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**Research Report** 

# A mediating role of the auditory dorsal pathway in selective adaptation to speech: A state-dependent transcranial magnetic stimulation study $\stackrel{\circ}{\sim}$

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#### ABSTRACT

In addition to sensory processing, recent neurobiological models of speech perception postulate the existence of a left auditory dorsal processing stream, linking auditory speech representations in the auditory cortex with articulatory representations in the motor system, through sensorimotor interaction interfaced in the supramarginal gyrus and/or the posterior part of the superior temporal gyrus. The present state-dependent transcranial magnetic stimulation study is aimed at determining whether speech recognition is indeed mediated by the auditory dorsal pathway, by examining the causal contribution of the left ventral premotor cortex, supramarginal gyrus and posterior part of the superior temporal gyrus during an auditory syllable identification/categorization task. To this aim, participants listened to a sequence of /ba/ syllables before undergoing a two forced-choice auditory syllable decision task on ambiguous syllables (ranging in the categorical boundary between /ba/ and /da/). Consistent with previous studies on selective adaptation to speech, following adaptation to /ba/, participants responses were biased towards /da/. In contrast, in a control condition without prior auditory adaptation no such bias was observed. Crucially, compared to the results observed without stimulation, single-pulse transcranial magnetic stimulation delivered at the onset of each target stimulus interacted with the initial state of each of the stimulated brain area by enhancing the adaptation effect. These results demonstrate that the auditory dorsal pathway contribute to auditory speech adaptation.

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#### Introduction 1.

How do listeners process the speech signal to recover phonetic 106 information? Based on a constructivist approach of perception 107 (Helmholtz, 1867), several theories of speech perception argue 108 that the speaker and the listener share a common repertoire of 109 sensory and motor primitives and that speech perception is 110 partly driven by a process of internal sensory-motor simulation 111 that serves to constrain the phonetic interpretation of the 112 sensory inputs (Liberman et al., 1967; Stevens and Halle, 1967; 113 Liberman and Mattingly, 1985; Liberman and Whalen, 2000; 114 Schwartz et al., 2002, 2012; for recent reviews, Galantucci et al., 115 2006; Schwartz et al., 2008). The constructivist approach is also at 116 the core of recent distributed brain network models of speech 117 processing (Callan et al., 2004; Wilson and Iacoboni, 2006; Hickok 118 and Poeppel, 2007; Skipper et al., 2007; Poeppel et al., 2008; 119 Rauschecker and Scott, 2009; Hickok et al., 2011; Rauschecker, 120 2011). These models postulate the existence of a left posterior 121 dorsal ('how') processing stream, linking auditory speech repre-122 sentations in the auditory cortex and articulatory representa-123 tions in the ventral premotor cortex (vPM) and the posterior part 124 of the inferior frontal gyrus (pIFG), with sensorimotor interaction 125 converging in the supramarginal gyrus (SMG; Rauschecker and 126 Scott, 2009; Rauschecker, 2011) or in area SPT (a brain region 127 within the planum temporale near the parieto-temporal junc-128 tion; Hickok and Poeppel, 2007). This auditory dorsal pathway 129 allows internal sensory-to-motor and motor-to-sensory projec-130 tion/mapping between auditory and motor representations, the 131 role of which is to provide predictive coding schemes to compare 132 top-down motor predictions with bottom-up sensory informa-133 tion to recover phonetic interpretation. In support of these 134 models, motor activity during auditory, visual and auditory-135 visual speech perception has been observed in a considerable 136 number of brain imaging and neurophysiological studies (e.g., 137 Sundara et al., 2001; Fadiga et al., 2002; Nishitani and Hari, 2002; 138 Calvert and Campbell, 2003; Callan et al., 2003; Paulesu et al., 139 2003; Watkins et al., 2003; Callan et al., 2004; Watkins and Paus, 140 2004; Wilson et al., 2004; Ojanen et al., 2005; Pekkola et al., 2006; Q12 141 Skipper et al., 2005; Pulvermuller et al., 2006; Wilson and 142 Iacoboni, 2006; Skipper et al., 2007; Roy et al., 2008; Callan 143 et al., 2010; Sato et al., 2010; Tremblay and Small, 2011; Alho 144 et al., 2012; Grabski et al., in press). However, for all their 145 importance, these results are intrinsically correlational and 146 cannot address causality. Weak perturbations in auditory sylla-147 ble identification tasks have been obtained by temporarily 148 disrupting the activity of components of the cortical motor 149 system in the presence of masking noise (Meister et al., 2007; 150 d'Ausilio et al., 2009, 2012; but see Sato et al., 2011 for post-151 perceptual bias effects), when processing acoustically ambiguous 152 Q3 syllables (Möttonen and Watkins, 2009) or performing a task 153 requiring phonemic segmentation or loading on working mem-154 Q4 ory (Boatman, 2004; Gough et al., 2005; Romero et al., 2006; Sato 155 et al., 2009). 156 In keeping with these results, the goal of the present study 157

was to further investigate the contribution of the auditory 158 dorsal pathway, specifically the left vPM, SMG and pSTG, to 159 speech perception. A state-dependent TMS paradigm (e.g., 160 Silvanto et al., 2008; Cattaneo and Silvanto, 2008; Cattaneo 161 et al., 2010; Cattaneo et al., 2010) was used to examine the 162

