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 Rhythmic training improves temporal conversational abilities in children with hearing loss

Rhythmic training improves temporal conversational abilities in children with hearing loss

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Abstract

During conversation, the ability to adapt to the partner's speech is cruciate for an optimal communicative exchange. In this study, we investigate temporal adaptation capacities of children with normal hearing and children with cochlear implants (CIs) and/or hearing aids (HAs), during verbal exchange. We also address the question of the efficiency of a rhythmic training on temporal adaptation during speech interaction in children with hearing loss. We recorded EEG in children while they named pictures delivered on a screen, in alternation with a virtual partner. We manipulated the virtual partner's speech rate (*fast* versus *slow*) and the regularity of alternation (*regular* versus *irregular*). The group of children with normal hearing was tested once and the group of children with hearing loss twice: once after 30 minutes of auditory training and once after 30 minutes of rhythmic training. Both groups of children adjusted their speech rate to that of the virtual partner and were sensitive to the regularity of alternation with a less accurate performance following irregular turns. Moreover, irregular turns elicited an MMN-like response in both group, showing a detection of temporal deviancy. Notably, the MMN-like amplitude positively correlated with accuracy in the alternation task. In children with hearing loss, the effect was more pronounced and longlasting following rhythmic training compared with auditory training. These results are discussed in terms of adaptation abilities in speech interaction and suggest the use of rhythmic training to improve conversational temporal skills of children with hearing loss.

Keywords

Cochlear implant, rehabilitation, speech, EEG, temporal predictions

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Introduction

The most natural and common usage of speech is in conversation. Interactions between interlocutors heavily rely on anticipatory processes in order to optimize communicative exchanges and minimize interruptions (Pickering & Garrod, 2013; Levinson & Torreira, 2015). In fact, as it is the case in any joint action implying two or more individuals, a major key of the success of an optimal communicative exchange is the ability for each interlocutor to temporally predict her/his partner's actions (Sebanz & Knoblich, 2009; Kourtis, Sebanz, & Knoblich, 2013). For instance, anticipating the end of the speech turn on the basis of the speech rate allows turn-taking at an optimal pace (Wilson & Wilson, 2005). An anticipation of turn-ends allows avoiding speech overlap of the interlocutors as well as over-long silences that may break the fluency of the exchange. Moreover, it may also allow a better perception of the grouping and prominence of speech that may in turn facilitate speech spectral processing (Cummins & Port, 1998; Port, 2003; Peelle & Davis, 2012).

This ability to readily take turns is possibly facilitated by the fact that interlocutors tend to adopt a common rhythm, based on shared syllable timing (Street, 1984; Himberg, Hirvenkari, Mandel, & Hari, 2015). This phenomenon is considered as taking place automatically and is often referred to as between-speaker rhythmic convergence.

Recent studies have focused on how these anticipatory skills develop during infancy. It has been shown that 5-month-old babies already engage in turn-taking with their mothers, with few overlaps and short turn-taking windows (Hilbrink, Gattis, & Levinson, 2015).

Children with a prelingual hearing loss (HL), whether equipped with cochlear implant or conventional prostheses, are particularly vulnerable in terms of temporal prediction abilities because of the early auditory deprivation. This has a direct impact upon speech perception abilities, especially in acoustically-degraded environmental conditions, as well as on the mastery of certain communication skills. More precisely, children with HL have difficulties in

imitating the speech rate of their interlocutor (i.e. temporal convergence) and this goes along with reduced speech intelligibility (Freeman & Pisoni, 2017). These children are also less sensitive than normal-hearing children to the temporal regularity of stress distribution in speech in an interactive verbal task (Hidalgo, Falk, & Schön, 2017). Adolescents with CI both use different strategies for repairing communication failures and are less sensitive to prosodic cues relevant to spoken discourse understanding (Holt, Demuth, & Yuen, 2016; Holt, Yuen, & Demuth, 2017) compared to normal-hearing peers.

In a rehabilitation perspective, it seems essential to take into account the alteration of this type of communication skills in hearing-impaired children in order to improve the quality of their verbal interactions as well as the development of their social relations (Hoffman, Quittner, & Cejas, 2014; Manson, Bryant, Gervais, & Kline, 2013; Wong et al., 2017). An intervention aimed at improving temporal prediction abilities based on rhythm training seems particularly relevant.

Indeed, in a sentence repetition task, presenting a musical rhythm before each sentence improves hearing-impaired children's accuracy, even more so when the rhythm of the musical prime matches that of the sentence (Cason, Hidalgo, Isoard, Roman, & Schön, 2015). Moreover, we (Hidalgo et al., 2017) recently showed that following 30 minutes of rhythmic training (compared to a control condition), children with HL show an enhanced capacity to accommodate to a temporally predictable flow of turn exchanges in an interactional setting. These results fit well with the literature showing the beneficial effect of musical expertise, particularly in the rhythmical domain, on sensitivity to speech rhythm (Marie, Magne, & Besson, 2011; Moritz, Yampolsky, Papadelis, Thomson, & Wolf, 2013; Magne, Jordan, & Gordon, 2016), and that of rhythmic stimulation on speech processing (Cason, Astésano, & Schön, 2015; Cason & Schön, 2012; Chern, Tillmann, Vaughan, Gordon, & Gordon, 2017), both in normal people and people with a variety of language

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disorders (Kotz, Gunter, & Wonneberger, 2005; Przybylski et al., 2013; Cason, Hidalgo, et al., 2015; Flaugnacco et al., 2015; Bedoin, Brisseau, Molinier, Roch, & Tillmann, 2016; Schön & Tillmann, 2015).

