

Volume 7 Issue 8 August 2024

Understanding Retinoblastoma: A Comprehensive Overview

Manish Kumar Sah^{1*}, Brinda KC², Usha Rai² and Mohammad Atiullah²

¹Assistant Professor, Optometry, SSAHS, Sharda University, Greater Noida, U.P., India ²B.Optom Student, Optometry, SSAHS, Sharda University, Greater Noida, U.P., India

*Corresponding Author: Manish Kumar Sah, Assistant Professor, Optometry, SSAHS, Sharda University, Greater Noida, U.P., India.

Received: July 11, 2024 Published: July 31, 2024 © All rights are reserved by Manish Kumar Sah., *et al.*

Abstract

Retinoblastoma is a rare but serious pediatric eye cancer characterized by tumors that originate in the retina due to genetic mutations, predominantly affecting children under five years old. Early detection through routine eye exams and advanced imaging techniques such as ultrasound and MRI is critical for timely diagnosis and treatment. Genetic testing plays a pivotal role in identifying mutations in the RB1 gene, guiding both prognosis and therapeutic decisions. Treatment strategies vary based on tumor size, location, and genetic factors, encompassing chemotherapy, localized therapies (laser/cryotherapy), radiation, and occasionally enucleation. Recent advancements include targeted therapies and intra-arterial chemotherapy, aimed at improving efficacy while minimizing systemic toxicity. Multidisciplinary care involving pediatric oncologists, ophthalmologists, geneticists, and supportive care providers ensures comprehensive management addressing medical, psychological, and social needs. Despite therapeutic advancements, challenges such as preserving vision and managing long-term sequelae remain, emphasizing the need for ongoing research and collaborative efforts. Keywords: retinoblastoma, pediatric cancer, RB1 gene, early detection, treatment strategies, multidisciplinary care, genetic testing, advanced imaging.

Keywords: Retinoblastoma; Pediatric Cancer; Psychosocial Support; Multidisciplinary Care

Abbreviations

MRI: Magnetic Resonance Imaging; CT scan: Computed Tomography Scan; PHPV: Persistent Hyperplastic Primary Vitreous; PNET: Primitive Neuroectodermal Tumors; RD: Retinal Detachment; ICRB: International Classification of Retinoblastoma; EBRT: External Beam Radiotherapy; IVC: Intravenous Chemotherapy; IAC: Intra-arterial Chemotherapy; IvitC: Intravitreal Chemotherapy py

Introduction

Retinoblastoma is the most common intraocular cancer in infants and children. It is an uncommon juvenile eye tumor that arises in the retina. Retinoblastoma is the most common primary intraocular cancer in children, accounting for 3% of all pediatric cancer cases [1], while being an uncommon form of cancer that affects just one out of every 18000 births [2]. The incidence of retinoblastoma is not influenced by race or gender. Survival and visual acuity preservation are based on the severity of the disease at the time of initial diagnosis. The majority of Europe and the United States are high-income nations where this cancer is frequently discovered before it invades the orbit, choroid, optic nerve, and sclera and has a good prognosis. Due to the invasive nature of this cancer, patients in nations with low or middle-incomes, particularly those in Africa, must get systemic treatment in order to survive. A malignant growth of the developing retina, retinoblastoma is caused by primitive retinal stem cells or cone precursor cells. Most often,

Citation: Manish Kumar Sah., et al. "Understanding Retinoblastoma: A Comprehensive Overview". Acta Scientific Ophthalmology 7.8 (2024): 41-49.

metastases enter central nervous system through the optic nerve. The tumor may travel via the subarachnoid space to the contralateral optic nerve, the cerebrospinal fluid to the central nervous system, or both, in addition to hematogenously spreading to the lungs, bone, and brain. In about 95% of cases, biallelic deletion of the tumor suppressor gene RB1 causes the tumor to start [3]. One may be born with retinalblastoma or develop it randomly. Most instances (60%) with locally altered both RB1 alleles in the afflicted retina are considered non-hereditary retinoblastomas [4]. Hereditary retinoblastoma (40%) is associated with an RB1 germlinepredisposing variant and subsequent somatic inactivation of the other allele [4]. Heritability is only present in a tiny percentage of unilateral retinoblastoma patients. Hence, in contrast to heritable retinoblastoma, which frequently manifests as bilateral and multifocal tumors, patients of non-heritable retinoblastoma have unilateral tumors.

