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1 **Title:** Not so primitive: Context sensitive meta-learning about unattended sound
2 sequences.

3 **Running Title:** Context sensitive meta-learning

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31 **Author Contribution**

32

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34 Designed the research, supervised project conduct, analysed data and took the lead role

35 in writing the paper.

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37 Andrew HEATHCOTE

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47

48 Gavin COOPER

49 Participated in design and programming.

50

51

52 **ABSTRACT**

53

54 Mismatch Negativity (MMN) – an evoked response potential elicited when a “deviant”
55 sound violates a regularity in the auditory environment – is integral to auditory scene
56 processing and has been used to demonstrate “primitive intelligence” in auditory short-
57 term memory. Using a new multiple context and timescale protocol we show that MMN
58 magnitude displays a context sensitive modulation depending on changes in the
59 probability of a deviant at multiple temporal scales. We demonstrate a primacy bias
60 causing asymmetric evidence-based modulation of predictions about the environment, and
61 that learning how to learn about deviant probability (meta-learning) induces context-
62 sensitive variation in the accessibility of predictive long-term memory representations that
63 underpin the MMN. The existence of the bias and meta-learning are consistent with
64 automatic attributions of behavioural salience governing relevance-filtering processes
65 operating outside of awareness.

66

67 **Keywords:** mismatch negativity (MMN), perceptual inference, salience, learning, auditory
68 evoked potential.

69

70 Humans are accomplished at finding patterns in event sequences, an ability that is
71 supported by automatic novelty detection mechanisms. In addition, automatic novelty
72 detection is indexed by Mismatch Negativity (MMN), a fronto-central event-related
73 potential (ERP) peaking 100-200ms after a novel event. The MMN, which is primarily
74 generated in the auditory cortex, was first described by Näätänen, Gaillard and Mäntysalo
75 (1978) in an auditory oddball paradigm (e.g., a series of *standard* longer tones containing
76 an occasional shorter oddball or *deviant* tone) through the use of deviant-standard
77 difference waveforms. MMN is elicited automatically and is usually measured while
78 participants attend to another modality (e.g., while reading or watching a silent movie), as
79 it does not require attention but can be masked by attention-related ERPs. MMN amplitude
80 is proportional to the difference between deviant and standard, and is inversely
81 proportional to the probability of the deviant. Early interpretations of the MMN (e.g.,
82 Näätänen & Michie, 1979) were in terms of a mismatch between low-level auditory
83 sensory memory traces of the standard and deviant. However, mounting evidence has
84 implicated much more sophisticated processing, leading Näätänen, Tervaniemi, Sussman,
85 Paavilainen and Winkler (2001) to characterize the MMN as a marker of “primitive
86 intelligence” in the auditory cortex.

87

88 Primitive intelligence is revealed by phenomena usually associated with higher-order
89 cognition ranging from prediction and simple concept formation to mnemonic
90 characteristics more associated with long-term memory than short-term sensory memory.
91 For example, MMNs indicative of a left-hemisphere specialization in extracting abstract
92 rules, are associated with violations of contingencies embedded in sound sequences that
93 are independent of low-level auditory features (e.g., “the higher the frequency the louder
94 the intensity”, Paavilainen, Simola, Jaramillo, Näätänen & Winkler, 2001). Horváth, Czigler,
95 Sussman and Winkler (2001) found MMNs implicating simultaneous memory

96 representations of more than one type of contingency (e.g., a global “every second tone is
97 A and every other B” rule and local a local “A follows B and vice versa” rule) that are
98 compared in parallel with incoming sounds. These results and others (e.g., Tervaniemi,
99 Maury & Näätänen, 1994) suggest the auditory cortex automatically learns contingencies
100 between the features of the successive events and makes predictions about forthcoming
101 events (Winkler, Karmos & Näätänen, 1996). The use of transition statistics (the statistical
102 temporal dependencies linking stimuli) was formalised in a recent paper incorporating
103 empirical data with computational modelling to explain a wide range of MMN findings. The
104 authors provide additional support for the argument that low-level sensory effects of
105 stimulation (e.g., habituation) are not sufficient to account for MMN results that instead
106 conform to a more active process of cortical prediction (Wacongne, Changeux & Dehaene,
107 2012).

