

# Glaucoma

DIVAKAR GUPTA, MD, *Duke University School of Medicine, Durham, North Carolina*

PHILIP P. CHEN, MD, *University of Washington Medical Center, Seattle, Washington*

Glaucoma is a set of irreversible, progressive optic neuropathies that can lead to severe visual field loss and blindness. The two most common forms of glaucoma, primary open-angle glaucoma and primary angle-closure glaucoma, affect more than 2 million Americans and are increasing in prevalence. Many patients with glaucoma are asymptomatic and do not know they have the disease. Risk factors for primary open-angle glaucoma include older age, black race, Hispanic origin, family history of glaucoma, and diabetes mellitus. Risk factors for primary angle-closure glaucoma include older age, Asian descent, and female sex. Advanced disease at initial presentation and treatment nonadherence put patients with glaucoma at risk of disease progression to blindness. The U.S. Preventive Services Task Force has concluded that the evidence is insufficient to assess the potential benefits and harms of screening for glaucoma in the primary care setting. Regular eye examinations for adults are recommended by the American Academy of Ophthalmology, with the interval depending on patient age and risk factors. Diagnosis of glaucoma requires careful optic nerve evaluation and functional studies assessing a patient's visual field. The goal of treatment with eye drops, laser therapy, or surgery is to slow visual field loss by lowering intraocular pressure. Family physicians can contribute to lowering morbidity from glaucoma through early identification of high-risk patients and by emphasizing treatment adherence in patients with glaucoma. (*Am Fam Physician*. 2016;93(8):668-674. Copyright © 2016 American Academy of Family Physicians.)

**CME** This clinical content conforms to AAFP criteria for continuing medical education (CME). See CME Quiz Questions on page 648.

**Author disclosure:** The authors report that the development of this article was supported in part by an unrestricted departmental grant from Research to Prevent Blindness.

**► Patient information:** A handout on this topic is available at <http://familydoctor.org/familydoctor/en/diseases-conditions/glaucoma.html>.

**G**laucoma is a group of optic neuropathies associated with characteristic structural changes at the optic nerve head that may lead to visual field loss and, ultimately, blindness. Blindness is most commonly defined as 20/200 or worse visual acuity on a Snellen eye chart or a visual field of less than 20 degrees. Legal blindness refers to the fulfillment of these criteria by the better-seeing eye. By 2020, approximately 79.6 million persons worldwide will have glaucoma and more than 11 million will be bilaterally blind from glaucoma.<sup>1</sup> More than 2 million Americans 40 years and older have glaucoma, and studies of the U.S. population estimate that more than one-half of these cases may be undiagnosed or untreated.<sup>2,3</sup> Among black and Hispanic

persons, glaucoma is the leading cause of irreversible blindness. Glaucoma accounts for more than 25% of cases of blindness in these groups, making it a more common cause of blindness than diabetic retinopathy (accounting for 7.3% and 14.3% of cases in blacks and Hispanics, respectively) and age-related macular degeneration (accounting for 4.4% and 14.3% of cases in blacks and Hispanics, respectively). Among Hispanics, glaucoma causes blindness more often than cataracts do (28.6% vs. 14.3%).<sup>4</sup> In 2009, Medicare beneficiaries spent \$748 million on glaucoma-related visits, testing, and procedures.<sup>5</sup> Patients with glaucoma who are not blind may have functional limitations, leading to driving cessation and decreased ability to read.<sup>6</sup>

The two most common forms of glaucoma are primary open-angle glaucoma (POAG) and primary angle-closure glaucoma (PACG), with the former approximately seven times more common than the latter in the United States and Europe.<sup>1</sup> When POAG and PACG are left untreated, the typical disease course is chronic, progressive, and irreversible visual field loss, which may progress to tunnel vision and, ultimately, loss of

## WHAT IS NEW ON THIS TOPIC: GLAUCOMA

Recent meta-analyses have concluded that diabetes mellitus is associated with a greater risk of developing primary open-angle glaucoma and higher intraocular pressure.

The U.K. Glaucoma Treatment Study (a multicenter, randomized, placebo-controlled trial) recently showed longer visual field preservation in patients with primary open-angle glaucoma taking latanoprost (Xalatan).

central vision. Treatment that reduces intraocular pressure has been shown to improve outcomes in randomized clinical trials.<sup>7-10</sup>

Many patients with glaucoma remain asymptomatic, even as the disease advances, because progressive visual field loss is peripheral and typically asymmetric, which allows for compensation from the overlapping, less-affected visual field of the other eye. As a result, POAG is often found incidentally on ocular examination.

