

The role of working memory in melodic perception

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Abstract

We explored the extent to which working memory underpins the processing of relational information in melodies. Using a between subjects design, one group of participants was primed with a melodic stream while performing a concurrent 2-back task while the other group was also primed with the melodic stream but did not perform a concurrent task. Participants were then given a melodic relational categorization task where relations (melodic contour and intervals) could either match or not match the primed melody. Reaction times on the categorization task for primed melodies tended to be faster than for non-primed melodies in the no-task condition, suggesting that relational information in melodies could influence behavior more under conditions where working memory resources were not being used in concomitant tasks. Given the marginal results, more data should be collected to ascertain the full extent to which working memory is involved in the processing of relational melodic content.

Introduction

Melody is one of the most fundamental and salient aspects of music. Simple melodies consist of discrete units or notes, with each note characterized by a pitch, or fundamental frequency (i.e., Hertz value). Pitch is a property of sound related to the rate of vibration that produces the sound, and is characterized by descriptions such as “lowness” or “highness.” The two most common ways in which the pitch sequence of a melody can be encoded are *absolute* and *relative* pitch. Encoding a melody via absolute pitch involves storing the notes according to the fundamental frequencies (i.e., featural aspects) of each pitch, whereas encoding in terms of relative pitch involves storing the melody in terms of the *relations* or intervals (specific frequency differences) between each note.

Relative pitch encoding is considered to be the core strategy humans use to categorize and store familiar melodies (Attneave & Olson, 1971; Page, 1994). For example, the song *Happy Birthday* is immediately recognizable due to the unique intervals between each of the notes regardless of whether or not the song starts on a low or high pitch relative to the key in which the song is traditionally played. There is much evidence on the use of relative pitch information in adults through both behavioral (Dowling, 1978, 1984, 1988) as well as neuroimaging studies (Fujioka, Trainor, Ross, Kakigi, & Pantev, 2004; Trainor, McDonald, & Alain, 2002).

In addition to relative pitch, the contour and the intervallic sequence are two other characteristics that can be used to categorize melodies. Contour refers to the general shape, or sequence of up and down frequency shifts, as the melody progresses from note to note, while the intervallic sequence refers to the tonal distance from one pitch to another. For example, a melody with an identical contour to *Happy Birthday*, but with a different intervallic sequence would be perceived as a completely different song though it would still have the same general “shape” (i.e., contour), or up and down pattern (compare A or B to C in Figure 1).

Although the intervallic pattern may be the most overtly salient and representative feature of a melody to humans, studies have shown that, at least for a short duration after being exposed to a melody, human adults are also sensitive to absolute pitch and melodic contour, (Bartlett & Dowling, 1980; Dowling, 1978). Even though the intervallic and contour properties of melodies may characteristically differ in the type of information they carry, what is perhaps more important is that the nature of the information they carry is fundamentally *relational*. Meaning that this type of information depends on the relationship (whether

it is the precise intervallic distance or the general contour shape) between each pitch, and not on the actual pitch frequencies themselves. Thus, it is within this relational capacity that melodic perception can be said to share a cornerstone property with many other cognitive processes.

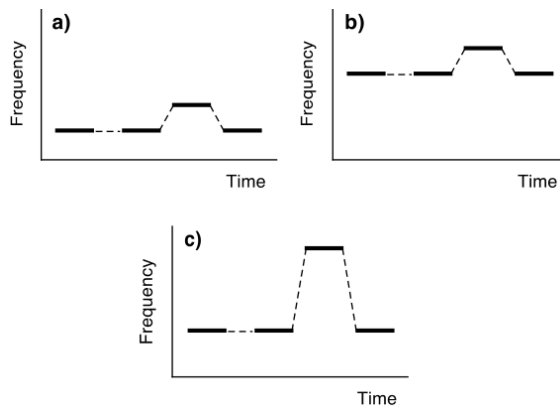


Figure 1: First four notes of Happy Birthday in low (a) and high (b) pitches, and a different melody with similar contour (c).

The ability to explicitly and implicitly process relational properties in stimuli has been proposed as a fundamental mechanism underlying a wide range of cognitive phenomenon. This includes not only higher level reasoning skills such as analogy-making (Gentner, 1983; Gick & Holyoak, 1980; Holyoak & Thagard, 1995), language (Kim, Pinker, Prince, & Prasada, 1991), and rule based learning (Lovett & Anderson, 2005), but also extends to perceptual processes such as the detection of similarities (Medin, Goldstone, & Gentner, 1993). For example, there is evidence to suggest that we recognize objects due to the specific relationships that exists between component shapes (Biederman, 1987).

Given that melodic processing appears to require extracting relational information from melodies, it is a reasonable and parsimonious starting point to propose that the same mechanisms used in other relational tasks could also operate when processing melodies. That is, the representation of melodies as relations between individual notes may be the common underlying mechanism to the approaches that humans employ to encode melodic information (e.g., intervallic and contour). Thus, the strength of relational reasoning lies in the ability to reason beyond the specific features of an object; it is the ability to extract the relationship that an object has with others. Similarly, the ability

to recognize a melody (or its shape) rests on appreciating the relationship between the pitches, and not just the specific frequencies of each note.