108

109 This developing understanding in the role of MMN in the auditory modality complements
110 Friston’s (2003, 2005, 2008) free-energy minimization framework for perceptual inference
111 and learning, whereby sensory cortices are arranged hierarchically, with predictions over
112 longer time scales made by representations in higher cortical levels modulating responses
113 in lower levels occurring on faster time scales (see also Kiebel, Daunizeau, & Friston,
114 2008). The prefrontal cortex is a recognized contributor to the MMN (Alho,
115 Woods, Algazi, Knight, & Näätänen, 1994). Escera, Yago, Corral, Corbera and Nunez’s
116 (2003) specific suggestion that the prefrontal cortex provides top-down modulation of
117 mismatch detection in the temporal cortices was tested by Garrido, Kilner, Kiebel and
118 Friston (2009) in an auditory pitch oddball paradigm. Garrido et al. (2009) compared
119 Dynamic Causal Models varying in the involvement of generators in primary auditory
120 cortex (A1), superior temporal gyrus (STG) and inferior frontal gyrus (IFG). Model selection
121 supported the influence of adaptation in the primary auditory cortex and short-term

122 plasticity of forward and backward connections across the auditory hierarchy in the
123 generation of MMN (see also Schmidt, Diaconescu, Komerter et al., 2012 for a recent
124 replication and extension). The model that best accounted for data specified a right IFG –
125 STG – A1 hierarchy and a left STG – A1 hierarchy with extrinsic (feedforward and
126 feedback) connections between generators within each hierarchy and intrinsic (lateral)
127 connections within each A1 generator. These findings, and Friston’s general multiple-time-
128 scale hierarchical framework, suggest the known frontal involvement in the MMN might not
129 only be related to proposed attention switching (Näätänen, 1990, 1992, Giard, Perrin,
130 Pernier and Bouchet, 1990) but also to modulating MMN magnitude based on predictive
131 confidence over longer time-scales.

132

133 We used a new technique, a *multiple context and time-scale MMN protocol*, to explore the
134 long-term memory characteristics of the context-dependent process that adjusts
135 predictions about auditory regularity. The technique is a refined and expanded version of
136 the protocol used by Todd, Provost and Cooper (2011). They measured learning about the
137 probability of a tone duration deviant in an oddball paradigm similar to that illustrated in the
138 top row of Figure 1. In each of a series of approximately 10-minute sequences separated
139 by several minutes of silence, either a short (e.g., 30ms) or long (e.g., 60ms) tone
140 occurred every 300ms. Over the entire sequence both durations occurred equiprobably,
141 but in blocks within each sequence one duration, the standard, was more probable
142 ($p=0.875$), with the other duration being the MMN-eliciting deviant. The attribution of
143 durations to deviant and standard roles alternated between blocks. Different sequences
144 varied in block length, with Figure 1 illustrating sequences with slow (2.4 minute) and fast
145 (0.8 minute) block alternations. If MMN amplitude is dominated by the local probability
146 within a block – consistent with an MMN developing on the scale of a few seconds in the
147 oddball paradigm (i.e., after several standard repetitions) – it should not vary with

148 alternation speed (block length). If, in contrast, the probability of a deviant is measured by
149 a moving average over a larger temporal window, MMN amplitude should be larger in slow
150 than fast block alternation sequences.

151

152 Surprisingly, Todd et al. (2011) found both patterns. For the deviant duration that occurred
153 in the first block (which was the same for every sequence for a given participant) MMN
154 amplitude was larger for the slow than fast sequences. In contrast, for the duration that
155 became the deviant in the second block, sequence speed had no effect on MMN
156 magnitude. Todd et al. described this asymmetric finding as a “primacy bias”. They
157 suggested that it might reflect latent inhibition (Lubow & Gewirtz, 1995), a classical
158 conditioning phenomenon whereby learning is attenuated to familiar stimuli that have
159 previously been inconsequential. Irrespective of the cause, the data imply a long-acting,
160 order-driven limitation on how evidence affects perceptual inference.

