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4 **The dynamic emergence of musical pitch structure in human cortex**

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23

24 **Abstract:**

25 Tonal music the world over is characterized by a hierarchical structuring of pitch, whereby  
26 certain tones appear stable and others unstable within their musical context. Despite its  
27 prevalence, the cortical mechanisms supporting such a percept remain poorly understood.  
28 The current study probed the neural processing dynamics underlying the representation of  
29 pitch in Western Tonal Music. Listeners were presented with tones comprising all twelve  
30 pitch-classes embedded within a musical context whilst having their  
31 magnetoencephalographic (MEG) activity recorded. Using multivariate pattern analysis  
32 (MVPA), decoders attempted to classify the identity of tones from their corresponding MEG  
33 activity at each peristimulus time sample, providing a dynamic measure of their cortical  
34 dissimilarity. Time-evolving dissimilarities between tones were then compared with the  
35 predictions of several acoustic and perceptual models. Following tone onset, we observed a  
36 temporal evolution in the brain's representation. Dissimilarities between tones initially  
37 reflected their fundamental frequency separation, but beyond 200 ms reflected their status  
38 within the *tonal hierarchy* of perceived stability. Furthermore, when the dissimilarities  
39 corresponding to this latter period were transposed into different keys, cortical relations  
40 between keys correlated with the well-known *circle of fifths*. Convergent with fundamental  
41 principles of music-theory and perception, current results detail the dynamics with which the  
42 complex perceptual structure of Western tonal music emerges in human cortex within the  
43 timescale of an individual tone.

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49 **Significance statement:**

50 In music, pitch is organized along a hierarchy of perceived stability. Applying stimulus  
51 decoding techniques to the Magnetoencephalographic activity of subjects during music-  
52 listening, we examined the structure of this hierarchy in cortex and the dynamics with which  
53 it emerges at the timescale of an individual tone. Following its onset, we observed a temporal  
54 evolution in the brain's representation of a tone. Activity initially reflected its pitch-value  
55 (fundamental frequency) before reflecting its status within the *tonal hierarchy* of perceived  
56 stability. 'Transposing' this later period of activity into different musical keys, we found that  
57 inter-key distances reflected the well-known *circle of fifths*. Our results provide a link  
58 between the complex perceptual structure of tonal music and its dynamic emergence in  
59 cortex.

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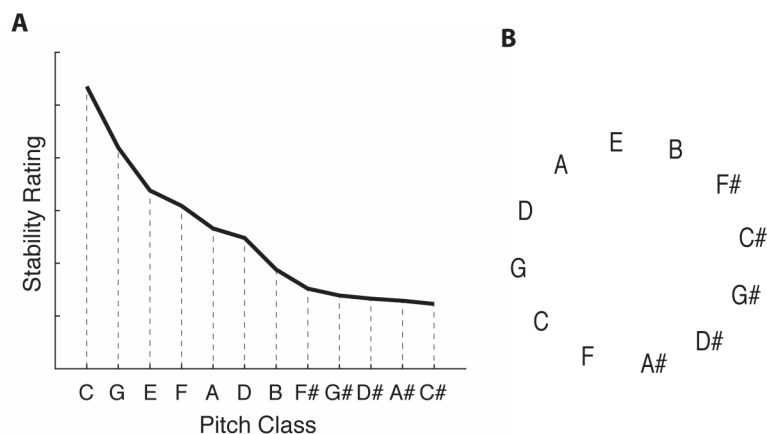
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## 74 Introduction

75 In musical systems throughout the world, pitch is organized hierarchically (1). Depending on  
76 the prevailing *key* or *tonality* of a musical passage, certain pitch-classes occur more  
77 frequently and occupy positions of melodic, harmonic and rhythmic prominence (2).  
78 Perception mirrors this compositional hierarchy, whereby those privileged pitch-classes also  
79 have greater *stability* (3, 4). For example, within the Western key of C major, the first scale  
80 degree (C) is maximally stable and therefore heads the hierarchy. This is followed by the fifth  
81 and third scale degrees (G and E respectively), the other scale tones (D, F, G, A, B), and  
82 finally the non-scale or “out-of-key” tones (C#, D#, F#, G#, A#). We refer to this collective  
83 structure as the *standard tonal hierarchy* (STH; figure 1A).

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86

87 **Figure 1. Perceptual descriptions of tonal structure.** (A) The standard tonal hierarchy  
88 based on listener’s ratings of perceived stability reported in Krumhansl & Kessler (1982).  
89 (B) The “circle of fifths” conveying the relatedness between the different major musical  
90 keys.

