# **INTERVAL VECTORS**

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The exploration of the profound and intrinsic cohesion between mathematics and music is certainly nothing new – it actually dates all the way back to Pythagoras (c. 570 BCE – c. 495 BCE).

## Abstract

■ However, the introduction of the *dodecaphonic* (twelve-tone) system developed by Arnold Schoenberg (1874 – 1951) has taken this study to entirely new levels, and has instituted such concepts as set theory, ordered sets, vectors, and various types of spaces as useful tools in music theory. In this paper we will look into one of these tools, namely the notion of interval vectors.

Around 1908, the Viennese composer Arnold Schoenberg developed a system of pitch organization in which all twelve unique pitches were to be arranged into an ordered row. This row and the rows obtained from it by various basic operations were then used to generate entire pitch contents, giving rise to a method of composition now usually referred to as the dodecaphonic (twelve-tone) system or serialism.

This new system not only bolstered the existing ties between mathematics and music, but helped introduce some new ones as well. In fact, the field of *musical set theory* was developed by Hanson (1960) and Forte (1973) in an effort to categorize musical objects and describe their relationships in this new setting. For more information see Schuijer (2008) and Morris (1987).

Let us first review the basic terminology, starting with a notational convention. We will call the octave from middle *C* to the following *B* the *standard octave*. If *C* denotes the middle *C*, we will use the convention C = 0.

Then the remaining eleven unique pitches following *C* within the same octave can be numbered as 1, 2, 3, ..., 11. So, with this convention,

•  $C = 0, C^{\#} = 1, D = 2, D^{\#} = 3, E = 4, F = 5, F^{\#} = 6, G = 7, G^{\#} = 8, A = 9, A^{\#} = 10, B = 11.$ 

A *pitch class* is a set of all pitches that are a whole number of octaves apart, e.g., the pitch class of a pitch *x* consists of the *x*'s in all octaves. Thus, the pitch class corresponding to a pitch *x* in the standard octave is the set

 $\{x_n:n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ 

where

 $\overline{x_n} = x + 12n$ 

Although there is no formal upper or lower limit to this sequence, by limitations of human ear, we can consider this to be a finite set. We will identify a pitch class by the numerical representation of its corresponding pitch in the standard octave, 0, 1, 2, ..., 11. So, with our convention,

 $0 = \{C_n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ 

The distance between any two pitches is called a *pitch interval* (*PI*). Since we are interested in pitch classes rather than individual pitches, we will use the *pitch interval class* (*PIC*) rather than a pitch interval as the measure of distance. For any two pitch classes *x* and *y*,

 $\overline{PIC}(x,y) = \min((x-y), (y-x)) \pmod{12}$ 

Clearly, there are six different pitch interval classes. If PIC(x, y) = 1, the distance between x and y is called a *semitone*. In case PIC(x, y) = 2, the distance is called a *whole-step*. For PIC(x, y) = 3, it is called a *minor third*; for PIC(x, y) = 4, a *major third*; for PIC(x, y) = 5, a *prefect fifth*, and for PIC(x, y) = 6, a *tritone*.

A *pitch class set* is simply an unordered collection of pitch classes (Rahn 1980, 27). More exactly, a pitch-class set is a numerical representation consisting of distinct integers (Forte 1973, 3), that is, any subset of the set {0, 1, 2, ..., 11}

We will use the { } notation for a pitch class set. Thus, the unordered set of pitch classes 3, 4, and 8 (corresponding in this case to  $D^{\#}$ , E, and  $G^{\#}$ ) will be denoted as {3, 4, 8}. We have, obviously,  $2^{12} - 1 = 4095$ 

pitch class sets.

We use the notation  $\langle \rangle$  to denote an ordered set of pitch classes. For example, the ordered set  $D^{\#}$ , *E*, and  $G^{\#}$ would be denoted as  $\langle 3, 4, 8 \rangle$ . An ordered set of *n* notes corresponds to an *n* – *tuple*.

The basic operations that may be performed on unordered pitch class sets are *transposition*, *inversion*, *complementation*, and *multiplication*. Operations on ordered sequences of pitch classes are *transposition*, *inversion*, *complementation*, *multiplication*, *retrograde*, and *rotation*.

