International Journal of Research and Reviews in Pharmacy and Applied science www.ijrrpas.com

PHARMACOTHERAPY IN VASCULAR RETINOPATHY

Marianne L.Shahsuvaryan*

* Yerevan State Medical University, Yerevan, Republic of Armenia

7Ap, 1Entr, 26 Sayat-Nova Avenue, Yerevan, 0001, Republic of Armenia

E-mail: mar_shah@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT

Visual impairment is a major health issue at present. The number of people of all ages visually impaired is 285 million, of whom 39 million are blind. People 50 years and older represent 65% and 82% of visually impaired and blind, respectively. Vascular retinopathy is the consequence of vascular disease, and the retina is the only place where the arteries and veins can be visualized directly. Central retinal vein occlusion as a vasooclusive disorder of the retinal vein is the most common visually disabling disease affecting the retina after diabetic retinopathy, and is a frequent cause of vision loss and even blindness. Although it is more common in the middle-aged and elderly population, no age group is immune to it. The central retinal vein occlusion pathogenesis has varied systemic and local implications that make it difficult to elaborate treatment guidelines. The disease entity has long been known, but there is a great deal of confusion regarding its management. Various new therapeutic approaches have been developed in the past few years.

The objective of this review is to evaluate the treatments commonly advocated, emphasizing evidence-based ones, in the light of our current scientific knowledge of central retinal vein occlusion.

Keywords: retina, central retinal vein occlusion, therapy, visual impairment.

1.INTRODUCTION

Visual impairment is a major health issue at present. The number of people of all ages visually impaired is 285 million, of whom 39 million are blind. People 50 years and older represent 65% and 82% of visually impaired and blind, respectively ^[1]. Vascular retinopathy is the consequence of vascular disease, and the retina is the only place where the arteries and veins can be visualized directly.

Central retinal vein occlusion (CRVO) is the most common visually disabling disease affecting the retina after diabetic retinopathy ^{[2].} Although it is more common in the middle-aged and elderly population, no age group is immune to it ^{[3].}

In spite of the fact that the clinical entity of CRVO has been known since 1878^[4], its management still remains highly controversial. The pathogenesis of CRVO is multifactorial with both local factors and systemic diseases being etiologically important. Many case-control studies have examined the clinical features and risk factors in this disorder ^{[5-10].} Known risk factors for CRVO include systemic vascular disease, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia and glaucoma. Hypercoagulable states are associated with CRVO. These include primary hypercoagulable states with a defect in the physiological anticoagulant mechanism ^[11-14] and secondary hypercoagulable states, which are conditions, associated with an increased risk of thrombosis ^{[15-23].}

There are still gaps in understanding the aetiology and pathogenesis of circulatory disorders of the central retinal vein and its branches.

Over the years, many treatments have been advocated enthusiastically and success has been claimed. Except for a few prospective studies, all the reports are based on retrospective collection of information or on limited personal experience. Most of the reported studies have a variety of limitations, which make it hard to evaluate the claimed benefits.

Macular edema is the main reason for decreased visual acuity in CRVO. Macular edema is a common sight –threatening response of the retina. It involves the breakdown of the inner blood-retinal barrier and consists of an abnormal vascular permeability resulting in fluid accumulation and macular thickening, detectable by optical coherence tomography (OCT).

Various new therapeutic approaches have been developed in the past few years. The objective of this review is to evaluate the treatments commonly advocated, emphasizing evidence-based ones, in the light of our current scientific knowledge of CRVO.

2. PHARMACOTHERAPY

2.1 Dexamethasone

The Ozurdex (Allergan Inc., Irvine, CA, USA) dexamethasone drug delivery system (DDS) was recently developed and approved by the FDA as a biodegradable intravitreal implant to provide sustained delivery of 0.7 mg dexamethasone for the treatment of macular edema associated with CRVO ^{[24,25].}

Haller et al.^[24] concluded that for patients who have relatively short duration of macular edema, Ozurdex should be considered a viable treatment option. Increases in IOP were generally transient and similar following each treatment. Cataract adverse events occurred in 26% of patients treated with two injections and in 5% of patients who received no treatment over the 12-month study.

