

The hearing gene *Prestin* reunites echolocating bats

Gang Li*, Jinhong Wang*, Stephen J. Rossiter^{†‡}, Gareth Jones[§], James A. Cotton[†], and Shuyi Zhang^{*†}

*School of Life Science, East China Normal University, Shanghai 200062, China; [†]School of Biological and Chemical Sciences, Queen Mary, University of London, London E1 4NS, United Kingdom; and [§]School of Biological Sciences, University of Bristol, Bristol BS8 1UG, United Kingdom

Edited by Morris Goodman, Wayne State University School of Medicine, Detroit, MI, and approved July 10, 2008 (received for review March 4, 2008)

The remarkable high-frequency sensitivity and selectivity of the mammalian auditory system has been attributed to the evolution of mechanical amplification, in which sound waves are amplified by outer hair cells in the cochlea. This process is driven by the recently discovered protein prestin, encoded by the gene *Prestin*. Echolocating bats use ultrasound for orientation and hunting and possess the highest frequency hearing of all mammals. To test for the involvement of *Prestin* in the evolution of bat echolocation, we sequenced the coding region in echolocating and nonecholocating species. The resulting putative gene tree showed strong support for a monophyletic assemblage of echolocating species, conflicting with the species phylogeny in which echolocators are paraphyletic. We reject the possibilities that this conflict arises from either gene duplication and loss or relaxed selection in nonecholocating fruit bats. Instead, we hypothesize that the putative gene tree reflects convergence at stretches of functional importance. Convergence is supported by the recovery of the species tree from alignments of hydrophobic transmembrane domains, and the putative gene tree from the intra- and extracellular domains. We also found evidence that *Prestin* has undergone Darwinian selection associated with the evolution of specialized constant-frequency echolocation, which is characterized by sharp auditory tuning. Our study of a hearing gene in bats strongly implicates *Prestin* in the evolution of echolocation, and suggests independent evolution of high-frequency hearing in bats. These results highlight the potential problems of extracting phylogenetic signals from functional genes that may be prone to convergence.

evolution | phylogenetics | convergence | cochlea | mammals

Acute and sensitive hearing is important in communication, prey detection, and predator avoidance (1). In mammals, remarkable high-frequency sensitivity and selectivity have been conferred by the evolution of a mechanical sound amplification system involving specialized outer hair cells (OHC) located in the organ of Corti in the cochlea (2, 3). Each OHC is characterized by a bundle of stereocilia, which when stimulated by incoming sound waves triggers a change in the cellular membrane potential that influences cell length by means of contraction and elongation (4–7). This so-called electromotility generates mechanical energy, and the resulting increase in the amplitude of the vibration patterns in the organ of Corti can enhance hearing sensitivity by >100-fold (by 40 dB) (refs 8 and 9, but see ref. 10). The membrane motor protein that drives the somatic amplification of OHCs was recently identified and named prestin (3, 11), a member of the *SLC26* superfamily of anion transporters that is encoded by the gene *Prestin*. The prestin protein comprises 10–12 transmembrane domains linked by intra- and extracellular loops and flanked by cytoplasmic N and C termini (12). Studies of *Prestin*-knockout mice (8, 13) and humans with nonsyndromic deafness (ref. 14, but see ref. 15) have confirmed the importance of *Prestin* for cochlea function and hearing. Yet despite its pivotal role in mammalian auditory amplification, orthologues of *Prestin* have been sequenced in very few species. A phylogeny of *SLC26* genes showed positive selection during the evolution of the *Prestin* gene on the branch leading to the mammals, but it suggested strong purifying selection among the four placental mammal species surveyed (16). This observation suggests that the origin of prestin was a key innovation during the evolution of auditory sensitivity in mammals, and that *Prestin* gene sequence has been largely conserved during the adaptive radiation of mammals.

