quiescent periods lasting 10.5 seconds (S.D., 5.8) on the average.

The ratio of type \( p \) to type \( i \) cells increased progressively following removal of drinking water. In addition, there was a tendency in type \( p \) cells for peak firing frequency within bursts and for burst duration (relative to the silent period) to increase during continuing water deprivation. In animals whose plasma osmolarity was higher than 310 milliosmols per kilogram, a firing pattern was encountered in which no periods of cell inactivity occurred, although periodic fluctuations of firing were present occasionally. The relative proportion of these continuously discharging cells (type \( c \), mean = 7.80 per second; S.D., 4.11; \( N = 26 \)) increased with further rises in plasma osmolarity (Table 1); by about the same time, the reduction in firing probability which follows antidiromic invasion of supraoptic neurons (5) is no longer demonstrable (6).

The increase in the firing rate of supraoptic neurons observed during chronic water deprivation in monkeys accords well with current views on action potential–secretion coupling in the posterior pituitary lobe (7). Moreover, some evidence that a switch from type \( i \) to type \( p \) firing is associated with a greater excitatory drive is to be found in the observation that the proportion of periodically discharging neuroendocrine cells increases with increasing plasma osmolarity (Table 1). This contention gains support from the finding that acute stimulation of hypothalamic neuroendocrine cells by suckling (I) or by a sudden rise in plasma osmotic pressure (8) leads to a biphasic change in membrane excitability characterized by an excitation-inhibition sequence.

There is recent evidence to suggest that the relation between mean firing frequency and amount of hormone released per impulse is not linear. From data on the milk-ejection reflex in the rat, Lincoln (9) has calculated that each impulse in a 30-per-second train releases approximately 3 fg of oxytocin; in contrast, each impulse releases 100 to 1000 times less hormone when the same neuroendocrine cells fire at their resting rate of 1 to 2 per second. Electrical stimulation of the supraoptic–neurohypophyseal tract in anesthetized rats (I) and rabbits (10) is essentially ineffective below about 15 per second, and increases sharply at higher frequencies of stimulation; moreover, it has been shown that rat posterior pituitary lobes kept in vitro release more hormone per impulse the shorter the interval between action potentials (11). Since short interspike intervals occur more frequently in type \( p \) than in type \( i \) cells, regardless of their average frequency, it is tempting to speculate that type \( i \) cells contribute little, if at all, to hormone secretion from the posterior lobe, whereas type \( p \) and type \( c \) cells are those actively engaged in secretion at the time of recording. Data from Table I suggest that, while progressive recruitment of neuroendocrine cells into the actively secreting state occurs when the plasma osmolarity increases to approximately 320 milliosmols per kilogram, additional output of antidiuretic hormone from the posterior pituitary lobe with further increases in osmolarity can be obtained by temporal summation.

A working hypothesis may be that type \( p \) cells found in control animals in this and in other studies of mammalian hypothalamic neuroendocrine cells (12) have a low threshold for osmotic and possibly other types of activation.

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Cerebral Dominance in Musicians and Nonmusicians

Abstract. Musically experienced listeners recognize simple melodies better in the right ear than the left, while the reverse is true for naïve listeners. Hence, contrary to previous reports, music perception supports the hypothesis that the left hemisphere is dominant for analytic processing and the right hemisphere for holistic processing.

Clinical and experimental evidence suggests that the left hemisphere of the brain is specialized for speech activity and the right hemisphere is specialized for many nonlinguistic functions. Jackson (1) related the hemisphere linguistic differences to differences in cognitive activity, suggesting that the left hemisphere is specialized for analytical organization, while the right hemisphere is adapted for direct associations among stimuli and responses. Modern researchers have substantially generalized this differentiation to encompass a wide range of behaviors in normal subjects (2, 3).

Experimental (4–6) and clinical (7, 8) investigators of hemispheric asymmetry agree to appear on the fundamental nature of the processing differences between the two sides of the brain: the left hemisphere is specialized for propositional, analytic, and serial processing of incoming information, while the right hemisphere is more adapted for the perception of appositional, holistic, and synthetic relations.

Up to now, the perception of music has been a well-documented exception to this differentiation. Melodies are composed of an ordered series of pitches, and hence should be processed by the left hemisphere rather than the right. Yet the recognition of simple melodies has been reported to be better in the left ear than the right (9, 10). This finding is prima facie evidence against the functional differentiation of the hemispheres proposed by Jackson; rather, it seems to support the view that the hemispheres are special-

References and Notes

4. Cells which were antidromically invaded but were not active spontaneously were not studied in any detail.
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ized according to stimulus-response modality, with speech in the left, vision and music in the right, and so forth (10, 11). In this report we present evidence that such conclusions are simplistic since they do not consider the different kinds of processing strategies that listeners use as a function of their musical experience (12).

