

1 Aesthetic and physiological effects of naturalistic multimodal music listening

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23 **Abstract**

24

25 Compared to audio only (AO) conditions, audiovisual (AV) information can enhance the aesthetic
26 experience of a music performance. However, such beneficial multimodal effects have yet to be studied
27 in naturalistic music performance settings. Further, peripheral physiological correlates of aesthetic
28 experiences are not well-understood. Here, participants were invited to a concert hall for piano
29 performances of Bach, Messiaen, and Beethoven, which were presented in two conditions: AV and AO.
30 They rated their aesthetic experience (AE) after each piece (Experiment 1 and 2), while peripheral
31 signals (cardiorespiratory measures, skin conductance, and facial muscle activity) were continuously
32 measured (Experiment 2). Factor scores of AE were significantly higher in the AV condition in both
33 experiments. LF/HF ratio, a heart rhythm that represents activation of the sympathetic nervous
34 system, was higher in the AO condition, suggesting increased arousal, likely caused by less predictable
35 sound onsets in the AO condition. We present partial evidence that breathing was faster and facial
36 muscle activity was higher in the AV condition, suggesting that observing a performer's movements
37 likely enhances motor mimicry in these more voluntary peripheral measures. Further, zygomaticus
38 ('smiling') muscle activity was a significant predictor of AE. Thus, we suggest physiological measures
39 are related to AE, but at different levels: the more involuntary measures (i.e., heart rhythms) may
40 reflect more sensory aspects, while the more voluntary measures (i.e., muscular control of breathing
41 and facial responses) may reflect the liking aspect of an AE. In summary, we replicate and extend
42 previous findings that AV information enhances AE in a naturalistic music performance setting. We
43 further show that a combination of self-report and peripheral measures benefit a meaningful
44 assessment of AE in naturalistic music performance settings.

45

46 **Keywords:** audiovisual, physiology, naturalistic, neuroaesthetics, motor mimicry

47 1 Introduction

48

49 There is a clear consensus that listening to music induces aesthetic experiences, with humans
50 augmenting such experiences by optimising the ‘where’ and ‘how’ we listen to music, such as in
51 concerts (Sloboda et al., 2012; Sloboda & O’Neill, 2001; Wald-Fuhrmann et al., 2021). Although the
52 aesthetic experience (AE) of music is enhanced in a concert by several aspects (see Wald-Fuhrman et
53 al., 2021 for an overview), one explored here is visual information. While previous work showed that
54 visual cues enhance self-reported musical evaluation of music performances (e.g., see Platz & Kopiez,
55 2012 for a meta-analysis), some gaps in the literature remain. Firstly, most studies comparing
56 audiovisual (AV) and audio only (AO) musical performances have been conducted in laboratory
57 settings; to test a more genuine AE, it is imperative to use a more naturalistic situation. Secondly, only
58 two studies so far explored physiological responses between AV and AO musical performances
59 (Chapados & Levitin, 2008; Vuoskoski et al., 2016), but their findings are contrary to each other. Thus,
60 the current study aimed to specify the link between modality (AO vs. AV), AE, and peripheral
61 physiological responses in a naturalistic music performance setting, i.e., a piano concert.

62 While the initial study of AE has had a strong philosophical focus, AE is currently of great
63 interest in cognitive neuroscience and the neuroscientific subdiscipline of neuroaesthetics. Here,
64 perception, emotion, and appreciation are considered to influence AE (for comprehensive reviews, see
65 Anglada-Tort & Skov, 2020; Brattico & Pearce, 2013; Juslin, 2013; Pelowski et al., 2016; Schindler et
66 al., 2017). Specific to the dynamic nature of music, Brattico and colleagues (2013) proposed that the
67 AE of music listening is composed of a chronometry of components: 1) perceptual sensory processes
68 (feature analysis/integration) as well as early emotional reactions (e.g., startle reflex and arousal), 2)
69 cognitive processes (based on long-term knowledge, such as harmonic expectancy), and 3) affective
70 processing (including perceived and felt emotions). A combination of these processes that involve
71 somatomotor processes interacting with the listener themselves (in terms of cultural knowledge,
72 musical expertise, etc.) and external context (e.g., social setting), result in 4) aesthetic responses
73 (emotions, judgements, and liking). Brattico et al. (2013) presented neurophysiological correlates that
74 might reflect these processes. Namely, sensory processes should be reflected in early event-related
75 potentials (ERPs) and in early auditory processing areas (sensory cortices, brainstem). More cognitive
76 (‘error’ and ‘surprise’) components should be reflected in the MMN and P300 and non-primary sensory
77 cortices. Finally, (aesthetic) emotion and judgements should be reflected in the late potential
78 component (LPC) and reward and emotion areas in the brain. Research further suggests that
79 (synchronisation of) certain brain oscillations are related to music-evoked pleasure, particularly
80 frontal theta oscillations (Ara & Marco-Pallarés, 2020; Sammler et al., 2007; Tervaniemi et al., 2021),
81 parieto-occipital alpha (Nemati et al., 2019), theta (Chabin et al., 2020) and theta phase

82 synchronisation (Ara & Marco-Pallarés, 2020, 2021), as well as the inter-brain synchrony (IBS) of
83 frontal and temporal theta in shared musical pleasure (Chabin et al., 2022).

84 Although some work has explored music-evoked pleasure with EEG in the more naturalistic
85 setting of a concert hall (Chabin et al., 2022), measuring brain activity in such settings comes with
86 significant challenges. A more accessible approach, however, has been to measure peripheral
87 physiological responses in naturalistic settings such as theatres (Ardizzi et al., 2020), concert halls
88 (Egermann et al., 2013), and cathedrals (Bernardi et al., 2017). Peripheral measures include the somatic
89 (voluntary muscle) and autonomic nervous systems (ANS), of which the latter comprises the
90 sympathetic ('fight-or-flight') and parasympathetic ('rest-and-digest') nervous systems (SNS, PNS). In
91 naturalistic settings, previous work revealed (synchronised) physiological arousal responses in
92 audiences occur in relation to surprising, emotional, and structural moments in music such as
93 transitional passages, boundaries, and phrase repetitions (Czepiel et al., 2021; Egermann et al., 2013;
94 Merrill et al., 2021). Such peripheral measures are likewise mentioned in the AE chronometry approach
95 (Brattico et al., 2013) as reflecting tension and chill responses (Grewe et al., 2009; Salimpoor et al.,
96 2009). However, unlike brain regions (fMRI) and the latency/polarity of (EEG/MEG) components, that
97 can be attributed to psychological processes (Kappenman & Luck, 2011), peripheral responses are
98 mainly characterised according to increased/decreased activity, making it more difficult to separate
99 responses relating to distinct sensory, cognitive, and/or aesthetic processes. Thus, rather than taking
100 a superficial understanding that such measures directly index a pleasurable experience, a more
101 thorough biological understanding is required to appropriately interpret the meaning of such measures
102 (see e.g., Fink et al., 2023, for an example in pupillometry).

103 The current dependent measures of interest, which have also previously been used in research
104 on musical aesthetics (e.g., Grewe et al., 2009; Salimpoor et al., 2009), range from involuntary ANS
105 responses to voluntary motoric control, namely: skin conductance, heart, respiratory, and muscle
106 activity. Skin conductance (SC, also known as electrodermal activity, EDA) measures activation of
107 sweat glands, which are innervated by the SNS only. The heart consists of cardiac muscle (involuntary
108 control), with SNS (via sympathetic nerves) and PNS (vagus) innervations that increase and decrease
109 heart rate (HR), respectively. Typically, HR fluctuates and is measured by different heart rate variability
110 (HRV) measures. These measures can be in the time-domain, for example, the standard deviation
111 between interbeat intervals, or in the frequency-domain, for example, power of certain frequency
112 bands related to SNS and PNS activation. Power at a high frequency (HF, 0.4-0.15Hz) component is
113 attributed to PNS activity, while power at a low frequency (LF, 0.04 - 0.15 Hz) component seems to
114 reflect both PNS and SNS influences; thus, the LF/HF ratio is used to represent SNS activity (Malik,
115 1996; Shaffer & Ginsberg, 2017). Respiratory activity encompasses both involuntary control - where
116 the lungs are innervated by both SNS and PNS, which dilate and constrict the bronchioles, respectively
117 - as well as voluntary control (Purves & Williams, 2001). The somatic (muscle) system consists mainly

118 of skeletal (voluntary) muscle; commonly measured are the facial muscles of zygomaticus major
119 ('smiling') and corrugator supercilii ('frowning'). Although under voluntary control, certain facial
120 muscle responses may be partly unconscious (i.e., occur without attention or conscious awareness,
121 Dimberg et al., 2000). Overall, SC, heart, respiration, and facial muscle activity broadly relate to arousal
122 and valence¹. Higher arousal has been associated with SNS activation, such as increased sweat
123 secretion, increased LF/HF ratio, HR and RR acceleration, and decreased HF power (Di Bernardi Luft &
124 Bhattacharya, 2015; Shaffer & Ginsberg, 2017), while zygomatic and corrugator muscle activity seem
125 to reflect positive and negative valence, respectively (Bradley & Lang, 2000; Cacioppo et al., 2000;
126 Dimberg et al., 2000; Lang et al., 1993; Larsen et al., 2003, though see discussion below).

