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Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/neubiorev



Review

Sensory substitution: Closing the gap between basic research and widespread practical visual rehabilitation

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 9 February 2013

Received in revised form 6 October 2013

Accepted 8 November 2013

Keywords:

Sensory substitution (SSDs)

Visual rehabilitation

Visual plasticity

Blind

ABSTRACT

Sensory substitution devices (SSDs) have come a long way since first developed for visual rehabilitation. They have produced exciting experimental results, and have furthered our understanding of the human brain. Unfortunately, they are still not used for practical visual rehabilitation, and are currently considered as reserved primarily for experiments in controlled settings.

Over the past decade, our understanding of the neural mechanisms behind visual restoration has changed as a result of converging evidence, much of which was gathered with SSDs. This evidence suggests that the brain is more than a pure sensory-machine but rather is a highly flexible task-machine, i.e., brain regions can maintain or regain their function in vision even with input from other senses.

This complements a recent set of more promising behavioral achievements using SSDs and new promising technologies and tools.

All these changes strongly suggest that the time has come to revive the focus on practical visual rehabilitation with SSDs and we chart several key steps in this direction such as training protocols and self-train tools.

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40 **1. Introduction**

41 In this review we describe approaches to using sensory sub-
42 stitution devices (SSDs) to help the visually impaired. Section 2
43 introduces the problem of visual rehabilitation in general, attempts
44 to deal with this problem, and in particular experiments involv-
45 ing sensory substitution devices (SSDs). Section 3 briefly discusses
46 the reasons for the limited adoption of SSDs. Section 4 presents
47 recent theoretical, practical and technological advances. Section 5
48 puts forward some practical steps to bridge the gap between the
49 use of SSDs for research and their applicability for practical visual
50 rehabilitation in everyday use by the blind community.

51 **2. The challenge of blindness, and visual rehabilitation**
52 **approaches**

53 In this section we describe the goals of visual rehabilitation (Sec-
54 tion 2.1), current and near-future approaches (Section 2.2) and
55 sensory substitution devices (Section 2.3), and explore whether
56 “seeing” via sensory substitution devices counts as vision (Section
57 2.4).

58 **2.1. Goals of visual rehabilitation**

59 Over 285,000,000 people worldwide are affected by severe
60 visual impairments, of whom nearly 40 million are blind. This con-
61 stitutes both a clinical and scientific challenge to develop effective
62 visual rehabilitation techniques (WHO, 2012). These visual impair-
63 ments arise from a wide variety of etiologies, and in many cases
64 require completely different types of treatment. Additionally, the
65 vast majority of the visually impaired live in developing countries
66 and in harsh economic conditions, such that any comprehensive
67 solution must be both relatively cheap and easily available (Held
68 and Ostrovsky, 2011; WHO, 2012).

69 **2.2. Current and near-future invasive methodologies**

70 There are a number of current approaches to visual rehabilita-
71 tion (see Striem-Amit et al., 2011 for recent reviews of these and
72 other methods). Invasive approaches aim at physically replacing or
73 restoring the function of the peripheral visual system, for instance
74 by using artificial retinal prostheses (Ahuja et al., 2011; Chader
75 et al., 2009; Collignon et al., 2011a; Djilas et al., 2011; Humayun
76 et al., 2012; Rizzo III, 2011; Wang et al., 2012; Zrenner et al., 2011),
77 gene therapy (Buskamp et al., 2010) or transplantation of photore-
78 ceptors (Yang et al., 2010). However, while in the long term these
79 solutions hold great promise, they still face huge hurdles in terms of
80 technical capabilities, ability to customize to specific etiologies (the
81 type and severity of visual deterioration and the site of the lesion
82 along the visual pathways), are extremely expensive, and only pro-
83 vide very low-resolution end-result sight (Humayun et al., 2012).
84 In addition, even these limited results still require a very long and
85 arduous visual rehabilitation process.

2.3. Sensory substitution devices (SSDs)

87 A different approach, known as Sensory Substitution, is designed
88 to convey visual information to the visually impaired by sys-
89 tematically substituting visual information into one of their
90 intact senses. Sensory substitution devices (SSDs) are non-invasive
91 human-machine interfaces which, in the case of the blind, trans-
92 form visual information into auditory or tactile representations
93 using a predetermined transformation algorithm (see Fig. 1 for
94 illustration).

95 The first such structured substitution system is probably Braille
96 reading. This technique, developed originally by Barbier as a means
97 for writing and reading in the dark for the French military in the
98 Napoleonic era, was later revised by Louis Braille to enable the
99 blind to read by substituting visual letters with tactile ones. This
100 was further developed in the early 1950s with the development of
101 automatic text-to-braille converters such as the Optacon (Goldish
102 and Taylor, 1974).

103 A highly interesting effort which is often neglected historically,
104 was the Elektroftalm that attempted to electronically transform a
105 visual image into auditory (late 1890s) and tactile (1950s) stim-
106 ulation (Starkiewicz and Kuliszewski, 1965) using one or several
107 sensors.

108 These early attempts led to the more organized and method-
109 ological attempts of Paul Bach-y-Rita in the 1970s, which
110 positioned him as the pioneer of the extensive use of sensory sub-
111 stitution for research. Bach-y-Rita focused on tactile devices and
112 specifically a prototype device he named the “Tactile Vision Sen-
113 sory Substitution” (TVSS) which blind users could use for tasks such
114 as recognizing large letters, catch a ball tossed at them and so on
115 (Bach-y-Rita, 1972).

116 The work of Bach-y-Rita suggested that these devices could
117 serve as stand-alone aids for limited daily use, providing other-
118 wise non-existing visual capabilities such as perception of shape,
119 color and location. Additionally, as SSDs are relatively low-cost
120 they could be made accessible to the majority of the world’s
121 visually impaired population, who as mentioned above primar-
122 ily reside in developing countries and have limited access to
123 advanced medical treatment (Held and Ostrovsky, 2011; WHO,
124 2012).

125 SSDs have enormous potential for non-invasive rehabilitation
126 for the majority of the blind. In over 95% of all cases of blindness, the
127 problem is not in the visual/occipital parts of the brain but rather in
128 the eye, retina or the visual pathways (WHO, 2012). In addition, in
129 the subset of cases where the visual pathways between the ganglion
130 cells and the visual cortex is damaged, approaches that repair the
131 retina would not be able to convey the information from there to
132 the brain, leaving SSDs as the main potential therapeutic approach.
133 However, despite of several decades of research, the use of SSDs
134 has hardly exploited this vast potential. Before we explore the rea-
135 sons for this relative failure, and how this might be remedied in the
136 near future based on recent theoretical practical and technological
137 advances, it is worth inquiring how ‘seeing’ using SSDs compares
138 to natural vision.

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