Neuroprotective Effect of Statins in a Rat Model of Chronic Ocular Hypertension

Mi-Lyang Kim 1, Kyung Rim Sung 2,* , Junki Kwon 2, Go Woon Choi 1 and Jin A Shin 1

1 Biomedical Research Center, College of Medicine, University of Ulsan, Asan Medical Center, Seoul 05505, Korea; jota76@gmail.com (M.-L.K.); goni8586@gmail.com (G.W.C.); jina7316@naver.com (J.A.S.)
2 Department of Ophthalmology, College of Medicine, University of Ulsan, Asan Medical Center, Seoul 05505, Korea; ssazzang1982@hanmail.net
* Correspondence: sunggeye@gmail.com; Tel.: +82-2-3010-3680; Fax: +82-2-470-6440

Abstract: Glaucoma is an optic neuropathy in which the degeneration of retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) results in irreversible vision loss. Therefore, neuroprotection of RGCs from glaucomatous afflictions is crucial for glaucoma treatment. In this study, we aimed to investigate the beneficial effects of statins in the protection of RGCs using a rat model. Glaucomatous injury was induced in rats by chronic ocular hypertension (OHT) achieved after performing a circumlimbal suture. The rats were given either statins such as simvastatin and atorvastatin or a solvent weekly for 6 weeks. Retina sections underwent hematoxylin and eosin, Brn3a, or cleaved casepase-3 staining to evaluate RGC survival. In addition, modulation of glial activation was assessed. While the retinas without statin treatment exhibited increased RGC death due to chronic OHT, statins promoted the survival of RGCs and reduced apoptosis. Statins also suppressed chronic OHT-mediated glial activation in the retina. Our results demonstrate that statins exert neuroprotective effects in rat retinas exposed to chronic OHT, which may support the prospect of statins being a glaucoma treatment.

Keywords: retinal ganglion cell; statin; glaucoma; neuroprotection; ocular hypertension

1. Introduction

Glaucoma is an optic neuropathy characterized by axonal damage, remodeling of the extracellular matrix (ECM) at the lamina cribrosa of optic nerve heads (ONHs), and the subsequent death of retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) [1,2]. Glaucoma causes irreversible vision loss and blindness. Most efficient glaucoma treatments to date have mainly focused on lowering intraocular pressure (IOP), which is the most relevant risk factor, using medications or surgical methods. However, appropriately controlling the IOP is not always successful in preventing the progression of glaucoma. Therefore, the development of new treatment strategies is urgently needed.

Statins are inhibitors of the enzyme known as 3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-coenzyme A reductase (HMG-CoA reductase), which is necessary for cholesterol synthesis. Therefore, statins have been shown to prevent cardiovascular disease incidents by reducing the cholesterol level. The interference of HMG-CoA metabolism results in the depletion of isoprenoids as well. Due to these cholesterol-independent pleiotropic effects, statins have been beneficial in diseases such as inflammatory diseases [3] and Alzheimer’s disease [4]. Statins have also been considered as therapeutic agents for glaucoma based on observations in cohort studies. In a retrospective longitudinal cohort study, a group that had taken statins showed a lower incidence of primary open-angle glaucoma (POAG) development compared to the no statin group in a dose-dependent manner [5]. Additionally, statin use was shown to be associated with the stabilization of visual field progression in patients with normal tension glaucoma and open-angle glaucoma [6,7]. Several mechanisms of the effects of statins on glaucoma have been proposed [8]. These mechanisms include the improvement of blood flow to the optic nerve and retinal nerve fiber layer (NFL) [9] or the
anti-fibrotic effect in trabecular meshwork cells or in the ONHs [10,11]. The neuroprotective effect has also been proposed as one of the mechanisms. Statins have been shown to protect RGCs from ischemia/reperfusion injury and optic nerve injury [12–14]. Although the neuroprotective effects of statins have been reported in various models with RGC and optic nerve injury, the effect in response to chronic IOP elevation, which more closely represents glaucomatous insults, has not been studied.

In this study, we assessed the efficacy of statin treatment on RGC survival in vivo using a circumlimbal suture method. Chronic ocular hypertension was achieved with the addition of pressure by fixing sutures around the equator of the eyes [15,16]. This method is preferable because it is less invasive and causes less damage to the tissues. With the systemic injection of statins, either simvastatin or atorvastatin for 6 weeks, we observed the apoptosis of RGCs and determined the change in retinal glial activation.