In the light of the above-mentioned studies illustrating the beneficial effect of rhythmic stimulation on temporal predictions and the processing of auditory information in both adults and children (for a review, see Haegens & Zion Golumbic, 2017), we conducted a combined EEG and behavioral study to measure children's temporal adaptation capacities and to examine the influence of musical rhythmic training on speech perception and production abilities in children with HL.

More precisely, we ran two experiments. In Experiment 1, children with normal hearing (NH) were asked to perform a picture-naming task in alternation with a virtual partner (adapted from Hidalgo et al., 2017). The speech rate of the virtual partner could be slow or fast and the temporal structure of turns could be regular or irregular. We performed acoustic analyses of speech production to determine to what extent children converged towards the virtual partner's (VP) speech rate as well as to measure accuracy and consistency of word stress placement across regular and irregular turns. Event-related potentials were used to assess the sensitivity to turn regularity.

In Experiment 2, children with HL, wearing either cochlear implants (CIs) or hearing aids (HAs), did the picture-naming task twice: once following 30 minutes of rhythmic musical training, and once following 30 minutes of auditory training. We hypothesized that the rhythmic training would improve the ability of children with HL to predict conversational dynamics which in turn would facilitate speech perception and production.

Overall, the aim of this study was twofold. Firstly, we used a turn-taking task to assess in normal hearing (NH) children the *speech rate convergence* ability as well as the *accommodation* ability. to adapt to temporal deviancy in the regularity of the turns.

Convergence was assessed by estimating changes of the speech rate in the fast compared to the slow condition. Accommodation was assessed by estimating changes in alternation in the irregular compared to the regular condition. Secondly, we tested the hypothesis that a single session of rhythmic training, by improving temporal prediction, may facilitate perception, convergence and accommodation to the temporal deviancy in a conversational context in children with HL.

Experiment 1

Material and Method

Participants

Twenty-two children with normal hearing (NH) (13 girls) were recruited from an *elementary school* in Marseille (France). They were aged from 6 to 10 years (*mean* = 102.6 months, *SD* = 18.5 months) and were all French native speakers without any known visual, speech, cognitive or hearing disorder. This experiment was approved by the Ethics Committee Sud Méditerranée I (n°ID RCB: 2015-A01490-49). All parents signed a consent form.

Stimuli

For the alternation naming task, we selected 46 pictures from the French BD2I database (Cannard, Blaye, Scheuner, & Bonthoux, 2005). These pictures were named correctly by over 90% of a normative sample of 3 to 8-year-old children (mean score = 98.8%, *SD*=1.6%).

46 picture names (disyllabic words) were recorded in a soundproof booth by a male native French speaker (henceforth, the virtual partner, VP). Four words were also recorded by an 8year-old male native French speaker to be used as an example of the alternating procedure at the beginning of each block.

We performed an automatic word segmentation of the VP's recording using SPPAS (Bigi, 2015, 1.8.0 version) and PRAAT (Boersma & Weenink, 2012). All words were then

 Rhythmic training improves temporal conversational abilities in children with hearing loss manipulated to obtain a fast (80% of initial word duration) and a slow (120%) version for each of them, using a wavelet-based method for audio dilation and compression (Pallone et al, 1999). For both the fast and slow versions, p-centers, taken as rhythmic perceptual anchor points (Morton, Marcus, & Frankish, 1976), were semi-automatically located on the vowel of the second, stressed syllable, as the 2/3rd of the vowel energy rise (Cummins & Port, 1998).

Procedure

Before the beginning of the picture-naming task, children were familiarized with the pictures and the experimental procedure to make sure that the words produced for each picture both were the expected ones and were pronounced in an intelligible manner. Then, children were equipped with a 21-channel electrode cap (International 10/20 system sites) and were seated in a Faraday booth in front of a computer screen. They were asked to name the pictures displayed on the screen, in alternation with a virtual partner (Figure 1).

PLEASE INSERT FIGURE 1 AROUND HERE

The experiment consisted of two separate blocks, one with a slow and one with a fast VP speech rate. Each block started with 4 pairs of pictures that were named by the adult virtual partner in perfect alternation with the voice of a pre-recorded 8-year-old boy in order to establish, implicitly, a regular pace of alternation. Next, 132 pictures were presented successively on the screen and the child was instructed to name the pictures in alternation with the VP. Care was taken to avoid semantic or phonological priming between successive words. A given word pair (VP-child) never appeared twice. The child was praised and encouraged before and between the two blocks. A short pause was given between blocks. The duration of each block was around 5 minutes.

While, as stated above, most utterances of the VP were presented at a regular temporal interval of 2000ms, ~20% of the words of the VP were anticipated at 1600ms (in both blocks) and pseudo-randomly distributed across trials.