2.2 Posterior sub-Tenon injection of triamcinolone acetonide

Some authors ^[26,27] have recently advocated the posterior sub-Tenon (PST) injection of 40 mg TA under topic anesthesia, based on claims that IOP elevation may be less common after PST injection than after intravitreal injection, however Iwao et al. ^[27] have found that PST TA injection is associated with high rates of steroid-induced IOP elevation in eyes with previously normal IOP.

Lin et al. ^[26], in a prospective study of 18 eyes with CRVO treated by three biweekly PST TA injections, claimed that this treatment is effective in reversing cystoid macular edema (CME) and improving VA in recent-onset CRVO in the first 9 months before longstanding macular edema results in irreversible photoreceptor damage. No cataract progression or other complications were observed. They stated that patients with nonischaemic CRVO may respond more favourably than patients with ischaemic CRVO and further study with longer follow-up period is necessary.

Recently Mizumo et al. ^[28] in the experimental study have found that the periocular injection of TA effectively decreased retinal thickness and inhibited leukocyte-endothelium interactions in the retina after ischemia. Down regulation of adhesion molecules of retinal vascular endothelium induced by TA may play a role in the course.

2.3 Complex medical therapy

Taken into account that pathogenesis of CRVO is multifactorial with both local factors and systemic diseases being etiologically important we used the combination of different drugs named the therapeutic complex ^[29] in treatment of CRVO. Each of used drugs influences the specific link in the chain of pathologic changes resulted in RVO. The treatment included mix of Heparin and Dexamethason followed by Emoxypin and Dexamethason local in peribulbar injections, and Doxium, Solcoseryl ^[30]. Diamox ^[31], Troxerutin, Vitamin E systemic during 15 days. The treatment is directed towards normalization the rheologic factors, resorbtion of blood clot in occluded vein, restoration of blood circulation, reducing vascular hyperpermeability and macular edema, activating of retinal oxygen metabolism and decreasing ischemic processes to prevent neovascularization. In CRVO patients with systemic hypertension also were used vasodilating drug to control blood pressure. To evaluate the efficacy of the therapeutic complex treatment we conducted a case-control study. A group of 20 patients treated after 2 weeks of the onset of occlusion was compared with controls without treatment after 1 month of the onset of occlusion. The groups were comparable for age, sex, systemic diseases (mainly presented systemic hypertension, less diabetes mellitus, myocardial infarction, atherosclerotic vascular disease). A statistically significant improvement in visual acuity was found in treated patients compared with control (t=2.66, p<0.01).

Results of this study revealed that the complex medical therapy in RVO may be more effective than ordinary treatment or spontaneous regression ^[32] and suggest that a randomized double-masked study should be conducted.

RESEARCH ARTICLE

2.4 Anti-VEGF therapy

Application of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) inhibitors represents a treatment option for macular edema secondary to CRVO that targets the disease at the causal molecular level.

Over the past years, ophthalmologists have attempted to treat RVO-associated edema triggered by hypoxia- induced expression of VEGF with ranibizumab (Lucentis®), bevacizumab (Avastin®), and pegaptanib sodium (Macugen®).

Ranibizumab

Ranibizumab has received FDA approval for the treatment of macular edema due to both CRVO and BRVO, and it is the only available FDA-approved therapy.

With ranibizumab, Pieramici et al .^[33] designed a study following the scheme of the PIER Study, i.e. the first 3 injections monthly and then after 6 and 9 months, if needed (persistent macular edema). They found that ranibizumab is generally well tolerated and may improve BCVA and decrease central retinal thickness in OCT. But the efficacy was lost after the loading phase, so an interval of 3 months between injections may be too long. In addition, Spaide et al. ^[34] and Rouvas et al. ^[35] demonstrated in two prospective studies that the patients with RVO have an improvement in VA, but with a mean of 7.4–8.5 injections in 1 year of follow-up.

