Comparison of Ocular Biomery in Primary Open Angle Glaucoma and Non-glaucoma in South West Nigeria

Abstract

Background: Glaucoma is a public health problem in Nigeria. The number of individuals affected by glaucoma in Nigeria is much higher than the individuals known to have the disease. Ocular parameters such as intraocular pressure, central cornea thickness, axial length and refractive error have all been documented as risk factors of glaucoma especially among Caucasians and African Americans, with little documentation in Africa where there's an alarming rate of blindness. Aim and Objectives: To compare central cornea thickness (CCT), intraocular pressure (IOP), axial length (AL) and refractive state in participants with primary open angle glaucoma (POAG) and nonglaucoma in South-West Nigeria. Materials and Methods: This hospital-based case-control study was carried out among 184 newly diagnosed POAG and non-glaucoma adult participants attending the outpatient clinic of Eleta eye institute. The CCT, IOP, AL and refractive state were measured in each participant. Test of significance between proportions in categorical variables were assessed using chi square test (χ 2) in both groups. The means were compared using independent t-test while correlation between parameters were analyzed using Pearson correlation coefficient. Results: The mean age of the POAG participants was 57.16+13.3 years and the mean age of the non-glaucoma participants was 54.15 + 13.4 years. The mean IOP in the POAG group was 30.2 + 8.9mmHg while non-glaucoma group was 14.2 + 2.6mmHg (P < 0.001), other ocular parameters were not significantly different in both groups. In the POAG group, decreased spherical equivalent refractive error (i.e increasing myopia) was significantly associated with increased axial length (r = -0.252, P = 0.01), but not significant in the non- glaucoma group. However, in the non-glaucoma group, central cornea thickness increased with increasing intraocular pressure (r = 0.305, P = 0.003), which was not significant in the glaucoma group. Conclusion: Patients with POAG had much higher IOP and thus, IOP remains a significant risk factor in its development. There was a significant relationship between refractive state and axial length in the POAG group while a significant relationship was identified between central cornea thickness and intraocular pressure in the non-glaucoma group.

Keywords: AL, CCT, glaucoma, IOP, non- glaucoma, ocular biometry, refractive state

Introduction

Glaucoma is a global health problem. It is the leading cause of irreversible blindness worldwide^[1] as it is responsible for 8% of blindness among the 39 million people blind worldwide.^[2] Africa has the highest prevalence of blindness due to glaucoma compared to other regions in the world accounting for about 15% of blindness with an increased prevalence of primary open angle glaucoma (POAG).^[3] It has been reported that primary open angle glaucoma is about 4–5 times higher in blacks compared to Caucasians with an earlier age of onset and a fast progression of disease course.^[4] Glaucoma is a devastating and a huge health problem in Nigeria. It ranks as the second leading cause of blindness with a prevalence of 5.02% among adults 40years and older.^[5] The number of individuals affected by glaucoma is much higher than the individuals known to have the disease, as glaucoma can remain asymptomatic in the early stages until it becomes severe resulting in blindness.^[6] In Nigeria, about 50% of persons are already blind in one eye at presentation and with advanced damage in the other eye.^[7,8] This could be attributed to the poor health seeking behaviour especially with the absence of pain which seems to be the driving force for presentation to the hospital.^[9] Other factors such as the absence of visual loss in the early stages,^[7] limited eye

How to cite this article: Oluwaniyi AT, Olawoye O, Sarimiye TF, K. Ajayi BG. Comparison of ocular biomery in primary open angle glaucoma and non-glaucoma in South West Nigeria. J West Afr Coll Surg 2023;13:37-44.

Ajibola Toyin Oluwaniyi, Olusola Olawoye¹, Tarela Frederick Sarimiye¹, B. G. K. Ajayi

Eleta Eye Institute, Olomi Academy, ¹Department of Ophthalmology, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria

Received: 29-Oct-2022 Accepted: 05-Dec-2022 Published: 20-Mar-2023

Address for correspondence: Dr. Ajibola Toyin Oluwaniyi, P.O. Box 29715, Secretariat Post Office, Eleta, Ibadan. E-mail: jibola.babalola@ yahoo.com



This is an open access journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

For reprints contact: reprints@medknow.com

care facilities with unequal distribution (more in urban than rural areas), low literacy level, lack of awareness and poverty have also contributed to the late presentation and delayed diagnosis.^[9] Thus, the need for early and accurate screening.

Case detection is often very difficult especially in developing countries such as Nigeria where there are resource constraints despite the increasing proportion of glaucoma cases. Early detection of glaucoma is important in reducing the rate of blindness from the disease. Hence, the need for a high index of suspicion in glaucoma diagnosis.

