

1 **Full title:** Short- and long-term changes in corneal power are not correlated
2 with axial elongation of the eye induced by orthokeratology in children.

3

4 **Running head:** Corneal power and axial length with orthokeratology

5

6 **Authors:** Jacinto Santodomingo-Rubido, PhD, MSc, OD, FBCLA, FAAO *;
7 César Villa-Collar PhD, MSc, OD, FAAO ^{§¶}; Bernard Gilmartin PhD, BSc,
8 FCOptom, FAAO [♠]; and Ramón Gutiérrez-Ortega, PhD, MD[§]

9

10 **Institutional affiliations:**

11 *Menicon Co., Ltd, Nagoya, Japan

12 [§]Clínica Oftalmológica Novovision, Madrid, Spain

13 [¶]Universidad Europea de Madrid, Madrid, Spain

14 [♠]School of Life and Health Sciences, Aston University, Birmingham, UK

15

16 **Corresponding author:** Jacinto Santodomingo-Rubido

17

18 **Tel:** +34 610 832 234

19 **Email:** j.santodomingo@icloud.com

20

21 **Financial support:** The study has been supported in part by Menicon Co.,
22 Ltd.

23

24 **Conflict of interest:** Jacinto Santodomingo-Rubido is a full-time employee of
25 Menicon Co., Ltd

26

27 **Number of tables:** 1

28 **Number of figures:** 5

29

30 **Manuscript word count (excluding references):** 3,649

31 **Date of submission:** February 15th, 2016

32 **Date of 1st resubmission:** April 4th, 2016

33 **Date of 2nd resubmission:** May 10th, 2016

34 **Date of 3rd resubmission:** June 13th, 2016

35 **ABSTRACT**

36

37 **Purpose:** To assess the relationship between short- and long-term changes in power at
38 different corneal locations relative to the change in central corneal power and the 2-year
39 change in axial elongation relative to baseline in children fitted with orthokeratology contact
40 lenses (OK).

41

42 **Methods:** Thirty-one white European subjects 6-12 years of age and with myopia -0.75 to -
43 4.00DS and astigmatism ≤ 1.00 DC were fitted with OK. Differences in refractive power 3 and
44 24 months post-OK in comparison to baseline and relative to the change in central corneal
45 power were determined from corneal topography data in 8 different corneal regions (i.e. N
46 (nasal)1, N2, T(temporal)1, T2, I(inferior)1, I2, S(superior)1, S2), and correlated with OK-
47 induced axial length changes at 2-years relative to baseline.

48

49 **Results:** After two years of OK lens wear, axial length increased by 0.48 ± 0.18 mm ($p < 0.001$);
50 which corresponded to an increase of $1.94 \pm 0.74\%$ ($[2\text{-years change in axial length/baseline}$
51 $\text{axial length}] * 100$). However, the change in axial elongation in comparison to baseline was not
52 significantly correlated with changes in corneal power induced by OK relative to baseline for
53 any of the corneal regions assessed (all $p > 0.05$).

54

55 **Conclusion:** The reduction in central corneal power and relative increase in paracentral and
56 pericentral power induced by OK over 2 years were not significantly correlated with
57 concurrent changes in axial length of white European children.

58

59

60 **Key words:** cornea, power, topography, myopia progression, orthokeratology, contact lenses

61

62

63

64 **INTRODUCTION**

65 Myopia is globally recognized as a significant public health concern
66 associated with increased ocular-related morbidity and considerable
67 healthcare costs.¹⁻³ It is the most common refractive error; affects around 30%
68 of the world's population; and its prevalence has been estimated a significant
69 increase to affect around 50% of the world's population by 2050.⁴ The
70 prevalence of myopia in young adolescents has been increasing in recent
71 decades to reach 10–25% in industrialized societies of the West and epidemic
72 levels of 60–80% in East Asia.⁴⁻⁶ Of particular concern is that there appears to
73 have been a commensurate increase in high myopia (i.e. $\leq -6.00\text{D}$)⁷⁻¹⁰ leading
74 to a higher risk of potentially blinding ocular pathologies such as glaucoma,
75 macular degeneration and vitreous and retinal detachments.¹¹⁻¹⁴ That the
76 myopic eye is, in terms of propensity to ocular pathology, a vulnerable eye³
77 has prompted interest in therapies to ameliorate its progression. Several
78 treatment options have been used in the past with limited success to eliminate
79 or, at least, reduce myopia progression.¹⁵⁻¹⁸ However, recent studies have
80 reported orthokeratology contact lens wear (OK) to significantly reduce axial
81 length growth by 30 to 50% in comparison to spectacle and soft contact lens
82 wear.¹⁹⁻²⁴ In this regard, of the optical treatment options currently available OK
83 is the method with the largest demonstrated efficacy in reducing myopia
84 progression across different ethnicities.²⁵ Furthermore, OK lens wear has a
85 relatively low rate of adverse events and discontinuations²⁶ and is well
86 accepted by parents and children.²⁷

87

88 Orthokeratology induces a flattening of central corneal curvature to
89 temporarily correct myopia. In addition, there is a concurrent relocation of
90 epithelial tissue or fluid within or between epithelial cells from the center to the
91 mid-periphery that produces a decrease and increase in central and mid-
92 peripheral corneal thickness, respectively.²⁸ Such induced changes in corneal
93 curvature following OK lens wear can be precisely monitored with currently
94 available corneal topographers and have important refractive implications.²⁹⁻³¹
95 In fact, a strong correlation has been previously reported between the amount
96 of apical corneal power change and refractive power change following OK,
97 although the change in power has been found to underestimate the change in
98 manifest refractive error.³² Furthermore, in myopic subjects, the change in
99 central corneal thickness induced by OK has been shown to account for
100 concomitant changes in refraction.³¹ A number of animal studies have shown
101 that peripheral refraction is important in the emmetropization process such
102 that relative peripheral hyperopic and myopic defocus can induce and inhibit
103 myopia progression, respectively.³³⁻⁴¹ Of relevance to myopia control in
104 humans therefore is that relative peripheral hyperopic defocus is reduced in
105 OK^{42, 43} compared with the increase that occurs in single vision spectacle lens
106 wear⁴⁴ and the neutral effect of bifocal soft or gas-permeable contact lens
107 wear.^{45, 46} Peripheral myopic defocus induced by OK has consequently been
108 hypothesized in several studies as the basis for its efficacy in myopia
109 control.⁴⁷
110
111 Recently, Zhong et al. evaluated whether corneal power changes induced by
112 a proprietary OK lens design (i.e. Hiline Optics, China) are predictive of

