

Inverse Problem Reveals Conditions for Characteristic Retinal Degeneration Patterns in Retinitis Pigmentosa under the Trophic Factor Hypothesis

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2 ABSTRACT

3 Retinitis pigmentosa (RP) is the most common inherited retinal dystrophy with a prevalence
4 of about 1 in 4000, affecting approximately 1.5 million people worldwide. Patients with RP
5 experience progressive visual field loss as the retina degenerates, destroying light-sensitive
6 photoreceptor cells (rods and cones), with rods affected earlier and more severely than cones.
7 Spatio-temporal patterns of retinal degeneration in human RP have been well characterised;
8 however, the mechanism(s) giving rise to these patterns have not been conclusively determined.
9 One such mechanism, which has received a wealth of experimental support, is described by the
10 trophic factor hypothesis. This hypothesis suggests that rods produce a trophic factor necessary
11 for cone survival; the loss of rods depletes this factor, leading to cone degeneration. In this paper
12 we formulate a partial differential equation mathematical model of RP in one spatial dimension,
13 spanning the region between the retinal centre (fovea) and the retinal edge (ora serrata). Using
14 this model we derive and solve an inverse problem, revealing for the first time experimentally
15 testable conditions under which the trophic factor mechanism will qualitatively recapitulate the
16 spatio-temporal patterns of retinal regeneration observed in human RP.

17 **Keywords:** Partial Differential Equations, Asymptotic Analysis, Retina, Photoreceptors, Rod-derived Cone Viability Factor

1 INTRODUCTION

18 The group of inherited retinal diseases known as retinitis pigmentosa (RP) causes the progressive loss
19 of visual function (Hamel, 2006; Hartong et al., 2006). The patterns of visual field loss associated with
20 the human version of this condition have been well characterised (Grover et al., 1998); however, the
21 mechanisms underpinning these patterns have yet to be conclusively determined (Newton and Megaw,
22 2020). In this paper, we use mathematical models to predict the conditions under which a trophic factor
23 mechanism could explain these patterns.

24 The retina is a tissue layer lining the back of the eye containing light-sensitive cells known as photo-
25 receptors, which come in two varieties: rods and cones (Fig. 1A). Rods confer monochromatic vision
26 under low-light (scotopic) conditions, while cones confer colour vision under well-lit (photopic) conditions
27 (Oyster, 1999). In RP, rod function and health are typically affected earlier and more severely than those
28 of cones, with cone loss following rod loss. Rods are lost since either they or the neighbouring retinal

29 pigment epithelium express a mutant version of one or both alleles (depending on inheritance mode) of
30 a gene associated with RP (over 80 genes have been identified to date, see Gene Vision and Birtel et al.,
31 2018; Coussa et al., 2019; Ge et al., 2015; Haer-Wigman et al., 2017). It is hypothesised that cones are lost
32 following rods since they depend upon rods either directly or indirectly for their survival (Daiger et al.,
33 2007; Hamel, 2006; Hartong et al., 2006).

34 A number of mechanisms have been hypothesised to explain secondary cone loss, including trophic factor
35 (TF) depletion (Aït-Ali et al., 2015; Léveillard et al., 2004; Mei et al., 2016), oxygen toxicity (Stone et al.,
36 1999; Travis et al., 1991; Valter et al., 1998), metabolic dysregulation (Punzo et al., 2009, 2012), toxic
37 substances (Ripps, 2002) and microglia (Gupta et al., 2003). While not typically related to spatio-temporal
38 patterns of retinal degeneration in the literature, it is reasonable to infer that these mechanisms play an
39 important role in determining spatio-temporal patterns of retinal degeneration.

40 Grover et al. (1998) have classified the spatio-temporal patterns of visual field loss in RP patients into
41 three patterns and six sub-patterns (see Fig. 2). Pattern 1A consists in a restriction of the peripheral visual
42 field, while Pattern 1B also includes a para-/peri-foveal ring scotoma (blind spot); Pattern 2 (A, B and
43 C) involves an initial loss of the superior visual field, winding nasally or temporally into the inferior
44 visual field; lastly, Pattern 3 starts with loss of the mid-peripheral visual field, before spreading into the
45 superior or inferior visual field and winding around the far-periphery. In all cases central vision is the best
46 preserved, though it too is eventually lost (Hamel, 2006; Hartong et al., 2006). Patterns of visual field loss
47 and photoreceptor degeneration (cell loss) are directly related (Escher et al., 2012), loss of the superior
48 visual field corresponding to degeneration of photoreceptors in the inferior retina and vice versa, and loss
49 of the temporal visual field corresponding to degeneration of photoreceptors in the nasal retina and vice
50 versa.

51 In this paper we explore the conditions under which the TF mechanism, in isolation, can replicate
52 the patterns of cone degeneration observed *in vivo*. Isolating a mechanism in this way enables us to
53 identify the effects for which it is sufficient to account, avoiding confusion with other mechanistic causes.
54 Understanding the mechanisms of secondary cone degeneration is important since it is the cones that
55 provide high-acuity colour vision, and hence their loss, rather than the preceding rod loss, which is the
56 most debilitating. Therefore, by elucidating these mechanisms, we can develop targeted therapies to
57 prevent or delay cone loss, preserving visual function. The TF mechanism has been studied in detail. Rod
58 photoreceptors have been shown to produce a TF called rod-derived cone viability factor (RdCVF), which
59 is necessary for cone survival (Fintz et al., 2003; Léveillard et al., 2004; Mohand-Saïd et al., 1998, 2000,
60 1997; Yang et al., 2009). RdCVF increases cone glucose uptake, and hence aerobic glycolysis, by binding
61 to the cone transmembrane protein Basigin-1, which consequently binds to the glucose transporter GLUT1
62 (Aït-Ali et al., 2015). Cones do not produce RdCVF, thus, when rods are lost, RdCVF concentration drops
63 and cone degeneration follows (though it has been suggested that it may ultimately be oxygen toxicity
64 which kills cones; Léveillard and Sahel, 2017).

65 Thus far, two groups have developed mathematical models operating under the TF hypothesis. Camacho
66 *et al.* have developed a series of (non-spatial) dynamical systems ordinary differential equation models to
67 describe the role of RdCVF in health and RP (Colón Vélez et al., 2003; Camacho et al., 2010; Camacho and
68 Wirkus, 2013; Camacho et al., 2014, 2016a,b,c, 2019, 2020, 2021; Wifvat et al., 2021). In Roberts (2022),
69 we developed the first partial differential equation (PDE) models of the TF mechanism in RP, predicting
70 the spatial spread of retinal degeneration. It was found that, assuming all cones are equally susceptible
71 to RdCVF deprivation and that rods degenerate exponentially with a fixed decay rate, the mechanism is
72 unable to replicate *in vivo* patterns of retinal degeneration. Previous modelling studies have also considered

73 the oxygen toxicity (Roberts et al., 2017, 2018 and related Roberts et al., 2016b) and toxic substance
74 (Burns et al., 2002) mechanisms, predicting the spatio-temporal patterns of retinal degeneration they would
75 generate. For a review of these and other mathematical models of the retina in health, development and
76 disease see Roberts et al. (2016a).

77 In this study, we extend our work in Roberts (2022) by formulating and solving an inverse problem to
78 determine the spatially heterogeneous cone susceptibility to RdCVF deprivation and rod exponential decay
79 rate profiles that are required to qualitatively recapitulate observed patterns of spatio-temporal degeneration
80 in human RP.

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

81 2.1 Model Formulation

82 We begin by formulating a reaction-diffusion PDE mathematical model (a simplified version of the
83 model presented in Roberts, 2022). Reaction-diffusion PDE models describe the way in which the spatial
84 distribution of cells and chemicals change over time as a result of processes such as movement (diffusion),
85 production, consumption, death and decay. We pose the model on a spherical geometry to replicate
86 that of the human retina. This geometry is most naturally represented using a spherical polar coordinate
87 system, (r, θ, ϕ) , centred in the middle of the vitreous body, where $r \geq 0$ (m) is the distance from the
88 origin, $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ (rad) is the polar angle and $0 \leq \phi < 2\pi$ (rad) is the azimuthal angle. To create a more
89 mathematically tractable model, we simplify the geometry by assuming symmetry about the z -axis (directed
90 outward from the origin through the foveal centre), eliminating variation in the azimuthal direction, and
91 effectively depth-average through the retina, assuming that it lies at a single fixed distance, $R > 0$ (m),
92 from the origin at all eccentricities, θ , leveraging the fact that the retinal width is two orders of magnitude
93 smaller than the eye's radius (Oyster, 1999). Thus, we have reduced the coordinate system to (R, θ) , where
94 R is a positive constant parameter and $0 \leq \theta \leq \Theta$ is an independent variable, which we bound to range
95 between the fovea (at $\theta = 0$ rad) and the ora serrata (at $\theta = \Theta = 1.33$ rad; see Fig. 1A). We further simplify
96 the model by non-dimensionalising; scaling the dependent and independent variables so that they and the
97 resultant model parameters are dimensionless and hence unitless. This reduces the number of parameters
98 (including eliminating R) and allows us to identify the dominant terms of the governing equations in the
99 ensuing asymptotic analysis. For this reason, there are no units to be stated in Figs. 3–10. For the full
100 dimensional model and non-dimensionalisation see Roberts (2022).

101 We proceed directly to the dimensionless model, which consists of a system of PDEs in terms of the
102 dependent variables: TF concentration, $f(\theta, t)$, rod photoreceptor density, $p_r(\theta, t)$, and cone photoreceptor
103 density, $p_c(\theta, t)$; as functions of the independent variables: polar angle, scaled to lie in the range $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$,
104 and time, $t > 0$ (see Table 1).

105 The TF equation is as follows

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \underbrace{\frac{D_f}{\sin(\Theta\theta)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin(\Theta\theta) \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} \right)}_{\text{diffusion}} + \underbrace{\alpha p_r}_{\text{production}} - \underbrace{\beta f p_c}_{\text{consumption}} - \underbrace{\eta f}_{\text{decay}}, \quad (1)$$

106 where $\partial f / \partial t$ is the rate of change in TF concentration over time and the parameters, D_f , the TF diffusivity,
107 α , the rate of TF production by rods, β , the rate of TF consumption by cones, and η , the rate of TF decay,
108 are positive constants. Trophic factor is free to diffuse across the retina through the interphotoreceptor
109 matrix (Aït-Ali et al., 2015). We assume, in the absence of experimental evidence to the contrary, that all

110 rods produce TF at an equal and constant rate, independent of the local TF concentration, such that the
111 rate of TF production is directly proportional to the local rod density. Similarly, in the absence of further
112 experimental evidence, we assume that all cones consume TF at an equal and constant rate for a given local
113 TF concentration. Applying the physiological version of the Law of Mass Action, which states that the rate
114 of a reaction is directly proportional to the product of the concentrations/densities of the reactants (Murray,
115 2002, in this case TF and cones), we assume that TF is consumed by cones at a rate directly proportional to
116 the product of the local TF concentration and the local cone density. Lastly, we assume that TF decays
117 exponentially, decreasing at a rate directly proportional to its local concentration, as has been shown to
118 occur for a range of other proteins in living human cells (Eden et al., 2011).

119 The rod equation takes the following form

$$\frac{\partial p_r}{\partial t} = - \underbrace{\phi_r(\theta)p_r}_{\substack{\text{cell degeneration} \\ \text{(mutation-induced)}}}, \quad (2)$$

120 where $\partial p_r / \partial t$ is the rate of change in rod density over time and we allow the variable $\phi_r(\theta)$, the rate of
121 mutation-induced rod degeneration, to vary spatially (functional forms defined in the Results section), or
122 take a constant positive value, ϕ_r . Rods degenerate due to their expression of a mutant gene (Hamel, 2006;
123 Hartong et al., 2006) and are assumed to do so exponentially, at a rate directly proportional to their local
124 density, consistent with measurements of photoreceptor degeneration kinetics in mouse, rat and canine
125 models of RP (Clarke et al., 2000). Unlike with cones, RdCVF does not serve a protective function for rods
126 (Ait-Ali et al., 2015); therefore, their rate of degeneration is independent of the TF concentration. We note
127 that Eqn. (2) can be solved to yield $p_r(\theta, t) = p_{r_{\text{init}}}(\theta)e^{-\phi_r(\theta)t}$ (where $p_{r_{\text{init}}}(\theta)$, the initial value of $p_r(\theta, t)$,
128 is defined below), provided there is no delay in onset or interruption of degeneration.

