CLINICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL
OPTOMETRY

INVITED REVIEW

Correction of presbyopia: old problems with old (and new) solutions

Pete S Kollbaum OD PhD FAAO
Arthur Bradley PhD

School of Optometry, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, USA
E-mail: kollbaum@indiana.edu

We live in a three-dimensional world and the human eye can focus images from a wide range of distances by adjusting the power of the eye's lens (accommodation). Progressive senescent changes in the lens ultimately lead to a complete loss of this ability by about age 50, which then requires alternative strategies to generate high-quality retinal images for far and close viewing distances. This review paper highlights the biomimetic properties and underlying optical mechanisms of induced anisometropia, small apertures, dynamic lenses, and multi-optic lenses in ameliorating the visual consequences of presbyopia. Specifically, the advantages and consequences of non-liner neural summation leveraged in monovision treatments are reviewed. Additionally, the value of a small pupil is quantified, and the impact of pinhole pupil location and their effects on neural sensitivity are examined. Different strategies of generating multifocal optics are also examined, and specifically the interaction between ocular and contact or intraocular lens aberrations and their effect on resulting image quality are simulated. Interestingly, most of the novel strategies for aiding presbyopic and pseudophakic eyes (for example, monovision, multifocality, pinhole pupils) have emerged naturally via evolution in a range of species.

We live in a three-dimensional world, and with monofocal optics, only one object distance can generate a focused image at any given time.[1,2] Therefore, most of the retinal image is likely to be out of focus most of the time. However, optical defocus can be catastrophic for human vision[3] and may also be a stimulus for failed emmetropisation and the continued eye growth that underlies myopia.[4–6]

Most vertebrate eyes focus images on the retina by adjusting the optical power of the eye as stimulus distance changes by either moving the eye's lens (for example, fish[7–9] and cats[10]), adjusting the power of the eye's lens (for example, humans), or adjusting the power of the cornea (for example, chameleons).[11–13] However, less common strategies are employed that use a pinhole pupil to expand the depth of field (for example, nautilus[14]), multifocal optics (for example, fish[15]), and different powers in different eyes (for example, chameleons[16]). Variants of these less common strategies are now being utilised by older humans who have lost the ability to adjust power of their lenses (presbyopes and pseudphakes[17,18]), a senescent trait also observed in non-human primates and other mammals.[18,19] This paper builds upon recent comprehensive reviews[20,21] to examine the optical implications of current and potential strategies to focus the retinal image despite the loss of accommodative ability.

Induced anisometropia

Although different distances can be focused by employing different optical powers in each eye (for example, chameleons[16]), evolution has not developed this approach for humans for whom anisometropia is rare and a possible cause of visual cortical disruption if present in early life (amblyopia, loss of stereopsis).[22] However, inducing anisometropia in older presbyopic or pseudophakic patients ('monovision') has been shown to expand the binocular depth of field by generating clear bifocality of the binocular visual system,[23–26] and high-quality vision at two distances (Figure 1).[27] The success of monovision hinges on the observation that vision with one focused and one defocused eye is dominated by the focused image,[28] as shown quantitatively in studies of contrast sensitivity[23–25] and

visual acuity.[26,29] The improvement in near vision created by correcting one eye can be dramatic, but monovision does not replicate the range of high-quality vision observed in young adults (Figure 1). There is a small reduction of peak acuity and contrast sensitivity down to levels observed with monocular vision.[30,31] Additionally, intermediate distance vision (where neither eye has a focused image) is significantly degraded, an effect that is exacerbated by high add powers[23,26] (Figure 1). Also, because monocular defocus is especially detrimental to stereopsis,[32,33] patients fit with monovision corrections have compromised stereo acuity[34,35] and discrimination of suprathreshold horizontal disparities.[36] Furthermore, in binocularly vulnerable patients monovision can induce strabismus.[37]

Unlike a bifocal lens which simultaneously produces focused and defocused images that add optically (and therefore linearly) at the retina, a monovision patient must employ binocular neural summation to add focused and defocused images in the cortex where non-linear summation[38] or cross-eye neural inhibition[39] is thought to reduce the visibility of the defocused image.[28]
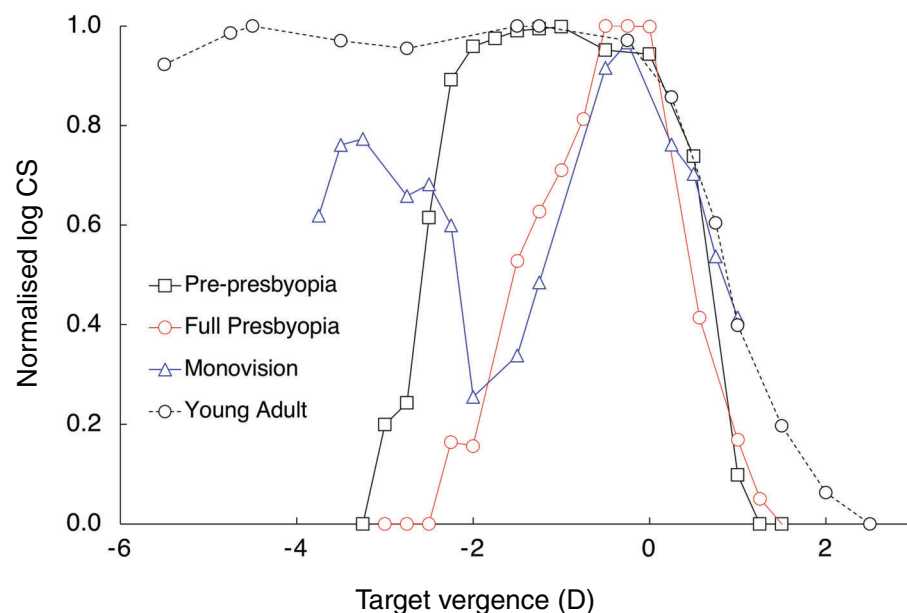
Figure 1. Contrast sensitivity plotted as a function of target vergence (dioptres) for four different subjects: A young adult (24 years of age; circle symbols and black dashed line), a pre-presbyope not yet requiring a reading add (44 years of age; square symbols and black solid line), a full presbyope who had been using a reading add for several years (44 years of age; red circle symbols and red solid line), and a full presbyope wearing a +3.00 D add in front of one eye (blue triangle symbols and blue solid line). Y-axis is log normalised CS (log CS/best corrected binocular single vision log contrast sensitivity).

