

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, Germany² Psychophysiology of Food Perception, German Institute of Human Nutrition Potsdam-Rehbrücke, Nuthetal, Germany

* Correspondence: k.ohla@fz-juelich.de

Version May 15, 2019 submitted to *Nutrients*

Abstract: The ability to smell is crucial for most species as it enables the detection of environmental 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 for a continuous effort to improve tools for quick and reliable assessment of olfactory function. Odor-dispensing pens, called Sniffin' Sticks, are an established method to deliver olfactory stimuli 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 exhibited considerable overlap with QUEST displaying slightly higher test-retest correlations, less variability between measurements, and reduced testing duration. Notably, participants were more 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 optimize the procedure for assessment of olfactory performance.

Keywords: smell sensitivity; olfaction; threshold; staircase; QUEST

1. Introduction

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

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

34 scores and allows to reliably diagnose olfactory impairment. Notably, threshold, discrimination, and
35 identification measure different facets of olfactory function [9]. The threshold, however, has been found
36 to explain a larger portion of variability in TDI scores than the two other measures [10]. Moreover, the
37 discrimination and identification tests follow relatively simple test protocols in which all stimuli are
38 presented only once and in a pre-defined order. The threshold, in comparison, is of a more complex
39 nature, and the method, therefore provides the largest potential for possible improvements. It follows
40 a so-called adaptive method, specifically, a "transformed" 1-up / 2-down staircase procedure [11]. The
41 procedure first assesses a starting concentration and then moves on to the "actual" threshold estimation,
42 during which fixed step widths are used: for each incorrect answer the stimulus concentration is
43 increased by one step, and for two consecutive correct answers the stimulus concentration is decreased
44 by one step [6].

45 Since the 1-up / 2-down staircase was first conceived, several new approaches to threshold
46 estimation, including Bayesian methods, have been published. Bayesian methods estimate parameters
47 of the psychometric function (e.g., threshold or slope) using Bayesian inference: based on prior
48 assumptions about the true parameter value, the stimulus concentration to be presented next is
49 selected such that the expected information gain (about the parameter) is maximized. The first
50 published Bayesian adaptive psychometric method is the QUEST procedure [12], which is still popular
51 today. QUEST has two distinct properties that set it apart from the staircase described above. First, it
52 always considers the entire response history and is not solely based on the past one or two trials to
53 select the optimal stimulus concentration to be presented next. Second, QUEST is not tied to a fixed
54 step width, allowing it to traverse through a large range of concentrations more quickly.

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

60 QUEST has been shown to converge reliably and quickly in gustatory threshold estimations
61 [13,14]. Inspired by these results we set out to design and test a QUEST-based procedure for olfactory
62 threshold estimation and to compare its performance with that of the established staircase method.

63 2. Materials and Methods

64 2.1. Participants

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

74 2.2. Stimuli

75 Stimuli were so-called *Sniffin' Sticks* (Burghart, Wedel, Germany; [6]), felt-tip pens filled with
76 an odorant. The Sniffin' Sticks test battery consists of three subtests: an odor threshold test, an odor
77 detection test, and an odor identification test. The threshold test comprises 48 pens. 16 pens are
78 filled with different concentrations of 2-phenylethanol (rose-like smell) ranging from 4% to approx.
79 1.22×10^{-4} % (a geometric sequence with the common ratio of 2, so the first pen contained a 4%
80 dilution, the second $\frac{1}{2}$ % = 2%; the third $\frac{1}{4}$ % = 1%, and so on), dissolved in 4% propylene glycol, an

odorless solvent. Note that in this test, the 1st pen contains the highest, the 16th pen the lowest odorant concentration. The remaining 32 pens contain 4% propylene glycol and serve as blanks. The pens are arranged in triplets such that each triplet contains one pen with odorant and two blanks. The detection 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.

2.3. Procedure

2.3.1. Experimental sessions

Participants were invited for two experimental sessions – the Test and Retest session for the odor threshold. To ensure similar testing conditions across sessions, participants were instructed to refrain from eating and drinking anything but water 30 min before visiting the laboratory. Further, 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 interval of more than 7.0 days. In each session, olfactory detection thresholds were determined using two distinct algorithms, staircase and QUEST, described below. The order of algorithms was balanced across participants and kept constant for Test and Retest within each participant. Additionally, odor discrimination and odor identification ability were measured at the end of one session following the standard *Sniffin' Sticks* protocol (Burghart, Wedel, Germany).

