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Altering the way the optic nerve head responds to intraocular pressure—a potential approach to glaucoma therapy

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Over the past decade, engineering principles have been used to explain why a mechanical load, intraocular pressure, can lead to the development of glaucomatous optic neuropathy. This has led to the 'biomechanical theory' of glaucoma, which posits that the behavior of optic nerve head connective tissues (specifically within the peripapillary sclera and lamina cribrosa) in response to intraocular pressure (regardless of its magnitude) can directly and indirectly influence the physiology and pathophysiology of the optic nerve head. Given that the biomechanics of the sclera and lamina cribrosa probably influence retinal ganglion cell loss in glaucoma, the idea that altering biomechanical behavior might be protective against glaucoma is an appealing notion. There is some evidence to suggest that stiffening the peripapillary sclera may be protective against the development of glaucoma in an animal model. It is technically possible to stiffen the sclera *in vivo* using collagen cross-linking techniques already applied *in vivo* to the cornea in the treatment of keratoconus. It has yet to be established whether scleral cross-linking is safe in humans and that it confers anything more than a theoretical advantage in terms of reducing the risk of glaucomatous damage.

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Introduction

Although the definition of the glaucomas – a group of conditions in which there is a progressive optic neuropathy with development of associated characteristic visual field deficits – does not include elevated intraocular pressure (IOP), it is clear that elevated IOP is a key risk factor in the development of glaucoma. Furthermore,

there is evidence to suggest that lowering of IOP may retard glaucomatous conversion in ocular hypertensives and glaucomatous progression in both high-tension and normal-tension forms of open angle glaucoma [1–3]. Given these observations, it is reasonable to infer that IOP, regardless of its magnitude, may influence the development of glaucomatous optic neuropathy.

How does IOP – either directly or indirectly – influence damage to the retinal ganglion cell (RGC) axons and therefore the development of glaucoma? There is much evidence to suggest that a key site of injury to the RGC is at the level of the lamina cribrosa (LC) within the optic nerve head (ONH) [4–7]. From a mechanical perspective, the ONH is essentially a 'weak spot' as it is a discontinuity within the otherwise robust corneo-scleral coat. The LC, and adjacent peripapillary sclera serve as the chief load-bearing connective tissue structures of the ONH, deriving their 'strength' from the constituent collagen. The LC is a complex three-dimensional structure comprising of a series of interconnected connective tissue beams and spaces, bridging the 'gap' within the termination of the peripapillary sclera. The 'pores' or spaces within the LC architecture allow the passage of RGC axon bundles as they leave the globe to continue within the retrobulbar optic nerve. It is within the passage through the LC that RGC axons are presumed to be vulnerable to IOP-related insult in glaucoma – perhaps transmitted through direct damage to the supporting connective tissues with interruption of axoplasmic flow and disruption of nutrient supply to the axons.

Within the last 15 years, the principles of biomechanics have been applied to the study of the relationship between the ONH and IOP [8–10]. Biomechanics refers to the application of mechanical principles to biological systems. The ONH may be treated as a biomechanical structure, with a complex 3D load-bearing connective tissue architecture (the LC) subjected to stress (a measure of internal force per unit area) induced by IOP. By studying the response of ONH connective tissues to IOP, we may elucidate: (1) why certain eyes are predisposed to developing glaucomatous optic neuropathy with high IOP and others are not; (2) why certain eyes develop glaucoma with a statistically normal IOP and (3) how ageing may influence the development of glaucoma through alterations in connective tissue biomechanical behavior.

In this review, the biomechanical paradigm of glaucoma will be explained as well as the key developments over the

past 5 years that have increased our understanding of how the connective tissues of the ONH respond to biomechanical insult. We will speculate upon methods that may be used to alter the biomechanical behavior of the ONH in order to prevent or slow the development of glaucoma.

