CME REVIEWARTICLE 5

CHIEF EDITOR'S NOTE: This article is part of a series of continuing education activities in this Journal through which a total of 36 AMA/PRA category 1 credit hours can be earned in 2003. Instructions for how CME credits can be earned appear on the last page of the Table of Contents.

Ocular Changes in Pregnancy

Robert B. Dinn, BS,* Alon Harris, MSc, PhD[†] and Peter S. Marcus, MD[‡]

*Fourth Year Medical Student, Indiana University School of Medicine; †Professor, Glaucoma Research and Diagnostic Center, Departments of Ophthalmology and Physiology, Indiana University School of Medicine; and ‡Assistant Clinical Professor, Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, Indiana

Visual changes in pregnancy are common, and many are specifically associated with the pregnancy itself. Serous retinal detachments and blindness occur more frequently during preeclampsia and often subside postpartum. Pregnant women are at increased risk for the progression of preexisting proliferative diabetic retinopathy, and diabetic women should see an ophthalmologist before pregnancy or early in the first trimester. The results of refractive eye surgery before, during, or immediately after pregnancy are unpredictable, and refractive surgery should be postponed until there is a stable postpartum refraction. A decreased tolerance to contact lenses also is common during pregnancy; therefore, it is advisable to fit contact lenses postpartum. Furthermore, pregnancy is associated with a decreased intraocular pressure in healthy eyes, and the effects of glaucoma medications on the fetus and breast-fed infant are largely unknown.

Target Audience: Obstetricians & Gynecologists, Family Physicians

Learning Objectives: After completion of this article, the reader will be able to list the various ocular changes that occur during pregnancy, summarize the ocular disturbances that occur with preeclampsia and diabetes, and describe the management of some ocular problems during pregnancy.

INTRODUCTION

Visual disturbances are common among pregnant women (1, 2), and the physician should have a firm understanding of the various conditions associated with these disturbances. The ocular changes associated with pregnancy may offer insight into the pathophysiology of many diseases. Physicians should be able to distinguish among the different causes and delineate those conditions specifically associated with pregnancy. Several systemic disorders warrant ophthalmic referral in pregnant women; however, many visual disturbances in pregnant women require no treatment. Physicians should also understand that pregnancy influences the results of refractive eye

The authors have disclosed no significant financial or other relationship with any commercial entity.

surgery and that medications used to treat eye diseases may have effects on fetuses and breast-fed infants. This article discusses concerns specific to pregnancy and the eye, including preeclampsia, diabetic retinopathy, refractive eye surgery, contact lens intolerance, and glaucoma.

METHOD OF LITERATURE SEARCH

A MEDLINE search covering the years 1966 through 2002 was performed using the words pregnancy, preeclampsia, eye, eclampsia, diabetes, refractive eye surgery, PRK, LASIK, contact lens, and glaucoma. Additional references were obtained from the bibliographies of articles obtained in the MED-LINE search. Randomized controlled trials were given preference; however, nonrandomized noncontrolled trials and case studies were cited when no randomized controlled trials were available.

Reprint requests to: Peter S. Marcus, MD, Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Indiana University School of Medicine, 550 N. University Blvd, UH 2440, Indianapolis, IN 46202. Email: pmarcus@iupui.edu

PREECLAMPSIA

Preeclamptic women may present with ocular disturbances including blurry vision, photopsia, diffuse retinal edema, decreased retinal arterial to vein ratio, serous retinal detachment, scotoma, and blindness (3–5). There is a worsening of visual disturbances with increasing severity of preeclampsia. In a retrospective study of 71 records of Japanese patients with severe preeclampsia or eclampsia, retinal pigment epithelial lesions were found in 36 eyes and serous retinal detachments were found in 40 eyes (4).

The mechanisms behind these changes are still being investigated, but vascular changes seem to be paramount. Possible causes stem from systemic conditions (hypertension, diabetes), cerebral autoregulatory, and/or hormonal changes. Jaffe and Schatz (3) suggest that the retinal changes in preeclamptic patients may be, at least partly, due to underlying systemic vascular diseases because many patients with preeclampsia have diabetes or chronic hypertension (Table 1). In a prospective, controlled, masked study excluding patients with diabetes and preexisting hypertension, Jaffe and Schatz (3) did not find evidence of hemorrhages, cotton-wool spots, exudates, Elschnig spots (yellow/hyperpigmented patches of retinal pigment epithelium overlying infarcted choriocapillaris lobules in hypertensive retinopathy), or retinal detachments in 31 patients with preeclampsia. In this same study, Jaffe and Schatz (3) found a statistically significant correlation between the reduction in arteriole to vein ratio and the diagnosis of severe preeclampsia (P = .004). Consistent with these results, Belfort and Saade (6) reported a case of retinal vasospasm during a period of visual disturbance in a preeclamptic woman. After the resolution of symptoms, central retinal arterial blood velocity increased and resistance decreased (6). Belfort et al. (7) also reported that magnesium, which is used as an antiseizure medication in preeclampsia, dilates the vessels distal to the central retinal and posterior ciliary arteries.