2.3.2. Stimulus presentation

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

These triangle tests yield a probability of $\frac{1}{3}$ 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 $\frac{1}{4}$.

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.

127 Concentration was increased in steps of two (e.g., from pen 16 to 14) for each incorrect response. Once
 128 participants provided a correct response, the same triplet was presented again. If the response was
 129 incorrect, the concentration was increased again by two steps as before. However, if the triplet was
 130 correctly identified a second time, that dilution step served as the starting concentration.

131 Contrary to the standard protocol, where testing would then continue without interruption,
 132 our participants were granted a short break of approx. 1 min before the actual threshold estimation
 133 started with the presentation of the triplet containing the starting concentration. The threshold was
 134 determined in a 1-up / 2-down staircase procedure: odor concentration was increased by one step after
 135 each incorrect response (1-up), and decreased by one step after two consecutive correct responses at
 136 the same concentration (2-down). This kind of staircase targets a threshold of 70.71 % correct responses
 137 ([11]; but cf. [17], who found small deviations from this value). That is, if presented repeatedly with a
 138 stimulus at threshold intensity, participants would be able to correctly identify it in about 71 out of 100
 139 cases. The probability of providing *two consecutive* correct responses purely by guessing is $\frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{9}$.
 140 The procedure finishes after 7 reversal points were reached. The final threshold estimate is the mean of
 141 the last 4 reversal concentrations. This procedure is referred to simply as *staircase* throughout the this
 142 manuscript.

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):

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

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

155 Notably, QUEST updates its knowledge on the expected threshold after each response and
 156 proposes the concentration to present in the next trial such that it maximizes the expected information
 157 gain about the "true" threshold. As the set of concentrations was discrete and limited to 16, QUEST
 158 might propose concentrations other than those contained in the test set. In this case, the software
 159 selects the triplet with the concentration closest to the one proposed. In contrast to the staircase, where
 160 the concentration was always decreased or increased by a single step after the starting concentration
 161 had been determined, the step width was not fixed in QUEST. For example, QUEST might step up 3
 162 concentrations in one trial, step down 2 in the next, and present the exact same concentration again in
 163 the following trial. Whenever the same concentration had been presented on two consecutive trials,
 164 the concentration for the next trial was decreased if both responses were correct, and increased if both
 165 responses were incorrect. QUEST might suggest to present concentrations outside of the range of
 166 available dilution steps. Therefore we set up the algorithm such that, whenever the presentation of

167 a pen < 1 or > 16 was suggested, we would instead present pen no. 1 and 16, respectively. QUEST
168 would be informed about the actually presented pen concentration, and incorporate this information
169 into the threshold estimate. Note, however, that final threshold estimates outside the concentration
170 range could still occur occasionally, and needed to be dealt with accordingly; see the *Data cleaning*
171 paragraph in the next section for details.

172 The procedure ended after 20 trials. The final threshold estimate is the mean of the posterior
173 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

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

180 Data cleaning

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

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

202 Test-Retest Reliability

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

213 Although correlation and regression analyses are widely used to assess test-retest reliability and
214 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 $\bar{d} \pm 1.96 \times SD$. 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 $1.96 \times SD$, 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

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

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

237 Comparison between procedures

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

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

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

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.

257 QUEST measurements can be expected to fall into this interval, and narrower limits indicate a better
258 agreement across the measurement results produced by both procedures. Finally, we derived 95 %
259 confidence intervals for these limits, as suggested in [20] (section 5.1, equation 5.10).

260 Software

261 The experiments were run via PsychoPy 1.85.4 [22,23] running on Python 2.7.14 ([https://www.
262 python.org](https://www.python.org)) installed via the Miniconda distribution (<https://conda.io/miniconda.html>) on Windows
263 7 (Microsoft Corp., Redmond, WA/USA). All analyses were carried out with Python 3.7.1, running on
264 macOS 10.14.2 (Apple Inc., Cupertino, CA/USA). We used the following Python packages: correlation
265 coefficients, Bland-Altman and Q-Q plots were derived via pingouin 0.2.2 [24]; confidence intervals
266 for the Bland-Altman plots were calculated with pyCompare 1.2.3 ([https://github.com/jaketmp/
267 pyCompare](https://github.com/jaketmp/pyCompare)); Shapiro-Wilk statistics were calculated with SciPy 1.2.1 [25,26]; linear regression models
268 were estimated using statsmodels 0.9.0 [27]; and box plots and correlation plots were created with
269 seaborn 0.9.0 (<https://seaborn.pydata.org>) and matplotlib 3.0.2 [28].

