

Reverberation exacerbates effects of interruption on auditory spatial selective attention

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1 Everyday listening requires focusing on one talker while ignoring competing sounds,
2 a process challenged by reverberation and unexpected distractions. Here, we asked
3 whether reverberation decreases effects of distractions by reducing the salience of new
4 onsets, or compounds disruption by increasing task difficulty. Across five online
5 experiments, participants recalled spatialized syllable streams presented with or
6 without interrupters under pseudo-anechoic and reverberant conditions. Interrupters
7 consistently impaired recall, especially the syllables following the interrupter. For the
8 syllable immediately after the interruption, this effect was larger in reverberation than
9 in anechoic conditions. These results demonstrate that distractions are especially
10 disruptive in reverberant settings.

11 **1. Introduction**

12 Everyday listening often requires focusing on one talker while ignoring competing
13 sounds. This requires segregating concurrent sound sources into perceptually distinct
14 streams [1–4] in order to focus and maintain attention on the target stream [5,6]. Spatial
15 cues—especially interaural time and level differences—can facilitate stream
16 segregation and support spatial attention to a stream (filtering out streams from other
17 directions [7,8]). Yet in real-world settings, reverberation often degrades the cues that
18 listeners depend on for stream segregation and spatial perception, making the cocktail
19 party problem even more challenging [9].

20 Reverberation is ubiquitous, from classrooms to concert venues. In reverberant
21 environments, the ears receive a mix of direct sound and reflected energy [10,11]. Early
22 arriving reflections generally enhance speech perception by boosting sound levels and
23 sound localization; however, later-arriving reflections temporally smear and
24 decorrelate what the ears receive, interfering with speech perception [12–16].
25 Temporal smearing reduces the intensity transitions between loud and soft sounds,
26 attenuates interaural level differences, introduces variability to interaural time
27 differences, and increases both energetic and informational masking [17–19].
28 Reverberation thus makes it harder for listeners to segregate speech streams, localize
29 sources, focus attention, and encode auditory information in memory [20]. However,
30 listeners can partially adapt to reverberant environments with sufficient exposure,
31 improving speech perception [21]. Thus, reverberation imposes both perceptual
32 challenges and opportunities for adaptation. More broadly, extensive work on speech
33 perception in noise has shown that reverberation and spatial separation interact to
34 shape intelligibility and masking [22].

35 Sudden, salient sounds represent another challenge to attention. Novel or deviant
36 events capture attention involuntarily, even when they are irrelevant to the task at hand
37 [23–25]. Such interruptions force listeners to reorient to the target—a process that
38 requires time and which may therefore cause listeners to miss subsequent target
39 content [26]. Interruptions can also disrupt working memory, especially when they are
40 unexpected[25]. These effects highlight how vulnerable auditory attention is to
41 distraction.

42 Reverberation and interruptions often co-occur in naturalistic listening
43 environments. For example, a student in a reverberant classroom may be focusing on
44 a lecture when a door slams. Yet little is known about how reverberation modulates
45 the impact of such interruptions. Here, we consider two competing possibilities:

- 46 1. By smearing acoustic energy over time and increasing energetic masking
47 across and within streams, reverberation might diminish the salience of
48 transient sound onsets, reducing the perceptual salience of interruptions.
- 49 2. Alternatively, reverberation might compound disruption by not only
50 interfering with selective attention but also degrading stream segregation
51 and slowing down reorientation to the target.

52 To test these alternative hypotheses, we conducted five online spatial attention
53 experiments in which listeners recalled syllables from a target stream while ignoring a
54 distractor stream presented from a different direction. We explored performance for
55 uninterrupted and interrupted trials in simulated environments that were either
56 pseudo-anechoic or contained varying levels of reverberation. Across four
57 experiments, we contrasted low and high levels of reverberation and trials that were
58 either randomly intermingled or blocked by reverberation level. A fifth experiment

59 with reverberated target and distractor streams contrasted a reverberant interrupter
60 with an anechoic interrupter, which might be perceived as closer to the listener and
61 thus more perceptually disruptive [27]. We found a significant interaction between
62 interruption and reverberation, with the interrupter causing a larger decrease in recall
63 of the syllable just after the disruption in reverberant compared to anechoic conditions.

64

65 **2. Materials & Methods**

66 We conducted five online spatial selective attention experiments to examine how
67 reverberation affects recall of a target syllable stream in the presence of competing
68 speech and unexpected interruptions. All experiments followed a common design:
69 Listeners attended to one of two spatially separated syllable streams and reported the
70 five target syllables [25]. The experiments differed in the degree of reverberation, trial
71 structure, and in Experiment 5, the type of interrupter used.