On the other hand, a breakthrough in cerebral autoregulation might be responsible for retinal changes (8).

TABLE 1 Possible explanations for ocular changes in preeclampsia/eclampsia*

1. Coexisting/preexisting systemic vascular disease

5. Hypoperfusion ischemia and/or hyperperfusion/edema

Using color flow Doppler ultrasonography in 118 normotensive pregnant subjects, 20 preeclamptic subjects without visual symptoms, and 11 preeclamptic subjects with photophobia and retinal edema, Ohno et al. (9) concluded that preeclamptic women, especially those with photophobia, have orbital vascular vasodilation and/or hyperperfusion. These changes may be the reason behind the increased retinal edema and retinal detachments in preeclamptic women. Interestingly, the detachments may occur in the absence of retinal pigment epithelial lesions (4). Saito and Tano (4) propose that there are variable retinal pigment epithelial changes based on varying degrees of choroidal hypoperfusion. Retinal detachments without retinal pigment epithelial lesions might occur with less severe ischemia leading to changes in retinal pigment epithelium permeability.

Blindness has been reported to occur in almost 15% of women with eclampsia (5) and may occur postpartum (5, 10–12). Either compromise in retinal or occipital lobe vasculature is probably responsible. Case reports of transient blindness have been attributed to acute ischemic optic neuropathy (13) and retinal vasospasm and edema (14); however, most cases of blindness associated with preeclampsia and eclampsia are attributed to changes in the occipital cortex (5). The precise mechanism underlying cortical blindness is unknown. Based on a prospective study of women with blindness and pregnancy-induced hypertension, Cunningham et al. (5) concluded that transient cortical blindness resulted from petechial hemorrhages and focal edema in the occipital cortex. Similar to changes in the retina, two possible etiologies for focal edema are either vasospasm and ischemia or increased capillary permeability and edema. Using single-photon emission computed tomography, cerebral computerized tomography, and transcranial Doppler ultrasonography in 63 women with eclampsia, Naidu et al. (15) concluded that vasospasm with resultant ischemia led to cerebral edema in the watershed areas and parieto-occipital lobes causing seizures.

Interestingly, Borromeo et al. (10) described a case of cortical blindness in a preeclamptic patient complicated by hypotension and pointed out that the pathophysiology behind preeclampsia/eclampsia-induced blindness is different from watershed infarctinduced blindness. Apollon et al. (11) used neuroimaging to demonstrate that a case of cortical blindness in postpartum preeclampsia was the result of vasogenic cerebral edema. The authors (11) refuted the conclusion of Naidu et al. (15) because there was a question as to whether the imaging was done during the acute phase of changes. Kesler et al. (16) also

^{2.} Changes in hormonal milieu

^{3.} Endothelial damage

^{4.} Breakthrough in autoregulation

^{*} The precise mechanism probably involves a combination of these factors.

concluded that transient blindness in a preeclamptic pregnant patient was caused by vascular endothelial damage because severe proteinuria, recent placental thrombosis, and brain ischemia (based on computed tomography [CT] performed emergently and magnetic resonance imaging [MRI] performed several days after the return of vision) were present.

Using magnetic resonance imaging in 28 preeclamptic women with neurologic symptoms, Schwartz et al. (17) demonstrated that the presence of brain edema was associated with abnormal red blood cell morphology and elevated lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) levels. This suggested that microangiopathic hemolysis and endothelial damage were present, and endothelial damage may have resulted in a disturbed autoregulatory system (17). Interestingly, Edvinsson et al. (18) found that the posterior cerebral circulation contains fewer synapses with the sympathetic nervous system than does the anterior cerebral circulation, which could make this region more susceptible to the breakthrough of autoregulation (17). This finding is in agreement with the location of lesions detected in the parieto-occipital area by neuroimaging in patients with cortical blindness (5, 11, 12, 16, 17).

