

7. B. M. Altura and B. T. Altura, *Fed. Proc. Fed. Am. Soc. Exp. Biol.* **36**, 1853 (1977); A. W. Cowley, E. Menos, A. C. Guyton, *Circ. Res.* **34**, 505 (1974); E. Menos, R. H. Cox, L. H. Peterson, *Am. J. Physiol.* **234**, H167 (1981); J. P. Montani, J. F. Liard, J. Schoun, J. Mohring, *Circ. Res.* **47**, 346 (1980).
8. Plasma AVP was measured by radioimmunoassay [J. D. Fernstrom, L. A. Fisher, B. M. Cusak, M. A. Gillis, *Endocrinology* **106**, 243 (1980)] after its extraction from plasma with Amberlite CG-50 resin by a modification of a procedure from C. Merkelbach, P. Czernichow, R. C. Gaillard, and M. B. Vallotton [*Acta Endocrinol.* **80**, 453 (1975)].
9. W. W. Blessing, J. P. Chalmers, P. R. C. Howe, *J. Comp. Neurol.* **179**, 407 (1978). Microinjection sites were located 1 mm caudal to the rostral border of the area postrema, 3 mm from the midline, and 3 mm ventral to the dorsal surface of the medulla. Studies of catecholamine fluorescence confirmed that a concentration of A1 neurons is found at these coordinates. Kainic acid (Sigma) was dissolved in saline and the injections (0.25 μ l) were made through glass capillary micropipettes held in micromanipulators and viewed through a Zeiss operating microscope. Each injection took approximately 2 seconds.
10. M. Kumada, R. A. L. Dampney, D. J. Reis, *Brain Res.* **119**, 305 (1977).
11. H. Shinozaki and S. Konishi, *ibid.* **24**, 368 (1970); J. V. Nadler, *Life Sci.* **24**, 289 (1979); D. J. Reis, W. T. Talman, M. Perrone, N. Doba, M. Kumada, in *Arterial Baroreceptors and Hypertension*, P. Sleight, Ed. (Oxford Univ. Press, Oxford, 1980), p. 221; W. T. Talman, M. H. Perrone, D. J. Reis, *Science* **209**, 813 (1980).
12. The AVP antagonist used in these studies was 1-(β -mercapto- β -cyclopentamethylene propionic acid)-2-(*O*-methyl)tyrosine arginine vasopressin and was administered intravenously in a dose of 10 μ g/kg. M. Kruszynski, B. Lammek, M. Manning, J. Seto, J. Halder, W. H. Sawyer, *J. Med. Chem.* **23**, 364 (1980).
13. Monopolar stainless steel electrodes, insulated to within 0.3 mm of the tip, were placed bilaterally in the A1 area 1 mm caudal to the rostral border of the area postrema. Lesions were made with anodal direct current (1 to 2 mA for 5 to 10 seconds) delivered from a Grass S88 stimulator equipped with a PSIU6 constant-current stimulus isolation unit.
14. Peripheral chemoreceptor stimulation by hypoxemia was not the cause of the increases in MAP and AVP, since blood gas analysis demonstrated that arterial O₂ pressure remained normal during the period when AVP and MAP commenced to increase above control levels. This agrees with the 1981 results of Blessing and colleagues (2).
15. B. A. Cross and R. E. Dyball, in *Handbook of Physiology*, section 7, *Endocrinology* (American Physiological Society, Washington, D.C., 1980), vol. 4, p. 269.
16. I. A. Reid, P. L. Nolan, J. A. Wolf, L. C. Keil, *Endocrinology* **104**, 1403 (1979); T. Kimura, L. Share, B. C. Wang, J. T. Crofton, *ibid.* **108**, 1829 (1981); W. E. Armstrong, C. D. Sladek, J. R. Sladek, Jr., *ibid.*, in press.
17. E. R. Kuhn, *Neuroendocrinology* **16**, 225 (1974); K. P. Bhargava, V. K. Kulshreshtha, V. P. Srivastava, *Br. J. Pharmacol.* **60**, 77 (1977); W. E. Hoffman, M. I. Phillips, P. Schmid, *Neuropharmacology* **16**, 563 (1977); T. R. Miller *et al.*, *J. Clin. Invest.* **64**, 1599 (1979).
18. J. Mohring, B. Mohring, M. Petri, D. Haack, *Am. J. Physiol.* **232**, F260 (1977); *Circ. Res.* **42**, 17 (1978); J. Mohring, J. Kintz, J. Schoun, *J. Cardiovasc. Pharmacol.* **1**, 593 (1979); J. T. Crofton, L. Share, R. F. Shade, C. Allen, D. Tarnowski, *Am. J. Physiol.* **235**, H361 (1978); J. T. Crofton, L. Share, R. E. Shade, W. J. Lee-kwon, M. Manning, W. H. Sawyer, *Hypertension* **1**, 31 (1979).
19. A. W. Cowley, Jr., W. C. Cushman, E. W. Quillen, Jr., M. D. Skelton, H. G. Langford, *Hypertension* **3** (Suppl. 1), 1-93 (1981); T. E. Lohmeier, M. J. Smith, A. W. Cowley, Jr., R. D. Manning, A. C. Guyton, *Hypertension* **3**, 416 (1981); P. L. Padfield, J. J. Brown, A. F. Lever, J. J. Morton, J. I. S. Robertson, *N. Engl. J. Med.* **304**, 1067 (1981).
20. H. Cushing, *Am. J. Med. Sci.* **125**, 1017 (1903); S. J. Weisman, *Surgery* **6**, 722 (1939); R. L. Simmons, A. M. Martin, Jr., C. A. Heisterkamp, T. B. Ducker, *Ann. Surg.* **170**, 39 (1969).
21. We thank J. D. Fernstrom for contributing the AVP antibody and M. Manning for the AVP antagonist. W.W.B. is the John Halliday overseas fellow of the Life Insurance Medical Research Fund of Australia and New Zealand. Supported by NIH grant HL 1894.

