

Does myopia decrease the risk of diabetic retinopathy in both type-1 and type-2 diabetes mellitus?

Swapnil Thakur*, Pavan Kumar Verkicharla*, Priyanka Kammari¹, Padmaja Kumari Rani²

Purpose: To study the relationship between the severity of myopia and the severity of diabetic retinopathy (DR) in individuals with type 1 or type 2 diabetes mellitus (DM). **Methods:** This retrospective study was conducted using data from electronic medical records from a multicentric eyecare network located in various geographic regions of India. Individuals with type 1 or type 2 DM were classified according to their refractive status. Severe nonproliferative DR (NPDR), PDR, or presence of clinically significant macular edema (CSME) with any type of DR was considered as vision-threatening diabetic retinopathy (VTDR). **Results:** A total of 472 individuals with type-1 DM (mean age 41 ± 10 years) and 9341 individuals with type-2 DM (52 ± 9 years) were enrolled. Individuals with a hyperopic refractive error had a significant positive association with the diagnosis of VTDR (odds ratio (OR) 1.26; 95%CI 1.04–1.51, $P = 0.01$) and moderate nonproliferative DR (OR 1.27; 95%CI 1.02–1.59, $P = 0.03$) in type-2 DM; however, no significant association was found in type-1 DM. After adjusting for age, gender, anisometropia, and duration of diabetes, the presence of high myopia (< -6 D) reduced the risk of VTDR in type 2 DM (OR 0.18; 95% CI 0.04–0.77, $P = 0.02$), but no association was found in type 1 DM. Mild and moderate myopia had no significant association with any forms of DR in both type-1 and type-2 DM. **Conclusion:** Hyperopic refractive error was found to increase the risk of VTDR in persons with type 2 DM. High-myopic refractive error is protective for VTDR in type 2 DM, but not in type-1 DM.

Key words: Diabetes mellitus, diabetic retinopathy, myopia, myopia progression, type-1 DM

Diabetic retinopathy (DR) is one of the primary causes of visual impairment in India and Worldwide, occurring in both type-1 and type-2 diabetes mellitus (DM).^[1] The prevalence of DR in individuals with type-2 DM was found to be 18% and 10%, respectively in urban and rural populations of southern India,^[2] which is less than that in China (Beijing Eye Study, 37%),^[3] Australia BMES (Blue Mountain Eye Study, 32%),^[4] and the USA (40%).^[5] In contrast, the prevalence of DR in individuals with young onset type-1 diabetes (age between 10 and 25 years at diagnosis) was 53% in the Indian population,^[6] which was in the same range as that of several countries like Norway (61%)^[7] and Portugal (54%).^[8] Previous epidemiological studies had identified that the risk for developing DR increases with longer duration of diabetes (>15 years), poor glycemic control (HbA1c $>7\%$), and higher systolic blood pressure (per 10 mm of Hg).^[9–13] It was also indicated that ocular factors such as myopia,^[14,15] intraocular pressure,^[16] and posterior vitreous detachment (PVD)^[17,18] were also associated with the occurrence of DR. Depending upon the severity of DR, several clinical features such as microaneurysms, intraretinal hemorrhages,

hard exudates, macular edema, and foveal avascular zone abnormalities, cotton-wool spots, venous bleeding, and intraretinal microvascular abnormalities have been identified to be associated with DR.^[19] The findings reported by Sankara Nethralaya-Diabetic Retinopathy Epidemiological and Molecular Genetic Study (SN-DREAMS, report 18) indicated the higher prevalence of astigmatism (47%) and hyperopia (40%) compared to myopia (20%) in individual with type-2 DM.^[20] In individuals with type-2 DM, myopic refractive errors were associated with poor glycemic control, and those with hyperopic refractive error were found to have low plasma glucose (both acute and chronic) and known diabetes status.^[20,21] A similar observation was noted in individuals with type-1 DM.^[22]

The hypothesis that myopia is a protective factor for DR is not recent, having possibly been first reported by Jain *et al.*^[23] There has been strong evidence on the association of myopia and decreased risk of DR in adult population.^[14,15,24–32] Recent meta-analysis by Fu *et al.*^[15] that included six population-based and five clinic-based studies and Wang *et al.*^[14] that included six population-based and three clinic-based studies examined the association between axial length, refractive error and DR,

