Article

Estimation of olfactory sensitivity using a Bayesian adaptive method

Richard Höchenberger ^{1,2} and Kathrin Ohla ^{1,2,*}

- ¹ Institute of Neuroscience and Medicine INM-3, Research Center Jülich, Jülich, Germany
- ² Psychophysiology of Food Perception, German Institute of Human Nutrition Potsdam-Rehbrücke, Nuthetal, Germany
- * Correspondence: k.ohla@fz-juelich.de

Abstract: The ability to smell is crucial for most species as it enables the detection of environmental

² threats like smoke, fosters social interactions, and contributes to the sensory evaluation of food

- and eating behavior. The high prevalence of smell disturbances throughout the life span calls
- 4 for a continuous effort to improve tools for quick and reliable assessment of olfactory function.
- 5 Odor-dispensing pens, called Sniffin' Sticks, are an established method to deliver olfactory stimuli
- 6 during diagnostic evaluation. We tested the suitability of a Bayesian adaptive algorithm (QUEST) to
- estimate olfactory sensitivity using Sniffin' Sticks by comparing QUEST sensitivity thresholds with
- those obtained using a procedure based on an established standard staircase protocol. Thresholds
- were measured twice with both procedures in two sessions (Test and Retest). Overall, both procedures
- ¹⁰ exhibited considerable overlap with QUEST displaying slightly higher test-retest correlations, less
- variability between measurements, and reduced testing duration. Notably, participants were more
- ¹² frequently presented with the highest concentration during the QUEST which may foster adaptation
- and habituation effects. We conclude that further research is required to better understand and
- ¹⁴ optimize the procedure for assessment of olfactory performance.
- 15 Keywords: smell sensitivity; olfaction; threshold; staircase; QUEST

16 1. Introduction

The appreciation of food involves all senses: sight, smell, taste, touch, and also hearing. While 17 the sight of a cup of coffee may indicate its availability, it is typically its smell that makes it appealing 18 and that triggers an appetite for most people. During consumption, the smell or aroma is perceived 19 again retronasally and supported by its pleasant temperature and a bitter taste. These largely parallel 20 sensations occur automatically and only raise awareness when one or more senses are disturbed. 21 That said, the sense of smell has been shown to influence food choice and eating behavior [1], and its 22 impairment has even been associated with a higher risk for diet-related diseases like diabetes [2]. Even 23 more, olfactory stimuli can invoke emotional states, are linked to memory storage and retrieval, and as 24 such also serve as important cues to rapid detection of potentially dangerous situations and threats 25 (see e.g. [3,4]. Given that the estimated prevalence of smell impairment is 3.5% in the United States [5], 26 continuous efforts are made toward an efficient and precise assessment of olfactory function. 27

The *Sniffin' Sticks* test suite (Burghart, Wedel, Germany; [6]), is an established tool in the assessment of olfactory function. It consists of three tests involving sets of impregnated felt-tip pens: odor detection threshold (T), odor discrimination (D), and odor identification (I). Each test produces a number in the range from 1 to 16 as a performance measure. Overall olfactory function is assessed by summing all three test results, resulting in the *TDI score*. Comparison of individual TDI scores to the comprehensive set of available normative data (e.g. [7,8]) facilitates the interpretation of test scores and allows to reliably diagnose olfactory impairment. Notably, threshold, discrimination, and

- identification measure different facets of olfactory function [9]. The threshold, however, has been found
- to explain a larger portion of variability in TDI scores than the two other measures [10]. Moreover, the

discrimination and identification tests follow relatively simple test protocols in which all stimuli are 37 presented only once and in a pre-defined order. The threshold, in comparison, is of a more complex 38 nature, and the method, therefore provides the largest potential for possible improvements. It follows 39 a so-called adaptive method, specifically, a "transformed" 1-up / 2-down staircase procedure [11]. The 40 procedure first assesses a starting concentration and then moves on to the "actual" threshold estimation, 41 during which fixed step widths are used: for each incorrect answer the stimulus concentration is 42 increased by one step, and for two consecutive correct answers the stimulus concentration is decreased 43 by one step [6]. Since the 1-up / 2-down staircase was first conceived, several new approaches to threshold 45 estimation, including Bayesian methods, have been published. Bayesian methods estimate parameters 46 of the psychometric function (e.g., threshold or slope) using Bayesian inference: based on prior 47 assumptions about the true parameter value, the stimulus concentration to be presented next is 48 selected such that the expected information gain (about the parameter) is maximized. The first 49 published Bayesian adaptive psychometric method is the QUEST procedure [12], which is still popular 50 today. QUEST has two distinct properties that set it apart from the staircase described above. First, it 51 always considers the entire response history and is not solely based on the past one or two trials to 52

select the optimal stimulus concentration to be presented next. Second, QUEST is not tied to a fixed
 step width, allowing it to traverse through a large range of concentrations more quickly.

In a clinical setting, at the ENT practice or at the bedside in the hospital, shorter testing times are always beneficial, as they reduce strain on patients and free up time for other parts of diagnostics and treatment. But also when working with healthy participants, e.g. in a psychophysical lab or in large cohort studies, reduced testing time spares resources and allows for a larger number of measurements in a given time.

QUEST has been shown to converge reliably and quickly in gustatory threshold estimations [13,14]. Inspired by these results we set out to design and test a QUEST-based procedure for olfactory threshold estimation and to compare its performance with that of the established staircase method.

