# Corneal keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts exhibit distinct transcriptional profiles *in vitro*

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**ABSTRACT**

**Purpose:** After stromal injury to the cornea, the release of growth factors and pro-

inflammatory cytokines promotes the activation of quiescent keratocytes into a migratory

fibroblast and/or fibrotic myofibroblast phenotype. Persistence of the myofibroblast

phenotype can lead to corneal fibrosis and scarring, which are leading causes of

blindness worldwide. This study aims to establish comprehensive transcriptional profiles

for cultured corneal keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts to gain insights into the

mechanisms through which these phenotypic changes occur.

**Methods:** Primary rabbit corneal keratocytes were cultured in either defined serum-free

media (SF), fetal bovine serum (FBS) containing media, or in the presence of TGF-β1 to

induce keratocyte, fibroblast, or myofibroblast phenotypes, respectively. Bulk RNA

sequencing followed by bioinformatic analyses was performed to identify significant

differentially expressed genes (DEGs) and enriched biological pathways for each

phenotype.

**Results:** Genes commonly associated with keratocytes, fibroblasts, or myofibroblasts

showed high relative expression in SF, FBS, or TGF-β1 culture conditions, respectively.

Differential expression and functional analyses revealed novel DEGs for each cell type,

as well as enriched pathways indicative of differences in proliferation, apoptosis,

extracellular matrix (ECM) synthesis, cell-ECM interactions, cytokine signaling, and cell

mechanics.

**Conclusions:** Overall, these data demonstrate distinct transcriptional differences among

cultured corneal keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts. We have identified genes

and signaling pathways that may play important roles in keratocyte differentiation,

including many related to mechanotransduction and ECM biology. Our findings have

revealed novel molecular markers for each cell type, as well as possible targets for

modulating cell behavior and promoting physiological corneal wound healing.

**INTRODUCTION**

The cornea is the soft tissue at the anterior aspect of the eye that is responsible for bending light towards the retina. It consists of three primary cellular layers: the epithelium, stroma, and endothelium, with the stroma accounting for 90% of the corneal thickness[1-3]. Throughout this stromal layer, corneal keratocytes[3, 4] are embedded within a highly organized extracellular matrix (ECM), consisting primarily of lamellae of aligned collagen fibrils[1, 2, 5]. In their quiescent state, keratocytes maintain the structure of the ECM[6-8], which is necessary for corneal transparency[9]. However, following injury, various growth factors, such as transforming growth factor beta 1 (TGF-β1), platelet derived growth factor-BB (PDGF-BB), and fibroblast growth factor (FGF), among others, enter the stromal space and initiate a wound healing response. During this process, corneal keratocytes transform into a repair phenotype that involves differentiation into either fibroblasts or myofibroblasts[4, 10, 11]. Corneal fibroblasts are characterized by increased proliferation and migration towards the site of injury[4, 12], whereas myofibroblasts adopt a contractile and fibrotic phenotype, in which they generate elevated traction forces, express alpha-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA), and secrete a variety of fibrotic ECM proteins[7, 13-21]. Myofibroblast differentiation is thought to be driven by signaling downstream of TGF-β1 and, in protracted cases, is associated with corneal haze and a loss of visual acuity[22, 23].

To study these stromal cell phenotypes *in vitro*, three distinct culture models have been established experimentally: 1) primary corneal keratocytes cultured in defined serum-free (SF) media to maintain a quiescent phenotype, 2) keratocytes cultured with fetal bovine

serum (FBS) to transform them into corneal fibroblasts, and 3) keratocytes cultured in the

presence of TGF-β1 to induce myofibroblast differentiation[24, 25]. Using these culture

conditions, previous studies have investigated the many phenotypic differences between

keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts, with several focusing on differences in the

morphology, motility, and mechanical behavior of these cells[19, 20, 26-28]. Many of these

studies have highlighted the importance of cell-ECM interactions, indicating how the

composition, structure, and mechanical properties of the ECM can regulate cell

contractility, migration, and ECM remodeling[19, 24, 27, 29, 30]. For example, the TGF-β1-

induced differentiation of myofibroblasts from quiescent corneal keratocytes is highly

sensitive to changes in ECM stiffness[20, 24]. However, it is still unclear how these cells

sense and transduce these biomechanical signals into changes in differentiation and

behavior.

An investigation of the global transcriptional profile associated with each of these cell

types could offer important information on the changes in gene expression associated

with keratocyte differentiation into fibroblasts and myofibroblasts. Such an approach also

offers the potential to pinpoint new target molecules within the signaling pathways that

precede each of these phenotypic changes. Here, we used bulk RNA sequencing (RNA-

seq) to establish comprehensive transcriptional profiles for cultured corneal keratocytes

(SF), fibroblasts (FBS), and myofibroblasts (TGF-β1). Differential gene expression and

functional analyses provided new insight into the mechanisms that regulate each of these

cell phenotypes. Of particular interest, we identified several differentially expressed genes

and pathways related to cell biomechanics and ECM remodeling.

## METHODS

**Isolation and Cell Culture of Primary Rabbit Keratocytes**

Normal rabbit keratocytes (NRKs) were isolated from New Zealand white rabbit eyes (Pel-Freez Biologicals, Rogers, AR) and cultured as described previously[25]. Briefly, after removing the epithelium and endothelium, dissected corneal buttons were digested overnight at 37°C in culture media containing 2.0 mg/mL collagenase (Gibco, Grand Island, NY) and 0.5 mg/mL hyaluronidase (Worthington Biochemical Corporation, Lakewood, NJ). The isolated cells were then centrifuge-pelleted, resuspended in defined SF media containing Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) supplemented with 100 $\mu$M non-essential amino acids (Gibco, Grand Island, NY), 100 $\mu$g/mL ascorbic acid (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), 1% RPMI vitamins solution (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), and 1% antibiotic antimycotic solution (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), and plated in 25 cm$^2$ tissue culture flasks. After 4 days of SF culture, first passage NRKs were plated at a density of 30,000 cells/mL on glass coverslips coated with 50 $\mu$g/mL type I collagen (Advanced BioMatrix, Carlsbad, CA)[31]. The cells were allowed to attach to the substrates over 24 hr, then the culture media was swapped for either defined SF media, SF media supplemented with 5 ng/mL TGF-β1 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), or DMEM containing 10% FBS (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). The cells were then cultured for 5 days (with a media swap at 48 hr) for both SF and TGF-β1 conditions or for 3 days following exposure to FBS to account for the increased proliferation rate in this condition.

