### **Auditory system**



Nachum Ulanovsky

Systems Neuroscience course – 12/12/12

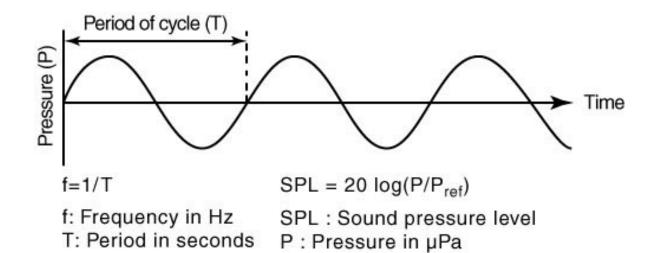
### The auditory system in numbers

- Frequency range:
  - ~ 20 Hz 16 kHz (humans)
  - 5 kHz 100 kHz (small mammals: mouse, echolocating bats)
- Frequency resolution (humans): 0.5 %
- Temporal resolution:
  - 10 μs (interaural time difference in humans)
  - < 400 ns (range resolution in bats)</li>

Good frequency resolution *and* good temporal resolution → the auditory system is *not* a simple Fourier analyzer

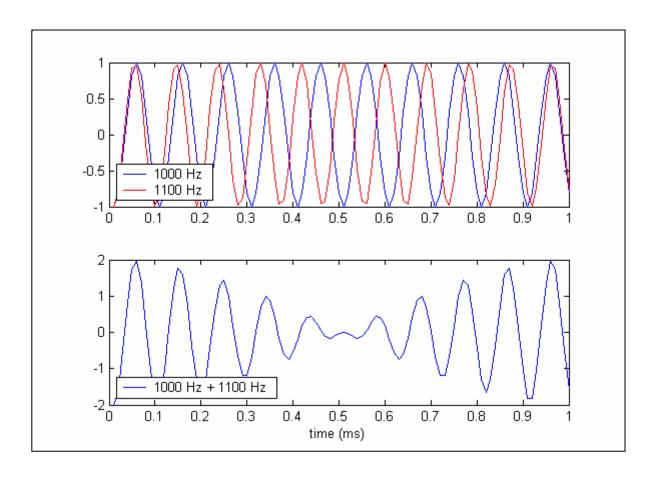
- Dynamic range (humans): 120 dB from 0 dB SPL (20 μPa) to 120 dB SPL
- Number of peripheral receptors in the human cochlea: 3,500 inner hair cells

### Properties of sound: Power; Frequency (1/Period)



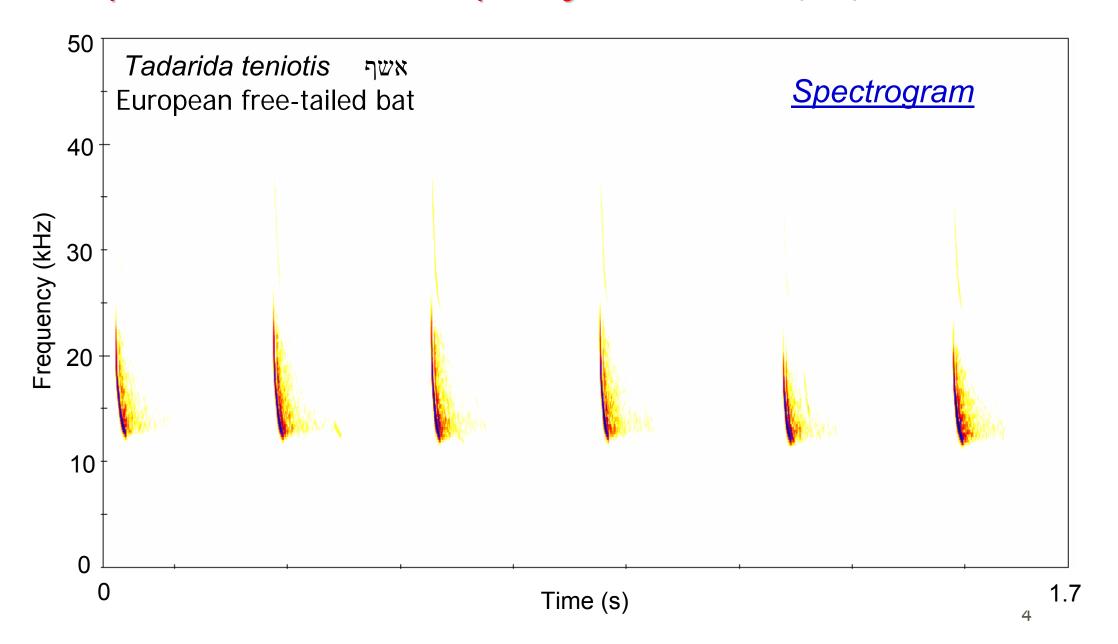
Pref: 20 µPa

#### Properties of sound: Phase; Amplitude modulation (AM)

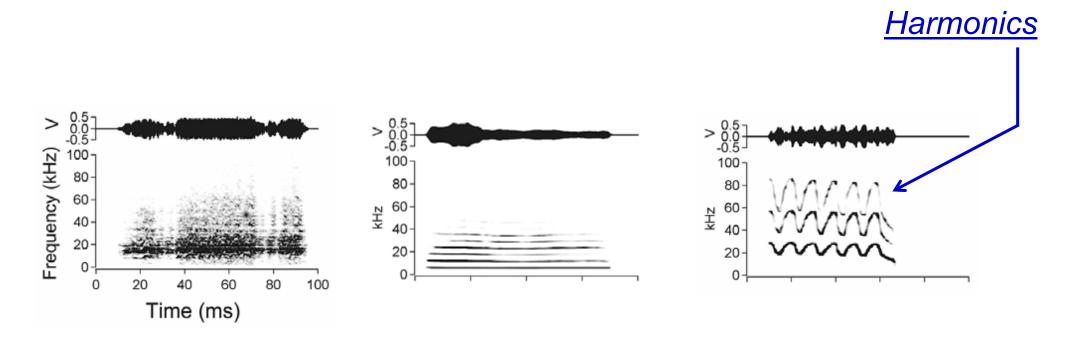


Amplitude modulation can arise from the "beats" of pure tones that are going in and out of phase with each other

### Properties of sound: Frequency modulation (FM)



### Properties of sound: Spectrograms of complex sounds



Examples of mustached bat communication calls (Kanwal & Rauschecker 2007)

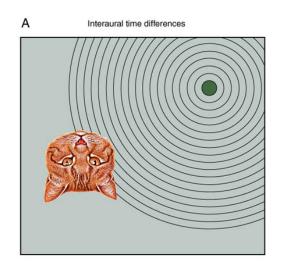
### What information does the auditory system extract from sounds?

