

1 **Attending at a low intensity increases impulsivity in an auditory SART**

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26 **Abstract** (196 words)

27           Why attention lapses during prolonged tasks is debated, specifically whether errors  
28 are a consequence of under-arousal or exerted effort. To explore this we investigated whether  
29 increased impulsivity is associated with effortful processing by modifying the demand of a  
30 task by presenting it at a quiet intensity. Here, we consider whether attending at low but  
31 detectable levels affects impulsivity in a population with intact hearing. A modification of the  
32 Sustained Attention to Response Task (SART) was used with auditory stimuli at two levels:  
33 the participants' personal 'lowest detectable' level and a 'normal speaking' level. At the quiet  
34 intensity, we found that more impulsive responses were made compared to listening at a  
35 normal speaking level. These errors were not due to a failure in discrimination. The findings  
36 suggest an increase in processing time for auditory stimuli at low levels that exceeds the time  
37 needed to interrupt a planned habitual motor response. This leads to a more impulsive and  
38 erroneous response style. These findings have important implications for understanding the  
39 nature of impulsivity in relation to effortful processing. They may explain why a high  
40 proportion of individuals with hearing loss are also diagnosed with Attention Deficit  
41 Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD).

42

43 **Keywords:** Auditory attention; Effortful listening; Impulsivity; Sustained attention; SART

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## 45        **1 Introduction**

46            Impulsivity can be measured by failures to inhibit habitual responses. For example in  
47 the Sustained Attention to Response Task (SART) (Robertson, Manly, Andrade, Baddeley, &  
48 Yiend, 1997), participants have to respond speedily to each of a rapidly presented sequence of  
49 numerical targets with a simple button press, but to withhold their response to one specified  
50 number. Unless people are actively attending to each stimulus, a ‘false alarm’ response is  
51 often made to the stimulus that does not require a button press (Chamberlain & Sahakian,  
52 2007). After people make such errors they typically realise it and this is reflected  
53 behaviourally in a slowing down of reaction times to subsequent stimuli (Fellows & Farah,  
54 2005; Manly, Robertson, Galloway, & Hawkins, 1999). Such errors are referred to as  
55 ‘impulsive’. Despite the name of the task, it has been suggested that the SART may be a  
56 better measure of this impulsivity than it is of sustained attention (Carter, Russell, Helton,  
57 2013). It is thought that the repetitive nature of the task establishes a strong tendency for a  
58 response to be made unless there is a counteracting signal that prevents its initiation or  
59 execution. Impulsive errors are made when the time needed to identify the target is longer  
60 than the time allocated to initiate the motor response (Logan & Cowan, 1984; Logan,  
61 Schachar, & Tannock, 1997; Molenberghs et al., 2009). It is also suggested that such errors  
62 may be a result of a speed accuracy trade off in response strategy (Peebles and Bothell,  
63 2004). In the SART faster response times to go targets are associated with increased  
64 impulsive errors (Manly et al. 2000). This outcome may result in a competing response  
65 strategy, respond quickly but make more errors, or respond slowly and be more accurate.

66            Why the counteracting signal fails to stop, and the response is initiated in such tasks is  
67 still unclear. One view is that errors arise because the mind drifts due to the boring and  
68 undemanding nature of the task, an underload theory (Nachreiner & Hanecke, 1992).  
69 However, more recent research suggests a very different explanation. Despite the monotony

70 of continuous performance tasks they tend to be rated as very high on measures of cognitive  
71 load (e.g. NASA task load index (Hitchcock, Dember, Warm, Moroney, & See, 1999)). This  
72 high workload might be produced by the need to continuously process and identify every  
73 target to decide on an appropriate response (Hitchcock, et al., 1999). Therefore, instead of the  
74 attentional lapses that lead to impulsive responses being made due to the monotony of the  
75 task, the attentional lapses may arise due to an inability to maintain the effortful processing  
76 required to deal with the continuous workload, an overload theory. Increasing the task load  
77 with a concurrent task has been shown to increase errors made (Head and Helton, 2014).

