Silicone Oil-Induced Glaucomatous Neurodegeneration in Rhesus Macaques

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Abstract

Previously, we developed a simple procedure of intracameral injection of silicone oil (SO) in mouse eyes and established the mouse SOHU (SO-induced ocular hypertension) glaucoma model with reversible intraocular pressure (IOP) elevation and significant glaucomatous neurodegeneration (Zhang et al, eLife 2019). Because the anatomy of the non-human primate (NHP) visual system closely resembles that of humans, it is the most likely to predict human responses to diseases and therapies. Here we replicated the SOHU glaucoma model in rhesus macaque monkeys. One animal presented characteristic human glaucoma pathophysiological features within 6 months after SO injection, including reversible IOP elevation, optic nerve head (ONH) cupping, quadrant specific RNFL thinning, and decrease of the photopic negative response, in addition to significant retinal ganglion cell (RGC) death and optic nerve (ON) degeneration. Additional animals showed similar glaucomatous degeneration and visual functional deficit at both 3 and 6 months, however, with a unique dynamic change of IOP. This novel NHP SOHU glaucoma model recapitulates phenotypes of human patients, and is therefore highly suitable for studying primate RGC/ON morphology and function in response to ocular hypertension, assessing pre-clinically neuroprotective and regenerative therapies, and therefore for translating relevant findings into novel and efficient treatments in patients with glaucoma and other neurodegenerations.

Keywords: glaucoma, retinal ganglion cell, optic nerve, neurodegeneration, model, NHP

Introduction

Glaucoma, the most common cause of irreversible blindness, is characterized by progressive peripheral to central loss of retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) and their axons in optic nerve (ON) (Calkins, 2021; Howell et al., 2007; Tham et al., 2014; Weinreb et al., 2016). Although glaucoma can occur at any intraocular pressure (IOP) level (Iyer et al., 2020), elevated IOP is associated with accelerated progression (Burgoyne, 2011; Calkins, 2012; Calkins, 2021; Howell et al., 2007; Tham et al., 2014; Weinreb et al., 2016). Lowering IOP is the only available treatment but fails to completely prevent the progression of glaucomatous neurodegeneration (Anderson and Normal Tension Glaucoma, 2003; Garway-Heath et al., 2015; Heijl et al., 2002; Wormald et al., 2020). Neuroprotectants that promote RGC/ON survival, transplantation of stem cell-derived RGCs to replace lost RGCs, and regeneration therapies to stimulate RGC soma and axon regrowth are promising neural repair strategies to restore vision in glaucoma patients (Beykin et al., 2021; Wareham et al., 2020). To translate exciting laboratory findings into effective neuroprotective and regenerative treatments, pre-clinical testing in a disease-relevant, translation-enabling animal glaucoma model that closely resembles human patients is critically important.

We recently developed a silicone oil (SO)-induced ocular hypertension (SOHU) glaucoma mouse model (Fang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2019a; Zhang et al., 2019b) based on the well-documented, SO-induced human secondary glaucoma that occurs as a complication of vitreoretinal surgery (Ichhpujani et al., 2009; Kornmann and Gedde, 2016). By thwarting aqueous flow to the anterior chamber with a single intracameral injection of SO and that induces pupillary block, this model causes accumulation of aqueous and significant IOP elevation in the posterior chamber, and subsequent progressive RGC and ON degeneration. Importantly, the ocular hypertension of SOHU

model can be reversed quickly by easily and definitively removing SO from the anterior chamber

(Fang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2019a; Zhang et al., 2019b). However, there is a recognized gap

in the translation of successful neuroprotective and regenerative therapies identified in rodent

models of glaucoma to treatment for glaucoma patients. Rodents have known limitations that may

impede translation of potential therapeutics: differences in immune system responses, ON head

(ONH) architecture, and brain structures and circuitry may contribute to differences in

pathogenesis between rodents and primates and, therefore, to critically different responses to

therapeutics. Therefore, despite the many benefits of the mouse SOHU model, a higher

experimental animal species is needed for pre-clinical translation research.

The anatomy of the non-human primate (NHP) visual system closely resembles that of humans

and includes a similar distribution of rods and cones, a specialized macula and fovea and lamina

cribrosa not present in rodent, comparable contrast sensitivity and visual acuity, and almost

identical retinocortical architecture (Chen et al., 2016; Harwerth and Smith, 1985). An NHP

glaucoma model is the most likely to predict human responses to ocular hypertension and

therapies, and the rhesus macaque monkey has been used successfully in experimental glaucoma

research (Burgoyne, 2015a; Burgoyne, 2015b). Since SO causes ocular hypertension in both

human patients and mice, we reasoned that the same procedure may be adapted to different animal

species with minimal confounding factors. Here we report the development of a novel NHP

glaucoma model in rhesus macaque monkeys by adapting our mouse SOHU glaucoma model. By

characterizing the unique features of SO-induced IOP dynamics in macaque eyes and the

corresponding RGC/ON degeneration and visual function deficits, we provide essential

information to establish the NHP SOHU glaucoma model. We expect this model to be applicable

to study primate RGC morphology and function in response to ocular hypertension, and assess pre-clinically promising neuroprotective and regenerative therapies, and therefore for translating relevant findings into novel and efficient treatments in patients with glaucoma and other neurodegenerations.