- What (lion roar)
- Where (a lion roared on the left and nearby. Oh my god!)
- Details (Ah, I am a lion expert, so I can tell this lion is not hungry)

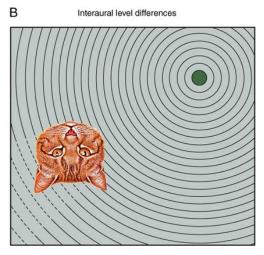
Let's start with WHERE – Auditory localization – the best understood auditory function.

\* Note that the sound location has to be *computed* – since it is not encoded in the peripheral receptors (unlike in the somatosensory or visual systems). Thus, a map of auditory space is a *computational map*.

#### Auditory localization: What cues are available to the animal?



Interaural Time Difference (ITD)

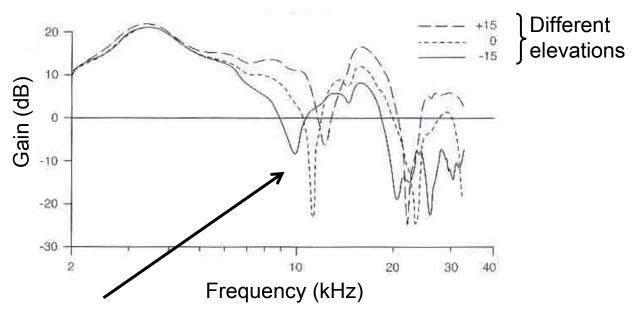


Interaural Level Difference (ILD)

ITD and ILD provide information about the <u>azimuth</u> of the sound, but not its <u>elevation</u> ("<u>cone of confusion</u>") – unless the two ears are asymmetric in elevation, as in the <u>barn owl</u>.

### Auditory localization: What cues are available to the animal?

Filtering properties of the ears and head – "Head Related Transfer Function" (*HRTF*) – Provide information about sound-source elevation



Note the prominent <u>spectral</u> <u>notch</u> whose frequency shifts systematically with elevation

Sound localization in elevation + general power gain: This is what pinnae do for animals.



#### Auditory localization: Neural processing of spectral notches

Neurons sensitive to notches are found in several subcortical stations in the ascending auditory pathway – most notably the <u>cochlear nucleus</u>. These neurons are sensitive to notches at differing frequencies, so they may encode the elevation of the sound source (HRTF spectral cues).

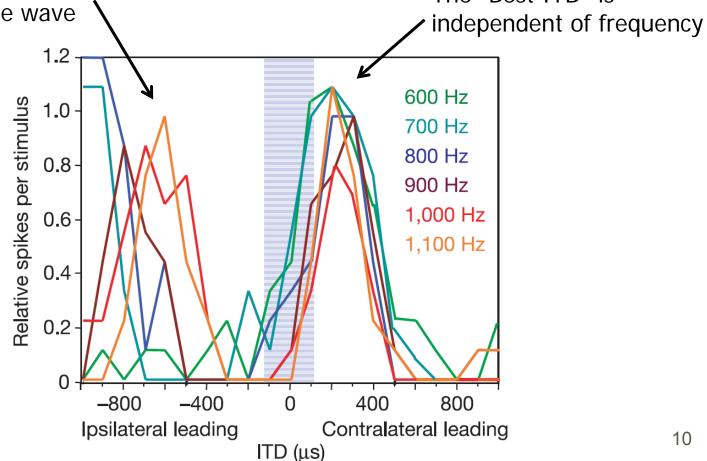
### Auditory localization: Neural processing of ITD

ITD-tuned neurons are found in the medial superior olive (MSO).

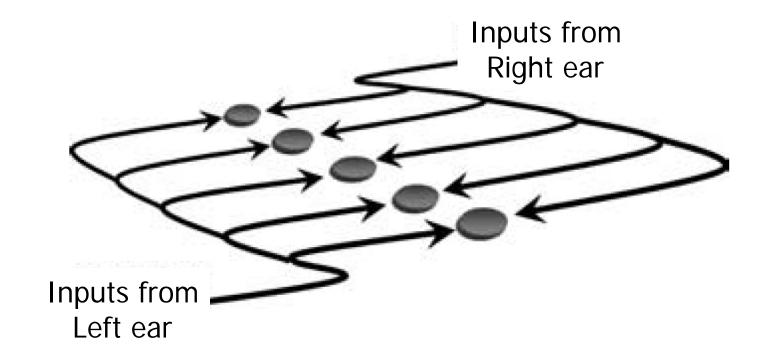
Secondary peak due to
the cyclicity (ambiguity)
of the tone's sine wave

independent of frequency

ITD tuning curve from a singe MSO neuron of a gerbil:

