

1 **Title: Enhanced maternal behaviors in a mouse model of congenital blindness**

2 *Short running title: Maternal behaviors in blind mice*

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15 **Abstract**

16 In mammals, mothering is one of the most important pro-social female behavior to promote
17 survival, proper sensorimotor and emotional development of the offspring. Different intrinsic
18 and extrinsic factors can initiate and maintain these behaviors, such as hormonal, cerebral, and
19 sensory changes. Infant cues also stimulate multisensory systems and orchestrate complex
20 maternal responsiveness. To understand the maternal behavior driven by complex sensory
21 interactions, it is necessary to comprehend the individual sensory systems by taking out other
22 senses. An excellent model for investigating sensory regulation of maternal behavior is a murine
23 model of congenital blindness, the ZRDBA mice, where both anophthalmic and sighted mice
24 are generated from the same litter. Therefore, this study aims to assess whether visual inputs
25 are essential to driving maternal behaviors in mice. Maternal behaviors were assessed using
26 three behavioral tests, including the pup retrieval test, the home cage maternal behavior test,
27 and the maternal aggression test. Our results show that blind mothers: 1) took less time to
28 retrieve their offspring inside the nest, 2) spent more time nursing and licking their offspring in
29 the second-and third-week post-partum, and 3) exhibited faster aggressive behaviors when
30 exposed to an intruder male, compared to the sighted counterparts. This study provides evidence
31 that congenitally blind mothers show more motivation to retrieve the pups, care, and protection
32 towards their pups than sighted ones, likely due to a phenomenon of sensory compensation.

33 **Key words:** Congenital blindness, maternal aggression, maternal behaviors, maternal
34 motivation, mice.

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Extensive work over the past 50 years has explored mechanisms mediating
37 caregiving/mothering behavior in a wide variety of model organisms spanning from fishes,
38 reptiles, birds, to mammals (Bosh, 2013; Dulac et al., 2014; Kristal, 2009; Stolzenberg &
39 Mayer, 2019). In most mammals, mothering is crucial for the survival, the optimal sensorimotor
40 and emotional development of the offspring, as the mother is the primary contributor to
41 ensuring care and protection (Bayerl & Bosch, 2019; Francis & Meaney, 1999; González-
42 Mariscal & Poindron, 2002; Klampfl & Bosch, 2019; Meaney, 2001; Schaal et al., 2009). It
43 appears that a core maternal circuit is widely conserved across several species (Numan & Insel,
44 2003). In rodents, the mother displays a constellation of maternal behaviors, defined by three
45 major components: (1) maternal motivation to retrieve pups into the nest, (2) maternal care, and
46 (3) maternal aggression (Bayerl & Bosch, 2019; Klampfl & Bosch, 2019; Numan & Woodside,
47 2010). More precisely, (1) maternal motivation, referring to an internal process that changes
48 the way an individual responds to specific external stimuli (Pfaff, 1982), was classically
49 assessed by using the pup retrieval test, (2) maternal care consists of nest building,
50 arching/crouching over pups for facilitating access to their nipples/milk, licking/grooming to
51 help them to urinate/defecate, and (3) maternal aggression is defined as protecting pups against
52 predators or threatening intruders (Bayerl & Bosch, 2019; Klampfl & Bosch, 2019). All these
53 maternal behaviors ensure the dietary, energy, thermal, and safety needs of the newly born
54 (Bosh, 2011; Caughey et al., 2011; González-Mariscal & Poindron, 2002). These coordinated
55 maternal behaviors are regulated by intrinsic factors, such as a variety of sensory and
56 neuroendocrine changes during the gestation and postnatal period (Lonstein et al., 2015;
57 Rosenblatt et al., 1979; Stern, 1989), and extrinsic factors, including pup exposure, female's
58 reproductive life history, and the degree of sensorimotor maturity of the newly born (Poindron,
59 2005; Keller et al., 2019; Lévy & Keller, 2009). From the late gestation until the weaning
60 period, all these changes operate in concert to rewire the brain and remodel the behavior of the
61 female expressing a high level of maternal responsiveness towards sensory cues emanating
62 from the offspring (Barrière et al., 2021; Numan & Insel, 2003; Rosenblatt & Lehrman, 1963;
63 Stern & Lonstein, 2001; Stolzenberg & Champagne, 2016).
64 Accordingly, the integrity of the sensory channels of the mothers is required to detect their pups,
65 easily localize them, nurse them, and protect them from predators and intruders (Gandelman et
66 al., 1970; Noirot, 1969; Rosenblatt, 1967). Since rodents are macrosmatic animals, olfaction is
67 the main sensory sense driving social behaviors (Brennan & Keverne, 2004; Swaney et al.,