Among all mammals, sensitivity to the highest frequencies occurs in echolocating cetaceans and bats (17), which use sound for orientation and often for the detection, localization, and classification of prey (18, 19). The processing of echolocation signals begins at the hair cells in the organ of Corti, continues along the auditory nerve, and terminates in the auditory cortex in the brain (1). Prestin seems to be of major importance for hearing high frequencies and for selective hearing, and both of these processes are vital for echolocation. Bats, in particular, show a tremendous diversity in signal design, with calls being shaped not only by phylogeny but also by perceptual constraints imposed by their habitat (20, 21). Bat echolocation calls range in dominant frequency from 11 kHz to 212 kHz (22), although most species emit ultrasonic calls dominated by frequencies between 20 and 60 kHz (23). Recent molecular phylogenies have placed important new perspectives on the evolution of bat echolocation (24, 25). Contrary to earlier views that grouped all bats that produce and transmit echolocation calls in the larynx (i.e., “laryngeal echolocators”), a wealth of recent molecular evidence has shown that laryngeal echolocators are paraphyletic. The resulting new arrangement, which we term the “species tree,” indicates that bats are classified as comprising two major clades, the Yangochiroptera and Yinpterochiroptera, the latter of which includes some laryngeal echolocators and the nonecholocating Old World fruit bats (25, 26). Thus laryngeal echolocation and associated high-frequency hearing has either evolved at least twice during bat evolution or has been lost in fruit bats. These competing scenarios remain contentious and unresolved; whereas a synthesis of molecular and fossil data supports a loss (24, 25), some workers favor multiple origins (27), and others still dispute the paraphyly of echolocating bats (28).

Echolocation calls show both similarities and differences in structure and function among bats in the two main clades. Most members of the Yangochiroptera use relatively brief (<20 ms) signals, the faint echoes of which are processed in the time window before the next call is emitted (e.g., see ref. 29). In contrast, horseshoe bats (Rhinolophidae) and leaf-nosed bats (Hipposideridae) within the Yinpterochiroptera emit relatively long calls dominated by a constant-frequency (CF) component, which are adapted to detect and classify the wing beats of insects (30). These bats are characterized by exceptional frequency selectivity, with enhanced sensitivity to the frequency they emit while resting and reduced sensitivity to frequencies around this (31, 32). This heightened tuning arises from an overrepresentation of the narrow frequency band (auditory fovea) in the cochlea (33) and specializations in the auditory centers in the brain (31). By lowering their

Author contributions: G.L., S.J.R., and S.Z. designed research; G.L. and J.W. performed research; S.Z. contributed new reagents/analytic tools; G.L., S.J.R., and J.A.C. analyzed data; and G.L., S.J.R., G.J., and S.Z. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

Data deposition: The sequences reported in this paper have been deposited in the GenBank database (accession nos. EU914923–EU914937).

[†]To whom correspondence may be addressed. E-mail: syzhang@bio.ecnu.edu.cn or s.j.rossiter@qmul.ac.uk.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/cgi/content/full/0802097105/DCSupplemental.

© 2008 by The National Academy of Sciences of the USA

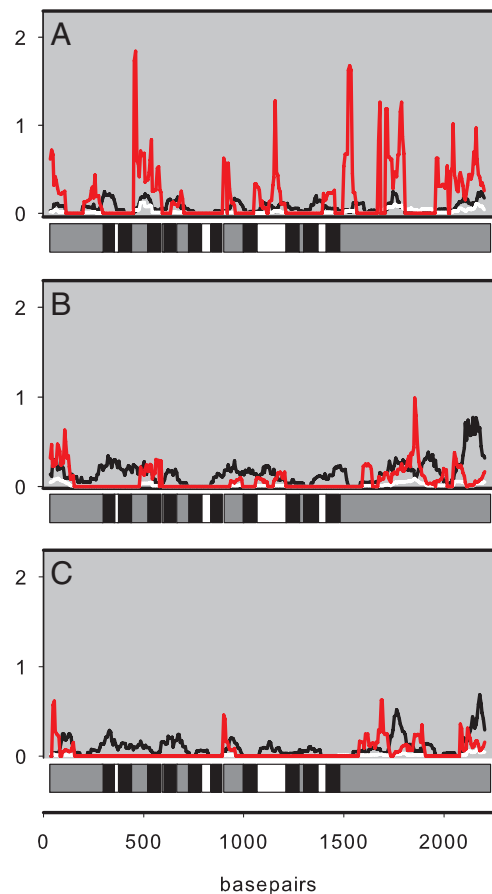


Fig. 2. Sliding windows of Nei-Gojobori estimates of d_S (black), d_N (white), and d_N/d_S (red) along the ancestral branches of CF bats (A), Yangochiroptera (B), and Old World fruit bats (C). Each plot is compared to a gene schematic showing the transmembrane (black), extracellular (white), and intracellular (gray) domains.

from cochlea and brain tissue also revealed that such functional regions were preserved in nearly all cases.