Psychological and musico logical analysis of processing strategies resolves the difficulty for a general theory of hemispheric differentiation posed by music perception. It has long been recognized that the perception of melodies can be a gestalt phenomenon. That is, the fact that a melody is composed of a series of isolated tones is not relevant for naive listeners—rather, they focus on the overall melodic contour (13). The view that musically experienced listeners have learned to perceive a melody as an articulated set of relations among components rather than as a whole is suggested directly by Werner (14, p. 54): "In advanced musical apprehension a melody is understood to be made up of single tonal motifs and tones which are distinct elements of the whole construction." This is consistent with Meyer's (15) view that recognition of "meaning" in music is a function not only of perception of whole melodic forms but also of concurrent appreciation of the way in which the analyzable components of the whole forms are combined. If a melody is normally treated as a gestalt by musically naive listeners, then the functional account of the difference between the two hemispheres predicts that melodies will be processed predominantly in the right hemisphere for such subjects. It is significant that the one investigator who failed to find a superiority of the left ear for melody recognition used college musicians as subjects (16); the subjects in other studies were musically naive (or unclassified).

If music perception is dominant in the right hemisphere only insofar as musical form is treated holistically by naive listeners, then the generalization of Jackson's proposals about the differential functioning of the two hemispheres can be maintained. To establish this we conducted a study with subjects of varied levels of musical sophistication that required them to attend to both the internal structure of a tone sequence and its overall melodic contour.

We found that musically sophisticated listeners could accurately recognize isolated excerpts from a tone sequence, whereas musically naive listeners could not. However, musically naive people could recognize the entire tone sequences, and did so better when the stimuli were presented in the left ear; musically experienced people recognized the entire sequence better in the right ear. This is the first demonstration of the superiority of the right ear for music and shows that it depends on the listener's being experienced; it explains the previously reported superiority of the left ear as being due to the use of musically naive subjects, who treat simple melodies as unanalyzed wholes. It is also the first report of ear differences for melodies with monaural stimulation.

We recruited two groups of right-handed subjects (17) 15 to 30 years old from the New York area; 14 were musically naive listeners, who had less than 3 years of music lessons at least 5 years before the study; 22 were musically experienced (but nonprofessional) listeners, who had at least 4 years of music lessons and were currently playing or singing; each group of subjects was balanced for sex.

The listener's task is outlined in Fig. 1. The two-note excerpt recognition task provided a measure of whether the listener could analyze the internal structure of a melody. The sequence recognition task provided a measure of the listener's ability to discriminate the entire configuration of the tone sequence. Each listener responded to a set of 36 tonal melodies ranging in length from 12 to 18 notes, and a parallel set of materials in which the tone sequences were a rearrangement of the notes in each melody so that the melodic line was disrupted somewhat. A well-tempered ⅓-octave scale was used (starting from the note C with a frequency of 256 hertz). Each tone in a melodic sequence was exactly 300 msec long, and was equal in intensity to the other tones. Two seconds after each stimulus melody there was a two-note excerpt; three-fourths of the excerpts were drawn from the stimulus sequence, one-fourth were not. One-fourth of the melodies reoccurred as later stimuli—as the next stimulus, two stimuli later, or three stimuli later.

Subjects were asked to listen to each stimulus sequence, to write down whether the following two-note excerpt was in the stimulus sequence, and then to write down whether they had heard the sequence before in the experiment. The stimuli were played over earphones at a comfortable listening level, either all to the right ear or all to the left ear for each subject. One-half of the subjects in each group heard the 36 melodic sequences first, and then the 36 rearranged sequences, with a rest period between the groups. Before each set of materials there was a recorded set of instructions which included four practice stimuli.

The musically experienced subjects discriminated the presence of the two-note excerpts in both ears (see Table 1) [p < .01 across subjects and across stimuli, on scores corrected for guessing (18)]. No significant differences occurred according to whether the sequence was melodic or rearranged. The musically naive subjects did not discriminate the excerpts in either ear.

