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Ian B. Mertes





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**Establishing Critical Differences in Ear-Canal Stimulus Amplitude for Detecting Middle
Ear Muscle Reflex Activation During Olivocochlear Efferent Measurements**

Ian B. Mertes

*Department of Speech and Hearing Science, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign,
Champaign, Illinois, USA*

CONTACT: Ian B. Mertes; imertes@illinois.edu; Department of Speech and Hearing Science,
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 901 South Sixth Street, Champaign, IL, 61820,
USA

KEYWORDS

Acoustic reflex; contralateral inhibition; MOC; olivocochlear efferent; otoacoustic emissions

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Objective:** Assessments of the medial olivocochlear reflex (MOCR) may have clinical utility. The
3 MOCR is measured using contralateral inhibition of otoacoustic emissions but concurrent
4 activation of the middle ear muscle reflex (MEMR) confounds test interpretation. MEMR
5 activation can be detected using the change in ear-canal stimulus amplitude without versus with
6 an MOCR elicitor. This study provides a description of how critical differences in ear-canal
7 stimulus amplitude can be established.

8 **Design:** Clicks were presented in right ears without and with a contralateral MOCR elicitor. Ear-
9 canal stimulus amplitudes were measured. Two measurements without an elicitor were used to
10 develop critical differences. MEMR activation was considered present if the difference in ear-
11 canal stimulus amplitude without versus with an elicitor exceeded the critical difference.

12 **Study Sample:** Forty-six normal-hearing adults (mean age = 23.4 years, 35 females) participated,
13 with data from 44 participants included in the final analysis.

14 **Results:** Two participants exceeded the 95% critical difference. The 80%, 90%, and 99% critical
15 differences are also reported for reference.

16 **Conclusions:** Results suggest that the contralateral elicitor can evoke the MEMR in a small
17 number of participants. The methods described in this paper can be used for developing equipment-
18 and clinic-specific critical differences for detecting MEMR activation.

19 **Introduction**

20 The auditory brainstem can exert control over outer hair cell motility via the medial olivocochlear
21 (MOC) efferent system (reviewed in Guinan 2006; Lopez-Poveda 2018). MOC activation
22 improves neural encoding of sounds in the presence of background noise (Winslow and Sachs
23 1987; Kawase et al. 1993) and reduces auditory damage due to high-intensity sound (Rajan 1988;
24 Maison and Liberman 2000). Human studies suggest that the MOC contributes to the perception
25 of speech in background noise (e.g., Giraud et al. 1997; Kumar and Vanaja 2004; Mishra and
26 Lutman 2014; Mertes et al. 2019). Potential clinical applications of MOC assessments include
27 determining individual susceptibility to noise-induced hearing loss (Maison and Liberman 2000),
28 screening for auditory neuropathy spectrum disorder (Hood et al. 2003), and identifying the
29 potential physiologic source of auditory complaints in clinical populations such as auditory
30 processing disorder (Muchnik et al. 2004; Morlet et al. 2019), tinnitus (Riga et al. 2016), and
31 hyperacusis (Wilson et al. 2017).

32 MOC activity can be assessed indirectly using otoacoustic emissions (OAEs), which are
33 low-level sounds generated as a byproduct of outer hair cell motility (reviewed in Kemp 2002).
34 OAE amplitudes are often compared when measured without versus with a contralateral elicitor
35 noise to activate the MOC reflex (MOCR), where amplitude typically decreases in the presence of
36 the contralateral elicitor (Collet et al. 1990). OAEs are a routine component of audiologic practice,
37 suggesting that OAE-based assessments of the MOCR may be clinically feasible.

38 However, a complication of such measurements is that the contralateral elicitor can also
39 simultaneously activate the middle ear muscle reflex (MEMR), which causes contraction of the
40 stapedius muscle and thus alters the impedance of the middle ear (Møller 1962). MEMR activation
41 can decrease OAE amplitudes much like the MOCR does, which complicates test interpretation

42 because the relative contribution of the MEMR versus the MOCR must be disentangled (for a
43 detailed discussion, see Guinan et al. 2003; Marks and Siegel 2017).

44 Alternatively, avoidance of MEMR activation during the measurement ensures that
45 changes in OAE amplitude caused by the contralateral elicitor are due to the MOCR. From both a
46 clinical and research perspective, it is important to examine the contribution of the MOCR in
47 isolation. A common method of detecting MEMR activation is to examine the change in OAE-
48 evoking stimulus amplitude measured in the ear canal without versus with the contralateral elicitor
49 (e.g., Abdala et al. 2013). Because the MEMR alters middle ear impedance, it has the ability to
50 change the amplitude of the OAE-evoking stimulus that is reflected back to the ear canal
51 microphone. In contrast, the MOCR alters outer hair cell function which has no effect on ear-canal
52 stimulus amplitudes.

53 Most recent work has determined the presence of MEMR activation using a criterion
54 change in ear-canal stimulus amplitude without versus with a contralateral elicitor. If the difference
55 exceeds a specified amount, this is taken as evidence that the MEMR was activated by the
56 contralateral elicitor (Abdala et al. 2013; Boothalingam and Purcell 2015; Lichtenhan et al. 2016;
57 Bhatt 2017; Marks and Siegel 2017; Boothalingam et al. 2018; Mertes 2018). Many of these
58 studies have used a criterion of 0.12 dB reported in Abdala et al. (2013) which was based on studies
59 of wideband acoustic immittance measures of the MEMR (Feeney et al. 2003). It is of note that
60 the 0.12 dB criteria originated from MOCR measurements using distortion-product OAEs
61 (DPOAEs) for a contralateral elicitor level of 60 dB SPL, which may not be applicable to other
62 OAE types and/or elicitor levels. Other studies have used statistical resampling procedures to
63 identify significant changes in ear-canal stimulus amplitude for individual subjects (Goodman et
64 al. 2013; Mertes & Goodman 2016; Lewis 2018).