A free ratio test in which d_N/d_S was allowed to vary among branches showed a significantly better fit to the data than a model where d_N/d_S was fixed across the tree (one-ratio model) [log-likelihood ratio test (LRT) = 156.3, $df = 39$, $P < 0.001$]. The free

Table 1. Relative support for gene tree and species tree topologies

Domain	Length of domain	Sum of log-likelihood difference	Mean of log-likelihood difference
N terminus	363	2.1285	0.0059
Transmembrane	750	-0.5306	-0.0007
Extracellular and cytoplasmic loops	474	1.5960	0.0034
α -Helix	186	-1.6305	-0.0088
C terminus	741	6.2428	0.0084
STAS	453	0.9662	0.0021
Charge clusters	33	0.7908	0.0247
Coil regions	120	3.1374	0.0261
All nontransmembrane	1578	9.9674	0.0063

Numbers are the sums and means of site-wise negative log-likelihood scores for the species tree minus the sum of site-wise negative log-likelihood scores for the gene tree, calculated for different domains of the *Prestin* gene. Positive values indicate greater support for the gene tree than the species tree.

ratio test also revealed that the values of d_N/d_S on the CF and Yangochiroptera ancestral branches (0.66 and 0.26, respectively) were an order of magnitude greater than the nonbat branches (see Fig. 3). This result, which is consistent with bursts of positive selection along these branches, was also obtained when the analysis was repeated with the putative gene tree topology.

Branch-specific tests of positive selection undertaken separately for the ancestral branches of the Old World fruit bats, the Yangochiroptera, and CF bats (indicated in Fig. 3) found evidence of positive selection in the CF branch only (see Table S1). For this branch, the null hypothesis, in which ω was fixed at 1 (neutral evolution) gave a log-likelihood value of -11417.23, whereas the equivalent value for the alternative hypothesis in which the ω could exceed 1 (positive selection) was -11411.51. (LRT = 11.44, $df = 1$, $P < 0.001$). This finding supports the hypothesis that positive selection on the *Prestin* gene occurred around the time of origin of these CF bats. Bayes empirical-Bayes (BEB) analysis suggested that of 33 amino acid replacements in the CF ancestral branch, 23 sites were identified as positive selection sites at $P > 0.5$, 14 at $P > 0.8$, and 3 at $P > 0.90$. Repeated branch-site tests in which ancestral sequences were reconstructed from the species topology gave similar results, with positive selection detected only in the ancestral branch of the CF bats, and the same amino acid sites identified as under positive selection (data not shown).

Multivariate analysis of protein polymorphism (MAPP) scores of physicochemical impact were estimated for 33 amino acid variants among CF bats and predicted that 20 of these would have had a large functional effect [mean MAPP score = 17.7 ± 2.1 (SE), range 9.2-37.6] and 13 a small effect (4.4 ± 0.4 , range 2.0-7.00). Ranks of MAPP scores and BEB values were significantly correlated (Pearson coefficient = 0.43, $P = 0.042$) with two of the three sites with highest BEB values (A585I and A720E) also assigned the highest MAPP scores (37.2 and 37.6).

Discussion

Our phylogenetic reconstruction based on the *Prestin* coding sequence was congruent with the superordinal arrangement of mammals of recent molecular phylogenies, recovering both the Euarchochiroptera and Laurasiatheria clades (36, 37). However, arrangements within the bat clade did not conform to expectations on the basis of multigene phylogenies. Instead, phylogenies of bats based on the *Prestin* gene revealed consistent conflict with the established species tree derived from large-scale analyses of both mitochondrial and nuclear genes (24-26). All three methods of phylogenetic reconstruction that we used recovered trees in which the species with laryngeal echolocation formed a monophyletic clade to the exclusion of the nonecholocating Old World fruit bats. This arrangement is particularly intriguing because it resembles the earlier classification of two suborders, Microchiroptera and Megachiroptera, a view that has been largely rejected in recent years in light of overwhelming molecular evidence (25-27, 38).