161

162 The experiment reported here adds multiple contexts to the multiple temporal scales in
163 Todd et al.’s (2011) protocol in order to investigate the cases and limits of the differential
164 probability sensitivity indicated by the primacy bias. In the previous study, tone order was a
165 between-subjects factor whereby half the participants always experienced the long
166 duration sounds as the standard in the first block of any sequence and half always
167 experience the short duration as the first standard. Furthermore, the primacy bias was
168 assessed over a 50 minute recording period including multiple block lengths. Here we
169 presented participants with three pairs of sequences comprising only short and long block
170 lengths (as illustrated in Figure 1, Order 1, 2 and 3). Each sequence pair was separated
171 by a 5-minute break and the duration that was used as the standard in the first block of
172 each sequence changed between pairs (i.e., 30ms in the first and third pairs and 60ms in
173 the second pair). These shorter sequences allow us to determine whether a reliable index

174 of the bias can be extracted from a 20 minute recording and how resistant the bias is to
175 change (i.e., whether it reverses when tone order changes). Latent conditioning is well
176 known to be context sensitive (e.g., Hall & Honey, 1989), so if the 5-minute breaks induce
177 a sufficiently salient change of context the primacy bias should reverse between sequence
178 pairs. Furthermore, the repeat of Order 1 in Order 3 allows us to examine whether the
179 bias is always replicated with the same initial sequence structure or whether prior
180 experience can alter the effect.

181

182

Method

183 **Participants**

184 Participants were 15 healthy adults (8 female, 18-31 years, mean = 25 years, SD = 4
185 years) community volunteers and first year undergraduate Psychology students at the
186 University of Newcastle. Participants were excluded if they were diagnosed with or being
187 treated for mental illness, had a first degree relative with schizophrenia, regularly used
188 recreational drugs or had history of neurological disorder, head injury or surgery, hearing
189 impairments or heavy alcohol use. Course credit was offered for participation to students
190 and cash reimbursement to community volunteers. Written informed consent was obtained
191 from all participants to complete the protocol as approved by the Human Research Ethics
192 committee, University of Newcastle, Australia.

193

194 **Stimuli and Sequences**

195 Sounds were 1000 Hz pure tones presented binaurally over headphones at 75 dB SPL.
196 Sounds were created with 5 ms rise/fall times and either a 20 ms or 50 ms pedestal to
197 produce 30 ms and 60 ms sounds, respectively. All sequences comprised 1920 sounds
198 presented at a regular 300 ms stimulus onset asynchrony (9.6 minutes per sequence). In
199 short-standard blocks the 30 ms tone was more probable ($p=0.875$) than 60 ms tone; in

200 long-standard blocks the probabilities were reversed. In the slow sequence, block type
201 alternated after every 480 tones creating a stable-standard period of 2.4 minutes (i.e., two
202 repeats of each 2.4 minute block). In the fast sequence block type alternated every 160
203 tones creating a stable-standard period of 0.8 minutes (i.e., six repeats of each 0.8 minute
204 block). The slow alternation sequence always preceded the fast alternation sequence. In
205 Order 1 and in its repeat in Order 3, the short standard blocks were presented first. In
206 Order 2, the long standard blocks were presented first. A five minute break was enforced
207 between order conditions and shorter 1-2 minute breaks occurred between sequences
208 (total testing time approximately 1 hour, 15 minutes).

209

210 **Procedure**

211 Participants completed a screening interview prior to testing to ensure no exclusion criteria
212 were present. Hearing thresholds (measured across 500-4000 Hz) were assessed with a
213 pure tone audiometer to exclude those with hearing loss (thresholds >25 dB HL).

214 Participants were fitted with a Neuroscan Quickcap with tin electrodes, that included nose
215 and mastoid electrodes. The continuous EEG was recorded on a Synamps 2 Neuroscan
216 system at 1000 Hz sampling rate (highpass 0.1 Hz, lowpass 70 Hz, notch filter 50 Hz and
217 a fixed gain of 2010). EEG data were recorded from 16 electrode locations (FZ, FCZ, CZ,
218 PZ, F3, FC3, C3, F4, FC4, C4 in accordance with the 10–20 system plus left mastoid, right
219 mastoid) referenced to the nose. We also measured vertical and horizontal electro-
220 oculograms. Impedances were reduced to below 5 k Ω before recording commenced.

221 Sequences were presented over headphones while the participant viewed a silent DVD
222 with subtitles and were instructed to ignore the sounds and focus attention on the movie.

