

**AGE-RELATED
MACULAR DEGENERATION
FROM RISK PROFILES
TOWARD PREDICTION MODELS**

GABRIËLLE H.S. BUITENDIJK



Age-related Macular Degeneration:
from risk profiles towards prediction models

Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk

Financial support

The studies described in this thesis were supported by the Netherlands Organization of Scientific Research (NWO) (170885606 to the BRAMD Study), NWO investments (175.010.2005.011, 911-03-012 to the Rotterdam Study), the Netherlands Genome Initiative (NGI)/NOW (050-060-081 to the Rotterdam Study), Erasmus Medical Center and Erasmus University, Rotterdam, Netherlands Organization for the Health Research and Development (ZonMw), the Research Institute for Diseases in the Elderly (014-93-015; RIDE2), the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, the Ministry for Health, Welfare and Sports, the European Commission (DG XII), and the Municipality of Rotterdam, Stichting Macula Fonds, Stichting Nederlands Oog Onderzoek (SNOO), Rotterdamse Stichting Blindenbelangen, Stichting Oogfonds Nederland, Landelijk Stichting voor Blinden en Slechtienden, Algemene Nederlandse Vereniging ter Voorkoming van Blindheid, Erasmus Trustfonds, Prof. Dr. Henkes stichting.

Printing of this thesis was supported by

Rotterdamse Stichting Blindenbelangen, Stichting Blindenhulp, Stichting Ooglijders, Landelijke Stichting voor Blinden en Slechtienden, afdeling Epidemiologie Erasmus MC, Koolhaas Paprika, Springfield Nutraceuticals, Medical Workshop, Ergra Low Vision, Théa Pharma, Bayer, Vitaminenoprecept, Ursapharm, Laméris Ootech, Tramedico, Oculenti, Sanmed B.V., Horus Benelux B.V., Low Vision Totaal, Oogplein, Chipsoft, ZEISS, Laservision, Synga Medical, MediTop, Ophtec, Rockmed, Slechtiend.nl and Allergan.

Cover image: A whippet in a forest of neovascularization under a sky filled with drusen
Cover design: Evelien Jagtman (evelienjagtman.com)
Layout: Design Your Thesis (designyourthesis.com)
Printed by: Ridderprint B.V. (ridderprint.nl)
ISBN: 978-94-6299-856-8

Copyright © 2018 G.H.S. Buitendijk

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means without prior permission from the author of this thesis, or, when appropriate, from the publishers of the publications in this thesis.

Age-related Macular Degeneration:
from risk profiles towards prediction models

Leeftijdsgebonden Maculadegeneratie:
van risicoprofielen tot predictiemodellen

PROEFSCHRIFT

ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor aan de
Erasmus Universiteit Rotterdam
op gezag van de
rector magnificus

Prof.dr. H.A.P. Pols

en volgens besluit van het College voor Promoties.
De openbare verdediging zal plaatsvinden op

woensdag 28 maart 2018 om 15.30 uur

door

Gabriëlle Helena Susanne Buitendijk

geboren te Rotterdam

PROMOTIECOMMISSIE

Promotoren: Prof. dr. C.C.W. Klaver
Prof. dr. J.R. Vingerling

Overige leden: Prof. dr. M.A. Ikram
Prof. dr. A.I. den Hollander
Prof. dr. C. Delcourt

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 1 – Introduction

- 1.1 General introduction 9
- 1.2 Aims of this thesis and study populations 17

Chapter 2 – Burden of AMD

- 2.1 Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in Europe: the past and the future 21
- 2.2 Visual consequences of refractive errors in the general population 35

Chapter 3 – Aspects of imaging techniques in population-based research

- 3.1 Epidemiology of reticular pseudodrusen in age-related macular degeneration: The Rotterdam Study 51
- 3.2 Automatic identification of reticular pseudodrusen using multimodal retinal image analysis 67

Chapter 4 – Environmental risk factors

- 4.1 Trace elements, vitamins, and lipids and age-related macular degeneration: an overview of the current concepts on nutrients and AMD 83
- 4.2 Recommended diet intake of vegetables, fruit, and fish is beneficial for age-related macular degeneration 103
- 4.3 Thyroid function and age-related macular degeneration: a prospective population-based cohort study: The Rotterdam Study 121
- 4.4 Antiplatelet and anticoagulant drugs do not affect visual acuity in neovascular age-related macular degeneration in the BRAMD trial 135

Chapter 5 – Genetic markers and gene-environment interactions

- 5.1 Genetics and gene-environment interactions in age-related macular degeneration 153
- 5.2 Seven new loci associated with age-related macular degeneration 175
- 5.3 Genetic susceptibility, dietary antioxidants, and long-term incidence of age-related macular degeneration in two populations 191

Chapter 6 – Prediction and personal genome testing

- 6.1 Prediction of age-related macular degeneration in the general population: The Three Continent AMD Consortium 207
- 6.2 Direct-to-consumer personal genome testing for age-related macular degeneration 229

Chapter 7 – General discussion and summary

7.1	General discussion	245
7.2	Summary	259
7.3	Samenvatting	263

Chapter 8 – Epilogue

8.1	Acknowledgements – Dankwoord	269
8.2	PhD portfolio	273
8.3	Bibliography	277
8.4	About the author	285



Chapter 1.1

General introduction

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

This thesis comprises studies on the common eye disorder age-related macular degeneration (AMD). In the introduction, I will first focus on the structures of the eye most important to the disease, then explain the state of knowledge prior to my studies, and subsequently discuss the outline of my thesis.

Anatomy and physiology of the eye

To create vision, light needs to travel through many structures of the eye: cornea, anterior chamber, through the pupil, lens, vitreous body, and retina (Figure 1). Photoreceptor cells in the retina absorb light photons by the visual pigment and translate these first in a biochemical message and then in an electrical signal that can stimulate the succeeding neurons of the retina. This signal is subsequently transmitted through the optic nerve to the occipital cortex of the brain via the visual pathway.

The retina consists of two primary layers: the neurosensory retina and the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE). Directly underneath the RPE lies Bruch's membrane, which separates the RPE from the choriocapillaris and the choroid, which are vascular structures that nourish the retina. The deepest outer fibrous layer of the eye is the sclera, which functions as the external shell of the eye.

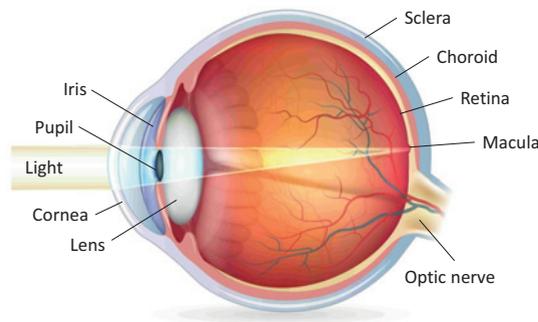


FIGURE 1 - Anatomy of the human eye (Figure adapted from www.biology-questions-and-answers.com/images/Human-Eyes.jpg).

The neurosensory retina consists of eight layers, including the photoreceptor cell layer (Figure 2). There are two types of photoreceptor cells, rods and cones. Cones have optimal function in bright light and are responsible for fine resolution, spatial resolution, and color vision, while rods function optimal in dim-light and sense contrast, brightness, and motion. A yellow colored pigment is highly concentrated in the ganglion cells, cone axons, and Muller cells of the optical center of the posterior pole, called macula lutea. This macular pigment consists of lutein, zeaxanthin and meso-zeaxanthin, and these pigments offer protection to the retina by absorbing hazardous ionizing blue and ultraviolet light. Fine detailed and color vision is mainly acquired in the fovea, which is located in the center of the macula. Underneath the photoreceptor layer lies the RPE, a monolayer of epithelial cells that are in close contact with the photoreceptors. This cell layer has many functions that are critical to the visual process, such as phagocytosis of photoreceptor outer segments, synthesis of interphotoreceptor matrix, absorption of light, vitamin A metabolism, and transport of other molecules. If the RPE becomes dysfunctional, like in AMD, the neurosensory retina will not function properly and vision is disturbed.

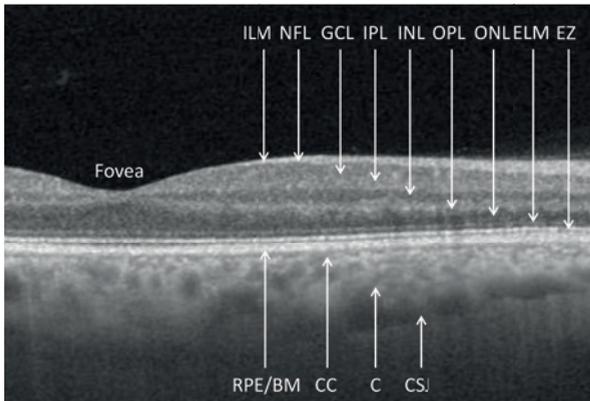


FIGURE 2 - Layers of the human retina. The following layers are disclosed in the optical coherence tomography image of a human macula, from top to bottom: internal limiting membrane (ILM), nerve fiber layer (NFL), ganglion cell layer (GCL), inner plexiform layer (IPL), inner nuclear layer (INL), outer plexiform layer (OPL), outer nuclear layer (ONL), external limiting membrane (ELM), ellipsoid zone (EZ), retinal pigment epithelium/Bruch's membrane (RPE/BM), choriocapillaris (CC), choroid (C), choroid sclera junction (CSJ).

Age-related macular degeneration

AMD is a chronic disease of the macula and is the leading cause of blindness in elderly, particularly in those of European descent. About 30-50 million persons are affected in the world and this number is expected to increase dramatically with the exponentially aging population.¹ AMD can be stratified in two severity stages: early and late AMD (Figure 3). Early AMD is mostly asymptomatic and characterized by drusen (sub-RPE deposits), reticular pseudodrusen (deposits above the RPE), and pigmentary changes. Late AMD is the visual threatening end-stage of AMD which can be subdivided into geographic atrophy (dry AMD) and choroidal neovascularization (wet AMD). Geographic atrophy is characterized by atrophy of the RPE and neurosensory retina. In choroidal neovascularization abnormal new blood vessels from the choroid grow into the retina, which can easily bleed, leak fluids and cause fibrovascular scarring.² Having signs of early AMD will increase the risk of developing late AMD. The larger the area, size and the type of drusen and pigmentary changes, the higher the risk of developing late AMD.^{3,4}

Epidemiology

Disease frequency

The prevalence of early and late AMD has been established in several parts of the world. For Caucasians in the United States of America, over 40 years of age, the overall prevalence of early AMD (indicated by large drusen) showed much more variation than that of late AMD; overall prevalence of early AMD was estimated at 6.12%; prevalence of late AMD at 1.47%.⁵ Age-specific prevalence for both early and late AMD increased with advancing age in all ethnicities. As for incidence figures, the 10-year risk of late AMD was estimated to be virtually nil for those aged 55 years, but increased to 11% for those aged 80 years and older.⁶ Studies in Europe show comparable estimates for both early and late AMD.^{4,6,7}

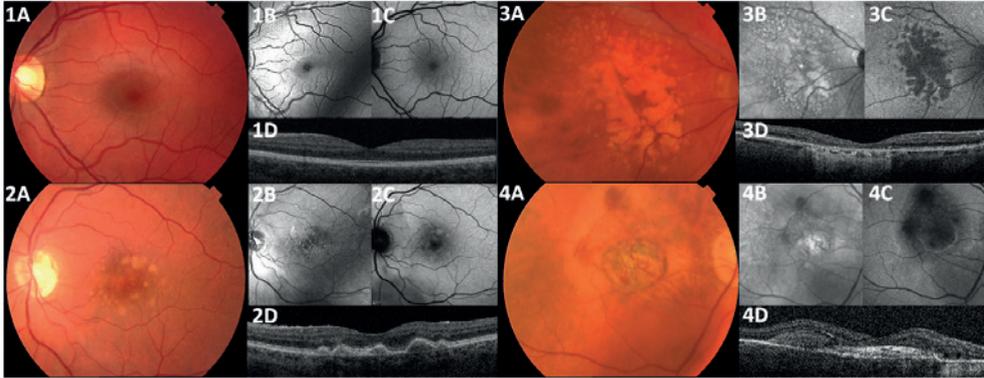


FIGURE 3 - Stages of age-related macular degeneration (AMD) disclosed using different imaging methods. The different images represent 1) normal retina without signs of AMD, 2) early AMD, 3) late AMD – subtype geographic atrophy, and 4) late AMD – subtype choroidal neovascularization, and were obtained using A) fundus color photographs, B) near-infrared imaging, C) fundus autofluorescence, D) optical coherence tomography.

Risk factors

Many risk factors for AMD have been identified; including age, smoking, higher body mass index and increased serum complement activation. Cardiovascular risk factors such as hypertension and lipid levels may be associated with an increased risk of AMD.^{6,8-10} Intake of antioxidants, in particular lutein and zeaxanthin, from diet and supplements have been associated with a protective effect.¹¹⁻¹³ Positive family history has been known for many years to be an important risk factor¹⁴, indicating that genetic predisposition plays an significant role. Genetic studies have confirmed this hypothesis and found several genes associated with AMD. These genes include commonly occurring risk variants. The most important and frequently replicated variants are located in the *CFH*, *ARMS2*, *C2/CB* and *C3* genes. Smaller effects were found in several other genes, including *APOE*, *LIPC*, *LPL*, *CETP*, *ABCA1* and *TIMP3* genes.⁶ The known variants in these associated genes do not fully explain the heritability of AMD, which has been determined to be between 65-70%.^{15,16} Unknown variants, gene-gene interactions, and gene-environment interactions could explain the missing heritability in AMD.

Treatment

Preventive measures like cessation of smoking, healthy diet and supplementation of anti-oxidants are at this time the only option for those with early and dry AMD. For wet AMD, anti-vascular endothelial growth factor treatment aimed at cessation of blood vessel growth and impermeability of endothelium is currently the only available treatment.^{17,18} However, this is not a definite cure and will improve and maintain visual acuity only for a limited period of time.¹⁹ Many trials are currently testing newly developed medication focusing on other disease mechanisms in early and dry AMD.

Imaging techniques

AMD features can be disclosed using various imaging techniques (Figure 3). Ophthalmoscopy can be used to identify the majority of disease features, and the obtained image can be captured using color fundus photography (CFP). Other techniques can help identify lesions with an increased sensitivity. Confocal scanning laser ophthalmoscopy can be used for non-invasive imaging like fundus autofluorescence (FAF) and near-infrared imaging (NIR). FAF uses short wavelengths (blue

light) to excite lipofuscin in the retina, while NIR uses wavelengths in the infra-red spectrum and reveals structures based on light reflectivity. CFP, FAF and NIR imaging are two dimensional, while optical coherence tomography (OCT) provides a cross-sectional image of the retina and thereby reveals the Z-axis. OCT distinguishes the retinal layers based on differences in light reflectivity. In particular anatomical changes and their relation to location can easily be identified using this non-invasive technique.

Gaps of Knowledge

AMD is a chronic complex disease of a predominantly unknown etiology for which limited treatment options are available. In general, the late stages of the disease ultimately cause severe visual impairment provided that the patient lives long enough. Identification of new risk factors and in depth comprehension of interactions between risk factors may help elucidate the intricate pathogenesis of this disease. Current epidemiologic studies often do not allow valid extrapolation of findings, because they are too small or lack appropriate study designs to obtain conclusive results. They barely go beyond the study of single relationships. In order to expand current genetic and epidemiologic knowledge, large, well designed longitudinal studies, international collaborations using harmonized methodology and grading protocols, and applications of new imaging techniques are needed. Implementation of these strategies will help gain more homogeneous phenotypes and a plethora of risk factors for analysis. Improved risk profiling is likely to lead to better identification of high-risk groups, and may offer new leads for therapy. Validated prediction models can be used in the clinic for patient management. These gaps of knowledge and the inference that arises by filling them was the driving force behind this thesis.

REFERENCES

1. Wong WL, Su X, Li X, et al. Global prevalence of age-related macular degeneration and disease burden projection for 2020 and 2040: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Glob Health* 2014;2(2):e106-16.
2. de Jong PT. Age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med* 2006;355(14):1474-85.
3. Klein R, Meuer SM, Knudtson MD, et al. The epidemiology of retinal reticular drusen. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2008;145(2):317-26.
4. van Leeuwen R, Klaver CC, Vingerling JR, et al. The risk and natural course of age-related maculopathy: follow-up at 6 1/2 years in the Rotterdam study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2003;121(4):519-26.
5. Friedman DS, O'Colmain BJ, Munoz B, et al. Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in the United States. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2004;122(4):564-72.
6. Ho L, van Leeuwen R, de Jong PT, Vingerling JR, Klaver CC. Epidemiology of Age-related Macular Degeneration. In: Holz F.G. PD, Spaide R.F., Bird A.C., ed. *Age-related Macular Degeneration*. Berlin-Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag, 2012.
7. Vingerling JR, Dielemans I, Hofman A, et al. The prevalence of age-related maculopathy in the Rotterdam Study. *Ophthalmology* 1995;102(2):205-10.
8. Hawkins BS, Bird A, Klein R, West SK. Epidemiology of age-related macular degeneration. *Mol Vis* 1999;5:26.
9. Reynolds R, Hartnett ME, Atkinson JP, et al. Plasma complement components and activation fragments: associations with age-related macular degeneration genotypes and phenotypes. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2009;50(12):5818-27.
10. Vingerling JR, Klaver CC, Hofman A, de Jong PT. Epidemiology of age-related maculopathy. *Epidemiol Rev* 1995;17(2):347-60.
11. van Leeuwen R, Boekhoorn S, Vingerling JR, et al. Dietary intake of antioxidants and risk of age-related macular degeneration. *JAMA* 2005;294(24):3101-7.
12. A randomized, placebo-controlled, clinical trial of high-dose supplementation with vitamins C and E, beta carotene, and zinc for age-related macular degeneration and vision loss: AREDS report no. 8. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2001;119(10):1417-36.
13. Lutein + zeaxanthin and omega-3 fatty acids for age-related macular degeneration: the Age-Related Eye Disease Study 2 (AREDS2) randomized clinical trial. *JAMA* 2013;309(19):2005-15.
14. Klaver CC, Wolfs RC, Assink JJ, et al. Genetic risk of age-related maculopathy. Population-based familial aggregation study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1998;116(12):1646-51.
15. Sanfilippo PG, Hewitt AW, Hammond CJ, Mackey DA. The heritability of ocular traits. *Surv Ophthalmol* 2010;55(6):561-83.
16. Seddon JM, Cote J, Page WF, et al. The US twin study of age-related macular degeneration: relative roles of genetic and environmental influences. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2005;123(3):321-7.
17. Martin DF, Maguire MG, Ying GS, et al. Ranibizumab and bevacizumab for neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med* 2011;364(20):1897-908.
18. Rosenfeld PJ, Brown DM, Heier JS, et al. Ranibizumab for neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med* 2006;355(14):1419-31.
19. Maguire MG, Martin DF, Ying GS, et al. Five-Year Outcomes with Anti-Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor Treatment of Neovascular Age-Related Macular Degeneration: The Comparison of Age-Related Macular Degeneration Treatments Trials. *Ophthalmology* 2016;123(8):1751-61.



Chapter 1.2

Aims of this thesis

AIMS OF THIS THESIS

This thesis describes epidemiologic and genetic studies on AMD. The major goals of our studies were:

Chapter 2: to assess the frequency and impact of AMD in Europeans

Chapter 3: to evaluate the merit of new imaging techniques for diagnosis and risk assessment

Chapter 4: to identify new environmental risk factors for AMD

Chapter 5: to investigate genetic associations and gene-environment interactions in large study populations

Chapter 6: to assess the predictive value of risk factors associated with AMD

STUDY POPULATIONS ON WHICH THIS THESIS IS BASED

We have addressed these aims in various study populations. We joined efforts with study populations outside the Netherlands to enlarge the study population in order to improve statistical power for analysis, and enable risk calculations for relatively rare exposures in a relatively infrequent disease outcome (Late AMD occurs in ~1-2% of the elderly population). A short description of these studies and consortia is listed below.

*The Rotterdam Study*¹ – a population-based study which started in 1990. The current study consists of three cohorts and includes almost 15,000 participants living in the suburb Ommoord, a district of Rotterdam, the Netherlands. The aim of this study is to identify risk factors in cardiovascular, endocrine, hepatic, neurological, ophthalmic, psychiatric and respiratory diseases in elderly people. (Chapter 2, 3 & 4)

*BRAMD Study*² – a double blind randomized-controlled multicenter trial comparing the efficacy of intravitreal bevacizumab versus ranibizumab in persons diagnosed with exudative AMD. (Chapter 4)

*Three Continent AMD Consortium*³ – a consortium of three population-based studies representing three continents. The entire study population consists of almost 24,500 participants which are derived from the Beaver Dam Eye study, from Beaver Dam, Wisconsin, United States of America; the Blue Mountains Eye study from Sydney, Australia, and our own Rotterdam Study. Epidemiology of AMD is their main focus. (Chapter 5 & 6)

*European Eye Epidemiology (E3) Consortium*⁴ – a collaborative network of 41 studies across Europe, including the Rotterdam Study, providing ophthalmologic data on 170,000 European participants. The aim of this consortium is to increase understanding of eye diseases and vision loss in Europe. (Chapter 2)

*AMD Gene Consortium*⁵ – a worldwide collaborative study analyzing the genetics of AMD, involving 18 studies (including the Rotterdam Study) with over 17,000 cases of late AMD and 60,000 controls. (Chapter 5)

REFERENCES

1. Hofman A, Brusselle GG, Darwish Murad S, et al. The Rotterdam Study: 2016 objectives and design update. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2015;30(8):661-708.
2. Schauwvlieghe AM, Dijkman G, Hooymans JM, et al. Comparing the Effectiveness of Bevacizumab to Ranibizumab in Patients with Exudative Age-Related Macular Degeneration. The BRAMD Study. *PLoS One* 2016;11(5):e0153052.
3. Klein R, Meurer SM, Myers CE, et al. Harmonizing the classification of age-related macular degeneration in the three-continent AMD consortium. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol* 2014;21(1):14-23.
4. Delcourt C, Korobelnik JF, Buitendijk GH, et al. Ophthalmic epidemiology in Europe: the "European Eye Epidemiology" (E3) consortium. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2016;31(2):197-210.
5. Fritsche LG, Chen W, Schu M, et al. Seven new loci associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2013;45(4):433-9, 9e1-2.



Chapter 2.1

Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in Europe: the past and the future

Johanna M. Colijn*, **Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk***, Elena Prokofyeva, Dalila Alves, Maria L. Cachulo, Anthony P. Khawaja, Audrey Cougnard-Gregoire, Bénédicte Merle, Christina Korb, Maja G Erke, Alain Bron, Eleftherios Anastasopoulos, Magda A. Meester-Smoor, Stefano Piermarocchi, Johannes R Vingerling, EYE-RISK consortium, Fotis Topouzis, Catherine Creuzot-Garcher, Geir Bertelsen, Norbert Pfeiffer, Astrid Fletcher, Paul J Foster, Rufino Silva, Jean-Francois Korobelnik, Cecile Delcourt, Caroline C.W. Klaver for the European Eye Epidemiology (E3) Consortium

*These authors contributed equally.

Published in *Ophthalmology*, 2017 Dec;124(12):1753-1763 doi: 10.1016/j.ophtha.2017.05.035. Epub 2017 Jul 14.
PMID: 28712657

Supplementary material is available at:
[http://www.aaojournal.org/article/S0161-6420\(16\)32475-7/addons](http://www.aaojournal.org/article/S0161-6420(16)32475-7/addons)

ABSTRACT

Purpose Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is a frequent complex disorder in elderly of European ancestry. Risk profiles and treatment options have changed considerably over the years, which may have affected disease prevalence and outcome. We determined prevalence of early and late AMD in Europe from 1990-2013 using the European Eye Epidemiology (E3) consortium, and made projections for the future.

Design Meta-analysis of prevalence data.

Participants A total of 42080 individuals aged 40 years of age and older participating in fourteen population-based cohorts from ten countries in Europe.

Methods AMD was diagnosed on fundus photographs using the Rotterdam Classification. Prevalence of early and late AMD was calculated using random effects meta-analysis stratified for age, birth cohort, gender, geographic region, and time period of the study. Best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA) was compared between late AMD subtypes geographic atrophy (GA) and choroidal neovascularization (CNV).

Main outcome measures Prevalence of early and late AMD, BCVA, and number of AMD cases.

Results Prevalence of early AMD increased from 3.5% (95% confidence interval [CI] 2.1-5.0) in those aged 55-59 years to 17.6 % (95% CI 13.6-21.5) in aged 85+ years; for late AMD these figures were 0.1% (95% CI 0.04 - 0.3) and 9.8% (95% CI 6.3-13.3) respectively. We observed a decreasing prevalence of early and late AMD after 2006, which became most prominent after age 70. Prevalences were similar for gender across all age groups except for late AMD in the oldest age category, and a trend was found showing a higher prevalence of CNV in Northern Europe. After 2006, fewer eyes and fewer 80+ year old subjects with CNV were visually impaired ($p = 0.016$). Projections of AMD showed an almost doubling of affected persons despite a decreasing prevalence. By 2040, the number of individuals in Europe with early AMD will range between 14.9-21.5 million, and for late AMD between 3.9-4.8 million.

Conclusion We observed a decreasing prevalence of AMD and an improvement in visual acuity in CNV occurring over the past 2 decades in Europe. Healthier lifestyles and implementation of anti-vascular endothelial growth factor treatment are the most likely explanations. Nevertheless, the numbers of affected subjects will increase considerably in the next two decades. AMD continues to remain a significant public health problem among Europeans.

INTRODUCTION

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) can cause irreversible blindness and is the leading cause of visual impairment in the elderly of European ancestry.¹ Two stages are known for this disease: early AMD, which is characterized by drusen and pigmentary changes, and late AMD, which can be distinguished in two subtypes; geographic atrophy (GA) and choroidal neovascularization (CNV).²

Worldwide estimates approximated that 30 to 50 million people are affected by AMD^{3,4}, and these numbers are expected to increase over time due to the aging population.^{1,5-9} Although multiple small studies have assessed the prevalence of AMD and its relation with visual decline at various places in Europe¹⁰⁻¹², a clear overview for Europe as a whole is lacking¹³. Comprehensive epidemiologic figures on AMD in Europe would help proper planning for public health and eye care policy makers.

Recent studies report a decrease in AMD associated blindness and visual impairment^{14,15}, which are likely to be due to improved diagnostic procedures and hence earlier diagnosis, and the introduction of anti-vascular endothelial growth Factor (VEGF) therapy.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ Anti-VEGF therapy for CNV was introduced in 2004 and, since 2006, it has been widely used for clinical care in Europe.^{17,18} However, the impact of anti-VEGF therapy on general visual function of persons with AMD in Europe has not been sufficiently studied.^{1,16}

In this study, we investigated the prevalence of both early and late AMD in Europe using summary data of cohort studies from the European Eye Epidemiology (E3) Consortium. We analyzed changes in prevalence over time, compared geographic regions and studied differences between men and women. Moreover, we analyzed the visual acuity of affected individuals before and after the introduction of anti-VEGF therapy and predicted the number of persons with AMD by 2040 in Europe.

METHODS

Study population

Fourteen population-based cohort studies participating in the E3 consortium contributed to this analysis. This consortium consists of European studies with epidemiologic data on common eye disorders; a detailed description of the E3 consortium has been published elsewhere.¹⁶ For the current analysis, studies with gradable macular fundus photographs (n=42,080 participants) and participants aged 40 years and older provided summary data. Participants were recruited between 1990 and 2013 from the following countries: Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Northern Ireland, Norway, Netherlands, Spain and Portugal^{19,20}, United Kingdom (Table 1).¹⁶ The composition of AMD in each cohort is shown in Figure 1 (available at www.aaojournal.org). The study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki for research involving human subjects and the good epidemiological practice guideline.

Grading of age-related macular degeneration

Both eyes of each participant were graded and classified separately by experienced graders or clinicians and the most severe AMD grade of the worse eye was used for classification of the person. To harmonize classification of AMD, studies were graded or re-classified according to the Rotterdam Classification as previously described²¹. Main outcomes of this study were early AMD (grade 2 or 3 of the Rotterdam Classification) and late AMD (grade 4 of the Rotterdam Classification). Persons with late AMD were stratified in GA and CNV or MIXED (both GA and CNV present in one person, either both types in the same eye, or one type per eye), which is henceforth in this article referred to

as CNV. The Tromsø Eye Study, Thessaloniki Eye Study and European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC) study had fundus photograph grading that could not be converted to match the definition of early AMD of the Rotterdam Classification. Therefore, these three studies only participated in the Late AMD analysis.

Visual impairment

Visual acuity was measured for each eye separately as best corrected visual acuity (BCVA) in two categories; ≥ 0.3 and < 0.3 . When BCVA differed in the two eyes, visual acuity of the best eye was used to classify the person. Low vision and blindness were defined as visual acuity of < 0.3 and further referred to as visually impaired.

Visual acuity was measured for each eye separately as best corrected visual acuity (BCVA) in two categories; ≥ 0.3 and < 0.3 . When BCVA differed in the two eyes, visual acuity of the best eye was used to classify the person. Low vision and blindness were defined as visual acuity of < 0.3 and further referred to as visually impaired.

Projection of AMD

The projection of AMD cases in Europe from 2013 to 2040 was calculated using the prevalence data for 5-year age categories obtained from the meta-analysis. Two different scenarios were used to calculate the projection. In the first scenario, it was assumed that the prevalence of both early and late AMD will remain stable until 2040. This scenario accounted for changes in population structure only. The second scenario followed the trend of decreasing prevalence based on data from the meta-analysis of the E3 consortium regarding the period 2006-2013. We calculated the rate of decline, with 2013 as the starting point and 2040 as the end point, and made the assumption that the rate of decline was decelerating and zero at the end point. For each projected year, prevalences were calculated for every 5-year age group, for early AMD from 45 years of age and onwards and for late AMD 65 years and onwards. The projected prevalences were multiplied by the predicted European population estimates obtained from Eurostat for all 28 countries in Europe, and the sum of individuals from all age groups was calculated.²²

Statistical analysis

The crude prevalence of early and late AMD were calculated per study for each 5-year age group. A random effects meta-analysis was performed by weighing the studies according to sample size, for early and late AMD separately for 5-year age groups and for people aged 70 years and older. In case of reported zero prevalence, the Haldane correction was used²³. In case of 100% prevalence, 0.01 was subtracted to prevent exclusion from the analysis. This analysis was repeated, stratified for the midpoint year of the study recruitment period before and after the year 2006, for ten-year birth cohorts. Furthermore, it was repeated for gender, and for geographical area in Europe based on the United Nations Geoscheme.²⁴ A chi-square test was used to compare time trends.

In addition, a meta-analysis was performed for eyes with visual impairment owing to late AMD, and per subtype of late AMD. Subsequently, the analysis was stratified for studies conducted before and after 2006, for which the midpoint year of the study recruitment period was used. The number of visually impaired people was calculated before and after 2006. Meta-analysis was performed with Stata (StataCorp. 2013. Stata Statistical Software: Release 13, version 13.1. College Station, TX: StataCorp LP.) using metaprop. Graphical outputs were constructed with GraphPad Prism 7 (GraphPad Prism version 7.00 for Windows, GraphPad Software, La Jolla California USA, www.graphpad.com).

TABLE 1 - Description of the European Eye Epidemiology Consortium studies included in the meta-analysis

Region	Study	Data collection period	Total participants	Age Range yrs	Median age group	Gender, % Male	European ethnicity %	Crude prevalence % Early AMD	Crude prevalence % Late AMD
North	United Kingdom	2004-2011	5344	45-85+	60-64	43.1	99.7	-	0.5
	Norway	2007-2008	2631	65-85+	65-69	42.5	91	-	3.5
West	France	2006-2008	879	70-85+	75-79	37.7	-	16.8	5.6
	Germany	2007-2012	3839	40-74	50-54	50.2	-	2.3	0.2
	Netherlands	1990-1993	6419	55-85+	60-64	40.7	98.9	7.5	1.7
South	Netherlands	2000-2002	2545	55-85+	55-59	45.4	97.8	6	0.7
	Netherlands	2005-2008	3449	45-85+	55-59	43.4	96.4	4.6	0.4
	France	Montrachet-3C	1069	75-85+	80-84	37	100	9.2	2.2
	France	POLA	2196	60-85+	65-69	43.5	-	8.7	1.9
	Portugal	Lousa	3021	55-85+	60-64	43.9	99.3	15.4	1.3
	Portugal	Mira	2975	55-85+	65-69	43.4	99.7	6.9	0.7
	Thessaloniki	Thessaloniki Eye Study	2000-2005	2107	60-85+	65-69	55.6	97.7	-
Multiple	Italy	2005-2006	853	60-85+	65-69	45.8	100	13.5	2.1
		2000-2002	4753	65-85+	65-69	44.8	-	12.6	3.3

ALIENOR = Antioxydants, Lipids Essentiels, Nutrition et maladies Oculaires Study; EPIC = European Prospective Investigation into Cancer; EUREYE = European Eye Study; GHS = Gutenberg Health Study; POLA = Pathologies Oculaires Liées à l'Age Study; PAMDI = Prevalence of Age-Related Macular Degeneration in Italy; RS = Rotterdam Study.

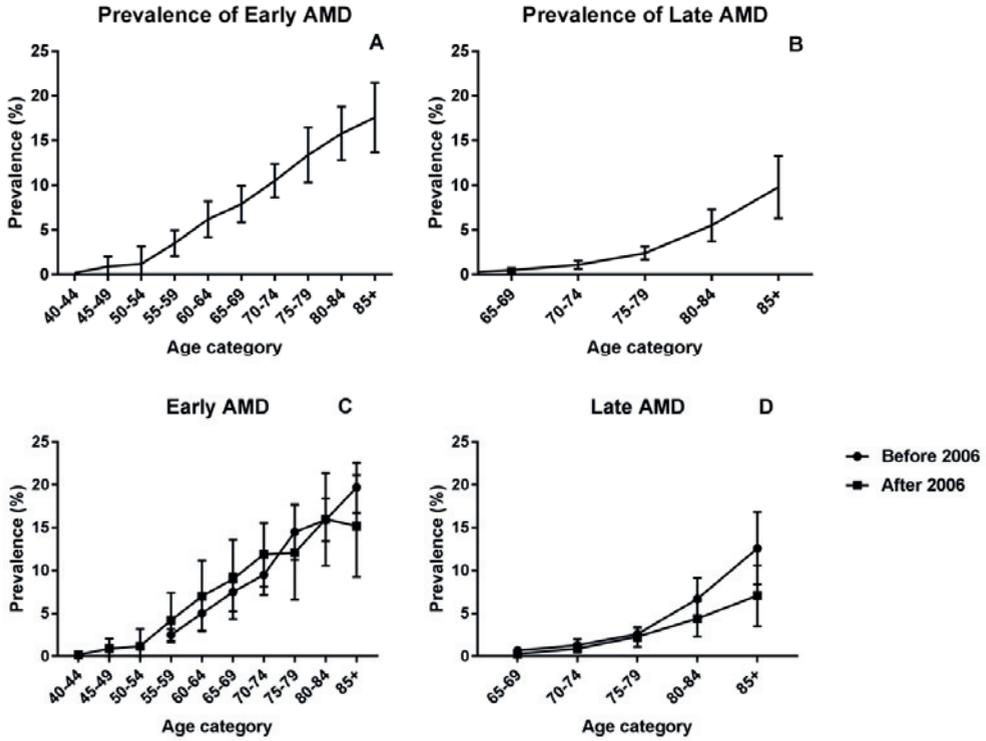


FIGURE 3 - Meta-analysis of Early (A) and Late (B) AMD in Europe per age category for the participating studies. Meta-analysis of the prevalence of Early (C) and Late (D) AMD before and after 2006

RESULTS

The total study population included in this analysis comprised of 42,080 individuals from 14 studies with a median age group of 65-69 years and a slight female predominance (55.8%). The prevalence of all age groups together varied per study between 2.3% and 16.8% for early AMD (total N= 2703) and between 0.2% and 5.6% for late AMD (total N= 664) (Figure 2A and B, available at www.aaajournal.org; to avoid biased estimates only groups larger than 30 individuals are shown; this applied only to the Rotterdam Study III age-category 85+). Owing to moderate to high heterogeneity ($I^2: \geq 75\%$ in 73 of 141 analyses), which was not related to time trends, we applied a random effects model for the meta-analysis. This provided a prevalence of early AMD increasing with age from 3.5% (95% confidence interval [CI] 2.1-5.0) at 55-59 years to 17.6% (95% CI 13.6-21.5) in persons aged 85+ years (Figure 3A, and Table 2, available at www.aaajournal.org). The prevalence of late AMD rose from virtually naught in the youngest age group to 9.8% (95% CI 6.3-13.3) for those in the highest age group (Figure 3B). Taking together all people aged 70+ years, the overall prevalence was 13.2% (95%CI 11.2-15.1) for early AMD, and 3.0% (95%CI 2.2-3.9) for late AMD. We investigated prevalence changes over time by splitting the E3 consortium into studies conducted before and after 2006. The prevalence of early AMD before and after 2006 seemed to rise similarly. For late AMD, a trend of decreasing prevalence was observed for the higher age categories after 2006 (Figure 3C and D). Even after exclusion of the 2 cohorts (Rotterdam Study [RS]-II and European Eye Study [EUREYE]) with the highest prevalences in

the highest age category before 2006, results remained similar (data not shown). When we analyzed prevalence data as a function of birth cohort, a relatively stable prevalence of early AMD was visible across all birth cohorts, whereas a decreasing prevalence of late AMD was seen for the more recent birth cohorts (Figure 4A and B).

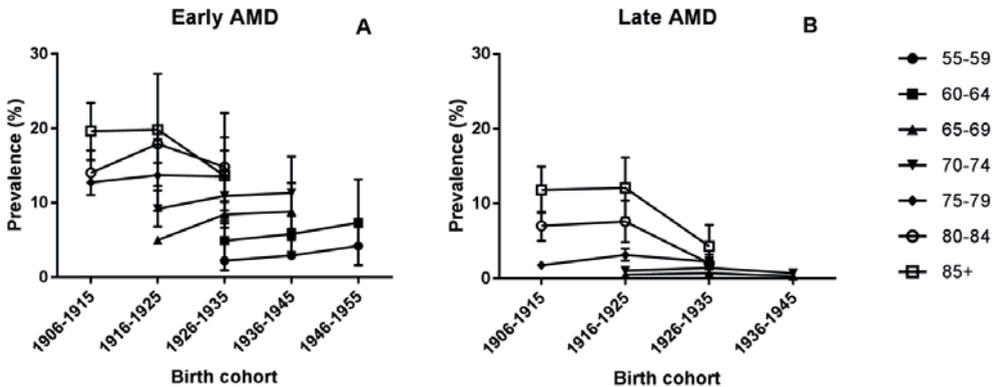


FIGURE 4 - Meta-analysis of Early (A) and Late (B) AMD in Europe by ten year birth cohort.

Gender and Geographic region

We studied the relation with gender and found no differences in the prevalence of early and late AMD between men and women except for the age category of 85 years and older for late AMD (Figure 5A and B, available at www.aaojournal.org). This category shows a trend for a higher prevalence in women compared to men, although confidence intervals overlap.

To address differential distribution of AMD in Europe, we stratified studies according to three regions defined by the United Nations²⁴. In older individuals, we observed a trend towards a higher prevalence of early AMD in the North (16% in 70+ years; [95%CI 14-17]) compared to the West (12%; [95% CI 10-14]) and South (14%; [95% CI 10-17]) (Figure 6A, available at www.aaojournal.org). Likewise, late AMD had the highest prevalence in the North (4.2% [95% CI 2-6]), compared to the West (3.1%; [95% CI 2-4]) and South (3.1%; [95%CI 2-4]) (Figure 6B, available at www.aaojournal.org). More detailed analyses showed that a frequency difference was only present for CNV (Figure 6C and D, available at www.aaojournal.org), however, confidence intervals of the regional differences overlapped.

Visual consequences

As most countries implemented anti-VEGF therapy for CNV from 2006 onwards, we compared visual impairment from AMD in studies carried out before and after this year. Before 2006, 54.2% of eyes with GA were visually impaired, and 79.8% of eyes suffering from CNV were visually impaired. From 2006 onwards, the proportion of visually impaired eyes remained the same for GA (47.6%, $P = 0.40$), but dropped to 66.2% ($P = 0.026$) for CNV (Figure 7A). This improvement was also observed for the number of bilaterally visually impaired persons; 120 out of 345 (34.8%) before 2006 to 75 out of 259 (28.9%, $P = 0.13$) after 2006. The largest drop was seen for people aged 80 years and older; 85 out of 175 (48.6%) before 2006 to 46 out of 132 (34.8%, $P = 0.016$) after 2006 (Figure 7B).

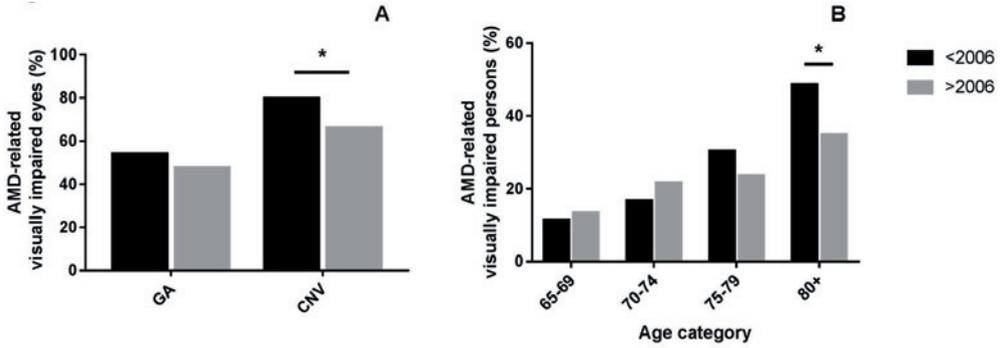


FIGURE 7 - A) Proportion of visually impaired eyes within each subgroup of Late AMD. The proportion of visually impaired eyes remained the same for GA (47.6%, $P = 0.40$), but dropped to 66.2% ($P = 0.026$) for CNV after 2006. B) Proportion of persons with Late AMD with bilateral visual impairment before and after 2006 ($P = 0.016$).

* Corresponds with $P < 0.05$.

Projections of AMD in Europe for 2040

Assuming that the prevalence of early and late AMD will remain stable over time, an increase from 15.0 million in 2013 to 21.5 million for early AMD can be expected by 2040. The number of people with late AMD will almost double during this time period; from 2.7 million in 2013 to 4.8 million in 2040.

Assuming a more realistic scenario for which E3 historic data and a decelerating slope were used, we found that the prevalence of early AMD will first decrease and then slightly increase between 2013 and 2040. The model estimated that the number of people with early AMD would remain the same: from 15.0 million in 2013 to 14.9 million in 2040. This model also displayed that the number of people with late AMD in Europe will increase from 2.7 million in 2013 to 3.9 million by 2040 (Figure 8).

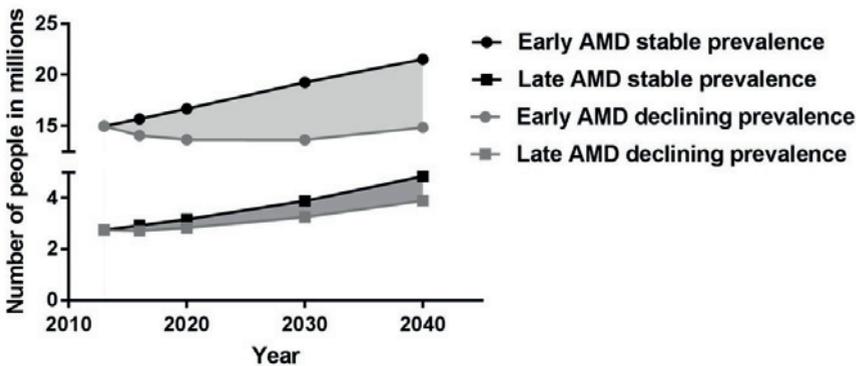


FIGURE 8 - Predicted number of persons with AMD in years 2013-2040 as a function of two prevalence scenarios

DISCUSSION

AMD prevalence and its time trends

Our study provides insight in the prevalence of both early and late AMD in Europe. Based on meta-analyzed data from fourteen population-based cohort studies included in the E3 consortium, the overall prevalence of early and late AMD was 13.2% and 3.0%, respectively, in the age-category 70+ years. These estimates are comparable to persons from European descent living in other continents.^{3,25}

Our data showed a trend towards a slightly decreasing prevalence of AMD in the older age categories. It is unlikely that this is explained by differential mortality in AMD patients before and after 2006, although studies have shown conflicting results on death as a competing risk factor for AMD, and we cannot exclude that this plays a role.²⁶⁻²⁸ The decreasing trend in time has also been observed in the Beaver Dam Eye study, indicating that these trends are not confined to Europe.²⁹ Decreasing rates have also been observed for other aging disorders such as cardiovascular disease³⁰⁻³³, and may to be related to improved lifestyle among the elderly³⁴⁻³⁶, for example, the number of smokers declined by 30.5% from 1990 to 2010 in Europe³⁷. Taken together, the decline in prevalence suggests that the increases in the number of AMD patients may not be as substantial as previous prediction studies suggested.³⁸

Gender and Geographic regions

Our data showed no difference in the prevalence of early and late AMD with respect to gender. In the oldest age category of 85 years and older, women seemed to have a higher prevalence of late AMD, but detailed analysis showed that this was mostly owing to imprecision of the estimate in men, caused by a lower number of men in this age group. (Figure 9, available at www.aaojournal.org). This has also been observed in other studies.^{7,39}

As for regional differences, we noticed that the Northern region of Europe showed a slightly higher prevalence of early and late AMD. This trend was the result of a higher prevalence of CNV AMD in the North. Our findings are in concordance with the results earlier published by the Tromsø Eye Study⁴⁰, but contrast with other studies performed in the North of Europe finding a higher prevalence of GA (EUREYE, Reykjavik eye study and Oslo Macular Study).⁴¹⁻⁴³ Considering the larger sample size and high response rate of the Tromsø Eye Study compared to the other studies, these findings might be more legitimate. No consistent differences were observed for West and South regions of Europe.

Visual consequences

The proportion of eyes affected by CNV that were visually impaired was reduced after the year 2006. Unfortunately, our study lacked actual data on interventions for CNV, but it is likely that the reduction is attributable to the use of anti-VEGF injections, which were introduced as a therapy for CNV in Europe from 2006 onwards.¹⁸ This notion is supported by findings from clinical trials^{44,45} and other studies, which show an up to 2-fold decrease in legal blindness due to AMD after 2006.^{14,15,46,47} The public campaigns which were initiated after the introduction of anti-VEGF have undoubtedly contributed to the reduction of visual loss, as they made elderly more aware of the symptoms and stimulated prompt therapy.^{48,49}

Projections of AMD in Europe

It is unclear whether the prevalence rates of AMD will decrease even more in the coming years, but an increase is not likely to be expected. Therefore, we performed projections of the estimated number of AMD affected persons until the year 2040 based on two different scenarios: one based on a stable prevalence and one following the trend of declining prevalences. The results of the first scenario suggests that the absolute number of persons with late AMD will increase by 2.1 million, a 1.5 times increase. A Norwegian study predicted, under the assumption of a stable prevalence, the same relative increase of affected subjects, with a total of 328,000 cases of late AMD in Scandinavia by 2040.^{5,8} A study in the USA calculated a 2.2 times increase in absolute numbers and estimated a total number of affected subjects to be 3.8 million by 2050.^{5,8} Worldwide projections have shown a doubling of late AMD and an increase of 9 million cases by 2040.³

The second scenario was based on declining rates, and showed a small increase in the number of people with Early AMD from 14 million in 2016 to 14.9 million by 2040, and a larger relative increase in the number of people with Late AMD, from 2.9 million in 2016 to 4.0 million by 2040. Considering the declining rates of smoking and implementation of healthier diets in elderly, the second projection may be more legitimate.

Study Limitations

A limitation to this E3 consortium meta-analysis is the heterogeneity across studies regarding study design and inclusion criteria. For example, age at inclusion and method of recruitment varied between studies. Although in every study AMD was classified according to the Rotterdam Classification, studies differed in AMD grading, especially for pigmentary changes and drusen size. Given the heterogeneity, we therefore performed a random effects meta-analysis for both early and late AMD. Furthermore, patient management and access to healthcare may have differed between study sites, resulting in differences in preventative and treatment options.^{50,51}

When data collection started in 1990, fundus photography was the golden standard for grading AMD. Since 1990, imaging techniques evolved rapidly, greatly improving the diagnosis of AMD features with non-invasive techniques such as optical coherence tomography, auto-fluorescence and near-infrared photographs. In addition, multimodal imaging better visualizes edema and subtle changes resulting from CNV, which may not be so apparent when the patient was treated with anti-VEGF therapy.^{52,53} Although macular edema due to subretinal neovascularization often coincides with prominent retinal changes such as hemorrhages or hard exudates, our data may have underestimated the true prevalence of CNV.⁵³

In summary, this study estimates the prevalence of early and late AMD per age category in Europe over the past two decades. Prevalence of both these forms remained stable or showed a slight decrease. Nevertheless, we observed a significant reduction in the proportion of visually impaired eyes due to CNV after 2006. Unfortunately, due to the aging population, the number of people with AMD will increase during the next decades, indicating a continuous need to develop comprehensive modalities for prevention and treatment of AMD.

REFERENCES

1. Bourne RR, Jonas JB, Flaxman SR, et al. Prevalence and causes of vision loss in high-income countries and in Eastern and Central Europe: 1990-2010. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2014;98(5):629-38.
2. de Jong PT. Age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med* 2006;355(14):1474-85.
3. Wong WL, Su X, Li X, et al. Global prevalence of age-related macular degeneration and disease burden projection for 2020 and 2040: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Glob Health* 2014;2(2):e106-16.
4. Ozaki E, Campbell M, Kiang AS, et al. Inflammation in age-related macular degeneration. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2014;801:229-35.
5. Lindekleiv H, Erke MG. Projected prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in Scandinavia 2012-2040. *Acta Ophthalmol* 2013;91(4):307-11.
6. Bauer P, Barthelmes D, Kurz M, et al. The potential effect of population development, smoking and antioxidant supplementation on the future epidemiology of age-related macular degeneration in Switzerland. *Klin Monbl Augenheilkd* 2008;225(5):376-9.
7. Friedman DS, O'Colmain BJ, Munoz B, et al. Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in the United States. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2004;122(4):564-72.
8. Rein DB, Wittenborn JS, Zhang X, et al. Forecasting age-related macular degeneration through the year 2050: the potential impact of new treatments. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2009;127(4):533-40.
9. Owen CG, Jarrar Z, Wormald R, et al. The estimated prevalence and incidence of late stage age related macular degeneration in the UK. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2012;96(5):752-6.
10. Klaver CC, Wolfs RC, Vingerling JR, et al. Age-specific prevalence and causes of blindness and visual impairment in an older population: the Rotterdam Study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1998;116(5):653-8.
11. Korb CA, Kottler UB, Wolfram C, et al. Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in a large European cohort: results from the population-based Gutenberg Health Study. *Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol* 2014;252(9):1403-11.
12. Hoeg TB, Ellervik C, Buch H, et al. Danish Rural Eye Study: Epidemiology of Adult Visual Impairment. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol* 2016;23(1):53-62.
13. Prokofyeva E, Zrenner E. Epidemiology of major eye diseases leading to blindness in Europe: a literature review. *Ophthalmic Res* 2012;47(4):171-88.
14. Claessen H, Genz J, Bertram B, et al. Evidence for a considerable decrease in total and cause-specific incidences of blindness in Germany. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2012;27(7):519-24.
15. Skaat A, Chetrit A, Belkin M, et al. Time trends in the incidence and causes of blindness in Israel. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2012;153(2):214-21 e1.
16. Delcourt C, Korobelnik JF, Buitendijk GH, et al. Ophthalmic epidemiology in Europe: the "European Eye Epidemiology" (E3) consortium. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2015.
17. Gragoudas ES, Adamis AP, Cunningham ET, Jr., et al. Pegaptanib for neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med* 2004;351(27):2805-16.
18. Wolf S. Current status of anti-vascular endothelial growth factor therapy in Europe. *Jpn J Ophthalmol* 2008;52(6):433-9.
19. Cachulo Mda L, Lains I, Lobo C, et al. Age-related macular degeneration in Portugal: prevalence and risk factors in a coastal and an inland town. The Coimbra Eye Study - Report 2. *Acta Ophthalmol* 2016;94(6):e442-53.
20. Cachulo Mda L, Lobo C, Figueira J, et al. Prevalence of Age-Related Macular Degeneration in Portugal: The Coimbra Eye Study - Report 1. *Ophthalmologica* 2015;233(3-4):119-27.
21. van Leeuwen R, Chakravarthy U, Vingerling JR, et al. Grading of age-related maculopathy for epidemiological studies: is digital imaging as good as 35-mm film? *Ophthalmology* 2003;110(8):1540-4.
22. Eurostat. v3.1.15-20160425-5608-PROD_EUROBASE. European Commission; v. Accessed on 02.08.2016.
23. Haldane JB. The estimation and significance of the logarithm of a ratio of frequencies. *Ann Hum Genet* 1956;20(4):309-11.
24. Division UNS. Composition of macro geographical (continental) regions, geographical sub-regions, and selected economic and other groupings. 2007; v. 2015.
25. Klein R, Chou CF, Klein BE, et al. Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in the US population. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2011;129(1):75-80.
26. Borger PH, van Leeuwen R, Hulsman CA, et al. Is there a direct association between age-related eye diseases and mortality? The Rotterdam Study. *Ophthalmology* 2003;110(7):1292-6.
27. McGuinness MB, Karahalios A, Kasza J, et al. Survival Bias When Assessing Risk Factors for Age-Related Macular Degeneration: A Tutorial with Application to the Exposure of Smoking. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol*

- 2017;24(4):229-38.
28. Wang J, Xue Y, Thapa S, et al. Relation between Age-Related Macular Degeneration and Cardiovascular Events and Mortality: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Biomed Res Int* 2016;2016:8212063.
 29. Klein R, Knudtson MD, Lee KE, et al. Age-period-cohort effect on the incidence of age-related macular degeneration: the Beaver Dam Eye Study. *Ophthalmology* 2008;115(9):1460-7.
 30. Crimmins EM, Hayward MD, Hagedorn A, et al. Change in disability-free life expectancy for Americans 70-years-old and older. *Demography* 2009;46(3):627-46.
 31. Koch MB, Davidsen M, Andersen LV, et al. Increasing prevalence despite decreasing incidence of ischaemic heart disease and myocardial infarction. A national register based perspective in Denmark, 1980-2009. *Eur J Prev Cardiol* 2015;22(2):189-95.
 32. Davies AR, Smeeth L, Grundy EM. Contribution of changes in incidence and mortality to trends in the prevalence of coronary heart disease in the UK: 1996-2005. *Eur Heart J* 2007;28(17):2142-7.
 33. Satizabal CL, Beiser AS, Chouraki V, et al. Incidence of Dementia over Three Decades in the Framingham Heart Study. *N Engl J Med* 2016;374(6):523-32.
 34. Plessz M, Gueguen A, Goldberg M, et al. Ageing, retirement and changes in vegetable consumption in France: findings from the prospective GAZEL cohort. *Br J Nutr* 2015;114(6):979-87.
 35. Pot GK, Prynne CJ, Almoosawi S, et al. Trends in food consumption over 30 years: evidence from a British birth cohort. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 2015;69(7):817-23.
 36. Jungjohann SM, Luhrmann PM, Bender R, et al. Eight-year trends in food, energy and macronutrient intake in a sample of elderly German subjects. *Br J Nutr* 2005;93(3):361-78.
 37. Oecd. Change in smoking rates: OECD Publishing.
 38. Huang GH, Klein R, Klein BE, Tomany SC. Birth cohort effect on prevalence of age-related maculopathy in the Beaver Dam Eye Study. *Am J Epidemiol* 2003;157(8):721-9.
 39. Mitchell P, Smith W, Attebo K, Wang JJ. Prevalence of age-related maculopathy in Australia. The Blue Mountains Eye Study. *Ophthalmology* 1995;102(10):1450-60.
 40. Erke MG, Bertelsen G, Peto T, et al. Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in elderly Caucasians: the Tromso Eye Study. *Ophthalmology* 2012;119(9):1737-43.
 41. Augood CA, Vingerling JR, de Jong PT, et al. Prevalence of age-related maculopathy in older Europeans: the European Eye Study (EUREYE). *Arch Ophthalmol* 2006;124(4):529-35.
 42. Jonasson F, Arnarsson A, Sasaki H, et al. The prevalence of age-related maculopathy in iceland: Reykjavik eye study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2003;121(3):379-85.
 43. Bjornsson OM, Syrdalen P, Bird AC, et al. The prevalence of age-related maculopathy (ARM) in an urban Norwegian population: the Oslo Macular study. *Acta Ophthalmol Scand* 2006;84(5):636-41.
 44. Group CR, Martin DF, Maguire MG, et al. Ranibizumab and bevacizumab for neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med* 2011;364(20):1897-908.
 45. Boyer DS, Heier JS, Brown DM, et al. A Phase IIIb study to evaluate the safety of ranibizumab in subjects with neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 2009;116(9):1731-9.
 46. Bloch SB, Larsen M, Munch IC. Incidence of legal blindness from age-related macular degeneration in denmark: year 2000 to 2010. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2012;153(2):209-13 e2.
 47. Granstam E, Westborg I, Barkander A, et al. Reduced occurrence of severe visual impairment after introduction of anti-Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor in wet age-related macular degeneration - a population- and register-based study from northern Sweden. *Acta Ophthalmol* 2016;94(7):646-51.
 48. Heraghty J, Cummins R. A layered approach to raising public awareness of macular degeneration in Australia. *Am J Public Health* 2012;102(9):1655-9.
 49. Bertram B, Gante C, Hilgers RD. [Increase in examinations for cataracts, glaucoma, diabetic retinopathy and age-related macular degeneration : Comparative cross-sectional study between 2010 and 1997 in ophthalmological practices] Zunahme der Untersuchungen wegen Katarakt, Glaukom, diabetischer Retinopathie und Makuladegeneration : Vergleichende Querschnittstudie der Jahre 2010 und 1997 in Augenarztpraxen. *Ophthalmologe* 2014;111(8):757-64.
 50. Marques AP, Macedo AF, Perelman J, et al. Diffusion of anti-VEGF injections in the Portuguese National Health System. *BMJ Open* 2015;5(11):e009006.
 51. Keenan TD, Wotton CJ, Goldacre MJ. Trends over time and geographical variation in rates of intravitreal injections in England. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2012;96(3):413-8.
 52. Yehoshua Z, Gregori G, Sadda SR, et al. Comparison of drusen area detected by spectral domain optical coherence tomography and color fundus imaging. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2013;54(4):2429-34.
 53. Wang YT, Tadarati M, Wolfson Y, et al. Comparison of Prevalence of Diabetic Macular Edema Based on Monocular Fundus Photography vs Optical Coherence Tomography. *JAMA Ophthalmol* 2016;134(2):222-8.



Chapter 2.2

Visual consequences of refractive errors in the general population

Virginie J.M. Verhoeven*, King T. Wong*, **Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk**, Albert Hofman, Johannes R. Vingerling, Caroline C.W. Klaver

*These authors contributed equally.

Published in *Ophthalmology*, 2015 Jan;122(1):101-9. doi: 10.1016/j.optha.2014.07.030. Epub 2014 Sep 7. PMID: 25208857

Supplementary material is available at:
[http://www.aaojournal.org/article/S0161-6420\(14\)00641-1/addons](http://www.aaojournal.org/article/S0161-6420(14)00641-1/addons)

ABSTRACT

Objective To study the frequency and causes of visual impairment in relation to refractive error.

Design Population-based cohort study

Participants: A total of 6,597 participants from Rotterdam Study I (baseline and 4 follow-up examinations) and of 2,579 participants from Rotterdam Study II (baseline and 2 follow-up examinations), all aged 55+ years, were included.

Methods Participants underwent an extensive ophthalmic examination including best-corrected visual acuity and objective refraction, fundus photography, visual field perimetry, and OCT imaging of macula and optic disc. We calculated cumulative risks and odds ratios of visual impairment for various refractive error categories, determined causes by using all screening information as well as medical records.

Main Outcome Measures Unilateral and bilateral low vision (WHO criteria: VA <0.3 and VA \geq 0.05; US criteria: VA <0.5 and VA \geq 0.1) and blindness (WHO criteria: VA <0.05; US criteria: VA <0.1).

Results Cumulative risks of visual impairment ranged from virtually 0 in all refractive error categories at age 55 to 9.5% (standard error (se) 0.01) for emmetropia, 15.3% (se 0.06) for high hyperopia to 33.7% (se 0.08) for high myopia, at age 85. The major causes of visual impairment in highly hyperopic persons were age-related macular degeneration (AMD), cataract, and combined causes (each 25%); in highly myopic persons the major cause was myopic macular degeneration (38.9%). The major causes of visual impairment for the other refractive error categories were AMD and cataract. Compared to emmetropes, high myopes had a significantly increased risk of visual impairment; those with \leq -6 D & \geq -10 D had a risk of OR 3.4 (95% CI 1.4-8.2) of visual impairment; those with <-10 D had OR 22.0 (95% CI 9.2-52.6).

Conclusion Of all refractive errors, high myopia has the most severe visual consequences. Irreversible macular pathology is the most common cause of visual impairment in this group.

INTRODUCTION

Refractive errors - both myopia and hyperopia - are very common human eye disorders and leading causes of visual impairment worldwide.¹⁻³ Myopia is characterized by an elongation of the eye, and is accompanied by structural changes of the retina and choroid.⁴ These changes can lead to potentially blinding complications such as myopic macular degeneration, open-angle glaucoma and retinal detachment.^{5,6} Although all myopic eyes are at risk for complications,^{4,7,8} highly myopic eyes, i.e., -6 diopters (D) or worse, are particularly at risk to develop functional blindness at a relatively young age. Hyperopia (farsightedness), by contrast, is a condition in which the eye is shortened. For this refractive error category, the risks of visual impairment are less well studied, but it is known that persons with hyperopia have a higher risk of amblyopia, strabismus and closed-angle glaucoma.⁹ An association with age-related macular degeneration (AMD) has also been described.¹⁰

Although numerous studies have addressed population frequencies of low vision and blindness none have focused on visual loss as a function of the full spectrum of refractive errors. In addition, frequency of causes of blindness and low vision specified per refractive error category have not been described until now. Given the current rise in prevalence of this trait¹¹⁻¹³, this information can be useful for clinicians, patients, and researchers, and will increase awareness of the visual consequences of refractive errors.

In this study, we investigated the frequency and causes of blindness and low vision stratified for various refractive error categories in 2 independent cohorts of the population-based prospective Rotterdam Study.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study population

The rationale and design of the Rotterdam Study have been described in detail elsewhere.¹⁴ In brief, this prospective population-based follow-up study focuses on chronic ophthalmologic, neurologic, cardiovascular, and locomotor diseases in middle aged and elderly participants living in Ommoord, a city district of Rotterdam, the Netherlands. Baseline data for the ophthalmic part were collected between 1991 and 2002 and follow-up examinations were performed at 2-4 years (Figure 1). A total of 99% of study participants were from European descent. For this analysis, we included 9,176 participants from two independent cohorts of the Rotterdam Study. The first is Rotterdam Study I (RS-I): 6,597 participants aged 55 years and older. Baseline examinations took place between 1990 and 1993, and four follow-up examinations were performed in 1993-1995, 1997-1999, 2002-2004, and 2009-2011 (Figure 1). The second cohort is Rotterdam Study II (RS-II), which included 2,579 participants aged 55 years and older. Baseline examinations took place in between 2000 and 2002, and two follow-up examinations were performed in 2004-2005 and 2011-2012 (Figure 1). Persons with bilateral pseudophakia or aphakia at baseline with no knowledge of prior refractive error were excluded ($n = 278$). From these two cohorts, 9,176 participants with data on refractive error and visual acuity at baseline were eligible for the current analysis. The Medical Ethics Committee of the Erasmus University had approved the study protocols, and participants had given a written informed consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

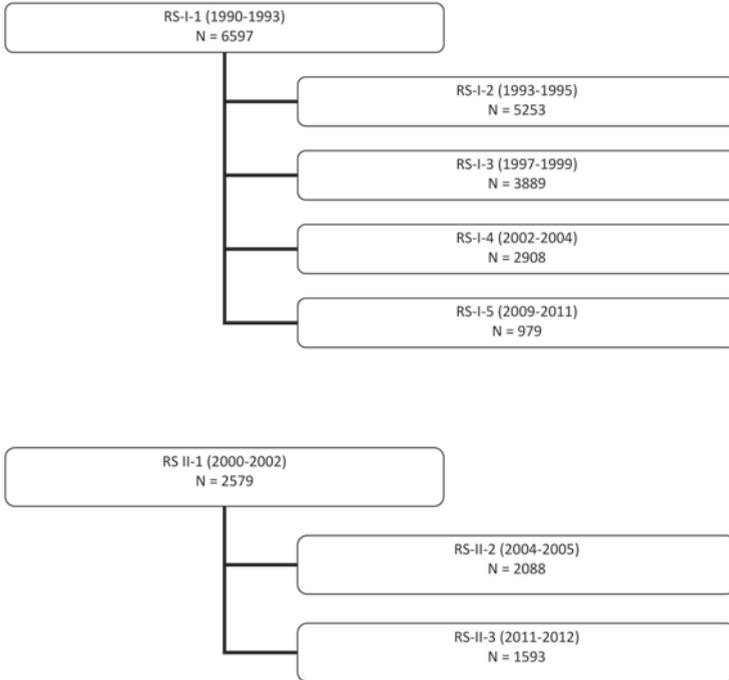


FIGURE 1 - Participation and ophthalmological measurement from each examination interval of the Rotterdam Study

Abbreviations: RS = Rotterdam Study

Ophthalmic data collection

All patients underwent an extensive ophthalmological examination. Visual acuity was measured using the Lighthouse Distance Visual Acuity Test, a modified Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy Study chart.¹⁵ To evaluate the best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA), refraction was initially obtained after objective autorefractometry (Topcon RM-A2000, Topcon Optical Company, Tokyo, Japan), and then subjectively adjusted. Screening of visual fields was performed using a modified 76-point supra-threshold perimetry test (Humphrey Visual Field Analyzer, Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany); visual field defects were confirmed by Goldmann perimetry. After pupil dilation, optic nerve head and macular area imaging was performed using simultaneous stereoscopic photography (Topcon TRC-SS2, Topcon optical Company, Tokyo, Japan), followed by a 35° film fundus camera (Topcon TRV-50VT, Topcon Optical Company, Tokyo, Japan). During the last examination rounds, RSI-4, RSI-5 and RSII-2 respectively, a Topcon digital 35° colour fundus camera (Topcon TRC 50EX with a Sony DXC-950P digital camera; 0.44 megapixel) was used.

Low vision and blindness were classified according to the WHO criteria¹⁶ and US criteria:

Low Vision: WHO: VA < 0.3 and ≥ 0.05; US: VA < 0.5 and ≥ 0.1
 Blindness: WHO: VA < 0.05; US: VA < 0.1

For participants with bilateral blindness and low vision, three clinical investigators (C.C.W.K, V.J.M.V., and K.T.W.) reached consensus on the final determination of the cause of visual impairment after reviewing all screening information, fundus transparencies, and medical information provided by ophthalmologists.

Statistical analysis

Mean spherical equivalent (SE) was calculated according to the standard formula ($SE = \text{spherical value} + \frac{1}{2} \times \text{cylinder}$). When data from only one eye were available, the SE of this eye was used. Mean SE was categorized into high myopia (≤ -6 diopters (D)), moderate myopia ($> -6D$ & $\leq -3D$), low myopia ($< -3D$ & $\leq -0.75D$), emmetropia ($> -0.75D$ & $< 0.75D$), low hyperopia ($\geq 0.75D$ & $< 3D$), medium hyperopia ($\geq 3D$ & $< 6D$), and high hyperopia ($\geq 6D$), using previously defined criteria.¹⁷ High myopia and high hyperopia were further classified as high myopia < -10 D and ≤ -6 D & ≥ -10 D and high hyperopia > 10 D and ≥ 6 & ≤ 10 D. Visual acuity at last visit was categorized into normal vision, low vision, and blindness according to WHO and US criteria as defined above. For bilateral visual impairment, BCVA was used. Unilateral visual impairment was defined as visual impairment in only one eye.

We calculated the number of cases with bilateral and unilateral blindness and low vision as a percentage of the total number of all cases with blindness and low vision at the endpoint of the study per refractive error category.

Cumulative risks of bilateral visual impairment were estimated per refractive error category using Kaplan Meier product limit analysis. We assigned the age at diagnosis of blindness or low vision as the mean between the examination at which this endpoint was first observed and the previous examination. For participants who did not develop the endpoint, we used age at last examination for censoring. Participants who died or were lost to follow-up were counted at the time of the last examination. All participants aged 85+ years were censored at age 85 years to maintain unbiased estimates. Cumulative risks per refractive error category were compared with the log-rank test of equality (Mantel-Cox) using emmetropia as the reference group.

Causes of bilateral blindness and low vision (according to the WHO criteria) were categorized, and frequencies of causes were calculated per refractive error category. We calculated mean age at diagnosis of bilateral visual impairment per refractive error category, and calculated mean spherical equivalent per refractive error category, stratified by normal vision, low vision and blindness. Statistical differences at nominal P -value < 0.05 between refractive error categories for age at diagnosis and between visual acuity categories for mean SE were calculated using Student's T test. The risk of blindness and low vision (reference normal vision) for persons with various refractive error categories (reference emmetropia) was assessed using logistic regression analysis with blindness and low vision as a combined outcome, correcting for age and sex. We used SPSS version 20.0.0 (SPSS Inc.) for all analyses.

RESULTS

General characteristics of the 9,176 study participants are presented in Table 1. At baseline, we identified 98 prevalent cases (1.1%) with bilateral low vision and 29 cases (0.3%) with bilateral blindness (WHO criteria). After a mean follow-up time of 9.6 ± 6.1 years, respectively 62 and 26 persons developed incident bilateral low vision and blindness. Subjects in RS-I were generally younger (mean age at inclusion 69.0 versus 64.1 years) and were less myopic (mean SE 0.84 vs. 0.47 D) than those in

RS-II, due to a cohort effect described in our previous work.¹⁷ The characteristics of all cases who had received a diagnosis of bilateral low vision or blindness by the end of the study can be found in Table 2 (WHO-criteria) and Table 3 (US-criteria; available at <http://aaojournal.org>).

The distribution of bilateral and unilateral blindness and low vision (WHO criteria) per refractive error category is shown in Figure 2. The high myopia group showed the highest percentage of bilateral blindness (9.6%) and low vision (25.0%). Persons from the high hyperopia group had the highest proportion of unilateral blind eyes (39.1%).

TABLE 1 - Characteristics of the study population

	Rotterdam Study I	Rotterdam Study II	Total
N at baseline	6597	2579	9176
Follow-up time, mean \pm sd (yrs)	9.8 \pm 6.0	8.9 \pm 2.9	9.6 \pm 6.1
Baseline age, mean \pm sd (yrs)	69.0 \pm 9.0	64.1 \pm 7.4	67.6 \pm 8.8
Sex, % men	41.0	45.0	42.0
Visual acuity at last measurement - WHO criteria			
Bilaterally visually impaired subjects	2.2	0.5	1.7
Bilaterally blind subjects	0.8	0.1	0.6
Unilaterally visually impaired subjects	6.1	3.8	5.5
Unilaterally blind subjects	3.4	2.1	3.0
Visual acuity at last measurement - US criteria			
Bilaterally visually impaired subjects	6.6	1.8	5.2
Bilaterally blind subjects	1.1	0.1	0.8
Unilaterally visually impaired subjects	12.5	4.8	10.3
Unilaterally blind subjects	3.4	2.2	3.1
Refractive error			
Spherical equivalent, mean \pm sd (D)	0.84 \pm 2.54	0.47 \pm 2.49	0.74 \pm 2.53
High myopia \leq -6D	1.8	1.8	1.8
Medium myopia $>$ -6D & \leq -3D	5.2	7.3	5.8
Low myopia -3D & \leq -0.75D	9.5	12.8	10.4
Emmetropia $>$ -0.75D & $<$ 0.75D	25.4	26.9	25.8
Low hyperopia \geq 0.75D & $<$ 3D	44.4	41.1	43.4
Medium hyperopia \geq 3D & $<$ 6D	12.3	9.2	11.4
High hyperopia \geq 6D	1.5	1.0	1.3

Numbers displayed are percentages, unless stated otherwise.

Abbreviations; D = diopters, sd = standard deviation, WHO = World Health Organization

TABLE 2 - Characteristics of subjects with bilateral blindness, low vision and normal vision (WHO criteria)

	Bilaterally blind subjects	Bilaterally visually impaired subjects	Subjects with bilateral visual acuity ≥ 0.3
	N = 55	N = 160	N = 8961
Age of onset, mean \pm sd (yrs)	78.1 \pm 11.3	79.7 \pm 10.1	-
Range age of onset	55.4-96.3	56.4-106.2	-
Sex, % men	31.0	53.0	51.0
Spherical equivalent, mean \pm sd (D)	-0.05 \pm 5.78	0.09 \pm 4.03	0.75 \pm 2.45
Range spherical equivalent	-19.13; 12.25	-15.31; 8.50	-19.13; 15.13
High myopia $\leq -6D$, %	9.1	8.1	1.7
Moderate myopia $> -6D$ & $\leq -3D$, %	5.5	7.5	5.7
Low myopia $-3D$ & $\leq -0.75D$, %	10.9	10.6	10.4
Emmetropia $> -0.75D$ & $< 0.75D$, %	16.4	19.4	26.0
Low hyperopia $\geq 0.75D$ & $< 3D$, %	38.2	38.1	43.6
Moderate hyperopia $\geq 3D$ & $< 6D$, %	12.7	13.8	11.4
High hyperopia $\geq 6D$, %	7.3	2.5	1.3

Abbreviations: D = diopters, sd = standard deviation;

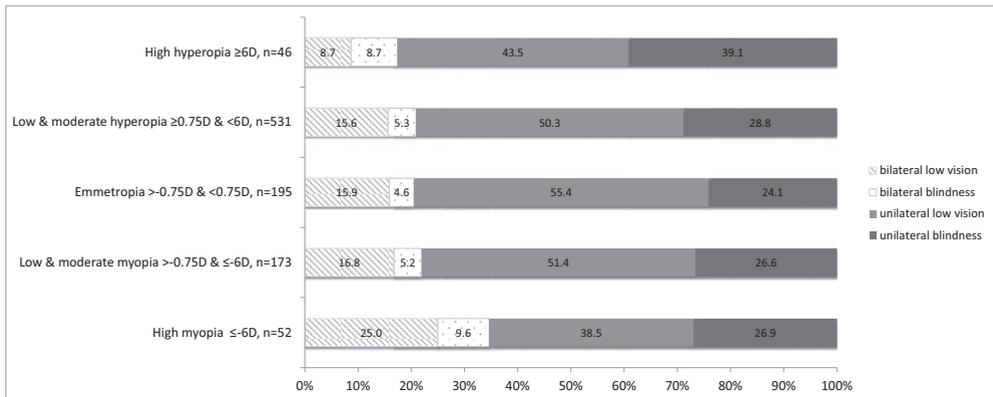


FIGURE 2 - Bar graph showing the distribution of bilateral and unilateral blindness and low vision (World Health Organization criteria) per refractive error category. The number of cases with bilateral and unilateral blindness and low vision is shown as a percentage of the total number of prevalent and incident cases with blindness and low vision per refractive error category. For data of visual impairment as a percentage of the entire population, see Table 1.

Abbreviations: D = diopters.

Kaplan Meier curves showing cumulative risk of visual impairment for high myopia, emmetropia and high hyperopia appear in Figure 3. Cumulative risks ranged from virtually 0 in all refractive error categories at age 55 to 9.5% (standard error (se) 0.01) for emmetropia, 15.3% (se 0.06) for high hyperopia to 33.7% (se 0.08) for high myopia, at age 85. Risks for high myopia started to increase gradually before age 60; for high hyperopia between 60 and 70 years of age, whereas emmetropia

showed a more steady increase in risk from the age of 70. Cumulative risks for persons with low to moderate myopia and hyperopia were not significantly different from persons with emmetropia (P 0.09; P 0.78). Kaplan Meier curves for US criteria can be found in Figure 4 (available at <http://aaojournal.org>). Cumulative risks ranged from virtually 0 in all refractive error categories at age 55 to 28.9% (standard error (se) 0.03) for emmetropia, 41.5% (se 0.08) for high hyperopia to 59.2% (se 0.08) for high myopia, at age 85.

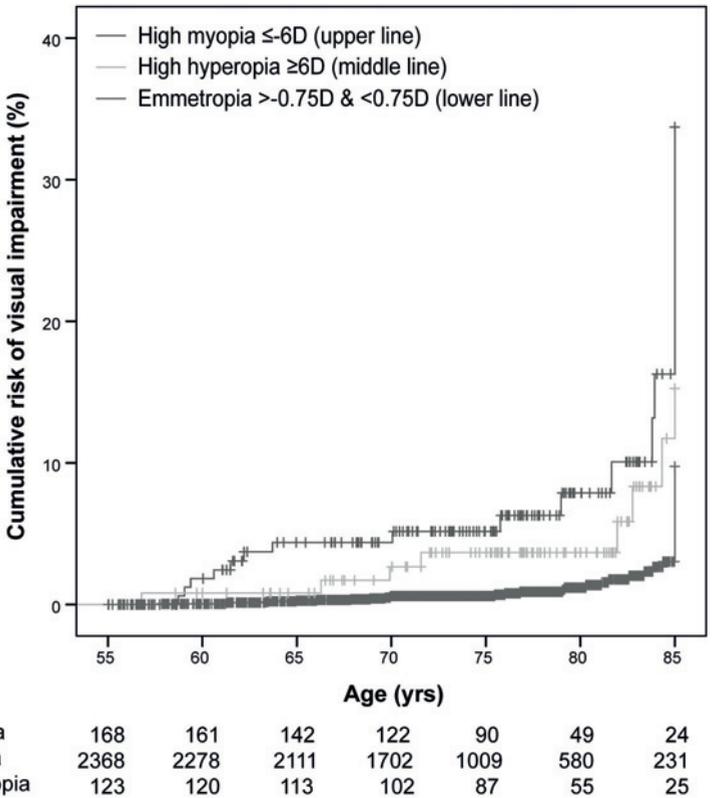
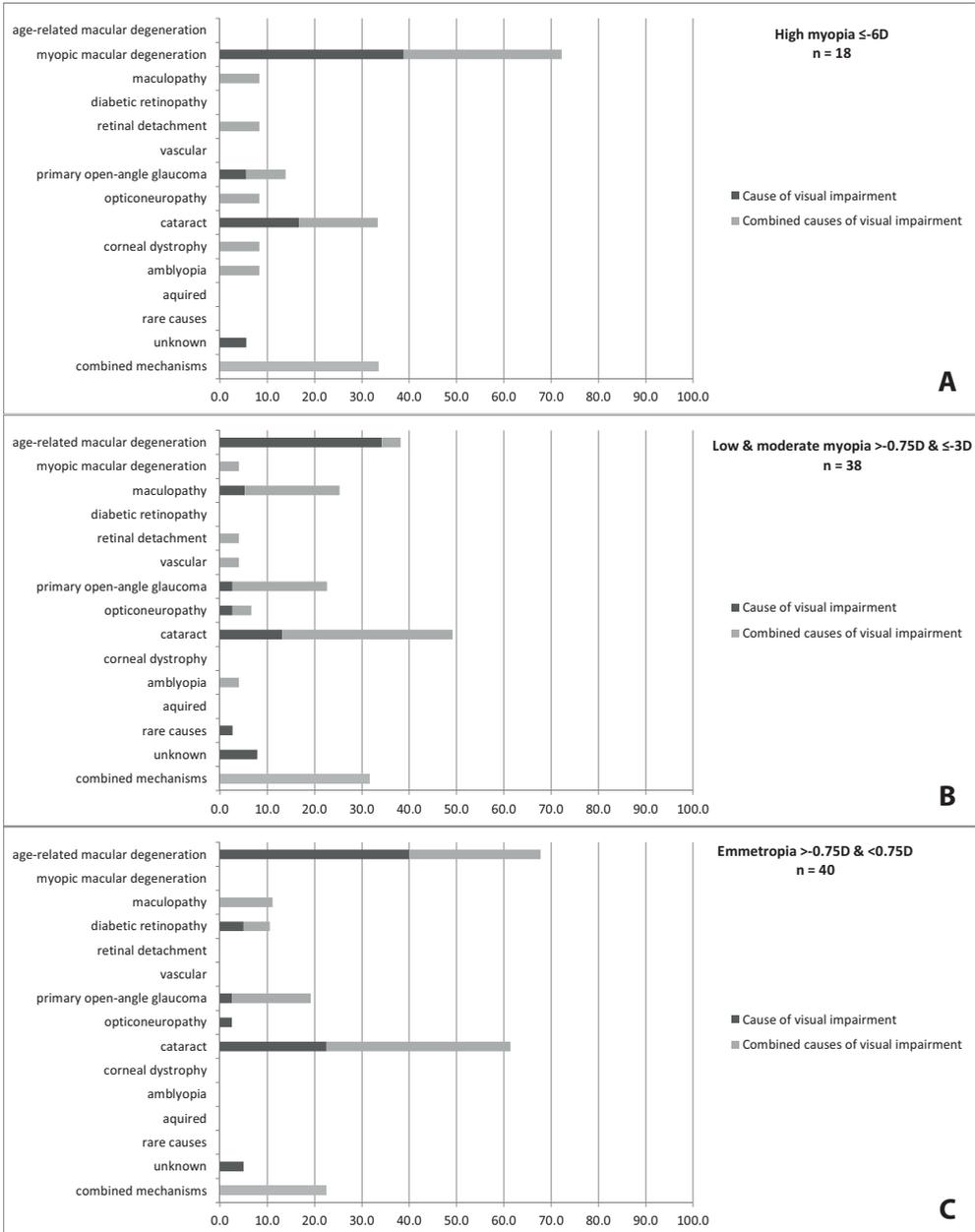


FIGURE 3 - Cumulative risk of bilateral visual impairment (WHO criteria) stratified for high myopia, emmetropia and high hyperopia. The X-axis represents the age at diagnosis for all cases with blindness or low vision at the end point of the study and age at last examination for non-cases; the Y-axis represents the cumulative risk for persons with visual impairment. The number of persons at risk at each decade per refractive error category is presented below.

Abbreviations: D = Diopters.

The causes of bilateral visual impairment according to WHO criteria are provided in Figure 5. For persons with emmetropia, low to moderate myopia, and low to moderate hyperopia, AMD was the major cause of visual impairment. The most important cause of visual impairment in high myopic persons was myopic macular degeneration (38.9%), followed by combined mechanisms (33.3, including myopic macular degeneration, cataract, and maculopathy) and cataract (16.7%). In highly

hyperopic persons, the major causes of visual impairment were AMD (25%), cataract (25.0%), and combined causes (25%, including amblyopia, corneal dystrophy, cataract, maculopathy, age-related macular degeneration).



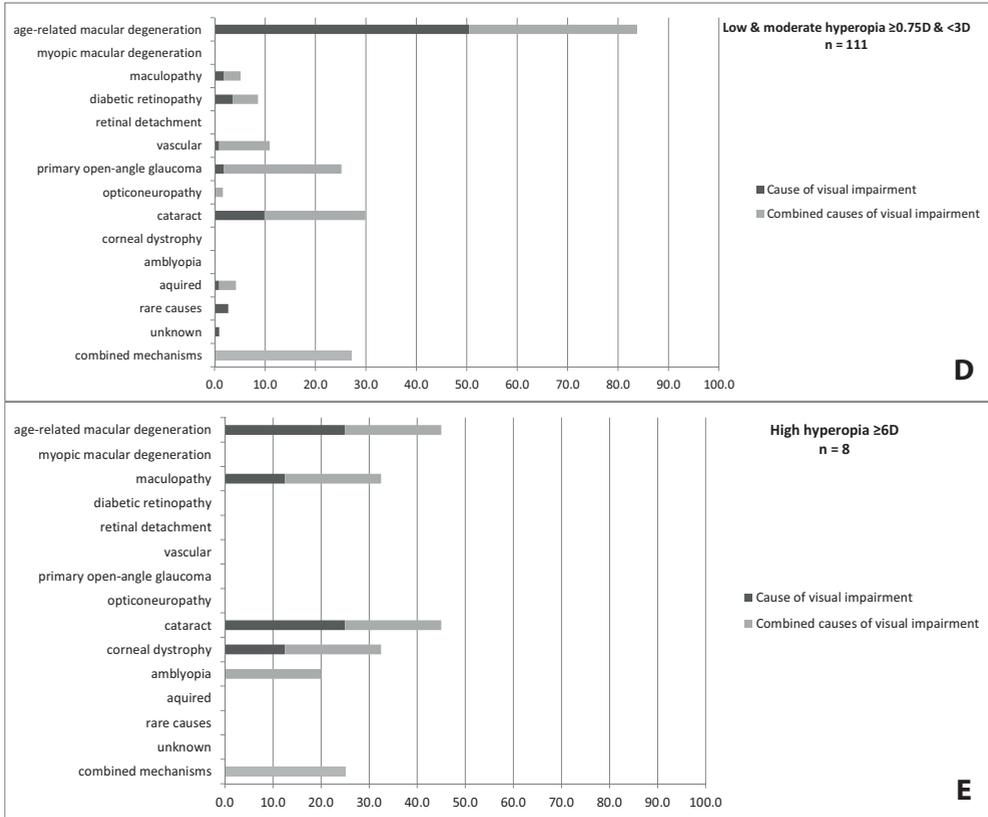


FIGURE 5 - Causes of bilateral low vision and blindness (WHO criteria) stratified by refractive error category. The X-axis represents the percentage of visual impairment explained by the different causes mentioned on the Y-axis stratified by subjects with high myopia (A), low & moderate myopia (B), emmetropia (C), low & moderate hyperopia (D) and high hyperopia (E).

Abbreviations: D = diopters, NA = not applicable, WHO = World health organization.

The age at diagnosis of visual impairment for persons with high myopia (75.4 ± 13.7 yrs) and high hyperopia (75.4 ± 10.0 yrs) was slightly, albeit non significantly, lower than for persons with emmetropia (80.3 ± 11.0 yrs; $P = 0.152$; and $P = 0.250$, respectively).

Boxplots of the SE distribution among visually impaired participants with high myopia and high hyperopia are provided in Figure 6. Among the high myopes, persons with bilateral blindness ($SE = -15.25 \pm 5.23$ D; $P = 0.034$) and low vision ($SE = -10.91 \pm 2.57$ D, $P = 0.0036$) had a significantly lower SE (i.e. more myopia) than persons with normal vision ($SE = -8.25 \pm 2.59$ D). In the other refractive error groups, no statistical SE differences were found between the visual acuity categories (data not shown). The risk of blindness or low vision for high myopes versus emmetropes was OR 3.4 (95% CI 1.4-8.2, $P < 0.001$) for those with $SE \leq -6$ D & ≥ -10 D, and OR 22.0 (95% CI 9.2-52.6, $P < 0.01$) for those with $SE < -10$ D (Figure 7).

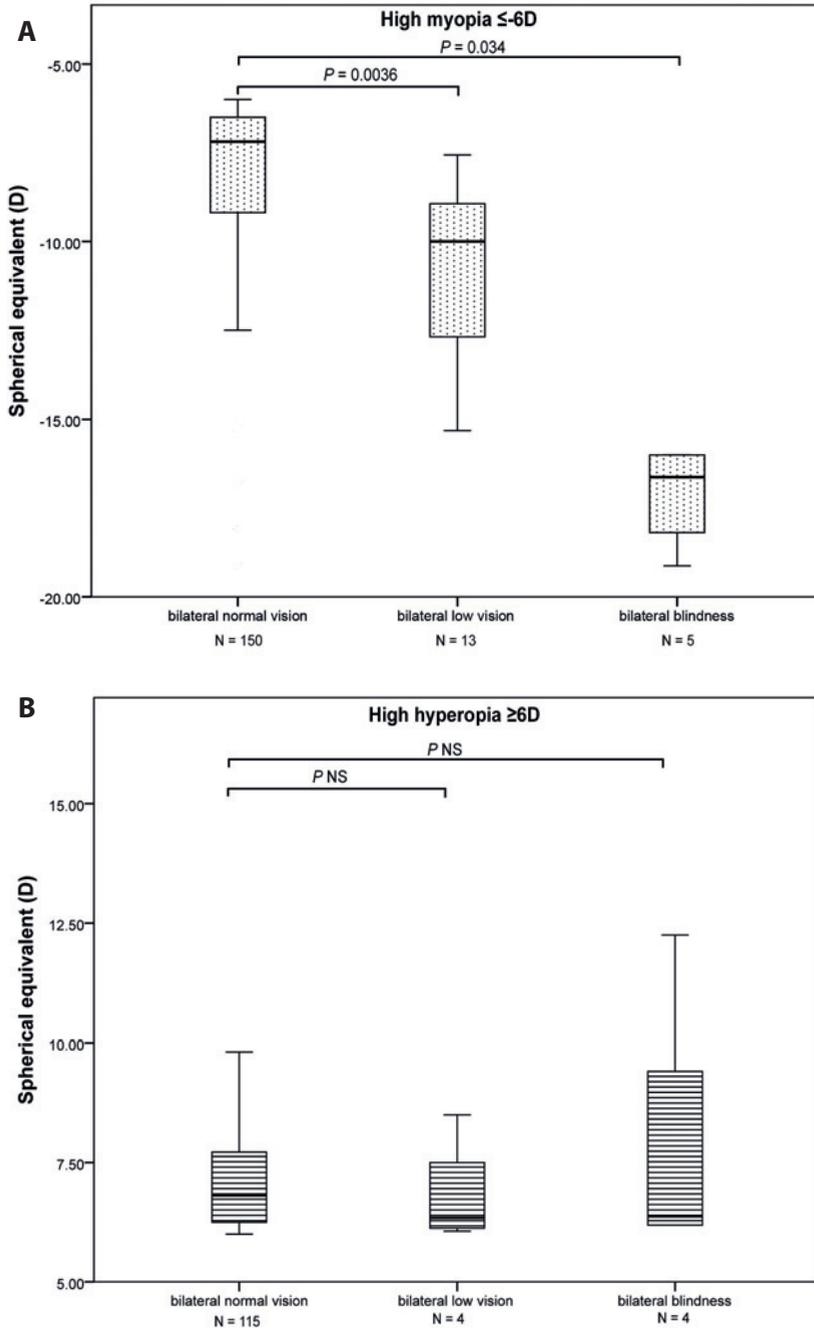


FIGURE 6 - Distribution of spherical equivalent in relation to bilateral visual impairment (WHO criteria) in participants with high myopia (A) and high hyperopia (B). Boxplots for the distribution of spherical equivalent stratified by bilateral blindness, bilateral low vision and normal vision (based on WHO criteria) for all subjects with high myopia SE $\leq -6D$ (A) and high hyperopia $\geq 6D$ (B).

