



# Glaucoma and biomechanics

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## Purpose of review

Biomechanics is an important aspect of the complex family of diseases known as the glaucomas. Here, we review recent studies of biomechanics in glaucoma.

## Recent findings

Several tissues have direct and/or indirect biomechanical roles in various forms of glaucoma, including the trabecular meshwork, cornea, peripapillary sclera, optic nerve head/sheath, and iris. Multiple mechanosensory mechanisms and signaling pathways continue to be identified in both the trabecular meshwork and optic nerve head. Further, the recent literature describes a variety of approaches for investigating the role of tissue biomechanics as a risk factor for glaucoma, including pathological stiffening of the trabecular meshwork, peripapillary scleral structural changes, and remodeling of the optic nerve head. Finally, there have been advances in incorporating biomechanical information in glaucoma prognoses, including corneal biomechanical parameters and iridial mechanical properties in angle-closure glaucoma.

## Summary

Biomechanics remains an active aspect of glaucoma research, with activity in both basic science and clinical translation. However, the role of biomechanics in glaucoma remains incompletely understood. Therefore, further studies are indicated to identify novel therapeutic approaches that leverage biomechanics. Importantly, clinical translation of appropriate assays of tissue biomechanical properties in glaucoma is also needed.

## Keywords

angle-closure glaucoma, intraocular pressure, normal-tension glaucoma, optic nerve head, trabecular meshwork

## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Although glaucomatous optic neuropathy can occur at any level of intraocular pressure (IOP), significant, sustained IOP reduction benefits patients [1–4]. This fact, as well as evidence from multiple studies [5–8], indicate that biomechanical effects are important in glaucoma; indeed, all current therapeutic approaches seek to reduce IOP. However, despite the existence of many IOP control strategies (drugs, devices, and surgical procedures), 25–45% of patients unfortunately continue to progress even with treatment [1,3,9], indicating that factors other than IOP are important in the disease process. Nonbiomechanical factors that play a role in the glaucomatous pathology include genetics [10,11] vascular abnormalities [12–14], metabolism [15–17], and immune function [18–20]; regrettably, we do not have space to review these factors here, and instead focus specifically on reviewing the recent literature on biomechanics in glaucoma, including but not limited to IOP, as shown schematically in Fig. 1.

There are several general concepts (and associated terminology) to be aware of when considering the role of biomechanics in glaucoma. All cells and

tissues experience, and respond to, forces (also called ‘loads’) [21–24], and the eye is no exception. In glaucoma, we have historically focused on the loading on the trabecular meshwork (TM) and optic nerve head (ONH) due to IOP, yet there are suggestions that other loads, including optic nerve sheath (ONS) traction and intracranial pressure (ICP) transmitted by the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), may contribute to the disease process (see below). Of course, it is not just the magnitude of the load that determines a tissue’s mechanobiologic response: the properties of a tissue (stiffness, compressibility, viscoelasticity [25–27]) determine the magnitude and type of deformation that a given load induces. Ultimately it is these deformations, experienced at the cellular level, which affect cell phenotype. Thus, inter-individual

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## KEY POINTS

- Tissue biomechanics and mechanobiology are significant aspects of glaucoma pathophysiology.
- Stiffening of the trabecular meshwork and remodeling of the optic nerve head are two prominent biomechanics-related events in glaucoma.
- The biomechanical properties of the optic nerve sheath may play a role in normal-tension glaucoma.
- The mechanical properties of the cornea and of the iris have been suggested to be important in assessing the risk of primary open-angle and of primary angle-closure glaucoma, respectively.
- Transpupillary stiffening of the sclera has been proposed as a potential future therapeutic approach to manage glaucomatous optic neuropathy, yet preclinical data are not supportive.

differences in tissue properties can be a critical factor in determining whether a given load induces a pathological response in a patient, and measurement of such tissue properties is important.

