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Dr. Bitton completed her Optometry degree at the University of Waterloo (1988) in Canada, followed by a Master's in Physiological Optics (1994) from the *Université de Montréal* in the area of tear film clinical physiology and its relevance in patients exhibiting dry eye. Dr. Bitton presently holds the rank of full professor, and is the Director of the Externship Program at the School of Optometry at the *Université de Montréal*. She is a member of several national and international professional organizations. Her areas of interest are in the evaluation of the tear film, dry eye and contact lens wear. In 2012 she inaugurated and became the Director of the Dry Eye Clinic at the school, a first in an optometry school in North America. Dr. Bitton was invited by the Tear Film Ocular Society (TFOS) to participate in the TFOS DEWSII and the Lifestyle Epidemic: Ocular Surface Disease reports, a global initiative to redefine dry eye and its etiologies. She represents this organization as one of the ambassadors for Canada. In 2019 Dr. Bitton received a certificate on the Management of Dry Eye from the British Contact Lens Association.

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Challenges in the Diagnosis and Management of Anterior Blepharitis

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Introduction

Blepharitis is defined as inflammation of the eyelids, classified according to anatomical location: anterior (eyelid skin, base of the lashes including the eyelash follicle) or posterior (meibomian glands) blepharitis.¹ Although blepharitis is one of the most common ocular disorders, epidemiological data on the condition is lacking, making prevalence difficult to assess. A 2009 survey of eyecare practitioners reported observing blepharitis in 37%–47% of patients in their clinical practice.² This observation may vary depending on the age, sex, and types of patients (i.e., dry eye) in the practice. Younger females are

found to have more acute short-term presentation of blepharitis, whereas older, more fair-skinned females present with chronic blepharitis often concurrent with rosacea.³ Large population-based studies, using a standardized definition and diagnostic technique, are needed to properly assess the prevalence and incidence of blepharitis and to allow for study comparisons among various age groups.

The ocular surface, including the lid margin, has a natural flora or microbiome, which is imperative in maintaining the health and defence mechanism of the ocular surface.^{4,5} This can be affected by age, gender, inflammation, disease,

medication, cosmetics, and treatment (systemic or topical).⁵ An overgrowth of microbes or an imbalance of the natural flora may result in an inflammatory response, leading to blepharitis, conjunctivitis, keratitis, or a combination of these.

Challenges in the diagnosis of anterior blepharitis

Various causative factors of blepharitis include bacterial (often staphylococcal), viral (herpes simplex, molluscum contagiosum), fungal (seborrheic), and parasitic (pediculosis palpebrarum, Demodex). Numerous other conditions may be associated with eyelid inflammation, such as immunological (Steven-Johnson's syndrome, graft versus host disease), dermatoses (i.e., psoriasis), eyelid tumours, trauma (including chemical, thermal, radiation), and toxic (medicamentosa).¹ Symptoms are similar across all types of blepharitis and may include: ocular irritation; conjunctival hyperemia; tearing; burning; itching; blurred or fluctuating vision; loss of lashes; photophobia; contact lens intolerance; and recurrent styes, typically worse in the morning.¹ It is clinically valuable to explore the timing of symptoms as this can differentiate from other causalities such as tear film evaporation, which typically worsens throughout the day. Blepharitis can progress to ocular surface inflammation and tear film disturbances, and can exacerbate ocular allergy and dry eye. The myriad of symptoms and the chronic nature of blepharitis, coupled with the ambiguity of its etiology, renders its diagnosis and management challenging for the clinician.

In addition to a comprehensive case history to assess severity, laterality, timing, and duration of symptoms, an external examination of the eyelids, with particular attention given to the lid margin, eyelashes, tear film, and ocular surface, is essential.¹ The lid margin should be assessed for uniformity, hyperemia, and telangiectasia. The eyelashes should be observed for misdirection (trichiasis), loss (milphosis/ciliary madarosis), and type and location of debris, if present. Diagnostic ophthalmic dyes are used to assess for tear film stability and the integrity of the ocular surface.