causal contribution of these brain regions in an auditory 163 syllable identification/categorization task. This paradigm is 164 based on sensory-induced perceptual adaptation prior to 165 online stimulation and on the assumption that the effects 166 of online TMS depend on the initial state of the stimulated 167 brain area. More specifically, perceptual adaptation is first 168 induced by repetitively presenting a stimulus, without sti-169 mulation, with the goal of tuning specific neural populations 170 in the targeted brain area that code particular features of the 171 stimulus. In a subsequent identification/categorization task, 172 if an online single-pulse TMS then interacts with this initial 173 state manipulation (for example by facilitating detection of a 174 specific feature of the repeated stimulus), this likely indicates 175 that neurons in the targeted brain region were indeed tuned 176 to the adapting stimulus. A selective adaptation paradigm 177 was used to induce a categorical perceptual shift on subse-178 quent target syllables. Selective adaptation to speech refers to 179 the repeated presentation of a particular speech stimulus 180 that causes a reduction in the frequency with which that 181 stimulus is reported in subsequent identification trials. For 182 example, in the seminal study by Eimas and Corbit (1973), 183 listeners had to categorize syllables from a/ba/-/pha/ conti-184 nuum. Listening to repeated presentation of /ba/ syllables 185 prior to the identification/categorization task induced fewer 186 perceived /ba/ than /pha/ syllables (at the categorical bound-187 ary) than observed without adaptation, while the reverse was 188 true when /p<sup>h</sup>a/ was the repeated stimulus. Using the same 189 paradigm, Cooper and Lauritsen (1974) further demonstrated 190 that prolonged listening to a syllable with an initial voiceless 191 stop consonant caused subject to produce a shorter voice 192 onset time for the same syllable in a subsequent production 193 task. Since both perceptual and motor adaptive changes 194 occur after prolonged listening to a speech sound, selective 195 adaptation to speech is likely to mediate both speech percep-196 tion and production through fatigue of specialized phonetic 197 feature detectors and/or criterion-setting operations (for 198 reviews, see Cooper, 1979; Samuel, 1986). In the present Q5 199 study, participants listened to a sequence of /ba/ syllables 200 before undergoing a two forced-choice auditory syllable 201 decision task on ambiguous syllables (ranging in the catego-202 rical boundary between /ba/ and /da/). Based on previous 203 studies on selective adaptation, auditory adaptation should 204 induce short-term perceptuo-motor changes and bias parti-205 cipants' responses towards /da/ in the subsequent syllable 206 decision task, as compared to a control condition without 207 prior auditory adaptation. In additional conditions, single-208 pulse TMS over the left vPM, SMG or pSTG were delivered at 209 the onset of each target stimulus using frameless stereotaxy 210 and individual MRI-to-head co-registration. Compared to a 211 control condition (SHAM) performed without any stimulation, 212 contrastive results on selective adaptation observed after 213 TMS applied over the left vPM, SMG and/or pSTG should 214 demonstrate whether these regions causally contribute to 215 speech categorization/recognition. 216

#### 2. Results

In order to individually determine the three syllables (c<sup>-</sup>, c<sup>0</sup>, c<sup>+</sup>) ranging in the categorical boundary between/ba/ and/da/, 219

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Fig. 1 – Experimental design. (A) The experiment consisted of a categorical perception task (without TMS), three TMS sessions (according to each stimulation site: pSTG, SMG, vPM) consisting of a 2FC syllable decision task, and a final categorical perception task (without TMS). (B) With the exception of the stimulation site, the experimental procedure was identical in the three TMS sessions. The TMS and SHAM conditions each occurred in four successive experimental blocks, with the auditory adaptation and control conditions occurring once in both the first and last two blocks (BIN1, BIN2). (C) Each block consisted of an adaptation or a control task and a subsequent 2FC syllable decision task with or without stimulation. The order of the stimulation site, the stimulation mode and the adaptation mode were counterbalanced across participants. (D) Mean localization of pSTG, SMG and vPM stimulation sites for all participants rendered on axial slices and cortical surface on a standard brain template using the MRICRON software (http://www.sph.sc.edu/comd/rorden/mricron/).

participants first underwent a categorical perception task, without TMS. Three two forced-choice syllable decision tasks were then performed on these syllables using TMS on each stimulation site (see Fig. 1 and Experimental procedures). Finally, a second categorical perception task, without TMS, was performed.

#### 2.1. Categorical decision tasks

Fig. 2 displays the mean proportion of /ba/ responses to the eleventh stimuli of the /ba/-/da/ auditory continuum ( $c^{-5}$  to  $c^{+5}$ ) in the two categorical decision tasks (performed without stimulation, but in the presence of TMS acoustic noise, before and after the TMS experiment). As expected, the proportion of /ba/ responses increased significantly as the auditory stimulus moved from /da/ to /ba/ ( $F_{(10,110)}=137.7$ , p<.001). However, no modulation of categorical perception was observed before and after TMS, with neither the effect of experimental session or the 'stimulus x session' interaction being significant. This result indicates that selective adaptation to speech observed in the TMS experiment (see below) did not provide long-lasting after-effects, with no perceptual shift occurring in the final categorical decision task.

#### 2.2. TMS-2FC syllable decision tasks

Fig. 3 displays the mean proportion of/ba/ responses and median RTs according to the stimulation mode (TMS vs. SHAM), the stimulation site (pSTG, SMG, vPM) and the adaptation mode (ADAPTATION, CONTROL). Fig. 4 displays the strength of the adaption effect (proportion of /ba/ responses without prior auditory adaptation subtracted from those with prior adaptation) according to the stimulation mode (TMS vs. SHAM) and the stimulation site (pSTG, SMG, vPM).



Fig. 2 – Proportion of /ba/ responses as a function of the eleven stimuli of the /ba/–/da/ auditory continuum ( $c^{-5}$  to  $c^{+5}$ ) in the two categorical decision tasks (before and after the TMS experiment). Error bars represent standard errors of the mean (SEM).