129 The cone equation is as follows

$$\frac{\partial p_c}{\partial t} = - \underbrace{p_c \lambda_2(f)}_{\substack{\text{cell degeneration} \\ \text{(TF starvation)}}}, \quad (3)$$

where $\partial p_c / \partial t$ is the rate of change in cone density over time. We define the Heaviside step function, $H(\cdot)$, such that

$$H(x) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0, \end{cases}$$

the function $\lambda_2(f)$ is given by

$$\lambda_2(f) = 1 - H(f - f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)),$$

130 where we allow the variable $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)$, the TF threshold concentration, to vary spatially (functional forms
131 defined in the Results section), or take a constant positive value, f_{crit} . Cone density is assumed to remain
132 constant provided the local TF concentration, $f(\theta, t)$, remains in the healthy range at or above the critical
133 threshold, f_{crit} , while cones are assumed to decay exponentially (due to TF starvation) at a rate directly
134 proportional to their local density if $f(\theta, t)$ drops below this threshold, again consistent with Clarke et al.
135 (2000)'s measurements of photoreceptor degeneration kinetics.

136 Having defined the governing equations (Eqs. (1)–(3)), we close the system by imposing boundary and
137 initial conditions. We apply zero-flux boundary conditions at both ends of the domain,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta}(0, t) = 0 = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta}(1, t), \quad (4)$$

where $\partial f/\partial \theta$ is the TF concentration gradient in the polar direction, such that there is no net flow of TF into or out of the domain. This is justified by symmetry at $\theta = 0$, while we assume that TF cannot escape from the retina where it terminates at the ora serrata ($\theta = 1$). The healthy rod and cone distributions are given by the following functions

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{p}_r(\theta) &= B_3 \theta e^{-b_3 \theta}, \\ \tilde{p}_c(\theta) &= B_1 e^{-b_1 \theta} + B_2 e^{-b_2 \theta}, \end{aligned}$$

138 where the values of the positive constants B_1 , B_2 , B_3 , b_1 , b_2 and b_3 are found by fitting to the mean
139 of Curcio et al. (1990)'s measurements of healthy human rod and cone distributions along the temporal
140 horizontal meridian using the Trust-Region Reflective algorithm in Matlab's curve fitting toolbox (see Fig.
141 1B). Lastly, we impose the initial conditions

$$f(\theta, 0) = f_{\text{init}}(\theta), \quad p_r(\theta, 0) = p_{r_{\text{init}}}(\theta) = \tilde{p}_r(\theta), \quad p_c(\theta, 0) = p_{c_{\text{init}}}(\theta) = \tilde{p}_c(\theta), \quad (5)$$

142 where $f_{\text{init}}(\theta)$ is the steady-state solution to Eqs. (1) and (4) with $p_r = p_{r_{\text{init}}}(\theta)$ and $p_c = p_{c_{\text{init}}}(\theta)$ (see
143 Fig. 3A). Thus, the retina starts in the healthy state in all simulations. See Table 2 for the dimensionless
144 parameter values (see Roberts, 2022, for dimensional values and justification of parameter values). The
145 model presented here simplifies that in Roberts (2022) in the following ways: it does not include treatment,
146 cone outer segment regeneration, or initial patches of rod or cone loss, while mutation-induced rod loss
147 is active for all simulations in this study. The present model also adds two new features to the previous
148 model: allowing the rate of mutation-induced rod degeneration, $\phi_r(\theta)$, and the TF threshold concentration,
149 $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)$, to vary spatially, where before they were constant (or piecewise constant in the high f_{crit} subcase).
150

151 2.2 Numerical Solutions

152 Numerical (computational) solutions to Eqs. (1)–(5) were obtained using the method of lines (as in
153 Roberts, 2022), discretising in space and then integrating in time. The time integration was performed
154 using the Matlab routine `ode15s`, a variable-step, variable-order solver, designed to solve problems
155 involving multiple timescales such as this (Matlab version R2020a was used here and throughout the paper).
156 We used a relative error tolerance of 10^{-6} and an absolute error tolerance of 10^{-10} , with the remaining
157 settings at their default values. The number of spatial mesh points employed varies between simulations,
158 taking values of 26, 51, 101, 401 or 4001. The upper bound of 4001 mesh points was chosen such that
159 the distance between mesh points corresponds to the average width of a photoreceptor. In each case the
160 maximum computationally feasible mesh density was employed, all mesh densities being sufficient to
161 achieve accurate results. The initial TF profile, $f(\theta, 0) = f_{\text{init}}(\theta)$, was calculated by discretising Eqs. (1)
162 and (4) at steady-state, using a finite difference scheme, and solving the consequent system of nonlinear
163 algebraic equations using the Matlab routine `fsolve` (which employs a Trust-Region-Dogleg algorithm)
164 with $p_r = p_{r_{\text{init}}}(\theta)$ and $p_c = p_{c_{\text{init}}}(\theta)$.

165

166 2.3 Inverse Problem

167 Our previous modelling study of the TF hypothesis predicted patterns of cone degeneration which failed to
168 match any known patterns in human RP (Roberts, 2022). In that study we made the simplifying assumption
169 that model parameters are spatially uniform, such that they do not vary with retinal eccentricity. While
170 this is a reasonable assumption in most cases, we have reason to believe that two of the parameters — the
171 rate of mutation-induced rod loss, ϕ_r , and the TF threshold concentration, f_{crit} — may vary spatially (see
172 below), which could help account for *in vivo* patterns of retinal degeneration.

173 Rates of rod degeneration in human RP have not been studied in great detail. Thus far, histopathological
174 examination of human RP retinas has revealed that rod degeneration is most severe in the mid-peripheral
175 retina, with relative sparing of rods in the macula and far-periphery until later in the disease (Milam et al.,
176 1998). It may be that this pattern varies depending upon the mutation involved and between individuals
177 (*cf.* Huang et al., 2012, for which different spatial patterns of rod function loss occur in patients, all of
178 whom have a mutation in the RPGR gene). The rate of decay of rod photoreceptors has also been shown to
179 vary with retinal eccentricity in mouse and pig models of RP (Carter-Dawson et al., 1978; Li et al., 1998).
180 Further, under healthy conditions, the RdCVF concentration at the centre of the retina (near $\theta = 0$) is much
181 lower ($f(\theta, t) \sim O(10^{-5})$) than in the remainder of the retina (where $f(\theta, t) \sim O(0.1)$ to $O(1)$, see Fig.
182 3A). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that central retinal cones are able to cope with lower RdCVF
183 concentrations than those toward the periphery, and hence that f_{crit} is also heterogeneous. To determine
184 whether these heterogeneities could account for cone degeneration patterns in human RP, we formulate and
185 solve something known as an *inverse problem*.

186 In an inverse problem we seek to determine the model input required to attain a known/desired output.
187 In this case the known output is the target cone degeneration profile, $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$, while the input is either
188 the rate of mutation-induced rod loss profile, $\phi_r(\theta)$, or the TF threshold concentration profile, $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)$,
189 with corresponding inverses denoted as $\phi_r(\theta) = \phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta) = f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ respectively. When
190 searching for $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$, we hold the TF threshold concentration constant at $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta) = f_{\text{crit}} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$,
191 while, when searching for $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$, we hold the rate of mutation-induced rod loss constant at $\phi_r(\theta) =$
192 $\phi_r = 7.33 \times 10^{-2}$. The constant value of f_{crit} is chosen to lie just below the minimum steady-state value of
193 $f(\theta)$, such that, in the absence of rod loss, cones remain healthy, while the constant value of ϕ_r is chosen to
194 be one hundred times higher than the value that can be inferred from measurements in the healthy human
195 retina (Curcio et al., 1993), placing the timescale of the resultant cone loss on the order of decades, in
196 agreement with *in vivo* RP progression rates (Hamel, 2006; Hartong et al., 2006).

197 We consider a range of target cone degeneration profiles, summarised in Table 3 and Fig. 5, which
198 qualitatively replicate visual field loss Patterns 1A, 1B and 3 seen *in vivo* (and hence the corresponding *in*
199 *vivo* cone degeneration patterns; taking the degeneration of the far-peripheral retina to occur in a radially
200 symmetric manner in Pattern 3 — see Fig. 2 and Grover et al., 1998). We do not consider patterns of type
201 2 (to be explored in a future study) as these cannot be replicated by a 1D model (since the radial symmetry,
202 assumed by the 1D model, is broken by variation in the azimuthal/circumferential direction). For each
203 degeneration pattern we consider a set of sub-patterns to examine how this affects the shape of the inverses,
204 allowing us to confirm that a modest change in the degeneration pattern results in a modest change in the
205 inverses, while exploring both linear/piecewise linear profiles and more biologically realistic nonlinear
206 (quadratic/cubic/exponential) patterns. We also consider a uniform target cone degeneration profile for
207 comparison.

208 For each pattern, we consider the effect of two (biologically realistic) scalings for the rate of TF production
209 by rods, α , and the rate of TF consumption by cones, β , upon the inverse profiles: (i) Scaling 1 — for which

210 $\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^4$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^6$ as in Roberts (2022); and (ii) Scaling 2 — for which $\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^2$
211 and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^4$. Under Scaling 1, production and consumption of TF dominate over decay (with rate
212 constant η), such that decay has a negligible effect upon the TF profile and model behaviour. Under Scaling
213 2, TF production and consumption occur at a similar rate to decay, such that they balance each other,
214 resulting in a different TF profile and model behaviour (see Fig. 3A and C). As discussed in Roberts (2022),
215 none of α , β or η have been measured. The decay rate, η , was chosen to match the measured decay rate of
216 proteins in living human cells (Eden et al., 2011). Under Scaling 1, the consumption rate, β , is chosen such
217 that it dominates over the decay rate (being a factor $\epsilon^{-1} = O(10^2)$ larger), while the production rate, α , is
218 chosen to balance consumption (see the Analytical Inverse section). This is a sensible scaling as it is likely
219 that cones consume RdCVF at a much faster rate than that at which it decays. It is possible, however, that
220 cones consume RdCVF at a similar rate to its decay rate, which is the scenario we consider in Scaling 2;
221 reducing α and β by a factor of 100 ($\sim \epsilon^{-1}$) to bring consumption and production into balance with decay
222 (see the Analytical Inverse section).

223 We solve the inverse problem both analytically and numerically (computationally), as described in the
224 Analytical Inverse and Numerical Inverse sections below. Analytical approximations are computationally
225 inexpensive and provide deeper insight into model behaviour, while numerical solutions, though computati-
226 onally intensive, are more accurate.

227

228 2.3.1 Analytical Inverse

229 Less mathematically inclined readers may wish to skip over the following derivation and proceed to the
230 resulting Eqs. (6)–(11) and surrounding explanatory text. To derive analytical (algebraic) approximations
231 for the inverses, $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$, we perform an asymptotic analysis, seeking the leading order
232 behaviour of Eqs. (1)–(5). In other words, we are simplifying our equations, making it possible to solve
233 them algebraically (by hand), by only including those terms (corresponding to specific biological processes,
234 e.g. TF production) which dominate the behaviour of the solution, where the method known as ‘asymptotic
235 analysis’ enables us to rationally identify these dominant terms. Proceeding as in Roberts (2022) (where
236 we considered a steady-state problem), we choose $\epsilon = O(10^{-2})$ and scale the parameters $\eta = \epsilon^{-1}\eta'$
237 and $b_1 = \epsilon^{-1}b'_1$, introducing the new scaling $\phi_r(\theta) = \epsilon\phi'_r(\theta)$, as we study the time-dependent problem
238 here (where dashes $'$ denote scaled variables and parameters). We consider two possible (biologically
239 realistic) scalings on α and β : (i) Scaling 1 — for which $\alpha = \epsilon^{-2}\alpha'$ and $\beta = \epsilon^{-3}\beta'$ as in Roberts (2022)
240 (corresponding to $\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^4$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^6$); and (ii) Scaling 2 — for which $\alpha = \epsilon^{-1}\alpha'$ and
241 $\beta = \epsilon^{-2}\beta'$ (corresponding to $\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^2$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^4$). All remaining parameters are assumed
242 to be $O(1)$. We also scale the dependent variable $p_c(\theta, t) = \epsilon p'_c(\theta, t)$, and assume $f(\theta, t) = O(1)$ and
243 $p_r(\theta, t) = O(1)$.

Applying the above scalings and dropping the dashes (working with the scaled versions of the variables and parameters, but omitting the dashes $'$ for notational convenience), Eqn. (2) becomes

$$\frac{\partial p_r}{\partial t} = -\epsilon\phi_r(\theta)p_r.$$

Thus, on this (fast) timescale, the rod density is constant. Since we are interested in the timescale upon which rods degenerate, we scale time as $t' = \epsilon t$ such that the decay term enters the dominant balance. Thus, on this slow timescale, after dropping the dashes, we have that

$$\frac{\partial p_r}{\partial t} = -\phi_r(\theta)p_r,$$

244 such that, at leading order, $p_{r_0}(\theta, t) = p_{r_{\text{init}_0}}(\theta)e^{-\phi_r(\theta)t} = B_3\theta e^{-b_3\theta} e^{\phi_r(\theta)t}$.