Nowadays two phase III multicenter, prospective clinical trial are under way, assessing the safety, tolerability and efficacy of intravitreal ranibizumab injections in the treatment of macular edema secondary to CRVO ^[36]. It is called CRUISE (study of the efficacy and safety of ranibizumab injection compared with sham in patients with macular edema due to CRVO). During the first 6 months, the patients monthly received either 0.3 or 0.5 mg of ranibizumab or sham injection. During the second 6-month period, the patients were evaluated monthly and treated on an as-needed basis; meanwhile, patients in the sham group received 0.5 mg ranibizumab. For the first 6 months, results are available. Regarding efficacy, at the primary endpoint (mean change from baseline BCVA at month 6), there is a rapid and sustained improvement in BCVA in patients with macular edema due to CRVO. They show a statistically significant number of patients who gained \geq 15 letters from baseline at month 6, in the study group compared to the control group, as well as a change from baseline central foveal thickness over time to month 6. Besides, intravitreal ranibizumab seems to have a safety profile consistent with previous phase III trials, and low rates of ocular and nonocular safety events ^[36-38]. Moreover, this trial demonstrates that the duration of the disease does not matter for taking the decision of treating. Treated patients did always better than sham-treated patients. Therefore, treatment for RVO can also be delayed by 3 months ^[39,40]. The latest results from open-label extension trial of the 12-month Ranibizumab assessing long-term safety and efficacy in CRUISE trial ^[40] evidenced that in patients who completed month 12, the mean number of injections (excluding month 12 injection) in the sham/0.5-, 0.3/0.5-, and 0.5-mg groups was 2.9, 3.8, and 3.5 in central RVO. The incidence of study eye ocular serious adverse events and systemic adverse events potentially related to systemic vascular endothelial growth factor inhibit

authors concluded that no new safety events were identified with long-term use of ranibizumab; rates of systemic adverse events potentially related to treatment were consistent with prior ranibizumab trials. Reduced follow-up and fewer ranibizumab injections in the second year of treatment were associated with a decline in vision in central RVO patients. Results suggest that during the second year of ranibizumab treatment of RVO patients, follow-up and injections should be individualized and, on average, central RVO patients may require more frequent follow-up than every 3 months.

Bevacizumab

Bevacizumab is a recombinant humanized monoclonal antibody directed against VEGF. There have been several studies with bevacizumab and RVO, retrospective or prospective, all showing improvements in VA and optical coherence tomography (OCT) outcomes, but also short-term efficacy and high recurrence rate. The dosage varies between 1 and 2.5 mg, there are no different outcomes ^[41-50]. The Pan-American Collaborative Retina Study group concluded that intravitreal injections of bevacizumab at doses up to 2.5 mg were more effective in improving VA and reducing macular edema at 6 months (compared to 1.25 mg), but the study had no control group ^[46]. By contrast, no statistically significant differences were found between the doses, when the group presented the results at 24 months ^[51]. In addition, Ach et al. ^[52] found that CRVO patients who benefit from therapy were significantly younger and had lower central retinal thickness at baseline.

Epstein et al.^[53] conducted the latest prospective double-masked clinical trial of 60 patients with macular edema secondary to CRVO randomized 1:1 to receive intraocular injections of bevacizumab or sham injection every 6 weeks for 6 months.Results evidenced that the treatment improve VA and reduce macular edema significantly compared with sham.

Pegaptanib Sodium The pegaptanib sodium is a selective anti-VEGF and it is still not well studied in RVO. Bennet ^[54] performed a pilot study where Macugen treatment achieved a decrease in macular thickness and an improvement in VA and retinal perfusion. But this study had enrolled only 7 patients with 6 months of follow-up and it had no control group.

