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The effect of musicianship, contralateral noise, and ear of presentation on the detection of changes in temporal fine structure --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>Musicians are better than non-musicians at discriminating changes in the fundamental frequency (F_0) of harmonic complex tones. Such discrimination may be based on place cues derived from lower resolved harmonics, envelope cues derived from high harmonics, and temporal fine-structure (TFS) cues derived from both low and high harmonics. The present study compared the ability of highly trained violinists and non-musicians to discriminate changes in complex sounds that differed primarily in their TFS. The task was to discriminate harmonic (H) and frequency-shifted inharmonic (I) tones that were bandpass filtered such that the components were largely or completely unresolved. The effect of contralateral noise and ear of presentation was also investigated. It was hypothesized that contralateral noise would activate the efferent system, helping to preserve the neural representation of envelope fluctuations in the H and I stimuli, thereby improving their discrimination. Violinists were significantly better than non-musicians at discriminating the H and I tones. However, contralateral noise and ear of presentation had no effect. It is concluded that, compared to non-musicians, violinists have a superior ability to discriminate complex sounds based on their TFS, and that this ability is unaffected by contralateral stimulation or ear of presentation.</p>

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1 **The effect of musicianship, contralateral noise, and ear of presentation on the detection of**
2 **changes in temporal fine structure**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Musicians are better than non-musicians at discriminating changes in the fundamental frequency
20 (F0) of harmonic complex tones. Such discrimination may be based on place cues derived from
21 low resolved harmonics, envelope cues derived from high harmonics, and temporal fine-structure
22 (TFS) cues derived from both low and high harmonics. The present study compared the ability of
23 highly trained violinists and non-musicians to discriminate changes in complex sounds that
24 differed primarily in their TFS. The task was to discriminate harmonic (H) and frequency-shifted
25 inharmonic (I) tones that were bandpass filtered such that the components were largely or
26 completely unresolved. The effect of contralateral noise and ear of presentation was also
27 investigated. It was hypothesized that contralateral noise would activate the efferent system,
28 helping to preserve the neural representation of envelope fluctuations in the H and I stimuli,
29 thereby improving their discrimination. Violinists were significantly better than non-musicians at
30 discriminating the H and I tones. However, contralateral noise and ear of presentation had no
31 effect. It is concluded that, compared to non-musicians, violinists have a superior ability to
32 discriminate complex sounds based on their TFS, and that this ability is unaffected by
33 contralateral stimulation or ear of presentation.

34

35 **I. Introduction**

36 The perception of pitch and discrimination of the fundamental frequency (F0) of complex
37 tones may be based on several mechanisms. For tones containing low harmonics, the auditory
38 system may extract information about the frequencies of individual resolved harmonics from
39 place cues (the distribution of excitation along the cochlea) and/or temporal fine-structure (TFS)
40 cues (phase locking) and the pitch may be derived from these frequency estimates (de Boer,
41 1956; Thurlow, 1963; Goldstein, 1973; Wightman, 1973). For complex tones containing only
42 very high harmonics, the pitch may be extracted from the envelope repetition rate of the
43 waveform on the basilar membrane resulting from the interference of several harmonics
44 (Hoekstra and Ritsma, 1977; Moore and Rosen, 1979; Houtsma and Smurzynski, 1990). For
45 tones with intermediate harmonics, the pitch may be extracted from the time intervals between
46 peaks in the TFS close to adjacent envelope maxima (Schouten, 1940; Schouten *et al.*, 1962;
47 Moore and Moore, 2003). Several studies have shown that musicians perform better than non-
48 musicians in pitch-related tasks, including F0 discrimination (Kishon-Rabin *et al.*, 2001; Micheyl
49 *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, musicians perform better than non-musicians for complex tones
50 containing both resolved harmonics and high unresolved harmonics (Bianchi *et al.*, 2016;
51 Bianchi *et al.*, 2017). However, it is not clear whether musicians are better than non-musicians in
52 using TFS cues for F0 discrimination. One goal of the present study was to compare the ability
53 of musicians and non-musicians to discriminate complex tones based primarily on TFS cues. A
54 second goal was to assess the effect of applying a noise stimulus to the ear opposite to that
55 receiving the test tones, so as to activate the efferent system. A third goal was to assess possible
56 effects associated with the ear of presentation of the stimuli.

57 There is considerable research showing that musically trained subjects perform better than
58 non-musicians on a variety of auditory tasks, and especially pitch-related tasks. For example,
59 compared to non-musicians, musicians have smaller thresholds for the frequency discrimination
60 of pure tones (Kishon-Rabin *et al.*, 2001), the F0 discrimination of harmonic complex tones
61 (Micheyl *et al.*, 2006), and the detection of mistuning of a single component in an otherwise

62 harmonic tone (Zendel and Alain, 2009). Musicians are also better than non-musicians at
63 “hearing out” partials in complex tones (Soderquist, 1970; Fine and Moore, 1993). However, it is
64 unclear whether the superior performance of musicians in pitch-related tasks results from a better
65 ability to use place information, envelope information, TFS information, or some combination of
66 these three.

67 The TFS1 test (Moore and Sek, 2009) is intended to assess the ability to process TFS
68 information in complex tones. In this test, subjects are required to discriminate harmonic
69 complex tones (H) and frequency-shifted inharmonic tones (I), in which each component is
70 shifted upwards by the same amount in Hertz (Δf). The H and I tones have the same envelope
71 repetition rate (equal to the F_0 of the H tones), but they differ in their TFS. The phases of the
72 components are chosen randomly for every tone, which means that the envelope shape fluctuates
73 randomly from one tone to the next, so that the envelope shape does not provide a cue for
74 discriminating the H and I tones. Stimuli are made up of many components and are then passed
75 through a fixed bandpass filter (with center frequency F_c) centered on the higher components, so
76 as to make excitation-pattern cues minimal.