Transposition is what we refer to as translation in mathematics. If *x* is a number representing a pitch class, its *transposition by m semitones* is written  $T_m$  and is defined as  $T_m(x) = x + m \pmod{12}$ 

So, transposition of B = 11 by 3 semitones would be  $11 + 3 \pmod{12} = 2 = D$ .

We say a melody is *inverted* if the direction of its intervals is switched. The inversion operator is denoted by *I*. If the original interval between two consecutive pitch classes in a pitch class set goes up *m* semitones, the inversion goes down *m* semitones. Any note can be inverted by subtracting its value from 12: the inversion of *k* is 12 - k for k = 0, ..., 11, that is,

I(k) = 12 - k

k = 0, ..., 11. So for instance, the inversion of  $\{3, 5, 8\}$  is  $\{9, 7, 4\}$ .

### **Basic Notation**

The way it was defined, inversion corresponds to reflection around 12. Of course, we can invert (reflect) with respect to any fixed point in pitch class space. If *x* is a pitch class, the *inversion with index number m* is written  $I_m$  and is defined as  $I_m(x) = m - x \pmod{12}$ So, inversion of {3, 5, 8} with index number 10 is {7,5, 2}. Thus,  $I = I_{12}$ .

We can define a metric in a pitch class space as dist(x, y) = PIC(x, y)

With this convention we note that transposition and inversion are isometries. In fact, this important result is referred to as the

The Central Postulate of Musical Set Theory: Transposition and inversion are isometries of a pitch class space, they preserve the intervallic structure of a set, and hence its musical character.

The *complement* of set *S* is the set consisting of all the pitch classes not contained in *S* (Forte 1973, 73–74). So for example, the complement of

 $S = \{0, 4, 7, 11\}$ 

is the set

 $S^{c} = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10\}$ 

The product of two pitch classes is the product of their pitch-class numbers modulo 12. So, the product of  $C^{\#}$  and  $A^{\#} = 2 \times 10 = 20 \pmod{2} = 8 = G^{\#}$ 

Since complementation and multiplication are not isometries of pitch-class space, they do not necessarily preserve the musical character of the objects they transform.

**Retrograding** an ordered sequence reverses the order of its elements. **Rotation** of an ordered sequence is equivalent to cyclic permutation. We can, of course, consider compositions of these operations. For example,  $T_3I$  just means that we first invert the original set, and then transpose by three semitones. So,

 $T_3I\{1, 2, 7\} = T_3\{11, 10, 5\} = \{2, 1, 8\}$ 

An *interval vector* (or *interval-class vector*) for a pitch class set *S*, is a six-dimensional vector which summarizes the total interval content in *S*. The first component denotes the number of instances of PIC(x, y) = 1, the second component the number of instances of PIC(x, y) = 2, ..., and the sixth component the number of instances PIC(x, y) = 6, for all *x*, *y* in the pitch class set *S*.

It is, essentially, a histogram of all of the interval classes which can be found in a pitch class set. Two sets that have the same interval content are called *Z* –*-related sets*.

We will now examine the steps in calculating an interval vector. For this illustration we will use the pitch classes 8 6 0 1 and 5. We first arrange the pitch classes in ascending order. So now we will have

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We then find the interval content by calculating the interval from each digit to the remaining digits, left to right:

Pitch Pairs x, y	PIC(x,y)
0, 1	1
0,5	5
0,6	6
0,8	4
1,5	4
1,6	5
1,8	5
5,6	1
5,8	3
6,8	2