65 An alternative method to detecting significant MEMR activation is to establish critical
66 differences in ear-canal stimulus amplitude. The critical difference is the minimum amount of
67 change in a measurement that is considered a true change and not due to random variation. The
68 concept of the critical difference has related terms in the literature, including “minimum detectable
69 change”, “smallest detectable difference”, and “reference range”. Establishing the critical
70 difference involves measuring test-retest variability and calculating cutoff values. Often, the
71 cutoffs are computed using the standard error of measurement (SEM), described in more detail in
72 the Methods section. As discussed in Reavis et al. (2013), an SEM approach has been utilized in
73 the study of test-retest variability for a number of audiologic measures including otoacoustic
74 emissions and MOCR assessments (Beattie et al. 2003; Keppler et al. 2010; Helleman and
75 Dreschler 2012; Kumar et al. 2013). Additionally, an SEM approach has been implemented in
76 hearing research for detecting differences in measurements including speech recognition (e.g.,
77 Wilson and McArdle 2007) and hearing aid outcome questionnaires (e.g., Smith et al. 2009).

78 Often, the goal of establishing critical differences is to determine when a change in an
79 audiologic outcome is considered clinically significant, such as a decrease in OAE amplitude or
80 word recognition due to progression of hearing loss. However, we can apply the same principles
81 to the detection of MEMR activation. The ear-canal stimulus amplitude during an OAE
82 measurement is expected to be stable during a measurement, provided there is no appreciable
83 change due to factors such as probe slippage, environmental noise, or changes in middle ear
84 pressure. In the presence of a contralateral elicitor, any change in stimulus amplitude that exceeds
85 the critical difference can therefore be attributed to MEMR activation.

86 The purpose of this article is to provide a description of establishing critical differences in
87 ear-canal stimulus amplitude which will serve as a guideline for establishing ones’ own critical

88 differences using different equipment setups. A secondary interest was whether a brief
89 measurement (<30 s) could reasonably detect MEMR activation, which could be useful for clinical
90 assessments of the MOCR. In studies implementing bootstrap analyses, MOCR measurements
91 were made over the course of several minutes, and MEMR activation was assessed afterwards
92 (e.g., Mertes and Goodman 2016). It is possible that a shorter measurement of the MEMR itself
93 could allow for faster detection in a clinical setting, which could provide guidance on how to
94 proceed with the MOCR assessment.

95

96 **Materials and methods**

97 *Participants*

98 Participants were recruited from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign campus. The
99 research protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Illinois at
100 Urbana-Champaign. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants. Participants
101 were provided monetary compensation.

102 Forty-six individuals with normal hearing participated (11 males, 35 females, mean age =
103 23.4 years, standard deviation = 5.5 years). Participants were required to be right-handed and have
104 no history of the following: hearing loss, vertigo, use of ototoxic medications, middle ear disease,
105 severe and/or bothersome tinnitus, and noise exposure within the past 6 months. At the laboratory
106 visit, eligible participants were required to have an unremarkable otoscopic examination, 226-Hz
107 tympanograms within normal limits based on Mertes (2018) [tympanometric peak pressure: -100
108 to +50 daPa; ear canal volume: 0.6 to 2.5 cc; compliance: 0.2 to 1.8 mL], air-conduction thresholds
109 ≤ 20 dB HL at octave frequencies from 250–8000 Hz, and measurable transient-evoked
110 otoacoustic emissions (TEOAEs) from 1000 to 2000 Hz in the right ear. We defined “measurable”

111 as having a signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of at least 6 dB and a reproducibility of at least 70% in
112 response to 1250 sweeps of clicks presented at 65 dB peak SPL (pSPL) at a rate of 19.51/s (Mertes
113 2018).

114

115 *Equipment*

116 Testing was conducted in a single-walled sound-treated booth. Participants were seated in a
117 recliner during testing and watched a silent, closed-captioned video of their choice on an iPad Air
118 2 tablet computer (Apple, Cupertino, CA). Measurements were conducted using an RZ6 I/O
119 processor (Tucker-Davis Technologies, Alachua, FL) interfacing with a WS4 PC workstation
120 (Tucker-Davis Technologies), an ER-10B+ probe microphone (Etymotic Research, Elk Grove
121 Village, IL) with +40 dB preamplifier gain, and ER-2 insert earphones (Etymotic Research).
122 Analyses were conducted using MATLAB (ver. 2018a, The MathWorks, Inc., Natick, MA) and
123 SPSS (ver. 25.0.0.0, IBM Corp., Armonk, NY).

124

125 *Measurement paradigm*

126 The overall measurement paradigm follows that of previous investigations that incorporated
127 TEOAE-based assessments of the MOCR (e.g., Hood et al. 1996; Mishra and Lutman 2014;
128 Mertes 2018). This paradigm involves a series of clicks presented to the right ear without a
129 contralateral elicitor (no-elicitor condition) to establish baseline TEOAE amplitudes, followed by
130 a series of clicks presented to the right ear along with presentation of a contralateral elicitor for
131 evoking the MOCR (elicitor condition), followed by another series of clicks to the right ear without
132 a contralateral elicitor (a second no-elicitor condition) to establish short-term stability of TEOAE

133 amplitudes in the absence of the contralateral elicitor (note that the focus of this study was on ear-
134 canal stimulus amplitudes).

135 The stimulus and recording parameters are based on our previous research for investigating
136 the MOCR using TEOAEs (Mertes 2018). Broadband clicks for eliciting TEOAEs consisted of
137 40.96- μ s pulses (electrical bandwidth = 0 to 24414 Hz) delivered at a rate of 19.51/s to avoid
138 eliciting the ipsilateral MOCR (Boothalingam and Purcell 2015). Clicks were presented through
139 ER-2 insert earphones attached to the ER-10B+ probe assembly. Clicks were presented to right
140 ears at 65 dB pSPL. Immediately prior to the recording, click levels were calibrated in-situ to be
141 within ± 0.25 dB of the target level. The contralateral elicitor consisted of broadband Gaussian
142 noise (electrical bandwidth = 0 to 24414 Hz) presented through ER-2 insert earphones to left ears
143 at 60 dB SPL as calibrated in an AEC202 2-cc coupler (Larson Davis, Depew, NY). We chose to
144 measure TEOAEs in right ears and present the contralateral elicitor in left ears because this
145 configuration yields larger MOCR effects in right-handed individuals (Khalifa and Collet 1996).
146 The TEOAE microphone recordings were sampled at a rate of 24414.1 Hz, highpass filtered using
147 a second-order Butterworth filter with a cutoff frequency of 500 Hz, and stored to disk for offline
148 analysis.

