1 2 3	Learning Effects in Temporal Resoluti	n Psychophysical Tests of Spectral and on.	
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20 Abstract

21

22 **Objectives:** Psychophysical tests of spectral and temporal resolution, such as the 23 spectral-ripple discrimination task and the temporal modulation detection test, 24 are valuable tools for evaluation of cochlear implant performance. Both tests correlate with speech intelligibility and are reported to show no instantaneous 25 26 learning effect. However, some of our previous trials have suggested there is a 27 learning effect over time. The aim of this study was to investigate the test-retest 28 reliability of the 2 tests when measured over time. 29 **Design:** Ten adult cochlear implant recipients, experienced with the HiResolution speech coding strategy, participated in this study. Spectral ripple 30 discrimination and temporal modulation detection ability with the HiResolution 31 32 strategy were assessed both before and after participation in a previous trial that 33 evaluated 2 research speech coding strategies after 2 weeks of home-usage. Each 34 test was repeated six times on each test day. 35 **Results:** No improvement was observed for same-day testing. However, comparison of the mean spectral ripple discrimination scores before and after 36 37 participation in the take-home trial showed improvement from 3.4 to 4.8 ripples 38 per octave (p<0.001). The mean temporal modulation detection thresholds improved from -15.2 dB to -17.4 dB (p=0.035). 39

40 Conclusions: There was a clear learning effect over time in the spectral and 41 temporal resolution tasks, but not during same-day testing. Learning effects may 42 stem from perceptual learning, task learning or a combination of those two 43 factors. These results highlight the importance of a proper research design for 44 evaluation of novel speech coding strategies, where the baseline measurement is

- 45 repeated at the end of the trial to avoid false positive results as a consequence of
- 46 learning effects.

INTRODUCTION

Psychophysical tests of spectral and temporal resolution, such as the spectral-49 ripple test (Won et al. 2007; Drennan et al. 2010; Won et al. 2010; Anderson et al. 50 2012; Aronoff & Landsberger 2013; Jones et al. 2013) and the temporal 51 52 modulation detection test, (Shannon 1992; Won et al. 2011; Fraser & McKay 53 2012) are valuable tools for the evaluation of cochlear implant (CI) hearing during clinical trials. The extent to which the implementation of novel 54 technologies affects the performance of CI recipients is often too mild to detect 55 with traditional speech or music outcome measures. Psychophysical measures 56 57 are more sensitive to processor changes as they allow for the evaluation of basic 58 abilities, such as spectral and temporal resolution (Buechner et al. 2008; Brendel et al. 2008; Drennan et al. 2010), which are fundamental aspects of how well 59 people hear. Both tests have been shown to correlate independently with vowel, 60 61 consonant, and speech recognition in CI recipients (Fu 2002; Henry et al. 2005; Won et al. 2007; Won et al. 2013; Holden et al. 2016; Zhou 2017). 62 63 It is generally assumed that the evaluation of basic psychophysical 64 capabilities yields a measure of hearing that does not change over time (Won et al. 2007; Drennan et al. 2010). Previous studies have investigated potential 'task 65 66 learning effects' of spectral and temporal measurements, that is, improvement in performance caused by practice with the task rather than actual improvement in 67 68 spectral and/or temporal resolution. No task learning effect was found in an acute setting, when tasks were repeated up to nine times (Won et al. 2007; Drennan et 69 70 al. 2008; Drennan et al. 2010). To the best of our knowledge, only 1 study 71 examined the test-retest reliability of the spectral-ripple threshold measurement over a longer period of time in experienced CI users (Won et al. 2007). No task 72

learning effect was found when repeating the task on separate test days,
although, no time interval between the measurements was reported. Drennan et
al. (2015) studied learning in both spectral and temporal modulation tests in
newly implanted CI users and, on average, did not find a significant
improvement over the first 12 months after activation. However, 20% of the
individuals significantly improved on both tasks and another 20% significantly
deteriorated.

