Ocular Chrysiasis: a Teaching Case Report

Teaching Ocular Imaging, Disease Diagnosis and Management Within a Work-Integrated Setting: a Novel Model Within an Optometric Education Program

Acquired Toxoplasmosis Manifesting as Granulomatous Panuveitis: a Teaching Case Report

Faculty Perceptions of the Impact of Electronic Medical and Health Records in Optometric Education in the United States and Puerto Rico

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Traditionally, out-of-class communication between students and faculty involved meetings during office hours or informal meetings. These meetings have been shown to contribute to a positive student outcome.¹⁻³ Today, e-mail communication between students and faculty is common at all levels of education. It provides students with a convenient and efficient method of interacting with faculty outside of class and can be a means of discussing information they may not feel comfortable discussing face-to-face. However, e-mail communication differs from face-to-face communication because it does not allow the participants to clarify information on-the-spot or to interpret nonverbal cues and feedback. Stephens et al. identified that overly casual e-mails from students to instructors created a less than positive attitude toward the message and significantly impacted student credibility and an instructor’s willingness to comply with a simple request for a face-to-face meeting.⁴

Faculty are Inundated

According to the New York Times, student e-mails that are unprofessional with regard to etiquette, grammar and content are overwhelming faculty.⁵ Attributes of unprofessional e-mails include an inappropriate salutation such as “hey,” use of first names, or use of Mr./Miss./Ms. Other contributors to unprofessional e-mails are poor grammar, lack of capitalization, inappropriate abbreviations, lack of subject line information, no signature, grade-begging, negotiating work assignments, or an unprofessional tone. Studies have indicated that grade-begging — asking for a higher grade without a legitimate reason — occurs more frequently in e-mails than in face-to-face meetings.⁶,⁷

Anecdotal reports from faculty in optometric education confirm they are receiving a large amount of unprofessional e-mails. Recently, I received an e-mail from a student that referred to me as “Mrs. Denial” and included “Im having trouble with a topic u covered in class. Can u meet at 11 tomorrow.” I’ve had students use idk (I don’t know) in an e-mail to me as well. In another example, a student contacted me with a legitimate concern about a quiz taken with the college’s learning management system. I was sympathetic to the concern until I read the last sentence of the e-mail: “if this issue is not resolved I will have to take it to a higher power.” I’m not sure if the student would have used the same phrase in a face-to-face meeting, but my level of sympathy towards the student changed immediately.

Generational or Not, Inappropriate E-mail is Unacceptable

Can generational differences account for the unprofessional nature of students’ e-mails? Perhaps the issues are related to the types of expectations held by Millennial students, which include a quick response, the right to have a voice, informality, negotiation, and the use of titles as inauthentic.⁸ It’s worth asking, too, whether students ever formally learn how to compose an e-mail. One might imagine that most students learn informally and from e-mailing peers. Aquilar-Roca et al. studied whether a two-minute training class significantly increased the use of professional e-mails in student-to-faculty correspondence.⁷ The study demonstrated “a significant increase in overall professional quality of student e-mails in the trained class due to more frequent use of proper salutations, appropriate capitalization and a class-specific subject line.”⁷ However, no difference was detected in professional content or grade-begging between the trained and untrained group.⁷

Unprofessional e-mails should not be tolerated by faculty. Discussing unprofessional e-mails with students can help to alter the behavior. A plethora of websites offer tips for composing professional e-mails. (Table 1) Faculty often include these guidelines in course syllabi. Providing students with some common-sense tips may help to guide them toward more professional e-mailing and maintaining a positive relationship with faculty.

I welcome optometric faculty and administrators to share their experiences and ideas on this important topic.
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Thank You!
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Michelle J. Hoff, OD, ABOAC, FNAO, Associate Clinical Professor at the University of California – Berkeley School of Optometry, is an individual contributor to the SIG.

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Ocular Chrysiasis: a Teaching Case Report
Matthew Larson, OD, Stephanie Klemencic, OD, FAAO, and Todd Peabody, OD, MBA, FAAO | Optometric Education: Volume 43 Number 3 (Summer 2018)

Background
The following case report is meant to be used as a guide in teaching optometry students and residents. It is relevant to all levels of training. Ocular chrysiasis is a deposition of gold in ocular structures following chrysotherapy, which is the medical use of gold salts. Chrysotherapy was primarily used to treat infectious, rheumatoid and psoriatic arthritis. This therapy has become an extremely rare treatment due to the advent of rheumatologic medications with better safety profiles. Any patient who has undergone gold therapy could potentially have ocular chrysiasis. Therefore, it must be included as a differential in the presence of corneal or lenticular changes in these patients. This case illustrates the importance of history-taking skills, examination and decision-making in effectively diagnosing this condition.

Case Description
A 54-year-old Caucasian female presented for an annual eye examination. She reported a haze to her vision in bright conditions, as if she were continually looking through “dirty glasses.” She was wearing progressive lenses, primarily for reading. Ocular history was positive for dryness, seasonal allergies, bilateral LASIK in 1999, and past bouts of iritis. The patient was using a fish oil supplement and artificial tears as needed for dry eye. Her allergies were being treated with olopatadine hydrochloride ophthalmic solution (Pataday) and prednisolone acetate (Pred Forte), as needed, as prescribed by her previous optometrist.

Family ocular history was positive for dry age-related macular degeneration on her mother’s side. Her medical history was significant for high blood pressure controlled with hydrochlorothiazide and triamterene, migraines controlled with rizatriptan, diastolic dysfunction and heart block controlled with a pacemaker, and occasional oral herpes simplex treated with valacyclovir. In addition, she had a history of psoriasis, psoriatic arthritis and iritis, currently treated with etanercept (Enbrel) injections and calcipotriene (Dovonex) ointment. She reported no recurrences of iritis since starting Enbrel injections in 2000. She was a non-smoker and had no drug allergies. She was oriented to person, place and time.

Best-corrected vision was 20/15 OD with +0.25-0.50×030 and 20/15 OS with +0.50-0.50×015 at distance and 20/20 OU at near with a 2.50 add. Cover test was measured to be orthophoria at distance and 4 exophoria at near. Extraocular motility was full with no pain or diplopia. Pupils were equal, round and reactive to light with no afferent defects. Visual field was full based on screening with frequency doubling perimetry. HRR (Hardy Rand and Rittler) color vision screening was normal in each eye. Slit lamp examination revealed yellow-brown glistening gold deposits in the stroma of each cornea. (Figure 1) No discoloration of the skin of her face or elsewhere was noted. The anterior chamber was clear, without cells or flare. Goldmann applanation tonometry was 11 mmHg in each eye. Dilated fundus examination was performed using one drop of 1% tropicamide in each eye. Crystalline lenses of both eyes showed trace nuclear sclerosis. The vitreous humor was clear in each eye. Optic nerves were a healthy pink color, and cup/disc ratios were 0.30/0.30 in the right eye and 0.35/0.35 in the left eye with distinct margins. Maculae were normal without degenerative or pigmentary changes. Retinal blood vessels showed no hypertensive changes. Peripheral retinas were flat with no holes, breaks or tears.

Upon further questioning, the patient reported originally being diagnosed with rheumatoid arthritis in 1985. Treatment with the gold injection Solganol was initiated at that time. After a year of treatment, injections were switched to Myochrysine until therapy was discontinued in 1987 due to pregnancy. A short Myochrysine treatment course of a couple of months was administered after the conclusion of the pregnancy in 1988. The oral gold medication Ridaura was also tried during chrysotherapy but was immediately discontinued due to gastrointestinal
In total, the patient had received 1935 mg of gold salt injections. However, the severity of the arthritis decreased drastically during a second pregnancy and never returned to its pre-pregnancy severity. In 1992, plaque-like seborrhea of the scalp developed and the diagnosis was changed to psoriasis with psoriatic arthritis.

**Educators Guide**

*Key concepts*

- Recognize clinical findings of ocular chrysis
- Differential diagnosis of ocular chrysis
- Treatment and management considerations in patients with ocular chrysis

*Learning objectives*

At the conclusion of the case, participants should be able to:

- Know the systemic conditions for which gold salt treatment may be used
- Know the typical cumulative dose of gold salts that may result in ocular chrysis
- Describe the signs of chrysis
- Understand the physiology behind gold deposition in ocular structures
- Provide proper patient education on management and long-term prognosis of ocular chrysis

*Discussion questions/points*

- What is the definition of chrysis vs. ocular chrysis?
- Describe the signs and symptoms of ocular chrysis
- What conditions have gold salts (chrysotherapy) been used to treat?
- How would you educate patients with chrysis about their condition and prognosis?
- Should a patient with ocular chrysis discontinue gold salt treatment?
- What is the natural course of ocular chrysis?
- Discuss the differential diagnoses of ocular chrysis
- How would you manage the ocular symptoms for the patient in the case report?
- What history questions should be asked of patients presenting with anterior segment crystalline deposits?

*Learning assessment*

- Incorporate the case into clinical or didactic discussion to achieve learning objectives
- Assess clinical skills using application of anterior segment photography and corneal topography
- Use photography and topography to facilitate understanding by identifying normal vs. abnormal findings
- Further assess knowledge by use of student-directed presentations to compare and contrast differential diagnoses

**Discussion**

Chrysis is derived from the Greek word chryssos, meaning “golden flower.” It is due to the deposition of gold salts throughout tissue in the body, most noticeably on the skin. The use of gold salts in medical therapy dates back thousands of years. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, gold cyanide was used to treat tuberculosis. Physicians at that time believed that rheumatoid arthritis was a form of tuberculosis. Jacques Forestier, a French physician, was the first to find that gold salts improved the condition of patients with rheumatoid arthritis. Gold salt administrations were common in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis until the advent of alternative treatments with better safety profiles, such as methotrexate, in the 1990s. Chrysotherapy (gold salts) has also been used to treat Sjögren’s Syndrome and systemic lupus erythematosus.