Ocular parameters such as intraocular pressure,^[10,11] thin central cornea,^[12-16] long axial length^[17,18] and myopic refractive error^[19,20] have all been documented as risk factors of glaucoma especially among Caucasians and African Americans, with little documentation in Africa where there's an alarming rate of blindness. Several studies have been done on the relationship between these ocular parameters in glaucoma and normal subjects with conflicting results.^[21-26] An understanding of the influence of these ocular parameters and the relationship between these parameters in both glaucoma and non-glaucoma subjects can help explain the increased risk of an individual for glaucoma development. This information is important to understand their relevance (if any) in the development of glaucoma among continental Africans. The aim of this study is to assess ocular parameters such as intraocular pressure, central cornea thickness, axial length, refractive state and the relationships between them in POAG and non-POAG participants in South West Nigeria.

Ibadan is the capital of Oyo state, one of the six states that make up the South-west geo political zones in Nigeria. It is also the biggest city in Africa. Eleta Eye Institute is located in the heart of Ibadan, which is the most popular and densely populated area of Ibadan. It is a non-profit, hospital owned by the Catholic Arch Diocese of Ibadan. It lies adjacent to the St Mary's catholic hospital and it offers comprehensive eye care services which includes general ophthalmic, medical and surgical services. The patients come from Ibadan, surrounding towns and neighbouring states of Ogun, Osun, Ondo, and Ekiti and other parts of the country.

Materials and Methods

Study design

This was a comparative study.

Study population

Adult participants who were 30 years and older (consisting of 92 POAG and 92 non-glaucoma) of diverse ethnic and religious background attending the outpatient clinic of Eleta Eye Institute, Ibadan. The primary open angle glaucoma (POAG) group consists of newly diagnosed, previously untreated primary open angle glaucoma participants while the control group consists of participants without glaucoma, family history of glaucoma or any ocular pathology, presenting to the hospital for routine ophthalmological examinations.

Inclusion criteria

Participants aged ≥ 30 years old with visual acuity better than or equal to 6/60 in the absence of ocular pathologies, absence of systemic diseases and those without a previous history of ocular surgery were included.

Newly diagnosed cases of POAG in both eyes were defined as optic nerve head changes such as \geq 97.5th percentile of the VCDR (\geq 0.7) or VCDR asymmetry (\geq 0.1) or a neuroretinal rim width reduced to less than or equal to 0.1 CDR, with a reliable standardized automated perimetry confirming visual field defects due to glaucoma;^[27] open anterior chamber angles with at least visualization of scleral spur on gonioscopy without indentation (Shaffer's grading 3–4 in all quadrants); intraocular pressure > 21mmHg.

Non-glaucoma (controls) cases were defined as healthy participants with no ocular features suggestive of glaucoma i.e. VCDR <0.4, normal visual fields on standard automated perimetry, IOP <21mmHg, with no family history of glaucoma and not on treatment for glaucoma.

Also included was refractive error (calculated as the spherical equivalent which is the spherical refractive error plus half the cylindrical refractive error) on autorefraction \geq -3D or < +3D. Myopes were defined as spherical equivalent -0.25D to -3D while hypermetropes were defined as spherical equivalent +0.25D to +3D.

Exclusion criteria

Participants less than 30 years old with visual acuity worse than 6/60, ocular and systemic diseases and those with previous history of ocular surgery were excluded from the study. Furthermore eyes with high degrees of ametropia (< -3D or > +3D) were also excluded.

Data collection process

Participants who met the inclusion criteria underwent detailed ophthalmological examinations including visual acuity measurement using Snellens and tumbling E chart, anterior and posterior segment examination, intraocular pressure (IOP) measurement using a calibrated Goldmann applanation tonometer, central cornea thickness (CCT) and axial length were measured using ultrasound pachymeter (Sonomed Pacscan Plus, Model 300AP+) and refractive error measurement (spherical equivalent) with Auto refractor (Zeiss Acuitus Model 5015).

Visual field analysis was also carried out using automated Humphrey visual field analyzer (2010 Zeiss Meditec HFA II 750). All measurements were taken before commencement of anti-glaucoma therapy in participants with glaucoma.

Data analysis

Data was analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 23.0. Proportions and percentages

were used for qualitative variables, while numeric data was presented in mean and range. Test of significance of qualitative variables between the two groups were assessed using chi square test (χ 2). Test of significance of quantitative variables between the two independent groups was done using Independent t test. The relationships between parameters were analyzed using Pearson correlation (r). The correlation is referred to as weak if correlation coefficient (r) lies between 0.10 and <0.40, moderate if r is between 0.40 and <0.70, and strong if r is between 0.70–1.00. The p-value level of statistical significance was set at 0.05. Data was collected from both eyes but analysis was carried out in the right eye as there was a strong correlation between observations from both eyes across all variables.

Ethical considerations

The study was conducted in accordance to the tenets of Helsinki declaration. Ethical approval was obtained

from the Ethical Review Board of the Sebastian Centre for Ophthalmic Research and Education, Eleta Eye Institute, Ibadan. A written informed consent was also obtained from each participant before being included in the study.

