Research Article

Effect of TGF-β2 on the Mechanical Properties of Posterior Scleral Fibroblasts in Experimental Myopia

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Objective. The effects of TGF-β2 on mechanical properties of sclerotic desmocytes isolated from healthy and myopic guinea pigs were investigated in order to further understand the pathogenesis of myopia. To study the effect of TGF-β2 on the mechanical properties of posterior scleral fibroblasts in experimental myopia.

Methods. A lens-induced myopia (LIM) animal model was developed in 12 guinea pigs, with the opposite eye serving as a self-control (SC). Five untreated guinea pigs served as normal controls. Lenses were removed 30 days after model onset. Primary scleral fibroblasts were isolated and passaged twice and then treated with vehicle control or 1, 10, or 100 ng/mL TGF-β2. After 24 h, micropipette aspiration was used to investigate the viscoelastic properties of the cells.

Results. Scleral fibroblasts from LIM exhibited significantly higher equilibrium moduli and apparent viscosities relative to SC without TGF-β2 treatment. Treatment of LIM or SC scleral fibroblasts with 1 or 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 led to significantly different (p < 0.05) equilibrium moduli and apparent viscosities compared with vehicle control, whereas no significant differences were observed upon treatment with 100 ng/mL TGF-β2. LIM cells treated with 1 and 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 exhibited lower equilibrium moduli and apparent viscosities compared with similarly treated SC cells, but LIM cells and SC cells treated with 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 had similar mechanical properties. Conclusions. The addition of 1 and 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 can lower the equilibrium modulus and apparent viscosity of scleral fibroblasts in the normal eye.

1. Introduction

The sclera plays a major role in controlling eyeball growth and maintaining the normal structure of the eyeball [1–4]. The structure and chemical composition of the sclera of a near-sighted eye are significantly different from those of a normal eyeball, especially in the extreme posterior region. An increasing number of studies have investigated the causes and consequences of these differences. For example, it was inferred that TGF-β2 may be acting on the sclera during the development of myopia [5]. TGF-β2 is a particularly important cytokine due to its strongly inhibitory effect on the proliferation of cells cultured in vitro [6, 7].

Studies of the mechanical properties of the sclera have been limited to studies of the entire eye or of the sclerotic strip. However, technological advances have led to the ability to study the mechanical properties of individual sclerotic cells, which may provide insight into relationships between the external conditions of these cells and their properties. Therefore, the current study aims to investigate the effects of TGF-β2 on the mechanical properties of sclerotic desmo-cytes cultured from guinea pigs to develop a new approach to investigating the pathogenesis of myopia and to thus provide information for the design of novel therapies.

To analyze the effect of TGF-β2 on the mechanical behaviors of posterior scleral fibroblasts in an experimental...
model of myopia, the vision of young guinea pigs was first tested using a streak retinoscope. An A-scan ultrasonographic analysis was then used to measure the length of the eye axes of both eyeballs at 10-minute intervals. An out-of-focus concave lens-induced myopia (LIM) animal model was then developed over the course of 30 days in a subset of the guinea pigs. Importantly, the untreated eye served as a self-control for subsequent in vitro experiments, and the remaining guinea pigs were used as conventional controls. During the experiment, measures are taken to mitigate the effect of form-sense deprivation. The animals were maintained indoors and were fed in a standardized manner. All eyes were reanalyzed with a streak retinoscope under cycloplegia. Isolated scleral fibroblast cells were divided into four groups for analyzing the effect of TGF-β2.

Techniques to determine the mechanical behaviors of sclera have been applied by multiple groups to various systems from the tissue level to the cellular level. For example, Wang et al. [2] found significant differences in the biomechanical characteristics of scleral tissues from eyes with severe myopia to the tissues of healthy controls; specifically, myopic eye was found to be more prone to distortion and had a lower carrying capacity as compared with a normal eye. Similarly, Sun et al. [3] showed that the sclerotic strip of guinea pigs with experimentally established myopia has a lower elasticity, a lower maximum loading capacity, a lower maximum stress, and a lower carrying capacity than does the sclerotic strip from control eyes; however, this group also demonstrated that the myopic sclerotic strip has a higher creep rate and higher maximum strain. Indicator-based measurements showed that tissues from experimental myopic sclera models exhibit lower elasticity and carrying capacity than tissues from normal eyes, and the myopic tissue is more prone to distortion. By studying the altered mechanical behaviors of the sclerotic desmocytes of LIM guinea pigs, Chen et al. [4] concluded that the sclerotic desmocytes of these guinea pigs showed noticeable changes in their Young’s moduli and viscoelasticity. Cui et al. [8] similarly discovered that Young’s modulus and apparent viscosity of the anterior and extreme posterior portions of the sclera changed on days 15 and 30 after induction, respectively. These studies are consistent with findings of mechanical stretching-induced changes in the expression of multiple genes in fetal desmocytes, and the results are also consistent with identified interactions between sclerotic desmocytes and their extracellular matrices under stress stimulation [9].

