



Glaucoma and the ocular renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system: Update on molecular signalling and treatment perspectives

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ABSTRACT

Glaucoma, a leading cause of blindness worldwide, encompasses a group of pathological conditions affecting the optic nerve and is characterized by progressive retinal ganglion cell loss, cupping of the optic nerve head, and distinct visual field defects. While elevated intraocular pressure (IOP) is the main risk factor for glaucoma, many patients do not have elevated IOP. Consequently, other risk factors, such as ocular blood flow abnormalities and immunological factors, have been implicated in its pathophysiology. Traditional therapeutic strategies primarily aim to reduce IOP, but there is growing interest in developing novel treatment approaches to improve disease management and reduce the high rates of severe visual impairment. In this context, targeting the ocular renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) has been found as a potential curative strategy. The RAAS contributes to glaucoma development through key effectors such as prorenin, angiotensin II, and aldosterone. Recent evidence has highlighted the potential of using RAAS modulators to combat glaucoma, yielding encouraging results. Our study aims to explore the molecular pathways linking the ocular RAAS and glaucoma, summarizing recent advances that elucidate the role of the RAAS in triggering oxidative stress, inflammation, and remodelling in the pathogenesis of glaucoma. Additionally, we will present emerging therapeutic approaches that utilize RAAS modulators and antioxidants to slow the progression of glaucoma.

1. Introduction

Glaucoma is a major cause of irreversible visual loss worldwide [1–4], and elevated intraocular pressure (IOP) is recognized as the most significant risk factor for this disease [5,6]. Epidemiological studies reported that in 2013, approximately 64.3 million people aged 40 to 80 were affected by glaucoma, and by 2040, this number is projected to exceed 110 million [3]. Glaucoma encompasses progressive neurodegenerative disorders affecting the optic nerve, which, if left untreated, can lead to irreversible visual loss. Approximately 15–20% of patients may experience unilateral blindness, indicating a substantial economic burden on individuals and public health [7–10]. Currently, significant research efforts are directed towards developing more effective and innovative treatment strategies [11]. In this context, drugs targeting the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) may be relevant as innovative medications. The RAAS, one of the most well-known hormonal networks, is recognized as a crucial physiological regulator of body fluid homeostasis and has been identified in its main components within various ocular structures, such as the retina, ciliary body, and choroid

[12–14]. Chronic overactivation of the RAAS leads to several pathogenic effects, including endothelial dysfunction, chronic inflammation, neovascularization, and oxidative stress [15–25]. Current literature emphasizes the role of RAAS in the pathophysiology of many ocular disorders, including glaucoma [26–41], and various studies have highlighted the potential of targeting RAAS components to prevent the progression of glaucoma [30,42–44].

Within this background, our work aims to summarize the latest advancements in understanding the ocular RAAS, specifically focusing on involved intracellular cascades and their connection to inflammation and oxidative stress during glaucoma. Furthermore, we report on promising therapeutic approaches targeting RAAS, aiming to prevent glaucomatous damage.

2. General insights into glaucoma

2.1. Classification of glaucoma and risk factors

Glaucoma encompasses a spectrum of disorders characterized by the

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progressive death of retinal ganglion cells, optic disc cupping, and distinct visual field defects [45]. It is one of the leading causes of irreversible visual loss worldwide, with elevated intraocular pressure (IOP) being the most significant risk factor [1–6]. Glaucomatous conditions are categorized into primary forms, where no associated ocular disease is present, and secondary forms, where coexisting pathological processes, such as uveitis and neovascularization, trigger IOP elevation and retinal ganglion cell loss [46–48]. Both primary and secondary forms are further classified into open-angle glaucoma and angle-closure glaucoma, referring to the angle between the iris and cornea in the anterior chamber [47,49,50]. Primary open-angle glaucoma (POAG), the most prevalent form worldwide, is often associated with raised IOP and evolves silently and chronically. In contrast, primary angle-closure glaucoma presents more rapidly and is considered an ocular emergency requiring immediate intervention [3,48,51]. In POAG, IOP elevation is primarily attributed to increased outflow resistance of aqueous humor, potentially due to remodelling processes in the trabecular meshwork (TM), a critical structure at the chamber angle. The increased resistance of aqueous humor outflow leads to the collapse of Schlemm's canal and compression of the TM, creating a positive feedback loop that further elevates IOP [52,53]. Inflammation, oxidative stress, fibrogenesis, and remodelling in the TM are fundamental pathogenetic drivers that induce increased resistance to aqueous humor turnover [54–56]. Importantly, POAG also includes a subtype known as normal-tension glaucoma (NTG), where IOP is not elevated. This suggests the relevance of alternative pathogenetic drivers, such as systemic arterial hypotension, orthostatic hypotension, abnormal autoregulation, endothelial dysfunction, and immunological aspects in its pathogenesis [57–68].

