

# 1 Title Page

2 **Title:** Mapping the human auditory cortex using spectrotemporal receptive fields generated with  
3 magnetoencephalography

## 4 **Author Names, Affiliations and Contact:**

5 Jean-Pierre R. Falet (1) \*, Jonathan Côté (1) \*, Veronica Tarka (1), Zaida-Escila Martinez-  
6 Moreno (1), Patrice Voss (1), Etienne de Villers-Sidani (1)

7 \* JR Falet and J Côté contributed equally to this work.

8 (1) Department of Neurology and Neurosurgery, McGill University

9 Jean-Pierre R. Falet: [jean-pierre.falet@mail.mcgill.ca](mailto:jean-pierre.falet@mail.mcgill.ca)

10 Jonathan Cote: [jonathan.cote@mail.mcgill.ca](mailto:jonathan.cote@mail.mcgill.ca)

11 Veronica Tarka: [veronica.tarka@mail.mcgill.ca](mailto:veronica.tarka@mail.mcgill.ca)

12 Zaida-Escila Martinez-Moreno: [zaida.martinezmoreno@mail.mcgill.ca](mailto:zaida.martinezmoreno@mail.mcgill.ca)

13 Patrice Voss: [patrice.voss@mcgill.ca](mailto:patrice.voss@mcgill.ca)

14 Etienne de Villers-Sidani: [etienne.de-villers-sidani@mcgill.ca](mailto:etienne.de-villers-sidani@mcgill.ca)

15

16 **Data availability statement:** A sample of our dataset is freely available for download from the  
17 OpenNeuro platform at the following link:

18 <https://openneuro.org/datasets/ds003082/versions/1.0.0>. All other data can be provided upon  
19 request.

20 **Funding statement:** This work was funded in part by grants from the Natural Sciences and  
21 Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC), the Centre for Research on Brain,  
22 Language and Music (CRBLM), and the Réseau québécois de recherche sur le vieillissement  
23 (RQRV).

24 **Conflict of interest disclosure:** The authors declare having no potential competing interests.

25 **Ethics approval statement:** This study was approved by the research ethics board of the  
26 Montreal Neurological Institute.

27 **Patient approval statement:** All participants provided written informed consent.

## 28 Abstract

29 We present a novel method to map the functional organization of the human auditory cortex  
30 noninvasively using magnetoencephalography (MEG). More specifically, this method estimates  
31 via reverse correlation the spectrotemporal receptive fields (STRF) in response to a dense pure  
32 tone stimulus, from which important spectrotemporal characteristics of neuronal processing can  
33 be extracted and mapped back onto the cortex surface. We show that several neuronal  
34 populations can be found examining the spectrotemporal characteristics of their STRFs, and  
35 demonstrate how these can be used to generate tonotopic gradient maps. In doing so, we show  
36 that the spatial resolution of MEG is sufficient to reliably extract important information about the  
37 spatial organization of the auditory cortex, while enabling the analysis of complex temporal  
38 dynamics of auditory processing such as best temporal modulation rate and response latency  
39 given its excellent temporal resolution. Furthermore, because spectrotemporally dense auditory  
40 stimuli can be used with MEG, the time required to acquire the necessary data to generate  
41 tonotopic maps is significantly less for MEG than for other neuroimaging tools that acquire  
42 BOLD-like signals.

## 43 Introduction

44 An important goal of auditory neurophysiology is to model the functional organization of the  
45 human auditory cortex (AC). This involves developing an intricate understanding of auditory  
46 processing along both spectral and temporal dimensions, and relating these features to the  
47 spatial topographical organization of the AC.

48 Frequently, the topographical organization of the human AC has been studied noninvasively  
49 using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) in terms of tonotopy, or best frequency  
50 maps, which has been found to be a key organizational feature (Da Costa et al., 2011;  
51 Formisano et al., 2003; Humphries, Liebenthal, & Binder, 2010; Langers & van Dijk, 2012;  
52 Talavage & Edmister, 2004; Woods et al., 2010). Although details such as the orientation of the  
53 tonotopic gradient are still debated, an anterior to posterior high-low-high best frequency  
54 organization centered on Heschl's gyrus (HG) is found and agreed upon in most human fMRI  
55 studies (Gardumi, Ivanov, Havlicek, Formisano, & Uludağ, 2017), and is consistent whether  
56 pure tones or natural sounds are used (Moerel, Martino, & Formisano, 2012). Coupled with the  
57 spatial organization of other neuronal response characteristics such as the broadness of  
58 frequency tuning, and paired with findings from cyto- and myeloarchitectural studies, the AC has  
59 been further divided by fMRI into subfields with unique processing properties (Moerel, De  
60 Martino, Formisano, 2014).

61 However, the role of temporal processing within the micro-organization of the human AC  
62 remains unclear from the available fMRI literature alone (Leaver and Rauschecker, 2016).  
63 Crucial aspects of our sensory experience, such as speech perception and music enjoyment,  
64 clearly rely heavily on precise temporal encoding of auditory information (Abrams et al., 2011).  
65 Invasive electrophysiological recordings in several animal species have shown the importance  
66 of temporal features in understanding the functionality of AC subfields (Linden et al., 2003;  
67 Nagel & Doupe, 2008). Moreover, studying the temporal domain of auditory processing is  
68 necessary to gain a complete understanding of auditory plasticity (Schreiner & Polley, 2014;  
69 Carlin & Elhilali, 2015). For example, auditory training using temporal discrimination tasks can  
70 lead to improvements in the processing of temporal features that do not result in improvements  
71 in spectral processing (van Wassenhove & Nagarajan, 2007), reinforcing the importance of

72 studying both dimensions. Similarly, studying temporal dynamics can yield insights into age-  
73 related changes in auditory processing (de Villers-Sidani et al., 2010).

74 Unfortunately, while fMRI boasts an excellent spatial resolution to answer questions pertaining  
75 to the spatial organization of the AC, it cannot provide sufficient temporal resolution to  
76 adequately study temporal dynamics and short-latency events. The hemodynamic response to  
77 neuronal activity measured by fMRI occurs on the order of seconds (Aguirre, Zarahn, &  
78 D'esposito, 1998), which precludes precise characterization of neuronal activity occurring on the  
79 order of milliseconds. Furthermore, because of the relatively long acquisition time, stimuli sets  
80 are typically small and offer less flexibility than one would ideally want to study the response to  
81 complex sounds. Studying auditory processing in fMRI has also been limited by loud operating  
82 noise, even though workarounds have been developed (Cha, Zatorre, & Schönwiesner, 2016).

83 MEG is an attractive alternative modality for *in vivo* electrophysiological recording of neuronal  
84 activity in the AC. It not only provides superior temporal resolution on the order of milliseconds  
85 (Regan, 1989), but also provides a completely silent acquisition environment. An important  
86 barrier preventing its widespread use has been related to concerns regarding its ability to  
87 spatially resolve the millimetric spatial organization of the AC (Langers & van Dijk, 2012; Moerel,  
88 De Martino, Formisano, 2014), in particular its tonotopic organization. This concern is offset by  
89 recent successes in capturing the retinotopic organization of the visual cortex using MEG at a  
90 spatial resolution of 7 mm in smooth cortical regions and less than 1 mm near curved gyri  
91 (Nasiotis, Clavagnier, Baillet, & Pack, 2017). Moreover, early efforts at identifying a basic  
92 tonotopic gradient using MEG have been successful in some respects. Dipole depth beneath  
93 the scalp has consistently been found to correlate with stimulus frequency, and orientation of  
94 the gradient has been shown to vary with gyral morphology (Romani, Williamson, & Kaufman,  
95 1982; Pantev et al., 1988; Kuriki & Murase, 1989; Huotilainen et al., 1995; Verkindt, Bertrand,  
96 Perrin, Echallier, & Pernier, 1995). Other studies have also identified a posterior to anterior

97 gradient, lower frequencies being represented more posteriorly, with the possibility of there  
98 being multiple tonotopic gradients (Pantev et al., 1995; Weisz, Wienbruch, Hoffmeister, & Elbert,  
99 2004). Finally, a recent MEG study using speech sounds was able to identify a tonotopic  
100 gradient similar to that obtained in fMRI (Su, Zulfiqar, Jamshed, Fonteneau, & Marslen-Wilson,  
101 2014).

102 Encouragingly, relatively simple study design tweaks could potentially yield improvements in the  
103 spatial resolution of MEG, notably through the use of higher stimulus density. There is evidence  
104 from research with owl monkeys pointing to an inverse relationship between stimulus density  
105 and the tuning width of neurons in the AC, as shown by the smaller size of their receptive fields  
106 with such stimuli (Blake & Merzenich, 2002). This could be due to increased peri-neuronal  
107 inhibition when stimuli are presented at a faster rate, increasing the spectrotemporal specificity  
108 of each neuron, and therefore improving the spatial resolvability of neuronal subpopulations.  
109 Using a dense stimulus could therefore improve the spatial resolution of MEG with respect to  
110 tonotopic organization.

111 Here, we describe a novel method to map the functional organization of the AC using MEG.  
112 Specifically, we take advantage of the MEG's high temporal resolution to extract the spectral  
113 and temporal characteristics of sound processing for each neuronal source by computing their  
114 spectrotemporal receptive field (STRF), and demonstrate how the characteristics of STRFs can  
115 then be extracted and mapped onto the cortical surface to study organizational features such as  
116 tonotopy. STRFs have indeed been commonly used to describe the dynamics of neuronal  
117 activity in response to auditory stimuli (see for e.g.: Calabrese, Schumacher, Schneider,  
118 Paninski, & Woolley, 2011; Depireux, Simon, Klein, & Shamma, 2001; Kowalski, Depireux, &  
119 Shamma, 1996; Linden, Liu, Sahani, Schreiner, & Merzenich, 2003; Miller, Escabí, Read, &  
120 Schreiner, 2002; Nagel & Doupe, 2008; Sen, Theunissen, & Doupe, 2001; Theunissen, Sen, &  
121 Doupe, 2000; Woolley, Fremouw, Hsu, & Theunissen, 2005; Woolley, Gill, & Theunissen, 2006).

122 They represent the spectral and temporal patterns of auditory stimuli that elicit the maximal  
123 response from a neuron. To estimate STRFs, several methods have been used for varying  
124 stimulus types (Theunissen, Sen & Doupe, 2000), but the foundational technique revolves  
125 around reverse correlation and involves averaging the stimulus content preceding neuronal  
126 spikes (de Boer & Kuyper, 1968). Doing so results in a spike-triggered average that can reliably  
127 estimate the STRF when using a stimulus that is uncorrelated in the spectral and temporal  
128 dimensions, as is typical for stimuli used for mapping tonotopy.

129 We show here that spectrotemporally dense auditory stimuli composed of isointensity pure  
130 tones (IIPs) can yield sufficient spatial resolution to allow for mapping the tonotopic  
131 organization of the AC using reverse correlation-based STRFs generated from MEG. This  
132 method can therefore be reliably used to investigate the spatial organization of the AC, with the  
133 added benefit of MEG's excellent temporal resolution to study short-latency-dependent events  
134 and complex spectrotemporal characteristics, permitting an in-depth non-invasive functional  
135 study of auditory processing in humans.