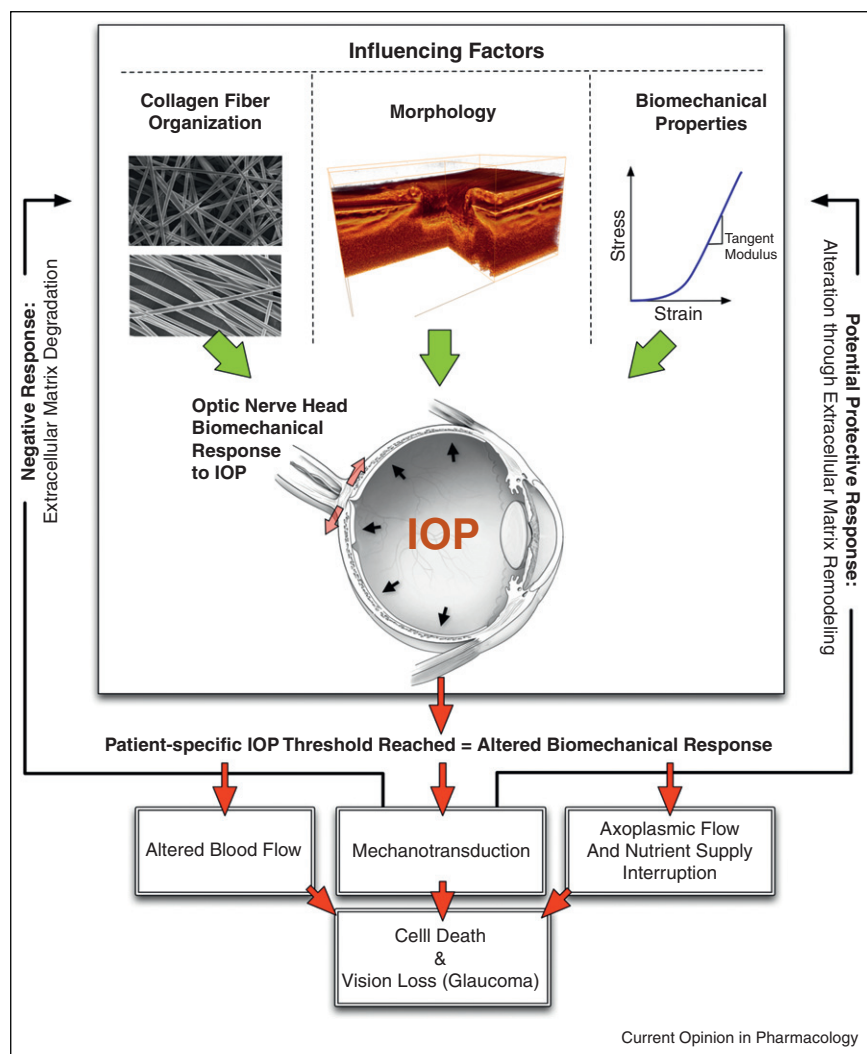
The biomechanical theory of glaucoma

The biomechanical theory of glaucoma proposes that ONH biomechanics may explain how IOP-induced stress and strain (a measure of tissue deformation) of the load bearing tissues of the ONH (sclera and LC) influence their physiology and pathophysiology, and of the adjunctive tissues (astrocytes, glia, endothelial cells, vascular pericytes and their basement membranes) and the RGC axons [8,11,12]. ONH biomechanics is the 'link' by which IOP can influence such apparently non-IOP factors such as ischemia, inflammation, autoimmunity, astrocytic and

glial cell biology. The interplay between IOP, biomechanics and retinal ganglion cell loss is outlined in schematic form in Figure 1.

Multiple biomechanical factors are likely to influence an individual ONH's susceptibility to glaucoma, including, but not limited to: (1) the magnitude and variation of IOP; (2) collagen fiber orientation in the peripapillary sclera – a highly-aligned collagen fiber ring may protect the ONH against IOP-related insult [13,14]; (3) LC and scleral stiffness – a stiff sclera may shield the ONH from IOP-related insult; (4) LC and scleral geometry – a thick lamina may protect against mechanical damage [15]. IOP-induced deformations of connective tissues, and thus biomechanics, can also affect the volume flow and perfusion pressure of blood within the lamellar capillaries, which will in turn influence the diffusion of nutrients to

Figure 1



Schemata describing the mechanisms by which optic nerve head biomechanics may result in retinal ganglion cell loss in glaucoma. 'Mechanotransduction' refers to the conversion of mechanical stimuli to chemical signals at a cellular level.

astrocytes. Finally there may be features within the RGC itself that will result in an increased susceptibility to apoptosis in response to localised distress [16].