Posterior leukoencephalopathy syndrome, which consists of headache, altered mental functioning, seizures, and loss of vision (including cortical blindness), has been described in patients receiving immunosuppressive therapy or interferon and in patients with eclampsia or hypertensive encephalopathy associated with renal disease (19). This syndrome occurred postpartum in the eclamptic patients; however, the pathophysiology behind this syndrome probably is similar to the visual disturbances that occur before delivery. In fact, posterior leukoencephalopathy may be a variant of a broader syndrome of hypertensive/hyperperfusion encephalopathy (20).

Additionally, the hormonal changes of pregnancy influence ocular hemodynamics, which might provide insight into the pathophysiology of preeclampsia. By changing the production of endothelial-derived substances such as nitrous oxide, endothelin-1, and eicosanoid, estrogen has been demonstrated to lead to vasodilation (21–23). In a study using Doppler imaging analysis in 16 postmenopausal women on hormone replacement therapy, 16 postmenopausal women without hormone replacement therapy, and 20 young nonpregnant women, Harris-Yitzhak et al. (24) concluded that estrogen therapy in postmenopausal women apparently reduces vascular resistance distal to the ophthalmic artery to levels matching those of young women. Furthermore, Centofanti et al. (25) demonstrated that pulsatile ocular blood flow increased throughout pregnancy using information from 27 healthy pregnant women. What, if any, role estrogen or other hormones play in the disruption of autoregulation during preeclampsia has yet to be determined. Regardless, it is important to remember that the vasculature changes even in normal pregnancy.

Fortunately, cortical blindness due to preeclampsia/ eclampsia is almost always a transient phenomenon with reports of blindness lasting 4 hours to 8 days (5, 10, 11, 12, 16). If the blindness is not transient, there should be suspicion of other disease processes. The management of preeclamptic/eclamptic women with cortical blindness is the same as in women without blindness (5). Retinal pigment epithelial lesions and serous retinal detachments have been reported to resolve within 3 weeks in approximately 80% and 98%, respectively, of women with severe preeclampsia or eclampsia (4) (Table 2). Because ophthalmic changes in pregnant patients may herald the rapid onset and progression of preeclampsia, ophthalmologists should be aware that immediate obstetrical referral is indicated for pregnant patients presenting with retinal or choroidal vascular abnormalities (26).

DIABETES

Diabetes is the leading cause of new cases of blindness in United States adults between the ages of 20 and 74 (27). The incidence of diabetes has been found to be higher in women than men (28), and the age-adjusted female to male ratio of blindness due to diabetes is 1.4:1 (27). In 1997 alone, an estimate \$98 billion was spent in the United States on medical care because of diabetes (29).

Multiple studies have demonstrated that there is a worsening of retinopathy in diabetics during the course of pregnancy (30–34), but gestational diabetes does not seem to increase the risk of diabetic retinopathy (35). There is an association of increased risk of fetal loss and

TABLE 2 Ocular disturbances in preeclampsia/eclampsia

Disturbance	Prognosis
Retinal pigment epithelial lesion	Usually resolves within 3 weeks postpartum
Serous retinal detach- ment	Usually resolves within 3 weeks postpartum Results in scarring in only a small number of patients
Cortical blindness	Almost always a transient phenome- non lasting 4 hours to 8 days Resolves with resolution of pre- eclampsia/eclampsia

obstetric complications with worsening of retinopathy and particularly with the development of proliferative retinopathy (32, 35–37) (Table 3). Long-term studies suggest that retinopathy does not seem to be more severe in parous versus nulligravid diabetic women (30, 34, 38–43). Increasing parity does not increase the risk of worse retinopathy (40, 41), and retinopathy may even be less severe in women with two or more pregnancies (40). The progression of retinopathy during pregnancy is influenced strongly by coexisting hypertension and preeclampsia (31, 44, 45) and is directly related to the severity of preexisting retinopathy (33, 46–49). Furthermore, the progression of preexisting retinopathy and the onset of proliferative diabetic retinopathy are influenced strongly by the duration of diabetes before conception (33, 35, 41, 46, 48, 50). The baseline severity of retinopathy before conception may be a more significant risk factor for the progression of retinopathy; however, duration of diabetes before conception seems to hold more prognostic significance for the development of proliferative retinopathy during pregnancy (46). A prospective cohort study of 155 diabetic women (the Diabetes in Early Pregnancy Study) found that retinopathy progressed to proliferative stages in 18% of patients with less than 15 years of diabetes and in 39% of women with more than 15 years of diabetes (46).