## 136 Results

### 137 I. Estimation of STRFs

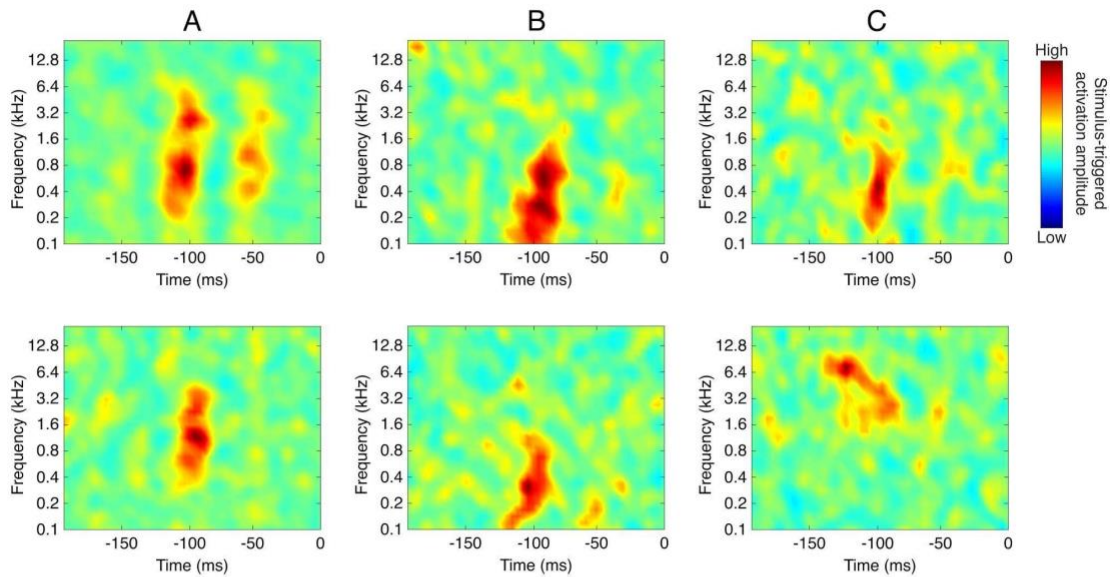
138 For this analysis, we recorded the neural responses to a 10-minute IIP stimulus train non-  
139 invasively in ten subjects (labeled S1 to S10) using a 275-channel whole-head MEG system  
140 (CTF MEG International Services Ltd.). MEG records magnetic fields outside the head, and a  
141 reverse problem must be solved to localize the source of the magnetic fields from where they  
142 originate inside the brain as electrical currents produced by neuronal activity. To do so, we used  
143 Weighted Minimum Norm Estimates (wMNE) (Lin et al., 2006) which constrains each source to

144 a one-dimensional perpendicular orientation with respect to a cortex surface obtained through  
145 an MRI-based cortical reconstruction generated with FreeSurfer (Dale & Sereno, 1993). Our  
146 analysis was conducted on a high cortical tessellation (150,000 sources) to maximize the  
147 potential for high spatial resolution.

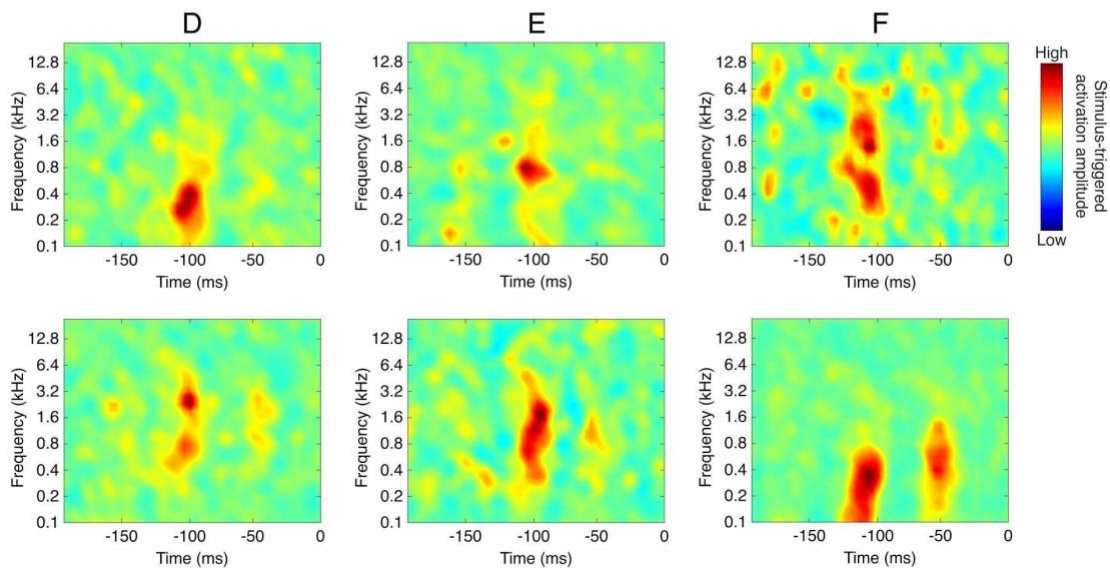
148 We generated STRFs for each source within our region of interest (ROI) in the right and left  
149 hemispheres of ten subjects (S1 to S10) using a technique based on reverse correlation  
150 analysis adapted to MEG data and detailed in *Materials and Methods*. The STRF represents the  
151 average stimulus-triggered activation amplitude (the average z-score value of every significant  
152 neuronal activation event). The resulting STRFs clearly display several important  
153 spectrotemporal characteristics expected of neurons in the AC (Figure 1). These include  
154 temporal features such as best temporal modulation rate and response latency, as well as  
155 spectral features such as best frequency and frequency bandwidth. The STRFs provide  
156 information about the auditory stimuli most likely to elicit a significant response from a given  
157 source. While the majority of STRFs had a single peak at a latency of about 100 ms  
158 (representing the M100 response), we could identify a number of sources that exhibited a  
159 smaller peak at a latency of 50 ms (representing the earlier M50 response). Some sources  
160 exhibited complex STRF spectrotemporal patterns, including some with frequency sweeps.



## Temporal Characteristics



## Spectral Characteristics



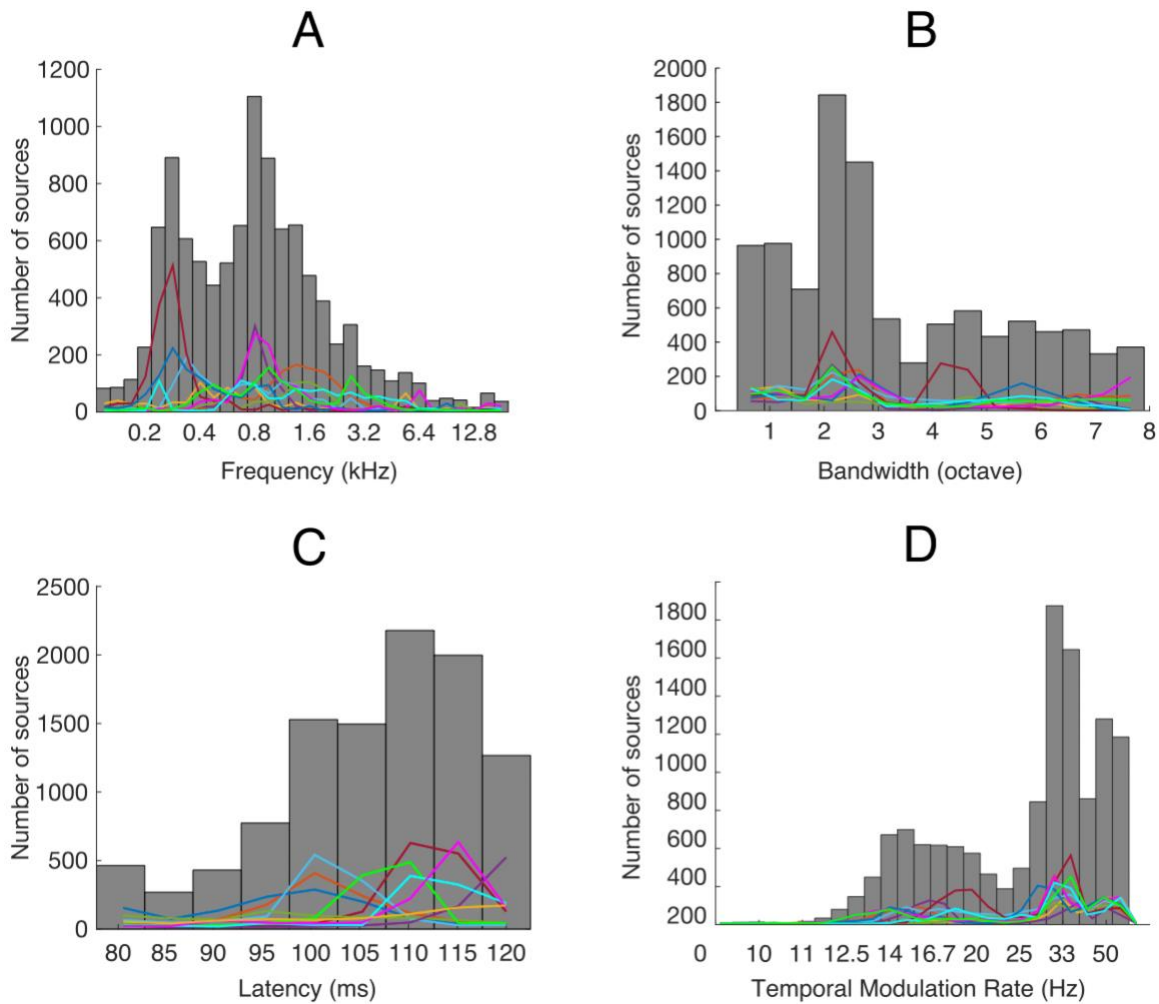
161

162 **Figure 1. Variety of STRF characteristics.** Sample STRFs exhibiting a range of spectral and  
163 temporal characteristics. (A) M50 response (top = strong response; bottom = no response). (B)  
164 Best temporal modulation rate (top = low modulation rate; bottom = high modulation rate). (C)  
165 Temporal complexity (top = preference for a temporally isolated stimulus; bottom = preference  
166 for a downward frequency sweep). (D) Best frequency (top = low frequency; bottom = high



167 *frequency*). (E) *Frequency bandwidth (top = small bandwidth; bottom = large bandwidth)*. (F)  
168 *Spectral complexity (top = two spectral peaks eliciting an M100 response; bottom = two spectral*  
169 *peaks eliciting an M100 and/or an M50 response)*.

170 Key properties that can be obtained through analysis of STRFs are shown in Figure 2. These  
171 histograms represent a group-level average among all subjects. Best frequencies were  
172 represented along a bimodal distribution with one peak at 0.283 kHz and another at 0.8 kHz.  
173 However, the range was large, extending throughout all presented frequencies. On average,  
174 90% of sources per subject had a best frequency between 0.2 and 3.2 kHz. Frequency  
175 bandwidths were most commonly 2.5 octaves, with the remainder of sources exhibiting a large  
176 range of bandwidth. M100 latency was most commonly at 110 ms. Finally, best temporal  
177 modulation rate also followed a bimodal distribution, with one peak at 15 Hz (with rates ranging  
178 from 10 to 24 Hz), and another centered around 33 Hz (with rates ranging from 25 to 100 Hz).



179  
180 **Figure 2. Histograms of STRF characteristics.** Histograms showing the total number of  
181 sources from all 10 subject for each of the following STRF characteristics: best frequency (A),  
182 bandwidth (B), latency (C), and best temporal modulation rate (D). Lines representing the  
183 individual contribution of each subject are superimposed onto the histograms.