Measuring the anatomical response to acute changes in IOP

A first essential process in the study of ONH biomechanics has been to examine the response of ONH tissues in response to manipulations in IOP. Several investigators have studied the 'compliance' (the inverse of stiffness) of the normal ONH in response to an acute elevation of IOP using techniques of increasing complexity. These include: X-ray photography of cadaveric non-human primate eyes with fine platinum wires inserted into the peripapillary sclera and optic disc [17], laser doppler velocimetry of normal human autopsy eyes [18], conventional histology of human eyes [19], 2D [20,21], and 3D histomorphometric reconstructions of post mortem normal monkey eyes [22]. Various imaging modalities have been used *in vivo* in normal monkey eyes [23,24]. Numerical models have also been used [25,26]. These reports were all consistent (to a greater or lesser degree) in finding a posterior movement of the optic disc surface in response to an acute elevation of IOP.

Post mortem studies, performed both in human and monkey eyes, have indicated that the LC and scleral canal wall deform after acute IOP elevation [19–21,27]. The effect of acute IOP elevation upon monkey ONH connective tissues was initially explored using 2D histomorphometry by comparing a series of eyes perfusion fixed at IOP 10 mmHg with eyes that had been immersion fixed at IOP 0 mmHg [21]. In that study, the lamina was found to be thinner and more anterior, and the scleral canal diameter larger in the IOP 10 mmHg eyes. These observations suggested that, with acute IOP elevations at a low native IOP, the scleral canal expands resulting in a tauter, thinner, more anteriorly placed lamina. Subsequently, 2D histomorphometry was performed in normal young adult monkeys perfusion fixed at 10 mmHg in one eye and 30 or 45 mmHg in the fellow eye [20]. In that study, a posterior lamina deformation of 10–23 μm in the high IOP eyes compared to their contralateral fellow eyes was demonstrated. Most recently, ONH connective tissue deformation has been characterised in 3D histomorphometric ONH reconstructions of eyes perfusion fixed after acute IOP elevation to 30 or 45 mmHg compared to 10 mmHg in their fellow eyes [22]. Minimal to modest regional lamina thinning and posterior bowing of the peripapillary sclera, thinning and expansion of the scleral canal was observed in most of the high IOP eyes. The minimal posterior lamina displacement in response to acute IOP elevation was also noted in a series of *in vivo* spectral domain OCT imaging studies conducted both in monkeys and in humans, although scleral canal expansion was not measured [28,29]. Modeling has demonstrated that the LC is likely to be subject to significant

increases in stress and strain, even in the absence of posterior deformation, because of the transfer of tensile stretch caused by the expansion of the scleral canal [26,30,31].

The effect of chronic IOP in the development of glaucomatous optic neuropathy

Given that only minimal posterior lamina displacement has mostly been observed following acute IOP elevations, it is therefore likely that the characteristic 'cupping' identified in glaucomatous optic neuropathy follows on from connective tissue and extracellular matrix remodeling in response to a chronic IOP insult (whether elevated or within normal range). In 3D histomorphometric studies of monkey eyes with early onset experimental glaucoma, thickening and posterior bowing of the LC was detected [32–34]. Furthermore, the proportion of horizontally orientated lamina beams was found to increase, leading to a suggestion that retrolamina septal beams become 'recruited' into the connective tissue LC in response to chronic IOP elevation [32]. An alternative or additional hypothesis, supported by findings in normal human eyes [35], is that there is gradual posterior migration of the lamina insertion such that it inserts into the pia. It is expected that the astrocytes and lamina cribrosa cells mediate the extracellular remodeling of the LC in response to chronic IOP [36].

