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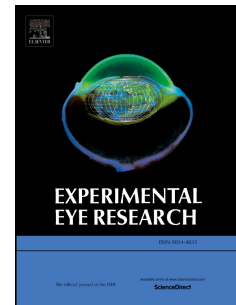
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1 ***In vivo* monitoring of mouse retinal temperature by ERG photoresponses**

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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 Non-damaging heating of the retina and RPE provides a promising treatment for retinal  
26 diseases. However, the lack of proper control over the temperature hinders the  
27 development of safe and repeatable procedures. Here, we demonstrate with mice a  
28 non-invasive method for estimating the temperature changes in the retina and the RPE  
29 during a heating procedure. The method is based on monitoring the temperature  
30 dependent properties of retinal photoresponses recorded by electroretinography (ERG).

31 In this study, our aim was to investigate the feasibility of ERG signal for retinal  
32 temperature estimation, utilizing a-wave and b-wave kinetics as the source of  
33 temperature information. We quantified the temperature dependencies of  
34 photoresponse kinetics and developed two linear regression models between the  
35 temperature and the photoresponse features, enabling temperature estimation. With the  
36 first model, based on the a-wave of a single photoresponse, the RMS error obtained for  
37 retinal temperature estimation was  $< 0.9$  °C. The second model, applying the b-waves  
38 of five dim flash responses, an RMS error of  $< 0.7$  °C was achieved. In addition, we  
39 tested the sensitivity of the method to small changes in light stimulus strength and  
40 investigated suitable stimulus intervals for continuous retinal temperature monitoring.

41 The proposed method provides a convenient technique for monitoring mouse retinal  
42 and RPE temperature with ERG recording when studying controlled retinal heating.  
43 Similar temperature dependencies exist in human ERG suggesting that this approach  
44 could also be applicable in clinical heating treatments.

45

46 **Keywords:** Retina, Electroretinography, Retinal pigment epithelium, Heating treatment,  
47 Temperature, Kinetics

48 **Abbreviations**

49 ERG            electroretinography  
50 RPE            retinal pigment epithelium  
51 RMS(D)        root mean square (deviation)  
52 BIC            Bayesian information criterion

53 FIR            finite impulse response  
54 PID            proportional-integral-derivative

55

## 56        **1. INTRODUCTION**

57        The retina is a layered tissue at the bottom of the eye responsible for transducing the  
58        information carried by light into neural signals. Retinal temperature can be elevated by  
59        directing intense light to the fundus, where the pigments of the retinal pigment  
60        epithelium (RPE) and the choroid act as main absorbers. Photocoagulation is an  
61        established treatment procedure that applies strong retinal heating leading to a visible  
62        damage in the treated area. In recent years, researchers have shown increasing  
63        interest in developing novel retinal heating treatments that aim at avoiding the damage  
64        in retinal cells. The retinal disorders to be addressed include e.g. age-related macular  
65        degeneration, central serous chorioretinopathy, diabetic macular edema, and retinal  
66        vein occlusion (Lavinsky et al., 2016; Luttrull et al., 2015; Scholz et al., 2017;  
67        Sivaprasad et al., 2010; Söderberg et al., 2012; Sramek et al., 2011; Tode et al., 2018).  
68        Finding a heating power that is high enough for therapeutic effect but avoids cellular  
69        damage is considered as the main challenge in the development of non-damaging  
70        heating treatments (Lavinsky et al., 2016; Scholz et al., 2017; Sivaprasad et al., 2010).  
71        The amount of temperature elevation in the retina and RPE is dependent e.g. on the  
72        fundus pigmentation level and ocular media clarity of each individual as well as the  
73        amount of pigmentation and choroidal blood flow at the location of the heated area  
74        (Connolly et al., 2003; Ibarra et al., 2004; Parver, 1991). Therefore, applying equivalent  
75        heating power for each patient leads to varying levels of temperature rise.

76        Currently, clinical retinal heating treatments apply either a fixed heating power or a  
77        titration method to adjust the heating for each individual. In the titration method, a  
78        reference treatment causing a visible lesion is defined in the peripheral retina. A certain  
79        proportion of this reference treatment (e.g. lower laser power or duty cycle) is then  
80        applied to the desired retinal area (see e.g. Koss et al., 2012; Lavinsky et al., 2016).  
81        This method, however, leads to permanent damage in the peripheral area and does not  
82        take into account the variation in local pigmentation. In addition, accurate determination

83 of the visible lesion may be difficult. Thus, a method for retinal temperature monitoring,  
84 providing online temperature information directly from the treated area would offer a  
85 substantial benefit, improving safety, repeatability, and efficacy of the treatment.

86 Electroretinography (ERG) is a technique for obtaining information on retinal function by  
87 non-invasive recording and it serves as a prominent tool in basic and clinical retinal  
88 research. In our previous publication, we introduced a novel idea of applying the  
89 temperature dependent properties of ERG photoresponses for the estimation of retinal  
90 and/or RPE temperature changes. Furthermore, we provided a proof of concept for this  
91 idea by demonstrating temperature determination based on ERG photoresponses with  
92 isolated mouse retinas (Pitkänen et al., 2017). However, in order to apply this method in  
93 practice, it is necessary to demonstrate its functionality with living animals. In this study,  
94 we calibrate the method for mouse corneal ERG flash responses and investigate  
95 whether these responses provide information on the retinal temperature changes with  
96 sufficient accuracy for retinal heating treatments. The objective is to establish an ERG-  
97 based retinal temperature estimation approach for mice *in vivo*.

98 Retinal responses to flashes of light express acceleration in kinetics with increasing  
99 temperature, as the activation and deactivation mechanisms of photoresponses become  
100 faster (see Baylor et al., 1983; Lamb, 1984; Robinson et al., 1993 for photoreceptor  
101 single cell recordings, Donner et al., 1988; Nymark et al., 2005; Vinberg and  
102 Koskelainen, 2010 for photoreceptor ERG, and Kong and Gouras, 2003; Mizota and  
103 Adachi-Usami, 2002 for mouse *in vivo* ERG). Studying and quantifying mouse corneal  
104 ERG responses as a function of temperature requires the retinal temperature to be  
105 manipulated as precisely as possible without invasive procedures affecting the recorded  
106 signal. Our solution was to adjust the temperature of the whole body by placing the  
107 anesthetized animal in a water bath with precise temperature control while recording the  
108 ERG. The determination of temperature dependencies was based on the assumption  
109 that, with this setup, mouse retinal temperature coincides with the core body  
110 temperature. Both dim and bright light flash stimuli were employed and several features  
111 representing the kinetics were extracted from the resulting responses. The features  
112 were examined as a function of temperature change and a model enabling temperature

113 estimation was constructed. The accuracy and generalizability of the model was  
114 assessed with a separate set of test data. We also tested the effect of varying the  
115 stimulus interval and compared the usage of bright and dim flashes for continuous  
116 temperature monitoring. The reliability of our experimental setup was evaluated by  
117 comparing the results to those obtained in the previous study (Pitkänen et al., 2017)  
118 with isolated retinas.

119

## 120 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 121 **2.1 Ethical approval**

122 The use and handling of the animals were in accordance with the Finnish Act on Animal  
123 Experimentation 2013 and approved by the Animal Experiment Board in Finland (project  
124 license ESAVI/6345/04.10.07/2015).

