

1 **Role of Static and Dynamic Ocular Biometrics Measured in the Dark and Light as Risk Factors for**
2 **Angle Closure Progression**

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22 **Short Title:** Light and Dark Risk Factors for Angle Closure Progression

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27 **Introduction**

28 Primary angle closure glaucoma (PACG) is a leading cause of irreversible vision loss, affecting 20 million
29 people worldwide.^{1,2} PACG is caused by appositional or synechial closure of the anterior chamber angle,
30 which impedes outflow of aqueous humor through the trabecular meshwork and can lead to elevated
31 intraocular pressure (IOP) and glaucomatous optic neuropathy.³ Angle closure eyes can be categorized as
32 primary angle closure suspects (PACS), primary angle closure (PAC), or PACG along a continuous
33 spectrum of disease severity.⁴ The Zhongshan Angle-Closure Prevention (ZAP) Trial found that the risk of
34 progression from PACS to PAC is less than 1% per eye year even among untreated eyes. Therefore, current
35 challenges of clinical practice include identifying which patients with evidence of early angle closure will
36 develop more severe disease and could benefit from laser or surgical treatment.^{5,6}

37 Ocular biometric parameters are well established risk factors for more severe PACD.⁷⁻¹¹ By
38 convention, clinical assessments of parameters related to angle closure using AS-OCT and gonioscopy are
39 conducted in the dark where angles tend to be the narrowest.^{12,13} Static parameters that describe angle width
40 in the dark are associated with elevated IOP and angle closure severity and progression.^{7,14-16} Other static
41 parameters, such as iris curvature (IC), which reflects degree of pupillary block, and lens vault (LV), which
42 reflects the phacomorphic component of angle closure, are also associated with PACD severity when
43 measured in the dark.¹⁷⁻²⁰ However, despite significant associations, ocular biometrics measured under dark
44 conditions alone appear incompletely predictive of clinical outcomes.^{7,21,22} Biometric data obtained under
45 other lighting conditions could provide additional information about angle closure progression risk. For
46 example, recent studies identified an association between dynamic anatomical changes, specifically dark-
47 to-light change in iris area, and PACD severity.^{13,23,24} However, these studies could not assess if static
48 measurements in the light or dynamic dark-to-light changes in measurements are predictive of progression
49 risk due to the cross-sectional nature of their data.

50 In this study, we use longitudinal data from the ZAP Trial to assess and compare static and dynamic
51 ocular biometric risk factors for angle closure progression. We hypothesize that biometrics measured in the
52 light may provide more information about progression risk than biometrics measured in the dark as typically

53 more time is spent in lit environments and partially miotic states than in dark environments and fully
54 mydriatic states. Furthermore, angle parameters may vary more in the light than in the dark, allowing for
55 greater power to differentiate true risk. In addition, we hypothesize that dynamic change parameters that
56 are predictive of PACD severity, such as light-to-dark change in iris area, are also predictive of angle
57 closure progression.²⁴⁻²⁶

58

59 **Methods**

60 The ZAP Trial was approved by the Ethical Review Board of Sun Yat Sen University, the Ethical
61 Committee of Zhongshan Ophthalmic Center, and the Institutional Review Boards of Moorfields Eye
62 Hospital and Johns Hopkins University. The University of Southern California Institutional Review Board
63 approved the current study. All study procedures adhered to the Declaration of Helsinki, and all study
64 participants provided informed consent.

65 Data for the current study were derived from the ZAP Trial, a single-center randomized controlled
66 trial conducted in Guangzhou, China. In brief, the ZAP Trial recruited participants aged 50 to 70 years with
67 bilateral PACS, defined as eyes with 2 or more quadrants of non-visible pigmented TM on manual
68 gonioscopy, in the absence of PAS, IOP above 21 mmHg, and glaucomatous optic neuropathy. One eye per
69 participant was randomized to treatment with LPI. The other eye was monitored without treatment and
70 served as the control eye. Participants underwent complete baseline eye examinations prior to LPI
71 treatment, including AS-OCT imaging and gonioscopy. Data used in the current study were derived solely
72 from untreated eyes at the baseline visit to avoid the confounding effect of LPI treatment on progression
73 risk. Study endpoints included the development of PAC, which was defined as development of IOP >24
74 mmHg at 2 separate visits, 1 or more clock hours of PAS, or an attack of AAC.