80 The previously mentioned studies suggest that spectral and temporal testing serve as useful, and most probably also reliable diagnostic tools for 81 82 assessment of CI outcome in a research setting. However, we have observed 83 somewhat different outcomes in our research center. The modified spectral ripple 84 test (SMRT), developed by Aronoff & Landsberger (2013), and the modulation 85 detection threshold (MDT) test, adapted from Bacon & Viemeister (1985), are 86 frequently used in the evaluation of novel processing strategies in the Leiden University Medical Center (LUMC), the Netherlands. As a limited number of CI 87 88 users are available for research purposes, many of our subjects have participated 89 in multiple studies over the last few years. As a result, these subjects have had substantial practice on the SMRT and MDT test with several different speech 90 coding strategies. We noticed higher SMRT and MDT scores in these more 91 practiced CI users and therefore hypothesize that the psychophysical 92 93 performance among these CI recipients improved because of this practice. It is well known that CI recipients improve performance in the first few 94 95 months after implantation (Staller et al. 1997; Rouger et al. 2007; Ruffin et al. 96 2007). It is plausible that this improvement is caused by 'perceptual learning',

97 which is a process by which the ability of the auditory system to process stimuli

98 is improved through experience. Also Moberly et al. (2015) suggested that CI users could learn from new speech cues, which might be present in novel speech 99 100 coding strategies. Repeated testing with the SMRT and MDT test in a research 101 setting with multiple novel speech coding strategies could, therefore, lead to both 102 task and perceptual learning and consequently to improved SMRT and MDT 103 performance. The present study assessed performance on the SMRT and MDT 104 test before and after participation in a previous take-home trial, in which 2 105 experimental speech coding strategies were evaluated.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

107 Subjects

108 A group of 10 adult cochlear implant (CI) recipients who had been implanted 109 with a HiRes90K device with HiFocus 1J or a CII device with HiFocus with a positioner electrode array (Advanced Bionics, Sylmar, CA) at the LUMC were 110 111 recruited for this study. All had used the Harmony processor programmed with 112 the HiResolution (HiRes) speech coding strategy for multiple years. Subject 113 demographics are shown in Table 1. Ages ranged from 43 to 74 years with a mean of 60.2 years. The average duration of deafness was 26.6 years (range 4-67 114 115 years) and average implant experience was 98 months (range 31-174 months). Mean phoneme scores on open set Dutch monosyllabic consonant-vowel-116 consonant (CVC) words in quiet conditions at 65 dB were 89.3% (range 76-96%). 117 118 Protocol and speech coding strategies 119 Spectral ripple discrimination and temporal modulation transfer functions were assessed at baseline (week 0) and 2, 4, and 6 weeks after the baseline measures. 120

121 Participants were tested twice (at t=0 weeks and t=6 weeks) with their standard

clinical speech coding strategy, HiRes. This is a bandpass filter based strategy
that uses a traditional processing approach in which channel-specific temporal
envelopes are extracted and delivered with interleaved, high-rate pulse trains.
More detailed information about this speech coding strategy is provided by Firszt
(2003).

127 The examinations at week 2 and 4 were part of a separate take-home trial, in 128 which 2 variations of the HiRes speech coding strategy, which applied different 129 filtering techniques, were evaluated. The 2 experimental strategies, HiRes FFT and HiRes Optima (Advanced Bionics, reference note 1), utilize a finite impulse 130 131 response filter in conjunction with Fast Fourier Transformation (FFT) 132 processing. HiRes Optima also uses current steering to create up to 135 virtual 133 spectral channels. In fact, it is a more energy-efficient variation of HiRes Fidelity 134 120 (Firszt et al. 2009). As the number of excitable channels is increased with 135 HiRes Optima, an improved performance on the SMRT is expected as compared 136 to both HiRes and HiRes FFT, as was demonstrated for HiRes Fidelity 120 by 137 Drennan et al. (2010). However, these authors also argued that FFT processing 138 potentially decreases temporal resolution, due to spectral smearing. Therefore, 139 both HiRes FFT and HiRes Optima might decrease performance on the MDT test. To eliminate order and practice effects, the participants received the 2 140 experimental take-home strategies in randomized order and had the chance to 141 142 adapt to the strategies during the 2 weeks prior to the testing. In this paper, the 143 randomization allows for the evaluation of test date effects (between week 2 and 144 4) while minimizing the effects of processing strategy. In other words, in the 145 paired comparison between performance at week 2 and 4, half of the participants was using HiRes FFT and half was using HiRes Optima at each test session. 146

Because the order of strategy was randomized, the effect of strategy was
minimal. The current study was approved by the Medical Ethical Committee of
the LUMC (ref. P02.106.Y).