127 Although broadly reflecting arousal and valence, peripheral measures have been related to
128 sensory, cognitive, and aesthetic experiences with regard to acoustic/musical stimuli in separate
129 studies. Increased SC and HR patterns have been related to early sensory reactions to an acoustic signal
130 - referred to as an orienting response/startle reflex (Barry, 1975; Barry & Sokolov, 1993; Graham &
131 Clifton, 1966; Roy et al., 2009). Physiological changes occur in response to cognitive music processes
132 such as recognising unexpected harmonic chords (Koelsch et al., 2008; Steinbeis et al., 2006) and
133 deviant stimuli (in an MMN-like paradigm, Chuen et al., 2016; though see Lyytinen et al., 1992), which
134 might be enhanced by attention (Frith & Allen, 1983). In more naturalistic music listening, many
135 studies showed that arousing music (faster tempi and unpredictable harmony) increase SC, HR, and RR
136 (Bernardi et al., 2006; Coutinho & Cangelosi, 2011; Czepiel et al., 2021; Dillman Carpentier & Potter,
137 2007; Egermann et al., 2013, 2015; Khalifa et al., 2002; Krumhansl, 1997), though we note this result is
138 not consistent across studies, for reviews see (Bartlett, 1996; Hodges, 2009; Koelsch & Jäncke, 2015).
139 In terms of valence, researchers have shown that zygomaticus activity increases during happy music
140 (Lundqvist et al., 2008). However, other work showed it can increase during unpleasant (dissonant)
141 music (Dellacherie et al., 2011; Merrill et al., 2021). This conflict suggests that perhaps the activation
142 of the smiling muscle is not just related to valence (see also Wingenbach et al., 2020). Peripheral
143 responses have likewise been related to aesthetic experience of music, or least music-evoked "chills"
144 (frissons), which increases SC, HR, RR and EMG (Blood & Zatorre, 2001; Craig, 2005; Grewe et al., 2009;
145 Salimpoor et al., 2009). Hence, evidence suggests that peripheral measures can reflect (a mixture of)
146 the sensory, cognitive and/or preference parts of the AE, rather than being a direct index of AE.
147 Therefore, it is of importance to collect self-report measures to further interpret the peripheral
148 responses to AV and AO comparisons.

¹ The two main dimensions of emotion, according to the dimensional model of emotion (Russell, 1980). These terms reflect bipolar continuums: arousal ranging from calm to excitement, while valence varies from negative to positive emotional experience. Such peripheral responses have also been attributed to the discrete (basic) emotion theory, where SNS activation relates to happiness/fear, while PNS activation relates to calmness/sadness). For a more thorough discussion on emotion models, see for example (Barrett & Russell, 2015; Hamann, 2012).

149 In terms of modality effects on self-reports, audio information seems to be consistently
150 influenced by performer movement. In one percussion study, pairing visual gestures that created long
151 notes to acoustic sounds of short notes resulted in short sounds being perceived as longer sounding
152 notes (Schutz & Lipscomb, 2007); an effect later shown to be consistent in percussive (but not
153 sustained) sounds when the sound appears after a gesture (Schutz & Kubovy, 2009). In piano
154 performances, one acoustic performance was paired with four videos: one as the original performance
155 and three pianist ‘doubles’. Ninety-two out of ninety-three participants perceived differences between
156 the performances, although the sound remained identical (Behne & Wöllner, 2011). With regard to
157 more aesthetic influences, several studies that compared uni- and bimodal versions of music
158 performances showed visual cues enhance a listener’s perception of performance quality (Waddell &
159 Williamson, 2017), musical expertise (Griffiths & Reay, 2018; Tsay, 2013), musical expression
160 (Broughton & Stevens, 2009; Davidson, 1993; Lange et al., 2022; Luck et al., 2010; Morrison & Selvey,
161 2014; Vines et al., 2011; Vuoskoski et al., 2014), perception of emotional intention (Dahl & Friberg,
162 2007; Vines et al., 2006), and felt emotion (Van Zijl & Luck, 2013). As AE is related to the appreciation
163 of performance expressiveness, quality, and emotion (Brattico & Pearce, 2013; Juslin, 2013), this
164 research, as well as a meta-analysis (Platz & Kopiez, 2012), showed that AE increases with additional
165 visual cues. One neuroaesthetic theory that could further explain this enhanced AE postulates that
166 visual information may increase embodied simulation, which subsequently increases AE (Freedberg &
167 Gallese, 2007; Gallese & Freedberg, 2007). Support for this idea comes from studies showing higher
168 activation in the action observation network when viewing movements that are rated as aesthetically
169 pleasing (Cross, 2011).

170 However, this enhanced AE effect has been mostly assessed in laboratory settings. Recent
171 studies are increasingly exploring such experiences in live concerts (Chabin et al., 2022; Coutinho &
172 Scherer, 2017; Czepiel et al., 2021; Scherer et al., 2019; Swarbrick et al., 2019; Tervaniemi et al., 2021),
173 where participants report experiencing stronger emotions (Gabrielsson & Wik, 2003; Lamont, 2011);
174 however, Belfi et al. (2021) found that felt pleasure did not differ between live and an audiovisual
175 recording of the same performance. Focusing more specifically on the role of modality, to date only a
176 few studies compare responses to AV vs. AO conditions in naturalistic settings. Compared to eyes-
177 closed conditions, eyes-open conditions increased movement energy and interpersonal coordination,
178 suggesting that visual information may enhance the social aspect of live pop/soul music (Dotov &
179 Trainor, 2021). Coutinho & Scherer (2017) compared emotional responses in a live AV performance to
180 recorded AV, AO, and VO performances of Schubert Lieder, where the live AV condition had
181 significantly higher wonder and significantly lower boredom ratings. Although these two studies
182 highlight the difference between genres and the affordances that visual information can give (focus on
183 seeing other audience members/musicians in popular/classical music, respectively), they essentially
184 show that additional information enhances the (social/emotional) experience. We stress that it is not

185 trivial to replicate findings from the lab to a more naturalistic setting, since, for example, well
186 documented effects of familiarity and body movement on music appreciation found from lab studies
187 were not replicated in a field study (Anglada-Tort et al., 2019). It is also worth extending Coutinho &
188 Scherer (2017), since they focus on the more emotional part of AE, and only collected data from an AV
189 modality in a naturalistic setting (other modalities were tested in a lab-like setting). The current study
190 thus compares modalities in one naturalist setting to examine more specifically the judgement and
191 preference components of AE.

192 Two previous studies have compared peripheral physiological responses as a function of
193 modality during music performances and serve as the starting point for the current work. Chapados &
194 Levitin (2008) found that self-reported tension as well as SC were both highest in AV conditions.
195 However, Vuoskoski et al. (2016) found that, although self-reported intensity, high energy arousal, and
196 tension were highest in AV conditions, SC was actually highest in AO conditions. While the discrepancy
197 between these two studies could relate to the different styles and instruments used (which offer
198 different expressive affordances), Vuoskoski et al. (2016) argued that SC might be higher during AO
199 performances due to musical expectancy (Huron, 2006; Juslin & Västfjäll, 2008). More specifically, as
200 visual information increases listeners' ability to predict upcoming musical events, AV stimuli are less
201 surprising. Indeed, this idea is supported by speech studies focusing on the N100, an EEG event-related
202 potential component that reflects early sensory processing, where a larger N100 amplitude can indicate
203 a response to a less predictable stimulus. The N100 component is enhanced in AO (compared to AV)
204 conditions in speech (Klucharev et al., 2003; van Wassenhove et al., 2005), emotional expression
205 (Jessen & Kotz, 2011), as well as non-speech events such as clapping (Stekelenburg & Vroomen, 2007).
206 These findings corroborate the idea that the lack of visual information makes sound onsets less
207 predictable.

208 Together, this evidence suggests that peripheral responses might be 1) higher in AO conditions
209 if they reflect sensory processing, or 2) higher in AV conditions if they reflect the enhanced emotional
210 and/or appreciation aspects of AE. If peripheral physiological responses reflect sensory processing, we
211 would expect to replicate results from Vuoskoski et al. (2016) and find increased physiological activity
212 in AO conditions. However, if physiological responses reflect the more emotional/aesthetic aspects,
213 we would expect to replicate results from Chapados & Levitin (2008) and find increased physiological
214 responses in AV conditions.

215 In summary, more research is needed to assess modality effects that enhance aesthetic
216 experience in a more naturalistic setting. Further, the peripheral physiological correlates of aesthetic
217 effects are so far inconsistent. The current study consists of two experiments that examine AE and
218 physiology between AV and AO conditions in a concert hall setting. In both Experiments, we recorded
219 behavioural responses and tested the hypothesis that AE will be higher in the AV condition. In

220 Experiment 2, we additionally collected physiological responses and tested the hypothesis put forward
221 by Vuoskoski et al. (2016) that peripheral physiological activity should be higher in AO conditions.
222

223 **2 General Method**

224 *2.1 Overview*

225 We present two experiments, each consisting of two concerts. Experiment 1 (Concerts 1 and
226 2) measured behavioural ratings, while Experiment 2 (Concerts 3 and 4) measured both behavioural
227 ratings and physiological responses. Both involve the same stimuli and the same within-subjects
228 experimental design: participants listening to piano performances of Bach, Beethoven, and Messiaen,
229 in AO and AV conditions. Modality order was counterbalanced across concerts.

230 *2.2 Stimuli*

231 Upon engaging a pianist, three musical pieces were selected from their repertoire in
232 accordance with the pianist and musical experts to represent various emotional expressions (cheerful,
233 sad, and ambiguous) and musical styles (Baroque, Classical-Romantic, and 20th century music): Johann
234 Sebastian Bach: Prelude and Fugue in D major (Book Two from the Well-Tempered Clavier, BWV 874),
235 Ludwig Van Beethoven: Sonata No. 7, Op. 10, No. 3, second movement (Largo e mesto), and Olivier
236 Messiaen: *Regard de l'Esprit de joie* (No. 10 from *Vingt Regards sur L'Enfant-Jésus*). These pieces were
237 presented to the participants during each concert twice in the two different modalities: in audiovisual
238 (AV) and an audio only (AO) versions. We considered this repetition of pieces as a naturalistic part of
239 the design as piece repetition is a practice (although not extremely common) in concert programming
240 (Halpern et al., 2017).