223

224

225

226 **Data Processing**

227 Continuous EEG was first examined offline for major artifact before eyeblink artifact
228 correction was completed offline using Neuroscan Edit software. The method applies a
229 regression analysis in combination with artifact averaging (Semlitsch, Anderer, Schuster, &
230 Presslich, 1986). The average artifact response algorithm generated was assessed for
231 adequacy (more than 30 sweeps in the average and <5% variance) and was applied to the
232 continuous data files. The data were epoched from 50 ms prestimulus to 300 ms post-
233 stimulus. Epochs containing variations exceeding $\pm 70 \mu\text{V}$ were excluded. The data were
234 used to generate twelve ERPs to standard tones, twelve ERPs to deviant tones and twelve
235 difference waves per participant (a 30 ms and 60 ms version for fast and slow sequences
236 for each of the three orders). The first five standards in a block and the first standard after
237 each deviant were excluded from averages.

238

239 ERPs were baseline corrected pre-stimulus. The standard and deviant ERPs were digitally
240 filtered with a lowpass of 30 Hz. Difference waveforms for 30 ms and 60 ms deviants were
241 created for each condition by subtracting the ERP to that tone as a standard from that tone
242 as a deviant. For example, the MMN to 30 ms deviants in fast change blocks was
243 extracted from a difference waveform created by subtracting the ERP to the 30 ms
244 standard in fast change blocks from the ERP to the 30 ms deviant tone in fast change
245 blocks. This approach assists in reducing the contribution of exogenous effects on the
246 computation of MMN (Jacobsen & Schröger, 2003). The difference wave was then filtered
247 with a low pass of 20 Hz (lower cut-off recommended for MMN, Kujala et al., 2007).

248

249 All ERPs were re-referenced to the averaged activity at the left and right mastoid sites.
250 Individual data were then visually inspected to determine whether a MMN was present.
251 One participants' data were rejected on this criterion showing no evidence of a MMN to the

252 30 ms or 60 ms deviant for any condition. Three participants only completed Order 1 and 2
253 of the study and were therefore excluded from statistical analyses and results display.

254

255 The within-subjects variables of interest were order (1, 2, 3), speed of block alternation
256 (slow, fast) and tone type (30 ms, 60 ms). Inspection of the data revealed that the speed
257 and order effects on MMN amplitude were maximal at the front-central scalp site F4. MMN
258 was quantified by identifying the peak latency in group averaged data and extracting mean
259 amplitude 10 ms either side of that peak. MMNs to the 30 ms tone peaked uniformly
260 around 170 ms and those to the 60 ms sound peaked uniformly around 150 ms (see
261 Figure 2 below). Mean amplitude was therefore extracted over 160-180ms for 30 ms
262 MMNs and from 140-160 ms for 60 ms MMNs. MMN amplitude was examined in an order
263 by speed by tone repeated measures ANOVA. Greenhouse-Geisser statistics are reported
264 where appropriate.

265

266

267

Results

268

269 The MMNs generated to the 30 ms and 60 ms tones as deviants are presented in Figure 2
270 for the site F4. The differential effect of tone order on the MMNs to 30 ms and 60 ms
271 deviants is visibly apparent. In Order 1, only the MMNs to 60 ms tones show evidence of
272 the expected standard stability effect (slow-larger-than-fast alternation) on MMN size. In
273 Order 2, the pattern reverses entirely, where the slow-larger-than fast alternation effect is
274 only visible for the MMNs to the 30 ms tone as deviant. In Order 3, however, the slow-
275 larger-than-fast effect is clearly present for both the 30 ms and 60 ms MMN.

276

277 Analysis of MMN amplitude exposed a main effect of speed ($F(1,10) = 8.00, p < .05$)
278 modified by a significant three-way interaction between order, tone and speed of block
279 change ($\epsilon = 0.76, F(2,20) = 8.58, p < .005$). In Order 1, there was a tone x speed interaction
280 ($F(1,10) = 5.50, p < .05$), reflecting a significantly larger slow change MMN than fast change
281 MMN for the 60 ms deviants only. In Order 2, a significant tone x speed interaction
282 reflected the opposite pattern: a significantly larger slow than fast change MMN for the 30
283 ms deviant only ($F(1,10) = 26.31, p < .001$). In Order 3, only the speed of change main
284 effect reached significance ($F(1,10) = 12.07, p < .01$), reflecting larger MMNs to deviants in
285 the slow change than fast change conditions for both tone types. The full set of ANOVA
286 results are presented in Table 1.