63 2. Materials and Methods

64 2.1. Participants

36 participants (32 women; median age: 29.5 years, age range: 19–61 years) completed the study. 65 The influence of gender on olfactory performance has been investigated in previous studies. The 66 results typically showed no (e.g. [15], several hundred participants; [7], > 3000 participants, no main 67 effect) or only rather small gender differences with negligible diagnostic and real-world relevance 68 (e.g. [8], > 9,000 participants). We therefore did not enforce gender balance in our sample. Due 69 a technical error, the identification test data was not recorded for one participant (female, 26 years 70 old). All participants were non-smokers and reported being healthy and not having suffered from an 71 infectious rhinitis for at least two weeks before testing. The study conformed to the revised Declaration 72 of Helsinki and was approved by the ethical board of the German Society of Psychology (DGPs). 73

74 2.2. Stimuli

Stimuli were so-called Sniffin' Sticks (Burghart, Wedel, Germany; [6]), felt-tip pens filled with 75 an odorant. The Sniffin' Sticks test battery consists of three subtests: an odor threshold test, an odor 76 detection test, and an odor identification test. The threshold test comprises 48 pens. 16 pens are 77 filled with different concentrations of 2-phenylethanol (rose-like smell) ranging from 4% to approx. 78 1.22×10^{-4} % (a geometric sequence with the common ratio of 2, so the first pen contained a 4% 79 dilution, the second $\frac{4}{2}\% = 2\%$; the third $\frac{2}{2}\% = 1\%$, and so on), dissolved in 4% propylene glycol, an 80 odorless solvent. Note that in this test, the 1st pen contains the highest, the 16th pen the lowest odorant 81 concentration. The remaining 32 pens contain 4% propylene glycol and serve as blanks. The pens are 82 arranged in triplets such that each triplet contains one pen with odorant and two blanks. The detection 83

test comprises 48 pens that are filled with 16 different odorants at supra-threshold concentrations. The

pens are arranged in triplets such that two pens contain the same and one pen a different odorant. The

identification test comprises 16 pens filled with different odorants at supra-threshold concentrations.

87 2.3. Procedure

⁸⁸ 2.3.1. Experimental sessions

Participants were invited for two experimental sessions – the Test and Retest session for the 89 odor threshold. To ensure similar testing conditions across sessions, participants were instructed to 90 refrain from eating and drinking anything but water 30 min before visiting the laboratory. Further, 91 both sessions were scheduled at approximately the same time of day, and took place with a median inter-session interval of 3.0 days (SD = 2.6, range: 0.9-8.9 days); only 4 participants had an inter-session 93 interval of more than 7.0 days. In each session, olfactory detection thresholds were determined using 94 two distinct algorithms, staircase and QUEST, described below. The order of algorithms was balanced 95 across participants and kept constant for Test and Retest within each participant. Additionally, odor 96 discrimination and odor identification ability were measured at the end of one session following the standard Sniffin' Sticks protocol (Burghart, Wedel, Germany). 98

99 2.3.2. Stimulus presentation

Testing took place in a well-ventilated testing room and was performed by the same experimenter, 100 who refrained from using any fragrant products (e.g. soap, lotion, perfume, etc.) and wore odorless 101 cotton gloves when presenting the stimuli. At the beginning of each test session, participants were 102 blindfolded. To present a stimulus, the experimenter removed the cap from the pen, held the tip of 103 the pen in front of the participant's nose, approx. 2 cm from the nostrils, and asked the participant to 104 take a sniff. For the threshold test, participants were blindfolded and informed that the odorant may 105 be presented in very low concentrations, and that only one of the three pens presented in each trial 106 contained the odorant, while the others contained the solvent exclusively. The task was to "indicate 107 which of the three pens smells different from the others", and participants had to provide a response 108 even when unsure. Participants were familiarized with the odorant by presenting pen no. 1 (highest 109 concentration) before testing commenced. A similar procedure was used for the discrimination test, 110 participants were blindfolded and presented with a triplet of pens containing clearly perceivable 111 odorants. Each triplet consisted of two pens with the same and one pen with a different odorant. 112 Participants were to "indicate which of the three pens smells different from the others". During 113 threshold and discrimination testing, stimulus triplets were presented during each trial, which lasted 114 approx. 30 s and included the presentation of three pens (approx. 3 s each) and a pause of 20 s. 115

These triangle tests yield a probability of ¹/₃ of guessing correctly. For the identification task, the blindfold was removed and participants smelled one pen at a time. They were to identify the odor by pointing to the matching word on a response sheet with four written response options. The interval between pens was approx. 30 s. The probability of guessing correctly in this task was ¹/₄.

120 Staircase

Following the standard protocol as detailed in the test manual; see also [16]), the order of presentation within the triplets varied from trial to trial. In the first trial, the odor pen was presented first, in the second trial, it was presented between two blanks, and in the third, after two blanks. After the third trial, this sequence was repeated.

We first determined the starting concentration. Beginning with the presentation of triplet no. 16 or 15 (balanced across participants), participants had to indicate which of the pens smelled different. Concentration was increased in steps of two (e.g., from pen 16 to 14) for each incorrect response. Once participants provided a correct response, the same triplet was presented again. If the response was incorrect, the concentration was increased again by two steps as before. However, if the triplet wascorrectly identified a second time, that dilution step served as the starting concentration.

Contrary to the standard protocol, where testing would then continue without interruption, our participants were granted a short break of approx. 1 min before the actual threshold estimation 132 started with the presentation of the triplet containing the starting concentration. The threshold was 133 determined in a 1-up / 2-down staircase procedure: odor concentration was increased by one step after 134 each incorrect response (1-up), and decreased by one step after two consecutive correct responses at 135 the same concentration (2-down). This kind of staircase targets a threshold of 70.71 % correct responses ([11]; but cf. [17], who found small deviations from this value). That is, if presented repeatedly with a 137 stimulus at threshold intensity, participants would be able to correctly identify it in about 71 out of 100 138 cases. The probability of providing *two consecutive* correct responses purely by guessing is $\frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$. 139 The procedure finishes after 7 reversal points were reached. The final threshold estimate is the mean of 140 the last 4 reversal concentrations. This procedure is referred to simply as *staircase* throughout the this 141 manuscript. 142

143 QUEST

QUEST requires to set parameters that describe the assumed psychometric function linking stimulus intensity and expected response behavior. We assumed a sigmoid psychometric function of the Weibull family, as proposed by [12] (albeit in a slightly different parametrization) and used for gustatory testing [13], with a slope $\beta = 3.5$, a lower asymptote $\gamma = 1/3$ (chance of a correct response just by guessing), and a parameter $\lambda = 0.01$ to account for lapses (response errors due to momentary fluctuation of attention):

$$\Psi(x) = \lambda \gamma + (1 - \lambda) [1 - (1 - \gamma) \exp(-10^{\beta(x+T)})]$$

Here, the presented concentration is denoted as *x*, and the assumed threshold as *T*. This yielded a 144 function extending from 0.33 to 0.99 in units of "proportion of correct responses". The granularity of 145 the concentration grid was set to 0.01. All parameters of this function were constant, except for the 146 threshold, which was the parameter of interest that was going to be estimated in the course of the 147 procedure. The prior estimate of the threshold was a normal distribution with a standard deviation of 148 20, which was centered on the concentration of pen no. 7, which was used as the starting concentration. 149 The algorithm was set to target the threshold at 80 % correct responses, which is slightly higher than 150 the threshold target in the staircase procedure, but had proven to produce good results both in pilot 151 testing as well as in gustatory threshold estimation [13,14]. Unlike in the staircase procedure, where 152 the order of pen presentation varied systematically from triplet to triplet, triplets were presented in 153 random order during the QUEST procedure.

