



## Self-refraction, ready-made glasses and quality of life among rural myopic Chinese children: a non-inferiority randomized trial.

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1           **Self refraction, ready-made glasses and quality of life among rural myopic**  
2           **Chinese children: a non-inferiority randomized trial**

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31

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33

34 **Abstract**

35 **Purpose:** To study for the first time the effect of wearing ready-made glasses and  
36 glasses with power determined by self-refraction on children's quality of life.

37 **Methods:** This is a randomized, double-masked non-inferiority trial. Children in  
38 grades 7 and 8 (age 12-15 years) in 9 Chinese secondary schools, with presenting  
39 visual acuity (VA)  $\leq 6/12$  improved with refraction to  $\geq 6/7.5$  bilaterally, refractive  
40 error  $\leq -1.0D$  and  $< 2.0 D$  of anisometropia and astigmatism bilaterally, were  
41 randomized to receive ready-made spectacles (RM) or identical-appearing spectacles  
42 with power determined by: subjective cycloplegic retinoscopy by a university  
43 optometrist (U), a rural refractionist (R), or non-cycloplegic self-refraction (SR).

44 Main study outcome was global score on the National Eye Institute Refractive Error  
45 Quality of Life-42 (NEI RQL-42) after two months wearing study glasses, comparing  
46 other groups with the U group, adjusting for baseline score.

47 **Results:** Only 1 child (0.18%) was excluded for anisometropia or astigmatism. A total  
48 of 426 eligible subjects (mean age 14.2 years, 84.5% without glasses at baseline) were  
49 allocated to U (103 [24.2%]), RM (113 [26.5%]), R (108 [25.4%]) and SR (102  
50 [23.9%]) groups respectively. Baseline and Endline score data were available for 398  
51 (93.4%) of subjects. In multiple regression models adjusting for baseline score, older  
52 age ( $P=0.003$ ) and baseline spectacle wear ( $P=0.016$ ), but not study group assignment,  
53 were significantly associated with lower final score.

54 **Conclusion:** Quality of life wearing ready-mades or glasses based on self-refraction  
55 did not differ from that with cycloplegic refraction by an experienced optometrist in  
56 this non-inferiority trial

57

58 **Key words:**

59 Visual function, self-refraction, rural refractionist, conventional refraction,  
60 ready-made spectacles, conventional spectacles, myopia, children, China

61

62 **Introduction**

63       Uncorrected refractive error was the leading cause of vision impairment in the  
64 world in 2010 (Pascolini & Mariotti 2012 ). A total of 12.8 million children aged 5–  
65 15 years are visually impaired from uncorrected or inadequately corrected refractive  
66 errors in 2004, with a global prevalence of 0.96% (Resnikoff *et al.* 2008 ). It is  
67 associated with reversible self-reported visual impairment among children ( Congdon  
68 *et al.* 2008) , and its correction has led to statistically-significant improvement in  
69 children’s school performance in a recent randomized trial ( Ma *et al.* 2014 ).

70       Though refractive error may be safely and effectively corrected with spectacles,  
71 lack of well-trained refractionists in settings of limited resources may be a major  
72 barrier (World Health Organization 2000, Turner *et al.* 2011 ), in part due to poor  
73 accuracy of spectacles based on prescriptions from available practitioners (Zhang *et al.*  
74 2009, Zhou *et al.* 2014 ). Recent studies (He *et al.* 2011 , Zhang *et al.* 2011 ) have  
75 suggested that myopic children can achieve vision of  $\geq 6/7.5$  in  $> 90\%$  of cases by  
76 self-refraction with adjustable spectacles, with accuracy similar to that of  
77 non-cycloplegic automated refraction, another modality that has been used in areas  
78 where trained refractionists are in short supply. Use of self refraction has the potential  
79 to reduce barriers to refractive care in such settings.