113 myopia progression in 32 Chinese children aged from 9 to 14 fitted with OK
114 for 2 years.⁴⁸ Using a TMS-4 corneal topographer instrument (Tomey
115 Corporation, Japan), corneal apical refractive power was provided
116 automatically and corneal sagittal powers were recorded manually at four
117 locations along the nasal, temporal, and inferior corneal axes (i.e. 1, 2, 3 and
118 4 mm intervals from the apex).⁴⁸ The study compared the pre- and post-OK
119 changes in peripheral corneal sagittal refractive powers (relative to the central
120 apical power) and the 2-year change in axial length.⁴⁸ It was reported that the
121 larger the relative post-OK change in relative positive peripheral corneal
122 power along the nasal, temporal and inferior cornea the smaller the axial
123 elongation after 24 months of lens wear.⁴⁸ In the Zhong et al. study, however,
124 sagittal corneal power changes pre- and post-OK were measured manually
125 and hence susceptible to human error.⁴⁸ Corneal topography sagittal maps
126 measure corneal curvature at any given point on the cornea as the
127 perpendicular distance from the corneal surface to the optical axis, which is
128 then converted to sagittal power using the paraxial power formula for a single
129 refracting surface.⁴⁹⁻⁵¹ Although sagittal maps provide useful measurements
130 of the shape of the cornea in the form of curvature, their ability to represent
131 corneal refractive power is limited.⁴⁹⁻⁵¹ Contemporary corneal topographers
132 feature built-in software with refractive power difference maps that are able to
133 measure directly changes in corneal power pre- and post-OK. Furthermore,
134 difference refractive maps can provide mean changes in corneal power
135 across certain regions of the cornea and are thus likely to better reflect
136 corneal power changes following OK lens wear rather than assessing the
137 change in corneal power at isolated corneal points (Figure 1). In addition,

138 unlike sagittal maps, refractive maps account for spherical aberration and with
139 reference to Snell's law describe how light is refracted through an aspheric
140 surface such as the human cornea.⁴⁹⁻⁵¹ Therefore, difference refractive
141 corneal topography maps offer particular advantages when assessing
142 refractive changes following OK lens wear in comparison to no lens wear.

143

144 The present study examines the correlation between changes in axial length
145 and short- (3 months post-OK) and long-term (24 months post-OK) changes
146 in corneal power induced by OK with reference to data from our previous
147 study, Myopia Control with Orthokeratology contact lenses in Spain (MCOS).
148 MCOS evaluated, as the primary outcome measure, differences in growth of
149 axial length over a 2-year period in white European children with myopia
150 wearing OK contact lenses and distance single-vision spectacles.²³ Thirty-one
151 children were prospectively allocated to OK and 30 to distance single-vision
152 spectacles. No statistically significant differences were found in any of the
153 baseline demographics and refractive and biometric data between groups,
154 including central corneal power and corneal shape (p-value). However, we
155 reported a statistically significant difference in axial length elongation relative
156 to baseline between the OK (mean \pm standard deviation, $0.47\pm 0.18\text{mm}$) and
157 distance single-vision spectacles ($0.69\pm 0.32\text{mm}$) groups ($p = 0.005$).²³

158

159

160

161

162 **METHODS**

163 This study was part of a larger study designed to assess different aspects of
164 OK lens wear specifically prescribed for the control of myopia progression in
165 children.^{23, 26, 27, 52-56} Normal, healthy, white European subjects 6 to 12 years
166 of age with moderate levels of myopia [mean spherical equivalent (MSE) -
167 0.75 to -4.00D] and astigmatism ≤ 1.00 D) and free of systemic or ocular
168 disease were fitted with Menicon Z Night contact lenses for overnight use
169 (Menicon Co., Ltd, Nagoya, Japan). An OK fit was considered to be
170 successful if the subject showed a CCLRU score regarding anterior eye
171 segment signs of ≤ 1 unit,⁵⁷ a “bull’s eye” corneal topography pattern and
172 unaided monocular and binocular visual acuities within ± 1 line of the best-
173 corrected spectacle decimal visual acuity. All patients underwent ocular
174 examinations including slit-lamp examination, manifest refraction, and corneal
175 topography at baseline and then following 1 day, 2 weeks, 3 months and 6-
176 month intervals over a 2-year period. Axial length was measured at the time of
177 enrolment and 6, 12, 18, and 24 months after the initiation of the treatment.
178 Follow-up visits were scheduled to fall within 2 hours of awakening. A
179 decrease in one line of visual acuity accompanied by a change in subjective
180 refraction at any of the follow-up visits⁵⁸ was considered clinically significant
181 and was remedied by supplying new contact lenses. Full informed consent
182 and child assent was obtained from the parents/guardians prior to the start of
183 all experimental work and data collection. Patient participation in the study
184 could be discontinued at the examiner’s discretion should significant
185 symptoms or slit-lamp findings occur. Subjects were instructed that they could
186 withdraw from the study at anytime. The study was conducted in accordance

187 with the Tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the Institutional
188 Ethical Committee Review Board of Novovision Ophthalmology Clinic.

189

190 Cycloplegic auto-refraction was performed following the instillation of three
191 drops of cyclopentolate HCl 1% separated 10 min apart in each of the
192 subjects' eyes using a multidose bottle (Alcon Cusí, Masnou, Barcelona,
193 Spain). Ten minutes after the instillation of the third drop, three auto-refraction
194 measurements were taken and a mean obtained (Topcon RM 8000B, CA,
195 USA).

196

197 Measurements of axial length were taken with the Zeiss *IOLMaster* (Carl
198 Zeiss Jena GmbH). Three separate measurements of axial length were
199 recorded and a mean obtained.⁵⁹ The 2-year change in axial length relative to
200 baseline was calculated as a percentage to normalize between-subjects
201 differences in changes in axial length relative to the baseline axial length [(2-
202 years change in axial length/baseline axial length)*100].

203

204 Corneal topography measurements were performed with the Wavelight
205 Allegro Topolyzer (WaveLight Laser Technologies AG, Erlangen, Germany).
206 The instrument incorporates a high resolution placido ring corneal
207 topographer which detects 22,000 elevated data points of measurement
208 evenly distributed from 22 ring edges with a accuracy and reproducibility of
209 $\pm 0.10D$ as claimed by the manufacturer. The instrument has been reported to
210 display excellent reliability in measuring corneal power (i.e. an intraclass
211 correlation coefficient ≥ 0.971).⁶⁰ The first measurement taken for each eye,