Myopia Research Lab, Prof. Brien Holden Eye Research Centre, Brien Holden Institute of Optometry and Vision Sciences, L V Prasad Eye Institute, Hyderabad, ¹Department of EyeSmart EMR and AEye, L V Prasad Eye Institute, Hyderabad, ²Smt. Kanuri Santamma Centre for Vitreoretinal Diseases, Kallam Anji Reddy Campus, L V Prasad Eye Institute, Hyderabad, Telangana, India

*Equal contribution

Correspondence to: Dr. Padmaja Kumari Rani, Network Head, Teleophthamology, L V Prasad Eye Institute, Kallam Anji Reddy Campus, Hyderabad, Telangana, India. E-mail: rpk@lvpei.org

Received: 25-May-2021

Revision: 19-Aug-2021

Accepted: 14-Sep-2021

Published: 29-Oct-2021

Access this article online

Website:

www.ijo.in

DOI:

10.4103/ijo.IJO_1403_21

Quick Response Code:



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: WKHLRPMedknow_reprints@wolterskluwer.com

Cite this article as: Thakur S, Verkicharla PK, Kammari P, Rani PK. Does myopia decrease the risk of diabetic retinopathy in both type-1 and type-2 diabetes mellitus? Indian J Ophthalmol 2021;69:3178-83.

reported that the longer eye length of the myopic eye and the greater the degree of myopic refractive errors reduced the risk of developing DR. However, few population-based studies such as the Beijing Eye study^[33] and SN-DREAMS report^[34] reported no significant association between myopia and DR. Likewise, Jee *et al.*^[35] reported no significant association of myopia and hyperopia with the presence of DR in an adult population of more than 40 years old.

To date, previous studies only included adult-onset type-2 DM to evaluate the association of myopia and decreased risk of DR, leaving a gap in the literature about the association of myopia or the different grades of myopia with the decreased risk of DR in people with younger-onset diabetes. Therefore, the influence of myopia (mild, moderate, and high) on the occurrence of DR in persons with type-1 DM remained unknown.

Based on a large data set of individuals with diabetes from a multicentric eyecare network institutes situated in the eastern and southern geographical regions of India, the present study aims to investigate the association between the severity of myopia and the severity of DR in people with type-1 or type-2 DM.

Methods

This retrospective study was carried out using data from four tertiary eye care network institutes located in different geographic regions of India. The study was approved by the Institutional Ethics Review Board (LEC 09-17-094), and it follows the principles of the Helsinki Declaration. All individuals provided a general informed consent to the use of data for the research purposes at the time of registration for their eye examination. For children under 18 years, the parent/guardian provided the consent.

The required data of individuals who visited one of the tertiary eye care centers located in different geographical locations of India (Bhubaneswar, Vijayawada, Visakhapatnam, Hyderabad) between January 2016 to December 2016 for ophthalmic consultation, was extracted from the eyeSmart electronic medical records (EMR) database of the institute. In all, 80,000 individuals aged 6–90 years were diagnosed with diabetes and were on treatment for the disease. The extracted variables from EMR included age, gender, type, and degree of refractive error (based on the spherical equivalent value), best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA), posterior segment findings, ocular diagnosis, type of DM, duration of DM, onset of DM, diagnosis of DR, and clinically significant macular edema (CSME). The medical records of individuals with any missing data for the required variables and the presence of one of the other ocular conditions (cataract [with any form or degree], amblyopia, aphakic, pseudophakic, postrefractive surgeries, keratoconus, silicone oil insertion, and pterygium) that could influence the refractive error were not included in the analyses, which lead to a final sample of 9813 individuals with either type-1 or type-2 DM. Among 9831 individuals with DM, there were 472 individuals with type-1 DM (4.8%), and 9341 individuals with type-2 DM (95%) who met the inclusion criteria and whose refractive error and DR diagnosis indicated the association of myopia in varying degrees with DR.