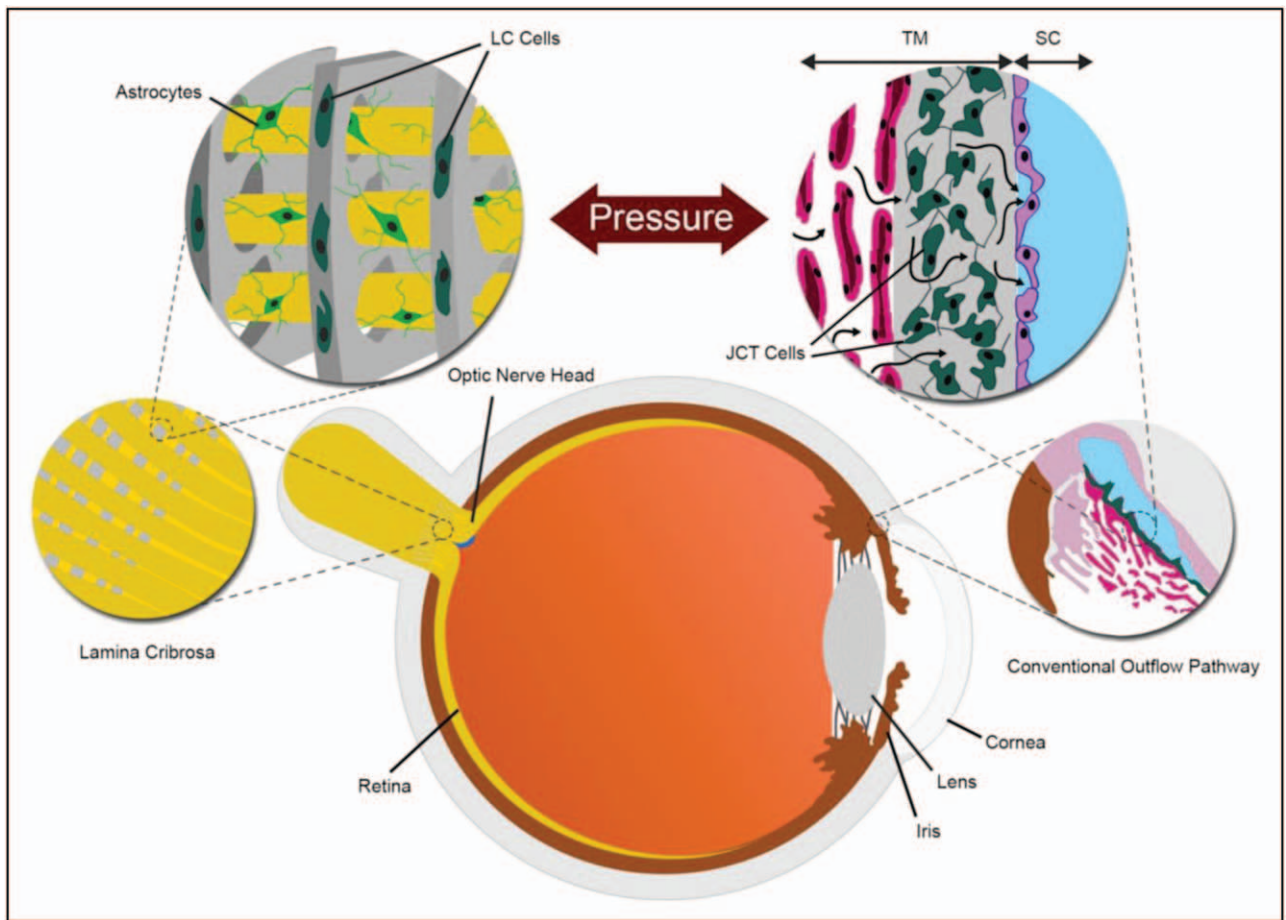
## TRABECULAR MESHWORK STIFFNESS IN GLAUCOMA AND OCULAR HYPERTENSION

We first consider biomechanical factors associated with IOP elevation. Ocular hypertension can arise due to several causes, but Grant [28] first showed that in human eyes with primary open-angle glaucoma (POAG), IOP elevation was due in large part to reduced outflow facility. We now know that much of the outflow resistance in the conventional pathway is localized to the outer TM and inner wall of Schlemm's canal [29,30], and thus TM pathobiology has been a major focus of studies in ocular hypertension in POAG. Relevant to this review, we now understand that ocular hypertension is associated with several biomechanically-associated changes to the TM: increased TM stiffness [31], increased actin cross-linking [32], and, in the case of steroid glaucoma, increased extracellular matrix (ECM) accumulation [33,34]. Consider first TM stiffness, where much of our current knowledge comes from *ex vivo* atomic force microscopy (AFM) measurements on both normal and diseased TM cells and tissues [35]. Due to limitations of AFM technology, it is not possible to assess TM biomechanical properties *in vivo*. However, advances in optical coherence tomography (OCT) and computational engineering modeling have provided methods to noninvasively measure the biomechanical properties of the TM *in vivo*, providing

novel insights into the effects of potential treatments [33,36] (Fig. 2). Importantly, phase-sensitive OCT has identified differences in pulsatile TM motion between POAG and healthy patients, providing an intriguing potential method to clinically assess changes in TM biomechanics [37].