#### 2.2.1. Reaction times

Overall, the mean RT was 641 ms ( $\pm$ 30); it was similar in the three TMS sessions (on average, 621 ms ( $\pm$ 26), 660 ms ( $\pm$ 37) and 642 ms ( $\pm$ 34) for SMG, pSTG and vPM, respectively; see Fig. 3, bottom). The 'stimulation site × stimulation mode' interaction was the only significant effect ( $F_{(1,9)}$ =5.29, p=.02), with responses after TMS over SMG and pSTG being slower compared to SHAM (on average, -36 ms and -34 ms, respectively) while the inverse effect was observed after TMS over vPM (+28 ms). No other significant effect or interaction was observed.

#### 2.2.2. Perceptual scores

Overall, the mean identification score was of 46% ( $\pm$ 3); it was similar across the three TMS sessions (on average, 44% ( $\pm$ 6), 48% ( $\pm$ 3) and 47% ( $\pm$ 4) of /ba/ responses for SMG, pSTG and

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Fig. 3 – Proportion of /ba/ responses and median RTs observed in the syllable decision tasks according to the stimulation site (pSTG, SMG, vPM), the stimulation mode (TMS, SHAM), the adaptation mode (ADAPTATION, CONTROL) and the bin (BIN1, BIN2). Error bars represent standard errors of the mean.



Fig. 4 – Size of the adaptation effect (proportion of /ba/ responses without prior auditory adaptation subtracted from those with prior adaptation) observed in the syllable decision tasks according to the stimulation site (pSTG, SMG, vPM), the stimulation mode (TMS, SHAM) and the bin (BIN1, BIN2). Error bars represent standard errors of the mean.

vPM, respectively; see Fig. 3, top). This confirmed that  $c^-$ ,  $c_0$  and  $c^+$  stimuli located at the categorical boundary between /ba/ and/da/ in each TMS session.

A 4-WAY repeated-measure ANOVA showed a strong selective adaptation, as indicated by a significant main effect of the adaptation mode ( $F_{(1,9)}$ =17.2, p=.003). This selective adaption effect, which occurred in the three TMS sessions (vPM, SMG, pSTG) and the two stimulation modes, corresponded to the predicted decrease of /ba/ responses in the auditory adaptation condition compared to the control condition (on average, -9% and -19% for SMG/SHAM and SMG/TMS, -9% and -18% for pSTG/SHAM and pSTG/TMS, -8% and -23% for vPM/SHAM and vPM/TMS).

Second, a higher proportion of /ba/ responses was observed after TMS compared to SHAM ( $F_{(1,9)}=8.4$ , p=.02) with an increase of /ba/ responses after TMS occurring in the three TMS sessions and the two adaptation modes (on average, +14% and +4% for SMG/CONTROL and SMG/ADAP-TATION, +32% and +23% for pSTG/CONTROL and pSTG/ ADAPTATION, +30% and +15% for vPM/CONTROL and vPM/ ADAPTATION). Moreover, this effect persisted from BIN1 to BIN2 with a non significant 'stimulation mode × bin' interaction ( $F_{(1,9)}$ =.38, p=.55; on average, +9% and +8% for SMG/BIN1 and SMG/BIN2, +30% and +25% for pSTG/BIN1 and pSTG/ BIN2, +28% and +17% for vPM/BIN1 and vPM/BIN2). The most likely explanation of this effect is that the absence of tactile contact in the SHAM conditions might have potentially lowered the auditory (clicking) sound and, although the single pulse clicking sound occurred during the stimulus onset in both conditions (TMS, SHAM), bone-conducted sounds might have biased participants' responses towards /ba/ in the TMS conditions (Nikouline et al., 1999). Crucially, a significant 'stimulation mode × adaptation mode × bin' interaction was observed ( $F_{(1,9)}=6.5$ , p=.03). Further analysis of the size of the adaptation effect showed that a selective adaptation was observed in BIN1 in both the TMS and SHAM conditions (on average, -14% and -16% of /ba/ responses for SMG/SHAM and SMG/TMS, -20% and -10% for pSTG/SHAM and pSTG/TMS, -17% and -20% for vPM/ SHAM and vPM/TMS, no comparisons significant; see Fig. 4).

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However, in BIN2, while the adaptation effect almost dis-463 appeared in the SHAM condition, it remained present in the 464 TMS condition (on average, -3% and -21% of /ba/ responses 465 466 for SMG/SHAM and SMG/TMS, 3% and -25% for pSTG/SHAM 467 and pSTG/TMS, 2% and -26% for vPM/SHAM and vPM/TMS, 468 all comparisons significant). It should be noted that this interaction is not likely due to TMS acoustic artefacts since 469 470 (1) the higher proportion of /ba/ responses after TMS was 471 equally observed in BIN1 and BIN2, (2) selective adaptation was independently computed for each stimulation site and 472 473 each bin for the TMS and SHAM conditions (i.e., (SHAM-474 CONTROL minus SHAM-ADAPTATION) vs. (TMS-control minus TMS-ADAPTATION) and (3) that the stimulation and 475 476 single pulse clicking sound equally occurred with or without 477 prior adaptation in the TMS condition. Hence, these results 478 suggest that selective adaptation persisted in BIN2 because of 479 TMS while it disappeared without stimulation (in the sham 480 condition). No other significant effect or interaction was 481 observed. 482

#### 3. Discussion

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486 The present study addressed the question of whether the 487 auditory dorsal pathway mediates speech categorization by 488 examining the causal contribution of the left vPM, SMG and 489 pSTG in an auditory syllable categorization task. To this aim, 490 auditory perceptual adaptation was first behaviorally induced, with the goal of tuning specific neural populations 491 492 in the targeted brain areas. As expected, in a subsequent 493 auditory syllable decision task on ambiguous syllables, 494 a strong selective adaption was observed as compared to 495 a control condition without prior auditory adaptation. Crucially, compared to the results observed without stimulation, 496 497 single-pulse TMS delivered at the onset of each target 498 stimulus over the left vPM, SMG or SMG, using frameless 499 stereotaxy and individual MRI-to-head co-registration, inter-500 acted with the initial state of the stimulated brain area by 501 enhancing the adaptation effect. The findings suggest that 502 these regions are part of a network that contributes to 503 auditory speech adaptation and provide further evidence for 504 a mediating role of the dorsal pathway in speech 505 categorization.