78         The possibility that effortful processing may be responsible for attention failures and  
79 impulsive responding in these tasks may explain a curious relationship that exists between  
80 hearing impairment and difficulties with sustained attention. The cognitive and behavioural  
81 problems seen in those with hearing loss overlap considerably with the diagnostic criteria of  
82 Attention Deficit Disorder. Indeed, a high proportion of individuals with hearing impairments  
83 are also diagnosed with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) (Williams &  
84 Abeles, 2004). In the current context, these difficulties may be a reflection of the effort  
85 required to process auditory information, rather than an independent behavioural problem. It  
86 may be that degraded auditory processing makes it more difficult, rather than impossible to  
87 discriminate words (Shinn-Cunningham & Best, 2008). Those with hearing loss may  
88 effectively have greater demands on their attention to enable the successful processing of  
89 what are effectively low but detectable levels of auditory input. Given that we know that  
90 sustained attention cannot be maintained indefinitely (Robertson, et al., 1997), errors can be  
91 expected as sustained attention fails. As a consequence impulsivity, mind-wandering,  
92 inattentiveness, not paying attention would all be predicted.

93         Whilst in a hearing impaired population developmental history makes it difficult to  
94 investigate whether attentional difficulties are a consequence of effortful processing, effortful

95 listening can be simulated in a population with intact hearing. This can be achieved by using  
96 a modified version of the SART, whereby low intensity auditory stimuli are used instead of  
97 stimuli in the visual modality. An auditory SART variant of the traditionally visual task has  
98 been successfully adapted for use in another study (Seli, Cheyne, Barton, & Smilek, 2012).  
99 Moreover, the auditory SART has been shown to delay the motor response, which may in part  
100 mitigate the speed accuracy trade off aspect of the SART (Seli et al., 2013; Head and Helton,  
101 2013). In the current study, an auditory SART is used to investigate the effect of effortful  
102 processing on impulsivity by changing the demand of the task, i.e. stimuli played at low or  
103 normal intensities.

104 Here, each of the participants performed the auditory SART under two conditions: at  
105 their lowest accurate detectable threshold level and at an intensity associated with normal  
106 speech levels. In this way the attentional effort needed to support auditory processing is  
107 compared whilst the monotonous aspect of the task is held consistent. We predicted that  
108 participants would make more errors (i.e. respond when they should withhold their response)  
109 under the low intensity condition, compared to the normal intensity condition. Critically, we  
110 predicted that these errors would not be a consequence of a failure in detection and that this  
111 would be reflected in increased reaction times after an error has been made (Fellows & Farah,  
112 2005; Manly, et al., 1999).

## 113 **2 Method**

### 114 *2.1. Ethics statement*

115 This study was approved by the School of Psychology Research Ethics Committee at  
116 the University of Lincoln. Informed written consent was received by all participants that took  
117 part in this study. All experimental procedures complied with the British Psychological

118 Society Code of Ethics and Conduct and with the World Medical Association Helsinki  
119 Declaration as revised in October 2008.

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## 121 *2.2. Participants*

122 Thirty participants aged between 18 and 47 (24 female, 6 male, mean age  $\pm$  SD = 23  $\pm$   
123 7 years) took part in the study. Initial inclusion criteria included not having any known  
124 existing hearing impairments or self-reported attention deficits. In addition, participants  
125 undertook a hearing test prior to the experiment. The Hughson-Westlake procedure (Carhart  
126 & Jerger, 1959), an established modification of the Hughson-Westlake limits technique  
127 (Hughson & Westlake, 1944), was used to detect whether any of the participants had any  
128 unknown hearing difficulties. If participants had problems in the hearing test that were  
129 greater than mild hearing loss (above 25dB hearing level) they were excluded post hoc. No  
130 exclusions had to be made on this basis, average hearing level ranged from 5-20dB.

