

Risk Factors for Uncorrected Refractive Error: Persian Cohort Eye Study - Rafsanjan Center

Mohammadreza Soleimani¹, Bahar Saberzadeh-Ardestani², Hamid Hakimi³, Akbar Fotouhi⁴, Fateme Alipour², Fatemeh Jafari², Alireza Lashay², Hassan Hashemi²

¹Department of Ophthalmology, Rafsanjan University of Medical Sciences, Rafsanjan, Iran, ²Eye Research Center, Farabi Eye Hospital, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran, ³Non-Communicable Disease Research Center, Rafsanjan University of Medical Sciences, Rafsanjan, Iran, ⁴Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Abstract

Purpose: To determine the prevalence of visually significant uncorrected refractive error (URE) in Rafsanjan and investigate the related factors. URE is the leading cause of visual impairment (VI) which causes the second-highest number of years lived with disability. The URE is a preventable health problem.

Methods: In this cross-sectional study participants from Rafsanjan who were 35–70 years were enrolled between 2014 and 2020. Demographic and clinical characteristics data were gathered, and eye examination was performed. Visually significant URE was defined as present if habitual visual acuity was (HVA; visual acuity with present optical correction) >0.3 logMAR in the best eye and the visual acuity of that eye showed >0.2 logMAR improvement after the best correction. Logistic regression was used to determine the association between predicting variables (age, sex, wealth, education, employment, diabetes, cataract, and refractive error characteristics) and outcome (URE).

Results: Among the 6991 participants of Rafsanjan subcohort of the Persian Eye Cohort, 311 (4.4%) had a visually significant URE. Diabetes was significantly more prevalent in the participants with visually significant URE, at 18.7% versus 13.1% in patients without significant URE ($P = 0.004$). In the final model, each year of increase in age was associated with 3% higher URE (95% confidence interval [CI]: 1.01–1.05). In comparison to low hyperopia, participants with low myopia had 5.17 times more odds of visually significant URE (95% CI: 3.38–7.93). However, antimetropia decreased the risk of visually significant URE (95% CI: 0.02–0.37).

Conclusion: Policymakers should pay special attention to elderly patients with myopia to effectively reduce the prevalence of visually significant URE.

Keywords: Refractive error, Uncorrected refractive error, Visual impairment

Address for correspondence: Fateme Alipour, Eye Research Center, Farabi Eye Hospital, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Ghazvin Sq., Kargar Street, Tehran, Iran.

E-mail: alipour@tums.ac.ir

Submitted: 22-May-2022; **Revised:** 09-Jan-2023; **Accepted:** 18-Jan-2023; **Published:** 29-Apr-2023

INTRODUCTION

Uncorrected refractive error (URE) is the leading cause of visual impairment (VI) which causes the second-highest number of years lived with disability.^{1,2} Among total cases with VI, 128 million were attributed to URE in 2020.² The universal disability-adjusted life year index for URE has increased by 43.8% between 1990 and 2013.³ VI could lead to social

isolation, economical stress, and reduction in job opportunities and education.⁴ Therefore, the World Health Organization dedicated the VISION 2020, a global action plan for universal eye health, to alleviate avoidable VI such as URE.⁵ The global cost of URE has been estimated ten times more than what is needed to resolve this issue.^{6,7}

This is an open access journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

For reprints contact: WKHLRPMedknow_reprints@wolterskluwer.com

How to cite this article: Soleimani M, Saberzadeh-Ardestani B, Hakimi H, Fotouhi A, Alipour F, Jafari F, *et al.* Risk factors for uncorrected refractive error: Persian cohort eye study - Rafsanjan center. J Curr Ophthalmol 2022;34:421-7.

Access this article online

Quick Response Code:



Website:
www.jcurophthalmol.org

DOI:
10.4103/joco.joco_160_22

URE is a preventable health problem with a significant impact on the economy and human quality of life.⁸ Several population-based studies have demonstrated the extent of URE as a public health problem.⁹⁻¹² The prevalence of URE has been reported from 1.13% to 57% in different countries. Several definitions have been used in the literature for reporting the URE. Studies have defined URE as a habitual visual acuity (HVA; visual acuity with present optical correction) was >0.3 logMAR in the best eye with the visual acuity of that eye showing >0.2 logMAR improvement after the best correction.^{13,14}

Studies reported an association between increasing age and URE frequency.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ While, female patients were more susceptible to URE in some studies,^{15,18} others have reported the opposite.¹⁹⁻²¹ Lower education, lack of insurance, and low income have also been related to URE.^{17,18,21} Type of refractive error and diabetes are among the diseases that have been associated with URE.^{13,15,20,22} A more precise understanding of the distributive prevalence of and associated factors with URE is needed to design effective policies for prevention. In this study, we aimed to determine the prevalence of visually significant URE in Rafsanjan and investigate the related factors.

