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1 **Visual Morbidity in Patients with Pituitary Adenoma**

2

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25

26 **Abstract**

27

28 Visual dysfunction is an important element in the morbidity encountered in patients with pituitary  
29 adenoma leading to functional impairment and compromised quality of life. It consists of many parameters  
30 (even in the absence of reported symptomatology) as a result of tumour growth in proximity to structures  
31 critical for vision (anterior visual pathway, cranial nerves within cavernous sinuses), and as an adverse  
32 consequence of therapeutic interventions.

33 Adenoma resection leads to high rates of visual improvement and possibly continues beyond a year post-  
34 surgery but the exact timing of maximum effect requires elucidation. Retinal nerve fibre layer  
35 measurement may be a reliable, objective parameter predicting favourable visual outcomes, although its  
36 prognostic value when pathological, needs to be confirmed. For compromised vision after pituitary  
37 apoplexy, early surgical decompression remains usual practice until evidence-based guidance becomes  
38 available. The risk of radiation-induced visual toxicity is mainly influenced by total and per fraction dose  
39 of radiation and treatment modality. Careful selection of cases and of radiotherapy technique/planning are  
40 of major importance in minimising this risk. Dopamine agonists lead to visual recovery in a considerable  
41 number of prolactinoma patients.

42 Visual morbidity should be considered a vital indicator in the metrics of quality of service/care in  
43 pituitary disease making regular, full ophthalmic examination an essential component of modern  
44 management of pituitary pathology at all time points of patient pathway. Well-designed studies  
45 minimising effects of bias and using tools and scoring systems reliably reflecting visual status will  
46 provide robust evidence on valid prognostication and patient stratification guiding clinical decision  
47 making.

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53 **Introduction**

54

55 Pituitary adenomas are sellar neoplasms that can cause significant visual impairment as they grow in  
56 proximity to structures critical for vision (visual pathways, ocular motor nerves) (1). Compression of  
57 these structures by the tumour (primary or recurrent) leads to visual morbidity (2) with subsequent  
58 functional impairment and compromised quality of life (3-6), and remains one of the main indications for  
59 therapeutic intervention. Moreover, visual function may be adversely affected as a complication of  
60 surgery and/or radiotherapy necessitating ongoing neuro-ophthalmology input.

61 Over the last two decades, there have been significant advances in the assessment and management of  
62 pituitary tumours, including neuroimaging, non-invasive ophthalmic imaging [Optical Coherence  
63 Tomography (OCT)], surgical techniques and radiotherapy. In this review, we present the contemporary  
64 literature on visual outcomes and prognostic factors aiming to provide guidance relevant to clinical  
65 practice and to identify areas requiring improvement and further research.

66

67 **Visual dysfunction at presentation of pituitary adenomas**

68

69 Optic nerve damage occurs secondary to compression by the adenoma causing direct disruption of axonal  
70 conduction, impairment of axonal flow, demyelination and ischaemia. These are initially reversible but  
71 over time, they may become permanent (2,7). Following prolonged or intense compression, axonal  
72 degeneration and irreversible optic atrophy occur (2). Due to redundancy of ganglion cell fibers in the  
73 optic nerve, a degree of atrophy may be observed without compromising subjective visual function,  
74 however, advanced atrophy results in permanent visual deficits not amenable to resolution after surgical  
75 decompression (2).

76 The prevalence of visual dysfunction at presentation amongst patients with adenoma varies widely,  
77 depending on characteristics of the cohort studied and methods of visual assessment. A recent systematic

78 review reported visual acuity problems in 14–84%, visual field defects in 28–100% and “unspecified”  
79 visual complaints in 15–100% of patients presenting with various types of adenomas (1). Microadenomas  
80 do not impact vision (8) and macroadenomas measuring <2 cm are unlikely to cause significant visual  
81 impairment (9). Non-functioning adenoma is the most common subtype in patients with visual  
82 dysfunction at presentation possibly due to diagnostic delays (10,11). In a series of non-functioning  
83 adenomas causing visual dysfunction, the median time from onset of symptoms until diagnosis was 6.5  
84 months (11). In this study, an advanced age of onset of visual symptoms was associated with delayed  
85 adenoma detection, as the visual manifestations were initially attributed to other pre-existing ophthalmic  
86 pathology (11). The severity of the reported visual dysfunction is variable. Even significant visual defects  
87 may be unnoticed by patients. In one series, almost 50% of patients without visual symptoms had visual  
88 dysfunction on ophthalmologic evaluation (12) and visual field defects were detected in 5-15% of those  
89 with pituitary incidentalomas (13). Conversely, a number of cases come to medical attention due to visual  
90 complaints and this is particularly true for non-functioning adenomas (14). Patients may have long-  
91 standing visual manifestations (10,11) or present with sudden visual loss or cranial nerve dysfunction in  
92 the setting of pituitary apoplexy (2). Reassuringly, the duration of symptoms until adenoma detection has  
93 decreased significantly in recent decades, likely reflecting improved recognition of these tumours (15).