91

92 Despite functioning as the principle organizing schema of Western Tonal Music, the neural  
93 substrates supporting the STH remain unknown. After core auditory areas extract basic

94 frequency information from an acoustic signal, a representation of complex pitch is thought  
95 to emerge in lateral auditory regions (5-9). How does this isolated sensory representation then  
96 acquire the perceived attributes of musical pitch? The surrounding musical context must be  
97 integrated, and cortical populations reflecting a prior knowledge of Western tonal structure  
98 must be recruited. Both lesion and neuroimaging studies have identified regions implicated in  
99 the processing of both melodic (10) and harmonic (11-13) structure, while  
100 electrophysiological research has identified cortical response components sensitive to the  
101 hierarchical status of evoking tones (14-15). More recently, Sankaran et al. (2018) (16)  
102 showed that, independent from acoustics, the tonal *class* of pitches can be decoded from their  
103 multivariate patterns of Magnetoencephalographic (MEG) activity, suggesting that the  
104 perceptual structure of musical pitch may be directly recoverable from cortical activity.  
105 Despite these advances, empirical work is yet to map the neural representational space of  
106 musical pitch and explicitly test the predictions of specific perceptual and music-theoretic  
107 models. The current study therefore evaluated two major questions: Firstly, do cortical  
108 populations encode musical pitch in a manner that precipitates the organization of the STH?  
109 Secondly, what are the temporal dynamics with which afferent sensory representations of  
110 pitch interface with high-level tonal-schematic ones?

111

112 To probe these questions, we recorded the MEG activity of subjects listening to each pitch-  
113 class presented within a tonal musical context. We used Multivariate Pattern Analysis  
114 (MVPA) (17) to decode the identity of tones from their corresponding MEG activity. Within  
115 this framework, the accuracy with which classifiers can discriminate between the  
116 spatiotemporal response patterns elicited by two different tones provides an intuitive measure  
117 of their dissimilarity in cortex. As MEG responses were sufficiently time-resolved,  
118 classification was applied using a sliding time window, enabling us to track the temporal

119 dynamics of the neural distinctions between tones. Finally, comparing the time-varying MEG  
120 dissimilarities with the predictions of relevant acoustic and perceptual models of pitch, we  
121 evaluated how the evolving cortical structure between tones relates to stimulus-driven  
122 features and the perceptual organization of the STH.

123

124 In addition to examining the brain's representation of pitch within one key, we also measured  
125 the relationship between different major keys in cortex. This was motivated by the musical  
126 practice of *modulation*, in which a passage shifts from one key to another. In music theory,  
127 inter-key distances are described by the *circle of fifths* (figure 1B). In this arrangement, keys  
128 separated by intervals of a fifth are closest, and the pattern of relatedness folds back on itself  
129 to form a closed circle. Perceptual research has shown that these key-relations emerge when  
130 correlating the STH of different keys with one another (4), suggesting that the cognitive basis  
131 of tonality resides in the “scaffold” of individual pitch relationships rather than the general  
132 accumulation of information across a tonal passage. While prior research has investigated  
133 key-relationships using fMRI (18), the relatively poor temporal resolution prohibits an  
134 understanding of the neural mechanisms underlying the emergence of tonal structure at the  
135 timescale of an individual tone. We therefore derived a neural representation of key-distances  
136 using the measured MEG distinctions between tones. Remarkably, the extent to which two  
137 keys were related in cortex was predicted by the circle of fifths. Thus, convergent with  
138 fundamental principles in both music-theory and perception, current results provide a  
139 neuroscientific conceptualization of how complex tonal structure emerges from individual  
140 pitch-relationships within music.

141

142 **Results and Discussion**

143 Results are derived from MEG recordings during the presentation of twelve different “probe-  
144 tones” that spanned all pitch-classes within an octave range following a C major context (see  
145 methods). Discriminant classifiers attempted to decode the MEG activity of two different  
146 tones at each time-point in the neural epoch (from -100 ms to 1000 ms relative to onset), and  
147 the resulting curve of time-varying accuracy provided a dynamic estimate of the dissimilarity  
148 in their neuronal population codes. Applying this classification procedure to every pairwise  
149 combination of the twelve different tones, we characterized the dynamic representational  
150 structure of musical pitch in cortex.

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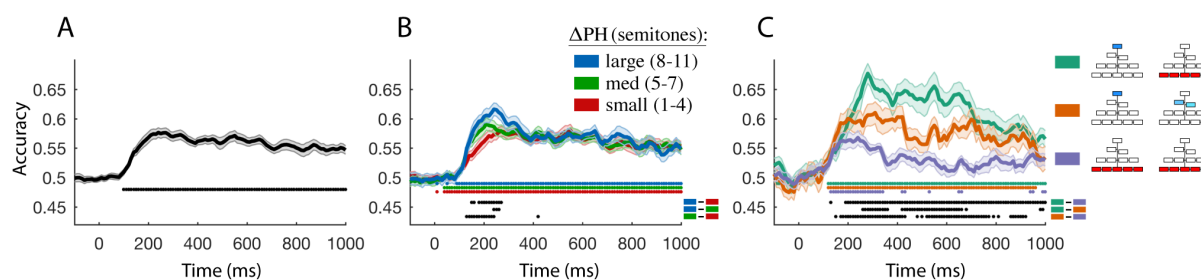
### 152 **Representational structure of musical pitch in cortex**

153 To examine the dynamics of stimulus-specific information in cortex, we first assessed the  
154 average decoding performance when classifying all pairwise combinations of tones (figure  
155 2A). As expected, average accuracy was at chance (50%) prior to the onset of tones ( $t=0$ ) as  
156 stimulus-related information was yet to activate cortex. Following onset, neural distinctions  
157 between tones first emerged at 100 ms. Distinctions were maximal at 250 ms and remained  
158 above chance for the full extent of the neural epoch.