METHODS

This cross-sectional study is based on the Persian Eye Cohort, a collaboration of 6 centers in Iran which is a branch of the Persian Cohort study.²³ The complete protocol of the whole study has been published previously and the protocol of the eye branch of the Persian cohort is under publication.²³ In this study, participants enrolled in one of the centers, Rafsanjan,²⁴ from 2014 to 2020 are described. Residents of Rafsanjan who were 35–70-year-old and lived in the area that was covered by 5 health centers for at least 1 year were invited up to three times to participate in the Persian Eye Cohort registry. Health centers included three urban health centers, and one rural health center. Participants were excluded if they were unable to communicate with the recruiter, or coming to the center, or not responding to the three invitations. Informed consent was obtained from the study participants, and an optometrist completed a questionnaire about age (years), sex (classified as male and female), education (years), employment (classified as unemployed, employed, retired, and homemaker), wealth index [based on multiple correspondence analysis of access to a freezer, access to a washing machine, access to a dishwasher, access to a computer, internet access, access to a motorcycle, access to a car (no access, access to a car with a price of <50 million Tomans, and access to a car with price of >50 million Tomans), access to a vacuum cleaner, color TV set (no color TV or regular color TV vs. Plasma color TV), mobile phone, PC or laptop, international trips in a lifetime (never, just pilgrimage, both pilgrimage or nonpilgrimage trips)], history of diabetes and duration of disease (year), history of cataract, strabismus, amblyopia treatment, and eye surgeries.^{23,25}

Thereafter an optometrist determined habitual (visual acuity with present optical correction) and best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA) and blindness based on the 11th international classification of disease (icd.who.int). Visual acuity impairment was defined in the better eye and classified as mild as $0.3 \leq \text{HVA} < 0.5$ logMAR, moderate as $0.5 \leq \text{HVA} < 1$ logMAR, and severe as $1 \leq \text{HVA}$ logMAR. Blindness was defined as HVA less or equal to 1.3 logMAR.

Present glass characteristics and objective noncycloplegic refraction was measured with an autorefractometer and manually with a retinoscope. Subjective refraction was performed according to the study protocol.²⁶

Refractive errors were defined based on spheric equivalent (SE; defined as sphere + half cylinder) as emmetropia with $-1 \leq \text{SE} \leq 1$ diopter, low hyperopia with $1 < \text{SE} < 3$ diopter, moderate to high hyperopia with $3 \leq \text{SE}$, low myopia with $-3 < \text{SE} < -1$ diopter, high myopia with $\text{SE} \leq -3$ diopters.²⁷ Antimetropia was defined as positive SE in one eye and negative SE in the other eye. Anisometropia was defined as more than one diopter difference between the SE of the eyes. Enantiomorphism was defined as the astigmatic axis of the eyes showing a mirror image of each other based on the difference between the eyes' axis. This difference for enantiomorphism was classified as exact as 0° , first-class as $1^\circ - 5^\circ$, second class as $6^\circ - 10^\circ$, and third class as $11^\circ - 15^\circ$. Axis was classified as with the rule ($0^\circ - 10^\circ$ and $170^\circ - 180^\circ$), against the rule ($80^\circ - 110^\circ$), and oblique.

The participants that fulfilled certain criteria were visited by a trained ophthalmologist who conducted detailed eye examinations. In this step, cataract was classified as present and absent, and retinal detachment was classified as present and absent.

Visually significant URE was defined as $\text{HVA} > 0.3$ logMAR in the best eye in which the visual acuity of that eye showed >0.2 logMAR improvement after the best correction. We analyzed participants which had $\text{HVA} > 0.3$ logMAR or had $\text{HVA} < 0.3$ logMAR where the HVA was less than the BCVA.

We adhered to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and the Ethics Committee of the Tehran University of Medical Sciences approved this study (IR.TUMS.SPH.REC.1399.066).

