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The Role of a Polyrhythm's Pitch Interval in Music-Dependent Memory

Hadley R. Parum Bard College

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Recommended Citation

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The Role of a Polyrhythm's Pitch Interval in Music-Dependent Memory

Senior Project Submitted to

The Division of Science, Math, and Computing & The Division of The Arts

of Bard College

by

Hadley Parum

Annandale-on-Hudson, New York

May, 2021

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Acknowledgements

So many friends, mentors, and colleagues have had profound impacts on my approach to work and life; in the pages of this project there are certainly pieces of people whose names will not be below, and this shouldn't discredit the love I have for them, though it remains out of print. The challenge of this section will be to thank as many people who have directly contributed to the work on this project over (more than) this past year, and I promise to voice thanks and/or disperse hugs at the request of anyone else.

Dr. Jacko, it's your fault I'm at Bard, and it's thanks to you that music has remained a part of my life at all. I am always sending you and Jayci my love, and I look forward to whenever next we can all brunch together.

Mrs. Reitz, I have you to thank for my entry into Psychology, and for modelling a nobullshit approach to learning and life that has been a catalyst for embracing my own passion everywhere I find it. Many of your words have become my mantras, and damn good ones.

Justin Hulbert, my surviving this project and these past four years is in no small part thanks to you. You have been a fantastic advisor at all stages of these past years: you have eased panic, laughed through all of the gripes, encouraged my best habits, and provided more support than any one human should be allowed to provide.

Kyle Gann, I have been grateful for all of our conversations, and I am glad to have had you as my advisor during this project's journey. Thank you for putting up with all directions of my enthusiasm, and I hope that I've cured at least one instance of Columbia White Boy Syndrome. If you ever need someone to come laugh at your jokes, you know where to find me.

Sarah Dunphy-Lelii, without your email at the end of 2019, this project would not have existed in this form at all, and I'm unsure my last year at Bard would have had the space for joy in all the places I was able to find it. For your confidence and kindness, thank you.

John Cullinan, I am forever indebted to you for your caffeinic, emotional, and intellectual support. You remind me of where I find love within and outside of all the projects I've packed into this thing called life, and I hope I've reciprocated at least some fraction of the good tunes, talks, and tasty treats. No one reads them, but I dedicate the liner notes to you.

Dad, I blame you for most of who I am. But, the joke's on you: you're stuck with me! Let's hope I'm not too rusty as your backup next time we play. I love talking to you, and I'm thankful for your stories, jokes (even at my expense), and suggestions (even when I don't take them). I look forward to talking your ear off about this project at your earliest convenience.

Additionally, this project could not have been completed without financial support from the Psychology program, John Cullinan, the Lifetime Learning Institute, and Psi Chi, the Honor Society for Psychology.

Digital Materials

This Senior Project would be incomplete without the music that has informed it and is referenced within. For the reader's listening pleasure, I have compiled a YouTube playlist with the pieces of music referenced in the project, which they can listen to by either clicking these [words](https://youtube.com/playlist?list=PL9IvcOFsf3E7DURgIFyiibOsGPl3EqycO) or visiting<https://tinyurl.com/parumsounds> in their browser of choice.

Additionally, practicing transparency when conducting scientific research has been made easier by the Open Science Foundation. While some materials are included in the Appendices of this project, a more complete and up-to-date record of preregistrations, materials, and code are available at the project's repository [here,](https://osf.io/235xb/) at [https://osf.io/235xb/.](https://osf.io/235xb/)

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Abstract

When listening to music, humans can easily and often automatically assess the perceptual similarity of different moments in music. However, it is difficult to rigorously define the way in which we determine exactly how similar we find moments to be. This problem has driven inquiry in music cognition, musicology, and music theory alike, but previous results have depended on behaviorally mediated responses and/or recursive analytic strategies by music scholars. The present work employs the context-dependent memory paradigm as a novel way to investigate the extent to which listeners consider two musical examples to be similar. After incidentally learning words while listening to a 5:4 polyrhythm forming a perfect fifth, participants could hear no sound or the polyrhythm at a different pitch interval during a surprise test of recall. Between-subjects comparisons found no effect of the actual sound context at test on recall; however, participants who reported being in the same sound context did recall significantly more words than others. Interactions between actual and reported sound context were not accounted for by musical experience or other participant factors, and reported sound context was more often incompatible than compatible with actual sound context. Contributions to mental context theory and the boundaries of conclusions about musical features are discussed.

Keywords: context-dependent memory, free recall, perception, pitch, memory, music cognition, rhythm

It is a trivial challenge for most humans to tell whether they are listening to a Beethoven Symphony or a Balinese Gamelan ensemble, and for good reason. At the same time, it is also relatively common for a moment in a piece of music to remind the listener of something they've heard before. The bassline of a new pop song may sound like a common lullaby, or the penultimate song on an album may bring back the melody from the opening track. This can enrich the experience of listening to music, as connections between new experiences and music become more intricate webs, and new music finds ways to cue old memories. In fact, musicians often rely on these connections: jazz musicians quote well-known melodies that can be familiar to audiences even when transposed and heavily embellished; film scores are rife with themes that exemplify characters, or cue viewers into an imminent fight scene; long orchestral works spend hours exploring different forms of some musical idea, and deliver satisfaction to listeners by returning to a familiar melody that was established in the piece's first minute.

Musicians who, intentionally or unintentionally, employ musical ideas in their work deemed too similar to another artists' work can find themselves facing practical consequences. As one prominent example, the 2013 song "Dark Horse," performed by pop artist Katy Perry, earned her a lawsuit in 2014 in which the Christian rapper Flame accused her of plagiarizing a melodic ostinato from his song "Joyful Noise," released in 2008. In 2019, a jury ruled in favor of Flame, but Perry won an appeal the following year (Blistein, 2020). An online resource sponsored by the law schools of George Washington University and Columbia University catalogues the increasing number of music copyright claims that have made it to court in the past decade (*Cases from 2010-2019*, n.d.). While music copyright claims more often plague digital content creators playing portions of published songs, these inter-artist disputes about the origin

of certain basslines, melodies, or chord patterns have become notorious and commonly reported (Mullan, n.d.; Wang & Wang, 2020).

There has also been incredible sociopolitical weight to music sounding like certain other music, or ideas of musical moments. The incorporation of folk song into classical musical practices is one way that musicians have attempted to write music that sounds authentically of their nation, even as this freezing of pastoral or pre-colonial aesthetics has also created standards of authenticity that do not evolve as people do. While a review of this phenomenon is a Senior Project in its own right, I encourage readers to explore the transformation of folk music into classical traditions in the formation of the Soviet Union (Frolova-Walker, 1998; Levin, 2013; Rothstein, 1980) and early Communist China (Jones, 2001; Mu, 1994; Tse-tsung, 1956), as well as by composers like Béla Bartók of Hungary (Suchoff, 1972; Tari, 2006), Ralph Vaughan Williams of England (Kimmel, 1941; Williams et al., 1906; I highly recommend his *Fantasia on a Theme by Thomas Tallis*), as well as much of American popular music.

Musicians frequently quote or employ motifs from recognizable songs in order to borrow from or comment upon the traditions they represent. This is incredibly important in improvisatory systems such as Jazz, where quoting Blues motifs or parts of others' solos are part of the conversational nature of the music and an important way musicians articulate both their power and respect for others in performance spaces. Quoting a musical canon signifies group membership by that performer, and the manner of performance can demonstrate complicated relationships to that canon, from respect to snarky derision. A great example of the latter is the quotation of *Moscow Nights* – the melody of which was used as a half-hour signal by Radio Moscow during the Cold War – by the infamous rock band Grazhdanskaya Oborona (GrOb) in their song "Кленовый лист" ("Maple Leaf").

There is obviously, then, a rich debate to be had over when a moment in music is meaningfully similar enough to another to be treated as the same in the minds of listeners. Empirical approaches could help define when musical ideas are considered perceptually similar to an arbitrary listener. In particular, it could be useful to quantify the notion of perceptual similarity, at least partially in terms of the features or components of given perceptual objects.

A Piece of Music

In order to attempt this practice with music, we ought to define the perceptual objects of sound, as well as their features. Any whole piece of music consists of many sounds, with particular events frequently containing *motifs*. A *motif* is a thematic element that ought to be recognized when repeated, and are frequently useful objects when analyzing musical works. My use of the term a *moment* in music is meant to include the occurrences of motifs or some discrete subset of a piece that is considered perceptually distinct.

Music is frequently conceptualized as the organization of sound over time, treating pitch and rhythm as its key features. These alone do not describe the full complexity of sound. *Timbre* may come to mind as a salient part of a listener's sonic experience that isn't captured by pitch or rhythm. Frequently defined as what allows a listener to distinguish between two sounding instruments that are otherwise producing sounds of the same pitch and loudness, timbre is difficult to parameterize simply (Tenney, 2015c). While this hasn't stopped exciting musical research into the physical components of timbre and our perception of different sounds (M. Lavengood, 2019; M. L. Lavengood, 2007), incorporating timbre into a model of perceptual similarity may be outside the scope of this project.

Were someone to sing, strum, or otherwise strike up some tune, they would produce a series of notes, to the delight of any listeners-on. The *pitch* of these notes could be described in terms of their frequency in Hertz, a measure of how often the air is displaced each second by the periodic wave resulting from their musical action. The higher this frequency, the higher in pitch the note will be perceived to be. Specifically, pitch height increases proportionally to the logarithmic increase in frequency. This means that sounds whose frequencies are 100 Hz apart are farther in perceived pitch at low frequencies than higher frequencies. Human listeners are able to perceive pitches in the range of 20 Hz to 20 kHz, though this range tends to decrease according to the natural hearing loss expected from age or other environmental factors.

When comparing multiple notes, examining the relationship between their frequencies can help identify the *interval* formed between them. For example, when hearing one note at 440 Hz and another at 880 Hz – when these frequencies form a 2:1 ratio listeners will hear two notes an octave apart. Many listeners would find this interval to be *consonant*, or aesthetically pleasing. According to Western musical notation, these would also both be the same kind of note, depicted as "A" notes at the interval of an octave. Different intervals, with different ratios to describe them, form scales that generate norms of harmonic and melodic practices. The perfect fifth (with a 3:2 ratio) and major third (5:4) compose the major triad, perhaps the cornerstone of Western tonality, familiar even to the ears of a nonmusician.¹

Rhythm refers to how notes are organized in time. The majority of songs, especially those heard in Western societies, organize notes into four *beats* that regularly repeat, although other numbers of beats are not uncommon. Many dance musics from court traditions are organized into three beats (e.g., "Dance of the Flowers" from Tchaikovsky's ballet *The Nutcracker*), and songs organized into six beats are common in both classical and popular traditions (e.g., "Miss

¹ For a short example as evidence, go to $\frac{https://youtu.be/JkFLF_{k}}{MkFLF_{k}}$.

You" on Sound & Color by Alabama Shakes). Whatever the number of beats, these form a *pulse* or a grid underneath the whole song. Performers may play multiple notes in one beat, notes lasting several beats, or other subdivisions and syncopations, but will generally retain a perceptible pulse. This helps songs be danceable to an audience and more easily playable to a group of musicians.

Figure 1.

Excerpt from Tchaikovsky's Serenade for Strings in C, Op. 48, III.

In section A, beginning measure 45, the second violins (second line from the top) and violas (middle line) play harmony in triplets, a hemiola pattern, while the first violins (top line) and cello (fourth line from the top) sections play a melody with duple subdivisions.

Interestingly, our interval names for pitch intervals can also be applied to the rhythmic phenomenon of *polyrhythms*, where multiple streams of notes are played at different (coprime) pulses. That is, it's possible that in the time it takes one drummer to play the four beats one would expect in a disco song, a keyboard player could play three chords, forming a 4:3 polyrhythm. These grooves are more common in non-Western musical practices, especially in Afro-Cuban styles, but aren't impossible to come across in the works of Western composers. One example favored by the author can be found in the third movement of Tchaikovsky's *Serenade for Strings*. See Figure 1 for an excerpt of the piece featuring an extended 3:2 relationship between the instruments with harmonic and melodic roles. For an example of using intervals to describe both pitch interval and a polyrhythm, see Figure 2.

With these features in hand (or, if you will, "in ear"), we can attempt to determine what must be true of musical moments for them to be perceived as similar by a listener. First, though, I would like to emphasize that difference does not preclude similarity. Some moments in music

The interval of a perfect fifth between the C4 and G4 (top line) and the hemiola polyrythm (bottom line) can both be described by a 3:2 ratio, referring to pitch frequency and number of beats per time period of interest, respectively.

may be perceived as similar, sharing some elusive quality that allows for experiential connections to emerge, even though they are different in terms of any combination of pitch, rhythm, timbre, or loudness, for example. Consider different performances of the United States National Anthem, a common case where the same song is played in different keys, by vocalists who wildly embellish the melody, and while being accompanied by all manners of instruments, depending on the setting. While the performances of Lady Gaga at President Biden's inauguration in January 2021 was *different* in many, many ways from that of Jimi Hendrix at

Woodstock in 1969, they may still be *similar* to listeners. This is also to point out that two musical moments could be trivially similar if they are perceived as the same, rather than different, on all dimensions. So, interesting claims about the similarity of musical moments will be found past the boundaries at which sounds are perceived as indistinguishably the same.

Boundaries for recognizing difference in sounds

We owe a knowledge of these boundaries at which we fail to recognize sounds as different to researchers in psychoacoustics and music cognition. While these literatures have frequently been more involved in matters of pitch, there are applicable insights into perceptual boundaries for the dimension of rhythm. Overwhelmingly, these findings are related to when pulses, or a series of even beats, are treated the same by performers. When building a computational model to account for exact onsets of notes played by musicians, (Large & Kolen, 1994) relied on the assumption that initial metric information determined a pulse grid that to-beperformed material would be fit to. This metric entrainment, as they refer to it, is highly related to other notions of oscillatory patterns and resonance systems discussed in theories of pitch perception, as we'll talk about shortly (Angelis et al., 2013; Large & Snyder, 2009; van Noorden & Moelants, 1999; Velasco & Large, 2011).

Understanding the overall pulse or meter, as well as the hierarchy of weak and strong beats, is useful when hoping to perform or analyze any piece of music. Notably, both intentional and unintentional departures from a strict pulse grid arise in musical performance. Intentional departures are frequently notated in music, and can provide great expressive power. Unintentional departures – real problems for researchers attempting to model why musicians play when they do – may reflect a combination of the kinesthetic difficulties of a musician producing a sound exactly when they would like to, as well as flexibility in how far from the grid can still constitute an appropriately timed note. Large and Kolen (1994) suggest that while it is hard to explain the exact misplacement of any note with respect to its nearest place in the pulse grid, in data provided by highly trained musicians tended these non-exact notes tended to be within a critical range of any given subdivision of the overall meter. While these subdivisions are also flexible within the context of a piece, this could imply that notes are metrically the same if they are attributable to the same place in a pulse grid.

Listeners' sensitivity to changes in tempo, or shifts to the underlying grid on which notes ought fall, vary according to the present tempo and whether the tempo is increasing or decreasing. The reported boundary is in terms of the just noticeable difference (JND), referring to how much the stimuli have to change in order for listeners to correctly report noticing a difference in more than 50% of cases. When asked to recognize a decrease in tempo (the music becoming slower), listeners reached above-chance accuracy when the tempo changed by around 6% of the initial tempo (in bpm). When asked to recognize an increase in tempo, the JND for these listeners was around 6% of the initial tempo at fast tempos (around 200 bpm) and increased to as much as 13% of the initial tempo at the slow tempo of 48 bpm (Dowling & Harwood, 1986; Lehman, 2012).

To remark on one complicating factor to this conclusion, note that different musicians and musicians of different practices place different amounts of attention to *where* within the expected range of a pulse grid notes tend to fall. That is to say, while notes are rarely perfectly placed on some beat, it does matter whether a musician is consistently placing notes ahead of or behind this beat. This artistic difference has been most clearly written about as a stylistic difference between Western classical music, which does aim to minimize individual and unintentional deviations from an ideal pulse grid, and improvisatory Jazz traditions that

frequently employ different styles of swing or relationships to the beat in their playing (Ellis, 1991; Lehman, 2012). So, even empirically measurable sensitivity to changes in beat may vary according to musical training and exposure to different musical traditions, as the definition of what placement with respect to a grid is ideal is obviously dependent on these factors.

For the feature of pitch, we can describe the necessary physical difference between pitches such that a listener is able to correctly report their difference greater than half of the time. The JND for detecting differences in pitch varies according to other features of the sounds and by task demands. When notes are played in quick succession and listeners are asked to make a judgement about whether the sounds were the same or different pitch, they score above chance when the difference between the notes exceeds about 0.5% of the former's frequency (Justus $\&$ Bharucha, 2002), though this interacts with our logarithmic perception of pitch. The JND also varies according to the time between the pitches, with higher acuity for notes played simultaneously than consecutively, and for pure sine tones compared to notes with richer harmonic content (Borchert, 2011). Interestingly, human accuracy in terms of JNDs is not greater for pitch than features such as brightness or loudness, despite the greater musical weight given to pitch in most analytical and compositional practices (Cousineau et al., 2009, 2014; McDermott et al., 2010).

Most musical scenarios involve judging the relative size of intervals as they make up the contour of different melodies, or comparing these melodies themselves, rather than judging the similarity of two consecutive pitches. People with Western Classical musical training are able to be accurate in size judgments between two intervals when their size differed by as little as 100 cents, about the distance from one piano key to the next (if that piano, like most nowadays, is tuned in twelve-tone equal temperament), while nonmusicians are similarly accurate when the

difference is slightly larger, at to 125 cents (Zarate et al., 2012). This difference according to musical training highlights the flexibility of this boundary according to learned musical structures. In fact, a sizable number of musical practices utilize differences in pitch smaller than a 12TET semitone of 100 cents. The difference between notes characterizing the particular *ragas* in Indian Classical music are as small as one twenty-secondth of an octave (approximately 55.54 cents), and those between *maqamat* in Arabic Classical traditions are in terms of quarter tones, or approximately 25 cents (Gann, 2019). Additionally, there exists a rich world of microtonal composers who through various techniques employ notes much closer in pitch than 100 cents (the "Hyperchromatica" collection by Kyle Gann makes for a fun entry point).²

In addition to ideas of mere proximity as a heuristic for the similarity of pitch ideas, a more complex notion of continuity may also guide our perception. Continuity, in my use, will refer to the influence of familiar musical systems on the perception of sounds. Work by Goldman et al. (2020) demonstrated that even among trained musicians, those who frequently improvise in musical practice show behavioral and neural differences when perceiving harmonic progressions whose second of three chords was sometimes varied. In fact, even mere exposure to different musical systems may be important in forming our perceptions of complex musical stimuli. Even in an experimental setting, when certain pitches are presented more frequently than others for a short period of time, people are faster to make recognition judgments and likely to rate a pitch as more pleasurable when presented with a more common pitch, compared to an uncommon one (Ben-Haim et al., 2014), and similar effects can be found when listeners are introduced to new, unfamiliar tonal systems (Sandbank, 2019).

² While the accompanying YouTube playlist includes "Rings of Saturn," you can also visit <https://kylegann.com/Gannmusic.html> for .mp3's of these and other pieces.

Western systems of tonality may interact powerfully with our perception of pitch intervals. When asked to make judgments about the size of the interval between two notes, between which a short musical example is played, accuracy in those judgments are higher when the musical example is tonal, or in a familiar key to a Western listener, rather than atonal (Graves & Oxenham, 2017). Neto et al. (2021) had students from Western conservatories in Canada and Brazil listen to a short primer, which could be either tonal (the A melodic minor scale) or atonal (an ascending set of non-repeating, unevenly spaced notes). After this, participants were played a set of two notes in A melodic minor forming either a minor third, major third, or perfect fourth, and asked to provide a subjective rating of the distance between the notes. While both minor and major thirds are two notes apart in the *scale* of A minor, minor thirds (three half steps wide, or 300 cents) are smaller than major thirds (four half steps, or 400 cents). By contrast, major thirds and diminished fourths are both intervals between two notes four half steps (400 cents) apart, but diminished fourths are three notes apart in the *scale*, and represent functionally more distant notes than a major third. When preceded by the *tonal* primer, participants rated the diminished fourths as larger than the major thirds, and those in turn larger than the minor thirds. When preceded by the *atonal* primer, the size difference between major thirds and diminished fourths disappeared, suggesting that these intervals are only perceived to be different sizes within a tonal context that classifies them as differently sized according to scale steps, at least among this sample of students attending music conservatories.