Small aperture optics

The need for multiple optical powers can be avoided by employing pinhole optics, which can expand the depth of field of the eye[21,40,41] because the blur resulting from defocus is approximately proportional to pupil diameter.[42] The invertebrate nautilus employs this type of pinhole eye design, achieving imaging and depth of field with a small pupil,[14] and to a lesser extent, there is some argument that human vision also employs this small pupil strategy. Pupil size generally decreases over the age of 50,[43] and the retention of near vision pupil miosis in older eyes[44,45] can further reduce pupil size for the near viewing conditions where defocus is more likely. The smaller pupils in older eyes effectively correct for the increased aberrations found in these eyes.[46,47] However, the senescent decrease in photopic and mesopic pupil diameters in 65 year old eyes (for example, ranging from 4.7 to 3.8 photopically and 6.8 to 4.9 mm mesopically[43]) fails to provide sufficient expansion of the depth of field for older observers, who typically require some optical correction to read at near.[48]

The impact of pupil size on depth of field can be seen in Figure 2 where image quality (visual Strehl ratio on optical transfer function)[49–51] is plotted as a function of target vergence (adapted from Xu et al.[41]) assuming high photopic light levels and a typically aberrated older eye. The depth of field versus diffraction blur trade-off can be seen. The impact of diffraction is striking once the pupil size is reduced to under 2 mm, and peak image quality for the 0.5 mm pupil is less than 10 per cent of that achieved with mid-sized pupils. However, for near distances between 100 and 50 cm, the 1 mm pupil provides the best image quality, and it outperforms the 0.5 mm pupil over more than a 3.5 D range. The degradation in image quality due to the added spherical aberration reduces peak image quality for the largest pupil (7 mm) to that observed with a 1 mm pupil. Maximum peak image quality is observed with pupil diameters between 2.5 and 4.5 mm. For this aberrated eye that is paraxially emmetropic, there is a small myopic shift as the pupil is dilated due to positive spherical aberration.

Clinical strategies that employ pinhole pupils to expand the eye's depth of field have a long history (for example, Daza de Valdes, 1591, cited in a recent review by Charman[21]). Three key parameters must be selected: pupil axial location, pupil size, and whether to employ a fixed pupil or one that varies with light level.

Small pupils have been introduced into the spectacle plane,[52–54] corneal plane[55,56] and iris plane.[57] Placing a small pupil into the spectacle plane will expand the eye's depth of field (as proposed by Donders), but will also drastically reduce the field of view (for example, a 1 mm pinhole placed 17 mm in front of the eye's entrance pupil will start vignetting the retinal image for field eccentricities of about +/−3 degrees),[52,53] which limits the clinical utility of such an approach. One strategy to deal with this field restriction has been to employ multiple pinholes in the spectacle plane, obtaining some depth of field expansion and each individual pinhole allowing light to reach the retina from different field locations producing a complex patchwork of images and scotomas.[53] Placing the pinhole into the corneal plane either surgically[58–60] or with a contact lens[61] reduces the field constriction effect. However, light from the mid-periphery will still be blocked from entering the eye,[62–66] and total peripheral field occlusion can only be avoided by employing an annular 'iris', which for large field angles allows light to enter the eye around the outside of the inlay.[63] These field constriction problems can be avoided by placing the pinhole pupil into or very close to the iris plane (for example, by employing pharmacological miotics),[67–70] or including a small aperture into the anterior surface of an intraocular lens (IOL),[55,57,71] or piggy-back implantation of a pinhole aperture.[72]