80       Another approach to improving access to spectacles in areas of limited resources  
81 is ready-made spectacles, which can both reduce costs and improve the logistics of  
82 service delivery over custom spectacles, while achieving comparable acceptability to

83 wearers (Zeng et al. 2009 ). Higher cost has been demonstrated in various settings to  
84 reduce uptake of spectacles ( Ma et al. 2014 , Odedra et al. 2008 ).

85 While the visual acuity and accuracy of refractive power obtainable with  
86 self-refraction have been assessed (He et al. 2011 , Zhang et al. 2011 ) , visual  
87 function associated with use of this technology for refraction has not been evaluated,  
88 as it has for other non-traditional modalities such as ready-made glasses (Brady et al.  
89 2012 ). The possibility exists that good results on testing of central acuity might mask  
90 discomfort or other problems, secondary perhaps to the failure to correct for  
91 astigmatism, or any over-minusing resulting from self-refraction without cycloplegia,  
92 which might be relevant to children’s daily use of spectacles. The goal of the WEAR  
93 (Wearability And Evaluation of Adjustable Refraction) trial (Phase II) was to  
94 compare self-rated quality of life (NEI RQL-42, main outcome) between rural  
95 secondary school Chinese children with inadequately-corrected myopia at baseline  
96 randomized to receive one of the following: ready-made glasses, or custom spectacles  
97 whose power was based on cycloplegic refraction by a university optometrist,  
98 cycloplegic refraction by a rural refractionist or self-refraction without cycloplegia.  
99 Only children with myopia were recruited for the study in view of the low prevalence  
100 and modest visual impact of other types of refractive error among children in China  
101 (He et al. 2004 , He et al. 2007 ).  
102

103 **METHODS**

104

105       The protocol for this study was approved in full by the Institutional Review  
106 Board of the Zhongshan Ophthalmic Center (ZOC), SunYat-senUniversity (SYSU,  
107 Guangzhou, China). Permission was obtained from the local Boards of Education and  
108 written informed consent was obtained from at least one parent of all participants. The  
109 principles of the Declaration of Helsinki were followed throughout.

110 **Design**

111       Since the main study hypothesis was that self-reported quality of life using the  
112 National Eye Institute Refractive Error Quality of Life-42 (NEI RQL-42) after two  
113 months wearing the study glasses would not differ between children in the  
114 Self-refraction, Rural refractionist and Ready-made spectacle groups as compared to  
115 the University refractionist group, which was considered the gold standard in this  
116 study, a non-inferiority trial design was applied. Such studies are designed to test the  
117 hypothesis that a novel treatment's effectiveness is not substantially less than the  
118 existing standard (Mulla et al. 2012).

119 **Subjects**

120 **Participating schools**

121       A total of nine Guangdong junior high schools inYangxi county of Yangjiang  
122 city, and Huidong county of Huizhou city, were selected in non-random fashion  
123 (principal basis being a willingness of the school administration to take part in the  
124 trial) from a list of all schools in these two counties. Distances from the urban center  
125 were as follows: two schools were located directly in the downtown area; one school  
126 was at a distance of 10 kilometers; one school at 20 kilometers; one school 30  
127 kilometers; three schools at 40 kilometers; and one school at 50 kilometers.

128 **Baseline visual acuity assessment**

129 All children in grades 7 and 8 (generally 12-15 years old) at the selected schools  
130 who were present on the day of examination underwent baseline visual acuity (VA)  
131 screening by nurses and optometrists from February to May 2013. Uncorrected VA  
132 and corrected VA with children's own spectacles if owned were tested separately for  
133 each eye at 4 meters using Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy Study (ETDRS)  
134 charts (Ferris et al. 1982) (Precision Vision, La Salle, IL, USA) in a well-lit, indoor  
135 area of the school. Lens power of existing spectacles was measured with a lensometer  
136 (Topcon CL 100, Tokyo, Japan). Children presenting with VA  $\leq$  6/12 in both eyes  
137 were considered provisionally eligible and underwent randomization (see below) and  
138 refraction to determine final eligibility for the trial.