Conflicts between species and gene trees can arise for several reasons. The possibility that the *Prestin* gene has undergone a past duplication with secondary loss, leading to shared paralogous sequences among echolocators, seems extremely unlikely given the requisite number of independent gene losses. Moreover, a gene duplication event would be expected to result in a single dominant phylogenetic signal in the data with a bimodal distribution of pairwise sequence distances, neither of which were supported by our results. We also found no evidence of gene duplicates from searches of published mammal genome databases, or from amplification using universal primers. Instead, spectral analysis revealed that the data contained two phylogenetic signals, corresponding to the putative gene and species trees, and we were unable to reject either of these as the most likely hypothesis.

An alternative explanation is that the clustering of the echolocating bats is a consequence of accelerated evolution along the fruit bat lineage, resulting from either relaxed or positive selection.

process that also appears to involve prestin (48). Moreover, the OHCs of echolocating bats from both the Yinpterochiroptera (49, 50) and Yangochiroptera (51) show structural characteristics that might be adaptations to high-frequency reception, including cell shape, angle, and stiffness. In particular, OHCs and stereocilia are shorter in bats than in all other mammals (52, 53). Thus while there is no evidence to date that bats use a specialized form of cochlear amplifier (54), our results do support a link between *Prestin* and ultrasonic stimuli. Studies are now needed to determine whether the residue changes in *Prestin* reported in this study are responsible for the morphological characteristics of bat outer hair cells and so modify their electromotility.

Alternatively, positive selection in *Prestin* in the CF bat lineage might relate not to the use of high frequencies *per se* but to the unique cochlear adaptations associated with this form of biosonar that enhance selectivity. The auditory fovea that characterizes CF bats contains nerve cells that are extremely sharply tuned to the dominant frequency emitted at rest (33, 55). Cochlea threshold curves based on distortion-product otoacoustic emissions (DPOAEs) show that Q_{10dB} values in CF bats that use DSC can reach 200–600 at the resting frequency, compared with values of ~20 in other mammals (56). This level of tuning at the resting frequency exceeds the capabilities of a normal cochlear amplifier, and it remains unclear how bats that use Doppler-sensitive echolocation are capable of possessing such narrow frequency filters without showing marked deterioration in temporal acuity through the resonance involved (54). Distortion measurements in the cochlea imply that specializations in cochlear mechanics are responsible for the steep variations in threshold and frequency tuning (56). Therefore, in light of our results, and the observation that *Prestin*-knockout mice lose frequency selectivity (57), it is tempting to propose that the adaptive changes in *Prestin* seen in the ancestral CF branch might relate to the evolution of their exquisite frequency selectivity.

To our knowledge, previous work on prestin in bat hearing has been limited to a single preliminary published study in which *Prestin*-like expression was confirmed in the OHCs of adult mustached bats (*Pteronotus parnelli*) (58). Our study, which sequences a hearing gene in bats, strongly implicates a role for importance and associated modification of prestin in the evolution of echolocation. Moreover, our findings support the scenario that high-frequency hearing, which is intimately linked to echolocation, has evolved more than once in bats. Finally, these results from *Prestin* highlight the dangers of using phylogenies based on sequences of putative functional genes for reconstructing the evolutionary history of taxa, where, like many morphological traits, such genes are likely to be subject to convergent evolution.

Materials and Methods

Taxonomic Coverage, Nucleic Acid Amplification, and Sequencing. We sequenced the *Prestin* coding region in 12 bat species with divergent auditory characteristics. From the Yinpterochiroptera, *Cynopterus sphinx* and *Rousettus leschenaulti* (family Pteropodidae) are Old World fruit bats without laryngeal echolocation or associated specialized high-frequency auditory sensitivity and selectivity, although *Rousettus* does echolocate in caves by tongue clicking (59). *Megaderma spasma* (Megadermatidae) produces brief multiharmonic broadband signals. The horseshoe bats *Rhinolophus ferrumequinum*, *R. luctus*, and *R. pusillus* (family Rhinolophidae) and leaf-nosed bats *Hipposideros armiger*, *H. pratti*, *H. larvatus*, and *Aselliscus stoliczkanus* (Hipposideridae) all possess an auditory fovea and emit constant-frequency calls. From the Yangochiroptera, *Myotis ricketti* (Vespertilionidae) emits brief broadband signals (60) and *Miniopterus fuliginosus* (Miniopteridae) emits brief broadband calls ending in a narrowband tail (unpublished data). Accession numbers of all taxa, including outgroups obtained from direct sequencing and from sequence databases, are given in the *SI Materials and Methods*.

