

1 Karageorghis, C. I., Ekkekakis, P., Bird, J. M., & Bigliassi, M. (2017). Music in the
2 exercise and sport domain: Conceptual approaches and underlying mechanisms.
3 In M. Lesaffre, Pieter-J. Maes, & M. Leman (Eds.), *Routledge companion to*
4 *embodied music interaction* (pp. 284–293). Routledge.
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7 **Music in the Exercise and Sport Domain:**
8 **Conceptual Approaches and Underlying Mechanisms**
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25
26 **“I like Lil Wayne, Jay-Z, a little bit of Ludacris, those guys ...that's who we listen**
27 **to in Jamaica. As long as it's hot, we got it!”**

28 **Usain Bolt (World’s fastest man)**
29

30 **Introduction – An Overview of Music in Exercise and Sport**

31 Casual observers cannot help but notice the almost symbiotic relationship between
32 music and physical activity that has emerged in the modern era. This relationship has
33 been fueled by rapid development in the technology that underlies music delivery—
34 from gramophone records to live internet streaming at the level of the individual—and
35 a growing recognition that well-selected music can both enhance and enrich the
36 experience of physical activity. In the exercise domain, music is harnessed to block
37 negative bodily signals from entering focal awareness, elevate affective states, and as
38 a rhythmic cue that can prolong physical effort. In the sport domain, music is used to
39 prime athletes, expedite their recovery from training, engender a sense of cohesion in
40 teams, and heighten the emotional experience of spectators.
41

1 This chapter will cover key concepts and theoretical frameworks that pertain to the
2 study and application of music in exercise and sport. Among these will be a recent
3 theoretical model that addresses the antecedents, moderators, and consequences of
4 music use (Karageorghis, 2016), the dual-mode model of exercise-related affect
5 (Ekkekakis, 2003, 2005), relevant models of information processing (Rejeski, 1985),
6 attention (Tenenbaum, 2001), and the principles of rhythmic entrainment (Thaut,
7 2008). We will then explore putative underlying neurophysiological and
8 psychophysiological mechanisms that pertain to exercise-related affect, the
9 moderating influence of exercise intensity on attentional dissociation, and efficiency
10 gains derived through auditory-motor synchronization. Recent studies will be briefly
11 reviewed with an emphasis on the main implications for practice. The concluding
12 section will recapitulate key messages from the extant literature and provide the
13 scientist-practitioner with a range of evidence-based recommendations.

14

15 **Underlying Concepts and Theories**

16

17 In the exercise and sport domain, researchers have typically explored the
18 *psychological*, *psychophysical*, *psychophysiological*, and *ergogenic* effects of music.
19 *Psychological* effects entail the influence that music has on core affect (feelings of
20 pleasure or displeasure) and emotion, cognition, and behavior. The *psychophysical*
21 effects of music concern the perception of one's physical state; most often assessed
22 using one of Gunnar Borg's rating of perceived exertion (RPE) scales (e.g.,
23 Hutchinson, Karageorghis, & Jones, 2015; Lim, Karageorghis, Romer, & Bishop,
24 2014). *Psychophysiological* effects pertain to the impact of music on physiological
25 functioning (e.g., heart rate, oxygen uptake, and blood lactate). Music has an
26 *ergogenic* effect when it inspires higher than expected power output, endurance, or
27 productivity.

28

29 A theory and accompanying model founded on the principles of embodied music
30 interaction were recently advanced to predict the effects of music in the exercise and
31 sport domain (Karageorghis, 2016; see Figure 1). The model is instructive rather than
32 mechanistic in nature and provides the scientist-practitioner with a holistic
33 visualization of the relationships identified by researchers in this context. The musical
34 factors are referred to as "antecedents" because they precede our responses to the

1 “musical whole” and are divided into two categories: *intrinsic* factors relate to the
2 constituent components of music (e.g., rhythmic and harmonic features) and *extrinsic*
3 factors relate to contextual associations of the sound (i.e., how they relate to a
4 particular setting, situation, or set of circumstances). Moreover, the musical factors
5 are set in a hierarchical structure; the intrinsic factors are suggested to be more
6 influential than the external factors in determining how an individual will respond to a
7 piece of music in exercise and sport settings.