By following the UK practical classification guidelines for diabetes based on age at which DM was diagnosed and the

dependency on insulin,^[36] individuals were categorized into two groups, namely, type-1 DM and type-2 DM. The patients whose date of DM detection was less than 35 years and who were dependent on insulin (continual) from the onset of diabetes to 6 months of duration were categorized as type-1 DM. The patients whose date of DM detection was greater than 35 years and who were either insulin dependent (noncontinual) or noninsulin dependent, from the onset of DM to 6 months of duration were categorized as type-2 DM. In addition to this, based on date of DM detection, i.e., after 35 years of age or before 35 years of age, and in combination with the usage of insulin, i.e., continual or noncontinual insulin treatment, they were also pooled to type-1 DM and type-2 DM groups, respectively.

The objective refraction and subjective refraction were performed by skilled optometrists for each individual to determine the best refractive correction. The spherical equivalent refraction (SER) error based on subjective refraction was defined as the sum of the spherical power and half the cylindrical power. Myopia was defined as the SER less than -0.50 diopters (D). Based on the degree of myopia, myopic subgroups were categorized as mild (< -0.50 to -3.00 D), moderate (< -3.00 to -6.00D), or high myopia (< -6.00D). Hyperopia was defined as a SER being more than + 0.50D. Emmetropia was defined as SER from -0.50 to + 0.50 D. Anisometropia is defined as the difference in the SER between two eyes of ≥ 0.50 D. The BCVA was estimated under normal room illumination with the standard logarithm of the minimal angle of resolution visual acuity charts. DR was classified based on international clinical DR and macular edema severity scale.^[37] The Severe nonproliferative DR (NPDR), proliferative diabetic retinopathy (PDR), and presence of CSME with any type of DR was considered as vision threatening DR (VTDR).

Statistical analyses were performed using Microsoft Excel (2016 version) and IBM SPSS Statistical Software 21.0.0 (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL). The results were indicated in the mean values of the standard deviation, if the data were continuous variable, and as a percentage, for a categorical variable. The Chi-square test was used to compare proportions between groups, and the student *t*-test and analysis of variance for comparing the continuous variable. There was no significant difference in the mean subjective refraction of the right and left eye ($P < 0.05$). Therefore, the right eye alone was considered for the refractive condition analysis in the two diabetic groups. For both univariate and multivariate analysis, a *P* value of < 0.05 was considered significant. Multivariate logistic regressions were performed with severity of DR (mild NPDR, moderate NPDR, and VTDR) as the dependent variable to analyze the relationship of hyperopia, and subgroups of myopia (mild, moderate, high), with severity of DR (emmetropes were considered as control group). The logistic regression model was adjusted for age, gender, anisometropia, and duration of diabetes.

Results

In both the categories, i.e., individuals with type-1 or type-2 DM, there was a greater proportion of individuals with DR from Hyderabad ($N = 133/233$, 57% vs. 731/1530, 48%), followed by Bhubaneswar ($N = 69/233$, 30% vs. 523/1530, 34.1%), Visakhapatnam (11/233, 5% vs. 107/1530, 7%), and Vijayawada (20/233, 8.5% vs 169/1530, 11%). Males numbered

higher than did females among the individuals with type-1 DM ($N = 309$; 65%) or type-2 DM ($N = 6038$; 64%). The mean age and SER in type-1 DM group were 41 ± 10 years (range from 6 to 69 years), and -0.56 ± 2.10 D (ranged from $+ 8.50$ to -16.50 D), respectively; the corresponding values for individuals with type-2 DM were 52 ± 9 years (age range from 13 to 90 years) and 0.22 ± 1.92 D (SER range from 12 to -23.25 D), respectively. The frequency of DR in individuals with type-1 DM (49.4%) is significantly greater compared to individuals with type-2 DM (16.4%), $P < 0.05$.

Table 1 shows the univariate analysis of age, duration of diabetes (in years), and onset of diabetes (in years) in different refractive error group under the category of type-1 and type-2 DM. In general, individuals with myopic refractive error were significantly younger ($P < 0.005$) compared to emmetropes and hyperopes in both diabetic groups. In individual with type-1 DM, the duration of diabetes ranged between 11 and 18 years, and onset of diabetes ranged from 24 to 29 years of age. The duration of diabetes ranged 5–7 years, and onset of diabetes ranged 42–48 years in individuals with type-2 DM.