Another unique and defining aspect of melodies is their inherent temporal and sequential nature. Given this sequential nature, the question remains: how are the elemental pitches within melodies bound together over time such that relationships can be extracted and processed in a listener's mind? Different theories have put forward explanations for such a binding mechanism. Anne Treisman's feature integration theory (Treisman, 1998) posits that there are several different stages in the process. For example, in the initial stage an object's features are processed separately and attention might be likened to a kind of "glue" that binds the various features together. Other researchers have proposed that working memory is responsible for this binding process, wherein the ability to simultaneously hold different features or objects in memory while they are being processed could be likened to a more integrative mechanism (Allen, Baddeley, & Hitch, 2006).

The role of working memory and its interaction with attention is a widely studied and debated phenomenon (e.g., Feng, Pratt, & Spence, 2012; Postle, 2006). Working memory is a dynamic form of memory that is manipulated quickly (in seconds) and used to temporarily store information for further analysis (Baddeley, 2003). In fact, working memory is often associated with objects in attention, and the two concepts are somewhat interconnected. For example, a functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) study strongly implicated their overlap (LaBar, Gitelman, Parrish, & Mesulam, 1999). It should be noted that resolving these opposing theories is beyond the scope of this paper. However, the present study does utilize the conceptualization that working memory may operate as an integrative mechanism to facilitate the binding process when processing melodic information.

Research in the visual domain has shown that working memory may function as a binding mechanism for sequential visual events. Yet this binding mechanism may not be entirely impervious to cognitive strain, as experiments that place participants under dual task conditions with heavy memory (and attentional) demands have shown (Allen et al., 2006; Lavie, 2005). While in the auditory domain studies have looked at the binding of spatial and verbal features through sequential exposure (Maybery et al., 2009), to date no study has systematically and directly investigated the relationship between working

Stimuli

The auditory pitch stream in the exposure phase was constructed using randomly determined pitches from a five-note whole-tone scale². The pitch stream was assembled by a paradigm script using the following procedure: 1) first a random melody was constructed, 2) next, this melody was played and repeated, while 3) interspersing random notes of random quantities (between 0-2 notes) in between each repeated melody (see Figure 2). In addition, a visual letter stream was concurrently presented on a computer screen (participants were only required to respond to the letter stream in the 2-back condition). This letter stream was constructed from randomly chosen non-repeated letters (from the following set: B, C, D, E, F, J, K, L, M, N, P, R, S, T, Y, X, Z). Each letter event was presented for 700 ms, with 16.7 ms of silence and a blank gray screen as separation between events. Each sound pitch was played for 500 ms. In the 2-back condition the letters would repeat after one intervening letter (e.g., B-A-B) at randomly allocated positions.

The test phase consisted of eight two-alternative-forced-choice (2AFC) questions asking participants to categorize the shape of each of the three-note melodies as either “down-up” or “up-down” (see Figure 3).

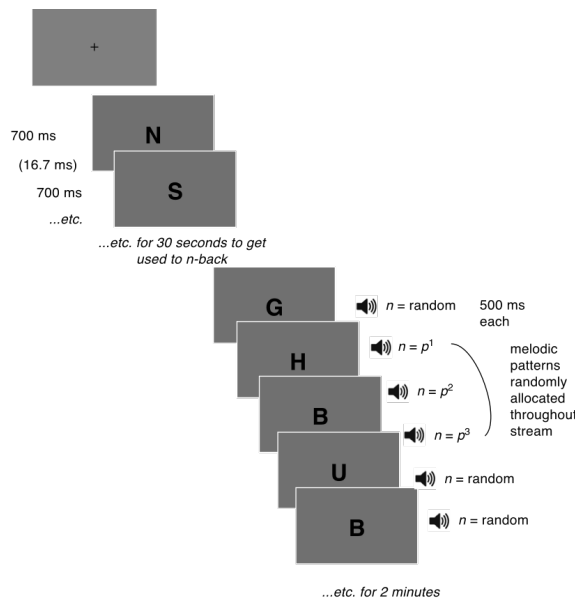


Figure 4: Exposure phase.

² The whole-tone scale was used to avoid the possibility of having any harmonic or scale related information within the melody and pitch stream as possible confounds.

Procedure

Both conditions consisted of two phases (with the extra addition of 2-back training prior to the 2-back task). For the first exposure phase, participants listened to the pitch stream. Concurrent to the pitch stream was a visual letter stream that participants were required to monitor (see Figure 4). In the baseline condition participants were not required to respond to the visual stream. During the 2-back visual task participants responded with the spacebar each time a 2-back repetition occurred (e.g. A-B-A, G-Y-G, etc.).

The auditory pitch stream lasted for two minutes (the repeated melody was played approximately 100 times during this period³). After the pitch stream ended, the letter stream continued for one minute. Following this exposure phase, participants were then presented with the test phase where they heard eight three-note melodies and were asked to categorize the shape of each melody as either “up-down” or “down-up.”

