Title

Sensitivity to direction and velocity of fast frequency chirps in the inferior colliculus of awake

rabbit

Abbreviated Title

Frequency-chirp direction and velocity sensitivity in IC

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Abstract

Neurons in the mammalian inferior colliculus (IC) are selective for the direction of fast

frequency sweeps (chirps) contained in Schroeder-phase harmonic complexes (SCHR). This

selectivity suggests a feature sensitivity in the mammalian IC to fast-chirp direction and velocity.

Here, we introduced a novel stimulus consisting of aperiodic random chirps (ARCs) to

characterize neural sensitivity to chirp direction and velocity in isolation from periodicity.

Extracellular, single-unit recordings were made in the IC of Dutch-belted rabbits. SCHR stimuli

had a range of velocities and periodicities, and ARC stimuli had matched velocities. Periodicity

tuning was characterized using sinusoidally amplitude-modulated (SAM) noise. The prevalence

of direction sensitivity and direction bias to chirps in SCHR and ARC responses was quantified,

demonstrating that the majority of IC neurons (90.5%) were selective to SCHR-chirp direction

and that sensitivity to the direction of aperiodic chirps was nearly universal (99.6%). Rate-

velocity functions were constructed from ARC responses, revealing that neurons were

commonly sensitive to the direction of lower-velocity (0.40 – 1.59 kHz/ms) chirps and were

insensitive to the direction of higher-velocity chirps (3.16 – 9.24 kHz/ms). ARC and SAM noise

responses were combined using a generalized linear model (GLM) to predict SCHR response

rates. The GLM analysis revealed that both velocity and periodicity cues were required to

explain SCHR responses. In general, velocity cues had a stronger effect on responses for

harmonic stimuli with lower fundamental frequencies. This result has implications for neural

encoding of complex sounds that combine envelope periodicities and frequency-sweeps.

Significance

Complex sounds such as speech and music contain fast frequency sweeps (chirps).

Recently, responses to a stimulus with well-controlled periodic chirps, the Schroeder-harmonic

complex (SCHR), have revealed diverse patterns of selectivity for the direction and velocity of

chirps in the inferior colliculus. We studied the interaction between periodicity tuning and chirp

selectivity underlying SCHR responses. Using a novel, aperiodic chirp stimulus, we demonstrate

through rate-velocity functions that selectivity to chirp direction and velocity is commonly

observed even for single chirps. Both neural velocity tuning and periodicity tuning are necessary

to predict neural SCHR response rates. The diversity of the observed selectivity challenges

models for SCHR selectivity based on cochlear phase dispersion.

Introduction

The inferior colliculus (IC) receives convergent excitatory and inhibitory inputs from

several auditory brainstem nuclei, resulting in a variety of complex response properties including

frequency tuning (Davis, 2005), sensitivity to interaural differences (Yin et al., 2019), duration

tuning (Casseday et al., 1994), and modulation tuning for amplitude modulation (AM) (Langner

and Schreiner, 1988; Krishna and Semple, 2000). Sensitivity of IC neurons to frequency-

modulated (FM) sweep direction and velocity has also been studied. Studies of bat IC

responses report neurons that prefer, or even respond exclusively, to a selected FM direction, a

possible adaptation for echolocation (Suga, 1965; Fuzessery, 1994; Fuzessery and Hall, 1996;

Gordon and O'Neill, 1998; Pollak et al., 2011). Additionally, sounds with time and frequency

modulations having statistics comparable to those of spectral-peak, or formant-frequency,

transitions in sounds including animal vocalizations or speech, have been used to characterize

IC spectrotemporal receptive fields (STRFs) in cats and bats (Escabí and Schreiner, 2002;

Escabí et al., 2003; Andoni et al., 2007).

Recently, IC FM sensitivity to the direction and velocity of FM sweeps has been explored

in anesthetized gerbils (Steenken et al., 2022) and awake budgerigars (Henry et al., 2023).

These studies used Schroeder-phase (SCHR) harmonic complexes, an advantageous stimulus

for studying FM. The harmonic components of SCHR stimuli have flat magnitude spectra and

curved phase spectra that create stimuli with maximally flat envelopes (Schroeder, 1970). The

phase differences across harmonic components result in linear frequency sweeps within each

fundamental period, extending from the lowest component, typically the fundamental frequency,

F0, to the highest harmonic component. SCHR sensitivity is notable for the sheer speed of the

FM, with sweeps traveling from F0 to the maximum harmonic (here, 16 kHz) over the

fundamental period (here, between 2.5 and 20 ms). The resulting velocities are faster than

commonly considered FM signals, such as formant transitions (Liberman and Mattingly, 1989).

We report sensitivity in rabbit IC to the direction and velocity of these fast SCHR sweeps,

referred to as SCHR chirps. Rabbits do not produce specialized FM vocalizations (Awan et al.,

2014) and therefore presumably lack adaptations for processing fast FM. Instead, rabbits have

representative mammalian hearing, with average high-frequency audiometric thresholds among

similarly-sized mammals and low-frequency thresholds similar to humans (Heffner and

Masterson, 1980).

IC sensitivity to SCHR chirps is poorly understood. Rate-differences between SCHR

direction may be partially explained by the phase-dispersive properties in the cochlea (Recio

and Rhode, 2000), which might combine with cochlear compression to result in reduced

responses to downward-sweeping SCHR chirps in the auditory nerve (AN), at least for the high-

frequency region (Recio, 2001). Chirp selectivity in the IC could also arise in octopus cells of the

cochlear nucleus, which are selective to SCHR chirp direction (Lu et al., 2022) and provide

inhibition to the IC via the ventral nucleus of the lateral lemniscus (VNLL) (Adams, 1997).

Alternatively, chirp selectivity may originate (or be influenced) at the level of the IC by the same

or similar mechanisms that give rise to other complex stimulus sensitivities. For instance, IC

tuning for periodicity (Langner and Schreiner, 1988; Krishna and Semple, 2000; Nelson and

Carney, 2007; Kim et al., 2020) can be explained by the dynamics of inhibitory inputs (Nelson

and Carney, 2004). Furthermore, the periodicity of SCHR stimuli may affect estimates of IC

sensitivity to these stimuli. Therefore, a new approach is required to separate the influences of

periodicity and velocity tuning on responses to SCHR chirps. In this study, we recorded IC

responses to both SCHR and aperiodic random chirp (ARC) stimuli to assess velocity sensitivity

using stimuli without periodicity. From these responses, we constructed rate-velocity functions

(RVFs) which describe the sensitivity to velocity of individual neurons. We also used

generalized linear models (GLMs) to predict SCHR-chirp responses based on responses to

ARC stimuli and SAM noise and showed that, for most neurons, both periodicity and velocity

cues were necessary to accurately predict neural responses to SCHR stimuli.

Methods

Extracellular, single-unit recordings were made in the central nucleus of the IC (ICC) of

six female Dutch-belted rabbits (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*). Rabbits were obtained from Envigo

(Denver, PA). The age of the animals during experiments ranged from 1-5 years, during which

DPOAEs and IC neural thresholds were used to confirm normal hearing (Whitehead et al.,

1992). Animals were removed from the study when their DPOAE magnitudes decreased or

neural thresholds increased. All methods were approved by the University of Rochester

Committee on Animal Resources.

Recordings

Recordings were made in daily two-hour sessions in sound-attenuated booths (Acoustic

Systems, Austin, TX, USA). To prevent head movement of the awake rabbits, a headbar (metal

or 3D-printed plastic) was surgically affixed to the skull using stainless-steel screws and dental

acrylic. Rabbits were anesthetized using ketamine (66 mg/kg) and xylazine (2 mg/kg),

administered intramuscularly, for headbar placement, craniotomy, and electrode placements

(below). Rabbits were wrapped in a towel and secured in a custom-made chair to limit

movement during recording sessions.