Although the prevalence of glaucoma increases with age, most patients with undetected glaucoma are younger than 60 years, which represents an opportunity to diagnose the disease earlier.<sup>3</sup> This article reviews the pathophysiology of and risk factors for glaucoma, and emphasizes the role of family physicians in the care of affected patients.

**Pathophysiology and Clinical Presentation**

**OPEN-ANGLE GLAUCOMA**

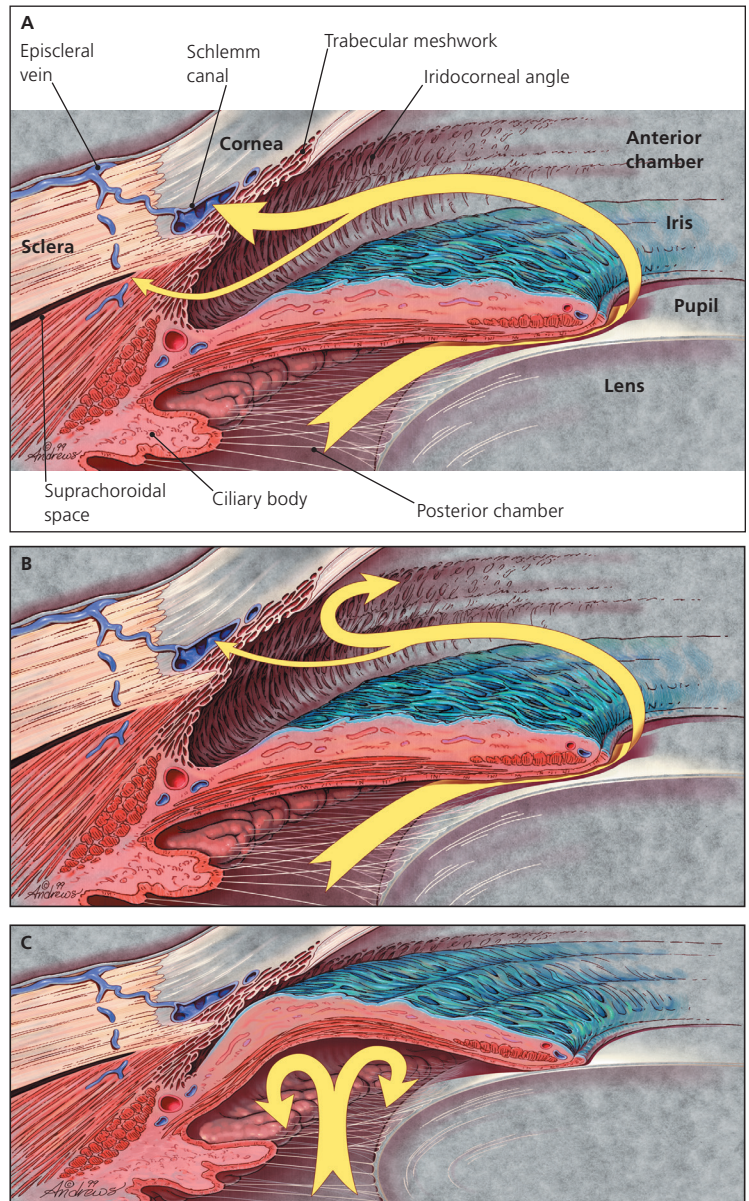
The angle of the eye is the junction between the iris and cornea, where the trabecular meshwork drains aqueous humor from the anterior chamber of the eye (Figure 1).<sup>11</sup> In POAG, the angle remains open as the trabecular meshwork is unblocked by iris tissue. Intraocular pressure is transmitted to the axons of retinal ganglion cells at the optic nerve as mechanical stress, leading to cell death.<sup>12</sup> However, about 50% of patients with glaucoma have intraocular pressure within the so-called “normal” range of 10 to 21 mm Hg at diagnosis.<sup>8</sup> Only after 30% of retinal ganglion cells have been lost are visual field defects present on perimetric testing.<sup>13,14</sup>

**ANGLE-CLOSURE GLAUCOMA**

In PACG, the peripheral iris obstructs normal aqueous outflow (Figure 1).<sup>11</sup> This can lead to increased intraocular pressure and optic nerve damage. Eyes that are at risk of PACG tend to be shorter with a shallower anterior chamber.<sup>15</sup> Patients with PACG may experience acute or subacute events that occur after a sudden rise in intraocular pressure or from chronic PACG that is insidious in onset and largely asymptomatic.