149 A schematic of the stimulus presentation is shown in Figure 1. For the first no-elicitor
150 condition (*no elicitor 1*), a train of clicks was presented to the right ear for 8 s with no stimuli
151 presented to the left ear for 8 s. This was followed by 0.5 s of silence in the right ear and 0.5 s of
152 the contralateral elicitor to allow for the full onset of the MOCR prior to the next condition (Backus
153 and Guinan 2006). The elicitor condition (*elicitor 1*) consisted of a train of clicks presented to the
154 right ear for 8 s along with presentation of the contralateral elicitor in the left ear for 8 s. The
155 elicitor condition was followed by 0.5 s of silence in both ears to allow for full offset of the MOCR

156 prior to the second no-elicitor condition (Backus and Guinan). Finally, the second no-elicitor
157 condition (*no elicitor 2*) was presented and was identical to the first no-elicitor condition. Because
158 of the interest in a rapid assessment of MEMR, this stimulus paradigm only included one
159 measurement of these three elicitor conditions.

160

161 ***Data extraction***

162 The recorded click stimuli in each elicitor condition were stored in separate matrices and analyzed
163 offline in MATLAB. To isolate the click stimulus, recorded waveforms were time windowed with
164 a rectangular window as in Mertes and Goodman (2016). The window was 1.36 ms in duration,
165 starting 0.2 ms before the peak of the click stimulus and extending to 1.16 ms after the peak of the
166 stimulus (example stimulus waveforms for one participant are shown in Fig. 2A). This time
167 window was chosen to maximize the measured effect of the MEMR on the ear-canal stimulus
168 amplitude, given the delay between stimulus presentation and activation of the MEMR (Feeney et
169 al., 2017; Marks and Siegel, 2017).

170 We removed linear trends in each recorded waveform (e.g., due to probe slippage or
171 changes in middle ear pressure) by applying the MATLAB function ‘detrend.m’. Visual inspection
172 of the stimulus waveforms before and after detrending demonstrated that the procedure performed
173 as intended. An example of the detrended stimulus waveforms for one participant is shown in
174 Figure 2B. It can be seen that detrending reduced the noise present in the recorded waveforms.
175 Across all participants, detrending decreased the mean percentage of rejects by 0.59% and
176 decreased the mean noise floor by 2.04 dB SPL relative to no detrending when collapsed across
177 elicitor conditions. Although nonlinear trends such as a participant briefly swallowing during the
178 measurement would not be removed by this procedure, such instances would presumably result in

179 high-amplitude responses that would be discarded by the artifact rejection procedure. Given the
180 performance of the detrending procedure, we recommend that future work in this area consider
181 implementing detrending to reduce the noise floor and reduce the number of sweeps identified as
182 artifact.

183 Because the presence of high-amplitude artifacts could impact measured ear-canal stimulus
184 amplitudes, we performed artifact rejection post-hoc based on methods described in Goodman et
185 al. (2009). Stimulus waveforms with a root-mean-square (RMS) amplitude that exceeded 1.5 times
186 the interquartile range across all recorded waveforms within a participant were discarded.

187 We quantified the ear-canal stimulus amplitudes as well as the SNR of the stimuli. Signal
188 and noise floor waveforms were obtained using a two-buffer approach, where odd-numbered
189 waveforms were stored in buffer A and even-numbered waveforms were stored in buffer B (Prieve
190 et al. 1993). The signal was obtained as $\frac{(A+B)}{2}$ and the noise floor was obtained as $\frac{(A-B)}{2}$. The first
191 and last 0.045 ms were ramped with a Hann window. The mean of the signal and noise floor
192 waveforms was computed. For each participant, the RMS ear-canal stimulus amplitude (i.e., the
193 signal) amplitude and RMS noise floor amplitude (both in dB SPL) were computed across the 1.36
194 ms time window. RMS amplitudes in each condition are shown for one participant in Figure 2B.
195 For each elicitor condition, each participant contributed one signal amplitude and noise floor
196 amplitude.

197

198 *Data analysis*

199 When assessing the MOCR, the data are often analyzed as the difference in TEOAE amplitude in
200 the first no-elicitor condition and the elicitor condition. For this difference to be attributed to the
201 MOCR (and not due to other factors such as probe drift), the magnitude of this difference should

202 exceed the magnitude of the difference in TEOAE amplitude between the first and second no-
203 elicitor conditions. However, the current analysis differs because the focus is on the recorded ear-
204 canal stimulus amplitudes obtained in the no-elicitor and elicitor conditions. Therefore, we do not
205 report any MOCR data in this paper (MOCR data from a subset of participants are reported in
206 Mertes 2018 and Mertes et al. 2019).

207 To calculate critical differences, we first computed the standard error of measurement as:

$$208 \quad SEM = SD\sqrt{1 - r_{xx}} \quad (1),$$

209 where SD is the standard deviation across all ear-canal stimulus amplitudes in the two no-elicitor
210 conditions and r_{xx} is the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for the ear-canal stimulus
211 amplitudes in the two no-elicitor conditions. The 95% critical difference is defined as:

$$212 \quad CD_{95} = \pm(1.96 \times SEM \times \sqrt{2}) \quad (2).$$

213 Other critical differences that have been utilized in the clinical literature include 80%, 90%, and
214 99% [in which case the value of 1.96 in Eq. 2 would be replaced with 1.282, 1.645, and 2.576,
215 respectively (McMillan and Hanson 2014)]. We report all of these critical differences values for
216 reference, with the caveat that the values will be influenced by the choice of stimulus, recording,
217 and analysis parameters. For a given participant, the difference in ear-canal stimulus amplitude
218 between the first no-elicitor and elicitor conditions is compared to the critical difference, and if
219 this difference falls outside the critical difference, it suggests that MEMR activation was present
220 due to the contralateral elicitor.

221

222 **Results**

223 Two participants had >10% of their stimulus waveforms rejected due to excessively noisy
224 recordings. Therefore, the data from these two participants were excluded from the analysis based

225 on the inclusion criterion specified in Boothalingam and Purcell (2015). We did not attempt to
226 retest these individuals for this study, but future studies should ensure that all participants are
227 sufficiently quiet during the test session to maximize the number of data points included in the
228 analysis. A Friedman nonparametric test was conducted to examine differences in percentage of
229 rejects across elicitor conditions in the remaining participants. However, there was no statistically
230 significant difference across conditions ($Mdn = 0.641\%$ in all conditions), $\chi^2(2) = 0.695$, $p = 0.706$.

