

# **Auditory attention reduced ear-canal noise in humans, but not through medial olivocochlear efferent inhibition: Implications for measuring otoacoustic emissions during behavioral task performance**

1

2 **Nikolas A. Francis<sup>1,2,a</sup>, Wei Zhao<sup>2,3,b</sup>, John J. Guinan Jr<sup>1,2,3,\*</sup>**

3 <sup>1</sup>Speech and Hearing Bioscience and Technology, Harvard-MIT Division of Health Sciences and  
4 Technology, Cambridge Massachusetts 02139, USA;

5 <sup>2</sup>Eaton Peabody Laboratories, Department of Otolaryngology, Massachusetts Eye and Ear, Boston  
6 Massachusetts 02114, USA;

7 <sup>3</sup>Department of Otolaryngology, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts 02115, USA

8 <sup>a</sup>Current address: Department of Biology, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742

9 <sup>b</sup>Current address: 6 Dimensions Capital (formerly WuXi Healthcare Ventures), 55 Cambridge  
10 Parkway, 8th Floor, Cambridge, MA 02142

11 **\* Correspondence:**

12 Corresponding Author: John J. Guinan, Jr., Eaton Peabody Laboratories, Department of  
13 Otolaryngology, Massachusetts Eye and Ear, Boston Massachusetts 02114 USA

14 [jig@epl.meei.harvard.edu](mailto:jig@epl.meei.harvard.edu)

15

16 Number of Words: 7325

17 Number of Figures: 8

18 **Keywords: attention, otoacoustic emissions, olivocochlear efferent, cochlear amplifier, ear-  
19 canal noise**

20 Running Title: Ear-canal noise changes during a behavioral task due to subject motion

21

## 22 Abstract

23 Otoacoustic emissions (OAEs) are often measured to non-invasively determine activation of medial  
24 olivocochlear (MOC) efferents in humans. Usually these experiments assume that ear-canal noise  
25 remains constant. However, changes in ear-canal noise have been reported in some behavioral  
26 experiments. We studied the variability of ear-canal noise in eight subjects who performed a two-  
27 interval-forced-choice (2IFC) sound-level-discrimination task on monaural tone pips in masking  
28 noise. Ear-canal noise was recorded directly from the unstimulated ear opposite the task ear.  
29 Recordings were also done with similar sounds presented, but no task done. In task trials, ear-canal  
30 noise was reduced at the time the subject did the discrimination, relative to the noise level earlier in  
31 the trial. In two subjects, there was a decrease in ear-canal noise, primarily at 1-2 kHz, with a time  
32 course similar to that expected from inhibition by MOC activity elicited by the task-ear masker noise.  
33 These were the only subjects with spontaneous OAEs (SOAEs). We hypothesize that the SOAEs  
34 were inhibited by MOC activity elicited by the task-ear masker. Based on the standard rationale in  
35 OAE experiments that large bursts of noise are artifacts due to subject movement, noise bursts above  
36 a sound-level criterion were removed. As the criterion was lowered and more high- and moderate-  
37 level noise bursts were removed, the reduction in noise level from the beginning of the trial to the  
38 time of the 2IFC discrimination became less. This pattern is opposite that expected from MOC  
39 inhibition (which is greater on lower-level sounds), but can be explained by the hypothesis that  
40 subjects move less and create fewer bursts of noise when they concentrate on doing the task. In  
41 contrast, for the six subjects with no SOAEs, in no-task trials the noise level was little changed  
42 throughout the trial. Our results show that measurements of MOC effects on OAEs must measure and  
43 account for changes in ear-canal noise, especially in behavioral experiments. The results also provide  
44 a novel way of showing the time course of the buildup of attention in ear-canal noise during a 2IFC  
45 task.

46

47 1 **Introduction**

48 Medial olivocochlear (MOC) efferent activity has long been hypothesized to facilitate hearing in  
49 noise (Nieder and Nieder, 1970; Michel and Collet, 1993; Guinan, 1996). Many papers have  
50 attempted to determine how MOC efferent activity affects hearing by measuring changes in  
51 otoacoustic emissions (OAEs) as subjects performed an auditory task that was expected to elicit  
52 efferent activity (e.g. Puel et al., 1988; Meric and Collet, 1994; de Boer and Thornton, 2007;  
53 Harkrider and Bowers). MOC activity reduces the gain of cochlear amplification and thereby reduces  
54 OAEs, so OAE reductions provide information about efferent activation and its effects in the cochlea.  
55 A key assumption in measuring OAEs during behavioral task performance has been that there is no  
56 change in the background level of the random noise in the ear canal, so that any measured changes in  
57 OAEs can be attributed to changes produced by MOC efferents.

58 In contrast to the assumption that ear-canal noise is not changed during a behavioral task, several  
59 studies have reported such changes (de Boer, and Thornton, 2007; Walsh et al., 2014a; 2014b, 2015).  
60 Walsh et al. (2014; 2015) reported that ear-canal random noise was reduced by selective attention  
61 activating MOC efferents. In the Walsh et al. experiments, ear-canal noise was indirectly measured  
62 during a 30 ms silent period by a double-evoked technique that yielded a measure termed a  
63 “nonlinear stimulus frequency otoacoustic emission” or “nSFOAE” (Walsh et al., 2010). During both  
64 auditory and visual tasks there was a reduction in ear-canal noise (i.e. a reduction in the nSFOAE)  
65 relative to when the subject was presented the same stimuli but did not do a task (Walsh et al., 2014a;  
66 2014b, 2015). For an auditory task, the reduction was similar in both the attended ear and the  
67 opposite ear. Walsh et al. hypothesized that cochlear-amplified random vibrations within the cochlea  
68 created backward traveling waves that produced acoustic noise in the ear canal, and activation of  
69 MOC efferents reduced cochlear amplification and therefore reduced the random noise within the ear  
70 canal.

71 We have done experiments that allow us to measure changes in ear-canal acoustic noise during a  
72 behavioral task. Our subjects did a two-interval-forced-choice (2IFC) level discrimination task on  
73 monaural tone bursts in noise. During these tests we measured changes in click-evoked otoacoustic  
74 emissions (CEOAEs) in the task ear, with the goal of assessing changes in MOC activation during  
75 the behavioral task. Most relevant here is that we also measured the sound pressure in the ear where  
76 no sound was presented, opposite to the task ear. These opposite-ear recordings provide an  
77 opportunity to directly determine whether there was a reduction in ear-canal background noise sound  
78 pressure during the behavioral task, and to measure its time course relative to the time when sounds  
79 were presented and the subject made the 2IFC judgment.

80 2 **Methods**

81 **2.1 Subjects**

82 Eight subjects (aged 18-21 years; 2 male) participated in the experiments reported here. All subjects  
83 had normal pure-tone audiograms (<15 dB HL at octave frequencies 0.5 to 8 kHz). Sounds were  
84 presented and recorded using Etymotic Research ER10c acoustic assemblies, sampled at 25 kHz. The  
85 acoustic outputs were monitored and calibrated frequently throughout the experiments. This study  
86 was performed in accordance with MEEI, MIT and NIH guidelines for human studies. Informed  
87 consent was obtained from all subjects.

88 **2.2 Experimental methods**

89 The experiments were designed to detect changes in CEOAE amplitudes brought about by efferent  
90 activity, i.e. changes in CEOAEs from the beginning of a 2IFC trial to just after the stimuli to be  
91 discriminated in the trial (the masking noise made it too difficult to measure CEOAEs during the  
92 noise). We did both “active” runs in which the subject did the 2IFC task, and “passive” runs in which  
93 the subject heard the same sounds but made no judgment. Since learning to do the 2IFC task might  
94 cause a subject to continue to attend to the task sounds during passive trials, passive trials were done  
95 first, before the subjects were told about their future task. Passive and active conditions were  
96 typically done in separate sessions, where a “session” is defined as the time that a subject  
97 continuously had the acoustic-assembly foam plugs in their ear canals. Removing and replacing the  
98 acoustic assembly was considered a new session, whether it was a few minutes later or days later.  
99 Since acoustic parameters such as the depth of insertion might change across sessions, direct  
100 comparisons of the amplitudes of the ear-canal acoustic noise in active versus passive listening were  
101 not done because such comparisons may not be accurate. However, the stimuli and their timing were  
102 the same in passive and active trials so we can compare the time courses of ear-canal sound in  
103 passive and active trials.

104 Sound stimuli were presented only in the task ear, which was the ear that had the most robust  
105 CEOAEs in our initial tests. The subject’s task was to detect which of two short tone bursts was  
106 larger in amplitude. Both tone bursts were embedded in 50 dB SPL broad-band noise. The baseline  
107 level of the tone bursts (the pedestal level) was varied between sessions and set to no-pedestal, 40,  
108 50, 60, 70 or 80 dB SPL. The two tone bursts were stepped in level about the pedestal level (one up,  
109 one down) by the same number of dB (or just up for no-pedestal, i.e., a tone was presented only in  
110 one interval). The tone burst with the higher level was chosen randomly on each trial. For each  
111 subject and pedestal level, the step size was chosen to achieve a correct response rate of 84%. In  
112 passive trials the step size was zero.

113 Data were collected in batches of 25 trials, with the same pedestal level throughout the batch. On  
114 each trial, sound was presented only in the task ear in a continuous series of 400 ms epochs with 50  
115 dB pSPL, 80  $\mu$ s rarefaction clicks at 25 ms intervals presented throughout each epoch (16 clicks per  
116 epoch). Each trial began with 1 to 10 epochs (number randomly selected on each trial) containing  
117 only clicks (see Fig. 1). This was followed by 3 epochs that had the clicks plus 50 dB SPL, broad-  
118 band (0.1-10 kHz) frozen noise (the same in each epoch). The last two epochs with clicks and noise  
119 also had a tone burst (15 ms plateau, 5 ms raised-cosine rise and fall times) that ended 45 ms before  
120 the end of the epoch. After the tone-in-noise epochs there was an additional 400 ms epoch in which  
121 there were only repeated clicks (the same as in initial epochs 1-10) (Fig. 1). Overall, the number of  
122 400 ms epochs in each trial varied from 5 to 14, depending on the number of initial epochs. At the  
123 end of each trial the subject indicated whether the first or second tone burst was higher in level by  
124 pushing one of two buttons on a device on which their hand rested (usually this done was during the  
125 last 400 ms epoch). To push the proper button, a subject only had to move one finger and did not  
126 have to move their arm. We did not have subjects type on a keypad or touch a screen so as to  
127 minimize subject motion. The next trial in the batch of 25 trials began 1 second after the button press  
128 or end of the last epoch, whichever came later.