68 2008). The importance of individual sensory systems on maternal behavior regulation has been
69 investigated by means of experimental alterations (deprivation of sensory inputs or lesion of
70 sensory organs) or absence of the sensory systems. In rodents, *firstly*, (1: maternal motivation
71 to retrieve pups into the nest) the ability to retrieve the pups is mainly driven by olfactory cues
72 emitted by offspring, as anosmia, congenitally or induced by olfactory bulb cauterization or by
73 gene mutation, results in impaired pup retrieval in female mice (Fraser & Shah, 2014; Weiss et
74 al., 2011) and rats (Beach & Jaynes, 1956). Ultrasonic vocalizations emitted when pups are
75 displaced from the nest are also shown to facilitate pup localization and pup retrieval in mice
76 (Noirot, 1965; Smotherman et al. 1974) and rats (Beach & Jaynes, 1956; Kenyon et al., 1983).
77 However, one study demonstrated that female mice have identical retrieving behavior when put
78 in the presence of live, dead or anesthetized pups (i.e. not emitting vocalizations) (Gandelman
79 et al., 1970), suggesting that body movements and vocalizations of the pups are not necessary
80 to elicit retrieving behavior. Visual inputs are also important since both peripherally and
81 centrally blinded female rats retrieved their scattered young but did so more slowly compared
82 to sighted ones (Beach, 1937; Beach & Jaynes, 1956). *Secondly*, (2: maternal care) it has been
83 widely established in rodents that the onset and maintenance of maternal behaviors throughout
84 the lactational period, including nest building, nursing or licking pups, are mainly regulated by
85 olfactory cues (Gandelman et al., 1971_{a,b}; 1972; Fraser & Shah, 2014; Sato et al., 2010;
86 Vandenbergh, 1973; Weiss et al., 2011) and tactile cues (Morgan et al., 1992; Stern, 1996; Stern
87 & Johnson, 1990). Ultrasonic vocalizations may also help the mother to avoid accidentally
88 stepping on the pups (Stern, 1997) and to adjust her nursing position or licking (Gaub & Ehret,
89 2005). Interestingly, making dams blind - by enucleating or suturing the rat mother's eyes after
90 parturition - leads to increased maternal care: mothers spent twice as much time licking
91 (Kolunie et al., 1994) and crouching over their pups compared to sighted ones (Herrenkohl &
92 Rosenberg, 1972). *Thirdly*, (3: maternal aggression) research in rats showed that olfactory cues
93 from the male intruder are crucial for eliciting maternal aggression (Ferreira et al., 1987;
94 Kolunie & Stern, 1995; Mayer & Rosenblatt, 1993), conversely to visual or auditory inputs
95 (Kolunie et al., 1994). Taken together, these findings highlight that the sensory regulation of
96 maternal behavior can vary depending on the specific components of maternal behavior, the
97 experimental procedure, and the tested sensory systems (Herrenkohl & Rosenberg, 1972;
98 Lonstein et al. 2015; Stolzenberg & Mayer, 2019).

99 Whilst the sensory mechanisms underlying maternal behaviors have been investigated
100 mostly through sudden and late-deterioration sensory systems in rodents, little work to date has
101 explored the impact of early sensory deprivation on the expression of maternal responsiveness.

102 To our knowledge, no study has investigated the effect of early blindness on maternal behaviors
103 in non-human animals despite the existence of various rodent models of early visual
104 deprivation. Therefore, the aim of the current study is to examine the impact of early blindness
105 on maternal responsiveness using a mouse model of congenital blindness (ZRDBA strain). We
106 performed three different tests to study the three components of maternal behavior in
107 congenitally blind and sighted mothers: (1; maternal motivation to retrieve pups into the nest)
108 the pup retrieval test consisted in assessing the latency to localize pups and bring them back to
109 the nest, (2; maternal care) the home cage maternal behaviors test during which the time spent
110 nursing, interacting, or not interacting with pups was evaluated throughout the lactational
111 period, and (3; maternal aggression) the maternal aggression test, consisting in quantifying the
112 latency before the first attack and the frequency and time spent attacking a male intruder.

113

114 **2. Materials and Methods**

115 **2.1. Animals**

116 A total of 88 female mice of the ZRDBA strain, bred and housed in the animal facility of
117 the University of Québec in Trois-Rivières, were used for this study. Among them, 20
118 congenitally blind and 20 sighted dams were assessed for the pup retrieval test, 12 blind and 12
119 sighted dams were used for the home cage maternal behaviors test, and 12 blind and 12 sighted
120 dams were assayed for the maternal aggression test. These female mice (aged of 3,5 to 4,5
121 months) were initially paired with 12 males (2 females and 1 male/cage), and then housed
122 individually after impregnation in polypropylene cages with wood shavings as bedding material
123 for nest building. Daily weight gain measurements were performed to determine the pregnancy.
124 The day of birth was considered postnatal day 0. All mice were housed under standard
125 environmental conditions of 12h/12h light/dark cycle (light phase: 7:00-19:00 h) at a controlled
126 room temperature (20-22°C and 40-60% humidity). Food and water were provided *ad libitum*.
127 Experimental procedures and animal use were permitted by the animal care committee of the
128 Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières (2017-S.A.1), in accordance with the guidelines of the
129 Canadian Council on Animal Care.