Statistical analysis

Continuous variables are described as mean \pm standard deviation or median \pm interquartile range as appropriate. Categorical variables are shown as frequencies. Independent sample *t*-test was used for comparing means. Pearson Chi-square and Fisher's exact test (if needed) were used for comparing categorical variables. To investigate the independent effect of demographic and clinical variables on the presence of visually significant URE, we entered all univariable analyses with a $P < 0.05$ that were congruent with prior evidence into the conditional enter-multivariable logistic regression model. We performed all statistical analyses using the Stata 16 edition for Windows (StataCorp. 2019. College Station, USA). A $P < 0.05$ was considered significant in all instances.

RESULTS

In the Rafsanjan subcohort of the Persian Eye Study, 8688 participants have been examined. From this population, we analyzed 6991 participants which had HVA >0.3 logMAR or had HVA <0.3 logMAR where HVA was less than their BCVA. Table 1 shows demographic characteristics and the past medical history of participants.

The mean age was 49.25 ± 9.25 (range, 35–70) with 3712 (53.1%) of participants being females. On average, the study population had 8.85 ± 5 (range, 0–26) years of education, and 3389 (48.6%) of them were retired. With the best correction, percentage of patients with visual acuity < 0.3 logMAR increased from 6617 of 6991 (94.7%) to 4140 of 4184 (99%). Diabetes prevalence was 13.3% with 8.12 years of duration on average. History of Strabismus was seen among 61 (0.7%) of the participants. Thirty-one (0.4%) of them had a history of amblyopia, and 904 (10.4%) of the population had eye surgery including cataract surgery, refractive error surgery, laser therapy for diabetic retinopathy, retinal detachment surgery, and glaucoma surgery. Table 2 demonstrates the eye examination of participants. Emmetropia prevalence was 78.1%, and 880 participants had astigmatism >1.5 diopters.

Of 6991 participants, 311 (4.4%) had a visually significant URE. Age was significantly higher among the participants with visually significant URE compared with visually insignificant URE (odds ratio [OR]: 1.02, 95% confidence interval [CI]: 1.01–1.05, $P < 0.001$). There were no differences between sex, wealth index, education, and employment among participants with or without URE. Diabetes was significantly more prevalent in the participants with visually significant URE, with 18.7% versus

13.1% in patients with without significant URE ($P = 0.004$). However, the diabetes duration was not different. In the eye examination, cataract was seen in 6.1% of participants with visually significant URE, but it was only present in 2.3% of participants without visually significant URE ($P < 0.001$).

Moderate-to-severe myopia and hyperopia were more prevalent among the participants with visually significant URE (OR: 85.91, 95% CI: 46.03–160.34; OR: 45.78, 95% CI: 18.18–120.35, respectively). Anisometropia was seen in 18% of participants with visually significant URE, but it was only present in 3.5% of participants without visually significant URE ($P < 0.001$). On the other hand, antimetropia was more prevalent in the participants without visually significant URE (OR: 0.26, 95% CI: 0.14–0.47, $P = 0.004$).

Astigmatism >1.5 diopters was more prevalent among the participants with visually significant URE. In the population with astigmatism >1.5 diopters, with the rule type was less seen in those participants with visually significant URE compared with the percentage in the visually insignificant URE ($P = 0.043$). Moreover, myopic astigmatism was also more prevalent among the participants with visually significant URE compared to those without significant URE ($P < 0.001$).

To calculate the OR, variables with $P < 0.05$ in the preliminary analysis were entered into logistic regression: Age, diabetes, high astigmatism, refractive error, anisometropia, antimetropia, with the rule astigmatism, and cataract in physical examination. Among different classifications of astigmatism, oblique, with the rule and against the rule were selected for further analysis in which only with the rule was negatively associated with visually significant URE. In the cataract investigation,