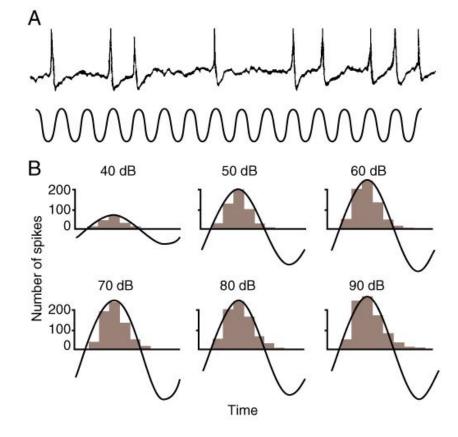


### Auditory localization: The Jeffress model for processing ITD

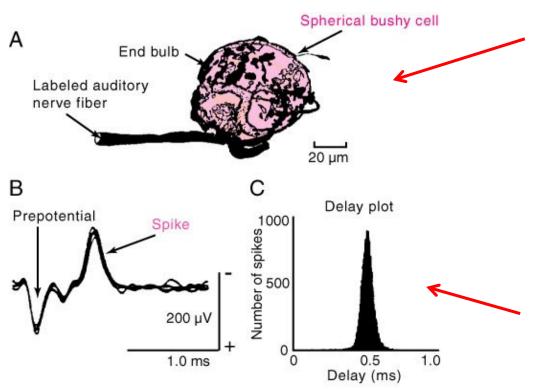


1. Phase locking of neurons in the auditory nerve (for sounds < ~ 3kHz)

Example of 'temporal coding' in the auditory system



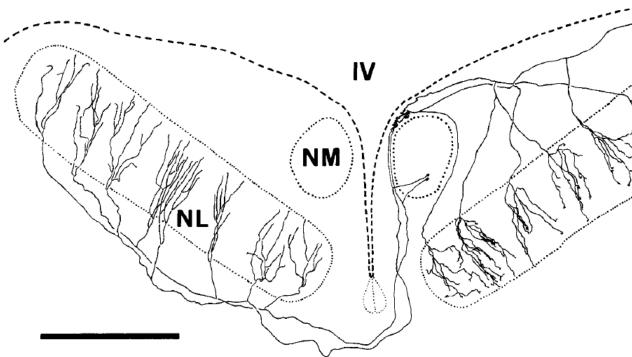
#### 2. <u>High-fidelity (1:1) synaptic transmission</u> between Left and Right



The End bulb of Held, the synapse between the auditory nerve → spherical bushy cells in the cochlear nuclei, provides such 1:1 transmission, and is crucial for ITD processing. (Together with the Calyx of Held, between auditory nerves → MNTB's, these are the two largest synapses in the brain).

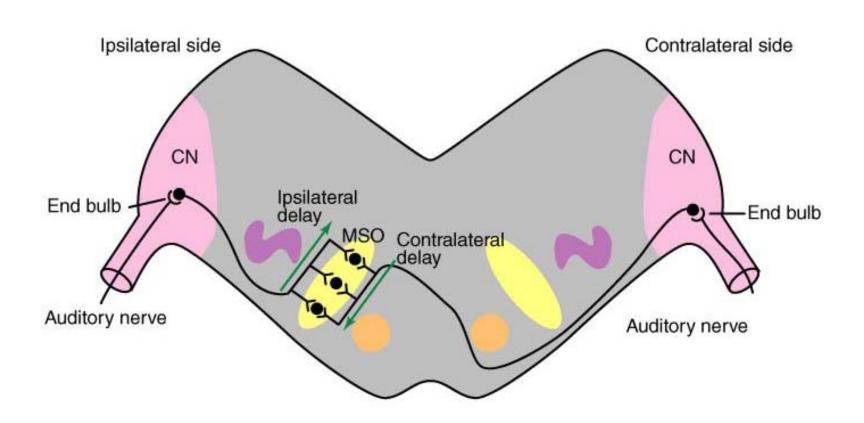
\* Notice the low temporal jitter between the postsynaptic spike and the prepotential (prepotential = End-bulb's synaptic potential that is so huge that it looks like a spike in these extracellular recordings).

#### 3. Anatomy that subserves delay lines & coincidence detectors



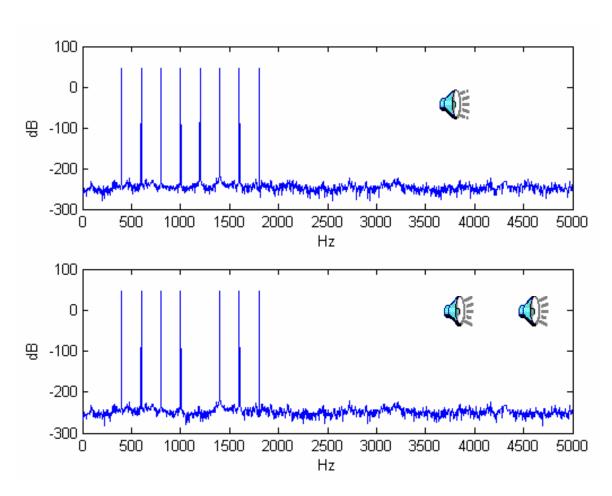
From *Carr and Konishi (1990)* – shown are the projections of two stained neurons from nucleus magnocellularis (NM, the bird's analog of the cochlear nucleus) to nucleus laminaris (NL).

Neurons in the <u>nucleus laminaris (NL)</u> of the barn owl, the bird analog of the mammalian MSO, show exactly the desired properties – including a Jeffress-like anatomical structure, and physiological recordings showing topographically-ordered "best ITD" values within the NL.



BUT: recent findings from gerbil MSO (starting with *Brand et al., Nature 2002*) – a structure that is notoriously difficult to record from in mammals – suggest that the ITD-tuning mechanism in mammals is different than in birds: ITD tuning in mammals seems to rely on excitatory inputs from both ears and on *temporally precise inhibition* from the contralateral ear.

### Processing of "WHAT": Perceptually, sounds are often grouped into *Auditory Objects* (e.g., a lion roar)



Simple Example (from Jan Schnupp): Harmonically related frequency components are often perceived as a single sound.

Properties that often (but not always) bind sounds together into a single "auditory object":

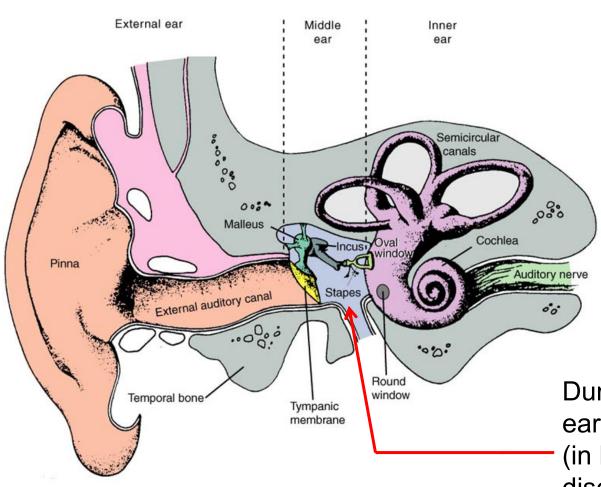
- Harmonic relations
- Common onset
- Common amplitude modulation
- Common spatial source

• . . .