131

## 132 *2.3. Design*

133 The experiment used a repeated measures design with two conditions. Participants  
134 undertook a modified version of the SART (Robertson, et al., 1997); the task was adapted to  
135 present auditory instead of visual stimuli. Participants listened to a random sequence of  
136 auditory presented spoken numbers (i.e. numbers one to nine) presented at regular intervals.  
137 Participants were required to withhold response to one specified number (NO GO trial) and  
138 initiate a response to all other numbers (GO trials). Participants completed the task at two dB  
139 levels: ‘normal speech level’ and ‘low intensity level’. The normal intensity was set at that of  
140 conversational speech, defined as 60dB SPL (Pearsons, Bennett, & Fidell, 1977). The low  
141 intensity condition was set to each individual participant’s lowest detection level. Set at a

142 level at which all targets could still be heard and repeated back correctly (see below for  
143 details). The order of conditions was counterbalanced between participants.

144

#### 145 *2.4. Determining the Lowest Detection Thresholds*

146 Before the experiments were conducted, lowest detection thresholds were measured  
147 for each participant using an Oscilla SM930 screening memory audiometer. A single  
148 handheld thumb press response button was used. Tones were presented through passive noise  
149 reducing headphones (TDH39 headphones SILENTA noise reducing headset). An audiogram  
150 including the threshold of their lowest audible frequency in hertz (Hz) and intensity in  
151 decibels (dB) was established. This identified their optimum level of hearing with sustained  
152 attention and without distraction. The same closed-cup headphones that were used for the  
153 hearing test were also used for stimuli presentation in the experiment (see below).

154 Participants were seated in a sound proof booth and tested independently. The ambient sound  
155 levels within the booth complied with the specifications according to British  
156 Standards/European Norm (BS EN) ISO 8253-1:1998 which allow thresholds as low as 0 dB  
157 HL to be established.

158 In addition to ruling out any possible hearing difficulty, the audiogram provided a  
159 starting point to further specify an appropriate level for the low intensity condition. Because  
160 the dB range of speech is more complex than pure tones, the audibility of the number stimuli  
161 were defined further. For this task, it was not only important that participants could detect a  
162 sound but identify what it was. To establish the level of the stimuli for the ‘low intensity’  
163 condition, participants were played a sequence of numbers from one to nine in a random  
164 order. The presentation of each list was also presented in a stepwise manner. Participants  
165 were asked to repeat the numbers to ensure that they could discriminate the number stimuli. If  
166 participants were unable to repeat all of the nine numbers the intensity of the stimuli was

167 increased by 5dB SPL. If participants could accurately identify the numbers the level was  
168 tested 5dB SPL quieter. This continued until participants were no longer able to identify all  
169 nine numbers. The intensity above was then tested again with the numbers in a random  
170 sequence. Lowest detection threshold was defined as the lowest level at which the participant  
171 could accurately identify the numbers. The level used was checked twice. Using number  
172 stimuli for the task meant that participant could verbally demonstrate correct identification of  
173 the stimuli by repeating the value of the number. This clarified that participants could hear  
174 and identify the meaning of all of the targets, presented at an individually specified intensity  
175 before they started the full test.

176

## 177 *2.5. Procedure*

178 Participants sat in front of a desk with a 17 inch computer monitor, showing only a  
179 black fixation cross presented centrally in the screen. They were provided with a standard  
180 keyboard and were required to press a single button on all specified 'GO trials'. Participants  
181 were instructed to rest their finger on the response key.

182 At the beginning of the task a start screen was presented, with a reminder of the  
183 correct key to press. Participants were asked to respond to all GO trials as soon as they heard  
184 them and not press the button when they heard the NO-GO trial. The participant initiated the  
185 experiment by pressing the response button when they were ready to begin. This was  
186 followed by a two second interval with no sound to ensure that the first number of the trial  
187 would not be missed. The stimuli were presented in a random sequence. Auditory stimuli  
188 consisted of the numbers one to nine presented simultaneously to both ears spoken in a  
189 human voice. All numbers were articulated with the same female human voice, read as  
190 neutrally as possible.