Notably, QUEST updates its knowledge on the expected threshold after each response and 155 proposes the concentration to present in the next trial such that it maximizes the expected information 156 gain about the "true" threshold. As the set of concentrations was discrete and limited to 16, QUEST 157 might propose concentrations other than those contained in the test set. In this case, the software 158 selects the triplet with the concentration closest to the one proposed. In contrast to the staircase, where the concentration was always decreased or increased by a single step after the starting concentration 160 had been determined, the step width was not fixed in QUEST. For example, QUEST might step up 3 161 concentrations in one trial, step down 2 in the next, and present the exact same concentration again in 162 the following trial. Whenever the same concentration had been presented on two consecutive trials, 163 the concentration for the next trial was decreased if both responses were correct, and increased if both 164 responses were incorrect. QUEST might suggest to present concentrations outside of the range of 165 available dilution steps. Therefore we set up the algorithm such that, whenever the presentation of 166 a pen < 1 or > 16 was suggested, we would instead present pen no. 1 and 16, respectively. QUEST 167 would be informed about the actually presented pen concentration, and incorporate this information 168

The procedure ended after 20 trials. The final threshold estimate is the mean of the posterior

probability density function of the threshold parameter. We will refer to this procedure as "QUEST".

174 2.3.3. Analysis

175 Odor discrimination and identification

The discrimination and identification tests comprise 16 trials. For each test, the number of correct responses are summed up, resulting in a test score which can range from 0 to 16. Together with the staircase threshold, which yields values from 1 to 16, the sum of all three test results forms a cumulative score: the TDI score.

180 Data cleaning

When a participant reaches one of the most extreme concentrations (i.e., pens no. 1 or 16) and 18: provides a response that would, theoretically, require to present a concentration outside the stimulus of 182 set, the staircase procedure cannot be safely assumed to yield a reliable threshold estimate anymore. For 183 example, if a participant fails to identify the highest concentration (pen no. 1), the staircase procedure 184 would then demand to present a hypothetical pen no. 0, which obviously does not exist. Since our sole termination criterion was "7 reversals", we would repeatedly present pen no. 1 until a correct 186 identification allows the procedure to move up to pen no. 2 again. The resulting threshold estimate 187 would systematically overestimate the participant's sensitivity. Therefore we set the threshold values 188 of staircase runs where participants could not identify pen no. 1 at least once to T = 1 after the run 189 was completed, following [7] (but cf. [16], who suggest to set the value to T = 0 instead). This was the 190 case in 5 out of the 72 staircase threshold measurements (2 during Test, 3 during Retest; 5 participants 19: affected). Conversely, when a participant were to correctly identify the lowest concentration (pen no. 192 16), the staircase procedure would require the presentation of a hypothetical pen no. 17, in which case 193 we would have assigned a threshold value of T = 16; however, this situation did not occur in the 194 present study after the starting concentration had been determined. 195

For QUEST, pen no. 1 was not correctly identified at least once in 12 of the 72 measurements, concerning 11 participants; no participant reached and correctly identified pen no. 16. QUEST yielded final threshold estimates T < 1 in 11 measurements (8 during Test, 3 during Retest; 10 participants affected). Similarly to the data cleaning procedure for the staircase, we assigned threshold T = 1 in these cases. Notably, this again concerned 3 of the 5 participants for whom we had assigned T = 1 in a staircase experiment.

202 Test-Restest Reliability

To establish test-retest reliability, we first compared the means of Test and Retest thresholds 203 for each procedure. Q-Q plots and Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed that thresholds were not normally 204 distributed for the QUEST Test session (W = 0.90, p < 0.01); we, therefore, compared the means using non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank tests. We then correlated Test and Retest threshold 206 estimates via Spearman's rank correlation (Spearman's rho, denoted as ρ) to estimate the degree of 207 monotonic relationship between measurements. Ordinary least squares (OLS) models were used to 208 fit regression lines to provide a better understanding of the nature of the relationship between the 209 threshold estimates (i.e., whether Test thresholds could predict Retest thresholds). Q-Q plots and 210 Shapiro-Wilk tests showed that the regression residuals were normally distributed (all p > 0.05) and 211 thus satisfied an important requirement for OLS regression. 212

Although correlation and regression analyses are widely used to assess test-retest reliability and to compare methods, it has been argued that these measures may in fact be inappropriate (see e.g. ²¹⁵ [18–20]). Instead, analyses that focus on the *differences* between, not agreement of, measurements ²¹⁶ should be preferred. [18] proposed to calculate the mean difference \bar{d} and standard deviation of the ²¹⁷ differences between two measurements to derive *limits of agreement* at $\bar{d} \pm 1.96 \times \text{SD}$. These limits ²¹⁸ correspond to the 95 % confidence interval. This means that in 95 out of 100 comparisons, the difference ²¹⁹ between two measurements can be expected to fall into this range. Narrower limits of agreement ²²⁰ indicate a better agreement between two measurements. The related *repeatability coefficient*, RC, is ²²¹ simply 1.96 × SD, and its interpretation is very similar to the limits of agreement: only 5 % of absolute ²²² measurement differences will exceed this value, and a smaller RC indicates better agreement. ¹