72 *2.1 Participants*

73 Each experiment included 40-45 participants (Table 1), recruited via the Prolific
74 portal (drawing a broad adult population) or Carnegie Mellon's online SONA platform
75 (primarily undergraduate psychology students). Studies were approved by the
76 Institutional Review Board of Carnegie Mellon University. All participants were native
77 English speakers with self-reported normal hearing, and no prior experience with
78 psychoacoustics or listening experiments was required. Participants provided informed
79 consent and were compensated (\$10/hour via Prolific or partial course credit via
80 SONA).

81 2.2 *Stimuli*

82 Target and distractor streams comprised five consonant–vowel syllables (ba, da,
83 ga) produced by a male native speaker of English, drawn with replacement. Streams
84 were spatialized to 30° left or right of center. Syllables were 450 ms long with 600 ms
85 onset-to-onset temporal spacing, and the target began 300 ms before the distractor,
86 yielding temporally interleaved but non-overlapping sequences. On half of the trials, a
87 novel interrupter (250 ms) occurred 125 ms before the third target syllable, spatialized
88 to 90° contralateral to the target stream (120 degrees away from target stream).
89 Accordingly, the interrupter always occurred between the second and third syllable.

90 Across trials, environments were either pseudo-anechoic or reverberant (see 2.3
91 Spatialization). Experiments 1–4 included both environments, with all stimuli within a
92 trial containing identical reverberation; Experiment 5 used reverberant streams with
93 either anechoic or reverberant interrupters.

94 2.3 *Spatialization*

95 All syllables and interrupters were spatialized by convolving each with one of three
96 different binaural impulse responses. Two were binaural room impulse responses
97 (BRIRs), while the final included no reflections:

- 98 • Classroom BRIRs (Experiments 1–2): Recorded in a small classroom at
99 Boston University (RT60 = 743 ms [28]). A KEMAR manikin (Knowles
100 Electronics) was positioned at the center of the room, approximately 1.5 m
101 above the floor. A loudspeaker was placed 1 m in front of the manikin at 0°

102 elevation. Impulse responses were recorded at azimuths from 0° to 90° in 15°
103 increments.

104 • Concert Hall BRIRs (Experiments 3–5): Recorded at Carnegie Mellon
105 University’s Fine Arts Building concert hall ($RT60 = 1.91$ s). The KEMAR
106 was located at the center of the hall, approximately 1.5 m above the floor. A
107 Yamaha MSP5A loudspeaker was placed 2 m in front of the KEMAR at 0°
108 elevation. Microphones (Bruel & Kjaer, model 4134) were positioned in the
109 ear canals. A 5-s logarithmic sweep (50 Hz–18 kHz) was presented, and
110 responses were recorded at azimuths from 0° to 90° in 15° increments by
111 rotating the KEMAR.

112 • “Pseudo-anechoic” head-related impulse responses (HRIRs; Experiments 1-5)
113 were generated by time windowing the corresponding BRIRs to include only
114 the direct-path sound energy and to exclude all reverberant energy [28]. The
115 window (9 ms, total duration, including onset and offset ramps to limit spectral
116 splatter) was chosen to retain the direct-path response while excluding
117 reflections. This approach allowed us to isolate the effects of reverberant
118 energy while preserving matched direct-path spectral and spatial cues across
119 conditions, enabling controlled comparisons of interruption effects with and
120 without realistic reflected energy.

121 Reverberation times ($RT60$) were calculated from the recorded BRIRs using the
122 Schroeder method [29], implemented in the Python *psylab* package [30].

123 2.4 Main Task

124 Each participant completed 96 trials, organized into 8 blocks of 12 trials each,
125 which typically lasted ~30 minutes. Trials were organized into blocks, and participants
126 were allowed to take breaks between blocks.

127 All experiments tested within-subject manipulations of target left vs. right and
128 interrupted vs. uninterrupted (both factors randomized across trials within each
129 block). Interrupters occurred before the onset of the third syllable. Experiments 1-4
130 all also tested the within-subject manipulation of pseudo-anechoic vs. reverberant
131 room conditions; in Experiments 1 and 3, this factor was randomized across trials
132 within each block (i.e., mixed), and in Experiments 2 and 4, this factor was held
133 constant within each block (i.e., blocked, with N/2 blocks of each type presented in
134 random order). Experiment 5 presented only reverberant target and distractor streams
135 and tested the within-subject manipulation of pseudo-anechoic vs. reverberant
136 interrupter (randomized across trials within each block). Table 1 summarizes the
137 design differences across experiments.

