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All Watched Over by Machines of Loving Grace

Introduction

All Watched Over by Machines of Loving Grace is a 1967 poem by Richard Brautigan that describes the peaceful and harmonious cohabitation of humans and computers.

You can [read the poem](#) or listen Richard Brautigan [reading it](#).

At that time, this vision may have seemed very far away from a reality where there were only a few hundred computers around the world, each occupying an entire room but no more powerful than today's pocket calculator. Fifty years later, [they are](#) more than two billion computers, five billion smart phones and twenty billion IoT devices in the world. With the technological revolutions brought about by the [internet](#), big data, the cloud and deep learning, Brautigan's vision resonates singularly and compel us to rethink our interactions with machines.

It is therefore not a coincidence that Adam Curtis used the title of Brautigan's poem for a [three episodes documentary](#) about how humans have been colonized by the machines they have built – "*Although we don't realize it, the way we see everything in the world today is through the eyes of the computers.*" Curtis argues that computers have failed to liberate humanity, and instead have "*distorted and simplified our view of the world around us*".

You can see [the first episode](#), [the second](#) and [the last one](#).

The attack is severe but deserved. The potential wide-ranging impact urges to look carefully at the ways in which these technologies are being applied now, whom they're benefiting, and how they're structuring our social, economic, and interpersonal lives. The social implications of data systems, machine learning and artificial intelligence are now under scrutiny, with for instance the emergence of a [dedicated research institute \(AI Now\)](#). The massive amount of data needed to couple the human's world and the machine's world, and their automatic handling, poses an [unprecedented threat](#) to individual freedom, [justice](#) and democracy.

But, beyond [the misuse of these technologies](#) that could perhaps be regulated by law, our face-to-face encounters with machines bring about [major anthropological changes](#) when they address not only the physical world, but also our [moods](#), [emotions](#) and [feelings](#). The question of how our personalities and preferences are being shaped by our digital surroundings seems more pressing than ever. [How are our tools shaping us](#) at the heart of the most intimate of human beings: emotion, art and creation?

Big Tech may turn to [ethology](#) to help advance artificial intelligence, self-driving cars, and more. We turn to artists and computer scientists who work with artists, to fuel our reflections and question them in [two webinars on October 14 and 15](#), on how digital tools, especially

artificial intelligence, are shifting aesthetic issues and transforming the artistic workflow, challenging the notion of authorship, disrupting education and opening up new creative dimensions.

Before giving a brief, subjective and partial history of the interactions between music and artificial intelligence we will present some work by our speakers. They will illustrate our discussion during the two webinars. The links between music and computer science have indeed existed since the birth of the latter. It is perhaps its abstract character —the nature of imitation that connects music to the world is still discussed by philosophers— that has attracted computer scientists. In any case, people tried to get a computer to write music long before they tried to make it paint.

The few examples given will show that we are far from being able to replace composers and musicians. But above all, why do it?

What musical needs are met by the use of AI tools? How does one make music progress by using these tools? Our hypothesis is that music is an extraordinary field of experience that allows us to imagine new uses and new interactions with machines, going well beyond a tool towards a creative companionship; and that these machines allow us to better understand and to elaborate or test new answers to artistic questions: how do we evaluate a work, what is its value, what is the difference between novelty and modernity, how do we teach an artistic practice, what do we transmit on this occasion, and, among the most enigmatic, what is an artistic choice.

Some work in the field by our speakers

- *Working Creatively with Machines*
 - [Camine Emanuele Cella](#) (CNMAT - CU Berkeley)
Composer and computer scientist, Carmine develops (amongst other thing) [Orchidea](#) an automated system to help instrumentation and orchestration.
 - [Rémi Mignot](#) (Ircam)
Rémi do researches about audio indexing and classification (MIR) at [STMS](#) lab. Since 2018, he has been responsible of researches on music information retrieval in the analysis-synthesis team.
 - [Nicolas Obin](#) (Sorbonne Université - Ircam)
Nicolas is associate professor at the Faculty of Sciences of Sorbonne Université and researcher in the [STMS](#) lab where his work focuses on speech synthesis and transformations, conversational agent and computational musicology. You can see some example of speech synthesis and “voice fake” on [his web page](#).
 - [Alex Ruthman](#) (NYU)
Alex is Associate Professor of Music Education & Music Technology, and the

Director of the NYU [Music Experience Design Lab \(MusEDLab\)](#) at NYU Steinhardt where he creates new technologies and experiences for music making, learning, and engagement. Digital technologies have disrupted art education and in particular music education. They have the potential to make [Creative Musical Expression more accessible](#) to all.