77 The rationale behind the TFS1 test is illustrated in Fig. 1, which shows waveforms of H
78 and I tones at the output of a simulated auditory filter centered at 1000 Hz. The F_0 of the H tones
79 was 100 Hz and F_c was 1000 Hz. The waveforms and envelope shapes differ for the two H tones
80 shown in the top panels, because the component phases were chosen randomly for each stimulus.
81 The perceived pitch can be predicted assuming that: (1) most nerve spikes are synchronized to
82 the largest peaks in the TFS at the output of the auditory filter, and these occur close to the
83 envelope peaks, as illustrated by the vertical lines in Fig. 1 (Javel, 1980); (2) the pitch
84 corresponds to the most prominent time intervals between nerve spikes (excluding the very short
85 intervals corresponding to immediately adjacent peaks in the TFS); (3) these most prominent
86 intervals correspond to the intervals between peaks in the TFS close to adjacent envelope peaks,
87 as illustrated by the arrows in Fig. 1. For the two H tones (top), the most prominent time interval
88 is 10 ms ($1/F_0$). When the harmonics are shifted by 50 Hz (bottom left), the most prominent time

89 interval is 9.5 ms, while when the shift is 25 Hz (bottom right) the most prominent interval is
90 9.75 ms. In all cases, the perceived pitch corresponds approximately to the reciprocal of the most
91 prominent interval (Schouten *et al.*, 1962; Moore and Moore, 2003). Discrimination of the H and
92 I tones when the components are unresolved is thought to depend on differences in the inter-
93 spike intervals produced by the H and I tones.

94 One concern with the TFS1 test is that performance may be based on differences in
95 spectrum of the H and I tones, which would be reflected by differences in their excitation
96 patterns. To illustrate this, spectra were calculated for ten samples of the H and I tones (together
97 with ten different samples of the TEN) and the spectra were averaged. The spectra were then
98 converted to excitation patterns calculated using the method described by Moore *et al.* (1997).
99 The “diffuse-field” presentation option was used, since the headphones used in our experiments
100 have approximately a diffuse-field response. The averaging was done to smooth random
101 irregularities in the excitation patterns produced by the TEN, which are often large compared
102 with the differences between the excitation patterns for the H and I tones (Jackson and Moore,
103 2014). Figure 2 shows excitation patterns for H and I tones with $F_c = 2000$ Hz and $\Delta f / F_0 = 0.5$
104 (the frequency shift leading to the greatest difference between the H and I tones). The value of
105 F_0 was $F_c / 10$ (left) and $F_c / 20$ (right). The lower panels show the differences in excitation level
106 between the H and I tones. When $F_c = 10F_0$, the maximum difference in excitation level was 1.4
107 dB, which might just be detectable (Buus and Florentine, 1995) (note however, that the value of
108 $\Delta f / F_0$ at threshold for such a condition is usually much less than 0.5, so the differences in
109 excitation level at threshold would be much smaller). For $F_c = 20F_0$, the maximum difference in
110 excitation level was 0.5 dB, which would be below the threshold for detecting a change in level
111 in a limited frequency region (Buus and Florentine, 1995). Furthermore, for $F_c = 20F_0$ there is
112 no clear pattern of ripples in the excitation-pattern differences. These analyses suggest that
113 excitation-pattern cues might just be sufficient for discrimination of the H and I tones when $F_c =$
114 $10F_0$, but they are very unlikely to be sufficient for $F_c = 20F_0$. For a review of other evidence

115 indicating that performance of the TFS1 test is not based on the use of excitation-pattern cues
116 when F_c/F_0 is above about 10, see Moore (2019).

117 Mishra *et al.* (2015) and Jain *et al.* (2016) used the TFS1 test to address the question of
118 whether Indian (Carnatic) musicians are better than non-musicians at discriminating changes in
119 the TFS of complex sounds. Mishra *et al.* (2015) reported that adult musicians performed better
120 than adult non-musicians on the TFS1 task, suggesting a superior ability of the former to process
121 TFS information. Similar results were obtained by Jain *et al.* (2016) in a comparison of
122 musically trained and untrained children, aged 8-10 years. However, in these studies, the
123 passband of the filter had a width equal to F_0 , and the passband was centered at $9F_0$. This meant
124 that the lowest audible harmonic in the H tone was the seventh or the eighth. Harmonics seven
125 and eight are often regarded as being on the boundary between clearly resolved and clearly
126 unresolved (Plomp, 1964; Bernstein and Oxenham, 2003; Moore and Gockel, 2011). Hence, it is
127 possible that in the studies of Mishra *et al.* (2015) and Jain *et al.* (2016) the superior ability of the
128 musicians to discriminate the H and I tones did not reflect greater sensitivity to TFS but rather
129 reflected a superior ability to resolve the components. It has been reported that musicians have
130 sharper auditory filters than non-musicians for a center frequency of 4 kHz (Bidelman *et al.*,
131 2014), but a recent study failed to find any effect of musicianship on the sharpness of auditory
132 filters centered at 4 kHz, as measured using three methods (Moore *et al.*, 2019), and other studies
133 have found no effect of musicianship on the sharpness of the auditory filter for lower center
134 frequencies (Fine and Moore, 1993; Oxenham *et al.*, 2003). Nevertheless, as noted earlier,
135 musicians have been shown to be better than non-musicians in “hearing out” individual partials
136 in complex tones (Soderquist, 1970; Fine and Moore, 1993).