Gold salts were primarily given by intramuscular injection or orally. Doses started at 10 mg to determine patients’ ability to tolerate the therapy. Doses were slowly increased to 50 mg at weekly intervals until a total of 2000-3000 mg was given. The patient was reassessed at that time. If inflammation persisted, another course of treatment was started in 6-8 weeks. Patients were monitored closely for signs and symptoms of toxicity, which included itching, mouth ulcers, jaundice and digestive upset. Urinalysis was conducted at every visit to check for protein in the urine, the presence of which indicated kidney damage. If protein was found in a urine sample, gold salt administration was immediately paused until a subsequent urine sample was found to be free of protein. Blood sedimentation rates were performed approximately every six weeks during therapy to track
inflammatory signs and treatment progress.\textsuperscript{3,5}

The exact mechanism of action of gold salts is not entirely understood. Prevailing theories suggest that gold ions and their metabolites serve an inhibitory role in inflammation. This inhibition is believed to act on immune cells such as macrophages and T-lymphocytes, immunoglobulins and inflammatory cytokines as well as at other points along the inflammatory cascade. In addition, gold ions may interfere with antigen processing and recognition of T-cell receptors.\textsuperscript{5}

Chrysiasis typically begins with a mauve discoloration of the skin around the eyes, which changes to a grayish/slate blue or gray and extends to other sun-exposed areas of the body.\textsuperscript{1,7} Ocular chrysiasis can involve the cornea, conjunctiva and lens. Deposition of gold in the cornea has typically been seen in cumulative doses higher than 1-1.5 grams.\textsuperscript{7,8}

Ocular chrysiasis is a common finding in patients undergoing chrysotherapy. One study found that 62% of chrysotherapy patients developed corneal chrysiasis during treatment.\textsuperscript{8} Other studies have produced estimates that between 45% and 97% of patients receiving a total of 1 gram of gold salts develop corneal chrysiasis.\textsuperscript{9-11} Lenticular chrysiasis has also been reported with variability in the frequency of manifestation. Overall, lenticular chrysiasis is believed to be rare. One study found that 36% of gold salt-treated patients displayed lenticular chrysiasis.\textsuperscript{11} Another suggested 55% of patients develop lenticular chrysiasis.\textsuperscript{9}

The underlying mechanism of gold deposition is unknown. Gold is believed to circulate and be deposited by the aqueous humor because it is primarily found in the posterior half of the inferior cornea and often spares the superior and peripheral cornea.\textsuperscript{9,12} Although some investigators have reported that most ocular gold salts deposit in the posterior stroma, a 2010 confocal microscopy study revealed gold deposits throughout all layers of the cornea, with the largest deposits in the anterior stroma. Histopathology and in vivo confocal microscopy showed no associated inflammation.\textsuperscript{7,13} However, two variants of corneal chrysiasis have been described. Most commonly, it presents as asymptomatic deposition of fine brown or purple granules in the central posterior cornea, sparing the periphery. Other patterns include peripheral deposition with extension toward the central cornea, superficial, and deep axial deposition. These findings are not an indication to stop gold therapy.\textsuperscript{12} The second corneal variant is rare but may present with inflammatory signs and symptoms such as marginal interstitial keratitis that may ulcerate, with white subepithelial limbal infiltration and deep, brush-like stromal vascularization. Crescent-shaped marginal ulcers 2-3 mm in length may also be present. This variant is thought to be an idiosyncratic reaction. It may be unilateral or bilateral and is considered an indication to stop gold therapy.\textsuperscript{12}

Overall, ocular chrysiasis after systemic gold administration is considered inert.\textsuperscript{10} However, Raj et al. reported a case of a patient who received a chemical injury when a gold/amine compound exploded and caused gold particles to embed in the cornea bilaterally. After cataract extraction 40 years later, he developed a localized ulcerative keratitis adjacent to embedded gold in the cornea and recurrent bouts of stromal erosion.\textsuperscript{12}

Lenticular chrysiasis appears as fine, dust-like, yellowish glistening deposits in the anterior capsule or in the anterior suture lines. Gold can collect in the conjunctiva as well, forming irregular brown deposits. However, conjunctival changes typically resolve after cessation of therapy.\textsuperscript{10} A study published in the Annals of the Rheumatic Diseases by Prouse, Kanski and Gumpel explored ocular chrysiasis as a predictor for clinical improvement or systemic toxicity. However, the study found no such association.\textsuperscript{8}

In the absence of inflammation, there is no necessary treatment or management for ocular chrysiasis as the deposits typically do not cause decreased visual acuity or other symptoms. UV protection may assist with reducing glare. However, it is necessary to monitor for changes and differentiate the condition from other corneal pathology. Although this condition can be noticed visually, it should not be detrimental to vision.

The key to diagnosis is thorough patient history to identify any autoimmune conditions or history of chrysotherapy. Location of the deposits is likewise important for ruling out other corneal pathologies. Ocular chrysiasis should be considered in any patient who has undergone chrysotherapy if abnormalities within the cornea or lens are noted.

\textit{Differential diagnosis}

Several differential diagnoses should be considered if corneal deposits are observed. The appearance and location of the deposits will aid correct diagnosis.

Pigment dispersion syndrome is a condition that results from mechanical rubbing of the posterior iris epithelium on the lens zonules due to mid-peripheral bowing of the iris. This rubbing results in shedding of the pigment into the posterior chamber. Following the aqueous currents, this pigment travels into the anterior chamber and is deposited on the corneal endothelium. Pigment deposits form a characteristic vertical line called Krukenberg spindle. In these cases, the anterior chamber is typically deep, and melanin may be floating within the chamber during active pigment dispersion. Anterior chamber angles are open,
and the trabecular meshwork is hyperpigmented. Patients with pigment dispersion syndrome may develop elevated intraocular pressure leading to pigmentary glaucoma.14

Wilson’s disease is a degenerative liver condition that causes copper to be deposited in tissues, including the cornea. Copper deposits in the cornea within Descemet’s membrane in a peripheral ring, called a Kayser-Fleischer ring. The appearance of this ring can change color based on illumination type. Patients may present with corresponding liver disease, basal ganglia dysfunction and psychiatric disturbances.14

Bietti’s corneoretinal crystalline dystrophy, an autosomal recessive condition primarily affecting those of East Asian ancestry, results in slow, progressive vision loss. Onset of this condition occurs in the third to fourth decade of life. Patients develop crystals in the superficial peripheral cornea as well as in all retinal layers of the posterior fundus. They also develop atrophy in the macular retinal pigment epithelium and choriocapillaris.14

Conclusion

Ocular chrysiasis is a condition associated only with use of gold salts for treating autoimmune conditions. It is becoming increasingly rare as newer and safer therapies for rheumatoid arthritis are developed. It is important to include ocular chrysiasis as a differential in the presence of crystalline keratopathies whenever gold therapy has been administered. A detailed medical history and thorough ocular examination can assist in arriving at the correct diagnosis.

References

Teaching Ocular Imaging, Disease Diagnosis and Management Within a Work-Integrated Setting: a Novel Model Within an Optometric Education Program

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Introduction

Technological advancements in ocular imaging are rapidly redefining the way eye diseases such as glaucoma and macular degeneration are diagnosed and managed in optometric practice.

In Australia, the scope of practice of optometrists has expanded with the increasing accessibility of advanced imaging technologies as well as therapeutic endorsement of more than 50% of the profession to prescribe scheduled medicines for the treatment of ocular conditions.1 There are underlying similarities with the scope of practice in other countries. For example, optometrists in the United States are able to perform enhanced primary care procedures such as the use of lasers in certain states.2 With the expanding scope of practice of optometrists and ocular imaging technology becoming increasingly ubiquitous in optometric practice,3 optometric educators currently face the challenge of teaching progressively complex material within the time and resource constraints of pre-existing education programs. These constraints are augmented in new or accelerated optometry programs that aim to maximize teaching and learning in a shortened time frame or within a competitive educational environment.4-8 Consequently, the development of novel teaching models and curricular innovation, both for educating optometry students and upskilling optometrists in clinical practice, have been required to keep pace with these changes.

Specific challenges for optometric educators, community optometrists and optometry students include staying abreast of the plethora of new literature relating to the diagnosis and management of ocular diseases; understanding the application, limitations and interpretation of new imaging technologies such as optical coherence tomography angiography (OCTA); and gaining sufficient hands-on experience using these instruments. Typically, this education for students has taken the form of preclinical and theory-based training followed by clinical examination of patients within college- or university-operated clinics or community-based primary care optometry clinics, or observation-based placements within ophthalmology practices where advanced imaging is conducted by ophthalmic technicians. The length of this practical training varies across optometry programs internationally (average two years in the Australian education system vs. average three years in Doctor of Optometry programs in the United States9), but the fundamental goals are the same: to hone students’ technical skills and, more importantly, ensure development of the analytical skills necessary to interpret results and render appropriate treatment plans. This is especially critical for current optometric practice where technical elements are increasingly being delegated to technicians.

However, evidence of poor performance in these skill areas by optometrists suggests these placements are not effectively transferring the students’ complex theoretical knowledge into clinical skills. For example, Bakkum and Trachimowicz10 found optometrists in private practice were significantly less likely to correctly identify any of the 10 anatomical layers of the retina compared with optometry students despite this skill being essential for the correct interpretation of OCT images. Similarly, the emergence of “red disease”11 and “green disease,”12 pertaining to the misclassification of the presence or absence of pathology by the instrument, indicates the consequences of poor understanding relating to the limitations of each instrument and its normative database in clinical decision-making. Thus, implementing new education approaches to address these challenges is essential. Without sufficient training, an optometrist risks misinterpreting results and mismanaging patients.

The aim of this article is to present a novel, practical model for teaching advanced ocular imaging, disease diagnosis and management within a work-integrated setting. This model is implemented as a six-week placement at the Centre for Eye Health (CFEH) for final-year optometry students of the University of New South Wales (UNSW) Sydney, Australia. Students are fully integrated into the clinical pathway for the delivery of intermediate-tier imaging and visual system diagnostic services to patients with, or at risk of, eye disease. Background information about the model and curriculum structure as well as student outcomes and feedback are provided and discussed.
Teaching Model

Setting: Centre for Eye Health

CFEH is a unique optometry-led collaborative initiative of Guide Dogs NSW/ACT and UNSW Sydney, which has been described previously. Briefly, CFEH was established in November 2009 with a mission to reduce preventable blindness by providing diagnostic eye assessments, using state-of-the-art technology, at no cost to patients. CFEH is a referral-only clinic for non-urgent cases and has been validated to reduce unnecessary referrals to ophthalmologists for patients suspected of glaucoma or macular pathology.

Patients presenting to CFEH are a unique cohort who have been identified by their referring optometrist or ophthalmologist as having an ocular abnormality or disease, or being at risk of disease development, but not requiring urgent ophthalmological treatment. Referring practitioners can opt to refer an individual for a comprehensive diagnostic test suite or for imaging tests in isolation. A subset of patients is referred directly to the collaborative care glaucoma clinic, under the oversight of a glaucoma specialist ophthalmologist, for treatment of previously diagnosed glaucoma. Since 2012, CFEH optometrists have examined more than 32,000 demographically diverse patients with the most commonly seen conditions being glaucoma suspect or glaucoma, macular degeneration, other macular pathology, diabetic retinopathy, peripheral retinal degenerations, pigmented lesions or suspected corneal ectasia.

The CFEH clinical team (15 optometrists and a clinical scientist) is responsible for the development, refinement and implementation of CFEH’s novel protocols for examining patients, recalling patients to ensure that none is lost to follow-up, and communicating results to co-managing clinicians. Staff optometrists work closely with consultant ophthalmologists from the local public hospital ophthalmology service who provide indirect patient consultations by reviewing images and clinical data collated into a report by the examining optometrists and students. The clinical team is also intrinsically involved in optometric education, providing teaching within the optometry program of UNSW Sydney as well as postgraduate and continuing education for optometrists in clinical practice. Overall, the clinical team has a range of 3-15 years of experience in teaching optometric students.