Although tight glycemic control of blood sugars during pregnancy is associated with a decreased risk of fetal macrosomia and congenital malformations (51–54), long-term control of blood sugar improves the course of retinopathy (55). Several studies have indicated that worsening of retinopathy is directly associated with poor glycemic control before conception and during pregnancy (31, 44, 46, 50, 56). The Diabetes in Early Pregnancy study (46) found that women with a baseline glycosylated hemoglobin level greater than 8.05% had an odds ratio of 2.7 (95% confidence interval (CI) was equal to 1.1–7.2) of worsening retinopathy when compared with women with baseline hemoglobin levels less than 6.05%. This is confounded by the fact that transient worsening of diabetic retinopathy is correlated with rapid glycemic control in early pregnancy (30, 44– 46, 56). Such a phenomenon used to be attributed to

TABLE 3 Risk factors for worsening of diabetic retinopathy during pregnancy

- 1. Coexisting hypertension or preeclampsia
- 2. Severity of retinopathy before conception
- 3. Duration of diabetes before conception
- 4. Poor glycemic control before conception
- 5. Rapid institution of glycemic control

the combination of abrupt control of blood sugars plus pregnancy, but rapid glycemic control is now known to be an independent risk factor (30). Interestingly, transient worsening of retinopathy with rapid glycemic control also has been demonstrated in nonpregnant patients (57).

To reduce the progression of retinopathy during pregnancy, blood sugars should be well controlled before conception (58). The progression of diabetic retinopathy may be worse in pregnant patients whose proliferative retinopathy was not treated with photocoagulation before conception (33); therefore, appropriate treatment of preexisting proliferative retinopathy also should occur before pregnancy (33, 58). Proliferative diabetic retinopathy may be treated appropriately using laser photocoagulation in pregnant patients (33, 59), but reversal of pregnancy-induced changes in retinopathy are common postpartum (30, 32, 42, 43, 45, 47). Current recommendations call for a baseline comprehensive dilated eye examination before conception and the anticipation of follow-up ophthalmologic examination during pregnancy (58) (Table 4). Because the adverse effects of pregnancy persist over the first year postpartum, patients should continue to be monitored by an ophthalmologist for at least 1 year after delivery (30). The necessity of intensive retinal surveillance in patients without poor glycemic control and/or retinopathy is controversial (60). Recommendations for follow-up may need to be based on the severity of retinopathy at the time of conception (1, 2, 49).

REFRACTIVE EYE SURGERY

Although there are few published articles concerning the results of refractive surgery in women before, during, or after pregnancy, pregnancy is considered by most to be a contraindication to photorefractive keratectomy (PRK) and laser *in situ* keratomileusis

TABLE 4 Recommendations for diabetic women considering pregnancy or who are pregnant

- 1. Glucose should be well controlled before conception.
- 2. All diabetic women should see an ophthalmologist before or shortly after becoming pregnant.
- If it is indicated, photocoagulation should be carried out before conception.
- Proliferative diabetic retinopathy can be treated with photocoagulation during pregnancy, but reversal of proliferative changes is common postpartum.
- 5. The surveillance during pregnancy may depend upon baseline severity of retinopathy.
- 6. All diabetic women should follow-up with an ophthalmologist postpartum.

(LASIK) surgeries (61). Sharif (62) studied the refractive results of 18 eyes of 9 women who underwent PRK for the treatment of myopia and became pregnant within a follow-up period of 12 months. He concluded that postoperative pregnancy affected the refractive results in PRK. Twelve (6 patients) of 18 eyes had myopic regression. The 6 eyes in 3 women who had stable refractions became pregnant at least 5 months postoperatively. Furthermore, Starr (63) reported a case of overcorrection in a patient who became pregnant shortly before or after PRK, followed by spontaneous abortion and complete reversal of the overcorrection.

On the other hand, Hefetz et al. (64) concluded pregnancy and labor probably had no effect on refractive results after PRK. The authors were able to document stable refractions in six of eight pregnant patients undergoing PRK, although myopic regression occurred in the other two patients.

The reports of unstable refractions could be due to changes in corneal thickness and/or wound healing during pregnancy. Weinreb et al. (65) measured the corneal thickness in 89 pregnant women and found an increase by about 3% (P = .01) in comparison to the control eyes of 18 nulligravid and 17 postpartum women. The increase was attributed to increased water retention during pregnancy. There was no difference in corneal thickness with gestational stage and between the nulligravid and postpartum subjects. Ziai et al. (66) followed 19 pregnant women and also demonstrated an increase in corneal thickness during pregnancy. Park et al. (67) found no change in corneal thickness throughout pregnancy in 24 women during pregnancy but did find an increase in the corneal curvature during the second and third trimesters. This curvature either resolved postpartum or after the cessation of breast-feeding. Despite a change in curvature, Park et al. (67) were unable to demonstrate a change in refraction with pregnancy. Manges et al. (68) followed 38 nonpregnant and 93 pregnant patients and found that refractive error, corneal curvature, and corneal thickness did not change significantly during pregnancy.