Table 1: Demographic characteristics and past medical history of participants

| Variable | n | Total | Visually significant URE | | P |
|------------------------------------|------|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------|----------------------|
| | | | Yes (n=311) | No | |
| Age, mean±SD (range) | 6990 | 49.25±9.25 (35–70) | 51.01±9.55 | 49.16±9.23 | <0.001* ^a |
| Sex, n (%) | | | | | |
| Female | 6991 | 3712 (53.1) | 162 (52.1) | 3550 (53.1) | 0.716 ^b |
| Male | | 3279 (46.9) | 149 (47.9) | 3130 (46.8) | |
| Wealth index, mean±SD (range) | 6982 | 0.01±0.95 (–3.98–2.59) | –0.081±0.95 | 0.031±0.95 | 0.689 ^a |
| Education, mean±SD (range) | 6990 | 8.85±4.93 (0–26) | 9.02±5.4 | 8.84±4.9 | 0.529 ^a |
| Employment, n (%) | | | | | |
| Unemployed | 6973 | 109 (1.6) | 9 (2.9) | 100 (1.5) | 0.211 ^b |
| Housewife | | 2764 (39.6) | 116 (37.4) | 2648 (39.7) | |
| Retired | | 3389 (48.6) | 150 (48.4) | 3239 (48.6) | |
| Employed | | 711 (10.2) | 35 (11.3) | 676 (10.2) | |
| Diabetes, n (%) | | | | | |
| No | 6976 | 6049 (86.7) | 252 (81.3) | 5797 (86.9) | 0.004* ^b |
| Yes | | 927 (13.3) | 58 (18.7) | 869 (13.1) | |
| Diabetes duration, mean±SD (range) | 921 | 8.12±6.19 (1–40) | 9.29±7.82 | 8.04±6.05 | 0.135 ^a |
| Cataract, n (%) | | | | | |
| No | 6991 | 6475 (92.6) | 278 (89.4) | 6524 (92.8) | <0.001* ^b |
| Present in examination | | 175 (2.5) | 19 (6.1) | 156 (2.3) | |
| Positive history | | 341 (4.9) | 14 (4.5) | 327 (4.9) | |

*Statistically significant, ^aIndependent sample *t*-test, ^bPearson Chi-square. SD: Standard deviation, URE: Uncorrected refractive error

Table 2: Refractive variables of participants

| Variables | <i>n</i> | Total | Visually significant URE | | <i>P</i> |
|--|----------|---------------------|--------------------------|-------------|----------------------|
| | | | Yes (<i>n</i> = 311) | No | |
| Visual acuity, mean±SD (range) | | | | | |
| HVA | 8661 | 0.18±0.31 (0–3) | 0.74±0.42 | 0.07±0.001 | <0.001* ^a |
| BCVA | 5016 | 0.02±0.09 (0–3) | 0.07±0.006 | 0.01±0.001 | <0.001* ^a |
| Severity of VI (based on HVA), <i>n</i> (%) | | | | | |
| No impairment | 6991 | 6617 (94.7) | 0 | 6617 (99.0) | <0.001* ^b |
| Mild | | 133 (1.9) | 101 (32.5) | 32 (0.5) | |
| Moderate | | 210 (3.0) | 184 (59.2) | 26 (0.4) | |
| Severe | | 31 (0.4) | 26 (8.3) | 5 (0.1) | |
| Severity of VI (based on BCVA), <i>n</i> (%) | | | | | |
| No impairment | 4184 | 4140 (99.0) | 300 (96.5) | 3840 (99.2) | <0.001* ^c |
| Mild | | 23 (0.6) | 9 (2.9) | 14 (0.3) | |
| Moderate | | 18 (0.4) | 2 (0.6) | 16 (0.4) | |
| Severe | | 3 (0.1) | 0 | 3 (0.1) | |
| Blindness, <i>n</i> (%) | 6991 | 31 (0.4) | 26 (8.4) | 5 (0.1) | <0.001* ^c |
| Distance objective refraction, mean (SD) | | | | | |
| Sphere (D) | 8654 | 0.08±1.43 (–15–12) | –1.1±0.16 | 0.3±0.009 | <0.001* ^a |
| Cylinder (D) | 8654 | –0.87±0.79 (–7.5–0) | –1.4±0.06 | –0.7±0.007 | <0.001* ^a |
| Axis | 8188 | 92.5±45.8 (0–179) | 93.1±2.7 | 92.9±0.6 | 0.971 ^a |
| Refractive error, <i>n</i> (%) | | | | | |
| Emmetropia | 6990 | 5456 (78.1) | 30 (9.7) | 5426 (81.1) | <0.001* ^b |
| Low myopia | | 811 (11.6) | 147 (47.3) | 664 (9.8) | |
| Moderate-to-high myopia | | 103 (1.5) | 85 (27.3) | 18 (0.3) | |
| Low hyperopia | | 595 (8.5) | 31 (9.9) | 564 (8.4) | |
| Moderate to high hyperopia | | 25 (0.3) | 18 (5.8) | 25 (0.4) | |
| Anisometropia, <i>n</i> (%) | | | | | |
| No | 6964 | 6675 (95.9) | 255 (82.0) | 6420 (96.5) | <0.001* ^b |
| Yes | | 289 (4.1) | 65 (18.0) | 233 (3.5) | |
| Antimetropia, <i>n</i> (%) | | | | | |
| No | 6964 | 6128 (88.0) | 300 (96.5) | 5828 (87.6) | <0.001* ^b |
| Yes | | 836 (12.0) | 11 (3.5) | 825 (12.4) | |
| High astigmatism (≥1.5 D), <i>n</i> (%) | | | | | |
| No | 6990 | 6110 | 252 (81.3) | 5797 (86.9) | 0.004* ^b |
| Yes | | 880 | 58 (18.7) | 869 (13.1) | |
| Enantiomorphism, <i>n</i> (%) | | | | | |
| No | 880 | 697 (79.2) | 105 (83.3) | 592 (78.5) | 0.081 ^c |
| Exact | | 37 (4.2) | 8 (6.3) | 29 (3.9) | |
| First class | | 50 (5.7) | 6 (4.8) | 44 (5.8) | |
| Second class | | 68 (7.7) | 4 (3.2) | 64 (8.5) | |
| Third class | | 28 (3.2) | 3 (2.4) | 25 (3.3) | |
| Astigmatism types, <i>n</i> (%) | | | | | |
| With the rule | 880 | 361 (41.1) | 39 (30.9) | 322 (42.7) | 0.043* ^b |
| Against the rule | | 114 (12.9) | 18 (14.3) | 96 (12.7) | |
| Oblique | | 405 (46.0) | 69 (54.8) | 336 (44.6) | |
| Astigmatism types, <i>n</i> (%) | | | | | |
| Pure | 880 | 398 (45.2) | 31 (24.6) | 367 (48.7) | <0.001* ^b |
| Hyperopic | | 354 (40.2) | 20 (15.9) | 334 (44.3) | |
| Myopic | | 128 (14.6) | 75 (59.5) | 53 (7.0) | |

