

Ocular manifestations of HIV/AIDS: A literature review* (Part 1)

P Govender^a, R Hansraj^b, KS Naidoo^c and L Visser^d

^{a, b, c} *Discipline of Optometry, School of Physiotherapy, Sport Science and Optometry, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Westville Campus, Private Bag X54001, Durban, 4000 South Africa*

^d *Department of Ophthalmology, Nelson R. Mandela School of Medicine, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Umbilo Road, Durban, 4000 South Africa*

^{a, c} *International Center for Eyecare Education, 172 Umbilo Road, Durban, 4000 South Africa*

^c *African Vision Research Institute, 172 Umbilo Road, Durban, 4000 South Africa*

*<govenderp@ukzn.ac.za>

Received 3 June 2010; revised version accepted 19 November 2010

Introduction

Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV), is a retrovirus which causes Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS)^{1, 2}. Since its discovery in 1981, HIV/AIDS has emerged as a global health problem³. The prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS has been reported to be 0.8% globally, 5% in Sub-Saharan Africa and 18.8% in South Africa^{4, 5}. The impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic has spurred much research into the disease and its various systemic and ocular complications. Maclean⁶ first described the ocular manifestations of HIV infection more than 20 years ago. The ocular manifestations of HIV/AIDS have been for the most part due to the opportunistic infections and neoplasias that accompany the syndrome⁷. The evolution of HIV and the appearance of new strains of the virus have however, changed the incidence of the disease with resultant changes in AIDS-related eye diseases and blindness. Research has indicated that anti-retroviral

therapy has also modified the clinical progression of the disease⁸. The HIV virus has been found in the tear film and other ocular structures such as the cornea, vitreous and chorioretinal tissue⁹. Ocular manifestations have been reported in 70 to 100% of individuals infected with HIV^{10, 11}. The ocular manifestations may involve the adnexae and anterior and posterior segments of the eye. In addition, HIV/AIDS also presents with orbital and neuro-ophthalmic manifestations¹¹. Anterior segment involvement usually results in tumours and external infections while posterior segment involvement usually results in HIV-retinopathy and a number of opportunistic infections of the retina and the choroid⁸.

Early detection of the ocular manifestations of HIV/AIDS is critical since these ocular manifestations may be the primary presentation of the systemic infection¹². This has implications for the prognosis of the disease.

It is difficult to review this topic in one article

^a BOptom (UDW) CAS (NECO) MOptom (UKZN)

^b BOptom (UDW) CAS (NECO) MOptom (UDW) PhD (UKZN)

^c BSc BOptom (UDW) MPH (Temple) OD (PCO) PhD (UNSW)

^d MBChB (Pret) MMED (Ophth) (Natal) FCOphth (SA)

*This paper is based on work by P Govender towards a Masters degree in the Discipline of Optometry of the University of KwaZulu-Natal with the supervision of Professor KS Naidoo and Drs R Hansraj and L Visser



considering the huge body of literature that exists on the ocular manifestations of HIV/AIDS. Therefore, this article is the first (Part 1) of a two part series reviewing this issue. Part one will cover adnexal and anterior segment findings while part two will cover posterior, orbital, neuro-ophthalmic and iatrogenic manifestations of HIV/AIDS.

Adnexal Manifestations of HIV/AIDS

Adnexal manifestations are restricted to the eyelid, the conjunctiva and the lacrimal drainage system. The most common adnexal manifestations include herpes zoster ophthalmicus (HZO), Kaposi sarcoma, molluscum contagiosum and conjunctival microvasculopathy⁸. Conditions such as blepharitis or blepharoconjunctivitis and keratoconjunctivitis sicca are generally listed as anterior segment manifestations¹³, however, are addressed as adnexal manifestations based on the anatomical classifications used in this article.

Keratoconjunctivitis Sicca (KCS)

Keratoconjunctivitis sicca has been noted as one of the most common ocular anterior segment complications and has been reported in about 20% of HIV positive individuals^{14, 15}. The reported symptoms include foreign body sensation, photophobia and decreased visual acuity as a result of KCS¹⁴. Anecdotal reports have also suggested that individuals with KCS are more susceptible to bacterial keratitis and abnormalities in the composition of the tear film. Although the exact pathogenesis of these changes is unclear in HIV-infected individuals¹⁶ researchers have suggested that the condition is attributed to HIV-mediated inflammation, direct damage to the accessory and major lacrimal glands¹² and in addition, lymphocytic infiltration of the lacrimal gland¹³.