The timing of refractive eye surgery for a patient intending to become pregnant can be a difficult decision. Because of documented changes in corneal curvature that occur during pregnancy, current recommendations are to delay refractive surgery during pregnancy and wait until stability of refraction is documented postpartum (61). If a patient intends to get pregnant within 1 to 2 years of surgery, it is recommended to postpone PRK or LASIK until after pregnancy (69) (Table 5).

- 1. Candidates should not intend to become pregnant for 1 year after surgery.
- 2. Candidates must not currently be pregnant.
- Candidates must have a stable refractive prescription documented postpartum.

CONTACT LENS INTOLERANCE

Despite success with contact lenses previously, many women develop contact lens intolerance while pregnant (65, 67, 70). This is unlikely to be due to an increase in corneal sensitivity. Conversely, corneal sensitivity either does not change (67) or decreases, possibly relating to water retention (70, 71). The intolerance may actually be due to an increase in either corneal curvature or thickness associated with pregnancy (65, 67, 70), and pregnant women should delay fitting new contact lenses until several weeks postpartum (65, 70). Because stable refractions have been documented for most women during pregnancy (67, 68), pregnancy is not a contraindication to prescribing corrective lenses.

GLAUCOMA

The exact effects of pregnancy on the intraocular eye pressure in glaucoma are not entirely understood. Interestingly, pregnancy has been associated with about a 10% decrease in intraocular pressure in healthy eyes (65). In addition to the decreased intraocular pressure, an increased aqueous outflow capacity has been demonstrated in pregnant patients without glaucoma (66, 72). These changes in aqueous dynamics are consistent with the hypothesis that excess progesterone during pregnancy blocks the ocular hypertensive effects of endogenous corticosteroids (66).

There is little information concerning the safety of glaucoma medications during pregnancy (73, 74); yet, one must be cognizant of the side effect profile and potential teratology of glaucoma medications if a woman with glaucoma becomes pregnant or anticipates a pregnancy. Most glaucoma medications are in the pregnancy category C or B; however, the cholinesterase inhibitors belong to the pregnancy category X (73). Although it is not known if most of the glaucoma medications are excreted into human breast milk (73, 74), several do have the potential (74). In fact, timolol (75, 76) and acetazolamide (77) have been found in human breast milk, but both are considered compatible with breast-feeding (78). A

woman who is breast-feeding should discuss an appropriate regimen with her ophthalmologist and be counseled about the risk of passing glaucoma medications to her infant while nursing. If a woman with severe glaucoma wishes to decrease the potential risk of medications, she may be a candidate for glaucoma surgery (74). Additionally, caution should be used when prostaglandin E_2 is used to induce cervical ripening in women with glaucoma or high intraocular pressure (79).

CONCLUSION

Preeclampsia and eclampsia are associated with an increased incidence of a multitude of visual disturbances, including serous retinal detachment and blindness. Consequently, the obstetrician should perform a fundus examination on all preeclamptic and eclamptic patients. The pathophysiologic mechanisms undermining these disturbances are still being elucidated; however, vascular abnormalities play a role. Fortunately, retinal lesions and blindness often resolve postpartum. Traditionally, medications are not used to lower intraocular pressure in systemic hypertensive diseases.

All diabetic women should see an ophthalmologist before or shortly after becoming pregnant. Poor glycemic control before pregnancy is associated with worsening of retinopathy, and good glycemic control should occur before conception. Coexisting preeclampsia and hypertension also offer a worse prognosis. Long-term studies suggest that retinopathy is no worse in parous versus nulliparous women, and pregnancy-induced retinopathy often regresses postpartum. Proliferative retinopathy can be treated using lasers during pregnancy, but results are better if appropriate treatment of retinopathy occurs before pregnancy.

The results of refractive eye surgery shortly before, during, or after pregnancy cannot adequately be predicted. This elective surgery should be postponed until a stable refraction is obtained postpartum. Because contact lens intolerance is common during pregnancy, it may be wise to avoid prescribing new contact lenses until after delivery. Healthy women may demonstrate a change in corneal curvature and a decrease in intraocular pressure during pregnancy. Glaucoma patients who are pregnant or nursing should be counseled about the potential risks of glaucoma medications to fetuses/infants.

Acknowledgments—This research is supported in part (to A.H.) by a grant from Research to Prevent Blindness, Inc.

