

Hello. My name is Gonzalo Tassu, and today we'll talk about the anatomy and physiology of the auditory system. Today's objective is to describe the anatomy of the outer, middle, and inner ear. Then we will describe the principles of mechano transduction. Then we'll review the anatomy of the auditory pathway from the inner ear to the primary auditory cortex. We'll describe the physiology of the primary auditory cortex, and we'll look at the different type of auditory dysfunction, conductive versus sensory neural hearing loss, and we'll give examples of both. This is the ear. When you look at the ear in tree part, there is the outer ear where that captures the sound pressure that's coming from outside and channels into the middle ear. Here, the sounds are traveling as a wave. Now here, they are going to impinge onto the tympanic membrane. Now on the other side is the middle ear. Now these vibrations, this air pressure vibration is going to convert it into vibrations through the ossicles that are going to propagate the wave, and this will be transmitted to the cochlea. Here, the sound wave is going to be traveling in liquid. And will be converted into nerve impulses. The sound pressure is very extremely low, is ten to the eight times weaker than the atmospheric pressure. There is a physical problem that the auditory system needs to solve, which is how to convert such small pressures into nerve impulses in a reliable manner. In the middle ear, we have the Tympanic membrane and the ossicles. We have the ear canal where the sound pressures are going to make cause vibrations in the tympanic membrane. Now the bones of the middle ear, we have the malleus, the incus, and then we have the stapes. These bones are the smallest bones in the human body. The vibration of the tympanic membrane first goes through the malleus. Then that vibration is transmitted to the incus, and finally, that gets transmitted through the stapes into the cochlea. And this is this pressure is going to apply on the oval window. Now, the ossicles, although the wave, the sound pressure is now going to be transmitted to the solid, this cavity needs to be filled with air. If liquid will appear here, the sound transmission will be impaired. The problem that the air needs to solve is that the sound we live in air and sound waves travel through air. Now, but our bodies are mostly formed with liquid, and the hair cells, the transduction of sounds of vibration to nerve impulses are in liquid. The airways do not penetrate well into liquid. You can next summer when you are at the pool, and you put your head under water. You'll notice that sounds get mitigated because the sound pressure the sound will not penetrate well into liquid. The reason is that the liquids are much less compressible than air. In order to transmit the vibration, do you need much higher pressure? You need to convert the low pressure sound wave into higher pressure, such a wave can be detected in liquid. The way that this is happening is that is by the difference in the area. You can compare here in the middle ear the very large tympanic membrane and that that sound pressure is going to be applied to a much smaller area, which is the area of the oval window. The forces are going to be higher and the pressure will be increased. We have attached a conversion from low pressure in air to high pressure in liquid performed by the middle ear. In the middle ear, we could have conductive hearing losses. Conditions that affect the middle ear conduction could be damage to the tympanic membrane or we can have fluid in the tympanic cavity or damage to the ossicles. If the tympanic membrane would be perforated, then there's not going to be a pressure difference between the ear canal and the tympanic cavity. The sound will just bypass the ossicle chain and will directly impinge on the oval window, so there won't be any change. There will be no amplification in the pressure and the sound perception will be highly attenuated. Also, if liquid accumulates inside the tympanic cavity, the ossicles could not move well, their movement will be damped and will perceive a decrease in sound intensity. The transmission through the ossicles is not completely passive. There is a certain amount of control. There are two sets of muscles that serve to attenuate the intensity of the sound transmitted through this ossicle chain. One of the muscles is the tensor tympanic muscle, which is innervated by cranial nerve number five. You can see that if you contract this muscle, the malleus will uncouple from the tympanic membrane and there'll be sound attenuation. The second muscle that could mitigate the transmission of sound is the stapedius muscle, which is innervated by cranial nerve number seven. This muscle, you can see when it contracts, this stapes is going to decouple from the oval window and will reduce the intensity of the transmitted sound. The purpose of these muscles is to protect the very fragile inner hair cells from high pressures produced by loud sounds. There are reflexes that when a strong sound is perceived, these muscles will contract and the amount of energy transmitted to the hair cells will be reduced. Still, sudden loud sounds can still damage the hairs. Now we'll describe the principles of mechanotransduction in the inner ear. Sound comes transmitted through the otic to the oval window, and it travels through the cochlea and then it's transmitted into nerve impulses. The cochlea is located in the petrous portion of the temporal bone. It has 2.5 turns and is about the size of a chip. Also, the diameter decreases with each coil. In order to understand the structure of the cochlea, let's start with this simple diagram. We have the oval window, and on the other side at the output of the cochlea, we'll have the round window. As we saw, the stapes couples to the oval window. Now, between the oval window and the round window, we can locate here the basilar membrane. The basilar membrane is going to be the place where you're going to find the hair cells.