This resulted in a 2 by 2 factorial design manipulating the Regularity of alternation (*regular* or *irregular*) and Speech Rate (*slow* or *fast*) across blocks. The order of block presentation (*fast* versus *slow*) was counterbalanced across participants.

Stimuli delivery was programmed using the software Presentation (Neurobehavioral Systems 18.0). Pictures were displayed on a computer (DELL Precision T1700, screen resolution 1366 x 768). The voice of the VP was delivered through a 2040 YAMAHA amplifier and two NS 1020 Studio YAMAHA loudspeakers. The output sound volume was adjusted at a comfortable level for each child. The child's speech was recorded with a lapel microphone (Sennheiser) linked to a ZOOM H4n numeric recorder at a 44 kHz sampling rate.

For every child, we also assessed rhythmic and neuropsychological abilities. Rhythmic assessment included tapping along a 90 pulses/minute metronome (henceforth paced tapping) test, tapping in syncopation along a 55 pulses/minute metronome (henceforth syncopated tapping) and reproduction of 10 rhythms (3 to 8 sounds each) (henceforth rhythmic patterns reproduction). Children tapped onto a cardboard box containing a ZOOM H4n digital recorder. Neuropsychological tests were issued from NEPSY and WISC IV. These tests included digits direct and indirect span test and an auditory attention test requiring to place a token in a box each time the child heard "red" among other words.

Behavioral data processing and statistical analysis

Children's convergence abilities were evaluated by comparing word duration (in ms) across the two speech rates (fast and slow).

Children's accommodation capacities were determined by the consistency of the children's pcenter placement across trials and the accuracy (temporal asynchrony) relative to the VP's

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stress placement. First, we extracted the temporal interval (in ms) between the p-centers of the VP and the p-centers of children (Inter-Word-Interval, IWI). Then we computed circular statistics (CircStats, Berens, 2009) on the IWI in order to express the children's p-center placement as a vector in a circular space relative to the expected moment in time (half of the inter-trial interval of the virtual partner) (statistics also used in Hidalgo et al., 2017 & Himberg et al., 2015). P-center placement consistency was measured by the vector length, and accuracy by the vector angle. Words produced with an error, a hesitation or simultaneously with the virtual partner were excluded from all analyses, resulting in rejection of approximately 30% of the children's productions.

We used R (R Core Team, 2013) and the Ime4 package (Bates, Maechler & Bolker, 2013) to fit linear mixed models on single trial data for both word duration and vector angle. All models were built with participants as random effect. Statistical significance of the fixed effects was assessed by model comparison on AIC, thus arbitrating between complexity and explanatory power of the models. Normality and homoscedasticity of the residuals were systematically visually inspected. Reported p-values are Satterthwhaite approximations obtained with the ImerTest package (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff & Christensen, 2015). As consistency is always positive and not normally distributed, we applied a logit transform before model fitting (Falk, Müller & Dalla Bella, 2015). Furthermore, random effects were dropped for consistency, as this summary statistics (estimated by vector length) gives only one value per participant and condition.

In the *paced* and *syncopated tapping* tasks, tapping times were extracted using Adobe Audition (2.0) and circular analyses were used to compute the children's consistency and accuracy.

In the *rhythmic patterns reproduction*, the anonymized children's performances were scored from 1 to 9 (1: no reproduction, 9: perfect performance) by one judge (the last author) with

Rhythmic training improves temporal conversational abilities in children with hearing loss expertise in music using a blind procedure. The average score across trials was used for further analyses.

Correlations were computed using Spearman's rank, reported with 95% confidence intervals, between rhythmic measures (paced tapping, and rhythmic patterns reproduction), behavioural and electrophysiological responses during the turn-taking task.

Electrophysiological data processing and statistical analysis

EEG signal processing was done using EEGLAB (Delorme & Makeig, 2004) and custom Matlab scripts. Continuous data were filtered using a high-pass filter (cutoff frequency 1 Hz) and major artifacts rejected. Independent Component Analysis (ICA) was used to remove physiological artifacts such as eye blinks and muscular activity. For the Event-Related Potentials (ERPs) analysis, data were segmented into 900ms epochs starting 100ms before the presentation of the VP's words onsets. Further rejection of remaining artifacts was done on the basis of visual inspection of each epoch and was always lower than 10% of the total number of epochs in a given condition.

We conducted two types of statistical analysis. The first analysis was run on the peak of the MMN using a classical pairwise comparison. First, a temporal window for peak search was defined using the average of all trials. Then, for *regular* and *irregular* conditions, the peak amplitude was computed as the mean value ±40ms around the individual peak. A Region of Interest (ROI) was defined on the basis of the topography of the average of all conditions, using a hierarchical clustering technique. The MMN-like ROI comprised 'P3', 'P4', 'O1', 'O2', 'P7', 'P8', and 'Pz' (see Figure 4A). The second analysis consisted of a cluster-based analysis in the time domain on the same ROI to analyze the differences between *regular* and *irregular* conditions. Significance was assessed using non-parametric pairwise two-tailed permutation tests that provide corrected p-values for multiple comparisons. For each

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permutation (N = 8,191), time clusters were defined on the basis of temporal adjacency by regrouping samples whose T-statistic was larger than 1.73, *i.e.* p-value ≤ 0.05 for a t-test with 19 degrees of freedom. Cluster-level statistics were then calculated by taking the sum of the T-values within the cluster. Only temporal clusters with corrected p-values ≤ 0.05 are reported.