241 Both AV and AO presentations of the music pieces were performed by the same pianist, playing
242 on the same piano (Steinway B-211), in the same concert hall. AV versions of the music pieces were
243 performed live during the concerts and the audience could see and hear the pianist performing the
244 music. AO versions of the music pieces were recorded in the same concert hall, on the same piano in
245 advance of the concerts, without an audience. The AO versions were presented during the concerts via
246 a stereo setup with high-quality full-range loudspeakers (Fohhn LX-150 + Fohhn XS-22), so that the
247 audience could only hear the music. During this time, the pianist was backstage, so that the audience
248 could only see the piano. The playback AO versions were the same in all concerts in both experiments.
249 To ensure similarity of sound levels between AO and AV presentations, a trained sound engineer
250 checked that the loudness across the modalities was equal.

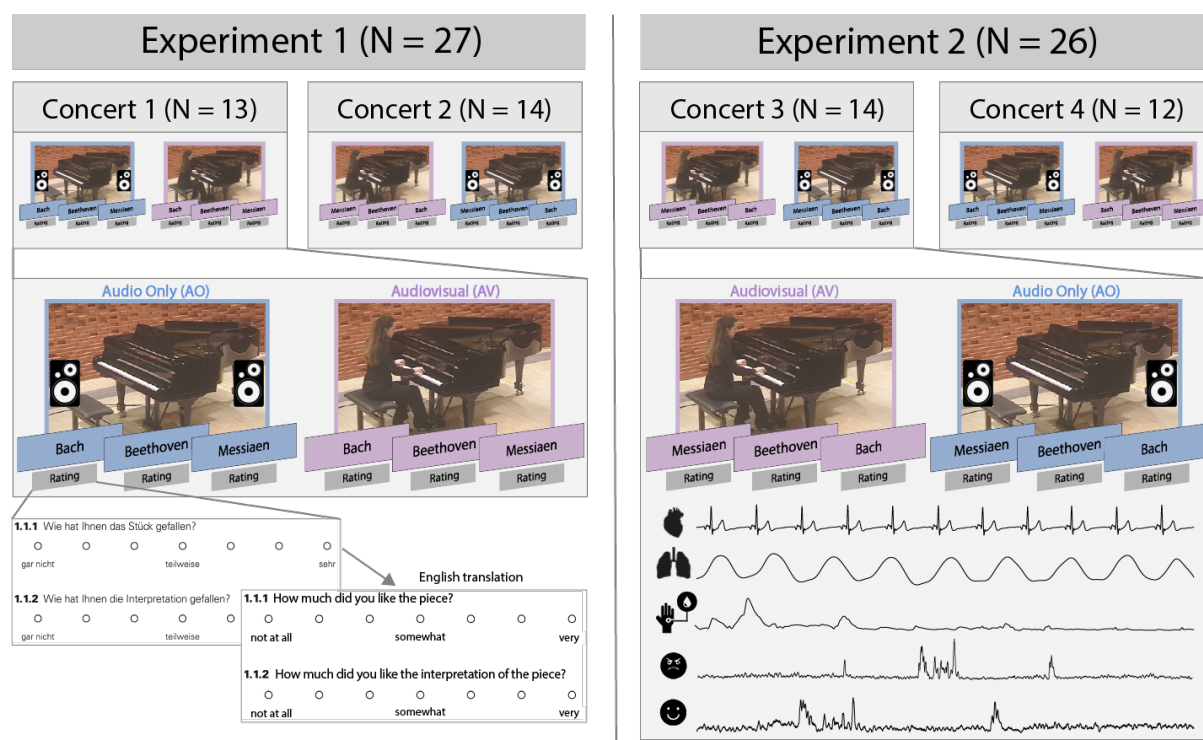
251 Although modality conditions were controlled as much as possible, we would assume that
252 repeated performances of the same musical piece might have slight deviations from each other, even
253 when performed by a highly trained professional musician (Chaffin et al., 2007). Therefore, we checked
254 that the stimuli nonetheless were comparable enough to eliminate confounding variables of potential
255 acoustic differences between AV versions (different for each concert) and AO versions (the same across
256 all concerts). We differentiated between score-based features and performance-based features
257 (Goodchild et al., 2019). The former refers to features that come from the notated scores (e.g.,
258 harmonies), which should remain the same across performances (assuming no errors in playing the
259 scores). The latter refers to features that may also be notated in the scores (e.g., dynamic markings)
260 but might deviate more depending on the performances, such as tempo, loudness, and timbre. Tempo
261 was extracted using a combination of MIDI information for each note and manually locating the beat
262 (using Sonic Visualiser, Cannam et al., 2010), where inter-beat intervals were obtained to calculate
263 continuous beats per minute (bpm). Loudness and timbre were extracted from the audio signal using
264 MIRToolbox (Lartillot & Toiviainen, 2007) in MATLAB, with RMS (*mirrms*) and spectral centroid
265 (*mircentroid*) representing loudness and timbre, respectively. In checking multicollinearity (Lange &
266 Frieler, 2018), none of the features correlated highly, confirming that each feature represented an
267 independent aspect of the music. Each of the features were averaged into average bins per bar
268 (American: measure) to account for slight timing deviances between performances. The features over
269 time were very similar (see Supplementary Figures 1-6 in Supplementary Materials). This similarity
270 was confirmed by significant correlations between concerts, all with r values $> .6$ (see Supplementary
271 Materials, Supplementary Table 1), suggesting that all performances were acoustically comparable.

272 2.3 Questionnaires

273 Questionnaires were presented after each musical piece to assess three types of questions.
274 Firstly, we assessed the ‘naturalness’ of the concert by asking to what extent the experimental
275 components of the setting (e.g., measurement of the behavioural responses) disturbed the concert
276 experience, where ‘disturbed by measurement’ was rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (very much
277 agree). We further assessed familiarity with the style of music as well as whether the participant knew
278 the specific piece of music. This was rated from 1 (not at all familiar) to 7 (very familiar). Thirdly, we
279 assessed the main dependent variable of interest: aesthetic experience (AE). As an AE is made up of
280 several components (Brattico & Pearce, 2013; Schindler et al., 2017), we assessed the aesthetic
281 experience with a set of eight individual items, consisting of how much they liked the piece, how much
282 they liked the interpretation of the piece, and how absorbed they felt in the music (see Supplementary
283 Materials for all questions).

284 2.4 Procedure

285 Participants were invited to attend piano concerts that took place at the ArtLab of the Max-
 286 Planck-Institute for Empirical Aesthetics in Frankfurt, a custom-built concert hall seating 46 audience
 287 members (<https://www.aesthetics.mpg.de/en/artlab/information.html>). Concerts were kept as
 288 identical as possible for factors such as lighting, temperature, and timing. Prior to the concert,
 289 participants were informed about the experiment and filled in consent forms before being seated in
 290 the ArtLab. During the concert and after each piece of music, participants answered the short
 291 questionnaire described above. All participants saw the three pieces in both conditions. For one
 292 concert per Experiment, the three music pieces were presented first in the AO modality, and then
 293 repeated in the AV modality. Modality order was counterbalanced so that in the other concert per
 294 Experiment, music pieces were first presented in the AV modality, and then again in the AO modality.
 295 An overview of the procedure and modality condition orders can be found in Figure 1. Behavioural
 296 measures were recorded in both Experiment 1 and 2. In Experiment 2 only, physiological data were
 297 additionally collected (details in Section 4.1.2 Experiment 2 Procedure).
 298



299
 300 **Figure 1.** Outline of the experimental procedure in Experiment 1 (behavioural audience ratings) and Experiment 2 (audience
 301 ratings and peripheral physiological measures). Pieces were presented both in an AV version (purple boxes) and an AO version
 302 (presented via speakers, blue boxes).

303 2.5 Analysis

304 Statistical analyses were conducted in R and R studio (R Core Team, 2021; RStudio Team,
 305 2021).

306 Items chosen for the questionnaire (see Supplementary Materials) reflect elements of an
307 aesthetic experience. Thus, it was assumed that the items might be related to each other. Indeed, in
308 both Experiments, items in the self-reports capturing the aesthetic experience were highly correlated.
309 Therefore, rather than comparing modality differences for each item, we reduced the questionnaire
310 items to an overall, more interpretable factor - that retains important information from each item -
311 using a factor analysis (Fabrigar et al., 1999). This reduced factor yielded new factor scores that mixed
312 scores from the original items together based on loadings, i.e., regression weights (using *fa* from the
313 psych package, see accompanying code; Revelle, 2022). The more one item contributed to - or loaded
314 onto - the reduced factor, the higher the 'item loading' was for that factor. Table 1 shows the item
315 loadings of factors in both experiments. These factor scores were used as a new overall variable that
316 represents a summary of the questionnaire items. Details about each factor analysis (FA) for each
317 experiment are explained below in the experiment-specific methods.

318 Linear mixed models (LMMs) were run with the factor scores extracted from the factor analysis
319 as the dependent variable, with modality (AV / AO) as a predictor (fixed effect). We also ran LMMs for
320 each physiological measure, where modality was the predictor (fixed effect) as well as a LMM assessing
321 relationship between factor scores and physiological measures. LMMs are more appropriate than
322 repeated measures ANOVA, as they are more fitting for physiological data, can account for missing
323 trials, and can model random sources of variance and non-independence in the observations (Barr et
324 al., 2013; Page-Gould, 2016; Winter, 2013). Ratings and physiological measures were recorded multiple
325 times from each participant, who heard the same music piece more than once, in groups for each
326 concert. To account for these random sources of non-independence, we added random intercepts for
327 concert, piece, and participant. Participants were nested within concerts, while participant and piece
328 were considered crossed effects. For the physiological data, piece sections were further nested within
329 pieces to account for observations taken within pieces (see Methods for Experiment 2). We also
330 included a random slope for participants. Thus, the models represent the maximal random effects
331 structure justified by the design (Arnqvist, 2020; Barr, 2021; Barr et al., 2013). While LMMs do not rely
332 on normally distributed data, we checked linearity, homoscedasticity, and normality of residuals of the
333 models (Winter, 2013). We also checked for model errors. All maximal models generated singular fit
334 errors, suggesting that the model might be too complicated and/or one or more random effects have
335 (near to) zero variance or (near-)perfect correlations. Therefore, we followed the recommended
336 procedure of simplifying models until error is removed (Barr, 2021), ultimately selecting a model with
337 a random effect structure that is supported by the data (Barr et al., 2013; Matuschek et al., 2017). As
338 error-free models are generally preferred (Barr et al., 2013), we report the models that generated no
339 errors, but report all maximal and simplified models in the Supplementary Materials. LMMs were run
340 using *lmer* from the *lme4* packages (Bates et al., 2015; Kuznetsova et al., 2017). Significance values,
341 effect sizes, and Akaike information criterion (AIC) were obtained from the *tab_model* function from

342 *sjPlot* package (Lüdtke, 2023). Pairwise comparisons were run with the *emmeans* function from
343 *emmeans* package (Lenth, 2021) with Bonferroni corrections. As a sanity check for the linear mixed
344 models, we also ran ANOVAs (Arnqvist, 2019). Corresponding code and required to run these analyses
345 are available at Open Science Framework (OSF) (Please note this repository is currently private and
346 only available with this link while the manuscript is under review; it will be made public when the
347 manuscript is accepted).