The challenge facing us in this era of increased worldwide awareness of retinoblastoma health is to provide the best possible care for children in developing countries who have retinoblastoma. Globally, retinoblastoma patients are seeing increasingly encouraging results from ever-evolving treatment approaches. Retinoblastoma experts typically have the same main objectives, which are to preserve life and prevent metastatic disease, preserve the globe, and then optimize vision. Enucleation, chemotherapy administered via intravenous, intra-arterial, intravitreal, and intracameral infusion routes, and focused therapies such as cryotherapy, laser photocoagulation/thermotherapy, and plaque irradiation are among the methods used to treat retinoblastoma. The rates of survival for children with this condition have significantly increased as a result of advancements in focused medicine and molecular genetics.

Epidemiology

The most prevalent eye cancer in children is retinoblastoma although approximately 1 in 15,000 to 1 in 18,000 live infants have Retinoblastoma by incidence [5]. An average of eighteen months is when a diagnosis is made; bilateral cases happen around twelve months, and unilateral cases happen around twenty-four months. Retinoblastoma diagnoses in India often occur between 29 and 33 months of age (36 months for unilateral cases, 18 to 24 months for bilateral cases) [6]. These rates are similar to those found in Africa and other Asian nations. The incidence of retinoblastoma varies by country; around 69% of instances occur in countries with middle incomes, 20% in nations with low incomes, and 11% in nations with high incomes [7]. Approximately 9000 new cases are reported year, of which 200 are reported in the United States alone [8]. An inverse relationship has been shown in studies from Brazil and Mexico between the socioeconomic index and the incidence of retinoblastoma. In more developed nations, poverty and low maternal education levels have also been linked to an increased incidence of retinoblastoma. Asia accounts for 53% of occurrences of retinoblastoma, with Africa coming in second with 29%, Latin America with 8%, North America with 3%, and Europe with 6% [9]. While inherited tumors typically present bilaterally and at a younger age, sporadic tumors typically develop at an older age and with a unilateral appearance.

Etiology

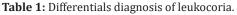
Essential information on the diagnosis, prognosis, and possible treatment options of retinoblastoma can be obtained through histological testing. Chromosome abnormalities, such as the addition or loss of entire chromosomes or chromosome arms, are a common feature of genomic instability seen in retinoblastomas. The two hit idea was put forth by Knudson in 1971 [10]. According to him, two chromosomal abnormalities are required for retinoblastoma to occur. Subsequently, this theory was expanded to imply that the two occurrences might reflect mutations of either or both RB1 alleles. In 1986 the discovery and cloning of RB1, which is found on chromosome 13q14 [11]. When there is a mutation in both copies of the RB1 gene, a tumor forms. Hereditary mutations are linked to bilateral illness and an increased risk of subsequent cancers, whereas random mutations are not. The initial mutation in heritable retinoblastoma occurs in the germ cell, and this "first hit" is inherited by all body cells, predisposing them not only to retinoblastoma but also to other secondary malignancies (most frequently pinealoblastoma, osteosarcoma, and soft tissue sarcomas). The second hit in the somatic retinal cells results in the development of retinoblastoma. Hence, the formation of monocular malignancies like osteosarcoma is more likely in inherited situations. Thirty to forty percent of cases of retinoblastoma are heritable; and sixty to seventy percent are not. Unheritable retinoblastoma means that each sibling and the patient's progeny have a 1% chance of developing the condition if they have unilateral retinoblastoma without a positive family history [12].