8

9

Insert Figure 1 about here

10

11 There are a number of personal and situational factors that are proposed to moderate
12 how a person responds to a piece of music. In contrast to the musical factors, the
13 personal and situational factors are not arranged in a hierarchy owing to a lack of
14 empirical research that would inform a hierarchical structure. The use of music in the
15 exercise and sport context should comply with, or be carefully selected in accordance
16 with, the tasks and specifics of a session. Accordingly, there is a reciprocal
17 relationship between the personal and situational factors, which is in accord with the
18 principles of embodied music interaction.

19

20 Personal factors such as musical preferences and attentional style (i.e., associator vs.
21 dissociator) interact with the situational factors to determine an individual’s response
22 to music. To illustrate, an exerciser might display a preference for slow, calming
23 music when participating in a Pilates class but prefer fast, uplifting music when
24 participating in a Boxercise class, owing to the differing exercise intensities involved
25 (a task-related factor). Along similar lines, associators are likely to use music as a
26 type of metronome with which to regulate their movement patterns (a task-related
27 factor) should the beat coincide with their intended work rate (Hutchinson &
28 Karageorghis, 2013).

29

30 The consequences refer to the main outcomes associated with music use in the
31 exercise and sport domain. The strongest and most consistent sets of consequences
32 appear first (i.e., psychological and psychophysical consequences are by far the most
33 frequently reported). Researchers have indicated that many of the consequences can
34 be experienced in tandem. For example, well-selected music can result in a more

1 positive affective state that is coupled with elevated work output (Elliott, Carr, &
2 Savage, 2004). The outcomes experienced by exercisers or athletes will influence
3 their future selection decisions and this is depicted in the model by feedback loops
4 from the consequences to the musical factors via the moderators (see Figure 1).

5
6 Another conceptual framework that is pertinent to the study of music in the exercise
7 and sport domain is the dual-mode model (Ekkekakis, 2003, 2005), which was
8 proposed to delineate the relationship between exercise intensity and affective
9 responses. A central tenet of the model is that the intensity of exercise should be
10 defined according to an individual-specific metabolic marker, such as the ventilatory
11 threshold. This point is reached when individuals start to produce more carbon
12 dioxide than the amount of oxygen that they consume and is associated with a host of
13 physiological changes (e.g., increased respiration rate and accumulation of lactic
14 acid).

15
16 The model postulates that affective responses to exercise are mediated by the
17 interplay of two factors: (a) cognitive factors originating primarily in the frontal
18 cortex and (b) interoceptive cues from a variety of receptors that are stimulated by
19 exercise-induced physiological changes (Ekkekakis, 2003). Affective responses to
20 exercise below the ventilatory threshold are driven primarily by cognitive factors and
21 are generally positive. When people exercise at intensities proximal to this threshold,
22 affective responses exhibit large inter-individual variability, with some individuals
23 reporting increases and others decreases in pleasure. Finally, at intensities above the
24 threshold, interoceptive cues gain salience and affective responses exhibit declines in
25 most individuals (Ekkekakis, 2003, 2005). Findings from recent research support the
26 notion that well-selected music can enhance the affective responses of those
27 exercising at intensities proximal to and even higher than the threshold (e.g., Jones,
28 Karageorghis, & Ekkekakis, 2014).

29
30 Collectively, the theoretical propositions of Rejeski (1985) and Tenenbaum (2001)
31 support the notion that sensory information is processed in parallel channels rather
32 than in sequence. A distinction can be made between *perception* (i.e., all sensory
33 information that can be attended to) and *focal awareness* (i.e., the channel that one
34 does attend to; see Rejeski, 1985). In addition, strategies employed by individuals to

1 cope with the demands of exercise can be classified as either *internal/associative* or
2 *external/dissociative*. The former are employed when an individual attempts to cope
3 *directly* with feelings of exertion, whereas the latter are employed when individuals
4 attempt to shift their attention toward external stimuli (Tenenbaum, 2001). This helps
5 to regulate perceptions of exertion by occupying the limited channel capacity that is
6 available to focal awareness (Rejeski, 1985).