**RNA Isolation and Sequencing**

Eight samples of total RNA were collected for each culture condition using the Aurum

Total RNA Mini Kit (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Briefly, cells on collagen-coated glass

coverslips were washed twice with sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and lysed

using Aurum Total RNA Lysis Solution. The lysate was collected into sterile 1.5 mL tubes

and mixed with RNase-Free 70% ethanol before being added to Aurum RNA-Binding Mini

Columns. A series of centrifugation and low- and high-stringency solution washing steps

were performed before eluting the RNA from the columns using molecular biology grade

water. The concentration and purity of each sample were confirmed using a Thermo

Scientific NanoDrop One$^C$. For each culture condition, two experimental replicates (with

two biological and two technical replicates for each experiment) were sent to Novogene

Co. (Sacramento, CA) for bulk RNA-seq on Illumina platforms.

**Bioinformatic Analysis**

Initial bioinformatic analysis performed by Novogene included sample and data quality

control, mapping to the reference genome (Hisat2 v2.0.5), gene expression quantification

(featureCounts v1.5.0-p3), differential expression analysis (DESeq2 R package v1.20.0),

and enrichment analysis (clusterProfiler R package v3.8.1). The reference genome used

for sequence mapping was generated by the McDermott Center Next Generation

Sequencing Core at UT Southwestern Medical Center (Dallas, TX).

*Gene Expression Quantification*

FPKM (Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript per Million fragments mapped) values were

calculated based on the length and read count mapped to each gene. FPKM considers

the effects of both sequencing depth and gene length and is currently the most common

method for estimating gene expression levels. Principal component analysis (PCA) was

performed in MATLAB using FPKM values to compare the clustering of samples and

culture conditions. PCA is the method of algebraically reducing the dimensionality and

extracting significant components from several gene variables to evaluate differences

within a group and between different groups in a set of samples[32].

*Differential Expression Analysis*

Differential expression analysis was performed for the following comparisons: FBS vs.

SF, TGF-β1 vs. FBS, and TGF-β1 vs. SF. Parametric analysis of variance (ANOVA) with

Benjamini-Hochberg False Discovery Rate correction at $p = 0.05$ was performed on

normalized data to identify genes that were significantly differentially expressed between

groups (adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 and absolute value of log2(fold change) ≥ 1). Heatmaps

were created in GraphPad Prism using normalized, log2-transformed FPKM values

(log2(FPKM+1)) to display relative expression levels across samples (columns) for sets

of differentially expressed genes (rows). To normalize expression levels, each sample's

gene expression value was adjusted by subtracting the average expression of that gene

across all samples, then dividing the result by the standard deviation of the gene's

expression. In addition, bar plots showing average FPKM values among the different

culture conditions were generated for selected genes of interest.

*Enrichment Analysis*

Sets of significant differentially expressed genes were further analyzed through Kyoto

Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) enrichment analysis, and pathways with

padj < 0.05 were considered significantly enriched. Bar plots were generated in GraphPad

Prism to visualize pathway significance, the number of up- or downregulated genes

associated with each pathway, and the BRITE functional hierarchies under which each

pathway is classified. For a subset of significantly enriched KEGG pathways, volcano

plots were generated in GraphPad Prism to visualize the significance and log2(fold

change) of individual genes.

**Fluorescence Microscopy**

In other experiments, samples were fixed and stained for fluorescence microscopy.

Additional substrates for each culture condition were used for F-actin and nuclei labeling

and immunostaining for fibronectin, vimentin, or α-SMA to observe cytoskeletal

organization, morphological changes, and the presence of markers commonly associated

with each phenotype. Cells were fixed in 3% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 10 min at room

temperature, washed three times with PBS, then permeabilized in 0.5% Triton X-100 in

PBS for 15 min. The samples were then blocked with 1% bovine serum albumin fraction

V (Equitech-Bio, Kerrville, TX) in PBS for 1 hr at room temperature and incubated

overnight at 4°C with the primary antibody solution. The following primary antibodies were

used: anti-fibronectin (1:200 dilution; sc-18825; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX),

anti-vimentin (1:200 dilution; sc-6260; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX), and anti-

α-SMA (1:250 dilution; A5228; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). After washing three times,

samples were then incubated with Alexa Fluor conjugated secondary antibody, as well as

Alexa Fluor 546 phalloidin (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA) for 2 hr at room temperature,

followed by 4'-6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; Invitrogen, Waltham, MA) for 20 min.

Imaging was performed on a Zeiss LSM 800 laser scanning confocal microscope using a

40×, NA 1.3, Oil DIC Plan-Apochromat objective.

**Western Blotting**

In other experiments, after rinsing twice with ice-cold, sterile PBS, protein was collected

from cells cultured in either SF, FBS, or TGF-β1 conditions using a lysis buffer solution

containing Pierce RIPA Buffer and Halt Protease & Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail

(Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA). Sample lysates were mixed for 30 min at 4°C, then

centrifuged at 10,000G for 10 min at 4°C. Protein concentrations were measured using

the Microplate BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) to determine load

volumes for 5 $\mu$g of total protein. Protein samples were subjected to SDS-PAGE

electrophoresis using Bio-Rad Mini-PROTEAN TGX Gels, then transferred to PVDF

membranes (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Membranes were stained for total protein using

Ponceau S (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) and subsequently probed with primary

antibody followed by an anti-mouse IgG HRP-linked antibody (Cell Signaling, Danvers,

MA). The following primary antibodies were used: anti-aldehyde dehydrogenase 1-A1

(1:1000 dilution; sc-374149; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX), anti-vimentin (1:1000

dilution; sc-6260; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX), or anti-α-SMA (1:1000 dilution;

A5228; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Colorimetric (total protein) or chemiluminescence

(target protein) imaging was performed using a GE Healthcare Amersham Imager 600

Series. In all cases, Image Studio software (version 5.2.5) was used to quantify protein

expression and the amount of target protein was normalized to the amount of total protein.