Now, we have the structure, and now imagine that you elongate this middle U. This middle cavity elongated and twisted and we have a cochlea. The reason that we have this elongation is to have different resonant mechanical resonant frequencies of the cochlea. There's differences between the apex and the base of the cochlea. The base is closer to where the stapes brings the vibrations into the oval window, and the apex is the more distal part. The basilar membrane is white, in floppy at the apex of the cochlea, but it is narrow thicker, and more taut towards the base. The base responds to high frequencies, and the apex is going to be responsive to lower frequencies. You might think that as a guitar, where you have high tension, that is going to be resonating at higher frequencies, and lower tension is going to cause resonance at lower frequencies. The role of the cochlea is to decompose the vibration into its frequency components. As you are aware, sound is composed can be decomposed into a sum of sine waves of different frequencies. Human hearing range is between 20 hertz and 16-20 kilohertz, depending on your age. And the stiffness of the basilar membrane, determining the location of which frequency does the basilar membrane is going to oscillate to. You are converting, so you get a continuous wave and you are going to decompose it mechanically in through the different frequencies. Depending which part of the basilar membrane, the oscillation is going to be largest. Notice also that the diameter of the cochlea is reverse to that of the basilar membrane. At the oval window, the cochlea is broadens and the basilar membrane is at its narrow. And the opposite is true at the apex. Let's look at the anatomy of the cochlea. The air impinges onto the tympanic membrane, that vibration is transmitted to the ossicles, the force is applied on the oval window. Now we are on the cochlea. Here the wave is going to travel liquid. In this case, the perilymph. This first chamber is the scala vestibuli, the so make the turn, and now we are going to be into the scala tympani. The wave will come out through the round window. That's the pathway of the vibration traveling to liquid. This liquid is going to be the perilymph. Here in the middle, we have the organ of Corti, which have tectorial membrane, and here the liquid is not going to be perilymph, and it's going to be the endolymph, which has different properties. If we now cut through the cochlear transversal section, we can see the scala vestibuli and the scala tympani. Here there is the cochlear duct where the endolymph is located. What is important is here surrounded by this endolymph, we have the tectorial membrane. There is the basilar membrane and the organ of Corti, and here very small, you can see the hair cells, and here is where the hair cells send their output through the auditory nerve. Now, the endolymph has potassium concentration in the extracellular medium. This is very unique. In most of the nervous system, the concentration of potassium is low extracellularly. But here in the endolymph, surrounding the hair cell tips, the concentration of potassium is high. The perilymph, the concentration of potassium is close to what you are used to low potassium. This is a picture of the organ of Corti. We have the tectorial membrane, and there are two types of hair cell. They are the inner hair cells and the outer hair cells. The outer hair cells are not coupled to the tectorial membrane and they are the actual sensory receptors. And 95% of the fibers of the auditory nerve that project to the brain arises from this population. The outer hair cells actually make contact with the tectorial membrane and they receive efferent terminals. There's a feedback loop here where there's movement of the tectorial membrane and also the hair cell, the outer hair cell are producing movement as well. The stereocilia are where the sound mechano electrical transducers are located and are in here on the top of the inner hair cell. There are three outer hair cell. This is an electron microscope image showing the outer hair cells and here the inner hair cells. There is one row of inner hair cells and there are three rows of outer hair cells. What is important and really something to remember is that the number of inner hair cells is very small, is only inner hair cells total. Each one counts and death of the inner hair cells can affect hearing and they do not regenerate. This is a very small number. In the brain, neurons we're used to hundreds of thousands, but for hair cell, the number is small. The stereocilia are connected through these structures called stereocilia. These stereocilia functional couple, they are functionally coupled to mechano electrical transduction channel. When they move, the channels open. Stretch of this stereocilia causes the opening of the mechano electric transduction channel, MET channels. What hair cells actually do is to detect the deflections of the tectorial membrane. The outer hair cells The tips of the