

INTRODUCTION

- Traditional tests of speech-in-noise perception use artificial background noise, leading to results that do not generalize to real-world scenarios. Speech perception is poorer in real-world noise than artificial noise, but why this is the case is unclear (e.g., Best et al., 2015).
- There is a significant need for improved ecological validity in laboratory and clinic speech-in-noise tests, particularly with respect to the types of noise used. However, the acoustic complexity and random nature of real-world noise poses challenges to its use and the interpretation of results.
- The purpose of this study was to quantify complexity in real-world noise and measure its effects on speech perception in listeners with normal hearing.**
- For this study, complexity in real-world noise was quantified using entropy. Entropy is a standard measure of complexity (Shannon, 1948), and has known effects on pure tone discrimination (Lutfi, 1993) and subjective perceptions of speech perception in real-world environments (Ghozi et al., 2015). The objective effects of entropy in real-world noise on speech perception have not been systematically evaluated.
- Entropy quantifies the complexity, or amount of information in a signal, as a function of the statistical structure of the signal. The standard formula (Shannon, 1948) for entropy is:

$$H(x) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \log_2 p(x_i)$$

where $p(x_i)$ is the probability of the i th event in signal x .

- We hypothesized that higher entropy variance in the time and frequency domains (i.e., more stimulus windows with low entropy) would yield systematically better speech perception, with smaller effects for participants with hearing loss particularly in the unaided condition.**

METHOD

- Real-world noise stimuli came from the Ambisonics Recordings of Typical Environments Database (Weisser et al., 2019). Eight environments were used: Café 1, Café 2, Church 2, Dinner Party, Food Court 1, Food Court 2, Street Balcony, and Train Station. Target speech sentences were IEEE sentences.
- Original ARTE recordings were decoded to 8-channels, played through an 8-speaker array, and recorded from a KEMAR. Entropy in the time (energy entropy) and frequency (spectral entropy) domains was then systematically analyzed from the binaural recordings.
- Energy entropy was analyzed using a similar method as in Pikrakis et al. (2008) and Giannakopoulos & Pikrakis (2014), and spectral entropy was calculated using the same method as in Misra et al. (2004). For both energy and spectral entropy, calculations were made using Hamming windows with a length of 0.03s and a step size of 0.01s.
- The short-time entropy in the time and frequency domains was calculated across all potential stimuli segments extracted from the ARTE Database. Standard deviations of entropy were used as a mid-term statistic (e.g., Ghozi et al., 2015; Pikrakis et al., 2008) to quantify the entropy across 3.44s segments, the longest length of a potential target sentence. Examples of the energy (top) and spectral (bottom) entropy sequences for a noise segment (Café 1 at the 125th second), with white noise and a pure tone given for reference, are shown in Figure 1.
- Twenty-five noise segments representing the distribution of energy and spectral entropy variance within environment were identified as the noise stimuli of interest (Figure 2).
- Speech perception in each noise segment was tested in a trial-by-trial design with 400 total trials across two blocks. Participants with hearing loss completed the experiment in unaided and aided conditions. The hearing aid used was the Portable Hearing Aid Lab, running openMHA software, and set to NAL-NL2 targets at 55, 65, and 75 dB input levels.