506 The state-dependent TMS paradigm consisted of a combi-507 nation of auditory-induced perceptual adaptation and online TMS delivered in a subsequent syllable categorization task. 508 509 This paradigm, known to enhance the functional selectivity 510 and resolution of TMS (for a review, see Silvanto et al., 2008), 511 was used to determine a possible causal contribution of three 512 target regions in the categorization/decision process and 513 in relation to the adapted stimulus. In order to determine, individually for each participant, the best range for ambig-514 515 uous stimuli in the categorical boundary between /ba/ and 516 /da/, participants first performed a categorical decision task 517 on a /ba/-/da/ continuum, without stimulation. Three sylla-518 bles centered on the midpoint of the discrimination function 519 then served as target stimuli in the next TMS sessions. For 520 these three syllables across all conditions and sessions, the 521 mean identification scores were always near chance level 522 (on average, 44%, 48% and 47% of/ba/ responses for SMG,

pSTG and vPM, respectively; see Fig. 3), thus confirming the ambiguity of these targets. During the experimental sessions, prolonged listening to a/ba/ syllable induced a strong selective adaptation to speech (Eimas and Corbit, 1973), which led to fewer /ba/ responses in the subsequent categorization of ambiguous target syllables than observed in a similar categorization task without prior auditory adaptation. These results were observed equally in the three experimental sessions (on average, -14%, -13% and -15% of /ba/ responses for SMG, pSTG and vPM, respectively) consistent with previous selective adaptation studies (for reviews, see Cooper, 1979; Samuel, 1984). In addition, no perceptual shift was Q6 observed between the initial and final categorization tasks on the /ba/-/da/ continuum performed without stimulation (see Fig. 2), indicating that the selective adaptation to speech observed in the TMS sessions did not induce long-lasting perceptual after-effects. In sum, these results confirm the validity of the experimental paradigm used to induce selective adaptation to speech.

It should be noted that a higher proportion of /ba/ responses was observed after TMS compared to SHAM in each of the three TMS sessions and for each of the two adaptation modes. Since the single pulse clicking sound occurred during the stimulus onset in both TMS and SHAM conditions regardless of the auditory adaptation mode, the most likely explanation for the higher proportion of /ba/ responses (see Fig. 3), is that the absence of tactile contact in the SHAM conditions might have potentially lowered the auditory (clicking) sound and, conversely, bone-conducted sounds from single-pulse TMS might have contributed to bias participants' responses. Auditory evoked potentials from the acoustical click are known to be greatly affected by the position of the coil, with greater amplitude observed with the coil pressed against the scalp than with the coil placed 2 cm above the head (Nikouline et al., 1999). In the present study, it is therefore possible that the coil click propagated by air and bone in the TMS condition might have partially masked the consonantal burst and higher frequency transitions of the target syllables (see Methods) and biased participants' responses. Importantly, this higher proportion of /ba/ responses after TMS was observed in each of the two experimental blocks (BIN1 and BIN2).

Crucially, compared to SHAM stimulation, single-pulse TMS delivered at the onset of each target stimulus interacted with the initial state of the stimulated brain area by enhancing the adaptation effect in the last experimental block. In the first experimental blocks (BIN1), a strong adaptation effect was equally observed in the three stimulations sites for both TMS and SHAM conditions (on average, -15%, -15%, -18% of /ba/ responses for SMG, pSTG and vPM, respectively; see Fig. 4). This result indicates that TMS has no additive/ modulatory effect on selective adaptation in the first experimental block compared to no stimulation, possibly due to ceiling-effects on adaptive changes. However, in the last experimental blocks (BIN2), while the adaptation effect almost disappeared in the SHAM condition (on average, -3%, +3% and +2% of/ba/ responses for SMG, pSTG and vPM, respectively; see Fig. 4), it remained present in the TMS condition (on average, -21%, -25% and -26% of /ba/ responses for SMG, pSTG and vPM, respectively; see Fig. 4).

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583 As previously mentioned, it is worth noting that (1) the higher 584 proportion of/ba/ responses likely due to TMS acoustic arte-585 facts was similar across the two experimental blocks (BIN1 586 and BIN2), (2) for each stimulation site and each bin, selective 587 adaptation was independently computed for the TMS and 588 SHAM conditions, and (3) the stimulation and single pulse clicking sound occurred with or without prior adaptation 589 590 in the TMS condition. For all these reasons, TMS acoustic 591 artefacts cannot satisfactorily explain the strong adaptation effect observed in the three stimulations sites for TMS but not 592 593 for SHAM conditions in the last experimental block. It has 594 been suggested that selective adaption operates on speech 595 perception and production through fatigue of specialized 596 phonetic feature detectors and/or criterion-setting operations 597 (for reviews, see Cooper, 1979; Samuel, 1986). However, these 07 598 mechanisms might not have operated similarly throughout 599 the experiment, especially with respect to cumulative and previous participants' biased responses. From that view, 600 601 without additional stimulation, selective adaptation would 602 disappear in the second experimental block due to competi-603 tion and/or bias/criterion-settings mechanisms between 604 repeated presentations of /ba/ and previous participants' 605 biased responses towards /da/. However, the adaptation 606 effect observed in the second experimental block after TMS 607 indicates that modulation of cortical excitability in SMG, 608 pSTG and vPM interacted with these processes by maintain-609 ing enhancing biased responses. Furthermore, the fact that the bin effect was replicated 3 times with 3 sham conditions 610 in each stimulation site argues for the reliability of this effect 611 612 (see Fig. 4).