231 It was first of interest to determine if any differences in ear-canal stimulus amplitude and
232 noise floor across elicitor conditions were present at the group level. Ear-canal stimulus amplitudes
233 and noise floors were normally distributed, as assessed with Shapiro-Wilk tests of normality ($p >$
234 0.05 in all cases). Additionally, there were no outliers as assessed using median absolute deviation
235 (MAD), where cases with a MAD exceeding 3.5 would be considered an outlier based on work by
236 Helleman and Dreschler (2012). Mean RMS ear canal stimulus amplitudes (± 1 SD) were 55.101
237 ± 0.968 dB SPL for *no elicitor 1*, 55.104 ± 0.971 dB SPL for *elicitor 1*, and 55.102 ± 0.969 dB
238 SPL for *no elicitor 2*. A repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Greenhouse-
239 Geisser correction revealed no significant differences in ear-canal stimulus amplitudes across
240 elicitor conditions, $F(1.299, 55.850) = 0.195$, $p = 0.725$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.005$. Mean RMS noise floor
241 amplitudes (± 1 SD) were 6.174 ± 1.270 dB SPL for *no elicitor 1*, 6.230 ± 1.690 dB SPL for *elicitor*
242 *1*, and 6.128 ± 1.572 dB SPL for *no elicitor 2*. Mauchly's test for sphericity revealed that the
243 assumption of sphericity was not violated, $\chi^2(2) = 2.064$, $p = 0.356$. A repeated measures ANOVA
244 revealed no significant differences in noise floor amplitudes across elicitor conditions, $F(2, 86) =$
245 0.049 , $p = 0.952$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.001$. Mean SNRs were 48.927 dB for *no elicitor 1*, 48.874 dB for
246 *elicitor 1*, and 48.974 for *no elicitor 2* (no statistical test was run on SNRs due to lack of significant

247 difference in stimulus amplitudes and noise floors). These high SNRs allowed for the detection of
248 small changes in ear-canal stimulus amplitude (Goodman et al. 2013; Lewis 2018).

249 A scatter plot of amplitudes in the two no-elicitor conditions is shown in Figure 3. There
250 was a statistically significant correlation between amplitudes in the two no-elicitor conditions,
251 $r(42) = 0.999$, $p < 0.001$, indicating high short-term stability.

252 In computing the *SEM*, *SD* was 0.9626 and r_{xx} was 0.9998, resulting in an *SEM* of 0.0137.
253 The resulting critical differences are listed in Table 1. All critical differences were in hundredths
254 of a decibel, suggesting that small changes in ear-canal stimulus amplitude can be indicative of
255 MEMR activation.

256 After establishing the critical differences, the decibel difference in ear-canal stimulus
257 amplitude in the *no elicitor 1* and *elicitor 1* conditions were computed for each participant. If this
258 difference exceeded the critical difference, the result was interpreted as significant MEMR
259 activation. We considered changes in amplitude in both directions (i.e., amplitude increasing and
260 decreasing in the presence of the elicitor, respectively) as indicative of MEMR activation based
261 on work using wideband acoustic immittance to measure frequency effects of the MEMR (Feeney
262 et al. 2003).

263 The mean ear-canal stimulus amplitude difference between *no elicitor 1* and *elicitor 1* was
264 0.0028 ± 0.0403 dB (range = -0.0729 to 0.2368 dB). The number and percentage of participants
265 whose amplitude differences exceeded the critical difference are shown in the last column of Table
266 1. Figure 4 displays the amplitude difference sorted from low to high for all participants. The 95%
267 critical difference is shown by the dashed horizontal lines, where values falling outside these lines
268 indicated significant MEMR activation. Two participants exceeded the 95% critical difference.
269 One participant had an amplitude difference in the negative direction (i.e., ear-canal stimulus

270 amplitude decreased in the presence of the contralateral activator). It is of note that only one
271 participant had an amplitude difference that exceeded the commonly-used criterion of 0.12 dB.

272

273 **Discussion**

274 Detection of the MEMR is critical for proper interpretation of OAE-based measurements of the
275 MOCR. This study is the first to construct critical differences in ear-canal stimulus amplitude using
276 an SEM approach. The critical differences reported in Table 1 are considerably smaller (more
277 stringent) than a 0.12 dB criterion. Although there were no significant differences in mean ear-
278 canal stimulus amplitude across conditions at the group level, two participants exceeded the 95%
279 critical difference, suggesting probable MEMR activation. In contrast, only one participant
280 demonstrated MEMR activation using the criterion of 0.12 dB. This suggests that the current
281 method identified smaller amounts of MEMR activation than the typically used criterion for the
282 click-based measurements as they were conducted in this sample of participants. We acknowledge
283 that an MEMR detection approach that examines ear-canal stimulus amplitude changes is likely
284 conservative because the ear-canal stimulus amplitudes have a higher SNR than the TEOAEs and
285 because of the potential difference in frequency effects of the MEMR versus the MOCR (Liberman
286 and Guinan 1998).

287 Additionally, it is of note that the 0.12 dB criterion originated from the work of Abdala et
288 al. (2013) who conducted MOCR measurements using DPOAEs. Because DPOAEs involve tonal
289 stimuli whereas TEOAEs involve transient stimuli, it is possible that different critical difference
290 values would apply to the two types of stimuli. DPOAEs are typically elicited with higher-
291 frequency stimuli relative to the frequencies contained within broadband clicks used for eliciting
292 TEOAEs. The MEMR impacts middle ear function across a broad range of frequencies, but

293 activation of the MEMR causes the largest changes in wideband acoustic immittance below 1000
294 Hz (Feeney et al. 2017). The click stimuli used in this study may therefore exhibit smaller critical
295 differences than tonal stimuli due to increased low-frequency energy.

296 The ear-canal stimulus amplitudes in the current study were normally distributed. This
297 allowed us to compute the SEM. Nonparametric approaches are possible, which include using the
298 percentiles from the sample distribution for determining the limits of variability. However, as
299 discussed in McMillan and Hanson (2014), the sample size will need to be larger for a
300 nonparametric approach. When developing one's own critical differences, the sample size and
301 normality of the data are important factors to consider. Future work in our lab will include
302 establishing critical differences using a larger number of participants and across a broader range
303 of TEOAE-eliciting stimulus levels and contralateral elicitor levels.

