

## **Synchrony in the periphery: inter-subject correlation of physiological responses during live music concerts**

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1 **Abstract**

2 A concert is a common event at which people gather to share a musical experience. While  
3 techniques are increasingly offering insights into naturalistic stimuli perception, this study  
4 extended methods to a more ecological context in order to explore real-world music listening  
5 within a concert setting. Cardiorespiratory, skin conductance, and facial muscle responses  
6 were measured from participants attending one of three concerts with live chamber music  
7 performances of works of varying Western Classical styles (Viennese Classical, Contemporary,  
8 and Romantic). Collective physiological synchronisation of audience members was  
9 operationalised via inter-subject correlation (ISC). By assessing which musical features  
10 (obtained via Music Information Retrieval and music-theoretical analyses) evoked moments  
11 of high synchrony, logistic regressions revealed that tempo consistently predicted  
12 physiological synchrony across all concerts in Classical and Romantic styles, but not the  
13 Contemporary style. Highly synchronised responses across all three concert audiences  
14 seemed to occur during structural transitional passages, boundaries, and at phrase  
15 repetitions. The results support the idea that group synchronisation is linked to musical  
16 arousal, structural coherence, and familiarity. By employing physiological ISC and an inter-  
17 disciplinary musical analysis, the current study demonstrates a novel approach to gain  
18 valuable insight into experiences of naturalistic stimuli in an ecological context.

19

20 **Keywords:** inter-subject correlation, natural stimuli, music perception, physiology, concert setting

## 21 Introduction

22 A concert is a common event at which people gather to share a musical experience,  
23 particularly in Western society. Although brain imaging techniques can implicitly measure  
24 naturalistic musical perception without behavioural ratings<sup>1-5</sup>, these methods lack  
25 applicability in more typical listening situations, particularly those where listening happens in  
26 a group, such as in a concert. Not only does a concert provide a naturalistic setting, but live  
27 performances can be more immersive<sup>6</sup>, evoke stronger emotional responses<sup>7-9</sup>, while co-  
28 presence of audience members can increase physiological and emotional experience<sup>10</sup>.  
29 Portable methods such as motion capture<sup>11</sup> or mobile measurement of the autonomic  
30 nervous system (ANS, e.g., cardiology)<sup>10,12</sup> seem promising in such a setting. As our interest  
31 lay in the experience of a Western art music concert, in which listeners are typically still<sup>13</sup>, we  
32 focused on ANS measurements during listening of full-length musical works in a naturalistic  
33 concert context.

34 Responses of the sympathetic division of the ANS such as an increased (phasic) skin  
35 conductance response (SCR, i.e., sweat secretion), an increase of heart rate (HR), and  
36 respiration rate (RR) as well as responses of zygomaticus major (smiling) and the corrugator  
37 supercilii (frowning) muscles (electromyography [EMG] activity) typically reflect stress,  
38 attention<sup>14,15</sup>, or affective processing<sup>16-19</sup>. In terms of auditory responses, changes in SCR, HR,  
39 RR, and EMG activity – reflecting a startle<sup>20-22</sup> or orienting response<sup>23</sup> – have been associated  
40 with pitch changes<sup>24,25</sup> and tone loudness (the louder the sound, the greater the SCR  
41 amplitude<sup>26,27</sup>) as well as deviations in timbre, rhythm, and tempo<sup>27</sup>. Additionally,  
42 physiological responses to music may indicate felt arousal and valence of acoustic  
43 features<sup>19,28,29</sup>. For example, faster and increasing tempi are associated with greater arousal<sup>30-</sup>  
44 <sup>34</sup>, increased SCR<sup>27,31,35,36</sup> and HR<sup>31,35,37,38</sup>, whereas slow-paced (low arousal) music reduces HR  
45 and breathing<sup>39,40</sup>. Loudness is positively correlated with arousal<sup>32,41,42</sup>, and, correspondingly,  
46 changes in SCR<sup>43,44</sup> and HR<sup>32,45</sup>. Harmonic ambiguity may also be perceived as arousing<sup>12</sup>, with  
47 unexpected chords<sup>46,47</sup> and notes<sup>12</sup> (i.e., lower clarity of key) evoking SCR increases. Timbral  
48 features, such as brighter tones and higher spectral centroid, are associated with higher  
49 arousal<sup>32,48,49</sup>, which correlates somewhat to SCR<sup>35,50</sup>. Importantly, these physiological  
50 responses are modulated by musical style: previous studies found that HR increases with  
51 faster tempo in Classical music, but decreases with faster tempo in rock music<sup>38</sup>, whereas HR  
52 is lower in atonal, compared to tonal music even with both styles controlled for emotion<sup>51</sup>.

53           Although this research generally supports the idea that physiology is associated with  
54 musical features and style, there are many inconsistencies within findings such studies  
55 (see<sup>52,53</sup>). This could partly be due to most studies having (too) carefully chosen or constructed  
56 stimuli to have little variability in acoustic features (e.g., they use a constant tempo and  
57 normalise loudness). While there is value in tightly controlling individual musical features,  
58 more research into naturalistic stimuli – which typically has a rich dynamic variation of  
59 interdependent features – is required to extend ecological generalisability<sup>54</sup>.

60           Although previous work on naturalistic music has correlated neural and physiological  
61 responses to dynamically changing acoustic features<sup>1–3,50</sup>, or extracted epochs based on  
62 information content in the music<sup>12</sup>, perhaps a more robust way to identify systematic  
63 responses to naturalistic stimuli is through analysing synchrony of responses<sup>10,55–57</sup>, in  
64 particular via inter-subject correlation (ISC, see review<sup>58</sup>). This method – in which (neural)  
65 responses are correlated across participants exposed to naturalistic stimuli<sup>59</sup> – is based on the  
66 assumption that signals not related to processing stimuli would not be correlated. ISC research  
67 has demonstrated that highly similar responses occur across subjects when exposed to  
68 naturalistic films<sup>59–62</sup>, spoken dialogue<sup>63–65</sup> and text<sup>66,67</sup>, dance<sup>68</sup>, and music<sup>1,5,69,70</sup>, strongly  
69 suggesting that highly reliable and time-locked responses can be evoked by (seemingly  
70 uncontrolled) complex stimuli (for a review see<sup>71</sup>). Although ISC in fMRI studies can identify  
71 region of interests (ROIs) for further analysis (e.g.<sup>59</sup>), ISC can also assess which kind of  
72 feature(s) within dynamically evolving stimuli evoke highly correlated responses.

