

Coordination and Consonance Between Interacting, Improvising Musicians

anonymous submission

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Abstract

Joint action (JA) is ubiquitous in our cognitive lives. From basketball teams to teams of surgeons, humans often coordinate with one another to achieve some common goal. Idealized laboratory studies of group behavior have begun to elucidate basic JA mechanisms, but little is understood about how these mechanisms scale up in more sophisticated and open-ended JA that occurs in the wild. We address this gap by examining coordination in a paragon domain for creative joint expression: improvising jazz musicians. Coordination in jazz music subserves an aesthetic goal: the generation of a collective musical expression comprising coherent, highly nuanced musical structure (e.g. rhythm, harmony). In our study, dyads of professional jazz pianists improvised in a “coupled”, mutually adaptive condition, and an “overdubbed” condition which precluded mutual adaptation, as occurs in common studio recording practices. Using a model of musical tonality, we quantify the flow of rhythmic and harmonic information between musicians as a function of interaction condition. Our analyses show that mutually adapting dyads achieve greater temporal alignment and produce more consonant harmonies. These musical signatures of coordination were preferred by independent improvisers and naive listeners, who gave higher quality ratings to coupled interactions despite being blind to condition. We present these results and discuss their implications for music technology and JA research more generally.

INTRODUCTION

High-level cognition is often achieved by groups of interacting individuals [Knoblich, Butterfill, and Sebanz \(2011\)](#); [Sebanz, Bekkering, and Knoblich \(2006\)](#). Group behavior in joint action (JA) settings is less dependent on isolated individual efforts and more on the ability to coordinate [Goldstone and Gureckis \(2009\)](#); [Hasson, Ghazanfar, Galantucci, Garrod, and Keysers \(2012\)](#). Insight into the

25 mechanisms underlying successful coordination has important implications for how we understand
26 interpersonal interaction, optimize team performance, and engineer human-like artificial intelligence
27 systems [Council et al. \(2015\)](#); [Guimera, Uzzi, Spiro, and Amaral \(2005\)](#); [Rebsamen et al. \(2010\)](#);
28 [D. C. Richardson, Dale, and Kirkham \(2007\)](#). This study examines coordination in collaboratively
29 improvising jazz musicians. Coordination in jazz music subserves an aesthetic goal: the generation of a
30 collective musical expression, and the expertise of professional jazz musicians lies largely in their ability
31 to coordinate and adapt spontaneously in real-time performance. Professional jazz ensembles thus offer a
32 remarkably sophisticated paragon domain to study the basic properties and limits of our capacity to
33 coordinate with one another.

34 Humans align their behaviors as they interact [Hasson and Frith \(2016\)](#); [Pickering and Garrod \(n.d.,](#)
35 [2004\)](#). We spontaneously entrain periodic motions (e.g. postural sway, walking gait), and such
36 entrainment is predictive of successful interaction and performance on joint tasks [Demos, Chaffin,](#)
37 [Begosh, Daniels, and Marsh \(2012\)](#); [Paxton and Dale \(2013\)](#); [M. J. Richardson, Marsh, Isenhower,](#)
38 [Goodman, and Schmidt \(2007\)](#); [Shockley, Richardson, and Dale \(2009\)](#); [Shockley, Santana, and Fowler](#)
39 [\(2003\)](#). Interlocutors tend to mirror one another's posture, speech prosody and align eye gaze to fixate on
40 the same objects as they interact [Garrod and Pickering \(2009\)](#); [Louwerse, Dale, Bard, and Jeuniaux](#)
41 [\(2012\)](#); [D. C. Richardson and Dale \(2005\)](#); [D. C. Richardson et al. \(2007\)](#); [D. C. Richardson, Dale, and](#)
42 [Tomlinson \(n.d.\)](#). Alignment occurs at more abstract levels as well. Interlocutors mirror vocabulary and
43 syntactical constructions, and come to share common mental representations for situations under
44 discussion [Abney, Paxton, Dale, and Kello \(2014\)](#); [Dale and Spivey \(2006\)](#); [Pickering and Garrod \(2004\)](#).
45 Past JA research demonstrates that alignment is an important interpersonal mechanism that facilitates
46 joint attention and predictive emulation (of a partner's future actions), and streamlines communication by
47 providing a common representational scheme [Garrod and Pickering \(2009\)](#); [Pickering and Garrod](#)
48 [\(2004\)](#); [D. C. Richardson et al. \(n.d.\)](#); [Sebanz et al. \(2006\)](#); [Sebanz and Knoblich \(2009\)](#).