Selection of pinhole pupil size is affected by many factors, but a balance must be struck between improving the defocused near vision without compromising focused distance vision.[73] The value of pinhole optics for presbyopic vision occurs because blur resulting from defocus will approximately scale in proportion to the amount of defocus and pupil diameter,[42] for example, the blur present in the retinal image when a distance-corrected presbyope views a stimulus at 50 cm through a 6 mm pupil can be halved by adding a +1.00 D correcting lens, or reducing pupil diameter to 3 mm. However, this proportionality rule ignores the impact of diffraction and optical aberrations.
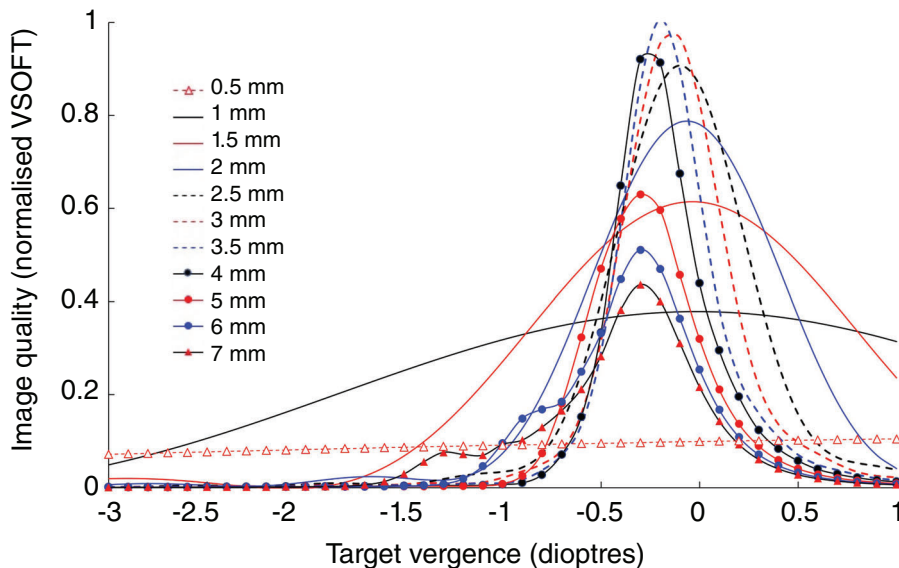
Figure 2. Image quality for different pupil diameters is plotted as a function of target vergence (dioptres) for a model eye with 0.2 microns of primary spherical aberration (C_4^0). Image quality is quantified by the visual Strehl ratio on optical transfer function metric[49–51] normalised to the diffraction limited value observed with a 3 mm diameter pupil.

It also fails to capture the significant impact of pupil constriction on retinal illuminance and vision.[73] As pupil size decreases, the role of diffraction blur in degrading image quality is amplified,[41] but the impact of higher-order aberrations is reduced, which produces a peak image quality in a focused eye for pupil diameters between 2 and 3 mm.[73,74] At high light levels, where Weber's law is effective, the accompanying drop in retinal illuminance produced by pupil constriction has no effect on vision.[75] However, at low photopic and mesopic light levels, reducing retinal illuminance lowers contrast sensitivity due to photon noise effects,[73,76] and the combined effects of diffraction and reductions in retinal illuminance can significantly impair distance vision when pupil diameters are decreased below 2.5 mm.[74] These studies emphasise that, as is the case for normal human vision,[77,78] the optimum pupil diameter for presbyopia treatment is larger at low environmental light levels.[74] Interestingly, in highly aberrated eyes, depth of focus can be expanded by either constricting the pupil (pinhole pupil effect) or dilating the pupil (multifocal optics effect).[41]

Pinhole spectacle devices have employed pupils less than 1 mm (for example, 0.9 mm[52,53]), with a resulting diffraction limit of < 30 cpd, which predictably impairs focused vision in the central field at photopic light levels.[53] For example, the KAMRA corneal inlays employ a 1.6 mm artificial pupil, which has proven effective at providing reading at near in photopic conditions.[60,79] Pharmacological pupil miotics have reduced pupil diameters to between 1–2 mm at photopic light levels, providing significant improved near vision and effective near reading.[68] However, laboratory studies reveal that such small pupils will significantly degrade focused (distance) vision when lighting drops to low photopic and mesopic levels.[73,74] Balancing the need for expanded depth of field with the need to avoid loss of distance vision may require a small pupil approach that adjusts with light level, and this behaviour is generally observed with miotics drugs.[80] As pointed out by Charman,[21] effectiveness of expanding the eye's depth of field may also be enhanced if the eye is slightly myopic.

Lens mobility

Similar to the approach taken by some fish[7–9] and cats,[10] multifocality can also be achieved by adjusting the position of the eye's lens. This approach lies at the heart of strategies to re-establish accommodation in pseudophakic eyes. In particular, the Food and Drug Administration approved Crystalens (Bausch and Lomb, Rochester, NY, USA) employs a hinged haptic to try to utilise existing ciliary muscle activity to move the lens axially in pseudophakic eyes.[81] However, despite the addition of aspheric optics to the most recent lens design (Crystalens AO) aimed at creating spherical aberration-free surfaces,[82] inadequate axial movement has prevented this device from being widely successful.[83]