### 125 **2.2 Mouse anesthesia and ERG recording**

126 2 – 4 month old male and female mice of strain C57BL/6J were maintained on a light  
127 dark cycle of 12 h/12 h and dark-adapted overnight before the experiment. Thereafter,  
128 all handling was done under a dim red light. The mouse was anesthetized with  
129 isoflurane (device: Univentor U-410, AgnTho's AB, Lidingö, Sweden, isoflurane: Virbac  
130 group, Carros, France) and placed on a polycarbonate bed equipped with anesthetic  
131 supply. The respiration was monitored with a piezoelectric sensor (Pico Movement  
132 Sensor, MFi BV, Heerlen, The Netherlands) placed under the mouse and the isoflurane  
133 concentration was adjusted to keep the respiratory frequency between 2.0 and 2.5 Hz.  
134 Temperature-controlled water circulation under the bed enabled animal's body  
135 temperature to be held at  $\sim 37.5$  °C during the preparations. The left pupil was dilated by  
136 both  $10 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$  atropine sulphate eyedrop (Chauvin Pharmaceuticals Ltd., London,  
137 UK) and  $100 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$  phenylephrine HCl eyedrop (Chauvin Pharmaceuticals Ltd.,  
138 London, UK), and the corneas of both eyes were anesthetized with  $4 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$   
139 oxybuprocaine HCl eyedrops (Santen Ltd., Tampere, Finland). 0.2 mm thick contact  
140 lenses were placed on both eyes, a clear acrylic lens on the left eye and an identical  
141 black lens on the right eye, which served as a reference. Both lenses were equipped

142 with a peripherally located acrylic shaft containing a cylindrical Ag-AgCl pellet electrode  
143 (EP1, diameter 1 mm, length 3 mm, World Precision Instruments Ltd., Hitchin, UK).  
144 Electrical contact between the pellet and cornea as well as moisturization of the cornea  
145 was facilitated by methylcellulose solution (5 mg soluted in 1 ml 0.9% NaCl). Instead of  
146 the contact lens, a different type of reference electrode setup was used in some  
147 experiments. The alternative electrode holder was constructed using a 1ml syringe,  
148 whose tip was placed around the reference eye. The syringe was equipped with the Ag-  
149 AgCl pellet and filled with the methylcellulose solution to provide electrical contact  
150 between the cornea and the pellet. A third Ag-AgCl pellet, moisturized with the  
151 methylcellulose solution, was attached to the polycarbonate bed in contact with the  
152 mouse's mouth behind the upper incisor teeth. This electrode defined the signal ground.  
153 The DC-ERG signals were amplified 1000x, low-pass filtered (eight-pole Bessel filter,  $f_c$   
154 = 1 kHz) and digitized at 10 kHz with 30 nV resolution. Light stimuli were generated by  
155 two 520 nm laser diodes (LD-520-120MG, 120 mW, Roithner Lasertechnik GmbH,  
156 Vienna, Austria), controlled with laser diode controller (iC-HG EVAL HG1D, iC-Haus  
157 GmbH, Bodenheim, Germany) driven by computer controlled command pulses.  
158 Stimulus strength was adjusted by changing light flash duration between 0.1  $\mu$ s and 2  
159 ms. These flash lengths are considerably shorter than the integration time of rod  
160 photoreceptors, and therefore they can be considered as impulse-like stimuli. Light was  
161 guided through a mixing optical cable (Trifurcated fiber bundle, Newport Spectra-  
162 Physics GmbH, Darmstadt, Germany) to a cylindrical aluminum stimulator head (inner  
163 diameter 5.5 mm, length 2.5 mm), which was placed close to the mouse's head around  
164 the left eye. Between the cable and the stimulator head, three diffusor layers were  
165 placed to even the intensity profile. Light arrived to the eye both directly across the  
166 cylindrical head and by reflecting from the inner walls, illuminating the entire retina. The  
167 irradiance of the reflected light was approximately half of the irradiance of the direct  
168 light, measured with an optical power meter (PM100D, Thorlabs Sweden AB, Mölndal,  
169 Sweden).

### 170 **2.3 Temperature control and experiment protocol**



171 The mouse resting on its abdomen on the polycarbonate bed was slid inside a  
172 rectangular cuboid-shaped water bath tilted at 45° angle and water level was adjusted  
173 just below the ears, as shown in Figure 1. The head of the mouse was supported with a  
174 polycarbonate plate behind the ears to reduce the occasional movement artefacts  
175 caused by mouse breathing or the water flow. Under anesthesia, the ability of the  
176 mouse to maintain steady body temperature is compromised, allowing the body  
177 temperature to be controlled by changing the temperature of the environment. A  
178 peristaltic pump circulated the water in the bath and the body temperature of the animal  
179 was adjusted by controlling the temperature of the inflowing water with a custom-made  
180 PID-controller connected to a water heating element. The air around the mouse's head  
181 was heated to approximately 30 °C to decrease temperature gradients. The body  
182 temperature was monitored using a rectal thermistor (Betatherm 30K6A309I, Oy Farnell  
183 Finland Ab, Helsinki, Finland). At steady temperatures, retinal temperature was  
184 assumed to coincide with the body temperature. After the preparations under dim red  
185 light, the animal was dark-adapted for 15 minutes before any recordings. Light stimulus  
186 strengths were selected for each mouse based on their individual operation range of  
187 ERG responses at the reference body temperature 37.5 °C. This approach enables the  
188 stimulus strengths to be selected in a similar manner regardless of differences in ERG-  
189 recording setups or in the photometric unit used in light stimulus calibration.  
190 Additionally, this method takes into account and compensates for the differences in  
191 ocular media transparency and photoreceptor sensitivity of each individual. At first, a  
192 small set of responses to different stimulus strengths was recorded to map the  
193 operation range. A response with a prominent b-wave and a small emerging a-wave  
194 (amplitude ~30 – 50 µV) provided the b-wave reference amplitude, 'b-ref-amp', which  
195 was used as a measure for adjusting all other stimuli (see Figure 2b). Dim flash  
196 responses with an amplitude of 20% of the b-ref-amp were recorded in all 22  
197 experiments. Additionally, in 16 experiments, dim flash responses with amplitudes of  
198 30% and 40% of the b-ref-amp were acquired. Responses to bright stimuli were  
199 recorded in 14 experiments. The flash strength used as a bright flash was  
200 approximately 1000 times higher than that of the 20% response, inducing a pronounced  
201 ~150 – 250 µV a-wave. Responses were first recorded at the reference temperature of

202 37.5 °C. Thereafter, the body temperature was adjusted to different values between  
203 35.5 – 42.6 °C, the approximate rate of temperature change being 0.1 – 0.3 °C min<sup>-1</sup>.  
204 After the rectal thermistor reading had reached a steady value, the temperature was let  
205 to stabilize for 2 minutes before recordings were performed.

206 --- Fig 1 ---

## 207 2.4 Pre-processing and Feature Extraction

208 The analysis of the ERG responses was performed in Matlab 2016b, MathWorks. The  
209 dataset recorded from 22 mice was split into training (n = 14) and test (n = 8) sets  
210 randomly. The test dataset was used only for the validation of the developed model. In  
211 the training dataset, 5 – 20 dim flash responses were averaged for the determination of  
212 the temperature dependencies (Figure 4 and Table 1) and for the development of the  
213 temperature estimation models (Figure 5A-B and 6A-B). The RMS error of the selected  
214 model, calculated by cross validation of the training dataset, was based on five  
215 averaged responses to estimate the temperature determination accuracy that can be  
216 obtained with a certain number of responses. Five dim flash responses were averaged  
217 also in the test dataset when investigating the generalizability of the selected model  
218 (Figure 5C-D and 6C-D). Bright flash responses were always used without averaging.

219 A set of temperature-dependent features were extracted from the photoresponses as  
220 explained in Appendix. The features correspond to those introduced earlier in (Pitkänen  
221 et al., 2017), except for the integration time (#32), which was defined in a slightly  
222 different manner and the stretch feature (#12 & #33,) which is a new feature. The  
223 feature values of the responses recorded at elevated or lowered temperatures,  $Y_{temp}$ ,  
224 were normalized by the corresponding feature value,  $Y_{ref}$ , recorded at reference body  
225 temperature 37.5 °C 10-40 minutes earlier according to equation  $(Y_{temp} - Y_{ref}) \cdot Y_{ref}^{-1}$ . As  
226 an exception, the normalized value of the stretch feature was calculated by subtracting  
227 1, because the feature already includes a comparison to the reference by definition. The  
228 expected value of all normalized features at the reference temperature is zero, and  
229 accordingly, the intercepts of linear fits were fixed to 0. All elevated or lowered