The harmonic series is a physical and theoretical system that may also highly influence our perception of the relationship between pitches. While the harmonic series has been significant to developments of Western music, both art and popular traditions, its influence may be distinct from that of the harmonic systems developed in Classical or Jazz practices, for

example. (Demany & Ramos, 2005) played participants inharmonic chords consisting of sine tones at large, equal distances from each other (e.g., six sine tones each a major sixth apart). Following this, participants could either be played a note present in the preceding chord, one absent but about a half step $(\sim 100 \text{ cents})$ away from a note in the preceding chord, or one absent and about halfway between two notes in the preceding chord. While participants were accurate in reporting the presence of the present notes, and the absence of the half-step difference notes, participants tended to inaccurately report that the "halfway" target note *had* been present in the preceding chord. While by absolute proximity, these "halfway" target notes were more dissimilar to the previous chord than the target notes a half step away, the "halfway" targets seemed to be perceived as more consistent with the previous chord, at least enough to drive false positives in the recognition task. In order to explain the apparent difference in harmonic continuity participants attributed to these different kinds of target notes, researchers investigated the potential existence of frequency shift detectors. These hypothetical neural mechanisms are theorized to be attuned to small changes in absolute frequency between successive sounds, since these produce larger dissimilarities in two tones' harmonic series than larger changes in frequency (Demany et al., 2009; Demany & Semal, 2018).

In addition to harmonic schema, contour may also be a valid component of what makes a series of pitches continuous or not. Contour consists of directional information between subsequent pitches in a musical phrase, and can be visualized as the pattern of notes ascending, descending, or not moving. While when humans are asked to reproduce familiar melodies by singing them, they often do so in the same key as the original piece (Demany & Semal, 2007), familiar melodies can be recognized in any key since the exact intervals between notes are preserved through transposition. This is consistent with everyone's rendition of "Happy

Birthday" seeming to be in a different key than everyone else in the room; a melody can retain its identity regardless of the tonic center. Recognition of transposed melodies may not only depend on exact transposition, where all intervals are exactly preserved, though. While listeners seem to be able to distinguish melodies from musical phrases of the same length with random contour, they don't perform above chance when distinguishing exacting transpositions of melodies to ones with the same contour as the original (Dowling, 1978; Kleinsmith & Neill, 2018).

Grouping musical moments

The previous section details our understanding of when we can tell the difference between particular sound events according to their rhythm or pitch. This allows us to examine the interesting (non-trivial) cases where we may or may not find sounds to be meaningfully perceptually similar. However, the experimental settings relevant for determining our recognition for changes to the features of sounds include incredibly simplified and discretely delivered sounds. In answering questions about how we determine the similarity of musical moments more broadly, it's useful to find additional boundaries concerning how we group discrete sound events into musical moments at all. This section will outline current methods of understanding how we group successive sounds into related components of a common perceptual object, to the extent that we can explain musical moments in terms of musical features.

Looking first towards rhythm, a paper by London (2002) reviews psychoacoustic and psychological investigations of metric perception, including that of *subjective rhythmization*, or when we perceive subsequent notes to be forming beats. On the fast end, we stop perceiving these beats when the inter-onset interval (IOI) between notes exceeds around 100 ms, analogous to a measure of notes at a tempo of 600 beats per minute (bpm). There exist a few *metric envelope*s, or regions of time in which we tend to group hierarchical information. These have

musical significance, since it would be possible to hear a measure containing six notes either as six independent notes, as three sets of two, as two sets of three, and sometimes as one full beat containing six notes. Contextual information interacts with these metric tendencies to inform what groupings we hear.

The fastest of these metric envelopes is when notes have IOIs of 200-250 ms, corresponding inversely to a measure in 240-300 bpm. At this speed, subdivisions are rare and would tend to be simple rather than compound (splitting beats into two rather than three components), both for the sake of performers' physical capacities and for the perception of listeners. The second metric envelope overlaps strongly with the range in which people are most comfortable spontaneously creating a pulse – when asked to tap at a comfortable and even speed, for example. Beats are most strongly felt with IOIs of 600-700 ms, or at a tempo of 85-100 bpm. At the slowest end, notes with IOIs of 1500-200 ms, or at a tempo of 20-40 bpm, form a lower limit at which we are comfortable grouping notes in one pulse. Interestingly, this tends to be a highly subdivided meter, so that listeners hear pulses at lower hierarchical significance at the reportedly more comfortable level around 600 ms, for example. While musical practice overwhelmingly tends to align with these regions, pieces such as John Cage's "ASLSP" (As Slow as Possible) – currently 20 years into its 639-year performance – push these practical and perceptual boundaries in the name of artistic experimentation.

Research in auditory scene analysis investigates whether listeners explicitly report hearing audio as either one or two "streams" of audio – that is, whether diotically presented sounds are perceived as a single unit, or two separate ones. Evidence from this field is consistent with proximity being an important principle in how and whether we associate sounds. Work by Snyder et al. (2008) showed that when participants heard a repeated pattern of two notes, they

were more likely to report hearing two distinct "streams" or sources of sound as the interval between the two notes increased. When the notes were an octave apart, greater than 95% of listeners reported hearing these notes as separate streams. In addition to this effect of the interval between notes on a given trial, participants' perception of either one or two streams was also significantly affected by the intervals they heard in previous trials, even as long as 15 seconds later. Having heard the notes in unison in a previous trial increased the likelihood participants would hear two streams in the current trial when hearing any interval greater than a unison, with the reverse effect for having previously heard an interval of an octave.

This anchoring effect, where previously heard sounds seem to change the parameters of expected sounds in the future, is consistent with previously discussed literature describing the effect that musical systems such as tonal systems and the harmonic series have on perception. Additionally, composers have employed processes of time-dependence in generative compositional processes. Markov chains have been one way of computing the likelihood of a subsequent note given features of the previous note. As one example, the *Illiac Suite* (1957) algorithmically determined the intervals between notes based on judgements of the proximity between notes as well as their harmonic relationship or continuity (Ames, 1989).

James Tenney, a music theorist and composer, has written extensively about methods of algorithmically determining how sections of music are likely split into smaller perceptual units (Tenney, 2015b, 2015a). His goal has been to make rigorous the definition that when one unit of music is more internally similar than similar to neighboring units, this drives perceptual cohesion of the similar unit, and distinction from other nearby units. Decisions about these groupings are made by integrating information about multiple features of music, including time, pitch class,

and the intensity of the notes. Tenney's models depend on weighting each of these features, so that they are linearly combined to compute holistic similarity between musical moments.

With the coding help of Larry Polansky, their mathematical model analyzed the compositions of a few composers, producing sketches of the perceptual objects at different hierarchical levels. The weights for each musical feature found to be ideal varied according to composer, and are summarized in Figure 3. Tenney noted the difference in the weights for the parameter of intensity representing a tendency for the markings of fortissimo or pianissimo dynamics, for example, to be structural rather than expressive decisions for Varèse and Webern compared to Debussy. However, Tenney remarks that the weights for pitch were mostly arrived at through trial and error, with no clear theoretical – or statistical – rationale governing the Figure 3. selection process.

Features and weights reported by Tenney (1978).

pieces into moments at different hierarchical levels, divisions that were useful for further music theoretical

Duration referred to 10 ms segments of time, pitch to the number of half steps between notes, intensity (loudness) to an ordinal difference in notated dynamics (e.g., there is one unit between a mezzoforte and forte), and with timbre referring to dummy variables corresponding to each instrument in a given piece.

analysis conducted by Tenney of the selected pieces. Certainly, assuming the model is effective in dividing the score into units similar to those perceived in the mind of a listener, it is useful to base score analyses on these divisions rather than ones based purely on reading written music, or even through a dialogic process of re-listening and re-marking an understanding of the piece in written form. However, there are several drawbacks to the model as proposed and worked through in 1978. Tenney's model computes several levels of hierarchical groupings, with each higher-level grouping computed in succession; first, all of the smallest units ("elements") are

identified, and then the model runs through the whole piece again to group these "elements" into "clangs," and so on up to the level of the whole piece. This iterative process by the model is likely a departure from the human ability to perceive different groupings at different hierarchies simultaneously when listening to a piece of music.

Another notable difference in the model's computational process arises from the operationalization of the feature of pitch. Tenney notes that pitch was computed by the number of half steps between two adjacent notes (the absolute difference in their ascribed MIDI number). This computation is therefore done without respect to the scalar role of notes, information which we know from work by Neto et al. (2021) affects the perception of interval size. Additionally, this computation doesn't take into account the surrounding harmonic context accompanying any pairs of notes; we know from work by many scholars in music cognition that the harmonic context can affect recognition judgements, and any music theorist or performer would tell you that the harmonic function of a set of notes changes depending on their association with other chordal material present. So, Tenney's model may still lack the power to incorporate harmonic information into its division of pieces into perceptual units.

Tenney writes about another significant drawback of his work at that point: these different features, while weighted differently, are still linearly combined to define the holistic similarity or dissimilarity between subsequent notes. Already, we have found ways in which tonality and rhythm interact to determine whether or not listeners can recognize differences in notes on axes of pitch and rhythm (e.g., E. M. O. Borchert, 2011; Graves & Oxenham, 2017). How and whether we group musical moments into perceptual objects also seems to depend on interactions between these features. For example, in a study by Moelants and van Noorden (2005), participants were played looped polyrhythms that varied in different aspects of pitch and rhythm (overall tempo, polyrhythm density, and pitch interval), and told to tap along to the beat however the saw fit. When the pitch interval was greater – as the two notes in the polyrhythm were farther apart – participants were less likely to tap in time to the overall beat. They instead tapped in time to one of the two notes in the polyrhythm, but this pattern seemed to depend on the polyrhythm and overall tempo. When the polyrhythm was less dense (e.g., 5:2 rather than 5:4), people were more likely to tap along to the fast component rather than the slow component. Similarly, at slower tempos, participants were more likely to tap in time to the fast component of the polyrhythm. Prince et al. (2009) found that the delay between the musical example and the onset of the second note affected judgments about the interval between the first and second note under certain circumstances. When the musical example was tonal, the delay did not affect accuracy; however, when the musical example was atonal, accuracy was significantly higher if the second note was played on the beat established by the example, rather than off the beat.

Summary

From this multidisciplinary approach to our perception of sound, we have gained many useful frameworks to guide our inquiry into judgements of perceptual similarity between musical moments. Beyond the boundaries at which we can ascribe difference to musical sounds, we know that different sounds can be considered similar if they are in agreement with each other in terms of familiar musical systems to listeners. Notions of resonance and harmonic series relationships govern metric entrainment and many harmonic systems of pitch; training in certain musical practices and short-term exposure to certain sounds can change which heuristics of continuity are most salient when judging musical material; features such as pitch and rhythm interact in nonlinear ways when we form holistic perceptual judgements of musical moments.

There remains ample room for further research to understand more precisely how certain types of listeners ascribe similarity or difference to musical moments, and under what conditions different or competing heuristics from familiar musical systems are employed to guide these judgements. However, I would like to address one key inference that poses a weakness in the work we have reviewed so far concerning musical perception: we have not been measuring perception. Psychological research has depended on measuring behavioral responses, such as when participants can report recognition or when and how they produce sounds by singing or tapping. Music theoretical work has depended on a dialogic engagement between physically denotable divisions of a piece and an interactive representation of the musical work in the analysts' mind; Tenney and Polansky tuned the weights of their model so that the divisions produced by the computations were in line with their ideas about where perceptual objects should be in the pieces.

In order to strengthen the body of literature investigating music perception, I hope to find a way to make inferences about people's perceptual experiences without relying on their behavioral responses to music directly. As one way of forward, I will borrow from the psychological study of memory.

Context-Dependent Memory

An active subset of memory research focuses on context-dependent memory (CDM), a theory which states that when someone learns target material in a given *context*, they will do better on a test of that material when that context is present, rather than absent, during the test. Conceptually, the definition of context can refer to anything and everything that is not the target material itself: features of the room someone is in, how hungry they are, their mood and wandering thoughts, the sound of people talking a room away, the smell of paper in front of

them, the din of computers buzzing behind them, and so on. Experimentally, researchers focus on manipulating features of a background environment that are complex but temporally stable, so that these contexts are associated with a longer event rather than a small moment within a lab procedure (Stark et al., 2018). To be functionally useful, different contexts must also exceed perceptual thresholds to be considered different, and must have some degree of behavioral relevance; while a context doesn't need to be explicitly presented as related to the target task (and many studies do not direct participants' attention directly to the context), if a context is not salient enough to enter at least pre-conscious awareness, it will not be an accessible part of memories formed during the task. The theory of context-dependent memory emerges from our understanding of episodic memory, and is related to the *encoding specificity principle*, which states that a memory for learned information or events includes not only the target information, but other information present during encoding such as task demands, how the material was learned, and other extraneous detail. Evidence for context-dependent memory has been found in a diverse range of such contexts, including but not limited to odor (Ball et al., 2010; Cann & Ross, 1989), state (Eich, 1980), incidental room environments (for review, see Smith & Vela, 2001) and imagined rooms (Masicampo & Sahakyan, 2014), and – of special interest to the present study – background music (Balch et al., 1992; Balch & Lewis, 1996; Isarida T. K. et al., 2008; T. K. Isarida et al., 2017; Mead & Ball, 2007; S. M. Smith, 1985).

Computational models of memory and neurological research have worked jointly to refine theoretical and practical motivations in the study of context and memory. The temporal context model (TCM) sought to provide a unified explanation of the recency and contiguity effects seen in free recall (Howard & Kahana, 2002). The recency effect refers to more recently presented material being more likely to be recalled than older material, while the contiguity

effect refers to an asymmetrical effect where words presented close together in time are more likely to be recalled together, and such that words are most likely to be recalled in the same order as they were learned (i.e., recalled in sequential order rather than backwards). The components of the model include a slowly drifting representation of temporal context that is bound to a representation of items during encoding, with later updates to the memory of this item involving joint representation of the previous and current temporal context. Polyn et al. (2009) expanded TCM to detail a model of context maintenance and retrieval (CMR) that accounts not only for temporal context, but for list context and inter-item associations such as words' semantic connections, providing additional explanatory power for source and semantic clustering effects in free recall paradigms.

Neurological evidence for this slowly drifting temporal context has been found in electrocorticographic recordings of the temporal lobe and in whole-brain analyses (Manning et al., 2011). A body of animal studies involving lesions to the hippocampus have found such lesions to inhibit animals' ability to respond to previously learned contextual information, and their ability to respond appropriately to changes in contextual information (D. M. Smith et al., 2004), and the hippocampus is taken to be critical for integrating contextual and target information in episodic memory. Additionally, during recall processes Manning et al. (2011) found evidence for the reinstatement of context while retrieving target information. The hippocampus has also been recorded as sending information critical to distinguishing different periods of a task (e.g., earlier or later during a learning phase) to regions such as the cingulate cortex and anterior thalamic regions (S. M. Smith, 2009), and these as well as regions like the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex may play an important role in updating memory representations with previously integrated contextual information (Polyn & Kahana, 2008).

Theoretical explanations of context-dependent memory have emphasized the existence of multiple, complex components of the overall context present during encoding. For example, the *mental context hypothesis* states that the overall context during learning includes details about one's environment, their mood, thoughts, and associations with learned material (S. M. Smith, 1995). While it follows that memory for learned material is likely to be better when one specific part of the learning context – for example, a happy mood – is also present during a test rather than absent, the mental context hypothesis also accounts for reasons this may not be the case. Since one's mood is not the only component of these contexts, it may not also be an important enough component on any given task to drive a context-dependent memory effect. Even when the maintenance of mood context is enough to contribute to improved memory, forgetting due to changes in other aspects of context – the temperature of a room, for example – may still occur. In fact, someone's representation of the slow drift of time and of the type of task they're performing may be inextricable changes to someone's mental context between learning and a test.

One initial corollary to this hypothesis is that memory is more greatly affected by multiple changes to context between learning and test periods, compared to more simple changes. For research in place-dependent memory (for review, see Smith & Vela, 2001), evidence for this included greater effect sizes for CDM effects when context manipulation included changing the room environment, experimenter identity, and different internal factors for a participant, compared to only manipulating the room environment (T. Isarida & Isarida, 2014). This may be in part due to only certain manipulations crossing some threshold necessary for changes to be significant under task demands. In terms of the mental context hypothesis, given a greater proportion of dissimilarity between one's overall mental contexts at learning versus

during a test, we can expect fewer context cues to be readily available to facilitate recall, resulting in poorer memory performance.

This has made it especially compelling when manipulating only one aspect of context produces a reliable effect, such as one of the earliest CDM studies that assigned participants to either an underwater or above-water context between learning and test (Godden & Baddeley, 1975), manipulating specific odors in the same room environment (Mead & Ball, 2007), or manipulating the tempo or key of a musical piece independently (Balch & Lewis, 1996; Mead $\&$ Ball, 2007). Of course, these manipulations don't preclude other aspects of mental context functioning as covariates; to this end, there has been a significant effort towards teasing out the contribution of mood, in particular, toward these effects (Balch & Lewis, 1996; Eich & Metcalfe, 1989; T. K. Isarida et al., 2017).

Task demands often influence the boundaries and importance of different contexts. For example, work found an effect of mood-dependent memory for words generated by participants in a given mood state, but not for words decided and presented by experimenters (Eich $\&$ Metcalfe, 1989). A hypothesis of mood's mediation of place-dependent memory effects, first proposed by (Eich, 1995), has been weakened by some evidence of moderating factors such as this; if mood as a context does not drive memory effects in the robust set of situations in which place-dependent memory effects have been found, it's hard to build a case that mood is a unique mediating factor for such effects. This is corroborated by evidence from animal brain studies, which have found that differences in patterns of hippocampal neuron firing are produced not only when the geometry of a room environment change, but also when task demands, perceived autonomy, or the types of rewards offered are manipulated (S. M. Smith, 2009).

Music-Dependent Memory

In the first study to establish background music as a context that could elicit contextdependent memory benefits, Smith (1985) found that participants who were tested on previously studied words after a 48 hour delay showed decreased levels of forgetting if they listened to the same background music at test as they had while studying the words. In Experiment 1, participants either heard Mozart's Concerto No. 24 in C minor, "People Make the World Go Around" from Milt Jackson's Sunflower jazz record, or no sound while studying a list of common words and during an initial, immediate test of how many words they could recall. When participants returned two days later, they were administered a surprise delayed test of free recall while either the Mozart, jazz piece, or no sound played in the background. For those who studied with music in the background, the number of words recalled at the delayed test was higher if they listened to the same selection, rather than the different selection or no sound. For those who studied with no music in the background, their ability to recall words during the delayed test was not significantly changed by whether music was played at the delayed test, providing some evidence against suggestions that memory effects are more caused by the distraction of background music. Experiment 2 replicated this general finding, and also showed that white noise was able to similarly function as a background noise context.

Subsequent work on music-dependent memory focused on teasing apart what features of background music may be most important for eliciting the CDM benefit. Work by Balch et al. (1992) used four different instrumental pieces that varied in genre (either Classical or Jazz) and in tempo (either slow or fast), and found that the proportion of words participants could recall during a surprise test was most disrupted when they heard music with a different tempo at test, compared to those who heard music of a different genre at test. Replicating this tempo-dependent memory effect, Balch and Lewis (1996) found that there was a stronger CDM benefit for tempo compared to genre in Experiment 1, and compared to timbre in Experiment 2. This work controlled for the key of included pieces, with the first author playing all selections in C major. In addition to this effect of tempo, Mead and Ball (2007) demonstrated that manipulating the tonality of a piece could produce a CDM effect, using Chopin's Waltz in A Minor, either played in the minor key as written or in A Major by a professional pianist.

Work by Isarida et al. (2017) challenged the strength of these findings in a similar study, where participants learned words while hearing a piece of music that was either fast or slow, and either in a major or minor key. Performance in a surprise test of recall was greater for those who heard the same piece of music rather than a different one during the final test, replicating the general CDM effect. However, those who heard a different piece of music at test did not perform significantly different from each other whether the piece of music had the same or different tempo or tonality to the original piece heard during learning. That is, the similarity of two different musical pieces' features such as tempo, tonality, or so on is not always sufficient to ameliorate memory detriments expected when the background music context is different. The authors' exclusion of a condition where participants heard the same piece of music that varied in tempo or tonality at test makes it difficult to draw conclusions about whether manipulating those features is sufficient to make the altered musical piece be perceived as a different piece, resulting in weakened memory performance.

Methodological Review

The broader literature of CDM research has a fair amount of methodological variance, with effects found in recognition as well as recall tests, when studying words as well as visual information such as faces, using indirect measures of memory, and differences in the delay
between learning and test, just to name a few. The subset of studies focused on background music as a manipulable context are fewer and in some ways more consistent. My goal here is to note in what ways the present study was consistent with this literature, and where it departed.