Abbreviations: D= diopters, NS = not significant, WHO= World Health Organisation

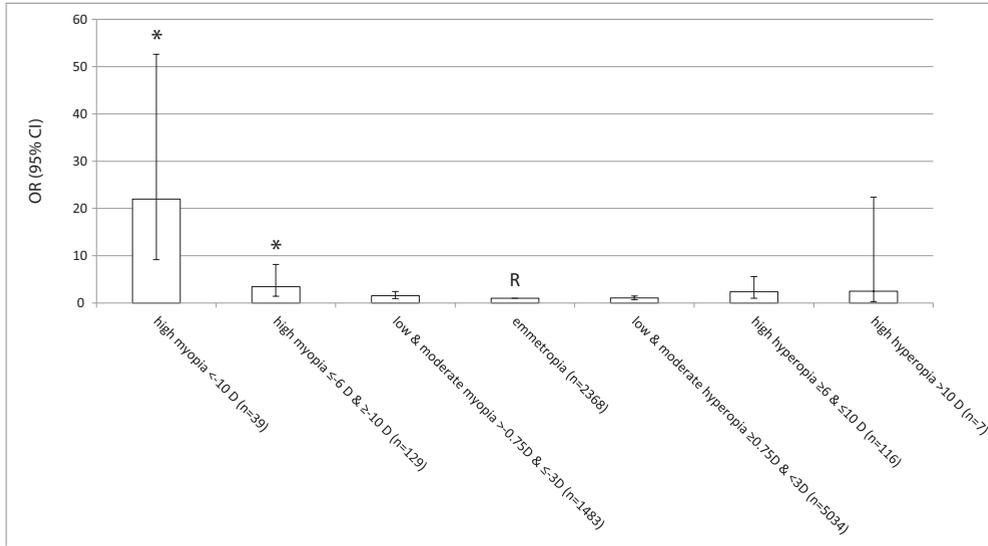


FIGURE 7 - Risk of bilateral blindness and low vision (WHO criteria) for high myopes. Odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals for blindness and low vision (reference normal vision) for persons with high myopia with SE $\le -6\text{ D}$ & $\ge -10\text{ D}$ or SE $< -10\text{ D}$ (reference emmetropia) are shown.

Abbreviations: CI = Confidence Interval, D = Diopters, OR = Odds Ratio, R = reference, WHO = World Health Organisation; *, statistically significant OR ($P < 0.05$) compared to the reference group

DISCUSSION

In this population-based longitudinal study, we found that persons with high myopia ($SE \le -6\text{ D}$) and high hyperopia ($SE \ge 6\text{ D}$) are at a considerable risk of visual impairment. Blindness or low vision occurred in one third of high myopes, mainly caused by myopic macular degeneration. The blind and visually impaired persons within this group had a higher degree of myopia than the ones with normal vision; the risk of visual impairment was 22x increased for those with refractive errors of -10 D or more when compared to emmetropes, but also 6x higher than those with refractive errors between -6 and -10 D . The onset of visual impairment appeared to occur at a younger age; cumulative risks of visual impairment rose at least 10 years earlier for high myopia (before the age of 60) than for emmetropia (from the age of 70). For high hyperopia, we found that 15% of the persons were visually impaired. Causes of visual impairment for this refractive error showed more variation, and included cataract, AMD, and combined mechanisms.

This is the first report on refractive error specific risks and causes of blindness and low vision. Strengths of this study are the investigation of the full spectrum of refractive errors, the large sample size, and the lengthy follow-up time. In addition, our ophthalmic examination was extensive, which enabled an accurate determination of the cause of visual impairment. Our study also had limitations. Despite the large sample size, subgroup numbers were relatively small, jeopardizing precision of the risk estimates. Also, we focused on causes of visual impairment in persons with bilateral low vision, and did not study those with unilateral visual impairment. Therefore, we may have missed refractive error specific causes of visual impairment that are more likely to occur unilaterally, such

as rhegmatogenous retinal detachment¹⁸, and closed-angle glaucoma¹⁹ in (high) myopes and amblyopia in (high) hyperopes. Lastly, selective non-participation of disabled persons may have caused an underestimation of the frequencies of blindness and visual impairment.

Our findings are in line with results from previous studies that showed a highly increased risk for high myopes ($SE \leq -6D$).^{8,20} Except for one person with moderate myopia, all persons with myopic macular degeneration were highly myopic. Those with extreme refractive error values of $\geq -10 D$ had the highest risk of visual impairment. We could not confirm the previously described mildly increased risk of visual impairment for persons with low to moderate myopia.^{8,20}

Myopia is a growing public health problem since the prevalence is rapidly increasing, particularly in East Asia.¹¹⁻¹³ With time, this trend is predicted to occur in other regions as well, and the increase in myopia and high myopia prevalence will result in a higher frequency of complications. Atropine eyedrops can currently be used as a therapy in children to slow the progression of myopia and decrease the final adult value of myopic refractive error.²¹ Our data underscore the objective of this therapy, because realisation of a lower refractive error will lower the risk of visual impairment later in life.²²

It was previously shown that clinically significant pathological changes can be noted in highly myopic patients who are middle-aged or even younger.^{23,24} Our mean age at diagnosis of visual impairment is likely to be overestimated, since we included persons over age 55 years with visual impairment at baseline; baseline age was 69 years for RS-I and 64.1 years for RS-II. We did not have information on the actual age of onset of visual impairment occurring before this age.

The frequency of visual impairment in the high hyperopia group was relatively high. The number of cases with blindness or low vision in this group was very small ($n = 8$). Also, the proportion of high hyperopes in our older study sample was quite large, so these data are not necessarily applicable to the general population. Previous research has mainly focused on high myopia rather than on high hyperopia, but our results at least show that high hyperopia should be subject to further studies as well. Cataract was an important cause of visual impairment in all refractive error categories. This may be an overestimation of the current situation, since the majority of the data had been collected in the 1990's, and since then cataract surgery has become a more easily accessible and safer procedure. Several studies showed an increased incidence of nuclear cataract and subcapsular posterior cataract in high myopes.²⁵ We considered whether the exclusion of pseudophakic and aphakic persons might have introduced a selection bias and an underestimation of the risks of visual impairment in high myopic persons in our study. This does not seem to be the case, since only 2 out of 287 excluded participants (0.7%) with pseudophakia or aphakia were blind or visually impaired due to myopic macular degeneration diagnosed on the fundus photograph.

In summary, our data indicate that risks and causes of visual impairment vary with refractive error. The risks for high myopes are by far the highest with more than 1 in 3 persons with high myopia developing bilateral blindness or low vision. This large health risk requires public awareness and a focus to initiate strategies to reduce this burden in those at risk of myopia.

REFERENCES

1. Pizzarello, L. *et al.* VISION 2020: The Right to Sight: a global initiative to eliminate avoidable blindness. *Arch Ophthalmol* 122, 615-20 (2004).
2. Wojciechowski, R. Nature and nurture: the complex genetics of myopia and refractive error. *Clin Genet* 79, 301-20 (2011).
3. Kempen, J.H. *et al.* The prevalence of refractive errors among adults in the United States, Western Europe, and Australia. *Arch Ophthalmol* 122, 495-505 (2004).
4. Curtin, B.J. & Karlin, D.B. Axial length measurements and fundus changes of the myopic eye. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1, 42-53 (1971).
5. Saw, S.M. How blinding is pathological myopia? *Br J Ophthalmol* 90, 525-6 (2006).
6. Tano, Y. Pathologic myopia: where are we now? *Am J Ophthalmol* 134, 645-60 (2002).
7. Saw, S.M., Gazzard, G., Shih-Yen, E.C. & Chua, W.H. Myopia and associated pathological complications. *Ophthalmic Physiol Opt* 25, 381-91 (2005).
8. Vongphanit, J., Mitchell, P. & Wang, J.J. Prevalence and progression of myopic retinopathy in an older population. *Ophthalmology* 109, 704-11 (2002).
9. Flitcroft, D.I. The complex interactions of retinal, optical and environmental factors in myopia aetiology. *Prog Retin Eye Res* 31, 622-60 (2012).
10. Pan, C.W. *et al.* Refractive errors and age-related macular degeneration: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ophthalmology* 120, 2058-65 (2013).
11. Bar Dayan, Y. *et al.* The changing prevalence of myopia in young adults: a 13-year series of population-based prevalence surveys. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 46, 2760-5 (2005).
12. Vitale, S., Ellwein, L., Cotch, M.F., Ferris, F.L., 3rd & Sperduto, R. Prevalence of refractive error in the United States, 1999-2004. *Arch Ophthalmol* 126, 1111-9 (2008).
13. Morgan, I.G., Ohno-Matsui, K. & Saw, S.M. Myopia. *Lancet* 379, 1739-48 (2012).
14. Hofman, A. *et al.* The Rotterdam Study: 2014 objectives and design update. *Eur J Epidemiol* 28, 889-926 (2013).
15. *ETDRS Research Group Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy Study (ETDRS) Manual of Operations 1-74* (National Technical Information Service, Springfield, VA, 1985).
16. *World Health Organization. International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, Tenth Revision*, (World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, 2004).
17. Verhoeven, V.J. *et al.* Education influences the role of genetics in myopia. *Eur J Epidemiol* (2013).
18. Polkinghorne, P.J. & Craig, J.P. Analysis of symptoms associated with rhegmatogenous retinal detachments. *Clin Experiment Ophthalmol* 32, 603-6 (2004).
19. Barkana, Y. *et al.* Angle closure in Caucasians--a pilot, general ophthalmology clinic-based study. *J Glaucoma* 21, 337-41 (2012).
20. Gao, L.Q. *et al.* Prevalence and characteristics of myopic retinopathy in a rural Chinese adult population: the Handan Eye Study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 129, 1199-204 (2011).
21. Song, Y.Y. *et al.* Atropine in ameliorating the progression of myopia in children with mild to moderate myopia: a meta-analysis of controlled clinical trials. *J Ocul Pharmacol Ther* 27, 361-8 (2011).
22. Chia, A. *et al.* Atropine for the treatment of childhood myopia: safety and efficacy of 0.5%, 0.1%, and 0.01% doses (Atropine for the Treatment of Myopia 2). *Ophthalmology* 119, 347-54 (2012).
23. Klaver, C.C., Wolfs, R.C., Vingerling, J.R., Hofman, A. & de Jong, P.T. Age-specific prevalence and causes of blindness and visual impairment in an older population: the Rotterdam Study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 116, 653-8 (1998).
24. Cohen, S.Y., Laroche, A., Leguen, Y., Soubrane, G. & Coscas, G.J. Etiology of choroidal neovascularization in young patients. *Ophthalmology* 103, 1241-4 (1996).
25. Kanthan, G.L., Mitchell, P., Burlutsky, G. & Wang, J.J. Alcohol consumption and the long-term incidence of cataract and cataract surgery: the Blue Mountains Eye Study. *Am J Ophthalmol* 150, 434-440 e1 (2010).



Chapter 3.1

Epidemiology of reticular pseudodrusen in age-related macular degeneration: The Rotterdam Study

Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk, Ada J Hooghart, Corina Brussee, Paulus T.V.M. de Jong, Albert Hofman, Johannes R. Vingerling*, Caroline C.W. Klaver*

* These authors contributed equally.

Published in *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2016 Oct 1;57(13):5593-5601. doi: 10.1167/iops.15-18816. PMID: 27768796

Supplementary material available at:

<http://iovs.arvojournals.org/article.aspx?articleid=2572640&resultClick=1>

ABSTRACT

Purpose Reticular pseudodrusen (RPD) are considered to be a distinct feature in age-related macular degeneration (AMD). Population studies have studied the epidemiology of RPD using standard color fundus photographs (CFP). However, recent studies have shown that RPD are better imaged using near-infrared (NIR) imaging. We studied the epidemiology of RPD in a large population-based study using NIR and CFP.

Methods Participants aged 65+ years from the Rotterdam Study underwent ophthalmological examination including NIR and CFP. Both images were graded for the presence of RPD and soft indistinct drusen (SID). Associations with demographic and environmental factors, 26 genetic variants, and total genetic risk score were analyzed using logistic regression analysis.

Results RPD were detected in 137 (4.9%) of 2,774 study participants; of these, 92.7% were detected with NIR imaging and 38% on CFP. The majority of eyes with RPD showed presence of SID, while other drusen types coincided less frequently. RPD were significantly associated with age (Odds Ratio (OR) 1.21 (95% Confidence Interval (CI) 1.17-1.24)) and female sex (OR 2.10 (95% CI 1.41-3.13)). Environmental factors did not show a significant association with RPD. Major AMD risk variants were significantly associated with RPD and SID, however, *ARMS2*, *C3* and *VEGFA* were more associated with RPD (RPD vs SID $P < 0.05$). Total genetic risk score did not differ significantly ($P = 0.88$).

Conclusion Detection of RPD was better with NIR imaging than on CFP in a population-based setting. Presence of RPD often coincided with presence of SID, however, they showed quantitative differences in genetic risk profile.

INTRODUCTION

Reticular pseudodrusen (RPD), also known as subretinal drusenoid deposits (SDD), are depositions located in the subretinal space between the outer segments of the photoreceptors and the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE).¹⁻³ RPD carry a much higher risk of developing end-stage AMD than other AMD lesions, such as soft indistinct drusen (SID).⁴⁻⁷ RPD have first been described in 1990 and it was already then pointed out that RPD are better visualized using blue reflectance photography than regular color fundus photographs (CFP).⁸ RPD can also be detected using other imaging modalities. A comparative study between various image modalities showed that near-infrared imaging is one of the image modalities that has the highest sensitivity for RPD detection⁹, and that sensitivity of RPD detected only on CFP can be as low as 36%.¹⁰

Several risk factors have been identified for RPD, which include age, smoking, higher body mass index, female predominance, and genetic risk factors including *CFH*(Y402H) and *ARMS2*(A69S).^{4,6,7,11-13} Previous studies have shown that RPD were present in 60-90% of patients with late AMD.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ Boddu et al. studied risk profiles of RPD versus large soft drusen in a small clinic-based study.¹³ These researchers could not find many significant differences between these patient groups, however, individuals with RPD were older and more often female.

Since the population-based studies on RPD have based their grading solely on CFP, and the clinic-based studies were carried out only in small groups, risk estimates are likely to be imprecise.¹¹ Improved detection of RPD in a large population-based study may provide more accurate prevalence figures, and could enhance risk profiling for RPD.

In this study, we aimed to investigate the epidemiology of RPD using CFP and NIR images and compare this with SID in a large, unselected population. We have chosen to use the term RPD instead of SDD, since this is more commonly used in clinical-based papers. However, where RPD is written SDD can be read.

METHODS

Study population

The Rotterdam Study is a prospective population-based cohort study that focuses on chronic ophthalmologic, neurologic, cardiovascular, and locomotor diseases in middle aged and elderly subjects living in Ommoord, a suburb of Rotterdam. The aims and design of the Rotterdam study have been described elaborately elsewhere.¹⁷ In brief, the study started in 1989 and since then every 2-4 years follow-up examinations were performed. During these follow-up examinations new techniques and devices were implied, such as the Heidelberg Retina Angiograph 2, a scanning laser ophthalmoscope (SLO). The Rotterdam Study has been approved by the Medical Ethics Committee of the Erasmus MC and by the Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sport of the Netherlands, implementing the "Wet Bevolkingsonderzoek: ERGO (Population Studies Act: Rotterdam Study)". All participants provided written informed consent to participate in the study and to obtain information from their treating physicians.

For the current cross-sectional analysis, we included 3,108 participants from the last examination round from two independent cohorts of the Rotterdam Study; 1,542 participants from the Rotterdam Study I (RS-I), aged 70 years and older and 1,566 participants from the Rotterdam Study II (RS-II), aged 65 years and older. Participants were excluded from the analyses if they had ungradable CFP (N=17)

or ungradable NIR images (N=68). Since the Heidelberg Retina Angiograph 2 was operational a few weeks after the start of the examination round an additional 266 participants were excluded from the study due to absence of NIR images. From these two cohorts, 2,774 participants with gradable CFP and gradable NIR imaging were eligible for analysis.

Grading of AMD, SID and RPD

All eligible participants underwent 35° digital CFP of the macula (Topcon TRC-50EX, Topcon Optical Company, Tokyo, Japan with a Sony DXC-950P digital camera; 0.44 megapixel, Sony Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) after pharmacologic mydriasis. Next, NIR images, ($\lambda=820$ nm) 30°x30° of the macula, were taken with a Heidelberg Retina Angiograph 2 (Heidelberg engineering, Heidelberg, Germany).

CFP were graded for presence of all AMD-related features according to the Wisconsin Age-Related Maculopathy Grading¹⁸ and Rotterdam classification (for definition see Table 1), a modified International Classification System, using the standard grading grid for AMD (central circle 1000 μm , inner circle 3000 μm and outer circle 6000 μm in diameter).^{19,20} In short, the Rotterdam classification consists of 5 grades with grade 0 defined as no AMD, grade 1 as preliminary early AMD, grade 2 and 3 together as Early AMD and grade 4 as Late AMD. SID were defined as yellow lesions with indistinct borders and $\geq 125\mu\text{m}$ in size. These type of soft drusen are associated with a higher risk of developing advanced AMD compared to soft distinct drusen.²⁰ RPD were defined as indistinct yellowish lesions interlacing in networks 125-250 μm in width.^{18,19}

NIR images of the macula were graded based on the presence of RPD, detectable as groups of hyporeflectant lesions against a mildly hyper-reflectant background in regular patterns.^{9,10,21,22} Since SID and other drusen types are less visible on NIR imaging, these lesions were not graded on NIR, only on CFP.

On CFP, RPD and/or SID were graded in and outside the ETDRS grading grid. On NIR, RPD was graded if present on the image, this equals grading in and outside the ETDRS grid on CFP.

All images were graded by trained graders, while being masked for the grading of the other image modality, under the supervision of senior retinal specialists (P.T.V.M.d.J., J.R.V., C.C.W.K.). Between grader comparisons were assessed. For drusen grading on CFP, the weighted κ values ranged from 0.60 for hard drusen to 0.82 for soft distinct drusen. For RPD grading on CFP, the κ value was 0.72. For NIR imaging, this κ value was 0.84. The eyes of each participant were graded and classified separately, and the eye with the more severe grade was used to classify the person.

Genotyping and selection of genetic variables

Genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral blood leukocytes. All study participants in the RS-I were genotyped with the Illumina Infinium II HumanHap550 array or Taqman assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Study participants from the RS-II were genotyped with the Illumina Human610-Quad array. HapMap CEU data (release #22) was used for imputation. Genetic variables associated with AMD were selected based on previous publications.^{23,24}

Risk score Three Continent AMD Consortium prediction model

The Three Continent AMD Consortium (3CC) developed a validated prediction model including a total risk score based on 31 variables; 26 genetic variants associated with AMD, age, sex, smoking, BMI, and AMD phenotype.²³ The total risk score was based on the sum of the beta coefficients from a

Cox proportional hazard analysis, which included all the selected variables. In this analysis we used the total genetic risk score, which is a variant of the total risk score and has been calculated using only the beta coefficients from the genetic variables of the 3CC prediction model.

Assessment of nongenetic variables

Information on the history of diabetes mellitus, education level and cigarette smoking were derived from computerized questionnaires administered during home interviews. Smoking was categorized in never, past and current smokers. Blood pressure, systolic and diastolic, was calculated as the average of two consecutive measurements, using a random-zero mercury sphygmomanometer. Hypertension was defined as having a systolic blood pressure ≥ 140 mmHg or a diastolic blood pressure ≥ 90 mmHg or using anti-hypertensive medication at baseline. Cholesterol, high density lipoprotein (HDL) and triglycerides were measured at baseline by the Central Clinical Chemical Laboratory of the Erasmus University Medical Center. A subgroup of measurements was carried out in the laboratory of the Department of Epidemiology & Biostatistics, Erasmus University Medical Center. Body-mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight kilograms divided by height squared in meters. Waist circumference and hip circumference were measured in centimeters.

Statistical analysis

Prevalence of RPD as a function of age was calculated per image modality. The prevalence of Early AMD based on CFP diagnosis of AMD lesions was compared with the prevalence of Early AMD based on both NIR and CFP grading.

We investigated the association with demographic, genetic and environmental variables using various outcomes: soft indistinct drusen versus no drusen; RPD versus no drusen, and RPD versus soft indistinct drusen. Outcomes were binary and the association was assessed with logistic regression analysis. Total genetic risk scores were calculated for each individual using only the genetic variables from the 3CC prediction model. Risk scores were grouped and stratified for RPD, SID and no RPD/SID; strata were compared using Chi-Square statistic test. Analyses investigating concurrence of drusen types were eye-based, all other analyses were person-based, which were eye based. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS version 21 (SPSS IBM, New York, U.S.A).

RESULTS

RPD were detected in 137 (4.9%) of 2,774 study participants, of which 52 (38.0%) were identified on CFP and 127 (92.7%) on NIR imaging (numbers do not add up to 100% due to overlap). RPD were mostly present from age 70 years onwards (Figure 1) and were bilaterally present in 69.3%. Only one person had been diagnosed with RPD at the age of 64.0 years, and RPD were visible on CFP as well as on NIR imaging. Frequency of RPD increased per age category, however, the steep rise in those aged 90+ years was most pronounced when RPD were diagnosed on NIR imaging.

In the Rotterdam classification system, RPD are part of the criteria for staging. To investigate how much the improved detection of RPD by NIR imaging influenced AMD prevalence, we classified each person using the two gradings, one solely based on CFP and the other based on CFP and NIR imaging. Inclusion of the NIR imaging increased the prevalence of Early AMD (stage 2 & 3) from 19% to 20.5% (Table 1).

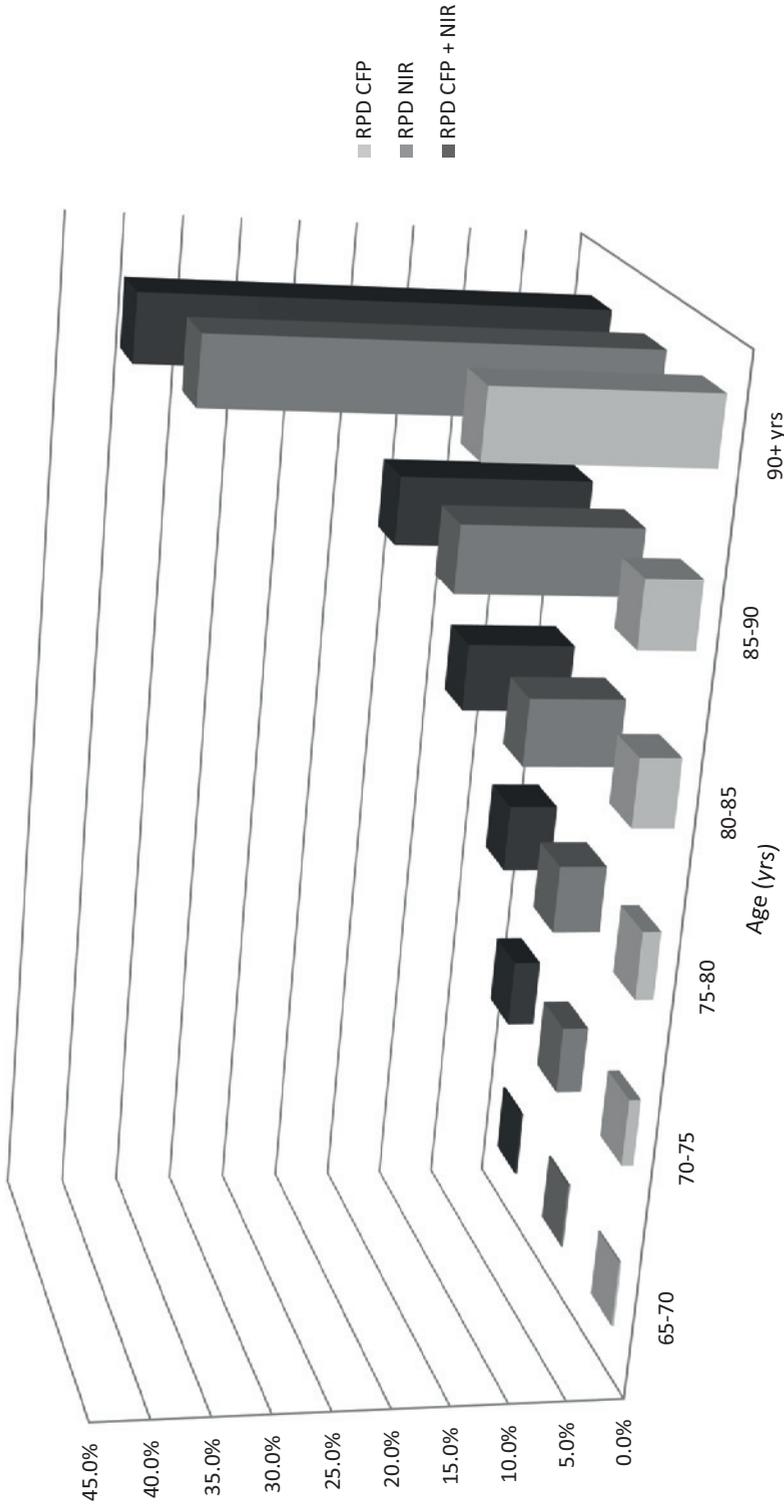


FIGURE 1 - Reticular pseudodrusen detection with color fundus photographs and near-infrared imaging. Frequency of reticular pseudodrusen was plotted per age category for the different imaging types: color fundus photographs, near-infrared imaging and both imaging types combined. X-axis: age category in years, y-axis: percentages. Abbreviations: CFP = Color fundus photographs, NIR = near-infrared imaging, yrs = years

TABLE 1 - Prevalence per AMD severity grade according to the Rotterdam Classification based on color fundus photographs only versus color fundus photographs and near-infrared imaging

Grade	Definition	Grading CFP N=2774	Grading CFP + NIR N=2774
0	No signs of AMD at all OR hard drusen (< 63 µm) only	42.70%	42.30%
1	Soft distinct drusen (≥ 63 µm) only OR pigmentary abnormalities only	36.10%	35.00%
2	Soft indistinct drusen (≥ 125 µm) / reticular drusen only OR soft distinct drusen (≥ 63 µm) AND pigmentary abnormalities	13.60%	14.50%
3	Soft indistinct (≥ 125 µm) / reticular drusen AND pigmentary abnormalities	5.40%	6.00%
4	Atrophic, neovascular or mixed AMD	2.20%	2.20%

Abbreviations: AMD = age-related macular degeneration, CFP = color fundus photographs, NIR = near-infrared imaging

We then investigated the number and type of other drusen present in eyes with RPD (N=232) (Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 1). We performed this analysis for drusen within and outside the grid. The majority of eyes with RPD had SID, both within and outside the grid. These eyes also presented with other types of drusen, but they were less frequent compared to SID. Of eyes with RPD, only 14 eyes (6.0% of eyes with RPD) did not have any type of soft drusen, and 9 eyes (3.9% of eyes with RPD) had no other type of drusen at all. Of these, the contralateral eye of 2 persons had drusen. Only 5 persons with RPD had no drusen at all, not even in the contralateral eye.

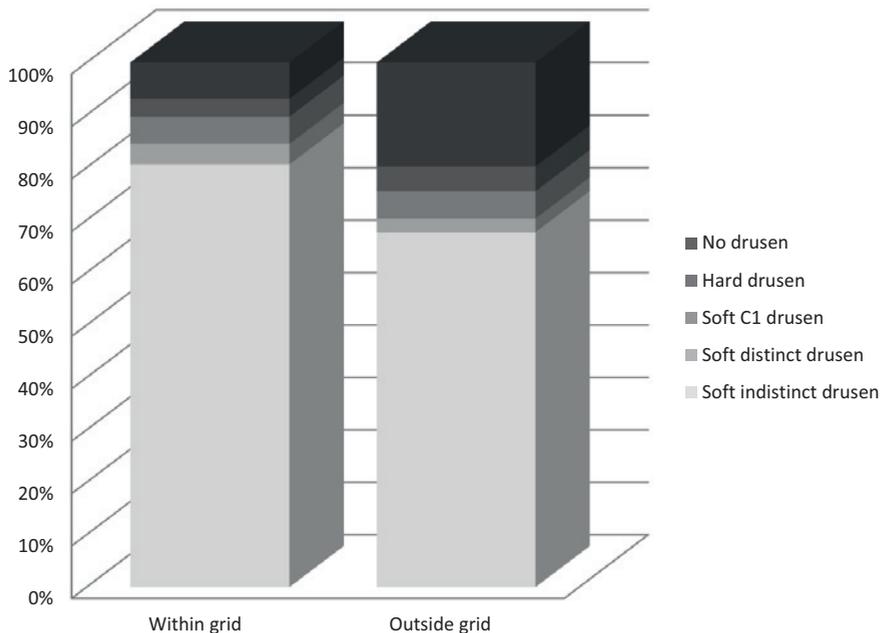
**FIGURE 2** - Frequency of other drusen types in eyes with reticular pseudodrusen. Other drusen types coinciding with reticular pseudodrusen. Grading based on most severe drusen type, beside reticular pseudodrusen, on color fundus photographs, according to the Wisconsin Age-Related Maculopathy Grading. Frequencies of other drusen types were stratified for drusen presence within and outside the grading grid.

Table 2 shows the frequency of characteristics between persons with SID, RPD, and those without SID or RPD. Table 3 shows the associations of these characteristics with SID only, with RPD, and with RPD versus SID. The odds ratio represents the risk for a certain parameter on a drusen type (RPD or SID) in reference to the other drusen type or to absence of RPD/SID. Both SID and RPD were associated with age (OR 1.09 (95% CI 1.06-1.11) and OR 1.21 (95% CI 1.17-1.24)), respectively. For SID there was no association with sex (OR 1.02 (95% CI 0.77-1.34)) while occurrence of RPD was strongly associated with female sex (OR 2.10 (95% CI 1.41-3.13)). HDL cholesterol (OR 1.83 (95% CI 1.30-2.59)) and triglycerides (OR 0.66 (95% CI 0.51-0.86)) in serum were both significantly associated with SID, but not with RPD. No other demographic or environmental risk factors were significantly associated with SID or RPD. Table 4 shows the association of RPD/SID with genetic factors. Genetic variants in the *CFH* gene (rs1061170, rs12144939, rs800292), the *ARMS2* gene (rs10490924) and the *C2/CFB* gene (rs641153) were significantly associated with both drusen types. A variant in the *IER3/DDR1* gene (OR 2.54 [95% CI 1.32-4.86] for rs3130783, GG vs AA) was only associated with SID, while a variant in the *C3* gene (OR 1.61 (95% CI 1.08-2.40)) for rs22130199, CG vs CC) was only associated with RPD. Two variants were significantly more associated with RPD than SID. These included the variant in the *ARMS2* gene (OR 2.48 (95% CI 1.001-6.17) for rs10490924, TT vs GG) and a variant in the *VEGFA* gene (OR 2.00 (95% CI 1.05-3.8) for rs943080, CT vs CC). Genetic risk score frequencies did not differ significantly between SID and RPD ($P = 0.88$, Chi-Square test) (Supplementary Table 1).

TABLE 2 - Frequency of clinical parameters stratified for drusen type

Variables	No RPD/SID N=2416	SID N=221	RPD N=137
Age, yrs (sd)	75.0 (5.6)	77.8 (6.2)	82.1 (6.2)
Sex, % females	54.6	54.8	71.5
Education, %			
< 12 years	26.8	23.3	29.1
≥ 12 years	73.2	76.7	70.9
Smoking, %			
never	31.2	32.1	37
past	57	57	48.9
current	11.9	10.9	14.1
Diabetes Mellitus, %	13	12.4	13
Hypertension, %	86	86.8	89.7
Systolic bloodpressure, mmHg (sd)	152.3 (21.4)	154.0 (21.4)	154.0 (23.7)
Diastolic bloodpressure, mmHg (sd)	85.2 (11.0)	85.9 (11.1)	85.3 (13.3)
Cholesterol, mmol/l (sd)	5.4 (1.1)	5.4 (0.9)	5.3 (1.1)
HDL cholesterol, mmol/l (sd)	1.5 (0.4)	1.6 (0.4)	1.5 (0.4)
Triglycerides, mmol/l (sd)	1.4 (0.7)	1.3 (0.6)	1.4 (0.8)
BMI, kg/m ²	27.5 (4.1)	27.1 (4.1)	27.2 (3.9)
Waist circumference, cm (sd)	93.7 (12.0)	92.0 (11.7)	91.5 (11.0)
Hip circumference, cm (sd)	102.9 (8.2)	102.6 (9.3)	102.6 (8.7)

Abbreviations: BMI= body mass index, HDL = high density lipoprotein, LDL= low density lipoprotein, RPD = reticular pseudodrusen, sd = standard deviation, SID = soft indistinct drusen

TABLE 3 - Comparison of clinical parameters among drusen types

Variables	SID vs no RPD/SID OR (95% CI) age and sex adjusted	RPD vs no RPD/SID OR (95% CI) age and sex adjusted	RPD vs SID OR (95% CI) age and sex adjusted
Age*	1.09 (1.06-1.11)	1.21 (1.17-1.24)	1.12 (1.07-1.16)
Sex **			
male	1	1	1
female	1.02 (0.77-1.34)	2.10 (1.41-3.13)	2.16 (1.34-3.49)
Education			
< 12 years	1	1	1
≥ 12 years	1.31 (0.93-1.83)	1.24 (0.82-1.89)	0.90 (0.53-1.52)
Smoking			
never	1	1	1
past	0.98 (0.70-1.35)	1.06 (0.69-1.62)	0.97 (0.57-1.65)
current	0.98 (0.60-1.62)	1.77 (0.97-3.23)	1.54 (0.71-3.32)
Diabetes Mellitus			
No	1	1	1
Yes	0.96 (0.59-1.55)	1.05 (0.57-1.94)	1.41 (0.64-3.09)
Hypertension			
No	1	1	1
Yes	0.88 (0.58-1.33)	0.89 (0.49-1.61)	0.91 (0.44-1.89)
Cholesterol, mmol/l	1.06 (0.93-1.21)	0.89 (0.75-1.06)	0.78 (0.61-1.00)
HDL cholesterol, mmol/l	1.83 (1.30-2.59)	1.28 (0.80-2.05)	0.68 (0.39-1.20)
Triglycerides, mmol/l	0.66 (0.51-0.86)	0.95 (0.70-1.28)	1.39 (0.97-1.98)
BMI			
≤ 25 kg/m ²	1	1	1
> 25 kg/m ²	0.83 (0.61-1.11)	1.13 (0.75-1.70)	1.50 (0.90-2.48)
Waist circumference			
≤ 90 cm	1	1	1
> 90 cm	0.82 (0.61-1.11)	1.21 (0.82-1.80)	1.51 (0.93-2.47)
Hip circumference			
≤ 100 cm	1	1	1
> 100 cm	0.87 (0.65-1.15)	1.18 (0.81-1.72)	1.29 (0.81-2.06)

Abbreviations: BMI = body mass index, CI = confidence interval, HDL = high density lipoprotein, LDL = low density lipoprotein
OR = Odds' Ratio, RPD = reticular pseudodrusen, SID = soft indistinct drusen

* Adjusted for sex

** Adjusted for age

TABLE 4 - Genetic risks among drusen types

Genes	SID vs no RPD/SID OR (95% CI) age and sex adjusted	RPD vs no RPD/SID OR (95% CI) age and sex adjusted	RPD vs SID OR (95% CI) age and sex adjusted
<i>CFH</i> (Y402H) rs1061170			
TT	1	1	1
CT	1.65 (1.17-2.34)	1.45 (0.95-2.23)	0.91 (0.52-1.58)
CC	3.84 (2.50-5.90)	2.78 (1.57-4.93)	0.83 (0.42-1.66)
<i>CFH</i> rs12144939			
GG	1	1	1
GT/TT	0.34 (0.23-0.51)	0.28 (0.17-0.47)	0.89 (0.47-1.71)
<i>CFH</i> rs800292			
GG	1	1	1
GA	0.54 (0.39-0.76)	0.55 (0.36-0.84)	0.88 (0.51-1.50)
AA	0.38 (0.17-0.83)	0.30 (0.11-0.87)	0.96 (0.24-3.74)
<i>ARMS2</i> (A69S) rs10490924			
GG	1	1	1
GT	1.81 (1.33-2.47)	2.41 (1.60-3.62)	1.24 (0.75-2.05)
TT	3.25 (1.70-6.20)	7.85 (3.75-16.45)	2.48 (1.001-6.17)
<i>C2/CFB</i> (L9H) rs4151667			
TT	1	1	1
TA/AA	0.65 (0.35-1.19)	0.43 (0.17-1.10)	0.78 (0.25-2.44)
<i>C2/CFB</i> (R32Q) rs641153			
GG	1	1	1
GA/AA	0.56 (0.34-0.90)	0.38 (0.19-0.75)	0.66 (0.29-1.54)
<i>C3</i> (R102G) rs2230199			
CC	1	1	1
CG	1.19 (0.86-1.64)	1.61 (1.08-2.40)	1.32 (0.80-2.19)
GG	1.28 (0.64-2.56)	1.81 (0.80-4.13)	1.18 (0.41-3.40)
<i>C3</i> rs433594			
GG	1	1	1
GA	0.80 (0.58-1.12)	0.84 (0.55-1.28)	1.16 (0.68-1.96)
AA	0.83 (0.52-1.32)	0.94 (0.51-1.71)	1.01 (0.47-2.16)
<i>CFI</i> rs10033900			
CC	1	1	1
CT	1.27 (0.87-1.85)	0.82 (0.52-1.30)	0.68 (0.38-1.24)
TT	1.33 (0.86-2.06)	0.90 (0.52-1.54)	0.62 (0.31-1.24)
<i>LPL</i> rs256			
CC	1	1	1
CT/TT	0.88 (0.62-1.25)	0.75 (0.48-1.19)	0.83 (0.46-1.47)
<i>LIPC</i> rs12912415			
AA	1	1	1
AG/GG	0.90 (0.64-1.26)	0.75 (0.48-1.17)	0.98 (0.56-1.71)
<i>MYRIP</i> rs2679798			
AA	1	1	1
AG	1.04 (0.73-1.49)	1.42 (0.88-2.27)	1.34 (0.75-2.42)
GG	1.23 (0.81-1.87)	1.36 (0.77-2.39)	1.22 (0.61-2.47)
<i>SKIV2L</i> rs429608			
GG	1	1	1
GA/AA	0.57 (0.38-0.84)	0.55 (0.33-0.91)	1.01 (0.53-1.92)
<i>ABAC1</i> rs1883025			
CC	1	1	1
CT	0.78 (0.56-1.09)	1.00 (0.67-1.50)	1.03 (0.61-1.74)

TABLE 4 - (continued)

Genes	SID vs no RPD/SID OR (95% CI) age and sex adjusted	RPD vs no RPD/SID OR (95% CI) age and sex adjusted	RPD vs SID OR (95% CI) age and sex adjusted
TT	1.09 (0.61-1.94)	0.53 (0.19-1.53)	0.38 (0.11-1.28)
<i>CETP</i> rs3764261			
CC	1	1	1
CA	1.27 (0.92-1.76)	1.15 (0.76-1.73)	1.06 (0.63-1.79)
AA	1.40 (0.84-2.32)	1.02 (0.50-2.07)	0.68 (0.29-1.63)
<i>TIMP3</i> rs5749482			
GG	1	1	1
CG/CC	0.87 (0.60-1.27)	0.62 (0.37-1.04)	1.17 (0.40-3.40)
<i>VEGFA</i> rs943080			
CC	1	1	1
TC	0.81 (0.56-1.17)	1.34 (0.79-2.24)	2.00 (1.05-3.81)
TT	1.09 (0.72-1.65)	1.51 (0.84-2.73)	1.50 (0.73-3.08)
<i>COL8A1</i> rs13081855			
GG	1	1	1
GT/TT	1.15 (0.78-1.68)	0.90 (0.53-1.52)	0.85 (0.45-1.59)
<i>TNFRSF10A</i> rs13278062			
TT	1	1	1
GT	0.92 (0.65-1.30)	0.73 (0.46-1.14)	0.89 (0.51-1.57)
GG	0.72 (0.46-1.12)	0.77 (0.45-1.31)	1.11 (0.57-2.18)
<i>FRK/COL10A1</i> rs3812111			
TT	1	1	1
AT	0.93 (0.68-1.29)	0.92 (0.61-1.39)	0.96 (0.57-1.60)
AA	0.86 (0.52-1.44)	0.53 (0.24-1.15)	0.71 (0.28-1.79)
<i>SLC16A8</i> rs8135665			
CC	1	1	1
CT	1.17 (0.85-1.61)	0.83 (0.54-1.28)	0.73 (0.43-1.24)
TT	1.31 (0.61-2.82)	0.74 (0.21-2.63)	0.74 (0.17-3.18)
<i>ADAMTS9</i> rs6795735			
CC	1	1	1
TC	0.96 (0.68-1.36)	1.03 (0.66-1.61)	1.10 (0.63-1.92)
TT	1.34 (0.88-2.06)	1.35 (0.77-2.37)	0.90 (0.45-1.80)
<i>TGFBR1</i> rs334353			
TT	1	1	1
GT	0.92 (0.66-1.27)	1.09 (0.72-1.64)	1.29 (0.76-2.18)
GG	1.03 (0.55-1.94)	0.62 (0.24-1.63)	0.61 (0.20-1.87)
<i>RAD51B</i> rs8017304			
AA	1	1	1
AG	0.82 (0.59-1.13)	0.85 (0.56-1.29)	1.26 (0.74-2.14)
GG	0.63 (0.38-1.03)	0.85 (0.46-1.56)	1.46 (0.67-3.19)
<i>IER3/DDR1</i> rs3130783			
AA	1	1	1
AG	0.85 (0.61-1.19)	0.83 (0.54-1.28)	0.95 (0.55-1.64)
GG	2.54 (1.32-4.86)	1.48 (0.49-4.51)	0.34 (0.10-1.20)
<i>B3GALT1</i> rs9542236			
TT	1	1	1
CT	0.77 (0.55-1.09)	1.11 (0.70-1.74)	1.57 (0.89-2.76)
CC	0.92 (0.60-1.39)	1.02 (0.58-1.83)	1.49 (0.73-3.04)

Abbreviations: CI = Confidence Interval, OR = Odds' Ratio, RPD = reticular pseudodrusen, SID = soft indistinct drusen

DISCUSSION

In this cross-sectional analysis of a population-based study, we showed that NIR imaging is superior to traditional CFP in the detection of RPD. We also found that RPD generally coincide with soft drusen, and were seldom seen as the only AMD feature. However, the AMD risk profile of RPD showed quantitative differences with that of SID. Those with RPD were more likely to be women, have older age, and carry risk variants in the *C3*, *ARMS2* and *VEGFA* genes.

Our study confirms that NIR imaging is preferred over the use of CFP for detection of RPD.^{11,13,21,25} Of all persons diagnosed with RPD, 62.7% were not visible on CFP, only on NIR. By contrast, 7% of those with RPD were diagnosed on CFP and failed to be detected on NIR. This implies that multimodal imaging for complete AMD grading is better than using single imaging devices. Suzuki et al. described three subtypes of RPD: two were better visualized by NIR-imaging, and one, the ribbon like subtype, was more easily spotted on CFP.²⁶ Indeed, we acknowledge that diagnosis of RPD on CFP is mostly based on recognition of the pattern of this feature. Aside from NIR and CFP, other image modalities can also reveal RPD, such as fundus auto fluorescence, optical coherent tomography (OCT), confocal blue reflectance, and indocyanine green angiography. Whether incorporation of all these methods further improves detection of RPD is questionable. A recent study assessed the accuracy of RPD detection using all these modalities, and found that NIR and OCT have the highest sensitivity, both 94.6%.⁹

Using NIR imaging increased our estimate of the overall prevalence of RPD to 4.9%. All previously reported population estimates of RPD were based on CFP only, and were therefore lower; the Beaver Dam Eye Study reported an overall prevalence of 0.7% in a population aged 45+ years,⁶ the Blue Mountain Eye Study reported an overall prevalence of 1.95% in a population aged 50+ years,¹² and the Melbourne Collaborative Cohort Study recently reported an overall prevalence of 0.41% in a population 48-86 years of age.⁴ In our study, RPD were bilateral in 69% of cases, while other population-based cohorts reported a slightly lower frequency of bilaterality, 51-63% respectively.^{4,6,12} The higher rates in our study could be due to the improved detection of RPD using NIR.

We identified several risk factors for RPD and SID. For RPD, demographic risk factors were older age and female sex, factors which have been reported by several studies.^{6,7,11-13,27} We did not find any statistically significant environmental risk factors, although the relationship with current smoking was suggestive. Other studies reported risks of RPD for hypertension, lower income, lower education, higher body mass index, angina pectoris, HDL cholesterol, and triglycerides, but we and many others could not confirm these findings.^{6,7,11-13,21,27} Associations which showed a preference for SID were increased HDL-cholesterol, and decreased triglycerides. These trends have been observed previously for Late AMD, and have not been explained thus far.²⁰ With respect to AMD risk variants, those in the *CFH*, *C2/FB* and *ARMS2* genes were significantly associated with both RPD and SID in this study. *C3*, however was only associated with RPD. The lack of association with other risk variants may be due to our limited statistical power to find minor associations. Remarkably, *ARMS2* appeared to have a strong predilection for RPD. Homozygous carriers of the *ARMS2* risk variant were twice as likely to have RPD than SID. We did not find this differential distribution for the *CFH* nor *C2/FB* risk variants. Prior reports found stronger associations with *ARMS2* than *CFH*.^{27,28} Another gene showing a tendency for RPD was *VEGFA*. Although this gene was not significantly associated with either phenotype, it showed a significant risk difference between RPD and SID.

Eyes featuring RPD without any type of drusen were rare in our study. We evaluated the risk profiles of these participants (N=5), and these were not remarkably different from the entire group of RPD (Table 2 and 3). Noteworthy, none of the RPD in these participants were observed on CFP, only on NIR imaging. RPD without any type of drusen may represent other phenotypes than AMD; in literature, RPD have been reported to accompany Sorsby fundus dystrophy, pseudoxanthoma elasticum, acquired vitelliform lesions, and systemic disorders such as vitamin A deficiency, cardiovascular disease and complement mediated IgA nephropathy.²⁸⁻³³ In our study, these 5 patients showed no other retinal pathology aside from RPD. A focus on unravelling the etiology of isolated RPD may help shed light on overarching molecular mechanisms in retinal disease.

Current insights into RPD pathogenesis are still highly limited, but a vascular etiology has been suggested.^{27,28} The genetic predilections in our study may point toward this hypothesis. *ARMS2* was found to be expressed in the ellipsoid layer of the photoreceptors and in the intercapillary pillars of the choroid.^{34,35} The first is close to the location of RPD,³⁴ and the latter may help explain the vascular hypothesis.³⁵ Another hint in this direction is the higher susceptibility of *VEGFA* and *ARMS2* for neovascular AMD²⁴, although RPD do not preferentially accompany this AMD subtype.^{4,6,7,36} Furthermore, the genes *CFH*, *C3*, and *VEGFA* have been associated with cardiovascular and coronary artery disease.^{27,28} Morphologic changes in eyes with RPD, suggest that these lesions follow the pattern of the watershed zones of the choroid, and correspond with local thinning of this layer.³⁷ Spaide found that choroidal thinning is even more pronounced when RPD regress and photoreceptors shorten³⁸. A recent study of retinal imaging with adaptive optics showed that photoreceptor changes precede RPD regression.³⁹ Several histopathologic studies have studied the molecular content of RPD and SID and found significant overlap: both contain unesterified cholesterol, complement factor H, apolipoprotein E, and vitronectin.^{16,40} There are also remarkable differences: RPD lack immunoreactivity for photoreceptors, Müller cells, and RPE marker proteins, and have only low concentrations of esterified cholesterol and other neutral lipids.^{16,40} Why the deposit in RPD is located above rather than below the RPE cell is unclear. Several hypotheses have been made. Rudolf et al. suggested that loss of RPE cell polarity may lead to deposition of unphagocytized photoreceptor outer segments above rather than below the RPE cell.⁴¹ Curcio et al. suggest that perturbation of cholesterol homeostasis and the lipid transfer between the RPE cell and the photoreceptor cell in the context of an outer retinal lipid-recycling program, could explain the formation of these deposits.¹⁶ Another hypothesis may be that shortening of the RPE villi⁴² jeopardize close contact with photoreceptor outer segments, and may hamper uptake of shed discs from the photoreceptor by the RPE cell. In AMD, the formation of RPD appears to follow that of soft drusen, since the concurrence of these lesions carry a higher risk of progression to Late AMD.^{4,6,20} How the associated genes, the choroidal anatomic changes, and formation of drusenoid material above the RPE are related remains an intriguing question for future studies.

To our knowledge, this is the first population-based study, studying RPD using another imaging device aside from CFP. Other strengths include the large sample size of unselected persons, the study of RPD within the context of other Early AMD features, and the comparison of risk profiles of RPD versus soft drusen. Other reports did not specify the frequency of concurrent AMD lesions in eyes with RPD. Furthermore, we analyzed a much more comprehensive set of demographic, environmental and genetic risk factors for RPD than previous population-based and clinical studies, which led to new insights into the genetic background of RPD. A limitation of our study is the lack of follow up data with NIR imaging, hampering the study of RPD incidence and progression. This needs to be addressed in prospective studies.

REFERENCES

1. Zweifel SA, Spaide RF, Curcio CA, et al. Reticular pseudodrusen are subretinal drusenoid deposits. *Ophthalmology* 2010;117(2):303-12 e1.
2. Spaide RF. Colocalization of pseudodrusen and subretinal drusenoid deposits using high-density en face spectral domain optical coherence tomography. *Retina* 2014;34(12):2336-45.
3. Greferath U, Guymer RH, Vessey KA, et al. Correlation of Histologic Features with In Vivo Imaging of Reticular Pseudodrusen. *Ophthalmology* 2016;123(6):1320-31.
4. Finger RP, Chong E, McGuinness MB, et al. Reticular Pseudodrusen and Their Association with Age-Related Macular Degeneration: The Melbourne Collaborative Cohort Study. *Ophthalmology* 2016;123(3):599-608.
5. Huisingh C, McGwin G, Jr., Neely D, et al. The Association Between Subretinal Drusenoid Deposits in Older Adults in Normal Macular Health and Incident Age-Related Macular Degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2016;57(2):739-45.
6. Klein R, Meuer SM, Knudtson MD, et al. The epidemiology of retinal reticular drusen. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2008;145(2):317-26.
7. Pumariega NM, Smith RT, Sohrab MA, et al. A prospective study of reticular macular disease. *Ophthalmology* 2011;118(8):1619-25.
8. Mimoun G, Soubrane G, Coscas G. [Macular drusen] Les drusen maculaires. *J Fr Ophtalmol* 1990;13(10):511-30.
9. Ueda-Arakawa N, Ooto S, Tsujikawa A, et al. Sensitivity and specificity of detecting reticular pseudodrusen in multimodal imaging in Japanese patients. *Retina* 2013;33(3):490-7.
10. Hogg RE, Silva R, Staurengi G, et al. Clinical characteristics of reticular pseudodrusen in the fellow eye of patients with unilateral neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 2014;121(9):1748-55.
11. Hogg RE. Reticular pseudodrusen in age-related macular degeneration. *Optom Vis Sci* 2014;91(8):854-9.
12. Joachim N, Mitchell P, Rochtchina E, et al. Incidence and progression of reticular drusen in age-related macular degeneration: findings from an older Australian cohort. *Ophthalmology* 2014;121(4):917-25.
13. Boddu S, Lee MD, Marsiglia M, et al. Risk factors associated with reticular pseudodrusen versus large soft drusen. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2014;157(5):985-93 e2.
14. Schmitz-Valckenberg S, Alten F, Steinberg JS, et al. Reticular drusen associated with geographic atrophy in age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2011;52(9):5009-15.
15. Xu L, Blonska AM, Pumariega NM, et al. Reticular macular disease is associated with multilobular geographic atrophy in age-related macular degeneration. *Retina* 2013;33(9):1850-62.
16. Curcio CA, Messinger JD, Sloan KR, et al. Subretinal drusenoid deposits in non-neovascular age-related macular degeneration: morphology, prevalence, topography, and biogenesis model. *Retina* 2013;33(2):265-76.
17. Hofman A, Darwish Murad S, van Duijn CM, et al. The Rotterdam Study: 2014 objectives and design update. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2013;28(11):889-926.
18. Klein R, Davis MD, Magli YL, et al. The Wisconsin age-related maculopathy grading system. *Ophthalmology* 1991;98(7):1128-34.
19. Bird AC, Bressler NM, Bressler SB, et al. An international classification and grading system for age-related maculopathy and age-related macular degeneration. The International ARM Epidemiological Study Group. *Surv Ophthalmol* 1995;39(5):367-74.
20. van Leeuwen R, Klaver CC, Vingerling JR, et al. The risk and natural course of age-related maculopathy: follow-up at 6 1/2 years in the Rotterdam study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2003;121(4):519-26.
21. Smith RT, Sohrab MA, Busuioc M, Barile G. Reticular macular disease. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2009;148(5):733-43 e2.
22. Wu Z, Ayton LN, Luu CD, et al. Reticular Pseudodrusen in Intermediate Age-Related Macular Degeneration: Prevalence, Detection, Clinical, Environmental, and Genetic Associations. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2016;57(3):1310-6.
23. Buitendijk GH, Rochtchina E, Myers C, et al. Prediction of age-related macular degeneration in the general population: the Three Continent AMD Consortium. *Ophthalmology* 2013;120(12):2644-55.
24. Fritsche LG, Chen W, Schu M, et al. Seven new loci associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2013;45(4):433-9, 9e1-2.
25. Spaide RF, Curcio CA. Drusen characterization with multimodal imaging. *Retina* 2010;30(9):1441-54.
26. Suzuki M, Sato T, Spaide RF. Pseudodrusen subtypes as delineated by multimodal imaging of the fundus. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2014;157(5):1005-12.

27. Sivaprasad S, Bird A, Nitiapapand R, et al. Perspectives on Reticular Pseudodrusen in Age-Related Macular Degeneration. *Surv Ophthalmol* 2016.
28. Rastogi N, Smith RT. Association of Age-Related Macular Degeneration and Reticular Macular Disease with Cardiovascular Disease. *Surv Ophthalmol* 2015.
29. Gliem M, Hendig D, Finger RP, et al. Reticular pseudodrusen associated with a diseased bruch membrane in pseudoxanthoma elasticum. *JAMA Ophthalmol* 2015;133(5):581-8.
30. Gliem M, Muller PL, Mangold E, et al. Reticular Pseudodrusen in Sorsby Fundus Dystrophy. *Ophthalmology* 2015;122(8):1555-62.
31. Aleman TS, Garrity ST, Brucker AJ. Retinal structure in vitamin A deficiency as explored with multimodal imaging. *Doc Ophthalmol* 2013;127(3):239-43.
32. Freund KB, Laud K, Lima LH, et al. Acquired Vitelliform Lesions: correlation of clinical findings and multiple imaging analyses. *Retina* 2011;31(1):13-25.
33. Lally DR, Bauml C. Subretinal drusenoid deposits associated with complement-mediated IgA nephropathy. *JAMA Ophthalmol* 2014;132(6):775-7.
34. Fritsche LG, Loenhardt T, Janssen A, et al. Age-related macular degeneration is associated with an unstable ARMS2 (LOC387715) mRNA. *Nat Genet* 2008;40(7):892-6.
35. Kortvely E, Hauck SM, Duetsch G, et al. ARMS2 is a constituent of the extracellular matrix providing a link between familial and sporadic age-related macular degenerations. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2010;51(1):79-88.
36. Finger RP, Wu Z, Luu CD, et al. Reticular pseudodrusen: a risk factor for geographic atrophy in fellow eyes of individuals with unilateral choroidal neovascularization. *Ophthalmology* 2014;121(6):1252-6.
37. Alten F, Clemens CR, Heiduschka P, Eter N. Localized reticular pseudodrusen and their topographic relation to choroidal watershed zones and changes in choroidal volumes. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2013;54(5):3250-7.
38. Spaide RF. Outer retinal atrophy after regression of subretinal drusenoid deposits as a newly recognized form of late age-related macular degeneration. *Retina* 2013;33(9):1800-8.
39. Zhang Y, Wang X, Rivero EB, et al. Photoreceptor perturbation around subretinal drusenoid deposits as revealed by adaptive optics scanning laser ophthalmoscopy. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2014;158(3):584-96 e1.
40. Oak AS, Messinger JD, Curcio CA. Subretinal drusenoid deposits: further characterization by lipid histochemistry. *Retina* 2014;34(4):825-6.
41. Rudolf M, Malek G, Messinger JD, et al. Sub-retinal drusenoid deposits in human retina: organization and composition. *Exp Eye Res* 2008;87(5):402-8.
42. Sarks J, Arnold J, Ho IV, et al. Evolution of reticular pseudodrusen. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2011;95(7):979-85.



Chapter 3.2

Automatic identification of reticular pseudodrusen using multimodal retinal image analysis

Mark J. J. P. van Grinsven, **Gabriëlle H. S. Buitendijk**, Corina Brussee, Bram van Ginneken, Carel B. Hoyng, Thomas Theelen, Caroline C. W. Klaver, Clara I. Sánchez

Published *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2015 Jan 8;56(1):633-9. doi: 10.1167/iops.14-15019. PMID: 25574052

ABSTRACT

Purpose To examine human performance and agreement on reticular pseudodrusen (RPD) detection and quantification using single- and multi-modality grading protocols and to describe and evaluate a machine learning system for the automatic detection and quantification of reticular drusen using single- and multi-modality information.

Methods Color fundus, fundus autofluorescence and near infra-red images of 278 eyes from 230 patients with or without presence of RPD were used in this study. All eyes were scored for presence of RPD during single- and multi-modality setups by two experienced observers and a developed machine learning system. Furthermore, automatic quantification of RD area was performed by the proposed system and compared with human delineations.

Results Observers obtained a higher performance and better inter-observer agreement for RPD detection using multi-modality grading, achieving areas under the Receiver operating characteristics (ROC) of 0.940 and 0.958, and a kappa agreement of 0.911. The proposed automatic system achieved an area under the ROC of 0.941 using a multi-modality setup. Automatic RPD quantification resulted in an intra-class correlation (ICC) value of 0.704, which was comparable with ICC values obtained between single modality manual delineations.

Conclusion Observer performance and agreement for RPD identification improved significantly using a multi-modality grading approach. The developed automatic system showed similar performance as observers and automatic RPD area quantification was in concordance with manual delineations. The proposed automatic system allows for a fast and accurate identification and quantification of RD, opening the way for efficient quantitative imaging biomarkers in large dataset analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is a progressive eye disease affecting mainly the elderly and causing vision loss at advanced stages.¹ The early stages of AMD are characterized by the presence of pigmentary changes and drusen, which are deposits accumulating between the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) and the Bruch's membrane. A sub-type of drusen, commonly addressed as subretinal drusenoid deposits or reticular pseudodrusen (RPD), present different characteristics and distribution than normal drusen and have been proven to be a strong risk factor for progression to advanced AMD.²⁻⁷ Therefore, their identification and quantification is of paramount importance for a better understanding of disease progression.

RPD are visible on color fundus (CF) photography, fundus autofluorescence (FAF) imaging and near infra-red (NIR) imaging amongst other retinal imaging modalities such as confocal blue reflectance, indocyanine green (ICG) angiography, spectral-domain optical coherence tomography (SD-OCT) and fluorescein angiography.⁸⁻¹³ On CF images, RPD are described as indistinct, yellowish interlacing networks of 125 μm to 250 μm wide.¹⁴ On FAF images, RPD are characterized as hypofluorescent lesions, while on NIR images, RPD are characterized as groups of hyporeflectant lesions against a mild hyper-reflectant background.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ Previous studies have reported a difference in sensitivities for RPD detection among image techniques.^{12,17} However, RPD identification using a single image modality is challenging as the characteristic changes associated to RPD are often subtle and might not always be detected using only one imaging technique. Therefore, for an accurate diagnosis, RPD detection should be performed using two or more image modalities.¹¹ Although other studies have investigated and compared the performance of individual image techniques for RPD detection,^{12,17} a study of the performance obtained using multiple image modalities simultaneously has not been performed as far as we are concerned.

Despite its expected higher accuracy, grading of multi-modality images represents a considerable workload for a human grader. Machine learning algorithms have huge potential for dealing with complex information extracted from different image modalities. Furthermore, automatic systems are not influenced by fatigue and mindset and, therefore, less prone to variability than humans. Previously developed systems for the automatic detection of drusen showed good performance on CF images.¹⁸⁻²¹ Whether they also perform well fusing information from different image modalities is currently unknown. As far as we are concerned, there is no method for the automatic identification of RPD fusing information from different image modalities.

The aim of the present study is two-fold. Firstly, we evaluate the performance and the agreement between human observers using single- as well as multi-modality grading approaches for RPD detection. In the single-modality approach, RPD detection is performed using only one image technique (namely, CF, FAF or NIR). In contrast, during the multi-modality grading session, the observers evaluate the three available image modalities simultaneously. Secondly, we aim to investigate the effectiveness of a novel machine learning algorithm for the automatic identification and quantification of RPD using combined information from different image modalities by comparing its performance to human observers.

METHODS

Study dataset

A set of subjects with and without RPD were selected from the Rotterdam Study, a prospective cohort study aimed to investigate risk factors for chronic diseases in the elderly.²² The study adhered to the tenets set forth in the Declaration of Helsinki and Investigational Review Board approval was obtained. Only patients with CF, FAF and NIR images available were included in this study. CF images were taken using a 35° field of view Topcon TRC 50EX fundus camera (Topcon Optical Company, Tokyo, Japan) with a Sony DXC-950P digital camera with a resolution of 768 x 576 pixels. FAF and NIR images were taken with a Heidelberg Retina Angiograph 2 (Heidelberg engineering, Heidelberg, Germany) with a field of view of 30° and a resolution of 768 x 768 pixels. In total 278 eyes of 230 patients aged 65 years and older were selected from the last examination round of the Rotterdam Study. All CF images were graded according to the Wisconsin Age-related Maculopathy Grading²³ and the International Classification and Grading System for age-related maculopathy and age-related macular degeneration²⁴ by local graders of the Rotterdam Study using visual assessment. These annotations constitute the reference standard for our study. We selected all the eyes where RPD based on CF images were identified in this round (N=72). Status of RPD was also confirmed on FAF and NIR. For positive and negative controls we selected eyes that were graded by the local Rotterdam Study graders as having soft distinct or soft indistinct drusen but not with RPD (N=108) and eyes that did not contain any type of drusen (N=98). The positive and negative controls did not have any signs of RPD in the other modalities (FAF and NIR). As the database did not contain any information about the extent of RPD area, two human observers (G.B. and C.B.) made in consensus RPD area delineations using the three modalities simultaneously for the eyes containing RD. These delineations were used as reference standard for the quantification of RPD area.

Observer study: single- versus multi-modality grading

All images were evaluated independently by two human observers (G.B. and C.B.) for evidence of RD. RPD were defined as indistinct, yellowish interlacing networks of 125 µm to 250 µm wide on CF image;¹⁴ groups of hyporeflectant lesions in regular patterns on FAF¹⁵⁻¹⁷ and groups of hyporeflectant lesions against a mildly hyper-reflectant background in regular patterns on NIR images.¹⁷ Observer 1 has 4 years of reading experience for all three imaging modalities, whereas Observer 2 has 19 years of reading experience on CF imaging and 5 years on FAF and NIR imaging. The observers were asked to give a score ranging from 0 to 1, indicating the likeliness of presence of RD. Two different grading approaches were performed: single- and multi-modality grading. During single-modality grading, the observers graded each image modality separately in a randomized order. CF, FAF and NIR images were pooled and shown randomly to the observers. Observers were also asked to indicate whether the image was of sufficient quality for grading. Bad quality was assigned if the observer was not confident in assessing the image for RPD as a result of low image quality. During multi-modality grading, observers were asked to diagnose RPD after observing CF, FAF and NIR images from the same eye simultaneously. The eyes were shown in a randomized order in this grading session as well.

In a separate grading session, the observers manually delineated in consensus the area covered by RPD based on one single modality, i.e. single-modality RPD delineation on CF, FAF or NIR images. Only the 72 eyes containing RPD as indicated by the reference were taken into account for the quantification of RPD area.

Automatic reticular drusen identification

The proposed machine learning algorithm analyzed simultaneously the available modalities from an eye examination to automatically identify reticular drusen areas. The algorithm assigned the complete eye examination a probability between 0 and 1 indicating the probability of presence of RPD and provided a quantification of the area covered by them. To accomplish this, the algorithm performed three steps: preprocessing, feature extraction, and classification and quantification.

Preprocessing

In the preprocessing step, two different methods were applied to the images: image registration and vessel removal.

1. Registration will provide a geometrical alignment across modalities to identify corresponding pixels that represent the same scene. This multi-modal image registration was performed using a semiautomatic affine method, where the images are deformed to accurately match user specified points or landmarks.²⁵ In this study, three corresponding landmarks on prominent image locations, such as vessel bifurcations, were manually selected on each modality and used to perform the registration.
2. To reduce intensity variations due to presence of vessels, the retinal vasculature was removed from the images. The vasculature was automatically extracted using a previously developed algorithm²⁶ and used as input in an inpainting algorithm,²⁷ which removes the vessels by interpolating intensities at the supplied image locations. Figure 1 shows an example eye after vessel removal.

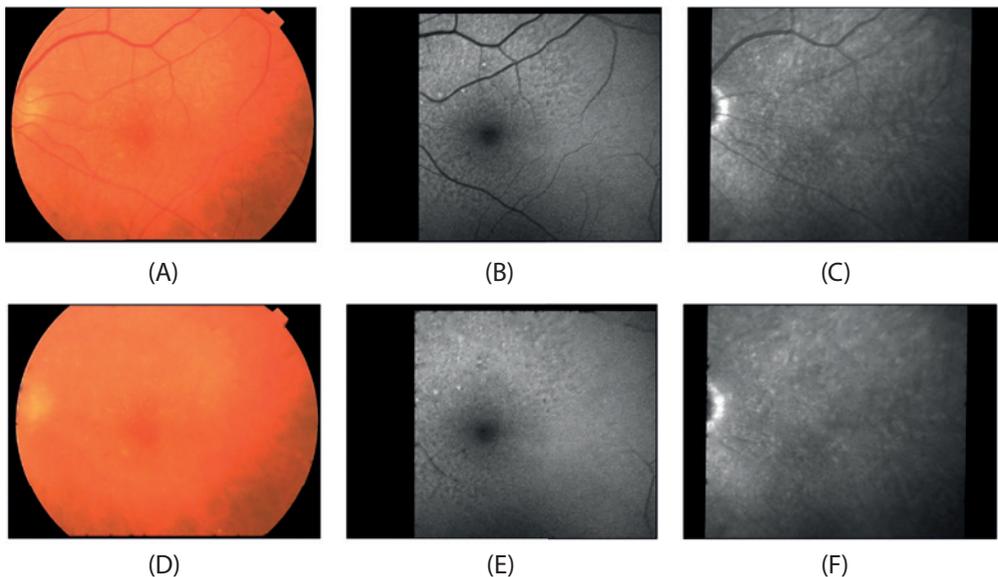


FIGURE 1 - Co-registered (A) color fundus photograph, (B) fundus autofluorescence and (C) near infra-red images and their corresponding results after vessel removal (D-F).

Feature extraction

To perform an automatic analysis of the images, the machine learning algorithm uses information which is extracted from the images and encoded in numerical values or so called features. To do so, each color channel of the CF image as well as the FAF and NIR image were separately convolved with a set of Gaussian filters. These filters are based on Gaussian derivatives up to second order at different scales and are invariant to rotation and translation.²⁸ For each resulting filtered image, the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values in a circular neighborhood around each pixel were calculated. The corresponding features for each pixel were then obtained by concatenating these extracted values in a single feature vector.

Classification and quantification

To determine whether a pixel is part of a RPD area, a random forest classifier was used to obtain an automatic classification based on the calculated features. This classifier operates by constructing a multitude of decision boundaries (trees) to make a separation between multiple classes.²⁹ After training, the random forest classifier provided a probability between 0 and 1 indicating the probability that the pixel belongs to a RPD area based on labeled training examples and the input pixel feature vector. Figure 2 shows an example eye exam with the output of the classifier. Finally, an image score indicating the likelihood of the eye exam to contain RD, was assigned by taking the 99th percentile of the obtained probability map.

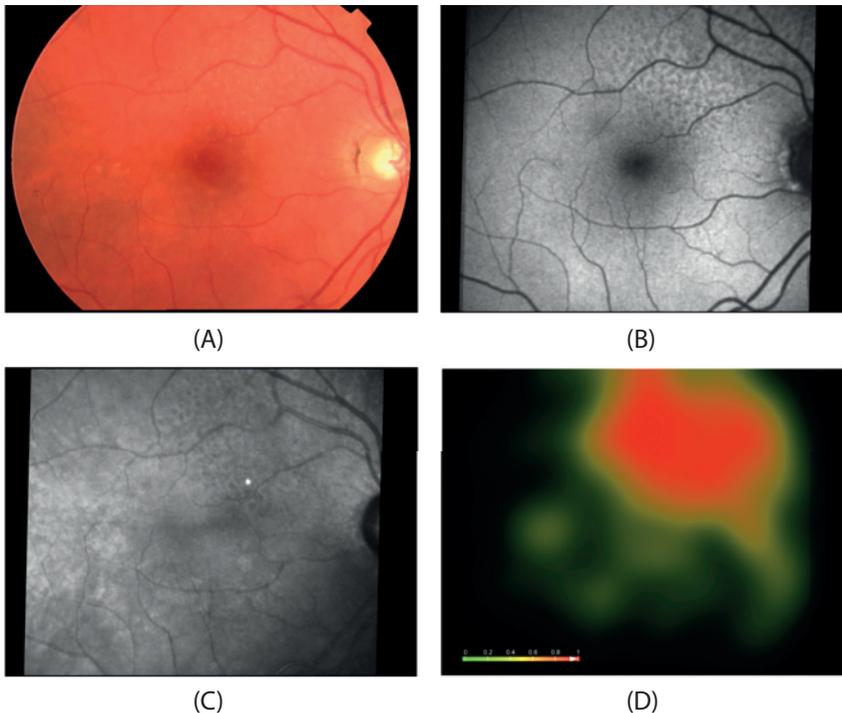


FIGURE 2 - Example of the classification result obtained by the proposed machine learning algorithm. Given an eye exam consisted of (A) a color fundus photograph, (B) a fundus autofluorescence image and (C) a near infrared image; the algorithm outputs (D) a probability map indicating the likelihood for each pixel to be part of a reticular drusen area. Red values indicate higher probability to be reticular drusen.

To quantify the area covered by RD, a threshold was set on the probability map. This threshold was image based and experimentally determined as the 55th percentage of the maximum value of the probability map. Only the area inside the Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy Study (ETDRS) grading grid was taken into account for the quantification.

Statistical analysis

The performance of the observers and the proposed machine learning algorithm for the single- and multi-modality approaches was evaluated by measuring the area (Az) under the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve.³⁰ Statistical comparisons were made using bootstrap analysis with 5000 bootstraps.³¹ Bootstrap analysis is a nonparametric test that is commonly used to estimate the variance of ROC analysis. Results with a p-value lower than 0.05 were seen as statistically significant. Bonferroni correction was applied to counteract the problem of multiple comparisons.³² For observers, kappa statistics were also reported to assess inter observer variability.³³ As the proposed machine learning algorithm requires labeled example data for training, the evaluation was performed using a patient-based leave-one-out strategy.³⁴

Automatic quantification of RPD area was evaluated by calculating the percentage of detected RPD area inside the ETDRS grading grid and was compared with the observer delineations. RPD area agreement with observers was measured using intra-class correlation (ICC) statistics.

RESULTS

Image quality assessment

Table 1 shows the image quality analysis of the observers for the different image modalities. Of the 278 eyes, only 172 (61.9%) were graded by both observers to have all image modalities with good quality and were established as the "good quality" set for the subsequent data analysis. Bad quality of the FAF image was the main reason for a bad quality indication for the multi modal exam (CF+FAF+NIR).

TABLE 1 - Number and percentage of good quality images as indicated by observers for the different image modalities independently. Last column shows the number of images where both observers agree that the image is of good quality.

	Observer 1	Observer 2	Consensus
CF	272 (97.8%)	268 (96.4%)	264 (95.0%)
FAF	211 (75.9%)	195 (70.1%)	185 (66.5%)
NIR	269 (96.8%)	265 (95.3%)	264 (95.0%)

Abbreviations: CF = color fundus photographs, FAF = fundus autofluorescence images, NIR = near infra-red images.

Comparison of single- and multi-modality grading

Figure 3 shows the ROC curves for the single- and multi-modality grading approaches. The point on the curve closest to the upper left corner in the ROC curve is used to compute sensitivity/specificity pairs.

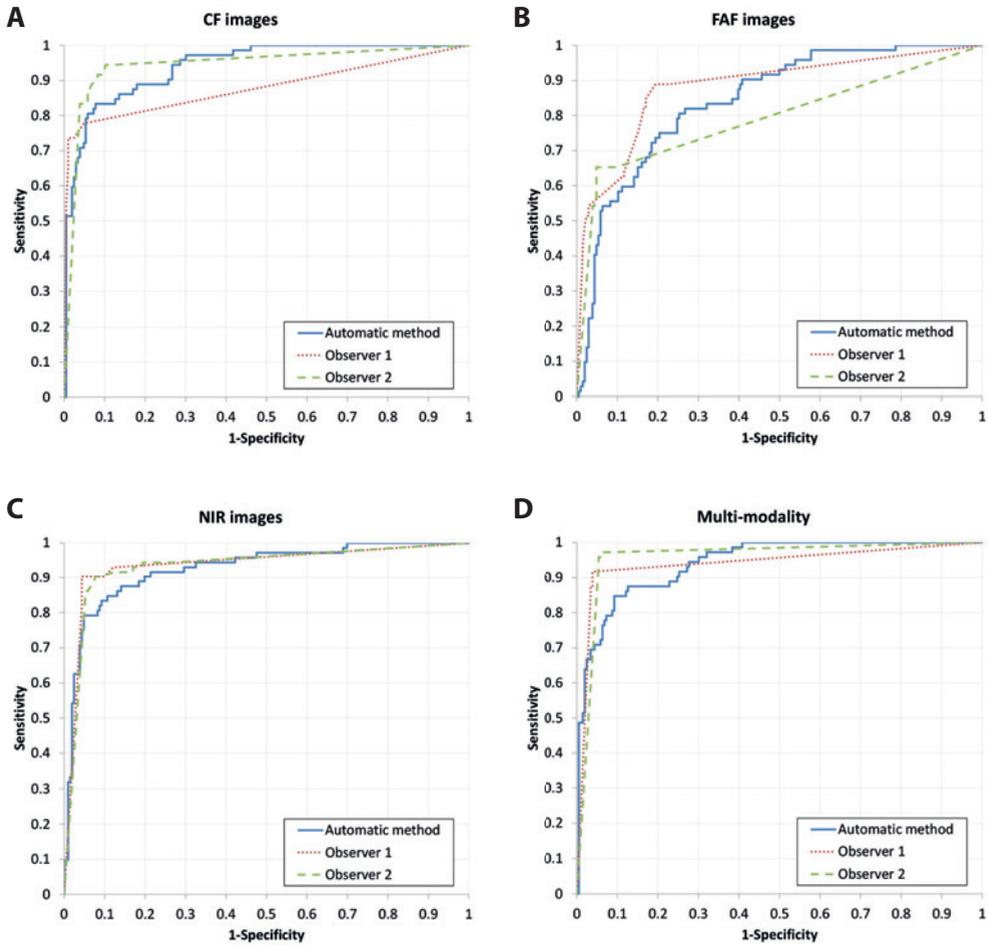


FIGURE 3 - ROC curves for the identification of eyes with reticular drusen using (A) color fundus photographs, (B) fundus autofluorescence images, (C) near infra-red images and (D) a multi-modality setup.

Table 2 shows the Az values and sensitivity/specificity pairs for the single- and multi-modality grading of Observer 1 and Observer 2, respectively, calculated on the full data set and on the subset of good quality images as indicated by both observers. The performance of both observers for RPD detection considerably increased when performing a multi-modality grading.

Kappa statistics were calculated to measure inter-observer variability during single-modality and multi-modality grading sessions. Table 3 shows the kappa values between the observers for the different grading sessions. Observers achieved a higher agreement using multi-modality grading. When considering only good quality images, observers also achieved high agreement using FAF images.

TABLE 2 - Performance of Observer 1 and 2 for RPD detection using single- and multi-modality grading.

			All			Good quality				
			Az	Se	Sp	Az	Se	Sp		
Observer 1	Single-modality	CF	0.879*	0.778	0.951	0.888*	0.789	0.974		
		FAF	0.881*	0.889	0.806	0.959	0.946	0.966		
		NIR	0.936	0.903	0.956	0.936	0.929	0.918		
	Multi-modality		0.940	0.917	0.961	0.956	0.944	0.963		
		Observer 2	Single-modality	CF	0.944	0.944	0.989	0.944	0.930	0.917
				FAF	0.793*	0.653	0.951	0.961	0.973	0.946
NIR	0.932			0.903	0.922	0.929*	0.900	0.918		
Multi-modality		0.958	0.972	0.942	0.974	1.000	0.949			

Area (Az) under the ROC values and optimal sensitivity (Se) and specificity (Sp) values are reported.

*Indicates a statistical significant difference of the Az value with respect to the multi-modality approach.

Abbreviations: CF = color fundus photographs, FAF = fundus autofluorescence images, NIR = near infra-red images, RPD = reticular pseudodrusen, ROC = receiver operating curve.

TABLE 3 - Kappa agreement and 95% confidence intervals between observers for single-modality and multi-modality reading sessions.

		All		Good quality	
		κ	95% CI	κ	95% CI
Single-modality	CF	0.654	(0.556-0.752)	0.724	(0.632-0.817)
	FAF	0.468	(0.363-0.572)	0.938	(0.879-0.998)
	NIR	0.884	(0.822-0.945)	0.839	(0.767-0.910)
Multi-modality		0.911	(0.857-0.965)	0.936	(0.874-0.998)

Abbreviations: CF = color fundus photographs, CI = confidence interval, FAF = fundus autofluorescence images, NIR = near infra-red images.

Performance of the automatic method

The ROC curves for the proposed machine learning algorithm are shown in Figure 3. The corresponding Az values and the sensitivity/specificity pairs for the single- and multi-modality approaches are summarized in Table 4.

Quantification of the area covered by reticular drusen

The boxplots in Figure 4 show the RPD area percentage inside the ETDRS grading grid as delineated by the observers and as identified by the automatic system. Only eyes which were of good quality as indicated by both observers were taken into account. The multi-modality area delineations made during consensus grading of the two observers was used as the reference for the RPD area quantification.

The agreement between single-modality RPD area delineations made by the observers and the reference delineations set using multi-modal information reached ICC values of 0.580 (-0.034;0.830), 0.790 (0.409;0.920) and 0.930 (0.763;0.976) for the CF, FAF and NIR delineation, respectively. For the automatic quantification of the RPD area, ICC values of 0.637 (0.395;0.796), 0.389 (0.082;0.631) and 0.557 (0.280;0.747) were obtained for the single-modality analysis of CF, FAF and NIR with respect to the reference delineations. Comparing the automatic multi-modality approach with the reference standard, an ICC value of 0.704 (0.495;0.837) was obtained.

TABLE 4 - Performance of the automatic system for RPD detection using single- and multi-modality grading.

		All			Good quality		
		Az	Se	Sp	Az	Se	Sp
Single-modality	CF	0.942	0.833	0.922	0.939	0.887	0.860
	FAF	0.844*	0.806	0.747	0.935	0.919	0.891
	NIR	0.927	0.847	0.893	0.919	0.814	0.902
Multi-modality		0.941	0.875	0.873	0.949	0.861	0.882

Area (Az) under the ROC values and optimal sensitivity (Se) and specificity (Sp) values are reported.

*Indicates a statistical significant difference of the Az value with respect to the multi-modality approach.

Abbreviations: CF = color fundus photographs, FAF = fundus autofluorescence images, NIR = near infra-red images, RPD = reticular pseudodrusen, ROC = receiver operating curve.

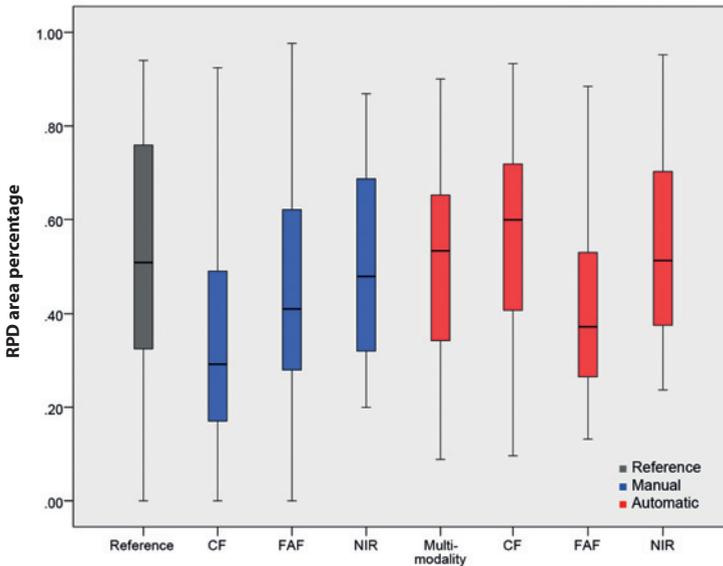


FIGURE 4 - Box-plots showing the percentage of reticular drusen area inside the ETDRS grading grid. Manual multi-modality was seen as the reference and is shown in grey. Single modality manual area percentages are shown in blue. The area percentage obtained by the automatic method for single- and multi-modality analysis are shown in red.

Abbreviations: CF = color fundus photographs, ETDRS = Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy Study, FAF = fundus autofluorescence images, NIR = near infra-red images, RPD = reticular pseudodrusen.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we assessed the performance achieved for RPD detection using multimodal information and compared it to the one obtained using several single image techniques. In our larger dataset,^{11-13,17} we demonstrated that a significantly higher performance, as well as a better inter-rater agreement, was achieved when the reticular pattern was assessed in a multi-modality grading approach. Moreover, our automatic machine learning algorithm for RPD detection and quantification using multimodal information proved to perform within the same range as the human graders.

Two independent human observers identified RPD areas using two different grading protocols. During the single-modality grading session, only information from a single image techniques was available; while, during the multi-modality approach, the observers evaluated evidence of RPD using all the modalities simultaneously. Both observers achieved higher performance using the multi-modality approach reaching Az values of 0.940 and 0.958, respectively (see Figure 3 and Table 2). Although previous studies only evaluated the accuracy for detecting RPD of single image modalities,^{8,11,12} our results confirm their conclusions that a more accurate diagnosis of RPD is obtained using multiple image modalities.

In contrast to observer 1, observer 2 achieved high performance on RPD assessment using CF images. Possible reasons for this are the larger experience of this observer on this modality and the lower sensitivity that this image technique has.¹² The disparity between observers' performance was substantially reduced when the assessment was performed using multiple image modalities (see Table 2). When the observers scored FAF images, the performance was significantly lower than when they used multi-modality reading. This may be due to the poor quality level of the FAF images. Only 66.5% of the images were considered of good quality by both observers, as it is shown in Table 1. During the FAF acquisition, a mean intensity image is constructed to reduce noise in the image. However, eye movements may cause displacement errors resulting in a lower contrast and thus lower quality of the FAF image. Another reason is the presence of cataracts in the study population. The wavelength used for FAF imaging is more affected by cataract than the one used in NIR imaging, resulting in lower image quality. As it is shown in Table 2, the adoption of a multi-modality grading approach can overcome image quality issues, maintaining a high detection performance independently of the quality level of a particular image techniques. When considering only the subset of good quality images, the performance of both observers increases for both single- and multi-modality gradings.

Inter-observer agreement was also investigated using the two grading protocols. Table 3 shows that the agreement between observers substantially increased when multiple imaging techniques were used to evaluate the evidence of RD. When taking only the subset of good quality images into account, the agreement between observers improved using CF, FAF and the multi-modal approach. However, the agreement using CF images is still substantially lower than using the other modalities. Other studies included multiple graders but no information about inter-observer agreement was reported.¹²

In this study, we also developed and evaluated a machine learning algorithm for the automatic identification and quantification of RPD using multimodal information. The results showed that the proposed system achieved similar performance as the observers, see Figure 3 and Table 4. Similar to the observers' gradings, the incorporation of multimodal information improved the performance of the algorithm. Using multimodal information, the proposed algorithm achieved an Az value of 0.941 and a sensitivity/specificity pair of 0.875/0.873. Compared to the observers, that reached a

kappa agreement of 0.87 with the reference, the automatic system has a kappa agreement of 0.70. However, 20% of the misclassified cases corresponds to cases where the observers also disagree. Of the false positive cases, 9 cases contained low quality images, 3 cases presented geographic atrophy, 1 case showed a neovascular macular detachment and 12 cases contained soft indistinct drusen. As described in other publications^{11,35,36}, RPD and drusen have very similar characteristics and might therefore more easily be misinterpreted by the automatic system. Better discriminant features, such as image context information or local intensity changes, might improve the performance of the automatic system, but this has to be further investigated.

Quantification of RPD area is a more difficult task due to the undefined boundaries of RD.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ When comparing the manual delineations performed on CF images with the reference delineations based on multi-modal information, an ICC value of 0.580 was achieved. When comparing the FAF or NIR delineations with the reference delineations, the agreement was better, reaching ICC values of 0.790 and 0.930, respectively. As presented in Figure 4, the RPD area was underestimated using CF images when compared to the other image techniques. As reported in previous publications,^{12,17} the visibility of RPD differs over modalities, causing these differences. As RPD are more pronounced on FAF and NIR, the delineations on these modalities were more similar to reference delineations. The quantified RPD area, which was automatically obtained by the proposed algorithm, was in agreement with the area delineated by the observers, reaching an ICC value of 0.704. It has to be noted that only images of good quality were used for RPD area quantification as images with insufficient quality were not suitable as it was nearly impossible for observers to delineate RPD area on these images. Another limitation of this study was that the multi-modal approach only included fundus images, excluding information obtained with spectral domain optical coherence tomography (SD-OCT). Including this modality in the multimodal protocol, a better understanding of the reticular pattern might be obtained and, consequently, an increased accuracy in their identification.^{9,10,35} SD-OCT can provide 3D information about RPD formation and is essential for RPD volume measurements. This enhancement will be of great importance for clinical trials studying the development and progression of RPD. We will investigate this improvement in further studies.

In conclusion, we were able to show that a multimodal approach significantly increased observer performance and inter-observer agreement for detection of reticular drusen in fundus images when the information of different imaging modalities was evaluated simultaneously. Furthermore, an automatic machine learning algorithm for detection and quantification of RPD using multimodal information was developed and evaluated, showing comparable results with those obtained by observers. The area covered by RPD was also automatically quantified by the algorithm, tallying the values manually provided by the observers. The absence of SD-OCT is regarded as a limitation of this study and will be investigated in future work. This automatic algorithm yields a quick and reliable diagnosis and quantification of reticular drusen, allowing for large dataset analysis within population studies and to gain insights into risk factors involved in AMD and disease progression.