Distribution of refractive error in individuals with type 1 or type 2 diabetes

Fig. 1 shows the distribution of refractive errors in individuals with different grades of DR in both DM categories. The frequency of VTDR in myopic subgroups significantly decreased with increasing severity of myopia in both type-1 (mild vs moderate vs high: 39% vs 15% vs 11%, $P = 0.01$), and type-2 (7% vs 5% vs 2%, $P = 0.02$) in both DM groups. The percentage of individuals with VTDR and hyperopic refractive error was significantly greater in both type-1 (43%, $P < 0.001$) and type-2 DM groups (9%, $P = 0.001$) in vision-threatening DR compared to the nonvision threatening DR group.

Using multivariate logistic regression, the relationship between refractive errors and the presence of mild NPDR, moderate NPDR, and VTDR was evaluated in persons with type-1 or type-2 DM [Table 2]. After adjusting for age, gender, anisometropia and duration of diabetes, the regression model showed that individuals with hyperopic refractive error had a significant positive association with the diagnosis of VTDR (OR 1.26; 95%CI 1.04–1.51, $P = 0.01$) and moderate NPDR (OR 1.27; 95%CI 1.02–1.59, $P = 0.03$) in type-2 DM; however, no significant association was found in type-1 DM. High-myopic refractive error reduced the risk of developing VTDR in individuals with type-2 DM (OR 0.18; 95% CI 0.04–0.77), and the association was found to be significant ($P = 0.02$). We found no significant association between mild/moderate myopic refractive error and any forms of DR in type-2 DM. Moreover, no significant association was found between myopic subgroups (mild, moderate, high) and any form of DR in individuals with type-1 DM.

Discussion

Using retrospective study design, the current study aimed to investigate the association of myopia and different degrees of myopia with DR in individuals with type-1 or type-2 DM. In the type 2 DM groups, eyes with hyperopic refractive error were at higher risk of developing moderate NPDR and VTDR as compared to emmetropes. The findings indicated that high myopia (< -6 D) reduced the risk of developing in VTDR in individuals with type-2 DM, but not in type-1 DM.

Table 1: Association of refractive error with diabetic retinopathy in individuals with type-1 or type-2 diabetes mellitus using univariate analysis

Variables	P									
	Type 1 DM					Type 2 DM				
	Emmetropia	Hyperopia	Mild-myopia	Moderate-Myopia	High Myopia	Emmetropia	Hyperopia	Mild-myopia	Moderate-Myopia	High Myopia
n	217	81	139	26	9	3705	3862	1415	240	119
Age (years)	41.7±9.8	48.3±10.7	38.4±9.4	35.6±10.5	37.8±11.2	48.7±8.6	55.7±7.6	49.2±10.4	49.9±12.2	48.3±9.5
Male, n (%)	148 (68.2)	50 (61.7)	90 (64.7)	17 (65.4)	4 (44.4)	2509 (67.7)	2357 (61)	958 (67.7)	138 (57.5)	76 (63.8)
Duration of DM (years)	12.5±7.7	18.8±8.4	11.6±6.5	11.5±5.5	10.8±8.2	5.6±5.2	7.3±6.3	5.8±5.3	6.0±5.9	5.7±4.9
Onset of DM (years)	29.1±6.6	29.5±6.5	26.7±7.6	24.1±9.2	27.0±7.4	43.0±8.0	48.3±8.1	43.3±10.0	43.8±12.1	42.6±9.9

The data represents the mean (standard deviation) and number (%) for the continuous variable "years"