If the differences between two measurements are plotted over the mean of the measurements, and 223 d and the limits of agreement are added as horizontal lines, the resulting plot is called a *Bland-Altman* 224 plot (sometimes also referred to as *Tukey mean difference plot*). It can be used to quickly visually inspect 225 how well measurements can be reproduced, specifically which systematic bias ($d \neq 0$) and which 226 variability or "spread" of measurement differences to expect. Accordingly, we assessed the RC, limits 227 of agreement, and produced Bland-Altman plots for both methods, staircase and QUEST, to gain 228 more insight into the repeatability (or lack thereof) of measurements for each method. The use of 220 these analyses requires the measurement differences to be normally distributed, which we confirmed 230 using Q-Q plots, and Shapiro-Wilk tests failed to reject the null hypothesis of normal distributions (all 231 p > 0.05). Confidence intervals for the limits of agreement were calculated using the "exact paired" 232 method described by [21]. 233

Lastly, to test whether the duration of the inter-session interval might be a confounding factor in the threshold estimates, we also calculated the Spearman correlation between inter-session intervals and differences between Test and Retest thresholds.

237 Comparison between procedures

To compare the threshold estimates across procedures, we averaged Test and Retest threshold estimates for each participant within a procedure, and, similar to the analysis of reliability, compared the means with a Wilcoxon signed-rank test, followed by the calculation of Spearman's ρ and the fit of a regression line using an OLS model. The regression residuals were normally distributed, according to a Q-Q plot and a Shapiro-Wilk test (W = 0.96, p = 0.26), satisfying the normality assumption of errors on which OLS regression critically relies.

Additionally, we estimated the 95% limits of agreement from the differences between the within-participant session means for the two procedures, and generated Bland-Altman plots. The measurement differences were normally distributed, according to a Q-Q plot and a Shapiro-Wilk test (W = 0.96, p = 0.30). Like in the investigation of test-retest reliability, we assessed confidence intervals of the limits of agreement via the "exact paired" method described by [21].

Because the limits of agreement derived from session means might actually be too narrow, 249 as within-participant variability is removed by averaging measurements across sessions [20], we 250 calculated adjusted limits of agreement from the variance of the between-subject differences, σ_d^2 , which 251 in turn can be calculated as $\sigma_d^2 = s_{\bar{d}}^2 + 0.5 s_{xw}^2 + 0.5 s_{yw}^2$. Here, $s_{\bar{d}}^2$ is the variance of the differences 252 between the session means; and s_{xw}^2 and s_{yw}^2 are the within-participant variances of methods x and 253 y, respectively (staircase and QUEST in our case). The limits of agreement can then be calculated as 254 $d \pm 1.96 \times \sigma_{d'}$ with d being the mean difference between the session means of both procedures. Again, 255 the interpretation of these limits is straightforward: 95% of the differences between staircase and 256 QUEST measurements can be expected to fall into this interval, and narrower limits indicate a better 257

¹ It should be noted that [20] suggested an alternative method for calculating the repeatability coefficient, based on the within-participant standard deviation, s_w . The results we obtained from these calculations were similar to those based on the standard deviation of the measurement differences. Because the latter are directly visualized in the Bland-Altman plot by the limits of agreement (mean difference $\pm 1.96 \times SD$), we opted to only report these values.

agreement across the measurement results produced by both procedures. Finally, we derived 95%
confidence intervals for these limits, as suggested in [20] (section 5.1, equation 5.10).

260 Software

The experiments were run via PsychoPy 1.85.4 [22,23] running on Python 2.7.14 (https://www. 261 python.org) installed via the Miniconda distribution (https://conda.io/miniconda.html) on Windows 262 7 (Microsoft Corp., Redmond, WA/USA). All analyses were carried out with Python 3.7.1, running on macOS 10.14.2 (Apple Inc., Cupertino, CA/USA). We used the following Python packages: correlation 264 coefficients, Bland-Altman and Q-Q plots were derived via pingouin 0.2.2 [24]; confidence intervals 265 for the Bland-Altman plots were calculated with pyCompare 1.2.3 (https://github.com/jaketmp/ 266 pyCompare); Shapiro-Wilk statistics were calculated with SciPy 1.2.1 [25,26]; linear regression models 267 were estimated using statsmodels 0.9.0 [27]; and box plots and correlation plots were created with seaborn 0.9.0 (https://seaborn.pydata.org) and matplotlib 3.0.2 [28]. 269

270 3. Results

271 3.1. Odor discrimination and identification

The average test score for odor discrimination was 13.3 (SD = 1.5, range: 11–16; N = 35), and for odor identification 13.0 (SD = 1.6, range: 11–16; N = 36). When accumulated with the staircase threshold estimates from the Test and Retest sessions, we observed TDI scores of 33.34 (SD = 3.8; range: 26.5–43) and 33.64 (SD = 3.8; range: 26.75–41.75), respectively. Individual as well as cumulative scores indicate a below average ability to smell (roughly around the 25th percentile) in our sample compared to recent normative data from over 9,000 subjects [8].

278 3.2. Starting concentrations

The average starting concentration was pen no. 9.9 (SD = 4.2, range: 1–16) for the Test and 9.6 (SD = 4.1, range: 1–16) for the Retest session of the staircase. The average difference in starting concentrations between sessions was 4.9 (SD = 4.0, range: 0–15). In comparison, we used a slightly higher, fixed starting concentration of pen no. 7 for QUEST.

283 3.3. Test duration

The average number of trials needed to complete the staircase measurements was 23.6 (SD = 4.8, 284 range: 13–41), which translates to approx. 11.5 min and which is 2 minutes longer than for QUEST, 285 which per our parameters always lasted 9.5 minutes (20 trials). Test duration varied slightly between 286 staircase sessions and was 24.4 trials (SD = 4.2, range: 16–34) for the Test and 22.9 trials (SD = 5.4, range: 287 13–41) for the Retest session. Please note that the number of trials and the testing duration for the 288 staircase are based on the time required to reach seven reversal points after the starting concentration 289 had been determined, thereby deviating from the "standard" procedure, which treats the starting 290 concentration as the first reversal. 291

292 3.4. Test-Retest Reliability

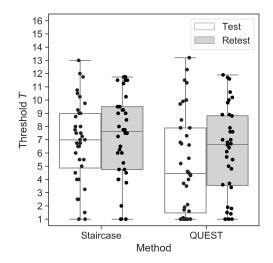


Figure 1. Threshold estimates for the staircase and QUEST procedures during Test and Retest sessions. Each dot represents one participant. Horizontal lines show the median values, and whisker lengths represent $1.5 \times$ inter-quartile range.