We now understand that the TM responds to mechanical stimuli, such as IOP-induced stretch and shear stress due to aqueous humor flow [38,39,40], and that many proteins and cell signaling pathways contribute to this mechanosensitivity. For instance, Piezo1 is a stretch-sensitive ion channel that is important in certain types of mechanotransduction. It is expressed in human and mouse TM cells [41], as well as in retinal ganglion cells (RGCs). Piezo1 activation results in decreased contractility in human TM cells [40] and facilitates changes in AH outflow in response to mechanical stimuli [41,42], whereas pharmacological activation of Piezo1 lowers IOP in mice [43]. TRPV4, another mechanosensitive ion channel modulating Rho signaling, has a role in TM remodeling [42,44]. Primary cilia, long, slender cell surface organelles, are present in TM cells, serving as mechanosensors [45] and play a key role in stretch-induced autophagy signaling in human TM cells [38]. Nitric oxide seems to be another important IOP-related signal: its shear stress-induced production by Schlemm's canal endothelial cells both decreases TM hydraulic resistance and facilitates flow through the distal aspects of the aqueous drainage pathway [46–50]. Cytokine levels also play a role in TM mechanics by impacting actin stress fibers, cell contractility, and deposition of fibrotic ECM proteins [32,51]. Further, the Wnt signaling pathway has been associated with changes in TM cell stiffness and glaucoma, and activation of this pathway after inhibition may provide protection from glucocorticoid-induced ocular hypertension [35,52]. Since dysfunction in any of these signaling pathways can result in ocular hypertension, they represent excellent research targets for development of novel strategies to treat ocular hypertension.

The cellular microenvironment, including ECM stiffness, greatly influences TM cell behavior. For example, changes in substrate stiffness alter transcriptomic profiles of human TM cells [53], and mechanical stretch itself, lead to differential expression of RNAs related to ECM–receptor interaction [39]. Recent work has revealed information about cell-matrix adhesion complexes in TM cells [54], and hydrogels have been engineered to include relevant ECM components as laboratory models of TM cell–ECM interactions [55]. Further, the use of cell-derived matrices from healthy and glaucomatous tissues has shown the importance of the cell's own matrix in creating a homeostatic cellular



**FIGURE 1.** Schematic of the human eye. The biomechanics of the eye is closely related to pathophysiology of glaucoma. In the anterior section of the globe, the outflow of aqueous humor through the trabecular meshwork (TM) and Schlemm’s canal (SC) is affected by the mechanical properties of the TM; for example, in primary open-angle glaucoma (POAG) the stiffness of TM is increased, likely due to biological remodeling of the TM extracellular matrix (ECM) under elevated IOP. Additionally, new devices that measure the biomechanics of the cornea may aid in monitoring the risk of glaucoma. Further, the biomechanics of the iris is a new topic of interest in primary angle-closure glaucoma (PACG), where the role of tissue mechanical properties and muscular contractions of the iris are important. In the posterior globe, the sclera’s biomechanics, especially the peripapillary sclera, is known to strongly influence the mechanical loads on the optic nerve head (ONH). Lastly, the mechanical properties of the ONH and lamina cribrosa (LC) and their pathological remodeling in POAG (i.e., cupping) are important aspects of RGC loss in glaucoma, and are associated with mechanobiological remodeling of the ONH by resident cells, especially astrocytes and LC cells. (Figure reproduced from Paula *et al.* 2016 [134] with permission from the publisher.). IOP, intraocular pressure; POAG, primary open-angle glaucoma.

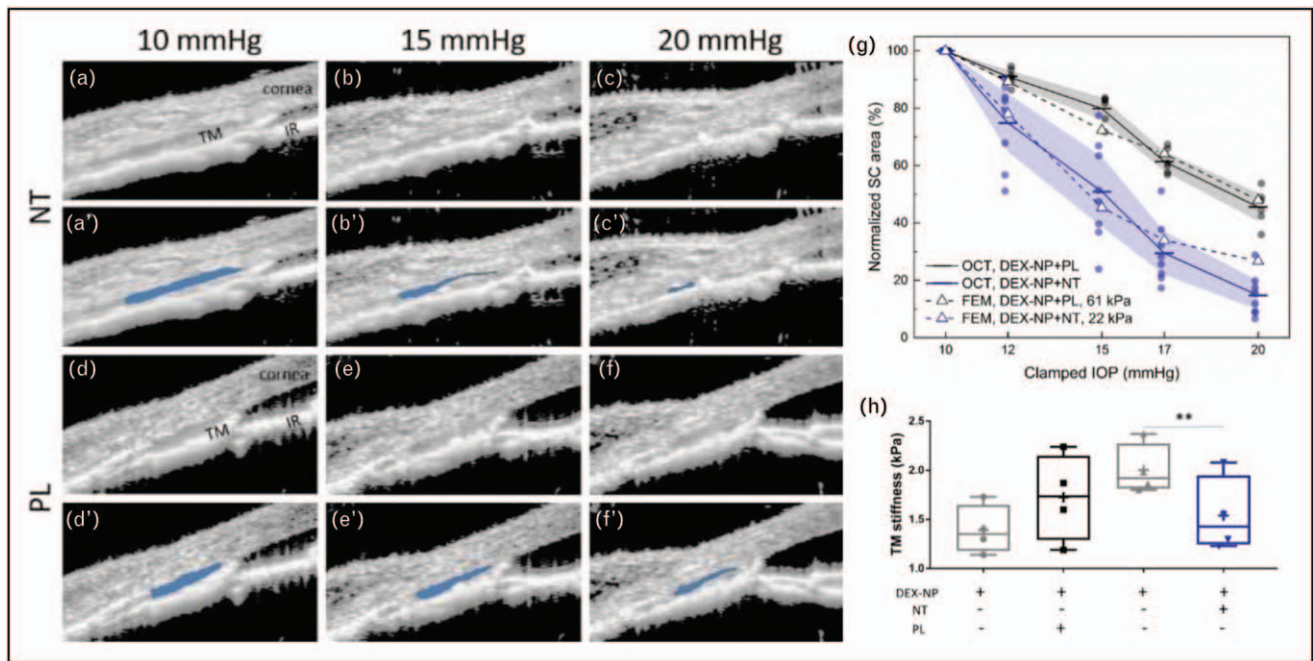
environment [56]. A better understanding of cell–ECM interactions in the TM may hold great potential for novel IOP-lowering strategies in certain types of glaucoma, such as steroid glaucoma [33<sup>22</sup>].