2. Results

2.1. Induction of RGC Death in Rats with Circumlimbal Sutures

To study the effect of statins for glaucoma treatment and its underlying mechanisms, we utilized a glaucoma model with rats in which hypertensive IOP was induced using a circumlimbal suture [15]. IOP was measured before surgery, 5 min after surgery, 1 day post-surgery, and once a week thereafter. Five minutes after suture application, IOP was greatly elevated up to 17–18 mmHg compared with controls (Figure 1a, \( p < 0.001 \)). The elevated IOP was then stabilized and maintained around 10 mmHg until 6 weeks (Figure 1a, \( p < 0.05 \) at all time points compared to their control eyes). At 7 weeks, IOP from several mice fluctuated and became close to that of the controls (Figure 1a, \( p = 0.0641 \)). The damage caused by the suture on RGCs was evaluated with H&E and Brn3a staining, specific to RGCs (Figure 1b). The number of cell bodies and Brn3a\(^+\) cells in the ganglion cell layer (GCL) were significantly reduced by the suture. The number of Brn3\(^+\) cells reduced by 25% in the sutured retina compared to the control (control 27.9 ± 2.63 vs. suture 17.8 ± 2.02, \( \frac{\text{# of Brn3}^+\text{ cells}}{500 \mu m} \), \( \dagger p < 0.01 \); Figure 1c). Therefore, we concluded that the chronic ocular hypertension (OHT) was achieved and the subsequent RGC death was induced by the circumlimbal suture.

2.2. Preservation of the Number of RGCs by Statins

The neuroprotective effect of statins has been reported in Alzheimer’s and Parkinson’s disease [17,18]. We analyzed whether statins exerted a neuroprotective effect on RGCs in this glaucoma model. To do that, animals were intraperitoneally injected with a statin (2 mg/kg) or DMSO weekly for 7 weeks. Then, the number of RGCs was determined either by counting the cell bodies or Brn3a\(^+\) cells in the GCL. The level of apoptosis was determined by counting cleaved caspase-3\(^+\) cells in the GCL. The representative pictures are shown in Figure 2a. In the sutured retina, the number of cells in the GCL decreased by approximately 50% (control 53.4 ± 6.8 vs. suture 26.5 ± 2.1, cells in the GCL, \( \dagger p < 0.01 \); Figure 2b). Brn3a\(^+\) and cleaved caspase-3\(^+\) cells were presented as a percentage of the total cells in the GCL. The percentage of Brn3a\(^+\) was significantly decreased (control 68.0 ± 11.9 vs. suture 51.3 ± 12.6, % survival of Brn3a\(^+\), \( \dagger p < 0.01 \); Figure 2c). The percentage of cleaved caspase-3\(^+\) cells in the GCL increased by 2.5 times compared to the control (control 8.9 ± 3.8 vs. suture 21.5 ± 7.8, % apoptotic cells, \( \dagger p < 0.01 \); Figure 2d). The number of RGCs was restored by atorvastatin compared to suture (suture 26.5 ± 2.1 vs. suture + atorvastatin 47.0 ± 5.3, cells in the GCL, * \( p < 0.05 \); Figure 2b; suture 51.3 ± 12.6 vs. suture + atorvastatin 64.8 ± 17.9, % survival of Brn3a\(^+\), * \( p < 0.05 \); Figure 2c) and the apoptotic cells in the GCL were significantly reduced by atorvastatin (suture 21.5 ± 7.8 vs. suture + atorvastatin 11.2 ± 4.6, % apoptotic cells, \( \dagger p < 0.01 \); Figure 2d). These results suggest that atorvastatin protected RGCs from chronic OHT-mediated cell death.
Figure 1. Circumlimbal suture induces chronic OHT and RGC death in rats. (a) IOP was measured before surgery, 5 min after suture, and once a week thereafter for 7 weeks. Chronic ocular hypertension was achieved in eyes that received the circumlimbal suture after the IOP spike. * \( p < 0.05 \), \( \dagger p < 0.01 \); \( n = 8 \) for each group. (b) The retinas from the control or sutured eyes were stained with H&E or the Brn3a antibody specific to RGC. Cell density in the GCL and Brn3a+ cells was reduced in the sutured eyes compared to the controls. (c) Brn3a positive cells were quantified. In the sutured eyes, the number of Brn3a+ cells decreased by 25%. \( \dagger p < 0.01 \), Mean ± standard deviation; \( n = 4 \) for each group. GCL: Ganglion cell layer, H&E: hematoxylin and eosin, IOP: intraocular pressure, OHT: ocular hypertension, RGCs: retinal ganglion cells.