191 Each number was presented randomly and lasted for 605ms, with an inter-stimulus  
192 interval (ISI) of 895ms. Participants were able to respond at any time within the presentation  
193 of the stimulus and the ISI, a response window of 1500ms. Reaction time was measure from  
194 the onset of the stimulus. Each of the two conditions lasted for 13 minutes and consisted of  
195 522 trials. Within each condition there were 58 ‘NO-GO’ trials (one specified number),  
196 making up 11% of trials. There were 464 ‘GO’ trials (the eight remaining number stimuli)  
197 making up 89% of trials. ‘NO-GO’ trials corresponded to a single number, which were  
198 randomly specified for each participant. Participants were asked to inhibit their response for  
199 this number by not pressing the button. Following the ‘GO’ targets, participants were  
200 required to press the response button and were asked to do so as soon as they identified the  
201 target. The same NO-GO target was used for both intensity conditions, to ensure the  
202 experience of the ‘low’ and ‘normal’ intensity conditions were the same for the individual.  
203 The target number was counterbalanced between participants to make sure any differences  
204 between conditions were due to the intensity level and not the sound of a specific target  
205 number. No feedback was given if an error was made. Participants undertook the second  
206 condition after a short break of which the duration was defined by the participant.  
207 Participants were debriefed at the end of the study.

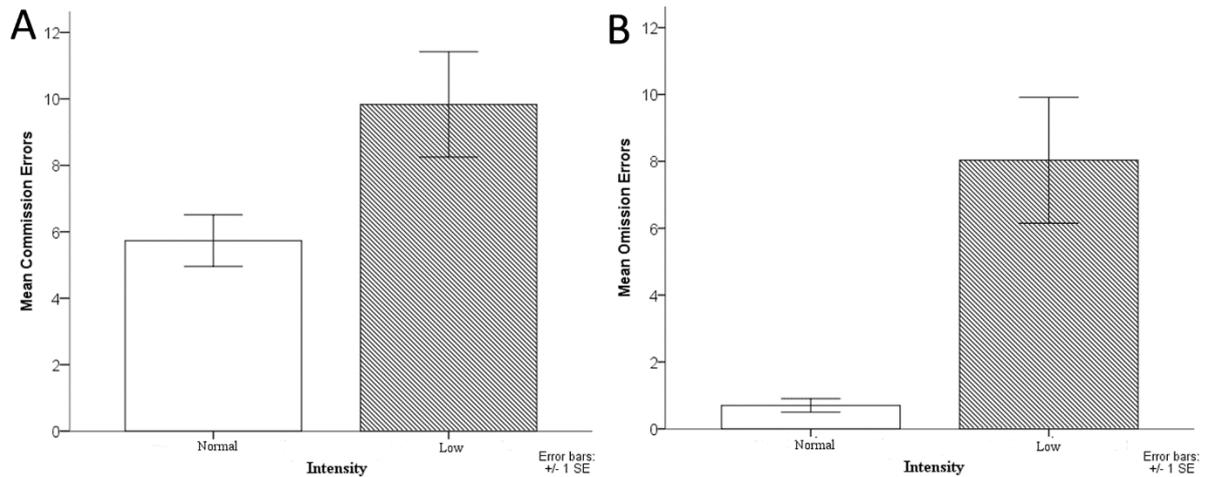
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### 209 **3 Results**

210 It was predicted that more errors would be made in the low intensity level compared to the  
211 normal intensity (60dB) condition. In support of this a repeated measures ANOVA comparing  
212 intensity (normal and low) and error type (commission and omission) showed significant  
213 main effects. All significance is assumed at the 0.05 level, two-tailed. Significantly more  
214 errors were made in the low intensity condition ( $17.87 \pm 13.24$ ) compared to the normal  
215 speech condition ( $6.43 \pm 4.38$ ) ( $F(1,29) = 14.95$ ,  $p = 0.001$   $\eta^2 = 0.34$ , 95% CI [2.69,8.74]).

216 To determine whether the errors were a consequence of either a failure to withhold  
217 response to a NO-GO target (i.e. commission error/false alarm) or as a failure to press on a  
218 GO target (i.e. omission error/miss), the proportion of commission and omission errors  
219 observed were compared across both intensity conditions. Significantly more commission  
220 errors were made across both tasks ( $15.57 \pm 11.63$ ) compared to omission errors ( $8.73 \pm 10.66$ )  
221 ( $F(1,29) = 12.71, p = 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.31, 95\% \text{ CI } [1.46, 5.38]$ ). This is the case even though  
222 there is proportionately less opportunity to make commission errors (11%) compared to  
223 omission errors (79%). This shows that proportionately more commission errors were also  
224 made to NO-GO targets ( $29.94\% \pm 22.37$ ) compared to omission errors to GO targets  
225 ( $1.67\% \pm 2.04$ ).