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 10. A one-way ANOVA with a

Tukey post-hoc test was used to compare group means, and a p-value of less than 0.05

was considered statistically significant.

**RESULTS**

**Distinct transcriptional profiles characterize corneal keratocytes in SF, FBS, and TGF-β1 culture conditions.**

We conducted bulk RNA-seq experiments using primary NRKs cultured in defined SF media, or in the presence of either FBS or exogenous TGF-β1. PCA showed distinct transcriptional differences between cells in each culture condition (Fig. 1A). Technical and experimental replicates clustered closely together in plots of PC1 vs. PC2, while the clusters associated with each culture condition were clearly separated. This result suggested the presence of a distinct gene expression profile for the cells within each group. Subsequent differential expression analysis revealed numerous DEGs among the different culture conditions (Fig. 1B). A comparison of FBS vs. SF contained the highest total number of DEGs at 7693, followed by TGF-β1 vs. FBS at 5704, and TGF-β1 vs. SF at 4430. DEGs present in more than one comparison were indicated by overlapping areas on the Venn diagram (Fig. 1B). Cumulatively, 3174 genes were differentially expressed if both FBS- and TGF-β1-treated cells were compared with SF, while 1311 genes were differentially expressed among all three groups.

We also observed distinct differences in the number of up- and downregulated DEGs when pairwise comparisons were made between culture conditions (Fig. 1C). A greater fraction of DEGs was downregulated when comparing either FBS or TGF-β1 to SF, whereas a slightly larger fraction of DEGs was upregulated when comparing TGF-β1 to FBS. A heatmap of DEGs among all groups indicated further that a distinct transcriptional

profile was associated with each culture condition (Fig. 1D). Approximately 50% of these

DEGs had high relative expression in SF, while 28% and 22% showed high expression

in FBS and TGF-β1, respectively. Thus, the principal component, gene count, and

differential expression analyses illustrate distinct and significant differential gene

expression patterns between keratocytes cultured in SF media, FBS or TGF-β1.

**Markers associated with keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts are**

**differentially expressed between culture conditions.**

We then compared our transcriptional data with molecular markers known to be

associated with corneal keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts. Proteoglycans and

corneal crystallins known to be important for corneal transparency[2, 33, 34], such as

keratocan (KERA), mimecan (OGN), decorin (DCN), lumican (LUM), aldehyde

dehydrogenase 1 family member A1 (ALDH1A1), and transketolase (TKT), showed high

relative expression in SF culture (Fig. 2A). In a consistent manner, analysis of western

blot data confirmed elevated ALDH1A1 levels when comparing SF to either FBS or TGF-

β1, indicating a quiescent keratocyte phenotype in this culture condition (Fig. 2B).

Following injury, corneal fibroblasts exhibit an increased proliferative and migratory

phenotype, so we also compared levels of expression for genes associated with

proliferation and cell-ECM interactions in FBS-treated cells[4, 35]. We observed significant

increases in the expression of proliferative markers, such as Ki-67 (MKI67)[36, 37] and

proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA)[38, 39], as compared to either SF or TGF-β1 (Fig.

2A). In addition, genes encoding vimentin (VIM)[40], a cytoskeletal intermediate filament,

and tenascin C (TNC)[41], an ECM protein synthesized in repair tissue, also exhibited

elevated expression following treatment with FBS. Western blots confirmed increased

levels of vimentin in FBS; however, vimentin was also detected at elevated levels in TGF-

β1-treated cells (Fig. 2C, S1), a result consistent with previous reports of vimentin

expression in myofibroblasts[42].

We also observed elevated expression of alpha-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA; ACTA2),

which incorporates into stress fibers and plays an important role in the increased

contractility of myofibroblasts, in both FBS and TGF-β1 as compared to SF (Fig. 2A). In

addition, since myofibroblasts have been shown to secrete fibrotic ECM proteins,

including biglycan (BGN)[43-46] and fibronectin (FN1)[47], we compared the expression levels

of BGN and FN1, which were most upregulated upon treatment with TGF-β1. We also

observed increased expression of α5 integrin (ITGA5) in both FBS and TGF-β1 (Fig. 2A).

Integrin α5β1 is a receptor for fibronectin[48, 49] and, in previous work, has been shown to

be upregulated in both corneal fibroblasts and myofibroblasts[6, 50]. Additionally, consistent

with our FN1 expression data, we observed the highest levels of fibronectin

immunofluorescence in the presence of TGF-β1 (Fig. 2D), which, as other studies have

shown previously[18], is indicative of a myofibroblast phenotype is this culture condition.

Overall, our RNA-seq data are broadly consistent with known molecular markers for

corneal keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts, with SF conditions supporting a

keratocyte phenotype, FBS-containing media inducing a fibroblast phenotype, and

treatment with TGF-β1 eliciting a myofibroblast phenotype. Even so, genes encoding

some fibroblast and myofibroblast markers, such as ITGA5 and ACTA2, were expressed

at similar levels in both FBS and TGF-β1 culture conditions, indicating overlap between

the gene expression profiles of fibroblasts and myofibroblasts.

**Diverse pathways associated with signal transduction and cellular processes such**

**as cell growth and death, cell-ECM and cell-cell interactions are enriched in the**

**comparisons of fibroblasts and myofibroblasts to keratocytes.**

KEGG analysis revealed an enrichment of several pathways associated with either signal

transduction in TGF-β1-treated myofibroblasts or proliferation in FBS-treated fibroblasts,

when compared to keratocytes in SF conditions (Fig. 3). In the presence of FBS (as

compared to SF), genes were primarily upregulated in pathways related to translation,

replication and repair, and cell growth and death. Among these, we observed significant

enrichment of the ribosome and ribosome biogenesis pathways, as well as the DNA

replication and cell cycle pathways, suggesting a shift towards increased protein

synthesis and cell proliferation upon treatment with FBS (Fig. 3A). In addition, significant

changes in expression were observed for genes involved in the PI3K-Akt and Rap1

signaling pathways, as well as those associated with ECM-receptor interactions. These

pathways have roles in diverse processes related to proliferation and apoptosis[51-53],

adhesion and migration, and cell-cell and cell-matrix interactions[54-57].