137 In the present study, we compared the performance of musicians and non-musicians on the
138 TFS1 task using a bandpass filter centered at $10F_0$, for which the lowest components might have
139 been partly resolved, and using a bandpass filter centered at $20F_0$, for which the components
140 would have been completely unresolved. If musicians perform better than non-musicians even

141 when the filter passband is centered at 20F0, this would strongly support the idea that musicians
142 have a superior ability to process TFS information.

143 A second aim of this study was to explore the effect of contralateral stimulation (CS) on
144 performance for the TFS1 task. The discrimination and detection of auditory stimuli presented to
145 one ear can be affected by presentation of a non-informative stimulus to the other ear (Guinan,
146 2006; Perrot and Collet, 2014; Guinan, 2018). This effect is thought to be mediated by activation
147 of the medial olivocochlear (MOC) efferent system (Collet *et al.*, 1990; Guinan, 2006; 2018). CS
148 can lead to the suppression of otoacoustic emissions (OAE) in the ear contralateral to the CS and
149 can change the characteristics of psychophysical tuning curves (Vinay and Moore, 2008; Wicher,
150 2013; Wicher and Moore, 2014; Bidelman *et al.*, 2016). Perrot and Collet (2014) reviewed the
151 possible functions of the efferent system, including protection against acoustic trauma (Maison
152 and Liberman, 2000) and improved hearing in noise (Micheyl and Collet, 1996). They also
153 reviewed studies comparing the effects of CS for musicians and non-musicians. The outcomes
154 were mixed, but there was at least some evidence for greater activation of the MOC system by
155 CS for musicians than for non-musicians, as was also found by Bidelman *et al.* (2017).

156 Recently, Carney (2018) has proposed that the main role of the efferent system is to
157 preserve the neural representation of envelope fluctuations in different frequency regions, by
158 regulating cochlear gain so as to avoid neural saturation effects. This is relevant to performance
159 of the TFS1 task. Although the envelope repetition rate and shape do not provide a cue for
160 discriminating the H and I tones, detection of the difference between the H and I tones depends
161 upon the presence of distinct envelope peaks, as illustrated in Fig. 1. Hence, preservation of the
162 representation of the envelope shape in the auditory nervous system is important. If Carney's
163 (2018) hypothesis is correct, then stronger activation of the efferent system might be associated
164 with better preservation of envelope fluctuations in the auditory system and, hence, better
165 performance of the TFS1 task. Furthermore, this effect might be stronger for musicians than for
166 non-musicians. On the other hand, CS usually has the effect of slightly reducing the sharpness of
167 the auditory filters in the contralateral ear (Vinay and Moore, 2008; Wicher, 2013; Wicher and

168 Moore, 2014; Bidelman *et al.*, 2016), and this might impair performance when the bandpass
169 filter is centered at 10F0, if performance in that case depends on the partial resolution of
170 components.

171 A third aim of this study was to assess the effect of ear of presentation. It is widely
172 believed that speech stimuli are processed primarily in the left cerebral hemisphere (leading to a
173 right-ear advantage) and non-speech stimuli, including musical sounds, are processed primarily
174 in the right cerebral hemisphere (leading to a left-ear advantage) (Broadbent and Gregory, 1964;
175 Kimura, 1964), although cerebral dominance for musical and speech sounds appears to depend
176 on the specific task that is used (Brancucci *et al.*, 2005; 2008). There is also evidence that the
177 extent of cerebral asymmetry for musical sounds differs for musicians and for non-musicians
178 (Schlaug *et al.*, 1995). We therefore assessed whether performance on the TFS1 task was better
179 for stimuli presented to the left ear than for stimuli presented to the right ear, and whether there
180 was any difference between musicians and non-musicians in the degree of asymmetry.

181 In most previous studies of the effects of musicianship on performance in pitch-related
182 tasks, the musicians played a variety of types of musical instruments or were singers. It seems
183 plausible that pitch discrimination skills would be greater for musicians whose instruments
184 require precise pitch judgments and fine motor control to achieve the correct note (e.g. violinists)
185 than for musicians who play instruments with pre-set discrete pitches (e.g. pianists). To
186 maximize the likelihood of finding differences between musicians and non-musicians, in the
187 present study the former all played instruments requiring precise pitch judgments and motor
188 control to achieve the correct note; all played the violin and/or viola.

189 In summary, the aims of this study were: (1) To compare the performance of musicians on
190 the TFS1 task under conditions where the components were marginally resolved and where they
191 were completely unresolved; (2) To assess the effect of CS on performance of the TFS1 task and
192 to compare that effect for musicians and non-musicians; (3) To assess the effect of ear of
193 presentation on performance of the TFS1 task and to compare that effect for musicians and non-

194 musicians. The musician group was selected to have a high likelihood of superior pitch-related
195 skills based on extensive experience playing the violin and/or viola.

196

197 **I. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

198 The TFS1 test was conducted using a bandpass filter centered at 10F0 (experiment 1) or
199 20F0 (experiment 2). Ten musicians (M) and ten non-musicians (NM) were tested in each
200 experiment. Subjects in group M were the same for the two experiments. Two subjects in the
201 group NM differed across experiments.