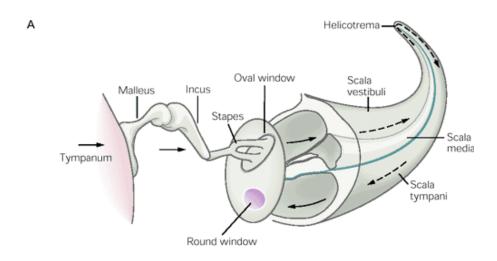
... However, at the neural level, auditory research has classically focused on simple sounds (pure tones, white noise, FM and AM sounds...) – so we are still far from understanding how complex sounds like lion roars are processed by the auditory system

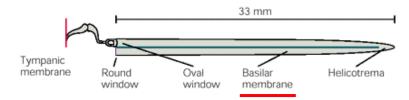
Let's go now through some classical findings on the neural organization and responses in the <u>ascending auditory pathway</u> – using <u>simple</u> sounds.

(We will *not* talk today about the *descending* projections, that go all the way down to the cochlea, and mediate top-down modulation of auditory processing.)



During sound *production*, the middle ear bones are partially disconnected (in humans) or almost totally disconnected (in bats) in order to avoid self-deafening when vocalizing





Base

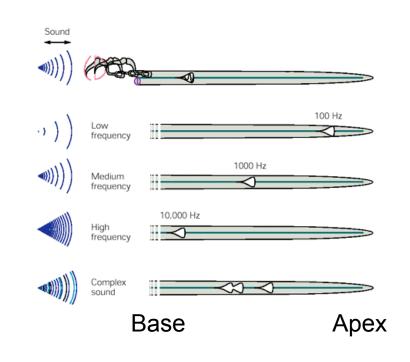
В

Base: Stiff basilar membrane, like a stiff guitar string – high frequencies

Apex

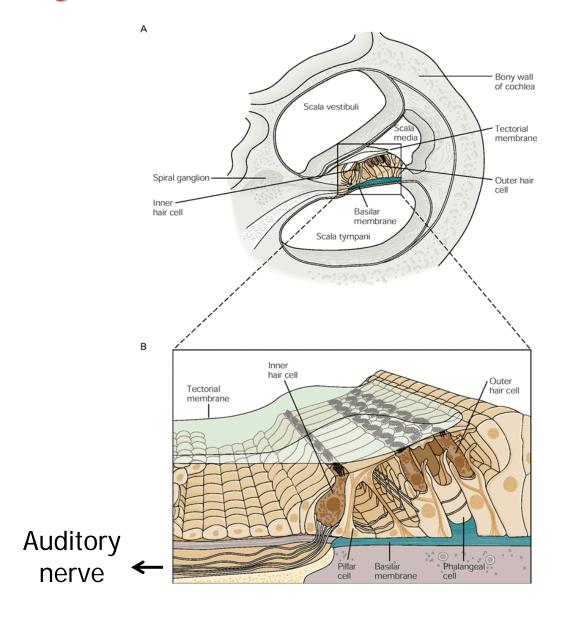
Apex: loose basilar membrane, like a loose guitar string – low frequencies

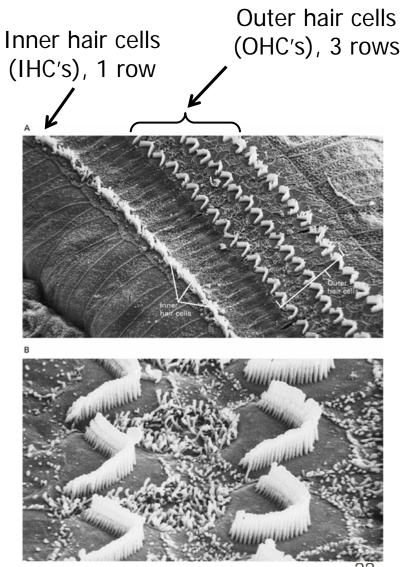
Mechanical gradients (stiffness, mass) along the basilar membrane cause different regions to resonate for different sound frequencies (mechanical resonance, von Bekesy, Nobel prize 1961)





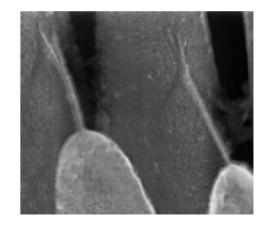
Cochlea – the movie (James Hudspeth)



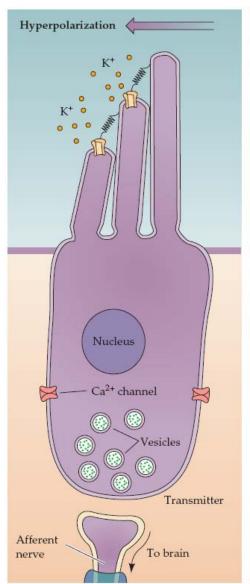


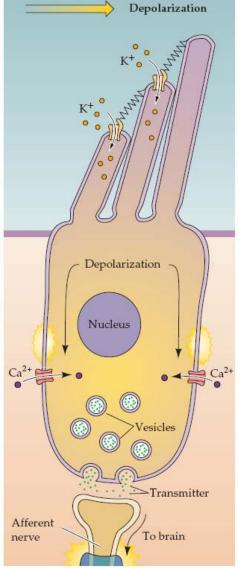
A <u>vestibular</u> hair cell. Note gradient in the length of individual hair calls (stereocilia).





Sterocilia are connected to each other by structures known as *tip links*. These tip links are thought to underlie the mechanoelectrical transduction by hair cells.