VEGF Trap

The VEGF trap is another novel anti-VEGF agent. It is essentially a small fully human, soluble VEGF receptor that acts as a decoy receptor binding-free VEGF ^[55]. The VEGF trap eye is currently under evaluation in two phase III studies on CRVO (GALILEO and COPERNICUS Studies) with 6-monthly injections of drug or sham-controlled injections. The latest six-months results of the Phase 3 from COPERNICUS Study - multicenter, randomized, prospective, controlled trial ^[56] assessing the efficacy and safety of intravitreal Trap-Eye in one hundred eighty-nine eyes with macular edema secondary to central retinal vein occlusion (CRVO) randomized 3:2 to receive VEGF Trap-Eye 2 mg or sham injection monthly for 6 months evidenced that at week 24, 56.1% of VEGF Trap-Eye treated eyes gained 15 letters or more from baseline versus 12.3% of sham-treated eyes (P<0.001). The VEGF Trap-Eye treated eyes gained a mean of 17.3 letters versus sham-treated eyes, which lost 4.0 letters (P<0.001). Central retinal thickness decreased by 457.2 µm in eyes treated with VEGF Trap-Eye and sham-treated eyes, respectively (P = 0.006). Conjunctival hemorrhage, reduced visual acuity, and eye pain were the most common adverse events .Serious ocular were reported by 3.5% of VEGF Trap-Eye patients and 13.5% of sham patients. Incidences of nonocular serious adverse events generally were well balanced between both groups. The authors concluded that at 24 weeks,

monthly intravitreal injection of VEGF Trap-Eye 2 mg in eyes with macular edema resulting from CRVO improved visual acuity and central retinal thickness, eliminated progression resulting from neovascularization, and was associated with a low rate of ocular adverse events related to treatment.

The general consensus is that the intravitreal injections turned out to be promising in recent clinical trials and appear to be an additional therapeutic option ^[57-66]. But there are limits in efficacy, need for multiple injections, rebound effect of macular edema and nonresponders. There are still many unclear points, such as: the correct time to start injections and the specific moment to finish them, the number of injections, the long-term efficacy and safety, ocular and systemic side effects.

The International Intravitreal Bevacizumab Safety Survey gathered adverse events from doctors around the world via the internet and showed all ocular and systemic side effects to be under 0.21% ^[67] including corneal abrasion, lens injury, endophthalmitis, retinal detachment, inflammation or uveitis, cataract progression, acute vision loss, central retinal artery occlusion, subretinal haemorrhage, retinal pigment epithelium tears, blood pressure elevation, transient ischaemic attack, cerebrovascular accident and death. While used intravitreally, the systemic absorption is minimal, however, a trend has been observed towards a higher risk of stroke among patients with a history of heart disease

The latest studies ^[68-69] revealed that endophthalmitis following intravitreal injection is associated with an increased incidence of Streptococcus spp. infection, earlier presentation and poorer visual outcomes when compared with endophthalmitis following cataract surgery.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, studies evaluating interventions for macular edema secondary to CRVO have lacked sufficient sample size and power, lack an adequate control using placebo or best practice intervention, did not have insufficient follow-up times for long-term assessment of outcomes, or a combination thereof. Therefore, definitive conclusions cannot be reached.

In spite of enthusiastic claims of success for various therapies, the reality is that the currently available treatments are associated with visual improvement in only a subset of patients and the approach to treatment of macular edema secondary to CRVO is not evidence-based yet. The benefits and risks of therapy should be weighted in all treatment decisions. There is a need for large well-designed prospective randomized controlled trials with a long-term follow-up of new drugs taken in a non-invasive way.