stereocilia are embedded in the tectorial membrane. When the tectorial membrane is move because of the vibrations in the cochlea, that movement is going to be transmitted through the inner hair cells. That vibration is what causes the inner hair cells to move in this diagonal manner. The inner hair cells are not coupled and not directly mechanically connected to the tectorial membrane, but the movement of the stereocilia is induced by movement of this tectorial membrane. Now, the hair cells synapse onto the spiral ganglion cells, one spiral ganglion cell, connects to one inner hair cell. The hair cells depolarize when they are activated, but they do not fire action potential, they release glutamate, which is which is going to be affecting the spiral ganglion. The action of the spiral ganglion, for auditory nerve number eight. There are also different axons innervating the hair cell. If we now look at an individual inner hair cell, on the stereocilia, they are surrounded by the endolymph and there is high potassium. When the mechanosensory trigger channels, when the hair cell stereocilia

move, this movement causes the opening of these potassium channels and potassium flows in. Which is very unique. Mostly, remember, potassium usually flows out of the cell. In this case in this particular case, because of the characteristic of the endolymph, the potassium flows into the cell and causes the polarization. Now, toward the cell body of the inner hair cell, that's the parent lymph and Here, The the polarization produced by potassium in the stocllu, closes causes inflow of calcium. This inflow of calcium is going to cause the opening of calcium activated potassium channels, and here the potassium will flow outside of the cell to bring back the potassium down to rest. Very important is how the potassium concentration is regulated for hearing. Now let's look at the anatomy of the auditory pathway. The ascending auditory pathway starts in the cochlea in the neurons in the spiral ganglion that are going to receive input from the inner hair cells and send the axons into the ipsilateral cochlear nucleus in the rostral medulla. Here. The axons of the cochlear nucleus are the neurons here are going to ascend to the mid pons. Here's the mid pons where the fibers are going to decussate and continue their trip towards the Talamus. So it's important to notice that some fibers are going to make synapses in the superior body complex, in the mid pons. Some other fibers are going to You have inputs from one ear, you have fibers that are going deting here at the mid pons, and there are structures there that are going to have information coming from both ears. By comparing the different subtle difference and intensity and timing of the input from both ears, that's going to help us for sound localization. The circuitry for that sound localization is located here in the superior body complex in the mid pot. The fibers are going to ascend through the lateral lemniscus. After the decussation in the midpons, this information is going to reach the inferior colliculus. From the inferior colliculus, there are going to be projections to the medial genicular body, the MGP of the talus, bilaterally, and this is going to be the auditory talus. From there, the talaic neurons are going to project to the auditory cortex in the temporal lobe. Besides this ascending pathway, there is also olivocochlear descending pathways, and there are two major subsystems. The medial component is made of melanated axons of the medial superior olive projecting to the cochlear outer hair cells. There is also a lateral component made up of myelinated axons of neurons of the lateral superior olive projecting to the cochlear nerve fiber near the afference with the cochlear inner hair cell. The outer hair cells are going to receive myelinated feedback, fast feedback, the inner hair cells, that feedback signals lower traveling related axis. Let's now describe the basic physiology of the nucleo central auditory as well as of the primary auditory cortex. We thought that the cochlea mechanically is going to divide the different components, low frequencies and high frequencies depending on which part of the cochlea is going to resonate. And that tonotopy is actually preserved also in the primary auditory cortex in the temporal lobe. The more rostral part of the auditory cortex is going to represent the lower frequencies, and the more caudal part is going to represent higher frequencies. Here, this is a very unique example of recordings of single cortical neurons in a human person. As you are aware, there are several types of epilepsy that originate in the temporal lobe. People when the surgeons want to find the location of the ppi that is originating that epilepsy, sometimes they implant electrodes into the temporal lobe. Some of those electrodes are going to be in the auditory cortex. These researchers were able to record cortical neurons in humans. What was noticeable is they play different frequencies. What you can see is