In contrast, the focal adhesion, regulation of actin cytoskeleton, ECM-receptor interaction,

and Rap1 signaling KEGG pathways were significantly enriched in the comparison of

TGF-β1 to SF, suggesting changes in cytoskeletal organization, cell motility and

contractility, and cell-ECM interactions among cultured myofibroblasts (Fig. 3B). Other

enriched pathways were broadly related to either cytokine activity (e.g., cytokine-cytokine

receptor interaction, as well as TGF-β, JAK-STAT, and TNF signaling pathways) or

proliferation and apoptosis (e.g., PI3K-Akt, p53, MAPK, and Hippo signaling pathways).

Strikingly, when TGF-β1-treated myofibroblasts were compared to fibroblasts (as

opposed to keratocytes), many of the same KEGG pathways, especially those related to

proliferation, cell-ECM interactions, and cytokine activity, were enriched (Fig. 3C).

Relative to cells cultured in FBS, TGF-β1 elicited a downregulation of genes associated

with the cell cycle and DNA replication pathways, as well as an upregulation of genes in

the ECM-receptor interaction pathway. In addition, the cellular senescence pathway,

which has been associated with aging, tumor suppression, and wound healing[58, 59], was

also enriched in this comparison. Taken together, these data were suggestive of lower

rates of proliferation and a greater emphasis on cell-ECM interactions in TGF-β1-treated

myofibroblasts.

**Genes related to proliferation and migration are significantly upregulated in**

**fibroblasts as compared to keratocytes.**

Numerous genes in the DNA replication, cell cycle, and PI3K-Akt signaling KEGG

pathways were differentially expressed in fibroblasts as compared to keratocytes (Fig.

4A-C). Elevated expression was observed for several key genes that encode parts of the

DNA replication machinery, including PCNA, MCM2-7, and several DNA polymerase

subunits such as POLA2 and POLE2-3[60]. There was also an increase in the expression

of several genes associated with the PI3K-Akt signaling pathway, such as the receptor

tyrosine kinase MET and the MAP Kinase MAP2K1, which are involved in regulation of

proliferation[61, 62], and several cyclin dependent kinases (CDKs) such as CDK2 and CDK4,

which are key regulators of cell cycle progression[63]. The upregulation of these genes was

indicative of an increased proliferative phenotype for cultured corneal fibroblasts.

Numerous DEGs within the ECM-receptor interaction and Rap1 signaling pathways also

indicated a shift toward a migratory phenotype (Fig. 4D-E). Ras-related protein Rap-1b

(RAP1B) encodes for a small GTPase that regulates cell adhesion, migration, and

polarity[54, 55, 64]. We observed increased expression of RAP1B, along with an upregulation

of β-actin (ACTB), which also plays a key role in cell motility[65]. In addition, focal adhesion-

related genes, such as talin (TLN2), and genes that regulate actin polymerization, like

profilin (PFN2)[66], were downregulated following treatment with FBS. Changes in cell-ECM

interactions were indicated by shifts in the expression of different integrin subunits and

many of their corresponding ECM binding partners. This included the downregulation of

various collagens (COL1, COL2, COL4, COL6) and the upregulation of tenascin C (TNC),

which has been shown to modulate cell adhesion and migration[67, 68]. Consistently, many

of the genes encoding integrin subunits that bind to tenascin, such as ITGA8, ITGAV,

ITGB1, and ITGB3, were also upregulated. Taken together, these transcriptional changes

support an increased proliferative and migratory phenotype in cultured corneal fibroblasts.

**Proliferation related genes are significantly downregulated, while genes involved**

**in cell-ECM interactions and cytokine signaling are upregulated in myofibroblasts**

**compared to fibroblasts.**

We observed similar differences in proliferation- and motility-related genes when

comparing fibroblasts and myofibroblasts. Multiple genes in the DNA replication and cell

cycle pathways were differentially expressed between these groups, with lower levels of

expression in myofibroblasts indicating a less proliferative phenotype (Fig. 5A-B).

Interestingly, genes involved in cell cycle arrest and evasion of apoptosis, such as the

cyclin dependent kinase inhibitors 1A and 2B (CDKN1A, CDKN2B), as well as B-cell

lymphoma 2 (BCL2), were upregulated in TGF-β1-treated myofibroblasts (Fig. 5C-D)[63,]

[69-71].

TGF-β1 has been attributed to the induction of ECM synthesis in myofibroblasts[72]. Here,

several ECM genes, including fibronectin (FN1), tenascin N (TNN), various collagens

(COL1A1, COL1A2, COL2A1, COL9A3), and some of the integrin subunits (e.g., ITGA11,

ITGAV, ITGB3) associated with these ECM proteins[57, 73], exhibited increased expression

levels in myofibroblasts compared to fibroblasts (Fig. 5E). Interestingly, the expression of

chondroadherin (CHAD), which has been previously shown to promote the adhesion of

chondrocytes, fibroblasts, and osteoblasts, was also significantly upregulated in

myofibroblasts[74, 75]. In addition, a different gene involved in cell motility – hyaluronan

mediated motility receptor (HMMR) – was downregulated in myofibroblasts relative to

fibroblasts[76, 77].

This comparison also revealed significant differences in the expression of genes related

to cytokine signaling (Fig. 5F), including (perhaps not surprisingly) several TGF-β family

genes (Fig. 5G). Numerous genes encoding TGF-β superfamily ligands, such as growth

differentiation factors (GDFs) 6-7 and 9-11, as well as transforming growth factor beta 2

and 3 (TGFB2, TGFB3)[78], were upregulated in myofibroblasts. We also noted differences

in the expression of genes related to cell inflammatory responses, including the

interleukins IL1A, IL1B, and IL6, as well as the colony stimulating factors CSF1 and CSF3.