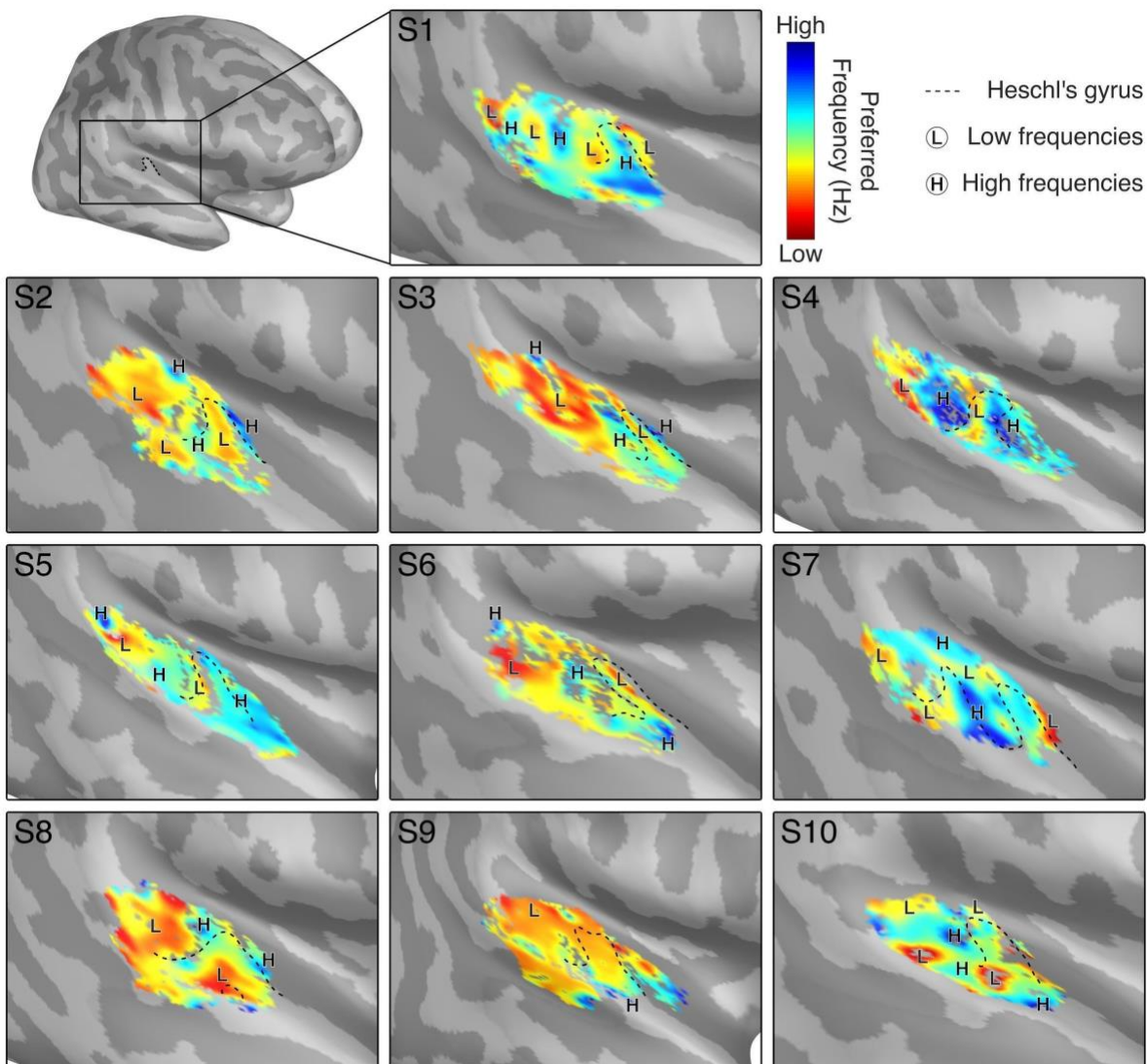
## 184 II. Selection of IIPT-Responsive Sources

185 We defined IIPT-responsive sources as those having an STRF M100 response peak greater  
186 than a z-score of 3.5, with a latency between 80-120 ms, and a minimum STRF bandwidth of  
187 0.375 octaves (see *Materials and Methods* for precise definitions). The high z-score threshold

188 enables the selection of only those sources that are very IIPT-responsive. This threshold is  
189 should be determined based on the amount of smoothing that is used in the STRF-generation  
190 and the signal-to-noise ratio of an experiment. The latency thresholds enable the identification  
191 of the M100 response with a range of response latencies. Finally, the bandwidth threshold  
192 enables the selection of physiologically plausible receptive fields, eliminating sources that could  
193 have a significant “single-bin” receptive field due to chance alone, given the high number of data  
194 bins present in the STRF.

### 195 III. Identification of a tonotopic gradient

196 To demonstrate the utility of computing STRFs in MEG to study the spatial topographic  
197 organization of the auditory cortex, we generated tonotopic maps from the best frequency  
198 values of the STRFs for each IIPT-responsive neuronal source. A tonotopic organization could  
199 be identified in the right temporal lobe for all subjects, as shown in Figure 3. Because of  
200 variability between subjects in the position of tonotopic gradient reversals and in the underlying  
201 cortical anatomy which covers only a very small area, we do not show a group-level average  
202 using currently available tools in the Brainstorm suite, as this leads to loss of valuable gradient  
203 information. The gradient pattern is best analyzed individually or, alternatively, using a manual  
204 landmark-based averaging method which has proven successful in some fMRI studies (e.g.  
205 Humphries et al. 2010).



206

207 **Figure 3. Best frequency maps and tonotopic gradient organization.** Best frequency maps  
208 are shown for subjects 1 to 10. Major regions of high and low frequencies are marked as H and  
209 L, respectively, and Heschl's gyrus is outlined for reference. Tonotopic gradients can be  
210 identified in all subjects. Colormap limits are set near the local minima and maxima of each  
211 subject to best visualize gradient patterns.

212 For the majority of subjects (S1 to S8), a primary tonotopic gradient perpendicular to the  
213 longitudinal axis of HG could be identified. This primary gradient is most often centered on the  
214 posterior part of HG. Among the two subjects who did not have a perpendicular gradient

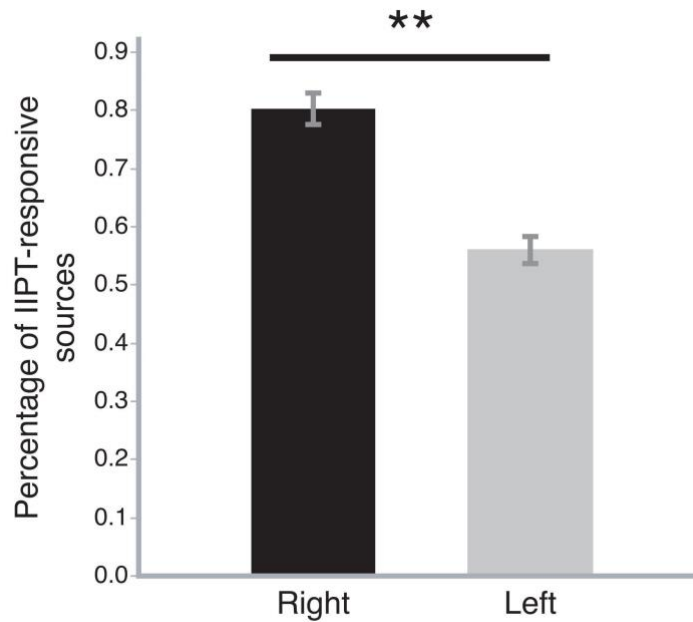
215 progression, S9 had a simple antero-posterior gradient oriented parallel to the longitudinal axis  
216 of HG, and S7 had several circular zones of low and high frequencies with a complex  
217 organization not observed in other subjects. Of note, all subjects had a single HG, while S7 had  
218 a complete duplication of HG, and S8 had a partial duplication of HG. There was a more  
219 variable tonotopic organization present in planum temporale (PT), usually with a relative  
220 overrepresentation of low frequencies.

221 Other characteristics of STRFs can be projected onto the cortical surface, including bandwidth,  
222 latency, and temporal modulation. The right-hemisphere maps for these characteristics are  
223 presented in Figure S1, S2, and S3.

#### 224 IV. Investigation of lateralization to IIPT stimuli

225 Identification of tonotopic gradients was more robust in the right cerebral hemisphere of  
226 subjects, which is why the remainder of our analysis was performed on the right. Best frequency  
227 maps for the left hemisphere are shown in Figure S4.

228 The left hemisphere's tonotopic maps had a decreased signal-to-noise ratio, a shorter range of  
229 best frequencies, and less elaborate tonotopic gradients with some subjects having no  
230 discernible gradient. To investigate whether this was associated with a difference in the number  
231 of IIPT-responsive sources in each hemisphere, we calculated the percentage of IIPT-  
232 responsive sources within each hemisphere's ROI (Figure 4). While there were over 50% of  
233 IIPT-responsive sources in the left hemisphere's ROI, a two-tailed paired t-test revealed that the  
234 right hemisphere had 24.3% more IIPT-responsive sources than the left hemisphere (95% CI:  
235 14.8 - 33.8;  $p = 0.0003$ ), confirming a lateralization to the right.



236

237 **Figure 4. Average percentage of IIP T-responsive sources for each cerebral hemisphere**  
238 **among all subjects.** The average percentage of IIP T-responsive sources is presented for the  
239 right and left hemispheres. The percentage represents the number of IIP T-responsive sources  
240 over all possible sources within our region of interest. The error bars represent the standard  
241 error to the mean. Two-tailed paired t-test results in  $p = 0.0003$ ,  $t$ -value  $-5.7887$ ,  $DF = 9$ .

## 242 Discussion

243 We have described a novel method for functional mapping of the human AC using MEG,  
244 showing that it can reliably extract important information about the spatial organization of  
245 auditory processing when using STRFs generated from a dense pure tone auditory stimulus.  
246 This supports the hypothesis that the spatial resolution of MEG is more than sufficient to study  
247 tonotopic gradients in the human AC, and allows us to leverage the MEG's excellent temporal  
248 resolution to study short-latency-dependent events and complex spectrotemporal characteristics  
249 inherent in auditory processing that are impossible to study using fMRI.

## 250 I. Estimation of STRFs using MEG

251 MEG has been used in the past to successfully generate physiologically plausible STRFs using  
252 discrete (Constantino et al., 2017) and continuous stimuli (Crosse et al., 2016; Ding & Simon,  
253 2012), but to the best of our knowledge, this is the first *in vivo* MEG study to estimate STRFs  
254 using reverse correlation in human subjects for the purpose of mapping the functional  
255 organization of the AC. Our findings support that it is possible to generate physiologically  
256 plausible STRFs with excellent variety in terms of spectrotemporal patterns, akin to what has  
257 been reported in other mammalian studies (see for e.g.: Elhilali, Fritz, Chi, & Shamma, 2007;  
258 Massoudi, Van Wanrooij, Versnel, & Van Opstal, 2015). Some STRFs exhibited complex  
259 patterns, both spectrally and temporally, which is a testament to the high temporal resolution  
260 and sufficient spatial resolution of MEG to be able to isolate such a large variety of neuronal  
261 sub-populations in a relatively small cortical region. In some cases, we could even detect a  
262 strong M50 response.

263 Our analysis of the distribution of these STRF properties revealed a bimodal distribution of best  
264 frequency centered on 0.283 kHz and 0.8 kHz, with the vast majority of sources (90%) having a  
265 best frequency between 0.2 kHz and 3.2 kHz. Our results are comparable with those of a small  
266 study of four epilepsy patients with intracranial electrode recordings, where only the frequencies  
267 0.32 kHz to 3.2 kHz elicited neuronal responses, and 0.25 to 2.0 kHz elicited the strongest  
268 responses (Bitterman, Mukamel, Malach, Fried, & Nelken, 2008). This finding likely reflects  
269 emphasis on frequencies used in speech sounds. In an articulation test (intelligibility of speech  
270 communication), subjects scored 95% accuracy when a low-pass filter of 4.0 kHz was applied to  
271 speech sounds and 100% when the low-pass filter was 7.0 kHz (Monson, Hunter, Lotto, &  
272 Story, 2014), suggesting that spectral content below 7.0 KHz is the most important for speech  
273 comprehension. The wider audible frequency range in humans extends up to about 20 kHz for



274 young healthy individuals (Monson et al., 2014), and while these were represented in our  
275 dataset, they were markedly underemphasized when compared to the frequency band of  
276 speech. One possible confounder pertains to the E-A-RTONE 3A insert earphones, which have  
277 frequency responses that, although audible, progressively decreases in intensity beyond 3 kHz.  
278 Although this could contribute to the underrepresentation of higher frequencies in our dataset,  
279 the fact that frequency representation begins dropping well below 3.0 kHz (starting at 0.8 kHz)  
280 suggests that this finding is truly representative of the underlying functional organization.