159

160 Next, we studied the dissimilarity between specific tones whose acoustic or perceptual  
161 properties generated explicit predictions regarding their representational distance. Firstly, as  
162 tones acoustically differed from one another, we reasoned that their distinctions in cortex  
163 may be commensurate with their fundamental frequency ( $f_0$ ) separation, which we term *pitch-*  
164 *height* (PH). Decoding performance was therefore examined for pairwise combinations of  
165 tones grouped based on whether their PH difference was small (1–4 semitones), medium (5–7  
166 semitones), or large (8–11 semitones). A period from approximately 100 to 250 ms was  
167 found in which the above hypothesis held true (figure 2B). For example, cortical distinctions

168 between tones that had large PH differences (blue curve) significantly exceeded those  
169 between tones that had small PH separation (red curve). Secondly, in addition to acoustic  
170 differences, tones differed in their perceived stability given the preceding musical context.  
171 We therefore hypothesized that distinctions in their cortical encoding may honor their  
172 perceptual differences, embodied by the *Standard Tonal Hierarchy* (STH) of stability. If so,  
173 MEG decoding performance would be greatest for tones located at opposite ends of the  
174 hierarchy, and poorest for tones that are hierarchically equal. In general, results confirmed  
175 this hypothesis (figure 2C). MEG responses to the most stable tone [C] were highly distinct  
176 from those of the unstable tones [F#, G#, D#, A#, C#] (green curve), but less discriminable  
177 from those of the second and third most stable tones [G and E respectively] (orange curve).  
178 Additionally, classifiers performed poorly when attempting to distinguish the neural activity  
179 of unstable tones from one another (purple curve). These results suggest that the extent to  
180 which the cortical activity elicited by two tones differ corresponds to the difference in their  
181 position within the STH. Unlike the earlier neural distinctions based on pitch-height, the  
182 correspondence between decoding accuracy and hierarchical distance only emerged  
183 approximately 200 ms after onset and persisted throughout the duration of the neural epoch.  
184



185  
186 **Figure 2. Temporal decoding of tones from evoked MEG responses.** The time axis in all  
187 plots are aligned to onset of tones. (A) Average classification accuracy for decoding all  
188 pairwise combinations of the twelve tones. (B) Average classification accuracy when  
189 decoding tone-pairs grouped based on their pitch-height separation: large (8-11 semitones;



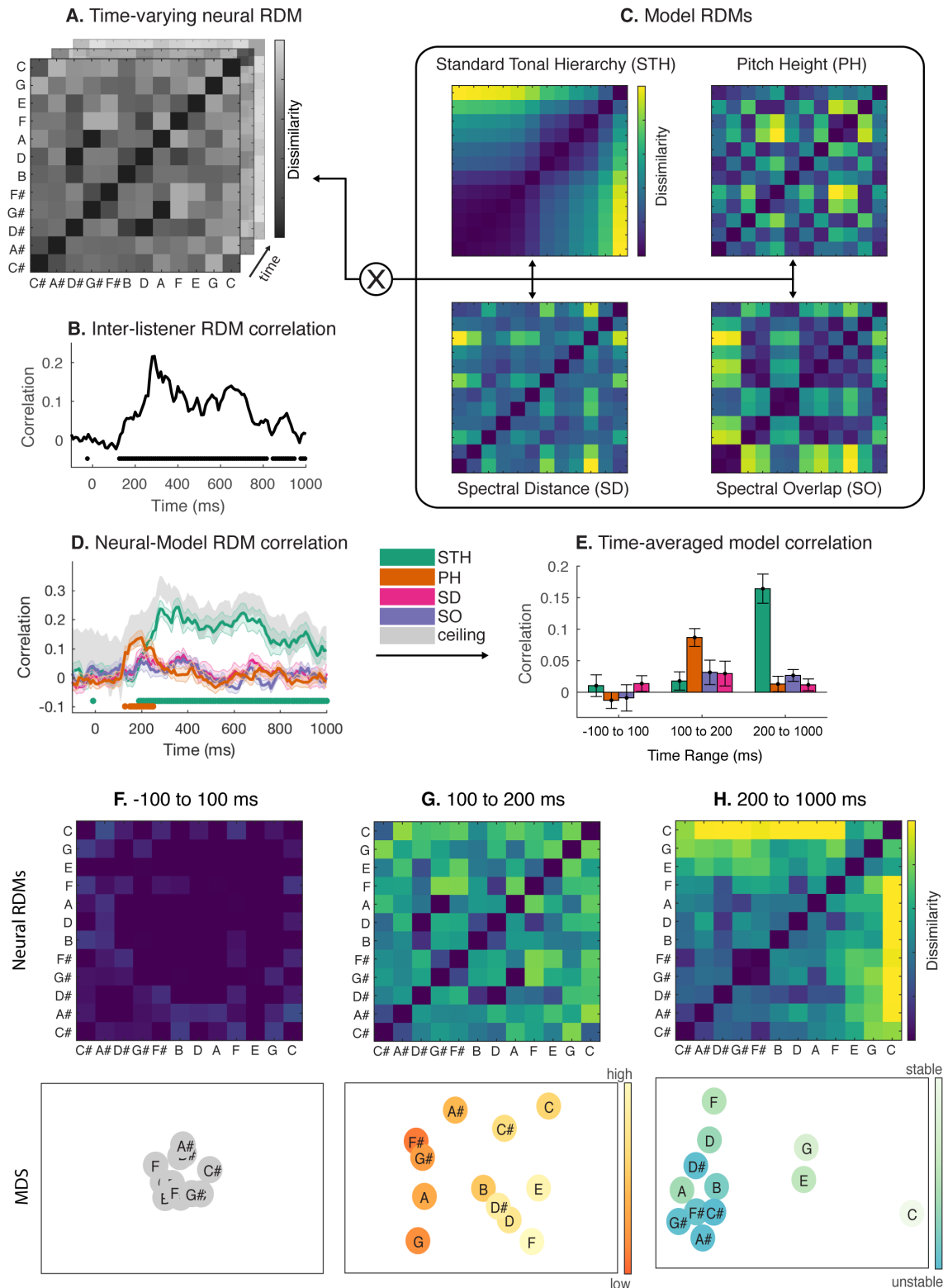
190 blue), medium (5-7 semitones; green) and small (1-4 semitones; red). (C) Classification of  
191 tone-pairs grouped based on their difference in the hierarchy of perceived stability: large  
192 difference (green), medium difference (orange), and little-to-no difference (purple). Colored  
193 boxes in the schematic legend specify the hierarchical position of tones being decoded for  
194 each curve, with blue and red boxes indicating stable and unstable tones respectively. Results  
195 in plots B-C are averaged across all appropriate pairwise combinations of tones. Colored  
196 markers underneath curves in B-C indicate timepoints when decoding performance differs  
197 significantly from chance levels ( $p < 0.05$ ; Wilcoxon sign-rank tests, FDR corrected). Black  
198 markers indicate timepoints during which two decoding curves, specified by the bottom-right  
199 colored boxes, are significantly different from one another. Shaded regions indicate standard  
200 errors across all participants (N=18).