**CORNEAL BIOMECHANICS IN GLAUCOMA**

Corneal biomechanics influence the interpretation of clinical IOP measurements. Further, recent technical developments have allowed the clinical measurement of a variety of corneal biomechanical properties. Specifically, the Ocular Response Analyzer (ORA) is a noncontact device that determines

several corneal biomechanical properties, including corneal hysteresis, corneal resistance factor, and corneal-compensated IOP *in vivo* [57] (Fig. 3). Similarly, the Corvis ST noncontact tonometer estimates corneal mechanical properties through dynamic Scheimpflug imaging of the deforming cornea [58]. Both technologies yield corrected IOP measurements which attempt to standardize for the effect of corneal biomechanics.

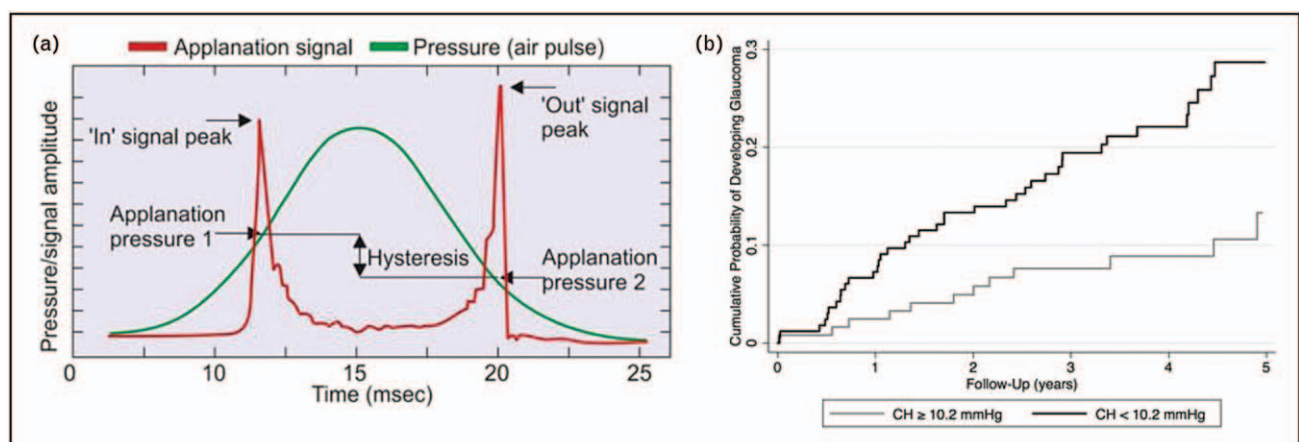
With new technologies measuring many more corneal biomechanical properties, recent clinical research focuses on elucidating the relationship between those measurements and conventionally



**FIGURE 2.** Estimation of TM stiffness in mice with induced steroid glaucoma. (a–f) Spectral domain-optical coherence tomography (SD-OCT) images of the limbal region in living C57BL/6 mouse eyes at different imposed IOP levels. Eyes were treated with netarsudil, an FDA-approved rho-kinase inhibitor, or placebo. The blue shading shows the automatically identified SC lumen. (g) Estimation of TM stiffness based on OCT images by inverse finite element modeling (iFEM), showing a stiff TM in a steroid glaucoma model, with restoration of normal TM stiffness by netarsudil. (h) TM stiffness directly measured by atomic force microscopy (AFM) in mice receiving steroid and netarsudil or placebo. DEX, dexamethasone; NT, netarsudil; PL, placebo; TM, trabecular meshwork. (Figure reproduced from Li *et al.* 2021 [33<sup>■</sup>].).

measured properties [59]. These devices allow determination of corneal biomechanical parameters that may be associated with progression of glaucoma [60], although mechanistically associating parameter values with tissue structural features is challenging.

These devices have also been used to elucidate relationships between corneal biomechanics and clinically relevant features such as retinal ganglion cell layer thickness [61<sup>■</sup>], rates of visual field change [62], and incidence of optic disc hemorrhage (DH) [63].



