

## EVALUATION OF PUPIL CONSTRICTION AND DILATION FROM CYCLING MEASUREMENTS

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**Abstract**—Pupil cycling was produced using an electronic circuit so that the retina was illuminated in Maxwellian view only when pupil area exceeded an adjustable area threshold,  $A_{ref}$ . The maximum ( $A_{max}$ ) and minimum ( $A_{min}$ ) amplitude of the oscillations varied linearly with  $A_{ref}$ . These observations are described by a delay-differential equation. The  $A_{ref}$ -dependent changes in  $A_{max}$ ,  $A_{min}$  were used, respectively, to quantitate dilation and constriction. A comparison of the predicted and observed period of pupil cycling suggests that the latency times for light onset and offset are the same. Measurements of  $A_{max}$ ,  $A_{min}$  provide a method for determining the average pupil light response.

Pupil light reflex    Pupil constriction    Pupil dilation    Delay-differential equations

### INTRODUCTION

Pupil constriction and dilation are typically evaluated from the changes in pupil area following a single light pulse. The accuracy of this method is limited by the effects of pupillary hippus and the intrinsic variability in the response of the pupil to identical light pulses (Usui & Stark, 1982). Consequently, quantitative characterization of the pupil light response requires that a large number of pupil responses to individual light pulses be averaged (see, for example, Semmlow & Chen, 1977; Sun, Tauchi & Stark, 1983a; Usui & Stark, 1982).

An alternative method for evaluating pupil movements involves inducing regular oscillations in pupil area ("pupil cycling") by either using a slit lamp to focus a narrow light beam at the pupillary margin (Stern, 1944; Miller & Thompson, 1978) or by combining an infrared video-pupillometer with an electronic circuit which regulates retinal light flux as a function of pupil area (Stark, 1962; Longtin & Milton, 1988; Milton, Longtin, Kirkham and Francis, 1988; Reulen, Marcus, van Gilst, Koops, Bos, Tiesinga, de Vries & Boshuizen, 1988). Measurements of pupil cycling are important as a clinical test for detecting pathology within the

pupil light reflex pathways. For example, a prolongation of the period of pupil cycling has been reported for a variety of afferent (Miller & Thompson, 1978) and efferent (Martyn & Ewing, 1986) pupillary defects, whereas an intermittent irregularity in pupil cycling occurs in demyelinating optic neuropathies (Ukai et al., 1980; Milton et al., 1988).

Here we show that measurements of the amplitude of pupil area oscillations reflect properties of the efferent arc of the pupil light reflex. This observation permits the development of a method for evaluating pupil movements from cycling measurements which offers a number of advantages over methods based on the pupil's response to single light pulses.

### METHODS

Subjects were healthy males and females ( $n = 5$ ; ages 20–45 years) who were free from both ocular disease and disorders known to affect autonomic function. The experimental conditions and design of our experiment are the same as described previously (Longtin & Milton, 1988; Milton et al., 1988). A narrow light beam (diameter 1.2 mm; retinal illumination was 375–750 td; peak wavelength 605 nm) was focussed on the center of the pupil ('Maxwellian view') to "open" the feedback loop present in the pupil light reflex (Stark & Sherman, 1957). When subjects were adapted for at least 15 min in a room lit only by a dim red light, the smallest pupil diameter was

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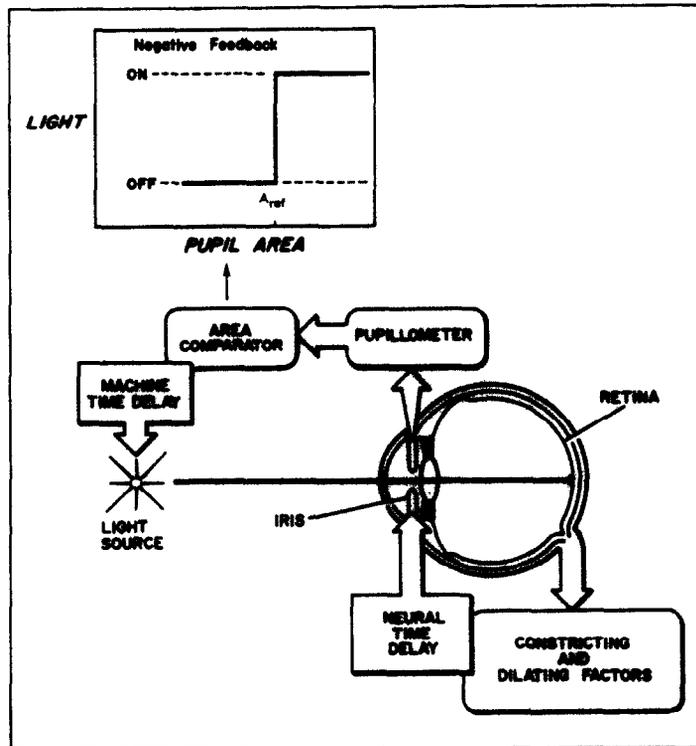


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the pupil light reflex with imposed external feedback. The area comparator used for pupil cycling compared the pupil area,  $A$ , to an adjustable area threshold,  $A_{ref}$ : when  $A > A_{ref}$  the light was turned on and illuminated the retina in Maxwellian view, otherwise it was off. This area comparator corresponds to negative feedback since the pupil constricts when  $A > A_{ref}$  (the light is on). It is piecewise constant negative feedback since the illumination can take on only one of two values, i.e. on or off.

