

1 Rethinking blinking: No cognitive modulation of reflex eye  
2 protection in early onset blindness

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33 The neurological consequences of blindness have been widely studied. One area  
34 that has escaped attention however, is the effect of blindness on defensive reflexes  
35 that subserve the protection of vision. The hand-blink reflex (HBR) provides an  
36 excellent method to address this topic, because the modulation of its brainstem  
37 circuitry has been clearly characterised, and it can be easily interrogated with non-  
38 invasive methods. The HBR is elicited by electrical stimulation of the median nerve  
39 at the wrist, and consists in a rapid contraction of the orbicularis oculi muscles, with a  
40 clear defensive value for the eyes (Valls-Solé et al. 1997). The HBR is subserved by  
41 brainstem circuitry, which is finely modulated through a cortico-bulbar pathway when  
42 the hand to be stimulated is placed within the defensive peripersonal space  
43 surrounding the face (Wallwork et al. 2016). This facilitation is under continuous  
44 cognitive control that reflects a sophisticated appraisal of the threat that is posed to  
45 the eyes, including both the probability of stimulus occurrence, and the presence of  
46 defensive objects protecting the eye (Sambo et al. 2012). Such modulation has a  
47 clear behavioural value: when a threat is closer, it poses a greater danger to the  
48 eyes, and a more effective blink reflex can mitigate the greater potential harm.  
49 Recording the HBR in blind individuals allowed us to address two important issues:  
50 (1) whether blind individuals also protect their eyes through the HBR response, and  
51 (2) whether, if present, their HBR displays the typical ‘far-near’ increase observed in  
52 sighted individuals.

53

54 Eight totally blind people (4 female, 26-57 years) volunteered. Two had early-onset  
55 blindness that developed prior to the age of 3 years, with no recollection of being  
56 able to see. The others had late-onset blindness, acquired after 3 years of age, and  
57 were able to recall visual experiences. Ten sighted people (9 female, 18-46 years)  
58 were used as controls.

59

60 Stimulation and recording procedures are detailed elsewhere (Sambo et al. 2012).  
61 Briefly, intense electrical stimuli were delivered transcutaneously to the median  
62 nerve at the wrist. Stimulus intensity was adjusted, to elicit a clear HBR in three  
63 consecutive trials (blind group [mean±SD]: 13.1±6.9 mA; controls: 17.5±13.3 mA).  
64 Electromyographic activity (EMG) was recorded from the orbicularis oculi muscle  
65 bilaterally, using surface electrodes. Participants, seated with their forearms resting  
66 on a pillow in front of them, received 40 stimuli (inter-stimulus-interval ~30s),

67 delivered alternately with the hand either ~40-60cm ('far'; Figure 1A) or ~4cm from  
68 the eye ('near'). EMG was filtered (55-400Hz), rectified, and averaged across eyes  
69 and trials, and HBR magnitude was expressed as area-under-the-curve (AUC)  
70 (Sambo et al. 2012). Far-near differences were reported as percentage of HBR  
71 magnitude in the 'far' position.

72  
73 A clear HBR was present in five of the eight blind patients. This ratio is consistent  
74 with previous reports in healthy controls (Sambo et al. 2012). The early-onset blind  
75 participant showed a clear HBR, with normal onset (45ms) and duration (48ms).  
76 HBR responses were larger than baseline both in 'far' and 'near' hand positions  
77 (significant intervals: 47-85 and 46-89 ms, respectively; bootstrapping with respect to  
78 the pre-stimulus interval, Figure 1A). Importantly, the HBR magnitude was virtually  
79 identical in 'near' and 'far' hand positions (AUC analysis:  $p=0.21$ , paired t-test; point-  
80 by-point analysis: no difference; Figure 1A). In contrast, in both late-onset blind  
81 participants and controls the HBR magnitude was larger in 'near' than in 'far'  
82 positions (blind group:  $+49\pm 9.3\%$ ;  $p=0.015$ ; controls:  $+53\%\pm 11.7\%$ ;  $p=0.00024$ , one-  
83 sample t-test; Figure 1B). These percent increases were not different ( $p=0.45$ ,  
84 independent-sample t-test).

85  
86 We obtained two main results. First, blind individuals displayed a similar HBR to  
87 sighted individuals, regardless of the age at which their blindness developed. This  
88 finding indicates that the medullary HBR circuit is functional regardless of the age of  
89 blindness onset. Therefore, this circuit is likely to develop either during prenatal  
90 neurogenesis or in early infancy, and it remains functional throughout life. Second,  
91 individuals with late-onset blindness showed the robust 'far-near' effect commonly  
92 observed in sighted controls, whereas the individual with early-onset blindness did  
93 not (Figure 1A). These results suggest that an effective cortical modulation of the  
94 HBR circuitry depends on having a functional visual system within a key and  
95 relatively small time interval during childhood, i.e. between 3 and 7 years of age.  
96 This modulation remains stable even when vision is subsequently totally lost.

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98 A possible explanation is that early and late blind individuals use different reference  
99 frames when localizing stimuli in external space. That is, early blinds do not  
100 automatically remap tactile information in external space, but instead use an

101 anatomically anchored reference system (Crollen and Collignon 2012). It follows that  
102 the HBR modulation relies on a brain function that integrates visuo-tactile spatial  
103 information and that this function does not fully develop until 3–7 years. The ventral  
104 intraparietal area (VIP) is a good candidate to subserve this function, given that VIP  
105 multimodal neurons represent the most likely substrate for integrating the spatial  
106 location of sensory stimuli belonging to different modalities, particularly in a face-  
107 centred reference frame (Graziano and Cooke 2006). Furthermore, disruption of VIP  
108 function by TMS impairs the localization of stimuli in external space only in late blind  
109 and sighted people (Crollen and Collignon 2012).

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111 A second, not mutually exclusive explanation is that in this key developmental period  
112 the importance of vision is learned, and the nervous system therefore deploys more  
113 resources to optimise the defence of the eyes. Consequently, the association  
114 between the stimulus being close to the eyes and the danger posed to the eye is  
115 made during this period, and the upregulation of the defensive reflex is developed.

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117 Although these explanations require further interrogation, the observations reported  
118 here indicate that the nervous system develops the ability to modulate purposefully  
119 the magnitude of the defensive HBR if and only if vision is present during early  
120 childhood.

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140 stimulus position with respect to the face. *Cortex.* 2016;81:168–75.

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143 **Figure Legend**

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145 **Figure.** HBR waveforms. *Panel A.* In the early-onset blind participant there was a  
146 clear HBR when the hand was in both ‘far’ (blue) and ‘near’ (red) positions (left and  
147 middle plots). However, their magnitude was not different (right plot). The top  
148 waveform of each plot expresses the EMG activity. The consistency of the HBR  
149 response is highlighted by the p-value waveforms at the bottom of the left and middle  
150 plots. The t-value waveform in the right plot shows the lack of difference between  
151 HBR magnitude in the two positions. *Panel B.* HBR responses recorded from the  
152 three groups of participants, while the hand was in ‘far’ (blue) and ‘near’ (red)  
153 positions. Contrary to the early-onset blind participant (left plot), both late-onset blind  
154 individuals (middle plot) and sighted controls (right plot) show a similar and clear  
155 enhancement of HBR magnitude when the hand was in the ‘near’ position (late-onset  
156 blindness participants:  $+49\pm 9.3\%$ ,  $p=0.015$ ; sighted controls:  $+53\%\pm 11.7\%$ ,  
157  $p=0.00024$ ; one-sample t-tests).

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