**FIGURE 3.** The use of the Ocular Response Analyzer (ORA) in glaucoma. (a) Schematic of typical data from the ORA, in which an air pulse is delivered to the cornea (green) and corneal deformation is measured by a photodetector (red). Corneal hysteresis (mmHg) is defined as the difference between the applanation pressure 1, as the cornea moves inwards, and applanation pressure 2, as it returns to its normal shape. (b) Cumulative probability of glaucoma development in two groups of OH subjects classified by corneal hysteresis (CH) values measured with an ORA. (a) is reproduced from Kaushik *et al.* [157], and (b) is reproduced from Susanna *et al.* [158] with permission from the publishers. OH, ocular hypertension.

**Table 1.** Corneal hysteresis values measured in patients with different forms of glaucoma and ocular structure parameters

Clinical condition	Reference	Corneal hysteresis (mmHg; mean ± std. deviation)
POAG & NTG	Uchida <i>et al.</i> [159 <sup>■</sup> ]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Female: 10.05 ± 1.41</li> <li>Male: 9.86 ± 1.26</li> <li>No significant trend with age</li> </ul>
POAG after TRAB	Fujino <i>et al.</i> [60]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>9.4 ± 1.2</li> </ul>
Before and 6 months after TRAB + MMC and AGV	Kaderli <i>et al.</i> [160]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Preop (TRAB + MMC): 7.38 ± 1.75</li> <li>Postop (TRAB + MMC): 8.51 ± 1.55 (significantly different postop vs. preop)</li> <li>Preop (AGV): 6.67 ± 1.05</li> <li>Postop (AGV): 9.45 ± 1.05 (significantly different postop vs. preop)</li> </ul>
POAG	Yang <i>et al.</i> [161]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>NTG: 10.17 ± 1.02</li> <li>HTG: 10.11 ± 1.23</li> <li>Not different between groups</li> </ul>
POAG, OH, normal	Potop <i>et al.</i> [162 <sup>■●</sup> ]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Normal: 11.71 ± 1.32</li> <li>POAG: 8.52 ± 1.39</li> <li>OH: 9.61 ± 0.91</li> </ul>
Unilateral DH vs. contralateral non-DH eye	Radcliffe <i>et al.</i> [63]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>DH: 8.7 ± 1.9</li> <li>non-DH: 9.2 ± 1.7</li> <li>Statistically significant difference DH vs. non DH</li> </ul>

AGV, Ahmed glaucoma valve implantation; DH, optic disc hemorrhage; MMC, mitomycin C; NTG, normal tension glaucoma; OH, ocular hypertension; POAG, primary open angle glaucoma; TRAB, trabeculectomy.

These devices have also been used to identify differences in corneal biomechanics between healthy individuals and patients with several types of glaucoma, as well as the effects of filtering surgery (Table 1). However, the prognostic value of these corneal measurements remains an open question. Therefore, recent studies also focus on associating measurable corneal properties to supplement more conventional outcome measures and hence better quantify glaucoma risk [64], and the impact of these parameters for clinical use is a work in progress.

**THE ROLE OF SCLERAL BIOMECHANICS IN GLAUCOMATOUS OPTIC NEUROPATHY**

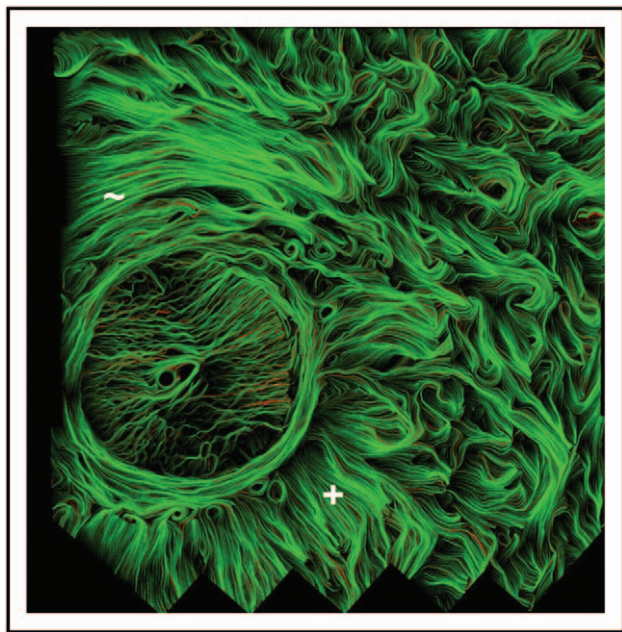
In glaucoma, much evidence suggests that biomechanical factors acting on the cells and matrix of the ONH contribute to RGC loss [65,66]: RGC damage occurs within the lamina cribrosa (LC) [67] where significant physical tissue deformation occurs [68], patterns of vision loss in glaucoma are consistent with the heterogeneous physical structure of the LC [69], and ONH astrocytes are mechanosensitive [70–73]. Importantly, the biomechanical properties of the sclera strongly influence the deformation of ONH tissues by IOP [74–77], which has led to significant interest in the role of the sclera, particularly the peripapillary sclera, in glaucoma. We now understand that the sclera is not a ‘passive bystander’ in the glaucomatous eye: it remodels in response to elevated IOP [78–80], setting up a complex biomechanical interaction between the sclera and ONH when IOP is elevated [81–84]. This has caused somewhat of a renaissance in studies on scleral

structure and physiology [85–87], building on the very earliest work of Kokott [88,89]; see for example, the detailed summaries in the context of myopia and glaucoma in [90] (Fig. 4). Importantly, there is significant variation in scleral properties from one human to the next, which perhaps may explain some differential susceptibility to ocular hypertension [91–93].