281 The ability to extract STRFs using MEG is significant. The STRFs we have produced are in  
282 keeping with what is physiologically expected of neurons in the human AC. The spectrotemporal  
283 characteristics of auditory processing are likely important in understanding the subdivisions of  
284 neuronal populations in humans. STRF analyses have also been crucial to better understand  
285 the mechanisms underlying plasticity using the AC as a model, particularly in mice. In this  
286 setting, STRFs have provided an excellent means of visualizing the changes in spectrotemporal  
287 characteristics of neuronal response over time (Kamal, Holman, & de Villers-Sidani, 2013). Until  
288 now, correlating STRFs with spatial organization in the auditory cortex was only possible in  
289 animal studies and intracranial recording studies in humans, but our proposed methodology  
290 provides a novel non-invasive method to do so in humans.

## 291 II. MEG-generated tonotopic maps

292 A mirror-symmetric tonotopic gradient has been described in most fMRI studies (Da Costa et al.,  
293 2011; Formisano et al., 2003; Humphries et al., 2010; Langers & van Dijk, 2012; Moerel, De  
294 Martino, Formisano, 2012), and the majority of our subjects exhibit a very similar gradient  
295 pattern, usually centered around a region of low frequency in the posterior part of HG. The  
296 directionality of the gradient found using our method is most closely aligned with the findings of  
297 Humphries et al., Da Costa et al., Formisano et al., and Moerel et al. (Humphries et al., 2010,

298 Da Costa et al., 2011, Formisano et al., 2003; Moerel, De Martino, Formisano, 2012), who also  
299 describe a primary gradient perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of HG (though Langers & van  
300 Dijk (2012) in contrast describe a latero-medial progression) . Furthermore, a review publication  
301 integrating fMRI research with cyto- and myeloarchitectural studies proposed a model of the  
302 human AC with a tonotopic gradient oriented at a similar angle with respect to HG (Moerel, De  
303 Martino, Formisano, 2014). Therefore, the fact that the tonotopic organization we describe is in  
304 keeping with what is found in the fMRI literature supports the accuracy of the findings generated  
305 by our technique. It adds to the body of evidence pointing to a primary gradient that is  
306 perpendicularly oriented to the longitudinal axis of HG, which likely represents the primary AC.  
307 This primary gradient is most often centered on HG.

308 There was significant intersubject variability in our dataset, which is consistent with the findings  
309 of methods boasting greater spatial resolution such as fMRI (Humphries et al., 2010).  
310 Nonetheless, we could still identify consistent tonotopic gradient progressions that shared  
311 similar patterns and directionality among the majority of subjects. These patterns extend from  
312 the core auditory cortex to the putative location of the belt and parabelt areas. These other  
313 subfields have been characterized by relying on spatial organization of best frequency (Moerel,  
314 De Martino, Formisano, 2012). The technique presented here has the spatial resolution that  
315 would allow further characterization of these subfields' features by harnessing the MEG's  
316 temporal resolution.

### 317 **III. Right-hemispheric lateralization of response to pure tones**

318 The tonotopic maps produced using our methodology have led us to identify a right-hemispheric  
319 lateralization of the tonotopic organization in response to IIPs at M100. Despite there being  
320 over 50% of sources in the left hemisphere that responded to the IIP stimulus, the  
321 characterization of a tonotopic organization was less robust than in the right hemisphere, with

322 some subjects having no discernible gradient. While functional lateralization of the human AC  
323 has been extensively studied with respect to stimuli involving music and speech sounds  
324 (Tervaniemi & Hugdahl, 2003), lateralization of tonotopy using pure tone stimuli has received  
325 less attention in the literature. In a single fMRI study, the presence of a clearer tonotopic  
326 organization was noted in the right primary AC compared to the left, although there was  
327 significant inter-subject variability (Langers, Backes, & van Dijk, 2007). Right-sided  
328 specialization for frequency-specific tuning has also been noted in intracranial recordings of  
329 auditory evoked potentials (Liégeois-Chauvel, Giraud, Badier, Marquis, & Chauvel, 2001) and in  
330 a previous study using MEG (Ozaki & Hashimoto, 2007). There is also evidence pointing to left-  
331 ear advantage (and therefore right hemispheric lateralization) when human subjects are  
332 presented with tonal, but not noise stimuli (Sininger & Bhatara, 2012).

333 The bulk of the evidence from the available literature studying pitch and music points to the right  
334 hemisphere having better spectral resolution (Zatorre, Belin, & Penhune, 2002), and therefore  
335 implicating it more in music, pitch and tonal processing. This contrasts with the left hemisphere's  
336 better temporal resolution, rendering it more important in the processing of much faster temporal  
337 variations in the sound amplitude envelope, as is the case in speech. These hypotheses are  
338 supported by lesioning studies showing that lesions affecting the right HG result in deficits in the  
339 perception of pitch, by electrophysiological studies showing an association between pitch  
340 perception and the timing of cortical activity in the right hemisphere, and by a variety of  
341 functional imaging studies showing a predilection for tonal processing in the right hemisphere  
342 (Zatorre, Evans, & Meyer, 1994; Zatorre, Evans, Meyer, & Gjedde, 1992; Perry et al., 1999;  
343 Halpern & Zatorre, 1999; Griffiths, Johnsrude, Dean, & Green, 1999; Penhune, Zattore, &  
344 Evans, 1998; Hugdahl et al., 1999; Tervaniemi et al., 2000).

345 Several fMRI studies have identified a tonotopic organization in the left hemisphere (see for e.g.  
346 Formisano et al., 2003; Talavage et al., 2004; Langers et al., 2007). While we could identify a

347 tonotopic organization in a subset of participants' left hemispheres, this was less robust than on  
348 the right. This discrepancy could be due to at least two reasons. First, it is possible that the type  
349 of stimulus could be implicated. We used a spectrotemporally dense pure tone stimulus with a  
350 much greater rate of stimulus presentation than is typically used in fMRI studies. However,  
351 because the left hemisphere is thought to be important in the processing of temporal  
352 characteristics of sound (Zatorre et al., 2002), it would be difficult to explain why such a  
353 difference in the stimulus presentation rate could result in a lateralization to the right  
354 hemisphere. Second, the discrepancy could be related to the timing of acquisition and the  
355 temporal resolution of the two modalities. With MEG, the high temporal resolution allows us to  
356 isolate specific auditory cortical responses such as the M100 response, whereas the BOLD  
357 response used in fMRI results from neuronal activity occurring over a much longer time period,  
358 dictated by hemodynamic properties. Therefore, the activity captured through fMRI may relate to  
359 activity taking place much later than the M100 response in the auditory processing hierarchy.  
360 We believe this to be the more likely explanation behind this observation.

## 361 IV. Limitations

362 There are limitations to the method we propose. First, the sound intensity (volume) of stimulus  
363 presentation is a limiting factor in the ability to resolve a tonotopic gradient. In order to truly  
364 capture the characteristic (best) frequency of a neuron, the lowest sound intensity that will elicit  
365 a response must be found; however, current electrophysiological and functional neuroimaging  
366 techniques are not sensitive enough to record neuronal responses barely above threshold, and  
367 therefore require the use of higher sound intensities. Coupled with the notion that neurons  
368 respond to a broader range of frequencies when stimulated by higher sound intensities  
369 (Recanzone, 2000), doing so may result in the spread of activation limiting the accuracy and  
370 resolvability of the measured tonotopic gradient (Tanji et al., 2010). While this limitation cannot

371 be avoided, we used A-weighted stimulus intensity to compensate for the differences in volume  
372 necessary to lead to equivalent intensity perception at each frequency (Fletcher & Munson,  
373 1933).

374 There are possible artifacts related to recording auditory evoked fields in the region of the AC.  
375 MEG is selectively sensitive to current along the walls of sulci, and cannot detect current at the  
376 crest of gyri and bottom of sulci (Puce & Hämäläinen, 2017). Moreover, the activity recorded  
377 from regions lying in close proximity to other surfaces, as is the case with the AC, could  
378 potentially be altered or even canceled by conflicting currents occurring simultaneously on the  
379 adjacent surface (Ahlfors et al., 2010). In our dataset, we did not observe any deficiency in the  
380 identification of IIPT-responsive sources in the crests of gyri and bottom of sulci. This leads us  
381 to believe that any potential alteration in signal occurring as a consequence of the  
382 macroanatomy of the AC did not prevent adequate source estimation with MEG.

383 Although our analysis is based on the earliest consistently detectable response in MEG (Pantev  
384 et al., 1988), the M100 response, what it represents remains controversial. Intracranial  
385 recordings have localized M100 to the lateral portion of HG and PT (Godey, Schwartz, de Graaf,  
386 Chauvel, & Liégeois-Chauvel, 2001; Liégeois-Chauvel, Musolino, Badier, Marquis, & Chauvel,  
387 1994), while non-invasive recordings have localized it exclusively to PT (Lütkenhöner &  
388 Steinsträter, 1998; Engelien, Schulz, Ross, Arolt, & Pantev, 2000), which may be interpreted as  
389 activity in secondary ACs. This evidence rightfully has led some to question the claim that M100  
390 originates from the primary AC (Moerel, De Martino, & Formisano, 2014). However, our data is  
391 not entirely consistent with this view. We show that there is clear activity at M100 along the  
392 purported anatomical location of the primary AC, HG. There are two possible ways to reconcile  
393 these differences. It may be that the spatial resolution of MEG is such that activity in spatially  
394 separated cortical areas appears to be overlapping. In this case, most of the observed activity  
395 could be originating from PT but falsely appear to be extending beyond PT into HG. We believe

396 this is unlikely, particularly given that tonotopic gradients were identified as progressing in  
397 shorter distance increments than the distance between PT and HG. Another possibility is that  
398 primary and secondary auditory processing are overlapping in some regions of the AC. If this  
399 were the case, it would indicate that HG is both involved in primary and secondary processing.  
400 There is evidence showing that the earlier 50 ms-latency response (M50) is in fact located  
401 within the same anatomical region as the M100 response (Wang et al., 2014), which could  
402 support this hypothesis. Even if M100 represents higher order processing, we assume, as  
403 others have (Su et al., 2014), that the tonotopic organization of auditory processing should in  
404 theory remain stable over at least several hundred milliseconds. Even if it does not,  
405 investigation of the M100 response using MEG remains valuable, as insights into later auditory  
406 processing steps can be gained from studying the response in secondary ACs.

## 407 V. Conclusions

408 Here, we show that MEG can be used to characterize the tonotopic organization of the AC by  
409 generating STRFs with a spectrotemporally dense pure tone stimulus. We described a large  
410 variety of STRF patterns consistent with the expected variety of neuronal subtypes that can be  
411 further studied both spectrally, through measures such as frequency bandwidth, and temporally,  
412 through measures such as best temporal modulation rate, and latency. The best frequency  
413 maps and tonotopic gradients we were able to generate shared strong similarities with those  
414 observed in other fMRI studies. MEG therefore is able to provide sufficient spatial resolution to  
415 study the spatial functional organization of the human AC, including the microarchitecture of  
416 auditory subfields, while providing additional benefits through its high temporal resolution. Our  
417 proposed method has significant implications for the field of auditory processing, as it is the first  
418 to effectively capture both high spatial resolution and spectrotemporal information, which  
419 together provide a more complete understanding of auditory processing in humans.

## 420 Materials and Methods

### 421 I. Participants

422 Ten right-handed subjects were recruited into the study (henceforth labeled S1 to S10). Three  
423 were female and the average age was 23 (range 19-27). All subjects reported being free of  
424 hearing impairment or neurological conditions that could affect brain function, including mild  
425 cognitive impairment, dementia and previous history of stroke. All subjects provided written  
426 informed consent. This study was approved by the research ethics board of the Montreal  
427 Neurological Institute.