73           In response to auditory stimuli, higher synchronisation (operationalized via ISC) of  
74 participants' responses is associated with structural coherence, familiarity, and emotional  
75 context of stimuli. For example, ISC is higher when listening to original, compared to phase-  
76 scrambled, versions of music<sup>69,70</sup> and spoken text<sup>67</sup>. ISC may also reflect familiarity and  
77 engagement: ISC is higher when listening to familiar music, compared to unfamiliar music;  
78 however, upon repeated presentation, ISC drops with repetitions of familiar, but not  
79 unfamiliar music<sup>5</sup>. Moments of collective synchrony additionally seem to be linked to  
80 emotional arousal, where higher correlation coefficients of fMRI<sup>59</sup>, EEG<sup>61</sup>, SCR and  
81 respiration<sup>72</sup> coincided with moments of high arousal in films, such as a close-up of a  
82 revolver<sup>61</sup>, gun-shots, or explosions<sup>59</sup> as well as close-ups of faces and emotional shakiness in  
83 voice<sup>72</sup>. However, our understanding of music and ISC is still in its infancy, and it is unclear  
84 which musical features – and at which level or time frame – can evoke synchronised

85 physiological responses, particularly in more naturalistic listening situations outside the  
86 laboratory.

87 In addressing these questions, the current study is – the best of our knowledge – the  
88 first of its kind to assess which musical features evoke shared physiological responses during  
89 full-length, naturalistic music stimuli in a typical group-listening concert context. To our  
90 knowledge, this is additionally the first study to compare how different groups react to the  
91 same musical stimuli in such a setting. In light of the replicability crisis<sup>73</sup>, we conducted three  
92 identical concerts with different participant groups to test the replicability of the induced  
93 physiological responses to music, and thereby, the stability of using a concert hall as an  
94 experimental setting. We invited participants to attend one of three instrumental chamber  
95 music concerts in an ‘ArtLab’ performance hall (purpose-built for empirical investigations).  
96 String quintets by Beethoven (1770-1827), Dean (1961-), and Brahms (1833-1897) with four  
97 movements each were performed, showcasing different musical styles (Viennese Classical,  
98 Contemporary, and Romantic, respectively) with varying tempo, tonality, compositional  
99 structure, and timbre. Common acoustic features associated with physiological responses (as  
100 described above) were extracted offline: instantaneous tempo, key clarity, RMS energy  
101 (related to loudness<sup>42</sup>), and spectral centroid (timbral feature related to brightness<sup>74–76</sup>), and  
102 compared across the styles. Derivatives of these features, representing their degree of change  
103 over time, were also obtained. Continuous physiological responses were measured  
104 throughout the concert, from which SCR, HR, RR, and EMG activity was extracted from 98  
105 participants (Concert 1 [C1]: 35, C2: 41, C3: 21). For each audience, ISC was calculated over a  
106 sliding window (5 musical bars long, i.e., on average 10 seconds long) for each physiological  
107 measure, representing the degree of collective synchrony of physiological responses over the  
108 time-course of each musical stimulus (see Figure 2a). We identified moments of high  
109 synchrony (HS) and low synchrony (LS) from the audiences via upper 20<sup>th</sup> percentile and 20<sup>th</sup>  
110 percentile centred around  $r = 0$ . Moments of HS and LS were analysed with respect to the  
111 corresponding physiological responses and musical features.

112 As highly synchronised responses have previously been associated with arousal<sup>59,61,72</sup>,  
113 familiarity<sup>5</sup>, or structural coherence<sup>67,70</sup> in stimuli, we hypothesised that highly correlated  
114 physiological responses would be driven by typically arousing acoustic features (higher RMS  
115 energy and spectral centroid, faster tempo, and lower key clarity) as well as by compositional

116 structure and familiarity of the different styles. We additionally hypothesized that robust  
117 physiological responses to music would be consistent across repeated concert performances.

## 118 **Results**

119 **Comparison of performances.** As the music was performed by professional musicians, we  
120 expected all concert performances to be acoustically similar. We found no significant  
121 differences between performances for loudness, tempo, timbre, and duration (see  
122 Supplementary Table S1). Correlations of instantaneous tempo, timbre, and loudness  
123 between all performances reached  $r > .6$ ,  $p < .001$ , confirming that they were comparable  
124 enough to allow for further statistical comparisons of listeners' physiology between  
125 audiences.

126  
127 **Stimuli analysis.** From exploring the extracted loudness, timbre, tempo, and key clarity, Figure  
128 1a supports the idea that the stimuli offered a rich variation of acoustic features. In comparing  
129 styles, contrasts revealed that features of the Contemporary work (Dean) differed acoustically  
130 from the Classical (Beethoven) and Romantic (Brahms) styles: Dean had significantly lower  
131 RMS energy compared to Brahms (Brahms – Dean for C1:  $\beta = 0.005$ , SE = .002,  $p = .039$ ; C2:  $\beta$   
132 = 0.005, SE = .002,  $p = .037$ ; C3:  $\beta = 0.005$ , SE = 0.002,  $p = .043$ ), significantly lower key clarity  
133 compared to Beethoven (Beethoven – Dean:  $\beta = 0.08$ , SE = .02,  $p = .010$ ) and Brahms (Brahms  
134 – Dean:  $\beta = 0.11$ , SE = .02,  $p = .001$ ), and significantly higher spectral centroid compared to  
135 Beethoven (Beethoven – Dean C1:  $\beta = -320.36$ , SE = 78.70,  $p = .007$ ; C2:  $\beta = -277.00$ , SE =  
136 89.00,  $p = .030$ ; C3:  $\beta = -252.46$ , SE = 77.7,  $p = .024$ ) and Brahms (Brahms – Dean C1:  $\beta = -$   
137 320.90, SE = 79.2,  $p = .007$ ; C2:  $\beta = -264.90$ , SE = 89.4,  $p = .037$ ; C3:  $\beta = -251.63$ , SE = 78.10,  $p$   
138 = .02). Although tempo did not significantly differ between the styles (all  $p > .375$ ), a noticeable  
139 division of tempi distribution in Beethoven and Brahms (see Figure 1a) shows a typical  
140 composition practice of contrasting faster and slower movements in Classical/Romantic style.

141

142 ----- **FIGURE 1** -----

143

144 **Physiological responses at high/low synchrony.** As shown in Figure 2b, HR was overall lower  
145 at HS bars compared to LS bars (HS – LS C1:  $\beta = -0.04$ , SE = .01; C2:  $\beta = -0.06$ , SE = .01; C3:  $\beta =$   
146  $-0.03$ , SE = .01; all  $p < .002$ ), but HR increased during HS from the onset bar (bar0) to the last  
147 bar (bar4) in the correlation window for C1 (bar0 – bar4 in HS:  $\beta = -0.05$ , SE = 0.02,  $p = .031$ )