201  
202 The results of MVPA suggest that early cortical distinctions between tones reflect their  
203 absolute pitch (i.e.  $f_0$ ) differences, while later distinctions reflect the musical pitch structure  
204 of the STH. We next sought to explicitly test this hypothesis within the framework of  
205 *representational similarity analysis* (RSA) (19). The set of dissimilarities corresponding to  
206 all pairwise combinations of tones were indexed in a time-varying *representational*  
207 *dissimilarity matrix* (RDM; figure 3A). For a given subject and timepoint, each cell of the  
208 diagonally symmetric RDM indicates the cortical dissimilarity between the tones indexed by  
209 the cell's row and column. We found that the RDMs of individual subjects were correlated  
210 with one another from 100 ms onwards (figure 3B), verifying that the representational  
211 structure was consistent across listeners over the same temporal extent in which average  
212 stimulus-distinctions (in figure 3A) were apparent.

213

214 Next, we evaluated the predictive capacity of several models that attempt to explain the  
215 observed structure of time-varying cortical RDMs. Each model was coded as a candidate  
216 RDM, making its predictions about the expected dissimilarities between tones explicit (figure  
217 3C). One candidate RDM was based on the *Standard Tonal Hierarchy (STH)*, where  
218 distances between tones corresponded to their difference in perceived stability, as reported by  
219 Krumhansl & Kessler (1982) (4). Another candidate RDM coded for differences in *Pitch*  
220 *Height (PH)* in order to evaluate whether distinctions between tones were driven by their  $f_0$   
221 separation. We additionally tested two purely sensory models; one based on the *Spectral*  
222 *Distance (SD)* between tone-pairs, and another based on the differences in their *Spectral*  
223 *Overlap (SO)* with the preceding musical context (see methods for details). Each listener's  
224 cortical RDM at every time point was compared with the four-different candidate RDMs  
225 using a rank-order correlation measure, resulting in four curves tracking neural-model  
226 correlation across time (figure 3D). Consistent with the earlier findings from MVPA, the PH  
227 and STH models significantly explained cortical RDMs in early (100 – 250 ms) and later  
228 (190 ms onwards) regions of neural processing respectively. Crucially, both PH and STH  
229 correlations closely tracked the noise ceiling (20), indicating that these models offered  
230 optimal predictive power given the noise levels inherent in the MEG data (see methods). The  
231 temporal order of model correlations is consistent with dominant conceptions of melodic  
232 processing, which posit the extraction of complex pitch before the integration and analysis of  
233 broader tonal-harmonic structure (21). Interestingly, from 190 to 250 ms, PH and STH  
234 models were both significantly correlated with cortical RDMs, suggesting an intermediary  
235 period during which the brain holds a combined representation of both the tone's  $f_0$  and pitch-  
236 class.  
237