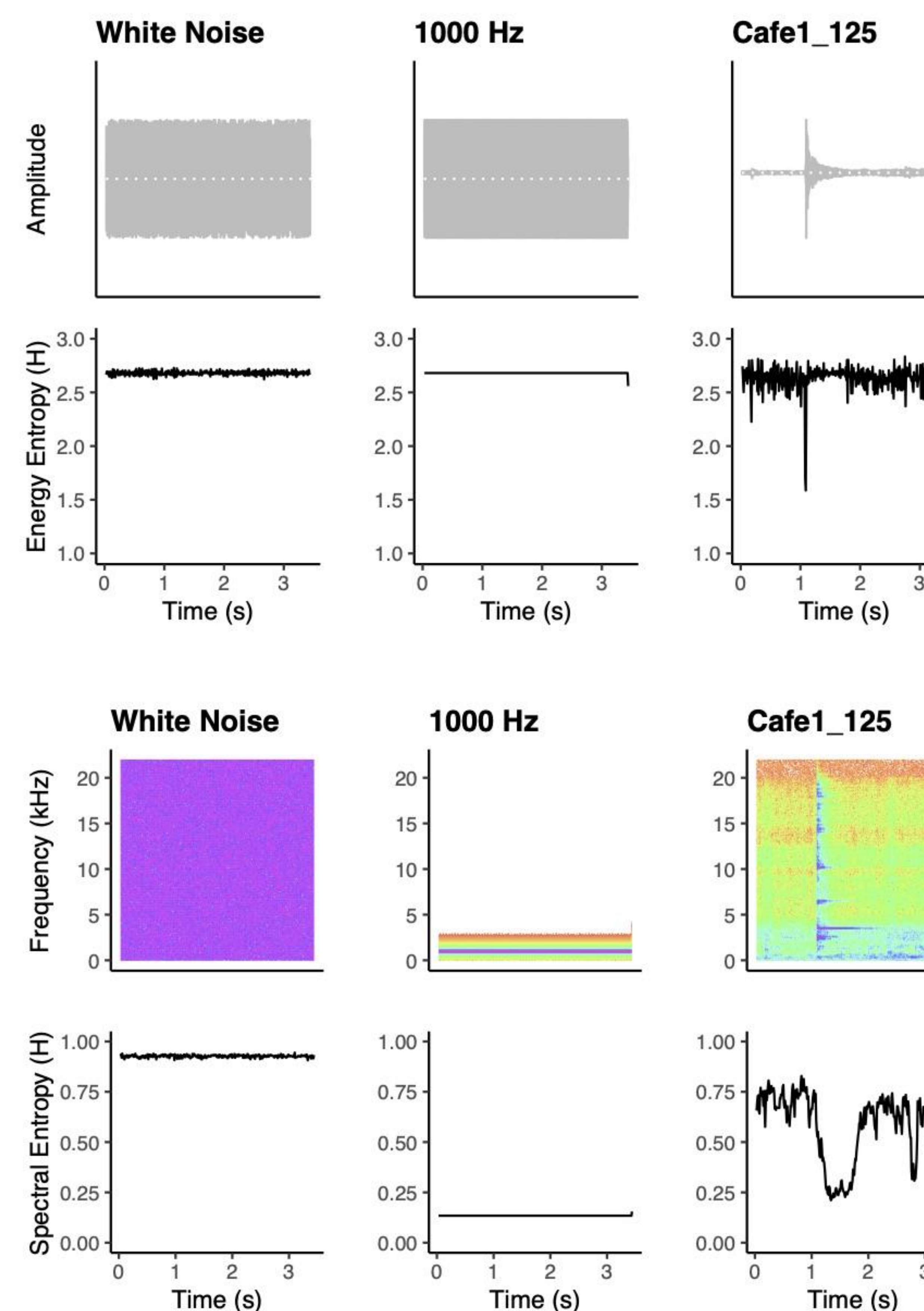


Figure 1. Examples of entropy sequences in the time domain (top) and frequency domain (bottom) for white noise, a 1000 Hz pure tone, and a stimuli noise segment.