All groups of subjects successfully discriminated instances when a sequence was a repetition from instances when it was not. However, this discrimination was better in the right ear for experienced listeners (p < .01 across subjects and p < .05 across stimuli) and better in the left ear for inexperienced

Table 1. Percentage correct (18) on recognition of whole stimulus tone sequences and of excerpts from the stimuli. Stimuli were presented monaurally in the recognition paradigm outlined in Fig. 1. Musically naive subjects recognize tone sequences better in the left ear. Musically experienced subjects recognize tone sequences better in the right ear.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative percentage correct (18)</th>
<th>Musically naive subjects</th>
<th>Musically experienced subjects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td>Left ear</td>
<td>Right ear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excerpt recognition</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence recognition</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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listeners ($P < .025$ across subjects and $P < .001$ across stimuli). These differences were numerically consistent for both melodic and rearranged sequences. Most of the differences between naive and experienced listeners can be attributed to the superior performance of the right ear in experienced listeners ($P < .025$ across subjects and $P < .025$ across stimuli); performance in the left ear does not differ significantly between the two groups of subjects.

Confirming the results of previous studies, the musically naive subjects have a left ear superiority for melody recognition. However, the subjects who are musically sophisticated have a right ear superiority. Our interpretation is that musically sophisticated subjects can organize a melodic sequence in terms of the internal relation of its components. This is supported by the fact that only the experienced listeners could accurately recognize the two-note excerpts as part of the complex stimuli. Dominance of the left hemisphere for such analytic functions would explain dominance of the right ear for melody recognition in experienced listeners: as their capacity for musical analysis increases, the left hemisphere becomes increasingly involved in the processing of music. This raises the possibility that being musically sophisticated has real neurological concomitants, permitting the utilization of a different strategy of musical apprehension that calls on left hemisphere functions.

We did not find a significant right ear superiority in excerpt recognition among experienced listeners. This may be due to the overall difficulty of the task and insensitivity of the excerpt recognition as a response measure. Support for this interpretation comes from a more recent study in which we compared the response time for excerpt recognition in boys aged 9 to 13 who sang in a church choir (19) with the response time in musically naive boys. In this study, recognition accuracy did not differ by ear, but response times were faster in the right ear than the left for the choirboys. Furthermore, the relative superiority of the right ear in choirboys compared with other boys of the same age increased progressively with experience in the choir.

In sum, our subjects have demonstrated that it is the kind of processing applied to a musical stimulus that can determine which hemisphere is dominant. This means that music perception is now consistent with the generalization suggested initially by Jackon that the left hemisphere is specialized for internal stimulus analysis and the right hemisphere for holistic processing.

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3. B. Milner, Brain 95, 27 (1972).
10. We follow the clinical criterion that contralateral hemisphere-periphery neurological connections are dominant over ipsilateral connections; that is, the left hemisphere is functionally connected to the right ear, and the right ear is functionally connected to the left ear (J. Kimura, J. Exp. Psychol. 16, 355 (1964)); C. F. Darwin, ibid., 23, 46 (1971); J. Spalding and S. Blumstein, J. Acoust. Soc. Am. 69, 67 (1981). J. Spalding, J. Reid, Neuropsychologia 8, 243 (1970); D. Kimura (10). See also J. Bogen et al., Nature (Lond.) 230, 524 (1971) for clinical evidence for the involvement of right hemisphere functioning in stroke.
11. This modality view is explored by D. Kimura (10), Sci. Am. 229, 70 (March 1973).
12. For a similar differentiation of hemispheric function in vision and hearing, see: J. Levy et al. (5) and B. Milner (5).
16. H. W. Gordon (6). The subjects in this study were probably intermediate between Gordon (6) and Milner and Taylor (10); accordingly, they did not show a consistent left or right ear superiority. We would expect individuals of such a population to be quite large.
18. The formula used was True positives (%) = False positives (%) + True positives (%) - False positives (%)

The results are tested nonparametrically across subjects and stimuli separately for reasons outlined by H. Clark (19). Verb. Learn. Verb. Behav. 12, 4 (1973). In each case, the by-subject test is a Fisher exact test, and the by-stimulus test is a Wilcoxon matched-pairs, signed-ranks, two-tailed test. There were no significant differences between ears in guessing rates by either measure.

19. The 20 choirboys were in the choir of the Cathedral of St. John the Divine in New York City. The choir is of professional quality: the boys sing and rehearse about 14 hours a week. The nonchior, nonmusical boys were drawn from the same school (the Cathedral School) and matched the choirboys in age and school grade (T. Bever, R. Chiarello, L. Kellar, in preparation).
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Competition: A Theory Based on Realistic, General Equations of Population Growth

Abstract. Realistic equations of population growth, separately representing scarcity of renewed material resources and scarcity of fixed resources related to space, show the differential impact of these two factors on competitive coexistence. The equations suggest a general theory of competition covering any number or kind of resources, consumers, and intraspecific and interspecific interactions.

Some limitations of the logistic growth equation are recognized in at least one recent treatment of general competition theory (1), but the most serious defects are neither noted nor corrected. These are: (i) the maximum specific rate of increase is achieved only at zero density and (ii) the maxi-