REFERENCE

- 1. Pascolini D, Mariotti SP. Global estimates of visual impairment: 2010. Br J Ophthalmol; 2012;96:614-618
- 2. Shahid H, Hossain P, Amoaku WM. The management of retinal vein occlusion: is interventional ophthalmology the way forward? Br J Ophthalmol 2006; 90(5): 627-39.
- 3. Hayreh SS, Zimmerman MB, Podhajsky P. Incidence of various types of retinal vein occlusion and their recurrence and demographic characteristics. Am J Ophthalmol 1994; 117: 429-41.
- 4. Michel J. Ueber die anatomischen Ursachen von Veraenderungen des Augenhintergrundes bei einigen Allgemeinerkrankungen. Dtsch Arch Klin Med 1878; 22: 339-45.
- 5. Sperduto RD, Hiller R, Chew E. Risk factors for hemiretinal vein occlusion: comparison with risk factors for central and branch retinal vein occlusion: the eye disease case-control study. Ophthalmology 1998;105(5):765-71
- 6. Koizumi H, Ferrara DC, Bruè C, Spaide RF. Central retinal vein occlusion case-control study. Am J Ophthalmol 2007;144(6):858-863.
- 7. The Eye Disease Case-Control Study Group. Risk factors for central retinal vein occlusion. Arch Ophthalmol 1996; 114: 545-54.
- 8. Lang GE, Spraul CW. Risk factors for retinal vein occlusive diseases. Klin Monatsbl Augenheilkd 1997; 211: 217-26.
- 9. Shahsuvaryan ML, Melkonyan AK. Central retinal vein occlusion risk profile: a case-control study. Eur J Ophthalmol 2003; 13: 445-52.
- 10. Arakawa S, Yasuda M, Nagata M, Ninomiya T, Hirakawa Y, Doi Y, Kiyohara Y, Ishibashi T .Nine-year incidence and risk factors for retinal vein occlusion in a general Japanese population: the Hisayama Study. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci; 2011;52(8):5905-9.
- 11. Nyberg P, Dahlback B, Garcia de Frutos P. The SHBG-like region of protein S is crucial for factor V-depended APC-cofactor function. FEBS Letters 1998; 433: 28-32.
- 12. Gottlieb JL, Blice JP, Mestichelli B, Konkle BA, Benson WE . Activated protein C resistance, factor V
- 13. Leiden, and central retinal vein occlusion in young adults. Arch Ophthalmol 1998; 116: 577-9.
- 14. Williamson TH, Rumley A, Lowe GD. Blood viscosity, coagulation, and activated protein C resistance in central retinal vein occlusion: a population controlled study. Br J Ophthalmol 1996; 80:203-8.
- 15. Larsson J, Olafsdottir E, Bauer B. Activated protein C resistance in young adults with central retinal vein occlusion. Br J Ophthalmol 1996; 80: 200-2.
- 16. Sodi A, Giambene B, Marcucci R, Sofi F, Fedi S, Abbate R, Prisco D, Menchini U. Atherosclerotic and thrombophilic risk factors in patients with ischemic central retinal vein occlusion. Retina 2011;31(4):724-9.
- 17. Imasawa M, Iijima H. Multiple retinal vein occlusions in essential thrombocythemia. Am J Ophthalmol 2002; 133: 152-5.
- 18. Al-Abdulla NA, Thompson JT, La Borwit SE. Simultaneous bilateral central retinal vein occlusion associated with anticardiolipin antibodies in leukemia. Am J Ophthalmol 2001; 132: 266-8.
- 19. Brown BA, Marx JL,Ward TP, Hollifield RD, Dick JS, Brozetti JJ, Howard RS, Thach AB. Abnormalities in haemorheological factors and lipoprotein (a) in retinal vascular occlusion: implications for increased vascular risk. Eye 1998; 12: 245-51.