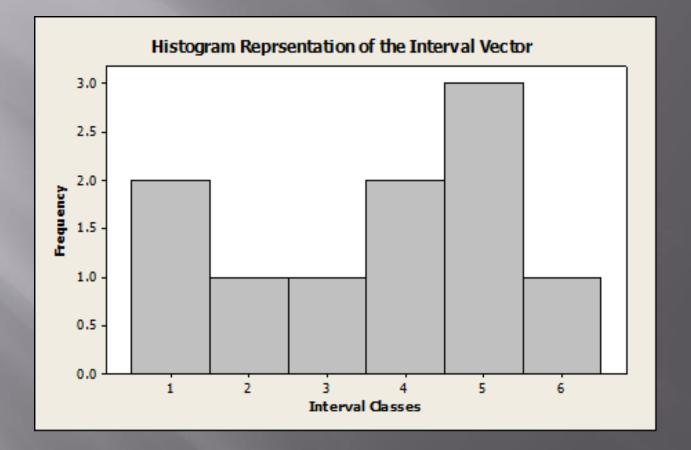
Clearly, if we have *n* pitch classes, we will have n(n-1)

2

such differences.

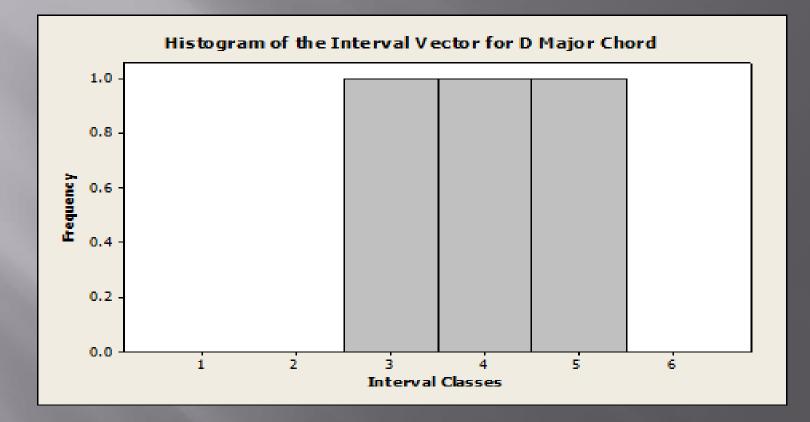
Finally, we count the total number of occurrences of each pitch interval class. In the above example, we have two intervals with PIC(x, y) = 1, one with PIC(x, y) = 2, one with PIC(x, y) = 3, two with PIC(x, y) = 4, three with PIC(x, y) = 5, and one with PIC(x, y) = 6. So the interval vector is  $[2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 1]$ 

Of course, the sum of the components of this vector should equal  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ .



For example, a D major chord, which is represented by the pitch class set (2, 6, 9) will have the interval vector [0 0 1 1 1 0].

The E minor chord, which is represented by the pitch class set (4,7,11) will have the interval vector [0 0 1 1 1 0].



The first use of the interval vector is to tabulate the intervals in a pitch class set. Since these intervals, taken together, give a set its characteristic sound, sets that have similarities in their vectors will be more alike than those that do not. In fact, one could establish numeric measurements of similarity based on the interval vector. I will talk about this in another paper.

The interval vector also tells us about what will happen when we transpose a set:

Suppose the entry in the  $j^{th}$  position for j = 1, ..., 5, of the interval vector is k. Then the original pitch class set and its transposition by j or 12 - j units will have k pitches in common. If j = 6, then there will be 2kpitches in common. This is known as the **Common Tone Theorem**.

For example, take the pitch class set (1, 2, 7, 8). Its interval vector is  $[2\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 2\ 2]$ . This means  $T_1(1, 2, 7, 8)$  and  $T_{11}(1, 2, 7, 8)$  will both have two pitches in common with (1, 2, 7, 8). Of course this can easily be verified since

 $T_1(1, 2, 7, 8) = (2, 3, 8, 9)$ 

and

 $T_{11}(1, 2, 7, 8) = (0, 1, 6, 7)$ 

Again we can easily verify that

 $T_2(1, 2, 7, 8), T_{10}(1, 2, 7, 8), T_3(1, 2, 7, 8), T_9(1, 2, 7, 8), T_4(1, 2, 7, 8), T_8(1, 2, 7, 8), T$ 

 $T_5(1, 2, 7, 8), T_7(1, 2, 7, 8)$ 

have no pitches in common with (1, 2, 7, 8).

Note that

#### $T_6(1, 2, 7, 8) = (7, 8, 1, 2)$

has exactly four pitches in common with (1, 2, 7, 8).



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