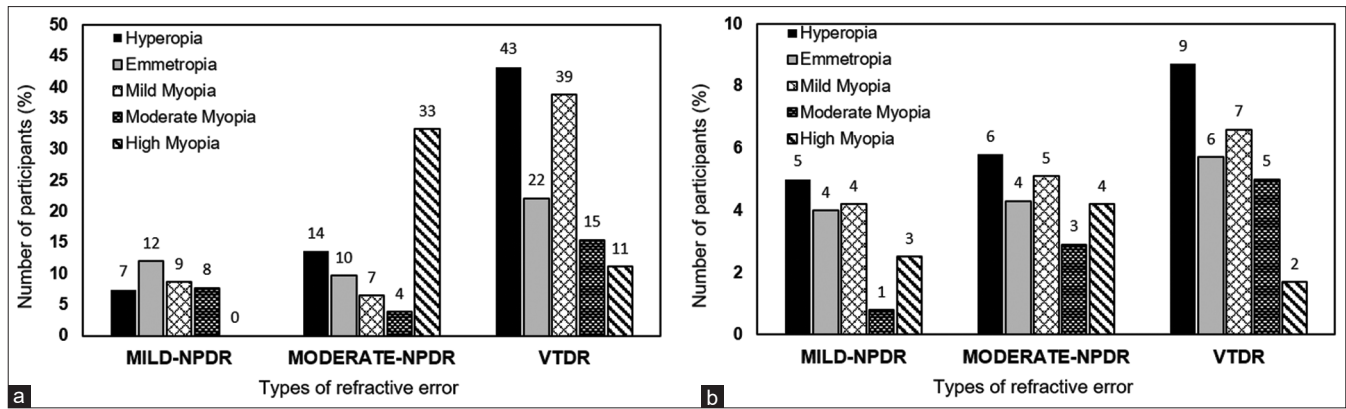


Figure 1: Distribution of refractive errors in individuals with type-1 diabetes mellitus (a) and type-2 diabetes mellitus (b). *NPDR (Nonproliferative diabetic retinopathy); VTDR (Vision-threatening diabetic retinopathy)

Table 2: Association of refractive error with diabetic retinopathy in individuals with type-1 or type-2 diabetes mellitus using Multivariate Logistic Regression

Refractive error	Adjusted odds ratio (95% CI)					
	Type 1 DM			Type 2 DM		
	NPDR - Mild	NPDR - Moderate	VTDR	NPDR - Mild	NPDR - Moderate	VTDR
Emmetropia	1.00 (Ref)	1.00 (Ref)	1.00 (Ref)	1.00 (Ref)	1.00 (Ref)	1.00 (Ref)
Hypermetropia	0.58 (0.18-1.86)	1.44 (0.61-3.43)	1.43 (0.78-2.63)	1.20 (0.94-1.52)	1.27 (1.02-1.59)	1.26 (1.04-1.51)
Mild myopia	1.20 (0.55-2.59)	1.27 (0.52-3.06)	1.58 (0.95-2.63)	0.87 (0.63-1.21)	0.88 (0.65-1.19)	0.83 (0.64-1.07)
Moderate myopia	0.91 (0.18-4.43)	0.52 (0.06-4.31)	0.60 (0.18-1.93)	0.24 (0.06-1.01)	0.65 (0.30-1.42)	0.58 (0.31-1.09)
High Myopia	-	6.90 (1.17-40.56)	0.37 (0.04-3.30)	0.49 (0.11-2.02)	0.52 (0.16-1.69)	0.18 (0.04-0.77)

No significant association was found between mild/moderate myopic groups and any forms of DR in both type-1 and type-2 DM.

The novelty in the current study was that this study individually examined the association of DR and myopia over the range of mild to high myopia in a large cohort of individuals with type-1 or type-2 DM. To date, there have been few studies investigating the association of myopia and the decreased risk of DR in type-1 DM. From a sample of 116 people with diabetes ($n = 70$ with type 1 DM, $n = 46$ with type 2 DM), Bazzazi *et al.*^[32] examined the frequency of DR (proliferative/nonproliferative) in high-myopic eyes, reporting that DR was less frequent in high myopic eyes compared to the fellow eye (acting as controls) in both type-1 and type-2 DM groups. Likewise, Moss *et al.*^[27] (the Wisconsin Epidemiological Study of Diabetic Retinopathy) reported that overall myopia was associated with decreased risk of progression to PDR in young-onset diabetes (OR, 0.40; 95% CI 0.18–0.86). However, we did not find significant association between myopic subgroups (mild, moderate, and high) and any forms of DR in individuals with type-1 DM.