139 **Randomization, Interventions and Masking (Figure 1)**

140 All provisionally eligible children in each grade and each county (VA < 6/12 in  
141 both eyes) were randomized individually to one of four groups, stratifying by grade  
142 (grade 7 and grade 8) and the two towns. Children themselves and investigators  
143 assessing study outcomes were masked to group assignment. Three groups received  
144 standard, custom spectacles with inter-pupillary distance measured by standard  
145 techniques and powers determined in the following fashion:

146 *University optometrists group:* Cycloplegic automated refraction with refinement  
147 by an experienced optometrist from ZOC.

148 *Rural refractionists group:* Cycloplegic automated refraction with refinement by  
149 a rural refractionist from a local county-level hospital who had received refraction  
150 training in an on-going program administered by ZOC.

151 *Self-refraction group:* Non-cycloplegic self-refraction using fluid-filled  
152 adjustable spectacles and a protocol based on that which has previously been  
153 reported.[9-10] Additionally a fourth group, the *Ready-made Group*, received pseudo



154 ready-made spectacles as previously described (Zeng et al. 2009 ) , with power in  
155 both eyes equal to the spherical equivalent of the eye with lower power (absolute  
156 value), on subjective refraction by an optometrist from ZOC following cycloplegic  
157 automated refraction. Spectacle powers were available in 0.50 D steps between -1.00  
158 to -6.00 D, and 1.00D steps between -7.00 and -10.00D, with measured power being  
159 rounded down to the nearest step as needed. Available inter-pupillary distances were  
160 50, 55, 60 and 65 mm.

161 Children in all groups were permitted to select from among 22 frame styles  
162 provided by local optical shops as popular among secondary school children in the  
163 area, as previously described .( Zhou et al. 2014)

164 Subjects and study personnel administering the questionnaires and assessing VA  
165 were masked to study group assignment.

#### 166 **Inclusion and exclusion criteria and final allocation**

167 Children meeting all the following criteria after refraction as described above  
168 were eligible for recruitment in the study:

- 169 • Presenting VA ( If the child wears glasses, her/his presenting VA is her/his  
170 corrected VA with their own spectacles; if the child does not wear spectacles,  
171 her/his presenting VA is her/his uncorrected VA) $\leq$  6/12 in both eyes
- 172 • Subjective spherical equivalent refractive error ( SER )  $\leq$  -1.00 diopters (D)  
173 in both eyes
- 174 • VA improvable to  $>$  6/7.5 in both eyes with refraction as assigned in their  
175 group. It was considered un-ethical to permit children to wear glasses not  
176 providing adequate vision, and the goal of the study was to determine  
177 whether children achieving good VA with alternative modalities might have  
178 ocular discomfort or other issues affecting quality of life.

179 Children with ocular diseases potentially affecting the vision and those with  
180 astigmatism or anisometropia  $\geq 2.00$  D were excluded, the latter for ethical reasons,  
181 following the example of Brady et al (Brady et al. 2012 ). Children with VA  $\leq 6/7.5$   
182 in either eye after self-refraction, refraction by the rural optometrist or with  
183 pseudo-readymade glasses were referred for refraction by the university optometrist  
184 and provision of free spectacles after exclusion from the study. Children whose VA  
185 could not be improved by the university optometrist were referred to the local county  
186 hospital for further examination.

### 187 **Quality check of the spectacles as dispensed**

188 To avoid inaccurate spectacles made during the process of spectacles making were  
189 given to children, a 25% sub-sample of glasses in each group were selected at random  
190 and checked by auto-lensometry, and the vector difference in diopters, conventionally  
191 positive, between the prescription and the measured value on the lensometer was  
192 calculated (Thibos et al. 1997, Harvey et al. 2000).

### 193 **Educational Intervention**

194 To promote compliance with glasses wear, all participants received a set of  
195 educational interventions described previously ( Ma et al. 2014 ) , including a 10  
196 minute video, a booklet of professionally-drawn comics, a presentation in class  
197 directed at teachers and students by study personnel and a parents' brochure, all  
198 explaining the safety and visual benefits of spectacles.