2.2. Established pharmacological strategies to manage glaucoma

The progression of POAG is generally asymptomatic due to binocular compensation, with affected individuals often experiencing the first symptoms only in the advanced stages of the disease [51,69]. Therefore, diagnostic tools such as tonometry, funduscopy, and perimetry are critical for early detection and preventing disease progression [51,70,71]. From a therapeutic perspective, the primary goal of established antiglaucoma drugs is to decrease IOP to an acceptable range for the individual, thereby preventing the progression of glaucoma [72]. Medications that reduce elevated IOP do so by either diminishing aqueous humor production or increasing trabecular and uveoscleral drainage routes. For example, prostaglandin analogues like latanoprost enhance uveoscleral and trabecular outflow, while β -blockers such as timolol, α_2 -adrenoceptor agonists like brimonidine, and carbonic anhydrase inhibitors (e.g., brinzolamide) decrease aqueous humor production [51]. Additionally, α_2 -adrenoceptor agonists can also increase trabecular outflow, similar to prostaglandins [51]. Miotic agents, such as pilocarpine, widen the chamber angle and provide a neuroprotective effect by activating muscarinic receptors [73]. A new class of antiglaucoma drugs, Rho-associated protein kinase inhibitors, such as netarsudil, approved in 2017, works by inhibiting the Rho-kinase and the norepinephrine transporter to increase aqueous humor outflow through the TM, thereby reducing IOP [74,75]. Although targeting IOP remains the most effective and widely used treatment strategy for glaucoma [76], recent research has highlighted the role of neuroinflammation and disrupted redox homeostasis in glaucoma. This suggests the potential for new treatment strategies targeting immune signalling pathways and counteracting reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation [11,77]. In this context, an intriguing and innovative area of research for antiglaucoma drugs involves RAAS modulators, considering the significant role of the ocular RAAS in the pathogenesis of glaucoma. Fig. 1 provides a schematic overview of the eye, particularly focusing on the anterior chamber and on the mechanisms of action of the main antiglaucoma drugs on critical structure for the regulation of IOP, such as the TM and the ciliary body.

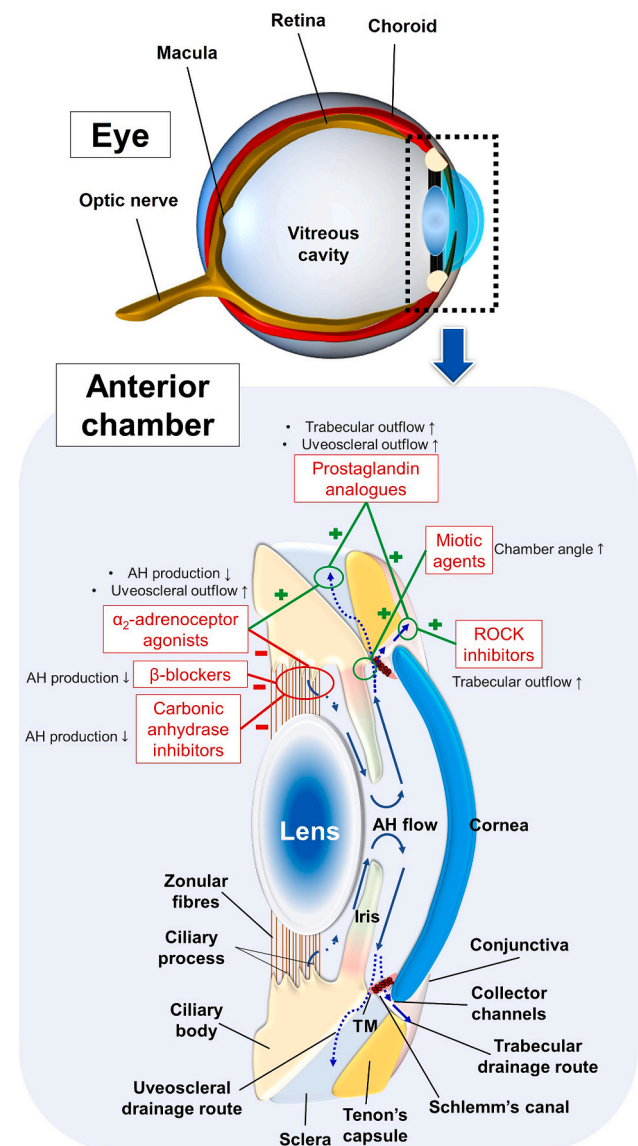


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the eye and in particular of the anterior eye segment, with focus on the ocular structures responsible to modulate intraocular pressure, and on the mechanisms of action of established antiglaucoma drugs. AH: aqueous humor (clear fluid that fills the anterior chamber between the cornea and the lens); anterior chamber (space between the cornea and the iris, filled with aqueous humor); choroid (vascular layer between the retina and the sclera that supplies nutrients and oxygen to the retina); ciliary body (structure that produces aqueous humor and contains the ciliary muscle, which controls the shape of the lens); ciliary process (structure producing aqueous humor); conjunctiva (transparent membrane that covers the sclera and the inside of the eyelids); collector channels (part of the aqueous humor drainage system); cornea (transparent, dome-shaped surface that covers the front of the eye); macula (small, central area of the retina responsible for detailed vision); optic nerve (nerve that transmits visual information from the retina to the brain); retina (thin layer of tissue at the back of the eye that contains photoreceptor cells and converts light into neural signals); ROCK: Rho-associated protein kinase inhibitors; Schlemm's canal (circular channel located at the angle of the anterior chamber, which collects aqueous humor from the trabecular meshwork); sclera (white, outer layer of the eye that provides protection and structure); Tenon's capsule (fascial sheath of the eyeball); TM: trabecular meshwork (mesh-like structure at the angle where the iris meets the cornea that facilitates the outflow of aqueous humor); zonular fibres (also zonule of Zinn, ring of fibrous strands forming a little band that connects the ciliary body with the crystalline lens).