94 Bitemporal field defects, due to chiasmal compression, are the most common pattern of visual loss,  
95 however, pituitary adenomas can cause a broad range of visual complications depending on the nature of  
96 contact with the optic pathway (Figure 1) (12,16). Since in most patients the chiasm is located directly  
97 above the pituitary fossa, the crossing inferonasal fibres are usually the first to be affected by upward  
98 growth of the tumour causing supratemporal field defects, respecting the vertical meridian. Further  
99 tumour growth leads to complete bitemporal hemianopia as all of the crossing fibres in the chiasm  
100 become affected (17). Patients with a pre-fixed or post-fixed chiasm will not present with this classic  
101 picture. When the chiasm is situated posteriorly (post-fixed), the upward tumour expansion will cause  
102 compression of one or both optic nerves leading to unilateral or bilateral optic neuropathy or, more rarely,

103 a junctional scotoma. If the chiasm resides mainly in front of the fossa (a less likely scenario), the optic  
104 tract(s) will be compressed leading to a homonymous field defect along with other features of anterior  
105 visual pathway compromise (afferent pupil defect, colour vision and visual acuity deficits). Notably, a  
106 cadaveric study has estimated that the prevalence of a post-fixed chiasm may be as high as 17% (18). It  
107 has also been suggested that most patients have asymmetrical visual field defects and pure bitemporal  
108 hemianopia is rare (12,16). Visual acuity, contrast sensitivity and colour vision can also be impaired due  
109 to optic nerve compression and atrophy from prolonged compression (1,2,16). Acuity is affected less  
110 commonly than visual fields (1) **presumably because reduction in visual acuity occurs after prolonged**  
111 **optic nerve compression.**

112 Oculomotor cranial nerve palsies can occur due to compression of nerves III (oculomotor), IV (trochlear)  
113 and VI (abducens) due to cavernous sinus invasion by the adenoma or after pituitary apoplexy (2,14,19).  
114 This manifests as diplopia, strabismus, ophthalmoplegia and possible ptosis (2,14). Diplopia may also  
115 occur with bitemporal hemianopia in the absence of cranial nerve involvement due to ‘hemifield slide’.  
116 This is attributed to loss of the normal overlap of the temporal field of one eye with the nasal field of the  
117 other. This overlap allows fusion of the image and stabilizes the vertical ocular alignment. When this  
118 fusion is lost, there is inability to maintain stable alignment of the two retained nasal fields and the images  
119 “slide” against each other (2).

120 Features of chiasmal compression on MRI, while suggestive of visual dysfunction, are not always  
121 predictive. Although chiasmal displacement ranging from 4-21 mm has been observed in the majority of  
122 patients with visual deterioration, no degree of radiological compression predicts reliably the degree of  
123 visual field loss (12). Furthermore, patients may have imaging findings of chiasmal compression, yet  
124 normal visual fields (20). These findings could, however, be influenced by differences in measurement  
125 techniques between radiologists (21), in keeping with “real-world” practice and underscoring the need for  
126 formal neuro-ophthalmologic assessment to guide clinical decision-making. **Notably, two recent studies**  
127 **have shown promise in correlating MRI findings with neuro-ophthalmic assessment. Glebauskiene et**  
128 **al.(22) demonstrated correlation between retinal nerve fibre layer (RNFL) thickness measured by OCT**

129 and optic chiasm height on coronal T2W/TSE (Turbo Spin Echo) MRI sequence measured by a  
130 standardized technique. Furthermore, Rutland *et al.* (23) used 7-T diffusion-weighted MRI to assess  
131 microstructural characteristics of the optic pathway in patients and healthy controls, and showed  
132 correlation between diffusion indices of the visual pathway and findings of neuro-ophthalmological  
133 assessment opening perspectives on potential predictive value of the diffusion indices for visual recovery.

134

### 135 **Ophthalmic Evaluation**

136

137 Full ophthalmic examination is a vital component in the assessment and management of patients with  
138 pituitary adenomas (13,24) and consists of assessment of optic nerve structure and function, as well as  
139 ocular motility (Table 1).

140 Evaluation of the optic nerve function comprises of assessment of distance visual acuity (Snellen or  
141 LogMAR [Logarithm of the Minimum Angle of Resolution]), visual fields (static or kinetic perimetry),  
142 colour vision, the pupils (specifically for relative afferent pupillary defect) and fundoscopy to visualise  
143 the optic nerves (2). The assessment of optic nerve structure is performed by OCT. Patients may also have  
144 other unrelated visual pathology and the ophthalmic exam should include evaluation for other conditions  
145 (refractive status, intra-ocular pressure and slit-lamp examination of the anterior and posterior segment)  
146 aiming to define the extent to which visual dysfunction is attributable to adenoma (2,11).