An important aspect of assessing the role of the sclera in glaucoma is better understanding scleral micro- and ultra-structure, and how they influence scleral biomechanical properties. For example, it has been long noted that the scleral canal is surrounded by a reinforcing ‘ring’ of collagen fibers [94–96], but recent imaging studies suggest that the situation is more complex [90], with collagen fibers forming a ‘basket-weave’ architecture around the scleral canal to protect the fragile cells of the ONH while efficiently transferring loads towards the equatorial sclera [97<sup>■</sup>,98]. In addition to the role of collagen, we are coming to appreciate the role that other ECM components play in modulating scleral mechanics. Recently, specific attention has been focused on sulfated glycosaminoglycans (sGAGs) [99–102]. Generally, sGAGs appear to thicken the sclera, as expected, and also to make it less stiff. The role of such effects in glaucoma remains to be determined. Ultimately, scleral adaptation to ocular hypertension and intrinsic differences in scleral properties must be mediated by scleral fibroblasts. There is a pressing need to better understand the basic biology of these cells; for example, recent important work shows surprising variation spatial in scleral fibroblast morphology [103<sup>■●</sup>].

Because scleral stiffness influences the transmission of mechanical load to the ONH, there has been

interest in stiffening the sclera as a possible therapy in glaucoma [104–107,108<sup>¶</sup>]. Computational and laboratory studies suggest that stiffening the peripapillary sclera would have therapeutic benefit [66,92,109] by reinforcing the region around the soft, delicate ONH, therefore reducing the IOP-linked biomechanical insult delivered to this tissue. This ‘biomechanical shielding’ paradigm is consistent with data from mouse studies [110–112], with some clinical evidence [113] and with the observation that patients with early diabetes, where collagen crosslinking occurs naturally via glycation, are less likely to get open-angle glaucoma [114]. Despite this promising outlook, animal studies seem not to support this approach; indeed, it has been reported that there is increased axonal loss in mice with induced OHT after scleral stiffening with glycerol-aldehyde [115]. Another paradox arises from the observation that the sclera stiffens with age [116]; why then does the incidence of glaucoma increase with age rather than decrease? A possible answer to this important question hinges on the location/extent of scleral stiffening. We know that stiffening the entire sclera increases ocular rigidity and thus increases the magnitude of IOP fluctuations (ocular pulse amplitude) [117]. Perhaps greater IOP



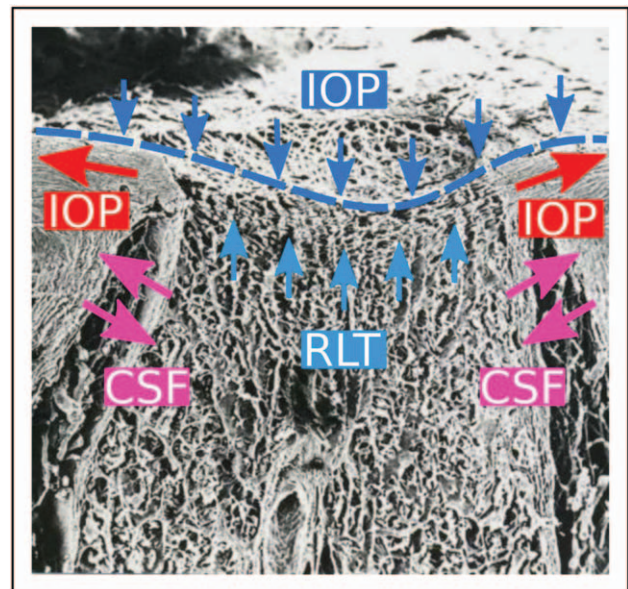
**FIGURE 4.** Optical imaging was used to identify the trajectories of collagen fibers in the ONH and peripapillary sclera of a post mortem human eye. One can observe both (+) radial and (~) circumferential fiber orientations, as well as the less aligned interweaving regions of the sclera (right side of image). The fibrous lamina cribrosa, within the scleral canal, can also be seen on the left side of the image. (Reproduced from Gogola *et al.* [163].).

fluctuations may overwhelm the protective effects of ‘biomechanical shielding’, so that stiffening the entire sclera is detrimental. To overcome this issue, there has been progress in spatially localized (targeted) scleral stiffening [108<sup>¶</sup>], yet emerging data suggests that even this approach may not have benefit in an animal model of glaucoma [118].