428 The MEG and anatomical MRI recordings of S3 are freely available for download from the  
429 OpenNeuro platform at the following link:

430 <https://openneuro.org/datasets/ds003082/versions/1.0.0>

### 431 II. MEG Analysis

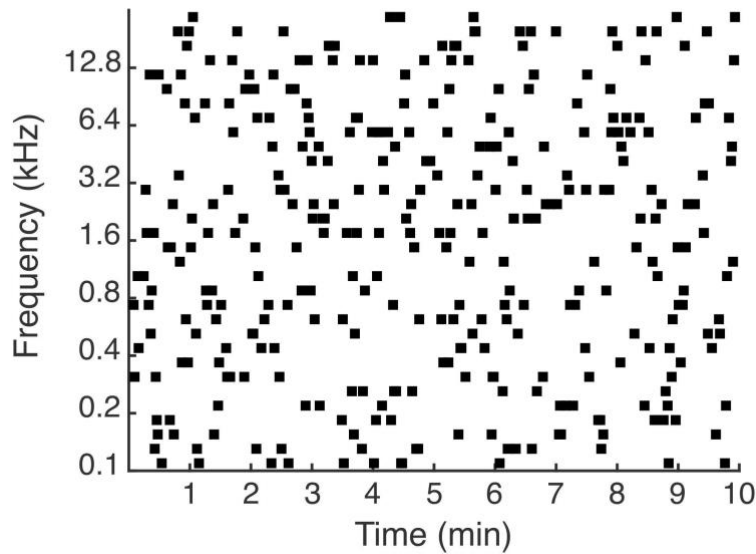
#### 432 II.a. Stimuli presentation

433 Stimuli were generated by a Sound Blaster X-Fi Titanium HD audio card (Creative, Jurong East,  
434 Singapore) connected to a pair of E-A-RTONE 3A insert earphones (3M company, Indianapolis,  
435 Indiana).

436 The stimulus train was a 10-minute train of 50-ms long gated IIPs (Figure 5). Thirty two  
437 different frequencies were presented with A-weighted intensities for the resulting stimulus train  
438 to be perceived at a similar intensity (Fletcher & Munson, 1933). More specifically, A-weighting  
439 describes the decibel attenuation necessary for each frequency to be perceived at the same  
440 intensity, because the perceived intensity varies depending on the frequency of the stimulus.



441 There was an average of 55 pure tones per frequency, per recording, totaling 1,795 pure tones  
442 per recording. Frequencies ranged from 0.1 kHz to 25.6kHz, each separated by a quarter of an  
443 octave. The inter-stimulus interval was randomly generated from a gamma distribution with  
444 shape parameter 6 to achieve an average presentation rate of 3 Hz. Tones could overlap but  
445 less than 1% of tones did, and only 2 tones for every 64 were adjacent.



446  
447 **Figure 5: Iso-intensity pure tones stimulus.** Sample stimulus spectrogram used to obtain  
448 STRFs. Frequencies range from 0.1 kHz to 25.6kHz and each is separated by a quarter of an  
449 octave. Tones are presented binaurally at an average rate of 3 Hz for a total of 10 minutes. Note  
450 that the width of the squares in this figure is larger than their true duration (50 ms) for the sake  
451 of presentation, and more tones appear to be overlapping than is truly the case. Refer to Figure  
452 6. A for a true representation of the duration of each stimulus over a smaller time-window.

453 Subjects were instructed to fixate on a visual fixation cross throughout the stimulus presentation  
454 to reduce eye movement artifacts. The volume intensity was set to a comfortable hearing level.

## 455 II.b. MEG Acquisition

456 Using a 6 degrees-of-freedom digitizer (Patriot - Polhemus; Matlab interface RRID:  
457 SCR\_006752) each subject's head was digitized. The head shapes contained about 100 to 200  
458 points distributed across the scalp, eyebrows and nose to precisely coregister the activity to the  
459 structural MRI. Three coils were attached to fiducial anatomical locations on the head (nasion,  
460 and left and right pre-auricular points) to capture head movement inside the MEG. To record  
461 blinks and eye movements, we placed bipolar electro-oculographic (EOG) leads about 1 cm  
462 above and below one eye, and about 1 cm lateral of the outer canthi. Electrocardiographic  
463 (ECG) activity was recorded with one channel. The electrical reference was placed at the  
464 opposite clavicle. Both EOGs, ECG and the electrical reference were used for subsequent MEG  
465 artifact detection and removal. MEG was recorded using a 275-channel (axial gradiometers)  
466 whole-head MEG system (CTF MEG International Services Ltd.). All data were downsampled to  
467 2400 Hz.

## 468 II.c. Structural MRI

469 Three-dimensional T1-weighted anatomical MR image volumes covering the entire brain were  
470 acquired on either a 1.5T Siemens Sonata or 3T Siemens Magnetom Prisma scanner with an 8  
471 channel head coil (repetition time = 27 ms; echo time = 9.20 ms; between 176 and 192 sagittally  
472 oriented slices with slice thickness of 1 mm; acquisition matrix = 240x256; field of view = 256  
473 mm).

## 474 II.d. MEG Data Pre-Processing and Spatial Modeling

475 MEG data analysis was performed in Matlab (RRID: SCR\_001622; MATLAB and Statistics  
476 Toolbox Release 2015b), coupled with the Brainstorm extension (Tadel, Baillet, Mosher,  
477 Pantazis, & Leahy, 2011), which is documented and freely available for download online under

478 the GNU general public license (RRID: SCR\_001761; Tadel, 2019). MRI-based cortical  
479 reconstruction and volumetric segmentation were performed with the FreeSurfer image analysis  
480 suite (RRID: SCR\_001847; Fischl, 2013; Dale & Sereno, 1993; Fischl, Sereno, & Dale, 1999;  
481 Fischl, Liu, & Dale, 2001).

482 Raw MEG data was pre-processed to remove signal contamination due to ocular, cardiac, and  
483 muscular artifacts using signal-space projections (Tesche et al., 1995; Uusitalo & Ilmoniemi,  
484 1997). Each recording was then manually reviewed to discard any segment still experiencing  
485 significant contamination from artifacts.

486 The forward problem was solved using the overlapping-sphere approach (Huang, Mosher, &  
487 Leahy, 1999), which fits a sphere to the scalp surface. This simplified modeling method can be  
488 used given that the magnetic fields recorded from the brain are not distorted by the shape of the  
489 skull (Barth, Sutherling, Broffman, & Beatty, 1986; Okada, Lahteenmäki, & Xu, 1999). wMNE  
490 (Lin et al., 2006) was used to solve the reverse problem, with sources being constrained to a  
491 one-dimensional perpendicular orientation with respect to the cortex surface. The MRI-based  
492 cortex surface was generated with FreeSurfer and contained 330,000 sources (Dale & Sereno,  
493 1993). Otherwise, default Brainstorm parameters were used in the wMNE modeling (SNR: 3 /  
494 Whitening: PCA; Regularize noise covariance: 0.1; Depth weighting: Order 0.5 / Maximal  
495 amount 10).

496 To reduce computation time, a lower resolution cortical tessellation (15,000 sources) was used  
497 to generate the wMNE source model for the purpose of regional time-frequency analysis. A high  
498 resolution cortical tessellation (150,000 sources) was used for the remainder of the analysis to  
499 maximize the spatial resolution.

## 500 II.e. Time-Frequency Decomposition

501 A time-frequency (TF) decomposition was done to select the optimal band-pass filter to apply to  
502 the pre-processed IIPPT recording before further analysis. This analysis was conducted on all  
503 subjects using a randomly selected subset consisting of 10% of the presented IIPPTs. An  
504 anatomical ROI was selected for the TF decomposition. Given the putative primary AC's  
505 location over HG (Liegeois-Chauvel, Musolino, & Chauvel, 1991), the ROI was based on the  
506 Desikan-Killiany parcellation for HG generated by FreeSurfer (Desikan et al., 2006), which was  
507 then manually enlarged to cover the surrounding sulcal space on both hemispheres. Using the  
508 15,000 source-model, the analyzed ROI overlying HG covered an average of 320.6 sources (SD  
509 23.7) or 49.6 cm<sup>2</sup> (SD 4.28) per subject.

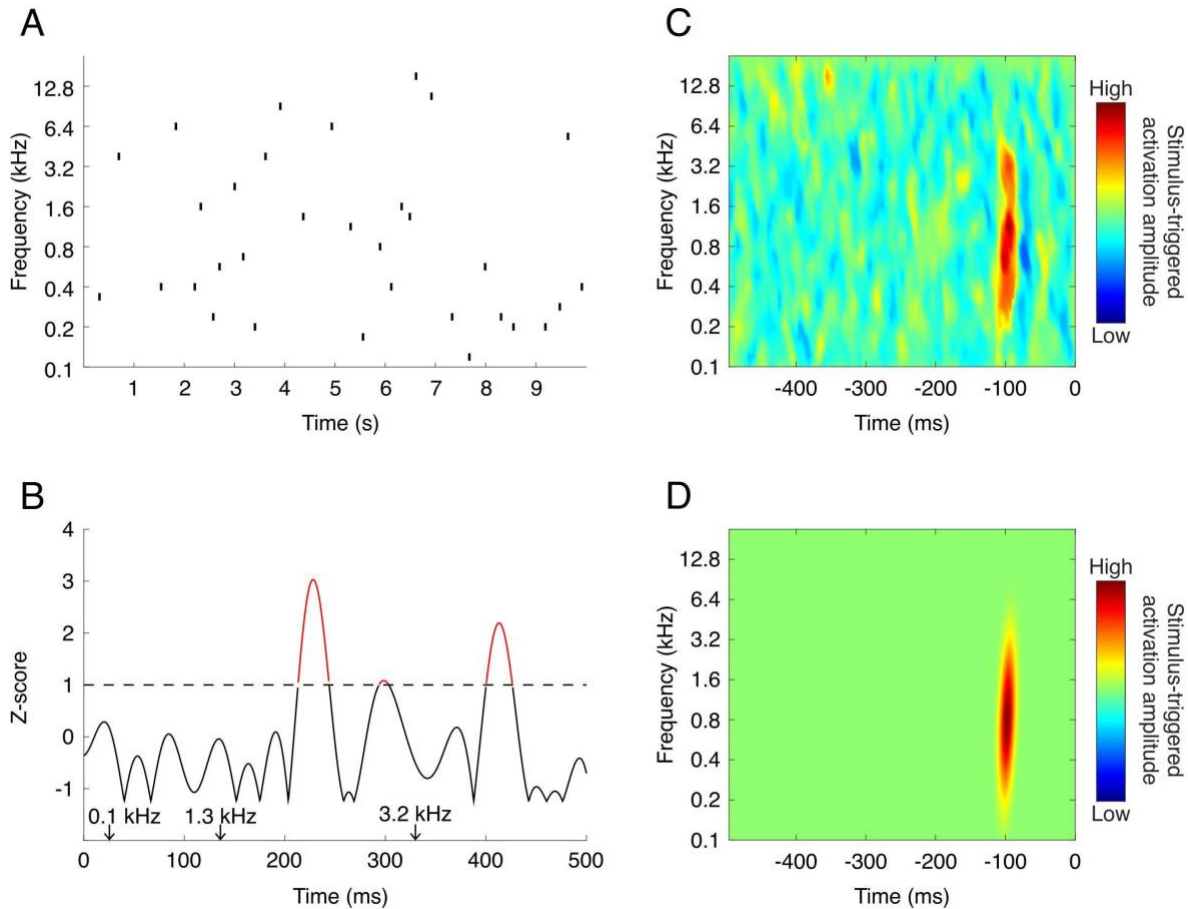
510 The recording was divided into trials of 1 s, from -500 to 500 ms with respect to each IIPPT. The  
511 DC offset was corrected using the 500 ms period before each IIPPT as a baseline. Time-series  
512 for each source within the ROI were extracted for each trial. These time-series were then  
513 subjected to a TF-decomposition using Morlet wavelets (Tallon-Baudry & Bertrand, 1999)  
514 characterized by a central frequency of 1Hz and a time resolution of 1 s. The decomposition  
515 was analyzed in 1 Hz-sized frequency bins. These parameters were chosen to maximize the  
516 spectral resolution at the 100 ms response latency (M100), with the goal of using the M100  
517 response for the remainder of the analysis. The M100 is the earliest detectable event-related  
518 response attributable to the AC that can be reliably measured with auditory evoked fields  
519 (Pantev et al., 1988). Moreover, the M100 response measured by MEG correlates well spatially  
520 with the response measured through intracranial recordings (Godey et al., 2001).