212 which provided an optimum index value according to the manufacturer's
213 recommendations, was used for the study. Baseline, 3- and 24-months
214 topographic outputs were taken as representative of the pre-, short- and long-
215 term post-OK treatment status, respectively.²⁸ Corneal topography was
216 analyzed using Oculus Keratograph software (Version 1.76, Oculus
217 Optikgeräte GmbH, Germany). Differences in refractive power between
218 baseline and 3- and 24-months were quantified using the 'refractive compare'
219 display map provided by the instrument software. The map displays average
220 values of change in corneal power for 4 different quadrants (nasal, temporal,
221 inferior and superior) and between the paracentral (i.e. 3 to 5mm ring
222 diameters) and pericentral cornea (i.e. 5 to 8mm ring diameters). The map
223 thus generates for analysis 8 discrete corneal regions N1, N2, T1, T2, I1, I2,
224 S1, S2 and a single central corneal area, C (Figures 1 and 2). However, data
225 from the superior pericentral cornea (i.e. S2) were not analyzed owing to
226 intrusion by the upper lid and lashes. The change in corneal power induced by
227 OK for each corneal region was measured relative to the change in central
228 corneal power (e.g. $[N1_{\text{post-OK}} - N1_{\text{pre-OK}}] - [C_{\text{post-OK}} - C_{\text{pre-OK}}]$). Additionally,
229 central and total multifocality were also calculated. Central multifocality was
230 defined as the greatest difference in corneal power following subtraction of the
231 change in central corneal power from the change in corneal power at any of
232 the 7 different corneal regions measured (relative to the change in central
233 corneal power). Total multifocality was defined as the greatest difference in
234 corneal power between any two of the 7 different corneal regions assessed
235 relative to the change in central corneal power.

236

237 **Statistical analysis**

238 A 1-way within-subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to assess
239 whether OK lens wear induced differences in corneal power changes between
240 different regions in the paracentral (i.e. N1, T1, I1 and S1) and pericentral (i.e.
241 N2, T2 and I2) cornea separately. Equality of variances and sphericity were
242 tested using the Levene and Mauchly tests, respectively. *Post-hoc* t-tests with
243 Bonferroni correction were used to assess differences between pairs of
244 comparisons. Differences in power at each individual corneal location relative
245 to baseline between 3 and 24 months of OK lens wear as well as between
246 central and total multifocality were assessed using a paired t-test. Simple
247 linear regressions were used to demonstrate the relationship between the 2-
248 years' change in axial elongation relative to baseline (i.e. the dependent
249 variable) and the change in corneal power at each of the different corneal
250 locations assessed as well as with central and total multifocality. Data from
251 right eyes only were used for analysis and expressed as mean \pm standard
252 deviation. Statistical analyses were performed with *SigmaPlot* (Systat
253 software Inc, California, USA). The level of statistical significance was set at
254 5%.

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262 **RESULTS**

263 The subjects' demographic and baseline data have been reported
264 elsewhere.^{23, 52} In brief, thirty-one children were prospectively fitted with OK
265 contact lenses, but two children discontinued the study; one due to discomfort
266 with contact lens wear and another to unknown reasons.²⁶ One subject
267 completed the study, but was excluded from the analysis as corneal
268 topography data were unreliable. At the start of the study, the mean age of the
269 remaining 28 subjects was 9.6 ± 1.6 years; 15 were male and 13 were female.

270

271 Three and 24 months of OK lens wear produced a significant reduction in
272 myopia (MSE) from $-2.20 \pm 1.13D$ to $-0.19 \pm 0.23D$ and $-0.33 \pm 0.29D$,
273 respectively (both $p < 0.001$); the change in MSE between 3 and 24 months
274 was also statistically significant ($p = 0.005$). The cylindrical component of the
275 refraction did not change significantly between any of the 3 pairwise
276 comparisons (i.e. baseline vs. 3-months, baseline vs. 24-months and 3- vs.
277 24-months) (all $p > 0.05$). Central corneal power decreased by $-1.89 \pm 0.91D$ at
278 3 months and by -1.84 ± 0.97 at 24 months in comparison to baseline; the
279 difference in corneal power change relative to baseline between short- and
280 long-term OK lens wear was not statistically significant ($p = 0.710$). Axial length
281 increased from $24.53 \pm 0.78mm$ at baseline to $25.01 \pm 0.82mm$ following 2-years
282 of OK lens wear ($p < 0.001$). The 2-years change in axial length (i.e.
283 $0.48 \pm 0.18mm$) corresponded to an increase of $1.94 \pm 0.74\%$ (i.e. [2-years
284 change in axial length/baseline axial length]*100).

285

286 Short- and long-term OK lens wear induced an asymmetric change in power
287 in the paracentral cornea ($p=0.003$ and $p<0.001$, respectively) that was
288 attributable to the difference in power between N1 and T1 at 3 months
289 ($p=0.001$) and between T1 and N1, I1 and S1 at 24 months (all $p<0.05$)
290 (Figure 3). Similarly, significant differences in power were found between
291 different regions of the pericentral cornea at both 3 ($p=0.021$) and 24 months
292 ($p=0.02$) relative to baseline that were attributable to the difference in power
293 between N2 and T2 at both 3 and 24 months (both $p<0.05$) (Figure 3). Short-
294 and long-term OK lens wear induced similar changes in corneal power relative
295 to changes in central corneal power at each of the 7 corneal regions assessed
296 (all $p>0.05$) with the exception of S1 where the change in corneal power was
297 significantly more positive following long- in comparison to short-term OK lens
298 wear ($p=0.037$).

299

300 After 3 and 24 months of OK treatment, the greatest differences in power
301 between the central cornea and any other corneal region (i.e. central
302 multifocality) were -2.69 ± 1.16 D and -2.53 ± 1.39 D, respectively; central
303 multifocality was not statistically different between short- and long-term OK
304 lens wear ($p=0.474$). After 3 and 24 months of OK treatment, the greatest
305 differences in power between any two corneal regions (i.e. total multifocality)
306 were -2.94 ± 1.22 D and -2.70 ± 1.41 D; total multifocality was not statistically
307 different at 3 in comparison to 24 months ($p=0.333$). The difference between
308 central and total multifocality was, however, statistically significant following
309 both short- and long-term OK lens wear (both $p<0.001$).

310

311 The change in axial elongation over 2 years relative to baseline was not
312 significantly correlated with changes in corneal power induced by OK over 3
313 or 24 months relative to baseline at any of the corneal regions assessed (all
314 $p>0.05$) (Table 1). Similarly, the mean changes in corneal power at the nasal
315 (i.e. mean of N1 and N2), temporal (i.e. mean of T1 and T2), inferior (i.e.
316 mean of I1 and I2), horizontal (i.e. mean of N1, N2, T1 and T2), vertical (i.e.
317 mean of I1, I2 and S1), paracentral (i.e. mean of N1, T1, I1 and S1) or
318 pericentral corneal regions (i.e. mean of N2, T2 and I2) following either 3 or
319 24 months of OK lens wear were not significantly correlated with the 2-year
320 change in axial length relative to baseline (all $p<0.05$) (Table 1 and Figures 4
321 and 5).

322

323 Neither central nor total multifocality following short- or long-term OK lens
324 wear were significantly correlated with the 2-year change in axial length
325 relative to baseline (all $p<0.05$) (Table 1).