Results

Intracameral injection of SO in rhesus macaque monkey produces characteristic pathophysiological features of human glaucoma

We injected roughly 100 µl SO into the anterior chamber of the right eye of one 13-year-old female macaque (#38361, **Table 1**), filling 80% SO of the anterior chamber with complete covering of the pupil (**Fig. 1A**). The IOPs of both eyes were similar before SO injection (Day 0, 17 *vs* 16 mmHg, **Fig. 1B**). Restrictions of the Primate Center then precluded measuring the IOPs until 1 month post injection (1mpi). Surprisingly, the IOP of the SOHU eye was lower at this time than the contralateral mock injected control eye (10 *vs* 19 mmHg). However, significant elevation of IOP was detected at 3 and 5mpi in the SOHU eye (**Fig. 1B**). Because we missed the measurement at the 2mpi time point, we can only assume that the IOP of the SOHU eye recovered and became elevated between 1mpi and 3mpi. Consistent with our mouse SOHU model, SO removal at 5mpi reduced IOP dramatically at 1 week after SO removal, the earliest time point we measured, and it had returned to normal at one month after SO removal (6mpi) (**Fig. 1B**). These results indicate that the SO-induced pupillary blocking was the cause of IOP elevation, and that the pupillary blocking and ocular hypertension were reversed by simply removing the SO.

A characteristic morphological feature of human glaucoma is enlargement of the depression in the middle of the ONH, called glaucomatous "cupping" (Lockwood et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2017). Strikingly, this signature morphological change of glaucoma was readily detected in the SOHU macaque eye by live fundus imaging with confocal scanning laser ophthalmoscopy (cSLO) at 3 and 5mpi (**Fig. 1C**), corresponding to IOP elevation. ONH cupping cannot be seen in the mouse SOHU model, further confirming the similarity between macaque and human eyes.

This characteristic glaucomatous optic cup enlargement was even more obvious in OCT live imaging by radial B-scan centered through the ONH (**Fig. 2A**). Based on previously developed measurement of the anatomic features of the macaque ONH (He et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2017), we applied the Visualization Toolkit (VTK) to generate an algorithm for 3D reconstruction to delineate the OCT imaging data (**Fig. 2B**). We used inner limiting membrane (ILM), Bruch's membrane opening (BMO), the two discrete points at either side of the neural canal, and the BMO reference plane as references to measure the ONH connective tissue parameters, including minimum rim width (MRW), rim volume (RimV), and cup volume (CupV). Obvious shortening of MRW, shrinking of RimV, and enlarging of CupV were detected in the SOHU eye compared to contralateral control eye (**Fig. 2C**).

Thinning of the retina nerve fiber layer (RNFL) measured by OCT is used clinically as a biomarker for RGC/ON degeneration (Aktas et al., 2016; Balcer et al., 2015; Costello et al., 2006). We measured the RNFL thickness of this animal sequentially and detected a progressive decrease from 1mpi to 6mpi (**Fig. 3**), indicating significant glaucomatous neurodegeneration. Interestingly,

RNFL thinning was more severe in the inferior and superior quadrants, as in human glaucoma (Maupin et al., 2020). Additionally, we detected a retinal branch artery occlusion in the SOHU eye with corresponding temporal inner retinal thinning in the macular region (**Figure 3-figure supplementary 1**), which significant IOP elevation can also cause in human patients (Varma et al., 2013).

We also examined the visual function of this macaque. The photopic negative response (PhNR) of the photopic full-field ERG is a negative-going wave that occurs after the b-wave in response to a brief flash and reflects the function of RGCs and their axons in general. Its amplitude is reduced early in human glaucoma (Viswanathan et al., 1999), which also correlates well with structural loss in NHP glaucoma (Wilsey et al., 2017). Both b-wave and PhNR's amplitudes decreased dramatically in the SOHU eye at 1-6mpi, suggesting functional deficits of the inner retina (**Fig. 4**).