In the rare event of acute angle closure,

patients experience sudden and possibly painful loss of vision due to acutely elevated intraocular pressure.<sup>16</sup> Symptoms include unilateral (rarely bilateral) blurred



**Figure 1.** Normal and abnormal aqueous humor flow. (A) Normal outflow through trabecular meshwork (large arrow) and uveoscleral routes (small arrow) and related anatomy. Most aqueous flow is through the trabecular meshwork. Each pathway is drained by the eye’s venous circulation. (B) In primary open-angle glaucoma, aqueous outflow by these pathways is diminished. (C) In angle-closure glaucoma, the iris is abnormally positioned so as to block aqueous outflow through the anterior chamber (iridocorneal) angle.

Reprinted with permission from Distelhorst JS, Hughes GM. Open-angle glaucoma. *Am Fam Physician.* 2003;67(9):1938.

**SORT: KEY RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE**

<i>Clinical recommendation</i>	<i>Evidence rating</i>	<i>References</i>
Fundus photography or intraocular pressure measurement alone is a poor screening tool to detect patients with glaucoma.	C	22
Family history of open-angle glaucoma, older age, and black race or Hispanic origin are important risk factors for open-angle glaucoma.	C	1, 31, 32, 36, 37, 44-48, 50, 51
Early treatment of patients with glaucoma reduces the risk of visual field progression.	B	8

*A = consistent, good-quality patient-oriented evidence; B = inconsistent or limited-quality patient-oriented evidence; C = consensus, disease-oriented evidence, usual practice, expert opinion, or case series. For information about the SORT evidence rating system, go to <http://www.aafp.org/afpsort>.*

vision and halos or rainbows around lights as a result of corneal edema. These patients often have pronounced pain around the eye, as well as nausea and vomiting, and their condition may be misdiagnosed as a migraine.<sup>17,18</sup> Examination findings during an acute episode of angle closure include a mid-dilated pupil, conjunctival injection, and a cloudy cornea; these are not typically present in a migraine. Patients with subacute angle closure may have milder or intermittent symptoms that may resolve upon entrance into a well-lit room or with sleep, both of which induce pupillary miosis.<sup>16</sup> Identification of patients who are at risk of acute angle closure requires examination of the angle of the eye by an ophthalmologist.

As with POAG, most patients who have PACG were previously diagnosed with a chronic disease, are asymptomatic, and are unaware of any visual field loss. In addition to the therapies available for POAG, laser peripheral iridotomy or cataract extraction may be offered to patients with PACG to lower their risk of acute angle closure.

Certain medications that may cause pupillary dilation (e.g., antihistamines, asthma medications, tricyclic antidepressants, adrenergics, anticholinergics) can increase the chance that an at-risk patient will have an episode of acute angle closure.<sup>19</sup> Sulfa derivatives and cholinergics may also lead to acute angle closure in at-risk persons.<sup>19</sup> However, most patients with glaucoma in the United States have POAG, which is not significantly affected by occasional use of such medications.

**Screening**

Measurement of intraocular pressure alone is a poor method of detecting glaucoma. One-half of patients with

POAG have an intraocular pressure within the normal range, and most patients with elevated pressure (22 mm Hg or greater) do not develop glaucoma.<sup>7,8,20</sup> Further, intraocular pressure measurements vary diurnally.<sup>21</sup> Screening that uses intraocular pressure or fundus photography alone has a sensitivity of less than 50% and specificity near 90%; accuracy varies by patient age, race, and family history of glaucoma.<sup>22</sup> Newer methods that measure the thickness of the nerve fibers that comprise the optic nerve offer similarly poor sensitivity.<sup>23</sup> Screening with visual field testing alone increases specificity and sensitivity, but requires special equipment typically not available in a primary care physician's office.<sup>24</sup> Accurate diagnosis of glaucoma requires examination beyond

what is routinely performed in the primary care setting, such as measurement of intraocular pressure, stereoscopic optic nerve examination, and formal visual field testing. Examinations are repeated over time to assess the optic nerve head for neuroretinal tissue loss and to screen for the development of visual field scotomas. Ophthalmoscopy by family physicians has been shown to have inadequate sensitivity or specificity in diabetic retinopathy.<sup>25,26</sup> The same is likely true for optic nerve head examination, where accurate description of the optic nerve head requires stereopsis (i.e., binocularity), which cannot be obtained with a direct ophthalmoscope.