270 3. Results

271 3.1. Odor discrimination and identification

272 The average test score for odor discrimination was 13.3 (SD = 1.5, range: 11–16; $N = 35$), and
273 for odor identification 13.0 (SD = 1.6, range: 11–16; $N = 36$). When accumulated with the staircase
274 threshold estimates from the Test and Retest sessions, we observed TDI scores of 33.34 (SD = 3.8; range:
275 26.5–43) and 33.64 (SD = 3.8; range: 26.75–41.75), respectively. Individual as well as cumulative scores
276 indicate a below average ability to smell (roughly around the 25th percentile) in our sample compared
277 to recent normative data from over 9,000 subjects [8].

278 3.2. Starting concentrations

279 The average starting concentration was pen no. 9.9 (SD = 4.2, range: 1–16) for the Test and
280 9.6 (SD = 4.1, range: 1–16) for the Retest session of the staircase. The average difference in starting
281 concentrations between sessions was 4.9 (SD = 4.0, range: 0–15). In comparison, we used a slightly
282 higher, fixed starting concentration of pen no. 7 for QUEST.

283 3.3. Test duration

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

292 3.4. Test-Retest Reliability

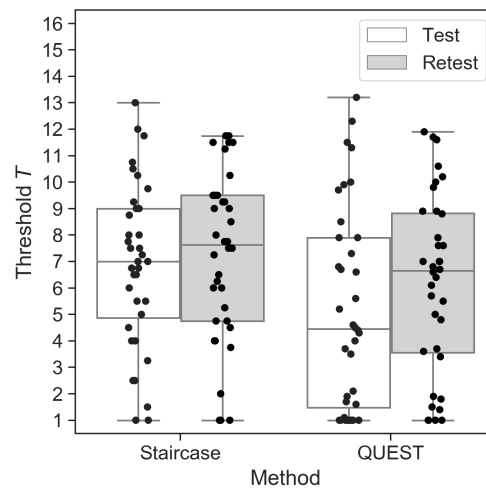


Figure 1. Threshold estimates for the staircase and QUEST procedures during Test and Retest sessions. Each dot represents one participant. Horizontal lines show the median values, and whisker lengths represent $1.5 \times$ inter-quartile range.