42

Clinical Presentation

To preserve vision and life, early detection and treatment are essential. A full ocular checkup, including a dilated fundus examination performed under anesthesia, is warranted for a kid suspected of having retinoblastoma. Leukocoria, or a white reflex from the pupil, is seen in 60-80% [13] of cases and is the most prevalent presenting symptom of retinoblastoma. Parents frequently observe it when pupil appears white instead of red in pictures. The tumor's reflection of light back out of the eye causes this indication. The occurrence of leukocoria might be sporadic and gaze direction dependent. leukocoria may potentially be a sign of other disorders that could endanger vision. In Table 1, the common differentials for leukocoria are given. About 20-30% of cases have strabismus, which is the second most common presenting characteristic. It happens when a tumor damages the macula, the area of the retina in the center that is responsible for fine details, resulting in misalignment and low visual acuity. Amblyopia may result from the disorder if treatment is delayed. The afflicted eye may turn inward (esotropia) or outward (exotropia). Ocular pain and redness may also be caused by secondary glaucoma or increased intraocular pressure brought on by tumor invasion into the anterior chamber. Tumor invasion into the anterior segment or occlusion of the trabecular meshwork causes secondary glaucoma by raising intraocular pressure. Eye discomfort, redness, and corneal edema are among the symptoms [11]. Glaucoma can result in irreparable optic nerve damage and visual loss if left untreated. Visual impairment or loss is a typical symptom, particularly in more advanced cases where the tumor has spread to the optic nerve or macula. Parents might observe that the youngster is unable to focus on objects or does not track objects visually. In bilateral situations, the extent of vision impairment in each eye may vary based on the size and place of the tumor.

Differentials diagnosis of leukocoria
Congenital Cataract
Exudative retinopathy of Coats.
Persistent hyperplastic primary vitreous(PHPV)
Retinal detachment
Coloboma of the choroid,
Toxocara endophthalmitis
Retinopathy of prematurity
Vitreous hemorrhage
Endogenous endophthalmitis



43

Although less often, proptosis denotes a more advanced stage of the illness in which the tumor has grown into the orbit rather than only the globe. This disorder arises from tumor growth that pushes the eye forward via the sclera or optic nerve. A more advanced illness may have rubeosis iridis. Eye movement impairment and orbital enlargement are possible side effects of proptosis. Tumorinduced bleeding and neovascularization can result in hyphema [14], or blood in the anterior chamber of the eye. It can show up as an obvious red fluid buildup in the anterior chamber and is frequently accompanied by eye discomfort and elevated intraocular pressure. Patients with retinoblastoma may occasionally have heterochromia, in which the irises of the two eyes are different hues. This may be the consequence of tumor-induced iris pigmentation alterations or persistent inflammation. It's not a typical feature, yet its existence should make more research necessary. When the tumor invades the orbital tissues, orbital cellulitis is a potential retinoblastoma consequence. Eyelid edema, redness, fever, and systemic infection symptoms are among the symptoms. To stop more complications, this illness needs to be treated medically very away. Growing tumors may cause retinal detachment, which can lead to traction or exudation. Subretinal seeding and retinal detachment (RD) are caused by exophytic tumors that develop away from the retina. Vengeous seeding is the result of endophytic malignancies growing into the vitreous [4]. Some may display a mixed pattern. Retinal thickness resembling plaque develops when the tumor diffuses, involves the retina, and does not form a mass. Most often, older children are affected by this illness, and diagnosis is frequently delayed. This frequently manifests as a rapid decrease in vision and is found during a fundoscopic examination. The care of retinoblastoma might be made more difficult by retinal detachment, which can worsen visual loss. Rarely, systemic symptoms-such as tiredness, irritability, and weight loss—may appear, particularly in cases where the illness has spread. Systemic symptoms requiring thorough assessment and management may arise from retinoblastoma spreading to the central nervous system, bones, or other organs. Less than 10 percent of bilateral occurrences of primitive neuroectodermal tumors (PNET) are brain tumors. Referred to as "trilateral" retinoblastomas, they often affect the pineal region (pinealoblastoma) in 75% of cases and the suprasellar/parasellar region in 25% of cases [6].

Retinoblastoma is an eye cancer that mostly affects young children. The stage system used to classify the degree and severity of the disease is called the International Classification of Retinoblas-

44

toma (ICRB). Planning a course of therapy and forecasting results are made easier by this classification. Based on the dimension, lo-

cation, and extent of the tumors within the eye, the ICRB divides retinoblastoma into five categories, which are listed in table 2.

Group	Characteristics
Group A	Small tumors (≤3 mm in size)
	Tumors that are 1.5 mm from the optic disc and at least 3 mm from the foveola.
Group B	Any size tumor restricted to the retina.
	Localized tumors nearer the optic disc or foveola.
	Presence of a tiny amount of subretinal fluid without macula involvement.
Group C	Focal subretinal or vitreous seeding tumors.
	Without affecting the macula, up to one quadrant of subretinal fluid.
Group D	Diffuse vitreous or subretinal seeding.
	Greater subretinal fluid, which could potentially involve the macula.
	Multiple subretinal fluid quadrants.
Group E	About half of the eye is taken up by a large tumor.
	Neovascular glaucoma, aseptic orbital cellulitis, hemorrhage, or anterior segment invasion.
	High risk of metastases or loss of vision.