We used RT-PCR to amplify genes from total RNA isolated from brain tissue, as

previously described (35). See *SI Materials and Methods* for details of primers and protocols used. All PCR products were isolated from a 1% agarose gel and cloned using the pGEM-T-easy vector (Promega). Positive clones were cycle sequenced in both directions by using Big Dye Terminator kits (Applied Biosystems) on an ABI 3730 automated DNA sequencer. To check for the existence of cochlea-specific *Prestin* isoforms, we also repeated this method for cochlea tissue obtained from single individuals of *Hipposideros armiger*, *Rousettus leschenaulti*, *Miniopterus fuliginosus*, and *Myotis ricketti*. Our results based on 220 sequenced clones revealed the existence of several cochlea splice variants; however, the most common transcripts were identical to those obtained from brain tissue (see *Table S2*).

Phylogenetic Reconstruction. Nucleotide sequences (2,232 bp) of 22 species were aligned in the software ClustalX (61). After alignments of indels by eye with reference to amino acids translated in MEGA 3.1 (62), the alignment comprised 744 amino acid sites, of which 141 amino acids (~19%) were variable in eutherian mammals (*Fig. S3*). Maximum-likelihood and Bayesian phylogenies were constructed and bootstrap support for particular relationships was estimated. We also estimated phylogenies constraining monophyly of the Yinpterochiroptera (the species tree) and laryngeal echolocating bats (the putative gene tree) and compared support for these topologies by using the approximately unbiased test (63). See *SI Materials and Methods* for details of these analyses. To explore conflicts in the phylogenetic signal, tree reconstruction was repeated separately for synonymous and nonsynonymous sites only and also for different parts of the protein (external loops and termini vs. transmembrane domains), which are considered to differ in functional importance. We determined the number of duplications and losses that would be required to reconcile gene and species topologies by using GENETREE (64) and also assessed whether topological ambiguities arose from multiple phylogenetic signals by using two additional methods. First we undertook a neighbor-net analysis in SPLITSTREE4 (65, 66) to generate a distance-based (uncorrected-p) split network. Second, we converted the sequence alignment to a spectrum of splits and visualized the support and conflict for the major splits by means of a Lento-Plot in SPECTRONET (67). We also identified the relative support for the two topologies for individual sites and domains along the gene by using site-wise likelihood scores.

Molecular Evolution. To characterize variation in the rate of molecular evolution over the *Prestin* gene, we performed sliding-window analyses (window = 20 codons, step = 2 codons) of Nei–Gojobori estimates of synonymous and nonsynonymous substitutions per site (d_s and d_n , respectively) and the d_n/d_s (omega, ω) in SWAAP1.0.2. These analyses were performed on the branches from the common ancestor of all bats to the ancestral nodes of the Old World fruit bats, Yangochiroptera, and CF bats, using ancestral sequences inferred by using the empirical Bayes (EB) method implemented in PAML 3.15 (68). Sliding-window analyses were repeated for both species and putative gene tree topologies. We also tested for positive selection by using PAML. Briefly, we obtained maximum-likelihood estimates of d_s and d_n under a free ratio model in which the d_n/d_s ratio (ω) can vary among branches (69). In addition, given our *a priori* hypothesis that *Prestin* has undergone accelerated evolution associated with the evolution of high-frequency sensitivity and selectivity, we tested for positive selection along the same three ancestral branches as in the sliding-window analysis (labeled in *Fig. 3*). In each case, we applied Test 2 of the branch-site model (70), which compares the likelihood when the focal branch is fixed at $\omega = 1$ (neutral evolution) to when it can exceed one ($\omega > 1$) and is thus under positive selection. (See *ref. 35* for a full description of this approach.) Given ambiguities in the phylogenetic signal, we also repeated the selection tests based on both the species and putative gene tree topologies, and, to confirm the robustness of our results, we repeated the analyses multiple times with different initial ω values. Where tests indicated positive selection, we recorded sites under selection according to high posterior probabilities following Bayes empirical-Bayes (BEB) prediction. To estimate the possible physicochemical impact of amino acid replacements along branches identified as under selection, we used the multivariate analysis of protein polymorphism implemented in MAPP (71). Physicochemical constraints for each site were estimated from an alignment of *Prestin* orthologues of all other mammals and corrected for phylogenetic similarity (see *ref. 35*).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank Bei-Bei He for assistance in the lab and two anonymous referees for helpful comments on the manuscript. This work was funded by grants awarded to S.Z. under the Key Construction Program of the National “985” Project and the “211” Project, a Royal Society Research Fellowship to S.J.R., a Darwin Initiative Grant (14–008) to G.J., and a Research Councils UK Academic Fellowship to J.A.C.

