 25 patients with type II diabetes mellitus for a duration of more than ten years by studying them under specular microscopy. And for comparison, 34 corneas from 21 age-matched nondiabetic individuals were examined. They also compared 31 corneas from 17 patients with type I (juvenile-onset) diabetes with 41 corneas from 23 age-matched normal volunteers. It was concluded from the study that corneal endothelium in type II diabetics showed no difference in endothelial cell density but showed a significantly higher coefficient of variation, decrease in the percentage of hexagonal cells & a low figure coefficient when compared to age matched nondiabetic individuals. Similar cell changes were noted in corneal endothelium with type I diabetes, but these changes were found in earlier decades itself. Moreover, they found a markedly higher rate of cell loss in type I diabetics leading to a significant decrease in cell density in 4th& 5thdecades. These results clearly suggest that the corneal endothelium is morphologically abnormal in diabetics. (42)

 Keoleian et al performed specular microscopy, anterior segment ocular fluorophotometry, corneal pachymetry and tonometry on 14 patients with chronic type I diabetes and non-proliferative retinopathy and compared these findings with those of 14 age-matched control subjects. It was concluded from the study that the eyes of diabetic patients showed an increase in the coefficient of variation of endothelial cell area, decrease in the percentage of hexagonal endothelial cells, raised IOP and increased corneal autofluorescence. Also, they found no difference in corneal thickness or endothelial cell permeability to fluorescein between the two groups. (50)

 Storr Paulsen et al conducted a study to determine corneal endothelial cell density and morphology in type II diabetics and non-diabetics; to correlate potential differences to glycemic status. This prospective clinical study included 107patients with type II diabetes mellitus and 128 non-diabetics. More than 4 HbA1c tests were performed on diabetics (mean 4.1; range 2–14) at an interval of at least 3 months to reflect the long-term glycemic status. The parameters recorded were endothelial cell density, percentage of hexagonal cells, variation in endothelial cell size (CV) and central corneal thickness (CCT). No difference was found in corneal endothelial cell density, percentage of hexagonal cells and variation in cell size between Type II diabetics and normal subjects, but a significant increase in CCT (538 versus 546 microns, $p < 0.05$) was noted in diabetics when compared to normal subjects. Also, this study found that lower endothelial cell counts were associated with higher HbA1c levels ($p < 0.05$) in the diabetic group, but HbA1c did not have any impact on CCT. ⁽²⁾

 Sudhir et al conducted a population-based study to estimate the prevalence of type 2 diabetes mellitus and diabetic retinopathy in Chennai, South India by enrolling patients from the Sankara Nethralaya's Diabetic Retinopathy Epidemiology and Molecular Genetic Study. A total of 1191 cases and 121 controls were recruited into the study. In all the subjects, central corneal thickness was measured using ultrasound pachymeter and corneal endothelial morphological features were studied using noncontact specular microscopy. It was found that the mean corneal endothelial cell density was lesser in diabetics when compared to controls $(2550 \pm 326 \text{ vs. } 2634 \pm 120 \text{ vs. } 2634 \pm 1$ 256; $P = 0.001$). No difference was observed in the mean pachymetry values, percentage of hexagonality, and coefficient of variation of cell size between diabetics and controls. (51)

Studies on changes in corneal stroma:

It is hypothesized that few ion transport systems exist in the corneal endothelial cells to maintain the hydration and transparency of the corneal stroma. These ion transport systems mainly are $Na + - K + - ATP$ ase, carbonic anhydrase and bicarbonate ions systems. The stroma imbibes water and swells up when the corneal epithelial and endothelial cell barrier is damaged, ultimately resulting in increased hydration of the corneal stroma and thickness. (30)

Studies on hyperglycemia induced biochemical processes in the cornea:

Hyperglycemia is regarded a vital factor in the pathogenesis of diabetes and several hyperglycemia-induced biochemical processes have been suggested. (52) One such biochemical process is elevated glucose to decreased Na+, K+-ATPase activity in the corneal endothelial cells. (53) Hyperglycemia causes intracellular accumulation of sorbitol, an osmotic agent leading to the swelling of endothelial cells. This results in reduction in the endothelial pump function and ATP production. (46)

In vitro studies showed that polyhydroxy compounds like glucose, galactose, galactitol, sorbitol, or xylitol inhibit Na+, K+-ATPase activity in cultured bovine corneal endothelial cells, while in vivo studies showed reduced Na+, K+-ATPase activity in the corneal endothelial cells of diabetic rabbits after 10 weeks of alloxaninduced hyperglycemia. (54), (55) It was found that the diabetic rabbits had a higher baseline corneal thickness, decreased response of corneal swelling and slower recovery from hypoxic edema when compared to nondiabetic rabbits. This was not surprising as $Na+$, $K+ATP$ ase is a major component of the endothelial fluid pump. (56)

Studies on long term corneal structural changes due to hyperglycemia:

 Hyperglycemia associated with diabetes can cause increased protein glycosylation leading to increased production of advanced glycosylation end products (AGEs). (57) Studies show raised levels of AGEs in corneas of older diabetics. Increased AGEs in tissues causes increased collagen cross linking which results in gradual stiffening of corneal structure, ultimately leading to changes in corneal biomechanical properties. (58)

 Abrupt correction of hyperglycemia in diabetics causes refractive changes in the eye, which can be attributed to changes in the morphology and function of the lens. **Zengin et al** proposed that hyperglycemia affects not only the corneal hydration, but also the qualitative and quantitative corneal changes such as refractive index, corneal curvature and thickness. (59-61)

21
Studies on corneal biomechanical changes in diabetics:

 The idea about the viscosity of the cornea is given by corneal hysteresis. Therefore, it reflects changes in the organization of corneal stromal collagen, whereas corneal resistance factor is associated with stiffness of cornea.

 Kotecha et al performed a study on corneal thickness and age-related biomechanical properties of the cornea using Ocular Response Analyzer. This instrument, Ocular Response Analyzer (ORA) measures the corneal hysteresis (CH) to rapid indentation by an air jet. The difference in applanation pressures (P1, P2) between the rising phase and falling phase of the air jet is CH.

 They performed a characterization study and a validation study. The purpose of characterization study was to analyze the intraocular pressure (IOP)– dependence of CH and to characterize the performance of ORA. The purpose of validation study was to evaluate association between CH and both age and central corneal thickness (CCT).

 "For the characterization study, data were collected from 105 untreated subjects (45 ocular hypertensive patients and 60 normal subjects; mean age, 60 years, range, 26– 82). GAT and ORA measurements were performed before and af ter IOP lowering of 32 one randomly selected eye with apraclonidine drops. The change in P1 and P2 (arbitrary units) in relation to change in GAT IOP was analyzed to calibrate the instrument. The relation between P1, P2, and CCT was explored and ORA IOP was derived from the analyses. For the validation study, ORA and GAT IOP and CCT were measured in 144 eyes of 144 untreated subjects (mean age, 58 years; range, 19 – 83). The characterization calculations were applied to the dataset and values of CH and ORA IOP were calculated. The relationship between CH and both subject age and CCT was determined. The associations between CH and CCT and between ORA and GAT IOPs, were investigated by linear regression analysis. The agreement between measuring devices was calculated. In the characterization study, P1 changed by 6.41 arbitrary units for every 1-mm Hg change in GAT IOP. CH (P1 – P2) changed by −1.60 arbitrary units for every 1-mm Hg change in GAT IOP. For each unit change in P2, P1 changed by 1.27 units. From this association a new IOP-independent corneal factor was derived $[P1 - (P2/1.27)]$ and is termed the corneal constant factor (CCF; mm Hg). ORA IOP normalized for CCF was defined as $P2 - CCF$ (mm Hg). The CCF (mm Hg) was associated with CCT (micrometers) and with age: $CCF = [(0.036 \cdot$ CCT) – $(0.028 \cdot age)$] + 1.06 (adjusted r 2 = 0.34; P < 0.0001 for CCT, P = 0.007 f or age). Normalized ORA IOP measurements were not associated with CCT. GAT IOP was associated with CCT and CCF—more strongly with the latter: GAT IOP = $(0.03 \cdot$ CCT) +1.52 (r 2 = 0.06, P = 0.002); GAT IOP = $(0.65 \cdot CCF) + 4.5$ (r 2 = 0.13, P < 0.0001). The mean difference (95% limits of agreement) between GAT and normalized ORA IOP was 0.1 (−6.6 to +6.8) mm Hg. The CCF describes an IOP independent biomechanical property of the cornea that increases with thicker CCT and decreases with greater age. It is moderately strongly associated with CCT and yet explains more of the interindividual variation in GAT IOP than does CCT. Normalized ORA IOP measurements are not associated with CCT." (62)