A careful examination of eyelash debris can be valuable in directing the clinician toward an etiology of anterior blepharitis. Staphylococcal blepharitis typically presents as matted, yellowish, hard scales or collarettes found anywhere along the eyelash. The collarettes move from the base

to the tip of the eyelashes with eyelash growth. Milphosis and trichiasis are common in bacterial blepharitis.¹ Conversely, seborrheic blepharitis presents as oily, greasy debris on the lashes; however, it originates in the eyelid skin and is rarely associated with lash loss or misdirection.¹ This condition is typically co-managed with dermatology due to its dermatological etiology.

Demodex blepharitis^{6,7} is caused by a microscopic parasite, which is light sensitive and resides in the human eyelash follicle (*Demodex folliculorum*) during the day. The debris on the eyelashes appears as a gelatinous clear sleeve surrounding the lash at its base, termed cylindrical dandruff (CD). CD is pathognomonic for Demodex and remain at the base of the eyelash despite eyelash growth, which is clinically relevant to assist in the differentiation with other types of anterior blepharitis.⁸ Having the patient look down at the slit lamp will reveal the base of the eyelashes more clearly. CD along the upper lid margin may be overlooked if the observation is restricted to primary gaze. In cases of dermatochalasis of the eyelid, pulling the folded eyelid upwards while in downward gaze will also assist the visualization of the base of the eyelashes. The Demodex mite has a life cycle of 14–18 days, therefore frequent mating is crucial for effective propagation. Transmission is by direct contact from one individual to another; consequently, family members sharing a dwelling should be examined.

Patients with Demodex blepharitis may or may not be symptomatic. Of those who are symptomatic, itching, specifically along the lash line, is often reported.⁹ This can be an additional element to assist in the differential diagnosis of anterior blepharitis. Comorbidities of Demodex infestation (termed demodicosis) include meibomian gland dysfunction (MGD); blepharitis; keratitis; chalazion; dry eye; acne rosacea; and contact lens intolerance and discontinuation, further rendering the etiology of blepharitis challenging.¹⁰⁻¹⁵ There is a 2.5-fold increased risk of Demodex in blepharitis patients and a 3-fold increase in patients with acne rosacea.¹⁰ Demodex blepharitis is confirmed with eyelash epilation and subsequent microscopic observation for confirmation of mites. In a clinical setting, microscopes are not readily available, hence alternative methods are suggested to observe the presence of mites *in situ*. Slit lamp observation can be achieved by selecting eyelashes with CD and, using a tweezer, can be rotated¹⁶ or pulled