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

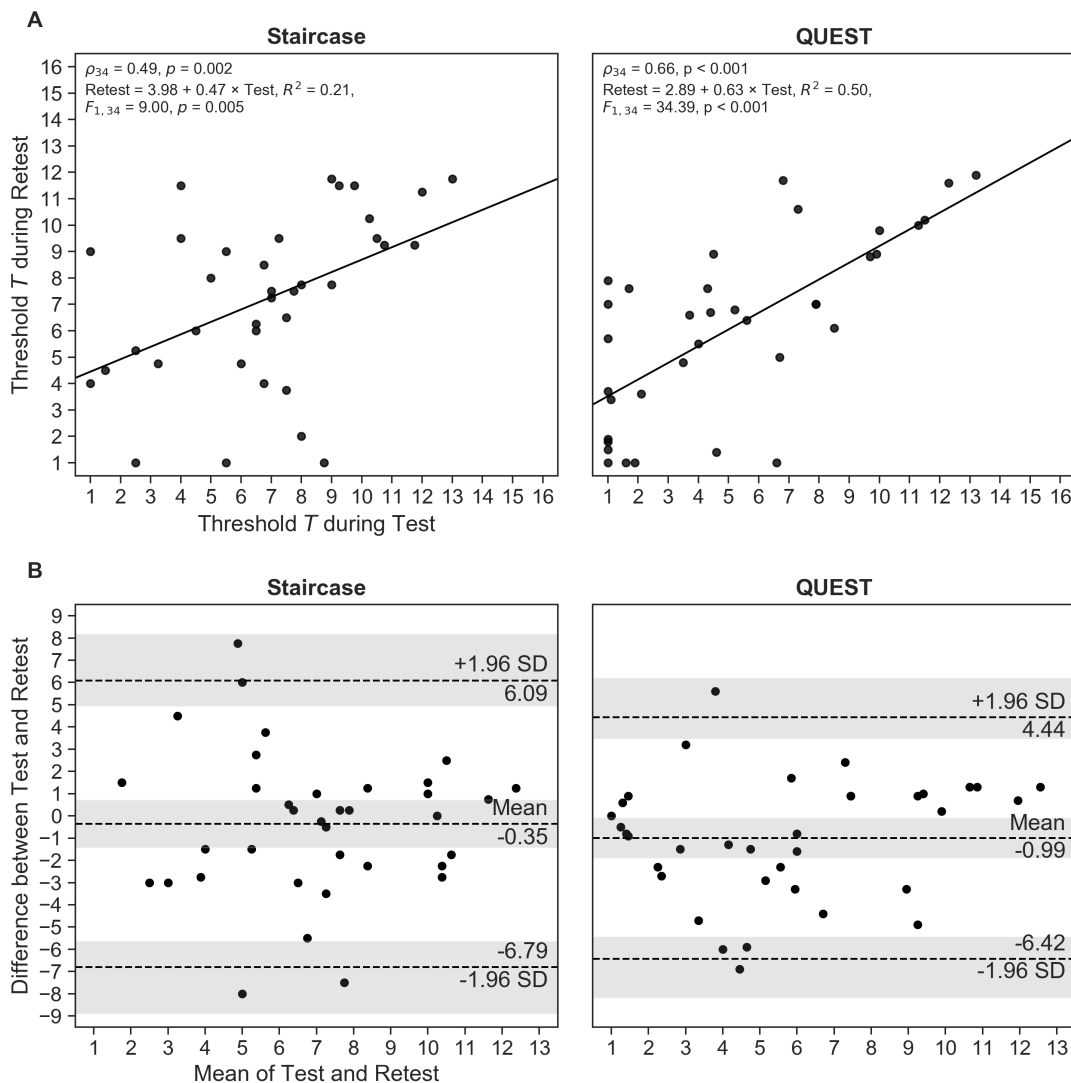


Figure 2. (A) Correlation between Test and Retest threshold estimates for the staircase and QUEST procedures. (B) Bland-Altman plots showing mean differences between Test and Retest and limits of agreement corresponding to 95 % confidence intervals (CIs) as mean $\pm 1.96 \times \text{SD}$. The shaded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

297 The Test and Retest thresholds correlated significantly for both procedures, with QUEST
 298 demonstrating a stronger relationship between measurements than the staircase (staircase: $\rho_{34} = 0.49$,
 299 $p < 0.01$; QUEST: $\rho_{34} = 0.66, p < 0.001$; Fig. 2A).

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

311 $M_{\Delta T, \text{QUEST}} = -0.99 [-1.89, -0.08]$). This systematic negative shift indicates that participants, on
312 average, reached higher T units in the second session than in the first. The differences between
313 Test and Retest measurements for 3 (staircase) and 2 participants (QUEST), respectively, fell outside
314 their respective limits of agreement, which corresponds to the expected proportion of 5% of outliers
315 ($3/36 = 8.3\%$; $2/36 = 5.6\%$), demonstrating the appropriateness of the estimated limits. Considering
316 the confidence intervals of the limits of agreement, an equal number of measurement differences (4)
317 fell outside the predicted range for both procedures.

318 To test whether the time between Test and Retest sessions might be linked to the observed
319 differences between Test and Retest threshold estimates, we computed correlations between those
320 measures. We found no relationship for either method (staircase: $\rho_{34} = -0.12$, $p = 0.50$; QUEST:
321 $\rho_{34} = 0.03$, $p = 0.85$).