230 temperatures were denoted as differences compared to reference body temperature

$$231 \quad T_{temp} - T_{ref}.$$

## 232 **2.5 Model development and validation**

233 Multivariable linear regression models between the temperatures and the normalized  
234 feature values were created by least squares fitting of the equation

$$235 \quad c = X\beta + \varepsilon, \quad (1)$$

236 where  $c$  is the vector of temperatures,  $X$  is the matrix of feature values (of training set),  
237  $\beta$  consists of regression coefficients and  $\varepsilon$  of error terms. A set of candidate models  
238 contained all combinations of 1 – 6 features. In model development, adding more  
239 features to the model often leads to better fit, but the additional features begin to  
240 represent random variation in the data, causing overfitting and weaker generalizability of  
241 the model. In order to avoid this, model selection among a set of candidate models can  
242 be performed with an information criterion, which introduces a penalty term, increasing  
243 as more features are added to the model. In this study, Bayesian information criterion  
244 (BIC) was applied, calculated for each model according to the equation

$$245 \quad BIC = n \cdot \ln\left(\frac{SSE}{n}\right) + k \cdot \ln(n), \quad (2)$$

246 where  $n$  is the number of observations (ERG-response - temperature pairs) in the  
247 training dataset, SSE is the sum of squared temperature estimation errors in leave-one-  
248 out cross validation of the training dataset, and  $k$  is the number of estimated parameters  
249 (regression coefficients) in the model. The model with the lowest BIC was selected as  
250 the final model. The accuracy of the selected model was evaluated by calculating the  
251 errors of temperature determination using the photoresponses of the test dataset.

252

## 253 **3. RESULTS**

### 254 **3.1 Mouse corneal ERG flash responses**

255 The retinal temperature determination method developed in this paper is founded on the  
256 ERG responses elicited with flash stimuli in scotopic conditions, providing a stable and

257 well-defined state of the retinal neurons. A set of mouse corneal scotopic ERG  
258 responses to varying flash strengths recorded at the reference body temperature is  
259 presented in Figure 2A. Responses show the a-wave with negative polarity and the  
260 slower positive b-wave. With dim flashes, only the b-wave is visible, peaking at  
261 approximately 100 ms after the stimulus. Flash strengths were selected for each mouse  
262 based on its individual operation range (amplitude-flash strength behavior) as illustrated  
263 in Figure 2B and explained in Methods. Figures 2C and 2D visualize the temperature-  
264 related changes in the photoresponses. In Figure 2C, the bright flash response  
265 recorded at 1.3 °C lower temperature (dashed trace) shows slightly slower kinetics  
266 compared to the response evoked by the same stimulus at reference body temperature  
267 (solid trace). As the temperature is increased by 3.3 °C, acceleration of kinetics occurs,  
268 as shown in Figure 2D for dim flash responses (solid traces vs. dashed traces). Figures  
269 2C and 2D also illustrate the temperature-dependent features of the responses that will  
270 be presented in chapter 3.2.

271 --- Fig 2 --

272 In order to test whether the temperature determination method is sensitive to moderate  
273 variations in the fractional response amplitude, we recorded dim flash responses with  
274 amplitudes 20, 30, and 40% of b-wave reference. For the comparison, we used the  
275 time-to-peak feature, whose values are plotted in Figure 3. Linear fittings to the three  
276 amplitude groups reveal temperature dependence slopes -0.0365, -0.0360, and -  
277 0.0360, respectively. Based on Figure 3, no systematical difference between the feature  
278 values or the temperature dependence slopes can be observed. In the remainder of this  
279 work, all flash responses with amplitudes in the range 20 – 40% of b-wave reference  
280 amplitude are combined for dim flash response analysis and applied in the development  
281 of the temperature determination model. Based on this test, the temperature estimation  
282 method is expected to be applicable for dim flash responses of moderately varying  
283 amplitude.

284 --- Fig 3 ---

### 285 3.2 Temperature dependencies of the features

286 Thirty-three different temperature-dependent features were extracted from the recorded  
287 responses, as illustrated in Figures 2C and 2D. The features were selected to represent  
288 the kinetics of the leading edge of the bright flash response a-wave and the entire dim  
289 flash response b-wave. The usage of bright flash responses was motivated by the initial  
290 phase of the a-wave (before b-wave starts to overlap) originating in the outer segments  
291 of photoreceptors partially embedded in the RPE layer. Thus, they could provide the  
292 closest approximation of the RPE layer temperature. On the other hand, using dim flash  
293 responses would allow higher stimulus repetition frequency and thus better temporal  
294 resolution for temperature monitoring (see chapter 3.5). The extracted features are  
295 listed in Table 1 and the temperature dependencies of exemplary features are plotted in  
296 Figure 4. The behavior of all features as a function of temperature was approximately  
297 linear within the temperature range examined. The slopes of linear fits to the data  
298 together with the RMS of the residuals are presented in Table 1. The linear fits show  
299 about 2.0 – 3.5% change in feature values per 1 °C (compared to the value at reference  
300 temperature).

301 --- Table 1 ---

302 --- Fig 4 ---

### 303 **3.3 Model development and validation for bright flash responses**

304 Next, we utilized features #1-13 to investigate the applicability of bright flash response  
305 a-wave leading edge for retinal temperature estimation. Figure 5A presents the RMS  
306 error of temperature determination for single feature regression models. The error is  
307 calculated through cross validations of the training dataset. Based on the result, the  
308 features determined close to the a-wave peak show highest temperature estimation  
309 accuracy. Also time to the inflection point performs well. The temperature determination  
310 model was constructed by calculating BIC values for the models consisting of all  
311 combinations of 1 – 6 features. Figure 5B displays the lowest BIC value obtained with  
312 each number of features. Based on this plot, a model with one feature was selected for  
313 further analysis. The model consisted of time-to-peak of the a-wave:

314 *Temperature* =  $-27.25 \cdot \alpha 100$  (°C)

315 The RMS error of this model at cross-validation with training data was 0.82 °C. The  
316 generalizability of the constructed model was assessed by applying the model to a new  
317 set of photoresponses (test dataset) and comparing the resulting temperature estimates  
318 to the actual measured temperatures. Each estimate is based on a single bright flash  
319 response. Figure 5C illustrates the relationship between estimated and measured  
320 temperature, and Figure 5D shows the histogram of error values, giving an RMS error of  
321 0.82 °C.

322 --- Fig 5 ---

### 323 **3.4 Model development and validation for dim flash responses**

324 To study the applicability of dim flash response kinetics for retinal temperature  
325 estimation, we constructed and tested regression models with features #13-33,  
326 representing the entire response trace. Figure 6A presents the comparison of the  
327 performance of single feature regression models in cross validation. Time-to-X%  
328 features determined from the leading edge close to the peak, including the time-to-peak  
329 feature itself, showed the lowest RMS errors. Based on the behavior of BIC values,  
330 illustrated in Figure 6B, a dim flash response model with the following three features  
331 was selected: time-to- peak of the b-wave, time-to-60% of b-wave peak (trailing edge),  
332 and b-wave stretch:

$$333 \text{Temperature} = -37.66 \cdot b100 + 25.59 \cdot b60T - 13.43 \cdot bst \text{ (}^\circ\text{C)}$$

334 The RMS error obtained with the dim flash response model at cross-validation of the  
335 training data was 0.68 °C. The generalization of the model to test data is illustrated in  
336 Figures 6C-D, showing the relationship between the estimated and the measured  
337 temperatures and the histogram of temperature estimation errors. Each estimate is  
338 based on five averaged dim flash responses. The obtained RMS error for the test data  
339 was 0.68 °C.