Figure 2. Atorvastatin protects RGCs from chronic OHT-induced cell death. (a) The retinas were either stained with H&E or processed by immunohistochemistry for Brn3a or cleaved caspase-3. The number of cells (b), number of Brn3a+ cells (c), and cleaved caspase-3+ cells (d) in the GCL were quantified. Atorvastatin injection protected RGCs from chronic OHT-induced injury. GCL: Ganglion cell layer, IPL: inner plexiform layer, INL: inner nuclear layer, OPL: outer plexiform layer, ONL: outer nuclear layer, H&E: hematoxylin and eosin, OHT: ocular hypertension, RGCs: retinal ganglion cells; * \( p < 0.05 \), \( \dagger p < 0.01 \); \( n = 5 \) for each group.
The effect of simvastatin was tested as well. In the sutured retina, the number of cells in the GCL was decreased by approximately 30% (control 51.0 ± 11 vs. suture 33.9 ± 13.6, cells in the GCL, † p < 0.01; Figure 3b) and the survival of Brn3a+ was decreased by approximately 32% (control 55.1 ± 14 vs. suture 38.2 ± 23.7, % survival of Brn3a+, * p < 0.05; Figure 3c). The percentage of cleaved caspase-3+ cells in the GCL increased by 1.6 times compared to the control (control 8.1 ± 5.1 vs. suture 12.7 ± 8.8, % apoptotic cells, * p < 0.05; Figure 3d). Simvastatin treatment to the sutured rat restored the number of RGCs (suture 33.9 ± 13.6 vs. suture + simvastatin 48.9 ± 16, cells in the GCL, * p < 0.05; Figure 3b; suture 38.2 ± 23.7 vs. suture + simvastatin 63.9 ± 17.5, % survival of Brn3a+, * p < 0.05; Figure 3c) and reduced RGC apoptosis (suture 12.7 ± 8.8 vs. suture + simvastatin 8.96 ± 6.3, % apoptotic cells, † p < 0.01; Figure 3d). These data suggest that both statins prevented chronic OHT-mediated RGC death, suggesting that statins have neuroprotective effects.

Figure 3. Simvastatin protects RGCs from chronic OHT-induced cell death. (a) The retinas were either stained with H&E or processed by immunohistochemistry for Brn3a or cleaved caspase-3. Number of cells (b), number of Brn3a+ cells (c), and cleaved caspase-3+ cells (d) in the GCL were quantified. The number of RGCs was reduced and the number of cleaved caspase-3 was increased in the sutured retina. Simvastatin injection prevented RGC death and suppressed apoptosis. GCL: Ganglion cell layer, IPL: inner plexiform layer, INL: inner nuclear layer, OPL: outer plexiform layer, ONL: outer nuclear layer, RGCs: retinal ganglion cells, H&E: hematoxylin and eosin, OHT: ocular hypertension; * p < 0.05, † p < 0.01, ‡ p < 0.001; n = 4 for each group.