- 20. Fegan CD. Central retinal vein occlusion and thrombophilia. Eye 2002; 16: 98-106.
- 21. Brown BA, Marx JL, Ward TP, Hollifield RD, Dick JS, Brozetti JJ, Howard RS, Thach AB. Homocysteine: a risk factor for retinal venous occlusive disease. Ophthalmology 2002; 109: 287-90.
- 22. Marcucci R, Bertini L, Giusti B, Brunelli T, Fedi S, Cellai AP, Poli D, Pepe G, Abbate R, Prisco D. Thrombophilic risk factors in patients with central retinal vein occlusion. Thromb Haemost 2001; 86: 772-6.
- 23. Boyd S, Owens D, Gin T, Bunce K, Sherafat H, Perry D, Hykin PG. Plasma homocysteine, methylene tetrahydrofolate reductase C677T and factor II G20210A polymorphisms, factor VIII, and VWF in central retinal vein occlusion. Br J Ophthalmol 2001; 85: 1313-15.
- 24. Kadayifcilar S, Ozatli D, Ozcebe O, Sener EC. Is activated factor VII associated with retinal vein occlusion? Br J Ophthalmol 2001; 85: 1174-8.
- 25. Haller JA, Bandello F, Belfort R. OZURDEX GENEVA S tudy Group: Randomized, sham-controlled trial of dexamethasone intravitreal implant in patients with macular edema due to retinal vein occlusion. Ophthalmology 2010; 117:1134-46.
- 26. London NJ, Chiang A, Haller JA. The dexamethasone drug delivery system: indications and evidence. Adv Ther 2011;28(5):351-66.
- 27. Lin JM, Chiu YT, Hung PT, Tsai YY. Early treatment of severe cystoid macular edema in central retinal vein occlusion with posterior sub-tenon triamcinolone acetonide. Retina 2007; 27(2): 180-9.
- 28. Iwao K, Inatani M, Kawaji T. Frequency and risk factors for intraocular pressure elevation after posterior sub-Tenon capsule triamcinolone acetonide injection. J Glaucoma 2007; 16(2): 251-6.
- 29. Mizuno S, Nishiwaki A, Morita H, Mivake T, Ogura Y. Effects of periocular administration of triamcinolone acetonide on leukocyte-endothelium interactions in the ischaemic retina. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 2007; 48(6): 2831-6.
- 30. Shahsuvaryan ML. Evaluation of pathogenetic therapy effect in central retinal vein occlusion. Collection of Scientific articles of Russian Medical Academy. Modern possibilities in diagnosis and treatment of vitreoretinal pathology. Moscow.2004;380-3.
- 31. Menna F. Therapeutic effects in ocular lesions, obtained by systemic and topical administration of an activator of the oxygen metabolism. Ophthalmologica 1980;180 (Suppl. 1):1-50.
- 32. Wolfensberger TJ. The role of carbonic anhydrase inhibitors in the management of macular edema. Doc Ophthalmol 1999;97:387-97.
- 33. Natural history and clinical management of central retinal vein occlusion. The Central Vein Occlusion Study Group. Arch Ophthalmol 1997;115:486-91.
- 34. Pieramici DJ, Rabena M, Castellarin AA, Nasir M, See R, Norton T, Sanchez A, Risard S, Avery RL. Ranibizumab for the treatment of macular edema associated with perfused central retinal vein occlusion. Ophthalmology 2008;115:e47–e54.
- 35. Spaide RF, Chang LK, Klancnik JM, Yannuzzi LA, Sorenson J, Slakter JS, Freund KB, Klein R. Prospective study of ranibizumab as a treatment of decreased visual acuity secondary to central retinal vein occlusion. Am J Ophthalmol 2009;147:298–306.
- 36. Rouvas A, Petrou P, Vergados I, Pechtasides D, Liarakos V, Mitsopoulou M, Ladas I. Intravitreal ranibizumab (Lucentis) for treatment of central retinal vein occlusion: a prospective study. Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol 2009;247:1609–1616.
- 37. Pieramici D. Intravitreal ranibizumab for treatment of macular edema secondary to retinal vein occlusion. Retina Today 2009;4:44–46.
- 38. Campochiaro PA, Heier JS, Feiner L, Gray S, Saroj N, Rundle AC, Murahashi WY, Rubio RG. BRAVO Investigators: Ranibizumab for macular edema following branch retinal vein occlusion six-month primary end point results of a phase III study. Ophthalmology 2010;117:1102–1112.