Curriculum structure

Optometry schools in Australia have adopted various curriculum structures and course lengths ranging from a 3.5-year undergraduate degree, a combined five-year double degree and, most recently, more in line with the United States, a four-year postgraduate OD program. While variation exists among Australian optometric programs, they all essentially consist of at least one year of preclinical training and are followed by at least one year of practical clinical training.

With regard to this model, students are enrolled in the combined Bachelor of Optometry/Bachelor of Science undergraduate course at UNSW Sydney, where they undertake a placement at CFEH as a mandatory requirement of the Clinical Ocular Therapy subject during Stage 5 (final year) of the program. Table 1 gives an overview of the curriculum structure for this placement.

Overall aims of the placement are to improve the students’ technical facility relating to advanced imaging modalities and to help them develop appropriate integrative and application skills in using these technologies. Students entering Stage 5 have already completed four years of optometry-specific undergraduate training and are equipped with a sound theoretical knowledge of the anatomy and physiology of the eye, ocular diseases and ocular therapeutics. Students have completed a year of practical hands-on training in the general optometry clinic at UNSW, gaining proficiency in clinical skills such as tonometry, pachymetry, gonioscopy, indirect ophthalmoscopy, funduscopy, and have had some exposure to specialized clinics in areas including contact lens, red eye and color vision.

Prior to beginning their placement, students are required to view 10 one-hour video lectures primarily focused on the differential diagnosis of ocular disease using advanced imaging modalities. They also familiarize themselves with clinically relevant literature related to image interpretation, disease diagnosis and management, and key grading scales such as the AREDS AMD severity scale.

Students are scheduled to attend CFEH from 8:30 a.m. to 5 p.m., five days per week, for a total of six weeks. They attend in groups of 8-10 depending upon the total number of students enrolled in that year.
During the first three days, the details of the placement including expectations of professionalism and excellence in patient care delivery and the novel CFEH patient care pathway are outlined to the students. Referral forms and clinical protocols are discussed, and navigation of the customized electronic medical record system (VIP.net, Houston Medical) is demonstrated. The technical aspects of the imaging technologies are demonstrated using an apprenticeship approach. Students familiarize themselves with instrument operation and testing protocols through observing and interacting with supervising optometrists. The range of instruments includes Cirrus OCT (Zeiss), Spectralis OCT (Heidelberg), HRT3 (Heidelberg), Pentacam HR (Oculus), WX 3D non-mydriatic stereo photography (Kowa), Optomap 200TX widefield imaging (Optos), E300 corneal topography (Medmont), IRX3 wavefront aberrometry (Imagine Eyes), Retinomax autorefraction, automated blood pressure measurement, and Humphrey visual field analysis. Instruction is provided on downloading images and reports from the instruments and importing them into the corresponding medical record, with the specific combination of images and/or reports tailored to the referral type and the number of previous visits. Orientation is concluded with a hurdle practical assessment to confirm student competency in providing clear and empathetic patient instructions, operating the instruments, troubleshooting image artifacts and technological issues, and obtaining high-quality images.

For the remainder of their placement, students perform advanced imaging and a range of functional testing on patients under the direct supervision of a staff optometrist. In a manner typical of fieldwork placements in other health professions, staff optometrists play an educative, supportive and administrative role in supervising students throughout the placement. Contact procedures (gonioscopy, ultrasonic pachymetry and applanation tonometry), funduscopy and ophthalmoscopy are performed by the staff optometrists. Students are offered the opportunity to examine patients with these techniques where it is deemed likely to further their understanding of the ocular pathology.

Following each patient assessment, students import relevant images and reports into the patient’s medical record. Using custom report templates, students analyze the results of the patient consultation, list differential diagnoses, propose a diagnosis, discuss a suitable management plan, and reflect on the lessons garnered from the case. Student reports must be submitted within two days to the supervising optometrist (to simulate a true work environment) and individualized written feedback is provided. Final patient reports are written by supervising optometrists and co-signed by a second optometrist or a consultant ophthalmologist, as an additional means of quality control. Students are encouraged to review final reports to complete their learning experience. By the end of the placement, students have been exposed to a wide range of teaching strategies.

**Table 2.** Click to enlarge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Methodology</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observation and practice (Apprenticeship approach)</td>
<td>• Observe, learn and understand the technical operation of instruments demonstrated by clinical staff. • Apply and refine skills of operating equipment and assessing patients.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digital material (Blended teaching)</td>
<td>• 10 one-hour video lectures produced by clinical staff (e.g., “When macular disease is not age-related macular degeneration” and “When does a glaucoma suspect convert to glaucoma?”). • 65 interactive case studies created by clinical staff. • CFEH “Interesting cases” database with more than 2,500 patients categorized into different areas of pathology such as macula, glaucoma, optic nerve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-face learning (Blended teaching)</td>
<td>• Problem-based learning case studies discussion with clinical staff. • Weekly interactive grand round lecture presentations by clinical staff. • Small group tutorials with “rapid-fire” question and answer sessions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team presentation (Blended teaching)</td>
<td>• Students work in pairs to present critical analysis of a current research paper in ophthalmic literature to clinical staff followed by question and answer session.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Higher-order thinking</td>
<td>• Develop trouble-shooting skills for problems arising while examining patients. • Analyze and evaluate clinical test results to create a suitable report.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reflective practice</td>
<td>• Reflecting on learning experiences from each case. • One-to-one discussion with supervising optometrist.</td>
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**Student Outcomes**

Student outcomes from the model were assessed from its implementation in 2014 to the end of 2016. Quantitative data included analysis of students’ patient exposure and student feedback via a paper-based survey. Qualitative data were collected informally through discussion with supervisors and an open-ended comments section in the student survey. Note that there was a change in the curriculum described in Table 1 between 2016 and the previous years where weeks five and six were not performed because students were available only for a four-week period.

**Number of patients seen**

Individual students, on average, examined 88 patients during a six-week placement at CFEH. As CFEH is a referral-based centre, most patients had signs of ocular disease or were ‘non-textbook’ cases of diseases. Examinations lasted 30 minutes to two hours per patient and included the opportunity to conduct multiple tests, e.g., students conducting a glaucoma assessment performed visual acuity measurement, autorefraction, blood pressure measurement and Humphrey 24-2 perimetry, obtained retinal photographs, OCT and HRT3 images and assisted with patient history, tonometry, gonioscopy, pachymetry, funduscopy and slit lamp examination. The application of multiple teaching strategies (Table 2) meant students were also potentially exposed to a further 550 cases through peer discussions, tutorials, interactive case studies, digital video lectures, problem-based learning cases, grand rounds lectures presented by staff, and review of patient records.
Views from student supervisors

Informal discussions with supervising optometrists were used to determine impressions of student performance within the work-integrated student teaching model. Supervising clinicians commonly noted that student skills relating to the technical aspects of using advanced imaging devices improved over the course of placement. Examples of this improvement included fewer instances of images needing to be retaken by the supervisor or student due to poor quality and an overall reduction in the time taken to acquire images at later stages of the placement. Clinical skills relating to image interpretation and differential diagnosis were also reported to be improved. Specifically, supervising optometrists observed that students developed a greater understanding of how to recognize image artifacts, interpret results from patients who have anatomical or demographic features that fall outside the instrument-based normative database, and provide a cohesive diagnosis and management plan based on their patient reports.

Student survey results

Formal student feedback was collected through a 15-question survey at the end of each placement. Students were asked to rate the level of agreement that most accurately reflected their opinion on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). A summary of the results is provided in Table 3. An optional written comments section was also provided. Examples of student quotations are shown in Table 4.

In terms of teaching methodologies, the tutorials were most highly rated, followed by the course materials and quality of the teaching staff. (Table 3) Summary reports and feedback were also helpful, achieving a score of 4.4 out of 5 each. Written comments regarding teaching methodologies also indicated that students valued face-to-face interaction with their supervisors such as in tutorials, discussions of problem-based learning cases, individual feedback and weekly grand round lectures and

Table 3. Click to enlarge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 3</th>
<th>Student Survey Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-cognitive factors:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The CFEH clinical rotation helped students to learn</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The hands-on CFEH clinical rotation was useful in helping me improve my clinical confidence and understanding of testing protocols</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment methods:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The feedback is helpful and offers a way to improve the CFEH clinical rotation</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I found writing the CFEH clinical summary reports helpful</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching methodologies:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The tutorials held during the rotation were useful for both clinical knowledge and the CFEH clinical rotation</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The course materials provided during the CFEH clinical rotation were useful for both clinical knowledge and the CFEH clinical rotation</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The CFEH teaching staff showed an interest in the needs of the students</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I found the CFEH clinical update presentations useful (Tuesday lunchtimes)</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The volume of work in the CFEH clinical rotation was appropriate</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning outcomes:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The CFEH clinical rotation was useful in helping me improve my diagnostic capabilities</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. The CFEH clinical rotation helped improve my understanding of ocular diseases</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I had a clear understanding of what was expected of me in the CFEH clinical rotation</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Overall, I was satisfied with the quality of the CFEH clinical rotation</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Overall, I was satisfied and experienced during the CFEH clinical rotation</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average score over all aspects</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 183 students across the three years (2014-2016) participated in the survey, which had a 100% response rate. Overall, an average of 4.6 out of 5 (strongly agree) was achieved for all aspects of the students’ rotation at CFEH with a notable improvement in the survey scores across all aspects in each successive year. Students showed strong motivation to learn and rated the clinical rotation highly in assisting improvements in clinical confidence and understanding testing protocols (average score of 4.7 out of 5). Cultivation of non-cognitive factors such as self-learning, motivation and embracing challenges was also commonly noted by students in written comments (11 out of 53 comments).