130 The ZRDBA strain has been generated by crossbreeding two strains: the sighted DBA-6
131 and the anophthalmic ZRDCT strains (Touj et al., 2019; 2021_{a;b}). The anophthalmic ZRDCT
132 strain is characterized by an absence of the eyes, the optic tracts and the afferents retina-
133 hypothalamus, induced by a mutation on chromosome 18 on the Rx/Rax gene (Chase & Chase,
134 1941; Tucker et al., 2001). Importantly, anophthalmic (Rx/Rax homozygous) ZRDBA mice are

135 mated with sighted ZRDBA mice (Rx/Rax heterozygous) to produce half of the pups born with
136 eyes and half of them born anophthalmic within the same litter.

137 **2.2. Behavioral procedures**

138 We tested three major components of maternal behaviors: maternal motivation to retrieve the
139 pups, maternal care, and maternal aggression (Bayerl & Bosch, 2019; Klampfl & Bosch, 2019;
140 Numan & Woodside, 2010). Each dam and her litter were tested in only one experimental test
141 to avoid potential effects of maternal and/or pups' stress. All the recordings and coding were
142 done using Ethovision XT software (Noldus, Virginia, USA).

143 *2.2.1. Pup retrieval test*

144 Behavioral experiments were carried out under dark conditions (i.e., red light) between 1 pm
145 and 5 pm. The protocol for the pup retrieval test, adapted from Abel (1972) and Aguggia (2013),
146 consists in assessing, in anophthalmic and sighted dams, the latency before retrieving their
147 scattered pups into the nest on day 1, day 2 and day 3 postpartum. First, the mother was left in
148 its own breeding cage 30 minutes prior to the test to allow it to habituate to the experimental
149 room. Before the test, the mother was placed in an individual cage and four pups were lined up
150 on the opposite side of the nest in the breeding cage. The recording was started once the female
151 was put back in its empty nest and the time spent to retrieve the first pup and all the 4 pups into
152 the nest was measured. The test lasted 15 minutes maximum. If females were unable to retrieve
153 the pups, a score of 15 minutes was assigned.

154 *2.2.2. Home cage maternal behavior test*

155 The protocol, adapted from Skripuletz et al. (2010), consisted of video-recording maternal
156 behaviors for 2 hours over 5 days. Given that mice are crepuscular creatures and are more active
157 during dawn and dusk (Bains et al., 2018; Peirson & Foster, 2011; Peirson et al., 2018), the
158 recordings were performed between 5-6 am and 9-10 pm. Maternal behaviors from
159 anophthalmic and sighted females were analyzed on days 5, 10, 13, 16 and 19 postpartum (PD).
160 A total of 6 behaviors were coded as follows: maternal behaviors design a) nursing behavior
161 and b) mother-pup interactions in the nest (grooming and licking), while non-maternal
162 behaviors refer to c) maternal presence in the nest with no social interaction, d) mother resting
163 outside of the nest (resting or self-grooming), e) mother walking, and f) mother drinking/eating.
164 The duration of maternal and non-maternal behaviors was compared between blind and sighted
165 dams. No maternal-pup separation was performed before the test.

166

167 2.2.3. *Maternal aggression test*

168 The maternal aggression test took place on day 10 post-partum between 1 pm and 4 pm under
169 dark conditions (i.e., red light). The highest levels of maternal aggression display were observed
170 between 0 and 13th post-partum days, after which it vanishes (Gandelman, 1972; Lonstein &
171 Gammie, 2002). To avoid any potential infanticide by the male intruder (Vom Saal & Howard,
172 1982), all pups were removed from the nest prior to the tests (Lonstein & Gammie, 2002). After
173 a 30 min habituation period, an unrelated adult male intruder (aged 2 months) was introduced
174 into the female's home cage for a 3-min test. Intruder males were never used more than once,
175 so any effect of previous aggression on the intruder mice was considered. Maternal attacks,
176 referring to a female spontaneously biting or kicking the intruder (Martín-Sánchez et al., 2015),
177 were quantified as follows: latency to the first attack, number of attacks, and total duration of
178 attacks (Gammie & Nelson, 2001; Gammie et al., 2004).

179 **2.3. Data analyses**

180 Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS software ver. 22.0 (IBM, Armonk, NY,
181 USA). We verified the normal distribution of our data using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Regarding
182 the pup retrieval test, we performed log-rank (Kaplan-Meier) tests to compare the distribution
183 of the latencies to retrieve the first and the fourth pups of each of the 3 consecutive days
184 (Postpartum Day (PD) 1, 2, 3) in both blind and sighted mothers. Then, we used mixed
185 ANOVAs with *visual status* (2 levels: blind, sighted), as the between-subjects factor, and *day*
186 *of testing* (3 levels: PD 1, 2, 3), as the within-subjects factor, to examine the improvement across
187 time in both groups. Here, we compared the latency to retrieve the four pups between blind and
188 sighted mothers.