Lens power variations

Multifocality can also be achieved by non-dynamic methods. Similar to some fish,[15] optical corrections in which optical power varies with spatial location across the pupil have been implemented in modern multifocal IOLs[84–86] and contact lenses.[87–90] Radially symmetric or concentric design multifocal lenses are most common,[20] but early multifocal contact lenses employed a segmented geometry inherited from spectacle lenses,[91–93] as did the earliest bifocal IOL (a variant of which is still produced).[94] Segmented bifocal contact lenses, however, suffered from rotational instabilities,[92] and are now typically only implemented as gas-permeable lens designs utilised for a select patient group.[20] Optical modelling reveals, however, that meridionally segmented optical designs may offer superior optical performance.[95,96]

The core principle of a concentric multifocal design is that it will be rotationally insensitive and include two or more powers contained in geometrically separate zones located at different distances from the lens centre[97] (Figure 3). Designs that incorporate two powers in alternating annular zones often also include significant regions of the lens in which there is a gradual power change with increasing radial distance.[98,99] For example, in Figure 3, which shows high-resolution Shack-Hartmann two-dimensional power maps and radially averaged power profile maps, this can be seen in both the centre-distance (top left) and centre-near (lower left) designs, and to a lesser extent in the concentric ring design (top right). Manufacturing limitations may necessitate a spatial spread of the transition in optical power, thereby adding multiple powers, and thus authenticating 'multifocal' labelling despite the fact that the lens design may have been strictly bifocal. This manufacturing by-product is
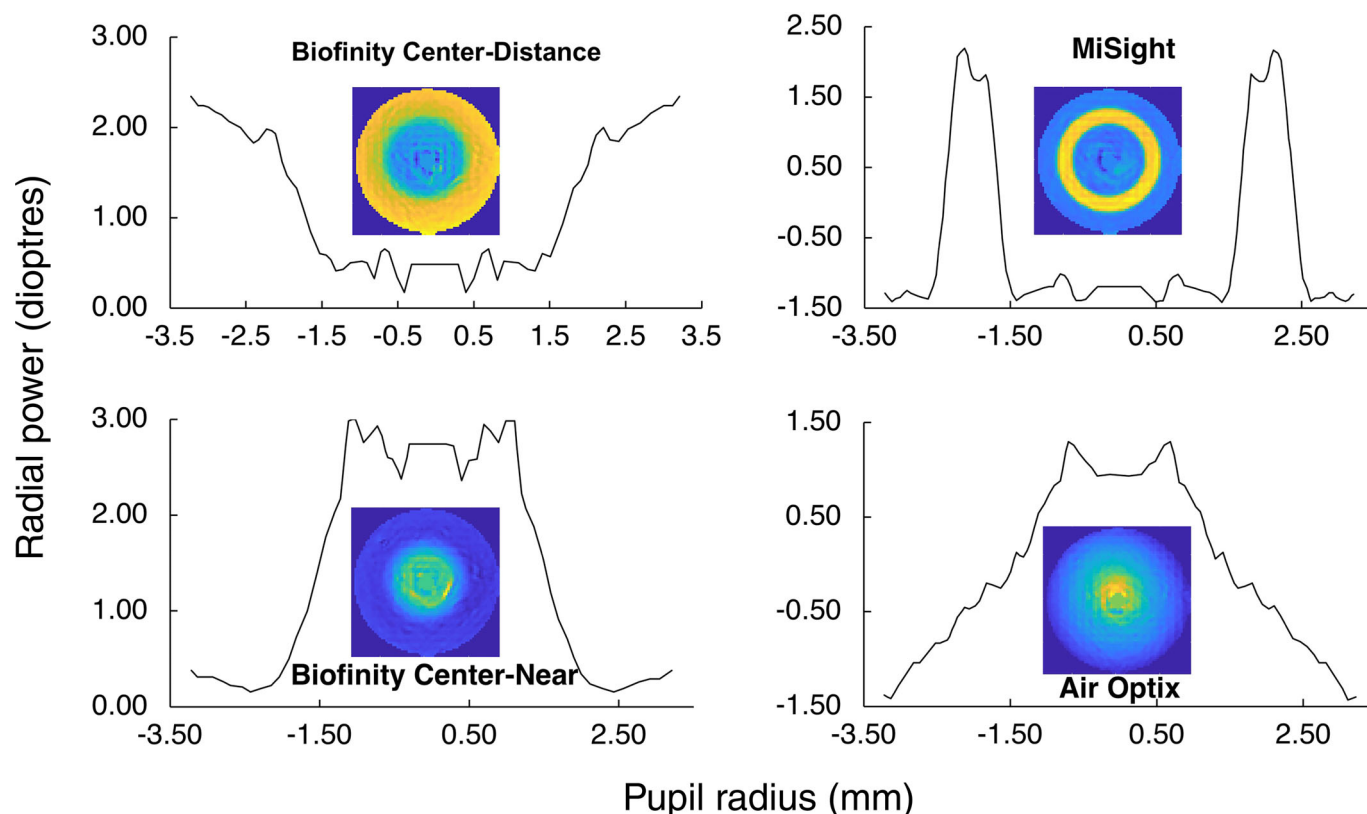
Figure 3. This figure shows power profiles of four multifocal contact lenses, two centre-distance designs (Biofinity CD and MiSight, both CooperVision, Pleasanton, CA, USA), and two centre-near designs (Biofinity CN and AirOptix, CooperVision and Alcon, Ltd, Fort Worth, TX, USA, respectively). Radial power was computed from wavefront slope data collected over a 7 mm analysis diameter (Power = slope/radius[178,179]) measured with a validated[129] Clear Wave (Lumetrics, Inc., Rochester, NY, USA) single pass Shack-Hartmann aberrometer (sample spacing of 0.104 mm). To avoid exaggerated computational noise errors near to the lens centre, power computations are not made in the central 0.6 mm, so this very centre data should be ignored. Colour maps show the radial symmetry of these four designs. In each colour map, the mean power is assigned green colour, and positive and negative deviations are coded by warm (yellow, orange) and cold (cyan, blue) colours, respectively.