All cited music-dependent memory studies test verbal memory rather than visual memory. Interestingly, a small study by Echaide et al. (2019) demonstrated that instrumental background music affected initial and future recall of visuospatial items, but did not impact similarly measured memory for words, suggesting that the use of words as target information rather than images is more useful if researchers hope to find music-dependent memory effects. These studies also almost always present words visually and test participants on them in a written format, although Smith (1985)'s Experiment 2 provided some evidence that the CDM effect is more pronounced when words are presented aurally rather than visually. However, aural presentation of words is not common in other music-dependent memory studies, and poses technological difficulties when researchers don't have fine control over how participants listen to audio. While studies investigating contexts such as odor have found significant effects for tests of recognition (Ball et al., 2010; Cann & Ross, 1989), and Smith and Vela (2001)'s metaanalysis found evidence for context effects when testing recognition, studies of music-dependent memory have exclusively utilized tests of free recall. Therefore, the present study tested memory for words presented visually through a delayed free recall test.

Though Smith (1985) exclusively measured recall after a 48 hour delay, Balch et al. (1992) replicated a music-dependent memory effect for an immediate test of recall but could not find a consistent effect for the test after a 48 hour delay. Subsequent work consistently utilizes immediate tests of recall, often after a relatively short delay (ranging from 30 seconds to 5 minutes). During these delays, many authors played intentionally distracting music (work by

Balch and colleagues (1992, 1996) featured atonal bamboo flute music, and Mead and Ball (2007) favored birdsong) in order to reduce potential effects of distraction for those who heard different or altered music compared to those who heard the same piece during the test. So, the present study follows suit, employing a relatively immediate test of free recall after a delay shorter than five minutes. During the delay period, participants will listen to pink noise while performing a visuospatial task. While pink noise is not likely to be as distracting as the sounds used in previous studies, it provides some control over the auditory context of participants during this phase, so that the transition to the test phase is comparable between participants; additionally, the manipulations of musical stimuli in the present study concern specific, small changes to harmonic information, so the delay period sound was selected to not contain confounding harmonic or melodic information.

Another point of difference between the Smith (1985) study and others is the exact mechanism by which participants learned words. Smith (1985) had participants study words intentionally, for an expected immediate test of free recall. They then found an effect of musical context on a surprise test of free recall after a 48 hour delay. Utilizing intentional learning is beneficial for the non-associative processing it may encourage in participants while studying, and Smith and Vela (2001)'s meta-analysis found that for incidental room environments, the mean weighted effect size for CDM effects were significantly lower when the processing of words at encoding was associative $(d = .13)$, rather than non-associative $(d = .33)$ or otherwise not specified (*d* = .38). However, work by Isarida et al. (2008) found no effect of musical context on participants' memory of words studied intentionally, when a test of free recall was employed after a 30 second delay. These authors did find a significant effect of musical context on participants' memory of words studied incidentally, where participants were shown each target

word individually and asked to audibly state as many verbal associates as possible in the five seconds for which the word was presented. This is consistent with many other recent studies in music-dependent memory, which utilize incidental learning, short delays between learning and test, and have produced significant effects of musical, genre, and tempo as contexts (Balch et al., 1992; Balch & Lewis, 1996; Isarida et al., 2017; Mead & Ball, 2007). In order to more closely replicate the methodologies of more recent work in music-dependent memory and employ a paradigm in which there already exists evidence that context changes can differentially affect recall, the present study employed incidental learning, with participants rating a subset of the words used by Mead and Ball (2007) for the pleasantness on a likert-type scale.

Related to the manner of learning, there is conflicting evidence on whether the number of times words are shown to participants affects the strength of context-dependent memory effects. Within participants who learned words incidentally, Isarida et al. (2008) found in a withinsubjects comparison that there was an effect of context on the recall of words presented once, but not those presented twice during the learning phase. The authors concluded that presenting words twice strengthened their representation while diminishing their association with the surrounding background-music context. However, Mead and Ball (2007) did find significant effects of background music's key on participants' free recall of words presented twice in random order. While it is unclear what produced the null effect in Isarida et al. (2008)'s study but not that of Mead and Ball (2007), the present study is more methodologically similar to the latter than the former: I used English rather than Japanese words, had participants rate words for pleasantness rather than verbally report associates, and did not manipulate the number of times words were presented within subjects. Therefore, I opted to display words twice in a random order during the incidental learning phase.

Perhaps even more significantly, to the best of my knowledge every study investigating music-dependent memory has thus far operationalized music as background music, such that their stimuli consisted of rich, complex instrumental musical examples, overwhelmingly pulled from Western Classical repertoire, occasionally also featuring American Jazz pieces. This is not to say that these pieces have been employed without rigor. While most studies justified their selection of pieces as ones likely not to be familiar to their college-aged participants, Mead and Ball (2007) also reported results of a pilot study that verified that students at their institution tended to rate the chosen Chopin waltz as "neither particularly familiar nor unfamiliar" (12). Additionally, although most studies used a single musical selection per condition (e.g., one piece that was both slow and in a minor key, one piece that was fast and in a major key, etc.), authors Isarida and Isarida frequently employed multiple selections per condition, in order to present results that could more robustly be explained by shared features of these pieces rather than particularities of single examples (Isarida T. K. et al., 2008; T. K. Isarida et al., 2017).

Even using verifiably unfamiliar musical selections and varying specifical musical features while controlling for target ones, it is not far-fetched to say that there remain similarities and dissimilarities not controlled for between selected pieces: the timbre of instruments, melodic contours, arrangement techniques, chord progressions, harmonic or melodic structure, differential salience of an instrument in a given moment, the overall mood or social context invoked by a piece of music, may all vary in ways uncontrollable and sometimes inarticulable. All of these musical features may connect moments of music in surprising ways, and may evoke other memories in surprising ways. Effect sizes of context change on memory are greater when multiple features of a context are changed at once, compared to when single features are changed, a common finding that mental context theory offers explanation for. So, efforts to

report significant effects of background music as a context are strengthened when changes in background music are complex. The present study is an effort to begin inquiry into what combinations of musical features produce these rich and sometimes deeply personal subjective experiences of music, and connections between musics. The effect sizes of hypothesized effects are likely to be smaller than other studies, but differences would be strong evidence for musicdependent memory effects dependent specifically on the feature of pitch interval – a perceptual feature that is complex in its own right.

Present Study

The present study investigated whether the framework of a context-dependent memory experiment would be a valid way to assess the perceptual categorization of musical examples by varying the pitch interval of a simple piece of background music between its presentation during the learning and the test of words. This study focused on only manipulating the dimension of pitch of one note, in order to alter the interval formed between two pitches. Out of a desire to maintain some complexity to rhythm in order to retain some generalizability to other musical situations, these notes were complex pitches played back in a polyrhythm. In particular, I chose a 5:4 polyrhythm played at 150 BPM, which Moelants and van Noorden (2005) found to be a combination at which tapping preferences between the fast-versus-slow components and the high-versus-low notes to be split most evenly.

Key to the motivation of this study is the notion that context-dependent memory effects are driven by the complex and multiple components of a given context. The integration of contextual information and target material is in part built on associations between the features of the context – here, the timbre of notes, perceived rhythmic emphasis, and pitch content – and the features of the target material being studied – here, English words. Differences in the pitch

interval of the musical context may be critical for some of these context-target associations. Additionally, a context may be usefully recalled to aid retrieval based on its holistic representation, distinct from merely the sum of its features. Here, while changes to absolute pitch distance may be a significant change to this feature of the musical context, if the impression of the harmonic material is not severely altered, physically different sounds may still cue the same global impression of the original musical context.

So, the present study sought first to replicate an expected music-dependent memory benefit, testing the effect of hearing either no audio, or the polyrhythm at a same or a different pitch interval, on delayed recall of learned words. It was expected that those who heard the same audio would recall more words than those who heard no audio at test. If the difference of pitch interval is sufficiently perceptually distinct, those who heard different audio would be expected to recall fewer words than those who heard the same audio. Furthermore, if pitch interval is of unique importance to the present background sound context, those who heard different audio would be expected to not perform differently than those who heard no audio during the delayed test of recall. However, if remaining similarities between the different audio and the original audio are still beneficial to contextual reinstatement processes, those who heard different audio would be expected to recall more words than those who heard no audio at test.

While this comparison can give insight into how crucial the broad construct of pitch interval is to a musical context, further investigation is necessary to tease out how pitch interval creates musical contexts. Specifically, the current study classified pitch intervals according to the *octave level* and *interval class* of the interval created between the two notes of the polyrhythm. Octave level categorically defines the register of the interval, such that an interval smaller than one octave is in the first octave level, but one between two and three octaves is in the third

octave level. The interval class of an interval refers to the music theoretical name of an interval, irrespective of octave displacement $-$ i.e., we will call the distance between a C and a G a perfect fifth, no matter how many octaves are between the particular notes C and G. Compared to those who heard the same audio – with both the same interval class and octave level – at test as during learning, I hypothesized that fewer words would be recalled by those (1) who heard the polyrhythm at a greater octave level at test, and (2) who heard different interval classes than that of the perfect fifth heard during the learning phase.

Pilot I

It is well-known that different musical intervals can evoke different subjective experiences in listeners. Therefore, a small pilot study was conducted to inform the selection of sounds for the main experiment. Out of the 12 interval classes, four were selected that (a) each did not offer significantly different subjective experiences at different octave levels, (b) did not significantly differ from each other in these subjective experiences, and (c) satisfied musical constraints.

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited either through social media or through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) with the use of TurkPrime by CloudResearch (Litman et al., 2017) between December 28, 2020 and February 11, 2021. Participants recruited through social media received compensation of \$6.25 for an approximately 30-minute task, in accordance with New York State minimum wage as of January 1, 2021; participants recruited from MTurk received compensation of \$3.75 for the task after providing a valid completion code, in accordance with the United States Federal minimum wage.

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While 72 participants completed some portion of the task and had data stored on Inquisit's servers, this included only 61 complete responses (*M*age = 31.82, $SD_{age} = 12.88$. Of these, participants were excluded who failed to identify the direction between pairs of notes more than half the time, who could identify the correct musical name for intervals all of the time, who reported turning off audio during the task, and/or who reported not providing intentional answers during the task. After these measures, 45 participants $(M_{age} = 33.51, SD_{age} = 13.95)$ were included in analyses. For full demographic information, see Table 1.

Materials

Musical Stimuli. All musical stimuli consisted of a 5:4 polyrhythm played at pitch intervals ranging from a minor second to three octaves apart, for a total of 36 possible pitch intervals. These form three distinct octave levels, and

thirteen possible interval classes, the name used to refer to an interval (e.g., a perfect fifth and a major third are different interval classes). Stimuli were created in Musescore [\(Schweer, 2020\)](https://www.zotero.org/google-docs/?vZq8f6) and exported to .mp3 files to be played through the Inquisit Web 6 player (2020). At each pitch interval, stimuli were looped indefinitely with a period of 1600 ms, equivalent to a tempo of 150 beats per minute (bpm), to equalize the perceptual salience of each rhythmic component (Moelants & van Noorden, 2005). For full description of musical stimuli, see Appendix A.

Interval Recognition Task. In order to confirm participant's self-reports about hearing ability, perfect pitch or pitch blindness, and functioning audio equipment, they completed a oneminute interval recognition task in the Inquisit Web 6 player. Participants were asked to make judgments about the direction and quality of six intervals, played both melodically (so that participants heard the first and then the second note) and harmonically (both notes played at once). Notes were played as quarter notes at 150 bpm; the audio example lasted 5 s. After hearing the interval, participants were first asked whether the second note was higher or lower than the first note, and then were asked to either select which musical interval name best reflected the interval they heard, or respond "I do not know". Participants who provided the incorrect direction for four or more of the six intervals, or who provided the corrected quality for all six intervals, had their data removed from main analyses.

Lexical Decision Task. Participants completed an adapted version of the Lexical Decision Task available in the online Millisecond Test Library (K. Borchert, 2020) in the Inquisit Web 6 player. Lists of words and nonwords were generated through the English Lexicon Project (Balota et al., 2007), selected to be comparable in length and such that the English words were high in concreteness and neutral in valence. The full list of words is available in Appendix B. During the approximately three minute task, a word or nonword was presented on screen

briefly (250 ms), followed by a fixation cross for the duration of the response period (700 ms). During the response period, participants used key presses to categorize the characters as either a word or a nonword. Participants were instructed to respond as fast as possible while maintaining accuracy. The accuracy and reaction time, measured from stimulus onset, of their judgments were recorded.

Musical Feature Ratings. Participants were asked to make judgments about the musical features of sounds they heard using likert-type scales in the Inquisit Web 6 platform. They were presented with statements such as "This sound was familiar" and were asked to indicate their personal agreement with the statement on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), with 4 as a neutral midpoint (neither agree nor disagree). For each sound, they judged familiarity, pleasure, consonance, engagement, distraction, and valence.

Demographics and Musical Experience Questionnaires. Participants were asked to provide their age in years, gender identity, and any applicable race or ethnicity labels in demographics questionnaires. Additionally, they were asked to provide information about musical training and experience, instrument practice habits, and music listening habits.

Procedure

Participants who were determined to qualify and provided informed consent for the present study completed the experiment in the Inquisit Web 6 player (*Inquisit 6 Web*, 2020). They first completed the interval recognition task, confirming audio playback on their device. For the main task, participants heard all 12 possible interval classes in a random order, and each interval class at one of three octave levels. See Figure 4 for an overview of the main task.

Figure 4. Procedure for the pilot experiment.

Lexical Decision Task

Participants judge whether a character is a word or nonword $(360 s).$

Musical Feature Ratings

Participants judge the sound heard during the lexical decision task according to familiarity, pleasurability, consonance, engagement, and valence.

For each pitch interval at which participants heard the musical stimuli, they completed both the lexical decision task and the musical feature ratings. Each sound would play on a repeated loop for the duration of the lexical decision task and during the musical feature ratings, for an approximate total of two minutes. After completing this for all pitch intervals, participants were provided with demographic and musical experience

questionnaires. Finally, they were thanked, debriefed, and provided payment.

Simultaneously, they listen to a

5:4 polyrhythm at a given pitch interval (repeats 225x in 360 s).

Results

Measures

In order to adjust for the repeated measures of participants' accuracy, reaction time, and responses to the musical feature questions, z-scores were computed for these eight dependent variables for each of the 12 intervals a given participant heard, with respect to the participant's mean for the variable across all pitch intervals. For example, if a participant rated the perfect fifth as more "happy" than the average of all twelve "happy" ratings they provided, the z-score for the perfect fifth's happy rating would be some positive number. A measure of overall abnormality was computed for each of the 36 pitch intervals heard by participants by taking the root sum squared of the z-scores corresponding to reaction time and the six musical feature questions. A targeted measure of abnormality was pre-registered to be computed in a similar manner as overall abnormality, including only the musical feature questions whose z-scores were significant predictors of z-scores for reaction time or accuracy. However, two simultaneous regressions found that no standardized musical features significantly predicted standardized reaction time or standardized accuracy (in both models, all *p*'s > 0.05 for predictors, and both R^2 _{adj} < 0.01, *p*'s > 0.05). Therefore, the targeted measure of abnormality was not computed; when it would have been used, analyses were conducted on the eight dependent variables separately.

Pitch Interval Selection

The first pre-registered criteria for sounds to be selected for experimental use is that the overall abnormality associated with an interval class should not significantly vary across its three octave levels. To test whether this within-interval-class variation occurred, a grouped one-way ANOVA was conducted, analyzing variance in overall abnormality by octave level, grouping by interval class. Because this consisted of 12 simultaneous tests, $a = 4.166 \times 10^{-3} = (0.05/12)$ was taken as a Bonferroni-adjusted threshold for significance (Jafari & Ansari-Pour, 2019); at this level, no interval classes significantly varied in overall abnormality by octave level.

The interval classes of the perfect fourth and fifth were of special interest for this question: since one of them would serve as the learning phase interval for all experimental participants, these should especially not vary in overall abnormality by octave level, or other selected intervals should vary similarly by octave level. The perfect fourth did not vary by octave level $(F(2,42) = 0.353, p = 0.704)$. However, the perfect fifth trended toward varying by octave level $(F(2, 42) = 2.986, p = 0.061)$, with post-hoc analyses using Tukey HSD pairwise comparisons showing that this was due to the perfect fifth at the first octave level being rated as less abnormal than usual ($M = 1.396$, $SD = 0.950$) compared to at the second ($M = 2.017$, $SD =$ 0.741) and third octave levels $(M = 2.110, SD = 0.699)$.

In order to determine whether any pitch intervals differed from others in overall abnormality, a 3x12 ANOVA was conducted with the factors octave level and interval class. This found a significant effect of interval class, $F(11,504) = 1.517$, $p = 0.019$. However, a Tukey HSD post-hoc test found no significant pairwise differences after correcting for multiple tests, all *p*'s > 0.05. Therefore, further analyses were conducted to see whether the octave level and/or interval class had an effect on the eight standardized dependent variables: reaction time, accuracy, and the six musical feature ratings. Because this consisted of conducting eight 3x12 ANOVAs simultaneously, $a = 6.25 \times 10^{-3} = (0.05/8)$ was taken as the Bonferroni-adjusted threshold for statistical significance. At this level, significant effects of pitch interval features were found for four out of six musical features, but not for standardized reaction time or accuracy.

For standardized ratings of pleasure, there were significant effects of octave level $(F(2,504) = 7.34, p = 7.21 \times 10^{-4})$, interval class $(F(11,504) = 6.786, p = 1.12 \times 10^{-10})$, and their interaction $(F(22,504) = 1.646, p = 3.3 \times 10^{-3})$. For standardized ratings consonance, there were significant effects of octave level $(F(2,504) = 10.502, p = 3.4 \times 10^{-5})$, interval class $(F(11,504) =$ 5.502, $p = 2.51 \times 10^{-8}$), and their interaction ($F(22,504) = 1.857$, $p = 1.1 \times 10^{-3}$). For standardized ratings of engagement, there were significant effects For standardized ratings of distraction, there were significant effects of octave level ($F(2,504) = 10.083$, $p = 5.09 \times 10^{-5}$) and interval class $(F(11,504) = 2.896, p = 0.001)$. Finally, for standardized ratings of happiness, there were significant effects of octave level $(F(2,504) = 3.206, p = 4.1 \times 10^{-3})$ and interval class $(F(11,504)$ $= 12.881, p = 2.09x10^{-23}$.

To further investigate these effects, four Tukey HSD post-hoc tests were conducted for standardized scores of pleasure, consonance, distraction, and happiness, with $a = 0.0125 =$

(0.05/4) as the Bonferroni-adjusted threshold for statistical significance. Participants rated sounds at the third octave level as less pleasurable than usual ($M = -0.186$, $SD = 0.802$) compared to sounds at the second ($M = 0.102$, $SD = 0.898$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 2.4 \times 10^{-3}$) or first octave level $(M = 0.087, SD = 0.949, p_{\text{adj}} = 5.66 \times 10^{-3})$. Similarly, participants rated sounds at the third octave level as less consonant than usual (*M* = -0.225, *SD* = 0.802) compared to sounds at the second (*M* $= 0.130$, *SD* = 0.882, $p_{\text{adj}} = 1.61 \times 10^{-4}$) or first octave level (*M* = 0.099, *SD* = 0.985, $p_{\text{adj}} =$ $9.23x10^{-4}$). Finally, participants rated sounds at the third octave level as more distracting than usual ($M = 0.237$, $SD = 0.875$) compared to sounds at the second ($M = -0.150$, $SD = 0.959$, $p_{\text{adj}} =$ 1.29x10⁻⁴) or first octave level ($M = -0.091$, $SD = 0.932$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 2.06 \times 10 \times 10^{-3}$). See Table 2 for a visualization of these comparisons.

Table 2.

distraction; D: happiness. Empty cells denote no significant pairwise difference. Cells containing + were only significant between specific octave levels of the given interval classes.

Moderation Analyses

Exploratory analyses were performed to investigate the potential moderating effect of various features of the participant pool, including from which online source participants were recruited, their variance in musical experience, and whether participants reported altering the volume of sounds on their devices.

A simultaneous regression tested whether the factors online source (Qualtrics, MTurk, or unsure³), musical training (yes or no), and current musical playing (yes or no) could significantly account for variance in the overall abnormality of participants' subjective experience with these sounds. The model as a whole accounted for a small but significantly greater than zero amount of variance in overall abnormality ($R^2 = 0.018$, $p = 0.009$), and only found participants being sourced from Qualtrics to be a significant predictor of overall abnormality, $b = 0.248$, $p =$ 0.014.