340 --- Fig. 6 ---

### 341 **3.5 Time interval between flashes**

342 The temperature determination method developed in this paper is based on the analysis  
343 of dark-adapted (scotopic) flash photoresponses. When applying this kind of method for  
344 online temperature determination, the interval between light stimuli should be kept long  
345 enough to enable the recovery of photoresponse mechanisms to dark-adapted state  
346 between the flashes. Otherwise, light adaptation affects ERG response kinetics (e.g.  
347 Friedburg et al., 2001; Nymark et al., 2005) and confounds the temperature  
348 determination. We used time-to-peak as a measure to assess whether response  
349 mechanisms have recovered, stable time-to-peak indicating long enough stimulus  
350 interval. Figure 7A plots b-wave time-to-peak values of four subsequent dim flash  
351 responses triggered with 0.5 – 4.3 second interval. With time intervals below 1.3 s  
352 (black squares and red circles), response kinetics show clear acceleration characteristic  
353 for light adaptation. This behavior is undetectable with longest time intervals (green  
354 diamonds and purple stars) implying that 3 - 4 second flash interval is sufficient for  
355 recording dark-adapted dim flash responses. In this examination, responses with 40%  
356 amplitude of the b-ref-amp were applied to find out a safe interval that is applicable also  
357 with weaker stimuli. The sufficient interval for bright flashes was examined by applying a  
358 single bright flash to the retina and monitoring the time-to-peak of the following dim flash  
359 responses (~10% of b-ref-amp). Figure 7B presents the behavior of time-to-peak after  
360 the bright flash and an exponential fitted to averaged data. Based on the result, it takes  
361 approximately 20 seconds for the time-to-peak to reach a stable level after a bright  
362 flash. The experiments presented in Figure 7 were conducted at 37.5 °C, indicating that  
363 the given intervals are applicable at normal body temperature and at elevated  
364 temperatures, where photoresponse recovery mechanisms are accelerated.

365 --- Fig 7 ---

366

## 367 4. DISCUSSION

### 368 4.1 Evaluation of sources of error and comparison to *ex vivo* data

369 The temperature determination models developed in this paper were evaluated based  
370 on their ability to estimate temperatures both in the training dataset and with a separate

371 test dataset. In both cases, a single bright flash response could estimate the measured  
372 temperature with an RMS error of 0.82 °C and averaging five dim flash responses  
373 produced an RMS error of 0.68 °C. These accuracies can be considered good enough  
374 to enable the adjustment of desired laser power in RPE heating. In our *ex vivo* setup,  
375 RMS errors when using a single bright flash response were 0.56 °C in the training  
376 dataset and 0.85 °C in the test dataset. The corresponding RMS errors for dim flash  
377 responses were 0.37 °C (training dataset, 8 averaged responses), 0.37 °C (test dataset,  
378 8 averaged responses), and 0.40 °C (test dataset, 2 averaged responses). The  
379 temperature estimation accuracy with *in vivo* ERG can, thus, be considered somewhat  
380 inferior to that of *ex vivo* ERG. One reason for slightly weaker accuracy is the lower  
381 signal-to-noise ratio of *in vivo* ERG. Another reason may be the time delay associated  
382 with the manipulation of mouse body temperature. Changes in the ERG flash response  
383 may occur during the time between the recordings at reference temperature and at  
384 lowered/elevated temperature due to reasons not directly related to temperature  
385 change. This increases the variation in relative feature values *in vivo*. Fortunately, this  
386 type of error is not expected in transpupillary heating treatment setup, because the  
387 reference ERG responses can be recorded just before the heating with minimal time  
388 delay.

389 Other possible sources of error not covered by the temperature estimation error above  
390 include: 1) uncertainty of the retinal temperature in the whole body temperature  
391 manipulation method and 2) estimating the RPE temperature based on the temperature  
392 of the distal retina. These will be addressed below.

393 The analysis conducted in this paper is based on the assumption that, with steady  
394 temperatures, retinal temperature closely coincides with the core body temperature of  
395 the mouse in our experimental setup. This assumption is supported by the following  
396 aspects: i) Intensive choroidal circulation, located immediately behind the retina and the  
397 monolayer of RPE cells, effectively controls the temperature of the outer retina (Parver,  
398 1991). ii) Majority of the animal is under water creating a constant temperature around  
399 the body and enhancing the thermal contact between the body and the environment. iii)  
400 The air around mouse's head is heated to reduce the temperature gradient across the



401 eye. In our recording setup, a small constant difference between the retinal temperature  
402 and core body temperature would not be detrimental because the model is linear and  
403 temperatures are determined relative to the reference temperature. A difference in the  
404 temperature *change* of the core and the retina would, however, affect the calibration of  
405 temperature dependencies. In this respect, the present results about the temperature  
406 dependencies can be assessed by comparing to our previous data from isolated mouse  
407 retinas, for which similar experiments were conducted with precise temperature  
408 adjustments (Pitkänen et al., 2017). Dim flash b-wave kinetics features (#13-31 in Table  
409 1) of *in vivo* and *ex vivo* recordings show very similar temperature dependencies. For  
410 example, the change in time-to-peak of the b-wave compared to the value at the  
411 reference temperature is 3.5% per 1 °C for *ex vivo* and 3.6% for *in vivo*. In *ex vivo*  
412 conditions, b-wave trailing edge kinetics features have slightly steeper temperature  
413 dependence (~3.5% per 1 °C) than those of the leading edge (~2.5% per 1 °C). *In vivo*,  
414 the temperature dependence of the features representing both edges is 2.7 - 3.2% per 1  
415 °C, settling between the values obtained *ex vivo*. Bright flash a-wave kinetics features  
416 (#1-12) show slightly steeper temperature dependencies *in vivo* compared to *ex vivo*,  
417 especially when determined close to the a-wave peak. For example for a-wave time-to-  
418 peak, the difference is 1.1 percentage points per °C. This discrepancy is mostly  
419 explained by the nonlinear temperature dependence behavior observed in the a-wave  
420 kinetics close to the peak *ex vivo*. In highest temperatures tested, the a-wave time-to-  
421 peak of the isolated retina did not show as strong acceleration as would be expected  
422 based on linear behavior (see Figure S1). When comparing the temperature  
423 dependence of the a-wave time-to-peak of *ex vivo* and *in vivo* responses only in the  
424 range of -2.0 ... +4.5 °C around the reference body temperature, the slopes are similar,  
425 -0.031 and -0.033 respectively. To conclude, the temperature dependencies of ERG  
426 flash responses obtained *in vivo* correspond to those *ex vivo*, indicating that the whole  
427 body temperature manipulation method does not cause significant systematic error for  
428 the calibration of the temperature dependencies. Therefore, the retinal temperature  
429 estimation models should perform well inside the linear range of the determined  
430 features. However, when the heating temperature is high enough to cause substantial  
431 molecular damage, the ERG responses are expected to decay and temperature

432 determination becomes unreliable. Based on the experiments presented in this article  
433 and assuming that no significant difference exists between core body temperature and  
434 retinal temperature in our setup, the temperature estimation model should be applicable  
435 at least up to 42.5 °C (see Figs. 5 and 6).

436 In retinal heating, the transpupillary light is strongly absorbed by melanin pigments of  
437 the RPE, and heat conducts towards the neural retina. In the proposed temperature  
438 estimation method, the temperature-related information is retrieved from the a- and b-  
439 waves of ERG responses, originating mainly in the photoreceptor and bipolar cell layers  
440 in the distal retina. The RPE is located immediately behind the distal retina with  
441 negligible vasculature in or between, favoring the similarity of the temperatures in these  
442 two tissue layers. In retinal heating, the similarity of the temperatures in these tissues  
443 increases as a function of heating duration, as the heat dissipates towards the inner  
444 retina. In an experimental work with rabbits, no temperature differences could be  
445 observed between the subretinal space and the inner limiting membrane during one  
446 minute fundus heating with a 810 nm laser diode (Ibarra et al., 2004). We conclude that  
447 the ERG-based retinal temperature estimation method developed here is applicable for  
448 estimating the temperature of the distal retina, which is helpful when trying to avoid  
449 damage in the neural retina. In addition, in long heating treatments, the method can  
450 provide a good approximation of the temperature of the RPE layer.

#### 451 **4.2 Considerations for on-line temperature monitoring**

452 The demonstrated method for mouse retinal and RPE temperature monitoring is  
453 applicable for heating treatment studies as well as for other basic research purposes  
454 where the retina undergoes non-damaging and lengthy increase in temperature. The  
455 method was calibrated using full-field ERG, but it can be applied for retrieving local  
456 retinal temperature estimates by directing the ERG stimulus light within the heated  
457 retinal area. Some stray light may end up outside the targeted area, but this light is  
458 expected to be negligible, especially with dim stimuli. Thus, it would not affect the ERG  
459 responses significantly. As the signal-to-noise ratio of the ERG response decreases  
460 with diminishing stimulus spot size, the temperature estimation method is most easily

461 utilized with large heated areas, and the application to small heated spots may require  
462 further development e.g. in signal processing approaches.