49 Another issue in JA research is whether group behavior is supported by mutual adaptations (bidirectional
50 coordination) or fixed leader-follower roles (unidirectional coordination). Clearly delineated
51 leader-follower roles appear to support stable coordination in many naturalistic JA domains (e.g.
52 conductor of an orchestra, lead dancer in a salsa pair), and experimental studies have affirmed the utility
53 of unidirectional coordination with respect to particular task constraints and participant expertise levels

54 [Curioni, Vesper, Knoblich, and Sebanz \(2019\)](#); [Noy, Dekel, and Alon \(2011\)](#); [M. J. Richardson et al.](#)
55 [\(2015\)](#). On the other hand, finger tapping studies have shown that dyads achieve greater synchronization
56 when mutually coupled compared to unidirectional conditions [Demos, Carter, Wanderley, and Palmer](#)
57 [\(2017\)](#); [Konvalinka, Vuust, Roepstorff, and Frith \(2010\)](#). Rather than adopting leader-follower roles,
58 mutually coupled individuals each adapted their own tapping rates to their partner's previous tapping
59 rates [Konvalinka et al. \(2010\)](#). A similar result has been observed in a simplified experimental adaptation
60 of the “mirror game”, which requires dyads to synchronize improvised hand movements with one
61 another. Mutually coupled dyads synchronized more fluidly and generated more dynamic movements
62 compared to dyads that were assigned leader-follower roles [Noy et al. \(2011\)](#).

63 These findings show that mutual coupling often promotes coordination by supporting robust and flexible
64 behavioral alignment. However, they were obtained in idealized experimental paradigms using greatly
65 simplified behaviors (e.g. synchrony of a tapped pulse), so it is unclear whether and how they generalize
66 to more sophisticated coordinated behavior found in the real world. Naturalistic JA is often open-ended,
67 and requires not just behavioral matching but also *complementary* coordination in service of abstract,
68 functional goals (e.g. operating on a patient, generating ideas in group brainstorming sessions) [Hasson](#)
69 [and Frith \(2016\)](#). How does mutual coupling shape coordination in these more complex, naturalistic
70 forms of JA? Does mutual coupling support greater behavioral alignment in under-constrained tasks,
71 where this is no explicit goal of synchronization? Does it support complementary coordination, in service
72 of abstract goals?

73 In this study we use improvised music as a model domain to explore the effects of mutual coupling in the
74 wild. Conveniently, joint music performance is naturally mediated by organizational structures that
75 constrain ensemble coordination. Orchestras are hierarchically organized with fixed leader-follower
76 roles, whereas free improvising jazz ensembles are typically more characterized by feedback loops of
77 mutual influence [Borgo \(2005\)](#); [D’Ausilio et al. \(2012\)](#). Studio recording practices such as
78 “overdubbing” also constrain coordination by sequentially recording individual musical parts. Ensemble
79 performance research has shown that these underlying patterns of coordination are reflected in the music
80 and movements of ensemble members [Hennig \(2014\)](#); [Keller \(2014\)](#); [Rasch \(1979\)](#), such as small
81 temporal asynchronies of co-performer note onsets [Demos et al. \(2017\)](#); [Goebel and Palmer \(2009\)](#); [Keller](#)
82 [and Appel \(2010\)](#), and postural sway couplings [Chang, Livingstone, Bosnyak, and Trainor \(2017\)](#).

83 Improvised music is of particular interest, because the influence of coordination extends beyond
84 sensorimotor coupling and into the music’s formal architecture, which is freely evolving over time in its
85 rhythm, melody, harmony, and texture. We might thus expect underlying coordination patterns to
86 constrain these structural elements, similar to how it constrains sensorimotor coupling in scored music
87 performance. Do mutually coupled improvisers engage in bidirectional coordination at the level of notes
88 and rhythms? If so, does this result in higher quality music? Answering these questions will extend our
89 understanding of JA beyond idealized laboratory tasks and into sophisticated, open-ended coordination
90 that occurs in elite artistic performances. It will also yield direct implications for music technology.
91 Results will reveal repercussions of the popular recording technique of overdubbing, and our quantitative
92 measures of improvised musical coordination can be incorporated into artificial interactive music systems
93 [Gillick, Roberts, Engel, Eck, and Bamman \(2019\)](#); [Linson, Dobbyn, Lewis, and Laney \(2015\)](#) and benefit
94 music pedagogy by automating assessment of ensemble performance.