Results

Behavioral results. The speech rate of the VP affected children's word duration ($\beta = -33.37$, *SE* = 3.76, *t* = -8.85, *p* < .001). More precisely, children's words lasted longer in the *Slow* compared to the *Fast* condition (see Figure 2A).

The analyses of stress placement focused on *consistency*, *i.e.* whether the child placed the stress consistently in the same time window across trials, and *accuracy*, *i.e.* how close the stress was placed with respect to the expected time point.

The regularity of alternation influenced children's consistency and accuracy in stress placement. Children placed word p-centers more consistently in the *Regular* compared to the *Irregular* condition ($\beta = 0.74$, SE = 0.28, t = 2.667, p < .01) (see Figure 2B). They also placed word stresses close to the expected time point in the *Regular* trials while they were late in *Irregular* trials ($\beta = -0.81$, SE = 0.03, t = -24.09, p < .001, Figure 2B).

PLEASE INSERT FIGURE 2 AROUND HERE

Electrophysiological results. Results showed a MMN-like effect following Irregular trials (ES = -3.7μ V, *t* (1,19) = -5.5834, *p* < 0.001). This effect was significant across a long-lasting time cluster, from 124 to 492ms after stimulus onset (p < 0.01). Correlation analysis on the peak amplitude of the MMN-like effect and the vector length showed that children who were more

Rhythmic training improves temporal conversational abilities in children with hearing loss sensitive to the temporal deviancy of the virtual partner, *i.e.* with a large MMN-like effect, were also more consistent in the turn-taking task, *i.e.* with a high vector length (*Regular* r = .58, CI [.85, .14]; *Irregular* r = .44, CI [.73,.003]). MMN-like amplitude (MMN-like effect size in the significant cluster) was also positively correlated with the accuracy in stress placement during the *Irregular* intervals (r = .53; CI [.09,.85]). Finally, we also found a positive correlation between children consistency in the tapping task and the turn-taking task during *Regular* intervals (r = .50 CI [.07, .75]). The reproduction of rhythmic patterns did not show clear correlations with any of the other variables.

Experiment 2

Material and methods

Participants

Sixteen children with HL (7 girls) wearing bilateral or unilateral cochlear implants (CIs) and/or Hearing Aids (HAs) (see Table 1 for details) were recruited, mostly via the ENT paediatric department at the Timone Hospital in Marseilles. All but two were enrolled in a mainstream primary school. They were aged from 6 to 10 years (*mean* = 102 months, *SD* = 15.6 months) and were all native speakers of French without any reported visual or associated speech and cognitive impairment. Data of two participants were excluded because of poor EEG data quality. This experiment was approved by the Ethics Committee Sud Méditerranée I (n°ID RCB: 2015-A01490-49).

PLEASE INSERT TABLE 1 AROUND HERE

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Stimuli and procedure

The stimuli, task and procedure were identical to Experiment 1 with the exception that children with HL performed the task twice: once after 30 minutes of a speech-therapy like auditory training, and once after 30 minutes of a session of active rhythm. The two sessions were always separated by at least one week and their order was counterbalanced across children.

The rhythmic training comprised the following exercises: Follow the beat (balance the arms and walk with a metronome). Structure the beat into meter (listen and tap the strong beat with the feet and feel and then tap other beats clapping hands with therapist). Learn a new rhythm (listen to music and find a repetitive rhythm, move to it and tap using claves). Follow metric changes (listen to music and change body movement type with metrical changes). Body tapping (in absence of an external stimulus clap hands, tap chest, stop and keep internal beat). Beat boxing (produce rhythmic patterns with mouth, alone and with therapist).

The auditory training comprised the following exercises: Timbre recognition across categories (recognize sounds belonging to different categories: animals, musical instruments, environmental sounds). Timbre recognition within categories (recognize sounds belonging to the same category: animals, musical instruments, environmental sounds). Sound sequences recognition across categories (recognize sequences of increasing length comprising sounds belonging to different categories). Sound sequences recognition within categories (recognize sequences of increasing length comprising sounds belonging to a same category). The level of difficulty in these exercises was manipulated by reducing the timbral difference between sounds.

Processing and statistical analyses

Behavioral analyses were identical to Experiment 1. We tested the effects of speech rate, regularity and training as well as all the interactions.

EEG data processing was also identical to Experiment 1 with the only exception that a second ICA was run on EEG epoched data to isolate and remove the potential artefacts generated by the cochlear implant or hearing aids (Campos Viola et al., 2012). Spatial ROI for MMN-like effect was the same as the NH children. Statistical analyses were also the same, with the only exception that the threshold for cluster statistic in time was set to 1.77, *i.e.* p-value ≤ 0.05 for a t-test with 13 degrees of freedom.

In order to reduce the number of comparisons we only computed correlations on the correlated variables found in the NH group analysis, *i.e.* those with r > .40. Data from the Rhythmic and the Auditory sessions were averaged.