REFERENCES

1. de Jong PT. Age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med*, 2006;355:1474-1485.
2. Sarks J, Arnold J, Ho IV, Sarks S, Killingsworth M. Evolution of reticular pseudodrusen. *Br J Ophthalmol*, 2011;95:979-985.
3. Schmitz-Valkenberg S, Alten F, Steinberg JS, et al. Reticular drusen associated with geographic atrophy in age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*, 2011;52:5009-5015.
4. Klein R, Meuer SM, Knudtson MD, Iyengar SK, Klein BEK. The epidemiology of retinal reticular drusen. *Am J Ophthalmol*, 2008;145:317-326.
5. Finger RP, Wu Z, Luu CD, et al. Reticular pseudodrusen: A risk factor for geographic atrophy in fellow eyes of individuals with unilateral choroidal neovascularization. *Ophthalmology*, 2014;121:1252-1256.
6. Pumariega NM, Smith RT, Sohrab MA, Letien V, Souied EH. A prospective study of reticular macular disease. *Ophthalmology*, 2011;118:1619-1625.
7. Boddu S, Lee MD, Marsiglia M, Marmor M, Freund KB, Smith RT. Risk factors associated with reticular pseudodrusen versus large soft drusen. *Am J Ophthalmol*, 2014;157:985-993.e2.
8. Suzuki M, Sato T, Spaide RF. Pseudodrusen subtypes as delineated by multimodal imaging of the fundus. *Am J Ophthalmol*, 2014;157:1005-1012.
9. Querques G, Canoui-Poitrine F, Coscas F, et al. Analysis of progression of reticular pseudodrusen by spectral domain-optical coherence tomography. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*, 2012;53:1264-1270.
10. De Bats F, Wolff B, Mauget-Fayssse M, Meunier I, Denis P, Kodjikian L. Association of reticular pseudodrusen and early onset drusen. *ISRN Ophthalmol*, 2013;2013:273085.
11. Spaide RF, Curcio CA. Drusen characterization with multimodal imaging. *Retina*, 2010;30:1441-1454.
12. Ueda-Arakawa N, Ooto S, Tsujikawa A, Yamashiro K, Oishi A, Yoshimura N. Sensitivity and specificity of detecting reticular pseudodrusen in multimodal imaging in Japanese patients. *Retina*, 2013;33:490-497.
14. Sohrab MA, Smith RT, Salehi-Had H, Sada SR, Fawzi AA. Image registration and multimodal imaging of reticular pseudodrusen. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*, 2011;52:5743-5748.
15. Arnold JJ, Sarks SH, Killingsworth MC, Sarks JP. Reticular pseudodrusen. A risk factor in age-related maculopathy. *Retina*, 1995;15:183-191.
16. Lois N, Owens SL, Coco R, Hopkins J, Fitzke FW, Bird AC. Fundus autofluorescence in patients with age-related macular degeneration and high risk of visual loss. *Am J Ophthalmol*, 2002;133:341-349.
17. Smith RT, Chan JK, Busuioic M, Sivagnanavel V, Bird AC, Chong NV. Autofluorescence characteristics of early, atrophic, and high-risk fellow eyes in age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*, 2006;47:5495-5504.
18. Smith RT, Sohrab MA, Busuioic M, Barile G. Reticular macular disease. *Am J Ophthalmol*, 2009;148:733-743.e2.
19. van Grinsven MJJP, Lechanteur YTE, van de Ven JPH, et al. Automatic drusen quantification and risk assessment of age-related macular degeneration on color fundus images. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*, 2013;54:3019-3027.
20. Chen Q, Leng T, Zheng L, et al. Automated drusen segmentation and quantification in SD-OCT images. *Med Image Anal*, 2013;17:1058-1072.
21. Mora AD, Vieira PM, Manivannan A, Fonseca JM. Automated drusen detection in retinal images using analytical modelling algorithms. *Biomed Eng Online*, 2011;10:59.
22. Sivagnanavel V, Smith RT, Lau GB, Chan J, Donaldson C, Chong NV. An interinstitutional comparative study and validation of computer aided drusen quantification. *Br J Ophthalmol*, 2005;89:554-557.
23. Hofman A, Darwish Murad S, van Duijn CM, et al. The Rotterdam study: 2014 objectives and design update. *Eur J Epidemiol*, 2013;28:889-926.
24. Klein R, Davis MD, Magli YL, Segal P, Klein BEK, Hubbard L. The Wisconsin age-related maculopathy grading system. *Ophthalmology*, 1991;98:1128-1134.
25. Bird RE, Bressler NM, Bressler S, et al. An international classification and grading system for age-related maculopathy and age-related macular degeneration. *Surv Ophthalmol*, 1995;39:367-374.
26. Besl PJ, McKay ND. A method for registration of 3D shapes. *IEEE Trans Pattern Anal Mach Intell*, 1992;14:239-256.
27. Niemeijer M, Staal JJ, van Ginneken B, Loog M, Abramoff MD. Comparative Study of Retinal Vessel Segmentation Methods on a New Publicly Available Database. In *Medical Imaging*, volume 5370 of *Proceedings of the SPIE*. 2004; 648-656.
28. Emile-Male G. *The restorer's handbook of easel painting*. Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York, 1st edition, 1976.
29. ter Haar Romeny BM. *Front-End Vision and Multi-Scale Image Analysis: Multi-scale Computer Vision Theory and Applications*, written in Mathematica. Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2003.

30. Breiman L. Random forests. *Machine Learning*, 2001;45:5-32.
31. He X, Frey E. ROC, LROC, FROC, AFROC: An alphabet soup. *J Am Coll Radiol*, 2009;6:652-655.
32. Efron B. Bootstrap methods: Another look at the jackknife. *Ann Stat*, 1979;7:1-26.
33. Bland J, Altman D. Multiple significance tests: the Bonferroni method. *BMJ*, 1995;310:170.
34. Landis JR, Koch GG. The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics*, 1977;33:159-174.
34. Arlot S, Celisse A. A survey of cross-validation procedures for model selection. *Statistics Surveys*, 2010;4:40-79.
35. Zweifel SA, Spaide RF, Curcio CA, Malek G, Imamura Y. Reticular pseudodrusen are subretinal drusenoid deposits. *Ophthalmology*, 2010;117:303-312.e1.
36. Rudolf M, Malek G, Messinger JD, Clark ME, Wang L, Curcio CA. Sub-retinal drusenoid deposits in human retina: organization and composition. *Exp Eye Res*, 2008;87:402-408.



Chapter 4.1

Trace elements, vitamins, and lipids and age-related macular degeneration. An overview of the current concepts on nutrients and AMD

Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk and Caroline C.W. Klaver

Adapted from chapter in: *Preedy VR (Ed.), Handbook of nutrition, diet, and the eye*, (pp55-63). Waltham, MA: Elsevier

SUMMARY

In this chapter we provide an overview of the current concepts on trace elements, vitamins, lipids in their relationship to age-related macular degeneration (AMD). Intake zinc, and omega-3 fatty acids can help lower the risk of AMD, in particular in those at high genetic risk. Vitamin D and nutrients influencing epigenetics appear to have a beneficial effect, but more research is needed before recommendation of these nutrients is warranted.

Dietary nutrients have been implicated in the development of age-related macular degeneration (AMD) for years. The first paper reporting a beneficial effect of a nutrient on AMD was published in 1988, in which the National Health and Nutritional Examination Survey 1 (NHANES-1) study investigated the dietary intake of vitamin A (P trend = 0.058) in AMD.¹ Since then, many more papers on this topic have been published. This chapter will provide an overview of nutrients investigated in relation with AMD.

CAROTENOIDS

There are many different carotenoids; over 600 are known to date. These can be split in two groups: carotenes, which refer to hydrocarbon carotenoids, and xanthophyll, a carotenoid with one or more oxygen groups. Carotenoids are pigments and can be found in chloroplasts and chromoplasts in predominantly plants and algae. Their function is to absorb blue light to protect the plants and algae from photo-damage, and absorb the light energy for use in photosynthesis. In the eye, lutein and zeaxanthin are xanthophylls which protect the macula from blue and ultraviolet (UV)-light damage. All dietary carotenoids have antioxidant function; α carotene, β carotene, γ carotene and β cryptoxanthin also have vitamin A activity. These four carotenoids are converted to retinal in herbivores and omnivores.²

Astaxanthin

Astaxanthin is a red pigmented xanthophyll, and can be found in salmon and other red colored sea foods (Table 1). Two studies added this carotenoid to a cocktail of anti-oxidants, including lutein and zeaxanthin. Both studies reported a positive effect of this cocktail on visual functions. Nonetheless, a specific beneficial effect for astaxanthin cannot be concluded from these results.^{3,4}

α Carotene

This carotene is an antioxidant and has vitamin A activity (Retinal Activity Equivalents; RAE); 1 RAE = 1 μ g retinol or 24 μ g α carotene. A meta-analysis based on four prospective cohort studies reported no significant association for α carotene and the risk of developing early AMD (Odds' ratio (OR) 1.05; 95% CI 0.87-1.26).⁵ However, one of these studies did find a trend for intake of α carotene ten years prior to baseline examination and incident large drusen (P trend = 0.02).⁶ Another study found a trend with pigmentary changes (P trend = 0.03), but not with drusen.⁷

Recently, a study investigated serum levels of carotenoids and the risk of AMD in a Chinese population sample.⁸ Serum levels of α carotene were significantly lower in subjects with exudative AMD versus controls ($P < 0.001$), while subjects with early AMD had higher serum levels versus controls ($P < 0.001$). The relative risk was reduced for exudative AMD (Relative risk (RR) 0.24; 95% CI 0.12-0.51), and increased for early AMD (RR 2.22; 95% CI 1.37-3.58). Why α carotene would increase the risk for early AMD and not for late is not clear.

β Carotene

This antioxidant has vitamin A activity; 1 RAE = 12 μ g β carotene and has been studied intensively in many diseases. A meta-analysis on this nutrient reported no association with incident early AMD (RR 1.04; 95% CI 0.86-1.25).⁵ Contradictory results were found for late AMD. Two studies from the US on exudative AMD reported a lower risk for those with higher intakes; ^{9,10} in contrast, a study from Australia found a higher risk (P trend = 0.027).¹¹ β carotene supplements have also been tested. A meta-analysis based on two randomized controlled trials showed neither a significant association

with any AMD (RR 1.03; 95% CI 0.89-1.19) nor with advanced AMD (RR 0.97; 95% CI 0.69-1.36).¹² Serum levels of β carotene were investigated in a Chinese population. The investigators found higher levels to be associated with an increased risk of exudative AMD (RR 2.36; 95% CI 1.30-4.29).⁸ This would favor the diet findings from the earlier mentioned Australian study. Differences in population structure, definition of the outcome, and measurement error of the exposure may explain the difference of study results.

TABLE 1 - Nutrients in Foods

Nutrient	Foods
Astaxanthin	Salmon, trout, shrimp, crayfish
Betaine	Grain products, fish, spinach, sugar beets
α Carotene	dark-leafy vegetables (spinach, kale) yellow/orange vegetables (carrots, bell peppers)
β Carotene	dark-leafy vegetables (spinach, kale) yellow/orange vegetables (carrots, bell peppers)
β Cryptoxanthin	Orange rind, egg yolk, papaya, apples
Lutein	dark-leafy vegetables (spinach, kale) yellow/orange vegetables (carrots, bell peppers)
Lycopene	Red fruits and vegetables (tomatoes, bell peppers, watermelon)
Meso-zeaxanthin	Sea foods
Methionine	Poultry, fish, dairy products
Omega-3 fatty acids - ALA	vegetable oils (flaxseed, canola oil)
Omega-3 fatty acids - DHA/EPA	Oily fish (herring, salmon, sardines, trout)
Omega-6 fatty acids - LA	vegetable oils (canola oil, safflower oil, corn oil)
Omega-6 fatty acids - AA	poultry, meat
Resveratrol	Skin red grapes, other fruits, red wine
Selenium	Shellfish and crustacea, egg yolk
Vitamin A	liver, butter, cheddar cheese, milk
Vitamin C	Fruits and vegetables (kiwi, peppers, parsley, rose hips)
Vitamin D*	Oily fish, dairy products, beef and fish liver
Vitamin E#	Corn oil, soybean oil, margarine, dressings
Zinc	Fortified cereals, meats, dairy products, nuts, seeds
Zeaxanthin	dark-leafy vegetables (spinach, kale) yellow/orange vegetables (carrots, bell peppers)

Abbreviations: AA, arachidonic acid; ALA, α -lolenic acid; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; LA, linoleic acid

* Levels of vitamin D depends on country. Some foods (mostly dairy products) are fortified with vitamin D

There are many different forms of vitamin E, the most common is α -tocopherol

β carotene may have interaction with genetic factors. Dietary intake was analyzed for AMD genotypes and the risk of early AMD in the Rotterdam Study.^{13,14} Carriers of the risk variant *CFH* (Y402H) had a higher risk of developing AMD in particular in those that had a low intake of β carotene. Carriers could reduce their AMD risk by increasing their intake (P trend = 0.05) (Figure 1). There are several explanations. β Carotene is inversely related to CRP levels, and CRP is related to the *CFH* (Y402H) genotype and AMD.¹⁵ These results imply that the genetic risk can be 'eaten' away. Whether supplementation would further decrease the risk is not clear and requires a note of caution. The

results of two randomized controlled trials indicated that β carotene supplementation in smokers increased risk of developing lung cancer, and many commercial supplements do not include this nutrient anymore.^{16,17}

β Cryptoxanthin

This carotenoid is very similar to β carotene, except for one oxygen group. The retinal activity of β cryptoxanthin is two times lower than β carotene; 1 RAE = 24 μ g β cryptoxanthin. In the literature, an inverse correlation of β cryptoxanthin with lung cancer has been reported in *in vitro* studies. This nutrient could potentially act as a chemoprotective agent in cancer,¹⁸ but this beneficial effect is questionable since it appears to cause a lower survival in patients with malignant glioma.¹⁹

No consistent associations have been found for β cryptoxanthin and AMD.^{5,7-11,20,21}

Lutein, zeaxanthin and meso-zeaxanthin

The pigment of the macula consists of lutein, zeaxanthin and meso-zeaxanthin. These carotenoids absorb blue light and UV, and protect the retina from damage by free radicals. Dietary intake (Table 1) is very important, because the human body cannot synthesize lutein/zeaxanthin. However, there are some reports that meso-zeaxanthin might be synthesized from lutein in the retina.²² Because of the macular location, these nutrients have been of high interest in ophthalmic research, especially in AMD.

Serum levels lutein/zeaxanthin

Many studies have investigated serum levels of lutein/zeaxanthin in patients and controls. In the majority of the studies an inverse association was found for lutein/zeaxanthin levels in serum with early, late and any AMD. In stratified analysis, zeaxanthin was more significantly associated with AMD than lutein.²³

Dietary lutein/zeaxanthin

A meta-analysis of observational studies on diet has been performed with data from six studies. Overall, the risk of early AMD was not significantly associated with intake of lutein/zeaxanthin (RR 0.96; 95% CI 0.78-1.17).²⁴ The meta-analysis for advanced AMD did show an association with intake of lutein/zeaxanthin (RR 0.74; 95% CI 0.57-0.97), most prominent for exudative AMD (RR 0.68; 95% CI 0.51-0.92).

Case control studies also reported a significant association of lutein/zeaxanthin intake with a lower risk for advanced AMD.^{9,10} Seddon et al (1994) also showed an inverse trend with intake of lutein/zeaxanthin, a trend which was particularly present in smokers.

As β carotene, lutein/zeaxanthin also interacted with genetic factors. High intake of these nutrients was associated with a reduced genetic risk for carriers of CFH risk variants (P trend = 0.05) (Figure 1).¹⁵

Supplementation of lutein/zeaxanthin

A number of small studies have investigated this topic. Some studied the retina of healthy subjects who received supplementation of lutein and/or zeaxanthin, with or without meso-zeaxanthin. After duration of 8-52 weeks, the macular pigment optical density (MPOD) was significantly higher than at baseline.²³ Consumption of lutein/zeaxanthin rich foods like egg yolks or spinach improved serum lutein and zeaxanthin levels significantly. MPOD did improve in all groups, but only significantly in those with low MPOD at baseline and consumption of 4 egg/yolks per day.^{25,26}

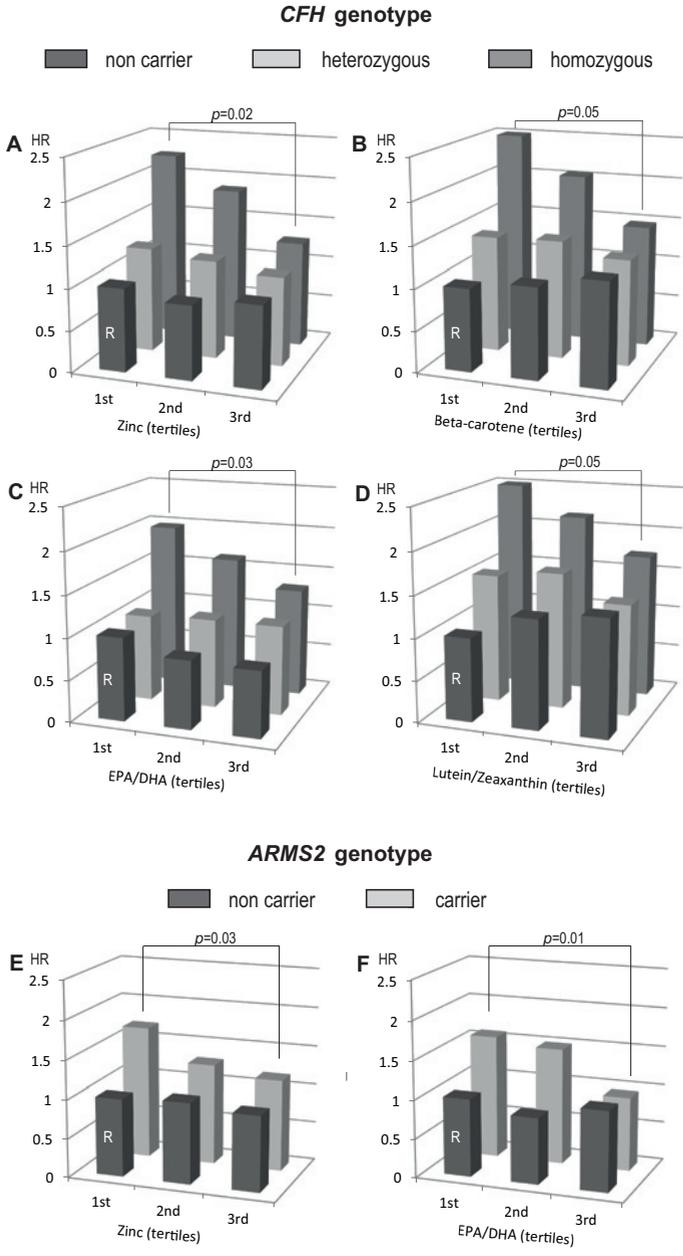


FIGURE 1 - Gene-environment interactions in the Rotterdam Study

A - D. Joint effect of dietary nutrient intake and *CFH* Y402H genotype on the risk of Early AMD;

E - F. Joint effect of dietary nutrient intake and *LOC387715* (*ARMS2*) A69S genotype on the risk of Early AMD.

R is the common reference group.

HRs are estimates of the relative risk of Early AMD, and represent the risk of disease (Early AMD vs No AMD) in the various genetic-environmental risk groups divided by the risk of disease (Early AMD vs No AMD) in the common reference group (R). HRs are estimated with Cox regression analyses and included age, sex, smoking status, and atherosclerosis.

When lutein or lutein/zeaxanthin were supplemented in participants with early or even advanced AMD, these studies reported improvement of visual functions (e.g. visual acuity and contrast sensitivity), increase in serum lutein and zeaxanthin levels, and MPOD.^{23,27} Since most carotenoids are lipid-soluble pigments, adding fatty acids to the oral supplementation could improve uptake of lutein/zeaxanthin in the gut. However, one study investigated this hypothesis and did not find a change of serum levels of lutein and zeaxanthin if omega-3 fatty acids were added to lutein/zeaxanthin supplementation.²⁸

Only one randomized controlled trial compared supplementation of zeaxanthin (8 mg) to supplementation of lutein (9 mg), and to supplementation of zeaxanthin (8 mg) and lutein (9 mg) combined, versus placebo. MPOD was elevated in all supplementation groups, but was only significant in the groups supplemented with zeaxanthin or lutein alone. Zeaxanthin improved foveal cone-based visual parameters, while lutein enhanced those associated with gross detailed rod-based vision. In the lutein/zeaxanthin group, the two carotenoids were dosed equally rather than 10:1-2 which is the natural ratio. This may have led to duodenal, hepatic-lipoprotein or retinal competition between these nutrients, prohibiting efficient uptake and activity.²⁹

Several design issues of the studies should be discussed. The majority of the studies on advanced cases of AMD investigated geographic atrophy (GA) and focused on visual acuity as the outcome event. An outcome as enlargement of surface area of the atrophic lesions would have been more objective. Another issue is the size of the studies. Most case-series and trials were very small (N= 5-136 participants). Contrary to other nutrients, there is no recommended daily allowance or upper level of intake (Table 2) for lutein/zeaxanthin, and harmful effects with unnatural high dosages are currently unknown.

Lycopene

This carotene can be found in tomatoes and other red vegetables (Table 1); it has no retinal activity. In most studies, dietary intake of lycopene was not associated with early or advanced AMD.^{5,9,10} However, Morris et al. (2007) did find a trend for lycopene and pigmentary abnormalities; a history of higher intake of lycopene decreased the risk of pigmentary abnormalities (*P* trend = 0.02).

Serum levels of lycopene were inversely correlated with early and advanced AMD (RR 0.49; 95% CI 0.28-0.86 and RR 0.22; 95% CI 0.1-0.48 respectively).⁸ A few small serum studies reported similar results for early, late and any AMD.^{20,21,30}

TRACE ELEMENTS

Trace elements are dietary minerals and are needed in small amounts for normal cell function. Often a trace element is the core of enzymes. However, in large amounts trace elements are toxic.

Zinc

The retina contains high amounts of zinc suggesting a crucial role for this trace element.³¹ Zinc has antioxidant functions and also acts as a cofactor in several enzymes including retinol dehydrogenase, an important enzyme in the vitamin A visual cycle.

TABLE 2 - Estimated Average Requirements (EAR), Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDA), Adequate Intakes (AI) and Tolerable Upper intake levels

Nutrient	EAR				RDA / AI				Tolerable Upper intake			
	Males		Females		Males		Females		Males		Females	
	> 70 yrs	51-70 yrs	> 70 yrs	51-70 yrs	> 70 yrs							
Choline (mg/day)*	ND	ND	ND	550	550	425	425	3500	3500	3500	3500	
Lutein and Zeaxanthin**	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
Lycopene**	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
Retinol activity equivalents (RAEs)***	625	500	500	900	900	700	700	3000	3000	3000	3000	
Omega-3 fatty acids**	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
Selenium (µg/day)	45	45	45	55	55	55	55	400	400	400	400	
Vitamin C (mg/day)	75	75	60	90	90	75	75	2000	2000	2000	2000	
Vitamin D (µg/day)****	10	10	10	15	20	15	20	100	100	100	100	
Vitamin E (mg/day)*****	12	12	12	15	15	15	15	1000	1000	1000	1000	
Zinc (mg/day)	9.4	9.4	6.8	11	11	8	8	40	40	40	40	

Taken from United States Department of Agriculture

NOTE: Estimated Average Requirements (EAR) is the average daily nutrient intake level estimated to satisfy the needs of 50% of the healthy individuals in a group;

Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDA) in ordinary type and Adequate Intakes (AI) in *italic type*; No Data (ND)

* Only adequate intake for choline has been set. No data available for betaine or methionine

** No RDA, AI or upper limit has been set for these nutrients

*** 1 RAE = 1µg retinol, 12 µg β-carotene, 24 µg α-carotene, 24 µg β-cryptoxanthin; Upper intake was not determined for carotenoids;

**** Vitamin D as cholecalciferol. 1 µg cholecalciferol = 40 IU vitamin D; also under the assumption of minimal sunlight

***** As α-Tocopherol. 1 mg α-Tocopherol = 1.5 IU α-Tocopherol.

Dietary zinc

Several observational studies have investigated the role of dietary zinc and early AMD. Two studies reported an inverse trend for dietary and supplementary intake of zinc approximately ten years before ophthalmic examination and pigmentary abnormalities.^{6,7} However, no association was found for early AMD (OR 0.91; 95% CI 0.74-1.11). A significant interaction was found between dietary zinc intake and the major susceptibility genes: *CFH* (Y402H) and *AMRS2* (A69S), respectively. Carriers of risk variants had a higher risk of AMD in the lower tertile of zinc intake, but risks lowered dramatically when intakes increased (Figure 1).¹⁵

Supplementation of zinc

Zinc supplementation had an inverse effect on developing advanced AMD in participants with signs of early AMD in a meta-analysis (OR 0.73; 95% CI 0.58-0.93). Zinc was supplemented as zinc oxide (80mg/day; together with cupric oxide, 2 mg/day) in the Age-related Eye Disease Study (AREDS) trial, and as zinc sulphate (200 mg/day) in the other trials. These dosages are highly above the recommended upper level of zinc intake (Table 2).³² Zinc sulphate is the most common zinc salt in diet and supplements; zinc oxide has the longest history as a medicine, especially for skin irritations and wounds. Supplements versus AMD genotype appeared less significant than diet versus genotype. In the AREDS trial, non-carriers of *CFH* (Y402H) showed a more decreased risk after zinc supplementation than carriers, contradicting the findings with diet.³³

Zinc also has the capability to interact with the complement cascade, it is known to downregulate complement activation. Complement activation is an established mechanism of AMD pathogenesis, hence, this explains the positive effect of high zinc intake. *ARMS2* (A69S) may influence mitochondrial function leading to increased complement activation, which again can be counteracted by zinc.¹⁵ Zinc supplementation at high levels may lead to side effects and complications, including gastrointestinal symptoms, anemia and more severe genitourinary causes, therefore, caution is warranted.^{32,34}

Selenium

Selenium has antioxidant and inflammatory capacities and has therefore been investigated in AMD. No positive associations have been found.³⁵ Selenium has been supplemented, but always in combination with other antioxidants, prohibiting the study of the single effect.

VITAMINS

Historically, all vitamins were thought to be amines, hence, in 1921 Kazimierz Funk put together the words 'vital' and 'amine', and composed 'vitamine'. Vitamins are needed only in limited amounts.

Vitamin A

This fat-soluble vitamin was discovered in the beginning of the 20th century in butterfat, and it appeared to be associated with yellow-plant pigments, the carotenoids. Later, vitamin A was found in the retinal tissue of rats, and was named 'retinol' after the retina.³⁶ Total vitamin A includes carotenoids, originating from plants, as well as retinol, derived from animals. Foods containing high levels of retinol are liver and butter (Table 1). Carotenoids have been discussed earlier in this chapter.

The influence of vitamin A on ophthalmological health has long been known; a vitamin A deficient diet leads to diseases of the cornea, i.e., xerolphthalmia and keratomalacia, and also to diseases of the retina causing nyctalopia and hemeralopia. Retinal, the active form of retinol, bonds with 'opsine' to form 'rhodopsine', the photosensitive molecule of rod photoreceptors. Aside from the visual

function, vitamin A is also needed for growth, survival, and immunity. Supplementation of vitamin A has been investigated since the 1920s and has been associated with a reduction of mortality and morbidity in different infectious diseases.^{37,38}

Total vitamin A and retinol

Goldberg et al (1988) investigated the data from NHANES-I and suggested a negative association between dietary vitamin A and AMD (P trend = 0.058). Since then vitamin A has been investigated by others. A meta-analysis included three prospective cohort studies and could not find an association of dietary vitamin A intake and incident early AMD (OR 0.98; 95% CI 0.81-1.18).⁵ Nevertheless, total vitamin A intake including supplement use appeared to be associated with a decrease of pigmentary abnormalities (P trend = 0.01).⁷

For advanced AMD, a trend for total vitamin A intake without supplements was found in a case control study (P trend = 0.05).¹⁰ Inclusion of supplement use increased the association (P trend = 0.02). In this study, retinol per se did not have a significant effect. In the AREDS study, dietary Vitamin A intake including retinol had a beneficial effect on advanced AMD.⁹

Vitamin C

L-ascorbid acid, or vitamin C, is a powerful water-soluble antioxidant. Most mammals can synthesize vitamin C from glucose in their liver, except for some species like humans. These species lack the enzyme gulonolactone oxidase; as a consequence, diet is their only source for vitamin C. When diet does not include vitamin C, this can lead to scurvy, a lethal condition if not treated appropriately. Thus, vitamin C is needed to survive.³⁹

Vitamin C may play a role in the pathogenesis of AMD. This potent antioxidant could potentially inhibit cellular damage from free radicals provoked by ultraviolet exposure in the retina. This hypothesis has been tested in many different study designs.

Dietary vitamin C

A meta-analysis has pooled the point estimates from four large, high quality cohort studies. The meta-analysis results, just like the single study results, showed no association vitamin C with incident early AMD (OR 1.11; 95% CI 0.84-1.46). No meta-analysis was carried out for advanced AMD, since not every study had investigated advanced AMD. Those studies that did, did not find an association of vitamin C with incident advanced AMD.⁵ A case-control study found a trend for intake of vitamin C versus a lower risk of neovascular AMD (P trend = 0.03).¹⁰

Supplementation of vitamin C

There are almost no studies which investigated vitamin C as the only supplement use. Most studies combined vitamin C together with other antioxidants.³⁴ Recently, findings from a randomized double-masked, placebo-controlled trial showed that there was no association of 500 mg vitamin C supplementation with incident AMD (Hazard Ratio (HR), 0.99; 95% CI 0.75-1.31).⁴⁰ Supplementation of vitamin C mostly included 500 mg. Experiments have shown that plasma of subjects is saturated at doses of 400 mg daily.³⁹ Increasing the administered dose will probably provide the same results.

In conclusion, no strong association with AMD has been found for vitamin C, nor in diet, nor as supplementation.

Vitamin D

Vitamin D does not only play a role in bone mineralization, but also has anti-inflammatory and antiangiogenic properties.⁴¹ Hence, a role for vitamin D has been suggested.

There are different forms of vitamin D. The two main forms are vitamin D2 (ergocalciferol) and vitamin D3 (cholecalciferol), which only differ from each other by one methyl-group.^{42,43} Vitamin D2 is a plant-derived form and can be produced through ultraviolet exposure of foods. A food source naturally rich in vitamin D3 is fatty fish (Table 1).⁴² Diet, however, only contributes 10% of total serum level of vitamin D.⁴⁴ The majority of vitamin D3 is from endogenous produced vitamin D3, which is synthesized in the skin under influence of ultraviolet light of the sun. In the liver, vitamin D3 is hydroxylated into 25-hydroxyvitamin D3 (25(OH)D), and in the kidney, it is hydroxylated to 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 (1,25(OH)D), the active metabolite of vitamin D.⁴²

Several studies investigated the role of vitamin D with any form of AMD, as well as early and advanced AMD, and studied the nutrient intake as sunlight exposure, serum levels 25(OH)D, and intake of vitamin D via diet or supplements.

Vitamin D through sunlight exposure

The majority of vitamin D is produced through sunlight exposure of the skin. This environmental factor has been analyzed since the beginning of AMD research, with contradicting results. The combination of a potential harmful effect by DNA damage as well as a beneficial effect through Vitamin D may be an explanation.

Serum levels 25(OH)D

Parekh et al. (2007) was the first to report an association of serum levels of 25(OH)D with AMD in white non-Hispanics. The three highest quintiles of serum level 25(OH)D were inversely associated with early AMD after adjustment for age and serum cotinine, a biomarker for exposure to tobacco (P trend = 0.003).⁴¹ Among non-Hispanic Blacks and Mexican American individuals a similar, albeit non-significant, effect was found. This study also analyzed the different characteristics of early AMD, soft drusen and pigmentary changes on the entire population. Soft drusen, but not pigmentary changes were associated with 25(OH)D serum levels; P trend = 0.006 and 0.40 respectively. An association with advanced AMD was not found, most likely due to the small number of advanced cases.

An inverse association of 25(OH)D levels with early AMD, but not with advanced AMD, was found in postmenopausal women < 75yrs (P trend = 0.01).⁴⁴

A few studies have analyzed hypovitaminosis D as a marker for AMD. No associations within these analysis has been found for neovascular AMD⁴⁵, but a significant association was reported for hypovitaminosis with any form of AMD.⁴⁶ Serum level of 25(OH)D lower than 50nmol/L increased the risk of AMD 3 times (OR 3.03; 95% CI 1.04-8.80). Although interesting, these results need to be interpreted carefully since the number of cases and controls was small (N=65), and the study has not yet been replicated.

Dietary vitamin D

A positive association with decreased intake was found by a twin study, which selected 28 discordant twin pairs: one twin was diagnosed with advanced AMD; the other twin had no or only signs of early AMD. Vitamin D intake appeared significantly higher in twins with no or only early AMD (P = 0.048).⁴⁷ In some countries, dairy products are enriched with vitamin D, such as liquid milk in the United States

of America. One study showed that milk consumption was positively correlated with serum vitamin D levels (Pearson correlation coefficient, 0.2; $P < 0.001$), and more than weekly milk consumption was associated with lower odds for early AMD. But only soft drusen were significantly inversely associated with the consumption of milk. No association of advanced AMD with milk consumption was found.⁴¹ Fatty fish is another food which is rich in vitamin D, and this may also attribute to the protective effect that has been found for fatty fish.^{48,49}

Supplementation of vitamin D

Results of supplement use are inconclusive.^{41,44} Most supplements contain vitamin D₂, which is almost ten times less active than vitamin D₃.⁴³ This may explain the difficulty in finding a strong association. Parekh et al. (2007) did not find an association in the total population, but, after excluding those with high intake due to milk consumption, he did. To disentangle the effects, it would have been more interesting if he analyzed the use of vitamin D supplements in the population not consuming any milk.

Vitamin E

Vitamin E refers to a group of tocopherols and tocotrienols, of which the former is the most profuse form in nature and has the highest biological activity. Vitamin E deficiency therefore mainly refers to α -tocopherol. Vitamin E is a fat-soluble chain-breaking antioxidant, and may protect the retina from damage caused by free-radicals. High levels of this nutrient can be found in corn and soybean oil (Table 1).⁵⁰

Plasma levels α -tocopherol

In the POLA study, no significant association was found between plasma levels of α -tocopherol and advanced AMD ($P = 0.08$). When α -tocopherol plasma levels were standardized to plasma lipids like cholesterol and triglycerides, the ratio was negatively associated with advanced AMD ($P = 0.004$). The ratio was also associated with any signs of early AMD, drusen or pigmentary changes, in subjects free of advanced AMD ($P = 0.04$). All associations were adjusted for potential confounding factors.⁵¹

Dietary vitamin E

Several prospective cohort studies have investigated the role of dietary vitamin E and the risk of developing AMD. Of these studies, three were of high quality and results were pooled quantitatively using meta-analytic methods. An almost significant association was found for vitamin E and incident early AMD (OR 0.83; 95% CI 0.69-1.01).⁵ For advanced AMD, an association was found in the long-term follow-up of one study; higher intakes of total vitamin E (including supplement use) predicted advanced AMD.¹¹ This was not confirmed by the other studies.

Supplementation of vitamin E

Recently, a meta-analysis was published concerning three large trials supplementing vitamin E to healthy subjects.¹² Vitamin E had been supplemented in different dosages of α -tocopherol, 50-402 mg = 75-600IU versus placebo for 4-10 years. The complete sample consisted of 40,887 participants of which 20,438 had received α -tocopherol supplementation; 20,449 had been assigned to placebo. In the supplemented group, 405 individuals developed early AMD, and 42 advanced AMD. In the placebo group, 458 progressed to early AMD; 31 to advanced AMD. Thus, no associations were found (any type of AMD RR 0.98; 95% CI 0.89-1.08; advanced AMD RR 1.05; 95% CI 0.80-1.39).

Many studies have investigated the role of vitamin E in chronic diseases. High-dose vitamin E supplements (≥ 268 mg=400 IU) have been linked to an increased risk of heart failure in people with vascular disease and diabetes. Supplements given in these trials were up to 15-fold higher than the maximum dietary intake in the cohort studies. Since a protective effect against AMD is dubious for vitamin E,⁵² extra care should be taken not to prescribe supplementation to those with cardiovascular risk factors.

LIPIDS

Almost 20% of the dry weight of the retina is accountable to lipids. Over half of all the retinal fatty acids are unsaturated; the majority of these are polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs). Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) is a PUFA which can be found in the photoreceptor outer segments, and which has been shown to be a survival factor for photoreceptors. The high concentrations of this lipid in the retina and its anti-inflammatory properties⁵³ suggests a potential role for omega-3 fatty acids in retinal disease.

Dietary intake lipids

Reported outcomes of dietary omega-3 fatty acids, fish consumption (rich of omega-3 fatty acids) and nut consumption have all been shown to be protective against early and late AMD.⁵³ A meta-analysis showed an inverse effect of high intake of omega-3 fatty acids and late AMD (OR 0.62; 95% CI 0.48-0.82).⁵⁴ In contrast to omega-3 fat, high levels of trans-fat may potentially increase the risk of AMD, but consistent evidence on this notion is lacking.⁵³

A large multi-centered case-control study found a link between the positive effect of omega-3 fatty acids and linolic acid, an omega-6 fatty acid. The beneficial effect of high intake of omega-3 fatty acids was particularly found in persons with a low intake of linolic acid.⁵⁵ Similar results have been described for fish intake.⁴⁸ This indicates that the ratio of omega-6/omega-3 fatty acids needs to be of the right balance. The most ideal ratio is 3:1 or 4:1, while in reality this is 10-50:1 for the average American.⁵⁶

Interaction between AMD genes and intake of DHA and the other omega-3 lipid, eicopentaenoic acid (EPA), was studied in the Rotterdam Study. Homozygous carriers of the *CFH* variant Y402H could lower their risk of developing early AMD with high intake of DHA/EPA (P trend = 0.03). A same effect was found for carriers of the risk variant *ARMS2* A69S (P trend= 0.01).

A similar effect was found for fish intake and *CFH* Y402H carriers. Weekly consumption of fish was associated with reduced risk of late AMD for carriers of the risk variant.⁴⁹

Supplementation of omega-3 fatty acids

Very little is known on supplementation of omega-3 fatty acids as a single nutrient and AMD. A pilot trial was carried out in 38 patients with drusenoid pigment epithelial detachment in one eye, and the effect of oral supplementation with EPA 720mg/day and DHA 480 mg day was compared to no treatment (control group). After 6 months of supplementation, a significant increase of serum levels and red blood cell membranes of EPA and DHA was found, while no change was found in the control group. Since no exudative AMD occurred during the short follow up time, no inferences on supplementation of EPA/DHA can be made.⁵⁷ Before long, the results of the AREDS2 trial are expected. In this trial the supplementation of lutein/zeaxanthin and/or omega-3 fatty acids and the risk of advanced AMD are being studied.⁵⁸

EPIGENETICS AND NUTRIENTS

Epigenetics refers to functional changes of the genome without a change in DNA nucleotide sequence. This could explain phenotypical differences in diseased monozygotic twins.⁵⁹ Various nutrients may cause epigenetic changes. Among those reported to have this capacity, betaine (a choline derivate) and methionine have been associated with advanced AMD.⁴⁷ In the US Twin Study of Age-Related Macular Degeneration, Seddon et al. (2011) found high dietary intake of betaine to be inversely associated with grade of AMD ($P = 0.009$; adjusted for age, smoking and differences between twins), but not with drusen size, drusen area or pigment area. She found an inverse association for dietary methionine and drusen area ($P = 0.033$; but not with AMD grade, drusen size or pigment area. There was no significant association for dietary choline intake with the macular phenotype.

Betaine, choline, methionine and homocysteine are involved in the one-carbon metabolism pathway, which occurs in DNA methylation. Choline is oxidized to betaine, which, together with homocysteine, will produce methionine under the influence of vitamin B12. Methionine is an essential amino acid for DNA methylation.⁵⁹ Dietary choline, betaine and methionine influence DNA methylation; higher intakes of choline and betaine showed lower plasma levels of homocysteine, and a reduction of inflammatory markers in serum.^{59,60} Higher levels of homocysteine or inflammatory markers were found to be risk factors for AMD.⁴⁷ Further studies are needed to confirm these associations with AMD.

RESVERATROL

Resveratrol is a natural phenol produced by plants which may have anticancer and anti-inflammatory effects. It can be found in the skin of red grapes, and is also present in red wine, although in very low concentrations. Experiments have indicated that resveratrol may protect retinal pigment epithelial cells from oxidative stress in culture.⁶¹ This nutrient could have a beneficial effect on eye health and help protecting the macula against AMD. We are not aware of any ongoing trials investigating resveratrol supplementation and AMD.

SUPPLEMENTATION WITH COMBINED NUTRIENTS

Many nutrients have been supplemented together, making it impossible to investigate the role of the individual nutrients and risk of AMD. Studies supplemented different combinations and dosages, further hampering comparison. Nevertheless, it appears that supplementation of several nutrients combined can be beneficial; they could enforce each other. In the AREDS trial, a double-masker clinical trial, participants were randomly subscribed to oral use of (1) antioxidant (vitamin C 500 mg; vitamin E 400 IU; β -carotene 15 mg), (2) zinc (zinc oxide 80 mg and cupric oxide 2 mg), (3) antioxidants plus zinc or (4) placebo. Estimates of RR show that those who were taking antioxidant and zinc had a 25% risk reduction of advanced AMD, while the groups that were taking antioxidant alone or zinc alone had a reduction of 17% and 21%, respectively.³⁴

However, the more the merrier does not account for all nutrients. Nutrients that are alike mostly use the same uptake and transportation routes throughout the body. High levels of supplementation could then lead to competition between these nutrients, and this could even lead to deficiencies. An example of this is copper deficiency caused by increased zinc consumption.^{32,34}

CONCLUSION

Nutrients and AMD have been widely studied. Not all prior questions have been answered, and new questions have already been launched. Nonetheless, from the current findings we conclude that a healthy diet for instance, as recommended by the United States Department of Agriculture in the food pyramid may help lower the risk of AMD with a special focus on carotenoids (lutein, zeaxanthin, lycopene), zinc, and omega-3 fatty acids (Table 3; Figure 2). Less firmly established, but also promising, appear a high intake of vitamin D and nutrients influencing epigenetics. Beneficial effects may be particularly present in those carrying a genetic risk of AMD.

A word of concern is at place. We need to keep in mind that the nutrients mentioned in this chapter are generally not consumed as single items, but accompanied by other nutrients. Furthermore, a healthy diet is correlated with other lifestyle factors, which makes it difficult to interpret the positive effect of a healthy diet by itself.

TABLE 3 - Overview of nutrients and risk of AMD

Nutrient	Early AMD	Late AMD	References
Astaxanthin	NA	NA	
Betaine	NA	↓?	Seddon et al. 2011
α Carotene	~	↑?	Chong et al. 2007; Zhou et al. 2011
β Carotene	↓?	~	Chong et al. 2007; Evans 2012; Ho et al. 2011
β Cryptoxanthin	~	~	Seddon et al. 1994; Chong et al. 2007
Lutein/zeaxanthin	↓↓	↓↓	Ma et al. 2012; Sabour-Pickett et al. 2012
Lycopene	↓↓	↓↓	Mares-Perlman et al. 1995 Simonelli et al. 2002; Cardinault et al. 2005; Morris et al. 2007
Methionine	NA	↓?	Seddon et al. 2011
Omega-3 fatty acids	↓↓	↓↓	Chong et al. 2008; Kishan et al. 2011
Omega-6 fatty acids	NA	↑?	Kishan et al. 2011
Resveratrol	NA	NA	
Selenium	NA	NA	
Vitamin A (total)	~	↓?	Seddon et al. 1994; Chong et al. 2007; San Giovanni et al. 2007
Vitamin A (retinol)	~	~	Seddon et al. 1994; San Giovanni et al. 2007
Vitamin C	~	↓?	Seddon et al. 1994; Chong et al. 2007
Vitamin D	↓?	↓?	Parekh et al. 2007; Millen et al. 2011; Seddon et al. 2011; Graffe et al. 2012
Vitamin E*	~	~	Chong et al. 2007; Evans 2012
Zinc	↓?	↓↓	Chong et al. 2007; Evans 2008; Ho et al. 2011

* There are many different forms of vitamin E, the most common is α-tocopherol

↓↓	lowering
↓?	possible lowering
~	questionable
↑?	possible increase
↑↑	increase
NA	Not able; no results available

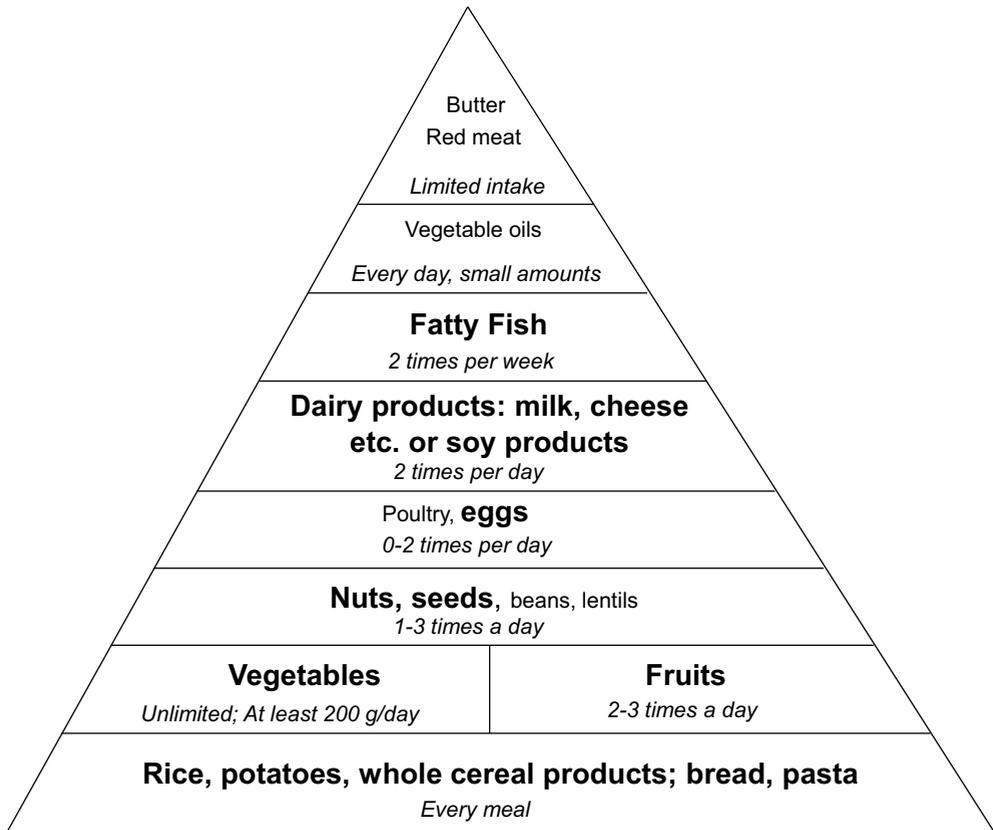


FIGURE 2 - Nutritional advice for lowering risk on AMD

This food pyramid gives a nutritional advice for lowering risk on AMD. All the foods in bold contain nutrients which have been associated with a lower risk on developing AMD.

Take-home messages

- Vitamins and minerals are essential for normal retinal physiology. Supplementation of these nutrients mostly has a dosage outside the recommended daily allowance, and therefore should be prescribed with thought.
- We consume foods, not nutrients.
- Dietary intake of carotenoids (lutein, zeaxanthin, lycopene) zinc and omega-3 fatty acids can help lower the risk of AMD
- Supplementation of lutein, zeaxanthin and zinc can help lower the risk of AMD.
- Vitamin D and nutrients influencing epigenetics are promising new topics for more in-depth research.
- Those at genetic risk should be made aware of their potential to lower the risk of AMD through diet.

REFERENCES

1. Goldberg J, Flowerdew G, Smith E, Brody JA, Tso MO. Factors associated with age-related macular degeneration. An analysis of data from the first National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. *American journal of epidemiology* 1988; 128(4): 700-10.
2. Armstrong GA, Hearst JE. Carotenoids 2: Genetics and molecular biology of carotenoid pigment biosynthesis. *FASEB journal : official publication of the Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology* 1996; 10(2): 228-37.
3. Parisi V, Tedeschi M, Gallinaro G, Varano M, Saviano S, Piermarocchi S. Carotenoids and antioxidants in age-related maculopathy italian study: multifocal electroretinogram modifications after 1 year. *Ophthalmology* 2008; 115(2): 324-33 e2.
4. Piermarocchi S, Saviano S, Parisi V, et al. Carotenoids in Age-related Maculopathy Italian Study (CARMIS): two-year results of a randomized study. *Eur J Ophthalmol* 2012; 22(2): 216-25.
5. Chong EW, Wong TY, Kreis AJ, Simpson JA, Guymer RH. Dietary antioxidants and primary prevention of age related macular degeneration: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ* 2007; 335(7623): 755.
6. VandenLangenberg GM, Mares-Perlman JA, Klein R, Klein BE, Brady WE, Palta M. Associations between antioxidant and zinc intake and the 5-year incidence of early age-related maculopathy in the Beaver Dam Eye Study. *American journal of epidemiology* 1998; 148(2): 204-14.
7. Morris MS, Jacques PF, Chylack LT, et al. Intake of zinc and antioxidant micronutrients and early age-related maculopathy lesions. *Ophthalmic epidemiology* 2007; 14(5): 288-98.
8. Zhou H, Zhao X, Johnson EJ, et al. Serum carotenoids and risk of age-related macular degeneration in a chinese population sample. *Investigative ophthalmology & visual science* 2011; 52(7): 4338-44.
9. SanGiovanni JP, Chew EY, Clemons TE, et al. The relationship of dietary carotenoid and vitamin A, E, and C intake with age-related macular degeneration in a case-control study: AREDS Report No. 22. *Archives of ophthalmology* 2007; 125(9): 1225-32.
10. Seddon JM, Ajani UA, Sperduto RD, et al. Dietary carotenoids, vitamins A, C, and E, and advanced age-related macular degeneration. Eye Disease Case-Control Study Group. *JAMA : the journal of the American Medical Association* 1994; 272(18): 1413-20.
11. Tan JS, Wang JJ, Flood V, Rochtchina E, Smith W, Mitchell P. Dietary antioxidants and the long-term incidence of age-related macular degeneration: the Blue Mountains Eye Study. *Ophthalmology* 2008; 115(2): 334-41.
12. Evans JR, Lawrenson JG. Antioxidant vitamin and mineral supplements for preventing age-related macular degeneration. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2012; 6: CD000253.
13. Klein RJ, Zeiss C, Chew EY, et al. Complement factor H polymorphism in age-related macular degeneration. *Science* 2005; 308(5720): 385-9.
14. Rivera A, Fisher SA, Fritsche LG, et al. Hypothetical LOC387715 is a second major susceptibility gene for age-related macular degeneration, contributing independently of complement factor H to disease risk. *Human molecular genetics* 2005; 14(21): 3227-36.
15. Ho L, van Leeuwen R, Witteman JC, et al. Reducing the genetic risk of age-related macular degeneration with dietary antioxidants, zinc, and omega-3 fatty acids: the Rotterdam study. *Archives of ophthalmology* 2011; 129(6): 758-66.
16. The effect of vitamin E and beta carotene on the incidence of lung cancer and other cancers in male smokers. The Alpha-Tocopherol, Beta Carotene Cancer Prevention Study Group. *The New England journal of medicine* 1994; 330(15): 1029-35.
17. Omenn GS, Goodman GE, Thornquist MD, et al. Effects of a combination of beta carotene and vitamin A on lung cancer and cardiovascular disease. *The New England journal of medicine* 1996; 334(18): 1150-5.
18. Lian F, Hu KQ, Russell RM, Wang XD. Beta-cryptoxanthin suppresses the growth of immortalized human bronchial epithelial cells and non-small-cell lung cancer cells and up-regulates retinoic acid receptor beta expression. *International journal of cancer Journal internationale du cancer* 2006; 119(9): 2084-9.
19. DeLorenze GN, McCoy L, Tsai AL, et al. Daily intake of antioxidants in relation to survival among adult patients diagnosed with malignant glioma. *BMC cancer* 2010; 10: 215.
20. Cardinault N, Abalain JH, Sairafi B, et al. Lycopene but not lutein nor zeaxanthin decreases in serum and lipoproteins in age-related macular degeneration patients. *Clin Chim Acta* 2005; 357(1): 34-42.
21. Simonelli F, Zarrilli F, Mazzeo S, et al. Serum oxidative and antioxidant parameters in a group of Italian patients with age-related maculopathy. *Clin Chim Acta* 2002; 320(1-2): 111-5.
22. Bone RA, Landrum JT, Hime GW, Cains A, Zamor J. Stereochemistry of the human macular carotenoids. *Investigative ophthalmology & visual science* 1993; 34(6): 2033-40.
23. Sabour-Pickett S, Nolan JM, Loughman J, Beatty S. A review of the evidence germane to the putative

- protective role of the macular carotenoids for age-related macular degeneration. *Mol Nutr Food Res* 2012; 56(2): 270-86.
24. Ma L, Dou HL, Wu YQ, et al. Lutein and zeaxanthin intake and the risk of age-related macular degeneration: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Nutr* 2012; 107(3): 350-9.
 25. Graydon R, Hogg RE, Chakravarthy U, Young IS, Woodside JV. The effect of lutein- and zeaxanthin-rich foods v. supplements on macular pigment level and serological markers of endothelial activation, inflammation and oxidation: pilot studies in healthy volunteers. *Br J Nutr* 2012; 108(2): 334-42.
 26. Vishwanathan R, Goodrow-Kotyla EF, Wooten BR, Wilson TA, Nicolosi RJ. Consumption of 2 and 4 egg yolks/d for 5 wk increases macular pigment concentrations in older adults with low macular pigment taking cholesterol-lowering statins. *The American journal of clinical nutrition* 2009; 90(5): 1272-9.
 27. Ma L, Lin XM. Effects of lutein and zeaxanthin on aspects of eye health. *Journal of the science of food and agriculture* 2010; 90(1): 2-12.
 28. Huang LL, Coleman HR, Kim J, et al. Oral supplementation of lutein/zeaxanthin and omega-3 long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids in persons aged 60 years or older, with or without AMD. *Investigative ophthalmology & visual science* 2008; 49(9): 3864-9.
 29. Richer SP, Stiles W, Graham-Hoffman K, et al. Randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study of zeaxanthin and visual function in patients with atrophic age-related macular degeneration: the Zeaxanthin and Visual Function Study (ZVF) FDA IND #78, 973. *Optometry* 2011; 82(11): 667-80 e6.
 30. Mares-Perlman JA, Brady WE, Klein R, et al. Serum antioxidants and age-related macular degeneration in a population-based case-control study. *Archives of ophthalmology* 1995; 113(12): 1518-23.
 31. Ugarte M, Osborne NN. Zinc in the retina. *Prog Neurobiol* 2001; 64(3): 219-49.
 32. Evans J. Antioxidant supplements to prevent or slow down the progression of AMD: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eye (Lond)* 2008; 22(6): 751-60.
 33. Klein ML, Francis PJ, Rosner B, et al. CFH and LOC387715/ARMS2 genotypes and treatment with antioxidants and zinc for age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 2008; 115(6): 1019-25.
 34. A randomized, placebo-controlled, clinical trial of high-dose supplementation with vitamins C and E, beta carotene, and zinc for age-related macular degeneration and vision loss: AREDS report no. 8. *Archives of ophthalmology* 2001; 119(10): 1417-36.
 35. Antioxidant status and neovascular age-related macular degeneration. Eye Disease Case-Control Study Group. *Archives of ophthalmology* 1993; 111(1): 104-9.
 36. Yudkin AM. The Presence of Vitamin A in the Retina. *Transactions of the American Ophthalmological Society* 1931; 29: 263-72.
 37. Semba RD. Vitamin A as "anti-infective" therapy, 1920-1940. *The Journal of nutrition* 1999; 129(4): 783-91.
 38. Semba RD. Vitamin A and immunity to viral, bacterial and protozoan infections. *The Proceedings of the Nutrition Society* 1999; 58(3): 719-27.
 39. Padayatty SJ, Katz A, Wang Y, et al. Vitamin C as an antioxidant: evaluation of its role in disease prevention. *J Am Coll Nutr* 2003; 22(1): 18-35.
 40. Christen WG, Glynn RJ, Sesso HD, et al. Vitamins E and C and Medical Record-Confirmed Age-related Macular Degeneration in a Randomized Trial of Male Physicians. *Ophthalmology* 2012; 119(8): 1642-9.
 41. Parekh N, Chappell RJ, Millen AE, Albert DM, Mares JA. Association between vitamin D and age-related macular degeneration in the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1988 through 1994. *Archives of ophthalmology* 2007; 125(5): 661-9.
 42. Lips P. Vitamin D physiology. *Progress in biophysics and molecular biology* 2006; 92(1): 4-8.
 43. Houghton LA, Vieth R. The case against ergocalciferol (vitamin D2) as a vitamin supplement. *The American journal of clinical nutrition* 2006; 84(4): 694-7.
 44. Millen AE, Voland R, Sondel SA, et al. Vitamin D status and early age-related macular degeneration in postmenopausal women. *Archives of ophthalmology* 2011; 129(4): 481-9.
 45. Day S, Acquah K, Platt A, Lee PP, Mruthyunjaya P, Sloan FA. Association of vitamin d deficiency and age-related macular degeneration in medicare beneficiaries. *Archives of ophthalmology* 2012; 130(8): 1070-1.
 46. Graffe A, Milea D, Annweiler C, Beauchet O, Mauget-Faysse M, Kodjikian L. Association between hypovitaminosis D and late stages of age-related macular degeneration: a case-control study. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2012; 60(7): 1367-9.
 47. Seddon JM, Reynolds R, Shah HR, Rosner B. Smoking, dietary betaine, methionine, and vitamin D in monozygotic twins with discordant macular degeneration: epigenetic implications. *Ophthalmology* 2011; 118(7): 1386-94.
 48. Smith W, Mitchell P, Leeder SR. Dietary fat and fish intake and age-related maculopathy. *Archives of ophthalmology* 2000; 118(3): 401-4.

49. Wang JJ, Rochtchina E, Smith W, et al. Combined effects of complement factor H genotypes, fish consumption, and inflammatory markers on long-term risk for age-related macular degeneration in a cohort. *American journal of epidemiology* 2009; 169(5): 633-41.
50. Brigelius-Flohe R, Traber MG. Vitamin E: function and metabolism. *FASEB journal : official publication of the Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology* 1999; 13(10): 1145-55.
51. Delcourt C, Cristol JP, Tessier F, Leger CL, Descomps B, Papoz L. Age-related macular degeneration and antioxidant status in the POLA study. POLA Study Group. Pathologies Oculaires Liees a l'Age. *Archives of ophthalmology* 1999; 117(10): 1384-90.
52. Lonn E, Bosch J, Yusuf S, et al. Effects of long-term vitamin E supplementation on cardiovascular events and cancer: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA : the journal of the American Medical Association* 2005; 293(11): 1338-47.
53. Kishan AU, Modjtahedi BS, Martins EN, Modjtahedi SP, Morse LS. Lipids and age-related macular degeneration. *Surv Ophthalmol* 2011; 56(3): 195-213.
54. Chong EW, Kreis AJ, Wong TY, Simpson JA, Guymer RH. Dietary omega-3 fatty acid and fish intake in the primary prevention of age-related macular degeneration: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Archives of ophthalmology* 2008; 126(6): 826-33.
55. Seddon JM, Rosner B, Sperduto RD, et al. Dietary fat and risk for advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Archives of ophthalmology* 2001; 119(8): 1191-9.
56. Seddon JM, George S, Rosner B. Cigarette smoking, fish consumption, omega-3 fatty acid intake, and associations with age-related macular degeneration: the US Twin Study of Age-Related Macular Degeneration. *Archives of ophthalmology* 2006; 124(7): 995-1001.
57. Querques G, Benlian P, Chanu B, et al. Nutritional AMD treatment phase I (NAT-1): feasibility of oral DHA supplementation in age-related macular degeneration. *Eur J Ophthalmol* 2009; 19(1): 100-6.
58. Chew EY, Clemons T, Sangiovanni JP, et al. The Age-Related Eye Disease Study 2 (AREDS2): Study Design and Baseline Characteristics (AREDS2 Report Number 1). *Ophthalmology* 2012.
59. Anderson OS, Sant KE, Dolinoy DC. Nutrition and epigenetics: an interplay of dietary methyl donors, one-carbon metabolism and DNA methylation. *The Journal of nutritional biochemistry* 2012; 23(8): 853-9.
60. Rajaie S, Esmailzadeh A. Dietary choline and betaine intakes and risk of cardiovascular diseases: review of epidemiological evidence. *ARYA atherosclerosis* 2011; 7(2): 78-86.
61. Baur JA, Sinclair DA. Therapeutic potential of resveratrol: the in vivo evidence. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 2006; 5(6): 493-506.



Chapter 4.2

Recommended diet intake of vegetables, fruit, and fish is beneficial for age-related macular degeneration

Alexandra P.M. de Koning-Backus*, **Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk***, Jessica C. Kiefte-de Jong, Johanna M. Colijn, Albert Hofman, Johannes R. Vingerling, Elizabeth B. Haverkort, Oscar H. Franco, Caroline C.W. Klaver

*These authors contributed equally.

Manuscript submitted

ABSTRACT

Purpose Many studies have shown that various micronutrients reduce risk of age-related macular degeneration (AMD). However, what a diet offering protection should entail is not clear. We investigated whether general dietary guidelines for an overall healthy lifestyle is beneficial for AMD.

Design Prospective population-based Rotterdam Study

Participants 3448 persons aged 55+ years with gradable fundus photographs, no AMD at baseline, follow-up data, and reliable data on food consumption.

Methods Fundus photographs from 5 examination rounds were graded for the presence of any AMD. Dietary data were collected at baseline using a validated 170-item food frequency questionnaire and food categories based on Dutch Dietary Guidelines were categorized into food patterns. Associations of food patterns with incident AMD were analyzed using Cox-proportional hazards models. Risk profiles were analyzed for those adhering to recommended food patterns. Analyses were adjusted for age, sex, total energy intake, smoking, body mass index, hypertension, education and net year income.

Main Outcome Measures Incident early and late AMD determined per visit during a mean follow-up period of 9.1 ± 5.8 years.

Results A total of 754 persons developed incident AMD. Intake of fish (2x/week) decreased the risk of incident AMD; hazard ratio (HR) 0.76 [95% Confidence Interval (CI) 0.60-0.97]. Combined intake of the recommended proportions of fish, vegetables and fruit showed a further reduction of the risk of incident AMD (HR 0.58 [95%CI 0.36-0.93]). Individuals adhering to this food pattern were younger, had higher net income, and were less likely to smoke, but risk lowering effects remained significant after additional adjustment for these factors. Intake of food categories vegetables (≥ 200 gr/day), fruit (2x/day), and fish(2x/week) was 30.6%, 54.9% and 12.5%, respectively. Combined intake of these three food categories was consumed by 3.7% of the population. Only 0.3% adhered to the food pattern including all food categories.

Conclusion Only a small portion of the population adheres to dietary recommendations for an overall healthy lifestyle. However, a diet of 200 grams of vegetables/day, 2x fruit/day, and 2x fish/week is associated with a significantly reduced risk of AMD. This suggests that these dietary recommendations are useful for counseling persons at risk of AMD.

INTRODUCTION

Despite recent therapeutic developments, age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is still the leading cause of visual impairment in the elderly of industrialized countries. In Europe, the number of affected persons is expected to increase with the aging population to 18.8 million in 2040.^{1,2} As current therapeutic options are still unable to improve the long term visual prognosis, unraveling the etiology of AMD has become a strong research focus. The disease is caused by a complex interplay of many genetic and nongenetic factors,³ and nutrition is a key player among the amendable lifestyle factors.

Nutrients with anti-oxidative properties, in particular lutein and zeaxanthin, zinc, vitamins C and E, and the polyunsaturated omega-3 fatty acids, have been shown to reduce risk of developing AMD. Evidence for these beneficial effects stems from trials with high dose supplementation,^{4,5} as well as from reports on dietary intake.⁶⁻¹³ A diet which combines multiple beneficial nutrients appears to be more protective against AMD than an unvaried diet.^{10,14-16} Possible explanation is that the bioavailability and nutritional value of a nutrient depends on the concomitant uptake of other nutrients.

Although it is clear which micronutrients are important for AMD, clinicians and patients are still doubtful about the diet pattern which is beneficial for persons at risk of AMD. Several studies evaluated dietary patterns,¹⁴⁻¹⁶ nevertheless, how to translate their findings into clinical recommendations remains challenging. In this study, we aimed to assess whether simple dietary guidelines are associated with a reduced the risk of AMD.¹⁷ We therefore defined and analyzed recommended minimum intake values for different food categories and food patterns based on Dutch Dietary Guidelines and recommendations by the National Food Center (NFC). We also calculated the proportion of the population who adhered to these recommendations, characterized their profile, and investigated their risk of AMD.

METHODS

Study Population

The Rotterdam Study is a prospective, population-based cohort study investigating the frequencies and determinants of cardiovascular, neurological, ophthalmological, and locomotor diseases. The rationale and design have been described in detail elsewhere.¹⁸ In brief, all inhabitants' aged 55 years and older living in Ommoord, a city district of Rotterdam, The Netherlands, were invited to participate in the study (99% were from European descent). The ophthalmologic part of the study became operational after the pilot phase of the study had started, and included 6780 participants. A baseline home interview and examinations at the study center were performed from 1990 to 1993 and 4 follow-up examinations were performed in 1993-1995, 1997-1999, 2002-2004, and 2009-2011. The Rotterdam Study was approved by the Medical Ethics Committee of the Erasmus MC and by the Ministry of Health, Welfare, and Sport of the Netherlands, implementing the "Wet Bevolkingsonderzoek: ERGO (Population Studies Act: Rotterdam Study)." All participants provided written informed consent to participate in the study and to obtain information from their treating physicians.

For the current analysis, participants were eligible if they had gradable fundus photographs (N=6419) at baseline, at least one follow-up eye examination, and valid dietary assessments, which resulted in a study population of N=4201 persons (62% of persons with eye data (Figure 1: Diagram

showing selection of participants at risk of any AMD of the Rotterdam Study)). Of these, persons with a diagnosis of dementia were excluded because of unreliable dietary recall, persons with macular pathology other than AMD hindering appropriate grading of the macula, and persons with AMD (early or late) at baseline. Hence, only persons at risk of incident AMD were included in the analysis.

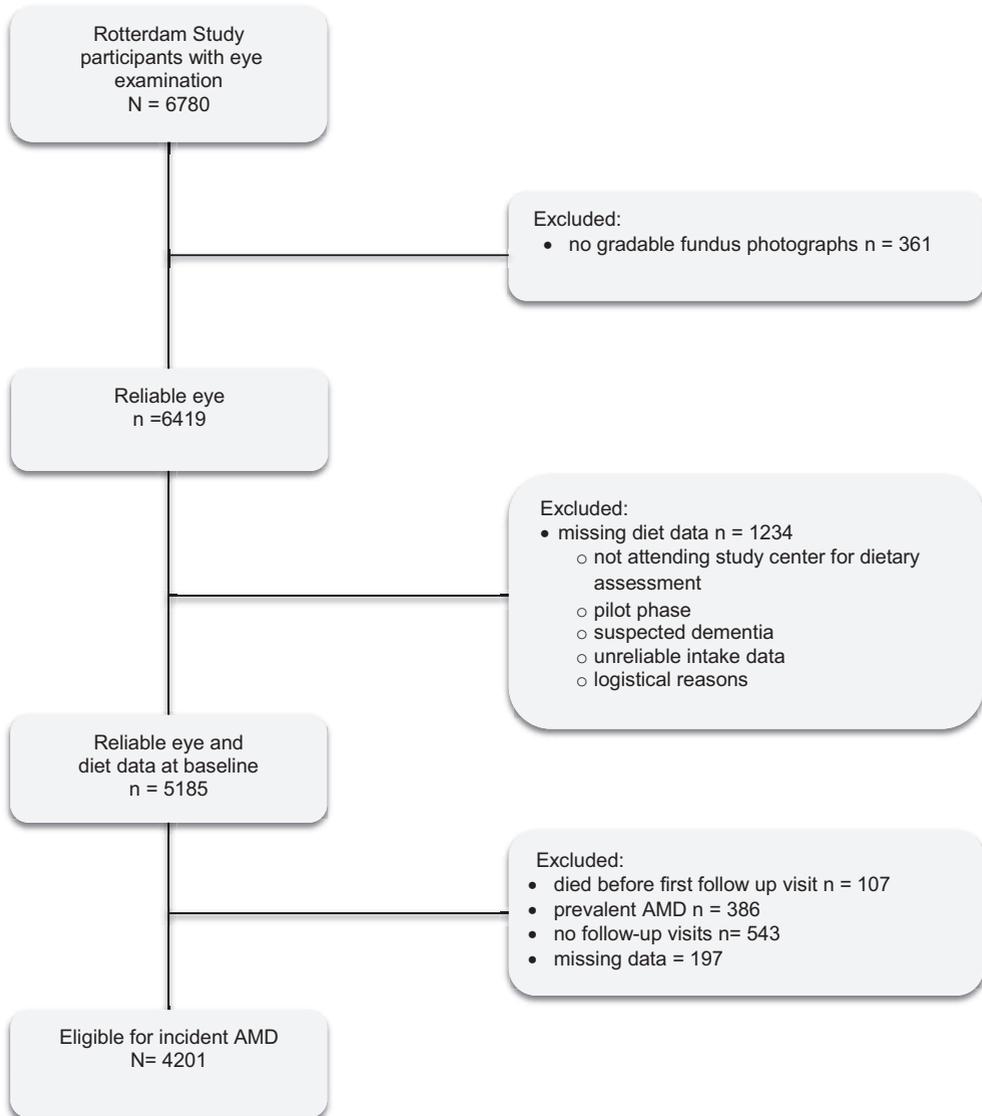


FIGURE 1 - Selection of participants at risk of any AMD of the Rotterdam Study

Assessment of AMD

Each participant underwent a comprehensive ophthalmic examination, including color fundus photography. Fundus photography of the macular area was performed after pupil dilation using a 35° fundus camera (Topcon TRV-50VT; Topcon Optical Company). This was replaced by a Topcon digital 35° color fundus camera (Topcon TRC 50EX with a Sony DXC-950P digital camera; 0.44 megapixel, Minato, Japan) during the third and fourth follow-up exam.

Grading procedures and graders were identical at baseline and follow-up. Graders were masked to non-ocular determinants, including dietary intake. Each eye was graded according to the Wisconsin Age-related Maculopathy Grading¹⁹ and classified using the Rotterdam classification.²⁰ Classification of the person was based upon the eye with the most severe AMD stage. The outcome was incident AMD, i.e., persons who developed signs of early or late AMD during the study period; no AMD was used as the reference. Early AMD was defined by presence of soft distinct drusen with pigmentary changes, soft indistinct drusen with or without pigmentary changes or reticular pseudodrusen with or without pigmentary changes. Late AMD was defined by presence of geographic atrophy and/or neovascular AMD. No AMD was defined as no signs of early or late AMD.

Dietary Assessment

At baseline, dietary intake was assessed using a two-stage approach: 1) Self-administered checklist at home in which subjects were asked which foods were consumed weekly, or at least twice a month during the preceding year. 2) Structured interview with a trained dietician at the research center reviewing self-administered checklists for frequencies and amounts. The interview included a 170-item, validated semi-quantitative Food Frequency Questionnaire. This questionnaire was validated and adapted for use in the elderly.^{17,18} Frequency of each intake was recorded as times per day, per week, or per month. The portion sizes in grams per day (gr/day) were estimated using standardized household measures.¹⁹ Using the computerized Dutch Food Composition Table of 1993, these dietary data were converted to macronutrient intakes.²⁰

Stratification into food categories and food patterns

We defined food categories and patterns with recommended minimum intake values based on recommendations by the NFC, which were published as the Dutch Dietary Guidelines in 2006¹⁷ (Supplementary Table 1).²⁵ Intake of each food category was coded as 'below recommended minimum intake values' and 'equal to and above recommended minimum intake values' in grams per day. NFC did not provide maximum intakes for the different food categories except for 'meat'; for which a maximum of 500 grams per week was taken into account. For the analysis, we calculated the equivalent intake per day ($500 \text{ gr} / 7 = 71 \text{ gr/day}$). Minimal amount of meat per day ($224 \text{ gr} / 7 = 32 \text{ gr/day}$) was based on 2 portions of meat per week. The recommended intake of 'vegetables' was 200 grams per day; we further stratified this category according to those rich in anti-oxidants associated with a reduced risk of AMD.^{4,5,10} 'Fruit' intake was advised as 2 large pieces of fruit per day, which is equivalent to approximately 200 grams of fruit per day. The recommended 'fish' intake was 2 portions a week, however, for our analysis, we calculated the equivalent intake of fish per day ($224 \text{ gr} / 7 = 32 \text{ gr/day}$). For the intake of 'eggs', 2 pieces a week was recommended and the equivalent per day was used in our analysis. We did not consider the recommended category 'beverages', as data on this category were unreliable.

We based the design of food patterns on various food categories (Table 2). Particularly focusing on foods with well-established relationships with AMD (i.e., lutein, zeaxanthin, omega-3 fatty acids). According to the Nevo tables, these nutrients can be found in vegetables, fruits, and fish. Beside

fish, we also studied the effect of poultry and meat as an alternative animal protein source. We first analyzed a pattern containing all food categories (#1, includes: 'vegetables', 'fruit', 'fish', 'eggs', 'poultry', 'meat', 'dairy', 'potatoes', 'legumes', 'grains' and 'fat products' like butter and margarine). Subsequent, food patterns (2-9) each contained a more limited set. Persons adhering to a food pattern were defined as those with intakes equal to and above the recommended minimum intake values in grams per day; persons with intakes below the recommended minimum intake were considered the reference group.

TABLE 2 - Food patterns based on Dutch Dietary Guidelines

Food pattern 1:	Vegetables \geq 200gr; fruit \geq 200gr; fish \geq 32gr; [egg, and/or poultry, and/or meat] \geq 80gr; and dairy 150 gr; [potatoes, and/or legumes, and/or grains] \geq 319gr; fat products \geq 15gr
Food pattern 2:	Vegetables \geq 200gr; fruit \geq 200gr; fish \geq 32gr; [egg and/or poultry and/or meat] \geq 80gr
Food pattern 3:	Vegetables \geq 200gr; fruit \geq 200gr; fish \geq 32gr; [egg and/or poultry] \geq 48gr
Food pattern 4:	Vegetables \geq 200gr; fruit \geq 200gr; fish \geq 32gr; poultry \geq 16gr
Food pattern 5:	Vegetables \geq 200gr; fruit \geq 200gr; fish \geq 32gr; 32gr \leq meat \leq 71gr
Food pattern 6:	Vegetables \geq 200gr; fruit \geq 200gr; poultry \geq 16gr
Food pattern 7:	Vegetables \geq 200gr; fruit \geq 200gr; egg \geq 32gr
Food pattern 8:	Vegetables \geq 200gr; fruit \geq 200gr; 32gr \leq meat \leq 71gr
Food pattern 9:	Vegetables \geq 200gr; fruit \geq 200gr; fish \geq 32gr

Abbreviations: gr = gram

Assessment of covariates

Information on covariates was collected through face-to-face, standardized interviews and physical examinations performed at baseline. Smoking was categorized in never, past, current. Education variable was divided in two groups \leq 12 years of education versus 13+ years. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height squared in meters. Blood pressure, systolic and diastolic, was calculated as the average of two consecutive measurements, using random-zero mercury sphygmomanometers. Hypertension was defined as a systolic blood pressure \geq 140 mmHg or a diastolic blood pressure \geq 90 mmHg or use of anti-hypertensive medication. Net year income at baseline was classified low (\leq 35,999 Dutch guilders), average (36,000 thru 48,999 Dutch guilders) and high (\geq 49,000 Dutch guilders). Registration of deceased persons during follow up was complete until January 1st, 2016.

Statistical Analysis

Characteristics of participants with and without incident AMD were compared using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) for continuous variables and logistic regression analysis for discrete variables, adjusted for age and sex. Effect estimates for the food categories were adjusted for total energy intake (TEI), age, and sex. We investigated adherence of the daily food intake for each food category in our population and calculated the frequencies. The association of food categories and food patterns with incident AMD was analyzed using Cox-proportional hazards models. Intake below recommended minimum intake values was defined as the reference. All analyses were initially only adjusted for age and sex, and subsequently also for TEI, smoking, BMI, hypertension, education and net year income.

Profiles of persons who adhered to the beneficial food pattern and those who did not were further investigated. To this end, the variables age, sex, smoking, hypertension, BMI, mortality and total energy intake were compared between those adhering to food pattern 9 (intake per day for vegetables \geq 200gr and fruit \geq 200gr and fish \geq 32gr) and those not meeting these criteria using ANCOVA for continuous variables and logistic regression analysis for discrete variables. All these analyses were adjusted for age and sex.

We used $P < 0.05$ to denote statistical significance, and all tests were 2-sided. The proportional hazards assumption was checked using statistical tests and graphical diagnostics with scaled Schoenfeld residuals. All analyses were performed using SPSS version 21.0 (IBM Corp. Released 2012. IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 21.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp), except for the tests and graphical diagnostics with scaled Schoenfeld residuals which were performed in R (survival package, R-project, Institute for Statistics and Mathematics, R Core Team (2013), Vienna, Austria, version 3.0.2).

RESULTS

During a mean follow-up of 9.1 ± 5.8 years, 754 participants developed incident AMD: 681 early and 73 late AMD. Baseline characteristics for those with and without incident AMD are described in Table 3. Participants with incident AMD were less frequently diagnosed with hypertension (49.5% vs 52.8%; adjusted $P = 0.03$) and fish intake was lower compared to those without AMD (median intake fish, 7.4 grams per day versus 6.6 grams per day, adjusted $P = 0.03$). Other baseline characteristics were not significantly different between the two groups.

First, we calculated the risk of incident AMD for food categories and patterns (Table 4). Intake of fish was associated with a reduced risk of incident AMD by 24% (Hazard ratio (HR) 0.76 (95% confidence Interval (CI) 0.60-0.97) adjusted for age and sex), which remained significant after additional adjustment for smoking, body mass index, hypertension, education, net year income and total energy intake (HR 0.77 (95% CI 0.60-0.97). Associations with other food categories did not reach statistical significance. With respect to food patterns, food pattern 9 (vegetables, fruit and fish) was significantly associated with a reduced risk of incident AMD (HR 0.56 (95%CI 0.35-0.89); an association which remained significant in the full model (HR 0.58 (95% CI 0.36-0.93). Other food patterns did not show a significant association with AMD.

Second, we assessed adherence to the previously defined food categories with recommended minimum intake values based on Dutch Dietary Guidelines. Daily food intake according to these food categories showed that only 2.0% of the population met the recommended intake of eggs, while a high of 82.6% met the recommendations for legumes. For vegetables, fruit, and fish, the proportion of participants with minimum intakes was 30.6%, 54.9% and 12.5%, respectively (Table 4). For the food patterns, only 0.3% of our population adhered to the complete pattern (Food pattern 1); the most commonly followed (7.1%) food pattern was food pattern 6 (vegetables, fruit, poultry). The food pattern which met the recommended minimal intake of vegetables, fruit and fish (Food pattern 9) was followed by only 3.7%.

TABLE 3 - Baseline characteristics of the study population

Variables*	No AMD N=3448	Incident AMD N=754	P-Value**
Age at baseline, yrs	66.5 (7.2)	67.0 (6.9)	0.06
Sex, % males	40.7	41.0	0.81
Smoking, %			0.44
Past	42.69	45.5	
Current	22.9	22.3	
BMI, kg/m ²	26.4 (3.6)	26.2 (3.5)	0.19
Hypertension, %	52.8	49.5	0.03
Education, % more than 12 yrs	66.2	68.0	0.18
Net year income, %			0.24
Low	25.8	23.9	
Average	44.6	46.6	
High	29.6	29.6	
Total energy intake, Kcal	1970 (499)	2000 (522)	0.08
Food Categories, median (IQR)			
Vegetables g/d	164.7 (92.0)	167.3 (81.6)	0.49
Cruciferous & Green Leafy, g/d	45.5 (31.7)	46.4 (29.5)	0.84
Red & Yellow g/d	22.2 (18.7)	22.0 (19.0)	0.78
Other Vegetables g/d	92.5 (61.6)	96.1 (59.8)	0.25
Fruit, g/d	213.7 (160.1)	220.1 (159.5)	0.06
Fish, g/d	7.4 (21.4)	6.6 (21.4)	0.03
Fat products, g/d	24.9 (18.0)	25.4 (18.0)	0.43
Meat, g/d	92.1 (56.5)	93.6 (52.1)	0.77
Grains, g/d	140.0 (74.4)	142.8 (76.3)	0.60
Whole grains, g/d	120.0 (82.0)	120.6 (81.7)	0.51
Refined grains, g/d	10.0 (29.6)	9.9 (24.9)	0.69
Poultry, g/d	8.9 (15.2)	8.6 (13.6)	0.24
Eggs, g/d	14.3 (7.1)	14.3 (7.1)	0.64
Potatoes, g/d	121.8 (85.7)	117.5 (85.5)	0.97
Legumes, g/d	38.1 (28.5)	39.3 (27.3)	0.70
Dairy, g/d	351.8 (298.0)	369.4 (324.9)	0.13

* Values are means and SD unless otherwise specified.

**P-values were calculated using analysis of covariance for continuous variables and logistic regression for discrete variables, and adjusted for age and sex. P-values for foods were beside adjustment for age and sex, also adjusted for total energy intake. Abbreviations: AMD = age-related macular degeneration, SD = standard deviation, Kcal = kilo calorie, yrs = years, g/d = grams per day, IQR = interquartile range

TABLE 4 - Risk of AMD for those following the recommended intakes of food categories and patterns versus those who with lower intakes

Variables	Following at least RMIV n (%)		Model 1	Model 2
	+	-	HR (95% CI)	HR (95% CI)
Food categories				
Vegetables	1286(30.6)	2916(69.4)	0.99 (0.85-1.16)	1.01(0.86-1.18)
Cruciferous & Green Leafy	1376(32.7)	1826(67.3)	0.99(0.85-1.15)	0.98(0.84-1.14)
Red & Yellow	1371(32.6)	2831(67.4)	1.01(0.87-1.17)	1.02(0.87-1.19)
Other	1415(33.7)	2787(66.3)	0.99(0.85-1.16)	1.00(0.86-1.17)
Fruit	2305(54.9)	1897(45.1)	1.03(0.89-1.19)	1.03(0.89-1.20)
Fish	525(12.5)	3678(87.5)	0.76 (0.60-0.97)	0.76(0.60-0.97)
Fat products	3521(83.8)	681(16.2)	1.08(0.88-1.32)	1.00(0.81-1.23)
Meat				
<32 gr			1	1
32 - 71 gr	920(21.9)	3282(78.1)	0.99 (0.71-1.38)	0.91 (0.65-1.28)
>71 gr			1.11 (0.82-1.51)	1.11 (0.81-1.52)
Grains	1188(28.3)	3014(71.7)	1.06(0.89-1.25)	1.00(0.83-1.20)
Poultry	1155(27.5)	3014(72.5)	0.91(0.77-1.07)	0.92(0.78-1.09)
Eggs	83(2.0)	4119(98.0)	1.19(0.74-1.93)	1.10(0.67-1.78)
Potatoes	2217(52.8)	1985(74.8)	0.96(0.83-1.11)	0.91(0.78-1.06)
Legumes	3471(82.6)	731(17.4)	1.13 (0.92-1.38)	1.11(0.90-1.36)
Dairy	870(20.7)	3332(79.3)	1.17 (0.99-1.39)	1.13 (0.95-1.35)
Food patterns				
Pattern 1	11(0.3)	4178(99.4)	0.90(0.23-3.62)	0.90(0.22-3.64)
Pattern 2	24(0.6)	4178(99.4)	0.95(0.36-2.54)	0.96(0.36-2.57)
Pattern 3	25(0.6)	4177(99.4)	0.95(0.35-2.53)	0.95(0.35-2.56)
Pattern 4	84(2.0)	4118(98.0)	0.64(0.35-1.16)	0.65(0.36-1.18)
Pattern 5	40(1.0)	4162(99.0)	0.72 (0.32-1.60)	0.74 (0.33-1.66)
Pattern 6	299(7.1)	3903(92.9)	0.81(0.60-1.09)	0.81(0.60-1.10)
Pattern 7	18(0.4)	4184(99.6)	1.68(0.70-4.10)	1.62(0.67-3.92)
Pattern 8	195(4.6)	4007(95.4)	0.97 (0.69-1.36)	1.01 (0.72-1.41)
Pattern 9	155(3.7)	4047(96.3)	0.56 (0.35-0.89)	0.58(0.36-0.93)

Model 1: adjusted for age and sex

Model 2: model 1 + smoking, body mass index, hypertension, education, total energy intake, net year income

Abbreviations: AMD = age-related macular degeneration, CI = confidence interval, HR = hazard ratio, RMIV = recommended minimum intake values, gr = gram

TABEL 5 - Risk profiles of persons who consume the recommended amount of fish, vegetables and fruit (*Food pattern 9*)

Variables*	No intake FVF (N=4047)	Intake FVF (N=155)	P-Value**
Characteristics			
Age at baseline, yrs	66.7 (7.2)	64.9 (6.6)	<0.001
Sex, % males	40.8	39.4	0.65
Total energy intake, Kcal	1972 (501)	2060 (546)	0.02
Total protein intake	81.2 (19.2)	94.4 (24.0)	<0.001
Intake vegetable protein	28.2 (8.2)	31.6 (9.7)	<0.001
Total carbohydrates intake	212.1 (61.1)	219.3 (68.4)	0.13
Total fat intake	80.4 (27.2)	80.3 (28.5)	1.00
Smoking, %			<0.001
Past	43.2	47.7	
Current	23.1	14.2	
Hypertension, %	52.4	54.8	0.16
BMI, kg/m ²	26.3 (3.6)	26.7 (3.3)	0.12
Education, % more than 12 yrs	67.3	73.0	0.29
Net year income, %			0.05
Low	25.7	20.0	
Average	45.1	39.4	
High	29.2	40.6	
Deceased during follow up, %	51.5	40.6	0.29
Food Categories, median (IQR)			
Vegetables g/d	162.54 (86.2)	246.5 (62.2)	<0.001
Cruciferous & Green Leafy, g/d	45.1 (30.8)	65.1 (32.3)	<0.001
Red & Yellow g/d	21.9 (18.2)	35.2 (25.0)	<0.001
Other Vegetables g/d	91.6 (58.9)	148.0 (51.9)	<0.001
Fruit, g/d	209.6 (157.8)	311.6 (138.3)	<0.001
Fish, g/d	6.6 (20.1)	42.7 (21.4)	<0.001
Butter & Margarine, g/d	25.1 (18.0)	22.5 (18.9)	<0.001
Meat, g/d	92.6 (55.2)	85.2 (64.7)	0.005
Grains, g/d	140.0 (74.4)	137.7 (78.0)	0.47
Whole grains, g/d	120.0 (81.7)	123.1 (96.3)	0.56
Refined grains, g/d	10.0 (29.9)	5.0 (19.9)	0.02
Poultry, g/d	8.9 (15.7)	17.9 (15.0)	<0.001
Eggs, g/d	14.3 (7.1)	14.3 (7.1)	0.75
Potatoes, g/d	121.8 (85.5)	106.9 (73.4)	0.01
Legumes, g/d	38.2 (28.3)	43.8 (28.1)	0.05
Dairy, g/d	352.9 (301.0)	374.7 (292.6)	0.30

* Values are means and SD unless otherwise specified.

**P-values were calculated using analysis of covariance for continuous variables and logistic regression for discrete variables, and adjusted for age and sex.

Abbreviations: FVF = recommended minimum intake values, of fish, vegetables & fruit (*Food pattern 9*), yrs = years, BMI = body mass index, Kcal = kilo calorie, SD = standard deviation, IQR = interquartile range, g/d = grams per day

Third, we aimed to investigate the characteristics of those who managed to adhere to Food pattern 9, and studied the risk profiles of these individuals (Table 5). Persons who consumed the recommended intake of fish, vegetables and fruit were younger than those who did not (adjusted $P < 0.001$), less likely to smoke (adjusted $P < 0.001$), had higher intake of total calories (adjusted $P = 0.02$), and higher intake of protein (adjusted $P < 0.001$), in particular vegetable protein (adjusted $P < 0.001$). Persons who adhered to Food pattern 9 also had a lower intake of fat products (22.5 (18.9) compared to 25.1 (18.0) adjusted $P < 0.001$), a lower intake of meat (85.2 (64.7) - 92.6 (55.2) adjusted $P = 0.005$), a lower intake of refined grains (5.0 (19.9) - 10.0 (29.9) adjusted $P = 0.02$) and a lower intake of potatoes (106.9 (73.4) - 121.8 (85.5) adjusted $P = 0.01$). But had a higher intake of poultry (17.9 (15.0) - 8.9 (15.7) adjusted $P < 0.001$), and a higher intake of legumes (43.8 (28.1) - 38.2 (28.3) adjusted $P = 0.05$). We conducted an additional risk analysis for food pattern 9 adjusting for these potential confounders. The associations between food pattern 9 and AMD risk remained significant in both models (full model: HR 0.58 (95% CI 0.36-0.93).

The proportional hazards assumption was checked using statistical tests and graphical diagnostics with scaled Schoenfeld residuals and was met for all food patterns. Schoenfelds $\rho \leq 0.057$ and $P \leq 0.163$. For food pattern 9: $\rho = 0.04$ and $P = 0.775$.

DISCUSSION

Our data showed that recommended minimal intake values based on Dutch Dietary Guidelines of 200 gr vegetables per day, 2 portions of fruit per day and two times fish per week, was associated with a reduced risk of AMD by 42%. Only following the recommendations for fish intake (twice a week) was sufficient for a risk reduction of 24%. The dietary recommendations from the NFC have been established by nutritional researchers and dieticians with the aim to improve general health. These Dutch Dietary Guidelines are not extraordinary, but closely correspond to recommendations by health councils from other countries, such as the United States, Germany, France, United Kingdom, and Japan. All recommend one to two portions of (particularly fatty) fish per week. The NFC recommendations for vegetables and fruit correspond to those from the United States, France, United Kingdom, and Japan. Germany recommends even higher minimum dosages: 400 gr/day of vegetables and 250 gr/day of fruit.²⁶

Of the 10 food categories, only the category 'fish' reached statistical significance for association with AMD. Fish was not a frequently consumed food in our population, only 12.5% had regular intake of fish. Data from the NFC show that the most commonly eaten fish in the Netherlands are smoked salmon, salted herring, and canned salmon with an average consumption of 3.6 kg/year.¹⁷ In comparison, the average fish consumption per person in the rest of Western Europe was 26.0 kg/year, and in Japan up to 66.0 kg/year.²⁷ Investigators of the Australian Blue Mountain Eye Study also reported a protective effect of fish.^{7,28} Fish is a natural source of omega-3 poly unsaturated fatty acids, of which the highest concentrations are found in squid, cod, and tuna.²⁴ Almost 20% of the dry weight of the retina is accountable for lipids, mainly consisting of polyunsaturated fatty acids. These are highly present in photoreceptor outer segments, which improves fluidity of the photoreceptor membranes that results in a faster response to stimulation.²⁹ There is now ample evidence that these fatty acids may protect against ischemia, as well as against light-, oxygen-, and inflammatory damage contributing to AMD.^{29,30}

Vegetables and fruit contain carotenoids, which have antioxidant properties. In literature, many different types of carotenoids have been analyzed in association with AMD. The most frequently studied carotenoids are lutein and zeaxanthin. These carotenoids form the major components of macular pigment and are involved in maintenance of the morphologic and functional integrity of the retina.³¹ Lutein and zeaxanthin concentrate in the macula and have the capacity to filter blue light and quench reactive oxygen species, thereby reducing light-induced oxidative damage^{30,31} as well as lowering inflammation and protecting neural membranes.³² For the single food categories 'vegetables' and 'fruit', no significant association with incident AMD was found. Although intake was reasonable, the type of vegetables and fruit consumed in the Netherlands may not contain sufficient beneficial nutrients for AMD. Abundantly eaten vegetables in the Netherlands are lettuce, tomatoes, cucumber, red bell pepper, and leek. Vegetables containing the highest concentrations of lutein and zeaxanthin such as kale, endive, spinach, and orange bell pepper are not consumed in great amounts.²⁴ Similarly, the most commonly eaten fruit are apple, pear, orange, and banana, while the less consumed blackberry, khaki, and raspberry contain the highest concentration of lutein and zeaxanthin.^{17,24} Other carotenoids, like α -carotene, β -carotene, β -cryptoxanthin and lycopene have been studied less thoroughly than lutein and zeaxanthin in association with AMD. Unfortunately, there is no clear evidence that dietary intake of these carotenoids lower risk of AMD,³³ except for dietary intake of β -carotene, which reduces the risk of AMD in particular in those at high genetic risk.³⁴ β -carotene can be found in dark-leafy vegetables like spinach and kale, and in yellow and orange vegetables like carrots and bell peppers.²⁴

Our findings are consistent with recent studies on dietary patterns and AMD. The Melbourne collaborative cohort study showed that higher intake of grains and fish reduced the risk of late AMD considerably.¹⁴ Intake of vegetables and fruit alone did not associate with late AMD; the combined intake of these foods was not studied. Merle et al. investigated the Mediterranean diet which is characterized by high intake of vegetables, fruit, whole grains, legumes, nuts and fish, and limited intake of red and processed meat. This diet significantly reduced the risk of progression to late AMD by one fourth.¹⁶ Chiu et al. studied an 'Oriental' food pattern, typified by a high intake of vegetables and fish, and also found protection against AMD. By contrast, the 'Western' diet which was characterized by a high intake of processed food and red meat, increased the risk up to 50% for late AMD.¹⁵

It is well established that combined intake of foods influences bio-availability and nutritional value of individuals nutrients. In our study, we observed that the combined intake of vegetables, fruit, and fish performed better than each item by itself. Carotenoids, nutrients in vegetables and fruits, are fat-soluble nutrients and their uptake by the intestine is better and more consistent when they are delivered via a lipid matrix, for instance from fish intake.³⁵⁻³⁷ In addition, combined intake of foods can lead to competitive processing. For instance, meats and egg yolk are the major source of the omega-6 fatty acid arachidonic acid (AA),^{35,38} and excessive intake of AA interferes with omega-3 processing through competition via enzymes in the eicosanoid pathway.^{29,39} A high omega-6:omega-3 ratio has been associated with cardiovascular disease and a variety of inflammation-related diseases.²⁹ This exemplifies the complexity of dietary effects, and indicates that single nutrient studies tend to overlook the entire context.