 Scheler et al performed a study on 35 healthy individuals and 31diabetics to find out whether corneal resistance factor (CRF) and corneal hysteresis (CH) are affected in diabetics and to know whether these parameters are related to HbA1c. Diabetics were divided into 2 groups, group 1 with HbA1c <7% (n = 14) and group 2 with HbA1c $>7\%$ (n = 17). CH and CRF were evaluated by using ocular response analyzer (ORA). It was found that CH and CRF are significantly higher in uncontrolled diabetics when compared to healthy individuals and well-controlled diabetics. And they observed a correlation of CH and CRF with HbA1c, which suggests that the biomechanical properties of cornea change based on glycemic control. (56)

 Yazgan et al measured biomechanical parameters of cornea by using ocular response analyzer in 156 diabetics and 74 healthy individuals. Subjects were categorized into 3 groups: Group 1 consisted of healthy control subjects, Group 2 with diabetics having HbA1C <7% and Group 3 with diabetics having HbA1C \geq 7%. It was found that corneal biomechanical properties were affected in both the diabetic groups when compared to healthy subjects. ⁽⁵⁷⁾

 According to **Herse et al**, abnormal corneal hydration in diabetics causes increased corneal thickness and altered corneal endothelial morphology. In this study, the influence of hyperglycemia on corneal hydration control was evaluated by experimenting on normal and alloxan-induced diabetic rabbits. The parameters assessed in the study were:

- (1) stromal dry weight, hydration& swelling pressure
- (2) corneal thickness & contact lens-induced edema recovery responses
- (3) activity of endothelial homogenate sodium/potassium adenosine triphosphatase (Na+/K+ ATPase)

The study revealed that uncontrolled hyperglycemia in the rabbit for 10 weeks resulted in abnormal corneal hydration control, which was suggested by increased corneal thickness, increased stromal hydration & decreased capability to recover f rom contact lens induced corneal edema. No significant difference was noted between swelling pressures and dry weights of the normal and diabetic stroma. Reduction in the activity of endothelial homogenate $Na + / K + ATP$ ase in diabetic rabbit strongly indicates that dysfunction of the endothelial fluid pump is a major component in abnormal corneal hydration control. (54)

Studies on corneal metabolic and permeability changes in diabetics:

 Keoleian et al performed specular microscopy, anterior segment ocular fluorophotometry, corneal pachymetry and tonometry on 14 patients with chronic type I diabetes and non-proliferative retinopathy and compared these findings with those of 14 age-matched control subjects. It was concluded from the study that the eyes of diabetic patients showed an increase in the coefficient of variation of endothelial cell area, decrease in the percentage of hexagonal endothelial cells, raised IOP and increased corneal autofluorescence. Also, they found no difference in corneal thickness or endothelial cell permeability to fluorescein between the two groups. Therefore, despite the structural abnormality in the endothelial cells, they were unable to find any abnormality in endothelial cell function in diabetic corneas in the unstressed state. (50)

Larsson et al conducted a study by enrolling 49 patients with type I diabetes mellitus and 60 patients with type II diabetes mellitus from Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minn. 31 normal subjects were taken as controls. Using fluorophotometry, corneal endothelial permeability and corneal autofluorescence were evaluated. It was f ound that there was no difference in endothelial permeability and cell density between both type I & type II diabetic and control groups. Pleomorphism, polymegathism, increased corneal thickness& autofluorescence were noted in type 1 diabetics when compared to controls. The severity of diabetic retinopathy was markedly correlated only with corneal autofluorescence. The corneas of type I diabetics showed abnormalities in the morphology of endothelial cell characteristics & corneal autofluorescence. No abnormalities were found in the corneal endothelial cell permeability in both type I &type II diabetics. (63)

Central Corneal thickness (CCT) in diabetics

 Central corneal thickness was evaluated in diabetics in various studies. (9), (64- 69 . CCT is an important variable which affects IOP $\&$ is also an independent risk factor for glaucoma. IOP is overestimated by thick CCT and underestimated thin CCT. (70)

Central corneal thickness in normal eyes:

Normal corneal thickness varies from central to peripheral limbus. It ranges from 0.7 to 0.9 mm at the limbus and 0.49 mm to 0.56 mm at the centre. The Central corneal thickness (CCT) value of more than or equal to 0.7 mm is suggestive of endothelial decompensation. According to various studies, mean CCT is 0.51-0.52 mm. Due to age-related anatomic changes, it was found that cornea is markedly thicker in the age group of $40 - 80$ years when compared to individuals below 40 years. Peripheral corneal thickness is asymmetric; thinnest is temporal cornea followed by the inferior cornea.

Factors affecting central corneal thickness:

- CCT is higher in young, males& diabetics.
- No correlation with refraction or systemic hypertension.
- Mean CCT of black children is thinner when compared to white children.
- African-Americans have thinner corneas when compared to whites.
- PITX2/Pitx2 mutation occurring in Axenfeld-Rieger malformations leads to decreased corneal thickness.

Role in clinical practice:

1) **Glaucoma:** for applying correction factor to determine actual intraocular pressure (IOP).

2) **Congenital Glaucoma:** to evaluate the amount of corneal edema.

3) **Refractive surgeries:**

a) for screening preoperatively

b) to plan treatment for keratorefractive procedures like LASIK, astigmatic keratotomy and earlier even prior to radial keratotomy.

4) Postoperative follow up in patients who undergo keratoplasty to determine endothelial cell function.

5) **Contact lens:** in orthokeratology and to assess corneal edema.

6) To assess the thinness of corneas in corneal disorders such as Terrien's and Pellucid marginal degenerations, keratoconus, keratoglobus & post LASIK ectasia.

Correction factor: It is recommended that in chronic eye diseases like glaucoma and glaucoma suspects for every 50 microns rise in CCT, the recorded IOP should be decreased by 2.5mm Hg.

Methods of Measurements

1. Ultrasonic techniques

a. Conventional ultrasonic pachymetry

b. Ultrasound Bio microscopy (UBM)

2. Optical Techniques

- a. Manual Optical Pachymetry
- b. Specular Microscopy
- c. Scanning Slit Technology
- d. Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT)
- e. Optical Low Coherence Interferometry
- f. Confocal Microscopy
- g. Laser Doppler interferometry

3. Alternative Measurements

- a. Pentacam
- b. Pachycam
- c. Ocular response analyzer (ORA)

Ultrasonic Pachymetry

This is the most commonly used and gold standard method these days. The ultrasonic pachymeter was introduced by Henderson and Kremerin 1980.