*Statistically significant, ^aIndependent sample *t*-test, ^bPearson Chi-square, ^cFisher's exact test. SD: Standard deviation, URE: Uncorrected refractive error, VI: Visual impairment, BCVA: Best-corrected visual acuity, HVA: Habitual visual acuity, D: diopter

only the presence of a cataract in the eye examination was associated with higher URE, and the history of cataract was not associated with higher URE. The result of the univariable and multivariable models are presented in Table 3.

The variables which did not remain significant in the multivariable model were excluded to create the final model. In the final model, each year of increase in age was associated with 3% higher URE (95% CI: 1.01–1.05). In comparison to

Table 3: Association of different factors with uncorrected refractive error

| Variable (referent group) | Univariable | | Multivariable | |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| | OR (95% CI) | P | OR (95% CI) | P |
| Age | 1.02 (1.01–1.03) | 0.001* ^a | 1.03 (1.01–1.05) | 0.001* ^a |
| Diabetes (no) | 1.54 (1.14–2.06) | 0.004* ^a | - | - |
| High astigmatism | 5.35 (4.22–7.95) | <0.001* ^a | - | - |
| Refractive error (low hyperopia) | | | | |
| Low myopia | 4.03 (2.69–6.03) | <0.001* ^a | 5.17 (3.38–7.93) | <0.001* ^a |
| Moderate to high myopia | 85.91 (46.03–160.34) | <0.001* ^a | 56.23 (21.25–148.83) | <0.001* ^a |
| High hyperopia | 46.78 (18.18–120.35) | <0.001* ^a | 127.73 (5.02–250.93) | <0.001* ^a |
| Anisometropia (no) | 6.05 (4.41–8.31) | <0.001* ^a | - | - |
| Antimetropia (no) | 0.26 (0.14–0.47) | <0.001* ^a | 0.09 (0.02–0.37) | 0.001* ^a |
| With the rule astigmatism (oblique) | 0.59 (0.39–0.89) | 0.001* ^a | - | - |
| Cataract in physical examination (no) | 2.71 (1.67–4.44) | <0.001* ^a | - | - |

*Statistically significant, ^aLogistic regression, CI: Confidence interval, P/E: Physical examination, OR: Odds ratio

low hyperopia, participants with low myopia had 5.17-times more odds of visually significant URE (95% CI: 3.38–7.93). However, antimetropia decreased the risk of visually significant URE (95% CI: 0.02–0.37).