### THE ROLE OF THE OPTIC NERVE HEAD AND OPTIC NERVE SHEATH BIOMECHANICS IN GLAUCOMATOUS OPTIC NEUROPATHY

As noted above, the ONH is a primary site of RGC damage in glaucoma, yet the root cause of this vulnerability remains unknown. However, it is widely accepted that the gross morphology and biomechanics of the ONH are important in the pathological remodeling of the ONH in glaucoma (Fig. 5).

Interestingly, advances in imaging have made it possible to investigate ONH biomechanics in greater detail than ever before. For instance, by employing elastography, a noninvasive imaging-based technique



**FIGURE 5.** Schematic showing the major loads acting on the tissues of the optic nerve head. The IOP acts directly at the vitreoretinal interface to posteriorly displace ONH tissues (dark blue arrows), as well as enlarging the eye globe and thus causing tension in the scleral wall which is transmitted to the ONH (red arrows). The cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) is also pressurized (purple) which in turn causes a retrolaminar tissue (RLT) pressure that anteriorly displaces the lamina cribrosa (light blue arrows). Not shown is tension in the optic nerve sheath. Modified from Albon *et al.* [164], from a scanning electron micrograph of the connective tissue of a human ONH. ONH, optic nerve head.

that uses mechanical waves, one can directly probe the biomechanical properties of tissues *in vivo*. Xiao *et al.* [119] used ultrasonic shear wave elastography to show that patients with increased intracranial pressure (ICP) have a stiffer ONH, and this technique can potentially be used to measure changes to the mechanical properties of the ONH in glaucoma patients. In addition, using *ex vivo* ultrasonic elastography of porcine eyes it was shown that elevation of IOP increases ONH stiffness [120], and causes a nonhomogenous strain field on the ONH [121], important in understanding the relation between ONH mechanics and the patterns of vision loss in glaucoma. The ability to measure the biomechanical properties of the ONH *in vivo* is an exciting opportunity that is currently at the basic science stage, with translation to clinical practice remaining a significant challenge [122]. Further, despite ultrasonic elastography's great potential, it is limited by low spatial resolution. On the contrary, OCT, and its derivative elastography technique (optical coherence elastography [OCE]) [123,124], has superior spatial resolution, and in combination with biomechanical modeling, is a potent alternative for investigating ONH biomechanical properties *in vivo* [61<sup>■</sup>,125<sup>■</sup>,126]. Interestingly, OCT-driven morphologic reconstructions of the ONH can be used to generate patient-specific computer models to study ONH biomechanics [127] and hemodynamics [128], which may eventually be used as new tools for assessing progression of ONH pathological remodeling in glaucoma.

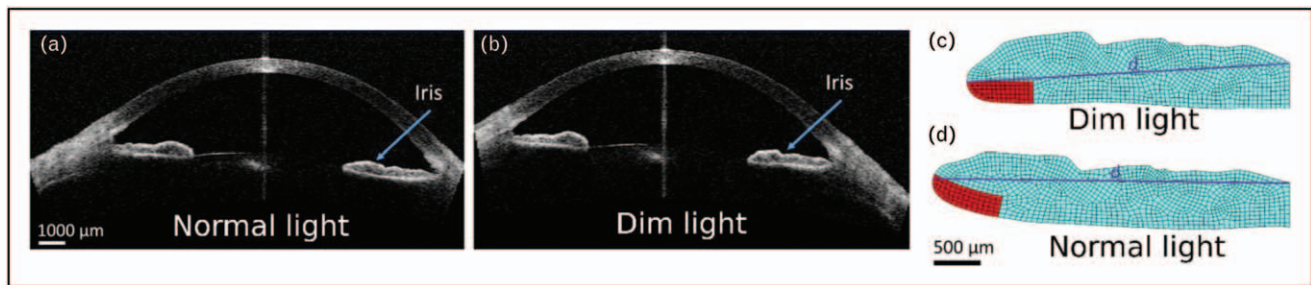
A critical aspect of ONH pathological remodeling in glaucoma is change in the architecture of the ONH's complex ECM and thus in the interaction between the ECM and resident neurons and glial cells. It has long been observed that the heterogeneous fibrous structure of the human LC is consistent with a heterogeneous distribution of mechanical deformation in the ONH, which in turn is associated with clinical patterns of preferential axonal damage [129]. *Ex vivo* imaging in the mouse ONH has also demonstrated a highly heterogeneous distribution of strains, even though the mouse has a noncollagenous lamina [130]. More recent work has shown that radial collagen fibers within the LC reduce posterior displacement of the LC, while circumferential fibers, in concert with radial fibers, reduce strain within the peripapillary sclera and prelaminar neural tissue [97<sup>■</sup>], as further evidence for the role of LC microstructure in the mechanical stresses in the ONH. Interestingly, local defects in the LC's fibrous structure can cause significant local stress concentrations on RGC axons, which may elevate the risk of axonal damage and loss of vision [131]. However, the detailed mechanobiology of axonal damage and of pathological remodeling of

the ONH by astrocytes and LC cells are still unknown. It is likely that the dynamics of IOP in concert with the dynamic mechanical behavior of the ONH [132,133] play a key role in this process [134]. Further studies are needed to investigate the mechanics and biology of the ONH's pathological remodeling, including using physiologically suitable *ex vivo* culture systems based on 3D hydrogels and decellularized animal tissue explants [135<sup>■</sup>].