Table 4. Click to enlarge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 4</th>
<th>Examples of Student Written Feedback</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. General comments | - I enjoyed the rotation, learned a lot, made me more knowledgeable and concise.  
- I found all components of the course very helpful.  
- I think I would have had a better learning experience if I was placed at the start of the semester rather than the end. |
| 2. Non-cognitive factors | - I gained a lot of confidence in terms of clinical reasoning.  
- I was always encouraged and motivated to learn and study. |
| 3. Assessment methods | - Too many reports at times.  
- I had trouble keeping up with the workload due to having lots of assignments due from other courses.  
- Summary reports were helpful. However, there was a stage of struggle with the workload (not a fault of CFEH rotation but rather everything was due at the end of the rotation).  
- Initial days practicing with the machine helped me consolidate knowledge, professionalism, and communication skills. |
| 4. Teaching methodologies | - PBL was great for learning and staff were enthusiastic to teach and help.  
- Tutorials were some of the best learning experiences. Maybe a quick MCQ occasionally would be good.  
- It’s good that we get 1:1 feedback.  
- The staff really catered to our needs and inspired me to learn.  
- Having more one on one time with supervisors to answer questions.  
- Perhaps more PBLs. Learn more from these (PBLs) and clinical updates.  
- Clinical update (in particular the webcasts) were very useful and broadened my knowledge. They provided good review and reinforced/updated any gaps in our knowledge. |
| 5. Learning outcomes | - Loved it if really improved my knowledge on ocular diseases.  
- Has definitely helped to build my knowledge of the imaging machines and how to interpret them. |

Comments were analyzed for common themes and grouped as general comments, comments on non-cognitive factors, assessment methodologies, teaching methodologies and learning outcomes. PBL = problem-based learning case, MCQ = multiple-choice question.
The appropriateness of the volume of work was rated the lowest (3.9 out of 5) with a number of written comments about the work load being too high (8 out of 53 comments). Forty percent of these comments, however, clarified that high work load was due to other assignments being due during the placement. Overall, survey scores and comments indicated students’ perception of the placement was useful, helpful and enjoyable with students gaining confidence in ocular imaging and being motivated to learn.

**Clinical efficiency outcomes**

*Figure 1* depicts the number of patients examined per equivalent full-time (EFT) staff optometrist at CFEH before and following student model implementation. Prior to student integration, the two-year average was 673 patients/EFT optometrist. This was improved to 901 (134% increase) and 980 (146% increase) with the introduction of the four- and six-week placements respectively. This increase in efficiency was achieved in combination with scheduling changes that were allowed by the availability of students to participate in patient management. As students became more efficient in their technical skills, an initial one-on-one supervision was replaced by two-on-one supervision of a staff optometrist, which optimized staff and time resources within the clinic.

**Discussion**

The rapidly changing scope of optometric practice due to advances in ocular imaging technology means increasingly complex competencies are now required from optometrists.\(^1\) Australian optometric education is constantly evolving in response to the expanding scope of practice, in particular the incorporation of advanced technology and prescribing of therapeutic agents,\(^1\) as well as a changing educational landscape from the traditional mode of classroom teaching and learning to more flexible, self-directed, blended teaching and learning modalities. The challenge for optometric educators is to efficiently and effectively develop and deliver this material and provide students an environment where they can apply and translate their textbook knowledge to
practical skills and learn to troubleshoot when challenges arise. At the same time, efficient use of clinic time and resources is required due to central fiscal demand. Here, we have described a successful, work-integrated teaching model enhanced by a range of teaching methodologies, where final-year students are intensively integrated into the clinical pathway within a unique workplace setting for six weeks. A discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of the model follow.

The model appears highly effective for teaching complex materials such as advanced ocular imaging and diagnosis

The advantages of work-integrated learning are well-established and include promotion of knowledge development, professional attitudes and communication. For example, community-based optometric placements have been successful in providing students with a broad range of experiences, promoting cultural competency and community outreach. These placements also address entry-level competency standards for the profession of optometry in Australia, and similarly the New Professional Optometric Degree Standards as outlined by the Accreditation Council on Optometric Education (ACOE) by providing a platform for students to consolidate, integrate and apply their theoretical knowledge, hence ensuring essential clinical experience and competency to “independently practice contemporary optometry.” The resource-intense nature of placements, however, is often cited as a limitation to implementing and extending these activities in curricula. Consequently, many placements utilize an observation-based approach, which limits the quantity, quality and variety of student interaction and practical skill development.

In this model, although a resource-intensive training period of three days was required at the beginning of the placement, the use of a range of teaching methodologies, direct involvement of students in patient care, and examination of a high volume of patients all seemed to be useful in promoting self-directed learning among students and reducing the teaching and resource load during the remainder of the placement. This may be of particular use to new or accelerated optometric programs that are faced with the additional challenges of developing sustainable clinical placement programs within a competitive educational space and shortened time frame. Examples of such programs offered in optometry schools include the 3.5-year undergraduate degree at Deakin University in Victoria, Australia, and the 36-month Accelerated Scholar’s Program at Pennsylvania College of Optometry at Salus University in the United States, which emphasize early clinical exposure and extended clinical placements to allow students to continuously build on their clinical skills. However, specific challenges associated with an accelerated model in Australia include recruiting practices that are adequately equipped to accommodate students and overcoming clinic inefficiencies of students slowing down appointments. In particular among Australian optometrists, there is moderate support for extended clinical placement programs. The burden on time and decrease in number of patients examined are the top perceived disadvantages. The CFEH model design led to outcomes that were beneficial for both the student and workplace, overcoming most of the challenges and perceived disadvantages of clinical placements. Student feedback indicated development of practical capabilities for using, interpreting and applying results from diagnostic imaging technologies within the six-week time frame. Concurrently, student integration allowed for greater service delivery by the clinic. Considering that the ability to interpret and apply results from diagnostic imaging technologies is now considered an entry-level competency by the main professional body for optometrists in Australia, this model demonstrates usefulness towards efficiency in learning these technologies.

The model promoted skills associated with lifelong learning, essential in the optometric profession

Optometry students are required, at a minimum, to attain a competent level of professionalism before they can enter the workforce, whereby they are able to consciously interpret available data and adjust management plans for specific patients or clinical situations. Optometry Australia, the leading professional body, has published detailed entry-level competency standards. Among a range of professional responsibilities, the ability to “continue to expand and update skills and knowledge for safe and evidence-based practice through adoption of a lifelong approach to learning” is deemed essential. The importance of embracing research and evidence-based practice and prioritizing these elements in curricular planning within schools and colleges of optometry has also been highlighted. Student survey results indicated this teaching model promoted non-cognitive skills associated with critical reflection, self-learning and motivation, factors known to be essential to students’ success beyond university as they embark on their careers and in alignment with Faucher’s description of professional expertise development.

Raising the standards of new graduates may have a beneficial flow-on effect of contributing to the prevention and reduction of eye diseases within the community. Furthermore, the uniqueness of this optometry-led clinic, its patient cohort and highly skilled optometric staff with a dedicated interest in diagnosis and management of ocular diseases also provides an adaptive learning environment. This environment and the ability to diagnose and manage eye disease more confidently, particularly in
Student outcomes from this model were used to guide, refine and implement improvements and changes to the teaching methodologies and content.

Student surveys and feedback were an important element in guiding and refining the teaching methodologies and materials with enhancements made to the instructional delivery and content. Such changes have resulted in improvements to the student survey scores across all aspects in each successive year. (Table 3) As students indicated that they valued face-to-face interactions, teaching methodologies were refined to place an emphasis on delivering these learning opportunities such as the implementation of weekly grand round lectures, tutorials and discussions of problem-based learning cases. Clinical update meetings and grand rounds-style lectures were also modified from a lecture mode presented by staff to “rapid-fire” question and answer sessions, resulting in greater student participation and interaction with their supervisors, as well as cultivating higher-order thinking. Tutorials were also updated to concentrate on areas where students showed the weakest knowledge based on student-supervisor discussions, performances on their hurdle test of 30 multiple-choice questions (MCQs), and other clinical performances such as communication, report writing and analyzing results, addressing both technical and, more importantly, analytical skills with an emphasis on management and diagnosis. Another aspect measured was volume of work, which garnered the lowest survey scores, although this was possibly confounded by other assignments that were due at the same time. Based on such feedback, report templates were streamlined to adjust the volume of work. This resulted in an improvement of survey scores from 3.2 to 4.4 out of 5, with summary report templates implemented at the final two weeks of the program. These summary report templates encouraged students to integrate relevant results in constructing a concise report and allowed clinical supervisors to prioritize students who needed more guidance in analyzing and integrating results.

As evaluating teaching and learning methods are an important responsibility among education providers to ensure delivery of quality teaching and optimize student learning, this model has measured outcomes using strategies such as student surveys and feedback as well as supervisor impressions. These methods have shown to be useful in refining teaching methodologies and content, as demonstrated by an increase in student satisfaction scores, and can be implemented in a variety of clinical settings to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching strategies and materials and to guide refinements.

This model may be enhanced by the integration of technological solutions to optimize clinical efficiency and extend the student learning experience.

We acknowledge that areas within the current model may be improved by implementing technological solutions to transform current manual procedures and optimize the use of resources, in turn enhancing the student learning experience and creating a sustainable learning environment. Specifically, the use of tracking software such as Meditrek (Morrisville, Pa.) to capture the clinical supervisors’ impressions of the progress of students will allow for more quantitative analysis of such information. Other enhancements that can be implemented include an electronic portfolio with the potential to allow students and supervisors to track their learning and competencies, expand feedback and interaction modalities, and build learning communities by enabling questions and case discussion with peers and supervisors via a digital platform. As teaching procedural and operational skills related to a vast range of ocular imaging equipment can place considerable burden on time and staff resources, digitizing certain aspects of instructional delivery may be beneficial. For example, instrument demonstration videos disseminated to and completed by students prior to their placement may be useful in allowing flexible, self-directed learning and optimizing use of face-to-face time with supervisors over the orientation period to refine techniques, discuss difficulties and learn to troubleshoot when problems arise. Such enhancements may be implemented in a variety of clinical placements requiring tracking of student-supervisor interaction, competency-based teaching and flexibility of the learning environment.

This model may be limited by the specific scope of the workplace environment.

A potential limitation of this teaching model is the workplace setting: CFEH is an optometry-led, referral-only clinic for patients who have or are suspected of having ocular disease. The clinic is also based at a teaching and research institution and therefore staff knowledge is highly specialized and current with specific continuing education practices embedded within the workplace. We acknowledge that most optometry-driven clinics may not operate under such specific clinical protocols. However, most optometry education programs throughout the world are likely to include placements at clinics that utilize advanced ocular imaging technologies and have unique clinical pathways. For example, in most U.S. colleges, students undergo externships at various ocular disease specialty clinics during the final year of the program such as those offered by Nova Southeastern University. In the United Kingdom, observation-based clinical placements at the Moorfields Eye Hospital are offered by the City University of London. In this case, strategies used within the model, specifically the full integration of students into the workplace to perform service delivery and patient management with advanced imaging and the use of a variety of teaching methodologies should be applicable to a wide range of other clinical settings and contribute to positive outcomes such as those seen in this placement.
Conclusion

This article highlights the potential benefits of intensively integrating optometry students into a unique workplace environment dedicated to advanced ocular imaging and disease management. Survey results collated over three years show increasingly positive feedback from students in regard to various aspects of the model and cultivation of higher-order thinking and non-cognitive factors. The model also shows benefit to the workplace through improved efficiency in service delivery. Considering the increasing level of theoretical knowledge that needs to be taught to optometry students and the consequent pressure this places on finding opportunities to translate the knowledge into practical skills, models such as this may represent efficient methods of addressing these challenges.