147 Both static threshold perimetry (i.e. Humphrey using either the 24-2 or 30-2 strategy) and kinetic  
148 perimetry (such as Goldmann) are commonly used in patients with pituitary tumours. **It should be pointed**  
149 **out though that standardized perimetry is susceptible to variability influenced by patient attention and**  
150 **reporting during testing, as well as by physician interpretation (25).** Comparison of Humphrey and  
151 Goldmann perimetry found no significant difference in the results within the central 30 degrees of the  
152 visual field in patients with adenomas (26). Rowe *et al.*, however, reported that kinetic peripheral visual  
153 field assessment is superior to static central visual field assessment for detection of peripheral visual field  
154 loss which is typically the area first compromised by chiasmal compression in pituitary lesions (25).

155 OCT is a non-invasive laser-based imaging technique which produces cross-sectional images of the retina  
156 and allows direct measurement of the RNFL around the optic disc. It provides a quantitative estimate of  
157 the number of ganglion cell axons in the optic nerve and an objective measurement of optic atrophy and  
158 its progression (27,28). OCT may also offer information for possible recovery of visual function  
159 following pituitary surgery, as a thicker baseline RNFL in patients with visual field defects, prior to  
160 tumour removal, suggests more intact retinal ganglion cells (29). Danesh-Meyer *et al.* described improved  
161 visual outcomes in patients with pre-operative RNFL thickness above 80  $\mu\text{m}$  (29). Nonetheless, compared  
162 with functional methods of assessment (visual fields), OCT RNFL thickness is considered less sensitive  
163 for detecting abnormalities in the visual pathway (28).

164 All patients with adenoma compressing or abutting the visual pathway should undergo baseline  
165 ophthalmic assessment (13). **A complete neuro-ophthalmic examination including all components listed**  
166 **in Table 1, should be performed at baseline. Follow-up examinations should include optic nerve and**  
167 **ocular motility assessment; OCT may also be of value depending on the clinical scenario.** Even if visual  
168 function is normal at baseline, there is risk of future visual dysfunction and regular examinations are  
169 essential (8,20,30). Surgical intervention is indicated if visual function is impaired but in cases with  
170 compromised vision and deferred or contraindicated surgery, regular neuro-ophthalmic evaluation is  
171 required, given the possibility of further deterioration (8,20,30). Optimal frequency of visual  
172 examinations has not yet been established. Expert consensus suggests review every 1-2 years if chiasmal  
173 contact and normal vision, and every 3-4 months if visual dysfunction is present but surgery is deferred  
174 (2). **The timing of post-operative ophthalmic assessment needs to be individualized, but in general, it**  
175 **should occur within 3 months of surgery with follow-up assessments every 4-6 months until stability is**  
176 **observed (2).**

177

178

179 **Visual outcomes after management of pituitary adenomas**



180

181 **A. Surgery**

182

183 **i) Visual improvement and factors affecting it**

184 Reports on visual outcomes after transcranial surgery for pituitary adenomas are limited in the recent  
185 literature, as the transsphenoidal approach has now been widely adopted. Goel *et al.* (31) in a series of 30  
186 giant adenomas (>5 cm), 29 of which were operated on transcranially, reported visual improvement in  
187 one third of them. These findings need to be interpreted in the context of giant tumours which are likely  
188 associated with worse visual morbidity at baseline, thereby, impacting post-operative results.  
189 Interestingly, Hanizasurana *et al.* (32), in a series of 45 patients with transsphenoidal (n=31) or  
190 transcranial surgery (n=14), found no significant difference in the rates of visual acuity or visual field  
191 improvement between the two techniques. Visual outcomes following transsphenoidal resection of  
192 adenomas are highly variable in the published literature. **A meta-analysis on improvement of visual  
193 dysfunction after surgery from six studies (n=384) utilizing the microscopic and nine (n=607) the  
194 endoscopic transsphenoidal approach reported pooled estimates of the overall proportions 56% for the  
195 microscopic and 71% for the endoscopic approach; however, the type of visual improvement was not  
196 delineated (33). A more recent systematic review and meta-analysis of 35 case series using the  
197 endoscopic approach provided pooled prevalence of post-operative visual improvement of 80.8% for  
198 visual fields, 67.5% for visual acuity and 80.9% for non-specific visual defects. The rates of visual  
199 improvement across individual case series were highly variable with improvements in visual acuity  
200 ranging 27-95% and in visual fields 35-100% (1). Factors explaining these differences include  
201 heterogeneity in the components of visual evaluations, the reporting of outcomes and the timing and  
202 frequency of assessments. Some authors provide results for both visual acuity and visual fields, others  
203 only for visual fields or only for visual acuity, whereas, in some cases, non-specified visual outcomes are  
204 presented (1). Other reported parameters include Visual Impairment Score (VIS) [combining visual fields  
205 and visual acuity for both eyes, with Findlay *et al.* (34) being the first who proposed this combination in**

206 the evaluation system when assessing visual recovery] (35), assessments of visual fields by gross  
207 examination (confrontation) only (36), or various scoring systems developed by individual authors (37).  
208 Moreover, some authors only present data on visual improvement, while others distinguish between  
209 improvement and recovery (1). The timing of post-operative visual assessment is specified infrequently  
210 and most studies clarifying this have relatively short follow-up (<6 months) underestimating long-term  
211 rates of visual improvement (1). Exceptions to this are two series with mean follow-up of 37 and 50  
212 months, giving rates of vision improvement 80% and 74%, respectively (38,39).