In addition to IOP, other loads acting on the ONH may also be important in glaucoma. Recently, it has been suggested that tension in the ONS may mechanically load the ONH and optic nerve during adduction in some patients and is potentially related to normal-tension glaucoma (NTG) [136,137]. Relevant to this observation, it was shown that the ONS has a higher stiffness compared to optic nerve [138], with complex, anisotropic (direction-dependent) mechanical properties, with the inner layer of the ONS having a significantly larger mechanical stiffness compared to its outer layer [139]. This layering can induce significant bending and shear loads on the ONH during globe movements. On a related note, the mechanical properties of the ONS have recently been assessed *in vivo* in human subjects [140], which can inform future studies of the role of the ONS in glaucoma. In addition, cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) pressure is another load on the ONH, where there are strong indications of CSF pressure being lower in certain forms of glaucoma, implying a role in glaucoma pathophysiology [141,142]. However, further studies, including clinical assessment of ONS biomechanics and CSF pressure, are needed to better understand the role of non-IOP loads in glaucoma.

### BIOMECHANICAL FACTORS IN ANGLE-CLOSURE GLAUCOMA

Iris biomechanics is important in primary angle-closure glaucoma (PACG), where the size and deformations of the iris are among the main risk factors for PACG [143,144]. The other risk factors for developing PACG include having an anatomical deficit, such as a narrow-angle, or having Asian descent; however, these factors have poor predictive power and often PACG presents unexpectedly as a clinical emergency [145]. Therefore, there is a need to better understand PACG pathophysiology. Intriguingly, the mechanical properties of the iris are directly connected to its deformations in response to internal and external mechanical loading, and it is possible to evaluate the mechanical properties of the iris using engineering methods, such as OCE [146,147], and a combination of *in vivo* imaging (e.g., OCT and ultrasound) with inverse FEM [148,149] (Fig. 6).



**FIGURE 6.** Iris deformation is shown under (a) normal and (b) dim light conditions using anterior segment OCT. Using inverse finite element modeling (c and d), where the stroma [blue region] is deformed by the sphincter smooth muscle [red region] Pant *et al.* calculated the mechanical properties of the iris, and showed that subjects with a history of PACG (post-LPI) tend to have a ca. 3 times greater stromal stiffness compared to healthy subjects. OCT, optical coherence tomography; LPI, laser peripheral iridotomy; PACG, primary angle-closure glaucoma. (Figure adapted from Pant *et al.* [150] with permission from the publisher.)

Interestingly, Pant *et al.* [150] and Panda *et al.* [151] showed that patients with a history of PACG tend to have a higher-than-normal iridial mechanical stiffness, suggesting that high iris stiffness is a risk factor for PACG and raising the possibility that measurement of iridial mechanical properties could be used to better assess the risk of developing PACG. Although it is likely that genetics influence iris stiffness, it is also likely that biological remodeling driven by mechanical loading can stiffen the iris, as is the case for most other connective tissues [152,153]. For instance, the iris stromal cell's nuclei elongate in response to iridial muscle contractions [154<sup>\*\*\*</sup>], and mechanostimulation of nuclei can trigger the secretion of ECM proteins to change (remodel) the surrounding tissue, including stiffness [155]. Interestingly, iris biomechanics can also play a secondary role in complications associated with PACG. For example, the postoperational decrease in corneal cell density in laser peripheral iridotomy (LPI) as a standard treatment for PACG appears to be correlated with cornea-scleral mechanical contact [156]. Despite the importance of the iris in certain forms of glaucoma, the literature on iris biomechanics is scarce, and there is a great need for more research on this important and emerging topic.

## CONCLUSION

Biomechanics has long been recognized as an important aspect of glaucoma, yet we are far from fully understanding all the roles of biomechanical factors in this disease. Ongoing basic science research will hopefully help us understand mechanisms of ocular hypertension and RGC loss, leading eventually to novel therapeutic interventions. Closer to the clinic, technical advances seek to aid diagnosis and monitoring, for example, association between glaucoma risk factors and corneal properties, and *in vivo* assessment of tissue mechanical properties based on OCT elastography. Clearly,

more basic research on tissue biomechanics in normal and diseased states is needed; such work must use physiologically appropriate model systems such as tissue-engineered 3D culture systems. Equally pressing is the need to devise novel strategies to translate the basic science and engineering knowledge about biomechanics to clinical practice.

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## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

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Papers of particular interest, published within the annual period of review, have been highlighted as:

- of special interest
- of outstanding interest

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