The U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) does not recommend screening for POAG in the primary care setting, citing insufficient evidence to assess the benefits or harms of screening. The American Academy of Family Physicians agrees with this position (<http://www.aafp.org/patient-care/clinical-recommendations/all/glaucoma.html>). Specifically, there have been no randomized controlled trials comparing screened with unscreened populations.<sup>27</sup> In the American Academy of Ophthalmology guideline, regular eye examinations are recommended for patients older than 40 years by an eye professional. The guideline further recommends that persons who have risk factors associated with glaucoma consider more frequent or earlier examinations, at the discretion of their optometrist or ophthalmologist.<sup>28</sup> Screening low- or average-risk persons is not considered useful, according to expert consensus.<sup>29</sup>

**Risk Factors for Glaucoma**

Primary care physicians can identify patients with risk factors for glaucoma and refer these patients to an oph-

thalmologist for examination. Screening of high-risk groups increases the positive predictive value of screening tests and was shown to be cost-effective (specifically in black patients and persons with a family history of glaucoma).<sup>30</sup> However, clinical trials assessing the outcomes of screening in high-risk groups are still needed. The USPSTF does not currently recommend screening asymptomatic adults for glaucoma.<sup>27</sup> Known risk factors for glaucoma are listed in *Table 1*<sup>31-43</sup> and reviewed below.

**FAMILY HISTORY**

Family history of glaucoma in a first-degree relative is associated with a significantly increased risk of glaucoma.<sup>31</sup> For example, having a sibling with glaucoma has an odds ratio of 3.7 for POAG.<sup>32</sup> However, specific genetic mutations associated with glaucoma account for less than 5% of all cases of POAG.<sup>44</sup>

**ETHNIC ORIGIN**

Blacks and Hispanics have an increased prevalence of POAG, more severe glaucoma on presentation, and a higher risk of blindness. PACG is proportionately more prevalent in persons with Inuit, Chinese, Asian Indian, or Southeast Asian background.<sup>1,35-37,45</sup> The prevalence and risk of blindness from glaucoma are higher in developing countries.<sup>1,46</sup>

**AGE**

The prevalence of glaucoma increases sharply with age. The rate of glaucoma among blacks and Hispanics 40 to 49 years of age is approximately 1% in each population. In black and Hispanic persons older than 80 years, the prevalence of glaucoma ranges from 11.3% to 23.2% and 12.6% to 21.8%, respectively.<sup>35-38</sup> In whites older than 75 years, the prevalence of POAG is 9%.<sup>47</sup>

**OTHER RISK FACTORS**

Population studies have reported conflicting results regarding the association between diabetes mellitus and glaucoma.<sup>48,49</sup> However, recent meta-analyses have concluded that diabetes is associated with a greater risk of developing POAG (pooled relative risk = 1.40 to 1.48) and higher intraocular pressure.<sup>41,42</sup>

Recent studies have shown that nocturnal hypotension or dips in nocturnal blood pressure are associated with progression of visual field deficits in patients with glaucoma. However, the clinical implications are

uncertain.<sup>50-52</sup> Additional risk factors for glaucoma may be discovered during a detailed eye examination, including elevated intraocular pressure, thin central corneal thickness, and refractive error (myopia is risk factor for POAG, and hyperopia is a risk factor for PACG).<sup>53</sup>

**Treatment**

A previous review in *American Family Physician* provides a listing of the eye drops most commonly used to treat glaucoma and their typical dosing.<sup>11</sup> As with management of systemic hypertension, control of intraocular pressure in glaucoma may require multiple drugs of different classes. Common adverse effects of topical agents used in glaucoma are listed in *Table 2*. Use of glaucoma medications delays visual field loss by lowering intraocular pressure and reduces the absolute risk of progression by 17% in patients with early glaucoma.<sup>8</sup> The U.K. Glaucoma Treatment Study, a multicenter, randomized, placebo-controlled trial, published results in 2015 showing longer visual field preservation in patients with POAG taking latanoprost (Xalatan).<sup>54</sup>

Surgery may be indicated in patients who continue to show progressive visual field loss on maximal medical therapy, are intolerant of glaucoma medications, or are poorly adherent to treatment plans. Glaucoma surgeries