Recordings were made using four tetrodes, each consisting of four 18-µm platinum-

iridium epoxy-coated wires (California Fine Wire Co., Grover Beach, CA, USA) and plated with

platinum black to obtain impedances of approximately 0.1 – 0.5 MOhms. Tetrodes were

surgically implanted in the ICC via a small (~2mm diameter) craniotomy in the top of the skull.

Stainless-steel guide tubes protected the tetrodes, which were positioned just dorsal to the ICC

and then advanced through the ICC using a manual microdrive (Five-drive, Neuralynx, Inc.,

Bozeman, MT, USA). Tetrodes were advanced before or after recording sessions. The

microdrive and tetrodes were surgically replaced every few months, as needed, to vary the

recording location. Neural recordings were made using an RHD recording system (Intan

Technologies, LLC., Los Angeles, CA, USA), with Intan software running on a Windows PC.

Stimuli were generated using custom MATLAB code (Mathworks, Natick, MA, USA), a

MOTU audio interface (16A, Mark of the Unicorn, Cambridge, MA, USA), and a Benchmark

digital-to-analog converter and amplifier (DAC3 HGC, Benchmark Media Systems, Inc.,

Syracuse, NY, USA). Etymotic ER2 earphones (Etymotic Research, Inc., Elk Grove Village, IL,

USA) were used to present sound stimuli via custom ear molds (Hal-Hen Company, Inc.,

Garden City Park, New York, USA). Prior to every session, stimuli were calibrated using ER-7C

probe-tube or ER-10B+ microphones (Etymotic Research, Inc., USA). The calibration curve

(magnitude and phase) was included in a pre-emphasis filter that compensated all stimuli for the

acoustic system's frequency response.

Action potential times and waveforms were extracted from neural recordings using

custom MATLAB applications. To identify single-unit events, the voltage recording was filtered

using a 4th-order Butterworth bandpass filter (300 – 3000 Hz). An action potential was identified

when the filtered voltage signal exceeded a threshold, defined as four standard deviations of the

voltage signal. Action potentials were sorted into clusters, presumed to represent different

neurons, using features of the waveforms, primarily the slope of the waveform repolarization

(Schwarz et al., 2012). Single-units were identified when less than 2% of the interspike intervals

were smaller than 1 ms. Neurons studied in consecutive sessions were considered to be unique

only when both tetrode location and response properties changed.

Stimuli

Recording sessions began by presenting wideband (100 Hz – 15 kHz) noise to the two

ears to characterize the binaural responses. Noise stimuli were presented to the contralateral

ear, ipsilateral ear, and both ears at 3, 13, and 33 dB SPL spectrum level, with 1-s durations

and 3 repetitions each. Then, a set of stimuli was presented to define neural response

properties, including frequency response maps, modulation transfer functions, SCHR sensitivity,

and rate-velocity functions.

To generate frequency response maps, a randomly-ordered sequence of 0.2-s-duration

tones at frequencies ranging from 250 Hz – 16 kHz was presented at 13, 33, 53, and 73 dB

SPL. Tones were presented either contralaterally or diotically with 10-ms raised-cosine on/off

ramps, and were separated by 0.4 s of silence. Each stimulus condition was presented three

times. Response maps, plots of average discharge rate vs. frequency at each stimulus level,

were used to estimate characteristic frequency (CF), the frequency for which threshold was

lowest.

Modulation transfer functions (MTFs) were estimated by computing the average rate in

response to 100% sinusoidal amplitude-modulated (AM) noise as a function of modulation

frequency, over a range of 2 – 350 Hz. The wideband noise (100 Hz – 10 kHz) was 1 s in

duration, including 50-ms raised-cosine on/off ramps, separated by 0.5 s of silence, presented

diotically. Modulation frequencies were presented in random order, with 5 repetitions of each.

Stimuli were presented at a spectrum level of 33 dB (overall level of 73 dB SPL). MTF

categorization was based on criteria that were slightly modified from Kim et al. (2020). MTF

types were categorized as band-enhanced (BE) if (1) the MTF had two consecutive points

greater than the product of the unmodulated rate (r_{um}) and a criterion K, and (2) the MTF did not

have more than one point below the product of r_{um} and $1/K$. Similarly, MTFs were categorized

as band-suppressed (BS) if (1) the MTF had three consecutive points less than r_{um}/K, and (2)

the MTF did not have more than one point above $r_{um} \times K$. For this study, K was set to 1.2, i.e.,

a 20% increase in rate with respect to the unmodulated response was required for BE MTFs

and a 20% decrease was required for BS MTFs. MTFs that had both enhanced and suppressed

bands that met the above criteria were categorized as hybrid MTFs. In the population of

neurons studied, 43.3% were BS, 17.0% were BE, 24.5% were hybrid, and 5.2% were flat, and

the rest had other MTF shapes including high-pass or low-pass. For BE neurons, the peak of

the MTF was designated the best modulation frequency (BMF). For BS neurons, the lowest

point in the MTF was designated the trough modulation frequency (TMF), and for hybrid

neurons both a BMF and TMF were identified.

SCHR stimuli were produced using the phase spectrum introduced in Schroeder (1970)

(Fig. 1A-D). For a harmonic complex with n components, the phase of the nth component was

described by $\theta_n = C\pi n(n+1)/N$, where N is the total number of harmonic components, and C

is a scalar that describes the phase-direction and duty cycle of the stimulus. A random

Figure 1 – Stimulus waveforms of SCHR and ARC stimuli. Note that the maximum harmonic in this figure is 5 kHz for

clarity; in the actual stimuli, maximum harmonic was 16 kHz. (A) SCHR with F0 = 50 Hz, C = 1. (B) SCHR with F0 = 50

Hz, C = -1. (C) SCHR with F0 = 100 Hz, C = -1. (D) SCHR with F0 = 50 Hz, C = -0.5. (E) Two consecutive ARC-stimulus

chirps separated by silence.

sequence of SCHR stimuli was presented, with F0 equal to 50, 100, 200, or 400 Hz, and C

equal to -1, -0.5, 0, 0.5, or 1. For all cases, the frequency of the highest harmonic component

was 16 kHz. The number of harmonic components, N, depended on F0, and ranged between

40 and 320. Thirty repetitions of each F0 and C combination were presented. Stimuli were

presented diotically at 63 dB SPL, with a duration of 0.4 seconds, 0.6 seconds of silence

between stimuli, and 25-ms raised cosine on/off ramps. Average discharge rates over the

stimulus duration were calculated for each F0 and C combination. Receiver-operating-

characteristic (ROC) analysis (Egan, 1975) was used to evaluate neural direction selectivity

between SCHR conditions with equivalent F0 and C-values of opposite signs (i.e. F0 = 50 Hz, C

= ±1). Neurons were deemed significantly biased toward one sweep direction if the area under

the ROC curve (AUC) was above 70.7% or below 29.3%. Additionally, the direction of the bias

was designated negative for neurons with AUCs above 70.7% (indicating greater mean

response rate for the negative Schroeder stimulus) and positive for neurons with AUCs below

29.3%. The ROC threshold of 70.7% (and 29.3%) was chosen because it is equivalent to the

targeted level on the psychometric function by a two-down, one-up psychophysical procedure

(Levitt, 1971).

Rate-velocity functions (RVFs) were based on responses to ARC (aperiodic random

chirp) stimuli. ARC stimuli were isolated SCHR chirps, or single fundamental periods extracted

from a SCHR stimulus, equivalent to one full SCHR chirp spanning F0 to the maximum

harmonic, or vice versa (Fig. 1E). To produce the stimulus waveforms, first, we generated a

random sequence of chirp velocities that were equivalent to SCHR F0s of 25, 50, 100, 200, 400,

and 600 Hz. Chirp direction (upward or downward) was also randomly varied across stimuli.