189 Regarding the home cage maternal behavior test, we performed a mixed ANOVA with
190 *visual status* (2 levels: blind, sighted), as the between-subjects factor, and *day of the testing* (3
191 levels: PD 1, 2, 3), as the within-subjects factor, to compare the durations of each behavioral
192 parameter in both blind and sighted groups. When the interaction between factors was
193 significant, Student's *t*-tests with appropriate control (Bonferroni post hoc) for multiple
194 comparisons were applied to compare both groups on each day of the testing.

195 Regarding the maternal aggression test, we used Student's *t*-tests with appropriate control
196 for multiple comparisons (Bonferroni) to compare the latency to the first attack, the number of
197 attacks and total duration of attacks in blind and sighted mothers. For all statistical analyses,
198 the significance level was set at $p < 0.05$.

199 **3. Results**200 **3.1. Pup retrieval test**

201 As illustrated in Figure 1, Kaplan-Meier tests examined differences in the distribution of the
202 retrieval latencies for the first and the fourth pups on 3 consecutive days postpartum (PD 1, 2
203 and 3) between blind and sighted mothers. On PD 1, the survival distributions of the latency to
204 retrieve the first pup were significantly different between blind and sighted mothers ($\chi^2[1] =$
205 17.508, $p < 0.001$), whereas the distribution to retrieve the fourth pup were similar in both
206 groups ($\chi^2[1] = 3.622$, $p = 0.057$). On PD 2, survival distributions of the latencies to retrieve
207 the first and fourth pup (Fig. 4d) were significantly different between blind and sighted mothers
208 ($\chi^2[1] = 11.934$, $p < 0.001$ for pup 1 and $\chi^2[1] = 5.345$, $p = 0.021$ for pup 4). On PD 3, blind
209 and sighted dams differed significantly in the latencies to retrieve the first and fourth pups
210 ($\chi^2[1] = 17.462$; $p < 0.001$; $\chi^2[1] = 11.431$, $p < 0.001$, respectively). Thus, blind dams showed
211 shorter retrieval latencies than sighted dams for pup 1 at PD 1, 2 and 3 and for pup 4 at PD 2
212 and 3.

213 With regards to fourth-pup retrieval latencies (Figure 2), the ANOVA revealed a significant
214 effect of *visual status* ($F(1, 38) = 10.962$; $p = 0.002$), and *day of testing* ($F(2, 76) = 28.494$; p
215 < 0.001), but no interaction *visual status* * *day of testing* ($F(2, 76) = 0.445$; $p > 0.05$). Fourth
216 pup retrieval efficiency improved from PD 1 to PD 2 ($p < 0.001$), PD 1 to PD 3 ($p < 0.001$),
217 and PD 2 to PD 3 ($p = 0.043$).

218 **3.2. Home cage maternal behaviors test**

219 *A) Mother nursing pups* (Figure 3a): The ANOVA revealed significant effects of *visual status*
220 ($F(1, 22) = 41.029$; $p < 0.001$), *day of testing* ($F(4, 88) = 39.285$; $p < 0.001$), and the interaction
221 *visual status* * *day of testing* ($F(4, 88) = 5.117$; $p < 0.001$). Blind dams spent more time nursing
222 pups compared to sighted dams on PD 13 ($t = 3.929$, $p < 0.001$), 16 ($t = 6.570$, $p < 0.001$) and
223 19 ($t = 4.025$, $p < 0.001$) but not on the PD 5 ($t = 0.639$, $p > 0.05$) and PD 10 ($t = -0.171$, $p >$
224 0.05).

225 *B) Mother-pup interactions in the nest* (Figure 3b): There were significant effects of *visual*
226 *status* ($F(1, 22) = 11.481$; $p = 0.003$), *day of testing* ($F(4, 88) = 2.798$; $p = 0.031$), and the
227 interaction *visual status* * *day of testing* ($F(4, 88) = 4.648$; $p = 0.002$). Blind dams spent more
228 time interacting with their pups in the nest compared to sighted dams on PD 13 ($t = 5.138$, p
229 < 0.001) and 16 ($t = 3.933$, $p < 0.001$) but not on PD 5 ($t = 0.251$, $p > 0.05$), 10 ($t = -0.502$, $p >$
230 0.05) and 19 ($t = 1.66$, $p > 0.05$).

231 *C) Mother in the nest with no pups' interaction* (Figure 3c): We found a significant effect of
232 *day of testing* ($F(4, 88) = 26.597$; $p < 0.001$), but not of *visual status* ($F(1, 22) = 1.267$; $p =$
233 0.272) nor the interaction *visual status * day of testing* ($F(4, 88) = 1,391$; $p = 0.258$).
234 Bonferroni's post-hoc tests revealed significant differences between: 1) PD 5 and PD 13 / PD
235 16 / PD 19 (all $p < 0.01$), 2) PD 10 and PD 16 / PD 19 ($p = 0.003$ and $p < 0.001$, respectively),
236 3) PD 13 and PD 5/ PD 16 / PD 19 ($p = 0.01$; $p = 0.031$, $p < 0.001$, respectively). This indicates
237 that blind and sighted dams spent progressively more time in the nest with no pups interaction
238 between PD 5 and PD 19.