**Table 1. Risk Factors for Glaucoma**

<i>Risk factors*</i>	<i>RR, OR, or prevalence</i>		
Family history of glaucoma <sup>31,32</sup>	OR = 3.7 to 16.6 (siblings) OR = 1.1 to 2.2 (child or parent)		
Age <sup>33,34</sup>	OR = 1.6 to 2.2 per decade		
Race and ethnicity <sup>35-40</sup>	RR = 3.7 to 4.3 (blacks and POAG) RR = 2.8 (Chinese ethnicity and PACG) OR = 3.6 (Chinese ethnicity and PACG)		
	<i>Prevalence by race and ethnicity (POAG)<sup>35-38</sup></i>		
	<i>40 to 49 years</i>	<i>Older than 80 years</i>	<i>Total</i>
Blacks	1.3% to 1.4%	11.3% to 23.2%	5.0% to 6.8%
Hispanics	0.5% to 1.3%	12.6% to 21.8%	2.0% to 4.7%
Whites	0.2% to 0.5%	1.9% to 11.4%	1.4% to 3.4%
Diabetes mellitus <sup>41,42</sup>	RR = 1.4 to 1.5		
Female sex <sup>39,40,43</sup>	OR = 1.4 to 1.7 (for patients with PACG) RR = 2.4 (for patients with PACG)		

*OR = odds ratio; PACG = primary angle-closure glaucoma; POAG = primary open-angle glaucoma; RR = relative risk.*

*\*—Listed in order of importance.*

*Information from references 31 through 43.*

**Table 2. Common Adverse Effects of Topical Medications for Glaucoma**

Medication class	Mechanism of action	Drug names	Dosing interval	Adverse effects
Alpha-adrenergic agonists	Decreases aqueous humor production	Apraclonidine (Lopidine), brimonidine (Alphagan)	Two to three times daily	Ocular allergy, somnolence, bitter taste, dry mouth, systemic hypotension, irregular heart rate
Beta blockers	Decreases aqueous humor production	Betaxolol (Betoptic), carteolol, levobunolol (Betagan), metipranolol (Optipranolol), timolol (Timoptic)	One to two times daily Avoid nighttime administration	Bradycardia, bronchospasm, depression, fatigue, ocular dryness Betaxolol is cardioselective and may have fewer respiratory effects
Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors	Decreases aqueous humor production	Brinzolamide (Azopt), dorzolamide (Trusopt)	Two times daily	Ocular irritation, sour taste
Cholinergics	Increases outflow through trabecular meshwork	Pilocarpine	Three to four times daily	Blurred vision, poor night vision, eye pain, headache
Prostaglandin analogues*	Increases outflow through uveoscleral pathway	Bimatoprost (Lumigan), latanoprost (Xalatan), tafluprost (Zioptan), travoprost (Travatan), unoprostone (Rescula)	One time daily, typically at bedtime	Lengthening of eyelashes, change in iris color or periocular skin hyperpigmentation, hyperemia, intraocular inflammation, and keratitis

\*—Typically the first-line pharmacologic therapy.

are outpatient procedures. Many can be performed safely with only topical or local anesthetic, although retrobulbar injection of anesthetic and general anesthesia also may be used. In PACG, laser iridotomy is often performed at initial diagnosis to reduce the risk of acute angle closure. Laser trabeculoplasty for POAG (or less commonly, PACG) is performed in a clinical setting and increases outflow through conventional aqueous outflow mechanisms. Laser treatment is similarly effective as topical medication and may be a good option for patients with poor medication adherence.<sup>55</sup> The most common forms of incisional glaucoma surgery (trabeculectomy and tube shunt devices) are performed in an operating room and bypass the normal outflow of aqueous humor via the trabecular meshwork, instead shunting aqueous humor to the subconjunctival space. Patients who are being treated for glaucoma or have had glaucoma surgery should see their ophthalmologist as directed.

**Prognosis**

Even among patients who receive treatment, nearly one in seven persons with glaucoma will be blind in one eye within two decades.<sup>56,57</sup> In one study, one out of six patients was bilaterally blind at the most recent

ophthalmology visit.<sup>58</sup> Important risk factors for disease progression and blindness include advanced disease at initial presentation and nonadherence with treatment and clinic visits.<sup>57,59,60</sup> The mainstay of treatment for glaucoma is the use of topical eye drops. Therefore, primary care physicians should ask patients about use of eye drops and remind them at health maintenance visits to apply the drops as prescribed.

