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## Cortical Tonotopic Map Changes in Humans Are Larger in Hearing Loss Than in Additional Tinnitus

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2 **Cortical Tonotopic Map Changes in Humans are Larger in Hearing Loss**  
3 **than in additional Tinnitus**

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5 *Short title*  
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7

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42 **Abstract**

43 Neural plasticity due to hearing loss results in tonotopic map changes. Several studies  
44 have suggested a relation between hearing-loss-induced tonotopic reorganization and  
45 tinnitus. This large functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) study on humans  
46 intended to clarify the relations between hearing loss, tinnitus and tonotopic  
47 reorganization. To determine the differential effect of hearing loss and tinnitus, both male  
48 and female participants with bilateral high frequency hearing loss, with and without  
49 tinnitus, and a control group were included. In a total of 90 participants, bilateral cortical  
50 responses to sound stimulation were measured with loudness matched pure-tone stimuli  
51 (0.25 - 8 kHz). In the bilateral auditory cortices, the high frequency sound-evoked  
52 activation level was higher in both hearing-impaired participant groups, compared to the  
53 control group. This was most prominent in the hearing loss group without tinnitus.  
54 Similarly, the tonotopic maps for the hearing loss without tinnitus group were  
55 significantly different from the controls, whereas the maps of those with tinnitus were  
56 not. These results show that higher response amplitudes and map reorganization are a  
57 characteristic of hearing loss, not of tinnitus. Both tonotopic maps and response  
58 amplitudes of tinnitus participants appear intermediate to the controls and hearing loss  
59 without tinnitus group. This observation suggests a connection between tinnitus and an  
60 incomplete form of central compensation to hearing loss, rather than excessive  
61 adaptation. One implication of this may be that treatments for tinnitus shift their focus  
62 towards enhancing the cortical plasticity on track, instead of reversing it.

63

64 Keywords: plasticity, auditory cortex, hearing loss, tinnitus, tonotopy

65

66 **Significance Statement**

67 Tinnitus, a common and potentially devastating condition, is the presence of a 'phantom'  
68 sound that often accompanies hearing loss. Hearing loss is known to induce plastic  
69 changes in cortical and sub-cortical areas. Although plasticity is a valuable trait that  
70 allows the human brain to rewire and recover from injury and sensory deprivation, it can  
71 lead to tinnitus as an unwanted side effect. In this large fMRI study, we provide evidence  
72 that tinnitus is related to a more conservative form of reorganization than in hearing loss  
73 without tinnitus. This result contrasts with the previous notion that tinnitus is related to  
74 excessive reorganization. As a consequence, treatments for tinnitus may need to enhance  
75 the cortical plasticity, rather than reversing it.

76

77

78 **Introduction**

79 Peripheral damage causes plasticity to occur in the area of the central nervous system that  
80 corresponds to the loss of function. In the auditory domain hearing loss instigates  
81 plasticity that results in changes in tonotopic maps, spontaneous activity, and neural  
82 synchronicity (Robertson and Irvine, 1989; Eggermont and Roberts, 2004). Tonotopic  
83 maps are a striking feature of the mammalian auditory cortex and underlie the  
84 representation of complex sounds such as speech. This spatial separation of frequencies  
85 originates in the inner ear, where high frequencies are processed in the base of the cochlea  
86 and low frequencies in the apex. This separation is maintained from the cochlea to the  
87 auditory cortex (Brugge and Merzenich, 1973; Rauschecker et al., 1995). The tonotopic  
88 maps can be disrupted by hearing loss, the most prevalent sensory deficit in the elderly  
89 population.

90

91 The presence of clinical hearing loss increases the chances of developing tinnitus, the  
92 perception of sound in the absence of an external source. To this date the specific  
93 pathophysiology involved in tinnitus remains elusive. However, the tinnitus pitch is often  
94 constrained to the frequency regions affected by hearing loss (Schecklmann et al., 2012;  
95 Shekhawat et al., 2014; Sereda et al., 2015; Keppler et al., 2017), or to the border of the  
96 intact hearing region (Moore et al., 2010). These findings suggest that hearing loss and  
97 tinnitus are intricately related. Excessive or conservative tonotopic reorganization may  
98 differentiate between hearing loss with and without tinnitus.