Principle

The ultrasonic pachymetry measurements depend on the reflection of ultrasonic waves from the anterior and posterior corneal surfaces. The time dif ference (transit time) between echoes of ultrasonic signal pulses from the transducer of the probe and the reflected signal from the front and back surface of the cornea to the transducer is measured.

Corneal thickness is calculated by following simple formula:

Corneal thickness = (Transit time \times Propagation velocity) / 2

The velocity of sound through normal cornea is taken as 1640 m / sec.

Components:

There are 3 main components in Ultrasonic pachymeter

a. Probe handle It has a piezoelectric crystal that vibrates at 10 - 20 MHz It is a hand-held probe that is very small, light and easy to use.

b. Transducer It sends ultrasound rays to the cornea through the probe & receives echoes from cornea.

c. Probe tip Diameter of the probe tip should not be > 2 mm, so that the area where the tip of the probe is kept can be seen and also ultrasound beam spreads over a lesser area. The tip of the probe tip should be smooth so that damage to the corneal epithelium can be avoided. While performing, the probe tip should be placed perpendicular to the centre of cornea. Lateral displacement of the probe shows elevated readings as the corneal thickness increases peripherally.

Fig 3: Ultrasonic pachymetry

Advantages

- Simpler $&$ fast, hence easier for the paramedical staff to use
- Minimal observer judgement is needed, so it is consistent and repeatable between observers and hence interobserver variation can be eliminated.
- Portable
- No coupling agent is required
- Can be used intraoperatively

Disadvantages

- Contact method
- Accuracy depends on perpendicular application of the probe on the cornea
- Reproducibility depends on precise placement of the probe on the centre of the cornea.
- Difficult to control the patients gaze during repeated measurements.
- Speed of the sound becomes variable depending on whether the tissue is wet or dry.
- Resolution is low
- Inaccurate in oedematous corneas

Ultrasound Bio microscopy (UBM)

 It (Paradigm Med Ind, Inc. Salt Lake City, UT) is a high-resolution ultrasound machine which captures the anterior segment of eye. It has a 12.5 - 50 MHz probe, whose depth of penetration is lesser (4 mm) than the conventional and it gives realtime images. Corneal thickness is analysed with the help of a caliper, that is incorporated in the machine or with the UBM software after acquiring images.

Fig 4 : UBM showing normal cornea with two smooth highly reflective surface echoes from epithelial surface and bowman's membrane. Stroma shows low reflectivity. Descemet's membrane / endothelial surface has smooth highly reflective line

Fig 5: UBM showing edematous cornea. Epithelium is thickened and irregular. Stroma is thickened and shows increased reflectivity.

Advantages:

- Along with corneal thickness, anterior segment examination (high resolution) can also be carried out.
- Useful in opaque corneas.
- Layers of cornea can be made out.

Disadvantages:

- The main disadvantage is that, it requires immersing of the eye in a coupling fluid.
- Contact method.
- Patient is required to lie supine during the examination
- Machine cannot be used intraoperatively.
- Standardization is difficult.

Manual optical pachymetry

Central corneal thickness is measured using Haag-Streit slit lamp using the pachymeter attachment (Haag Streit AG, Koeniz, Switzerland). It is the prototype of optical pachymeter. Through the narrow diaphragm of the instrument, a slit beam is

projected perpendicularly onto the cornea. It comes with or without a Mishima-Hedbys fixation attachment to ensure the perpendicularity of the incident beam. The instrument consists of 2plano glass plates that split the image of the corneal parallelepiped. The regular eyepiece of the slit-lamp is replaced by uniocular rightsided split-image eyepiece.

Methods to measure corneal thickness:

"Just touch" method:

The observer moves the instrument scale until the focused upper half of the corneal image is positioned so that its posterior surface (endothelial border) just touches the anterior surface (epithelial border) of the lower image. This method is easier and more practical.

"Overlap method":

The bright line of endothelial border overlaps with bright line of epithelial border. From the scale on the instrument, the corneal thickness is then directly read. The range of measurement is from 0 to 1.2 mm, with a least gradation of 0.02 mm.

Fig 6: Manual optical pachymetry

Disadvantages:

- Lack of accuracy. It is found that the accuracy of optical pachymeter values using the Haag-Streit attachment can be increased by correcting for the corneal curvature. Usual range of error with an optical pachymeter is $\pm 2\%$.
- Lack of repeatability, which is due to fixed position of the fixation target. Moreover, the end point is subjected to observers' bias and the width of slit lamp beam lacks compensation.
- Requires slit lamp and hence has poor portability and so, cannot be used in operating room.

Specular pachymetry

It is the oldest method to evaluate corneal thickness.

Principle:

The distance between the anterior and the posterior surfaces of cornea is measured and depends on the light rays focusing through front and back of cornea.

Types:

1. Contact

2. Non-contact

The newer non-contact machines are better because they do not touch the cornea. They are quick and easy $\&$ also equipped with auto-focus and image analysis program. But readings measured by non-contact method are found to be significantly thinner than contact method.

Advantages

- Operator independent
- Non invasive
- Simultaneous cell count measurement

Disadvantages

- Exact point where the reading is taken cannot be known.
- Risk of infection and epithelial damage with contact method.
- Time consuming.
- Less reproducibility.
- Cannot be used in operation room
- Clinical use is limited to corneas free of edema, scarring, deposits or opacities that may distort light transmission.

Fig 7: Specular microscopy

Slit-scanning pachymetry

The Orbscan II (Bausch & Lomb, Rochester, NY, USA) uses scanning slit technology. It assesses multiple functions of the cornea, thickness, anterior and posterior topography, elevation& anterior chamber depth. It gives pictorial representation of corneal topography in the form of 4-coin map.

Fig 8: Orbscan

Principle:

By comparing to a best fit sphere, it measures anterior and posterior corneal elevations and the difference between elevation of anterior and posterior corneal surface is calculated.

Advantages

- Wide field pachymetry.
- Thinnest point of the cornea can be identified both by value and location. In a normal eye, thinnest point is very near to the geometric centre of the cornea. If the thinnest point is off centre, then it is suggestive of corneal health problems like keratoconus.
- Corneal alignment is not required.
- Used to calculate ablation depth $\&$ optical zones in corneal refractive surgeries.

Disadvantages

- The main drawback of Orbscan is that corneal thickness is underestimated in Keratoconus, post-PRK, and post-LASIK eyes due to the following reasons:
- Scattering from corneal haze and stromal interface, which interferes with the identification of the corneal surface reflections.
- The measurements are adjusted for normal prolate shape of cornea. If there's a change in shape, that interferes with the reconstruction algorithms.
- It has got importance in refractive surgery. The amount of residual bed that is to be left should be greater if pachymetry is done with Orbscan than with conventional ultrasound. On an average, it is 28 microns higher with the Orbscan than with the ultrasound pachymeter in normal eyes & 13 micron lower in post-LASIK eyes.
- Not fast enough for the pachymetry mapping due to motion artifacts.
- When clinically significant haze is present, Orbscan system shows decreased accuracy in measuring corneal thickness.

Anterior Segment Optical Coherence Tomography (ASOCT)

ASOCT (Visante-Carl Zeiss Meditec AG) is a high resolution, non- contact optical coherence tomography specialized for anterior segment. It gives high resolution corneal images. It provides color coded map of the corneal thickness.