Table 2: International Classification of Retinoblastoma (ICRB) [15,16].

The use of imaging techniques like as computed tomography (CT), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and ultrasound is crucial for the diagnosis and treatment of retinoblastoma. When diagnosing retinoblastoma, especially in young children, ultrasound is commonly employed as the first imaging modality [17]. The size, location, and features of intraocular tumors can be evaluated with its assistance. In order to help diagnose retinoblastoma, high-frequency ultrasonography probes offer precise images of the eye and are capable of distinguishing between various kinds of tumors inside the eye. Retinoblastoma can be evaluated via CT scans, which are especially useful for determining how far the illness has gone within the eye. Clinicians can assess whether adjacent tissues and structures [18], such as the orbit or optic nerve, are involved by using comprehensive cross-sectional images of the eye and its surrounding structures provided by CT imaging. Exact anatomical information are provided, which can help with surgery planning. In the assessment of retinoblastoma, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is an essential modality [19]. It is especially helpful for determining the size of intraocular tumors, identifying smaller lesions, and measuring involvement of surrounding tissues since it provides better soft tissue contrast than CT scans. MRI is useful for planning targeted therapies like chemotherapy or radiation therapy, as well as for determining the difference between retinoblastoma and other intraocular tumors.

Treatment

Each patient's retinoblastoma treatment plan is unique and based on their unique disease location, health status, and stage. The primary goals are to remove the tumor, protect the eyesight, and stop it from spreading. Systemic and local therapies are often used in conjunction as part of treatment plans.

External beam radiation therapy

Way back in the 1900s [20], external beam radiation therapy was the top choice for the treatment of moderately advanced intraocular retinoblastoma whereas nowadays external beam radiation therapy is mostly regarded as a treatment method from the past in developed countries as with the arrival of systemic chemotherapy, the use of external beam radiation therapy decreased primarily because of the many associated side effects [21] it carried, such as radiation-induced complications and the development of secondary tumors, and the superior outcomes along with fewer associated side effects achieved through the use of effective chemotherapy for retinoblastoma. Despite this, in situations where there is extension of tumor beyond the eye, recurrence in the orbit or positive optic nerve margin after enucleation external beam radiation therapy continues to be an important part of the treatment plan. Currently, it is recommended for the eyes that did not respond to initial chemotherapy and local therapy, or in exceptional cases when chemotherapy is not suitable.

Plaque radiotherapy

Placement of a radioactive implant on the sclera near the base of the tumor to irradiate it through the sclera is a method known as plaque radiotherapy, or brachytherapy. Iodine 125 and Ruthenium 106 are the two most popular radioactive chemicals utilized in this treatment [22]. Plaque radiotherapy was originally developed as a method to salvage the eye from recurrent tumors following external beam radiotherapy (EBRT) but now it is primarily utilized as a secondary treatment for medium-sized tumors resistant to chemotherapy, with or without localized vitreous or sub-retinal seeding, following recurrence after intra-arterial chemotherapy (IAC) or intravenous chemotherapy (IVC) [23]. Plaque radiotherapy also offers a method for treating diffuse anterior segment retinoblastoma, with or without intravenous chemotherapy, especially when there are no choroidal or retinal tumors present. Accurate tumor localization and measurement of its basal dimensions are essential for plaque brachytherapy so a three-dimensional computerized tumor modeling system is often utilized for effective plaque brachytherapy. The selection of plaque design is based on factors such as the tumor's basal dimensions, location, shape and arrangement and to ensure comprehensive tumor coverage, a 2 mm safety margin is commonly added to the largest basal diameter. If tumors are located within 2 mm of the optic nerve, usage of a notched plaque may be required, especially for tumors extending over three clock hours around the nerve, requiring the use of deeper notches. The radiation dose delivered to the tumor apex typically ranges from 4000 to 5000cGy [24]. Secondary plaque radiotherapy is ideally given 1-2 months after intravenous chemotherapy to minimize side effects. Radiation retinopathy and papillopathy are among the common complications observed [25].