99

100 Several papers have suggested a relation between hearing loss-induced tonotopic  
101 reorganization and tinnitus (Robertson and Irvine, 1989; Muhlneckel et al., 1998;  
102 Rauschecker, 1999; Eggermont and Roberts, 2004; Norena and Eggermont, 2005;

103 Eggermont, 2006), but few have directly investigated this relation. In previous  
104 experimental work the observed tonotopic map plasticity was linked to hearing loss but  
105 not to tinnitus (Weisz et al., 2005; Wienbruch et al., 2006; McMahon et al., 2016). In  
106 humans, tonotopic map reorganization was reported in one MEG study on tinnitus. A  
107 positive correlation was reported between the strength of the perceived tinnitus and the  
108 extent of cortical reorganization (Muhlnickel et al., 1998). In contrast, other studies  
109 reported no tonotopic plasticity related to tinnitus in humans (Langers et al., 2012) or  
110 animals (Kotak et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2011). Instead, these animal studies identified  
111 enhanced cortical excitation or reduced cortical inhibition in animals with binaural  
112 hearing loss and behavioral signs of tinnitus. The release from inhibition in the hearing  
113 loss affected area connects the tinnitus pitch with increased neuronal excitability (Yang  
114 et al., 2011). In general, it is not well established that tonotopic map plasticity is a cortical  
115 characteristic of tinnitus.

116

117 Animal-models of cortical tonotopic reorganization indicate that receptive fields of  
118 neurons within the hearing loss affected area shift towards the intact receptors (Rajan  
119 and Irvine, 1998; Eggermont and Komiya, 2000; Irvine et al., 2001; Muhlau et al., 2006).  
120 This reorganization causes a downwards shift in the characteristic frequency of neurons,  
121 in both temporary and lasting hearing loss (Irvine et al., 2000; Norena and Eggermont,  
122 2005, 2006), thus altering the tonotopic map. In contrast, not all animal studies on hearing  
123 loss found a downwards shift in tonotopic maps, but instead reported increased  
124 excitability (Kotak et al., 2005) or decreased inhibition (Rajan, 1998) of the affected  
125 frequency regions. In humans, one MEG study reported a shift of the cortical responsive  
126 region towards the intact edge-frequency of the audiogram in hearing loss (Dietrich et al.,  
127 2001). In summary, different correlates of tonotopic plasticity have been reported in

128 literature on hearing loss and tinnitus, and the translation of animal-models to human  
129 imaging is sparse especially in tinnitus.

130

131 This large fMRI study examined the relation between hearing loss, tinnitus, and tonotopic  
132 reorganization with loudness-matched sound stimuli in humans. Inclusion of participants  
133 with high frequency hearing loss, both with and without tinnitus, allowed us to investigate  
134 to what extent reorganization is a consequence of hearing loss, and whether any  
135 reorganization is specifically related to tinnitus.

136

### 137 **Materials and methods**

138 The study was approved, in accordance with the principles of the declaration of Helsinki  
139 (2013), by the medical ethical committee of the University Medical Center Groningen, the  
140 Netherlands. Written informed consent was obtained and participants received  
141 reimbursement for their participation.

142

#### 143 **Participants**

144 A total of 113 participants, both male and female, were included in a larger MRI study. In  
145 90 participants, three complete functional runs were obtained. This resulted in 35  
146 participants with hearing loss and tinnitus, 17 participants with hearing loss without  
147 tinnitus, and 38 healthy controls without hearing loss or tinnitus (Table 1). None of the  
148 participants were using hearing aids to compensate their hearing loss, or ameliorate their  
149 tinnitus. Pure tone audiometry was performed in a sound attenuating booth to determine  
150 hearing thresholds for all participants at octave frequencies ranging from 0.125 to 8 kHz.  
151 Tinnitus pitch and loudness were estimated with a matching procedure. In addition, the  
152 participants completed the Tinnitus Handicap Inventory (McCombe et al., 2001), the

153 Tinnitus Reactions Questionnaire (Wilson et al., 1991), the Hyperacusis Questionnaire  
154 (Khalifa et al., 2002) and the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (Zigmond and Snaith,  
155 1983).

156

157 Group differences were tested with a Chi-square test of independence for the variable sex,  
158 and a three-group ANOVA followed-up by independent pairwise t-tests for the variable  
159 age. The questionnaire scores were assessed by means of a Kruskal-Wallis test and  
160 followed up by a pairwise Mann-Whitney test.