- The mean Test thresholds did not differ from the mean Retest thresholds for the staircase ($M_{\text{Test}} =$
- ²⁹⁴ 6.9, $SD_{Test} = 3.1$; $M_{Retest} = 7.2$, $SD_{Retest} = 3.2$; W = 268.0, p = 0.19). For QUEST, on the other hand,
- mean Test and Retest thresholds differed significantly, with slightly higher sensitivity (higher *T* unit) in the Retest ($M_{\text{Test}} = 5.2$, $\text{SD}_{\text{Test}} = 3.8$; $M_{\text{Retest}} = 6.2$, $\text{SD}_{\text{Retest}} = 3.4$; W = 201.5, p < 0.01; see Fig. 1).

9 of 16

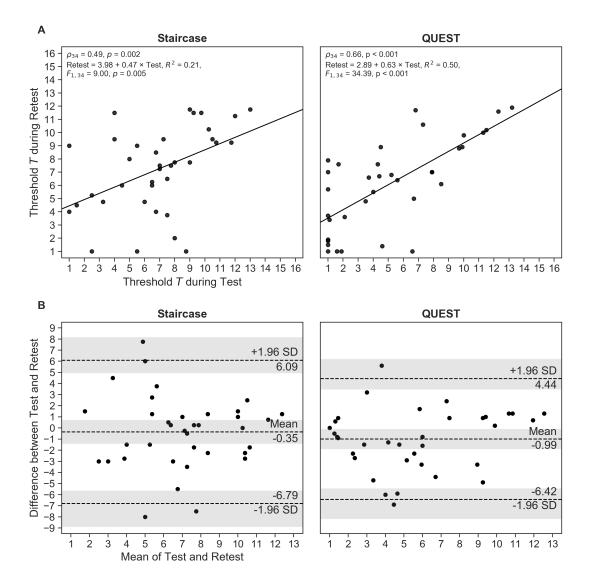


Figure 2. (A) Correlation between Test and Retest threshold estimates for the staircase and QUEST procedures. (B) Bland-Altman plots showing mean differences between Test and Retest and limits of agreement corresponding to 95 % confidence intervals (CIs) as mean \pm 1.96 × SD. The shaded areas represent the 95 % CIs of the mean and the limits of agreement. Each dot represents one participant.

The Test and Retest thresholds correlated significantly for both procedures, with QUEST demonstrating a stronger relationship between measurements than the staircase (staircase: $\rho_{34} = 0.49$, p < 0.01; QUEST: $\rho_{34} = 0.66$, p < 0.001; Fig. 2A).

As already pointed out, correlation gives an indication of the strength of the monotonic relationship 300 between values, but only provides limited information on their agreement. We therefore calculated 301 the repeatability coefficient RC and created Bland-Altman plots to generate a better understanding of 302 the measurement differences. The prediction of the RC is that two measurements (Test and Retest) 303 will differ by the value of RC or less for 95% of participants. We found that RC was about 16% 304 smaller for QUEST than for the staircase ($RC_{Staircase} = 6.44$, $RC_{QUEST} = 5.43$), suggesting a slightly 305 better agreement between Test and Retest measurements for the QUEST procedure. Accordingly, 306 the Bland-Altman plot (Fig 2B) showed narrower limits of agreement for QUEST (staircase: -6.79 307 [-8.89, -5.63] and 6.09 [4.93, 8.18]; QUEST: -6.42 [-8.18, -5.44] and 4.44 [3.46, 6.29]; 95 % CIs in 308 brackets). The mean of the differences between measurements was relatively small and deviated less 309 than 1 *T* unit from zero – the "ideal" difference – for both methods ($M_{\Delta T,\text{Staircase}} = -0.35 [-1.43, 0.72]$; 310

 $M_{\Delta T,QUEST} = -0.99 \ [-1.89, -0.08]\)$. This systematic negative shift indicates that participants, on average, reached higher *T* units in the second session than in the first. The differences between Test and Retest measurements for 3 (staircase) and 2 participants (QUEST), respectively, fell outside their respective limits of agreement, which corresponds to the expected proportion of 5 % of outliers (3/36 = 8.3 %; 2/36 = 5.6 %), demonstrating the appropriateness of the estimated limits. Considering the confidence intervals of the limits of agreement, an equal number of measurement differences (4) fell outside the predicted range for both procedures.

To test whether the time between Test and Retest sessions might be linked to the observed differences between Test and Retest threshold estimates, we computed correlations between those measures. We found no relationship for either method (staircase: $\rho_{34} = -0.12$, p = 0.50; QUEST: $\rho_{34} = 0.03$, p = 0.85).

322 3.5. Comparison between procedures

Although the threshold estimates, averaged across sessions, for the staircase were significantly 323 higher than those for QUEST (staircase: M = 7.0, SD = 2.7; QUEST: M = 5.7, SD = 3.3; W = 101.0, 324 p < 0.001; Fig. 3 A), we found a strong correlation between the procedures ($\rho_{34} = 0.80, p < 0.001$; 325 Fig. 3 B). The regression slope was close to 1, providing an indication of agreement across procedures. 326 The Bland-Altman plot based on the session means (Fig. 3 C) shows a systematic difference between 32 both procedures; specifically, QUEST thresholds were, on average, 1.38 [0.78, 1.97] T units smaller 328 than the staircase estimates (95% CIs in brackets). The limits of agreement reached from -2.20329 [-3.37, -1.56] to 4.95 [4.31, 6.12], meaning the difference between the two methods will fall into this 330 range for 95% of measurements. Only for 1 participant the observed differences between staircase 331 and QUEST fell outside the limits of agreement (1/36 = 2.8%; when considering the CIs of the limits, 3 332 participants fell outside the expected range (3/36 = 8.3%)333

The corrected limits of agreement, taking into account individual measurements (as opposed to session means only), were -4.20 [-23.6, 15.3] and 6.96 [-12.5, 26.4], which is substantially larger than the uncorrected limits. The large confidence intervals that expand even beyond the concentration range reflect relatively large the within-participant variability across sessions in both threshold procedures.