Blepharitis and blepharoconjunctivitis

Although blepharitis has not been studied in detail in HIV-infected individuals¹⁶ owing to the scholarly demands of understanding the more severe, blinding disorders, it has been found to be more common and more serious in HIV-infected individuals¹³. The condition could be attributed to a reduced ability to

control the normal flora that the eye is exposed to or to more complex changes that occur in the cutaneous glands of the eyelids with immunosuppression¹⁷. Jeng *et al*¹⁶ noted that the symptoms of blepharitis in HIV-infected individuals could be heightened due to the concurrent dry eye. The lid and conjunctival disease associated with recurrent ocular herpes simplex can occur as blepharitis, blepharoconjunctivitis and follicular conjunctivitis¹⁸.

Herpes Zoster Ophthalmicus (HZO)

HZO is a painful vesiculobullous dermatitis which results from a reactivation of Varicella-Zoster virus infection¹⁹. Literature has suggested that HZO might be the initial clinical manifestation of HIV infection in young individuals²⁰, particularly those younger than 50 years of age 21-23. Pavan-Langston²⁴ showed that HIV-positive individuals have a 15 to 25 times greater prevalence of HZO than the general population. The most common predisposing factor to developing HZO is age. However, other factors include neoplasm, HIV infection, trauma, irradiation, immunosuppression, surgery or debilitating systemic disease^{19, 25}.

Varicella-Zoster Virus (VZV) is a double-stranded DNA virus of the herpes family which causes HZO. VZV causes Varicella (chicken pox) upon initial infection and shingles or zoster on recurrence²⁶. Initial infection occurs when the virus comes in contact with the mucosa of the respiratory tract or conjunctiva. The virus is then distributed throughout the body through mononuclear cells in the blood while it spreads from cell to cell through direct contact in the tissues²⁷. After the primary infection, the virus migrates along the sensory nerve fibers to the satellite cells of the dorsal root ganglion of the trigeminal nerve where it remains dormant. The dormancy may be permanent or the virus may become reactivated when there is a decrease in cellular immunity, thereby resulting in herpes zoster²⁶. Once reactivated, the virus travels from the ganglion along the sensory nerve (that is, the ophthalmic division of the trigeminal nerve) to the skin, eye and adnexae. The ophthalmic division of the trigeminal nerve is involved 20 times more frequently than the maxillary and mandibular divisions of the trigeminal nerve¹⁹. The initial infection with the virus usually confers lifelong protection against subsequent



attacks however, in about 20% of cases, reactivation occurs and is more common in immune-compromised individuals like those who are organ transplant recipients, those who suffer from AIDS, neoplasm or blood dyscrasia²⁵. The extreme pain and post-herpetic neuralgia experienced by those infected is thought to result from tissue destruction and neuronal changes in the ganglion²⁶.



Figure 1. Vesiculobullous dermatitis of Herpes Zoster Ophthalmicus (Photo Courtesy of Dr Linda Visser)

Manifestation of HZO usually begins as pain over the first division of the trigeminal nerve. This pain lasts for several days and is followed by erythematous macules which progress within days into papules and vesicles and later pustules (see Figure 1) which rupture and crust¹⁹. The skin manifestations respect the vertical midline strictly unlike that of Herpes Simplex virus²⁷. When the nasociliary branch is involved, a vesicle may appear on the tip or side of the nose. This is referred to as Hutchinson's sign and has been identified as a clinical predictor of ocular involvement^{19, 28}. HZO can result in various ocular pathologies including vesicular eruptions on the eyelids, blepharitis which can lead to secondary bacterial infection, eyelid scarring, marginal notching, madarosis, trichiasis and cicatricial entropion. A ptosis secondary to the oedema and inflammation has also been observed¹⁹.