transforming growth factor-beta 1 (TGF- β 1) and extracellular matrix proteins like type I collagen and fibronectin. This activation has been observed in hypertensive animal models and contributes to fibrosis [124–127]. In addition, Fu and colleagues have determined that the (P)RR pathway triggers the NOX4/NF- κ B axis, inducing endothelial dysfunction via activation of the AT1R cascade [128]. Regarding glaucoma, a recent study suggested the contribution of RAPS, showing that (pro)renin-related stimulation of TM cells ultimately induces tissue remodelling in the TM. This process is possibly connected with the molecular pathogenesis of POAG and neovascular glaucoma [129].

3.2.2. The angiotensin pathway

When Ang II binds to the AT1R receptor, it activates a series of intracellular cascades via phospholipase C (PLC). This activation leads to the stimulation of the inositol-1,4,5-triphosphate (IP3)/Ca²⁺ axis and the diacylglycerol/protein kinase C (DAG/PKC) pathway [12,130–132]. These pathways promote inflammatory and angiogenic responses by inducing the synthesis of mediators such as TGF- β 1, VEGF, ICAM-1, MMPs, and NOX, which contribute to inflammation, oxidative stress, and fibrosis [133–140]. Ang II-related oxidative stress, in particular, has been shown to cause endothelial dysfunction in murine ophthalmic arteries through the activation of AT1R and NOX2-dependent ROS formation. Blocking the AT1R and NOX2 pathway may therefore help restore endothelial function in ocular microvasculature compromised by ocular diseases [21].

In contrast, AT2R signalling, activated by Ang II or Ang (1–7), induces vasodilation and exhibits anti-fibrotic, anti-inflammatory, and antioxidant effects, possibly via the phospholipase A2/cyclic guanylate monophosphate/nitric oxide axis [25,141–143]. This pathway suppresses Ang II-related NF- κ B activation and ROS formation. However, AT2R also influences angiogenesis through VEGF release [144,145].

The Mas receptor (MasR), another G protein-coupled receptor found in the eye, binds Ang (1–7) and has anti-inflammatory and anti-fibrotic effects [146,147]. Although specific ocular studies on MasR are limited, it is known to generally attenuate ERK1/2 axis activation induced by Ang (1–7) binding to AT1R. This modulation occurs via G α i-adenylyl cyclase and leads to decreased NF- κ B activation [148–150]. MasR also suppresses the SMAD2 pathway, which reduces TGF- β 1 expression and fibrogenesis [151]. Additionally, MasR has anti-proliferative and anti-tumorigenic effects by downregulating the PI3K/Akt/mTOR signalling pathway [152]. Interestingly, Vaajanen and co-workers determined that in the normotensive rabbit eye, topical administration of Ang (1–7) caused a significant decrease in IOP, which was completely blocked by the MasR antagonist (A-779), suggesting the possible activation of MasR triggered by the Ang (1–7) [153].

3.2.3. The aldosterone pathway

Aldosterone binds to the mineralocorticoid receptor, a classical steroid hormone receptor in the nuclear receptor subfamily 3. Upon binding, the aldosterone-mineralocorticoid receptor complex translocates to the cell nucleus, where it initiates the transcription of genes crucial for maintaining fluid homeostasis [154,155]. Preclinical studies have indicated that aldosterone induces retinal edema by upregulating ion channels such as the epithelial sodium channel ENAC- α , the inward rectifying potassium channel Kir4.1, and the water channel AQP4 in retinal glial Müller cells [156]. Additionally, aldosterone has been implicated in choroidal thickening, vasodilation, and leakage, potentially mediated through the small conductance calcium-activated potassium channel 3 (KCa2.3) in choroidal endothelial cells [157]. Furthermore, aldosterone promotes oxidative stress by enhancing the transcription and plasma membrane translocation of pro-oxidative agents, including components of the NADPH oxidase complex such as NOX2 and NOX4 in endothelial cells, leading to an accumulation of ROS [158,159]. In addition, aldosterone has been implicated in processes of inflammation and neovascularization in the retina, possibly via an upregulation of TNF- α , ICAM-1 and VCAM-1 [160,161].

Fig. 3 illustrates the main intracellular cascades activated by the ocular RAAS.