202

203 **A. Selection of subjects**

204 Subjects in group M were students of the Ignacy Paderewski Music Academy in Poznań,
205 who played the violin and/or viola. Nine were female. They began formal musical education no
206 later than the age of 8 years (on average 6.5 years, standard deviation, SD = 0.6 years), and
207 continued education and/or work as professional musicians, playing on average 5 hours per day.
208 The average duration of musical training was 15.4 years (SD = 1.1 years). Subjects in group NM
209 did not play any instrument (7 subjects) or played as amateurs not more than 2 hours per week (1
210 piano and 2 guitar players, for both experiment 1 and experiment 2). Seven were female in both
211 experiments. If they played, their musical education was not formal, it started not earlier than 16
212 years of age, and it lasted no longer than 3 years. The average age was 22 years (SD = 0.7 years)
213 for group M, and 25 years (SD = 1.7 years) for group NM in both experiments 1 and 2.

214 Audiometric thresholds were measured using an Interacoustics (Middlefart, Germany)
215 AC40 clinical audiometer with Telephonics (Huntington, NY) TDH 39P headphones, using the
216 recommended method in Poland, which is the same as the method recommended by the British
217 Society of Audiology (2011). All subjects were selected to have audiometric thresholds better
218 than 20 dB HL over the frequency range 500 to 4000 Hz. Audiometric thresholds averaged over
219 the range 125 to 8000 Hz were 9.1 dB HL (standard deviation, SD = 6.9 dB) for group M.

220 Audiometric thresholds for group NM were 5.8 dB HL (SD = 5.9 dB) for experiment 1 and 6.1

221 dB HL (SD = 6.0 dB) for experiment 2. The audiometric thresholds did not differ significantly
222 across the M and NM groups for either experiment. As a check that cochlear outer hair-cell
223 function was normal, distortion product otoacoustic emissions (DPOAEs) were measured over
224 the frequency range 1000 to 4000 Hz using an Interacoustics Titan system. The signal-to-noise
225 ratio was greater than 6 dB for all subjects, indicating normal outer hair cell function (Robinette
226 and Glatke, 2007). The Titan system was also used to measure tympanograms. All subjects had
227 type A tympanograms, indicating normal middle-ear function. No subjects reported any history
228 of auditory processing disorder or other disorders that might affect auditory processing (e.g.
229 dyslexia). Subjects were paid for their participation.

230

231 **B. The TFS1 test**

232 The TFS1 test was conducted using the method described by Moore and Sek (2009) and
233 the software described by Sek and Moore (2012). A two-interval, two-alternative forced-choice
234 (2AFC) task was used. Subjects were required to discriminate an H tone with fundamental
235 frequency F_0 from a tone in which all the components were shifted upwards by Δf Hz, resulting
236 in an I tone. Each interval contained four successive 200-ms tones (including 20-ms onset and
237 offset ramps), separated by 100 ms. One interval contained four H tones, giving the pattern
238 HHHH. The other interval contained alternating H and I tones, giving the pattern HIHI. The
239 subjects were instructed to choose the interval in which they heard a fluctuation in pitch.

240 A two-down one-up adaptive procedure was used and visual feedback was given after
241 each trial, via the computer screen. After two successive correct responses, the value of Δf was
242 divided by a factor, k . After one incorrect response, the value of Δf was multiplied by k . Before
243 the first turn point, k was set to 1.25³. Between the first and second turn points, k was 1.25², and
244 beyond the second turn point, k was equal to 1.25. An adaptive track ended after eight turn
245 points. The threshold, corresponding to 71% correct responses, was calculated as the geometric
246 mean of the values of Δf at the last six turn points.

247 The maximum value of Δf was set to 0.5 F_0 Hz; this corresponds to the value at which the

248 H and I tones are most different. If the limit was reached five times during a run, the adaptive
249 procedure ended and the percentage correct was measured for forty further trials with Δf fixed at
250 $0.5F_0$. We refer to this as the constant-stimulus procedure.

251 One modification to the test was made. In the “standard” version of the test, the
252 component phases are chosen randomly for every tone. This can result in perceptual differences
253 between tones with the same magnitude spectrum (e.g. two I tones with the same value of Δf),
254 because of differences in envelope shape. Here, the component phases were chosen randomly
255 and independently for the first and second tones in each interval, but the component phases were
256 the same for the first and third tones and for the second and fourth tones. This was done so that,
257 in the interval with alternating H and I tones, the two H tones would sound similar to one another
258 and the two I tones would sound similar to one another, thus making the task slightly easier. This
259 was considered desirable, since the task is very difficult when the bandpass filter is centered on
260 very high components, as it was in experiment 2.

261 To reduce cues due to differences in the excitation patterns of the H and I tones, the
262 stimuli were passed through a bandpass filter. This filter was centered at $10F_0$ for experiment 1
263 and $20F_0$ for experiment 2. The filter had a central flat region with a width equal to $3F_0$. The
264 skirts of the filter fell off at a rate of 30 dB/octave. The filter minimized differences in the
265 spectral envelopes and excitation patterns of the harmonic and inharmonic tones, as illustrated in
266 Fig. 2. In experiment 1, the value of F_0 was either 200 Hz or 400 Hz and the bandpass filter was
267 centered at 2000 or 4000 Hz, respectively. In order to keep the frequency regions the same in
268 experiment 2, the value of F_0 was either 100 Hz or 200 Hz, so that the bandpass filter was again
269 centered at 2000 or 4000 Hz, respectively. The center frequencies of 2000 and 4000 Hz were
270 chosen to be within the range where phase locking occurs (Palmer and Russell, 1986). The
271 overall level of the tones, after bandpass filtering, was set to 45 dB SPL. This level was chosen
272 to be sufficiently low that the efferent system would be only weakly activated (Guinan, 2006).