463 The demonstrated method can be implemented in the following manner. Before the  
464 beginning of the heating, ERG flash responses are recorded by stimulating the retinal  
465 area of interest at reference (normal) body temperature to determine the initial values of  
466 the chosen temperature dependent features. Thereafter, the same flashes are  
467 continuously applied with certain intervals to detect the changes in feature values and,  
468 thus, measure the temperature change compared to the initial temperature. This paper  
469 offers means for selecting the flash stimuli and the features to be extracted. After each  
470 bright flash response, approximately 20-second interval is needed for the recovery of  
471 photoresponse mechanisms. In a corresponding time period, at least five repetitions of  
472 dim flash responses can be recorded, providing higher accuracy (lower RMS error) and  
473 better temporal resolution for temperature estimation based on our results. Thus, these  
474 results recommend using dim flash responses for temperature monitoring. However,  
475 applying bright flash responses might be reasonable to supplement the temperature  
476 estimation with features extracted from the a-wave leading edge originating closer to the  
477 RPE.

478 The method presented in this paper is designed for the scotopic flash responses of the  
479 rod-dominant mouse retina. The dark-adapted state is easy to maintain with long  
480 enough interstimulus intervals, but attention must be paid when using transpupillary  
481 heating laser, the wavelength of which must be long enough to avoid light adaptation.  
482 Considering a corresponding temperature estimation method for clinical heating  
483 treatments of human cone-dominant retina, it would be appropriate to use light-adapted  
484 focal ERG with stimulus light directed inside the heated area, in the presence of  
485 background light. This would eliminate the requirement for dark environment and enable  
486 the usage of common wavelengths of lengthy heating treatments (e.g. 810 nm). With  
487 cone-driven ERG, the light adaptation level should be kept constant before and during  
488 laser irradiation in order not to confound the temperature determination.

489

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494

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574

575 **Figure 1.** The mouse was placed in a tilted bath with water up to ear-level. Water was  
576 circulated in the bath to control the body temperature of the mouse.

577 **Figure 2.** A) *In vivo* ERG responses recorded from mouse cornea. Each trace  
578 represents a single response, low-pass filtered with  $f_c = 1$  kHz. Stimulus strength was  
579 modified by changing flash length (0.15  $\mu$ s – 0.5 ms). B) Selecting stimulus strengths  
580 based on operation range. B-wave reference amplitude, 'b-ref-amp', was determined  
581 from a response with a small emerging a-wave (black dashed lines). At this level, b-  
582 wave amplitude shows plateau-like behavior as a function of flash strength. Dim flash  
583 strengths were selected to give rise to 20, 30 and 40% amplitudes of b-ref-amp (red  
584 dashed lines). The flash length used as a bright flash was approximately 1000 times  
585 longer than the one used for the 20% response (purple dashed lines) C) ERG  
586 responses to the same bright flash strength recorded at two different temperatures. The  
587 features that were extracted from the leading edge of the a-wave have been visualized.  
588 The responses are single filtered recordings (FIR,  $n = 50$ ,  $f_c = 100$  Hz) that have been  
589 normalized to the a-wave amplitude. D) ERG responses to the same dim flashes  
590 recorded at two different temperatures. The features representing the dim flash  
591 responses are listed in the figure. The responses are single filtered recordings (FIR,  $n =$   
592 400,  $f_c = 30$  Hz) that have been normalized to the b-wave amplitude.

593 **Figure 3.** The effect of dim flash strength on temperature dependence of b-wave time-  
594 to-peak. Each data point represents b-wave time-to-peak defined from 5 – 20 averaged  
595 responses and normalized with corresponding value at reference temperature according  
596 to  $(b_{100_{temp}} - b_{100_{ref}}) \cdot b_{100_{ref}}^{-1}$ . Responses have different amplitudes compared to b-  
597 wave reference amplitude: 20% (black circle), 30% (red diamond), and 40% (blue  
598 triangle). The plot includes those experiments from the training data set, in which all  
599 three response types were recorded.

600 **Table 1.** <sup>a</sup> Features #1–12 are determined from single bright flash responses, #13–33  
601 are based on 5-20 averaged dim flash responses. <sup>b</sup> Slopes of linear fittings to the  
602 training data (as illustrated in Figure 4) and root mean square deviations (residuals)

603 between the fit and the data. RMSD has the same unit, relative feature value, as the y-  
 604 axes in Fig. 4. Correspondingly, the unit of the slope is relative feature value per degree  
 605 of Celsius. <sup>c</sup> Low dispersion of feature values around the linear fitting (i.e. small  
 606 residuals) and a high temperature dependence are beneficial properties for a feature.  
 607  $\text{RMSD}/|\text{Slope}|$  reflects the relationship of these properties, low value being desirable.

# <sup>a</sup>	Feature	Response type	Abbr.	Slope <sup>b</sup>	RMSD <sup>c</sup>	RMSD/  Slope  <sup>d</sup>
1	Time to 10 % of the peak	bright flash, a-wave	a10	-0,032	0,281	8,73
2	Time to 20 % of the peak	bright flash, a-wave	a20	-0,030	0,180	5,91
3	Time to 30 % of the peak	bright flash, a-wave	a30	-0,029	0,133	4,59
4	Time to 40 % of the peak	bright flash, a-wave	a40	-0,030	0,095	3,22
5	Time to 50 % of the peak	bright flash, a-wave	a50	-0,030	0,073	2,43
6	Time to 60 % of the peak	bright flash, a-wave	a60	-0,030	0,060	2,00
7	Time to 70 % of the peak	bright flash, a-wave	a70	-0,030	0,046	1,53
8	Time to 80 % of the peak	bright flash, a-wave	a80	-0,031	0,037	1,20
9	Time to 90 % of the peak	bright flash, a-wave	a90	-0,033	0,033	1,01
10	Time to peak	bright flash, a-wave	a100	-0,034	0,028	0,82
11	Time to inflection point	bright flash, a-wave	aip	-0,019	0,022	1,14
12	Stretch	bright flash, a-wave	ast	-0,024	0,033	1,39
13	Time to 10 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave leading edge	b10L	-0,025	0,045	1,78
14	Time to 20 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave leading edge	b20L	-0,027	0,028	1,05
15	Time to 30 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave leading edge	b30L	-0,027	0,022	0,82
16	Time to 40 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave leading edge	b40L	-0,027	0,020	0,72
17	Time to 50 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave leading edge	b50L	-0,028	0,018	0,67
18	Time to 60 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave leading edge	b60L	-0,028	0,018	0,64
19	Time to 70 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave leading edge	b70L	-0,028	0,018	0,63
20	Time to 80 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave leading edge	b80L	-0,028	0,018	0,63
21	Time to 90 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave leading edge	b90L	-0,029	0,018	0,64
22	Time to peak	dim flash, b-wave	b100	-0,036	0,023	0,65
23	Time to 90 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave trailing edge	b90T	-0,032	0,025	0,76
24	Time to 80 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave trailing edge	b80T	-0,033	0,025	0,78
25	Time to 70 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave trailing edge	b70T	-0,032	0,026	0,82



26	Time to 60 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave trailing edge	b60T	-0,032	0,029	0,91
27	Time to 50 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave trailing edge	b50T	-0,032	0,030	0,96
28	Time to 40 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave trailing edge	b40T	-0,032	0,032	1,00
29	Time to 30 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave trailing edge	b30T	-0,032	0,037	1,18
30	Time to 20 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave trailing edge	b20T	-0,031	0,048	1,56
31	Time to 10 % of the peak	dim flash, b-wave trailing edge	b10T	-0,031	0,082	2,69
32	Integration time	dim flash, b-wave	bit	-0,034	0,058	1,68
33	Stretch	dim flash, b-wave	bst	-0.031	0.025	0.79

608

609 **Figure 4.** Temperature-dependencies of example features in training dataset (n = 14  
610 mice). Feature values have been normalized with corresponding feature values  
611 recorded at reference body temperature according to equation  $(Y_{temp} - Y_{ref}) \cdot Y_{ref}^{-1}$ . The  
612 temperature is denoted as the difference compared to the reference temperature. A  
613 linear least squares fit is illustrated in each plot, the equation of the fit given above the  
614 x-axis. A) Time-to-peak of bright flash response a-wave, B) time to inflection point of the  
615 bright flash response a-wave, C) time-to-70% of the peak of dim flash response leading  
616 edge, D) time-to-peak of dim flash response b-wave, E) integration time of dim flash  
617 response b-wave, F) stretch-feature of the b-wave.