161

## 162 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

### 163 Data acquisition

164 All MRI data was obtained with a 3.0 T Philips Intera MRI scanner (Best, the Netherlands),  
165 at the Neuro Imaging Center Groningen. The scanner was equipped with a SENSE 32-  
166 channel head coil. Both structural and functional images were obtained for each  
167 participant. The structural image was a whole brain T1 weighted image (voxel size 1mm  
168 x 1mm x 1mm). The functional images were acquired in a sparse imaging sequence (Hall  
169 et al., 1999), as single shot EPI: 47 slices; no gap; scan matrix 72 x 67; descending slice  
170 order; TR of 10 seconds, TE 22 ms, Flip Angle 90°. For each participant a total of three  
171 runs, of each 65 EPI volumes, were acquisitioned.

172

### 173 Sound stimuli

174 During the fMRI experiments, loudness matched auditory stimuli were presented. Prior  
175 to the MRI session, participants performed a binaural loudness matching task in which  
176 the stimulus tones at 0.25, 0.5, 2, 4, and 8 kHz were all matched in perceived loudness to  
177 a 1-kHz tone at 40 dB SPL. This compensates for loudness distortion present in



178 sensorineural hearing loss (Moore and Glasberg, 2004). In addition, studies indicate that  
179 sound-evoked cortical activation correlates better with loudness rather than the level of  
180 sound stimuli (Hall et al., 2001; Langers et al., 2007). A two alternative-forced-choice, 1-  
181 up-1-down loudness matching procedure was used to approximate equal loudness  
182 sensation over all frequencies. An interleaved staircase method was applied, with a  
183 maximum of 15 trials per frequency, 7 reversals, and a step size of [10,5,5,3,3,1] dB SPL.  
184 This method yielded an equal loudness contour for each participant.

185

#### 186 Procedure MRI

187 The individually loudness-matched auditory stimuli were presented during the relatively  
188 silent scanner intervals in the sparse sampling protocol. The auditory stimuli were 245  
189 ms in length and were repeated at a 4-Hz repetition rate. Every volume acquisition  
190 consisted of 7.5 seconds of sound stimulation with one frequency, followed by 2 seconds  
191 of scanning. In addition to the sound stimuli, there was a silence condition. Stimulus  
192 conditions were presented binaurally in a quasi-random order via an MR Confon Sound  
193 System (Baumgart et al., 1998). Sound levels in the MRI were calibrated with a B&K 4134  
194 microphone, inserted in the ear of a KEMAR dummy.

195

196 To control for effects of attention, participants were instructed to perform a visual valence  
197 task similar to the task used by Langers and van Dijk (2012). Participants were instructed  
198 that the sound stimuli were irrelevant and asked to concentrate on the visual task.

199

## 200 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

### 201 Data Preprocessing

202 The fMRI data analysis was performed in Matlab (version 2018a), and with the aid of  
203 SPM12 (Statistical Parametric Mapping). Functional images were pre-processed,  
204 realigned, and co-registered to the anatomical image, then normalized to fit a standard  
205 brain (MNI), and resliced to a voxel-width of 2 mm. With the use of a Gaussian filter, the  
206 images were smoothed with a Gaussian kernel with full width-half maximum of 5mm.  
207 During preprocessing, a logarithmic transformation was applied to the fMRI volumes, to  
208 convert output to units of percentage signal change (Langers and van Dijk, 2012).

209

210 A second level analysis was performed to assess the response to sound, voxel-by-voxel,  
211 on group level, by means of an F-test on the 6 coefficients of the sound-frequency related  
212 regressors. A minimum cluster size of  $k > 1000$  was used to exclude smaller activation  
213 clusters of no interest to tonotopic mapping. The remaining activation clusters were used  
214 to construct a Region-of-Interest (ROI) for further analyses ( $n = 5141$  voxels).

215

216 Group comparisons

217 Group differences in median activation levels and corresponding Bayes Factors were  
218 calculated for each frequency. Differences in activation patterns between the groups were  
219 obtained by calculating the Euclidean distance per frequency, based on the mean signal  
220 change in all voxels:

221

$$222 \quad d_{ab} = \sqrt{(\sum_i^n (x_{ai} - x_{bi})^2)},$$

223

224 where  $a$  and  $b$  refer to the two groups being compared, and the sum is taken over all  
225  $n=5141$  voxels in the cortical regions of interest. This distance was computed for each  
226 stimulus frequency. It is a measure of the difference in activation patterns between the

227 groups *a* and *b*. The voxels were assigned to the different frequencies according to their  
228 peak activation responsiveness. Permutation testing was performed to assess statistical  
229 significance of the group differences.