273 A threshold equalizing noise (TEN) (Moore *et al.*, 2000) extending from 50 to 11,050 Hz
274 was used to mask combination tones and to limit the audibility of components falling on the

275 skirts of the bandpass filter. The TEN started 300 ms before the first tone burst and ended 300
276 ms after the last tone burst. The TEN level was specified as the level in a 1- ERB_N wide band
277 centered at 1000 Hz, where ERB_N stands for the average value of equivalent rectangular
278 bandwidth of the auditory filter at moderate sound levels for listeners with normal hearing
279 (Glasberg and Moore, 1990). The level of the TEN was set 15 dB below the overall level of the
280 complex tone. The TEN level was about 9 dB below the level of each component in the
281 passband, and should have been sufficient to mask components falling on the filter skirts and
282 combination tones whose level was 9 dB or more below the level of each component in the
283 passband. In practice, this meant that components down to the 8th might have been just audible
284 when the passband was centered at $10F_0$ and components down to the 16th might have been just
285 audible when the passband was centered at $20F_0$.

286 The TFS1-test stimuli were presented monaurally. Both the left ear and right ear of each
287 subject were tested. Thresholds were measured in the absence and in the presence of CS. The CS
288 was a pink noise with a frequency range from 20 to 20000 Hz and an overall level of 60 dB SPL.
289 A pink noise at this level significantly reduces the level of DPOAEs in the opposite ear,
290 confirming that it is effective in activating the efferent system (Wicher, 2013; Wicher and
291 Moore, 2014). This gave eight conditions ($2 F_0$ values \times 2 test ears \times 2 conditions corresponding
292 to the presence and absence of CS). Three threshold estimates were obtained for each condition
293 and the final threshold was taken as the geometric mean of the three estimates.

294 The order of testing the conditions for experiment 1 was: $F_0 = 400$ Hz without CS; $F_0 =$
295 400 Hz with CS; $F_0 = 200$ Hz without CS; $F_0 = 200$ Hz with CS. The order for experiment 2
296 was: $F_0 = 200$ Hz without CS; $F_0 = 200$ Hz with CS; $F_0 = 100$ Hz without CS; $F_0 = 100$ Hz with
297 CS. For each combination of F_0 and presence/absence of CS, the order of testing the two ears
298 was random.

299 Stimuli were generated using a Dell (Round Rock, TX) Inspiron 7000 series PC with a
300 Conxant SmartAudio (Newport Beach, CA) sound card and presented via Sennheiser
301 (Wedemark, Germany) HD600 headphones. The equipment was calibrated with an Ono Sokki

302 (Yokohama, Japan) FFT Analyzer type CF-5210, a Bruel & Kjaer (Nærum, Denmark) type 4152
303 artificial ear, and an SVAN (Warsaw, Poland) 945A sound-level meter. All testing was
304 conducted in sound-proof booths.

305

306 **II. RESULTS**

307 **A. Experiment 1**

308 In experiment 1, for which the filter passband was centered at $10F_0$, the adaptive
309 procedure was completed by all subjects in both groups. The mean thresholds are shown in Fig.
310 3. Thresholds were expressed as the value of Δf at threshold, Δf_{thresh} , divided by F_0 , to facilitate
311 comparison across the two F_0 s. The SD of the thresholds across repeated runs for a given
312 condition was approximately proportional to the geometric mean threshold for that condition.
313 Hence, statistical analyses were based on the logarithms of the thresholds, expressed as
314 $\Delta f_{thresh}/F_0$. The log thresholds were analyzed using a mixed-model analysis of variance
315 (ANOVA). Within-subject factors were F_0 (200 or 400 Hz), ear (left, L or right, R), and
316 presence/absence of CS. The between-subjects factor was group (M or NM). The effect of group
317 was significant [$F(1,18) = 7.22, p = 0.015$], group M having lower thresholds than group NM.
318 The effect of F_0 was significant [$F(1,18) = 9.27, p = 0.007$], the relative threshold being lower
319 for $F_0 = 400$ Hz than for $F_0 = 200$ Hz. This is consistent with earlier work using the TFS1 test
320 and similar tests (Moore *et al.*, 2006a; Moore and Sek, 2009; Jackson and Moore, 2014). There
321 was no significant effect of test ear, and no significant effect of CS. There were no significant
322 interactions.

323

324 **B. Experiment 2**

325 In experiment 2, for which the filter passband was centered at $20F_0$, the adaptive
326 procedure often terminated and was switched automatically to the constant-stimulus procedure,
327 because the value of Δf reached the limit of $0.5F_0$. This happened in 21% of the runs for group M
328 and in 64% of the runs for group NM. For runs that switched to the constant-stimulus procedure,

329 scores for group NM were often in the range that would be expected by chance guessing (Miller,
 330 1996). The greater difficulty of the TFS1 task when the bandpass filter was centered on very
 331 high harmonics was expected from previous research (Moore *et al.*, 2006a; Moore and Sek,
 332 2009; Jackson and Moore, 2014). The following procedure was adopted to transform the results
 333 obtained using the constant-stimulus procedure to make them comparable to the threshold values
 334 obtained using the adaptive procedure. Scores from the constant-stimulus procedure were
 335 converted to values of the detectability index, d'_{obtained} , using standard tables (Hacker and
 336 Ratcliff, 1979). The value of d' calculated for 40 2AFC trials can reach 0.5 with a probability \approx
 337 0.05 when the subject is randomly guessing (Miller, 1996). To prevent excessively high
 338 estimates of “threshold” when performance was close to chance, values of $d'_{\text{obtained}} < 0.5$ were
 339 set to 0.5. Based on the assumption that d' is proportional to Δf , the values of d'_{obtained} were then
 340 converted to the value of Δf , $\Delta f_{\text{extrapolated}}$, that would be required to give a d' value of 0.78, the
 341 value tracked by the adaptive procedure, using the following equation:

$$342 \quad \Delta f_{\text{extrapolated}} = (0.78/d'_{\text{obtained}}) \times 0.5F_0 \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