1 March 1982; revised 24 May 1982

Localization of an Elevated Sound Source by the Green Tree Frog

Abstract. Female green tree frogs readily localized an elevated sound source. Prior to hopping on sticks that formed a three-dimensional grid, females usually scanned laterally with their heads elevated after first scanning in the normal, nonelevated fashion. Unlike mammals and owls, frogs lack external anatomical features specialized for resolving vertical and horizontal components of source direction.

Although acoustic orientation has been studied in many animals, the vast majority of this research has considered only the problem of sound source localization in the horizontal plane. The ability of animals to resolve the elevation of a sound source has been established only in owls, bats, monkeys, and humans (1).

This is surprising since so many species with elaborate acoustic communication systems are arboreal or semiarboreal. Not only is sound localization in the vertical plane important for social interactions, but also it may be crucial for prey location and predator avoidance. The detection of source elevation is thought to depend on special anatomical features: pinnae in mammals and the asymmetrical (vertical) placement of the ears in owls. In this report we demonstrate that green tree frogs (*Hyla cinerea*), which lack external anatomical features specialized for acoustic orientation, readily localize an elevated sound source.

Gravid female tree frogs were collected near Savannah, Georgia, and tested within 24 hours. A three-dimensional grid of small aluminum sticks (Fig. 1) was constructed outdoors at the Oatland Island Educational Center. We suspended two identical speakers (Arso 2-inch) immediately behind the grid and isolated from contact with the grid and aluminum sticks. One speaker was about 5 cm above the ground and the second speaker about 1 m above the ground, directly over the other speaker. We broadcast synthetic mating calls [0.9 + 2.7 + 3.0 kHz (2)] from one or the other of the speakers, and we released females individually from a point on the ground about 1 m from the side of the grid opposite the speaker suspension plane. Experiments took place at night, and we used a dim flashlight to observe the positions and orientation movements of the frogs during phonotactic approaches to within 15 cm of a speaker.

Even before starting its approach, a frog typically made lateral scanning movements with its jaw parallel to the ground or slightly elevated. These scanning movements were observed throughout an animal's phonotactic approach to the speaker (2). Especially when the active speaker was elevated, the frog often repeated these lateral scanning movements after lifting its head. During a few approaches, an animal elevated and lowered its head without lateral scanning. These movements usually occurred when the animal was perched on