230

### 231 Principal Component Analysis

232 In order to obtain a robust measure for tonotopic map changes, a principal component  
233 analysis was performed by means of singular value decomposition, without centering  
234 (similar to Langers et al. (2012a)). The participant matrices ( $5141 \times 6$ ) were concatenated  
235 to form an aggregate matrix *A* of  $462690 \times 6$  (90 participants  $\times$  5141 voxels  $\times$  6  
236 frequencies). The principal components ( $X_i$ ) were extracted from this matrix *A*.  
237 Frequency-wise analyses were performed on the aggregate matrix *A*, expressing  
238 percentage signal change instead of principal component loadings. The advantage of  
239 performing PCA on one concatenated matrix containing data of all participants is that all  
240 PCA derived component maps are based on the same principal components and can  
241 therefore be compared across participants (Langers et al., 2014).

242

243 Assessment of the statistical significance of these principal component scores was done  
244 by calculating, for each pair-wise group comparison, the Mahalanobis distance to quantify  
245 the magnitude of separation between the principal component clusters of the different  
246 groups. The method described here was coined by Goodpaster and Kennedy (Goodpaster  
247 and Kennedy, 2011), The Mahalanobis distance definition used was:  $D_M(PC1, PC2) =$   
248  $\sqrt{d' C_W^{-1} d}$ , based on the median voxel response per participant. With *d* expressed as the  
249 difference vector between the centroids of two groups according to  $d = [C_{PC12} -$   
250  $C_{PC11}, C_{PC22} - C_{PC21}]$ , and  $C_W^{-1}$  as the pooled variance covariance matrix between two  
251 groups. To test if the cluster separation was significant between groups, a Hotelling's  $T^2$

252 statistic was calculated, according to the following equation:  $T^2 = \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1 + n_2} d' C_W^{-1} d$ . The  $n$   
253 values indicate the sample sizes of the two groups. A larger  $T^2$  statistic indicates a larger  
254 distance between the PCA score centroids of the two groups. Next, an F-test was  
255 performed and the F-value, the ratio of between group versus within group variance,  
256 computed according to:  $F(p, n_1 + n_2 - p - 1) = \frac{n_1 + n_2 - p - 1}{p(n_1 + n_2 - 2)} T^2$ , with  $p$  being the  
257 discriminator variables (the two PC's). The critical F-value was determined in a look-up  
258 table, based on the numerator and denominator degrees of freedom at  $\alpha = 0.05$ . This  
259 critical F value determines if the variance between the centroids of two groups is  
260 significant. Finally, a p-value was calculated for each group comparison to determine the  
261 probability of this finding is small enough to reject the null-hypothesis, i.e. there are no  
262 differences in PC scores between the groups.

263

## 264 **Results**

265 To assess differences in cortical responsiveness to sounds, sparse-sampled sound-evoked  
266 cortical activation was obtained for 38 control participants, 17 participants with hearing  
267 loss but without tinnitus, and 35 participants with hearing loss and tinnitus (Table 1). The  
268 participant groups with hearing loss were well matched on hearing loss (Fig 1A). There  
269 are no significant differences between the hearing loss groups at the included octave  
270 frequencies, except at 500 Hz (Mann-Whitney test,  $p = 0.05$ ). The control group differs  
271 significantly from both hearing loss groups on all frequencies ( $p < 0.05$ ). Accordingly, the  
272 mean equal loudness contours of the stimuli indicate that both hearing loss groups  
273 needed higher sound intensities to perceive equal loudness at 4 and 8 kHz compared to  
274 the control group (Fig 1B).

275

276 The groups differ significantly in terms of sex distribution ( $p = 0.014$ ), with a significantly  
277 larger proportion of men in the tinnitus group. A significant difference in age ( $F_{14,72}, p$   
278  $< 0.001$ ) exists between the groups, which is due to the difference between the tinnitus  
279 and control group ( $p < 0.001$ ) and the hearing loss and control group ( $p < 0.001$ ). There is  
280 no significant difference in age ( $p = 0.529$ ) between the groups with hearing loss, with or  
281 without tinnitus. HADS subscales did not show significant group differences. HQ score  
282 distributions differed significantly between the groups ( $p = 0.001$ ). Post-hoc testing  
283 showed that the hearing loss and control groups did not differ significantly ( $p = 0.133$ ), in  
284 contrast to the tinnitus and hearing loss ( $p < 0.001$ ) and the tinnitus and control  
285 comparisons ( $p = 0.007$ ). In the hearing loss group with tinnitus, 5 participants had HQ  
286 scores that could indicate a reduced tolerance to sound, the exclusion of these participants  
287 did not alter any of the measures displayed and hence they were included in the analyses.