238 To better visualize the above results, neural-model correlations were averaged into three time  
239 bins (figure 3E): the first corresponded to a period before stimulus-specific information was  
240 present in cortical activity (-100 to 100 ms); the second corresponded to the period during  
241 which cortical structure was most strongly correlated with PH differences (100 to 200 ms);  
242 and the third corresponded to the remainder of the neural epoch, during which cortical  
243 structure reflected the STH (200 to 1000 ms). Time-averaged neural RDMs corresponding to  
244 each of the three bins are displayed in the top panels of figure 3F-H. To more intuitively  
245 visualize their dissimilarity structure, we applied multidimensional scaling (MDS) to each  
246 RDM, obtaining a 2-dimensional solution in each case (Figure 3F-H; bottom panel). The  
247 MDS solution in figure 3G clearly demonstrates the organization of pitch from low to high as  
248 the space is traversed from upper-left to lower-right respectively. Similarly, the spatial  
249 organization of the MDS solution in figure 3H illustrates many key properties of the STH.  
250 Traversing the space from right to left reveals the structure of the hierarchy, with the most  
251 stable pitch-class (C) situated on the right side, closest to the next most stable classes (G and  
252 E) but distant from the cluster of unstable classes (F#, G#, D#, A#, C#) in the lower left  
253 corner. Prior behavioral research has underscored the perceptual primacy of this hierarchical  
254 arrangement (4). Our findings now provide evidence of its origins in the cortex and reveal the  
255 temporal dynamics with which it emerges from the acoustic signal via an intermediate  
256 representation of pitch-height.  
257



258

259 **Figure 3. Representational similarity analysis of pitch-class.** (A) Neural representational  
 260 similarity matrix (RDM) indexing measured cortical dissimilarities between pairs of pitch-  
 261 classes at each time point in the neural epoch. (B) The mean rank-order correlation between  
 262 the RDMs of individual listeners (N=18). Significant time points are indicated underneath

263 the curve ( $p < 0.05$ ; randomization test, FDR corrected). (C) Four different candidate RDMs  
264 based on models that attempt to explain neural dissimilarities. (D) Rank-order correlations  
265 between each model and neural RDMs at each time point. Shaded regions indicate standard  
266 errors across listeners. Significant time points are indicated by colored markers beneath  
267 curves ( $p < 0.05$ ; Wilcoxon sign-rank tests, FDR corrected). (E) For visualization purposes,  
268 neural-model RDM correlations were averaged across three different peristimulus time bins.  
269 (F-H) Average neural RDMs (top) and multidimensional scaling solutions (bottom) for the  
270 three regions in E. Colormaps indicate pitch-height (low to high) or perceived stability  
271 (unstable to stable) in G and H respectively.

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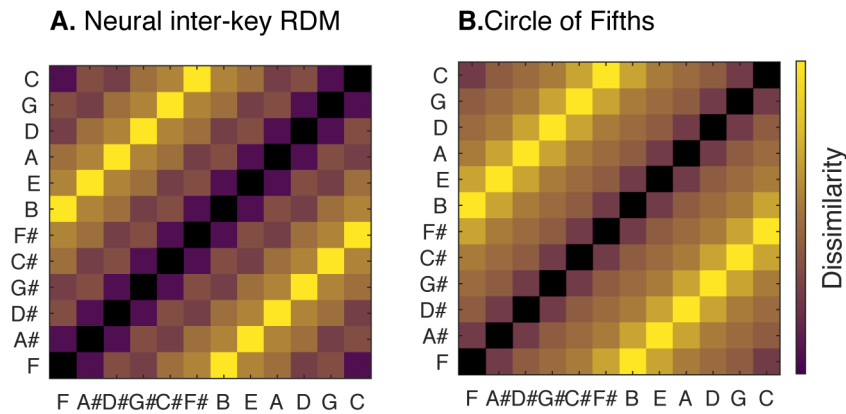
### 273 **Representation of major musical keys in cortex**

274 In tonal music, the perceptual structure that exists between individual pitch-classes is thought  
275 to generate the second-order percept of a harmonic center or “key” (22). Logically therefore,  
276 we reasoned that two keys should be related in the brain to the extent that they impose a  
277 similar neural structure amongst the constituent tones. Adapting the procedure of prior  
278 behavioral research (4) to the neural domain, we next used the MEG-based distinctions  
279 between tones to derive an empirical measure of inter-key distances, comparing the resulting  
280 structure with the *circle of fifths* (figure 1B).

281

282 In order to only capture the cortical processing of tonal-schema in our analysis, neural RDMs  
283 were first averaged across 250–1000 ms; a time during which only the STH model  
284 significantly predicted cortical RDMs. Next, we used MDS to geometrically express the  
285 dissimilarity structure between the twelve tones as points in representational space. An  
286 eleven-dimensional MDS solution was found for each subject’s neural RDM, noting that  $n$   
287 objects will perfectly fit into  $n-1$  dimensions (23). To transpose the representational structure