### Intermezzo: Vestibular system

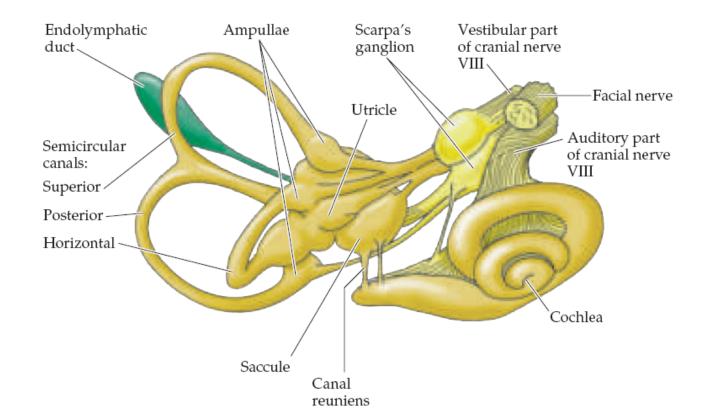


Vestibular hair cells are similar to auditory hair cells, except the long kinocilium (arrow) which they have and auditory hair cells don't. Vestibular hair cells are easier to access (are not surrounded by the hardest bone in the body like the cochlea is), hence much of what we know about hair cells comes in fact from the vestibular system.

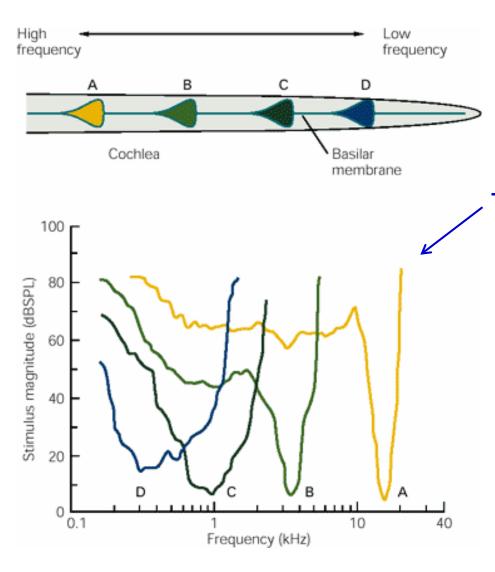
### Intermezzo: Vestibular system

Each inner ear contains in fact 6 sensory organs, 5 of which carry out vestibular processing:

- 1 cochlea (hearing)
- 3 semicircular canals (angular acceleration) sense motion of liquid elicited by head rotation
- Otolith organs: 1 utricle + 1 saccule (*linear acceleration, e.g. gravity*) contain a gelatinous structure with embedded "ear stones" (*otolith* in Greek) which deform the gelatin upon motion-related acceleration, or due to gravity, and the hair cells sense these deformations



More details on the Vestibular System are found in the book chapter posted on the course website.



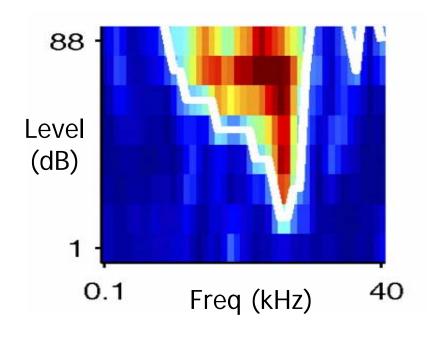
Tuning curves of inner hair cells.

#### How is the narrow tuning achieved?

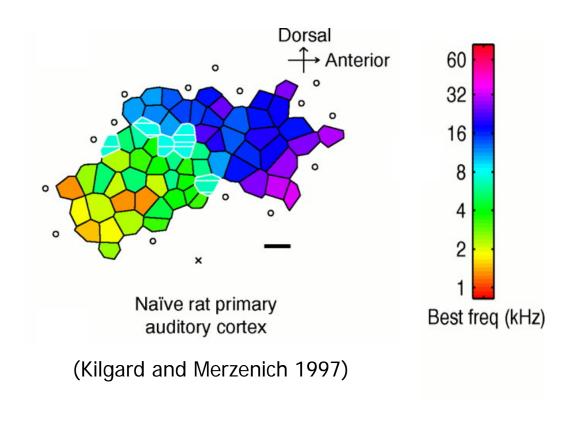
The outer hair cells contain a 'piezoelectric' protein (prestin) that is thought to convert electrical potentials to mechanical motion – the "cochlear amplifier" positive feedback mechanism – which serves to narrow the tuning curves of the inner hair cells.

[An alternative theory is that the cochlear amplifier is mediated by a positive feedback on the ion channels, not via prestin.] 26

... and tuning curves and tonotopic frequency organization are found all the way up to the auditory cortex



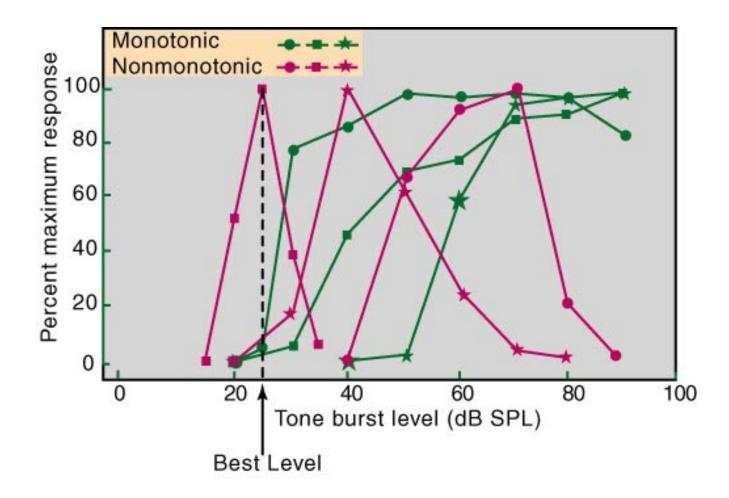
Neuron in primary auditory cortex (A1) of cat (Moshitch et al. 2006)