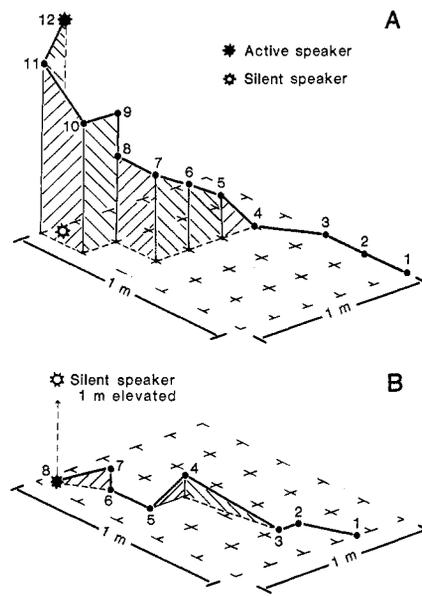


Fig. 1. Diagrams of the grid over which female tree frogs move during approaches to a speaker broadcasting synthetic mating calls. To provide for vertical movements of the animals, thin aluminum stakes (diameter, 10 mm; height, 1 m) were arranged on the grid area (1 m by 1 m); each stake position is indicated by a fine cross or other junction of fine lines in the figure. The grid of vertical 1-m stakes was stabilized by a series of crossbars at 25, 50, and 75 cm. These crossbars also served as reference points for estimating the vertical positions of the animals. Thus a spatial arrangement of many possible positions within 1 m³ was provided. The speaker suspension plane (vertical) is indicated by the dashed line. The speaker and its support system were physically isolated from the grid so that there were no vibrational cues. (A) Diagram of a typical approach when the elevated speaker was active. The course of the frog is indicated by the heavy line, the numbers representing the frog's positions (1 to 12). The lengths of vertical lines below a number indicate the elevations to which the frog jumped or climbed at each position. (B) Diagram of a typical approach when the ground-level speaker was active, the numbers representing the frog's positions (1 to 8).

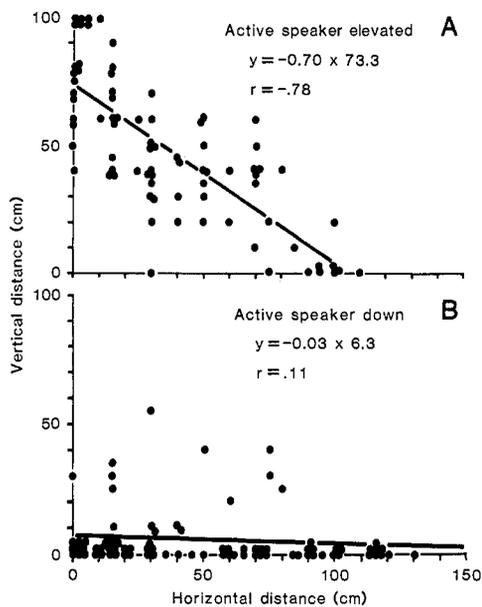


Fig. 2. Vertical distance (elevation) above the grid as a function of horizontal distance to the speaker suspension plane (A) when the active speaker was elevated, and (B) when the active speaker was near ground level. All of the data from 19 approaches are included: nine approaches were made when calls were broadcast from the elevated speaker and ten approaches were made when calls were emitted by the ground-level speaker.

one of the horizontal crossbars that stabilized the grid. In nearly every approach, the frog jumped onto one or more sticks, even when the speaker was not elevated. When on a stick, the animal's initial lateral scanning movements were usually similar to those made when on the ground; that is, it aligned its jaw parallel to the ground even if it had to twist its head to do so. However, sometimes the head was tilted slightly ($< 45^\circ$) from the horizontal plane. Scanning movements of the tree frog, which occurred in every approach we observed, were one of the most prominent features of its sound localization behavior. By contrast, the barn owl can ascertain both the azimuth and elevation of a sound source even without scanning (3).

When the elevated speaker was active, the frog always continued to approach the elevated speaker by hopping from stick to stick, and it often climbed upward on one or more sticks. When the ground-level speaker was active, the frog usually hopped back to the ground before touching the speaker. Typical approaches are diagrammed in Fig. 1, and the vertical positions of eight animals during 19 approaches are plotted as a function of horizontal distance from the speaker suspension plane in Fig. 2. Nine approaches took place when the sound came from the elevated speaker, and ten approaches when the sound came from the ground-level speaker. The slope of

the linear regression of vertical position on horizontal distance was -0.70 when the elevated speaker was active; the slope was -0.03 when the ground-level speaker was active. When the sound was emitted from the elevated speaker, the animals had usually (eight of nine approaches) already begun to climb on a stick (vertical position > 0) at a horizontal distance of 75 to 90 cm from the speaker suspension plane. The elevation of the speaker at these distances was about 45° to 54° . Sometimes a frog hopped close (within about 20 cm) to the position (plane) from which the elevated speaker was suspended but found itself still 30 to 60 cm below the speaker. The animal almost invariably hopped to a position farther away (horizontally) and then reoriented and began another approach.