245 We are interested here in the regime in which cones have not yet degenerated, thus we assume the leading
246 order cone density remains constant at $p_{c_0}(\theta) = p_{c_{\text{init}_0}}(\theta) = B_2e^{-b_2\theta}$.

Applying Scaling 1 and the slow timescale to Eqn. (1) we obtain

$$\epsilon \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = D_f \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta^2} + D_f \Theta \cot(\Theta \theta) \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} + \epsilon^{-2} \alpha p_r - \epsilon^{-2} \beta p_c f - \epsilon^{-1} \eta f.$$

Since the TF dynamics occur on a faster timescale than mutation-induced rod loss, we make a quasi-steady-state approximation (QSSA), assuming that the TF concentration instantaneously takes its steady-state profile, for any given rod density profile, as the rods degenerate ($\epsilon \partial_t f \sim 0$). Thus, at leading order, we obtain

$$f_{0\text{QSSA}}(\theta) = \frac{\alpha p_{r_0}(\theta, t)}{\beta p_{c_0}(\theta)}.$$

247 Rearranging this expression and assuming that cone degeneration initiates when $f_{0\text{QSSA}}(\theta) = f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)$, we
248 obtain the cone degeneration time profile,

$$t_{\text{degen}}(\theta) = \frac{1}{\phi_r(\theta)} \left(\log \left(\frac{\alpha B_3}{\beta B_2 f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)} \theta \right) - (b_3 - b_2) \theta \right), \quad (6)$$

249 the inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate profile,

$$\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta) = \frac{1}{t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)} \left(\log \left(\frac{\alpha B_3}{\beta B_2 f_{\text{crit}}} \theta \right) - (b_3 - b_2) \theta \right), \quad (7)$$

250 and the inverse TF threshold concentration profile,

$$f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta) = \frac{\alpha B_3}{\beta B_2} \theta e^{-((b_3 - b_2)\theta + \phi_r t_{\text{degen}}(\theta))}. \quad (8)$$

Alternatively, if we apply Scaling 2 and the slow timescale to Eqn. (1) we obtain

$$\epsilon \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = D_f \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta^2} + D_f \Theta \cot(\Theta \theta) \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} + \epsilon^{-1} \alpha p_r - \epsilon^{-1} \beta p_c f - \epsilon^{-1} \eta f,$$

with the TF decay term, ηf , now entering the dominant balance. Applying the QSSA and proceeding as above we find

$$f_{0\text{QSSA}}(\theta) = \frac{\alpha p_{r_0}(\theta, t)}{\beta p_{c_0}(\theta) + \eta},$$

251 with cone degeneration time profile,

$$t_{\text{degen}}(\theta) = \frac{1}{\phi_r(\theta)} \left(\log \left(\frac{\alpha B_3}{(\beta B_2 + \eta e^{b_2 \theta}) f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)} \theta \right) - (b_3 - b_2) \theta \right), \quad (9)$$

252 inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate profile,

$$\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta) = \frac{1}{t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)} \left(\log \left(\frac{\alpha B_3}{(\beta B_2 + \eta e^{b_2 \theta}) f_{\text{crit}}} \theta \right) - (b_3 - b_2) \theta \right), \quad (10)$$

253 and inverse TF threshold concentration profile,

$$f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta) = \frac{\alpha B_3}{(\beta B_2 + \eta e^{b_2 \theta})} \theta e^{-((b_3 - b_2)\theta + \phi_r t_{\text{degen}}(\theta))}. \quad (11)$$

254 These equations reveal how the inverses, $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$, are influenced by our choices for fixed
255 values of f_{crit} and ϕ_r , respectively. As can be seen from Eqs. (7) and (10), $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ is inversely and
256 monotonically related to f_{crit} , such that as f_{crit} increases, $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ decreases. Similarly, $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ and ϕ_r
257 are inversely and monotonically related in Eqs. (8) and (11), such that as ϕ_r increases, $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ decreases.
258 Lastly, as would be expected intuitively, $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$, $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ all increase monotonically with
259 increasing TF production, α , and decrease monotonically with increasing TF consumption, β , and TF
260 decay η (Eqs. (6)–(8) and (9)–(11)).

261 2.3.2 Numerical Inverse

263 The numerical inverse is calculated by repeatedly solving the forward problem (Eqs. (1)–(5)) for different
264 values of the input ($\phi_r(\theta)$ or $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)$), with the aim of converging upon the inverse ($\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ or $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$).
265 To find $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ we use the Matlab routine `fminsearch` (which uses a simplex search method), while to
266 obtain $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ the Matlab routine `patternsearch` (which uses an adaptive mesh technique) was found to
267 be more effective. In both cases the objective function (the quantity we are seeking to minimise) was taken
268 as the sum of squares of the difference between the target cone degeneration profile, $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$, and the
269 contour described by $p_c(\theta, t)/\tilde{p}_c(\theta) = 0.99$ (along which cone degeneration is deemed to have initiated).
270 Eqs. (1)–(5) were solved at each iteration as described in the Numerical Solutions section. Numerical
271 inverses were calculated only at those locations (eccentricities) where the analytical inverse failed to
272 generate a $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$ profile matching the target profile, the analytical inverse being assumed to hold at all
273 other eccentricities.

3 RESULTS

274 We begin by calculating the cone degeneration profiles, $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$, in the case where both the rate of
275 mutation induced rod degeneration, ϕ_r , and the TF threshold concentration, f_{crit} , are spatially uniform
276 (or piecewise constant). We set the standard value for $\phi_r = 7.33 \times 10^{-2}$ and consider the subcases (i)
277 $f_{\text{crit}} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ for $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$ (Fig. 4A), and (ii) $f_{\text{crit}} = 0.3$ for $\theta > 0.13$ while $f_{\text{crit}} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ for
278 $\theta \leq 0.13$ (Fig. 4B), as were explored in Roberts (2022). These subcases correspond to the situation in
279 which the TF threshold concentration lies beneath the minimum healthy TF value at all retinal locations
280 (i), and the situation in which foveal cones are afforded special protection compared to the rest of the
281 retina, such that they can withstand lower TF concentrations (ii). For notational simplicity, we shall refer
282 to subcase (ii) simply as $f_{\text{crit}} = 0.3$ in what follows. As with Figs. 6–9, we consider both Scaling 1 and
283 Scaling 2 (see Inverse Problem) on the rate of TF production by rods, α , and the rate of TF consumption by
284 cones, β , calculating both analytical and numerical solutions.

285 Cone degeneration initiates at the fovea ($\theta = 0$) in Fig. 4A and at $\theta = 0.13$ in Fig. 4B, spreading
286 peripherally (rightwards) in both cases, while degeneration also initiates at the ora serrata ($\theta = 1$) under
287 Scaling 2 in both Fig. 4A and Fig. 4B, spreading centrally. Degeneration occurs earlier in Fig. 4B than
288 in Fig. 4A and earlier for Scaling 2 than for Scaling 1 (except near the fovea in Fig. 4A). Numerical and
289 analytical solutions agree well, only diverging close to the fovea in Fig. 4A, where the analytical solution
290 breaks down. None of these patterns of degeneration match those seen *in vivo* (see Fig. 2).

291 In Figs. 6–9 we calculate the $\phi_r(\theta) = \phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta) = f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ profiles required to qualitatively
292 replicate the cone degeneration profiles, $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$, observed *in vivo* (Fig. 5), by solving the associated
293 inverse problems (see Inverse Problem). As noted in the Inverse Problem section, when searching for
294 $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$, we hold the TF threshold concentration constant at $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta) = f_{\text{crit}} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$, while, when
295 searching for $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$, we hold the rate of mutation-induced rod loss constant at $\phi_r(\theta) = \phi_r = 7.33 \times$
296 10^{-2} . Analytical inverses are plotted across the domain ($0 \leq \theta \leq 1$), while numerical inverses are
297 calculated and plotted only at those locations (eccentricities) where the analytical inverse fails to generate a
298 $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$ profile matching the target profile (as determined by visual inspection, the $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$ and target
299 profiles being visually indistinguishable outside of these regions).

300 In Fig. 6 we calculate inverses for a Uniform degeneration profile. While this pattern is not typically
301 observed in humans, we consider this case as a point of comparison with the non-uniform patterns explored
302 in Figs. 7–9. Both inverses, $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$, are monotone increasing for Scaling 1, and increase
303 initially for Scaling 2 before reaching a maximum and decreasing toward the ora serrata (at $\theta = 1$).
304 Consequently, Scaling 1 and 2 inverses, while close near the fovea ($\theta = 0$), diverge toward the ora serrata,
305 this effect being more prominent for $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$. The inverse profiles have a similar shape to the $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$
306 profiles in Fig. 4 (see Discussion). Numerical solutions reveal lower values of the inverses near the fovea,
307 where the analytical approximations break down.

308 Inverses for linear (Fig. 7A and B), concave up (quadratic) (Fig. 7C and D) and concave down (quadratic)
309 (Fig. 7E and F) Pattern 1A degeneration profiles are shown in Fig. 7. Inverses are monotone increasing
310 functions for both Scalings 1 and 2 in Fig. 7A,B,E and F, and for Scaling 1 in Fig. 7C and D, while the
311 inverses increase initially for Scaling 2 before reaching a maximum and decreasing toward the ora serrata in
312 Fig. 7C and D. Numerical solutions reveal lower values of the inverses near the fovea, where the analytical
313 approximations break down.

314 Fig. 8 shows inverses for linear (Fig. 8A and B), quadratic (Fig. 8C and D) and exponential (Fig. 8E and
315 F) Pattern 1B degeneration profiles. Inverses resemble vertically flipped versions of the $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$ profiles
316 in Fig. 5C (see Discussion). Numerical solutions reveal lower values of the inverses near the fovea, where
317 the analytical approximations break down, and higher values in some regions away from the fovea in Fig.
318 8A–D. The discontinuities in the linear and quadratic cases are biologically unrealistic, though consistent
319 with the idealised qualitative target cone degeneration patterns in Fig. 5C.

320 In Fig. 9 we calculate inverses for linear 1 (Fig. 9A and B), linear 2 (Fig. 9C and D), quadratic (Fig.
321 9E and F) and cubic (Fig. 9G and H) Pattern 3 degeneration profiles. Inverses resemble vertically flipped
322 versions of the $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$ profiles in Fig. 5D (see Discussion). Numerical solutions reveal lower values of
323 the inverses near the fovea, where the analytical approximations break down, and higher values in some
324 regions away from the fovea in Fig. 9C–F and H. Similarly to Fig. 8, the discontinuities in the linear 2
325 and quadratic cases are biologically unrealistic, though consistent with the idealised qualitative target cone
326 degeneration patterns in Fig. 5D.

327 Lastly, in Fig. 10, we show simulation results of proportional cone loss for analytical and numerical
328 $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$, for Uniform (Scaling 1, Fig. 10A–D), concave up Pattern 1A (Scaling 1, Fig.
329 10E–H), linear Pattern 1B (Scaling 2, Fig. 10I–L) and quadratic Pattern 3 (Scaling 2, Fig. 10M–P)
330 target degeneration profiles. Cone degeneration profiles generally show good agreement with the target
331 $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$ profiles. There is some divergence from $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$ for the analytical inverses near the fovea and at
332 discontinuous or nonsmooth portions of $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$; this is mostly corrected by the numerical inverses. This
333 correction is not perfect near the centre of the fovea, where cones still degenerate earlier than the target

334 profiles. This occurs because it is necessary to replace the Heaviside step function in $\lambda_2(f)$ (see Eqn. (3))
335 with a hyperbolic tanh function to satisfy the smoothness requirements for the numerical solver, with the
336 result that the initiation of cone degeneration is sensitive to the low TF concentrations ($f(\theta, t) < 10^{-4}$) in
337 that region.