239 *D) Mother resting outside the nest* (Figure 3d): the ANOVA yielded significant effects of *visual*
240 *status* ($F(1, 22) = 11.706$; $p = 0.002$), *day of testing* ($F(4, 88) = 18.764$; $p < 0.001$), and the
241 interaction *visual status * day of testing* ($F(4, 88) = 5.626$; $p < 0.001$). Sighted dams spent more
242 time than blind ones resting outside the nest on PD 10 ($t = -3.847$, $p < 0.001$), 13 ($t = -3.043$, p
243 = 0.03) and 16 ($t = -3.628$, $p = 0.005$), but no difference was observed on PD 5 ($t = 0.238$, $p >$
244 0.05) and 19 ($t = 0.193$, $p > 0.05$).

245 *E) Mother walking* (Figure 3e): There was no significant effect of *visual status* ($F(1, 22) =$
246 0.563 ; $p = 0.461$), *day of testing* ($F(4, 88) = 1.408$; $p = 0.238$), nor the interaction *visual status*
247 * *day of testing* ($F(4, 88) = 0.139$; $p = 0.967$).

248 *F) Mother drinking/eating outside the nest* (Figure 3f): There was a significant effect of *day of*
249 *testing* ($F(1, 88) = 6.046$; $p < 0.001$), but not of *visual status* ($F(1, 22) = 0.142$; $p = 0.710$), nor
250 the interaction *visual status * day of testing* ($F(1, 88) = 2.283$; $p = 0.067$). Bonferroni's post-
251 hoc tests revealed significant differences between PD 10 and: 1) PD 16 ($p = 0.042$), and 2) PD
252 19 ($p = 0.013$). Bonferroni's post-hoc tests revealed significant differences between PD 13 and:
253 1) PD 16 ($p = 0.005$), and 2) PD 19 ($p = 0.014$). This indicates that blind and sighted dams spent
254 progressively less time drinking/eating outside the nest between the second and the third week
255 postpartum.

256

257 **3.3. Maternal aggression test**

258 Results are illustrated in Figure 4. Blind mothers exhibited the first attack faster when exposed
259 to a male intruder ($t(1, 22) = 3.664$; $p = 0.003$). In contrast, the total duration ($t(1, 22) = -1.274$;
260 $p > 0.05$) and frequency of attacks ($t(1, 22) = -0.905$; $p > 0.05$) towards a male intruder were
261 similar between blind and sighted dams.

262

263

264 **4. Discussion**

265 The findings suggest that congenital visual deprivation results in heightened maternal behaviors
266 on each of the three major components: (1) maternal motivation to retrieve pups into the nest,
267 (2) care, and (3) aggression. *Regarding maternal motivation to retrieve pups*, we pointed out
268 that blind mothers retrieved their pups to the nest faster than sighted ones. In addition, both
269 blind and sighted dams retrieved faster their pups through the second and third trials, underlying
270 similar learning abilities in this task. Our result is contrary to previous studies which have
271 suggested that both peripherally or centrally blinded rat dams retrieved their pups more slowly
272 than did sighted mothers (Beach, 1937; Beach & Jaynes, 1956). *Regarding maternal care*, we
273 found that both blind and sighted females display high levels of maternal behaviors during the
274 early post-partum period (PD 5), with 70% of the time nursing and licking the pups, which is
275 consistent with previous research conducted on wild-type mice (Grota & Ader, 1974). On day
276 5 post-partum, when blind and sighted dams were not interacting with their pups in the nest,
277 they spent the same time resting, walking, and eating/drinking outside the nest (6%-13%,
278 respectively). On day 10 post-partum, both sighted and blind dams displayed similar nursing
279 time reduction (with 50% of the time nursing the pups), associated with similar time spent
280 resting in the nest and walking outside the nest. Additionally, sighted mothers exhibited higher
281 time resting outside the nest than blind ones, while blind mothers tended to spend longer time
282 eating/drinking outside the nest than their sighted counterparts. Whereas the time spent nursing
283 the pups decreases gradually to 25% at the end of the third week postpartum in sighted ZRDBA
284 dams, just like in wild-type dams (Grota & Ader, 1974), blind ZRDBA dams kept displaying a
285 stable and high level of maternal behaviors until PD 19 (more than 60% of the time nursing and
286 licking/grooming pups into the nest), and consequently, less time resting outside the nest during
287 the second and third week postpartum (Day 13-19 postpartum). These results are in good
288 agreement with previous findings obtained in enucleated and eyes-sutured female rats
289 (Herrenkohl & Rosenberg, 1972; Kolunie et al., 1994). We, however, did not find any effect of
290 the visual status on time spent resting in the nest with no mother-pup interaction, or
291 eating/drinking and walking, ruling these mechanisms out as potential variables. *Regarding*
292 *maternal aggression*, while duration and frequency of attacks toward a male intruder were
293 similar between both groups, blind mothers initiated the first attack faster than their sighted
294 counterparts. A previous study suggested that visual inputs from the pups or intruder are not
295 essential to the expression of maternal aggression in rats, since blinded rat dams (by eyelid
296 suturing on day 2 postpartum) displayed similar levels of maternal aggression one day after the
297 procedure (Kolunie et al., 1994). Nevertheless, although the bite latency data were not

298 statistically significant between dams temporarily deprived of visual or auditory input and
299 controls, it is noteworthy to note that blind dams initiated the first bite of the intruder 2,5 times
300 faster than controls and deaf dams.