4. Pathophysiological role of the ocular RAAS in glaucoma

4.1. The RAAS and glaucoma pathogenesis: general concepts

While the impact of antihypertensive medications on the risk of intraocular pressure (IOP) elevation and glaucoma onset remains debated [162,163], targeting the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) has emerged as a potential strategy to manage glaucoma progression. The ocular RAAS is implicated in the regulation of aqueous humor dynamics [164], with components detected in critical ocular structures involved in glaucoma pathophysiology, as evidenced by studies on human non-pigmented ciliary epithelial cells [165,166]. Angiotensin II (Ang II) synthesis may occur within retinal glial cells, supported by the presence of angiotensinogen mRNA in rat retinal glia [167]. Physiologically, Ang II plays a central role in retinal vascular constriction and regulates glial cell and neural function [168,169]. However, in glaucoma, an enhanced activation of the AT1R pathway may augment aqueous humor production, modulate uveoscleral outflow, and consequently elevate IOP [30,170–172]. Thus, suppression of RAAS activity, such as through ACE inhibition or AT1R blockade, may offer therapeutic benefits in managing glaucoma [173]. In animal models, ACE inhibition not only prevents bradykinin breakdown and stimulates prostaglandin production but also reduces IOP by enhancing uveoscleral outflow [174–177]. Additionally, ACE inhibitors lower Ang II levels in aqueous humor, decrease blood flow in the ciliary body, and reduce aqueous humor formation [178,179]. In animal and human studies, AT1R blockade has also been shown to increase uveoscleral outflow and mitigate retinal ganglion cell loss [42,171,172,180].

Furthermore, *in vitro* investigations have indicated that ACE2 and its product Ang (1–7), which predominantly act through the Mas receptor, exert vasodilatory, antiproliferative, and antifibrotic effects [181,182]. Supporting this, animal studies demonstrate that Ang (1–7) and the ACE2 activator diminazene aceturate can lower IOP, suggesting novel avenues for glaucoma management [44,153,183]. Fig. 4 illustrates the principal mechanistic pathways through which RAAS components contribute to glaucoma pathogenesis, highlighting potential therapeutic targets.

4.2. Targeting oxidative stress and remodelling in POAG using RAAS modulators

Recent studies have highlighted the pathogenic pathways activated by Ang II, which induce oxidative and fibrotic processes in TM cells. An intriguing *in vitro* study by Li and colleagues on cultured human TM cells revealed that elevated levels of Ang II significantly contribute to the pathophysiology of POAG by upregulating genes such as Col1, FN, and α SMA. These genes encode collagen type I, fibronectin, and alpha-smooth muscle actin, respectively, which are all involved in the fibrogenic process via a NOX4/ROS axis in cooperation with the SMAD3/TGF β pathway. Interestingly, the NOX4 inhibitor GLX351322 was found to mitigate Ang II-related fibrogenesis [184]. Additionally, an *in vitro* investigation by Kim et al. on human Tenon fibroblasts found that irbesartan, an AT1R blocker, effectively suppressed fibroblast migration and ROS production, further reducing cell number and morphological alterations [185]. Moreover, in human Tenon fibroblasts, Ye et al. demonstrated that isoliquiritigenin, a flavonoid with antioxidant activity [186], counteracted Ang II-related fibrogenesis by inhibiting the NF- κ B/PPAR γ inflammatory pathway [187]. An animal study by Shi et al. demonstrated that following trabeculectomy—a surgical intervention for glaucoma that enhances aqueous humor outflow—increased levels of Ang II in Tenon's capsule fibroblasts led to fibroblast proliferation, migration, and a phenotype transition to myofibroblasts, with an upregulation of genes like FN and α SMA [188].