4 DISCUSSION

338 The spatio-temporal patterns of retinal degeneration observed in human retinitis pigmentosa (RP) are
339 well characterised; however, the mechanistic explanation for these patterns has yet to be conclusively
340 determined. In this paper, we have formulated a one-dimensional (1D) reaction-diffusion partial differential
341 equation (PDE) model (modified from Roberts, 2022) to predict RP progression under the trophic factor
342 (TF) hypothesis. Using this model, we solved inverse problems to determine the rate of mutation-induced
343 rod loss profiles, $\phi_r(\theta) = \phi_{r_{inv}}(\theta)$, and TF threshold concentration profiles, $f_{crit}(\theta) = f_{crit_{inv}}(\theta)$, that
344 would be required to generate spatio-temporal patterns of cone degeneration qualitatively resembling
345 those observed *in vivo*, were the TF mechanism solely responsible for RP progression. In reality, multiple
346 mechanisms (including oxidative damage and metabolic dysregulation, Punzo et al., 2009, 2012; Stone
347 et al., 1999; Travis et al., 1991; Valter et al., 1998) likely operate in tandem to drive the initiation and
348 propagation of retinal degeneration in RP. By using mathematics to isolate the TF mechanism, in a way
349 that would be impossible to achieve experimentally, we are able to determine the conditions under which
350 the TF mechanism alone would recapitulate known phenotypes. Having identified these conditions, this
351 paves the way for future biomedical and experimental studies to test our predictions.

352 Other mechanisms may give rise to spatio-temporal patterns of retinal degeneration different from those
353 predicted for the TF mechanism and may do so using fewer assumptions. For example, our previous
354 work on oxygen toxicity in RP demonstrated that this mechanism can replicate visual field loss Pattern 1
355 (especially 1B) and the late far-peripheral degeneration stage of Pattern 3, without imposing heterogeneities
356 on the rod decay rate or photoreceptor susceptibility to oxygen toxicity (Roberts et al., 2017, 2018). Further,
357 we hypothesise that the toxic substance hypothesis (in which dying rods release a chemical which kills
358 neighbouring photoreceptors) is best able to explain the early mid-peripheral loss of photoreceptors in
359 Patterns 2 and 3, given the high density of rods in this region. In future work, we will explore the toxic
360 substance and other hypotheses, ultimately combining them together in a more comprehensive modelling
361 framework, aimed at explaining and predicting all patterns of retinal degeneration in RP.

362 Spatially uniform $\phi_r(\theta)$ and $f_{crit}(\theta)$ profiles fail to replicate any of the *in vivo* patterns of degeneration
363 (Fig. 4), showing that heterogenous profiles are required, all else being equal. Throughout this paper we
364 have considered two scalings on the rate of TF production by rods, α , and the rate of TF consumption by
365 cones, β (denoted as Scalings 1 and 2, see the Inverse Problem section for details). Under Scaling 1, the
366 rod:cone ratio (Fig. 3B) dominates the model behaviour (see Eqn. (6)), leading to a monotone, central to
367 peripheral pattern of degeneration, while under Scaling 2, the trophic factor decay term, ηf , enters the
368 dominant balance (see Eqn. (9)), such that degeneration initiates at both the fovea and (later) at the ora
369 serrata, the degenerative fronts meeting in the mid-/far-periphery (Fig. 4).

370 As discussed in the Inverse Problem section, the rate of mutation-induced rod loss, $\phi_r(\theta)$, is known to be
371 spatially heterogeneous in humans with RP (Milam et al., 1998). The $\phi_r(\theta)$ profile predicted for Pattern 3
372 is consistent with the preferential loss of rods in the mid-peripheral retina noted by Milam et al. (1998) for
373 human RP. A more extensive biomedical investigation is required to characterise quantitatively the diversity
374 of $\phi_r(\theta)$ profiles across individuals and for different mutations. This would make it possible to determine if
375 the $\phi_r(\theta)$ profiles predicted by our model for cone degeneration Patterns 1A and 1B are realised in human

376 RP patients with those cone degeneration patterns. To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to suggest
377 that the intrinsic susceptibility of cones to RdCVF deprivation, characterised in our models by the TF
378 threshold concentration, $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)$, may vary across the retina. Assuming it does vary, what might account for
379 this phenomenon? There is a precedent for special protection being provided to localised parts of the retina.
380 For example, experiments in mice have found that production of basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) and
381 glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) is permanently upregulated along the retinal edges, at the ora serrata
382 and optic disc, to protect against elevated stress in these regions (Mervin and Stone, 2002; Stone et al.,
383 2005). Similarly, in the human retina, rods (though not cones) contain bFGF, with a concentration gradient
384 increasing towards the periphery (Li et al., 1997, potentially explaining the relative sparing of rods often
385 observed at the far-periphery). By analogy, we speculate that, in the human retina, cone protective factors
386 may be upregulated at the fovea to compensate for the low RdCVF concentrations in that region, lowering
387 the local value of $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)$. This hypothesis awaits experimental confirmation.

388 We solved the inverse functions, $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$, both analytically (algebraically) and numeri-
389 cally (computationally). Analytical solutions are approximations; however, they have the advantage of
390 being easier to compute (increasing their utility for biomedical researchers) and provide a more intuitive
391 understanding of model behaviour, while numerical solutions are more accurate, though computationally
392 expensive. We calculated the inverses for a range of target cone degeneration profiles, consisting of a
393 Uniform profile and profiles which qualitatively replicate those found *in vivo*: Pattern 1A, Pattern 1B and
394 Pattern 3 (Pattern 2 being inaccessible to a 1D model; see Table 3 and Fig. 5).

395 The shapes of the inverse functions are determined partly by the rod and cone distributions, $\tilde{p}_r(\theta)$ and
396 $\tilde{p}_c(\theta)$, and partly by the target cone degeneration profile, $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$ (see Eqs. (7), (8), (10) and (11)). As
397 such, in the Uniform case (Fig. 6), the Scaling 1 inverse profiles take a similar shape to the rod:cone ratio
398 (Fig. 3B), the inverses being lower towards the fovea to compensate for the smaller rod:cone ratio and hence
399 lower supply of TF to each cone. The Scaling 2 inverse profiles follow a similar trend but decrease toward
400 the ora serrata after peaking in the mid-/far-periphery due to the greater influence of the trophic factor
401 decay term under this scaling. Interestingly, the shapes of these inverse profiles bear a striking resemblance
402 to the cone degeneration profiles for spatially uniform $\phi_r(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)$ (Fig. 4). This is because lower
403 values of the inverses are required to delay degeneration, in those regions where cones would otherwise
404 degenerate earlier, to achieve a uniform degeneration profile. The inverse functions resemble vertically
405 flipped versions of the target cone degeneration profiles for Patterns 1A, 1B and 3 (Figs. 7–9), this being
406 more apparent for Patterns 1B and 3 due to their more distinctive shapes. This makes sense since lower
407 inverse values are required for later degeneration times. Scaling 2 inverses typically lie below Scaling 1
408 inverses, compensating for the fact that degeneration generally occurs earlier under Scaling 2 than under
409 Scaling 1 for any given $\phi_r(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)$.

410 Analytical inverses give rise to cone degeneration profiles that accurately match the target cone degenera-
411 tion profiles, except near the fovea (centred at $\theta = 0$, where the validity of the analytical approximation
412 breaks down) and where the target $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$ profile is nonsmooth or discontinuous (i.e. linear and quadratic
413 Pattern 1B, and linear 1, linear 2 and quadratic Pattern 3; see Fig. 10 for examples). Numerical inverses
414 improve accuracy in these regions, consistently taking lower values near the fovea, delaying degeneration
415 where it occurs prematurely under the analytical approximation.

416 We have assumed throughout this study that at least one of $\phi_r(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}}(\theta)$ is spatially uniform. It is
417 possible, however, that both vary spatially. In this case there are no unique inverses; however, if the profile
418 for one of these functions could be measured experimentally, then the inverse problem for the remaining
419 function could be solved as in this paper.

420 This work could be extended both experimentally and theoretically. Experimental and biomedical studies
421 could measure how the rate of mutation-induced rod loss and TF threshold concentration vary with location
422 in the retina, noting the spatio-temporal pattern of cone degeneration and comparing with the inverse
423 $\phi_{r_{inv}}(\theta)$ and $f_{crit_{inv}}(\theta)$ profiles predicted by our models. Curcio et al. (1993) have previously measured
424 variation in the rate of rod loss in normal (non-RP) human retinas (where rods degenerated most rapidly in
425 the central retina); a similar approach could be taken to quantify the rate of rod loss in human RP retinas.
426 The parameter f_{crit} is less straightforward to measure. Léveillard et al. (2004) incubated cone-enriched
427 primary cultures from chicken embryos with glutathione S-transferase-RdCVF (GST-RdCVF) fusion
428 proteins, doubling the number of living cells per plate compared with GST alone. If experiments of this
429 type could be repeated for a range of controlled RdCVF concentrations, then the value of f_{crit} could be
430 identified. Determining the spatial variation of $f_{crit}(\theta)$ in a foveated human-like retina may not be possible
431 presently; however, the recent development of retinal organoids provides promising steps in this direction
432 (Fathi et al., 2021; O'Hara-Wright and Gonzalez-Cordero, 2020). If organoids could be developed with a
433 specialised macular region, mirroring that found *in vivo*, then the minimum RdCVF concentration required
434 to maintain cones in health could theoretically be tested at a variety of locations. Further, the distribution
435 of RdCVF, predicted in our models, could theoretically be measured in post-mortem human eyes using
436 fluorescent immunohistochemistry, as was done for the protein neuroglobin by Ostojic et al. (2008) and
437 Rajendram and Rao (2007), and perhaps also fluorescent immunocytochemistry as was done for bFGF
438 by Li et al. (1997). In particular, it would be interesting to see if RdCVF concentration varies with retinal
439 eccentricity as starkly as our model predicts, with extremely low levels in the fovea.

440 In future work, we will extend our mathematical model to two spatial dimensions, accounting for variation
441 in the azimuthal/circumferential dimension (allowing us to capture radially asymmetric aspects of visual
442 field loss Patterns 2 and 3, and to account for azimuthal variation in the rod and cone distributions), and
443 use quantitative target cone degeneration patterns derived from SD-OCT imaging of RP patients (e.g. as in
444 Escher et al., 2012). We will also adapt the model to consider animal retinas for which the photoreceptor
445 distribution has been well characterised (e.g. rats, mice and pigs, Chandler et al., 1999; Gaillard et al.,
446 2009; Ortín-Martínez et al., 2014).

447 In conclusion, we have formulated and solved a mathematical inverse problem to determine the rate of
448 mutation-induced rod loss and TF threshold concentration profiles required to explain the spatio-temporal
449 patterns of retinal degeneration observed in human RP. Inverse profiles were calculated for a set of
450 qualitatively distinct degeneration patterns, achieving a close match with the target cone degeneration
451 profiles. Predicted inverse profiles await future experimental verification.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

452 The author declares that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
453 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

454 PAR: conceptualisation, methodology, software, validation, formal analysis, investigation, data curation,
455 writing — original draft, writing — review and editing, visualisation, and project administration.

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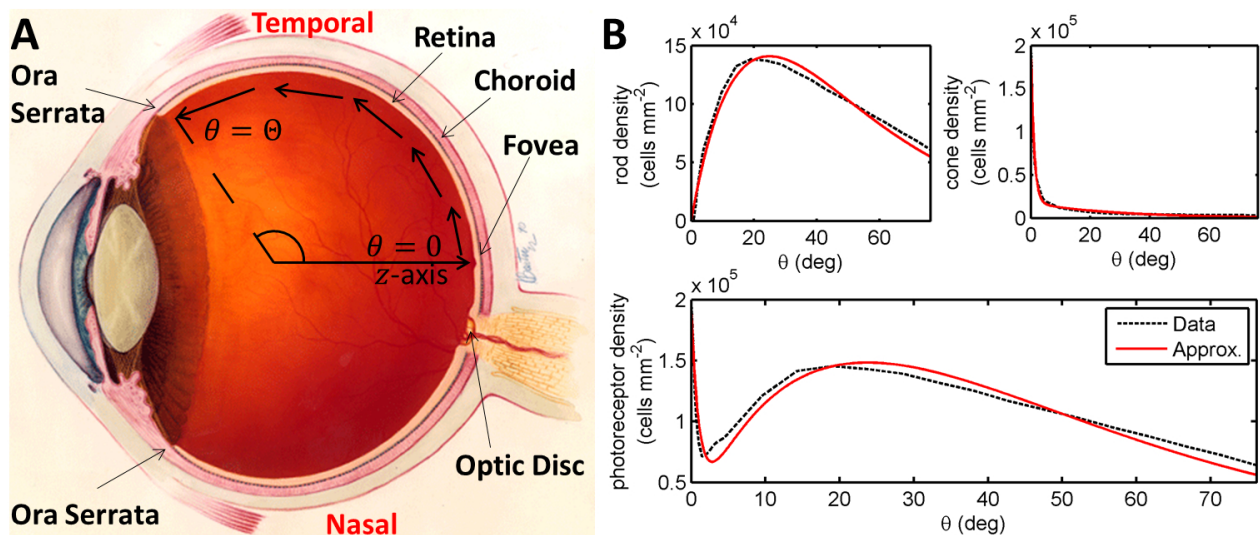


Figure 1. Diagrams of the human eye and retinal photoreceptor distribution (reproduced, with permission, from Roberts et al., 2017). **(A)** Diagram of the (right) human eye, viewed in the transverse plane, illustrating the mathematical model geometry. The model is posed on a domain spanning the region between the foveal centre, at $\theta = 0$, and the ora serrata, at $\theta = \Theta$, along the temporal horizontal meridian, where θ measures the eccentricity. Figure originally reproduced, with modifications, from <http://www.nei.nih.gov/health/coloboma/coloboma.asp>, courtesy: National Eye Institute, National Institutes of Health (NEI/NIH). **(B)** Measured and fitted photoreceptor profiles, along the temporal horizontal meridian, in the human retina. Cone profile: $\tilde{p}_c(\theta) = B_1 e^{-b_1 \theta} + B_2 e^{-b_2 \theta}$, and rod profile: $\tilde{p}_r(\theta) = B_3 \theta e^{-b_3 \theta}$ (see Table 2 for dimensionless parameter values). The photoreceptor profile is the sum of the rod and cone profiles ($\tilde{p}_r(\theta) + \tilde{p}_c(\theta)$). Experimental data provided by Curcio and published in Curcio et al. (1990).