References

## Appendix A
Centre for Eye Health Glaucoma Suite Student Report Template

**Glaucoma Suite**

**Supervisor:**

**Student name:**

**Date patient seen:**

**Patient name and ID:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disc appearance (Kowa stereo photos)</th>
<th>Disc size, shape, orientation:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NRR:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PPA:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Drance:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RNFL:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Cirrus**

Is there asymmetry or areas of reduction?

Is this relevant to glaucoma? Why/why not?

Is the segmentation correct?

**Spectrals**

Are there any notable areas of anomalies in retinal architecture?

**HRT3**

Does the color disc profile match the stereo disc appearance?

MRA sectors flagged – does this correlate with other findings?

**Visual fields**

Are the fields reliable?

Describe defects?

Is this relevant to glaucoma?

**Case summary**

Glaucome specific historical risk profile?

IOPs and perimetry within norms: high/low/thick/thin?

Angles open/narrow? Evidence of secondary glaucoma risk factors?

Do the NRR appearance, imaging and visual fields correlate? If yes, what are the correlating features?

**Diagnosis and differentials (consider conditions other than glaucoma)**

Diagnosis

Differential diagnoses

**Management:**

What have you learned from this case?

In terms of the two major areas:

1. Patient interaction
2. Clinical case
   (write 1 point each)

**Supervising optometrist's comments**

NRR = neuroretinal rim; PPA = peripapillary atrophy; MRA = Moorfields regression analysis; RNFL = retinal nerve fiber layer
Acquired Toxoplasmosis Manifesting as Granulomatous Panuveitis: a Teaching Case Report
Linda JH Lucas, OD, MS, FAAO, and Sarah Vanway, OD | Optometric Education: Volume 43 Number 3 (Summer 2018)

Background
This case report follows the diagnosis and management of a patient with unilateral granulomatous panuveitis including differential diagnosis, diagnostic lab testing and treatment. The case is an unusual presentation of uveitis, and it is a useful educational exercise to consider the differential diagnoses and potential treatment options. The intended audience is third- and fourth-year optometry students and residents.

Case Description
A 62-year-old Caucasian male presented in clinic with a chief complaint of seeing a spot in his right eye that appeared to move with the eye. He wasn’t sure how long it had been there. He stated that he had noticed it when bowhunting season started approximately two weeks previously. He had not noted any pain, photopsia or decreased vision. The patient’s medical history was significant for diet-controlled diabetes, hypertension, basal cell carcinoma, hypercholesterolemia, and bradycardia. His medications included simvastatin, baby aspirin and vitamin D. His last dilated fundus exam had been two years prior with unremarkable findings.

The patient’s best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA) on the day of presentation was 20/25- OD, 20/20 OS. Pupils showed a sluggish reaction in the right eye, a normal reaction in the left eye, and anisocoria, with pupils measuring 4 mm in the right eye and 2.5 mm in the left eye. There was no afferent pupillary defect. Goldmann applanation tonometry measured 38 mmHg OD and 14 mmHg OS. The slit lamp exam was remarkable for 3+ mutton fat keratic precipitates on the corneal endothelium with mild corneal edema in the right eye and a moderate anterior chamber reaction with 2-3+ cells and mild to moderate flare. A very mild nuclear sclerotic and posterior subcapsular cataract were noted in each eye. All other anterior and posterior findings were normal OS. There was a poor view of the posterior pole OD, either due to the corneal edema or perhaps vitreal debris.

One drop each of brimonidine, timolol/dorzolamide, and cyclopentolate 2% were instilled in-office in the patient’s right eye. It was suspected that posterior synechiae were forming OD due to the larger pupil size and the sluggish pupillary response. One hour after instillation of the drops, intraocular pressure (IOP) decreased to 24 mmHg, and the pupil dilated without signs of synechiae. The patient was started on prednisolone 1% q1h, cyclopentolate 2% bid, brimonidine bid and timolol/dorzolamide bid OD.

Follow-up 1: two days after initial presentation
The patient returned to the clinic two days later. He had noticed no change with his eyes. His BCVA was 20/50 OD. IOP was 14 mmHg, again measured with Goldmann applanation tonometry. Anterior chamber showed 2+ cells. The view of the posterior pole was much improved, and a 3-4 disc-diameter, slightly elevated, yellow inflammatory chorioretinal lesion was noted inferior
to the optic nerve. (Figure 1) The optic nerve had a C/D ratio of 0.3 and appeared healthy and well-perfused. OCT showed
diffuse retinal thickening in the area of the lesion that extended toward the macula. (Figure 2) Vitreal cells appeared mild.
The patient reported a history of owning, taking care of, and interacting with cats on a long-term and regular basis.
Fluorescent Treponemal antibody absorption (FTA-ABS) and Toxoplasma antibody tests were ordered, and the patient was
referred to an ocular inflammatory specialist for further work-up.

Follow-up 2: one week after initial presentation

The patient was seen five days later by the uveitis specialist. He reported having a history of a positive purified protein
derivative test 15 years previously, and he had been treated with isonicotinylhydrazine for nine months. He stated that he had
not traveled recently. His BCVA was 20/30-, his anterior chamber reaction had decreased to 1-2+ cells, and his IOP was 11
mmHg. His ocular findings were otherwise unchanged. His vitreal cell status was graded as 1-2+ with debris. A B-scan
ultrasound test was performed and demonstrated questionable mild retinal thickening inferiorly OD.

Initially, due to the appearance of the lesion and the patient’s prior history, the uveitis specialist considered tuberculoma to be
the most likely diagnosis. Other possible etiologies included Toxoplasma, lymphoma, syphilis, Bartonella, sarcoidosis, human
immunodeficiency virus (HIV), Lyme disease and metastasis. Tests for HIV, rapid plasma reagin (RPR), angiotensin-converting
enzyme (ACE), quantiferon-gold, complete blood count (CBC), Bartonella and Lyme disease were ordered. Prednisolone was
tapered to qid, and cyclopentolate, brimonidine and timolol/dorzolamide were continued bid. An anterior chamber tap was not
performed at this time, and oral azithromycin and oral prednisone were discontinued pending lab results and further
monitoring of the patient.

Follow-up 3: eight days after initial presentation

The patient was seen again the next day, and his BCVA was 20/50 OD. Exam findings were unchanged from the previous day.
The patient had discontinued timolol/dorzolamide on his own, but IOP remained acceptable at 9 mmHg. The labs for IgM and
IgG toxoplasmosis came back positive. HIV testing was negative, and CBC was normal. Other labs were still pending. The
patient was started on oral azithromycin 500 mg daily, and the topical medications were continued unchanged except for the
discontinuation of timolol/dorzolamide.

Follow-up 4: 10 days after initial presentation

The patient returned two days later. His BCVA was 20/40 OD, and the anterior chamber reaction had decreased to 1+ cells,
but exam was essentially unchanged. No additional lab results were available.

Follow-up 5: 16 days after initial presentation

The patient returned six days later. His exam was stable to slightly improved. His BCVA was 20/50, anterior chamber reaction
was stable at 1+, vitreal reaction appeared slightly improved at 1+, the keratic precipitates were resolved, and the fundus
lesion appeared stable to slightly smaller. The remainder of the lab results were as follows: Lyme disease negative, RPR/FTA
negative, ACE 58 (and considered normal), quantiferon gold positive, and Bartonella negative. Due to the posterior location of
the lesion and its relative stability and slow improvement, an intravitreal injection of clindamycin was administered.

Follow-up 6: three weeks after initial presentation

The patient returned five days later with a BCVA of 20/40- OD. He had inadvertently recently run out of prednisolone drops,
but his overall ocular inflammation had decreased somewhat with slight improvement in anterior chamber and vitreous cells.
The chorioretinal lesion appeared to be slightly smaller. The patient was started on oral prednisone 60 mg daily and resumed
topical prednisolone 1% qid. He was to continue brimonidine bid and oral azithromycin 500 mg daily. Cyclopentolate was
discontinued because the inflammation had improved significantly.

Follow-up 7: four weeks after initial presentation

The patient returned one week later. His general ocular inflammation had decreased and the chorioretinal lesion showed
marked improvement. It was smaller and partially scarred at the site of the previous inflammation. His visual acuity was 20/25
OD. The patient was to begin tapering oral and topical prednisone. Brimonidine was discontinued because elevated IOP was no
longer a concern.

Follow-up 8: two months after initial presentation
The patient returned a month later. He had run out of azithromycin and had completed the oral prednisone taper. He was still taking topical prednisolone tid. His eye exam showed general improvement, and topical prednisolone was tapered to bid. He was to resume taking oral azithromycin 500 mg once daily.

Follow-up 9: three months after initial presentation

The patient returned a month later. The ocular inflammation appeared resolved. A chorioretinal scar was visible at the site of previous inflammation. A retinal vein occlusion with several dot hemorrhages was noted peripherally, just anterior to the scarred area. Azithromycin was discontinued. The patient was released from the care of the uveitis specialist and instructed to return to his primary eyecare provider in a year.

Follow-up 10: 16 months after initial presentation

The patient returned for a follow-up appointment 16 months after his initial presentation. He was not taking any ocular medications. He reported that he had not noticed any floaters recently. His BCVA was 20/20 OD, 20/20 OS. He had no active ocular inflammation, and the chorioretinal scar in the posterior pole OD appeared inactive and atrophic. (Figure 3) OCT showed a completely atrophic retina and choroid in the area of the lesion. (Figure 4) Of note, there was a retinal vein occlusion anterior to the lesion, likely a result of the atrophy of the vessels overlying the lesion.

Education Guidelines

Key concepts

1. The first step in diagnosing uveitis must be to make careful observations about the patient’s symptoms and clinical signs of the uveitis, information gathered from a thorough eye exam that includes a dilated fundus exam and IOP check
2. Classifying the uveitis according to location, laterality, chronicity and type (granulomatous vs. non-granulomatous) is an essential beginning step that aids in developing a list of differential diagnoses
3. Integrating the patient’s uveitis symptoms and past history of the uveitis as well as the patient’s medical history are another important aspect of considering possible diagnoses
4. Diagnostic testing should be ordered according to the list of possible diagnoses; the sensitivity and specificity of each lab test and the likelihood of disease should be considered
5. Infection or malignancy must be recognized and successfully treated before beginning steroid treatment

Learning objectives

1. To make careful observations about the signs of the uveitis: location, laterality, granulomatous vs. non-granulomatous, and chronicity (acute, chronic, recurrent)
2. To integrate facts about the uveitis symptoms, previous episodes of uveitis, the patient’s demographic information and medical history
3. To analyze the observations and facts and develop a list of differential diagnoses
4. To tailor diagnostic testing according to the developed list of differential diagnoses:
   a. testing should be appropriately matched to the description of uveitis
   b. sensitivity and specificity of each laboratory test should be considered
   c. likelihood of disease should be assessed before ordering testing
5. To understand that infection or malignancy must be successfully treated before anti-inflammatory medications are started

Discussion questions

1. Why is it important to first note the location, laterality, type and chronicity of the uveitis as well as patient demographics? How will these observations assist in compiling a list of possible diagnoses?
2. Why is it important to order laboratory testing according to the patient’s specific uveitis characteristics?
3. How do the sensitivity and specificity of lab tests and the likelihood of disease affect which testing should be ordered?
4. Why is it important to rule out or treat infection or malignancy before adding anti-inflammatory medication?