- 39. Brown DM, Campochiaro PA, Singh RP, Li Z, Saroj N, Rundle AC, Rubio RG, Murahashi WY. CRUISE Investigators: Ranibizumab for macular edema following central retinal vein occlusion six-month primary end point results of a phase III study. Ophthalmology 2010;117:1124–1133.
- 40. Garnock-Jones KP Ranibizumab: in macular oedema following retinal vein occlusion. Drugs. 2011;5;71(4):455-63.
- 41. Brown DM. Clinical implications of the BRAVO and CRUISE trials. Retina Today 2010;5:38-40.
- 42. Heier JS, Campochiaro PA, Yau L, Li Z, Saroj N, Rubio RG, Lai P. Ranibizumab for Macular Edema Due to Retinal Vein Occlusions Long-term Follow-up in the HORIZON Trial. Ophthalmology 2012;11 (2):145-57.
- 43. Iturralde D, Spaide RF, Meyerle CB, Klancnik JM, Yannuzzi LA, Fisher YL, Sorenson J, Slakter JS, Freund KB, Cooney M, Fine HF. Intravitreal bevacizumab (Avastin) treatment of macular edema in central retinal vein occlusion. A short-term study. Retina 2006;26:279–284.
- 44. Costa RA, Jorge R, Calucci D, Melo LA Jr, Cardillo JA, Scott IU. Intravitreal bevacizumab (Avastin) for central and retinal vein occlusions. IBeVo study. Retina 2007;27:141–149.
- 45. Fish GE.Intravitreous bevacizumab in the treatment of macular edema from branch retinal vein occlusion and hemisphere retinal vein occlusion (an AOS thesis). Trans Am Ophthalmol Soc 2008;106:276–300.
- 46. Rabena MD, Pieramici DJ, Castellarin AA, Nasir MA, Avery RL. Intravitreal bevacizumab (Avastin) in the treatment of macular edema secondary to branch retinal vein occlusion. Retina 2007;27:419–425.
- 47. Badalá F. The treatment of branch retinal vein occlusion with bevacizumab. Curr Opin Ophthalmol 2008;19:234–238.
- 48. Wu L, Arevalo JF, Roca JA, Maia M, Berrocal MH, Rodriguez FJ, Evans T, Costa RA, Cardillo J. Comparison of two doses of intravitreal bevacizumab (Avastin) for treatment of macular edema secondary to branch retinal vein occlusion: results from the Pan-American Collaborative Retina Study (PACORES) Group at 6 months of follow-up. Retina 2008;28:212–219.
- 49. Chung EJ, Hong YT, Lee SC, Kwon OW, Koh HJ. Prognostic factors for visual outcome after intravitreal bevacizumab for macular edema due to branch retinal vein occlusion. Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol 2008;246:1241–1247.
- 50. Ahmadi AA, Chou JY, Banashkevich A, Ma PE, Maberley DA. The effects of intravitreals bevacizumab on patients with macular edema secondary to branch retinal vein occlusion. Can J Ophthalmol 2009;44:154–159.
- 51. Prager F, Michels S, Kriechbaum K, Georgopoulos M, Funk M, Geitzenauer W, Polak K, Schmidt-Erfurth U. Intravitreal bevacizumab (Avastin) for macular oedema secondary to retinal vein occlusion: 12-month results
- 52. Wu L, Arevalo JF, Berrocal MH, Maia M, Roca JA, Morales-Cantón V, Alezzandrini AA, Díaz-Llopis MJ. Comparison of two doses of intravitreal bevacizumab as primary treatment of macular edema secondary to branch retinal vein occlusions: results from the Pan-American Collaborative Retina Study (PACORES) Group at 24 months. Retina 2009;29:1396–1403.
- 53. Ach T, Hoeh AE, Schaal KB, Scheuerle AF, Dithmar S. Predictive factors for changes in macular edema in intravitreal bevacizumab therapy of retinal vein occlusion. Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol 2010;248:155–159.
- 54. Epstein DL, Algvere PV, von Wendt G, Seregard S, Kvanta A. Bevacizumab for Macular Edema in Central Retinal Vein Occlusion: A Prospective, Randomized, Double-Masked Clinical Study. Ophthalmology (Mar 2012)
- 55. Bennet MD. Pegaptanib for the treatment of ischemic retinopathy in patients with diabetes and retinal vascular occlusive disorders. Retina Today 2009;4:63–66.