FIGURES & TABLES

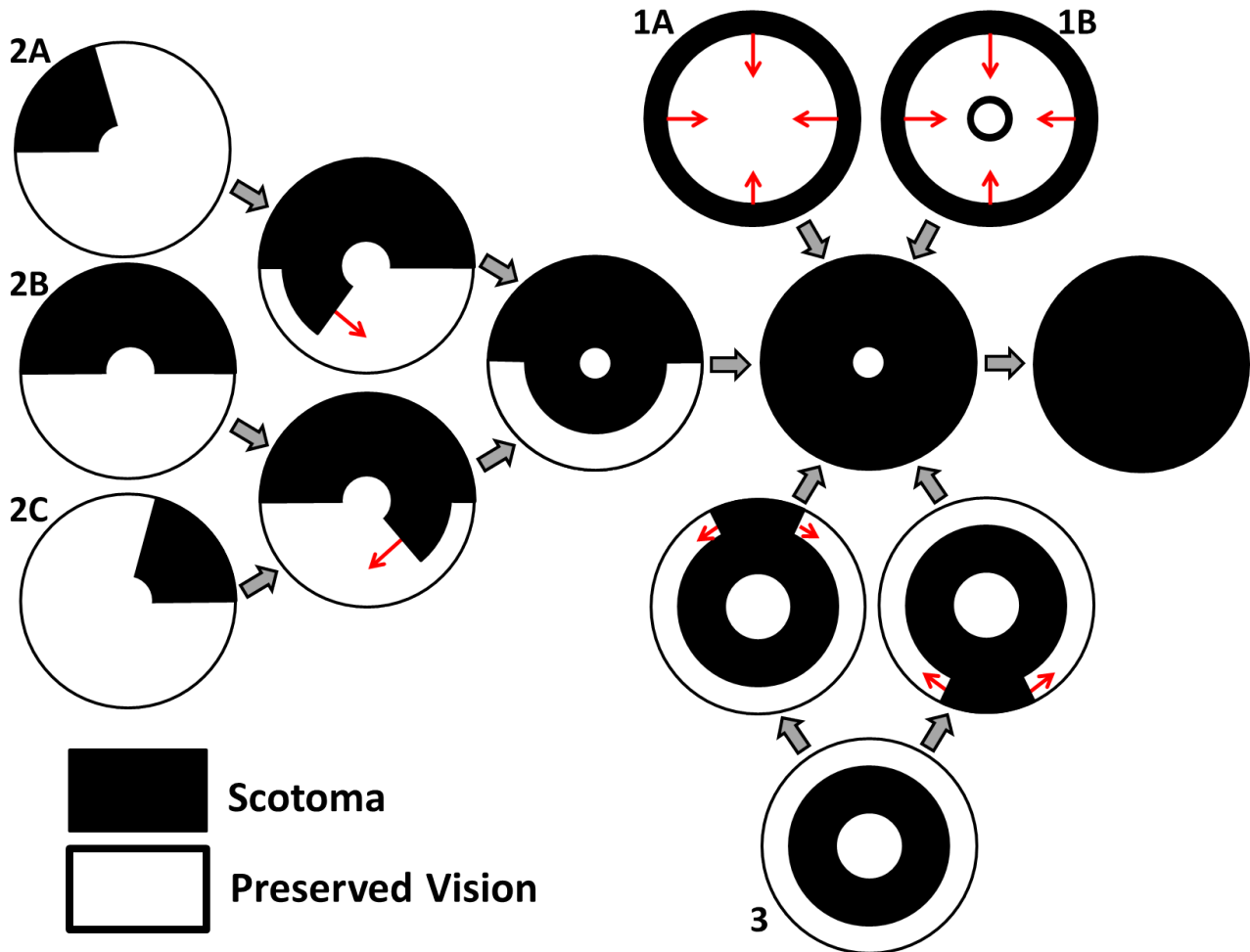


Figure 2. Characteristic patterns of visual field loss in human RP (reproduced, with permission, from Roberts et al., 2018). Visual field loss patterns can be classified into three cases and six subcases (classification system described in Grover et al., 1998). Large grey arrows indicate transitions between stages of visual field loss and small red arrows indicate the direction of scotoma (blind spot) propagation. See text for details.

Table 1. Variables employed in the non-dimensional mathematical model (Eqs. (1)–(5)).

Variable	Description
θ	Eccentricity
t	Time
$f(\theta, t)$	Trophic factor concentration
$p_r(\theta, t)$	Rod density
$p_c(\theta, t)$	Cone density

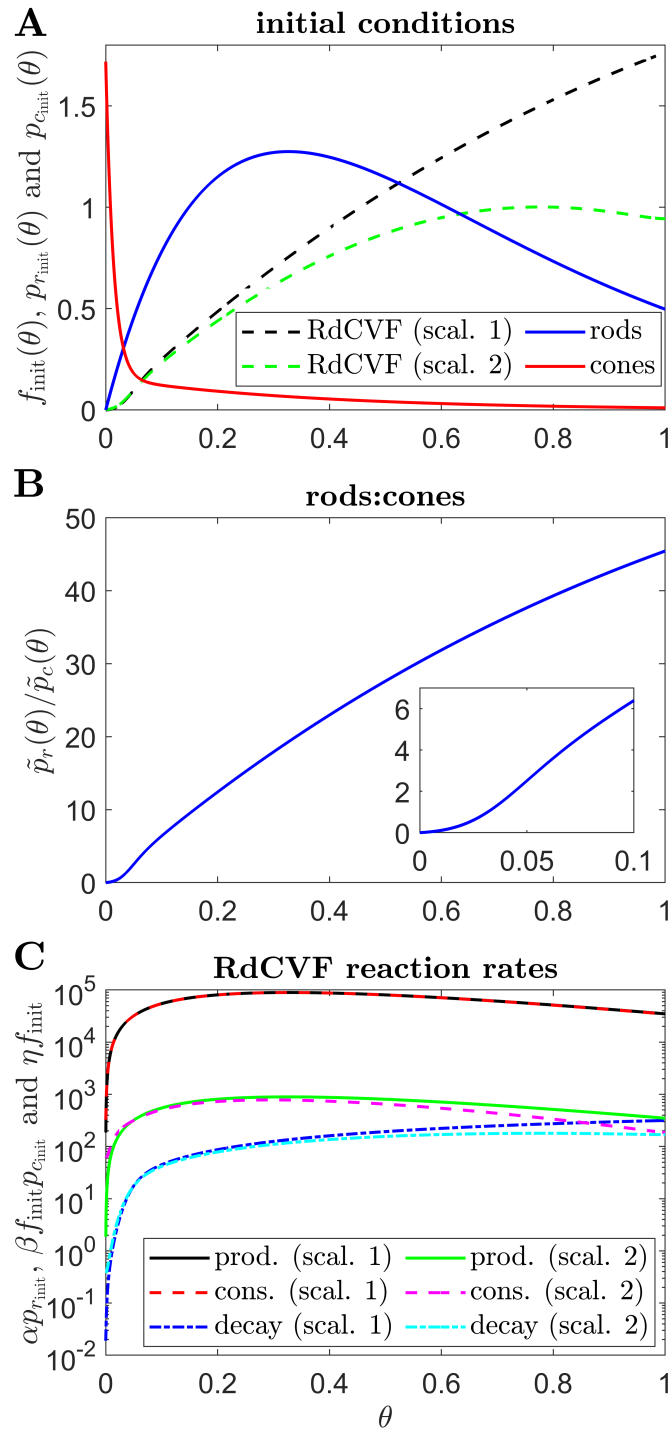


Figure 3. Initial conditions, ratio of rods to cones and RdCVF reaction rates. **(A)** initial conditions used in all simulations, consisting of healthy rod and cone profiles and the corresponding RdCVF profiles under Scalings 1 and 2 (the legend applies to **(A)** only). **(B)** variation in the healthy rod:cone ratio, $\tilde{p}_r(\theta)/\tilde{p}_c(\theta)$, with eccentricity. **(C)** RdCVF production, consumption and decay rates under Scalings 1 and 2 (Eqn. (1), the legend applies to **(C)** only). To obtain $f_{\text{init}}(\theta)$ in **(A)** and **(C)**, Eqs. (1) and (4) were solved at steady-state using the finite difference method, with 4001 mesh points, where $p_r(\theta) = p_{r_{\text{init}}}(\theta)$ and $p_c(\theta) = p_{c_{\text{init}}}(\theta)$. Under Scaling 1, $\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^4$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^6$, while under Scaling 2, $\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^2$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^4$. Remaining parameter values as in Table 2.

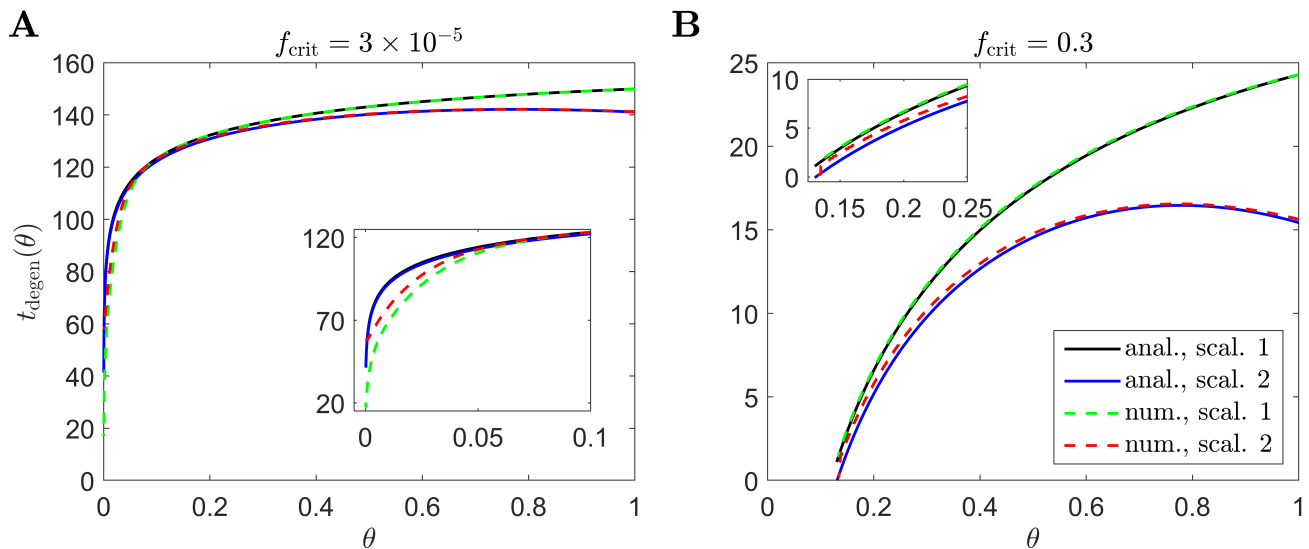


Figure 4. Cone degeneration profiles. Graphs show the time, $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$, at which cones degenerate due to RdCVF deprivation, with constant rate of mutation-induced rod degeneration, $\phi_r = 7.33 \times 10^{-2}$, and constant TF threshold concentrations: $f_{\text{crit}} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ (**A**) and $f_{\text{crit}} = 0.3$ (**B**). The solid black and dashed green curves correspond to Scaling 1 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^4$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^6$), while the solid blue and dashed red curves correspond to Scaling 2 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^2$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^4$). The black and blue solid curves are analytical approximations, obtained by plotting Eqs. (6) and (9) respectively, while the green and red dashed curves are $p_c(\theta, t)/\tilde{p}_c(\theta) = 0.99$ contours, obtained by solving Eqs. (1)–(5) using the method of lines with 401 mesh points. (**A**) simulation spans ~ 17.7 years in dimensional variables; (**B**) simulation spans ~ 2.8 years in dimensional variables. Insets show magnified portions of each graph. Cone degeneration initiates at the fovea ($\theta = 0$) in (**A**) and at $\theta = 0.13$ in (**B**), spreading peripherally (rightwards) in both cases. Degeneration occurs earlier in (**B**) than in (**A**) and for Scaling 2 than for Scaling 1 (except near the fovea in (**A**)). Remaining parameter values as in Table 2.