348 **3 Experiment 1**

349 *3.1 Method*

350 *3.1.1 Participants*

351 The study was approved by the Ethics Council of the Max Planck Society and in accordance
352 with the declarations of Helsinki. Participants gave their written informed consent. Twenty-seven
353 participants attended the experimental concerts (13 and 14 participants in Concert 1 and 2,
354 respectively), 18 females (9 males), with mean age of 57.96 years (SD = 20.09), who on average had 6.99
355 years of music lessons (SD = 7.87) and attended approximately 13 concerts in the last 12 months (M =
356 12.62; SD = 13.37). Participants also provided ratings on their perception being a musician (from 1 =
357 does not apply, to 7 completely applies), most participants selected 1 (N = 13) or 2 (N = 4), and less
358 selected 3 (N = 1), 4 (N = 2), 5 (N = 3), 6 (N = 2) and 7 (N = 2). Most had a college/university degree (N =
359 22), the others either vocational training (N = 2) or completed A-levels/high school (N = 3). Wilcoxon
360 tests showed that participants did not differ in Concert 1 and 2 in terms of age ($p = .590$), musician
361 level ($p = .877$), years of music lessons ($p = 1.00$), and number of concerts attended in the last 12 months
362 ($p = .173$).

363 *3.1.2 Factor analysis and statistical analysis*

364 Questionnaire items were chosen to reflect elements of an aesthetic experience. As they were
365 highly correlated (see accompanying code), we chose to reduce these variables to an interpretable
366 factor using factor analysis. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified sampling adequacy (KMO
367 = .801, well over the .5 minimum required) and all KMO values for individual items were > .670.
368 Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, revealing that correlations between items were large
369 enough for a FA, $X^2(28) = 408.844$, $p < .001$. Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalues > 1 and a scree plot
370 indicated a solution with one factor. Thus, a maximum-likelihood factor analysis was conducted with
371 one factor, which explained 37% of the variance. We took the scores of this factor and created a new
372 variable. As items of liking, liking of interpretation, and absorption loaded highly onto this factor, and
373 these aspects have been identified as critical aspects of an aesthetic experience (Brattico & Pearce,

374 2013; Orlandi et al., 2020), we referred to this new variable as the overall ‘aesthetic experience’ (AE).
375 Nine trials with an outlier exceeding ± 3 Median Absolute Deviations (MAD, Leys et al., 2013) was
376 removed from further analyses. In total, we had 153 observations for the AE scores [(27 participants x
377 3 pieces x 2 modality conditions) - 9]. We compared AE factor scores between modality conditions
378 using LMMS (see General Methods, corresponding code).

379

380 **Table 1.** FA loadings from questionnaire items in both Experiment 1 and 2. Factor 1 for both Experiment 1 and 2 is interpreted
381 as ‘Aesthetic experience’.

	Experiment 1	Experiment 2
Item	Factor 1	Factor 1
Liking	0.78	.87
Liking of interpretation	0.69	0.63
Absorption	0.90	0.67
Passive reception	0.73	0.09
Connection to musicians	0.56	0.43
Urge to move	0.17	0.21
Connection to co-listeners	0.28	0.14
Understanding	0.27	0.34

382

383

384 3.2 Results

385 3.2.1 Assessing naturalistic situations.

386 Results of whether the measurements disturbed the concert are shown in Table 2. The mean
387 rating was 1.537 (SD = 1.016) out of 7, with 88% of ratings at 1 or 2 on the scale (i.e., strongly disagree
388 or disagree that measurements disrupted the concerts, respectively). Thus, behavioural measurements
389 did not disrupt the concert, confirming the ecological validity of the experimental setting.

390 3.2.2 Piece familiarity.

391 Ratings for familiarity of style were similarly high for Bach (M = 5.796, SD = 1.279) and
392 Beethoven (M = 5.630, SD = 1.248), but lower for Messiaen (M = 3.333, SD = 1.981). Most participants
393 did not know the pieces specifically, though 18%, 26%, and 11% of participants knew the Bach,
394 Beethoven, and Messiaen pieces, respectively.

395 3.2.3 *Aesthetic experience: Modality differences.*

396 LMMs showed modality was a significant predictor of AE (see Table 4). AV scores were
 397 significantly higher ($M = 0.186$, $SE = .296$, 95% CI [-0.962 1.33]) than AO scores ($M = -0.102$, $SE = .297$,
 398 95% CI [-1.245, 1.04]), $t(124) = -.240$, $p = .018$) (see Figure 2). This effect was confirmed by the maximal
 399 model, despite generating a singular fit error: it yielded the same estimates and had similar effect sizes,
 400 AIC, and significance (see Supplementary Table 3). The modality effect was confirmed by an ANOVA,
 401 which yielded a significant main effect of modality ($F(1,26) = 5.564$, $p = .026$).

402
 403 **Table 2.** Ratings of feeling disturbed by the measurement, and familiarity with style and specific piece in
 404 Experiment 1.

Ratings of feeling disturbed by the measurement							
Rating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	69%	19%	5%	3%	3%	1%	0%
Familiarity with style of piece							
Rating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bach,	0%	2%	4%	11%	18%	26%	39%
Beethoven,	0%	2%	4%	15%	16%	35%	28%
Messiaen,	26%	17%	9%	20%	9%	11%	8%
Familiarity with specific piece							
	0 (No)		1 (Yes)			Not sure	
Bach,	78%		18%			4%	
Beethoven,	70%		26%			4%	
Messiaen,	85%		11%			4%	

405

406 3.3 *Discussion*

407 Experiment 1 tested whether participants had higher AE in the audio-only (AO) or audiovisual
 408 (AV) piano performances in a naturalistic concert setting. We confirmed that the measurements did
 409 not disturb participants and the findings show that AE increased in the AV compared to AO condition.
 410 These results support prior experimental laboratory results that showed liking and appreciation of
 411 expressivity are increased in AV conditions (Platz & Kopiez, 2012). We confirm that these results can
 412 be extended in a more naturalistic setting. One study that compared emotional differences between
 413 modalities in a naturalistic context, found higher wonder ratings but lower boredom ratings in live AV
 414 performances of music (Coutinho & Scherer, 2017). Our results likewise fit and extend this work,

415 showing that the preference (liking) and absorption of the AE is also higher in AV modality. As
416 naturalistic environments allow less control, it is important that these findings are replicated.

417 **4 Experiment 2**

418 Previous studies aimed at gaining further insight into potential emotional differences between
419 uni- and bimodal music performances by measuring physiological responses (Chapados & Levitin,
420 2008; Vuoskoski et al., 2016). However, so far results are inconsistent. In Experiment 2, we explored
421 whether different modalities would affect peripheral physiological responses similarly to the
422 behavioural responses of AE (Exp. 1), and whether peripheral signals might serve as an index of AE.

423 *4.1 Method*

424 *4.1.1 Participants*

425 The study was approved by the Ethics Council of the Max Planck Society and in accordance
426 with the declarations of Helsinki. Participants gave their written informed consent. Twenty-six
427 participants in total attended either Concert 3 (N=14) or Concert 4 (N = 12). Experiment 2 in total
428 included nine females (17 males), with a mean age of 51.64 years (SD = 15.41), who on average had 5.94
429 (SD = 8.13) years of music lessons and attended an average of 14 concerts per year (M = 13.62, SD =
430 19.70). Participant provided ratings on their perception being a musician (from 1 = does not apply, to
431 7 completely applies), and most participants selected 1 (N = 15) or 2 (N = 3), while less selected 3 (N =
432 0), 4 (N= 1), 5 (N = 4), 6 (N = 2), or 7 (N = 1). All had either vocational training (N = 7) or a
433 college/university degree (N = 19). Wilcoxon tests showed no significant differences between
434 participants in Concert 3 and Concert 4 in terms of age ($p = .72$), years of music lessons ($p = .14$), and
435 number of concerts attended in the last 12 months ($p = 1.00$). There was a significance in musician level
436 between concerts ($p = .039$).

437 In assessing differences between the participant samples of the two Experiments, Experiment
438 1 had a significantly older audience on average (mean age in Experiment 1 = 58, Experiment 2 = 52, p
439 = .041), but no significant differences for number of music lessons ($p = .334$), concert attendance in the
440 last 12 months ($p = .755$), and musician level ($p = .575$).

441 Self-report data from all 26 participants were used in the analysis, while one physiological
442 dataset from Concert 3 was lost due to technical problems (physiology: N = 25).