These genes were downregulated in myofibroblasts as compared to fibroblasts, which

are believed to be the cell type responsible for triggering innate immune responses in the

cornea[79].

In addition, we observed differential expression of several genes associated with TGF-β

signaling, some of which encode proteins that are known to modulate TGF-β activity (Fig.

5G). This included the upregulation of two proteoglycans, decorin (DCN) and fibromodulin

(FMOD), along with thrombospondin type 1 domain containing 4 (THSD4), fibrillin 1

(FBN1), and latent transforming growth factor beta binding protein 1 (LTBP1)[80].

**Genes related to cell-ECM interactions and mechanotransduction are differentially expressed in myofibroblasts compared to keratocytes and fibroblasts.**

Many of the significantly enriched KEGG pathways identified in the comparison of myofibroblasts to keratocytes were associated with cell-ECM interactions and mechanotransduction. These included the ECM-receptor interaction, focal adhesion, regulation of actin cytoskeleton, TGF-β signaling, and Hippo signaling pathways (Fig. 6A-E). Additional KEGG enrichment analysis focused on genes that were significantly upregulated in myofibroblasts revealed significant enrichment of the vascular smooth muscle contraction pathway (Fig. 6F). Consistent with the KEGG analysis, a closer look at the differential gene set for the comparison of myofibroblasts to keratocytes identified many DEGs related to ECM, cell-ECM adhesion, cell-cell interaction, Hippo signaling, actomyosin contractility, and growth factor signaling. Using these categories, genes of interest selected from the highlighted KEGG pathways and the broader differential gene set were classified based on their function and were further evaluated for their relative expression across all three culture conditions (Fig. 7A).

Multiple collagens were highly expressed in the myofibroblasts compared to keratocytes and fibroblasts. One of the most notable collagens that was significantly upregulated in myofibroblasts was collagen type XI alpha 1 chain (COL11A1) (Fig. 7A, 7B). Interestingly, several other ECM-related genes, such as integrin binding sialoprotein (IBSP), secreted phosphoprotein 1 (SPP1), and leucine rich repeat containing 15 (LRRC15), and integrins such as integrin subunit alpha 11 (ITGA11) were also significantly upregulated in

myofibroblasts (Fig. 7A, 7B, Table S1). IBSP is a structural bone matrix protein and SPP1

encodes for osteopontin, known to be important in TGF-β1-induced myofibroblast

differentiation[81, 82]. LRRC15 is a membrane protein known to be involved in ECM binding

and as a marker for cancer associated myofibroblasts in lung, breast, and other tumors[83-

85]. Our data revealed a very significant upregulation of LRRC15 in the presence of TGF-

β1, compared to cells cultured in both SF and FBS conditions.

Within the family of genes related to growth factor signaling, a significant upregulation

was observed for TGFB1 and TGFB3 in the presence of exogenous TGF-β1 compared

to SF (Fig. 7A). Previous work has suggested that TGF-β1 induces the secretion of PDGF

as part of an autocrine signaling loop which regulates myofibroblast differentiation[86].

However, it is still unknown which PDGF subunits are involved in this process. Here, our

data shows a significant upregulation of PDGFA in myofibroblasts relative to keratocytes

and fibroblasts, while PDGFB is downregulated relative to keratocytes (Fig. 7A).

In the comparison of myofibroblasts to keratocytes, DEGs involved in Hippo signaling also

stood out due to known crosstalk between this pathway and TGF-β signaling and its

association with mechanotransduction[87-89]. Our data revealed differential expression of

several Hippo signaling related genes, including connective tissue growth factor (CTGF)

and TEA domain transcription factor 4 (TEAD4), which were significantly upregulated in

myofibroblasts compared to keratocytes (Fig. 7A, 7C). Interestingly, TEAD4 showed even

higher expression in FBS-treated conditions relative to TGF-β1. CTGF, which was most

highly expressed in TGF-β1 conditions, is a downstream target of yes-associated protein

(YAP) activation, a known mechanosensor[90]. AMOT, encoding for angiomotin, has been

known to sequester YAP and TAZ to the cytoplasm, thus reducing the nuclear localization

of YAP/TAZ and their downstream effects[91]. Our data indicates that AMOT is significantly

downregulated in TGF-β1-treated conditions compared to SF, suggesting nuclear

localization of YAP/TAZ.

Several genes involved in actomyosin contractility, such as myosin light/heavy chains and

ACTA2, were also upregulated in myofibroblasts as compared to the quiescent

keratocytes. ACTA2, a gene encoding for alpha-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA), was

significantly upregulated in both fibroblasts and myofibroblasts compared to keratocytes

(Fig. 7A, 7D). α-SMA is an important marker for TGF-β1-induced myofibroblast

differentiation[25] and previous studies have shown that the expression of α-SMA in corneal

keratocytes is influenced by ECM mechanics[19, 20, 26].

Another interesting family of genes our data revealed to be differentially expressed in

myofibroblasts were the thrombospondins 1,2 and 4 (THBS 1,2,4), known to have the

ability to bind to various ECM proteins and play a key role in cell-ECM and cell-cell

interactions[92] (Fig. 7A). THBS1 specifically, was significantly upregulated in

myofibroblasts compared to keratocytes (Fig. 7A, 7D) and is known to be important for

TGF-β1-induced myofibroblast differentiation[93].

**Discussion**

While many phenotypic differences between corneal keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts have been well documented both *in vivo* and *in vitro*, the transcriptional changes and signaling pathways regulating these differences remain a subject of ongoing research. Improving our understanding of keratocyte differentiation from a genomic perspective could have important implications in corneal wound healing and fibrosis. For this study, we used a 2D *in vitro* model in which corneal keratocytes were cultured in either SF conditions, media containing FBS, or SF media with exogeneous TGF-β1 to produce either corneal keratocytes, fibroblasts, or myofibroblasts, respectively. We then performed bulk RNA sequencing to obtain a global view of the transcriptional differences between each of these cell types. Differential gene expression and functional analyses provided insight into the mechanisms regulating the phenotypic changes associated with each cell type, as well as novel molecular markers and potential targets for modulating cell behavior and differentiation.