~4–5 mm. We used the measured pupil area to control the timing and duration of the light pulses falling on the retina by modifying the technique of environmental 'clamping' suggested by Stark (1962) (Fig. 1). This was accomplished by comparing the analog output of an infrared video-pupillometer (Hamamatsu Iriscorder C-2515) to an adjustable area threshold,  $A_{ref}$ , by using an electronic circuit (area comparator in Fig. 1). The area comparator was constructed using standard voltage comparators (LM392H), operational amplifiers (LM741) and logic gates (74LS00) and was designed to simulate piecewise constant negative feedback (see legend to Fig. 1). The retinal light intensity can take on only one of two values depending on whether the pupil area is greater than or less than  $A_{ref}$ . This area comparator is an idealization of the method of edge-light pupil cycling, where  $A_{ref}$  corresponds to the pupil area at which the positions of the slit lamp beam and the pupillary margin coincide. However, in our method the illumination is not at the pupillary margin, but is in Maxwellian view. The advantages of the electronic method of pupil cycling

over that of edge-light pupil cycling are (Milton et al., 1988): (1) the pupil area oscillations are easier to obtain and control experimentally; and (2) the oscillations can be studied over a range of pupil areas by varying  $A_{ref}$  (Fig. 2).

The pupil images were analyzed by a frame grabber that counts the number of pixels above a gray level set by the experimenter to discriminate between pupil and iris. The sampling rate of the pupillometer was 60 Hz and the linearity is better than 1% from 0 to 150 mm<sup>2</sup> with an accuracy of 0.01 mm<sup>2</sup>. The bandwidth of the pupillometer is well beyond that of the pupil light reflex [about 5 Hz: Stark (1959)]. Hence, for all practical purposes, the response time of the pupillometer can be neglected on the time scale of the phenomena we are considering in this study. However, the following image and signal processing (~25 msec) and triggering of the light pulse (~75 msec) add a 100 msec pure delay ("machine delay") to the normal physiological delay of this reflex (~300 msec for the retinal illuminance used in this study (Milton et al., 1988)). The pupil latency time (delay) following light onset was evaluated as the time

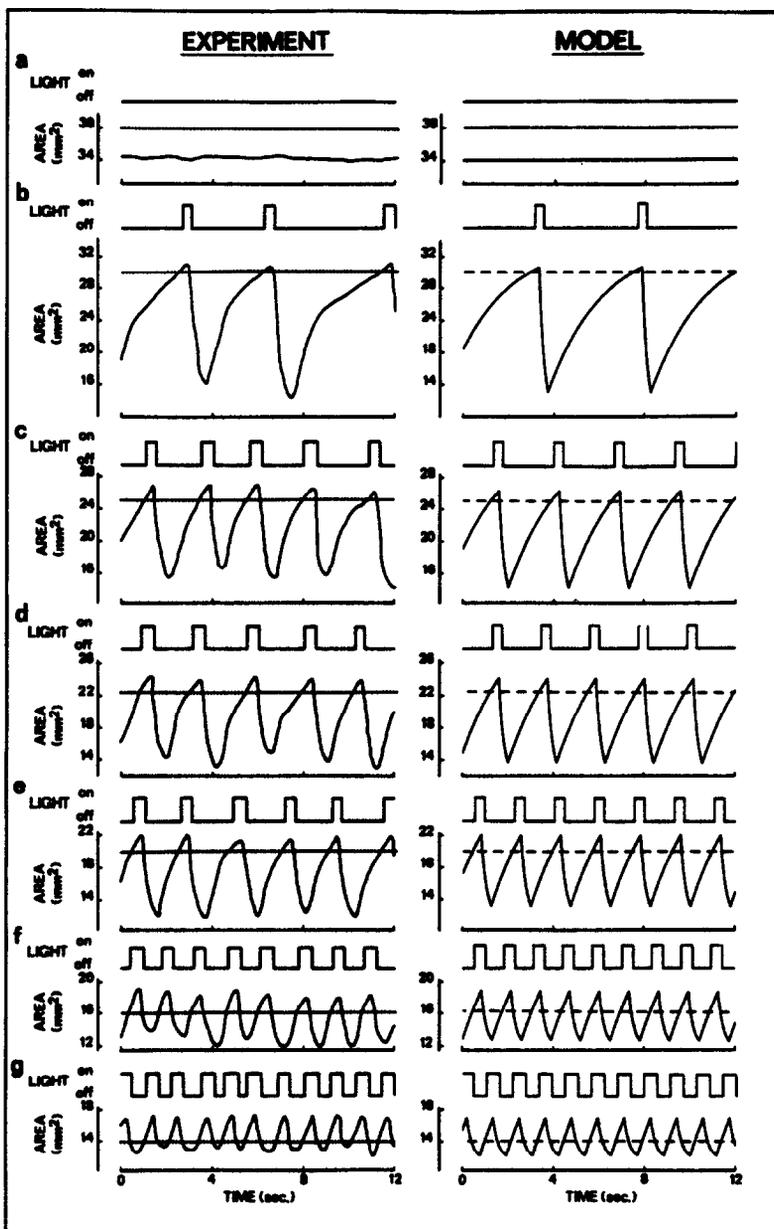


Fig. 2. Pupil cycling with imposed piecewise constant negative feedback (Fig. 1) as a function of  $A_{ref}$  for subject A in Table 2 (left hand side). The value of  $A_{ref}$  is represented by the horizontal dotted line and was set at: (a)  $38.0 \text{ mm}^2$ , (b)  $30.1 \text{ mm}^2$ , (c)  $25.0 \text{ mm}^2$ , (d)  $22.5 \text{ mm}^2$ , (e)  $20.1 \text{ mm}^2$ , (f)  $16.2 \text{ mm}^2$  and (g)  $14.0 \text{ mm}^2$ . The left hand side of this figure shows the solutions of equation (1) for the values of the parameters given in Table 2.

between the onset of the light stimulus and the onset of pupil constriction by using the computer supplied with the Hamamatsu Iriscorder C-2515. The determination of the pupil latency time following light offset is discussed in Results.