Discussion
On the day of presentation, the patient was diagnosed with a unilateral, granulomatous uveitis. The inflammation was clearly anterior, but it was unclear whether there was further involvement due to the poor view of the posterior pole, which was possibly due to the anterior chamber reaction, corneal edema or vitreal cells. Chronicity was uncertain because the patient was not sure how long the spot in his right eye had been present. He had noticed it a couple of weeks earlier, but that was perhaps due to his recent hunting activity with the opening of bow season. His last complete eye exam with dilation had been performed two years prior and was unremarkable. The patient was not symptomatic for pain or photophobia, implying that his condition may have been chronic. Also of note was the larger pupil, the sluggish pupillary response, and the increased IOP in the affected eye. This was likely due to synechiae beginning to form. Cyclopentolate easily dilated the eye without any signs of posterior synechiae remaining.

When he presented for his first follow-up visit, the posterior pole was much easier to view, and a yellow inflammatory chorioretinal lesion could be seen. As inflammation could be seen in the posterior pole as well as in the anterior chamber, this was classified as a case of panuveitis. The patient initially presented with a chief complaint of a spot moving around in his right eye. The symptomatic spot was likely the chorioretinal lesion. Alternatively, it could have been caused by vitreal cells. The chorioretinal lesion and the granulomatous nature of the uveitis could be associated with a number of conditions such as tuberculoma, lymphoma, syphilis, toxoplasmosis, Bartonella or sarcoidosis, most of which can present with variable ocular signs, locations in the eye, laterality and symptoms.

With the patient’s history of owning and interacting with cats and the positive toxoplasmosis lab results, that diagnosis moved to the top of the list of possibilities. Due to the patient’s history of a positive purified protein derivative test 15 years prior, tuberculoma was also high on the list. The patient was started on azithromycin at that point, one of several possible treatments for toxoplasmosis. After a week on azithromycin, the ocular inflammation appeared stable to slightly improved. The remaining lab results came back negative, decreasing the likelihood that other conditions were the cause of the panuveitis. The only other positive lab result was the quantiferon gold, which is likely to remain positive in patients who have a history of tuberculoma. Because the toxoplasmosis diagnosis seemed even more likely, and because the chorioretinal lesion had not appeared to improve much with treatment, an intravitreal injection of clindamycin was administered at that visit. Five days later, when the infection appeared to be resolved or nearly resolved, oral prednisone was started to help decrease the posterior segment inflammation.

Choosing appropriate laboratory testing in uveitis

Diagnostic testing should be chosen according to the most likely differential diagnoses. Ordering nonspecific laboratory testing is inefficient, expensive and can provide useless and even misleading information. This can be a challenging process, but it is important to carefully consider which tests would be most helpful in diagnosing the patient. One important concept is estimating the likelihood of disease based on the patient’s signs, symptoms and history. Another important factor is understanding the sensitivity and specificity of each test in order to determine how much weight a test result should have in the overall picture of the patient’s case. Some individual research may need to be performed by the provider before laboratory testing is ordered, especially when considering a more complicated uveitis. Table 1 provides a summary of differential diagnoses that were considered in this case along with their specific characteristics and lab tests ordered.1

Serology testing for toxoplasmosis

When the lab results were received, the positive IgG and IgM results strongly supported the diagnosis of toxoplasmosis. Ocular toxoplasmosis is the most common cause of posterior uveitis.2,4 A case of acquired toxoplasmosis in a 62-year-old patient, however, is unusual. It is thought that the majority of cases of toxoplasmosis are congenital with later reactivation, especially if ocular disease is present.5 It is more common for acquired toxoplasmosis to present unilaterally, while congenital toxoplasmosis infections more often present bilaterally.4

The presence of IgM antibodies on serology testing indicates an acute infection and levels remain elevated for about one year following the initial exposure.2 On the other hand, IgG antibodies indicate a previous exposure and are detectable for life.2 If IgM antibodies against Toxoplasma gondii are present, it signals an active infection. While doctors had no previous IgM or IgG testing for this patient to aid in definitively determining whether this case was congenital or acquired, due to the patient’s age and the positive IgM results, it was concluded that this was an acquired case. In addition, the patient’s previous eye exam showed no remarkable findings, including no signs of past inflammation. The other indication that this case was acquired was the absence of chorioretinal scars, which would indicate a previous episode. Therefore, the patient was diagnosed as having...
presumed primary acquired toxoplasmosis. An exact mode of transmission for acquiring the toxoplasmosis remained uncertain after discussion with the patient, but interaction with his cats seems quite possible.

Transmission

Toxoplasmosis can be transmitted to humans through a number of avenues. Oocytes are found only in the intestines of cats and may be transmitted to humans or other animals through cat feces. The oocytes develop into tachyzoites and rapidly divide in cells, causing destruction of tissue and spreading the infection. Tachyzoites can also infect the fetus of a pregnant woman. Tachyzoites can form cysts called bradyzoites containing thousands of organisms and are typically found in muscle or neural tissue. Ingestion of undercooked meat contaminated with these cysts is another possible mode of transmission, as is drinking water contaminated with oocytes.\textsuperscript{1,3,5,6}

Signs and symptoms of toxoplasmosis

Ocular symptoms of toxoplasmosis often include floaters, caused by vitreous cells and debris, and decreased vision, typically caused by inflammatory lesions in the macula.\textsuperscript{5,7} Ocular signs include anterior chamber inflammation, elevated intraocular pressure, vitritis, retinitis, vasculitis, disc edema secondary to peripapillary retinitis and, in rare cases, hard exudates in the macular area.\textsuperscript{7} The location of chorioretinal lesions has a significant impact on visual acuity, with macular lesions being the most sight-threatening.\textsuperscript{6} In a study of 248 patients, an outbreak of T gondii retinitis was discovered in the residents of Coimbatore, India, in 2004-2005. Among those 248 patients (254 eyes), 230 eyes were found to have unifocal retinitis. The retinal lesions were all raised and yellow with poorly defined borders. They healed over time and resulted in retinal scarring.\textsuperscript{7}

Treatment of toxoplasmosis

There are several treatment options for managing toxoplasmosis, with some controversy regarding one antibiotic vs. another, and when corticosteroids should be initiated. Typically prescribed medications include pyrimethamine, sulfadiazine, clindamycin, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole, azithromycin and corticosteroids. None of the T gondii-specific antibiotics are able to penetrate the cyst walls of the bradyzoite form, but they are thought to limit proliferation of the tachyzoites during active disease. Corticosteroids are used to decrease inflammation and scarring, but due to the risk of increasing parasite proliferation, they must be used in conjunction with antibiotics. In addition, there is some question as to whether corticosteroids could increase the chance of future recurrence of the disease.\textsuperscript{7,8}

Differential Diagnosis

In this particular case, other conditions involving chorioretinitis with corresponding panuveitis that were considered were tuberculoma, lymphoma, syphilis, Bartonella, and sarcoidosos.

Tuberculosis

Ocular tuberculosis most commonly presents as a posterior uveitis, although it can also manifest as granulomatous anterior, intermediate or panuveitis.\textsuperscript{9} If posterior uveitis is present, it often indicates choroidal involvement, which can include subretinal abscess, tubercles and tuberculomas.\textsuperscript{9} Choroidal tubercles are small nodules, less than 1/4 disc diameter, and result in a scar when healed.\textsuperscript{9} Tubercles can also develop into a choroidal tuberculoma that is often associated with an exudative retinal detachment.\textsuperscript{9} The quantiferon gold result was positive in this case, which is consistent with the patient’s history of previously testing positive for tuberculoma and undergoing treatment. Our patient was not experiencing any systemic symptoms of active tuberculoma at the time of presentation.

Lymphoma

Primary intraocular lymphoma can also present as a uveitis and vitritis. As with toxoplasmosis, patients often complain of blurred vision and floaters.\textsuperscript{10} Fluorescein angiography (FA) is useful in the diagnosis of primary intraocular lymphoma.\textsuperscript{10} Window defects on FA indicate tumor infiltrates, and leakage on FA, which indicates inflammation, is not usually present.\textsuperscript{10} In this case, an FA was not performed. Once the IgM and IgG test results were known to be positive, the CBC was normal, and the clinical course proceeded as expected, this case was determined to be toxoplasmosis.

Syphilis

Ocular syphilis can present as uveitis, vitritis, retinitis, retinal vasculitis, papillitis or neuroretinitis.\textsuperscript{11} The uveitis associated with syphilis may present as granulomatous or non-granulomatous.\textsuperscript{11} Serology testing for syphilis involves both Treponema-specific and non-Treponemal tests.\textsuperscript{11} The Treponema-specific test, FTA-ABS, was ordered. In this case, the FTA-ABS was
negative, so ocular syphilis was ruled out.

Bartonella

Another differential diagnosis considered was Bartonella. The mode of transmission of the bacteria Bartonella to humans is largely through cat fleas. Cats’ claws can become contaminated with the Bartonella species via the cat flea feces, and transmission to humans can occur through a cat scratch, bite or cat saliva at an open wound. The different species of Bartonella, of which there are more than 20, have varying ocular manifestations. The most common ocular manifestations of Bartonella include Parinaud oculoglandular syndrome, choroiditis, retinitis, neuroretinitis, vasculitis and anterior and intermediate uveitis. In this case, the lab testing for Bartonella was negative, and the clinical appearance of the uveitis was more consistent with toxoplasmosis than Bartonella.

Sarcoidosis

Sarcoidosis is an inflammatory disease that affects many organs in the body, including the eyes. Its etiology is unknown, and it is characterized by non-caseating granulomas. Sarcoidosis manifests ocularly as a granulomatous uveitis. It often presents posteriorly and typically presents bilaterally. In this case, the ACE level was not considered elevated, and the patient did not show systemic signs or symptoms of sarcoidosis, so it was ruled out.

Conclusion

This teaching case report illustrates a case of unilateral granulomatous panuveitis. While uncommon, this case was determined to be one of acquired ocular toxoplasmosis. One valuable point in this case is the importance of dilation in general, and specifically in this episode of panuveitis. Viewing the posterior pole was not only critical for diagnosis but also for follow-up appointments for determining if and how well the patient was responding to treatment. Lab results also played an important role in the diagnosis in this case. This patient was seen in a hospital setting, but if laboratory testing is not readily available at a clinic site, referrals can easily be made. With treatment consisting of topical prednisolone, cyclopentolate, oral azithromycin, intravitreal clindamycin and the later addition of oral prednisone, this patient’s chorioretinitis eventually resolved with minimal ocular complication.