Other studies have identified a strong physiological effect of the cytokine TGF-β in the development of myopia through its inhibition of the proliferation of cells [6, 7]. Similarly, Ning et al. [10] found that TGF-β2 at certain concentrations was able to inhibit the growth of human retina pigment epithelial cells, choroid black funicular cells, and desmocytes cultured in vitro. On the other hand, Pan and Zeng [11] and Ali et al. [12] found that application of 1, 10, or 100 ng/mL TGF-β1 to mouse sclerotic desmocytes cultured in vitro led to the promotion of cellular growth for 48 h after application. In humans, Yana et al. [13] discovered that TGF-β inhibits the proliferation of sclerotic desmocytes in a dose-dependent manner. TGF-β also affects the proliferation of chicken sclerotic desmocytes and cartilage cells cultured in vitro [14, 15], suggesting that these effects are not specific to a single species.

Further research demonstrated that apoptosis may play a factor in the effects of TGF-β on sclerotic tissues. Relatively high levels of apoptosis were found in the sclerotic tissue of a guinea pig LIM model [16, 17], and this rate correlated with both a decline of cellular proliferation and the establishment of myopia. These joint effects were shown to lead to the pathological changes that occur in the sclerotic tissue of an experimental myopia model [18]. The mechanism by which apoptosis is induced in the LIM model has been proposed to involve transmission of the out-of-focus signal to the sclerotic desmocytes through complex mechanisms. This signal would then upregulate or downregulate the synthesis of sclerotic collagen and glycoprotein, causing changes to the sclerotic extracellular matrix and a consequent change of eye axis.

In this research study, the effects of different concentrations of TGF-β on the mechanical behaviors of sclerotic desmocytes in guinea pigs are investigated. This will lead to find a new approach to the pathogenesis of myopia and subsequently design corresponding therapies.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Materials and Instruments. The materials and instruments used for this study were seventeen 2-week-old healthy guinea pigs (female and male without eye disease); a concave lens (self-designed PMMA lens made by Shanghai Freshkon, lens diameter: 1.0 mm, optical diameter: 9.5 mm, primitive arc: 9.0, and both diopters: −10.00 D); a model BME-210 ophthalmic A/B-type ultrasonic diagnostic apparatus developed by the Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences; a streak retinoscope; newborn calf and fetal calf serum; DMEM-F12 (Gibco, USA); D-Hank’s balanced salt solution (Gibco, USA); pancreatin (Gibco, USA); rabbit anti-rat vimentin antibodies; anti-desmin, keratin, and S-1001 antibodies, and immunological composite agent (Wuhan Boster); and recombinant TGF-β2 (Gibco, USA).

2.2. Animal Models. Seventeen 2-week-old healthy guinea pigs without eye disease were used. The animals were housed indoors and fed in a standard manner. Streak retinoscopy was used to evaluate the vision of seventeen 2-week-old guinea pigs. At 10-minute intervals, the lengths of the eye axis of both eyeballs were measured by A-scan ultrasonography with a model BME-210 ophthalmic A/B-type ultrasonic diagnostic apparatus (Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences).

Twelve guinea pigs were chosen, and concave lens-induced myopia (LIM) animal models were created utilizing the out-of-focus approach. This method utilized a self-designed concave polymethyl methacrylate lens made by Shanghai Freshkon. The lens diameter was 11.0 mm, the optical diameter was 9.5 mm, the primitive arc was 9.0, and both diopters were −10.00 D. The opposite eye of each guinea pig acted as a self-control (SC). Measures were taken during the experiment to counteract the effect of form-sense deprivation.
deprivation. The remaining five guinea pigs were utilized as regular controls. On day 30 of model development, the lenses were removed from the animals in the experimental group. Under cycloplegia, both eyes of all guinea pigs were examined using a streak retinoscope. The ocular axis lengths were determined using A-scan ultrasonography.