Thermotherapy

Thermotherapy refers to a therapeutic approach that involves the targeted application of heat specifically to the affected tissues, thorr

45

generated through infrared radiation. The primary goal of thermotherapy is to expose the tumor to temperatures ranging from 42°C to 60°C [26] for a duration spanning between 5 to 20 minutes in order to induce necrosis within tumors, thereby inhibiting their growth and promoting their regression where small tumors, with dimensions of approximately 4 mm in basal diameter and 2 mm in thickness, are effectively managed by this therapy. This carefully controlled application of heat ensures that retinal vessels remain unaffected by photocoagulation as this therapeutic approach prioritizes the preservation of retinal vessel integrity, thereby minimizing the risk of vision-related complications. The complete tumor regression may be accomplished in more than 85% of instances following 3–4 sessions of thermotherapy [27].

Cryotherapy

Cryotherapy, a reliable therapeutic option in retinoblastoma management, involves the strategic application of extreme cold to treat small tumors and areas with sub-retinal or pre-retinal seeds. Cryotherapy is particularly effective for tumors, smaller than 3 mm [12] in base diameter, achieving local control exceeding 95%. Under the guidance of indirect ophthalmoscopy, cryotherapy positioning occurs either on the conjunctiva for peripheral lesions or directly on the sclera for deeper-seated tumors following a conjunctival incision. Using a triple-freeze-thaw technique which is administered every 4 to 6 weeks until the tumor completely regresses ensures thorough tumor encapsulation in ice before subsequent freeze cycles. With a freezing rate of $-90 \circ C$ per minute facilitated by a nitrous oxide source, cryotherapy induces rapid intracellular ice formation [28], leading to tumor eradication and scar formation. The scar resulting from cryotherapy exceeds the dimensions of the tumor by a considerable margin. The approach known as 'chemocryo' involves the application of cryotherapy to the peripheral ora serrata simultaneously with intravenous chemotherapy to optimize drug distribution within the eye. Administering cryotherapy 2-3 hours prior to chemotherapy can synergistically improve the delivery of chemotherapeutic agents across the blood-retinal barrier [29]. Cryotherapy is presently seldom employed in isolation and is more frequently employed in conjunction with some form of chemotherapy, primarily intravenous chemotherapy (IVC), though occasionally intra-arterial chemotherapy (IAC) is utilized. However, cases of exudative and rhegmatogenous retinal detachment have been documented after extensive use of cryotherapy.

Intravenous chemotherapy (IVC)

The utilization of systemic intravenous chemotherapy (IVC) remains pivotal in the treatment of retinoblastoma, characterized by the monthly administration through either a central or peripheral catheter with 2 to 4 chemotherapeutic agents given monthly over 6 to 9 consecutive cycles [30]. Among the commonly employed protocols is the VEC regimen, comprising vincristine, etoposide, and carboplatin, recognized for its effectiveness in reducing tumor size, hence referred to as "chemoreduction." Patients meeting specific criteria such as bilateral disease, confirmed germline mutation, family history of retinoblastoma, or suspected optic nerve or choroidal invasion are advised to undergo intravenous chemotherapy (IVC). This treatment regimen not only mitigates the risk of long-term second cancers, metastases, and pineoblastoma but also serves as a protective measure. Furthermore, it's recommended for patients weighing less than 6 kg who are awaiting intra-arterial chemotherapy (IAC), serving as a transitional 'bridge therapy' [31]. Like many systemic chemotherapy treatments, intravenous chemotherapy (IVC) for retinoblastoma can lead to temporary hair loss, decreased blood cell counts, and occasional fever. Fortunately, the systemic side effects of IVC are typically mild. Any chemotherapy-induced nausea, vomiting, or constipation can be effectively managed with medical interventions.

