

The heart of the music: Musical tempo and cardiac response

Robert J Ellis, John J Sollers III, Bradley M Havelka, and Julian F Thayer
The Ohio State University • Columbus, OH

correspondence: rellis@bidmc.harvard.edu

Introduction

- Musical tempo has been consistently linked with subjective arousal: faster tempos are perceived as more exciting than slow tempos.^[1,2]
- Heart rate changes in response to tempo have been investigated for 125 years, but with inconsistent results.^[3,4]
- Changes in HR, up until exercise levels, are primarily governed by the parasympathetic nervous system (PNS).^[5] Thus, a more precise index of PNS activity may reveal significant effects that are masked when mean HR is examined.
- Because PNS influences on HR are rapid (millisecond level), measuring beat-to-beat variability in HR provides an measure of PNS activity.^[6]

- A simple time-domain index of Heart Rate Variability (HRV) is the square root of the mean of squared successive differences in inter-beat intervals (IBIs; the time in ms between successive heart beats).^[7]

$$\text{for } N \text{ IBIs, } rMSSD = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (IBI_i - IBI_{i+1})^2}$$

- Resting levels of HRV are associated with organism health and well-being; higher levels of HRV at rest are linked with:
 - Better physical health; HRV is an independent predictor of all-cause mortality,^[8]
 - Lower levels of depression and anxiety,^[9,10] and
 - Better accuracy and faster choice reaction times on working memory tasks.^[11,12,13]

Current Study

- To investigate the role of tempo on subjective & physiological measures of emotion and the role of tempo in reaction time, and individual differences in these effects.
- These experiments utilized the same general stimulus set: computer-generated (MIDI) performances of 19th-century piano rags by Scott Joplin and Joseph Lamb.^[14] MIDI permits the isolation and manipulation of a single musical variable of interest (here, tempo) without affecting other dimensions (pitches and pitch contours, rhythm, attack velocity, etc.).
- Three tempos: Slow, Medium, & Fast: 60, 90, 120 beats per minute (bpm)
- IBIs were recorded continuously throughout the experiment via a standard 3-electrode configuration, sampled at 1000 Hz. HRV was quantified as rMSSD
- In both experiments, an initial 2.5-min of IBI data was used to quantify each subject's resting HRV. A median split was performed on resting HRV to examine differences between individuals with "low" versus "high" resting HRV.

★ Experiment 1: The impact of tempo on mean HR vs. HR variability

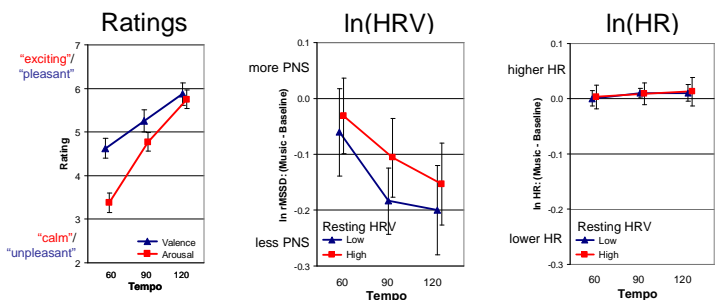
- Six 2.5-min excerpts alternated with six 2.5-min periods of silence. Subjects rated Valence and Arousal of the music on 7-point scales
- *Prediction:* Larger effect of tempo on HRV than mean HR

★ Experiment 2: The impact of tempo on phasic HR

- Phasic HR: Ordinal IBIs following stimulus onset^[15]
- *Rationale:* Larger phasic HR responses occur in response to high-arousal versus low-arousal pictures^[16] and sounds^[17]
- *Stimuli:* 54 12–16-s excerpts taken from Exp. 1 stimuli
- *Prediction:* Fast tempo (rated as more arousing) should yield larger orienting response than slow tempo

Experiment 1: Tempo and HRV

- ✓ 24 subjects divided into 12 "low" and 12 "high" based on resting HRV
- ✓ natural log of both HRV and mean HR compared



(all graphs: means ± 1 SE)

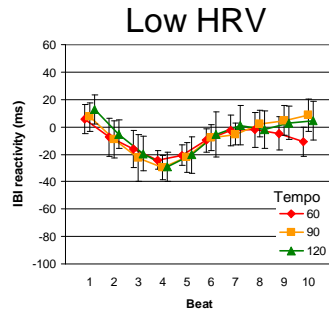
Tempo effect [$F_{lin}(1,11)$]:

Valence: $F = 28.28, p < .001$ Low: $F = 10.40, p = .008$ High: $F = 1.13, p = .311$
 Arousal: $F = 103.36, p < .001$ High: $F = 10.53, p = .008$ High: $F = .74, p = .408$