288 between tones (measured in the key of C major) into different keys, the configuration of  
289 tones was shifted in MDS-space by the appropriate number of steps entailed by a given  
290 transposition. For example, to transpose the MDS structure from C major to G major, the  
291 point representing the tone ‘C’ was shifted to that occupied by ‘G’, the point occupied by  
292 ‘C#’ was shifted to that of ‘G#’, and the process was repeated for all twelve pitch-classes.  
293 The overall dissimilarity between two keys was computed as the mean Euclidean distance  
294 across all twelve tone-translations. Application of this procedure to all pairwise combinations  
295 of the twelve major keys resulted in a cortical *inter-key* RDM in which the rows and columns  
296 correspond to different keys and cells code the corresponding distance between two keys.  
297 The average inter-key RDM across subjects is displayed in figure 4A, alongside a candidate  
298 RDM based on the circle of fifths (figure 4B). Rows and columns are ordered such that  
299 adjacent cells progress in intervals of a fifth. We found that the two structures were  
300 significantly correlated (Kendall’s  $\text{Tau}_A = 0.26$ ;  $p = 0.002$ ) and shared several essential  
301 properties. For example, keys separated by fifths were most proximate (e.g. C major and G  
302 major), while those separated by 6-semitones were most distant (e.g. C major and F# major).  
303 The generative nature of tonal music has been established by decades of perceptual research -  
304 showing that the perceived structure between keys emerges directly from the constituent  
305 structure that exists between tones (24, 25, 26, 22). Current results establish the  
306 neurophysiological basis of this generative property, deriving the same musical key-relations  
307 directly from the MEG response structure to individual tones.  
308



309

310 **Figure 4. Inter-key relationships.** (A) Neural RDM indicating the pairwise distances

311 between the twelve different major keys. (B) A candidate RDM based on the “circle of

312 fifths”.

313

314 We have dynamically characterized distinctions in the spatiotemporal patterns of cortical

315 activity encoding the different classes of Western musical pitch. Our results suggest that, as a

316 tone is received by the auditory system, an evolution exists in the underlying information

317 contained in its cortical population codes. Initially, they represent a localized and intrinsic

318 attribute of the tone. Eventually however, they contain information reflecting its integration

319 with the surrounding context and an acquired knowledge of the pitch-structure of Western

320 tonal music. In elucidating the representational dynamics underlying musical pitch

321 perception, we shed light on the neural underpinnings of domain-general perceptual

322 processes in which incoming sensory signals interact with internal structural knowledge. It

323 remains the goal of future work to further detail the neural computations involved in

324 integrating these two sources of information to arrive at an ultimate percept.

325

326 **Materials & Methods**

327 **Participants.**

328 Eighteen subjects with a minimum of 5 years of formal music training (mean = 11.9 years)  
329 were recruited through the Sydney Conservatorium of Music and Macquarie University to  
330 partake in the study. All subjects reported having no known hearing loss or brain  
331 abnormalities and did not possess absolute pitch. The study was approved by the Human  
332 Research Ethics Committee at Macquarie University (REF 5201300804) and all methods  
333 were carried out in accordance with the stated guidelines. Informed consent was obtained  
334 prior to testing, after all experimental details and potential risks were explained.

335

### 336 **Apparatus.**

337 Data were collected with a whole-head MEG system (Model PQ1160R-N2; KIT, Kanazawa,  
338 Japan) consisting of 160 coaxial first-order gradiometers with a 50 mm baseline (27, 28).  
339 Prior to recording, each participant's head shape was measured with a pen digitizer  
340 (Polhemus Fastrack, Colchester, VT, USA) and the positions of five marker coils on the  
341 surface of the scalp were registered. During recording, MEG data was bandpass filtered  
342 online from 0.1 – 200 Hz using first-order RC filters and digitized at 1000 Hz. Participants  
343 were in a supine position within a magnetically shielded room containing the MEG sensors.  
344 During experimental trials, they were instructed to direct their gaze at a fixation cross. Both  
345 the fixation cross and experimental instructions were projected by an InFocus IN5108 LCD  
346 back projection system (InFocus, Portland, Oregon, USA) to a screen located above the  
347 participant at a viewing distance of 113 cm. Sound stimuli were delivered via Etymonic ER-  
348 30 insert headphones at a sampling frequency of 44.1 kHz.

349

### 350 **Stimuli & Design.**

351 Stimuli were piano tones recorded at 44.1kHz and sampled using Max/MSP (Cycling '74,  
352 San Francisco, CA) to construct tones that were 500ms in duration with an additional 150ms



353 decay. Prior to testing, all tones were passed through a time varying loudness model (29) to  
354 normalize for differences in perceived loudness. For each tone, the maximum short-term-  
355 loudness ( $STL_{max}$ ) was computed and normalized to the mean value of all four tones.  
356 Differences in  $STL_{max}$  between all probe-tones did not exceed 3 phones.  
357 Subjects were presented with a series of trials while having their MEG activity recorded.  
358 Each trial consisted of a tonal context followed by a single tone (hereafter referred to as the  
359 *probe-tone*). The tonal context consisted of four major chords written in four-part harmony  
360 outlining an I-IV-V-I harmonic progression in the key of C major. The context and probe-  
361 tone were separated by a silent period equivalent to one beat (650ms, 92 bpm). This temporal  
362 separation was introduced in order to prevent the sensory processing of the context from  
363 contaminating evoked responses to probe-tones whilst maintaining metric regularity. On a  
364 given trial, the subsequent probe-tone was one of twelve notes spanning the chromatic range  
365 between F#3 (185 Hz) and F4 (349 Hz). This range was chosen to minimize the average  
366 pitch-distance between the probe-tone and its preceding context. On each trial, presentation  
367 of probe-tones was randomized but constrained to avoid repeated presentation across adjacent  
368 trials. To ensure participants were attending to stimuli (30), participants judged whether the  
369 probe-tone on each trial was ‘in-key’ or ‘out-of-key’, registering their response after the  
370 occurrence of the probe-tone by pressing one of two buttons. Participants were instructed to  
371 use their left and right thumbs to register the two respective responses. The mapping of in-  
372 key/out-of-key to left/right button was interchanged every two blocks to control for the  
373 effect, if any, of motor activity on the measured neural responses. No trial-by-trial feedback  
374 was provided during the MEG recording. On average, subjects responded correctly on 78%  
375 of the trials (SD = 16.3%). All trials, including those with incorrect responses, were included  
376 in the subsequent neural analysis (31). Once the response was registered, inter-trial-intervals  
377 were randomly roved between 0.5 - 1 sec. Before testing, subjects completed a training