Intra-arterial chemotherapy (IAC)

The widespread adoption of intra-arterial chemotherapy (IAC) in recent years is attributed to its success in saving the eye in advanced and challenging cases of retinoblastoma [32]. The main applications of IAC encompass both initial treatment and attempts to salvage the eye. It serves as the primary therapeutic option for non-germline, unilateral retinoblastoma, and as a secondary intervention for advanced cases in one or both eyes where enucleation may be warranted. Noteworthy is its effectiveness in addressing sub-retinal and vitreous seeds, especially those situated near the retina. However, the implementation of intra-arterial chemotherapy (IAC) involves a complex and typically expensive process, ideally conducted in an angiography suite by an experienced neurosurgeon or interventional neuro-radiologist. This intricate procedure entails guiding a micro-catheter under fluoroscopic guidance to administer chemotherapy drugs directly into the ophthalmic artery. Due to the costliness and the need for specific expertise, intra-arterial chemotherapy (IAC) might not be a viable choice in developing nations [33]. When juxtaposed with intravenous chemotherapy (IVC), IAC allows for the delivery of chemotherapy to the eye at a concentration ten times higher.

Intravitreal chemotherapy (IvitC)

Intravitreal Chemotherapy (IvitC) is currently indicated for managing refractory or recurrent vitreous seeds subsequent to other treatment modalities [34]. It's important to emphasize that IvitC is seldom employed as the initial form of treatment but rather as a means of salvaging the eye, primarily due to its restricted effectiveness against the primary tumor. The safe administration of Intravitreal Chemotherapy (IvitC) is facilitated by meticulous clinical examination supported by ultrasound bio-microscopy (UBM). Instances where Intravitreal Chemotherapy (IvitC) should be avoided include the presence of tumors or vitreous seeds in the planned needle entry area, tumor infiltration into the pars plana, and seeding in the anterior chamber. IvitC carries the risk of serious ocular complications, such as the development of cataracts, hemorrhages in the vitreous and sub-retinal spaces, ocular hypotony resulting from decreased intraocular pressure, phthisis bulbi, salt-andpepper retinopathy, anterior segment toxicity, conjunctival inflammation and congestion, pigmentation at the injection site on the sclera, thinning of the iris and sclera, iris color alteration, adhesions between the iris and lens, anterior chamber inflammation, swelling of the optic disc, and hemorrhagic tissue necrosis in the retina [35,36]. The likelihood of encountering such complications may vary depending on the injection technique and the pigmentation characteristics of the eye.

Enucleation

The most effective way to cure intraocular retinoblastoma involves removing the eye before the cancer spreads. Despite notable advancements in treatment modalities, enucleation remains a cornerstone in the contemporary approach to managing this condition [37]. This procedure is typically recommended for cases of advanced retinoblastoma, including large tumors, instances where the tumor is obscured by bleeding in the eye, or when there's evidence of the tumor extending beyond the eye itself [38]. Enucleation may also be warranted if there's suspicion of the tumor invading nearby structures like the optic nerve or choroid, or if previous attempts to save the eye through alternative therapies have failed. Advanced intraocular retinoblastoma is best treated through primary enucleation, especially when certain conditions are present. These include abnormal growth of blood vessels in the iris, secondary glaucoma characterized by increased pressure within the eye, invasion of the tumor into the front chamber of the eye, significant occupation of the gel-like substance in the eye by the tumor (more than 75% of the vitreous volume) [29], necrotic tumors causing inflammation in surrounding tissues, and tumors accompanied by bleeding into the front or gel-like substance of the eye (anterior or vitreous chamber). This approach becomes especially crucial when the characteristics of the tumor cannot be clearly visualized, particularly in cases of unilateral involvement. Timely removal of the eye reduces the risk of cancer spreading elsewhere, lowers morbidity rates, alleviates potential side effects from chemotherapy and laser interventions, and decreases the frequency of examinations requiring anesthesia. When enucleating eyes with intraocular retinoblastoma, it's crucial to proceed with caution to prevent tumor dissemination. Complications may arise, including chemosis, conjunctival cysts, pyogenic granuloma, drooping eyelids, incomplete eyelid closure, hollowing of the upper eyelid, sunken appearance of the eye, adhesions between the eyelid and eyeball, implant exposure, and infections [39]. Immediate intervention is necessary if the orbital implant becomes exposed, while infections can be treated using topical or systemic antibiotics. In severe cases, implant removal may be warranted. Giant papillary conjunctivitis caused by prolonged prosthesis contact can be alleviated with antibiotic-steroid ointments and abundant lubrication.