343 It should be noted that this procedure often resulted in values of $\Delta f_{\text{extrapolated}}$ that were above
 344 0.5 F_0 (with a maximum of 0.78 F_0). Such thresholds are not meaningful, since the largest
 345 difference between the H and I tones occurs when $\Delta f = 0.5F_0$. However, it is the case that
 346 performance worsens monotonically with increasing $\Delta f_{\text{extrapolated}}$. The procedure was merely
 347 used to allow all thresholds to be transformed to the same scale.

348 Following the procedure defined by Eq. 1, so that all scores were expressed either as
 349 Δf_{thresh} or as $\Delta f_{\text{extrapolated}}$, the results were analyzed in the same way as for experiment 1. The
 350 mean thresholds are shown in Fig. 4. A mixed-model ANOVA was conducted with the same
 351 factors as for experiment 1. The effect of group was significant [$F(1,18) = 18.95, p < 0.001$],
 352 group M having lower thresholds than group NM. This indicates that musicians are better at
 353 processing TFS information than non-musicians. The effect of F_0 was not significant. There was
 354 no significant effect of test ear, and no significant effect of CS. There was a significant
 355 interaction between CS and ear [$F(1, 18) = 8.19, p = 0.01$], and a significant interaction between

356 CS, ear, and F0 [$F(1, 17) = 16.52, p < 0.001$]. However, these interactions each accounted for
357 2% or less of the variance in the thresholds.

358

359 **C. Comparison of results for experiments 1 and 2**

360 As neither experiment showed a significant effect of ear of presentation or
361 presence/absence of CS, the data were averaged across these factors to facilitate comparison of
362 the results for the two experiments. Figure 5 shows geometric mean thresholds for each
363 frequency region ($F_c = 2000$ or 4000 Hz), each degree of resolvability (bandpass filter centered
364 at $10F_0$ or $20F_0$), and each group. Thresholds for both groups were lower by a factor of about 10
365 when the bandpass filter was centered at $10F_0$ than when it was centered at $20F_0$. On average,
366 thresholds were higher for the non-musician group than for the musician group by a factor of
367 about 1.5, regardless of whether the bandpass filter was centered at $10F_0$ or at $20F_0$. However,
368 the factor in the latter case is an underestimate of the difference between the two groups because
369 the value of $\Delta f_{\text{extrapolated}}$ was limited to $0.78F_0$ much more often for the non-musicians than for
370 the musicians. When the bandpass filter was centered at $20F_0$, the mean thresholds for the non-
371 musicians were consistently above $0.5F_0$, indicating a very poor or no ability to perform the task,
372 whereas the thresholds for the musicians were consistently below $0.5F_0$, indicating above-chance
373 performance for most subjects. It is likely that the difference between musicians and non-
374 musicians becomes very marked when TFS cues are very weak.

375

376 **III. DISCUSSION**

377 In experiment 1, the filter passband was centered at $10F_0$ and the passband width was 3
378 F_0 , so the 9th harmonic of the H tones fell at the lower edge of the passband. This is comparable
379 to the conditions of Mishra *et al.* (2015) and Jain *et al.* (2016), who used a filter passband
380 centered at $9F_0$ and a passband width of F_0 . The effect of musicianship reported by Mishra *et al.*
381 for an F_0 of 222 Hz was similar to that found by us for an F_0 of 200 Hz. However, our
382 musicians' thresholds overall were lower (better) than theirs, and also lower than the thresholds

383 reported for comparable conditions by Moore and Sek (2009), although they were only slightly
384 lower than those reported by Jackson and Moore (2014) for subjects with a moderate amount of
385 musical training. The relatively low thresholds in our study might reflect the fact that we used a
386 modified version of the TFS1 task in which the component phases were the same for the first and
387 third tones and for the second and fourth tones in each interval. This had the effect of eliminating
388 perceptual differences between the two H tones in the target interval and the two I tones in the
389 target interval. In the “standard” version of the TFS1 test, such perceptual differences can be
390 caused by differences in envelope shape between the two H tones and between the two I tones in
391 the target interval, which might have a distracting effect. A possible disadvantage of our
392 modified version of the test is that for the interval containing the HHHH sequence, the first and
393 third tones had the same envelope shape and the second and fourth tones also had the same
394 envelope shape, introducing an ABAB pattern that might have provided a false cue. However,
395 the fact that performance was better with our modified version of the test than with the standard
396 version suggests that the false cue had little or no deleterious effect.

397 A limitation of experiment 1, and of the studies of Mishra *et al.* (2015) and Jain *et al.*
398 (2016), is that the lowest audible harmonics in the H tone were probably the 7th or 8th. These
399 might have been partially resolved (Bernstein and Oxenham, 2003; Moore and Gockel, 2011).
400 The advantage of musical training revealed in these cases might reflect a superior ability of
401 musicians to hear out partials in complex tones (Soderquist, 1970; Fine and Moore, 1993) rather
402 than a superior ability to process TFS cues.