148 and C3 (bar0 – bar4 in HS:  $\beta = -0.06$ ,  $SE = 0.02$ ,  $p = .04$ ) (see Supplementary Table S2 for main  
149 effects). RR was also significantly lower overall at HS compared to LS bars for C3 (HS – LS:  $\beta =$   
150  $-0.03$ ,  $SE = .008$ ,  $p < .001$ ), but significantly increased across correlation window for all concerts  
151 (bar0 – bar4 in HS for C1:  $\beta = -0.06$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $p = .003$ ; C2:  $\beta = -0.07$ ,  $SE = 0.01$ ,  $p < .001$ ; C3:  $\beta =$   
152  $-0.09$ ,  $SE = 0.02$ ,  $p < .001$ ). SCRs were significantly higher at HS compared to LS (HS – LS for  
153 C1:  $\beta = .07$ ,  $SE = .01$ ; C2:  $\beta = 0.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ; C3:  $\beta = 0.09$ ,  $SE = .010$ ; all  $p < .001$ ), with a decrease  
154 across correlation window (bar0 – bar4 in HS for C1:  $\beta = .17$ ,  $SE = .02$ ; C2:  $\beta = .15$ ,  $SE = .02$ ; C3:  
155  $\beta = .18$ ,  $SE = .02$ ; all  $p < .001$ ). EMG activity was also significantly higher at HS time points in C1  
156 ( $\beta = 0.01$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $p = .012$ ) and C3 ( $\beta = 0.02$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $p = .012$ ) and decreased across the  
157 correlation window in C2 and C3 (bar0 – bar4 in HS for C2:  $\beta = .05$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $p > .001$ ; C3:  $\beta =$   
158  $.06$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $p > .007$ ). In short, compared to the LS moments, there was higher arousal in HS  
159 moments, indicated by higher SCR magnitude and EMG activity, and a general RR and HR  
160 increase.

161 ----- **FIGURE 2** -----

162

163 **Acoustic properties as predictors of audience synchrony.**

164 *Tempo.* Logistic regression revealed that RR synchrony was significantly predicted by tempo  
165 for all three concerts in Beethoven (C1:  $\beta = 0.011$ , C2:  $\beta = 0.016$ ; C3:  $\beta = 0.007$ , all  $p < .001$ )  
166 and in Brahms (C1:  $\beta = 0.018$ ; C2:  $\beta = 0.028$ ; C3:  $\beta = 0.008$ , all  $p < .001$ ). Figure 3b shows that  
167 faster tempo increased probability that RR was highly synchronised across audience members.  
168 Probability of SCR synchrony significantly increased by faster tempo in Brahms for all concerts  
169 (C1:  $\beta = 0.028$ ; C2:  $\beta = 0.036$ ; C3:  $\beta = 0.015$ , all  $p < .001$ ) and in Beethoven for two concerts  
170 (C1:  $\beta = 0.007$ ,  $p < .001$ ; C2:  $\beta = 0.011$ ,  $p < .001$ ; C3:  $\beta = 0.001$ ,  $p = .61$ ). HR and EMG synchrony  
171 was not consistently predicted by tempo. Probability of synchronised HR increased at slower  
172 tempi in Beethoven C2 ( $\beta = -0.009$ ,  $p < .001$ ), but at faster tempi in Brahms C3 ( $\beta = 0.007$ ,  $p$   
173  $= .018$ ). Probability of EMG synchrony decreased with faster tempi in Beethoven C2 ( $\beta = -0.006$ ,  
174  $p = .019$ ), but increased in Dean C3 ( $\beta = 0.024$ ,  $p = .003$ ).

175 *RMS energy.* Figure 3a shows that lower RMS energy increased probability of HR  
176 synchrony, but this was not consistent across concerts or pieces and only significant in  
177 Beethoven C3 ( $\beta = -47.39$ ,  $p = .002$ ) and Dean C1 ( $\beta = -86.00$ ,  $p = .033$ ). Higher RMS energy  
178 significantly increased probability of SCR synchrony in the Classical/Romantic works, but not  
179 consistently across concerts, i.e., only significant for Beethoven C1 ( $\beta = 76.20$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and

180 Brahms C2 ( $\beta = 44.69, p = .007$ ). Higher RMS increased probability of RR synchrony in Dean C1  
181 ( $\beta = 212.80, p < .001$ ) and EMG synchrony in Brahms C2 ( $\beta = 40.17, p = .006$ ).

182 *Spectral centroid.* Probability of HR synchrony increased with higher spectral centroid  
183 in Beethoven C2 ( $\beta = 0.001, p = .009$ ), but with lower spectral centroid in Beethoven C3 ( $\beta = -$   
184  $0.001, p = .029$ ) and in Dean C1 ( $\beta = -0.001, p = .048$ ). Lower spectral centroid significantly  
185 increased probability of RR synchrony in Beethoven C2 ( $\beta = -0.001, p = .047$ ) and Dean C2 ( $\beta =$   
186  $-0.001, p = .049$ ). Higher spectral centroid increased probability of SCR in Dean C2 ( $\beta = 0.002,$   
187  $p = .006$ ) and probability of EMG synchrony in Brahms C2 ( $\beta = 0.001, p = .026$ ) and C3 ( $\beta =$   
188  $0.001, p = .0018$ ) and in Dean C3 ( $\beta = 0.002, p = .021$ ).

189 *Key clarity.* Lower key clarity increased probability of HR synchrony in Beethoven C3 ( $\beta$   
190  $= -2.09, p = .050$ ), of RR synchrony in Dean C1 ( $\beta = -5.71, p = .007$ ), and of SCR synchrony in  
191 Dean C1 ( $\beta = -4.67, p = .009$ ).

192 *Derivatives of MIR features.* No consistent predictors were observed. Tempo changes  
193 predicted SCR synchrony in Dean C3 ( $\beta = -0.02, p = .044$ ). Spectral centroid changes predicted  
194 HR synchrony in Brahms C1 ( $\beta = -0.001, p = .032$ ) and SCR synchrony in Beethoven C2 ( $\beta =$   
195  $0.001, p = .025$ ).

196

197 **Synchrony across multiple physiological measures.** As SCR, HR, and RR are all responses of  
198 the ANS, we sought to assess which musical features may predict an unified ANS response, i.e.,  
199 when all three physiological measures were in synchrony simultaneously (when HS bars were  
200 the same in SCR, HR, and RR). Unfortunately, synchrony of the ANS as one entity (SCR, HR, RR)  
201 was not possible to model as no LS moments were found in the Dean piece for C1. Splitting  
202 ANS responses into paired combinations yielded HS and LS moments in all three styles in all  
203 three concerts allowed further modelling.