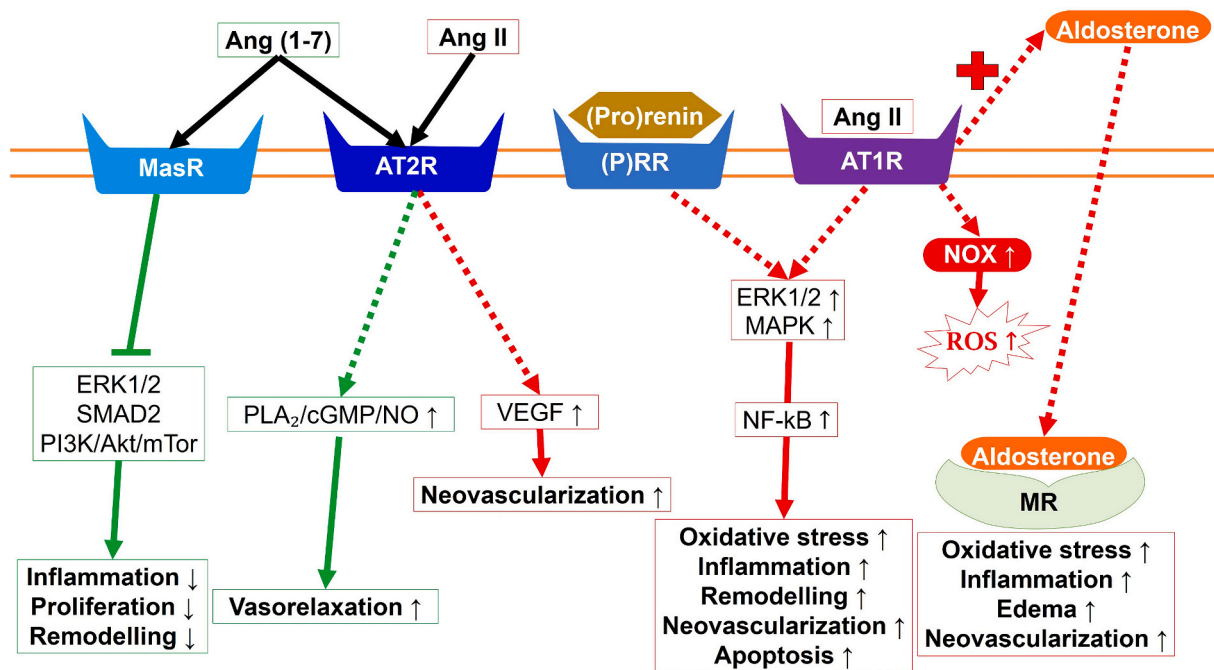


Fig. 3. Overview on the main pathways of the ocular RAAS. The green arrows indicate the beneficial effect in contrasting glaucoma progression, while the red arrows show the detrimental effect that favours the disease. Ang: angiotensin. AT: angiotensin II receptor; cGMP: cyclic guanosine monophosphate; ERK: extracellular signal-regulated kinase; MAPK: mitogen-activated protein kinase; MasR: Mas Receptor; MR: mineralocorticoid receptor; mTOR: mammalian target of rapamycin; NF-κB: nuclear factor ‘kappa-light-chain-enhancer’ of activated B-cells; NO: nitric oxide; NOX: nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate oxidase; PI3K: phosphoinositide 3-kinase; PLA₂: phospholipase A2; (P)RR: (pro)renin receptor; ROS: reactive oxygen species; SMAD: suppressor of mothers against decapentaplegic; VEGF: vascular endothelial growth factor. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

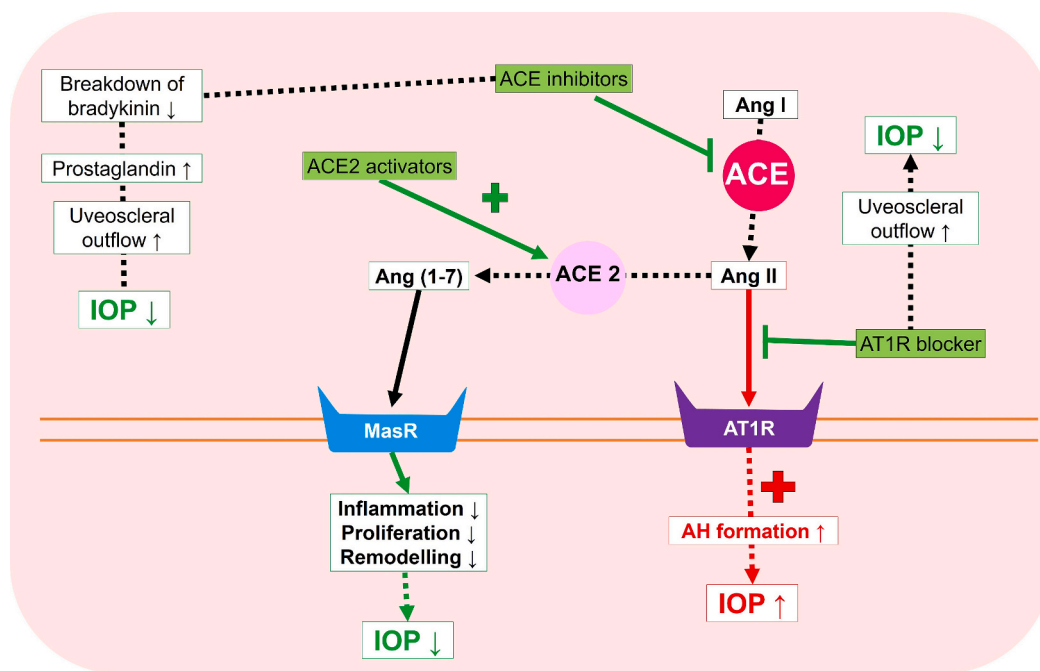


Fig. 4. Illustration of the main effects of the ocular RAAS on the ciliary body, its influence on the aqueous humor formation and representation of the mechanism of action of RAAS modulators, attenuating IOP. ACE: angiotensin-converting enzyme; Ang: angiotensin; AH: aqueous humor; AT1R: angiotensin II type 1 receptors; IOP: intraocular pressure; MasR: Mas receptor.