403 In our experiment 2, the filter passband was centered at $20F_0$, which meant that the
404 lowest audible components were completely unresolved. As expected from previous work, the
405 task was much more difficult in this case (Moore *et al.*, 2006b; Moore *et al.*, 2009; Moore and
406 Sek, 2009; Jackson and Moore, 2014). The adaptive procedure was switched automatically to the
407 constant-stimulus procedure for 21% of the runs for group M and 64% of the runs for group NM.
408 The method that we used for transforming the data from the runs using the constant-stimulus
409 procedure limited the extrapolated threshold, $\Delta f_{\text{extrapolated}}$, to $0.78F_0$. This limit was applied

410 more often for group NM than for group M. Despite this, a clear and significant advantage of
411 musical training was observed. Mean thresholds, expressed as $\Delta f_{thresh}/F_0$, were about $0.38F_0$ for
412 group M and $0.56F_0$ for group NM. It is possible that performance when the filter passband was
413 centered at $20F_0$ was based on the excitation pattern differences illustrated in Fig. 2. However,
414 this possibility seems unlikely given the very small sizes of the differences and given that the
415 background TEN would have produced substantial random ripples in the excitation patterns
416 (Jackson and Moore, 2014). The most plausible interpretation of the results is that musically
417 trained subjects are better at using TFS information than non-musicians.

418 One possible reason why performance of the TFS1 task worsens when the filter passband
419 is centered on the higher harmonics can be illustrated using Fig. 1. That figure shows the output
420 of a simulated auditory filter centered at 1000 Hz for H and I tones with a nominal $F_0 = 100$ Hz.
421 It is assumed that the H and I tones with $\Delta f = 0.25F_0$ (bottom right) can be discriminated if the
422 inter-peak interval of 10 ms for the H tone can be distinguished from the inter-peak interval of
423 9.75 ms for the I tone. This corresponds to a Weber fraction, $\Delta t/t$, of $(10 - 9.75)/10 = 0.025$. If
424 the stimuli were bandpass filtered around $20F_0$, then for the same frequency shift of the I tone
425 ($\Delta f = 0.25F_0$), the most prominent inter-peak interval for the I tone would be 9.875 ms, and the
426 Weber fraction would be $0.125/10 = 0.0125$. If the Weber fraction at threshold corresponds to a
427 fixed value, then performance would be expected to worsen progressively as the filter center
428 frequency increases.

429 In fact, the worsening in performance with increasing filter center frequency was greater
430 than would be predicted assuming that the Weber fraction for time-interval discrimination is
431 constant. For example, for a filter centered at 2000 Hz and for group M, the threshold was about
432 0.047 for $F_0 = 200$ Hz (corresponding to a Weber fraction of $0.00235/5 = 0.0047$) while the
433 threshold was about 0.4 for $F_0 = 100$ Hz (corresponding to a Weber fraction of $0.2/10 = 0.02$).
434 This may be explained by the increasing ambiguity of the time intervals to be discriminated as F_c
435 increases for a fixed F_0 . For both the H and I tones, there are several candidate time intervals
436 between peaks in the TFS close to adjacent envelope maxima, as illustrated in Fig. 1. The

437 number of TFS peaks whose amplitude is within, say, 20% of the amplitude of the largest TFS
438 peak increases with increasing F_c . When F_c is high relative to F_0 , it becomes increasing unclear
439 what time intervals evoked by the H and I tones should be compared. For example, for $F_0 = 100$
440 Hz, $F_c = 2000$ Hz, and $\Delta f/F_0 = 0.4$, the most prominent candidate intervals would be 8.5, 9.0,
441 9.5, 10, 10.5, 11, and 11.5 ms for the H tone and 8.3, 8.8, 9.3, 9.8, 10.3, 10.8, 11.3, and 11.8 ms
442 for the I tone. This is illustrated for an H tone in Fig. 6. Both the H and I tones would have a
443 highly ambiguous pitch and this probably makes the task more difficult.

444 For a fixed ratio of F_c to F_0 , the Weber fraction at threshold may correspond
445 approximately to a fixed value. This can explain why, when the bandpass filter was centered on
446 the 20th harmonic, performance was not worse when the filter was centered at 4000 Hz than
447 when it was centered at 2000 Hz, despite the fact that phase locking is likely to be weaker at
448 4000 than at 2000 Hz (Verschooten *et al.*, 2018). To illustrate this, assume that at 4000 Hz (with
449 $F_0 = 200$ Hz) the threshold, $\Delta f/F_0$ is 0.4. The relevant intervals to be discriminated in this case
450 would be 5 ms and 4.9 ms (the Weber fraction is $0.1/5 = 0.02$). At 2000 Hz (with $F_0 = 100$ Hz),
451 the relevant intervals to be discriminated would be 10 ms and 9.8 ms (the Weber fraction is
452 $0.2/10 = 0.02$). According to this interpretation, performance is limited mainly by the central
453 processes involved in interspike-interval discrimination, rather than by the precision of
454 peripheral phase locking, at least for center frequencies up to 4000 Hz.

455 Our data for experiment 2 showed better performance than would be expected from
456 previous work. For example, Jackson and Moore (2014) reported performance that was close to
457 chance for a group of subjects with a moderate amount of musical training when F_0 was 100 or
458 200 Hz and the lowest component within the passband was the 16th. The difference across
459 studies may again reflect the fact that we used a modified version of the TFS1 test, with the same
460 selection of component phases for the first and third tones and the second and fourth tones within
461 each interval.