204 Faster passages (around 120 bpm, see Figure 3c) significantly increased probability of  
205 combined SCR-RR synchrony for all concerts in Beethoven (C1:  $\beta = 0.014, p = .039$ ; C2:  $\beta =$   
206  $0.014, p = .031$ ; C3:  $\beta = 0.027, p = .013$ ) and Brahms (C1:  $\beta = 0.058, p < .001$ ; C2:  $\beta = 0.212, p =$   
207  $.002$ ; C3:  $\beta = 0.025, p = .032$ ), but not in Dean (all  $p > .4$ ). Faster tempi increased probability of  
208 combined SCR-HR synchrony in Beethoven C3 ( $\beta = 0.014, p = .019$ ), and Brahms C2 and C3 (C2:  
209  $\beta = 0.032, p = .027$ ; C3:  $\beta = 0.034, p = .004$ ). Faster tempi increased probability of HR-RR  
210 synchrony in Brahms C3 ( $\beta = 0.028, p = .012$ ). Slower tempi increased probability of HR-RR  
211 synchrony, but only for Dean C2 ( $\beta = -0.054, p = .018$ ). RMS only occasionally predicted



212 combined physiological synchrony, where higher RMS increased probability of combined SCR-  
213 RR synchrony in Beethoven C1 ( $\beta = 82.876$ ,  $p = .038$ ) and marginally in Dean C1 ( $\beta = 538.170$ ,  
214  $p = .054$ ). It also marginally increased probability of SCR-HR synchrony in Beethoven C2 ( $\beta =$   
215  $71.00$ ,  $p = .057$ ). Spectral centroid and key clarity rarely predicted combined physiological  
216 synchrony. Higher spectral centroid increased the probability of SCR-RR synchrony in  
217 Beethoven C3 ( $\beta = 0.002$ ,  $p = .001$ ) and SCR-HR synchrony in Brahms C3 ( $\beta = 0.004$ ,  $p = .014$ ).  
218 Lower key clarity increased probability of HR-RR synchrony in Brahms C1 ( $\beta = -11.48$ ,  $p = .042$ )  
219 and SCR-RR synchrony in Dean C1 ( $\beta = -19.19$ ,  $p = .044$ ).

220

221 ----- **FIGURE 3** -----

222

223 **Physiology synchronisation across concerts to higher level features.** As we used naturalistic  
224 music, it was important to consider stylistic and compositional features of the music which  
225 are not easily analysed computationally. Therefore, we used standard music theoretical  
226 approaches<sup>77,78</sup> to investigate higher-level musical events of the most ‘salient’ moments,  
227 operationalised by two criteria: when 1) high physiological synchrony in any of the  
228 physiological measures occurred in all three concert audiences and 2) sustained synchrony  
229 was for more than one bar.

230 Overall, audience physiology seemed to synchronise around three types of musical  
231 events: a) transitional passages with developing character; b) clear boundaries between  
232 formal sections; and c) phrase repetitions (all listed with descriptions in Supplementary Table  
233 S3). Salient responses occurred during ‘calming down’ (e.g., Beethoven 1<sup>st</sup> movement,  
234 [Beethoven1], bars [b] 85-88; b287-293; Dean2, b70-71; Dean4, b75-77; Brahms4, b75-76) or  
235 arousing (e.g., Beethoven1, b303-307; Dean2, b23-25; Brahms3, b6-8) transitional passages,  
236 characterised by a decrease or an increase of loudness, texture, and pitch register  
237 respectively. Other salient responses occurred when there was a clear boundary between  
238 functional sections, indicated through parameters such as a key change (e.g., between major  
239 and minor key in Beethoven3, b84-88; Brahms3, b58-61), a tempo change (e.g., Beethoven 1  
240 b328-331; Brahms4, b248-250), or a short silence (e.g., Beethoven1, b96-97; Beethoven4,  
241 b10-14). Lastly, salient responses occurred when a short phrase or motive was immediately  
242 repeated in a varied form, for example in an unexpected key, (e.g., Beethoven1, b35-37),  
243 elongated or truncated (e.g., Beethoven1, b85-88; 291-293), or with a different texture or

244 pitch register (Brahms1, b90-91; Brahms3, b170-171). Since the immediate varied repetition  
245 of a short phrase is very common in Classical and Romantic styles, salient responses were also  
246 evoked when a phrase repetition occurred simultaneously with a transition or clear boundary  
247 (e.g., Beethoven1, b24-30; b136-138). With regard to style, the three categories are in line  
248 with the compositional conventions of the respective works: salient responses were found  
249 more often during transitions in the Romantic and Contemporary works, and during phrase  
250 repetitions and boundaries in the Classical work.

## 251 **Discussion**

252 We demonstrate a novel approach to implicitly assess the continuous group music listening  
253 experience in a naturalistic environment using physiological ISC and inter-disciplinary stimulus  
254 analysis. By measuring physiological responses of audiences listening to live instrumental  
255 music in a typical concert setting, we examined which musical features evoked synchronised  
256 responses (operationalised via ISC). Consistency of effects was assessed by repeating the same  
257 concert three times with different audiences. Importantly, we found no significant differences  
258 of length, loudness, tempo, or timbre across the concert performances, allowing us to assume  
259 that varying patterns of audience responses were due to the weakness of an effect or  
260 individual differences in audiences rather than a difference in acoustics. When responses were  
261 highly correlated (within a 5-bar window), there was an overall higher SCR and EMG (smiling  
262 muscle) activity, and increasing HR and RR, suggesting that synchronised physiology was  
263 associated with increased arousal.

264 Synchronised RR and SCR responses were consistently predicted by tempo alone.  
265 Additionally, tempo predicted not only individual physiological measures, but a more general  
266 ANS response, that is, when both SCR and RR of audience members became synchronised  
267 simultaneously. This finding suggests further that tempo induces reliable responses, in line  
268 with previous work showing that tempo and rhythm are the most important musical features  
269 in determining physiological responses<sup>31</sup>.

270 The current results show that faster tempi consistently increased probability of  
271 combined SCR-RR synchrony. As faster tempo is typically perceived as more arousing<sup>31-34</sup>, our  
272 finding supports previous research linking high ISC to higher arousal<sup>59,61,72</sup>. These results could  
273 further support the idea that ISC is related to stimulus engagement<sup>5</sup>: as slower music increases  
274 mind-wandering<sup>79</sup>, slower tempi may result in reduced attention to the music, leading to  
275 greater individual variability in physiological responses and subsequently lower ISC<sup>59,67</sup>.

276 However, we wish to note that faster tempi (centred around 120 bpm or 2 Hz in the current  
277 study) might also be a more physiologically optimal and/or perceptually familiar range for  
278 entrainment to music (see<sup>80</sup> for review), compared to slower tempi (centred around 50 bpm  
279 .83 Hz in the current study). Entrainment, or perhaps just adaptation of a physiological  
280 measure towards the musical tempo, might be one mechanism through which faster (or  
281 optimally resonant) tempi induce more similar audience responses.

282 It is of further interest that SCR-RR synchrony was more probable at faster tempi only  
283 in the Classical and Romantic styles, but not in the Contemporary style. We suggest, therefore,  
284 that the effect of tempo may be modulated by the context in which it occurs, supporting  
285 previous studies showing that the same features evoke different physiological responses  
286 based on the style<sup>38,51</sup> and/or the familiarity and engagement with the music<sup>5</sup>. It is worth  
287 noting that while Beethoven and Brahms were rated as more familiar compared to Dean,  
288 reported engagement did not differ across styles (see<sup>81</sup>). This suggests that familiarity of  
289 style, rather than engagement, may increase the probability of synchrony (though this  
290 difference could be due to our stimuli being presented live rather than through a recording<sup>5</sup>).  
291 Beethoven and Brahms have a relatively structured and stable meter with very few  
292 instantaneous tempo changes within movements, whereas many Dean passages contain  
293 unstable meter (e.g., the first movement has alternating bars of four, five, or six beats) and  
294 frequent tempo changes within movements (as it typically for each style). In view of this, the  
295 fact that synchrony probability changes between styles could also be due to stimuli coherence.  
296 This reasoning is in line with the idea of higher ISC occurring in more predictable contexts<sup>67</sup>  
297 and lower ISC occurring in versions of music where the beat was disrupted<sup>70</sup>. However, such  
298 interpretation may be limited by the fact that we presented only one work per style and  
299 tempo was not evenly represented across styles, though this compromise was dictated by the  
300 constraints of a naturalistic concert setting. Nonetheless, this suggests that tempo may be a  
301 driving aspect in predicting synchronised physiological responses; though further research  
302 would be required to assess whether coherence<sup>70</sup> and/or engagement/familiarity<sup>5</sup> are  
303 modulatory mechanisms of synchrony.