Result

A total of 184 participants were included in this study. The mean age of the participants with POAG was 57.16 ± 13.28 years and 54.15 ± 13.39 years in the non-glaucoma (control) group. There were more female participants in both groups, however no statistically significant difference was demonstrated between both groups for age and sex. [Table 1] displays the demographic and clinical characteristics of both groups.

[Table 2] compares the mean ocular parameters in the POAG and control groups. The mean IOP in the glaucoma

Variable	ographic and clinical characterist POAG (%) N=92	CONTROL (%) N= 92	p-value	
Age (Mean±SD	57.16±13.28	54.15±13.39	0.127	
8			0.127	
30 – 39 years	10 (10.8)	13 (14.1)		
40 – 49 years	19 (20.6)	21 (22.8)		
50-59 years	17 (18.4)	26 (28.2)		
60-69 years	26 (28.2)	13 (14.1)		
70 years and above	20 (21.7)	19 (20.6)		
Sex			0.455	
Male	41 (44.5)	36 (39.1)		
Female	51 (55.4)	56 (60.8)		
History of spectacle use			0.286	
Yes	38 (41.3)	31 (33.7)		
No	54 (58.7)	61 (66.3)		
History of Hypertension			0.292	
Yes	24 (26.0)	18 (19.5)		
No	68 (73.9)	74 (80.4)		
Family history of glaucoma	27 (29.4)	Nil		
Visual acuity in the better eye			< 0.001*	
≥ 6/18	66 (71.7)	85 (92.3)		
6/18 - 6/60	26 (28.2)	7 (7.6)		
VCDR	0.90 ± 0.11	0.27 ± 0.06	< 0.001*	
Average mean deviation (dB)	12.88 ± 5.97	-1.87 ± 0.67		

*Statistically significant at p<0.05, POAG- primary open angle glaucoma, VCDR- vertical cup to disc ratio

Variable	POAG N=92		CONTROL N=92		p-value
	Mean±SD	Range Min& Max	Mean±SD	Range Min& Max	
SE (Dioptre)					
Myopia	-1.25+0.9	-3 to -0.25	-1.04 + 1.0	-3 to -0.25	0.44
Hypermetropia	1.07 ± 0.8	0.25 - 3	1.15+0.6	0.25 -3	0.55
IOP (mmHg)	30.2 ± 8.9	22.0-62.0	14.2 ± 2.6	10.0-20.0	< 0.001*
CCT (µm)	513.5 ± 38.6	433.0-592.0	518.8 ± 31.6	421.0-616.0	0.21
AL (mm)	24.4 ± 0.8	21.4-25.7	$24.2.\pm0.8$	20.9-25.9	0.34

Statistically significant at 0.05 level, POAG- primary open angle glaucoma, SE- spherical equivalent, IOP- intraocular pressure, CCT- central cornea thickness, AL- axial length

group was 30.2 ± 8.9 mmHg while the control group was 14.2 ± 2.6 mmHg. This difference was found to be statistically significant (*P* < 0.001). There were more hypermetropes in both the POAG (68/92, 73.9%) and control (50/92, 54.3%) groups compared to myopes, although the number of myopes (33/92, 35.9%) in the POAG group were more than in the control group (19/92, 20.7%). The mean spherical equivalent in the POAG group was -1.25 + 0.9D for myopes and 1.07+0.80D for hyperopes while it was -1.04+1.0D and 1.15+0.66D for the control group respectively. There were no significant differences between the mean spherical equivalent (*P* = 0.44 and *P* = 0.55), central cornea thickness (*P* = 0.21) and axial length (*P* = 0.34) in the POAG and control groups.

The mean ocular parameters of different refractive states in POAG and control were compared in [Table 3]. A statistically significant difference (p=<0.001) was found between the mean IOP in the POAG and control groups for both myopes and hyperopes. No significant difference was demonstrated between the mean CCT (P = 0.22), (P = 0.35) and AL (P = 0.29), (P = 0.83) in both groups for myopes and hyperopes respectively.

[Table 4] shows the correlation between ocular parameters in the POAG group. Among all subjects in the POAG group, a statistically significant negative correlation (r= -0.252, P = 0.01) was found between refractive error and axial length such that axial length increases with increasing myopia. No significant correlation was found between other ocular parameters. In POAG participants with myopia, no significant correlation was found between the ocular parameters but participants with hypermetropia showed a significant weak negative correlation (r=-0.389, P=0.02) between refractive error and central cornea thickness. Thus, with increasing hypermetropia, central cornea thickness decreases.

As shown in [Table 5] below, there was a significant positive correlation between central cornea thickness and intraocular pressure in the control group. This correlation was also demonstrated by the control hypermetropes. Hence central cornea thickness increases with increasing intraocular pressure. However, central cornea thickness and axial length were positively correlated in the myopic subgroup such that longer eyes had thicker corneas.