2.3. Primary Cell Culture. The anterior and extreme posterior parts of the sclerotic tissue were cut into 1 mm³ cubes using microsurgical scissors. The pieces were placed on the bottom of a culture flask, approximately 0.5 cm away from each other. The culture flask was gently inverted before being placed into a 37°C incubator with a 5% CO₂ atmosphere (pH 7.0–7.2). After 2 to 4 h, 1.5 mL Dulbecco’s modified Eagle medium (DMEM; Gibco, USA) containing 20% fetal calf serum (Gibco), 100,000 U/L penicillin, and 100 mg/L streptomycin was added. The culture flask was slowly turned back over and oriented such that the cubes of tissue were just immersed in the culture solution. The culture flask was then returned to the incubator.

2.4. Passaging of Cells. Cells were passaged when the culture reached 80% to 90% confluence. The cell culture solution was aspirated, and the flask was rinsed twice with 3 to 4 mL of D-Hank’s balanced salt solution (Gibco). A mixture of 0.25% pancreatin and 0.05% EDTA (1:1) was added to the flask, and the cells were digested for 1 to 2 min at room temperature. The cells were then observed under an inverted microscope to detect changes in their morphologies. The pancreatin solution was removed immediately after the cytoplasm began to shrink, the space between cells began to increase, and the cells were becoming rounded. A 1 to 2 mL aliquot of media containing serum was added to stop the digestion. The culture solution containing pancreatin was removed, and 4 mL DMEM culture solution was added. The cells were gently triturated until the cells were released from the flask wall and formed a cell suspension. The cells were then inoculated into a new culture flask for passaging at a ratio of 1:2.

For subculturing, cells were released from the flask walls and suspended at a density of 1 × 10⁶ cells/mL for inoculation. The cells were passaged at a ratio of 1:2, and cells adhered to the walls of the new flasks over the course of approximately 2 h. Passaging was performed once every 7 to 14 days.

2.5. Determination of Cellular Morphology. After seven days of subculturing, the sclerotic desmocytes formed from the tissue fragments were recognized as star-shaped and spindle-like cells. First-generation cells were collected and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (HE) to study the cell textures under an optical microscope.

2.6. Micropipette Aspiration Assay. The confused second-generation cells were released from flasks and resuspended at a density of 1 × 10⁶ cells/mL. Exactly 0.5 mL of the cell suspension was added to each well of a 24-well plate. The culture media was replaced with fresh serum-free media after 24 h of incubation. After 48 h, TGF-β2 was added into wells at final concentrations of 0, 1, 10, or 100 ng/mL, corresponding to a control group and groups A, B, and C, respectively. After 72 h, the adherent cells were released from the wells and then resuspended for subsequent mechanical tests.

A test chamber was created with two clean cover glasses and one half-opened stainless steel frame (Figure 1) in a laboratory set to a constant temperature of 25°C. A pressure control mechanism was adjusted in steps until negative pressures generated within the micropipette drew in a fraction of the cell. The deformation of the cell within the microtubule was observed using a bright-field microscope at a frame rate (60 fields/s) that coincided with the step changes to the applied negative pressure. The image file was uploaded into an image processing system, and cell deformation values were determined using a video sliding caliper system with a resolution of up to 0.2 m. At the conclusion of the experiment, the micropipettes were carefully removed and stored in glacial acetic acid.

2.7. Statistical Analysis. The mechanical behaviors of the desmocytes were quantitatively measured. Mechanical behaviors of differentially treated desmocytes were quantified, and these measures were compared statistically using ANOVA; a p value of less than 0.05 was considered to indicate statistical significance. Data were presented as means ± standard deviations (SD) and processed using the SPSS 13.0 statistical software.

3. Results

3.1. Diopter and Eye-Axis Lengths. Concave LIM models were created in guinea pigs with the out-of-focus approach. After 30 days of model development, the eyes of both the experimental and control groups were examined for relative myopia and for any relative increases in the lengths of their eye axes. The difference in the eye-axis lengths before and after the experiment was statistically significant (p < 0.05), confirming that the model had been established.