618 **Figure 5.** Model development and validation for bright flash responses. A) Temperature  
619 determination errors averaged over cross validations and expressed as RMS values for  
620 each linear regression model constructed of a single feature. B) Lowest BIC values of  
621 models containing a certain number of features. C) Relationship between estimated and  
622 measured temperatures, when applying the constructed model on new data. D)  
623 Histogram of temperature determination errors ( $T_{estimated} - T_{measured}$ ) illustrating error  
624 magnitudes and the shape of the error distribution.

625 **Figure 6.** Model development and validation for dim flash responses. A) Temperature  
626 determination errors averaged over cross validations and expressed as RMS values for  
627 each linear regression model constructed of a single feature. B) Lowest BIC values of  
628 models containing a certain number of features. C) Relationship between estimated and  
629 measured temperatures, when applying the constructed model on new data. D)

630 Histogram of temperature determination errors ( $T_{\text{estimated}} - T_{\text{measured}}$ ) illustrating error  
631 magnitudes and the shape of the error distribution.

632 **Figure 7.** Examination of stimulus intervals for continuous temperature estimation. A)  
633 Sequences of four dim flash responses were recorded with stimulus intervals 0.5-0.8 s  
634 (black squares), 1.0-1.3 s (red circles), 2.0-2.3 s (blue triangles), 3.0-3.3 s (green  
635 diamonds), and 4.0-4.3 s (purple stars). Between each sequence, the retina was dark  
636 adapted for at least 10 seconds. The time-to-peak of the b-wave was determined from  
637 the responses and normalized according to the time-to-peak of the first response in the  
638 sequence. Each stimulus interval category was tested with  $n = 3 - 6$  mice and the  
639 number of repetitions for each stimulus interval was 10 – 46. The results are illustrated  
640 as mean  $\pm$  SEM. B) After a single bright flash, series of very dim flash responses  
641 (amplitude  $\sim 10\%$  of b-wave reference amplitude) were recorded, the first one 3 seconds  
642 after the bright flash and then with 4 s interval. The last responses of the series were  
643 recorded with 10 s interval. Very dim flashes were applied here to minimize the  
644 lengthening of the light adapted period due to dim flash series. The recording protocol  
645 was repeated 3-5 times with  $n = 3$  mice. An exponential fit was performed to each time-  
646 to-peak series, and the values were normalized with the plateau level obtained from the  
647 fit. The data is presented as mean  $\pm$  SEM. An exponential shown in the figure (red  
648 trace) is obtained by fitting to the averaged data.

649 **Figure S1.** A-wave time-to-peak shows similar temperature-dependence when  
650 determined from *in vivo* (black circles) and *ex vivo* (blue stars) photoresponses in the  
651 temperature range of  $-2.0 \dots +4.5$  °C. At higher temperatures, nonlinear behavior  
652 emerges to *ex vivo* time-to-peak. Temperature dependence slope determined by least  
653 squares linear fit was  $-0.033$  for *in vivo* time-to-peak (black dashed trace) and  $-0.031$  for  
654 *ex vivo* time-to-peak (red dashed trace) in the range of  $-2.0 \dots +4.5$  °C. The  
655 corresponding slope fitted to all *ex vivo* data is  $-0.023$  (blue dashed trace).

656

657 **APPENDIX**

658 The baseline of each response was set to zero by generating an autoregressive model  
 659 of order 5000 based on the ERG signal preceding the stimulus. With the model, the  
 660 signal baseline behavior after the stimulus was estimated and subtracted from the  
 661 response. This baseline correction method diminishes periodical artefacts caused e.g.  
 662 by mouse breathing movements.

663 Responses were low pass FIR-filtered using the following cutoff frequencies,  $f_c$ , and  
 664 orders,  $n$ : features #1-10:  $f_c = 100$ ,  $n = 50$ ; #11-12:  $f_c = 40$ ,  $n = 300$ ; #13-21 and #33:  $f_c =$   
 665  $20$ ,  $n = 600$ ; #23-32:  $f_c = 30$ ,  $n = 400$ ; and #22: no filtering. The level of filtering affects  
 666 the slope of temperature dependence. Therefore, filter parameters were selected  
 667 according to our previous publication with *ex vivo* ERG (Pitkänen et al., 2017) to enable  
 668 comparison of temperature dependencies between these two modalities. However, it  
 669 should be noted that the number of averaged responses differs compared to our  
 670 previous work, and thus, the dispersion of feature values cannot be directly compared.

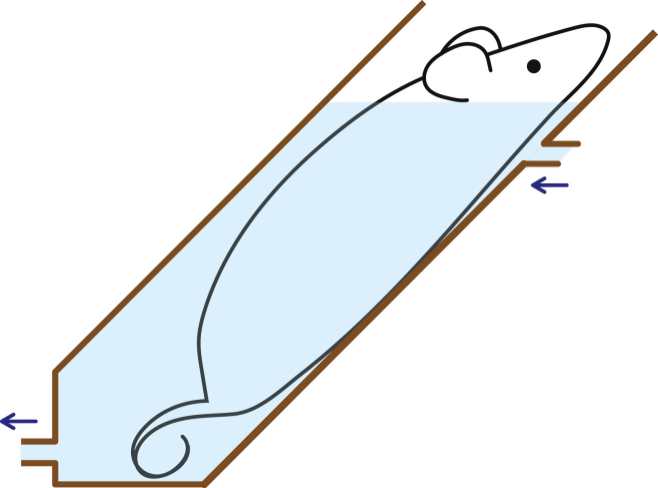
671 The peak of the a-wave was located by proceeding through the leading edge of the  
 672 bright flash response and finding the time point  $t_{max}$  where the subtraction of response  
 673 values  $V(t + 1ms) - V(t - 1ms)$  changed sign. The location of the peak was slightly  
 674 corrected by fitting a quadratic polynomial between  $[t_{max} - 2ms, t_{max} + 2ms]$  and the  
 675 minimum of this fit defined the time-to-peak,  $t_{a-peak}$ , and the amplitude of the a-wave,  
 676  $a - peak$ . Thereafter, the time-to-X% of a-wave peak could be defined as the time point  
 677  $t_{a-x}$  at which the comparison  $V(t) < X\% \cdot a - peak$  became true. The inflection point  
 678 was determined as the local minimum of the derivative of a cubic polynomial fitted to the  
 679 leading edge of the a-wave.