Discussion

This study aimed at providing information on ocular parameters such as central cornea thickness, intraocular pressure, axial length and refractive state in subjects diagnosed with primary open angle glaucoma and controls.

The mean intraocular pressure in the POAG group was significantly greater than that of the controls (P < 0.001). This has been consistently reported by several studies, further emphasizing the importance of intraocular pressure as a significant, independent and modifiable risk factor of glaucoma.^[28-30] In this study, the participants in the POAG subgroup had lower mean central cornea thickness than controls but the difference was not statistically significant

Table 3: Com	paring ocular parameters in POAG and c	control groups of different refractive	errors
Variable	Poag	Control	p- value
MYOPES			
IOP	30.73 + 8.6	13.47 +2.2	< 0.001*
CCT	510.4+ 33.8	522.5 +34.3	0.22
AL	23.72 +0.8	23.46 +0.8	0.29
HYPERMETROPES			
IOP	29.22 +7.9	14.57+2.7	< 0.001*
CCT	513.3+ 40.8	519.6 +33.13	0.35
AL	23.28 +0.7	23.25+0.8	0.83

* Statistically significant at 0.05 level, POAG- primary open angle glaucoma, IOP- intraocular pressure, CCT- central cornea thickness, AL- axial length

Table 4: Correlation analysis between ocular parameters of primary open angle glaucoma subjects					
Variables	SE vs CCT	CCTvs IOP	SEvs IOP	SE vs AL	CCTvsAL
ALL SUBJECTS					
Pearson correlation (r)	0.036	0.174	-0.111	-0.252	0.134
P value	0.73	0.09	0.29	0.01*	0.20
MYOPIA					
Pearson correlation (r)	-0.010	0.098	-0.107	0.03	0.076
P value	0.95	0.58	0.55	0.84	0.67
HYPERMETROPIA					
Pearson correlation (r)	-0.389	0.081	0.108	-0.307	0.214
P value	0.02*	0.63	0.52	0.06	0.20

*statistically significant, SE- Spherical equivalent, CCT-Central corneal thickness, IOP- Intraocular pressure, AL- Axial length

Oluwaniyi, et al.: Comparison of ocular biomery in primary open angle glaucoma and non-glaucoma

Variables	SEvs CCT	CCTvs IOP	SEvs IOP	SE vs AL	CCTvs AI
ALL SUBJECTS					
Pearson correlation (r)	-0.097	0.305	0.069	-0.157	0.187
P value	0.35	0.003*	0.50	0.13	0.07
MYOPIA					
Pearson correlation (r)	-0.375	0.095	-0.369	0.071	0.469
P value	0.11	0.69	0.12	0.77	0.04*
HYPERMETROPIA					
Pearson correlation (r)	0.085	0.484	-0.021	-0.172	0.033
P value	O.51	< 0.001*	0.86	0.18	0.79

*statistically significant, SE- Spherical equivalent, CCT-Central corneal thickness, IOP- Intraocular pressure, AL- Axial length

(P = 0.21). Similar findings comparing central cornea thickness in POAG and control were reported by Mercieca *et al.*^[31] in Nigeria and Ntim-Amposah *et al.*^[32] in Ghana where central cornea thickness of POAG patients were found to be thinner than controls but was not statistically significant. However, the reports by La Rosa *et al.*^[33] and Ventura *et al.*^[34] in other studies showed that the central cornea thickness in glaucoma subjects were significantly thinner than controls.

Comparing the mean spherical equivalent in glaucoma and control groups showed no significant difference among myopes (P = 0.44) and hypermetropes (P = 0.55). This was also demonstrated by Yazdani et al.[35] where no significant difference was found between spherical equivalent in POAG and control (P = 0.354). In contrast, Elgin et al.^[36] reported that patients with glaucoma were more myopic than controls (mean spherical equivalent -1.94 + 1.86 vs -0.76 + 2.03 dioptres (P = 0.048). This difference could be attributed to the age group studied as the patients were much older in the present study and the study by Yazdani compared to the latter study. The participants in this study were more hypermetropic. It has been demonstrated that hypermetropia tends to increase with ageing.^[37] This hypermetropic shift was attributed to a decrease in cornea and lens power with ageing.^[37] Perhaps, the increase in the number of participants in the older age group in our study compared to the younger age group in the study by Elgin et al. could explain the slight hyperopic shift as opposed to myopia.

The mean axial length of the glaucoma group and control group were not significantly different (P = 0.34). This was also consistent with studies by Adewara *et al.*^[30,32] and Tomais *et al.*^[38] while Oku *et al.*^[18] and Gupta *et al.*^[39] in contrast, demonstrated that participants in the primary open angle glaucoma group had significantly longer axial length compared to the control group (P = 0.001). This difference could be attributed to a difference in the sample size as both studies had a larger sample size compared to the present study.