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333 **DISCUSSION**

334 The decrease in central corneal power and concomitant increase in
335 paracentral and pericentral corneal power found in this study is consistent
336 with previous reports of central corneal flattening and peripheral steeping
337 following OK lens wear.²⁸⁻³¹ Following 3 months of OK lens wear, Zhong et al.
338 reported significant increases (compared with baseline) in sagittal power at
339 the nasal 2 and 3mm, temporal 3mm and inferior 2, 3 and 4mm corneal
340 locations; peaking was evident at the 3mm location (i.e. 6mm corneal ring)
341 compared with the apical center.⁴⁸ The present study found increases in
342 corneal power at both the paracentral and pericentral locations but these were
343 greater in the pericentral region (i.e. 5 to 8mm ring diameter) than in the
344 paracentral region (i.e. 3 to 5mm ring diameter) following both 3 and 24
345 months of OK lens wear. That OK induced asymmetrical power changes
346 along different areas of the cornea agrees with the results of Maseedupally et
347 al.⁶¹ The latter finding might be attributed to the fact that the normal corneal
348 shape is not rotationally symmetric and exhibits some hemi-meridional
349 variation.⁶²⁻⁶⁴ Therefore, the wearing of a rotationally symmetric OK contact
350 lens on the eye will result in asymmetrical power changes along different
351 regions of the cornea. Additionally, the greater changes in corneal power
352 found for the nasal cornea in comparison with the temporal cornea are in
353 agreement with previous studies^{48, 61, 65} and might be attributable to temporal
354 decentration of the OK treatment leading to greater flattening and thus
355 reduction of corneal power of the temporal cornea in comparison with the
356 nasal cornea.⁶⁵ It should be noted that changes in central, paracentral and
357 pericentral corneal powers following OK lens wear have important refractive

358 implications which in turn are affected by pupil size. Incident light rays parallel
359 to the visual axis will be susceptible to an increase in spherical aberration as
360 pupil diameter increases.⁶⁶ The increase in spherical aberration is generally
361 relatively moderate when the central area of corneal flattening following OK
362 treatment encompasses the pupil. However, when light rays simultaneously
363 pass through corneal regions of marked difference in refractive power (i.e.
364 central and paracentral/pericentral corneal regions), which might occur with
365 off-axis (i.e. oblique) incidence and/or in subjects with larger pupils, that would
366 produce a peripheral astigmatic refraction (i.e. relative hyperopia and myopia
367 for light rays passing through the central and paracentral/pericentral corneal
368 regions, respectively). Although the resulting pattern of astigmatic refraction
369 and the position of the sagittal and tangential image shells relative to the
370 retina might have important implications in terms of regulating myopia
371 progression, the physiological and optical mechanisms for modulating ocular
372 growth are unclear.⁶⁷

373

374 Hiraoka et al. reported an increase in corneal multifocality from 1.69 ± 0.42 to
375 4.92 ± 2.50 D ($\Delta = 3.23$ D) following 12 months of OK lens wear,⁶⁸ whereas the
376 present study found central and total multifocality to be 2.69 ± 1.16 and
377 2.94 ± 1.22 D, respectively following 3 months of OK lens wear and 2.53 ± 1.39
378 and 2.70 ± 1.41 D, respectively following 24 months of OK lens wear. Hiraoka et
379 al. found a statistically significant negative correlation between changes in
380 corneal multifocality and the 1-year change in axial elongation,⁶⁸ whereas in
381 the present study neither central nor total multifocality were significantly
382 associated with the 2-year change in axial length relative to baseline. The

383 discrepancy might be attributable to differences between studies in the
384 determination of multifocality as Hiraoka et al. measured corneal multifocality
385 as the difference between the maximum and minimum corneal optical powers
386 (in diopters) calculated within the central 4-mm pupillary.⁶⁸ The greater levels
387 of multifocality found by Hiraoka over the central cornea could potentially be
388 associated with changes in axial length. Furthermore, the finding that the
389 changes in relative positive corneal power for the paracentral and pericentral
390 cornea were not significantly correlated with the change in the axial length is
391 in disagreement with the results of Zhong et al.⁴⁸ It is feasible that differences
392 in OK lens designs and corneal topography between Caucasian and Chinese
393 individuals⁶⁹ could produce different profiles of refraction in the peripheral
394 cornea which, in turn, might differentially affect the axial elongation of the eye.
395 The clear lack of correlation between changes in paracentral and pericentral
396 corneal power and change in axial length found in this study was not
397 anticipated given the well documented evidence from animal models that
398 peripheral myopic and hyperopic defocus can modulate change in axial
399 length.³³⁻⁴¹ However, the paracentral and relative pericentral myopic defocus
400 induced by OK lens wear in children differs inherently from that produced by
401 optically imposed defocus in animals where exposure to defocus is generally
402 substantial in terms of both magnitude and duration.³³⁻⁴¹ Furthermore, large
403 studies in humans have failed to find peripheral refraction to affect myopia
404 progression.^{70, 71} Other factors that could affect myopia progression and
405 ultimately the correlation between changes in corneal power and axial length
406 following OK treatment are ethnicity, family history and outdoor exposure. It is
407 well established that certain ethnicities, such as those from Far East Asia (i.e.

408 Chinese, Hong Kongers, Taiwanese, South Korean, Japanese and
409 Singaporean), are at higher risk of myopia development and progression.^{4, 72,}
410 ⁷³ However, all subjects recruited for this study were limited to White
411 European ethnicity. Similarly, children with myopic parents are at higher risk
412 of developing myopia, with the risk increasing with the number of myopic
413 parents.⁷⁴⁻⁷⁶ In fact, a previous analysis of the MCOS study showed smaller
414 increases in axial length with lower levels of parental myopia in children
415 wearing OK lenses in comparison to children wearing spectacles.⁵³ Higher
416 levels of time spent outdoors have been shown to be protective for myopia
417 development.^{77, 78} Although time spent outdoors was not controlled in the
418 MCOS study, it may be presumed that children participating in the study were
419 exposed to similar levels of outdoor exposure.