129 Spontaneous otoacoustic emissions (SOAEs) were measured once on each subject by recording the  
130 ear canal sound in both ears simultaneously with no stimulus presented and the subjects instructed to  
131 sit very still for this short measurement. On each ear, eight data buffers were obtained, each sampled  
132 every 40  $\mu$ s and 2.62 seconds long. Each buffer was individually fast-Fourier transformed and the  
133 resulting amplitudes (phases set to zero) were averaged. Two subjects (323, 326) had SOAEs, as  
134 judged by their having spectral lines that were >10 dB above the smoothed SOAE spectra.

135 **2.3 Data analysis**

136 Throughout each trial, sound was recorded continuously in both ears and stored for later processing.  
137 The data for the present paper are from the ear opposite the task ear, except that the test for middle-  
138 ear-muscle (MEM) activation used the amplitudes of the clicks in the task ear. Before processing, the  
139 opposite-ear data were filtered from 0.5-5 kHz by a zero-phase-change FIR digital filter. The  
140 opposite-ear recordings were divided into 25 ms time spans—hereafter referred to as “spans”—  
141 corresponding to the times demarcated by the clicks in Figure 1. We measured the root-mean-square  
142 (RMS) value of the sound in every time span. We visualized the amplitude distribution of the RMS's  
143 from the spans in a batch of 25 trials—hereafter referred to as a “batch”—by binning the RMS values  
144 into 300-bin histograms with the 100<sup>th</sup> bin equal to the median value of the RMS distribution and bin  
145 widths of 1% of the median value (Fig. 2). RMS values greater than three times the median value  
146 were used later, but were omitted from the histogram. For most sessions, these RMS histograms had  
147 narrow peaks and tails with higher RMS values (e.g. Fig. 2). For subsequent data analysis, a given  
148 span was not used if its RMS value was above a rejection criterion RMS value that was a parameter  
149 varied in our study. To find a criterion value, we first smoothed the histogram and then determined  
150 an “upper-edge RMS” value, where the histogram fell to 50% of the peak. The difference between  
151 the upper-edge-RMS and the peak RMS is termed the “Edge Width”. The Edge Width, multiplied by  
152 a user-chosen constant (the “Edge Multiplier”), and added to the peak RMS value, defined the  
153 rejection criterion RMS value.

154 The opposite-ear sound recordings were contaminated to varying degrees by crosstalk from the task-  
155 ear masker noise. This crosstalk was assessed from the difference between two ways of combining  
156 pairs of span waveforms from different trials of a batch: (1) reversing the polarity of one waveform  
157 of the pair and then averaging, or (2) averaging the waveforms without reversing either one (Fig. 3).  
158 Since the frozen-noise masker was the same on every trial, reversing the polarity of one waveform  
159 before averaging cancels the crosstalk contribution in the average. In contrast, if the ear-canal sound  
160 is random noise, reversing the sign of a waveform before averaging makes no difference. The  
161 difference in these two measures (each averaged over the time when the masker noise was on: epochs  
162 11-13) and converted to dB SPL, yielded crosstalk levels averaging -22 dB SPL (range -31 to -10 dB  
163 SPL). We compensated for the square-root-of-2 adjustment appropriate for averaging noise but not  
164 appropriate for averaging the crosstalk signal. The task-ear masker noise was 50 dB SPL so the  
165 crosstalk attenuation averaged 72 dB. In a few sessions, the crosstalk and/or other aspects of the  
166 recordings were highly abnormal (differed by more than a factor of two from the other values on that  
167 subject – perhaps the acoustic assemblies were not properly seated); these data were excluded from  
168 our analysis.

169 To avoid masker-noise crosstalk from affecting the noise rejections, we used a two-step procedure to  
170 exclude noisy spans. The procedure described below was applied separately for each of the spans that  
171 occurred at a given time in a batch, whether or not the span was from the time when the masker noise  
172 was present. First, individual spans were excluded if their RMS level was above a rejection criterion  
173 that was twice as far from the peak as the regular criterion (i.e. we used two times the value of the  
174 edge multiplier). This removed spans with particularly large-amplitude noises that would be rejected  
175 no matter how low the noise was in any span they would be paired with. Spans that passed this first  
176 criterion were paired by summing their waveforms point-by-point with one of the pair reversed in  
177 polarity (to cancel the crosstalk) and from the summed waveform we calculated the reverse-pair-  
178 RMS value. Next, data from such a pair were excluded if the reverse-pair-RMS was above the  
179 rejection criterion multiplied by the square-root of two to compensate for adding orthogonal noise  
180 waveforms. The reverse-pair-RMS's of all the passed pairs in a batch were summed, and the sum was

181 divided by the number of spans that passed the rejection criteria. This yielded a single average RMS  
182 value for the noise of a span in a given batch. This was done separately for successive spans across  
183 the 14 epochs, yielding a time-course of RMS values across a trial.

184 The RMS values for each span in a batch were expressed in two ways: (1) RMS values were  
185 converted to a linear version of dB SPL (“linear SPL”) using the appropriate acoustic calibration.  
186 These averages, converted to dB, were used when plotting the amplitudes in dB SPL. (2) RMS values  
187 were normalized by dividing each span by the average RMS value of the spans in epoch 10 of the  
188 batch. For each method, data at each successive span were combined across batches by averaging the  
189 RMS values. Batches were identified as “active” or “passive” and were averaged separately. In some  
190 subjects, crosstalk sound from the highest pedestal levels was not canceled by averaging alternated-  
191 sign waveform pairs because the tone bursts randomly varied in amplitude so that adjacent  
192 waveforms did not always have the same amplitude tone burst and therefore did not cancel. Data  
193 from these pedestal levels were excluded from plots (31%, on average, including all of the 80 dB  
194 pedestals); otherwise differences in pedestal level were ignored because we found no systematic  
195 differences in ear-canal noise levels from batches with different tone burst pedestal levels.

196 The resulting span RMS values, and the fraction of spans rejected, were plotted across time in  
197 successive 25-ms time spans. Although individual trials had different numbers of initial epochs, we  
198 used a timing scheme for displaying the data in which the first time span plotted in a time course was  
199 chosen as if every trial had all 10 of the initial 400 ms stimulus epochs. Spans in the first epoch had  
200 actual sound-recording data only in ~10% of trials, since we randomized of the number of initial  
201 epochs (1-10) for each trial. Spans in epochs 2 to 10 each had data in successively 10% more trials.  
202 Spans in epochs 10 to 14 had sound-recording data in all trials. Overall there were 224 spans (14  
203 epochs multiplied by 16 spans per epoch) with the last one ending at the end of the final epoch.

204 The middle-ear-muscle (MEM) reflex is bilateral, so the masker noise in the task-ear may have  
205 elicited MEM contractions that could affect the noise in the opposite ear. We tested for MEM  
206 contractions on each trial by comparing the click amplitudes in the task ear before and after the  
207 masking-noise epochs. MEM contractions stiffen the ossicular chain which typically increases the  
208 ear-canal sound pressure produced by a constant sound source. In each trial, we averaged click  
209 amplitudes throughout epoch 10 and also averaged 12 clicks of epoch 14 starting with the second  
210 click (in epoch 14, the first click was contaminated by effects of the masker noise and later clicks  
211 were not used to avoid times after MEM contractions would have decayed). If the increase in click  
212 amplitude exceeded 0.2 dB, data from that trial were not used. With this criterion, data from ~0.5 to  
213 4% of trials across subjects were excluded. However, because the rejected trials were not  
214 systematically from certain subjects or pedestal levels, we think these rejected trials were not due to  
215 actual MEM contractions.

216 The spectra of the ear-canal noise were obtained by a filter-bank method similar to that used by  
217 Francis and Guinan (2010). We used zero-phase-change FIR digital filters. Individual filters were  
218 500 Hz wide, with center frequencies 250 Hz apart (they overlapped), and extending from 500 to  
219 4000 Hz. Span waveform pairs were combined with one of the pair reversed, so as to cancel any  
220 crosstalk. They were accepted or rejected by their RMS values as described above, and then each  
221 accepted pair was filtered to obtain its spectra. For each subject, span spectra were combined by  
222 averaging in 6 groups: for epochs 1-9, all spectra were combined in a single group, and for epochs 10  
223 to 14, all of the spectra from each epoch were combined into separate epoch averages. In all cases,  
224 spectra from active and passive trials were combined separately.

225 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

226 To determine if changes in ear-canal sound recordings were statistically significant, we used a  
227 bootstrap test (an ANOVA could not be used because the data were not normally distributed, see Fig.  
228 2). Bootstrap tests were applied separately on each subject and each activity group (active or passive)  
229 using averages of the span data in epochs 10 to 14 (each epoch averaged separately). Separate tests  
230 were done for the normalized noise and for the fraction rejected. For each set of data, all of the  
231 batches included in the original average for that group (N batches averaging 37.8, range 20 to 59  
232 across subjects), formed the set of input batches for the bootstrap. From the N batches of a set, new  
233 sets of N batches were formed by randomly selecting a batch from the original set (but not removing  
234 it from the original set so it could be selected again), and doing this N times. For each new set of N  
235 batches, new epoch averages for epochs 10 to 14 were calculated in the same way as for the original  
236 calculation. After averaging, the data from epochs 11 to 14 were each normalized relative to the data  
237 in epoch 10 by dividing by the value in epoch 10 for noise amplitudes or by subtracting for the  
238 fraction of spans rejected. New sets of N batches were obtained 100,000 times, which yielded  
239 100,000 new averages for each epoch. With the hypothesis that the average noise level in each of  
240 epochs 11 to 14 was smaller than in epoch 10, the fraction of times that a normalized epoch average  
241 was *higher* than unity is the probability that the hypothesis was false, i.e. this is the significance level  
242 (the p value) for the hypothesis that the average value in a given epoch from 11 to 14 was less than  
243 the average value in epoch 10.