**RESULTS**

*Pupil area oscillations*

Figure 2 shows pupil area as a function of time for a normal subject (subject A in Tables

1 and 2) when the area threshold,  $A_{ref}$ , is set at various levels. When  $A_{ref}$  is larger than the initial pupil area,  $A_i$ , regular oscillations in pupil area do not occur (Fig. 2a). Repetitive constrictions and dilations in pupil area occur when  $A_{ref} < A_i$ . The light is turned on  $\sim 100 \text{ msec}$  after pupil area exceeds  $A_{ref}$ . This delay represents the machine delay. The onset of constriction occurs  $\sim 300 \text{ msec}$  after the light is turned on. This delay is the pupil latency time to light onset. Once pupil area constricts to a value less than

Table 1. Parameters for pupil constriction and dilation measured from single light pulse pupillary responses

Subject	$\tau^*$ (msec)	$\alpha_c$ (sec <sup>-1</sup> )	$\alpha_d$ (sec <sup>-1</sup> )	$A_{on}$ (mm <sup>2</sup> )	$A_{off}$ (mm <sup>2</sup> )
A	380	2.50	0.48	10.0	34.4
B	385	2.50	0.84	15.2	33.6
C	411	3.33	0.50	15.8	34.8
D	400	3.84	0.63	25.2	51.1
E	305 <sup>b</sup>	4.87	0.55	14.0	35.5

\*Total time delay = neural time delay + machine time delay.

<sup>b</sup>Machine time delay was 100 msec for all subjects, except subject E for whom it was 25 msec.

Table 2. Parameters for pupil constriction and dilation from pupil cycling measurements

Subject	$\tau^*$ (msec)	$\alpha_c$ (sec <sup>-1</sup> )	$\alpha_d$ (sec <sup>-1</sup> )	$A_{on}$ (mm <sup>2</sup> )	$A_{off}$ (mm <sup>2</sup> )
A	380	4.46	0.42	11.8	34.0
B	385	3.11	0.74	15.7	34.5
C	411	3.88	0.27	15.5	34.2
D	400	4.69	0.36	26.3	52.4
E	305 <sup>b</sup>	5.19	0.46	16.4	39.5

\*Total time delay = neural time delay + machine time delay.

<sup>b</sup>Machine time delay was 100 msec for all subjects, except subject E for whom it was 25 msec.

$A_{ref}$ , the light is turned off after the machine delay. The pupil continues to constrict for the duration of another latency (latency time for light offset), after which it begins to dilate. The process repeats and gives rise to cycling.

In the discussion which follows we use the notation  $\tau_c$ ,  $\tau_d$  to refer to the sum of the machine delay and pupil latency time for, respectively, light onset and light offset.

The period and amplitude of the pupil area oscillations shown in Fig. 2 depend on the choice of  $A_{ref}$  relative to  $A_i$ . As  $A_{ref}$  is brought closer to  $A_i$ , the amplitude and period of the pupil area oscillations increase. In addition, the fraction of time that the light is on during each cycle in pupil area decreases ( $\sim 0.5$  when  $A_{ref} = 14.2 \text{ mm}^2$  vs  $0.1$  for  $A_{ref} = 30.1 \text{ mm}^2$ ). As shown in Fig. 3, the maximum amplitude,  $A_{max}$ , and minimum amplitude,  $A_{min}$ , of the pupil area oscillations vary linearly as a function of  $A_{ref}$ . In contrast, there is a nonlinear relationship between the average period of the pupil area oscillations and  $A_{ref}$  (Fig. 4).

#### First-order model

**Background.** The pupil light reflex may be viewed as a delayed negative feedback neural control mechanism which regulates the retinal light flux (equal to the light intensity multiplied by the pupil area) by changing the pupil area. The delay arises because of the pupil latency time(s). Pupil cycling occurs when, for example,

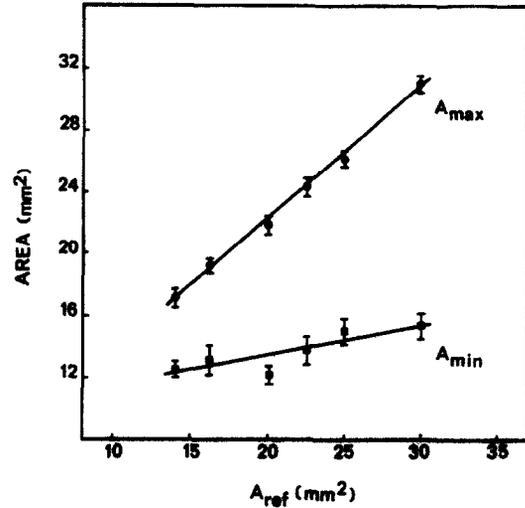


Fig. 3. Plots of  $A_{max}$  and  $A_{min}$  as a function of the area threshold,  $A_{ref}$ , for subject A (Tables 1 and 2 and Fig. 2). Data has been represented as the mean  $\pm 1$  SD and is for a range of 12–18 consecutive cycles. Solid lines were determined from a linear regression analysis.

the gain of the feedback loop is increased (Stark & Cornsweet, 1958; Longtin & Milton, 1989a,b). Self-generated oscillations of this type are referred to as autonomous oscillations. It is important to distinguish autonomous pupil cycling (Fig. 2) from experiments in which oscillations in pupil area occur in response to an independent external light pulse generator ("forced" oscillations) (see, for example, Sun et al., 1983a).