Some participants reported altering the volume of audio playback at some point during the task, and were not excluded from the primary analyses. An independent samples t-test evaluated differences in overall abnormality scores for the twelve pitch intervals rated by given participants, finding no significant difference in these scores between participants who did or did not report altering volume $(t(538) = -1.317, p = 0.188)$. Furthermore, repeating the analyses relevant to pitch interval selection having excluded participants who reported altering volume did not alter the direction of any results, and did not produce new pairwise conflicts between interval classes on any of the musical feature ratings.

³ Participants who did not successfully submit their Inquisit completion code on the payment confirmation pages of Inquisit or MTurk could not be linked to their source.

Discussion

Pitch Interval Selection

Out of the 12 interval classes included in this study, four will be selected to be included in a further experiment. Either the perfect fourth or perfect fifth will be included as the interval class heard at the first octave level during the learning phase of a context-dependent memory paradigm. The included intervals should not vary or should vary similarly in participants' subjective experiences, and should not vary or should vary similarly by octave level. Musical theoretical considerations provide further constraints: no two of the four included intervals should be musical inversions of each other, there should be a balance of consonant and dissonant intervals, and an ideal set of intervals would be balanced in the difference between interval sizes.

The perfect fourth was selected over the perfect fifth to be included in the further experiment, due to the trend toward within-interval-class variance observed with all participants. Although this finding is not robust, it is important that the sound to be heard during the learning phase of the context-dependent memory paradigm does not vary significantly by octave level if any conclusions are to be drawn about the manipulation of octave level independently of interval class in analyzing the experiment's results.

The post-hoc analyses of musical features according to interval class and octave level provided further insight into which intervals created dissimilar subjective experiences to participants. Since included interval classes should not significantly differ from each other on these metrics, and the perfect fourth was to be included, I first analyzed which interval classes were significantly different from the perfect fourth. The minor second and tritone differed from the perfect fourth in their ratings of pleasure, consonance, and happiness; the minor sixth

additionally differed from the perfect fourth in their ratings of pleasure and consonance. Between the remaining seven interval classes (this does not include the perfect fifth, the musical inversion of the perfect fourth) and the perfect fourth, there were nine sets of four intervals that contained neither musical inversions nor interval classes found to be different on any musical feature ratings, summarized in Table 3.

Table 3.

Potential sets of four pitch intervals are listed above with distance in half steps between consecutive intervals.

Notice that options 4-6 are the only ones without intervals a half step apart in size, and without intervals greater than a tritone (six half steps) apart in size. Of these, notice that in terms of general consonance, option four contains only dissonant intervals in addition to the consonant perfect fourth. On the other hand, option five contains three intervals including the perfect fourth that could be termed consonant – the perfect fourth, major sixth, and perfect octave. So, it's the sixth option that provides the best balance of consonant and dissonant intervals. Additionally, the minor seventh plays a special role of being an experientially dissonant note, but harmonically consonant with the perfect fourth, with their higher notes being a perfect fourth themselves. So, the set containing the minor third, perfect fourth, minor seventh, and perfect octave was selected based on these data.

Effects of Pitch Interval

In this pilot study, I measured the effect of pitch interval both on lexical decision task performance and on participants' subjective experiences. Performance on the lexical decision task, measured both by standardized accuracy and standardized reaction time, a) was not significantly predicted at a given pitch interval by standardized musical feature ratings, and b) never varied according to features of pitch interval overall. Therefore, there seems to be an important distinction between a participant's cognitive ability and their subjective experience of different sounds, with cognitive ability as measured by task performance not being significantly affected by differences in pitch interval.

Subjective experiences, on the other hand, varied a fair amount. No significant differences in pitch interval were found for familiarity or engagement, while there were significant differences for features carrying some aesthetic or emotional valence: pleasure, consonance, distraction, and happiness. This is consistent with explanations of different intervals as primarily having different emotional and sensational qualities. For example, the intervals that in Table 2 can be seen to have been rated as significantly different from the minor second in terms of happiness included almost the entirety of the major scale (with one exception: the minor second was significantly different from the minor, rather than major, seventh). That is, not only were aesthetic and emotional features worlds in which sounds were found to differ, but they differed in ways consistent with musicological ideas of differences between intervals.

In addition to musical theory with respect to interval class, remember that with greater distance between pitches, we can expect the pitches to be less harmonically and melodically associated with each other. An interesting set of findings in support of this were the main effects of octave level on standardized musical feature ratings, where compared to participants' average ratings, sounds at the third octave level were rated as less pleasurable, consonant, and happy – but more distracting – than sounds at the first and second octave level. Additionally, the pairwise comparisons investigating the interaction between interval class and octave level found

no individual cases where a sound at the third octave level was significantly *more* pleasurable, for example, than another sound at the first octave level. This could suggest that these more distant sounds are less often evaluated or able to be evaluated along the same emotional or aesthetic axes that listeners would usually employ.

Evaluating how differently participants rated a given pitch interval on a feature like distraction compared to how distracting they usually found sounds (using the standardized measures of musical features) is invaluable for the project of avoiding future use of pitch intervals that drive particularly abnormal subjective experiences for participants. In order to fully contextualize these experiences, it is useful to additionally observe the raw, non-standardized ratings of pitch intervals according to different musical features, as seen in Figure 5. Of primary concern are the ratings for distraction: with remarkable consistency, participants rated sounds as maximally distracting.

Pilot II

The previous pilot found concerningly high ratings of distraction for sounds presented to participants.⁴ Accordingly, this pilot study tested whether refined musical stimuli, with a more naturalistic timbre, could counteract the levels of distraction and unpleasantness experienced by participants, and further inform the selection of four interval classes to be used in the experimental portion of this study.

⁴ The pre-registration for the second pilot was submitted before the discovery of an error in the computation of zscores for distraction, an error discovered and corrected after the initial analyses for the second pilot. This did not affect the high raw scores for rating in either pilot, but did affect the computation and normality of overall abnormality and standardized ratings of distraction. While the pre-registration for the second pilot noted irregular zscores and a need for nonparametric analyses, neither of these issues persisted after the computation of z-scores for distraction was adjusted.

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) with the use of TurkPrime by CloudResearch (Litman et al., 2017) between February 26 and February 27, 2021. Participants received compensation of \$3.75 for the task after providing a valid completion code, in accordance with the United States Federal minimum wage. While 63 participants completed some portion of the task and had data stored on Inquisit's servers, this included only 41 complete responses (*M*age = 44.15, *SD*age = 12.88). Of these, participants were excluded who failed to identify the direction between pairs of notes more than

half the time, who could identify the correct musical name for intervals all of the time, and/or

those who reported turning off audio or not providing intentional answers during the task. After these measures, 31 participants had their data included in analyses ($M_{\text{age}} = 45.84$, $SD_{\text{age}} = 13.07$). For full demographic information, see Table 4.

Materials and Procedure

The design of Pilot II was identical to Pilot I except for the production of musical stimuli. The sounds used both in the interval rating task, and the 5:4 polyrhythms at 36 pitch intervals were created in Musescore and played on the "Mellow Steinway" from a soundfont developed by John Nebauer and published under a creative commons license.

Results

Comparing Musical Stimuli

In order to investigate whether the musical stimuli changed in pilot two elicited different subjective experiences in participants, a grouped independent samples t-test was conducted on raw scores for each of the six musical features between pilot one and two, with $a = 8.3 \times 10^{-3}$ as the Bonferroni-adjusted threshold for significant differences. This found significant differences between the mean ratings of four musical features: pleasure $(t(910) = 4.456$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 9.41 \times 10^{-6}$), consonance $(t(910) = 3.812, p_{\text{adj}} = 1.47 \times 10^{-4})$, distraction $(t(910) = -5.35, p_{\text{adj}} = 1.11 \times 10^{-7})$, and happiness ($t(910) = 3.198$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 1.43 \times 10^{-3}$), with ratings for familiarity ($t(910) = 2.59$, $p_{\text{adj}} =$ 9.75 $x10^{-3}$) and engagement (*t*(910) = 1.674, $p_{\text{adj}} = 9.45x10^{-2}$) trending toward significance. As visible in Figure 5, while ratings for distraction tended to be higher in the second pilot compared to the first, ratings for all other features tended to be lower in the second pilot. For all of these effects, neither the direction nor significance level were affected when comparing the second pilot to a random subset of the first pilot matched in size, or when only comparing results from

participants recruited through MTurk.

 \mathbf{A} Figure 5. Normalized and raw musical feature ratings between pilots

Violin plot showing central tendency and density of z-scores (top) and raw ratings (bottom) for musical features.

Pitch Interval Selection

Since the additional goal of the second pilot was to evaluate whether altered musical stimuli also altered the interval selection process, similar analyses were conducted to evaluate whether standardized ratings of musical features, as well as reaction time and accuracy, were different between the two pilots. A grouped independent t-test found no significant differences between any z-score for dependent variables according to pilot, all *p*'s > 0.95. A separate independent t-test found no significant difference between overall abnormality between the pilots, $t(910) = 1.177$, $p = 0.239$. As such, analyses to select interval classes for future use should be comparable between the first and second pilot; to evaluate this, these analyses are repeated on only the data from the second pilot, and on both datasets simultaneously.

Analyzing the Second Pilot. The first pre-registered criteria for sounds to be selected for experimental use is that the overall abnormality associated with an interval class should not significantly vary across its three octave levels. To test whether this within-interval-class variation occurred, a grouped one-way ANOVA was conducted, analyzing variance in overall abnormality by octave level. Since this was grouped by interval class, $a = 4.16x10^{-3}$ was taken as the Bonferroni-adjusted threshold for significance; at this level, the effect of octave level was not significant. However, as before, the intervals of the perfect fourth and perfect fifth were inspected individually. This found that within the pitch interval of the perfect fourth, overall abnormality trended towards varying by octave level, $F(2,28) = 4.854$, $p = 0.015$. A Tukey HSD post-hoc test found that overall abnormality for trials where participants heard the perfect fourth was lower when it was played at the third octave level $(M = 1.4, SD = 0.633)$ compared to the second octave level ($M = 2.55$, $SD = 0.819$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.0125$). The perfect fifth did not trend towards varying by octave level, $F(2,28) = 1.279$, $p = 0.294$.

In order to determine whether any pitch intervals differed from others in overall abnormality, a 3x12 ANOVA was conducted with the factors octave level and interval class. This found a significant effect of octave level, $F(2,336) = 4.161$, $p = 0.016$. Pairwise comparisons using a Tukey HSD post-hoc test found that overall abnormality was lower for sounds heard at the third octave level ($M = 1.729$, $SD = 0.811$) compared to both the second ($M =$ 2.036, *SD* = 1.06, p_{adj} = 0.033) and first octave levels ($M = 2.083$, *SD* = 0.931, p_{adj} < 0.01).

Further analyses were conducted to see whether the octave level and/or interval class had an effect on the eight standardized dependent variables: reaction time, accuracy, and the six

musical feature ratings, with $a = 6.25 \times 10^{-3}$ as the Bonferroni-corrected threshold for statistical significance. At this level, no significant effects were found for octave level or interval class on any of the dependent variables.

Analyzing Both Pilots Simultaneously. The first pre-registered criteria for sounds to be selected for experimental use is that the overall abnormality associated with an interval class should not significantly vary across its three octave levels. To test whether this within-intervalclass variation occurred, a grouped one-way ANOVA was conducted, analyzing variance in overall abnormality by octave level, grouping by interval class, with $a = 4.16 \times 10^{-3}$ as the Bonferroni-adjusted threshold for significance. This did not find cases where the effect of octave level was significant. While the perfect fourth trended toward varying by octave level $(F(2,73) =$ 2.620, $p = 0.080$), the perfect fifth did not $(F(2,73) = 0.910, p = 0.407)$.

In order to determine whether any pitch intervals differed from others in overall abnormality, a 3x12 ANOVA was conducted with the factors octave level and interval class. This found a significant effect of interval class $(F(11,876) = 2.682, p = 0.002)$ and octave level $(F(2,876) = 4.850, p = 0.008)$, but not their interaction ($p = 0.285$). Post-hoc analyses were conducted using Tukey HSD pairwise comparisons only on the main effects. These found that overall abnormality was lower for sounds at the third octave level ($M = 1.863467$, $SD =$ 0.8261392) compared to the second ($M = 2.07$, $SD = 0.981$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.016$) and first ($M = 2.067$, $SD = 0.966$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.018$) octave levels. Additionally, overall abnormality for the minor seventh $(M = 1.716, SD = 0.848)$ was lower than at the perfect octave $(M = 2.289, SD = 1.063, p_{\text{adj}} =$ 0.007), but higher than the minor second ($M = 2.219$, $SD = 1.046$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.023$) and major third $(M = 2.218, SD = 0.963, p_{\text{adj}} = 0.021).$

Further analyses were conducted to see whether the octave level and/or interval class had an effect on the eight standardized dependent variables: reaction time, accuracy, and the six musical feature ratings, with $a = 6.25 \times 10^{-3}$ as the Bonferroni-corrected threshold for statistical significance. These revealed significant effects for all six musical features, but none for reaction time or accuracy.

For standardized ratings of familiarity, there was a main effect of both octave level $(F(2,876) = 6.026, p = 0.003)$ and interval class $(F(11,876) = 2.737, p = 0.002)$. For standardized ratings of pleasure, there was a main effect of both octave level $(F(2,876) = 12.929, p = 2.93 \times 10^{-7}$ ⁶) and interval class ($F(11,876) = 9.857$, $p = 5.1 \times 10^{-17}$). For standardized ratings of consonance, there was a main effect of both octave level $(F(2,876) = 11.966, p = 7.46 \times 10^{-6})$ and interval class $(F(11,876) = 7.464, p = 2.43 \times 10^{-12})$, as well as their interaction $(F(22,876) = 2.04, p = 3 \times 10^{-3})$. For standardized ratings of engagement, there was a main effect of interval class $(F(11,876)) =$ 3.658, $p = 4.28 \times 10^{-5}$). For standardized ratings of distraction, there was a main effect of octave level $(F(2,876) = 11.292, p = 1.44 \times 10^{-5})$. For standardized ratings of happiness, there was a main effect of both octave level ($F(2,876) = 5.103$, $p = 6.0x10^{-3}$) and interval class ($F(11,876) =$ 13.724, $p = 1.64 \times 10^{-24}$.

To further investigate these effects, Tukey HSD post-hoc tests were conducted for all six musical features, with $a = 8.33 \times 10^{-3}$ as the Bonferroni-corrected threshold for statistical significance. Table 5 displays the significant pairwise differences by interval class and the interaction between interval class and octave level. Ratings of familiarity were higher than normal for sounds at the second octave level ($M = 0.08597038$, $SD = 0.9048883$) compared to the third ($M = -0.13816525$, $SD = 0.8202827$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 4.46 \times 10^{-3}$), though no comparisons with the first octave level were significant ($M = 0.04751817$, $SD = 0.9148821$). Ratings of pleasure were

lower than usual for sounds at the third octave level ($M = -0.195$, $SD = 0.758$) compared to those at the second ($M = 0.095$, $SD = 0.919$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 4.85 \times 10^{-5}$) or first ($M = 0.094$, $SD = 0.918$, $p_{\text{adj}} =$ 6.25x10-5). Ratings of consonance were lower than usual for sounds at the third octave level (*M* $= -0.197$, *SD* = 0.789) compared to those at the second (*M* = 0.11, *SD* = 0.924, $p_{\text{adj}} = 2.8 \times 10^{-5}$) or first ($M = 0.081$, $SD = 0.965$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 3.03 \times 10^{-4}$). Ratings of distraction were higher than usual for sounds at the third octave level ($M = 0.205$, $SD = 0.788$) compared to those at the second ($M = -$ 0.109, $SD = 0.939$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 4.9 \times 10^{-5}$ or first ($M = -0.089$, $SD = 0.948$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 1.82 \times 10^{-4}$). Finally, ratings of happiness were higher than usual for sounds at the second octave level (*M* = 0.111, *SD* $= 0.955$) compared to the first $M = -0.098$, $SD = 0.911$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.007$), though no comparisons with the third octave level were significant ($M = -0.017$, $SD = 0.880$).

Table 5.

Note: Significance levels: *: $p < 0.0125$, **: $p < 0.00125$, ***: $p < 0.000125$. A: familiarity; B: pleasure; C: consonance; D: engagement; E: happiness. Empty cells denote no significant pairwise difference. Cells containing † were only significant between specific octave levels of the given interval classes.

Discussion

Pitch Interval Selection

The first point of difference between the analyses from the first pilot study and those incorporating the results from the second pilot came from investigating whether certain interval classes varied in overall abnormality by octave level. Given the Bonferroni-adjusted alpha level, no interval classes significantly varied according to octave level in either study. However, marginal trends between the first and second pilot varied, with the perfect fifth trending towards varying in the first pilot, and the perfect fourth in the second. Neither of these are robust findings, although it's notable that the trend towards variation for the perfect fourth was replicated when analyzing the data combined between the pilots, despite the smaller sample size of the included data from the second pilot. Using similar logic to that in the discussion of the first pilot, the replication of the trend to variance within the interval class of the perfect fourth suggests that the perfect fifth should be selected instead of its inversion, the perfect fourth.

Other pitch intervals included alongside those with the interval class of the perfect fifth should not be significantly different from the perfect fifth or each other in the subjective experiences reported by participants, and no two selected interval classes should be musical inversions. Based on the pairwise comparisons displayed in Table 5, there were five interval classes that could be selected in addition to the perfect fifth: the major second, major sixth, minor seventh, and perfect octave. Note that the major second and minor seventh are musical inversions of each other, so they could not both be selected. This left two potential sets of four interval classes: either (a) the major second, perfect fifth, major sixth, and perfect octave, or (b) the perfect fifth, major sixth, minor seventh, and perfect octave. Notably, both of these selections

could also have been possible selections given the pairwise comparisons using only data from the first pilot study.

Musical considerations informed the decision between these two options. The primary difference between the sets involved the size differences between the different intervals. In the first set, there are five, two, and three half step size differences between subsequent pairs of intervals. This is pleasing, and alludes to an additional useful relationship within this set of intervals: they are producible by stacking perfect fifths above a tonic, forming the perfect fifth first, followed by (an octave and) the major second, followed by (an octave and) the major sixth. The ratings of these intervals on each of the six musical features are summarized in Table 6.

Musical Stimuli

While standardized ratings of musical features and standardized performance on the lexical decision task did not differ significantly between the pilots, raw ratings of musical features did differ, with ratings in the second pilot tending to be less familiar, pleasurable, consonant, engaging, and happy, but more distracting than the first pilot, on average. This remained true even when evaluating a subsample of the first pilot's data to control for the difference in sample size between the studies. While this was unexpected given the refinement to the musical stimuli included in the second pilot, it is important to note that the refinement was

not dramatic, and that no participants were asked to explicitly compare the two sounds. It remains possible that time confounds (the first pilot being completed by MTurk participants on Monday, February 1 and Wednesday-Thursday, February 10-11, while the second pilot was completed by participants on Friday-Saturday, February 26-27) or other uncontrolled features between the two studies contributed to the differences in raw ratings. For example, responses to an open question soliciting feedback at the end of the task frequently included remarks about the length of exposure to the sounds affecting the overall experience of the task – since both pilot studies exposed participants to 12 pitch intervals, this aspect of the study remained unchanged and may have contributed to raw ratings of musical features. Usefully, while participants in pilot two tended to rate sounds in more unfavorable ways, the difference in their ratings across different pitch intervals were not systematically different. This suggests that the between-pitchinterval subjective experiences were comparable across pilots, which makes sense: while timbral changes were made to the stimuli, the pitch content was not affected.

The hypothesis that this timbral improvement would benefit raw scores for musical features of sounds was not supported by the second pilot's data. However, the combination of data from both pilots supported the selection of sounds that included the pitch interval of the perfect fifth. In the data from the first pilot alone, the perfect fifth varied in overall abnormality by octave level, a feature not conducive to selection. Using the refined musical stimuli independently and in combining this data with that using the original stimuli, this withininterval-class variation was found for the perfect fourth, but not the perfect fifth. As a result, experimenter judgement was such that the set of intervals supported by combined data and data from the second pilot would be used in the following experiment, and would be played using the refined musical stimuli, which supported the use of the perfect fifth.

Experiment

The main experiment evaluated the effect of manipulating a 5:4 polyrhythm's pitch interval on memory performance in a surprise test of recall. Participants who heard the same sound (at the interval class of a perfect fifth and at the first octave level) were expected to recall more words than those who heard a different or no sound, replicating general context-dependent memory effects. Of novel interest was the effect of hearing different interval classes (either the major second, perfect fifth, major sixth, or perfect octave) and different octave levels (the first, second, or third). Participants who heard the perfect fifth were expected to recall more words than those who heard sounds at a different interval class, and those who heard a sound at the first octave level were expected to recall more words than those who heard sounds at greater distances.