- [Jason Freeman](#) (Georgia Tech)
Jason is a Professor of Music at Georgia Tech and Chair of the School of Music. His artistic practice and scholarly research focus on using technology to engage diverse audiences in collaborative, experimental, and accessible musical experiences.
Recently, Jason co-designed [EarSketch](#), a free online learning platform that leverages the appeal of music to teach students how to code. Used by over 500,000 show how students [combine music and coding to create expressive computational artifacts](#), and exemplify how machine learning will create even deeper connections between music and.
- *Performances with Machines*
 - [Jérôme Nika](#) (Ircam)
Jérôme is researcher in human-machine musical interaction in the Music Representations Team / [STMS](#) lab at IRCAM. Through the development of generative software instruments, Jérôme Nika's research focuses on the integration of scenarios in music generation processes, and on the dialectic between reactivity and planning in interactive human-computer/music improvisation. His work takes place in the broad family of Omax approaches to [man-machine musical interactions](#).
 - [Benjamin Levy](#) (Ircam)
Benjamin is a computer music designer at IRCAM. He collaborated on both scientific and musical project implying AI, in particular around the OMax improvisation software. The artistic project [A.I. Swing](#) marks several years of artistic and experimental experiences with musician and jazz improviser [Raphaël Imbert](#).
 - [Grace Leslie](#) (Georgia Tech)
Grace is a flutist, electronic musician, and scientist at Georgia Tech. She develops [brain-music interfaces](#) and other physiological sensor systems that reveal aspects of her internal cognitive and affective state to an audience.
 - [Daniele Ghisi](#) (composer)
Daniele studied and composition. He is the creator, together with Andrea Agostini, of the project [bach: automated composer's helper](#), a real-time library of computer-aided composition. AI technics were instrumental in his work for [La Fabrique des Monstres](#). His work explores many facets of the relationship between digital tools and music. In the installation [An Experiment With Time](#), which can be viewed [online from October 12 to October 18](#), is

journey through three different time cycles, their dreams and the construction of a time-dilating machine.

- Elaine Chew (CNRS) [to be confirmed]

Special online Event

From online from October 12 to October 18, the audience can access

[An Experiment With Time, an audio and video installation by Daniele Ghisi](#)

inspired by a book bearing the same name published by [John W. Dunne](#), an aeronautical engineer and philosopher. John Dunne believed that he experienced precognitive dreams and proposed that our experience of time as linear is an illusion brought about by human consciousness.

A central theme addressed in the installation of Daniele Ghisi is the construction and sharing of time and dreams between humans, and its transformation in the face of technology. If Richard Brautigan's vision comes true, how will we share our time with machines? How can we reconcile the elastic time of our human activities, from the *dolce farniente* to the ubris of our the Anthropocene era, and the regulated, chronometric, [Procrustean](#) time of the tireless machine?

A brief and subjective history of AI technics in music composition

[Electronic music](#) *i.e.*, music that employs electronic musical instruments, has been produced since the end of the 19th century. But producing a sound by a computer needed the existence of computers and the earliest known recording of computer music was recorded at [Alan Turing](#)'s Computing Machine Laboratory in Manchester in 1951:

- <https://soundcloud.com/the-british-library/first-recording-of-computer-music-1951-copeland-long-restoration>
- The story of this recording [is told here](#).

In the late 1940s, Alan Turing noticed that he could produce notes of different pitches by modulating the control of the computer's loudspeaker used to signal the end of a calculation batch. [Christopher Strachey](#) used this trick to make the first pieces: the national anthem, a nursery rhyme and Glenn Miller's "In the Mood".

By the summer of 1952, Christopher Strachey develop "*a complete [game of Draughts](#) at a reasonable speed*". He was also responsible of the strange love-letters that appear on the notice board of Manchester University's Computer Department from August 1953.