213 Given the delays in the diagnosis of visual deterioration in elderly patients (11), post-operative visual  
214 outcomes in this group are of particular interest. Chinezu *et al.* (40), in a series of non-functioning  
215 adenoma patients undergoing endoscopic transsphenoidal surgery, found improvement of visual status in  
216 80% of those aged >80 and 35% of those aged 65-75 years which was statistically significant. This  
217 finding may be partially explained by the baseline difference between the two groups with a higher degree  
218 of initial visual impairment present in the very elderly patients (93% vs 69%). In this series, visual  
219 deterioration was observed in only 1.5% of the total group and the authors suggested that visual deficits  
220 should not result in very elderly patients being denied surgery (40). Review of seven further studies on  
221 post-operative visual outcomes in patients aged from  $\geq 65$  to  $\geq 80$  years showed improvement in 34-92%,  
222 stability in 3-63% and deterioration in 0-8%, and comparison with various control groups (ranging in age  
223 from 18 to <80 years) demonstrated no difference in visual improvement rates (39-45).

224 Visual outcomes after transsphenoidal surgery of regrown/recurrent adenomas have been assessed in a  
225 systematic review and metaanalysis by Esquenazi *et al.* (46) which reported a 73% cumulative rate for  
226 visual improvement. A series of 268 patients, comparing outcomes after primary and repeat endoscopic  
227 transsphenoidal surgery, showed higher rates of visual improvement in the primary surgery group;  
228 nonetheless, this group had higher rate of visual field impairment at baseline (47% vs 30%), and after  
229 adjusting for this factor, the difference did not remain significant (43).

230 The impact of surgical technique (endoscopic vs microscopic) has been addressed in a systematic review  
231 and meta-analysis which found no difference in the post-operative visual field improvement between the

232 two approaches (47). However, the small number of patients and limited follow-up in the endoscopic  
233 group may have resulted in underestimation of the visual improvement (47). Furthermore, retrospective  
234 data on this topic are inherently biased, as endoscopic surgery has become favoured in an era where fewer  
235 patients have visual dysfunction at presentation (15). In fact, visual outcomes for adenoma patients appear  
236 to have improved overall since the introduction of endoscopic surgery (15). This may not be attributable  
237 to the surgical technique alone, as it may also reflect improvements in diagnosis and timing of  
238 intervention.

239 Studies assessing the impact of the experience of the pituitary surgeon on visual outcomes have yielded  
240 discrepant results. Two retrospective single surgeon series of 79 and 80 patients did not demonstrate a  
241 difference in the rates of visual field improvement in the later cohorts (48,49). On the other hand, a larger  
242 series of 331 patients suggested improved visual outcomes after operating on >100 cases, although  
243 potential differences in baseline visual characteristics were not provided (35). That a clear advantage of  
244 surgeon experience has not been demonstrated may suggest that a higher volume of cases is required for  
245 these effects to be identified. Alternatively, this may illustrate the limitations of surgical experience alone  
246 in specifically achieving improvement of vision, as other parameters like endocrinological remission,  
247 gross total resection and length of hospital stay have all improved with increased surgeon experience,  
248 even when visual outcomes were unchanged (48,49).

249

## 250 **ii) Timing, mechanisms and predictors of visual improvement after surgery**

251 Visual recovery after transsphenoidal surgery occurs in various phases. Initial improvement may be rapid  
252 within minutes to a few days (7,50,51) but additional significant changes may continue over a longer time  
253 frame (months) (7,29,51,52). The majority of studies are retrospective chart reviews where arbitrary time  
254 points were chosen for analysis. Anik *et al.* (51) assessed visual recovery (visual fields and acuity)  
255 following transsphenoidal surgery in 200 patients. The percentage with full recovery of vision increased  
256 by 7% between 48 hours and 6 months, by 17% between 6 months and one year and by 2% beyond one  
257 year. Kerrison *et al.* (7) in a series of 62 patients showed that improvement in visual fields and acuity

258 could be detected between surgery and one week, from one to 4 months and from 6 months to 3 years; the  
259 most significant degree of visual recovery occurred up to 4 months. Danesh-Myer *et al.* (29) in a series of  
260 107 patients showed that the greatest visual fields improvements in patients with thin RNFL pre-  
261 operatively were identified in assessments taking place between 6-10 weeks and 9-15 months post-  
262 surgery; in those with normal RNFL pre-operatively, the greatest improvement occurred within the first  
263 6-10 weeks. Kerrison *et al.* (7) has proposed that the early recovery phase is due to restoration of signal  
264 conduction along ganglion cell axons following decompression, whereas the later improvement is due to  
265 remyelination of axons. Interestingly, Danesh-Myer *et al.* (29), showed that the greatest increases to  
266 RNFL thickness were observed by the 9 to 15 month follow-up in patients with the thinnest RNFL  
267 correlating with the most marked improvements to visual fields. It is evident that ongoing improvement to  
268 vision is possible beyond one year but the timing of the maximum effect, the longest interval during  
269 which further visual correction continues and the most appropriate time points for review of visual  
270 function and retinal structure are yet to be determined.