75 Static gonioscopy was performed under dark ambient lighting standardized at less than 1 lux
76 illumination (EA30 EasyView Light Meter; Extech Instruments; Waltham, MA, USA) with a 1-mm light
77 beam and a Goldmann-type 1-mirror gonioscope (Haag-Streit AG; Köniz, Switzerland) before
78 pharmacologic pupillary dilation. Gonioscopy was performed by one of two fellowship- trained glaucoma

79 specialists with high intergrader agreement (weighted $k > 0.80$).²⁷ Care was taken to avoid light falling on
80 the pupil, inadvertent indentation of the globe, and tilting of the lens of more than 10°. The angle was graded
81 in each quadrant according to the modified Shaffer classification system: grade 0, no structures visible;
82 grade 1, nonpigmented TM visible; grade 2, pigmented TM visible; grade 3, scleral spur visible; and grade
83 4, ciliary body visible.

84 Anterior segment OCT imaging was performed with the Visante AS-OCT system (Carl Zeiss
85 Meditec, Inc; Dublin, CA, USA) in the dark (< 1 lux) and in the light (350-400 lux) before pupillary dilation.
86 Eyelids were gently retracted during imaging, and care was taken to avoid inadvertent pressure on the globe.
87 At the start of the ZAP Trial, only scans along the horizontal (temporal-nasal) meridian were performed in
88 the dark and light. Partway through the ZAP Trial, scans along the vertical (superior-inferior) meridian
89 were also performed in the dark. However, only horizontal scans were included in the current study as no
90 vertical scans were performed in the light.

91

92 *AS-OCT Image Analysis*

93 One AS-OCT image per eye oriented along the horizontal meridian was analyzed using the custom
94 Zhongshan Angle Assessment Program, which automatically segmented anterior segment structures and
95 produced biometric measurements after the scleral spurs were marked. Image analysis was performed by 5
96 certified graders who were masked to examination results and intervention assignments. Each image was
97 analyzed by a single grader aside from a set of 20 images that was analyzed by all 5 graders to establish
98 intergrader agreement. Graders confirmed the segmentation and marked the scleral spurs in each image.²⁸

99 In total, 11 biometric parameters describing the anterior segment were measured in each AS-OCT
100 image obtained at the initial visit. These included angle opening distance 500 and 750 μm anterior to the
101 scleral spur (AOD500 and AOD750, respectively) trabecular iris space area bounded by AOD500 or
102 AOD750 (TISA500 and TISA750, respectively), posteriorly by a line drawn from the scleral spur
103 perpendicular to the plane of the inner scleral wall to the opposing iris, superiorly by the inner corneoscleral
104 wall, and inferiorly by the iris surface; iris thickness at 750 μm from the scleral spur (IT750); iris area (IA);

105 iris curvature (IC); lens vault; anterior chamber depth (ACD); anterior chamber width (ACW); and pupillary
106 diameter (PD). A set of 20 images from 20 eyes was selected randomly and graded independently by all 5
107 graders. Intergrader agreement in the form of intraclass correlation coefficients were excellent for all AS-
108 OCT parameters (ICC > 0.83). Horizontal measurements of AOD500, AOD750, TISA500, TISA750,
109 IT750, IA, and IC were calculated by averaging corresponding measurements from left and right sides of
110 images. Dynamic change parameters, denoted with a “Δ”, were calculated by subtracting light
111 measurements from corresponding dark measurements.

112

113 *Statistical Analysis*

114 Due to the relatively small sample size of progressors (N=36), multiple imputation using predictive mean
115 matching was performed to fill in missing data rather than exclude these individuals from the analysis.
116 Predictive mean matching utilizes regression statistics to impute appropriate predictions based on the
117 available observed values of included variables.²⁹ Variables used in the multiple imputation algorithm
118 included age, sex, IOP, and all static ocular biometrics measured in the light and dark. This method was
119 used to create 10 discrete datasets and statistical analyses were pooled across datasets using Rubin’s rules.³⁰
120 Fewer angle width measurements were missing (<4.0%) than measurements of IC, ACD, and ACW (10.5
121 to 11.5%) (**Supplementary Table 1**). Normality of data was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test and by
122 plotting histograms of measurement distributions. Spearman’s correlation coefficients were calculated
123 between light and dark variables to identify collinearity. Differences between means of continuous variables
124 were compared between progressors and non-progressors using the unpaired t-test or the Wilcoxon rank
125 sum test. Proportions of categorical variables were compared using the chi-squared test.