The type of persons consuming the recommended daily intake of fish, vegetables and fruit (food pattern 9) were younger and less likely to smoke. Their total energy intake was higher, which seemed to come from a higher intake of vegetable proteins. Net household income was higher in the group adherent to food pattern 9. However, this did not explain the relationship with diet as income was

not significantly associated with AMD. Nevertheless, individuals with higher standards of living and education generally have healthier dietary eating patterns, and we cannot exclude that residual confounding may play a role.^{40,41}

Strengths of our study were the prospective design and large study population, the extensive 170-item Food Frequency Questionnaire ascertained before the onset of disease, the detailed and consistent diagnosis of AMD features throughout the study, and the availability of large set of covariates for analysis. Potential weaknesses were selective nonresponse of the more diseased eligible, the imprecision of dietary data, missing data on physical exercise, and the lack of power to assess risks in small subgroups, especially for the late AMD cases. Only 62% of the persons with an eye exam, reliable diet data at baseline and at least one follow-up entered the analysis due to missing data (Figure 1). Participants with missing data tended to be older; included more women; had less than 12 years of education; and had a higher income. They did not differ in their total energy intake. During the extensive follow up, we lost a considerable proportion of participants mostly due to death. Taken together, those not fully participating in the analysis tended to be older, which most likely led to an underestimation of the true effect. The baseline phase of this study was performed almost 3 decades ago, therefore, the studied intakes may not reflect current eating habits. Nevertheless, as knowledge of beneficial AMD foods and supplements was limited at the time, we expect associations to be genuine and not biased by preventative recommendations.

What are the clinical implications? Notwithstanding all limitations, a good advice that ophthalmologists and other eye care providers can give to patients at risk of AMD is a diet consisting of a large variety of vegetables, fruit, and fish. The amount advised by NFC is a minimum, but this consumption will still be a challenge to the average elderly person. A recommendation of a healthy lifestyle including a healthy diet, refrainment from smoking, and regular exercise⁴² should be part of any counseling session for those at risk of AMD progression.

REFERENCES

1. Colijn JM, Buitendijk GHS, Prokofyeva E, Alves D, Cachulo ML, Khawaja AP, et al. Prevalence of Age-related Macular Degeneration in Europe: the past and the future. *Ophthalmology*. 2017;124:1753-1763.
2. Wong WL, Su X, Li X, Cheung CMG, Klein R, Cheng C-Y, et al. Global prevalence of age-related macular degeneration and disease burden projection for 2020 and 2040: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *The Lancet Global Health*. 2014;2:e106-e16.
3. Lim LS, Mitchell P, Seddon JM, Holz FG, Wong TY. Age-related macular degeneration. *Lancet (London, England)*. 2012;379:1728-38.
4. A randomized, placebo-controlled, clinical trial of high-dose supplementation with vitamins C and E, beta carotene, and zinc for age-related macular degeneration and vision loss: AREDS report no. 8. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2001;119:1417-36.
5. Chew EY, SanGiovanni JP, Ferris FL, Wong WT, Agron E, Clemons TE, et al. Lutein/zeaxanthin for the treatment of age-related cataract: AREDS2 randomized trial report no. *JAMA ophthalmology*. 2013;131:843-50.
6. Wu J, Cho E, Willett WC, Sastry SM, Schaumberg DA. Intakes of Lutein, Zeaxanthin, and Other Carotenoids and Age-Related Macular Degeneration During 2 Decades of Prospective Follow-up. *JAMA ophthalmology*. 2015;133:1415-24.
7. Chua B, Flood V, Rojchtchina E, Wang JJ, Smith W, Mitchell P. Dietary fatty acids and the 5-year incidence of age-related maculopathy. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2006;124:981-6.
8. Merle B, Delyfer MN, Korobelnik JF, Rougier MB, Colin J, Malet F, et al. Dietary omega-3 fatty acids and the risk for age-related maculopathy: the Alienor Study. *Investigative ophthalmology & visual science*. 2011;52:6004-11.
9. Tan JS, Wang JJ, Flood V, Rojchtchina E, Smith W, Mitchell P. Dietary antioxidants and the long-term incidence of age-related macular degeneration: the Blue Mountains Eye Study. *Ophthalmology*. 2008;115:334-41.
10. van Leeuwen R, Boekhoorn S, Vingerling JR, Witteman JC, Klaver CC, Hofman A, et al. Dietary intake of antioxidants and risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Jama*. 2005;294:3101-7.
11. Wu J, Cho E, Giovannucci EL, Rosner BA, Sastry SM, Willett WC, et al. Dietary Intakes of Eicosapentaenoic Acid and Docosahexaenoic Acid and Risk of Age-Related Macular Degeneration. *Ophthalmology*. 2017;124:634-43.
12. Cougnard-Gregoire A, Merle BM, Korobelnik JF, Rougier MB, Delyfer MN, Le Goff M, et al. Olive Oil Consumption and Age-Related Macular Degeneration: The Alienor Study. *PLoS One*. 2016;11:e0160240.
13. Zampatti S, Ricci F, Cusumano A, Marsella LT, Novelli G, Giardina E. Review of nutrient actions on age-related macular degeneration. *Nutrition research (New York, NY)*. 2014;34:95-105.
14. Amirul Islam FM, Chong EW, Hodge AM, Guymer RH, Aung KZ, Makeyeva GA, et al. Dietary patterns and their associations with age-related macular degeneration: the Melbourne collaborative cohort study. *Ophthalmology*. 2014;121:1428-34.e2.
15. Chiu CJ, Chang ML, Zhang FF, Li T, Gensler G, Schleicher M, et al. The relationship of major American dietary patterns to age-related macular degeneration. *American journal of ophthalmology*. 2014;158:118-27.e1.
16. Merle BM, Silver RE, Rosner B, Seddon JM. Adherence to a Mediterranean diet, genetic susceptibility, and progression to advanced macular degeneration: a prospective cohort study. *The American journal of clinical nutrition*. 2015;102:1196-206.
17. Het Voedingscentrum (Dutch Food Centre). <http://www.voedingscentrum.nl/>. 2016;Accessed 18.01.2016.
18. Hofman A, Brusselle GG, Darwish Murad S, van Duijn CM, Franco OH, Goedegebure A, et al. The Rotterdam Study: 2016 objectives and design update. *European journal of epidemiology*. 2015;30:661-708.
19. Klein R, Davis MD, Magli YL, Segal P, Klein BE, Hubbard L. The Wisconsin age-related maculopathy grading system. *Ophthalmology*. 1991;98:1128-34.
20. van Leeuwen R, Klaver CC, Vingerling JR, Hofman A, de Jong PT. The risk and natural course of age-related maculopathy: follow-up at 6 1/2 years in the Rotterdam study. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2003;121:519-26.
21. Goldbohm RA, van den Brandt PA, Brants HA, van't Veer P, Al M, Sturmans F, et al. Validation of a dietary questionnaire used in a large-scale prospective cohort study on diet and cancer. *European journal of clinical nutrition*. 1994;48:253-65.
22. Klipstein-Grobusch K, den Breeijen JH, Goldbohm RA, Geleijnse JM, Hofman A, Grobbee DE, et al. Dietary assessment in the elderly: validation of a semiquantitative food frequency questionnaire. *European journal of clinical nutrition*. 1998;52:588-96.
23. Donders-Engelen M, Heijden, L van der. Maten, gewichten en codenummers 2003. CD-ROM, Wageningen: Wageningen UR, Vakgroep Humane Voeding.
24. NEVO-tabel; Dutch Food Composition Database 2011, RIVM/Voedingscentrum, Den Haag. 2011.

25. Health Council of the Netherlands. Guidelines for a healthy diet 2006. The Hague: Health Council of the Netherlands.2006;publication no. 2006/21.
26. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations: <http://www.fao.org/nutrition/education/food-based-dietary-guidelines/regions/countries/>. 2016;Accessed 14/09/2016.
27. Laurenti G. 1961-2003 fish and fishery products: world apparent consumption statistics based on food balance sheets. FAO Fisheries Circular. No. 821, Rev. 8. Rome, FAO. 429 pp. 2007.
28. Joachim N, Mitchell P, Burlutsky G, Kifley A, Wang JJ. The Incidence and Progression of Age-Related Macular Degeneration over 15 Years: The Blue Mountains Eye Study. *Ophthalmology*. 2015;122:2482-9.
29. SanGiovanni JP, Chew EY. The role of omega-3 long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids in health and disease of the retina. *Progress in retinal and eye research*. 2005;24:87-138.
30. Buitendijk GHS, Klaver, C.C.W. Trace elements, vitamins, and lipids and age-related macular degeneration: An overview of the current concepts on nutrients and AMD. In: Preedy VR, editor. *Handbook of nutrition, diet, and the eye*. Waltham, MA: Elsevier; 2014. p. 55-63.
31. Lima VC, Rosen RB, Farah M. Macular pigment in retinal health and disease. *International journal of retina and vitreous*. 2016;2:19.
32. Widomska J, Zareba M, Subczynski WK. Can Xanthophyll-Membrane Interactions Explain Their Selective Presence in the Retina and Brain? *Foods (Basel, Switzerland)*. 2016;5.
33. Chong EW, Wong TY, Kreis AJ, Simpson JA, Gujmer RH. Dietary antioxidants and primary prevention of age related macular degeneration: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ (Clinical research ed)*. 2007;335:755.
34. Ho L, van Leeuwen R, Witteman JC, van Duijn CM, Uitterlinden AG, Hofman A, et al. Reducing the genetic risk of age-related macular degeneration with dietary antioxidants, zinc, and omega-3 fatty acids: the Rotterdam study. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2011;129:758-66.
35. Brown MJ, Ferruzzi MG, Nguyen ML, Cooper DA, Eldridge AL, Schwartz SJ, et al. Carotenoid bioavailability is higher from salads ingested with full-fat than with fat-reduced salad dressings as measured with electrochemical detection. *The American journal of clinical nutrition*. 2004;80:396-403.
36. Roodenburg AJ, Leenen R, van het Hof KH, Weststrate JA, Tijburg LB. Amount of fat in the diet affects bioavailability of lutein esters but not of alpha-carotene, beta-carotene, and vitamin E in humans. *The American journal of clinical nutrition*. 2000;71:1187-93.
37. van Het Hof KH, West CE, Weststrate JA, Hautvast JG. Dietary factors that affect the bioavailability of carotenoids. *The Journal of nutrition*. 2000;130:503-6.
38. Beare-Rogers J. DA, and Holm J.V. *Lexicon of lipid nutrition (IUPAC Technical Report)*. Pure Appl Chem. 2001;73:685-744.
39. Yang LG, Song ZX, Yin H, Wang YY, Shu GF, Lu HX, et al. Low n-6/n-3 PUFA Ratio Improves Lipid Metabolism, Inflammation, Oxidative Stress and Endothelial Function in Rats Using Plant Oils as n-3 Fatty Acid Source. *Lipids*. 2016;51:49-59.
40. van Lenthe FJ, Jansen T, Kamphuis CB. Understanding socio-economic inequalities in food choice behaviour: can Maslow's pyramid help? *The British journal of nutrition*. 2015;113:1139-47.
41. Wall CL, Geary RB, Pearson J, Parnell W, Skidmore PM. Dietary intake in midlife and associations with standard of living, education and nutrition literacy. *The New Zealand medical journal*. 2014;127:30-40.
42. Mares JA, Voland RP, Sondel SA, Millen AE, Larowe T, Moeller SM, et al. Healthy lifestyles related to subsequent prevalence of age-related macular degeneration. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2011;129:470-80.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE 1 - Recommended minimum intake values based on Dutch Dietary Guidelines

Food categories	RMIV per day			Servings per day
	Men	Women	Average	
Total vegetables	200gr	200gr	200gr	(1 1/3 cups)
Cruciferous & Green Leafy Veg.	56gr	56gr	56gr	(3/8 cups)
Red & Yellow Veg.	25gr	25gr	25gr	(1/6 cups)
Other Vegetables	118gr	118gr	118gr	(3/4 cups)
Fruit	200gr	200gr	200gr	(2 large pieces)
Fish*	32gr	32gr	32gr	(1.13 oz)
Fat products	15gr	15gr	15gr	(1 tbsp)
Meat - minimal	32gr	32gr	32gr	(1.13 oz)
Meat - maximal	71gr	71gr	71 gr	(2.5 oz)
Grains	210gr	175gr	175gr	(6.17 oz)
Poultry	16gr	16gr	16gr	(0.56 oz)
Eggs**	16gr	16gr	16gr	(0.56 oz)
Potatoes	143gr	114gr	114gr	(3-5 pieces)
Legumes	21gr	21gr	21gr	(1/7 cups)
Dairy	150gr	150gr	150gr	(2/3 cups)

* Calculation based on weekly intake of 2 times fish per week

**Calculation based on weekly intake of 2 eggs per week

Abbreviations: RMIV = recommended minimum intake values, gr=gram, oz=ounce, tbsp = table spoon.



Chapter 4.3

Thyroid function and age-related macular degeneration: a prospective population-based cohort study: The Rotterdam Study

Layal Chaker*, **Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk***, Abbas Dehghan, Marco Medici, Albert Hofman, Johannes R. Vingerling, Oscar H. Franco, Caroline C.W. Klaver, Robin P. Peeters

* These authors contributed equally.

Published in *BMC Med.* 2015 Apr 23;13:94. doi: 10.1186/s12916-015-0329-0.PMID: 25903050

Supplementary material is available at: <https://bmcmecine.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12916-015-0329-0>

ABSTRACT

Background In animal models, lack of thyroid hormone is associated with cone photoreceptor preservation while administration of high doses of active thyroid hormone leads to deterioration. The association between thyroid function and age-related macular degeneration (AMD) has not been investigated in the general population.

Methods Participants ≥ 55 years from the Rotterdam Study with thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) and/or free thyroxine (FT4) measurements and AMD assessment were included. We conducted age- and sex-adjusted Cox-proportional-hazards models to explore the association of TSH or FT4 with AMD, in the full range and in those with TSH (0.4-4.0 mIU/L) and/or FT4 in normal range (11-25 pmol/L). Cox-proportional-hazards models were performed for the association of TSH or FT4 with Retinal Pigment Alterations (RPA), as an early marker of retinal changes. Multivariable models additionally included cardiovascular risk factors and thyroid peroxidase antibodies positivity. We also performed stratification by age and sex. A bidirectional look-up in Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS) data for thyroid parameters and AMD was performed. Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) that are significantly associated with both phenotypes were identified.

Results We included 5573 participants with a median follow-up of 6.9 years (interquartile range 4.4-10.8 years). During follow-up 805 people developed AMD. TSH levels were not associated with increased risk of AMD. Within normal range of FT4, participants in the highest FT4 quintile had a 1.34-fold increased risk of developing AMD, compared to individuals in the middle group (95% confidence interval [CI] 1.07-1.66). Higher FT4 values in the full range were associated with a higher risk of AMD (Hazard Ratio 1.04, CI, 1.01-1.06 per 1 pmol/L increase). Higher FT4 levels were similarly associated with a higher risk of RPA. Restricting analyses to euthyroid individuals, additional multivariable models and stratification did not change estimates. We found a SNP (rs943080) in the *VEGF-A* gene, associated with AMD, to be significant in the TSH GWAS ($p=1.2 \times 10^{-4}$). Adding this SNP to multivariable models did not change estimates.

Conclusion Higher FT4 values are associated with increased risk of AMD -even in euthyroid individuals- and increased risk of RPA. Our data suggest an important role of thyroid hormone in pathways leading to AMD.

BACKGROUND

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is a disease of the retina in the elderly which can lead to irreversible blindness and is characterized by drusen, pigmentary changes, choroidal neovascularization and geographic atrophy. While AMD is one of the leading causes of visual impairment worldwide and increasing in prevalence¹⁻⁷, the exact pathophysiology and pathways leading to AMD are not entirely understood.

Thyroid hormones are known to regulate various visual functions in experimental and human studies⁸⁻¹⁰. Human retinal pigment epithelial (RPE) cells express thyroid hormone receptors and seem to be a direct target for thyroid hormones¹¹. Recently it has been shown that suppression of thyroid hormone signaling resulted in preservation of cone photoreceptors in mouse models of retinal degeneration¹². In contrast, administration of active thyroid hormone leads to deterioration of cones. Thyroid dysfunction and subclinical thyroid dysfunction are common in the general population, with a prevalence up to 10%¹³⁻¹⁶. These thyroid disorders are associated with various cardiovascular risk factors, including alterations in lipid levels, atherosclerosis and hypertension¹⁷⁻¹⁹, which are known predisposing factors for development and progression of AMD^{20,21}. However, there are no studies in the general population assessing the association between thyroid function and the risk of AMD. Therefore, we aimed to assess the relation between thyroid-stimulation hormone (TSH), free thyroxine (FT4) and the risk of incident AMD in a prospective population-based cohort study and to study possible underlying genetic pathways through investigating an overlap in genome-wide significant hits (i.e. bidirectional genetic look-up).

METHODS

The Rotterdam Study

The Rotterdam Study is a prospective population-based cohort study that addresses determinants and occurrence of cardiovascular, neurological, ophthalmologic, psychiatric, and endocrine diseases in the elderly living in Ommoord, a suburb of Rotterdam. The aims and design of the Rotterdam study have been described elaborately elsewhere²². For this analysis we included participants from two independent cohorts from the Rotterdam Study. The Rotterdam Study Cohort I (RSI) started in 1989 and included a total of 7,983 participants (response rate 78 percent) aged 55 years and older. Baseline data were collected from 1990 until 1993 and four follow-up examinations were performed in 1993-1995, 1997-1999, 2002-2004 and 2009-2011. The second cohort is the Rotterdam Study Cohort II (RSII) and includes a total of 3,011 participants (response rate 67 percent) aged 55 years and older. Baseline data were collected from 2000-2001 and follow-up examinations were performed in 2004-2005 and 2011-2012.

Study Population

Participants from baseline study cohorts RSI (RSI-1) and RSII (RSII-1) were eligible for these analyses if they had TSH and/or FT4 measurements and had gradable fundus photographs at baseline and at least one follow-up eye examination. Since not all participants from RSI had thyroid measurements at baseline, additional baseline samples were drawn from RSI visit 3 (RSI-3). Participants with AMD at baseline (N=567) were excluded from further analyses. In total 5573 participants from these two cohorts were eligible to be included in our analyses (Supplementary Figure 1). The Medical Ethics Committee of the Erasmus University had approved the study protocols, and participants had given a written informed consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Assessment of thyroid function

For RSI-1, serum TSH (TSH Lumitest; Henning, Berlin, Germany), anti-TPOAb (ELISA; Milenia; Diagnostic Products Corp, Los Angeles, CA, USA) and free T4 levels (FT4; Vitros, ECI Immunodiagnostic System; Ortho-Clinical Diagnostics, Amersham, UK) were determined in a random subset of the baseline serum samples (n=1855). Thyroid function assessment was also performed in baseline serum samples for TSH and FT4 (The electrochemiluminescence immunoassay for thyroxine and thyrotropine, "ECLIA", Roche) for RSI-3 and RSII-1. The tests' TSH reference ranges did not differ substantially and had a good Spearman correlation co-efficient (0.96 for TSH, $p < 0.0001$ and 0.81 for FT4, $p < 0.0001$). We determined the cut-off values for normal range TSH as 0.4-4.0 mIU/L according to national guidelines. The reference range for FT4 was 11-25 pmol/L and anti-TPOAb levels greater than 60 kU/mL were regarded as positive.

Diagnosis of age-related macular degeneration

All eligible participants underwent fundus photography after pharmacologic mydriasis. For visits RSI-1 to RSI-3 and RSII-1 a 35° film fundus camera was used (Topcon TRV-50VT, Topcon Optical Company, Tokyo, Japan) after which a 35° digital color fundus camera (Topcon TRC-50EX, Topcon Optical Company, Tokyo, Japan with a Sony DXC-950P digital camera; 0.44 megapixel, Sony Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) followed for visits RSI-4, RSI-5, RSII-2 and RSII-3. Fundus transparencies were graded according to the Wisconsin Age-Related Maculopathy Grading²³ and the modified International Classification System²⁴ by trained graders under the supervision of senior retinal specialists (J.R.V., C.C.W.K.). The eyes of each participant were graded and classified separately, and the eye with the more severe grade was used to classify the person. In the analyses incident early and late AMD combined was used as outcome variable. In the manuscript this is referred to as AMD. Besides AMD we also investigated AMD specific lesions as a separate outcome variable. These lesions included retinal pigmentary alterations, large drusen ($\geq 125\mu\text{m}$) and large drusen area ($\geq 5331,820\mu\text{m}^2$)²⁵.

Baseline measurements

Smoking was derived from computerized baseline questionnaires and categorized in current or non-current smokers. Blood pressure, systolic and diastolic, was calculated as the average of two consecutive measurements, using random-zero mercury sphygmomanometers. Hypertension was defined as having a systolic blood pressure ≥ 140 mmHg or a diastolic blood pressure ≥ 90 mmHg or using anti-hypertensive medication at baseline. Cholesterol was measured at baseline by the CKCL (Centra Clinical Chemical Laboratory) of the Erasmus University Medical Center. A subgroup of measurements was carried out in the laboratory of the Department of Epidemiology & Biostatistics (Erasmus University Medical School). History of diabetes was defined by a repeated impaired fasting glucose ≥ 7 or use of anti-glycemic medication at baseline. Body-mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight kilograms divided by height squared in meters.

Statistical analysis

Participant baseline characteristics were compared using a χ^2 or t-test. Due to a skewed distribution, TSH was log-transformed for the statistical analyses. We used cox-proportional hazards model to calculate the relationship between TSH and FT4 at baseline and the risk of incident AMD, first including all participants and then including only those with normal range TSH and/or FT4 values. We performed a crude cox-model including only thyroid parameters after which we also included quadratic and cubic terms to explore possible non-linear relationships. We then performed additional models adjusting first for age and sex and second also adding smoking, hypertension, cholesterol, diabetes and BMI to the model. Hypertension, cholesterol, diabetes and BMI could act as

confounders and possible mediators depending on the presumed pathway through which thyroid function is related to AMD. These variables were included in the multivariable model as possible confounders of non-vascular pathways. We looked at the association between AMD and TSH or FT4 both continuously and in quintiles, as well as overall and within the normal range of TSH. The middle quintile was used as reference group as biologically it is expected to represent the subgroup with the most thyroid function within the euthyroid group. We performed pre-defined stratification by sex and age categories, using a cutoff 65 years as this is the median of the current population and the treatment threshold for subclinical thyroid dysfunction according to the European guidelines²⁶. Further interaction terms were introduced to the model to explore possible differential risk patterns. We performed a sensitivity analysis excluding those using thyroid medication at baseline (levothyroxine and anti-thyroid drugs) and those with prior self-reported thyroid disease at baseline. We also performed FT4 and TSH analyses with specific AMD lesions defined as retinal pigment alteration, large drusen and large drusen area as separate outcome variable to examine possible early changes in underlying pathways. To address the issue of drop-out of individuals during follow-up that could possibly be not completely at random, we adjusted the model for inverse probability weights (IPW's). These were calculated using possible baseline explanatory variables for drop-out such as smoking, BMI and medication use. Proportional hazards assumption was checked statistically using the Schoenfeld test and assessing the Schoenfeld plot. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS version 21 (SPSS IBM, New York, U.S.A) except for the Schoenfeld tests and (Schoenfeld) plots which were performed in R (survival package, R-project, Institute for Statistics and Mathematics, R Core Team (2013), Vienna, Austria, version 3.0.2).

Bidirectional genetic look-up

Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS) have been performed for AMD²⁷ and thyroid function (TSH and FT4)^{28,29}. These studies identified several single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) associated to these two phenotypes. Some of the genome-wide significant SNPs in the AMD GWAS might also play a role in thyroid function and vice versa. Overlap between common genetic polymorphisms can provide insight into possible shared genetic pathways. It might also elucidate a mediation effect between the two phenotypes, i.e. identify and explicate the process that underlies a possible observed relationship between thyroid function and AMD. To evaluate these potential genetic pathways, we conducted a bidirectional genetic look-up using the results of the above mentioned GWA Studies for AMD and thyroid function. We first extracted SNPs that reached genome-wide significance from the AMD GWAS performed by the AMD Gene consortium²⁷. We then checked whether these were significantly associated with TSH or FT4 in the thyroid function GWAS performed by Porcu et al.²⁸. Hereafter we extracted the genome-wide significant SNPs for TSH or FT4 from the thyroid function GWAS and checked whether they were associated with AMD in the AMD GWAS. For the significance level, we applied a multiple testing correction (Bonferroni Correction), using a p-value threshold of 0.05 divided by the amount of significant SNPs per GWAS. In case of a significant finding, we added the SNP to the multivariable model to evaluate a possible mediation effect.

RESULTS

We included 5573 participants with TSH and/or FT4 measurements at baseline and incident AMD data, with a median follow-up of 6.9 years (interquartile range [IQR] range of 4.4-10.8 years). Of these, 5572 had TSH and 5504 had FT4 baseline measurements. A total of 805 people developed AMD

(Early AMD N=725, Late AMD N=80) during follow-up with an incidence rate of 18 per 1000 person-years. The baseline characteristics for those with and without incident AMD during follow-up were comparable, except for proportion of diabetes (Table 1).

TABLE 1 - Baseline Characteristics of Included Participants from the Rotterdam Study Evaluating the Association between Thyroid Function and AMD*

Variable	No incident AMD N=4768	Incident AMD N=805	P-value**
Age, years	67.6 (7.6)	67.9 (7.1)	0.29
Sex % female	57.6	57.8	0.94
History of Diabetes %	10.8	8.4	0.04
BMI kg/m ²	26.9 (3.9)	26.6 (3.7)	0.07
Cholesterol mmol/L	6.1 (1.2)	6.1 (1.1)	0.23
Smoking % current	20.7	21.0	0.85
Hypertension %	63.0	58.7	0.17
TSH mIU/L median (IQR)	1.78 (1.15-2.69)	1.73 (1.17-2.67)	0.78
FT4 pmol/L	15.8 (2.6)	16.0 (3.2)	0.13
TPOAb kU/L	30.5 (95.1)	30.8 (96.2)	0.93

*Values are means and SD unless otherwise specified.

** For comparison a t-test was conducted, for TSH the log-transformed values were used.

Abbreviations: AMD = Age-related Macular Degeneration; BMI = body-mass index; TSH = thyroid-stimulating hormone, FT4 = free thyroxine; SD = Standard deviation; IQR = inter-quartile range; TPOAb = thyroid peroxidase antibodies.

Association between thyroid function and AMD

Although there was no association between TSH and AMD (hazard ratio [HR] 0.99; 95% confidence interval [CI] 0.91-1.07, Table 2), the risk of AMD was significantly increased in those with higher FT4 levels (Table 2). When categorizing the FT4 values within normal range quintiles, those in the highest FT4 quintile had an increased risk compared to the middle group with a HR of 1.34 (95% CI, 1.07-1.66) and a non-significant p for interaction ($p=0.066$) (Table 2). This association remained similar after additional adjustments for smoking, diabetes, hypertension, cholesterol, BMI, and TPOAb positivity (Figure 1). This association also remained similar after analyzing only those within the normal range of TSH and FT4, that is, those with normal thyroid function.

Excluding those with thyroid medication or thyroid disease at baseline as a sensitivity analysis, did not alter the association (Table 3). Stratifying for age and sex did not reveal any significant differential risk (Supplementary Table 1). The association between thyroid function and retinal pigment alterations for FT4 showed similar significant hazard ratios, with the exception of the risk estimates when looking at FT4 only in the normal range of TSH (Table 4). TSH and FT4 were not associated with large drusen or large drusen area (data not shown). Introducing quadratic and cubic terms for TSH and FT4 to the crude model, as an exploration of non-linearity, did not improve model performance. Taking possible non-random follow-up using IPW's did not change risk estimates. The proportional hazards assumption was checked statistically with the Schoenfeld test and Schoenfeld plot and met for both the TSH ($p = 0.232$) and FT4 ($p = 0.154$) analyses.

TABLE 2 - Association between TSH, FT4 and risk of AMD

Incident AMD vs no AMD	AMD N	Total N	HR (95% CI), model 1	HR (95% CI), model 2	HR (95% CI), model 3
TSH mIU/L	805	5572	0.99 (0.91-1.07)	0.99 (0.91-1.07)	0.99 (0.91-1.07)
TSH in normal range ^a	696	4756	1.06 (0.91-1.23)	1.09 (0.93-1.27)	1.08 (0.93-1.26)
Normal range TSH ^a					
Q1 0.40-1.10	148	1082	1.04 (0.82-1.32)	1.00 (0.79-1.28)	1.00 (0.79-1.28)
Q2 1.11-1.54	167	990	1.32 (1.04-1.66)	1.29 (1.02-1.62)	1.29 (1.02-1.62)
Q3 1.55-1.99	128	962	1	1	1
Q4 2.00-2.61	117	851	1.09 (0.85-1.40)	1.07 (0.83-1.37)	1.07 (0.83-1.38)
Q5 2.62-3.97	136	871	1.22 (0.96-1.56)	1.22 (0.95-1.55)	1.21 (0.94-1.54)
P interaction			0.648	0.485	0.517
Total	696	4756			
FT4 pmol/L	791	5504	1.04 (1.01-1.06)	1.04 (1.01-1.06)	1.04 (1.01-1.06)
FT4 in normal range ^b	765	5382	1.04 (1.01-1.07)	1.04 (1.01-1.07)	1.04 (1.01-1.07)
Normal range FT4 ^b					
Q1 11.0-14.0	149	1090	1.03 (0.82-1.29)	1.04 (0.82-1.31)	1.04 (0.82-1.31)
Q2 14.0-15.1	152	1001	1.12 (0.89-1.41)	1.17 (0.92-1.47)	1.16 (0.92-1.47)
Q3 15.1-16.2	144	1094	1	1	1
Q4 16.2-17.5	134	1060	1.01 (0.80-1.28)	1.03 (0.81-1.30)	1.03 (0.81-1.31)
Q5 17.5-24.9	186	1137	1.34 (1.07-1.66)	1.35 (1.08-1.69)	1.35 (1.09-1.69)
P interaction	765	5382	0.066	0.088	0.08
Normal range FT4 ^b in normal range TSH ^a	673	4658	1.04 (1.01-1.08)	1.04 (1.01-1.08)	1.04 (1.01-1.07)

^a normal range of TSH defined as 0.4-4.0 mIU/L.

^b normal range of FT4 defined as 11-25 pmol/L.

Model 1: Adjusted for sex and age.

Model 2: Model 1 + smoking, hypertension, cholesterol, diabetes, BMI.

Model 3: Model 2 + thyroid peroxidase antibodies positivity.

Abbreviations: AMD Age-related Macular Degeneration ; BMI body-mass index; CI confidence interval; FT4 free T4; HR hazard ratio; Q quintile; TSH Thyroid-Stimulating Hormone.

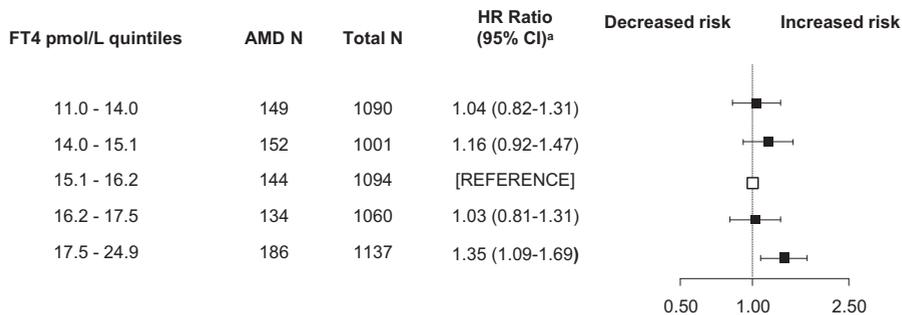


FIGURE 1 - Quintiles of FT4 within the normal range and risk of AMD.

The normal range of FT4 was defined as 11-25 pmol/L (Conversion 1 pmol/L=0.0777 ng/dL).

^a Analyses were adjusted for sex, age, smoking, hypertension, cholesterol, diabetes, body-mass index and thyroid peroxidase antibodies positivity.

Abbreviations: AMD Age-related Macular Degeneration; FT4 free thyroxine; HR hazard ratio

Bidirectional genetic look-up

In the thyroid function GWAS, 20 SNPs were associated with TSH and 6 with FT4²⁸. The AMD GWAS revealed 19 genome-wide significant SNPs related to the phenotype. None of the SNPs from the thyroid function GWAS were significant in the AMD GWAS. One SNP (rs943080) in the Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor A (*VEGFA*) gene that is related to AMD, was also significantly associated with TSH ($p=1.2 \times 10^{-4}$, significance threshold = 0.0026) (Supplementary Table 2). Within our study population, GWAS data were available for a total 4646 participants. Additionally correcting for the rs943080 SNP in the most adjusted model in these participants, resulted in similar risk estimates for the FT4 analysis (HR 1.04, CI 95% 1.01-1.07). Stratifying for this SNP did show risk differences between the different genotypes but not significantly (Supplementary Table 1).

TABLE 3 - Sensitivity Analyses excluding participants with Thyroid Medication or Thyroid Disease at baseline

Incident AMD vs no AMD	AMD N	Total N	HR (95% CI), model 1	HR (95% CI), model 2	HR (95% CI), model 3
Excluded medication thyroid ^a					
Free T4	752	5225	1.03 (1.01-1.06)	1.03 (1.01-1.06)	1.03 (1.01-1.06)
TSH mIU/L	778	5417	0.99 (0.91-1.08)	1.00 (0.92-1.09)	1.00 (0.91-1.09)
Excluding baseline thyroid disease ^b					
Free T4	751	5237	1.04 (1.01-1.08)	1.04 (1.01-1.07)	1.04 (1.01-1.08)
TSH mIU/L	764	5300	0.98 (0.89-1.07)	0.98 (0.89-1.07)	0.97 (0.89-1.07)

^a 155 participants had thyroid medication (ie. thyroid hormone use) at baseline

^b 272 participants had self-reported thyroid disease at baseline

Model 1: Adjusted for sex and age.

Model 2: Model 1 + smoking, hypertension, cholesterol, diabetes, BMI.

Model 3: Model 2 + thyroid peroxidase antibodies positivity

Abbreviations: BMI body-mass index; CI confidence interval; FT4 free thyroxine; HR hazard ratio; TSH thyroid-stimulating hormone

TABLE 4 - Association between FT4 and TSH with Retinal Pigment alterations^a

Incident pigment alterations vs no pigment alterations	Cases N	Total N	HR (95% CI), model 1	HR (95% CI), model 2	HR (95% CI), model 3
TSH mIU/L	729	5401	0.98 (0.90-1.06)	0.97 (0.90-1.06)	0.96 (0.88-1.04)
Normal range TSH ^b	618	4591	1.02 (0.87-1.20)	1.05 (0.89-1.23)	1.04 (0.88-1.22)
FT4 pmol/L	720	5338	1.04 (1.01-1.07)	1.04 (1.01-1.07)	1.04 (1.01-1.07)
Normal range FT4 ^c	697	5226	1.04 (1.01-1.07)	1.04 (1.01-1.07)	1.04 (1.01-1.07)
Normal range FT4 ^c in normal range TSH ^b	601	4500	1.03 (1.00-1.07)	1.03 (0.99-1.06)	1.03 (0.99-1.06)

^a participants with late AMD were excluded from this analysis

^b normal range of TSH defined as 0.4-4.0 mIU/L.

^c normal range of FT4 defined as 11-25 pmol/L.

Model 1: Adjusted for sex and age.

Model 2: Model 1 + smoking, hypertension, cholesterol, diabetes, BMI.

Model 3: Model 2 + thyroid peroxidase antibodies positivity

Abbreviations: BMI body-mass index; CI confidence interval; FT4 free thyroxine; HR hazard ratio; TSH thyroid-stimulating hormone

DISCUSSION

In this prospective cohort study we investigated the association between thyroid function and incidence of AMD. Higher FT4 values were associated with an increased risk of developing AMD, even within the normal range of TSH and FT4 (i.e. euthyroid subjects), while there was no association between TSH and AMD. The similar findings between higher levels FT4 and retinal pigment alterations might suggest that thyroid hormone plays a role in the development of AMD rather than just act as a promoter of disease. To our knowledge, this is the first prospective population-based cohort study to look at the association between thyroid function and AMD.

A limited number of studies investigating thyroid disease and AMD have been published, all lacking laboratory assessment of thyroid function. Bromfield et al. reported an increased risk of AMD in subjects with self-reported hypothyroidism³⁰. A case-control study by Anand et al. reported an association between thyroid hormone use and a higher risk of AMD with geographic atrophy³¹, but no data were reported on the number of patients that were over- or undertreated. Similarly, the Beaver Dam Eye study also reported an association between thyroid hormone use and early AMD³², but this was not confirmed by Douglas et al.³³. As mentioned previously, none of these studies had laboratory assessment of thyroid function nor did they investigate the association in a time-to-event analysis. In our study, excluding all subjects using thyroid medication did not alter risk estimates, supporting a potential intrinsic effect of thyroid hormone.

There are several pathophysiological explanations for the relationship between thyroid hormones and AMD. In a mouse model of retinal degeneration, suppression of thyroid hormone signaling resulted in preservation of cone photoreceptors¹². The same study found that stimulating thyroid hormone signaling, by administering the active thyroid hormone triiodothyronine, deteriorates cones in mouse models with a slow progressive and moderate degeneration phenotype¹². In addition, mice lacking type 3 deiodinase, the enzyme responsible for the degradation of thyroid hormones, have decreased survival and disturbed maturation of cone photoreceptors³⁴. The findings of these studies suggest that thyroid hormone may lead to a higher turnover of photoreceptors and in retinal degeneration this leads to deterioration of photoreceptors. Beside photoreceptors, thyroid hormone might also have an influence on the retinal pigment epithelial cells¹¹. In the healthy retina the turnover of photoreceptors is extremely high. Every day the photoreceptors shed the ends of their outer segments resulting in full renewal every ten days. These shedded parts of the outer segments are fagocytosed by the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) cell³⁵. Increase of the turnover of the photoreceptors by thyroid hormone may bring additional stress to the process. RPE cells at distress may change resulting in pigmentary alterations in the macular area. The RPE cells may also be targeted directly by the thyroid hormone resulting in these changes¹¹. These results may provide an explanation for the findings in our study.

Thyroid dysfunction has been linked to cardiovascular risk factors and disease, including effects on the vascular function, lipids and atherosclerosis³⁶. As some of these risk factors are also linked to AMD^{20,21}, one could speculate about a joint vascular pathway leading to both thyroid dysfunction and AMD or perhaps that the relation between thyroid dysfunction and AMD could be mediated through this pathway. We were not able to confirm these hypotheses. First of all, these cardiovascular risk factors are mainly seen in hypothyroidism, (i.e. high TSH and low FT4), whereas our data show an association between high FT4 and AMD. Also, correcting for some of these risk factors (for example hypertension) that could act as confounders and possible mediators did not change risk estimates, suggesting that the effect of thyroid function is not through these pathways. Lastly, *VEGFA* gene was

found to be significant in the look-up for the TSH GWAS and not the FT4 GWAS. However, our results suggest a higher risk of AMD in higher levels of FT4 and not in TSH. Furthermore, the association did not change by adding this SNP to the multivariable model.

We find an effect with FT4 but not with TSH. This however does seem to be in line with previous literature from cohort studies in elderly populations investigating the relation between thyroid function and several other endpoints^{37,38}. Regulation of serum thyroid hormone levels is controlled by the hypothalamus-pituitary-thyroid axis. The set point of this feedback mechanism is defined individually, with thyroid hormone levels showing a much greater inter-individual than intra-individual variability³⁹. The individual set point can be modulated by several pathophysiological (for example critical illness) and physiological (for example ageing) mechanisms⁴⁰. This could be one of the explanation why in this elderly and ageing population we do find an association with FT4 but not with TSH, especially in the euthyroid range. Furthermore, previous literature showed an increase in TSH with increasing age, suggesting higher TSH levels are needed to keep thyroid hormone levels within the desired range³⁸. We only have thyroid function measures at baseline and are therefore not able to investigate whether changes in thyroid function over time is an explanation for the discordant association between TSH, FT4 and AMD.

Important strengths of our study are the assessment of thyroid function at baseline through laboratory testing as well as the elaborate assessment of AMD at baseline and follow-up. Also, we were also able to investigate the association between thyroid function and specific AMD lesions like retinal pigment alterations to examine possible early changes in underlying pathways. The availability of genetic data gave us the opportunity to explore possible genetic pathways. The bidirectional genetic look-up, revealed one SNP in the *VEGFA* gene to be significant in the TSH GWAS but not for FT4. Adding this SNP to the multivariate model did not alter risk estimates. An explanation for the absence of overlapping genome-wide significant SNP's could be that these GWA studies were underpowered for this association.

A limitation of our study is that thyroid parameters were measured once at baseline. Therefore, the evolution of thyroid hormone levels could not be taken into account. Also, residual confounding cannot be excluded, even with the large number of covariates included in these analyses. Lastly, this study is conducted in a mainly Caucasian population of 55 years and older and may not be generalizable to other populations.

CONCLUSION

We find an increased risk of incident AMD in subjects with higher FT4 levels, even in those with a normal thyroid function and when excluding thyroid medication users. This implies an intrinsic (that is. not exogenous) deleterious effect of thyroid hormone on AMD. We also find an association between higher FT4 levels and retinal pigment alterations, suggesting that thyroid hormone could even play a role in the early stage of development of AMD. Functional and clinical studies could provide more evidence for a true causal relationship.

REFERENCES

1. Bourne RRA, Jonas JB, Flaxman SR, et al. Prevalence and causes of vision loss in high-income countries and in Eastern and Central Europe: 1990-2010. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2014;98(5):629-38.
2. Jonas JB, George R, Asokan R, et al. Prevalence and causes of vision loss in Central and South Asia: 1990-2010. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2014;98(5):592-8.
3. Keeffe J, Taylor HR, Fotis K, et al. Prevalence and causes of vision loss in Southeast Asia and Oceania: 1990-2010. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2014;98(5):586-91.
4. Khairallah M, Kahloun R, Flaxman SR, et al. Prevalence and causes of vision loss in North Africa and the Middle East: 1990-2010. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2014;98(5):605-11.
5. Leasher JL, Lansingh V, Flaxman SR, et al. Prevalence and causes of vision loss in Latin America and the Caribbean: 1990-2010. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2014;98(5):619-28.
6. Naidoo K, Gichuhi S, Basanez MG, et al. Prevalence and causes of vision loss in sub-Saharan Africa: 1990-2010. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2014;98(5):612-8.
7. Wong TY, Zheng YF, Jonas JB, et al. Prevalence and causes of vision loss in East Asia: 1990-2010. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2014;98(5):599-604.
8. Ittermann T, Dorr M, Volzke H, et al. High Serum Thyrotropin Levels Are Associated with Retinal Arteriolar Narrowing in the General Population. *Thyroid* 2014;24(10):1473-8.
9. Takeda M, Kakegawa T, Suzuki M. Effect of thyroidectomy on photoreceptor cells in adult rat retina. *Life Sciences* 1996;58(7):631-7.
10. Takeda M, Onoda N, Suzuki M. Characterization of Thyroid-Hormone Effect on the Visual-System of the Adult-Rat. *Thyroid* 1994;4(4):467-74.
11. Duncan KG, Bailey KR, Baxter JD, Schwartz DM. The human fetal retinal pigment epithelium: A target tissue for thyroid hormones. *Ophthalmic Res* 1999;31(6):399-406.
12. Ma H, Thapa A, Morris L, et al. Suppressing thyroid hormone signaling preserves cone photoreceptors in mouse models of retinal degeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2014;111(9):3602-7.
13. Canaris GJ, Manowitz NR, Mayor G, Ridgway EC. The Colorado thyroid disease prevalence study. *Arch Intern Med* 2000;160(4):526-34.
14. Aghini-Lombardi F, Antonangeli L, Martino E, et al. The spectrum of thyroid disorders in an iodine-deficient community: the Pescopagano survey. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1999;84(2):561-6.
15. Aoki Y, Belin RM, Clickner R, et al. Serum TSH and total T4 in the United States population and their association with participant characteristics: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES 1999-2002). *Thyroid* 2007;17(12):1211-23.
16. Garmendia Madariaga A, Santos Palacios S, Guillen-Grima F, Galofre JC. The incidence and prevalence of thyroid dysfunction in Europe: a meta-analysis. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2014;99(3):923-31.
17. Gao N, Zhang W, Zhang YZ, et al. Carotid intima-media thickness in patients with subclinical hypothyroidism: a meta-analysis. *Atherosclerosis* 2013;227(1):18-25.
18. Bauer DC, Ettinger B, Browner WS. Thyroid functions and serum lipids in older women: a population-based study. *Am J Med* 1998;104(6):546-51.
19. Hak AE, Pols HA, Visser TJ, et al. Subclinical hypothyroidism is an independent risk factor for atherosclerosis and myocardial infarction in elderly women: the Rotterdam Study. *Ann Intern Med* 2000;132(4):270-8.
20. Chakravarthy U, Wong TY, Fletcher A, et al. Clinical risk factors for age-related macular degeneration: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC ophthalmol* 2010;10:31.
21. Klein R, Cruickshanks KJ, Myers CE, et al. The relationship of atherosclerosis to the 10-year cumulative incidence of age-related macular degeneration: the Beaver Dam studies. *Ophthalmology* 2013;120(5):1012-9.
22. Hofman A, Darwish Murad S, van Duijn CM, et al. The Rotterdam Study: 2014 objectives and design update. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2013;28(11):889-926.
23. Klein R, Davis MD, Magli YL, et al. The Wisconsin age-related maculopathy grading system. *Ophthalmology* 1991;98(7):1128-34.
24. Bird AC, Bressler NM, Bressler SB, et al. An international classification and grading system for age-related maculopathy and age-related macular degeneration. The International ARM Epidemiological Study Group. *Surv Ophthalmol* 1995;39(5):367-74.
25. Klein R, Meuer SM, Myers CE, et al. Harmonizing the classification of age-related macular degeneration in the three-continent AMD consortium. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol* 2014;21(1):14-23.
26. Pearce SH, Brabant G, Duntas LH, et al. 2013 ETA Guideline: Management of Subclinical Hypothyroidism. *Eur Thyroid J* 2013;2(4):215-28.

27. Fritsche LG, Chen W, Schu M, et al. Seven new loci associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2013;45(4):433-9, 9e1-2.
28. Porcu E, Medici M, Pistis G, et al. A meta-analysis of thyroid-related traits reveals novel loci and gender-specific differences in the regulation of thyroid function. *PLoS Genet* 2013;9(2):e1003266.
29. Gudmundsson J, Sulem P, Gudbjartsson DF, et al. Discovery of common variants associated with low TSH levels and thyroid cancer risk. *Nat Genet* 2012;44(3):319-22.
30. Bromfield S, Keenan J, Jolly P, McGwin G, Jr. A suggested association between hypothyroidism and age-related macular degeneration. *Curr Eye Res* 2012;37(6):549-52.
31. Age-Related Eye Disease Study Research G. Risk factors associated with age-related macular degeneration. A case-control study in the age-related eye disease study: Age-Related Eye Disease Study Report Number 3. *Ophthalmology* 2000;107(12):2224-32.
32. Klein R, Klein BE, Jensen SC, et al. Medication use and the 5-year incidence of early age-related maculopathy: the Beaver Dam Eye Study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2001;119(9):1354-9.
33. Douglas IJ, Cook C, Chakravarthy U, et al. A case-control study of drug risk factors for age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 2007;114(6):1164-9.
34. Ng L, Lyubarsky A, Nikonov SS, et al. Type 3 deiodinase, a thyroid-hormone-inactivating enzyme, controls survival and maturation of cone photoreceptors. *J Neurosci* 2010;30(9):3347-57.
35. Nguyen-Legros J, Hicks D. Renewal of photoreceptor outer segments and their phagocytosis by the retinal pigment epithelium. *Int Rev Cytol* 2000;196:245-313.
36. Biondi B, Cooper DS. The clinical significance of subclinical thyroid dysfunction. *Endocr Rev* 2008;29(1):76-131.
37. Gammage MD, Parle JV, Holder RL, et al. Association between serum free thyroxine concentration and atrial fibrillation. *Arch Intern Med* 2007;167(9):928-34.
38. Waring AC, Arnold AM, Newman AB, et al. Longitudinal changes in thyroid function in the oldest old and survival: the cardiovascular health study all-stars study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2012;97(11):3944-50.
39. Meier CA, Maisey MN, Lowry A, et al. Interindividual differences in the pituitary-thyroid axis influence the interpretation of thyroid function tests. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)* 1993;39(1):101-7.
40. Fliers E, Kalsbeek A, Boelen A. Beyond the fixed setpoint of the hypothalamus-pituitary-thyroid axis. *EUR J ENDOCRINOL* 2014;171(5):R197-208.



Chapter 4.4

Antiplatelet and anticoagulant drugs do not affect visual outcome in neovascular age-related macular degeneration in the BRAMD trial

Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk, Ann-Sofie M.E. Schauvlieghe, Johannes R. Vingerling, Reinier O. Schlingemann, Caroline C.W. Klaver on behalf of the comparing Bevacizumab to Ranibizumab in Age-related Macular Degeneration (BRAMD) trial research group

Am J Ophthalmol. 2018 Jan 9. pii: S0002-9394(18)30004-7. doi: 10.1016/j.ajo.2018.01.003. [Epub ahead of print] PMID: 29330064

ABSTRACT

Purpose To determine if use of antiplatelet or anticoagulant (AP/AC) medication influences visual acuity in patients with active neovascular age-related macular degeneration (N-AMD).

Design Retrospective analysis of data from a randomized controlled trial

Methods

Setting: Multi-center

Study Population: 330 patients with active N-AMD from the BRAMD study, a comparative trial between bevacizumab and ranibizumab in the Netherlands.

Observation Procedures: Patients underwent an extensive ophthalmic examination. Visual acuity was categorized into functional vision (best corrected visual acuity (BCVA) ≥ 0.5), visual impairment (BCVA < 0.5), and severe visual impairment (BCVA < 0.3). Fundus photographs were graded for presence of retinal or subretinal hemorrhages. Information on AP/AC medication was obtained through interview. Logistic regression analysis was used to determine associations between AP/AC medication and outcomes. Frequency of hemorrhages in users and non-users stratified for visual acuity categories was analyzed with ANCOVA.

Main Outcome Measures: BCVA and presence of hemorrhages.

Results In total, 40.9% of the patients used AP/AC medication, of which 73.3% was aspirin. AP/AC use was not associated with visual impairment (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 0.79 (95% confidence interval (CI) 0.43-1.44), or severe visual impairment (adjusted OR 0.75 (95% CI 0.40-1.43). Patients on AP/AC presented with comparable frequencies of hemorrhages (27% versus 32%, $P=0.32$, respectively). Similar results were found when analyses were restricted to aspirin users only.

Conclusion In our study, use of AP/AC medication was neither associated with visual decline nor with the occurrence of hemorrhages in patients with active N-AMD.

INTRODUCTION

Recently, several population based-studies have shown an association of aspirin use with an increased risk of choroidal neovascularization (CNV) in age-related macular degeneration (AMD).¹⁻³ These findings were not unequivocal as randomized controlled trials^{4,5} and meta-analyses were inconclusive.⁶⁻⁹ These contrasts have renewed the discussion on the use of aspirin and other antiplatelet or anticoagulant drugs in persons with neovascular AMD. While these therapies are mostly prescribed for their cardiovascular and cerebrovascular protective effects, they may have adverse events due to an increased risk of bleeding.¹⁰⁻¹² The antithrombotic characteristics may deteriorate the outcome of neovascular AMD, leading to more severe hemorrhages and increased fibrovascular scarring, both jeopardizing visual acuity.¹³ At this time, it is still unclear whether antiplatelet or anticoagulant medication should be discontinued for patients with neovascular AMD.

We investigated the effect of antiplatelet and anticoagulant medication on visual acuity in patients with active CNV. We studied visual acuity, presence of retinal and subretinal hemorrhages, total CNV lesion size and retinal thickness in relation to the use of antiplatelet and anticoagulant medication before and after anti-vascular endothelial growth factor (anti-VEGF) therapy.

METHODS

BRAMD Study participants

BRAMD is a Dutch comparison study investigating Bevacizumab versus Ranibizumab in AMD, and was designed as a triple masked, randomized, clinical non-inferiority multicenter trial. Details on the study design have been described elsewhere.¹⁴ In short, 330 patients aged 60 years or older from five academic medical centers in the Netherlands were included in the study. Inclusion criteria was a diagnosis of primary or recurrent active sub- or juxtafoveal choroidal neovascularization (CNV) secondary to AMD with a total area of CNV <12 disc areas and a best corrected visual acuity (BCVA) score between 20 and 78 letters on an Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy Study like chart (ETDRS) in the study eye. Further details on in- and exclusion criteria of this study are provided in Supplemental Table 1. After baseline assessment, all patients received monthly injections with bevacizumab or ranibizumab for 12 months. The institutional ethical review boards from the participating medical centers approved the BRAMD study. The study adhered to the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki and was registered at the Dutch trial register (Nederlands trial register) (NTR1704). Participants who had a full ophthalmic examination including imaging, disclosed medication use, and a signed informed consent were included in the current analysis. In total, 330 eyes from 330 participants were included.

Ophthalmic data collection

All participants underwent a standardized full ophthalmic examination and imaging including, fluorescein angiogram, 30° color digital fundus photographs and spectral domain optical coherence tomography (SD-OCT). Diagnosis, size of lesion quantified as optic disc area (DA), and presence of active choroidal neovascularization due to AMD was confirmed by trained independent graders, masked for patient information such as the use of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drugs, at the UK Network of Ophthalmic Reading Centers. The presence of retinal or subretinal hemorrhage in the posterior pole was determined on fundus photographs. Retinal thickness was measured in the fovea using a built-in caliper on SD-OCTs at baseline and during last visit. Presence of pseudophakia was determined using slit lamp observation.

Best corrected visual acuity (BCVA) was assessed using an ETDRS chart and categorized in 3 groups:

	ETDRS chart letters	Snellen decimal equivalent	Snellen Foot equivalent
Functional vision	BCVA \geq 70	BCVA \geq 0.50	BCVA \geq 20/40
Moderate visual impairment	70 > BCVA \geq 59	0.50 > BCVA \geq 0.30	20/40 > BCVA \geq 20/66
Severe visual impairment	59 > BCVA \geq 20	0.30 > BCVA \geq 0.05	20/66 > BCVA \geq 20/400

Assessment of variables

At baseline, detailed information was obtained from the participants concerning demographic characteristics, medical history, and medication use. Medical history included information about cardiovascular diseases such as myocardial infarction, congestive heart failure, stroke, transient ischemic attack and hypertension. Information on use of antiplatelet and anticoagulant (AP/AC) drugs including name of the drug, dosage, frequency and start date was obtained at baseline. Blood pressure was measured at baseline. Hypertension was defined as systolic blood pressure \geq 140 mmHg or a diastolic blood pressure \geq 90 mmHg or if the participant was using anti-hypertensive medication at baseline. Smoking habits were assessed by interview and categorized into never/past/current smoking.

Statistical analysis

Primary study outcomes were visual impairment (moderate and severe visual impairment combined) and severe visual impairment. Secondary outcomes were presence of retinal hemorrhages, foveal retinal thickness, and CNV lesion size in the study eye. Several determinants had missing values. Lens data were missing in 16% of study subjects, smoking data in 18.8%. Missing data were randomly distributed, and not significantly associated with visual impairment (analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) adjusted for age, sex $P=1.00$ for lens; $P=0.47$ for smoking). We used the iterative Markov chain Monte Carlo algorithm (5 steps) for multiple imputations. These were calculated using possible predictable baseline values such as age, sex, diabetes, and smoking for lens data; age, sex, history of cardiovascular disease, hypertension, and CNV presence in the fellow eye for smoking data. Analyzing the dataset excluding the multiple imputations for the variables lens status and smoking did not change risk estimates or associations observed in this study.

We first analyzed baseline characteristics between users of AP/AC and nonusers; continuous variables were compared using ANCOVA and categorical variants using logistic regression. After this we plotted users and nonusers of AP/AC with visual acuity and with retinal hemorrhages. Groups were compared using ANCOVA adjusted for age, sex, and study center. We then performed binary logistic regression analysis for the use of AP/AC and visual impairment, severe visual impairment, retinal hemorrhages, and CNV lesions size. Foveal retinal thickness measurements were also analyzed using ANCOVA. All analyses were adjusted for age, sex, and study center, and subsequently for smoking, medical history cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, hypertension, choroidal neovascularization in the fellow eye, lens status. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS version 21 (SPSS IBM, New York, U.S.A.).

RESULTS

General characteristics of the 330 study participants from the BRAMD study are presented in Table 1. AP/AC users were slightly older (mean age 79.4 years for AP/AC users versus 76.4 years for nonusers; $P = 0.001$) and presented more often with diabetes mellitus (17.0% versus 8.7%; $P = 0.01$). Although users were more often diagnosed with hypertension (81.9% versus 52.0%; $P < 0.0001$), no significant differences were found for blood pressure measurements ($P = 0.37$ for systolic and $P = 0.54$ for diastolic blood pressure). History of cardiovascular diseases was more common in users (34.1% versus 4.6%; $P < 0.0001$). 40.9% of the study participants used any type of AP/AC drug. In those using AP/AC medication, antiplatelet drugs, with aspirin in particular, were the type of medication mostly used; 76.3% and 73.3%, respectively. Other baseline characteristics did not differ significantly between both groups.

We investigated use of AP/AC drugs and risk of visual impairment (Table 2). Use of AP/AC was not associated with visual impairment (Odds' Ratio (OR) 0.74 (95% Confidence Interval (CI) 0.44-1.24), adjusted for age, sex, and study center) and (OR 0.79 (95% CI 0.43-1.44), additional adjustment for smoking, lens status, medical history for cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, hypertension and presence of CNV in the fellow eye). AP use was significantly associated with a lower risk of visual impairment (OR 0.58 (95% CI 0.34-0.99). After adjustment for additional confounders, the association was no longer significant (OR 0.61 (95% CI 0.34-1.09)). For aspirin use, estimates were in the same direction, but no significant association was found. Associations with AC drugs were not significant in either model. The analyses with severe visual impairment as outcome showed similar effects, but none of the associations were significant. We also analyzed visual acuity from the last visit of the BRAMD study. Estimates were in the same direction, but no significant association was found (Supplemental Table 2).

The distribution of baseline functional vision and visual impairment was plotted for the presence of retinal or subretinal hemorrhages in users and nonusers of AP/AC medication (Supplemental Figure 1). Visual acuity was significantly lower in those with retinal or subretinal hemorrhages ($P = 0.008$). However, users or nonusers of AP/AC with hemorrhages did not differ in visual acuity ($P = 0.77$).

The association between AP/AC use and the presence of retinal or subretinal hemorrhages is shown in Table 3. Users of AP/AC medication had a lower risk of hemorrhages. The association became significant after additional adjustment for covariates, OR 0.76 (95% CFI 0.46-1.25) and OR 0.47 (95% CI 0.26-0.83), respectively. This trend was also observed for AP; OR 0.52 (95% CI 0.30-0.90) and OR 0.34 (95% CI 0.18-0.62), respectively. Aspirin use became significantly associated with a lower risk of hemorrhages after additional adjustment; OR 0.61 (95% CI 0.34-1.08) and OR 0.36 (95% CI 0.18-0.71), respectively. No association was found between AC and hemorrhages.

Foveal retinal thickness differed significantly between aspirin users and nonusers at baseline ($P = 0.04$). This was not observed during the last visit ($P = 0.84$). With respect to other groups, no significant difference was found between users and nonusers at baseline (Supplemental Table 3) or during their last visit (Supplemental Table 4). AP/AC was not associated with CNV lesions size at baseline (Supplemental Table 5).

TABLE 1 - Baseline characteristics of the study population

	BRAMD study N=330		P Value ^a
	Nonusers N=195	AP/AC users N=135	
Age, yrs (sd)	76.4 (8.9)	79.4 (6.5)	0.001
Sex, % males	42.1	47.4	0.29
Smokers, % former and current	65.6	68.4	0.47
Retinal or subretinal hemorrhage, %	32.3	26.7	0.32
Best corrected visual acuity study eye, %			0.35
Functional vision	25.1	28.1	
Moderate visual impairment	32.3	28.9	
Severe visual impairment	42.6	43.0	
Pseudophakic eyes, %	37.0	21.5	0.49
CNV in the fellow eye, %	22.6	23.8	0.63
Retinal foveal thickness, μm (sd)	380 (123)	396 (120)	0.27
CNV lesion size, %			0.36
0-1 disc area	36.6	32.6	
≥ 2 disc area	63.4	67.4	
Diabetes Mellitus, %	8.7	17.0	0.01
Hypertension, %	46.2	83.7	<0.0001
Systolic blood pressure, mmHg (sd)	153 (21)	151 (25)	0.37
Diastolic blood pressure, mmHg (sd)	81 (10)	80 (12)	0.54
History of cardiovascular diseases, %	4.6	34.1	<0.0001
Myocardial infarction	3.1	11.9	<0.0001
Congestive heart failure	1.0	4.4	0.16
Stroke	1.0	3.7	0.26
Transient ischaemic attack	1.0	18.5	<0.0001
Antiplatelet or anticoagulant drugs, %	0	100	
Antiplatelet drugs, %	-	76.3	
Aspirin	-	73.3	
Clopidogrel	-	5.7	
Anticoagulant drugs, %	-	27.4	
Acenocoumarol	-	21.0	
Fenprocoumon	-	4.8	

For continuous variables means were calculated

^aP values were calculated using analysis of covariance for continuous variables and logistic regression for discrete variables, adjusted for age, sex and study center

Abbreviations: AP/AC = antiplatelet or anticoagulant, CNV = choroidal neovascularization, sd = standard deviation, yrs = years

TABLE 2 - Association between antiplatelet or anticoagulant medication and risk of visual impairment at baseline

Risk of visual impairment	Functional vision eyes (N=87)	Visual impaired eyes (N=243)	OR (95% CI) Model 1	OR (95% CI) Model 2
Use of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drug				
No	49	146	1	1
Yes	38	97	0.74 (0.44-1.24)	0.79 (0.43-1.44)
Use of antiplatelet drugs				
No	54	173	1	1
Yes	33	70	0.58 (0.34-0.99)	0.61 (0.34-1.09)
Use of anticoagulant drugs				
No	81	212	1	1
Yes	6	31	1.88 (0.75-4.70)	2.00 (0.77-5.18)
Type of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drugs				
None	49	146	1	1
Aspirin	31	68	0.64 (0.37-1.12)	0.76 (0.40-1.44)
Acenocoumarol	5	24	1.42 (0.51-3.98)	1.26 (0.40-3.99)
Risk of severe visual impairment	Functional vision eyes (N=87)	Severe visual impaired eyes (N=141)	OR (95% CI) Model 1	OR (95% CI) Model 2
Use of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drug				
No	49	83	1	1
Yes	38	58	0.74 (0.42-1.30)	0.75 (0.40-1.43)
Use of antiplatelet drugs				
No	54	97	1	1
Yes	33	44	0.64 (0.36-1.15)	0.66 (0.35-1.26)
Use of anticoagulant drugs				
No	81	124	1	1
Yes	6	17	1.63 (0.61-4.41)	1.57 (0.57-4.33)
Type of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drugs				
None	49	83	1	1
Aspirin	31	44	0.71 (0.39-1.30)	0.75 (0.38-1.50)
Acenocoumarol	5	14	1.34 (0.44-4.09)	1.18 (0.36-3.85)

Model 1: adjusted for age, sex and study center

Model 2: model 1 including smoking, lens status, medical history cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, hypertension, choroidal neovascularization fellow eye

Abbreviations: CI = confidence interval, OR = Odds' ratio

TABLE 3 - Association between antiplatelet or anticoagulant medication and the risk of retinal or subretinal hemorrhage at baseline

	No hemorrhage (N=231)	retinal or subretinal hemorrhage (N=99)	OR (95% CI) Model 1	OR (95% CI) Model 2
Use of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drug				
No	132	63	1	1
Yes	99	36	0.76 (0.46-1.25)	0.47 (0.26-0.83)
Use of antiplatelet drugs				
No	150	81	1	1
Yes	77	22	0.52 (0.30-0.90)	0.34 (0.18-0.62)
Use of anticoagulant drugs				
No	210	83	1	1
Yes	21	16	2.07 (1.02-4.20)	1.71 (0.82-3.58)
Type of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drugs				
None	132	63	1	1
Aspirin	77	22	0.61 (0.34-1.08)	0.36 (0.18-0.71)
Acenocoumarol	14	15	2.37 (1.06-5.31)	1.28 (0.51-3.20)

Model 1: adjusted for age, sex and study center

Model 2: model 1 including smoking, medical history cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, hypertension, choroidal neovascularization fellow eye

Abbreviations: CI = confidence interval, OR = Odds' ratio

DISCUSSION

In the BRAMD study, we showed that AP/AC use did not increase the risk of visual impairment in patients with neovascular AMD, nor did this medication increase the risk of retinal hemorrhages. Subgroup analysis identified aspirin as the major contributor to these associations. AP/AC use was not associated with CNV lesion size. For foveal retinal thickness, however, aspirin use was borderline significantly associated with a thicker retina. After monthly anti-VEGF injections given for one year, no differences were observed between users and nonusers for the different outcomes.

This study has strengths and limitations. An important benefit was that our study was a case only study of neovascular AMD, resulting in a larger similarity of disease characteristics than population-based studies, which compare AMD versus no AMD. Factors such as smoking, visual acuity in the study eye, disease activity in the fellow eye, and pseudophakia were comparable between users and non-users. Other strengths are the strict inclusion criteria of the BRAMD trial requiring multimodal imaging to diagnose active CNV, homogenizing the CNV cases entering the study. Among the limitations are the lack of data on medication use prior to the onset of CNV, the exclusion of severe cases, and the relatively small sample size. This limited our ability to perform detailed subgroup analyses, and may hamper extrapolation of findings. We observed a higher age and frequency of diabetes and cardiovascular disorders among users of AP/AC in concordance with the indication for these medications. Nevertheless, true confounding by indication is unlikely: the beneficial effect for AP/AC users found in our study is not in line with the higher risk of AMD for cardiovascular disorders suggested by some studies.^{15,16}

Our study investigated the effect of AP/AC medication on visual acuity, while most other studies focused on onset of early and late stages of AMD, or on the occurrence of hemorrhages only. With respect to AMD, the majority of population-based studies found an increased risk of CNV. The cross-sectional EUREYE study observed a two times increased risk of CNV for aspirin users, which sustained after correction for indication.¹ The Beaver Dam Eye Study (BDES) and Blue Mountains Eye Study (BMES) found a similarly increased risk of CNV, however, BDES observed this increase only for those with at least 10-year intake.² The association found by BMES was no longer significant after adjustment of additional cardiovascular risk factors.³ Case studies and clinical trials did not support an increased risk of AMD. The Women's Health Study found a lower, albeit nonsignificant, risk of visually significant AMD for those randomized to aspirin.⁵ The Physician Health Study found a similar trend for the entire group of aspirin users, and a significantly protective effect in men with hypertension.⁴ A case study performed by Wilson et al. also found a protective effect of aspirin: fewer AMD patients on this medication developed CNV.¹⁷ The Age-Related Eye Disease Study 2 reported this trend as well. This study observed a protective effect of aspirin use with the presence of AMD, including CNV, and with progression of AMD.^{18,19} Meta-analyses and reviews have been published evaluating studies of various designs.^{6-9,20-23} Overall risk estimates varied from no to a small increased risk (overall risk ratio < 2) for CNV as well as for other forms of AMD. Nevertheless, the inconsistency of study results was striking.

To evaluate whether AP/AC medication influenced the macular anatomy, we compared foveal retinal thickness and CNV lesion size between users and nonusers. We found a borderline significantly thicker foveal retinal thickness for aspirin users, compared to non-users. This association was found after additional adjustment for frequency of diabetes, hypertension, cardio vascular history and CNV in the fellow eye, all variables which could influence foveal retinal thickness. Unfortunately, we did not have morphology on OCT images to our disposal, which may have helped to explain the observed differences. Foveal retinal thickness was comparable between the aspirin users and the nonusers after treatment with anti-VEGF medication. For the other AP/AC groups, no significant association as found for both foveal retinal thickness and CNV lesions size at baseline and after anti-VEGF treatment. Animal studies showed equivalent results: aspirin treated mice did not differ in laser induced CNV lesion size from the control group.²⁴

AP/AC use has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding, such as cerebral and gastrointestinal bleeding.¹⁰ Whether this also accounts for ocular hemorrhages is still unclear. This study provides evidence that in particular aspirin users do not have an increased risk of retinal or subretinal hemorrhages. Several other studies focused on AP/AC and hemorrhages in CNV.²⁵⁻³⁵ None of these studies found a protective effect. Tilanus et al.²⁹ found a higher risk of large hemorrhages, in particularly for AC users, while Kuhli-Hattenbach et al.^{27,33} and Kiernan et al.²⁵ found an increased risk of large hemorrhages for all AP/AC users. By contrast, the Macular Photocoagulation Study²⁶ did not find a significant association between aspirin use and hemorrhages, and the Comparison of AMD Treatment Trials (CATT) study³⁰ only found a significant association for aspirin and clopidogrel bisulfate after stratification for hypertension. Stratification for hypertension did not influence our results (Supplemental Table 6). What could explain these differences in results, in particularly those from the CATT Study? The BRAMD study used very similar inclusion criteria as CATT, however, patients with >70% lesion area covered by blood were excluded in our study. We do not think that this is an explanation to the data, as the proportion of patients with >2 DA of hemorrhage in CATT was small (<5%). A factor that could be held accountable is the eligibility of patients with past treatments for

AMD in BRAMD (13.3%). In CATT, only naïve patients were eligible and hemorrhages had therefore not undergone prior treatment. Reports on patients treated with anti-VEGF reported only 0.6% macular hemorrhages and these hemorrhages were not associated with AP/AC use.³⁶

Aspirin appeared to be the major driver of the beneficial effect of AP/AC in our study. Forty percent of the population used AP/AC medication, of which three fourth was aspirin. Aspirin is a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) and the only NSAID that irreversibly inactivates both isoforms of the cyclooxygenase (COX) enzymes.^{12,23} It can suppress the production thromboxanes and prostaglandins by inhibiting the catalytic activity of COX-1 and COX-2, thereby reducing platelet aggregation, inflammation, and angiogenesis, and promoting apoptosis.^{23,24,37} A recent study in mice showed that inhibition of COX-2 reduced angiogenesis and subretinal fibrosis in CNV.³⁸ Mechanisms independent of COX can also induce cell apoptosis.³⁷ Aspirin has antioxidant properties and provides a protective effect against lipid peroxidation, upregulates other antioxidants, and inhibits mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation reducing reactive oxygen species.^{24,37,39} Finally, aspirin modulates DNA transcription through inhibition of nuclear factor kappa B, thereby influencing many biological processes, including inflammation and apoptosis.^{23,37} Taken together, aside from the anti-platelet aggregation and apoptosis, these actions of aspirin are in line with a favorable effect on AMD.

In summary, the BRAMD trial suggests that AP/AC use did not increase the risk of visual impairment or the occurrence of hemorrhages. Validation of our data is expected from the large-scale 'ASpirin in Reducing Events in the Elderly' (ASPREE) trial, an ongoing study which investigates the use of low-dose daily aspirin on AMD phenotype.⁴⁰ Our findings are of clinical importance, because they imply that patients with neovascular AMD can continue their prescribed use of AP/AC medication without negative effects on AMD outcome.

REFERENCES

1. de Jong PT, Chakravarthy U, Rahu M, et al. Associations between aspirin use and aging macula disorder: the European Eye Study. *Ophthalmology*. 2012;119(1):112-118.
2. Klein BE, Howard KP, Gangnon RE, Dreyer JO, Lee KE, Klein R. Long-term use of aspirin and age-related macular degeneration. *Jama*. 2012;308(23):2469-2478.
3. Liew G, Mitchell P, Wong TY, Rochtchina E, Wang JJ. The association of aspirin use with age-related macular degeneration. *JAMA internal medicine*. 2013;173(4):258-264.
4. Christen WG, Glynn RJ, Ajani UA, et al. Age-related maculopathy in a randomized trial of low-dose aspirin among US physicians. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2001;119(8):1143-1149.
5. Christen WG, Glynn RJ, Chew EY, Buring JE. Low-dose aspirin and medical record-confirmed age-related macular degeneration in a randomized trial of women. *Ophthalmology*. 2009;116(12):2386-2392.
6. Kahawita SK, Casson RJ. Aspirin use and early age-related macular degeneration: a meta-analysis. *Canadian journal of ophthalmology Journal canadien d'ophtalmologie*. 2014;49(1):35-39.
7. Li L, Li W, Chen CZ, Yi ZH, Zhou YY. Is aspirin use associated with age-related macular degeneration? A meta-analysis. *Journal of clinical pharmacy and therapeutics*. 2015;40(2):144-154.
8. Ye J, Xu YF, He JJ, Lou LX. Association between aspirin use and age-related macular degeneration: a meta-analysis. *Investigative ophthalmology & visual science*. 2014;55(4):2687-2696.
9. Zhu W, Wu Y, Xu D, et al. Aspirin use and risk of age-related macular degeneration: a meta-analysis. *PloS one*. 2013;8(3):e58821.
10. Guirguis-Blake JM, Evans CV, Senger CA, Rowland MG, O'Connor EA, Whitlock EP. In: *Aspirin for the Primary Prevention of Cardiovascular Events: A Systematic Evidence Review for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force*. Rockville (MD)2015.
11. De Schryver EL, Algra A, Kappelle LJ, van Gijn J, Koudstaal PJ. Vitamin K antagonists versus antiplatelet therapy after transient ischaemic attack or minor ischaemic stroke of presumed arterial origin. *The Cochrane database of systematic reviews*. 2012(9):CD001342.
12. Meek IL, Van de Laar MA, H EV. Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs: An Overview of Cardiovascular Risks. *Pharmaceuticals*. 2010;3(7):2146-2162.
13. Avery RL, Fekrat S, Hawkins BS, Bressler NM. Natural history of subfoveal subretinal hemorrhage in age-related macular degeneration. *Retina*. 1996;16(3):183-189.
14. Schauwvlieghe AM, Dijkman G, Hooymans JM, et al. Comparing the Effectiveness of Bevacizumab to Ranibizumab in Patients with Exudative Age-Related Macular Degeneration. The BRAMD Study. *PloS one*. 2016;11(5):e0153052.
15. Chakravarthy U, Wong TY, Fletcher A, et al. Clinical risk factors for age-related macular degeneration: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC ophthalmology*. 2010;10:31.
16. Wang J, Xue Y, Thapa S, Wang L, Tang J, Ji K. Relation between Age-Related Macular Degeneration and Cardiovascular Events and Mortality: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *BioMed research international*. 2016;2016:8212063.
17. Wilson HL, Schwartz DM, Bhatt HR, McCulloch CE, Duncan JL. Statin and aspirin therapy are associated with decreased rates of choroidal neovascularization among patients with age-related macular degeneration. *American journal of ophthalmology*. 2004;137(4):615-624.
18. Aronow ME, Klein ML, Clemons TE, et al. Effect of Aspirin Use on Progression of Age-Related Macular Degeneration in the Age-Related Eye Disease Study 2 (AREDS2) Participants. *Investigative ophthalmology & visual science*. 2014;55(13):ARVO abstract 2993.
19. Chew EY, Clemons TE, Gensler G, AREDS2 A-REDSRG. The association of Aspirin Use with Age-Related Macular Degeneration in AREDS2. *Investigative ophthalmology & visual science*. 2012;53(14):ARVO abstract 1325.
20. Christen WG, Chew EY. Does long-term aspirin use increase the risk of neovascular age-related macular degeneration? *Expert opinion on drug safety*. 2014;13(4):421-429.
21. Small KW, Garabetian CA, Shaya FS. Macular Degeneration and Aspirin Use. *Retina*. 2017;37(9):1630-1635.
22. Sobrin L, Seddon JM. Regular aspirin use and risk of age-related macular degeneration. *American journal of ophthalmology*. 2013;156(2):213-217 e212.
23. Wu Y, Zhu W, Li YH, Yu J. Aspirin and age related macular degeneration; the possible relationship. *Medical hypothesis, discovery and innovation in ophthalmology*. 2013;2(3):59-68.
24. Goyal S, Lyzogubov VV, Ali O, Bora PS, Bora NS, Uwaydat SH. Effect of aspirin on models of retinal pigment epithelium pathology. *Clinical & experimental ophthalmology*. 2016;44(7):610-617.
25. Kiernan DF, Hariprasad SM, Rusu IM, Mehta SV, Mieler WF, Jager RD. Epidemiology of the association between

- anticoagulants and intraocular hemorrhage in patients with neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *Retina*. 2010;30(10):1573-1578.
26. Klein ML. Macular degeneration: is aspirin a risk for progressive disease? *Jama*. 1991;266(16):2279.
 27. Kuhl-Hattenbach C, Fischer IB, Schalnus R, Hattenbach LO. Subretinal hemorrhages associated with age-related macular degeneration in patients receiving anticoagulation or antiplatelet therapy. *American journal of ophthalmology*. 2010;149(2):316-321 e311.
 28. Mason JO, 3rd, Frederick PA, Neimkin MG, et al. Incidence of hemorrhagic complications after intravitreal bevacizumab (avastin) or ranibizumab (lucentis) injections on systemically anticoagulated patients. *Retina*. 2010;30(9):1386-1389.
 29. Tilanus MA, Vaandrager W, Cuypers MH, Verbeek AM, Hoyng CB. Relationship between anticoagulant medication and massive intraocular hemorrhage in age-related macular degeneration. *Graefes archive for clinical and experimental ophthalmology = Albrecht von Graefes Archiv fur klinische und experimentelle Ophthalmologie*. 2000;238(6):482-485.
 30. Ying GS, Maguire MG, Daniel E, Grunwald JE, Ahmed O, Martin DF. Association between Antiplatelet or Anticoagulant Drugs and Retinal or Subretinal Hemorrhage in the Comparison of Age-Related Macular Degeneration Treatments Trials. *Ophthalmology*. 2016;123(2):352-360.
 31. el Baba F, Jarrett WH, 2nd, Harbin TS, Jr., et al. Massive hemorrhage complicating age-related macular degeneration. Clinicopathologic correlation and role of anticoagulants. *Ophthalmology*. 1986;93(12):1581-1592.
 32. Knox FA, Johnston PB. Spontaneous suprachoroidal haemorrhage in a patient with age-related macular degeneration on excessive anticoagulation therapy. *Eye*. 2002;16(5):669-670.
 33. Kuhl-Hattenbach C, Miesbach W, Scharrer I, Hattenbach LO. [Massive subretinal hemorrhage and anticoagulants. An unfortunate combination?]. *Der Ophthalmologe : Zeitschrift der Deutschen Ophthalmologischen Gesellschaft*. 2012;109(7):665-669.
 34. Lewis H, Sloan SH, Foos RY. Massive intraocular hemorrhage associated with anticoagulation and age-related macular degeneration. *Graefes archive for clinical and experimental ophthalmology = Albrecht von Graefes Archiv fur klinische und experimentelle Ophthalmologie*. 1988;226(1):59-64.
 35. Olson JM, Scott IU, Kerchner DL, Kunselman AR. Association between systemic anticoagulation and rate of intraocular hemorrhage following intravitreal anti-VEGF therapy for age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmic surgery, lasers & imaging retina*. 2013;44(5):455-459.
 36. Azar G, Mauget-Faysse M, Nyouma J, et al. Occurrence of macular hematoma after ranibizumab treatment for age-related macular degeneration. *European journal of ophthalmology*. 2015;25(2):163-167.
 37. Farrugia G, Balzan R. The proapoptotic effect of traditional and novel nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in mammalian and yeast cells. *Oxidative medicine and cellular longevity*. 2013;2013:504230.
 38. Zhang R, Liu Z, Zhang H, Zhang Y, Lin D. The COX-2-Selective Antagonist (NS-398) Inhibits Choroidal Neovascularization and Subretinal Fibrosis. *PloS one*. 2016;11(1):e0146808.
 39. Shi X, Ding M, Dong Z, et al. Antioxidant properties of aspirin: characterization of the ability of aspirin to inhibit silica-induced lipid peroxidation, DNA damage, NF-kappaB activation, and TNF-alpha production. *Molecular and cellular biochemistry*. 1999;199(1-2):93-102.
 40. Robman L, Guymer R, Woods R, et al. Age-related macular degeneration in a randomized controlled trial of low-dose aspirin: Rationale and study design of the ASPREE-AMD study. *Contemporary clinical trials communications*. 2017;6:105-114.

SUPPLEMENTAL TABLE 1 - In- and exclusion criteria of the BRAMD study**Inclusion criteria**

Patients 60 years of age or higher.

Patients with primary or recurrent sub-, juxta- or extrafoveal CNV secondary to AMD, including those with RAP, that may benefit from anti-VEGF treatment in the opinion of the investigator.

The total area of CNV (including both classic and occult components) encompassed within the lesion must be more or equal to 30% of the total lesion area.

The total lesion area should be < 12 disc areas.

A best corrected visual acuity (BCVA) score between 78 and 20 letters (approximately 0,63–0,05 Snellen equivalent) in the study eye.

Exclusion criteria

Ocular treatment with anti-angiogenic drugs in the last 2 months or Triamcinolone in the last 6 months.

Laser photocoagulation (juxtafoveal or extrafoveal) in the study eye within one month preceding baseline.

Patients with angioid streaks or precursors of CNV in either eye due to other causes, such as ocular histoplasmosis, trauma, or pathologic myopia.

Spherical equivalent of refractive error in the study eye demonstrating more than– 8 diopters of myopia.

Cataract extraction within three months preceding baseline.

IOP >25 mm Hg.

Active intraocular inflammation in the study eye.

Vitreous hemorrhage obscuring view of the posterior pole in the study eye.

Presence of a retinal pigment epithelial tear involving the macula in the study eye.

Subretinal hemorrhage in the study eye if the size of the hemorrhage is > 70% of the lesion.

Subfoveal fibrosis or atrophy in the study eye.

History of hypersensitivity or allergy to fluorescein.

Inability to obtain fundus photographs, fluorescein angiograms or OCT's of sufficient quality to be analyzed and graded by the Central Reading Centre.

Systemic disease with a life expectancy shorter than the duration of the study.

Inability to adhere to the protocol with regard to injection and follow-up visits.

Legally incompetent adult.

Refusal to give written informed consent.

SUPPLEMENTAL TABLE 2 - Association between antiplatelet or anticoagulant medication and risk of visual impairment during last visit

Risk of visual impairment	Functional vision eyes (N=178)	Visual impaired eyes (N=148)	OR (95% CI) Model 1	OR (95% CI) Model 2
Use of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drug				
No	105	87	1	1
Yes	73	61	0.90 (0.57-1.42)	0.97 (0.58-1.65)
Use of antiplatelet drugs				
No	117	106	1	1
Yes	61	42	0.69 (0.42-1.12)	0.71 (0.42-1.19)
Use of anticoagulant drugs				
No	163	127	1	1
Yes	15	21	1.69 (0.83-3.45)	1.81 (0.86-3.82)
Type of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drugs				
None	105	87	1	1
Aspirin	57	42	0.80 (0.48-1.32)	0.92 (0.52-1.63)
Acenocoumarol	11	17	1.63 (0.71-3.74)	1.90 (0.73-4.96)

Risk of severe visual impairment	Functional vision eyes (N=178)	Severe visual impaired eyes (N=94)	OR (95% CI) Model 1	OR (95% CI) Model 2
Use of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drug				
No	105	52	1	1
Yes	73	42	1.02 (0.60-1.71)	1.04 (0.57-1.88)
Use of antiplatelet drugs				
No	117	64	1	1
Yes	61	30	0.81 (0.47-1.39)	0.81 (0.45-1.48)
Use of anticoagulant drugs				
No	163	80	1	1
Yes	15	14	1.78 (0.81-3.92)	1.73 (0.76-3.91)
Type of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drugs				
None	105	52	1	1
Aspirin	57	30	0.96 (0.54-1.70)	1.23 (0.53-1.94)
Acenocoumarol	11	12	1.96 (0.80-4.83)	2.04 (0.72-5.75)

Model 1: adjusted for age, sex and study center

Model 2: model 1 including smoking, lens status, medical history cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, hypertension, choroidal neovascularization fellow eye

Abbreviations: CI = confidence interval, OR = Odds' ratio

SUPPLEMENTAL TABLE 3 - Association between antiplatelet or anticoagulant medication and foveal retinal thickness on OCT at baseline

	User		Nonuser		P value*	P value**
	N	FRT	N	FRT		
Antiplatelet or anticoagulant drug	135	396 (120)	195	380 (123)	0.27	0.08
Antiplatelet drugs	103	401 (128)	227	380 (118)	0.19	0.06
Anticoagulant drugs	37	390 (95)	293	386 (125)	0.73	0.73
Type of anticoagulant						
Aspirin	99	405 (129)	195	380 (123)	0.15	0.04
Acenocoumarol	29	399 (96)	195	380 (123)	0.37	0.29

FRT is in μm and values are mean (SD)

P values obtained using ANCOVA

* adjusted for age, sex and study center

** adjusted for age, sex, study center, smoking, medical history cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, hypertension, choroidal neovascularization fellow eye

Abbreviations: FRT = foveal retinal thickness, OCT = optical coherence tomography, SD = standard deviation

SUPPLEMENTAL TABLE 4 - Association between antiplatelet or anticoagulant medication and foveal retinal thickness on OCT during last visit

	User		Nonuser		P value*	P value**
	N	FRT	N	FRT		
Antiplatelet or anticoagulant drug	133	247 (67)	193	248 (61)	0.73	0.91
Antiplatelet drugs	103	247 (70)	223	248 (60)	0.77	0.98
Anticoagulant drugs	35	247 (62)	291	248 (64)	0.99	0.98
Type of anticoagulant						
Aspirin	99	246 (71)	193	248 (61)	0.61	0.84
Acenocoumarol	28	248 (67)	193	248 (61)	0.91	0.56

FRT is in μm and values are mean (SD)

P values obtained using ANCOVA

* adjusted for age, sex and study center

** adjusted for age, sex, study center, smoking, medical history cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, hypertension, choroidal neovascularization fellow eye

Abbreviations: FRT = foveal retinal thickness, OCT = optical coherence tomography, SD = standard deviation

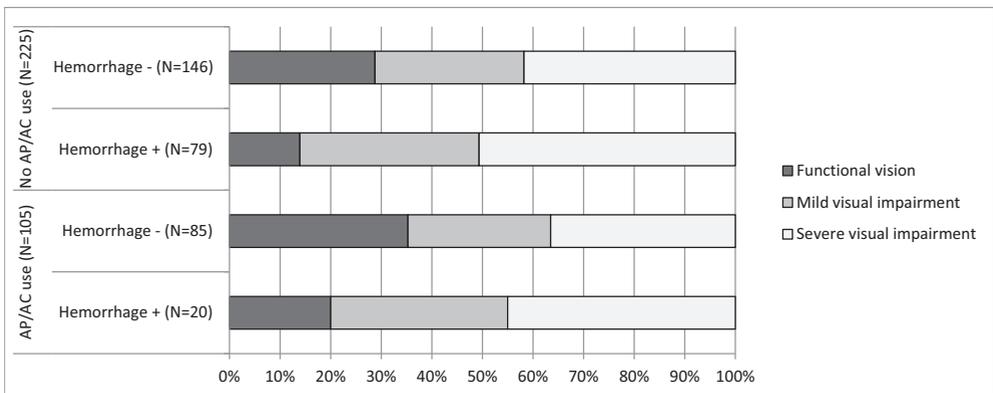
SUPPLEMENTAL TABLE 5 - Association between antiplatelet or anticoagulant medication and CNV lesion size at baseline

	Lesion size < 2 DA (N=109)	Lesion size ≥ 2 DA (N=203)	OR (95% CI) model 1	OR (95% CI) model 2
Use of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drug				
No	67	116	1	1
Yes	42	87	1.26 (0.77-2.06)	1.47 (0.83-2.60)
Use of antiplatelet drugs				
No	75	138	1	1
Yes	34	65	1.09 (0.65-1.82)	1.18 (0.67-2.06)
Use of anticoagulant drugs				
No	100	178	1	1
Yes	9	25	1.58 (0.70-3.55)	1.66 (0.72-3.86)
Type of drugs				
None	67	116	1	1
Aspirin	30	65	1.37 (0.79-2.35)	1.68 (0.90-3.15)
Acenocoumarol	7	20	1.67 (0.65-4.25)	1.83 (0.64-5.20)

Model 1: adjusted for age, sex and study center

Model 2: model 1 including smoking, medical history cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, hypertension, choroidal neovascularization fellow eye

Abbreviations: CI = confidence interval, CNV = choroidal neovascularization, DA = disk area, OR = Odds' Ratio



SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 1 - Distribution of visual acuity in those with or without retinal or subretinal hemorrhage for antiplatelet or anticoagulant medication

On the x-axis the frequency in percentages is plotted, on the y- axis the groups indicating the users and nonusers of antiplatelet or anticoagulant medication and these group were further stratified for presence of retinal or subretinal hemorrhage (+) or no presence hemorrhage (-).