304 Although orienting/startle response research consistently shows that loudness evokes  
305 highly replicable physiological responses in a controlled tone sequence<sup>23,26,27</sup>, our results  
306 suggest that synchronised physiological responses across concert audiences are not  
307 consistently statistically predicted by RMS energy, nor by key clarity and spectral centroid (and

308 neither changes of these features) in the music. This finding may point to the importance of  
309 context: previous work has shown that environmental sounds and music are experienced  
310 physiologically differently, such as an increase in HR (index of a startle response<sup>21</sup>) with  
311 arousing noises (e.g., a ringing telephone or storm), but not with music<sup>82</sup>. As loudness in the  
312 current study was embedded in naturalistic music (rather than in a tone sequence), this  
313 highlights the generalisability limitations of reductionist stimuli to real-world contexts<sup>54</sup>.  
314 However, this points to another limitation: despite employing such complex stimuli, we  
315 computationally extracted only the most common acoustic parameters associated with  
316 physiological responses, possibly leading to underfitting of our models<sup>83</sup>. It was important,  
317 therefore, to explore additional higher-level parameters in the music that are not so easily  
318 extracted computationally.

319 We observed that transitional passages, clear boundaries or immediate phrase  
320 repetitions in the music – identified using music theoretical analysis – coincided with highly  
321 synchronised physiological responses across concerts. This observation corroborates previous  
322 findings that synchrony may occur in response to long-term, structural features in music<sup>4,70</sup>.  
323 The fact that synchronised responses were evoked by arousing transitional passages  
324 (characterised by changes in loudness, pitch register, and musical texture) supports the idea  
325 that highly similar responses in all audiences are related to arousal<sup>59,61,72</sup> as well as supporting  
326 the idea that audience members collectively ‘grip on’ to loudness and texture changes<sup>6</sup>. As  
327 unexpected musical events embedded in a predictable context may be perceived as  
328 arousing<sup>12,46,47</sup>, our findings that physiological synchrony occurred during sudden tempo or  
329 key changes (i.e., clear musical event boundaries), further support the notion that correlated  
330 responses occur at arousing moments<sup>59,61,72</sup>. This finding aligns with the idea that disruptions  
331 of temporal expectations affect ANS responses<sup>27,84</sup> as well as synchrony in EEG components<sup>70</sup>.  
332 Additionally, or alternatively, it is likely that surprising events phase-reset ongoing  
333 physiological oscillations (see<sup>85,86</sup> for reviews), perhaps thereby leading, at least briefly, to an  
334 increase in audience synchrony around moments of phase resetting. The finding that  
335 synchronised responses occurred during immediate phrase repetitions hint a general  
336 attention towards repetitions in music<sup>87</sup>. Regarding the recurrence of phrases after longer  
337 intervals, it remains unclear if audience synchrony reflects an ‘orientation response’<sup>20,21,27</sup>,  
338 indicating that they recognize thematic connections over larger time spans<sup>88</sup>. Rather, our  
339 analysis suggests, that an interplay of various musical features, in addition to the simple

340 repetition, increase attention of all audience members to these musical moments and  
341 subsequently enhance audience synchrony. For instance, high collective audience synchrony  
342 occurred in some of the structurally most important moments of Beethoven1, such as the end  
343 of the exposition (b136-138: phrase repetition and boundary), deferred cadences (declined  
344 structural closures in b96-97, b301-302: boundary), and references to the main theme at the  
345 end of the movement (b328-331: boundary). Although ISC has been found to decrease with  
346 repeated listening of the same piece (if in a familiar style)<sup>5</sup>, the fact that high ISC occurred at  
347 unexpected phrase repetitions is in line with compositional practices, in which a composer  
348 tries to vary and develop thematic material<sup>89</sup> (with a different texture or harmonically) to keep  
349 'interest'. Although this part of our analysis remains observational and exploratory, it  
350 nonetheless points to certain musical features which could be systematically manipulated in  
351 future studies.

352 In conclusion, by measuring continuous music listening experience in a naturalistic  
353 setting of a chamber music concert, we show that synchronised physiological responses across  
354 audience members (operationalised via ISC) are predicted by tempo and may be linked to  
355 structural transitions, boundaries, and phrase repetitions. Our results support the idea that  
356 group synchronisation is linked to musical arousal, structural coherence, and familiarity. Using  
357 naturalistic music in such a concert environment is beneficial in that participants are more  
358 likely to be absorbed in the music<sup>6</sup> and have more realistic and stronger responses<sup>8,9</sup>.  
359 However, this makes our findings specific to the music we have used, especially as we utilised  
360 only one piece per style. Future research should assess whether the current findings related  
361 to musical features and style are replicated with different kinds of music, both within and  
362 outside of the styles used in this study, as well as a wider range of musical features to improve  
363 characterisation of such complex stimuli. Further questions remain for the concert setting  
364 itself; for example, whether these effects and perceptions would change with and without  
365 visual information of the performer, or with varying programming orders, performance  
366 spaces, and concert aspects<sup>90</sup>. Exploring musical experiences from pre-recorded or live  
367 performances – with or without the co-presence of others – may prove an interesting future  
368 research direction, especially with regard to the COVID-19 pandemic and current  
369 transformations of the live concert experience.

## 370 **Method**

371 **Participants, materials, and experimental procedure** are identical to Merrill et al.<sup>81</sup>. All  
372 experimental procedures were approved by the Ethics Council of the Max Planck Society, and  
373 were undertaken with written informed consent of each participant. 138 participants  
374 attended one of three evening concerts (starting at 19.30 and ending at approximately 21.45)  
375 in a hybrid performance hall purpose-built for empirical investigations (the ‘ArtLab’ in  
376 Frankfurt am Main, Germany). Care was taken to keep parameters (e.g., timing, lighting,  
377 temperature) as similar as possible across concerts. Professional musicians performed string  
378 quintets in the following order: Ludwig van Beethoven, op. 104 in C minor (1817), Brett Dean,  
379 ‘Epitaphs’ (2010), a 20-minute interval, Johannes Brahms, op. 111 in G major (1890).  
380 Continuous blood volume pulse (BVP), respiration data, skin conductance, and facial  
381 electromyography (EMG) from the zygomaticus major muscle were measured with a plux  
382 device (<https://plux.info/12-biosignalsplux>) for the entirety of the concert at 1000 Hz. After  
383 excluding participants with more than 10% missing data<sup>91</sup>, physiological data from 98  
384 participants (that had comparable education levels and age distribution across concerts) and  
385 acoustic data from musical recordings were pre-processed and analysed in MATLAB 2018b.