Method

Participants

Participants ($N = 285$; $M_{\text{age}} = 40.33$, $SD_{\text{age}} = 12.45$) were solicited through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), were U.S. residents, and were determined to have no hearing abnormalities and to consider English a primary language through a separate screening questionnaire, for which all participants were compensated \$0.25. For their completion of the approximately 15-20 minute main task, participants were paid \$2.50. The task was completed in the Inquisit 6 Web player.

While there were 388 unique, completed responses to the task, participants were excluded who reported either or both turning off audio during the task or providing disingenuous answers during the task, and those who failed to identify the direction between pairs of notes in the interval recognition task more than half the time or who could identify the correct musical name

for intervals all of the time. See Table 7 for demographic information for the full and included participants.

Materials

Musical stimuli. All musical stimuli consisted of a 5:4 polyrhythm played at twelve different pitch intervals, selected to be comparable across listener responses based on results from the pilot study. The same audio files used in the second pilot study were used in the present experiment These pitch intervals are divisible into three different octave levels and four different interval classes: the major second, perfect fifth, major sixth, and perfect octave. For full notation, see Appendix A.

Interval Recognition Task. In order to confirm participant's self-reports about hearing ability, perfect pitch or pitch blindness, and functioning audio equipment, they completed a one-minute interval recognition task, as described in

Table 7. Demographic Information for Experiment Participants

the method section of Pilot I. Participants who provided the incorrect direction for four or more of the six intervals, or who provided the corrected quality for all six intervals, had their data removed from main analyses.

List Learning Task. Participants completed an adapted version of the List Learning Task (LLT) available in the online Millisecond Test Library (K. Borchert, 2017) in the Inquisit Web 6 player. The LLT consisted of a learning phase, a break, and a final test phase, over the course of which participants learned and were tested on 20 nouns selected from (Spreen & Schulz, 1966) norms, a random subset of those used by Mead and Ball (2007). These words were highly concrete, and varied in their emotional valence. See Appendix B for the full selection of words. For an overview of the LLT as adapted for present use, see Figure 6.

During the learning phase, words were presented individually for 5 seconds, followed by a 1 second fixation cross between each word. Participants were instructed to rate the pleasantness of a given word by pressing a number 1-5 on their keyboard, where 5 indicated a highly pleasant word, and 1 indicated a highly unpleasant word. Words were presented in a random order, with each word appearing twice.

Following a break, participants completed a surprise test of final free recall, during which participants were given two minutes or until they manually proceeded to recall as many words as possible, in any order they wished, by typing them into an on-screen text box.

Distractor Task. In order to provide an engaging break from learning words and limit rehearsal of material by participants, the Manikin Test of Spatial Orientation and Transformation, available in the online Millisecond Test Library, was used (K. Borchert, 2014). In this task, participants are shown a humanoid figure in one of several orientations (facing towards or away from participants, right-side-up or up-side-down), holding a small green circle

in one hand, a small red square in the other, and positioned inside a larger version of one of these shapes. Participants are asked to evaluate in which hand the figure is holding a shape that matches the larger, surrounding shape. During a practice block, participants received feedback on their responses (in the center of the screen, "incorrect" appeared in red if they were incorrect;

otherwise, "correct" appeared in green), followed by a fixation cross for 1 second before the next image. During the test block, no feedback was given, and the block lasted for 240 seconds.

Procedure

Participants who were determined to qualify and provided informed consent for the present study completed the experiment in the Inquisit Web 6 player. They first were prompted to listen to pink noise and set the volume at a comfortable level, which they were asked not to change throughout the task. Then, participants rated words for pleasantness while listening to the 5:4 polyrhythm at the interval of the perfect fifth (at the first octave level). After completing the

Figure 6.

Procedure for the adapted list learning task.

Incidental Learning (<200 s)

While rating words for pleasantness on a 1-5 scale, all participants heard the 5:4 polyrhythm with the pitch interval of a perfect fifth (P5) at the first octave level.

Distractor Task (240 s)

Participants heard white noise while making judgements about matching shapes in a manikin figure at various orientations.

A surprise test of final recall was administered. Participants were randomly assigned to one of 13 auditory conditions: they could either hear no sound, or the 5:4 polyrhythm at one of 12 included pitch intervals.

ratings, they completed the practice and test blocks of the Manikin Test while listening to pink noise. Then, participants were given instructions for a surprise delayed test of recall on the words they had rated for pleasantness. During this final test, participants were randomly assigned to one of 13 conditions, determining what sound they heard for the test phase. Participants either heard

no sound, or heard the musical stimuli at one of the 12 possible pitch intervals. Afterwards, participants completed the interval recognition test, reported whether they believed they heard the same sound while rating words and when tested on words, and submitted information about demographics and musical experience. Finally, they were thanked, debriefed, and provided instructions to receive payment.

Results

Musical Context

A one-way ANOVA tested the effect of the test sound context (either the same, a different, or no sound) on memory. This found no significant difference in the number of words recalled on average between members of different groups, $F(2,282) = 1.356$, $p = 0.259$. These results are displayed in Figure 7. A 3x4 factorial ANOVA tested whether final memory varied according to the octave level (first, second, or third) or interval class (major second, perfect fifth,

major sixth, or perfect eighth) for those who heard a sound during the test period. Neither the main effect of octave level $(F(2,250) = 0.239, p = 0.788)$ nor interval class $(F(3,250) =$ 0.416, $p = 0.742$) reached significance, and their interaction was only marginally significant, $F(6,250) = 2.078$, $p = 0.056$. Exploratory post-

Mean words recalled by each group displayed. Bars indicate standard error of the mean (SEM).

hoc analyses of only the interaction term using a Tukey HSD test found no significant difference between pairs when correcting for multiple comparisons, all p_{adj} 's > 0.05. These results are displayed in Figure 8.

Reported Context

Pre-registered mediation analyses sought to investigate whether participants' explicit report of

Mean words recalled by each group displayed. Bars indicate standard error of the mean (SEM).

whether they heard the same sound during learning and test phases mediated the relationship between test sound and differences in memory performance. However, the results of the two ANOVAs indicate that there was no relationship between test sound and memory to be mediated. Instead of performing mediation analysis, I compared the effect of reported context (whether they thought the test sound was the same, different, or they were unsure compared to the earlier sound) and actual context (whether at test the same, a different, or no sound played) on memory performance using a 3x3 factorial ANOVA. There was a significant effect of reported context $(F(2,276) = 7.776, p = 5.19x10^{-4})$, though neither the effect of actual context $(F(2,276) = 2.248,$ $p = 0.107$) nor their interaction ($F(4,276) = 2.289$, $p = 0.06$) reached significance. A Chi-Square test of independence found that the number of participants across the nine possible combinations
of actual and reported context did not vary significantly from expected values $(X^2(4, N = 285) = 6.903, p =$ 0.141), and Table 8 shows descriptive values.

Post-hoc analyses conducted with a Tukey HSD found that people who reported hearing the same sound recalled more words on average (*M* = 7.641, $SD = 3.177$) than those who

	\sqrt{n}	Proportion
Same sound		
Reported same sound	10	40.00%
Reported unsure	4	16.00%
Reported different sound	11	44.00%
Different sound		
Reported same sound	113	47.68%
Reported unsure	44	18.57%
Reported different sound	80	33.76%
No sound		
Reported same sound	5	21.74%
Reported unsure	5	21.74%
Reported different sound	13	56.52%

reported hearing a different sound ($M = 6.192$, $SD = 3.419$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 2.38 \times 10^{-3}$), or who were unsure $(M = 6.208, SD = 3.295, p_{\text{adj}} = 0.02)$, controlling for what sound they actually heard during the test period. Additionally, four pairwise comparisons of the interaction between reported and actual context reached significance after controlling for multiple comparisons. Those who actually heard the same sound at test and who (correctly) reported hearing the same sound recalled significantly more words ($M = 9.9$, $SD = 2.558$) than participants belonging to any of three groups: those who actually heard the same sound but reported hearing a different sound (*M* $= 3.25$, *SD* = 2.986, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.018$), those who actually heard a different sound and reported being unsure ($M = 6.227$, $SD = 3.277$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.037$), and those who actually heard a different sound and reported hearing a different sound ($M = 5.913$, $SD = 3.289$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 8.96 \times 10^{-3}$). Participants who actually heard a different sound during the test but who (incorrectly) reported hearing the same sound also recalled more words ($M = 7.451$, $SD = 3.21$) than those who actually heard a different sound and reported hearing a different sound ($M = 5.913$, $SD = 3.289$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.035$). See Figure 9 for visualization of these results.

Moderation Analyses

Three simultaneous regressions were conducted to investigate the potential moderating effect of musical training or features of audio playback on the relationship between actual and reported context and memory performance. All models are summarized in Table 9. The first replicated the previous factorial ANOVA, evaluating the effect of actual and reported context on memory performance.

Figure 9. Final recall according to actual and reported musical context

Mean words recalled by each group displayed. Bars indicate standard error of the mean (SEM).

The second model added musical training as a factor in addition to those included in the first model. Participants reporting previous musical training did not explain any variance in the number of words recalled, $b = 0.305$, $p = 0.437$, and there were no significant interactions between musical training and either actual or reported context. The third model added two factors in addition to those included in the first model: whether participants reported altering the volume of audio playback at any point during the task ($b = 0.185$, $p = 0.77$), and whether participants reported listening to task audio through headphones or speakers ($b = 0.377$, $p =$ 0.347), with neither significantly predicting differences in recall.

Table 9

Summary of three linear regression models predicting number of words recalled

	canning, or an oc infoar regression moders predicating namber or words recained. Model 1				Model 2			Model 3		
Variable	Level	Beta (b)	95% CI		Beta (b)	95% CI	D	Beta (b)	95% CI	р
(Intercept)		8.69	(7.32, 10.1)	$< 0.001**$	8.57	(7.17, 9.98)	$< 0.001**$	8.38	(6.63, 10.1)	$< 0.001**$
Actual Context										
	Different	-1.18	$(-2.54, 0.18)$	0.089	-1.22	$(-2.58, 0.14)$	0.079	-1.23	$(-2.6, 0.14)$	0.078
	None	-0.174	$(-2.04, 1.69)$	0.855	-0.238	$(-2.11, 1.64)$	0.803	-0.311	$(-2.21, 1.59)$	0.747
Reported Context										
	Unsure	-1.49	$(-2.54, -0.43)$	$0.006**$	-1.45	$(-2.51, 0.39)$	$0.007**$	-1.49	$(-2.55, -0.43)$	$0.006**$
	Different	-1.57	$(-2.43, -0.71)$	$< 0.001**$	-1.57	$(-2.43, -0.71)$	$< 0.001**$	-1.61	$(-2.48, -0.74)$	$< 0.001**$
Music Training										
	Yes				0.305	$(-0.47, 1.08)$	0.437			
Changed Volume										
	No							0.185	$(-1.06, 1.43)$	0.77
Audio Equipment										
	Speakers							0.377	$(-0.41, 1.16)$	0.347
		$R^2_{\text{adj}} = 0.47$			$R^2_{\text{adj}} = 0.046$			$R^2_{\text{adi}} = 0.043$		
		$F(8,283) = 4.527$			$F(9,282) = 3.7381$ $p = 0.00272$			$F(10,281) = 3.1618$ $p = 0.00513$		
	$p = 0.00147$									

Exploratory analyses

Sample Characteristics. Through descriptive analyses, the overall number of words recalled by participants in this experiment ($M = 34.225\%$, $SD = 16.775\%$) was found to be lower than in comparable studies of music dependent memory, which tend to report average overall recall rates of 50% of learned words. In order to investigate sample characteristics that may have contributed to this difference, exploratory regression analyses tested whether age was a significant predictor of the number of words recalled. In a similar manner to the moderation analyses, a model with actual and reported context as predictors of recall was compared to one that added age as a predictor, with these models summarized in Table 10.

			Model 1			Model 4	
Variable	Level	Beta (b)	95% CI	D	Beta (b)	95% CI	р
(Intercept)		8.69	(7.32, 10.1)	$< 0.001**$	10.03	(9.13, 10.93)	$< 0.001**$
Actual Context							
	Different	-1.18	$(-2.54, 0.18)$	0.089	-1.112	$(-1.8, -0.43)$	0.106
	None	-0.174	$(-2.04, 1.69)$	0.855	-0.236	$(-1.18, 0.71)$	0.803
Reported Context							
	Unsure	-1.49	$(-2.54, -0.43)$	$0.006**$	-1.294	$(-1.83, -0.76)$	$0.017*$
	Different	-1.57	$(-2.43, -0.71)$	$< 0.001**$	-1.363	$(-1.81, -0.92)$	$0.002**$
Age					-0.037	$(-0.05, -0.02)$	$0.019*$
		$R^2_{\text{adj}} = 0.47$					
	$F(8,283) = 4.527$						
		$p = 0.00147$					

Table 10. Predicting recall according to sound and participant features.

Even controlling for the effects of actual and reported context on recall, age significantly predicted memory performance ($b = -0.037$, $p = 0.019$), such that younger participants could be expected to recall more words than older participants at a statistically significant but numerically small rate. In order to reliably predict at least one word to be additionally recalled by a younger participant, that participant would need to be at least 27 years younger than a participant otherwise matched in terms of actual and reported context.

Power. While the imbalance between group sizes in the preregistered comparison of actual test context's effect on memory performance was expected, the exclusion of a large number of participants based on their poor performance on the interval recognition task may have been problematic for the power in investigations of octave level and interval class, and the interaction between actual and reported context. There were as few as 16 participants in some pitch interval contexts (major sixth at the second octave level, $n = 16$; major second at the second octave level, $n = 17$; major sixth at the third octave level, $n = 18$), and as few as 4 participants in some combinations of actual and reported context (see Table 8). So, preregistered analyses were repeated, including participants who failed to correctly identify the direction of musical intervals more than half of the time during the interval recognition task.

In these analyses, neither the direction nor significance of any results differed from those conducted on the sample with preregistered exclusions. There was no difference in the number of words recalled according to whether participants heard the same, a different, or no sound $(F(2,342) = 1.39, p = 0.25)$. For those who heard a sound at test, neither the octave level $(F(2,306) = 0.201, p = 0.818)$, interval class $(F(3,306) = 0.393, p = 0.758)$, nor their interaction $(F(6,306) = 1.322, p = 0.247)$ had an effect on the number of words recalled. Finally, while memory performance was significantly different according to reported context $(F(2,336) = 10.9$, $p = 2.59 \times 10^{-5}$) even when controlling for actual context, memory performance varied neither according actual context $(F(2,336) = 2.307, p = 0.101)$ nor the interaction between actual and reported $(F(4,336) = 1.573, p = 0.181)$. Post-hoc analyses conducted with a Tukey HSD test of pairwise comparisons found that those who reported hearing the same sound at test as during learning recalled significantly more words ($M = 7.53$, $SD = 3.14$) than those who reported hearing a different sound ($M = 5.98$, $SD = 3.45$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.000383$) or being unsure ($M = 5.83$, $SD =$ 3.46, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.001250$). Additionally, those who correctly reported hearing a different sound at test recalled fewer words $(M = 5.694, SD = 3.36)$ than those who either correctly reported hearing the same sound ($M = 9.0$, $SD = 3.303$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.030900$) or reported hearing the same sound but actually heard a different sound ($M = 7.4$, $SD = 3.144$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.003620$).

Of note, compared to the distribution of participants reported in Table 6, including poor performers in the interval recognition task did not include any new participants who heard the same sound but reported being unsure $(n = 4)$ or hearing a different sound $(n = 11)$, or any who heard no sound but reported hearing the same sound $(n = 5)$, and this only included two new participants who heard no sound and reported being unsure $(n = 7)$. The other 58 participants

included in these analyses whose goal was to improve the tests' power were distributed among groups who already had larger numbers of participants represented.

Discussion

While there was no effect of either the presence or features of test sounds on memory performance, there was a significant effect of reported context on memory performance. Participants who reported hearing the same sound at test as they had when first exposed to the target words recalled significantly more words than other participants, even when controlling for whether participants actually heard the same, a different, or no sound. While participant age was a significant predictor of the number of words recalled, other participant characteristics such as musical experience or their method of audio delivery were not found to moderate the effects of actual or reported auditory context on memory performance.

A Remark on Methodology

To the best of the author's knowledge, this is the first study on music-dependent memory to be conducted online, and the first to include participants other than undergraduate students. Compared to these previous studies, this experiment:

- Had no control over the physical location or other contextual factors experienced by participants;
- Had no control over the method by which participants listened to the study's audio;
- Included older participants;
- Presented words twice during the incidental learning phase, which only some previous studies have done;
- Included a distractor task between the learning and test periods;
- Had that distractor task last for longer than in other studies;
- Did not vary the learning context between participants;
- Explicitly stated that the study involved sound;
- Used a novel range of musical stimuli.

Many of these differences were related to conducting the experiment online: namely, the lack of

control over the environment compared to when in a physical lab, the difference in participant

characteristics, the use of the distractor task as an attention check, and the necessity to facilitate a comfortable listening experience and informed consent by stating the use of sounds throughout the study. The use of a novel range of musical stimuli was an intentional difference, key to the study's goal of investigating the effect of pitch interval on musical perception. Relatedly, in order to maximize the observation of changes to this musical stimuli, participants were randomly assigned to hear different possible sounds (or no sound) during the test period, but participants did not hear different sounds during the learning context, intrinsically limiting the musical claims that could have been made by this study.

While previously cited studies tended to see average recall scores of about 50% of the learned words across all conditions, participants in the present study recalled an average of 6.845 words, or about 34% of the learned words. This high-level difference may be attributable to participant characteristics and the length of the distractor task. Exploratory analyses found that participants of greater age recalled fewer words at a numerically small but statistically significant rate. Other studies of music-dependent memory frequently included distractor sounds, but rarely included distractor tasks between the learning and test phases. Only Isarida et al. (2008) included a distractor task, which consisted of simple calculations for participants who had intentionally learned words, lasting for the length of time it took researchers to read test instructions to participants who had incidentally learned words. The increased cognitive effort involved in the current study's visuospatial distractor task may have increased the difficulty of recalling words during the subsequent surprise test (Barrouillet et al., 2007; Camos & Portrat, 2015). Additionally, the distractor task lasted for four minutes, longer than most previous studies' distractor periods (in one comparable study, participants listened to birdsound for 240 seconds,

Mead & Ball, 2007), which may have accounted for small increases in participants' lessened ability to recall incidentally learned material.

Music-Dependent Memory

There was no effect of musical context on the number of words recalled during a surprise final test of recall. Participants who heard the same sound during this test did not recall more words than those who heard a different or no sound; additionally, those who at test heard sounds with an interval class of a perfect fifth did not recall significantly more words than other participants, and those whose sound was at the first octave level did not recall more words than other participants. This unexpected null effect may be explainable by both methodological and theoretical factors.

Methodologically, the variance in physical location and other contextual factors, study audio delivery method, number of word presentations, and explicit statement of sounds' role in the study could have affected the music-dependent memory for target information. Since participants were not all in the same location while completing the experimental task, and there is no guarantee that any given participant stayed in the same physical location throughout the task, it is difficult to account for the potential confounding effects of different ambient background contexts. Even within the same physical location, background disruptions or changes in the dynamic surrounding context could easily diminish the global effect of the study's musical context manipulation on a participants' perception of overall context (T. Isarida & Isarida, 2014; S. M. Smith, 1995; S. M. Smith & Vela, 2001). Participants were free to listen to the study's sounds however was most convenient for them, though the moderation analyses showed that neither changing the volume of playback nor listening to audio on speakers rather than headphones predicted differences in total recalled words.

Additionally, while Mead and Ball (2007) found significant effects of musical context for words presented twice to participants during the incidental learning phase, Isarida et al. (2008) performed a within-subject manipulation of word presentation, finding effects of musical context on the recall of words presented once, but not those presented twice. Isarida et al. (2008) hypothesized that twice-presented words have stronger representations in memory, but diminished associative connections to surrounding contextual features, diminishing the effects of musical context manipulation.