287

288 The group averaged mean amplitudes of the MMN are presented in Figure 3. The
289 significant order effect on interactions between tone type and speed of alternation are very
290 clear in panel C of Figure 3. The effect of order and speed of alternation on each tone type
291 is presented separately in panels A and B. A repeated measures ANOVA within each tone
292 type confirms a significant quadratic trend for the interaction between order and speed for
293 both tones (30 ms $F(1,10) = 7.80, p < .05$, 60 ms $F(1,10) = 27.18, p < .001$) although the
294 interaction only reaches significance for the 60 ms tone (see Table 1). This is visible in
295 Figure 3 where the impact of speed on the difference in MMN amplitudes is maximal
296 where the tone was the first encountered deviant in that order (order 2 for the 30 ms tone
297 and orders 1 & 3 for the 60 ms tone). The modulations, in particular those for the 60 ms
298 tone, show how order modulates MMN amplitude in both directions, consistent with a
299 relative rather than absolute effect.

300

301 An examination of the ERPs to the repetitive sounds in each sequence revealed no
302 significant impact of any of the within-subject variables supporting Todd et al.'s (2011)

303 interpretation that the origin of the effects, particularly the bias, is in response to the
304 deviant tone.

305

306 **Discussion**

307 Since its discovery by Näätänen et al. (1978), the MMN has not only found application in
308 an increasing number clinical and applied fields (Näätänen, Kujala, Escera et al., 2012),
309 but has also been central to revealing an increasingly sophisticated story about auditory
310 processing by the brain (Näätänen et al., 2001). The early conception that the MMN
311 reflects a simple mismatch between incoming sounds and a rapidly decaying trace of low
312 level auditory features has been replaced by the notion that it is integral to auditory scene
313 analysis and reflects a learning process based on the success of multiple simultaneously
314 active predictive models or “regularity representations” residing in long-term memory
315 (Winkler & Cowan, 2005).

316

317 In this paper we have used a new multi-context, multi-timescale MMN paradigm revealing
318 a bias in inferential processes underlying MMN. The results extend Todd et al.’s (2011)
319 previous work by demonstrating: (1) that a reliable index of the bias can be obtained in as
320 little as 20 minutes; (2) within-in subject evidence that the bias is anchored to the initial
321 structure of the sequence and so reverses when tone order is reversed (results order 1
322 versus order 2); but (3) extraction of information about sequence structure over a much
323 longer time course can abolish the bias (no bias when order 1 is repeated in order 3). The
324 data show that experience with sound can affect how subsequent evidence influences
325 automatic perceptual inferences. Although lower-level processes like stimulus-specific
326 adaptation have demonstrated sensitivity to event-probability on multiple timescales
327 (Ulanovsky, Lars & Nelkin, 2003), we know of no mechanism by which it could account for
328 the observed bias and, in particular, the disappearance of the bias in order 3. Given ERP

329 studies provide evidence that adaptation in subsets of neurons coding probability on
330 multiple timescales can influence MMN size (e.g., Costa-Faidella, Grimm, Slabu, Diaz-
331 Santaella & Escera, 2011), these factors must play a role in the phenomena we are
332 measuring but seem inadequate to explain why the bias would be created, reverse and
333 then be overwritten over the three order conditions. A recent computational modelling
334 study suggests that the process from which MMN derives reflects stored information about
335 the conditional probability of observing a particular second stimulus at a certain latency
336 after the first and that “MMN reflects, in a quantitative manner, the degree of violation of
337 such transition probabilities” (Wacongne et al., 2012). The bias in present data and that in
338 Todd et al. (2011) indicate that such transition statistics are only part of the story and
339 insufficient to account for these order-dependent phenomena.