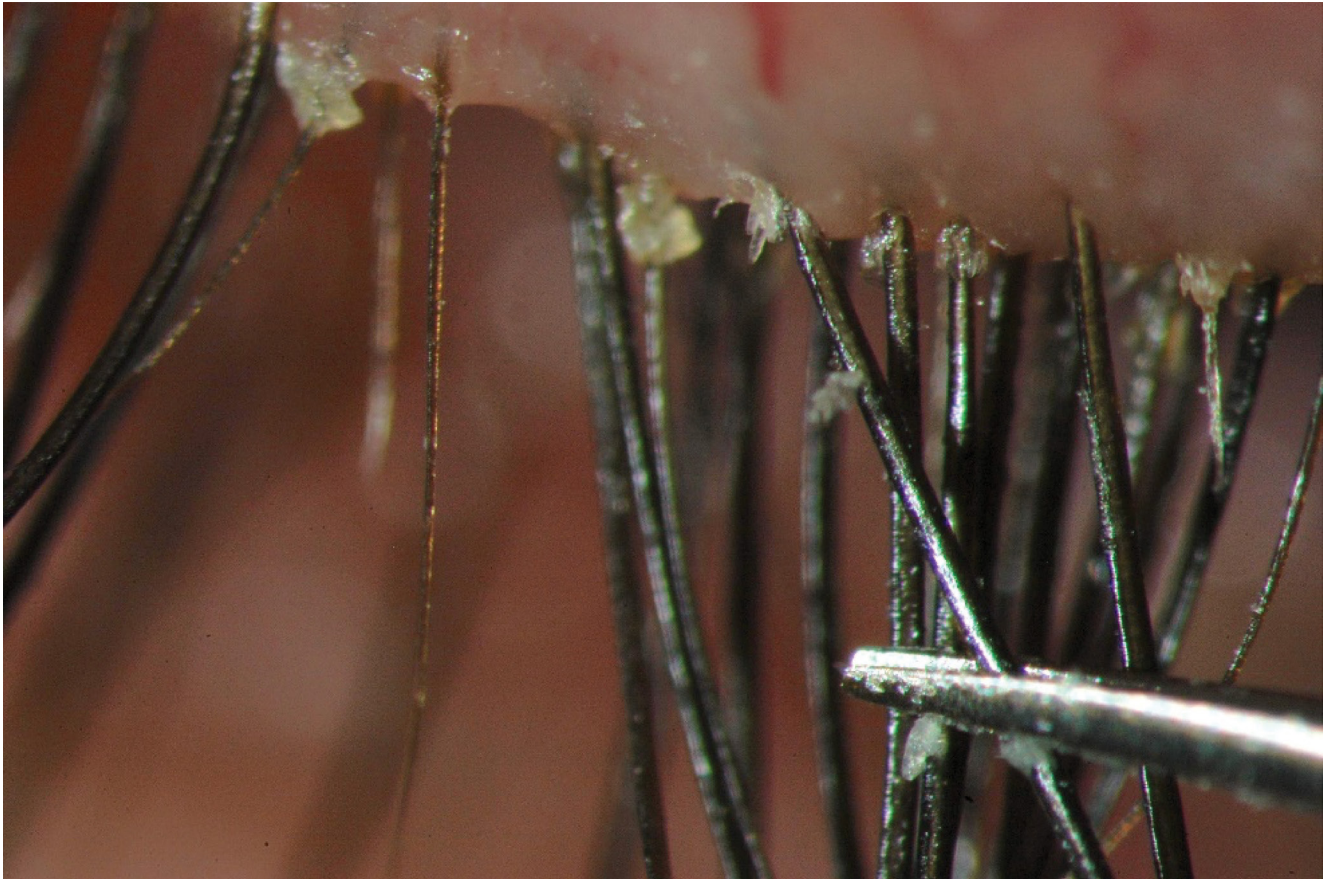


Figure 1. Lateral tension of an eyelash with cylindrical dandruff (CD) revealing the clear tail of a Demodex mite at the base of the lash; *photo courtesy of ETTY BITTON.*

laterally¹⁷ (**Figure 1**) to stimulate the mite tail to exit partially from the follicle. Since the mite is clear in colour, it may be necessary to remove the CD or pull it down along the lash shaft, prior to manipulation to facilitate the observation of the mite.¹⁷

Challenges in the Management of Anterior Blepharitis

Management of anterior blepharitis can be complex due to its multifaceted etiology and comorbidities. Consequently, the therapeutic management of anterior blepharitis should focus on decreasing the overgrowth of microbes (bacteria, virus, fungus, or parasite), to reduce inflammation and improve symptoms, in an attempt to restore the natural ocular flora. Management of anterior blepharitis can include at-home therapies (i.e., lid hygiene, therapeutics) or in-office procedures (i.e., microblepharoexfoliation, intense pulse light). Lid hygiene is a cornerstone treatment

for all types of blepharitis.¹⁸ Any mechanical cleaning of the lid margin and lashes will initially remove some of the debris and may even improve symptoms short term; however, unless antimicrobials are used, mechanical cleaning will not address the etiology of the blepharitis. The challenge for clinicians is to better understand the ingredients in lid hygiene formulations in order to identify which of these have antimicrobial properties. This will enable improved targeting of the specific type of anterior blepharitis.

