# New Method to Treat the Patients with Central Serous Chorioretinopathy by Oral Propranolol

Chi-Ting Horng 1,2,4, Chiai-Jung Shen1,4, Mei Fang 3,\*

<sup>1</sup> Department of Ophthalmology, Fooying University Hospital, Pingtung, Taiwan.

<sup>2</sup> Department of Pharnacy, Taijen University, Pingtung, Taiwan.

<sup>3</sup> Department of Pharmacy, Kaohsiung Armed Forced General Hospital, Kaohsiung, Taiwan.

<sup>4</sup> contributed equally the work and therefore should be considered equivalent authors

\* Corresponding Author: Fang Mei, Department of Pharmacy, Kaohsiung Armed Forced General Hospital, Kaohsiung, Taiwan. E-mail: <a href="https://doi.org/10.1007/j.ncm">https://doi.org/10.1007/j.ncm</a>

**Abstract: Purpose**: This is the first large population study in the word to to evaluate the outcome of patients with central serous chorioretinopathy for 4-month-peroid follow -up. Methods: The patients with CSCR decreased vision and called at our hospital in the past 2 years. All 276 victims were enrolled in our protocol and underwent series of ocular examinations including best-corrected visual acuity, the fundus biomioscropy and series of OCT scanning everyday. At the beginning, each patient took propranolol (10 mg tid to qid per day) and the whole experiment was scheduled for 4 months. If the sub-RPE fluid showed complete resolution and the elevated dome shape on the OCT imaging disappeared, the therapy of this subject had stopped oral pronanlol and it was considered as "successful" treatment. Moreover, we recorded the age, sex, time of comple remission, and the change of vision before and after therapy in each subject. Results: The patients with CSCR were three times high than in men than women. The mean complete remission time was mean 3.5 weeks and the percent of cases with vision recovery was up to almost 95% (262 patients). Furthermore, the mean initial visual acuity of all patients decreased to 0.54 LogMAR, and their mean vision returned to 0.15 Log MAR. Besides, no significant complication was found and no recurrence in the 262 successful patients after further 4 months follow-up. Conclusion: We suggested that oral propranolol may be the first line medication to treat CSCR in the future and this method also showed safe, cheap, efficacy, well tolerated and convenient for patients. Moreover, it shortened the remission time rapidly which is benefit for the patients who worried about the outcome and even became depression.

[Chi-Ting Horng, Chiai-Jung Shen, Mei Fang. New Method to Treat the Patients with Central Serous Chorioretinopathy by Oral Propranolol. *J Am Sci* 2018;14(4):26-35]. ISSN 1545-1003 (print); ISSN 2375-7264 (online). <a href="http://www.jofamericanscience.org">http://www.jofamericanscience.org</a>. 4. doi:10.7537/marsjas140418.04.

**Keywords**: Central Serous Chorioretinopathy (CSCR), Propranolol

### Introduction

Central serous chorioretinopathy (CSCR) is one type of macular diseases characterized by serious retinal detachment, retinal pigment epithelial (RPE) detachment or dysfunction, and choroid hyper-permeability [1,2]. Therefore, the patients of CSCR may complain about various degrees of vision loss, color change, and a scotoma in the central visual field (like a doughnut) at times. Besides, other signs are increasing central macular thickness and macular edema. Moreover, the pathology of CSCR is sub-retinal fluid accumulation leaking from the impaired tight junction of the choroid. Therefore, we could find out an elevated and dome-shape at the posterior pole of retina (3,4). It is surprising that the incidence of CSCR has been to approximately 6 times higher in men than women. We suggested that in Taiwan society, male labor is always the major source of family facility. Therefore, they should suffer from the psychological stress and endurance the associated physiologic fatigue [5]. Furthermore, many articles demonstrated that the mean age of onset

of CSCR is around 40 years old which is just the mainstay of their works (6,7). Recently the subjects with sleepless and fatigue from long- term use and even overnight utilizing the modern 3C products also resulted in CSCR. When the people concentrated on the computers or smartphone for working or playing game, the high energy of blue light from the instruments may enter the eye and induce series of oxidative stress and impacted various cells damage (8). For example, cataract, glaucoma and various retinopathies were reported in the world. Moreover, on the base of our current understanding of the disorder, multifactorial concept has evolved. involving. several risk factors such as age, race, gender, blood pressure, certain systemic disorders and a behavioral pattern [9].

Although CSCR has been described as benign and self-limiting diseases, it has a tendency to reoccur. CSCR usually absorbed spontaneously, However, the incidence of this disease developed approximate to one third of patient and sometimes caused significant impairment of the visual acuity [10]. In clinics,

persistent RPE atrophy, cystoid macular degeneration, and even several choroidal neovascularization could possibly persist. Therefore, early prevention, diagnosis and treatment for CSCR is very necessary which exhibited complete resolution of sub-retinal fluid and caused impairment of visual acuity [12]. Some patients with severe CSCR cases even result the death of photoreceptors and retinal detachment in chronic stage [13]. Therefore, how to effectively block the formation of CSCR and further enhanced the absorption of sub-RPE fluid as soon as possible becomes the mainstay in the regiment of therapy.

The treatment of CSCR varied. For example, in the past it is firstly used by steroid from oral or intyravenous routine. Recently intravitreal injection of steroid or bevacizumab (Avastin) becomes popular to ophthalmologists. Moreover, Gramko et al. clucluded that 3g melantoin t.i.d could dectreased central macular thickness and help to get better vision [15]. Moreover, Türkcü and his co-workers suggested that the relationship between free radical theory and CSCR is close. Therefore, to take stronger antioxidant is in benefit and better for the patients of CSCR [9].

In this study, we adopted a new method to treat patients with CSCR by taking oral propranolnol. Our prupose is to evaluate its safe, cheap, complicance and convenience for patients.