226 As expected, participants made significantly more commission errors in the low intensity  
227 condition ( $9.83 \pm 8.69$ ) compared to the normal speech condition ( $5.73 \pm 4.25$ ) ( $t(29) = -3.12, p$   
228  $= 0.004, \eta^2 = 0.25, 95\% \text{ CI } [1.41, 6.79]$ ; Figure 1A), indicating a more impulsive reaction at  
229 low intensity when their response should have been withheld. In addition, significantly more  
230 omission errors were made in the low intensity condition ( $8.03 \pm 10.32$ ) compared to the  
231 normal intensity condition ( $0.70 \pm 1.12$ ) ( $t(29) = -3.98, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.35, 95\% \text{ CI } [3.57,$   
232  $11.10]$ ; Figure 1B).



233 Figure 1A. Mean commission errors made during the SART at normal intensity (60dB)  
 234 and lowest detection threshold

235 Figure 1B: Mean omission errors made during the SART at normal intensity (60dB) and  
 236 lowest detection threshold

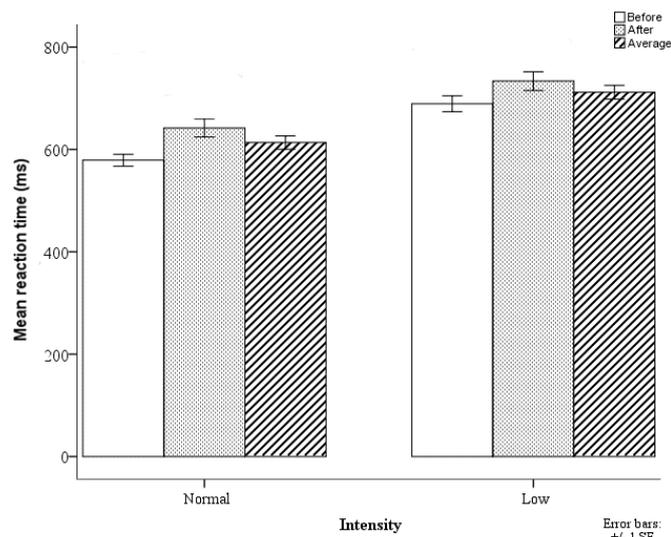
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238 One obvious potential explanation for the higher errors (incorrect button responses to the  
 239 NO-GO targets) in the low intensity condition might be that participants simply could not  
 240 correctly discriminate the target, despite the initial standardisation of accuracy. To confirm  
 241 that this was not the case, reaction times were averaged from the four responses before, and  
 242 the four after commission errors. This method is used in the visual task variants, and typically  
 243 show that SART reaction times typically slow down after an error has been made (Fellows &  
 244 Farah, 2005; Manly, et al., 1999). It is suggested that the post error slowing indicates  
 245 awareness of errors made (Manly et al. 2000). Average reaction time was calculated based on  
 246 the correct responses to GO trials (excluding those around the error). A (3x2) repeated  
 247 measures ANOVA compared reaction time to correct responses (before, after, average)  
 248 around an error in the normal and low volume conditions.

249 Analysis showed that mean reaction times were slower over the whole task in the low  
 250 intensity condition (712ms±73) compared to the normal intensity condition (611ms±76)

251 (F(1,26) = 77.85, p = 0.001  $\eta^2=0.75$ , 95% CI [78.81, 123.46]; Figure 2). This shows that it  
252 takes longer to process and respond to the same sounds when presented at a low, but  
253 detectable intensity than at normal intensity.