Table 2. Parameters employed in the non-dimensional mathematical model (Eqs. (1)–(5)). Values are given to three significant figures (radians are dimensionless).

Parameter	Description	Value
Θ	Eccentricity of the ora serrata	1.33 rad
D_f	Trophic factor diffusivity	0.237
α	Rate of trophic factor production by rods	7.01×10^2 or 7.01×10^4
β	Rate of trophic factor consumption by cones	1.79×10^4 or 1.79×10^6
η	Rate of trophic factor decay	1.79×10^2
ϕ_r	Rate of mutation-induced rod degeneration	7.33×10^{-2}
f_{crit}	Trophic factor threshold concentration	3×10^{-5} or 0.3
B_1	Cone profile parameter	1.56
B_2	Cone profile parameter	0.158
B_3	Rod profile parameter	10.6
b_1	Cone profile parameter	71.8
b_2	Cone profile parameter	2.67
b_3	Rod profile parameter	3.06

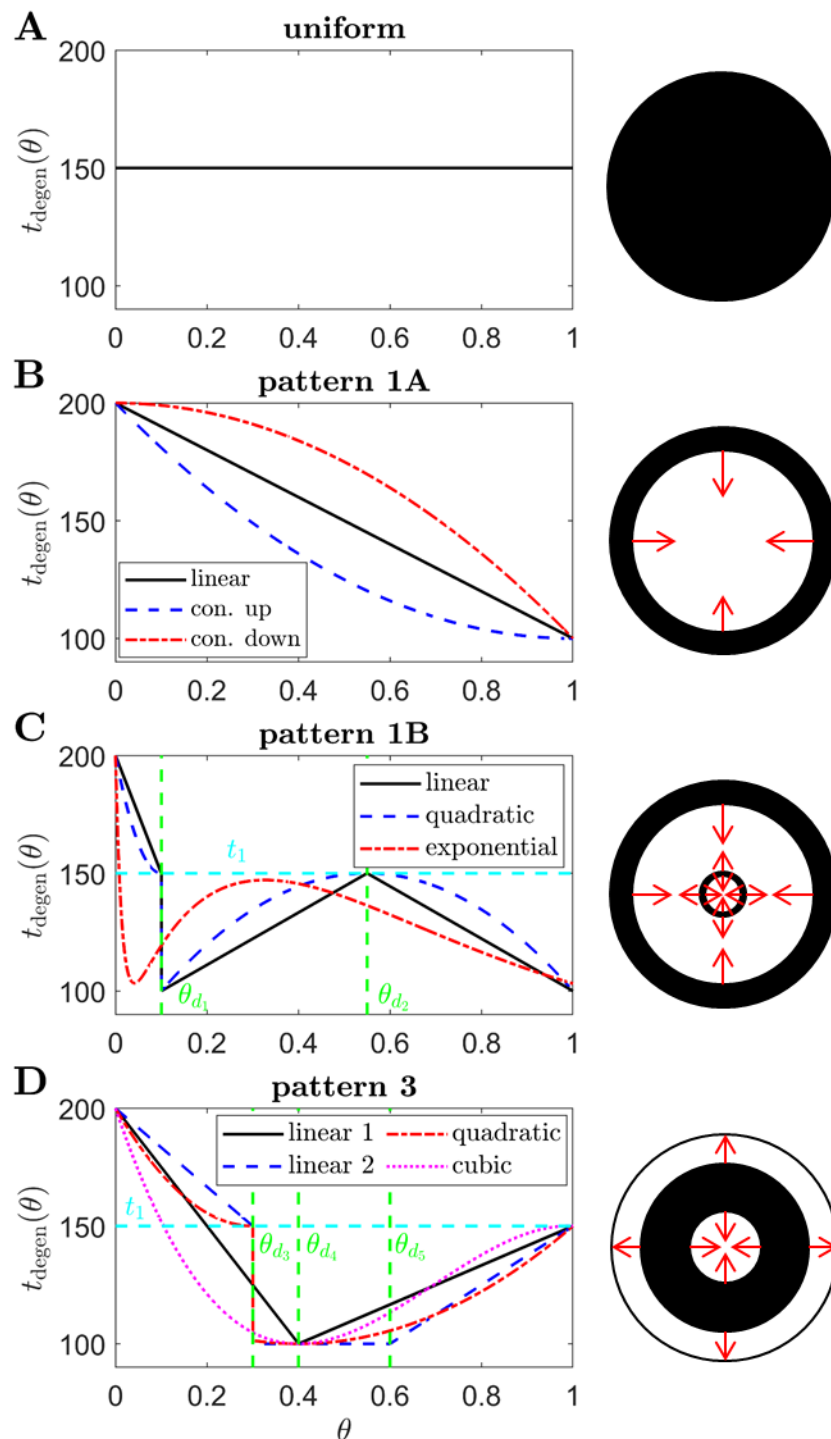


Figure 5. Target cone degeneration profiles. Panels (left) show cone degeneration profiles, $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$, qualitatively replicating typical spatio-temporal patterns of visual field loss in RP: (A) Uniform, (B) Pattern 1A, (C) Pattern 1B and (D) Pattern 3. Visual field loss patterns directly correspond to cone degeneration patterns in these radially symmetric cases. We seek to replicate these patterns by finding appropriate $\phi_{r_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ and $f_{\text{crit}_{\text{inv}}}(\theta)$ profiles in Figs. 6–9. Diagrams on the right show the corresponding 2D patterns of visual field loss — white regions: preserved vision, black regions: scotomas (blind spots), and red arrows: direction of scotoma propagation. Parameters: $t_0 = 100$ (~ 11.0 years), $t_1 = 150$ (~ 16.6 years), $t_2 = 200$ (~ 22.1 years), $\theta_{d_1} = 0.1$ (~ 7.6 degrees), $\theta_{d_2} = 0.55$ (~ 41.9 degrees), $\theta_{d_3} = 0.3$ (~ 22.9 degrees), $\theta_{d_4} = 0.4$ (~ 30.5 degrees) and $\theta_{d_5} = 0.6$ (~ 45.7 degrees). Cone degeneration profile formulas and parameters are given in Table 3. Remaining parameter values as in Table 2.

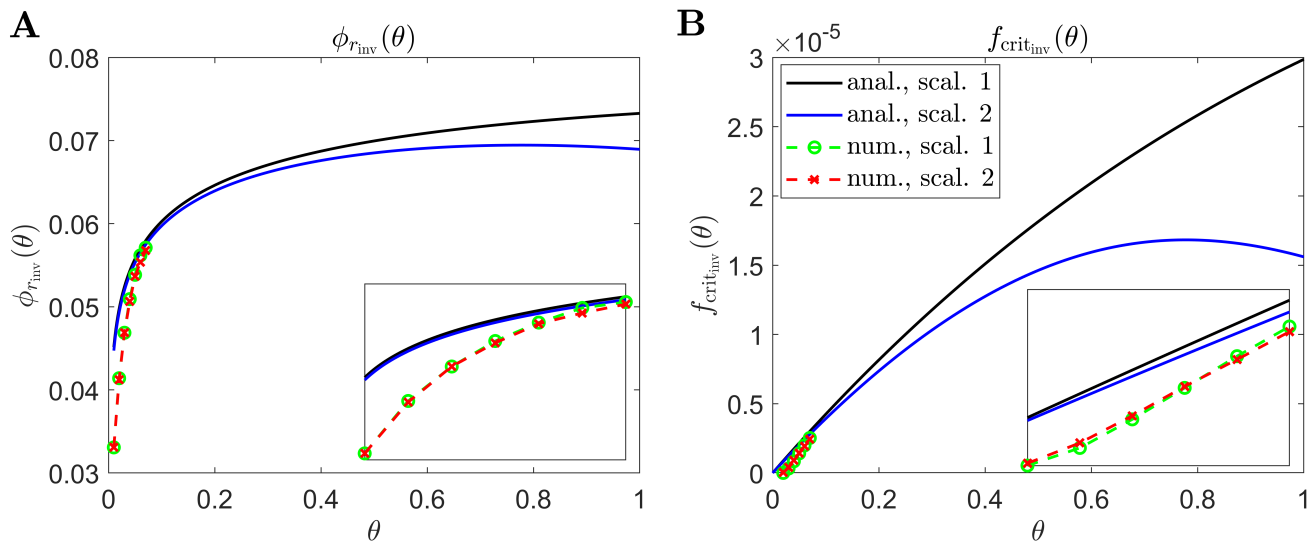


Figure 6. Inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate and TF threshold concentration — Uniform target cone degeneration profile. **(A)** inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate, $\phi_{r_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($f_{crit} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$); **(B)** inverse TF threshold concentration, $f_{crit_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($\phi_r = 7.33 \times 10^{-2}$). The solid black and dashed green curves correspond to Scaling 1 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^4$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^6$), while the solid blue and dashed red curves correspond to Scaling 2 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^2$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^4$). The black and blue solid curves are analytical approximations to the inverses, obtained by plotting Eqs. (7) and (10) respectively **(A)**, and Eqs. (8) and (11) respectively **(B)**. The green and red dashed curves are numerical inverses, obtained by using the Matlab routines `fminsearch` **(A)** and `patternsearch` **(B)** to calculate the ϕ_r and f_{crit} profiles for which the contour described by $p_c(\theta, t)/\tilde{p}_c(\theta) = 0.99$ matches the target cone degeneration profile, $t_{degen}(\theta)$. Eqs. (1)–(5) were solved at each iteration using the method of lines, with 101 mesh points. Insets show magnified portions of each graph. Numerical inverses are calculated and plotted only at those locations (eccentricities) where the analytical inverse fails to generate a $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile matching the target profile. Inverses are monotone increasing for Scaling 1, and increase initially for Scaling 2 before reaching a maximum and decreasing toward the ora serrata ($\theta = 1$). Numerical solutions reveal lower values of the inverses near the fovea ($\theta = 0$) than the analytical approximations suggest. Cone degeneration profile formulas and parameters are given in Table 3. Remaining parameter values as in Table 2.