## Methods

Between January 2016 and December 2017, we conducted a prospective study of total 276 patients with CSCR, hence, the total subjects were recruit aged between 20 and 48 years. Informed consent was obtained from victims before participation before series of the experiments. In addition, the investigations were conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Ethical approval for this human study was obtained from the institutional review board (IRB) of Kaohsiung Armed Forced Hospital (the approval KAFGH-105-18). Firstly, the exact diagnosis of CSCR was exact confirmed by the same doctor (Dr. Horng) and now the signs of CSCR could be easily detected by OCT (Optic Coherence Tomography; OPKO. E-Vision, Instrument. Company, Taiwan) techniques (Fig 1). At the same time, we recorded the initial vacuity acuity (by the LogMAR method), left or right eye, time of total resolution (by OCT), age, sex, occupation, and body weight of each people. In this tomography, we measured various changes of elevated height which means the amount of the sub-retinal fluid absorbed and the vision may become better slow by slow. Elevated dome shape was the predominant sign of CSCR of the accumulation of sub-RPE space around macular region. In the past, we only found the mean radius of squared from CSCR by color photography. Besides, fluoresce angiography showed slow leaking on the macular region. However, we can not evaluate the disappearance correctly in times. In this study, we checked inverted U-shape of sub-RPE fluid by OCT images at every day morning (10:00AM). If the fluid complete remission and the OCT images became flat, we would record the final vision of this time (so called "recovery time"). In addition, the case was considered "successful". Furthermore, the patient begins to stop taking propranolol. In our study, taking medication for 3 months is the end of time. Therefore, the "successful" and "un-successful" case would be requested to take medication anyway. However, the "successful" patients still receive 4-month follow-up which is to measure the incidence of recurrence.

At the beginning, the patients with severe cataract, glaucoma, uveitis, trauma, any abnormal lesion in the retina, s/p ocular surgery and any treatment for CSCR (for example, had received intravitreal injection of avastin or steroids) was all excluded. Because propranolol belongs to one type of non-selective β antagonist's agents, the patients with asthma or serious cardio-vascular disease were contra-indication. For safe concern, everyone had received the examination of 12- lead static EKG before our protocol starting and any abnormalities of EKG in each subject would be excluded out. Furthermore, the dosage of propranolol depended on the patients' weight. Our medication prescription is depending on the subjects' body weight. For example, the body weight > 60 Kg, propranolol is prescribed 30 mg in one day (10 mg propranolol t.i.d.). On the other hand, if the patient's body weight > 70 Kg, the subject would take 40 mg propranolol every day (10 mg propranolol q.i.d.).

Meanwhile, we recorded the visual acuity when the RPE layer attached and the sub-RPE fluid absorbed completely by OCT images (Fig 2). All the other subjects had continued to take propranolnol until 3 months. At last, we recoreded the final vision of each volunteer. Besides, if the volunteers felt about any degree of discomfortable (e.g.: short of breath, chest pain, cold sweating or bradycardia) during the 3 months, the patient should be quickly requested to dis-continue the therapy. Fortuately, there was no significant complication or personal discomfort in our study. Evey one was all good compliance after taking drug. Moreover, the initial and final vision were also recorded by LogMAR which may enable a more acuurate estimate of acuity, particulary in many reserch [14]. Finally, we compared and analyze the characters of the "successful" and un-successful" cases. Moreover all results are expressed as the mean

 $\pm$  SD. A pair-t test was used to analyze the outcome of the change of best-corrected visual acuity. Analysis of

data was done by using SPSS version 13.0. P values of 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

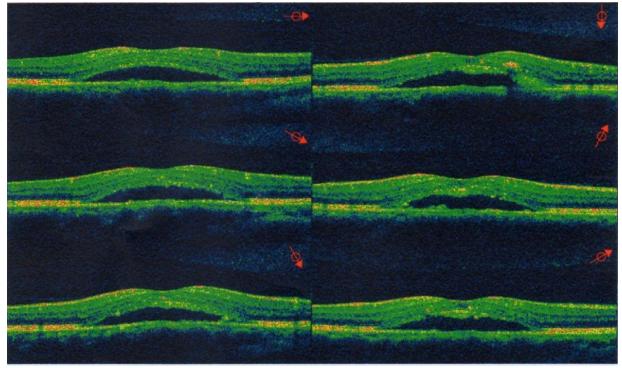


Fig 1: Serial ocular coherence tonography (OCT) in one CSCR patient showed retinal pigment epithelium detachment at day 1.

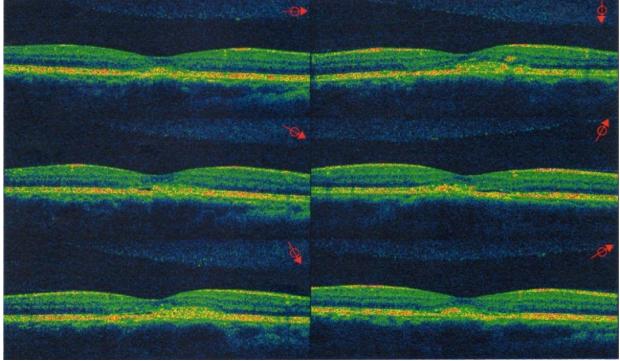


Fig 2: After oral propranlol for 27 days (Day 27), the retinal pigment epithelium detachment attached nearly by the view of OCT.

#### **Results**

There were 276 volunteers took part in our treatment protocol with confidence and they knew that we had the ability treat the stubborn CSCR the stubborn and trouble problems in the past [28]. In that article, 2 case of stubborn CSCR had ever treated intravitreal avastin many time, however, still failed and went hospital shopping. They lose the money, the time and the uncalculated depressed mood. Fortunately, they were rescued from vision loss by our new treatment protocol. Therefore, we will perform the standard procedures and treatment protocols for the large population study of 276 patients of CSCR within 3 month.