There's no general consensus as to how central cornea thickness varies with refractive error. In this study, all participants in the POAG and control group showed no association between the two parameters while in the POAG hypermetropic group, with increasing hypermetropia, the cornea had a tendency to become thinner (r = -0.389, P = 0.02). Similar to this study, Mavic *et al.*^[40] in primary open angle glaucoma patients also found no correlation between the two parameters (r=-0.108, P = 0.615). Krishnan *et al.*^[26] demonstrated that central cornea thickness increased with increasing myopia and vice versa in a normal population (r= -0.172, P = 0.03). This was also supported by Betiku et al.^[41] In contrast Chang et al.,^[21] showed that central cornea thickness was positively correlated with refractive error as central cornea was found to be thinner in more myopic eyes, however this was not statistically significant. They suggested that a decrease in cornea thickness is as a result of anterior segment changes as the eyeball elongates in myopes. The study population were however younger compared to the present study.

Furthermore, the correlation between central cornea thickness and axial length was not significant (r= 0.134, P = 0.20) in the POAG group but significant in the control myopic group (r= 0.469, P = 0.04) such that as the axial length increased, the central cornea thickness also increased. This finding was consistent with studies of Betiku *et al.* in Nigeria,^[41] Lee *et al.*^[42] in Korea and Krishnan *et al.*^[26] in India (in a healthy population) which showed that an increase in axial length was associated with a corresponding increase in central cornea thickness. Lee *et al.*^[42] suggested the possibility of the development of a passive protective mechanism against cornea thinning as the eye ball elongates which could vary based on genetic, ethnic or environmental factors.

Shimmoyo *et al.*,^[43] Olivera *et al.*^[44] and Tomais *et al.*^[38] on the other hand found no correlation between the two parameters in subjects with glaucoma as reported in this study while Solu *et al.*^[45] and Chang *et al.*^[21] in a group of healthy subjects reported that there was a significant decrease in central cornea thickness as axial length increases. The finding of the present study therefore is at variance with the theory of cornea thinning as a marker for sclera thinning and a thin scleral bed of lamina cribosa associated with elongated eyes which is said to be a predisposing factor in

the development of glaucoma.^[43,46] Olivera *et al*.^[44] noted that the effect of thin CCT on glaucoma risk other than IOP estimation might just be theoretical but however suggested that direct *in vivo* measurement of scleral thickness might provide more insight into the relationship between thin CCT and scleral thickness.

There was a significant inverse correlation between refractive state and axial length in the POAG group (r= -0.252, P = 0.01) but not significant in the control group (r = -0.157p = 0.13) such that as axial length increased, there was an increase in myopic refractive state. This was consistent with that reported by some studies.^[39,47] Gupta et al.[39] showed that as axial length increased, the severity of myopia increased in both glaucoma group and controls but added that the glaucoma group had a significantly longer axial length (P < 0.001) compared to controls which could have predisposed to the increased risk of development of glaucoma. Cahane et al.[48] demonstrated in a model that eyes with long axial length and thin sclera are predisposed to increased tension within the lamina cribosa which increases the risk of damage to nerve fibers coursing through it.

There have been several reports of a correlation between intraocular pressure and refractive error. The relationship between refractive error and intraocular pressure in this study was not significant in both groups which is similar to the findings of Chinawa et al.[49] who noted a poor correlation between intraocular pressure and myopia. They suggested the possibility of mechanisms other than intraocular pressure playing a role in the development and progression of myopia. Mathapathi et al.[50] also found no correlation between intraocular pressure and low, moderate myopia and hypermetropia consistent with this study but reported that there was a significant correlation between intraocular pressure and high myopia. Glaucoma genes were suggested to play a vital role in the development of high ocular tension among high myopes. Nomoura et al.,^[51] demonstrated that intraocular pressure significantly increased with advancing degrees of myopia, even after controlling for factors such as central cornea thickness and age (P = 0.011). This observation was also supported by Osaiyuwu et al.^[52] Theories surrounding the interaction between increasing degrees of myopia and intraocular pressure have been inconclusive. It was suggested that increasing levels of intraocular pressure results in gradual stretching of the eyeball leading to myopia^[53] while others suggested that increase in scleral tension within the lamina cribosa results in increased susceptibility to damage in myopes even when the intraocular pressure is normal.^[54]

A positive relationship was found between CCT and IOP in the present study. There was a significant increase in IOP with an increase in CCT in the control group (r=0.305, P = 0.003) but not significant in the glaucoma group (r= 0.174, P = 0.09). This is consistent with the report of several hospital and population-based studies.[55-58] Herndon et al.[57] and Soriano et al.[58] found no significant relationship between CCT and IOP in glaucoma patients but noted a significant relationship in controls and ocular hypertensives respectively. It was suggested that CCT may be an independent factor unrelated to other ocular parameters in the pathogenesis of glaucoma. Iyamu et al.,^[59] found a significant relationship between CCT and IOP among ocular hypertensives but noted that the relationship was not significant in glaucoma patients and controls. In contrast, Tonnu et al.^[60] and Gelaw et al.^[61] reported that there was a significant positive association between CCT and IOP in glaucoma patients. Hence, the impact of a thin cornea in the underestimation of intraocular pressure with resultant delay in treatment should always be considered by a clinician. Variations in instruments used in the measurement of ocular parameters, study designs, age and size of the study population could play a pivotal role in disparities in study results. The limitations of the study includes, the hospital based setting which could have introduced selection bias and the small sample size of the study population.