Tea tree oil (TTO)¹⁹ based lid cleansers possess antibacterial, antifungal, and antiparasitic properties and should be considered when a mixed presentation of anterior blepharitis is suspected or when the etiology is unknown. The most abundant ingredient in TTO is terpinen-4-ol (T4O),²⁰ which possesses a strong demodectic affinity; therefore, it is best suited for the management of Demodex blepharitis. Lid hygiene products with TTO and T4O are often in diluted concentrations as, in higher concentrations, they can cause significant

irritation to the skin and eyes.^{21,22} A trial with TTO/T4O lid cleanser can be performed in-office, to educate patients, set patient expectations, and enhance compliance.^{21,22} A recent *in vitro* study found T4O to be toxic to meibomian gland epithelial cells, even at very low concentrations.²³ Although further investigation in a clinical setting is warranted, clinicians should consider this finding when recommending T4O-containing lid hygiene products due to the proximity of the meibomian gland orifice along the lid margin.

Lid cleansers with capryloyl glycine, hypochlorous acid (HOCl) and okra-based polysaccharide (*Abelmoschus esculentus*) can be useful in managing blepharitis as they, too, possess antimicrobial properties.²⁴⁻²⁷ The added advantage of HOCl is its selective bactericidal activity, affecting the bacterial load while preserving the normal biofilm structure.²⁶ HOCl is available in spray form and can be used directly on closed lids or applied to a cotton pad for mechanical use along the lid margin. Using a full-spectrum antibiotic ointment on the lids will alleviate bacterial overgrowth unselectively, which may affect the homeostasis of the natural ocular microbiota.

Therapeutics for anterior blepharitis can include antibiotics, antivirals, and antifungals, depending on the clinical presentation and to assist in restoring the ocular flora. For Demodex blepharitis, therapeutics can include topical and systemic ivermectin and metronidazole.²⁸ Clinical trials with a recently developed antiparasitic agent, lotilaner ophthalmic solution, used twice a day for 28 days, has shown promise in reducing mite counts even after cessation, although this agent is not currently approved for use in Canada.²⁹

In addition to at-home therapies, in-office procedures can be performed for anterior blepharitis. Microblepharoexfoliation (MBE) can be used for any type of anterior blepharitis to

physically remove debris and biofilm along the lashes and lid margin. This involves use of a manual sponge with an antimicrobial lid cleanser, or mechanically, using a hand-held instrument with a rotating, disposable micro-sponge.²⁸ The procedure to clean all four lids can take between 5 and 10 minutes and a topical anaesthetic can be used to render the patient more comfortable. Treatment can be repeated in 4 to 6 months. Taking pre- and post-treatment photos (**Figure 2**) is useful in demonstrating to patients the benefits of the deep cleaning provided by MBE.

Intense pulse light (IPL) is well known in dermatology in the management of inflammatory diseases such as acne rosacea.³⁰ IPL has also been shown to improve meibomian gland expression and enhance the tear film in evaporative dry eye.³¹ In addition, IPL has been shown to be effective against demodicosis, even for younger patients (5–16 years old).^{32,33}

Conclusion

The diagnosis and management of anterior blepharitis can be challenging for the clinician and a source of frustration for the patient. A comprehensive history coupled with a detailed observation of the lid margin and eyelashes can assist the clinician in gaining an improved understanding of the source of the blepharitis, and guide the patient toward more appropriate management options. There are a multitude of lid hygiene products, pharmaceutical treatments, and in-office procedures available for the management of anterior blepharitis, to alleviate symptoms, improve ocular esthetics, and maintain the integrity of the ocular surface. Keeping abreast of these product innovations and technologies will be rewarding for your practice and your patients will be most appreciative.



Figure 2. A) Pre-microblepharoexfoliation (MBE) appearance revealing cylindrical dandruff (CD) debris along the base of the upper lid; **B)** Post-microblepharoexfoliation immediately following treatment of the upper lid; *photo courtesy of Ety Bitton.*

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