521 The resulting TF-decompositions were then normalized by z-score transformation using a 250  
522 ms-baseline before each IIPPT, and an average across all ROI sources for each subject was  
523 obtained. A conservative z-score threshold of 1 was applied to the average TF-decomposition to

524 identify the information-containing frequency bands at the 100 ms latency. Across all subjects,  
525 the minimum lower cutoff frequency was 3 Hz and the maximum upper cutoff frequency was 13  
526 Hz (for the average TF-decomposition, see Figure S5; for the individual subjects' TF-  
527 decomposition values, see Table S1). A band-pass filter of 3-13 Hz with a stopband attenuation  
528 of 60 dB was therefore applied to the pre-processed IIPT recordings for further analysis.

## 529 II.f. Estimation of STRFs

530 The ROI was constructed with the Desikan-Killiany parcellation of the transverse temporal gyrus  
531 (HG) and the part of the superior temporal gyrus that is posterior to HG, given that our focus  
532 was on the purported region of the primary auditory cortex. STRFs were generated using a  
533 technique based on the reverse correlation approach for each source within our ROI. Figure 6  
534 depicts this process.



535

536 **Figure 6. Generation of STRFs.** The process of generating an STRF is depicted. (A) 10-  
537 second sample of the IIP recording. (B) Z-score transformed source-space time series. The  
538 threshold for defining a significant activation event is shown with a dashed line at a z-score of 1.  
539 Significant activation events are shown in red. The time points at which three sample pure tones  
540 were played are shown with arrows above the x-axis. (C) Sample STRF, representing the  
541 average stimuli preceding all significant activation events for a given source. This particular  
542 STRF has a best frequency of 1.3 kHz. (D) Gaussian-fitted STRF.

543 The source-space time series was first extracted and converted to absolute values to eliminate  
544 the effect of the dipole current's directionality which is not of interest for our application. The  
545 absolute value of the time series was then transformed into a z-score normalized time series  
546 dynamically by recalculating the mean and standard deviation at each reasonably long segment

547 of silence. This segment of silence had to be at least 100 ms long and begin a minimum of 350  
548 ms after the end of the previous IIPT stimulus to avoid contaminating the baseline with late  
549 stimulus-related responses.

550 From the z-score transformed source-space time-series, local maxima were extracted. A  
551 significant activation event was defined as a local-maximum with z-score  $> 1$  (shown in red in  
552 Figure 6, panel B). Such a conservative z-score threshold was chosen to avoid missing  
553 activation events that could be reliably time-locked to a stimulus but that may have an amplitude  
554 that is relatively low. This choice is counterbalanced by the fact that we weigh activations  
555 proportionally to their z-score amplitude, as explained below. We believe this low z-score  
556 threshold in combination with a weighting system leads to a more objective selection of  
557 significant activations. In comparison, choosing a higher z-score threshold arbitrarily to select a  
558 smaller number of activations could be highly dependent on the signal-to-noise ratio of a  
559 particular experiment, where different thresholds may lead to different tonotopic maps.

560 To calculate STRFs, a method based on reverse correlation analysis (deCharms, Blake, &  
561 Merzenich, 1998; de Boer & Kuyper 1968) was used. Reverse correlation analysis can be used  
562 to reliably estimate a neuron's STRF when the stimulus is uncorrelated, or sampled randomly  
563 and uniformly across the spectrotemporal dimensions as is the case with our IIPT stimulus  
564 (Theunissen, Sen & Doupe, 2000). In summary, the STRF produced through reverse correlation  
565 represents the linear estimate of the optimal stimulus preceding a neuronal activation event. It is  
566 calculated by computing the average stimulus, in both spectral and temporal dimensions, that  
567 precedes a neuronal activation event. For several authors (see for e.g. deCharms, Blake, &  
568 Merzenich, 1998), this neuronal activation event is a spike rate, and the STRF quantity is  
569 therefore a stimulus-triggered spike rate average. In the method described below, we used a  
570 stimulus-triggered activation amplitude average (the average z-score value of the significant  
571 activation events), which is more in keeping with the metric being recorded by MEG. The



572 importance of a given activation event on the resulting STRF is therefore proportional to its  
573 amplitude.

574 More specifically, this STRF was computed as a matrix  $STRF(f, t)$ , where  $f$  represents each 32  
575 presented stimulus frequencies and  $t$  represents 4 ms bins within the 500 ms time window  
576 preceding a significant activation event. For each significant activation event  $i$ , the stimulus  
577 content in the preceding 500 ms time window was extracted. For each stimulus with frequency  $f$   
578 and time  $t$  within this time-window, a value corresponding to the z-score amplitude of the  
579 corresponding significant activation event was defined as  $Z_i(f, t)$ . This z-score amplitude was  
580 then corrected for the slight variation in the total number of stimuli presented for each stimulus  
581 frequency by multiplying it by the coefficient  $(f) = \frac{\bar{S}}{S_f}$ , where  $\bar{S}$  represents the mean number of  
582 stimuli presented per stimulus frequency, and  $S_f$  represents the total number of stimuli  
583 presented of frequency  $f$ . The corrected z-score activation amplitudes corresponding to each  
584 stimulus within the reverse correlation time-windows were then summated to generate the final  
585 matrix representing the average stimulus-triggered activation amplitude:

586 
$$STRF(f, t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [C(f) \cdot Z_i(f, t)]$$

587 The final STRF was smoothed using a gaussian-weighted moving average with a window size  
588 of 4x4. The M100 response was then defined as the highest spike within a latency window of 80  
589 to 120 ms. The STRF's best frequency was defined as the frequency that elicited the maximal  
590 amplitude of activation at a latency corresponding to the M100 response. The best frequency  
591 was z-score transformed using the segment of the STRF from -500 to -350 ms for the purpose  
592 of determining which STRF showed a significant M100 response (see *Results, Selection of*  
593 *IIP-Responsive Sources*).

594 The STRF was finally fitted to a 2D-gaussian surface, aligned on the peak corresponding to the  
595 M100 response, in order to smooth the data for estimation of bandwidth and best temporal  
596 modulation rate. To normalize its value according to the overall amplitude, the bandwidth was  
597 defined as the full spectral width at half maximum of the gaussian-fit and represents the range  
598 of frequencies that can elicit an M100 response. The best temporal modulation rate was  
599 calculated as  $R = (2W)^{-1}$ , where  $W$  represents the temporal width of the gaussian-fit. The best  
600 temporal modulation rate represents a source's preference for a stimulus with a particular  
601 temporal modulation.

602 Only sources with best frequencies ranging from 0.119 kHz to 18.102 kHz were included in the  
603 subsequent analysis (total of 30/32 frequencies). The frequency extremes were eliminated to  
604 eliminate the edge-effect caused by smoothing the STRFs.

605 The Brainstorm process used to generate STRFs and map the STRF features onto a cortex  
606 surface is available under an open source BSD license at the following GitHub repository:  
607 <https://github.com/NeuroSensoryBiomarkingLab/MEGACmapping>.

## 608 Acknowledgements

609 We thank Sylvain Baillet, PhD, Robert Zatorre, PhD, and Kuwook Cha, PhD, from the  
610 Department of Neurology and Neurosurgery at McGill, for providing helpful comments about our  
611 methods and analysis.

## 612 Additional Files

613 Supplementary File 1

## 614 References

- 615 Abrams, D. A., Bhatara, A., Ryali, S., Balaban, E., Levitin, D. J., & Menon, V. (2011). Decoding  
616 temporal structure in music and speech relies on shared brain resources but elicits different  
617 fine-scale spatial patterns. *Cerebral Cortex*, 21(7), 1507–1518. doi:10.1093/cercor/bhq198
- 618 Aguirre, G. K., Zarahn, E., & D'esposito, M. (1998). The variability of human, BOLD  
619 hemodynamic responses. *NeuroImage*, 8(4), 360–369. doi:10.1006/nimg.1998.0369
- 620 Ahlfors, S. P., Han, J., Lin, F.-H., Witzel, T., Belliveau, J. W., Hämäläinen, M. S., & Halgren, E.  
621 (2010). Cancellation of EEG and MEG signals generated by extended and distributed  
622 sources. *Human Brain Mapping*, 31(1), 140–149. doi:10.1002/hbm.20851
- 623 Arnal, L. H., & Giraud, A.-L. (2012). Cortical oscillations and sensory predictions. *Trends in*  
624 *Cognitive Sciences*, 16(7), 390–398. doi:10.1016/j.tics.2012.05.003
- 625 Barth, D. S., Sutherling, W., Broffman, J., & Beatty, J. (1986). Magnetic localization of a dipolar  
626 current source implanted in a sphere and a human cranium. *Electroencephalography and*  
627 *Clinical Neurophysiology*, 63(3), 260–273. doi:10.1016/0013-4694(86)90094-5
- 628 Bitterman, Y., Mukamel, R., Malach, R., Fried, I., & Nelken, I. (2008). Ultra-fine frequency tuning  
629 revealed in single neurons of human auditory cortex. *Nature*, 451(7175), 197–201.  
630 doi:10.1038/nature06476
- 631 Blake, D. T., & Merzenich, M. M. (2002). Changes of AI receptive fields with sound density.  
632 *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 88(6), 3409–3420. doi:10.1152/jn.00233.2002
- 633 Calabrese, A., Schumacher, J. W., Schneider, D. M., Paninski, L., & Woolley, S. M. N. (2011). A  
634 generalized linear model for estimating spectrotemporal receptive fields from responses to  
635 natural sounds. *PloS One*, 6(1), e16104. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0016104

- 636 Carlin, M. A., & Elhilali, M. (2015). Modeling attention-driven plasticity in auditory cortical  
637 receptive fields. *Frontiers in Computational Neuroscience*, 9, 106.  
638 doi:10.3389/fncom.2015.00106
- 639 Cha, K., Zatorre, R. J., & Schönwiesner, M. (2016). Frequency Selectivity of Voxel-by-Voxel  
640 Functional Connectivity in Human Auditory Cortex. *Cerebral Cortex*, 26(1), 211–224.  
641 doi:10.1093/cercor/bhu193
- 642 Constantino, F. C., Villafañe-Delgado, M., Camenga, E., Dombrowski, K., Walsh, B., & Simon,  
643 J. Z. (2017, July 27). Functional significance of spectrotemporal response functions  
644 obtained using magnetoencephalography. doi:10.1101/168997
- 645 Crosse, M. J., Di Liberto, G. M., Bednar, A., & Lalor, E. C. (2016). The Multivariate Temporal  
646 Response Function (mTRF) Toolbox: A MATLAB Toolbox for Relating Neural Signals to  
647 Continuous Stimuli. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 10, 604.  
648 doi:10.3389/fnhum.2016.00604
- 649 Da Costa, S., van der Zwaag, W., Marques, J. P., Frackowiak, R. S. J., Clarke, S., & Saenz, M.  
650 (2011). Human primary auditory cortex follows the shape of Heschl's gyrus. *The Journal of*  
651 *Neuroscience: The Official Journal of the Society for Neuroscience*, 31(40), 14067–14075.  
652 doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2000-11.2011
- 653 Dale, A. M., & Sereno, M. I. (1993). Improved Localization of Cortical Activity by Combining  
654 EEG and MEG with MRI Cortical Surface Reconstruction: A Linear Approach. *Journal of*  
655 *Cognitive Neuroscience*, 5(2), 162–176.
- 656 de Boer, E., & Kuyper, P. (1968). Triggered Correlation. *IEEE Transactions on Biomedical*  
657 *Engineering*, BME-15(3), 169–179. doi: 10.1109/tbme.1968.4502561
- 658 deCharms, R. C., Blake, D. T., & Merzenich, M. M. (1998). Optimizing sound features for  
659 cortical neurons. *Science*, 280(5368), 1439–1443. doi:10.1126/science.280.5368.1439