254 The repeated measures ANOVA also showed a significant difference across the three  
255 levels: response times before, after and the average reaction time excluding those around a  
256 commission error (F(2,52) = 18.39, p < 0.001  $\eta^2=0.41$ ; Figure 2). As predicted, post hoc  
257 with Bonferroni correction shows that reaction times were significantly faster before an error  
258 of commission/false alarm (634ms±90), compared to reaction times after an error  
259 (688ms±104, p < 0.001, 95% CI [26.32, 81.07]; Figure 2). Reaction times were also  
260 significantly faster before an error (634ms±90) compared to the average reaction time of the  
261 task (663ms±84, p = 0.001, 95% CI [10.27, 46.79]). Compared to the average reaction time  
262 (663ms±84), reaction time was also significantly slower after an error (688ms±104), (663m  
263 ±84, p = 0.17, 95% CI [3.73, 46.59]). There was no significant interaction between the two  
264 volume conditions and time around the error (F(2,52) = 1.05, p = 0.357,  $\eta^2=0.04$ ).

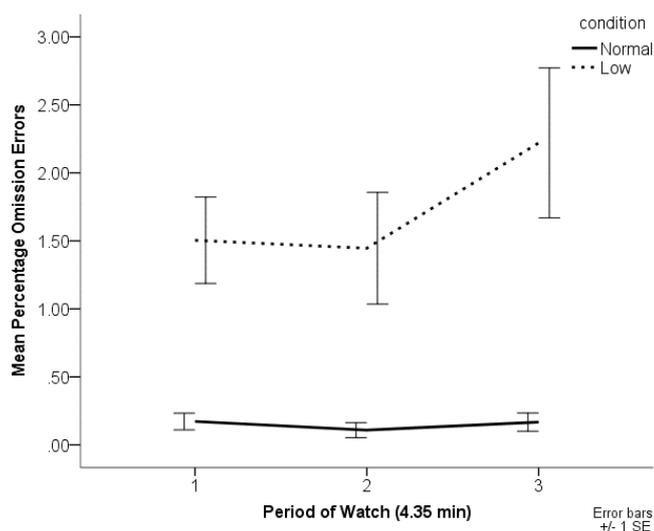


265 Figure 2: Reaction times to GO trials before and after an error of commission at normal and  
266 lowest detection threshold.

267

268 Pearsons correlations were used to further interpret the relationship between speed of  
269 response and errors made. Faster reaction times in the normal volume condition were  
270 correlated with a greater number of commission errors, ( $r = -.48$ ,  $N = 30$ ,  $p = 0.007$ , two-  
271 tailed), but not omission errors ( $r = -.08$ ,  $N = 30$ ,  $p = 0.67$ , two-tailed). In the low volume  
272 condition however, there was no correlation between reaction time and commission errors ( $r$   
273  $= -.30$ ,  $N = 30$ ,  $p = 0.10$ , two-tailed), or omission errors ( $r = -.03$ ,  $N = 30$ ,  $p = 0.89$ , two-tailed),  
274 suggesting that the increased errors at low volume may be better explained by task demand  
275 rather than response strategy related to the speed of response.

276 A 2 (task: low and normal intensity) by 3 (periods of watch) ANOVA was used to  
277 analyse percentage errors over the course of the task. There was no effect of commission  
278 errors over time on the task ( $F(2,58) = 2.33$ ,  $p = 0.11$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.07$ ), but time on the task did have  
279 an affect on performance in relation to omission errors ( $F(2,58) = 4.65$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.13$ ,  
280 Figure 3). More omission errors were made in the final period of watch on the task ( $1.19 \pm$ )  
281 compared to the second ( $0.77$   $p = 0.02$ ). The interaction effect shows the decline in  
282 performance was greatest at low volume ( $F(2,58) = 2.58$ ,  $p = 0.03$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.12$ , Figure 3).



283

284 Fig 3

285 Mean percentage omission errors in the normal and low volume conditions made over time

286 on the task based on three periods of watch (4.35 min).