These parameters together resulted in ARCs with velocities ±0.40, ±0.80, ±1.59, ±3.16, ±6.24,

and ±9.24 kHz/ms. Each combination of velocity and direction was presented a total of 42 times

within each full stimulus, in random order. ARCs were randomly spaced to avoid periodicity,

using 40 – 60 ms uniformly distributed inter-chirp intervals. The full stimulus set was presented

20 times. Each individual chirp had raised-cosine on/off ramps, each with duration equivalent to

10% of chirp duration. Chirps were presented diotically at a sound level equal to $68\ dB\ SPL -$

$10 \times \log_{10}(T/T_{ref})$, where T is the duration of the chirp, and T_{ref} = 2.5 ms (the duration of a

SCHR chirp with F0 = 400 Hz). This scaling ensured that energy was equivalent across chirps

of different durations. Extracting response rates from ARC-stimulus responses was complicated

by variation in onset response latency and the presence of offset responses in many neurons.

The response-rate calculation began by locating the peak rate in the peristimulus time

histogram (PSTH) over a time window starting at chirp onset with a duration matched to that of

the chirp plus the minimum spacing between chirps (i.e., chirp duration + 40 ms) (Fig. 2). Then,

response rate was calculated by summing spikes over a 20-ms time window centered at the

peak of the PSTH, except where this window would cross the minimum (0 ms) or maximum

(chirp duration + 40 ms) of the PSTH time axis. ROC analysis of ARC rates was performed in an

identical manner as for SCHR rates. ARC rates were used to generate RVFs, which described

how a neuron's rate changed as a function of chirp velocity (Figs. 3-7). The RVF describes a

neuron's response profile to aperiodic chirps of different velocities, allowing salient response

properties to be easily identified.

Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed on the RVFs using the MATLAB

function PCA (2021b, MathWorks) on the set of RVFs (247 in total). RVFs were normalized by

their individual peak rates before PCA analysis. SCHR responses were predicted based on

MTFNs and RVFs using generalized linear models (GLMs) (Nelder and Wedderburn, 1972).

First, SCHR rates, MTFNs, and RVFs were normalized by each of their maximum rates. For the

responses to periodic stimuli, (MTFN and SCHR), cycle rate was used, defined as the average

rate per fundamental period (T0). Cycle rate (spikes/cycle) was used to counteract the strong

Figure 2 – A visual depiction of ARC-stimulus rate calculation. Black lines illustrate PSTHs (bin size = 0.5 ms) of

responses to ARCs of different velocities. The left column (blue titles) contains positively-sloped ARCs (equivalent

direction to –SCHR chirps), and the right column (red titles) contains negatively-sloped ARCs (equivalent direction to

+SCHR chirps). The shaded rectangles indicate the placement of the 20-ms window over which response rate is

calculated. Generally, the window is centered at the peak of the PSTH, except where that would cause the window

to cross the minimum (0 ms) or maximum (80 ms) time intervals (e.g. velocity = 9.24 kHz/ms PSTH, top left).

phase-locking of many neurons to the fundamental frequency, which resulted in average rates

that disproportionally increased with F0 using the conventional calculation (spikes/second). For

the aperiodic stimulus (ARC), rate was calculated using the previously mentioned method of

summing spikes over a window up to 40-ms in duration centered around the peak of the PSTH.

MTFNs and RVFs were then projected onto the SCHR space such that each of the 16 SCHR

rates was associated with one point on the MTFN and one point on the RVF. The SCHR rates

can be visualized as a surface on this periodicity/velocity grid. The periodicity and velocity of

each SCHR point on this grid was matched with the closest available modulation frequency and

velocity from the MTFN and RVF, respectively (data were not interpolated), creating a feature

vector for the neurons' pure response to periodicity and velocity changes. Then, a relationship

between the periodicity and velocity feature vectors and SCHR rates was defined for the GLM

as follows:

$R_S = b_P R_P + b_V R_V + b_I (R_P * R_V) + b_0$,   (Eqn. 1)

where R_P and R_V refer to rates of the periodicity and velocity feature vectors, respectively. R_S is

the predicted response to SCHR stimuli in cycle rate, and b_n are the GLM coefficients. There

were three terms in the GLM—a periodicity term, a velocity term, and an interaction term. GLM

coefficients were estimated using the MATLAB function glmfit (2021b, MathWorks), with the

distribution argument set to *normal* and constant argument set to *on*. The GLM coefficients were

b_P, the periodicity coefficient, b_V, the velocity coefficient, b_I, the interaction term coefficient, and

b_0, a constant. After the SCHR rate prediction was calculated using estimated coefficients, the

coefficient of determination (R^2) of the predicted and recorded SCHR cycle rates was

determined to assess prediction quality. This process was repeated for two additional, simpler

GLMs:

$R_S = b_1 R_P + b_0$,   and   (Eqn. 2)

$R_S = b_1 R_V + b_0$.   (Eqn. 3)

These simpler GLMs depended only on one feature vector and thus could be used to assess

the importance of periodicity or velocity alone. The coefficients of determination (R^2) of these

two model predictions were obtained and used to measure the impact of the two features on

neurons' SCHR responses.

The following equation was used to calculate the contribution of velocity-cues to the total

explainable variance:

$Percent\ contribution\ of\ velocity\ to\ R^2 = \frac{(R^2{}_{combined} - R^2{}_{periodicity})}{R^2{}_{combined}} \times 100$,   (Eqn. 4)

where $R^2{}_{combined}$ and $R^2{}_{periodicity}$ refer to the coefficient of determination of the combined

model (Eqn. 1) and periodicity-alone model (Eqn. 2), respectively. Equation 4 allowed the

amount of additional variance explained by the inclusion of velocity (either in the velocity term or

interaction term in Eqn. 1) to be directly quantified.

Results

A. Sensitivity of IC neurons to direction and velocity of SCHR chirps was diverse

Data were recorded over a span of 330 sessions and included recordings from 335

unique single units. Response properties of single-unit neurons are illustrated using RMs,

MTFs, RVFs, and raster plots of SCHR responses (Figs. 3-7). The neural sensitivity to chirps is

illustrated in the SCHR raster plots, which illustrate salient trends in the responses of each

neuron, such as detailed timing and rate differences between SCHR conditions that differ in

direction or velocity. RMs were used to determine CF; these plots also reveal off-CF inhibitory

regions. MTFs were categorized as BE, BS, or hybrid, and were used to identify BMF and/or

TMF. Lastly, RVFs were constructed from ARC-stimuli responses, which differ from SCHR

responses because they reflect the neural sensitivity to velocities of single chirps removed from

a periodic context. Altogether, RMs, MTFs, and RVFs provided a response profile from which

underlying mechanisms of SCHR-chirp sensitivity were hypothesized—specifically, that SCHR

responses were the result of a combination of modulation tuning, off-CF inhibition in the RM,

Figure 3 – Responses of unit R24TT4P7N2 to characterizing stimuli. (A) Response Map – Panels are arranged

vertically by sound level of pure tones. Color plots reflect response rate versus frequency (x-axis) and time following

tone onset (y-axis); magenta regions have increased activity relative to spontaneous rate, and green regions have

decreased activity relative to spontaneous rate. (B) Modulation Transfer Function – rate versus modulation

frequency. The solid black line is smoothed from raw data (shown as circular points). Grey horizontal line reflects

unmodulated rate. (C) Dot raster plots of SCHR responses – Panels are arranged vertically by SCHR condition (F0

and C-value pairs). Within panels, rows of dots reflect repetitions (30 each). Responses to negative C-values (–SCHR)

are plotted with blue dots, and positive C-values (+SCHR) with red dots. Black is used for C = 0. For rows with C = ±1,

F0s of 50, 100, 200, and 400 Hz correspond to chirp velocity magnitudes of ±0.80, ±1.59, ±3.16, and ±6.24 kHz/ms,

respectively. For rows with C = ±0.5, F0s of 50, 100, 200, and 400 Hz correspond to chirp velocity magnitudes of

±1.59, ±3.18, ±6.32, and ±12.48 kHz/ms, respectively. For rows with C=0, chirp velocity was infinite. (D) Rate-

velocity function – constructed using responses to ARC-stimuli. Colored arrows mark the SCHR C-values of chirps of

equivalent direction. Error bars are the standard error of rates across repetitions (20 each).

and chirp velocity tuning, with the relative importance of these influences differing between

neurons. Figures 3-7 provide several diverse examples that demonstrate how the SCHR

response profile of a given neuron may be influenced by a combination of modulation tuning,

chirp velocity tuning, and off-CF inhibition.