304 An advantage of computing critical differences over using a single criterion value is that
305 the stringency of the MEMR detection can be adjusted depending on the application and/or patient
306 population. For example, some individuals with hyperacusis can present with abnormally low
307 MEMR thresholds (Gordon 1986) which would need to be accounted for when assessing MOCR
308 activity. Conversely, detecting susceptibility to noise-induced hearing loss for occupational or
309 military applications may require less stringency in terms of differentiating MEMR from MOCR
310 [see the comments of J. Guinan in the "Post-Talk Q&A" section of Goodman et al. (2018)].

311 Regarding our secondary interest of implementing a rapid (<30 s) measurement of MEMR
312 activity, it remains to be seen whether this particular approach is clinically feasible. The SNRs of
313 the click stimuli were high (mean of approximately 48 dB in all elicitor conditions), so further
314 signal averaging does not appear to be necessary, at least for the 65 dB pSPL clicks used in this
315 study. An advantage of the current methodology is that MEMR activation could be detected prior

316 to conducting a longer MOCR measurement, rather than examining the presence of MEMR post-
317 hoc after the MOCR measurement is conducted. However, it could be desirable to find the highest
318 elicitor level that does not activate the MEMR and then conduct the MOCR test at that intensity.
319 In such a case, the current methodology would need to be repeated with one or more elicitor
320 intensities, increasing test time. It should be noted that adjusting the elicitor intensity affects the
321 magnitude of the MOCR effect on OAEs (Hood et al. 1996) and would need to be taken into
322 account when comparing MOCR measurements across participants and studies. We presented the
323 contralateral elicitor at 60 dB SPL, a typical intensity for studies of the MOCR. If the goal is to
324 avoid MEMR activation in all participants, our data suggest that lower contralateral elicitor levels
325 may be required. Our finding of MEMR activation in some participants at 60 dB SPL is also
326 consistent with past work (Guinan et al. 2003).

327 We present the critical difference method as one potential tool for MEMR detection.
328 However, it is important to consider that other methods for detecting MEMR activation have also
329 been described recently. Goodman et al. (2013) computed bootstrapped confidence intervals for
330 detecting MEMR activation in individual participants. The ear-canal stimulus amplitudes from the
331 no-elicitor and elicitor conditions were pooled. Two random samples were drawn from this pool
332 and the difference was computed. This procedure was repeated 10,000 times to form a distribution
333 of resampled differences. If the actual mean difference in stimulus amplitude between conditions
334 exceeded the bootstrapped confidence intervals, MEMR activation was considered present. The
335 authors found that three participants out of 16 (18.75%) total showed significant MEMR activation
336 for contralateral white noise presented at 35 dB SL. This percentage is similar to that obtained
337 using the 80% critical difference in the current study. Because the critical difference is driven by
338 the results obtained in a sample of participants, a potential disadvantage is that it may be too

339 stringent or too lax in identifying MEMR activation in a particular individual, whereas the
340 bootstrap method only considers the variability within the individual. However, by establishing a
341 normative range of expected differences in ear-canal stimulus amplitude, this could be useful for
342 identifying participants with excessively weak or strong MEMR activation.

343 For clinical purposes, a test of MEMR activation would ideally be brief. Future work
344 should consider assessing if there is a difference in required data collection time for the critical
345 difference method versus the bootstrapping method. Our method lasted approximately 30 s,
346 whereas the bootstrapping methods used in Mertes and Goodman (2016) lasted 160 s and those
347 used in Goodman et al. (2013) lasted 7.2 min. Of note, Goodman et al. (2013) used a nonlinear
348 TEOAE extraction method which required 3 times the number of stimuli used in the linear
349 extraction method used by Mertes and Goodman (2016) and in the current study. Additionally, the
350 studies implementing bootstrapping analyzed MEMR activation from the MOCR recordings
351 which required sufficient signal averaging to uncover the low-amplitude TEOAEs, whereas the
352 current study used a brief measurement of the ear-canal stimuli which did not require as much
353 signal averaging. An empirical investigation of the number of synchronous averages to include in
354 a bootstrapping procedure to reliably detect MEMR activation should provide insight into the
355 clinical feasibility of the different potential methods of detecting MEMR activation.

356 Marks and Siegel (2017) examined the difference waveform between the no-elicitor and
357 elicitor conditions. For MEMR activation to be considered present, the SNR of this difference
358 waveform had to exceed 5 dB within a time window that encompassed the stimulus. The authors
359 found that participants did not exhibit significant MEMR activation until contralateral pink noise
360 intensities reached 70 dB SPL or above. We only implemented one contralateral elicitor intensity
361 of 60 dB SPL because this is commonly reported in the literature, so we could not assess the

362 MEMR threshold in our participants. The work of Goodman et al. (2013) and Marks and Siegel
363 (2017) differed considerably in terms of methodology and participant samples from the current
364 work, so comparisons of the relative sensitivity to MEMR activation should be interpreted with
365 caution. A direct comparison of MEMR detection across methodologies in the same participant
366 population appears warranted.

367 Marks and Siegel (2017) highlighted the important potential impact of synchronized
368 spontaneous OAEs (SSOAEs) on measurements of MEMR activation. SSOAEs are similar to
369 TEOAEs because they are both evoked by transient stimuli, but the SSOAEs persist for longer
370 than TEOAEs (Wable and Collet 1994). If SSOAEs are of sufficient amplitude and are inhibited
371 by the MOCR, this could be exhibited as a change in ear-canal stimulus amplitude even in the
372 absence of an MEMR effect on the stimulus (see Supplemental Material 1 for further analysis and
373 discussion; <http://tandfonline.com/doi/suppl>). The current study did not account for the MOCR
374 effect on SSOAEs, so more work is needed to understand how SSOAEs can impact the
375 establishment of critical differences in ear-canal stimulus amplitude.