Over the years, many previous studies have documented key phenotypic differences between corneal keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts. These include changes in proliferation, ECM synthesis, cell morphology, cytoskeletal organization, and mechanical activity (e.g., adhesion, migration, contractility, etc.)[7, 12, 20, 21, 24-26, 94-96]. Our analyses revealed unique transcriptional profiles for each cell type, which likely underlie these phenotypic differences, since many of the DEGs and enriched signaling pathways were related to proliferation, ECM, and cell mechanics. Among these pathways, we also

identified several individual genes that may warrant further investigation to determine their

functional significance in the differentiation of keratocytes into fibroblasts and

myofibroblasts.

Following injury or surgery, the transformation of quiescent keratocytes into proliferative

and migratory fibroblasts is an integral step in the process of corneal wound healing[28, 97].

Our RNA-seq data suggest that the increased proliferation observed among corneal

fibroblasts is associated with the upregulation of genes involved in the DNA replication,

cell cycle, and PI3K-Akt signaling pathways. This proliferative gene expression signature

includes the upregulation of key genes, such as E2F1/2 and CDK2/4/6, in fibroblasts as

compared to keratocytes and myofibroblasts. These genes, as well as their associated

signaling pathways, may be of further interest as potential targets for accelerating cell

repopulation during corneal wound healing or promoting stromal regeneration[98].

Although the differentiation of myofibroblasts is important for wound closure, a persistent

myofibroblast phenotype can lead to protracted corneal fibrosis[97, 99]. Our transcriptional

analyses indicated that, although genes associated with proliferation were

downregulated, corneal myofibroblasts also appeared to adopt an apoptotic-resistant

phenotype associated with pathological wound healing[100, 101], as indicated by changes in

the cell cycle, cellular senescence, PI3K-Akt, and p53 signaling pathways. Genes of

interest within these pathways included BCL2, which was upregulated in myofibroblasts

compared to both keratocytes and fibroblasts. Due to its role in suppressing apoptosis,

BCL2 has been studied for its therapeutic potential in cancer and during wound healing

in other tissues[71, 102, 103]. In general, the evasion of apoptosis by myofibroblasts is

considered a hallmark of fibrotic disease, making therapeutic modulation of the cell cycle

and apoptosis of interest in a range of pathologies[100, 104, 105]. In the case of corneal wound

healing, targeting genes related to apoptosis could be used to support the timely

disappearance of myofibroblasts after wound closure to help prevent a fibrotic response.

ECM synthesis and remodeling by corneal keratocytes is important for maintaining the

stromal composition and structure that allows for the optical transparency of the tissue.

This ECM-maintenance phenotype is disrupted when keratocytes differentiate into

fibroblasts and myofibroblasts, a process that changes the types and quantities of ECM

proteins produced by the cells[45]. Although previous work has identified several collagens

and proteoglycans that are differentially expressed among the different stromal cell types,

our data provides a more comprehensive profiling of the many ECM-related genes

associated with the matrisome[106, 107]. This includes ECM structural proteins (e.g.,

collagens, proteoglycans, glycoproteins), cell-ECM receptors (e.g., integrins), ECM-

modifying enzymes, and ECM-binding growth factors/cytokines. Altered expression of

genes encoding these proteins can produce changes in matrix composition and structure

that impact a wide range of cell behaviors, including proliferation, cytoskeletal

organization, and mechanical activity[107].

How the myofibroblast matrisome differs from that of keratocytes and corneal fibroblasts

is of particular interest because a key component of the myofibroblast phenotype is the

synthesis of an unorganized, fibrotic ECM. Our results are consistent with previous data

indicating that the expression of various keratocyte-associated proteoglycans, such as

KERA, OGN, and DCN, is reduced in myofibroblasts, while the expression of ECM genes

associated with fibrosis (e.g., COL3A1, FN1) is elevated[47]. Our analyses also revealed

additional ECM-related genes that were highly upregulated in myofibroblasts and may

impact their fibrotic phenotype, including osteopontin (SPP1 or OPN) and integrin binding

sialoprotein (IBSP). Each of these genes are primarily expressed within bone matrix, but

there is also evidence supporting their role in wound healing and fibrosis in other tissue

types[81, 82, 108-112]. OPN expression is important in TGF-β1-induced myofibroblast

differentiation within dermal and cardiac fibroblasts and is thought to be a promising

therapeutic target for cardiac fibrosis[81, 82]. In addition, OPN knockout mice exhibit delayed

corneal wound healing following an incisional injury, which was associated with lower

levels of TGF-β1 expression and fewer myofibroblasts[110].

Changes in ECM composition within the corneal stroma likely also elicit changes in cell

behavior via interactions with integrin-containing receptors. Tenascin C (TNC) and

fibronectin (FN1), which have been investigated extensively for their involvement in

inflammation, wound healing, and tissue remodeling[97, 112, 113], were found to be highly

expressed in corneal fibroblasts and myofibroblasts, respectively. Tenascin C modulates

cell adhesion and migration via several integrin receptors, including α8β1 and αvβ1, the

subunits of which exhibited elevated gene expression among our cultured fibroblasts.

These increases in the expression of TNC and its associated integrin subunits may work

together to support the anti-adhesive and pro-migratory phenotypes of corneal fibroblasts,

which, along with proliferation, are critical in the early response to corneal injury. In

contrast to tenascin C, fibronectin promotes robust cell adhesion to the ECM. Previous

work has reported increased fibronectin expression for myofibroblasts, as well as

changes in the composition and localization of focal adhesions[20, 21]. Consistent with these

data, we observed an upregulation in cultured myofibroblasts of many genes encoding

focal adhesion proteins, such as vinculin (VCL), talin (TLN2), and paxillin (PXN). The

development of mature focal adhesions is thought to influence the elevated mechanical

phenotype associated with myofibroblasts, including increased contractility and traction

force generation[21].