Abbreviations AC = anticoagulant, AP = antiplatelet.

SUPPLEMENTAL TABLE 6 - Association between antiplatelet or anticoagulant medication and risk of retinal or subretinal in hemorrhages at baseline in those with and without hypertension

	With hypertension (N=203)			Without hypertension (N= 127)		
	No hemorrhage (N= 131)	retinal or subretinal hemorrhage (N=72)	OR (95% CI) Model 1	No hemorrhage (N=100)	retinal or subretinal hemorrhage (N=27)	OR (95% CI) Model 2
Use of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drug						
No	52	38	1	80	25	1
Yes	79	34	0.57 (0.32-1.02)	20	2	0.42 (0.09-1.98)
Use of antiplatelet drugs						
No	67	51	1	83	26	1
Yes	64	21	0.41 (0.22-0.76)	17	1	0.26 (0.03-2.11)
Use of anticoagulant drugs						
No	113	57	1	97	26	1
Yes	18	15	1.75 (0.81-3.76)	3	1	1.18 (0.12-12.24)

Model 1: Adjusted for age, sex, study center

Model 2: Model 1 including smoking, history of cardiovascular disease, diabetes, choroidal neovascularization fellow eye

Abbreviations: CI = confidence interval, NA = not able, OR = Odds' ratio



Chapter 5.1

Genetics and gene-environment interactions in age-related macular degeneration

Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk*, Henriët Springelkamp*, Lintje Ho, Caroline C.W. Klaver

* These authors contributed equally

Adapted from chapter in: *Scholl HP, Masof RW, West S (Eds). Ophthalmology and the aging society*, (pp57-68). Berlin Heidelberg. Springer.

SUMMARY

The genetics of age-related macular degeneration (AMD) has been an exciting research area during the last decade. The advances in molecular genetic techniques paved the way for great progress in the discovery of genes and led to identification of many disease-associated risk variants. Several genes have been associated with AMD and the two major AMD genes are *CFH* and *ARMS2-HTRA1*. Other genes associated with AMD are complement (*CFB/C2*, *C3*, *CFI*), lipid (*APOE*, *LIPC*, *CETP*, suggested genes *LPL* and *ABCA1*), and collagen genes (*COL8A1* and *COL10A*), implicating a role for these in the pathogenesis of AMD.

Interactions of AMD genes with life style factors such as smoking and anti-oxidant intake have been reported and are of interest to manage AMD risk.

GENETIC FACTORS

Although familial occurrence had been known for many years, major advances in the identification of genetic factors for AMD were achieved after the start of Genome Wide Association Studies (GWAS). We will discuss the currently known AMD-associated genes and their importance to the disease. A summary of the genes can be found in Table 1.

The Complement Pathway Genes

Complement Factor H (CFH)

CFH is one of the two major AMD genes. The CFH protein is a key regulator of the complement pathway – it inhibits the activation of complement component C3 to C3b and degrades C3b, thereby limiting the amplification phase of the alternative complement cascade.¹ CFH is present in serum, not membrane-bound, expressed in the retinal pigment epithelium and can be found in drusen.^{2,3}

First reports on an association between *CFH* and AMD stem from 2005,^{4,5,6} and since then this finding has been replicated by numerous studies in different populations.^{7–38} The well-known risk allele Y402H is common in Caucasians and Africans (~36%), but much less so in Asians (~7–15%) and Hispanics (~17%).³⁹ Functionally, this and other risk alleles have been shown to alter CFH binding, thereby impairing the regulatory function of CFH, increasing complement activation, and subsequently causing an inflammatory response and cell death.^{3–6,13,40–42}

CFH is located in a large region of linkage disequilibrium. Apart from Y402H, many other variants have been shown to be associated with increased risk of AMD. A non-coding variant (rs1410996) was found to have an even stronger association than Y402H.^{43–44} In particular in Asian populations, the Y402H variant was not significantly associated with AMD, whereas other variants including rs1410996 were.^{24,35} The genes in the vicinity of *CFH*, such as *CFHR1–5*, have gene functions similar to *CFH*, and have also been associated with AMD. A haplotype carrying a deletion of *CFHR1* and *CFHR3* (del*CFHR1/3*) was reported to have a protective effect, and occurred in 20% of controls and 8% of cases.^{45–46} The proteins encoded by these genes are absent in serum of persons who are homozygous for del*CFHR1/3*.⁴⁵ *CFHR1* and *CFHR3* contain a C3-binding site and deletion of these genes may reduce competition for the binding of CFH to C3b, enhancing inhibitory activity by CFH. Del*CFHR1/3* was more frequent in African Americans (16%), and less common in Hispanics (6.8%) and European Americans (4.7%).⁴⁷

Complement Factor B (CFB)/Complement Component 2 (C2)

Complement factor B (CFB) and complement component 2 (C2) are activators of the alternative and classical pathways, respectively. Four variants in the *CFB* and *C2* gene located on chromosome 6p21 have been shown to have a strong protective effect: *CFB* R32Q, which is in nearly complete linkage disequilibrium with *C2* IVS10, and *CFB* L9H, which is in nearly complete linkage disequilibrium with *C2* E318D.^{44,48–54}

Genetic and functional data suggest that *CFB* variants rather than *C2* variants are likely to have caused the observed protection. Only the *CFB* R32Q variant results in inferior C3b binding affinity, leading to a lower potential to amplify complement activation.^{55–56} Moreover, the majority of proteins of the alternative pathway (e.g., CFH, CFB) are present in drusen, whereas proteins from the classical pathway (e.g., C2) are not.^{57–58} Good epidemiologic analysis with adjustment for confounders showed that the association with *C2* R32Q was robust (OR, 0.21; 95% CI, 0.11–0.39), while the association

with C2 E318D became insignificant (OR, 0.60; 95% CI, 0.25–1.47).⁴⁹ These data suggest that the C2 variants show residual association with AMD originating from their high linkage disequilibrium with *CFB*.

Complement Component 3 (C3)

Complement component C3 is the convergence point of all complement pathways (classical, lectin, and alternative). Activation of C3 is crucial for the formation of membrane attack complexes that leads to cell lysis.⁵⁹ The C3 gene is located on chromosome 19p13.3–13.2. The amino acid changes caused by the C3 variants R102G and P314L may alter the binding capacity of C3 to pathogenic cell surfaces or other complement proteins.^{59–61} A causal relation with AMD is plausible, since C3 mRNA is present in neural retina, choroids, and retinal pigment epithelium⁵⁷; its cleavage product C3a is present in drusen,^{1,62} and C3a can induce vascular endothelial growth factor expression and promote choroidal neovascularization.⁶³

The two functional variants, R102G (rs2230199) and P314L (rs1047286), are in high linkage disequilibrium. They have both been identified as genetic risk factors for AMD.^{64–72} R102G has also been implicated in the progression from the earlier stages of AMD to late AMD.⁵¹ The two initial investigations as well as later studies concluded that R102G is more significant in AMD causality than P314L.^{64–65,67–69,72–73}

An allele-dose effect for R102G was observed in the various Caucasian studies with an increased risk of 1.4–1.7 for heterozygotes and 1.8–3.3 for homozygotes. The Rotterdam Study found associations of the C3 variants with early as well as late AMD, and reported that the risk increase was most prominent for the mixed type of AMD (both geographic atrophy and neovascular AMD present).⁶⁸ The effect of the C3 alleles is independent from *CFH* Y402H and *ARMS2* A69S.^{68–69}

Complement Factor I (CFI)

The CFI protein is regulated by *CFH* and functions as a cofactor for the cleavage and inactivation of C3b. Recently, several variants near the *CFI* gene have been associated with risk of AMD in Caucasian as well as Asian populations^{74–79} In a Japanese study, rs10033900 had a protective effect with OR 0.28 (95% CI, 0.11–0.69) for homozygous carriers of the minor allele. No association was found for heterozygous carriers (OR, 0.99; 95% CI, 0.61–1.62). A recent genome-wide association study found that the major allele of rs2285714 was associated with an increased risk of 1.31 (95% CI, 1.18–1.45). Ennis et al. reported significantly ($P < 0.05$) protective effects for rs11728699, rs6854876, rs7439493, and rs13117504 with ORs ranging from 0.68 to 0.74 ($P < 0.05$), and these SNPs also tagged significant protective (GCAG, OR 0.69) and causative (TGGC, OR 1.34) haplotypes.^{75–77}

The ARMS2-HTRA1 (10q26) Locus

Linkage studies had already identified a susceptibility locus at chromosome 10q26. GWA studies conformed this locus as the second major contributor to the pathogenesis of AMD.^{7,81–98} As this region contains many genes in high linkage disequilibrium (*Pleckstrin Homology Domain-containing Protein family A member 1 (PLEKHA1)*, *LOC387715 (or Age-related maculopathy susceptibility gene 2, ARMS2)* and *high temperature requirement factor A1 (HTRA1)* gene), controversy exists about which gene is the AMD susceptibility gene.

In the *ARMS2* gene, rs10490924 has repeatedly been reported to increase risk of AMD up to 15 times.^{7,85–86,89–92,94,98–97} This functional SNP causes an A69S change, and has been described as the causal SNP that by itself could explain the bulk of the association between the 10q26 region and

AMD.⁹¹ The precise function of *ARMS2* in AMD remains to be elucidated. Disorganized mitochondrial membranes, as well as decreased number of mitochondria in retinal pigment epithelium cells of AMD donors have provided evidence of mitochondrial dysfunction in AMD.⁹⁹⁻¹⁰⁰ This suggests that *ARMS2* may jeopardize mitochondrial function, and consequently lead to the formation of reactive oxygen species, apoptosis, and AMD.^{94,99-103} Moreover, immunohistochemical studies located the *ARMS2* protein to the mitochondrial outer membrane, in particular of rods and cones.^{91,94} However, its presence has also been reported in the cellular cytosol¹⁰⁴ and the extracellular matrix.¹⁰⁵

Meta-analyses of the *HTRA1* gene reported an increased risk of AMD for homozygous (OR, 9.26; 95% CI, 7.27–11.91) as well as heterozygous (OR, 2.33; 95% CI, 2.01–2.71) carriers of the rs11200638 risk allele.¹⁰⁶ Stratified analyses revealed that rs11200638 was significantly associated with CNV but not with GA, and that the causative effect was stronger in Caucasians than in Asians.¹⁰⁷⁻¹⁰⁸ Also for this gene, various lines of evidence support involvement in AMD. The rs11200638 risk allele has been associated with higher levels of *HTRA1* mRNA and protein in some studies,^{87,98,109-110} although two other studies with larger datasets could not validate this finding in heterologous expression systems.^{91,111} Furthermore, *HTRA1* may inhibit signaling of TGF- β proteins, which have been reported to act as negative growth regulators in the retina and RPE.¹¹²⁻¹¹⁴ In addition, *HTRA1* may stimulate the degradation of extracellular matrix through enhanced expression of matrix metalloproteases. Consequently, overexpression of *HTRA1* may affect the integrity of Bruch's membrane and RPE contributing to AMD development. Recently, Richardson et al. found rs3793917 (located between *ARMS2* and *HTRA1*) to be most associated with AMD (OR, 3.45; 95% CI, 2.36–5.05), and indicated that the intergenic region between this SNP and *HTRA1* rs11200638 was most likely to confer AMD risk.⁹⁶ However, they could not distinguish rs3793917 from rs11200638 and rs10490924 to explain causality since they were all in high linkage disequilibrium.

Common haplotypes encompassing both the *ARMS2* and the *HTRA1* genes have also been linked to AMD. Gibbs et al. described a common haplotype TAT tagged by rs10490924, rs11200638, and rs2293870 that significantly predisposed to AMD ($P = 2.70 \times 10^{-9}$), and a haplotype GGG that was significantly protective against AMD ($P = 0.003$).⁹⁵ Yang et al. also found a haplotype T-G-Wt-G tagged by rs2736911, rs10490924, in/del/Wt, and rs11200638, which was protective in Caucasian as well as Chinese populations ($P < 0.007$).⁹⁸ They also observed that the in/del or the rs11200638 risk allele by itself was insufficient to alter *HTRA1* expression, and found that a common disease haplotype including both the in/del and rs11200638 leads to upregulation of *HTRA1*. Hence, they proposed a binary model where downregulation of *ARMS2* and concomitant upregulation of *HTRA1* best explained the risk associated with the 10q26 locus. Further functional analyses in larger datasets are warranted to conclude what the key genetic contributors in the 10q26 locus are.

The Lipid-Related Genes

Apolipoprotein E (APOE)

Apolipoprotein E is a key regulator of lipid and cholesterol transport in the central nervous system,¹¹⁵ and has been linked to various neurodegenerative and cardiovascular diseases (e.g., Alzheimer's disease and stroke).¹¹⁶⁻¹¹⁸ In the eye, APOE is expressed in photoreceptor cells, retinal ganglion cells, Müller cells, retinal pigment epithelium, Bruch's membrane, choroid, and in the disease-associated lesions: drusen and basal laminar deposits.^{57,58,119-123} There are three common allelic variants of the *APOE* gene: $\epsilon 2$, $\epsilon 3$, and $\epsilon 4$, with $\epsilon 3$ being the most prevalent.¹²⁴⁻¹²⁵ The majority of studies support a protective effect of the *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ allele against AMD,^{119,126-138} though in some reports, this inverse association failed to reach statistical significance.^{127,131,133,137-138} Stratification of late AMD into GA and

CNV showed that the greatest protective effect for the $\epsilon 3\epsilon 4$ genotype was in individuals with GA (OR 0.35, 95% CI 0.13–0.92).¹³² The *APOE* $\epsilon 2$ allele has mainly been associated with a non-significant but increased risk of AMD.^{119,126,129-132,134,137}

Several studies reported that $\epsilon 4$ carriers have significantly lower CRP levels than noncarriers, especially compared to $\epsilon 2$ carriers. CRP level reportedly decreases in a dose-dependent order of $\epsilon 2/\epsilon 2$, $\epsilon 2/\epsilon 3$, $\epsilon 3/\epsilon 3$, $\epsilon 2/\epsilon 4$, $\epsilon 3/\epsilon 4$, and $\epsilon 4/\epsilon 4$.¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴⁵ In addition, *APOE* $\epsilon 2$ appears to enhance expression by RPE cells of the vascular endothelial growth factor and fibroblast growth factor,¹⁴⁶ whereas their expression is reportedly suppressed by *APOE* $\epsilon 4$.^{136,147} This indicates that *APOE* $\epsilon 2$ induces neovascularization by altering angiogenic cytokines, whereas *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ limits this process. And in contrast to $\epsilon 2$, *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ has positive charges which diminish hydrophobicity of Bruch's membrane, and results in better clearance of debris. Moreover, $\epsilon 4$ carriers reportedly have 36% lower risk of hypertension than noncarriers.¹⁴⁸ Another interesting finding is that *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ levels seem to decrease with advancing age,¹⁴⁵ which may reduce transport of lipids and cell debris, culminating in a higher rate of AMD in older age. *APOE* also plays an important role in the maintenance of retinal membrane cell: Lipids are released from the degenerating cell membrane and astrocytes react by synthesizing *APOE* to bind the free cholesterol and lipids and to distribute them for reuse in cell membrane biosynthesis.¹⁴⁹⁻¹⁵¹ Based on the cumulative empirical evidence and pooled data outlined above, it can be proposed that the *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ offers a reduced risk for onset, severity, and progression rate of AMD, in contrast to *APOE* $\epsilon 2$.

Hepatic Lipase (LIPC)

Two parallel published genome-wide association studies (GWAS) reported causative variants for the *LIPC* gene.^{76,152} *LIPC* has been associated with high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-c) levels in blood¹⁵³⁻¹⁵⁴ and is involved in mediating the uptake of HDL-c at the cell surface.¹⁵⁵ *LIPC* is expressed in the retina and modification of HDL-related efficiency could influence the risk of AMD, because HDL is an important transporter of lutein/zeaxanthin.^{152,156-157} The common allele of rs493258 near the *LIPC* gene on chromosome 15q22 (OR, 1.14; 95% CI, 1.09-1.20; frequency in controls ~0.56; $P = 1.3 \times 10^{-7}$) increased the risk of AMD, whereas the minor allele of rs10468017, a functional promoter variant, (OR, 0.82; 95% CI, 0.77-0.88; frequency in controls ~0.30; $P = 1.34 \times 10^{-8}$) had a protective effect. However, confirmation of the protective variant was achieved after targeted examination of the suggestive markers of the GWAS performed by Neale et al.¹⁵²

Cholesterylester Transfer Protein (CETP)

The rare allele of rs3764261 at the *CETP* gene on chromosome 16q21 (OR, 1.19; 95% CI, 1.12-1.27; frequency in controls ~0.32; $P = 7.4 \times 10^{-7}$) is associated with an increased risk of AMD⁷⁶ and has recently been replicated by Yu et al.¹⁵⁸ *CETP* plays an important role in the production and degradation of HDL-c and is expressed in the retina.^{152,156}

Lipoprotein Lipase (LPL)

Chen et al. (2010) reported also the variant rs12678919 at *LPL* on chromosome 8p22 (OR, 1.38; 95% CI, 1.11-1.43; $P = 3 \times 10^{-3}$). This variant was not significant but consistent with the hypothesis that HDL metabolism is associated with AMD pathogenesis; *LPL* plays, like *CETP*, an important role in the production and degradation of HDL-c.^{152,156} Recently, an association, although not significant, between *LPL* rs12678919 and late AMD was suggested by Peter et al. (OR, 0.5, 95% CI, 0.2–1.2, $P = 0.10$) for carriers of 1 or 2 G alleles compared to non-carriers.⁷⁹ The G allele increases serum HDL levels ($P < 10^{-10}$, 2.44 mg/dl increase per G allele), confirming the role of *LPL* in the HDL metabolism.¹⁵³

ATP-Binding Cassette Subfamily A Member 1 (ABCA1)

ABCA1 is involved in mediating the uptake of HDL-c at the cell surface and have been shown to be expressed in the retina.^{152,155-156} The variant rs1883025 near *ABCA1* on chromosome 9q22 (OR, 1.15; 95% CI, 1.07-1.23; $P = 5.6 \times 10^{-4}$) has been suggested by Chen et al. to be associated with AMD.⁷⁶ Several other studies confirmed this suggestion and showed a significantly higher risk allele frequency in AMD patients compared with control individuals ($P = 0.00027$).^{152,158-160}

With increasing age, lipids and cholesterol accumulate underneath the RPE and are constituents of drusen.^{57,161} The HDL-c associated variants might affect the formation of drusen and subsequently the development of AMD. The 'non risk' TT-genotype of *ABCA1* rs1883025 had a significant protective effect for intermediate and large drusen; (OR, 0.48; 95% CI; 0.27-0.85), (OR, 0.41; 95% CI, 0.23-0.74), respectively.¹⁶⁰

Collagen related genes***Alpha chain of type VIII collagen (COL8A1)***

The *COL8A1* gene on chromosome 3 encodes for one of the alpha chains of type VIII collagen, a major component of the multiple basement membranes in the eye, including Bruch's membrane and the choroidal stroma.¹⁵² The intronic variant rs13095226 was associated with a slight increased risk of AMD (OR, 1.24; 95% CI, 1.13-1.35; $P = 2.50 \times 10^{-6}$).¹⁶²

Alpha chain of type X collagen (COL10A1)

Recently, a genome-wide association study (GWAS) has published a novel loci, rs1999930 near the *COL10A1* gene (OR, 0.87; 95% CI, 0.83-0.91; $P = 1.1 \times 10^{-10}$).¹⁵⁸ *COL10A1* is a short-chain collagen expressed by hypertrophic chondrocytes during endochondral ossification. Although no relation of *COL10A1* with the retina has been found, the previous finding of the collagen gene *COL8A1*, implicates a role for collagen in a causal pathway for AMD.

Other genes***Tissue Inhibitor of Metalloproteinases-3 (TIMP3)***

Candidate gene analyses initially found no evidence of linkage or association between AMD and *TIMP3* on chromosome 22q12.1-13.2.^{163,164} Recently, a genome-wide association study (GWAS) found the region near *TIMP3* to be a susceptibility locus,⁷⁶ which was previously reported by one linkage study.¹⁶⁵ *TIMP3* is a metalloproteinase involved in degradation of the extracellular matrix in the retina,¹⁶⁶ and is mutated in Sorby's fundus dystrophy.¹⁶⁷ The common variant rs9621532, nearby *TIMP3* was associated with increased risk of AMD (OR, 1.41; 95% CI, 1.27-1.57; frequency in controls ~0.95; $P = 1.1 \times 10^{-11}$).⁷⁶

Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor A (VEGFA)

VEGFA is a member of the VEGF family and functions to increase vascular permeability, angiogenesis, cell growth and migration of endothelial cells. VEGFA is also a target in the treatment of CNV with anti-VEGF therapy. Haines et al found a strong association for the variant rs2010963 with linkage-analysis (LOD score = 1.32, $P = 0.0001$) in early and late AMD, but a moderate result in a later case-control setting ($P = 0.02$).¹⁶⁸ Recently a new variant near the *VEGFA* gene was published.¹⁵⁸ The variant rs4711751 on 6p12 near *VEGFA* (OR, 1.15; 95% CI, 1.10-1.21; $P = 8.7 \times 10^{-9}$) was not in LD with the earlier found variant, indicating a novel region associated with AMD. Unfortunately the variant found by Haines et al could not be replicated.

TABLE 1 - Overview of genes associated with AMD

Gene	Chrom1	Variant	Effect allele	EAF	OR (95%CI) het*	OR (95% CI) hom**	Function	References, meta-analyses
CFH	1	rs10661170 (Y402H)	C	0.349	2.50 (1.96-3.30)	6.32 (4.25-9.48)	Key regulator of the alternative complement pathway and inhibits C3 activation	Thakkinstan et al. 2006
C3	19	rs22330199 (R102G)	G	0.193	1.44(1.33-1.56)	1.88 (1.59-2.23)	Activation of C3 is crucial for the formation of membrane attack complexes that leads to cell lysis	Thakkinstan et al. 2011
CFI	4	rs1047286 (P314L) rs10033900	A C	0.196 Controls: 0.39	1.27(1.15-1.41) 0.99 (0.61-1.62)	1.70 (1.27-2.11) 0.28 (0.11-0.69)	CFI is regulated by CFH and functions as a cofactor for the cleavage and inactivation of C3b	Kondo et al. 2010
ARMS2	10	rs10490429 (A69S)	T	Controls: 0.25	2.35 (2.07-2.67)	7.51 (5.71-9.66)	ARMS2 may be involved in mitochondrial function in the retinal pigment epithelium cells	Tang et al. 2009
HTRA1	10	rs11200638	A	Controls: 0.32	2.33 (2.01-2.71)	9.26 (7.27-11.91)	HTRA1 may inhibit signalling of TGF- β proteins	
C2/CB	6	rs641153 (R32Q)	A	Controls: 0.10	0.29 (0.17-0.48)		C2 and CB are activators of the alternative and classical pathway	Spencer et al. 2007
APOE	19	$\epsilon 4$	-	Controls: ~0.16	0.54 (0.41-0.70)		APOE is a key regulator of lipid and cholesterol transport in the central nervous system	Schmidt et al. 2002
TIMP3	22	rs9621532	A	Controls: 0.95	1.41 (1.27-1.57)		TIMP3 is involved in degradation of the extracellular matrix in the retina	Chen et al. 2010
LIPC	15	rs493258	C	Controls: 0.56	1.14 (1.09-1.20)		LIPC is involved in mediating the uptake of HDL-c at the cell surface	Chen et al. 2010
CETP	16	rs3764261	A	Controls: 0.32	1.19 (1.12-1.27)		CETP plays an important role in the production and degradation of HDL-c	Neale et al. 2010 Chen et al. 2010
COL8A1	3	rs13095226	C	0.12	1.24 (1.13-1.35)		Collagene type VIII is a major component of Bruch's membrane and the choroidal stroma	Neal et al. 2010
COL10A1	6	rs1999930	T	Controls: 0.30	0.87 (0.83-0.91)		Collagene type X is expressed by hypertrophic chondrocytes	Yu et al. 2011b
VEGFA	6	rs4711751	T	Controls: 0.30	1.15 (1.10-1.21)		VEGFA increases vascular permeability, angiogenesis, cell growth and migration of endothelial cells	Yu et al. 2011b

Abbreviations: Chrom = chromosome, EAF = Effect allele frequency, OR = Odds' Ratio

* OR het = Odds' Ratio for heterozygotes, carriers of one risk allele

** OR hom = Odds' Ratio for homozygotes, carriers of two risk alleles

Tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily 10 a (TNRSF10A)

TNRSF10A encodes for TRAILR1, a TRAIL receptor, which is broadly expressed in human adult RPE.¹⁶⁶ Arakawa et al reported a variant, rs13278062 near *TNRSF10A* on chromosome 8p21 (OR, 0.73; 95% 0.67-0.80; $P = 1.03 \times 10^{-12}$) to be associated with exudative AMD in a Japanese population.¹⁶⁹

GENE-GENE AND GENE-ENVIRONMENT INTERACTIONS**CFH Y402H**

The Rotterdam Study (RS) reported interaction between *CFH* Y402H and smoking, C-reactive protein level, and erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR),¹³ meaning that the joint effect of each determinant with Y402H was significantly greater than the sum of the independent effects. Compared to persons with the homozygous non-risk (TT) genotype and normal ESR levels, persons with the homozygous risk (CC) genotype and elevated ESR levels had a risk of 20.2 (95% CI, 9.5–43.0) for late AMD. Higher serum CRP levels in persons with the CC-genotype augmented AMD risk to 27.7 (95% CI, 10.7–72.0) compared to persons with the lowest CRP levels and the TT-genotype.

Current smokers with the CC-genotype had an OR of 34.0 (95% CI, 13.0–88.6) for late AMD relative to individuals with the TT-genotype who never smoked. Other studies also observed stronger effects of *CFH* Y402H among smokers.^{18,20,22,170-172} DeAngelis et al. (2007) further specified that smoking ten pack-years or more and having the CC-genotype was estimated to increase risk of CNV 144-fold compared with smoking less than ten pack-years and having the CT- or TT-genotype.²²

AREDS reported a significant interaction between *CFH* Y402H and BMI.¹⁸ Higher BMI (≥ 25) did not increase the risk of AMD for persons with the TT-genotype (OR 0.7; 95% CI 0.4–1.2), whereas it did increase risk for those with the CT- (OR 2.2; 95% CI 1.3–4.0) and CC-genotype (OR 5.9; 95% CI 3.1–11.4).

Gold et al. reported that the protection conferred by *C2* and/or *CFB* was strongest in persons with the *CFH* CC-genotype (OR = 0.27), intermediate in persons with the CT-genotype (OR = 0.36), and weakest in persons with the TT-genotype (OR = 0.44).⁴⁸ However, the confidence intervals of all these estimates overlapped.

Two studies have examined interaction between genetic variants and antioxidants in the development of late AMD.^{173,174} AREDS calculated the risk of progression to late AMD for the *CFH* Y402H and *ARMS2* A69S genotypes in various antioxidant treatment arms.¹⁷³ A high zinc dosage was most protective against AMD in persons with the homozygous non-risk *CFH* genotype, but produced the greatest, albeit non-significant, protection in persons carrying the risk variant of *ARMS2*. The Blue Mountains Eye Study (BMES) found that high fish intake resulted in greater protection against late AMD in homozygous carriers of Y402H than in non-carriers.¹⁷⁴ In addition, the RS showed that higher dietary intake of zinc, ω -3 fatty acids, β -carotene, and lutein/zeaxanthin can attenuate the incidence of early AMD in those carrying these genetic risk variants (Figure 1).¹⁷⁵

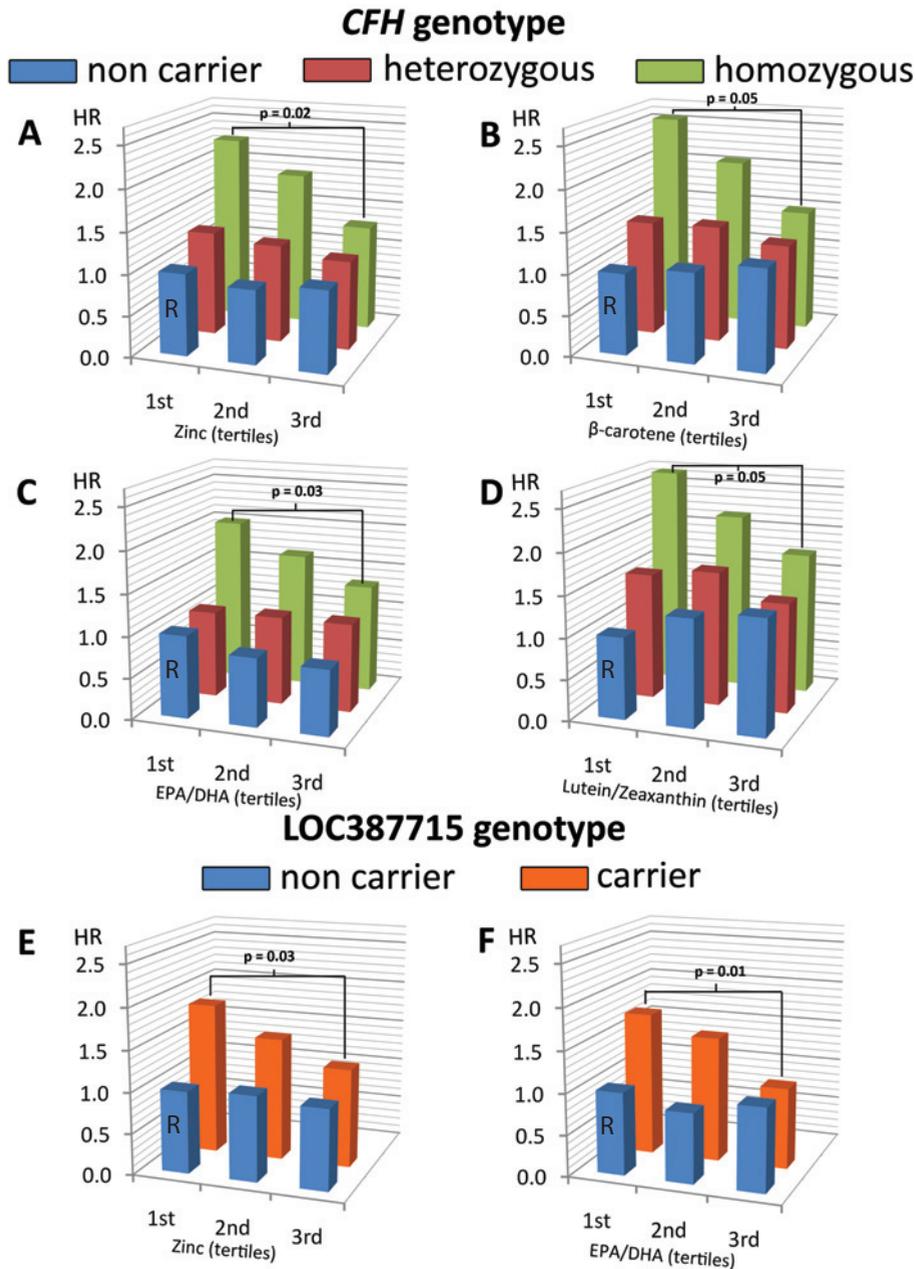


FIGURE 1 - Risks for AMD stratified for genotype and nutrient intake

A - D. Joint effect of dietary nutrient intake and *CFH* Y402H genotype on the risk of Early AMD.

E - F. Joint effect of dietary nutrient intake and *LOC387715* (*ARMS2*) A69S genotype on the risk of Early AMD.

R is the common reference group.

HRs are estimates of the relative risk of Early AMD, and represent the risk of disease (Early AMD vs No AMD) in the various genetic-environmental risk groups divided by the risk of disease (Early AMD vs No AMD) in the common reference group (noncarriers - 1st tertile of nutrient intake). HRs are estimated with Cox regression analyses and included age, sex, smoking status, and atherosclerosis.

ARMS2-HTRA1

Although not all studies reported statistical interaction, the majority supported a strong combined effect of smoking and *ARMS2* A69S in AMD susceptibility.^{84,170,176-182} Interaction analyses by Schmidt et al. between number of pack-years of smoking and A69S genotypes revealed that in affected persons, the frequency of the homozygous risk (TT) genotype linearly increased with increasing pack-years irrespective of age and gender, with a corresponding decrease in the homozygous non-risk (GG) genotype frequencies ($P < 0.05$).¹⁸¹ When comparing current smokers to never smokers, risks for heterozygotes (GT) increased 3- to 6-fold, while for the homozygotes (GG), risk increased 10- to 27-fold.^{170,176}

Combined effects on the likelihood of early or late AMD were demonstrated by the BMES for the A69S GT- and TT-genotypes with the marker's high-sensitivity CRP (ORs, 1.2 for the highest tertile alone, 1.6 for GT- and TT-genotypes alone, and 2.2 for both GT and TT-genotypes plus the highest tertile, compared with the GG-genotype with the two lower tertiles), IL-6 (corresponding ORs, 1.1, 1.6, and 2.2), sICAM-1 (ORs, 1.0, 1.5, and 2.3, respectively), and PAI-1 (ORs, 1.3, 1.7, and 2.3, respectively), but not with WCC, fibrinogen, homocysteine, and von Willebrand factor.¹⁷⁹

Interaction with anti-oxidants and *ARMS2* was studied within the same settings as *CFH*, and resulted in similar effects (Figure 1).

Risk of AMD due to the Combined Effect of *CFH* and *ARMS2/HTRA1* SNPs

Several studies have investigated the combined effect of *CFH* Y402H and *ARMS2* A69S/*HTRA1* rs11200638.^{7,38,87,170,178,183-185,188} Persons with homozygous risk genotypes at both loci (*CFH* CC –*ARMS2* TT) compared to the non-risk genotype (TTGG) had ORs ranging from 27 in a Finnish case-control study¹⁷⁸ to 228 in the Caucasian clinic-based AREDS.¹⁷⁶ For persons with the homozygous risk genotype for both *CFH* Y402H and *HTRA1* rs11200638, the combined ORs ranged from 8 in a Japanese case-control study¹⁸⁴ to 193 in AREDS relative to persons with no risk alleles at either locus.¹⁸⁴ In addition to the combined risk conferred by *CFH* Y402H and *ARMS2* A69S, Schmidt et al. also observed an extra risk of AMD caused by smoking.¹⁸¹ Compared to the nonsmoker/TT(Y402H)/GG(A69S) combination, the OR for individuals with the CC-genotype at Y402H and the TT-genotype at *ARMS2* increased from 10.2 for nonsmokers to 34.5 for smokers. Seitsonen et al. also found that smoking caused an extra risk for AMD, but only in connection with sex and C3 genotype.¹⁷⁸ The univariate ORs for carrying at least one risk allele of *CFH* Y402H was 5.45 (95% CI, 2.18–16.83), of *ARMS2* A69S was 4.89 (95% CI, 1.73–16.43), of C3 R102G was 2.12 (95% CI, 0.52–8.70), and for smoking was 3.22 (95% CI 1.81–6.09), while the joint OR for the three loci and smoking was 74.3 (95% CI, 10.81–2123.6).

APOE gene

Debate remains regarding the gender-specific role of the *APOE* alleles in the development or progression of AMD. Schmidt et al. found significant interaction between $\epsilon 2$ -carrier status and sex.¹³⁰ The $\epsilon 2$ -allele conferred a risk of 0.74 (95% CI, 0.52–1.06) in women, and of 1.54 (95% CI, 0.97–2.45) in men. Hence, the authors suggested that an increased risk of AMD due to the $\epsilon 2$ -allele may only be conferred to men. Conversely, Baird et al. found that $\epsilon 2$ -carriers had a significant 4.8-fold (95% CI, 1.19–19.09) increased risk of AMD progression compared to $\epsilon 4$ -carriers and a nearly significant 2.8-fold (95% CI, 0.96–19.09) increased risk compared to $\epsilon 3$ -carriers.¹³² Since this finding was only present in women, the authors suggested that there may be a gender-specific role in progression of AMD in persons with an $\epsilon 2$ -allele. Fritsche et al. could not corroborate any gender-specific role of the *APOE*-alleles.¹⁸⁶

Schmidt et al. suggested a modifying effect of *APOE* genotypes on the smoking-associated risk of AMD, particularly for CNV.^{128,187} The effect of smoking was most deleterious for *APOE* $\epsilon 2$ carriers, compared to *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ carriers and persons with the *APOE* $\epsilon 3/\epsilon 3$ genotype. The increase in CNV risk due to smoking was greatest in *APOE* $\epsilon 2$ carriers, with genotypespecific risks increasing from 1.9 for *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ carriers ($P = 0.11$) to 2.2 for *APOE* $\epsilon 3/\epsilon 3$ homozygotes ($P = 0.007$) to 4.6 ($P = 0.001$) for *APOE* $\epsilon 2$ carriers, compared to non-smoking *APOE* $\epsilon 3/\epsilon 3$ persons. In other studies, the sample sizes of each subgroup were too small to determine statistical significance.^{134,139}

CONCLUSION

Since the first assumption of a familial component to AMD, 15 genes associated with the disease have been identified. These genes have shed light on the pathogenesis of AMD, and have increased our knowledge on the causes of AMD enormously.

Most of the genetic risk is explained by only two genes, *CFH* and *ARMS2/HTRA1*. The risk variants in these genes occur at a much higher frequency in the general population than the actual disease does, provoking the view that life style factors ultimately determine whether these genes will have a deleterious effect. Interaction with life style factors such as smoking and BMI has been difficult to prove, but the first reports on the complexity of gene-environment modulations have appeared.

Future genetic research will make use of the new molecular methodology such as exome and whole genome sequencing. This will undoubtedly lead to finding more risk variants, and more information on causal pathways for AMD. Large genetic epidemiologic collaborations will be able to address the interaction with environmental factors better than single studies can, and they will also help elucidate AMD pathogenesis. It is expected that these developments will open up new avenues for long-lasting and successful treatments for AMD.

REFERENCES

1. Rodriguez de Cordoba S, Esparza-Gordillo J, Goicoechea de Jorge E et al. (2004) The human complement factor H: functional roles, genetic variations and disease associations. *Mol Immunol* 41:355–367
2. Johnson LV, Leitner WP, Staples MK et al (2001) Complement activation and inflammatory processes in drusen formation and age related macular degeneration. *Exp Eye Res* 73:887–896
3. Hageman GS, Anderson DH, Johnson LV et al (2005) A common haplotype in the complement regulatory gene factor H (HF1/CFH) predisposes individuals to age-related macular degeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 102:7227–7232
4. Klein RJ, Zeiss C, Chew EY et al (2005) Complement factor H polymorphism in age-related macular degeneration. *Science* 308:385–389
5. Haines JL, Hauser MA, Schmidt S et al (2005) Complement factor H variant increases the risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Science* 308:419–421
6. Edwards AO, Ritter R III, Abel KJ et al (2005) Complement factor H polymorphism and age-related macular degeneration. *Science* 308:421–424
7. Rivera A, Fisher SA, Fritsche LG et al (2005) Hypothetical LOC387715 is a second major susceptibility gene for age-related macular degeneration, contributing independently of complement factor H to disease risk. *Hum Mol Genet* 14:3227–3236
8. Souied EH, Leveziel N, Richard F et al (2005) Y402H complement factor H polymorphism associated with exudative age-related macular degeneration in the French population. *Mol Vis* 11:1135–1140
9. Zarepari S, Branham KE, Li M et al (2005) Strong association of the Y402H variant in complement factor H at 1q32 with susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration. *Am J Hum Genet* 77:149–153
10. Baird PN, Islam FM, Richardson AJ et al (2006) Analysis of the Y402H variant of the complement factor H gene in age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 47:4194–4198
11. Chen LJ, Liu DT, Tam PO et al (2006) Association of complement factor H polymorphisms with exudative age-related macular degeneration. *Mol Vis* 12:1536–1542
12. Conley YP, Jakobsdottir J, Mah T et al (2006) CFH, ELOVL4, PLEKHA1 and LOC387715 genes and susceptibility to age-related maculopathy: AREDS and CHS cohorts and meta-analyses. *Hum Mol Genet* 15:3206–3218
13. Despriet DD, Klaver CC, Wittteman JC et al (2006) Complement factor H polymorphism, complement activators, and risk of age-related macular degeneration. *JAMA* 296:301–309
14. Fuse N, Miyazawa A, Mengkegale M et al (2006) Polymorphisms in Complement Factor H and Hemicentin-1 genes in a Japanese population with dry-type age-related macular degeneration. *Am J Ophthalmol* 142:1074–1076
15. Lau LI, Chen SJ, Cheng CY et al (2006) Association of the Y402H polymorphism in complement factor H gene and neovascular age-related macular degeneration in Chinese patients. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 47:3242–3246
16. Magnusson KP, Duan S, Sigurdsson H et al (2006) CFH Y402H confers similar risk of soft drusen and both forms of advanced AMD. *PLoS Med* 3:e5
17. Schaumberg DA, Christen WG, Kozlowski P et al (2006) A prospective assessment of the Y402H variant in complement factor H, genetic variants in C-reactive protein, and risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 47:2336–2340
18. Seddon JM, George S, Rosner B et al (2006) CFH gene variant, Y402H, and smoking, body mass index, environmental associations with advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Hered* 61:157–165
19. Seitsonen S, Lemmela S, Holopainen J et al (2006) Analysis of variants in the complement factor H, the elongation of very long chain fatty acids-like 4 and the hemicentin 1 genes of age-related macular degeneration in the Finnish population. *Mol Vis* 12:796–801
20. Sepp T, Khan JC, Thurlby DA et al (2006) Complement factor H variant Y402H is a major risk determinant for geographic atrophy and choroidal neovascularization in smokers and nonsmokers. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 47:536–540
21. Brantley MA Jr, Fang AM, King JM et al (2007) Association of complement factor H and LOC387715 genotypes with response of exudative age-related macular degeneration to intravitreal bevacizumab. *Ophthalmology* 114:2168–2173
22. DeAngelis MM, Ji F, Kim IK et al (2007) Cigarette smoking, CFH, APOE, ELOVL4, and risk of neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *Arch Ophthalmol* 125:49–54
23. Fisher SA, Rivera A, Fritsche LG et al (2007) Assessment of the contribution of CFH and chromosome 10q26 AMD susceptibility loci in a Russian population isolate. *Br J Ophthalmol* 91:576–578
24. Mori K, Gehlbach PL, Kabasawa S et al (2007) Coding and noncoding variants in the CFH gene and cigarette

- smoking influence the risk of age-related macular degeneration in a Japanese population. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 48:5315–5319
25. Pulido JS, Peterson LM, Mutapcic L et al (2007) LOC387715/HTRA1 and complement factor H variants in patients with age-related macular degeneration seen at the mayo clinic. *Ophthalmic Genet* 28:203–207
 26. Tedeschi-Blok N, Buckley J, Varma R et al (2007) Population-based study of early age-related macular degeneration: role of the complement factor H Y402H polymorphism in bilateral but not unilateral disease. *Ophthalmology* 114:99–103
 27. Wegscheider BJ, Weger M, Renner W et al (2007) Association of complement factor H Y402H gene polymorphism with different subtypes of exudative age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 114:738–742
 28. Chowers I, Cohen Y, Goldenberg-Cohen N et al (2008) Association of complement factor H Y402H polymorphism with phenotype of neovascular age related macular degeneration in Israel. *Mol Vis* 14:1829–1834
 29. Chu J, Zhou CC, Lu N et al (2008) Genetic variants in three genes and smoking show strong associations with susceptibility to exudative age-related macular degeneration in a Chinese population. *Chin Med J* 121:2525–2533
 30. Droz I, Mantel I, Ambresin A et al (2008) Genotype-phenotype correlation of age-related macular degeneration: influence of complement factor H polymorphism. *Br J Ophthalmol* 92:513–517
 31. Ng TK, Chen LJ, Liu DT et al (2008) Multiple gene polymorphisms in the complement factor H gene are associated with exudative age-related macular degeneration in Chinese. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 49:3312–3317
 32. Xu Y, Guan N, Xu J et al (2008) Association of CFH, LOC387715, and HTRA1 polymorphisms with exudative age-related macular degeneration in a northern Chinese population. *Mol Vis* 14:1373–1381
 33. Ziskind A, Barden S, van der Merwe L et al (2008) The frequency of the H402 allele of CFH and its involvement with age-related maculopathy in an aged Black African Xhosa population. *Ophthalmic Genet* 29:117–119
 34. Ricci F, Zampatti S, D'Abbruzzi F et al (2009) Typing of ARMS2 and CFH in age-related macular degeneration: case-control study and assessment of frequency in the Italian population. *Arch Ophthalmol* 127:1368–1372
 35. Cui L, Zhou H, Yu J et al (2010) Noncoding variant in the complement factor H gene and risk of exudative age-related macular degeneration in a Chinese population. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 51:1116–1120
 36. Gao Y, Li Y, Xu L et al (2010) Complement factor H polymorphism in age-related maculopathy in the Chinese population: the Beijing Eye Study. *Retina* 30:443–446
 37. Liu X, Zhao P, Tang S et al (2010) Association study of complement factor H, C2, CFB, and C3 and age-related macular degeneration in a Han Chinese population. *Retina* 30:1177–1184
 38. Losonczy G, Fekete A, Voko Z et al (2011) Analysis of complement factor H Y402H, LOC387715, HTRA1 polymorphisms and ApoE alleles with susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration in Hungarian patients. *Acta Ophthalmol* 89:255–262
 39. Nonyane BA, Nitsch D, Whittaker JC et al (2010) An ecological correlation study of late age-related macular degeneration and the complement factor H Y402H polymorphism. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 51:2393–2402
 40. Johnson PT, Betts KE, Radeke MJ et al (2006) Individuals homozygous for the age-related macular degeneration risk-conferring variant of complement factor H have elevated levels of CRP in the choroid. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 103:17456–17461
 41. Laine M, Jarva H, Seitsonen S et al (2007) Y402H polymorphism of complement factor H affects binding affinity to C-reactive protein. *J Immunol* 178:3831–3836
 42. Skerka C, Lauer N, Weinberger AA et al (2007) Defective complement control of factor H (Y402H) and FHL-1 in age-related macular degeneration. *Mol Immunol* 44:3398–3406
 43. Li M, Atmaca-Sonmez P, Othman M et al (2006) CFH haplotypes without the Y402H coding variant show strong association with susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 38:1049–1054
 44. Maller J, George S, Purcell S et al (2006) Common variation in three genes, including a noncoding variant in CFH, strongly influences risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 38:1055–1059
 45. Hughes AE, Orr N, Esfandiary H et al (2006) A common CFH haplotype, with deletion of CFHR1 and CFHR3, is associated with lower risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 38:1173–1177
 46. Spencer KL, Hauser MA, Olson LM et al (2008) Deletion of CFHR3 and CFHR1 genes in age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Mol Genet* 17:971–977
 47. Cann HM, de Toma C, Cazes L et al (2002) A human genome diversity cell line panel. *Science* 296:261–262
 48. Gold B, Merriam JE, Zernant J et al (2006) Variation in factor B (BF) and complement component 2 (C2) genes is associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 38:458–462
 49. Spencer KL, Hauser MA, Olson LM et al (2007) Protective effect of complement factor B and complement

- component 2 variants in age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Mol Genet* 16:1986–1992
50. Jakobsdottir J, Conley YP, Weeks DE et al (2008) C2 and CFB genes in age-related maculopathy and joint action with CFH and LOC387715 genes. *PLoS One* 3:e2199
 51. Francis PJ, Hamon SC, Ott J et al (2009) Polymorphisms in C2, CFB and C3 are associated with progression to advanced age related macular degeneration associated with visual loss. *J Med Genet* 46:300–307
 52. McKay GJ, Silvestri G, Patterson CC et al (2009) Further assessment of the complement component 2 and factor B region associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 50:533–539
 53. Richardson AJ, Islam FM, Guymer RH et al (2009) Analysis of rare variants in the complement component 2 (C2) and factor B (BF) genes refine association for age-related macular degeneration (AMD). *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 50:540–543
 54. Kaur I, Katta S, Reddy RK et al (2010) The involvement of complement factor B and complement component C2 in an Indian cohort with age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 51:59–63
 55. Lokki ML, Koskimies SA (1991) Allelic differences in hemolytic activity and protein concentration of BF molecules are found in association with particular HLA haplotypes. *Immunogenetics* 34:242–246
 56. Montes T, Tortajada A, Morgan BP et al (2009) Functional basis of protection against age-related macular degeneration conferred by a common polymorphism in complement factor B. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 106:4366–4371
 57. Mullins RF, Russell SR, Anderson DH et al (2000) Drusen associated with aging and age-related macular degeneration contain proteins common to extracellular deposits associated with atherosclerosis, elastosis, amyloidosis, and dense deposit disease. *FASEB J* 14:835–846
 58. Crabb JW, Miyagi M, Gu X et al (2002) Drusen proteome analysis: an approach to the etiology of age-related macular degeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 99:14682–14687
 59. Janssen BJ, Christodoulidou A, McCarthy A et al (2006) Structure of C3b reveals conformational changes that underlie complement activity. *Nature* 444:213–216
 60. Sahu A, Lambris JD (2001) Structure and biology of complement protein C3, a connecting link between innate and acquired immunity. *Immunol Rev* 180:35–48
 61. Nishida N, Walz T, Springer TA (2006) Structural transitions of complement component C3 and its activation products. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 103:19737–19742
 62. Hageman GS, Luthert PJ, Victor Chong NH et al (2001) An integrated hypothesis that considers drusen as biomarkers of immune-mediated processes at the RPE-Bruch's membrane interface in aging and age-related macular degeneration. *Prog Retin Eye Res* 20:705–732
 63. Nozaki M, Raisler BJ, Sakurai E et al (2006) Drusen complement components C3a and C5a promote choroidal neovascularization. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 103:2328–2333
 64. Maller JB, Fagerness JA, Reynolds RC et al (2007) Variation in complement factor 3 is associated with risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 39:1200–1201
 65. Yates JR, Sepp T, Matharu BK et al (2007) Complement C3 variant and the risk of age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med* 357:553–561
 66. Edwards AO, Fridley BL, James KM et al (2008) Evaluation of clustering and genotype distribution for replication in genome wide association studies: the age-related eye disease study. *PLoS One* 3:e3813
 67. Spencer KL, Olson LM, Anderson BM et al (2008) C3 R102G polymorphism increases risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Mol Genet* 17:1821–1824
 68. Despriet DD, van Duijn CM, Oostra BA et al (2009) Complement component C3 and risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 116:474–480 e2
 69. Park KH, Fridley BL, Ryu E et al (2009) Complement component 3 (C3) haplotypes and risk of advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 50:3386–3393
 70. Scholl HP, Fleckenstein M, Fritsche LG et al (2009) CFH, C3 and ARMS2 are significant risk loci for susceptibility but not for disease progression of geographic atrophy due to AMD. *PLoS One* 4:e7418
 71. McKay GJ, Dasari S, Patterson CC et al (2010) Complement component 3: an assessment of association with AMD and analysis of gene-gene and gene-environment interactions in a Northern Irish cohort. *Mol Vis* 16:194–199
 72. Thakkinstian A, McKay GJ, McEvoy M et al (2011) Systematic review and meta-analysis of the association between complement component 3 and age-related macular degeneration: A HuGe review and meta-analysis. *Am J Epidemiol* 173:1365–1379
 73. Bergeron-Sawitzke J, Gold B, Olsh A et al (2009) Multilocus analysis of age-related macular degeneration. *Eur J Hum Genet* 17:1190–1199
 74. Wang J, Ohno-Matsui K, Yoshida T et al (2008) Altered function of factor I caused by amyloid beta: implication for pathogenesis of age-related macular degeneration from Drusen. *J Immunol* 181:712–720

75. Fagerness JA, Maller JB, Neale BM et al (2009) Variation near complement factor I is associated with risk of advanced AMD. *Eur J Hum Genet* 17:100–104
76. Chen W, Stambolian D, Edwards AO et al (2010) Genetic variants near TIMP3 and high-density lipoprotein-associated loci influence susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration. *PNAS* 107: 7401–7406
77. Ennis S, Gibson J, Cree AJ et al (2010) Support for the involvement of complement factor I in age-related macular degeneration. *Eur J Hum Genet* 18:15–16
78. Kondo N, Bessho H, Honda S et al (2010) Additional evidence to support the role of a common variant near the complement factor I gene in susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration. *Eur J Hum Genet* 18:634–635
79. Peter I, Huggins GS, Ordovas JM et al. (2011) Evaluation of new and established age-related macular degeneration susceptibility genes in the women's health initiative sight exam (WHI-SE) study. *Am J Ophthalmol* 152:1005–1013
80. Majewski J, Schultz DW, Weleber RG et al (2003) Age-related macular degeneration – a genome scan in extended families. *Am J Hum Genet* 73:540–550
81. Seddon JM, Santangelo SL, Book K et al (2003) A genome-wide scan for age-related macular degeneration provides evidence for linkage to several chromosomal regions. *Am J Hum Genet* 73:780–790
82. Iyengar SK, Song D, Klein BE et al (2004) Dissection of genome-wide scan data in extended families reveals a major locus and oligogenic susceptibility for age-related macular degeneration. *Am J Hum Genet* 74:20–39
83. Kenealy SJ, Schmidt S, Agarwal A et al (2004) Linkage analysis for age-related macular degeneration supports a gene on chromosome 10q26. *Mol Vis* 10:57–61
84. Weeks DE, Conley YP, Tsai HJ et al (2004) Age-related maculopathy: a genome-wide scan with continued evidence of susceptibility loci within the 1q31, 10q26, and 17q25 regions. *Am J Hum Genet* 75:174–189
85. Fisher SA, Abecasis GR, Yashar BM et al (2005) Meta-analysis of genome scans of age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Mol Genet* 14:2257–2264
86. Jakobsdottir J, Conley YP, Weeks DE et al (2005) Susceptibility genes for age-related maculopathy on chromosome 10q26. *Am J Hum Genet* 77:389–407
87. Yang Z, Camp NJ, Sun H et al (2006) A variant of the HTRA1 gene increases susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration. *Science* 314:992–993
88. Dewan A, Liu M, Hartman S et al (2006) HTRA1 promoter polymorphism in wet age-related macular degeneration. *Science* 314:989–992
89. Despriet DD, Klaver CC, van Duijn CM et al. (2007) Predictive value of multiple genetic testing for age-related macular degeneration. *Arch Ophthalmol* 125:1270–1271
90. Hughes AE, Orr N, Patterson C et al (2007) Neovascular age-related macular degeneration risk based on CFH, LOC387715/HTRA1, and smoking. *PLoS Med* 4:e355
91. Kanda A, Chen W, Othman M et al (2007) A variant of mitochondrial protein LOC387715/ARMS2, not HTRA1, is strongly associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 104:16227–16232
92. Seddon JM, Francis PJ, George S et al (2007) Association of CFHY402H and LOC387715 A69S with progression of age-related macular degeneration. *JAMA* 297:1793–1800
93. Deangelis MM, Ji F, Adams S et al (2008) Alleles in the HtrA serine peptidase 1 gene alter the risk of neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 115:1209–1215
94. Fritsche LG, Loenhardt T, Janssen A et al (2008) Age-related macular degeneration is associated with an unstable ARMS2 (LOC387715) mRNA. *Nat Genet* 40:892–896
95. Gibbs D, Yang Z, Constantine R et al (2008) Further mapping of 10q26 supports strong association of HTRA1 polymorphisms with age-related macular degeneration. *Vision Res* 48:685–689
96. Richardson AJ, Islam FA, Aung KZ et al (2010) Analysis of the chromosome 10q26 region indicates the intergenic region between the tagSNP rs3793917 and rs11200638 in the HTRA1 gene as associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 51:4932–4936
97. Wang G, Spencer KL, Scott WK et al (2010) Analysis of the indel at the ARMS2 3'UTR in age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Genet* 127(5):595–602
98. Yang Z, Tong Z, Chen Y et al (2010) Genetic and functional dissection of HTRA1 and LOC387715 in age-related macular degeneration. *PLoS Genet* 6(2):e1000836
99. Barron MJ, Johnson MA, Andrews RM et al (2001) Mitochondrial abnormalities in ageing macular photoreceptors. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 42:3016–3022
100. Feher J, Kovacs I, Artico M et al (2006) Mitochondrial alterations of retinal pigment epithelium in age-related macular degeneration. *Neurobiol Aging* 27:983–993
101. Liang FQ, Godley BF (2003) Oxidative stress-induced mitochondrial DNA damage in human retinal pigment epithelial cells: a possible mechanism for RPE aging and age-related macular degeneration. *Exp Eye Res*

76:397–403

102. Jarrett SG, Lin H, Godley BF et al (2008) Mitochondrial DNA damage and its potential role in retinal degeneration. *Prog Retin Eye Res* 27:596–607
103. Wang AL, Lukas TJ, Yuan M et al (2008) Increased mitochondrial DNA damage and down-regulation of DNA repair enzymes in aged rodent retinal pigment epithelium and choroid. *Mol Vis* 14:644–651
104. Wang G, Spencer KL, Court BL et al (2009) Localization of age-related macular degeneration-associated ARMS2 in cytosol, not mitochondria. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 50:3084–3090
105. Kortvely E, Hauck SM, Duetsch G et al (2010) ARMS2 is a constituent of the extracellular matrix providing a link between familial and sporadic age-related macular degenerations. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 51:79–88
106. Tong Y, Liao J, Zhang Y et al (2010) LOC3877015/HTRA1 gene polymorphisms and susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration: A HuGe review and meta-analysis. *Mol Vis* 16:1958–1981
107. Chen W, Xu W, Tao Q et al (2009) Meta-analysis of the association of the HTRA1 polymorphisms with the risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Exp Eye Res* 89: 292–300
108. Tang NP, Zhou B, Wang B et al (2009) HTRA1 promoter polymorphism and risk of age-related macular degeneration: a meta-analysis. *Ann Epidemiol* 19:740–745
109. Chan CC, Shen D, Zhou M et al (2007) Human HtrA1 in the archived eyes with age-related macular degeneration. *Trans Am Ophthalmol Soc* 105:92–97; discussion 97–98
110. Tuo J, Ross RJ, Reed GF et al (2008) The HtrA1 promoter polymorphism, smoking, and age-related macular degeneration in multiple case-control samples. *Ophthalmology* 11:1891–1898
111. Chowers I, Meir T, Lederman M et al (2008) Sequence variants in HTRA1 and LOC387715/ARMS2 and phenotype and response to photodynamic therapy in neovascular age-related macular degeneration in populations from Israel. *Mol Vis* 14:2263–2271
112. Zumbunn J, Trueb B (1996) Primary structure of a putative serine protease specific for IGF-binding proteins. *FEBS Lett* 398:187–192
113. Mathura JR Jr, Jafari N, Chang JT et al (2000) Bone morphogenetic proteins-2 and -4: negative growth regulators in adult retinal pigmented epithelium. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 41:592–600
114. Oka C, Tsujimoto R, Kajikawa M et al (2004) HtrA1 serine protease inhibits signaling mediated by TGFbeta family proteins. *Development* 131:1041–1053
115. Mahley RW (1988) Apolipoprotein E: cholesterol transport protein with expanding role in cell biology. *Science* 240:622–630
116. Evans DA, Beckett LA, Field TS et al (1997) Apolipoprotein E epsilon4 and incidence of Alzheimer disease in a community population of older persons. *JAMA* 277:822–824
117. Slioter AJ, Tang MX, van Duijn CM et al (1997) Apolipoprotein E epsilon4 and the risk of dementia with stroke. A population-based investigation. *JAMA* 277:818–821
118. Ishida BY, Bailey KR, Duncan KG et al (2004) Regulated expression of apolipoprotein E by human retinal pigment epithelial cells. *J Lipid Res* 45:263–271
119. Klaver CC, Kliffen M, van Duijn CM et al (1998) Genetic association of apolipoprotein E with age-related macular degeneration. *Am J Hum Genet* 63:200–206
120. Anderson DH, Ozaki S, Nealon M et al (2001) Local cellular sources of apolipoprotein E in the human retina and retinal pigmented epithelium: implications for the process of drusen formation. *Am J Ophthalmol* 131:767–781
121. Anderson DH, Talaga KC, Rivest AJ et al. (2004) Characterization of beta amyloid assemblies in drusen: the deposits associated with aging and age-related macular degeneration. *Exp Eye Res* 78:243–256
122. Li CM, Clark ME, Chimento MF et al (2006) Apolipoprotein localization in isolated drusen and retinal apolipoprotein gene expression. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 47:3119–3128
123. Wang L, Clark ME, Crossman DK et al (2010) Abundant lipid and protein components of drusen. *PLoS One* 5:e10329
124. Zannis VI (1986) Genetic polymorphism in human apolipoprotein E. *Methods Enzymol* 128:823–851
125. Jarvik GP (1997) Genetic predictors of common disease: apolipoprotein E genotype as a paradigm. *Ann Epidemiol* 7:357–362
126. Souied EH, Benlian P, Amouyel P et al (1998) The epsilon4 allele of the apolipoprotein E gene as a potential protective factor for exudative age-related macular degeneration. *Am J Ophthalmol* 125:353–359
127. Pang CP, Baum L, Chan WM et al (2000) The apolipoprotein E epsilon4 allele is unlikely to be a major risk factor of age-related macular degeneration in Chinese. *Ophthalmologica* 214:289–291
128. Schmidt S, Saunders AM, De La Paz MA et al (2000) Association of the apolipoprotein E gene with age-related macular degeneration: possible effect modification by family history, age, and gender. *Mol Vis* 6:287–293
129. Simonelli F, Margaglione M, Testa F et al (2001) Apolipoprotein E polymorphisms in age-related macular

- degeneration in an Italian population. *Ophthalmic Res* 33:325–328
130. Schmidt S, Klaver C, Saunders A et al (2002) A pooled case-control study of the apolipoprotein E (APOE) gene in age-related maculopathy. *Ophthalmic Genet* 23:209–223
 131. Schultz DW, Klein ML, Humpert A et al (2003) Lack of an association of apolipoprotein E gene polymorphisms with familial age-related macular degeneration. *Arch Ophthalmol* 121:679–683
 132. Baird PN, Guida E, Chu DT et al (2004) The epsilon2 and epsilon4 alleles of the apolipoprotein gene are associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 45:1311–1315
 133. Gotoh N, Kuroiwa S, Kikuchi T et al (2004) Apolipoprotein E polymorphisms in Japanese patients with polypoidal choroidal vasculopathy and exudative age-related macular degeneration. *Am J Ophthalmol* 138:567–573
 134. Zarepari S, Reddick AC, Branham KE et al (2004) Association of apolipoprotein E alleles with susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration in a large cohort from a single center. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 45:1306–1310
 135. Baird PN, Richardson AJ, Robman LD et al (2006) Apolipoprotein (APOE) gene is associated with progression of age-related macular degeneration (AMD). *Hum Mutat* 27:337–342
 136. Bojanowski CM, Shen D, Chew EY et al (2006) An apolipoprotein E variant may protect against age-related macular degeneration through cytokine regulation. *Environ Mol Mutagen* 47:594–602
 137. Wong TY, Shankar A, Klein R et al (2006) Apolipoprotein E gene and early age-related maculopathy: the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study. *Ophthalmology* 113: 255–259
 138. Utheim OA, Ritland JS, Utheim TP et al (2008) Apolipoprotein E genotype and risk for development of cataract and age-related macular degeneration. *Acta Ophthalmol* 86:401–403
 139. Tikellis G, Sun C, Gorin MB et al (2007) Apolipoprotein E gene and age-related maculopathy in older individuals: the cardiovascular health study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 125:68–73
 140. Manttari M, Manninen V, Palosuo T et al (2001) Apolipoprotein E polymorphism and C-reactive protein in dyslipidemic middle-aged men. *Atherosclerosis* 156:237–238
 141. Austin MA, Zhang C, Humphries SE et al (2004) Heritability of C-reactive protein and association with apolipoprotein E genotypes in Japanese Americans. *Ann Hum Genet* 68:179–188
 142. Judson R, Brain C, Dain B et al (2004) New and confirmatory evidence of an association between APOE genotype and baseline C-reactive protein in dyslipidemic individuals. *Atherosclerosis* 177:345–351
 143. Marz W, Scharnagl H, Hoffmann MM et al (2004) The apolipoprotein E polymorphism is associated with circulating C-reactive protein (the Ludwigshafen risk and cardiovascular health study). *Eur Heart J* 25:2109–2119
 144. Eiriksdottir G, Aspelund T, Bjarnadottir K et al (2006) Apolipoprotein E genotype and statins affect CRP levels through independent and different mechanisms: AGES Reykjavik Study. *Atherosclerosis* 186:222–224
 145. Rontu R, Ojala P, Hervonen A et al (2006) Apolipoprotein E genotype is related to plasma levels of C-reactive protein and lipids and to longevity in nonagenarians. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)* 64:265–270
 146. Lee SJ, Kim JH, Chung MJ et al (2007) Human apolipoprotein E2 transgenic mice show lipid accumulation in retinal pigment epithelium and altered expression of VEGF and bFGF in the eyes. *J Microbiol Biotechnol* 17:1024–1030
 147. Malek G, Johnson LV, Mace BE et al (2005) Apolipoprotein E allele-dependent pathogenesis: a model for age-related retinal degeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 102:11900–11905
 148. Katsuya T, Baba S, Ishikawa K et al (2002) Epsilon 4 allele of apolipoprotein E gene associates with lower blood pressure in young Japanese subjects: the Suita Study. *J Hypertens* 20:2017–2021
 149. Grindle CF, Marshall J (1978) Ageing changes in Bruch's membrane and their functional implications. *Trans Ophthalmol Soc U K* 98:172–175
 150. Ignatius MJ, Gebicke-Harter PJ, Skene JH et al (1986) Expression of apolipoprotein E during nerve degeneration and regeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 83:1125–1129
 151. Poirier J, Baccichet A, Dea D et al (1993) Cholesterol synthesis and lipoprotein reuptake during synaptic remodelling in hippocampus in adult rats. *Neuroscience* 55:81–90
 152. Neale BM, Fagerness J, Reynolds R et al (2010) Genome-wide association study of advanced age-related macular degeneration identifies a role of the hepatic lipase gene (LIPC). *PNAS* 107: 7395–7400
 153. Willer CJ, Sanna S, Jackson AU et al (2008) Newly identified loci that influence lipid concentrations and risk of coronary artery disease. *Nat Genet* 40:161–169
 154. Kathiresan S, Willer CJ, Peloso GM et al (2009) Common variants at 30 loci contribute to polygenic dyslipidemia. *Nat Genet* 41:56–65
 155. Hasham SN, Pillarisetti S (2006) Vascular lipases, inflammation and atherosclerosis. *Clin Chim Acta* 372:179–183

156. Tserentsoodol N, Gordiyenko NV, Pascual I et al (2006) Intraretinal lipid transport is dependent on high density lipoprotein-like particles and class B scavenger receptors. *Mol Vis* 12:1319–1333
157. Wang W, Connor SL, Johnson EJ et al (2007) Effect of dietary lutein and zeaxanthin on plasma carotenoids and their transport in lipoproteins in age-related macular degeneration. *Am J Clin Nutr* 85:762–769
158. Yu Y, Bhargale TR, Fagerness J et al (2011) Common variants near FRK/COL10A1 and VEGFA are associated with advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Hum mol gen* 20: 3699–3709
159. Fauser S, Smailhodzic D, Caramoy A et al (2011) Evaluation of serum lipid concentrations and genetic variants at high-density lipoprotein metabolism loci and TIMP3 in age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 52:5525–5528
160. Yu Y, Reynolds R, Fagerness J et al (2011) Association of variants in the LIPC and ABCA1 genes with intermediate and large drusen and advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Inves Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 52:4463–4670
161. Curcio CA, Presley JB, Malek G et al (2005) Esterified and unesterified cholesterol in drusen and basal deposits of eyes with age-related maculopathy. *Exp Eye Res* 81:731–741
162. Tamura Y, Konomi H, Sawada H et al (1991) Tissue distribution of type VIII collagen in human adult and fetal eyes. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 32:2636–2644
163. De La Paz MA, Pericak-Vance MA, Lennon F et al (1997) Exclusion of TIMP3 as a candidate locus in age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 38:1060–1065
164. Felbor U, Doepner D, Schneider U et al (1997) Evaluation of the gene encoding the tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases-3 in various maculopathies. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 38:1054–1059
165. Abecasis GR, Yashar BM, Zhao Y et al (2004) Age-related macular degeneration: a high-resolution genome scan for susceptibility loci in a population enriched for late-stage disease. *Am J Hum Genet* 74:482–494
166. Strunnikova NV, Maminishkis A, Barb JJ et al (2010) Transcriptome analysis and molecular signature of human retinal pigment epithelium. *Hum Mol Genet* 19:2468–2486
167. Weber BH, Vogt G, Pruett RC et al (1994) Mutations in the tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases-3 (TIMP3) in patients with Sorsby's fundus dystrophy. *Nat Genet* 8:352–356
168. Haines JL, Schmetz-Boutaud N, Schmidt S et al (2006) Functional candidate genes in age-related macular degeneration: significant association with VEGF, VLDLR, and LRP6. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 47:329–335
169. Arakawa S, Takahashi A, Ashikawa K et al (2011) Genome-wide association study identifies two susceptibility loci for exudative age-related macular degeneration in the Japanese population. *Nat gen* 43: 1001–1004
170. Schaumberg DA, Hankinson SE, Guo Q et al (2007) A prospective study of 2 major age-related macular degeneration susceptibility alleles and interactions with modifiable risk factors. *Arch Ophthalmol* 125:55–62
171. Scott WK, Schmidt S, Hauser MA et al (2007) Independent effects of complement factor H Y402H polymorphism and cigarette smoking on risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 114:1151–1156
172. Delcourt C, Delyfer MN, Rougier MB et al (2011) Associations of complement factor h and smoking with early age-related macular degeneration: the ALIENOR study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 52:5955–5962
173. Klein ML, Francis PJ, Rosner B et al (2008) CFH and LOC387715/ARMS2 genotypes and treatment with antioxidants and zinc for age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 115:1019–1025
174. Wang JJ, Rochtchina E, Smith W et al (2009) Combined effects of complement factor H genotypes, fish consumption, and inflammatory markers on long-term risk for age-related macular degeneration in a cohort. *Am J Epidemiol* 169:633–641
175. Ho L, van Leeuwen R, Witteman JCM et al (2011) Reducing the genetic risk of age-related macular degeneration with dietary antioxidants, zinc, and ω -3 fatty acids. *Arch Ophthalmol* 129:758–766
176. Francis PJ, George S, Schultz DW et al (2007) The LOC387715 gene, smoking, body mass index, environmental associations with advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Hered* 63:212–218
177. Ross RJ, Bojanowski CM, Wang JJ et al (2007) The LOC387715 polymorphism and age-related macular degeneration: replication in three case-control samples. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 48:1128–1132
178. Seitonen SP, Onkamo P, Peng G et al (2008) Multifactor effects and evidence of potential interaction between complement factor HY402H and LOC387715 A69S in age-related macular degeneration. *PLoS One* 3:e3833
179. Wang JJ, Ross RJ, Tuo J et al (2008) The LOC387715 polymorphism, inflammatory markers, smoking, and age-related macular degeneration. A population-based case control study. *Ophthalmology* 115:693–699
180. Lee SJ, Kim NR, Chin HS (2010) LOC387715/HTRA1 polymorphisms, smoking, and combined effects on exudative age-related macular degeneration in a Korean population. *Clin Experiment Ophthalmol* 38:698–704
181. Schmidt S, Hauser MA, Scott WK et al (2006) Cigarette smoking strongly modifies the association of

- LOC387715 and age-related macular degeneration. *Am J Hum Genet* 78(5):852-864
182. Neuner B, Wellmann J, Dasch B et al (2008) LOC387715, smoking and their prognostic impact on visual functional status in age-related macular degeneration – The Muenster Aging and Retina Study (MARS) cohort. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol* 15:148–154
 183. Cameron DJ, Yang Z, Gibbs D et al (2007) HTRA1 variant confers similar risks to geographic atrophy and neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *Cell Cycle* 6:1122–1125
 184. Yoshida T, DeWan A, Zhang H et al (2007) HTRA1 promoter polymorphism predisposes Japanese to age-related macular degeneration. *Mol Vis* 13:545–548
 185. Kaur I, Katta S, Hussain A et al (2008) Variants in the 10q26 gene cluster (LOC387715 and HTRA1) exhibit enhanced risk of age-related macular degeneration along with CFH in Indian patients. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 49:1771–1776
 186. Fritsche LG, Freitag-Wolf S, Bettecken T et al (2009) Age-related macular degeneration and functional promoter and coding variants of the apolipoprotein E gene. *Hum Mutat* 30(7):1048-1053
 187. Schmidt S, Haines JL, Postel EA et al (2005) Joint effects of smoking history and APOE genotypes in age-related macular degeneration. *Mol Vis* 11:941–949 *Am J Hum Genet* 78:852–864
 188. Francis PJ, Zhang H, Dewan A et al (2008) Joint effects of polymorphisms in the HTRA1, LOC387715/ARMS2, and CFH genes on AMD in a Caucasian population. *Mol Vis* 14:1395–1400



Chapter 5.2

Seven New Loci Associated with Age-Related Macular Degeneration

The AMD Gene Consortium

Lars G Fritsche*, Wei Chen*, Matthew Schu*, Brian L Yaspan*, Yi Yu*, Gudmar Thorleifsson, Donald J Zack, Satoshi Arakawa, Valentina Cipriani, Stephan Ripke, Robert P Igo, Jr., **Gabriëlle H S Buitendijk**, Xueling Sim, Daniel E Weeks, Robyn H Guymer, Joanna E Merriam, Peter J Francis, Gregory Hannum, Anita Agarwal, Ana Maria Armbrrecht, Isabelle Audo, Tin Aung, Gaetano R Barile, Mustapha Benchaboune, Alan C Bird, Paul N Bishop, Kari E Branham, Matthew Brooks, Alexander J Brucker, William H Cade, Melinda S Cain, Peter A Campochiaro, Chi-Chao Chan, Ching-Yu Cheng, Emily Y Chew, Kimberly A Chin, Itay Chowers, David G Clayton, Radu Cojocaru, Yvette P Conley, Belinda K Cornes, Mark J Daly, Baljean Dhillon, Albert O Edwards, Evangelos Evangelou, Jesen Fagerness, Henry A Ferreyra, James S Friedman, Asbjorg Geirsdottir, Ronnie J George, Christian Gieger, Neel Gupta, Stephanie A Hagstrom, Simon P Harding, Christos Haritoglou, John R Heckenlively, Frank G Holz, Guy Hughes, John P A Ioannidis, Tatsuro Ishibashi, Peronne Joseph, Gyungah Jun, Yoichiro Kamatani, Nicholas Katsanis, Claudia N Keilhauer, Jane C Khan, Ivana K Kim, Yutaka Kiyohara, Barbara E K Klein, Ronald Klein, Jaclyn L Kovach, Igor Kozak, Clara J Lee, Kristine E Lee, Peter Lichtner, Andrew J Lotery, Thomas Meitinger, Paul Mitchell, Saddek Mohand-Saïd, Anthony T Moore, Denise J Morgan, Margaux A Morrison, Chelsea E Myers, Adam C Naj, Yusuke Nakamura, Yukinori Okada, Anton Orlin, M Carolina Ortube, Mohammad I Othman, Chris Pappas, Kyu Hyung Park, Gayle J T Pauer, Neal S Peachey, Olivier Poch, Rinki Ratna Priya, Robyn Reynolds, Andrea J Richardson, Raymond Ripp, Guenther Rudolph, Euijung Ryu, José-Alain Sahel, Debra A Schaumberg, Hendrik P N Scholl, Stephen G Schwartz, William K Scott, Humma Shahid, Haraldur Sigurdsson, Giuliana Silvestri, Theru A Sivakumaran, R Theodore Smith, Lucia Sobrin, Eric H Souied, Dwight E Stambolian, Hreinn Stefansson, Gwen M Sturgill-Short, Atsushi Takahashi, Nirubol Tosakulwong, Barbara J Truitt, Evangelia E Tsironi, André G Uitterlinden, Cornelia M van Duijn, Lingam Vijaya, Johannes R Vingerling, Eranga N Vithana, Andrew R Webster, H.-Erich Wichmann, Thomas W Winkler, Tien Y Wong, Alan F Wright, Diana Zelenika, Li Zhang, Ling Zhao, Kang Zhang, Michael L Klein, Gregory S Hageman, G Mark Lathrop, Kari Stefansson, Rando Allikmets*, Paul N Baird*, Michael B Gorin*, Jie Jin Wang*, Caroline C W Klaver*, Johanna M Seddon*, Margaret A Pericak-Vance*, Sudha K Iyengar*, John R W Yates*, Anand Swaroop*, Bernhard H F Weber*, Michiaki Kubo*, Margaret M DeAngelis*, Thierry Léveillard*, Unnur Thorsteinsdottir*, Jonathan L Haines*, Lindsay A Farrer*, Iris M Heid*, Gonçalo R Abecasis*

*These authors contributed equally.

Published in *Nat Genet.* 2013 Apr;45(4):433-9, 439e1-2. doi: 10.1038/ng.2578. Epub 2013 Mar 3. PMID: 23455636

Supplementary material is available at:

<http://www.nature.com/eur.idm.oclc.org/ng/journal/v45/n4/full/ng.2578.html>

ABSTRACT

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is a common cause of blindness in older individuals. To accelerate understanding of AMD biology and help design new therapies, we executed a collaborative genome-wide association study, examining >17,100 advanced AMD cases and >60,000 controls of European and Asian ancestry. We identified 19 genomic loci associated with AMD with $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ and enriched for genes involved in regulation of complement activity, lipid metabolism, extracellular matrix remodeling and angiogenesis. Our results include 7 loci reaching $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ for the first time, near the genes *COL8A1/FILIP1L*, *IER3/DDR1*, *SLC16A8*, *TGFBR1*, *RAD51B*, *ADAMTS9/MIR548A2*, and *B3GALTL*. A genetic risk score combining SNPs from all loci displayed similar good ability to distinguish cases and controls in all samples examined. Our findings provide new directions for biological, genetic and therapeutic studies of AMD.

INTRODUCTION, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

AMD is a progressive neurodegenerative disease that leads to loss of central vision through death of photoreceptors^{1,2}. In developed countries, AMD is the leading cause of blindness in those >65 years³. Genes in the complement pathway⁴⁻¹¹ and a region of chromosome 10^{12,13} have now been implicated as the major genetic contributors to disease. Association has also been demonstrated with several additional loci¹⁴⁻²⁰, each providing an entry-point into AMD biology and potential therapeutic targets.

To accelerate the pace of discovery in macular degeneration genetics, 18 research groups from across the world formed the AMD Gene Consortium in early 2010, with support from the National Eye Institute (Table 1, Supplementary Table 1, Supplementary Note). To extend the catalog of disease associated common variants, we first organized a meta-analysis of genomewide association scans (GWAS) – combining data for >7,600 cases with advanced disease (geographic atrophy, neovascularization, or both) and >50,000 controls. Each study was first subject to GWAS quality control filters (customized taking into account study specific features as detailed in Supplementary Table 2) and standardized to the HapMap reference panel and statistical genotype imputation²²⁻²⁵. Results were combined through meta-analysis²⁶ and thirty-two variants representing loci with promising evidence of association were genotyped in an additional >9,500 cases and >8,200 controls (Supplementary Tables 1–3; summary meta-analysis results available online). Our overall analysis of the most promising variants thus included >17,100 cases and >60,000 controls.

TABLE 1 - Summary of the samples used in genome-wide discovery and targeted follow-up analyses

For additional details, including a breakdown of the number of cases and controls in individual samples, see Supplementary Table 1. N_{cases} includes only cases with geographic atrophy, choroidal neovascularization, or both.

Analysis	Contributing study groups	N_{cases}	% Female	% Neovascular disease	N_{controls}	% Female
Genome-wide discovery	15	7,650	53.9	59.2	51,844	45.2
Targeted follow-up	18	9,531	56.3	57.8	8,230	53.8
Overall	33	17,181	55.2	58.4	60,074	46.3

Our meta-analysis evaluated evidence for association at 2,442,884 SNPs (Figure 1). Inspection of Q-Q plots (Supplementary Figure 1) and the genomic control value ($\lambda_{GC}=1.06$) suggest that unmodeled population stratification does not significantly impact our findings (Supplementary Table 4 for details). Joint analysis of discovery and follow-up studies²⁷ resulted in 19 loci reaching $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ (Figure 1, Table 2, Supplementary Table 5). These 19 loci include all susceptibility loci previously reaching $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$, except the 4q12 gene cluster for which association was reported in a Japanese population. In addition, the set includes seven loci reaching $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ for the first time.

TABLE 2 - Summary of loci reaching genome-wide significance.

SNP	Risk allele	Chr.	Position	Nearby genes	EAF	Discovery			Follow-up			Combined		
						P	OR	P	P	OR	P	OR	P	OR(95% CI)
Loci previously reported at $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$														
rs10490924	T	10	124.2 Mb	ARMS2-HTRA1	0.30	4×10^{-353}	2.71	2.8×10^{190}	2.88	4×10^{540}	2.76 (2.72-2.80)			
rs10737680	A	1	196.7 Mb	CFH	0.64	1×10^{-283}	2.40	2.7×10^{152}	2.50	1×10^{434}	2.43 (2.39-2.47)			
rs429608	G	6	31.9 Mb	C2-CFB	0.86	2×10^{-54}	1.67	2.4×10^{37}	1.89	4×10^{89}	1.74 (1.68-1.79)			
rs2230199	C	19	6.7 Mb	C3	0.2	2×10^{-36}	1.46	3.4×10^{17}	1.37	1×10^{41}	1.42 (1.37-1.47)			
rs5749482	G	22	33.1 Mb	TIMP3	0.74	6×10^{-13}	1.25	9.7×10^{17}	1.45	2×10^{26}	1.31 (1.26-1.36)			
rs4420638	A	19	45.4 Mb	APOE	0.83	3×10^{-15}	1.34	4.2×10^{-7}	1.25	2×10^{20}	1.30 (1.24-1.36)			
rs1864163	G	16	57.0 Mb	CETP	0.76	8×10^{-13}	1.25	8.7×10^{-5}	1.17	7×10^{16}	1.22 (1.17-1.27)			
rs943080	T	6	43.8 Mb	VEGFA	0.51	4×10^{-12}	1.18	1.6×10^{-5}	1.12	9×10^{16}	1.15 (1.12-1.18)			
rs13278062	T	8	23.1 Mb	TNFRSF10A	0.48	7×10^{-10}	1.17	6.4×10^{-7}	1.14	3×10^{15}	1.15 (1.12-1.19)			
rs920915	C	15	58.7 Mb	LIPC	0.48	2×10^{-9}	1.14	0.004	1.1	3×10^{11}	1.13 (1.09-1.17)			
rs4698775	G	4	110.6 Mb	CFI	0.31	2×10^{-10}	1.16	0.025	1.08	7×10^{11}	1.14 (1.10-1.17)			
rs3812111	T	6	116.4 Mb	COL10A1	0.64	7×10^{-8}	1.13	0.022	1.06	2×10^{-8}	1.10 (1.07-1.14)			
Loci reaching $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ for the first time														
rs13081855	T	3	99.5 Mb	COL8A1-FILIP1L	0.10	4×10^{-11}	1.28	6.0×10^{-4}	1.17	4×10^{13}	1.23 (1.17-1.29)			
rs3130783	A	6	30.8 Mb	IER3-DDR1	0.79	1×10^{-6}	1.15	3.5×10^{-6}	1.16	2×10^{11}	1.16 (1.11-1.20)			
rs8135665	T	22	38.5 Mb	SLC16A8	0.21	8×10^{-8}	1.16	5.6×10^{-5}	1.13	2×10^{11}	1.15 (1.11-1.19)			
rs334353	T	9	101.9 Mb	TGFBF1	0.73	9×10^{-7}	1.13	6.7×10^{-6}	1.13	3×10^{11}	1.13 (1.10-1.17)			
rs8017304	A	14	68.8 Mb	RAD51B	0.61	9×10^{-7}	1.11	2.1×10^{-5}	1.11	9×10^{11}	1.11 (1.08-1.14)			
rs6795735	T	3	64.7 Mb	ADAMTS9	0.46	9×10^{-8}	1.13	0.006	1.07	5×10^{-9}	1.10 (1.07-1.14)			
rs9542236	C	13	31.8 Mb	B3GALT1	0.44	2×10^{-6}	1.12	0.0018	1.08	2×10^{-8}	1.10 (1.07-1.14)			

All results reported here include a genomic control correction for individual studies and also for the final meta-analysis⁵¹. A summary of all gene name abbreviations used in this table and elsewhere in the manuscript is provided in Supplementary Table 5. EAF is the allele frequency of the risk-increasing allele. Chr., chromosome.

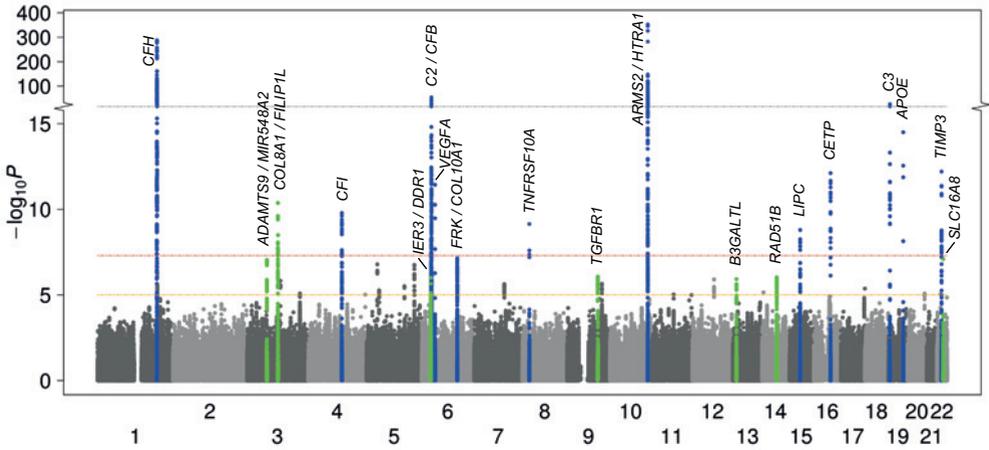


FIGURE 1 - Summary of genomewide association scan results. Summary of genomewide association scan results in the discovery GWAS sample. Previously described loci reaching $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ are labeled in blue; new loci reaching $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ for the first time after follow-up are labeled in green.

We evaluated heterogeneity between studies using the I^2 statistic, which compares variability in effect size estimates between studies to chance expectations²⁸. We observed significant ($p < .05/19$) heterogeneity only for loci near *ARMS2* ($I^2=75.7\%$, $p < 1 \times 10^{-6}$) and near *CFH* ($I^2=85.4\%$, $p < 1 \times 10^{-6}$). Although these two loci were significantly associated in every sample examined, the magnitude of association varied more than expected. To explore sources of heterogeneity, we carried out a series of sub-analyses: we repeated the genomewide meta-analysis adding an age-adjustment, separating neovascular (NV) and geographic atrophy (GA) cases, in men and women, and in European- and Asian-ancestry samples separately (Figure 2, Supplementary Figure 2). These sub-analyses of the full GWAS dataset did not uncover additional loci reaching $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$; furthermore heterogeneity near *CFH* and *ARMS2* remained significant in all sub-analyses ($I^2 > 65\%$, $p < 0.001$). Consistent with previous reports^{17,29,30}, separate analysis of NV and GA cases showed *ARMS2* risk alleles preferentially associated with risk of NV ($OR_{NV}=2.97$, $OR_{GA}=2.50$, $p_{\text{difference}}=.0008$) whereas *CFH* risk alleles preferentially associated with risk of GA ($OR_{NV}=2.34$, $OR_{GA}=2.80$, $p_{\text{difference}}=.0006$). We also observed large differences in effect sizes when stratifying by ethnicity, with variants near *CFH* exhibiting stronger evidence for association among Europeans ($p=0.0000001$) and those near *TNFRSF10A* among East Asians ($p=0.002$). Potential explanations include differences in linkage disequilibrium between populations or differences in environmental or diagnostic factors that modify genetic effects.

Identifying the full spectrum of allelic variation that contributes to disease in each locus will require sequencing of AMD cases and controls. To conduct an initial evaluation of the evidence for multiple AMD risk alleles in the nineteen loci described here, we repeated genome-wide association analyses conditioning on the risk alleles listed in Table 2. We then examined each of the 19 implicated loci for variants with independent association (at $p < 0.0002$, corresponding for an estimate of ~ 250 independent variants per locus). This analysis resulted in the identification of the previously well documented independently associated variants near *CFH* and *C2/CFB*^{8,10,31,32} and of additional independent signals near *C3*, *CETP*, *LIPC*, *FRK/COL10A1*, *IER3/DDR1*, *RAD51B* (Supplementary Table

6). In four of these loci, the independently associated variants mapped very close (within <60kb) to the original signal. This shows each locus can harbor multiple susceptibility alleles, encouraging searches for rare variants that elucidate gene function in these regions^{33,34}.