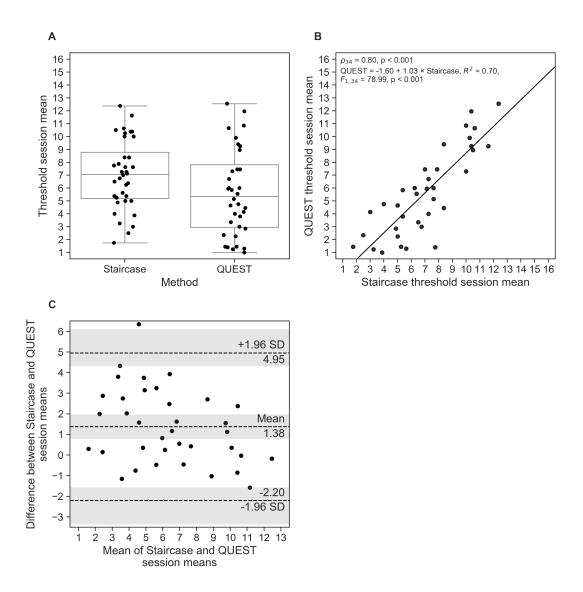


Figure 3. (A) Mean threshold estimates, averaged across Test and Retest sessions for the staircase and QUEST procedures. Horizontal lines show the median values and Whisker lengths represent $1.5 \times$ inter-quartile range. (B) Correlation between mean staircase and QUEST threshold estimates. (C) Bland-Altman plot showing mean differences between session means in both procedures, and limits of agreement corresponding to 95 % confidence intervals (CIs) as mean \pm 1.96 \times SD. The shaded areas represent the 95 % CIs of the mean and the limits of agreement. Each dot represents one participant.

338 4. Discussion

In the presented study we used a QUEST-based algorithm to estimate olfactory detection thresholds for 2-phenylethanol with the aim to provide a reliable test result as it had recently been demonstrated for taste thresholds [13] with reduced testing time. The results were compared to a slightly modified version of the widely-used testing protocol based on a 1-up / 2-down staircase procedure [6,7,9,15,16].

Test-retest reliability was assessed using multiple approaches. Comparison of Test and Retest thresholds revealed a small yet significant mean difference for QUEST: threshold estimates during Retest were higher than in the Test, indicating an increase in participants' sensitivity. [6] reported a similar effect. However, with a mean difference of approx. 1 *T* unit or pen number, the practical relevance of this effect is debatable, even more so when considering the large variability of measurement results within individual participants. Following common practice of establishing test-retest reliability of olfactory thresholds (see e.g. [6,9,29]), we calculated correlations between Test and Retest sessions. The correlation coefficient for QUEST ($\rho = 0.66$) indicated solid, but not exceptionally great test-retest reliability. Reliability of the staircase procedure was only moderate ($\rho = 0.49$) and lower than reported in previous studies for *n*-butanol (r = 0.61; [6]) and 2-phenylethanol (r = 0.92; [9]) thresholds.

To acknowledge previous criticism of correlation analysis which focuses on the agreement but not 355 the differences between measurements, [18-20] we calculated repeatability coefficients and generated 356 Bland-Altman plots for the analysis of session differences. Repeatability was higher for QUEST than for the staircase; however, measurement results of both procedures varied considerably across sessions for 358 many participants. This inter-session variability is further substantiated by the differences in starting 359 concentrations assessed for the staircase, which varied up 15 pen numbers in the most extreme case. 360 The effect was not universal: some participants performed better in the Test than in the Retest session, 361 whereas for others performance dropped across sessions, and remained almost unchanged in others. 362 Since both sessions had been scheduled within a relatively short time period and all measurements 363 have been performed by the same experimenter, measurement variability can be mostly attributed to 364 variability within participants themselves. 365

The comparison of the staircase and QUEST procedures via the session means of each participant 366 showed that the staircase yielded slightly higher pen numbers (i.e., lower thresholds) than QUEST. This 367 was expected as the procedures were assumed to converge at approx. 71% and 80% correct responses, respectively. We found a strong correlation between the session means of the procedures ($\rho = 0.80$), 369 and regression analysis showed an almost perfect linear relationship, which some would interpret as 370 a good agreement between QUEST and staircase results. The 95% limits of agreement, taking into 371 account the within-participant variability, showed a large expected deviation between both procedures 372 (range: QUEST thresholds almost 7 T units smaller or more than 4 T units greater than staircase 373 results), with the corresponding CIs of those boundaries even exceeding the concentration range. This 374 result is indicative of the large variability we found within participants in both procedure. The limits 375 of agreement based on the within-participant session means were much narrower, as variability is 376 greatly reduced through averaging. 377

A potential source of variability might be *guessing*. In fact, the probability of responding correctly 378 merely by guessing is ¹/₂. [30] showed in a series of simulations that, with increasing number of trials, 379 the frequency of correct guesses might get unacceptably high, potentially leading increased variability 380 in the threshold estimates. Running determined that, for a staircase procedure like the one in our 381 study, the expected proportion of such false-positive responses exceeds 5 % with the 23rd trial. For 382 our staircase experiments, the average number of trials was 23.6; and the procedure finished after 23 383 or more trials for 24 of the 36 participants in the Test, and for 20 participants in the Retest session. Therefore, the large variability between Test and Retest threshold estimates in the staircase could, 385 at least partially, be ascribed to correct guesses "contaminating" the procedure. However, QUEST – 386 which always finished after 20 trials - only had slightly better test-retest reliability according the the 387 repeatability coefficient, suggesting that the largest portion of test-retest variability in our investigations 388 was probably not caused by (too) long trial sequences and related false-positive responses alone. 389

Surprisingly, a number of participants were unable to correctly identify pen no. 1 at least on one occasion, and this effect was more pronounced during QUEST compared to the staircase. It seems plausible that the variable step size used by QUEST made it possible to approach even the extreme concentration ranges quickly, whereas the staircase requires a longer sequence of incorrect responses to reach pen no. 1.