271 Predicting which patients are likely to have favourable visual outcomes is of major importance, as this  
272 could aid decision-making about the benefits of surgical intervention. Multiple reports have demonstrated  
273 that age and tumour size/volume are not significant predictors in multivariate analyses (11,52-54). In a  
274 series of 19 patients, Jacob *et al.* (55) demonstrated that, independent of age and symptom duration, both  
275 mean and inferior quadrant greater RNFL thickness significantly increased the probability of complete  
276 post-operative visual recovery; this was especially robust for the inferior quadrant measurement. Yoneoka  
277 *et al.* (56) in a study of 35 patients showed that preserved RNFL thickness pre-operatively independently  
278 predicted full or nearly full recovery of vision post-operatively. Lee *et al.* (57) in a series of 57 patients  
279 also demonstrated that pre-operative inferior RNFL thinning was significantly predictive of impaired  
280 visual recovery. Furthermore, pre-operative RNFL thickness has been shown to predict both early (6-10  
281 weeks) and late (9-15 months) visual results (29). On the other hand, evidence on the role of pre-operative  
282 visual function has been conflicting, with some (52,57) but not others (53,55) showing significant  
283 prognostic value in multivariate analyses. These discrepancies may be influenced by differences in the

284 methodology of visual assessment or by differences in the criteria for exclusion of patients with  
285 potentially confounding visual pathology. Analysis of symptom duration has also yielded discrepant  
286 results, however, the methods of assessing this parameter were highly variable; some authors reporting  
287 duration of systemic symptoms including both visual and endocrine (52,53), others assessing visual  
288 symptoms only (11) and others not specifying the symptoms assessed (54,57). A further limitation for this  
289 factor is the lack of objectivity, as it relies on self-reported symptoms which may be inaccurate,  
290 particularly in the presence of other ocular morbidity or when visual deficits are very mild. Given the  
291 uncertainty of this parameter in predicting recovery, patients with visual deficits at presentation should be  
292 offered prompt intervention regardless of symptom duration. **Exception to this point represent**  
293 **prolactinomas in which, as discussed later, medical treatment can gradually improve visual deficits.**

294

### 295 **iii) Deterioration of vision after surgery**

296 Visual deterioration occurs rarely following transsphenoidal resection of adenoma. A systematic review  
297 and meta-analysis estimated the prevalence of visual deterioration at 2.3% (1). The optic apparatus can be  
298 damaged by surgical manipulation secondary to direct trauma, vascular compromise, haemorrhage or  
299 swelling (32,58). Direct trauma may occur from curette or suction during resection of suprasellar  
300 tumours, while removal of adherent tumour from the optic apparatus can cause devascularisation and  
301 subsequent infarction (32). Patients undergoing transsphenoidal surgery after a previous transcranial  
302 approach may be particularly vulnerable; adhesions may develop between residual sellar contents and the  
303 optic apparatus, predisposing to traction injury, contusion or vascular insufficiency (58). The optic nerve  
304 may be also compressed following surgery due to haematoma formation or by overpacking the sella with  
305 fat (32,58).

306 Cranial nerves within the cavernous sinus are also vulnerable to direct trauma or post-operative  
307 haemorrhage (59).

308 Late visual deterioration may occur months or years post-operatively due to traction of the optic chiasm  
309 into an empty sella (58).

310

311 **iv) Pituitary tumour apoplexy**

312 Pituitary tumour apoplexy is a rare clinical syndrome precipitated by acute haemorrhage and/or infarction  
313 in a pituitary tumour. Clinical manifestations include sudden-onset severe headache, nausea, vomiting and  
314 visual impairment (60,61). Visual impairment occurs due to adenoma expansion causing rapid  
315 compression of optic nerves/chiasm or extension into the cavernous sinus(es) (60) and manifests as visual  
316 field defects (36-71%), impaired visual acuity (39-56%), blindness (up to 30%) and oculomotor nerve  
317 palsies (40-78%) (60). Cranial nerve III is the most frequently affected due to close anatomical  
318 relationship with the sella, although multiple and bilateral palsies may also occur (60,61).