In addition to the AT1R, another promising target within the ocular RAAS for POAG treatment may be the (P)RR. In vitro, animal, and human studies have highlighted the significant role of (P)RR in ocular inflammation, fibrosis, and retinal neovascularization [119,120,189–197]. Notably, an in vitro investigation determined that

direct renin inhibitors and other RAAS modulators do not act upstream of the (P)RR, and therefore do not affect the RAAS-independent pathways [198]. This underscores the potential for designing specific drugs to directly suppress (P)RR in ocular disorders. Building on this knowledge, Ishizuka and associates demonstrated in surgical samples from

patients with POAG that prorenin stimulation in human TM cells upregulates cell junction constituents like connexin 43 and zona occludens 1 while downregulating tissue plasminogen activator. These effects were reversed by (P)RR inhibitors, the decoy peptides NH₂-RIFLKRMP-SI-COOH, collectively underscoring the involvement of (P)RR in the pathogenesis of POAG via TM tissue remodelling [129].

Fig. 5 provides a visual representation of the ocular structures implicated in the pathophysiology of POAG and presents an overview of the primary pathways addressing oxidative stress and RAAS dysregulation during POAG, particularly within the TM and Tenon’s capsule.

4.3. Significance of AngII and aldosterone in the pathogenesis of NTG

Ang II plays a crucial role in the pathogenesis of NTG. Ozawa et al. demonstrated that in cultured RGCs, oxidative stress-induced cell death via the AT1R axis could be mitigated by telmisartan, an AT1R blocker [199]. In addition, in vitro and in vivo studies employing systemic hypotensive drugs such as the ACE inhibitor captopril and the AT1R blocker candesartan suggest that systemic hypotension leads to increased renin production as part of a feedback mechanism, subsequently elevating Ang II levels, which may adversely affect RGCs by inducing glial inflammation [200,201]. In an animal study, Samba and colleagues identified a pathogenic AT1R–toll-like receptor (TLR) 4–apoptosis signal-regulating kinase 1 (ASK1) pathway in Müller cells of a mouse model of NTG. This pathway contributed to the upregulation of

inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), triggering oxidative stress-induced RGC death. However, candesartan suppressed iNOS overexpression and subsequent ROS excess by inhibiting the TLR4–ASK1 pathway, effectively protecting RGCs [202].

Since vascular dysregulation and hypotension are recognized risk factors for NTG, Jeon et al. found significantly higher systemic concentrations and variability of renin in NTG patients compared to control subjects [203]. Further research by the same group compared glaucoma models of ocular hypertensive rats with systemic hypotensive rats, revealing higher levels of Ang II and increased expression of its receptors in both serum and retina of systemic hypotensive rats. These rats also exhibited glial activation and necroptosis in RGCs via elevated tumor necrosis factor α (TNF- α) and receptor-interacting protein 3 (RIP3), and decreased inactive caspase 8 [43]. Interestingly, this Ang II–glial activation axis was specific to systemic hypotension, as JNK and RIP3 inhibitors could reverse RGC death in hypotensive but not hypertensive rats [43]. Moreover, Oh et al. recently demonstrated in a systemic hypotensive rat model that both AT1R and AT2R increased in the sclera after systemic hypotension, along with elevated levels of TGF- β 1, TGF- β 2, α SMA, and collagen type I, indicating activation of scleral fibroblasts and their differentiation into myofibroblasts [204]. They also found a correlation between fibroblast activation and RGC death, which was reversed by sub-Tenon injection of an AT1R blocker, losartan, suggesting that inhibition of Ang II may suppress scleral fibrogenesis, ultimately protecting RGCs [204].