To ensure that participants were familiar with the tasks and could perform the 2-back task, participants in the 2-back group were trained on the 2-back test prior to the experiment. In order to acclimatize participants to the 2-back task, during the actual exposure phase, a lead-in period of 30 seconds for the visual letter stream was used prior to the onset of the pitch stream (see Figure 4).

Results

For the 2-back condition, data from one participant was excluded due to accuracy on the exposure-phase memory task being lower than 70%. Reaction times within and across the two conditions were analyzed using a 2x2 ANOVA containing within factors of priming status (primed vs non-primed) and between factors of exposure-phase task (no task vs 2-back).

Due to the large proportion of trials discarded when using only correct trials (36% for no task, and 48% for 2-back), the ANOVA was conducted on two datasets consisting of 1) all trials and 2) correct trials only.

Both correct and incorrect trials The main effect of priming status approached significance indicating that reaction times tended to be faster for primed melodies compared to non-primed

³ Note that the melody in the exposure stream is not only priming general up or down relationships, but they are also priming specific relationship, (e.g. 5 whole steps up and 3 whole steps down, see Figure 2).

melodies, $F(1, 57) = 3.8, p = 0.06$. An interaction trend also suggests that the priming effect was stronger in the no-task condition compared to the 2-back condition, $F(1, 57) = 3.4, p = 0.07$, (see Figure 5).

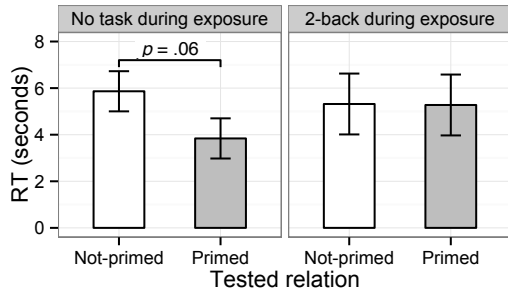


Figure 5: Reaction times for both correct and incorrect trials on the relational categorization task. Error bars = 95% confidence interval.

Correct trials only Although there were neither main effects of n-back task or priming status ($p > 0.1$), the interaction did trend towards significance, indicating that for correct trials only the priming effect also tended to be stronger in the no-task condition compared to the 2-back condition, $F(1, 48) = 3.0, p = 0.09$, (see Figure 6).

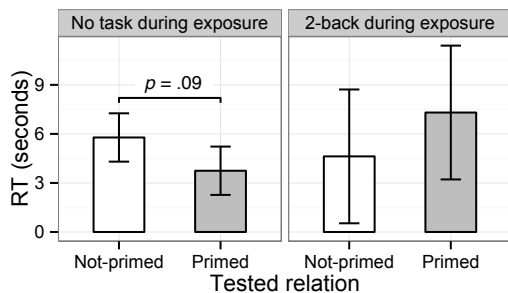


Figure 6: Reaction times for correct trials on the relational categorization task. Error bars = 95% confidence interval.

Discussion

This exploratory study on the relationship between working memory and melodic perception yielded several insights. First, these findings contribute to existing research suggesting that working memory may play a role in relational learning (Morrison et al., 2011; Morrison et al., 2001). Second, under conditions in which working memory was not depleted, reaction times⁴ for categorizing melodies

⁴ RTs were measured from the offset of last note in the melody. RTs were relatively higher since participants had to read the prompt, think about what was being

that shared relational content with primed melodies tended to be faster compared to non-primed melodies. This implicit learning effect suggests that the underlying mechanism for processing melodic information may involve a relational component. However, it should be noted that this finding must be interpreted cautiously given that this marginal difference failed to be below a conventional alpha level of .05.

Importantly, under conditions of working memory taxation, such a priming trend on the relational processing of melodies was not observed. That is, participants were no longer faster to categorize primed melodies compared to non-primed melodies. This finding could mean that 1) working memory may serve as the integrative mechanism for encoding melodic information, 2) processing of relational content of melodies may not be automatic or impervious to the concomitant side effects of working memory taxation, and 3) available working memory may be a prerequisite for melodic perception and relational learning. Note however, that until more data are obtained for corroboration, and in light of the non-significant trends, these conjectures are highly speculative.

A possible algorithmic level account for the linkage between working memory and relational learning exists in at least one neurally-plausible computational model, which defines working memory as dynamic binding operations occurring in the prefrontal cortex (Domas et al., 2008). Thus, while researchers have suggested a link between relational learning and music, the three-way linkage between working memory, relational learning, and melodic processing is a novel one. However, in light of the evidence presented here, we believe this notion warrants further exploration. This could include varying the extent to which working memory is taxed during the exposure stage in subsequent experiments.

Given that Baddeley's formulation of working memory (Allen et al., 2006) contains multiple components (i.e., phonological loop, episodic buffer, visuo-spatial sketchpad, and central executive), the question remains as to which components are involved in melodic perception, and if some are more heavily used than others. For example, the n-back task may engage the phonological loop and episodic buffer more than other WM components, but which components does melodic perception itself engage? These are

asked (they were not trained on this categorization task before hand), and also reflect back on the melody.

all important theoretical considerations, and ones that future experiments should explore.

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