Overall, our data have identified distinct ECM-related gene expression profiles for

keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts, which likely contribute to their associated

phenotypes. Gene expression by corneal keratocytes promotes a quiescent, ECM-

maintenance phenotype, while the altered expression of ECM-related genes promotes a

migratory phenotype for fibroblasts and a fibrotic, contractile phenotype for

myofibroblasts. How ECM composition and cell-ECM interactions impact corneal wound

healing remains a topic of great interest, since ECM structure and composition are

important determinants of corneal transparency.

*In vitro* experiments, particularly those employing three-dimensional collagen matrices, have also highlighted the importance of ECM mechanics and stiffness in regulating corneal cell migration, contractility, and ECM reorganization[19, 24, 27, 29, 30]. Furthermore, TGF-β1-induced differentiation of myofibroblasts from quiescent keratocytes is highly sensitive to changes in the mechanical properties of the ECM[20, 24]. In the presence of TGF-β1, keratocytes cultured on softer, uncompressed 3D collagen gels, exhibit fewer stress fibers and reduced expression of α-SMA compared to cells cultured on stiffer, more compressed collagen matrices[14, 19, 94, 95, 114, 115]. Other *in vitro* studies using polyacrylamide gels of varying stiffnesses have shown that corneal keratocytes cultured on stiffer substrata exhibit elevated levels of myofibroblast differentiation in response to TGF-β1, as indicated by an increased number of α-SMA positive cells. This elevated differentiation is also accompanied by changes in both the contractile behavior of the cells and the subcellular localization of focal adhesions[20, 21].

Given that ECM stiffness is recognized as a significant factor in myofibroblast differentiation, we hypothesized that mechanotransduction-related genes and signaling pathways would be upregulated following culture in the presence of TGF-β1. Indeed, our RNA-seq analyses identified an enrichment of pathways related to cell contractility (e.g., vascular smooth muscle contraction) and mechanotransduction (e.g., Hippo signaling), which include several genes that may contribute to the mechanical differences observed between myofibroblasts and keratocytes. For instance, within the Hippo signaling pathway, we observed changes in the expression of angiomotin (AMOT) and multiple

SMADs among myofibroblasts, which are associated with the subcellular localization and

activity of YAP/TAZ[91]. Consistent with these data, in previous work, YAP and TAZ have

been reported to help regulate myofibroblast differentiation in human corneal

fibroblasts[116]. In addition, AMOT has been shown to bind YAP and TAZ, sequester them

to the cytoplasm, and thus suppress YAP/TAZ-mediated transcription[91]. In our

observation, the downregulation of AMOT among myofibroblasts is consistent with

elevated YAP/TAZ activity. This idea is also supported by the increased expression of

CTGF, a downstream transcriptional target of YAP activation[90], in cultured

myofibroblasts.

Alpha-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA) expression is a key molecular marker for

myofibroblasts. The incorporation of α-SMA into stress fibers is considered a hallmark of

myofibroblast differentiation and has been shown to play a significant role in increased

contractility and force generation of these cells[13]. Within the vascular smooth muscle

contraction pathway, ACTA2, the gene encoding α-SMA, was significantly upregulated in

myofibroblasts, as compared to keratocytes. Consistent with previous work, TGF-β1-

treated myofibroblasts also contained α-SMA positive stress fibers (Fig. S2A) and

western blots showed high α-SMA protein levels relative to keratocytes (Fig. S2B).

Interestingly, an even higher level of ACTA2 expression was measured for corneal

fibroblasts, although we did not observe the incorporation of α-SMA into stress fibers

among cells in this culture condition (Fig. S2A), and western blots showed lower α-SMA

protein levels relative to myofibroblasts (Fig. S2B). The RNA-seq data may indicate an

important transcriptional difference in ACTA2 expression between corneal fibroblasts and

myofibroblasts; however, it is also a possibility that time-varying changes in ACTA2

expression levels contribute to this finding. Furthermore, the western blot data suggest

that α-SMA protein levels do not correlate with ACTA2 transcriptional levels when

comparing fibroblasts and myofibroblasts, which may indicate potential post-

transcriptional or translational control mechanisms.

Taken together, our findings using bulk RNA sequencing provide the first comprehensive

differential gene expression profile for cultured corneal keratocytes, fibroblasts, and

myofibroblasts. In our initial analysis, we have identified genes and signaling pathways

that may play important roles in keratocyte differentiation and the maintenance of these

distinct phenotypes. In the future, this sequencing data set can continue to be a resource

to identify potential targets for guiding keratocyte differentiation and behavior and serve

as a foundation for future studies investigating the influence of substratum stiffness on

corneal keratocyte gene expression. Additional experiments targeting specific genes of

interest can further reveal the biological and functional significance of these findings as

they relate to the broader fields of wound healing, fibrosis, and tissue engineering.

**AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

KP, KSI, VDV, WMP, and DWS conceived the study and designed experiments. KP and

KSI conducted all experiments and analyzed all experimental data. All authors discussed

and interpreted results. KP, KSI, VDV, and WMP wrote the manuscript with feedback from

all authors.

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**Figure 1. Distinct transcriptional profiles characterize corneal keratocytes in SF, FBS, and TGF-β1 culture conditions.** (A) Principal component analysis (PCA) of transcriptional differences between corneal keratocytes cultured in defined serum-free (SF) media, FBS, or TGF-β1. Principal component (PC) 1 and PC2, account for 60.38% and 24.57% respectively, of the variability among these groups. Analysis was performed using normalized, log2- transformed FPKM values. (B) Venn diagram shows the number of significant differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in each comparison. DEGs with an adjusted p-value (padj) ≤ 0.05 and l log2(fold change) l ≥ 1 were considered significant. (C) Bar plot represents the number of DEGs either up- or downregulated in each comparison. (D) Heatmap of normalized, log2-transformed FPKM values (log2(FPKM+1)) for genes that were differentially expressed across all three culture conditions. Red color indicates genes with high relative expression levels and blue color indicates genes with lower expression levels.