Exenteration

Exenteration is a radical surgical procedure used in the management of retinoblastoma that involves the removal of the entire contents of the orbit, including the eye, extraocular muscles, and surrounding tissues [40]. It is considered a last resort, typically reserved for advanced cases where the tumor has extended beyond the eve into the orbital structures and other treatments have failed or are deemed inappropriate. When the tumor invades the orbit, there is a risk of spreading beyond the confines of the eye. Exenteration may be necessary to achieve local control and prevent further metastasis. In cases where retinoblastoma recurs or is resistant to other forms of treatment such as chemotherapy, radiation, and focal therapies, exenteration might be considered. When the eye is non-functional and there is extensive tumor involvement, exenteration can be performed to prevent further complications and discomfort [40]. Exenteration is a radical, life-saving procedure for advanced retinoblastoma with orbital involvement. While it is associated with significant physical and psychological challenges, it can be crucial for achieving local control and preventing metastasis in select cases.

Conclusion

Retinoblastoma, while rare, is a serious and potentially lifethreatening condition. Advances in diagnostic techniques and treatment modalities have greatly improved survival rates and outcomes. A multidisciplinary approach involving ophthalmologists, oncologists, geneticists, and supportive care teams is essential for optimal management. Early detection and ongoing research into less invasive treatments hold promise for even better future outcomes for children affected by this challenging disease.

Bibliography

- Alkatan Hind Manaa., et al. "Demographics of Pediatric Orbital Lesions: A Tertiary Eye Center Experience in Saudi Arabia". Journal of Epidemiology and Global Health 9.1 (2019): 3-10.
- 2. Mattosinho Clarissa Campolina De Sá., *et al.* "Time to Diagnosis of Retinoblastoma in Latin America: A Systematic Review". *Pediatric Hematology and Oncology* 36.2 (2019): 55-72.
- 3. Dimaras Helen., *et al.* "Retinoblastoma (Primer)". *Nature Reviews: Disease Primers* 1.1 (2015).
- Kaewkhaw Rossukon and Duangnate Rojanaporn. "Retinoblastoma: Etiology, Modeling, and Treatment". *Cancers* 12.8 (2020): 2304.
- 5. Bishop JO and MADSON EC. "Retinoblastoma Review of the Current Status". (1975).
- Nag Adwaita and Vikas Khetan. "Retinoblastoma–a Comprehensive Review, Update and Recent Advances". *Indian Journal* of Ophthalmology 72.6 (2024): 778-788.
- Dimaras Helen., et al. "Retinoblastoma". Nature Reviews Disease Primers 1.1 (2015): 1-23.
- Dimaras Helen., et al. "Retinoblastoma". The Lancet 379.9824 (2012): 1436-1446.
- Munier, Francis L., *et al.* "Conservative Management of Retinoblastoma: Challenging Orthodoxy without Compromising the State of Metastatic Grace". Alive, with Good Vision and No Comorbidity". *Progress in Retinal and Eye Research* 73 (2019): 100764.

47

- Nichols, Kim E., *et al.* "Recent Advances in Retinoblastoma Genetic Research". *Current opinion in ophthalmology* 20.5 (2009): 351-55.
- Ortiz Michael V and Ira J Dunkel. "Retinoblastoma". *Journal of child neurology* 31.2 (2016): 227-36.
- Shields Jerry A and Jerry A Shields. *Intraocular Tumors*. W.B. Saunders Company, 1992.
- Ishaq H and Patel BC. "Retinoblastoma". StatPearls Publishing August 8, 2023. Web. 09/7/24.
- Abramson David H., et al. "Presenting Signs of Retinoblastoma". The Journal of Pediatrics 132.3 (1998): 505-08.
- 15. Murphree A Linn. "Intraocular Retinoblastoma: The Case for a New Group Classification". *Ophthalmology Clinics of North America* 18.1 (2005): 41-viii.
- Chantada Guillermo., *et al.* "A Proposal for an International Retinoblastoma Staging System". *Pediatric Blood and Cancer* 47.6 (2006): 801-805.
- Moulin Alexandre P., et al. "Ultrasound Biomicroscopy Evaluation of Anterior Extension in Retinoblastoma: A Clinicopathological Study". British Journal of Ophthalmology 96.3 (2012): 337-340.
- Shields J and C Shields. "Retinoblastoma: Diagnostic Approaches". In Atlas of Intraocular Tumors, Lippinoctt, Wolters Kluwer, Philadelphia, 3rd ed edition (2016).
- Chawla Bhavna., *et al.* "Correlation between Clinical Features, Magnetic Resonance Imaging, and Histopathologic Findings in Retinoblastoma: A Prospective Study". *Ophthalmology* 119.4 (2012): 850-856.
- Hungerford JL., et al. "External Beam Radiotherapy for Retinoblastoma: I. Whole Eye Technique". British Journal of Ophthalmology 79.2 (1995): 109-111.
- Pradhan Deepak G., *et al.* "Radiation Therapy for Retinoblastoma: A Retrospective Review of 120 Patients". *International Journal of Radiation Oncology* Biology* Physics* 39.1 (1997): 3-13.
- Ancona-Lezama David., et al. "Modern Treatment of Retinoblastoma: A 2020 Review". Indian Journal of Ophthalmology 68.11 (2020): 2356-2365.