Fig 9: Anterior segment optical coherence tomography

Advantages

- Noncontact
- accurate and repeatable
- **High Resolution**
- It measures and documents both corneal flap thickness & residual stromal thickness immediately following LASIK surgery.
- Can measure through corneal opacity

Optical Low Coherence Reflectometry (The Haag-Streit OLCR)

This device is attached to a slit lamp $\&$ is a single mode fiberoptic based Michelson's interferometer that has a high repetition rate. It can measure corneal thickness to a precision of one micron.

Principle:

It is based on Michelson interferometer. Diode laser beam is used here. Due to th e differences in refractive index occurring at air-to-cornea &cornea-to-anterior chamber interfaces, the measurement beam is reflected from anterior & posterior corneal surfaces. These reflections reach the detector back. The interference signals are generated when the light emitting diode (LED) beam strikes the front and back surfaces of the cornea perpendicularly. It comes in 2 forms:

- 1. Slit lamp mounted
- 2. Excimer laser mounted

Advantages:

- Precise.
- Automatic alignment.
- Non-contact.
- Real-time data acquisition and display.
- Convenient and easy.
- Variability of measurements is significantly lower than the measurements taken with the contact ultrasound pachymetry.
- Intraoperative measurements possible.

Disadvantages:

• Only central corneal thickness can be measured.

Confocal Microscopy

The focus of the objective lens in the Z-axis or rapid movement of the objective lens itself is automated and registered by a computer. The amount of light that is backscattered by the central section of each image is recorded in order to allow an intensity profile curve to be generated.

Advantages:

1. For measuring thin layers such as epithelial or Bowman's layer thickness, it of fers moderate to good repeatability.

2. Flap thickness can also be obtained following laser in situ keratomileusis (LASIK) surgery.

3. z-scan curve is used to assess the level and location of corneal haze associated with the various corneal dystrophies.

Disadvantages:

- The precision of measurements will vary with this technique with contact lens hydration, post-lens tear film thickness and observation angle.
- Data acquisition is slower
- Poor penetration of corneal opacity
- Cumbersome

Pentacam

It evaluates complete anterior segment, corneal topography, anterior chamber, angle measurements, quantification of lens density& utility to monitor new therapeutic modalities like collagen crosslinking treatment for keratoconus.

Principle:

Pentacam (Oculus Inc., Germany) is based on evaluation of true elevation and captures the anterior segment (cornea $+$ lens) of the eye by a rotating Scheimpflug camera measurement which supplies images in 3 dimensions. The corneal centre is measured very accurately because of this rotational imaging process. The corneal thickness is shown as a color image, showing the total area from limbus to limbus.

 Fig 10: Pentacam

Advantages:

- Non-invasive, noncontact
- Even minute ocular movements are captured & corrected simultaneously.
- precise representation and repeatability.
- The high quality of the Scheimpflug image allows pre and postoperative monitoring as in the case of an intraocular contact lens.

Disadvantages

• It underestimates the corneal thickness when compared to ultrasonic pachymetry.

Pachycam

The Oculus Pachycam is a compact and portable noncontact pachymeter which has a built-in keratometer. It can be mounted on a slit lamp. It corrects the IOP automatically in accordance with correction tables to obtain the "real" IOP. Image is taken with the help of a 3D alignment screen.

Principle:

Scheimpflug principle of the horizontal 4 mm cut image which is evaluated and represented. It also gives central k-values as well as the local k-readings on the 4 mm cut.

Advantages:

- 1. Noncontact
- 2. Immediate indication of central and thinnest pachymetry readings
- 3. Compact, portable, light weight

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Ocular response analyzer

Newer modality for measuring biomechanical properties of eye. It measures corneal

hysteresis. (72)

Table 1: Comparison of pachymetry methods

CCT in various populations:

 Studies which have measured CCT from different populations without any corneal pathology provide guidance. Mean CCT for specific populations lie between 510 - 560 microns with majority being closer to 530-550 microns. Thinnest mean CCT is reported in central/southern Indians^{(73), (74)}, Japanese, Australian Aborigines, North and west Africans, African Americans. The thickest mean CCT is found in European, White American and Latino populations. (75-85)

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This is a cross-sectional study carried out during the period of April 2018 – October 2020 on the patients attending the inpatient as well as outpatient department of Ophthalmology, B.L.D.E. U's Shri B.M. Patil Medical College, Hospital and Research Centre, Vijayapura. The study includes 168 adult subjects divided into three groups:

a. 46 patients with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus for a duration less than or equal to 10 years

- b. 40 patients with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus for a duration more than 10 years
- c. 82 controls who were randomly selected from the patients visiting Ophthalmology department.

 The patients were explained about the study and patients' willful consent was taken. Details of the patients including history, clinical examination, investigations were recorded. Clinical examination includes visual acuity (by Snellen's chart), slit lamp examination, dry and cycloplegic (if required) retinoscopy with streak retinoscope and subjective correction. Pachymetry and intraocular pressure (by applanation tonometry) were recorded.

 Central corneal thickness was measured using a hand held ultrasonic pachymetry (PAC Scan plus, model: 300 AP+, Sonomed). The corneas of both the eyes were anesthetized with topical anaesthetic eye drops 0.5% Proparacaine and central corneal thickness readings were taken after 90 seconds of instillation. The patient was seated and asked to fixate at a target in the front. The pachymetry probe is brought in light contact with the cornea centrally and perpendicularly and five readings on each side are taken. Central corneal thickness was taken as the average of those five readings. On the basis of a study the anticipated Mean $\pm SD$ of central corneal thickness in Diabetics was 564±30 and central corneal thickness in non diabetics was $538\pm35^{(9)}$. With the mean difference of thickness and common standard deviation, the minimum sample size is 40 per group with 95% level of significance and 90% power.

Formula used is

$$
N = 2\left[\frac{(Z_{\alpha} + z_{\beta}) * S}{d}\right]^2
$$

Calculated sample size per group $= 40$

STATISTICAL TOOLS USED FOR DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS TABLES ARE EVOLVED THROUGH DATA ANALYSIS TOOL IN MS-EXCEL AS AN ADD ON TOOL

THEORITICAL CONCEPTS AND EQUATIONS

COVARIANCE:

➢ It is s systematic relationship between a pair of random variables wherein a change in one variable reciprocated by an equivalent change in another variable.

- \triangleright It can take any value between -∞ to +∞, wherein the negative value is an indicator of negative relationship whereas a positive value represents the positive relationship and when the value is zero, it indicates no relationship.
- ➢ Calculation of Covariance:
- \triangleright For the set of 'n' units of observations be given by the ordered pairs (x_1, y_1) , (x_2, y_2) $..., (x_n, y_n)$, where n is the number of sets or observations.

Calculate $\bar{x} = (x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n)/n$ or $(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i)/n$ Calculate $\overline{y} = (y_1+y_2+\ldots+(y_n)/n)$ or $(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i)/n$

Calculate: $\sum_{i=1}^n$ $_{i=1}^{n}(x_i - X)(y_i - y)$

Covariance: (X, Y) =
$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - X) (y_i - y)
$$

n

Correlation:

- A measure which determines the change in one variable due to change in another variable.
- Correlation can take any value between -1 to $+1$, wherein values close to $+1$ represents strong positive correlation and values close to -1 is an indicator of strong negative correlation.

$$
\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - X) (y_i - y)}{\text{Correlation (X, Y)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - X) (y_i - y)}{\text{max}}
$$

√Variance of X ∗ Variance of Y

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA):

 Analysis of variance is a collection of statistical models and their associated estimation procedures used to analyse the differences among group means in a sample. There are two types i.e. one-way anova and two-way anova.

a) Calculation of Variance Between the Samples:

It is the sum of the squares of the deviations of the means of various samples.