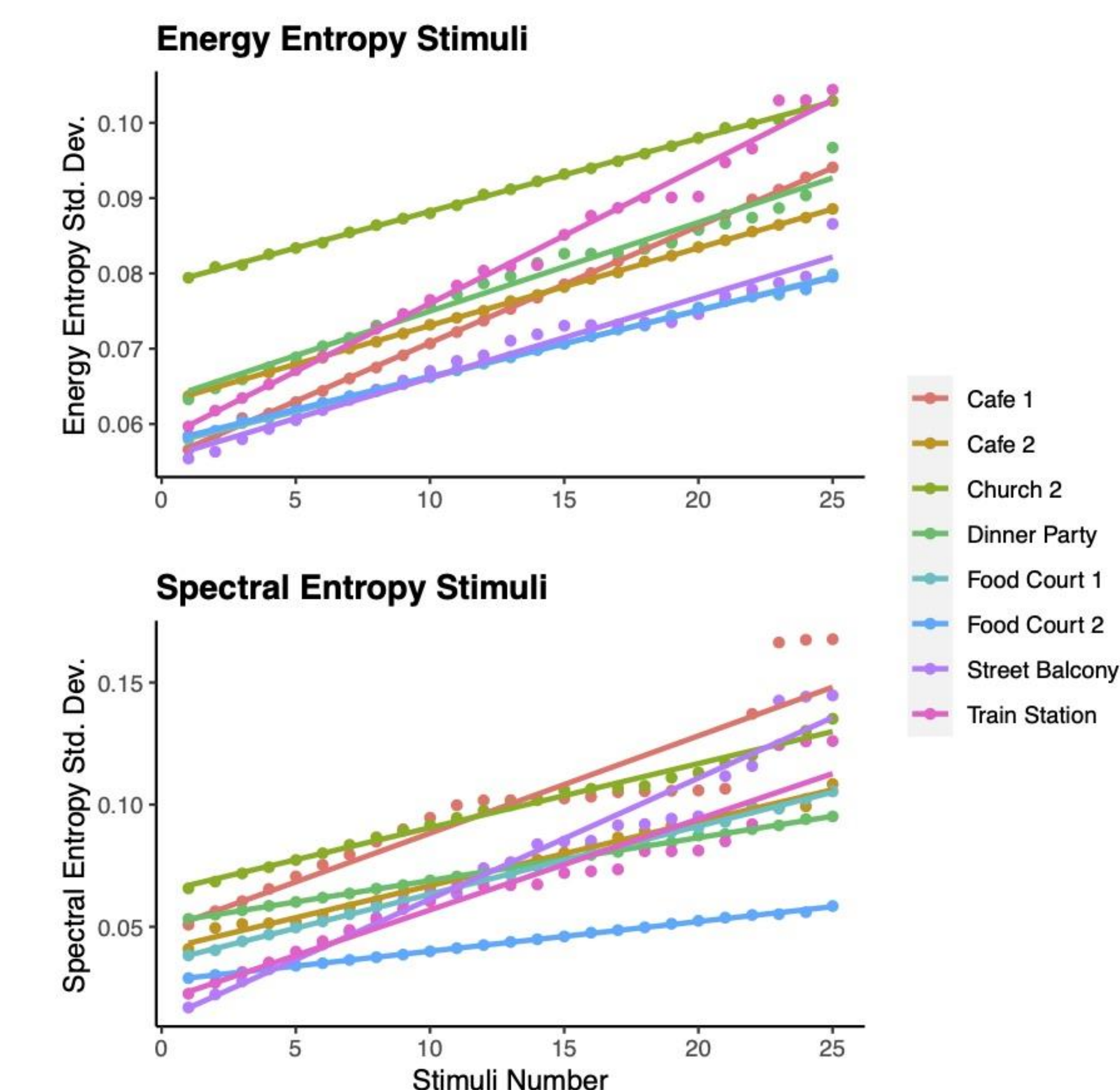


Figure 2. Entropy variance in the time domain (top) and frequency domain (bottom) for all noise stimuli.

- For each participant, target IEEE sentences were drawn randomly, matched with a noise segment in random order, convolved with the room impulse response for that noise segment, and then combined with the noise at its real-world level. Noise was presented at -6 dB signal-to-noise ratio. Noise began 2s before the sentence. Scores for each trial were number of keywords repeated back correctly.
- Participants were 21 adults with normal hearing (mean age=27 years) and 25 adults with mild-to-moderate sensorineural hearing loss (mean age = 63 years). Participants with hearing loss were all experienced hearing aid users. All were native English speakers.