- 660 Depireux, D. A., Simon, J. Z., Klein, D. J., & Shamma, S. A. (2001). Spectro-temporal response  
661 field characterization with dynamic ripples in ferret primary auditory cortex. *Journal of*  
662 *Neurophysiology*, 85(3), 1220–1234. doi:10.1152/jn.2001.85.3.1220
- 663 Desikan, R. S., Ségonne, F., Fischl, B., Quinn, B. T., Dickerson, B. C., Blacker, D., ... Killiany,  
664 R. J. (2006). An automated labeling system for subdividing the human cerebral cortex on  
665 MRI scans into gyral based regions of interest. *NeuroImage*, 31(3), 968–980.  
666 doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2006.01.021
- 667 de Villers-Sidani, E., Alzghoul, L., Zhou, X., Simpson, K. L., Lin, R. C. S., & Merzenich, M. M.  
668 (2010). Recovery of functional and structural age-related changes in the rat primary  
669 auditory cortex with operant training. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of*  
670 *the United States of America*, 107(31), 13900–13905. doi:10.1073/pnas.1007885107
- 671 Ding, N., & Simon, J. Z. (2012). Neural coding of continuous speech in auditory cortex during  
672 monaural and dichotic listening. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 107(1), 78–89.  
673 doi:10.1152/jn.00297.2011
- 674 Elhilali, M., Fritz, J. B., Chi, T.-S., & Shamma, S. A. (2007). Auditory cortical receptive fields:  
675 stable entities with plastic abilities. *The Journal of Neuroscience: The Official Journal of the*  
676 *Society for Neuroscience*, 27(39), 10372–10382. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1462-07.2007
- 677 Engelen, A., Schulz, M., Ross, B., Arolt, V., & Pantev, C. (2000). A combined functional in vivo  
678 measure for primary and secondary auditory cortices. *Hearing Research*, 148(1-2), 153–  
679 160. doi:10.1016/s0378-5955(00)00148-9
- 680 Fischl, B. (2013). FreeSurfer Homepage. Retrieved 4 January 2020, from  
681 <http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu/>
- 682 Fischl, B., Liu, A., & Dale, A. M. (2001). Automated manifold surgery: constructing geometrically  
683 accurate and topologically correct models of the human cerebral cortex. *IEEE Transactions*  
684 *on Medical Imaging*, 20(1), 70–80. doi:10.1109/42.906426

- 685 Fischl, B., Sereno, M. I., & Dale, A. M. (1999). Cortical Surface-Based Analysis. *NeuroImage*.  
686 doi:10.1006/nimg.1998.0396
- 687 Fletcher, H., & Munson, W. A. (1933). Loudness, Its Definition, Measurement and Calculation.  
688 *Bell System Technical Journal*. doi:10.1002/j.1538-7305.1933.tb00403.x
- 689 Formisano, E., Kim, D. S., Di Salle, F., van de Moortele, P. F., Ugurbil, K., & Goebel, R. (2003).  
690 Mirror-symmetric tonotopic maps in human primary auditory cortex. *Neuron*, 40(4), 859–  
691 869. doi:10.1016/s0896-6273(03)00669-x
- 692 Gardumi, A., Ivanov, D., Havlicek, M., Formisano, E., & Uludağ, K. (2017). Tonotopic maps in  
693 human auditory cortex using arterial spin labeling. *Human Brain Mapping*, 38(3), 1140–  
694 1154. doi:10.1002/hbm.23444
- 695 Godey, B., Schwartz, D., de Graaf, J. B., Chauvel, P., & Liégeois-Chauvel, C. (2001).  
696 Neuromagnetic source localization of auditory evoked fields and intracerebral evoked  
697 potentials: a comparison of data in the same patients. *Clinical Neurophysiology: Official*  
698 *Journal of the International Federation of Clinical Neurophysiology*, 112(10), 1850–1859.  
699 doi:10.1016/s1388-2457(01)00636-8
- 700 Griffiths, T. D., Johnsrude, I., Dean, J. L., & Green, G. G. (1999). A common neural substrate for  
701 the analysis of pitch and duration pattern in segmented sound? *Neuroreport*, 10(18), 3825–  
702 3830. doi:10.1097/00001756-199912160-00019
- 703 Halpern, A. R., & Zatorre, R. J. (1999). When that tune runs through your head: a PET  
704 investigation of auditory imagery for familiar melodies. *Cerebral Cortex*, 9(7), 697–704.  
705 doi:10.1093/cercor/9.7.697
- 706 Huang, M. X., Mosher, J. C., & Leahy, R. M. (1999). A sensor-weighted overlapping-sphere  
707 head model and exhaustive head model comparison for MEG. *Physics in Medicine and*  
708 *Biology*, 44(2), 423–440. doi:10.1088/0031-9155/44/2/010

- 709 Hugdahl, K., Brønnick, K., Kyllingsbaek, S., Law, I., Gade, A., & Paulson, O. B. (1999). Brain  
710 activation during dichotic presentations of consonant-vowel and musical instrument stimuli:  
711 a 15O-PET study. *Neuropsychologia*, *37*(4), 431–440. doi:10.1016/s0028-3932(98)00101-8
- 712 Humphries, C., Liebenthal, E., & Binder, J. R. (2010). Tonotopic organization of human auditory  
713 cortex. *NeuroImage*, *50*(3), 1202–1211. doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2010.01.046
- 714 Humphries, C., Sabri, M., Lewis, K., & Liebenthal, E. (2014). Hierarchical organization of speech  
715 perception in human auditory cortex. *Frontiers in Neuroscience*, *8*, 406.  
716 doi:10.3389/fnins.2014.00406
- 717 Huotilainen, M., Tiitinen, H., Lavikainen, J., Ilmoniemi, R. J., Pekkonen, E., Sinkkonen, J., ...  
718 Näätänen, R. (1995). Sustained fields of tones and glides reflect tonotopy of the auditory  
719 cortex. *Neuroreport*, *6*(6), 841–844. doi:10.1097/00001756-199504190-00004
- 720 Kamal, B., Holman, C., & de Villers-Sidani, E. (2013). Shaping the aging brain: role of auditory  
721 input patterns in the emergence of auditory cortical impairments. *Frontiers in Systems*  
722 *Neuroscience*, *7*, 52. doi:10.3389/fnsys.2013.00052
- 723 Kowalski, N., Depireux, D. A., & Shamma, S. A. (1996). Analysis of dynamic spectra in ferret  
724 primary auditory cortex. II. Prediction of unit responses to arbitrary dynamic spectra.  
725 *Journal of Neurophysiology*, *76*(5), 3524–3534. doi:10.1152/jn.1996.76.5.3524
- 726 Kuriki, S., & Murase, M. (1989). Neuromagnetic study of the auditory responses in right and left  
727 hemispheres of the human brain evoked by pure tones and speech sounds. *Experimental*  
728 *Brain Research. Experimentelle Hirnforschung. Experimentation Cerebrale*, *77*(1), 127–  
729 134. doi:10.1007/bf00250574
- 730 Langers, D. R. M., Backes, W. H., & van Dijk, P. (2007). Representation of lateralization and  
731 tonotopy in primary versus secondary human auditory cortex. *NeuroImage*, *34*(1), 264–273.  
732 doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2006.09.002



- 733 Langers, D. R. M., & van Dijk, P. (2012). Mapping the tonotopic organization in human auditory  
734 cortex with minimally salient acoustic stimulation. *Cerebral Cortex*, 22(9), 2024–2038.  
735 doi:10.1093/cercor/bhr282
- 736 Leaver, A. M., & Rauschecker, J. P. (2016). Functional Topography of Human Auditory Cortex.  
737 *Journal of Neuroscience*, 36(4), 1416–1428. doi: 10.1523/jneurosci.0226-15.2016
- 738 Liégeois-Chauvel, C., Giraud, K., Badier, J. M., Marquis, P., & Chauvel, P. (2001). Intracerebral  
739 evoked potentials in pitch perception reveal a functional asymmetry of the human auditory  
740 cortex. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 930, 117–132. doi:10.1111/j.1749-  
741 6632.2001.tb05728.x
- 742 Liégeois-Chauvel, C., Musolino, A., Badier, J. M., Marquis, P., & Chauvel, P. (1994). Evoked  
743 potentials recorded from the auditory cortex in man: evaluation and topography of the  
744 middle latency components. *Electroencephalography and Clinical Neurophysiology*, 92(3),  
745 204–214. doi:10.1016/0168-5597(94)90064-7
- 746 Liegeois-Chauvel, C., Musolino, A., & Chauvel, P. (1991). Localization of the primary auditory  
747 area in man. *Brain: A Journal of Neurology*, 114 ( Pt 1A), 139–151. Retrieved from  
748 <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1900211>
- 749 Linden, J. F., Liu, R. C., Sahani, M., Schreiner, C. E., & Merzenich, M. M. (2003).  
750 Spectrotemporal structure of receptive fields in areas AI and AAF of mouse auditory cortex.  
751 *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 90(4), 2660–2675. doi:10.1152/jn.00751.2002
- 752 Lin, F.-H., Witzel, T., Ahlfors, S. P., Stufflebeam, S. M., Belliveau, J. W., & Hämäläinen, M. S.  
753 (2006). Assessing and improving the spatial accuracy in MEG source localization by depth-  
754 weighted minimum-norm estimates. *NeuroImage*, 31(1), 160–171.  
755 doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2005.11.054
- 756 Lütkenhöner, B., & Steinsträter, O. (1998). High-precision neuromagnetic study of the functional  
757 organization of the human auditory cortex. *Audiology & Neuro-Otology*, 3(2-3), 191–213.  
758 doi:10.1159/000013790

- 759 Massoudi, R., Van Wanrooij, M. M., Versnel, H., & Van Opstal, A. J. (2015). Spectrotemporal  
760 response properties of core auditory cortex neurons in awake monkey. *PloS One*, *10*(2),  
761 e0116118. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0116118
- 762 Miller, L. M., Escabí, M. A., Read, H. L., & Schreiner, C. E. (2002). Spectrotemporal receptive  
763 fields in the lemniscal auditory thalamus and cortex. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, *87*(1),  
764 516–527. doi:10.1152/jn.00395.2001
- 765 Moerel, M., De Martino, F., & Formisano, E. (2012). Processing of natural sounds in human  
766 auditory cortex: tonotopy, spectral tuning, and relation to voice sensitivity. *The Journal of*  
767 *Neuroscience: The Official Journal of the Society for Neuroscience*, *32*(41), 14205–14216.  
768 doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1388-12.2012
- 769 Moerel, M., De Martino, F., & Formisano, E. (2014). An anatomical and functional topography of  
770 human auditory cortical areas. *Frontiers in Neuroscience*, *8*, 225.  
771 doi:10.3389/fnins.2014.00225
- 772 Monson, B. B., Hunter, E. J., Lotto, A. J., & Story, B. H. (2014). The perceptual significance of  
773 high-frequency energy in the human voice. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *5*, 587.  
774 doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2014.00587
- 775 Nagel, K. I., & Doupe, A. J. (2008). Organizing principles of spectro-temporal encoding in the  
776 avian primary auditory area field L. *Neuron*, *58*(6), 938–955.  
777 doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2008.04.028
- 778 Nasiotis, K., Clavagnier, S., Baillet, S., & Pack, C. C. (2017). High-resolution retinotopic maps  
779 estimated with magnetoencephalography. *NeuroImage*, *145*(Pt A), 107–117.  
780 doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2016.10.017
- 781 Okada, Y. C., Lahteenmäki, A., & Xu, C. (1999). Experimental analysis of distortion of  
782 magnetoencephalography signals by the skull. *Clinical Neurophysiology: Official Journal of*  
783 *the International Federation of Clinical Neurophysiology*, *110*(2), 230–238.  
784 doi:10.1016/s0013-4694(98)00099-6