The description of autonomous oscillations in pupil area requires the use of a nonlinear delay-differential equation (Longtin & Milton, 1988, 1989a,b). The nonlinearities arise, for example, because of the logarithmic compression of light intensities at the retina (Weber-Fechner law). For physiologically relevant choices of the feedback function these equations cannot be solved analytically (Longtin & Milton, 1989b). However, under the experimental conditions described in Fig. 1 the feedback function (area comparator) is of a very simple type and the oscillations in pupil area,  $A$ , can be described by (Longtin & Milton, 1988, 1989b; Milton, Longtin, Beuter, Mackey & Glass, 1989)

$$\alpha^{-1} \frac{dA}{dt} + A = \begin{cases} A_{on}, & \text{if } A_{\tau} > A_{ref} \\ A_{off}, & \text{if } A_{\tau} < A_{ref} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where  $A_{\tau}$  is the pupil area at a time  $\tau$  in the past, i.e.  $A_{\tau} = A(t - \tau)$ . Equations of the form of equation (1) are of particular interest for the study of oscillations in feedback mechanisms

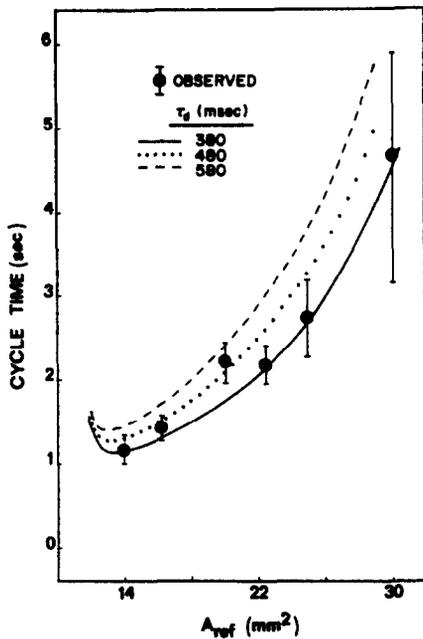


Fig. 4. Comparison of the observed period,  $T$ , of pupil cycling as a function of  $A_{ref}$  for subject A (Figs 2 and 3) to that predicted by equation (4). Data has been represented as the mean  $\pm$  1 SD and is for a range of 12–18 consecutive cycles. The solid line is the value of  $T$  predicted from equation (4) when  $\tau_c = \tau_d$ . In all calculations,  $\tau_c = 380$  msec.

because it is possible to obtain a great deal of mathematical insight into their properties (an der Heiden & Mackey, 1982; Appendix I).

Equation (1) is a first-order model for pupil cycling since both constriction and dilation are described by single exponential processes. However, the rate constant for pupil movements differs for constriction ( $\alpha_c$ ) and dilation ( $\alpha_d$ ). Figure 5 shows a typical solution of equation (1). When the light is on, pupil size decreases exponentially to a lower asymptotic area ( $A_{on}$ ), whereas when the light is off, pupil size increases exponentially towards a higher asymptotic area ( $A_{off}$ ).

**Parameter estimation.** In order to compare the first order model for pupil cycling given by equation (1) to the experimental observations in Figs 2–4 it is necessary to estimate seven parameters:  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\alpha_d$ ,  $A_{on}$ ,  $A_{off}$ ,  $A_{ref}$ ,  $\tau_c$  and  $\tau_d$ . The value of  $A_{ref}$  is set by a potentiometer. In our previous study (Longtin & Milton, 1988) we assumed that  $\tau_c = \tau_d$  and estimated the values of  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\alpha_d$ ,  $A_{on}$  and  $A_{off}$  from the changes in pupil area that occur following a 0.5 sec light pulse as shown in Figs 6(a) and (b). The area asymptote,  $A_{off}$ , is taken as the initial pupil area and  $A_{on}$  is the minimum pupil area following a longer (2 sec) light pulse of the same illuminance. The

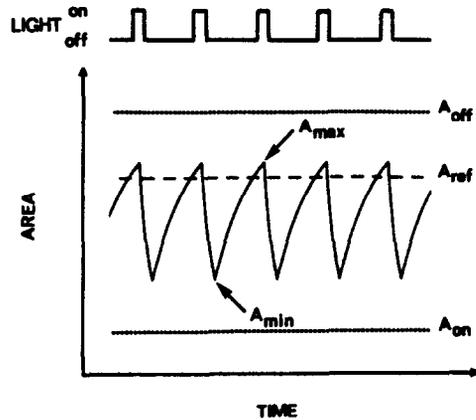


Fig. 5. Detailed representation of a typical solution of equation (1) when  $A_{ref} < A_i$ . See text for details.

values of  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\alpha_d$ ,  $A_{on}$  and  $A_{off}$  determined in this manner for five normal subjects are listed in Table 1.

Here we show that the parameters  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\alpha_d$ ,  $A_{on}$  and  $A_{off}$  can be estimated directly from pupil cycling measurements. This result follows from the fact that equation (1) can be solved analytically (Appendix I). The solution indicates that a plot of  $A_{min}$  vs  $A_{ref}$  will be linear (Fig. 3) and specifically that

$$A_{min} = a + bA_{ref} \tag{2}$$

where

$$a = A_{on}(1 - b) \tag{3a}$$

$$b = \exp(-\alpha_c \tau_c). \tag{3b}$$

Since the value of  $\tau_c$  can be determined experimentally (see Methods), the slope of this plot yields  $\alpha_c$  and the intercept  $A_{on}$ . An expression equivalent to those given by equations (2) and (3) is found for  $A_{max}$  except that  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\tau_c$  and  $A_{on}$  are replaced, respectively, by  $\alpha_d$ ,  $\tau_d$  and  $A_{off}$ . Thus the intercept of a plot of  $A_{max}$  vs  $A_{ref}$  can be used to determine  $A_{off}$ . However, since  $\tau_d$  is not known, the slope of this plot does not permit the value of  $\alpha_d$  to be determined uniquely.