Our study is the first to provide behavioral evidence concerning the localization of an elevated sound source in an animal lacking specialized external anatomical features. As we show in detail (2, 4), this ability may be based on a variable sound pressure gradient system. It is well established that insects use a pressure gradient system for sound localization, and it has recently been suggested that small birds also use such a mechanism (5). We believe that these animals should also have the ability to localize elevated sounds. As in the tree frog, these soniferous animals must often face

the task of distinguishing between elevated and nonelevated mates and reproductive competitors.

H. CARL GERHARDT

Division of Biological Science,
University of Missouri,
Columbia 65211

JÜRGEN RHEINLAENDER

Lehrstuhl für Allgemeine Zoologie,
Ruhr-Universität,
Bochum, Federal Republic of Germany

References and Notes

1. C. H. Brown, T. Schessler, D. Moody, W. Stebbins, *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.*, in press; G. F. Kuhn, *ibid.* **65**, 58 (1979); R. A. Butler, *J. Aud. Res.* **3**, 230 (1969); A. D. Grinnell, *J. Physiol. (London)* **167**, 97 (1963); E. I. Knudsen, G. G. Blasdel, M. Konishi, *J. Comp. Physiol.* **133**, 1 (1979); E. A. G. Shaw, in *Handbook of Sensory Physiology*, vol. 5, *Auditory System*, W. D. Keidel and W. D. Neff, Eds. (Springer Verlag, Berlin, 1974).
2. J. Rheinlaender, H. C. Gerhardt, D. D. Yager, R. R. Capranica, *J. Comp. Physiol.* **133**, 247 (1979).
3. W. I. Knudsen, G. G. Blasdel, M. Konishi, *ibid.* **133**, 1 (1979).
4. J. Rheinlaender, W. Walkowiak, H. C. Gerhardt, *Naturwissenschaften* **68**, 430 (1981). A pressure gradient system derives its directional sensitivity from an interaction of sound waves arriving on opposite sides of a receiver (the frog's tympanic membrane) via different pathways (directly on the external surface and from the contralateral ear via the Eustachian tubes and mouth cavity). The amplitude of the vibration of the tympanum depends on the relative pressure and phase of the two sound waves; these properties, especially the relative phase, depend on the difference in the pathlength of the two waves. Because of the geometry of the frog's head and ear placement, the difference in the length of the path not only changes when a sound source is rotated around the receiver but also depends on source elevation. There is less change in the pathlength difference per degree of horizontal rotation when the sound source is elevated (or lowered) than when the source is aligned in the same horizontal plane as the animal (the line of its jaw). We have observed systematic changes in neural activity in monaural preparations (*H. cinerea*) that reflect this pattern and indicate that the frog's ear is sensitive to both the azimuth and elevation of a sound source. We suggest, for example, that when the sound source is elevated, the usual lateral scanning of about 30° right or left with the frog's jaws more or less parallel to the ground would result in a smaller change in neural activity than when the source is located near the ground. The animal could then crudely estimate the elevation of the source by repeating the same lateral scanning with its head elevated. When its head is oriented toward the elevated source, the original plane of analysis (along the jaw, for example) is restored, and the same change in neural activity per degree of lateral scanning would occur.
5. K. G. Hill and G. S. Boyan, *J. Comp. Physiol.* **121**, 79 (1977); A. Michelsen, *Am. Sci.* **167**, 696 (1979); B. Lewis and R. Coles, *Trends Neurosci.* (May 1980), p. 102.
6. We thank U. Rheinlaender and W. Walkowiak for field assistance, T. Cope for use of facilities, and M. Konishi for comments on the manuscript. Supported by National Science Foundation (BNS 7300795), National Institutes of Health (NS 00217), and Research Council (University of Missouri) grants to H.C.G. and by Sonderforschungsbereich ("Bionach 114") and Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (Rh 15/1-1) grants to J.R.

28 August 1981; revised 19 March 1982