7
8 At low exercise intensities, individuals are able to voluntarily shift their attentional
9 focus toward external cues (e.g., background music) or internal physiological
10 processes (e.g., respiratory rate; Tenenbaum, 2001) and the perception of physical
11 exertion is generally low (Rejeski, 1985). However, as the intensity of exercise
12 increases, there comes a point at which internal physiological cues become
13 overwhelming and an individual's focus automatically shifts internally. Consequently,
14 it becomes very hard to manipulate perceived exertion when an individual is
15 exercising beyond this critical level of intensity (Rejeski, 1985).

16
17 The principles of rhythmic entrainment and empirical investigation of this
18 phenomenon provide the scientist-practitioner with a greater understanding of how
19 bodily processes (e.g., respiratory rate) and motor patterns are influenced by music
20 (Thaut, 2008). *Entrainment* refers to the "locking" of frequencies between two
21 oscillating bodies (i.e., bodies that fluctuate periodically or rhythmically; Thaut,
22 McIntosh, & Hoemberg, 2015). Musical rhythms can influence the movement patterns
23 and bodily pulses (e.g., heart/respiratory rate) of individuals through entrainment to
24 the periodicities in the rhythmic sequence, even in the absence of conscious effort
25 (Hutchinson & Karageorghis, 2013; Thaut, 2008). Repetitive movements such as
26 those required for running or cycling are particularly susceptible to rhythmic
27 entrainment and if music is well selected with reference to desired pace and intensity,
28 it can engender greater energy efficiency and work output (Karageorghis & Priest,
29 2012).

30

31 **Putative Brain Mechanisms**

32 The brain mechanisms by which music influences the psychological state and
33 physiological responses of exercisers and athletes have only very recently begun to
34 attract systematic investigation (e.g., Bigliassi, Karageorghis, Nowicky, Orgs, Wright,

1 in press). The main reason for this is that motion renders most methods presently used
2 to investigate human brain function inoperable. Likewise, exercise causes regional
3 shifts in blood volume, making it difficult to disentangle the comparatively much
4 smaller hemodynamic changes associated with the effects of music on attentional
5 focus or affective state. Therefore, given the current methodological restrictions, this
6 section presents an overview of hypotheses that are guiding ongoing research.

7

8 Emerging mechanistic ideas fall under three major themes. One approach focuses on
9 music as an aesthetic stimulus that promotes pleasure, thereby also enhancing the
10 affective experience of exercise. Neuroimaging studies have highlighted the nucleus
11 accumbens—part of the main reward circuit of the brain—as an important structure of
12 the mechanism by which music influences the affective state (Zatorre & Salimpoor,
13 2013). It is possible, based on converging evidence from non-exercise contexts, that
14 one mechanism by which music may improve exercise performance is by raising the
15 level of dopamine in the nucleus accumbens. Dopamine is a neurotransmitter that,
16 among other functions, is believed to be involved in regulating the brain's response to
17 rewarding or pleasant stimuli.

18

19 A second perspective in the search for brain mechanisms considers music as a method
20 for dissociating attention from the inherently unpleasant somatic sensations generated
21 by strenuous exercise. This approach is motivated by applications of music mainly in
22 clinical contexts in which exercise is a useful treatment or rehabilitation modality but
23 may elicit excessive fatigue and unpleasant bodily symptoms. An example entails the
24 use of music to improve the exercise experience of patients with chronic obstructive
25 pulmonary disease who typically exhibit exercise-induced breathlessness (Lee,
26 Desveaux, Goldstein, & Brooks, 2015).