386

## 387 **Data analysis.**

388 *Musical feature extraction.* Using Sonic Visualiser<sup>92</sup>, instantaneous tempo was manually  
389 extracted by tapping each beat, calculating inter-onset intervals (IOIs) between each beat, and  
390 then converting to beats per minute (bpm). All other features were computationally extracted  
391 using the MIRToolbox<sup>93</sup>. RMS energy (related to loudness), spectral centroid, brightness, and  
392 roughness (related to timbre) were extracted using 25 ms windows with 50% overlap<sup>94</sup>. Key  
393 clarity was extracted using a 3 second window with 33% hop factor<sup>1</sup>. As previous time-series  
394 analyses have parsed data into meaningful units of clause and sentence lengths<sup>64</sup>, a  
395 meaningful unit in music is a bar (American: measure). Correspondingly, values were aligned  
396 by averaging each feature into bins per bar (on average 10 seconds). It is worth noting that  
397 acoustic features can be distinguished between compositional features and performance  
398 features<sup>95</sup>, where the former are represented in the musical score (such as harmony), and the  
399 latter include features that can change between performances, namely how loud and fast  
400 musicians may perform the music. Because key clarity is a compositional feature (i.e., does  
401 not change between performances), we averaged values across concert performances.

402           When checking for independence of features<sup>96</sup>, RMS and roughness correlated highly  
403 ( $r > .7$ ) as did brightness and spectral centroid ( $r > .7$ ) in all movements. As RMS and spectral  
404 centroid are features more commonly used compared to roughness and brightness<sup>95,97</sup>, and  
405 spectral centroid seems to best represent brightness<sup>75</sup> and overall timbral<sup>98–100</sup> perception,  
406 we kept only key clarity, RMS, spectral centroid, and tempo. The degree of change in these  
407 features was also obtained, that is, the difference between adjacent bars. To compare  
408 acoustic features per style, linear mixed models with fixed effect of the works (Beethoven,  
409 Brahms, and Dean) and random effect of movement were constructed per acoustic feature  
410 and per concert. To check performance feature similarity between concerts, each feature was  
411 compared with concert (C1, C2, C3) as the independent variable. Pearson correlations were  
412 used to assess similarity of acoustic features over time between concerts (C1-C2, C1-C3, C2-  
413 C3). Correlations (false-discovery rate corrected) were considered adequate if they met a large  
414 effect size of concert  $r > .5$ <sup>101</sup>.

415           *Physiology pre-processing.* Data were cut per movement. Missing data (gaps of less  
416 than 50ms) were interpolated at the original sampling rate. Fieldtrip<sup>102</sup> was used to pre-  
417 process BVP, respiration, and EMG data. BVP data were band-pass filtered between 0.8 and  
418 20 Hz (4<sup>th</sup> order, Butterworth) and demeaned per movement. Adjacent systolic peaks were  
419 detected to obtain inter-beat intervals (IBIs) and an additional filter was added to remove any  
420 IBIs that were shorter than 300 ms, longer than 2 seconds, or had a change of more than 20%  
421 between adjacent IBIs (typical features of incorrectly identified IBIs<sup>103</sup>). After visual inspection  
422 and artefact removal, IBIs were converted to continuous heart rate (HR) by interpolation.  
423 Respiration data were low-pass filtered (.6Hz, 6th order, Butterworth) and demeaned. As in  
424 the BVP data, maximum peaks were located and respiration rate (RR) was inferred by the peak  
425 intervals. EMG activity was bandpass filtered (between 90 and 130 Hz, 4<sup>th</sup> order, Butterworth),  
426 demeaned and Hilbert transformed. Skin conductance data were pre-processed using  
427 Ledalab<sup>14</sup> and decomposed into phasic and tonic activity. As we were interested in event-  
428 related responses, only (phasic) skin conductance responses (SCR) were used in further  
429 analyses. All pre-processed physiological data (SCR, HR, RR, EMG) were resampled at 20Hz<sup>19</sup>,  
430 z-scored within participant and movement, and averaged into bins per bar.

431           *ISC analysis.* We calculated a time-series ISC based on Simony et al.<sup>67</sup> by forming  $p \times n$   
432 matrices (one for each SC, HR, RR, and EMG, and for each of the twelve movements per  
433 concert), where  $p$  is the physiological response for each participant over  $n$  time points (bars



434 across the movements) over a sliding window 5 bars long (approximately 10 seconds; the  
435 average bar length across the whole concert was 2 seconds), shifting one bar at a time. Fisher's  
436 *r*-to-*z* transformation was applied to correlation coefficients per subject, then averaged *z*  
437 values were inverse transformed back to *r* values. The first 5 bars and the last 5 bars of each  
438 movement were discarded to remove common physiological responses evoked by the  
439 onset/offset of music<sup>65</sup>. ISC values per movement were concatenated within concerts (2238  
440 bars, see Figure 2a), giving four physiological ISC measures per concert. These ISC traces  
441 represent the similarity of the audience members' physiological responses over time.

442       Following Dmochowski et al.<sup>61</sup>, bars of high/low synchrony (HS/LS) were defined using  
443 20<sup>th</sup> percentiles. Physiological response that were highly synchronised (HS) across audience  
444 members were defined as bars where ISC values rose above an 80-percentile threshold, while  
445 low synchrony (LS) was defined as ISC values within a 20-percentile centred around zero, that  
446 is, with low correlation. To obtain instances of overall ANS synchrony (i.e., across multiple  
447 physiological measures simultaneously), we identified where HS and LS moments of one  
448 physiological measure coincided at the same time as another physiological measure.  
449 Physiological responses at points of HS and LS were compared using linear models with factors  
450 Synchrony (HS, LS) and Bar (bars 0-4). To investigate whether acoustic features predicted HS  
451 vs. LS of physiological responses across audience members, tempo, RMS energy, key clarity,  
452 and spectral centroid in bars of HS and LS were recovered. By dummy-coding Synchrony as a  
453 binary variable, with HS as 1 and LS as 0, logistic regression models were constructed to predict  
454 Synchrony for each physiological measure (dependent variable) with continuous predictors of  
455 tempo, key clarity, loudness, and spectral centroid from the HS and LS bars (all features were  
456 included, as perceived expression in music tends to be determined by multiple musical  
457 features<sup>34</sup>). (N.B.: no random intercept of movement was included, because not all  
458 movements contained epochs of significantly high or low ISC). As we expected style to  
459 modulate the effect of these acoustic features in predicting synchrony, models were run  
460 separately per piece and concert.