- (i) Calculate the sample means $\overline{X_1}, \overline{X_2}, \ldots, \overline{X_k}$ of k samples.
- (ii) Calculate mean for it i.e. $\overline{X_1} + \overline{X_2}$ $\overline{X_k}$ $=$ T/ N where

K

 $T=$ grand total of all observations and N = total No.of observations in K samples.

Calculate find. $\overline{X_1} - \overline{X}$, $\overline{X_2} - \overline{X}$, ……… $\overline{X_k} - \overline{X}$,

Calculate: SSB (or SSC) = Sum of the Squares of the variations between the samples (or between the columns)

$$
= \sum_{i=1}^k n_i \, (\overline{X_i} - \overline{X})^2
$$

Calculate: MSB (Or MSC) = variance or the Mean Square Between the samples (or between the columns)

 $=$ SSB / (K-1) where K = No. of samples

(a) Calculations of Variance within the samples:

It is the sum of the squares of the deviations of the means of various samples.

- (i) Calculate the sample means $\overline{X_1}, \overline{X_2}, \ldots, \overline{X_k}$ of k samples.
- (ii) Calculate the deviations of various k samples from mean values and Square these deviations and obtain their total

Calculate: SSW = Sum of the squares of the variations within the samples.

$$
\sum (X_1 - \overline{X_1})^2 + \sum (X_2 - \overline{X_2})^2 + \dots + \dots + \dots + \sum (X_K - \overline{X_K})^2
$$

Calculate: $MSW = SSW / N-k$ Where N= Total No. of observations and K =No. of samples

(C) **Calculation of the Test Statistic F**

Assuming that H_o is true, the Test Statistic

 $F = MSB / MSW = Variance$ between the samples / Variations within the samples with degrees of

freedom k -1 and N-k

 $SST = SSB + SSW = Total sum of squares of variations.$

Table 2: ANOVA table (one – way classification)

CONCEPT OF P –VALUE: The p-value is calculated using the sampling distribution of test statistic under Null Hypothesis, the sample data, type of test being done.

What Is P-Value?

In statistics, the p-value is the probability of obtaining results as extreme as the observed results of a statistical [hypothesis test](https://www.investopedia.com/terms/h/hypothesistesting.asp), assuming that the null hypothesis is correct. The p-value is used as an alternative to rejection points to provide the smallest level of significance at which the [null hypothesis](https://www.investopedia.com/terms/n/null_hypothesis.asp) would be rejected. A smaller p-value means that there is stronger evidence in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

How Is P-Value Calculated?

P-values are calculated using p-value tables or spreadsheets/statistical software. Because different researchers use different levels of significance when examining a question, a reader may sometimes have difficulty comparing results from two different tests. P-values provide a solution to this problem.

For example, if a study comparing returns from two particular assets were undertaken using by different researchers who used the same data but different significance levels, the researchers might come to opposite conclusions regarding whether the assets differ.

To avoid this problem, the researchers could report the p-value of the hypothesis test and allow the reader to interpret the [statistical significance](https://www.investopedia.com/terms/s/statistically_significant.asp) themselves. This is called a p-value approach to hypothesis testing.

P-Value Approach to Hypothesis Testing

The p-value approach to hypothesis testing uses the calculated probability to determine whether there is evidence to reject the null hypothesis. The null hypothesis, also known as the conjecture, is the initial claim about a population (or data generating process).

The alternative hypothesis states whether the population parameter dif fers f rom the value of the population parameter stated in the conjecture.

In practice, the significance level is stated in advance to determine how the small the p-value must be in order to reject the null hypothesis.

Type I Error

A type I error is a false rejection of the null hypothesis. This occurs when the null hypothesis is true in reality, but the null hypothesis is rejected, having a p-value that is less than the significance level (often 0.05). The probability of a type I error is the significance level (again, often 0.05), and is the relative frequency of occu rrence of obtaining a p-value that is less than the significance level, assuming the null hypothesis is true.

Real-World Example of P-Value

Assume an investor claims that their investment portfolio's performance is equivalent to that of the Standard & Poor's (S&P) 500 Index. To determine this, the investor conducts a two-tailed test. The null hypothesis states that the portfolio's returns are equivalent to the S&P 500's returns over a specified period, while the alternative hypothesis states that the portfolio's returns and the S&P 500's returns are not equivalent. (If the investor conducted a one-tailed test, the alternative hypothesis would state that the portfolio's returns are either less than or greater than the S&P 500's returns.)

One commonly used significance level is 0.05. If the investor finds that the p-value is less than 0.05, then there is evidence against the null hypothesis. As a result, the investor would reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. The smaller the p-value, the greater the evidence against the null hypothesis. Thus, if the investor finds that the p-value is 0.001, there is strong evidence against the null hypothesis, and the investor can confidently conclude the portfolio's returns and the S&P 500's returns are not be equivalent.

Conversely, a p-value that is greater than 0.05 indicates that there is (at best) weak evidence against the conjecture, so the investor would fail to reject the null hypothesis. In this case, the differences observed between the investment portfolio data and the S&P 500 data are explainable by chance alone.

	Concept of P value
P value	Notation Conclusion Level of Significance
0.000 to 0.010	**. Reject Null Hypothesis at 1 % level Highly Significant
0.011 to 0.050. 0.051 to 1.000	Reject Null Hypothesis at 5 % level Significant No star Accept Null Hypothesis at 5 % level Not Significant
	0.000 denoted as $\leq 0.001**$

 Table 3: Concept of P value

INCLUSION CRITERIA:

- a. Patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus above 30 years of age
- b. Glycosylated Hb \leq 7.2%

EXCLUSION CRITERIA:

- a. Patients who had already undergone intraocular or corneal surgery
- b. Patients previously diagnosed with any corneal pathology
- c. Patients who had worn rigid contact lens during the month prior to ophthalmic examination
- d. Patients who had worn soft contact lenses seven days before ophthalmic examination
- e. Raised IOP.
- f. Hypertension
- g. Diabetics with neuropathy or nephropathy

RESULTS

Comparison of CCT between diabetics and non-diabetics

Anova: Single Factor

By looking at average CCT of two different groups, diabetic group has greater value of CCT average

ANOVA

Source of						
Variation	SS	df	МS	F	$P-value$	F crit
Between	5346.55		1782.18	5.78557598	0.00072	2.63181
Groups, SSB	6	$k-1=3$			n	
Within	102269.	$N-$	308.039			
Groups, SSW		$k = 332$	4			
	107615.					
Total	₀	335				

Table 4: Comparison of mean CCT between diabetics and non-diabetics

CALCULATED F VALUE (5.78)>TABULATED F VALUE (2.63), IT IS INFERRED THAT THERE IS SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE (INCERASE IN CCT VALUE IN DIABETIC GROUP COMPARED TO NON-DIABETIC GROUP). SINCE P=0.000726 <0.05, NULL HYPOTHESIS IS REJECTED

N=Total No. Of CCT values within groups:

k=No. of columns

Graph 1: Distribution of cases and controls

• **Comparison between LE CCT & RE CCT of diabetic group <= 10yrs AND comparison between LE CCT & RE CCT of diabetic group diabetic group> 10 years**

SAMPLE SIZE OF DIABETIC =<10 years =46
	<u>539</u>
$\frac{537}{542}$	542
543	544
521	523
$\frac{540}{525}$	$\frac{541}{527}$
$\frac{525}{533}$ $\frac{527}{528}$ $\frac{528}{532}$	$\frac{527}{534}$ $\frac{527}{526}$ $\frac{533}{515}$
$\overline{547}$	$\frac{545}{565}$
563	
$\frac{528}{530}$ $\frac{529}{529}$	$\frac{527}{531}$ $\frac{531}{529}$
$\overline{531}$	533
534	$\frac{535}{538}$
$\overline{538}$	
519	520
$\frac{538}{517}$	$\frac{536}{517}$
$\frac{517}{539}$ $\frac{527}{533}$	541 527 538 530
526	
502	508
533	538
587	$\frac{1}{584}$
$\frac{1}{496}$ $\frac{1}{510}$	486
	512
$\frac{1}{542}$	537
489	488

Anova: Single Factor

Table 5: Comparison of mean CCT between right eye and left eye in diabetics less than or equal to 10 years.