### Ascending auditory pathway: 2. Coding of stimulus intensity

#### Examples of six neurons in cat primary auditory cortex (A1)

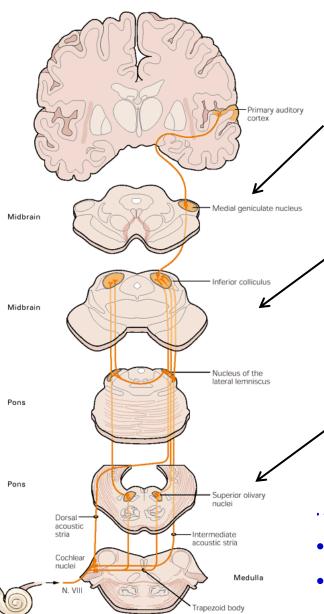
Neuron's firing rate is related to stimulus intensity ('rate coding')



#### Ascending auditory pathway: 3. Lateral inhibition

Two-tone suppression in the auditory nerve (suppression of the response to one frequency by the presentation of another frequency) acts similarly to lateral inhibition in the visual system.

### Ascending auditory pathway: 4. Rich subcortical processing



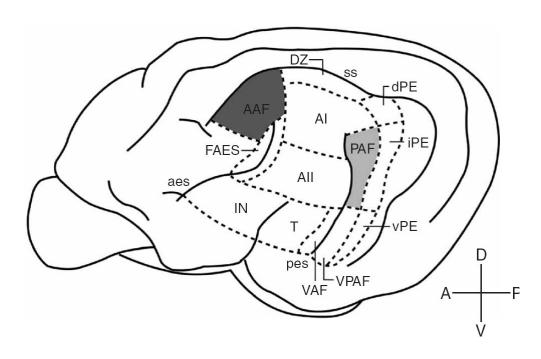
<u>MGN (MGB) = auditory thalamus</u>: Neurons selective for species-specific vocalizations; involvement in fear conditioning (projections to amygdala).

Inferior colliculus (IC): First obligatory convergent station for the ~15 parallel ascending subcortical pathways. Spatial tuning in IC, based on combination of ITD, ILD and spectral cues (HRTF).

Medial superior olive (MSO) – ITD Lateral superior olive (LSO) – ILD

- A lot of processing is taking place before the cortex.
- Multiple decussations (cross-overs) for sound localization.

### Ascending auditory pathway: 5. Multiple fields in auditory ctx



Cat auditory cortical fields

Most cortical research is done in the primary auditory cortex, A1 (denoted also AI). The specific roles of the different cortical fields in cat / rat / primate is *not* well understood.

[ A recent paper (Lomber and Malhotra, Nat. Neurosci. 2008) used a reversible cooling technique to show behaviorally a double dissociation between field PAF that was crucial for sound localization ("Where") and field AAF that was crucial for pattern discrimination ("What"). Supports the notion of separate "What" and "Where" streams in auditory cortex? (Similar to the visual cortex.) ]

But the roles of the different cortical fields are much better understood in the <u>mustached bat</u> – much better than in other mammals.

### The auditory system of echolocating bats

Moreover, we generally have a rather poor understanding of how the auditory cortex of cats / rats / primates processes complex natural sounds like communication calls.

... so let's turn now to an animal where the processing of complex sounds is much better understood, and where we have a fair understanding of what the auditory system is 'trying to do' – the echolocating bat.

(there are also other organisms where we "know what the auditory system is trying to do" – e.g. insects, that primarily process the communication sounds of conspecifics + the sounds of predators such as bats – and there is a fair amount of research on insect auditory neurophysiology – but we will not talk about it today.)

### Bats comprise ~22% of mammalian species

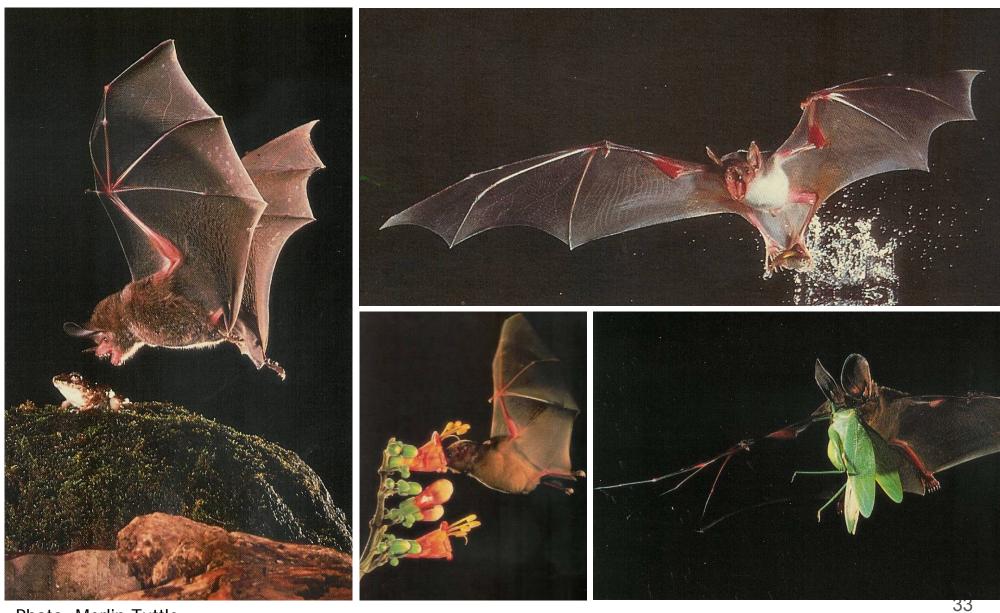


Photo: Merlin Tuttle

### The basics of echolocation (also known as 'biological sonar')



Echolocation is an <u>active-sensing</u> system, similar to most of the sensory systems in nature (somatosensory, visual, olfactory, electrolocation) – but different from passive hearing.

- Insect-eating bats detect and localize small insects via the returning echoes.
- Fish-eating bats use the echoes returning from the 'ripples' created by the fish on the water surface.
- Flower bats use the highly specific echoes returning from their favorite flowers to compute the best direction from which to access the flower nectar.