Despite careful selection of healthy participants who reported no smell impairment, olfactory performance was lower than recently reported in a sample comprising over 9,000 participants [8]. This coincidental finding highlights the need for a comprehensive smell screening before enrollment. To what extend olfactory function contributed to the present results and limits their generalizability remains to be explored.

All QUEST runs completed after 20 trials for all participants. The procedure could be further 400 optimized by introducing a dynamic stopping rule. For example, [13] set the algorithm to terminate 401 once the threshold estimate had reached a certain degree of confidence. Such a rule can reduce 402 testing time, as the run may finish in fewer than 20 trials, and should be considered in future studies. 403 Although the reduction or omission of a minimum trial number bears potential to reduce the testing 404 time further, it needs to be shown first that the algorithm performs well under these conditions 405 and, most importantly, large-scale studies need to show whether such a reduced or faster protocol is 406 appropriate to assess odor sensitivity in participants with odor abilities at the extremes (particularly insensitive/sensitive). 408

Inspection of the data showed that some staircase runs had not fully converged although 7 409 reversal points were reached. In these cases, participants exhibited a somewhat "fluctuating" response 410 behavior (or threshold) that caused the procedure to move in the direction of higher concentrations 411 throughout the experiment (see Figure A1 in the appendix and supplementary data for an example). 412 QUEST proved to behave more consistently, at least in some cases, by either converging to a threshold 413 or by reaching pen no. 1, which would then sometimes not be identified correctly. These interesting 414 differences between methods require further investigation to fully understand their cause and influence 415 on threshold estimates and, ultimately, diagnostics. 416

417 5. Conclusions

The present study compared the reliability of olfactory threshold estimates using two different 418 algorithms: a 1-up / 2-down staircase and a QUEST-based procedure. The measurement results of both 419 procedures showed considerable overlap. QUEST thresholds were more stable across sessions than the 420 staircase, as indicated by a smaller variability of test-retest differences and a higher correlation between 421 session estimates. QUEST offered a slightly reduced testing time, which may be further minimized 422 through a variable stopping criterion. Yet, QUEST also tended to present the highest concentration, 423 pen no. 1, more quickly than the staircase, which may induce more rapid adaptation and habituation 424 during the procedure and, eventually, produce biased results. Further research is needed to better 425 understand possible advantages and drawbacks of the QUEST procedure compared to the staircase 426 testing protocol. 427

428 6. Data and software availability

The data analyzed in this paper along with graphical representations of each individual threshold run are available from https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2548620. The authors provide a hosted service for running the presented experiments online at https://sensory-testing.org; the sources of this online implementation can be retrieved from https://github.com/hoechenberger/webtaste.

Author Contributions: conceptualization, R.H. and K.O.; programming, analysis, and visualization, R.H.; interpretation and writing, R.H. and K.O.; supervision and project administration, K.O.

Funding: The implementation of the online interface was supported by Wikimedia Deutschland, Stifterverband,
 and Volkswagen Foundation through an Open Science Fellowship granted to R.H.

437 Acknowledgments: The authors would like to thank Andrea Katschak for data collection.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funding agents had no role in the design of
 the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision
 to publish the results.

441 Appendix

Example threshold runs of the same participant: while the QUEST runs *did* converge, the staircase runs obviously did not fully converge although 7 reversal points were reached. Intriguingly, the staircase provided more consistent results (more similar thresholds across runs) than QUEST. We speculate that this participant exhibited a fluctuating response behavior during the staircase procedure.

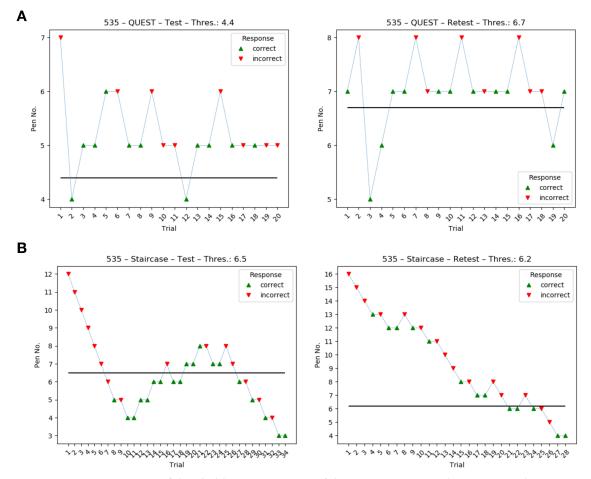


Figure A1. Comparison of threshold estimation runs of the same participant during Test and Retest sessions for QUEST (A) and the staircase (B).