340

341 Similar order-dependent biases observed in artificial grammar learning prompting the
342 proposal that: “adult learners have a prior probability, either innately or via early
343 experience, that structures do not undergo rapid change without a strong contextual cue”
344 (Gebhart et al., 2009, p1110). This prospect links well with recent conceptualizations of the
345 MMN process and raises the possibility of a more top-down implementation of acquired
346 knowledge. Winkler (2007) and Sussman (2007) discuss how mechanisms explaining the
347 probability sensitivity of MMN in terms of the absolute strength of a memory trace for the
348 standard, or its strength relative to a memory trace for the deviant, have been replaced by
349 a regularity-violation interpretation within which the MMN reflects learning about predictive
350 confidence. Within this framework, our sequences can be conceptualised as setting up two
351 competing models of the environment. Model A stipulates that the environment is best
352 accounted for by the characteristics of the first standard (30ms) tone. Model B reflects the
353 competing expectation that the environment will match the characteristics of the second
354 standard (60 ms) tone. Evidence for model A and B change over time and at different rates

355 in the fast and slow alternation sequences. The fact that deviations elicit larger MMN in
356 slow than fast change sequences for model A only implies an order-dependent differential
357 impact of experience on predictive confidence. In other words, additional stability in the
358 slow changing sequence (and conversely instability in the fast change sequence) has an
359 impact on MMN size for the violations of model A but not model B. It is as though the initial
360 standard repetition in order 1 (or model A) is accepted as a global structure and the
361 dominant model. Model B becomes a local departure from this structure insensitive to
362 modification by longer term experience. In order 2, model B becomes the global
363 structure/dominant model. The fact that the bias can be so readily reversed by a 5 minute
364 silence might then be explained by the silence preceding order 2 leading to the
365 assumption that this sequence originates from a different object to that in order 1. By order
366 3, both models have played a role as global/dominant models, are recognised as equally
367 likely (possibly as separate auditory objects) and therefore the bias is abolished. In this
368 way, the bias creates a conservative preservation of stability in initial object perception,
369 presumably until sufficient counter-evidence is acquired.

370

371 A slightly different perspective emerges when considering the functional relevance of a
372 prediction-error signal. Model-competition assumes that the bias occurs through
373 preferential re-evaluation of one prediction model (linked to the first standard). In contrast,
374 an information-value perspective assumes that the bias emerges because of the
375 prediction-error (linked to the first deviant). Prediction-errors motivate learning by signalling
376 when reality differs from inferences based on past experience. The goal of subsequent
377 learning is to minimise the error (Friston, 2005). This is achieved by enlisting resources
378 that can provide more information on how to predict the event and/or on what the event
379 predicts. The bias we observed is linked to the presentation order of tones. The first large
380 prediction-error signal is the MMN to the first encountered deviant (e.g., 60ms tone in

381 order 1, 30ms tone in order 2). One perspective on the functional significance of MMN is
382 that it signals that the environment departed significantly from the predicted state and this
383 departure may be important. The best way to learn more about this event is to monitor its
384 occurrence over a longer time frame. Over a longer sampling window, the 60ms sound is
385 less rare (or likewise the transition from 30 ms standard to 60 ms deviant is less rare) in
386 fast change sequences than in the slow change sequences, providing a probability-based
387 explanation of why MMN amplitude to the 60ms tone is modulated by speed of change. In
388 contrast, the initial high repetition of the first encountered standard with no linked
389 consequence may result in learned redundancy, failing to engage higher order monitoring
390 and in turn, explaining why longer term probability changes have no effect on MMN size.

391

392 Viewed from this information value perspective, the primacy bias is a failure to unlearn this
393 redundancy, and so it resembles latent inhibition attenuating learning about familiar
394 inconsequential stimuli. If this is the case it appears that the flexibility to be sensitive to
395 variations in deviant probability at multiple temporal scales might be hampered by its
396 implementation through a relatively simple learning mechanism. Our new finding that the
397 primacy effect reverses after a 5-minute break might also be consistent with this simple
398 conditioning explanation given latent inhibition is known to be context sensitive. However,
399 the complete disappearance of the primacy bias (i.e., the fact that speed modulates MMN
400 for both tone durations) after a further break appears to be indicative of a more
401 sophisticated meta-learning process. In particular, why would speed modulation for MMN
402 to the 60ms deviant, which occurs first in in order 1, fail to occur when it subsequently
403 occurs second in order 2, yet the speed modulation observed on the MMN to the 30ms
404 deviant that occurs first in order 2 is also seen when it appears second in order 3? The
405 disappearance of primacy bias suggests that by the time the third sequence pair occurs,

406 higher-order learning promotes longer term monitoring of all sounds to minimise prediction
407 error in an environment with changing sound relevance (and/or multiple auditory objects).