462 The reasons why musicians are better than non-musicians at processing TFS information
463 remain unclear. The effect might reflect better neural encoding of TFS cues for musicians,

464 greater proficiency of musicians in using the available neural cues, or a combination of the two.
465 Supporting the concept of superior neural encoding, it has been reported that the synchronization
466 of brainstem responses to pitch-evoking stimuli, as measured by the frequency-following
467 response, FFR, is stronger for musicians than for non-musicians (Bidelman *et al.*, 2011). Also,
468 thresholds for detecting changes in the frequency of a low-frequency (660-Hz) pure tone, which
469 are thought to depend on the use of TFS information (Moore, 1973; Moore and Ernst, 2012), are
470 correlated with a measure of the synchronization strength of the FFR (Marmel *et al.*, 2013). On
471 the other hand, musicians perform better than non-musicians on a great variety of tasks,
472 including tasks that are not related to pitch perception. For example, musicians show superior
473 performance for gap detection (Zendel and Alain, 2012) and temporal-interval discrimination
474 (Banai *et al.*, 2012). This is consistent with the idea that musicians have generally greater
475 proficiency in making use of the available neural information, as well as having enhanced neural
476 coding (Banai *et al.*, 2012), perhaps because of enhanced auditory attention (Strait *et al.*, 2010;
477 Bianchi *et al.*, 2016). It is also possible that musicians were better than non-musicians at ignoring
478 the false cue mentioned above, but, as stated earlier, the better performance with the modified
479 version than with the standard version of the TFS1 test suggests that the negative influence of the
480 false cue was very small.

481 The results of both experiments showed no effect of CS. We had suggested that CS would
482 activate the efferent system, helping to preserve the neural representation of envelope
483 fluctuations in the stimuli (Carney, 2018) and hence improving performance. The failure to find
484 an effect of CS might have been related to the relatively low presentation level of our stimuli (45
485 dB SPL). Neural saturation is modest at such a level, occurring only for the most sensitive
486 neurons (Lieberman, 1978; Sachs and Young, 1979), so the envelope fluctuations in the TFS1-test
487 stimuli were probably well preserved in the auditory nerve, even without activation of the
488 efferent system. Another possibility is that the efferent system was sufficiently activated by the
489 test stimuli themselves, so that any activation achieved by the (more intense) CS was not
490 necessary for good performance to be achieved. However, this seems unlikely given the low

491 level of the test stimuli.

492 The results for both experiments showed no overall effect of the ear of presentation of the
493 test stimuli. Mishra *et al.* (2015) also reported no significant effect of ear of presentation. This
494 may indicate that there is no ear dominance in the discrimination of pitch based on changes in
495 TFS. Alternatively, ear dominance may exist, but it may only show up under conditions where
496 there are competing stimuli at the two ears. Experiments demonstrating a right-ear advantage for
497 speech have often been conducted using such competing stimuli (Broadbent and Gregory, 1964).

498

499 **IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

500 The ability to discriminate harmonic from frequency-shifted tones was compared for
501 highly trained musicians (violin and/or viola players) and non-musicians under conditions where
502 the lowest components in the tones might have been partially resolved (experiment 1) and where
503 all components were completely unresolved (experiment 2). The effects of CS and ear of
504 presentation were also assessed. The task was a modified version of the TFS1 task, in which the
505 component phases were chosen randomly and independently for the first and second of the four
506 tones within each interval, but the component phases were the same for the first and third tones
507 and for the second and fourth tones. This eliminated distracting effects of differences in timbre
508 between the two H tones and the two I tones within each target interval that would otherwise
509 have occurred.

510 The musicians performed better than the non-musicians in both experiments, confirming
511 that musicians have a superior ability to use TFS information. There was no effect of ear of
512 presentation, suggesting either no effect of laterality in the processing of TFS cues or that
513 laterality is only revealed when there are competing stimuli at the two ears. There was also no
514 effect of CS.

515

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684 Figure captions

685 FIG. 1. Segments of waveforms of harmonic (H) tones (top) and inharmonic (I) tones (bottom) at
686 the output of a simulated auditory filter centered at 1000 Hz, for a nominal F₀ of 100 Hz. The H
687 and I tones have the same envelope repetition rate but differ in the time intervals between peaks
688 in the TFS close to adjacent envelope maxima, as indicated by the arrows.

689 FIG. 2. Excitation patterns (top) and excitation pattern differences (bottom) for H tones (black
690 lines) and I tones (gray lines) with $\Delta f/F_0 = 0.5$. The bandpass filter was centered at 2000 Hz and
691 F₀ was 200 Hz (left) and 100 Hz (right).

692 FIG. 3. Geometric mean thresholds, expressed as $\Delta f/F_0$, for experiment 1 for the two groups (M,
693 shaded bars, and NM, open bars), the two ears of presentation of the test stimuli (L and R), the
694 two F₀s, and the two presentation modes (CS off and on). The bandpass filter was centered at
695 10F₀. Error bars show ± 1 standard error.

696 FIG. 4. As Fig. 3 but for experiment 2, for which the bandpass filter was centered at 20F₀.

697 FIG. 5. Comparison of geometric mean thresholds for experiments 1 and 2, after averaging
698 across ear of presentation and presence/absence of CS. The center frequency of the passband was
699 2000 or 4000 Hz and this corresponded to either 10F₀ (experiment 1) or 20F₀ (experiment 2).

700 FIG. 6. Segment of the waveform of an H tone with F₀ = 100 Hz and F_c = 2000 Hz at the output
701 of a simulated auditory filter centered at 2000 Hz. The vertical lines indicate the positions of TFS
702 peaks with amplitude within 20% of the amplitude of the largest TFS peak, and the numbers
703 within arrows show the time intervals between those peaks, in ms.

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