Finally, to confirm the glaucomatous neurodegeneration, we euthanized this animal at 6mpi for histological analysis of post-mortem retina and ON. Consistent with the structural and functional deficits detected in the living animal, retinal wholemounts revealed significant RGC somata loss in the SOHU eye throughout the peripheral to the central retina (**Fig. 5A,B**); and semithin cross-sections showed significant RGC axon degeneration in ON (**Fig. 5C,D**). The H&E staining of the ONH further confirmed the "cupping" phenotype and significant thinning of RNFL (**Figure 5-figure supplementary 1A**). The lamina cribrosa is a three-dimensional trabecular connective tissue providing structural support and load-bearing to RGC axons at the ONH (Downs and Girkin, 2017). Its deformation, such as increased curve and depth, may correlate with RNFL thinning in glaucoma patients (Hopkins et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2018). Interestingly, collagen staining of the

ONH of the SOHU eye also showed lamina cribrosa bowing (**Figure 5-figure supplementary 1B**).

Taken together, results in this rhesus macaque monkey (#38361) not only replicated the mouse SOHU glaucoma model in NHP, but also demonstrated characteristic pathophysiological features of human glaucoma, including ONH cupping, quadrant specific RNFL thinning and significantly decrease of visual function (PhNR), confirmed by histological studies showing significant RGC death and ON degeneration.

Acute form of macaque SOHU model with different IOP dynamics but similar neurodegeneration in most tested animals

Five of the other tested macaques (**Table 1**) showed different IOP dynamics after SO injection than animal #38361. In two animals (#44876 and #45513), IOP was elevated immediately after SO injection (15 to 19 mmHg and 13 to 22 mmHg, **Fig. 6A**). Due to the pandemic and strict regulation of the Primate Center, we could not measure the IOP at earlier time points or more often. We do not know for how long the transient IOP elevation after SO injection lasts. However, all the 5 animals showed substantial ocular hypotension at 1mpi: IOPs of the SOHU eyes were much lower than their baselines or their contralateral control eyes (**Fig. 6A,B**). The ocular hypotension lasted from 1mpi to 3mpi in three animals (#44876, #45513, and #44639), and IOP returned progressively to normal between 2-6mpi in the other three animals that we maintained for 6 months. We do not know whether the IOPs of these SOHU eyes will become elevated again after the 6mpi time point. We noticed that all the pupils of the SOHU eyes were fixed in the mid-dilated

state (**Fig. 7A**), suggesting a transient and quick IOP elevation, which may result in ischemic iris

sphincter muscle and consequently limitation in constriction, as in patients with acute angle closure

glaucoma (Flores-Sanchez and Tatham, 2019). Similarly, the chronic ocular hypotony may be the

result of acute IOP elevation and subsequent ischemia of the ciliary body. Consistent with low

IOP, neither retina fundus SLO images nor OCT images showed ONH "cupping" (**Figs. 7B,C**).

Significant neurodegeneration of the SOHU eyes at 3mpi and 6mpi

The PhNR of the SOHU eyes decreased at all time points after SO injection, but only reached

statistical significance at 1mpi (**Fig. 8A**). The *in vivo* OCT imaging of the retinas detected edema

(thickening) of RNFL in the SOHU eyes at 3mpi and significant thinning at 6mpi (**Fig. 8B**),

indicating inner retina neurodegeneration. Post-mortem histological analysis confirmed the

significant RGC and ON degeneration at both 3mpi and 6mpi (**Fig. 9**).

Discussion

A reliable NHP glaucoma model that closely mimics the disease in humans is a prerequisite for studies of pathogenetic mechanisms and for selecting efficient neuroprotective treatments for clinical use. In the present study, we demonstrated that SO intracameral injection induces glaucomatous neurodegeneration in rhesus macaque monkey eyes, that replicates both the mouse SOHU glaucoma model and human secondary glaucoma. After a simple SO intracameral injection procedure, all the SOHU eyes showed significant thinning of RNFL, decreased visual function (PhNR), and loss of RGC somata and axons within 3-6 months. The reversible intracameral SO injection does not cause overt ocular structural damage while simulating acute glaucomatous changes. Therefore, this relatively acute and severe glaucomatous neurodegeneration of this SOHU NHP model can be used to model angle-closure glaucoma, which is responsible for 50% of blindness caused by glaucoma (Pohl and Tarnutzer, 2018; Tham et al., 2014). In addition to its usefulness to decipher the molecular mechanisms of ocular hypertension-induced glaucomatous degeneration in primate, this inducible and clinically relevant NHP neurodegeneration model will be valuable to preclinically assess the efficacy and safety of experimental neuroprotection and regeneration therapies.

It also notable that the characteristic human glaucoma features associated with the most extensively studied animal (#38361), including stable, lasting, and reversible ocular hypertension, ONH "cupping", quadrant specific RNFL thinning, PhNR deficits, and dramatic RGC/ON degeneration, suggest that this model has the potential to replicate chronic glaucoma in human patients. Unfortunately, most animals we tested did not react in the same way as this one. On the contrary, they showed low IOP in the SOHU eyes at some points. We observed rapid IOP elevation

immediately after SO injection in some but not all the animals before they developed severe ocular

hypotension. We suspect that the pupillary blockade substantially elevated the IOP in a very short

period of time and that caused ciliary body "shutdown" happened in human patients (Coleman,

1995). In this case, the ciliary body stops generating aqueous humor, which leads to ocular

hypotension. Consistent with acute IOP elevation resulting in ischemic changes, we observed fixed

dilated pupils in all SOHU eyes that was likely due to iris ischemia. For reasons that we do not

understand at this point, some animals, such as #38361, can recover rather quickly from ciliary

body shock and resume aqueous humor production, which increases IOP due to pupillary blocking.