2.3. Effect of Statins on Chronic Ocular Hypertension-Mediated Glial Activation in the Retina

Glial activation is prominent in a damaged retina, and hypertrophic morphology and the upregulation of GFAP immunoreactivity in retinal astrocytes and Müller cells were reported in the retina of glaucoma patients [19]. In addition, the retinas that experienced chronic OHT, which is induced by the circumlimbal suture, exhibited the upregulation of GFAP expression [15,20]. Therefore, we investigated the effect of statins on chronic OHT-induced glial activation. In the control retinas, basal expression of GFAP was detected in astrocytes (arrowhead) localized in the NFL, and few GFAP+ processes of Müller cells were observed in the inner plexiform layer (IPL; Figure 4a). In the sutured retinas, however, GFAP immunoreactivity in astrocytes and the processes of Müller cells were substantially upregulated (arrowhead: astrocytes, arrow: Müller cells; Figure 4d). Atorvastatin was very potent to reduce GFAP expression in astrocytes and especially in the processes of Müller cells (Figure 4e). Simvastatin was not as potent as atorvastatin but still reduced...
GFAP expression (Figure 4f). Although some processes of Müller cells were GFAP+, the immunoreactivity was lower than that of the control (Figure 4f, arrow). To further verify the effect of statins, GFAP immunoreactivity was quantified (Figure 4g). First, GFAP immunoreactivity in the sutured retina was increased by approximately two-fold than that in the control retina (control 7.70 ± 0.25 vs. suture 15.32 ± 1.26, † p < 0.01). Then, atorvastatin significantly reduced GFAP expression in the sutured retina (suture 15.32 ± 1.26 vs. suture + atorvastatin 4.61 ± 0.40, ‡ p < 0.01). In addition, atorvastatin reduced basal GFAP expression (control 7.70 ± 0.25 vs. atorvastatin 4.91 ± 0.95, ∗ p < 0.05). Simvastatin partially reduced OHT-mediated GFAP expression (suture 15.32 ± 1.26 vs. suture + simvastatin 10.49 ± 1.67, ∗ p < 0.05). It is noticeable that atorvastatin was more effective in reducing GFAP expression than simvastatin as shown Figure 4g (suture+atorvastatin 4.61 ± 0.40 vs. suture+simvastatin 10.49 ± 1.367, p = 0.032).

![Figure 4. Statins suppress chronic OHT-mediated glial activation in the retina.](image)

3. Discussion

Statins have drawn attention as a potential treatment for glaucoma based on some epidemiological studies [5–7,21]. However, more in-depth studies are required because there are some discrepancies in the effects of statins among these studies, probably due to the varying methods or designs adopted. Herein, we evaluated the effect of statins on glaucoma, more specifically on the survival of RGCs in a rat glaucoma model in which chronic OHT was induced using a circumlimbal suture. We showed that the systemic delivery of statins, atorvastatin or simvastatin, protects RGCs from cell death induced by chronic OHT (Figures 2 and 3).

Müller cells and astrocytes are macroglial cells in the retina that play critical roles in the homeostasis of retinal neurons. When they experience retinal damages including glaucomatous insults, they undergo reactivation characterized by morphological and molecular changes. Although the effects of glial reactivation are under debate, it is well accepted that the prolonged reactivation results in neuronal degeneration. Glial activation contributes to the pathogenesis of glaucoma. Upregulation of GFAP expression, a hallmark of glial reactivation, was reported in chronic IOP elevation in rats [15,22] and glaucoma patients [19]. Consistently, we observed the increased expression of GFAP in processes of Müller cells in the sutured retina (Figure 4d), whereas few GFAP+ processes of Müller cells were found in controls. GFAP expression in astrocytes was also induced by suture (Figure 4d). Simvastatin or atorvastatin reduced chronic OHT-mediated GFAP expression (Figure 4e,f). We hypothesized that the suppression of glial activation in the retina might...
mediate the neuroprotective effect of statins. However, this mechanism is not exclusive, and statins might have an influence on both RGCs and retinal glia.

In the modulation of OHT-mediated glial activation, atorvastatin was more potent than simvastatin (Figure 4). While simvastatin partially reduced GFAP expression in processes of Müller cells, atorvastatin reduced it to the control level. Atorvastatin even reduced basal GFAP expression in the control retina (Figure 4d,g). We speculate that this may be due to the different pharmacokinetic characteristics. Atorvastatin has a longer half-life than simvastatin. In addition, simvastatin is a pro-drug which needs to be processed to become an active drug. Since statins are not uniform in terms of their actions, it is critical to understand the precise mechanisms.