Conclusion

There was a significant increase in intraocular pressure in the POAG group compared to control group which further emphasizes the importance of intraocular pressure as an independent, modifiable risk factor of primary open angle glaucoma. There is no difference in other ocular parameters between the two groups. Myopia increased with increasing axial length in the POAG group. IOP increased with an increase in CCT in the control group. Thus, the importance of pachymetry in the interpretation of intraocular pressure measurement. This study as compared to others suggests that variations exist in the relationship between ocular parameters. This is the first study, to the best of the authors' knowledge that will compare the relationship between these ocular parameters in glaucoma and controls in Nigeria.^[28,30,41,47,51,52,55,56,59] More studies with larger sample size representative of the general population are needed to elucidate on the exact role (if any) of the relationship between these ocular parameters in the pathogenesis of glaucoma.

Acknowledgement

The authors gratefully acknowledge research assistant Ms Ibukun, ophthalmic nurse Ms Ronke Osho, refractionist Mr Taiwo and ophthalmic technician Mr Adebayo Gabriel for their invaluable contribution to this project.

Financial support and sponsorship

Nil.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

References

- 1. Li X, Tham YC, Cheng CY, Quigley HA, Aung T, Wong TY. Global prevalence of glaucoma and projections of glaucoma burden through 2040. Ophthalmology2014;121:2081-90.
- Pascolini D, Mariotti SP. Global estimates of visual impairment: 2010. Br J Ophthalmol 2012;96:614-8.
- Faal H, Bastawrous A, Gilbert C, Abdull M, Kyari F. Epidemiology of glaucoma in Sub-Saharan Africa: Prevalence, incidence and risk factors. Middle East African Journal of Ophthalmology 2014;20:111-25.
- 4. Sharpsten L, Liebmann JM, Khachatryan N, Miki A, Hammel N, Sample PA, *et al.* The african descent and glaucoma evaluation study (ADAGES): Predictors of visual field damage in glaucoma suspects. Am J Ophthalmol 2015;159:777-87.
- 5. Kyari F, Abdull MM, Wormald R, Evans JR, Nolan W, Murthy GV, *et al.*; Nigeria National Blindness and Visual Impairment Study Group. Risk factors for open-angle glaucoma in Nigeria: Results from the nigeria national blindness and visual impairment survey. BMC Ophthalmol 2016;16:78.
- Adekoya BJ, Shah SP, Onakoya AO, Ayanniyi AA. Glaucoma in southwest Nigeria: Clinical presentation, family history and perceptions. Int Ophthalmol 2014;34:1027-36.
- Omoti AE, Osahon AI, Waziri-Erameh MJ. Pattern of presentation of primary open-angle glaucoma in Benin city, Nigeria. Trop Doct 2006;36:97-100.
- Enock ME, Omoti AE, Momoh RO. Glaucoma in a suburban tertiary care hospital in Nigeria. J Ophthalmic Vis Res 2010;5:87-91.
- 9. Abdu L. Epidemiological properties of primary open angle glaucoma in Nigeria. J Ophthalmol 2013;2013:402739.
- Wilson MR, Hertzmark E, Walker AM, Childs-Shaw K, Epstein DL. A case-control study of risk factors in open angle glaucoma. Arch Ophthalmol 1987;105:1066-71.
- 11. Ocular Hypertension Treatment Study Group MO, European Glaucoma Prevention Study Group, Gordon MO, Torri V, Miglior S, Beiser JA, Floriani I, Miller JP, *et al.* Validated prediction model for the development of primary openangle glaucoma in individuals with ocular hypertension. Ophthalmology 2007;114:10-19.
- Brandt JD, Beiser JA, Kass MA, Gordon MO. Central corneal thickness in the ocular hypertension treatment study (OHTS). Ophthalmology 2001;108:1779-88.
- Gordon MO, Beiser JA, Brandt JD, Heuer DK, Higginbotham EJ, Johnson CA, *et al.* The ocular hypertension treatment study: Baseline factors that predict the onset of primary open-angle glaucoma. Arch Ophthalmol 2002;120:714-20; discussion 829–30.
- 14. Herndon LW, Weizer JS, Stinnett SS. Central corneal thickness as a risk factor for advanced glaucoma damage. Arch Ophthalmol 2004;122:17-21.
- Chan TCW, Bala C, Siu A, Wan F, White A. Risk factors for rapid glaucoma disease progression. Am J Ophthalmol 2017;180:151-7.
- Aghaian E, Choe JE, Lin S, Stamper RL. Central corneal thickness of caucasians, chinese, hispanics, filipinos, african americans, and japanese in a glaucoma clinic. Ophthalmology 2004;111:2211-9.
- Leighton DA, Tomlinson A. Ocular tension and axial length of the eyeball in open-angle glaucoma and low tension glaucoma. Br J Ophthalmol 1973;57:499-502.
- Oku Y, Oku H, Park M, Hayashi K, Takahashi H, Shouji T, *et al.* Long axial length as risk factor for normal tension glaucoma. Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol 2009;247:781-7.
- 19. Mitchell P, Hourihan F, Sandbach J, Wang JJ. The relationship