27

28 Although studies had found increases in prefrontal brain activity during episodes of
29 labored breathing (e.g., Higashimoto et al., 2011), the absence of a conceptual
30 framework limits understanding of the functional significance of such findings.
31 Nonetheless, based on earlier findings suggesting that the right dorsolateral prefrontal
32 cortex—located under the front of the skull, approximately at the hairline—is
33 involved in the modulation of pain during auditory distraction (Dunckley et al., 2007),

1 authors have surmised that this brain region may play a similar role in episodes of
2 physical exertion.

3

4 The application of near-infrared spectroscopy—a method used to track blood flow—
5 to the study of brain responses during exercise is enabling researchers to study
6 hemodynamic changes in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex. In turn, this will allow the
7 examination of the hypothesis that the effects of music on affective responses,
8 perceptions of exertion, and exercise performance are mediated by corresponding
9 changes in the activity of the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (Bigliassi, León-
10 Domínguez, Buzzachera, Barreto-Silva, & Altimari, 2015).

11

12 This line of inquiry has the potential to yield important implications for practice.
13 Specifically, prior studies employing near-infrared spectroscopy of the dorsolateral
14 prefrontal cortex during exercise have established that the oxygenation of this region
15 increases at moderate intensities but drops to below-baseline levels shortly before a
16 person reaches volitional exhaustion (Ekkekakis, 2009). One hypothesis that is being
17 explored is that music may delay the increase in oxygenation, presumably as a result
18 of moderate-intensity exercise being experienced as more pleasant or less unpleasant
19 compared to a no-music condition.

20

21 Conceivably, there could be a shift of the entire oxygenation curve toward higher
22 levels of intensity, resulting in a delay of the eventual decline in prefrontal
23 oxygenation and thus improved maximal exercise performance. Alternatively, there
24 may be a smaller increase in oxygenation at moderate intensities, presumably due to
25 the lower level of experienced displeasure and therefore reduced need to cognitively
26 control the displeasure, even in the absence of improved maximal exercise
27 performance (see Figure 2). From the standpoint of application, this emerging
28 research will help define the biological boundaries of an “efficacy zone,” within
29 which music can be expected to facilitate the cognitive control of unpleasant
30 sensations associated with the rising exercise intensity.

31

32

Insert Figure 2 about here

33

1 A third perspective in the search for brain mechanisms focuses on the synchronization
2 of the rhythms of music, bodily motion, and a postulated “neural resonance” (e.g.,
3 Large & Snyder, 2009). This perspective emerged from observations that listening to
4 music causes remarkable synchronization not only in overt motor behavior (from
5 finger tapping to running) but also across a wide range of physiological parameters,
6 including the heart and respiratory rates (Trost & Vuilleumier, 2013). Functional
7 neuroimaging investigations have shown that musical rhythm specifically engages
8 motor areas of the brain, including the supplementary motor area, the premotor cortex,
9 the cerebellum, and the basal ganglia (e.g., Kornysheva, von Cramon, Jacobsen, &
10 Schubotz, 2010). While the linkage of this acoustic-motor coupling with affective or
11 emotional experiences has yet to be fully elaborated, authors have speculated that the
12 basal ganglia may play a crucial role as a bridge between motor function and emotion.

13

14 In the exercise domain, researchers have explored the notion of “intrinsic rhythms”
15 that manifest themselves across different physiological and neurophysiological
16 systems, arriving at suggestions that there is a predilection for 2 Hz across a range of
17 locomotive and non-locomotive tasks and 3 Hz for running (Schneider, Askew, Abel,
18 & Strüder, 2010). Practical outcomes of this line of research include the promotion of
19 auditory-motor synchronization during exercise (e.g., by using apps that synchronize
20 musical beat with running gait) can reduce perceptions of exertion and enhance mood.

21

22

Review and Synthesis of Empirical Research

23 The study of embodied music interaction in the field of exercise and sport has shown
24 that music can be used to reduce unpleasant affective responses, ameliorate the effects
25 of fatigue, regulate arousal, and enhance work output (Leman et al., 2013; Lim et al.,
26 2014). The psychophysiological and ergogenic effects of music are generally studied
27 in accordance with when the music is used: pre-task, in-task, and post-task
28 (Karageorghis & Priest, 2012).