446 References

447

- Boesveldt, S.; Bobowski, N.; McCrickerd, K.; Maître, I.; Sulmont-Rossé, C.; Forde, C.G. The changing role
 of the senses in food choice and food intake across the lifespan. *Food Quality and Preference* 2018, 68, 80–89.
 doi:10.1016/j.foodqual.2018.02.004.
 Rasmussen, V.F.; Vestergaard, E.T.; Heilesen, O.; Andersson, C.U.N.; Cichosz, S.L. Prevalence of
- Rasmussen, V.F.; Vestergaard, E.T.; Hejlesen, O.; Andersson, C.U.N.; Cichosz, S.L. Prevalence of
 taste and smell impairment in adults with diabetes: A cross-sectional analysis of data from the
 National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES). *Primary Care Diabetes* 2018, 12, 453–459.
 doi:10.1016/j.pcd.2018.05.006.
- Sullivan, R.M.; Wilson, D.A.; Ravel, N.; Mouly, A.M. Olfactory memory networks: from emotional learning
 to social behaviors. *Frontiers in Behavioral Neuroscience* 2015, 9. doi:10.3389/fnbeh.2015.00036.
- Li, W. Learning to smell danger: acquired associative representation of threat in the olfactory cortex.
 Frontiers in Behavioral Neuroscience 2014, *8*. doi:10.3389/fnbeh.2014.00098.
- Liu, G.; Zong, G.; Doty, R.L.; Sun, Q. Prevalence and risk factors of taste and smell impairment in a nationwide representative sample of the US population: a cross-sectional study. *BMJ Open* 2016, 6, e013246.
 doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2016-013246.
- Hummel, T.; Sekinger, B.; Wolf, S.; Pauli, E.; Kobal, G. 'Sniffin' Sticks': Olfactory Performance Assessed by
 the Combined Testing of Odour Identification, Odor Discrimination and Olfactory Threshold. *Chemical Senses* 1997, 22, 39–52. doi:10.1093/chemse/22.1.39.
- Hummel, T.; Kobal, G.; Gudziol, H.; Mackay-Sim, A. Normative data for the "Sniffin' Sticks" including
 tests of odor identification, odor discrimination, and olfactory thresholds: an upgrade based on a
 group of more than 3,000 subjects. *European Archives of Oto-Rhino-Laryngology* 2007, 264, 237–243.
 doi:10.1007/s00405-006-0173-0.
- Oleszkiewicz, A.; Schriever, V.A.; Croy, I.; Hähner, A.; Hummel, T. Updated Sniffin' Sticks normative data based on an extended sample of 9139 subjects. *European Archives of Oto-Rhino-Laryngology* 2019, 276, 719–728. doi:10.1007/s00405-018-5248-1.
- Haehner, A.; Mayer, A.M.; Landis, B.N.; Pournaras, I.; Lill, K.; Gudziol, V.; Hummel, T. High Test-Retest
 Reliability of the Extended Version of the "Sniffin' Sticks" Test. *Chemical Senses* 2009, 34, 705–711.
 doi:10.1093/chemse/bjp057.
- Lötsch, J.; Reichmann, H.; Hummel, T. Different Odor Tests Contribute Differently to the Evaluation of
 Olfactory Loss. *Chemical Senses* 2008, *33*, 17–21. doi:10.1093/chemse/bjm058.
- Wetherill, G.B.; Levitt, H. Sequential Estimation of Points on a Psychometric Function. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology* 1965, *18*, 1–10. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8317.1965.tb00689.x.
- Watson, A.B.; Pelli, D.G. Quest: A Bayesian adaptive psychometric method. *Perception & Psychophysics* **1983**, 33, 113–120. doi:10.3758/bf03202828.
- Höchenberger, R.; Ohla, K. Rapid Estimation of Gustatory Sensitivity Thresholds with SIAM and QUEST.
 Frontiers in Psychology 2017, *8*. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00981.
- Hardikar, S.; Höchenberger, R.; Villringer, A.; Ohla, K. Higher sensitivity to sweet and salty taste in obese
 compared to lean individuals. *Appetite* 2017, *111*, 158–165. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2016.12.017.
- Kobal, G.; Klimek, L.; Wolfensberger, M.; Gudziol, H.; Temmel, A.; Owen, C.M.; Seeber, H.; Pauli, E.;
 Hummel, T. Multicenter investigation of 1,036 subjects using a standardized method for the assessment of
 olfactory function combining tests of odor identification, odor discrimination, and olfactory thresholds. *European Archives of Oto-Rhino-Laryngology* 2000, 257, 205–211. doi:10.1007/s004050050223.
- Rumeau, C.; Nguyen, D.T.; Jankowski, R. How to assess olfactory performance with the Sniffin'
 Sticks test
 [®]. European Annals of Otorhinolaryngology, Head and Neck Diseases 2016, 133, 203–206.
 doi:10.1016/j.anorl.2015.08.004.
- 492 17. García-Pérez, M.A. Forced-choice staircases with fixed step sizes: asymptotic and small-sample properties.
 493 *Vision Research* 1998, *38*, 1861–1881. doi:10.1016/s0042-6989(97)00340-4.
- Altman, D.G.; Bland, J.M. Measurement in Medicine: The Analysis of Method Comparison Studies. *The Statistician* 1983, *32*, 307. doi:10.2307/2987937.

- Bland, J.M.; Altman, D. Statistical methods for assessing agreement between two methods of clinical
 measurement. *The Lancet* 1986, 327, 307–310. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(86)90837-8.
- Bland, J.M.; Altman, D.G. Measuring agreement in method comparison studies. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 1999, *8*, 135–160. doi:10.1191/096228099673819272.
- Carkeet, A. Exact Parametric Confidence Intervals for Bland-Altman Limits of Agreement. *Optometry and Vision Science* 2015, 92, e71–e80. doi:10.1097/opx.0000000000513.
- Peirce, J.W. PsychoPy—Psychophysics software in Python. *Journal of Neuroscience Methods* 2007, 162, 8–13.
 doi:10.1016/j.jneumeth.2006.11.017.
- Peirce, J.W. Generating stimuli for neuroscience using PsychoPy. *Frontiers in Neuroinformatics* 2008, 2.
 doi:10.3389/neuro.11.010.2008.
- Vallat, R. Pingouin: statistics in Python. Journal of Open Source Software 2018, 3, 1026.
 doi:10.21105/joss.01026.
- ⁵⁰⁸ 25. Oliphant, T.E. Python for Scientific Computing. *Computing in Science & Engineering* **2007**, *9*, 10–20. doi:10.1109/mcse.2007.58.
- Millman, K.J.; Aivazis, M. Python for Scientists and Engineers. *Computing in Science & Engineering* 2011, 13, 9–12. doi:10.1109/mcse.2011.36.
- Seabold, S.; Perktold, J. Statsmodels: Econometric and statistical modeling with Python. Proceedings of
 the 9th Python in Science Conference. SciPy society Austin, 2010, Vol. 57, p. 61.
- Hunter, J.D. Matplotlib: A 2D Graphics Environment. *Computing in Science & Engineering* 2007, *9*, 90–95.
 doi:10.1109/mcse.2007.55.
- ⁵¹⁶ 29. Croy, I.; Lange, K.; Krone, F.; Negoias, S.; Seo, H.S.; Hummel, T. Comparison between Odor Thresholds for
 ⁵¹⁷ Phenyl Ethyl Alcohol and Butanol. *Chemical Senses* 2009, *34*, 523–527. doi:10.1093/chemse/bjp029.
- Running, C.A. High false positive rates in common sensory threshold tests. *Attention, Perception, & Psychophysics* 2014, 77, 692–700. doi:10.3758/s13414-014-0798-9.