Results

Behavioral results. As for NH children, the speech rate of the virtual partner affected the speech rate of children with HL, in both conditions of stimulation (*auditory Training* and *rhythmic Training*). More precisely, children's word durations were shorter in the *fast* condition compared to the *slow* condition after both *Auditory training* ($\beta = -39.75$, *SE* = 3.86, t = -10.27, p < .001) and *Rhythmic training* ($\beta = -42.24$, *SE* = 3.76, t = -11.22, p < .001). The interaction term did not improve the fit of the model ($\beta = 2.22$, *SE* = 5.67, t = 3.92, p = .695) (see Figure 3A and 3C).

PLEASE INSERT FIGURE 3 AROUND HERE

As for NH children, the regularity of alternation influenced stress placement consistency and accuracy of children with HL. Children with HL placed the stress more consistently in the

 Rhythmic training improves temporal conversational abilities in children with hearing loss *regular* compared to the *irregular* trials (F(2.53) = 5.75, p = .005) (Figure 3B and 3D). They also placed word stresses closer to the expected time point in the *regular* trials compared to *irregular* trials ($\beta = -0.66$, SE = 0.03, t = -10.27, p < .001) (Figure 3B and 3D). While the interaction between speech rate and regularity did not improve the model significantly (p = 0.5), the interaction between training type and regularity of alternation significantly improved the fit of the model for accuracy data: the perturbation induced by irregular trials on accuracy of stress placement was reduced following *Rhythmic training* ($\beta = -0.66$, SE = 0.03, t = -17.61, p < .001) compared to *Auditory training* ($\beta = -0.79$, SE = 0.03, t = -21.39, p < .001 see Figure 3B).

Electrophysiological results. Analyses on the peak showed a MMN-like effect following both *Rhythmic Training* and *Auditory Training* (t(1, 47)= -6.4654, p < .0001). The MMN peak amplitude effect did not differ across the two conditions of stimulation (t(1,13) = 1.1778, p = 0.26).

By contrast, clusters analysis revealed a long lasting MMN-like effect from 239 to 469ms following *Rhythmic Training* (p < .05) (see figure 4B) while no cluster reached significance following *Auditory Training* (p > 0.4) (see Figure 4C).

Correlation analyses revealed that children who were more sensitive to the temporal deviancy of the virtual partner (MMN-like effect size in the significant cluster) were also more accurate in the stress placement in the *irregular* turns (r = .42 CI [-.03, .65]).

PLEASE INSERT FIGURE 4 AROUND HERE

Discussion

The aim of this study was twofold. Firstly, we measured the speech rate convergence and temporal accommodation abilities in 6 to 10-year-old children during a turn-taking task with a virtual partner, and to bridge these abilities to the sensitivity to temporal deviancy as measured by an MMN-like effect. Secondly, we assessed whether a single 30-minute session of rhythmic training can enhance temporal prediction in children with hearing loss and, in turn, affect speech temporal skills that are relevant for a fluent conversation.

Results show that both children with NH and children with HL converge towards the speech rate of a virtual partner. Moreover, in both children groups, stress placement is more consistent and accurate following regular VP turns compared to irregular turns. Most importantly, the rhythmic training session improves the accuracy of children with HL in placing the stress at irregular turns. In other words, rhythmic training seems to endow children with greater flexibility in adapting to a sudden change in the temporal context. Finally, both groups (NH-HL) show an MMN-like response to irregular turns of the virtual partner. This response is larger in children with HL following rhythmic training compared to the same children following auditory training. We will first discuss children speech, then the effect of alternation regularity on children's temporal accommodation abilities and, in a second step, we will discuss the effects of rhythmic training on temporal accommodation capacities of children with HL.

Speech rate convergence with a virtual partner

One innovative aspect of this experimental design is that it allows, by manipulating the virtual partner's speech rate, to estimate the speech rate convergence, namely the natural tendency to minimize the speech rate difference between partners in a conversation (Manson et al., 2013; Schultz, O 'brien, Phillips, & Mcfarland, 2016). Our results confirm previous evidence of this

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phenomenon in a real communication setup (R. L. Street, Street, & Van Kleek, 1983; R. L. Street & Cappella, 1989) extending it to an interaction with a virtual non-adaptive partner and with single words. Importantly, we demonstrate speech rate convergence in a population of children with HL. While Freeman & Pisoni, (2017) found a less consistent convergence in cochlear implant users compared to normal hearing children, this could be due to important differences in the setup, which include using a natural and thus variable interlocutor (Freeman & Pisoni) versus a constant speech rate in the present study, and the use of a sentence repetition task versus a much easier object naming task. Thus, our experimental design, using an alternating naming task, seems particularly suitable to assess convergence abilities even in populations wherein these abilities may be impaired.

Temporal accommodation abilities and speech-turn regularity

The consistency of accent placement in regular turns for the two groups (NH-HL) corroborates our previous results (Hidalgo et al., 2017). In that study, children had to name words whose accent patterns (number of syllables) could be identical or not to those of the virtual partner with which the children interacted; the turns of speech were thus more or less regular. Overall, children were consistent in placing word accents, especially when the words they had to produce had the same accent pattern as the words produced by the virtual partner.