According to analysis, the involved site is 54.4 % at right eyes, 45.5% cases of total CSCR at left eyes. Besides, 77 (28.5%) patients were with both eyes involved together. Therefore, we found that the percentage of involved eye is nearly equal.

All 276 volunteers took part in study and 262 (95%) patients of CSCR succeed in our regimen. Hence, there are 212 (76.8%) male and 64 (23.2%) female patients were enrolled. The mean age was of all patients was  $37.5 \pm 2.5$  years which is similar to other reports. In other words, the male adults in family are the predominant group of victims of CSCR which the reasons are due to their social position, heavy work, anxiety and depression from their occupations. Besides, Only 14 (5%) patients did "not respond" to this treatment protocol (so called "unsuccessful"). However, we also found their vision mild improved and the dome shape in OCT scans disappeared in some degrees.

Moreover, we focused on the efficacy and it was exciting for us to demonstrate that the mean recovery time was only 3.5 weeks and the percent of "successful" patients was up to 95%. Moreover, the symptoms and signs in 262 patients with CSCR improved significantly. In a word, oral propranolol may enhance the sub-RPE fluid resolution completely and quickly, and modified the cell function after RPE layer re-attached. Furthermore, the mean initial visual acuity of all patients decreased significantly to 0.54 LogMAR, however, the final vision of total patients returned to mean 0.15 LogMAR (P< 0.05). We concluded that the oral propranolol is a good strategy and the symptoms and signs of CSCR remission only after average 3.5 weeks. In addition, no remarkable physical complication or personal complainant was found. Moreover, after 4-months-follow-up, the b95% complete resolution of CSCR (successful cases) during treatment and reveled no more recurrence.

#### Disscusion

The central serous choroidoretinopathy (CSCR)

is one of the recurrent disorder characterized by the detachment of neurosensory retina and/or detachment of the RPE in the posterior pole, caused by fluid leakage from choroidal vessels, coming through retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) layer (17). Furthermore, in some reach, alteration in the exudate state of the choroid may lead to serous detachment of the RPE and disruption of the tissue. Finally possible a small open or "blow out" of RPE. led to the characteristic fluorescein leak. To ophthalmologists' experience, sleepless, too tired and restless would result in CSCR formation. Mover, there are many associated diseases which may lead to CSCR including stressful personality (Type A behavior or personality), pre-eclasmpsia in pregnancy, hypercoagulability, the patients undergoing hemodialysis, bone marrow and solid organ transplantations, various vasculitis, tuberculosis, changed choroidal vascularity, lupus, smoking, steroid overuse (hypercortisolism), inflammatory bowel disease, Cushing's syndrome, peptic ulcer and excessive exogenous glucocorticoids (17,18,19,20,21,22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27,40). Some habits, for example, playing the video computer games or using smartphone for a long time, especially overnight. Overexposure under high energy (near UV light) blue light and sequent oxidative stress happened. Hence, free radical formation begin to attack cells, organelle and human DNA, Finally the cells were damaged, induced CSCR and the users' vision decreased significant because of cataract or various retinopathies. Moreover, Nakamura et al. indicated that oxidative stress was partially involved in blue LED light-induced retinal damage (29). Li el al. even demonstrated that the blue light from the smartphone could induce severe photo-toxicity which plays an important role in retinal degeneration. Besides when exposure to LED blue light, RPE cells were subjected to blue light on activation of key apoptotic pathways which may cause fundus damage, decrease total retinal thickness, cause atrophy of photoreceptors, and even injure neuron transduction in retina. Hence, the blue light from 3 C population may be risk factor of formation of CSCR is possible [30].

Indeed, more various risk factors of CSCR were taken into consideration from some researchers. For example, Islam et al and his colleagues suggested that the role of hypertension, uncertain steroid treatment and stress should be kept in mind when treated CSCR (7). Goldhagen and his workers found that the shift work and sleep disturbance may be the etiologies of the CSCR (8). Türkcü et al. suggested that free radicals and antioxidant mechanism would be one of

the pathogenesis (9). It is interesting that Balkarli et al. found that the patients with CSCR have lower frequency of sexual dysfunction because of erectile dysfunction (31). In summary, the relationship between CSCR and anxiety, or psycho-emotional state was suggested to be very closer. Therefore, when we scheduled to handle the cases of CSCR, the underlying causes should be not be neglected.

Many previous literatures about risk about various risk factors including male gender, emotional stress (e.g.: such as shift work, scolding by boss, family device and personal divorce), pregnancy, or over-corticosteroids used in clinics. According to many reports, 75 to 92% victims of CSCR were male subjects aged 35-40 years old who are always over duty working and in anxiety or depressed mood. Besides insomnia is also an independent risk factor. Furthermore, the difficulty in predicting which at least 1/3 patients will face a chronic and relapsing diseases. resulting in impaired visual function, has led to a search for various drugs and exact mechanisms that could be effective in CSCR. When we searched for the higher recurrence rate, many doctors paid attention to the abnormal steroid regulation and combined with anxiety-induced stress. Most CSCR patients may resolves within 4 to 6 months and returned to relative good acuity in 90% of the subjects finally (32,33). Moreover, 30% of CSCR with bilateral involvement, 40% cases with recurrent rate and visual loss happened or remained poor vision in 5 -10 % of chronic CSCR (34,35). However, even if one eye of CSCR with decreased visual loss, the patients may also loss of the static and dynamic stereopsis which could be inconvenient and induce anxiety or depressed mood, in life [36]. Furthermore, only one eve of the CSCR patient would only make patients walk slowly and vigorous movement must be forbidden.