138 At trial onset, a spatialized /ba/ cue indicated the target side (30° left or right).
139 Participants then heard the five-syllable target stream, accompanied by the interleaved
140 distractor stream on the opposite side. At trial end, participants were prompted to
141 recall and report the five target syllables in order by clicking on buttons on a graphical
142 user interface (GUI).

143

144 Table 1. **Summary of experimental design across the five studies.** Each
145 row details participant demographics, reverberation condition (classroom vs.

146 concert hall), trial structure (mixed vs. blocked), and whether interrupters
 147 matched or mismatched the acoustic environment. Simulated reverberant
 148 environments either were a small Classroom (RT60 = 743 ms) or a large
 149 Concert Hall (RT60 = 1.91 s). N represents the number of participants.

Exp.	N	Participant Demographics	Level of Reverb.	Blocking	Type of Interrupters
1	45	24 F, 21 M Age range: 33.8 ± 9.74	Small, Classroom	Mixed	Matched Acoustics
2	40	16 F, 25 M, 1 Not Reported Age range: 33.9 ± 8.03	Small, Classroom	Blocked	Matched Acoustics
3	44	24 F, 18 M, 2 Not Reported Age range: 34.1 ± 9.72	Large, Concert Hall	Mixed	Matched Acoustics
4	45	24 F, 20 M, 1 Not Reported Age range: 32.7 ± 11.1	Large, Concert Hall	Blocked	Matched Acoustics
5	45	26 F, 18 M, 1 Not Reported Age range: 37.4 ± 9.97	Large, Concert Hall	Reverb Only	Matched and mismatched Acoustics

150

151 2.5 *Experimental Procedure*

152 Experiments were implemented online using the Gorilla platform (Gorilla.sc).
153 Participants completed the task remotely using their own computer and headphones.
154 Gorilla controlled the stimulus presentation and response collection through a
155 browser-based interface. Since timing precision can vary across browsers and devices,
156 the stimulus timing was fixed in the task code. Participants were directed from the
157 recruitment portal to the Gorilla task via a study link. Before the main task, participants
158 completed a headphone screening test (Huggins Pitch test [31]) to confirm their
159 headphones supported spatialized/stereo listening. White noise was presented in three
160 intervals, two of which were diotic and one containing an interaural phase difference
161 to produce a binaural pitch percept. Following a previous study, participants failing
162 more than 4 of 6 trials were excluded [25]. Participants then completed practice trials
163 without interrupters and had to recall >50% of target syllables; those failing were
164 excluded.

165 2.6 *Data and Statistical Analysis*

166 Accuracy was defined as the proportion of syllables recalled in the correct position,
167 averaged within condition per participant. We computed the effect of the interrupter
168 by comparing target syllable recall with and without the interrupter, separately for
169 pseudo-anechoic and reverberant conditions. Lastly, we computed the effect of
170 reverberation by comparing target syllable recall with and without reverberation,
171 separately for uninterrupted and interrupted conditions. All analyses were performed
172 in R using custom scripts.

173 All statistical analyses were conducted in R using the afex[32], emmeans[33], and
174 ez packages [34]. For Experiments 1–4, we fit repeated-measures ANOVAs with
175 within-subject factors of syllable position (5 levels: 1–5), interruption (interrupted,
176 uninterrupted), and environment (anechoic, reverberant). Follow-up analyses used
177 estimated marginal means (EMMs, Bonferroni corrected) to test interruption effects
178 at each syllable position and reverberant effect by position. In addition, we conducted
179 a separate analysis of the effect of the interrupter on syllable 3, which we expected to
180 show the largest effect of interruption. Specifically, for Experiments 1–4, we conducted
181 a mixed-effects ANOVA on the difference between uninterrupted and interrupted
182 performance for syllable 3 with factors of uninterrupted vs interrupted trials (within-
183 subject factor) and experiment.

184 To test whether blocking modulated the effect of acoustic condition as a function
185 of levels of reverberation on the interruption effect on syllable 3, we conducted a
186 Bayesian ANOVA using the BayesFactor package on R [35]. The effect of the
187 interrupter on syllable 3 served as the dependent variable. The models included main
188 effects of acoustic condition (anechoic/reverberant), blocking (mixed/blocked), and
189 reverberation type (classroom/concert hall), as well as two-way interactions. A full
190 model additionally included the three-way interactions.