420

421 In summary, we conclude that, based on the results of this study, the
422 inhibition of axial length growth found in the MCOS study is a not
423 consequence of a relative myopic shift in the peripheral retinal image induced
424 by changes in corneal power following OK lens wear. It should be noted,
425 however, that changes in corneal power give only an indirect estimate of
426 changes in relative peripheral refractive error. We envisage that the findings
427 of this study will contribute to the debate of the role of peripheral imagery in
428 the etiology of human myopia.⁴⁷

429

430

431 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

432

433 This work was partly funded by Menicon Co., Ltd. Jacinto Santodomingo-

434 Rubido is a full-time employee of Menicon.

435

436 **REFERENCES**

- 437 1. Vitale S, Cotch MF, Sperduto R, et al. Costs of refractive correction of
438 distance vision impairment in the United States, 1999–2002.
439 *Ophthalmology* 2006;113:2163–2170.
- 440 2. Lim MC, Gazzard G, Sim EL, et al. Direct costs of myopia in Singapore.
441 *Eye (Lond)* 2009;23:1086–1089.
- 442 3. Flitcroft DI. The complex interactions of retinal, optical and
443 environmental factors in myopia aetiology. *Prog Ret Eye Res*
444 2012;31:622–660.
- 445 4. Holden BA, Fricke TR, Wilson DA, et al. Global Prevalence of Myopia
446 and High Myopia and Temporal Trends from 2000 through 2050.
447 *Ophthalmology* 2016; 123:1036-42.
- 448 5. Gilmartin B. Myopia: precedents for research in the twenty-first century.
449 *Clin Exp Ophthalmol* 2004;32:305-324.
- 450 6. Pan C-W, Ramamurthy D, Saw S-M. Worldwide prevalence and risk
451 factors for myopia. *Ophthal Physiol Opt* 2012;32:3-16.
- 452 7. Vitale S, Sperduto RD, Ferris FL III. Increased prevalence of myopia in
453 the United States between 1971-1972 and 1999-2004. *Arch*
454 *Ophthalmol* 2009;127:1632–1639.
- 455 8. Wang TJ, Chiang TH, Wang TH, et al. Changes of the ocular refraction
456 among freshmen in National Taiwan University between 1988 and
457 2005. *Eye (Lond)* 2009;23:1168–1169.
- 458 9. Lin LL, Shih YF, Hsiao CK, et al. Prevalence of myopia in Taiwanese
459 schoolchildren: 1983 to 2000. *Ann Acad Med Singapore* 2004;33:27–
460 33.

- 461 10. Tan NW, Saw SM, Lam DS, et al. Temporal variations in myopia
462 progression in Singaporean children within an academic year. *Optom*
463 *Vis Sci* 2000;77:465–72.
- 464 11. Vongphanit J, Mitchell P, Wang JJ. Prevalence and progression of
465 myopic retinopathy in an older population. *Ophthalmology*
466 2002;109:704–711.
- 467 12. Wong TY, Klein BEK, Klein R, et al. Refractive errors, intraocular
468 pressure and glaucoma in a white population. *Ophthalmology*
469 2003;110:211–217.
- 470 13. Tano Y. Pathologic myopia: where are we now? *Am J Ophthalmol*
471 2002;134:645–660.
- 472 14. Saw S-M, Gazzard G, Shih-Yen EC, et al. Myopia and associated
473 pathological conditions. *Ophthalm Physiol Opt* 2005;381-391.
- 474 15. Saw SM, Shin-Yen EC, Koh A, et al. Interventions to retard myopia
475 progression in children. *Ophthalmology* 2002;109:415-427.
- 476 16. Gwiazda J. Treatment options for myopia. *Optom Vis Sci* 2009;86:624-
477 628.
- 478 17. Walline JJ, Lindsley K, Vedula SS, et al. Interventions to slow
479 progression of myopia in children. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*
480 2011;12:CD004916.
- 481 18. Smith EL. Optical treatment strategies to slow myopia progression:
482 effects of the visual extent of the optical treatment zone. *Exp Eye Res*
483 2013;114:77-88.

- 484 19. Cho P, Cheung SW, Edwards M. The longitudinal orthokeratology
485 research in children (LORIC) in Hong Kong: a pilot study on refractive
486 changes and myopic control. *Cur Eye Res* 2005;30:71-80.
- 487 20. Walline JJ, Jones LA, Sinnott LT. Corneal reshaping and myopia
488 progression. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2009;93:1181–1185.
- 489 21. Kakita T, Hiraoka T, Oshika T. Influence of overnight orthokeratology
490 on axial length elongation in childhood myopia. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis
491 Sci* 2011;52:2170-2174.
- 492 22. Hiraoka T, Kakita T, Okamoto F, et al. Long-term effect of overnight
493 orthokeratology on axial length elongation in childhood myopia: a 5-
494 year follow-up study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2012;53:3913-3919.
- 495 23. Santodomingo-Rubido J, Villa-Collar C, Gilmartin B, et al. Myopia
496 control with orthokeratology contact lenses in Spain: refractive and
497 biometric changes. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2012;53:5060-5065.
- 498 24. Cho P, Cheung SW. Retardation of myopia in orthokeratology
499 (ROMIO) study: A 2-year randomized clinical trial. *Invest Ophthalmol
500 Vis Sci* 2012;53:7077-85.
- 501 25. González-Méijome JM, Peixoto-de-Matos SC, Faria-Ribeiro M, et al.
502 Strategies to regulate myopia progression with contact lenses: a
503 Review. *Eye Contact Lens* 2016;42:24-34.
- 504 26. Santodomingo-Rubido J, Villa-Collar C, Gilmartin B, et al.
505 Orthokeratology vs. spectacles: adverse events and discontinuations.
506 *Optom Vis Sci* 2012;89:1133-9.

- 507 27. Santodomingo-Rubido J, Villa-Collar C, Gilmartin B, et al. Myopia
508 Control with Orthokeratology contact lenses in Spain (MCOS): a
509 comparison of vision-related quality-of-life measures between
510 orthokeratology contact lenses and single-vision spectacles. *Eye*
511 *Contact Lens* 2013;39:153-7.
- 512 28. Swarbrick HA. Orthokeratology review and update. *Clin Exp Optom*
513 2006;89:124-43.
- 514 29. Swarbrick HA, Wong G, O'Leary DJ. Corneal response
515 to orthokeratology. *Optom Vis Sci* 1998;75:791-9.
- 516 30. Nichols JJ, Marsich MM, Nguyen M, et al. Overnight orthokeratology.
517 *Optom Vis Sci* 2000;77:252-9.
- 518 31. Alharbi A, Swarbrick HA. The effects of overnight orthokeratology lens
519 wear on corneal thickness. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2003;44:2518-
520 23.
- 521 32. Chan B, Cho P, Mountford J. Relationship between corneal
522 topographical changes and subjective myopic reduction in overnight
523 orthokeratology: a retrospective study. *Clin Exp Optom* 2010;93:237-
524 42.
- 525 33. Schaeffel F, Glasser A, Howland HC. Accommodation, refractive error
526 and eye growth in chickens. *Vision Res* 1988;28:639–57.
- 527 34. Hung LF, Crawford ML, Smith EL. Spectacle lenses alter eye growth
528 and the refractive status of young monkeys. *Nat Med* 1995;1:761– 5.
- 529 35. Smith EL, Kee CS, Ramamirtham R, et al. Peripheral vision can
530 influence eye growth and refractive development in infant monkeys.
531 *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2005;46:3965–3972.