In sum, although this effect appears to be due to a 613 614 complicated interaction between selective adaptation and 615 TMS, the observed state-dependency of the TMS-induced 616 effects suggests that the auditory dorsal pathway contributes 617 to auditory syllabic adaptation. Importantly, the size of this 618 effect was similar across the three stimulated brain areas. Although our results do not specify any distinctive role for 619 620 each of the three stimulated areas in speech adaptation/ 621 categorization, they suggest that the three regions (vPM, SMG 622 and pSTG) of the auditory dorsal pathway work in concert 623 during the categorization of ambiguous speech stimuli. Such 624 possible mutual influence of these dorsal stream regions is consistent with their anatomical connections (for a recent 625 626 review, see Dick and Tremblay, 2012) and with recent dis-627 tributed neurobiological network models of speech processing (Callan et al., 2004; Wilson and Iacoboni, 2006; Hickok 628 629 and Poeppel, 2007; Skipper et al., 2007; Poeppel et al., 2008; 630 Rauschecker and Scott, 2009; Hickok et al., 2011; Rauschecker, 631 2011), which postulate bidirectional interactions between 632 these regions during the categorization of ambiguous speech 633 stimuli. Finally, it is worthwhile noting that whether other brain areas, notably those of the ventral pathway (Hickok and 634 635 Poeppel, 2007; Rauschecker and Scott, 2009; Rauschecker, 2011), may also be involved in selective adaptation to speech. 636

Our results appear in line with previous TMS-adaptation
studies showing that TMS interacts with initial state changes
induced by visual adaptation or priming (e.g., Silvanto et al.,
2008; Cattaneo and Silvanto, 2008; Cattaneo et al., 2010;
Cattaneo et al., 2010; Cattaneo, 2010). Interestingly, it has
been shown that repeated exposure to visually presented

hand/foot transitive actions modulates behavioral perfor-643 mance in a subsequent visual identification task of similar 644 actions when single-pulse TMS was applied over the vPM, the 645 inferior parietal lobule and the superior temporal sulcus, 646 compared to no stimulation (Cattaneo et al., 2010; Cattaneo, 647 2010). The opposite perspective, that is, the influence of 648 motor behavior on perception, has also been investigated, 649 with visual after-effect induced by blindfolded repeated 650 motor performance of an object-directed action modulated 651 by TMS applied over the left vPM (Cattaneo et al., 2011; see 652 also Glenberg et al., 2010). These results are generally con-653 sistent with those obtained in recent studies using an fMRI 654 adaptation paradigm to investigate the neural substrates of 655 action goal coding. Repetition suppression effects, corre-656 sponding to a decrease in blood oxygen level-dependent 657 signal to repeated stimuli (Grill-Spector and Malach, 2001; 658 Grill-Spector et al., 2006), were indeed observed in the left 659 vPM, inferior parietal lobule and adjacent intraparietal sulcus 660 during repeated observation of manual actions (Dinstein 661 et al., 2007; Chong et al., 2008; Lingnau et al., 2009; Kilner Q13 662 et al., 2009) as well as during a cross-modal paradigm, with 663 response suppression observed when manual actions were 664 first observed and then executed and vice versa (Kilner et al., 665 2009). These results have been largely discussed in the 666 context of the human mirror-neuron system and its possible 667 role in action goal coding (for reviews, see Rizzolatti et al., 668 2001; Rizzolatti and Craighero, 2004). 669

Regarding speech perception, although our results do not 670 specify any distinctive role of the motor system, they are in 671 keeping with previous TMS studies showing that temporary 672 disruption of the activity of the left vPM or primary motor 673 cortex induce modulation of performance in auditory syllable 674 identification tasks, in the presence of masking noise (Meister 675 et al., 2007; d'Ausilio et al., 2009) or when processing acous-676 tically ambiguous syllables (Möttonen and Watkins, 2009). 677 Interestingly, compared to the present study using auditory 678 adaptation, two recent studies also provided evidence that 679 use-induced motor plasticity, by means of tongue and lip 680 motor training, can bias perceptual performance in auditory 681 speech recognition (Sato et al., 2011) and that sensory-motor 682 brain regions are sensitive to changes in response bias 683 (Venezia et al., 2012). In a similar vein, previous work has 684 shown that motor learning/compensation induced by online 685 auditory feedback manipulation in a speech production task 686 changes both the speech motor output and the auditory 687 speech representations, changes that together act to reduce 688 the impact of the altered feedback (Shiller et al., 2009). 689 Consistent with these findings, our results strongly suggest 690 that the dorsal pathway mediate speech decision/categoriza-691 tion processes and are consistent with recent neurobiological 692 models of speech perception (Callan et al., 2004; Wilson and 693 Iacoboni, 2006; Hickok and Poeppel, 2007; Skipper et al., 2007; 694 Poeppel et al., 2008; Rauschecker and Scott, 2009; Hickok 695 et al., 2011; Rauschecker, 2011). According to these models, 696 processing speech sounds is assumed to depend upon suc-697 cessive sensory-to-motor and motor-to-sensory projections, 698 with implicit procedural knowledge of speech production 699 providing motor-based predictions (by the use of sensorimo-700 tor transformations and internal models; see Wolpert et al., 701 1995; Kawato, 1999; Wolpert and Flanagan, 2001; Guenther, 702

2006; Hickok et al., 2011; Guenther and Vladusich, 2012; 703 704 Perkell, 2012). For example, Skipper et al. (2007) proposed 705 that phonetic hypotheses are first derived from acoustico-706 phonetic analyses in the auditory system. These hypotheses 707 are then mapped onto speech motor commands, which, in 708 turn, may partly constrain phonetic interpretation by pre-709 dicting the acoustic consequences of a speech movement 710 through an efference copy to the auditory system. From that 711 view, our finding that TMS combined with prior auditory adaptation can change the listener's sensorimotor state and 712 713 thereby change the listener's classification of the syllable is 714 consistent with these theoretical models.