**Data Sources:** PubMed and Google Scholar searches were completed using the key terms glaucoma, screening, prevalence, diagnosis, and treatment. The search included meta-analyses, randomized controlled trials, clinical trials, and reviews. We also searched the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality evidence reports, the Cochrane database, and Essential Evidence Plus. Search dates: November 2014 and April 2015.

**The Authors**

DIVAKAR GUPTA, MD, is a clinical associate in the Department of Ophthalmology at Duke University School of Medicine, Durham, N.C. At the time this article was written, he was a clinical instructor in the Department of Ophthalmology at the University of Washington Medical Center, Seattle.

PHILIP P. CHEN, MD, is a professor in the Department of Ophthalmology at the University of Washington Medical Center.

Address correspondence to Divakar Gupta, MD, Duke Eye Center, 2351 Erwin Rd., Durham, NC 27703 (e-mail: dg46@duke.edu). Reprints are not available from the authors.

## REFERENCES

- Quigley HA, Broman AT. The number of people with glaucoma worldwide in 2010 and 2020. *Br J Ophthalmol*. 2006;90(3):262-267.
- Friedman DS, Wolfs RC, O'Colmain BJ, et al.; Eye Diseases Prevalence Research Group. Prevalence of open-angle glaucoma among adults in the United States [published correction appears in *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2011;129(9):1224]. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2004;122(4):532-538.
- Shaikh Y, Yu F, Coleman AL. Burden of undetected and untreated glaucoma in the United States. *Am J Ophthalmol*. 2014;158(6):1121-1129.e1.
- Congdon N, O'Colmain B, Klaver CC, et al.; Eye Diseases Prevalence Research Group. Causes and prevalence of visual impairment among adults in the United States. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2004;122(4):477-485.
- Quigley HA, Cassard SD, Gower EW, Ramulu PY, Jampel HD, Friedman DS. The cost of glaucoma care provided to Medicare beneficiaries from 2002 to 2009. *Ophthalmology*. 2013;120(11):2249-2257.
- Ramulu P. Glaucoma and disability: which tasks are affected, and at what stage of disease? *Curr Opin Ophthalmol*. 2009;20(2):92-98.
- Kass MA, Heuer DK, Higginbotham EJ, et al. The Ocular Hypertension Treatment Study: a randomized trial determines that topical ocular hypotensive medication delays or prevents the onset of primary open-angle glaucoma. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2002;120(6):701-713, discussion 829-830.
- Heijl A, Leske MC, Bengtsson B, Hyman L, Bengtsson B, Hussein M; Early Manifest Glaucoma Trial Group. Reduction of intraocular pressure and glaucoma progression: results from the Early Manifest Glaucoma Trial. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2002;120(10):1268-1279.
- The AGIS Investigators. The Advanced Glaucoma Intervention Study (AGIS): 7. The relationship between control of intraocular pressure and visual field deterioration. *Am J Ophthalmol*. 2000;130(4):429-440.
- Vass C, Hirtl C, Sycha T, Findl O, Bauer P, Schmetterer L. Medical interventions for primary open angle glaucoma and ocular hypertension. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2007;(4):CD003167.
- Distelhorst JS, Hughes GM. Open-angle glaucoma. *Am Fam Physician*. 2003;67(9):1937-1944.
- Sigal IA, Ethier CR. Biomechanics of the optic nerve head. *Exp Eye Res*. 2009;88(4):799-807.
- Alasil T, Wang K, Yu F, et al. Correlation of retinal nerve fiber layer thickness and visual fields in glaucoma: a broken stick model. *Am J Ophthalmol*. 2014;157(5):953-959.
- Vitale S, Smith TD, Quigley T, et al. Screening performance of functional and structural measurements of neural damage in open-angle glaucoma: a case-control study from the Baltimore Eye Survey. *J Glaucoma*. 2000;9(5):346-356.
- Congdon NG, Youlin Q, Quigley H, et al. Biometry and primary angle-closure glaucoma among Chinese, white, and black populations. *Ophthalmology*. 1997;104(9):1489-1495.
- Wolfs RC, Grobbee DE, Hofman A, de Jong PT. Risk of acute angle-closure glaucoma after diagnostic mydriasis in nonselected subjects: the Rotterdam Study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 1997;38(12):2683-2687.
- Shindler KS, Sankar PS, Volpe NJ, Piltz-Seymour JR. Intermittent headaches as the presenting sign of subacute angle-closure glaucoma. *Neurology*. 2005;65(5):757-758.
- Ringeisen AL, Harrison AR, Lee MS. Ocular and orbital pain for the headache specialist. *Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep*. 2011;11(2):156-163.