- 532 36. Howlett MH, McFadden SA. Spectacle lens compensation in the
533 pigmented guinea pig. *Vis Res* 2009;49:219–27.
- 534 37. Smith EL 3rd, Ramamirtham R, Qiao-Grider Y, et al. Effects of foveal
535 ablation on emmetropization and form-deprivation myopia. *Invest*
536 *Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2007;48:3914-3922.
- 537 38. Liu Y, Wildsoet C. The effect of two-zone concentric bifocal spectacle
538 lenses on refractive error development and eye growth in young chicks.
539 *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2011;52:1078-86.
- 540 39. Benavente-Perez A, Nour A, Troilo D. The effect of simultaneous
541 negative and positive defocus on eye growth and development of
542 refractive state in marmosets. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2012;53:6479-
543 87.
- 544 40. Zhu X, McBrien NA, Smith EL 3rd, et al. Eyes in various species can
545 shorten to compensate for myopic defocus. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*
546 2013;54:2634-44.
- 547 41. Benavente-Pérez A, Nour A, Troilo D. Axial eye growth and refractive
548 error development can be modified by exposing the peripheral retina to
549 relative myopic or hyperopic defocus. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*
550 2014;55:6765-73.
- 551 42. González-Méijome JM, Faria-Ribeiro MA, Lopes-Ferreira DP, et al.
552 Changes in peripheral refractive profile after orthokeratology for
553 different degrees of myopia. *Curr Eye Res* 2015;24:1-9.
- 554 43. Queirós A, González-Méijome JM, Jorge J, et al. Peripheral refraction
555 in myopic patients after orthokeratology. *Optom Vis Sci* 2010;87:323-9.

- 556 44. Lin Z, Martinez A, Chen X, et al. Peripheral defocus with single-vision
557 spectacle lenses in myopic children. *Optom Vis Sci* 2010;87:4-9.
- 558 45. Kang P, Swarbrick H. Peripheral refraction in myopic children wearing
559 orthokeratology and gas-permeable lenses. *Optom Vis Sci*
560 2011;88:476-82.
- 561 46. Ticak A, Walline JJ. Peripheral optics with bifocal soft and corneal
562 reshaping contact lenses. *Optom Vis Sci* 2013;90:3-8.
- 563 47. Smith III EL, Campbell MCW, Irving EL. Point-counterpoint. Does
564 peripheral retinal input explain the promising myopia control effects of
565 corneal reshaping therapy (CRT or ortho-K) & multifocal soft contact
566 lenses? *Ophthalmic Physiol Opt* 2013;33:379–84.
- 567 48. Zhong Y, Chen Z, Xue F, et al. Corneal power change is predictive of
568 myopia progression in orthokeratology. *Optom Vis Sci* 2014;91:404-11.
- 569 49. Roberts C. The accuracy of ‘power’ maps to display curvature data in
570 corneal topography systems. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 1994;35:3525-
571 32.
- 572 50. Klein SA, Mandell RB. Shape and refractive powers in corneal
573 topography. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 1995;36:2096-109.
- 574 51. Klein SA, Mandell RB. Axial and Instantaneous Power Conversion in
575 Corneal Topography. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 1995;36:2155-9.
- 576 52. Santodomingo-Rubido J, Villa-Collar C, Gilmartin B, et al. Myopia
577 control with orthokeratology contact lenses in Spain (MCOS): study
578 design and general baseline characteristics. *J Optom* 2009;2:215-22.

- 579 53. Santodomingo-Rubido J, Villa-Collar C, Gilmartin B, et al. Factors
580 preventing myopia progression with orthokeratology correction. *Optom*
581 *Vis Sci* 2013;90:1225-36.
- 582 54. Santodomingo-Rubido J, Villa-Collar C, Gilmartin B, et al. Short-term
583 changes in ocular biometry and refraction after discontinuation of long-
584 term orthokeratology. *Eye Contact Lens* 2014;40:84-90.
- 585 55. Santodomingo-Rubido J, Villa-Collar C, Gilmartin B, et al. The effects
586 of entrance pupil centration and coma aberrations on myopia
587 progression following orthokeratology. *Clin Exp Optom* 2015;98:534-
588 40.
- 589 56. Santodomingo-Rubido J, Villa-Collar C, Gilmartin B, et al. Short- and
590 long-term changes in corneal aberrations and axial length induced by
591 orthokeratology in children are not correlated. *Eye Contact Lens* 2016
592 (accepted).
- 593 57. Terry RL, Schnider CM, Holden BA, et al. CCLRU standards for
594 successful daily wear and extended wear contact lenses. *Optom Vis*
595 *Sci* 1993;70:234-243.
- 596 58. Lovie-Kitchin JE, Brown B. Repeatability and intercorrelations of
597 standard vision tests as a function of age. *Optom Vis Sci* 2000;77:412-
598 20.
- 599 59. Santodomingo-Rubido J, Mallen EA, Gilmartin B, et al. A new non-
600 contact optical device for ocular biometry. *Br J Ophthalmol*
601 2002;86:458-462.

- 602 60. Wang Q1, Savini G, Hoffer KJ, et al. A comprehensive assessment of
603 the precision and agreement of anterior corneal power measurements
604 obtained using 8 different devices. *PLoS One* 2012;7:e45607.
- 605 61. Maseedupally V, Gifford P, Lum E, et al. Central and paracentral
606 corneal curvature changes during orthokeratology. *Optom Vis Sci*
607 2013;90:1249-58.
- 608 62. Kiely PM, Smith G, Carney LG. The mean shape of the human cornea.
609 *Optica Acta* 1982;29:1027-40.
- 610 63. Sheridan M, Douthwaite WA. Corneal asphericity and refractive error.
611 *Ophthalmic Physiol Opt* 1989;9:235-8.
- 612 64. Zhang Z, Wang J, Niu W, et al. Corneal asphericity and its related
613 factors in 1052 Chinese subjects. *Optom Vis Sci* 2011;88:1232-9.
- 614 65. Tahhan N, Du Toit R, Papas E, et al. Comparison of reverse-geometry
615 lens designs for overnight orthokeratology. *Optom Vis Sci*
616 2003;80:796–804.
- 617 66. Calossi A. Corneal asphericity and spherical aberration. *J Refract Surg.*
618 2007;23:505-14.
- 619 67. Queirós A, Lopes-Ferreira D, González-Méijome JM. Astigmatic
620 peripheral defocus with different contact lenses: review and meta-
621 analysis. *Curr Eye Res* 2016 [Epub ahead of print]
- 622 68. Hiraoka T, Kakita T, Okamoto F, et al. Influence of ocular
623 wavefront aberrations on axial length elongation in myopic children
624 treated with overnight orthokeratology. *Ophthalmology* 2015;122:93-
625 100.