the exquisite frequency tuning. These neuron doesn't respond to 900 hertz doesn't respond to 1,130, but it only responds to 1,110 hertz. There's a very high precision in the human auditory cortex for frequency representations. Now we will look at the different type of conductive versus sensorineural hearing loss, and we'll provide some examples of how audition can be affected in different conditions and how the auditory function is tested by clinicians. Hearing loss is divided generally by it can be conductive, which will be anything that blocks the conduction of sound from the external and middle ear. This is a mechanical problem that is often correctable. Sensorineural, which involves the inner ear cochlea or the auditory nerve and is usually caused by hair cell pathology. Now, in general, there's no treatment, but in recent years, for this sensorineural, cochlear implant have been used in this. Cochlear implant is an array of electrodes is implanted in the cochlea, and there is an external microphone, an electronic device converts the sound captured by the microphone into divided according to the frequency, depending on the location on the cochlea and converts that into electrical impulse. It bypasses the middle ear and bypasses the transduction in the cochlea, directly is going to stimulate the cochlear nerve. But several of them have been used, and technology is improving, increasing the density of electrodes and so. Now, there's also mixed loss, which is a combination of sensory neural and conductive hearing loss. What are the causes of conductive hearing loss? It could be congenital atresia or malformation of the external auditory canal. In this, for example, in this example, the external ear is probably formed, but this person, it's a ear canals it's blocked. Congenitally. It's unilateral in the minority of cases and children with unilateral otitis typically have normal speech as long as the other ear is unaffected. There's also the possibility that this could be also associated with malformation of the occipital bone, but other surgical treatments available. There's a possibility that there's an increased width of delay language

development due to the functional hearing. A identification is Another cause of conductive hearing loss would be scan cell carcinoma that blocks the ear canal here is an otoscopic image. You can see here the tumor. Here in a cat scan, you can see that the ear canal is completely blocked. There will be a hearing loss, conductive hearing loss in this ear. Another cause of conductive hearing loss could be chin tube dysfunction. You have an infection, viral, upper respiratory or sects. The taken tube can get blocked. Tin tube provides the drainage of the middle ear. Without if that drainage is blocked, then liquid can accumulate. In the middle ear, and if there is liquid accumulation, the vibrations transmitted to the ossicles will be affected. Also the middle ear barotrauma could also cause this chamber to fill with theirs fluid or blood, which also is going to affect hear. Other causes of conductive hearing loss include osteoma, malformation of the ossicles, otosclerosis, benign polyp and castma or cerumen. Sensorineural loss refers to hearing loss in the CoCI and above. It could be congenital. It can be hereditary autosomal dominant or or resive, like char syndrome, or it could be no hereditary caused by infection, recreational drug use, alcohol, or and retinoid acid. Precipicss is the age related hearing loss, especially high frequencies. Remember there's only a discrete amount of inner hair cells and as they die as we age, we lose hearing specifically in the high frequencies. There's also meningitis and methyls can destroy inner hair cells and cause deafness. Very important noise exposure. It also can damage the cocar structures. Also for the high frequencies. To more, most commonly these neuromas could also cause could affect the cochlear nerve and produce hearing loss. Another cause could be alcali maal formation where the tonsil of the cebolon impinge on renal nerve number eight producing hearin loss. Also there's ceral medications, antibiotics, and chemotherapeutic, hydrose aspirin, antimalarial agents that could also lead to hearin loss. Azure syndrome is a editory form of hearing a vision loss. The most serious type is type one. From bird, there is profound deafness on both ears, and vision is also affected, decreased vision before each ten and vestibular function, the balance are also problems with it since birth. The type two and type three are less severe. Asure syndrome can be produced by several mutations that are going to be affecting the tiplings from the stereo cilia. There could be several genes like my07 A, sh1c, CD 23, PCH D 15 and SANs These genes create this wonderful mechanical transduction system. As you can see, the silks are very delicate, and these genes this molecular machinery is very unique. There's not much redundancy. You have a mutation, let's say of caring 23, this template is going to