Plausible molecular mechanisms of the action of statins in glaucoma were suggested, such as improvement of blood flow, survival of RGC, and ECM modification. Some reports suggested the direct effect on the retina. In the ischemia/reperfusion model, simvastatin induced Bcl-2 expression in RGCs and the retina, resulting in apoptosis reduction and RGC survival [23,24]. Systemic delivery of statins enhanced RGCs survival putatively through the modulation of heat shock proteins in the retina in response to ischemia/reperfusion injury [12]. Another explanation is that the effect is secondary to changes in the optic nerve. Statins suppressed NF-κB activity in optic nerve astrocytes and subsequently protected RGCs from optic nerve injury [14]. In addition, statins might promote RGC survival through the inhibition of the ECM modulation in the ONHs. The ECM remodeling is one of the prominent pathologies of glaucoma and we previously reported that statins inhibit ECM protein expressions and matrix metalloproteinases in ONH astrocytes in response to TGF-β2 [11,25]. The last possibility is that statins might lower IOP directly and consequently benefit glaucoma. There is in vitro data showing that lovastatin induced the relaxation of porcine trabecular meshwork cells and the ciliary body and increased aqueous humor outflow [26]. However, no significant association between statins and IOP was found in clinical studies [6,27]. We observed no significant effect on IOP with statins (data not shown). Since these explanations are from injuries less relevant to glaucoma, it is important to understand the mechanism of statins in a model of hypertensive IOP.

Statins’ role in neuroprotection and promoting neurodegeneration has been suggested and several mechanisms have been proposed. Statins do not only inhibit cholesterol biosynthesis, but also isoprenoid biosynthesis by depleting intermediate molecules for prenylation [28]. Prenylation is essential for the proper functioning of proteins in the nervous system. For example, alteration of the RhoA pathway is found in Alzheimer’s and Huntington’s disease [29,30]. RhoA is one of the proteins which requires prenylation to become properly active. In addition, statins have been shown to induce neurite outgrowth by inhibiting prenylation, which promotes statins as a therapeutic for spinal cord injury and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis [31]. In our OHT model, the precise mechanism of the neuroprotective effect of statins needs to be further studied.

The present study is limited in that a single dose of statins was administered. At 2 mg/Kg bodyweight, both atorvastatin and simvastatin were effective in restoring RGCs. Treatment using different doses will give us a better understanding of whether the protection of RGCs is dose-dependent or what the minimum effective dose is. Another limitation is that the 8-week duration was not long enough to evaluate chronic effects such as OHT-mediated ONH cupping or ECM remodeling. To determine whether statins can modulate ECM remodeling in this in vivo model, we will try to perform extended experiments for up to 14–18 weeks of the OHT model.

In conclusion, statins promote the survival of RGCs, which is accompanied by reduced apoptosis in response to chronic ocular hypertension. This finding provides additional evidence to support statins as a potent glaucoma therapeutic agent.
4. Materials and Methods

4.1. Animals

All experiments in this study were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Asan Institute for Life Sciences (University of Ulsan, Seoul, Korea). Male Wistar rats were maintained under standard conditions and a 12-h light/12-h dark cycle. Rats (9–10 weeks old, 200–250 g) were used for circumlimbal suture application. IOP was measured using a rebound tonometer (iCare PRO; iCare, Helsinki, Finland) under anesthesia by isoflurane inhalation (Ifran; Hana Pharm., Seoul, Korea) between 1 and 2 p.m. to minimize diurnal variation. An average of 10 readings was taken as the IOP at each time point. A circumlimbal suture was adopted from Liu et al. [15]. The rats were sedated using an intraperitoneal injection of a mixture of 40 mg/kg zolazepam/tiletamine (Zoletil; Virbac, Carros Cedex, France) and 5 mg/kg xylazine (Rompun; Bayer Healthcare, Leverkusen, Germany) and were also given 0.5% proparacaine hydrochloride (Paracine; Hanmi Pharm., Seoul, Korea) for corneal anesthesia. A suture (8/0, nylon) was run around the equator of the eye approximately 1.0 mm apart from the limbus with 4–5 anchor points. While the left eyes served as the control for the chronic OHT model by being tied loosely, the right eyes were fastened tightly. A slipknot tie was used to regulate the pressure applied to the eyes. A single expert (J.K.) performed all the circumlimbal suture procedures. The pre- and post-surgery IOP were measured, followed by weekly measurements for 7 weeks. Starting from 1 week after suturing, the rats were intraperitoneally injected with simvastatin or atorvastatin at 2 mg/kg body weight, volume of 100–150 µL, or the same volume of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) once a week for 7 weeks. Eight mice for each group, e.g., control, atorvastatin, and simvastatin, underwent suture. However, a few mice were excluded due to the failure to show increased IOP. As a result, 6 mice for control, 7 for atorvastatin, and 6 for simvastatin were analyzed.

