



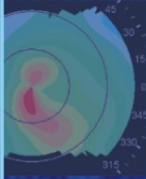
ESSENTIALS IN OPHTHALMOLOGY

G. K. KRIEGLSTEIN · R. N. WEINREB

Series Editors



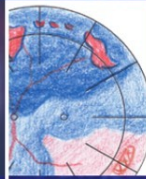
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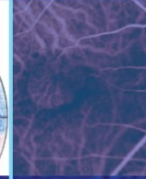
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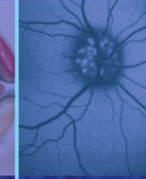
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Medical
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Oculoplastics
and Orbit



Paediatric
Ophthalmology,
Neuro-
ophthalmology,
Genetics



Cornea
and External
Eye Disease

Vitreoretinal Surgery

Edited by

B. KIRCHHOF

D. WONG



Springer

Essentials in Ophthalmology

Vitreo-retinal Surgery

B. Kirchof D. Wong
Editors



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G. K. Krieglstein R. N. Weinreb
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Medical Retina

Oculoplastics and Orbit

Pediatric Ophthalmology, Neuro-Ophthalmology, Genetics

Cornea and External Eye Disease

Editors Bernd Kirchhof
David Wong

Vitreoretinal Surgery

With 122 Figures, Mostly in Colour
and 13 Tables

 Springer

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Foreword

The series *Essentials in Ophthalmology* was initiated two years ago to expedite the timely transfer of new information in vision science and evidence-based medicine into clinical practice. We thought that this prosipient idea would be moved and guided by a resolute commitment to excellence. It is reasonable to now update our readers with what has been achieved.

The immediate goal was to transfer information through a high quality quarterly publication in which ophthalmology would be represented by eight subspecialties. In this regard, each issue has had a subspecialty theme and has been overseen by two internationally recognized volume editors, who in turn have invited a bevy of experts

to discuss clinically relevant and appropriate topics. Summaries of clinically relevant information have been provided throughout each chapter.

Each subspecialty area now has been covered once, and the response to the first eight volumes in the series has been enthusiastically positive. With the start of the second cycle of subspecialty coverage, the dissemination of practical information will be continued as we learn more about the emerging advances in various ophthalmic subspecialties that can be applied to obtain the best possible care of our patients. Moreover, we will continue to highlight clinically relevant information and maintain our commitment to excellence.

G. K. Krieglstein

R. N. Weinreb

Series Editors

Preface

This second edition promises to challenge our ideas about vitreoretinal surgery. As expected, some new and innovative techniques are described, the most exciting of which is the use of free retinal pigment epithelium patch grafts in patients with atrophic macular degeneration. We are interested in the advances that have made this surgery possible and look forward to the long-term outcomes. In the last couple of years, surgeons have become increasingly convinced by the advantages conferred by smaller gauge instruments, brighter and even safer lights, combined with an innovative viewing system to make routine surgery quicker and less traumatic for the patients. The use of 25-gauge for tumor biopsies is an exciting new development that represents a huge advantage over needle biopsies. The indication and the rationale for biopsies in cases of suspected uveal melanoma are presented.

There will always of course be difficult clinical decisions; choices have to be made despite the absence of good data based on randomized trials. A good example of a dilemma is whether to perform early vitrectomy for postoperative endophthalmitis. For this edition, we have opposing views from two surgeons. You simply have to read and decide for yourself. There are other controversies such as vitrectomy for floaters: the preparation in

terms of counseling, patient selection, and pitfalls are well covered in a chapter on the subject.

The chapter on macular holes examines the evidence behind our current practice. Despite the high success rate, a minority of patients will fail to respond to conventional surgery and a novel approach with heavy silicone oil is presented.

Sometimes, the skill of a surgeon is to know when not to operate. Asymptomatic inferior retinal detachment is another controversial area explored in a reasoned fashion, though no one knows for sure the cause of optical coherence tomography findings of subclinical macular retinal detachments.

Then we come to the big topic of tamponading. The need to apply scleral buckling, to adopt postoperative head-down posturing, or to use long-acting gas for inferior retinal breaks are being challenged as more rhegmatogenous retinal detachments are treated using primary vitrectomy and air alone. There is renewed interest in the techniques for draining subretinal fluid and the chapter on slippage explains how unwanted retinal folds can be avoided, whilst offering an easy technique for the exchange of fluids and the injection of silicone oil.

We hope you will enjoy reading this book as much as we have preparing it.