However, other animals may not be able to recover from ciliary body shock to maintain normal

IOP, such as animals #44876 and #45513. In some animals IOP slowly returned to normal, such

as animals #42946, #44639, #44193, indicating partial ciliary body recovery. We hypothesize that

either the ciliary body is not fully recovered so that it cannot further elevate IOP even when

pupillary blocking by SO is still in place, or the eye may need more time to finally achieve ocular

hypertension. We do not know what causes the different responses of different animals at this

point. Age may play a role since #38361 was much older (13yrs) than the other five animals (6-

8yrs). Further systematic studies with additional NHP animals are needed to clarify the reasons

and to further optimize this model. For example, a modified SOHU model that induces and

maintains a moderate elevation of IOP through frequent pupil dilation (Fang et al., 2021) may

prevent the acute very high IOP elevation causing ciliary body shock.

Ocular vascular dysfunction has long been known to be correlated with the incidence of glaucoma

and acute high IOP elevation in patients with angle-closure glaucoma, and secondary glaucoma

can induce central retinal artery occlusion with ischemic damage of the inner retina (Flammer et

al., 2002; Mozaffarieh et al., 2008; Osborne et al., 2004; Wareham and Calkins, 2020). We

previously detected ocular ischemia with inner retina damage and outer retina sparing in the severe

variant of the SOHU mouse model (Fang et al., 2021), consistent with findings in rats with acute

high IOP elevation (Buchi et al., 1991; Chidlow et al., 2010; Hughes, 1991; Smith and Baird,

1952). Interestingly, we also detected ocular branch artery occlusion in the animal (#38361) with

high IOP elevation, demonstrating another similarity of the SOHU NHP model to the human acute

glaucoma-related syndrome.

Despite the absence of long-lasting ocular hypertension, the five other animals all showed RGC

and ON degeneration. This suggests that transient acute IOP elevation causes the

neurodegeneration. From our mouse study (Fang et al., 2021), we learned that although SO

removal allows IOP to return quickly to normal, it does not stop the progression of glaucomatous

neurodegeneration in the SOHU model. This result is also consistent with the clinical observation

that visual field loss can progress aggressively in some glaucoma patients whose IOP is maintained

at a relatively low level. Thus, this NHP SOHU model can be used to determine the efficacy of

experimental neuroprotection treatment under a low IOP condition after initial pathogenic ocular

hypertension. Advanced retinal imaging and visual function assays that are available for humans

can be applied to this primate glaucoma model. These assays will identify morphological and

functional changes in RGCs and ON that can serve as potential biomarkers in glaucoma and other

optic neuropathies. Since optic neuropathy can also be associated with other central nervous

system (CNS) neurodegenerative diseases (Carelli et al., 2017), including multiple sclerosis

(Balcer et al., 2015; Talman et al., 2010; Toosy et al., 2014), Alzheimer's disease (Chiasseu et al.,

2016; McKinnon, 2003), and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (Minegishi et al., 2016; Wiggs and

Pasquale, 2017), this model may be broadly applicable to diverse CNS degenerative diseases.

Acknowledgements

We thank Drs. Jeffrey Goldberg, Jie Zhang, Xin Duan, Derek Welsbie, Anna La Torre Vila, and Alan Tessler for critical discussion and reading the manuscript. Y.H. is supported by CNPRC Pilot Grant, NIH grants EY031063, EY024932, EY023295, EY028106, and EY032518, and grants from Glaucoma Research Foundation (CFC3), BrightFocus Foundation, Chan Zuckerberg Initiative Neurodegeneration Collaborative Pairs Pilot Projects, Stanford SPARK program and Stanford Center for Optic Disc Drusen. We are grateful for an unrestricted grant from Research to Prevent Blindness and NEI P30 EY026877 to the Department of Ophthalmology, Stanford University.

Author contributions: Y.H., A.M., and F.F. designed the experiments. A.M. performed surgeries and eye exams, F.F., P.Z., H.H., X.F., L.L., and R.D. processed the samples. Y.H., F.F., and A.M. analyzed the data and prepared the manuscript.

Competing interests

YH is a consultant for Janssen BioPharma, Inc.

A patent application has been submitted by Stanford Office of Technology Licensing for SOHU animal glaucoma model that is related to this manuscript.