affect it, it's going to be affected, and the MED channel will not open when the ster cilia are vibrating due to the vibrations in the coche These genes play a role in the development and maintenance of the stereocilia for Azure syndrome, type one. Second type of Hearing sensory neural hearing loss is the epilepsia ataxia, sensory neural deafness and tubulopaty, E syndrome, EAST, which is produced by mutation in K N ten, which is this gene codes for the e 4.1 potassium channel. As you remember, the regulation of potassium is very important for normal hearing. And also for in the kidney and in the brain that with mutations in the Kear 4.1 potassium channel, we are going to have the epilepsy when it's affecting the brain and a taxi as well. Sensural deafness because it's roll in the inner ear, and the tubopaty, because of the role in the kidney. Here, for this lecture, we'll focus in on what happens in the hair cell. Remember the endof has to have high potassium concentrations to go introu the sterclia. Kar 4.1 participates in the generation and maintenance of high potassium concentrations in the endof Without high potassium concentrations, the inner hair cells will not depolarize. This is a recessive genetic disorder. You can see here that in this family pedigree, it only appear at the end on these patients. There's also this hearing loss in this Tenets is most commonly described as a high pitch continuous stone, is caused by hyperactivity of the cochlear amplification produced by the outer hair cells, and frequency frequently, this is the first sign of lesion that is causing he los, especially sensory neural. Another cause for sensory neural healing loss is a vestibular snoma. This is a slow growing tumor of the vestibular cochlear nerve. Here you can see an image of it. This benign tumor, but it can cause damage to surrounding structures as it grows, including the facial nerve. Remember, and then this is something to watch during your neur anatomy lab, you should see that the cochlear nerve and the facial nerve run very close to each other. Tumor that is growing in the in the vestibular cochlear nerve will also cause pressure into the facial nerve, and there will be some facial nerve associated pathologies. The symptoms of the vestibular anoma are vertical, healing loss and tinitis. It's usually diagnosed using an MRI of the brain and the treatment is surgical. But given its location, the possibility of the complication could include healing loss and paralysis of the facial muscles. The ear and auditory testing could be done through autoscopic exam. Pure tones are played to see in which part of the cochlea might be affected. There's also testing for speech comprehension. There are tests of the middle ear to measure the tympanometry and the acoustic reflect testing. We can also directly measure auditory brainstem responses. This is, for example, in little babies, where we cannot estimate the hear sound. However, we can still measure the electrical evoke potential in the brainstem. We can also directly measure the acoustic emission. When the efferent copies or efferent signals cause the basilar membrane,

the membrane to vibrate, then that can be heard, and there's also the weather and rn. For the ring test, these tests are designed to determine if it's a hearing loss in an ear is sensory neural or it's conductive. For the ring test, will have a tuning fork, which is placed against the mastoid bone. So in that case, as this tuning fork is pressed to the tough the mastoid bod. There's going to be conduction through the ear canal, but through the bone. On the the amplitude produced by the tu form will be reduced. In time at some point, the subject will not hear any sound anymore. At that point, the tuning fork is moved away and close to the hear. Now we are not using bone conduction. We are using air conduction, and then because air conduction is more efficient than bone conduction, then the subject should report that the sound has restarted again. If it does not restart, this would indicate conductive hearing loss in that ear. For the weather test, the tuning fork is located here on the top of the head. And the subject should indicate that and this person has some complaint of hearing loss. I should say that the tuning fork is localized to the affected ear. This would mean that the bone conduction is able to create vibrations in the cochlea of the affected ear, so the cochlea is intact, and this person has conductive hearing loss. However, if the sound is localized to the non affected ear, then that means that there is a sensor sensory neural hearing loss in that. So the anatomy of the auditory system includes the ear, outer, middle, and inner, as well as diverse central nuclei of the brainstem and thalamus and finally the neocortex. Audition emerged from mechanotransduction and synaptic transmission along the auditory pathway, and this function of mechanotransduction or synaptic transmission probably causes hearing. And thank you very much for your attention.