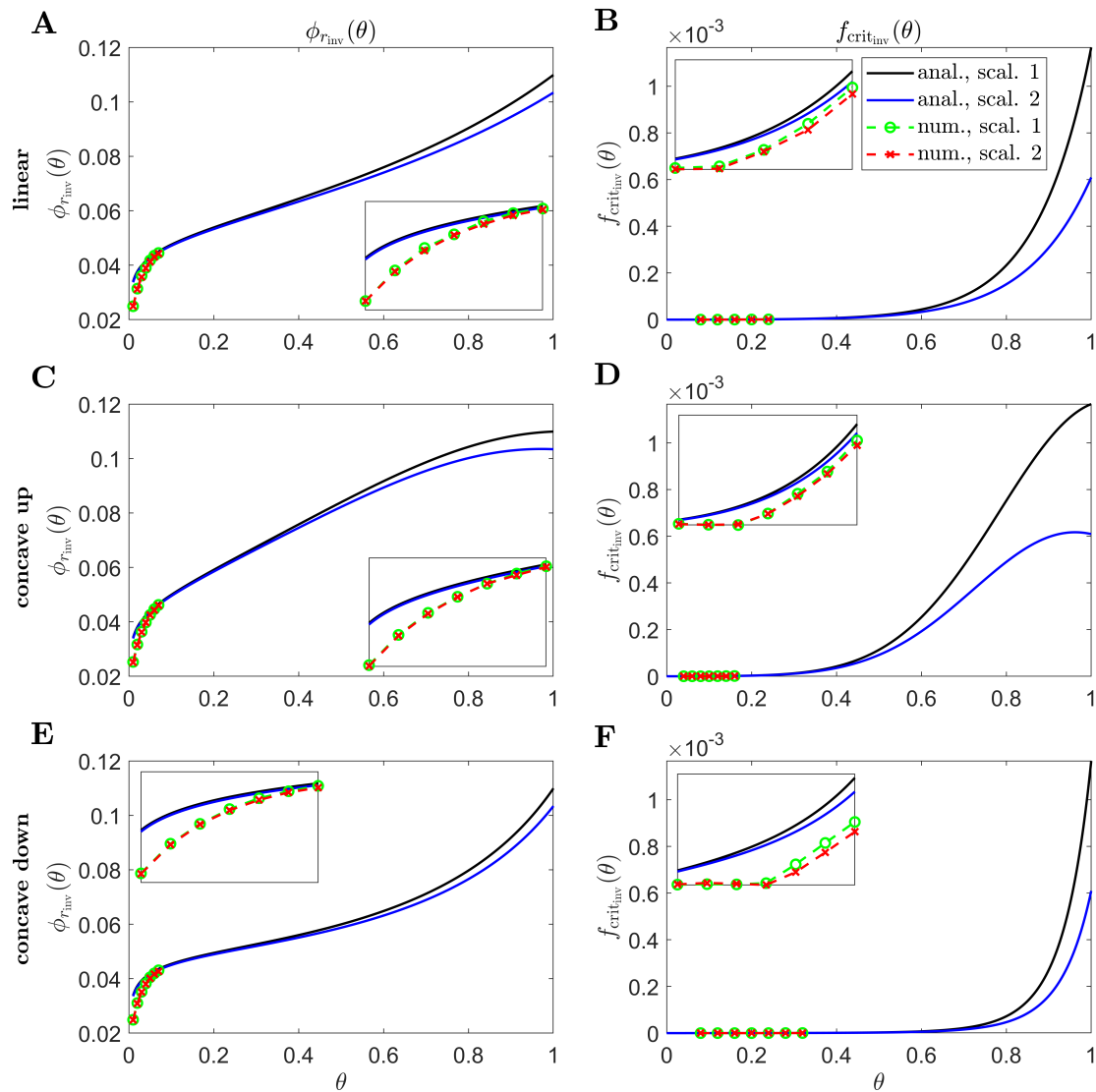


Figure 7. Inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate and TF threshold concentration — Pattern 1A target cone degeneration profiles. (A), (C) and (E) inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate, $\phi_{r_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($f_{crit} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$); (B), (D) and (F) inverse TF threshold concentration, $f_{crit_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($\phi_r = 7.33 \times 10^{-2}$). (A) and (B) linear target cone degeneration profile, $t_{degen}(\theta)$; (C) and (D) concave up quadratic $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile; (E) and (F) concave down quadratic $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile. The solid black and dashed green curves correspond to Scaling 1 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^4$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^6$), while the solid blue and dashed red curves correspond to Scaling 2 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^2$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^4$). The black and blue solid curves are analytical approximations to the inverses, obtained by plotting Eqs. (7) and (10) respectively (A), (C) and (E), and Eqs. (8) and (11) respectively (B), (D) and (F). The green and red dashed curves are numerical inverses, obtained by using the Matlab routines `fminsearch` (A), (C) and (E), and `patternsearch` (B), (D) and (F) to calculate the ϕ_r and f_{crit} profiles for which the contour described by $p_c(\theta, t)/\tilde{p}_c(\theta) = 0.99$ matches the target cone degeneration profile, $t_{degen}(\theta)$. Eqs. (1)–(5) were solved at each iteration using the method of lines, with 26, 51 or 101 mesh points. Insets show magnified portions of each graph. Numerical inverses are calculated and plotted only at those locations (eccentricities) where the analytical inverse fails to generate a $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile matching the target profile. Inverses are monotone increasing functions for both scalings in (A), (B), (E) and (F), and for Scaling 1 in (C) and (D), while the inverses increase initially for Scaling 2 before reaching a maximum and decreasing toward the ora serrata ($\theta = 1$) in (C) and (D). Numerical solutions reveal lower values of the inverses near the fovea ($\theta = 0$) than the analytical approximations suggest. Cone degeneration profile formulas and parameters are given in Table 3. Remaining parameter values as in Table 2.

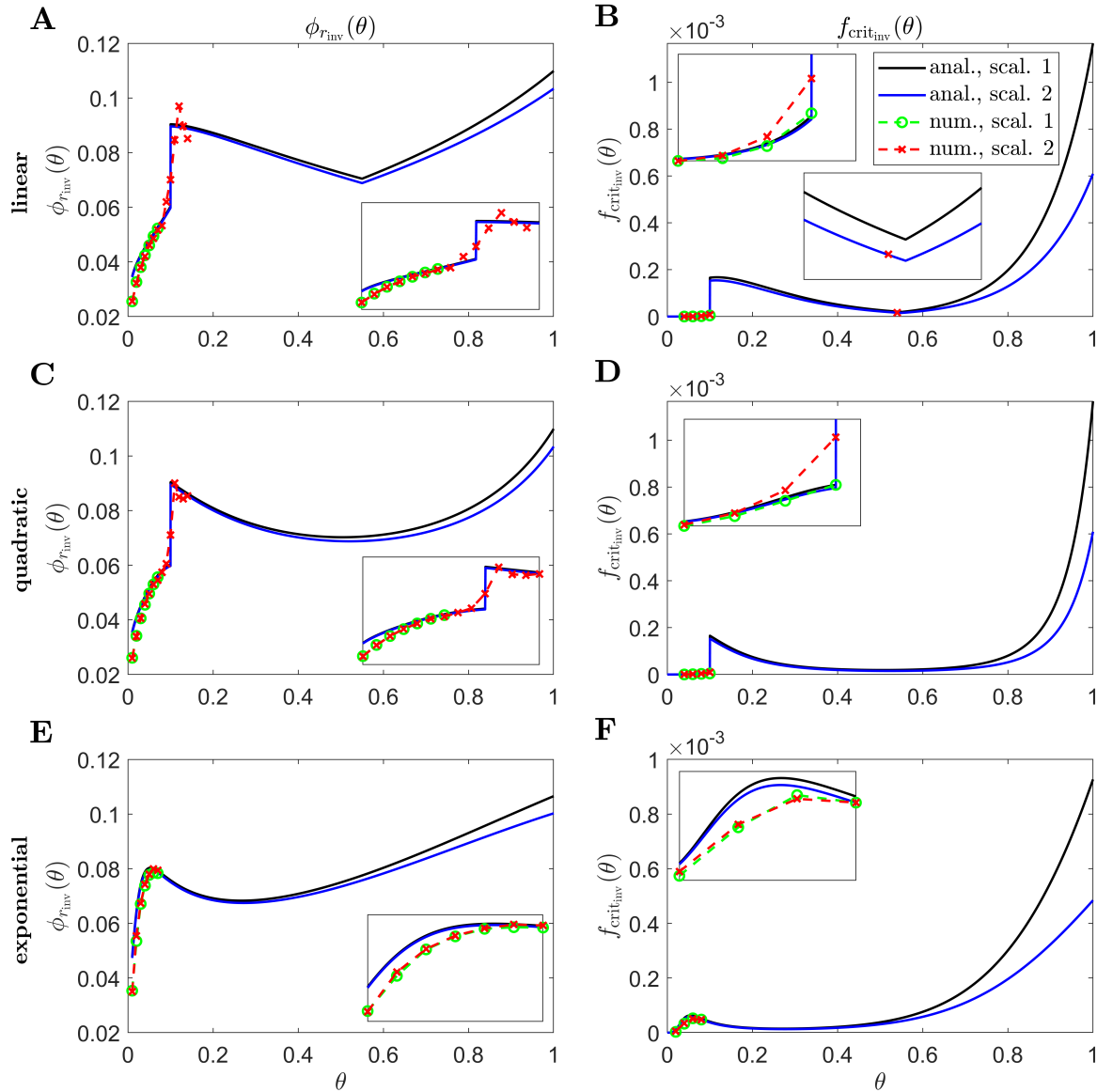


Figure 8. Inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate and TF threshold concentration — Pattern 1B target cone degeneration profiles. (A), (C) and (E) inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate, $\phi_{r_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($f_{crit} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$); (B), (D) and (F) inverse TF threshold concentration, $f_{crit_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($\phi_r = 7.33 \times 10^{-2}$). (A) and (B) linear target cone degeneration profile, $t_{degen}(\theta)$; (C) and (D) quadratic $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile; (E) and (F) exponential $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile. The solid black and dashed green curves correspond to Scaling 1 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^4$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^6$), while the solid blue and dashed red curves correspond to Scaling 2 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^2$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^4$). The black and blue solid curves are analytical approximations to the inverses, obtained by plotting Eqs. (7) and (10) respectively (A), (C) and (E), and Eqs. (8) and (11) respectively (B), (D) and (F). The green and red dashed curves are numerical inverses, obtained by using the Matlab routines `fminsearch` (A), (C) and (E), and `patternsearch` (B), (D) and (F) to calculate the ϕ_r and f_{crit} profiles for which the contour described by $p_c(\theta, t)/\tilde{p}_c(\theta) = 0.99$ matches the target cone degeneration profile, $t_{degen}(\theta)$. Eqs. (1)–(5) were solved at each iteration using the method of lines, with 51 or 101 mesh points. Insets show magnified portions of each graph. Numerical inverses are calculated and plotted only at those locations (eccentricities) where the analytical inverse fails to generate a $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile matching the target profile. Inverses resemble vertically flipped versions of the $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profiles. Numerical solutions reveal lower values of the inverses near the fovea ($\theta = 0$) than the analytical approximations suggest and higher values in some regions away from the fovea in (A)–(D). Cone degeneration profile formulas and parameters are given in Table 3. Remaining parameter values as in Table 2.