Table 2 summarizes the values of  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\alpha_d$ ,  $A_{on}$  and  $A_{off}$  determined from cycling measurements for the same five subjects in Table 1 under the assumption that  $\tau_c = \tau_d$ . In comparing the results in Tables 1 and 2 it is important to realize that the results in Table 1 are determined from the response to a single light pulse at a single initial pupil area, whereas for cycling these parameters represent, in some sense, an averaging over 50–70 single pulse determinations covering a range of initial pupil areas (i.e. 10 light pulses per area threshold, times 5–7 area

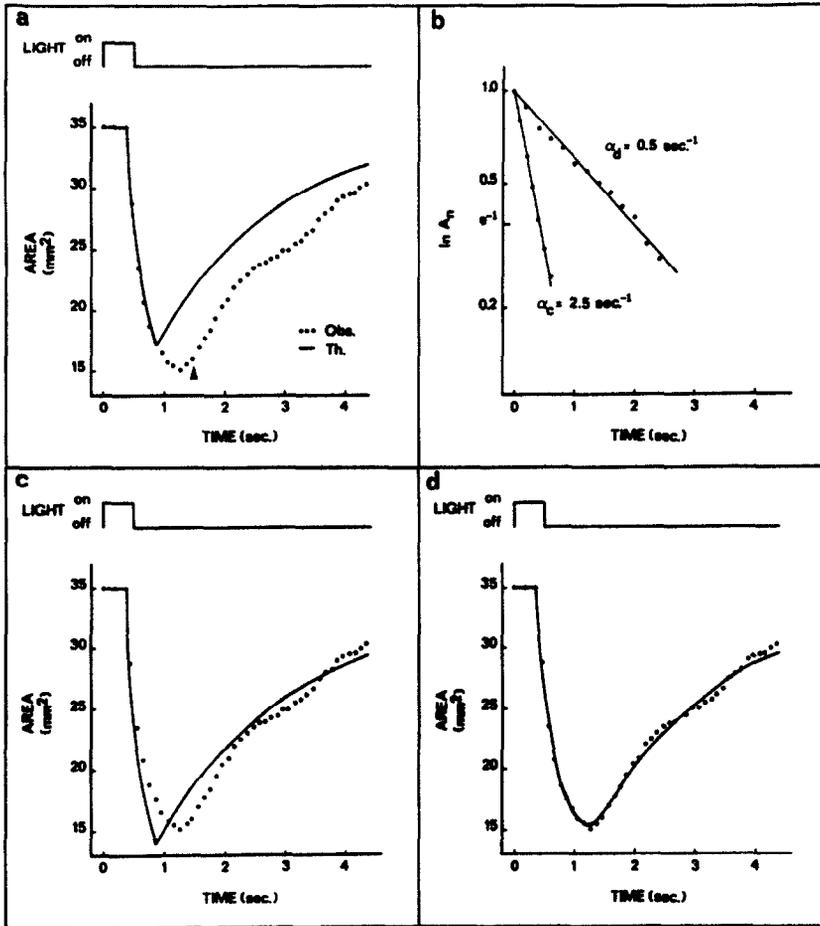


Fig. 6. Pupil area as a function of time,  $A_1$ , following a single 0.5 sec light pulse for subject A (dotted line). In (a) the observed pupillary response is compared to that predicted by equation (1) when the parameters are estimated by the single pulse method (solid line, subject A in Table 1, see text for details). The semi-log plots for the determination of  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\alpha_d$  are shown in (b) where  $A_n$  is the normalized pupil area, i.e.  $A_n = |A_1 - A_{on,off}| / |A_1 - A_{on,off}|$ . For pupil constriction the initial value of  $A_1$  was taken as the onset of constriction and for dilation the initial value of  $A_1$  was arbitrarily chosen as the point indicated by '▲'. In (c) the observed pupillary response is compared to that predicted by equation (1) when the parameters are estimated from cycling measurements (solid line, subject A in Table 2). In (d) the observed pupil response is compared to an empirical model in which constriction is described by a single exponential process and dilation by two exponentials [i.e. equation (5)]. Details of the parameter estimation for the predicted solution in (d) are given in Appendix II.

thresholds). The values of  $A_{on}$  and  $A_{off}$  obtained by the two methods are in good agreement; however, the values of  $\alpha_c$  and  $\alpha_d$  differ. The differences in  $\alpha_d$  cannot simply be attributed to the uncertainty in  $\tau_d$  since an increase in  $\tau_d$  would decrease the value of  $\alpha_d$  even further [equation (3b)].

Figures 6(a) and (c) compare the changes in pupil area that occur following a 0.5 sec light pulse to those predicted from equation (1) when the parameters  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\alpha_d$ ,  $A_{on}$  and  $A_{off}$  have been estimated, respectively, from single pulse measurements (Fig. 6b, Table 1) and pupil cycling measurements (Fig. 3, Table 2). Pupil cycling measurements yield parameters which provide a

better description of the pupillary time course when  $\tau_c = \tau_d$ . Similar results were obtained for all subjects studied. In the discussion which follows we consider only those solutions of equation (1) in which the parameters have been estimated from cycling measurements.

*Period of pupil area oscillations.* The period of pupil cycling,  $T$ , predicted by equation (4) is (Appendix I)

$$T = \tau_c + \tau_d + \alpha_c^{-1} \ln \left[ \frac{A_{max} - A_{on}}{A_{ref} - A_{on}} \right] + \alpha_d^{-1} \ln \left[ \frac{A_{min} - A_{off}}{A_{ref} - A_{off}} \right]. \quad (4)$$

In Fig. 4 we show the period ( $T$ ) of pupil cycling (solid line) calculated from equation (4) when  $\tau_c = \tau_d$ . The agreement between the predicted and observed average period of pupil cycling is typically better than 5–10%.

It should be noted that equation (4) predicts that the period of pupil cycling is not a monotone increasing function of  $A_{ref}$ , but passes through a minimum. We were unable to verify this experimentally. With decreases in  $A_{ref}$  below  $14 \text{ mm}^2$ , pupil area would undergo 2–3 cycles with increasing  $A_{min}$  until the cycling stopped with the light on and  $A_{min} > A_{ref}$ . It is not clear whether this phenomena arose because of a type of pupillary escape (Sun & Stark, 1983; Sun, Krenz & Stark, 1983b; Krenz & Stark, 1984) or represents changes in  $A_{on}$  due to retinal adaptation (Longtin & Milton, 1988).