126 Univariable and multivariable Cox proportional hazards regression models were developed to
127 assess the relationship between baseline clinical and biometric characteristics of untreated eyes and
128 progression risk in a time dependent manner. Multivariable models were limited to four variables due to
129 the number of progressors (N = 36). The best subset selection method, which balances a higher R-squared
130 statistic (indicator of predictive performance) with a lower Akaike information criterion (AIC) statistic

131 (indicator of model overfitting), was used to automate variable selection for the primary multivariable
132 model. Variables were included in the best subset selection based on a p-value < 0.1 in the univariable
133 analysis. Biometric parameters that were significant in both the light and dark were separated in the
134 selection process due to relatedness of the data. Concordance indices (C-index) were calculated to estimate
135 model performance. Z-scores were calculated to interpret the units of variables included in multivariable
136 regression models. Dichotomized representations of age, IOP, and TISA500 were created to develop
137 secondary multivariable models. Categorical cutoffs were established based on the top quartile of age (age
138 ≥ 62 years), top quartile of IOP (IOP ≥ 17.0 mmHg), lowest quartile of TISA500 in the dark (TISA500 \leq
139 0.03 mm²), and TISA500 in the light (TISA500 ≤ 0.06 mm²). All analyses were performing using the R
140 software version 4.2.1 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Statistical analyses were
141 conducted using a significance level of 0.05.

142

143 **Results**

144 889 untreated eyes of 889 ZAP Trial participants underwent baseline clinical examinations. 28 eyes were
145 excluded due to missing baseline AS-OCT data in the dark and/or light. Among the remaining 861
146 participants and eyes (825 non-progressors, 36 progressors), mean age was 58.68 ± 5.01 , mean IOP was
147 15.29 ± 2.90 , and 717 (76.7%) of the participants were female.

148 There were significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between non-progressors and progressors (**Table 1**)
149 in IOP (15.25 ± 2.93 and 16.37 ± 2.97 , respectively), dark TISA500 (0.055 ± 0.034 and 0.033 ± 0.022 ,
150 respectively), dark IA (1.56 ± 0.25 and 1.47 ± 0.20 , respectively), dark IC (0.38 ± 0.09 and 0.34 ± 0.09 ,
151 respectively), dark ACD (2.21 ± 0.21 and 2.15 ± 0.24 , respectively), light TISA500 (0.08 ± 0.04 and 0.06
152 ± 0.04 , respectively), and light ACD (2.21 ± 0.21 and 2.14 ± 0.25 , respectively). There were no significant
153 differences among measurements of the dynamic change parameters ($p \geq 0.05$), including Δ IA and
154 Δ IA/ Δ PD. Correlation between light and dark parameters ranged from 0.4 to 0.7 except for ACD, which
155 had a strong correlation at 0.94 (**Supplementary Table 2**).

156 On univariable Cox regression analysis, greater IOP, smaller AOD500/AOD750/TISA500 in the
157 light and dark, smaller TISA750 in the light, smaller IA and flatter IC in the dark, and smaller ACD in the
158 light were significantly associated with higher risk of progression ($p < 0.05$). None of the dynamic change
159 parameters were significantly associated ($p \geq 0.08$). (**Supplementary Table 3**).

160 In the primary multivariable Cox regression model (model A, **Table 2**), narrower TISA500 in the
161 light (HR = 1.28 per 0.01 mm² or 0.26 standard deviations (SD), 95% confidence interval [CI] = 1.11-1.47;
162 $p = 0.001$), older age (HR = 1.09 per year, 95% CI = 1.02-1.17; $p = 0.02$), and higher IOP (HR = 1.13 per
163 mmHg, 95% CI = 1.01-1.26; $p = 0.03$) were associated with greater risk of progression (C-index = 0.76,
164 95% CI = 0.65-0.84). In the secondary multivariable Cox regression model (model B, **Table 2**), narrower
165 TISA500 in the dark (HR = 1.28 per 0.01 mm² or 0.30 SD, 95% CI = 1.09-1.49; $p = 0.002$), older age (HR
166 = 1.09 per year, 95% CI = 1.02-1.17; $p = 0.01$), and higher IOP (HR = 1.12 per mmHg, 95% CI = 1.00-
167 1.26; $p = 0.03$) were associated with greater risk of progression (C-index = 0.76, 95% CI = 0.68-0.83).
168 There was a borderline significant association between flatter IC and progression in both models A (HR =
169 1.59 per 0.1 mm, 95% CI = 1.00-2.50; $p = 0.05$) and B (HR = 1.56 per 0.1 mm, 95% CI = 0.96-2.50, $p =$
170 0.06).