322 3.5. Comparison between procedures

323 Although the threshold estimates, averaged across sessions, for the staircase were significantly
324 higher than those for QUEST (staircase: $M = 7.0$, $SD = 2.7$; QUEST: $M = 5.7$, $SD = 3.3$; $W = 101.0$,
325 $p < 0.001$; Fig. 3 A), we found a strong correlation between the procedures ($\rho_{34} = 0.80$, $p < 0.001$;
326 Fig. 3 B). The regression slope was close to 1, providing an indication of agreement across procedures.
327 The Bland-Altman plot based on the session means (Fig. 3 C) shows a systematic difference between
328 both procedures; specifically, QUEST thresholds were, on average, 1.38 [0.78, 1.97] T units smaller
329 than the staircase estimates (95% CIs in brackets). The limits of agreement reached from -2.20
330 $[-3.37, -1.56]$ to 4.95 [4.31, 6.12], meaning the difference between the two methods will fall into this
331 range for 95% of measurements. Only for 1 participant the observed differences between staircase
332 and QUEST fell outside the limits of agreement ($1/36 = 2.8\%$; when considering the CIs of the limits, 3
333 participants fell outside the expected range ($3/36 = 8.3\%$)).

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

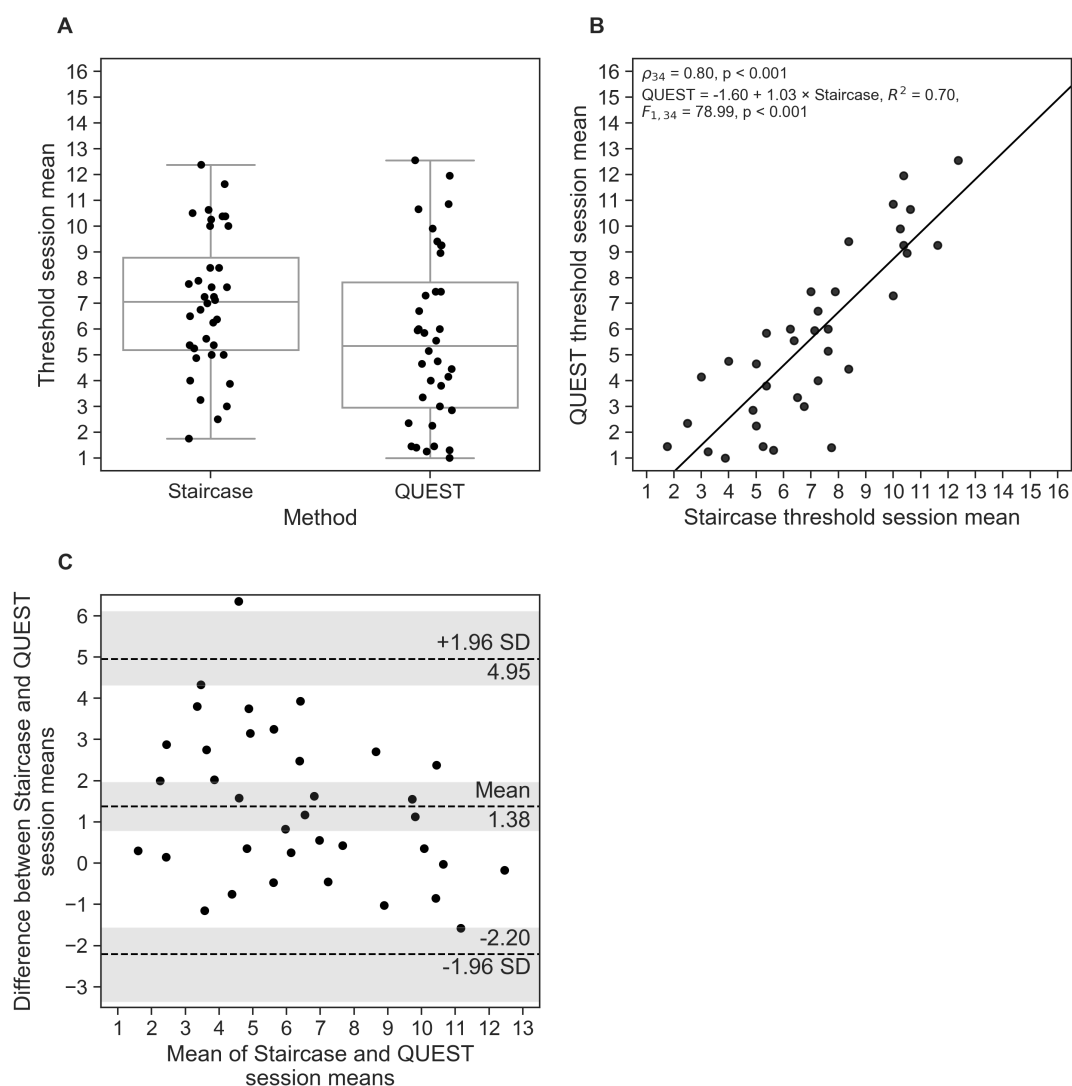


Figure 3. (A) Mean threshold estimates, averaged across Test and Retest sessions for the staircase and QUEST procedures. Horizontal lines show the median values and Whisker lengths represent $1.5 \times$ inter-quartile range. (B) Correlation between mean staircase and QUEST threshold estimates. (C) Bland-Altman 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