288

#### 289 Sound-evoked activation

290 To determine the sound-evoked cortical activation, regions of interest (ROIs) were  
291 constructed based on the overall significantly activated voxels in response to sound,  
292 across all 90 participants ( $FWE < 0.05$ , cluster size  $k > 1000$ ; Fig 2A). This was done by  
293 weighing all 6 sound-stimulus regressors equally in an omnibus F-test. All subsequent  
294 second-level analyses were performed on these 5141 voxels corresponding roughly to the  
295 bilateral auditory cortices. For each stimulus frequency, the average signal change was  
296 computed across all voxels in the ROI. The cortical response to 8 kHz is significantly larger  
297 in the tinnitus (Mann-Whitney test,  $p = 0.025$ ,  $Z = 2.25$ ,  $BF_{10} = 1.82$ ) and the hearing loss  
298 ( $p = 0.003$ ,  $Z = 2.94$ ,  $BF_{10} = 5.24$ ) groups compared to the control group, and this response  
299 is large in comparison to voxels with different preferred frequencies (Fig 2B).  
300 Nevertheless, the Bayes Factors ( $BF_{10}$ ) indicate that this effect is more robust for the

301 hearing loss group without tinnitus. A one-way ANOVA indicated that the differences in  
302 percentage signal change between participants was not explained by age ( $F(2,41) = 1.167$ ,  
303  $p = 0.341$ ), or sex differences ( $F(2,1) = 0.287$ ,  $p = 0.599$ ), but confirmed the significant  
304 differences for group ( $F(2,2) = 4.17$ ,  $p = 0.026$ ).

305

306 Similarity in cortical activation patterns was investigated by means of a Euclidean  
307 distance measure, calculated for all three group comparisons. A small Euclidean distance  
308 between two groups implies that their cortical activation patterns are similar. The cortical  
309 activations patterns of the group with tinnitus and the control group are most similar to  
310 each other, except at 8 kHz (Fig 2C). At 8 kHz, the activation pattern of the hearing loss  
311 group without tinnitus diverged strongly, and significantly ( $p < 0.0028$ ), from the control  
312 group. In the group with tinnitus a similar but non-significant shift was observed.

313

314 Additional analyses were performed to investigate if the highest responsiveness levels at  
315 8 kHz could be explained by the highest levels of stimulation. Due to the presence of high-  
316 frequency hearing loss, both hearing loss groups with and without tinnitus were  
317 stimulated at higher intensities in the high frequencies than the control group. For each  
318 participant, the percentage signal change in response to 8 kHz stimulation was plotted  
319 against the intensity of stimulation (Fig 2D). The highest stimulation levels occurred in  
320 the tinnitus group, whereas the highest percentage signal change occurred in the hearing  
321 loss group. The over-representation of high frequencies persists when only moderate  
322 hearing losses ( $\leq 60$  dB HL at 8 kHz) or mild stimuli levels ( $< +1SD$  control mean) are  
323 considered. This suggests that the higher levels of activation are not the direct result from  
324 higher levels of stimulation.

325

326 **Principal component analysis**

327 To obtain robust tonotopic response maps principal component analysis was used (PCA).  
328 The first and second principal component's response profiles, over all voxels, were  
329 obtained by an analysis that included all three participant groups (Fig 3A, B). We included  
330 the first two principal components, with the first principal component explaining 73% of  
331 the variance in the signal and the second component an additional 11%. The first principal  
332 component reflects overall responsiveness to sound stimulation (Fig 3A), as a direct  
333 comparison to the overall activation confirmed.

334  
335 The tonotopic maps could be inferred from the cascaded response profile of the second  
336 principal component, which shows a stage wise increase from negative loadings on low  
337 frequencies to positive loadings on high frequencies (Fig 3B). The aggregate responses  
338 were portioned into individual spatial response maps to compute the average group maps  
339 (Fig 3C). This showed that the high frequencies are more dominant in the spatial  
340 frequency group maps of both hearing loss groups, compared to the controls. This high  
341 frequency dominance is strongest for the hearing loss group without tinnitus (Fig 3C).