95 Despite a paucity of cognitive science research on collective improvisation, some notable efforts have
96 begun. Previous studies have shown that improvised musical coordination is shaped by musical context
97 (e.g. playing with a drone versus a swing backing track), and that experimentally manipulated social
98 attitudes (e.g. dominant, caring) are sonically encoded in improvised musical interactions [Aucouturier
99 and Canonne \(2017\)](#); [Walton et al. \(2018\)](#). These studies lay an important foundation, but they did not
100 experimentally isolate mutual coupling between musicians. Moreover, their analyses did not incorporate
101 music theory, and thus the findings are limited to temporal and acoustic coordination properties, and do
102 not extend to more abstract musical phenomena such as the emergence of tonal structure (i.e. harmony,
103 melody).

104 In the current study we directly manipulate interaction in co-improvising musicians, and examine how
105 different underlying patterns of coordination constrain the exchange and emergence of rhythmic and
106 tonal information. Professional jazz musicians freely improvised in two duo conditions: a *coupled*
107 condition, in which both pianists improvised simultaneously, and a *one-way* condition, in which a single
108 pianist improvised along with a recording of another pianist (a “ghost partner”) from a previous *coupled*
109 duet. Improvisations were completely “free” in the sense that there was no predetermined songform, key
110 signature or tempo; the only instruction was to improvise a compelling piece of music *de novo*, as in an
111 actual performance. These duo conditions provided two naturalistic musical settings to isolate the effects

112 of mutual coupling in freely improvising musicians. Whereas *coupled* duos had the ability to mutually
113 adapt to one another, *one-way* duos were restricted to unidirectional coordination (i.e. because the ‘ghost
114 partner’ was unresponsive to the live musician), as in the common studio recording technique of
115 overdubbing.

116 Participants were recorded in isolated MIDI¹ tracks as they improvised in each condition. Time series of
117 two fundamental musical features were extracted and analyzed: onset density and tonal consonance.
118 Onset density indexes overall rhythmic activity level, and has been shown to correlate with listener
119 perception of musical tension Farbood (2012). Tonal consonance refers to how different combinations of
120 notes sound on a continuum from dissonant/unstable to consonant/stable Johnson-Laird, Kang, and
121 Leong (2012), and was operationalized using a previously established model of musical tonality, the
122 Tonal Spiral Array Chew (2005); Chew et al. (2014); Herremans, Chew, et al. (2016). We find that
123 interaction condition systematically altered the coordinated musical behavior of dyads, who were more
124 rhythmically coupled and produced more consonant tonal structure when mutually coupled. These effects
125 were paralleled in the subjective experiences of participants as well as non-musician listeners, who
126 preferred *coupled* duets despite being blind to condition. These results are presented and discussed in
127 terms of their implications for music technology and JA research more generally.

METHODS

128 *Participants*

129 28 professional pianists (25 male, 3 female) from the New York City jazz scene participated in this study.
130 Participant age ranged from 21-37. On average participants had over 22 years experience playing piano
131 (sd=5.2) and 15 years experience improvising (sd=4.6). All participants had extensive experience with
132 free improvisation, and received formal training in piano performance and/or jazz studies at elite
133 conservatories. Participants were recruited by word of mouth, and had no prior experience performing
134 with one another.

¹ Musical Instrument Digital Interface (MIDI) is a format for representing music on a computer. It symbolically represents the pitch, volume and timing (onset and offset) of musical note sequences.

122 individuals participated in the listener study. 101 were undergraduate psychology students from Indiana University without any particular musical background, and 21 (19 male, 2 female) were professional jazz musicians, each with over 10 years of experience as improvising musicians, recruited by word of mouth from the NYC music scene. None of these listeners participated in the initial music-generation stage of the study.

140 *Design and Procedure*

141 Participants played a series of short (4-7 minute) ‘free’ improvisations, with no accompanying stimuli and 142 no prior musical template or constraints. Other than the suggested time frame, the only instruction was to 143 improvise a compelling piece of music, as in a typical performance setting. Participants were informed of 144 the two interaction conditions, but were not told which condition they were playing in on any given trial 145 (and there was no visual or audible indication of condition, see SI). After each trial, they responded to 146 questionnaires indicating their subjective experience playing in the previous trial in terms of: (1) how 147 easy it was to coordinate with their partner (2) how well coordinated they were with their partner (3) 148 quality of the improvised piece and (4) degree to which they played a leader versus a supporter role.