715 Finally, although the present findings suggest an active 716 role of the auditory dorsal pathway in speech categorization/ 717 decision processes when resolving stimulus ambiguity, it is worth noting that the question of whether articulatory 718 719 processes mediate speech perception under normal listening 720 conditions remains vigorously debated (e.g., Hickok and Poeppel, 2007; Meister et al., 2007; Schwartz et al., 2008; 721 72208 d'Ausilio et al., 2009, 2012; Lotto et al., 2009; Sato et al., 723 2009; Scott et al., 2009; Sato et al., 2011; Tremblay and Small, 724 2011). Indeed, several research findings do not support a 725 mandatory role for the motor system in speech perception 726 with clear auditory inputs. Firstly, damage to motor speech 727 areas in Broca's aphasic patients does not produce clear 728 deficits in speech perception, with aphasic patients perform-729 ing well on auditory word comprehension tasks (e.g., Hickok et al., 2011). Results from both electrocortical stimulation 730 731 studies during neurosurgical operations or from transcranial 732 magnetic stimulation (TMS) also challenge a possible func-733 tional role of the motor system in speech processing under 734 normal listening conditions (for reviews, see Boatmann, 2004; 735 Sato et al., 2009; Scott et al., 2009). Indeed, temporarily 736 disrupting the activity of the opercular part of the left pIFG 737 or the PMv has been shown to disrupt subjects' ability to perform sublexical phonological tasks that require strong 738 739 segmentation processes and working memory demands (Boatmann, 2004; Nixon et al., 2004; Romero et al., 2006; 740 09 Sato et al., 2009). However, no interference effects were 741 742 observed in non-word syllable identification/discrimination 743 tasks that could be performed without phonemic segmenta-744 tion (Boatmann, 2004; Boatman and Miglioretti, 2005; Sato 745 et al., 2009; d'Ausilio et al., 2012). Hence, while the present 746 findings do not speak to the mediating role of the auditory 747 dorsal stream in speech perception under normal listening conditions, they confirm a causal role for several regions of 748 749 the dorsal stream in selective adaption to speech in a simple 750 discrimination task.

#### 4. Conclusion

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755 The present state-dependent transcranial magnetic stimula-756 tion study aimed at determining whether speech recognition 757 is mediated by the auditory dorsal pathway, by examining 758 the causal contribution of the left ventral premotor cortex, supramarginal gyrus and posterior part of the superior 759 760 temporal gyrus in an auditory syllable identification/categor-761 ization task. To this aim, auditory perceptual adaptation was 762 first behaviorally induced, with the goal of tuning specific

neural populations in the targeted brain areas. As expected, in a subsequent auditory syllable decision task on ambiguous syllables, a strong selective adaption was observed as compared to a control condition without prior auditory adaptation. Crucially, compared to the results observed without stimulation, single-pulse transcranial magnetic stimulation delivered at the onset of each target stimulus interacted with the initial state of each of the stimulated brain area by enhancing the adaptation effect. These results suggest that regions of the dorsal streams are part of a network that contributes to auditory speech adaptation and provide further evidence for sensorimotor interaction in speech, and for a mediating role of the auditory dorsal pathway in speech categorization.

#### 5. Experimental procedures

#### 5.1. Participants

Twelve healthy native Canadian French speakers participated in the study (9 females; mean  $age\pm SD$ :  $27\pm 2$  years). All participants were right-handed (Oldfield, 1971), had normal or corrected-to-normal vision and reported no history of language or hearing disorders. Participants were screened for speech/language disorders, neurological, psychiatric, and other medical conditions, as well as contraindications to TMS (Wasserman, 1998). Written informed consent was obtained **Q10** for all participants; participants were compensated for the time spent in the study. The study was approved by the Magnetic Resonance Research Committee (MRRC) and the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) Research Ethics Committee.

#### 5.2. Stimuli

For the categorical decision tasks performed without stimulation, the stimuli consisted of eleven synthesized syllables varying along a /ba/-/da/ continuum. These stimuli were generated using a pitch-modulated sinewave synthesis method adapted from a previous study on categorical perception (Semiclaes et al., 2001). More specifically, this consisted of generating a sum of three sinewaves at the formant frequency  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$  and  $F_3$ , and to modulate this sum with a pitch-synchronous comb envelope with an arbitrary pattern (a negative exponential function with a time constant of 10 ms) as well as to control the fundamental frequency  $F_0$ . The endpoints were given appropriate values for the perception of a French /ba/ syllable, at one end, and for the perception of a French /da/ syllable at the other end. The difference in place of articulation between /ba/ and/da/ syllables was created by modifying the onset of the initial frequency transitions (FT<sub>2</sub> and FT<sub>3</sub>) which corresponded to those of the second and third formants ( $F_2$  and  $F_3$ ) in natural speech. The FT<sub>2</sub> onset frequency varied from 1150 Hz at the /ba/ endpoint to 1450 Hz at the /da/ endpoint in ten equal steps of 30 Hz. The FT<sub>3</sub> onset frequency varied from 2250 Hz at the /ba/ endpoint to 2750 Hz at the /da/ endpoint in ten equal steps of 50 Hz. This yielded a total of eleven stimuli per continuum ( $c^{-5}$  to  $c^{+5}$ ). The end frequencies of FT<sub>2</sub> and FT<sub>3</sub>