191 Experiment 5 tested whether the influence of interruption in reverberant
192 environments depended on whether the interrupter itself was reverberant (matching
193 the room acoustics) or anechoic (as might be perceived if the interrupter were
194 physically close to the listener). Thus, we ran a 5 (syllable position) \times 3 (interrupter
195 type: uninterrupted, anechoic interrupter, reverberant interrupter) repeated-measures

196 ANOVA, plus a one-way ANOVA collapsing across syllables. Pairwise comparisons
197 between conditions were conducted with Tukey adjustment.

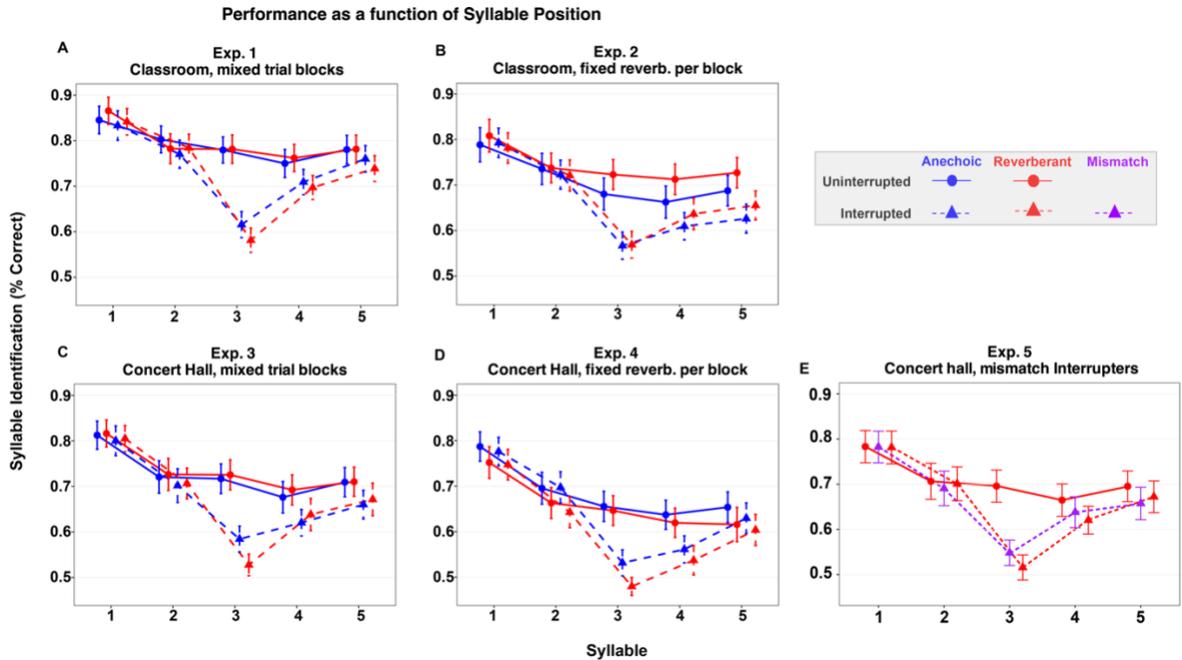
198 Unless otherwise specified, significance was defined as $p < 0.05$ after appropriate
199 multiple-comparison correction (pairwise EMMs, unless otherwise specified). Where
200 appropriate, marginal effects ($p < 0.10$) are reported for completeness.

201 **3. Results**

202 *3.1 Effects of Syllable Position*

203 Across experiments, performance generally decreased with syllable position, with best
204 performance for the first syllable (Figure 1). In Experiments 1-3, performance was
205 slightly better for the final syllable than the penultimate syllable, while in Experiment
206 4, performance was roughly equal in the last two syllables. Statistical analysis supports
207 these observations. Syllable position was significant in all experiments (all $p < 0.001$;
208 Experiment 1: $F(4,176) = 43.47$; Experiment 2: $F(4,156) = 35.99$; Experiment 3:
209 $F(4,172) = 41.20$; Experiment 4: $F(4,176) = 44.37$).

210 Consistent with past studies, the interrupter reduced recall accuracy differently for
211 different syllables, with greater effects for syllables after the interrupter than those
212 preceding it (Fig 1). Statistically, there was a significant interaction between syllable
213 position and interruption in all four experiments (all $p < 0.001$).