4.2. Histology

Rats were sacrificed using carbon dioxide and the eyes were enucleated at 8 weeks after the circumlimbal suture. Eyes were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Bioesang; Seoul, Korea) for 16–18 h at room temperature (RT). After washing with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), the retinas were dissected out. Regarding immunohistochemistry for Brn3a, the retinas were cryoprotected by being saturated in 30% sucrose in PBS at 4 °C. The retinas were then embedded in a cryomedium (Tissue-Tek; Shandon, Pittsburgh, PA, USA) and snap-frozen in ethanol/dry ice slurry. Cryostat sections (10 µm) were incubated in 5% goat serum diluted in PBS with 0.3% Triton X-100 (PBST) for 1 h at RT. Then, sections were incubated in anti-Brn3a antibody (1:100; Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) overnight at 4 °C. After washing in PBS with 0.3% Triton X-100, sections were incubated in cy3-conjugated anti-mouse (1:1000; Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA, USA) for 1 h at RT. Cell nuclei were counterstained with mounting media containing 1 µg/mL of 4’,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) (DAKO, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Images were acquired using an LSM710 confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss Microscopy GmbH., Jena, Germany) and processed using Zeiss ZEN 2012 imaging software (Carl Zeiss Microscopy GmbH).

Paraffin sections were prepared for Brn3a, cleaved caspase-3, GFAP, and hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining. Fixed retinas were dehydrated in serial ethanol solutions (70%, 95%, and 100%) and chloroform (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) and then embedded in paraffin blocks. Five micrometer-thick sections were deparaffinized, rehydrated, and processed for H&E staining or immunohistochemistry, followed by H&E counter staining. Prior to the antibody incubation for immunohistochemistry, sections were processed for antigen retrieval by boiling slides in 10 M citrate buffer, pH 6.0 (Bioesang; Seoul, Korea) and incubating with 3.0% H2O2 (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). Subsequently, sections were blocked in 5% normal goat serum (Vector Laboratories; Burlingame, CA, USA) in PBST and incubated with the primary antibody overnight: anti-Brn3a antibody (Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany), cleaved caspase-3 (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), and glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP; Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). The
sections were incubated with peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody, followed by incubation with 3,3′-diaminobenzidine chromogen solution (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). Three images were taken from each retina with light microscopy (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). To quantify GFAP immunoreactivity, images were analyzed with ImageJ software. Briefly, images were processed through color deconvolution and the threshold window was set to remove background. The same threshold was applied to all images and signal intensity was measured.

4.3. Statistics

All data are presented as means ± standard deviations. Unpaired groups were compared using independent sample t-tests, with \( p < 0.05 \) being considered statistically significant.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, M.-L.K. and K.R.S.; methodology, M.-L.K. and J.K.; validation, M.-L.K. and J.A.S.; formal analysis, J.K.; investigation, M.-L.K., J.K. and J.A.S.; data curation, G.W.C.; writing—original draft preparation, M.-L.K.; writing—review and editing, K.R.S.; visualization, J.A.S.; supervision, K.R.S.; project administration, G.W.C.; funding acquisition, K.R.S. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research was funded by the Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF), which is funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (No. NRF-2017R1A2B4007792).

Institutional Review Board Statement: The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Asan Institute for Life Sciences (University of Ulsan, Seoul, Korea; approval number: 2017-12-180).

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funders had no role in the design of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision to publish the results.