Figure 3 shows an example of a unit with a complex SCHR response that was not fully

explainable by the responses to characterizing stimuli. The SCHR dot raster plot (Fig. 3C)

displays stronger rates in response to positive-chirps (red dots) at the lowest chirp velocity, 50

Hz, C = ±1. This positive-chirp preference was not maintained for higher velocities. The

neuron's MTF (Fig. 3B) was BS, with a trough spanning modulation frequencies that included

the SCHR F0s of 50 and 100 Hz, and with relatively less suppression at modulation frequencies

matching the F0s of 200 and 400 Hz. If the MTF solely predicted this neuron's SCHR response,

responses to 50- and 100-Hz SCHR chirps should have been nearly entirely suppressed.

However, the neuron's response was robust for all 50-Hz chirp conditions except for 50 Hz, C =

-1, suggesting that the direction and/or velocity sensitivity to these chirps overcame the

suppression observed in the MTF. Thus, the MTF alone could not simply explain this neuron's

SCHR response profile. Meanwhile, the RM (Fig. 3A) was sharply tuned to 1.2 kHz with a low

threshold (13 dB SPL), and revealed a high-frequency inhibitory region at high sound levels with

a long duration and shorter latency than the excitation at CF. If the neuron's SCHR response

were dependent on this asymmetrical sideband inhibition, the long-duration inhibition would

suppress the coincident excitation during downward chirps, resulting in a stronger response to

upward chirps (i.e., –SCHR) than to downward chirps (Gordon and O'Neill, 1998). However, the

neuron instead responded more strongly to +SCHR (downward) chirps than to –SCHR (upward)

for 50-Hz F0. Therefore, the neuron's asymmetrical sideband inhibition alone could not explain

the SCHR response. The neuron's RVF (Fig. 3D) shows an increased response to upward-

sweeping chirps (−SCHR, blue) compared to downward-sweeping chirps (+SCHR, red) for most

velocity-pairs, with the exception of ±0.40 kHz/ms (equivalent to SCHR with F0 = 25 Hz, C =

±1), for which rates were slightly higher for the downward-sweeping chirp. For the most part, the

RVF also did not adequately explain SCHR responses; that is, SCHR rates did not consistently

favor upward chirps (−SCHR). Instead, direction selectivity was only strong at 50 Hz, C = ±1,

showing a selectivity for downward SCHR chirps (+SCHR), while the RVF showed a selectivity

for upward chirps for the equivalent velocity pair (±0.80 kHz/ms). That the RM, MTF, nor RVF

simply predict the SCHR response suggests that the SCHR response may have been driven by

an interaction between these three feature sensitivities.

Another example neuron, illustrated in Fig. 4, had a BE MTF, and a RM dominated by

excitation, with a CF of 2 kHz. This neuron's raster plot for SCHR responses showed relatively

greater responses to +SCHR chirps for all chirp pairs, with the exception of 400-Hz SCHR

stimuli, which were comparatively direction-neutral. Also notable is the suppressed response to

400-Hz SCHR relative to other F0s.

Figure 5 shows responses of an example neuron with a BE MTF and a RM similarly

dominated by excitation, with a CF of 2.3 kHz. However, this neuron was –SCHR selective for

nearly all chirp pairs, with the exception of 400-Hz SCHR. Thus, neurons with the same MTF

type could have opposing chirp-direction selectivity. Again, the MTF shape alone did not predict

SCHR responses. Additionally, neither of the neurons in Figs. 4 and 5 had RMs with inhibitory

regions, although the low spontaneous rates of these neurons likely prevented the RMs from

showing inhibition. However, there was also no evidence for inhibition from either ear based on

the neurons' binaural noise responses; for example, adding ipsilateral noise did not suppress

responses to contralateral noise. Finally, these neurons both had RVFs that were consistent

with the SCHR rate profiles. In Fig. 4, downward-sweeping chirps elicited a higher response rate

than upward-sweeping ones for every velocity-pair. In Fig. 5, the responses to upward-sweeping

chirps were larger to all velocity-pairs, except for ±6.24 kHz/ms (equivalent to 400 Hz) —

interestingly, the selectivity for −SCHR seen for other SCHR conditions in the dot raster plot

was absent for the 400-Hz pair for both neurons.

Figure 4 – Responses of unit R24TT2P8N4 to characterizing stimuli. (A) Response Map, (B) Modulation Transfer

Function, (C) SCHR dot-raster plot, (D) Rate-Velocity Function. Figure description identical to Fig. 3.

Figure 5 – Responses of unit R25TT2P5N1 to characterizing stimuli. (A) Response Map, (B) Modulation Transfer

Function, (C) SCHR-dot raster plot, (D) Rate-Velocity Function. Figure description identical to Fig. 3.

Figure 6 shows responses of a neuron with a flat MTF that was also selective for –SCHR

chirps for low-F0 chirp pairs. This figure illustrates that neurons that were neither BE nor BS

could still be sensitive to the direction of SCHR chirps, providing further evidence that SCHR

sensitivity was not a property tied to a particular MTF type.

Figure 7 shows responses of an example neuron with an RM that had a low-frequency

inhibitory region at high tone levels. This inhibition appears to slightly lag the excitatory region

around CF—according to the prediction based on asymmetric inhibition, an upward sweep

should result in a coincidence of inhibition and excitation, resulting in selectivity towards

downward chirps (i.e., +SCHR). However, the dot-raster plots of the neuron responses to SCHR

stimuli show a selectivity towards upward chirps (–SCHR). Figures 3 and 7 are examples for

which chirp selectivity did not agree with the prediction made by the asymmetric inhibitory-

sideband theory (Fuzessery and Hall, 1996; Gordon and O'Neill, 1998) and suggest that

sideband inhibition alone could not predict SCHR responses.

Figure 7 – Responses of unit R24TT1P9N2 to characterizing stimuli. (A) Response Map, (B) Modulation Transfer

Function, (C) SCHR dot raster plot, (D) Rate-Velocity Function. Figure description identical to Fig. 3.

These example neurons illustrate the diversity of response profiles to SCHR chirps in the

IC. Conventional IC features, such as modulation tuning and off-CF inhibition observed in RMs,

could not fully explain the responses to SCHR chirps. This observation led to the hypothesis

that sensitivity to the chirp velocity contributed to SCHR-chirp sensitivity. This hypothesis served

as the motivation for the ARC stimulus, which allowed variation of the velocity cue. RVFs based

on ARC-stimulus responses often reflected the rate profiles seen in SCHR dot-raster plots (e.g.,

Figs. 4,5, and 6), but sometimes did not (e.g., Figs. 3 and 7), suggesting that while many SCHR

responses could be explained by their RVFs, others required a more complex interaction

between multiple feature sensitivities.