461       *Statistical analyses* were conducted in R<sup>104</sup>. Pearson correlations were computed using  
462 *corr.test* in the *psych* package and adjusted for false discovery rate using the Benjamin-  
463 Hochberg procedure. Linear models and linear mixed effects models were constructed using  
464 the *lme4* package<sup>105</sup>; *p* values were calculated with the *lmerTest* package<sup>106</sup> via the  
465 Satterthwaite approximation and using the *Anova* function in the *car* package<sup>107</sup>. Contrasts



466 were assessed with the emmeans function (*emmeans* package<sup>108</sup>), with the Tukey method of  
467 adjustment. Logistic regressions models were run using a general linear model with a logit  
468 link function.

469 *Music theoretical analysis.* The scores of all works were analysed according to widely  
470 used methods for the respective styles (Classical and Romantic: Hepokoski & Darcy<sup>77</sup>;  
471 Contemporary: Zbikowski<sup>78</sup> and Schoenberg<sup>89</sup>). Musical events were labelled on the beat level  
472 (harmonic changes, cadences, texture changes, etc.) and larger sections (e.g., transition  
473 between primary and secondary action space) according to the convention of the previous  
474 methods. The performance recordings and acoustic results served as reference for passages  
475 which could have been interpreted equivocally in the score. After the analysis, passages  
476 involving high physiological synchrony were marked and categorized according to common  
477 features across styles; these features were then deduced into appropriate categories.

478

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702 [project.org/package=qt](http://cran.r-project.org/package=qt).

703

704

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714

#### 715 **Author contributions**

716 **A.C.** design of the work; statistical and musicological analysis; data interpretation; writing – original  
717 draft and figures. **L.K.F.** design of the work; statistical analysis; data interpretation; writing – review  
718 and editing. **L.T.F.** musicological analysis; writing – review and editing. **M.T.** conception. **M.W.F.**  
719 conception; data acquisition; data interpretation; writing – review. **J.M.** design of the work; data  
720 acquisition and statistical analysis; data interpretation; writing – review and editing.

721

#### 722 **Additional Information**

723

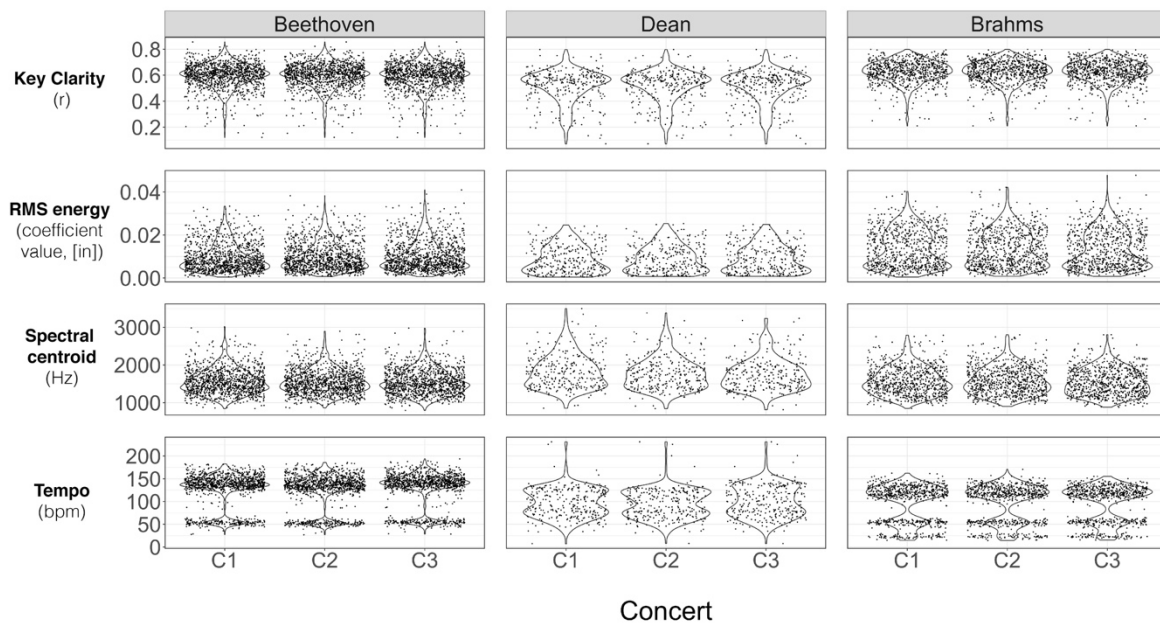
724 **Competing interests.** The authors declare no competing interests.

725

726 **Data availability.** Data of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