Growing literature highlight how this type of treatment has a degree of effectiveness in sealing the leakage, reducing neuro-epithelial detachment and choroidal hyper-meability, for example, the use of intravitreal injection avastin or triamcinolone. conventional photocoagulation, thermal Transpupillary thermotherapy (TTT) Photodynamic therapy (PDT) [ 37,38,39,53 ] . Moreover it is reported that Intravitreal bevacizumab injection (IVI), SM yellow laser (577 nm) and standard-dose verteporfin PDT could result in reduction in the sub-retinal fluid height on OCT images, decreased the neurosensory detachment and improved the visual acuity after 2 to 8 months (37,38,39,51,77). These pharmacological interventions and various laser procedures may induce anti-vascular endothelial growth

(anti-VEGF), seal the leakage and then has emerged to be a potentially effective treatment for CSCR. However, such invasive techniques would carry inherent risks or complication, and show poor outcome or offer questionable long- term benefit [69].

Yannuzzi and his colleagues presented that CSCR may be associated with life style, personality, and the altered pituitary-hypothalmic axis (PHA) response [18]. Nykicek et al. al also reported that patients with chronic psychological distress and increased reactivity of PHA, frequency showed hypertension induced by an increase vascular resistance (41). Furthermore, patients of CSCR were associated with various endocrine abnormalities. For instance, CSCR is associated with physiological changes including elevated blood pressure, serum cortisol and epinephrine. Rewai et al. ever found that patients with CSRC often have higher level of serum cortisol and catecholamine (epinephrine) than healthy control [42]. To our knowledge, the adrenergic agents such epinephrine and norepinephrine are components of the stress response and could maybe induce the transient hypertension, choroidal vasoconstriction, or direct effect on the RPE (43,44,45). Yang established that alteration the alteration in RPE transport and a barrier might provide a way to modify human RPE transport for excessive endogenous adrenergic effects. Besides. glucocorticosteroids has been to sensitize adrenergic receptors and to the effects of circulating adrenergic hormone (32,46,47). In CSCR, patients are found to have the augmented vascular response, due to the glucocorticoid excessive, to noradrenaline and angiotension II with consequent hypertensive response [48]. Besides, in some CSCR cases, psychological stress has even elevated 24-hour-urine cortisol (a type of glucocorticoid) tetrahvdrosterone.

Excessive epinephrine may affect the retina through β-adrenergic receptors on the RPE. Activation of these receptors has been shown to produce a change in cyclic adenosine monophosphate concentration, (cAMP) which affects the RPE electrical activity. Besides, epinephrine has also been shown to induce apoptosis in RPE cells in vitro (32, 46,70 ]. Now it is known that the condition of hypercortisolism or hyperadrenalism catecholamine response are potential to risk factors in the well-recognized "speed and impatience nature" of patient with CSCR (32, 76).

To our knowledge, CSCR may be present in various clinical forms with different prognosis now. Therefore, management of CSCR necessitates an individualized and selective treatment approach case

by case. There is overall poor evidence for the use of systemic and intravitreal corticosteroids. From various therapies, mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists appear to have the greatest potential. Because corticosteroids would strength the tight junction of choroid, some ophthalmologists favor using to treat patients with CSCR many years ago, however, the treatment regimen is instead of as a contraindication (49). However, it is important to stress that in contrast to the current opinion, steroids can evoke or deteriorate CSCR and intensificate its symptoms and signs. Therefore, it identified that any type of steroid is all a factor in the pathogenesis of the order are contraindicated in the treatment of this disease. Recently, in some articles, the steroids would reduce the RPE fluid absorption, and thus prolonged the disease duration if not used carefully. Many years ago, steroids had ever used to control. Recently, many literatures had established that steroid may even exacerbate the serous detachment when treating CSCR. The mechanism of the complication is to increase the permeability of choriocapillaries, which could allow entry of large proteins (such as fibrinogen) into the sub-RPE and sub-retinal space [50]. On the contrary, the steroid treatment for CSCR for ophthalmologists had becomes hesitated. For example, Siwiec-Prościńska J et al. found that the role of steroid treatment in course of CSCR was shown in many studies during past years and for that reason the correlation between those factors and the incidence and the course of CSCR was analyzed [17]. Kleinberger et al. presented that they found a bilateral CSCR resulting from intranasal corticosteroid use and they alarmed the side effects from steroid use (50). Grixti and his workers had reported that intravenous methylprednisolone induced central chorioretinopathy in giant cell arteritis. Therefore; the use of steroid for treating CSCR becomes controversial recently. Especially the use of systemic corticosteroids has significant CSCR (51). Until now, Grixtri et al. concluded that corticosteroids own inflammatory abilities, however, it also disrupt RPE tight junctions which constitute the outer blood retinal barrier. leading to accumulation of the subretinal fluid. In addition increased choriocapillaries fragility, and hyper-rmeability (51).

Now, larger doses and systemic steroids for CSCR becomes contra-indication and should be avoided recently. Recently, the advanced mechanism of overload of mineralocorticoid receptor (MR) pathway in choroid vessels has been implicated in the pathophysiology of CSCR. Glucocorticoids also have affinity for MRs, further suggested of a targeted role for the MR pathways. Some animals studies showed that

They all have similar choroidal vascular dilation and leakage after activating the glucosteroids and mineralocorticoid pathway, respectively (79). In recent article, the prevalence of exogenous administration of glucocorticoid among patients developing CSCR was 3.3% and 9.1%. The mechanism of steroid-induced CSRC is that under the effects of endogenous or exogenous glucocorticoids, Karadium et al. postulated that glucocorticoids may affect the choroidal vasculature ( causing increased capillary fragility, and hypermeabilities which could lead to choroidal circulation decompensation and leak of fluid in the subretinal space, or affecting the leakage of fluid in the sub-retina space, or affecting the production of nitrixic oxide, prostaglandins, and and therefore affecting radicals, autoregulation of blood) Hence, glucocorticoid use represents a risk factor for CSCR (80). In previous publication, multiple route of administration for steroid have been implicated in the advent of acute exudative changes of CSCR. Carvallo-Recchia CA, et al. reported that systemic steroid levels in otherwise normal patients with CSCR have been with CSCR have been found to be higher than match control [76]. It may be prudent for all CSCR patients to avoid the use of corticosteroid by any systemic routine of administration, unless there is a compelling medical indication.