244 To compare whether the reduction in the ear-canal noise from epoch 10 to epochs 11-14 was more in  
245 the active trials than in the passive trials of a subject, new pseudo-average values of the changes from  
246 epoch 10 to epochs 11-14 were calculated separately for the active and passive trials as described  
247 above. We calculated the noise reduction as: (epoch 10 – epoch X). From these new pseudo-  
248 averages, for each epoch we calculated the additional reduction of the ear-canal noise in the active  
249 trials compared to the passive trials (i.e. the active value minus the passive value) and if this value  
250 was less than zero, the comparison was scored as false. This was done 100,000 times and the fraction  
251 false was taken as the probability that the hypothesis was false. This is the p value for the hypothesis  
252 that the reduction of ear-canal noise from epoch 10 to epochs 11-14 was more in the active trials than  
253 in the passive trials.

254 **3 Results**

255 **3.1 No noise rejections**

256 Ear-canal noise levels, expressed as dB SPL values in successive 25 ms time spans (Fig. 4A, B),  
257 were measured when the subjects were doing the 2IFC task (active trials) and when subjects sat  
258 quietly without doing the task (passive trials). The overall noise levels varied across subjects and  
259 overlapped considerably. To make the trends easier to see, each set of data was normalized (using  
260 SPLs as linear numbers) relative to their average value in the base epoch (epoch 10) and is replotted  
261 in Figure 4C, D. In both active and passive trials the noise levels bounced around baselines that  
262 remained relatively constant until the beginning of the epochs with masking noise, i.e. starting at 4  
263 seconds in Figure 4. After the noise onset, the active and passive trials showed different behavior. In  
264 the active trials, the noise level *decreased* near the time when the masking noise started (Fig. 4C). In  
265 contrast, in the passive trials there was no clear trend (Fig. 4D). These data show there is a big  
266 difference in the active versus the passive trials that first occurred when the subject had to attend to  
267 doing the task. It shows that the overall noise level was strongly influenced by whether the subject  
268 was doing the task, or not. This difference is present in the data without any data processing.  
269 However, it is well known that subject movement can produce noise that is picked up by an ear-canal

270 microphone, and that subjects never sit completely still. Thus, a hypothesis that may account for  
271 these data is that the subject sat more still when paying attention to doing the task.

272 **3.2 Strict Noise Rejections**

273 In almost all experiments in which OAEs are measured, an artifact rejection system is used in which  
274 the experimenter chooses a sound level criterion and portions of the recording above this criterion are  
275 removed from consideration. We used an artifact rejection system with the criteria varied by setting  
276 different “edge-multiplier” values (see Methods). For an edge-multiplier of 2, figure 5 shows  
277 example plots versus time of both the ear-canal noise and the fraction of spans rejected, for both  
278 active and passive trials. An edge-multiplier of 2 provides a strict cut off that removes all spans with  
279 RMS values above the peak region in histograms of RMS values (see Fig. 2).

280 After the rejection of spans with high noise levels by applying an edge-multiplier of 2, each subject’s  
281 average noise level was relatively constant during the time before the masker noise began (Fig. 5A,  
282 B). The different SPL values for the ear-canal noise of different subjects are presumably due, at least  
283 in part, to differences in ear-canal volumes and the depths of insertion of the probes. In both active  
284 and passive trials (Fig. 5A & B), two subjects (323 and 326) had visible reductions in the overall dB  
285 SPL level of the ear-canal noise when the task-ear masker was on. These reduction are more easily  
286 seen in Figure 5C and D, which show the same data normalized to its value in epoch 10. The time  
287 courses of the decreases in ear-canal noise in these two subjects (323, 326) are similar to the time  
288 courses expected from MOC inhibition elicited by the task-ear masking noise (Fig. 5E). These two  
289 subjects were the only ones with SOAEs. A hypothesis that fits these data is that in these two  
290 subjects, the ear-canal “noise” was partly due to SOAEs that were inhibited by MOC activity elicited  
291 by the task-ear masker.

292 In the *passive* trials, after applying an edge multiplier of 2 to remove bursts of noise, the changes in  
293 ear-canal noise from epoch 10 to epoch 13 were all small, but some were statistically significant. The  
294 largest changes were in subjects 323 and 326 who had decreases of 3.9% and 2.4%, respectively, that  
295 were highly statistically significant ( $p<0.0001$ ). In three other subjects, there were statistically  
296 significant decreases of 0.3%, 0.3% and 0.8% ( $p=0.016$  for the least significant of these). The very  
297 small decreases in these three subjects may be due to MOC inhibition of un-noticed SOAEs or other  
298 ear-canal noise, but their time courses are too poorly defined to help substantiate this. In one subject,  
299 there was a decrease of 0.02% that was not statistically significant ( $p=0.47$ ). In the two remaining  
300 subjects there were small *increases*: one increase was 0.19% but not significant ( $p=0.14$ ), the other  
301 (subject 319) was an increase of 0.45% and was statistically-significant ( $p=0.0002$ ).

302 In the *active* trials, after applying an edge-multiplier of 2 to remove bursts of noise, all of the subjects  
303 had decreases in ear-canal noise from epoch 10 to epoch 13 that were statistically-significant  
304 ( $p=0.00016$  for the least significant). For subjects 323 and 326 the decreases were 5.4% and 3.2%,  
305 respectively, and for the six other subjects the decreases averaged 1.9% (range 0.27% to 2.6%). The  
306 largest decreases (in subjects 323 and 326) had time courses consistent with most, or all, of the  
307 decrease being from MOC inhibition elicited by the masker noise. The time courses of the decreases  
308 in the other six subjects are difficult to see in Figure 5C. To make these time courses more visible,  
309 we adjusted the magnification and offset of each so that their average in epoch 13 was zero while the  
310 average in epoch 10 was kept equal to 1. The result (Figure 5F) shows the degree to which the time  
311 courses of the reductions in ear-canal noise were similar across these six subjects. The time course of  
312 these reductions appears to have a slightly slower onset than the larger reductions seen in subjects

313 323 and 326 (Fig. 5C, D vs. F). However, the waveforms are somewhat noisy and the differences  
314 between them are not particularly clear.

315 We compared the decrease in ear-canal noise from epoch 10 to epoch 13 in active versus passive  
316 trials for an edge multiplier of 2. In 7 of 8 subjects the percentage decrease in ear-canal noise was  
317 more for the active trials than for the passive trials. The active change minus the passive change  
318 averaged 1.04%, range -0.03% to +2.5%). The greater decreases in the active trials were statistically  
319 significant in 6 of the subjects (largest  $p=0.005$ ) and the one increase was not significant ( $p=0.56$ ),

320 In addition to measuring the changes in ear-canal noise, we also measured the fraction of spans that  
321 were rejected. For an edge-multiplier of 2, the fraction of spans rejected are shown in Figure 5G, H.  
322 Near the end of the trials, when the subject had to do the 2IFC task, there was a clear difference in the  
323 fraction of spans rejected in active versus passive trials. In active trials the fraction rejected went  
324 down shortly after the masker noise started, whereas in passive trials the fraction rejected was little  
325 changed or went up (Fig. 5G, H). For active trials, all subjects had a decrease in the fraction rejected  
326 from epoch 10 to epoch 13 (average decrease = 0.107 range 0.014 to 0.23). Five of these were  
327 statistically significant (highest  $p=0.045$ ) and three were not. In contrast, none of the passive trials  
328 had a statistically significant change (at the 0.05 level) in the fraction rejected in either direction over  
329 these same intervals.

330 Both the fractions rejected and ear-canal noise levels show the pattern over time of the bursts of noise  
331 that were present in the original data. The data of Figure 5G show that subjects reduced their  
332 production of large bursts of noise when doing the task. A hypothesis that fits these data is that large  
333 bursts of ear-canal noise are due to subject movements. With this hypothesis, the time courses of the  
334 decreases in the large-amplitude noises in Figures 4 and 5 shows the time courses over which  
335 subjects decreased movements as they directed their attention to doing the 2IFC task. In contrast, the  
336 large amplitude noises were little changed in the passive trials.

### 337 3.3 Varying noise rejections

338 The data of Figure 5 were for a strict noise-rejection criterion: an edge-multiplier of 2. For edge  
339 multipliers from 2 to 100, the reductions in ear-canal noise and the fraction of spans rejected for the  
340 active trials of all subjects are shown in Figure 6. Higher edge-multipliers reject fewer spans, but the  
341 pattern across time of the fraction of spans rejected changed little as the edge-multiplier was changed.  
342 When the criterion removed only very highest level sounds (edge multiplier of 100), or when the  
343 criterion removed all of the noise levels above the main peak in the span RMS histograms (edge  
344 multiplier of 2), the fraction rejected was lowest at the time when the subject had to make the 2IFC  
345 judgment (Fig. 6). Further, for each subject, the time courses of the reductions in ear-canal noise  
346 were very similar to the time courses of the fractions rejected, presumably because both were due to  
347 the same underlying cause.