Past work in music-dependent memory frequently told participants that the background music they would hear during the task was present in order to make them more comfortable. This cover story may have diminished the extent to which participants paid attention to the sounds, and along with the ecological validity of the musical excerpts used by other researchers may have contributed to a perception of the music as background music. The online nature of the present study, and the fact that the included sounds a) were not rated as remarkably pleasant by participants in the pilot experiments, and b) do not possess structural similarity to typical background music, complicated the presentation of a similar cover story. Participants who qualified after completing a screener task on MTurk titled "Answer questions about sound and language" could then 1-10 days later complete the experimental task titled "Listen to sounds while assessing words and pictures." Full descriptions of the tasks as seen by participants are included in the IRB proposals included in Appendix D. The differences in initial description of the sounds, in conjunction with features of the sounds themselves, could have led to the sounds in this study being considered as target information in a similar manner to the words presented during the study.

Transitioning to more theoretical explanations, both global- and feature-level evaluations of musical context may have been made difficult by the time delay between the learning and test timepoints, the fine-grained manipulation in the present study, and the social acclimation to features of the sounds. Accuracy in recognition judgements between the relative size of intervals diminish as the time between two target intervals increases (E. M. O. Borchert, 2011; McPherson & McDermott, 2020; Prince et al., 2009). If we assume that the same perceptual bottleneck limits these explicit recognition judgements as would at least in part limit any nonconscious evaluation of contexts used during a retrieval process, the length of the distractor task may have made it more difficult for participants to compare the learning and test contexts during the final test of recall. Both inaccurate judgements and an ambiguous representation of musical context could have diminished the role of context in affecting memory.

Even if the learning and test sounds were recognizably different, the present study's manipulation may not have been sufficient to facilitate evaluations of the different sound as a new context. The global impression of the context could have been influenced by the characteristics of the pitch interval. However, the pilot study supported the selection of the major second, perfect fifth, major sixth, and perfect octave because these intervals were rated as similar to each other on extramusical features such as familiarity, pleasure, and distraction. So, these differences may have been diminished to the extent that the measured extramusical features were critical to that global impression. Consistent with past work in mental context theory, even sounds with a different holistic representation due to differences in pitch interval, feature-level similarities may still have allowed for contextual benefits from different sounds. The sounds in this study were exactly the same in terms of overall tempo, MIDI soundfont, playback volume, use of the 5:4 polyrhythm, its four-note component being played by the lower note in the

interval, and this low note being the same pitch and register, a C4 (262 Hz). It is therefore easy to imagine that of the abundance of features common between two sounds at a different pitch interval, some number of these features may have been critical to context reinstatement during test; this feature-level similarity between different sounds may have weakened the effect of this single feature's difference.

Finally, polyrhythms and five-limit tuning are musically interesting and rooted in notions of resonance and low-integer ratio representations of harmonic series relationships that likely influence our perception of most features of the sounds around us (Chew, 2001; Large & Snyder, 2009; van Noorden & Moelants, 1999). They are not, however, standard features in American popular music. Past work has demonstrated interactions between pitch and rhythm on musical perception, and work by Moelants and van Noorden (2005) suggested that the 5:4 polyrhythm at 150 bpm provided a set of metric constrains at which the different pitched components were of equal salience to each other. However, their data was gathered from a musically trained population, likely to have more exposure or at least tolerance to novel sounds than the average American resident. While reporting musical training didn't moderate the effect of actual and reported context on memory performance, nor did it predict whether participants would report being in the same or a different context, there may have been additional differences between the characteristics or experiences of this sample compared to those in previous music cognition studies. It is difficult to measure the extent to which these sounds were more abnormal than the musical pieces selected in previous studies of music-dependent memory, but they likely were perceived as more abnormal. In particular, the looped polyrhythm may have, given its infrequency in American popular music, have been the most unfamiliar and therefore most

salient feature of the musical stimuli, further limiting the extent to which the global impression of these sounds could be affected by altering the pitch interval.

No Sound Is as Good as Any

While these rationale may explain the lack of difference in words recalled by people who heard different sounds, it fails to explain why those who heard no sound during their test did not recall significantly fewer words than other participants, as was expected. One reassuring remark is that participants who heard no sound during their test did not recall significantly more words than those who heard sound, which is consistent with past research in music-dependent memory suggesting that the presence of sound during the test is not reliably distracting or disrupting recall processes.

This study also relied on only a single possible learning sound, unlike other contextdependent memory studies which randomly assign participants to their learning and test contexts. While this was a useful decision to include a high number of participants exposed to each test sound, it limits the ability to make any general claims about the change in context experienced by participants. That is, the no sound condition in this study did not vary the learning sound experienced by participants, so these data only inform us as to how hearing no sound at test *after hearing a perfect fifth at learning* affects recall. It remains possible that participants who heard a major second while learning, for example, could have demonstrated a greater difference in words recalled between people who heard the major second again versus no sound during their test. Future work with similar stimuli would benefit from randomly assigning participants to both a learning and test context in order to make broader claims, in order to make claims about hearing no sound at test robust to what particular sound was heard during learning.

A related drawback of this study is the lack of control over or insight into the retrieval strategies used by participants during their final test. Context information even latently related to previously learned information can be an effective retrieval tool (Karpicke et al., 2014; Long et al., 2015; Whiffen & Karpicke, 2017). Some participants may have facilitated the reinstatement of previous context, including thinking of previously heard sounds, in order to aid their recall of target words. This particular strategy could have been easier for those who heard no sound at test compared to those who heard different sounds. Additionally, the retrieval of any words may have strengthened the representation of the sound heard during learning. Any combination of these possible occurrences could have minimized differences in final recall between participants in the same- and no-sound conditions. Randomly assigning both learning and context conditions would make it possible to compare memory of those who heard no sound at both learning and test, compared to those who heard some sound during learning.

Actual Versus Reported Context

One unexpected outcome of this study was the effect of reported context on the number of words recalled during the final test. Participants who reported hearing the same sound during both learning and test phases recalled significantly more words than those who reported the sound being different or those who reported being unsure. Reported context did not depend on actual context, as a chi square test indicated that the frequency at which people reported these contexts did not differ according to what sound they actually heard.

It is possible that more is captured by reported context than a true reflection of participants' evaluations of the learning and test sounds' similarity. One argument in favor of this response reflecting noise is the high rates of error in participants' reports. Fewer than half of participants who did hear a sound at test correctly identified it as either the same or a different

sound. Over a fifth of participants who heard no sound during the test reported hearing the same sound as when they were rating the sounds for pleasantness. Participants who heard no sound but who were asked to reflect on the test sound – "Think back to the sound you heard while rating words for pleasantness, and the sound you heard when you were later tested on those words. Did you hear the same sound both times?" – may rightfully have been confused. The question could have been designed to explicitly recognize that at test, participants may have heard the same, a different, or no sound at all. While participants may also have not paid close attention to the question, originally analyzed data only included participants who passed the Manikin and interval recognition task attention checks, diminishing the likelihood of responses being consistently inattentive.

Additionally, though this question was asked immediately after participants finished the surprise test of recall, the act of reflecting on both the learning and test period may have encouraged participants to update their representation of the sounds heard at both timepoints. Participants may not have consciously compared the sounds until asked to do so here, and their reports could have been influenced by motivations to have considered the sounds as similar or dissimilar, according to ideas about the study's goals or the likelihood that they were supposed to hear different sounds. The use of retrieval strategies that relied on contextual cues may have updated their representation of the musical context at test in a way that conscious reflection could allow for the test sound to be considered similar to the earlier learning sound, even if there was no sound during a participant's test period. These issues of conscious reflection and the boundaries of accurate recognition are similar to those inherent in previous studies in psychoacoustics and music cognition, as discussed in the introduction.

Reported context may therefore not capture an infallible evaluation of two sounds' similarity, but it is reasonable to assume that it may accurately reflect participants' belief, upon reflection, about their similarity. With this framework, these results suggest that musicdependent memory effects were contingent primarily on participants' belief that the musical context was the same during a test of target information as when they were originally exposed to the information. Imagined contexts have been found to produce context-dependent memory effects to at least the same extent as "real" contexts (Masicampo & Sahakyan, 2014; S. M. Smith & Vela, 2001). This could be explained through two mechanisms. First, a *belief* that you are in the same context, characterized by a conviction in one's perceptual assessment of two circumstances informing a holistic context representation that is the same in both instances. Second, even if someone doesn't *believe* they are in the same context, reinstatement of key features of a context can still strengthen the accessibility of related target information, and could strengthen the connective representation between the context and learned material.

Further conclusions about the interaction between actual and reported context are more complicated to interpret. Robust to the inclusion of participants who performed poorly on the interval recognition task, participants who correctly believed they heard the same sound at both timepoints outperformed several other groups on the final test of recall. However, in both the preregistered and exploratory set of participants, there were very few participants representing certain combinations of actual and reported context. Since groups' recall scores were consistently found to have equal variance according to Bartlett tests of homogeneity of variance, the ANOVAs were likely still robust despite the imbalance of group sizes (Grace-Martin, 2020). However, the power of these analyses were constrained by the size of the smallest included

groups; since as few as 4 or 5 participants were in several included groups, this study was inadequately powered to report on the complex interaction between these factors.

Future Directions

The goal of the present study was to investigate the extent to which the contextdependent memory paradigm could be a useful method for indirectly assessing the perceptual similarities between different sounds. It is possible that the interaction of methodological factors such as the distraction period's task and length, displaying words twice during the incidental learning phase, and the narrow ways in which the musical stimuli were altered contributed to the null results of this study. Continued efforts to assess perceptual similarity through this indirect method may still be rich, given the complexity of reported context's effect on memory performance, and the interactions between actual and reported context that were detectable in this sample. In order to refine the methodology used for the indirect assessment of perceptual similarity, future research may benefit from shorter or less intensive distractor tasks, and more systematically evaluating whether the number of word presentations has an effect on the strength of context manipulations.

Additionally, future work in this vein should balance the tradeoffs between varying both learning and test contexts for participants and investigating the myriad ways in which the sounds themselves could be altered. Varying both learning and tests contexts would allow researchers to draw claims about how altering features of a musical context affects judgements of sounds' similarity, *regardless of the original sound*. However, there are more features of musical significance, and certainly more of perceptual significance, than the pitch of the high and fast note in 5:4 polyrhythm. Investigations into pitch interval would benefit from varying the actual pitches used in order to make claims about pitch interval more broadly, rather than different

intervals constructed above C4; at the very least, altering whether the two notes of an interval are played in the 4- or 5-note component of the polyrhythm would allow for generalization beyond the case where the C4 is always the lower, 4-note component of the sound. Given future knowledge of effective methodology to pursue this question, tempo or polyrhythmic density manipulations would be musically rich and extend previous work in music-dependent memory (Balch et al., 1992; Balch & Lewis, 1996; T. K. Isarida et al., 2017).

The unexpected effect of reported context suggests equally rich lines of future inquiry. Of course, future work that varies both learning and test context may still struggle to ensure distributions of participants across actual and reported context categories to allow for more effectively powered analyses. However, this would allow for claims to be made about how reported context is or is not influenced by manipulations of sound, rather than changes from a particular original sound. It is possible that work with a less cognitively intense and/or shorter delay period between learning and test might find a different relationship between actual and reported context. As participants are more able to make accurate recognition judgements between sounds, reported context may mediate this effect, and rates of error in reported context may be lower. Alternatively, if beliefs about the perceptual similarity of sounds are informed by more than the physical features of a sound – even when those physical features are more easily recognized – reported context may still independently effect final recall scores. Similarly, we may find that participants who incorrectly report hearing a different sound outperform those who correctly report hearing a different sound; that is, while belief in a similar sound may reflect context effects being present during learning, the same physical context may still facilitate context-based memory effects even absent the belief that the contexts were similar.

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Appendix A. Musical Stimuli

Figure A1. The 36 diatonic intervals between a minor second and three octaves are shown to the left, at three octave levels and 12 interval classes. The interval classes are named according to the interval name most commonly used in musical analysis (e.g., Major third) as well as the frequency ratio used to construct (and tune) the interval (e.g., 5:4).

Figure A2. The 12 pitch intervals used in the experiment, at the interval classes of major second, perfect fifth, major sixth, or perfect octave, and at the three octave levels.

Appendix B. Words

Table B1.

Table B1. List of all words and nonwords included in the lexical decision task of the pilot

studies. A total of 312 words (top 26 rows) and 312 nonwords (bottom 26 rows) were randomly

selected from the 367 nouns and 1147 nonwords that the English Lexicon Project provided as

comparable in length and task performance in reaction time and accuracy.

Table B2.			
knife	cousin	witness	gift
flame	professor	tribe	council
basket	prison	library	cheek
sheep	card	bush	nurse
maid	flour	apple	wool

Table B2. List of all words used in the experiment for ratings of pleasantness and later recall.

Words were a random subset of those used by Mead and Ball (2007).

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Appendix C. IRB Materials

Entry C1. IRB Proposal, initial submission, November 5, 2020.

Running Head: IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

Section 1

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- **on 1**

Today's date: Wednesday, November 4, 2020

Today's date: Viednesday, November 4, 2020
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 Controlled Emiddigithalmic Scale of the property
- **Section 2**
- 1.

1. What is the title of your project? Varying Pitch Interval as Cued Musical Context Demonstrates

the Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

2. When do you plan to begin this project? (Start date): December 1, 2020
- **Describe your research question(s):** We know that pitch and rhythm interact to explain our perception of music. However, it is not fully undects
odd what aspects of these key features are most essential to the percept
as delayed free recall. Participants will learn words while hearing a polyrhythm played at the pitch
interval of a perfect fifth, and will later be tested on the studied words while hearing the polyrhythm at the same or a varied pitch interval (e.g., the minor second, major third, and major μ and the measurement of the state of the state of the state of the state in the state is stated in the state of the state of the state of the state of works correctly if the musical and
forey content is the same at te and if they heard b) an interval class consonant to the original interval or the ratio of the polyrhythm. These findings aim to show that perceptual relationships like similarity depend on
certain relational aspects of key features, like proximity and consonance, furthering understanding of perception and music cognition.
- or percepton and music cognutous.
 Describe the population(s) you plan to recentit and how you plan to recentit participants.
 Please submit all recentiment material, emails and scripts to $\frac{1}{181626 \text{ bard, cdu}}$ **.** Part $\overline{4}$

IRB Pronosal, Pitch Interval Context and Percentual Similarity of Polyrhythms

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Appendix D). Finally, they will be
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Summary: A screener questionnaire is a procedure supported by the community of

resurchers and MTurk workers in order to equisibly determine eligible participants for

future research, wit

² View the online list of publicly available tasks: https://www.millis

IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

ists proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Simillarity of Polythythms 2

2

as a dominant language, and without self-reported hearing impairments or perfect pitch; MTurk

participants will late be restricted to

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IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Percentual Similarity of Polyrhythms

who complete the informed consent agreement will then complete the screening
questionnaire and the demographics questionnaire and the demographics
questionnaire (see Appendix D) in the
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payment. The whole procedure will take
approximately two minutes to complete.

to return to MTurk with a code to ensure the presentation of the state of the

Figure 2. Procedure for the adapted list learning task in
the main experiment.
Learning Phase $(\leq 3m)$

Apple +

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³ View the List Learning Task's code, user manual, and demo:

Figure 1. Procedure for the pilot experiment.
Lexical Decision Task

break or distractor task, there is a test of delayed recall lasting two minutes, where break or distance task, there is a less of oenayed recain using two minutes, where
participants are asked to recall as many words as they can, in any order. Finally, to test
delayed recognition, 20 words will be presented

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- words.

Notice Task, Participants will complete a 10-minute visuospatial reasoning task, in

order to provide a break between learning and test that cocupies attentional resources.

both to rapsge participants and limit r $_{\rm HI}$
- judgements about which hand of a figure nods to stell the mass amps as much user the figure, or the Samila Processing Task³, in which participants must judge whether a histogram is a transformed version of a previously
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View Manikin Test of Spatial Orientation and Transformations code, user ma ⁴ View Manikin Test of Spanat Orientation and *viewstormanikintest*
https://www.milliscoond.com/download/library/mentaltestinon/manikintest/
¹ View the Spatial Processing Task's code, user manual, and demo:

The West o

IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

-
- 17. If your project study includes deception, please describe here the process you will use, why the deceptions is necessary, and a full description of your debriefing procedures. N/A, is for all projects, please include
-
-

IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

- 10. Describe how you plan to mitigate (if possible) any risks the participants may encounter. **Describe thow you plan to imigrate (II possible) any resks like environment may encounter.**

Since Isisteming to audio and using electronic devices is a frequent occurrence for most

since insteading to audio and using el definy any potential discomfort, participants will:
a. Be told in advance about the occurrence and length of exposure to these visual and auditory
a. Be told in advance about the occurrence and length of exposure to these
- e vera
imuli:
- stimuli;

1. Be able to set the volume to a comfortable level during the screening procedure, and

1. Decreted short, self-directed breaks at various points of the procedures.

11. Decrete the consent precess (α_n , how
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- 12. Have non-actionated on or we primary investigate and the based of the system and the system prepared a consent formity) and emailed it is an attachment to $[1832]$ hard-of and the system prepared a consent formity) an
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IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

APPENDIX A: RECRUITMENT MATERIALS

Think Musically

Participate in a Bard Psychology Senior Project about music and cognition & get paid for completing the online experiment.

Interested? Tear off an email slip to learn more!

Sample Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) Human Intelligence Task (HIT) Descriptions

Sample Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) Human Intelligence Task (HIT) Description
Screening Questinenaire

Screening Constantine Title: Auditory Experiences

Tele: Auditory Experiences

Tele: Auditory Experiences

Descripti

Experimental Task
Title: Sound and Cognition Study
These from the scheme of Sound and Cognition Study as
ks you to listen to various simple audio recordings while learning and
mainplating vertal and nonverbal data present

hp4041@bard.edu
hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu
hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu hp4041@bard.edu

hp4041@bard.edu

APPENDIX B: CONSENT FORMS Pilot Exi nt Con **INFORMED CONSENT AGREEMENT**

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You are being asked to participate in a study designed as a part of a Bard College Senior Project in the
Department of Psychology. This experiment seeks to investigate how sound and learning interact.

Please take time to thoroughly read through this form, which describes potential risks and benefits of participation in this study. After you have been fally informed, you have the right to choose whether y wish to partic se whether you

Background: This experiment seeks to investigate how sound and learning interact. In this pilot study, you will be asked to listen to various sounds while making judgements about visually presented items a
well as featur

Risks and Benefits: Participating in this study poses minimal risk. As a part of this experiment, you would be asked to complete a series of tasks on the laquisit Web 6 platform, which is free and safe to download, and

While participation in this study may not provide any direct benefits to you, you will receive
compensation for your time, described below. Additionally, you will provide crucial information that
cnhances our understanding

Compensation: Your compensation has been set in accordance with NY State minimum wage at your
time of participtation. [IF PARTICIPATING BEFORE December 31, 2020] Therefore, you will receive
58.85 for your time. [IF PARTI

Confidentiality: Information you provided through the Inquisit platform, including responses to questionnaires and your performance on tasks, will be temporarily stored on Inquisit's servers, and at the correlation of d

The final published version of this research will be permanently and publicly available as a Senior Project at the Stevenson Library of Bard College, and digitally through the Digital Commons. This information may also be

IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

Risks and Benefits: Participating in this study poses minimal risk. As a part of this experiment, you would be asked to complete a series of tasks on the Inquisit Web 6 platform, which is free and safe to download, and

While participation in this study may not provide any direct benefits to you, you will receive
compensation for your time, described below. Additionally, you will provide envel
are related to the structure of the correlat

Compensation: For your participation, you will be provided with direct me
MTurk totalling \$0.24 for a 2-minute task.

Confidentiality: Information you provided through the Inquisit platform, including responses to questionnaires and your performance on tasks, will be temporarily stered on Inquisit's servers, and at the cordination of d

The final published version of this research will be permanently and publicly available as a Senior Project at the Stevenson Library of Bard College, and digitally through the Digital Commons. This information may also be

Your Rights as a Participant: Your participation in this experiment is entirely voluntary, mean
you can choose to not participate or to withdraw from the experiment at any time without penal

The experimenter will provide you with more information about the experiment at the completion of this
session. If you have any further questions regarding this study, you may email the principal investigator,
Hadley Parum

STATEMENT OF CONSENT:

STATEMENT OF CONSENT:
"The purpose of this study, procedures to be followed, and the risks and benefits have been explained
me. I have been told whom to contact if I have additional questions. I have read this consent form

By continuing to proceed by clicking the below button, you are indicating the following:
 1 am at least 18 years of age.

IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

these cases, your data will be presented in aggregate with the data of other participants and will not be linked to any identifiable information.