between glaucoma and myopia: The blue mountains eye study. Ophthalmology 1999;106:2010-5.

- Marcus MW, de Vries MM, Junoy Montolio FG, Jansonius NM. Myopia as a risk factor for open-angle glaucoma: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Ophthalmology 2011;118:1989-1994. e2.
- 21. Chang SW, Tsai IL, Hu FR, Lin LL, Shih YF. The cornea in young myopic adults. Br J Ophthalmol 2001;85:916-20.
- 22. Iyamu E, Iyamu JE, Amadasun G. Central corneal thickness and axial length in an adult Nigerian population. J Optom 2013;6:154-60.
- Radcliffe NM, Stein J, Farris E. Relationship between central cornea thickness and refractive error in caucasians and African American glaucoma patients. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 2005;46:3656.
- Bueno-Gimeno I, Gene-Sampedro A, Piñero-Llorens DP, Lanzagorta-Aresti A, España-Gregori E. Corneal biomechanics, retinal nerve fiber layer, and optic disc in children. Optom Vis Sci 2014;91:1474-82.
- 25. Su DH, Wong TY, Foster PJ, Tay WT, Saw SM, Aung T. Central corneal thickness and its associations with ocular and systemic factors: The singapore malay eye study. Am J Ophthalmol 2009;147:709-16.e1.
- Muthu Krishnan V, Jayalatha K, Vijayakumar C. Correlation of central corneal thickness and keratometry with refraction and axial length: A prospective analytic study. Cureus 2019;11:e3917.
- 27. Foster PJ, Buhrmann R, Quigley HA, Johnson GJ. The definition and classification of glaucoma in prevalence surveys. Br J Ophthalmol 2002;86:238-42.
- 28. Iyamu E, Kio F, Idu F, Osedeme B. The relationship between central corneal thickness and intraocular pressure in adult Nigerians without glaucoma. Sierra Leone J Biomed Res 2011;2:95-102.
- Ashaye A, Ashaolu O, Komolafe O, Ajayi BG, Olawoye O, Olusanya B, *et al.* Prevalence and types of glaucoma among an indigenous african population in southwestern Nigeria. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 2013;54:7410-6.
- 30. Adewara BA, Adegbehingbe BO, Onakpoya OH, Ihemedu CG. Relationship between intraocular pressure, anterior chamber depth and lens thickness in primary open-angle glaucoma patients. Int Ophthalmol 2018;38:541-7.
- Mercieca K, Odogu V, Fiebai B, Arowolo O, Chukwuka F. Comparing central corneal thickness in a sub-saharan cohort to african americans and afro-caribbeans. Cornea 2007;26:557-60.
- 32. Ntim-Amponsah CT, Seidu AY, Essuman VA, Fordjour G, Tagoe NN, Coker A, *et al.* A study of central corneal thickness in glaucoma and nonglaucoma patients in a west african population. Cornea 2012;31:1093-6.
- Orengo-Nania S, La Rosa F, Gross R. Central corneal thickness of caucasians and African Americans in glaucomatous and non—glaucomatous populations. Arch Ophthalmol 2001;119:23-7.
- Ventura AC, Böhnke M, Mojon DS. Central corneal thickness measurements in patients with normal tension glaucoma, primary open angle glaucoma, pseudoexfoliation glaucoma, or ocular hypertension. Br J Ophthalmol 2001;85:792-5.
- Yazdani S, Doozandeh A, Haghighat M., Akbarian S, Pakravan M, Yaseri M. Intra subject difference in CCT among POAG versus normal individuals. Optometry and Vision Science 2015;92:879-83.
- Elgin U, Şen E, Uzel M, Yılmazbaş P. Comparison of refractive status and anterior segment parameters of juvenile open-angle

glaucoma and normal subjects. Turk J Ophthalmol 2018;48:295-8.