1. Fay RR, Popper AN (2000) Evolution of hearing in vertebrates: The inner ears and processing. *Hear Res* 149:1–10.

2. Dallos P, Fakler B (2002) Prestin, a new type of motor protein. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 3:104–111.

3. Zheng J, et al. (2000) Prestin is the motor protein of cochlear outer hair cells. *Nature* 405:149–155.
4. Ashmore JF (1987) A fast motile response in guinea-pig outer hair-cells: The cellular basis of the cochlear amplifier. *J Physiol* 388:323–347.
5. Santos-Sacchi J (1989) Asymmetry in voltage-dependent movements of isolated outer hair-cells from the organ of Corti. *J Neurosci* 9:2954–2962.
6. Brownell WE, Bader CR, Bertrand D, Deribaupierre Y (1985) Evoked mechanical responses of isolated cochlear outer hair-cells. *Science* 227:194–196.
7. Dallos P, Evans BN, Hallworth R (1991) Nature of the motor element in electrokinetic shape changes of cochlear outer hair-cells. *Nature* 350:155–157.
8. Liberman, et al. (2002) Prestin is required for electromotility of the outer hair cell and for the cochlear amplifier. *Nature* 419:300–304.
9. Santos-Sacchi J (2003) New tunes from Corti's organ: The outer hair cell boogie rules. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* 13:459–468.
10. Ren T, Gillespie PG (2007) A mechanism for active hearing. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* 17:498–503.
11. Belyantseva IA, Adler HJ, Curi R, Frolenkov GI, Kachar B (2000) Expression and localization of prestin and the sugar transporter GLUT-5 during development of electromotility in cochlear outer hair cells. *J Neurosci* 20:RC116:1–5.
12. Navaratnam D, Bai JP, Samaranayake H, Santos-Sacchi J (2005) N-terminal-mediated homomultimerization of prestin, the outer hair cell motor protein. *Biophys J* 89:3345–3352.
13. Wu XD, Gao JG, Guo YK, Zuo J (2004) Hearing threshold elevation precedes hair-cell loss in prestin knockout mice. *Mol Brain Res* 126:30–37.
14. Liu XZ, et al. (2003) Prestin, a cochlear motor protein, is defective in nonsyndromic recessive deafness. *Hum Mol Genet* 12:1155–1162.
15. Tang HY, Xia AP, Oghalai JS, Pereira FA, Alford RL (2005) High frequency of the IVS2-2A>G DNA sequence variation in SLC26A5, encoding the cochlear motor protein prestin, precludes its involvement in hereditary hearing loss. *BMC Med Genet* 6:30.
16. Franchini LF, Elgoyhen AB (2006) Adaptive evolution in mammalian proteins involved in cochlear outer hair cell electromotility. *Mol Phylogenet Evol* 41:622–635.
17. Heffner HE, Heffner RS (2007) in *Handbook of the Senses: Audition*, eds Dallos P, Oertel D, Hoy R (Elsevier, New York), pp 55–60.
18. Griffin, D (1958) *Listening in the Dark* (Yale Univ Press, New Haven, CT).
19. Thomas JT, Moss CF, Vater M, eds (2004) *Advances in the Study of Echolocation in Bats and Dolphins* (Univ of Chicago Press, Chicago).
20. Schnitzler HU, Moss CF, Denzinger A (2003) From spatial orientation to food acquisition in echolocating bats. *Trends Ecol Evol* 18:386–394.
21. Jones G, Teeling EC (2006) The evolution of echolocation in bats. *Trends Ecol Evol* 21:149–156.
22. Fenton MB, Bell GP (1981) Recognition of species of insectivorous bats by their echolocation calls. *J Mammal* 62:233–243.
23. Fenton MB, Portfors CV, Rautenbach IL, Waterman JM (1998) Compromises: Sound frequencies used in echolocation by aerial-feeding bats. *Can J Zool* 76:1174–1182.
24. Springer MS, Teeling EC, Madsen O, Stanhope MJ, de Jong WW (2001) Integrated fossil and molecular data reconstruct bat echolocation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 98:6241–6246.