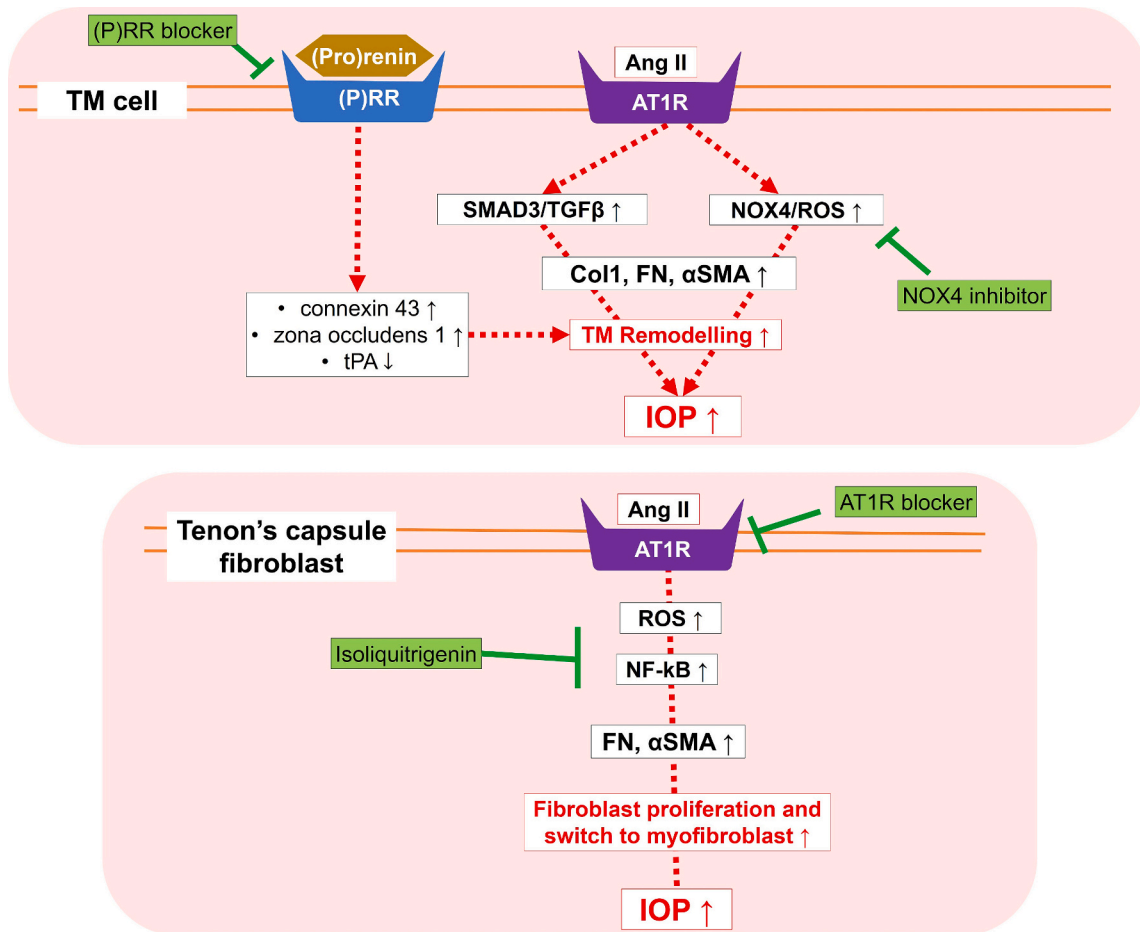


Fig. 5. Schematic representation of the effect of the ocular RAAS on trabecular meshwork and Tenon’s capsule fibroblasts, and action of RAAS modulators and antioxidants antagonizing oxidative stress and raised IOP during POAG. α SMA: α -smooth muscle actin; Ang: angiotensin; AQ: aqueous humor; AT1R: angiotensin II type 1 receptors; Coll1: collagen type 1; FN: fibronectin; IOP: intraocular pressure; NF-kB: nuclear factor ‘kappa-light-chain-enhancer’ of activated B-cells; NOX: nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate oxidase; (P)RR: (pro)renin receptor; ROS: reactive oxygen species; SMAD3: suppressor of mothers against decapentaplegic type 3; TGF- β : transforming growth factor β ; TM: trabecular meshwork.

Aldosterone has also been implicated in the pathogenesis of NTG. Studies have identified its role in inflammation, neovascularization, and retinal vascular dysfunction in disorders such as age-related macular degeneration [38,205]. Studies in rats showed that systemic administration of aldosterone led to progressive RGC loss and glaucomatous optic neuropathy without elevated IOP, suggesting the role of aldosterone in NTG pathophysiology [206,207]. Recently, Wada et al. reported that systemic aldosterone administration in rats resulted in decreased optic nerve head perfusion and RGC loss, following retinal vessel constriction without changes in IOP or blood pressure [208]. The current literature has reported that elevated plasma aldosterone levels can be considered as a risk factor for developing NTG [209]. In a clinical study, Ohshima and colleagues demonstrated a higher frequency of retinal nerve fibre layer defects in patients with primary aldosteronism compared to controls [210]. Ono and colleagues assessed gene expression changes in the retina after systemic aldosterone administration, finding upregulation of genes such as PF4, which encodes platelet factor 4, involved in ROS release via NOX activity, suggesting that RGC loss may be linked to ocular blood abnormalities due to endothelial cell apoptosis caused by PF4 upregulation. In addition, the authors reported on other upregulated genes that also may have a relevant role in the aldosterone-induced effect on retinal perfusion and endothelial cell apoptosis via NOX, such as the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 1 A (*Cdkn1a*) and the vitamin D receptor (*Vdr*) [211].

Considering the pathophysiological relevance of aldosterone in

many ocular disorders, pharmacological blockade of the mineralocorticoid receptor has been tested in ophthalmology to counteract disease progression. For example, recent investigations have demonstrated the effectiveness of finerenone in combating diabetic retinopathy [32,212]. However, the use of eplerenone for treating central serous chorioretinopathy is currently not recommended [213,214]. Interestingly, a very recent retrospective study on 41 patients with glaucoma found that eplerenone was effective in decreasing IOP in a dose-dependent manner. The study speculated that the retinal pigment epithelium cell pumps responsible for the posterior flow of aqueous humor might be regulated via the mineralocorticoid receptor [215].

Fig. 6 summarizes diverse pathways that lead to RGC loss through the action of RAAS components in the retinal glia during NTG.