Several population and clinic-based studies have high myopia as a protective factor for DR in adult-population (>40 years).^[28,30,38] In 629 individuals with diabetes (over 40 years), Lim *et al.*^[28] reported that all grades of myopia (mild, moderate, high) have a protective effect against DR (any DR, moderate DR, VTDR), particularly VTDR. However, in our study, we found that in individuals with type-2 diabetes (onset of diabetes >35 years of age), the protective effect of myopia against DR was not

continuous over the range of degree of myopia, and only high myopia appear to have a protective influence against DR, particularly VTDR. In a cohort of Indians living in Singapore (40–84 years), the Singapore Indian Eye Study reported that myopic eyes were less likely to have DR (OR, 0.68; 95% CI, 0.46–0.98) compared to emmetropic eyes.^[30] The findings from the current study indicated that the risk of VTDR in individuals in type-2 DM is likely to be reduced in high-myopic eyes, but not in mild and moderate myopic eyes.

It remains unclear whether it is the refractive component or the structural component, or both that have a protective influence against DR. In a population-based cohort study (1562 eyes), Man *et al.*^[25] reported that it was only longer axial length that was associated with the lower incident of DR. Myopic eyes have longer axial length compared to emmetropes and hyperopes and increase in axial length corresponds to progression of myopia;^[39] hence, high myopia may serve as a “surrogate” measure for longer axial length in the present study. In addition, we also found that hyperopic refractive error was significantly associated with increased risk of DR, which was consistent with the findings of the Beijing Eye Study 2006 (OR: 1.13; $P = 0.08$).^[33]

Several mechanisms have been put forward explaining the protective nature of myopia against DR including: (a) reduced blood flow due to the narrowing of blood vessels (retinal arterioles and venules) in a longer myopic eye, thus preventing retinal capillary pressure and thereby proliferation,^[38,40-42] (b) degenerative changes in myopic retina decreases retinal function and oxygen consumption, counteracting the

hypoxic changes in diabetes by reducing the production of inflammatory cells,^[38] (c) presence of PVD in myopes to enhance oxygen diffusion through liquefied vitreous and reduced risk for neovascularization and PDR,^[43] and (d) thinning of the peripheral retina which in turn reduces the amount of metabolic demand of the retina.^[44] While these are all speculations at this stage, further studies are warranted to understand how retinal and choroidal morphology can explain the protective nature of high myopia on VTDR.

The strengths of this study are its assessment of how the presence of different types and grades of refractive error influence the occurrence of DR in both type-1 and type-2 DM, and its large, the population-based sample from different geographical regions of India (Hyderabad, Bhubaneswar, Visakhapatnam and Vijayawada). One limitation of this study was the unavailability of biometry data (such as axial length) and certain confounding variables such as HbA1c levels, systolic blood pressure, cholesterol, and triglyceride levels.

Conclusion

In conclusion, eyes with the high-myopic refractive error have reduced risk of developing VTDR in individuals with type-2 DM, but not in type-1 DM.

Acknowledgements

The authors acknowledge the support of Hyderabad Eye Research Foundation, in conducting this study.