### 199 **Questionnaires and Outcome Assessment**

200 The National Eye Institute Refractive Error Quality of Life (NEI RQL-42)  
201 questionnaire (Berry et al. 2003, Hays et al 2003, Hays & DSpritzer 2002) was used  
202 to evaluate the visual function-related quality of life at baseline and after two months  
203 of spectacle wear at the endline examination. Self-reported frequency of spectacles

204 use, value attached to the glasses, and participant satisfaction with glasses were also  
205 assessed at endline as described elsewhere (Zeng et al. 2009, Brady et al. 2012 ).

206 The primary study outcome was the difference in global score on the NEI  
207 RQL-42 at endline between the University Optometrist group and the other three  
208 groups. The NEI RQL-42 consists of 42 items across 13 domains, such as near and far  
209 visual acuity, glare, appearance and satisfaction with correction, with a higher score  
210 representing better quality of life. Each item was rescaled to a 0 to 100 range  
211 according to guidelines in the user's manual ( Hays & Spritzer 2002 ), and a global  
212 score calculated by averaging the subscales.

### 213 **Sample size**

214 The sample size was calculated based on the endline NEI RQL-42 global score  
215 according to a non-inferiority margin of 30% of the difference between treatment and  
216 control conditions, as has been recommended ( Nutt et al. 2008, Jones et al. 1996 ). A  
217 recent study using the NEI RQL-42 questionnaire found an overall difference of 15.8  
218 in global score between subjects with spectacle correction and emmetropes (Queirós  
219 et al. 2012). Accordingly, we used 5.7, or 30% of 15.8, as the non-inferiority criterion.  
220 With a standard deviation of 15.0, the required sample size was 90 subjects per group  
221 with a power of 80% and a one-sided significance level of 5% ( $\alpha=0.05$ ).

### 222 **Statistical Methods**

223 Baseline characteristics of participants including age, subjective spherical  
224 equivalent refractive error in the better-seeing eye with better presenting VA (eye  
225 with better uncorrected VA for children without glasses, and eye with better corrected  
226 VA for children with glasses), gender, spectacle wear and proportion with presenting  
227 VA < 6/18 in the better-seeing eye were reported as mean (SD, standard deviation) for

228 normally-distributed continuous variables, median (IQR, inter quartile range) for data  
229 with non-normal distribution, and frequency (percentage) for categorical variables.

230 The proportion of vector dioptric difference (VDD) values between the  
231 prescription power and power measured by lensometry in the better-seeing eye falling  
232 within +/-0.25 D, +/-0.50D and +/-1.0D in each group were calculated, and compared  
233 using Fisher's exact test between the University Optometrist group and each of the  
234 remaining groups. Linear regression adjusting for baseline global NEI RQL-42 score  
235 was used to assess differences between the University Optometrist group and the  
236 remaining groups (main outcome).

237 The proportion of subjects with best-corrected VA  $\geq 6/6$  with study spectacles  
238 was compared between the University Optometrist group and each remaining group,  
239 adjusting for baseline presenting VA in better-seeing eye using logistic regression.

240 The proportion reporting being very satisfied or satisfied, and rating the study  
241 spectacles as their most valued possession, of high value or of moderate value were  
242 compared between the University optometrist group and the remaining groups using  
243 logistic regression. All analyses were performed using Stata 12.0 (StataCorp, College  
244 Station, TX).

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249

250 **RESULTS**

251 Among 9889 children undergoing VA screening, 914 (9.2%) were provisionally  
252 eligible on the basis of having presenting VA  $\leq 6/12$  in both eyes. Parents of 361  
253 (39.5%) declined to participate, and 11 (1.2%) were excluded due to history of ocular  
254 disease affecting vision. (Figure 1) The remaining 542 (59.3%) children were  
255 randomized to groups as follows: University optometrist (n=135, 24.9%),  
256 Ready-made (n=134, 24.7%), Rural refractionist(n=138, 25.5%) and Self-refraction  
257 (n=135, 24.9%). After refraction, 116 (21.4%) children were excluded for having the  
258 following conditions in either eye: spherical equivalent refractive error  $> -1.0$  D (n=72,  
259 13.3%), best-corrected VA  $<6/7.5$  (n=43, 7.9%) or astigmatism  $\geq 2.0$  D (n=1,  
260 0.18%). (Figure 1)