In the present study, children in both groups (NH and HL) were more accurate during regular than irregular turns in placing the stress of the word at the « expected » moment, that is precisely in between two turns of the virtual partner. Interestingly, during regular turns, children tended to place the stress slightly before this expected moment. This is reminiscent of the negative asynchrony described in sensori-motor tapping tasks and has been interpreted in terms of anticipatory behaviour (Repp, 2005) that can be absent in other species (Zarco, Merchant, Prado, & Mendez, 2009; Patel, 2014; Merchant & Honing, 2014). By contrast,

during irregular turns, children were late in placing the word stress. During these (irregular) turns, the distance between the consecutive accents of the PV was suddenly shortened, which implied for the child a local readjustment of the internal temporal model of the alternation. According to the Adaptation and Anticipation Model (ADAM) model (van der Steen & Keller, 2013), interacting individuals generate temporal predictions on both their own and their partner's actions. This relies on an anticipation mechanism based on the temporal regularities of the partner's behavior and an adaptation mechanism allowing to adjust to local temporal (phase) variations. During the irregular turns, children need both the anticipation module to estimate the duration of the next interval and the adaptation module to make local corrections to adjust to the temporal deviation of the VP.

ERP results indicate that the auditory system of normal-hearing children was sensitive to the deviation from temporal expectations in speech turns, similarly to temporal deviations in rhythmic musical sequences (Vuust et al., 2005). Interestingly, because the VP was following a very slow pace (2000ms between words), temporal expectation possibly emerged from the subdivision of this slow regular pace by the child turns (~1000ms). This is supported by the correlation between the temporal accommodation capacities of the child and the amplitude of the MMN-like effect. Interestingly, the MMN-like measure was issued from a temporal cluster lasting up to ~500ms which may imply a role of attentive and conscious processing. In other words, the better the child consciously perceives a change in the regularity of the alternation, the better s/he can predict and adapt speech turns. This correlation of performance of normal hearing children and children with hearing loss between perception and production abilities suggests that anticipation and adaptation capacities during verbal interaction are tightly related to the sensitivity of the auditory system in processing the temporal structure of speech. The importance for speech accommodation of directing attention and adapting to

Rhythmic training improves temporal conversational abilities in children with hearing loss temporal deviations is particularly emphasized in deaf children after the rhythmic stimulation session.

Effect of the rhythmic training session on speech perception and temporal accommodation abilities in children with HL

Children did not show a greater convergence on virtual partner speech rate after the rhythmic compared to the auditory training possibly because our design, with an artificial partner who keeps the same speech rate along the blocks, renders the speech rate very easy to reproduce.

However, following only 30 minutes of rhythmic training, children with HL improved their performance in the turn-taking task. More precisely, they became more accurate in temporally placing the stress of the word following an irregular turn, wherein the virtual partner anticipates the turn. This is the condition that requires the greatest flexibility to quickly adapt to the anticipated turn. This result, coupled to the greater and longer-lasting effect on the ERPs to deviant turns, suggests that the rhythmic training has engendered a more robust and prompt processing of temporal deviations.

This is in line with previous findings showing that musicians are more consistent and accurate than non-musicians in several types of temporal tasks, and are also more sensitive to temporal deviations occurring in a regular auditory sequence (Drake, 1993; Rammsayer & Altenmüller, 2006; Repp, 2010; Yee, Holleran, & Riessjones, 1994; Jones & Yee, 1997). Moreover, musical expertise improves temporal processing not only in music but also in speech at different temporal scales (Cameron & Grahn, 2014; Geiser, Sandmann, Jäncke, & Meyer, 2010; Marie et al., 2011; Chobert J, Marie C, François C, Schön D, 2011; Elmer, Meyer, &

Jäncke, 2012; Sares, Foster, Allen, & Hyde, 2018). When we turn to populations with hearing loss, cochlear implant users undergoing musical training show a greater sensitivity to fine temporal modification of sounds, as reflected in larger ERP responses compared to cochlear implant users without musical training (Timm et al., 2012). Moreover, children with cochlear implant that practice regular singing show enhanced P3a-like responses to several sound feature modifications compared to children with cochlear implant that do not practice regular singing (Torppa, Huotilainen, Leminen, Lipsanen, & Tervaniemi, 2014), Similarly, in the present study, music training mostly affected the amplitude of the MMN-like component, which has been described as involved in attentional processes (Gray, Ambady, Lowenthal, & Deldin, 2004). Thus, it seems that the rhythmic session has enhanced the children's ability to make accurate temporal predictions on the occurrence of regular turns. Then, small deviations from regularity may not only be automatically detected by the auditory system, but also actively processed to adapt speech behavior. This effect is not visible for the same children following 30 minutes of auditory training. This enhanced prediction is possibly mediated by a greater involvement of the motor and premotor cortex in musicians (Krause, Schnitzler, & Pollok, 2010) that in turn affects auditory perception (Merchant, Grahn, Trainor, Rohrmeier, & Fitch, 2015). In other words, the greater implication of the motor system in auditory perception improves the precision of temporal prediction of auditory events (Morillon, Schroeder, & Wvart, 2014: Morillon & Baillet, 2017). Thus, active rhythmic training. involving body movement and sensorimotor synchronization, has possibly increased the involvement of motor system in temporal prediction, facilitating the detection of irregular turns and temporal accommodation. Moreover, the active rhythmic training proposed here stimulated not only the synchronization abilities on an external rhythm but also the interpersonal coordination (for instance via rhythm repetition and rhythm exchanges). This has possibly facilitated the realization of the picture naming alternation task as a joint action

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to be realized in coordination with the partner. Interestingly, joint action planning compared with individual action planning can result in amplitude modulations of the P300 (Kourtis et al., 2013).