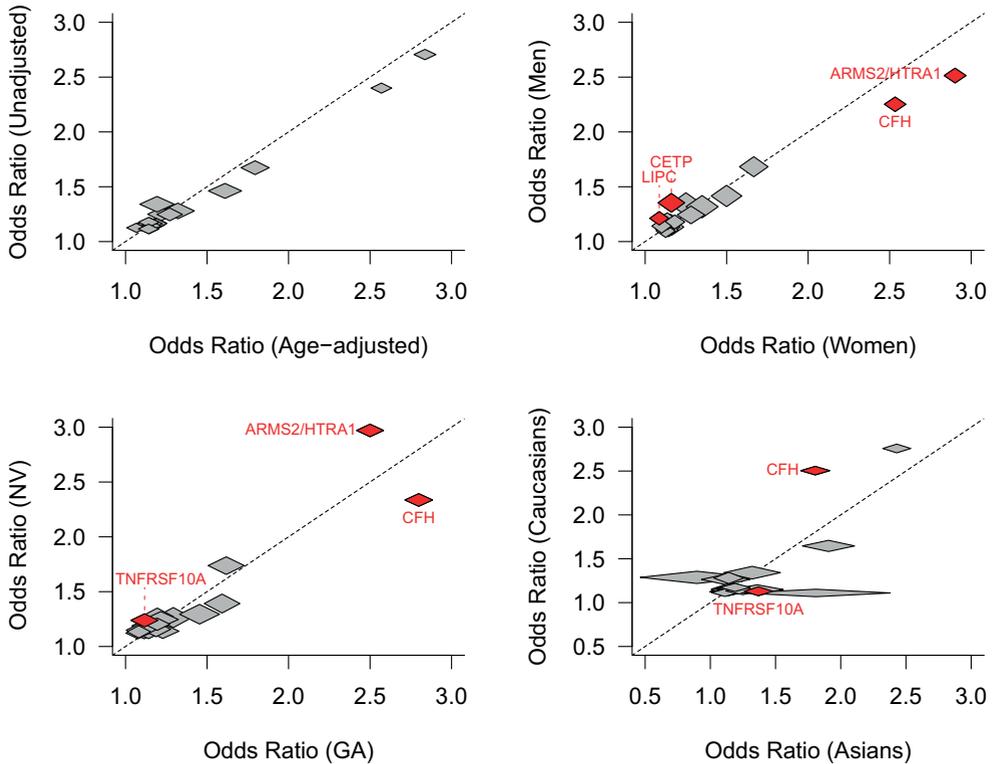


FIGURE 2 - Sensitivity analysis. The top left panel compares estimated effect sizes for the original analysis and for an age-adjusted analysis (where age was included as a covariate and samples of unknown age were excluded). The top right panel compares analyses stratified by sex. The bottom left panel evaluates stratification by disease subtype. The bottom right panel evaluates stratification by ethnicity. The size of each marker reflects confidence intervals (with height reflecting confidence interval along the Y axis and width reflecting confidence interval along the X axis). Comparisons reaching $p < 0.05$ are labeled and colored in red.

To prioritize our search for likely causal variants, we examined each locus in detail (see LocusZoom³⁵ plots in Supplementary Figure 3) and investigated whether AMD risk alleles were associated with changes in protein sequence, copy number variation or insertion deletion polymorphisms. One quarter of associated variants altered protein sequence, either directly ($N=2$) or through linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 > .6$; $N=3$) with a nearby non-synonymous variant (Supplementary Table 7). Some coding variants point to well-studied genes (*ARMS2*, *C3* and *APOE*) while others help prioritize nearby genes for further study. In chromosome 4q25, index SNP rs4698775 is in strong linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 = .88$) with a potentially protein damaging variant in *CCDC109B*³⁶, a coiled coil domain containing protein that may be involved in the regulation of gene expression. In chromosome 6q22, index SNP rs3812111 is a perfect proxy for a coding variant in *COL10A1*, a collagen protein that could be

important in maintaining the structure and function of the extra-cellular matrix. Interestingly, Y402H was not in disequilibrium with rs10737680, the most strongly associated SNP in the *CFH* region but, instead, was tagged by a secondary and weaker association signal (Supplementary Tables 6&7). This is consistent with prior haplotype analyses of the locus^{10,31,32,34,37}.

We used publicly available data^{38,39} to check whether any of our index SNPs might be proxies for copy number variants or insertion-deletion polymorphisms (indels), which are hard to directly interrogate with genotyping arrays. This analysis identified a single strong association ($r^2=.99$), between rs10490924, a coding variant in the *ARMS2* gene which is the peak of association in 10q26, and a 3' UTR indel polymorphism associated with *ARMS2* mRNA instability⁴⁰. Because index SNP rs10490924 is also in strong disequilibrium ($r^2=.90$) with a nearby SNP, rs11200638, that regulates *HTRA141*, our data does not directly answer whether *HTRA1* or *ARMS2* is the causal gene in this locus. Although a common deletion of the *CFHR1* and *CFHR3* genes has been proposed^{42,43}, there was only modest signal in this study which is likely due to linkage disequilibrium with our most significantly associated variants in the locus ($r^2=.31$ between rs10737680 and 1000 Genomes Project MERGED_DEL_2_6731) as previously suggested³⁴.

Using RNA-sequencing⁴⁴, we examined mRNA levels of 85 genes within 100 kb of our index SNPs in post-mortem human retina (Supplementary Table 8). Of 19 independent risk loci, three had no genes with expressed transcripts in either old or young retina. Two genes showed differential expression between post-mortem retina of young (ages 17–35) and elderly (ages 75 and 77) individuals: *CFH* ($p=0.009$) and *VEGFA* ($p=0.003$), both with increased expression in older individuals. Using previously published data⁴⁵, we also examined the expression of associated genes in fetal and adult retinal pigment epithelium (RPE). This revealed increased *C3* expression in adult RPE compared to fetal RPE ($p=0.0008$). *CFH*, *VEGFA* and *C3* are thus up-regulated with aging, and their role in AMD may indicate an accelerated aging process. In addition to *C3* and *CFH*, all the complement genes with detectable expression in the retina or RPE experiments showed higher expression levels in older tissue.

To identify biological relationships among our genetic association signals, we catalogued the genes within 100kb of the variants in each association peak ($r^2>0.8$ with the index SNP listed in Table 1). Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (Ingenuity Systems, Redwood, CA) highlighted several biological pathways, particularly the complement system and atherosclerotic signaling, to be enriched in the resulting set of 90 genes (Table 3, Supplementary Table 9). To account for features of genome-wide association studies (such as the different number of SNPs in each gene), we carried out two additional analyses. First, we repeated our analysis for 50 sets of 19 control loci drawn from the National Human Genome Research Institute (NHGRI) GWAS catalog⁴⁶. In these 50 control sets, Ingenuity enrichment p -values for the complement system and for atherosclerosis signaling genes were exceeded 16% and 32% of the time respectively (although these two specific pathways were never implicated in a control dataset). Second, we repeated our enrichment analyses using the Interval-based Enrichment Analysis Tool for Genome-Wide Association Studies (INRICH)⁴⁷, which is specifically designed for the analysis of GWAS but accesses a more limited set of annotations. The INRICH analyses showed enrichment for genes encoding collagen and extra-cellular region proteins (both with $p=1 \times 10^{-5}$ and after adjustment for multiple testing $p_{\text{adjust}}=0.0006$), complement and coagulation cascades ($p=0.0002$, $p_{\text{adjust}}=0.03$), lipoprotein metabolism ($p=0.0003$, $p_{\text{adjust}}=0.04$), and regulation of apoptosis ($p=0.0009$, $p_{\text{adjust}}=0.09$) (Supplementary Table 10).

TABLE 3 - Pathway analysis

Ingenuity canonical pathways	Enrichment analysis			Pathway size (N_{genes})
	Nominal P value	FDR q value	Molecules	
Complement system	0.000012	0.0015	<i>CFI, CFH, C3, CFB^a, C2^a, C4A^a, C4B^a</i>	35
Atherosclerosis signaling	0.00014	0.009	<i>PLA2G12A, APOC1^b, APOE^b, APOC2^b, APOC4^b, TNFS14, COL10A1, PLA2G6</i>	129
VEGF family ligand-receptor interactions	0.0042	0.150	<i>VEGFA, PLA2G12A, PLA2G6</i>	84
Dendritic cell maturation	0.0046	0.150	<i>RELB, ZBTB12, DDR1, COL10A1</i>	185
Phospholipid degradation	0.0058	0.151	<i>PLA2G12A, LIPC, PLA2G6</i>	102
MIF-mediated glucocorticoid regulation	0.0088	0.153	<i>PLA2G12A, PLA2G6</i>	42
Inhibition of angiogenesis by TSP1	0.0093	0.153	<i>VEGFA, TGFBR1</i>	39
FcεRI signaling	0.0098	0.153	<i>VAV1, PLA2G12A, PLA2G6</i>	111
p38 MAPK signaling	0.011	0.153	<i>PL2G12A, TGFBR1, PLA2G6</i>	106

Abbreviations: FDR = false discovery rate.

^aAll flank rs429608 and are thus counted as a single hit when determining the significance of enrichment.

^bAll flank rs4420638 and are thus counted as a single hit when determining the significance of enrichment.

To explore the connections between our genetic association signals, we tested for interaction between pairs of risk alleles – looking for situations where joint risk was different than expected based on marginal effects. This analysis resulted in 171 tests of interaction, of which 9 were nominally significant ($p < 0.05$, see Supplementary Table 11), consistent with chance expectations. The strongest observed interaction involved risk alleles at rs10737680 (near *CFH*) and rs429608 (near *C2/CFB*), the only association that remained significant after adjusting for multiple testing ($p = 0.000052$, $< 0.05/171 = 0.00029$). Individuals carrying risk alleles at both these loci were at slightly higher risk of disease than expected.

The proportion of the variability in the risk of AMD that is due to genes, or heritability, has been estimated at 45–70%². Estimating the proportion of disease risk explained by the susceptibility loci identified⁴⁸ depends greatly on the disease prevalence, which is difficult to estimate in our sample, as it includes cases and controls of different ages and collected through a variety of ascertainment schemes. Using a model that assumes an underlying normally distributed but unobserved disease risk score or liability⁴⁹, the nineteen loci described here account for between 10% (if AMD prevalence is close to 1%) and 30% (if AMD prevalence is closer to 10%) of the variability in disease risk (corresponding to 15–65% of the total genetic contribution to AMD). The variants representing the peak of association at loci previously reaching genome-wide significance account for the bulk of this variability: the new loci identified here account for 0.5–1.0% of the total heritability of AMD whereas secondary signals at novel and known loci account for 1.5–3.0% of the total heritability.

We report here the most comprehensive genetic association study of macular degeneration yet conducted, involving 18 international research groups, and a large set of cases and controls. Our data reveal 19 susceptibility loci, including 7 loci reaching $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ for the first time, nearly doubling the number of known AMD loci outside the complement pathway. Our results show some susceptibility alleles exhibit different association across ethnic groups and may be preferentially associated with specific subtypes of disease. As with other GWAS meta-analysis, differences in genotyping methods, quality control steps and imputation strategies between samples might have a minor effect in our

results – future studies may document that more uniform approaches across larger sample sizes might uncover more signals. A conundrum of macular degeneration genetics remains that the loci identified to date contribute to both GA and NV, two different phenotypes of advanced disease. In our sample, subtype specific GWAS analyses considering GA or NV cases only did not identify additional loci. Consistent with observations for other complex diseases³⁹, the majority of common disease susceptibility alleles do not alter protein sequences and are not associated with insertions or deletions of coding sequence or with copy number variation. We expect that the loci identified here will provide an ideal starting point for studies of rare variation^{33,34}.

In contrast to most other complex diseases, a risk score combining information across our 19 loci, can distinguish cases and controls relatively well (Figure 3, area under the ROC curve [AUC]=0.52 including only new loci or AUC=0.74 including new and previously reported loci; Supplementary Figure 4). It may be possible to use similar scores to identify and prioritize at risk individuals so they receive preventative treatment prior to the onset of disease⁵⁰. Monotherapies are increasingly utilized to manage neovascular disease, but offer only a limited repertoire of treatment options to patients. Identification of novel genes and pathways enables us to pursue a larger range of disease-specific targets for development of new therapeutic interventions. We expect that future therapies directed at earlier stages of the disease process will allow patients to retain visual function for longer periods, improving the quality of life for individuals with AMD.

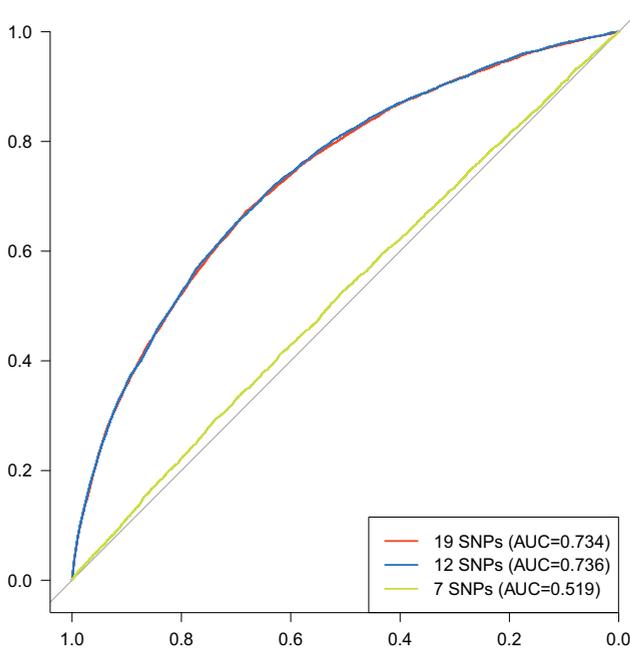


FIGURE 3 - Risk score analysis. We calculated a risk score for each individual, defined as the product of the number of risk alleles at each locus and the associated effect size for each allele (measured on the log-odds scale). The plot summarizes the ability of these overall genetic risk scores to distinguish cases and controls. Analyses were carried out using 19 SNPs that reached $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ here, the 12 SNPs previously reaching this threshold and the 7 new variants.

METHODS

Genome-wide scan for late AMD association including follow-up

Study-specific association analysis for discovery: Genotyping was performed on a variety of different platforms summarized in Supplementary Table 2. Each group submitted results from association tests using genotyped and imputed data where the allelic dosages were computed with either MACH²⁵, IMPUTE²³, BEAGLE²⁴, or snpStats⁵² using the HapMap2 reference panels. The CEU panel was used as a reference for imputation-based analyses for most samples (predominantly of European ancestry), with two exceptions: for the JAREDS samples (predominantly of East Asian ancestry), the CHB+JPT panel was used as a reference; for the VRF samples (predominantly of South Asian ancestry) the combined CEU and CHB+JPT panels were used^{22,53}. For most data sets association tests were run under a logistic regression model using either Plink⁵⁴, Mach2dat²⁵, ProbABEL⁵⁵, or snpStats⁵², though for one dataset containing related individuals the generalized estimating equations algorithm⁵⁶ as implemented in R^{57,58}. In addition to the primary analysis which tested for SNP associations with advanced AMD unadjusted for age, an age-adjusted sensitivity analysis was conducted by each group with available age. Each group also provided stratified results by sex or AMD subtype (GA or NV) as long as the sample size per stratum exceeded 50 subjects. For all analyses, study-specific control for population stratification was conducted (Supplementary Table 4).

Study-specific association analysis for follow-up: Genotyping of the selected SNPs was performed on different platforms; the same models, sensitivity and stratified analyses were computed by each follow-up partner, while SNPs with insufficient call rate were excluded based on study-specific thresholds. If the index SNP could not be genotyped, a highly correlated proxy was used whenever possible (Supplementary Tables 2&3).

Quality control before meta-analysis: Before meta-analysis, all study-specific files underwent quality control procedures to check for completeness and plausible descriptive statistics on all variables as well as for compliance of allele frequencies with HapMap⁵⁹. In addition, we excluded SNP results of a study into meta-analysis (i) for discovery: if imputation quality measures were too low (MACH & PLINK <0.3; SNPTEST <0.4) or if effect sizes ($|\beta|$) or standard errors were too extreme (≥ 5) indicating instability of the estimates, (ii) for follow-up: if Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was violated ($p < 0.05/32$).

Meta-analyses: For both discovery and follow-up, we performed meta-analyses using the inverse variance weighted fixed effect model, which pools the effect size and standard error of each participated GWAS. Using an alternative weighted z-score method, which is based on a weighted sum of z-score statistics, we obtained a very similar set of test statistics (correlation of $-\log_{10}(p\text{-value}) > 0.98$). All analyses were performed using METAL²⁶ and R. For the discovery, we applied two rounds of genomic control corrections to each individual GWAS and the combined meta results, respectively⁵¹. All results were analyzed and validated among four independent teams.

Extended analyses for the identified AMD loci: Extended analyses were conducted on the identified loci and particularly on the top SNP of each locus.

Second signal analysis: To detect potential independent signals within the identified AMD loci, each study partner with genotypes for all identified SNPs available re-analyzed their data for all SNPs in the respective loci (index SNP $\pm 1\text{Mb}$) using a logistic regression model containing all identified index SNPs. Quality control procedures were performed as before. The beta estimates for each SNP were meta-analyzed applying the effective sample size weighted z-score method and two rounds of genomic control correction. The significance threshold ($p < 0.05$) for an independent association

signal within any of the identified loci was Bonferroni-adjusted using the average effective number of SNPs involved across the identified loci determined by SNPSpD⁶⁰. To this analysis, 13 studies contributed including 7,489 cases and 51,562 controls.

Interaction analysis: Utilizing a pre-specified R-scripts (see supplementary material), GWAS partners performed 171 logistic regression analyses modeling the pair-wise interaction of the 19 index SNPs assuming an additive model for main and interaction effects. Study-specific covariates were included to the model if required. Per study, quality control included a check for consistency of SNP main effects between discovery and interaction analysis. SNPs with low imputation quality measures and pairs with $|\beta| > 5$ or standard errors > 5 were excluded before meta-analyzing the interaction effects with the inverse variance weighted fixed effect model in METAL. To this analysis, 12 studies contributed including 6,645 cases and 49,410 controls.

Genetic risk score

The meta-analyzed effect sizes, β_j , for each of the 19 SNPs were calculated in the meta-analysis described above and normalized by:

$$\hat{\beta}_j = \beta_j / \sum_{k=1}^{19} \beta_k$$

where $j=1, \dots, 19$. Using these values as weights, each study partner with data available for all 19 SNPs computed the genetic risk score for an individual as a normalized weighted sum of the AMD risk increasing alleles among the identified SNPs, with

$$S_i = \sum_j \hat{\beta}_j x_{ij}$$

where x_{ij} is the phenotype of the i th individual at the j th SNP, so ranges from 0 to 2. Data for these calculations were available from 12 studies including 7,195 cases and 49,149 controls.

For each study, we used a leave-one-out cross-validation to assess the prediction of the risk score. For the k th subject, we fitted a logistic regression model from all subjects in the study excluding the k th subjects as:

$$\log\left(\frac{y_i}{1-y_i}\right) = \alpha + \gamma S_i, \quad i \neq k$$

where α is the intercept and γ is the effect of the genetic risk score. The fitted probability of the k th subject was then estimated.

$$\hat{y}_k = 1 / \left(1 + e^{-(\hat{\alpha} + \gamma S_k)}\right)$$

We sorted the fitted probabilities and calculated sensitivity and specificity by varying the risk threshold (the value compared with the fitted probability to dichotomize the subject into case or control) from 0 to 1. These were utilized to compute the area-under-the curve (AUC) of the receiver-operating-curve (ROC).

Identification of correlated coding variants and tagged non-SNP variation

LD estimates were calculated using genotype data of the identified risk loci (index SNPs $\pm 500\text{kb}$) of individuals with European ancestry from the 1000 Genomes Project (March 2012 release)⁶¹ or from HapMap (release #28)⁵⁹. Variants correlated ($r^2 > 0.6$) with one of the GWAS index SNPs were identified using PLINK⁵⁴. To filter coding variants, all correlated variants were mapped against RefSeq transcripts using ANNOVAR⁶².

Gene expression

We evaluated expression of genes within 100kb of one of the 19 index SNPs, as well as of several retina-specific, RPE-specific and housekeeping genes unrelated to AMD for comparison in retina (RNA-sequencing data from three young [17–35 yrs age] and two old individuals [75 and 77 yrs age]) as well as in fetal and adult retinal pigment epithelium (RPE; published data in the Gene Expression Omnibus database⁴⁵; GSE18811). Expression was analyzed using previously described protocols⁴⁴ (Supplementary Table 8).

Pathway analysis

Functional enrichment analysis was performed using the Ingenuity Pathway Analysis software (IPA, Ingenuity® Systems). Any gene located within 100kb of a SNP in high LD ($r^2 > 0.8$) with one of the index SNPs was considered a potential AMD risk associated gene and considered for subsequent pathway enrichment analysis. LD estimates were calculated as described above. Applying the above inclusion filters, 90 genes appear to be implicated by our 19 replicated AMD SNPs (Supplementary Table 8). Because genes with related function sometimes cluster in the same locus, we trimmed gene lists during analysis so that only one gene per locus was used to evaluate enrichment for each pathway. The P-value of the association between our implicated gene list and any of the canonical pathways and/or functional gene sets as annotated by IPA's Knowledge Base was computed using a one-sided Fisher's exact test. The Benjamini-Hochberg method was used to estimate False Discovery Rates. To evaluate significance of observed enrichment, we repeated our Ingenuity analysis starting with 50 lists of 19 SNPs randomly drawn from the NHGRI GWAS catalog⁴⁶ and, again, using the INRICH tool⁶³. When using INRICH, we used gene sets defined in the Broad's Molecular Signatures database⁴⁷ (ver3.0) representing manually curated canonical pathway, Gene Ontology biological process, cellular component and molecular function gene sets (C2:CP, C5:BP, C5:CC and C5:MF). We provided INRICH with our full GWAS SNP list and allowed it to carry out 100,000 permutations, matching selected loci in terms of gene count, SNP density and total number of SNPs.

REFERENCES

1. Swaroop, A., Chew, E.Y., Rickman, C.B. & Abecasis, G.R. Unravelling a Late-Onset Multifactorial Disease: From Genetic Susceptibility to Disease Mechanisms for Age-related Macular Degeneration. *Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet* 10, 19-43 (2009).
2. Seddon, J.M., Cote, J., Page, W.F., Aggen, S.H. & Neale, M.C. The US twin study of age-related macular degeneration: relative roles of genetic and environmental influences. *Archives of Ophthalmology* 123, 321-7 (2005).
3. Friedman, D.S. et al. Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in the United States. *Archives of Ophthalmology* 122, 564-72 (2004).
4. Edwards, A.O. et al. Complement factor H polymorphism and age-related macular degeneration. *Science* 308, 421-4 (2005).
5. Haines, J.L. et al. Complement factor H variant increases the risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Science* 308, 419-21 (2005).
6. Klein, R.J. et al. Complement factor H polymorphism in age-related macular degeneration. *Science* 308, 385-9 (2005).
7. Yates, J.R. et al. Complement C3 variant and the risk of age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med* 357, 553-61 (2007).
8. Gold, B. et al. Variation in factor B (BF) and complement component 2 (C2) genes is associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 38, 458-62 (2006).
9. Fagerness, J.A. et al. Variation near complement factor I is associated with risk of advanced AMD. *Eur J Hum Genet* 17, 100-4 (2009).
10. Hageman, G.S. et al. A common haplotype in the complement regulatory gene factor H (HF1/CFH) predisposes individuals to age-related macular degeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 102, 7227-32 (2005).
11. Maller, J.B. et al. Variation in complement factor 3 is associated with risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 39, 1200-1 (2007).
12. Rivera, A. et al. Hypothetical LOC387715 is a second major susceptibility gene for age-related macular degeneration, contributing independently of complement factor H to disease risk. *Hum Mol Genet* 14, 3227-36 (2005).
13. Jakobsdottir, J. et al. Susceptibility genes for age-related maculopathy on chromosome 10q26. *Am J Hum Genet* 77, 389-407 (2005).
14. Klaver, C.C. et al. Genetic association of apolipoprotein E with age-related macular degeneration. *American Journal of Human Genetics* 63, 200-6 (1998).
15. Souied, E.H. et al. The epsilon4 allele of the apolipoprotein E gene as a potential protective factor for exudative age-related macular degeneration. *American Journal of Ophthalmology* 125, 353-9 (1998).
16. McKay, G.J. et al. Evidence of association of APOE with age-related macular degeneration: a pooled analysis of 15 studies. *Human Mutation* 32, 1407-16 (2011).
17. Chen, W. et al. Genetic variants near TIMP3 and high-density lipoprotein-associated loci influence susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 107, 7401-6 (2010).
18. Neale, B.M. et al. Genome-wide association study of advanced age-related macular degeneration identifies a role of the hepatic lipase gene (LIPC). *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 107, 7395-400 (2010).
19. Yu, Y. et al. Common variants near FRK/COL10A1 and VEGFA are associated with advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Human Molecular Genetics* 20, 3699-709 (2011).
20. Arakawa, S. et al. Genome-wide association study identifies two susceptibility loci for exudative age-related macular degeneration in the Japanese population. *Nature Genetics* 43, 1001-4 (2011).
21. McCarthy, M.I. et al. Genome-wide association studies for complex traits: consensus, uncertainty and challenges. *Nat Rev Genet* 9, 356-69 (2008).
22. Li, Y., Willer, C.J., Sanna, S. & Abecasis, G.R. Genotype Imputation. *Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet* 10, 387-406 (2009).
23. Marchini, J., Howie, B., Myers, S., McVean, G. & Donnelly, P. A new multipoint method for genome-wide association studies by imputation of genotypes. *Nature Genetics* 39, 906-13 (2007).
24. Browning, B.L. & Browning, S.R. A unified approach to genotype imputation and haplotype-phase inference for large data sets of trios and unrelated individuals. *American Journal of Human Genetics* 84, 210-23 (2009).
25. Li, Y., Willer, C.J., Ding, J., Scheet, P. & Abecasis, G.R. MaCH: using sequence and genotype data to estimate haplotypes and unobserved genotypes. *Genetic Epidemiology* 34, 816-34 (2010).

26. Willer, C.J., Li, Y. & Abecasis, G.R. METAL: fast and efficient meta-analysis of genomewide association scans. *Bioinformatics* 26, 2190-1 (2010).
27. Skol, A.D., Scott, L.J., Abecasis, G.R. & Boehnke, M. Joint analysis is more efficient than replication-based analysis for two-stage genome-wide association studies. *Nat Genet* 38, 209-13 (2006).
28. Higgins, J.P., Thompson, S.G., Deeks, J.J. & Altman, D.G. Measuring inconsistency in meta-analyses. *BMJ* 327, 557-60 (2003).
29. Sobrin, L. et al. ARMS2/HTRA1 locus can confer differential susceptibility to the advanced subtypes of age-related macular degeneration. *American Journal of Ophthalmology* 151, 345-52 e3 (2011).
30. Seddon, J.M. et al. Association of CFH Y402H and LOC387715 A69S with progression of age-related macular degeneration. *JAMA* 297, 1793-800 (2007).
31. Li, M. et al. CFH haplotypes without the Y402H coding variant show strong association with susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration. *Nature Genetics* 38, 1049-54 (2006).
32. Maller, J. et al. Common variation in three genes, including a noncoding variant in CFH, strongly influences risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nature Genetics* 38, 1055-9 (2006).
33. Nejentsev, S., Walker, N., Riches, D., Egholm, M. & Todd, J.A. Rare variants of IFIH1, a gene implicated in antiviral responses, protect against type 1 diabetes. *Science* 324, 387-9 (2009).
34. Raychaudhuri, S. et al. A rare penetrant mutation in CFH confers high risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nature Genetics* 43, 1232-6 (2011).
35. Pruim, R.J. et al. LocusZoom: regional visualization of genome-wide association scan results. *Bioinformatics* 26, 2336-7 (2010).
36. Adzhubei, I.A. et al. A method and server for predicting damaging missense mutations. *Nat Methods* 7, 248-9 (2010).
37. Sivakumaran, T.A. et al. A 32 kb Critical Region Excluding Y402H in CFH Mediates Risk for Age-Related Macular Degeneration. *PLoS ONE* 6, e25598 (2011).
38. The Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium. Genome-wide association study of CNVs in 16,000 cases of eight common diseases and 3,000 shared controls. *Nature* 464, 713-20 (2010).
39. The 1000 Genomes Project. A map of human genome variation from population scale sequencing. *Nature* 467(2010).
40. Fritsche, L.G. et al. Age-related macular degeneration is associated with an unstable ARMS2 (LOC387715) mRNA. *Nat Genet* 40, 892-6 (2008).
41. Dewan, A. et al. HTRA1 promoter polymorphism in wet age-related macular degeneration. *Science* 314, 989-92 (2006).
42. Hughes, A.E. et al. A common CFH haplotype, with deletion of CFHR1 and CFHR3, is associated with lower risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 38, 1173-7 (2006).
43. Fritsche, L.G. et al. An imbalance of human complement regulatory proteins CFHR1, CFHR3 and factor H influences risk for age-related macular degeneration (AMD). *Human Molecular Genetics* 19, 4694-704 (2010).
44. Brooks, M.J., Rajasimha, H.K., Roger, J.E. & Swaroop, A. Next-generation sequencing facilitates quantitative analysis of wild-type and Nrl(-/-) retinal transcriptomes. *Molecular Vision* 17, 3034-54 (2011).
45. Strunnikova, N.V. et al. Transcriptome analysis and molecular signature of human retinal pigment epithelium. *Human Molecular Genetics* 19, 2468-86 (2010).
46. Hindorf, L.A. et al. Potential etiologic and functional implications of genome-wide association loci for human diseases and traits. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 106, 9362-7 (2009).
47. Subramanian, A. et al. Gene set enrichment analysis: a knowledge-based approach for interpreting genome-wide expression profiles. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 102, 15545-50 (2005).
48. Manolio, T.A. et al. Finding the missing heritability of complex diseases. *Nature* 461, 747-53 (2009).
49. So, H.C., Gui, A.H., Cherny, S.S. & Sham, P.C. Evaluating the heritability explained by known susceptibility variants: a survey of ten complex diseases. *Genetic Epidemiology* 35, 310-7 (2011).
50. Seddon, J.M., Reynolds, R., Yu, Y., Daly, M.J. & Rosner, B. Risk models for progression to advanced age-related macular degeneration using demographic, environmental, genetic, and ocular factors. *Ophthalmology* 118, 2203-11 (2011).
51. Devlin, B. & Roeder, K. Genomic control for association studies. *Biometrics* 55, 997-1004 (1999).
52. Wallace, C. et al. The imprinted DLK1-MEG3 gene region on chromosome 14q32.2 alters susceptibility to type 1 diabetes. *Nature Genetics* 42, 68-71 (2010).
53. Huang, L. et al. Genotype-imputation accuracy across worldwide human populations. *American Journal of Human Genetics* 84, 235-50 (2009).

54. Purcell, S. *et al.* PLINK: a tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. *Am J Hum Genet* 81, 559-75 (2007).
55. Aulchenko, Y.S., Struchalin, M.V. & van Duijn, C.M. ProbABEL package for genome-wide association analysis of imputed data. *BMC Bioinformatics* 11, 134 (2010).
56. Zeger, S.L. & Liang, K.Y. Longitudinal data analysis for discrete and continuous outcomes. *Biometrics* 42, 121-30 (1986).
57. Carey, V.J. Ported to R by Thomas Lumley and Brian Ripley. Note that maintainers are not available to give advice on using a package they did not author. gee: Generalized Estimation Equation solver. R package version 4.13-18. (2012).
58. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. ISBN 3-900051-07-0. (2012).
59. The International HapMap Consortium *et al.* Integrating common and rare genetic variation in diverse human populations. *Nature* 467, 52-8 (2010).
60. Nyholt, D.R. A simple correction for multiple testing for single-nucleotide polymorphisms in linkage disequilibrium with each other. *Am J Hum Genet* 74, 765-9 (2004).
61. The 1000 Genomes Project Consortium *et al.* An integrated map of genetic variation from 1,092 human genomes. *Nature* 491, 56-65 (2012).
62. Wang, K., Li, M. & Hakonarson, H. ANNOVAR: functional annotation of genetic variants from high-throughput sequencing data. *Nucleic Acids Res* 38, e164 (2010).
63. Lee, P.H., O'Dushlaine, C., Thomas, B. & Purcell, S.M. INRICH: interval-based enrichment analysis for genome-wide association studies. *Bioinformatics* 28, 1797-9 (2012).



Chapter 5.3

Genetic susceptibility, dietary antioxidants and long-term incidence of age-related macular degeneration in two populations

Jie Jin Wang, **Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk**, Elena Roichtchina, Kristine E. Lee, Barbara E. K. Klein, Cornelia M. van Duijn, Victoria M. Flood, Stacy M. Meuer, John Attia, Chelsea Myers, Elizabeth G. Holliday, Ava G. Tan, Wayne T. Smith, Sudha K. Iyengar, Paulus T.V.M. de Jong, Albert Hofman, Johannes R. Vingerling, Paul Mitchell, Ronald Klein*, Caroline C.W. Klaver*

* These authors contributed equally.

Published in *Ophthalmology*. 2014 Mar;121(3):667-75. doi: 10.1016/j.ophtha.2013.10.017. Epub 2013 Nov 28. PMID: 24290803

Supplementary materials available at: [http://www.aaojournal.org/article/S0161-6420\(13\)00942-1/addons](http://www.aaojournal.org/article/S0161-6420(13)00942-1/addons)

ABSTRACT

Objective To examine effect modification between genetic susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration (AMD) and dietary antioxidant or fish consumption on AMD risk.

Design Pooled data analysis of population-based cohorts

Participants Participants from the Blue Mountains Eye Study (BMES) and Rotterdam Study (RS).

Methods Dietary intakes of antioxidants (lutein/zeaxanthin (LZ), β -carotene and vitamin C), long-chain omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids and zinc were estimated from food frequency questionnaires. AMD genetic risk was classified according to number of risk alleles of *CFH* (rs1061170) and/or *ARMS2* (rs10490924) as low (none or 1 risk allele) or high (≥ 2 risk alleles). Interactions between dietary intake and genetic risk levels were assessed. Associations between dietary intake and AMD risk were assessed comparing the highest versus the two lower intake tertiles by genetic risk subgroups using discrete logistic regression, conducted in each study separately, and next in pooled data. Participants without AMD lesions at any visit were controls. We adjusted for age and sex in analyses of each cohort sample, and additionally adjusted for smoking status and study site in pooled-data analyses.

Main Outcome Measures All 15-year incident late AMD cases were confirmed by chief investigators of the Beaver Dam Eye Study, BMES and RS. Inter-grader reproducibility was assessed in an early AMD subsample, with 86.4% agreement between BMES and RS graders, allowing for a 1-step difference on a 5-step AMD severity scale.

Results In pooled data analyses we found significant interaction between AMD genetic risk status and LZ intake ($p=0.0009$) but non-significant interactions between genetic risk status and weekly fish consumption ($p=0.05$) for risk of any AMD. Among participants with high genetic risk, the highest intake tertile of LZ was associated with $>20\%$ reduced risk of early AMD, and weekly consumption of fish was associated with a 40% reduced risk of late AMD. No similar association was evident among participants with low genetic risk. No interaction was detected between β -carotene or vitamin C and genetic risk status.

Conclusions Protection against AMD from greater LZ and fish consumption in persons with high genetic risk based on two major AMD genes raises the possibility of personalized preventive interventions.

INTRODUCTION

Genetic predisposition for susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration (AMD) has been confirmed¹ with estimated heritability ranging from 46% to 71% and environmental exposures explaining some proportion of risk variance.²

The Age-Related Eye Disease Study (AREDS), a randomized controlled trial (RCT), documented that high dose zinc and antioxidant vitamin supplementation slowed AMD progression in advanced early AMD cases.³ Another RCT conducted in persons with geographic atrophy demonstrated that a lutein supplement over 12 months improved visual function.⁴ Although evidence about the protective association between dietary intake or serum levels of these carotenoids and AMD has been inconsistent, findings from a systematic review and meta-analysis support an association of dietary lutein/zeaxanthin (LZ) intake and reduced risk of late AMD.⁵

Previously, Blue Mountains Eye Study (BMES) and Rotterdam Study (RS) investigators independently documented that high dietary intake of LZ was associated with a reduced long-term risk of AMD.^{6,7} In addition, in the BMES cohort weekly consumption of fish was associated with reduced risk of late AMD only in participants with the *CFH* risk (CC) genotype.⁸ In the RS cohort high dietary intake of antioxidants reduced the risk of early AMD in persons with high genetic risk for AMD.⁹ The apparent protective effect observed in persons with genetic susceptibility to AMD^{8,9} suggests an effect modification between known AMD genetic variants and dietary long-chain omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (ω -3 PUFAs) or antioxidants.

Joint contributions and interactions between AMD-related genetic variants and other AMD risk factors (eg. smoking,^{10,11} inflammatory markers^{12,13}) have been documented previously, including an effect modification of dietary docosahexaenoic fatty acids (DHA, a component of ω -3 PUFAs) on risk of geographic atrophy in persons with the risk genotype of the *ARMS2* gene.¹⁴ The interplay between nature and nurture may provide a better understanding of why some, but not all, persons with AMD-related genetic risk variants develop this condition. Using pooled longitudinal data from two population-based cohorts, we aimed to assess the consistency of the suggested effect modification between AMD genetic susceptibility and dietary intake of antioxidants or fish in relation to the incidence of early, late and any (early and late) AMD.

METHODS

The BMES and RS are population-based cohort studies with follow-up periods of 15 years. Participants were predominantly white.

Blue Mountains Eye Study (BMES)

In 1992-4, 3654 residents (82.4% of those eligible) aged 49+ years, living in two postcode areas west of Sydney, Australia, participated in baseline examinations; 2335, 1952 and 1140 were re-examined after 5 (1997-9), 10 (2002-4) and 15 years (2007-10), respectively. There were 2452 baseline participants followed-up at least once. Each study visit was approved by the University of Sydney and the Sydney West Area Health Service Human Research Ethics Committees, and written, informed consent was obtained.

After pharmacological mydriasis, 30° stereoscopic color transparencies of the macula and optic disc, and non-stereoscopic color transparencies of another four subfields were taken, using a Zeiss FF3 fundus camera (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) for baseline, 5- and 10-year follow-up visits, and a 40° digital camera (Canon CF-60 DSi with a Canon EoS 1DS Mark II camera body, Canon Inc., Tokyo, Japan) for the 15-year follow-up examination.

Rotterdam Study (RS)

At baseline (1990-93), 7983 (77.7% participation rate) eligible persons aged 55+ years were interviewed and examined. Ophthalmological examinations and retinal photography were performed on 6419 participants. Of these, 4977, 3637, 2674 and 1452 were re-examined at the second (1993-95), third (1997-99), fourth (2002-04) and fifth (2009-11) visits, respectively. Overall, 3579 participants had genetic and baseline dietary data together with follow-up information, were free of late AMD at baseline, and were included. In order to correspond with the BMES follow-up visit intervals (each 5 years), participants of the second follow-up visit (1993-95) were excluded, except for incident late AMD cases that were included as incident AMD cases at the third visit (1997-99). Each visit was approved by the Erasmus Medical Center Ethics Committee and complied with the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants gave written informed consent prior to participation.

After pharmacological mydriasis, 35° stereoscopic color transparencies of the macula (Topcon TRV-50VT fundus camera, Topcon Optical Co, Tokyo, Japan) were taken in each of the first three visits, and 35° digital images (Topcon TRC 50EX fundus camera with the Sony DXC-950P digital camera, Topcon Optical Co, Tokyo, Japan) were taken in the fourth and fifth visits.

Age-related Macular Degeneration Phenotype Definitions and Harmonization

In both studies, retinal photographs of both eyes were graded by trained graders of each study initially,^{15;16} following the Wisconsin Age-related Maculopathy Grading System. Phenotype harmonization was performed within the Three Continent AMD Consortium.¹⁷ In brief, all late AMD incident cases detected from each study were initially adjudicated and confirmed by the retinal specialists of the corresponding study team, and then were confirmed by chief investigators of the BMES, RS and Beaver Dam Eye Study (BDES). A five-step severity scale (levels 10-50) was developed (Table 1, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). A subsample of 60 eyes covering various severity levels of early AMD was selected from the BDES and sent to BMES and RS teams to be graded independently. Exact agreement on the 5-step severity scale was 61.0% between BMES and RS graders; allowing a 1-step difference increased agreement to 86.4%.

Assessment of Dietary Intake

In the BMES, a validated¹⁸ 145-item, semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire (FFQ), modified from an early FFQ by Willett et al¹⁹, was used. The FFQ was completed and returned by 3267 baseline participants (89.4%), of which 2900 (88.8%) were considered usable.¹⁸

The electronic version of the Australian Tables of Food Composition 1990²⁰ was used to calculate the intake of most nutrients. The intake of ω -3 PUFA was calculated by adding dietary consumption of eicosapentaenoic (20:5, n-3) and docosahexaenoic (22:6, n-3) fatty acids. Information on fish consumption was obtained from the FFQ and regular fish consumption was defined as ≥ 1 serving per week, compared to < 1 serving per week.

In the RS, baseline dietary information was collected in 2 stages. First, participants completed a checklist at home. Second, a face-to-face interview was conducted by a trained dietitian at the research center, using a 170-item validated semi-quantitative FFQ.²¹ Using the computerized Dutch Food Composition Table, these dietary data, including intakes of vitamins and zinc, were converted to total energy and nutrient intakes per day.²¹ Intake of specific fatty acids was based on a food composition database derived from the TRANSFAIR Study.²² Beta-carotene and LZ were updated using an additional database of the Netherlands Institute of Public Health and Environmental Protection (personal communication, YCJ Vollebregt and EJM Feskens, unpublished observations, 1993).²³

Genotyping BMES

In the BMES, genotyping was performed using the Illumina Human 670-QuadV1 custom genotyping array at the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, Sanger Institute, Cambridge, as part of the Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2. After quality checking,²⁴ genotypes of 2534 participants (544,802 single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)) were used for imputation. Genotypes were imputed from the 1000 Genomes (Version 1) reference using IMPUTE software (<https://mathgen.stats.ox.ac.uk/impute/impute.html>, accessed June 4, 2013).

In addition, genotype data were obtained previously for rs1061170 in *CFH*, and rs10490924 in *ARMS2* for participants who attended the 5-year follow-up visit.⁸ We therefore used the genotyped SNPs of these two whenever available. The concordance rate between typed and imputed genotypes was 99.61% for rs1061170 and 99.26% for rs10490924 based on participants who had both typed and imputed data of these two SNPs.

Genotyping RS

In the RS, genotyping was performed using TaqMan assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA). The two SNPs (rs1061170 in *CFH* and rs10490924 in *ARMS2*) were successfully genotyped in 6345 and 6411 participants, respectively, and 6260 had both SNPs typed.⁹ In addition, for participants without genotype data, imputed data of these two SNPs were obtained from a genome-wide association scan dataset, genotyped using the Illumina Infinium II HumanHap5. Imputation was performed using Markov Chain Haplotyping package version 1.0.15 software (<http://www.sph.umich.edu/csg/abecasis/MACH/>, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA, accessed June 4, 2013) and HapMap CEU data (NCBI build 36, release 22, The International HapMap Project). There were 6478 participants with both SNPs either typed or imputed.

Statistical Analysis

Of the 2534 BMES participants with dietary and genotype data available, 680 participated in the BMES Extension Study (1999-2000) who had not been followed, leaving 1854 included in this report. Of the 3579 RS baseline participants with follow-up information, dietary and genotype data available, 2778 were followed at the third, fourth and/or fifth visits and thus included. Characteristics between participants who were included and excluded were compared by each study (Table 2, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). Distributions of baseline AMD risk factors by incident AMD categories are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3 - Baseline Characteristics of Blue Mountains Eye Study and Rotterdam Study Populations by Incidence of Age-related Macular Degeneration (AMD)

Characteristics	Incident Age-related macular degeneration (AMD)							
	Blue Mountains Eye Study			Rotterdam Study				
	Controls (level 10)	Early (levels 20-40)	Late (levels 50)	Any (levels 20-50)	Controls (level 10)	Early (levels 20-40)	Late (levels 50)	Any (levels 20-50)
Total numbers (N)	723	467	88	555	2006	657	115	772
Mean age in years (SD)	61.3 (7.6)	64.9 (7.7)	70.6 (7.1)	65.8 (7.9)	65.01 (6.41)	65.57 (6.46)	69.67 (6.55)	66.18 (6.63)
Gender (% of men)	45.1	39.4	31.8	38.2	42.1	41.3	38.3	40.8
Smoking status (%)								
never	47.9	55.1	51.1	54.5	33	33.2	29.8	32.7
past	36.7	34.4	29.1	33.6	45.4	46.2	43.9	45.8
current	15.4	10.5	19.8	11.9	21.6	20.6	26.3	21.4
Regular fish consumption (%)								
At least weekly	64.1	60.4	44.3	57.8	39.9	40.9	37.4	40.4
Genotype (%)								
<i>CFH</i> (rs10661170)								
TT	42.3	34.9	21.8	32.8	46.4	33.8	22.6	32.1
CT	46.2	46.9	50.6	47.5	43.9	49.7	44.4	48.9
CC	11.5	18.2	27.6	19.7	9.8	16.5	33	19
<i>ARMS2</i> (rs10490924)								
GG	64.9	57.7	49.4	56.3	65.2	56.7	40	54.2
TG	30.8	37.2	42.5	38.1	31.3	38.4	52.2	40.5
TT	4.3	5.1	8.1	5.6	3.5	4.9	7.8	5.3
Genetic risk level (% with 0, 1 or 2 risk alleles from the <i>CFH</i> and <i>ARMS2</i> genes)								
0	27.5	18.9	9.3	17.3	29.2	20.8	5.2	18.5
1	41.5	42.9	36.1	41.7	45.1	38	37.4	37.9
2	31	38.2	54.7	40.9	25.7	41.2	57.4	43.6
Phenotype (%)*								
Early AMD	-	-	61.4	-	-	-	62.6	-
Large soft drusen	-	-	46.3	-	-	-	47	-
Retinal pigmentary abnormality	-	-	47.6	-	-	-	31.3	-

AMD = age-related macular degeneration; *CFH* = complement factor H; *ARMS2* = age-related maculopathy susceptibility 2; SD = standard deviation.
 * Among participants who developed late AMD over the follow-up period, proportions with early AMD or early AMD lesions at study baseline.

We compared dietary intakes between Australian and Netherlandish people using national survey data of the two countries (Table 4, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). The most recent published food survey data available are from the 1995 Australian National Survey,^{25,26} and the Dutch National Food Consumption Survey 2007-2010.²⁷ Main macronutrient intakes were also compared between BMES and RS baseline populations (Table 5, available at <http://aaojournal.org>).

We used energy-adjusted dietary intakes of antioxidants (LZ, β carotene, vitamin C), ω -3PUFA, zinc and fish consumption as dietary exposures, and incident early, late or any (early and late combined) AMD as outcome variables. Controls were participants who had no early or late AMD lesions at all visits (level 10 on the severity scale; Table 1, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). Given the substantial differences in estimates for population means of dietary antioxidant intake between the two studies, we used population-specific tertiles in analyses, and examined tertile distributions of dietary antioxidant intake by incident early, late and any AMD (Table 6). We initially examined the associations of these dietary intakes with risk of AMD across three tertiles, and detected a threshold between the highest and the two lower intake tertiles. We therefore decided to compare the highest vs the two lower tertiles in all models, referenced to controls.

To assess if there were effect modifications between the selected dietary intakes and genetic susceptibility to AMD, using the two variants of major AMD-related genes (*CFH*, rs1061170 and *ARMS2*, rs10490924) we grouped participants' genetic risk of AMD into three levels: 1) having no risk alleles of either *CFH* (rs1061170) or *ARMS2* (rs10490924); 2) having 1 risk allele from either of the two genes; and 3) having ≥ 2 risk alleles from either or both of these genes. We tested for statistical interactions between genetic risk status according to the above grouping and the dietary exposures by adding product terms of the gene risk levels with one dietary exposure at a time, together with the genetic risk status and the dietary exposure in each of the discrete logistic regression models. We adjusted for age, sex and smoking in analyses performed within each study, and additionally adjusted for study site in analyses of pooled data of the two studies (Table 7, available at <http://aaojournal.org>).

We further compared the highest intake tertile versus the two lower tertiles in subgroups stratified by the three AMD genetic risk levels, with 15-year incident early, late or any AMD as the dependent variable and time-to-event as the discrete variable in logistic regression models. We adjusted for age and sex in all models, one model for each dietary exposure, in analyses of data from each study separately (Table 8), and adjusted for age, sex, smoking status and study indicator in pooled data analyses (Table 9).

Risk estimations are presented as odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs). SAS (Version 9.2, SAS Institute, Cary, NC) was used for all analyses. OR above (or below) 1 indicated an increase (or decrease) in risk associated with the highest intake tertile relative to the risk associated with the lower intake tertiles.

TABLE 6 - Incident Age-related Macular Degeneration Cases and Controls by Tertiles of Baseline Nutrient Intake in the Blue Mountains Eye Study and Rotterdam Study Cohorts

Dietary Antioxidant Intake/day (range)	Blue Mountains Eye Study					Rotterdam Study						
	Population Mean (SD)	First tertile	Second tertile	Third tertile	Population Mean (SD)	First tertile	Second tertile	Third tertile	Population Mean (SD)	First tertile	Second tertile	Third tertile
	Lutein/zeaxanthin (µg), mean (range)	912 (490)	442 (0-642)	810 (642-1005)	1425 (1005-4870)	2365 (1070)	1478 (101-1918)	2252 (1919-2610)	3362 (2610-32645)			
% of persons by tertile:												
Controls		30.7	32	37.3			31.2	34.4			34.4	34.4
Incident early AMD		28.9	36.8	34.3			30.9	33.5			35.6	35.6
Incident late AMD		31.8	39.8	28.4			33.9	38.3			27.8	27.8
Incident any AMD		29.40%	37.3	33.3			31.3	34.2			34.5	34.5
Beta carotene (µg), mean (range)	7311 (4156)	3290 (0-5159)	6703 (5159-8299)	11512 (8299-43699)	4009 (2227)	2400 (200-3193)	3754 (3193-4363)	5871 (4364-53376)				
% of persons by tertile:												
Controls		33.3	34	32.6			32.3	33.3			34.4	34.4
Incident early AMD		29.1	34.9	36			32.9	32.7			34.4	34.4
Incident late AMD		25	34.1	40.9			32.2	38.3			29.6	29.6
Incident any AMD		28.5	34.8	36.8			32.8	33.5			33.7	33.7
Vitamin C (mg), mean (range)	182 (88)	98 (0-136)	167 (136-201)	272 (201-999)	120 (53)	70 (0-95)	113 (95-133)	177 (133-659)				
% of persons by tertile:												
Controls		30.6	32.9	36.5			33.2	32.9			33.9	33.9
Incident early AMD		31.7	34.7	33.6			29.2	36.4			34.4	34.4
Incident late AMD		31.8	34.1	34.1			30.4	38.3			31.3	31.3
Incident any AMD		31.7	34.6	33.7			29.4	36.7			33.9	33.9
Omega-3 PUFA (g), mean (range)	0.22 (0.25)	0.05 (0-0.11)	0.16 (0.11-0.22)	0.45 (0.22-3.30)	0.15 (0.21)	0.024 (0-0.05)	0.1 (0.05-0.15)	0.32 (0.15-0.64)				
% of persons by tertile:												
Controls		31.5	32.9	35.6			32.3	32.7			35	35
Incident early AMD		33	34.5	32.5			33.6	33			33.3	33.3
Incident late AMD		29.6	37.5	32.9			32.2	36.5			31.3	31.3
Incident any AMD		32.4	35	32.6			33.4	33.6			33	33
Zinc (mg), mean (range)	12 (2.3)	9.6 (4.4-10.8)	11.6 (10.8-12.5)	14.2 (12.5-31.4)	11 (2)	8.5 (3.7-9.7)	10.6 (9.7-11.4)	12.8 (11.4-24.9)				
% of persons by tertile:												
Controls		33.3	33.2	33.5			32.9	32.6			34.6	34.6
Incident early AMD		28.9	34.3	36.8			28.9	35.8			35.3	35.3
Incident late AMD		21.6	34.1	44.3			41.7	29.6			28.7	28.7
Incident any AMD		27.8	34.2	38			30.8	34.8			34.3	34.3

Abbreviations: AMD = age-related macular degeneration; LZ = lutein/zeaxanthin; PUFA = polyunsaturated fatty acid; SD = standard deviation

TABLE 8 - Associations of dietary antioxidants with incidence of early and late stage age-related macular degeneration by subgroups of the population with none, one only, or two or more risk alleles of the *CFH* and *ARMS2* genes combined.

Risk Factors	Blue Mountains Eye Study						Rotterdam Study		
	Genetic Risk Group = 0 risk allele from <i>CFH</i> or <i>ARMS2</i>						Genetic Risk Group = 0 risk allele from <i>CFH</i> or <i>ARMS2</i>		
	Early AMD (n=80)	Late AMD (n=8)	Any AMD (n=88)	Early AMD (n=136)	Late AMD (n=6)	Any AMD (n=142)	Early AMD (n=136)	Late AMD (n=6)	Any AMD (n=142)
Age (per 10yrs)	2.26 (1.61, 3.17)	11.55 (2.86, 46.72)	2.36 (1.71, 3.27)	1.67 (1.23, 2.26)	9.24 (2.40, 35.65)	1.80 (1.34, 2.41)	1.67 (1.23, 2.26)	9.24 (2.40, 35.65)	1.80 (1.34, 2.41)
Female	1.41 (0.86, 2.32)	-	1.53 (0.94, 2.48)	0.98 (0.68, 1.41)	0.39 (0.07, 2.25)	0.94 (0.66, 1.35)	0.98 (0.68, 1.41)	0.39 (0.07, 2.25)	0.94 (0.66, 1.35)
Current smoking	1.54 (0.67, 3.57)	-	1.53 (0.66, 3.54)	1.05 (0.66, 1.65)	1.41 (0.15, 13.66)	1.07 (0.68, 1.67)	1.05 (0.66, 1.65)	1.41 (0.15, 13.66)	1.07 (0.68, 1.67)
Fish (≥ 1 serving/week)†	1.12 (0.68, 1.85)	1.79 (0.36, 8.80)	1.10 (0.68, 1.78)	1.20 (0.84, 1.72)	0.35 (0.04, 3.10)	1.16 (0.81, 1.65)	1.20 (0.84, 1.72)	0.35 (0.04, 3.10)	1.16 (0.81, 1.65)
Lutein/zeaxanthin*	0.99 (0.60, 1.65)	0.30 (0.03, 2.64)	0.93 (0.57, 1.53)	1.95 (1.33, 2.86)	1.60 (0.28, 9.24)	1.93 (1.32, 2.82)	1.95 (1.33, 2.86)	1.60 (0.28, 9.24)	1.93 (1.32, 2.82)
Vitamin C*	0.96 (0.57, 1.62)	0.31 (0.04, 2.76)	0.91 (0.55, 1.50)	0.88 (0.60, 1.31)	1.30 (0.21, 7.88)	0.90 (0.61, 1.32)	0.88 (0.60, 1.31)	1.30 (0.21, 7.88)	0.90 (0.61, 1.32)
Risk Factors	Genetic Risk Group = 1 risk allele from <i>CFH</i> or <i>ARMS2</i>						Genetic Risk Group = 1 risk allele from <i>CFH</i> or <i>ARMS2</i>		
	Early AMD (n=181)	Late AMD (n=31)	Any AMD (n=212)	Early AMD (n=248)	Late AMD (n=43)	Any AMD (n=291)	Early AMD (n=248)	Late AMD (n=43)	Any AMD (n=291)
	Early AMD (n=181)	Late AMD (n=31)	Any AMD (n=212)	Early AMD (n=248)	Late AMD (n=43)	Any AMD (n=291)	Early AMD (n=248)	Late AMD (n=43)	Any AMD (n=291)
Age (per 10yrs)	2.46 (1.95, 3.10)	12.39 (6.13, 25.01)	2.59 (2.10, 3.20)	1.83 (1.48, 2.27)	5.61 (3.39, 9.29)	2.08 (1.70, 2.54)	1.83 (1.48, 2.27)	5.61 (3.39, 9.29)	2.08 (1.70, 2.54)
Female	1.21 (0.85, 1.71)	2.74 (1.12, 6.69)	1.24 (0.89, 1.72)	1.26 (0.96, 1.67)	1.31 (0.68, 2.52)	1.25 (0.97, 1.63)	1.26 (0.96, 1.67)	1.31 (0.68, 2.52)	1.25 (0.97, 1.63)
Current smoking	1.41 (0.84, 2.37)	2.28 (0.67, 7.78)	1.38 (0.85, 2.23)	1.19 (0.85, 1.66)	2.14 (1.02, 4.50)	1.26 (0.93, 1.72)	1.19 (0.85, 1.66)	2.14 (1.02, 4.50)	1.26 (0.93, 1.72)
Fish (≥ 1 serving/week)†	0.94 (0.66, 1.34)	0.90 (0.39, 2.06)	0.96 (0.68, 1.34)	0.84 (0.63, 1.11)	1.14 (0.60, 2.16)	0.87 (0.67, 1.13)	0.84 (0.63, 1.11)	1.14 (0.60, 2.16)	0.87 (0.67, 1.13)
Lutein/zeaxanthin*	0.85 (0.60, 1.21)	1.34 (0.55, 3.23)	0.90 (0.64, 1.27)	0.94 (0.71, 1.24)	0.90 (0.47, 1.73)	0.94 (0.72, 1.22)	0.94 (0.71, 1.24)	0.90 (0.47, 1.73)	0.94 (0.72, 1.22)
Vitamin C*	0.91 (0.64, 1.31)	1.82 (0.78, 4.24)	0.98 (0.70, 1.38)	0.90 (0.67, 1.20)	0.87 (0.44, 1.72)	0.99 (0.78, 1.29)	0.90 (0.67, 1.20)	0.87 (0.44, 1.72)	0.99 (0.78, 1.29)
Risk Factors	Genetic Risk Group = 2+ risk alleles from <i>CFH</i> and <i>ARMS2</i>						Genetic Risk Group = 2+ risk alleles from <i>CFH</i> and <i>ARMS2</i>		
	Early AMD (n=161)	Late AMD (n=47)	Any AMD (n=208)	Early AMD (n=269)	Late AMD (n=66)	Any AMD (n=335)	Early AMD (n=269)	Late AMD (n=66)	Any AMD (n=335)
	Early AMD (n=161)	Late AMD (n=47)	Any AMD (n=208)	Early AMD (n=269)	Late AMD (n=66)	Any AMD (n=335)	Early AMD (n=269)	Late AMD (n=66)	Any AMD (n=335)
Age (per 10yrs)	2.15 (1.69, 2.72)	5.94 (3.59, 9.83)	2.45 (1.96, 3.06)	2.00 (1.60, 2.51)	6.37 (4.07, 9.97)	2.48 (2.01, 3.06)	2.00 (1.60, 2.51)	6.37 (4.07, 9.97)	2.48 (2.01, 3.06)
Female	0.99 (0.69, 1.42)	2.22 (1.09, 4.52)	1.06 (0.76, 1.48)	0.87 (0.66, 1.14)	1.18 (0.68, 2.05)	0.89 (0.69, 1.15)	0.87 (0.66, 1.14)	1.18 (0.68, 2.05)	0.89 (0.69, 1.15)
Current smoking	1.02 (0.57, 1.83)	3.43 (2.50, 7.84)	1.20 (0.74, 1.94)	1.03 (0.74, 1.44)	2.03 (1.11, 3.74)	1.16 (0.86, 1.57)	1.03 (0.74, 1.44)	2.03 (1.11, 3.74)	1.16 (0.86, 1.57)
Fish (≥ 1 serving/week)†	0.71 (0.49, 1.03)	0.18 (0.08, 0.38)	0.62 (0.44, 0.87)	0.99 (0.76, 1.30)	1.05 (0.61, 1.81)	1.01 (0.78, 1.30)	0.99 (0.76, 1.30)	1.05 (0.61, 1.81)	1.01 (0.78, 1.30)
Lutein/zeaxanthin*	0.76 (0.51, 1.13)	0.58 (0.28, 1.20)	0.72 (0.50, 1.04)	0.78 (0.59, 1.05)	0.70 (0.38, 1.29)	0.77 (0.59, 1.01)	0.78 (0.59, 1.05)	0.70 (0.38, 1.29)	0.77 (0.59, 1.01)
Vitamin C*	0.66 (0.44, 0.98)	0.42 (0.20, 0.87)	0.67 (0.47, 0.96)	1.02 (0.77, 1.35)	0.73 (0.41, 1.29)	0.97 (0.75, 1.25)	1.02 (0.77, 1.35)	0.73 (0.41, 1.29)	0.97 (0.75, 1.25)

Abbreviations: AMD = age-related macular degeneration, ARMS2 = age-related maculopathy susceptibility 2, CFH = complement factor H, LZ = lutein/zeaxanthin.

Data are shown as age- and sex-adjusted odds ratios (95% confidence interval)

* Population-specific tertiles with the highest versus others two (middle+lowest) tertiles. -

† Compared to persons with fish consumption <1 serving/week.

TABLE 9- Associations of Dietary Antioxidants with Incidence of Early and Late Age-related Macular Degeneration by subgroups of population with none, one, or two or more risk alleles of the *CFH* and *ARMS2* genes

Genetic Risk Group = 0 risk allele from <i>CFH</i> or <i>ARMS2</i>			
Dietary Factors	Early AMD (n=215)	Late AMD (n=14)	Any AMD (n=229)
Fish (≥1 serving/week)†	1.17 (0.87, 1.57)	0.91 (0.29, 2.84)	1.14 (0.85, 1.51)
Lutein/zeaxanthin*	1.47 (1.09, 1.97)	0.65 (0.17, 2.43)	1.40 (1.05, 1.87)
Vitamin C*	0.91 (0.67, 1.24)	0.78 (0.20, 2.95)	0.91 (0.67, 1.23)
Genetic Risk Group = 1 risk allele from <i>CFH</i> or <i>ARMS2</i>			
Dietary Factors	Early AMD (n=429)	Late AMD (n=74)	Any AMD (n=503)
Fish (≥1 serving/week)†	0.87 (0.70, 1.08)	0.98 (0.59, 1.63)	0.90 (0.73, 1.10)
Lutein/zeaxanthin*	0.91 (0.73, 1.13)	1.06 (0.63, 1.79)	0.92 (0.75, 1.13)
Vitamin C*	0.94 (0.75, 1.17)	1.33 (0.79, 2.24)	0.96 (0.78, 1.19)
Genetic Risk Group =2+ risk alleles from <i>CFH</i> and <i>ARMS2</i>			
Dietary Factors	Early AMD (n=430)	Late AMD (n=112)	Any AMD (n=542)
Fish (≥1 serving/week)†	0.89 (0.71, 1.10)	0.54 (0.35, 0.85)	0.84 (0.69, 1.03)
Lutein/zeaxanthin*	0.78 (0.62, 0.99)	0.64 (0.40, 1.03)	0.75 (0.60, 0.93)
Vitamin C*	0.87 (0.70, 1.10)	0.67 (0.43, 1.06)	0.86 (0.70, 1.06)

Pooled data of BMES & RS, adjusting for age, sex, smoking and study site indicator

Abbreviations: AMD = age-related macular degeneration, *ARMS2* = age-related maculopathy susceptibility 2, BMES = Blue Mountains Eye Study, *CFH* = complement factor H, LZ = lutein/zeaxanthin, RS = Rotterdam Study

*Population-specific tertiles with the highest versus the other 2 (middle and lowest) tertiles, adjusted for age, sex, smoking, energy intake, and study site.

† Compared to persons with fish consumption <1 serving/week.

RESULTS

Comparisons of characteristics between the 1854 included and the 1800 excluded BMES participants, and between the 2778 included and the 3641 excluded RS participants, showed that those excluded were older, and more likely to have a history of diabetes or cardiovascular conditions, and early AMD. After adjusting for age, the significant differences in early AMD and AMD lesion distributions between the two groups disappeared (Table 2, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). In the BMES, excluded participants had lower mean intake levels of dietary antioxidants and ω -3 PUFA, compared to those who were included. In the RS, excluded and included participants had similar mean intake levels of dietary oxidants and ω -3 PUFA (Table 2, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). Of the 1800 BMES excluded participants, 32% died before the 5-year follow-up examination. Of the 3641 RS excluded participants, 22% died before the 6-year follow-up examination.

Of the 1854 BMES participants, 723 had no AMD at all visits, 467 had incident early AMD and 88 had incident late AMD. Of the 2778 RS participants, the corresponding numbers were 2006 without AMD, 657 with incident early AMD and 115 with incident late AMD.

As expected, the mean ages of the incident AMD groups were higher compared to controls. In addition, crude data comparisons confirmed that in both the incident early and late AMD groups, the proportions of participants homozygous for the risk genotypes of *CFH* and *ARMS2* were higher compared to controls, as were the proportions of current smokers in the late AMD groups (Table 3).

Comparison of Australian^{25,26} and Dutch²⁷ national food consumption survey data (Table 4, available at <http://aaojournal.org>) showed that Australian men and women aged 45-64 years consumed more fruits, seafood and meat/poultry products than Dutch men and women aged 51-69 years. Although vegetable consumption levels were similar between Australian and Dutch men and women of similar age groups, Australians consumed less leafy vegetables than the Dutch, and Australian men consumed more carrots/root vegetables than Dutch men. Consumption levels of energy and other dietary items/food groups, macronutrients and micronutrients were similar, except for iron intake, which was substantially lower among Dutch men and women. We could not find data on LZ consumption levels from the national survey reports.²⁵⁻²⁷

Energy and main macronutrient intake levels were similar between the BMES and RS populations (Table 5, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). While the mean intakes of ω -3 PUFA and zinc were similar between the two populations, the mean intakes of LZ (higher in the RS) and β carotene (higher in the BMES) differed substantially (Table 6). A consistent pattern was evident in both study samples that relatively lower proportions of participants in the incident late AMD group were in the highest intake tertile of LZ and ω -3 PUFA (Table 6).

Significant interaction between AMD genetic risk status and LZ intake with respect to risk of early or any AMD was evident in the RS but not the BMES. In pooled data analyses of the two cohorts, we found a significant interaction between AMD genetic risk status and LZ intake with respect to risk of early AMD ($p=0.002$) or any AMD ($p=0.0009$), and a marginally non-significant interaction between AMD genetic risk status and weekly consumption of fish ($p=0.05$) (Table 7, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). These interaction p values are smaller than the corresponding significance levels required after Bonferroni correction for three interaction tests for the three dietary factors ($p<0.05/3=0.017$). There was no significant interaction found between vitamin C, β -carotene or zinc intake and AMD genetic risk status on AMD risk.

We next stratified the study samples according to their genetic risk levels and investigated the associations between baseline weekly consumption of fish, dietary intakes of LZ or vitamin C and incidence of early, late or any AMD in each study (Table 8), and then in pooled data of the two studies (Table 9). In the subgroup with ≥ 2 risk alleles of *CFH* and/or *ARMS2*, weekly fish consumption and the highest tertile intake of vitamin C were associated with reduced risk of any AMD in the BMES but not the RS (Table 8). There was a marginally non-significant association between the highest tertile intake of LZ and reduced risk of any AMD in both studies, where the association magnitude was 28% and 23% risk reduction in the BMES and RS, respectively (Table 8).

In pooled data analysis of the two cohorts, among participants with ≥ 2 risk alleles of the *CFH* and/or *ARMS2*, a significant association between weekly consumption of fish and a 46% reduction in late AMD risk was evident. Similarly, significant associations were evident between the highest tertile intake of LZ and 22%-25% risk reduction in early and any AMD. The highest tertile intakes of LZ and vitamin C were non-significantly associated with an approximately 35% risk reduction in late AMD (Table 9). In the other two subgroups with no or one risk allele, no similar associations were evident (Tables 8 and 9).

DISCUSSION

By using data from two population-based cohorts we showed consistent evidence that participants with ≥ 2 risk alleles of either or both the *CFH* (rs1061170) and/or *ARMS2* (rs10490924) had a significantly reduced risk of early or any AMD, if they frequently consumed food items rich in LZ.

Findings from the BMES and RS individually were less consistent for the effect modification of weekly consumption of fish or high dietary vitamin C intake with AMD genetic risk level on AMD risk (Table 8, bottom panel). Pooling data from the two cohorts and incorporating three follow-up visits with similar time intervals, we demonstrated a significant association of regular fish consumption with a 46% reduction in late AMD risk, and a marginally non-significant association between high intake of vitamin C and reduced risk of late or any AMD, among participants with high genetic risk of AMD (Table 9, bottom panel). These two effect modifications, however, appear to be driven by findings from the BMES. In contrast, the association between the highest tertile of LZ intake and reduced risk of early or any AMD in those with high genetic risk was driven by the findings from the RS, but the direction of the protective association was relatively consistent across the two cohorts, with risk estimates around 0.7-0.8, although not reaching statistical significance (Table 8, bottom panel). This effect modification became significant when data were pooled, with a 22% risk reduction in early AMD in participants with high genetic risk (Table 9, bottom panel).

A recent report from the AREDS2 documented a protective effect of LZ supplement use over 5 years compared to no LZ use on AMD progression in persons in the lowest quintile of dietary LZ intake.²⁷ The relatively short follow-up duration and lack of stratified analyses conducted in genetic risk subgroups may explain the non-significant findings in primary analyses.²⁸

A beneficial effect of ω -3 PUFA and fish consumption on AMD²⁹⁻³¹ has been reported previously, where the anti-inflammatory property of ω -3 PUFA³² is considered to be one of the underlying mechanisms. In addition, there is increasing recognition that a lipid metabolism pathway may be a key element in the course of AMD development.³³ The outer segments of photoreceptors, subjected to high photo-oxidative stress, have high concentrations of PUFAs and high oxygen tension, and PUFAs are susceptible to oxidation in the presence of oxygen or oxygen-derived radical species.³⁴ It is possible that lipid oxidation/ peroxidation products activate or amplify local inflammatory processes via the complement system,^{33;35;36} and that ω -3 PUFA and antioxidants may counteract these processes. Evidence on possible mechanisms is emerging.³⁷

Lutein and zeaxanthin are components of macular xanthophylls and dihydroxy-carotenoids. The light filtering capability is a passive antioxidant function of LZ, and thus potentially prevents blue light from generating reactive oxygen species.³⁸ LZ may also have an anti-inflammatory property.³⁹ Our findings are in keeping with these known functions of ω -3 PUFA and LZ. The effect modification of LZ on participants with high AMD genetic risk suggests the possibility that susceptibility to activation and amplification of the complement pathways can be compensated by these antioxidants. An analogous observation is the significant association between blue light exposure and neovascular AMD in persons with low levels of plasma LZ, and vitamins C and E.⁴⁰

The reliability of dietary data collected in nutritional epidemiology studies may be a concern. We compared dietary consumption survey data between two countries²⁵⁻²⁷ (Table 4, available at <http://aaojournal.org>) and between two study samples (Table 5, available at <http://aaojournal.org>), that showed similar intake levels of energy, most main food groups and macronutrients between the two countries and the two study populations. The concordance of most dietary intakes between the

two populations suggests that the FFQs used and the resulting dietary data are likely to be robust, regardless of which specific FFQ was used. Nevertheless, we noticed differences in the intake levels of some food items between the two countries. The relatively high intake level of leafy vegetables by the Dutch and the relatively high intake level of carrots/root vegetables by Australian men, together with higher proportions of Australians eating these vegetables, may partly explain the differences in population mean intake levels of LZ and β carotene (Table 4, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). Different LZ intake estimation methods used by the two studies may also contribute to the difference in mean intake estimates of this nutrient.

Strengths of this study include long-term follow-up of population-based samples, photographic documentation of AMD status with incident late AMD cases cross-validated, and reasonable inter-grader reproducibility on early AMD detection between study graders. A major limitation of this study is a degree of heterogeneity in dietary intake patterns and consumption levels of some micronutrients between the two populations. We have used relative measures for dietary intakes and adjusted for different study sites in the statistical models. Findings for relative measures are directly applicable to populations of specific geographic locations regardless of absolute intake levels. Other limitations include survival bias to which our cohorts are subject, non-availability of serum or plasma nutrient levels and lack of specific data for oily fish consumption. Misclassification or reduced power from these limitations will tend to bias the associations towards the null. There was no evidence supporting associations between mortality and the two genotypes or the dietary antioxidants under investigation, so survival bias should have only minimal effect on the associations. Even with pooled data from two cohorts, we had a limited numbers of late AMD cases and therefore insufficient power to detect a significant association between LZ intake and late AMD incidence in the high genetic risk subgroup (Table 9).

Caution is needed in interpreting these findings. Nutrients do not work alone but interact with genes and the internal environment of the host, which may be influenced by many factors such as lifestyle, intestinal microorganisms and the uptake ability of the host, all of which may lead to differences in bioavailability of specific nutrients on disease pathways.

In conclusion, we showed that dietary intake of LZ is associated with an approximate 20% reduction in risk of developing early AMD among persons with high genetic risk of AMD. The relatively consistent pattern of the effect modifications between LZ intake and AMD-related genetic risk levels in our two cohorts may have clinical implications in the management of AMD patients. Future studies are warranted to confirm this effect modification of major AMD-related genes and dietary intake of antioxidants on the risk of AMD. Our findings also highlight the importance of incorporating information from both genetic and environmental exposures to capture the complexity of disease pathways and pathogenesis of conditions such as AMD.

REFERENCES

1. The AMD Gene Consortium. Seven New Loci Associated with Age-Related Macular Degeneration. *Nature Genet* 2013;45:433-9.
2. Seddon JM, Cote J, Page WF, et al. The US twin study of age-related macular degeneration: relative roles of genetic and environmental influences. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2005;123:321-7.
3. Age-Related Eye Disease Study Research Group. A randomized, placebo-controlled, clinical trial of high-dose supplementation with vitamins C and E, beta carotene, and zinc for age-related macular degeneration and vision loss. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2001;119:1417-36.
4. Richer S, Stiles W, Statkute L, et al. Double-masked, placebo-controlled, randomized trial of lutein and antioxidant supplementation in the intervention of atrophic age-related macular degeneration: the Veterans LAST study (Lutein Antioxidant Supplementation Trial). *Optometry* 2004;75:216-30.
5. Ma L, Dou HL, Wu YQ, et al. Lutein and zeaxanthin intake and the risk of age-related macular degeneration: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Nutr* 2012;107:350-9.
6. Tan JS, Wang JJ, Flood V, et al. Dietary antioxidants and the long-term incidence of age-related macular degeneration: the Blue Mountains Eye Study. *Ophthalmology* 2008;115:334-41.
7. van Leeuwen R, Boekhoorn S, Vingerling JR, et al. Dietary intake of antioxidants and risk of age-related macular degeneration. *JAMA* 2005;294:3101-7.
8. Wang JJ, Rochtchina E, Smith W, et al. Combined effects of complement factor H genotypes, fish consumption, and inflammatory markers on long-term risk for age-related macular degeneration in a cohort. *Am J Epidemiol* 2009;165:633-41.
9. Ho L, van Leeuwen R, Wittman JC, et al. Reducing the genetic risk of age-related macular degeneration with dietary antioxidants, zinc, and omega-3 fatty acids: the Rotterdam study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2011;129:758-66.
10. Schmidt S, Hauser MA, Scott WK, et al. Cigarette smoking strongly modifies the association of *LOC387715* and age-related macular degeneration. *Am J Hum Genet* 2006;78:852-64.
11. Seddon JM, George S, Rosner B, Klein ML. *CFH* gene variant, Y402H, and smoking, body mass index, environmental associations with advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Hered* 2006;61:157-65.
12. Wang JJ, Ross RJ, Tuo J, et al. The *LOC387715* polymorphism, inflammatory markers, smoking, and age-related macular degeneration. A population-based case-control study. *Ophthalmology* 2008;115:693-9.
13. Baird PN, Robman LD, Richardson AJ, et al. Gene-environment interaction in progression of AMD: the *CFH* gene, smoking and exposure to chronic infection. *Hum Mol Genet* 2008;17:1299-305.
14. Reynolds R, Rosner B, Seddon JM. Dietary omega-3 fatty acids, other fat intake, genetic susceptibility, and progression to incident geographic atrophy. *Ophthalmology* 2013;120:1020-8.
15. Mitchell P, Wang JJ, Foran S, Smith W. Five-year incidence of age-related maculopathy lesions: the Blue Mountains Eye Study. *Ophthalmology* 2002;109:1092-7.
16. van Leeuwen R, Klaver CC, Vingerling JR, et al. The risk and natural course of age-related maculopathy: follow-up at 6 1/2 years in the Rotterdam study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2003;121:519-26.
17. Klein R, Meuer SM, Myers CE, et al. Harmonizing the classification of age-related macular degeneration in the Three Continent AMD Consortium. *Ophthalmic Epidemiology* (in press, accepted 10 July, 2013)
18. Smith W, Mitchell P, Reay EM, et al. Validity and reproducibility of a self-administered food frequency questionnaire in older people. *Aust N Z J Public Health* 1998;22:456-63.
19. Willett WC, Sampson L, Browne ML, et al. The use of a self-administered questionnaire to assess diet four years in the past. *Am J Epidemiol* 1988;127:188-99.
20. Lewis J, English R. NUTTAB 90: nutrient data table for use in Australia [database on floppy disc]. Canberra: Government Publishing Service; 1990.
21. Klipstein-Grobusch K, den Breeijen JH, Goldbohm RA, et al. Dietary assessment in the elderly: validation of a semiquantitative food frequency questionnaire. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 1998;52:588-96.
22. van Poppel G, van Erp-Baart MA, Leth T, et al. Trans fatty acids in foods in Europe: the TRANSFAIR Study. *J Food Compos Anal* 1998;11:112-36.
23. Klipstein-Grobusch K, Geleijnse JM, den Breeijen JH, et al. Dietary antioxidants and risk of myocardial infarction in the elderly: the Rotterdam Study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1999;69:261-6.
24. Holliday EG, Smith AV, Cornes BK, et al. Insights into the genetic architecture of early stage age-related macular degeneration: a genome-wide association study meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE* 2013;8:e53830.
25. Australian Bureau of Standards. 4804.0 - National Nutrition Survey: Foods Eaten, Australia 1995. 1999. Available at: <http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/0/9A125034802F94CECA2568A9001393CE>. Accessed July 28, 2013.
26. Australian Bureau of Standards. 4805.0 - National Nutrition Survey: Nutrient Intakes and Physical

- Measurements, Australia 1995. 1998. Available at: <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/95E87FE64B144FA3CA2568A9001393C0>. Accessed July 28, 2013.
27. van Rossum CT, Fransen HP, Verkaik-Kloosterman J, et al. Dutch National Food Consumption Survey 2007-2010. The Netherlands: National Institute for Public Health and the Environment. 2011. RIVM report 350050006/2011. Available at: <http://www.rivm.nl/bibliotheek/rapporten/350050006.pdf>. Accessed July 28, 2013.
 28. Age-Related Eye Disease Study 2 Research Group. Lutein + zeaxanthin and omega-3 fatty acids for age-related macular degeneration: the Age-Related Eye Disease Study 2 (AREDS2) randomized clinical trial. *JAMA* 2013;309:2005-15.
 29. Seddon JM, Rosner B, Sperduto RD, et al. Dietary fat and risk for advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2001;119:1191-9.
 30. Seddon JM, Cote J, Rosner B. Progression of age-related macular degeneration: association with dietary fat, transunsaturated fat, nuts, and fish intake. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2003;121:1728-37.
 31. Cho E, Hung S, Willett WC, et al. Prospective study of dietary fat and the risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2001;73:209-18.
 32. Rangel-Huerta OD, Aguilera CM, Mesa MD, Gil A. Omega-3 long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids supplementation on inflammatory biomarkers: a systematic review of randomised clinical trials. *Br J Nutr* 2012;107(suppl):S159-70.
 33. Gorin MB. Genetic insights into age-related macular degeneration: controversies addressing risk, causality, and therapeutics. *Mol Aspects Med* 2012;33:467-86.
 34. Winkler BS, Boulton ME, Gottsch JD, Sternberg P. Oxidative damage and age-related macular degeneration. *Mol Vis* [serial online] 1999;5:32. Available at: <http://www.molvis.org/molvis/v5/a32/>. Accessed July 28, 2013.
 35. Anderson DH, Radeke MJ, Gallo NB, et al. The pivotal role of the complement system in aging and age-related macular degeneration: hypothesis re-visited. *Prog Retin Eye Res* 2010;29:95-112.
 36. Scholl HP, Charbel Issa P, Walier M, et al. Systemic complement activation in age-related macular degeneration. *PLoS ONE* [serial online] 2008;3:e2593.
 37. Ramkumar HL, Tuo J, Shen de F, et al. Nutrient supplementation with n3 polyunsaturated fatty acids, lutein, and zeaxanthin decrease A2E accumulation and VEGF expression in the retinas of *Ccl2/Cx3cr1*-deficient mice on *Crb1rd8* background. *J Nutr* 2013;143:1129-35.
 38. Krinsky NI, Landrum JT, Bone RA. Biologic mechanisms of the protective role of lutein and zeaxanthin in the eye. *Annu Rev Nutr* 2003;23:171-201.
 39. Li SY, Fung FK, Fu ZJ, et al. Anti-inflammatory effects of lutein in retinal ischemic/hypoxic injury: in vivo and in vitro studies. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2012;53:5976-84.
 40. Fletcher AE, Bentham GC, Agnew M, et al. Sunlight exposure, antioxidants, and age-related macular degeneration. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2008;126:1396-4



Chapter 6.1

Prediction of age-related macular degeneration in the general population: The Three Continent AMD Consortium

Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk, Elena Roichtchina, Chelsea Myers, Cornelia M van Duijn, Kristine E. Lee, Barbara E.K. Klein, Stacy M. Meuer, Paulus T.V.M. de Jong, Elizabeth G. Holliday, Ava G. Tan, André G. Uitterlinden, Theru A. Sivakumaran, John Attia, Albert Hofman, Paul Mitchell, Johannes R. Vingerling, Sudha K. Iyengar, A. Cecile J.W. Janssens, Jie Jin Wang*, Ronald Klein*, Caroline C.W. Klaver MD PhD*

*These authors contributed equally.

Published in *Ophthalmology*, 2013 Dec;120(12):2644-55. doi: 10.1016/j.ophtha.2013.07.053. Epub 2013 Oct 10. PMID: 24120328

Supplementary material is available at: [http://www.aaojournal.org/article/S0161-6420\(13\)00693-3/addons](http://www.aaojournal.org/article/S0161-6420(13)00693-3/addons)

ABSTRACT

Purpose Prediction models for age-related macular degeneration (AMD) based on case-control studies have a tendency to over-estimate risks. The aim of this study is to develop a prediction model for late AMD based on data from population-based studies.

Design Three population-based studies: the Rotterdam Study (RS), the Beaver Dam Eye Study (BDES), and the Blue Mountains Eye Study (BMES) from the Three Continent AMD Consortium (3CC).

Participants Persons (n=10,106) with gradable fundus photographs, genotype data, and follow up data without late AMD at baseline.

Methods AMD features were graded on fundus photographs using the 3CC AMD severity scale. Associations with known genetic and environmental AMD risk factors were tested using Cox proportional hazard analysis. In RS, the prediction of AMD was estimated for multivariate models by area under receiver operating characteristic curves (AUC). The best model was validated in BDES and BMES, and associations of variables were re-estimated in the pooled data set. Betas were used to construct a risk score, and risk of incident late AMD was calculated using Cox proportional hazard analysis. Cumulative incident risks were estimated using Kaplan-Meier product-limit analysis.

Main Outcome Measure Incident late AMD determined per visit during a median follow up period of 11.1 years with a total of 4-5 visits.

Results Overall, 363 participants developed incident late AMD, 3378 early AMD, and 6365 remained free of any AMD. The highest AUC was achieved with a model including age, sex, 26 single nucleotide polymorphisms in AMD risk genes, smoking, BMI, and baseline AMD phenotype. The AUC of this model was 0.88 in RS; 0.85 in BDES and BMES at validation; and 0.87 in the pooled analysis. Individuals with low risk scores had a hazard ratio (HR) 0.02 (95% confidence interval [CI] 0.01-0.04) to develop late AMD; those with high risk scores had HR 22.0 (95%CI 15.2-31.8). Cumulative risk of incident late AMD ranged from virtually 0 to over 65% for those with the highest risk scores.

Conclusion Our prediction model is robust and distinguishes well between those who will develop late AMD and those who will not. Estimated risks were lower in these population-based studies than in previous case-control studies.

INTRODUCTION

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is the leading cause of blindness in the elderly of industrialized countries^{1,2}. Approximately 21 million elderly individuals are affected worldwide, and this number is expected to rise dramatically with the aging population^{3,4}. AMD can be divided in several stages; early AMD, characterized by subcellular deposits (drusen) and pigmentary changes, and late AMD, subdivided into atrophy of the retinal pigment epithelium (dry AMD) and choroidal neovascularization (wet AMD). Despite improved treatment options, late AMD can cause irreversible blindness, while severe stages of early AMD are mostly asymptomatic they signal a high risk of progression to late AMD⁵.

Age, early AMD phenotype, and genetic and environmental factors play important roles in the pathogenesis of late AMD⁶⁻¹¹. These factors may be used to predict this end stage and to identify high risk individuals. Reasons for assessing predictive values may be risk-dependent (personalized) patient care and surveillance strategies for therapy. Future intervention research such as randomized controlled clinical trials can use prediction models to select individuals with a high risk of outcome events.

Previously reported prediction models were based on selections of cases and non-affected controls¹²⁻²⁸. Most studies compared only the extreme ends of disease, excluding the majority of the population with an intermediate disease risk. This has inherent methodological concerns, because the disease risk is overestimated by design. Population-based studies include a whole spectrum of risk levels, and therefore findings from these studies would be more generalizable²⁹ and better suited for clinical implementation.

In this study, we present a prediction model for late AMD based on population-based cohort studies from three continents. We optimized a prediction model in one of the cohorts, and subsequently validated this in the other two cohorts. We included established genetic, environmental, and clinical risk factors in the model, assessed relative as well as cumulative risks, and provided a risk score which can be used to estimate the risk of AMD in individuals.

METHODS

For this paper we followed the guidelines for genetic risk prediction studies (GRIPS)³⁰.

Study Populations

The Three Continent AMD Consortium (3CC) consists of four population-based studies: the European Rotterdam Study (RS), the American Beaver Dam Eye Study (BDES) and the Los Angeles Latino Eye Study (LALES), and the Australian Blue Mountains Eye Study (BMES). For the purposes of this study, LALES was excluded due to absence of genotype and follow up data.

The RS is a prospective population-based cohort study investigating chronic diseases in the elderly. All inhabitants aged 55 years and older living in a suburb of Rotterdam, the Netherlands, were invited to participate in the study^{31,32}. Of the initial cohort of 10,275 eligible individuals, 7,983 (78% of those eligible) participated in the overall study (98% Caucasian). The ophthalmologic part began later, and included 6780 participants (78% of those eligible) participated. Baseline examinations took place from 1990-1993, and four follow-up examinations were performed in 1993-1995, 1997-1999,

2002-2004 and 2009-2011, respectively. The Erasmus Medical Center Ethics Committee approved the study, which complies with the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants gave written informed consent for participation in the study.

The BDES is a prospective cohort study investigating eye diseases in the population of Beaver Dam, Wisconsin (USA)³³. To identify all residents in the city or township of Beaver Dam who were 43 to 84 years of age, a private census was performed from 1987-1988. Of the 5,924 eligible individuals, 4,926 (83% of those eligible) participated in the baseline examination between 1988-1990 (99% Caucasian). There were follow-up examinations every five years; 1993-1995, 1998-2000, 2003-2005, 2008-2010. BDES was approved by the Institutional review board from the University of Wisconsin-Madison and adhered to the tenants of the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants provided signed, informed consent for participation in the study.

The BMES is a prospective cohort study of eye diseases and other health outcomes in an urban population³⁴. All residents aged 49 years or older, living in two postcode areas of the Blue Mountains region in West Sydney, Australia, were invited to participate in the study. In 1992-1994 baseline examinations were performed in 3,654 participants (82.4% of those eligible). Re-examinations were performed after five, ten and fifteen years (in 1997-1999, 2002-2004 and 2007-2009, respectively). All BMES examinations were approved by the Human Research Ethics Committees of the Western Sydney Area Health Service and the University of Sydney, and complied the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants provided written informed consent for participation of the study.

Participants were eligible for the current analysis when genotype data, as well as gradable fundus photographs at baseline, and at least one follow-up eye-examination were available (Figure 1, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). Persons with late AMD at baseline were excluded. This resulted in 4753 (RS), 3542 (BDES) and 1811 (BMES) participants available for analysis, with a median follow-up of 10.7 (Interquartile range [IQR] 12.8; RS), 15.6 (IQR 10.4; BDES), 11.8 (IQR 5.6; BMES) years. In total, 10,106 participants with a median follow-up of 11.1 (IQR 11) years were included in the analysis. To investigate possible selection bias, we analyzed whether persons excluded from this study differed in baseline level of AMD from those who were included. The two groups did not differ in early AMD levels (10-40) after adjustment for age and sex ($P=0.95$).

Diagnosis of AMD

All participants underwent fundus photography after pharmacologic mydriasis. Fundus transparencies of all studies were graded according to the Wisconsin Age-Related Maculopathy Grading^{35,36} by trained graders under the supervision of senior retinal specialists or senior researchers (RS: PTVMdJ, JRV, CCWK; BDES: RK, BEK; BMES: JJW and PM). The graded fundus photographs were classified using a classification common to all studies: the 3CC AMD severity scale³⁷ (Table 1, available at <http://aaojournal.org>). All prevalent and incident late AMD cases from each of these three studies were cross-checked by investigators of the other two studies, with consensus obtained via discussion over multiple teleconferences. The eyes of each participant were graded and classified separately; and the eye with the more severe grade was used to classify the person.

Genotyping

Genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral blood leukocytes. All eligible study participants in the RS were genotyped with the Illumina Infinium II HumanHap550 array, or Taqman assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA). HapMap CEU data (release #22) was used for imputation.

DNA from BDES participants was extracted from the buffy coats of blood obtained at baseline examinations or subsequent exams that have been stored frozen at -80°C . DNA samples arrayed in 96-well plates were submitted for genotyping via an Illumina iSelect Custom Genotyping Panel (Illumina Inc, CA, USA) at the Genomics Core Facility at Case Western Reserve University, or via the KASP Assay at LCG Genomics (Teddington, Middlesex, UK). The data collected was analyzed using Illumina's Genome Studio, or via the KASP SNP Genotyping System. The assays were controlled for quality by examining cluster separation values, call frequency, ABR mean values and ABT mean values. Untyped SNPs were imputed using HapMap CEU (release #22) as reference.