- 785 Ozaki, I., & Hashimoto, I. (2007). Human tonotopic maps and their rapid task-related changes  
786 studied by magnetic source imaging. *The Canadian Journal of Neurological Sciences. Le*  
787 *Journal Canadien Des Sciences Neurologiques*, 34(2), 146–153.  
788 doi:10.1017/s0317167100005965
- 789 Pantev, C., Bertrand, O., Eulitz, C., Verkindt, C., Hampson, S., Schuierer, G., & Elbert, T.  
790 (1995). Specific tonotopic organizations of different areas of the human auditory cortex  
791 revealed by simultaneous magnetic and electric recordings. *Electroencephalography and*  
792 *Clinical Neurophysiology*, 94(1), 26–40. doi:10.1016/0013-4694(94)00209-4
- 793 Pantev, C., Hoke, M., Lehnertz, K., Lütkenhöner, B., Anogianakis, G., & Wittkowski, W. (1988).  
794 Tonotopic organization of the human auditory cortex revealed by transient auditory evoked  
795 magnetic fields. *Electroencephalography and Clinical Neurophysiology*, 69(2), 160–170.  
796 doi:10.1016/0013-4694(88)90211-8
- 797 Penhune, V. B., Zattore, R. J., & Evans, A. C. (1998). Cerebellar contributions to motor timing: a  
798 PET study of auditory and visual rhythm reproduction. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*,  
799 10(6), 752–765. doi:10.1162/089892998563149
- 800 Perry, D. W., Zatorre, R. J., Petrides, M., Alivisatos, B., Meyer, E., & Evans, A. C. (1999).  
801 Localization of cerebral activity during simple singing. *Neuroreport*, 10(18), 3979–3984.  
802 doi:10.1097/00001756-199912160-00046
- 803 Polley, D. B., Read, H. L., Storace, D. A., & Merzenich, M. M. (2007). Multiparametric auditory  
804 receptive field organization across five cortical fields in the albino rat. *Journal of*  
805 *Neurophysiology*, 97(5), 3621–3638. doi:10.1152/jn.01298.2006
- 806 Puce, A., & Hämäläinen, M. S. (2017). A Review of Issues Related to Data Acquisition and  
807 Analysis in EEG/MEG Studies. *Brain Sciences*, 7(6). doi:10.3390/brainsci7060058
- 808 Recanzone, G. H. (2000). Spatial processing in the auditory cortex of the macaque monkey.  
809 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 97(22),  
810 11829–11835. doi:10.1073/pnas.97.22.11829

- 811 Regan, D. (1989). *Human brain electrophysiology: evoked potentials and evoked magnetic*  
812 *fields in science and medicine*. Retrieved from  
813 [https://books.google.com/books/about/Human\\_brain\\_electrophysiology.html?hl=&id=5dVqA](https://books.google.com/books/about/Human_brain_electrophysiology.html?hl=&id=5dVqAAAMA AJ)  
814 [AAAMA AJ](https://books.google.com/books/about/Human_brain_electrophysiology.html?hl=&id=5dVqAAAMA AJ)
- 815 Roberts, T. P., Ferrari, P., Stufflebeam, S. M., & Poeppel, D. (2000). Latency of the auditory  
816 evoked neuromagnetic field components: stimulus dependence and insights toward  
817 perception. *Journal of Clinical Neurophysiology: Official Publication of the American*  
818 *Electroencephalographic Society*, *17*(2), 114–129. doi:10.1097/00004691-200003000-  
819 00002
- 820 Romani, G. L., Williamson, S. J., & Kaufman, L. (1982). Tonotopic organization of the human  
821 auditory cortex. *Science*, *216*(4552), 1339–1340. doi:10.1126/science.7079770
- 822 Schreiner, C. E., & Polley, D. B. (2014). Auditory map plasticity: diversity in causes and  
823 consequences. *Current Opinion in Neurobiology*, *24*(1), 143–156.  
824 doi:10.1016/j.conb.2013.11.009
- 825 Sen, K., Theunissen, F. E., & Doupe, A. J. (2001). Feature analysis of natural sounds in the  
826 songbird auditory forebrain. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, *86*(3), 1445–1458.  
827 doi:10.1152/jn.2001.86.3.1445
- 828 Sininger, Y. S., & Bhatara, A. (2012). Laterality of basic auditory perception. *Laterality*, *17*(2),  
829 129–149. doi:10.1080/1357650X.2010.541464
- 830 Su, L., Zulfiqar, I., Jamshed, F., Fonteneau, E., & Marslen-Wilson, W. (2014). Mapping  
831 tonotopic organization in human temporal cortex: representational similarity analysis in  
832 EMEG source space. *Frontiers in Neuroscience*, *8*, 368. doi:10.3389/fnins.2014.00368
- 833 Tadel, F. (2019, December 23). Introduction. Retrieved 4 January 2020, from  
834 <https://neuroimage.usc.edu/brainstorm/>

- 835 Tadel, F., Baillet, S., Mosher, J. C., Pantazis, D., & Leahy, R. M. (2011). Brainstorm: a user-  
836 friendly application for MEG/EEG analysis. *Computational Intelligence and Neuroscience*,  
837 2011, 879716. doi:10.1155/2011/879716
- 838 Talavage, T. M., & Edmister, W. B. (2004). Nonlinearity of fMRI responses in human auditory  
839 cortex. *Human Brain Mapping*, 22(3), 216–228. doi:10.1002/hbm.20029
- 840 Talavage, T. M., Sereno, M. I., Melcher, J. R., Ledden, P. J., Rosen, B. R., & Dale, A. M. (2004).  
841 Tonotopic organization in human auditory cortex revealed by progressions of frequency  
842 sensitivity. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 91(3), 1282–1296. doi:10.1152/jn.01125.2002
- 843 Tallon-Baudry, C., & Bertrand, O. (1999). Oscillatory gamma activity in humans and its role in  
844 object representation. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 3(4), 151–162. doi:10.1016/s1364-  
845 6613(99)01299-1
- 846 Tanji, K., Leopold, D. A., Ye, F. Q., Zhu, C., Malloy, M., Saunders, R. C., & Mishkin, M. (2010).  
847 Effect of sound intensity on tonotopic fMRI maps in the unanesthetized monkey.  
848 *NeuroImage*, 49(1), 150–157. doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2009.07.029
- 849 Tervaniemi, M., & Hugdahl, K. (2003). Lateralization of auditory-cortex functions. *Brain*  
850 *Research. Brain Research Reviews*, 43(3), 231–246. doi:10.1016/j.brainresrev.2003.08.004
- 851 Tervaniemi, M., Medvedev, S. V., Alho, K., Pakhomov, S. V., Roudas, M. S., Van Zuijen, T. L.,  
852 & Näätänen, R. (2000). Lateralized automatic auditory processing of phonetic versus  
853 musical information: a PET study. *Human Brain Mapping*, 10(2), 74–79. Retrieved from  
854 <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10864231>
- 855 Tesche, C. D., Uusitalo, M. A., Ilmoniemi, R. J., Huotilainen, M., Kajola, M., & Salonen, O.  
856 (1995). Signal-space projections of MEG data characterize both distributed and well-  
857 localized neuronal sources. *Electroencephalography and Clinical Neurophysiology*, 95(3),  
858 189–200. doi:10.1016/0013-4694(95)00064-6
- 859 The FIL Methods group. (2019, June 24). SPM - Statistical Parametric Mapping. Retrieved 9  
860 November 2019, from <https://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/>

- 861 Theunissen, F. E., Sen, K., & Doupe, A. J. (2000). Spectral-temporal receptive fields of  
862 nonlinear auditory neurons obtained using natural sounds. *The Journal of Neuroscience:*  
863 *The Official Journal of the Society for Neuroscience*, 20(6), 2315–2331. Retrieved from  
864 <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10704507>
- 865 Uusitalo, M. A., & Ilmoniemi, R. J. (1997). Signal-space projection method for separating MEG  
866 or EEG into components. *Medical & Biological Engineering & Computing*, 35(2), 135–140.  
867 doi:10.1007/bf02534144
- 868 van Wassenhove, V., & Nagarajan, S. S. (2007). Auditory cortical plasticity in learning to  
869 discriminate modulation rate. *The Journal of Neuroscience: The Official Journal of the*  
870 *Society for Neuroscience*, 27(10), 2663–2672. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4844-06.2007
- 871 Verkindt, C., Bertrand, O., Perrin, F., Echallier, J. F., & Pernier, J. (1995). Tonotopic  
872 organization of the human auditory cortex: N100 topography and multiple dipole model  
873 analysis. *Electroencephalography and Clinical Neurophysiology*, 96(2), 143–156.  
874 doi:10.1016/0168-5597(94)00242-7
- 875 Wang, Y., Feng, Y., Jia, Y., Wang, W., Xie, Y., Guan, Y., ... Huang, L. (2014). Auditory M50 and  
876 M100 sensory gating deficits in bipolar disorder: a MEG study. *Journal of Affective*  
877 *Disorders*, 152-154, 131–138. doi:10.1016/j.jad.2013.08.010
- 878 Weisz, N., Wienbruch, C., Hoffmeister, S., & Elbert, T. (2004). Tonotopic organization of the  
879 human auditory cortex probed with frequency-modulated tones. *Hearing Research*, 191(1-  
880 2), 49–58. doi:10.1016/j.heares.2004.01.012
- 881 Wessinger, C. M., VanMeter, J., Tian, B., Van Lare, J., Pekar, J., & Rauschecker, J. P. (2001).  
882 Hierarchical organization of the human auditory cortex revealed by functional magnetic  
883 resonance imaging. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 13(1), 1–7.  
884 doi:10.1162/089892901564108

- 885 Woods, D. L., Herron, T. J., Cate, A. D., Yund, E. W., Stecker, G. C., Rinne, T., & Kang, X.  
886 (2010). Functional properties of human auditory cortical fields. *Frontiers in Systems*  
887 *Neuroscience*, 4, 155. doi:10.3389/fnsys.2010.00155
- 888 Woolley, S. M. N., Fremouw, T. E., Hsu, A., & Theunissen, F. E. (2005). Tuning for spectro-  
889 temporal modulations as a mechanism for auditory discrimination of natural sounds. *Nature*  
890 *Neuroscience*, 8(10), 1371–1379. doi:10.1038/nn1536
- 891 Woolley, S. M. N., Gill, P. R., & Theunissen, F. E. (2006). Stimulus-dependent auditory tuning  
892 results in synchronous population coding of vocalizations in the songbird midbrain. *The*  
893 *Journal of Neuroscience: The Official Journal of the Society for Neuroscience*, 26(9), 2499–  
894 2512. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3731-05.2006
- 895 Zatorre, R. J., Belin, P., & Penhune, V. B. (2002). Structure and function of auditory cortex:  
896 music and speech. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 6(1), 37–46. doi:10.1016/s1364-  
897 6613(00)01816-7
- 898 Zatorre, R. J., Evans, A. C., & Meyer, E. (1994). Neural mechanisms underlying melodic  
899 perception and memory for pitch. *The Journal of Neuroscience: The Official Journal of the*  
900 *Society for Neuroscience*, 14(4), 1908–1919. Retrieved from  
901 <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8158246>
- 902 Zatorre, R. J., Evans, A. C., Meyer, E., & Gjedde, A. (1992). Lateralization of phonetic and pitch  
903 discrimination in speech processing. *Science*, 256(5058), 846–849.  
904 doi:10.1126/science.1589767