- Lachkar Y, Bouassida W. Drug-induced acute angle closure glaucoma. *Curr Opin Ophthalmol*. 2007;18(2):129-133.
- Kumar S, Giubilato A, Morgan W, et al. Glaucoma screening: analysis of conventional and telemedicine-friendly devices. *Clin Experiment Ophthalmol*. 2007;35(3):237-243.
- Jeong da W, Kook MS, Lee KS, Lee JR, Han S. Circadian pattern of intraocular pressure fluctuations in young myopic eyes with open-angle glaucoma. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2014;55(4):2148-2156.
- Tielsch JM, Katz J, Singh K, et al. A population-based evaluation of glaucoma screening: the Baltimore Eye Survey. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1991;134(10):1102-1110.
- Springelkamp H, Lee K, Wolfs RC, et al. Population-based evaluation of retinal nerve fiber layer, retinal ganglion cell layer, and inner plexiform layer as a diagnostic tool for glaucoma. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2014;55(12):8428-8438.
- Yamada N, Chen PP, Mills RP, et al. Screening for glaucoma with frequency-doubling technology and Damato campimetry. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 1999;117(11):1479-1484.
- Gill JM, Cole DM, Lebowitz HM, Diamond JJ. Accuracy of screening for diabetic retinopathy by family physicians. *Ann Fam Med*. 2004;2(3):218-220.
- Sussman EJ, Tsiaras WG, Soper KA. Diagnosis of diabetic eye disease. *JAMA*. 1982;247(23):3231-3234.
- Moyer VA; U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for glaucoma: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Recommendation Statement. *Ann Intern Med*. 2013;159(7):484-489.
- American Academy of Ophthalmology. Frequency of ocular examinations—2015. <http://www.aao.org/clinical-statement/frequency-of-ocular-examinations--november-2009>. Accessed April 10, 2015.
- American Academy of Ophthalmology. AAO and AGS statement on the AHRQ comparative effectiveness of screening for glaucoma draft report—2011. <http://www.aao.org/clinical-statement/aaog-ags-statement-on-ahrq-comparative-effectiveness-3>. Accessed January 26, 2016.
- Burr JM, Mowatt G, Hernández R, et al. The clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of screening for open angle glaucoma: a systematic review and economic evaluation. *Health Technol Assess*. 2007;11(41):iii-iv, ix-x, 1-190.
- Wolfs RC, Klaver CC, Ramrattan RS, van Duijn CM, Hofman A, de Jong PT. Genetic risk of primary open-angle glaucoma. Population-based familial aggregation study. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 1998;116(12):1640-1645.
- Tielsch JM, Katz J, Sommer A, Quigley HA, Javitt JC. Family history and risk of primary open angle glaucoma. The Baltimore Eye Survey. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 1994;112(1):69-73.
- Rudnicka AR, Mt-Isa S, Owen CG, Cook DG, Ashby D. Variations in primary open-angle glaucoma prevalence by age, gender, and race: a Bayesian meta-analysis. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2006;47(10):4254-4261.
- Jiang X, Varma R, Wu S, et al.; Los Angeles Latino Eye Study Group. Baseline risk factors that predict the development of open-angle glaucoma in a population: the Los Angeles Latino Eye Study. *Ophthalmology*. 2012;119(11):2245-2253.
- Varma R, Ying-Lai M, Francis BA, et al.; Los Angeles Latino Eye Study Group. Prevalence of open-angle glaucoma and ocular hypertension in Latinos: the Los Angeles Latino Eye Study. *Ophthalmology*. 2004;111(8):1439-1448.
- Tielsch JM, Sommer A, Katz J, Royall RM, Quigley HA, Javitt J. Racial variations in the prevalence of primary open-angle glaucoma. The Baltimore Eye Survey. *JAMA*. 1991;266(3):369-374.
- Wormald RP, Basauri E, Wright LA, Evans JR. The African Caribbean Eye Survey: risk factors for glaucoma in a sample of African Caribbean people living in London. *Eye (Lond)*. 1994;8(Pt 3):315-320.
- Leske MC, Connell AM, Schachat AP, Hyman L. The Barbados Eye Study. Prevalence of open angle glaucoma. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 1994;112(6):821-829.
- Seah SK, Foster PJ, Chew PT, et al. Incidence of acute primary angle-closure glaucoma in Singapore. An island-wide survey. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 1997;115(11):1436-1440.
- Lavanya R, Wong TY, Friedman DS, et al. Determinants of angle closure in older Singaporeans. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2008;126(5):686-691.
- Zhao D, Cho J, Kim MH, Friedman DS, Guallar E. Diabetes, fasting glucose, and the risk of glaucoma: a meta-analysis. *Ophthalmology*. 2015;122(1):72-78.