319 Although impairment of visual fields or visual acuity has necessitated urgent decompressive surgery in  
320 most series (60), the optimal management strategy is still controversial. Potential approaches include  
321 immediate (within days) or delayed (within weeks) surgery or conservative management (60-66). The  
322 safety of delayed surgical intervention remains uncertain. Randeve *et al.* (66) in a report of 35 patients  
323 demonstrated that immediate surgery (within 8 days) resulted in greater improvement in visual acuity  
324 compared with delayed operation (within 9-35 days) but subsequent studies have not corroborated these  
325 findings. Singh *et al.* (62) in a series of 87 patients [61 with immediate surgery (median 5 days), 8  
326 delayed surgery and 18 managed conservatively], demonstrated that at mean follow-up of 44 months, all  
327 had resolution or improvement of pre-operative visual deficits, with the exception of two cases in the  
328 early surgery group. Bujawansa *et al.* (63) in a series of 55 patients [23 had immediate surgery (within 7  
329 days), 10 delayed surgery and 22 managed conservatively], showed rates of improvement to visual field  
330 defects and cranial nerve palsies 60-80% and 92-100% respectively, with no significant differences  
331 between treatment strategies. Giritharan *et al.* (64) reported on 31 patients [11 had emergency surgery  
332 (within 7 days), 9 delayed surgery and 11 conservative management]; all patients, except one in the  
333 conservatively managed group, had improvement or resolution of visual defects, while complete  
334 resolution was seen in 70%, 75% and 71% of the immediate surgery, delayed surgery and conservatively  
335 managed patients, respectively. Selection bias must be considered when interpreting these data, as cases

336 with milder symptoms at presentation are more often managed with delayed surgery or conservatively  
337 (60-63,65). Interestingly, a small case series described by Muthukumar *et al.* (67) illustrated that recovery  
338 is more limited with delayed surgery for cases presenting with severe visual compromise. In this report of  
339 4 patients with unilateral or bilateral blindness, only one underwent immediate surgery and the other 3  
340 initially declined or were medically unfit for surgical intervention. The patient with immediate surgery  
341 (blind in both eyes) had improvement in visual acuity to 6/9 and 6/12. However, the remaining three (all  
342 with unilateral blindness) who underwent surgery at 2 weeks, 3 weeks and 2 months after presentation  
343 demonstrated poorer visual recovery with improvements to 6/60, 6/60, and 1/60 in their initially blind  
344 eyes (67). Current practice in the management of apoplexy is individualised and overall resolution or  
345 improvement of pre-operative visual deficits is observed in the majority of patients, ranging from 57-95%  
346 for visual fields and 86-93% for visual acuity (60,62-64,68). Prospective, randomised-controlled studies  
347 are needed to provide evidence-based guidance on this controversial issue.

348 Prognosis for oculomotor nerve palsies following apoplexy is particularly favourable and may respond  
349 well even to conservative management (60,62,63). In the Singh *et al.* series (62), 54% of patients had  
350 cranial nerve involvement at presentation which resolved or substantially improved in 100% at last  
351 follow-up; in this report, the patients were managed conservatively or by surgery (acute or delayed).  
352 Bujawansa *et al.* (63) reported 47% prevalence of cranial nerve palsies at presentation and this resolved  
353 completely or near completely in 100%, 92% and 100% in the conservatively managed, the immediate  
354 surgery or delayed surgery groups, respectively. In a series of 41 surgically managed patients by Kim *et*  
355 *al.* (68), 68% had cranial nerve palsies at presentation and in 96% complete resolution was observed.

356

## 357 **B. Radiotherapy**

358

359 Radiotherapy is an established second line management option for residual or recurrent adenomas  
360 following surgery (69,70). Optic nerves, optic chiasm and cranial nerves within the cavernous sinuses are  
361 all susceptible to radiation-induced damage (69,71).

362 Radiation induced optic neuropathy (RION) typically presents with sudden, painless, monocular vision  
363 loss preceded in some instances by weeks of transient monocular or binocular vision loss; further  
364 deterioration progresses over weeks and second eye involvement may also occur. Loss of visual acuity is  
365 variable; blindness occurs in up to 45%, and up to 85% of the cases have deterioration to acuities of 6/60  
366 or worse. Visual field defects of any pattern related to optic nerve or chiasmal damage can occur (72).  
367 Acute enhancement of optic nerves and/or chiasm following gadolinium on T1-weighted MRI is  
368 suggestive of RION, although only if seen in the appropriate clinical context, as these findings are non-  
369 specific and indistinguishable from other causes of optic neuropathy (72). Tumour recurrence as an  
370 alternative cause of visual deterioration needs also to be excluded (72,73). Cavernous sinus cranial nerve  
371 dysfunction may also be observed but these nerves are less radiation sensitive compared with the optic  
372 nerve (71).