### The basics of echolocation (also known as 'biological sonar')



#### Basic sonar equations:

Target range: R = c T / 2Doppler shift:  $f_r = f_e (1 + 2v/c)$ 

The factors ½ and 2 in these equations are due to the two-way travel

#### Where:

R = target range

c = speed of sound in air  $\sim 340$  m/s

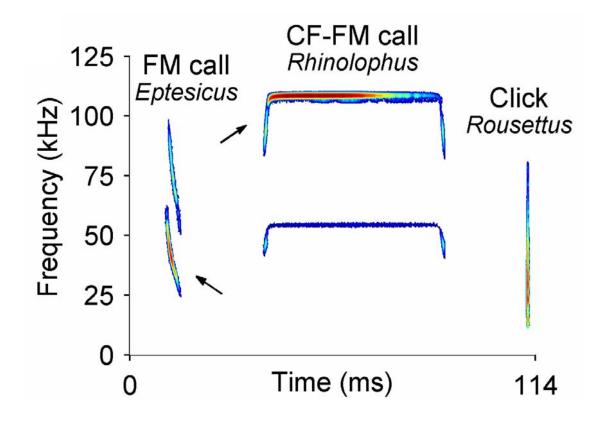
T = pulse-echo delay

 $f_r$  = frequency as received in the bat's ears

f<sub>e</sub> = frequency emitted from bat's mouth (or bat's nose)

v = bat's flight speed.

## Basic types of echolocation calls



(Ulanovsky & Moss, PNAS 2008)

The most-studied bats are:

FM bats, that use frequency modulated (FM) calls

and

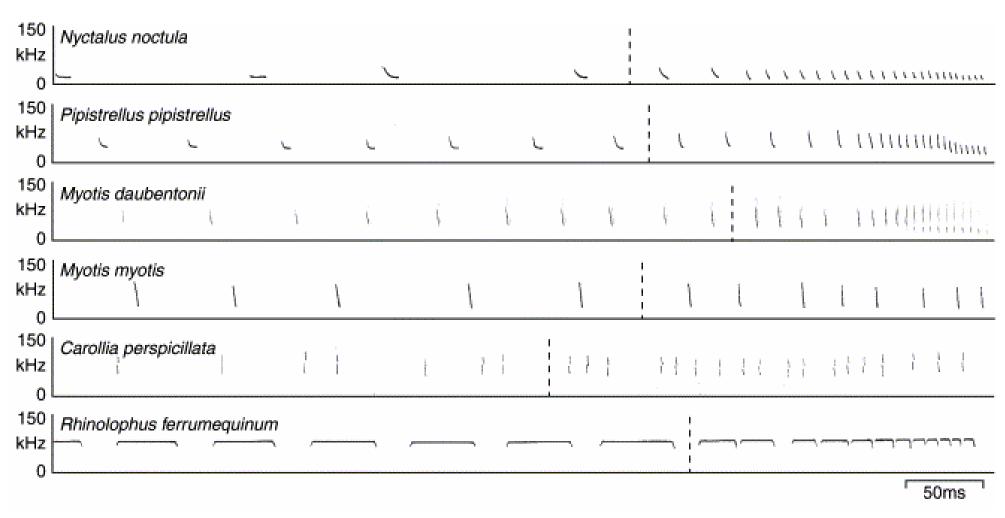
CF-FM bats, that have a long constant frequency (CF) component together with an FM chirp at the beginning and/or end of the call

### Basic types of echolocation calls

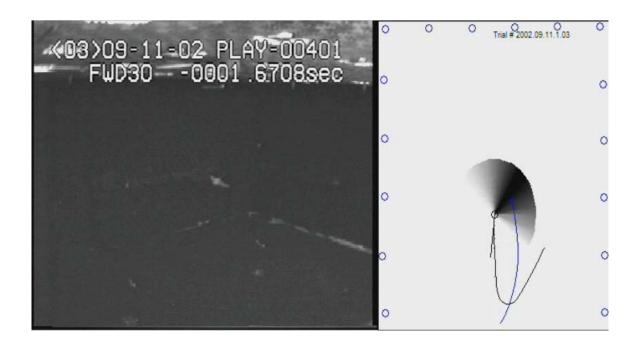
**FM bats** are able to discriminate jitter in <u>target range down to < 400 ns</u> (less than 0.1 mm). This extraordinary temporal resolution (together with the 10  $\mu$ s behavioral resolution in ITD-based sound localization) is far below the rise-time of action potentials!

**CF–FM bats** can compute the <u>Doppler shift (target velocity)</u>. They can also detect <u>Doppler modulations caused by the insect's wing flutter</u> – and these bats can even tell apart different insect species based on their different flutter rate.

# Aerial insectivores have a typical insect-catching echolocation behavior, with phase transitions: $Search \rightarrow Approach \rightarrow Buzz$



# Aerial insectivores have a typical insect-catching echolocation behavior, with phase transitions: $Search \rightarrow Approach \rightarrow Buzz$

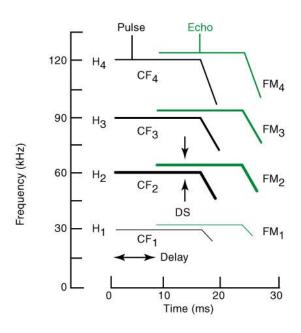


Bat chasing an insect – the movie (K. Ghose & C. Moss)

# Aerial insectivores have a typical insect-catching echolocation behavior, with phase transitions: $Search \rightarrow Approach \rightarrow Buzz$

Changes in echolocation calls during the closing-in on the insect:

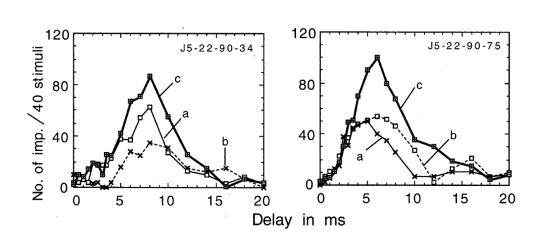
- <u>Larger bandwidth</u> = gives better accuracy in estimating the target range (proof: mathematical theory of sonar)
- Higher rate of calls = higher update rate, allows better tracking of the moving target.
- Shorter call duration = smaller overlap between outgoing call and incoming echo, allows tracking insects at closer ranges.