348 The changes in ear-canal noise as the edge multiplier was changed from zero to 100, quantified as the  
349 change from epoch 10 to epoch 13, are shown in Figure 7. An edge-multiplier of zero applies a noise  
350 rejection criterion at the peak of the histogram of span RMS levels (see Fig. 2). Also included in  
351 Figure 7 are the changes from epoch 10 to epoch 13 of the raw data (data with no noise rejection  
352 applied). As the edge-multiplier was made less strict (i.e. had higher values) and fewer spans were  
353 rejected, the changes between epoch 10, and epoch 13 became larger for all subjects in active trials,  
354 but remained small in passive trials (Fig. 7A, B). To determine the extent to which the ear-canal  
355 noise was reduced more in active trials than passive trials, the difference between the two conditions  
356 is shown in Figure 7C. The difference was large when the edge multiplier was high and removed

357 only the highest-level noise bursts, but as the edge multiplier was made more strict, the difference  
358 between the active and passive trials became less and less (Fig. 7C). For edge multipliers less than 1  
359 there was almost no additional decrease (the decreases were less than 1%) in ear-canal noise  
360 produced in the active trials compared to the passive trials (Fig. 7C, inset). Note that using severe  
361 criteria (edge multipliers of 1 or less) did not remove the ability to see the small reductions in ear-  
362 canal noise in subjects 323 and 326 (Fig. 7A, B) – reductions that we attribute to the masking noise  
363 evoking MOC activity that reduced SOAEs and other noise of cochlear origin in these two subjects  
364 (Fig. 7B).

365 **3.4 Noise spectra**

366 Although the overall noise levels varied across subjects, all subjects showed similar patterns of ear-  
367 canal noise as a function of frequency. The noise amplitudes were largest at the lowest frequencies,  
368 were smallest at mid frequencies (2-3 kHz) and increased at higher frequencies (solid lines in Fig.  
369 8A, B). The decrease from the original spectra to the spectra after applying an edge-extender of 2 was  
370 greater as frequency decreased (dashed lines in Fig. 8A, B). After noise bursts were removed by  
371 applying an edge multiplier of 2, there was little change in ear-canal noise from epoch 10 to epoch 13  
372 at most frequencies (Fig. 8C, D). However, in the two subjects who showed reductions in SOAEs  
373 and/or other ear-canal noise with a time course appropriate for a MOC inhibition (subjects 323 and  
374 326), there were decreases in the 1 to 2 kHz range (Fig. 8C, D). This frequency range approximately  
375 corresponds to the frequencies of these subjects' SOAEs (Fig. 8E, F) and is also consistent with these  
376 changes being due to MOC inhibition.

377 **4 Discussion**

378 During the behavioral task we found reductions in ear-canal acoustic noise that were very large when  
379 no noise bursts were rejected, but became small when a strict criterion was used that removed most  
380 of the bursts of noise. The largest reductions in ear-canal noise were for active trials. We attribute the  
381 reductions in ear-canal noise as being due to two main sources: (1) inhibition from MOC efferent  
382 activity elicited by the task-ear masker noise, and (2) a reduction in subject motion concurrent with  
383 the subject attending to the task.

384 **4.1 Reduction of ear-canal noise from MOC inhibition elicited by contralateral sound**

385 A standard way of measuring MOC inhibition on OAE responses in one ear (here called the  
386 ipsilateral ear) has been to elicit MOC activity by contralateral acoustic stimulation (CAS). In the  
387 passive trials we did a measurement like that with the CAS being the task-ear masker. One difference  
388 from a typical MOC-effect measurement was that instead of measuring the effect on a sound-evoked  
389 OAE, we measured the effect on ear-canal acoustic “noise” (i.e. sound within the ear canal that was  
390 not evoked by a presented sound). In two subjects (323 and 326) we found strong evidence for  
391 reductions in ear-canal noise produced by CAS-elicited MOC inhibition: (1) the time courses of the  
392 reductions followed the typical time course of MOC inhibition produced by contralateral sound (Fig.  
393 5), (2) as the criteria for removing ear-canal noise were made more strict, the changes from epoch 10  
394 to epoch 13 did not go away, consistent with these changes *not* being due to changes in subject  
395 motion (Fig. 7A, B), and (3) the changes were found in both passive and active trials (Fig. 5C, D).  
396 These data fit with the hypothesis that in these two subjects, some of the ear-canal noise originated in  
397 the cochlea, and that MOC activity elicited by the masker CAS reduced cochlear amplifier gain  
398 thereby reducing the ear-canal noise. These two subjects were also the only subjects who had  
399 SOAEs, and it seems likely that much, or all, of the change was due to MOC inhibition of SOAEs  
400 (Mott et al., 1989; Harrison and Burns, 1993; Zhao and Dhar, 2010). However, it is also possible that

401 some fraction of the change was actually MOC inhibition of a random signal that originated within  
402 the cochlea. Consistent with the hypothesis that some ear-canal noise in humans originates in the  
403 cochlea, Nuttall et al. (1997) found that basilar membrane velocity noise was enhanced by cochlear  
404 amplification and inhibited by MOC stimulation. This basilar membrane velocity noise can be  
405 expected to create backward-traveling noise waves that produce noise in the ear canal.

406 In addition to the two subjects with easily-seen decreases in ear-canal noise in passive trials, three  
407 other subjects also had very small, but statistically-significant decreases in ear-canal noise from  
408 epoch 10 to epoch 13. These may also have been MOC inhibitions of ear-canal noise or SOAEs that  
409 were too small to see. Overall, our finding of little or no CAS-elicited reduction in the ear-canal noise  
410 in subjects with no SOAEs is consistent with the hypothesis that in subjects with no SOAEs there is  
411 little or no noise in the ear canal that originated from within the cochlea.

412 The data without any noise rejection (Fig. 4) provide clear evidence that subjects reduced their ear-  
413 canal noise at the time the task was done. Several lines of evidence indicate that this was caused  
414 mostly by reduced subject motion, and not by task-elicited MOC activity reducing noise that  
415 originated within the cochlea. First, the largest noise bursts seem highly likely to have been produced  
416 by subject motion because their amplitudes are too high to be accounted for by any known cochlear  
417 mechanism. This is consistent with the normal interpretation in OAE measurements that large bursts  
418 of noise are due to subject motion. Second, when a strict criterion for removing large-amplitude  
419 noises was applied (e.g. an edge multiplier of 2 or less) there was almost no additional reduction in  
420 ear-canal noise in the active trials compared to the passive trials (Fig. 7C). Finally, one might think  
421 that attention-elicited MOC activity that reduced ear-canal noise would lead to a reduction of the  
422 number of spans rejected at that time. This explanation might then account for the pattern in Figure 6  
423 where the reductions in the ear-canal noise and in the number of spans rejected have similar time  
424 courses. However, this explanation doesn't fit with there being big reductions in ear-canal noise  
425 when the noise cut-off criterion was high (large edge multipliers), and small reductions as the cut-off  
426 criterion was made stricter. This pattern implies that when the subject did the task, the largest noise  
427 bursts were reduced more than the smallest noise bursts. For this pattern to be produced by MOC  
428 inhibition, the largest noise bursts would have to be inhibited more than the smaller noise bursts,  
429 which is opposite the pattern actually found for MOC inhibition at these sound levels (Guinan and  
430 Gifford, 1988; Guinan and Stankovic, 1996; Cooper and Guinan, 2006; Bhagat and Carter, 2010).  
431 Thus, the hypothesis that attention reduces ear-canal noise through MOC inhibition doesn't fit the  
432 data for most subjects. A hypothesis that fits the data more broadly is that when attending to the task,  
433 the subjects sat more still and generated fewer bursts of noise.

434 It is interesting that the two subjects who showed clear evidence for CAS-elicited MOC inhibition of  
435 ear canal noise (323 & 326) also had slightly more change from epoch 10 to epoch 13 in active  
436 compared to passive trials (~1-2% greater during active trials; Fig. 7C, inset). One interpretation of  
437 this is that in these two subjects, task-related attention slightly increased the MOC activity and  
438 thereby produced a slightly greater epoch 10 to epoch 13 change in the active trials. However, since  
439 these changes were so small and absent in 6/8 subjects, we do not conclude that attention reduces ear-  
440 canal noise through MOC inhibition.

#### 441 **4.2 Comparison with previous reports**

442 De Boer and Thornton (2007) reported reductions in ear-canal noise level when subjects did an  
443 auditory task or paid attention to a movie. They interpreted the changes they found in ear-canal noise  
444 as due to changes in subject-generated noise that were affected by attention and were also affected by

445 whether the subject noise interfered with performance of the task. Their interpretation is consistent  
446 with ours.

447 In contrast, Walsh et al. (2014; 2015) reported a large decrease (~3 dB) in ear-canal noise in all of  
448 their subjects when the subject did a behavioral discrimination compared to during passive listening.  
449 They interpreted the decrease as being produced by MOC inhibition of ear-canal noise. The  
450 interpretation that this change was due to MOC inhibition is questionable for several reasons. A 3 dB  
451 reduction is at the high end of typical MOC effects on OAEs (Guinan, 2006) and would imply that a  
452 very large fraction of the ear-canal noise in *all* of their subjects originated within the cochlea, and  
453 also that there was a large attention-elicited MOC activation in the ear opposite to the task ear. Walsh  
454 et al. (2014; 2015) pointed out that a large attention-elicited MOC activation in the ear opposite to the  
455 task ear was unexpected because such efferent activation doesn't help in performing the task. A  
456 second reason for questioning Walsh et al.'s interpretation is that their supposed MOC inhibition  
457 changed very little across frequency and was smallest in the 1-2 kHz range. Although there is some  
458 inconsistency across reports, previous work has always found that MOC effects are much greater in  
459 some frequency regions (often 1-2 kHz) than in others (Liberman, 1989; Veuillet et al. 1991; Chéry-  
460 Croze et al. 1993; Lilaonitkul and Guinan 2009a, 2009b, 2012; Zhao and Dhar, 2010, 2012). We  
461 think that the most economical hypothesis is that the large reductions of ear-canal acoustic noise  
462 reported by Walsh et al. (2014a; 2014b) were due to reductions in subject motion as the subjects  
463 attended to the tasks. However, there are many differences between Walsh et al.'s experiments and  
464 ours, so other factors cannot be ruled out.