B. The majority of IC neurons were selective for SCHR direction

After establishing that individual IC neurons in awake rabbit displayed sensitivity for

SCHR-chirp direction, this property was quantified for the population of recorded neurons.

SCHR-direction sensitivity was quantified within a given F0 and pair of opposite-signed C values

by performing ROC analysis on response rates for SCHR-sign pairs. Neurons for which

responses to SCHR-sign pairs allowed direction to be discriminated 70.7% of the time via the

ROC test were labeled direction-sensitive.

In total, SCHR responses were recorded from 157 neurons. In Table 1, the *Overall*

column shows the percentage of all neurons that were direction selective for each F0 and C

condition, or for at least one combination (i.e., Table 1, *Any* row). Direction selectivity was more

common for lower F0s and generally was less common for higher F0s

F0 (Hz)	C-Value	Overall (n = 157)	BE (n = 31)	BS (n = 59)	Hybrid (n = 41)	Low CF (n = 36)	Mid CF (n = 39)	High CF (n = 82)
50	±1	53.5	74.2	45.8	51.2	58.3	61.5	47.6
	±0.5	59.2	81.0	47.1	60.0	56.7	73.9	55.6
100	±1	51.0	77.4	44.1	36.6	63.9	61.5	40.2
	±0.5	51.2	66.7	49.0	34.3	50.0	73.9	44.4
200	±1	50.3	67.7	47.5	36.6	63.9	56.4	41.5
	±0.5	35.2	71.4	23.5	22.9	33.3	60.9	27.8
400	±1	49.0	48.4	47.5	51.2	47.2	48.7	50.0
	±0.5	48.8	66.7	41.2	45.7	46.7	56.5	47.2
Any		90.5	93.6	93.2	82.9	97.2	92.3	86.6

Table 1 - Percent of direction sensitive neurons by subgroup as determined by ROC analysis of SCHR responses.

Neurons are sorted into subgroups by MTF shape and CF. Neurons with CF less than 6 kHz were labeled "Low CF",

and neurons with CF greater than 6 kHz were labeled "High CF". Direction sensitivity was quantified for each F0/C

condition. The percentage of neurons sensitive for any F0/C condition was also determined, defined as neurons that

were sensitive to sweep direction for at least one F0/C condition.

For a given F0, the C = ±0.5 condition had a chirp velocity equivalent to the 2F0 and C =

±1 condition. However, these equivalent-velocity pairs often differed in prevalence of direction

selectivity (i.e., 200 Hz, C = ±0.5 and 400 Hz, C = ±1, *Overall* column). This result suggested

that prevalence of direction selectivity did not depend solely on chirp velocity and was possibly

also influenced by SCHR periodicity or duty cycle.

Finally, 90.5% of neurons were direction selective for at least one F0 and C condition

(Table 1, *Any* row), demonstrating that SCHR chirp direction selectivity was nearly ubiquitous.

To determine the proportion of neurons expected to be selective for any SCHR condition by

random chance, responses to either direction were shuffled within each SCHR-sign pair for

each neuron. ROC tests were then performed on these shuffled responses, and the neurons

that were direction selective for at least one F0/C condition were tallied as before. After shuffling

the responses 1000 times, 3.2% of the neurons were selective for at least one F0/C condition

(with a standard deviation of 2.6%), suggesting that the threshold used in the ROC test

(70.07%) was sufficiently high.

C. MTF shape, but not CF, was related to prevalence and direction of SCHR selectivity

The prevalence of SCHR-direction selectivity depended on F0. Hence, it was relevant to

quantify the extent to which modulation sensitivity could influence SCHR responses. To

examine the effect of MTF shape on SCHR direction selectivity, results of an ROC analysis are

shown in Fig. 8. BE neurons were significantly more direction selective than BS neurons for 5

SCHR conditions, and more direction selective than Hybrid neurons for 5 conditions, suggesting

that BE neurons were more often direction selective than other MTF shapes (χ^2 test of

independence, Fig. 8 caption. Additionally, for several SCHR conditions (e.g., 50 Hz, C = ±1; 50

Hz, C = ±0.5; 400 Hz, C = ±0.5) a notably larger percentage of BE neurons were +SCHR

selective than for the rest of the MTF shapes, suggesting that BE neurons were more likely than

neurons of other MTF types to be +SCHR selective. For most SCHR conditions, all MTF types

tended to have more –SCHR selective neurons. However, for all but one MTF group and SCHR

Figure 8 - Percent of direction selective neurons determined by ROC analysis for different MTF shapes, by SCHR condition (BE – Band-Enhanced, BS – Band-Suppressed, H – Hybrid, O – Other). Blue bar-segments correspond to –SCHR selective neurons, and red bar-segments correspond to +SCHR selective neurons. Brackets indicate significant differences of direction selectivity prevalence between groups, as determined by the χ^2 test of independence, with asterisks indicating the level of significance (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$). Precise p-values are reported here for each panel. 50 Hz, C = ±1—BE-BS, p = 0.0099; BE-H, p = 0.0477. 50 Hz, C = ±0.5—BE-BS, p = 0.0083. 100 Hz, C = ±1—BE-BS, p = 0.0025; BE-H, p = 0.0006. 100 Hz, C = ±0.5—BE-H, p = 0.0187; H-O, p = 0.0088. 200 Hz, C = ±1— BE-H, p = 0.0088. 200 Hz, C = ±0.5—BE-BS, p = 0.0001; BE-H, p = 0.0003; BS-O, p = 0.0359; H-O, p = 0.0450. 400 Hz, C = ±0.5—BE-BS, p = 0.0492.

condition (*Other*, 50 Hz, C = ±50 Hz), both positively- and negatively-selective neurons

appeared. Interestingly, despite the large differences between BE and BS groups within

individual SCHR conditions, the percentage of neurons in each group that were direction

selective at any SCHR condition (Table 1, bottom row) were similar. This result shows that BS

neurons were more frequently selective only at a few SCHR conditions compared to BE

neurons. Indeed, the average number of selective SCHR conditions among BE neurons was

4.6, compared to 3.2 conditions on average for BS neurons. Hybrid neurons were selective for

3.1 conditions on average. Overall, the prevalence of direction selectivity among BE, BS, and

hybrid neurons was high, with hybrid neurons having the lowest prevalence.

To examine the effect of CF on SCHR-direction selectivity, results of an ROC analysis

for different CF ranges are shown in Fig. 9. The relationship of prevalence of selectivity and CF

is less clear than for MTF shape. Generally, low-CF and mid-CF neurons were more often

selective than high-CF neurons, but this trend varied by SCHR condition. Generally, most CF

groups had more –SCHR selective neurons for all SCHR conditions. Generally, mid-CF neurons

displayed robust –SCHR selectivity compared to high-CF neurons, which were more +SCHR

selective. Low-CF neurons may have been more selective for –SCHR at low F0s, but become

more balanced at higher F0s. Overall, much like MTF groups, all CF groups had both positive-

and negative-selective neurons. Also, like the MTF groups, all CF groups had an overall high

percentage of direction selectivity (Table 1, *Any* row).

Figure 9 - Percent of direction selective neurons determined by ROC analysis for different CF ranges, low (<3 kHz),

mid (>3 kHz and <6 kHz), and high (>6 kHz), by SCHR condition. Blue bar-segments correspond to –SCHR selective

neurons, and red bar-segments correspond to +SCHR selective neurons. Brackets indicate significant differences of

direction selectivity prevalence between groups, as determined by the χ^2 test of independence, with asterisks

indicating the level of significance (* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001). Precise p-values are reported here for

each panel. 100 Hz, C = ±1—Low-High, p = 0.0179; Mid-High, p = 0.0283. 100 Hz, C = ±0.5—Mid-High, p = 0.0138.