150 Psychophysical testing:

151 During all psychophysical tasks, the listeners were seated in a double-walled 152 sound-attenuating booth. Sounds were presented via a single loudspeaker, placed 1 meter from the listener at 0 degrees and level with the listener's head. Subjects 153 154 received instructions for the psychophysical tests and then practiced the tasks six 155 times or more if necessary, to avoid learning in the actual test setting. Listeners 156 responded using a mouse with a custom computer interface, or they responded 157 verbally when they were unable to use the mouse (for example subject 10 was visually impaired). All stimuli were presented at 65 dB (SPL). 158

159 Spectral resolution was examined with the spectral-temporally modulated 160 ripple test (SMRT) as developed by Aronoff & Landsberger (2013). In this 161 adaptive 3-alternative forced choice task, listeners were asked to discriminate a 162 spectrally rippled stimulus, that is, a stimulus that is amplitude modulated in 163 the frequency domain, from a reference stimulus. The reference stimuli had fixed 164 ripple densities of 20 ripples per octave (RPO), whereas the ripple density of the target stimulus was modified until the listener was unable to discriminate 165 between the stimuli. The SMRT differs from previous spectral ripple tests (e.g. 166 167 Henry & Turner 2003) in that the ripple stimuli are modified. The SMRT uses a 168 spectral ripple with a modulation phase that drifts with time (See fig. 1a in 169 Aronoff & Landsberger 2013), thereby avoiding loudness cues and edge effects. 170 No feedback about the correct answer was given. The procedure was repeated six

times per testing run, and the estimated thresholds were averaged as the finalSMRT score.

173 The temporal modulation transfer function (TMTF) test, a 2-alternative 174 forced choice measure of temporal resolution, was used to determine the 175 modulation depth detection threshold (MDT) (Won et al. 2011). Two 1-second 176 intervals consisting of wide band noise were presented to the listener. While the 177 reference stimulus was unmodulated, the target stimulus was amplitude 178 modulated in the time domain with a frequency of 100 Hz and a starting modulation depth of 100%, because these conditions, when combined with 179 180 spectral ripple thresholds, accounted for the highest amount of speech variance 181 in previous studies (Won et al. 2011). Subjects were instructed to choose the interval that contained the modulated noise after which feedback of the correct 182 183 answer was provided. A 2-down, 1-up adaptive procedure was used to obtain 184 MDTs in dB relative to 100% modulation [20log10(modulation depth)]. The average of six tracking histories provided the final MDT score. 185

186 Statistical analysis

A 2-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) using within-subject 187 188 factors of 'visit' (Week numbers) and 'repetition number' (Repetition number 1-6) 189 were used to determine if there was a main effect of visit, repetition number, and 190 an interaction between those two factors. Because two different strategies were examined in randomized order in week 2 and 4, those weeks could not be 191 compared to week 0 or 6. Therefore, only week 0 and 6 were compared to each 192 other and week 2 was compared to week 4. SPSS Statistics Version 20 was used 193 194 for calculations.

RESULTS

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196	Individual and mean SMRT scores per test day are demonstrated in Figures 1A
197	and 1B. The average scores of the six repetitions was 3.4 RPO at baseline and 4.2
198	RPO, 5.0 RPO, and 4.8 RPO at weeks 2, 4, and 6, respectively. The results from a
199	2-way repeated-measures ANOVA indicated a highly significant improvement
200	between baseline and 6-week SMRT thresholds (F1,9=52.2, p<0.001), which was
201	present for all ten subjects (Fig.1). No significant effect of repetition number
202	(F5,45=1.5, p=0.195) or interaction between visit and repetition number
203	(F5,45=1.398, p=0.243) was observed. There was no significant difference
204	between SMRT scores at week 2 and 4 (F1,9=1.755, p=0.218) (Fig. 1B). Figure 2
205	shows the individual and mean SMRT thresholds as a function of trial number at
206	instantaneous testing, i.e. repeating the task on the same test day. A 2-way
207	repeated-measures ANOVA using the Greenhouse-Geisser correction revealed no
208	learning over the course of the six repeated runs on a given test day when all 4
209	test days were included (F2.4,21.5= 2.347 , p= 0.112). When comparing the first
210	with the last measurements in the sequence of six, a borderline significant
211	improvement of 0.7 RPO was found (F1,9=5.012, p=0.052).
212	Individual and mean MDT scores are shown in Figures 3A and 3B. The mean
213	MDT scores at weeks 0, 2, 4, and 6 were -15.2 dB, -16.5 dB, -17.2 dB, and -17.4 $$
214	dB, respectively, relative to 100% amplitude modulation. A 2-way repeated-
215	measures ANOVA showed that there was a significant improvement between the
216	first and second six repetitions with the HiRes speech coding strategy, i.e. week 0
217	versus week 6 (F1,9=6.108, p=0.035) (Fig. 3A). No effect of repetition number