In our experience (Not publication yet), we only could use the deeper peri-ocular or sub-tenon injection of a  $3\sim4$  ml of steroids once a week. There were no significant complication during therapy and the symptoms and signs of CSCR really disappeared  $7\sim8$  weeks later. Furthermore, no recurrence happened after sub-RPE layer well attached for 4 months in this study.

Ketoconazole (one type of anti-fungus agents) may inhibit the steps of steroid synthesis and decrease the level of cortisol. Besides, it owns direct anti-glucorticoids effects as an antagonist [32,76]. The effects seem to present at the minimum dosage of 40g/day, however, the effectiveness of ketoconazole were limited by its severe complications including flushing of the face, yellow skin, liver damage, shortness of breathing, G-I upset, giddiness, nausea, vomiting, tachycardia and even CNS or respiratory depression (33). Besides, Mefepristone (RU-486) is also another agent to treat CSCR. Its pharmacological mechanism is that mifepristone is an antagonist of glucocorticoids and progesterone. In addition, it may inhibit cortisol-induced peripheral vasoconstriction. Unfortunately, the serious side effects such as sepsis, carcinogenic, genotoxic, potency and teratology were found [58,59].

Low-dose aspirin is another medication to treat

CSCR because it owns the ability to reduction of stress, and response of the HPA axis. Furthermore, low-dose aspirin may limited the elevation of cortisol and catecholamine in serum [60.61]. Moreover, its effectiveness in vascular diseases and combination of lower ocular and general toxicity deserved to be used. According to new medical text, the dose of 75-100 mg of aspirin appears to be safer for human. However, the side effects about bleeding tendency, hepatic toxicity, stress ulcer, allergy, skin rash, and even bronchospasm (4-19%) should be careful (62). Besides carbonic anhydrase inhibitors (CAI) is a type of diuretic that act on RPE, taking part in resorption of the sub-retinal fluid. In general, the physiological function of diuretics were always used to excrete the excessive extracellular fluid (63). Recent studies demonstrated that systemic acetazolamide (Diamox) and dorzolamide (Trusopt or Azopt) for topical use could also increase the choroidal blood flow (64,65). Therefore, oral diamox could reduce sub-retinal fluid (66) and enhance the RPE layer attached in treating CSCR. However, the side effects, for example, electrolytes imbalance, metabolic acidosis, renal stone and even pulmonary edema [67.68]. We must pay attention to various serious when used.

Finally,  $\beta$ -blockers in our treatment protocol are competitive antagonist that blocks the receptor sites for the endogenous catecholamine epinephrine (adrenaline) and norepinephrine (noradrenaline) on adrenergic beta receptors of the sympathetic nervous system. In general,  $\beta$ -blockers interfere with the binding to the receptors of epinephrine and other stress hormones, and weaken the effects of stress hormones. In our study, the propranolol (30-40 mg) could dramatically made 95 % patients of CSCR complete absorption within 4 weeks and no other complication were found.

What is its mechanism? Possible explanation may relation to modification of the choroidal circulation of the choroid flow [76]. For example, choroidal blood flow is known to be regulated by both sympathetic and parasympathetic systems and steroids seems to act on synergistically with the sympathetic symptom and as an antagonist of the parasympathetic system, inhibiting the production of the vascular modulator nitric oxidase synthase [81]. Propranolol belongs to the non-selective β-adrenergic receptor antagonists. B- receptors are found on the cells of many tissues and organs and lead to stress response. In clinic, took propranolol may induce human vasodilation, decreased heart rate, blood pressure, cardiac output, and heart work, and preventing from hypoxia of heart and arrhythmia. Besides, propranolol also could decrease the incidence of angina pectoris, stress, general anxiety, tension, headache, tremor and panic disorder, especially for people with prominent somatic or autonomic symptoms [75]. Therefore, the patients with asthma and severe cardiovascular disorders were excluded for safe. Moreover propranolol is a  $\beta$ -receptor has been proposed as potential means of treating CSCR because of choroidal circulation.

The  $\beta$ -blockers may prevent from changes in RPE activity and epinephrine- induced apoptosis that compromise integrity of the RPE and contribute to contribute to treat CSCR. This concept was supported by several studies just several years ago. Some  $\beta$ -blockers (propranolol, andolol, metoprolol) were used to decrease adenergic activities. In clinic,  $\beta$ -adrenergic antagonist currently were popular for some ophthalmologists to treat CSCR in UK, USA, and Cesk Slov [71,72,73,74]. However, in our large population study (262 patients) succeed. In Tatham' study, only 2 CSCR were enrolled in propranolol treatment (40mg, twice). Unfortunately,

Patient 1 mild improved his vision, however, he did not return to his initial vision. Besides, in patient 2, no improvement occurred [74]. Besides, Browing et al. and his co-workers use the Nadolol (40 mg per day) for 8 patients with CSCR, however, they all failed. To our option, we prescribed the propranolol which is different from other researchers. Depending on the body weight, we order the lower body weight patients to take propranolol 10 mg three time in one day) and the heavy ones to oral propranolol (10 mg for time in one day). Another question is that propranolol and nadolol are all non-selective β-blockers. Why the patients took nadolol showed Unsuccessful? We suggested that other pharmacokinetic theories for propranolol and various pathway for different β blocker should further intervention.