408

409 Predictive-confidence and information-value based accounts have slightly different
410 implications for learning. According to the former, the bias reflects how evidence is used to
411 evaluate predictions about the environment. The later implies that even outside our
412 awareness, the automatically determined information-value of a sound will influence the
413 level of engagement in monitoring its occurrence. In either case, it appears that with
414 sufficient experience, the MMN, and early auditory processing of unattended sequences,
415 can reflect influences from brain processes with a hierarchy of temporal scales that enable
416 quite sophisticated adaptation of learning processes to utilise higher-order patterning in
417 predictions (Kiebel, Daunizeau & Friston, 2008). At face value the bias appears to have
418 methodological implications for studies that employ reversed-oddball control designs (e.g.,
419 Jacobsen & Schröger, 2003). However, such designs generally hold standard probability
420 stable for longer periods than that used here and do not alternate back-and-forth.

421 Furthermore, it would appear from the outcomes of the present study that a period of
422 silence between two opposing blocks is sufficient to “re-set” or remove the former bias. At
423 present we consider the implications minor unless a study runs the reverse-oddball
424 sequences contiguously. The extent to which this is true depends on the outcomes of
425 ongoing studies in our lab exploring the longevity of the effect in the face of
426 countermanding evidence – that is, whether the bias holds for model A when it is followed
427 by very long periods of stability in model B.

428

429 Our results suggest that the multi-context multi-scale MMN protocol provides a sensitive
430 technique for probing the characteristics of perceptual learning about prediction at multiple
431 temporal scales. For example, new studies could examine whether the primacy we

432 demonstrated – one induced by an order-dependent consequential history in the current
433 context – is also found with other types of prior bias (e.g., pre-existing differences in
434 stimulus salience). The way in which context change modulates learning also seems
435 particularly suited to studying the role of long-term memory in the storage and retrieval of
436 regularity representations in mismatch detection. Finally, all of these possibilities can be
437 explored when deviance is defined relative to recently acquired (e.g., Atienza & Cantero,
438 2001) or long-term (e.g., Pulvermuller et al., 2001) knowledge, or potentially by higher
439 order relationships, such as various stimulus contingencies (e.g., Paavilainen et al., 2001;
440 Tervaniemi et al., 1994), or when multiple simultaneous regularities are active (e.g.,
441 Horváth et al., 2001).

442

443

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446

447 **Author Contribution**

448

449 Juanita TODD

450 Designed the research, supervised project conduct, analysed data and took the lead role

451 in writing the paper.

452

453 Andrew HEATHCOTE

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455 Participated in design, data interpretation and write-up.

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554 Figure Legends

555

556

557

558 Figure 1. Example structure of tone sequences used by Todd et al.'s (2011, first row only)
 559 and the present study. Cross-hatched rectangles represent blocks with a 30ms standard
 560 and 60ms deviant tone and grey rectangles represent blocks with reversed tone
 561 probabilities; in both $\text{Pr}(\text{standard})=0.875$ and $\text{Pr}(\text{deviant})=0.125$. Note that Todd et al. also
 562 used several intermediate speeds and found no difference between results when the
 563 different speeds occurred in different orders, and so only the slow then fast order was
 564 used in the present study.

565

566 Figure 2. The group average mastoid re-referenced MMN waveforms at F4 to 30 ms (grey
 567 line) and 60 ms (black line) deviant tones in the fast and slow change sequences for
 568 orders 1-3.

569

570 Figure 3. The group averaged mean amplitudes for MMN to 30 ms and 60 ms deviant
 571 sounds as a function of change speed and block order. A: Fast and slow speed effects in
 572 the MMN to the 30 ms deviant across orders 1-3. B: Fast and slow speed effects in the
 573 MMN to the 60 ms deviant across orders 1-3. C: Interactions effects on MMN size

574 between speed effects and tone type across orders 1-3. Error bars = Morey's (2008)
575 corrected normalized within-subject standard errors.

576

577

Table 1. Results for repeated measures analysis of variance exploring main effects and interaction on mean mismatch negativity (MMN) amplitude to 30ms and 60 ms tones in the fast and slow change conditions for sequences orders 1, 2 and 3.