214

215 **Fig 1. Mean syllable recall accuracy (% correct) across syllable positions for**
 216 **uninterrupted and interrupted trials in each experiment.** Panels show (A)
 217 Experiment 1, (B) Experiment 2, (C) Experiment 3, (D) Experiment 4, and (E)
 218 Experiment 5. Circles = uninterrupted trials, triangles = interrupted trials, blue =
 219 pseudo-anechoic trials, red = reverberant trials, and purple = mismatch interrupter in
 220 Experiment 5. Error bars represent ± 1 SE of the mean.

221

222 3.2 Effects of Reverberation

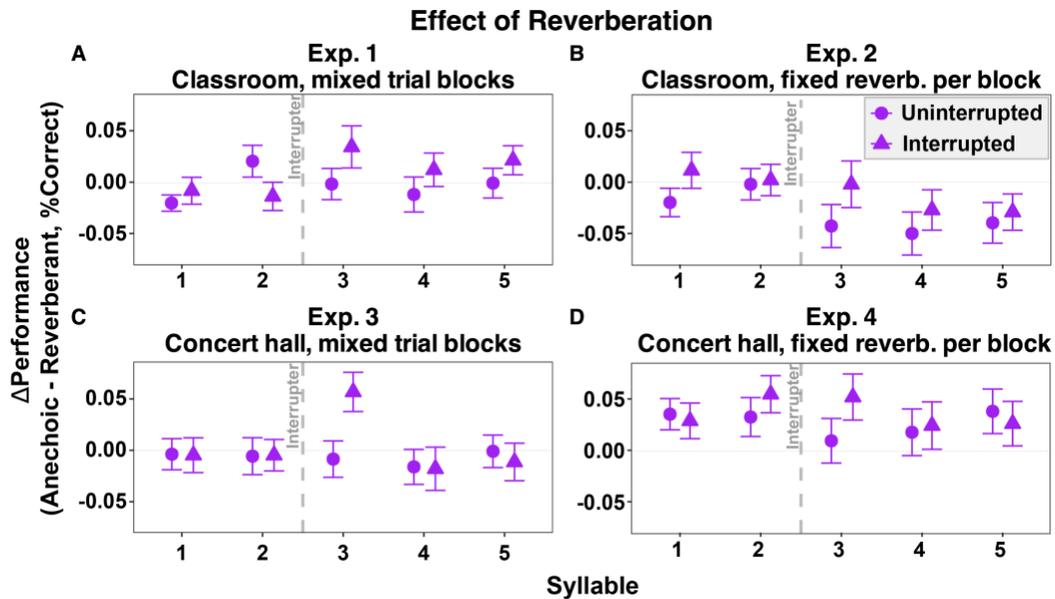
223 Figure 2 plots the effect of reverberation on recall, subtracting percent correct
 224 performance in reverberant trials from that in anechoic trials. In Experiment 1, there
 225 was no clear effect of reverberation (the change in performance was near zero).
 226 Experiment 3 showed a similar pattern, except for syllable 3 in interrupted trials, where
 227 the average performance was about 5% higher for anechoic than for reverberant trials.

228 In Experiment 2 (classroom), performance tended to be slightly better in reverberation
229 than in anechoic conditions, especially for later syllables (values in Fig. 2B are
230 negative). In Experiment 4 (concert hall), performance was worse in reverberation
231 than in anechoic conditions for all syllables (values in Fig. 2D are positive).

232 Statistical tests confirmed these observations. The main effect of reverberation
233 was not significant when pseudo-anechoic and reverberant trials were intermingled
234 (Experiments 1 and 3; $p = 0.532, 0.829$, respectively) but was significant when trials
235 were blocked by room condition (Experiments 2 and 4). Specifically, accuracy was
236 significantly higher with classroom reverberation than in anechoic conditions in
237 Experiment 2 ($F(1,39) = 8.30, p = 0.006$), but significantly higher in anechoic trials
238 than trials with concert hall reverberation in Experiment 4 ($F(1,44) = 11.17, p =$
239 0.0017).

240 Taken together, these results show that reverberation effects are context-
241 dependent. In mixed designs, reverberation has little consistent impact; in contrast, in
242 blocked designs, reverberation plays a greater role.