465 **4.3 Implications for measuring cochlear-efferent function with OAEs.**

466 Our results present a challenge for all experiments that seek, or have sought, to determine  
467 MOC activation by measuring OAEs during a behavioral task (Puel et al., 1988; Froehlich et al.,  
468 1990, 1993; Avan and Bonfils, 1988; Meric and Collet, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1996; Giard et al., 1994;  
469 Ferber-Viart et al., 1995; Maison et al., 2001; de Boer and Thornton, 2007; Harkrider and Bowers).  
470 It is typically assumed that when time periods containing large bursts of noise are removed, what  
471 remains is unaffected by subject motion. Our measurements indicate that no matter what level of  
472 artifact rejection was used, the ear-canal noise that remained was still affected by subject-generated  
473 ear canal noise. The simplest explanation is that rejection of large-amplitude "artifacts" does not  
474 remove all of the noise produced by subject motion or other physiological processes such as  
475 breathing. Although some ear-canal noise may originate from within the cochlea, an efferent effect  
476 on this noise is not easily separated from a similar-looking effect produced by decreased subject  
477 motion. This makes it difficult of measure MOC effects on ear-canal noise during a psychophysical  
478 experiment. In contrast, evoked OAEs, because they are similar from one trial to the next, can be  
479 separated from noise by averaging. Our results emphasize the need to have high signal-to-noise ratios  
480 (SNRs) in measurements of MOC-induced changes in OAEs (see Figure 8 of Goodman et al., 2013),  
481 particularly in behavioral experiments when subjects may decrease their movements and change ear-  
482 canal noise. The SNR needs to be high enough that changes in ear-canal noise will have a negligible  
483 effect on the signal measurement. In addition, our results also show that using a change in SNR as  
484 indicating there was a change in efferent inhibition (e.g. Sininger and Cone-Wesson, 2004) is not  
485 valid because the change could have been from changes in the noise. To sort out what part of ear-  
486 canal noise might be due to subject movement, it would be highly desirable to have an independent  
487 measure of subject movement, for instance a sensor attached to the head that tracks movements  
488 across time. However, simply showing the time course of the overall sound level (including noise  
489 and with no artifact rejection) during the experiment (as in Fig. 4) does provide a way of showing  
490 changes in subject-generated noise over time.

491 **4.4 The reduction of ear-canal noise shows the time course of attention.**

492 In our behavioral 2IFC experiment, the onset of the masker noise was the only reliable timing cue  
493 that the tones were about to be presented, and that subjects should prepare to listen and give a  
494 behavioral response. Consistent with this cue timing, the reductions in the subjects' ear-canal noise  
495 began approximately at the start of the masker noise (Figs. 4-6). In the absence of MOC inhibition,  
496 the time course of reductions in ear-canal noise, and in span rejections, can be thought of as  
497 indicators showing time course of subject's directing their attention to the task. Although the time  
498 courses of the changes varied somewhat across subjects, the largest values were always near the time  
499 when the 2IFC target tones were presented (compare Figs. 1 and 6). The time course of the reduction  
500 in ear-canal noise shows that the buildup and decay of attention occurred over several hundreds of  
501 ms.

502 While we did not find that attention changed ear-canal noise through MOC inhibition, we did find  
503 that the decrease in ear-canal noise was a very robust indicator of whether subjects were or were not  
504 attending to sound. The time course of the decrease in ear-canal noise mirrors the time course of  
505 other physiological indicators of the preparatory control of attention. For example, Jaramillo and  
506 Zador (2011) found that during an auditory task, neural responses in auditory cortex increased as the  
507 expected moment of a target sound approached. Similarly, both pupil dilation (Irons et al, 2017) and  
508 neural activity in visual cortex (Stokes et al, 2009) show a rising time-course of activity that indicates  
509 the preparatory control of attention over a time-scale of seconds before executing a behavioral  
510 response to a visual target.

511 Recently, Gruters et al (2018) found an interaction between saccadic eye movement and changes in  
512 ear-canal sound pressure that lasted for 10's of milliseconds. The infrasounds produced by such eye  
513 movements would have been filtered out in our measurements, but they do point out that there are  
514 many subject motion changes that may affect ear-canal noise. In addition, Braga et al (2016) found  
515 that saccade rates decrease during auditory attention. Thus, it is possible that as subjects attended to  
516 the auditory task, saccadic eye movements settled down, and this has a role in reducing ear-canal  
517 noise. If true, this hypothesis would indicate that eye-tracking might also help to sort out the origin of  
518 changes in ear-canal noise during task performance.

519 Our results indicate that before making definitive conclusions about the origin of changes in OAEs or  
520 ear-canal noise measured during a behavioral task, it is necessary to take into account all other  
521 sources that may affect ear-canal sound levels. This is especially true when studying MOC efferent  
522 effects, since extremely subtle motion artifacts may closely resemble MOC effects yet not be related  
523 to MOC inhibition.

524 **5 Conflict of Interest**

525 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

526 **6 Author Contributions**

527 NF and JG: Designed the experiment; NF: Performed the experiment. NF, WZ and JG analyzed the  
528 data; NF and JG: Interpreted the results and wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the  
529 final manuscript.

530 **7 Funding**

531 Supported by NIH NIDCD RO1 DC005977, P30 DC005209 and T32 DC00038.

532 **8 References**

533 Avan, P., and Bonfils, P. (1992). Analysis of possible interactions of an attentional task with cochlear  
534 micromechanics. *Hearing Res.* 57(2), 269-275.

535 Backus, B.C., and Guinan, J.J., Jr. (2006). Time course of the human medial olivocochlear reflex. *J*  
536 *Acoust Soc Am* 119(5), 2889-2904.

537 Bhagat, S.P., and Carter, P.H. (2010). Efferent-induced change in human cochlear compression and  
538 its influence on masking of tones. *Neurosci Lett.* doi: S0304-3940(10)01149-3 [pii].  
539 10.1016/j.neulet.2010.08.069.

540 Braga, R.M., Fu, R.Z., Seemungal, B.M., Wise, R.J., and Leech, R. (2016). Eye Movements during  
541 Auditory Attention Predict Individual Differences in Dorsal Attention Network Activity. *Frontiers in*  
542 *human neuroscience* 10, 164. doi: 10.3389/fnhum.2016.00164.

543 Chéry-Croze, A., Moulin, A., and Collet, L. (1993). Effect of contralateral sound stimulation on the  
544 distortion product 2f1-f2 in humans: Evidence of a frequency specificity. *Hearing Res.* 68, 53-58.

545 Cooper, N.P., and Guinan, J.J., Jr. (2006). Efferent-Mediated Control of Basilar Membrane Motion. *J*  
546 *Physiol* 576, 49-54.

547 de Boer, J., and Thornton, A.R. (2007). Effect of subject task on contralateral suppression of click  
548 evoked otoacoustic emissions. *Hear Res* 233(1-2), 117-123.

549 Ferber-Viart, C., Duclaux, R., Collet, L., and Guyonnard, F. (1995). Influence of auditory stimulation  
550 and visual attention on otoacoustic emissions. *Physiol. Behav.* 57(6), 1075-1079.

551 Francis, N.A., and Guinan, J.J., Jr. (2010). Acoustic stimulation of human medial olivocochlear  
552 efferents reduces stimulus-frequency and click-evoked otoacoustic emission delays: Implications for  
553 cochlear filter bandwidths. *Hear Res* 267(1-2), 36-45. doi: S0378-5955(10)00204-2 [pii].  
554 10.1016/j.heares.2010.04.009.

555 Froehlich, P., Collet, L., Chanal, J.M., and Morgan, A. (1990). Variability of the influence of a visual  
556 task on the active micromechanical properties of the cochlea. *Brain Res.* 508, 286-288.

557 Froehlich, P., Collet, L., and Morgan, A. (1993). Transiently evoked otoacoustic emission amplitudes  
558 change with changes of directed attention. *Physiol. Behav.* 53(4), 679-682.

559 Giard, M.-H., Collet, L., Bouchet, P., and Pernier, J. (1994). Auditory selective attention in the  
560 human cochlea. *Brain Res.* 633, 353-356.

561 Goodman, S.S., Mertes, I.B., Lewis, J.D., and Weissbeck, D.K. (2013). Medial olivocochlear-  
562 induced transient-evoked otoacoustic emission amplitude shifts in individual subjects. *J Assoc Res*  
563 *Otolaryngol* 14(6), 829-842. doi: 10.1007/s10162-013-0409-9.

564 Gruters, K.G., Murphy, D.L.K., Jenson, C.D., Smith, D.W., Shera, C.A., and Groh, J.M. (2018). The  
565 eardrums move when the eyes move: A multisensory effect on the mechanics of hearing. *Proceedings*

566 of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 115(6), E1309-E1318. doi:  
567 10.1073/pnas.1717948115.

568 Guinan, J.J., Jr. (1996). "The Physiology of Olivocochlear Efferents," in The Cochlea, eds. P.J.  
569 Dallos, A.N. Popper & R.R. Fay. (New York: Springer-Verlag), 435-502.

570 Guinan, J.J., Jr. (2006). Olivocochlear Efferents: Anatomy, Physiology, Function, and the  
571 Measurement of Efferent Effects in Humans. Ear Hear 27(6), 589-607.

572 Guinan, J.J., Jr., and Gifford, M.L. (1988). Effects of electrical stimulation of efferent olivocochlear  
573 neurons on cat auditory-nerve fibers. I. Rate-level functions. Hearing Res. 33, 97-114.

574 Guinan, J.J., Jr., and Stankovic, K.M. (1996). Medial efferent inhibition produces the largest  
575 equivalent attenuations at moderate to high sound levels in cat auditory-nerve fibers. J Acoust Soc  
576 Am 100(3), 1680-1690.