Corneal involvement is present in approximately 65% of cases of HZO²⁴. The earliest manifestation of corneal involvement is epithelial keratitis characterised by multiple, focal swollen lesions which stain better with Rose Bengal than fluorescein²⁶. These lesions form a branching pattern with tapering ends, contain live virus and may either resolve or progress into dendrites which appear as elevated plaques and consist of swollen epithelial cells¹⁹. In addition to these classic symptoms and lesions, other common manifestations include conjunctivitis, scleritis,

episcleritis, keratitis, iridocyclitis, Argyll-Robertson pupil, glaucoma, retinitis, choroiditis, optic neuritis, optic atrophy, retrobulbar neuritis, exophthalmos, lid retraction, ptosis and extra-ocular muscle palsies²⁷.

Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV)

HSV is a DNA virus that often infects humans. HSV infection is spread by direct contact with infectious secretions from infected carriers. HSV type 1 is commonly responsible for oral and ocular infections while HSV type 2 is responsible for genital infections²⁹. However, it is not uncommon to find HSV type 2 involved in oral and ocular infection and HSV type 1 in genital infection. Primary infection with HSV can develop at any age²⁹. Adnexal manifestations of primary ocular HSV infection include blistering of the periorbital skin and blepharoconjunctivitis²⁹. The peri-orbital skin blisters can spread extensively on the facial skin.

Kaposi Sarcoma

Kaposi Sarcoma (KS) is caused by Kaposi Sarcoma-associated Herpes Virus (KSHV), an organism which remains the most common cause of KS in HIV/AIDS patients^{30, 31}. KS presents as a painless mesenchymal-derived vascular tumour that often affects the skin and mucous membranes that line the mouth, nose and anus³². Lesions originate from endothelial cells in multifocal sites in the mid-dermis and extend to the epidermis³³. Until the early 1980's, KS was a very rare disease that was found mainly in equatorial Africa and eastern Europe. In Africa it made up about 9% of all neoplasms among African blacks⁷. Since the AIDS epidemic it is believed to spread more rapidly in Africa among homosexual men with AIDS⁷. KS occurs in about 25% of patients who are HIV positive¹⁴. Approximately 20% of these individuals develop asymptomatic lesions on the eyelids, conjunctiva and in rare cases the orbit^{16, 25}.

Skin and/or mucous membranes lesions appear as red or purple lesions which spread to other organs in the body, such as the lungs, liver or gastro-intestinal tract³². The appearance of KS on the eyelids is similar to that of KS lesions elsewhere on the skin while conjunctival KS appears as a persistent subconjunctival haemorrhage (see Figure 2) or as a raised purplish-red mass^{8, 14, 24}. Conjunctival lesions are most frequently seen in the inferior fornix as nodular or diffuse lesions.



Figure 2. Kaposi sarcoma on the bulbar conjunctiva (Photo Courtesy of Dr Linda Visser)

Molluscum Contagiosum (MC)

Molluscum contagiosum is a highly contagious dermatitis that is caused by the DNA poxvirus and may affect the skin or mucous membranes¹⁸. MC occurs in children, sexually active adults and immune-compromised patients³⁶. MC is spread by direct contact in children and through sexual activity in adults. The lesions appear as multiple, small, painless, umbilicated lesions (see Figure 3) which release poxvirus particles into the tears, resulting in an associated toxic keratoconjunctivitis. Lesions become quite large and often more numerous and more rapidly growing in HIV infected individuals¹⁴. Molluscum contagiosum is found in 5 to 18% of patients with HIV/AIDS^{15, 25, 37}. Eyelid lesions which occur on the eyelid and conjunctiva have been found in up to 5% of HIV infected people^{14, 35, 38}. KC lesions are self-limiting with spontaneous resolution which takes months to years³⁹.



Figure 3. Molluscum contagiosum lesions in a HIV negative child (Photo Courtesy of Dr Linda Visser)

Conjunctival Microvasculopathy

There are several conjunctival microvascular changes that are commonly seen in HIV positive individuals and some have been observed in as many as 70-80% of HIV positive individuals¹¹. The changes include capillary dilatation, irregular

vessel caliber and microaneurysms⁴⁰. Conjunctival microvascular changes correlate with the presence of retinal microvasculopathy²⁵. The microvasculopathy is believed to be due to increased plasma viscosity and immune-complex deposition, however, a specific etiology is not known²⁵. Tufail *et al*⁴¹ suggested that the severity of conjunctival microvascular changes correlated with increased zeta sedimentation ratios, that is, the measure of red cell aggregation, and with fibrinogen levels. Direct infection of the conjunctival vascular endothelium has also been suggested as a possible cause of microvascular changes²⁵.