243



244

245 **Fig 2. Effect of reverberation on syllable recall accuracy across experiments.**

246 Panels show (A) Experiment 1, (B) Experiment 2, (C) Experiment 3, and (D)

247 Experiment 4. The y-axis represents the performance cost of reverberation, calculated

248 as accuracy in the anechoic condition minus accuracy in the reverberant condition,

249 with positive values indicating worse performance in the presence of reverberation.

250 Circle markers indicate uninterrupted trials and triangle markers indicate interrupted

251 trials. Error bars represent ± 1 SE of the mean. The vertical dashed line marks the

252 onset of the interrupter between syllables 2 and 3.

253

254 3.3 Effects of Interruption

255 Figure 3 plots the decrement in performance caused by the interrupter (subtracting

256 performance in the interrupted condition from that in the uninterrupted condition).

257 As in our previous studies, there was a clear and consistent effect of the interrupter,

258 which was greatest for the third syllable (right after the interrupter) and persisted

259 through syllables 4 and 5 in some cases. In all experiments, for syllable 3, the size of
260 the interruption effect was slightly larger in reverberation than in anechoic conditions.

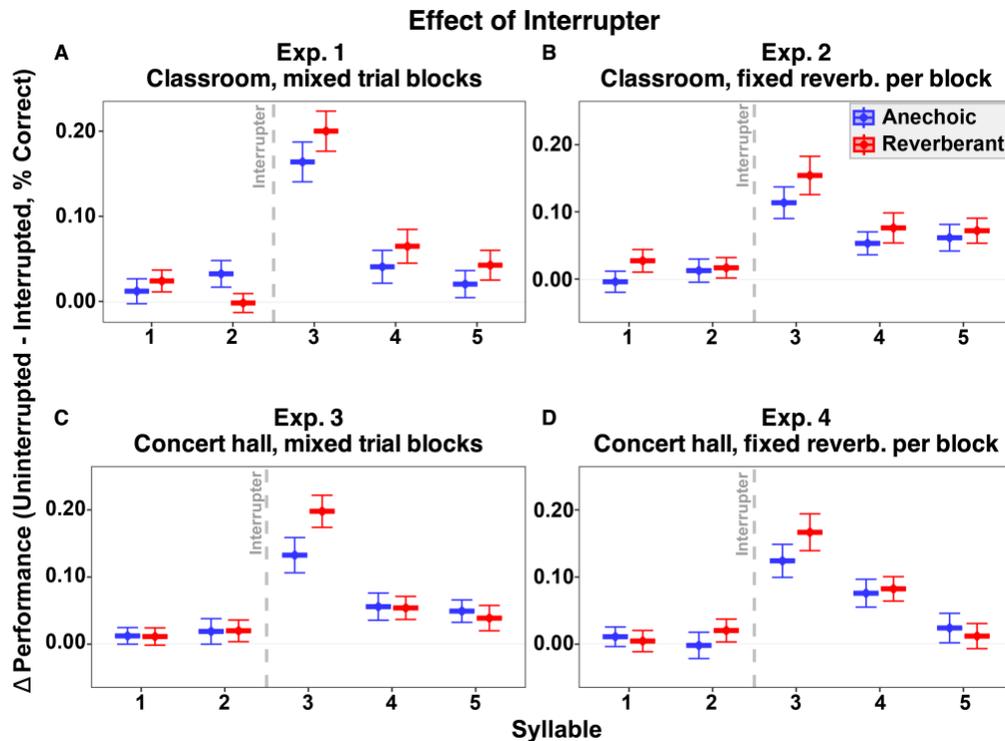
261 Statistically, interrupters produced a strong main effect in all four experiments
262 (Experiment 1: $F(1,44) = 58.47, p < 0.001$; Experiment 2: $F(1,39) = 42.91, p < 0.001$;
263 Experiment 3: $F(1,43) = 43.15, p < 0.001$; Experiment 4: $F(1,44) = 31.50, p < 0.001$).
264 Pairwise comparisons of syllable positions (Bonferroni corrected) confirmed that the
265 interrupter effect was not uniform across the stream, with the largest disruptions just
266 after the interrupter (i.e., at syllables 3 and 4; all $p < 0.001$). Smaller but nonetheless
267 significant costs were also observed at syllable 5 in Experiment 1 ($p = 0.022$),
268 Experiment 3 ($p = 0.002$), and Experiment 4 ($p < 0.001$), whereas syllables 1 and 2
269 showed no statistically significant effect in any of the experiments (all $p > 0.07$).
270 Although the performance tended to be poorer than in anechoic, there was no
271 significant main effect of reverberation or interaction between syllable position and
272 reverberation on the interruption effect (all $p > 0.057$).