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823 transition were fixed at 1300 Hz and 2500 Hz respectively 824 (corresponding to the onset frequencies for  $c_0$ ). For every 825 stimulus, the initial frequency of the first formant  $(F_1)$  was 826 200 Hz and its end frequency was 750 Hz. For each stimulus, 827 the amplitudes of the  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$ , and  $F_3$  sinewaves varied linearly 828 from respectively .1, .001, .0001 to .3, .15, and .2 to simulate 829 the respective contribution of the formants in speech signal 830 energy for such type of syllables. The negative voice onset 831 time (VOT) duration was 55 ms, the duration of all frequency 832 transitions was 30 ms, and the duration of the stable vocalic 833 segment was 130 ms. During negative VOT and frequency 834 transition period, the fundamental frequency  $F_0$  was fixed to 835 100 Hz. During the stable vocalic segment, a quasi-linear 836 descending  $F_0$  contour was applied (from 106 Hz to 92 Hz).

In the two forced choice (2FC) syllable decision tasks, the three syllables (c<sup>-</sup>, c<sup>0</sup>, c<sup>+</sup>) ranging in the categorical boundary between /ba/ and/da/ were individually determined from the initial categorical decision task (see below).

#### 5.3. Procedure

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The experiment was carried out in a quiet room. Participants sat in front of a computer monitor at a distance of approximately 50 cm. The acoustic stimuli were presented at a comfortable sound level through headphones. Presentation software (Neurobehavioral Systems, Albany, CA) was used to control the stimulus presentation and to record keyboard presses.

851After MRI-to-head co-registration and resting motor852threshold (RMT) determination (see below), participants853underwent a categorical perception task (without TMS), three8542FC syllable decision tasks (using TMS and according to each855stimulation site: pSTG, SMG, vPM) and a second categorical856perception task (without TMS). The experimental design is857illustrated in Fig. 1.

#### 5.3.1. Categorical decision tasks

860 In order to individually determine the three syllables ( $c^{-}$ ,  $c^{0}$ , 861 c<sup>+</sup>) ranging in the categorical boundary between /ba/ and/da/, 862 participants first performed a categorical decision task, per-863 formed without stimulation, on the eleven stimuli of the ba/ 864 -/da/ continuum (c<sup>-5</sup> to c<sup>+5</sup>). Each trial started with a fixation cue (the '+' symbol) presented in the middle of the screen for 865 866 500 ms, followed by the presentation of a syllable, and ended 867 with a blank screen for 1500 ms. Participants were instructed to produce a motor response by pressing with their right 868 869 index or middle finger one of two keyboard keys correspond-870 ing to /ba/ or/da/ syllable. Every stimulus was presented 20 871 times in a pseudo-randomized sequence (the same syllable 872 never occurring twice in succession) for a total of 220 trials. In 873 order to compensate for the acoustic artefacts present during stimulation in the subsequent two forced-choice (2FC) sylla-874 875 ble decision tasks (due to single pulse clicking sound, see 876 below), a single-pulse TMS was applied at the onset of each stimulus with the TMS coil turned and moved 10 cm away 877 878 from participant's head during the categorical perception task. The three stimuli (c<sup>-</sup>, c<sup>0</sup>, c<sup>+</sup>) best fitting the categorical 879 boundary between /ba/ and/da/ were determined for each 880 881 participant. In order to test for a possible modulation of 882 categorical boundary due to stimulation in the two forced

choice (2FC) syllable decision tasks, a second categorical perception task was performed after the TMS experiment, using the same experimental procedure.

#### 5.3.2. 2FC syllable decision tasks

Three 2FC syllable decision tasks were performed, one for each stimulation site (pSTG, SMG, vPM). With the exception of the stimulation site, the experimental procedure was identical in the three experimental sessions. For each stimulation site, four conditions were contrasted and related to the auditory adaptation mode (ADAPTATION, CONTROL) and the stimulation mode (TMS, SHAM). The order of the three syllable decision tasks (stimulation site), the stimulation mode, the adaptation mode and the response key designation (/ba/ vs./da/) were counterbalanced across participants.

For each stimulation site, each condition was presented twice (BIN1, BIN2) for a total of eight experimental blocks (see Fig. 1). Each block began with either an adaptation or a control task (40 s) and was followed by a syllable decision task (60 s). In four of these blocks (ADAPTATION condition), participants listened to a sequence of 40 /ba/ (corresponding to the /ba/ endpoint of the auditory continuum) presented at a rate of 1 Hz before performing the syllable decision task. In the other four blocks (CONTROL condition), a 40 s resting period without any auditory stimulation preceded the syllable decision task. The syllable decision tasks were performed on  $c^-$ ,  $c_0$  and  $c^+$  stimuli. Each trial started with a fixation cue (the '+' symbol) presented in the middle of the screen for 500 ms, which was followed by the presentation of a syllable. The trial ended with a blank screen presented for 1500 ms. Participants were instructed to produce a motor response as quickly and accurately as possible, by pressing on one of two keys corresponding to /ba/ or/da on a computer keyboard with either their right index or middle finger. Every stimulus (c<sup>-</sup>, c<sub>0</sub> or c<sup>+</sup>) was presented 10 times in a pseudo-randomized sequence for a total of 30 ambiguous stimuli per condition. In four blocks (TMS condition), a single-pulse TMS was applied at the onset of each stimulus. In order to provide identical acoustic artefacts (due to single pulse clicking sound in the TMS condition) but without stimulation, the TMS coil was turned and moved 10 cm away from participant's head in the four other blocks (SHAM condition).