Anterior Segment Ocular Manifestations of HIV/AIDS

Anterior segment manifestations of HIV/AIDS have been noted in about 50% of HIV-infected individuals¹⁵ and include corneal infection (keratitis) and anterior chamber inflammation (iridocyclitis). Common symptoms include irritation, pain, photophobia and decreased vision.

Infectious Keratitis

Infectious keratitis in HIV-infected individuals may be caused by viral, bacterial, fungal or protozoan infections^{38, 42}. It has been noted that the etiologic and epidemiologic pattern of corneal ulceration varies with patient population, geographical location and climate and has most commonly been caused by VZV and Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV) in HIV positive individuals⁴². When it occurs due to VZV, the keratitis is associated with HZO, with or without the presence of dermatitis. Keratitis due to VZV and HSV, has been found to recur quite frequently in HIV positive individuals and has been found to be resistant to treatment¹¹. Keratitis due to bacterial or fungal causes has not been found to be more common in HIV positive individuals. However, when found, its severity is greater. The most common fungal organisms have been found to be candida, especially in intravenous drug users while microsporidia has emerged as a very common protozoan opportunistic organism²⁵.

Varicella-Zoster Virus Keratitis

Varicella Zoster Virus (VZV) has been reported to be the second most common ocular pathogen in HIV-

infected individuals⁴³. Following primary infection by the VZV, reactivation can occur and presents as HZO which may occur with or without dermatitis. Clinical features of HZO may be due to direct viral infection, antigen-antibody reactions, delayed cell-mediated hypersensitivity reactions or neurotrophic damage¹⁹. VZV like HSV establishes a latency period after primary infection due to their morphological similarities. Reactivation of the disease occurs when the host individual's immune system is compromised. The keratitis occurs in less than 5% of HIV positive individuals and can result in permanent vision loss when there is corneal involvement^{15, 25}. The lesions contain live virus and may resolve or progress to dendrites which present 4 to 6 days after infection. The dendrites appear as elevated plaques and consist of swollen epithelial cells. The lesions present with tapered ends compared to the terminal end bulbs seen with HSV.

Herpes Simplex Keratitis (HSK)

HSK is caused by KSV, the same DNA virus that causes the adnexal manifestations of periorbital blisters and blepharoconjunctivitis. HSK is characterised by painful, recurrent corneal ulcerations which bear a characteristic branching or dendritic pattern⁸. While the incidence of herpes simplex keratitis does not appear to be higher in individuals with AIDS, Rao⁴⁴ observed it to have a more prolonged course while Hodge and Margolis⁴⁵ found only the recurrence rate affected while the clinical course and incidence unaffected between HIV positive and negative individuals.

Other common sequelae found in primary ocular HSV infection include stromal scarring and uveitis in addition to the adnexal abnormalities. The conjunctivitis is typically follicular and is usually accompanied by pre-auricular lymphadenopathy. According to Suresh and Tullo²⁹ the keratitis develops within a few days in 30-50% of cases after conjunctival involvement. The corneal lesions range from superficial punctate keratitis, stellate epithelial lesions, microdendrites, dendritic ulceration or geographic ulceration²⁹. On simple observation, the infected epithelial cells appear as opaque lesions which form white plaques. However, on extensive examination, typically centrally located dendritic ulceration can be observed (see Figure 4). The exact mechanism of

dendrite formation is not known, however, research indicates that it is related to the linear spread of the virus from cell to cell in a contiguous manner²⁹.