To conclude, while the regularity in speech turns in our paradigm was exaggerated compared to natural conversation, one can imagine that the same mechanism is at work in both natural and controlled exchanges. Thus, rhythmic training could be a powerful tool to facilitate temporally accurate speech interaction, which in turn will improve speech coordination in conversation (Konvalinka, Vuust, Roepstorff, & Frith, 2010), and boost engagement in prosocial and cooperative attitudes (Cirelli, Wan, & Trainor, 2014; Valdesolo, Ouyang, & DeSteno, 2010).

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<u>Table 1</u>

Child	Age in months (years)	Duration of use of the device (in months)	Age at switch- on or HA wearing (in months)	Type of device	Current hearing Loss without HA(s) or CI(s)	Thresholds at 250-500- 1000-2000 Hz	Onset of deafness
1	115 (9.7)	HA:51	64	НА	severe	10-25-35-25	unknown
2	94 (7.10)	CI :70	12 (HA) 24	CI	profound	30-30-30-30	congenital
3	92 (7.8)	CI:40 HA:47	52 18	CI + HA	profound	30-30-35-40	congenital
4	76 (6.6)	CI n°1:64 CI n°2: 64	12 12	CI + CI	cophosis	35-25-25-25 35-25-25-25	perilingual
5	116 (9.8)	CI:80	30	CI	profound	30-25-25-20	congenital
6	82 (6.10)	HA:72	6	HA + HA	severe	20-20-25-35 25-30-30-35	congenital
7	85 (7.1)	HA:77	8	HA +	moderate	10-10-15-30 15-20 15-30	congenital

1 2	Rhythmic training improves temporal conversational abilities in children with hearing loss							
2 3 4 5 6					HA			
7 8 9 10 11 12	8	96 (8.8)	CI:66	16 (HA) 30	CI	profound	25-25-25-25	congenital
13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20	9	111(9.3)	CI n°1:104 CI n°2:94	7 17	CI + CI	profound	30-25-25-20 30-30-35-35	unknown
21 22 23 24 25 26 27	10	88 (7.4)	CI n°1:74 CI n°2:65	14 23	CI + CI	profound	25-35-40-35 20-30-40-35	congenital
28 29 30 31 32	11	123 (10.3)	HA:87	36	НА	severe	10-20-20-25 15-20-25-25	congenital
33 34 35 36	12	111 (9.3)	CI:93	18	CI	profound	35-25-40-30	congenital
37 38 39 40 41	13	126 (10.6)	CI n°1:60 CI n°2:23	66 103	CI + CI	profound	15-20-20-35 15-20-20-20	progressive
42 43 44 45 46 47 48	14	93 (7.9)	CI n°1:60 CI n°2:58	23 35	CI + CI	profound	25-35-40-35 20-30-40-35	congenital

Table 1. Demographic data of children with HL. HA: hearing aid; CI: cochlear implant (in case of bilateral implantation, n°1 means the duration of use of the 1st implant and n°2 the duration of use of the second contralateral implant, HA in parenthesis means the onset of

Rhythmic training improves temporal conversational abilities in children with hearing loss wearing a hearing device before implantation). Thresholds are given for each device (children wearing a cochlear implant without contralateral hearing aid like Child n°2, did not have any usable acoustic hearing in the unaided ear).

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Figures Legends

Figure 1. Task and procedure. A. Schematic representation of the task. The virtual partner pronounces isolated words at *regular* (blue, 2000 ms) or *irregular* (red, 1600 ms) intervals. The child names the objects presented on the screen in alternation with the virtual partner. The speech rate of the virtual partner can be *fast* (light blue, top panel) or *slow* (dark blue, bottom panel). The vertical arrows indicate the p-center placement of the words. IWI stands for Inter Words Intervals, namely the distance between the virtual partner p-center and the child p-center. WD stands for Words Duration, namely the duration of the words pronounced by the child. B. Schematic representation of the procedure. Normal hearing (NH) children ran the task once and children with hearing loss (HI) ran the task twice (order was counterbalanced). For all figures, the ear represents children with normal hearing, the maracas represent children with hearing loss after rhythmic training, and the loudspeaker represents children with hearing loss after auditory training.

Figure 2. Behavioral results for NH children. A. Convergence results. Effect of the virtual partner's speech rate on mean word duration in the fast and slow conditions. B. Accommodation results. Effect of the regularity of alternation on children's stress placement. Left panel depicts the consistency of stress placement, represented by the vector length (from 0 to 1). Higher values represent better performances. Right panel depicts the accuracy of stress placement. Time zero represents a stress placement at the expected time. Positive values represent late responses, and negative values represent early responses.