In sum, for each stimulation site (pSTG, SMG, vPM), the TMS and SHAM conditions each occurred in four successive blocks, with the ADAPTATION and CONTROL conditions occurring once in both the first and last two blocks (BIN1, BIN2). The order of all these conditions was counterbalanced across participants. Each experimental session (pSTG, SMG, vPM) thus consisted of 240 trials with 30 trials per experimental conditions: stimulation mode (TMS, SHAM) × adaptation mode (ADAPTATION, CONTROL) × bin (BIN1, BIN2).

#### 5.4. Transcranial magnetic stimulation

#### 5.4.1. MRI acquisition and co-registration

A high-resolution T1-weighted structural volume was acquired for anatomical localization for each participant. Data were acquired on a 1.5T Siemens Sonata MR scanner at the Montreal Neurological Institute (matrix  $256 \times 256$  mm2, 176 slices,  $1 \times 1 \times 1$  mm3, no gap, TE=9.2 ms, TR=22 ms, flip 897

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943 angle 30°). Once obtained, the anatomical MRI was incorpo-944 rated into BrainSight 2 (Rogue Research, Montreal, Canada) to 945 guide coil placement. Stimulation sites were identified on 946 individual brain reconstructions on the basis of macroanato-947 mical landmarks. pSTG was defined as the ventral region over 948 the caudal end of the posterior branch of the sylvian fissure. 949 SMG was defined as its dorsalmost portion, immediately 950 ventral to the intraparietal sulcus. vPM was defined as the 951 portion of the precentral gyrus posterior to the point where 952 the inferior frontal sulcus intersects with the precentral 953 sulcus (see Fig. 1D). The mean coordinates for all participants 954 in MNI space were  $x = -56 (\pm .9)$ ,  $y = -37 (\pm 2.3)$ ,  $z = 12 (\pm 1.2)$ for pSTG,  $x = -47 (\pm 1)$ ,  $y = -49 (\pm 2.2)$ ,  $z = 38 (\pm 1.6)$  for SMG and 955 956  $x = -47 (\pm .8), y = 5 (\pm 2), z = 33 (\pm 1)$  for vPM.

Prior to the experiment, an MRI-to-head co-registration was performed for each participant. The position of four anatomical landmarks (tip of the nose, bridge of the nose, superior-lateral edge of the tragus of left and right ears), previously identified on participant's MRI, was assessed using an infrared tracking system (Polaris, Northern Digital, Waterloo, Canada). Upon successful co-registration, infrared tracking was used to monitor the position of the coil with respect to the participant's brain and the stimulation site.

#### 5.4.2. Resting motor threshold (RMT)

TMS was applied with a 70-mm air-cooled figure-of-eight TMS coil, driven by a high-speed magnetic stimulator (Magstim Rapid 1400, Wales, UK). For the determination of each participant's RMT, the TMS coil was first placed over the participant's left hand primary motor cortex with the coil held tangentially to the skull, and the handle pointing posteriorly and inferiorly. The location of the stimulation was then adjusted to locate the maximally excitable hand area. RMT was established as the lowest stimulation intensity applied over the hand primary motor cortex capable of evoking a contraction in the relaxed right hand muscles on at least 5 out of 10 consecutive stimulations.

#### 5.4.3. TMS experiment

985 For each syllable decision task, the TMS coil was first posi-986 tioned on the stimulation site (pSTG, SMG, vPM) using 987 frameless stereotaxy and individual MRI-to-head co-988 registration. The coil was held tangentially to the skull and 989 secured by a positioning arm. Coil orientation was antero-990 posterior with the handle pointing backward for vPM, per-991 pendicular to the midline with the handle pointing outward 992 for pSTG and SMG. During the tasks, its position was 993 monitored online and adjusted following any head move-994 ments resulting in displacement of more than 2 mm in any 995 direction to the stimulation site. In all conditions, a single 996 TMS pulse was applied at the onset of each auditory stimu-997 lus, with stimulation intensity at 110% of individual RMT 998 (mean value of stimulation of  $70\%, \pm 2\%$ ). In the SHAM con-999 dition, the TMS coil was turned and moved 10 cm away from 1000 participant's head in order to provide identical acoustic 1001 artifacts (due to single pulse clicking sound) but without 1002 stimulation.

#### 5.5. Data analysis

For all the following analyses, the significance level was set at p=.05 and Greenhouse–Geisser corrected (for violation of the sphericity assumption) when appropriate. When required, posthoc analyses were conducted with protected LSD Fischer tests.

#### 5.5.1. Categorical decision task

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The proportion of /ba/ responses observed in the categorical decision tasks was computed for each participant as a function of the eleven stimuli of the /ba/–/da/ continuum  $(c^{-5} \text{ to } c^{+5})$  in each experimental session (before and after the TMS experiment). A two-way repeated-measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the proportion of /ba/ responses with the stimulus and the experimental session as within-subjects variables.

#### 5.5.2. 2FC syllable decision task

Missing responses and trials in which reaction-times (RTs), calculated from the stimulus onset, were faster than 300 ms (anticipations) or slower than 1500 ms (missing responses) were considered as errors and discarded without replacement. Two participants were removed from the analysis because their error rates exceeded 10%. For the other ten participants, the mean percentage of errors was 2% + 1%. The proportion of /ba/ responses and the median RTs (Whelan 2008) observed in the TMS experiment were then computed for each participant, each stimulation site (pSTG, SMG, vPM), each stimulation mode (TMS, SHAM), each adaptation mode (ADAPTATION, CONTROL) and each bin (BIN1, BIN2). To test the effect of the different experimental conditions on selective adaptation, four-way repeated-measure ANOVAs were performed on these two dependent variables with stimulation site, stimulation mode, adaptation mode and bin as within-subjects variables.

#### **Uncited references**

Rossini et al. (1994), Rossi et al. (2009).

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