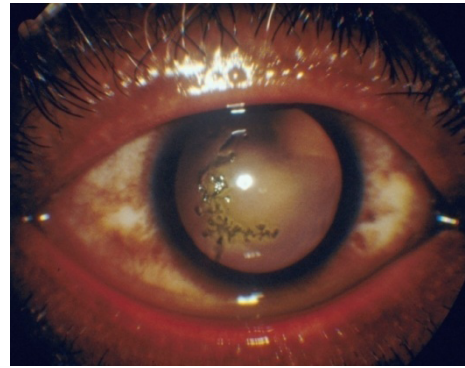


Figure 4. Herpes Simplex Dendritic ulcer (Photo Courtesy of Dr Linda Visser)

Bacterial keratitis

The most common pathogens causing bacterial keratitis include *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Staphylococcus epidermis* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*⁴⁶. Bacterial keratitis represents an opportunistic infection of the avascular corneal stroma and it is initiated by a breakdown of the epithelial barrier⁴⁷.

Fungal keratitis

Candida species are the most common fungal organisms causing keratitis in HIV positive individuals, especially in intravenous drug users while other fungal organisms also include *Fusarium* or *Aspergillus* species²⁵. Immune-suppression in HIV positive individuals predisposes them to infection by these fungal organisms with resultant fungal infections presenting with greater severity¹⁴. The non-filamentous fungi (*Candida* species) are very common in already compromised eyes, particularly immune-compromised eyes while filamentous fungi (For example, *Fusarium* or *Aspergillus* species) are seen in association with trauma with vegetable matter.

Microsporidia

Microsporidia are obligate intracellular protozoan parasites belonging to Phylum Microsporidia⁴⁸. There are approximately 14 different species that have been identified as human pathogens which are capable of causing intestinal, sinus, pulmonary, ocular, muscular and renal disease in both immune-competent and immune-compromised individuals^{48, 49}. Five species

have been identified in HIV positive individuals, however, the most commonly identified organism in HIV infected individuals is *Enterocytozoan Bieneusi* which is commonly observed in individuals with CD4+ lymphocyte counts of less than 50 cells/mm³. Ocular manifestations though uncommon, include keratoconjunctivitis (which is most commonly seen in immune-compromised individuals) and stromal keratitis (which is most commonly seen in immune-competent individuals).

Iridocyclitis

Uveitis presents as one of the earlier signs of several chronic infections that are frequently observed in HIV infected individuals which include tuberculosis, syphilis, histoplasmosis, coccidioidomycosis and toxoplasmosis⁸. Mild iridocyclitis is often associated with retinitis due to CMV or VZV while severe iridocyclitis is seen in association with ocular toxoplasmosis, tuberculosis, syphilis or rarely bacterial or fungal retinitis²⁵. Medications prescribed for HIV positive individuals, like rifabutin or cidofovir can also cause iridocyclitis. Cells in the anterior chamber, keratic precipitates, posterior synechiae, segmental iris necrosis and hypopyon are among the clinical signs of anterior uveitis^{8, 29}. According to Cunningham and Margolis¹¹, uveitis in HIV positive individuals is usually due to posterior segment disease with the most common being CMV retinitis.

Part two of the review series will comprise the posterior segment, neuro-ophthalmic and iatrogenic manifestations of HIV/AIDS.