727

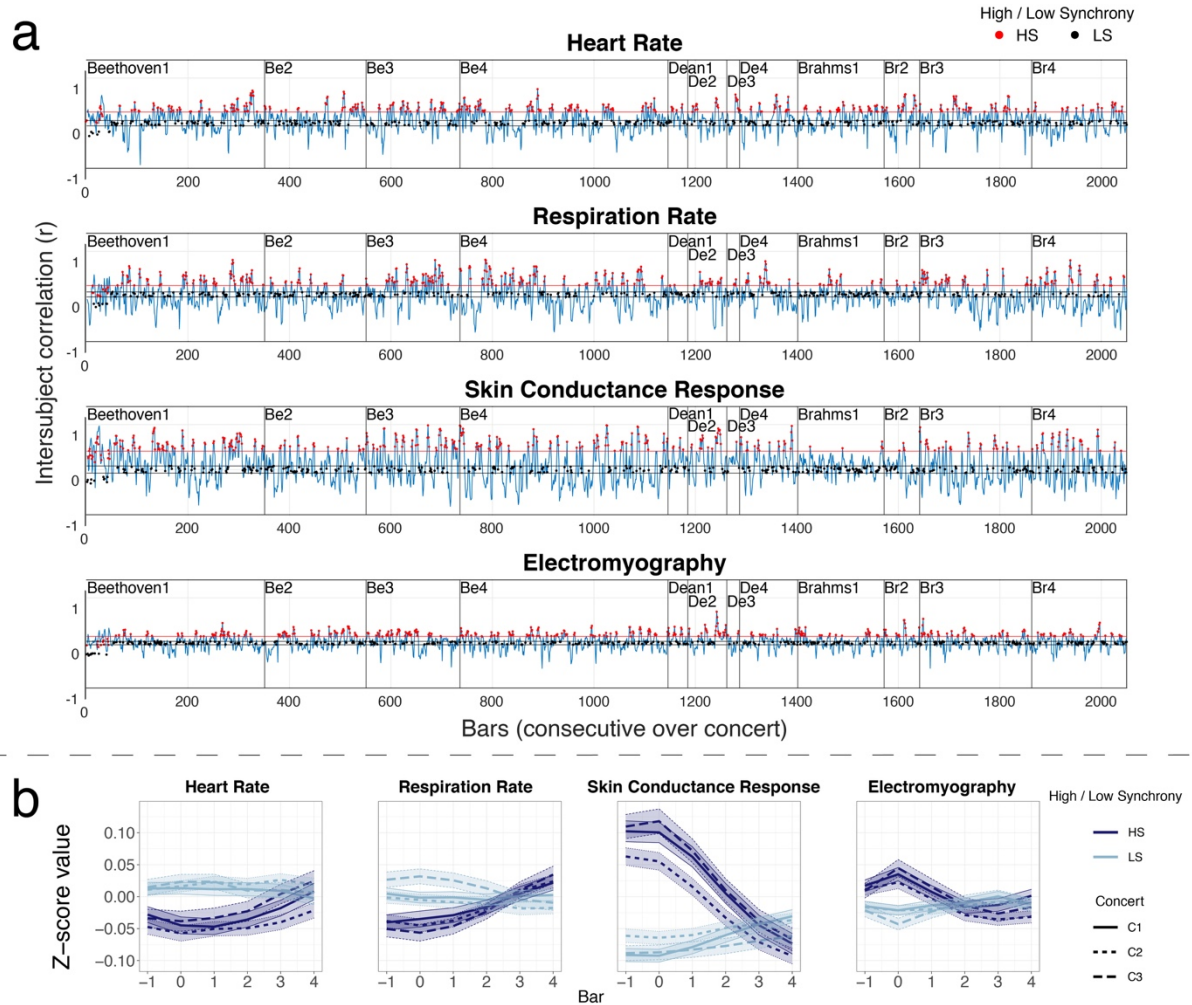
728 **Figures**



729 **Figure 1. Acoustic features per bar, per piece, per concert.** Top to bottom panels show Key clarity, RMS energy,  
730 Spectral centroid, and tempo values per bar. Left panels show values for Ludwig van Beethoven (String Quintet  
731 in C minor, op. 104, 1817), middle panels for Brett Dean (Epitaphs, 2010), and right panels for Johannes Brahms  
732 (String Quintet in G major, op. 111, 1890). Separate violin plots show different concerts.  
733

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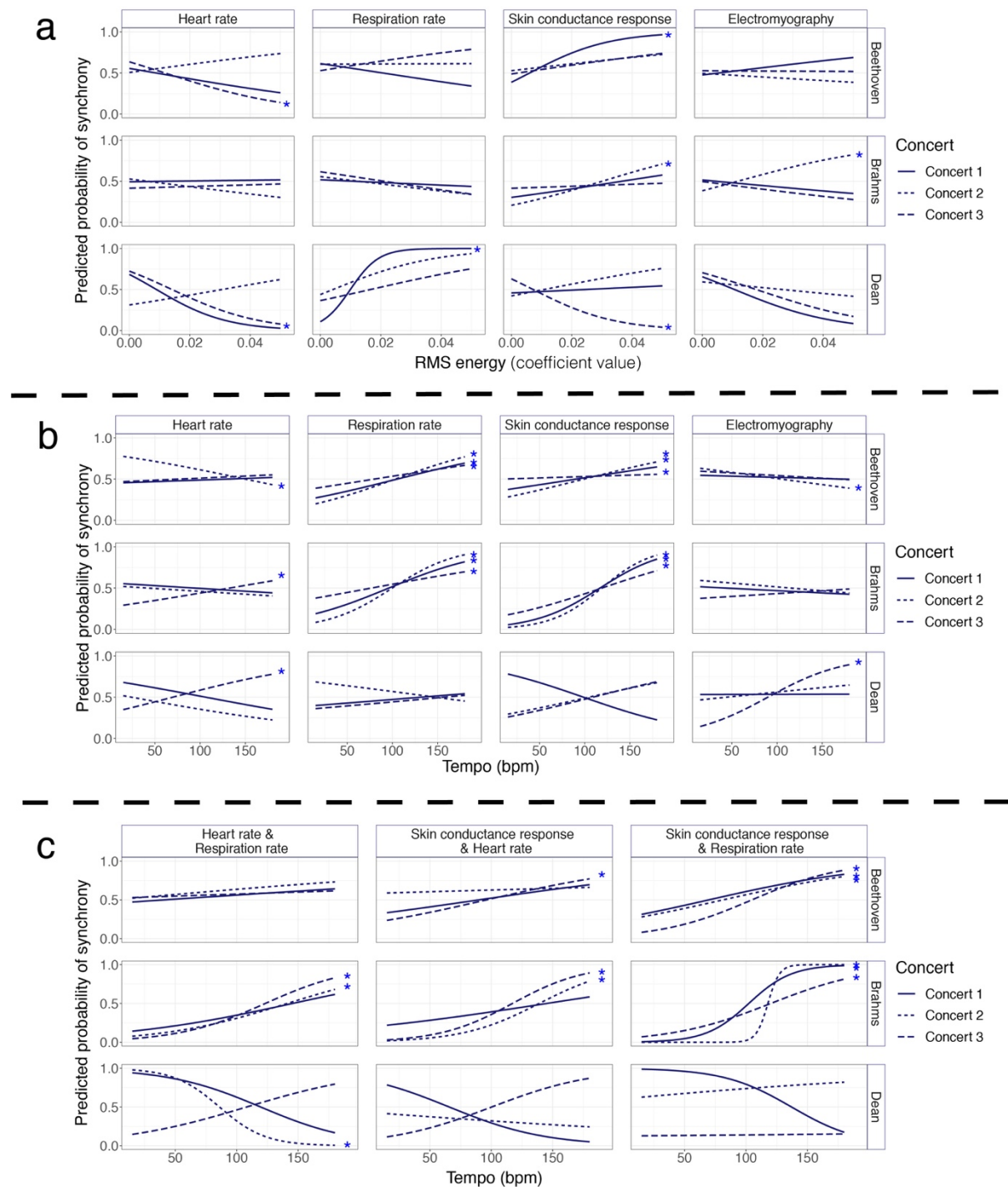




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736

737 **Figure 2. Inter-subject correlation (ISC) across concerts and bars of high- and low-synchrony. a.** ISC time courses  
738 for heart rate (HR, row 1), respiration rate (RR, row 2), skin conductance response (SCR, row 3), and  
739 electromyography activity of zygomaticus major muscle (EMG, row 4) for concert 1. Moments of high and low  
740 synchrony are marked with red and black dots, respectively. Red lines signify the 20<sup>th</sup> percentile threshold, while  
741 black lines signify the 20<sup>th</sup> percentile centred around  $r = 0$ . **b.** Mean High synchrony (HS) vs. low synchrony (LS)  
742 in each physiological measure and concert, with standard error. One musical bar is preceding bars correlation  
743 with high ISC value starting from the first bar of correlation (bar0) to last bar of correlation window (bar4).



744

745 **Figure 3. Probability curves of high (1) vs. low (0) synchrony across listeners extracted for individual acoustic**  
 746 **predictors in the logistic regression models.** Separate panels show individual acoustic predictors (**a**: RMS; **b** and  
 747 **c**: tempo) for each physiological measure (per column), in each piece (per row in each panel) and concert  
 748 (indicated by line style).