DISCUSSION

This study described the demographic characteristics and eye examination in participants of the Rafsanjan subcohort of the Persian Eye Cohort. We investigated the predicting variables by comparing participants with and without visually significant URE. Among the participants, 311 out of 6991 had a visually significant URE. An increase in age, myopia, and moderate to severe hyperopia increased the risk of visually significant URE. On the other hand, the presence of antimetropia was associated with lower visually significant URE.

We found that each year of increase in age was associated with a 3% increase in the risk of visually significant URE. This result is similar to previous studies. Varma *et al.* reported an increase in the OR of URE from 0.54 to 2.79 with an increase in age among Americans.¹⁷ Another study in the Mexican population showed that an increase in age was associated with a 1% increase in the risk of visually significant URE.¹⁶ Also, Ferraz *et al.* found an increase in the OR of URE from 0.4 to 1.06 with an increase in age among Brazilians.¹⁵ Moreover, Fotouhi *et al.* reported an increase in the OR of URE from 1.05 to 3.17 with an increase in age in Tehran.¹³ This result could be attributed to the increase in refractive errors with the increase in age. Therefore, higher age groups should be considered in the policy-making for a reduction in the prevalence of URE.

Among the participants with refractive error, myopia was associated with higher URE. Prevalence of low myopia was 47.3% in the participants with visually significant URE which was higher than the group without visually significant URE and it was higher than the average prevalence of myopia in the general population (16%–33% in the world and 25%–30% in Iran).^{14,28–30} These findings are similar to the previous studies which reported a 3.15–18.67 times increase in the risk of URE

among the participants with myopia.^{13,31,32} This result may suggest that patients with myopia are more prone to visually significant URE and policymakers should pay attention to this group. Furthermore, contact lenses and compact lenses can prevent the use of heavy and thick lenses in patients with moderate to severe myopia and these could facilitate the prevention of URE.

Our results showed that antimetropia was a preventive factor for visually significant URE. For example, if a patient has a SE of 1 in the left eye and -1 in the right eye the correction would be easier than severe refractive error. We hypothesize that due to the lower severity of refractive errors in the patients with antimetropia, visually significant URE was less prevalent among this group.

In this study sex, education, employment, and socioeconomic status were not associated with visually significant URE. These results are similar to some studies,^{13,33,34} but they are in contrast with others.^{18,35–37} This controversy could be attributed to different population structures and the design of studies. Some studies investigate each factor individually, while we study these factors in the multivariable model.

In this study, diabetes, cataract, visually significant astigmatism, and anisometropia did not have an association with visually significant URE in the multivariable model. Although these variables were significantly associated with visually significant URE in univariable analysis, the result of multivariable analysis suggests that their association may be indirect. We hypothesize that their relationship with refractive errors could be the missing link. Diabetes could result in a change of refraction.³⁸ Nuclear cataract could lead to a myopic shift while cortical cataract can cause a hyperopic shift in refraction.³⁹ Similar to our univariable results, some studies have reported an association between mentioned variables and URE.^{13,15,22} Future studies on the cataract type and the relationship of blood glucose level with URE could elaborate on this issue. Further studies are necessary to investigate the possible role of fear from aniseikonia in the refractive correction of patients with anisometropia. Furthermore, the use of contact lenses

can reduce the practical limitations for refractive correction of patients with high astigmatism in relation to axis modification for reduction of distortion.

This study has several strengths. This study was on the subcohort of the Persian Eye Cohort, and we used a valid questionnaire. Furthermore, the variables were defined based on the international standardized guideline. Our study faced several limitations. Due to the nature of cross-sectional studies, we could not explore the causality. Although we invited all the population with the inclusion criteria to participate in the study, the unwillingness of the participants that did not participate in the study could lead to selection bias. Furthermore, we could not calculate the speculated coverage index and missing data could cause bias in our results.

Our result suggests that policymakers should pay special attention to elderly patients with moderate-to-severe refractive error to effectively reduce the prevalence of visually significant URE. Furthermore, populations with diabetes, cataract, significant astigmatism and anisometropia should also be considered potential targets for the URE reduction programs.

Acknowledgments

We are indebted and grateful to the employees of the PERSIAN Cohort-Rafsanjan University of Medical Sciences especially Eye cohort staff for their contribution to data gathering. Also, the residents of the Rafsanjan districts for their contribution to this study.