5. Future directions and conclusions

Recent findings on the potential for blocking the RAAS in glaucoma have illuminated pathogenetic events such as fibrogenesis, glial activation, inflammation, and the establishment of oxidative stress. These processes, relevant in wound healing after glaucoma filtration surgeries, can be effectively countered by molecules like the antioxidant flavonoid isoliquiritigenin, ACE inhibitors such as captopril, or AT1R blockers like losartan and candesartan. However, these recent pre-clinical investigations require further exploration to confirm the results and potentially validate these novel treatment strategies in large clinical

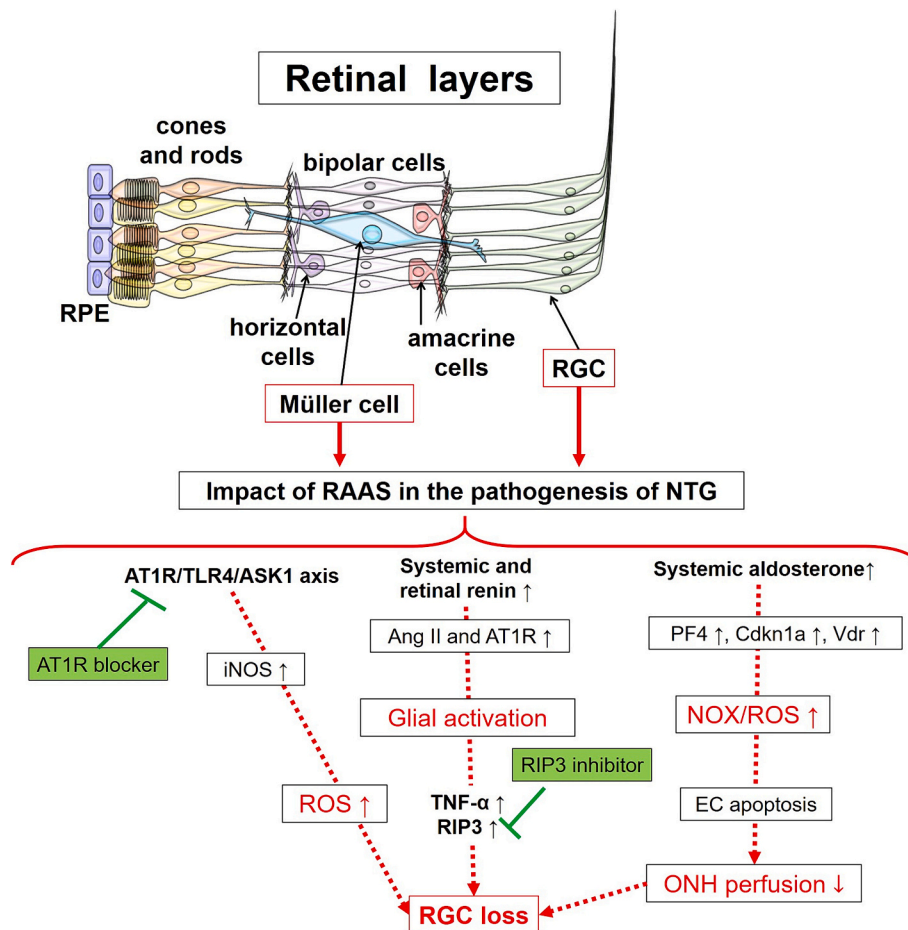


Fig. 6. Illustration of the retinal layers and of the impact of the ocular RAAS in the pathogenesis of NTG. Ang: angiotensin; ASK1: apoptosis signal-regulating kinase 1; AT1R: angiotensin II receptor type 1; Cdkn1a: cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 1 A; EC: endothelial cell; iNOS: inducible nitric oxide synthase; NOX: nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate oxidase; NTG: normal tension glaucoma; ONH: optic nerve head; PF4: platelet factor 4; RIP3: receptor interacting protein 3; RGC: retinal ganglion cell; RPE: retinal pigment epithelium; ROS: reactive oxygen species; TLR4: toll-like receptor 4; TNF- α : tumor necrosis factor α ; Vdr: vitamin D receptor.

studies. Of note, from a pharmacological perspective, topical RAAS modulators can achieve higher concentrations in ocular tissues and have fewer systemic effects compared to systemic administration. However, systemic compounds may also be effective if they are able to cross the blood-retinal barrier.

Our understanding of the role of aldosterone in the pathogenesis of NTG is limited. A key question remains whether modulating MR activation in glaucoma could benefit patients, necessitating further research. Another important area for exploration is the use of novel RAAS modulators, such as (P)RR blockers and ACE2 activators, in glaucoma. This research field is still relatively new in ophthalmology and requires cautious and robust validation.

In summary, our review has compiled a comprehensive and updated overview of the role of RAAS in glaucoma, highlighting its interconnection with oxidative stress, inflammation, and remodelling. We have examined the main cellular cascades triggered by RAAS, reporting on the benefits of employing RAAS modulators to counteract glaucomatous progression. These observations could stimulate future studies to address key questions and develop new treatment approaches. This area of research holds great promise for combating ocular disorders and supporting the management of highly prevalent and vision-threatening conditions.

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CRedit authorship contribution statement

Francesco Buonfiglio: Writing – original draft, Visualization, Conceptualization. **Norbert Pfeiffer:** Writing – review & editing. **Adrian Gericke:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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