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

344 Test-retest reliability was assessed using multiple approaches. Comparison of Test and Retest
 345 thresholds revealed a small yet significant mean difference for QUEST: threshold estimates during
 346 Retest were higher than in the Test, indicating an increase in participants' sensitivity. [6] reported
 347 a similar effect. However, with a mean difference of approx. 1 *T* unit or pen number, the
 348 practical relevance of this effect is debatable, even more so when considering the large variability of
 349 measurement results within individual participants.

350 Following common practice of establishing test-retest reliability of olfactory thresholds (see e.g.
351 [6,9,29]), we calculated correlations between Test and Retest sessions. The correlation coefficient for
352 QUEST ($\rho = 0.66$) indicated solid, but not exceptionally great test-retest reliability. Reliability of the
353 staircase procedure was only moderate ($\rho = 0.49$) and lower than reported in previous studies for
354 *n*-butanol ($r = 0.61$; [6]) and 2-phenylethanol ($r = 0.92$; [9]) thresholds.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

417 5. Conclusions

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

428 6. Data and software availability

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

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

435 **Funding:** The implementation of the online interface was supported by Wikimedia Deutschland, Stifterverband,
436 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.

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

441 **Appendix**

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

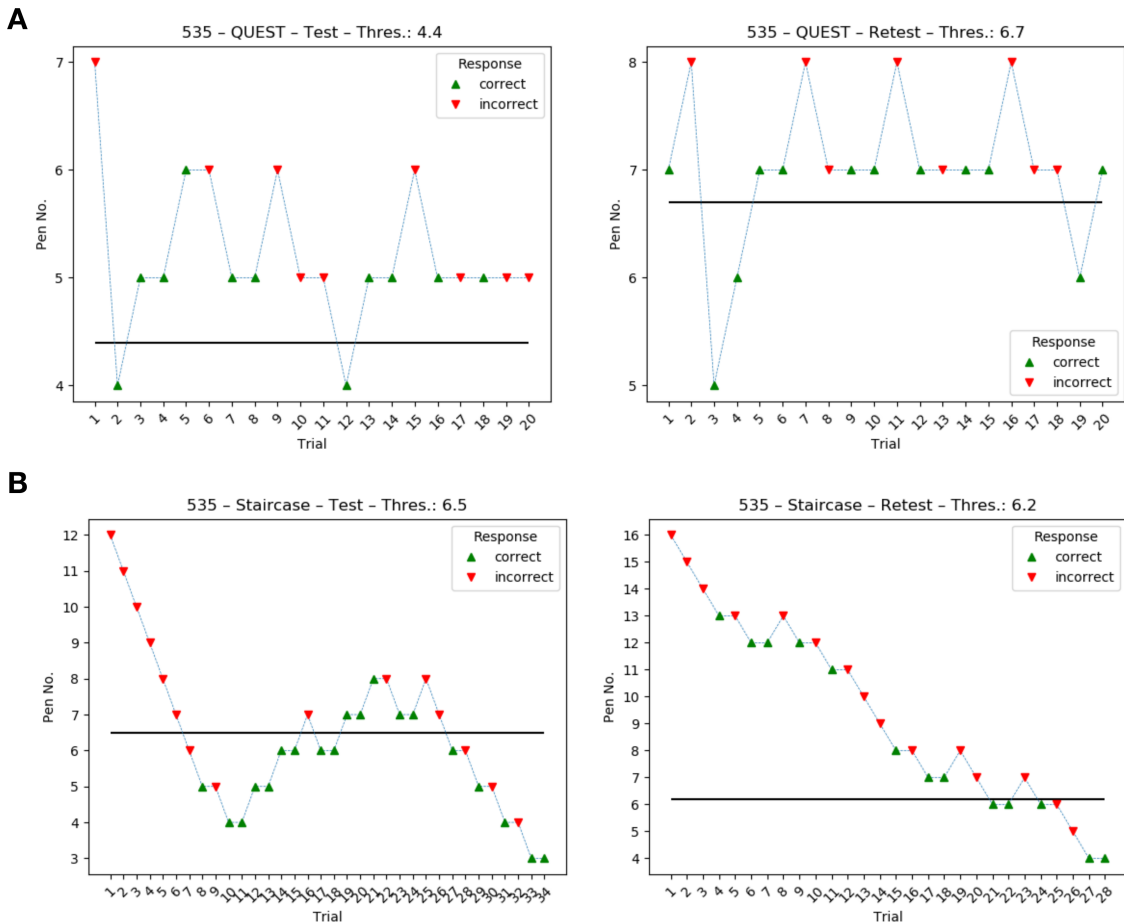


Figure A1. Comparison of threshold estimation runs of the same participant during Test and Retest sessions for QUEST (A) and the staircase (B).

References

446

447

- 448 1. Boesveldt, S.; Bobowski, N.; McCrickerd, K.; Maître, I.; Sulmont-Rossé, C.; Forde, C.G. The changing role
449 of the senses in food choice and food intake across the lifespan. *Food Quality and Preference* **2018**, *68*, 80–89.
450 doi:10.1016/j.foodqual.2018.02.004.
- 451 2. Rasmussen, V.F.; Vestergaard, E.T.; Hejlesen, O.; Andersson, C.U.N.; Cichosz, S.L. Prevalence of
452 taste and smell impairment in adults with diabetes: A cross-sectional analysis of data from the
453 National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES). *Primary Care Diabetes* **2018**, *12*, 453–459.
454 doi:10.1016/j.pcd.2018.05.006.
- 455 3. Sullivan, R.M.; Wilson, D.A.; Ravel, N.; Mouly, A.M. Olfactory memory networks: from emotional learning
456 to social behaviors. *Frontiers in Behavioral Neuroscience* **2015**, *9*. doi:10.3389/fnbeh.2015.00036.
- 457 4. Li, W. Learning to smell danger: acquired associative representation of threat in the olfactory cortex.
458 *Frontiers in Behavioral Neuroscience* **2014**, *8*. doi:10.3389/fnbeh.2014.00098.
- 459 5. Liu, G.; Zong, G.; Doty, R.L.; Sun, Q. Prevalence and risk factors of taste and smell impairment in a
460 nationwide representative sample of the US population: a cross-sectional study. *BMJ Open* **2016**, *6*, e013246.