273 We conducted a three-factor mixed ANOVA on the interrupter effect on syllable
274 3 with factors of acoustic environment (anechoic / reverb), blocking (fixed / mixed),
275 and room type (classroom / concert hall) The only significant effect was acoustic
276 environment ($F(1,340)=6.70, p = 0.010$), with larger interruption costs in
277 reverberation (mean = 0.18) than in anechoic listening (mean = 0.13). There was no
278 main effect of room type ($F(1,340), p=0.885$), nor any significant two-way interactions
279 (all $p > 0.429$). There was a marginal effect of blocking ($F(1,340)=3.63, p = 0.0575$),
280 with slightly better performance for fixed vs. mixed blocks. Subsequent Bayes Factor
281 analyses provided evidence against both a three-way interaction between acoustic

282 condition, blocking, and room type ($BF = 0.24$) or an interaction between acoustic
283 environment and room type ($BF=0.179$), indicating that even large differences in the
284 level of reverberation did not have a large impact on the difference between anechoic
285 and reverberant listening or the benefit of separately blocking anechoic and
286 reverberant conditions. The fact that room type had so little effect suggests that the
287 effect of the interrupter is consistent with a disruption of attentional control rather
288 than purely acoustic effects.

289 In the mismatch study (Experiment 5), the competing streams were spatialized
290 using the concert hall BRIRs while interrupters were either anechoic (which should
291 sound very close to the listener's head compared to the ongoing spatialized streams)
292 or also spatialized using the concert hall BRIRs (Fig 1E). Interrupter results for the
293 reverberant trials were similar to those for the physically identical stimuli in
294 Experiment 3. Performance on syllable 3 was worse with an interrupter than without
295 an interrupter. Performance was similar for an anechoic interrupter and for a
296 reverberant interrupter (compare blue and red values for Syllable 3 in Fig. 4). The
297 omnibus ANOVA revealed main effects of syllable position ($F(4,140) = 54.55$, $p <$
298 0.001) and interrupter type ($F(2,70) = 15.42$, $p < 0.001$), as well as a syllable \times
299 interrupter type interaction ($F(8,280) = 14.91$, $p < 0.001$). Pairwise comparisons
300 showed that both anechoic and reverberant interrupters significantly reduced accuracy
301 relative to uninterrupted trials (Uninterrupted vs. Anechoic: $p = 0.0002$; Uninterrupted
302 vs. Reverberant: $p < 0.0001$). However, performance did not differ between the two
303 interrupter types (Anechoic vs. Reverberant: $p = 0.881$).

304



305

306 **Fig 3. Effect of interruption on syllable recall accuracy across experiments.**

307 Panels show (A) Experiment 1, (B) Experiment 2, (C) Experiment 3, and (D)

308 Experiment 4. The y-axis represents the performance cost of interruption (accuracy

309 on uninterrupted trials minus accuracy on interrupted trials), with positive values

310 indicating worse performance in the presence of an interrupter. Blue markers indicate

311 anechoic conditions, red markers indicate reverberant conditions, and error bars

312 represent ± 1 SE of the mean.

313 4. Discussion and Conclusion

314 The present study asked whether reverberation 1) weakens the salience of

315 unexpected interrupters (reducing their disruptive impact) or 2) compounds difficulty

316 by further challenging stream segregation. Across five online experiments, we found

317 strong evidence for the latter.

318 Setting aside the effects of reverberation, the overall pattern of results confirm
319 previous reports using a similar paradigm, but using only anechoic simulations [25]: 1)
320 Even in uninterrupted trials, performance varied with syllable position, with strong
321 primacy effects. 2) The interrupter consistently impaired recall performance, with the
322 largest effect on syllable 3 (which occurred immediately after the interrupter), and a
323 smaller but persistent effect that lasted through syllables 4 and 5.