29

Pre-Task Music

31 The use of music as a pre-task strategy has not attracted a great deal of interest from
32 researchers (see Karageorghis & Priest, 2012). The rationale underlying such use of
33 music relates to the fact that sensory strategies manipulate an exerciser’s or athlete’s
34 consciousness with consequent effects on performance (Bishop, Karageorghis, &

1 Loizou, 2007). The effects of music that remain even after the cessation of the
2 stimulus are referred to as “residual effects”. Leon-Carrion et al. (2006) suggested that
3 the effects of a sensory stimulus on an individual’s brain activity are even greater
4 when the stimulus ceases. This serves to support the use of music as a pre-task
5 strategy to evoke an optimal constellation of emotions and enhance physical
6 performance.

7
8 Collectively, studies have shown that pre-task music can be used to regulate arousal,
9 facilitate task-relevant imagery, enhance performance, and increase situational
10 motivation in sport and physical activity contexts (e.g., Bishop et al., 2007; Bishop,
11 Wright, & Karageorghis, 2014). Loizou and Karageorghis (2015) demonstrated that
12 pre-task music can positively influence affective state in the preparation phase of an
13 all-out physical task. Pre-task music also regulated the sympathovagal balance, which
14 was examined via heart rate variability. Thus, pre-task music appears to regulate
15 arousal and has the potential to engender an appropriate mental state for exercise. The
16 scientist-practitioner can potentially use pre-task music as a means by which to
17 promote greater work output during anaerobic-type activity (e.g., high-intensity
18 interval training).

19

20 *In-Task Music*

21 Asynchronous or ambient music has been commonly used to make exercise or
22 training feel more pleasant (Hutchinson & Karageorghis, 2013). Collectively, studies
23 have indicated that in-task asynchronous music can reallocate an individual’s
24 attentional focus to external stimuli, increase dissociative thoughts, and consequently
25 ameliorate the effects of fatigue-related symptoms (e.g., Karageorghis & Jones, 2014).
26 Jones et al. (2014) reported that even high-intensity exercise (e.g., 5% above
27 ventilatory threshold) is more pleasant in the presence of music.

28

29 Researchers have also compared the effects of both asynchronous and synchronous
30 music on psychophysiological variables during exercise. For example, Lim et al.
31 (2014) demonstrated that affective responses during moderate-intensity exercise (90%
32 of ventilatory threshold) were more positive for both asynchronous and synchronous
33 music conditions compared to control. However, synchronous music influenced
34 peripheral exertion (limbs) to a greater degree than asynchronous music.

1
2 Synchronous music has been used during exercise in order to reduce the variability
3 that typifies human locomotion (Van Dyck et al., 2015). For example, exercisers and
4 athletes can synchronize their movement patterns with the rhythmical qualities of
5 music (Lim et al., 2014). Bacon, Myers, and Karageorghis (2012) demonstrated that
6 participants who cycled for 12 min at 70% of the maximal heart rate under the
7 influence of synchronous music consumed 7.2% less oxygen than when music tempo
8 was not synchronized with the cyclic rotations. Accordingly, music can enhance the
9 efficiency of movement leading to associated metabolic, cardiac, and pulmonary
10 responses.

11 12 *Post-Task Music*

13 The application of post-task music is intended to expedite recovery after intense bouts
14 of exercise, preventing injuries and cardiac complications. To date, only a limited
15 number of studies have addressed the effects of post-task music (for review, see
16 Karageorghis, 2017). The effects of post-task music are associated with the activity of
17 the autonomic nervous system (ANS) on the sinoatrial node (Conrad et al., 2007).
18 Accordingly, it appears that music can influence both sympathetic and
19 parasympathetic activity.