287

#### 288 **4 Discussion**

289 This experiment was designed to investigate the role of sustained attention in the  
290 control of impulsivity when processing low intensity but discriminable auditory stimuli, and  
291 to identify whether impulsive errors in such tasks can be better explained by effortful  
292 processing (Grier, et al., 2003; Hitchcock, et al., 1999, Head and Helton, 2014) or under-  
293 arousal (Nachreiner & Hanecke, 1992). By increasing the task demand, by making the  
294 audibility of the stimulus more difficult, the role of effortful processing when making  
295 impulsive errors could be explored. Our findings showed that when a participant completed  
296 the auditory SART task at a low but detectable intensity they made more impulsive errors on  
297 the task compared to when stimuli were presented at a normal speaking level (60dB). This  
298 suggests that at low intensity, attention is needed for successful performance and that this is  
299 not sustained over the 13 minutes of the task. When the task demand was greater in the low  
300 intensity condition more errors were made. When performance was assessed as a function of  
301 time on the task the low intensity condition showed more pronounced changes in omission  
302 errors than the normal intensity condition. These results suggest that effortful processing may  
303 not only affect the erroneous impulsive responses but also the omission errors. The decrement  
304 over time observed in this measure, supports the assumption that omission errors may be the  
305 better indicator of inattention in this task, whilst the commission errors are a better measure  
306 of impulsivity (Carter, Russell, Helton, 2013). The results are supportive of the view that  
307 errors in continuous performance tasks are a consequence of high rather than low cognitive  
308 demand (Grier, et al., 2003; Hitchcock, et al., 1999; Head and Helton, 2014).

309 An obvious explanation for the higher errors in the low intensity condition might be  
310 that participants were unable to physically hear the target accurately and so incorrectly

311 pressed the response button to the NO-GO target. However, this was not the case.  
312 Detectability was established for each participant prior to testing, and confirmed by verbal  
313 recall identifying each of the stimuli. In addition, reaction time analyses from the testing  
314 session suggests that participants were aware of when they had made a mistake, i.e. they  
315 heard the target but responded incorrectly. Specifically, their reaction times were significantly  
316 slower in both the low and normal intensity conditions after an error of commission/false  
317 alarm than before the error. Following the standard interpretation, this slowing in reaction  
318 time following an error indicates an awareness of a mistake (Fellows & Farah, 2005; Manly,  
319 et al., 1999). In comparison to the overall average, reaction times before the error was faster  
320 than the average, and after an error reaction time became even slower than the average. This  
321 may be suggestive that a more conservative response style is being adopted compared to that  
322 typically used in the task.

323         Therefore, even though more errors were made in the low intensity condition, these  
324 results cannot simply be accounted for by a failure of perception. Instead, the results appear  
325 to suggest that the impulsive responses arise from a mismatch in the time at which a habitual  
326 response is initiated and the time needed to fully process auditory stimuli. This occurs more  
327 frequently at low intensity. In line with previous research the impulsive errors observed are  
328 understood in terms of a failure to inhibit pre-potent responses (Chamberlain & Sahakian,  
329 2007; Logan & Cowan, 1984; Logan, et al., 1997; Molenberghs, et al., 2009). In the SART, it  
330 appears that errors are made when processing is slower than the time allocated to initiate a  
331 response. It is not that targets have not been identified, but rather that the time required is  
332 longer than that needed to interrupt the pre-potent motor plan. The current results can be  
333 understood as participants discriminating the auditory target but failing to do so in sufficient  
334 time to inhibit a response, i.e. the target is processed too slowly. After an error is made,  
335 participants often exclaim ‘oops’ realising they have fallen into the trap of the regular

336 response pattern. These findings indicate that this happens more frequently in the low  
337 intensity condition. In the low intensity condition it appears that the time needed for  
338 perceptual processing of the auditory target is lengthened. This interpretation would be  
339 consistent with the fact that the mean reaction time is slower over the whole task in the low  
340 intensity condition compared to the normal intensity condition. It appears to take longer to  
341 process and respond to the same sounds when presented at a low, but detectable intensity than  
342 at normal intensity. This may lead to the interrupt signal being sent after the habitual response  
343 has already being initiated (Logan & Cowan, 1984; Logan, et al., 1997; Molenberghs, et al.,  
344 2009). An alternative interpretation for the increased errors at low volume may be related to  
345 the speed accuracy trade off criterion adopted in such tasks (Peebles & Bothell, 2004).  
346 However, in the low volume condition there was no correlation with faster responses and  
347 error rate, suggesting that the increased errors at low volume may be better explained by task  
348 demand rather than response strategy related to the speed of response.