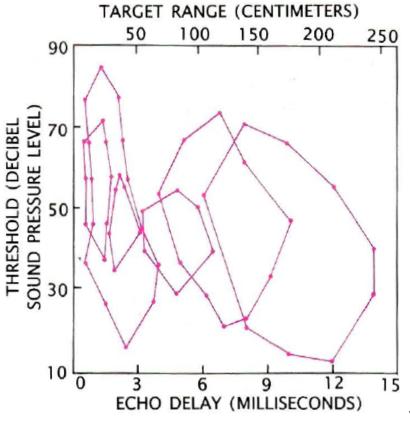


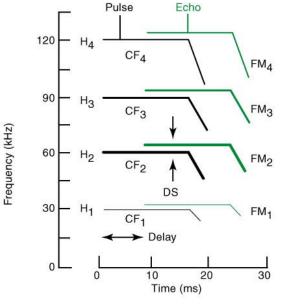
Schematic of the CF–FM call of the mustached bat

Prominent characteristics of the auditory cortex of this bat:

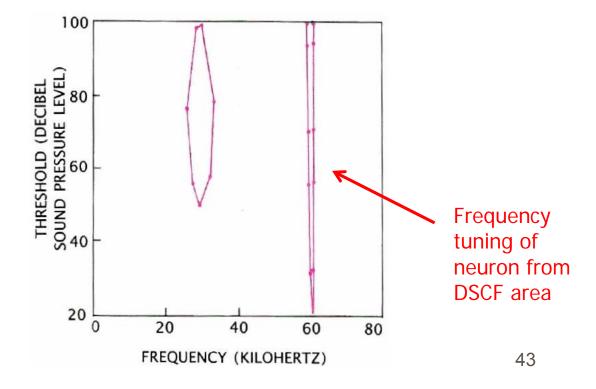
Delay tuned neurons (neurons sensitive to target range) – first discovered by Nobuo Suga

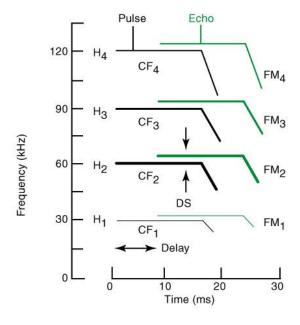




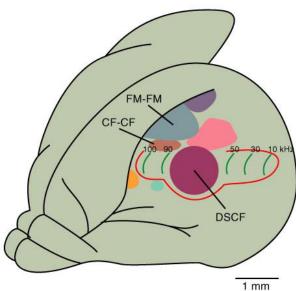


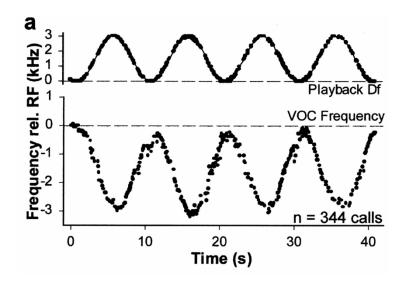
FM-FM CF-CF DSCF 2. 'Auditory fovea' (DSCF area) contains neurons with extremely narrow frequency tuning, centered around the dominant harmonic of the bat call (CF<sub>2</sub>, the 2<sup>nd</sup> harmonic). The narrowest frequency tuning in any animal.





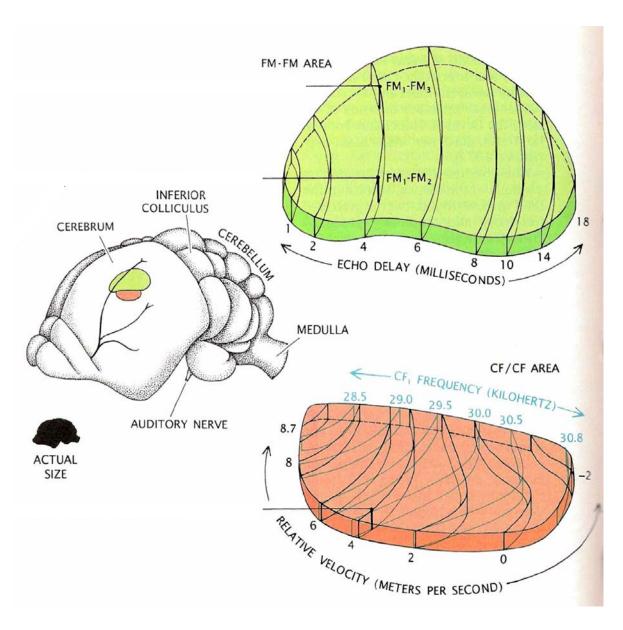
Neurons in the DSCF area specialize in detecting rapid Doppler modulations (insect wing flutter).





Doppler shift compensation in horseshoe bats (Smotherman et al. 2003)

Doppler shift compensation behavior:
Mustached bat (and Horseshoe bats,
other CF-FM bats) shift their frequency so
as to keep the frequency of the echo
inside the narrow frequency tuning of their
neurons.



3. Modularity of auditory cortical fields, and computational maps:

FM–FM areas: neurons specializing in computing pulse-echo delay (target range).

<u>CF-CF areas</u>: neurons specializing in computing Doppler magnitude (target velocity).

### Summary: Comparing the Auditory System to other sensory systems

#### Similarities to other sensory systems:

- Coding of stimulus intensity.
- Labeled-line projections from the periphery (cochlea). [encode sound frequency]
- Labeled-line ('place') coding, temporal coding, rate coding.
- Modularity of cortical processing: Different cortical fields differing functions.
- Cortical columns.

#### Differences from other sensory systems:

- Stimulus location is computed, not inherited directly from peripheral receptors as in the somatosensory or visual systems.
- Extent of subcortical processing is probably largest in the auditory system.
- The auditory system excels at temporal processing more than any other sensory system (with the possible exception of electrolocation in weakly electric fish).