3.2. Morphological Observations of Scleral Tissues. After pieces of tissue from the sclera of model and control eyes were cultured for 3 to 5 days, the cells were observed to have grown, expanded, and adhered to the walls of the culture flasks. Most of the small, newly proliferated free cells appeared triangular or star-like. After approximately 10 days of incubation, the cells had matured, and their sizes had increased up to two or three times that of the initially isolated cells. After cell fusion, they became long and spindle-shaped. After an additional 10 to 14 days of incubation, the cells entered a logarithmic growth phase and proliferated more rapidly (Figure 2).

3.3. Evaluation of Cell Type. Immunohistochemical analyses were performed on the cultured cells at 10 to 14 days after isolation to determine their cell type. The cells stained positive for vimentin (Figure 3(a)) and in the presence of a palm-positive reaction product; however, the cells were negative for the presence of desmin, keratin, and S-100 (Figures 3(b)–3(d)). Taken together, these results support the identification of the isolated cells as scleral desmocytes.
3.4. Mechanical Properties of Cultured Scleral Desmocytes

3.4.1. Mechanical Properties of Untreated Desmocytes. Sclerotic desmocytes isolated from LIM model eyes and those isolated from SC eyes were both treated with 1 ng/mL TGF-β2. A comparison of the mechanical behaviors of these treated cells showed that the cells isolated from LIM eyes had an equilibrium Young’s modulus ($E_\infty$) that was significantly higher than that of cells isolated from SC eyes ($0.5663 \pm 0.1127\, \text{kPa}$ vs $0.3207 \pm 0.0603\, \text{kPa}$; $p < 0.05$) (Table 1).

The viscosity of the sclerotic desmocytes was tested with micropipette aspiration assays. The cells exhibited characteristics typical of a viscoelastic solid. The relationship of intake length of the sclerotic desmocytes to negative pressure changed over time of incubation of the primary cells (Figure 1). In addition, the treated cells from the LIM model eyes had a significantly higher viscosity ($\mu$) than did treated cells from SC eyes ($4.6264 \pm 1.2205\, \text{kPa}\cdot\text{s}$ vs $1.9148 \pm 0.3535\, \text{kPa}\cdot\text{s}$; $p < 0.05$) (Table 1).

3.4.2. Effects of TGF-β on the Mechanical Behaviors of Cells from the Posterior Region of the Sclera. The equilibrium Young’s moduli of SC cells treated with vehicle or 1, 10, or 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 were $0.3207 \pm 0.0603$, $0.2258 \pm 0.0775$, $0.2640 \pm 0.0621$, and $0.3063 \pm 0.0505\, \text{kPa}$, respectively (Table 2 and Figure 4). The equilibrium Young’s modulus of cells of the vehicle control was not statistically different from that of cells treated with 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 ($p > 0.05$), whereas the equilibrium Young’s moduli of cells treated with 1 or 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 were significantly lower than those of control cells ($p < 0.05$), although the difference between moduli of cells treated with 1 and 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). The equilibrium Young’s modulus of the SC cells was negatively correlated (0.654) with TGF-β2 concentration.

Similarly, the equilibrium Young’s moduli of LIM cells treated with vehicle or 1, 10, or 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 were $0.5663 \pm 0.1127$, $0.1473 \pm 0.0513$, $0.1421 \pm 0.0462$, and $0.4347 \pm 0.0498\, \text{kPa}$, respectively. The equilibrium Young’s modulus of control cells was not statistically different from that of cells treated with 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 ($p > 0.05$), whereas those of cells treated with 1 and 1 ng/mL TGF-β2 were significantly lower than that of control ($p < 0.05$). The moduli of LIM cells treated with 1 and 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 were not statistically different ($p > 0.05$). The equilibrium
Young’s modulus of the cells was correlated (0.743) with TGF-β2 concentration. The equilibrium Young’s modulus of group B showed statistically insignificant results compared with group C (\( p > 0.05 \)) (Table 2 and Figure 4(a)).