577 Harkrider, A.W., and Bowers, C.D. (2009). Evidence for a cortically mediated release from inhibition  
578 in the human cochlea. J Am Acad Audiol 20(3), 208-215.

579 Harrison, W.A., and Burns, E.M. (1993). Effects of contralateral acoustic stimulation on spontaneous  
580 otoacoustic emissions. J. Acoust. Soc. Am. 94, 2649-2658.

581 Irons, J.L., Jeon, M., and Leber, A.B. (2017). Pre-stimulus pupil dilation and the preparatory control  
582 of attention. PLoS One 12(12), e0188787. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0188787.

583 Jaramillo, S., and Zador, A.M. (2011). The auditory cortex mediates the perceptual effects of acoustic  
584 temporal expectation. Nature neuroscience 14(2), 246-251. doi: 10.1038/nn.2688.

585 Liberman, M.C. (1989). Rapid assessment of sound-evoked olivocochlear feedback: Suppression of  
586 compound action potentials by contralateral sound. Hearing Res. 38, 47-56.

587 Lilaonitkul, W., and Guinan, J.J., Jr. (2009a). Reflex control of the human inner ear: a half-octave  
588 offset in medial efferent feedback that is consistent with an efferent role in the control of masking. J  
589 Neurophysiol 101(3), 1394-1406.

590 Lilaonitkul, W., and Guinan, J.J., Jr. (2009b). Human Medial Olivocochlear Reflex: Effects as  
591 Functions of Contralateral, Ipsilateral, and Bilateral Elicitor Bandwidths. J Assoc Res Otolaryngol  
592 10(3), 459-470.

593 Lilaonitkul, W., and Guinan, J.J., Jr. (2012). Frequency tuning of medial-olivocochlear-efferent  
594 acoustic reflexes in humans as functions of probe frequency. J. Neurophysiol 107(6), 1598-1611. doi:  
595 jn.00549.2011 [pii]. 10.1152/jn.00549.2011

596 Maison, S., Micheyl, C., and Collet, L. (2001). Influence of focused auditory attention on cochlear  
597 activity in humans. Psychophysiology 38(1), 35-40.

598 Meric, C., and Collet, L. (1992). Visual attention and evoked otoacoustic emissions: a slight but real  
599 effect. Int. J. Psychophysiol. 12, 233-235.

600 Meric, C., and Collet, L. (1993). Comparative influence of repeated measurement and of attention on  
601 evoked otoacoustic emissions. Acta Otolaryngol (Stockh) 113(4), 471-477.

602 Meric, C., and Collet, L. (1994). Differential effects of visual attention on spontaneous and evoked  
603 otoacoustic emissions. *Int. J. Psychophysiol.* 17, 281-289.

604 Meric, C., and Collet, L. (1996). Attention and evoked otoacoustic emissions: attempts at  
605 characterization of intersubject variation. *Physiol. Behav.* 59, 1-9.

606 Micheyl, C., and Collet, L. (1993). Involvement of medial olivocochlear system in detection in  
607 noise. *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* 93(4,2), 2314.

608 Mott, J.B., Norton, S.J., Neely, S.T., and Warr, W.B. (1989). Changes in spontaneous otoacoustic  
609 emissions produced by acoustic stimulation of the contralateral ear. *Hear. Res.* 38, 229-242.

610 Nieder, P., and Nieder, I. (1970). Antimasking effect of crossed olivocochlear bundle stimulation  
611 with loud clicks in guinea pig. *Experimental neurology* 28(1), 179-188.

612 Nuttall, A.L., Guo, M., Ren, T., and Dolan, D.F. (1997). Basilar membrane velocity noise. *Hear Res*  
613 114(1-2), 35-42.

614 Puel, J.-L., Bonfils, P., and Pujol, R. (1988). Selective attention modifies the active micromechanical  
615 properties of the cochlea. *Brain Res.* 447, 380-383.

616 Sinner, Y.S., and Cone-Wesson, B. (2004). Asymmetric cochlear processing mimics hemispheric  
617 specialization. *Science* 305(5690), 1581.

618 Stokes, M., Thompson, R., Nobre, A.C., and Duncan, J. (2009). Shape-specific preparatory activity  
619 mediates attention to targets in human visual cortex. *Proceedings of the National Academy of  
620 Sciences of the United States of America* 106(46), 19569-19574. doi: 10.1073/pnas.0905306106.

621 Veuillet, E., Collet, L., and Duclaux, R. (1991). Effect of contralateral acoustic stimulation on active  
622 cochlear micromechanical properties in human subjects: Dependence on stimulus variables. *J.  
623 Neurophysiol.* 65, 724-735.

624 Walsh, K.P., Pasanen, E.G., and McFadden, D. (2010). Properties of a nonlinear version of the  
625 stimulus-frequency otoacoustic emission. *J Acoust Soc Am* 127(2), 955-969.

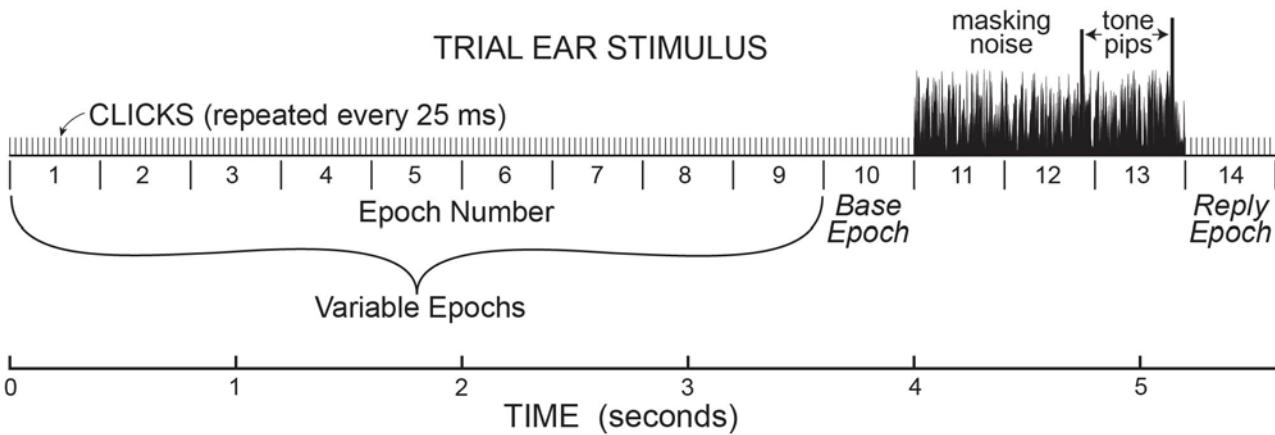
626 Walsh, K.P., Pasanen, E.G., and McFadden, D. (2014a). Selective attention reduces physiological  
627 noise in the external ear canals of humans. I: Auditory attention. *Hear Res* 312, 143-159. doi:  
628 10.1016/j.heares.2014.03.012. S0378-5955(14)00045-8 [pii].

629 Walsh, K.P., Pasanen, E.G., and McFadden, D. (2014b). Selective attention reduces physiological  
630 noise in the external ear canals of humans. II: Visual attention. *Hear Res.* doi: S0378-5955(14)00046-  
631 X [pii]. 10.1016/j.heares.2014.03.013.

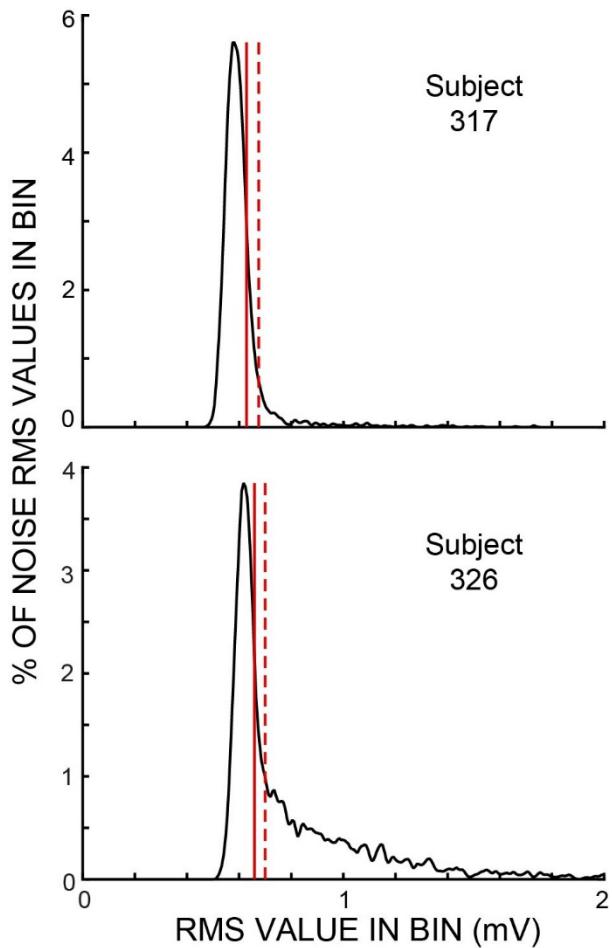
632 Walsh, K.P., Pasanen, E.G., and McFadden, D. (2015). Changes in otoacoustic emissions during  
633 selective auditory and visual attention. *J Acoust Soc Am* 137(5), 2737-2757. doi: 10.1121/1.4919350.

634 Zhao, W., and Dhar, S. (2010). The effect of contralateral acoustic stimulation on spontaneous  
635 otoacoustic emissions. *J Assoc Res Otolaryngol* 11(1), 53-67.

636 Zhao, W., and Dhar, S. (2012). Frequency tuning of the contralateral medial olivocochlear reflex in  
637 humans. *J Neurophysiol* 108(1), 25-30. doi: jn.00051.2012 [pii]. 10.1152/jn.00051.2012.