## Glaucoma

42. Zhou M, Wang W, Huang W, Zhang X. Diabetes mellitus as a risk factor for open-angle glaucoma: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(8):e102972.
43. Cheng JW, Cheng SW, Ma XY, Cai JP, Li Y, Wei RL. The prevalence of primary glaucoma in mainland China: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Glaucoma*. 2013;22(4):301-306.
44. Fingert JH, Héon E, Liebmann JM, et al. Analysis of myocilin mutations in 1703 glaucoma patients from five different populations. *Hum Mol Genet*. 1999;8(5):899-905.
45. Arkel SM, Lightman DA, Sommer A, Taylor HR, Korshin OM, Tielsch JM. The prevalence of glaucoma among Eskimos of northwest Alaska. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 1987;105(4):482-485.
46. Chen PP. Risk and risk factors for blindness from glaucoma. *Curr Opin Ophthalmol*. 2004;15(2):107-111.
47. Friedman DS, Jampel HD, Muñoz B, West SK. The prevalence of open-angle glaucoma among blacks and whites 73 years and older: the Salisbury Eye Evaluation Glaucoma Study. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2006;124(11):1625-1630.
48. Mitchell P, Smith W, Chey T, Healey PR. Open-angle glaucoma and diabetes: the Blue Mountains eye study, Australia. *Ophthalmology*. 1997;104(4):712-718.
49. de Voogd S, Ikram MK, Wolfs RC, et al. Is diabetes mellitus a risk factor for open-angle glaucoma? The Rotterdam Study. *Ophthalmology*. 2006;113(10):1827-1831.
50. Bowe A, Grünig M, Schubert J, et al. Circadian variation in arterial blood pressure and glaucomatous optic neuropathy--a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Hypertens*. 2015;28(9):1077-1082.
51. Charlson ME, de Moraes CG, Link A, et al. Nocturnal systemic hypotension increases the risk of glaucoma progression. *Ophthalmology*. 2014;121(10):2004-2012.
52. Graham SL, Drance SM, Wijsman K, Douglas GR, Mikelberg FS. Ambulatory blood pressure monitoring in glaucoma. The nocturnal dip. *Ophthalmology*. 1995;102(1):61-69.
53. 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(10):1989-1994.e2.
54. Garway-Heath DF, Crabb DP, Bunce C, et al. Latanoprost for open-angle glaucoma (UKGTS): a randomised, multicentre, placebo-controlled trial [published correction appears in *Lancet*. 2015;386(9989):136]. *Lancet*. 2015;385(9975):1295-1304.
55. Glaucoma Laser Trial Research Group. The Glaucoma Laser Trial (GLT) and glaucoma laser trial follow-up study: 7. Results. *Am J Ophthalmol*. 1995;120(6):718-731.
56. Malihi M, Moura Filho ER, Hodge DO, Sit AJ. Long-term trends in glaucoma-related blindness in Olmsted County, Minnesota. *Ophthalmology*. 2014;121(1):134-141.
57. Chen PP. Blindness in patients with treated open-angle glaucoma. *Ophthalmology*. 2003;110(4):726-733.
58. Peters D, Bengtsson B, Heijl A. Lifetime risk of blindness in open-angle glaucoma. *Am J Ophthalmol*. 2013;156(4):724-730.
59. Sleath B, Blalock S, Covert D, et al. The relationship between glaucoma medication adherence, eye drop technique, and visual field defect severity. *Ophthalmology*. 2011;118(12):2398-2402.
60. Oliver JE, Hattenhauer MG, Herman D, et al. Blindness and glaucoma: a comparison of patients progressing to blindness from glaucoma with patients maintaining vision. *Am J Ophthalmol*. 2002;133(6):764-772.