In the BMES, all participants with DNA available were genotyped using Illumina Human670-Quad v1 custom array at the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, Sanger Institute, Cambridge as part of the Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2 (WTCCC2). A smaller subset of participants ($N = 1,356$) was also independently genotyped using the Illumina 610-Quad genotyping array at the Hunter Medical Research Institute, Newcastle, Australia. Following quality control, the genotyped data were imputed from the 1000 Genomes (Version 1) reference using IMPUTE software.

Selection of Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs)

For selection of AMD genes, we reviewed publications on AMD genetics^{38,39} and prediction of AMD¹²⁻²⁸. From these, we selected 41 tag SNPs which were available in all three cohorts, and which were not in linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 < 0.60$). Genotypes of SNPs were coded as 0 for carriers of two major alleles; 1 for the heterozygous genotype; and 2 for carriers of two minor alleles. When none of the cases were carriers of two minor alleles, genotypes of the SNPs were coded as 0 for carriers of two major alleles; and 1 for all carriers of at least one minor allele. As a first step, each SNP was tested for association with late AMD in all three cohorts.

For each locus with multiple SNPs, we performed a backwards Cox proportional hazard analysis to determine the best predictive SNPs for incident late AMD within each locus with data from the RS.

Assessment of non-genetic variables

All non-genetic variables used in the analyses were assessed using baseline data. Information on cigarette smoking was obtained in an interview at baseline and categorized as never, former, and current for smoking. Height, weight and blood pressure were measured at the beginning of baseline examination. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated by dividing weight (kg) by the height squared (m^2). The BMI variable was categorized as not overweight or obese ($\text{BMI} < 25$) and overweight or obese ($\text{BMI} > 25$). Age (yrs) at baseline was categorized in three categories; < 65 , $65-75$, > 75 years. Baseline AMD grading was entered into the analysis as categorized variables with levels 10-40.

Statistical analyses

Throughout the entire study, incident late AMD was used as the outcome variable; non-incident late AMD, including those persons remaining at an early AMD stage, were used as the reference group. All analyses were performed using SPSS version 20.0; SPSS INC, Chicago, Illinois.

Variables were analyzed for association with incident late AMD in the three cohorts using Cox proportional hazard analysis, adjusting for age and gender. We constructed five different models based on a minimal and a maximal selection of clinical, genetic, and environmental factors. Model 1 was a minimal model including only age and sex; model 2 was a non-genetic model including age, sex, environmental and ocular factors; model 3 was a minimal genetic model including age, sex, and major genetic AMD risk variants (*CFH* Y402H, *ARMS2* A69S, *C3* R102G, *C2* L9H, *CB* R32Q); model

4 was a maximal genetic model including age, sex, and 26 genetic AMD risk variants (see section SNP selection above), and model 5 was a maximal gene-environmental model including age, sex, environmental, ocular factors, and the 26 genetic AMD risk variants. For each model, we calculated the area under the curve (AUC) of incident late AMD in the RS, and validated the best model in BDES/BMES.

Subsequently, we estimated the association of all variables in the best model using multivariate Cox proportional hazard analysis in the pooled dataset of all three cohorts and calculated the AUC. Calibration of the model was tested using the Hosmer-Lemeshow test. This goodness of fit test shows how well predicted risks match the observed risks. To test whether non-major genetic AMD risk variants could be discarded from this model without jeopardizing the AUC, backwards regression (eliminating SNPs with $P > 0.05$) using Cox proportional hazard analysis was carried out and the AUC of the new model was calculated within the pooled dataset. In this dataset, we estimated the beta of each variable from the best model using multivariate Cox proportional hazard analysis. The estimated beta of a variable was the individual risk score of that variable. Next, we created a summary risk score based on the sum of the betas from the multivariate Cox proportional hazard analysis. Risk scores were rounded off, and frequencies of the risk scores were plotted stratified for incident late AMD and no AMD. We calculated risk of incident late AMD with the middle risk score (3) as the reference using Cox proportional hazard analysis. Risk scores at the extreme ends were pooled to increase sample size due to limited numbers.

We calculated the cumulative risk of incident late AMD per risk score. We assigned the age of onset for incident late AMD as the median between the examination at which late AMD was first observed and the previous examination. For participants who did not develop late AMD, we used age at last examination for censoring. All participants aged 90+ years were censored at age 90 to maintain unbiased estimates. Risks were calculated using Kaplan-Meier product-limit analysis. Participants who died or were lost to follow-up were censored at the time of the last examination. Cumulative risks stratified for the risk score were compared with the overall cumulative risk based on incidence of late AMD (prior risk) using log-rank tests of equality (Mantel-Cox).

Missing data were encountered in the analysis of each model. Only participants with data on all variables in the model entered the analysis.

RESULTS

In total, 363 persons developed incident late AMD during a median follow-up (fup) time of 11.1 years (IQR 11), of which 132 cases in RS (fup 10.7; IQR 12.8), 153 cases in BDES (fup 15.6; IQR 10.4), and 78 cases in BMES (fup 11.8; IQR 5.6). Incidence rates for the three studies were 2.89/1000 person-years (PY), 2.96/1000 PY, and 3.66/1000 PY for RS, BDES and BMES respectively. The distribution of demographic characteristics and environmental risk factors differed slightly among the three cohorts (Table 2). Since the inclusion criteria for age were higher than for the other studies, participants in the RS were older. Early AMD (level 20-40) at baseline was more frequent in RS participants; BMI was higher in BDES participants; and current smokers were less frequent in BMES participants. The frequency of genetic risk alleles was not significantly different among the three studies, although there were slight differences in genotype distributions. Visual inspection of a principle component analysis of all genetic data against HapMap CEU data (NCBI build 36, release 22) as reference showed similar plots for the three cohorts (data not shown).

TABLE 2 - General characteristics of participants included in the analysis

Age inclusion	RS (N=4753) aged 55+	BDES (N=3542) aged 45+	BIMES (N=1811) aged 49+	Age inclusion Variables	RS (N=4753) aged 55+	BDES (N=3542) aged 45+	BIMES (N=1811) aged 49+
Variables							
Age (yrs); Mean (SD)	67.6 (7.8)	60.2 (10.4)	64.0 (8.3)	MYRIP rs2679798			
Age categorized				AA	30.3	34.5	29.9
=< 65	42.5	67.3	56.8	AG	49.7	47.5	48.9
65-75	39.1	24.0	33.1	GG	20.0	18.1	21.1
75+	18.4	8.7	10.1	SKIV2L rs429608			
Gender; % Males	42.4	42.5	42.8	GG	74.4	74.7	71.4
AMD baseline grade				GA	23.6	23.1	26.7
Level 10	83.8	80.2	87.4	AA	2.0	2.2	1.9
Level 20	9.1	14.0	8.8	ABAC1 rs1883025			
Level 30	6.0	5.2	3.4	CC	54.4	56.3	55.5
Level 40	1.1	0.6	0.3	CT	39.3	38.3	37.8
Smoking				TT	6.3	5.4	6.7
Never	33.9	45.1	51.4	CEFP rs3764261			
Past	43.5	34.9	37.1	CC	46.4	44.5	45.3
Current	22.6	20.0	11.5	CA	43.1	44.8	45.6
BMI (kg/m ²); Mean (SD)	26.3 (3.6)	28.8 (5.4)	26.2 (4.2)	AA	10.5	10.7	9.1
BMI categorized				TIMP3 rs5749482			
=<25	38.3	24.9	41.7	GG	78.7	78.0	75.8
25+	61.7	75.1	58.3	CG/CC	21.3	22.0	24.2
CFH (Y402H) rs1061170				VEGFA rs943080			
TT	41.8	39.7	42.5	CC	24.9	26.6	26.6
TC	45.0	47.0	46.5	TC	49.8	48.9	49.7
CC	13.1	13.4	11.0	TT	25.3	24.4	23.8
CFH rs12144939				COL8A1 rs13081855			
GG	64.3	64.2	65.1	GG	82.4	82.8	82.3
GT	31.8	31.3	30.8	GT	16.9	16.3	16.9
TT	3.9	4.5	4.1	TT	0.7	0.9	0.8
CFH rs800292				TNFRSF10A rs13278062			
GG	52.6	59.8	56.9	TT	28.0	26.3	27.0
GA	40.0	35.0	37.2	GT	49.8	51.7	49.9
AA	5.3	5.3	6.0	GG	22.2	21.9	23.1

TABLE 2 - (continued)

Age inclusion	RS (N=4753) aged 55+	BDES (N=3542) aged 45+	BMES (N=1811) aged 49+	Age inclusion	RS (N=4753) aged 55+	BDES (N=3542) aged 45+	BMES (N=1811) aged 49+
ARM52 (A69S) rs10490924				FRK/COL10A1 rs3812111			
GG	62.6	60.7	62.0	TT	42.9	38.6	39.1
GT	33.6	34.8	34.0	AT	44.8	47.3	46.9
TT	3.8	4.5	4.0	AA	12.3	14.1	14.0
C2/CFB (L9H) rs4151667				SLC76A8 rs8135665			
TT	90.8	90.7	91.1	CC	63.1	65.0	61.8
TA/AA	9.2	9.3	8.9	CT	32.7	31.3	33.7
C2/CFB (R32Q) rs641153				TT	4.2	3.7	4.4
GG	84.4	83.7	81.9	ADAMTS9 rs6795735			
GA/AA	15.6	16.3	18.1	CC	33.9	33.5	36.6
C3 (R102G) rs22230199				TC	50.1	49.2	46.2
CC	61.3	64.8	67.9	TT	15.9	17.3	17.2
CG	33.9	31.2	28.8	TGFBRT rs334353			
GG	4.8	4.0	3.3	TT	58.1	54.7	54.8
C3 rs433594				GT	36.1	39.0	38.8
GG	39.4	39.4	35.1	GG	5.9	6.3	6.5
GA	45.7	46.0	49.3	RAD51B rs8017304			
AA	14.9	14.6	15.6	AA	38.2	38.8	41.9
CFI rs10033900				AG	46.6	47.9	44.1
CC	27.4	25.6	27.6	GG	15.2	13.3	14.0
CT	48.6	50.7	50.1	IERS3/DDRT rs3130783			
TT	24	23.7	22.4	AA	64.5	64.9	62.3
LPL rs256				AG	32.0	26.0	33.4
CC	73.1	72.6	72.3	GG	3.5	9.2	4.3
CT/TT	26.9	27.4	27.7	B3GALT1 rs9542236			
LIPC rs12912415				TT	31.0	31.9	33.1
AA	71.5	70.8	72.6	CT	48.7	49.3	48.1
AG/GG	28.5	29.2	27.4	CC	20.3	18.7	18.8

Data are percentages unless otherwise indicated

Abbreviations: AMD, age-related macular degeneration; BDES, Beaver Dam Eye Study; BMES, Blue Mountains Eye Study; BMI, body mass index; RS, Rotterdam Study; SD, standard deviation; yrs, years

Risk factors were tested separately for association with incident late AMD in all cohorts, adjusting for age and sex. (Table 3, available at <http://aaajournal.org>). Most SNPs in the genes *CFH*, *ARMS2*, *CFHR5* were significant in all three cohorts ($P < 0.05$). SNPs in the genes *LIPC*, *TIMP3*, *ADAMTS9*, *IER3/DDR1*, *TNFRSF10A*, *TGFBR1*, and *B3GALTL* were not significant in any single cohort. In all other genes, SNPs were significant in at least one of the cohorts. In all three studies, increasing severity levels of early AMD stages at baseline, based on the 3-CC AMD severity scale (Table 1, available at <http://aaajournal.org>) was associated with a highly significant risk of incident late AMD. Of the environmental risk factors, current smoking showed a significant association in the RS and BMES, BMI showed no significant association with incident late AMD in all three cohorts. To determine the best set of markers for each locus, all SNPs were analyzed per locus in a multivariate Cox proportional hazard analysis. A total of 26 SNPs were found to be suitable for further analyses.

Prediction models were built using various sets of risk factors, and tested in RS (Table 4). Model 1, a minimal model which included only age and sex, provided an AUC of 0.60 (95% confidence interval [CI] 0.55-0.65). Adding environmental and ocular factors improved the AUC to 0.78 (95% CI 0.74-0.82, model 2). Adding only major AMD genes to model 1 increased the AUC to 0.73 (95% CI 0.69-0.78, model 3). Next, a maximal genetic model was created which included all 26 SNPs. This increased the AUC to 0.82 (95% CI 0.79-0.86, model 4). Finally, we combined all variables from models 1-4 to assess the best possible prediction. This resulted in an AUC of 0.88 (95% CI 0.85-0.90, model 5). Validation of this model in the pooled dataset of BDES and BMES (Table 5) showed an AUC of 0.85 (95% CI 0.82-0.88). To further improve the prediction model, we pooled all three cohorts and re-estimated the risks of the variables included in model 5 (Table 6). The AUC in the three cohorts combined was 0.87 (95% CI 0.85-0.89) and the model had a good calibration ($P = 0.55$). We also investigated the possibility to minimize this model. Using backwards regression, 13 SNPs could be excluded from the model and provided a somewhat lower AUC of 0.86 (95% CI 0.84-0.88) (Table 7, available at <http://aaajournal.org>). The model with the best AUC in the three cohorts combined dataset was used for further analyses.

We calculated a risk score (Table 6) based on the betas from the pooled analysis, which ranged from -3.99 to 7.56. We rounded off the estimates and plotted their distribution stratified for incident or no incident late AMD (Figure 2). The plot showed a bimodal distribution with a large frequency difference between the groups for scores lower than 2, and scores greater than 3. The frequencies of risk scores 2 and 3 showed relatively small differences between cases and non-cases. Of note, all persons ($n=8$) with risk score 8 had risk alleles in the *CFH*, *ARMS2*, and *C3* genes, and no protective alleles in *C2/CFB*. By contrast, all persons with risk score -3 ($n=29$) carried a protective variant in *C2/CFB*, and were free of variants in *CFH* and *ARMS2*, except one person who carried a heterozygous variant in *ARMS2*. Risk of incident late AMD for individuals with risk score 6 to 8 was HR 23.2 (95% CI 15.9-34.0); for those with risk score -3 to 0 HR 0.02 (95% CI 0.01-0.04).

Cumulative risk of incident late AMD was calculated for each risk score, and compared to the overall AMD cumulative risk of incident late AMD. Individuals ($n=181$) with risk score 6 to 8 had a cumulative risk of 65.6% (SE 0.057) to develop late AMD at age 90 years, while those ($n=2751$) with risk score -3 to 0 had virtually no risk of developing incident late AMD (0.5%; SE 0.002). The overall risk of AMD for our study population prior to testing was 17.4% (SE 0.013) at age 90 (Figure 3), which was significantly different from all strata apart from risk score 3 ($P = 0.71$).

TABLE 4 - Predictive values for the tested models in the Rotterdam Study

Model	Variables	AUC (95% CI)	SE	No late AMD/ Late AMD (N)
1	Minimal model Age Sex	0.60 (0.55-0.65)	0.023	4621/132
2	Non genetic model Age Sex AMD baseline grade Smoking BMI	0.78 (0.74-0.82)	0.022	4561/132
3	Minimal genetic model Age Sex <i>ARMS2</i> rs10490924 <i>CFH</i> rs1061170 <i>C2/CFB</i> rs641153 <i>C3</i> rs2230199 <i>C2/CFB</i> rs4151667	0.73 (0.69-0.78)	0.022	4226/121
4	Maximal genetic model Age Sex <i>ARMS2</i> rs10490924 <i>CFH</i> rs800292 <i>CFH</i> rs12144939 <i>CETP</i> rs3764261 <i>C2/CFB</i> rs641153 <i>COL8A1</i> rs13081855 <i>C2/CFB</i> rs4151667 <i>C3</i> rs433594 <i>TGBR1</i> rs334353 <i>SKIV2L</i> rs429608 <i>C3</i> rs2230199 <i>VEGFA</i> rs943080 <i>ADAMTS9</i> rs6795735 <i>CFH</i> rs1061170 <i>TIMP3</i> rs5749482 <i>IER3/DDR1</i> rs3130783 <i>LPL</i> rs256 <i>MYRIP</i> rs2679798 <i>SLC16A8</i> rs8135665 <i>RAD51B</i> rs8017304 <i>CFI</i> rs10033900	0.82 (0.79-0.86)	0.016	4226/121

TABLE 4 - (continued)

Model	Variables	AUC (95% CI)	SE	No late AMD/ Late AMD (N)
	<i>FRK/COL10A1</i> rs3812111			
	<i>ABCA1</i> rs1883025			
	<i>B3GALTL</i> rs9542236			
	<i>LIPC</i> rs12912415			
	<i>TNFRSF10A</i> rs13278062			
5	Maximal gene-environment model	0.88 (0.85-0.90)	0.015	4171/121
	Age			
	Sex			
	<i>ARMS2</i> rs10490924			
	<i>CFH</i> rs12144939			
	<i>CFH</i> rs800292			
	<i>C3</i> rs433594			
	<i>C2/CFB</i> rs641153			
	<i>TGBR1</i> rs334353			
	<i>SKIV2L</i> rs429608			
	<i>CETP</i> rs3764261			
	<i>C2/CFB</i> rs4151667			
	<i>IER3/DDR1</i> rs3130783			
	<i>C3</i> rs2230199			
	<i>ADAMTS9</i> rs6795735			
	<i>LPL</i> rs256			
	<i>COL8A1</i> rs13081855			
	<i>SLC16A8</i> rs8135665			
	<i>FRK/COL10A1</i> rs3812111			
	<i>CFH</i> rs1061170			
	<i>TIMP3</i> rs5749482			
	<i>VEGFA</i> rs943080			
	<i>MYRIP</i> rs2679798			
	<i>CFI</i> rs10033900			
	<i>TNFRSF10A</i> rs13278062			
	<i>RAD51B</i> rs8017304			
	<i>B3GALTL</i> rs9542236			
	<i>ABCA1</i> rs1883025			
	<i>LIPC</i> rs12912415			
	AMD baseline grade			
	Smoking			
	BMI			

Abbreviations: AMD, age-related macular degeneration; AUC, area under the curve; BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; SE, standard error

TABLE 5 - Model 5, the maximal gene-environment model, in the three cohorts

Study	AUC (95% CI)	SE	No late AMD/late AMD (N)
RS	0.88 (0.85-0.90)	0.015	4171/121
BDES + BMES pooled	0.85 (0.82-0.88)	0.015	3634/156
3CC*	0.87 (0.85-0.89)	0.010	7805/277

* based on risk estimates re-analyzed in the complete data set

Abbreviations: 3CC, 3-Continent AMD Consortium; AMD, age-related macular degeneration; AUC, area under the curve; BDES, Beaver Dam Eye Study; BMES, Blue Mountains Eye Study; CI, confidence interval, RS, Rotterdam Study; SE, standard error

TABLE 6 - Risk estimates from Cox proportional hazard analysis based on the Three Continent AMD Consortium

Variable	Code	Beta per code
Age	=<65=0 / 65-75=1 / 75+=2	0 / 1.558 / 2.433
Gender	M=0 / F=1	0 / 0.320
ARMS2 rs10490924	GG=0 / GT=1 / TT=2	0 / 0.779 / 1.720
CFH rs800292	GG=0 / GA=1 / AA=2	0 / -0.899 / -1.614
C2/CFB rs4151667	TT=0 / TA or AA=1	0 / -1.245
CFH rs12144939	GG=0 / GT=1 / TT=2	0 / -0.947 / -1.195
COL8A1 rs13081855	GG=0 / GT=1 / TT=2	0 / 0.223 / 0.890
C3 rs2230199	CC=0 / GC=1 / GG=2	0 / -0.033 / 0.755
SLC16A8 rs8135665	CC=0 / TC=1 / TT=2	0 / 0.313 / 0.648
C3 rs433594	GG=0 / GA=1 / AA=2	0 / -0.110 / -0.591
C2/CFB rs641153	GG=0 / GA or AA=1	0 / -0.592
SKIV2L rs429608	GG=0 / GA=1 / AA=2	0 / 0.027 / 0.590
CETP rs3764261	CC=0 / CA=1 / AA=2	0 / 0.215 / 0.478
ADAMT59 rs6795735	CC=0 / TC=1 / TT=2	0 / 0.130 / 0.424
RAD51B rs8017304	AA=0 / AG=1 / GG=2	0 / -0.414 / -0.138
TIMP3 rs5749482	GG=0 / GC or CC=1	0 / -0.357
TGBR1 rs334353	TT=0 / TG=1 / GG=2	0 / 0.039 / -0.336
CFH rs1061170	TT=0 / TC=1 / CC=2	0 / 0.175 / 0.278
FRK/COL10A1 rs3812111	TT=0 / TA=1 / AA=2	0 / -0.278 / -0.118
CFI rs10033900	CC=0 / TC=1 / TT=2	0 / -0.070 / -0.223
TNFRSF10A rs13278062	TT=0 / TG=1 / GG=2	0 / 0.093 / 0.196
B3GALT1 rs9542236	TT=0 / TC=1 / CC=2	0 / -0.231 / -0.169
IER3/DDR1 rs3130783	AA=0 / AG=1 / GG=2	0 / 0.029 / 0.166
MYRIP rs2679798	AA=0 / AG=1 / GG=2	0 / 0.059 / 0.156
VEGFA rs943080	CC=0 / TC=1 / TT=2	0 / 0 / 0.098
ABCA1 rs1883025	CC=0 / TC=1 / TT=2	0 / -0.046 / 0.076
LIPC rs12912415	AA=0 / AG or GG=1	0 / -0.098
LPL rs256	CC=0 / TC or TT=1	0 / -0.048
AMD baseline grade	Level 10=0 / Level 20=1 / Level 30=2 / Level 40=3	0 / 1.458 / 2.560 / 3.398
Smoking	Never=0 / Past=1 / Current=2	0 / 0.164 / 0.651
BMI	=<25=0 / 25+=1	0 / 0.007

Abbreviations: AMD, age-related macular degeneration; BMI, body mass index; F, female; M, male

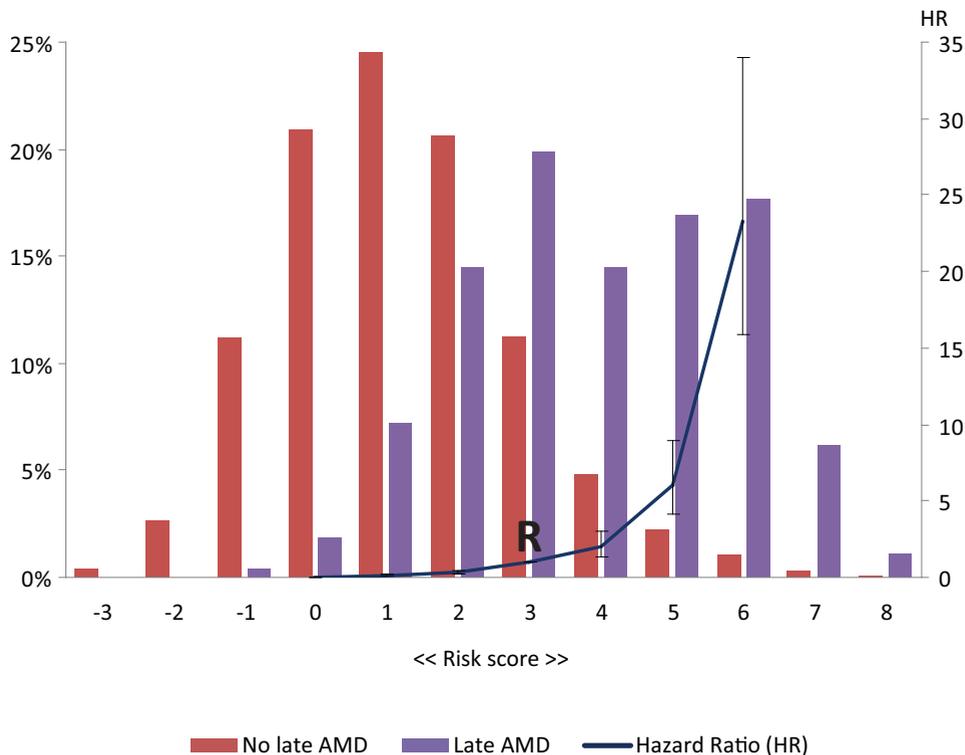


FIGURE 2 - Distribution of risk score in incident late AMD and no late AMD in 3CC, and hazard ratios of incident late AMD

The X-axis represents the risk score category, the left y-axis frequency as percentages, the right y-axis hazard ratio of incident late AMD. The red bars represent no late AMD; the purple bar incident late AMD. The dark blue line represents the hazard ratio (HR) of incident late AMD. Category 3 is the reference category (R) and has HR 1.00. Risk score -3 to 0, and risk scores 6 to 8 were combined for HR. Error bars indicate the 95% confidence interval (CI) of HR.

Abbreviations: 3CC, Three Continent AMD Consortium; AMD, age-related macular degeneration; R, reference

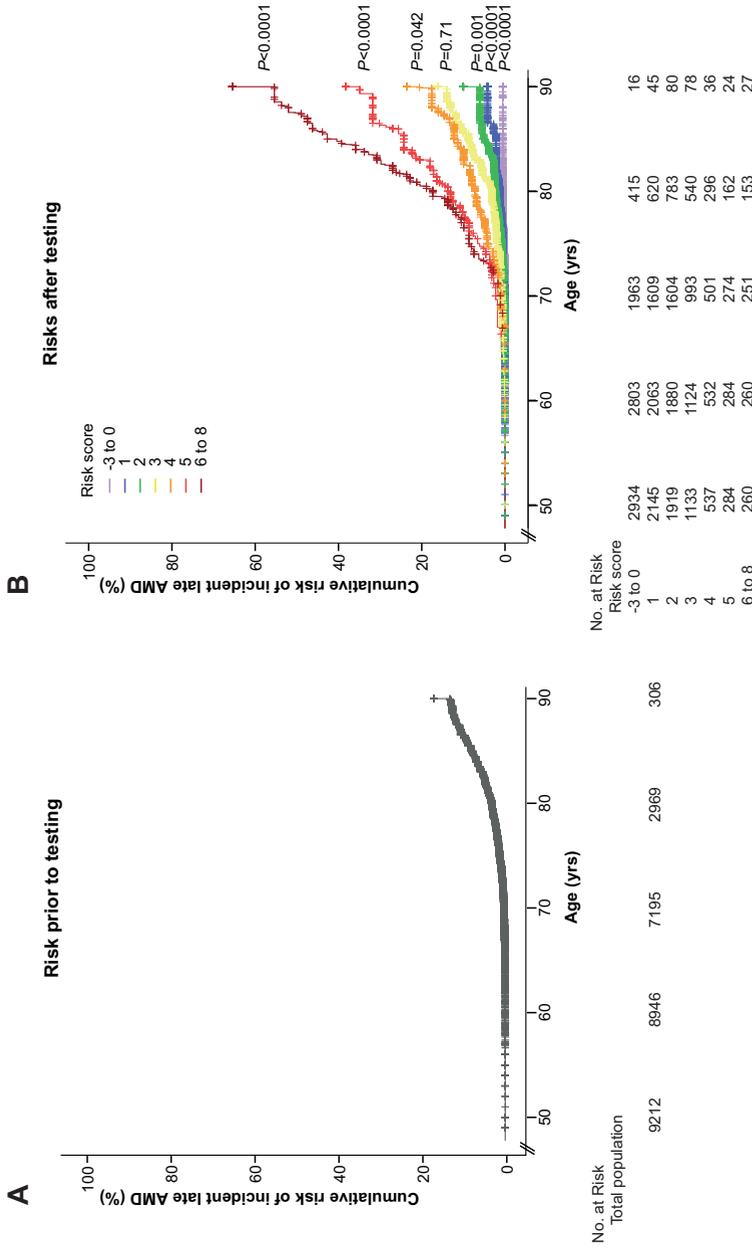


FIGURE 3 - Cumulative risk of incident late AMD prior and after testing of prediction model in 3CC

A - Overall cumulative risk of incident late AMD in 3CC; the x-axis represents the age of onset for incident late AMD cases and age at last examination for noncases. Y-axis represents the cumulative risk of incident late AMD. The number at risk for each decade is presented underneath the figure.

B - Cumulative risk of incident late AMD stratified for risk strata 0-6 in 3CC; X-axis represents the age of onset for incident late AMD cases and age at last examination for noncases. Y-axis represents the cumulative risk of incident late AMD. The risk scores are depicted by various colors. The number at risk for each decade and each risk score is presented underneath the figure.

Abbreviations: 3CC, Three Continent AMD Consortium; AMD, age-related macular degeneration; no., number; yrs, years.

DISCUSSION

In three independent population-based studies from three continents, we investigated all well-known genetic and non-genetic risk factors for AMD. We found that the best prediction for late AMD was based on age, sex, 26 genetic variants, two environmental variables, and early AMD phenotype. The accuracy of a prediction model including all these variables was 0.88 in the RS. As similar risk estimates were found in BDES and BMES, the model proved to be well generalizable to persons from Caucasian descent, living on other continents. Translation of the model to the individual level provided good discrimination between those at a high life-time risk of late AMD and those with virtually no risk, a risk difference of 65%.

A major strength of our study is the inclusion of a general population, unbiased by AMD risk factors. The study samples had included a wide spectrum of AMD lesion phenotypes but not only the extreme ends of disease, which is representative of real scenario in the population. Inclusion of wide spectrum of risk factors distributions and various levels of risk profiles of our population-based samples ensures a realistic, less biased prediction for all risk categories. Additional strengths are the use of longitudinal observational samples to predict incident cases and validation in two independent population-based cohorts with similar study designs. All the strengths facilitate our comprehensive analyses and calculation of cumulative risk of incident late AMD.

Limitations included the relatively low number of incident late AMD cases (n=363), hampering further risk estimation to AMD subtypes. In addition, we did not include several risk factors, such as dietary factors, biomarkers, or rare genetic variants^{10,40-43}. Dietary factors and biomarkers are difficult variables to obtain, but their inclusion would have improved the sensitivity of the predictive value. Inclusion of genetic mutations is unlikely to contribute to population risk, due to their low frequencies. Finally, the three cohorts had subtle differences in methodology, which have been discussed by Klein et al.³⁷

Most previously published AMD prediction models have been based on case-control studies (Table 8)¹²⁻²⁸. Most of these models included demographic, genetic and environmental factors, and reached a good prediction for AMD (AUC 0.68-0.94). The study which reported the highest AUC (0.94) included complement activation²². However, measurement of activation fragments requires rather intense work-up and specific expertise, and is therefore unlikely to occur in a standard clinical setting. The other studies have some drawbacks as well. Gold et al. reported a sensitivity of 70% and a specificity of 50% for their model¹⁴, making the prediction of low risk outcomes inaccurate. Hageman et al. showed a better specificity and sensitivity, but their model did not incorporate any non-genetic factors including age¹⁶. Furthermore, their model was based on prevalence data, which is less appropriate for estimation of prognosis⁴⁴. Most other case control studies also lacked follow-up data. The reports with follow-up data were almost inclusively based on data from the AREDS study^{20,23,24,27}. Although these investigated persons from the same source population, they differed substantially from each other in design and inclusion of risk factors, leading to great variation in prediction outcomes. Our study shows that the sensitivity of risk prediction depends on the number of variables included in the model, and highest sensitivity is achieved with a full model including the major genes, many of the recently discovered minor genetic variants, smoking, BMI, and existing AMD phenotypes.

TABLE 8 - Prediction models in the literature

Author	Year	Study population/design	noncases/ cases	Follow-up	Prediction model variables				Validation in independent dataset?		Remarks	
					Demographic	Environmental	Genetic	Ocular	AUC	Sensitivity		Specificity
Gold et al ¹⁴	2006	case-control	114/350				CFH, C2/CB		0.74	0.56	Yes	
Hughes et al ¹⁷	2007	case-control	266/401		smoking		CFH, ARMS2				No	Riskscore
Jakobsdottir et al ¹⁸	2008	case control and family cohort	168/187; 1095/429		age, sex	smoking	CFH, ARMS2, C2/FB		0.70	0.74	No	
Jakobsdottir et al ¹⁹	2009	case-control and family cohort	168/187; 1095/429				CFH, ARMS2, C2/FB	0.79			No	
Seddon et al ²³	2009	AREDS - RCT	1167/279	6.3 yrs	age, sex	education, smoking, BMI, antioxidant/zinc or both	CFH, ARMS2, C2/FB, C3	0.822	0.83	0.68	No	
Reynolds et al ²²	2009	case-control	60/110		age, sex	smoking, BMI, action fragments	CFH, ARMS2, C2/FB, C3, CFI	0.94			No	
Gibson et al ¹³	2010	case-control	470/470		age, sex	smoking	CFH, ARMS2, C3, SERPING1	0.83	0.76	0.76	No	
McKay et al ²¹	2010	case-control	436/437		age	smoking	CFH, ARMS2, C2/FB, C3	0.86			No	
Zanke et al ²⁸	2010	Risks from literature	NA			smoking	CFH, ARMS2, C3, mTA4917G				No	
Chen et al ²	2011	AREDS (723) case-control (1121)	509/1335		age, sex	smoking, BMI	CFH, ARMS2, C2/FB, C3	0.82	0.755	0.747	No	
Hageman et al ¹⁶	2011	case-control	467/482				CFH, ARMS2, C2/FB, C3, CFHR4, CFHR5, F13B	0.80	0.82	0.63	Yes	Only CNV cases

Author	Year	Study Design	N	Follow-up	Exposures	Outcomes	OR	95% CI	Outcome is early and late AMD
Klein et al ²⁰	2011	AREDS - RCT	2034/688	9.3 yrs	age, family history, smoking	CFH, ARMS2	0.872 [^]		Yes
Seddon et al ²⁴	2011	AREDS - RCT	2118/819	9.2 yrs	age, sex, education, smoking, BMI, antioxidant	CFH, ARMS2, C2/ FB, C3	0.908*		No
Spencer et al ²⁵	2011	case-control	216/349		age, smoking	CFH, ARMS2, C2/ FB, C3	0.84	0.770	Yes
Spencer et al ²⁵	2011	nested case-control	148/85		age, smoking	CFH, ARMS2, C2/ FB, C3	0.633	0.707	Yes
Ying et al ²⁶	2011	CAPT - trial	618/324	5 yrs	age, smoking, hypertension	...	0.68		No
Grassmann et al ¹⁵	2012	case-control	786/986			CFH, ARMS2, C2/ FB, LIPC, APOE, PLA2G12A, TIMP3	0.813		No
Yu et al ²⁷	2012	AREDS - RCT	1112/1448	10.3 yrs	age, sex, education, smoking, BMI, antioxidant	CFH, ARMS2, C2/ FB, C3, CFI, LIPC, TIMP3, CETP, ABCA1, COL8A1, APOE	0.895*	0.883 [^]	No

* based on 10 year follow-up, ^ based on 5 year follow-up.

Abbreviations: AMD, age-related macular degeneration; AREDS, age-related eye disease study; AUC, area under the curve; BMI, body mass index; CAPT, complications of age-related macular degeneration prevention trial; CNV, choroidal neovascularization; GA, geographic atrophy; RCT, randomized controlled trial

What may be the benefits of prediction tests? Most current counseling provided to family members of late AMD cases is based on clinical parameters. A prediction test may improve the identification of true high-risk individuals. As the estimation of cumulative risk of incident AMD makes the risk very apparent, it may encourage an individuals to alter their lifestyle with the aim to decrease the risk of AMD. For instance, one can stop smoking, eat foods rich in antioxidants, and increase physical exercise to lower risk of progression to late AMD^{9,45}. There may be benefits for patients with late AMD. Various studies have shown that persons with neovascular AMD who do not respond to anti-VEGF therapy are at higher genetic risk⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹. These patients may need more intensive treatment regimens. Lastly, current intervention trials select study participants mainly on the basis of phenotypes. Inclusion of high-risk individuals, identified by a prediction test, may improve homogeneity of the study population and prediction of AMD outcome events.

In summary, a risk score based on a large number of genetic risk variants for AMD, the environmental factors smoking and BMI, and early AMD phenotype provided a good prediction of incident late AMD cases in this study. A model incorporating non-genetic factors performed better than a model based on a minimal number of genetic factors, but after inclusion of many genes the model performed better than a model including only non-genetic factors. Inclusion of all risk factors provided the best prediction. As personalized medicine is the future, prediction tests will become more and more implemented as clinical tools. In such case, only comprehensive tests will be useful for AMD.

REFERENCES

1. Eye Diseases Prevalence Research Group. Causes and prevalence of visual impairment among adults in the United States. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2004;122:477-85.
2. Klaver CC, Wolfs RC, Vingerling JR, et al. Age-specific prevalence and causes of blindness and visual impairment in an older population: the Rotterdam Study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1998;116:653-8.
3. Augood CA, Vingerling JR, de Jong PT, et al. Prevalence of age-related maculopathy in older Europeans: the European Eye Study (EUREYE). *Arch Ophthalmol* 2006;124:529-35.
4. World Health Organization. VISION 2020: The Right to Sight, the global initiative for the elimination of avoidable blindness: magnitude and causes of visual impairment. Fact Sheet no. 282. November 2004. Available at: http://whqlibdoc.who.int/fact_sheet/2004/FS_282.pdf. Accessed July 28, 2013.
5. van Leeuwen R, Klaver CC, Vingerling JR, et al. Epidemiology of age-related maculopathy: a review. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2003;18:845-54.
6. Klaver CC, Assink JJ, Vingerling JR, et al. Smoking is also associated with age-related macular degeneration in persons aged 85 years and older: the Rotterdam Study [letter]. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1997;115:945.
7. Seddon JM, Ajani UA, Mitchell BD. Familial aggregation of age-related maculopathy. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1997;123:199-206.
8. Despriet DD, Klaver CC, Witteman JC, et al. Complement factor H polymorphism, complement activators, and risk of age-related macular degeneration. *JAMA* 2006;296:301-9.
9. Ho L, van Leeuwen R, Witteman JC, et al. Reducing the genetic risk of age-related macular degeneration with dietary antioxidants, zinc, and omega-3 fatty acids: the Rotterdam study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2011;129:758-66.
10. van Leeuwen R, Boekhoorn S, Vingerling JR, et al. Dietary intake of antioxidants and risk of age-related macular degeneration. *JAMA* 2005;294:3101-7.
11. Vingerling JR, Hofman A, Grobbee DE, de Jong PT. Age-related macular degeneration and smoking. The Rotterdam Study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1996;114:1193-6.
12. Chen Y, Zeng J, Zhao C, et al. Assessing susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration with genetic markers and environmental factors. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2011;129:344-51.
13. Gibson J, Cree A, Collins A, et al. Determination of a gene and environment risk model for age-related macular degeneration. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2010;94:1382-7.
14. Gold B, Merriam JE, Zernant J, et al, AMD Genetics Clinical Study Group. Variation in factor B (*BF*) and complement component 2 (*C2*) genes is associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2006;38:458-62.
15. Grassmann F, Fritsche LG, Keilhauer CN, et al. Modelling the genetic risk in age-related macular degeneration. *PLoS One* [serial online] 2012;7:e37979. Available at: <http://www.plosone.org/article/info%3Adoi%2F10.1371%2Fjournal.pone.0037979>. Accessed July 28, 2013.
16. Hageman GS, Gehrs K, Lejnine S, et al. Clinical validation of a genetic model to estimate the risk of developing choroidal neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Genomics* 2011;5:420-40.
17. Hughes AE, Orr N, Patterson C, et al. Neovascular age-related macular degeneration risk based on *CFH*, *LOC387715/HTRA1*, and smoking. *PLoS Med* [serial online] 2007;4:e355. Available at: <http://www.plosmedicine.org/article/info%3Adoi%2F10.1371%2Fjournal.pmed.0040355>. Accessed July 28, 2013.
18. Jakobsdottir J, Conley YP, Weeks DE, et al. *C2* and *CFB* genes in age-related maculopathy and joint action with *CFH* and *LOC387715* genes. *PLoS One* [serial online] 2008;3:e2199. Available at: <http://www.plosone.org/article/info%3Adoi%2F10.1371%2Fjournal.pone.0002199>. Accessed July 28, 2013.
19. Jakobsdottir J, Gorin MB, Conley YP, et al. Interpretation of genetic association studies: markers with replicated highly significant odds ratios may be poor classifiers. *PLoS Genet* [serial online] 2009;5:e1000337. Available at: <http://www.plosgenetics.org/article/info%3Adoi%2F10.1371%2Fjournal.pgen.1000337>. Accessed July 28, 2013.
20. Klein ML, Francis PJ, Ferris FL III, et al. Risk assessment model for development of advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2011;129:1543-50.
21. McKay GJ, Dasari S, Patterson CC, et al. Complement component 3: an assessment of association with AMD and analysis of gene-gene and gene-environment interactions in a Northern Irish cohort. *Mol Vis* [serial online] 2010;16:194-9. Available at: <http://www.molvis.org/molvis/v16/a24/>. Accessed July 28, 2013.
22. Reynolds R, Hartnett ME, Atkinson JP, et al. Plasma complement components and activation fragments: associations with age-related macular degeneration genotypes and phenotypes. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2009;50:5818-27.
23. Seddon JM, Reynolds R, Maller J, et al. Prediction model for prevalence and incidence of advanced age-related macular degeneration based on genetic, demographic, and environmental variables. *Invest*

- Ophthalmol Vis Sci 2009;50:2044-53.
24. Seddon JM, Reynolds R, Yu Y, et al. Risk models for progression to advanced age-related macular degeneration using demographic, environmental, genetic, and ocular factors. *Ophthalmology* 2011;118:2203-11.
 25. Spencer KL, Olson LM, Schnetz-Boutaud N, et al. Using genetic variation and environmental risk factor data to identify individuals at high risk for age-related macular degeneration. *PLoS One* [serial online] 2011;6:e17784. Available at: <http://www.plosone.org/article/info%3Adoi%2F10.1371%2Fjournal.pone.0017784>. Accessed July 28, 2013.
 26. Ying GS, Maguire MG, Complications of Age-related Macular Degeneration Prevention Trial Research Group. Development of a risk score for geographic atrophy in Complications of the Age-Related Macular Degeneration Prevention Trial. *Ophthalmology* 2011;118:332-8.
 27. Yu Y, Reynolds R, Rosner B, et al. Prospective assessment of genetic effects on progression to different stages of age-related macular degeneration using multistate Markov models. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2012;53:1548-56.
 28. Zanke B, Hawken S, Carter R, Chow D. A genetic approach to stratification of risk for age-related macular degeneration. *Can J Ophthalmol* 2010;45:22-7.
 29. Szklo M. Population-based cohort studies. *Epidemiol Rev* 1998;20:81-90.
 30. Janssens AC, Ioannidis JP, Bedrosian S, et al. Strengthening the reporting of genetic risk prediction studies (GRIPS): explanation and elaboration. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2011;26:313-37.
 31. Hofman A, van Duijn CM, Franco OH, et al. The Rotterdam Study: 2012 objectives and design update. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2011;26:657-86.
 32. Hofman A, Grobbee DE, de Jong PT, van den Ouweland FA. Determinants of disease and disability in the elderly: the Rotterdam Elderly Study. *Eur J Epidemiol* 1991;7:403-22.
 33. Klein R, Klein BE, Linton KL, De Mets DL. The Beaver Dam Eye Study: visual acuity. *Ophthalmology* 1991;98:1310-5.
 34. Mitchell P, Smith W, Attebo K, Wang JJ. Prevalence of age-related maculopathy in Australia. The Blue Mountains Eye Study. *Ophthalmology* 1995;102:1450-60.
 35. Bird AC, Bressler NM, Bressler SB, et al, International ARM Epidemiological Study Group. An international classification and grading system for age-related maculopathy and age-related macular degeneration. *Surv Ophthalmol* 1995;39:367-74.
 36. Klein R, Davis MD, Magli YL, et al. The Wisconsin Age-Related Maculopathy Grading System. *Ophthalmology* 1991;98:1128-34.
 37. Klein R, Meuer SM, Myers CE, et al. Harmonizing the Classification of Age-related Macular Degeneration in the Three Continent AMD Consortium. *Ophthalmic Epidemiology*; Accepted.
 38. AMD Gene Consortium. Seven new loci associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2013;45:433-9.
 39. Kopplin LJ, Igo RP Jr, Wang Y, et al. Genome-wide association identifies *SKIV2L* and *MYRIP* as protective factors for age-related macular degeneration. *Genes Immun* 2010;11:609-21.
 40. Chiu CJ, Milton RC, Klein R, et al. Dietary compound score and risk of age-related macular degeneration in the Age-Related Eye Disease Study. *Ophthalmology* 2009;116:939-46.
 41. Smailhodzic D, Klaver CC, Klevering BJ, et al. Risk alleles in *CFH* and *ARMS2* are independently associated with systemic complement activation in age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 2012;119:339-46.
 42. Stone EM, Braun TA, Russell SR, et al. Missense variations in the fibulin 5 gene and age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med* 2004;351:346-53.
 43. Tan JS, Wang JJ, Flood V, et al. Dietary antioxidants and the long-term incidence of age-related macular degeneration: the Blue Mountains Eye Study. *Ophthalmology* 2008;115:334-41.
 44. Rothman KJ, Greenland S, Lash TL. *Modern Epidemiology*. 3rd ed. Philadelphia: Wolters Kluwer/Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2008:33.
 45. Mares JA, Voland RP, Sondel SA, et al. Healthy lifestyles related to subsequent prevalence of age-related macular degeneration. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2011;129:470-80.
 46. Abedi F, Wickremasinghe S, Richardson AJ, et al. Variants in the *VEGFA* gene and treatment outcome after anti-VEGF treatment for neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 2013;120:115-21.
 47. Boltz A, Ruit M, Jonas JB, et al. Role of vascular endothelial growth factor polymorphisms in the treatment success in patients with wet age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 2012;119:1615-20.
 48. Brantley MA Jr, Fang AM, King JM, et al. Association of complement factor H and LOC387715 genotypes with response of exudative age-related macular degeneration to intravitreal bevacizumab. *Ophthalmology* 2007;114:2168-73.

49. Smailhodzic D, Muether PS, Chen J, et al. Cumulative effect of risk alleles in *CFH*, *ARMS2*, and *VEGFA* on the response to ranibizumab treatment in age-related macular degeneration. *Ophthalmology* 2012;119:2304-11.



Chapter 6.2

Direct-to-consumer personal genome testing for age-related macular degeneration

Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk, Najaf Amin, Albert Hofman, Cornelia M. van Duijn, Johannes R. Vingerling, Caroline C.W. Klaver

Published in *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2014 Aug 21;55(10):6167-74. doi: 10.1167/iovs.14-15142. PMID: 25146986

Supplementary material available at: <http://iovs.arvojournals.org/article.aspx?articleid=2166353&resultClick=1>

ABSTRACT

Purpose Genetic testing may be the next step in clinical medicine for a more personalized approach in determining risk of disease. Direct-to-consumer (DTC) personal genome tests may fulfill this role. We explored the practicability and predictive value of DTC-tests from four companies (23andMe, deCODEme, Easy DNA, Genetic testing laboratories) for age-related macular degeneration (AMD).

Methods Body specimens of three individuals were collected and sent to four companies for DNA genotyping and disease risk estimation. In addition, DNA was also genotyped using Illumina HumanOmniExpress 12v1 array in the Rotterdam Study laboratory, and risk estimates of AMD were calculated using the validated prediction model from the population-based Three Continent AMD Consortium.

Results Genotyped results of the four DTC-tests matched genotyping performed by the Rotterdam Study laboratory. The estimated risks provided by the companies varied considerably in the tested individuals, from a 1.6-fold difference for overall relative risk to an up to 12-fold difference for lifetime risk. The lifetime risks for the individuals ranged from 1.4-16.1% in the DTC-tests, while they varied from 0.5-4.2% in the validated prediction model. Most important reasons for the differences in risks were the testing of only a limited set of genetic markers, the choice of the reference population, and the methodology applied for risk calculation.

Conclusion Direct-to-consumer personal genome tests are not suitable for clinical application as yet. More comprehensive genetic testing and inclusion of environmental risk factors may improve risk prediction of AMD.

INTRODUCTION

Genetic studies of age-related macular degeneration (AMD) have elucidated a major proportion of its genetic background. Currently, genome-wide studies (GWAS) have identified associations with >30 genetic loci for this disease, explaining a large part of the heritability of AMD^{1,2}. Subsequently, these genomic findings have been incorporated into prediction models, many of which provide a >80% discriminative accuracy for late AMD³⁻²². This high predictive ability makes AMD particularly suitable for genetic testing, which may be the next step to a more personalized approach in clinical medicine.

Direct-to-consumer (DTC) personal genome tests had been made available for consumers and thousands have purchased these tests via the internet to determine a personal disease risk. Recently, methods of three DTC-tests have been examined and compared for several diseases²³. AMD was the disease for which each test obtained the best predictive ability. Several companies offered genetic tests for AMD and implementation of these tests in the clinic could help identify individuals at risk of developing the disease to apply risk dependent patient care and surveillance strategies. Therefore, the accuracy of the risk estimates will be a great concern, and will determine whether such tests will be meaningful in the clinic.

In this study, we evaluated the results of AMD prediction tests provided by four major companies. We sent bio-samples from three individuals to these companies to test proof of principle, and reviewed the sampling process, the type of analysis, the genotyping, and the risk information. In addition, we compared results to a validated prediction model based on population studies.

METHODS

Experimental design

Evaluation of test methodology

Study participants

Three investigators (GB, JV, CK) agreed to voluntarily participate in the study, and signed informed consent.

DTC-tests for AMD

We searched for internet-based DTC-tests for AMD using a web search engine and the word groups "genetic testing for age-related macular degeneration", "genetic prediction of age-related macular degeneration", and "genetic tests for age-related macular degeneration". Only companies available for European citizens and testing more than one single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) were eligible, and of these, four companies were selected; i.e., 23andMe, deCODEme, Easy-DNA, The Genetic Testing Laboratories, Inc.

23andMe

<https://www.23andme.com/>

This privately-held American company was founded in 2006 with the intention to empower individuals in accessing their own genetic information and to stimulate a way into more personalized medicine. One can order a single 'spit' kit for \$99 (shipping costs \$14.95 - \$118.95) from the website on internet, and a sample collection kit will be sent by mail with instructions how to provide a saliva sample and

details for returning the sample. An assisted collection kit for persons having trouble to spit can be ordered together with the DTC-kit for an additional \$25, requiring only half the amount of saliva. The returned saliva sample will arrive at the contracted LabCorp's Clinical Laboratory Improvement Amendments (CLIA) certified laboratory, where DNA will be isolated from cells in the saliva and processed on an Illumina® HumanOmniExpress array customized by 23andMe (>1 million SNPs, call rate above 98%). These SNPs provide information about traits, carrier status, and risks for over hundred diseases, including AMD. The risk for developing AMD is estimated based on the risk in the reference population and an overall relative risk (RR) representing risks of five SNPs: *CFH* rs1061147; *C2* rs547154; *LOC387715/ARMS2* rs3750847; *C3* rs2230199; *TIMP3* rs9621532^{11,24-36}. AMD risk in the reference population differed for males and females and was 6.5 and 7% respectively. Methods of risk calculation have been described in a white paper³⁷, accessible after login to the 23andMe website. No health reports including risk prediction and carrier status are currently provided for new customers.

DeCODE

<http://www.decodeme.com/>

DeCODE was founded in 1996 and the headquarters are located in Reykjavik, Iceland. This company developed the deCODEme test, which provide results for 47 conditions and traits. Unfortunately, new tests are no longer offered by the company. Costs were \$1100 per test, with no extra costs for shipping. After purchasing the test from the internet, a buccal swab kit will be sent in the mail with instructions how to collect and return the sample. The samples were processed at a CLIA certified lab, the deCODE laboratory in Reykjavik, for DNA isolation. Genotyping was performed on an Illumina Human 1M Beadchip (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, California, USA) which determines >1 million SNPs. Validation occurred by bi-directional Sanger sequencing and independent SNP genotyping platforms.

A overall RR for developing AMD was calculated based on six risk variants: *ARMS2/HTRA1* rs3750847, *C2/FB* rs9332739 and rs547154, *C3* rs230199 and, *CFH* rs1061147 and rs1329428^{27,38}. Subsequently, for the tested individual a lifetime risk was calculated based on the overall relative risk and the AMD risk in the reference population, which was set at 8%. A white paper³⁹ describing the risk calculation is available after login to the deCODEme website.

Easy-DNA

<http://www.easy-dna.com/> / <http://www.easydna.co.uk/> / <http://www.easydna.eu>

Easy-DNA is an international company which provides a genetic DNA predisposition test on 25 conditions and diseases. This test can be purchased from the internet for €299/\$299/£299 including shipping costs. A kit will be sent by mail for collection of a blood sample, and includes submission forms, instructions for collecting the blood sample from a punctured finger, the sample collection kit and a self-addressed envelope. This company does not provide information on the genotyping method, but states that results are provided for *CFH* rs1061170 and *C2* rs800292^{40,41}. Risk estimates are presented as lifetime and overall RR of AMD. Risk of AMD in the reference population was set at 8%. Methods for risk calculation was not provided by the company.

The Genetic Testing Laboratories, Inc (GTL)

<http://www.gtldna.com/predisposition.html>

This company provides a DNA predisposition test which will reveal the genetic and environmental predisposition for 25 diseases and conditions including AMD. The DNA predisposition test costs \$285 with additional costs of \$45 for shipping outside the Contiguous United States. After purchasing the kit from the internet, it will be sent to your own physician or a professional collector agency appointed by GTL to collect the sample, which can be a bucal or a blood sample. The sample will be processed by a CLIA accredited laboratory. As for Easy-DNA, this company also is unclear on genotyping method, but states that results are provided for *CFH* rs1061170 and *C2* rs800292^{40,41}. Lifetime and overall RR are provided for each tested person. Risk of AMD in the reference population was set at 8%. The risk calculation method of this company was not available for consumers or professionals.

We followed each company's instructions for the collection of bio-samples used for DNA extraction. We sent the samples to the various laboratories associated with the companies, and awaited the results.

Genotyping in Rotterdam

Genotyping for the three individuals was also performed at the Rotterdam Study Laboratory: Genetic Laboratory of Internal Medicine at the Erasmus Medical Center in Rotterdam, the Netherlands. Genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral leukocytes and all participants were genotyped using the Illumina HumanOmniExpress 12v1_J microarray (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, California, USA). Call rate for the genotyping was >97.5%. We imputed genotype data to Hapmap 3 release 2 and 1000 genomes phase I V3.

Assessment of covariates

The covariates age, length, weight, smoking status, and family history regarding AMD were obtained by interview. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated by dividing weight (kg) by the height squared (m^2). AMD phenotype was evaluated by standard ophthalmologic examination including fundus photography (Topcon TRC-50EX fundus camera, Topcon Optical Co, Tokyo, Japan and Sony DXC-950P digital camera, Sony Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) after pharmacological mydriasis. Images were graded according to the Wisconsin Age-Related Maculopathy Grading⁴² and the modified international classification system⁴³ by graders from the Rotterdam Study.

Risk score Three Continent AMD Consortium prediction model and DTC-tests

The Three Continent AMD Consortium (3CC) developed a validated prediction model including a total risk score based on 31 variables; 26 genetic variants associated with AMD, age, sex, smoking, BMI, and AMD phenotype. The prediction model had 87% discriminative accuracy for incident late AMD²². For each individual in this study this summary risk score was calculated. Based on the risk score, lifetime risks could be assessed for each individual.

Ancestry assessment

Ancestry of the three individuals was determined using multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) protocol from ENIGMA⁴⁴ using Hapmap 3 release 2 as the reference.

Statistical analysis

Test results included predicted risks for several diseases from four companies. For the purpose of this study, we only evaluated the predicted risks for AMD. 23andMe provided odds ratios (OR) and the other companies relative risks (RR) per SNP per genotype, but all were adjusted for the average risk of the SNP in the population, and will be referred to as OR and RR, respectively. Genotype frequency, risks per genotype, overall RR, lifetime population risk and lifetime risk of the tested individual were obtained from the test results.

Minor allele frequencies were not provided by the companies, but calculated using the formula:

$$p+q = 1$$

With p representing the major allele and q the minor allele. For the different genotypes, frequencies could be calculated after applying this information; homozygous for major alleles = p^2 , heterozygous = $2pq$ and homozygous for minor alleles = q^2 .

All analyses were performed using SPSS version 20.0 (SPSS INC, Chicago, Illinois) except for the MDS-analysis which was performed using R software (R-project, Institute for Statistics and Mathematics, R core team (2013), Vienna, Austria, version 3.0.2).

RESULTS

Demographic characteristics of the three study subjects are provided in Table 1. All three were younger than the average age of AMD onset, and none had any features of AMD, as determined by grading of fundus photographs. One had a history of smoking, and one had a positive family history for late AMD. All three were Caucasian and had northern/western European ancestry (Supplementary Figure 1).

TABLE 1 - Descriptives of the participants

Variable	Individual 1	Individual 2	Individual 3
Age (yrs)	45	29	51
Sexe	Female	Female	Male
Ethnicity	Caucasian	Caucasian	Caucasian
Ancestry	Northern/western European	Northern/western European	Northern/western European
BMI (kg/m ²)	22.7	20.2	24.3
Smoking	never	never	past
AMD phenotype	none	none	none
Family history of AMD	grandmother	none	none

Abbreviations: AMD = age-related macular degeneration, BMI = body mass index, yrs = years

DTC-tests

Details of the DTC-tests are given in Table 2. Tests differed considerably in price, the most costly being 11x more expensive than the cheapest test. Sampling methods varied from saliva, buccal swap to blood from a finger prick. One participant particularly had difficulty to deliver the saliva specimen of 2.5 ml for 23andMe, which required ~1 hour of sampling time. Genetic Testing Laboratories (GTL) required for all participants and Easy-DNA only for US-residents a physician or another health professional assigned by the company to collect the blood sample and only the collectors obtained the test results. However, the forms for requesting the test from GTL were open access. Delivery time for test results ranged from 2-4 weeks for most tests; results from one Easy-DNA test were delayed up to 8 weeks without notice or explanation.

TABLE 2 - Overview genetic testing companies

Company name	Website	Costs per kit	DNA source	Easy to collect?	Additional notes
23andMe	https://www.23andme.com	\$99 / € 74	saliva	Difficult in one participant	Street address is needed to deliver DTC-test
deCODEme*	https://www.decode.me	\$1100 / € 821	buccal	yes	-
Easy-DNA	http://www.easygeneticstest.com	\$299 / € 299	blood	yes	For US residents: Sample needs to be collected by physician or professional collector
The Genetic Testing Laboratories	http://www.gtl dna.com/	\$285 / € 213	blood	yes	Sample needs to be collected by physician or professional collector

* deCODEme do not offer any new testing possibilities

In contrast to the statement of Easy-DNA and GTL, the SNP rs800292 is located in the *CFH* gene, not in *C2* (Table 3). Thus, these two companies only tested risk variants in *CFH*. DeCODEme and 23andMe covered 4 and 5 AMD loci, respectively. The tested SNPs varied among tests, however, there was considerable overlap. Individual genotypes at these SNP locations are shown in Table 3. Risk-increasing as well as risk-decreasing variants were present in all three individuals. The effect estimates of these variants showed the largest range in individual 2, in particular for the risks predicted by 23andMe and deCODEme. The lifetime AMD population risk used by the companies varied from 6.5-8%, and varied for gender in the 23andMe calculations. For 23andMe and deCODEme the ancestry of the reference populations was European, for GTL and Easy-DNA this was European Tuscan. Only for individual 1 the Easy-DNA test listed European ancestry as the reference population. Genotypes identified by the DTC-tests were identical to those determined at the Rotterdam Study laboratory in all three individuals.

The inter-test variability of the overall relative and life-time risks was large in all three individuals, but most profoundly in individual 3 (Table 3). For this person, these risks were lower and higher than the population risk, depending on the test. Lifetime risks between lowest and highest estimate differed by factor 1.7, 1.6, and 11.5 for individuals 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

TABLE 4 - Risk estimates from the Three Continent AMD Consortium prediction model

Variable	Code	Risk per code	Individual 1	Individual 2	Individual 3
<i>ARMS2</i> rs10490924	GG=0 / GT=1 / TT=2	0 / 0.779 / 1.720	0	0.779	0
<i>ADAMTS9</i> rs6795735	CC=0 / TC=1 / TT=2	0 / 0.130 / 0.424	0	0.424	0.424
<i>SLC16A8</i> rs8135665	CC=0 / TC=1 / TT=2	0 / 0.313 / 0.648	0.313	0	0.313
Sexe	M=0 / F=1	0 / 0.320	0.320	0.320	0
<i>CETP</i> rs3764261	CC=0 / CA=1 / AA=2	0 / 0.215 / 0.478	0.215	0	0
<i>CFH</i> rs1061170	TT=0 / TC=1 / CC=2	0 / 0.175 / 0.278	0.175	0	0.175
Smoking	Never=0 / Past=1 / Current=2	0 / 0.164 / 0.651	0	0	0.164
<i>MYRIP</i> rs2679798	AA=0 / AG=1 / GG=2	0 / 0.059 / 0.156	0.059	0.156	0
<i>VEGFA</i> rs943080	CC=0 / TC=1 / TT=2	0 / 0 / 0.098	0	0	0.098
<i>TNFRSF10A</i> rs13278062	TT=0 / TG=1 / GG=2	0 / 0.093 / 0.196	0.093	0	0
<i>TGBR1</i> rs334353	TT=0 / TG=1 / GG=2	0 / 0.039 / -0.336	0.039	0.039	0
<i>IER3/DDR1</i> rs3130783	AA=0 / AG=1 / GG=2	0 / 0.029 / 0.166	0	0.029	0.029
<i>SKIV2L</i> rs429608	GG=0 / GA=1 / AA=2	0 / 0.027 / 0.590	0	0	0.027
Age (yrs)	=<65=0 / 65-75=1 / 75+=2	0 / 1.558 / 2.433	0	0	0
AMD baseline grade	Level 10=0 / Level 20=1 / Level 30=2 / Level 40=3	0 / 1.458 / 2.560 / 3.398	0	0	0
BMI (kg/m ²)	=<25=0 / 25+=1	0 / 0.007	0	0	0
<i>C2/CFB</i> rs4151667	TT=0 / TA or AA=1	0 / -1.245	0	0	0
<i>B3GALT1</i> rs9542236	TT=0 / TC=1 / CC=2	0 / -0.231 / -0.169	0	0	0
<i>LIPC</i> rs12912415	AA=0 / AG or GG=1	0 / -0.098	0	0	0
<i>COL8A1</i> rs13081855	GG=0 / GT=1 / TT=2	0 / 0.223 / 0.890	0	0	0
<i>TIMP3</i> rs5749482	GG=0 / GC or CC=1	0 / -0.357	0	0	0
<i>C3</i> rs2230199	CC=0 / GC=1 / GG=2	0 / -0.033 / 0.755	-0.033	-0.033	0
<i>ABCA1</i> rs1883025	CC=0 / TC=1 / TT=2	0 / -0.046 / 0.076	-0.046	-0.046	0
<i>LPL</i> rs256	CC=0 / TC or TT=1	0 / -0.048	0	-0.048	-0.048
<i>CFI</i> rs10033900	CC=0 / TC=1 / TT=2	0 / -0.070 / -0.223	0	-0.070	-0.070
<i>C3</i> rs433594	GG=0 / GA=1 / AA=2	0 / -0.110 / -0.591	-0.110	-0.110	0
<i>FRK/COL10A1</i> rs3812111	TT=0 / TA=1 / AA=2	0 / -0.278 / -0.118	0	0	-0.118
<i>RAD51B</i> rs8017304	AA=0 / AG=1 / GG=2	0 / -0.414 / -0.138	0	0	-0.414
<i>C2/CFB</i> rs641153	GG=0 / GA or AA=1	0 / -0.592	0	0	-0.592
<i>CFH</i> rs800292	GG=0 / GA=1 / AA=2	0 / -0.899 / -1.614	0	-0.899	-0.899
<i>CFH</i> rs12144939	GG=0 / GT=1 / TT=2	0 / -0.947 / -1.195	0	-0.947	0
Total risk score			1.025	-0.406	-0.911
Lifetime risk (%)			4.2	0.5	0.5

Abbreviations: AMD = age-related macular degeneration; BMI = body mass index; F = female; M = male; yrs = years

Risk prediction based on Three Continent AMD Consortium

The prediction model developed by the population-based Three Continent AMD Consortium (3CC) consists of 31 variables which were represented in a total risk score indicating the risk of developing late AMD²². For each individual the total risk score was calculated (Table 4) and used to assess lifetime risks. Lifetime population risk for developing late AMD was 17.4% at life expectancy of 90 years in the 3CC cohort. Lifetime risks for all three individuals were also calculated using the 3CC risk score, and were 4.2%, 0.5%, and 0.5% respectively (Table 4). Although the population risk in the 3CC cohort was much higher than for the DTC-tests, lifetime risks for the three individuals were considerably lower than the lifetime risks provided by the companies (4.9-8.6; 4.0-6.5; 1.4-16.1, Table 3).

DISCUSSION

Until recently, anyone could order a DTC-test and get a personal risk estimate for common diseases. Interpretation of the test results and evaluation of their validity has been difficult, even for professionals. Our study shows that predicted risks of AMD vary considerably among DTC-tests, and none may represent the true disease risk.

We examined four DTC-tests in three individuals, and compared test results to predicted risks from a validated model developed in the large population-based Three Continent AMD Consortium (3CC)²². Predicted risks varied widely within each individual, and differences between highest and lowest estimates for lifetime risk were up to 12-fold. Within the same person, overall relative risks could be increased as well as decreased, depending on which test was used. All tests provided higher estimates for lifetime risk than the 3CC model. Several key points explain these differences.

First, the DTC-tests genotyped only 2-6 SNPs to calculate the risk of AMD. These risks were often based on case-control studies instead of population-based studies which often comprise lower risks²². Recent reports show that >30 loci have been associated by GWAS studies^{1,2}. Not testing a comprehensive set of SNPs may lead to imbalance of harmful and protective SNPs, and provide a very different overall risk estimate. For example, individual 2 had several important risk-increasing as well as risk-decreasing variants (Table 4), and not testing these hampered accurate risk profiling (Table 3). This was also acknowledged for the population at large; inclusion of an extended set of variants increased risk prediction in three population-based studies²². We expect that even more common and rare variants will be identified for AMD in the near future, and inclusion of these variants will further refine personalized risk prediction.

Second, the lifetime population risk and reference population differed among the DTC-tests. The lifetime population risk used by 23andMe was lower than that used by the other companies, and differed for men and women. Which population had been used as reference for the calculation of the lifetime AMD population risk was not specified by any of the companies. They were all lower than the lifetime population risk estimate in 3CC (6.5-8% versus 17.4%, respectively). Lifetime population risks were based on life expectancy of 79 years for 23andMe and 90 years for 3CC. No information was provided on life expectancy by the other companies. The average life expectancy is currently above 80 years in western Europe and 79 years in the United States⁴⁵. Life expectancy increases once a certain age has been reached: for instance, persons who reached the age of 80 years during 2008-2010 in France still had an average life expectancy of 8.3 years for men and 10.6 years for women⁴⁶. In these persons, a life expectancy of 90 years is not unrealistic. Ancestry also influences the risk estimates. All companies asked the applicant for their ethnicity and used questionnaire data for analysis. However, calculation of ancestry is more accurate using multi-dimensional scaling

(MDS) analysis with genotype data. In GTL and Easy DNA, all results were based on European Tuscan ancestry, although European ethnicity was stated by the individuals at application. MDS analysis with genotype data from all three individuals confirmed their northern/western European ancestry comparable with their appearance (Supplementary Figure 1). Why a Tuscan ancestry was chosen for these individuals is unclear and incorrect. The choice of two different ancestries (European Tuscan and European) in one individual (Table 3) in these tests is presumably an unintended error.

The conversion to a different ancestry can lead to an alteration of the risk, since the frequency of genotypes may differ among ethnicities. The minor allele frequency (MAF) for the *CFH* rs1061170 variant in the Easy-DNA and GTL tests was set at 17% for those with Tuscan ancestry. MAF for this variant varies among ethnicities: ~36% in Europeans and Africans, ~17% in Latinos/Hispanics and ~10-15% in Asians⁴⁷. Tuscans cluster more closely with northern/western Europeans than with Latinos/Hispanics (Supplementary Figure 1), and literature indicates that the actual MAF of the *CFH* rs1061170 variant in an Italian population is also 36%⁴⁸. Therefore, these companies should have used a MAF of 36% rather than 17% for European Tuscans. Not using the correct MAF resulted in higher risks since all risks per SNP have been adjusted for the average risk of the SNP in the population, which can be calculated using the risk per genotype and genotype frequency. This effect is particularly visible in the risks for individual 1 (Table 3); risks provided by Easy-DNA used the European ancestry as reference population and a MAF of 36% resulting in an RR of 1.26, while GTL used the European Tuscan ancestry with a MAF of 17% resulting in a higher RR of 1.60. For carriers of the *CFH* rs1061170 CC-genotype this difference in risk will be even more extreme. In summary, an incorrect reference population was assigned to the three individuals and to this reference population (Tuscans) an incorrect MAF for the *CFH* rs1061170 SNP was assigned. In this particular case the largest effect on risk prediction of AMD was the incorrect assigned MAF. This most likely influenced the risk prediction for the other diseases predicted by the companies as well.

Third, there were mistakes in assignment of an AMD risk variant. Easy-DNA and GTL stated that the tested SNP rs800292 was located in the *C2* gene, when in fact this particular rs-number is located in the *CFH* gene⁴⁹. Apart from the incorrect gene, the direction of the risk for this variant was opposite of that reported in 3CC²²; in the tests from Easy-DNA and GTL the T allele was set as the risk variant, increasing the risk of AMD, while in 3CC this allele decreased the risk of AMD.

Fourth, the DTC-tests lacked inclusion of non-genetic risk factors. Only 23andMe took age and gender into account in their risk calculation. Age is the most important non-genetic factor associated with AMD known to date, and it is therefore prudent to incorporate this factor in risk predictions of AMD⁵⁰. None of the companies included environmental factors in their risk prediction. We recommend inclusion of smoking since this factor is an important environmental risk factor for AMD⁵¹, which also shows interaction with genetic risk variants⁴⁰. Inclusion of non-genetic risk factors can improve the predictive ability of the test²².

Lastly, the companies applied different methods for their risk calculation. A recent study examined and compared the methods from three DTC-tests (23andMe, deCODEme and Navigenics) for several diseases including AMD²³. The authors showed that the formulas used by deCODEme can lead to a predicted risk exceeding 100% in high risk cases. The formulas used by 23andMe followed the Bayes' theorem preventing risks to exceed 100%, leading to more realistic risk estimates. Unfortunately, methods for risk calculation were not provided by Easy-DNA or GTL, and could therefore not be evaluated.

Recently, many companies stopped offering DTC-tests. Several issues played a role. First, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) questioned the evidence of the safety and efficacy of these prediction tests⁵². Second, it was unclear what actions the individual will take when made aware of his/her genetic profile. Third, health care professionals lacked guidelines for counselling and patient management after genetic profiling. Do these issues apply to DTC-tests for AMD? Our study encountered no genotyping errors. Nevertheless, predictions were inaccurate based on methodology. It is indeed unclear what an individual should do when diagnosed with a high genetic risk of AMD, and what a clinician should advise such patients. Cessation of smoking and lowering BMI is advice which applies to all persons. However, it is likely that individuals who have been made aware of a high genetic risk after testing will be more motivated to make drastic life style changes than persons who are ignorant.

Although genetic testing for prediction of disease risk is the next step to personalized medicine, the current state of the art is that most DTC-tests are accurate at genotyping, but not at risk prediction. Improvement can be achieved by incorporation of a more comprehensive set of genetic markers with population-based risks. Inclusion of non-genetic risk factors, a more adequate choice of the reference population, and implementation of valid methodology for risk calculation will further improve these tests. Only then will these genetic tests become suitable for clinical practice.

REFERENCES

1. Fritsche LG, Chen W, Schu M, et al. Seven new loci associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2013;45(4):433-9.
2. Fritsche LG, Consortium TIAG. IOVS 2014;55:ARVO E-Abstract 4570.
3. Chen Y, Zeng J, Zhao C, et al. Assessing susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration with genetic markers and environmental factors. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2011;129(3):344-51.
4. Gibson J, Cree A, Collins A, et al. Determination of a gene and environment risk model for age-related macular degeneration. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2010;94(10):1382-7.
5. Gold B, Merriam JE, Zernant J, et al. Variation in factor B (BF) and complement component 2 (C2) genes is associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2006;38(4):458-62.
6. Grassmann F, Fritsche LG, Keilhauer CN, et al. Modelling the genetic risk in age-related macular degeneration. *PLoS One* 2012;7(5):e37979.
7. Hageman GS, Gehrs K, Lejnine S, et al. Clinical validation of a genetic model to estimate the risk of developing choroidal neovascular age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Genomics* 2011;5(5):420-40.
8. Jakobsdottir J, Conley YP, Weeks DE, et al. C2 and CFB genes in age-related maculopathy and joint action with CFH and LOC387715 genes. *PLoS One* 2008;3(5):e2199.
9. Jakobsdottir J, Gorin MB, Conley YP, et al. Interpretation of genetic association studies: markers with replicated highly significant odds ratios may be poor classifiers. *PLoS Genet* 2009;5(2):e1000337.
10. Klein ML, Francis PJ, Ferris FL, 3rd, et al. Risk assessment model for development of advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2011;129(12):1543-50.
11. McKay GJ, Dasari S, Patterson CC, et al. Complement component 3: an assessment of association with AMD and analysis of gene-gene and gene-environment interactions in a Northern Irish cohort. *Mol Vis* 2010;16:194-9.
12. Perlee LT, Bansal AT, Gehrs K, et al. Inclusion of Genotype with Fundus Phenotype Improves Accuracy of Predicting Choroidal Neovascularization and Geographic Atrophy. *Ophthalmology* 2013.
13. Reynolds R, Hartnett ME, Atkinson JP, et al. Plasma complement components and activation fragments: associations with age-related macular degeneration genotypes and phenotypes. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2009;50(12):5818-27.
14. Seddon JM, Reynolds R, Maller J, et al. Prediction model for prevalence and incidence of advanced age-related macular degeneration based on genetic, demographic, and environmental variables. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2009;50(5):2044-53.
15. Seddon JM, Reynolds R, Yu Y, et al. Risk models for progression to advanced age-related macular degeneration using demographic, environmental, genetic, and ocular factors. *Ophthalmology* 2011;118(11):2203-11.
16. Sharma NK, Sharma SK, Gupta A, et al. Predictive Model for Earlier Diagnosis of Suspected Age-Related Macular Degeneration Patients. *DNA Cell Biol* 2013.
17. Spencer KL, Olson LM, Schnetz-Boutaud N, et al. Using genetic variation and environmental risk factor data to identify individuals at high risk for age-related macular degeneration. *PLoS One* 2011;6(3):e17784.
18. Ying GS, Maguire MG. Development of a risk score for geographic atrophy in complications of the age-related macular degeneration prevention trial. *Ophthalmology* 2011;118(2):332-8.
19. Yu Y, Reynolds R, Rosner B, et al. Prospective assessment of genetic effects on progression to different stages of age-related macular degeneration using multistate Markov models. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2012;53(3):1548-56.
20. Zanke B, Hawken S, Carter R, Chow D. A genetic approach to stratification of risk for age-related macular degeneration. *Can J Ophthalmol* 2010;45(1):22-7.
21. Hughes AE, Orr N, Patterson C, et al. Neovascular age-related macular degeneration risk based on CFH, LOC387715/HTRA1, and smoking. *PLoS Med* 2007;4(12):e355.
22. Buitendijk GH, Rochtchina E, Myers C, et al. Prediction of Age-related Macular Degeneration in the General Population: The Three Continent AMD Consortium. *Ophthalmology* 2013.
23. Kalf RR, Mihaescu R, Kundu S, et al. Variations in predicted risks in personal genome testing for common complex diseases. *Genet Med* 2013.
24. Conley YP, Jakobsdottir J, Mah T, et al. CFH, ELOVL4, PLEKHA1 and LOC387715 genes and susceptibility to age-related maculopathy: AREDS and CHS cohorts and meta-analyses. *Hum Mol Genet* 2006;15(21):3206-18.
25. Johnson PT, Betts KE, Radeke MJ, et al. Individuals homozygous for the age-related macular degeneration risk-conferring variant of complement factor H have elevated levels of CRP in the choroid. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2006;103(46):17456-61.
26. Laine M, Jarva H, Seitsonen S, et al. Y402H polymorphism of complement factor H affects binding affinity to

- C-reactive protein. *J Immunol* 2007;178(6):3831-6.
27. Maller J, George S, Purcell S, et al. Common variation in three genes, including a noncoding variant in CFH, strongly influences risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2006;38(9):1055-9.
 28. Skerka C, Lauer N, Weinberger AA, et al. Defective complement control of factor H (Y402H) and FHL-1 in age-related macular degeneration. *Mol Immunol* 2007;44(13):3398-406.
 29. Sofat R, Casas JP, Webster AR, et al. Complement factor H genetic variant and age-related macular degeneration: effect size, modifiers and relationship to disease subtype. *Int J Epidemiol* 2012;41(1):250-62.
 30. Chen W, Stambolian D, Edwards AO, et al. Genetic variants near TIMP3 and high-density lipoprotein-associated loci influence susceptibility to age-related macular degeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2010;107(16):7401-6.
 31. Neale BM, Fagerness J, Reynolds R, et al. Genome-wide association study of advanced age-related macular degeneration identifies a role of the hepatic lipase gene (LIPC). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2010;107(16):7395-400.
 32. Gold B, Merriam JE, Zernant J, et al. Variation in factor B (BF) and complement component 2 (C2) genes is associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2006;38(4):458-62.
 33. Kanda A, Chen W, Othman M, et al. A variant of mitochondrial protein LOC387715/ARMS2, not HTRA1, is strongly associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2007;104(41):16227-32.
 34. Park KH, Fridley BL, Ryu E, et al. Complement component 3 (C3) haplotypes and risk of advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2009;50(7):3386-93.
 35. Yates JR, Sepp T, Matharu BK, et al. Complement C3 variant and the risk of age-related macular degeneration. *N Engl J Med* 2007;357(6):553-61.
 36. Spencer KL, Hauser MA, Olson LM, et al. Protective effect of complement factor B and complement component 2 variants in age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Mol Genet* 2007;16(16):1986-92.
 37. Macpherson M NB, Hsu A, Mountain J. White paper 23-01: Estimating genotype-specific incidence for one or several loci. 2007. Available at: https://23andmehttpsinternapcdnnet/res/pdf/HIC-SXIYiYqXreldAxO5yA_23-01_Estimating_Genotype_Specific_Incidencepdf Assessed October 1, 2013.
 38. Maller JB, Fagerness JA, Reynolds RC, et al. Variation in complement factor 3 is associated with risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2007;39(10):1200-1.
 39. deCODEme. Risk calculation. Available at: <https://www.decodemecom/health-watch-information/risk-calculation> Accessed October 6, 2013.
 40. Despriet DD, Klaver CC, Witteman JC, et al. Complement factor H polymorphism, complement activators, and risk of age-related macular degeneration. *JAMA* 2006;296(3):301-9.
 41. Jylhava J, Eklund C, Jylha M, et al. Complement factor H 402His variant confers an increased mortality risk in Finnish nonagenarians: the Vitality 90+ study. *Exp Gerontol* 2009;44(4):297-9.
 42. Bird AC, Bressler NM, Bressler SB, et al. An international classification and grading system for age-related maculopathy and age-related macular degeneration. The International ARM Epidemiological Study Group. *Surv Ophthalmol* 1995;39(5):367-74.
 43. Klein R, Davis MD, Magli YL, et al. The Wisconsin age-related maculopathy grading system. *Ophthalmology* 1991;98(7):1128-34.
 44. team EGs. ENIGMA2 1KGP cookbook (v3). The Enhancing Neuroimaging Genetics through Meta-Analysis (ENIGMA) consortium. . online.
 45. WHO. Life expectancy at birth - 2011. http://gamapserver.who.int/gho/interactive_charts/mbd/life-expectancy/atlas.html Accessed december 19, 2013.
 46. Prioux F, Barbieri M. Recent Demographic Developments in France: Relatively Low Mortality at Advanced Ages. *Population (Engl Ed)* 2012;67(4).
 47. Nonyane BA, Nitsch D, Whittaker JC, et al. An ecological correlation study of late age-related macular degeneration and the complement factor HY402H polymorphism. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2010;51(5):2393-402.
 48. Ricci F, Zampatti S, D'Abbruzzi F, et al. Typing of ARMS2 and CFH in age-related macular degeneration: case-control study and assessment of frequency in the Italian population. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2009;127(10):1368-72.
 49. NCBI. dbSNP. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/SNP/snp_ref.cgi?rs=800292 Assessed December 20, 2013.
 50. van Leeuwen R, Klaver CC, Vingerling JR, et al. The risk and natural course of age-related maculopathy: follow-up at 6 1/2 years in the Rotterdam study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2003;121(4):519-26.
 51. Vingerling JR, Hofman A, Grobbee DE, de Jong PT. Age-related macular degeneration and smoking. The Rotterdam Study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1996;114(10):1193-6.
 52. Administration F-USFaD. Medical Devices. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2014; v. 2014.



Chapter 7.1

General discussion

The aim of this thesis was to expand our genetic and epidemiological knowledge of age-related macular degeneration (AMD), in order to gain more comprehension of the pathogenesis of AMD. This general discussion will summarize and review the most important findings described in this thesis and their clinical relevance, discuss methodological considerations, and provide suggestions for future research.

MAIN FINDINGS AND CLINICAL RELEVANCE

Burden of AMD

Although the prevalence of AMD in the Western World has been studied extensively in large studies,^{1,2} estimates in Europe were based on single studies and a clear overview for Europe was lacking.³ Thus far, only a few small studies have described the prevalence of AMD in Europe and its' relation to visual decline.⁴⁻⁶ We therefore investigated the prevalence of AMD over two decades in Europe in **Chapter 2.1** and observed a decreasing prevalence of AMD after the year 2006. This was also seen in other studies^{7,8} and is most likely due to increase of awareness⁹ and improved lifestyle in the elderly.^{10,11} However, the projections we made for the year 2040 indicate that, although age-specific prevalences may be decreasing, that the actual number of affected persons with AMD will increase due to the aging population, resulting in more affected elderly in Europe than residents currently living in the Netherlands.

In **Chapter 2.2** we have shown that AMD is the major cause of visual impairment and blindness in an elderly population. Visually impaired persons, due to AMD, experience a significantly reduced quality of life.¹² For society, both visual impairment and blindness cause a considerable economic burden.¹³ Annual expenses are inversely correlated with visual acuity; for blind patients costs are almost two-fold the costs for non-blind patients. Costs are even expected to increase due to the aging population. Even though, improved diagnostics and the introduction of anti-vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) therapy have most likely resulted in fewer visually impaired eyes,¹⁴ studies indicated that long term visual prognosis after anti-VEGF treatment often show substantial visual decline.^{15,16} However, all improvement in visual outcome, even for a short period, will decrease demands on healthcare and costs. Therefore, anti-VEGF therapy should still be continued, since it improves visual outcome on the short term.^{15,16} Our data indicates that AMD is still a major health problem and a more profound solution is needed, since long lasting effects of the current therapy is insufficient.

Environmental and phenotypical risk factors of AMD

Risk factors have been investigated to identify those at risk, predict disease outcome and help elucidate the complex pathogenesis of AMD. These factors can also be used for screening and modifiable factors may even alter disease onset and outcome. As stated in **Chapter 1.1** many risk factors for AMD were known before the onset of this thesis. Yet, we were able to identify a new risk factor for AMD: thyroid hormone. Previous studies identified a positive relationship of thyroid medication use^{17,18} or self-reported hypothyroidism¹⁹ associated with a higher risk of AMD. However all of these studies were lacking laboratory assessment of thyroid function, and were therefore unable to investigate the true relationship. In this thesis we have shown that higher values of free thyroxine, even within the normal range, were associated with an increased risk of AMD and retinal pigment alterations (**Chapter 4.3**). Higher levels of free thyroxine can increase metabolism leading to oxidative stress, which plays an important role in the pathogenesis of AMD (Figure 1).^{20,21} Our findings were partly confirmed by the Blue Mountains Eye study. They found a significant positive association of overt hyperthyroidism and 10-year incidence of AMD. No association was found for

hypothyroidism, but use of thyroxine medication was significantly associated with an increased risk of AMD. Both findings seem to be driven by higher free thyroxine levels. Unfortunately, no association was found for free thyroxine levels and incident AMD. However, the number of cases in their study was small, since data was only available for 5-year incidence of AMD.²² More studies are necessary to understand the exact role of thyroid hormone in the pathogenesis of AMD and maybe in the future thyroid hormone can be used as a biomarker for AMD.

An important modifiable risk factor is dietary intake. Several studies focusing on dietary intake and supplementation of nutrients have shown that in particular carotenoids, zinc, and omega-3 fatty acids were associated with a lower risk of AMD. These nutrients are mainly present in dark-leafy vegetables, yellow-orange vegetables and fruit, fortified cereal, meats and fatty-fish. (**Chapter 4.1**) Unclear was what the recommended minimum intake of these foods should be to obtain this protective effect. In this thesis we have shown that a diet including at least 200 grams of vegetables a day, 2 large pieces of fruit a day and 2 times fish per week is associated with a reduced risk of AMD. No significant association was found for the intake of grains or meats with AMD (**Chapter 4.2**). The beneficial effect from vegetables, fruit and fish intake on AMD is most likely due to carotenoids, in vegetables and fruit, and omega-3-fatty acids in fish. Higher intake of these nutrients could also reduce the overall risk of AMD in those with a high genetic risk (**Chapter 5.3**). Carotenoids, in specific lutein and zeaxanthin, are important for macular pigment. The macular pigment is highly concentrated with these carotenoids and offer protection to the retina by absorbing hazardous ionizing blue and ultraviolet light. Furthermore, it has antioxidant properties and has anti-inflammatory effects.²³ Polyunsaturated fatty acids, like omega-3-fatty acids, are one of the main components of the retina. They are highly present in the photoreceptor outer segments and improve fluidity of the photoreceptor membranes, resulting in faster response to stimulation. Additionally, omega-3-fatty acids may also protect against ischemia, and have antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties.²⁴ Both oxidative stress and inflammation are part of the pathogenesis of AMD (Figure 1).^{20,21} Other modifiable risk factors associated with AMD are smoking and body mass index. Cardiovascular risk factors may be associated with AMD, although findings have been inconclusive.^{21,25}

Regarding the modifiable risk factors, clinicians should advice patients at risk of AMD, for example those with a positive family history, to adopt a healthy life-style. This should include physical exercise, a diet with recommended intake of vegetables, fruit and fish, have a normal body mass-index and quit smoking, the latter if applicable.

Reticular pseudodrusen (RPD), also known as subretinal drusenoid deposits, have been identified as an important clinical risk factor for progression to late AMD. Those with RPD have a higher risk compared to other drusen types.²⁶⁻²⁸ Presence of RPD is often bilateral and the highest prevalence is found in late AMD cases.²⁹ Identification of persons at high risk for late AMD can be important for patient management. **Chapter 3.1** and **3.2** provide evidence that near-infrared imaging was the most sensitive for detection of RPD of the tested imaging modalities. Detection improved even further when multi-modal imaging was applied. We also found that RPD was associated with a different risk profile compared to soft indistinct drusen, another drusen type which coincide often with RPD. These findings indicate that RPD are distinct AMD entities.

In neovascular AMD, antiplatelet and anticoagulant (AP/AC) use may potentially worsen clinical outcomes, leading to more severe hemorrhages and increase fibrovascular scarring.³⁰ A question often asked in the clinic is whether AP/AC therapy should be discontinued in patients with neovascular AMD. In **Chapter 4.4** we show that the use of AP/AC therapy in patients with active

choroidal neovascularization is not associated with visual impairment, nor the presence of retinal hemorrhages. We could not find an association of AP/AC use with choroidal neovascularization (CNV) lesion size. For retinal foveal thickness a borderline significant association was found for aspirin use only. After the start of anti-VEGF medication no differences were observed between users and nonusers. In contrast, those using AP/AC medication did not have an increased risk of visual impairment and had a lower risk of retinal hemorrhages. Aspirin seemed to be the major driver of the beneficial effect of AP/AC in our study. Beside the well-known effect on platelet aggregation, aspirin has anti-oxidant properties, reduces inflammation and angiogenesis, and stimulates apoptosis.³¹ The anti-oxidant, anti-inflammatory and anti-angiogenic properties may explain the found protective effect. Our findings imply that patients with neovascular AMD can continue their prescribed use of AP/AC medication without negative effects on AMD outcome.

Genetic risk factors

Even before the start of genome-wide association studies (GWAS), it was known for many years that heritability was an important factor in AMD.³² Only after the start of GWAS identification of the disease-associated risk variants became possible. Several risk variants in thirteen genes have been associated with AMD, by single or small collaborations between studies (**Chapter 5.1**). The associated genes were part of the complement pathway (*CFH*, *CFB/C2*, *C3*, *CFI*), lipid related genes (*APOE*, *LIPC*, *CETP*), collagen related genes (*COL8A1*, *COL10A1*) and other genes (*ARMS2*, *VEGFA*, *TIMP3*, *TNFRSF10A*). The AMD gene consortium conducted a GWAS including ~17,100 advanced AMD cases and ~60,000 controls, and confirmed the previous associations and identified seven new loci (*COL8A1-FILIP1L*, *IER3-DDR1*, *SLC16A8*, *TGFBR1*, *RAD51B*, *ADAMTS9*, *B3GALT1*) (**Chapter 5.2**). All nineteen risk variants were common and involved in complement activity, lipid metabolism, extracellular matrix remodeling and angiogenesis.

More recently, The AMD Gene Consortium published their results using exome chip data from ~16,100 cases with intermediate or late AMD and ~17,800 controls.³³ In total 52 independently associated variants in 34 loci were identified, of which 17 loci were replicated from the previously mentioned GWAS. The associated variants were mostly common, seven were rare variants. Four genes had a significant disease burden: *CFH*, *CFI*, *TIMP3* and *SLC16A8*, indicating a causal role for these genes. Pathway analyses identified complement, collagen, lipid and extracellular matrix pathways to play a role in the pathogenesis of AMD. The heritability of AMD has been determined to be between 65-70%.^{34,35} All identified risk variants to date explain approximately 27.2% of disease variability, of which 1.4% is contributed by rare variants. This means that approximately 40% of the heritability is not explained by the identified genes. The missing heritability might be explained by additional genetic variation³⁶, gene-gene or gene-environment interactions.