25. Teeling EC, et al. (2000) Molecular evidence regarding the origin of echolocation and flight in bats. *Nature* 403:188–192.
26. Teeling EC, et al. (2002) Microbat paraphyly and the convergent evolution of a key innovation in Old World rhinolophoid microbats. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 99:1431–1436.
27. Eick GN, Jacobs DS, Matthee CA (2005) A nuclear DNA phylogenetic perspective on the evolution of echolocation and historical biogeography of extant bats (Chiroptera). *Mol Biol Evol* 22:1869–1886.
28. Hutcheon JM, Kirsch JAW, Pettigrew JD (1998) Base-compositional biases and the bat problem. III. The question of microchiropteran monophyly. *Philos Trans R Soc London B Biol Sci* 353:607–617.
29. Holderied MW, von Helversen O (2003) Echolocation range and wingbeat period match in aerial-hawking bats. *Proc R Soc London B Biol Sci* 270:2293–2299.
30. Schnitzler H-U (1987) in *Recent Advances in the Study of Bats*, eds Fenton MB, Racey P, Rayner JMV (Cambridge Univ Press, Cambridge, UK), pp 226–243.
31. Schuller G, Pollak G (1979) Disproportionate frequency representation in the inferior colliculus of Doppler-compensating greater horseshoe bats: Evidence for an acoustic fovea. *J Comp Physiol A Sens Neural Behav Physiol* 132:47–54.
32. Long GR, Schnitzler HU (1975) Behavioral audiograms from the bat, *Rhinolophus ferrumequinum*. *J Comp Physiol A Sens Neural Behav Physiol* 100:211–219.
33. Kössl M, Foeller E, Faulstich M (2004) in *Echolocation in Bats and Dolphins*, eds Thomas JA, Moss CF, Vater M (Univ of Chicago Press, Chicago), pp 104–109.
34. Trappe M, Schnitzler HU (1982) Doppler-shift compensation in insect-catching horseshoe bats. *Naturwissenschaften* 69:193–194.
35. Li G, Wang J, Rossiter SJ, Jones G, Zhang S (2007) Accelerated FoxP2 evolution in echolocating bats. *PLoS ONE* 2:e900.
36. Murphy WJ, et al. (2001) Resolution of the early placental mammal radiation using Bayesian phylogenetics. *Science* 294:2348–2351.
37. Reyes A, et al. (2004) Congruent mammalian trees from mitochondrial and nuclear genes using Bayesian methods. *Mol Biol Evol* 21:397–403.
38. Teeling EC, et al. (2005) A molecular phylogeny for bats illuminates biogeography and the fossil record. *Science* 307:580–584.
39. Bai JP, Navaratnam D, Samaranayake H, Santos-Sacchi J (2006) En block C-terminal charge cluster reversals in prestin (SLC26A5): Effects on voltage-dependent electromechanical activity. *Neurosci Lett* 404:270–275.
40. Zheng J, et al. (2005) The C-terminus of prestin influences nonlinear capacitance and plasma membrane targeting. *J Cell Sci* 118:2987–2996.
41. Shibagaki N, Grossman AR (2006) The role of the STAS domain in the function and biogenesis of a sulfate transporter as probed by random mutagenesis. *J Biol Chem* 281:22964–22973.
42. Jones G (1999) Scaling of echolocation call parameters in bats. *J Exp Biol* 202:3359–3367.
43. Ashmore J, Geleoc GSG (1999) Cochlear function: Hearing in the fast lane. *Curr Biol* 9:R572–R574.
44. Gale JE, Ashmore JF (1997) An intrinsic frequency limit to the cochlear amplifier. *Nature* 389:63–66.
45. Frank G, Hemmert W, Gummer AW (1999) Limiting dynamics of high-frequency electromechanical transduction of outer hair cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 96:4420–4425.
46. Grosh K, Zheng JF, Zou Y, de Boer E, Nuttall AL (2004) High-frequency electromotile responses in the cochlea. *J Acoust Soc Am* 115:2178–2184.
47. Kennedy HJ, Crawford AC, Fettiplace R (2005) Force generation by mammalian hair bundles supports a role in cochlear amplification. *Nature* 433:880–883.