171 TISA500 in the dark and light had similar predictive performance (C-index = 0.71, 95% CI = 0.63-
172 0.78 and 0.72, 95% CI = 0.61-0.81, respectively) in separate univariable models. Predictive performance
173 increased modestly when both were combined in the same model (C-index = 0.73, 95% CI = 0.63-0.81).

174 LOWESS plots of probability of progression predicted by models A and B (**Figure 1**) showed a
175 steeper rise in probability for smaller measurements of TISA500 in the light (model A) than in the dark
176 (model B). Histograms of the distribution of TISA500 measurements in the light and dark showed a leftward
177 shift of measurement values in the dark compared to the light, consistent with narrower angles in the dark
178 than light (**Figure 2**).

179 In multivariable Cox regression model C (**Table 3**) with dichotomized representations of
180 significant risk factors for progression from model A, eyes in the top quartile of age (HR = 2.20, 95% CI =
181 1.10-4.37; $p = 0.03$), top quartile of IOP (HR = 2.21, 95% CI = 1.12- 4.38; $p = 0.02$), and bottom quartile

182 of TISA500 in the light (HR = 4.52, 95% CI = 2.27-9.01; $p < 0.001$) were at greater risk of progression (C-
183 index = 0.76, 95% CI = 0.69-0.82). In multivariable Cox regression model D with categorical
184 representations of significant risk factors for progression from model B (**Table 3**), eyes within the top
185 quartile of age (HR = 2.22, 95% CI = 1.12-4.41; $p = 0.02$), top quartile of IOP (HR = 2.13, 95% CI = 1.08-
186 4.21; $p = 0.03$), and bottom quartile of TISA500 in the dark (HR = 2.89, 95% CI = 1.46-5.71; $p = 0.003$)
187 were at greater risk of progression (C-index = 0.71, 95% CI = 0.62-0.78).

188

189 **Discussion**

190 In this longitudinal study, we demonstrated that static biometric parameters measured in the light and dark,
191 including TISA500, are predictive of six-year progression from PACS to PAC. We also demonstrated that
192 TISA500 measured in the light is equally predictive, if not more, of angle closure progression, especially
193 when measurements are in the lowest quartile. Finally, our results suggest that dynamic biometric change
194 parameters are poorly predictive of progression. These findings raise questions about the clinical
195 convention of solely assessing angles in the dark and ideal lighting conditions to risk-stratify patients with
196 PACS for more severe disease.

197 Our findings support the central role of static ocular biometrics in angle closure pathogenesis;
198 specifically, narrower angle width measured by AS-OCT confers higher risk of angle closure progression.⁷
199 Previous studies found that angle width measured in the dark by AS-OCT is significantly associated with
200 PACD severity and progression risk.^{7,31,32} However, our study provides the first evidence that it is not solely
201 biometric measurements obtained in the dark that are predictive of angle closure progression; biometric
202 measurements obtained in the light appear equally predictive. Separate multivariable models with TISA500
203 measured in the light (model A) or dark (model B) yielded similar hazard ratios and concordance indices,
204 suggesting that the strength of association and predictive performance is similar between the two sets of
205 measurements. Angles tend to be narrowest in the dark on average; therefore, it is logical from an
206 anatomical perspective to evaluate the angle in the dark using AS-OCT or gonioscopy. However, from a
207 clinical perspective, it is important to recognize that the angle likely assumes this configuration for only a

208 few brief moments throughout the day due to the miotic effects of external lighting and dark adaptation.
209 While it is reasonable to speculate that progression risk reflects an aggregate effect of different anatomical
210 configurations over time, this point requires additional longitudinal study using biometric data collected
211 under a range of lighting conditions.

212 Our findings further suggest that biometrics measured in the light may provide additional
213 information about angle closure progression compared to biometrics measured in the dark alone. Due to the
214 angle-widening effect of pupillary constriction, imaging PACS eyes in the light produced a more even
215 distribution of angle width measurements than in the dark. As a result, eyes within the lowest quartile of
216 TISA500 measurements in the light had higher risk of progression (HR = 4.56) than in the dark (HR =
217 2.83). In addition, LOWESS plots of predicted progression probability rose higher for the narrowest angles
218 in the light than the dark. This raises the possibility that different lighting conditions could induce different
219 anatomical configurations that provide unique information about progression risk.