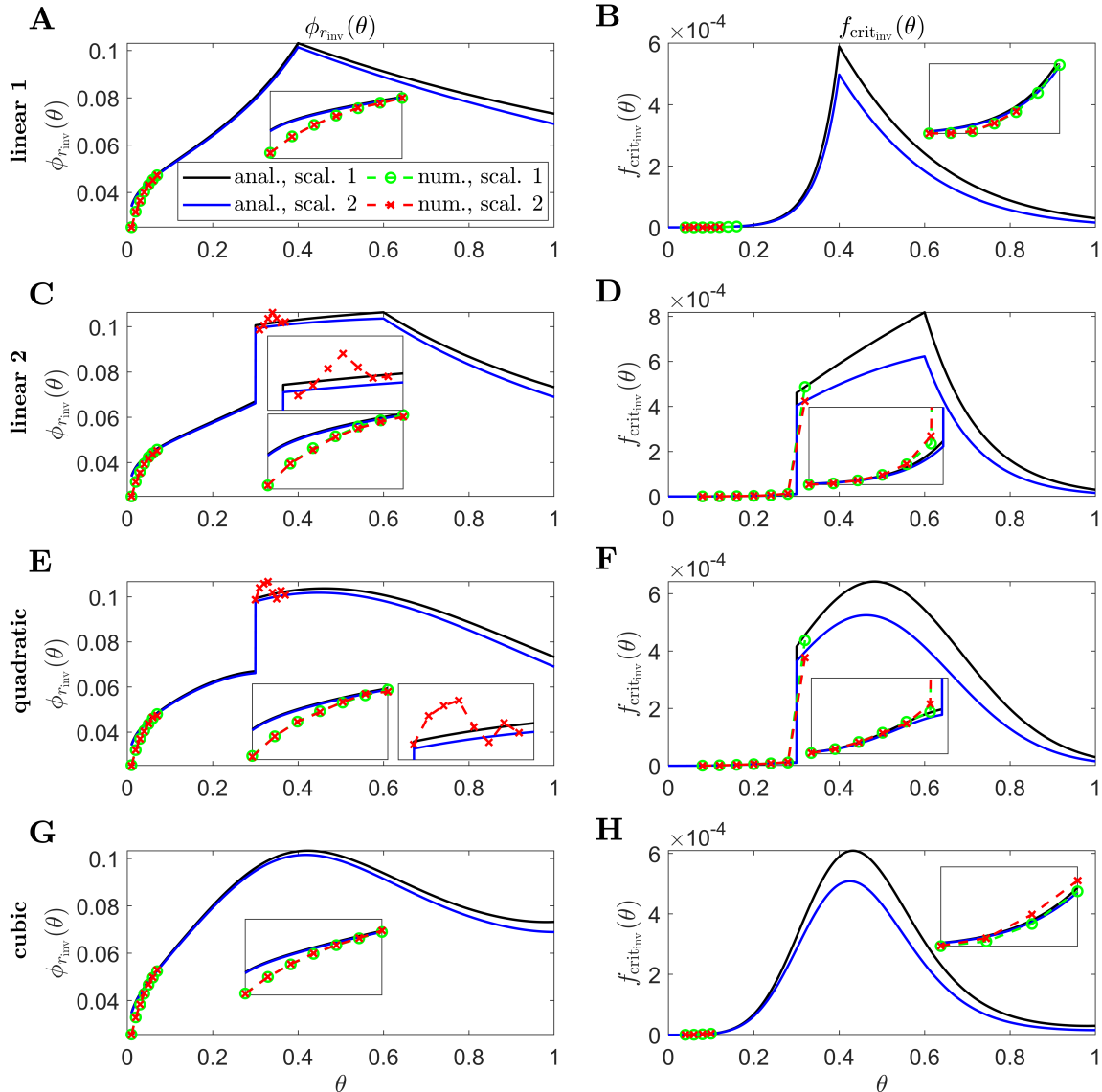


Figure 9. Inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate and TF threshold concentration — Pattern 3 target cone degeneration profiles. (A), (C), (E) and (G) inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate, $\phi_{r_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($f_{crit} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$); (B), (D), (F) and (H) inverse TF threshold concentration, $f_{crit_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($\phi_r = 7.33 \times 10^{-2}$). (A) and (B) linear 1 target cone degeneration profile, $t_{degen}(\theta)$; (C) and (D) linear 2 $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile; (E) and (F) quadratic $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile; (G) and (H) cubic $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile. The solid black and dashed green curves correspond to Scaling 1 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^4$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^6$), while the solid blue and dashed red curves correspond to Scaling 2 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^2$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^4$). The black and blue solid curves are analytical approximations to the inverses, obtained by plotting Eqs. (7) and (10) respectively (A), (C), (E) and (G), and Eqs. (8) and (11) respectively (B), (D), (F) and (H). The green and red dashed curves are numerical inverses, obtained by using the Matlab routines `fminsearch` (A), (C), (E) and (G), and `patternsearch` (B), (D), (F) and (H) to calculate the ϕ_r and f_{crit} profiles for which the contour described by $p_c(\theta, t)/\tilde{p}_c(\theta) = 0.99$ matches the target cone degeneration profile, $t_{degen}(\theta)$. Eqs. (1)–(5) were solved at each iteration using the method of lines, with 26, 51 or 101 mesh points. Insets show magnified portions of each graph. Numerical inverses are calculated and plotted only at those locations (eccentricities) where the analytical inverse fails to generate a $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile matching the target profile. Inverses resemble vertically flipped versions of the $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profiles. Numerical solutions reveal lower values of the inverses near the fovea ($\theta = 0$) than the analytical approximations suggest and higher values in some regions away from the fovea in (C)–(F) and (H). Cone degeneration profile formulas and parameters are given in Table 3. Remaining parameter values as in Table 2.

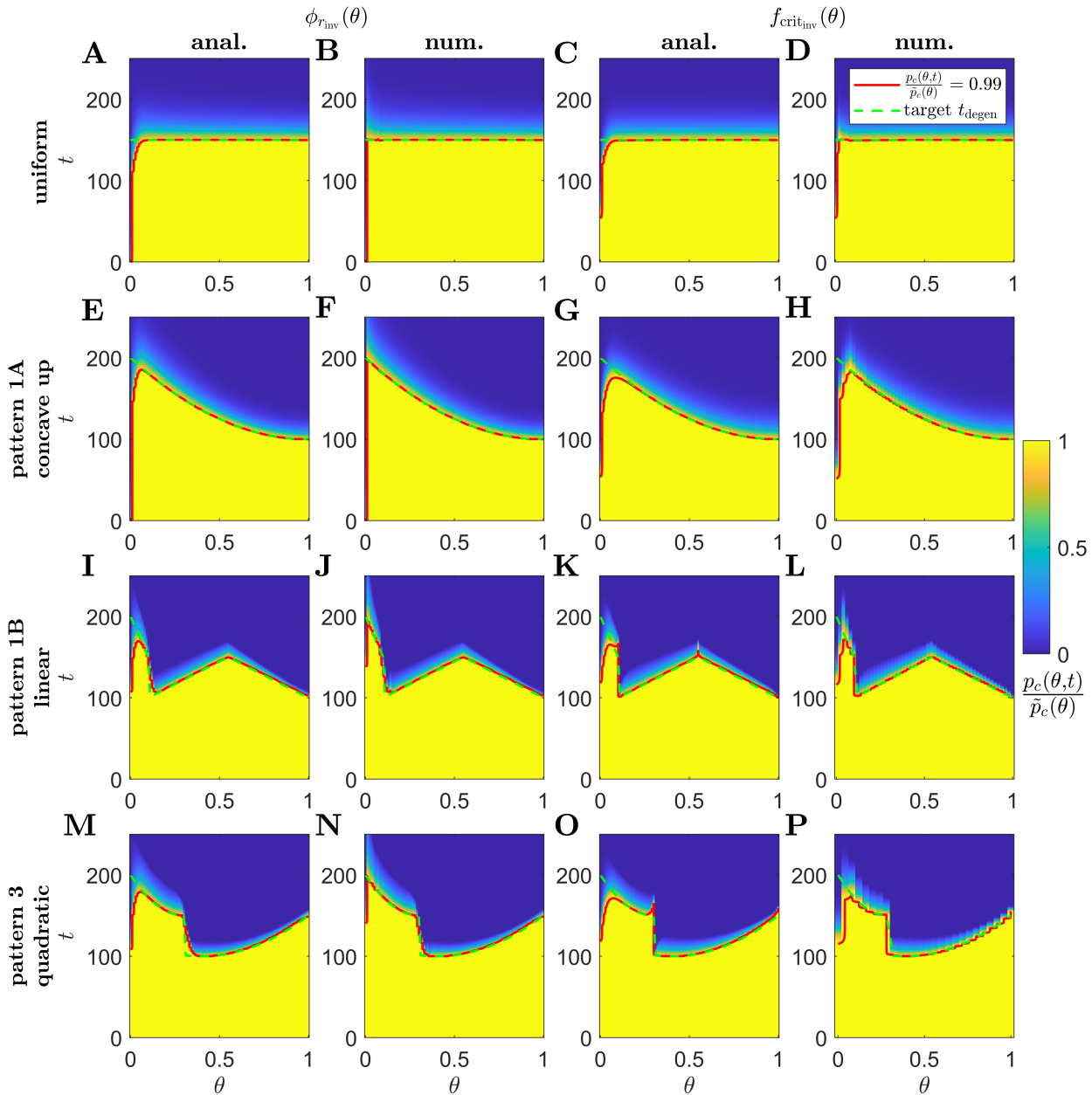


Figure 10. Simulations of proportional cone loss for a range of inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rates and TF threshold concentrations. Plots show the proportion of cones remaining compared to local healthy values, $p_c(\theta, t)/\bar{p}_c(\theta)$, across space and over time. (A), (E), (I) and (M) analytical inverse mutation-induced rod degeneration rate, $\phi_{r_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($f_{crit} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$); (B), (F), (J) and (N) numerical $\phi_{r_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($f_{crit} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$); (C), (G), (K) and (O) analytical inverse TF threshold concentration, $f_{crit_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($\phi_r = 7.33 \times 10^{-2}$); (D), (H), (L) and (P) numerical $f_{crit_{inv}}(\theta)$ ($\phi_r = 7.33 \times 10^{-2}$). (A)–(D) Uniform target cone degeneration profile, $t_{degen}(\theta)$, with Scaling 1 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^4$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^6$); (E)–(H) Pattern 1A quadratic concave up $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile with Scaling 1; (I)–(L) Pattern 1B linear $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile with Scaling 2 ($\alpha = 7.01 \times 10^2$ and $\beta = 1.79 \times 10^4$); (M)–(P) Pattern 3 quadratic $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profile with Scaling 2. Eqs. (1)–(5) were solved using the method of lines, with 26, 51 or 101 mesh points. Analytical and numerical $\phi_{r_{inv}}(\theta)$ and $f_{crit_{inv}}(\theta)$ are as plotted in Figs. 6–9. Solid red curves denote the contours along which $p_c(\theta, t)/\bar{p}_c(\theta) = 0.99$, while dashed green curves show the target $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profiles. Cone degeneration profiles generally show good agreement with the target $t_{degen}(\theta)$ profiles. There is some divergence from $t_{degen}(\theta)$ for the analytical inverses near the fovea ($\theta = 0$) and at discontinuous or nonsmooth portions of $t_{degen}(\theta)$; this is mostly corrected by the numerical inverses. Cone degeneration profile formulas and parameters are given in Table 3. Remaining parameter values as in Table 2.

Table 3. Target cone degeneration profiles, $t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$.

Degeneration Pattern	Sub-pattern	Cone Degeneration Time ($t_{\text{degen}}(\theta)$)		
Uniform	—	t_1		
Pattern 1A	linear	$t_2 - (t_2 - t_0)\theta$		
	quadratic (concave up)	$(t_2 - t_0)(\theta - 1)^2 + t_0$		
	quadratic (concave down)	$t_2 - (t_2 - t_0)\theta^2$		
Pattern 1B	linear	$t_2 - \frac{(t_2 - t_1)}{\theta_{d_1}}\theta$ if $\theta \leq \theta_{d_1}$		
		$t_0 + \frac{(t_1 - t_0)}{(\theta_{d_2} - \theta_{d_1})}(\theta - \theta_{d_1})$ if $\theta_{d_1} < \theta \leq \theta_{d_2}$		
		$t_1 + \frac{(t_1 - t_0)}{(1 - \theta_{d_2})}(\theta_{d_2} - \theta)$ if $\theta \geq \theta_{d_2}$		
	quadratic	$\frac{(t_2 - t_1)}{\theta_{d_1}^2}(\theta - \theta_{d_1})^2 + t_1$ if $\theta \leq \theta_{d_1}$		
		$t_1 - \frac{(t_1 - t_0)}{(\theta_{d_2} - 1)^2}(\theta - \theta_{d_2})^2$ if $\theta > \theta_{d_1}$		
exponential	$A_1 e^{-a_1 \theta} + A_2 \theta e^{-a_2 \theta} + A_3$			
Pattern 3	linear 1	$t_2 - \frac{(t_2 - t_0)}{\theta_{d_4}}\theta$ if $\theta \leq \theta_{d_4}$		
		$t_0 + \frac{(t_1 - t_0)}{(1 - \theta_{d_4})}(\theta - \theta_{d_4})$ if $\theta \geq \theta_{d_4}$		
	linear 2	$t_2 - \frac{(t_2 - t_1)}{\theta_{d_3}}\theta$ if $\theta \leq \theta_{d_3}$		
		t_0 if $\theta_{d_3} < \theta \leq \theta_{d_5}$		
		$t_0 + \frac{(t_1 - t_0)}{(1 - \theta_{d_5})}(\theta - \theta_{d_5})$ if $\theta \geq \theta_{d_5}$		
	quadratic	$\frac{(t_2 - t_1)}{\theta_{d_3}^2}(\theta - \theta_{d_3})^2 + t_1$ if $\theta \leq \theta_{d_3}$		
$\frac{(t_1 - t_0)}{(1 - \theta_{d_4})^2}(\theta - \theta_{d_4})^2 + t_0$ if $\theta > \theta_{d_3}$				
cubic	$C_3 \theta^3 + C_2 \theta^2 + C_1 \theta + C_0$			
Parameter Values*				
$t_0 = 100$	$t_1 = 150$	$t_2 = 200$	$\theta_{d_1} = 0.1$	$\theta_{d_2} = 0.55$
$\theta_{d_3} = 0.3$	$\theta_{d_4} = 0.4$	$\theta_{d_5} = 0.6$	$A_1 = 125$	$A_2 = 600$
	$A_3 = 75$	$a_1 = 71.8$	$a_2 = 3.06$	
		$C_0 = t_2 = 200$		
		$C_1 = \frac{-2(t_2 - t_0) + 3(t_2 - t_0)\theta_{d_4} - (t_2 - t_1)\theta_{d_4}^3}{\theta_{d_4}(1 - \theta_{d_4})^2} = -5.78 \times 10^2$		
		$C_2 = \frac{(t_2 - t_0) - 3(t_2 - t_0)\theta_{d_4}^2 + 2(t_2 - t_1)\theta_{d_4}^3}{\theta_{d_4}^2(1 - \theta_{d_4})^2} = 1.01 \times 10^3$		
		$C_3 = \frac{-(t_2 - t_0) + 2(t_2 - t_0)\theta_{d_4} - (t_2 - t_1)\theta_{d_4}^2}{\theta_{d_4}^2(1 - \theta_{d_4})^2} = -4.86 \times 10^2$		

* We choose θ_{d_1} and θ_{d_2} such that $\theta_{d_2} = (\theta_{d_1} + 1)/2$, so that θ_{d_2} lies halfway between $\theta = \theta_{d_1}$ and $\theta = 1$.