- 37. Miao L, Zhang ZY, Yu ZQ. Hyperopic shift in refraction in adults with ageing. Graefe's Archive for Clinical and Experimental Ophthalmology 2013;251:2661-2.
- 38. Tomais G, Georgopoulos G, Koutsandrea C, Moschos M. Correlation of central corneal thickness and axial length to the optic disc and peripapillary atrophy among healthy individuals, glaucoma and ocular hypertension patients. Clin Ophthalmol 2008;2:981-8.
- Gupta D, Moore D, Bojikian K. Relationship between eye shape and risk for glaucoma. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 2013;54:3524.
- 40. Mavic V, Markovic V, Bozic M, Marjanovic I. Central corneal thickness, corneal curvature and refractive error in patients with primary angle-closure glaucoma and primary open-angle glaucoma. Prax Medica 2016;44:67-72.
- 41. Betiku AO, Onakoya AO, Aribaba OT, Jagun OO. Relationship between axial length, keratometry and central corneal thickness in patients with refractive errors at a teaching hospital in Southwest, Nigeria. Int J Adv Med 2021;8:1657-63.
- 42. Lee S, Kim B, Oh TH, Kim HS. Correlations between magnitude of refractive error and other optical components in korean myopes. Korean J Ophthalmol 2012;26:324-30.
- Shimmyo M, Orloff PN. Corneal thickness and axial length. Am J Ophthalmol 2005;139:553-4.
- 44. Oliveira C, Tello C, Liebmann J, Ritch R. Central corneal thickness is not related to anterior scleral thickness or axial length. J Glaucoma 2006;15:190-4.
- 45. Solu T, Baravaliya P, Patel I, Kamble S, Savaliya C, Golakiya B. Correlation of central corneal thickness and axial length in myopes, emmetropes, and bypermetr\s. Int J Sci Study 2016;3:206-9.
- Quigley HA, Hohman RM, Addicks EM, Massof RW, Green WR. Morphologic changes in the lamina cribrosa correlated with neural loss in open-angle glaucoma. Am J Ophthalmol 1983;95:673-91.
- Badmus SA, Ajaiyeoba AI, Adegbehingbe BO, Onakpoya OH, Adeoye AO. Axial length/corneal radius of curvature ratio and refractive status in an adult Nigerian population. Niger J Clin Pract 2017;20:1328-34.
- Cahane M, Bartov E. Axial length and scleral thickness effect on susceptibility to glaucomatous damage: A theoretical model implementing laplace's law. Ophthalmic Res 1992;24:280-4.
- 49. Chinawa NE, Adio AO, Chukwuka IO, Giambene B, Hamdi MM. Is there a causal relationship between myopia and

intraocular pressure? Br J Med Res 2017;20:1-7.

- Mathapathi RS, Pathil SS. Association of refractive errors with intraocular pressure and its relationship with age and gender. Indian Journal of Clinical Anatomy and Physiology 2016;3:419-22.
- 51. Nomura H, Ando F, Niino N, Shimokata H, Miyake Y. The relationship between intraocular pressure and refractive error adjusting for age and central corneal thickness. Ophthalmic Physiol Opt 2004;24:41-5.
- 52. Osaiyuwu AB, Edokpa DG. A comparative study of intraocular pressure in myopia and hyperopia among a Nigerian population just diagnosed with primary open angle glaucoma in Benin City. Int J Res Med Sci 2018;6:2234-7.
- Jia X, Yu J, Liao SH, Duan XC. Biomechanics of the sclera and effects on intraocular pressure. Int J Ophthalmol 2016;9:1824-31.
- Quigley HA, Addicks EM, Green WR, Maumenee AE. Optic nerve damage in human glaucoma. II. The site of injury and susceptibility to damage. Arch Ophthalmol 1981;99:635-49.
- 55. Egwuonwu NN. Relationship between central corneal thickness and intraocular pressure in indigenous Africans in Nigeria. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 2013;54:5622.
- 56. Mbatuegwu AI, Achigbu EO, Mbatuegwu CU, Nkwogu FU, Omoti AE. Exploring the relationship between central corneal thickness and intraocular pressure among non-glaucoma patients in a general ophthalmology clinic, South East Nigeria. 2021;29:17-21.
- 57. Herndon LW, Choudhri SA, Cox T, Damji KF, Shields MB, Allingham RR. Central corneal thickness in normal, glaucomatous, and ocular hypertensive eyes. Arch Ophthalmol 1997;115:1137-41.
- 58. Soriano JG, Lat-Luna ML, Khu PM. Correlating central corneal thickness and intraocular pressure in ocular hypertension and glaucoma. PHILIPP J Ophthalmol 2007;32:4-8.
- Iyamu E, Ituah I. The relationship between central corneal thickness and intraocular pressure: A comparative study of normals and glaucoma subjects. Afr J Med Med Sci 2008;37:345-53.
- 60. Tonnu P, Ho T, Newson T. The influence of central corneal thickness and age on intraocular pressure measured by pneumotonometry, non-contact tonometry, the Tono Pen XL, and Goldmann applanation tonometry. British Journal of Ophthalmology 2005; 89:851-4.
- 61. Gelaw Y. The impact of central corneal thickness on intraocular pressure among ethiopian glaucoma patients: A cross-sectional study. BMC Ophthalmol 2012;12:58.