The apparent cellular viscosities of SC cells treated with vehicle or 1, 10, or 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 were 1.9148 ± 0.3535, 1.317 ± 1.6144, 1.391 ± 1.0137, and 3.652 ± 1.1040 kPa-s, respectively (Table 2 and Figure 4(b)). The apparent cellular viscosity of untreated control SC cells was not statistically different from that of SC cells treated with 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 (\( p > 0.05 \)), whereas the apparent cellular viscosities of SC cells treated with 1 or 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 were significantly lower than that of control cells (\( p < 0.05 \)). The apparent cellular viscosity was correlated with (0.576) TGF-β2 concentration. The apparent cellular viscosities of cells treated with 1 or 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 were not statistically significantly different (\( p > 0.05 \)).

The apparent cellular viscosities of LIM cells treated with vehicle or 1, 10, or 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 were 4.6264 ± 1.2205, 4.6264 ± 1.2205, 3.652 ± 1.1040 kPa·s, respectively (Table 2 and Figure 4(b)). The apparent cellular viscosity of untreated control LIM cells was not statistically different from that of LIM cells treated with 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 (\( p > 0.05 \)), whereas the apparent cellular viscosities of LIM cells treated with 1 or 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 were significantly lower than that of control cells (\( p < 0.05 \)). The apparent cellular viscosity was correlated with (0.533) TGF-β2 concentration. The apparent cellular viscosities of cells treated with 1 or 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 were not statistically significantly different (\( p > 0.05 \)).

As shown in Table 2, the equilibrium Young’s moduli and the apparent cellular viscosities were not significantly different (\( p > 0.05 \)) between cells not treated with TGF-β2 and cells treated with 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 for both the SC and LIM groups. Conversely, the values obtained for LIM cells treated with 1 or 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 were significantly lower than those of SC cells treated with 1 or 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 (\( p < 0.05 \)).

### 4. Discussion

Recent studies on the relationships between biological structural stress and cellular growth have shown that all movement at different levels of organization, from organs and
tissues to cells and organelles, is influenced by the mechanical environment. On the cellular level, the relationship between stress and growth at the cellular level is reflected both in the behaviors of single cells and in the collective behavioral responses of organized cells.

Changes in the mechanical behavior of sclerotic desmocytes have been shown to affect their form, structure, and functions. In the development of myopia, the sclera induces the extension of the eye axis by remodeling its biomechanical characteristics so that it becomes a viscoelastic material. This phenomenon plays a key role in sclerotic remodeling. Therefore, to further investigate the causes of myopia, the mechanical behaviors of sclerotic desmocytes and their biomechanical relationships with the extracellular matrix, cytokines, and other cells should be studied extensively. Specifically, the role of cytokines in inducing these cellular mechanical changes has not been investigated, even in studies of myopia.

The current study used the micropipette aspiration method to detect mechanical changes in the sclerotic desmocytes of guinea pigs cultured in vitro upon stimulation with varying concentrations of TGF-β2 for 24 h. Sclerotic desmocytes from the myopic model that were not treated with TGF-β2 exhibited significantly elevated values of the equilibrium Young’s modulus and apparent cellular viscosity as compared with parallel cells from the control group. Importantly, when these biomechanical values are lower, the mechanical properties of sclerotic desmocytes have been shown to increase to compensate for the weakened mechanical properties of the sclerotic tissue [4]. In other words, this phenomenon represents a positive compensatory reaction of the desmocytes to the changed mechanical properties of their environment.

In this study, we also found that treatment with TGF-β2 led to decreases of the equilibrium Young’s moduli and apparent cellular viscosities in both the control group and the LIM experimental group. These differences were statistically significant, but the concentration difference between the subgroups was not. These results imply that TGF-β2 affected the biomechanical behaviors of cells in both the LIM model group and SC control groups, with the LIM groups exhibiting more noticeable changes. These results are consistent with a model in which TGF-β2 expression inside the sclerotic desmocytes of the LIM eyes had already changed prior to the mechanical stimulation, thus altering biomechanical properties prematurely. When the external concentration of TGF-β2 was increased, the values of the mechanical properties also increased. This result implies that