376 We examined changes in the RMS amplitude of the click stimulus obtained in the time
377 domain. However, this quantification did not allow for an examination of the effects across
378 frequency. Feeney et al. (2003) have shown that the MEMR can cause increases in ear-canal
379 reflectance below 1000 Hz which could cause an increase in ear-canal stimulus amplitude.
380 However, above 1000 Hz, decreases in reflectance can occur which could cause decreases in ear-
381 canal stimulus amplitude. Boothalingam and Purcell (2015) noted that these increases and
382 decreases in stimulus pressure may cancel out if only examining the total ear-canal pressure, as
383 was done in the current study. Goodman et al. (2018) used measurements of wideband reflectance
384 to detect MEMR activation across different frequency bands, but they reported that there was

385 considerable inter-subject variability in terms of the patterns. The frequency-dependent effects of
386 the MEMR on ear-canal stimulus amplitudes requires further investigation. However, this method
387 introduces the complication of how to quantify the change in amplitude across frequency due to
388 the large number of frequencies involved and due to the possibility of both increases and decreases
389 in amplitude. A future direction of our research group is to incorporate wideband acoustic
390 immittance methods (e.g., Feeney et al. 2017; Keefe et al. 2017; Goodman et al. 2018) to verify if
391 the MOCR elicitor activates the MEMR. Such measurements would provide more precise
392 identification of MEMR activation during measurements of the MOCR to enhance interpretation
393 of the results, which is crucial for clinical implementation of MOCR measurements.

394 The methods to compute critical differences described in this paper can be implemented
395 by others to develop their own normative ranges. It is crucial to note that the critical difference
396 values will depend upon a number of factors, including instrumentation, stimulus and recording
397 parameters, and characteristics of the participants. Therefore, the critical differences reported in
398 this paper (Table 1) should not be interpreted as the sole critical difference value to apply in any
399 context, but they will serve as a point of reference. Determining the critical differences is an
400 important step to implementing interpretable OAE-based tests of the MOCR for research and
401 clinical practice.

402

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410

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413

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418

419 **ORCID**

420 Ian B. Mertes, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8754-2122>

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572 **Figure Captions**

573 **Figure 1.** Block diagram of the stimulus presentation across time. Black and gray boxes represent
574 stimuli presented to the right and left ears, respectively. Solid boxes represent the time periods that
575 comprised each test condition, while dashed boxes represent the time periods for the onset and
576 offset of the MOCR that were not included in the analysis.

577
578 **Figure 2.** Example data from one representative participant. Panel A: Recorded ear-canal stimulus
579 waveforms without detrending are shown. Gray tracings represent individual stimulus waveforms
580 in the *no elicitor 1* condition (for visual clarity, waveforms from the other conditions are not
581 shown). The thick black tracing represents the mean waveform. Time zero on the x-axis is shown
582 relative to the peak of the stimulus. Panel B: Recorded ear-canal stimulus waveforms are shown
583 after the detrending was applied. Panel C: RMS ear-canal stimulus amplitudes in each elicitor
584 condition. Error bars represent 1 SD.

585
586 **Figure 3.** Scatter plot of RMS ear-canal stimulus amplitudes in the two *no-elicitor* conditions.
587 Circles are individual data points ($n = 44$). The line represents a 1:1 correspondence between
588 amplitudes in each condition.

589
590 **Figure 4.** Differences in ear-canal stimulus amplitude between *no elicitor 1* and *elicitor 1*
591 conditions for all participants. The dashed lines represent the 95% critical difference. Circles
592 represent individual participant data sorted from low to high. Unfilled circles are results that did
593 not exceed the 95% critical difference ($n = 42$) and filled circles represent results that exceeded
594 the 95% critical difference ($n = 2$).

595 **Table 1.** Critical differences in ear-canal stimulus amplitude. The last column displays the number
596 of participants exhibiting probable MEMR (exceeding the critical difference), with the percentage
597 of participants shown in parentheses.

<i>Critical Difference (%)</i>	<i>Cutoff Values (dB)</i>	<i>Cases of Probable MEMR</i>
80	± 0.0249	8 (18.18%)
90	± 0.0320	4 (9.09%)
95	± 0.0381	2 (4.55%)
99	± 0.0500	2 (4.55%)

598

No Elicitor 1

Elicitor 1

No Elicitor 2

*Right
Ear*

Clicks
8 s

Silence
0.5 s

Clicks
8 s

Silence
0.5 s

Clicks
8 s

Silence
0.5 s

*Left
Ear*

Silence
8 s

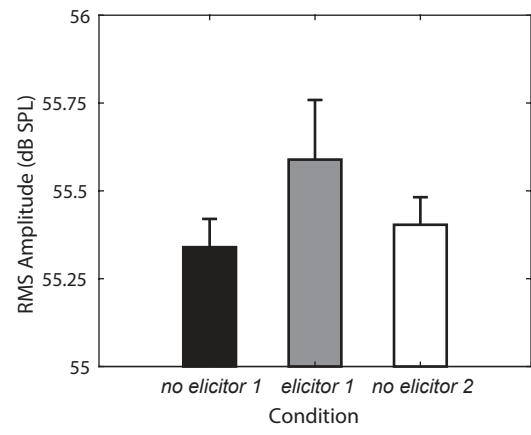
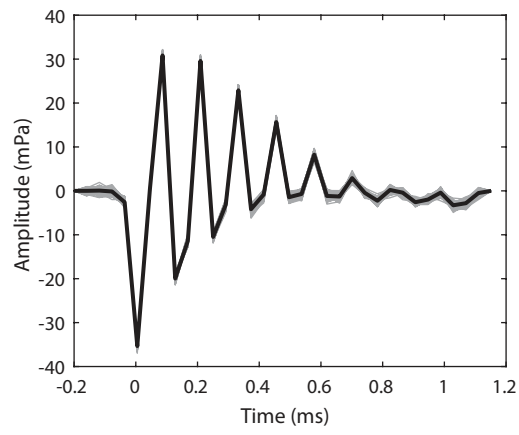
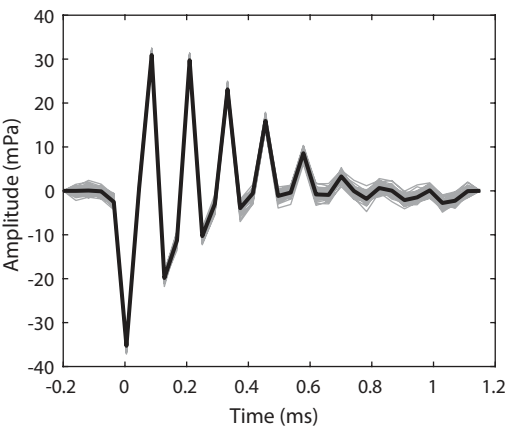
Elicitor
0.5 s