220 Our model with both TISA500 measured in the dark and light demonstrated modest gains in
221 predictive performance compared to separate univariable models with the two parameters alone. While this
222 finding is possibly related to the small sample of progressors, it suggests that dark and light measurements
223 together may provide complementary information about progression risk that could be superior to analyzing
224 one set of measurements alone. It is important to note that there was only moderate correlation between
225 dark and light measurements of all parameters except ACD, ranging between 0.5 to 0.7. This finding rules
226 out the possibility that static parameters, including TISA500 ($R = 0.67$), measured in the light were only
227 associated with progression because of strong correlations with the same static parameters measured in the
228 dark. The moderate correlation also suggests that each set of measurements carries unique information,
229 which explains why a model with measurements from multiple lighting environments could be more
230 predictive than a model with measurements from a single lighting environment. However, further work is
231 needed to establish the clinical utility of combining multiple sets of biometric measurements and the optimal
232 lighting conditions for obtaining these measurements.

233 While recent studies propose that dynamic anatomical changes, especially of the iris, are associated
234 with PACD severity, we did not find an association between dynamic biometric change parameters and
235 progression. The association between dark-to-light change in iris area and PACD severity is well-
236 established; eyes with angle closure demonstrate smaller reductions in IA per millimeter of pupillary
237 dilation, an effect that contributes to tissue congestion in the angle recess and iridotrabecular contact.^{24,25,33}
238 In addition, Lifton et al. reported that dark-to-light increases in AOD750 and decreases in ACW were
239 smaller and increases in LV were greater in eyes with PACD compared to eyes without.¹³ Our results did
240 not show an association between dark-to-light ΔIA or $\Delta IA/\Delta PD$; rather, IA tended to decrease more among
241 progressors than non-progressors, although the difference was not significant. These findings suggest that
242 dynamic parameters are weakly associated with angle closure progression, if at all, especially compared to
243 static parameters.

244 Our study has several limitations. First, the number of progressors in the ZAP Trial was relatively
245 small, limiting the number of variables we could include in our multivariable models and this may have
246 prevented us from identifying weaker risk factors, including some dynamic parameters. However, this is a
247 general limitation of longitudinal studies on progression from PACS to PAC, which is a relatively rare
248 event. Second, we used multiple imputation to fill in missing data, which helped preserve the overall sample
249 size. While no variable had more than 11.5% missing values and angle width measurements all had fewer
250 than 4.0% missing values, this approach may potentially limit our ability to identify real associations for
251 variables with more missing values. However, it was reassuring that our results were entirely consistent
252 with those by Xu et al., who did not use imputation to analyze the same dataset.⁷ Finally, the ZAP Trial
253 database is comprised of only mainland Chinese participants between the ages of 50 to 70 years old with
254 bilateral PACS. Therefore, our findings may not be generalizable to other demographic groups or patients
255 with more severe angle closure.

256 In conclusion, static biometrics obtained from horizontal AS-OCT scans in the light are as
257 predictive, if not more, of progression from PACS to PAC than biometrics obtained from similar scans in
258 the dark, whereas dynamic biometrics are weakly predictive of progression, if at all. The ZAP Trial showed

259 that the majority of PACS eyes do not progress, at least within a six-year time period.⁶ However, identifying
260 and treating a small subset of eyes at higher risk of progression may help reduce future vision loss,
261 especially in regions with lower access to eye care and cataract surgery.^{32,33} Integrating all available
262 biometric data to identify individuals at highest risk of PAC and PACG could result in more personalized
263 glaucoma care in the future.

264

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369 **Table and Figure Captions**

370 **Table 1.** Comparison of demographic and ocular biometric factors between Non-progressors and
371 Progressors

372 **Table 2.** Multivariable cox regression analysis of demographic and ocular biometric factors associated with
373 angle closure progression.

374 **Figure 1:** Predicted Probability of Progression over TISA500 in the light or dark

375 **Figure 2:** Distribution of TISA500 Measurements in the Light and Dark

376 **Table 3.** Univariable and multivariable cox regression analysis of dichotomized variables associated with
377 angle closure progression.

378 **Supplementary Table 1.** Percentage of missing values of parameters used in analysis

379 **Supplementary Table 2.** Spearman correlation coefficients between parameters in the dark and light

380 **Supplementary Table 3.** Univariable cox regression analysis of demographic and ocular biometric factors
381 associated with angle closure progression. Hazard ratios correspond to per unit increase in each independent
382 variable.