324 In addition to the overall effect of reverberation level, the effects of reverberation
325 also depended on whether reverberant trials were blocked or intermingled with
326 anechoic trials, consistent with partial adaptation to room acoustics [21], whereby
327 listeners benefit from sustained exposure to a stable reverberant environment.
328 Specifically, performance on anechoic and reverberant trials was very similar when
329 these trials were intermingled (Experiments 1 and 3) for both levels of reverberation
330 (simulated classroom and concert hall), with one exception in Experiment 3 (concert
331 hall), where the effect of reverberation on recall of syllable 3 was large for interrupted
332 trials but not uninterrupted trials (Figure 2, panel C), hinting at a significant interaction
333 of reverberation and interruption. When trials were blocked and reverberation was
334 modest (classroom), performance was consistently slightly better in reverberant blocks
335 than anechoic blocks. This suggests that the modest reverberation improved speech
336 perception when listeners had the opportunity to adapt to the reverberation, consistent
337 with the beneficial effects of early reflections on speech intelligibility [14,15]. In
338 contrast, when trials were blocked and reverberation was pronounced (concert hall),
339 performance was better in anechoic than reverberant blocks.

340 Critically, looking across the first four experiments, the interrupter had a
341 consistently larger effect on recall of syllable 3 in reverberant conditions than in

342 anechoic conditions. Importantly, the interruption cost did not differ between
343 classroom or concert-hall reverberation, despite substantial differences in acoustics.
344 This pattern argues against the idea of energetic masking being the main explanation
345 for the increased effect of the interrupter in reverberant compared to anechoic trials,
346 since the level of acoustic smearing and energetic masking differs substantially between
347 these simulations. Instead, reverberation appears to increase the baseline difficulty of
348 selective attention, while the interrupter imposes similar cognitive costs related to
349 attentional capture and reorientation, regardless of the amount of reverberation[17,36].

350 Finally, Experiment 5 showed that when listeners were focusing attention on
351 streams with heavy reverberation, both anechoic and matching-reverberant
352 interrupters had similar effects. We hypothesized that during a reverberant trial, the
353 anechoic interrupter might seem particularly close to the listener, and thus especially
354 distracting; instead, we found that the salience of anechoic and reverberant interrupters
355 was similar.

356 Overall, the direct effect of interruption was larger than the main effect of
357 reverberation alone, producing a 10-20% decrease in recall for the syllable immediately
358 following the interrupter. Reverberation by itself had smaller and more context-
359 dependent effects on overall performance. Specifically, reverberation amplified the
360 effect of the interruption on the post-interrupter syllable, indicating that its primary
361 impact was to compound attentional disruption rather than to uniformly degrade
362 performance.

363 Several open questions remain that should be addressed by future work:

- 364 • **Spatial co-location.** Prior work using the same paradigm found no effect
365 of spatial co-location on interruption salience in anechoic conditions[25].

366 It remains unknown whether co-locating maskers and interrupters in
367 reverberant environments would further increase disruption by reducing
368 stream segregation.

369 • **Continuous Speech.** Although the present task used syllable streams to
370 isolate attentional reorienting, future studies should test whether similar
371 interruption effects generalize to continuous speech under reverberant
372 conditions.

373 • **Spatial realism and DRR.** The use of non-individualized HRTFs/BRIRs
374 and moderate direct-to-reverberant ratios may limit generalization to more
375 extreme acoustic scenarios. Future work should manipulate spatial realism
376 and source distance and assess how these factors influence interruption in
377 reverberation. Additionally, quantifying the acoustic degradation caused by
378 our specific room simulations was beyond the scope of this study. Future
379 work manipulating DRR (e.g., distant interrupters) could quantify how
380 different levels of reverberation impact acoustic features to help explain
381 our observations.

382 • **Physiological Measures.** Our experiments were conducted online, which
383 may increase variability in performance. In-person experiments
384 incorporating physiological measures such as pupillometry could reduce
385 variability and help determine whether reverberation increases listening
386 effort and how this interacts with effects of interruption.

387

388

389 **Supplementary Material**

390 See supplementary materials for a table summarizing the repeated-measures
391 ANOVA results of all Experiments 1-4 (Table S1).

392

393 **Acknowledgments**

394 Research reported in this publication was supported by the National Institute On
395 Deafness And Other Communication Disorders of the National Institutes of Health
396 (T32DC011499 to VF, R21-DC018408 to CAB, R01-DC019126 to BGSC, and R01-
397 DC022699 to BGSC) and the Office of Naval Research (N00014-19-12332, N00014-
398 20-12709, and N00014-23-12065 to BGSC).

399

400 **Author Declarations**

401 Authors declare no conflicts of interests.

402

403 **Ethics Approval**

404 This study was reviewed and approved by Carnegie Mellon University's Institutional
405 Review Board. The participants provided their written informed consent to participate
406 prior to their participation in this study.

407 **Data Availability**

408 The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the
409 authors, without undue reservation.

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