Financial support and sponsorship

Nil.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

References

- Leasher JL, Bourne RR, Flaxman SR, Jonas JB, Keeffe J, Naidoo K, *et al.* Global estimates on the number of people blind or visually impaired by diabetic retinopathy: A meta-analysis from 1990 to 2010. *Diabetes Care* 2016;39:1643-9.
- Rani PK, Raman R, Sharma V, Mahuli SV, Tarigopala A, Sudhir R, *et al.* Analysis of a comprehensive diabetic retinopathy screening model for rural and urban diabetics in developing countries. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2007;91:1425-9.
- Xie XW, Xu L, Jonas JB, Wang YX, Prevalence of diabetic retinopathy among subjects with known diabetes in china: The Beijing eye study. *Eur J Ophthalmol* 2009;19:91-9.
- Mitchell P, Smith W, Wang JJ, Attebo K, Prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in an older community. The blue mountains eye study. *Ophthalmology* 1998;105:406-11.
- Kempner JH, O'Colmain BJ, Leske MC, Haffner SM, Klein R, Moss SE, *et al.* The prevalence of diabetic retinopathy among adults in the United States. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2004;122:552-63.
- Rajalakshmi R, Amutha A, Ranjani H, Ali MK, Unnikrishnan R, Anjana RM, *et al.* Prevalence and risk factors for diabetic retinopathy in Asian Indians with young onset type 1 and type 2 diabetes. *J Diabetes Complications* 2014;28:291-7.
- Jansson RW, Hufthammer KO, Krohn J, Diabetic retinopathy in type 1 diabetes patients in western Norway. *Acta Ophthalmol* 2018;96:465-74.
- Madeira C, Lopes M, Laiginhas R, Neves J, Rosas V, Barbosa M, *et al.* Changing trends in the prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in type 1 diabetes mellitus from 1990 to 2018: A retrospective study in a Portuguese population. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2019;158:107891.
- Rani PK, Raman R, Chandrakantan A, Pal SS, Perumal GM, Sharma T. Risk factors for diabetic retinopathy in self-reported rural population with diabetes. *J Postgrad Med* 2009;55:92-6.
- Wat N, Wong RL, Wong IY. Associations between diabetic retinopathy and systemic risk factors. *Hong Kong Med J* 2016;22:589-99.
- Yau JW, Rogers SL, Kawasaki R, Lamoureux EL, Kowalski JW, Bek T, *et al.* Global prevalence and major risk factors of diabetic retinopathy. *Diabetes Care* 2012;35:556-64.
- Raman R, Rani PK, Reddi Racheppalle S, Gnanamoorthy P, Uthra S, Kumaramanickavel G, *et al.* Prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in India: Sankara Nethralaya diabetic retinopathy epidemiology and molecular genetics study report 2. *Ophthalmology* 2009;116:311-8.
- Hammes HP, Kerner W, Hofer S, Kordonouri O, Raile K, Holl RW, *et al.* Diabetic retinopathy in type 1 diabetes-a contemporary analysis of 8,784 patients. *Diabetologia* 2011;54:1977-84.
- Wang X, Tang L, Gao L, Yang Y, Cao D, Li Y. Myopia and diabetic retinopathy: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2016;111:1-9.
- Fu Y, Geng D, Liu H, Che H. Myopia and/or longer axial length are protective against diabetic retinopathy: A meta-analysis. *Acta Ophthalmol* 2016;94:346-52.
- Neetens A, Badaniova D, Intraocular pressure and diabetic retinopathy. *Bibl Anat* 1977;437-41.
- Tagawa H, McMeel JW, Trempe CL. Role of the vitreous in diabetic retinopathy. II. Active and inactive vitreous changes. *Ophthalmology* 1986;93:1188-92.
- Akiba J, Arzabe CW, Trempe CL. Posterior vitreous detachment and neovascularization in diabetic retinopathy. *Ophthalmology* 1990;97:889-91.
- Hudson C. The clinical features and classification of diabetic retinopathy. *Ophthalmic Physiol Opt* 1996;16(Suppl 2):S43-8.
- Rani PK, Raman R, Rachapalli SR, Kulothungan V, Kumaramanickavel G, Sharma T. Prevalence of refractive errors and associated risk factors in subjects with type 2 diabetes mellitus sn-dreams, report 18. *Ophthalmology* 2010;117:1155-62.
- Tai MC, Lin SY, Chen JT, Liang CM, Chou PI, Lu DW. Sweet hyperopia: Refractive changes in acute hyperglycemia. *Eur J Ophthalmol* 2006;16:663-6.
- Pensyl CD, Harrison RA, Simpson P, Waterbor JW. Distribution of astigmatism among Sioux Indians in South Dakota. *J Am Optom Assoc* 1997;68:425-31.
- Jain IS, Luthra CL, Das T. Beneficial effect of myopia on diabetic retinopathy. *J All India Ophthalmol Soc* 1965;13:88-94.
- Lin Z, Li D, Zhai G, Wang Y, Wen L, Ding XX, *et al.* High myopia is protective against diabetic retinopathy via thinning retinal vein: A report from Fushun diabetic retinopathy cohort study (fs-direct). *Diab Vasc Dis Res* 2020;17:1479164120940988.
- Man REK, Gan ATL, Gupta P, Fenwick EK, Sabanayagam C, Tan NYQ, *et al.* Is myopia associated with the incidence and progression of diabetic retinopathy? *Am J Ophthalmol* 2019;208:226-33.
- Xu J, Xu L, Wang YX, You QS, Jonas JB, Wei WB. Ten-year cumulative incidence of diabetic retinopathy. The Beijing eye study 2001/2011. *PLoS One* 2014;9:e111320.
- Moss SE, Klein R, Klein BE. Ocular factors in the incidence and progression of diabetic retinopathy. *Ophthalmology* 1994;101:77-83.
- Lim LS, Lamoureux E, Saw SM, Tay WT, Mitchell P, Wong TY. Are myopic eyes less likely to have diabetic retinopathy? *Ophthalmology* 2010;117:524-30.
- Jiang JJ, Li XX, Yuan L, Ji LN, Wu X. [Ocular biological structures