References

- O' Brien SJ, Goedert JJ. HIV causes AIDS: Koch's postulates fulfilled. Guest Editorial. *Curr Opin Immunol* 1996 **8** 613-618.
- Singh A, Bairy I, Shivananda PG. Spectrum of opportunistic infections in AIDS cases. *Ind J Med Sci* 2003 **57** 16-21.
- Centers for Disease Control (CDC). Pneumocystis Pneumonia-Los Angeles. *Morb Mort Weekly Report* 1981 **30** 1-3.
- GeoHive website. The demographic status of the world's population. [Online] Available from: <http://www.geohive.com/earth/world.aspx>. 2008. Date accessed: 12/2008.
- Kaizer Family Foundation. HIV/AIDS epidemic in South Africa. HIV/AIDS Policy Fact Sheet. [Online] Available from: <http://www.kff.org/hivaids/upload/7365-065.pdf>. 2008. Date accessed: 10/2008.
- Maclean H, Hall AJ, McCombe MF, Sandland AM. AIDS and the eye: A 10 year experience. *Aus New Zeal J Ophthalmol* 1996 **24** 61-67.
- Friedman AH. The retinal lesions of the acquired immune deficiency syndrome. *Trans Am Ophthalmol Soc* 1984 **82** 447-491.
- Ahmed I, Ai E, Luckie A. Ophthalmic manifestations of HIV. HIV InSite Knowledge Base Chapter. [Online] Available from: <http://hivinsite.ucsf.edu>. 2005. Date accessed: 03/2006.
- Pavan-Langston DP. *Manual of Ocular Diagnosis and Therapy*, (6th Ed). Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins, 2007.
- Lewallen S. HIV/AIDS: What is the impact on prevention of blindness programmes? *J Com Eye Health* 2003 **16** 33-34.
- Cunningham ET, Margolis TP. Ocular manifestations of HIV infection. *The New Eng J Med* 1998 **339** 236-244.
- Sahu DK, Namperumalsamy P, Walimbe P, Rajalakshmi C. Ocular manifestations of HIV infection/AIDS in South Indian patients. *Ind J Ophthalmol* 1999 **47** 79-85.
- Biswas J, Sudharshan S. Anterior segment manifestations of human immunodeficiency virus/Acquired immune deficiency syndrome. *Ind J Ophthalmol* 2008 **56** 363-375.
- Lima BR. Ophthalmic Manifestations of HIV infection. *Dig J Ophthalmol* [Online] Available from: <http://www.djo.harvard.edu/print.php?url=/physicians/oa/674&print=1>. 2004. Date accessed: 04/2005.
- Shukla DS, Rathinam SR, Cunningham ET. Contribution of HIV/AIDS Global Blindness. *Int Ophthalmol Clin* 2007 **47** 27-43.
- Jeng BH, Holland GN, Lowder CY, Deegan WF, Raizman MB, Meisler DM. Anterior segment and external ocular disorders associated with Human Immunodeficiency Virus disease. *Surv Ophthalmol* 2007 **52** 329-368.
- Friedlaender MH, Masi RJ, Osumoto M, Smolin G, Ammann AJ. Ocular microbial flora in immunodeficient patients. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1980 **98** 1211-1213.
- Chronister CL, Cohen NA, Stevens SA. How to detect, treat and contain infectious diseases. *Rev Optom* 1999 **136** 65-77.
- Waife B. Herpes Zoster Ophthalmicus in HIV/AIDS. *J Com Eye Health* 2003 **16** 35-36.
- Margolis TP, Milner MS, Shama A, Hodge W, Seiff S. Herpes Zoster Ophthalmicus in patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1998 **125** 285-291.
- Sarraf D, Ernest JT. Aids and the eyes. *Lancet* 1996 **348** 525-528.
- Karbassi M, Raizman MB, Schuman JS. Herpes Zoster Ophthalmicus. *Surv Ophthalmol* 1992 **36** 395-410.
- Bayu S, Alemayehu W. Clinical profile of Herpes Zoster Ophthalmicus in Ethiopians. *Clin Infect Dis* 1997 **24** 1256-1260.
- Pavan-Langston DP. *Manual of Ocular Diagnosis and Therapy*, 5th Edition. Philadelphia. Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins, 2002.