48. Kennedy HJ, Evans MG, Crawford AC, Fettiplace R (2006) Depolarization of cochlear outer hair cells evokes active hair bundle motion by two mechanisms. *J Neurosci* 26:2757–2766.
49. Vater M, Lenoir M (1992) Ultrastructure of the horseshoe bats organ of Corti. 1. Scanning electron-microscopy. *J Comp Neurol* 318:367–379.
50. Vater M, Lenoir M, Pujol R (1992) Ultrastructure of the horseshoe bats organ of Corti. 2. Transmission electron-microscopy. *J Comp Neurol* 318:380–391.
51. Reuter G, et al. (1994) Electromotility of outer hair-cells from the cochlea of the echolocating bat, *Carollia perspicillata*. *J Comp Physiol A Sens Neural Behav Physiol* 175:449–455.
52. Pujol R, Lenoir M, Ladrech S, Tribillac F, Rebillard G (1992) in *Auditory Physiology and Perception*, Advances in Biosciences, eds Cazals Y, Demany L, Horner K (Pergamon, New York), pp 45–52.
53. Yao Q, et al. (2007) Characteristics of echolocating bats' auditory stereocilia length, compared with other mammals. *Sci China Ser C Life Sci* 50:492–496.
54. Vater M, Kossil M (2004) in *Advances in the Study of Echolocation in Bats and Dolphins*, eds Thomas JT, Moss CF, Vater M (Univ of Chicago Press, Chicago), pp 89–99.
55. Vater, M (2000) in *Ontogeny, Functional Ecology, and Evolution of Bats*, eds Adams RA, Pedersen SC (Cambridge Univ Press, Cambridge, UK), pp 137–173.
56. Kössl M, Vater M (1995) in *Hearing by Bats* (Springer, New York), pp 191–234.
57. Cheatham MA, Huynh KH, Gao J, Zuo J, Dallos P (2004) Cochlear function in *Prestin* knockout mice. *J Physiol* 560:821–830.
58. Vater M, Weber T, Knipper M (2002) Prestin-like immunoreactivity in outer hair cells of the mustached bat (*Pteronotus parnellii*). *Acta Otolaryngol Belgica* 56:295.
59. Grinnell AD, Hagiwara S (1972) Studies of auditory neurophysiology in non-echolocating bats, and adaptations for echolocation in one genus, *Rousettus*. *Z Vgl Physiol* 76:82–96.
60. Ma J, et al. (2003) Dietary analysis confirms that Rickett's big-footed bat (*Myotis ricketti*) is a piscivore. *J Zool* 261:245–248.
61. Thompson JD, Gibson TJ, Plewniak F, Jeanmougin F, Higgins DG (1997) The CLUSTALX windows interface: Flexible strategies for multiple sequence alignment aided by quality analysis tools. *Nucleic Acids Res* 25:4876–4882.
62. Kumar S, Tamura K, Nei M (2004) MEGA3: Integrated software for molecular evolutionary genetics analysis and sequence alignment. *Brief Bioinf* 5:150–163.
63. Shimodaira H (2002) An approximately unbiased test of phylogenetic tree selection. *Syst Biol* 51:492–508.
64. Page RDM (1998) GeneTree: Comparing gene and species phylogenies using reconciled trees. *Bioinformatics* 14:819–820.
65. Huson DH (1998) SplitsTree: Analyzing and visualizing evolutionary data. *Bioinformatics* 14:68–73.
66. Huson DH, Bryant D (2006) Application of phylogenetic networks in evolutionary studies. *Mol Biol Evol* 23:254–267.
67. Huber KT, Langton M, Penny D, Moulton V, Hendy M (2002) Spectronet: A package for computing spectra and median networks. *Appl Bioinformatics* 1:159–161.
68. Yang ZH (2007) PAML 4: Phylogenetic analysis by maximum likelihood. *Mol Biol Evol* 24:1586–1591.
69. Yang ZH (1998) Likelihood ratio tests for detecting positive selection and application to primate lysozyme evolution. *Mol Biol Evol* 15:568–573.
70. Zhang JZ, Nielsen R, Yang ZH (2005) Evaluation of an improved branch-site likelihood method for detecting positive selection at the molecular level. *Mol Biol Evol* 22:2472–2479.
71. Stone EA, Sidow A (2005) Physicochemical constraint violation by missense substitutions mediates impairment of protein function and disease severity. *Genome Res* 15:978–986.