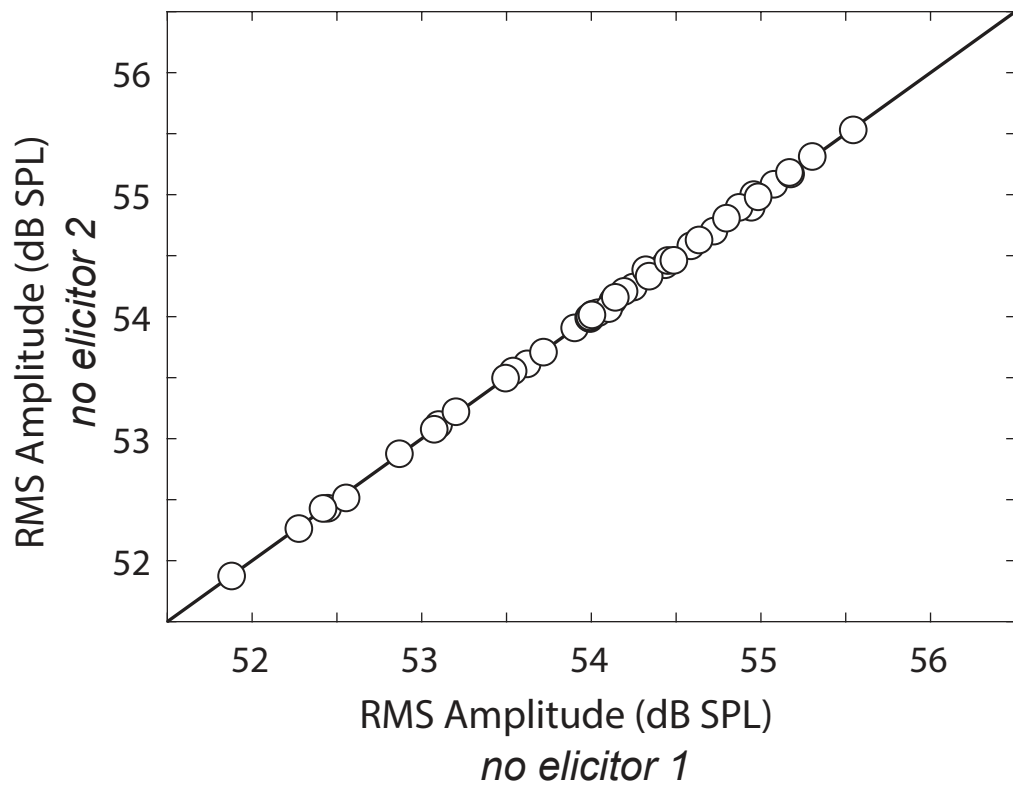
Elicitor
8 s

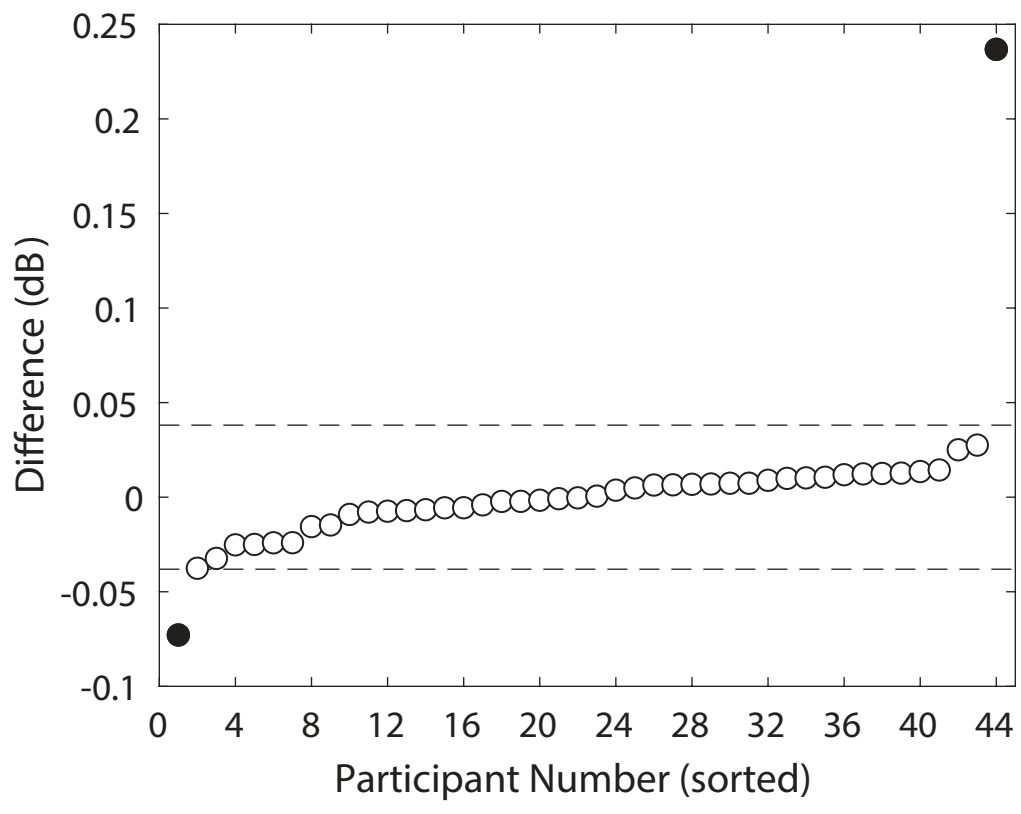
Silence
0.5 s

Silence
8 s

Silence
0.5 s







Supplemental Material 1: Analysis of Synchronous Spontaneous Otoacoustic Emissions

The presence of synchronous spontaneous otoacoustic emissions (SSOAEs) was investigated using methods adapted from Mertes and Goodman (2016). SSOAEs were obtained from the transient-evoked otoacoustic emission (TEOAE) screening procedure described in the Methods (the short duration of the middle ear muscle reflex measurement did not allow for sufficient signal averaging to detect SSOAEs). SSOAEs were analyzed in the time window from 34 to 44 ms (relative to the location of the stimulus peak) because this window would not contain TEOAEs (Sisto and Moleti 2007). Waveforms were band pass filtered from 1000 to 4000 Hz using a Hann-window-based finite impulse response filter with a filter order of 128. The first and last 1-ms were ramped on and off with a raised-cosine ramp. Artifact rejection and computation of the root-mean-square signal and noise floor amplitudes were performed as described in the Methods. SSOAEs were considered present if the signal-to-noise ratio exceeded 6 dB.