261 Among 426 (78.6%) eligible subjects receiving final group allocation, 103  
262 (24.2%), 113 (26.5%), 108 (25.4%) and 102 (23.9%) were assigned to the University  
263 optometrist, Ready-made, Rural refractionist and Self-refraction groups respectively.  
264 Among 103 (24.2%) total children in the four groups selected at random to test the  
265 accuracy of the study spectacles by lensometry, 19 (18.5%) and 3 (2.91%) had glasses  
266 inaccurate by  $\geq 0.25$  D and  $\geq 1.0$ D respectively in the better-seeing eye. Accuracy in  
267 the University Optometrist group did not differ significantly from that in any of the  
268 other groups.

269 Among 426 children with complete VA data (mean age 14.2 [1.01] years, 196  
270 [46.0 %] male), a total of 360 (84.5 %) did not have spectacles at baseline, and 171  
271 (40.1 %) had presenting VA  $\leq 6/18$  in the better-seeing eye. Their median (IQR)  
272 spherical equivalent refractive error in the better-seeing eye was -2.06 (-3.00, -1.50) D.  
273 (Table 1)

274 The median baseline presenting VA in each group prior to receiving the study  
275 spectacles was 6/15, and the median best-corrected VA with study spectacles was  
276 6/7.5 in all but the Rural refractionist group (median = 6/6). (Table 2) The proportion  
277 of children with best-corrected VA  $\geq$  6/6 was significantly lower in the University  
278 optometrist group compared to the Ready-made (P = 0.033), Rural refractionist  
279 (<0.001) and Self-refraction (P = 0.001) groups. Children with corrected VA < 6/7.5  
280 with their assigned refraction modality were excluded, but a small number of children  
281 (n=17, 4.0%) did have VA < 6/7.5 when their glasses were fitted. (Table 2)

282 At two months, 4 (3.9%), 6 (5.3%), 3 (2.8%) and 4 (3.9%) children were lost to  
283 follow-up in the University optometrist, Ready-made, Rural refractionist and  
284 Self-refraction groups respectively. Over 94% of children in each group reported  
285 wearing the study spectacles at follow-up, though fewer than 10% of children overall  
286 reported wearing them all day (Table 3). Some two-thirds of children in each group  
287 reported being very satisfied or satisfied with the study spectacles, while  
288 approximately three-quarters in each group indicated they placed moderate, high or  
289 very high value on the glasses. Rates of wear, satisfaction and value attributed to the  
290 glasses did not differ between groups. (Table 3).

291 Among 409 (96.0%) total children attending two-month follow-up, 398 (97.3%)  
292 had complete NEI RQL-42 data at baseline and endline for analysis of the primary  
293 outcome. (Figure 1) Though the NEI RQL-42 global scores of all groups improved  
294 significantly from baseline to endline, the difference in endline scores of the University  
295 optometrist group did not differ significantly from that of the other three groups when  
296 adjusting for baseline scores. (Table 4)

297 In multiple linear regression model adjusting for baseline NEI RQL-42 global  
298 score (main outcome), older age (P=0.002) and wearing spectacles at baseline

299 (P=0.025) were significantly associated with endline global score after wearing the  
300 study spectacles for two months, while study group assignment, male sex, and  
301 refractive error at baseline in the better-seeing eye were not. (Table 5).

302

303

304 **DISCUSSION**

305

306 In this non-inferiority trial, we found no evidence of worse quality of life, our  
307 main study outcome, comparing self-refraction and ready-made glasses with  
308 cycloplegic refraction by an experienced optometrist (the standard of care). This  
309 finding, together with the observed similar rates of wear, satisfaction and value  
310 attached to the glasses between groups, adds to previous data (He et al. 2011 , Zhang  
311 et al. 2011 ) on the good vision achievable with self refraction and ready-made  
312 spectacles to give a fuller picture of the acceptability of these alternative modalities  
313 for use in children where skilled refractionists are scarce. Our review identified no  
314 previous trials of alternative refractive modalities in children assessing quality of life  
315 as an outcome. The important fact that all refraction modalities could significantly  
316 improve children's quality of life in this setting is consistent with limited available  
317 published data (Esteso et al. 2007 )for conventional refraction.