301 The inconsistencies between our results and certain studies are likely due to differences in
302 etiologies, onset, and duration of visual deprivation, resulting in different mechanisms of brain
303 plasticity and subsequent behavioral adaptations. For most sensory systems, congenital and
304 early sensory deprivation lead to much sensory compensation and higher brain reorganization
305 than late and short visual deprivation (Chabot et al, 2007; Kujala et al., 1997; Piché et al., 2004;
306 Qin et al., 2015; Slimani et al., 2014; Touj et al., 2021b).

307

308 Studies conducted on different murine models of early blindness (congenital, dark-reared
309 housed, early enucleation) have established that early visual deprivation results in enhanced
310 nonvisual sensory perception such as olfactory performance and pain sensitivity (Touj et al.,
311 2019; 2020; 2021_{a;b}; Zhou et al., 2017) accompanied by enlargement of the olfactory areas (bulb
312 and piriform cortex), auditory areas and amygdaloid complex volume (Massé et al., 2014; Touj
313 et al., 2019; 2021a). Given that multisensory cues emitted by offspring are commonly used to
314 trigger maternal responsiveness (retrieval, nursing) towards the pups (reviewed in Numan &
315 Young, 2016; Numan & Isle, 2003; Dulac et al., 2014) and maternal aggression toward a
316 threatening individual (Kolunie & Stern, 1995; Mayer & Rosenblatt, 1993), such sensory
317 compensation may help congenitally blind dams to cope with the absence of visual inputs and
318 to evolve behavioral adjustments toward the offspring. In other words, enhanced intact
319 remaining modalities due to early visual deprivation, may explain the heightened maternal
320 responsiveness seen in blind dams.

321 Additionally, as the pup retrieval and the maternal aggression tests were conducted under dark
322 conditions, the faster responses displayed by blind dams toward the pups/intruder may be
323 explained by their enhanced ability to navigate driven by non-visual sensory cues. In rodents,
324 it has been shown that better odor perception and localization (in mice: Weiss et al., 2011;
325 Fraser & Shah, 2014, in rats: Beach & Jaynes, 1956) and better sound acuity and spatial hearing
326 (in mice: Noirot, 1965; Smotherman et al., 1974; in rats: Beach & Jaynes, 1956; Kenyon et al.,
327 1983; Stern, 1990) may help mothers to efficiently retrieve their pups. In line with our results,
328 several studies using the buried food test showed that blind rodents localized more quickly an
329 appetent olfactory source than sighted congeners in our blinded ZRDBA mice (Touj et al.,
330 2020), in dark-reared mice (C57BL6 strain) and in rats (Zhou et al., 2017). Accordingly,
331 structural MRI and histological analyses conducted on the ZRDBA blind mice suggest that

332 these behavioral/sensory adaptations may be supported by extended neuroplasticity, including
333 enlargements of olfactory, auditory, orbital regions, amygdaloid complex and some cerebral
334 regions mediated in navigation and spatial memory, such as fimbria-fornix and nuclei in
335 mammillary bodies (Touj et al., 2020).

336 Moreover, enhanced attentional processes to respond to auditory and haptic stimuli have been
337 evidenced in blind rodents. For example, while both blind and sighted rodents preferred
338 exploring an attractive stimulus (ex: cage with pup, peanut butter, vanilla odor) against a neutral
339 one (empty cage, water), blind animals spent more time exploring the attractive stimulus than
340 sighted ones (congenitally blind mice: Touj et al., 2020; enucleated postpartum rat: Beach &
341 Jaynes, 1956) and less time smelling the negative odor (2MB odor) compared with sighted
342 mice. These results indicate that early visual deprivation results in hypervigilance toward
343 meaningful olfactory cues (appetent/rewarding or aversive/fearful).

344 Taken together, these findings suggest that enhanced non-visual sensory processing and/or
345 attentional processing/awareness in congenitally blind mothers may promote enhanced
346 maternal behaviors, leading to faster pup retrieval (motivation), higher caregiving in late
347 lactation -2nd and 3rd week post-partum- (care), and faster aggressive responses toward an
348 intruder (aggression). Another explanation can be proposed: increased activity and maternal-
349 motivated behaviors in our test conditions may be explained by the endogenous circadian
350 rhythm alteration induced by congenital blindness (Ramamurthy & Krubitzer, 2018; Iura &
351 Udo, 2014). Although we assumed that blind mice may have synchronized their circadian
352 rhythm with that of sighted mice as they are housed in the same breeding room under similar
353 environmental conditions of 12h/12h light/dark cycle, future studies should investigate this
354 question.