REFERENCES

- 1. Sunness JS. The pregnant woman's eye. Surv Ophthalmol 1988;32:219–238.
- Sunness JS, Santos A. Pregnancy and the mother's eye. In: Tasman W, Jaeger EA, eds. Duane's Clinical Ophthalmology. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1994, vol 4, pp 1–25.
- Jaffe G, Schatz H. Ocular manifestations of preeclampsia. Am J Ophthalmol 1987;103:309–315.
- Saito Y, Tano Y. Retinal pigment epithelial lesions associated with choroidal ischemia in preeclampsia. Retina 1998;18:103– 108.
- Cunningham FG, Fernandez CO, Hernandez C. Blindness associated with preeclampsia and eclampsia. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1995;172:1291–1298.
- Belfort MA, Saade GR. Retinal vasospasm associated with visual disturbance in preeclampsia: Color flow Doppler findings. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1993;169:523–525.
- Belfort MA, Saade GR, Moise KJ Jr. The effect of magnesium sulfate on maternal retinal blood flow in preeclampsia: A randomized placebo-controlled study. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1992;167:1548–1553.
- Bill A. Blood circulation and fluid dynamics in the eye. Physiol Rev 1975;55:383–417.
- Ohno Y, Kawai M, Wakahara Y et al. Ophthalmic artery velocimetry in normotensive and preeclamptic women with or without photophobia. Obstet Gynecol 1999;94:361–363.
- Borromeo CJ, Blike GT, Wiley CW et al. Cortical blindness in a preeclamptic patient after a cesarean delivery complicated by hypotension. Anesth Analg 2000;91:609–611.
- Apollon KM, Robinson JN, Schwartz RB et al. Cortical blindness in severe preeclampsia: Computed tomography, magnetic resonance imaging, and single-photon-emission computed tomography findings. Obstet Gynecol 2000;95:1017– 1019.
- Ozkan SO, Korbeyli B, Bese T et al. Acute cortical blindness complicating preeclampsia. Arch Gynecol Obstet 2001;265: 231–232.
- Beck RW, Gamel JW, Willcourt RJ et al. Acute ischemic optic neuropathy in severe preeclampsia. Am J Ophthalmol 1980; 90:342–346.
- Gandhi J, Ghosh S, Pillari VT. Blindness and retinal changes with preeclamptic toxemia. NY State J Med 1978;78:1930– 1932.
- Naidu K, Moodley J, Corr P et al. Single photon emission and cerebral computerised tomographic scan and transcranial Doppler sonographic findings in eclampsia. Br J Obstet Gynaecol 1977;104:1165–1172.
- Kesler A, Kaneti H, Kidron D. Transient cortical blindness in preeclampsia with indication of generalized vascular endothelial damage. J Neuro-ophthalmol 1998;18:163–165.
- Schwartz RB, Feske SK, Polak JF et al. Preeclampsiaeclampsia: Clinical and neuroradiographic correlates and insights into the pathogenesis of hypertensive encephalopathy. Radiology 2000;217:371–376.
- Edvinsson L, Owman C, Sjoberg NO. Autonomic nerves, mast cells, and amine receptors in human brain vessels. A histochemical and pharmacological study. Brain Res 1976;115: 377–393.
- Hinchey J, Chaves C, Appignani B, Breen J et al. A reversible posterior leukoencephalopathy syndrome. N Engl J Med 1996;334:494–500.
- Schwartz RB. A reversible posterior leukoencephalopathy syndrome (correspondence). N Engl J Med 1996;334:1743– 1746.
- White MM, Zamudio S, Stevens T et al. Estrogen, progesterone, and vascular reactivity: Potential cellular mechanisms. Endocr Rev 1995;16:739–751.
- 22. Mijatovic V, van der Mooren MJ, Stehouwer CD et al. Postmenopausal hormone replacement, risk estimators for coro-

nary artery disease and cardiovascular protection. Gynecol Endocrinol 1999;13:130-144.