### Conclusion

Central serous chroriretinopathy is a potential slight-threatening condition with a complex pathogenesis that up to this time has defined precise elucidation. Moreover, it is characterized by choroidal vascular thickness, and sub-retinal fluid accumulation. In general, subjects with CSCR usually could resolve spontaneously within 3 months; however, patients are naturally worried about that their recovery is as speedy and complete as possible. However, higher rate of recurrence developed in one third to one half of patients of CSCR and even very few subjects could not return to their initial vision unfortunately. In this large patient population study, we provide the better method for treating CSCR within rapid recovery time. The mechanism of failed to treat patients with CSCR

and the characters of recurrence of CSCR need further intervention in the future.

#### References

- Guyer DR, Yannnuzzi LA, Slaktter JS, et al. (1994). Digital indocyanne green viedoangrigraphyb of central seriys corio-retinopatht. Aech Ophthalmol; 112: 1057-1062.
- 2. Gass JDM (1997) Stereoscopic Altas of cemntral srous diseases, D" and Treatmennt, diagnosis and treatment, 3 rd ed. Vil.1 St Louis: Mosby 53-57.
- Gilbert CX, Qswens SL, Smith PD. (1984). Long-term follow-up of cental serous chrioretinopathy. Br. J Ophtahalmol; 68: 815-820.
- 4. Hamimovici R, Koh S, Gagnon DR, et al. (2004). Risk factors for central serous chrioretinopathy: A case-control stidy. Ophthalmology 111; 244-249.
- 5. Ross A, Ross AH, Mohamed Q. (2011). Review and update of central serous choriotretinopathy. Curr Opin Opthalmol 22: 166-167.
- 6. Goldhagen BE, Goldhardt R. (2017). Diagnosed a patient with central serous chorioretinopathy? Now what?: Management of central serous chorioretinopathy. Curr Ophthalmol Rep; 5 (2):141-148.
- 7. Islam QU, Hanif MK, Tareen S. (2016) Frequency of Systemic Risk Factors in Central Serous Chorioretinopathy. J Coll Physicians Surg Pak; 26(8):692-695.
- 8. Bousquet E, Dhundass M, Lehmann M. (2016) Shift work: a risk for central serous chorioretinopathy. Am J Ophthalmol;165: 23-28.
- 9. Türkcü FM, Yüksel H, Yüksel H (2014). Serum dehydroepiandrosterone sulphate, total antioxidant capacity, and total oxidant status in central serous chorioretinopathy. Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol; 252(1): 17-21.
- Levin R, Brucker A, Robinson F. (1989). Long term follow up of idiopathic central serous chorioretinopathy by fluorescein angiopathy. Ophthalmol 96; 854-859. t of cataract and cost of of cataract surgery. Arch Ophthalmol; 87:454-461.
- 11. Loo RH, Scott IU, Flynn HW, et al. (2002). Factors associated with reduced viusal acuity during long term follow up patients with idopathic central serous chorioretinopathy. Am J Ophthalmol 2002; 133: 787-793.
- 12. Wang MS, Sander B, Larsen M. (2002). Retinal atrophy idiopathic central serous chorioretinopathy. Am J Ophthalmol; 133: 787-793.
- Hussain D, Gass JD. (1998). Idiopathic central serous chorioretinopathy. Indian J Ophthalmol; 46: 131-137.
- 14. Virgili G, Acosta R, Grover LL, et al. (2013). Reading aids with low vision. Cohrance Database Syst Rev.!); CD003303. doi:10.1002/14651858.CD003303.Pub 3. PMC 4288929. PMID 24154864

- 15. Gramajo AL, Marquez GE, Torres VE, et al. (2015). Therapeutic benefit of melatonin in refractory central serous chorioretinopathy. Eye (Lond); 29(8):1036-1045.
- 16. Siwiec-Prościńska J, Prościnski T, Kociecki J, et al. (2009). Central serous choroidoretinopathy--the characteristics of the clinical picture and the evaluation of the influence of general conditions at the prognosis and the course of the disease. Metaanalysis].
- 17. Swinec-Proscinsk, J, Proscinski J, Kociecki J, et al. (2009). Centreal serous chorioretinopathy ----the characteristics of hte clinical piture and the evaluation of hte influence of general conditions at the the prognosis and the course of the disease meta-analysis. Linz Onzna (in Polish); 111(7-9): 258-262
- 18. Yannuzzi LA (1987). Type A behavior and center serous chrioretinopathy. Retina. 7; : 111-131.
- 19. Yamada R, Yamada S, Ishii A, et al. (1993). Evaluation of tissue plasimogen activator inhibitor-I in blood obtained from patients of idiopathic central serous chorioretinopathy. Nippon Ganka Gakki Zasshi; 97: 955-960.
- Tittle ML, Spaide RF, Wong, et al. (1991).
   Systemic findings associated with central serous chorioretinopathy. Am J Ophthalmol; 128(1): 63-68
- 21. Schultz KL, Birnbarum AD, Gold DA, et al. (2005). Ocular disease in pregnancy. Curr Opin Ophthalmol; 16(5): 308-314.
- 22. Moon SJ, Meiler WF. (2003): Retinal complication of bone marrow and solid organ translation. Curr Opion Ophthalmol; 14(6): 433-442.
- 23. Shah VA, Randhawa S, Boldt HC, et al. (2006). Central serous chorioretinopathy in giant arterities. Semin Ophthalmol; 21(1): 45-48.
- 24. Cunningham ET Jr, Alfred PR, Irvine ARE. (1996). Central seerous chorioretinopathy in patinets with systemic lupis erythematous. Ophthalmol; 103(2): 2081-2090.
- Sohreiber JB, Nawano M, Marshallah. SM, et al. (1989). Crrohn's disease disease complicated by idiopathic central serous chorioretinopathy with bullous retinal detachment. Dig Dis Sci; 34(1): 118-122.
- Bouzas EA, Scott MH, Mastorakos G et al. (1993).
   Central chorioretinopathy in endogeneous hypercortisim. Arch Ophthalmol; 111(9): 1229-1233.
- 27. Chaine G, Haoutat M, Menard-Molcard, et al. (2001). Central serous chorioretinoipathy and systemic steroid therapy. J Fr Ophthalmol 24(2): 217-212.
- 28. Chi-Ting Horng, I Yaun, Yuan-Ting Huang, et al. (2014). Therapeutic use of oral propranolol to treat stubborn central serous chorioretinopathy. Life Sci J;11(5): 499-505.
- 29. Nakamura M, Kuse Y, Tsuruma K, et al. (2017).