20
21 Jing and Xudong (2008) used sedative music to accelerate the recovery of participants
22 who exercised to the point of volitional exhaustion. Decreases in heart rate over time
23 were greater in the music condition compared to control, which illustrates the
24 potential application of slow, sedative music during passive recovery. Interestingly,
25 music has also been used to facilitate active recovery. Eliakim, Bodner, Eliakim,
26 Nemet, and Meckel (2012) used an up-tempo musical selection (140 bpm) to increase
27 the number of steps and accelerate lactate removal rate following maximal treadmill
28 exercise. Such findings indicate that listening to music after intense bouts of exercise
29 can expedite physiological recovery (lactate clearance) and alleviate the effects of
30 fatigue. Despite the still limited research on the effects of post-task music, the
31 aforementioned studies indicate initial promise that music might aid the rate of
32 recovery following moderate-to-high-intensity exercise or training.

1 exercise/training routine. The motor performance of highly trained participants is
2 unlikely to be inhibited when relatively loud music is used (i.e., 75–80 dBA).
3 Moreover, instructors engaged in one-on-one training are likely to maximize the
4 efficacy of their instruction by restricting the use of their client's personal listening
5 devices to periods of cardiovascular activity involving simple and repetitive motor
6 tasks (e.g., cycle ergometry or treadmill walking), during which the exerciser or
7 athlete may not require any verbal instruction.

8
9 Concerning the consequences of listening, music containing affirmations of
10 exercise/sport or inspirational references to popular culture should be selected in order
11 to promote task-relevant imagery and self-talk. Positive affect is thought to be
12 consequent to the modality of music (e.g., major vs. minor key; Juslin, 2009) and its
13 melodic/harmonic features in combination with lyrical content (e.g., Karageorghis,
14 2017). In order to stimulate participants, the music should be up-tempo (> 120 bpm)
15 and characterized by pronounced rhythmical features. In order to sedate, a slow tempo
16 (< 80 bpm), simple rhythmical structure, regular pulsation and repetitive tonal
17 patterns based on a limited number of pitch levels are recommended (see e.g.,
18 Karageorghis, 2017). Practitioners and exercise/sport participants should routinely
19 reflect upon and evaluate the consequences of their music-listening experiences and
20 use this process as a means by which to inform future music selections. Such
21 reflection is embodied in the feedback loop, from the consequences to the antecedents
22 via the moderators, as illustrated in the theoretical model (Figure 1).

23
24 Through the circumspect application of the principles outlined in this chapter,
25 practitioners with an interest in embodied music interaction will be able to harness the
26 psychological, psychophysical, psychophysiological, and ergogenic effects of music
27 with greater precision. In terms of future scientific investigation, it is envisaged that
28 neurophysiological approaches will play an increasingly important role in the
29 development of this area of study (cf. Bishop et al., 2014). This research channel will
30 be facilitated by continued advances in and widespread application of functional
31 neuroimaging and near-infrared spectroscopy technologies.