quite different from a multifocal design containing a spatially extensive power gradient (similar to adding spherical aberration) from the lens centre to its periphery (Figure 3, lower right).

Another type of multifocal lens employs many concentric zones that each introduce half wavelength (or other fractional wavelength) optical path length steps between zones. These are usually referred to as diffractive lenses because their imaging properties rely on specific optical path length changes between zones[100,101] and result in constructive interference (images) at focal distances determined by the ring geometry.[102] In these lenses, a half wavelength (pi) phase shift between each zone produces a lens with two powers, a bifocal[26,101,103] and other phase step combinations can be used to generate trifocal

designs.[104–106] These diffractive designs can be distinguished from the previously described concentric refractive lenses because every location across the lens contributes to each power, and thus these lenses are often referred to as 'full aperture' designs,[107–110] in which the relative amount of energy in the distance and near images does not necessarily vary with pupil size, as it does with concentric refracting designs.[97–99] Diffractive optics have been incorporated into several IOLs,[26,101,103,106,111,112] but have had limited commercial success as contact lenses (for example, Echelon[113,114] and Diffrax[115]).

The pupil size dependency of concentric refractive designs can be considered either a liability or an attractive feature of the design,[97] and indeed, several IOLs have specifically modified the standard diffractive

design to generate a pupil size dependency in which the add optical power produced by the diffractive optical element contributes a higher proportion of the light in the image with small pupils and a much smaller proportion for large pupils. This 'centre-near' approach biases the optics toward the near add for near viewing (due to near viewing pupil miosis, which is present in older eyes[116,117]) but biases the optics to distance vision at night.[101,112] For example, a centre-near two-zone design with a central 3 mm diameter zone may become effectively a monofocal near correction at high light levels[97,98,118] resulting in all of the image energy being defocused when viewing distant objects. Similar to the diffractive lenses, an alternative design approach that varies power across meridians and not as a function of radius[95] may also have optical

characteristics that are approximately invariant as pupil size changes. Also, such designs avoid the inherently poor optical quality available from thin annular apertures[97] resulting in generally superior optical quality of the meridionally varying designs.[95] Such meridionally varying lenses were first introduced into IOLs by cementing together half lenses with differing powers.[94]

Eye's inherent multifocality

Although the presbyopic eye is often considered as a monofocal optical system to be augmented with multifocal lenses in presbyopia and pseudophakia, the eye's optics are actually multifocal. For example, ocular longitudinal chromatic aberration (LCA) of the human eye generates approximately a 2.5 D difference in refractive state at the two extremes of the visible spectrum. Whitefoot and Charman[119] examined the impact on depth of focus by doubling or correcting LCA. Depth of focus increased by 0.50 D when doubling LCA and decreased by 0.30 D when correcting LCA. Some diffractive lens designs have the opposite sign of longitudinal chromatic aberration to refractive optics (more power at long wavelength versus short).[102,103,115] Therefore, the reverse LCA in the first diffractive order used to contribute bifocal add power can mostly correct the ocular LCA,[103] providing improved polychromatic image quality. These studies reveal that the multifocality of human eyes due to the wavelength dependence of refractive index offers little true multifocality for polychromatic stimuli, as expected due to the large visual attenuation of the spectral margins.[120]

The human eye also exhibits significant multifocality at each wavelength, primarily due to spherical aberration and coma. The former produces optical power that varies with radius squared, typically resulting in a myopic shift of about 2.00 D at the edge of an 8 mm diameter pupil.[121] Coma, on the other hand, can create a meridional linear ramp of power across the pupil. Therefore, the typical eye has both inherent radial and meridional multifocality, but as most presbyopes can attest, these levels of inherent multifocality remain insufficient to provide the depth of focus required to navigate our three-dimensional world. However, the naturally occurring changes in refractive state across the pupil will add to (or subtract from) any multifocality provided by a

contact lens or IOL.[97,122] Therefore, the significant positive spherical aberration exhibited by older eyes,[123–125] and the corneas of pseudophakes[126] may augment any centre-distance multifocal that also contributes more positive power with increasing radial distance from the lens centre (positive spherical aberration). However, in the case of centre-near designs which inherently contain negative spherical aberration,[27,98,99,122] ocular positive spherical aberration will subtract from the add power provided by the multifocal lens containing negative spherical aberration.[97] Importantly, ocular spherical aberration may be either a help or hindrance depending on the type of design being fit, and may likely contribute to the variable patient responses often experienced with these multifocal designs.[127]

Therefore, to achieve a desired level of multifocality in the corrected eye requires larger radially varying power changes (spherical aberration) in the correcting lens of a centre-near design than of a centre-distance design.[27,97,122] Although it is a simple matter to add the extra radially varying power needed for the centre-near designs, high levels of spherical aberration in a contact lens will introduce more coma as the lens decentres,[128,129] a problem well documented in the contact lens[44,130–133] and IOL[134–140] literature. Because many commercially available multifocal contact lenses and IOLs employ centre-near designs this problem is likely to be commonplace.