Bernd Kirchhof
David Wong
Editors

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Core Messages

- Idiopathic full-thickness macular holes are believed to result from tangential and antero-posterior traction exerted by the posterior vitreous cortex on the neurosensory retina at the fovea.
- Only a minority of full-thickness macular holes resolve spontaneously and there is a significant risk of macular hole development in the fellow eye.
- Surgical management by removal of the posterior cortical vitreous and long-acting intraocular gas tamponade results in a high rate of anatomical closure and a benefit to visual function.
- Modifications to this surgical technique, proposed with the aim of improving anatomical and visual outcomes, include the use of adjuvants to stimulate glial repair and the dissection of the inner limiting membrane, with or without the aid of vital stains. The value of these modifications is not well-established.
- The importance of prolonged face-down posturing to the rate of macular hole closure is unproven.

1.1 Epidemiology

A macular hole is a full-thickness defect of the neurosensory retina involving the anatomical fovea. Idiopathic full-thickness macular holes are an important cause of central visual loss; these lesions are twice as common in females as in males [1, 2] and three-quarters of affected individuals are over the age of 65 years [1]. The population prevalence of macular holes is estimated as being 0.1% in individuals aged 40 years or older and

0.8% in those aged over 74 years. No significant systemic risk factor for the development of macular holes has been identified although a possible association with the menopause has been described [1].

1.2 Pathogenesis

The pathogenesis of idiopathic full-thickness macular holes is not well understood. Macular holes are commonly idiopathic in etiology, although trauma and high myopia are implicated in a minority of cases. On the basis of clinical observations, ocular imaging, histological studies, and the results of vitrectomy surgery, the mechanism underlying idiopathic macular hole is widely believed to involve tangential as well as antero-posterior traction exerted by the posterior vitreous cortex on the neurosensory retina at the fovea. Evidence of the role of posterior vitreous attachment in the development of macular holes includes its association with an increased risk of macular hole development in the fellow eyes of individuals with unilateral macular holes and with the subsequent enlargement of established holes [3, 4]. There is no consensus on the exact mechanism of vitreo-foveal traction. Tangential traction may be the result of contraction of the prefoveal vitreous cortex following invasion and proliferation of Müller cells [5]. Anteroposterior traction may occur from dynamic tractional forces on an abnormally persistent vitreo-foveal attachment following perifoveal vitreous separation [6, 7]. The role of antero-posterior vitreo-foveal traction is supported by optical coherence tomography (OCT) studies that clearly identify perifoveal posterior hyaloid separation with persistent adherence of the posterior hyaloid to the centre of the fovea [6–8]. A cone-shaped zone of Müller cells, the ‘Müller cell cone’ forms the

central and inner part of the fovea centralis and appears to confer structural support, serving as a plug to bind together the foveolar photoreceptor cells [9]. Vitreo-foveal traction may result in disinsertion of the Müller cell cone from underlying foveolar photoreceptor cells and in the formation of a foveal schisis or “cyst” [6–8]. A dehiscence develops in the roof of the foveal cyst that may extend by centric expansion, or more commonly in a pericentric fashion, to form a crescentic hole that progresses to a horseshoe tear [6]. Complete avulsion of the cyst roof results in a fully detached operculum that is suspended on the posterior vitreous cortex in the prefoveal plane [6, 7, 10]. Opercula primarily comprise vitreous cortex and glial elements with a variable amount of foveal tissue that includes photoreceptor cells in 40% of cases [11]. The photoreceptor layer, which is no longer anchored by the Muller cell cone at the foveola, undergoes passive centrifugal retraction to form a full-thickness retinal dehiscence with centrifugal displacement of xanthophyll [9, 12]. The edge of the hole becomes progressively elevated and a cuff of subretinal fluid develops. In the event of vitreo-foveal separation during the development of the macular hole, the relief of traction may result in regression of a cyst, but spontaneous closure of an established full-thickness macular hole is relatively uncommon [13].

While the majority of age-related macular holes are idiopathic in etiology, full-thickness

macular holes may also occur in association with high myopia, following posterior segment surgery such as scleral buckling and pneumatic retinopexy, and following ocular trauma. Traumatic macular holes typically result from blunt injury, but have also been reported following laser injury and lightning strike.

Summary for the Clinician

- Idiopathic full-thickness macular holes are caused by traction exerted by the posterior vitreous cortex on the neurosensory retina at the fovea. Disinsertion of its glial plug results in the formation of a foveal “cyst.” Avulsion of the cyst roof results in a free operculum suspended on the posterior vitreous cortex. The neurosensory retina retracts centrifugally to form a full-thickness retinal dehiscence.