Figure 3. Behavioral results for HI children. A. Convergence results following a 30-min rhythmic training. Effect of the virtual partner speech rate on mean word duration in the fast

and slow conditions. B. Accommodation results following a 30-min rhythmic training. Effect of the regularity of alternation on children stress placement. Left panel depicts the consistency of stress placement, represented by the vector length (from 0 to 1). Higher values represent better performances. Right panel depicts the accuracy of stress placement. Time zero represents a stress placement at the expected time. Positive values represent late responses, and negative values represent early responses. C-D. Convergence and accommodation results following a 30-min auditory training.

Figure 4. Electrophysiological (EEG) results. Grand average of Event Related Potentials for regular and irregular trials. Time zero is the onset of the word pronounced by the virtual partner. Shadowed areas represent significant time clusters (p<.05). A. NH children. B. HI children after rhythmic training. C. HI children after auditory training.

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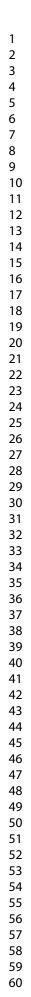
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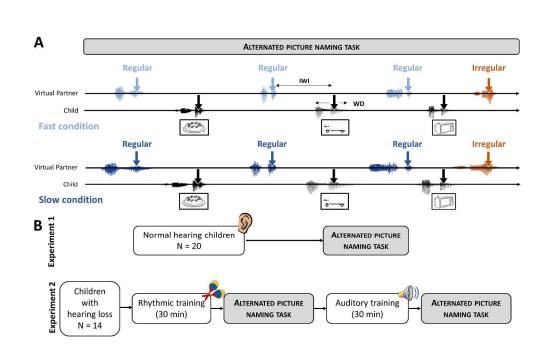


Figure 1. Task and procedure. A. Schematic representation of the task. The virtual partner pronounces isolated words at *regular* (blue, 2000 ms) or *irregular* (red, 1600 ms) intervals. The child names the objects presented on the screen in alternation with the virtual partner. The speech rate of the virtual partner can be fact (light blue, ten panel) ar clew (dark blue, better panel). The virtual partner indicate the parent.

fast (light blue, top panel) or *slow* (dark blue, bottom panel). The vertical arrows indicate the p-center placement of the words. IWI stands for Inter Words Intervals, namely the distance between the virtual partner p-center and the child p-center. WD stands for Words Duration, namely the duration of the words pronounced by the child. B. Schematic representation of the procedure. Normal hearing (NH) children ran the task once and children with hearing loss (HI) ran the task twice (order was counterbalanced). For all figures, the ear represents children with normal hearing, the maracas represent children with hearing loss after rhythmic training, and the loudspeaker represents children with hearing loss after auditory training.

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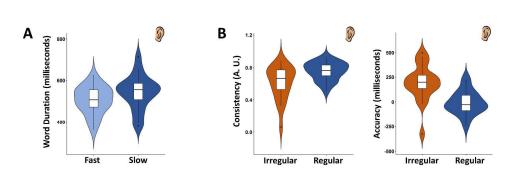


Figure 2. Behavioral results for NH children. A. Convergence results. Effect of the virtual partner's speech rate on mean word duration in the fast and slow conditions. B. Accommodation results. Effect of the regularity of alternation on children's stress placement. Left panel depicts the consistency of stress placement, represented by the vector length (from 0 to 1). Higher values represent better performances. Right panel depicts the accuracy of stress placement. Time zero represents a stress placement at the expected time. Positive values represent late responses, and negative values represent early responses.

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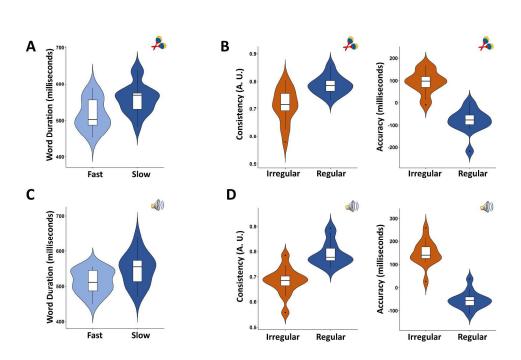


Figure 3. Behavioral results for HI children. A. Convergence results following a 30-min rhythmic training. Effect of the virtual partner speech rate on mean word duration in the fast and slow conditions. B. Accommodation results following a 30-min rhythmic training. Effect of the regularity of alternation on children stress placement. Left panel depicts the consistency of stress placement, represented by the vector length (from 0 to 1). Higher values represent better performances. Right panel depicts the accuracy of stress placement. Time zero represents a stress placement at the expected time. Positive values represent late responses, and negative values represent early responses. C-D. Convergence and accommodation results following a 30-min auditory training.

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Figure 4. Electrophysiological (EEG) results. Grand average of Event Related Potentials for regular and

irregular trials. Time zero is the onset of the word pronounced by the virtual partner. Shadowed areas represent significant time clusters (p<.05). A. NH children. B. HI children after rhythmic training. C. HI

children after auditory training.

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600

600

Irregular

Irregular

- Regular

Regular

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