149 Each participant played at least 3 duets (trials) in each condition, with the same ‘live’ partner for every 150 *coupled* duet and the same ‘ghost’ partner for every *one-way* duet. Conditions were interleaved within 151 participant pairs and counterbalanced across pairs to control for possible order effects. Participants were 152 recorded in isolated MIDI tracks, and individual recordings from *coupled* duets yoked *one-way* duets in 153 subsequent sessions, as depicted in the SI. Altogether 50 *coupled* duets and 86 *one-way* duets were 154 collected; duets had an average duration of 342 seconds (min=108 seconds, max=738 seconds, sd=12 155 seconds). This dataset will be made publicly available on Github upon acceptance of the paper.

156 A post-hoc study was conducted with populations of naive listeners and expert jazz musicians. Listeners 157 heard 30-second audio clips randomly sampled from duets in both conditions (audio from each pianist 158 was panned to separate ears). After listening to each clip they were asked to rate (1) their enjoyment of 159 the music (2) how well coordinated they perceived the musicians to be and (3) which musician played 160 more of a leader role. Listeners were also asked to guess which condition a clip came from. Each 161 participant heard complementary yoked sets of *coupled* and *one-way* clips. See SI for full specification of 162 the sequencing design, which controlled for possible order and stereo-panning effects.

163 ***Tonal Consonance Measure***

164 Our tonal consonance measure is based on the Tonal Spiral Array model, which has been validated
 165 against listener ratings and expert music theory analyses [Chew \(2005\)](#); [Chew et al. \(2014\)](#); [Herremans et](#)
 166 [al. \(2016\)](#). Table 1 shows model ratings for exemplar pitch sets. See SI for specification of the measure.

167 **Table 1.** Consonance ratings of exemplar pitch sets.

Pitch Set	Consonance
{C,E,G} (Cmaj)	.65
{C,Eb,G} (Cmin)	.65
{C,B,G}	.54
{C,E,G,F,A,C} (Cmaj + Fmaj)	.49
{C,B}	.48
{C,E,G,F#,A#,C#} (Cmaj + F#maj)	.13
serial (all 12 pitches)	.09

168 ***Data Analysis***

169 Listener ratings were analyzed with Bayesian mixed-effects models for each response type, using the
 170 `brms` package in R [Bürkner et al. \(2017\)](#). Instead of predicting enjoyment and coordination ratings
 171 directly, models predicted the difference between ratings of *coupled* audio clips minus ratings of
 172 correspondingly yoked *one-way* clips, such that positive intercepts indicated preference for *coupled* clips.
 173 Leadership ratings within *one-way* trials were modeled such that positive intercepts indicated perception
 174 of “ghosts” leading, and negative values indicated perception of live musicians leading. Accuracy of
 175 condition guesses was modeled as binomial outcome: whether or not listeners guessed the correct
 176 condition, such that positive intercepts indicated above-chance predictions. Models included a predictor
 177 for subject type (naive listener or professional jazz musician), and random intercepts per individual.
 178 Bayesian mixed-effects models were also used to analyze time series measures of musical coordination
 179 (cross-correlation of onset density and lagged consonance, see Results). Dependent measures were

180 predicted by a fixed-effect of interaction condition, with random intercepts for yoked groupings at the
 181 duo and duet levels² Unidirectional coordination in one-way duos was analyzed by predicting dependent
 182 measures as a function of lag direction (i.e. ghost-to-live versus live-to-ghost), with random-effects for
 183 each duo and duet.