355

356 Interestingly, same results and mechanisms were found in humans. In the same vein, a large
357 body of evidence showed that early blindness leads to superior perceptual processing in the
358 remaining sensory modalities in humans, especially in audition, somesthesia and nociception
359 (Slimani et al., 2013; 2014; 2015; Kupers & Ptito, 2011, 2014). Such enhanced performance on
360 nonvisual tasks in blind humans is supported by intra-modal and cross-modal brain plasticity
361 related to dramatical anatomical and functional changes (Voss & Zatorre, 2012; Kupers & Ptito,
362 2011, 2014; Zhang et al., 2019). With regards to olfaction, a meta-analysis showed no
363 superiority of blind compared to sighted in humans, for olfactory identification, discrimination
364 and threshold (Sorokowska et al., 2019), which are tasks that are typically used in clinical tests.
365 While this seems to argue against the hypothesis of the present article, a recent study shows,

366 inversely, a superiority of congenitally blind in the ecologically relevant olfactory tasks of
367 odorant localization (Manescu et al., 2021). This is in line with earlier reports on audition in
368 blind that suggest that ecological relevance is the key factor for crossmodal plasticity (Gougoux
369 et al., 2004). As rodents' literature, behavioral adaptations were also reported in early blind
370 women who displayed prolonged duration of breastfeeding beyond the first year postpartum,
371 accompanied by increased physical contact/proximity and more frequent vocalizations toward
372 their newborn (Chiesa et al., 2015; Ganea et al., 2018; Santos & Ribeiro, 2020; Thoueille et al.,
373 2006). In addition, enhanced attentional processes to respond to auditory and haptic stimuli
374 have been evidenced in blind humans, which may contribute to heightening non-visual sensory
375 skills (Collignon & De Volder, 2009; Collignon et al., 2006; Hugdahl et al., 2004; Liotti et al.,
376 1998; Pigeon et al., 2015; Topalidis et al., 2020). Visually impaired adults and children showed
377 increased odor awareness and reactivity to smells, especially toward social and food odors
378 (Beaulieu-Lefbvre et al., 2011; Fermenzi et al., 2010). Overall, non-visual channels, such as
379 olfactory, auditory, and somatosensory systems, are likely used more frequently to guarantee
380 harmonic interaction despite the mother's impairment.

381
382 Multiple neural networks in brain areas, activated by both hormonal and environmental inputs,
383 mediate maternal care/motivation and affective processing (Kim & Strathearn, 2016; Keyser-
384 Marcus et al., 2001; Lee & Brown, 2002; Lonstein et al., 2015; Numan & Stolzenberg, 2009;
385 Sato et al., 2010; Terkel et al., 1979; Uriarte et al., 2020), as well as maternal aggression (Bosch
386 & Neumann et al., 2010; Gammie, 2005; Gammie & Nelson, 2001; Haller, 2018; Hasen &
387 Gammie, 2005; 2006; Kohl et al., 2017). In rodents, the mPOA/BNST circuits are known to be
388 involved in the onset and expression of maternal behavior and pup-associated motivation during
389 the early period of lactation (Lee et al., 1999; 2022; Numan, 2007; Numan & Stolzenberg, 2009;
390 Miceli et al., 1983; Oxley & Fleming, 2000; Petrusis, 2013; Semaan and Kauffman, 2010;
391 Terkel et al., 1979; Tobiansky et al., 2013; McHenry et al., 2015 for review). Importantly, this
392 core circuit has strong connections with the mesolimbic dopamine system, ventral tegmental
393 area (VTA), nucleus accumbens (NA) and caudate putamen, involved in infant-related reward
394 processing and in motivation (Barrière et al., 2021; Dong & Swanson, 2004; Dumont &
395 Williams, 2004; Jalabert et al., 2009; Kudo et al., 2012; Numan, 2007; Numan & Numan, 1997;
396 Numan & Stolzenberg, 2009; Tobiansky et al., 2013). Additionally, studies have reported that
397 lactating female rodents expressing higher levels of maternal care and motivation had specific
398 hypertrophies in regions involved in olfactory (MOB and AOB) and somatosensory
399 (somatosensory cortex) information processing, in memory (hippocampus, entorhinal cortex,