RESULTS

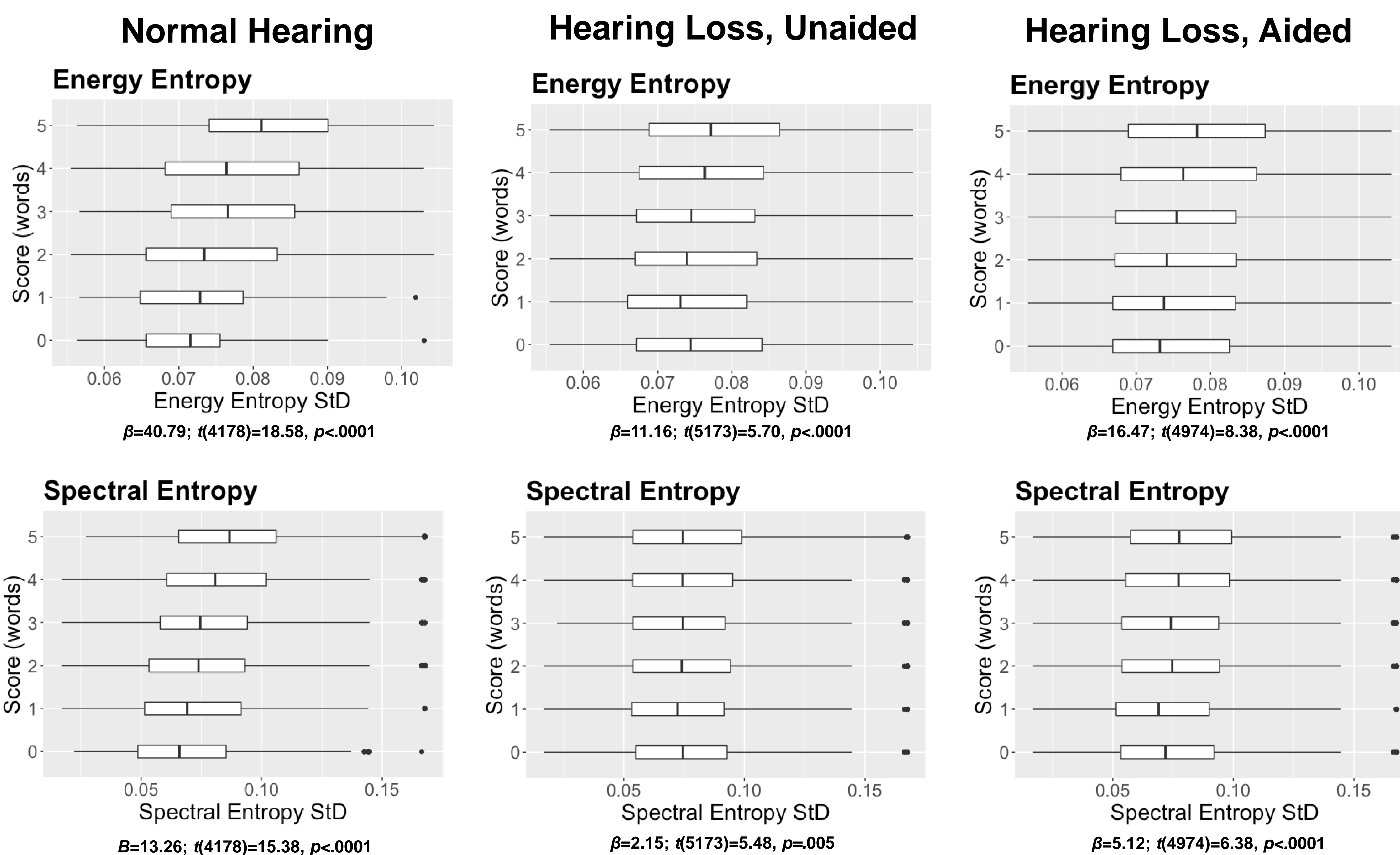


Figure 3. Effect of energy and spectral entropy variance on number of keywords correct across all environments. Horizontal bars represent median values. Vertical bars represent values within the first and third quartiles \pm the interquartile range \times 1.5. Dots represent outliers.

DISCUSSION

- Results showing number of keywords correct as a function of entropy variance in the time (top) and frequency (bottom) domains are shown in Figure 3.
- Linear mixed effects models with random intercepts for participants were used to analyze results.
- Number of words correct improved systematically with increases in entropy variance in the time and frequency domains for all listeners.**
- The effect was smaller for listeners with hearing loss, particularly in the unaided condition.**
- For the time domain experiment, on average, participants with hearing loss had poorer scores in the aided condition than the unaided condition ($\beta=-0.7$; $t(136.68)=-2.1$, $p=.038$). There was a significant interaction between aided condition and energy entropy and aided condition, with a larger effect of entropy in the aided than unaided condition ($\beta=5.31$; $t(10147)=1.92$, $p=.05$).
- For the frequency domain experiment, scores were not, on average, significantly different between the aided and unaided conditions. However, there was a significant interaction such that the effect of spectral entropy was larger in the aided than unaided condition ($\beta=2.97$; $t(10147)=2.69$, $p=.007$).
- Results were consistent with our hypotheses. Increasing noise complexity, quantified with entropy in the time or frequency domains, resulted in systematically poorer speech perception scores. Effects were smaller for listeners with hearing loss than for listeners with normal hearing, and smaller in the unaided than aided condition.
- Investigations of speech perception in real-world noise, either in virtual sound environments or real-world environments, should consider the effects of entropy in the design of experiments and interpretation of results.
- This experiment was not reductionist; it is not possible to precisely identify the mechanisms by which entropy affects speech perception in real-world noise. Based on prior work, possibilities include reductions in informational masking with decreasing entropy (e.g., Lutfi 1993), temporal masking release with increases in energy entropy variance (e.g., Miller, 1947), or larger divergences between probability structures of target and masker with increasing entropy variance (Lufti et al., 2013). Listeners with hearing loss typically show less benefit from masking release mechanisms than listeners with normal hearing (e.g. Best et al., 2011), which is consistent with data presented here. Central processing and executive function mechanisms may also contribute.
- Entropy variance in real-world noise may account for differences observed between speech perception in laboratory noise and real-world noise, as well as differences in benefit observed from hearing aids in the lab and the real-world (Best et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2019).
- An important area of future work is a characterization of how amplification, compression, and other signal processing features, particularly adaptive features, interact with entropy in real-world noise to affect speech perception and hearing aid benefit for listeners with hearing loss.

References: Best et al. IJA. 2015. 54(10), 682-690. Best et al. JASA. 2011. 129(3), 1616-1625. Ghozi et al. JAES. 2015. 63, 475-487. Giannakopoulos & Pikrakis. A. 2014. Lutfi, R. A. JASA. 1993. 94, 748-758. Lutfi, et al. JASA. 2013. 134(3), 2160-2170. Misra et al. IEEE. 2004. 1, 1-193. Pikrakis et al. 33rd International Conference on Acoustics, Speech, and Signal Processing, 2008. 24. Shannon, C. E. The Bell System Technical Journal, 1948. 27(3), 379-423. Weisser, et al. AUA. 2019. 105(4), 695-713. Wu et al. E&H. 2019. 40(4). Funding: NIH/NIDCD F32DC018980 (Jorgensen). Contact: Erik Jorgensen, University of Iowa, erik-jorgensen@uiowa.edu.