200 Hz, C = ±1—Low-High, p = 0.0248. 200 Hz, C = ±0.5—Low-Mid, p = 0.0459; Mid-High, p = 0.0040.

D. Direction selectivity to ARC stimuli was near-ubiquitous

ROC analysis was performed on responses to ARC stimuli to determine the prevalence of direction selectivity of neurons in the absence of periodicity. Similar to the analysis performed for SCHR responses (Table 1), equivalent ARC chirp speeds were paired, and pairs for which the chirp direction could be discriminated 70.7% of the time via ROC test were labeled direction-selective.

ARC responses were collected from 247 neurons (Table 2). As for the SCHR ROC results, direction selectivity to ARC stimuli was common for faster chirp velocities and became increasingly uncommon as velocity increased. When comparing equivalent chirp-velocity conditions between SCHR and ARC-stimulus responses (e.g., 0.80 kHz/ms ARC chirp and 50-Hz SCHR, etc.), neurons were more commonly selective for ARC chirps than for their SCHR

Velocity (kHz/ms)	Overall (n = 247)	BE (n = 33)	BS (n = 115)	Hybrid (n = 67)	Low CF (n = 90)	Mid CF (n = 36)	High CF (n = 121)
±0.40	80.2	90.9	80.9	71.6	85.6	86.1	74.4
±0.80	72.9	78.8	72.2	67.2	78.9	69.4	69.4
±1.59	73.3	87.9	73.9	73.1	76.7	75.0	70.2
±3.16	62.3	69.7	53.9	71.6	57.8	55.6	67.8
±6.24	56.3	63.6	53.9	61.2	53.3	38.9	63.6
±9.24	52.2	48.5	47.8	61.2	46.7	52.8	56.2
Any	99.6	100	100	98.5	100	100	99.2

Table 2 – Percent of direction selective neurons by subgroup as determined by ROC analysis of ARC-stimulus responses. Neurons are sorted into subgroups by MTF shape and CF. Neurons with CF less than 6 kHz were labeled "Low CF", and neurons with CF greater than 6 kHz were labeled "High CF". Direction selectivity was quantified for each F0/C condition. The percentage of neurons selective for any F0/C condition was also determined, defined as neurons for which at least one F0/C condition was selective.

counterparts. Finally, 99.6% of neurons were direction selective for at least one ARC velocity

(Table 2, *Any* row). Stated differently, only one neuron among the 247 surveyed was not

significantly direction selective at any velocity. This result demonstrates that neurons were

nearly universally direction selective to chirps in aperiodic stimuli.

As for the SCHR ROC analysis, responses to each chirp-direction pair were shuffled for

each neuron, and an ROC test was performed on the shuffled responses to ensure that a

reasonable threshold was used for determining direction selectivity. Shuffling the responses

1000 times, 13.3% of the neurons were selective for at least one F0/C condition (with a

standard deviation of 9.0%). It is clear that the actual percentage of 99.6% could not be due to

variance in the data, suggesting that the threshold used in the ROC test (70.07%) was

sufficiently high.

E. Prevalence and direction of ARC selectivity were related to chirp velocity, but not MTF

shape or CF

The results of ROC analysis revealed different trends for ARC and SCHR responses. As

expected, there was not as pronounced an effect of MTF shape on either the prevalence or

direction of ARC selectivity (Fig. 10). BE-neuron selectivity was not more prevalent than that of

other MTF shapes, as seen in Fig. 8. Instead, all MTF shapes showed decreasing prevalence of

direction selectivity with increasing chirp velocity (Table 2). Direction of ARC selectivity changed

with chirp velocity as well – at the two slower velocities tested (±0.40 and ±0.80 kHz/ms),

neurons were more frequently selective for positive chirp velocities (blue, equivalent to −SCHR).

At the four higher velocities (±1.59 kHz/ms and faster), neurons of all MTF types were more

likely to be selective for negative velocities (red, equivalent to +SCHR).

Figure 10 - Percent of direction selective neurons determined by ROC analysis for different MTF shapes, by ARC

chirp duration (BE – Band-Enhanced, BS – Band-Suppressed, H – Hybrid, O – Other). In terms of chirp velocity, an

ARC chirp of ±0.80 kHz/ms has a duration of 20 ms (equivalent to a SCHR chirp F0 of 50 Hz), ±1.59 kHz/ms has a

duration of 10 ms (SCHR F0 100 Hz, etc.). Blue bar-segments correspond to upward-selective neurons (equivalent to

−SCHR), and red bar-segments correspond to downward-selective neurons (equivalent to +SCHR). Brackets indicate

significant differences of direction selectivity prevalence between groups, as determined by the χ^2 test of

independence, with asterisks indicating the level of significance (* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001). Precise p-

values are reported here for each panel. ±0.40 kHz/ms (40 ms)—BE-H, p = 0.0287. ±1.59 kHz/ms (10 ms)—BE-O, p =

0.0044. ±3.16 kHz/ms (5 ms)—BS-H, p = 0.0183.

The trends observed for direction selectivity in neurons with different MTF types were
also observed for CF groups (Fig. 11). CF was not strongly related to the prevalence nor the
direction of ARC selectivity; rather, prevalence of direction sensitivity in all CF groups decreased

519   with increasing chirp velocity. Also, neurons were more commonly selective for chirps of

520   negative velocity (+SCHR) at higher chirp velocities.

Figure 11 - Percent of direction selective neurons determined by ROC analysis for different CF ranges, low (<3 kHz),

mid (>3 kHz and <6 kHz), and high (>6 kHz), by ARC chirp. In terms of chirp velocity, an ARC chirp of ±0.80 kHz/ms

has a duration of 20 ms (equivalent to a SCHR chirp F0 of 50 Hz), ±1.59 kHz/ms has a duration of 10 ms (SCHR F0

100 Hz, etc.). Blue bar-segments correspond to upward-selective neurons (equivalent to −SCHR), and red bar-

segments correspond to downward-selective neurons (equivalent to +SCHR). Brackets indicate significant

differences of direction selectivity prevalence between groups, as determined by the χ^2 test of independence, with

asterisks indicating the level of significance (* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001). Precise p-values are reported

here for each panel. ±0.40 kHz/ms (40 ms)—Low-High, p = 0.0481. ±6.24 kHz/ms (2.5 ms)—Mid-High, p = 0.0083.

F. RVFs were often direction selective at slower-velocities and direction-insensitive at

higher-velocities

In order to determine which response properties were the most common, principal

component analysis (PCA) was performed on the set of RVFs. Figure 12 shows the first three

principal components, which together explained 74.0% of the variance in the data. Principal

component 1 (PC1) had relatively high weights at high-magnitude velocities, showing that rate

responses to high velocities tended to be positively correlated, regardless of direction. PC1

explained 48.5% of variance in the RVF data. Principal component 2 (PC2) had high weights at

low-magnitude velocities, showing that rate responses to low velocities also tended to be

positively correlated, regardless of direction. PC2 explained 13.8% of variance in the data.

Finally, PC3 had large positive weights at positive, slow velocities and negative weights at

negative, slow velocities, demonstrating that responses to positive and negative velocity chirps

tended to be negatively correlated at slow velocities. PC3 was the main PCA dimension

reflecting direction selectivity. PC3 explained 11.7% of variance in the data.

Figure 12 – Principal components derived from the set of RVFs (left, PC1; center, PC2; right, PC3). Y-axes reflect

principal-component weights and are unitless.

The shapes of the first three principal components of the RVF data suggest that the

most salient features of a neuron's RVF were its responses to high- and low-velocity chirps,

rather than the direction of those chirps. However, PC3 showed that the direction selectivity of

neurons for low-velocity chirps was an important feature of these datasets—however, PC3

primarily represented low-velocity chirp direction selectivity, consistent with the observation that

chirp-direction selectivity at high-velocities was not as common. Instead, neural responses to

chirps of high velocities tended to depend on absolute velocity rather than on direction.