342  
343 Assessment of the differences in principle component scores of the first and the second  
344 principle component was done by calculating the Mahalanobis distance, Hotelling's  $T^2$ , F-  
345 statistics and p-values, see Table 2. These analyses showed that the principle component  
346 scores, both for the first and the second principle components, of the hearing loss group  
347 without tinnitus were significantly different from those of the control group, as indicated  
348 by the critical F value and p value ( $p = 0.012$ ) at a level of  $p$  for multiple comparisons  
349 ( $p=0.0167$ ). The difference between the principle component scores of the hearing loss  
350 group with tinnitus and the control group nearly reached significance ( $p=0.0175$ ),

351 whereas the hearing loss groups, with and without tinnitus, were not significantly  
352 different from one another ( $p=0.5864$ ).

353

## 354 **Discussion**

355 Our findings show that functional reorganization of the auditory cortex is less pronounced  
356 in hearing loss with tinnitus than in hearing loss without tinnitus. Both the response  
357 amplitudes and the tonotopic map characteristics in participants with tinnitus were  
358 intermediate to those of normal hearing control participants and hearing loss participants  
359 without tinnitus. Thus, the reorganization is a consequence of hearing loss and is more  
360 conservative in hearing loss with tinnitus. In other words, the presence of tinnitus in  
361 hearing loss appears not to relate to excessive cortical plasticity but rather to more  
362 diminished adaptation than in hearing loss alone.

363

364 The increased response amplitudes in both hearing loss groups were present only at 8  
365 kHz. At this frequency the hearing loss was largest, of the frequencies tested, for the  
366 majority of our hearing loss participants (75%). This is typical for (age-related) high-  
367 frequency sensorineural hearing loss (Gates and Mills, 2005). It is worth noting that the  
368 stimuli in our experiments were loudness matched across frequency for each participant  
369 individually. This loudness matching ensured that all stimuli were audible and perceived  
370 as equally loud, regardless of raised hearing thresholds. Consequently, the stimulus  
371 intensity levels at higher sound frequencies were increased in the hearing loss groups,  
372 with and without tinnitus, compared to the normal hearing participants (Fig 1). In the  
373 tinnitus group, this effect was not related to the tinnitus frequency. Even though most  
374 tinnitus participants had high frequency tinnitus (see Table 1), the tinnitus pitch was not  
375 significantly correlated with the frequency eliciting the highest percentage signal change



376 (R = -.217, p = 0.276). The lack of significant correlation suggests that the increased  
377 responsiveness at 8 kHz is not related to the tinnitus itself but rather to the accompanying  
378 hearing loss. This is in line with the finding that this increase in responsiveness is present  
379 in both the hearing loss group with and without tinnitus.

380

381 Generally, the stimulus levels were similar in the two hearing loss groups, although in  
382 some instances the intensities were larger in the hearing loss group with tinnitus (Fig 2C;  
383 data points at 80-110 dB SPL). Hence, it is quite remarkable that the cortical responses  
384 were largest in the hearing loss group without tinnitus, despite that the stimulus  
385 intensities did not surpass those of the hearing loss group with tinnitus. Similarly, the  
386 largest differences in the tonotopic map were found when contrasting the hearing loss  
387 group without tinnitus to the normal hearing participants. Conversely, the tonotopic map  
388 of the hearing loss participants with tinnitus was more similar to those of normal hearing  
389 participants (Fig 2 and 3). Since these differences cannot simply be accounted for by the  
390 differences in stimulus intensities, it may reflect different degrees of (re)organization of  
391 the auditory system for participants with hearing loss and tinnitus compared to those  
392 without tinnitus.

393

394 The majority of tinnitus related fMRI studies included participants with normal hearing  
395 thresholds or mild hearing losses. The results across these studies are variable. Gu et al.  
396 reported elevated auditory cortex activation in tinnitus participants with normal hearing  
397 (Gu et al., 2010). Unfortunately, their hyperacusis controlled design resulted in rather  
398 small participant groups (n = 7 with tinnitus, n = 5 without tinnitus). In a similar fMRI  
399 study by Langers et al., cortical response amplitudes were similar between normal  
400 hearing participants with and without tinnitus, except for a small region in the lateral

401 portion of left Heschl's gyrus (Langers et al., 2012). Similarly, Lanting et al. reported no  
402 differences in cortical response amplitudes in relation to unilateral tinnitus and mild to  
403 moderate hearing loss (Lanting et al., 2008). In contrast, Hofmeier et al. showed a  
404 pronounced reduction of the cortical responses in tinnitus participants with mild hearing  
405 loss in a study that excluded hyperacusis (Hofmeier et al., 2018).