The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

Materials and Methods

Animals. The animals in this study were rhesus macaques (Macaca mulatta) born and maintained at the California National Primate Research Center (CNPRC). The CNPRC is accredited by the Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care (AAALAC) International. Guidelines of the Association for Research in Vision and Ophthalmology Statement for the Use of Animals in Ophthalmic and Vision Research were followed. All aspects of this study were in accordance with the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. Phenotyping and ophthalmic examinations were performed according to an animal protocol approved by the University of California Davis Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and Stanford University School of Medicine.

Intracameral injection of SO. The procedure is similar to the published protocol (Zhang et al., 2019a; Zhang et al., 2019b) but with modification for monkey eyes. Sedation was achieved by intramuscular injection of ketamine hydrochloride (5-30 mg/kg IM) and dexmedetomidine (0.05-0.075 mg/kg IM). The eyes were prepped in a usual sterile fashion for ophthalmic surgery including topical anesthetic 0.5% proparacaine hydrochloride (Akorn, Somerset, New Jersey) followed by 5% betadine to the ocular surface and adnexa. A disposable 15-degree blade was used to make a side-port incision at the corneal limbus to enter the anterior chamber inferiorly near the 6 o'clock position in order to minimize the likelihood of oil leaking out of the eye. Silicone oil (SO, 1,000 mPa.s, Silikon, Alcon Laboratories, Fort Worth, Texas) in a 3 cc syringe on a bent 25 gauge cannula was introduced into the anterior chamber. SO was injected little by little, stopping intermittently with gentle pressure applied to the posterior aspect of the limbal incision to allow for aqueous humor to exit the eye. Oil was injected to fill the anterior chamber to a physiologic

depth with roughly ~70-80% silicone oil and to cover the entire pupil with ~ 100 µl volume. After

the injection, the wound was tested to insure it was self-sealing and veterinary antibiotic ointment

(BNP Ophthalmic Ointment, Vetropolycin, Dechra, Overland Park, Kansas) was applied to the

surface of the injected eye. The contralateral control eyes received a mock injection with no

penetration of the eye. Animals were monitored by a trained technician and a veterinarian at all

times.

Removing SO from the anterior chamber. The procedure is similar to the published protocol

(Zhang et al., 2019a; Zhang et al., 2019b) with modification for monkey eyes. Briefly, after the

animal was anesthetized the eye was prepped in a sterile fashion as above. A superior (12 o'clock)

corneal side-port incision was made using a 15-degree blade at the corneal limbus. A 3 cc syringe

filled with sterile balanced salt solution (BSS Plus, Alcon Laboratories, Ft. Worth, Texas) with a

25 gauge bent cannula was introduced into the anterior chamber and saline was gently injected

little by little while periodically allowing oil to egress from the same incision by gently applying

pressure to the posterior aspect of the wound. After removing all of the oil and replacing it

incrementally with BSS to a physiologic depth, the cannula was removed and the wound was

checked to be self-sealing, after which antibiotic ointment was applied.

Eye examinations and retinal fundus imaging. Sedated ophthalmic examination included

measurement of intraocular pressure (IOP) using rebound tonometry (Icare TA01i, Finland) while

the animal was held upright and with careful attention not to apply any pressure to the globe. Three

IOP measurements were taken and averaged at each exam date. Examination also included

pupillary light reflex testing, external and portable slit lamp examination, as well as dilated

(Tropicamide 1%, Phenylephrine 2.5%, Cyclopentolate 1%) indirect ophthalmoscopy. Sedation was achieved by intramuscular injection of ketamine hydrochloride (5-30 mg/kg IM) and dexmedetomidine (0.05-0.075 mg/kg IM). Animals were monitored by a trained technician and a veterinarian at all times. Color and red-free fundus photographs were obtained with the CF-1 Retinal Camera with a 50˚ wide angle lens (Canon, Tokyo, Japan).

Spectral-domain optical coherence tomography (SD-OCT) imaging. SD-OCT with confocal scanning laser ophthalmoscopy (cSLO) was also performed (Spectralis® HRA+OCT, Heidelberg, Germany). High-resolution radial and circumferential scans centered on the optic nerve were obtained using a corneal curvature (K) value of 6.5 mm radius. For the high-resolution radial scans of the optic nerve head (ONH), 48 radial B-scans were acquired by 870 nm SD-OCT (Spectralis; Heidelberg Engineering, GmbH), over a 30° area, and 768 A-scans per B-scan at ART=16 repetitions. All repetitive scans were acquired using eye-tracking and averaged to reduce speckle noise. We read in all the images and measured MRW, RimV, and CupV using R program. The codes that we used to calculate MRW, RimV and CupV are at Github (https://github.com/HuLab-Code/ONHV). For each monkey eye, the center of the ONH was estimated and registered during the first imaging session and used to align all follow-up images. All imaging was done by the same ophthalmic imaging team. All OCT images were taken through the center of the pupil. Speculums were used and corneal hydration was maintained through application of topical lubrication (Genteal artificial tears) approximately every 1-2 minutes during imaging sessions. The en-face retinal images were captured with the Heidelberg Spectralis SLO/OCT system equipped with an 870nm infrared wavelength light source and a 30º lens (Heidelberg Engineering). The average thickness of retinal nerve fiber layer (RNFL) around the optic nerve

head was measured manually with the aid of Heidelberg software. The investigators who

measured the thickness of RNFL were masked to the treatment of the samples.