As shown in Fig. 13, there was not a clear relationship between the scores of principal

components 1-3 and either MTF type (symbol shapes) or CF (symbol colors). This result

suggested that RVFs could not be simply derived from MTFs or CFs. Furthermore, based on the

three scatter plots in Fig. 13, there were no clusters of neurons based on principal-component

analysis – that is, RVF subgroups were not revealed by this analysis.

Figure 13 – Scatter plots depicting the Principal Component scores of each neuron, organized by MTF shape (A-C)

and CF range (D-F). (A and D, PC2 vs PC1; B and E, PC3 vs PC1; C and F, PC3 vs PC2). In the top row (A-C), BE

neurons are represented by yellow upward triangles, BS neurons by purple downward triangles, hybrid neurons by

green circles, and other MTF shapes by black asterisks. In the bottom row (D-F), Low-CF neurons are represented by

yellow upward triangles, mid-CF by purple downward triangles, and high-CF by green circles.

G. Velocity cues facilitated predictions of SCHR rate

Starting from the premise that responses to SCHR stimuli are dependent on AM

(periodicity) tuning and/or velocity tuning, we used MTFs and ARC responses to predict SCHR

responses using a GLM. Figure 14 shows a visualization of this strategy on an example neuron

(R24TT2P8N4, also depicted in Fig. 4). The neuron's SCHR response is shown as a surface

plot on periodicity-velocity axes; darker colors correspond to higher response rates. This neuron

responded more strongly to lower F0s and to +SCHR (Fig. 14A). The color bars above and to

the left of the SCHR surface are the MTFN and ARC responses of the neuron, respectively, and

describe how the neuron's response rate depended on periodicity or velocity alone. Using a

weighted combination of these two responses, the GLM predicted the SCHR response (Fig.

14B). By fitting an equation that included both periodicity and velocity terms (Eqn. 1), an

accurate prediction of the recorded SCHR data was made ($R^2 = 0.98$). Removing either the

periodicity or velocity terms reduced the quality of the prediction (Fig. 14C, D) (note that their

interaction will be examined below). Predicting the SCHR response using the periodicity-only

model (Eqn. 2) resulted in the disappearance of the distinct direction selectivity at lower F0s

(Fig. 14C). Notably, a model using only periodicity tuning could not explain the observed

direction selectivity. Conversely, a prediction of the SCHR responses using the velocity-only

model (Eqn. 3) explained a relatively small amount of variance in the data ($R^2 = 0.25$). This

neuron was typical in that more variance in the data was explained by the periodicity-only model

than by the velocity-only model. However, this neuron was also typical in that the velocity terms

contribute a substantial percentage of the variance explained by the combined model, as

compared to the periodicity-only model.

The RVF in Fig. 14 had a higher response rate for downward sweeps (+SCHR).

However, this neuron was only selective for +SCHR at low F0s. Figure 15 shows how the

velocity cue was used differently by the combined GLM model depending on periodicity. For

Figure 14 – GLM prediction of SCHR rates for an example neuron (R24TT2P8N4; same neuron as in Fig. 4). (A) SCHR rates plotted in Periodicity-Velocity space (center surface). Each of the 16 points on the surface plot correspond to an individual SCHR F0/C-value combination – for instance, four points have a SCHR F0 of 50 Hz. Their velocities vary with C-value; the points' C-values, from top to bottom, are -0.5, -1, 1, 0.5. This surface plot demonstrates the effect of C-value on chirp velocity. The periodicity cue and velocity cue are plotted alongside the SCHR surface plot—these are the MTF and RVF, respectively. The modulation frequency range of the MTF was limited to the section relevant to the range of SCHR F0s (50 – 400 Hz). Rate is marked using color, with darker shades indicating larger rates. The rate scale of each surface plot is separately normalized by its own maximum rate—thus, shading does not reflect absolute rates. Surface plot colors are interpolated. (B) SCHR rates predicted using the combined GLM equation (Eqn. 1), which uses both periodicity and velocity cues. Coefficient of determination (R^2) between predicted and recorded SCHR rates is also shown. (C) SCHR rates predicted using the periodicity-only GLM equation (Eqn. 2), and corresponding R^2-value. (D) SCHR rates predicted using the velocity-only GLM equation (Eqn. 3), and corresponding R^2-value.

ARC velocities that closely matched the velocities of SCHR chirps with F0 equal to 50 Hz, a

large change in ARC rate was associated with a high predicted SCHR rate (blue line). For

higher F0s, ARC rate had a smaller impact on the predicted SCHR rate, with SCHR-ARC-line

slopes approaching zero (200- and 400-Hz lines, yellow and purple). Therefore, despite the

RVF suggesting a strong selectivity for downward sweeps at all velocities, Fig. 15 shows that

the interaction between velocity and periodicity sensitivities drove the SCHR response rates.

The importance of velocity-periodicity interaction illustrated in Fig. 15 was typical of many

neurons in the study.

Figure 15 – SCHR rates vs ARC rates (velocity cue) of unit R24TT2P8N4 plotted as recorded data (scatter plot) and

GLM-fitted lines (solid lines). Blue solid line and circles correspond to 50 Hz, orange dashed line and plus signs

correspond to 100 Hz, yellow dotted line and crosses correspond to 200 Hz, and purple dash-dotted line and

squares correspond to 400 Hz. Both SCHR and ARC rates are normalized by their own maximum rate. This example

neuron is also shown in Figs. 4 and 14.

Using the method outlined in Fig. 14, an R^2 value was obtained for each of the three

GLM models (Eqns. 2-4) by comparing predictions to neural responses. The contribution of

velocity terms to the total explainable variance was calculated as a percentage, using Eqn. 4.

Figure 16 shows this percentage versus the variance explained by the combined model. Many

symbols are clustered around the *x*-axis, indicating that the contribution of velocity was not the

primary determinant of SCHR rate and that periodicity tuning was the more important feature in

predicting SCHR responses for these neurons. However, for neurons with a high total variance

explained by the combined model (80-100%), the average contribution of velocity terms was

about 20% and ranged up to about 50%. Figure 14 shows an example of such a neuron with

high total explainable variance; the relatively small contribution of velocity to the predictions was

not insubstantial because it necessarily contained all information about direction selectivity, a

cue for which the example unit was clearly sensitive (Fig. 4D, RVF). Furthermore, for many

neurons with relatively low (20-60%) total explainable variance, the contribution of the velocity

terms explained over 50% of the explained variance, suggesting that velocity cues were

important predictors of these SCHR responses, perhaps more so than the relatively weaker

periodicity predictor.

Figure 16 - A. (left) Percent variance explained in the SCHR response using the ARC model alone versus percent

variance explained by the combined model. B. (right) Percent contribution of the ARC terms to the total explainable

variance by the combined model vs. Variance explained by the combined model.

In summary, direction selectivity between SCHR pairs could not be explained with a

model using periodicity alone. Because SCHR-direction selectivity was common (90.5%, Table

1), most IC neuron responses were necessarily influenced by velocity sensitivity.

Discussion

This study demonstrated the diversity of sensitivity to the velocity and direction of fast

frequency chirps in the IC, for the first time in an awake-rabbit model. Using ROC analysis, IC

neurons were shown to be commonly selective for SCHR chirp direction, with 90.5% of neurons

surveyed selective for at least one condition (Table 1). Neurons were also nearly universally

selective for chirp direction in response to the novel ARC stimulus (Table 2). This study also

showed that individual neurons had a wide variety of rate-response profiles which were

described using RVFs. RVFs revealed that neurons were more commonly direction selective to

chirps of lower velocities and responded to higher velocities in a direction-insensitive way.