Identification of risk factors has helped to understand more of the pathogenesis of AMD. This information can be used to develop future therapies, but also to identify those at high risk. In Figure 1, risk factors for AMD discussed in this thesis have been incorporated to provide an overview of the pathogenesis of AMD.

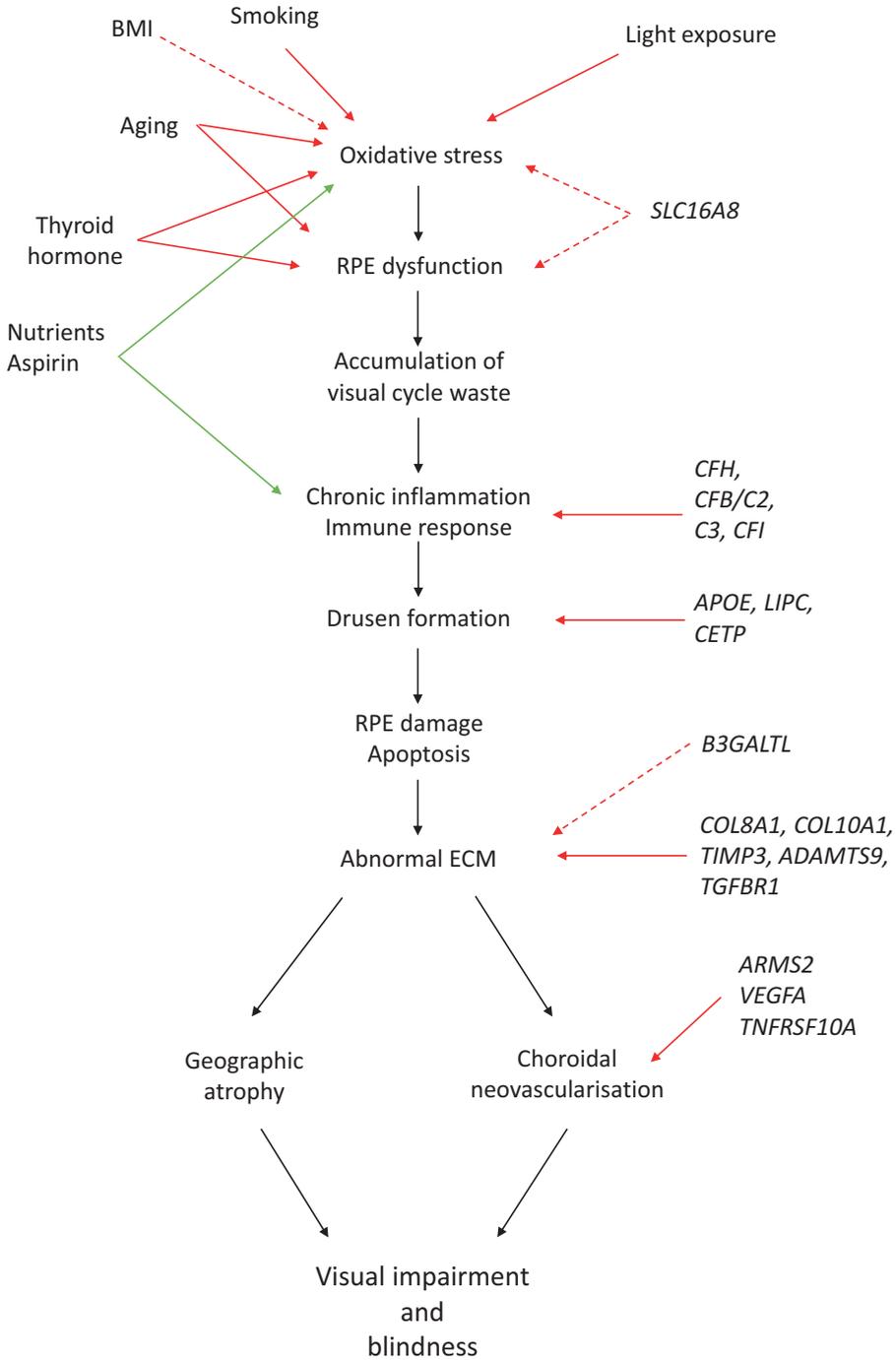


FIGURE 1 - Pathogenesis of AMD.

Simplified scheme of the pathogenesis of AMD. Black arrows are the steps in the pathogenesis, red arrow displays risk increasing factors, green arrow displays risk reducing factors. Dotted arrows indicate a potential relationship.

Prediction of AMD

In **Chapter 6.1** we have provided an overview of previous reported prediction models for late AMD. All of these models were based on a case-control study design, in which the extreme ends of disease are compared, while excluding the majority of the population with signs of early AMD. We developed a prediction model in the population-based Rotterdam Study and validated it in the Three Continent AMD Consortium. The full model included the variables: age, sex, smoking, body mass index, baseline AMD phenotype, and 26 common risk variants in genes associated with AMD. This model could distinguish those who will develop late AMD between those who will not, with an accuracy of 87%. Exclusion of variables led to a lower predictive value. Subsequently we showed that the cumulative risk of developing late AMD is approximately 17% at the age of 90 years. Using our prediction model, the cumulative risk for seven risk categories, ranged from zero to almost 66% at the age of 90 years. This indicates that a prediction test can help to identify those at high risk of late AMD.

Although published prediction models led to several web-based risk calculators for prediction of late AMD (<http://caseyamdcalc.ohsu.edu>³⁷; <http://www.myvisiontest.com/riskcalc2.php>³⁸; <http://www.sightrisk.com>) and progression of AMD (www.seddonamdriskscore.org³⁹), implementation in the clinic will be difficult, since most of these risk calculators need genetic data beside information on lifestyle and phenotypical factors. Currently, there is no easy accessible, inexpensive genetic test available for AMD, which tests all known associated genetic variants. There are, however, companies offering genetic tests for AMD, which can be purchased on the internet. We have tested the direct-to-consumer personal genome tests for genotyping quality and accuracy of risk prediction of AMD in **Chapter 6.2**. The genotyping was of high quality, but the risk prediction was not accurate. Inclusion of more genetic and environmental risk factors for AMD will improve future tests. Interestingly, from the tested companies, one stopped offering genetic tests shortly after we had received our results, one offers raw genotype data only, and two companies are currently not offering any tests for AMD.

The costs of sequencing has dropped in a rapid pace over the past years. Sequencing of an entire genome, was approximately \$10 million in 2007, and currently available for less than \$1000.^{40,41} Although lower costs for genetic testing will make it more available for clinical practice, cost-effectiveness⁴², the possibility of secondary findings⁴³, psychological and decision making risks, all need to be addressed before it can be applied for routine genetic testing in AMD as long as no cure is available.⁴⁴

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Within this thesis, relevant methodological issues have been addressed in the discussion sections of each chapter. Here, we will discuss some general methods and issues we encountered.

Phenotyping issues

The studies described in this thesis have different outcomes, mostly: 1) late AMD, 2) early AMD, 3) any AMD, both late and early AMD combined. Late AMD is the visual threatening end-stage of the disease, due to a low prevalence in the general population, the power to investigate some associations has been challenging. Early AMD is mostly asymptomatic, but more frequently present in the general population compared to late AMD. However, several characteristics describe early AMD, leading to a large variation of phenotypes. A possibility to increase power is to collaborate with other studies, however phenotypical issues could reduce the power. For the collaboration with the Three Continent AMD Consortium we harmonized our classification to minimize differences in AMD definitions, which

was predominantly the case for early AMD.⁴⁵ This resulted in a new 5-step AMD severity scale, which was used in **Chapter 5.3**, and **6.1**. To increase power for analyses restricted to the Rotterdam Study, we mainly used the outcome any AMD.

Another phenotypical issue is improved detection of AMD lesions with multimodal imaging compared to color fundus photographs (CFP) only. Differences in detection may lead to changes in prevalence and incidence of AMD. For instance, in **Chapter 3.1** and **3.2** we showed that detection of RPD was better using near-infrared imaging, and the best results were obtained using multi modal imaging. This also accounts for other AMD lesions.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹ Nevertheless, CFP have been the golden standard for AMD grading in epidemiological studies, including the Rotterdam Study.⁵⁰⁻⁵² Many new techniques have been developed and since 2007, when high resolution imaging was available,⁵³ imaging techniques like optical coherence tomography (OCT), near-infrared and auto fluorescence imaging, have been incorporated in the Rotterdam Study beside CFP. Unfortunately, a consensus for grading and classification of these pathologies using imaging other than CFP is lacking.

Genetics

Since the start of the GWAS era, thousands of genetic variants associated with complex diseases and traits have been identified successfully.⁵⁴ However, these types of analyses have limitations: large sample sizes are mostly needed to increase the power to find associations. This requires collaborations between different studies and could introduce phenotypical and genetical heterogeneity, limiting the possibility to find associations. Furthermore, the found association is in most cases a marker in high linkage disequilibrium with the causal variant. Identification of the causal variant can be difficult due to many or no genes near the associated marker. Identification of the causal variants is necessary, since it helps to identify the true relationship with the disease and may provide a drug target. In **Chapter 5.2** we identified 19 common variants associated with AMD using GWAS data from 33 different studies. The heterogeneity was high for some associations, and most likely due to differences in methodology and ancestry of study populations (Asian and European descent). Of the previously identified loci, 17 were replicated in the most recent study from the AMD gene consortium using genomic data from 26 different studies.³³ Exome chip data was enriched for the previously identified loci and imputed with 1000 genomes data, to increase the chance of finding causal risk variants in protein-coding regions of the DNA, also known as the exome. All study samples were genotyped at the same facility, which led to a reduction of heterogeneity. The study using exome chip data was executed with a larger amount of variants, but with a lower number of cases and controls in comparison to the GWAS. Many new risk variants, including rare variants, were identified in the recent study, and explained more of the phenotypical variance. However, these newly identified variants were involved in largely the same pathways which were also identified in the GWAS and there is still missing heritability.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The studies described in this thesis have provided new insights in the pathogenesis of AMD. However, there are still many questions that can be answered by future studies.

As a start, identifying the missing heritability of AMD could help to understand the complete genetic architecture of AMD. Many genes involved in several pathways have been identified, but we are not there yet. For instance, it is unknown what the exact function of the *ARMS2* gene is and which role it plays in the pathogenesis of AMD, although the risk variant in this gene has the most significant association of all common variants associated with AMD.³³ Unidentified risk variants, gene-gene

and gene-environment interaction could help to understand the role of identified genes and identify the missing heritability of AMD. For identification of novel risk variants it is difficult to state which approach would be the most successful, since several strategies have been explored: Exome sequencing of families with AMD^{55,56} or patients with specific phenotypes,⁵⁷ sequencing of previously associated genes,⁵⁸⁻⁶² and the GWAS approach using large case-control samples for the outcomes early⁶³ as well as late AMD.³³ Enlargement of the study sample and whole genome sequencing might help to identify new risk variants for AMD.

Gene-gene or gene-environment interactions can modulate disease risk. In this thesis we have shown that intake of nutrients reduced the overall risk of individuals at high genetic risk based on gene-environment interactions (**Chapter 5.3**). In order to study multifactorial relationships between genes and environmental factors, collaboration between epidemiological studies is needed, since single studies are quickly outnumbered because of the many different strata in the analyses. Gene-gene and gene-environment interactions can also be investigated in a genome-wide setting, so called genome-wide association gene-gene interaction and genome-wide environmental interaction studies. This, however, needs to be done in a large study setting with good quality of phenotyping and environmental data, since studies can be quickly underpowered due to countless possibilities of interaction combinations and misclassification may introduce bias.^{64,65}

Newer fields of interest in AMD research have been epigenomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, and metabolomics. Like GWAS, omic studies are hypothesis-free, enabling association analyses at once in a large set of markers. Epigenomics focusses on heritable regulatory mechanisms of gene expression without changes in the DNA sequence. Transcriptomics conveys gene expression and noncoding RNAs like microRNAs, which are small RNA molecules that regulate gene expression after transcription. Proteomics focusses on peptides or proteins and in metabolomics derivatives of metabolism are measured and analyzed. Several small studies using these new techniques have published interesting results, however findings need to be replicated in independent studies.^{21,66} The most interesting of these new techniques are proteomics and metabolomics. These techniques may help to understand what is actually happening in a patient with AMD. Beside data acquired from plasma or serum, which is much easier to obtain from the patient, ocular tissue and fluids of patients with AMD in various stages of the disease are also necessary, since these are closer to the location of the disease. Proteomics and metabolomics may help to identify potential biomarkers, find new pathways and link current pathways together. Epigenomics and transcriptomics are also interesting, but might be of more interest in a later stage, when more of the pathogenesis of AMD is understood. These techniques focus on regulatory mechanisms and may help to understand for example the influence of environmental factors on gene expression.

Many different imaging techniques of the posterior pole are available and improvement of current and development of newer techniques is ongoing. For example in OCT imaging many different methods have been developed, and the latest is OCT angiography.⁶⁷ This provides a non-invasive technique for visualization of functional blood vessels in the eye and is potentially interesting for neovascular AMD. However, as stated earlier, a consensus for grading and classification of imaging other than CFP is lacking. Currently, we are working on a consensus for OCT grading of macular diseases within the E3 consortium.

Manual grading of images is time-consuming, which is one of the reasons that automatic grading with machine learning algorithms have been developed for different image modalities.⁶⁸⁻⁷¹ This field is still under development and the predictive power of the machine learning algorithms

depend on the size and quality of the dataset.⁶⁹ Consensus of grading and classification, together with collaboration of studies with imaging, may result in large high quality datasets, leading to improvement of the algorithms. Automatic grading is especially interesting for screening purposes, which has successfully been used for detection of diabetic retinopathy.⁷⁰ Early detection of AMD in persons without any symptoms, may identify those at risk of late AMD, increase awareness and lead to positive life-style changes. Another opportunity for machine learning is development of prediction models. Currently there models available for prediction of drusen regression⁷², which is associated with development of late AMD, and prediction of anti-VEGF treatment needs⁷³, which may help to determine individual treatment intervals. When these prediction models will become available for clinical application, this can lead to a substantial improvement of AMD management.

Systems biology can help to link all the pieces together. It is a powerful computational and mathematical method of modeling complex diseases to comprehend complex interactions within biological systems. For example, in systems biology data on phenome, genome, epigenome, transcriptome, proteome, interactome, and metabolome can be integrated to assemble models and pathways, which can help explain the pathogenesis of AMD.⁷⁴

The ultimate goal is to identify patients at an early stage, obtain insights in individual risk profiles and how to modulate these, monitor progression of the disease, and measure treatment response, all with a simple test. However, before this test will have added value, there is need for better treatment options. Understanding the pathogenesis of AMD will help to provide drug targets and understand how to prevent progression to visual threatening late AMD.

Currently, many ongoing trials are investigating different therapeutic options.⁷⁵⁻⁷⁸ For neovascular AMD the main focus is to decrease treatment burden. Implants providing constant release of anti-VEGF are being tested. New anti-VEGF agents have been developed, but also anti-platelet derived growth factor and anti-angiopoietin agents are interesting therapies, because of their anti-angiogenic effect. These new agents are mostly tested in combination with anti-VEGF therapy. Gene therapy might be another option to reduce treatment burden. A viral vector containing the code for the VEGF receptor is administered via subretinal injections and then expressed by the host retinal cells. This reduces the effect of VEGF in the eye with a longer duration compared to current treatment with anti-VEGF.

Since no treatment options have been available for geographic atrophy (GA) or early AMD, many trials have been focusing on this type of AMD with the main goal of preservation of vision. Ongoing trials can be divided in five categories: 1) neuroprotective agents, 2) anti-inflammatory agents, 3) lipofuscin and visual cycle inhibitors, 4) choroidal blood flow restoration agents, 5) stem cell therapy. Most of these trials have completed phase I or II and a few started phase III. The first results of most of these trials have been promising, in particular for stem cell therapy. Human embryonic stem cells were injected in the subretinal area, which improved visual acuity in the injected eyes of patients with geographic atrophy.^{79,80} However, larger studies with follow-up measurements are needed before some of these therapeutic options will be used as a treatment for AMD.

The latest results of the phase III trial investigating the safety and efficacy of lampalizumab, which is an antibody selectively inhibiting complement factor D, was less promising.⁸¹ The first results did not show a difference in mean GA lesion area in comparison to the sham injection. The target, complement factor D, was chosen carefully: genetic studies have indicated that the complement system, in particular the alternative pathway in which factor D plays a role, is involved in the pathogenesis of AMD. It could be that once geographic atrophy starts to develop, there is no way

back. A recent study observed that before GA is visible, small disruptions of the retinal anatomy occur, which are best visualized on OCT.⁴⁹ These disruptions include subsidence of the outer plexiform and inner nuclear layers, while the retinal pigment epithelium is still intact. This stage is named nascent GA and eventually will result in loss of photoreceptor and retinal pigment epithelial cells, which are characteristics of GA. Thus, treatments targeting the complement system might have more success when tested in patients with early signs of AMD, since the complement system plays a major role in drusen formation.⁸² Nevertheless, patients with early AMD are mostly asymptomatic, but at risk of visual threatening end stage disease. Whether these patients should be treated or not is a difficult discussion. As a start, future studies focusing on treatment of early AMD could start with those at high risk of developing late AMD.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

AMD is a chronic complex disease and still the leading cause of blindness in the Western World. In this thesis we have identified genetic variants associated with AMD through an international collaboration of studies, which have helped to elucidate a large part of the genetic architecture of AMD. Furthermore, we have investigated environmental risk factors and gene-environment interactions, using large well-designed longitudinal studies for which we harmonized our methodology and grading protocols. Combining these risk factors in a prediction model offered a good method to distinguish between those who will develop late AMD and those who will not. These findings can help future studies to further unravel the pathogenesis of AMD and ultimately develop preventative measures for this blinding disease.

REFERENCES

1. Friedman DS, O'Colmain BJ, Munoz B, et al. Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in the United States. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2004;122(4):564-72.
2. Wong WL, Su X, Li X, et al. Global prevalence of age-related macular degeneration and disease burden projection for 2020 and 2040: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Glob Health* 2014;2(2):e106-16.
3. Prokofyeva E, Zrenner E. Epidemiology of major eye diseases leading to blindness in Europe: a literature review. *Ophthalmic Res* 2012;47(4):171-88.
4. Hoeg TB, Ellervik C, Buch H, et al. Danish Rural Eye Study: Epidemiology of Adult Visual Impairment. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol* 2016;23(1):53-62.
5. Klaver CC, Wolfs RC, Vingerling JR, et al. Age-specific prevalence and causes of blindness and visual impairment in an older population: the Rotterdam Study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1998;116(5):653-8.
6. Korb CA, Kottler UB, Wolfram C, et al. Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in a large European cohort: results from the population-based Gutenberg Health Study. *Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol* 2014;252(9):1403-11.
7. Klein R, Chou CF, Klein BE, et al. Prevalence of age-related macular degeneration in the US population. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2011;129(1):75-80.
8. Klein R, Knudtson MD, Lee KE, et al. Age-period-cohort effect on the incidence of age-related macular degeneration: the Beaver Dam Eye Study. *Ophthalmology* 2008;115(9):1460-7.
9. Heraghty J, Cummins R. A layered approach to raising public awareness of macular degeneration in Australia. *Am J Public Health* 2012;102(9):1655-9.
10. Plessz M, Gueguen A, Goldberg M, et al. Ageing, retirement and changes in vegetable consumption in France: findings from the prospective GAZEL cohort. *Br J Nutr* 2015;114(6):979-87.
11. Pot GK, Prynne CJ, Almoosawi S, et al. Trends in food consumption over 30 years: evidence from a British birth cohort. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 2015;69(7):817-23.
12. Yuzawa M, Fujita K, Tanaka E, Wang EC. Assessing quality of life in the treatment of patients with age-related macular degeneration: clinical research findings and recommendations for clinical practice. *Clin Ophthalmol* 2013;7:1325-32.
13. Koberlein J, Beifus K, Schaffert C, Finger RP. The economic burden of visual impairment and blindness: a systematic review. *BMJ Open* 2013;3(11):e003471.
14. Claessen H, Genz J, Bertram B, et al. Evidence for a considerable decrease in total and cause-specific incidences of blindness in Germany. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2012;27(7):519-24.
15. Comparison of Age-Related Macular Degeneration Treatments Trials Research G, Maguire MG, Martin DF, et al. Five-Year Outcomes with Anti-Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor Treatment of Neovascular Age-Related Macular Degeneration: The Comparison of Age-Related Macular Degeneration Treatments Trials. *Ophthalmology* 2016;123(8):1751-61.
16. Rofagha S, Bhisitkul RB, Boyer DS, et al. Seven-year outcomes in ranibizumab-treated patients in ANCHOR, MARINA, and HORIZON: a multicenter cohort study (SEVEN-UP). *Ophthalmology* 2013;120(11):2292-9.
17. Age-Related Eye Disease Study Research G. Risk factors associated with age-related macular degeneration. A case-control study in the age-related eye disease study: Age-Related Eye Disease Study Report Number 3. *Ophthalmology* 2000;107(12):2224-32.
18. Klein R, Klein BE, Jensen SC, et al. Medication use and the 5-year incidence of early age-related maculopathy: the Beaver Dam Eye Study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2001;119(9):1354-9.
19. Bromfield S, Keenan J, Jolly P, McGwin G, Jr. A suggested association between hypothyroidism and age-related macular degeneration. *Curr Eye Res* 2012;37(6):549-52.
20. Mano T, Sinojara R, Sawai Y, et al. Effects of thyroid hormone on coenzyme Q and other free radical scavengers in rat heart muscle. *J Endocrinol* 1995;145(1):131-6.
21. Lambert NG, ElShelmani H, Singh MK, et al. Risk factors and biomarkers of age-related macular degeneration. *Prog Retin Eye Res* 2016;54:64-102.
22. Gopinath B, Liew G, Kifley A, Mitchell P. Thyroid Dysfunction and Ten-Year Incidence of Age-Related Macular Degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2016;57(13):5273-7.
23. Lima VC, Rosen RB, Farah M. Macular pigment in retinal health and disease. *Int J Retina Vitreous* 2016;2:19.
24. SanGiovanni JP, Chew EY. The role of omega-3 long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids in health and disease of the retina. *Prog Retin Eye Res* 2005;24(1):87-138.
25. Chakravarthy U, Wong TY, Fletcher A, et al. Clinical risk factors for age-related macular degeneration: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Ophthalmol* 2010;10:31.
26. Finger RP, Chong E, McGuinness MB, et al. Reticular Pseudodrusen and Their Association with Age-Related

- Macular Degeneration: The Melbourne Collaborative Cohort Study. *Ophthalmology* 2016;123(3):599-608.
27. Huisinigh C, McGwin G, Jr., Neely D, et al. The Association Between Subretinal Drusenoid Deposits in Older Adults in Normal Macular Health and Incident Age-Related Macular Degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2016;57(2):739-45.
 28. Klein R, Meuer SM, Knudtson MD, et al. The epidemiology of retinal reticular drusen. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2008;145(2):317-26.
 29. Sivaprasad S, Bird A, Nitiapapand R, et al. Perspectives on reticular pseudodrusen in age-related macular degeneration. *Surv Ophthalmol* 2016;61(5):521-37.
 30. Avery RL, Fekrat S, Hawkins BS, Bressler NM. Natural history of subfoveal subretinal hemorrhage in age-related macular degeneration. *Retina* 1996;16(3):183-9.
 31. Farrugia G, Balzan R. The proapoptotic effect of traditional and novel nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in mammalian and yeast cells. *Oxid Med Cell Longev* 2013;2013:504230.
 32. Klaver CC, Wolfs RC, Assink JJ, et al. Genetic risk of age-related maculopathy. Population-based familial aggregation study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1998;116(12):1646-51.
 33. Fritsche LG, Igl W, Bailey JN, et al. A large genome-wide association study of age-related macular degeneration highlights contributions of rare and common variants. *Nat Genet* 2016;48(2):134-43.
 34. Sanfilippo PG, Hewitt AW, Hammond CJ, Mackey DA. The heritability of ocular traits. *Surv Ophthalmol* 2010;55(6):561-83.
 35. Seddon JM, Cote J, Page WF, et al. The US twin study of age-related macular degeneration: relative roles of genetic and environmental influences. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2005;123(3):321-7.
 36. Robinson MR, Wray NR, Visscher PM. Explaining additional genetic variation in complex traits. *Trends Genet* 2014;30(4):124-32.
 37. Klein ML, Francis PJ, Ferris FL, 3rd, et al. Risk assessment model for development of advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2011;129(12):1543-50.
 38. Seddon JM, Reynolds R, Maller J, et al. Prediction model for prevalence and incidence of advanced age-related macular degeneration based on genetic, demographic, and environmental variables. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2009;50(5):2044-53.
 39. Seddon JM, Silver RE, Kwong M, Rosner B. Risk Prediction for Progression of Macular Degeneration: 10 Common and Rare Genetic Variants, Demographic, Environmental, and Macular Covariates. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2015;56(4):2192-202.
 40. Hayden EC. Technology: The \$1,000 genome. *Nature* 2014;507(7492):294-5.
 41. PRNewswire. Veritas Genetics Breaks \$1,000 Whole Genome Barrier. 2015.
 42. Christensen KD, Dukhovny D, Siebert U, Green RC. Assessing the Costs and Cost-Effectiveness of Genomic Sequencing. *J Pers Med* 2015;5(4):470-86.
 43. Kalia SS, Adelman K, Bale SJ, et al. Recommendations for reporting of secondary findings in clinical exome and genome sequencing, 2016 update (ACMG SF v2.0): a policy statement of the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics. *Genet Med* 2017;19(2):249-55.
 44. Stone EM. Genetic testing for age-related macular degeneration: not indicated now. *JAMA Ophthalmol* 2015;133(5):598-600.
 45. Klein R, Meuer SM, Myers CE, et al. Harmonizing the classification of age-related macular degeneration in the three-continent AMD consortium. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol* 2014;21(1):14-23.
 46. Coscas GJ, Lupidi M, Coscas F, et al. OPTICAL COHERENCE TOMOGRAPHY ANGIOGRAPHY VERSUS TRADITIONAL MULTIMODAL IMAGING IN ASSESSING THE ACTIVITY OF EXUDATIVE AGE-RELATED MACULAR DEGENERATION: A New Diagnostic Challenge. *Retina* 2015;35(11):2219-28.
 47. Forte R, Querques G, Querques L, et al. Multimodal imaging of dry age-related macular degeneration. *Acta Ophthalmol* 2012;90(4):e281-7.
 48. Sohrab MA, Smith RT, Fawzi AA. Imaging characteristics of dry age-related macular degeneration. *Semin Ophthalmol* 2011;26(3):156-66.
 49. Wu Z, Luu CD, Ayton LN, et al. Fundus autofluorescence characteristics of nascent geographic atrophy in age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2015;56(3):1546-52.
 50. Bird AC, Bressler NM, Bressler SB, et al. An international classification and grading system for age-related maculopathy and age-related macular degeneration. The International ARM Epidemiological Study Group. *Surv Ophthalmol* 1995;39(5):367-74.
 51. Klein R, Davis MD, Magli YL, et al. The Wisconsin age-related maculopathy grading system. *Ophthalmology* 1991;98(7):1128-34.
 52. van Leeuwen R, Klaver CC, Vingerling JR, et al. The risk and natural course of age-related maculopathy: follow-up at 6 1/2 years in the Rotterdam study. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2003;121(4):519-26.
 53. Fromow-Guerra J. The evolution of Confocal Scanning Laser Ophthalmoscopy. *Retina today* 2012.

54. MacArthur J, Bowler E, Cerezo M, et al. The new NHGRI-EBI Catalog of published genome-wide association studies (GWAS Catalog). *Nucleic Acids Res* 2017;45(D1):D896-D901.
55. Pras E, Kristal D, Shoshany N, et al. Rare genetic variants in Tunisian Jewish patients suffering from age-related macular degeneration. *J Med Genet* 2015;52(7):484-92.
56. Yu Y, Triebwasser MP, Wong EK, et al. Whole-exome sequencing identifies rare, functional CFH variants in families with macular degeneration. *Hum Mol Genet* 2014;23(19):5283-93.
57. Duvvari MR, van de Ven JP, Geerlings MJ, et al. Whole Exome Sequencing in Patients with the Cuticular Drusen Subtype of Age-Related Macular Degeneration. *PLoS One* 2016;11(3):e0152047.
58. Helgason H, Sulem P, Duvvari MR, et al. A rare nonsynonymous sequence variant in C3 is associated with high risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2013;45(11):1371-4.
59. Raychaudhuri S, Iartchouk O, Chin K, et al. A rare penetrant mutation in CFH confers high risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2011;43(12):1232-6.
60. Seddon JM, Yu Y, Miller EC, et al. Rare variants in CFI, C3 and C9 are associated with high risk of advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2013;45(11):1366-70.
61. van de Ven JP, Nilsson SC, Tan PL, et al. A functional variant in the CFI gene confers a high risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2013;45(7):813-7.
62. Zhan X, Larson DE, Wang C, et al. Identification of a rare coding variant in complement 3 associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet* 2013;45(11):1375-9.
63. Holliday EG, Smith AV, Cornes BK, et al. Insights into the genetic architecture of early stage age-related macular degeneration: a genome-wide association study meta-analysis. *PLoS One* 2013;8(1):e53830.
64. Lin C, Chu CM, Lin J, et al. Gene-gene and gene-environment interactions in meta-analysis of genetic association studies. *PLoS One* 2015;10(4):e0124967.
65. Aschard H, Lutz S, Maus B, et al. Challenges and opportunities in genome-wide environmental interaction (GWEI) studies. *Hum Genet* 2012;131(10):1591-613.
66. Kersten E, Paun CC, Schellevis RL, et al. Systemic and ocular fluid compounds as potential biomarkers in age-related macular degeneration. *Surv Ophthalmol* 2017.
67. Kashani AH, Chen CL, Gahm JK, et al. Optical coherence tomography angiography: A comprehensive review of current methods and clinical applications. *Prog Retin Eye Res* 2017;60:66-100.
68. Burlina PM, Joshi N, Pekala M, et al. Automated Grading of Age-Related Macular Degeneration From Color Fundus Images Using Deep Convolutional Neural Networks. *JAMA Ophthalmol* 2017.
69. De Fauw J, Keane P, Tomasev N, et al. Automated analysis of retinal imaging using machine learning techniques for computer vision. *F1000Res* 2016;5:1573.
70. Phan TV, Seoud L, Chakor H, Cheriet F. Automatic Screening and Grading of Age-Related Macular Degeneration from Texture Analysis of Fundus Images. *J Ophthalmol* 2016;2016:5893601.
71. Venhuizen FG, van Ginneken B, van Asten F, et al. Automated Staging of Age-Related Macular Degeneration Using Optical Coherence Tomography. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2017;58(4):2318-28.
72. Bogunovic H, Montuoro A, Baratsits M, et al. Machine Learning of the Progression of Intermediate Age-Related Macular Degeneration Based on OCT Imaging. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2017;58(6):BIO141-BIO50.
73. Bogunovic H, Waldstein SM, Schlegl T, et al. Prediction of Anti-VEGF Treatment Requirements in Neovascular AMD Using a Machine Learning Approach. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2017;58(7):3240-8.
74. Chuang HY, Hofree M, Ideker T. A decade of systems biology. *Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol* 2010;26:721-44.
75. Bahadorani S, Singer M. Recent advances in the management and understanding of macular degeneration. *F1000Res* 2017;6:519.
76. Bandello F, Sacconi R, Querques L, et al. Recent advances in the management of dry age-related macular degeneration: A review. *F1000Res* 2017;6:245.
77. Hanus J, Zhao F, Wang S. Current therapeutic developments in atrophic age-related macular degeneration. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2016;100(1):122-7.
78. Sacconi R, Corbelli E, Querques L, et al. A Review of Current and Future Management of Geographic Atrophy. *Ophthalmol Ther* 2017;6(1):69-77.
79. Schwartz SD, Regillo CD, Lam BL, et al. Human embryonic stem cell-derived retinal pigment epithelium in patients with age-related macular degeneration and Stargardt's macular dystrophy: follow-up of two open-label phase 1/2 studies. *Lancet* 2015;385(9967):509-16.
80. Song WK, Park KM, Kim HJ, et al. Treatment of macular degeneration using embryonic stem cell-derived retinal pigment epithelium: preliminary results in Asian patients. *Stem Cell Reports* 2015;4(5):860-72.
81. Roche. Media Release, 8 september 2017. <https://www.roche.com/media/store/releases/med-cor-2017-09-08b.htm> accessed 18-10-2017.
82. Kauppinen A, Paterno JJ, Blasiak J, et al. Inflammation and its role in age-related macular degeneration. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 2016;73(9):1765-86.



Chapter 7.2

Summary

SUMMARY

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is the most common cause of irreversible vision loss in elderly in the Western world. AMD is characterized by drusen, pigmentary changes, geographic atrophy and choroidal neovascularization, which affect the normal anatomy of the macula. Early AMD is characterized by the first two features, and late AMD by the latter two. Although several demographic, genetic, and environmental risk factors have been identified, the etiology of AMD is still largely unknown.

The main objectives described in this theses were: 1) assess frequency and impact of AMD, 2) evaluate the merit of new imaging techniques for diagnosis and risk assessment, 3) identify new environmental risk factors for AMD, 4) investigate genetic associations and gene-environmental interactions, 5) assess predictive value of risk factors associated with AMD.

Our study population included the population-based Rotterdam Study, population-based studies from the Three Continent AMD Consortium and from the European Eye Epidemiology (E3) Consortium, double blind randomized-controlled multicenter trial BRAMD study, and population-based and case-control studies from the AMD Gene Consortium.

Chapter 1 provides a general introduction to AMD and describes the main aims of this thesis. **Chapter 2** discusses the frequency and impact of AMD. In **Chapter 2.1** we investigated the prevalence of AMD in Europe over the past two decades using 14 population-based studies from the E3 Consortium. The frequency of AMD increases with age; overall prevalence of early AMD and late AMD was 13.2% and 3.0%, respectively, in those aged 70 years and older. We observed a decreasing age-specific prevalence of late AMD. We also observed a decreasing number of visually impaired eyes and persons due to choroidal neovascularization after 2006, most likely due to improved diagnostic procedures and introduction of anti-vascular endothelial growth factor therapy. We also made projections for the year 2040, and predicted that the actual numbers of affected persons will still increase. Europe will reside more affected elderly persons, than residents currently living in the Netherlands. In **Chapter 2.2** we studied the causes of blindness and low vision in relation to refractive error using the Rotterdam Study data. We found that the major cause of visual impairment in all refractive categories, except for high myopia (spherical equivalent $\leq -6D$), was AMD.

In **Chapter 3**, we explored diagnostic properties for detection of reticular pseudodrusen (RPD) in AMD using different imaging techniques and investigated the risk profiles of RPD in a population-based setting. In **Chapter 3.1**, we describe the epidemiology of RPD in the Rotterdam Study. We showed that detection of RPD was better on near-infrared imaging than on color fundus photographs. Subsequently, we assessed demographic, environmental, and genetic risk factors for RPD versus soft indistinct drusen, since these drusen types coincide frequently. Several demographic and several genetic (*ARMS2*, *C3*, *VEGFA*) risk factors were more associated with RPD than soft indistinct drusen. Indicating that these features are distinct AMD entities. **Chapter 3.2** proposes an automatic system for RPD quantification, which showed similar performance of RPD detection as human graders. The study also indicated that multimodal imaging improves detection of RPD for both automatic as human grading.

In **Chapter 4**, we explored risk factors for AMD. We provided an overview of investigated nutrients and their associations with AMD in **Chapter 4.1**. In particular carotenoids, zinc and omega-3 fatty acids were associated with a reduced risk of AMD. Diet recommendations from the Dutch food center were studied in **Chapter 4.2**, using data from the Rotterdam Study. Recommended intake of at least

200 grams of vegetables a day, 2 large pieces of fruit a day and 2 times fish per week, was associated with a reduced risk of AMD of 42%. However, only 3.5% of the studied population met these recommendations. **Chapter 4.3** shows that higher values of free thyroxine, even within the normal range, are associated with an increased risk of AMD and retinal pigmentary alterations in the macula, suggesting a role for thyroid hormone in the pathway of AMD. **Chapter 4.4** shows that in the double blind randomized-controlled multicenter trial BRAMD study, usage of antiplatelet or anticoagulant drugs in active choroidal neovascular AMD did not negatively affect visual outcome, nor presence of retinal/subretinal hemorrhages, lesions size, or retinal thickness. From our study, we concluded that continuation of antiplatelet or anticoagulant therapy in patients with active choroidal neovascular AMD is not contraindicated.

Chapter 5 focusses on genetic risk factors and gene-environment interactions in AMD. **Chapter 5.1** discusses the knowledge about the genetic background of AMD. Most of the genetic risk of AMD can be explained by two genes, *CFH* and *ARMS2*. In **Chapter 5.2**, seven new loci for AMD were identified, using a large-scale genome wide association study meta-analysis, which was established in the AMD Gene consortium. These loci were located near the genes: *COL8A1*, *IER3-DDR1*, *SLC16A8*, *TGFBRI*, *RAD51B*, *ADAMTS9* and *B3GALTL*, which are involved in complement activity, lipid metabolism, extracellular matrix remodeling and angiogenesis. **Chapter 5.3** shows that higher intake of lutein and zeaxanthin, and weekly consumption of fish, could reduce the overall risk of AMD in individuals with a high genetic risk, based on two or more risk variants in major AMD genes (*CFH*, *ARMS2*). This was observed in two population based studies from the Three Continent AMD Consortium. These findings can enable personalized preventive interventions.

In **Chapter 6**, we discuss prediction and personal genome testing. In **Chapter 6.1** we studied the predictive value of various prediction models based on demographic, genetic and environmental data in the Rotterdam study, and validated this in the Three Continent AMD Consortium. We found that the full model, including age, sex, 26 single nucleotide polymorphisms in AMD risk genes, smoking, body mass index and baseline AMD phenotype had the best predictive value. The prediction model could distinguish between those who will develop late AMD and those who will not with an accuracy of 87%. In **Chapter 6.2** we tested direct-to-consumer personal genome tests available on the internet. Although the genotyping was of a high quality, these tests appeared not yet suitable for clinical application, as risk prediction was not accurate. Inclusion of more genetic and environmental risk factors for AMD will improve future tests.

Lastly, **Chapter 7** provides a general interpretation and implication of these main findings. This chapter also addresses methodological considerations, clinical implications, and suggestions for future research.

To conclude, the studies described in this thesis have investigated several aspects of AMD. We have identified new genetic variants and risk factors, which may lead to new insights in the complex pathogenesis of AMD, and eventually to new directions for treatment and/or preventive measures.



Chapter 7.3

Samenvatting

SAMENVATTING

Leeftijdsgelaten maculadegeneratie (LMD) is de meest voorkomende oorzaak van slechtziendheid bij ouderen in de Westerse Wereld. LMD wordt gekenmerkt door drusen, pigment veranderingen, verdunning van het netvlies (geografische atrofie) en vorming van nieuwe bloedvaten (choroïdale neovascularisaties) waardoor de normale anatomie van de macula verloren gaat. De eerste twee kenmerken zijn de karakteristieken voor vroege LMD en de laatste twee voor late LMD. Hoewel er meerdere demografische, genetische en omgevingsfactoren gevonden zijn die een rol spelen in het ontstaan van LMD, is de etiologie van LMD nog steeds grotendeels onbekend.

De belangrijkste vragen die dit proefschrift beoogt te beantwoorden waren: 1) Hoe vaak komt LMD voor en wat zijn de gevolgen hiervan? 2) Welke nieuwe beeldvormende technieken zijn nuttig voor de diagnostiek van LMD? 3) Welke nog onbekende omgevingsfactoren spelen een rol in het ontstaan van LMD? 4) Welke genetisch en gen-omgevingsfactoren veroorzaken LMD? 5) Hoe goed kunnen reeds bekende risicofactoren LMD voorspellen?

Onze studiepopulatie bestond uit het Erasmus Rotterdam Gezondheid Onderzoek (ERGO, ook wel Rotterdam Studie genoemd), bevolkingsonderzoeken van het Three Continent AMD Consortium en van het European Eye Epidemiology (E3) Consortium, de BRAMD studie, een dubbelblinde gerandomiseerde gecontroleerde trial, en bevolkingsonderzoeken, patiënt-controle en patiënt studies van het AMD Gene Consortium.

Hoofdstuk 1 geeft een algemene introductie over LMD. **Hoofdstuk 2** geeft weer hoe vaak LMD voorkomt en wat de gevolgen hiervan zijn. In **Hoofdstuk 2.1** hebben we onderzocht hoe vaak LMD voorkomt in Europa in de laatste twee decennia. Hiervoor hebben we data van 14 bevolkingsonderzoeken van het E3 Consortium gebruikt. De frequentie van LMD neemt toe met de leeftijd; in deelnemers van 70 jaar en ouder bleek 13.2% vroege LMD en 3.0% late LMD te hebben. Verder vonden wij dat de leeftijdsspecifieke frequentie van late LMD afnam na het jaar 2006. Ook bleek het aantal blinde en slechtziende ogen door choroïdale neovascularisaties af genomen te zijn, waarschijnlijk door verbeterde diagnostische technieken en introductie van anti-vasculaire endotheliale groeifactor, een behandeling tegen bloedvat nieuwvormingen in het netvlies. Ondanks deze dalende frequentie laten de projecties voor het jaar 2040 zien dat het werkelijke aantal aangedane personen zal toenemen. Dit betekent dat het totale aantal aangedane ouderen door LMD in Europa, het aantal inwoners van Nederland zal overschrijden. In **Hoofdstuk 2.2** hebben we de oorzaken van blindheid en slechtziendheid in relatie tot refractieafwijkingen bestudeerd binnen het ERGO onderzoek. We vonden dat de belangrijkste oorzaak van blindheid en slechtziendheid LMD was. Dit was onafhankelijk van refractieafwijkingen, met uitzondering van hoge myopie (sferisch equivalent van -6 D of meer) waar myope maculadegeneratie de belangrijkste oorzaak was.

In **Hoofdstuk 3** hebben we naar verschillende aspecten van beeldvormende technieken voor het diagnosticeren van reticulair pseudodrusen (RPD) gekeken en onderzochten de risicoprofielen van RPD in kader van LMD. In **Hoofdstuk 3.1** beschrijven we de epidemiologie van RPD in het ERGO onderzoek. We hebben aangetoond dat detectie van RPD beter was op nabij-infraroodbeelden dan op kleurenfundusfoto's. Vervolgens hebben we demografische, genetische en omgevingsfactoren voor RPD versus zachte drusen geanalyseerd, aangezien deze soorten drusen vaak samen voorkomen. Demografische factoren (leeftijd en geslacht) en verschillende genetische factoren (*ARMS2*, *C3*, *VEGFA*) waren meer geassocieerd met RPD dan met zachte drusen. Deze bevindingen suggereren dat RPD een op zichzelf staande entiteit is binnen LMD. **Hoofdstuk 3.2** beschrijft automatische

kwantificatie van RPD, die evengoed als humane gradeerders de aanwezigheid van RPD vast stelt. Verder komt uit deze studie voort, dat multimodale beeldvorming de detectie van RPD, voor zowel automatische als humane gradering verbetert.

In **Hoofdstuk 4** hebben we risicofactoren voor LMD onderzocht. We hebben een overzicht gegeven van de verschillende voedingsstoffen die bestudeerd zijn in relatie tot LMD in **Hoofdstuk 4.1**. Met name carotenoiden, zink en omega-3 vetzuren waren geassocieerd met een lager risico van LMD. Dieetaanbevelingen van het voedingscentrum zijn onderzocht in **Hoofdstuk 4.2**, met behulp van het ERGO onderzoek. Er werd aangetoond dat de aanbevolen inname van tenminste 200 gram groenten per dag, 2 grote stukken fruit per dag en 2 keer per week vis, het risico op LMD met 42% kan verminderen. Echter, slechts 3,5% van de ouderen behaalde de geadviseerde minimale inname. **Hoofdstuk 4.3** laat zien dat hogere waarden, die nog binnen de normale spreiding vallen, van vrije thyroxine geassocieerd zijn met een verhoogd risico op LMD en pigment veranderingen in de macula. Deze bevindingen suggereren een rol voor schildklierhormoon in de pathogenese van LMD. **Hoofdstuk 4.4** toont aan dat in de BRAMD studie het gebruik van trombocytenuitremmers of anticoagulantia bij actieve choroïdale neovascularisaties, in het kader van LMD, geen negatieve invloed heeft op de visus, noch op retinale / subretinale bloedingen, laesiegrootte of retinale dikte. Uit deze studie kunnen we concluderen dat het doorgebruiken van deze medicatie bij patiënten met actieve choroïdale neovascularisaties in het kader van LMD, niet gecontra-indiceerd is.

Hoofdstuk 5 richt zich op genetische risicofactoren en gen-omgevingsinteracties geassocieerd met LMD. **Hoofdstuk 5.1** geeft een samenvatting van de genetische achtergrond van LMD. Het grootste deel van het genetische risico van AMD kan verklaard worden door slechts twee genen, namelijk *CFH* en *ARMS2*. In **Hoofdstuk 5.2** werden zeven nieuwe genetische varianten geïdentificeerd voor LMD met behulp van een grootschalige meta-analyse van genomwijde associatie studies binnen het AMD Gene consortium. Deze varianten bevinden zich nabij de genen: *COL8A1*, *IER3-DDR1*, *SLC16A8*, *TGFBR1*, *RAD51B*, *ADAMTS9* en *B3GALT1*. Deze genen zijn betrokken bij diverse processen, waaronder de complement cascade, lipide metabolisme, weefselstructuren en het vormen van nieuwe bloedvaten. **Hoofdstuk 5.3** laat zien dat een hogere inname van luteïne en zeaxanthine en wekelijkse consumptie van vis het totale risico op LMD verlaagt voor personen met een hoog genetisch risico op basis van twee of meer risicovarianten in de belangrijke LMD genen (*CFH*, *ARMS2*). Dit onderzoek werd verricht in twee bevolkingsonderzoeken van het Three Continent AMD Consortium. Deze bevindingen zijn interessant voor counseling van individuele LMD patiënten.

In **Hoofdstuk 6** bespreken we predictie en persoonlijke DNA testen. **Hoofdstuk 6.1** onderzoekt de voorspellende waarde van verschillende predictiemodellen op basis van alle bekende risicofactoren. Dit is onderzocht in het ERGO onderzoek en gevalideerd in het Three Continent AMD Consortium. We vonden dat het volledige model, inclusief leeftijd, geslacht, 26 genetische risicovarianten, roken, 'body mass index' en het LMD fenotype de beste voorspellende waarde had. Het predictiemodel kon met 87% zekerheid onderscheid maken tussen diegenen die wel een eindstadium LMD zullen ontwikkelen en diegenen die dat niet doen. In **Hoofdstuk 6.2** hebben we persoonlijke DNA testen getest die beschikbaar waren op het internet. Hoewel de genotypering van hoge kwaliteit was, bleek dat deze testen niet geschikt waren voor klinische toepassingen, aangezien de risicovoorspellingen niet nauwkeurig genoeg waren. Daarnaast ontbraken omgevingsfactoren in de predictie modellen van de onderzochte testen; incorporatie hiervan zal de voorspelling ook verbeteren.

Ten slotte geeft **Hoofdstuk 7** een algemene interpretatie van deze belangrijkste bevindingen. Dit hoofdstuk beschrijft ook methodologische overwegingen, klinische implicaties en suggesties voor toekomstig onderzoek.

Concluderend, de beschreven studies in dit proefschrift hebben verschillende aspecten van LMD onderzocht. Wij hebben nieuwe genetische varianten en risico factoren geïdentificeerd die kunnen zorgen voor nieuwe inzichten in de complexe pathogenese van LMD en zullen leiden tot nieuwe richtlijnen voor behandelingen en/of maatregelen ter voorkoming van deze ziekte.



Chapter 8.1

Acknowledgements - Dankwoord

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS - DANKWOORD

Mijn promotietijd heb ik als een intensieve periode met enorm veel leermomenten ervaren. Het koste veel doorzettingsvermogen en is daadwerkelijk een ervaring voor het leven geworden. Dit boekje had niet tot stand kunnen komen zonder de hulp van vele mensen. Hierbij wil ik iedereen van harte danken voor de hulpvaardigheid, steun en gezellige momenten tijdens deze periode, van wie ik er een aantal in het bijzonder wil noemen.

Allereerst wilde ik graag mijn beide promotoren prof. dr. Caroline Klaver en prof. dr. Hans Vingerling bedanken.

Caroline, al tijdens een korte ontmoeting gedurende mijn studententijd diende je als een inspiratiebron voor mij. Tijdens mijn promotietraject heb ik veel van je geleerd. Wat ik vooral waardeerde is je vermogen om toch weer buiten "the box" te denken. Dit was zeer handig wanneer ik even helemaal vast liep en door de bomen het bos niet meer zag... Onze samenwerking bracht een stuk altijd op een hoger niveau, dit ging niet zonder slag of stoot, maar het resultaat mag er wezen! Nogmaals bedankt en ik hoop dat je mij zult blijven inspireren.

Beste Hans, ik kan mij nog goed herinneren dat je tijdens een hoorcollege vertelde over leeftijdsgebonden maculadegeneratie. Wat een irritante ziekte, dacht ik, dat het voor een vlek zorgt precies in het centrum van het zien! Dat mijn proefschrift heeft mogen bijdragen aan het ontrafelen van de ontstaanswijze ben ik extra trots op. Dank dat je mijn promotor wilde zijn en mij nu verder begeleid in mijn opleiding tot oogarts.

Beste prof. dr. Arfan Ikram en prof. dr. Anneke den Hollander, dank u dat u plaats heeft willen nemen in de kleine commissie en mijn manuscript heeft willen beoordelen. Dear prof. dr. Cécile Delcourt thank you for taking part in the committee and reviewing my thesis. Ook wil ik prof. dr. Eric Sijbrands, prof. dr. Aniki Rothova en dr. Frank Verbraak bedanken voor het plaats nemen in de grote commissie. Dear prof. dr. Robert Finger thank you for joining my thesis defence.

Graag wil ik mijn (oud)collega's van de oog-epi groep bedanken. Henriët, kamergenootje en nu weer collega, bedankt voor de bijzondere momenten tijdens onze vele congressen en reisjes. Ik ben benieuwd wanneer ik weer "je leven moet redden". Annemarie, ik kan mij geen betere opvolgster bedenken! Ik heb onze samenwerking als zeer prettig ervaren, succes met het afronden van je promotie. Sheila, heerlijk om over design en al het andere te praten, succes met je onderzoek! Corina en Ada, wat zou ik toch zonder jullie kennis moeten? Dank dat jullie altijd voor mij klaar stonden! Nicole en Riet, hartelijk dank voor al jullie hulp, het was onmisbaar! Magda, dank voor het stroomlijnen van vele projecten. Jan Roelof, Laurence, Milly, Pieter, Jan-Willem en Claire bedankt voor de gezelligheid en succes met jullie promotie. Ook bedank ik alle DOPS collega's voor de fantastische feestjes tijdens ARVO, binnenkort een reünie?

Beste prof. dr. Bert Hofman, bedankt voor het opzetten van de Rotterdam studie, waardoor ik de mogelijkheid heb gehad dit promotietraject te volgen. Natuurlijk wil ik ook alle deelnemers van de Rotterdam Studie (ERGO) bedanken en alle medewerkers van het ERGO onderzoekscentrum, in het bijzonder Anneke, Miss-ERGO, om alles in goede banen te leiden. De dagen op het ERGO onderzoekscentrum vond ik altijd zeer gezellig. Ook de ICT ondersteuning en databeheerders Eric, Frank, Nano, Jolande, en René en René, bedankt dat ik altijd met vragen bij jullie terecht kon.

Najaf, Linda, Maarten, Lennart, Sven en Elisa heel erg bedankt voor jullie hulp bij het programmeren. Verder wil ik ook alle (oud) promovendi en andere medewerkers van de afdeling Epidemiologie bedanken voor de leuke tijd.

Tevens wil ik alle (co-)auteurs bedanken voor hun inbreng en het tot stand brengen van de papers. Dank voor de prettige samenwerking, dit heeft tot mooie resultaten geleid!

I would also like to thank my international colleagues from the 3CC, E3, IAMDGC and CHARGE-EYE consortium for their collaboration. Without you, my PhD project would not have been the same. In particular I would like to thank Ron & Barabara Klein, Jie Jin Wang and Paul Mitchell, I have learned so much from you. I hope one day I will be able to follow in your footsteps. Cécile Delcourt and Jean-François Korobelnik, thank you for the great meetings and discussions!

Dan nog een speciaal dankwoord voor prof. dr. Ype Elgersma. Jij hebt mij kennis laten maken met het onderzoek en mij als master student onder je hoede genomen. Ik heb enorm veel geleerd tijdens deze jaren en meer dan eens bleek de opgedane kennis in het lab van pas te komen bij epidemiologisch onderzoek.

Ook wil ik alle arts-assistenten, oogartsen en medewerkers van de afdeling Oogheelkunde in het Erasmus MC en in het Amphia ziekenhuis te Breda bedanken voor de interesse, steun en begrip ten tijde van het afronden van mijn promotie.

Al mijn lieve vrienden en vriendinnetjes, in het bijzonder Ingrid, Kim, Bianca, Nina en Sanne, dank voor de gezelligheid! De late avonden en het vele lachen zorgden voor de afleiding die ik soms even nodig had. Snel weer afspreken?

Lieve Virginie en Layal, heel fijn dat jullie mij tijdens de voorbereidingen van en op deze dag willen bijstaan. Ik kon mij niemand anders dan jullie bedenken die geschikt zouden zijn voor deze functie. Virginie, je was mijn maatje tijdens mijn promotietijd. Je opgewektheid is aanstekelijk! Ondanks dat we weinig woorden nodig hebben om elkaar te begrijpen, gebruiken we er meer dan genoeg ;) Fijn dat je altijd klaar staat voor raad & daad. Ik hoop dat we ook in de toekomst als Ophthalmogenetisch duo zullen blijven samenwerken. Layal, lief vriendinnetje, wie had ooit kunnen bedenken dat wij samen een artikel zouden schrijven? Van onze kosmische verbondenheid (19!) en schoenentic naar collega's in de epidemiologie. Waar ruim 16 jaar vriendschap wel niet toe kan leiden?! Ik ben benieuwd wat de toekomst voor ons in petto heeft.

Graag wil ik mijn (schoon)familie en in het bijzonder papa & mama en Maarten & Ans bedanken voor de steun en interesse. Bedankt voor jullie aanwezigheid vandaag!

Lieve Michiel, dank voor je steun en bemoedigende woorden in de tijden dat het soms te veel was. Jij en Semmie konden mij altijd weer laten lachen! We hebben veel meegemaakt de afgelopen jaren, het overleven van de crisis, de bouw van ons droomhuis, onze bruiloft, de start van mijn opleiding en nu het afronden van mijn promotie. Het was een zware periode, maar nu kunnen wij verder met ons sprookje, het kasteel hebben we immers al! Op naar een lang en gelukkig leven!



Chapter 8.2

PhD portfolio

SUMMARY OF PHD TRAINING AND TEACHING

Name PhD student: Gabriëlle H.S. Buitendijk
 Departments: Ophthalmology / Epidemiology
 Research School: Netherlands Insititute for Health Sciences
 PhD-period: 2010-2017
 Supervisors: Prof. dr. C.C.W. Klaver and Prof. dr. J.R. Vingerling

PhD Training	Year	Workload (ECTS*)
Courses		
Master of Health Sciences, Genetic Epidemiology (NIHES)	2010-2012	70
Workshop on Photoshop and Illustrator CS5 (MoIMed)	2011	0.3
Workshop on InDesign CS5 (MoIMed)	2011	0.2
Biomedical English Writing and Communication (David Alexander)	2011	4.0
Research Integrity (prof dr. S. van de Vathorst)	2015	0.3
Seminars, symposia and workshops		
Research seminars, department of Epidemiology, Erasmus MC	2010-2014	4.5
International Course Genetics in Retinal Disease, Rotterdam	2010	0.3
Myopia workshop for opticians and optometrists, Rotterdam	2011	0.3
AMD workshop for general practitioners, Rotterdam	2011	0.3
Brainstorm session Nanotechnology, Rotterdam	2011	0.3
1 st European Eye Epidemiology Workshop, Bordeaux, France (oral presentation)	2011	1.0
2 nd annual meeting International AMD Genetics Consortium, Bethesda, USA (oral presentation)	2011	1.0
2 nd ErasmusAge & SIGN-E Workshop Basic Principles of nutritional Epidemiology, Rotterdam	2012	0.3
ARVO-NED, Utrecht (oral presentation)	2011	1.0
2 nd European Eye Epidemiology Workshop, Bordeaux, France (oral presentation)	2012	1.0
CHARGE investigators meeting 2013, Rotterdam	2013	0.3
International Course Genetics in Retinal Disease, Ghent, Belgium	2013	0.3
3 rd European Eye Epidemiology Workshop, Bordeaux, France (oral presentation)	2013	1.0
Patient day Juvenile Macular degeneration, Nijmegen (oral presentation)	2013	1.0
Exome chip meeting International AMD Genetics Consortium, Miami, USA	2013	0.3
ARVO-NED, Utrecht	2013	0.3
Masterclass for clinical PhD students on Therapies for Inherited Retinal Dystrophies, Nijmegen	2014	0.3
Symposium on Novel Therapies for Inherited Retinal Dystrophies, Nijmegen	2014	0.3
2020 meeting of the department of Epidemiology, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam (oral presentation)	2014	1.0
4 th European Eye Epidemiology Workshop, Rome, Italy (oral presentation)	2014	1.0
Exome chip meeting International AMD Genetics Consortium, Regensburg, Germany (oral presentation)	2014	1.0
Fundus autofluorescence workshop, Rotterdam	2014	0.3
5 th European Eye Epidemiology Workshop, London, UK	2015	0.3

PhD Training	Year	Workload (ECTS*)
National conferences		
15 th Molecular Medicine Day, Rotterdam	2010	0.3
NOG Annual Meeting 2011, Maastricht (oral presentation)	2011	1.0
NOG Annual Meeting 2012, Groningen (oral presentation)	2012	1.0
NOG Annual Meeting 2013, Groningen (oral presentation)	2013	1.0
2 nd Dutch Ophthalmology PhD Day, Nijmegen (oral presentation)	2013	1.0
NOG Annual Meeting 2014, Maastricht (oral presentation)	2014	1.0
3 rd Dutch Ophthalmology PhD Day, Nijmegen (oral presentation)	2014	1.0
NOG Annual Meeting 2015, Groningen (oral presentation)	2015	1.0
NOG Annual Meeting 2016, Maastricht (oral presentation)	2016	1.0
International conferences		
ARVO Annual Meeting 2011, Fort Lauderdale, USA (poster presentation)	2011	1.0
V. International Symposium of the German Ophthalmology Society (DOG), Baden-Baden, Germany (oral presentation)	2011	1.0
Macula of Paris, 6 th international conference on AMD, Paris, France (oral presentation)	2012	1.0
ARVO Annual Meeting 2012, Fort Lauderdale, USA (poster presentation)	2012	1.0
ARVO Annual Meeting 2013, Seattle, USA (poster presentation)	2013	1.0
ARVO Annual Meeting 2014, Orlando, USA (oral presentation)	2014	1.0
14 th Euretina Meeting 2014, London, UK (oral presentation)	2014	1.0
European University Professors of Ophthalmology (EUPO), Nice, France (oral presentation)	2014	1.0
ARVO Annual Meeting 2015, Denver, USA (oral presentation)	2015	1.0
6 th Euretina Winter Meeting, Rotterdam	2016	0.3
ARVO Annual Meeting 2016, Seattle, USA (oral presentation)	2016	1.0
ARVO Annual Meeting 2017, Baltimore, USA (poster presentation)	2017	1.0
Teaching		
Supervising research internship, Ashley Wills	2011	0.4
Supervising master's thesis, Sheila Backus	2014-2017	3.0
Other		
Founder and co-organizer of the 1 st Dutch Ophthalmology PhD Conference, Nijmegen	2012	3.0
Chair of AMD session, ARVO Annual Meeting 2014, Orlando, USA	2015	0.1
Chair of AMD session, 6 th Euretina Winter Meeting, Rotterdam	2016	0.1
Moderator AMD poster session, ARVO Annual Meeting 2016, Seattle, USA	2016	0.1

* 1 ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) equals a workload of 28 hours.



Chapter 8.3

Bibliography

PUBLICATIONS AND MANUSCRIPTS ON WHICH THIS THESIS IS BASED

1. **Buitendijk GHS***, Springelkamp S*, Ho L, Klaver CC (2013) Age-related macular degeneration and primary open-angle glaucoma: genetics and gene-environment interaction. In: Scholl HP, Massof RW, West S (Eds), *Ophthalmology and the ageing society*, (pp57-82). Berlin Heidelberg: Springer [Chapter 5.1]
2. Fritsche LG*, Chen W*, Schu M*, Yaspan BL*, Yu Y*, Thorleifsson G, Zack DJ, Arakawa S, Cipriani V, Ripke S, Igo RP Jr, **Buitendijk GHS**, Sim X, Weeks DE, Guymer RH, Merriam JE, Francis PJ, Hannum G, Agarwal A, Armbrrecht AM, Audo I, Aung T, Barile GR, Benchaboune M, Bird AC, Bishop PN, Branham KE, Brooks M, Brucker AJ, Cade WH, Cain MS, Campochiaro PA, Chan CC, Cheng CY, Chew EY, Chin KA, Chowers I, Clayton DG, Cojocaru R, Conley YP, Cornes BK, Daly MJ, Dhillon B, Edwards AO, Evangelou E, Fagerness J, Ferreyra HA, Friedman JS, Geirsdottir A, George RJ, Gieger C, Gupta N, Hagstrom SA, Harding SP, aritoglou C, Heckenlively JR, Holz FG, Hughes G, Ioannidis JP, Ishibashi T, Joseph P, Jun G, Kamatani Y, Katsanis N, N Keilhauer C, Khan JC, Kim IK, Kiyohara Y, Klein BE, Klein R, Kovach JL, Kozak I, Lee CJ, Lee KE, Lichtner P, Lotery AJ, Meitinger T, Mitchell P, Mohand-Said S, Moore AT, Morgan DJ, Morrison MA, Myers CE, Naj AC, Nakamura Y, Okada Y, Orlin A, Ortube MC, Othman MI, Pappas C, Park KH, Pauer GJ, Peachey NS, Poch O, Priya RR, Reynolds R, Richardson AJ, Ripp R, Rudolph G, Ryu E, Sahel JA, Schaumberg DA, Scholl HP, Schwartz SG, Scott WK, Shahid H, Sigurdsson H, Silvestri G, Sivakumaran TA, Smith RT, Sobrin L, Souied EH, Stambolian DE, Stefansson H, Sturgill-Short GM, Takahashi A, Tosakulwong N, Truitt BJ, Tsrioni EE, Uitterlinden AG, van Duijn CM, Vijaya L, Vingerling JR, Vithana EN, Webster AR, Wichmann HE, Winkler TW, Wong TY, Wright AF, Zelenika D, Zhang M, Zhao L, Zhang K, Klein ML, Hageman GS, Lathrop GM, Stefansson K, Allikmets R, Baird PN, Gorin MB, Wang JJ, Klaver CC, Seddon JM, Pericak-Vance MA, Iyengar SK, Yates JR, Swaroop A, Weber BH, Kubo M, Deangelis MM, Léveillard T, Thorsteinsdottir U, Haines JL, Farrer LA, Heid IM, Abecasis GR; AMD Gene Consortium. Seven new loci associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet.* 2013 Apr;45(4):433-439. [Chapter 5.2]
3. **Buitendijk GHS**, Rochtchina E, Myers C, van Duijn CM, Lee KE, Klein BE, Meuer SM, de Jong PT, Holliday EG, Tan AG, Uitterlinden AG, Sivakumaran TA, Attia J, Hofman A, Mitchell P, Vingerling JR, Iyengar SK, Janssens AC, Wang JJ, Klein R, Klaver CC. Prediction of age-related macular degeneration in the general population: the Three Continent AMD Consortium. *Ophthalmology.* 2013 Dec;120(12):2644-2655. [Chapter 6.1]
4. **Buitendijk GHS**, Klaver CC (2014) Trace elements, Vitamins, and Lipids and Age-related Macular Degeneration: An overview of the current concepts on nutrients and AMD. In: Preedy VR (Ed.), *Handbook of nutrition, diet, and the eye*, (pp55-63). Waltham, MA: Elsevier [Chapter 4.1]
5. Wang JJ, **Buitendijk GHS**, Rochtchina E, Lee KE, Klein BE, van Duijn CM, Flood VM, Meuer SM, Attia J, Myers C, Holliday EG, Tan AG, Smith WT, Iyengar SK, de Jong PT, Hofman A, Vingerling JR, Mitchell P, Klein R, Klaver CC. Genetic susceptibility, dietary antioxidants, and long-term incidence of age-related macular degeneration in two populations. *Ophthalmology.* 2014 Mar;121(3):667-675. [Chapter 5.3]
6. **Buitendijk GHS**, Amin N, Hofman A, van Duijn CM, Vingerling JR, Klaver CC. Direct-to-consumer personal genome testing for age-related macular degeneration. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci.* 2014 Aug 21;55(10):6167-6174. [Chapter 6.2]
7. Verhoeven VJ*, Wong KT*, **Buitendijk GHS**, Hofman A, Vingerling JR, Klaver CC. Visual consequences of refractive errors in the general population. *Ophthalmology.* 2015 Jan;122(1):101-109. [Chapter 2.3]
8. van Grinsven MJ, **Buitendijk GHS**, Brussee C, van Ginneken B, Hoyng CB, Theelen T, Klaver CC, Sánchez CI. Automatic identification of reticular pseudodrusen using multimodal retinal image analysis. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci.* 2015 Jan 8;56(1):633-639. [Chapter 3.2]
9. Chaker L*, **Buitendijk GHS***, Dehghan A, Medici M, Hofman A, Vingerling JR, Franco OH, Klaver CC, Peeters RP. Thyroid function and age-related macular degeneration: a prospective population-based cohort study--the Rotterdam Study. *BMC Med.* 2015 Apr 23;13:94. [Chapter 4.3]
10. **Buitendijk GHS**, Hooghart AJ, Brussee C, de Jong PTVM, Hofman A, Vingerling JR, Klaver CC. Epidemiology of reticular pseudodrusen in age-related macular degeneration: The Rotterdam Study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci.* 2016 Oct 1;57(13):5593-5601. [Chapter 3.1]
11. Colijn JM*, **Buitendijk GHS***, Prokofyeva E, Alves D, Cachulo ML, Khawaja AP, Cougnard-Gregoire A, Merle BMJ, Korb C, Erke MG, Bron A, Anastasopoulos E, Meester-Smoor MA, Segato T, Piermarocchi S, de Jong PTVM, Vingerling JR; EYE-RISK consortium, Topouzis F, Creuzot-Garcher C, Bertelsen G, Pfeiffer N, Fletcher AE, Foster PJ, Silva R, Korobelnik JF, Delcourt C, Klaver CCW; European Eye Epidemiology (E3) consortium. Prevalence of Age-Related Macular Degeneration in Europe: The Past and the Future. *Ophthalmology.* 2017 Dec;124(12):1753-1763 [Chapter 2.1]
12. **Buitendijk GHS**, Schauwvlieghe AME, Vingerling JR, Schlingemann RO, Klaver CC, BRAMD trial research group. Antiplatelet and anticoagulant drugs does not affect visual acuity in neovascular age-related macular degeneration in the BRAMD trial *Am J Ophthalmol.* 2018 Jan 9. pii: S0002-9394(18)30004-7 *Epub ahead of print* [Chapter 4.4]

13. De Koning-Backus APM*, **Buitendijk GHS***, Kiefte-de Jong JC, Colijn JM, Hofman A, Vingerling JR, Haverkort EB, Franco OH, Klaver CC. Recommended diet intake of vegetables, fruit, and fish is beneficial for age-related macular degeneration. *Submitted* [Chapter 4.2]

*authors contributed equally

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

14. Hansel C*, de Jeu M*, Belmeguenai A*, Houtman SH, **Buitendijk GHS**, Andreev D, De Zeeuw CI, Elgersma Y. alphaCaMKII is essential for cerebellar LTD and motor learning. *Neuron*. 2006 Sep 21;51(6):835-843.
15. Borgesius NZ, van Woerden GM, **Buitendijk GHS**, Keijzer N, Jaarsma D, Hoogenraad CC, Elgersma Y. β CaMKII plays a nonenzymatic role in hippocampal synaptic plasticity and learning by targeting α CaMKII to synapses. *J Neurosci*. 2011 Jul 13;31(28):10141-10148.
16. Yu Y*, Bhangale TR*, Fagerness J*, Ripke S*, Thorleifsson G, Tan PL, Souied EH, Richardson AJ, Merriam JE, **Buitendijk GHS**, Reynolds R, Raychaudhuri S, Chin KA, Sobrin L, Evangelou E, Lee PH, Lee AY, Leveziel N, Zack DJ, Campochiaro B, Campochiaro P, Smith RT, Barile GR, Guymer RH, Hogg R, Chakravarthy U, Robman LD, Gustafsson O, Sigurdsson H, Ortmann W, Behrens TW, Stefansson K, Uitterlinden AG, van Duijn CM, Vingerling JR, Klaver CC, Allikmets R, Brantley MA Jr, Baird PN, Katsanis N, Thorsteinsdottir U, Ioannidis JP, Daly MJ, Graham RR, Seddon JM. Common variants near FRK/COL10A1 and VEGFA are associated with advanced age-related macular degeneration. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2011 Sep 15;20(18):3699-3709.
17. Oldmeadow C, Riveros C, Holliday EG, Scott R, Moscato P, Wang JJ, Mitchell P, **Buitendijk GHS**, Vingerling JR, Klaver CC, Klein R, Attia J. Sifting the wheat from the chaff: prioritizing GWAS results by identifying consistency across analytical methods. *Genet Epidemiol*. 2011 Dec;35(8):745-754.
18. van Beveren NJ*, **Buitendijk GHS***, Swagemakers S, Krab LC, Röder C, de Haan L, van der Spek P, Elgersma Y. Marked reduction of AKT1 expression and deregulation of AKT1-associated pathways in peripheral blood mononuclear cells of schizophrenia patients. *PLoS One*. 2012;7(2):e32618.
19. van Beveren NJ, Krab LC, Swagemakers S, **Buitendijk GHS**, Boot E, van der Spek P, Elgersma Y, van Amelsvoort TA. Functional gene-expression analysis shows involvement of schizophrenia-relevant pathways in patients with 22q11 deletion syndrome. *PLoS One*. 2012;7(3):e33473.
20. Schrijvers EM, **Buitendijk GHS**, Ikram MK, Koudstaal PJ, Hofman A, Vingerling JR, Breteler MM. Retinopathy and risk of dementia: the Rotterdam Study. *Neurology*. 2012 Jul 24;79(4):365-370.
21. Sobrin L, Ripke S, Yu Y, Fagerness J, Bhangale TR, Tan PL, Souied EH, **Buitendijk GHS**, Merriam JE, Richardson AJ, Raychaudhuri S, Reynolds R, Chin KA, Lee AY, Leveziel N, Zack DJ, Campochiaro P, Smith RT, Barile GR, Hogg RE, Chakravarthy U, Behrens TW, Uitterlinden AG, van Duijn CM, Vingerling JR, Brantley MA Jr, Baird PN, Klaver CC, Allikmets R, Katsanis N, Graham RR, Ioannidis JP, Daly MJ, Seddon JM. Heritability and genome-wide association study to assess genetic differences between advanced age-related macular degeneration subtypes. *Ophthalmology*. 2012 Sep;119(9):1874-1885.
22. Holliday EG*, Smith AV*, Cornes BK*, **Buitendijk GHS***, Jensen RA*, Sim X*, Aspelund T, Aung T, Baird PN, Boerwinkle E, Cheng CY, van Duijn CM, Eiriksdottir G, Gudnason V, Harris T, Hewitt AW, Inouye M, Jonasson F, Klein BE, Launer L, Li X, Liew G, Lumley T, McElduff P, McKnight B, Mitchell P, Psaty BM, Rochtchina E, Rotter JI, Scott RJ, Tay W, Taylor K, Teo YY, Uitterlinden AG, Viswanathan A, Xie S; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2, Vingerling JR, Klaver CC, Tai ES, Siscovick D, Klein R, Cotch MF, Wong TY, Attia J, Wang JJ. Insights into the genetic architecture of early stage age-related macular degeneration: a genome-wide association study meta-analysis. *PLoS One*. 2013;8(1):e53830.
23. Van de Put MA, Hooymans JM, Los LI; Dutch Rhegmatogenous Retinal Detachment Study Group (**Buitendijk GHS** Study Group member). The incidence of rhegmatogenous retinal detachment in The Netherlands. *Ophthalmology*. 2013 Mar;120(3):616-622.
24. Verhoeven VJ*, Hysi PG*, Wojciechowski R*, Fan Q*, Guggenheim JA*, Höhn R*, MacGregor S, Hewitt AW, Nag A, Cheng CY, Yonova-Doing E, Zhou X, Ikram MK, **Buitendijk GHS**, McMahon G, Kemp JP, Pourcain BS, Simpson CL, Mäkelä KM, Lehtimäki T, Kähönen M, Paterson AD, Hosseini SM, Wong HS, Xu L, Jonas JB, Pärssinen O, Wedenoja J, Yip SP, Ho DW, Pang CP, Chen LJ, Burdon KP, Craig JE, Klein BE, Klein R, Haller T, Metspalu A, Khor CC, Tai ES, Aung T, Vithana E, Tay WT, Barathi VA; Consortium for Refractive Error and Myopia (CREAM), Chen P, Li R, Liao J, Zheng Y, Ong RT, Döring A; Diabetes Control and Complications Trial/Epidemiology of Diabetes Interventions and Complications (DCCT/EDIC) Research Group, Evans DM, Timpson NJ, Verkerk AJ, Meitinger T, Raitakari O, Hawthorne F, Spector TD, Karssen LC, Pirastu M, Murgia F, Ang W; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2 (WTCCC2), Mishra A, Montgomery GW, Pennell CE, Cumberland PM, Cotlarciuc

- I, Mitchell P, Wang JJ, Schache M, Janmahasatian S, Igo RP Jr, Lass JH, Chew E, Iyengar SK; Fuchs' Genetics Multi-Center Study Group, Gorgels TG, Rudan I, Hayward C, Wright AF, Polasek O, Vataavuk Z, Wilson JF, Fleck B, Zeller T, Mirshahi A, Müller C, Uitterlinden AG, Rivadeneira F, Vingerling JR, Hofman A, Oostra BA, Amin N, Bergen AA, Teo YY, Rahi JS, Vitart V, Williams C, Baird PN, Wong TY, Oexle K, Pfeiffer N, Mackey DA, Young TL, van Duijn CM, Saw SM, Bailey-Wilson JE, Stambolian D, Klaver CC, Hammond CJ. Genome-wide meta-analyses of multiancestry cohorts identify multiple new susceptibility loci for refractive error and myopia. *Nat Genet.* 2013 Mar;45(3):314-318.
25. Oei L, Zillikens MC, Dehghan A, **Buitendijk GHS**, Castaño-Betancourt MC, Estrada K, Stolk L, Oei EH, van Meurs JB, Janssen JA, Hofman A, van Leeuwen JP, Witteman JC, Pols HA, Uitterlinden AG, Klaver CC, Franco OH, Rivadeneira F. High bone mineral density and fracture risk in type 2 diabetes as skeletal complications of inadequate glucose control: the Rotterdam Study. *Diabetes Care.* 2013 Jun;36(6):1619-1628.
 26. van de Ven JP*, Nilsson SC*, Tan PL, **Buitendijk GHS**, Ristau T, Mohlin FC, Nabuurs SB, Schoenmaker-Koller FE, Smailhodzic D, Campochiaro PA, Zack DJ, Duvvari MR, Bakker B, Paun CC, Boon CJ, Uitterlinden AG, Liakopoulos S, Klevering BJ, Fauser S, Daha MR, Katsanis N, Klaver CC, Blom AM, Hoyng CB, den Hollander AI. A functional variant in the CFL gene confers a high risk of age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet.* 2013 Jul;45(7):813-817.
 27. Zhan X*, Larson DE*, Wang C*, Koboldt DC, Sergeev YV, Fulton RS, Fulton LL, Fronick CC, Branham KE, Bragg-Gresham J, Jun G, Hu Y, Kang HM, Liu D, Othman M, Brooks M, Ratnapriya R, Boleda A, Grassmann F, von Strachwitz C, Olson LM, **Buitendijk GHS**, Hofman A, van Duijn CM, Cipriani V, Moore AT, Shahid H, Jiang Y, Conley YP, Morgan DJ, Kim IK, Johnson MP, Cantsilieris S, Richardson AJ, Guymer RH, Luo H, Ouyang H, Licht C, Pluthero FG, Zhang MM, Zhang K, Baird PN, Blangero J, Klein ML, Farrer LA, DeAngelis MM, Weeks DE, Gorin MB, Yates JR, Klaver CC, Pericak-Vance MA, Haines JL, Weber BH, Wilson RK, Heckenlively JR, Chew EY, Stambolian D, Mardis ER, Swaroop A, Abecasis GR. Identification of a rare coding variant in complement 3 associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet.* 2013 Nov;45(11):1375-1379.
 28. Verhoeven VJ, **Buitendijk GHS**; Consortium for Refractive Error and Myopia (CREAM), Rivadeneira F, Uitterlinden AG, Vingerling JR, Hofman A, Klaver CC. Education influences the role of genetics in myopia. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 2013 Dec;28(12):973-980.
 29. Duvvari MR, Paun CC, **Buitendijk GHS**, Saksens NT, Volokhina EB, Ristau T, Schoenmaker-Koller FE, van de Ven JP, Groenewoud JM, van den Heuvel LP, Hofman A, Fauser S, Uitterlinden AG, Klaver CC, Hoyng CB, de Jong EK, den Hollander AI. Analysis of rare variants in the C3 gene in patients with age-related macular degeneration. *PLoS One.* 2014 Apr 15;9(4):e94165.
 30. Klein R*, Meuer SM*, Myers CE*, **Buitendijk GHS**, Rohtchina E, Choudhury F, de Jong PT, McKean-Cowdin R, Iyengar SK, Gao X, Lee KE, Vingerling JR, Mitchell P, Klaver CC, Wang JJ, Klein BE. Harmonizing the classification of age-related macular degeneration in the Three-Continent AMD Consortium. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol.* 2014 Feb;21(1):14-23.
 31. Achterberg KG, **Buitendijk GHS**, Kool MJ, Goorden SM, Post L, Slump DE, Silva AJ, van Woerden GM, Kushner SA, Elgersma Y. Temporal and region-specific requirements of α CaMKII in spatial and contextual learning. *J Neurosci.* 2014 Aug 20;34(34):11180-11187.
 32. Klein R, Myers CE, **Buitendijk GHS**, Rohtchina E, Gao X, de Jong PT, Sivakumaran TA, Burlutsky G, McKean-Cowdin R, Hofman A, Iyengar SK, Lee KE, Stricker BH, Vingerling JR, Mitchell P, Klein BE, Klaver CC, Wang JJ. Lipids, lipid genes, and incident age-related macular degeneration: the Three Continent Age-related Macular Degeneration Consortium. *Am J Ophthalmol.* 2014 Sep;158(3):513-524.
 33. Springelkamp H, Lee K, Wolfs RC, **Buitendijk GHS**, Ramdas WD, Hofman A, Vingerling JR, Klaver CC, Abramoff MD, Jansonius NM. Population-based evaluation of retinal nerve fiber layer, retinal ganglion cell layer, and inner plexiform layer as a diagnostic tool for glaucoma. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci.* 2014 Nov 20;55(12):8428-8438.
 34. Williams KM, Verhoeven VJ, Cumberland P, Bertelsen G, Wolfram C, **Buitendijk GHS**, Hofman A, van Duijn CM, Vingerling JR, Kuijpers RW, Höhn R, Mirshahi A, Khawaja AP, Luben RN, Erke MG, von Hanno T, Mahroo O, Hogg R, Gieger C, Cougnard-Grégoire A, Anastasopoulos E, Bron A, Dartigues JF, Korobelnik JF, Creuzot-Garcher C, Topouzis F, Delcourt C, Rahi J, Meitinger T, Fletcher A, Foster PJ, Pfeiffer N, Klaver CC, Hammond CJ. Prevalence of refractive error in Europe: the European Eye Epidemiology (E3) Consortium. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 2015 Apr;30(4):305-315.
 35. Lechanteur YT, van de Camp PL, Smailhodzic D, van de Ven JP, **Buitendijk GHS**, Klaver CC, Groenewoud JM, den Hollander AI, Hoyng CB, Klevering BJ. Association of Smoking and CFH and ARMS2 Risk Variants With Younger Age at Onset of Neovascular Age-Related Macular Degeneration. *JAMA Ophthalmol.* 2015 May;133(5):533-541.
 36. Zhang L, **Buitendijk GHS**, Lee K, Sonka M, Springelkamp H, Hofman A, Vingerling JR, Mullins RF, Klaver CC,

- Abràmoff MD. Validity of Automated Choroidal Segmentation in SS-OCT and SD-OCT. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2015 May 1;56(5):3202-3211.
37. Williams KM, Bertelsen G, Cumberland P, Wolfram C, Verhoeven VJ, Anastasopoulos E, **Buitendijk GHS**, Cougnard-Grégoire A, Creuzot-Garcher C, Erke MG, Hogg R, Höhn R, Hysi P, Khawaja AP, Korobelnik JF, Ried J, Vingerling JR, Bron A, Dartigues JF, Fletcher A, Hofman A, Kuijpers RW, Luben RN, Oxeye K, Topouzis F, von Hanno T, Mirshahi A, Foster PJ, van Duijn CM, Pfeiffer N, Delcourt C, Klaver CC, Rahi J, Hammond CJ; European Eye Epidemiology (E3) Consortium. Increasing Prevalence of Myopia in Europe and the Impact of Education. *Ophthalmology*. 2015 Jul;122(7):1489-1497.
 38. Antony BJ, Stetson PF, Abramoff MD, Lee K, Colijn JM, **Buitendijk GHS**, Klaver CC, Roorda A, Lujan BJ. Characterizing the Impact of Off-Axis Scan Acquisition on the Reproducibility of Total Retinal Thickness Measurements in SDOCT Volumes. *Transl Vis Sci Technol*. 2015 Jul 31;4(4):3.
 39. Delcourt C, Korobelnik JF, **Buitendijk GHS**, Foster PJ, Hammond CJ, Piermarocchi S, Peto T, Jansonius N, Mirshahi A, Hogg RE, Bretillon L, Topouzis F, Deak G, Grauslund J, Broe R, Souied E, Creuzot-Garcher C, Sahel J, Daien V, Lehtimäki T, Hense HW, Prokofyeva E, Oxeye K, Rahi JS, Cumberland PM, Schmitz-Valckenberg S, Fauser S, Bertelsen G, Hoyng C, Bergen A, Silva R, Wolf S, Lotery A, Chakravarthy U, Fletcher A, Klaver CC. Ophthalmic epidemiology in Europe: the "European Eye Epidemiology" (E3) consortium. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2016 Feb;(2):197-210.
 40. Fritsche LG*, Igl W*, Bailey JN*, Grassmann F*, Sengupta S*, Bragg-Gresham JL, Burdon KP, Hebbbring SJ, Wen C, Gorski M, Kim IK, Cho D, Zack D, Souied E, Scholl HP, Bala E, Lee KE, Hunter DJ, Sardell RJ, Mitchell P, Merriam JE, Cipriani V, Hoffman JD, Schick T, Lechanteur YT, Guymier RH, Johnson MP, Jiang Y, Stanton CM, **Buitendijk GHS**, Zhan X, Kwong AM, Boleda A, Brooks M, Gieser L, Ratnapriya R, Branham KE, Foerster JR, Heckenlively JR, Othman MI, Vote BJ, Liang HH, Souzeau E, McAllister IL, Isaacs T, Hall J, Lake S, Mackey DA, Constable IJ, Craig JE, Kitchner TE, Yang Z, Su Z, Luo H, Chen D, Ouyang H, Flagg K, Lin D, Mao G, Ferreyra H, Stark K, von Strachwitz CN, Wolf A, Brandl C, Rudolph G, Olden M, Morrison MA, Morgan DJ, Schu M, Ahn J, Silvestri G, Tsironi EE, Park KH, Farrer LA, Orlin A, Brucker A, Li M, A Curcio C, Mohand-Said S, Sahel JA, Audo I, Benchabounne M, Cree AJ, Rennie CA, Goverdhan SV, Grunin M, Hagbi-Levi S, Campochiaro P, Katsanis N, Holz FG, Blond F, Blanché H, Deleuze JF, Igo RP Jr, Truitt B, Peachey NS, Meuer SM, Myers CE, Moore EL, Klein R, Hauser MA, Postel EA, Courtenay MD, Schwartz SG, Kovach JL, Scott WK, Liew G, Tan AG, Gopinath B, Merriam JC, Smith RT, Khan JC, Shahid H, Moore AT, McGrath JA, Laux R, Brantley MA Jr, Agarwal A, Ersoy L, Caramoy A, Langmann T, Saksens NT, de Jong EK, Hoyng CB, Cain MS, Richardson AJ, Martin TM, Blangero J, Weeks DE, Dhillion B, van Duijn CM, Doheny KF, Romm J, Klaver CC, Hayward C, Gorin MB, Klein ML, Baird PN, den Hollander AI, Fauser S, Yates JR, Allikmets R, Wang JJ, Schaumberg DA, Klein BE, Hagstrom SA, Chowers I, Lotery AJ, Léveillard T, Zhang K, Brilliant MH, Hewitt AW, Swaroop A, Chew EY, Pericak-Vance MA, DeAngelis M, Stambolian D, Haines JL, Iyengar SK, Weber BH, Abecasis GR, Heid IM. A large genome-wide association study of age-related macular degeneration highlights contributions of rare and common variants. *Nat Genet*. 2016 Feb;48(2):134-143.
 41. Lee K, **Buitendijk GHS**, Bogunovic H, Springelkamp H, Hofman A, Wahle A, Sonka M, Vingerling JR, Klaver CC, Abràmoff MD. Automated segmentability index for layer segmentation of macular SD-OCT images. *Trans Vis Sci Technol*. 2016 Apr 5;5(2):14.
 42. Khawaja AP, Springelkamp H, Creuzot-Garcher C, Delcourt C, Hofman A, Höhn R, Iglesias AI, Wolfs RC, Korobelnik JF, Silva R, Topouzis F, Williams KM, Bron AM, **Buitendijk GHS**, Cachulo MD, Cougnard-Grégoire A, Dartigues JF, Hammond CJ, Pfeiffer N, Salonikiou A, van Duijn CM, Vingerling JR, Luben RN, Mirshahi A, Lamparter J, Klaver CC, Jansonius NM, Foster PJ; European Eye Epidemiology (E3) Consortium. Associations with intraocular pressure across Europe: The European Eye Epidemiology (E3) Consortium. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2016 Nov;31(11):1101-1111.
 43. Tideman JW, Snabel MC, Tedja MS, van Rijn GA, Wong KT, Kuijpers RW, Vingerling JR, Hofman A, **Buitendijk GHS**, Keunen JE, Boon CJ, Geerards AJ, Luyten GP, Verhoeven VJ, Klaver CC. Association of Axial Length With Risk of Uncorrectable Visual Impairment for Europeans With Myopia. *JAMA Ophthalmol*. 2016 Dec 1;134(12):1355-1363.
 44. Grassmann F, Kiel C, Zimmermann ME, Gorski M, Grassmann V, Stark K, International AMD Genomics Consortium (IAMDC) (**Buitendijk GHS** consortium member), Heid IM, Weber BH. Genetic pleiotropy between age-related macular degeneration and 16 complex diseases and traits. *Genome Med*. 2017 Mar 27;9(1):29.
 45. Joachim N, Colijn JM, Kifley A, Lee KE, **Buitendijk GHS**, Klein BE, Myers CE, Meuer SM, Tan AG, Holliday EG, Attia J, Liew G, Iyengar SK, de Jong PT, Hofman A, Vingerling JR, Mitchell P, Klaver CC, Klein R, Wang JJ. Five-year progression of unilateral age-related macular degeneration to bilateral involvement: the Three Continent AMD Consortium report. *Br J Ophthalmol*. 2017 Sep;101(9):1185-1192.

46. Hendriks M, Verhoeven VJM, **Buitendijk GHS**, Polling JR, Meester-Smoor MA, Hofman A; RD5000 Consortium, Kamermans M, van den Born LI, Klaver CCW. Development of refractive errors - what can we learn from inherited retinal dystrophies? *Am J Ophthalmol*. 2017 Oct;182:81-89.
47. Mutlu U, Bonnemajjer PWM, Ikram MA, Colijn JM, Cremers LGM, **Buitendijk GHS**, Vingerling JR, Niessen WJ, Vernooij MW, Klaver CCW, Ikram MK. Retinal neurodegeneration and brain MRI markers: the Rotterdam Study. *Neurobiol Aging*. 2017 Dec;60:183-191.

*authors contributed equally



Chapter 8.4

About the author

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Gabriëlle Buitendijk was born on the 19th of May, 1983 in Rotterdam, the Netherlands. She graduated in 2001 from secondary school Sint Laurens college in Rotterdam and started studying medicine at the Erasmus Medical Center in Rotterdam. During her study she participated in a research master and obtained a Master in Neurosciences in 2007 under the supervision of prof. dr. Y. Elgersma. After receiving her medical degree cum laude in 2010 she started the work described in this thesis at the departments of Ophthalmology and Epidemiology under supervision of prof dr. C.C.W. Klaver and prof. dr. J.R. Vingerling. In 2012 she obtained a Master of Health Sciences in Genetic Epidemiology at the Netherlands Institute of Health Sciences (NIHES). Gabriëlle has presented her work at several national and international meetings. In 2014 her presentation was selected as the best overall presentation at the 3rd Dutch Ophthalmology PhD Conference. In 2014 she started her residency in Ophthalmology at the department of Ophthalmology at the Erasmus Medical Center, headed by prof. dr. J.R. Vingerling.