References

1. Weinreb, R.N.; Leung, C.K.S.; Crowston, J.G.; Medeiros, F.A.; Friedman, D.S.; Wiggs, J.L.; Martin, K.R. Primary open-angle glaucoma. *Nat. Rev. Dis. Prim.* **2016**, *2*, 16067. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

2. Guo, L.; Moss, S.E.; Alexander, R.A.; Ali, R.R.; Fitzke, F.W.; Cordeiro, M.F. Retinal ganglion cell apoptosis in glaucoma is related to intraocular pressure and IOP-induced effects on extracellular matrix. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **2005**, *46*, 175–182. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

3. Greenwood, J.; Steinman, L.; Zamvil, S.S. Statin therapy and autoimmune disease: From protein prenylation to immunomodulation. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* **2006**, *6*, 358–370. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

4. Kandiah, N.; Feldman, H.H. Therapeutic potential of statins in Alzheimer’s disease. *J. Neurol. Sci.* **2009**, *283*, 230–234. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

5. Stein, J.D.; Newman-Casey, P.A.; Talwar, N.; Nan, B.; Richards, J.E.; Musch, D.C. The relationship between statin use and open-angle glaucoma. *Ophthalmology* **2012**, *119*, 2074–2081. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

6. Leung, D.Y.L.; Li, F.C.H.; Kwong, Y.Y.Y.; Tham, C.C.Y.; Chi, S.C.C.; Lam, D.S.C. Simvastatin and Disease Stabilization in Normal Tension Glaucoma: A Cohort Study. *Ophthalmology* **2010**, *117*, 471–476. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

7. Whigham, B.; Oddone, E.Z.; Woolson, S.; Coffman, C.; Allingham, R.R.; Shieh, C.; Muir, K.W. The influence of oral statin medications on progression of glaucomatous visual field loss: A propensity score analysis. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol.* **2018**, *25*, 207–214. [CrossRef]

8. Pokrovskaya, O.; Wallace, D.; O’Brien, C. The Emerging Role of Statins in Glaucoma Pathological Mechanisms and Therapeutics. *Open J. Ophthalmol.* **2014**, *4*, 124–138. [CrossRef]

9. Nagaoka, T.; Takahashi, A.; Sato, E.; Izumi, N.; Hein, T.W.; Kuo, L.; Yoshida, A. Effect of systemic administration of simvastatin on retinal circulation. *Arch. Ophthalmol.* **2006**, *124*, 665–670. [CrossRef]

10. Villarreal, G.; Chatterjee, A.; Oh, S.S.; Oh, D.J.; Rhee, D.J. Pharmacological regulation of SPARC by lovastatin in human trabecular meshwork cells. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **2014**, *55*, 1657–1665. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

11. Kim, M.L.; Sung, K.R.; Shin, J.A.; Yoon, J.Y.; Jang, J. Statins reduce TGF-beta2-modulation of the extracellular matrix in cultured astrocytes of the human optic nerve head. *Exp. Eye Res.* **2017**, *164*, 55–63. [CrossRef]

12. Schmeir, K.; Gámez, A.; Tausch, S.; Witte, O.W.; Isenmann, S. Statins modulate heat shock protein expression and enhance retinal ganglion cell survival after transient retinal ischemia/reperfusion in vivo. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **2008**, *49*, 4971–4981. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

13. Krempfer, K.; Schmeir, C.W.; Isenmann, S.; Witte, O.W.; Löwel, S. Simvastatin improves retinal ganglion cell survival and spatial vision after acute retinal ischemia/reperfusion in mice. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **2011**, *52*, 2606–2618. [CrossRef]
14. Morishita, S.; Oku, H.; Horie, T.; Tonari, M.; Kida, T.; Okubo, A.; Sugiyama, T.; Takai, S.; Haru, H.; Ikeda, T. Systemic simvastatin rescues retinal ganglion cells from optic nerve injury possibly through suppression of astroglial NF-κB activation. *PLoS ONE* **2014**, *9*, e84387. [CrossRef]

15. Liu, H.H.; Bui, B.V.; Nguyen, C.T.O.; Kezic, J.M.; Vingrys, A.J.; He, Z. Chronic ocular hypertension induced by circumlimbal suture in rats. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **2015**, *56*, 2811–2820. [CrossRef]

16. Zhao, D.; Nguyen, C.T.O.; Wong, V.H.Y.; Lim, J.K.H.; He, Z.; Jobling, A.I.; Fletcher, E.L.; Chinnery, H.R.; Vingrys, A.J.; Bui, B.V. Characterization of the circumlimbal suture model of chronic IOP elevation in mice and assessment of changes in gene expression of stretch sensitive channels. *Front. Neurosci.* **2017**, *11*, 41. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

17. Li, H.H.; Lin, C.L.; Huang, C.N. Neuroprotective effects of statins against amyloid β-induced neurotoxicity. *Neural Regen. Res.* **2018**, *13*, 198–206. [PubMed]