318 Results of the current study are consistent with an earlier trial in Chinese children  
319 having similar enrollment criteria, which found no difference in rates of wear,  
320 symptoms or value attached to the spectacles (using the same question as in the  
321 current study) after 1 month wear of ready-made versus custom glasses (Zeng et al.  
322 2009 ). Though the number of children failing to achieve VA of 6/7.5 with  
323 self-refraction (20.7%) was higher than with refraction by the University optometrist  
324 (4.0%), a significantly higher proportion of children could achieve 6/6 vision with  
325 self-refraction (76.8% versus 24.3% for University optometrist,  $P = 0.001$ ).



326        These results are generally consistent with high levels of best-corrected VA  $\geq$   
327    6/7.5 with self-refraction using the identical spectacle design in our previous studies  
328    in Chinese children(He et al. 2011 , Zhang et al. 2011 ) A small study (total of 100  
329    adults in Boston and Nicaragua) (Esteso et al. 2007 ) reported a mean difference in  
330    refractive power between subjective refraction and self-refraction (again using  
331    fluid-filled spectacles as in the current study) which was neither clinically (0.08 -  
332    0.17D) nor statistically significant. These previous studies (He et al. 2011 , Zhang et  
333    al. 2011, Zeng et al. 2009, Smith et al. 2010 ) did not include measures of visual  
334    function. Our previous two studies (He et al. 2011 , Zhang et al. 2011 ) did detect  
335    statistically significant, though clinically small, differences in the proportion of  
336    children with best-corrected VA  $\geq$  6/7.5 between self-refraction and cycloplegic  
337    refraction groups, perhaps due to being powered to detect smaller disparities than the  
338    current non-inferiority trial.

339        Our review identified only a single previous trial of alternative modalities for  
340    refractive correction which evaluated visual function and quality of life (Brady et al.  
341    2012 ). This trial reported large increases in visual function and quality of life among  
342    Indian adults randomized to receive ready-made versus custom spectacles, though  
343    improvements were smaller in the former group. Measures of satisfaction were the  
344    same in the two groups. Visual and refractive enrollment and exclusion criteria were  
345    similar to the current study, except that there were no exclusions based on  
346    astigmatism in the Indian trial. Another previous study reported good visual results

347 with self-refraction in adults using fluid-filled spectacles, but did not employ a  
348 randomized, controlled design ( Douali & Silver 2004 ).

349 Our main outcome was assessed using the NEI RQL-42 questionnaire, which has  
350 been demonstrated to have excellent internal consistency, test-retest reliability and  
351 concurrent validity (correlation with subjective refraction ( Nichols et al.2003 ).)  
352 Construct validity has also been shown to be good ( Nichols et al.2003 ) . Though  
353 questions have been raised about its psychometric properties (McAlinden et al. 2011 ),  
354 this tool has been validated in several translations (Labiris et al. 2012, Pakpour et al  
355 2013 ), and continues to be widely used in assessing the impact of refractive care on  
356 quality of life (Jones et al. 1996, Cillino et al. 2014, Nehls et al. 2014) . Though this  
357 instrument has not been widely utilized in pediatric populations, the authors felt that it  
358 was important to employ an instrument specific to refractive error and its correction,  
359 and no such instruments currently exist which are specific to children.