25. Copeland R, Phillipotts BA. Ocular manifestations of HIV. EMedicine Website. [Online] Available from: www.emedicine.com/OPH/topic261.htm. 2009. Date accessed: 04/2005.
26. Gurwood AS, Savochka J. Herpes Zoster Ophthalmicus. *Optom Today* 2001 November 38-41.
27. Moon JE, Hospenthal DR. Herpes Zoster. EMedicine Website. [Online] Available from: <http://www.emedicine.com/Med/topic1007.htm>. 2008. Date accessed: 07/2008.
28. Visser L. The eye and HIV/AIDS. *Cont Med Edu* 2007 **25** 493-495.
29. Suresh PS, Tullo AB. Herpes Simplex Keratitis. *Ind J Ophthalmol* 1999 **47** 155-165.
30. Gange SJ, Barrón Y, Greenblatt RM, Anastos K, Minkoff H, Young M, Kovacs A, Cohen M, Meyer WA and Muñoz A. Effectiveness of highly active antiretroviral therapy among HIV-1 infected woman. *J Epidem Com Health* 2002 **56** 153-159.
31. Brown EE, Fallin MD, Goedert JJ, Hutchinson A, Vitale F, Lauria C, Giuliani M, Marshall V, Mbisa G, Serraino D, Messina A, Durum S, Whitby D, Chanock SJ and the Kaposi Sarcoma Genetics Working Group. Host immunogenetics and control of human herpesvirus-8 infection. *J Inf Diseases* 2006 **193** 1054-1062.
32. National Cancer Institute. Kaposi Sarcoma: Treatment – Patient Information. [Online] Available from: <http://www.cancer.gov/cancertopics/pdq/treatment/kaposi/Patient>. 2005. Date accessed: 06/2006.
33. Porter RS, Kaplan JL, Homeier BP and Beers MH. The Merck Manuals Online Medical Library. [Online] Available from: <http://www.merck.com/mmpe/sec10/ch128/ch128d.html> 2008. Date accessed: 08/2008.
34. Suresh K. Ophthalmic manifestations of HIV infection. *Ind J Prac Doc* 2006 3 1 2006-08-2006-09. [Online] Available from: <http://www.indmedica.com/journals.php?journalid=3&issueid=84&articleid=1145&action=article> Date accessed: 07/2008.
35. Bhatia RS. Ophthalmic manifestations of AIDS. *J Ind Acad Clin Med* 2002 **3** 85-88.
36. Watanabe T, Nakamura K, Wakugawa M, Kato A, Nagai Y, Shioda T, Iwamoto A and Tamaki K. Antibodies to Molluscum Contagiosum Virus in the General Population and Susceptible Patients. *Arch Derm* 2000 **136** 1518-1522.
37. Gottlieb SL and Myskowski PL. Molluscum contagiosum. *Int J Derm* 1994 **33** 453-461.
38. Moraes HV. Ocular manifestations of HIV/AIDS. *Curr Opin Ophthalmol* 2002 **13** 397-403.
39. Maurer TA and Berger TG. Dermatological manifestations of HIV. HIV InSite Knowledge Base Chapter. [Online] Available from: <http://hivinsite.ucsf.edu/InSite?page=kb-04-01-01>. 1998. Date accessed: 06/2006.
40. Sowka JW, Gurwood AS and Kabat AG. Handbook of ocular disease management. [Online] Available from: http://www.revoptom.com/cmsdocuments/2009/9/ro0409_handbook.pdf. 2009. Date accessed: 06/2008.
41. Tufail A, Meiselman HJ, Engstrom RE, Hardy JRWD, Holland G and Holland N. Hemorheologic abnormalities and ophthalmic disease in patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection. *Biorheology* 1995 **32** 336-336.
42. Sirikul T, Prabripataloong T, Smathivat A, Chuck RS and Vongthongsri A. Predisposing factors and etiologic diagnosis of ulcerative keratitis. *Clin Sci* 2008 **27** 283-287.
43. Franco-Paredes C, Bellehemur T, Merchant A, Sanghi P, Diaz Granados C and Rimland D. Aseptic meningitis and optic neuritis preceding varicella-zoster progressive outer retinal necrosis in a patient with AIDS. *AIDS* 2002 **16** 1045-1049.
44. Rao NA. Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome and its ocular complications. *Ind J Ophthalmol* 1994 **42** 51-63.
45. Hodge WG and Margolis TP. Herpes simplex virus keratitis among patients who are positive or negative for human immunodeficiency virus: An epidemiological study. *Ophthalmology* 1997 **4** 120-124.
46. Cunningham ET and Belfort E. HIV/AIDS and the Eye: Global Perspective. In Moraes, HV. Ocular manifestations of HIV/AIDS. *Curr Opin Ophthalmol* 2002 **13** 397-403.
47. Limberg MB. A review of bacterial keratitis and bacterial conjunctivitis. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1991 **112** 2S-9S.
48. Omalu ICJ, Yako AB, Duhlińska DD, Anyanwu GI, Pam VA and Inyama PU. First detection of intestinal microsporidia in Northern Nigeria. *Online Journal of Health and Allied Sciences*, 4. [Online] Available from: <http://www.ojhas.org/issue19/2006-3-2.htm>. 2006. Date accessed: 08/2008.
49. Joseph J, Vemuganti GK and Sharma S. Microsporidia: Emerging ocular pathogens. *Ind J Med Micro* 2005 **23** 80-91