Electroretinogram (ERG) recording. After dilation, a full-field ERG (ffERG) containing six

different tests was performed on each eye following a 30-minute dark adaptation period. ERG-Jet

electrodes (item #95-011) were coupled with the RETeval instrument (LKC Technologies,

Gaithersburg, MD, United States), as previously described (Lin et al., 2021). A standard flash

electroretinogram was performed according to the approved protocol of the International Society

for Clinical Electrophysiology of Vision (ISCEV). There were four dark adapted tests (0.01

cd*s/m2, 3.0 cd*s/m2, 10.0 cd*s/m2, and oscillatory potentials 3.0 cd*s/m2). After 10 minutes of

light adaptation, two additional tests were performed (3.0 cd*s/m2 single flash with measurement

of the photopic negative response and photopic flicker 3.0 cd*s/m2). Both time (ms) and

amplitude (μV) were obtained for each test on each eye. Single flash tests measured an a-wave

and b-wave. Oscillatory potentials measured five wave points and a sum. In the photopic flicker

test, the first wave point is reported. Measurements were recorded and displayed using the

manufacturer's software.

Immunohistochemistry of whole-mount retina and RGC counting. The detailed procedure has

been published before (Li et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019a; Zhang et al., 2019b) with modification

to accommodate large monkey eyes. Briefly, after intravitreal injection with 10% formalin in PBS,

the eyes and optic nerves were dissected out, post-fixed with 10% formalin for 24 hours at room

temperature. Retinas were dissected out and washed extensively in PBS before blocking in staining

buffer (10% normal goat serum, Sigma-Aldrich, and 2% Triton X-100 in PBS) for half an hour.

RBPMS guinea pig antibody made at ProSci Inc (Poway, California) according to publications

(Kwong et al., 2010; Rodriguez et al., 2014) was diluted (1:4000) in the same staining buffer.

Floating retinas were incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C and washed 3 times for

30 minutes each with PBS. Secondary antibodies (Cy3) were then applied (1:200; Jackson

ImmunoResearch, West Grove, Pennsylvania) and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature.

Retinas were again washed 3 times for 30 minutes each with PBS before a cover slip was attached

with Fluoromount-G (SouthernBiotech, Birmingham, Alabama). For RGC counting, whole-mount

retinas were immunostained with the RBPMS antibody, 6 fields sampled from each region

(periphery, mid-periphery, and center retinas) using a 20x lens with Keyence epifluorescence

microscope, and RBPMS$^+$ RGCs of each image (540 μm x 720 μm) were counted manually with

Fiji/ImageJ. The investigators who counted the cells were masked to the treatment of the samples.

ON semi-thin sections and quantification of surviving axons. The detailed procedure has been

published before (Li et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019a; Zhang et al., 2019b). Briefly, the ON was

exposed by removing the brain and post-fixed *in situ* using 2% glutaraldehyde/ 2% PFA in 0.1M

PB for 4 hours on ice. Samples were then washed with 0.1M PB 3 times, 10 minutes each wash.

The ONs were then carefully dissected out and rinsed with 0.1M PB 3 times, 10 minutes each

wash. They were then incubated in 1% osmium tetroxide in 0.1M PB for 1 hour at room

temperature followed by washing with 0.1M PB for 10 minutes and water for 5 minutes. ONs were

next dehydrated through graded ethanol, infiltrated in propylene oxide and epoxy, and embedded

in epoxy at 60°C for 24 hours. Semi-thin sections (1 μm) were cut on an ultramicrotome (EM

UC7, Leica) and collected 2 mm distal to the eye. The semi-thin sections were attached to glass

slides and stained with 1% para-phenylenediamine (PPD) in methanol: isopropanol (1:1) for 35

minutes. After rinsing 3 times with methanol: isopropanol (1:1), coverslips were applied with

Permount Mounting Medium (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, Pennsylvania). PPD stains

all myelin sheaths, but darkly stains the axoplasm only of degenerating axons, which allows us to

differentiate surviving axons from degenerating axons (Smith, 2002). The whole ON were imaged

with a 100x lens of a Keyence fluorescence microscopy to cover the entire area of the ON without

overlap. Four areas of 108 μm x 144 μm were cropped, and the surviving axons within the

designated areas counted manually with Fiji/ImageJ. After counting all the images taken from a

single nerve, the mean of the surviving axon number was calculated for each ON. The investigators

who counted the axons were masked to the treatment of the samples.