Your Rights as a Participant: Your participation in this experiment is entirely voluntary, meaning that you can choose to not participate or to withdraw from the experiment at any time without penalty. If you choose to

The experimenter will tell you more about the experiment at the completion of this session. If you have any further questions regarding this study, you may ask them during the session, or you may email the principal inter

 σ) and LearLevi LOF CONSENT:

"The purpose of this study, procedures to be followed, and the risks and benefits have been

"The purpose of this study, procedures to be formed to my statistic

narevered to my satisfact

-
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- By checking the box below and proceeding, you are indicating the following:
 \cdot I am at least 18 years of age.
 \cdot I have fully read and understand the contents of this informed consent agreement.
 \cdot I agree with t
	-

Screener Questionnaire Consent Form (MTurk)
INFORMED CONSENT AGREEMENT

You are being asked to participate in a survey designed as a part of a Bard College Senior Project in the
Department of Psychology. This survey seeks to learn about your experiences with hearing, music, and
language, and w

Please take time to thoroughly read through this form, which describes potential risks and benefits of participation in this study. After you have been fully informed, you have the right to choose whether you wish to part

Background: This survey seeks to learn about your experiences with hearing, music, and language. You will be presented with aix multiple choice questions in the Inquisit Web 6 platform. The results will be used to serve

IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

- $\;$ 1 agree to be contacted through MTurk with invitations to participate in a future study, should 1

qualify.
 \blacksquare publy read and understand the contents of this informed consent agreement.
 \blacksquare I agree with the above statement of consent.
 \blacksquare I agree with the above statements and provide my informed consent to

Main Experiment Consent Form (MTurk)
INFORMED CONSENT AGREEMENT

.
You are being asked to participate in a study designed as a part of a Bard College Senior Project in the
Department of Psychology. This experiment seeks to investigate how sound and learning interact.

Please take time to thoroughly read through this form, which describes potential risks and benefits of
participation in this study. After you have been fully informed, you have the right to choose whether you
wish to part

Background: This experiment seeks to investigate how sound and learning interact. In this study, you will be asked to pay attention to different visually presented stimuli, including English words and numbers. You will

Risks and Benefits: Participating in this study poses minimal risk. As a part of this experiment, you would be asked to complete a series of tasks on the Inquisit Web 6 platform, which is free and safe to download, and co

While participation in this study may not provide any direct benefits to you, you will receive
compensation for your time, described below. Additionally, you will provide encal
a enhances our understanding of learning and

Compensation: For your participation, you will be provided with direct monetary co
MTurk totalling \$3.02 for a 25-minute task.

Confidentiality: Information you provided through the Inquisite platform, including responses to questionnaires and your performance on tasks, will be temporarily stered on Inquisit's servers, and at the corelation of d

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IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

the task will be randomly issued by Inquisit and used only to disburse payment, and at no point will
Inquisit receive information connected to your MTurk account.

The final published version of this research will be permanently and publicly available as a Senior Project at the Stevenson Liberary of Bard College, and digitally through the Digital Commons. This information may also b

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Your Rights as a Participant: Your participation in this experiment is entirely voluntary, meaninyou can choose to not participate or to withdraw from the experiment at any time without penalty

The experimenter will provide you with more information about the experiment at the completion of this session. If you have any further questions regarding this study, you may email the principal investigator, Hadley Paru

STATEMENT OF CONSENT:

STAL EMENT TO CONSENT:

"The purpose of this study, procedures to be followed, and the risks and benefits have been explained
 m e. I have been told whom to contact if I have additional questions. I have read this consen

-
- By continuing to proceed by clicking the below button, you are indicating the following:

I am at least 18 years of age.

1 apper to all qualifications (that I have not experienced hearing loss, 1 do consider English a

1
-

IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

APPENDIX C: DEBRIEFING STATEMENTS **Pilot Expe** ent Debriefing S **Experiment Debriefing Stater**
DEBRIEFING STATEMENT PLEASE KEEP THIS SHEET FOR YOUR RECORDS

Study Title: Varying Pitch Interval of Polyrhythms
Principal Investigator: Hadley Parum (hp4041% bard.edu)

Thank you for participating in this experiment! This study was designed to investigate the significance of
the musical feature of pitch distance to perceptions of musical stimuli. Your participation will help further
resea

During the procedure, we asked you to complete a lexical decision task, where you judged whether a string of letters was an English word, while listening to different sounds. While we were interested in your performance o

Remember that you are free to with
draw consent even after the conclusion of the experiment for any concerns. If you would like to with
draw your data from our analysis, or if you have any further question
 α concerns a

To extend support during an ongoing pandemic, and in case of any current distress or fatigue, you are
encouraged to contact any of the following: Bard Counseling Center (at 845-758-7433), BRAVE (at
1-845-758-74777) or the

Thank you again for your participation! While this study does not rely on explicit deception concerning its hypotheses, we kindly request that you not disclose the details of the experiment to any individual suttil afte

Screener Study Debriefing Statement (MTurk)
DEBRIEFING STATEMENT
PLEASE KEEP THIS SHEET FOR YOUR RECORDS

Study Title: Screener Questionnaire for Bard College Senior Project Research
Principal Investigator: Hadley Parum (hp-1041 @bard.cdu)

IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

Thank you for participating in this screener questionnaire! This study was designed to investigate experiences with hearing, music, and language, and will be used to determine eligibility for future research by the princip hoticilor

Remember that you are free to withdraw consent even after the conclusion of the experiment for any concerns. If you would like to withdraw your data from our analysis or potential participant pool, or if you wave all part

To extend support during an ongoing pandemic, and in case of any current distress or finition, you are encouraged to contact the following helpline for further support: National Alliance on Mental Illness's (NAMI's) HelpL

Thank you again for your participation! Please return to MTurk and enter the following unique code in order to finish the HIT and have payment credited to your account.

Code: 248371

Main Experiment Debriefing Statement (MTurk)
DEBRIEFING STATEMENT
PLEASE KEEP THIS SHEET FOR YOUR RECORDS

Study Title: Varying Pitch Interval as Cued Musical Context Dem tes the Perceptual Similarity of

Principal Investigator: Hadley Parum (hp4041@bard.edu)

Thank you for participating in this experiment! This study was designed to investigate the relationship
between different musical features and memory. Nour participation helped progress understanding of
humans may organize

Remember that you are free to with
draw consent even after the conclusion of the experiment for any concerns. If you would like to with
draw your data from our analysis, or if you have any further questions
to concern abo

IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

To extend support during an ongoing pandemic, and in case of any current distress or fatigue, yo encouraged to contact the following helpline for further support: National Alliance on Mental III(NAMI's) HelpLine (at $1-80$

Thank you again for your participation? While this study does not rely on explicit deception concerning its hypotheses, we kindly request that you not disclose the details of the experiment to an individual until there ent to any

Please return to MTurk and enter the following unique code in order to finish the HIT and have payment
credited to your account.

Code: 173842

APPENDIX D: QUESTIONNAIRES

 $17[°]$

 19

Instructions: These questions are used only to determine your ability to participate in current research. Your answers will not be connected to your name, unique participant ID, (MTurk account.) or in any other way connected to your identity. (MTurk users only: Due to the different needs of various studies, it is vital that you respond honestly so that we may solicit you for appropriate opportunities.)

- **Hearing Normality**
- 1. Have you ever been diagnosed with hearing loss (including but not limited to Otosclerosis, Ménière's disease, Presbycusis, Physical head injury, Ototoxic medicine, or noise exposure)? [YES] [NO] [DECLINE TO RESPOND] * Must select one
- 2. Do you currently consider yourself D/deaf or hard of hearing? [YES] [NO] [DECLINE TO RESPOND] * Must select one
- 3. Do you consider yourself to have absolute/perfect pitch? $^\mathrm{o}$ Must select one [YES] [NO] [DECLINE TO RESPOND]
- 4. Do you consider yourself to be tone deaf? [YES] [NO] [DECLINE TO RESPOND] * Must select one
- English proficiency
- 5. Do you consider English a primary language?
- [YES] [NO] [DECLINE TO RESPOND] * Must select one 6. Did your household speak English more than half the time during your childhood?
- [YES] [NO] [DECLINE TO RESPOND] * Must select one
- IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms 18 **Demographic Questionnaire** 1. What is your age in years? (Provide response in whole numbers, e.g. "3"; NOT "4.5") $[\begin{array}{cccc} \rule[1mm]{1.2mm}{1.2mm} \rule[1mm]{1.2mm}{1.2mm} \rule[1mm]{1.2mm}{1.2mm} \rule[1mm]{1.2mm}{2.2mm} \rule[1$ * Must select one 2. What is your gender identity? [Male] [Female] [Nonbinary/Other] [Decline to Respond] * Must select one 3. What is your race or ethnicity? $[\text{African-AmericanBlack}] \qquad [\text{Asian}] \qquad [\text{Native American}] \qquad [\text{WhiteCaucasian}]$ [Hispanic/Latino] [Other] [Decline to Respond] *Select all that apply
	- **Musical Experience Questionnaire**
	- When asked for a numeric answer, please answer in whole numbers (e.g., "3", "45"; NOT "1.5"). 1. Have you ever had musical training (in school, private lessons, etc.)?
		- $[YES]$ $[NO]$
		- a. If yes, what was the age at which you began training?
		- $\qquad \qquad \Box$
		- b. If yes, what was the age at which you stopped playing (current age if you still play)? $1 \t-1$
		-
		- 2. Do you currently play an instrument (at any level of formality)? $[{\rm YES}] \hspace{1.5cm} [{\rm NO}]$
		- a. If yes, for approximately how many hours a week do you play an instrument?
		- $\hfill\Box$
		- b. Of these hours, how many hours a week do you spend improvising (rather than playing from memorized or written music)?

$\qquad \qquad \Box$

3. How many hours per week on average do you spend listening to music of any kind? $L = 1$

$\rm IRB$ Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

Musical Feature Ratings

Think back to the sound that played during the most recent lexical decision task. For each statement below, select the number that best reflects your personal agreement with the statement about the sound you just heard. Select only one number for each statement.

IRB Proposal, Pitch Interval Context and Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

APPENDIX E: HUMAN SUBJECTS TRAINING

 20

Entry C2. IRB Approval, November 15, 2020.

Bard College

Institutional Review Board

Date: November 15, 2020 To: Hadley Parum Cc: Justin Hulbert, Deborah Treadway, Brandt Burgess From: Tom Hutcheon, IRB Chair Re: Varying Pitch Interval as Cued Musical Context Demonstrates the Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms

DECISION: APPROVED

Dear Hadley,

The Bard Institutional Review Board has reviewed and approved your proposal entitled "Varying Pitch Interval as Cued Musical Context Demonstrates the Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms." Your proposal is approved through November 15, 2021 and your case number is: 2020NOV15-PAR.

Please notify the IRB if your methodology changes or unexpected events arise.

This sounds like a really interesting project and we wish you the best of luck with your research!

 741

Tom Hutcheon IRB Chair thutcheo@bard.edu $\overline{22}$

Entry C3. IRB Amendment, submitted January 3, 2021.

Running Head: Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendr

ers of the IRB

Dear Members of the IRB,
Antached you will find an amended version of the IRB protocol 2020/NOV15-PAR ("Varying

Antached you will find an amended version of the IRB protocol 2020/NOV15-PAR ("Varying

Prich Interval as Cu

chance alone, and an increase in the diversion ye particular
parameteristic results and the included results consider a that in the included in the main experiments.
In the main constraints and the main space of any findi

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 1)

Section 1

- Today's date: Jan
- Name: Hadley Parum
Email: hp4041@bard.edu
- Vour Academic Program/Department/Office: Psychology Department
Your status (faculty, staff, graduate or undergraduate student): Undergraduate student,
- Senior 1 Senior 1
Adviser or Faculty Sponsor (if applicable): Justin Hulbert $\frac{6}{7}$
- $\overline{8}$

 $\overline{\mathbf{3}}$

- Adviser or Faculty Sponsor (if applicable): Josina Hublert

If you are a graduate or undergraduate student, has your Adviser or Faculty Sponsor seen

and approved your application? Yes

Your Adviser's or Faculty Sponsor se 10
- 11. If so, state the name of the sponsor and the title of the project as it was submitted to that
sponsor. I received a Fall Undergraduate Research Grant amounting \$1,500 from the Psi Chi sponsor. I re
Honor Socie received a Fall Undergraduate Research Grant amounting \$1,500 from the Psi
iety, as well as a Seniors-to-Seniors Grant from the Lifetime Learning Institute
to \$750. Both were received in December 2020, and the title of thi ting to \$750. Both were re bmitted to both was "Varying Pitch Interval as Cued Musical Context Dereceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms"

Section 2

- What is the title of your project? Varying Pitch Interval as Cued Musical Context Demonstrates
- What is the title of your project? Varying Pitch Interval as Cued Musical Context Demonstrates
the Perceptual Similatiny of Polythythms
as the Perceptual Similatiny of Polythythms
as θ we plan to begin this project? (S
- of perception and music cognition.
Describe the population(s) you plan to recruit and how you plan to recruit participants
Please submit all recruitment material, ensails and scripts to IRBG@ hard.edu. Participant
will be

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 1)

aforementioned changes to payment, task length, and exclusion criteria. Finally, an outline of the Qualtrics survey to which non-MTurk pilot participants will be directed is included in Appendix G. Ultimately, since these

Sincerely,
Hadley Parum hp4041@bard.edu $\overline{2}$

P.S., Happy New Year!

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 1)

populations reached through social media, and through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Before they agree to participius, they will be determined to be abset the age of 18, with English as a dominant language, and witho ia, and through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk).

- ok, Instagram, and/or Twitter. 5. Will your participants include individuals from vulnerable or protected populations (e.g.,
-
-
- 5. Will your participants include individuals from vulnerable or protected populations (e.g.,
Will your participants include individuals from unkendove populations, please specify the
experiment of the contribution of the to IRB@bard.edu. Name your attachments with your last name and a brief description (e.g., "WatsonSurvey.doc).
a. Pilot Study

i. Summary: A pilot study will be conducted to measure how potential musical stimuli Summary. A plust study will be conducted to measure how potential musical stimula
vary on extra-musical characteristics, in order to better inform the simuli used during
the main experiment. Figure 1 provides a visual ove measure (see Appendix B) The time window during which the participant tak
study will be scheduled with the primary investigator, but the scheduling and ompletion of the experiment v ator at any point. The participant will complete informed conser

.
View download page and compatibility statement: https://www.millisecond.com/download/ing

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 1)

are (see Appendix B), followed Figure 1. Procedure for the pilot experiment. by a short interval recognition task,
described below. Then, participants described below. Then, participants
will repeat a short listening
procedure week inness. This
istening procedure consists of
completing the located decision task,
described below while hearing a
given musical stimuli on l

- completing the lastical decision task, **Processor**, *parameter* a general standard and specified below while because a general standard and *monetary* and *a general standard and* $\frac{1}{2}$ consider the parameter and inte û. iii.
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² View the online list of publicly available tasks: https://www.

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 1)

ii. List Learning Task. In order to measure delayed free recall and rec *List Learning Tatik.* In order to measure delayed free recall and recognition of learned material, the Inapisit E.E.I.
coming Tatik ¹ will be adapted for present us in Inquisit for the
(2020). Participants will learn a ofle

 $\frac{1}{7}$

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- to provide the constant of the most state and the most of 20 words were on the original list of 20 words, and the other half are 10 unstudied
into 20 words were on the original list of 20 words, and the original reasoning
-

 2 View the List Learning Task's code, user manual, and demo:
https://www.millisscond.com/download.library.list
learningtasky View Mankin Test of Spatial Orientation and Transformations code
 2 View Mankin Test of Spati code, user manual, and demoPitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR Amendment 1)

Figure 2. Procedure for the adapted list learning task in
the main experiment.
 Learning Phase (<3m) which only the fixation cross is present. Including short test trials to acclimate participants to the controls, the presents
of all words takes approximately three ats to the controls, the presentation er Questionnaire mer Questionnaire
Summary: A screener questionnaire is a
procedure supported by the community of
researchers and MTurk workers in order to researchers and MTurk workers in order to
equitably determine eligible participants for
future research, without disqualifying
MTurk workers who would otherwise MTark workers who would otherwise andy for which they
are analy for which they are inciplible a study for which they are inciplible. Participants recential through
are a mighting to the incipant of the incipant extreming

c. Main E

Apple

D Elbow

(תתתתתתתתתתת)

Distractor Task (10m)

 $\begin{array}{|c|c|}\hline \textbf{a} & \textbf{b} \\ \hline \textbf{a} & \textbf{b} \end{array}$ \geq \sim ant match (left) or don't

Participants see histog \Rightarrow

Test Phase (~3m) Carrot $\begin{array}{c|c}\n\hline\n\end{array}\n\qquad \qquad \bullet\n\qquad \qquad \bullet\n\q$ **(numuruuu)**

payment. The whole procedure will take a
magnetic model procedure and procedure and procedure the state of the
state of the system and a Southern measurement of the system and Southern Southern Southern Southern Southern

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 1)

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- 2. Participants recention
of from the Bard Community or otherwise through social media measures for the pilot study will receive \$6.25 (for a 30-minute task and a New York
Share minimum wape of \$1.250 now as of Jamanso 1.
-
-
- 12. Have you prepared a consent form(s) and emailed it as an attachment to <u>[1818/a/hard,cdn</u>]⁷

Yes.

13. If you are collecting data via media capture (video, auddo, photos), have you included a

14. If your project wi

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR Amendment 1)

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- Then interval as Context (2020/00/V13-PAK, Amendment 1)
proximates to the screening questionnaire) will only be used
proximation collected (g_x , responses to the screening questionnaire) will only be used
to determine qu
-
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Entry C4. IRB Approval, January 12, 2021.

Bard College

Institutional Review Board

Date: January 12, 2021 To: Hadley Parum Cc: Justin Hulbert, Deborah Treadway, Brandt Burgess From: Tom Hutcheon, IRB Chair Re: Proposed Amendments to 2020NOV15-PAR

DECISION: APPROVED

Dear Hadley,

The Bard Institutional Review Board has reviewed and approved the amendments you submitted to your protocol on January 3, 2021. Your case number remains 2020NOV15-PAR.

Please notify the IRB if your methodology changes or unexpected events arise.

This sounds like a really interesting project and we wish you the best of luck with your research!

 741

Tom Hutcheon **IRB Chair** thutcheo@bard.edu
Entry C5. IRB Amendment, submitted March 8, 2021.

uning Head: Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amend

ers of the IRB

Dear Members of the IRB,
Antashed you will find an amended version of the IRB protocol 2000NOV15-PAR ("Varying

Prich Interval as Cued Musical Context Demonstrates the Preceptual Similarity of Polyrhydms"). The

Prich Int

steam as Caust, 2007). In order to more closely replicate the methodologies of more recent work in music-dependent
In order to more closely replicate the methodologies of more recent work in music-dependent
differentially In order to more closely replicate the methodologies of more recent work in music-dependent

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 2)

Section 1

- Today's date: March 8, 2021
- Name: Hadley Parum
Email: hp4041@bard.edu
-
- Senior 1 Senior 1
Adviser or Faculty Sponsor (if applicable): Justin Hulbert
-
-
- 6. Advisor or Faculty Spansor (fi applicable): Justin Hubert

16. Action (1.1 Tyou are a graduate or undergraduate student, has your Adviser or Faculty Sponsor seen

2. Tyou are a graduate or undergraduate students, has y submitted to both was "Varying Pitch Interval as Cued Musical Context Dem-
Perceptual Similarity of Polyrhythms"

1. What is the title of your project? The role of a polyth

- What is the title of your project? The role of a polyrhythm's pitch interval in music-dependent
memory
memory
memory correct parameter (Start date): December 1, 2020
D Decembe your research question(s): We know that pitch
- perception and music cognition.
seribe the population(s) you plan to recruit and how you plan to recruit participant
ase submit all recruitment material, emails and scripts to <u>IRB@bard.edu</u>. Participa
I be recruited from

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 2)

ntal so nds or white noise has decreased, which may diminish risks associated with electron

 \rightarrow -power measures we wave mass that operators, which may diminish risks associated with electronic exposure or sensory fatigue. I hope that these changes to the study may strengthen the weight of any findings produced,

Sincerely,
Hadley Parum hp4041@bard.edu $\overline{2}$

- References:

Balch, W. R., Bowman, K., & Mohler, L. A. (1992). Music-dependent memory in immediate and delayed

word recall. *Memory* & Cognition, 20(1), 21-28. https://doi.org/10.3758/HF03208250

Balch, W. R., & Lewis, B.
- Mediation. Journal of experimental and the state of product dependent effects of background music on the Isarich T. K., Isarich T., & Hayashibe K. (2008). Context dependent effects of background music on the final of inci
-
- Isarida I. K., Isarida T., & Haryashibs K. (2008). Coneera dependent effects of background music on the free recall of meidentally and intensionally learned words.