CALCULATED F VALUE (0.0106) < TABULATED F VALUE (3.946), IT IS INFERRED THAT THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN CCT VALUES OF RE AND LE OF DIABETIC AGE GROUP OF <=10 years

SAMPLE SIZE OF DIABETIC >10 years =40

SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance	Standard Deviation Max. Value	
RE	40	21480	537	422.5128	20.55511665	598
LE	40	21489	537.225	384.9994	19.62140054	596
ANOVA						
Source of						
Variation	SS	df	MS	\boldsymbol{F}	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	1.0125		1.0125	0.002508	0.960189073	3.963472
Within Groups	31492.98	78	403.7561			
Total	31493.99	79				

Anova: Single Factor

Table 6: Comparison of mean CCT between right eye and left eye in diabetics more than 10 years

CALCULATED F VALUE (0.0025) < TABULATED F VALUE (3.963), IT IS INFERRED THAT THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN CCT VALUES OF RE AND LE OF DIABETIC AGE GROUP OF >10 years. SINCE P=0.960 >0.05, NULL HYPOTHESIS IS ACCEPTED

Graph 2: CCT averages in diabetics ≤10 years duration and >10yrs duration

• **Comparison of CCT between diabetic groups of ≤10 years duration AND >10 years duration**

SAMPLE SIZE OF DIABETIC =<10 years =46

SAMPLE SIZE OF DIABETIC >10 years =40

SUMMARY				
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance
$RE(<10 \text{ yrs})$	46	24449	531.5	294.7889
$LE(\equiv < 10 \text{ yrs})$	46	24466	531.8696	294.6937
$RE(>10 \text{ yrs})$	40	21480	537	422.5128
$LE(>10 \text{ yrs})$	40	21489	537.225	384.9994

Anova: Single Factor

Table 7: Comparison of mean CCT between diabetics more than 10 years duration and less than or equal to 10 years duration.

CALCULATED F VALUE(1.220)<TABULATED F VALUE(2.658),IT IS INFERRED THAT THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE OF CCT AVERAGES OF THESE TWO GROUPS, HOWEVER BY COMPARING AVERAGES,DIABETIC >10yrs GROUP HAS RELATIVELY HIGHER AVERAGES OF CCT. SINCE P=0.303 >0.05, NULL HYPOTHESIS IS ACCEPTED

CCT AVERAGES FOR ≤10 years AND >10years

• **Association between NPDR AND CCT**

Anova: Single Factor

Table 8: Comparison of mean CCT among diabetics with mild, moderate and severe NPDR

CALCULATED VALUE OF F (0.007433) <TABULATED VALUE OF F (2.646), IT IS INFERRED THAT THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN CCT VALUES AMONG MILD, MODERATE& SEVERE NPDR GROUPS. SINCE P=0.999 >0.05, NULL HYPOTHESIS IS ACCEPTED

Graph 3: Mean CCT of mild, moderate and severe NPDR AND PDR

• **Association between PDR AND CCT**

TOTAL NUMBER OF PATIENTS WITH PDR =10

Anova: Single Factor

Table 9: Comparison of mean CCT between diabetics with PDR and diabetics without PDR

CALCULATED VALUE OF F (15.651)>>TABULATED VALUE OF F (2.652), IT IS INFERRED THAT THERE IS SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN CCT VALUES OF PDR GROUP IN COMPARISION WITH THE POPULATION SINCE P=0.0000000039 <0.05, NULL HYPOTHESIS IS REJECTED

• **Association between GENDER AND CCT**

Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
RE(M)	95	50562	532.2316	316.8607		
LE(M)	95	50589	532.5158	301.3588		
RE(FM)	73	38488	527.2329	343.2367		
LE(FM)	73	38550	528.0822	318.382		
ANOVA						
Source of						
Variation	SS	Df	\overline{MS}	\boldsymbol{F}	$P-value$	F crit
Between Groups	1866.46	3	622.1535	1.953253	0.120841	2.631811
Within Groups	105749.2	332	318.5216			
Total	107615.6	335				

 Table 10: Comparison of mean CCT between males and females

CALCULATED VALUE OF F (1.95) <TABULATEDVALUE OF F (2.63), IT IS INFERRED THAT THERE NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN CCT VALUES OF MALE GROUP IN COMPARISION WITH THE FEMALE GROUP.HOWEVER BASED ON THE ABOVE GRAPH MALE GROUP HAS SLIGHTLY LARGER VALUE OF CCT AVERAGE COMPARED TO THAT OF FEMALE GROUP. SINCE P=0.12 >0.05, NULL HYPOTHESIS IS ACCEPTED

Graph 4: GENDER Vs CCT

• **COMPARISION OF CCT BETWEEN MALE DIABETICS AND FEMALE**

DIABETICS

Anova: Single Factor							
SUMMARY							
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance			
RE(M)	52	27842	535.4231	422.2881			
LE(M)	52	27843	535.4423	422.4476			
RE(FM)	34	18087	531.9706	260.8779			
LE(FM)	34	18112	532.7059	217.9109			
ANOVA							
Source of Variation	SS	df	\overline{MS}	\overline{F}	$P-value$	F crit	
Between Groups	402.9165	3	134.3055	0.383199	0.765241	2.658399	
Within Groups	58881.55	168	350.4854				
Total	59284.47	171					

Table 11: Comparison of mean CCT between male and female diabetics.

CALCULATED VALUE OF F (0.38) <=TABULATED VALUE OF F (2.66), IT IS INFERRED THAT THERE NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN CCT VALUES OF DIABETIC MALE GROUP IN COMPARISION WITH THE DIABETIC FEMALE GROUP.HOWEVER BASED ON THE GRAPH MALE GROUP HAS LARGER VARIANCE OF CCT COMPARED TO THAT OF FEMALE GROUP.THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN AVERAGES CCT's OF DIABETIC MALE AND FEMALE GROUP. SINCE P=0.76 >0.05, NULL HYPOTHESIS IS ACCEPTED

Graph 5: GENDER Vs CCT (DIABETICS)

• **ASSOCIATION B/W AGE AND CCT**

 Table 12: a) Correlation between age and CCT

Negative correlation is a relationship between two variables in which one variable increases another decreases and vice versa. In statistics, a perfect negative correlation is represented by value -1, a zero indicates no correlation and a +1 indicates a perfect positive correlation. Correlation coefficient arrived through data analysis tool in MS excel. Here it is -0.2654 is an indication that these two variables are having poor inverse correlation

	LE	AGE
LE		
AGE	-0.27094	
the contract of the contract of the contract of the contract of the contract of		