- 626 69. Hickson-Curran S, Brennan NA, Igarashi Y, et al. Comparative
627 evaluation of Asian and White ocular topography. *Optom Vis Sci*
628 2014;91:1396-1405.
- 629 70. Mutti DO, Sinnott LT, Mitchell GL, et al. Relative peripheral refractive
630 error and the risk of onset and progression of myopia in children. *Invest*
631 *Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2011;52:199–205.
- 632 71. Atchison DA, Li SM, Li H, et al. Relative peripheral hyperopia does not
633 predict development and progression of myopia in children. *Invest*
634 *Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2015;56:6162-70.
- 635 72. Twelker JD, Mitchell GL, Messer DH, et al. Children's ocular
636 components and age, gender, and ethnicity. *Optom Vis Sci*
637 2009;86:918-35.
- 638 73. Saw SM, Tong L, Chua WH, et al. Incidence and progression of
639 myopia in Singaporean school children. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*
640 2005;46:51-7.
- 641 74. Pärssinen O, Lyyra AL. Myopia and myopic progression among
642 schoolchildren: a three-year follow-up study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*
643 1993;34:2794-802.
- 644 75. Pacella R, McLellan J, Grice K, et al. Role of genetic factors in the
645 etiology of juvenile-onset myopia based on a longitudinal study of
646 refractive error. *Optom Vis Sci* 1999;76:381-6
- 647 76. Wu MM, Edwards MH. The effect of having myopic parents: an
648 analysis of myopia in three generations. *Optom Vis Sci* 1999;76:387-
649 92.

650 77. Rose KA, Morgan IG, Ip J, et al. Outdoor activity reduces the
651 prevalence of myopia in children. *Ophthalmology* 2008;115:1279-85.

652 78. Guggenheim JA, Northstone K, McMahon G, et al. Time outdoors and
653 physical activity as predictors of incident myopia in childhood: a
654 prospective cohort study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2012;53:2856–
655 2865.

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665 **TABLE LEGENDS**

666

667 **Table 1.** Univariate regression analyses. The strength of association between
668 the different factors is indicated by linear regression equations, R-squared
669 values and p-values.

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

689 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

690

691 **Figure 1.** Refractive compare map of the Oculus Keratograph software
692 displaying the post- to pre-OK change in corneal refractive up to a 8mm ring
693 diameter for the right eye of an individual subject. The map on the top right
694 shows data post-OK lens wear, the one on the bottom right data pre-OK lens
695 wear, and the larger map on the left shows the difference in corneal power
696 (i.e. post-OK – pre-OK). The right and left sides of each of the 3 maps
697 correspond to nasal and temporal corneal regions, respectively. The color
698 scale on the far right represents the absolute refractive power of the cornea,
699 whereas the color scale on the far left represents the relative change in
700 corneal power. Warmer (i.e. red) and darker colors (i.e. blue) indicate
701 increases and decreases in corneal power, respectively. Average values of
702 corneal power change for certain regions of the cornea are provided on the
703 larger map on the left.

704

705 **Figure 2.** Areas of corneal power change (i.e. post-OK – pre-OK) for the right
706 eye. The regions located between the 3- and 5-mm diameter rings are
707 referred to as “paracentral” corneal regions (i.e. N1, T1, I1, S1), whereas the
708 regions located between the 5- and 8-mm diameter rings are referred as
709 pericentral corneal regions (i.e. N2, T2, I2, S2). C, central; N, nasal; T,
710 temporal; I, inferior; S, superior. It has been estimated that the central region
711 and each of the 4 regions of the paracentral (i.e. N1, T1, I1, S1) and
712 pericentral (i.e. N2, T2, I2, S2) cornea assessed by the corneal topographer

713 encompass 3,094, 1,374 and 3,352 elevated data points of measurement,
714 respectively.

715

716 **Figure 3.** Mean changes in corneal power relative to the central corneal
717 power at 3-months (left) and 24-months (right) relative to baseline for each of
718 the 7 different corneal regions assessed. Data from the superior peripheral
719 cornea (i.e. S2) were not analyzed as intrusion of the upper lid and lashes
720 prevented reliable measurement.

721

722 **Figure 4.** Simple linear regressions between the 2-years change in axial
723 length relative to baseline and the change in paracentral corneal power
724 relative to central corneal power following 3- (solid triangles and line) and 24-
725 months (open circles and dashed line) of OK lens wear.

726

727 **Figure 5.** Simple linear regressions between the 2-years change in axial
728 length relative to baseline and the change in pericentral corneal power relative
729 to central corneal power following 3- (solid triangles and line) and 24-months
730 (open circles and dashed line) of OK lens wear.