- The Involvement of the Oxidative Stress in Murine Blue LED Light-Induced Retinal Damage Model. Biol Pharm Bull; 40(8):1219-1225.
- 30. Lin CH, Wu MR, Li CH et al. (2017) Editor's Highlight: Periodic exposure to smartphone-mimic low-luminance blue light induces retina damage through Bcl-2/BAX-dependent apoptosis. Toxicol Sci;157(1):196-210.
- 31. Balkarli A, Erol MK, Yalcinkaya S, et al. (2017). Frequency of Erectile Dysfunction in Males with Central Serous Chorioretinopathy. Semin Ophthalmol; 22:1-6. doi: 10.1080/08820538.2017.1301968.
- 32. Kapoor KG, Eangner AL. (2016). Mineralocorticoids anatagosists antagosists in the treayment of central seroud chorioretinopathy: a comparative analysis. 56: 17-22. Pathogenesis of disciform detachment of the neuroepithelium. Am J Ophthalmol; 63 (supple)1-139.
- 33. Schartz H, Maderia D, Johson RN, et al. (1992) Central serous chorioretinopathy occuring in patientss 60 years of agents and older. Ophthalmology; 99:63-67.
- 34. Laufaut BA, Salatic C, Periem H, et al. (1998). Indocyanine green angiography is of value for the diagnosis of chronic central serous chrioretinopathy. Grafes Arch Ophthalmol; 236: 513-521.
- 35. Mannuzzi LA, Shaki JL, Fisher YL, (1984). Peripheral retinal pigment epithelial atrophic tracts secondary to central serous pigment epitheliopathy. Ophthalology, 91: 1554-1572.
- 36. Khan P, Khan L, Anjum N, et al. (2017) Central serous chorioretinopathy secondary to tuberculosis: cause or coincidence. BMJ Case Rep; 2017 pii: bcr-2016-216471. doi: 10.1136/bcr-2016-216471.
- 37. Jamil AZ, Rahman FU, Iqbal K, et al. (2012). Intravitreal bevacizumab in central serous chorioretinopathy. J Coll Physicians Surg Pak.;22(6):363-366
- 38. Ünlü C, Erdogan G, Aydogan T, et al (2016) Intravitreal bevacizumab for treatment of central serous chorioretinopathy. J Ophthalmic Vis Res.11(1):61-65.
- 39. Yadav NK, Jayadev C, Mohan A, et al. (2015) Subthreshold micropulse yellow laser (577 nm) in chronic central serous chorioretinopathy: safety profile and treatment outcome. Eye (Lond).;29(2):258-264;
- 40. Türkcü FM, Yüksel H, Sahin A, et. (2014). Effects of smoking on visual acuity of central serous chorioretinopathy patients. Cutan Ocul Toxicol.33(2):115-119.
- 41. Nyklieck I, Bosch JA, Amerongen AN. (2005). A generalized physiological hyper-reactivity to acute stressors in hypersion. Biol Psychol; 70: 44-51.
- 42. Tewai HK, Gardia R, Kumar D, et al. (2006). Sympathetic-parasympathetic activity and reactivity in central serous chorioretinopathy: a case-control study. Invest Ophthalmol Vis

- Sci:47:3474-3478.
- 43. Wakakura M, Suzuki H. (1979). Urinary excretion of catechamines in central serous chorioretinopathy. Jpn J Clin Ophthalmol 33, 1237-1240.
- 44. Goldstein DS. (1983). Plasma catecholamine and essential hypertension: an analytical review. Hypertension; 5: 86-99.
- 45. Koss MC, Gherezghiher T. (1993). Adrenoreceptor subtypes involoveld in neurally evoked sympathetic vasoconstriction in the anterior choroid of cat. Exe Eye Res; 57: 441-447.
- 46. Sibayan SA, Kobuch K, Speiegel D, et al. (2000). Epiphrine, but not dexmethasone, induces apoptosis in retinal pigment epitheliunm cells in vitro: possible im [plications on the pathegeneisis of central serous chororetinopathy. Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol 238; 515-519.
- 47. Hadcock JR, Marbon CC. (1988). Regulation of beta-adregenergic receptors by permmissive hormone: glucocorticosteroids inctrease stead-state levels of the receptor mRNA. Proc Nat Acad Sci USA; 85: 8415-8419.
- Sakaue M, Hoffman BB. (1991). Glucocorticoids induced transcription and expression of the α1B adrenergic receptor gene in DTT1 MF-2 smooth muscle cell. J Clin. Invest.; 88: 385-389.
- 49. Caeccavale A, Romanazzi F, Imprarato M, et al. (2011). Centreal serous chorioretinopathy---a pathegentic model. Clin Ophthalmol; 5: 239-243.
- 50. Vogiatzis I, Koulouris E, Sidiropollos A, et al. (2003). Acute pulmonary edema after a single oral dose of acetazolamide. Hippokratia; 17(2): 177-179.
- 51. Kleinberger AJ, Patel C, Lieberman RM, et al. (2011). Bilateral central serous chorioretinopathy caused by intranasal corticosteroids: a case report and review of the literature. Laryngoscope; 121(9):2034-2037
- Grixti A, Kumar V. (2013). Steroid induced central serous chorioretinopathy in giant cell arteritis. Case Rep Ophthalmol Med.; 2013:924037. doi: 10.1155 /2013/924037.
- 53. Haimovisi R, Bosch G, et al. (2010). Ketoconazole in the treatment of central serous chorioretimnopathy: a pilot study. Acta Ophthalmol; 88: 576-581.
- 54. Meyerle CB, Freund KB, Bhatagar A, et al. JA, Amerongen AV (2003). Endocrine abnormalities in patients with central serous chrioretinopathy. Ophthalmology; 110: 698-703.
- Bouzas EA, Scott MH, Mastorkos G, et al. (1993).
   Central serous chorioretinipathy in endogenous chorioretinopathy.
   Arch Ophthalmol; 111:1229-1233.
- Golshahi A, Kingmuller D, Holz F (2007) Ketaconazole in the treatment of chronic idiopathic central serous chorioretinopathy. Retina; 27:943-946.
- 57. Doyle J, Gupta B, Tahir I. (2018). Long term