373 Risk factors relate to the individual patient, tumour characteristics, treatment modality and radiation dose  
374 (72). Younger patients are at higher risk (74), however, this may be due to their longer survival, as  
375 increasing age increases the risk of RION (72). Damage to visual pathway by previous radiation or from  
376 compression of optic nerves/chiasm also enhances susceptibility to RION (72,74,75). The risk of visual  
377 toxicity (RION and dysfunction of cavernous sinus cranial nerves) is influenced by both total and per  
378 fraction radiation dose. **Interestingly, the relationship between time-dose fractionation and radiation-**  
379 **induced loss of vision was reported as early as 1977 by Aristizabal *et al.* (76).** Reported prevalence differs  
380 based on the modality of radiotherapy. With conventional radiotherapy, rates of visual toxicity range 0-  
381 6% after cumulative doses of <54 Gy, however, the follow-up across different series varies from 7 to 108  
382 months (69). For stereotactic radiosurgery (SRS), rates of late visual toxicity range 0-15% across studies  
383 with follow-up of 23-204 months (71). In a study of 512 patients offered SRS (mean dose 16 Gy, mean  
384 follow-up 48 months), 9.3% prevalence of visual toxicity was reported (74). With SRS, the maximum  
385 tolerated point dose to the chiasm is 8-10 Gy; rates of optic neuropathy of <2% have been reported in this  
386 setting (71). With fractionated stereotactic radiotherapy (FSRT), rates of optic neuropathy range 0-7% in  
387 series with mean follow-up 30-80 months and are <2% when total doses <50 Gy are delivered in fractions



388 of <1.8 Gy (69). Data on visual toxicity following proton beam therapy in pituitary adenomas is limited.  
389 Ronson *et al.* (77) reported visual outcomes in 43 patients after proton therapy and 9% had objective  
390 evidence of visual deterioration.

391 Studies focusing on rates of post-radiotherapy cavernous sinus cranial nerve dysfunction are very limited.  
392 In a series of 217 patients, Cifarelli *et al.* (78) found 3% rate of cranial nerve III, IV and VI dysfunction  
393 following gamma knife surgery (median peripheral dose 23 Gy, median follow-up 30 months); all but one  
394 resolved within the study period. Sheehan *et al.* (74) in a series of 479 patients following gamma knife  
395 surgery (median dose 16 Gy to tumour margin, median follow-up 36 months) reported overall prevalence  
396 of cavernous sinus cranial nerve dysfunction 3%.

397 It should be noted that lack of adequate follow-up in most studies to exclude late development of visual  
398 toxicity (which can occur at 8 years or longer) may have led to underestimation of the reported post-  
399 radiotherapy visual toxicity (69).

400 Improvement in visual function after radiotherapy has been previously described (79-81); the majority of  
401 patients had surgery before irradiation and, therefore, these findings may simply reflect late post-surgical  
402 improvement.

403

#### 404 **C. Medical treatment – Prolactinomas**

405

406 The value of DA treatment in patients with prolactinoma is well established (82, 83). Macroprolactinomas  
407 present with visual compromise in 40%-85% of cases with higher rates in large or giant (>4 cm)  
408 adenomas (84-86). The 2011 Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline on diagnosis and treatment of  
409 hyperprolactinemia reported cumulative rate of visual field defect resolution with DA therapy of 67%  
410 (range 33-100%) (83). This benefit can be seen even in giant prolactinomas (92). Visual improvement has  
411 been confirmed as early as 24-72 hours after DA initiation (87) and the timing of maximum visual field  
412 recovery ranges between 0.5 and 6 months (94). Failure to improve vision may be due to lack of tumour  
413 shrinkage following treatment or due to long-standing optic nerve compression/ischemia (86,88).

414 The optimal treatment regimen for impacting vision has not been established. A systematic review and  
415 meta-analysis demonstrated no difference between cabergoline and bromocriptine in improving visual  
416 field defects (82). A prospective study of 150 prolactinoma patients (57 macroprolactinomas) evaluated  
417 the efficacy of a high dose regimen of cabergoline (starting dose 0.25-0.5mg twice weekly, up-titrated  
418 every 2-4 weeks until amelioration of hyperprolactinemia) (89). All patients with documented visual  
419 defects at presentation normalized within 1-3 months. Although randomised studies confirming the  
420 superiority of a high DA dose as initial treatment regime in improving vision are lacking, this option  
421 could be considered in patients with visual deterioration (provided the DA is well tolerated).  
422 Secondary deterioration of visual fields following DA treatment has been described illustrating the  
423 significance of regular ophthalmologic evaluation. In a study of 28 patients with macroprolactinomas,  
424 Raverot *et al.* (84) reported further visual deterioration associated with chiasmal herniation on MRI in  
425 three patients treated with cabergoline; one case was detected around two months after treatment  
426 initiation, whereas the others were identified after over two years of treatment. Visual improvement was  
427 seen in all three cases after cabergoline withdrawal.

428

#### 429 **D. Conservative Management - Non-functioning pituitary adenomas**

430

431 Patients with non-functioning pituitary macroadenomas may be managed conservatively in cases without  
432 associated visual involvement, presence of co-morbidities preventing surgery or patient's preference.  
433 Their visual outcomes have been reviewed in a few series and demonstrate deterioration or improvement  
434 coinciding with tumour size changes.