RESULTS

184 *Subjective Ratings*

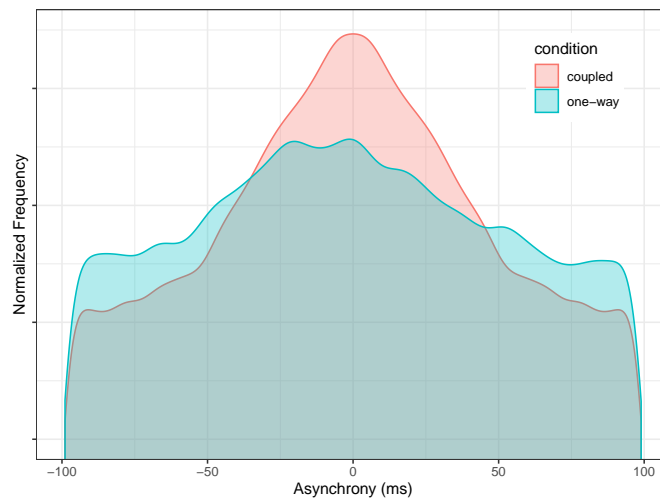
185 Despite being blind to condition, performers and naive listeners both exhibited a strong preference for
 186 *coupled* over *one-way* duets. Performers rated *coupled* trials as producing higher quality music (21 out of
 187 26 performers rated coupled higher; probability of success = 0.81; exact binomial test $p < .01$). Coupled
 188 trials were also rated as being better coordinated (23 out of 26 performers rated coupled trials as being
 189 better coordinated; probability of success = 0.88; binomial test $p < .01$), and more easily coordinated (24
 190 out of 26 performers found it easier to coordinate with their partner on coupled trials; probability .92;
 191 $p < .01$). Performers also rated themselves as playing more of a supportive (versus lead) role in *one-way*
 192 duos, whereas leadership was rated to be more evenly distributed throughout coupled duos (difference
 193 between average ratings within participant by condition; paired- $t(25) = 3.16$, $p < .01$).

194 Bayesian mixed-effects models predicting the difference in listener ratings between coupled clips and
 195 correspondingly yoked one-way clips indicated that listeners found coupled clips to be more enjoyable
 196 ($M = 0.24$, $SD = .08$, 95% $CI = [.08, 0.40]$) and better coordinated ($M = .43$, $SD = .11$, 95% $CI = [.21, .64]$).
 197 Listeners also perceived unresponsive ‘ghost partners’ to lead live musicians in *one-way* duos ($M = .14$,
 198 $SD = 0.03$, 95% $CI = [0.08, 0.20]$), whereas leadership was perceived to be more evenly distributed in
 199 coupled duos (effect of condition on deviation of leadership ratings from neutral: $M = .14$, $SD = .03$, 95%
 200 $CI = [.08, .19]$). However, listeners did not guess the correct condition above chance level ($M = .03$, $SD =$
 201 0.09 , 95% $CI = [-0.14, 0.21]$). These results held equally for both populations of listeners, as no effects of
 202 subject type were observed.

203 *Mutual Coupling Promotes Synchrony*

² Henceforth “duo” refers to a pair of performers and “duet” refers to a particular piece produced by a duo. Each coupled duo yoked two one-way duos, same for duets.

204 How does coupling influence musicians’ ability to synchronize with one another? Asynchronies between
 205 “near-simultaneous” onsets (co-occurring within 100 milliseconds) played by co-performers were
 206 measured throughout all duets in each condition. Near-zero asynchronies indicate close temporal
 207 alignment, while asynchronies of larger magnitude reflect less precise synchronization. As depicted in
 208 Figure 1, asynchronies in *coupled* trials are peaked around zero (red distribution), whereas asynchronies
 209 in *one-way* trials are more widely distributed throughout the +/- 100 ms range (blue distribution) (KS.test
 210 $D = 0.024$, $p\text{-value} < .01$), indicating that mutually coupled musicians achieved more precise
 211 synchronization compared to musicians in the overdubbed condition. We were also curious about
 212 leader-follower asymmetries in one-way duos, as previous studies have reported that supporting
 213 musicians lag behind lead musicians in certain composed musical contexts [Keller and Appel \(2010\)](#).
 214 However no such effects were observed here; the distribution of asynchronies in *one-way* duets was not
 215 significantly asymmetric around 0 in one direction or the other.

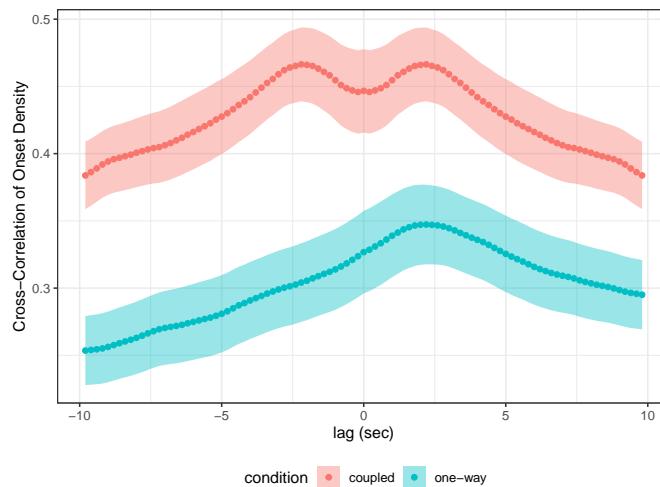


216 **Figure 1.** Mutual coupling facilitates precise synchronization. Distribution of asynchronies between co-performers’ near-simultaneous (within 100 ms) note
 217 onsets throughout all trials in each condition. Asynchronies are more tightly clustered around 0 in coupled trials, indicating more precise temporal alignment.