443 *4.1.2 Procedure*

444 Participants were invited to arrive an hour before the concert, during which they were fitted
445 with physiological equipment. All signals were collected with a portable recording device, 'plux'
446 (<https://plux.info/12-biosignalsplux>), that continuously measured physiology across the duration of

447 the concert at a 1000 Hz sampling rate. Respiration was measured via two respiration belts: one
448 respiration belt was placed around the upper chest of the participant, and one respiration belt was
449 placed around the lower belly. ECG, EMG, and EEG were collected using gelled self-adhesive disposable
450 Ag/AgCl electrodes. Locations for the EMG, EEG, and ECG were prepared with peeling gel (under the
451 left eyebrow and on left cheek for EEG, on the chest for ECG, and on the forehead for EEG). Three ECG
452 electrodes were placed on the chest in a triangular arrangement; two as channels and one as the
453 ground. Two facial muscles were recorded on the left side of participants' faces; two electrodes were
454 placed at the zygomaticus major ('smiling') muscle, and two electrodes were placed on the corrugator
455 supercilii ('frowning') muscle, with a ground placed behind the left ear. EDA was collected via two
456 electrodes placed on the middle phalanges of the non-dominant hand of participants. EEG activity
457 from the frontal region was collected from three electrodes placed on the upper forehead, with a
458 reference electrode placed in the middle of the forehead (in a similar location to an Fpz location in a
459 conventional EEG cap), with additional two electrodes placed above the left and right eyebrows (in a
460 similar position to Fp1 and Fp2 in a conventional EEG cap, respectively). EEG data are not reported in
461 this paper.

462 4.1.3 *Factor analysis*

463 We used the same items as in Experiment 1. Again, these item ratings were highly correlated
464 (see accompanying code) and we chose to reduce these variables with a factor analysis. A Kaiser-Meyer-
465 Olkin measure verified sampling adequacy ($KMO = .609$). All but one item had KMO values $> .5$; this
466 one item ('connection with co-listeners') had a value of close to .5 (0.416). Correlations between items
467 were large enough for a FA (Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(28) = 264.725, p < .001$. Kaiser's criterion of
468 eigenvalues > 1 and a scree plot indicated a solution with one factor. Thus, a maximum likelihood factor
469 analysis was conducted with one factor, which explained 24% of the variance. We took the scores from
470 this factor and created a new variable. As we had similar loadings to Experiment 1, we also refer to this
471 factor as the overall aesthetic experience (AE). In this factor, eleven outlier values exceeding ± 3 Median
472 Absolute Deviations (MAD, Leys et al., 2013) were removed from further analyses. In total, we had a
473 total of 145 observations [(26 participants x 3 pieces x 2 modality conditions) - 11].

474

475 4.1.4 *Physiological pre-processing.*

476 Pre-processing of physiological signals (Experiment 2) was conducted in MATLAB (2019b, The
477 Mathworks Inc, USA). Any missing data (gaps ranging from 5 - 53 ms long) were first linearly
478 interpolated at the original sampling rate. Continuous data were then cut per piece. Using Ledalab
479 (www.ledalab.de), skin conductance data were manually screened for artefacts (8% of data were
480 rejected), downsampled to 20 Hz and separated into phasic (SCR) and tonic (SCL) components using

481 Continuous Decomposition Analysis (Benedek & Kaernbach, 2010). Following previous literature, data
482 were detrended to remove remaining long-term drifts (Omigie et al., 2021; cf. Salimpoor et al., 2009).
483 Respiration, ECG, and EMG data were pre-processed using the Fieldtrip (Oostenveld et al., 2011) and
484 biosig toolboxes in MATLAB (<http://biosig.sourceforge.net/help/index.html>). Manual screening of
485 respiration data showed that the respiration signals obtained from the lower belly were stronger than
486 those obtained from the upper chest; only data from the respiration belt around the lower belly were
487 therefore used for further analysis. Respiration data were low-pass filtered at 2 Hz, ECG data were
488 band-pass filtered between 0.6 and 20 Hz (Butterworth, 4th order), and both demeaned. QRS peaks in
489 the ECG signal were extracted using *nqrsdetect* function from biosignal, and peaks were found in
490 respiration using custom functions. Computationally identified peaks were manually screened to
491 ensure correct identification; any missing QRS peaks were manually added, while falsely identified
492 QRS peaks were removed. Any ECG/respiration data that were too noisy for extraction of clear
493 QRS/respiration peaks were rejected from further analysis (ECG = 14%, respiration = 7%). Differential
494 timing of signal peaks – i.e., interbeat intervals (IBI, also known as RR-intervals) for ECG, and inter-
495 breath intervals (IBrI) for respiration – were converted to beats per minute and interpolated at the
496 original sampling rate to obtain a continuous respiration and heart rate. Heart rate variability measures
497 were extracted using the *heartratevariability* function in biosig (<http://biosig.sourceforge.net/>).
498 Normalised units of high frequency (HF, 0.15 – 0.4 Hz) power as well as the LF/HF ratio were taken into
499 further analysis to reflect SNS and PNS activity (frequencies that adhere to the European Task Force
500 recommendations (Malik, 1996). Electromyography (EMG) data for zygomaticus major (EMGZM) and
501 corrugator supercilii (EMGCS) were band-pass filtered between 90 and 130 Hz and demeaned. We
502 proceeded with the smoothed absolute value of the Hilbert transformed EMG signals.

503 Although there are questions as to what the most appropriate (central tendency)
504 representation of physiological data is, we relied most closely on the methodology applied by
505 Vuoskoski et al. (2016) to compare results. Therefore, the average of each (pre-processed) physiological
506 measure was the main metric. As physiological responses change over time (i.e., they are non-
507 stationary), and to gain a better representation (signal-to-noise ratio) of the responses across the
508 course of each long piece, data for each piece were divided into piece sections that were driven by the
509 musical structure (which were confirmed by a music theorist). Responses were averaged across these
510 sections. Beethoven was split into nine, Messiaen into nine, and Bach into seven sections (see
511 Supplementary Materials for more information). Overall, we were interested in eight physiological
512 measures: averages of SCL, SCR, HR, HF power and LF/HF ratio, RR, as well as zygomaticus and
513 corrugator activity, which we averaged per participant, modality, piece, and section. As with
514 behavioural data, we removed outliers exceeding ± 3 MAD. Total observations for each physiological
515 measure after exclusion of noisy data and outliers were as follows: EMGCS = 1037, EMGZM = 1082, HR
516 = 1073, HF = 1050, LF/HF ratio = 1041, RR = 1152, SCL = 1066, SCR = 910.

517 4.1.5 Analysis

518 Statistical analysis for the AE scores obtained in Experiment 2 were conducted as described in
519 Experiment 1. We also compared physiology between AO and AV modalities using LMMs (see General
520 Methods, accompanying code). To determine if behavioural results were related to peripheral
521 responses, we ran a LMM with aesthetic experience as the dependent variable and the eight peripheral
522 measures (all of which were averaged across piece sections to represent rating per piece and scaled to
523 be included in the same model) and condition as predictors. Random effect represented design-driven
524 maximal were included: random intercepts were added for concert, piece, modality condition, and
525 participant. Participants were nested within concerts, while participant, condition, and piece were
526 considered as crossed effects. Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) were checked using the *car* package (Fox
527 & Weisberg, 2019), confirming that VIFs were below 3.

528

529 4.2 Results

530 4.2.1 Assessing naturalistic situations.

531 We first assessed the extent to which the behavioural/physiological measurements disturbed
532 the overall experience during the concert (i.e., for all pieces/conditions). Ratings suggested that
533 measurements did not disrupt the concert experience, with a mean rating of 2.019 (SD = 1.416) and
534 with 75% of ratings at 1 or 2 on the scale. Results are shown in Table 3. These results provide an
535 important validation that physiological measurements can be used in the concert hall settings without
536 impacting ecological validity.

537 4.2.2 Piece familiarity.

538 Similar to Experiment 1, ratings for familiarity of style were high for Bach (M = 5.385, SD =
539 1.484) and Beethoven (M = 5.333, SD = 1.532), but lower for Messiaen (M = 4.135, SD = 1.879).
540 Approximately a third knew the Beethoven and Bach pieces, whereas only 19% knew the Messiaen
541 piece.

542 4.2.3 Aesthetic experience: Modality differences.

543 For the behavioural AE results, LMMs showed modality was a significant predictor of AE (see
544 Table 4) with AV scores significantly higher (M = .222, SE = 0.229, 95% CI [-2.07 2.52]) than AO scores
545 (M = .003, SE = 0.229, 95% CI [-2.28 2.29], $t(119) = -0.207$, $p = .041$) (see Figure 2). Although the maximal
546 model generated a singular fit error, it yielded the same estimate and significance, as well as a similar
547 effect size and AIC to the simplified model that generated no error (see Supplementary Table 4). The

548 modality effect was also confirmed by an ANOVA ($F(1,25) = 6.832, p = .015$). These results replicated
549 the behavioural findings of Experiment 1.

550 4.2.4 *Physiological differences between modality*

551 LMM results are presented in Table 5 (see also Figure 3). Modality condition was a significant
552 predictor for LF/HF ratio, which represents SNS activation (higher arousal). Comparison of estimated
553 marginal means indicated that this measure was higher in the AO than the AV condition (Table 6).
554 This effect was consistent in the maximal models (see Supplementary Table 8) and confirmed
555 by ANOVA ($F(1,21) = 5.393, p = .030$).

556 Modality was a significant predictor for respiration rate (RR) and corrugator muscle activity
557 (EMGCS), with a significant increase in the AV compared to AO condition (see Tables 5 and 6).
558 However, in the maximal models that generated errors, the modality effect was not significant for
559 EMGCS nor RR (see Supplementary Tables 5 and 10). Corresponding ANOVAs yielded insignificant
560 results for RR ($F(1,22) = 1.95, p = .177$), though EMGCS was almost significant ($F(1,21) = 3.679, p = .069$).
561 Due to the inconsistency of results between maximal models that generate errors and models with a
562 simplified random structure that is free of errors, findings of EMGCS and RR are only cautiously
563 interpreted.

564

565 4.2.5 *Peripheral measures that predict behaviour*

566 In a model where AE was the dependent variable and all peripheral measures were predictors,
567 zygomaticus activity (EMGZM) was a significant predictors of self-reported AE (see Table 7): increased
568 smiling muscle activity was positively associated with AE.