Results revealed that 34 of 44 participants (77.27%) had present SSOAEs. This prevalence is consistent with that reported by Sisto et al. (2001), but differs from other reports (Jedrzejczak et al. 2008; Mertes and Goodman 2016; Lewis 2018). These discrepancies may be due to a combination of differences in stimuli, analysis, and participant characteristics. Of the 34 participants with present SSOAEs, the mean amplitude ± 1 SD was 3.579 ± 5.773 dB SPL (range = -5.505 to 16.590 dB SPL).

The potential influence of SSOAEs on the middle ear muscle reflex (MEMR) results was examined through the scatter plot shown in Figure 1. Ear-canal stimulus amplitude differences are plotted against SSOAE amplitude. The SSOAE amplitude is shown for participants with present SSOAEs as well as absent SSOAEs to look for any qualitative differences between the two groups.

Visual inspection revealed no apparent relationship between the size of the difference in ear-canal stimulus amplitude and the SSOAE amplitude. This observation was confirmed by lack of a significant correlation, $r(42) = -0.129$, $p = 0.403$. Participants with absent SSOAEs showed a smaller range of difference values compared to those with present SSOAEs, but this may be due to the smaller number of participants with absent SSOAEs. The participant with the largest difference value (0.237 dB) that fell outside the 95% critical difference had an SSOAE amplitude that was on the lower end of the distribution of SSOAE amplitudes (-1.738 dB SPL, below the 25th percentile), suggesting that SSOAEs did not contribute appreciably to the difference in ear-canal stimulus amplitude. Conversely, the other participant with a difference value (-0.073 dB) falling outside the 95% critical difference had an SSOAE amplitude that was on the higher end of the distribution of SSOAE amplitudes (11.130 dB SPL, above the 75th percentile). This could suggest an influence of SSOAEs on the measured difference in ear-canal stimulus amplitude in this participant, although it is of note that other participants with SSOAEs of a similar amplitude did not exceed the 95% critical difference.

One factor we cannot account for in this analysis is the amount of medial olivocochlear reflex (MOCR) inhibition of the SSOAE (recall that the TEOAE screening data were analyzed for SSOAEs, which did not include a contralateral elicitor). If a large-amplitude SSOAE was sufficiently inhibited by the MOCR and was out of phase with the stimulus, this interaction could exhibit as a change in ear-canal stimulus amplitude even if there were no MEMR activation. The following equation illustrates the potential impact of SSOAEs. Equation 1 computes the difference value that would result from an interaction of the stimulus amplitude and an SSOAE that is inhibited by the MOCR:

$$\delta_{stim} = 20 \log_{10}[(A_{stim} + (A_{ssoae} \times A_{moc})) / (A_{stim} + A_{ssoae})] \quad (1),$$

where δ_{stim} is the estimated change in ear-canal stimulus amplitude in dB, A_{stim} is the RMS amplitude of the ear-canal stimulus in Pascals, A_{ssoae} is the RMS amplitude of the SSOAE in Pascals, and A_{moc} is the amplitude of MOCR inhibition of the SSOAE in linear units. For the aforementioned participant with a difference value of -0.073 dB and an SSOAE amplitude of 11.130 dB SPL, if we use an A_{stim} of 55 dB SPL and a reasonable value of A_{moc} of 0.707 (3 dB inhibition), the resulting δ_{stim} is -0.016 dB. This value is smaller than the participant's actual difference value, and δ_{stim} did not exceed the 95% critical difference. This suggests a lack of effect of SSOAEs on the results for this participant. Conversely, for the participant with the largest SSOAE amplitude (16.590 dB SPL), if we again use an A_{moc} of 0.707 , δ_{stim} is -0.030 which exceeds the participant's actual difference value of -0.024 dB but does not exceed the 95% critical difference. In this participant, it could suggest that the value of A_{moc} overestimated the actual MOCR effect and/or that the inhibited SSOAE is not completely out of phase with the stimulus waveform.

Because no measurement of MOCR inhibition of the SSOAEs was obtained in the current study, these estimated effects of SSOAEs remain speculative. It appears that very large-amplitude SSOAEs may potentially impact the measured change in ear-canal stimulus amplitude, but only if the size of MOCR inhibition is substantially large. Further work is needed, but we recommend that future work include the analysis of SSOAEs and the MOCR effect on SSOAEs when developing critical differences.

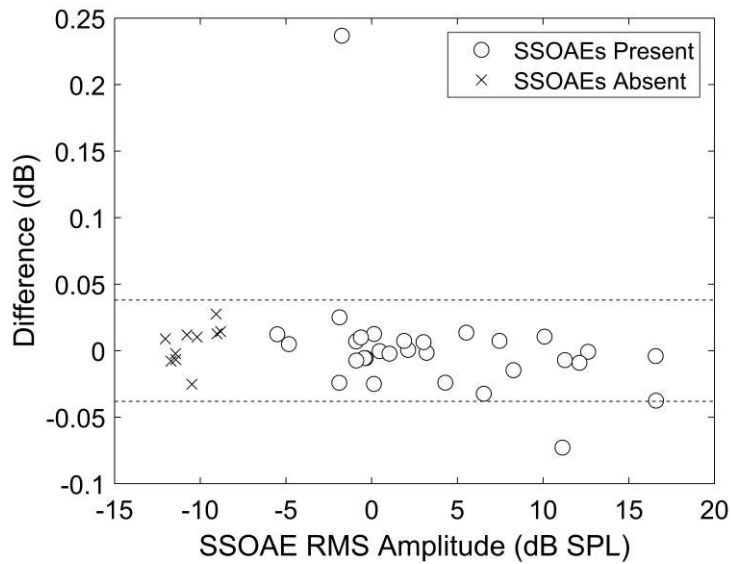


Figure 1. Differences in ear-canal stimulus amplitude (*no elicitor I* versus *elicitor I*) as a function of SSOAE amplitude. Open circles represent participants with present SSOAEs and x symbols represent participants with absent SSOAEs. The dashed horizontal lines represent the 95% critical difference.

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