Retina cross sections and H&E and Trichrome Staining. Monkey eyes were enucleated and

immediately fixed in 10% formalin for 36 hours at room temperature. They were processed

through graded alcohol and xylene, then infiltrated and embedded in paraffin. Six-micron sections

were taken and stained with Hematoxylin & Eosin (H&E) to look at the cell nuclei, extracellular

matrix, and cytoplasm. Standard protocol was followed to stain these slides. The Trichrome kit

was purchased from Abcam (ab 150686) to study collagenous connective tissue in sections. Slides

were deparaffinized and incubated in preheated Bouin's fluid for an hour and rinsed in water. They

were then incubated in Weigert's Iron Hematoxylin for 5 minutes, rinsed in water again and then

incubated in Biebrich Scarlet/Acid Fuchsin solution for 15 minutes. They were rinsed in water

again. Sections were then differentiated in phosphotungstic acid solution for 10-15 minutes (or

until collagen is not red), incubated in Aniline Blue solution for 5-10 minutes and rinsed in water.

Acetic acid solution was applied to these sections for 3-5 minutes, and slides were then dehydrated

in alcohol, cleared in xylene, and mounted with CytoSeal 60 (from Electron Microscopy Sciences,

423   18006). This stain shows a stronger collagen stain (blue green stain) in glaucomatous eye than the

424   control eye.

426   **Statistical analyses.** GraphPad Prism 7 was used to generate graphs and for statistical analyses.

427   Data are presented as means ± s.e.m. Student's t-test was used for two groups comparison and

428   One-way ANOVA with post hoc test was used for multiple comparisons.

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565   **Figure Legends**

567   **Figure 1. Intracameral SO injection-induced IOP elevation and ONH "cupping" in animal**

568   **#38361.** (**A**) The procedures of SO intracameral injection in monkey eye. (**B**) Longitudinal IOP

measurements of experimental (SOHU) eye and contralateral control (CL) eyes at different time points after SO injection. mpi: month post injection. (**C**) The retinal fundus images of the SOHU eye before and after SO injection. Yellow dotted line outlines the optic disc; blue dotted line outlines optic cup.

Figure 2. Delineated live OCT images of ONH and measurements in SOHU and CL eyes of animal #38361. (A) Longitudinal SD-OCT imaging of macaque ON head with 48 radial B-scans

acquired over a 30° area at 768 A-scans per B-scan, ART=16 repetitions. (**B**) Neural tissue

parameters: Minimum rim width (MRW, blue double headed arrow) was measured at each

delineated Bruch's membrane opening point (BMO, red dot) as the minimum distance to ILM;

Rim volume (RimV, purple area) was calculated from the volume bounded by ILM (red line),

BMO reference plane (yellow line) and perpendicular line through the BMO; Cup volume (CupV,

blue area) was generated from the volume between ILM surface and the BMO reference plane.

(**C**) The raw OCT images were transformed to the gray value matrix. The noise from the image

acquisition and transformation was reduced by Gaussian filter. After the denoise processing, then

3D model and the MRW, RimV and CupV were established by Otsu's thresholding method and

convolutional neural network method.

B

No. 38361	SOHU (µm)					CL (µm)				
	S	T	I	N	M	S	T	I	N	M
Baseline	131	75	185	98	122	149	68	170	94	120
1 Month	110	66	139	79	98	137	68	170	92	117
3 Month	95	50	108	74	82	145	68	172	98	120
4 Month	85	46	91	55	69	139	64	170	88	115
5 Month	87	46	83	48	66	145	71	167	90	118
1wk-Removal	90	50	85	50	69					
6 Month	82	52	76	48	65	139	68	162	90	114

Figure 3. Progressive quadrant-specific thinning of RNFL in SOHU eye of animal #38361

measured by peripapillary OCT. (**A**) Longitudinal SD-OCT imaging of macaque retina with a

12° peripapillary RNFL circle scan (green circle, 1536 A-scans per B-scan, ART>16 repetitions),

and the illustration of the RNFL thickness at inferior (I), superior (S), nasal (N), and temple (T)

quadrants and the average/mean (M) over time. (**B**) Measurements of RNFL thickness at different

time points.

See also Figure 3-figure supplementary 1

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Figure 3-figure supplementary 1. Retinal branch artery occlusion in macula of SOHU eye in

animal #38361. The retinal fundus images and SD-OCT images of macula in the SOHU eye

before and after SO injection. Yellow dotted line outlines the OCT scanning area.