- 23. Shields Carol L., *et al.* "Plaque Radiotherapy in the Management of Retinoblastoma: Use as a Primary and Secondary Treatment". *Ophthalmology* 100.2 (1993): 216-224.
- Pandey Achyut N. "Retinoblastoma: An Overview". Saudi Journal of Ophthalmology 28.4 (2014): 310-315.
- 25. Shields Carol L., *et al.* "Plaque Radiotherapy for Retinoblastoma: Long-Term Tumor Control and Treatment Complications in 208 Tumors". *Ophthalmology* 108.11 (2001): 2116-2121.
- Abramson David H and Amy C Schefler. "Transpupillary Thermotherapy as Initial Treatment for Small Intraocular Retinoblastoma: Technique and Predictors of Success". *Ophthalmology* 111.5 (2004): 984-991.
- Shields Carol L., et al. "Thermotherapy for Retinoblastoma". Archives of Ophthalmology 117.7 (1999): 885-893.
- Chawla Bhavna. "Retinoblastoma: Diagnosis, Classification and Management". *Intraocular Tumors* (2020): 1-18.
- Almater Abdullah., et al. "Retinoblastoma: Update on Current Management". Retinoblastoma—Past, Present and Future (2019).
- Ancona-Lezama David., *et al.* "Ophthalmic Vascular Events after Intra-Arterial Chemotherapy for Retinoblastoma: Real-World Comparison between Primary and Secondary Treatments". *Retina* 39.12 (2019): 2264-2272.
- 31. Gobin Y Pierre., *et al.* "Combined, Sequential Intravenous and Intra-Arterial Chemotherapy (Bridge Chemotherapy) for Young Infants with Retinoblastoma". (2012).
- Dalvin Lauren A., *et al.* "Ophthalmic Vascular Events after Primary Unilateral Intra-Arterial Chemotherapy for Retinoblastoma in Early and Recent Eras". *Ophthalmology* 125.11 (2018): 1803-1811.
- Manjandavida Fairooz P., et al. "Intra-Arterial Chemotherapy in Retinoblastoma–a Paradigm Change". Indian Journal of Ophthalmology 67.6 (2019): 740-754.
- Shields Carol L and Jerry A Shields. "Retinoblastoma Management: Advances in Enucleation, Intravenous Chemoreduction, and Intra-Arterial Chemotherapy". *Current Opinion in Ophthalmology* 21.3 (2010): 203-212.

48

- 35. Shields Carol L., *et al.* "Intravitreal Melphalan for Persistent or Recurrent Retinoblastoma Vitreous Seeds: Preliminary Results". *JAMA Ophthalmology* 132.3 (2014): 319-325.
- Francis Jasmine H., et al. "Risk of Extraocular Extension in Eyes with Retinoblastoma Receiving Intravitreous Chemotherapy". JAMA Ophthalmology 135.12 (2017): 1426-1429.
- De Potter Patrick. "Current Treatment of Retinoblastoma". Current Opinion in Ophthalmology 13.5 (2002): 331-336.
- Shields Jerry A., *et al.* "Decreasing Frequency of Enucleation in Patients with Retinoblastoma". *American Journal of Ophthalmology* 108.2 (1989): 185-188.
- Chintagumpala Murali., *et al.* "Retinoblastoma: Review of Current Management". *The Oncologist* 12.10 (2007): 1237-1246.
- Honavar Santosh G and Raksha Rao. "Enucleation and Exenteration". Surgical Ophthalmic Oncology: A Collaborative Open Access Reference (2019): 131-39.