218 (F5,45=0.965, p=0.449) or interaction between visit and repetition number

219	(F5,45=0.483, p=0.787) was observed. As 1 outlier was observed in this analysis
220	(subject 1), the repeated-measures ANOVA was repeated while excluding the
221	outlier, resulting in mean scores of -16.1 dB at baseline and -17.4 at 6 weeks. The
222	improvement appeared to still be highly statistically significant (F1,8=23.7,
223	p=0.001), and still revealed no effect of repetition number (F5,40=1.018, p=0.420)
224	or interaction between visit and repetition number (F5,40=0.709, p=0.620). The
225	MDT scores at weeks 2 and 4 were not significantly different from each other
226	(F1,9=0.608, p=0.456) (Fig. 3B) and a 2-way repeated-measures ANOVA using
227	the Greenhouse-Geisser correction to adjust for non-sphericity revealed no effect
228	of repetition number when all 4 test days were included (F2.2, 19.9=0.967,
229	p=0.405). Moreover, no improvement was observed between the first and last of
230	the six repetitions (F1,9= 2.289 , p= 0.165). Altogether, these findings indicated no
231	instantaneous learning effect (Fig. 4). A Pearson product-moment correlation
232	coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between the SMRT and MDT
233	scores, and revealed a significant correlation between the two measures,
234	R ² =0.298, p<0.001.

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DISCUSSION

The present study demonstrated a clear significant learning effect over time for
both the SMRT and the MDT test after repeated examination with the use of
different speech coding strategies. Group spectral-ripple discrimination ability
improved from 3.4 RPO at baseline to 4.8 RPO at the retest measurement after
participation in a clinical trial. The difference was significant on the individual
level in five out of ten subjects. The MDT results improved from -15.2 dB to -17.4

dB, a difference of -2.2 dB group-wide in the same time interval. Two out of ten
individual participants improved significantly. None of the listeners deteriorated
in performance and, in line with previous literature (Won et al. 2007; Drennan et al. 2008; Drennan et al. 2010), no learning was observed for either task in an
acute setting.

248 Although no instantaneous learning effect was detected in this or previous studies, there are also studies that conclude that there is no learning over time. 249 However, this previous research on learning effects mainly focused on acute 250 251 settings, and if long-term learning was assessed, either the duration was poorly 252 reported or learning effects after longer time intervals (at least 2 months) were investigated (Won et al. 2007; Drennan et al. 2014; Drennan et al. 2015). During 253 254 clinical take-home trials, when the presence of a potential learning effect is 255 essential for the interpretation of results, participants are typically exposed to 256 multiple speech coding strategies and execute the psychophysical tasks relatively 257 frequently, e.g., every 2-4 weeks. This makes it essential to identify learning 258 effects in these time frames.

259 Multiple practice sessions with rather short time intervals introduce 2 260 potential risks; perceptual and task learning. Exposure to new speech-coding strategies, and therefore novel speech cues, leads to perceptual learning. Because 261 262 the study population in this study participated in a clinical trial between baseline 263 and retest measurements, they did get a chance to adapt to different speech cues 264 and learn new auditory percepts. This perceptual learning could have potentially been used in the spectral and/or temporal discrimination tasks (Moberly et al. 265 266 2015). On the other hand, speech scores were also assessed during this trial, for

267 which no improvement was observed (F1,9=0.826, p=0.387). The lack of a 268 correlation between improvement of the speech scores and the SMRT or MDT 269 scores (R=0.039 and R=0.073 respectively), suggests that the potential effect of 270 perceptual learning is limited. It is reasonable to assume that repeated 271 psychophysical testing in a short period of time could cause task learning. 272 Moreover, it is well-known that perceptual learning amplifies this task learning 273 because of a so-called "carryover effect" (Liu 1999; Liu & Weinshall 2000; 274 Donaldson et al. 2011). A carryover effect is an effect, or ability, that carries over 275 from one experimental condition to another. When time intervals between test 276 sessions are sufficient, like in the study of Drennan et al. (2015), a carryover effect can be considered as (at least partially) extinguished. In other words, a so-277 called "wash-out period" of sufficient duration compensates for the carryover 278 279 effect. Moreover, as the purpose of Drennan et al. (2015) was to examine whether 280 basic spectral and temporal discrimination abilities would change over the first 281 year of implant use, they did not vary speech coding strategies. Hence, no 282 perceptual learning induced by the use of novel speech coding strategies could 283 occur. Given the frequency of test intervals in the current study, which was comparable to many other take-home studies (e.g. Holden et al. 2013; Neben et 284 al. 2013; Frijns et al. 2013), it is possible that the duration between visits was 285 shorter than the wash-out period and therefore a carryover effect cannot be ruled 286 out. Although it is clear that a learning effect was present for both tests, the 287 288 current study cannot identify the exact mechanism for this effect. It could be due 289 to task learning, perceptual learning by participating in a clinical trial, or a combination of both factors. 290