**Figure 2. Markers associated with keratocytes, fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts are differentially expressed between culture conditions.** (A) Heatmap of normalized,

log2-transformed FPKM values (log2(FPKM+1)) for known keratocyte, fibroblast, and
myofibroblast markers. Red color indicates genes with high relative expression levels and
blue color indicates genes with lower expression levels. (B, C) Representative western
blot and quantification of (B) ALDH1A1 as a marker for keratocytes and (C) Vimentin as
a marker for fibroblasts and myofibroblasts. Quantification of target protein expression
was normalized to total protein and reported in arbitrary units (a.u.). Error bars represent
mean ± s.d. for 3 experimental replicates. A one-way ANOVA with a Tukey post-hoc test
was used to compare group means (*, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$). (D) Confocal overlay images
of F-actin, fibronectin, and DAPI staining for corneal keratocytes cultured in SF conditions,
or in the presence of FBS or TGF-β1. Scale bar = 20 $\mu$m.

■ Upregulated   ■ Downregulated

**Figure 3. KEGG pathways associated with proliferation are significantly enriched in the comparison of FBS vs. SF, while pathways associated with signal transduction are enriched in the comparison of TGF-β1 vs. SF.** Bars represent the number of genes either up- or downregulated in each significantly enriched KEGG

pathway from the comparisons of (A) FBS vs. SF, (B) TGF-β1 vs. SF, and (C) TGF-β1 vs. FBS. In each comparison, the alternating grey and white bars differentiate the KEGG pathways grouped together based on their associated function, as indicated on the right of each box. Within each group, pathways have been arranged in order of significance, from most to least significant. KEGG pathways with a padj < 0.05 were considered significant. Pathways of particular interest are highlighted in bold type.

**Figure 4. FBS vs. SF: Genes related to a migratory and proliferative phenotype are significantly upregulated in fibroblasts as compared to quiescent keratocytes.** (A-E) Volcano plots represent individual genes significantly up- or downregulated within selected KEGG pathways from the comparison of fibroblasts to keratocytes. Genes with padj ≤ 0.05 (horizontal dashed line) and | log2(fold change) | ≥ 1 (vertical dashed lines) were considered significant. Red dots indicate genes that were upregulated in fibroblasts while blue dots indicate downregulated genes. Genes generally associated with FBS induced fibroblast phenotypes and several other significant genes with high padj values or fold changes have been labeled.

Figure 5. TGF-β1 vs. FBS: Proliferation related genes are significantly downregulated, and genes involved in cell-ECM interactions and cytokine signaling are upregulated in myofibroblasts compared to fibroblasts. (A-G) Volcano plots represent individual genes significantly up- or downregulated within selected KEGG pathways from the comparison of myofibroblasts to fibroblasts. Genes with padj ≤ 0.05 (horizontal dashed line) and | log2(fold change) | ≥ 1 (vertical dashed lines) were considered significant. Red dots indicate genes that were upregulated in myofibroblasts

927    while blue dots indicate downregulated genes. Genes generally associated with either
928    TGF-β1 or FBS induced phenotypes and several other significant genes with high padj
929    values or fold changes have been labeled.

**Figure 6. TGF-β1 vs. SF: Genes in KEGG pathways related to cell-ECM interactions and mechanotransduction are differentially expressed in myofibroblasts compared to keratocytes.** (A-F) Volcano plots represent individual genes significantly up- or downregulated within selected KEGG pathways from the comparison of myofibroblasts to keratocytes. Genes with padj ≤ 0.05 (horizontal dashed line) and l log2(fold change) l ≥ 1 (vertical dashed lines) were considered significant. Red dots indicate genes that were upregulated in myofibroblasts while blue dots indicate downregulated genes. Genes generally associated with TGF-β1 induced myofibroblast phenotypes and several other significant genes with a high padj values or fold changes have been labeled.

**Figure 7. Myofibroblast differentiation is associated with specific ECM and Hippo signaling related genes.** (A) Heatmap of normalized, log2-transformed FPKM values (log2(FPKM+1)) for several genes associated with ECM, cell-cell interactions, Hippo signaling, actomyosin contractility, and growth factor signaling that were differentially expressed in myofibroblasts compared to either keratocytes or fibroblasts. Red color indicates genes with high relative expression levels and blue color indicates genes with

lower expression levels. Selected genes associated with (B) ECM, (C) Hippo signaling,
and (D) myofibroblast differentiation have been highlighted in the bar plots. The average
FPKM values have been indicated for comparison among the three culture conditions.
Asterisks indicate if expression levels in either FBS or TGF-β1 conditions were found to
be significantly different with respect to SF based on the differential expression analysis
(padj ≤ 0.05 and I log2(fold change) I ≥ 1).

**Supplemental figures**

**Figure S1.** Confocal images of vimentin immunofluorescence and vimentin overlaid with
F-actin and DAPI for corneal keratocytes in SF conditions, or in the presence of FBS or
TGF-β1. Scale bar = 20 $\mu$m.

**Figure S2.** (A) Confocal images of alpha-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA) immunofluorescence for corneal keratocytes in SF, FBS, or TGF-β1 conditions. Scale bar = 20 $\mu$m. (B) Representative western blot and quantification of α-SMA expression across culture conditions. Quantification of target protein expression was normalized to total protein and reported in arbitrary units (a.u.). Error bars represent mean ± s.d. for 4 experimental replicates. A one-way ANOVA with a Tukey post-hoc test was used to compare group means (**, $p < 0.01$).

| GENES | TGF-β1 vs. SF<br>padj | FBS vs. SF<br>padj |
|---|---|---|
| COL11A1 | 6.00E-17 | 5.22E-48 |
| IBSP | 9.64E-27 | ns |
| SPP1 | 1.48E-112 | ns |
| LRRC15 | 2.97E-78 | ns |
| ITGA11 | 2.34E-256 | 1.11E-72 |
| CTGF | 9.51E-124 | 3.41E-42 |
| TEAD4 | 1.73E-28 | 3.85E-110 |
| AMOT | 1.45E-93 | 3.34E-79 |
| ACTA2 | 5.52E-37 | 8.79E-53 |
| THBS1 | 1.66E-37 | 6.93E-10 |

970 **Table S1.** Significance values of genes differentially expressed in the presence of FBS
971 or TGF-β1 compared to SF, represented as padj values. List of genes included are those
972 represented as bar plots in Fig. 7B-D.

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