18. van der Most, P.J.; Dolga, A.M.; Nijholt, I.M.; Luiten, P.G.M.; Eisel, U.L.M. Statins: Mechanisms of neuroprotection. *Prog. Neurobiol.* **2009**, *88*, 64–75. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

19. Tezel, G.; Chauhan, B.C.; LeBlanc, R.P.; Wax, M.B. Immunohistochemical assessment of the glial mitogen-activated protein kinase activation in glaucoma. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **2003**, *44*, 3025–3033. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

20. Liu, H.H.; Flanagan, J.G. A mouse model of chronic ocular hypertension induced by circumlimbal suture. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **2017**, *58*, 353–361. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

21. McCann, P.; Hogg, R.E.; Fallis, R.; Azuara-Blanco, A. The effect of statins on intraocular pressure and on the incidence and progression of glaucoma: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **2016**, *57*, 2729–2748. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

22. Vidal, L.; Díaz, F.; Villena, A.; Moreno, M.; Campos, J.G.; Pérez de Vargas, I. Reaction of Müller cells in an experimental rat model of increased intraocular pressure following timolol, latanoprost and brimonidine. *Brain Res. Bull.* **2010**, *82*, 18–24. [CrossRef]

23. Ko, M.L.; Chen, C.F.; Peng, P.H.; Peng, Y.H. Simvastatin upregulates Bcl-2 expression and protects retinal neurons from early ischemia/reperfusion injury in the rat retina. *Exp. Eye Res.* **2011**, *93*, 580–585. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

24. Zhang, Y.; Zhang, Z.; Yan, H. Simvastatin inhibits ischemia/reperfusion injury-induced apoptosis of retinal cells via downregulation of the tumor necrosis factor-α/nuclear factor-κB pathway. *Int. J. Mol. Med.* **2015**, *36*, 399–405. [CrossRef]

25. Kim, M.L.; Sung, K.R.; Kwon, J.; Shin, J.A. Statins suppress TGF-β2-Mediated MMP-2 and MMP-9 expression and activation through RhoA/ROCK inhibition in astrocytes of the human optic nerve head. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **2020**, *61*, 29. [CrossRef]

26. Song, J.; Deng, P.F.; Stinnett, S.S.; Epstein, D.L.; Rao, P.V. Effects of cholesterol-lowering statins on the aqueous humor outflow pathway. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **2005**, *46*, 2424–2432. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

27. Marcus, M.W.; Mükvens, R.P.H.M.; Ramdas, W.D.; Wolfs, R.C.W.; De Jong, P.T.V.M.; Vingerling, J.R.; Hofman, A.; Stricker, B.H.; Jansons, N.M. Cholesterol-lowering drugs and incident open-angle glaucoma: A population-based cohort study. *PLoS ONE* **2012**, *7*, e92724. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

28. Fracassi, A.; Marangoni, M.; Rosso, P.; Pallottini, V.; Fioramonti, M.; Siteni, S.; Segatto, M. Statins and the Brain: More than lipid lowering agents? *Curr. Neuropharmacol.* **2019**, *17*, 59–83. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

29. Narayanan, K.L.; Chopra, V.; Rosas, H.D.; Malarick, K.; Hersch, S. Rho kinase pathway alterations in the brain and leukocytes in Huntington’s disease. *Mol. Neurobiol.* **2016**, *53*, 2132–2140. [CrossRef]

30. Herderson, B.W.; Gentry, E.G.; Rush, T.; Troncoso, J.C.; Thambisetty, M.; Montine, T.J.; Herskowitz, J.H. Rho-associated protein kinase 1 (ROCK1) is increased in Alzheimer’s disease and ROCK1 depletion reduces amyloid-beta levels in brain. *J. Neurochem.* **2016**, *138*, 525–531. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

31. Li, H.; Kuwajima, T.; Oakley, D.; Nikulina, E.; Hou, J.; Yang, W.S.; Lowry, E.R.; Lamas, N.J.; Amoroso, M.W.; Croft, G.F.; et al. Protein prenylation constitutes an endogenous brake on axonal growth. *Cell Rep.* **2016**, *16*, 545–558. [CrossRef] [PubMed]