291 Our results could also partially be explained by the upward trend in 292 motivation of participants, and the placebo effect of any new speech coding 293 strategy. Moreover, the contrasting results found in this study compared with 294 previous work, could, although unlikely, be attributed to the use of different 295 versions of the psychoacoustic measures. For example, Drennan et al. (2014) used 296 a non-adaptive clinical version of the spectral ripple test, which differed 297 considerably from the spectral ripple task that was used in the current study. For 298 example, the current spectral ripple task implemented a temporal effect to avoid 299 potential loudness cues. This resulted in a significant, though fairly low, 300 correlation between SMRT and MDT scores, implying that the SMRT does not purely measure spectral resolution, but is also influenced by temporal effects. 301 This emphasizes the need for an improved measure of spectral resolution, that is 302 303 less influenced by both loudness and temporal cues.

304 Because the order in which the two experimental strategies were examined in this study was randomized, an extra analysis between the second and third 305 306 test day, irrespective of the speech coding strategy, could be performed. No significant difference was found between the test days for either task, implying 307 308 that no learning, or too little effect size to reach sufficient power, is present after 309 2 blocks of testing on separate days. Unfortunately, the number of practice 310 sessions that are necessary for the learning effect to be completely extinguished 311 is unclear and information about the effect size of learning in the MDT test and SMRT is not provided. In that light, it would have been helpful if basic HiRes 312 scores were evaluated at each session, regardless of what condition the subjects 313 314 were sent home with, although the fatigue that comes with multiple test sessions

on one day introduces another bias. A placebo controlled trial, in which
participants perform the psychophysical tasks multiple times, on separate test
days, with the same speech coding strategy (with a "fake" remapping in which
the subject may think that the strategy is different, but in fact is not), would
provide us with more specific information. Nevertheless, this study provides us
with sufficient evidence that a learning effect is present in the two tasks.

These results do not diminish the value of psychophysical testing for the 321 322 evaluation of newly developed speech coding strategies; rather, they emphasize 323 the importance of a proper, randomized research design. As a carryover effect 324 could be the cause of learning, it should be dealt with by allowing sufficient time between test dates to "wash-out" the effect of the previous test. Moreover, it is 325 important to incorporate a second testing phase with the baseline speech coding 326 327 strategy at the end of the trial, in addition to the initial baseline measurement, if 328 one wants to conclude that one of the coding strategies under test is really 329 improving speech perception. In line with this, Donaldson et al. (2011) found a 330 significant improvement in vowel recognition the second time the baseline 331 strategy was evaluated and used these results for comparison with the research strategy. Another example is the study of Vermeire et al. (2010), where an 332 333 experimental strategy was examined acutely and after 1, 3, 6 and 12 months of 334 usage. They found a significant improvement in speech intelligibility in noise 335 with the experimental strategy over time. However, switching back to the 336 baseline strategy resulted in a similar improvement (see fig.1. of Vermeire et al. (2010)), underlining the importance of comparing speech perception results with 337

- a second baseline measurement. This helps to avoid misinterpretation of
- 339 improvements due to learning effects as true differences between strategies.

CONCLUSIONS

The SMRT and MDT tasks show a clear learning effect over time when examined
relatively frequently in a clinical trial. Although an unmistakable explanation
has not been shown, these results emphasize the vigilance with which these
psychophysical test should be used in clinical trials, for the explicit reason that
they are assumed to not change over time. Moreover, great caution with respect
to (specifically long-term) learning effects is advised for the development of new
psychophysical measures.

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451	FIGURES
452	Figure 1
453	A. Individual and mean spectral ripple thresholds for 10 subjects (HiRes)
454	B. The same as A, now for the HiResFFT and Optima strategies
455	
456	Figure 2.
457	Effects of instantaneous learning for the spectral ripple task. The figure shows
458	individual and mean spectral ripple thresholds as a function of trial number
459	based on data from 10 subjects at 4 test intervals.
460	
461	Figure 3
462	A. Individual and mean modulation detection thresholds for 10 subjects (HiRes)
463	B. The same as A, now for the HiResFFT and Optima strategies.
464	
465	Figure 4.
466	Effects of instantaneous learning for the Temporal Modulation Transfer Function
467	test. The figure shows individual and mean Modulation detection thresholds as a
468	function of trial number based on data from 10 subjects at 4 test intervals.