218 **Activity Matching**

219 Lagged cross-correlation of co-performers’ onset density was computed to analyze how musicians
 220 responded to one another’s rhythmic activity level. Onset density contributes to the perception of musical
 221 tension [Farbood \(2012\)](#). A frenzied musical passage comprising many notes in rapid succession would

222 yield high onset density, whereas a more sparse, mellow passage would yield low onset density. Onset
 223 density time series were computed for each individual note sequence using a 2-second sliding window,
 224 with a 0.2-second hop size. Figure 2 depicts lagged cross-correlations, averaged across all duets in each
 225 condition. Cross-correlation was positive overall (cross-correlation averaged across +/-20 second lag
 226 range: $M = .39$, $SD = .04$, $95\% \text{ CI} = [.31, .47]$), but significantly higher in *coupled* duos (red curve) (fixed
 227 effect of condition: $M = -.13$, $SD = .04$, $\text{CI} = [-.21, -.06]$). These results indicate a general tendency for
 228 musicians to match the onset density of their partners, which was exaggerated in mutually coupled duos.
 229 Within one-way duos, cross-correlation was significantly higher at positive, ‘ghost-to-live’ lags (onset
 230 density ghost recording correlated with future onset density of live musician) compared to negative,
 231 ‘live-to-ghost’ lags (effect of direction: $M = .05$, $SD = .01$, $95\% \text{ CI} = [.02, .08]$). This reflects the
 232 underlying asymmetry in *one-way* duets: live musicians were responsive to notes of ghost recordings but
 233 not the other way around. As reported in the Supporting Information, a complementary Granger
 234 Causality analysis also revealed greater ghost-to-live versus live-to-ghost Granger causality in *one-way*
 235 duos. Lastly, Figure 2 reveals a dip in cross-correlation for coupled duets at simultaneous timepoints, but
 236 this was not statistically significant.



237 **Figure 2.** Musicians match the activity level of their partners. Points represent mean lagged cross-correlation across all trials within each condition. Error
 238 ribbons denote standard error of the mean. Positive lags in *one-way* trials represent the correlation of ghost recording onset density with future onset density of
 239 live musicians (ghost-to-live) and vice versa for negative lags (live-to-ghost).

240 *Emergence and Directed Flow of Tonal Information*

241 A previously established model of tonal structure (see Methods and SI) was adapted to provide a measure
 242 of *tonal consonance*, quantifying how collections of notes sound on a continuum from unstable/dissonant
 243 to stable/consonant [Chew et al. \(2014\)](#); [Herremans et al. \(2016\)](#). Time series of Combined Consonance
 244 (consonance of merged music streams from both players in a duo) were computed with a sliding
 245 window³ Emergent Consonance (EC) was operationalized as Combined Consonance minus average
 246 consonance of each individual music stream. EC captures the consonance arising from the *interaction* of
 247 pitches played by collaborating musicians. A situation in which each pianist plays self-consonant notes
 248 that clash with one another would result in low EC (e.g. {C,E,G} and {F#,A#,C#} are consonant on their
 249 own but {C,E,G,F#,A#,C#} is highly dissonant), whereas a situation in which each pianist plays
 250 dissonant notes that stabilize one another when sounded together would result in high EC (e.g. {C,B}
 251 and {E,G} have low average consonance but {C,E,G,B} has high consonance because it is tonicized to a
 252 Cmaj7 chord). Negative EC values indicate that Combined Consonance is less consonant than the
 253 average Individual Consonance and can be interpreted as emergent *dissonance*. Less negative values can
 254 be interpreted as indexing greater EC (less emergent dissonance) compared to more negative values.