1.3 Clinical Staging

Macular hole formation typically evolves through a series of four major stages that were first described according to their biomicroscopic features by Gass (Fig. 1.1, Table 1.1) [5, 14]. Stage 1 (‘impending’) macular hole is loss of the normal

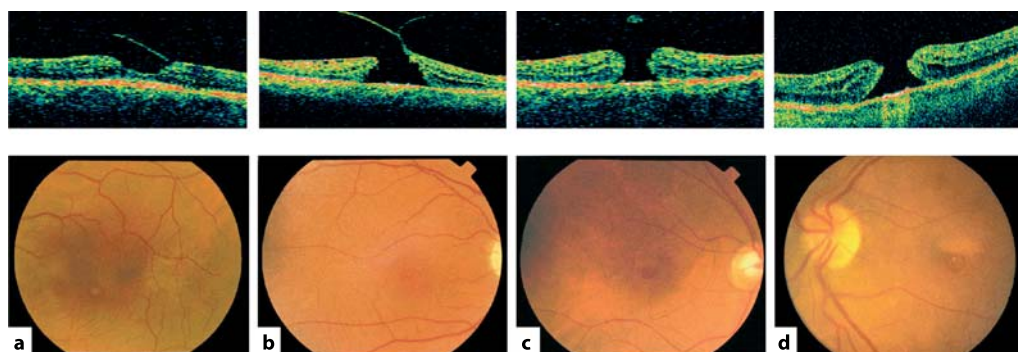


Fig. 1.1 Fundus photographs and OCT images of stage 1–4 macular holes. **a** Stage 1b lesion with a partial-thickness foveal defect. **b** Stage 2 full-thickness hole associated with persistent vitreo-foveal attachment. **c** Stage 3 full-thickness hole with separation of the vitreous from the macula and a fully detached operculum on the posterior hyaloid face. **d** Stage 4 full-thickness hole with complete posterior vitreous separation from the macula and optic disc

Table 1.1 Clinical features and natural history of idiopathic macular holes

	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
Symptoms	Asymptomatic, or mild metamorphopsia	Metamorphopsia and loss of central vision	Metamorphopsia and loss of central vision	Metamorphopsia and loss of central vision
Visual acuity	20/20–20/60	20/40–20/100	20/60–20/200	20/60–20/400
Biomicroscopy	Loss of foveal depression	Full-thickness retinal defect	Full-thickness retinal defect	Full-thickness retinal defect
	Yellow spot (1a) or yellow ring (1b)	Typically $\leq 200 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter	Typically 250–400 μm in diameter	Typically $\geq 450 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter
			Operculum may be evident	Operculum may be evident
	Posterior vitreous attached to fovea and optic disc	Posterior vitreous attached to fovea and optic disc	Posterior vitreous typically detached from fovea, but attached to optic disc	Posterior vitreous detached from both fovea and optic disc
Natural history	50% regress 40% progress 10% stabilize	15–21% regress 75% progress	5% regress 30% progress	20% enlarge

foveal depression, associated with the development of a yellow spot (stage 1a) or ring (stage 1b) in the centre of the fovea, changes that reflect the intraretinal schisis that progresses into an intraretinal cyst. A foveal dehiscence may be masked on biomicroscopy (stage 1-b, occult hole) by semi-opaque contracted prefoveolar vitreous cortex bridging the yellow ring. Stage 2 is a small full-thickness hole ($\leq 200 \mu\text{m}$), typically with a pericentric configuration, associated with persistent vitreo-foveal attachment. Stage 3 is a larger full-thickness hole (250–400 μm) with a rim of elevated retina and separation of the posterior hyaloid from the macula. A fully detached operculum on the posterior hyaloid may be evident on biomicroscopy. Stage 4 is a full-thickness hole ($\geq 450 \mu\text{m}$) with complete posterior vitreous separation from the optic disc, typically demonstrated by the presence of a Weiss ring.

1.4 Natural History

The natural history of macular holes is typically to progress in size and clinical stage, with deterioration in visual acuity that generally stabilizes at the 6/60 to 3/60 level, redistribution of yellow nodular opacities at the level of the retinal pigment epithelium, and the development of retinal pigment epithelial atrophy surrounding the macular hole, resulting in a 'bull's-eye' macular appearance.

An estimated 40% of stage 1 (impending) macular holes progress to full-thickness holes [15], but up to 50% resolve spontaneously [15, 16]. Stage 2 macular holes typically enlarge, with progression to stage 3 in at least 75% of cases [10, 16, 17] and spontaneous closure has been reported in no more than 15–21% [10, 13, 16]. Stage 3 holes progress to stage 4 in approximately 30% of cases over 3 years [16]. Full-thickness holes tend to enlarge modestly; by 25% during the first 12 months and by 29% at 24 months,