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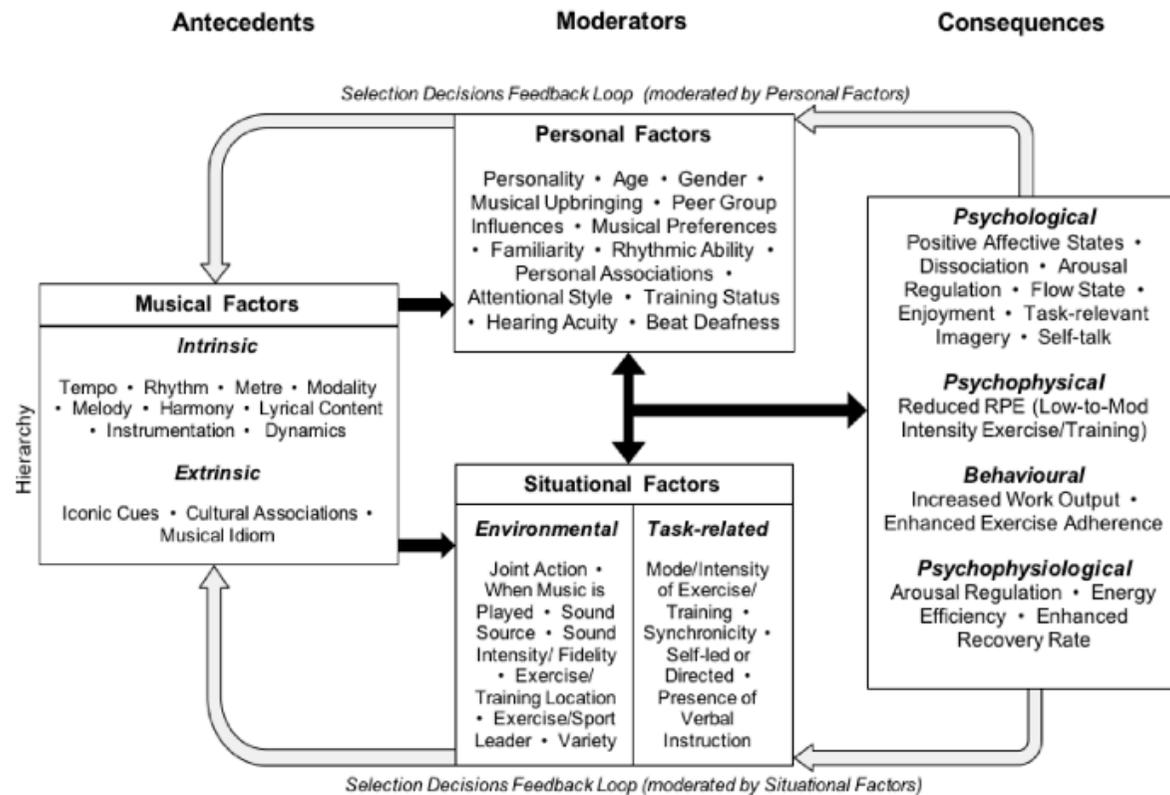


Figure 1. A theoretical model of the antecedents, moderators, and consequences of music use in the exercise and sport domain.

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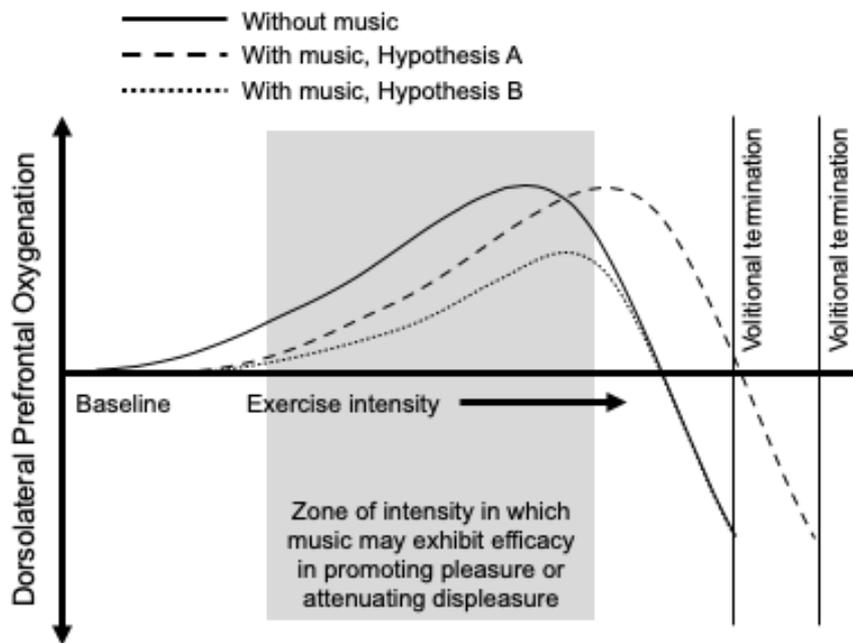


Figure 2. Hypothetical changes in the oxygenation (i.e., activation) of the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex across increasing levels of exercise intensity (see Putative Brain Mechanisms for explanation).

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