References

Faculty Perceptions of the Impact of Electronic Medical and Health Records in Optometric Education in the United States and Puerto Rico
Aurora Denial OD, FAAO, Daniel Bastian OD, FAAO, Gary Chu, OD, MPH, FAAO, and Amy Moy OD, FAAO | Optometric Education: Volume 43 Number 3 (Summer 2018)

PDF of Article

Introduction

In 2001, the Institute of Medicine, which was established by the National Academy of Sciences as an independent advisory organization, advocated for the extensive use of information technology that would "lead to the elimination of most handwritten clinical data by the end of the decade." This information technology (digital records) became known as electronic health records (EHRs) and electronic medical records (EMRs). EMRs are digital medical records that contain the standard medical and clinical data collected in one provider's office. EMRs were designed to reduce medical errors and improve quality of care. Although the content can vary, most EMRs include clinical documentation (notes), patient data (demographics, lab results, problem/diagnosis list, medication list, psychosocial history, other test results), computerized order entry for medications and tests, clinical messaging, and decision support systems (alerts, warnings, reminders). EHRs are a digital collection of individual office visits (EMRs) and other health information. EHRs go beyond the information collected by one office or provider. EHRs can be shared and provide information about an individual or populations. As such they have the potential to enhance clinical care and impact research, public health policies and education.

Digital records are a tool for documenting healthcare information and data used in caring for a patient. An important question to ask is whether this tool goes beyond documentation and has an impact on other areas such as student learning. Clinical reasoning, the cognitive process that clinicians use to care for patients, is based on data, information and evidence. Clinical reasoning can be defined as "thinking through the various aspects of patient care to arrive at a reasonable decision regarding the prevention, diagnosis or treatment of a clinical problem in a specific patient." The digital record is a new method of documenting the data and information that can be used to drive the clinical reasoning process of clinicians.

Statistical data have shown a widespread increase in the use of digital records among healthcare providers and hospitals over the past few years. The Office of the National Coordinator for Health Information Technology reported in 2015 that 3 out of 4 (76%) non-federal acute care hospitals had adopted at least a basic digital record, and more than 8 out of 10 (83%) physicians had adopted a digital records system.

Digital records are also becoming commonplace in academic healthcare settings. In recent years, all optometric education institutions in the United States have implemented a digital record system in at least their main academic clinics. In medical education, several advantages and disadvantages of increased digital records use have been identified. Advantages include ease of reviewing notes, availability of information, medical support tools, ease of organizing notes, and potential use of patient registries. Disadvantages include increased time spent charting, impact on clinical reasoning, impact on the development of student/patient rapport, and information overload.

There is a paucity of information available about the use of digital records in optometric education. A search of PubMed, Medline, and VisionCite using the MeSH terms "electronic medical record" or "electronic health record" and "optometry teaching environments" or "optometric health care education" yielded no relevant articles. The purposes of this exploratory study were to gather information about the use of digital records in academic optometric settings in the United States and Puerto Rico and to assess faculty perceptions of the potential impact and implications of digital records in the teaching and learning process.

Methods

All faculty members who were listed in the Association of Schools and Colleges of Optometry database as having clinical responsibilities were eligible for inclusion in the study. In May 2016, a link to a survey was e-mailed to 790 optometric faculty members who met the inclusion criteria. The survey consisted of 35 questions and sought information about the demographics of faculty users of digital records, and about the implementation, use and impact of digital records in clinical education. Seven
of the questions were multiple-choice, four of the questions required a yes/no response, and 21 of the questions required a response along a four-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = strongly agree). A comment section was included.

Instrumentation

The survey was initially developed from a review of the literature and the investigators’ clinical experience. A draft of the survey was fine-tuned by a focus group consisting of five clinical educators from the New England College of Optometry. The focus group refined questions and provided feedback on the readability and soundness of each question. To aid in simplicity, the terms EMR and EHR were used interchangeably in the survey. The intention was for faculty to reflect on the digital records used in their clinical setting. The survey was administered via the web-based system SurveyMonkey®. The survey was re-sent to all potential participants two weeks after the initial deployment. The formatting of the survey by SurveyMonkey® ensured that each participant could only respond once. Information obtained by the survey was confidential and anonymous. The survey is shown in Appendix A.

Data analysis

All data analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS version 25 (Chicago, IL) with alpha set at p < 0.05. Measures of central tendency were conducted for all continuous variables, and percent and proportions were calculated for all categorical variables. Within-subjects analysis of variance with the Bonferroni technique to control for inflated Type I error was employed to determine differences among survey items. A series of Spearman’s rho correlations was conducted to determine the relationships between items from the survey and the following demographic variables: (a) age, (b) years practicing optometry, (c) years using EMRs, (d) number of clinical students, and (e) months using the current EMR system. Results of the a priori power analysis using G*Power (V3.1) software indicated a sample of N = 67 to achieve a moderate effect size of 0.30 with a 0.80 power and alpha set at p < 0.05 (two-tailed). The comments were analyzed using a grounded theory approach. The authors identified relevant comments with emerging themes and reached a consensus on the themes.

The study was reviewed by the Institutional Review Board at the New England College of Optometry and given an exempt status.

Results

The final overall response rate for the survey was 34% (265) of the clinical faculty members from optometry schools in the United States and Puerto Rico. The assumptions for linearity and normality were met for all variables.

![Table 1](Click to enlarge)

**Table 1.**

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**Table 2.**

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![Table 2](Click to enlarge)
The median age of the respondents was between 36-45 years (mean 44 years). Respondents had 4-7 years of digital record experience. Thirty-two percent of the respondents had been practicing for more than 25 years. Eighty-seven percent of the respondents practiced in an optometric institution’s eye clinic, 11% in a community health center, and 2% in a private practice setting. The Compulink system was the most used overall (48%). Eighty-six percent of the respondents reported using digital records specifically designed for eye care, and 96% reported using paper charts in the past. The majority of participants (66%) indicated that they felt students were well-trained in the use of digital records before arriving in clinic, and 84% indicated that students were exposed to using a digital record system in the preclinical environment. Most faculty (78%) reported being comfortable using their current digital record, and 69% reported not receiving formal training in the use of digital records as a teaching tool. The majority of respondents (85%) reported that students had authority to enter data into the EMR; 91% reported students could enter medication updates; 93% reported students could enter allergies; and 89% reported students could enter tests and interpretations. This data is shown in Table 1.

Statistically significant differences were found among the challenges in using digital records in a teaching environment $F(5, 259) = 79.52, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.62$. Pairwise comparisons using the Bonferroni technique to control for inflated Type I error indicated that time for documentation is the greatest challenge, while too much data is the least challenging. Descriptive statistics related to challenges in using digital records are presented in Table 2. Statistically significant differences were also found among the advantages in using digital records in a teaching environment $F(3, 262) = 128.96, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.60$. Pairwise comparisons using the Bonferroni technique indicated that legibility of records and ability to access past records easily are the greatest advantages, while use of templates is the least advantageous. Descriptive statistics related to advantages in using digital records are presented in Table 3.

The majority of faculty (74%) reported that time spent by students and faculty for documentation in the digital record takes away from time spent teaching. Respondents were split 50/50 on the perception of a digital record as a useful learning tool. The majority (78%) did not agree with the statement “The EHR has positively impacted my enthusiasm for teaching.”

Fifty-eight percent of the respondents perceived that the inherent prompts (i.e., templates) and layout of a digital record system hinder students’ development of clinical reasoning. Fifty-two percent of the respondents reported that they give students their undivided attention including direct eye contact during case presentation. Fifty-nine percent of the respondents did not agree with the statement “As a clinical instructor, I tend to rely more on information from the EHR than a student’s oral case presentation.”

Student behaviors as reported by faculty are impacted by digital records in frequency of copying and pasting data (67%...
agreed), relying more on information contained in the EHR rather than directly questioning the patient (57% agreed), writing before entering data into the computer (62% agreed), and ability to maintain eye contact with the patient during case history (85% agreed). Table 4 lists responses to survey questions. Table 5 lists descriptive statistics.

There were statistically significant correlations between faculty age and their (a) experience using a digital record system, and (b) the number of students they supervise in the clinic at a given time. The relationships between the demographic variables with the items from the survey are shown in Table 6. According to the data, older respondents and those practicing longer are statistically more likely to agree with items Q15 (time spent by faculty for documentation within the EMR system takes away from teaching), Q19 (during case presentation, my student has my undivided attention including direct eye contact), Q26 (the use of EMRs has specifically impacted the students’ ability to maintain eye contact with patients during the case history), and Q29 (I received formal faculty development training in the use of EMRs as a teaching tool).

In addition, longer-time users of digital records are statistically more likely to agree with items Q19 and Q26. However, older respondents are less likely to agree with Q25 (students tend to rely more on information contained in the EHR rather than directly questioning the patient) and Q20 (the instantaneous availability of information contained in the EMR has inhibited eliciting information from students). No statistically significant relationships were found between months using the current EMR system and any of the survey items.

Finally, instructors with more clinical students are statistically more likely to agree with items Q21 (students frequently copy and paste information from a previous record into the current EMR) and Q32 (EMRs propagate erroneous information). In contrast, instructors who were supervising fewer clinical students are statistically more likely to agree with items Q18 (as a clinical instructor, I tend to rely more of information from the EMR than a student’s oral case presentation) and Q22 (to aid in efficiency, I frequently use information from EMRs to monitor students’ activity in the exam room prior to speaking with students).
Table 7 depicts faculty comments related to teaching and the use of digital records. Qualitative analysis revealed a theme of decreased time for teaching with the use of digital records. Most of the comments expressed the challenges related to teaching and EMRs. However, two comments expressed the advantages of EMRs in teaching. Table 8 depicts comments related to clinical reasoning and the use of digital records. Qualitative analysis revealed a theme of a negative impact on the development of critical thinking related to the use of digital records. All comments expressed a negative sentiment with regards to the development of clinical reasoning skills.

Discussion

The implementation of digital healthcare records in optometric settings has necessitated an evaluation of this method of documentation within the academic setting. In the survey, faculty perceptions of the potential impact and implications of digital records in the teaching and learning process focused on time for clinical teaching, student behaviors, and the development of clinical reasoning. Information gathered about the use of digital records addresses preparing students for success in patient care, which includes appropriate documentation in digital health records and clinical communication.