731

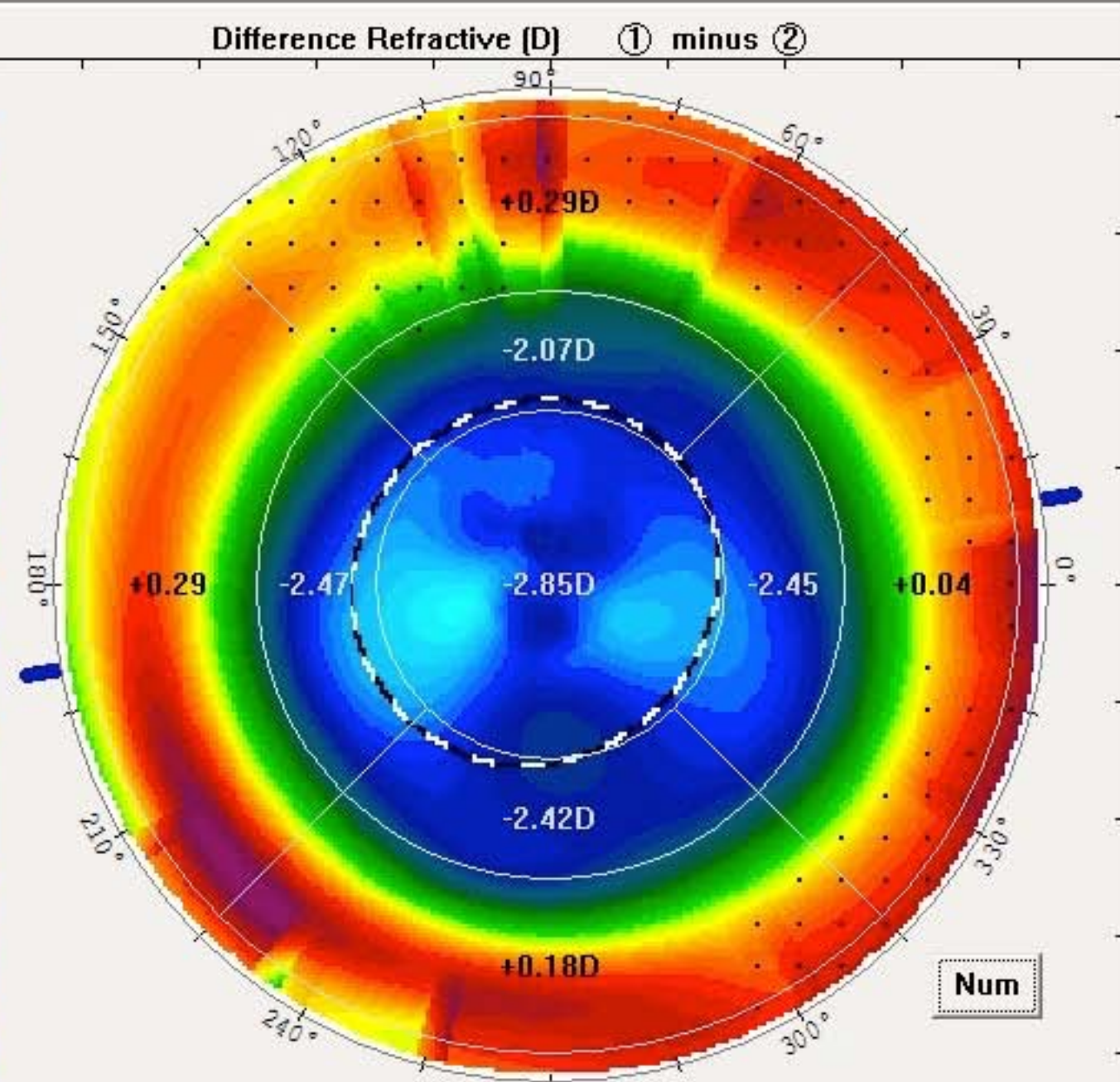
732

733

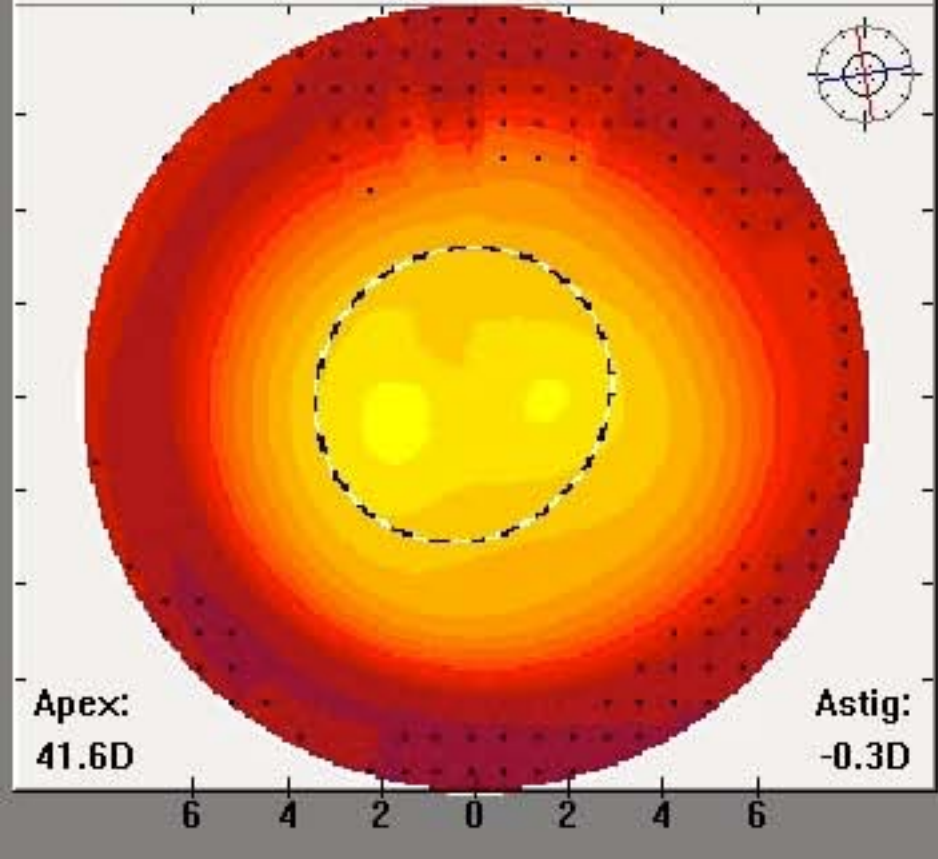
Corneal areas	Short-term corneal power changes vs. changes in axial length		Long-term corneal power changes vs. changes in axial length	
	Regression line equations	Statistical results	Regression line equations	Statistical results
N1	$y = -0.020x + 1.957$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.906$	$y = -0.026x + 1.958$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.919$
N2	$y = -0.102x + 2.184$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.392$	$y = -0.053x + 2.092$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.628$
T1	$y = -0.093x + 1.924$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.777$	$y = 0.226x + 1.936$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.639$
T2	$y = -0.003x + 1.947$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.980$	$y = 0.012x + 1.924$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.923$
I1	$y = -0.159x + 1.992$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.500$	$y = 0.050x + 1.924$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.895$
I2	$y = -0.006x + 1.957$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.951$	$y = -0.009x + 1.977$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.943$
S1	$y = -0.004x + 1.943$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.979$	$y = 0.022x + 1.931$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.902$
Mean N: (N1+N2)/2	$y = -0.108x + 2.111$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.514$	$y = -0.045x + 2.011$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.784$
Mean T: (T1+T2)/2	$y = -0.023x + 1.959$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.915$	$y = 0.043x + 1.909$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.848$
Mean I: (I1+I2)/2	$y = -0.044x + 1.998$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.784$	$y = 0.009x + 1.932$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.964$
Mean H: (N1+N2+T1+T2)/4	$y = -0.094x + 2.050$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.649$	$y = -0.017x + 1.962$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.934$
Mean V: (I1+I2+S1)/3	$y = -0.048x + 1.987$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.810$	$y = 0.031x + 1.913$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.892$
Mean Para (N1+T1+I1+S1)/4	$y = -0.044x + 2.032$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.734$	$y = 0.059x + 1.920$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.880$
Mean Peri: (N2+T2+I2)/3	$y = -0.077x + 1.967$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.766$	$y = -0.013x + 1.968$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.916$
Central multifocality	$y = 0.102x + 2.215$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.415$	$y = 0.047x + 2.060$	$R^2=0.000, p=0.656$
Total multifocality	$y = 0.146x + 2.372$	$R^2=0.023, p=0.212$	$y = 0.044x + 2.060$	$R^2=0.023, p=0.674$

Table 1. Simple linear regressions between the change in axial length at 2-years relative to baseline and the change in corneal power at each of the corneal areas relative to baseline and the change in central corneal power following short- (3 months) and long-term (24 months) OK lens wear. N, nasal; T, temporal; I, inferior; S, superior; H, horizontal; V, vertical; Para, paracentral; Peri, pericentral.

Name: _____



① POST-ORTHOKERATOLOGY



② PRE-ORTHOKERATOLOGY