*Light offset latency time* ( $\tau_d$ ). Equation (4) in combination with equations (2) and (3) can also be used to calculate the period ( $T$ ) of pupil cycling when the latency times for light onset and offset are not the same (i.e.  $\tau_c \neq \tau_d$ ). In Fig. 4 we show the period ( $T$ ) of pupil cycling calculated from equation (4) for two values of  $\tau_d > \tau_c$  [and hence of  $\alpha_d$ ; see equation (3b)] (dotted lines). As can be seen the best agreement between the predicted and observed periods of pupil cycling occurs when  $\tau_c = \tau_d$ .

*Amplitude of pupil area oscillations.* The fact that the values of  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\alpha_d$ ,  $A_{on}$  and  $A_{off}$  are determined from the data in Fig. 3 guarantees that the solutions of equation (1) will have the same average amplitude as observed for pupil cycling (Fig. 2).

*Shape of pupil area oscillations.* One way to compare the shape of the predicted and observed pupil area oscillations is to plot pupil area as a function of time (Fig. 2). However, the limitations of this method for comparing the shape of oscillations are immediately apparent. The observed pupil area oscillations show small cycle to cycle variations in period and amplitude due to noisy inputs into the pupil light reflex which have not been incorporated into equation (1). Thus one cannot easily compare theory with observation by, for example, superimposing the predicted and observed time series.

A much better method for comparing the shape of predicted oscillations to those observed experimentally involves the construction of a "phase plane diagram". A phase plane diagram is a convenient way of graphing pupil area changes as a function of time since for an oscillation a closed loop trajectory will be ob-

tained. For equation (1) a phase plane diagram can be constructed by plotting  $A(t)$  vs  $A(t - \tau)$ . The advantage of constructing a phase plane diagram is that the overall average shape of the oscillation can be assessed and compared to theory even in the presence of noisy perturbations.

Figure 7 compares the measured phase plane diagrams for different values of  $A_{ref}$  to those predicted by equation (1). As plotted the trajectories are traversed in a counter-clockwise direction and the oriented is as follows: the upper right-hand corner corresponds to the change from dilation to constriction and the lower left-hand corner to the change from constriction to dilation. As  $A_{ref}$  is changed, the predicted shape of the closed trajectories changes from triangular (Fig. 7a) to roughly quadrilateral (Fig. 7d). Overall there is surprisingly good agreement between the experimentally measured and predicted phase plane trajectories. However, on closer inspection it can be seen that the best agreement between equation (1) and observation occurs for the latter stages of dilation and the earlier stages of constriction.

#### *Alternative models for pupil cycling*

The preceding results demonstrate that the period and amplitude of pupil area oscillations can be predicted from a model [equation (1)] in which both constriction and dilation are described by single exponentials and in which the latency times for light onset and offset are the same (Figs 2–4). However, the shape of the predicted oscillations is not exactly the same as that observed (Fig. 7).

We found that a much better fit to the changes in pupil area following a single light pulse was obtained when dilation was represented by a sum of two exponentials (compare Fig. 6d with Figs 6a–c). This fit was obtained with  $\tau_c = \tau_d$  (Appendix II). In view of these observations, an alternative model for pupil area oscillations becomes

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \alpha^{-1} \frac{dA}{dt} + A &= A_{on} & \text{if } A_t > A_{ref} \\ \frac{d^2A}{dt^2} + \delta \frac{dA}{dt} + \omega^2 A &= A_{off} & \text{if } A_t < A_{ref} \end{aligned} \right\} (5)$$

where  $\delta$ ,  $\omega$  are constants to be determined. In contrast to the expressions derived from equation (1), it is not possible to obtain simple mathematical expressions for  $A_{max}$  and  $T$ . Thus

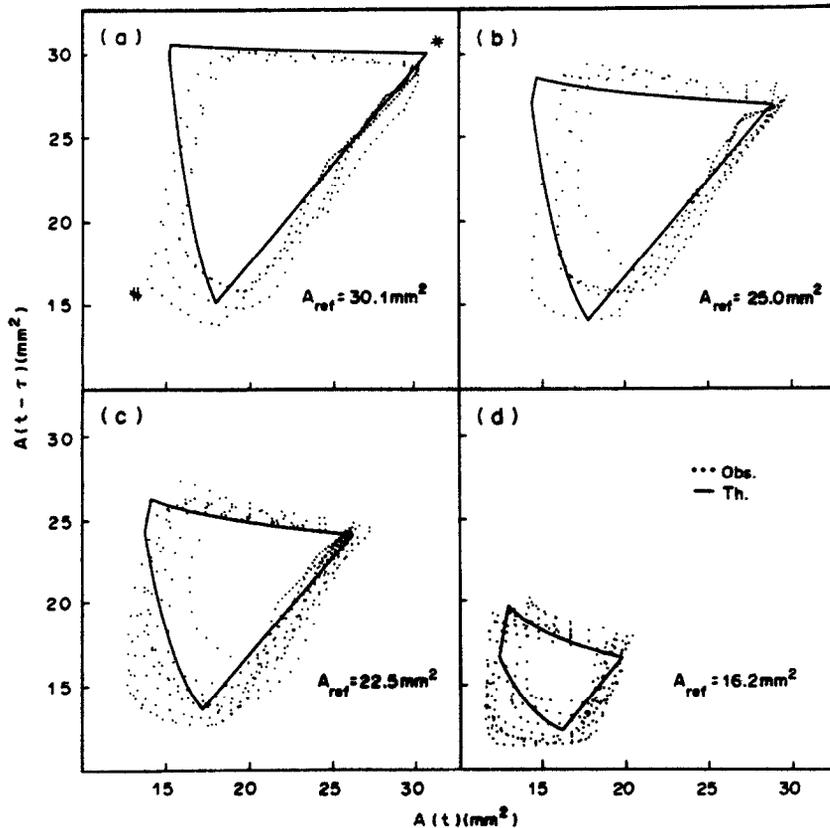


Fig. 7. Phase plane diagrams for pupil cycling as a function of  $A_{ref}$  for subject A (Figs 2-4). The data was digitized at a frequency of 20 Hz. Solid lines are those predicted by equation (1) for parameters estimated from the data in Fig. 2 (subject A in Table 2).  $A_{ref}$  was set at: (a) 30.1 mm<sup>2</sup>, (b) 25.0 mm<sup>2</sup>, (c) 22.5 mm<sup>2</sup>, and (d) 16.2 mm<sup>2</sup>. The change of constriction to dilation is indicated by # in (a) and the change from dilation to constriction by \*.