- Kauser K, Rubanyi GM. Potential cellular signaling mechanisms mediating upregulation of endothelial nitric oxide production by estrogen. J Vasc Res 1997;34:229–236.
- 24. Harris-Yitzhak M, Harris A, Ben-Refael Z et al. Estrogenreplacement therapy: Effects on retrobulbar hemodynamics. Am J Ophthalmol 2000;129:623–628.
- 25. Centofanti M, Migliardi R, Bonini S et al. Pulsatile ocular blood flow during pregnancy. Eur J Ophthalmol 2002;12:276–280.
- Capoor S, Goble RR, Wheatley T et al. White-centered retinal hemorrhages as an early sign of preeclampsia. Am J Ophthalmol 1995;119:804–806.
- MMWR. Blindness caused by diabetes—Massachusetts, 1987–1994. MMWR–Morbidity & Mortality Weekly Report 1996;45:937–941.
- Trautner C, Icks A, Haastert B et al. Incidence of blindness in relation to diabetes. A population-based study. Diabetes Care 1997;20:1147–1153.
- American Diabetes Association. Economic consequences of diabetes mellitus in the U.S. in 1997. Diabetes Care 1998;21: 296–309.
- The Diabetes Control and Complications Trial Research Group. Effect of pregnancy on microvascular complications in the diabetes control and complications trial. The Diabetes Control and Complications Trial Research Group. Diabetes Care 2000;23:1084–1091.
- Klein BEK, Moss SE, Klein R. Effect of pregnancy on progression of diabetic retinopathy. Diabetes Care 1990;13:34–40.
- Moloney JBM, Drury MI. The effect of pregnancy on the natural course of diabetic retinopathy. Am J Ophthalmol 1982; 93:745–756.
- Dibble CM, Kochenour NK, Worley RJ et al. Effect of pregnancy on diabetic retinopathy. Obstet Gynecol 1982;59:699– 704.
- Hemachandra A, Ellis D, Lloyd CE et al. The influence of pregnancy on IDDM complications. Diabetes Care 1995;18: 950–954.
- Horvat M, Maclean H, Goldberg L et al. Diabetic retinopathy in pregnancy: A 12-year prospective survey. Br J Ophthalmol 1980;64:398–408.
- Price JH, Hadden DR, Archer DB et al. Diabetic retinopathy in pregnancy. Br J Obstet Gynaecol 1984;91:11–17.
- Klein BE, Klein R, Meuer SM et al. Does the severity of diabetic retinopathy predict pregnancy outcome? Jf Diabetic Complications 1988;2:179–184.
- Cartenson LL, Frost-Larsen K, Fugleberg S et al. Does pregnancy influence the prognosis of uncomplicated insulindependent diabetes mellitus. Diabetes Care 1982;5:1–5.
- Kaaja R, Sjoberg L, Hellsted T et al. Long-term effects of pregnancy on diabetic complications. Diabetic Med 1996;13: 165–169.
- Chaturvedi N, Stephenson JM, Fuller JH. The relationship between pregnancy and long-term maternal complications in the EURODIAB IDDM Complications Study. Diabetic Med 1995;12:494–499.
- Rosenn B, Miodovnik M, Kranias G et al. Does pregnancy increase the risk for development and progression of benign diabetic retinopathy? Am J Obstet Gynecol 1997;176:S180.
- 42. Serup L. Influence of pregnancy on diabetic retinopathy. Acta Endocrinol 1994;27(Suppl 1986):122–124.
- Ohrt V. The influence of pregnancy on diabetic retinopathy with special regard to the reversible changes shown in 100 pregnancies. Acta Ophthalmol 1984;62:603–616.
- Lovestam-Adrian M, Agardh CD, Aberg A et al. Preeclampsia is a potent risk factor for deterioration of retinopathy during pregnancy in Type 1 diabetic patients. Diabetic Med 1997;14: 1059–1065.
- Rosenn B, Miodovnik M, Kranias G et al. Progression of diabetic retinopathy in pregnancy: Association with hyperten-

sion in pregnancy. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1992;166:1214-1218.