461 doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2016-013246.
- 462 6. Hummel, T.; Sekinger, B.; Wolf, S.; Pauli, E.; Kobal, G. 'Sniffin' Sticks': Olfactory Performance Assessed by
463 the Combined Testing of Odour Identification, Odor Discrimination and Olfactory Threshold. *Chemical*
464 *Senses* **1997**, *22*, 39–52. doi:10.1093/chemse/22.1.39.
- 465 7. Hummel, T.; Kobal, G.; Gudziol, H.; Mackay-Sim, A. Normative data for the "Sniffin' Sticks" including
466 tests of odor identification, odor discrimination, and olfactory thresholds: an upgrade based on a
467 group of more than 3,000 subjects. *European Archives of Oto-Rhino-Laryngology* **2007**, *264*, 237–243.
468 doi:10.1007/s00405-006-0173-0.
- 469 8. Oleszkiewicz, A.; Schriever, V.A.; Croy, I.; Hähner, A.; Hummel, T. Updated Sniffin' Sticks normative
470 data based on an extended sample of 9139 subjects. *European Archives of Oto-Rhino-Laryngology* **2019**,
471 *276*, 719–728. doi:10.1007/s00405-018-5248-1.
- 472 9. Haehner, A.; Mayer, A.M.; Landis, B.N.; Pournaras, I.; Lill, K.; Gudziol, V.; Hummel, T. High Test-Retest
473 Reliability of the Extended Version of the "Sniffin' Sticks" Test. *Chemical Senses* **2009**, *34*, 705–711.
474 doi:10.1093/chemse/bjp057.
- 475 10. Lötsch, J.; Reichmann, H.; Hummel, T. Different Odor Tests Contribute Differently to the Evaluation of
476 Olfactory Loss. *Chemical Senses* **2008**, *33*, 17–21. doi:10.1093/chemse/bjm058.
- 477 11. Wetherill, G.B.; Levitt, H. Sequential Estimation of Points on a Psychometric Function. *British Journal of*
478 *Mathematical and Statistical Psychology* **1965**, *18*, 1–10. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8317.1965.tb00689.x.
- 479 12. Watson, A.B.; Pelli, D.G. Quest: A Bayesian adaptive psychometric method. *Perception & Psychophysics*
480 **1983**, *33*, 113–120. doi:10.3758/bf03202828.
- 481 13. Höchenberger, R.; Ohla, K. Rapid Estimation of Gustatory Sensitivity Thresholds with SIAM and QUEST.
482 *Frontiers in Psychology* **2017**, *8*. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00981.
- 483 14. Hardikar, S.; Höchenberger, R.; Villringer, A.; Ohla, K. Higher sensitivity to sweet and salty taste in obese
484 compared to lean individuals. *Appetite* **2017**, *111*, 158–165. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2016.12.017.
- 485 15. Kobal, G.; Klimek, L.; Wolfensberger, M.; Gudziol, H.; Temmel, A.; Owen, C.M.; Seeber, H.; Pauli, E.;
486 Hummel, T. Multicenter investigation of 1,036 subjects using a standardized method for the assessment of
487 olfactory function combining tests of odor identification, odor discrimination, and olfactory thresholds.
488 *European Archives of Oto-Rhino-Laryngology* **2000**, *257*, 205–211. doi:10.1007/s004050050223.
- 489 16. Rumeau, C.; Nguyen, D.T.; Jankowski, R. How to assess olfactory performance with the Sniffin'
490 Sticks test ®. *European Annals of Otorhinolaryngology, Head and Neck Diseases* **2016**, *133*, 203–206.
491 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.
- 494 18. Altman, D.G.; Bland, J.M. Measurement in Medicine: The Analysis of Method Comparison Studies. *The*
495 *Statistician* **1983**, *32*, 307. doi:10.2307/2987937.