378 session consisting of 20 trials with an identical behavioral task to that of the main  
379 experiment. Feedback was provided after each training trial and the experimenter ensured  
380 that subjects could perform the task (using a threshold of  $\geq 75\%$  correct) before proceeding to  
381 the MEG recording session. Each participant's MEG data were collected in a single hour-long  
382 session. The total experiment comprised 672 trials, yielding 56 neural observations of each of  
383 the 12 probe-tones. Testing was divided into 8 blocks, each comprised of 84 trials and  
384 separated by one-minute breaks.

385

## 386 **Analysis.**

### 387 *MEG pre-processing.*

388 Pre-processing of MEG data was performed in MATLAB. Data corresponding to each  
389 participant was first epoched from 100 ms before to 1000 ms after onset of probe-tones  
390 before being down-sampled to 100 Hz with a low-pass Chebyshev Type 1 filter. Down-  
391 sampling improved the overall SNR while still retaining a suitable level of temporal  
392 resolution to examine the time course of neural pitch-processing. Next, spatial Principal  
393 Components Analysis (PCA) was applied to the dataset of each participant using the MEG  
394 sensor channels as input features. We retained components that cumulatively explained 99%  
395 of the variance. On average, PCA reduced the dimensionality of datasets from 160 sensor  
396 channels to 28 principle components ( $SD = 5.4$ ). PCA has been found to be an efficient pre-  
397 processing step for optimizing data for MEG decoding analyses (32). In a single step, PCA  
398 reduces the dimensionality of the data, and obviates the need for additional artefact rejection  
399 or de-noising procedures, as classifiers can “learn” to suppress nuisance variables isolated by  
400 PCA, e.g. eye-blinks and environmental noise.

401

### 402 *Multivariate pattern classification of MEG activity.*

403 To measure the neural dissimilarity between tones, we applied Multivariate pattern analysis  
404 (MVPA) (17), whereby a binary classifier learns features of the evoked MEG activity that  
405 best distinguishes two different tones. MVPA was applied to each subject's pre-processed  
406 dataset using MATLAB. Prior to classification, we averaged the MEG responses of 2 trials  
407 within the same pitch category in order to boost the overall SNR of classification (32). We  
408 used a naïve Bayes implementation of linear discriminate analysis (LDA) (33) to perform  
409 classification for each pairwise combination of tones. Generalization of the classifier was  
410 evaluated using k-fold cross validation with a 9:1 training to test ratio. Specifically, MEG  
411 data corresponding to the two classes being classified were randomly assigned to 10 bins of  
412 equal size, with a balanced number of observations from each class in every bin. Next, nine  
413 of the bins were pooled together and used to train the classifier, and the trials in the  
414 remaining bin were used to test the classifier. This procedure was repeated 10 times such that  
415 each bin was utilized for testing once. The reported accuracy is the average across all 10  
416 cross-validation runs. A sliding classification time-window was used on the MEG time-  
417 series, resulting in a curve of classifier accuracy across time that tracks the dynamic  
418 emergence of stimulus-related information in the cortex. The classifier window was 50ms  
419 long and adjacent classification runs traversed the neural epoch in 10ms steps. Importantly,  
420 the neural response at each adjacent time point within the 50 ms window mapped onto a new  
421 dimension in the classification feature space. In this fashion, classifiers not only  
422 discriminated between responses based on their spatial activation patterns at each time, but  
423 also their fine-grained temporal response structure across multiple time-points. Classifier  
424 performance at each time point was evaluated in terms of balanced accuracy (32), whereby  
425 accuracy is evaluated individually for each class and then averaged. Significance at the group  
426 level ( $N = 18$ ) at each time sample was evaluated using two-sided Wilcoxon sign-rank tests

427 ( $p < 0.05$ ). Multiple comparisons were corrected by controlling the false discovery rate (FDR)  
428 (34, 35) with  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