- http://www.alpha60.de/art/love_letters/
- <https://www.gingerbeardman.com/loveletter/>

Strachey's method of generating love letters by computer is to expand a template by substituting randomly chosen words at certain location. Locations belong to certain categories and each category corresponds to a pool of predefined words. The algorithm used by Strachey is as follows:

Generate Salutation 1 and Salutation 2,

Do this 5 times:

Randomly generate one of the following two templates:

1. "**You are my**" Adjective Noun

2. "**My**" Adjective(optional) Noun Adverb(optional) Verb, **Your** Adjective(optional)

Noun

Generate "Your" Adverb, "MUC"

Algorithmic control is in italic, locations (placeholders) are underlined and fixed sequence in the output are in bold.

It is the same process that was used in the 18th century by the [Musikalisches Würfelspiel](#) to randomly generate music from precomposed options. One of the earliest known examples are the *Der allezeit fertige Menuetten- und Polonaisencomponist* proposed in 1757 by Johann Philipp Kirnberger. An example by the Kaiser string quartet :

- https://youtu.be/3SQYWsfL_Fo

Carl Philipp Emanuel Bach used the same approach in 1758 to propose *Einfall, einen doppelten Contrapunct in der Octave von sechs Tacten zu machen, ohne die Regeln davon zu wissen* (German for "A method for making six bars of double counterpoint at the octave without knowing the rules"). A perhaps better-known example is that of Mozart:

- [W. A. Mozart's Musikalisches Würfelspiel K.516f Trio 2](#) proposed here by Derek Houll

At the time, people chose at random using a dice. In 1957, a computer was used: [Lejaren Hiller](#), in collaboration with [Leonard Issacson](#), programmed one of the first computers, the [ILLIAC at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign](#), to produce what is considered **the first score entirely generated by a computer**. Named *Illiad suite*, it later became the *String Quartet number 4*.

The piece is a pioneering work for string quartet, corresponding to [four experiments](#). The two composers, professor at the University, explicitly underline the research character of this suite, which they regard as a laboratory guide. The rules of composition and order that define the music of different epochs are transformed in automated algorithmic processes:

- [the first](#) is about the generation of cantus firmi
- [the second](#) generates four-voice segments with various rules
- [the third](#) deals with rhythm, dynamics and playing instructions

- [the fourth](#) explores various stochastic processes

Whether in musical dice games or in the *Illiad suite*, a dialectic emerges between a set of rules driving the structure and form of a piece, and the randomness used to ensure a certain diversity and the exploration of an immense combinatorial game. This dialectic is at work in almost every automated composition system.

At the same time, in France, [Iannis Xenakis](#) was also exploring several stochastic processes to generate musical material. He will also mobilize other mathematical notions to design new generative musical processes. In his first book, *Musiques formelles* (1963; translated in English with three added chapters as [Formalized Music – Thought and mathematics in composition](#), 1972), he previews for instance the application to his work of probability theory (in the pieces *Pithoprakta* and *Achorripsis*, 1956-1957), ensemble theory (*Herma*, 1960-1961) and game theory (*Duel*, 1959; *Stratégie*, 1962).

We jump in time to the eighties. [Expert systems](#) are flourishing. This set of technics takes a logical approach to knowledge representation and inference. The idea is to apply a set of predefined rules to facts to produce a reasoning or answer a question. These systems have been used to generate scores by explaining rules that describe a musical form or the style of a composer. The rules of [fugue](#), or [Schenkerian analysis](#), for example, are used to harmonize in the style of Bach.

A notable example of the rule approach is given by the work of [Kemal Ebcioglu](#) at the end of the eighties. In his PhD thesis work (*An Expert System for Harmonization of Chorales in the Style of J.S. Bach*) he develops the [CHORAL](#) system based on 3 principles:

- the encoding of a large amount of knowledge about the desired musical style,
- the use of constraints both to automatically generate solutions (with *backtrack*) and to eliminate those that would be unacceptable (so there are rules to evaluate the quality of the result),
- the use of style-specific *heuristics* to prioritize the choices of the algorithm when extending a partially created composition.

Backtracking is a technique used in particular for constraint satisfaction problems, which allows a series of choices to be questioned when these choices lead to an impasse. For example, if we build a musical sequence incrementally, it may happen at some point that we can no longer increment this sequence without violating the constraints we have set ourselves. The idea is then to go back to a previous point of choice and make another choice to develop an alternative. If there are no further possible choices, one has to go back to the previous choice point, and so on until one can develop a complete solution.