- outcomes for patients treated with half-fluence photodynamic therapy for chronic central serous chorioretinopathy: a case series. Int J Ophthalmol;11(2):333-336.
- 58. Nielsen JS, Weinreg RN, Yannuzzi L, et al. (2007). Mifepristone traetment of chronic central serous chrioretinopathy. Retina; 27: 119-122.
- 59. Lawton BA, Rose SB, Sphepherd J (2006). Atypical presentation of serous pelvic inflammation disease following mifepristone induced medical abortion. Contraception; 27(4): 431-432.
- 60. Orioli IM, Castilla RR (2000). Epidermological assessment of microstol tetraogenity. BJOG 107(4): 519-523.
- 61. Nye EJ, Hockings GL, Grice JE, et al. (1997). Aspirin inhibit vassopression-induced hypothalmic-pituritaty-adrenal activity in normal humans. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 82; 812-817.
- 62. Din Luigi L, Guidetti L, Romanelli F, et al. (2001). Acetasalicylic acid inhibits the pituitary response to exercise-related stressin humans Med Sci Sports Exerc 33; 2029-2035.
- Caccavale A, Imparato M, Romanzzi F, et al. (2009). A new strategy of treatment with low-dosage acetyl salicyclic in patients affected by central serous chorioretinopathy. Med hypotheses; 73: 435-437.
- 64. Ppikkel J, Berian I, Ophir A, et al. (2002) Acetazolamide for central serous retinopathy. Ophthalmology. 109; 1723-1725.
- 65. Kiss B, Dallinger S, Findl O, et al. (1999). Acetazolamide-induced cerebral and ocuar vasoliation in humans is independent of nitric oxide. Am J Physiol.; 276: R1661-1667.
- 66. Fuchsjager-Mary F, Wally B, Rainer G, et al. (2005) Effect of dorzolamide and timolol on angle glaucoma and ocular hypertension. Br J Ophthalmol. 89; 1293-1297.
- 67. Gonalez C (1992). Serous detachment-value of acetazolamide. J F Ophthalomlogy, 15; 529-536.
- 68. Pikkle J, Berian I, Ophir A, et al. (2002). Acetazolamide for central serous retinopathy 109; 1723-1725.
- 69. Jonas, JB, Kamppeter BA. (2005) Intravitreal

- triamcinolone acetonide and central serous chorioretinopathy. 89; 386-387.
- 70. Frambach DA, Fain GL, Farber DB, et al. (1990). Beta-adrenergic receptors on cultured hyman retinal pigment epithelium. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 31; 1767-1772.
- 71. Fabianova J, Porubska M, Reha K L. (1998). Central serous chorioretinopathy treatment with beta-blockers. Cesk Slov Oftamol; 54: 401-404.
- 72. Charpek O, Spackova K, Rehak J. (2002). Treatment of central serous chorioretinopathy with beta-blockers. Cesk Slov Oftamol; 58: 382-386.
- Browing DJ. (1993). Nadolol in the treatment of central serous retinopathy. Am J Ophthalmol; 116: 770-771.
- 74. Tatham A, MaCfarlane A. (2006). The use of propranolol to treat central serous choriretinopathy: An evaluation by serial OCT. J Ocul Pharmacol Therapeut; 22(2): 145-149.
- Tyrer P (1988). Current status of beta-blocking drugs in the treatment of anxiety disorders. Drugs; 36: 773-783.
- Carvalho-Recchia CA, Yamuzzi LA, Negrado S, et al. (2002). Corticosteroid and central serous chorioretinopathy; 109: 1834-1837.
- 77. Unlu C, Erdogan G, Andogan T, et al (2016). Intravitreal bevacizumab for traetment of central serous chorioretinopathy. J Ophthalmol Vis Res,11(1): 61-5.
- 78. Frambach DFA, Fain zg, Faber DB, et al. (1999). Beta adrenegic receptors on cu; lctured human retinal epithelium. 31: 1767- 1772.
- 79. Ross A, Ross AD, Monhamad Q. (2011). Review and update of central serous chorioretinopathy. Curr Opini Ophthalmol; 22: 166-173.
- 80. Karadium P, Bouzas EA. (2004). Glucocortioid use reprenents a risk factor for central serous chorioretinopathy: a prospective, case-control study. Graef's Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol. 242: 800-802.
- 81. Mann RM, Riva CE, Stone RA, et al. (1995) Nitric oxidase and chorodial blood flow regulation. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci; 36: 25-30.

4/25/2018