| Group (n) | LIM | SC |
|-----------|-----|----|
| Blank     | $E_{\text{co}}$ (kPa) | 0.5663 ± 0.1127 | 0.3207 ± 0.0603 |
|           | $\mu$ (kPa-s) | 4.6264 ± 1.2205 | 1.9148 ± 0.3535 |
| 1 ng/mL TGF-β2 | $E_{\text{co}}$ (kPa) | 0.1473 ± 0.0513 ** | 0.2258 ± 0.0775 ** |
|           | $\mu$ (kPa-s) | 1.317 ± 1.6144 ** | 1.4568 ± 0.3317 ** |
| 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 | $E_{\text{co}}$ (kPa) | 0.1421 ± 0.0462 ** | 0.2640 ± 0.0621 ** |
|           | $\mu$ (kPa-s) | 1.391 ± 1.0137 ** | 1.4416 ± 0.3011 ** |
| 100 ng/mL TGF-β2 | $E_{\text{co}}$ (kPa) | 0.4347 ± 0.0496 * | 0.3063 ± 0.0505 * |
|           | $\mu$ (kPa-s) | 3.652 ± 1.1040 * | 1.9067 ± 0.4352 * |

* $p > 0.05$, ** $p < 0.05$, as compared with blank.

Figure 4: Effects of TGF-β2 on the mean $E_{\text{co}}$ (a) and $\mu$ (b) of the experimental and control scleral fibroblast cells.
the mechanical properties of sclerotic desmocytes can result in biochemical changes in the cells and that these biochemical changes can conversely impact the mechanical properties, further supporting a reciprocal causation relationship between cellular mechanical stress and cell differentiation, growth, secretion, gene expression, and signal transduction.

The mechanism behind the effect of TGF-β2 on the equilibrium Young’s modulus and apparent cellular viscosity of sclerotic desmocytes can be understood by considering all of the factors that are likely to affect cellular mechanical properties. TGF-β2 has been shown to inhibit the proliferation of sclerotic desmocytes and to increase the expression of receptor and matrix metalloproteinase 2 expression [10, 12]. Thus, changes in the cytokine quantity and extracellular matrix functions may change its mechanical behavior through alterations in external protein concentrations. The state of growth of cells may also affect the mechanical properties. In the current investigation, the equilibrium Young’s moduli and apparent cellular viscosities of the sclerotic desmocytes in the LIM groups were increased in a compensatory manner, along with the changes in the cellular state, indicating that the sclerotic desmocytes were already hardening. Compared with normal cells, pathological sclerotic desmocytes, whose mechanical behavior is already altered, may be more sensitive to changes at the same level of stimulation; in other words, these cells are more fragile.

5. Conclusion

Experiments were performed to study the effects of different concentrations of TGF-β2 on the mechanical properties of sclerotic desmocytes from guinea pigs. For this purpose, 12 concave LIM animal models were developed, with the other eye of the same guinea pig serving as a SC. The lenses from the guinea pigs of the experimental group were removed after 30 days. The scleral fibroblasts of each group were cultured and passaged for two generations in vitro. The micropipette aspiration technique was used to investigate the viscoelastic properties of the scleral fibroblasts treated with vehicle or with TGF-β2 at concentrations of 1, 10, or 100 ng/mL. The results showed that the viscoelastic properties of the untreated scleral fibroblasts of the LIM model exhibited significantly higher equilibrium moduli and apparent viscosities as compared with SC. Cells treated with 1 or 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 exhibited significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in their equilibrium moduli and apparent viscosities as compared with untreated cells, whereas no significant differences were observed between untreated cells or cells treated with 100 ng/mL. Cells of the LIM model treated with 1 or 10 ng/mL TGF-β2 had significantly lower equilibrium moduli and apparent viscosities compared with parallel cells from SC, and LIM cells treated with 100 ng/mL exhibited equilibrium moduli and apparent viscosities similar with SC cells treated with the same concentration of TGF-β2. The relationships among stress and cellular or tissue structure, function, and physiology have been attracting increased attention, and studies of these relationships are considered to comprise a new specialize field: mechanocytopatology. Understanding how normal and myopic sclera cells respond to mechanical stimulation is needed to support further investigations of cellular mechanical signal propagation and distribution, as well as the ultimate mechanotransduction of these signals into intracellular biological and chemical responses. The further clarification of the pathogenesis of myopia is also of high physiological significance.

Data Availability

No data were used to support this study.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Acknowledgments

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