 Table 12: b) Correlation between age and CCT

Negative correlation is a relationship between two variables in which one variable increases another decreases and vice versa. In statistics, a perfect negative correlation is represented by value -1, a zero indicates no correlation and a +1 indicates a perfect positive correlation. Correlation coefficient arrived through data analysis tool in MS excel. Here it is -0.27094 is an indication that these two variables are having poor inverse correlation

Table 13: Comparison of mean CCT among diabetics less than or equal to 45 years, 46 to 60 years and >60 years

CALCULATED VALUE OF F (2.057) SLIGHTLY LESSER THAN TABULATED VALUE OF F (2.153), IT IS INFERRED THAT THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN CCT VALUES OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS AND BY LOOKING AT THE AVERAGE CCT's, ELDERLY DIABETIC GROUP HAS LESSER CCT AVERAGE COMPARED TO EARLY DIABETIC GROUPS. SINCE P=0.060 >0.05, NULL HYPOTHESIS IS ACCEPTED

Graph 6: Mean CCT of DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS OF diabetic patients

• **Association between diabetic CCT(RE) and RBS**

Positive correlation is a relationship between two variables in which one variable increases as other increases. In statistics, a perfect positive correlation is represented by value +1, a zero indicates no correlation and a -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation. Correlation co-efficient arrived through data analysis tool in MS excel. Here it is 0.046404 is an indication that these two variables are having poor proportion correlation

• **Association between diabetic CCT(RE) and FBS**

Positive correlation is a relationship between two variables in which one variable increases as other increases. In statistics, a perfect positive correlation is represented by value +1, a zero indicates no correlation and a -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation. Correlation coefficient arrived through data analysis tool in MS excel. Here it is 0.163762 is an indication that these two variables are having considerable proportion correlation. Covariance tells us that in which direction change will take place but not magnitude of relationship,

The advantage of correlation is that magnitude of relationship can be known. Here positive correlation of 0.163 indicates 1.63% increase in FBS will result in 10% increase in CCT (RE)

$$
\begin{array}{c|c}\n & RE & PPBS \\
\hline\n \text{RE} & 1\n\end{array}
$$

PPBS 0.037918 1

Positive correlation is a relationship between two variables in which one variable increases as other increases. In statistics, a perfect positive correlation is represented by value +1, a zero indicates no correlation and a -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation. Correlation coefficient arrived through data analysis tool in MS excel. Here it is 0.037918 is an indication that these two variables are having poor proportion correlation

• **Association between CCT(RE) diabetic and HbA1C**

Positive correlation is a relationship between two variables in which one variable increases as other increases. In statistics, a perfect positive correlation is represented by value +1, a zero indicates no correlation and a -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation. Correlation coefficient arrived through data analysis tool in MS excel. Here it is 0.046277 is an indication that these two variables are having poor proportion correlation

DISCUSSION

 Diabetes mellitus affects all structures of the eye. Other than diabetic retinopathy patients can also develop corneal damage such as endothelial defects, punctate epithelial keratopathy, recurrent corneal erosions and persistent epithelial defects. In diabetic individuals there is polymegathism, pleomorphism and reduction in density of corneal endothelial cells as compared to non-diabetic individuals. Recent studies have shown advanced glycosylated end product act as cross-linking agents to increase the covalent bond in corneal stroma and eventually its thickness. The central corneal thickness in diabetics signifies functional and morphological status of cornea. This may interfere with susceptibility to surgical stress and delayed healing after intraocular surgery like cataract surgery, refractive surgery. (72)

In our present study, the mean CCT in diabetics was 534.0581μ in right eye and 534.3605µ in left eye and in non-diabetics it was 525.8659µ in right eye and 526.6341 μ in the left eye. Since the calculated F value (5.78) > tabulated F value (2.63), it is inferred that there is significant difference (increase in CCT value in diabetic group compared to non-diabetic group; $P = 0.000726 \le 0.05$ by ANOVA test). This is in accordance with the studies reported by Busted N et al who found that diabetic corneas were significantly thicker than the normal corneas in a sample size of 81 diabetic subjects. (48) Ozdamar Y et al in 2010 also reported that the CCTs of diabetic patients were thicker than that of normal subjects. (65) Storr-Paulsen et al. studied 107 patients with type II DM and 128 nondiabetic controls and concluded that CCT was increased among type II diabetes patients compared to controls. (2)

 In our study, there is no significant difference in mean CCT values between right eye and left eye among diabetics less than or equal to 10 years duration (calculated F value $0.0106<$ tabulated F value 3.946; P value $0.918004 > 0.05$). Also, there is no significant difference in mean CCT between right eye and left eye among diabetics more than 10 years duration (calculated F value 0.0025 <tabulated F value 3.963; P value 0.960 >0.05).

 The effect of duration of diabetes on corneal thickness was studied by Lee et al who reported that central corneal thickness was significantly higher for diabetes of over 10 years' duration than for diabetes of under 10 years' duration. (47) In our study also the mean CCT in subjects with diabetes of more than10 years duration was higher(537 μ) than those having it for less than or equal to 10 years(531 μ), but the difference was not statistically significant. (calculated F value 1.220 < tabulated F value 2.658; P=0.303> 0.05).

 In the current study, no significant difference was found in CCT between the three diabetic subgroups i.e., those with mild NPDR, those with moderate NPDR and those with severe NPDR (calculated F value $0.007433 <$ tabulated F value 2.646; P=0.999 >0.05). Busted et al. (48) and Wiemer et al. (27) also found that CCT increased in DM regardless of the severity of the retinal disease.

 In our study, we found a statistically significant difference in CCT between diabetics with PDR and diabetics without PDR (CCT was much thicker among diabetics with proliferative diabetic retinopathy; calculated F value 15.651 >> tabulated F value 2.652; P=0.0000000039 < 0.05). Ozdamar et al. reported in their
study that patients with proliferative diabetic retinopathy had thicker CCT than those with non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy and no retinopathy; however, the difference was not statistically significant. (65)

We found in this study (both diabetics and non-diabetics), that the mean CCT of males (532.2μ) is greater than mean CCT in females (527.2μ) , but the difference is not a statistically significant (calculated F value 1.95 < tabulated F value 2.63 ; P=0.12 >0.05).

The mean CCT for male subjects in diabetic group in present study (535.4μ) was higher when compared to the female subjects in diabetic group (531.9µ). However, the difference was not statistically significant between the two groups (calculated F value $0.38 <$ tabulated F value 2.66; P = 0.76 > 0.05). Another study done for Indian eyes have reported significantly higher CCT in males $(515.6 \pm 33.8 \mu)$ than females $(508.0 \pm 32.8 \mu)$ with p value 0.001. ⁽⁶³⁾

 We observed a decrease in CCT with age in both diabetic and non-diabetic groups. However, the correlation was a poor inverse correlation (-0.2654 for right eye and -0.27094 for left eye).

 In this study, we did not observe any significant difference in mean CCT values among diabetics of different age groups (diabetics \leq 45 years of age, diabetics > 46 years and ≤ 60 years, diabetics > 60 years), as the calculated F value 2.057 < tabulated F value 2.153; $P = 0.060 > 0.05$.

 We, in our study observed a poor positive correlation between RBS, PPBS, HbA_1C and CCT in type 2 diabetics. This is probably due to the inclusion of study subjects in our study whose glycemic status is relatively under control. Storr Paulsen et al (2), in their study, reported that HbA1c did not have any impact on the CCT. McNamara et al ⁽⁶⁹⁾ observed positive correlation between HbA1c level and CCT in Type 1 diabetics but reported thicker corneas in diabetics but found no direct correlation with HbA1c level in type 2 diabetes similar to our study. This observation was reinforced by Yasgan S et al (57)

Another study, Mehmet et al (67) reported that diabetic patients with HbA1c levels > 7% had thicker corneas than patients with HbA1c levels $\langle 7\% \text{ (P = } 0.021)$.