- 496 19. Bland, J.M.; Altman, D. Statistical methods for assessing agreement between two methods of clinical
497 measurement. *The Lancet* **1986**, *327*, 307–310. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(86)90837-8.
- 498 20. Bland, J.M.; Altman, D.G. Measuring agreement in method comparison studies. *Statistical Methods in*
499 *Medical Research* **1999**, *8*, 135–160. doi:10.1191/096228099673819272.
- 500 21. Carkeet, A. Exact Parametric Confidence Intervals for Bland-Altman Limits of Agreement. *Optometry and*
501 *Vision Science* **2015**, *92*, e71–e80. doi:10.1097/OPX.0000000000000513.
- 502 22. Peirce, J.W. PsychoPy—Psychophysics software in Python. *Journal of Neuroscience Methods* **2007**, *162*, 8–13.
503 doi:10.1016/j.jneumeth.2006.11.017.
- 504 23. Peirce, J.W. Generating stimuli for neuroscience using PsychoPy. *Frontiers in Neuroinformatics* **2008**, *2*.
505 doi:10.3389/neuro.11.010.2008.
- 506 24. Vallat, R. Pingouin: statistics in Python. *Journal of Open Source Software* **2018**, *3*, 1026.
507 doi:10.21105/joss.01026.
- 508 25. Oliphant, T.E. Python for Scientific Computing. *Computing in Science & Engineering* **2007**, *9*, 10–20.
509 doi:10.1109/mcse.2007.58.
- 510 26. Millman, K.J.; Aivazis, M. Python for Scientists and Engineers. *Computing in Science & Engineering* **2011**,
511 *13*, 9–12. doi:10.1109/mcse.2011.36.
- 512 27. Seabold, S.; Perktold, J. Statsmodels: Econometric and statistical modeling with Python. Proceedings of
513 the 9th Python in Science Conference. SciPy society Austin, 2010, Vol. 57, p. 61.
- 514 28. Hunter, J.D. Matplotlib: A 2D Graphics Environment. *Computing in Science & Engineering* **2007**, *9*, 90–95.
515 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.
- 518 30. Running, C.A. High false positive rates in common sensory threshold tests. *Attention, Perception, &*
519 *Psychophysics* **2014**, *77*, 692–700. doi:10.3758/s13414-014-0798-9.