we cannot presently estimate the three pupillary rate constants and area asymptotes from cycling data in a way more practical than fitting the time course of the pupil area changes following a single light pulse using a nonlinear regression analysis.

Preliminary computer simulations of equation (5) indicate that the shape of the pupil area oscillations closely resemble that of the observed oscillations (data not shown). However, given the difficulties in estimating the required parameters, it is not yet possible to assess the agreement between model and data with certainty.

#### DISCUSSION

Our observations emphasize the importance of measurements of the amplitude, rather than the period, of pupil area oscillations for obtaining quantitative descriptions of pupillary constriction and dilation. In particular, when pupil area oscillations are produced under conditions

of piecewise constant negative feedback (Fig. 1), it is found that the minimum  $A_{min}$  and maximum ( $A_{max}$ ) amplitude vary linearly with  $A_{ref}$ . The  $A_{ref}$ -dependent changes in  $A_{min}$  depend only on factors which influence pupil constriction [see, for example, equation (2)], whereas changes in  $A_{max}$  are related only to changes in the factors which influence pupil dilation. This follows from the response asymmetry of the pupil to light onset and offset (Longtin & Milton, 1989a,b). Thus pupil constriction and dilation can be quantitated in terms of the slopes and intercepts of straight line plots. This technique should facilitate the evaluation of efferent pupillary defects.

Quantitative evaluation of pupil responses from measurements of pupil area oscillations produced under conditions of piecewise constant negative feedback offers a number of advantages over measurements following single light pulses and edge-light pupil cycling. By cycling the pupil, the effects of hippus are minimized since high frequency noise is reduced

by the self-filtering action of the resonance peak of the autonomous oscillations which acts as narrow-bandpass filter (Stark, 1962). Second, generating a plot of  $A_{\min}$  (or  $A_{\max}$ ) vs  $A_{\text{ref}}$  is in some sense equivalent to averaging 50–70 single light pulses covering a range of initial pupil areas. These measurements are not time consuming: the experiment in Fig. 2 took less than 5 min to complete. Obtaining an averaged pupil response is important in view of the intrinsic variability of the pupil's response to light pulses (Usui & Stark, 1982). Finally, measurements of amplitude show less variability than those of period (compare standard deviations for  $A_{\min}$ ,  $A_{\max}$  in Fig. 3 to those of period in Fig. 4, especially at the higher values of  $A_{\text{ref}}$ ).

The infrared pupillometer chosen for this type of study must meet two requirements. First, its response time must be sufficiently faster than the pupil responses (20–60 Hz is adequate for most purposes). Second, since the differences between, for example,  $A_{\max}$  and  $A_{\text{ref}}$  can be quite small (Fig. 3), it is important that the pupillometer be able to measure pupil area accurately. The 0.01 mm<sup>2</sup> resolution of the pupillometer used in this study appears to be adequate for most purposes. The necessary area comparator (Fig. 1) can be easily installed in both video-type (Ishikawa, Naito & Inabe, 1970; Longtin & Milton, 1988; Milton et al., 1988) and reflectance-type (Stark, 1962; Reulen et al., 1988) pupillometers.

The observation that  $A_{\min}$  (or  $A_{\max}$ ) varies linearly with  $A_{\text{ref}}$  can be explained by a mathematical model for pupil cycling [equation (1)] in which both pupil constriction and dilation occur as single exponential processes but with different rate constants. This model also correctly predicts the period of the pupil area oscillations. However, measurements of the period of the oscillations as a function of  $A_{\text{ref}}$  are not sufficient to identify the individual role of the constricting and dilating mechanisms of the pupil light reflex [equation (4)]. This observation emphasizes the importance of amplitude over period measurements for evaluating the properties of the efferent pathways of the pupil light reflex.

It is generally held that the pupil latency time for light offset ( $\tau_d$ ) is either equal to or longer than the latency time for light onset ( $\tau_c$ ) (see, for example, Löwenstein & Friedman, 1942). However, direct measurement of  $\tau_d$  is difficult since the onset of dilation following light offset cannot readily be determined by visual inspection.

The problem is that pupil area may initially continue to decrease after the onset of dilation because of the effects of the mechanical properties of the iris and its musculature which prevent sudden changes in the sign of the velocity. Thus determination of  $\tau_d$  from the pupil response to a light pulse requires reference to a mathematical model. On the other hand, it is unlikely that  $\tau_d$  can be measured directly from the pupil response to a dark pulse. The response of the pupil to either a light or dark pulse is in the same direction ("unidirectional rate sensitivity") (Clynes, 1961). Thus it is unclear whether measurement of a latency to a dark pulse would correspond to the  $\tau_d$  relevant for pupil cycling measurements. From the standpoint of a first-order model for pupil cycling [equation (1)], the best agreement between the predicted and observed period of the pupil area oscillations occurs when  $\tau_c$  and  $\tau_d$  are approximately the same. When the alternative, more complex model for the pupil response to light [equation (5)] was used, the observed pupillary response could also be modelled with  $\tau_c = \tau_d$ . These observations do not prove conclusively that  $\tau_c = \tau_d$ , but they are certainly highly suggestive.