In free recall of meidentally and intensionally learned
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Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 2)

populations reached through social media, and through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Before they agree to participute, they will be determined to be above the age of 18, with English as a dominant language, and without ns reached through social media, and through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). as poses in campus tocalmonio or unround. Non-monary, social incuta auvertusement
may reach participants from beyond the Bard community, including participants with access to
Facebook, Instagram, and/or Twitter.
5. Will yo

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- 5. Will your participants include individuals from vulnerable or protected populations (e.g.,

Will your participants will include individuals from the absorption
by impacted)? No. If your participants will include indivi to IRB@bard.edu. Name your attachments with your last name and a brief description (e.g., "WatsonSurvey.doc). Pilot Study
	- Fire study
i. Summary: A pilot study will be conducted to measure how potential musical stimuli Summary. A provision of the consultation of measure now potential must
can be stimuli used during
the main experiment. Figure 1 provides a visual overview of the procedures for this
25-30 minute task.. Participants recruit 25-30 minute task., Participants recentred through the Bard Community or otherwise exacted through social media will be directed to respond to global exclusion criteria in 4 Qualitrics survey (see Appendix D.), and those participants will repeat a short listening procedure twelve times. This listening
procedure consists of completing the lexical decision task, described below while

View download page and compatibility star ment: https://www.millisecond.com/do

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Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR Amendment 2)

hearing a given musical stimuli on
loop, and then in silence completing toop, and then in sitence completi
the musical feature ratings for the
given audio (see Appendix D),
where they answer Likert-type

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² View the online list of publicly available tasks: https://www.millisecond.com/download/library/lexicaldecisiontask/

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 2)

Web (2020). Participants will learn and be tested on the same 20 unrelated, neutrally Web (2000). Participosits will learn and be tested on the same 20 unrelated, neutrally valenced English words for objects (e.g., "clowe," "apple"). During the kening phase, participants may either be assisted to study the

- 20 with someonly and the state of the system of the state of the system of the state iii.
- **Solution and Solution Constrainers** and the state of the distriction lask, after practice,
 Solution 20 accords.
 Procedular and Solution Constrainers are the procedular state and the state of the state and the proced
	-

The Manikin Test of Spatial Orientation and Transformations code, user manual, and demonstration and according the material control of the spatial Processing Task's code, user manual, and demonstration and the spatial Proc

b. Screener Question

 $\overline{\epsilon_{\cdots}}$ mary: A screener questionnaire is a procedure supported by the community of
researchers and MTurk workers in order to researchers and MTurk workers in order to
equitably determine eligible participants for
future research, without disqualifying
MTurk workers who would otherwise MTurk workers who would otherwise through a
strengt to complete a study of
rewhich they are incitigable. Participants recevited through MTurk who complete the informed consent
agreement will then complete the incernent qu

Figure 2. Procedure for the adapted list learning task in
the main experiment.
Learning Phase $(\leq 3m)$

 $\overline{\mathbf{8}}$

payment. The whole procedure will take

exponent to the simulation of the stress of the stress

View the List Learning Task's code, user manual, and demo:

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 2)

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- isch Interval as Context (2020NOV) 15-PAR, Amendment 2)

i. Participants recruited from the Bard Community or otherwise through social media

i. Participants recenting form the Bard Community or otherwise through social m
-
-
- 12. Have you prepared a consent form(s) and emailed it as an attachment to <u>IRBiz</u> hard-dail?

Yes.

15. Hyou are collecting data via media capture (video, auddo, photos), have you included a

14. If your project will req

Pitch Interval as Context (2020NOV15-PAR, Amendment 2)

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- Then interval as Context (2020/00/V13-PAK, Amendment 2)
personal information collested (e.g., responses to the screening questionnaire) will only be used
to determine qualification for further participation, and not conne
-
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Entry C6. IRB Approval, March 8, 2021.

Bard College

Institutional Review Board

Date: March 8, 2021 To: Hadley Parum Cc: Justin Hulbert, Deborah Treadway, Brandt Burgess From: Tom Hutcheon, IRB Chair Re: Proposed Amendments to 2020NOV15-PAR

DECISION: APPROVED

Dear Hadley,

The Bard Institutional Review Board has reviewed and approved the amendments you submitted to your protocol on March 8, 2021. Your case number remains 2020NOV15-PAR.

Please notify the IRB if your methodology changes or unexpected events arise.

This sounds like a really interesting project and we wish you the best of luck with your research!

 741

Tom Hutcheon **IRB Chair** thutcheo@bard.edu

Appendix D. Preregistrations

Entry D1. Preregistration for Pilot I, submitted December 23, 2020.

- Pilot Experiment [SUBMITTED 12/23/20]
	- -
		-
	-
	- ot Experiment [SUBMITTED 12/23/20]

	1. Data Collection. Have any data been collected for this study already?

	2. Yes, we already collected the data.

	1. No, no data have been collected for this study yet.

	1. No, no data polyrhythm affects participants performance in a task of semantic memory and their explicit subjective impressions of the polyrhythm. Investigating how pitch interval affects these responses will allow us to select four interval classes that are roughly equivalent in these respects. In order to include those particular sounds in a future study investigating context-dependent memory and pitch interval variance.
	- 3. Dependent variable. Describe the key dependent variable(s) specifying how they will be
measured. Example: Simple average GPA across all courses during the first semester after $.$
		- area. Example: Simple overage GPA across all courses during the first semester after the
entime.
There will be eight dependent variables collected, and two computed dependent
variables to be used in analyses. For each 5:4 b.
		- ϵ
	-
	- this riss metric. This metric that the conditions will participants be assigned to? *Exonolicians*. How many and which conditions will participants be assigned to? *Exonolicians*. If conditions: *Offering summer program*;
		- check questions. Example 3. We will exclude any participants who complete the survey in less than 30 seconds
		-
		-
		- on 30 seconds.

		a. Any incomplete responses, where participants terminated the program before complete responses, where participants terminated the program before completing the task, will be excluded.

		b. At the end of t intervals, their data will be excluded.
	- 7. Sample Size. How was phenometric will be collected or what will determine sample size? No
need by lastification, but be precise about easily those there invest will be determined to provide the program unit 500 people 7. Sample Size. How many observations will be collected or what will determine sample size? No
		-
		-
	-
	- notivated by lay listeners.
	- motivated by lay listeners.

	b. For reporting purposes, will also be computing the numerical mean of the ratings of

	textranssical features, in order to be aware of how familiar, consonant, etc. participant

	were reporting
	-
	- Linicago, Juny 2016
a. Varying Pitch Intervals: Parum Senior Project Pilot
10. Finally. For record keeping purposes, please tell us the type of study you are pre-registering.
	- Class project or assignment a. Class project:
b. Experiment
		- Survey
		- Observational/archival study
		- e. Other:

-
- participant will hear notes that are two octaves and a major third apart, while another
will hear notes that are a major third apart).
S. **Analyess, Specify wastely which analyess wou will conduct to examine the main**
que
	- ac, oucly.
a. The main analyses will consist of a 3x12 factorial ANOVA looking at the effect of octave level and interval class on the sound's relative abnormality, measured primarily by the
global measure of abnormality, an rss metric. If evaluating multiple sets of four intervals
that meet the above criteria, the targeted to break ties on any criteria.
	- b. The selection of four interval classes will be guided by the following crite i. Included interval classes should not vary in their targeted abnormality according
		- in to
clude the term of classes should not vary in their **targeted** abnormality according
to cockee level.

		i. Gither the perfect fourth or perfect fifth should be included, as this will be the

		pitch interval data perfec
		- other (e.g., the major second and minor seventh are reciprocal intervals, so they would not both be included).
		- \overline{bc} Ideally, one of the three additional interval classes would have a Ideally, one of the three additional interval classes would have a "consonant"
relationship to either the S/4 ratio of the polyrhythm or the 4/3 or 3/2 ratio
(whichever of the perfect fourth or fifth have been selected),
		-
		- consists of one consonant and one dissonant interval, per item iv.
Sions. Describe exactly how outliers will be defined and handled, and your
- 6. Outliers and Exclu precise rule(s) for excluding observations. Example 1. We will compute the overall mean and standard deviation across all conditions, and winsorize at 2.5 SD above/below the mean Example 2: We will exclude participants who incorrectly answer at least 2 of our 3 attention

Entry D2. Preregistration for Pilot II, submitted February 26, 2021.

- Pilot Two [submitted 2/26/2021]

1. Data Collection. Have any data been collected for this study already?

1. Data Collection. Have any data been collected for this study yet.

1. Data Collection. Have a media collected f unpleasantness experienced by participants and support the selection of four interval
classes for inclusion in a future experiment. This study is being conducted in order to evaluate how changing the pitch interval of a polyrhythm affects participants performance in a task of semantic memory and their xplicit subjective impressions of the polyrhythm. Investigating how pitch interval affects ese responses will allow us to select four interval classes that are roughly equivalent in order to include those particular sounds in a future study Dependent variable. Describe the key dependent variable(s) specifying how they will be
measured. Example: Simple average GPA across all courses during the first semester after nntion.
There will be eight dependent variables collected, and two computed dependent
variables to be used in analyses. For each 5:4 polyrhythm at its given pitch interval,
participants will complete a leical detision task
	- \mathbf{b}
	- to the participant's overall mean on that variable.
The global measure of abnormality will be a root sum squared (square root of the sum of squares of) the z-scores for each of the eight variables discussed above.
The tar ϵ
		- vi. Ideally, included interval classes include a balance of distances between the intervals
	- 6. Outliers and Exclusions. Describe exactly how outliers will be defined and handled, and your Unusters and CALINOINTED. USEN UNIVERSITY (ONE) THE UNIVERSITY OF PRESENTING IN THE PRESENT INTERFERING IN THE PRESENT IN THE PRESENT IN THE PRESENT IN THE UNIVERSITY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF THE UNIVERSITY
		-
		-
	- **check questions. Example 3. We will exclude any participants who complete the survey in less

	than 30 seconds.**
 Any incomplete responses, where participants terminated the program before

	completion the best dist parti intervals. If they are incorrect about the direction of four or more of these inter their data will be excluded. Additionally, if they correctly assess the quality of all six
	- 7. Sample Size, How many observations will be collected or what will determine sample size? No
- 7. Sample Size. How many observations will be collected or what will determine sample size? No
need by lastly the decision, but be precise about easily how the number will be determined.
In comparison to the program until
	- features, especially distraction, and (b) the selection of sounds to be included in a future feature, especially distraction, and (b) the selection of sounds to be included in a future
speriment. Question (a) will be analyzed using regression analyses, and (b) will be
analyzed by performing the main analyzes descr
	-
- 4. Conditions. How many and which conditions will participants be assigned to? Example 1: Two conditions: Offering summer program: yes vs no. Example 2: 12 conditions in a mixed design lab
study. Participants will be assi
	- **verbal test, and a memory test (3 within-subject conditions).**
The only factor determining conditions is the pitch interval at which participants hea
the S:4 polythythm. There are 36 potential pitch intervals, spanning al intervals from a minor second to three octaves apart. Each participant will hear 12 measures start a minur second to three octaves apart. Each participant will hear 12
Intervals throughout the experiment, such that they hear each possible interval clas
(e.g. a major third, or a perfect fifth) at one of th fect that are two orts ac and a major third a

will hear notes that are a major third spart).
 S. Analyses. Specify exactly which analyses you will conduct to examine the main

question/hypothesis. Example: Linear regression reredicting the simple ower

semestre aft \$150,000).

- a. Because the previous iteration of this study found opted to use non-parametric tests in response to non-normal data and a small sample size, these data will similarly be
analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis omnibus tests with Dunn's tests used for post hoc analyzed using Krustal-Wallis omnibus tests with Dunn's tests used for post hoc
comparisons where significant differences are detected.

D. The main analyses will investigate:

L. Whether interest classes vary in overall
	-
	-
	-
	-
	- following criteria:
i. Included interval classes should not vary in overall abnormality according to octave level;
	- octave level;
ii. Either the perfect fourth or perfect fifth should be included;
	- ii. Either the perfect found to perfect fifth should be included interval classes should not be significantly different from each other in
iii. Included interval classes should not be significantly different from each oth
	-
	-

the volume of audio, aspects of musical training, or the interval heard immediately prior to the rated interval

- 9. Name. Give a title for this AsPredicted pre-registration. Suggestion: use the name of the ved by study description. Example: SUMMER PROGRAMS - GPA performance. project follo
- Chicago, July 2018

a. Varying Pitch Intervals: Parum Senior Project Pilot II

10. Finally, For record keeping purposes, please tell us the type of study you are pre-registering.

a. Class project or assignment

b. Experi
	-
	-
	-

Entry D3. Preregistration for Experiment, submitted March 10, 2021.

Registration Metadata

- 1. Title. Varying Pitch Intervals & Context-Dependent Memory: Parum Senior Project Experiment I Description. Experimental portion of Hadley Parum's Senior Project, evaluating the effect of
features of the pitch interval (interval class and octave level) of 5:4 polyrhythms on an expected context-dependent memory benefit to studied words.
- Contributors, Hadley Parum
-
- Contributors. Hastley Parim.
Category. Experiment.
Affiliated Institutions. (You have no institutional affiliations
License. Creative commons (whatever you did for the other
Subjects. (whatever you did for the other one)
T
-

Study Information

1. Hypothesis. List specific, concise, and testable hypotheses. Please state if the hypotheses are procurem os spaniericional. If directional, state the direction. A predicted effect is also
opropriate here. If a specific interaction or moderation is important to your research, you can list that as a separate hypothesis.

- a suppose the overaching goal of this research is to inquire whether manipulating the pitch
interval of a 5:4 polyrhythm is sufficient to affect the expected context-dependent
- internal of a 5:4 polyrhymm is sufficient to affect the expected context-dependent
menal of a 5:4 polyrhymm is sufficient to affect the expected context-dependent
m, Specifically, the proportion of learned words recalled
-
-

files, including a silent file and loops of a 5:4 polyrhythm at 12 different pitch intervals thes, including a sienet the and loops of a 3-4 polymptim at 12 different plich inclusivations Condition information for each participant is randomly generated by Inquisit, without quotas from the experimente: (This was ch task. So, random

Henn-out rates.)

Sampling Plan

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- **EITIPIITIP PTER**

1. Existing Data, Preregistration is designed to make clear the distinction between confirmatory

1. Existing Data, Preregistration is designed to make clear the distinction between confirmatory

tests, a. N/a.
- 3. Data collection procedures. Please de cribe the process by which you will col but include the production criteria. If you are using human subjects, this should include the
population from which you obtain subjects, recruitment efforts, payment for participation, how
subjects will be selected for eli that don't include human subjects, include information about how you will collect samples, duration of data gathering efforts, source or location of samples, or batch numbers you will use. You may attach up to 5 file(s) to this question.
	- All participants will be solicited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) platform All participants will be solicited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) platform, and selecting from workers located in the U.S. with at least 90% approval rating for previous stated in the U.S. in order to access a pool

Design Plan

- $\label{thm:main} \begin{minipage}[t]{0.9\textwidth} \begin{tabular}{p{0.8cm}} \textbf{1.} \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{p{0.8cm}} \textbf{1.} \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{p{0.8cm}} \textbf{2.} \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{p{0.8cm}} \textbf{2.} \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{p{0.8cm}} \textbf{2.} \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{p{0.8cm}} \textbf{3.} \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{p{0.8cm}} \textbf{3.} \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{p{0.8cm}} \$
	-
	- discontinuity designs.
Meta-Analysis A systematic review of published studies.
	- d. Other
- 2. Blinding. Blinding describes who is aware of the experimental manipulations within a study. Mark all that apply.
	- No blinding is involved in this study. a. No binding is that involved in this study.
b. For studies that involve human subjects, they will not know the treatment group to
which they have been assigned.
c. Personnel who interact directly with the study subjects
	- bjects) will not be aware of the assigned treatments. (Commonly known as "double blind")
- hel who analyze the data collected from the study are not aware of the treatm d. Pe d. Personnel who analyze the data colles
applied to any given group.
3. Is there any additional blinding in this study?
-
-
-
- 3. Is there any additional binding in this study?

a. Note any additional binding in this study?

a. Not, there are availabled as the study design. The key is to be as detailed as is necessary given the study design. Desc
- not simply the source of random numbers.
	- mply the source or random numbers.
Participants will be completing the list learning task in the Inquisit 6 Web player, with the
background stimuli for the delayed test of word recall being randomly chosen from 13

future research on various subjects, and participants deemed eligible will be re-contacted for the experimental HIT through encrypted MTurk IDs collected through
CloudResearch's TurkPrime dashboard. All who participate in the screening HIT and courses extents to material and procedus to the participate in the subsequent of provide a valid completion code will receive \$0.25USD for a 2-minute task, and all who participate in the experimental HIT and provide a vali \$2.50USD for a 15-20 minute task.

- t sna
fort, If the
- \$2.50050 for a 15-20 minute task.

4. Samples size of your study, How many units will example per size (assumed to the sample size of your study, Phis could be the number of people, birds, classrooms, plots, or countries
- 5. Sample size rationale. This could include a power analysis or an arbitrary constraint such as time money, or personnel.
- mune at the sample size will include a minimum of 390 participants and a maximum of 559
and clip particlipants in the experimental portion of this study. Financial support is such that, with
780 participants recuried for t The sample size will include a minimum of 390 participants and a maximum of 559
- -
- Manipulated variables. Precisely define all variables you plan to manipulate and the levels or
treatment arms of each variable. This is not applicable to any observational study. You may 1. Manipulated var
	- attach up to 5 file(s) to this question.
a. The only manipulated variable will be the sound heard by participants during the The Unity manufactory and other hear to sound steam of participants during the
delayed test of recall. They will either hear no sound, or hear a 5:4 polyrhythm at one of
12 pitch intervals. Additionally, these 12 pitch int
-
- their octave level and interval class.

2. Measuret variables. Precisely define each variable that you will measure. This will include

2. Measuret variables. Precisely define each variable that you will measure. This wil
	-
	- learning phase, serving as a measure of explicit recognition.
Additional variables measured in order to serve as descriptives of the population and as è potential covariates include:
		- Demographic information, including age in years, gender identity, and
race/ethnicity.
		-
		-
		-
		-
- For energy and the translation, including age in years, genere dentity, and

including whether and for the proposition, including whether and for the proposition

in the proposition of the amount of weekly mutical listens
- Inference criteria. What criteria will you use to make inferences? Please describe the information
you^rl use (e.g. specify the p-values, Bayes factors, specific model fit indices), as well as cut-off
criterion, where app
- \mathbf{a} he present study will use null hypothesis significance testing with a p-value below .05
- .

24. Data exclusion. How will you determine which data points or samples if any to exclude from your

24. Data exclusion. How will usuffers be handled? Will you use any awareness check?

26. Participants' data will be re
	- following are the case:
i. If Inquisit reported them as not completing the task, due to manually quitting
		- i. If Inquisit reported them as not completing the task, due to manually quitting
the program or another technical difficulty resulting in incomplete data.

		if their responses to the interval recognition test demonstrate
			-
			- are such that:

			1. They report expecting the delayed test of recall:

			2. They report keeping physical or typed notes of the studied words:

			3. They report turning off the audio playback at any point of the study.

			If their
			-
			-
			- in line with inattention, such that
				- 1. They complete all 680 trials before the 240 second timeout; o
				- 2. There was at least one period where they took longer than 30 seconds
		-

iv.

 $5 - Mis$

- $\frac{d}{dt}$ there was a usage truncture procedure the system of the state of the
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- case, as muscles of propagate. An measures renevant to analyses torce a participant
response.
6. Exploratory analysis. If you plan to explore the state to book for unspecified differences or
relationships, you may include

Analysis Plan

- **Statistical models.** What statistical model will you use to test each hypothesis? Please include the type of model (e.g. ANOVA), RAANOVAD, AANOVAD, multiplie regression, SEM, etc) and the specification of the model (.e.g to 5 file(s) to this question.
	-
	- An a structure is proportion of proportion of words results in light for the proportion of systems and the proportion of words resulted in light for those who heard to sound here the proportion of words resulting (compare
		- i. Model one (Pitch Interval): Interval Class, Octave Level, and their interaction if it
		- is significant in the factorial ANOVA.
ii. Model two (Pitch Interval and Musical Experience): Model one predictors and
		-
		-
- ii. Model two (Pitch Interval and Musical Experience): Model one predictors and
whether participants reported experiencing musical training (res/no) or
currently playing music, (very/no).
iii. Model three (Pitch Interval

a. N/A

Other

If there is any additional information that you feel needs to be included in your preregistration, please enter it here. Literature cited, disclosures of any related work such as replications or work that uses the same data, or other helpful context would be appropriate here.