349         Errors made at low intensity were not made because of some inherently slower  
350 processing relative to the initiation of the interrupt signal. Participants were able to accurately  
351 identify the targets when the intensity level is initially set and they are able to respond  
352 correctly on the task most of the time. The changing variable here could be the availability of  
353 attention during the task. In one view, effortful tasks lead to a decline in attentional resources  
354 leaving less capacity for subsequent information processing demands (Grier, et al., 2003).  
355 Something similar may be happening in the low intensity condition of the current task. More  
356 attention is exerted because stimuli require more processing to fully identify them at a low  
357 intensity. As the task proceeds the availability of processing resources declines leading to  
358 identification becoming slower and the inhibition of response being compromised.  
359 There is also evidence of a reduced hit rate in this task with higher omissions at low intensity  
360 than at normal intensity, although it should be noted that this difference corresponded to less

361 than 2% of trials in the low volume condition. Again, while superficial factors such as the  
362 intensity being too low might explain failures in response, it seems unlikely, given that  
363 performance was still high. Previous studies where the stimuli presented are well above  
364 perceptual threshold also show omission errors (Manly, et al., 1999; Robertson, et al., 1997;  
365 Seli, et al., 2012), which is suggestive that they are more likely to be failures of attention  
366 rather than perception. Indeed, the omission errors in this case appear to be the metric most  
367 similar to the errors of omission in vigilance paradigms (Cheyne, Solman, Carriere, &  
368 Smilek, 2009). Carter, Russell, Helton, (2013) also found that omission errors increased  
369 alongside impulsive commission errors over time in a SART. This finding is not unexpected  
370 and has also been observed in other studies using the paradigm e.g., (Johnson et al., 2007).

371         Early research on attention deficit and impulsivity in those with hearing loss tended to  
372 consider these problems to be the result of developmental deficits (Altshuler, Deming,  
373 Vollenweider, Rainer, & Tandler, 1976). These included speculation about auditory  
374 deprivation, impairments in the development of spoken language, family attitudes and  
375 parenting styles that are negative towards deafness, as well as greater isolation in the  
376 environment. It was concluded that the high impulsivity in deaf children was likely to  
377 represent functional reorganization in attention (Parasnis, Samar, & Berent, 2003). The  
378 current findings suggest there may be a simpler explanation of impulsivity when processing  
379 low intensity auditory information. Specifically, the problems with attention are not  
380 necessarily dependent on a long term deficit, but can occur when attending to low level  
381 stimuli for a relatively short period, and to stimuli that could still be accurately identified.

382         In summary, when performing a task that required sustained attention to enable  
383 successful auditory discrimination, impulsive erroneous responses increase compared to  
384 when listening to stimuli at a normal speaking intensity. This suggests that the optimal level  
385 of attention observed when participants could identify targets correctly before the start of the

386 task was not present throughout the 13 minutes of the task. Given the general slower reaction  
387 times at low intensity, it is suggested that the mechanism by which lack of attention has its  
388 effect may be in the speed of processing (Logan & Cowan, 1984; Logan, et al., 1997;  
389 Molenberghs, et al., 2009). In the case of low intensity stimuli when attention is reduced, the  
390 time needed to identify the sound may exceed the time needed to interrupt the execution of  
391 the habitual motor plan; leading to the more frequent false alarms or errors of commission  
392 observed. These findings support the suggestion that errors made on monotonous continuous  
393 performance tasks are a consequence of effort rather than under-arousal (Grier, et al., 2003;  
394 Hitchcock, et al., 1999, Head & Helton, 2014) as more errors occur when the demand of the  
395 task is increased further. This finding in a population with normal hearing when completing a  
396 task at a low but still detectable level suggests an explanation of the impulsive responding  
397 that has been reported among those with hearing difficulties (Shinn-Cunningham & Best,  
398 2008).

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