EFFECT	ϵ	F-STATISTIC	P-VALUE	Mean Square	Error Mean Square
OVERALL					
ORDER	0.96	F(2,20) = 0.72	0.50	0.72	1.08
SPEED	1.00	F(1,10) = 8.00	0.02	16.89	2.11
TONE	1.00	F(1,10) = 1.76	0.21	16.39	9.23
ORDER x SPEED	0.86	F(2,20) = 1.71	0.21	1.24	0.73
ORDER X TONE	1.00	F(2,20) = 1.02	0.38	0.60	0.59
SPEED X TONE	1.00	F(1,10) = 0.61	0.45	0.61	0.35
ORDER X SPEED X TONE	0.76	F(2,20) = 8.58	0.01	9.91	1.16
ORDER 1					
SPEED	1.00	F(1,10) = 2.78	0.13	4.73	1.70
TONE	1.00	F(1,10) = 3.70	0.08	10.45	2.82
SPEED X TONE	1.00	F(1,10) = 5.50	0.04	6.80	1.24
ORDER 2					
SPEED	1.00	F(1,10) = 3.19	0.10	2.10	0.66
TONE	1.00	F(1,10) = 1.43	0.26	3.56	2.50
SPEED X TONE	1.00	F(1,10) = 26.31	0.01	7.57	0.29
ORDER 3					
SPEED	1.00	F(1,10) = 12.07	0.01	12.12	1.01
TONE	1.00	F(1,10) = 0.70	0.42	3.59	5.09
SPEED X TONE	1.00	F(1,10) = 1.54	0.24	0.89	0.58
30 ms					
ORDER	0.91	F(1,10) = 1.18	0.32	1.20	1.01
SPEED	1.00	F(1,10) = 8.66	0.01	6.65	0.77
SPEED X ORDER	0.65	F(2,20) = 2.96	0.10	4.21	0.92
60 MS					
ORDER	0.89	F(1,10) = 0.37	0.67	0.29	0.79
TONE	1.00	F(1,10) = 6.18	0.03	10.45	1.69
SPEED X ORDER	0.91	F(2,20) = 10.10	0.01	6.42	0.58

SLOW CHANGE

Stable over 2.4 mins

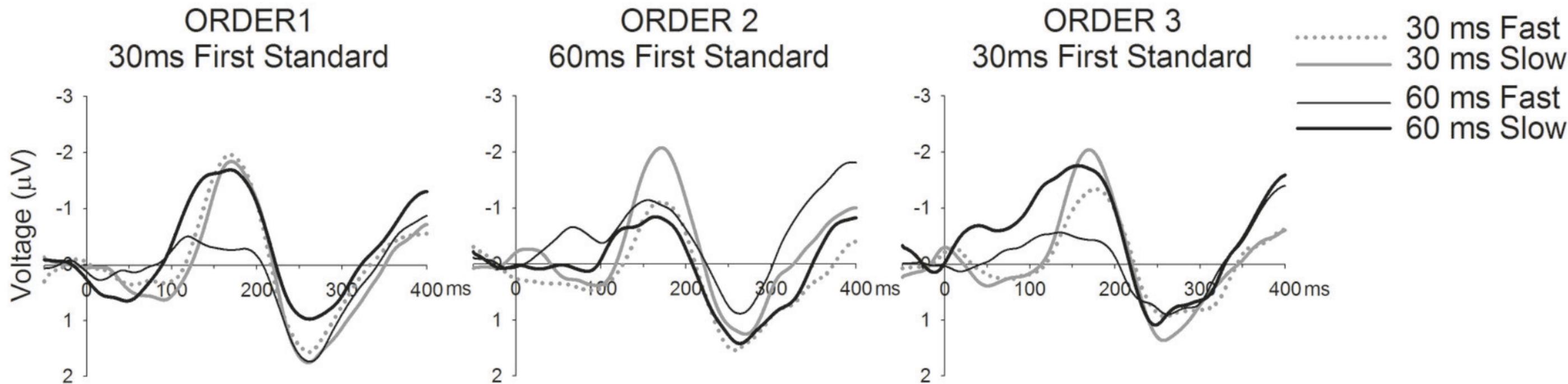


FAST CHANGE

Stable over 0.8 mins



MMN to 30 ms and 60 ms sounds as deviants in fast and slow change sequences.



MMN mean amplitude to 30 ms and 60 ms deviants in fast and slow change sequences.