435 Ryu *et al.* (20) in a study of 6 patients with adenomas contacting optic chiasm at presentation reported  
436 worsening visual function in two over mean period of 41 months. A study by Karavitaki *et al.* (8)  
437 including 24 conservatively managed non-functioning macroadenomas, illustrated that over mean follow-  
438 up of 43 months, 50% showed enlargement with 67% (of this group) having new or worsened visual field  
439 defects. Most of these patients went on to have transsphenoidal surgery but final visual outcomes were

440 not described (8). In a series of 28 macroadenomas by Dekkers *et al.* (30) with mean follow-up 85  
441 months, 50% of the patients with adenoma growth had increased visual field defects likely caused by  
442 tumour mass; when surgery was offered, visual improvement was reported but not its extent (30). In a  
443 systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies of pituitary incidentalomas, the risk of  
444 visual field deterioration was higher in tumour growth of >3.5 mm (64.3%/100 patient-years) (90).

445 Of particular interest is the dilemma of timing of surgery in patients presenting without visual  
446 compromise. Some authors advocate earlier intervention to prevent visual complications before they  
447 occur (91), while others argue it is safe to monitor vision and intervene once deterioration develops (20).

448 Data to support either approach are limited. A review of 76 patients with non-functioning adenomas  
449 demonstrated better post-operative visual outcomes for those with normal vision at baseline compared  
450 with patients with visual dysfunction pre-operatively (91). Long-term visual prognosis of patients with  
451 adenoma presenting with normal visual function and managed conservatively, with surgical intervention  
452 in the event of visual dysfunction, is unknown. Extrapolation from both Jacob (55) and Danesh-Meyer  
453 (29) would suggest that if RNFL is of a normal thickness, it would be reasonable to await evidence of  
454 chiasmopathy prior to undertaking surgery.

455 Series of conservatively managed macroadenomas have also demonstrated decrease in tumour size in  
456 12% of cases during variable follow-up periods (92,93), possibly attributed to cystic component reduction  
457 or tumour infarction; however, there are few reports of spontaneous visual improvement in this setting.

458 Thus, resolution of a unilateral superotemporal defect was observed in one patient in the series by Ryu *et*  
459 *al.* (20), while Dekkers *et al.* (30) reported visual improvement in two patients, both of which had  
460 previous apoplexy.

461

## 462 **Conclusions and Future Perspectives**

463

464 Visual manifestations are an important element in the morbidity encountered in patients with pituitary  
465 adenoma and can be present at all stages of their journey. Visual dysfunction consists of many parameters

466 (even in the absence of reported symptomatology) as result of tumour growth in proximity to structures  
467 critical for vision and as adverse consequence of therapeutic interventions. It has negative impact on daily  
468 activities and overall on quality of life and should be considered a vital indicator in the metrics of quality  
469 of service/care in pituitary disease. Objective assessment of the visual function and the structural integrity  
470 of the anterior visual pathway is an essential component of modern management of pituitary pathology.

471 Surgical resection of adenoma improves visual dysfunction in the majority of cases, whereas  
472 deterioration, as surgical complication, occurs at very low rate. Ongoing improvement to vision is  
473 possible beyond a year post-surgery but the exact timing of maximum effect requires further elucidation.  
474 Amongst a number of factors assessed, RNFL measurement may be a reliable and objective clinical  
475 parameter for predicting favourable visual outcomes, although its predictive value when pathological,  
476 needs to be confirmed. In cases with compromised vision and deferred or contraindicated surgery, regular  
477 ophthalmic evaluation should be performed. Optimal approach for patients with apoplexy and visual  
478 dysfunction has not been determined; nonetheless, early surgical decompression remains the usual current  
479 practice until evidence-based guidance becomes available. The risk of radiation-induced visual toxicity is  
480 mainly influenced by total and per fraction dose of radiation and treatment modality. Careful selection of  
481 cases and of radiotherapy technique/planning are of major importance. Long-term follow-up with  
482 reporting of visual outcomes in series of patients treated with SRS, FSRT and proton therapy will be more  
483 informative in the future.

484 Prospective well-designed studies minimising the effects of bias and using tools and scoring systems  
485 reliably reflecting visual status will provide robust evidence on outcomes after various treatments,  
486 effective patient stratification and valid prognostication. These will undoubtedly improve the care of  
487 patients with pituitary disease and are eagerly awaited.

488

489

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494

495

496

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765 **Figure 1.** Pattern of visual field defects based on anatomic localisation of the pituitary adenoma.

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774 **Table 1.** Ophthalmic assessment of the patient with pituitary adenoma.

<b>Optic nerve assessment</b>	Visual acuity Pupil assessment (relative afferent pupillary defect) Visual fields Colour vision Fundoscopy
<b>Ocular motility assessment</b>	Double vision Smooth pursuit Saccades
<b>Slit lamp examination</b>	Anterior and posterior segment Intraocular pressure
<b>Optical coherence tomography (OCT)</b>	Retinal nerve fibre layer (RNFL) and ganglion cell complex (GCC)

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