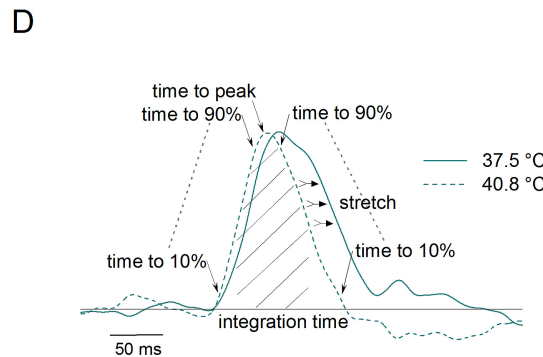
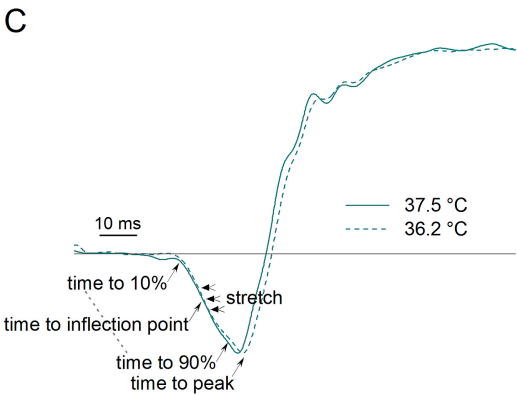
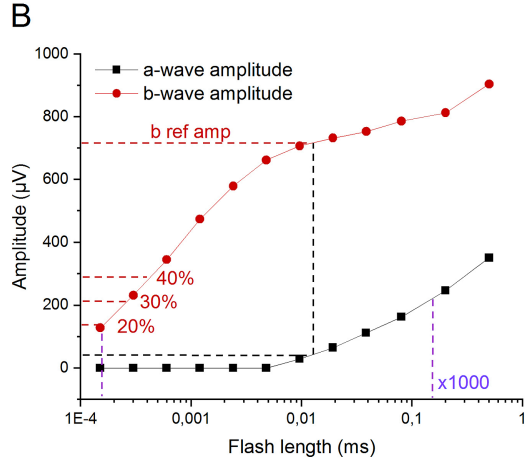
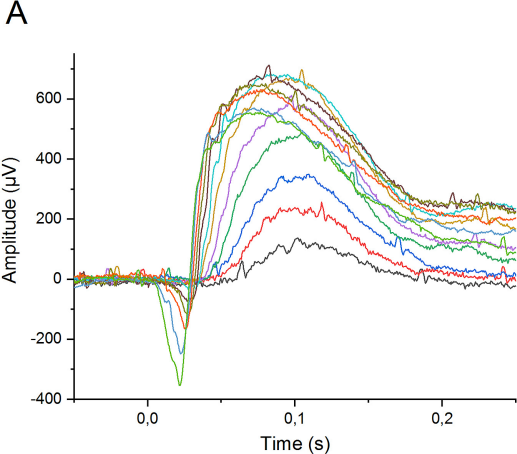
680 The peak of the b-wave was located by fitting a quadratic polynomial around the global  
 681 maximum of the dim flash response  $[t_{max} - 30ms, t_{max} + 30ms]$ . The location of the  
 682 peak was slightly corrected by repeating the fitting around the peak obtained from the  
 683 first fit. The maximum of the second fit defined the time-to-peak,  $t_{b-peak}$ , and the  
 684 amplitude of the b-wave,  $b - peak$ . The time-to-X% features of the b-wave leading edge  
 685 ( $t_{bt-x}$ ) and trailing edge ( $t_{bt-x}$ ) were determined as time points where the comparisons  
 686  $V(t) > X\% \cdot b - peak, t > 0$  and  $V(t) < X\% \cdot b - peak, t > t_{b-peak}$  became true,

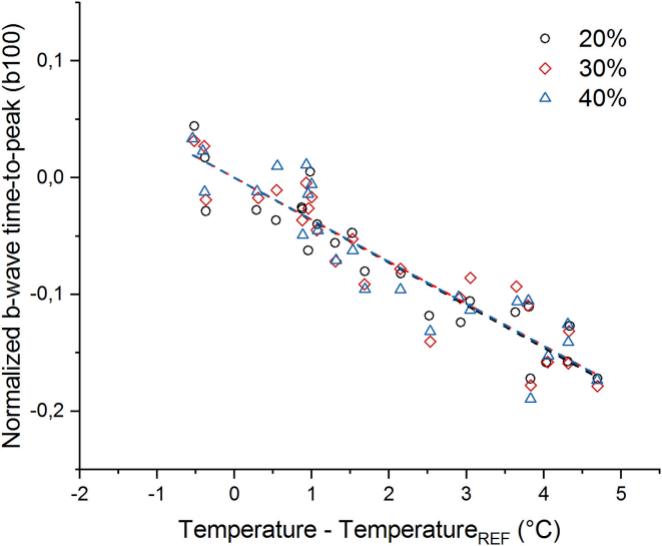
687 respectively. The integration time was determined by calculating the integral of the  
688 response by trapezoidal method from  $t = t_{bt-40}$  until  $t = t_{bt-40}$ . The integral was  
689 divided by the amplitude  $b - peak$ .

690 The stretch feature measures the amount of stretching or compressing needed for the  
691 response recorded at elevated or lowered temperature to coincide with the reference  
692 response. The re-scaling of the time axis was obtained by calculating linearly  
693 interpolated values of each response at new time points obtained by multiplying the  
694 original time axis with a factor between 0.75 and 1.15. The factor leading to the lowest  
695 sum of squared errors compared to the reference response defined the feature value.  
696 For the a-wave, the responses were at first divided by the amplitude  $a - peak$  and the  
697 sum of squared errors was calculated between time points  $[10ms, t_{a-peak}]$ . For the b-  
698 wave, normalizing responses was found unnecessary and the sum of squared errors  
699 was calculated between  $[0ms, 300ms]$ .

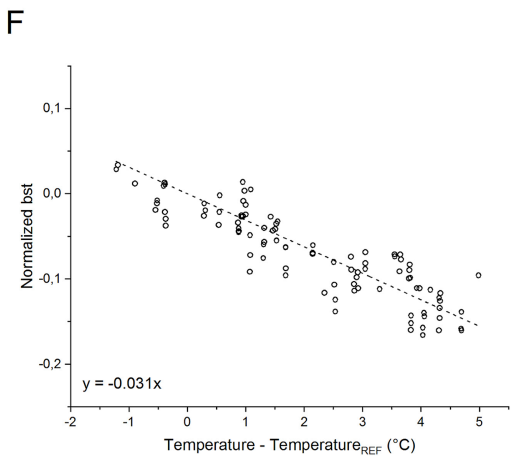
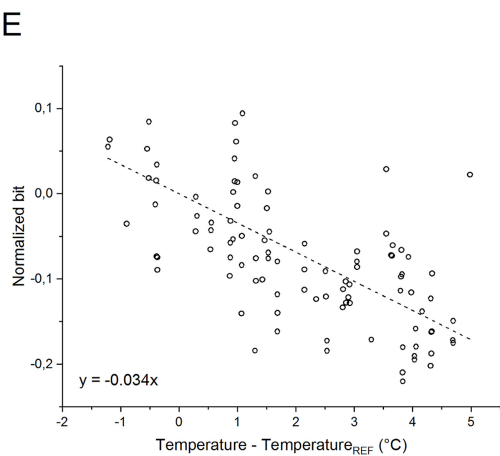
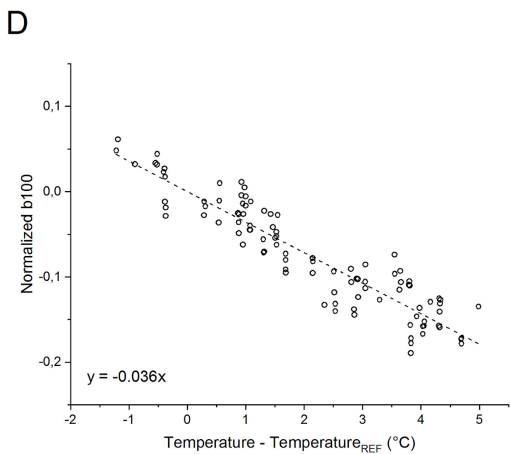
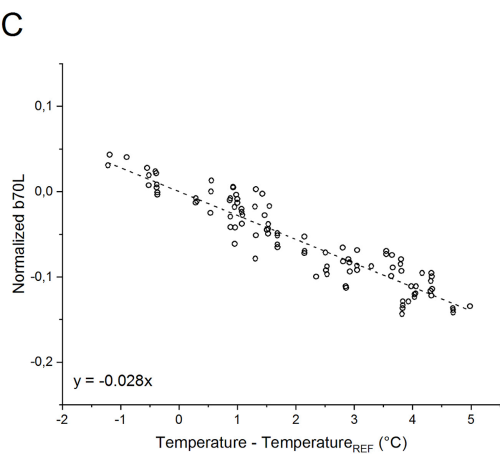
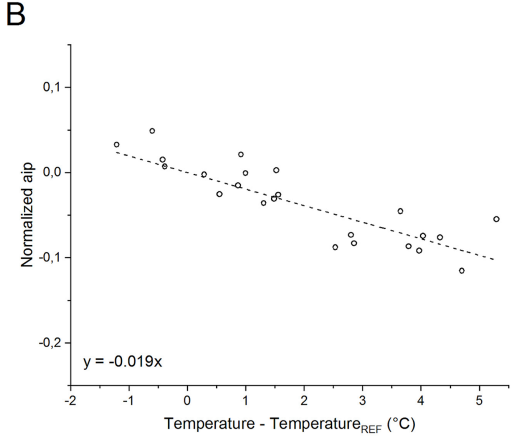
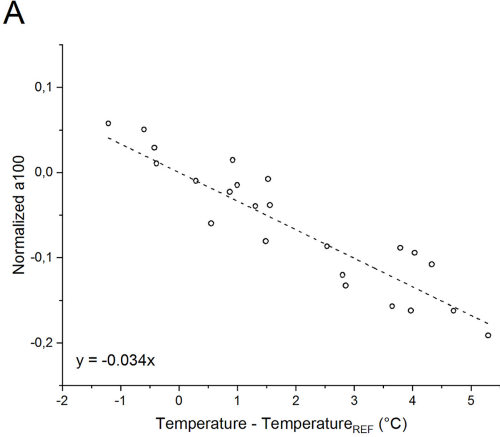
- Mouse corneal ERG recording provides means for monitoring the temperature of the distal retina and the RPE.
- Five scotopic dim flash responses enabled the estimation of distal retina temperature with an RMS error of 0.68 °C.
- Both bright flash response a-wave and dim flash response b-wave are applicable for temperature estimation, but b-waves provide better accuracy with higher temporal resolution.
- The accuracy of the developed retinal temperature estimation method enables the control of the heating power in non-damaging retinal heating treatments.