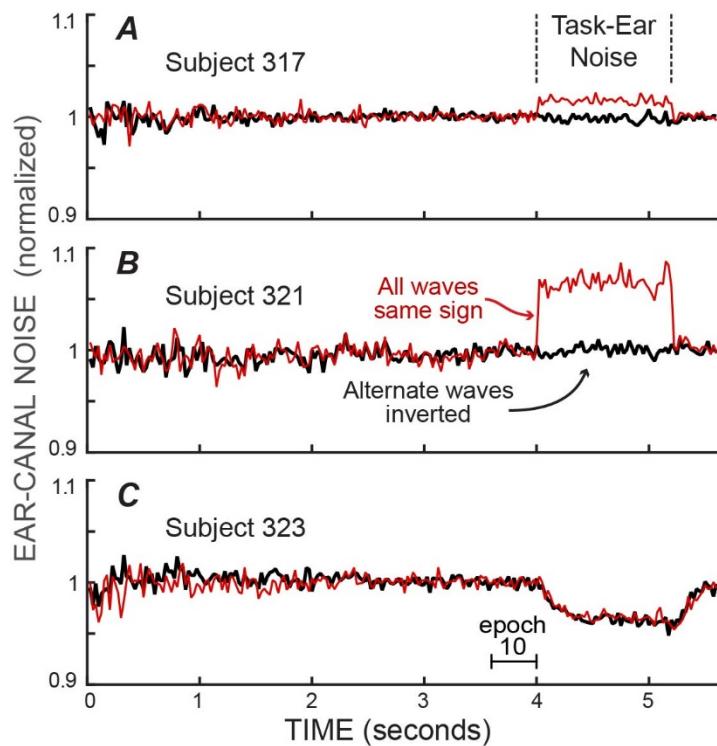


648



649

650 **Figure 2.** Histograms of span RMS values from one batch of trials for each of two subjects for the  
651 epochs without masker noise. These subjects were chosen to show different amounts of noise at  
652 sound levels above the peak region. Vertical solid lines show the “upper edge” at which the  
653 histograms fell to 50% of the peak. Vertical dashed lines show the sound-level cut off for a noise  
654 rejection criterion value (i.e., an edge multiplier – see Methods) of 2. Both examples show data from  
655 active trials. In these two batches, the peaks were at 17.2 dB SPL (subject 317) and 15.4 dB SPL  
656 (subject 326).

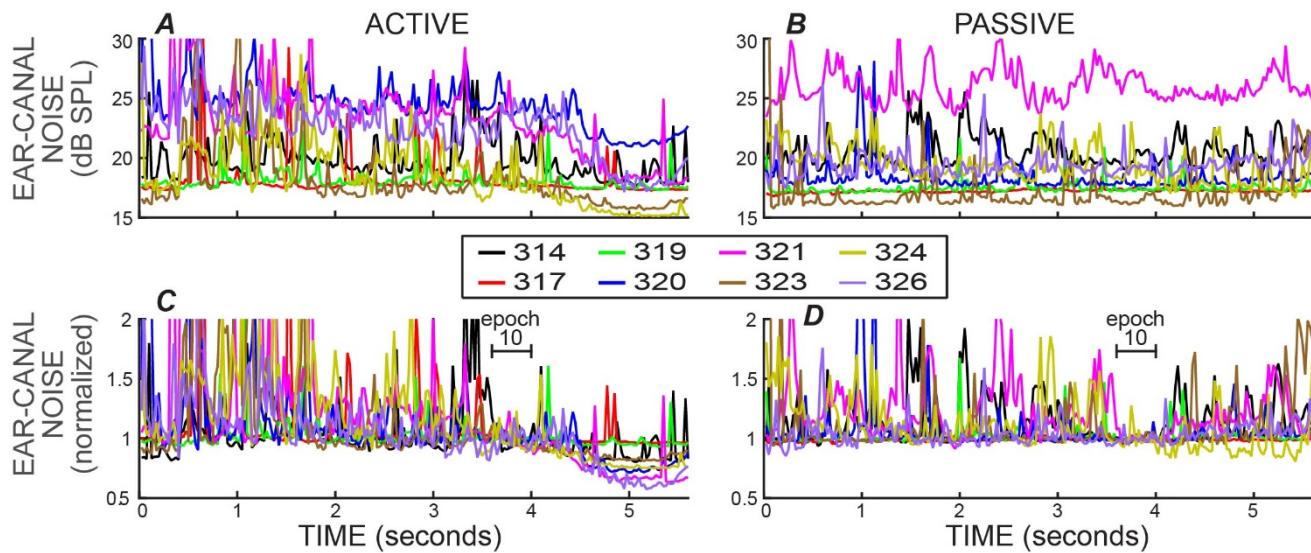


657

658 **Figure 3.** The RMS values of the ear-canal noise in successive 20 ms spans, normalized by the value  
659 in epoch 10, showing the effect of crosstalk from the task-ear frozen-noise masker. The effect of the  
660 crosstalk can be seen by comparing: (1) the averaged pairs of recordings with both waves the same  
661 sign, which averages the crosstalk (thin, light traces), versus (2) the averaged pairs after inverting one  
662 of the pair before averaging, which cancels the crosstalk (thick, dark traces). The differences during  
663 the task-ear noise show that there was almost no crosstalk in C, little crosstalk in A, and crosstalk that  
664 increased the ear-canal sound by about 6% in B. In addition, the traces with the crosstalk cancelled  
665 (thick, dark traces) allow the ear-canal noise during the presence of the task-ear masker to be  
666 compared with the ear-canal noise before and after the masker. No detectable decrease in ear-canal  
667 noise during the masker is seen in A and B, while the largest decrease of any subject (~4%) is seen in  
668 C. The decrease in C has a time course similar to that expected from masker-evoked medial  
669 olivocochlear (MOC) efferent inhibition.

670

671

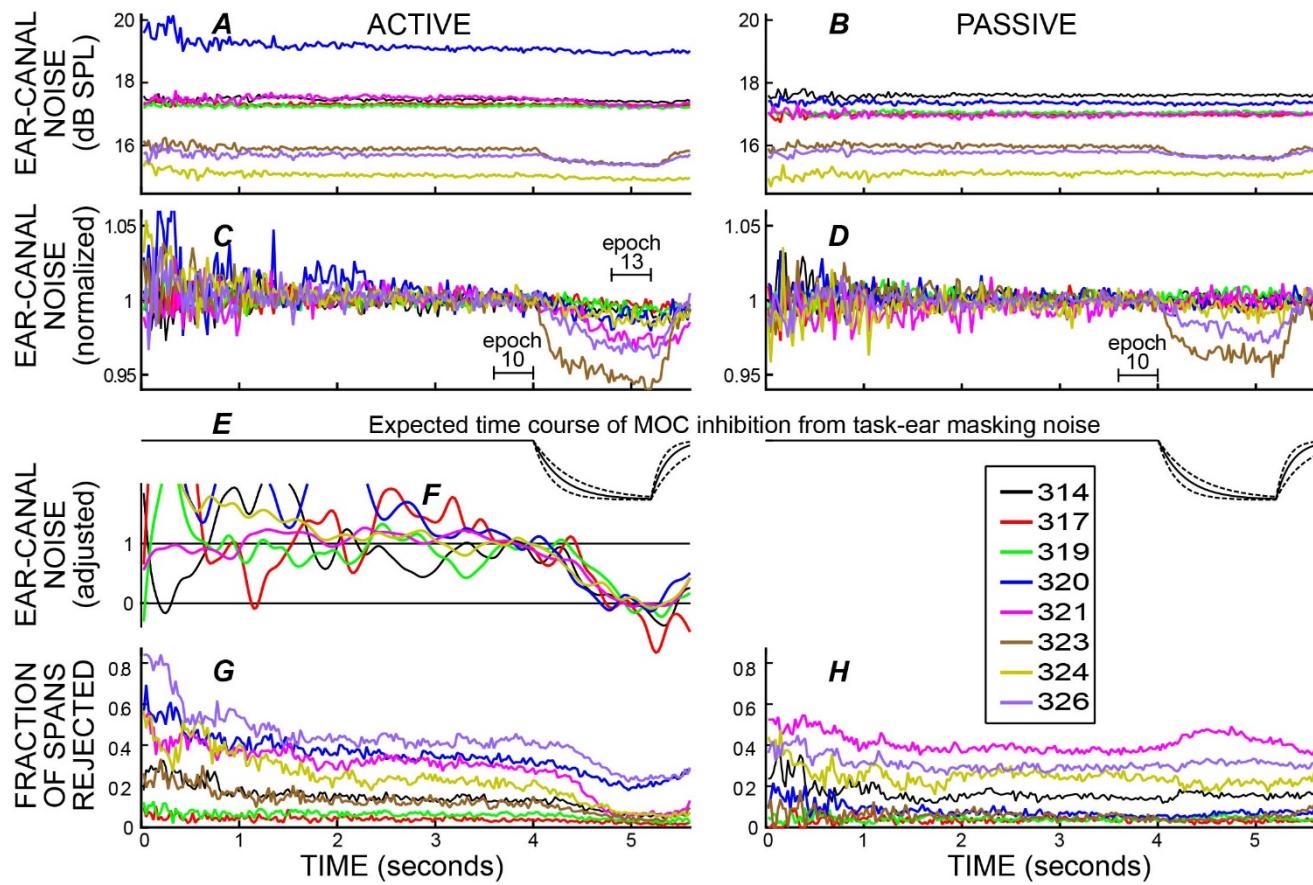


672

673 **Figure 4.** Ear-canal noise in successive 20 ms time spans for eight subjects (key in box) when the  
674 subjects were doing the task (ACTIVE) and when they were not (PASSIVE). **A, B:** Span RMS  
675 values in dB SPL. **C, D:** The data of A & B normalized by dividing each subject's data by its  
676 average value in epoch 10 (from 3.6 to 4 s).