The shape of the observed oscillations in pupil area is only approximately described by equation (1). It is possible that by increasing the number of exponentials which describe constriction and/or dilation a better description of the shape of the oscillations can be obtained. In this way insights can be gained into the properties of the efferent properties of the pupil light reflex. For example, we found that a better agreement between the predicted and observed shape of the pupil response to a single light pulse is obtained when dilation is modelled as the sum of two exponentials. The main limitation of this type of approach are the difficulties associated with estimating the required number of parameters from the experimental data.

Our observations do not allow us to identify the neurophysiological mechanisms responsible for pupil dilation during pupil cycling. The role of sympathetic efferents is uncertain given the observations that pupil cycling can be elicited in human subjects even when the sympathetic supply to the pupil is cut surgically (Milton et al., 1988) or blocked pharmacologically (Martyn & Ewing, 1986). A parasympathetic mechanism producing pupil dilation involves active inhibition of the Edinger–Westphal nucleus (Loewenfeld, 1958). Experiments will be re-

quired to determine the relative roles of the sympathetic and parasympathetic mechanisms for producing pupil dilation during pupil cycling.

Studies of the pupil light reflex "clamped" with external electronic feedback have been used previously to determine the influence of the 'linear' and 'nonlinear' properties of the reflex in determining the period and shape of the oscillations (Stark, 1962). Here we have shown that this technique can also be used as a practical method for evaluating the average pupil constriction and dilation. From the more general point of view of the study of oscillations (i.e. nonlinear dynamics), this experimental paradigm of neural control also provides unique opportunities to verify theoretical predictions, to draw attention to unexplained phenomena, and to assess the role of superimposed random variations ("noise") in shaping the observed dynamics (Longtin & Milton, 1988, 1989b; Milton et al., 1989). It can be anticipated that by continuing to exploit this experimental model it will be possible to gain insights into the properties of this reflex by, for example, clever design of the area comparator. Some of these insights may also be applicable to other neural control mechanisms as well.

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It was found both analytically and numerically that these limit cycle solutions of equation (1) are very stable. In fact, the transients leading to the limit cycle behaviour decay very quickly.

APPENDIX I

Solution of Equation (1)

The oscillations in pupil area produced by equation (1) (Fig. 5) are referred to as limit cycles. Assume that the motion described by equation (1) has settled onto the limit cycle oscillation. Then we can write the solution as

$$A(t) = \begin{cases} A_{on} + [A(t_0) - A_{on}][\exp(-\alpha_c(t - t_0))], & \text{if } A(s - \tau) > A_{ref} \\ A_{off} + [A(t_0) - A_{off}][\exp(-\alpha_d(t - t_0))], & \text{if } A(s - \tau) \leq A_{ref} \end{cases} \quad (A1)$$

where  $s \in (t_0, t)$ . Let  $A_{max}$  ( $A_{min}$ ) denote the maximal (minimal) area reached by the oscillations (Fig. 5). Then

$$A_{ref} = A_{max} \exp(-\alpha_c t_1) + A_{on}[1 - \exp(-\alpha_c t_1)] \quad (A2a)$$

$$A_{ref} = A_{min} \exp(-\alpha_d t_2) + A_{off}[1 - \exp(-\alpha_d t_2)] \quad (A2b)$$

from which we can easily obtain

$$t_1 = \alpha_c^{-1} \ln \left[ \frac{A_{max} - A_{on}}{A_{ref} - A_{on}} \right] \quad (A3a)$$

$$t_2 = \alpha_d^{-1} \ln \left[ \frac{A_{min} - A_{off}}{A_{ref} - A_{off}} \right] \quad (A3b)$$

The period,  $T$ , is equal to  $\tau_c + \tau_d + t_1 + t_2$ . The values of  $A_{min}$  and  $A_{max}$  (equations (2) and (3) in text) can be determined from equation (A1) by choosing  $A(t_0) = A_{ref}$ .

APPENDIX II

Parameter Estimation for Equation (5)

In order to fit equation (5) to the response of the pupil to a single light pulse (Fig. 6) we imposed four constraints: (1) the transition from constriction to dilation occurs at time  $t_c + T_p$  where  $t_c$  is the time of constriction onset ( $\sim 300$  msec after light pulse falls on retina) and  $T_p$  is the light pulse duration (500 msec); (2) the pupil area is continuous at time  $t = T_p$ ; (3) the area velocity is continuous at time  $t = T_p$ ; and (4) the initial pupil area is fixed.

If we let  $t_c = 0$  and denote pupil area by  $A(t)$ , we have:

$$A(t) = \begin{cases} A_c(t) = A(0) + B[\exp(-\alpha_c t) - 1], & \text{if } 0 < t < T_p \\ A_d(t) = C \exp[-\mu_d(t - T_p)] + D \exp[-\beta_d(t - T_p)] + E, & \text{if } t > T_p \end{cases} \quad (A4)$$

where  $\delta$  in equation (5) corresponds to  $-\mu_d - \beta_d$  and  $\omega^2$  to  $\mu_d \beta_d$ . The constraints (2) and (3) are used to express parameters  $D$  and  $E$  as a function of the parameter set to be determined by nonlinear regression:  $\{B, C, \alpha_c, \mu_d, \beta_d\}$ . For the data in Fig. 6 our fit produces  $A = 21.81 \text{ mm}^2$ ,  $C = 10.14 \text{ mm}^2$ ,  $\alpha_c = 3.44 \text{ sec}^{-1}$ ,  $\alpha_d = 2.83 \text{ sec}^{-1}$  and  $\beta_d = 0.58 \text{ sec}^{-1}$  with a  $\chi^2$  value of  $10.62 \pm 0.54$ . The value of  $\beta_d$  corresponds to  $\alpha_d$  in equation (1). Note that  $\alpha_d$  and  $\alpha_c$  have not changed significantly from those determined for the first order model (Tables 1 and 2).