569

570

571 **Table 3.** Ratings of feeling disturbed by the measurement and familiarity with style and specific piece in
 572 Experiment 2

Ratings of feeling disturbed by the measurement								na	
Rating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
	51%	24%	9%	9%	4%	1%	2%		
Familiarity with style of piece									
Rating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Bach	0%	8%	4%	11%	23%	27%	27%		
Beethoven	0%	8%	4%	17%	15%	27%	27%	2%	
Messiaen	8%	15%	19%	14%	15%	15%	14%		
Familiarity with piece									
	0		1			Not sure			
Bach	65%		35%			0%			
Beethoven	67%		33%			0%			
Messiaen	79%		19%			2%			

573

574

575 **Table 4.** Linear mixed models for Aesthetic Experience factor scores between modality conditions.

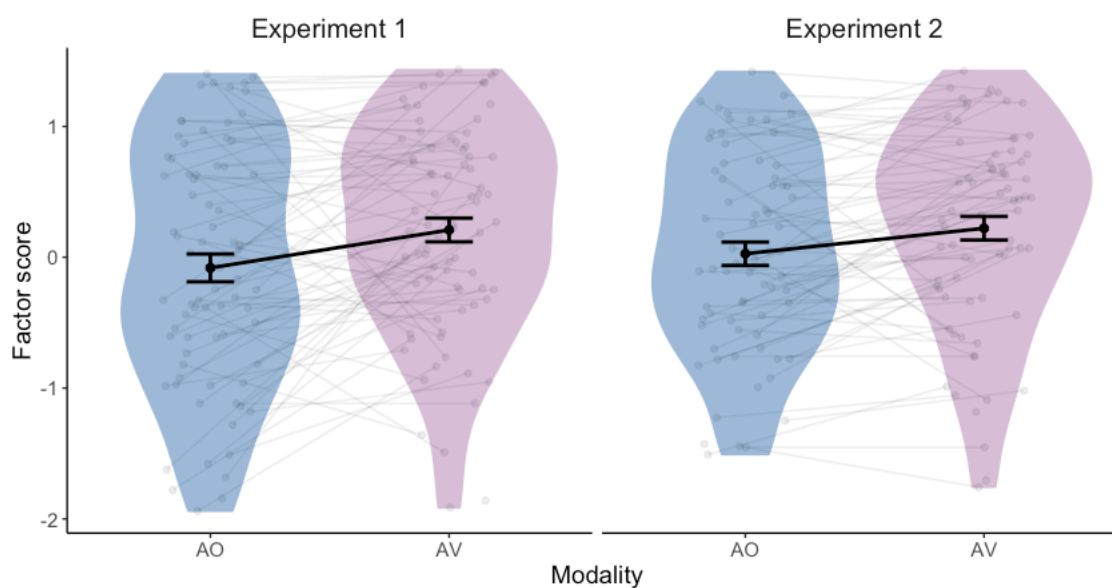
Aesthetic Experience (AE)

Predictors	Experiment 1			Experiment 2		
	Estimates	CI	p	Estimates	CI	p
(Intercept)	-0.10	-0.69 – 0.48	0.733	0.00	-0.45 – 0.46	0.987
cond [AV]	0.29	0.05 – 0.52	0.018	0.22	0.01 – 0.43	0.040
Random Effects						
σ^2	0.55			0.40		
τ_{00}	0.04 id_n:concert			0.16 id_n:concert		
	0.24 piece			0.08 concert		
ICC	0.34			0.37		
N	3 piece			2 concert		
	15 id_n			16 id_n		
	2 concert					
Observations	153			145		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.024 / 0.355			0.019 / 0.383		
AIC	371.967			324.565		

576

577

Aesthetic experience



578

579 **Figure 2.** Aesthetic experience factor scores (which had high item loadings of liking, liking interpretation and
 580 absorption, see Table 1) as a function of modality (Audio Only (AO) is blue and Audiovisual (AV) is purple). The
 581 left panel shows results for Experiment 1, while the right panel shows results for Experiment 2. Each point
 582 represents factor scores for each participant and each piece.

583

584 **Table 5.** Linear mixed models for physiological responses

Physiological results									
<i>Predictors</i>	EMGCS			EMGZM			HF		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	0.0025	0.0021 – 0.0029	<0.001	0.0022	0.0019 – 0.0024	<0.001	0.1384	0.1147 – 0.1621	<0.001
cond [AV]	0.0002	0.0001 – 0.0003	<0.001	0.0001	-0.0000 – 0.0002	0.180	0.0044	-0.0069 – 0.0157	0.447
Random Effects									
σ^2	0.00			0.00			0.00		
τ_{00}	0.00	section:piece		0.00	section:piece		0.00	section:piece	
	0.00	id_n:concert		0.00	id_n:concert		0.00	id_n:concert	
τ_{11}				0.00	id_n:condAV		0.00	id_n1:condAO	
				0.00	id_n1:condAO		0.00	id_n2:condAV	
				0.00	id_n2:condAV				
ρ_{01}									
ρ_{01}									
ICC	0.65			0.50			0.47		
N	9	section		9	section		9	section	
	3	piece		3	piece		3	piece	
	15	id_n		14	id_n		15	id_n	
	2	concert		2	concert		2	concert	
Observations	1037			1082			1050		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.007 / 0.657			0.003 / 0.502			0.001 / 0.467		

585

Physiological results (continued 1)

Predictors	LF/HF ratio			HR			RR		
	Estimates	CI	p	Estimates	CI	p	Estimates	CI	p
(Intercept)	2.19	1.78 – 2.61	<0.001	62.00	54.96 – 69.04	<0.001	18.31	17.17 – 19.45	<0.001
cond [AV]	-0.26	-0.41 – -0.11	0.001	-0.19	-0.44 – -0.05	0.123	0.26	0.09 – 0.43	0.003
Random Effects									
σ^2	1.52			4.16			2.11		
τ_{00}	0.00	section:piece		0.11	section:piece		0.30	section:piece	
	0.95	id_n:concert		65.70	id_n:concert		6.71	id_n:concert	
ICC	0.38			19.99	concert		0.08	concert	
				0.95			0.77		
N	9	section		2	concert		2	concert	
	3	piece		9	section		9	section	
	15	id_n		3	piece		3	piece	
	2	concert		15	id_n		15	id_n	
Observations	1041			1073			1152		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.007 / 0.389			0.000 / 0.954			0.002 / 0.771		

586

587

Physiological results (continued 2)

Predictors	SCR			SCL		
	Estimates	CI	p	Estimates	CI	p
(Intercept)	-0.00	-0.00 – 0.00	0.156	0.00	-0.02 – 0.03	0.970
cond [AV]	-0.00	-0.00 – 0.00	0.754	0.00	-0.01 – 0.02	0.764
Random Effects						
σ^2	0.00			0.01		
τ_{00}	0.00	section:piece		0.00	section:piece	
	0.00	id_n:concert				
ICC	0.25			0.21		
				0.21		
N	9	section		9	section	
	3	piece		3	piece	
	14	id_n				
	2	concert				
Observations	855			910		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.000 / 0.252			0.000 / 0.213		

588

589

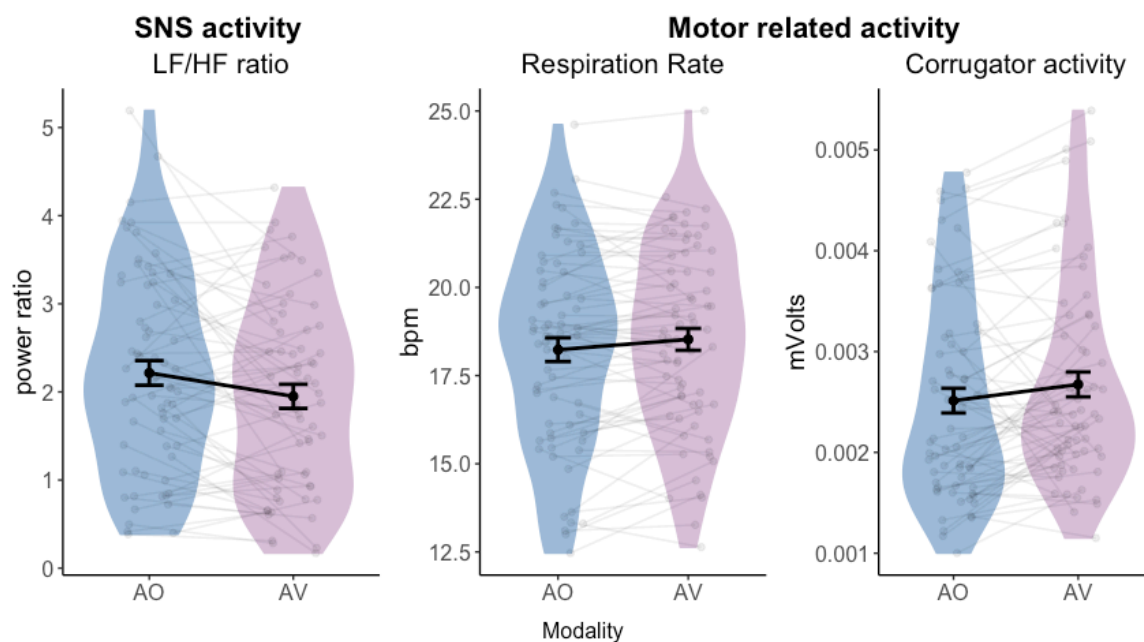
590

591 **Table 6. Results of Linear Mixed Models comparing Aesthetic Experience between AO and AV**

Phys	Estimated Marginal Means		Pairwise difference (AO-AV)			
	AO: M, (SE), [95% CI]	AV: M, (SE), [95% CI]	β	SE	T	p
EMGCS	0.0025 (0.0002), [0.0022, 0.0029]	0.0026 (0.00012) [0.0023, 0.0031]	-0.0002	0.000	-4.423	<.0001
EMGZM	0.0021 (0.0001), [0.0019, 0.0025]	0.0023, (0.0001), [0.0019, 0.0026]	-0.000	0.000	-1.334	.207
HR	62.0 (0.359), [16.5, 107]	61.8 (0.359), [16.3, 107]	0.193	0.125	1.542	.1234
HF	0.138 (0.0012), [0.112, 0.165]	0.143, (0.014), [0.113, 0.172]	-0.007	0.004	-1.927	.054
LF/HF ratio	2.219 (0.211), [1.76, 2.63]	1.93 (0.211), [1.50, 2.37]	0.26	0.077	3.380	< .001
RR	18.3 (0.587), [11.9, 24.8]	18.6, (0.587), [12.1, 25.0]	-0.257	0.087	-2.972	.003
SCL	0.0005 (0.013), [-0.026, 0.027]	0.0027 (0.0013), [-0.023, 0.029]	-0.002	0.007	-0.300	.764
SCR	-0.002 (0.001), [-0.005, 0.001]	-0.002, (0.001), [-0.005, -0.001]	0.0002	0.001	0.313	.755

592

593



594
 595 **Figure 3.** Physiological responses in each modality condition (AO: blue; AV: purple). Different panels represent
 596 different physiological measures; from left to right: LF/HF ratio, respiration rate (RR), and EMG activity of
 597 corrugator supercillii (frowning) muscle (Corrugator activity). Each point represents the physiological response
 598 value for each participant and each piece.

599
 600 **Table 7.** Model of physiology predicting AE self-reports

LMM comparison physiology predicting Aesthetic Experience (AE)

<i>Predictors</i>	Maximal model			<i>p</i>
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>		
(Intercept)	0.1940	-0.1535 – 0.5415		0.270
SCL	0.0982	-0.0737 – 0.2700		0.259
SCR	-0.0108	-0.1884 – 0.1668		0.904
HR	-0.0500	-0.2333 – 0.1333		0.589
RR	0.0628	-0.0984 – 0.2241		0.440
HFnu	-0.0007	-0.2729 – 0.2715		0.996
LFHFratio	-0.0351	-0.3110 – 0.2409		0.801
EMGCS	-0.0767	-0.2508 – 0.0973		0.383
EMGZM	0.1828	0.0196 – 0.3460		0.029
Random Effects				
σ^2	0.49			
τ_{00} id_n:concert	0.06			
τ_{00} piece	0.00			
τ_{00} cond	0.01			
τ_{00} concert	0.03			
ICC	0.18			
$N_{concert}$	2			
N_{piece}	3			
N_{cond}	2			
N_{id_n}	13			
Observations	94			
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.065 / 0.234			
AIC	256.674			

601

602 4.3 Discussion

603 The main aims of Experiment 2 were to replicate the behavioural results of Experiment 1 and to
604 gain further insight into peripheral physiological measures as a function of modality. Importantly,
605 subjective ratings again showed that the measurement of physiological signals did not disturb
606 participants.

607 As in Experiment 1, AE was significantly higher in the AV condition. We further tested whether
608 peripheral responses between modality conditions. Compared to the AV condition, the AO condition
609 evoked higher LF/HF ratio responses. These results support findings of (Vuoskoski et al., 2016), who
610 reported higher physiological arousal in AO musical performances. On the other hand, respiration rate
611 and corrugator muscle activity were higher in the AV condition. As both respiration and facial muscle
612 activity are under voluntary muscle control, one interpretation is that viewing movements of the
613 musician increased motor simulation. This is supported by research showing that viewing effortful
614 movements increases respiration (Brown et al., 2013; Mulder et al., 2005; Paccalin & Jeannerod, 2000)
615 and corrugator activity (de Morree & Marcora, 2010). However, inconsistencies occurred for RR and
616 EMGCS in maximal LMMs compared to error-free LMMs. This model discrepancy suggests the modality
617 effect in respiration and facial muscle activity needs to be complemented and confirmed by further
618 studies with larger sample sizes.

619 When assessing if self-reported AE was predicted by physiological responses, AE was positively
620 associated with zygomaticus activity. However, as increased zygomaticus activity has likewise been
621 related to unpleasant experiences of (dissonant) music (Dellacherie et al., 2011; Merrill et al., 2021),
622 we only cautiously attribute such facial muscle activity with positive AE.

623 5 General Discussion

624
625 The current experiments aimed to broaden our understanding of naturalistic concert experiences
626 by testing whether (1) AV information enhances aesthetic experience (AE) in a more ecological setting
627 and (2) peripheral physiological responses are higher in AO or AV modality. We also (3) assess the
628 relationship between AE and peripheral physiological responses. We confirm that in both experiments,
629 the measurement of self-report and physiology did not disturb the audiences, supporting the idea that
630 a semi-experimental setting with naturalistic stimulus presentation can yield results of high ecological
631 validity.

632 As there are several aspects that can make up an AE (Brattico & Pearce, 2013; Juslin, 2013;
633 Schindler et al., 2017), questionnaire items related to certain aspects of an aesthetic experience were
634 used. In both experiments, these items could be reduced to one factor in a factor analysis. Although
635 the factor had slightly different loadings in the two experiments, three main items consistently loaded

636 highly: absorption, liking, and liking of interpretation. Indeed, liking is a strong element of aesthetic
637 experience both in philosophy (as the *evaluative dimension* of AE, Shusterman, 1997) and in empirical
638 work (Brattico & Pearce, 2013). Preference of interpretation (e.g., how fast or expressive) has likewise
639 been shown to play a strong role in AE. For example, observers prefer an expressive – compared to a
640 non-expressive – interpretation of dance (Christensen et al., 2021). Similarly, dance choreography
641 performed with more varied velocities was rated as more aesthetically pleasing compared to when it is
642 performed with a more uniform velocity (Orlandi et al., 2020). Absorption has also shown to be an
643 important factor in mediating aesthetic experience (Brattico & Pearce, 2013) and can even be indexed
644 by peripheral measures, such as microsaccades (Lange et al., 2017). As these items have a strong
645 connection to AE, it seemed appropriate to refer to this factor as such. Further, the fact that all of these
646 items were correlated with each other and captured well by one factor, corroborates previous research
647 that an aesthetic experience comprises many aspects (Brattico & Pearce, 2013; Merrill et al., 2021) and
648 supports the use of dimensionality reduction techniques which trade specificity in favour of a more
649 holistic AE measure.

650 Both Experiment 1 and 2 consistently showed that AE increases more in the AV than AO
651 modality consistently across models and ANOVAs. Previous laboratory work has revealed that visual
652 information carries several cues of musical expression (Davidson, 1993; Luck et al., 2010), quality
653 (Tsay, 2013; Waddell & Williamon, 2017) and emotion (Dahl & Friberg, 2007; Van Zijl & Luck, 2013),
654 which enhances aesthetic appreciation (Platz & Kopiez, 2012). Though these findings show that AE
655 was significantly higher in AV than AO music performances, the effect size (just under 0.1) was
656 relatively small (Cohen, 1988), likely due to the small sample size. Nonetheless, the overall model
657 effect size (0.3 – 0.4) is considered medium (Cohen, 1988).

658 The current results extend the effect of modality influencing musical appreciation in a
659 naturalistic performance setting. Similar work in a concert setting found that the live AV condition
660 had increased wonder and decreased boredom (Coutinho & Scherer, 2017). However, their main focus
661 was on emotion; we extend their findings to the preference (liking, liking of the interpretation) aspect
662 of AE. We emphasise the importance of conducting AE research in a naturalistic performance setting,
663 as it is more likely to elicit stronger and more realistic responses (Gabrielsson & Wik, 2003; Lamont,
664 2011). Of note is that results found in laboratory settings are not always replicated in more naturalistic
665 settings. For example, previous laboratory studies have demonstrated that body movement (Platz &
666 Kopiez, 2012) and familiarity (see North & Hargreaves, 2010) increase appreciation of music, even
667 though the latter component has an inverted U-relationship. However, these findings were not
668 replicated in a field study that was conducted in a more realistic situation (busking) and using a
669 dependent variable of appreciation (i.e., money rather than ratings, Anglada-Tort et al., 2019),
670 suggesting that components of music performance influence music appreciation differently depending
671 on the context. Overall, despite the fact that a naturalistic setting might allow less control, together

672 with results from previous work (Coutinho & Scherer, 2017), we provide consistent support that
673 audiovisual information enhances AE; a finding that likely generalises to more naturalistic human
674 behaviour.

675 We further elucidated peripheral responses of AE in multimodal contexts (Experiment 2), as
676 research to date is inconsistent (Chapados & Levitin, 2008; Vuoskoski et al., 2016). Based on the
677 framework of Brattico et al., (2013), we assume AE is made up of perceptual, cognitive, affective, and
678 aesthetic responses (e.g., liking). These components can be relatively well distinguished by self-reports
679 and – to an extent – by different brain regions and event-related brain potentials, depending on their
680 latency and polarity (e.g., early components are related to early sensory processes). However, changes
681 in physiology/facial muscle activity have been related to all of these cognitive, affective, and aesthetic
682 responses (e.g., Roy et al., 2009; Steinbeis et al., 2006; Salimpoor et al., 2009), depending on the design
683 and control condition of the study. Some show physiological changes related to sensory (orienting
684 response, e.g., Barry & Sokolov, 1993) and acoustic changes (e.g., Chuen et al., 2016), while others
685 show this activity is related to aesthetic preference (e.g., Grewe et al., 2009; Salimpoor et al., 2009). In
686 further understanding physiological responses, we draw on neural and behavioural evidence that gives
687 better insight into what kind of AE-related processing might take place. On the one hand, responses
688 related to sensory processing should be greater in the AO condition, due to less predictable sound
689 onsets (Jessen & Kotz, 2011), as also shown by Vuoskoski et al. (2016). On the other hand, AV
690 information conveys more emotion (Dahl & Friberg, 2007; Van Zijl & Luck, 2013); therefore, responses
691 could also be higher in the AV condition, as shown in Chapados and Levitin (2008). Thus, we tested
692 again whether physiological responses are higher in AO or AV.

693 We consistently found that the LF/HF ratio increased in the AO condition. As this measure
694 represents increased SNS activation, this suggests that AO conditions increase physiological arousal,
695 likely reflecting an increase in uncertainty of sound onsets when visual information is absent (Jessen
696 & Kotz, 2011; Klucharev et al., 2003; Stekelenburg & Vroomen, 2007; van Wassenhove et al., 2005).
697 This is in line with results from Vuoskoski et al. (2016), who found that AO evoked more physiological
698 arousal (as shown by skin conductance) compared to AV musical performances. We also support
699 findings by Richardson et al. (2020) who likewise found higher physiological arousal in audio-only,
700 compared to video versions of narratives (e.g., *Games of Thrones* and *Pride and Prejudice*).

701 We also found partial support for the hypothesis that AV music performances lead to higher
702 peripheral physiological responses than in AO performances. We state partial evidence, as design-
703 driven LMMs differed from error-free ones. Simplified, error-free models revealed a significant
704 modality effect for RR and EMGCS. Maximal models, which generated errors, did not. These differences
705 could be attributed to the fact that removing the slopes to avoid singularity fit errors could have
706 increased degrees of freedom and the possibility of Type 1 errors (Arnqvist, 2019). However, a model
707 with a complex random-effects structure can lead to increased Type II error and lack of power (Barr,

708 2021; Matuschek et al., 2017). Thus, future studies with larger sample sizes are required to confirm this
709 modality effect. As there is general consensus that error-free models are preferable (Barr et al., 2013),
710 these models are reported. Nonetheless, we aim to be transparent; the reader is pointed to not only
711 the Supplementary Materials, but also the code showing the maximal models and how models are
712 simplified step by step. While only cautiously interpreting the modality effects in RR and EMGCS, we
713 believe it is worth briefly discussing the results from error-free models.

714 RR was faster in the AV condition. ‘Frowning’ muscle (EMGCS) activity, which typically reflects
715 negative valence (Bradley & Lang, 2000), also increased in the AV condition. The discrepancy between
716 the increase in both frowning muscle activity and (generally positive) AE in the AV condition could be
717 explained by the fact that higher aesthetic pleasure can also derive from perceiving negatively valenced
718 musical expression and/or affective states (Eerola et al., 2018), such as being moved (Eerola et al.,
719 2016). However, some question whether facial expressions reflect valence (Wingenbach et al., 2020) or
720 affective states at all (Lewis, 2011; Matsumo, 1987). Thus, another possible interpretation is that
721 observing the musician increased mimicry in the observers. Indeed, participants mimic observed facial
722 expressions (Dimberg, 1982; Magnee et al., 2007). Additionally, viewing effortful movements increases
723 respiration (Brown et al., 2013; Mulder et al., 2005; Paccalin & Jeannerod, 2000) and corrugator activity
724 (de Morree & Marcora, 2010). Such motor mimicry likely extends to music performance. Motor activity
725 increases when listening to music (Bangert et al., 2006; Grahn & Brett, 2007; Janata et al., 2012),
726 especially in audiovisual performances (Chan et al., 2013; Griffiths & Reay, 2018). Indeed,
727 sensorimotor embodied mechanisms related to motor mimicry have been proposed and shown to
728 enhance AE (Brattico & Pearce, 2013; Cross, 2011; Freedberg & Gallese, 2007; Gallese & Freedberg,
729 2007). Thus, faster breathing and increased facial muscle activity in AV conditions may be a reflection
730 of motor mimicry that occurs when viewing musicians’ movements. In sum, we provide partial
731 evidence of a modality effect in RR and EMGCS, potentially reflecting motor mimicry.

732 Facial muscle activity was significantly associated with AE. The zygomaticus (‘smiling’) muscle
733 activity was a significant predictor for AE scores. Increased zygomaticus activity was positively related
734 to AE, supporting previous work showing that zygomaticus activity was higher for pleasant music
735 (Fuentes-Sánchez et al., 2022), liked positive music (Witvliet & Vrana, 2007), positively evaluated art
736 (Gernot et al., 2018), and liked dance movements (Kirsch et al., 2016). This is further support for the
737 embodied aesthetics theory, where sensorimotor embodied mechanisms might enhance AE (Brattico
738 & Pearce, 2013; Cross, 2011; Freedberg & Gallese, 2007; Gallese & Freedberg, 2007). However,
739 increased ‘smiling’ muscle activity has also been shown to increase in unpleasant (dissonant) music,
740 suggesting that such activity might represent a grimace or ironic laughter (Dellacherie et al., 2011;
741 Merrill et al., 2021). Therefore, it is vital to collect self-report data to support interpretations of
742 physiological responses, rather than considering certain responses a direct index of a specific state,
743 especially over a long period of time in such naturalistic settings.

744 LMMs show that LF/HF ratio were higher in AO, and tentative evidence suggests that
745 respiration and muscle activity were higher in AV. These findings can be considered in conjunction
746 with how much (in)voluntary control we have over them. As mentioned before, the heart is innervated
747 by the ANS and made up of involuntary (cardiac) muscle. Voluntary skeletal muscles control EMG and
748 (partly) respiration. On the one hand, due to the automatic nature of the heart, it seems plausible these
749 might be more related to earlier (sensory) processes of an AE. On the other hand, the more voluntary
750 peripheral measures seem to be related to the liking aspect of AE. Although we are cautious to attribute
751 the increase of such measures as a direct index of aesthetic experience, the results point to the idea
752 that the more voluntary the control of the peripheral measure, the more related it may be to later
753 stages of the aesthetic processing, as outlined in Brattico and Pearce (2013).

754 One overall limitation of the current study is that although all versions were presented as part
755 of a concert while participants were seated in the concert hall, AV was presented as a live version, while
756 AO was presented as a playback. This was chosen to enhance ecological validity: people who listen to
757 music in an AO version most likely listen to music as playback, while watching an AV version is more
758 likely to be live (Sloboda et al., 2012). Indeed, this difference of visual information is also showed in
759 Swarbrick et al. (2019), who similarly stated that AV performances are typically live. Although we do
760 appreciate that tools and streaming platforms like YouTube, Digital Concert Hall of the Berliner
761 Philharmoniker and MetOnDemand etc. have increased in popularity (especially with the COVID-19
762 pandemic) making audiovisual recording more popular, Belfi et al. (2021) found that felt pleasure did
763 not differ between live and an audiovisual recording of that same performance. Therefore, it is likely
764 that the live and playback differences do not play a strong role in influencing the current results. Future
765 research might consider live audio-only playback of an offstage performer to fully mitigate this
766 potential confound. Another limitation is that although the pieces were chosen to represent typical
767 concert pieces (and a range of genres), they were not controlled for length. Nonetheless, length was a
768 compromise when using naturalistic stimuli that heightened ecological validity. As we did not look at
769 piece-specific differences, but rather average across sections of the pieces to examine the effect of
770 condition, we did not consider this a confound in the current study. However, we note that effects
771 driven by one piece may weigh our results more heavily than effects from the shorter pieces. Future
772 research might consider choosing pieces of similar length, or at least similar lengths of sections. A
773 further limitation is that we did not contrast visual only information with the other two conditions.
774 This choice was a compromise to keep the within-in subject design time-manageable as well as to
775 create a concert-like feel for the experiment.

776

777 6 Conclusion

778

779 Researchers are increasingly foregoing ultimate control for a more ecologically valid approach
780 that enables participants to have more powerful aesthetic experiences. This study follows others that
781 have moved more into the ‘wild’ to explore such naturalistic experiences (Chabin et al., 2022; Czepiel
782 et al., 2021; Dotov & Trainor, 2021; Merrill et al., 2021; Swarbrick et al., 2019; Tervaniemi et al., 2021).
783 The current findings show that a self-reported aesthetic experience significantly increases in
784 audiovisual (compared to audio only) piano performances in the naturalistic setting of a concert hall.

785 Modality additionally influenced peripheral measures, revealing two main patterns. On the
786 one hand, involuntary a physiological arousal response (heart rhythm reflecting SNS), was higher in
787 the (less predictive) AO modality, likely reflecting more sensory processes. On the other hand,
788 peripheral responses with more voluntary control (respiration, facial muscle activity) were higher in
789 the AV modality, though due to inconsistencies in maximal/error-free models, these results should be
790 interpreted with caution. The zygomaticus muscle was a significant predictor of self-reported AE. It
791 could be that the involuntary-voluntary continuum of physiological responses is related to a sensory-
792 affective continuum of AEs. We also suggest that visual information enhances motor mimicry (as
793 shown by an increase in respiration and facial muscle activity), which is a mechanism that enhances
794 AE (Cross et al., 2011; Freedberg & Gallese, 2007; Gallese & Freedberg, 2007; Kirsch et al., 2016). By
795 exploring modality effects, we postulate that peripheral responses likely reflect sensory, sensorimotor,
796 and affective responses that may culminate into an overall aesthetic experience (Brattico et al., 2013).
797 However, we would like to emphasise that such peripheral responses alone cannot directly index AE;
798 self-reports should support interpretations of peripheral physiological data. Nonetheless, the extent
799 that physiological responses are simply sensory or reflect intertwined sensory and affective aspects of
800 the aesthetic experience remains unclear. Further research, with larger sample sizes, should assess the
801 robustness of the effects discussed here. To gain more insight, future research could bridge this gap by
802 further exploring whether this involuntary-voluntary continuum reflects such sensory-aesthetic
803 continuum and whether - and to what extent - there is an overlap of such systems.

804

805

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812 **Declaration of Interest**

813 None.

814

815 **Author contribution:** Using CRediT

816

817 Conceptualisation: CS

818 Methodology: CS

819 Investigation: CS, MS

820 Formal analysis: AC, SAK, MS, LKF

821 Writing - Original draft: AC

822 Visualisation: AC, LKF

823 Writing - review and editing: LKF, SAK, MS, CS

824

825

826

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