Financial support and sponsorship

Nil.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

- GBD 2015 Eastern Mediterranean Region Vision Loss Collaborators. Burden of vision loss in the Eastern Mediterranean region, 1990-2015: Findings from the Global Burden of Disease 2015 study. *Int J Public Health* 2018;63:199-210.
- Flaxman SR, Bourne RR, Resnikoff S, Ackland P, Braithwaite T, Cicinelli MV, *et al.* Global causes of blindness and distance vision impairment 1990-2020: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Glob Health* 2017;5:e1221-34.
- Lou L, Yao C, Jin Y, Perez V, Ye J. Global patterns in health burden of uncorrected refractive error. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2016;57:6271-7.
- Resnikoff S, Pascolini D, Mariotti SP, Pokharel GP. Global magnitude of visual impairment caused by uncorrected refractive errors in 2004. *Bull World Health Organ* 2008;86:63-70.
- Gupta N, Kocur I. Chronic eye disease and the WHO Universal Eye Health Global Action Plan 2014-2019. *Can J Ophthalmol* 2014;49:403-5.
- Fricke TR, Holden BA, Wilson DA, Schlenker G, Naidoo KS, Resnikoff S, *et al.* Global cost of correcting vision impairment from uncorrected refractive error. *Bull World Health Organ* 2012;90:728-38.
- Smith TS, Frick KD, Holden BA, Fricke TR, Naidoo KS. Potential lost productivity resulting from the global burden of uncorrected refractive error. *Bull World Health Organ* 2009;87:431-7.
- Honavar SG. The burden of uncorrected refractive error. *Indian J Ophthalmol* 2019;67:577-8.
- Bourne RR, Jonas JB, Bron AM, Cicinelli MV, Das A, Flaxman SR, *et al.* Prevalence and causes of vision loss in high-income countries and in Eastern and Central Europe in 2015: Magnitude, temporal trends and projections. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2018;102:575-85.
- Cheng CY, Wang N, Wong TY, Congdon N, He M, Wang YX, *et al.* Prevalence and causes of vision loss in East Asia in 2015: Magnitude, temporal trends and projections. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2020;104:616-22.
- Hashemi H, Khabazkhoob M, Emamian MH, Shariati M, Fotouhi A. Visual impairment in the 40- to 64-year-old population of Shahroud, Iran. *Eye (Lond)* 2012;26:1071-7.
- Sherwin JC, Lewallen S, Courtright P. Blindness and visual impairment due to uncorrected refractive error in sub-Saharan Africa: Review of recent population-based studies. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2012;96:927-30.
- Fotouhi A, Hashemi H, Raissi B, Mohammad K. Uncorrected refractive errors and spectacle utilisation rate in Tehran: The unmet need. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2006;90:534-7.
- Hashemi H, Abbastabar H, Yekta A, Heydarian S, Khabazkhoob M. The prevalence of uncorrected refractive errors in underserved rural areas. *J Curr Ophthalmol* 2017;29:305-9.
- Ferraz FH, Corrente JE, Oromolla P, Schellini SA. Influence of uncorrected refractive error and unmet refractive error on visual impairment in a Brazilian population. *BMC Ophthalmol* 2014;14:84.
- Muñoz B, West SK, Rodríguez J, Sánchez R, Broman AT, Snyder R, *et al.* Blindness, visual impairment and the problem of uncorrected refractive error in a Mexican-American population: Proyecto VER. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2002;43:608-14.
- Varma R, Wang MY, Ying-Lai M, Donofrio J, Azen SP, Los Angeles Latino Eye Study Group. The prevalence and risk indicators of uncorrected refractive error and unmet refractive need in Latinos: The Los Angeles Latino Eye Study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2008;49:5264-73.
- Emamian MH, Zeraati H, Majdazadeh R, Shariati M, Hashemi H, Fotouhi A. Unmet refractive need and its determinants in Shahroud, Iran. *Int Ophthalmol* 2012;32:329-36.
- Keel S, McGuinness MB, Foreman J, Scheetz J, Taylor HR, Dirani M. Prevalence, associations and characteristics of severe uncorrected refractive error in the Australian National Eye Health Survey. *Clin Exp Ophthalmol* 2020;48:14-23.
- Lamoureux EL, Saw SM, Thumboo J, Wee HL, Aung T, Mitchell P, *et al.* The impact of corrected and uncorrected refractive error on visual functioning: The Singapore Malay Eye Study. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2009;50:2614-20.
- Yekta A, Hashemi H, Pakzad R, Aghamirsalam M, Ostadimoghaddam H, Doostdar A, *et al.* Economic inequality in unmet refractive error need in deprived rural population of Iran. *J Curr Ophthalmol* 2020;32:189-94.
- Willis JR, Vitale SE, Agrawal Y, Ramulu PY. Visual impairment, uncorrected refractive error, and objectively measured balance in the United States. *JAMA Ophthalmol* 2013;131:1049-56.
- Poustchi H, Egtesad S, Kamangar F, Etemadi A, Keshtkar AA, Hekmatdoost A, *et al.* Prospective epidemiological research studies in Iran (the PERSIAN Cohort Study): Rationale, objectives, and design. *Am J Epidemiol* 2018;187:647-55.
- Hakimi H, Ahmadi J, Vakilian A, Jamalizadeh A, Kamyab Z, Mehran M, *et al.* The profile of Rafsanjan Cohort Study. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2021;36:243-52.
- Prado CM, Baracos VE, McCargar LJ, Mourtzakis M, Mulder KE, Reiman T, *et al.* Body composition as an independent determinant of 5-fluorouracil-based chemotherapy toxicity. *Clin Cancer Res* 2007;13:3264-8.
- The Lancet. ICD-11. *Lancet* 2019;393:2275.
- Qiu M, Wang SY, Singh K, Lin SC. Racial disparities in uncorrected and undercorrected refractive error in the United States. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2014;55:6996-7005.
- Hashemi H, Fotouhi A, Yekta A, Pakzad R, Ostadimoghaddam H, Khabazkhoob M. Global and regional estimates of prevalence of refractive errors: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Curr Ophthalmol* 2018;30:3-22.
- Hashemi H, Khabazkhoob M, Jafarzadehpour E, Yekta AA, Emamian MH, Shariati M, *et al.* High prevalence of myopia in an adult population, Shahroud, Iran. *Optom Vis Sci* 2012;89:993-9.
- Pan CW, Ramamurthy D, Saw SM. Worldwide prevalence and risk factors for myopia. *Ophthalmic Physiol Opt* 2012;32:3-16.