- 56. Wroblewski JJ, Wells JA 3rd, Gonzales CR. Pegaptanib sodium for macular edema secondary to branch retinal vein occlusion. Am J Ophthalmol 2010;149:147–154.
- 57. Boyer D, Heier J, Brown DM, Clark WL, Vitti R, Berliner AJ, Groetzbach G, Zeitz O, Sandbrink R, Zhu X, Beckmann K, Haller JA. Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor Trap-Eye for Macular Edema Secondary to Central Retinal Vein Occlusion: Six-Month Results of the Phase 3 COPERNICUS Study. Ophthalmology 2012; Mar 20.
- 58. Braithwaite T, Nanji AA, Greenberg PB. Anti-vascular endothelial growth factor for macular edema secondary to central retinal vein occlusion. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2010;(10):CD007325
- 59. Jonas J, Paques M, Mones J, Glacet-Bernard A. Retinal vein occlusions. Dev Ophthalmol 2010;47:111-35.
- 60. Rehak M, Wiedemann P. Retinal vein thrombosis: pathogenesis and management. J Thromb Haemost. 2010; 8(9):1886-94.
- 61. Scott IU. Macular edema associated with retinal vein occlusion. Retina today 2010; 4:54-5.
- 62. Ehlers JP, Fekrat S. Retinal vein occlusion: beyond the acute event. Surv Ophthalmol. 2011;56(4):281-99.
- 63. Laouri M, Chen E, Looman M, Gallagher M. The burden of disease of retinal vein occlusion: review of the literature. Eye. 2011;25(8):981-8.
- 64. London NJ, Brown G. Update and review of central retinal vein occlusion. Curr Opin Ophthalmol. 2011;22(3):159-65.
- 65. Wells JA. The Paradigm Shifts in the Management of Retinal Vein Occlusion. Retinal physician, November 2011
- 66. Lattanzio R, Torres Gimeno A, Battaglia Parodi M, Bandello F. Retinal vein occlusion: current treatment. Ophthalmologica. 2011;225(3):135-43.
- 67. Hahn P, Fekrat S. Best practices for treatment of retinal vein occlusion. Curr Opin Ophthalmol 2012 Mar 23.
- 68. Lynch SS, Cheng CM. Bevacizumab for neovascular ocular diseases. Ann Pharmacother 2007; 41(4): 614-25.
- 69. Simunovic MP, Rush RB, Hunyor AP, Chang AA. Endophthalmitis following intravitreal injection versus endophthalmitis following cataract surgery: clinical features, causative organisms and post-treatment outcomes. Br J Ophthalmol 2012;**96**:862–6.
- 70. Irigoyen C, Ziahosseini K, Morphis G. Endophthalmitis following intravitreal injections. Graefe's Archive for Clinical and Experimental Ophthalmology 2012;250 (4), 499-505.

List of Abbreviations

- CRVO central retinal vein occlusion
- CME cystoid macular edema
- IOP intraocular pressure
- OCT optical coherence tomography
- PST posterior sub-Tenon injection
- RVO retinal vein occlusion
- TA triamcinolone acetonide
- VEGF Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor