



1 Age-related variability in network 2 engagement during music listening

3
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8 **Abstract**

9 Listening to music is an enjoyable behaviour that engages multiple networks of brain regions.
10 As such, the act of music listening may offer a way to interrogate network activity, and to
11 examine the reconfigurations of brain networks that have been observed in healthy aging. The
12 present study is an exploratory examination of brain network dynamics during music listening in
13 healthy older and younger adults. Network measures were extracted and analyzed together with
14 behavioural data using a combination of hidden Markov modelling and partial least squares. We
15 found age- and preference-related differences in fMRI data collected during music listening in
16 healthy younger and older adults. Both age groups showed higher occupancy (the proportion of
17 time a network was active) in a temporal-mesolimbic network while listening to self-selected
18 music. Activity in this network was strongly positively correlated with liking and familiarity
19 ratings in younger adults, but less so in older adults. Additionally, older adults showed a higher
20 degree of correlation between liking and familiarity ratings consistent with past behavioural

21 work on age-related dedifferentiation. We conclude that, while older adults do show network and
22 behaviour patterns consistent with dedifferentiation, activity in the temporal-mesolimbic network
23 is relatively robust to dedifferentiation. These findings may help explain how music listening
24 remains meaningful and rewarding in old age.

25
26 **Keywords:** Music, Aging, Computational Neuroscience

27 **Background**

28 Brain function changes with age across multiple spatial scales. The brain can be thought of as a
29 series of overlapping functional networks where each network is a collection of brain regions
30 that act in concert over time. With age, regions that were once nodes in densely-connected
31 functional networks may become disconnected while regions in previously distinct functional
32 networks may become more connected (Grady et al., 2016), though whether this reconfiguration
33 of functional network boundaries is adaptive or maladaptive remains unclear. In healthy older
34 adults, networks that were once well-defined and responded preferentially to a particular
35 stimulus or set of conditions begin to activate (or to fail to deactivate) less discerningly in a
36 process known as dedifferentiation (Grady et al., 2012; Rieck et al., 2017).

37
38 In music listening, there is behavioural evidence of age-related perceptual changes that may
39 serve as a behavioural counterpart to the dedifferentiation seen in network brain dynamics.
40 Music is reported as more broadly pleasant with age (a positivity effect, Bones & Plack, 2015;
41 Groarke & Hogan, 2019; Laukka & Juslin, 2007; Lima & Castro, 2011), and perceptual features
42 also become less distinct with age, with higher correlations observed between perceived arousal

43 and valence in older adults (Vieillard et al., 2012). This blurring of the lines between the
44 perceived pleasantness and dimensions of a musical signal might indicate underlying network
45 changes, but do not seem to affect the music listening experience negatively.

46
47 Musical sounds are complex stimuli that, using building blocks of timbre, tone, pitch, rhythm,
48 melody, and harmony, can engender expectancy and surprise to make us laugh, cry, dance, sing,
49 and reminisce. As musical stimuli are complex and hierarchically organized, brain responses to
50 music are likewise complex and hierarchical, with many temporally-dependent overlapping
51 processes. Features extracted from musical signals stimulate activity in multiple brain regions
52 (Alluri et al., 2012; Burunat et al., 2017; Williams et al., 2022), and networks, including the
53 default mode network (DMN; Wilkins et al., 2014; Koelsch et al., 2022; Taruffi et al., 2017) and
54 reward networks (Fasano et al., 2022).

55
56 Multivariate statistical modelling tools provide us with a unique opportunity to observe and
57 describe whole-brain network activity in a data-driven way. Working in network space, where
58 the smallest unit of measurement is a network, allows us to examine the shifting patterns of brain
59 activity that accompany music, which has the potential to add nuance that cannot be seen when
60 looking at isolated regions of interest. This approach may also be of value in understanding the
61 neural foundation of age-related perceptual changes, and may shed light on why music is so
62 salient in clinical populations (Cuddy & Duffin, 2005; Leggieri et al., 2017; Särkämö et al.,
63 2014; Thaut et al., 2020, Matziorinis & Koelsch, 2022).

64

65 Where older adults show network reconfigurations compared to younger cohorts in rest and
66 during cognitive tasks, what can music reveal about the aging brain? In the present exploratory
67 study, we studied age differences in network-level dynamics during familiar and novel music
68 listening in a cohort of healthy younger and older adults. We aim to demonstrate age-related
69 changes in network dynamics using a novel analysis paradigm comprising hidden Markov
70 modelling and partial least squares analyses.

71

72 **Methods**

73 Networks were estimated using hidden Markov modelling (HMM) and analyses were completed
74 using partial least squares (PLS). We chose HMM rather than a seed-based or canonical network
75 analysis (see Bressler & Menon, 2010) in an effort to base our analyses on data-driven patterns
76 as much as possible. A substantial advantage of HMM is that it derives networks from patterns in
77 the original data without the constraints of canonical network boundaries or specified time
78 windows.

79

80 A brief outline of data collection is included here. For a detailed description of participant
81 recruitment, study protocol, and data acquisition, please see Quinci et al. (2022) and Belden et al.
82 (2023).

83 *Participants*

84 Participants were right-handed, cognitively healthy younger ($N = 44$, 11 males, mean age =
85 19.24, $SD = 1.92$) and older ($N = 27$, 13 males, mean age = 67.34, $SD = 8.27$) adults with normal
86 hearing established via audiogram. Inclusion criteria included normal hearing, successful
87 completion of MRI screening, and a minimum age of 18 for younger adults and 50 for older

88 adults. Exclusion criteria comprised medication changes 6 weeks prior to screening, a history of
89 any medical condition that could impair cognition, a history of chemotherapy in the preceding 10
90 years, or any medical condition requiring medical treatment within three months of screening.
91 Data from two younger participants were excluded following data collection due to problems
92 with the ratings apparatus. Ethics approval was granted by the Northeastern University
93 Institutional Review Board and all research was conducted consistent with the Declaration of
94 Helsinki.

95 *Procedure*

96 Prior to data collection, participants completed a screening call with researchers to confirm their
97 eligibility for the study, and to collect a list of six songs that are familiar and well-liked by the
98 participant. Following screening, eligible participants completed a battery of neuropsychological
99 tests, structural and functional MRI scans, and a blood draw. The present study focuses on the
100 fMRI data; other aspects of the results are in preparation and will be described in separate
101 reports.

102 *Data acquisition*

103 All scans took place at Northeastern University. Functional scans were acquired with a Siemens
104 Magnetom 3T scanner with a 64-channel head coil. The total scan time for task data was 11.4
105 minutes with continuous acquisition at a fast TR of 475 ms over 1440 volumes. A resting state
106 scan was also performed with these parameters, and findings will be reported in a future
107 manuscript. T1 images were captured, but will not be discussed in detail in this manuscript.

108

109 Task fMRI consisted of a block of resting state followed by music presentation (24 excerpts,
110 each played for 20 seconds). Musical excerpts were either familiar and well-liked self-selected
111 music (6/24), or experimenter-selected music chosen to be popular or possibly recognizable
112 (10/24), or novel including excerpts purpose-composed for research purposes (8/24). Stimuli
113 were presented randomly and following each 20 second musical excerpt, participants were asked
114 to rate their familiarity and liking of the excerpt for two seconds each, using 4-point Likert
115 scales.

116 *Data pre-processing*

117 Functional MRI data were pre-processed using the TVB-UKBB pipeline detailed by Frazier-
118 Logue et al. (2022). T1 images were registered to the Montreal Neurological Institute T1
119 template. Functional data pre-processing was done using a pipeline using the FMRIB Software
120 Library (FSL; Woolrich et al., 2009), including the fMRI Expert Analysis Tool (FEAT, version
121 6.0). Within the pipeline, pre-processing of functional data comprised gradient echo fieldmap
122 distortion correction, motion correction using MCFLIRT, and independent component analysis
123 (ICA) artifact classification using MELODIC and FIX.

124
125 We assembled an ICA training set for non-cerebral artifact detection. ICA reports from 16
126 participants per age group were visually inspected for noisy vs. clean components and manually
127 annotated. Subsequent participants' ICA reports were cleaned using this training set. The
128 processed datasets were down-sampled to 220 regions of interest using the Schaefer-Tian 220
129 parcellation, which provides ample spatial resolution of auditory regions and subcortical
130 structures (Schaefer et al., 2017, Tian et al., 2020). Regional time series data were normalized to

131 control for between-subject amplitude differences and exported to MatLab (MathWorks, 2019)
132 for Hidden Markov Model estimation and analysis.

133 *Network Estimation*

134 To estimate networks, we used the HMM-MAR Toolbox (Vidaurre et al., 2017, 2018). The
135 estimation uses ROI time series data and calculates the K networks that best describe the entire
136 dataset. It then allocates each time window to the single best-fitting network within the original
137 time series. HMM, as a dimensionality reduction technique, returns states (hereafter referred to
138 as networks) that can be used to observe how networks interact over time.

139

140 The output from HMM is a time series showing the most prominent network at each timepoint.
141 From this timeseries, it is possible to calculate fractional occupancy and state-wise transitional
142 probability (Vidaurre et al., 2017). Fractional occupancy is the proportion of the total number of
143 timepoints each network was occupied during a time series task, and shows a particular
144 network's prominence during target time windows. Transitional probability shows the most
145 likely patterns of steps from one network to another. Thus, both are related measures, but contain
146 different information about how the networks interact.

147

148 We estimated HMMs with variable K values between 3 and 20. We found the estimations with 4
149 and 7 states to provide the most optimal model-derived free energy values (see Vidaurre et al.,
150 2017; Vidaurre et al., 2018). Partial least squares analyses showed statistically significant effects
151 for both estimations with comparable effect sizes (see Fasano et al., 2022). We further
152 interrogated the spatial properties of the states in each estimation by computing a dot product of
153 the normalized state means, finding that the spatial properties of the states in the estimation with

154 7 states were well-represented in the estimation with 4 states. We ultimately chose the 4 state
 155 estimation as it provided a single state with activity in temporal and mesolimbic regions together.
 156 Temporal and mesolimbic region activity has been previously related to auditory reward
 157 (Salimpoor et al., 2011, Fasano et al., 2020), including prior analyses of subsets of the present
 158 data (Belden et al., 2023, Quinci et al., 2022).

159
 160 The K networks identified by the HMM estimation are shown in Figure 1 (cortical regions only)
 161 and the regions of interest are detailed in Table 1. Where this analysis did not use canonical
 162 network-based seeds, we assigned anatomical labels to the networks based on the taxonomy of
 163 functional brain networks consistent with the wider network literature (Uddin et al, 2019). The
 164 functional properties of these states will be addressed in the discussion.

165
 166 *Figure 1: Mean activity plots returned from HMM analysis. Colours represent relative activity of*
 167 *the states and all have been normalized within-state. See Table 1 for subcortical regions not*
 168 *displayed here.*

169

<i>State</i>	<i>Main Regions</i>	<i>Network</i>
1	Bilateral middle-frontal and left temporal regions. Subcortical regions include the bilateral temporal pole, left nucleus accumbens, and right hippocampal body	Medial frontoparietal network
2	Bilateral temporal and frontal regions	Temporal network
3	Bilateral temporal and mesolimbic regions Subcortical regions include the left globus pallidus, left hippocampal body, right putamen, and right hippocampal tail	Temporal mesolimbic network

4	Bilateral superior frontal and middle parietal regions	Frontoparietal network
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170 *Table 1: Regions of interest and network labels from HMM analysis. Network labels are based*
 171 *on the work of Uddin et al. (2019).*

172 *PLS*

173 We used partial least squares (PLS) to analyze between- and within-group differences on the
 174 HMM-extracted measures. PLS is a multivariate analysis technique that uses singular value
 175 decomposition to quantify the relationship(s) between data matrices and experimental features, in
 176 this case, fractional occupancy and transitional probability measures. In these analyses, we used
 177 mean-centred PLS to analyze group and task differences using the HMM-extracted measures and
 178 the within-subject relation of the measure to participant liking and familiarity ratings. To
 179 emphasize group main effects, we performed mean-centred analyses subtracting the overall
 180 grand mean from the group means. To focus on task main effects and task by group interactions,
 181 secondary mean centred analyses were performed, subtracting the group mean from the task
 182 mean within each group (i.e., rendering the group main effect zero).

183
 184 PLS analysis returns mutually-orthogonal latent variables (LVs) that describe group and/or task
 185 effects. Each LV's statistical significance and reliability are calculated via permutation testing
 186 and bootstrap estimation, respectively with a statistical threshold of $p < .05$. The reliability and
 187 strength of the group or task effects is depicted through the confidence interval estimation of LV
 188 scores for all participants, where LV scores are the dot-product of subject data and LV weights.
 189 LV weights themselves are evaluated for reliability through bootstrap ratios of the weight
 190 divided by its estimated standard error, which can be interpreted as a z-score for the
 191 corresponding confidence interval (see McIntosh & Lobaugh, 2004).

192

193 **Results**

194 Prior to HMM decomposition, we tested for sex differences using mean-centred PLS on each
195 participant's average functional connectivity matrix from the music listening task. No significant
196 sex-related differences were found. Following these analyses, we ran additional PLS analyses to
197 test for sex effects in fractional occupancy and transitional probability, returning no significant
198 effects. Data were subsequently pooled together for the remainder of the analysis.

199 *Fractional Occupancy*

200 We extracted average fractional occupancy for each participant, and fractional occupancy for
201 each participant for each category of musical excerpt (self-selected, experimenter-selected
202 popular, and experimenter-selected novel) and used PLS to observe differences in fractional
203 occupancy across age groups and stimuli categories. Mean-centred PLS analysis returned one
204 significant LV ($p = .024$) showing an age effect, with younger adults showing higher fractional
205 occupancy in the temporal network (network/state 2), and older adults showing higher fractional
206 occupancy in the frontoparietal network (network/state 4).

207

208 *Figure 2: Age-related differences in fractional occupancy (FO). (A) PLS contrasts between age*
209 *groups in music listening. Error bars were calculated using bootstrap resampling and reflect the*
210 *95% confidence interval. The contrasts show an age effect on FO (B), with the higher FO in*
211 *network 2 in younger adults, and higher FO in network 4 in older adults. The colour scale*
212 *represents the bootstrap ratio for each network.*

213

214 When divided into stimulus categories and analyzed for task main effects and task-by-group
215 interactions, mean-centred PLS analysis returned one significant LV ($p < .01$, Figure 2) showing
216 an effect of self-selected music vs experimenter-selected music on fractional occupancy in the
217 temporal-mesolimbic network (network 3). Fractional occupancy is higher for this network while
218 listening to self-selected music (music that is highly familiar and well-liked) in both younger and
219 older adults. Fractional occupancy for the temporal network (network 2) is higher when listening
220 to experimenter-selected music. Both effects are qualitatively more reliable in younger adults
221 based on confidence intervals (Figure 3A).

222

223 *Figure 3: (A) PLS contrasts between age groups in stimuli category and fractional occupancy*
224 *(FO). Error bars were calculated using bootstrap resampling and reflect the 95% confidence*
225 *interval. The contrasts show a stimulus-type effect on FO in both age groups (B), with the higher*
226 *FO in network 3 in both groups during self-selected music listening (SS Y and SS O), and higher*
227 *FO in network 2 during experimenter-selected music listening (Pop and Nov delineating popular*
228 *and novel excerpts respectively).*

229 *Transitional Probability*

230 We next examined the transitional probability matrices for differences in network interaction on
231 average and between the different stimulus categories. Important to note: the data being analyzed
232 is the directional likelihood of transitioning from each network to each other network. Rather
233 than looking at networks by themselves, these results show the link or edge that connects each
234 network to each other network.

235

236 The averaged transitional probability mean-centred PLS returned one significant LV ($p < .001$),
237 showing a contrast between younger and older adults, with younger adults more likely than older
238 adults to transition into the temporal network (network 2) from other networks, and less likely
239 than older adults to transition to the frontoparietal network (network 4) from the temporal
240 network (network 2) In examining network persistence (the likelihood of staying in a network),
241 younger adults were more likely to stay in the temporal network when listening to experimenter-
242 selected music (Figure 4).

243

244 *Figure 4: (A) PLS contrasts between age groups and transitional probability (TP). Error bars*
245 *were calculated using bootstrap resampling and reflect the 95% confidence interval. The*
246 *contrasts show an age effect on TP in both age groups (B), with younger adults more likely to*
247 *transition into network 2 from networks 1, 2, and 3 than older adults; and less likely to transition*
248 *to network 4 from network 2 than older adults (C). The colour scale represents the bootstrap*
249 *ratio for each network.*

250

251 When divided into stimulus categories and analyzed for task main effects and task-by-group
252 interactions, both groups were more likely to transition from the temporal network to the
253 temporal-mesolimbic and frontoparietal networks during self-selected music listening. In
254 experimenter-selected music, both groups were most likely to transition from the temporal-
255 mesolimbic network to the temporal network, but this effect was more pronounced in younger
256 adults. In examining network persistence (the likelihood of staying in a network), all participants
257 were more likely to stay in the temporal-mesolimbic network when listening to self-selected
258 music and more likely to stay in the temporal network when listening to experimenter-selected

259 music. When analyzed within age, older participants did not show a significant network
260 persistence pattern in the temporal network during experimenter-selected music (Figure 5).

261
262 *Figure 5: (A) PLS contrasts between age groups in stimulus category and transitional*
263 *probabilities. SS refers to self-selected music, Pop and Nov refers to popular and novel*
264 *experimenter-selected music. Error bars were calculated using bootstrap resampling and reflect*
265 *the 95% confidence interval. The contrasts (B) show a stimulus-type effect on transitional*
266 *probability (TP), illustrated with the TP magnitude in panel C. Panel C shows the between-*
267 *network TP with solid lines representing self-selected music and dashed lines representing*
268 *experimenter-selected music.*

269 *Effects of liking and familiarity on brain measures*

270 We next analyzed the network fractional occupancy and transitional probability matrices with
271 participants' liking and familiarity ratings. We correlated liking and familiarity ratings for each
272 excerpt with fractional occupancy for each participant. Initial mean-centred PLS analysis
273 returned no significant LVs. Following this analysis, we ran the PLS centred to the overall grand
274 mean to allow for a full factorial analysis: group main effect, task main effect and group-by-task
275 interactions.

276
277 The results from the full factorial PLS returned one significant LV ($p < .001$) showing the
278 contrast between age groups. In younger adults, the temporal-mesolimbic network featured
279 prominently, showing a greater positive correlation than other networks with both liking and
280 familiarity. Older adults showed a more ambiguous correlation between liking and familiarity
281 and fractional occupancy in the temporal network (Figure 7).

282

283 *Figure 6:(A) PLS contrasts between age groups in stimulus category and fractional occupancy.*

284 *Error bars were calculated using bootstrap resampling and reflect the 95% confidence interval.*

285 *The contrasts show an age effect on correlations between liking and familiarity (Fam) and*

286 *network fractional occupancy (B), illustrated with the relevant magnitude in panel C.*

287

288 We next vectorized the excerpt-wise transitional probability matrices for each participant, and

289 correlated them with each participant's piece-wise liking and familiarity ratings, returning two

290 transitional probability -correlation matrices per participant: liking*transitional probability and

291 familiarity*transitional probability.

292

293 A full factorial PLS consistent with the above analysis returned one significant LV ($p < 0.001$)

294 showing an age effect. Younger adults' liking and familiarity ratings were more strongly

295 positively correlated with the likelihood of transitioning to the temporal-mesolimbic network

296 from the temporal and frontoparietal networks. Younger adults' ratings were more strongly

297 negatively correlated with persistence in the temporal-mesolimbic network, and the likelihood of

298 transitioning from the temporal-mesolimbic network to the medial frontoparietal network.

299 Transitioning from the frontoparietal network to the temporal network was more positively

300 correlated with ratings in older adults, and more negatively correlated with ratings in younger

301 adults (Figure 7).

302

303 *Figure 7:(A) PLS contrasts between age groups in stimulus category and transitional*

304 *probabilities. Error bars were calculated using bootstrap resampling and reflect the 95%*

305 *confidence interval. The contrasts (B) show an age effect on correlations between liking and*
306 *familiarity (Fam) and network transitional probability, illustrated with the relevant magnitude in*
307 *panel C. The colour scale represents the bootstrap ratio for each network.*

308 Within-age mean-centred PLS analyses did not return any significant LVs.

309 *Liking and familiarity behavioural ratings*

310 Finally, we examined the ratings themselves. Mean-centred PLS showed older adults rated
311 excerpts as significantly less familiar than younger adults ($p < .01$). However, they did not
312 significantly differ in liking ratings. Mean-centred PLS also showed older adults' liking and
313 familiarity data were significantly more highly correlated than younger adults ($r = 0.57$ for older
314 adults and $r = 0.43$ for younger adults, PLS $p < .01$).

315 **Discussion**

316 Music listening engages multiple brain networks that may reorganize in multiple ways as we age.
317 While there are well-documented effects of music listening on auditory and reward networks and
318 auditory-motor networks, less is known about how music listening may encourage persistence
319 within networks, or transitions between networks. Treating data-driven brain networks as units of
320 analysis, we detailed age-related similarities and differences in network occupancy and between-
321 network transitional probabilities during music listening. The two most commonly-featured
322 networks in these analyses were the temporal and temporal-mesolimbic networks. Activity in
323 temporal-mesolimbic regions overlaps with auditory-reward network activity (see Wang et al.,
324 2020), while temporal regions are firmly affiliated with auditory processing (Belfi & Loui,
325 2019).

326

327 Both younger and older adults showed the highest fractional occupancy in the temporal-
328 mesolimbic network while listening to self-selected music compared to experimenter-selected
329 music. These stimuli were selected by participants to be familiar and well-liked, and auditory-
330 reward network activation for preferred music has been well-documented in prior studies
331 (Salimpoor et al., 2011, Fasano et al., 2020), including on a subset of these data (Quinci et al.,
332 2022). This network was active for experimenter-selected music as well, though to a lesser extent
333 than self-selected music, particularly in younger adults.

334

335 When looking at the transitional probability matrices, self-selected music was again linked to
336 persistence in the temporal-mesolimbic network and a greater probability of transition to this
337 network from the temporal network in both age groups. Experimenter-selected music was linked
338 to higher persistence in the temporal network and a greater probability of transition to the
339 temporal network from the temporal-mesolimbic network in both age groups, indicating that
340 music listening employs a distributed network of frontal and temporal regions; but to engage
341 mesolimbic structures, a degree of liking and familiarity is needed.

342

343 However, when analyzed separately, group differences were more obvious. Older subjects
344 showed an increased likelihood of persistence in the temporal network during experimenter-
345 selected music, but this effect was less reliable than in younger adults. Older adults also showed
346 an increased likelihood of transitioning to the temporal-mesolimbic network from the medial
347 frontoparietal network in self-selected music. This network shares many regions with the default
348 mode network (DMN; Uddin et al., 2019). The DMN is implicated in listening to liked (Wilkins

349 et al., 2014; Pereira et al., 2011) and timbrally rich music (Alluri et al., 2012), and is less
350 attenuated during cognitive tasks with age (Rieck et al., 2017). One possible explanation is that
351 older adults are less likely to transition from the medial frontoparietal network to the temporal
352 network during music listening than younger adults, instead remaining in the medial
353 frontoparietal network until transitioning to the temporal-mesolimbic network while a younger
354 adult may transition from the medial frontotemporal network to the temporal network.

355

356 The older adult transitional probability matrices showed more transitions to the temporal-
357 mesolimbic network during experimenter-selected music, which could indicate an age-related
358 shift in between-network dynamics. Former pathways (in this case, the likelihood of transitioning
359 from an auditory reward network to an auditory perception network during unfamiliar music, or
360 staying in an auditory perception network during unfamiliar music) reconfigure in favour of
361 consistency across multiple types of music involving the temporal mesolimbic network. This is
362 consistent with earlier findings that network functional specificity declines in favour of a more
363 standard set of responses to multiple stimuli types (Rieck et al., 2020).

364

365 In younger adults, liking and familiarity ratings were correlated with fractional occupancy in the
366 temporal and temporal mesolimbic networks, with the temporal network most occupied when
367 familiarity and liking are low and the temporal mesolimbic network most occupied when
368 familiarity and liking are high. In older adults, correlations between fractional occupancy and
369 liking and familiarity ratings are more ambiguous, indicating a reconfiguration of network
370 engagement related to aging. Correlations between ratings and transitional probabilities were
371 consistent with this pattern: younger adults' likelihood of transitioning into the temporal and

372 temporal-mesolimbic networks were more strongly correlated with liking and familiarity than
373 older adults who showed a more diffuse pattern.

374
375 Older adults showed high fractional occupancy in the temporal-mesolimbic network during all
376 music types. This difference could be because older adults show less differentiation between
377 liking and familiarity during novel music listening. If familiarity is lower among older adults, but
378 liking is consistent with younger adults, it is possible that older adults would engage a different
379 network response to music that is unfamiliar but liked. Liking and familiarity are more
380 positively correlated in older adults than younger adults, consistent with earlier findings on age-
381 related blunting of emotional intensity and liking (where stimuli are consistently rated as less
382 extremely pleasant and unpleasant. See Baird et al., 2020; Groarke & Hogan, 2019; Laukka &
383 Juslin, 2007).

384
385 While these results offer a promising look into capturing age-related changes in network-level
386 dynamics in naturalistic behaviours, there are several areas for further inquiry. To more fully
387 examine age, future studies could include a more continuous range of participants, particularly
388 those in middle adulthood to disambiguate age and cohort effects. While this study did not focus
389 on music and memory, future work could include a measure of music-related memory (see
390 Jakubowski & Eerola, 2022) to disambiguate group differences due to memory and lived
391 experience. The methods presented here were in effort to identify networks most relevant to this
392 dataset in a data-driven way. This approach, while advantageous in presenting nuanced
393 fluctuations in network membership, may prove challenging to reconcile with the canonical
394 network literature. Future work could employ both canonical and data-driven methods to directly

395 examine network membership and behaviour in an effort to link both methodological
396 approaches.

397
398 These observations could illustrate the broader pattern of the network dynamics of music
399 listening, and the age-related reorganization of these networks. For older adults, the temporal
400 network becomes less finely tuned to liking and familiarity, while the temporal mesolimbic
401 network remains active. There are several exciting implications of these findings. The first is in
402 studying naturalistic behaviours in “network space”: investigating the behaviours and
403 interactions of networks as behaviour unfolds. The need to understand the brain as a complex,
404 dynamic system, one that is continually adapting to its surroundings, has been the topic of much
405 discussion (see McIntosh & Jirsa, 2019; Calhoun et al., 2014). The brain is more than a
406 collection of regions and its emergent properties can be captured in fascinating detail using
407 music. Though the methods presented here are not unique to music, we also hope to present
408 music as a viable stimulus to interrogate higher cognition.

409
410 In the same way that the brain is not merely a collection of regions, music is more than a simple
411 collection of notes. It is ubiquitous in the human experience (Savage, 2019; Cross & Morley,
412 2010) but has yet to experience its renaissance in cognitive neuroscience. There are good reasons
413 for this: music data contain many layers of information from the content of the signal itself to the
414 content of the memories or the quality of movement it generates in the listener. However, the
415 scientific potential of music is too beguiling to ignore. Here is a stimulus that, unlike rest, has a
416 rich, externally-measurable temporal structure that, unlike traditional task paradigms, does not
417 require extensive training or fortitude to endure. It combines the best of both worlds with the

418 added benefit of being accessible to clinical populations in ways that other tasks, especially those
419 reliant on language, are not.

420

421 By examining music's network properties, we present a data-driven methodological framework
422 for future hypothesis-driven studies of musical behaviour while offering an alternative to
423 traditional paradigms that is externally measurable, ecologically valid, and accessible to those
424 with cognitive decline or who are non-verbal.

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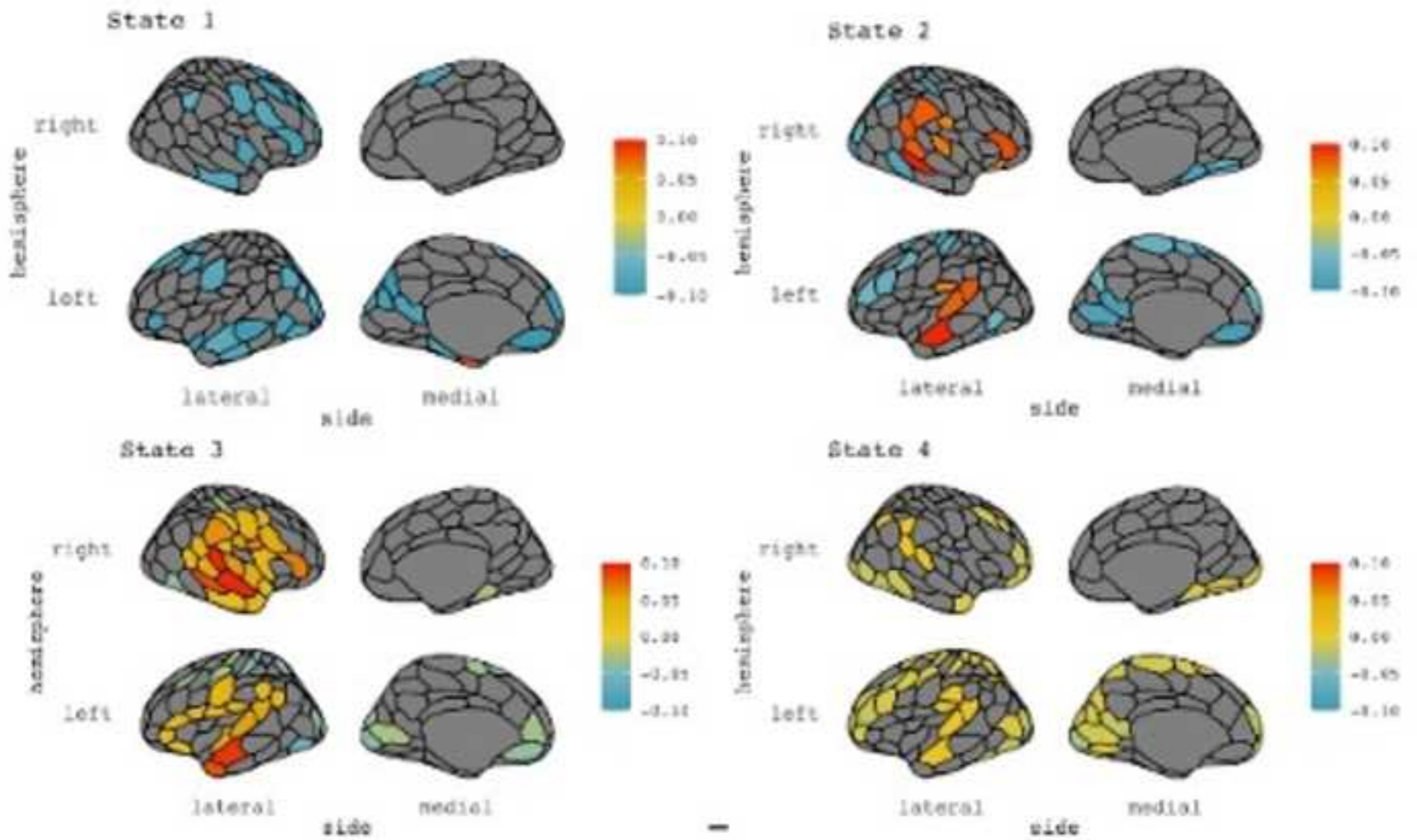
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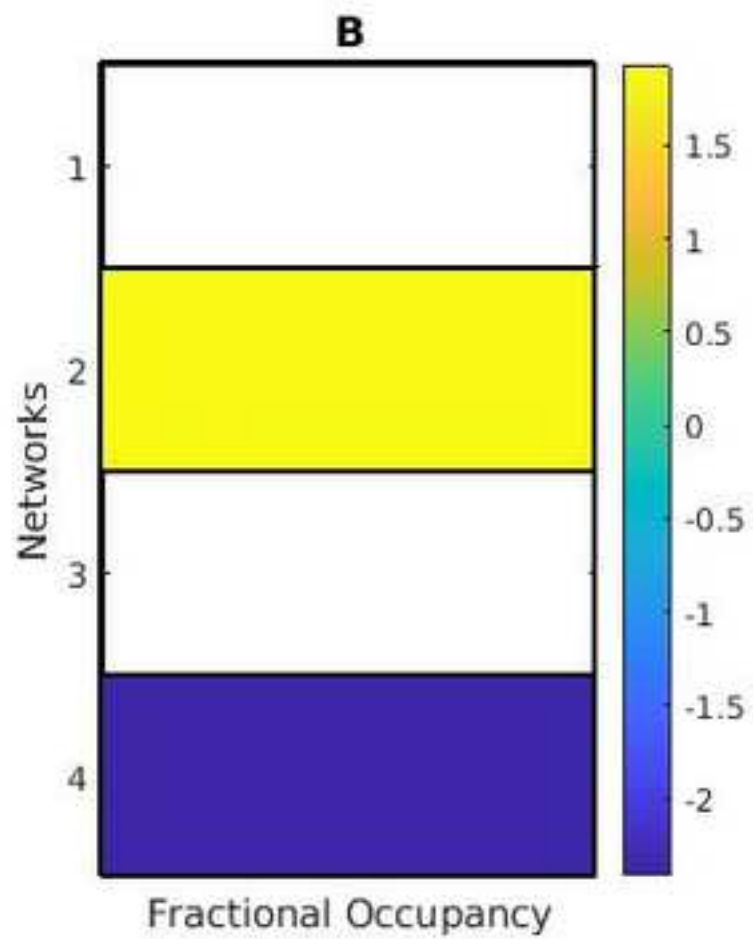
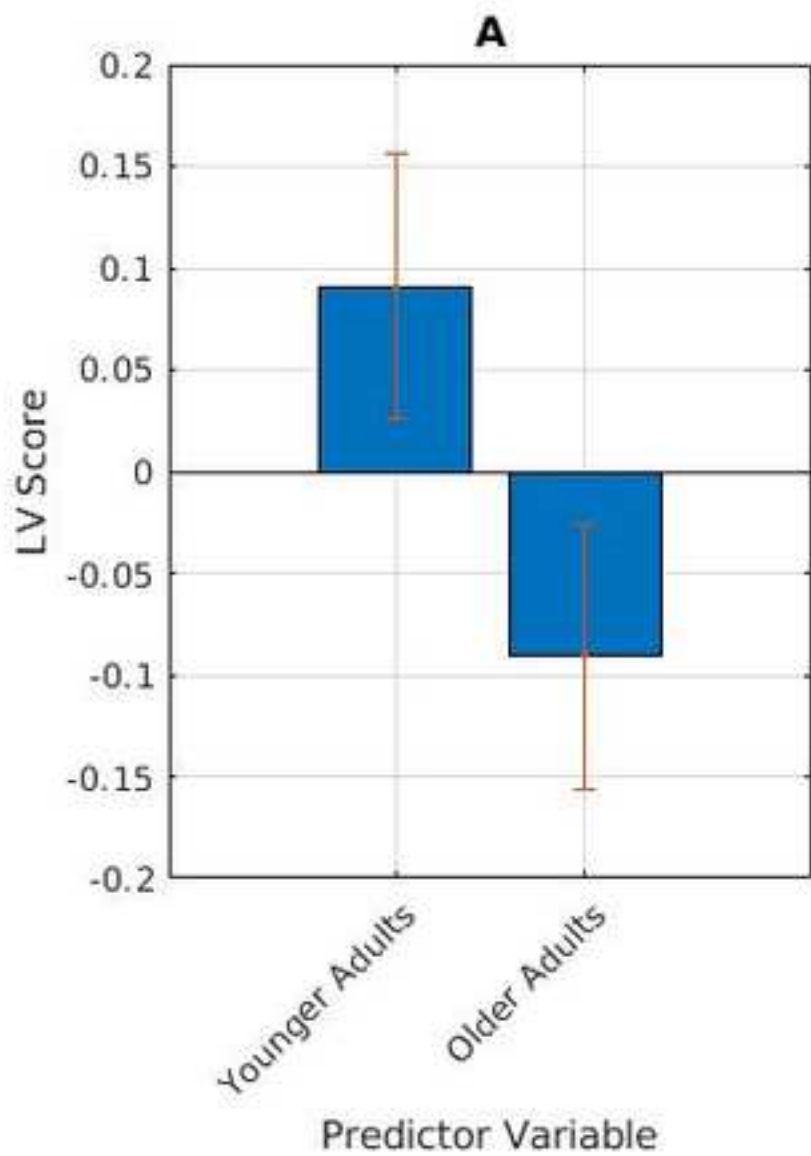
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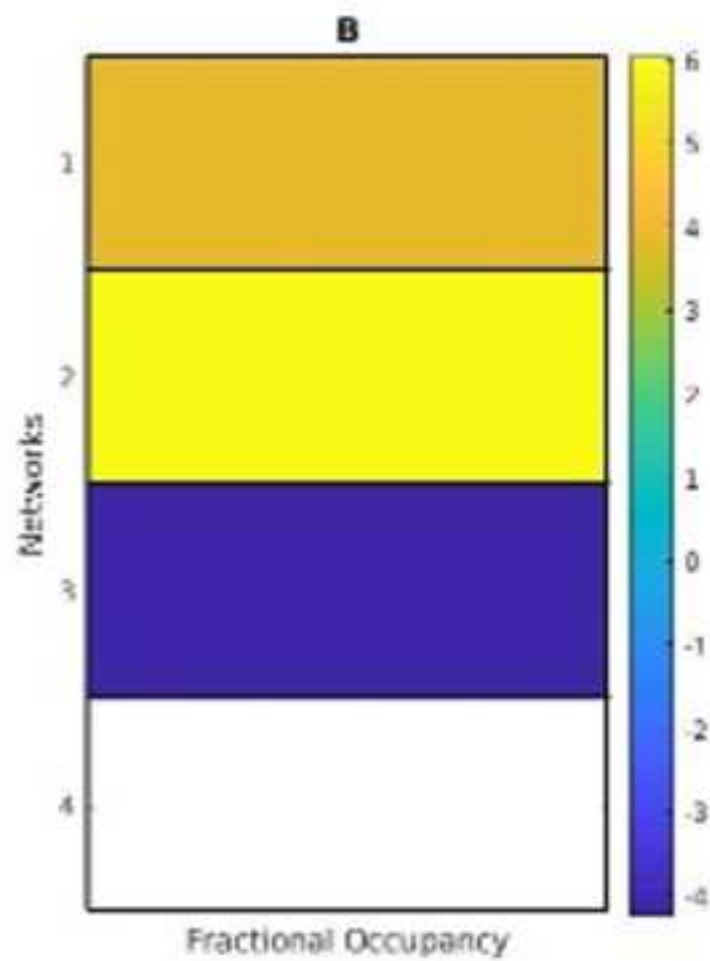
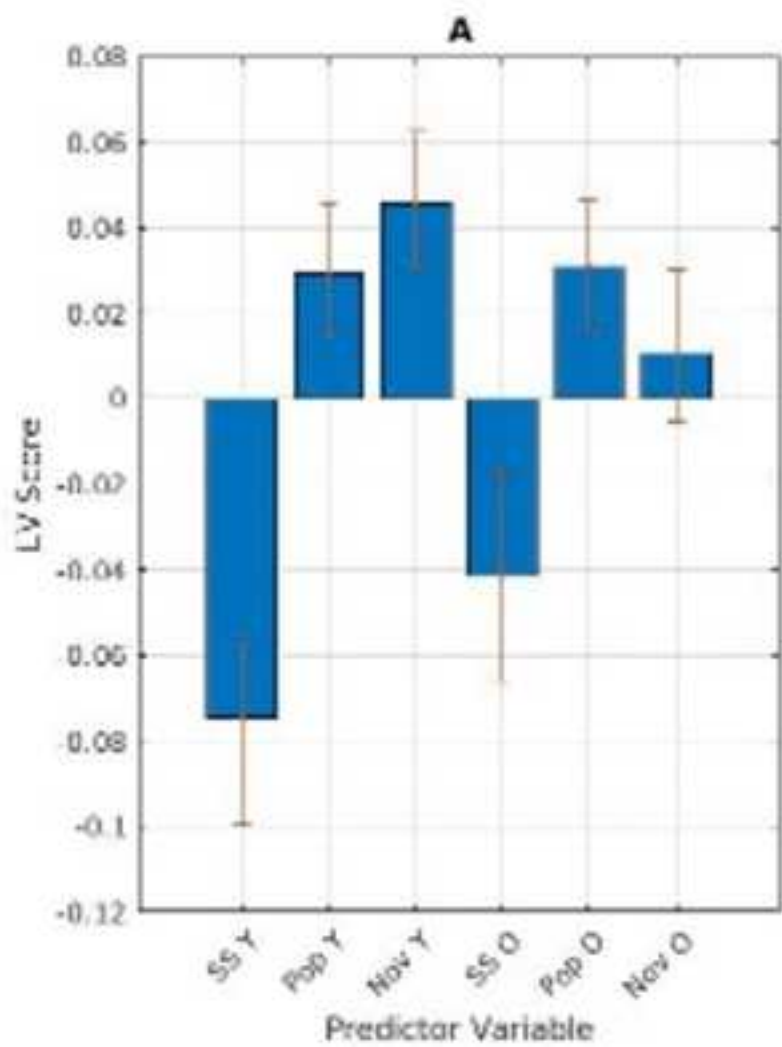
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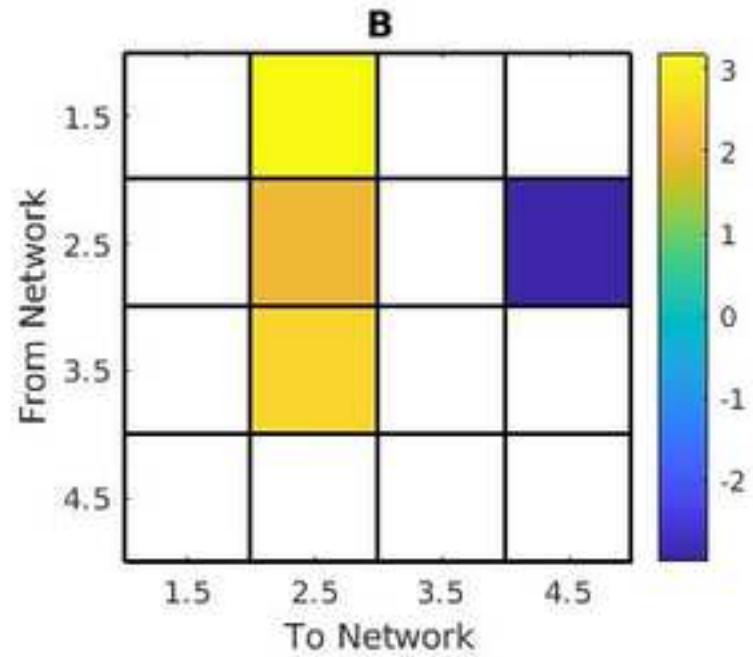
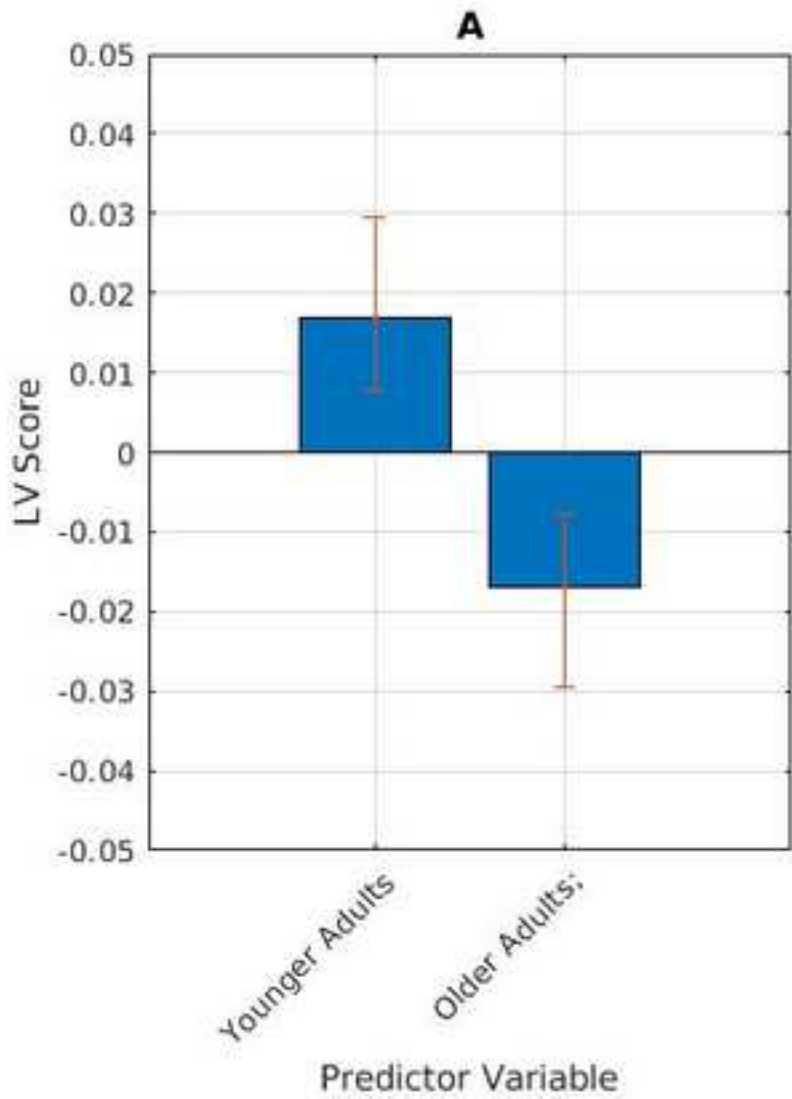
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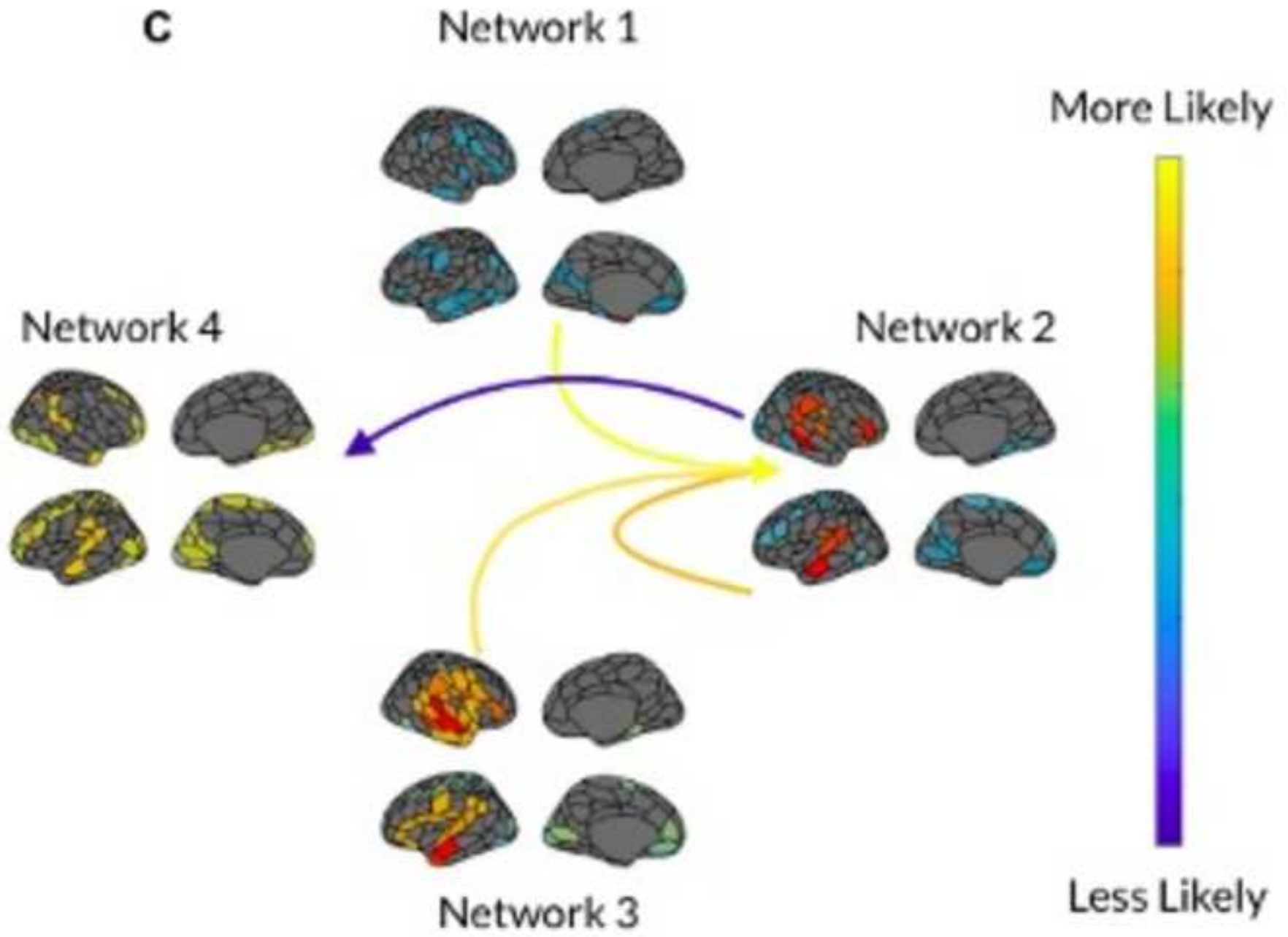
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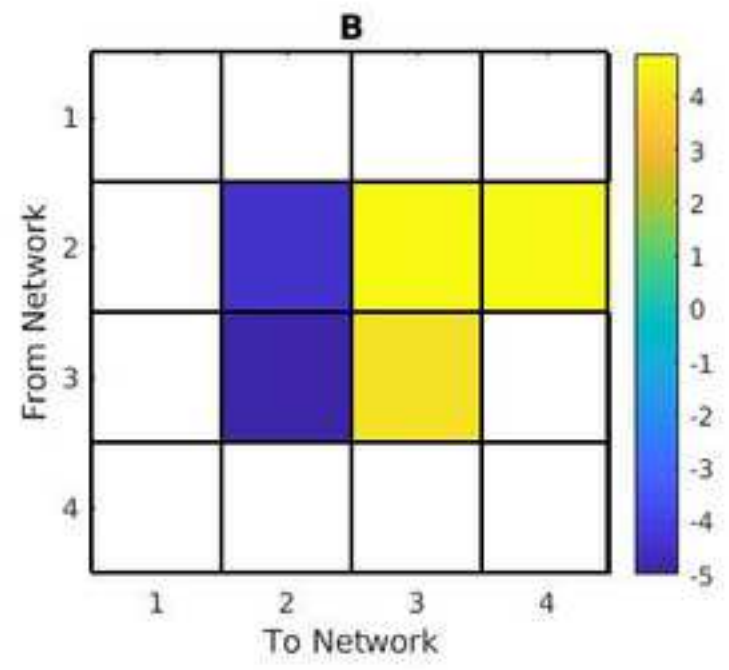
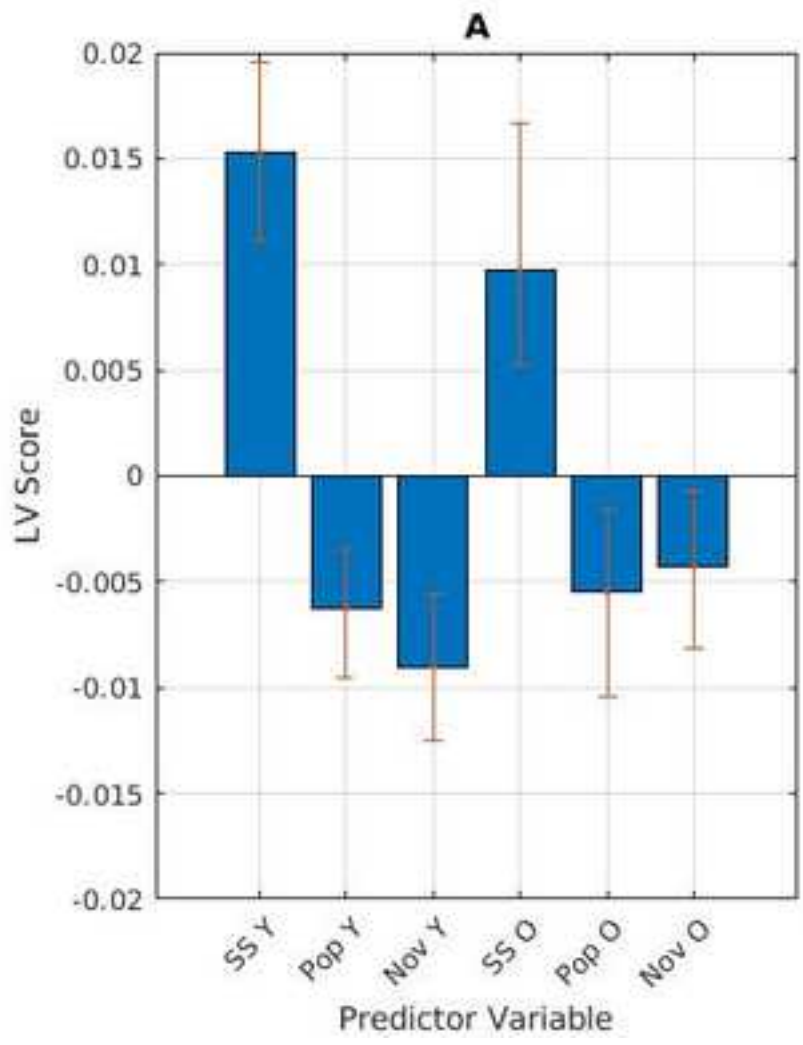


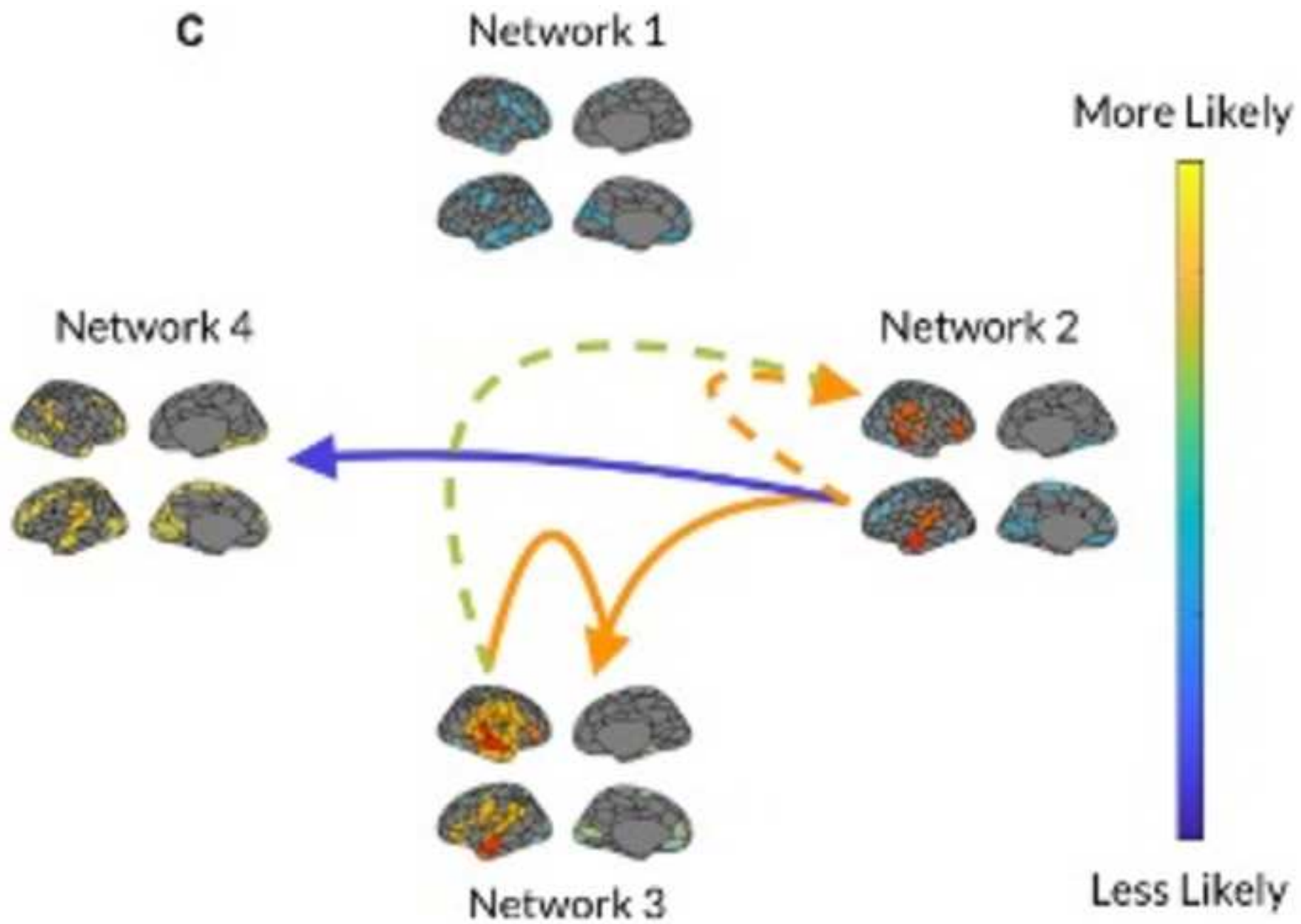


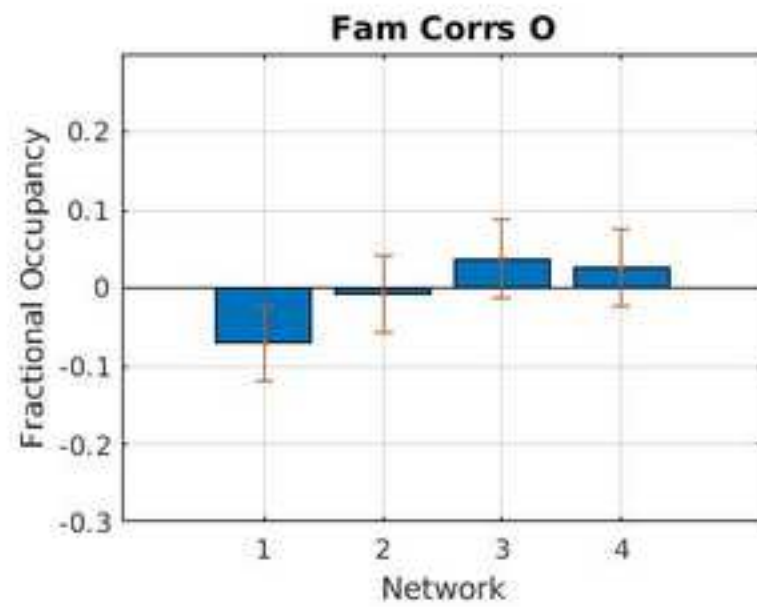
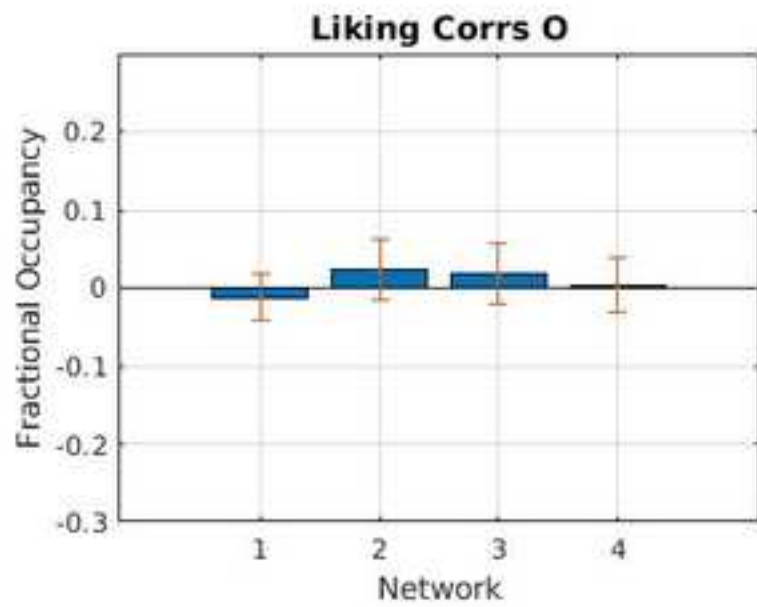
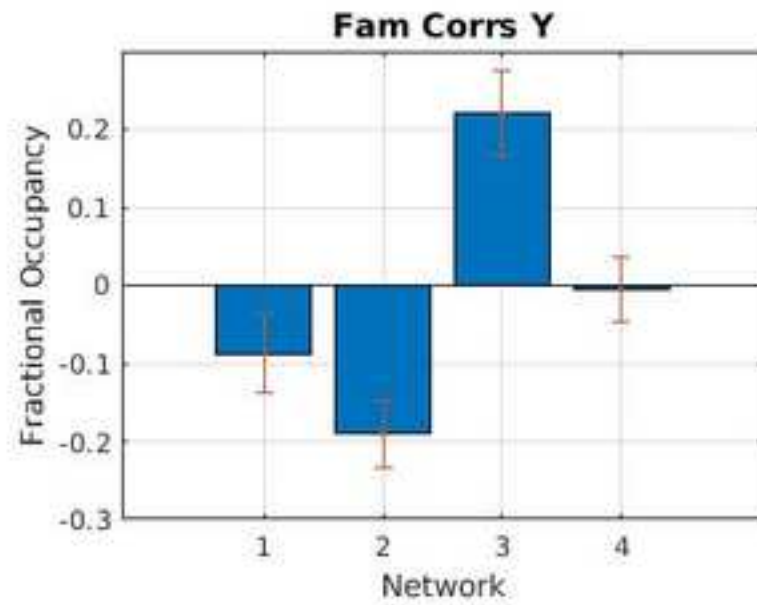
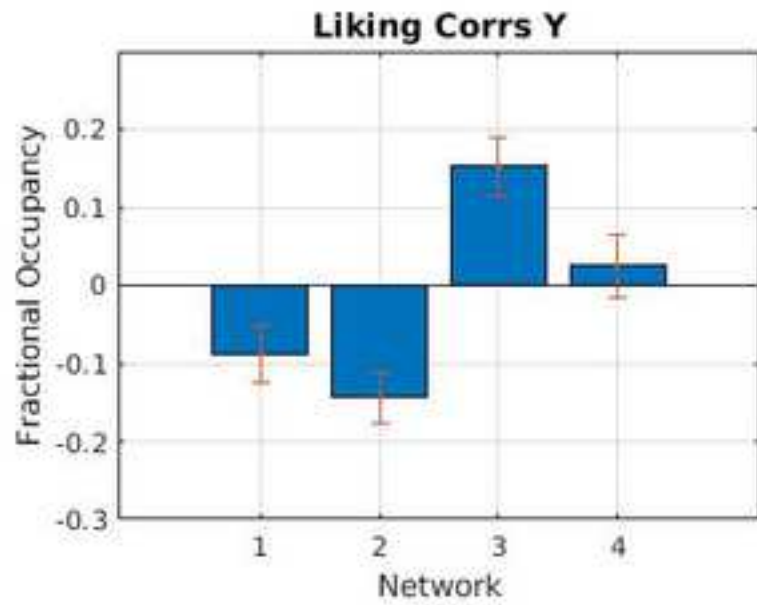


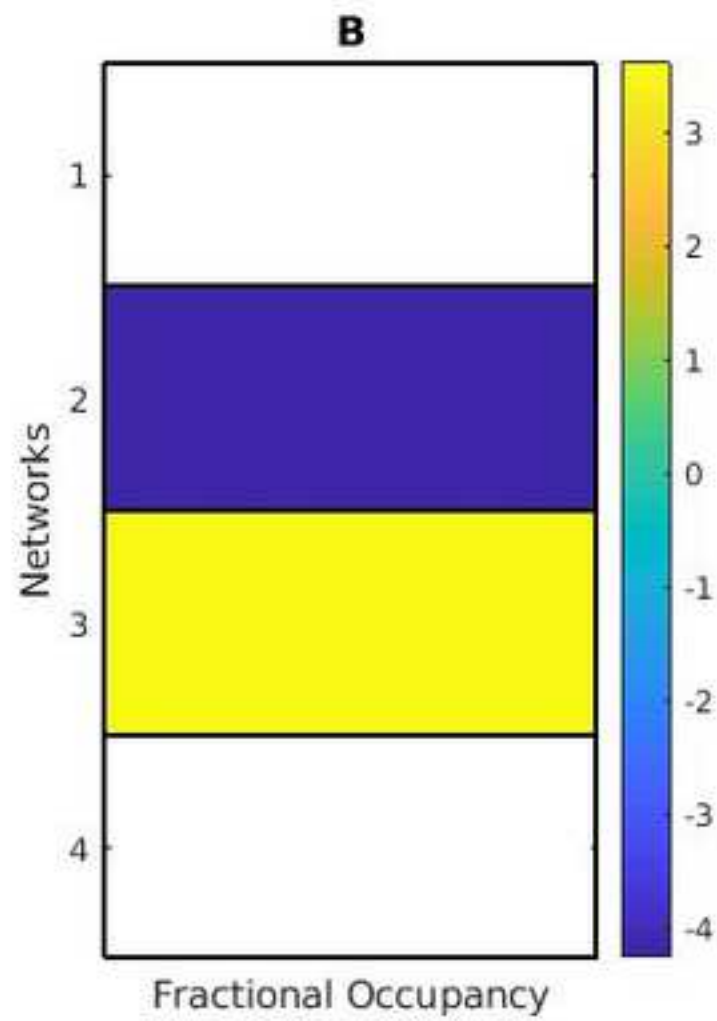
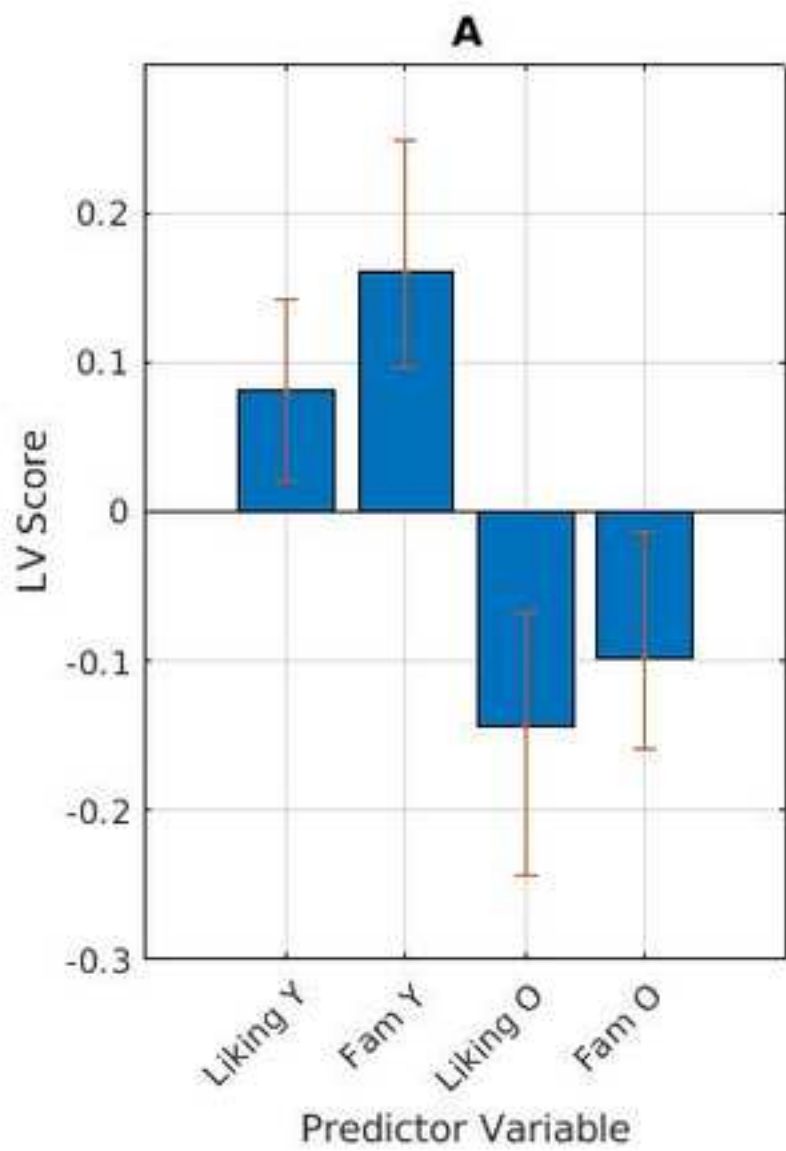