400 retrosplenial cortex) and in reward and reinforcement (striatum) processing (Barrière et al.,
401 2021), and possess greater dopaminergic projections from the ventral tegmental area (VTA) to
402 the nucleus accumbens (NA) (Shahrokh et al., 2010). It is worthy to note that the maternal
403 behavior of female rodents is plastic and declines gradually until weaning, supported (in part)
404 by a progressive mPOA and the mesolimbic dopamine system deactivation toward pup-related
405 stimuli (Grieb et al., 2020; Pereira et al., 2009). Interestingly, high-resolution MRI and
406 histological studies highlighted large-scale anatomical brain plasticity in the ZRDBA mice
407 (Touj et al., 2020), in various sensory, limbic and cortical systems that regulate the expression
408 of maternal behavior. Grey matter volume alterations induced by visual deprivation at birth
409 were not only observed in the remaining sensory systems (olfactory, auditory, visual areas), but
410 also in subcortical and cortical structures, such as in BNST and mPOA, anterior hypothalamic
411 area, insular area, the central nucleus of the amygdala, overall amygdala volume, and nucleus
412 accumbens. These volumetric differences within specific hormone-sensitive brain regions
413 which regulate both maternal behaviors and affective processing may reflect the adaptation to
414 the visual deprivation and the enhanced maternal motivation to retrieve the pups, care, and
415 protection seen in anophthalmic dams. This neuroanatomical explanation should, however, be
416 taken with caution as this research has been conducted on both males and non-lactating,
417 anophthalmic and sighted mice.

418
419 Future studies should examine whether early visual deprivation may alter structural and
420 functional plasticity, as well as specific maternal behaviors responsiveness, in late gestating and
421 lactating females throughout the whole pre- and post-natal period. It is of particular interest to
422 disentangle cellular and molecular mechanisms underlying anatomical/functional plasticity in
423 anophthalmic mice, in terms of neural/glial cell number, neural/glial cell size, axon number,
424 axonal arborization, synaptic density, myelination, blood flow modifications,
425 hormonal/neurotransmitters levels and receptors' sensitivity/density (Barrière et al., 2019;
426 Kelly et al., 2015; Zatorre et al., 2012). Furthermore, future immunoassay and
427 neuroimaging/immunohistochemical investigations should investigate physiological (e.g.,
428 hormones/neurotransmitters) and neural circuits which support the enhanced maternal
429 responsiveness in congenitally blind dams.

430

431 **5. Conclusion**

432 In the current study, a mouse model of congenital blindness, the ZRDBA strain, was used to
433 assess potential behavioral adaptations induced by blindness in lactating females. The findings

434 provide evidence that maternal performance is enhanced in congenitally blind dams, in terms
435 of **maternal motivation to retrieve the pups, care, and protection, underlined by:** 1) a shorter
436 latency to retrieve pups, 2) increased nursing/licking durations during the 2nd and 3rd week
437 postpartum, and 3) a faster aggressive behavior toward a male intruder, compared to sighted
438 mothers. These behavioral adaptations may be driven by sensory and attentional
439 compensations, supported by dramatical cerebral plasticity induced by early visual deprivation.
440 The present study reveals a profound impact of early visual deprivation on motherhood, paving
441 the way for further physiological, anatomical and behavioral investigations to gain insight into
442 the hormonal and neural circuits that regulate maternal responsiveness levels across the
443 postpartum period.

444

445

446

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853 **CAPTIONS**

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855 **FIGURE 1. Pup retrieval test on PD 1, 2, 3. Log-rank (Kaplan-Meier) statistics revealed**
856 **that blind and sighted dams performed differently in most of conditions.** Survival plots
857 indicate the cumulative proportion of blind dams (black line) and sighted dams (grey line)
858 retrieving the first and fourth pup on days 1, 2 and 3 postpartum (* $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$).

859 **FIGURE 2. Pup retrieval test on PD 1, 2, 3. The mixed ANOVA revealed that blind**
860 **mothers displayed a shorter latency to retrieve the 4 pups compared with sighted mothers**
861 **and pup retrieval efficiency improved similarly over time in both groups** (Data are shown
862 as mean \pm SEM; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$).

863 **FIGURE 3. The total duration of maternal and non-maternal behaviors displayed by**
864 **blind and sighted mothers throughout the lactational period on days 5, 10, 13, 16 and 19**
865 **postpartum.** a) Nursing behavior: blind mothers nursed their pups longer than sighted mothers
866 on PD 13, 16 and 19. b) Mother-pup interactions in the nest: blind mothers spent more time
867 interacting with pups compared to sighted mothers on PD 13 and 16. c) Mother in the nest with
868 no pup's interaction: Blind and sighted mothers spent the same time in the nest with no
869 interaction with their pups throughout the lactational period. d) Mother resting outside the nest:
870 sighted mothers spent more time resting outside the nest than blind mothers on PD 10, 13, and
871 16. e) Mother walking: Blind and sighted mothers spent the same time exploring the cage
872 throughout the lactational period. f) Mother eating/drinking outside the nest: Blind and sighted
873 mothers spent the same time eating/drinking throughout the lactational period (* $p < 0.05$, ** p
874 < 0.01, *** $p < 0.001$).

875 **FIGURE 4. Aggressive-related behaviors exhibited by blind and sighted mothers toward**
876 **a male intruder.** Blind mothers were faster to initiate the first attack toward a male intruder
877 than their sighted counterparts (a), but both groups exhibited a similar total duration of attacks
878 (b) and a similar number of attacks toward a male intruder (c). Data are shown as mean \pm SEM.
879 ** $p < 0.01$.

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