Finally, GLM analysis was performed to show that in many cases SCHR rates could be

accurately reconstructed using the periodicity and velocity sensitivity reflected in MTFs and

RVFs, respectively. The combination of both velocity and periodicity cues was necessary to

achieve the best model predictions.

A common use of Schroeder-stimuli has been as a masker in psychophysical

experiments evaluating detection of an increment in tone level. Notably, there is an effect of

Schroeder-phase on its effectiveness as a masker, with up to 20-dB lower thresholds (less

masking) for +SCHR maskers than for −SCHR maskers (Smith et al., 1986). An explanation

from the literature attributes this effect to asymmetry of filtering in the cochlea—phase-

dispersive properties of the basilar membrane (BM) result in a peakier response profile for

+SCHR than −SCHR, which is then compressed at the output of the cochlea, resulting in higher

average energy in −SCHR BM responses compared to +SCHR, and thus more effective

masking by -SCHR stimuli (Recio and Rhode, 2000; Summers et al., 2003). This logic can also

be applied to explain rate-differences between SCHR C-values. However, the results here

suggest that other factors underlie the widespread chirp selectivity of IC single-units observed in

this study. First, the phase-dispersion of the BM depends on CF, with neural masking

differences observed primarily for CFs > 3-4 kHz (Recio, 2001). In this study, no consistent

differences were observed in either the prevalence or direction of chirp selectivity between low-

CF (< 3 kHz) and mid- or high-CF (> 3 kHz) neurons, in either SCHR or ARC rates (Figs. 9, 11).

Secondly, the cochlear dispersion hypothesis can only explain SCHR selectivity towards

−SCHR; despite this, neurons in the mid-to-high-CF range (> 3 kHz) could be selective for either

positive or negative SCHR stimuli (Fig. 9), suggesting that cochlear phase-dispersion was not

the basis of IC chirp sensitivity. Similarly, Henry et al. (2022) found diverse SCHR selectivity in

the IC of budgerigars (parakeet), though a statistical gradient was observed from −SCHR

selectivity at CFs below 2-3 kHz to +SCHR selectivity for higher CFs. These findings were also

consistent with a recent study in gerbils (Steenken et al., 2022) which reported that average

rates of AN fibers could not explain behavioral discrimination of SCHR stimuli in gerbils,

whereas temporal analyses of AN responses over short time (1-ms) windows could explain

behavioral thresholds. Low correlations of AN rate to behavior provides further evidence against

cochlear phase-dispersion driving IC selectivity. On the other hand, the presence of information

for SCHR direction discrimination in the relatively fine timing of AN fibers is consistent with

neural mechanisms that combine temporal information across frequency channels.

A potential mechanism to explain the diverse chirp-response profiles seen in this study

may be found in IC inhibition. IC neurons receive excitatory and inhibitory inputs with varying

frequencies and latencies that may interact to produce chirp selectivity (Pollak et al., 2011).

Interactions between excitatory and inhibitory inputs varying in latency have long been

implicated in mechanisms for frequency-sweep selectivity in bats (Suga, 1965; Fuzessery and

Hall, 1996; Gordon and O'Neill, 1998). These mechanisms broadly are dependent on sideband

inhibitory regions in excitatory tuning curves and the resulting asymmetry of responses to

upward and downward frequency sweeps. Although not directly observed for all neurons, RM

inhibition did not reliably predict chirp-direction selectivity among neurons for which inhibition

was observed (e.g. Fig. 3), suggesting that sideband inhibition is not the sole mechanism

underlying selectivity. To more comprehensively assess the effect of inhibition on chirp

sensitivity, inhibition in the IC could be assessed by measuring RMs using pure tones in

background noise – this would be an interesting direction for a future study.

A related mechanism for chirp selectivity based on dendritic filtering was proposed by

Rall (1969) who included excitatory inputs organized spatially by frequency. In Rall's framework,

a sweep that activates distal dendrites first, and proximal dendrites later, would temporally sum

and generate a large synaptic input. While the existence of such large dendritic fields has not

been reported in the IC, this mechanism has been hypothesized to underlie the FM directionality

of octopus cells in the posteroventral cochlear nucleus (Rhode and Greenberg, 1992; Pollak et

al., 2011). Notably, octopus cells project to the VNLL, which provides inhibitory innervation to

the IC (Adams, 1997; Vater et al., 1997; Winer et al., 1995). Thus, FM directionality of octopus

cells, by way of the VNLL, may explain chirp selectivity in the IC; in this scenario, responses to

chirps in one direction would be inhibited by input from the VNLL and disinhibited by chirps in

the opposite direction. The possibility that IC chirp sensitivity originates in octopus cells is

particularly intriguing because, like IC neurons, octopus cells display a diversity of chirp

response profiles and can be selective to either upward or downward chirps (Lu et al., 2022).

Note that Lu et al. (2022) suggested that the diverse chirp selectivity in octopus cells could be

explained by sequence detection, with excitation determined by a sequence of inputs with both

frequency-dependent delays and varied amplitudes, rather than by simple coincidence detection

of inputs with frequency-dependent delays.

Sensitivity to the direction of fast frequency changes has also been evaluated using

neural responses to stimuli with random spectrotemporal fluctuations. One example is the

Dynamic Moving Ripple (DMR) stimulus described in Escabí and Schreiner (2002). Designed to

mimic spectrotemporal modulations present in natural sounds, such as speech or animal

vocalizations, the stimulus is composed of a bank of sinusoidal carriers with an imposed

spectrotemporal envelope. DMR stimuli have been used to generate spectrotemporal receptive

fields (STRFs), which describe how neural response properties vary over frequency and time. It

should be possible to produce a DMR stimulus with ripple velocity equivalent to SCHR chirps by

substantially increasing the velocity of frequency sweeps compared to the original DMR stimuli.

Doing so would require careful co-modulation of the temporal and spectral modulation variables

and selection of an appropriate temporal analysis window for computing the stimulus

spectrogram, which would be necessary to generate temporally-informative STRFs. Such

STRFs may provide additional clues for analyzing IC neurons' chirp tuning.

While the combined GLM with both periodicity and velocity cues was able to reproduce

SCHR rate profiles of IC neurons, often with high accuracy, some predictions did not explain a

high percentage of the variance (Fig. 16), suggesting that additional factors shaping SCHR rate

profiles have yet to be uncovered. One possible source of this discrepancy was a gradual

change in rate over long (50 – 150 ms) durations—Fig. 3 shows an example in which rate

gradually increased (100 Hz F0), and Fig. 7 shows an example in which rate gradually

decreased (50 Hz F0, C = -1). These long-term effects may be attributable to the auditory

efferent system, and cannot be captured using the brief ARC stimulus. Similar long-term

changes in rate have been reported in response to other complex sounds, representing a

possible direction for future research (Farhadi et al., 2021).

SCHR-chirp sensitivity in the IC suggests a mechanism that may influence midbrain-

level encoding of speech. When speech sounds, or any animal vocalizations, are produced,

resonances within the vocal tract act as second-order filters, introducing phase shifts between

components of harmonic sounds (Klatt, 1980). In the same way that SCHR chirps are produced

by the relative phases of harmonic components, vocalizations will contain chirp-like features to

which IC neurons may be similarly sensitive. IC neurons in this study were sensitive to SCHR

chirps and directions over a frequency range relevant to human speech. Close examination of

IC responses to SCHR chirps may reveal a novel influence on midbrain responses that is

relevant to neural coding of speech and other harmonic sounds. The interaction of periodicity

tuning and frequency-sweep velocity sensitivity observed in this study would also influence

responses to other complex harmonic sounds, such as those common in speech and music.

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