406

407 The present study included participants with moderate to profound high-frequency  
408 hearing loss. In both hearing loss groups, with and without tinnitus, an increased  
409 responsiveness to 8-kHz stimulation was observed in comparison to the normal hearing  
410 control group. These findings are in line with Ghazaleh et al., whom reported no tinnitus-  
411 related differences in tonotopic map characteristics in participants with unilateral  
412 hearing loss and tinnitus (Ghazaleh et al., 2017). Boyen et al. also found no differences in  
413 cortical responses between hearing loss with and without tinnitus (Boyen et al., 2014).  
414 Even though the hearing loss in the Hofmeier study was very mild, up to 40 dB per  
415 frequency, the results are very similar to that of the current study. There is no obvious  
416 explanation for the variability across these studies, however, the studies with larger  
417 participant groups (Lanting et al., 2008; Langers et al., 2012; Hofmeier et al., 2018)  
418 suggest that response amplitudes are either similar or reduced in tinnitus.

419

420 The reduced sound-evoked cortical amplitudes in hearing loss with tinnitus (Fig 2 B;  
421 (Hofmeier et al., 2018)), in comparison to hearing loss without tinnitus, have been  
422 interpreted as a failure to increase response gain (Knipper et al., 2013; Hofmeier et al.,  
423 2018). This failure to increase response gain in the presence of heightened spontaneous  
424 activity presumably results in tinnitus. The cortical inability in tinnitus to adapt  
425 sufficiently to hearing loss finds a rationale in reduced levels of Arc, a cytoskeletal protein

426 involved in long-term synaptic plasticity (Nikolaienko et al., 2018), as reported in the  
427 auditory cortex of tinnitus animals (Tan et al., 2007; Rüttiger et al., 2013). Whereas,  
428 generally, Arc is mobilized after inducing hearing loss (Kapolowicz and Thompson, 2016),  
429 the expression of Arc is significantly reduced in animals that develop tinnitus (Rüttiger et  
430 al., 2013). These findings support the notion that at a cortical level tinnitus, in the  
431 presence of hearing loss, is associated with insufficient adaptation to hearing loss.

432

433 The enhanced representation of high frequencies in hearing loss appears to contrast with  
434 some animal models of tonotopic reorganization. Several animal studies reported the  
435 absence of high frequency responsiveness in the auditory cortex, and over-representation  
436 of low-frequencies in animals with induced high frequency hearing loss (Rajan and Irvine,  
437 1998; Irvine et al., 2000; Norena and Eggermont, 2005). The differences between these  
438 animal studies and our human data presumably relate to differences in techniques used  
439 to assess cortical neural activity. The animal models were based on best- or characteristic  
440 frequencies of cortical neurons, which are measured with near -threshold stimuli. This  
441 method is especially informative of the spatial localization and extent of the cortical area  
442 that preferentially responds to a certain frequency. In our study we measured BOLD-  
443 responses at supra-threshold levels, the BOLD response is informative of the cortical area  
444 that responds to sound stimulation as well as the intensity or amplitude of this response.  
445 Therefore, these findings may not contrast each other but instead investigate a different  
446 aspect of the cortical responses to sound.

447

448 Finally, although our results show group differences in the auditory cortex, it is not clear  
449 whether these differences arise due to changes in the function of the cochlea or the brain.  
450 Naturally, sensorineural hearing loss involves cochlear pathology. However, the

451 differences observed between the hearing-impaired participants with tinnitus and those  
452 without tinnitus may be due to both cochlear and central differences. Recent evidence  
453 suggests that tinnitus is associated with both reduced ribbon synapse density in the  
454 cochlea (Rüttiger et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014), and reduced ARC expression in the  
455 cortex (Rüttiger et al., 2013; Singer et al., 2013). With the measures of the present study,  
456 i.e. pure tone audiometry and MRI, it is not possible to identify differences in cochlear  
457 pathology between the hearing loss groups.