429

### 430 ***Representational similarity analysis of tones.***

431 Application of MVPA as described above to every pairwise combination of the twelve tones  
432 resulted in a 12x12 diagonally symmetric Representational Dissimilarity Matrix (RDM) for  
433 every subject and time sample. To check for consistency across subjects, the mean inter-  
434 subject RDM correlation (figure 3B) was calculated at each time sample by averaging the  
435 rank-order correlation (Kendall's  $\tau_{AB}$ ) (20) of all pairwise combinations of individual  
436 subjects' RDMs (N=18). Significance was assessed by way of randomization testing. Briefly,  
437 the columns of subjects' RDMs were randomly permuted before being correlated, and this  
438 procedure was repeated 1000 times, resulting in a correlation noise floor. Significance was  
439 based on the true mean correlation rising above the 95% distribution of the noise floor (FDR  
440 corrected). Next, MEG RDMs for each subject and at each time sample were compared with  
441 four candidate RDMs coded according to the predictions of several perceptual and sensory  
442 models of pitch. Candidate RDMs were as follows: [1] An RDM based on the *Standard*  
443 *Tonal Hierarchy (STH)* was constructed in which each cell coded the difference in perceived  
444 stability between the two corresponding tones using the major-profile ratings reported in  
445 Krumhansl & Kessler (1982). [2] In order to test the hypothesis that MEG dissimilarities  
446 reflected the difference in each tone's fundamental frequency ( $f_0$ ), we constructed a *Pitch-*  
447 *Height (PH)* RDM, in which each cell corresponded to the semitone difference in  $f_0$  for the  
448 two tones in question. [3] To assess whether neural dissimilarities between tones reflected  
449 their sensory differences, a *Spectral Distance (SD)* RDM was constructed in which each cell  
450 corresponded to the Euclidean distance between the 128-channel stimulus spectrograms of  
451 two tones. Spectrograms for each tone were extracted by passing the raw audio through a

452 biologically inspired model of the auditory periphery (36). The model consisted of three main  
453 stages: (i) a cochlear filter bank comprised of 128 asymmetric filters equally distributed in  
454 log-frequency, (ii) a hair cell stage consisting of a low-pass filter and nonlinear compression  
455 function, and finally (iii) a lateral inhibitory network modelled as a first-order derivative  
456 along the tonotopic axis followed by a half-wave rectifier. (4) Lastly, although the tonal  
457 context and probe-tone were separated by 650ms (see experiment design), models of auditory  
458 short-term memory involve time-constants of up to 4 seconds (37, 38). Thus, it was possible  
459 that neural dissimilarities between tones were driven by the sensory memory of the context.  
460 To test this possibility, we constructed a *Spectral Overlap (SO)* RDM. First, the context  
461 stimulus waveform was passed through the auditory peripheral model described above in  
462 order to obtain a context spectrogram. Next, the Euclidean distance between the context and  
463 each probe-tone was calculated from their respective spectrograms. Each cell in the SO RDM  
464 was then coded as the difference in spectral distance between context and probe-tone for the  
465 two tones in question. Additional perceptual models were considered - for example the “basic  
466 space” of the *Tonal Pitch Space Theory* (25). However, the candidate RDMs arising from  
467 such models shared an identical rank-order structure to that of the STH and were therefore  
468 precluded from the analysis. Using the framework of Representational Similarity Analysis  
469 (RSA) (19), we studied the brain’s emerging representation by comparing each candidate  
470 RDM with the empirical time-varying MEG RDM (see statistical analysis below).  
471 Correlations between neural and model RDMs were assessed by computing a rank-order  
472 correlation measure (Kendall’s  $\tau_A$ ). We used the ‘noise ceiling’ as a benchmark for testing  
473 model performance (20). The noise ceiling uses inter-subject variance in RDMs to estimate  
474 the magnitude of the expected correlation between a “true” model RDM and the empirical  
475 RDM given measurement noise. To visualize the structure of RDMs, Multidimensional  
476 Scaling (MDS) was applied using Kruskal’s normalized stress 1 criterion.

477

478 ***Representational similarity analysis of musical keys.***

479 Inter-key distances in the cortex were derived by adapting the analytical approach established  
480 in Krumhansl & Kessler (1982) (4) to the neural domain. First, MEG RDMs from 250 – 1000  
481 ms were averaged to obtain a single time-averaged neural RDM for each subject. In order to  
482 geometrically express the RDM distances between tones as points in representational space,  
483 we applied nonmetric MDS to the time-averaged RDMs of each subject. Because  $n$  objects  
484 will always fit into  $n-1$  dimensions (23), MDS solutions were obtained in eleven dimensions.  
485 Accordingly, all solutions had stress equal to zero, indicating that the MDS decomposition  
486 perfectly preserved distance information in the RDMs. To transpose the representational  
487 structure between the twelve tones into different keys, the twelve points corresponding to  
488 each pitch-class were shifted in MDS-space by the appropriate number of steps implicated by  
489 the transposition. For example, to transpose the MDS structure from C major to G major  
490 (seven semitone steps), the point representing the tone ‘C’ was shifted to that occupied by  
491 ‘G’, the point occupied by ‘C#’ was shifted to that of ‘G#’, and the process was repeated for  
492 all twelve pitch-classes. The distance between two keys was then defined as the mean  
493 Euclidean distance between the original and new positions of all twelve tones. In this fashion,  
494 distances were computed between all twelve major keys, resulting in a neural inter-key RDM  
495 for each subject, in which rows and columns correspond to different musical keys and each  
496 cell codes the corresponding distance between two keys (figure 4A). Finally, neural inter-key  
497 RDMs of each subject were rank-order correlated (using Kendall’s  $\tau_A$ ) with a candidate  
498 inter-key RDM based on the circle of fifths (figure 4B).

499

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505

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