The role of sclera

The peripapillary sclera appears to exert a large influence over the biomechanics of the ONH; as stated earlier, the circumferential IOP-induced 'hoop stress' is transferred to the LC via the sclera and scleral canal expansion will drive some of the strains experienced within the LC. *In vivo* studies conducted in normal subjects and subjects with glaucoma have estimated that ocular rigidity (a crude measure of scleral stiffness) increases with the development of glaucoma [37]. These findings support *ex vivo* work conducted in the monkey eye that suggests that scleral stiffness increases with both ageing and with moderate elevations in IOP, although the latter may be preceded by a period of scleral hypercompliance [38,39••]. A recent inflation study of enucleated normal and glaucomatous human eyes found that glaucomatous eyes had a stiffer meridional strain response in the peripapillary region than in normal eyes, although it is unclear whether this characteristic represents a consequence of, or a predisposition towards, the development of glaucoma [40•]. It is possible that the sclera may stiffen and does so as a protective mechanism against an increase in IOP through mechanotransduction (the cellular 'conversion' of mechanical stimuli into biochemical responses) of scleral fibroblasts and extracellular matrix remodeling. If this were the case, such a response could act to slow glaucomatous progression in eyes with higher IOPs and/or more compliant scleral shells at baseline.

There is, in fact, evidence to suggest that a stiffer sclera may be protective against the development of glaucoma, at least in the mouse eye [41^{••}]. Mice with a mutation to collagen 8 (Aca23 mice), which have longer and wider eyes than wild type mice, were found to develop proportionally less globe enlargement and significantly less RGC loss than wild type mice with the onset of experimentally induced glaucoma. It is tempting, if not unreasonable, to assume that the difference in susceptibility to experimental glaucoma may be due to alterations in scleral biomechanical behavior.

Monkey eyes with initially stiff or thick sclera have been shown to be less prone to biomechanical changes in response to chronic IOP elevation [39^{••}], which suggests that stiff eyes have a lower sensitivity to IOP. The notion that a stiff scleral shell may be an advantage for patients with glaucoma appears to be paradoxical when one considers that the sclera stiffens with age [38] and susceptibility to glaucoma increases with age [42]. To reconcile these contradictory observations, it should be noted that collagen fibers become more brittle with age [43]; it is therefore possible that scleral stiffening with age is a 'suboptimal' mechanism resulting in a biomechanically unstable ONH.

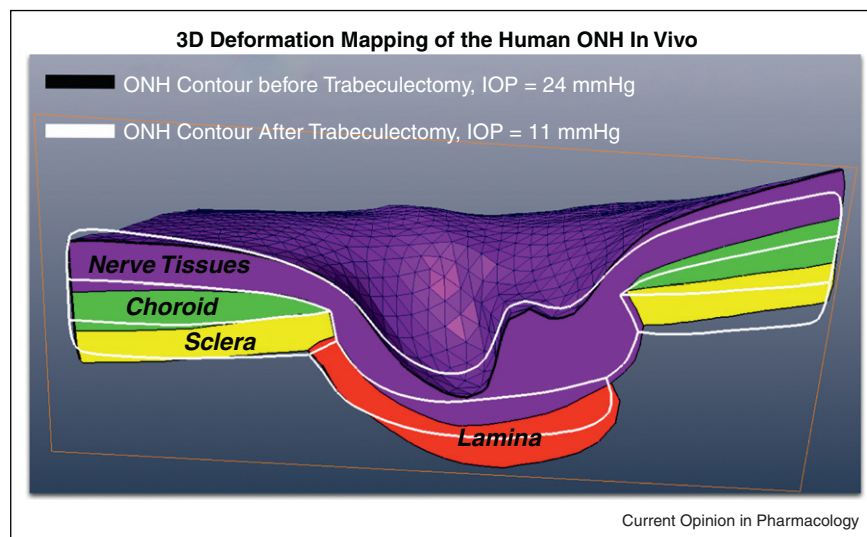
Altering biomechanical behavior as potential therapy?