255 A novel lagged consonance analysis was used to quantify how musicians harmonized with one another's
 256 notes as a function of interaction condition. Lagged consonance was computed by shifting individual
 257 note sequences of co-performers relative to one another, computing Combined and Emergent
 258 Consonance time series of the merged pitch collections with a sliding window, and then averaging over
 259 time to get a single consonance value per piece at each lag (5 second sliding window and 2 second hop
 260 size were used, although these results were robust across a range of window sizes, as documented in the
 261 SI). This analysis captures the directed flow of tonal information, as it quantifies the degree to which
 262 individuals harmonized with the preceding notes of their partner. For example, Player A might harmonize
 263 with Player B's past notes but not the other way around, which would be reflected in high consonance for
 264 B-to-A lags but not A-to-B lags. Lagged consonance was computed for every trial in each condition with
 265 lags in the range of +/-20 seconds, spaced by increments of 2 seconds. Positive lags in one-way duos

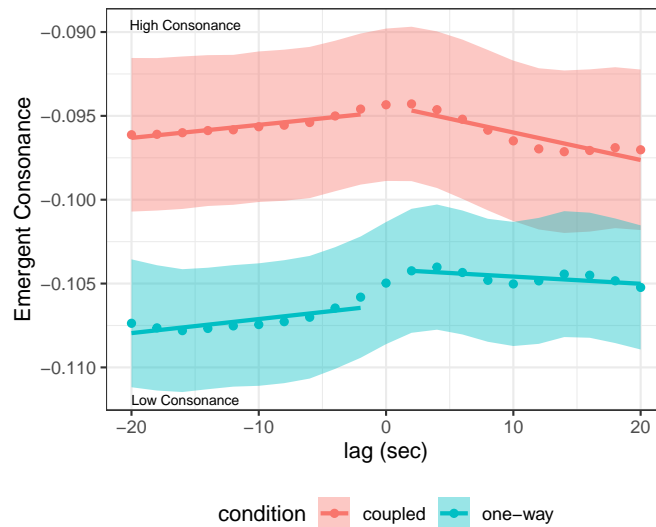
³ A range of window sizes (2, 5 and 10 seconds) were evaluated, with a hop size of 2 seconds. Many of the following reported results were robust across all window sizes, but we indicate cases where this isn't true.

266 correspond to evaluating past notes of the ghost recording with future notes of the live musician
 267 (ghost-to-live) and vice versa for negative lags (live-to-ghost). The beginnings and endings of pieces
 268 (first and last 10%) were discarded to avoid boundary effects.

269 Figure 3 depicts average lagged Emergent Consonance (EC) by condition. Time lags are plotted on the
 270 x-axis, and the y-axis represents average lagged Emergent Consonance throughout all duets in each
 271 condition. EC is essentially symmetric around 0 seconds (simultaneous playing) for *coupled* trials (red
 272 curve), but significantly higher in ghost-to-live (positive) lags compared to live-to-ghost (negative) lags
 273 for *one-way* trials (blue curve) (effect of lag sign on EC averaged across negative and positive lags: $M =$
 274 $-2.90e-3$, $SD = 1.18e-3$, $95\% CI = [-5.22e-3, -5.35e-3]$). This asymmetry in *one-way* trials was also found
 275 with respect to Combined Consonance (effect of lag sign on average CC: $M = -3.45e-3$, $SD = 1.45e-3$,
 276 $95\% CI = [-6.32e-3, -6.19e-4]$). These results reflect the underlying causal entanglements of each
 277 condition. Live musicians in *one-way* trials responded to ghost recordings by harmonizing with their past
 278 notes, but ghost recordings could not respond to notes of live musicians. There was no such asymmetry
 279 in coupled trials, because musicians were mutually responsive. As suggested by the difference in height
 280 between red (coupled) and blue (one-way) data points in Figure 3, EC was significantly higher overall in
 281 coupled versus one-way duos (effect of condition on simultaneous EC: $M = -1.09e-2$, $SD = 4.91e-3$, 95%
 282 $CI = [-2.05e-2, -1.01e-3]$), although this effect was not significant with respect to Combined Consonance
 283 ($M = -1.51e-2$, $SD = 9.50e-3$, $95\% CI = [-3.41e-2, 3.21e-3]$). In sum, coupled improvisers mutually
 284 harmonized with one another's preceding notes, and this dynamic supported more consonant
 285 harmonization between them.