Heuristics are practical methods, often relying on incomplete or approximate knowledge, which do not guarantee correct reasoning, but which often produce satisfactory results (and quickly). When the search for an optimal solution is not feasible nor very practical, heuristic methods can be used to speed up the process of finding a suitable solution.

- Here is [an example of chorale harmonization](#) (first the original Bach's harmonization then the result produced by CHORAL at 4'42). The [concert note](#) sketches the expert system.

Another outstanding example from the same decade is the [EMI system](#) "Experiment in Music Intelligence" developed by *David Cope* at the University of Santa Cruz. David Cope began to develop this system while he was stuck on writing an opera:

"I decided I would just go ahead and work with some of the AI I knew and program something that would produce music in my style. I would say 'ah, I wouldn't do that!' and then go off and do what I would do. So it was kind of a provocateur, something to provoke me into composing."

<https://computerhistory.org/blog/algorithmic-music-david-cope-and-emi/>

The system analyzes the pieces submitted to it as input characterizing a "style". This analysis is then used to generate new pieces in the same style. The analysis of EMI applied to his own pieces, makes the composer aware of his own idiosyncrasies, of his borrowings and finally leads him to make his writing evolve:

"I looked for signatures of Cope style. I was hearing suddenly Ligeti and not David Cope." the composer noted, "As Stravinski said, 'good composers borrow, great composers steal'. This was borrowing, this was not stealing and I wanted to be a real, professional thief. So I had to hide some of that stuff, so I changed my style based on what I was observing through the output [of] Emmy, and that was just great."

<https://computerhistory.org/blog/algorithmic-music-david-cope-and-emi/>

You can hear many pieces produced by this system :

- A [Mazurka in the style of Chopin](#) produced by EMI,
- An [intermezzo in the manner of Mahler](#)

Right from the start, David Cope wanted to distribute this [music in the classic commercial circuit](#). They are often co-signed with Emmy, the little name that designates his system. Over the years, the system has evolved with sequels called Alena and Emily Howell who are also recorded artists.

- An [example produced by Emily Howell](#)

When David Cope is asked if the computer is creative, he answers :

"Oh, there's no doubt about it. Yes, yes, a million times yes. Creativity is easy; awareness, intelligence, that's hard."

Subsequent versions of EMI also use learning techniques that blossomed again in the early 2000s. As a matter of fact, throughout the history of computer science, two approaches have confronted each other.

Symbolic reasoning denotes the AI methods based on understandable, explicit and explainable high-level "symbolic" (human-readable) representations of problems. Knowledge and

information is often represented by logical predicates. The preceding examples fall more into this category.

Machine learning relies on numerical representations of the information to be processed. An example of a technique that falls within this domain are [artificial neural networks](#). This technique was already used in the 1960s with the [perceptron](#) invented in 1957 by *Frank Rosenblatt* which allows supervised learning of classifiers. For instance, a perceptron can be trained to recognize the letters of the alphabet in handwriting. The input of the system is a pixel array containing the letter to be recognized, and the output is the recognized letter. During the learning phase many examples of each letter are presented and the system is adjusted to produce the correct output categorization. Once the training has been completed, a pixel array can be presented containing a letter that is not part of the examples used for training and the system correctly recognizes the letter.

Depending on the time, the dominant paradigm in AI has fluctuated. In the sixties, machine learning was fancy. But at the end of the decade, a famous article put the brakes on this field, showing that perceptrons could not classify anything. This was because its architecture was reduced to a single layer of neurons. It is shown in the following that more complex classes of examples can be recognized by increasing the number of neuron layers. Unfortunately, there was no learning algorithm available at that time to train multi-layered networks.

Such an algorithm appeared in the 1980s but it is still very heavy to implement and it is also realized that to train a multi-layer network, you need a lot, a lot of data.

At the beginning of the 2000s, the algorithms are still making progress, the machines are much faster and we can access numerous databases of examples as a result of the development of all digital techniques. This favorable conjunction relaunched numerical machine learning techniques and we now encounter the term “*deep learning*” at every turn (here “*deep*” refers to the many layers of the network to be trained).