Having posited that the biomechanical behavior of ONH connective tissues influences the pathophysiology of RGC loss in glaucoma, a natural extension might be to consider whether manipulating ONH biomechanics might serve as a potential therapeutic avenue in glaucoma. It is certainly technically possible to 'stiffen' the

sclera and this has been mooted as a potential treatment for progressive myopia. This has been achieved *in vivo* in human subjects by juxtасcleral injection of a liquid polymer 'strengthening' agent and by 'scleroplastic' surgery whereby donor scleral strips or other biomaterials are sutured to the sclera to increase its tensile strength [44]. Although the proof of concept (in other words, some reduction in the rate of axial lengthening) has been demonstrated using posterior polar scleral buckling techniques [45], high complication rates have also been reported with other scleroplastic surgical techniques [46]. As such these techniques have not yet been widely adopted for the treatment of progressive myopia.

In the past decade, corneal cross-linking has been introduced as an *in vivo* method that stiffens the cornea and retards the progression of keratoconus [47]. This is achieved by photo-polymerisation to induce increased cross-linking between collagen fibrils leading to a stiffer fiber network. In clinical practice, topical riboflavin is used as the photosensitizing agent, with UVA illumination acting as the photo-stimulus. A number of investigators have demonstrated that the same cross-linking technique may increase scleral stiffness both *ex vivo* in human and porcine eyes [48,49] and *in vivo* using rabbit eyes [50], with a sustained effect for up to 8 months in the latter. Unfortunately, this technique was also found to be highly cytotoxic to the outer retina of the rabbit eye and this was presumably related to the dosing of UVA [50]. An alternative *in vivo* chemical cross-linking method using glycerinaldehyde was found to have a similar biomechanical effect on rabbit sclera, although without any observed retinal toxicity [51]. There is, however, some evidence to suggest that increasing scleral cross-linking may result in

Figure 2



3D OCT images acquired *in vivo* in a glaucoma subject before and after IOP lowering by trabeculectomy. The 3D displacement in the images in response to the change in IOP may be used to extract tissue strains in the imaged regions of the optic nerve head.

greater scleral permeability that theoretically could lead to unwanted sequelae [52]. Scleral cross-linking has not yet been applied to an animal model of glaucoma.

It may be that a 'safe' technique that stiffens the sclera might protect against glaucoma by limiting IOP-induced strain in the ONH tissues, as predicted by computational models [30,31]. However, at the time of writing, one cannot yet be certain whether stiffening of the sclera (or indeed the LC) will be protective in glaucoma; it is possible that in some individuals the effect may be harmful and in effect an increasing of ONH compliance may be therapeutically advantageous. Our understanding of the biomechanical characteristics that predispose clinically to the development of glaucoma (and perhaps might be modified in a therapeutic approach) will improve as *in vivo* biomechanical testing of the ONH begins to become possible using high-resolution spectral domain OCT technology (Figure 2) to capture IOP-induced deformations of the sclera and LC.

Conclusions

The biomechanical behavior of the connective tissues of the optic nerve head – specifically the lamina cribrosa and peripapillary sclera – probably influences the physiology and pathophysiology of the optic nerve head. The biomechanical theory of glaucoma may help to explain how certain eyes are predisposed to the development of glaucomatous optic neuropathy either at high IOP or at normal levels of IOP, and some eyes are not. Furthermore, age-related changes in biomechanical behavior may help to explain the increasing predisposition to glaucoma with ageing. Given the likely role of scleral and lamina cribrosa biomechanics, an ability to manipulate their biomechanical behavior may serve as a potential therapeutic target. It is already technically possible to strengthen and stiffen the sclera both *ex vivo* and *in vivo* in animals using collagen cross-linking techniques. Whilst these undoubtedly have the potential to stiffen the sclera, these techniques are not yet known to be safe and there is no proof that they will be of benefit in glaucoma. It is possible that scleral stiffening may not be advantageous in all individuals with, or at risk of, glaucoma. Our understanding of optic nerve head biomechanics *in vivo* will need to increase so that we can appreciate what characteristics predispose to glaucomatous damage; only then can we begin to design appropriate biomechanical modification therapies.

Conflict of interest

None.

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