458

#### 459 Limitations

460 In earlier studies by Profant et al. the authors described that with increasing age, stronger  
461 sound evoked responses were observed in the auditory cortex (Profant et al., 2015;  
462 Profant et al., 2014). To investigate if the observed group differences in the present study  
463 were not caused by age differences, we plotted per group the age of participants against  
464 their high frequency evoked cortical activation to observe any correlation. This  
465 demonstrated that none of the groups showed any significant or near significant  
466 correlation between age and high-frequency evoked cortical activation levels (THL  $R = -$   
467  $.105$ ,  $p = 0.547$ ; HL  $R = .119$ ,  $p = 0.650$ ; CO  $R = 0.246$ ,  $p = 0.137$ ). However, it must be noted  
468 that our hearing loss group without tinnitus has fewer younger people compared to the  
469 hearing loss group with tinnitus.

470

471 In conclusion, hearing loss was associated with higher levels of sound-evoked cortical  
472 responsiveness and this increase was most pronounced in the group with hearing loss but  
473 without tinnitus. Both in terms of response amplitudes and tonotopic map characteristics,  
474 the participants with hearing loss and tinnitus appear intermediate to the controls and  
475 the hearing loss participants without tinnitus. This suggests that tinnitus is related to an

476 incomplete form of central compensation to hearing loss, rather than excessive  
477 adaptation. As a consequence, treatments for tinnitus may need to enhance the cortical  
478 plasticity, rather than reversing it.  
479

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678 Fig 1. Hearing characteristics of participants. (A) Audiometric thresholds used in the MRI  
679 scanning protocol are indicated here, with their corresponding SE. (B) During MRI  
680 scanning, stimuli were presented at loudness levels equal to the 40-phon loudness curve.  
681 All stimuli were thus matched in loudness to a 1-kHz pure tone at 40 dB SPL. The average  
682 levels of the stimuli are depicted per group, for the six frequencies presented along with  
683 their corresponding SE.

684

685 Fig 2. Sound-evoked activation levels. (A) Regions-of-interest based on overall activated  
686 voxels ( $n = 5141$ ) in response to sound, across all 90 participants. (B) Group level  
687 responsiveness profile, based on percentage signal change in ROI voxels in response to  
688 the six presented frequencies. A significant difference, at  $p < 0.05$ , in the responsiveness  
689 levels is observed for both hearing loss groups, with and without tinnitus, compared to  
690 the control group, in response to 8 kHz stimulation ( $p = 0.02$  and  $p = 0.003$ ). However,  
691 significance remains when corrected for multiple comparisons (Bonferroni corrected  
692  $0.05/6=0.008$ ), only for the hearing loss group without tinnitus. (C) Euclidian distance  
693 between response profiles of participant groups, per frequency. The distance was  
694 computed using the response amplitudes of all voxels as spatial response profile. A  
695 smaller distance indicates more similar voxel responses on that frequency. The statistical  
696 significance of the distances was determined by means of permutation testing ( $n =$   
697  $50000$ ). The distance between hearing loss without tinnitus and controls is significant for  
698 8 kHz ( $p < 0.0028$ , Bonferroni corrected). (D) Mean percentage signal change per group  
699 during 8 kHz stimulation. Per participant, the level of stimulation (in dB SPL) at 8 kHz is  
700 plotted against the mean percentage signal change over all voxels in the region-of-  
701 interest. Even though the absolute and mean highest percentage signal change occurred

702 in the hearing loss group, the highest levels of stimulation were applied in the tinnitus  
703 group.

704

705 Fig 3. Characterization of tonotopic organization by principal component analysis (PCA).  
706 (A) Frequency dependent response profile of the first and (B) second principal  
707 component. (C) Spatial frequency group maps, based on the component strength of the  
708 second principal component. Positive component scores indicate high frequency  
709 responsiveness (i.e. more responsive to high than to low frequencies), whereas a negative  
710 score indicates responsiveness to low frequencies. A Hotelling's  $T_2$  statistic was  
711 calculated to compare the principal component clusters and indicated a statistically  
712 significant difference between the second principle component scores of the hearing loss  
713 group without tinnitus compared those of the control group ( $p = 0.012$ ).

714

715 Table 1. Demographics and questionnaire scores of the three participants groups in this  
716 fMRI study.

717

718 Table 2. Summary of pair-wise cluster separation of the first and second component given  
719 by Mahalanobis distances, Hotelling's  $T_2$  statistic, F0-statistics and p-values.