The contribution of these digital learning techniques is considerable. It allows for example to generate sound directly and not a score (the sound signal being much richer in information, it takes many layers to do this and hours of recorded music to train the network). We have [examples of instrument sounds](#) reconstructed by these techniques. Of course, one can also compose, and there are many examples of Bach's choir. Here is [an example](#) of an [organ piece](#) produced by a neural network (folk-rnn) and then harmonized by another ([DeepBach](#)). And [another example](#) of what can be achieved (with folk-rnn) by training a network on 23,962 Scottish folk songs (from midi type transcriptions).

One challenge faced by machine learning is that of the learning data. For reasons that are rarely discussed, and despite all academic and non-academic researches, the project of interpreting music is a profoundly complex and relational endeavor. Music is a remarkably slippery things, laden with multiple potential meanings, irresolvable questions, and contradictions. Entire subfields of philosophy, art history, and media theory are dedicated to teasing out all the nuances of the unstable relationship between music, emotion and meanings. The [same question](#) haunts the domain of images.

The economic stakes are not far away. A company like [AIVA](#) thus organized a [concert](#) (at the Louvre Abu Dhabi) featuring five short pieces composed by their system and played by a symphony orchestra. Other examples include

- a piece composed especially [for the Luxembourg national holiday](#) in 2017.
- An example in [some chinese style](#)

But beware, in fact only the melody is computer generated. The orchestration work, arrangements, etc., are then done by humans: <https://www.aiva.ai/engine>. This is also true for a lot of systems that are claiming automatic machine composition.

Making music automatically with a computer is probably of little interest to a composer (and to the listener). But the techniques mentioned can be used to solve compositional problems or to develop new kind of performances. An example in composition is to produce an [interpolation between two rhythms A and B](#) (given at the beginning of the recording)

Another compositional example is to help orchestration problems. The [Orchid*](#) software family, initiated in Gérard Assayag's RepMus team at IRCAM, proposes an orchestral score that comes as close as possible to a given target sound as input. The latest iteration of the system, [Orchidea](#), developed by Carmine Cella, composer and researcher at the Univ. of Berkeley, gives not only interesting but also useful results. Some (short) examples are available on the page:

- An original [archeos bell](#) and its [orchestral imitation](#)
- A [girl's](#) and an [orchestra's screaming](#)
- Falling [drops](#) and the [orchestral results](#)
- A [roaster](#) and its [musical counterpart](#)

Far from a *replacement approach*, where AI substitutes for man, these new techniques suggest the possibility of a *musical companionship*.

This is the objective of the [OMax family of systems](#), developed at IRCAM, still in Gérard Assayag's team. These systems propose a machine that co-improvise in real-time with musicians on stage:

- An example conceived and developed by Georges Bloch with Hervé Sellin at the piano, to which [Piaf and Schwartzkopf respond on the theme of The Man I Love](#).
- [Here, the saxophonist Remy Fox and Jérôme Nika](#), author of one of the extensions of the system which allows to impose high level predefined scenarios to the response of the machine and thus to better manage the evolutions in the duration:
 - from 9', the system's response corresponds to excerpts from speeches whose prosody aligns with what Remy Fox plays
 - from 10'40, the system response evolves to respond with sung voices.

The type of scenario used to co-improvise in the last example, was also used for [Lullaby Experience](#), a project developed by Pascal Dusapin using nursery rhymes [collected from the public via the Internet](#). There is no improvisation here. The system is used to produce material which is then taken up with the composer and integrated with the orchestra.

A last example where AI assists the composer rather than substituting for her or him, is given by [La Fabrique des Monstres](#) by *Daniel Ghisi*. The musical material of the piece is the output of a network of neurons at various stages of its learning on various corpuses. At the beginning of the learning process, the music generated is rudimentary, but as the training progresses, one recognizes more and more typical structures. A remarkable passage is [StairwayToOpera](#) which gives a “summary” of great moments typical of operatic arias.

These examples show that while it is possible to make music that is not very interesting with these techniques, they can also offer new forms of interaction, open new creative dimensions and ask intriguing and still unresolved questions:

How could emotional music be coming out of a program that had never heard a note, never lived a moment of life, never had any emotions whatsoever? ([Douglas Hoffstader](#))

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