Figure 4 quantifies this issue by examining the impact of lens decentration when the
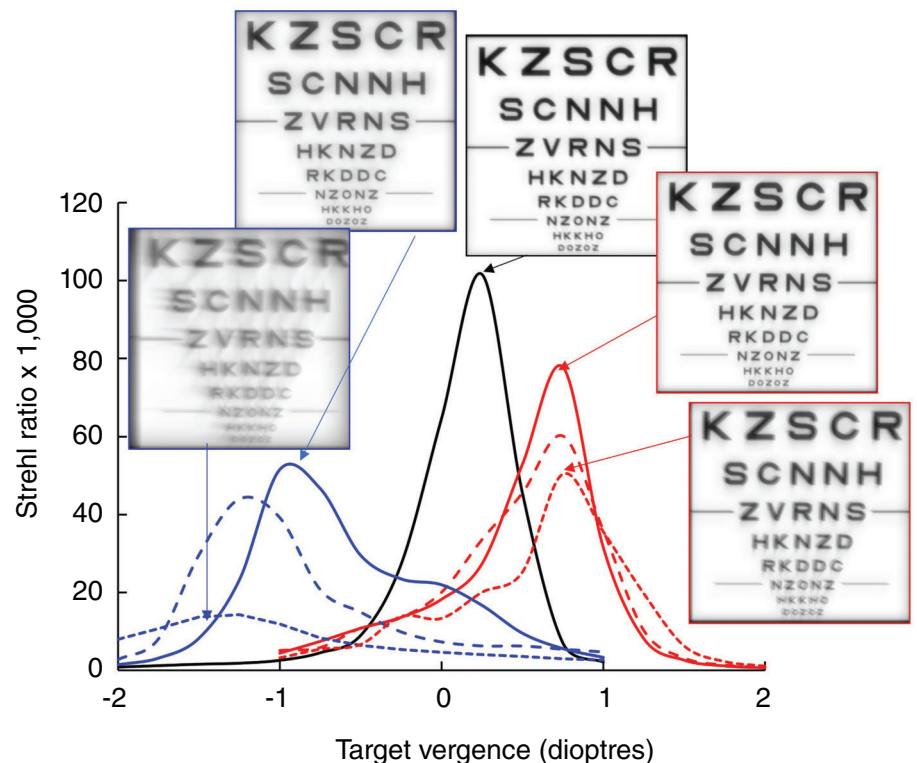

Figure 4. Impact on image quality of adding spherical aberration to achieve multifocality. The graph plots the Strehl Ratio image quality metric ×1,000 as a function of target vergence in dioptres for an aberrated presbyopic eye with a 6 mm pupil and +0.2 microns of C_4^0 (black curve), and for the same eye after spherical aberration has been added to give the eye+contact lens either +0.4 microns of C_4^0 spherical aberration (centre-distance model, red) or −0.4 microns of C_4^0 spherical aberration (centre-near model, blue). Further, 0.5 mm or 1.0 mm of lens decentration was introduced into the same centre-distance and centre-near models (dashed and dotted lines, respectively). Images of logMAR letter charts show the peak image quality achievable with and without 1 mm contact lens decentration.

added lens is designed to achieve a net spherical aberration level of 0.4 microns across a 6 mm pupil. The model included the reported higher-order aberrations of older eyes,[141] with a baseline spherical aberration level (C_4^0) of +0.2 microns. To achieve matching eye+lens resultant positive and negative multifocality levels of positive or negative (C_4^0) of 0.4 microns, the centre-distance lens must add +0.2 microns to the eye's +0.2 microns, but the centre-near lens must add −0.6 microns. The resulting peak image quality is slightly higher for the centre-distance model, but the impact of lens decentration is now much more dramatic for the centre-near model because the coma introduced by decentration scales with the magnitude of the spherical aberration levels within the contact lens.[128] Peak image quality (Figure 4, see inserts) and overall image quality ultimately is affected more by lens decentration in the centre-near design because of the higher levels of lens spherical aberration required to achieve multifocality.