31. Hashemi H, Nabovati P, Yekta A, Shokrollahzadeh F, Khabazkhoob M. The prevalence of refractive errors among adult rural populations in Iran. *Clin Exp Optom* 2018;101:84-9.
32. Kuang TM, Tsai SY, Liu CJ, Ko YC, Lee SM, Chou P. Seven-year incidence of uncorrected refractive error among an elderly Chinese population in Shihpai, Taiwan: The Shihpai Eye Study. *Eye (Lond)* 2016;30:570-6.
33. Gupta V, Saxena R, Vashist P, Bhardwaj A, Pandey RM, Tandon R, *et al.* Spectacle coverage among urban schoolchildren with refractive error provided subsidized spectacles in north India. *Optom Vis Sci* 2019;96:301-8.
34. Marmamula S, Madala SR, Rao GN. Prevalence of uncorrected refractive errors, presbyopia and spectacle coverage in marine fishing communities in South India: Rapid Assessment of Visual Impairment (RAVI) project. *Ophthalmic Physiol Opt* 2012;32:149-55.
35. Fricke TR, Tahhan N, Resnikoff S, Papas E, Burnett A, Ho SM, *et al.* Global prevalence of presbyopia and vision impairment from uncorrected presbyopia: Systematic review, meta-analysis, and modelling. *Ophthalmology* 2018;125:1492-9.
36. Lou L, Liu X, Tang X, Wang L, Ye J. Gender inequality in global burden of uncorrected refractive error. *Am J Ophthalmol* 2019;198:1-7.
37. Raznahan M, Emamian MH, Hashemi H, Zeraati H, Fotouhi A. The reduction of horizontal inequity in unmet refractive error: The Shahroud Eye Cohort Study, 2009-2014. *J Curr Ophthalmol* 2019;31:188-94.
38. Kaštelan S, Gverović-Antunica A, Pelčić G, Gotovac M, Marković I, Kasun B. Refractive changes associated with diabetes mellitus. *Semin Ophthalmol* 2018;33:838-45.
39. Pesudovs K, Elliott DB. Refractive error changes in cortical, nuclear, and posterior subcapsular cataracts. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2003;87:964-7.