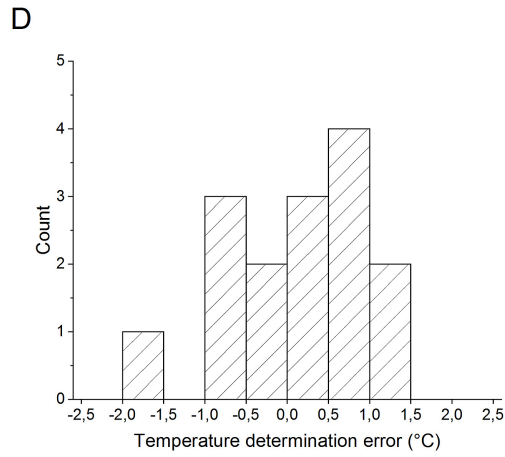
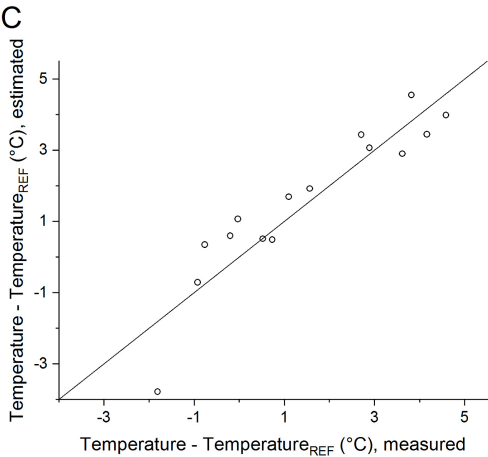
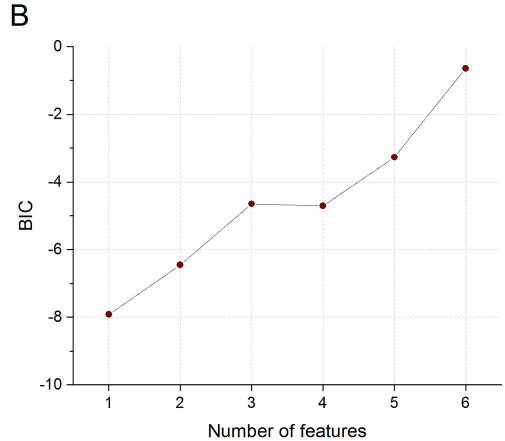
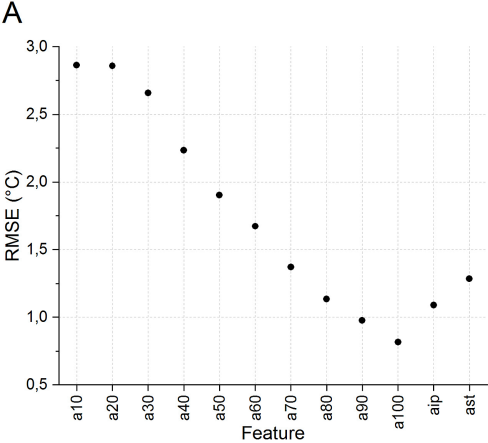


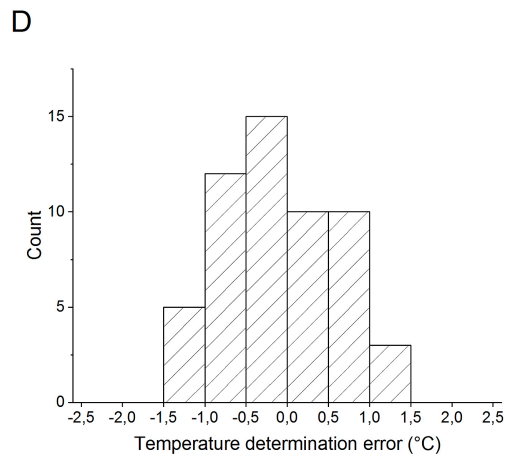
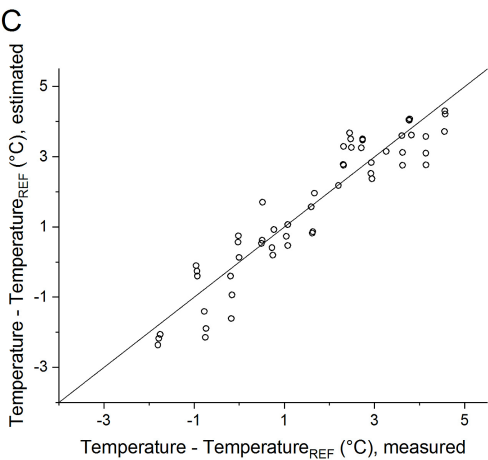
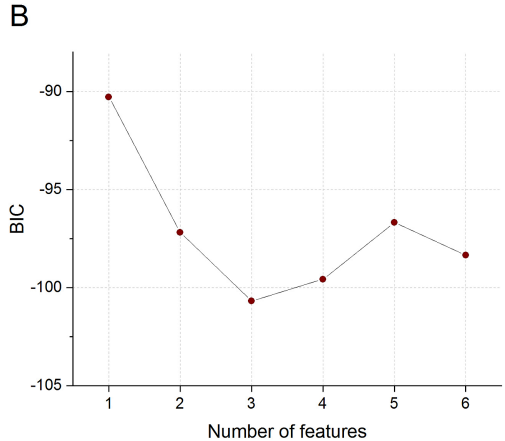
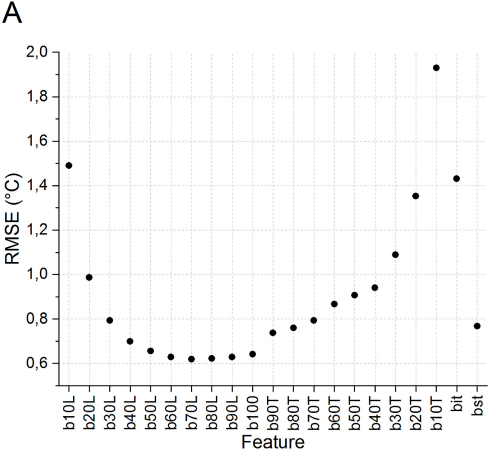




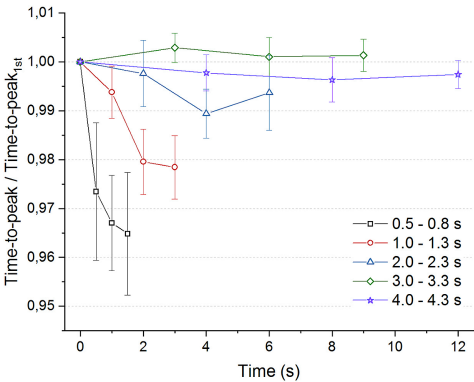








A



B