Problem of the simultaneously present defocused images

Although zonal, diffractive bifocal, and multifocal lenses provide the different powers required to focus distance and near stimuli on the retina, the focused image is always coupled with a defocused image produced by the optical power inappropriate for the stimulus distance (for example, near optic and distant target). The amount of defocused light in a simple two-zone concentric design will vary systematically with pupil size[97,98,122] (Figure 5A). When the outer zone of a two-zone concentric design is defocused, the defocused point spread function will be an annulus.[97,142,143] In this case, the resulting annular 'halo' will increase in size as the pupil dilates and be most visible when the stimulus contrast is highest, as it is when viewing lights at night (a common source of visual disturbance clinically reported with multifocal optics). In addition to reducing the size of these haloes by reducing the add power (described as either low add multifocal lenses or 'extended depth of focus' lenses),[144] two alternative strategies have been proposed to minimise the visibility of these haloes. In one, the size of the defocused halo is reduced by coupling positive defocus with negative spherical aberration (that is,
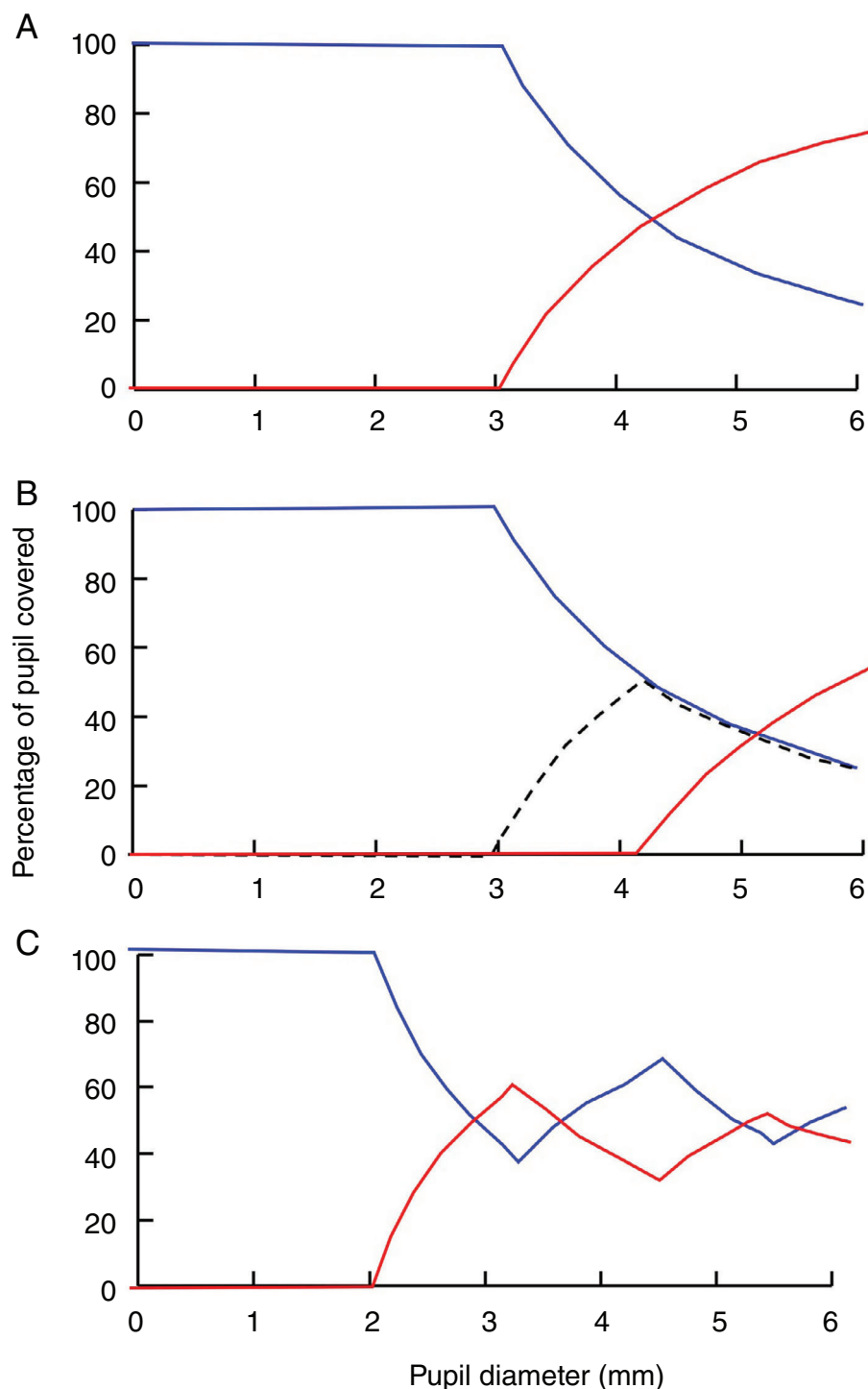