Student usage of the individual components of digital records

The majority of respondents indicated that students have the authority to enter data into the digital record, including updates of current medications, allergies, and tests and interpretation. Student use of EMRs is an important component in the educational process. The Association of Schools and College of Optometry states, “The school or college of optometry shall ensure that before graduation each student will have demonstrated: effective communication skills, both oral and written, as appropriate for maximizing successful patient care outcomes.” Additionally, the Accreditation Council on Optometric Education dictates that the optometric curriculum must prepare graduates for entry level practice, which includes the following standards:

- 2.9.1 The graduate must be able to identify, record and analyze pertinent history and problems presented by the patient.
- 2.9.8 The graduate must be able to effectively communicate orally and in writing with other professionals and patients.
- 8.2.4 The patient record must allow for efficient review of the patient’s condition and any pertinent previous care provided at the program’s clinical facility.

Appropriate documentation is a learned skill and an essential component of patient care. Students must be given the opportunity to practice and receive feedback in all areas of documentation to ensure they achieve competency by graduation. In medical education, it is an accepted belief that student documentation enhances patient care and the student’s education. Gliatto et al. state that “this hands-on experience has provided a way for students to reflect on patient encounters, learn proper documentation skills and attain a sense of being actively involved in and responsible for the care of patients.” The survey revealed that in most sections of the digital record students have the authority to enter data. The majority (85%) of optometric sites and instructors give students the authority to document in the EMR. This gives the students the opportunity to learn and practice documentation skills. In contrast, Wittels et al. found that only 63% of emergency medicine clerkships allowed medical students to document a patient encounter. These differences may reflect differences in billing policies, patient safety issues or environments (inpatient hospital care vs. outpatient care). According to the survey, optometry students participate less in some sections, such as data for billing, demographics, generating referrals, ordering additional tests, and ordering additional medications, than in other sections. Student documentation in all sections should be encouraged to provide a comprehensive educational experience.

Impact on teaching

Based on the survey responses, time spent on documentation by both students and faculty reduces the amount of time available for clinical teaching. The majority of comments related to teaching loudly echoed a concern for lost teaching time. Older respondents and those practicing longer were more likely to agree that faculty documentation within the digital record takes away from teaching. This may reflect differences in comfort levels related to technology and learning. Most clinical faculty are responsible for providing a high level of patient care, maintaining clinical productivity and educating students. In any given clinical session, there is a limited amount of time. In most clinical environments, a constant high level of patient care while maintaining productivity is necessary to ensure financial stability. Therefore, clinical teaching becomes vulnerable to any reduction in time. An important question to ask is why documentation in digital records is so slow. Slowness in documentation could be attributed to the inherent design of digital records, changes in student behaviors, or inadequate/ineffective training. The survey revealed that most faculty members feel that students are exposed to digital records in the preclinical environment and are well-trained before arriving in clinic. However, the study did not determine the students’ level of skill after training, type of training or the specific amount of time dedicated to training, which may influence the speed of documentation. Student behaviors such as writing findings on paper before entering data into the computer could contribute to a slower and less
efficient student. The reasons some students write before entering data was not explored in the study. Theoretically, students may write before entering data because they are not confident in their findings or efficient in the use of the computer or data entry. Seventeen percent of the respondents perceived that student documentation allows more time to teach. This group tended to be younger with less years in practice.

Faculty members were split on the potential use of digital records as a tool for assisting teaching and learning. Younger respondents with fewer years in practice were more likely to agree that digital records are a useful tool to assist in teaching and promote learning. The most significant advantages of digital records identified were ability to access past records, ability to access patient information, and legibility of records. In a national study by Hammoud, these same advantages were identified in medical education. Theoretically, these characteristics have the potential to aid in teaching and learning. However, the advantages afforded by digital records may be offset by the perceived loss of teaching time.

**Student behaviors**

Identifying changes in student behaviors related to digital records as perceived by faculty can be helpful in guiding teaching strategies. The ability to maintain eye contact with a patient during case history and the use of the copy and paste features were perceived changes in student behavior related to the use of digital records. Faculty who were older, practiced longer and had been using digital records longer were more likely to agree with the students’ loss of eye contact. Most faculty agreed that the design of the exam room had not been adjusted to maximize communication while using a digital record. Faculty who felt that the layout of the exam room had been modified tended to be younger with fewer years in practice. The ability to communicate and develop a relationship with the patient is an essential tool in rendering a high level of patient care. Poor eye contact while using digital records reflects poor communication skills and may impact the development of rapport with the patient. Students in the preclinical environment need to develop and practice communication skills that allow for the gathering of appropriate data while fully maintaining eye contact and efficiently entering data into the digital record. Suggestions for improving eye contact may include altering exam room layout to maximize communication, instructing the student to look at the patient and move away from the keyboard during the case history, and using defined breaks from conversations with patients to enter data.

The tendency for students to copy and paste information was perceived by a majority of survey respondents. This has serious consequences related to ethics, medical errors and propagation of incorrect information. In 2001, a study within the Veterans Administration System revealed that “20% of notes showed evidence of copying with an average of 1.01 errors per copied note.” In a 2009 physician survey, 90% of the physicians who wrote notes used the copy and paste function. In optometric education, anecdotal information indicates that many students copy and paste information as a means of decreasing documentation time. In clinic, students are learning and it is the clinical instructor’s job to instruct them on the potential negative consequences related to copying and pasting information. All institutions and clinical environments should have a clear policy on copying and pasting during documentation. Unethical practices, poor patient care and increased liability should not be a mere click away.

**Clinical reasoning**

One of the goals of clinical teaching is the development of clinical reasoning. Faculty perceived digital records to impact the development of clinical reasoning in three areas: student reliance on templates, use of copy and paste features, and the presentation of clinical data/thought process. Most digital records contain multiple templates as well as the capability of adding free text. The majority of faculty in this study (58%) perceived digital records to hinder the development of clinical reasoning. This perception was also reiterated in the faculty comments on clinical reasoning. In medical education, a major challenge of digital records was the potential barrier to the development of clinical reasoning skills.

Clinical reasoning involves gathering, synthesizing, analyzing and critically reviewing information/data. Historically, questioning during the case history allows the clinician to gather information, generate an initial hypothesis and refine the hypothesis based on a patient’s response. The use of templates can impact reasoning because questions are asked as dictated by the template and not by the student’s thought process. Therefore, and in order to ensure that a student is applying clinical reasoning, faculty should challenge the student’s thought process to demonstrate that adequate skill, advancement and progression are achieved.

Another potential barrier to the development of clinical reasoning skills is the copying and pasting of information, specifically the assessment/diagnosis and management. The majority of faculty agreed in the survey that students utilize this feature. Respondents with more students to supervise were more likely to agree that students too frequently copied and pasted information from a previous record into the current digital record. Perhaps faculty with more supervisees are more exposed to repetitious notes and thus are more able to detect frequent copying and pasting. The final assessment/diagnosis and
management lists represent coming to a conclusion by gathering, analyzing and evaluating appropriate information, examining assumptions and identifying any biases. If students are allowed to copy and paste this part of the note, it may negatively influence the development of clinical reasoning skills.

Student case presentation represents the oral presentation of data and a student’s clinical reasoning. A majority of faculty (64%), especially those who were younger with fewer years in practice, indicated using digital records to get information to monitor a student’s activity, and (66%) indicated using digital records to aid in instructor decision-making before student case presentation. Additionally, 59% of the respondents reported relying on information from the student’s oral case presentation rather than the digital record, and 52% indicated that students have the clinical faculty member’s undivided attention during case presentation. As an educational tool, case presentation allows the clinical instructor the opportunity to gain insight into a student’s reasoning while allowing the student the opportunity to perfect the skill. In medicine, case presentation can take 2-7 minutes. Clinical faculty often balance the more efficient acquisition of information from a digital record with the educational experience of case presentation. Student need, productivity requirements and patient care may dictate during any given patient encounter where and how information is acquired. In the survey, age, years in practice and years using digital records were associated with providing undivided attention to students, which suggests that experienced clinicians might more easily recognize the value and educational benefit of case presentation.

Interestingly, respondents with fewer students were more likely to rely on information from the digital record than on the student’s oral case presentation. One possible explanation is that faculty with fewer students may have a better understanding of their students’ abilities and can with greater confidence simply rely on the digital record rather than investing in the time of an oral case presentation. This explanation is partially supported by the fact that respondents with fewer students are also more likely to use information from the digital record to monitor students’ activity in the exam room prior to speaking with students.

The goals of clinical faculty are to educate and take care of patients. The value of case presentation must be recognized and balanced with the efficient acquisition of information.

Limitations of the study

The study was limited by the sample size, lack of data related to respondents’ specific institution, blurring of the terms EMR and EMR in the survey, and lack of specificity in some of the questions. The overall response rate to the survey was 34%, representing 265 respondents. The individual response rate for each question varied between 265-252 respondents because a response to each question was not mandatory to complete the survey. There is no agreement in the literature on acceptable response rates. However, response bias or non-response error is always more of a risk with a lower response rate. Data were not collected related to the name of each respondent’s institution. This may have introduced a bias if, for example, a large number of faculty from one institution responded. In the survey, the participants were instructed to use the terms EHR and EMR interchangeably. Although the digital record that most faculty are completing after each encounter is an EMR, the interchangeable use of the terms may have blurred the specific components of the digital record that were impacted. In hindsight, more specificity in some of the questions such as the length and type of training received by students and faculty, level of expertise in using digital records, type of data or text that students copy and paste, and the specific level of impact on enthusiasm for teaching would have been helpful.

Conclusion

Digital records constitute the present and future landscape of health care and have become a vital component of clinical care. The results of this study indicate that students have authority to use several parts of the digital record. Further, the results indicate that time related to documentation within digital records impacts the educational process. Additionally, the study indicates that faculty perceive digital records as having an impact on student behaviors and the development of clinical reasoning skills. Age, years in practice and years using digital records are indicators for the perception of faculty documentation affecting teaching time, providing undivided attention to students during case presentation, and the perception of an impact in student eye contact with patients. To maximize use of digital records in patient care and clinical education, tools such as educational guidelines and template assistance need to be developed to guide faculty and students during the teaching and learning process. The study raises several issues for future investigation, including what specifically about digital records takes more time, whether the training and skill level of students impact the time for documentation, whether digital records impact enthusiasm for clinical optometric teaching, what specific type of training is received by faculty, what is the impact of the training, how template design impacts the development of clinical reasoning skills. In an effort to develop educational strategies, future areas of research may include students’ perception of digital records, Medicare compliance, ethics and medical errors, implementation strategies and lessons learned from past experiences.
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Appendix A.

A. A complete list of references is provided in the online version of this manuscript.

1. Reference 1
2. Reference 2
3. Reference 3
4. Reference 4
5. Reference 5
6. Reference 6
7. Reference 7
8. Reference 8
9. Reference 9
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B. Additional information and supplementary data are included in the online version of this manuscript.

11. Additional Information 1
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C. Contact information for the corresponding author is available in the online version of this manuscript.

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