- Chew EY, Mills JL, Metzger BE et al. Metabolic control and progression of retinopathy. The diabetes in early pregnancy study. National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Diabetes in Early Pregnancy Study. Diabetes Care 1995; 18:631–637.
- Lapolla A, Cardone C, Negrin P et al. Pregnancy does not induce or worsen retinal and peripheral nerve dysfunction in insulin-dependent diabetic women. J Diabetes Complications 1998;12:74–80.
- Axer-Siegel R, Hod M, Fink-Cohen S et al. Diabetic retinopathy during pregnancy. Ophthalmology 1996;103:1815–1819.
- Nathan DM, Davis M, Cleary P et al. Response to Cundy. Diabetes Care 2001;24:795–796.
- Lauszus F, Klebe JG, Bek T. Diabetic retinopathy in pregnancy during tight metabolic control. Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand 2000;79:367–370.
- Kitzmiller JL, Gavin LA, Gin GD et al. Preconception care of diabetes: glycemic control prevents congenital anomalies. JAMA 1991;265:731–736.
- Fuhrmann K, Reiher H, Semmler K et al. Prevention of congenital malformations in infants of insulin-dependent diabetic mothers. Diabetes Care 1983;6:219–223.
- Miodovnik M, Mimouni F, Dignan PS et al. Major malformations in infants of IDDM women: vasculopathy and early firsttrimester poor glycemic control. Diabetes Care 1988;11:713– 718.
- Rosenn B, Miodovnik M, Combs CA et al. Glycemic thresholds for spontaneous abortion and congenital malformations in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. Obstet Gynecol 1994; 84:515–20.
- 55. The Diabetes Control and Complications Trial Research Group. The effect of intensive treatment of diabetes on the development and progression of long-term complications in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. The Diabetes Control and Complications Trial Research Group. N Engl J Med 1993; 329:977–986.
- Phelps RL, Sakol P, Metzger BE et al. Changes in diabetic retinopathy during pregnancy: Correlations with regulation of hyperglycemia. Arch Ophthalmol 1986;104:1806–1810.
- Dahl-Jorgensen K, Brinchmann-Hansen O, Hanssen KF et al. Rapid tightening of blood glucose control leads to transient deterioration of retinopathy in insulin dependent diabetes mellitus: The Oslo study. Br Med J 1985;290:811–815.
- American Diabetes Association. Preconception care of women with diabetes (Position Statement). Diabetes Care 2002;25:82S–84S.
- Hercules BL, Wozencroft M, Gayed II et al. Peripheral retinal ablation in the treatment of proliferative diabetic retinopathy during pregnancy. Br J Ophthalmol 1980;64:87–93.
- 60. Cundy T. Do all women require intensive retinal surveillance during pregnancy? Diabetes Care 2001;24:794–795.
- Talley AR, Assil KK, Schanzlin D. Patient selection and evaluation. In: Talamo JH, Krueger RR, eds. The Excimer Manual. Boston: Little, Brown & Co, 1997, pp 38.
- Sharif K. Regression of myopia induced by pregnancy after photorefractive keratectomy. J Refract Surg 1997;13(5 Suppl): S445–S446.
- 63. Starr MB. Pregnancy-associated overcorrection following myopic excimer laser photorefractive keratectomy. Arch Ophthalmol 1998;116:1551.
- Hefetz L, Gershevich A, Haviv D et al. Influence of pregnancy and labor on outcome of photorefractive keratectomy. J Refract Surg 1996;12:511–512.
- 65. Weinreb RN, Lu A, Beeson C. Maternal corneal thickness during pregnancy. Am J Ophthalmol 1988;105:258–260.
- Ziai N, Ory SJ, Khan AR et al. Beta-human chorionic gonadotropin, progesterone, and aqueous dynamics during pregnancy. Arch Ophthalmol 1994;112:801–806.

144

Obstetrical and Gynecological Survey

- 67. Park SB, Lindahl KJ, Temnycky GO et al. The effect of pregnancy on corneal curvature. CLAO J 1992;18:256–259.
- Manges TD, Banaitis DA, Roth N et al. Changes in optometric findings during pregnancy. Am J Optometry Physiol Optics 1987;64:159–166.
 Kooner 74. Kooner pregnar
- Serdarevic O. Laser *in situ* Keratomileusis: Results and Complications. In: Brightbill FS, ed. Corneal Surgery Theory, Technique & Tissue, 3rd Ed. St Louis, MO: Mosby, 1999, pp 809.
- 70. Millodot M. The influence of pregnancy on the sensitivity of the cornea. Br J Ophthalmol 1977;61:646–649.
- Riss B, Riss P. Corneal sensitivity in pregnancy. Ophthalmologica 1981;183:57–62.
- Green K, Phillips CI, Cheeks L et al. Aqueous humor flow rate and intraocular pressure during and after pregnancy. Ophthal Res 1988;20:353–357.

- 73. Cantor LB, Harris A, Harris M. Glaucoma medications in pregnancy. Rev Ophthalmol. 2000;(Suppl):91–99.
- Kooner KS, Zimmerman TJ. Antiglaucoma therapy during pregnancy: Part I. Ann Ophthalmol 1988;20:166–169.
- Fidler J, Smith V, DeSwiet M. Excretion of oxprenolol and timolol in breast milk. Br J Obstet Gynaecol 1983;90:961–965.
- 76. Lustgarten JS, Podos SM. Topical timolol and the nursing mother. Arch Ophthalmol 1983;101:1381–1382.
- 77. Soderman P, Hartvig P, Fagerlund C. Acetazolamide excretion into human breast milk. Br J Clin Pharmacol 1984;17:599–600.
- The American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Drugs. Transfer of drugs and other chemicals into human milk. Pediatrics 2001;108:776–789.
- 79. Nissen D, ed. Mosby's Drug Consult, 12th ed. St Louis, MO: Mosby Inc; 2002.