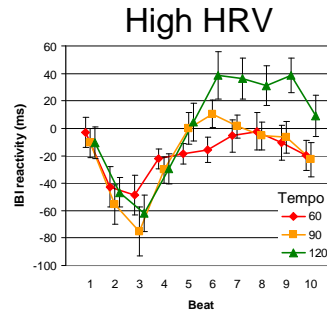
★ **Result: Tempo impacts HR variability, but not mean HR**

Experiment 2: Tempo and Phasic HR

- ✓ 18 subjects divided into 9 “low” and 9 “high” based on resting HRV
- ✓ “IBI reactivity”: mean of the 10 IBIs pre music onset subtracted from each post-music onset IBI
- ✓ Cubic trends [$F(1,8)$] in the 10-beat IBI series were calculated



60 bpm: $F_{\text{cub}} = 5.71, p < .05$
 90 bpm: $F_{\text{cub}} = 5.93, p < .05$
 120 bpm: $F_{\text{cub}} = 3.01, p < .20$



60 bpm: $F_{\text{cub}} = 3.90, p < .10$
 90 bpm: $F_{\text{cub}} = 9.05, p < .01$
 120 bpm: $F_{\text{cub}} = 15.25, p < .01$

★ **Result: Larger tempo effect on phasic HR in subjects with High HRV than Low HRV**

Discussion

- ★ **Experiment 1:** Musical tempo (60, 90, 120 beats per minute) had a significant effect on heart rate variability (HRV), but not mean heart rate (HR). This difference could account for previous investigations reporting a null effect of tempo on mean HR. Fast music prompted the greatest parasympathetic withdrawal.
- ★ **Experiment 2:** Tempo differentiated patterns in phasic HR in subjects with high resting HRV, but not in subjects with low resting HRV. Tempo differentiated HR within a few moments of music onset.

These findings point to the importance of tempo on music’s ability to provoke changes in cardiovascular activity, and the evaluation of individual differences in physiological response.

References

1. Hevner, K. (1937). The affective value of pitch and tempo in music. *Am. J. of Psych.*, 49, 621–630.
2. Rigg, M.G. (1964). The mood effects of music: A comparison of data from four investigators. *The Journal of Psychology*, 58, 427–438.
3. Bartlett, D.L. Physiological responses to music and sound stimuli. (1996). In D.A. Hodges (Ed.), *Handbook of Music Psychology*, 2nd ed. (pp. 343–385). San Antonio: IMR Press.
4. Hodges, D. (in press). Psychophysiological responses to music. In P. Juslin & J. Sloboda (Eds.), *Music and Emotion*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
5. Levy, M. (1971). Sympathetic-parasympathetic interactions in the heart. *Circulation Research*, 29(5), 437–45.
6. Porges, S. (1992). Vagal tone: a physiologic marker of stress vulnerability. *Pediatrics*, 90, 498–504.
7. Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and the North American Society of Pacing and Electrophysiology. (1996). Heart Rate Variability. Standards of measurements, physiological interpretation, and clinical use. *Circulation*, 93, 1043–1065.
8. Thayer, J., & Lane, R. (2007). The role of vagal function in the risk for cardiovascular disease and mortality. *Biological Psychology*, 74, 224–242.
9. Carney, R., Saunders, R., Freedland, K., Stein, P., Rich, M., & Jaffe, A. (1995). Association of depression with reduced heart-rate variability in coronary-artery disease. *American Journal of Cardiology*, 76, 562–564.
10. Dalack, G., & Roose, S. (1990). Perspectives on the relationship between cardiovascular disease and affective disorder. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 51(Suppl.), 4–9.
11. Porges, S. (1972). Heart rate variability and deceleration as indexes of reaction time. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 92, 103–110.
12. Porges, S.W. (1973). Heart rate variability: An autonomic correlate of reaction time performance. *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society*, 1, 270–272.
13. Hansen, A., Johnsen, B., & Thayer, J. (2003). Vagal influence on working memory and attention. *International Journal of Psychophysiology*, 48, 263–274.
14. Trachtman, W. (1995). *Ragtime Piano MIDI files by Warren Trachtman*. Warren Trachtman’s Ragtime MIDI Website. Retrieved May 20, 2009. <http://www.trachtman.org/ragtime/>.
15. Bradley, M.M. (2000). Emotion and motivation. In J.T. Cacioppo, L.G. Tassinary, & G.G. Berntson (Eds.), *Handbook of Psychophysiology*, 2nd ed. (pp. 602–642). New York: Cambridge University Press.
16. Lang, P.J., Greenwald, M.K., Bradley, M.M., & Hamm, A.O. (1993). Looking at pictures: Affective, facial, visceral, and behavioral reactions. *Psychophysiology*, 30, 261–273.
17. Bradley, M.M., & Lang, P.J. (2000). Affective reactions to acoustic stimuli. *Psychophysiology*, 37, 204–215.