360 The current study employed several enrollment criteria. For ethical reasons,  
361 children whose VA could not be improved to  $\geq 6/7.5$  in both eyes were excluded.  
362 This is consistent with the aim of the study, namely to explore the hypothesis that  
363 good central VA in children using alternative modalities such as self-refraction and  
364 ready-made glasses might mask visual symptoms from over-correction or failure to  
365 correct astigmatism, which could affect quality of life. Further, children were only  
366 eligible if they had presenting VA  $< 6/12$  and spherical equivalent refractive error  
367  $< -1.0$  D in both eyes. These criteria, similar to those used in previous trials (Zeng et al.

368 2009, Odedra et al. 2008, Brady et al. 2012 ), were applied in order to identify  
369 children whose quality of life scores would be likely to improve from baseline with  
370 refraction. Children with two diopters or more of astigmatism or anisometropia were  
371 also excluded in the current trial, as they would not be expected to achieve optimal  
372 vision with self-refraction or ready-made glasses.

373 This raises a practical programmatic issue in considering the use of alternative  
374 modalities for refractive care which do not correct astigmatism (self-refraction,  
375 ready-made spectacles) or allow management of anisometropia (ready-mades): the  
376 proportion of persons in the target population who could not be treated for these  
377 reasons. Unlike ready-made glasses, adjustable spectacles or custom glasses based on  
378 self-refraction can provide different spectacle power in the two eyes to suit subjects  
379 with anisometropia. An early report based on modeling from a population-based study  
380 in Australia concluded that some 85-90% of older persons in Australia with refractive  
381 error might benefit from the use of ready-made glasses (astigmatism $\leq$  1.25D and  
382 anisometropia $\leq$  0.5D) (Maini et al. 2001 ), while Zeng et al (Zeng et al. 2009 ) found  
383 that 6% of secondary school children were inappropriate for use of ready-made  
384 glasses ( $\geq$  2D of astigmatism or anisometropia). In the current study, only 44  
385 children (8.1%) were excluded on the basis of inadequately-corrected VA  
386 orastigmatism/anisomotropia (defined as in Zeng's study). The current report and  
387 Zeng's work suggest that ready-made glasses and self-refraction could be acceptable  
388 for the large majority of children in this setting.

389 A remaining practical question is whether existing child-specific adjustable  
390 glasses designs will be cosmetically acceptable to children. Our recent findings  
391 among younger and older rural and urban Chinese children suggest that the thick  
392 frames, but not the round shape, employed in current fluid-filled designs is attractive  
393 to children ( Zhou et al. 2014). Our on-going trial of medium-term wear of adjustable  
394 versus custom and ready-made spectacles among Chinese children is designed to  
395 provide further insight into the acceptability of adjustable spectacles for wear as well  
396 as refraction.

397 Strengths of the current study include its randomized controlled design and high  
398 follow-up rate. Weaknesses must also be acknowledged: enrolled schools were not  
399 selected using a random sampling technique, and all were drawn from a single region  
400 in southern China. For this reason, application to other populations must be made with  
401 caution. Though spectacle wear rates were > 95% in all of the study groups and we did  
402 use a previously-validated ( Ma et al. 2014 ) educational intervention to improve  
403 glasses wear, <10% of children reported wearing their glasses all day, which might be  
404 expected to reduce the impact of glasses on quality of life. Modest rates of spectacle  
405 use are widely reported for children in many settings ( Ma et al. 2014, Estes et al.  
406 2007 ), and we wanted to assess the impact of these different types of correction on  
407 quality of life in real world settings.

408 Despite its limitations, this is the first randomized trial to assess quality of life of  
409 myopic children wearing ready-made spectacles and those whose power was based on

410 self-refraction, as compared to cycloplegic refraction by experienced refractionists.  
411 Our finding of non-inferiority with respect to the main outcome, quality of life, builds  
412 on previous publications (He et al. 2011 , Zhang et al. 2011, Zeng et al. 2009 )  
413 showing good visual results in children with these alternative modes of refractive  
414 correction. Additional research is needed to assess the acceptability of adjustable  
415 spectacles for actual wear among children and adults, and also to test models for how  
416 these modalities can be used in actual service delivery programs.

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420

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422

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426

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542 **Figure legends**

543 Figure 1: Enrollment, allocation, follow-up and analysis of subjects in the study