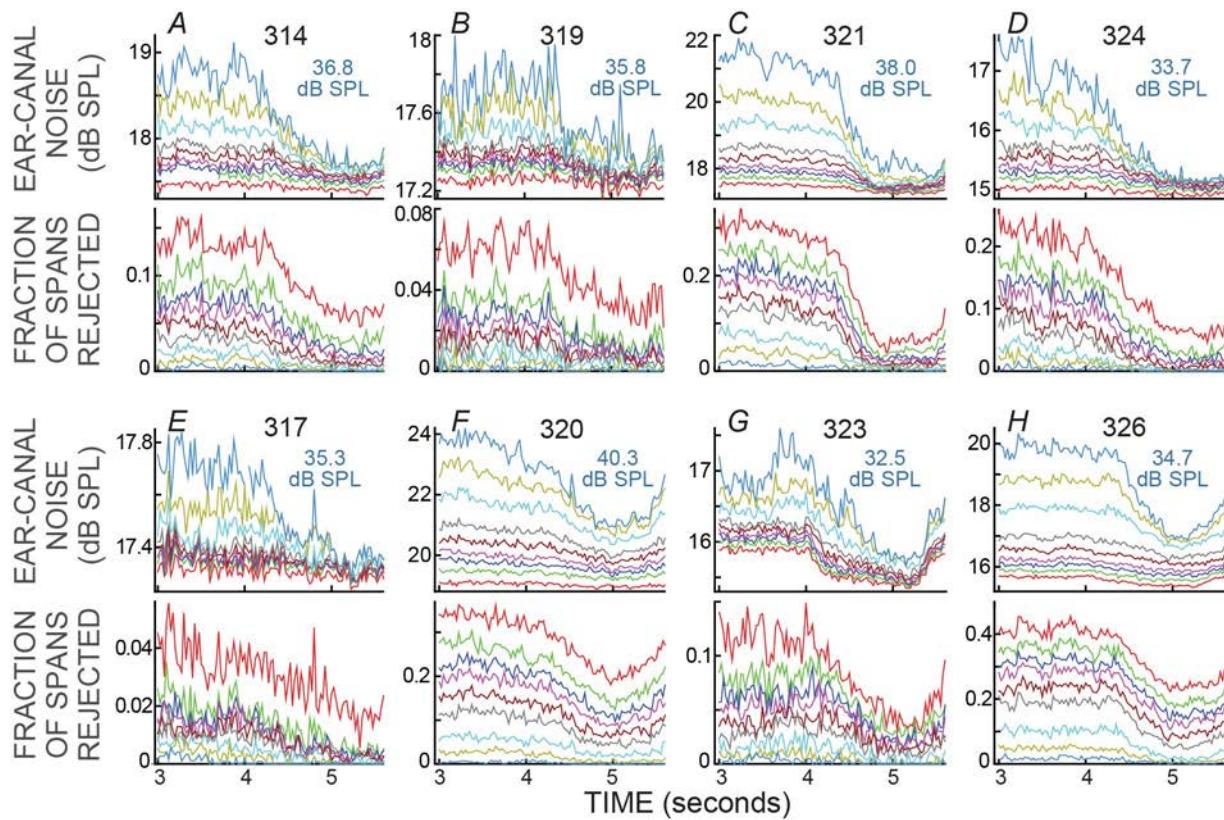
677

678



679

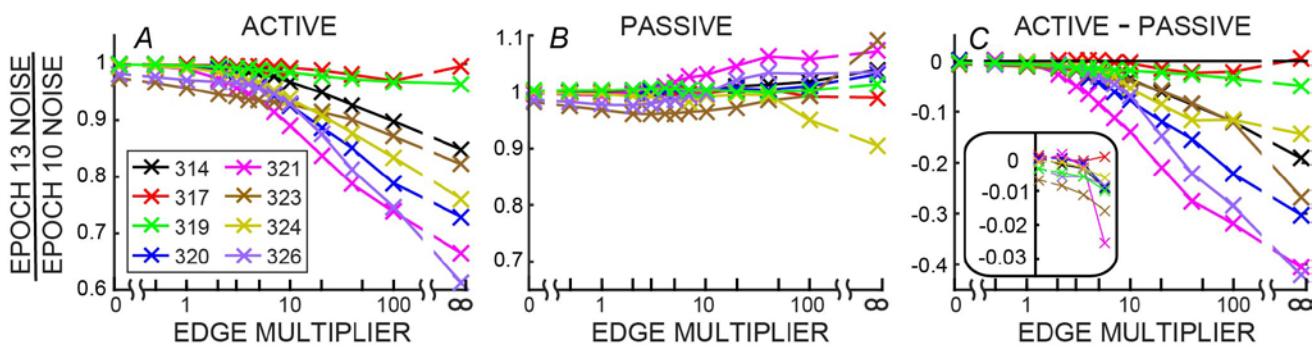
680 **Figure 5.** Ear-canal noise in 20 ms time spans and the fraction of spans that were rejected versus  
681 time, when subjects were doing the task (ACTIVE) and when they were not (PASSIVE) for a strict-  
682 criterion edge multiplier of 2. Data for eight subjects (key in box). **A, B:** Span RMS values in dB  
683 SPL. **C, D:** The data of A & B normalized by dividing each subject's data by its average value in  
684 epoch 10. **E:** The calculated time course of medial-olivocochlear (MOC) inhibition produced by the  
685 task-ear noise masker, based on the data of Backus and Guinan (2006). Solid lines are for the average  
686 time constants and dashed lines are for the fastest and slowest time constants. **F:** The active-trial data  
687 from the six subjects in panels D and E who had the least change in normalized values from epoch 10  
688 to epoch 13, with the magnification and offset adjusted so that their average in epoch 13 is zero while  
689 keeping the average in epoch 10 equal to 1. This shows the time courses of the changes independent  
690 of the amplitudes of the changes. **G, H:** The fraction of spans rejected.



692 **Figure 6.** Ear-canal noise and fraction of spans rejected for the active trials of all subjects, for various  
693 edge-multiplier values. **A-H:** For each subject there are two sub-panels (one above the other) with the  
694 subject number at top. The light blue text shows the sound-level cut-off value in dB SPL for an edge  
695 multiplier of 100. The edge multipliers were 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 20, 40, 100 (red to light blue lines,  
696 respectively; the sequence is the same in every panel and is most easily seen in the lower right panel).  
697 Note that as the edge multiplier decreased, more spans were rejected (the lines moved up in the lower  
698 panels) and the remaining ear-canal noise level was reduced (the lines moved down in the upper  
699 panels), but the shapes of the curves versus time remained similar.

700

701

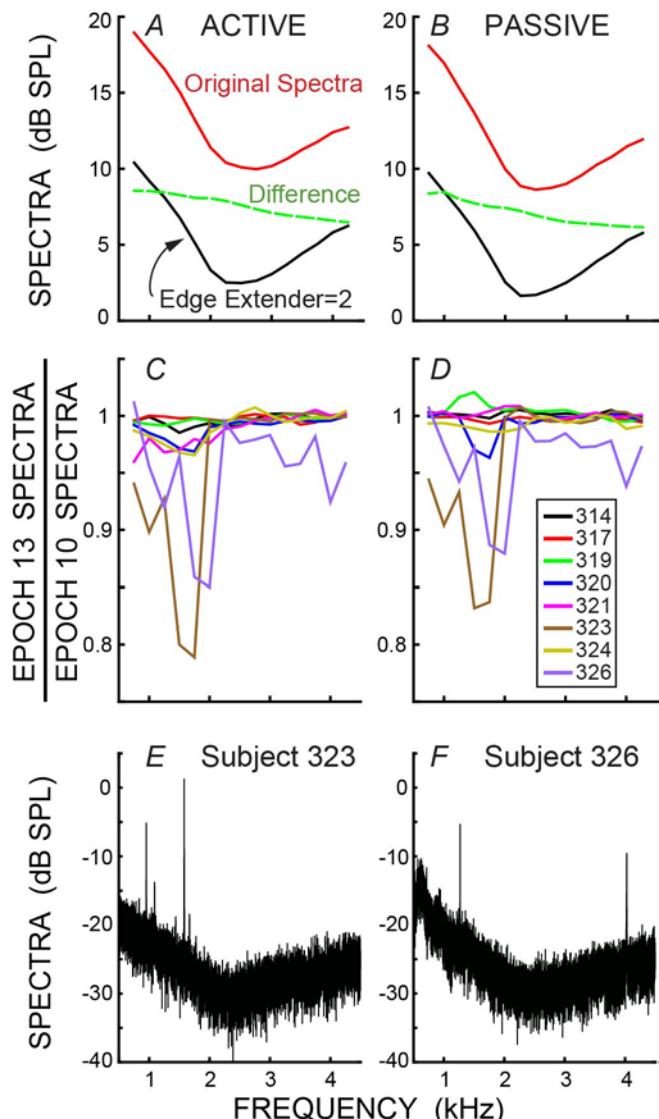


702

703 **Figure 7.** The change in ear-canal noise from epoch 10 to epoch 13 as a function of the edge  
704 multiplier for active trials (A), passive trials (B) and active trials minus passive trials(C) for each  
705 subject (key in box at left). The edge multiplier infinity sign indicates that no noise cut was done.  
706 The inset in C shows the lowest four points from each subject with an expanded vertical axis.

707

708



709

710 **Figure 8. A, B:** The spectra of the ear-canal noise, averaged across subjects, showing the original,  
711 un-cut spectra (top line) and the spectra after applying an edge-extender of 2 to remove spans with  
712 excess noise (bottom line). The dashed line is the difference (in dB, not SPL). **C, D:** Data for an  
713 edge-multiplier of 2 showing the change in spectra from the baseline (epoch 10) to the last epoch  
714 during the masker noise (epoch 13) for individual subjects (key in box). **A, C** are for active trials; **B,**  
715 **D** are for passive trials. **E, F:** Finely binned spectra showing the SOAEs in the two subjects who had  
716 SOAEs

717