- and relevant risk factors in the occurrence of diabetic retinopathy in diabetes mellitus patients]. *Zhonghua Yan Ke Za Zhi* 2012;48:898-902.
30. Pan CW, Cheung CY, Aung T, Cheung CM, Zheng YF, Wu RY, *et al.* Differential associations of myopia with major age-related eye diseases: The singapore indian eye study. *Ophthalmology* 2013;120:284-91.
 31. Chao DL, Lin SC, Chen R, Lin SC. Myopia is inversely associated with the prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in the south korean population. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2016;172:39-44.
 32. Bazzazi N, Akbarzadeh S, Yavarikia M, Poorolajal J, Fouladi DF. High myopia and diabetic retinopathy: A contralateral eye study in diabetic patients with high myopic anisometropia. *Retina* 2017;37:1270-6.
 33. Xie XW, Xu L, Wang YX, Jonas JB. Prevalence and associated factors of diabetic retinopathy. The beijing eye study 2006. *Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol* 2008;246:1519-26.
 34. Ganesan S, Raman R, Reddy S, Krishnan T, Kulothungan V, Sharma T. Prevalence of myopia and its association with diabetic retinopathy in subjects with type ii diabetes mellitus: A population-based study. *Oman J Ophthalmol* 2012;5:91-6.
 35. Jee D, Lee WK, Kang S. Prevalence and risk factors for diabetic retinopathy: The korea national health and nutrition examination survey 2008-2011. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2013;54:6827-33.
 36. Hope SV, Wienand-Barnett S, Shepherd M, King SM, Fox C, Khunti K, *et al.* Practical classification guidelines for diabetes in patients treated with insulin: A cross-sectional study of the accuracy of diabetes diagnosis. *Br J Gen Pract* 2016;66:e315-22.
 37. Wilkinson CP, Ferris FL 3rd, Klein RE, Lee PP, Agardh CD, Davis M, *et al.* Proposed international clinical diabetic retinopathy and diabetic macular edema disease severity scales. *Ophthalmology* 2003;110:1677-82.
 38. Man RE, Sasongko MB, Wang JJ, Lamoureux EL. Association between myopia and diabetic retinopathy: A review of observational findings and potential mechanisms. *Clin Exp Ophthalmol* 2013;41:293-301.
 39. Mutti DO, Hayes JR, Mitchell GL, Jones LA, Moeschberger ML, Cotter SA, *et al.* Refractive error, axial length, and relative peripheral refractive error before and after the onset of myopia. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2007;48:2510-9.
 40. Quigley M, Cohen S. A new pressure attenuation index to evaluate retinal circulation. A link to protective factors in diabetic retinopathy. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1999;117:84-9.
 41. Lim LS, Cheung CY, Lin X, Mitchell P, Wong TY, Mei-Saw S. Influence of refractive error and axial length on retinal vessel geometric characteristics. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2011;52:669-78.
 42. Shimada N, Ohno-Matsui K, Harino S, Yoshida T, Yasuzumi K, Kojima A, *et al.* Reduction of retinal blood flow in high myopia. *Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol* 2004;42:284-8.
 43. Saw SM, Gazzard G, Shih-Yen EC, Chua WH. Myopia and associated pathological complications. *Ophthalmic Physiol Opt* 2005;25:381-91.
 44. Wolsley CJ, Saunders KJ, Silvestri G, Anderson RS. Investigation of changes in the myopic retina using multifocal electroretinograms, optical coherence tomography and peripheral resolution acuity. *Vision Res* 2008;48:1554-61.