No. 38361 ERG (% of SOHU/CL)	a-wave	b-wave	PhNR
Baseline	95%	94%	88%
1mpi	80%	43%	51%
3mpi	86%	66%	31%
4mpi	71%	56%	29%
5mpi	71%	61%	33%
6mpi	71%	55%	39%

607 **Figure 4. Visual function deficit in SOHU eye of animal #38361 measured by ERG. (A)**

608 Longitudinal ERG recording of macaque eyes at different time points. (**B**) Measurements of the

609 amplitudes of a wave, b wave and PhNR, represented as percentage of SOHU eyes compared to

610 CL eyes.

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Figure 5. Severe RGC and ON degeneration in SOHU eye of animal #38361 at 6mpi. (**A**)
Confocal images of wholemount retinas showing surviving RBPMS-positive (red) RGCs in the
peripheral, mid-peripheral, and central retina at 6mpi. Scale bar, 20 µm. (**B**) Quantification of
surviving RGCs in the peripheral, mid-peripheral, and central retina. Data are presented as means
± s.e.m, ********: *P*<0.0001, Student's t-test. (**C**) Light microscope images of semi-thin transverse
sections of ON stained with PPD in the corresponding groups. Upper panel: 100 x, Scale bar, 20
µm; lower panel: 60 x, Scale bar, 500 µm. (**D**) Quantification of surviving RGC axons in ON. Data
are presented as means ± s.e.m, *******: *P*<0.001, Student's t-test.

See also Figure 5-figure supplementary 1

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630 **Figure 5-figure supplementary 1. ONH and retina sections in animal #38361.** (**A**) ONH

631 sections stained with H&E. (**B**) ONH sections stained with Masson's trichrome. Scale bar = 200

632 µm. (**C**) Retina sections stained with H&E. Scale bar = 50 µm.

A

SOHU	44876		45513		42946		44639		44193	
	SOHU	CL	SOHU	CL	SOHU	CL	SOHU	CL	SOHU	CL
Pre-Injection	15	18	13	12	9	9	13	12	11	14
Post-injection immediately	19	18	22	11	11	9	11	12	9	14
1mpi	4	16	Too low to read	14	6	11	8	17	5	11
2mpi	3	16	3	12	9	9	8	12	10	14
3mpi	2	11	3	11	8	9	8	16	12	14
4mpi					12	10	9	13	13	15
5mpi					9	6	8	12	12	11
6mpi					12	14	10	12	13	14

B

Figure 6. Dynamic IOP changes of SOHU eyes in the other five animals. Table (**A**) and (**B**)

ling graph presentation of longitudinal IOP measurements of experimental (SOHU) eyes and

638   contralateral control (CL) eyes at different time points after SO injection. mpi: month post

639   injection. Data are presented as means ± s.e.m, n = 5 (1-3mpi) and n = 3 (4-6mpi) of each group;

640   *: $p<0.05$, ***: $p<0.001$, Student's t test.

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645 **Figure 7. No detectable ONH "cupping" in the other five animals.** (**A**) Pupil dilation after SO

646 injection. (**B**) The retinal fundus images of the SOHU eye before and after SO injection. Yellow

647 dotted line outlines the optic disc; blue dotted line outlines optic cup. (**C**) Longitudinal SD-OCT

648 imaging of ON heads.

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Figure 8. Visual function and morphological deficits of SOHU eyes in the other five animals.
(**A**) Longitudinal ERG recording of macaque eyes at different time points after SO injection and the measurements of the amplitudes of a wave, b wave and PhNR, represented as percentage of the amplitudes in the SOHU eyes, compared to the CL eyes. (**B**) Longitudinal SD-OCT imaging of SOHU retinas at inferior (I), superior (S), nasal (N), and temple (T) quadrants; and the H&E staining of retina sections. (**C**) Measurements of RNFL thickness at different time points, represented as percentage of SOHU eyes compared to CL eyes. Data are presented as means ± s.e.m, n = 5 for 3mpi and n = 3 for 6mpi, *: $P<0.05$, **: $P<0.01$, Student's t test.

Figure 9. Severe RGC and ON degeneration in SOHU eyes at 3mpi and 6mpi. (A) Confocal

images of wholemount retinas showing surviving RBPMS-positive (red) RGCs in the peripheral,

mid-peripheral, and central retina at 3and 6mpi. Scale bar, 20 μm. (**B**) Quantification of surviving

RGCs in the peripheral, mid-peripheral, and central retina. CL: contralateral control eyes. Data are

presented as means ± s.e.m, n = 2 for 3mpi and n = 3 for 6mpi, **: P<0.01, ***: P<0.001, one-

way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test. (**C**) Light microscope images of semi-thin

transverse sections of ON stained with PPD in the corresponding groups. Upper panel: 100 x, Scale

bar, 20 μm; lower panel: 60 x, Scale bar, 500 μm. (**D**) Quantification of surviving RGC axons in

ON. Data are presented as means ± s.e.m, n = 2 for 3mpi and n = 3 for 6mpi, **: *P*<0.01, One-

way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test.