 Increase in FBS showed an increase in central corneal thickness. We found a positive correlation between FBS and CCT in type 2 diabetes patients in our study. A position correlation of 0.163 was obtained, which means that 1.63% increa se in FBS will result in 10% increase in CCT.

CONCLUSION

- Diabetics showed a higher CCT as compared to non-diabetics.
- Diabetics with PDR showed a higher CCT as compared to diabetics without PDR.
- Age of diabetics irrespective of duration of diabetes did not have significant effect on CCT. Elderly diabetics showed a relatively lesser CCT.
- There is no statistically significant difference in CCT between diabetics of <10 years duration and diabetics >10 years duration, but diabetics >10 years have a relatively higher CCT.
- CCT is not affected by the severity of NPDR.
- There is no statistically significant difference in CCT between males and females in diabetics and non-diabetics.
- Increase in CCT was observed with increased FBS values.
- **Henceforth, it is important to measure the central corneal thickness in all diabetics, as it affects the IOP measurement which is vital for early diagnosis and timely treatment of glaucoma.**

SUMMARY

 A cross sectional, time bound study was done on type 2 diabetics and nondiabetics, aged above 30 years, attending outpatient and inpatient departments of the hospital to determine association between Central Corneal thickness and type 2 diabetes.

 A total of 168 patients, fulfilling the inclusion criteria were included in the study. Their parameters including: central corneal thickness, RBS, FBS, PPBS, HbA1c, intraocular pressure (by applanation tonometry) and fundus changes were noted and studied in detail.

 In the present study, mean central corneal thickness is 534.05μm and 534.36μm in right eye and left eye respectively in diabetics. And mean central corneal thickness in nondiabetics is 525.86μm and 526.63μm right eye and left eye respectively. Of the total 168 patients, 51% are diabetics and 49% are non-diabetics.

 There is a statistically significant difference in CCT between diabetics and non-diabetics, with a higher CCT in diabetics compared to non-diabetics. No difference in CCT is found between right eye and left eye in both the groups (diabetics and non-diabetics). No difference in CCT is found between diabetics ≤ 10 years duration and diabetics > 10 years duration. Severity of NPDR did not affect CCT in this study. However, diabetics with PDR showed a higher CCT than those without PDR. No statistically significant difference in CCT is found between male and female diabetics. Poor correlation was found between CCT and RBS, PPBS, HbA1C. Whereas, FBS showed a positive correlation with CCT.

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ANNEXURES

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATES

B.L.D.E (Deemed to be University) SHRI.B.M.PATIL MEDICAL COLLEGE HOSPITAL & RESEARCH CENTRE $IEC/ATD:BC6/2018$ **VIJAYAPUR - 586103** $17 - 11 - 2018$

INSTITUTIONAL ETHICAL COMMITTEE

INSTITUTIONAL ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

The Ethical Committee of this college met on 13-11-2018 at 03-15 PM scrutinize the Synopsis of Postgraduate Students of this college from Ethical Clearance point of view. After scrutiny the following original/corrected and revised version synopsis of the Thesis has accorded Ethical Clearance.

Title : Comparative study of central corneal thickness in diabetics and no-diabetics using ultrasonic pachymeter.

Name of P.G. Student : Dr Chinnanagolla Viveknandini Reddy. Department of Ophthalmology,

Name of Guide/Co-investigator: Dr.M.H.Patil, Professor of Ophthalmology,

DR RAGHAVENDRA KULKARNI CHAIRMAN Institutional Ethical Committee
BLOCA A Cincil Committee
Medical Cilicom Collinum 2019

Following documents were placed before E.C. for Scrutinization:

1) Copy of Synopsis/Research Project

- 2) Copy of informed consent form.
- 3) Any other relevant documents.

STUDY SUBJECT CONSENT FORM

I confirm that Dr. Chinnangolla Viveknandini Reddy has explained to me the purpose of research, the study procedure and the possible discomforts as well as benefits that I may experience in my own language. I have been explained all the above in detail in my own language and I understand the same. Therefore, I agree to give consent to participate as a subject in this research project.

________________________ __________________

_________________________ _______________

(participant) (date)

(witness to signature) (date)

RISK AND DISCOMFORTS:

I understand that I may experience some pain and discomforts during the examination or during the treatment. The procedures of this study are not expected to exaggerate these feelings which are associated with the usual course of treatment.

BENEFITS:

I understand that my participation will help in the assessment of CCT in diabetics.

I understand and accept the risks, benefits and costs involved. I willingly give consent to take part in the study.

CONFIDENTIALITY:

I understand that the medical information produced by this study will become a part of hospital records and will be subject to the confidentiality.

If the data are used for publication in the medical literature or for teaching purpose, no name will be used and other identifiers such as photographs will be used only with special written permission.

REQUEST FOR MORE INFORMATION:

I understand that I may ask for more questions about the study to Dr.M.H. PATIL in the Department of Ophthalmology who will be available to answer my questions or concerns. I understand that I will be informed of any significant new findings discovered during the course of the study, which might influence my continued participation. A copy of this consent form will be given to me to keep for caref ul reading.

REFUSAL FOR WITHDRAWAL OF PARTICIPATION:

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may refuse to participate or may withdraw consent and discontinue participation in the study at any time without prejudice. I also understand that Dr. Chinnangolla Viveknandini Reddy may terminate my participation in the study after she has explained the reasons for doing so.

INJURY STATEMENT:

I understand that in the unlikely event of injury to me resulting directly from my participation in the study, if such injury were reported promptly, the appropriate treatment would be available to me. But no further compensation would be provided by the hospital. I understand that by my agreements to participate in this study and not waiving any of my legal rights.

__________________________ _______________

___________________ _ ______________

Dr. Chinnangolla Viveknandini Reddy Date

(Investigator)

PROFORMA FOR CASE TAKING

DEPARTMENT OF OPHTHALMOLOGY

B.L.D. E UNIVERSITY'S SHRI B.M. PATIL MEDICAL COLLEGE HOSPITAL AND RESEARCH CENTRE, VIJAYAPURA-586103

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CENTRAL CORNEAL THICKNESS IN DIABETICS AND NON-DIABETICS USING ULTRASONIC PACHYMETER

- **DURATION OF DIABETES >10 YEARS**
- **DURATION OF DIABETES <10 YEARS**
- **NON-DIABETIC**

- **NAME: AGE: SEX:**
- **OCCUPATION: ADDRESS:**
- **KNOWN CASE OF TYPE 2 DM: YES / NO**
- **DURATION OF TYPE 2 DM:**
- **REGULAR FOLLOW-UPS: YES / NO**
- **ON REGULAR MEDICATION: YES / NO**
- **TREATMENT HISTORY:**
- **ANY OTHER RELATED COMPLICATIONS:**
- **ANY OCULAR COMPLAINTS:**
- **PERSONAL HISTORY:**
- **PAST MEDICAL HISTORY:**

• **PAST SURGICAL HISTORY:**

• **FAMILY HISTORY:**

OPHTHALMIC EXAMINATION

Central Corneal Thickness measurement by Ultrasonic Pachymeter

FUNDUS EXAMINATION

COLOR PLATES

Detailed slit lamp examination

Indirect ophthalmoscopy

Fundus photograph of a diabetic patient.

Measuring CCT by Ultrasound Pachymetry

CCT in a patient with PDR

KEY TO MASTER CHART

MASTER CHART