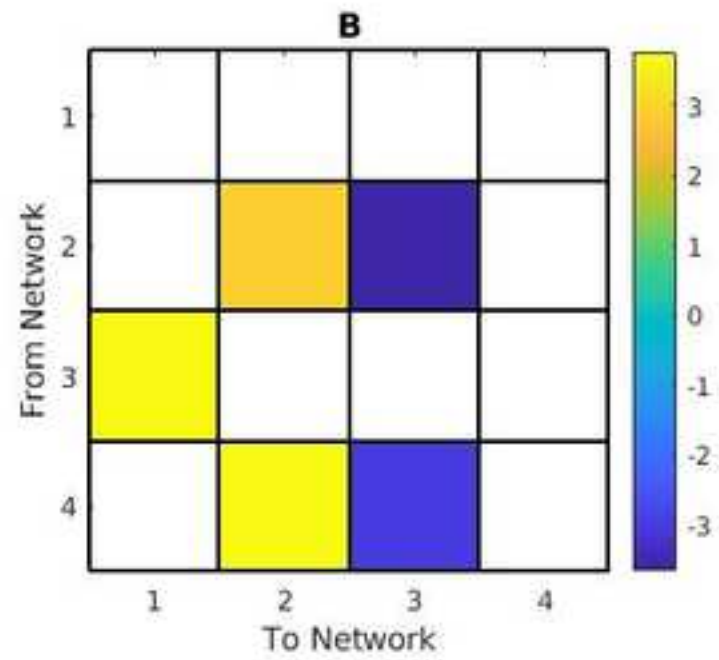
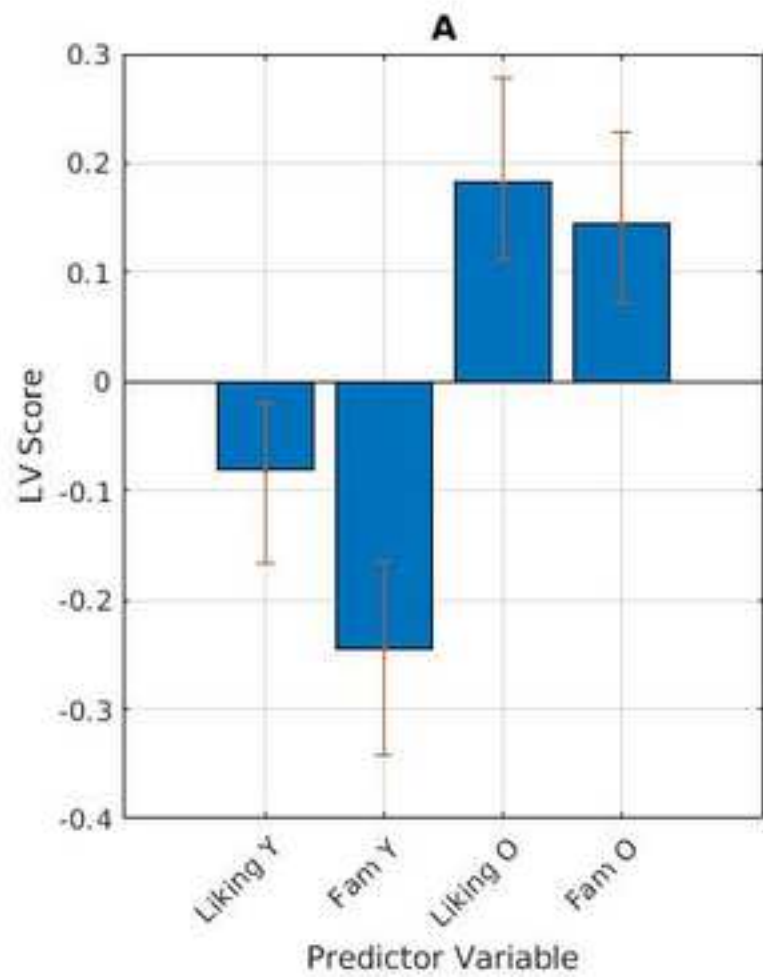


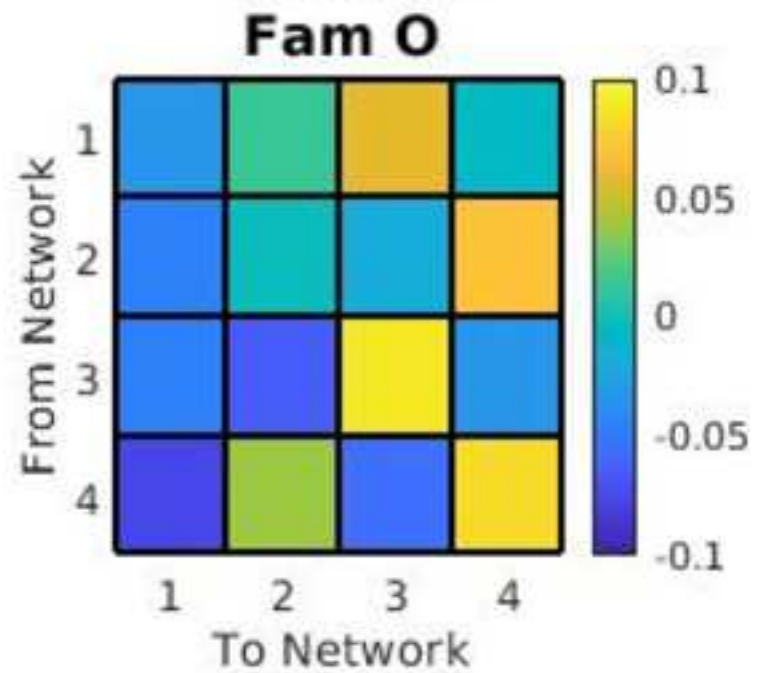
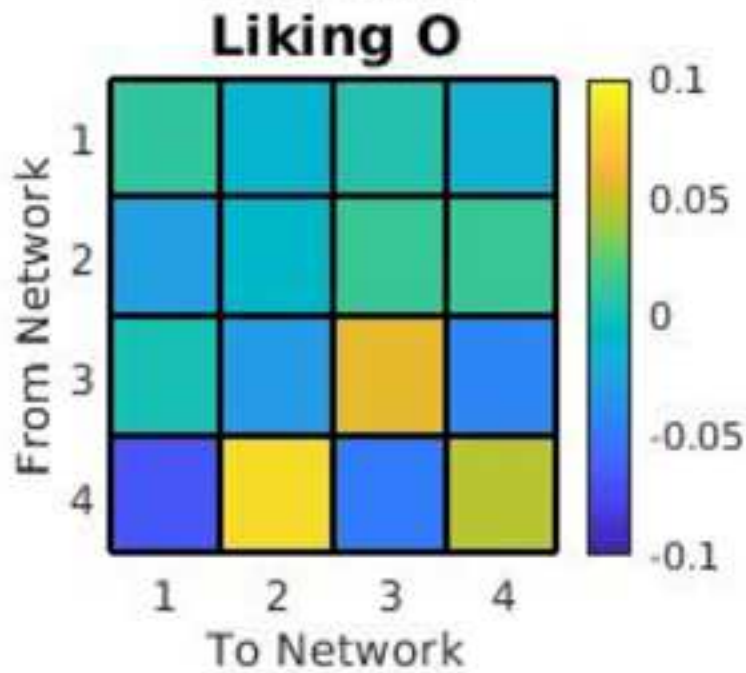
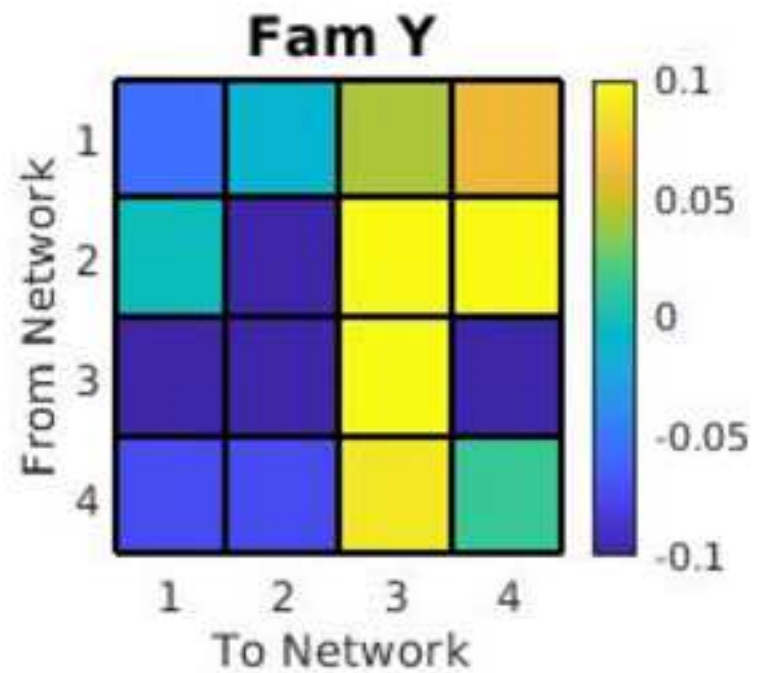
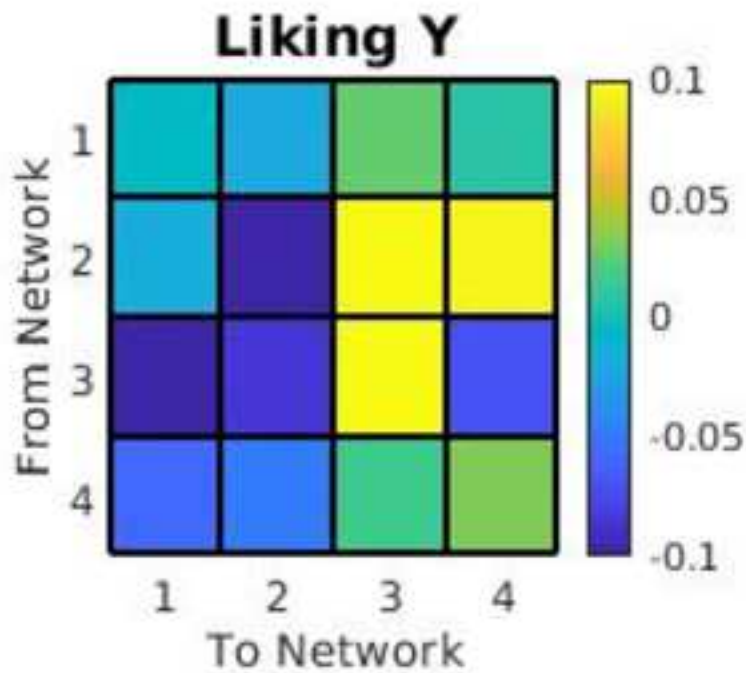












This article explores age-related differences in between-network dynamics during music listening using fMRI data collected from a sample of healthy younger and older adults. We estimated brain networks using Hidden Markov Modelling (HMM) and tested for age- and stimulus-related differences using Partial Least Squares (PLS). HMM returned four functional connectivity networks, including a bilateral temporal network and a bilateral temporal-mesolimbic network. We found differences related to age and stimulus with both age groups spending more time in the temporal-mesolimbic network while listening to familiar, well-liked music. Younger adults' activity in this network was positively correlated with liking and familiarity ratings, but this was not the case for older adults, consistent with past work on age-related dedifferentiation. We conclude that activity in the temporal-mesolimbic network is robust to dedifferentiation and discuss how these conclusions and analysis tools can be of use in future work with clinical populations.