Figure 5. Three examples showing the relationship between pupil diameter (x-axis, mm) and the proportion of light imaged by each optic (y-axis) of radially varying zonal lenses. In each plot, the proportion of pupil covered by the distance (blue), near (red) and transition (black dashed) optics are plotted as a function of pupil diameter in mm for three centre-distance designs. Specifically, A: a lens with a 3 mm centre zone and an abrupt change to the add power, B: a centre-distance design with a 3 mm centre zone surrounded by 1.2 mm annulus across which power gradually changed to the near add power, and C: a five zone design with alternating distance (zones one, three, and five) and near (zones two and four) powers. Adapted from Bradley et al.[97] and Altoaimi et al.[98]
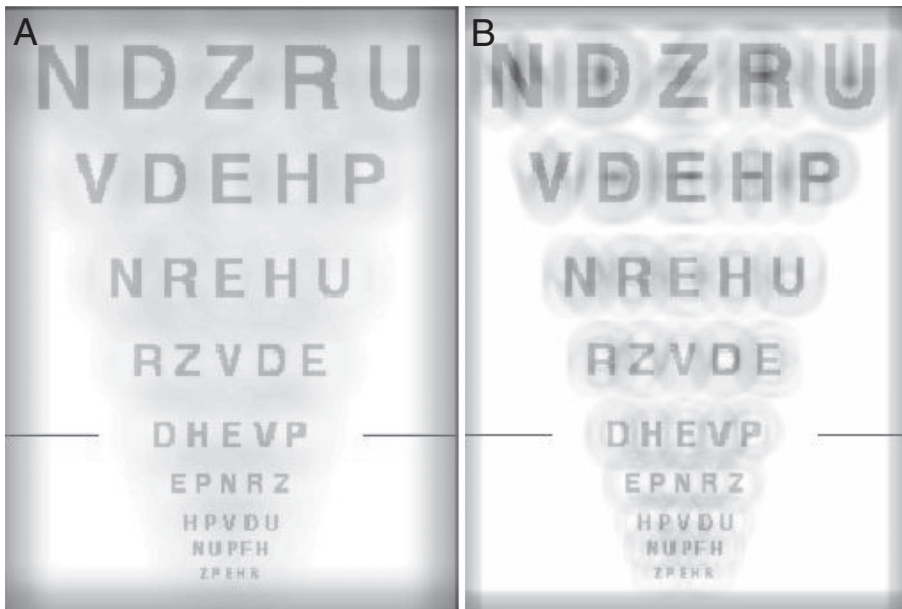
Figure 6. Simulated retinal images generated by a radially varying zonal bifocal lens when the centre zone is focused, and the add zone is nominally +2.00 D defocused. Centre zone diameter is 3 mm, pupil diameter is 6 mm. In A: 0.15 microns of positive spherical aberration was added to the add zone, and in B: negative spherical aberration was added.

including negative spherical aberration in the add zone) and vice versa. This produces a smaller but higher contrast halo. Alternatively, contrast of ghost images can be reduced by coupling positive spherical aberration with positive defocus (including positive spherical aberration in the add zone) and vice versa, which generates larger but lower contrast haloes with now clear edges.[145] The results of these two aberration-based strategies are simulated in Figure 6 for two designs of centre-distance optics with distance targets. On the left (Figure 6A), positive spherical aberration has been added to the near add zone increasing the size of the blur, but reducing its contrast, whereas on the right (Figure 6B), negative spherical aberration has been added to the add zone reducing the blur size but increasing its contrast. When positive defocus is generated by the add zone for distance stimuli, adding opposite sign negative spherical aberration creates high contrast phase reversed regions of the spatial frequency spectrum[103] which can disrupt the spatial structure of the focused image. This phase effect can be easily seen by comparing the phase correct but low contrast images in Figure 6A with the higher contrast but phase altered image in Figure 6B. Which would be more disruptive to a patient?

Adopting multifocal optical designs for the control of myopia

Although multifocal optical designs were originally developed to provide increased depth of focus for eyes lacking autofocus capability (presbyopic and pseudophakic eyes) as described above, recent experiments on infant monkeys have shown that adding some extra plus power to an otherwise hyperopic eye will slow the growth of the vitreal chamber resulting in reduced myopia.[146–148] Significantly, Smith et al. also showed that added plus power could be restricted to the peripheral retina and have a similar impact.[149] These two results have led to a rapid proliferation of optical interventions to control myopia development that employ added plus power, notably into the peripheral retina.[150–154] Plus power can be added to the peripheral retinal image using some of the same approaches described above, such as by several types of centre-distance concentric ring designs (for example, MiSight; CooperVision, Pleasanton, CA, USA) or annular (Biofinity Multifocal, CooperVision). The axial separation of the cornea and contact lens from the eye's entrance pupil necessitates that rays

entering the pupil from the peripheral field must pass through the peripheral optics of the contact lens.[63,155–158] Of course, a similar variation in refractive state across the visual field may also potentially be created by aspheric lenses containing significant positive spherical aberration.[159] Likewise, orthokeratology also produces an eye with myopia in the peripheral optics or equivalently an eye with positive corneal plane spherical aberration.[27,160–162] Consistent with the hypothesis of removing peripheral hyperopia from the retinal image, these multifocal concentric ring[163] and annular[164–166] contact lens designs and the multifocal orthokeratology corneas have generally shown promise at slowing myopia development.[163,167–173]

Lessons from evolution

Evolution developed some of the multifocal strategies now used to correct presbyopia, and the need for improved surrogates for accommodation grows every day as the presbyopic population grows toward an estimated 1.8 billion by 2050.[174,175] Additionally, the value of multifocal optics has expanded due to its ability to slow myopia progression.[163,167–173] As work continues to optimise these designs, there may be as yet untried evolutionary strategies that can be adapted. The true long-term solution, and where much of our future research likely may need to occur may be in preventing the onset of presbyopia in the first place.[176] Or, better yet, maybe even preventing ageing from occurring in the first place?[177] However, until then, a key understanding of the strengths and limitations of accommodation surrogates and how they might be applied in our clinical practices to aid our patients is critical.

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