DISCUSSION

290 This study examined how music produced by collaboratively improvising musicians is shaped by
 291 underlying patterns of coordination. Professional jazz pianists improvised in two duo conditions: a
 292 *coupled* condition in which they improvised together simultaneously, and an "overdubbed" (*one-way*)
 293 condition which precluded mutual adaptation because improvisers were recorded sequentially. Our
 294 analyses show that *coupled* duos achieved greater alignment of their note onsets and more consonant
 295 tonal coordination. These results were paralleled in the subjective experience of the performers and naive
 296 listeners, who preferred *coupled* duets despite being blind to condition.



286 **Figure 3.** Lagged consonance analysis reveals musicians harmonize with preceding notes of their partner. Negative lags correspond to notes of the live
 287 musician merged with future notes of the ghost recording (live-to-ghost) and vice versa for positive lags (ghost-to-live). Points denote average EC at a given
 288 lag across every piece within each condition, error bars denote standard error of the mean. Linear fits of EC by lag are shown for negative and positive lags in
 289 each condition.

297 Performers and listeners demonstrated systematic insight into the different causal entanglements of each
 298 condition. Leadership was rated as evenly distributed amongst *coupled* duos, but listeners perceived
 299 “ghost partners” as leading live musicians and performers rated themselves as playing more of a
 300 follower/supporter role in one-way duets. These listener results are remarkable in light of the fact that
 301 they were unable to guess which condition music samples were produced in above chance-level. Listener
 302 perception was thus implicitly influenced by the presence or absence of mutual coupling, without their
 303 conscious awareness.

304 Coupled duos synchronized their note onsets more precisely than one-way duos, as in previous studies
 305 which showed that bidirectional coordination promotes synchronization in finger-tapping tasks
 306 [Konvalinka et al. \(2010\)](#) and scored music performance [Demos et al. \(2017\)](#); [Goebel and Palmer \(2009\)](#).
 307 Here this phenomenon is observed in freely improvising musicians, with no explicit synchronization
 308 objective. Rather, precise synchronization emerged spontaneously, in service of the higher-level goal of
 309 collectively generating compelling music. Previous findings have also suggested that humans have an
 310 innate predisposition to entrain rhythms in social contexts [Kirschner and Tomasello \(2009\)](#), which could

311 elucidate our result insofar as pianists may have sensed a lack of live responsiveness in their partners in
312 *one-way* duets.

313 Mutual coupling supported note onset alignment at longer timescales as well. A cross-correlation
314 analysis of onset density revealed that improvisers tended to match the rhythmic activity of their partners,
315 and this tendency was significantly stronger in coupled duos. This relates to findings in non-musical JA
316 domains. Previous dyadic conversation studies have shown that people spontaneously entrain their
317 movements, and mimic one another's facial expressions, manual gestures, eye gaze and acoustic speech
318 characteristics when verbally interacting with one another [Abney et al. \(2014\)](#); [Louwerse et al. \(2012\)](#);
319 [D. C. Richardson and Dale \(2005\)](#); [Shockley et al. \(2009, 2003\)](#). Behavioral alignment has been
320 proposed to foster successful interaction by signaling affiliative attitudes [Demos et al. \(2012\)](#); [Hove and](#)
321 [Risen \(2009\)](#), and offloading predictive emulation (i.e. of a conversation partner's future behavior) onto
322 one's own behavior [Garrod and Pickering \(2009\)](#); the temporal alignment observed here may serve these
323 same interpersonal functions in improvised musical interactions.

324 Our onset density cross-correlation analysis also inferred different profiles of directional influence for
325 each interaction condition. Cross-correlation was symmetric between coupled partners, but there was an
326 asymmetry in *one-way* duos such that onset density of the live musician correlated with past onset
327 density of the ghost partner (prerecorded track) but not vice versa. This result adds to previous
328 demonstrations that causal influence in performing music ensembles is reflected in the movements and
329 music of co-performers. This has been shown numerous times in the context of composed music [Chang](#)
330 [et al. \(2017\)](#); [Demos et al. \(2017\)](#); [Keller and Appel \(2010\)](#), and the work of [Aucouturier and Canonne](#)
331 [\(2017\)](#) suggested that leader-follower roles induced by experimentally manipulated social attitudes (e.g.
332 caring, dominant) are reflected in sound envelopes (loudness) of improvising musicians. However, this
333 latter finding was somewhat speculative because inter-musician coupling was not explicitly manipulated.
334 In contrast, our overdubbed interaction condition provides a ground-truth to verify our analysis against.
335 Analogous findings were uncovered in the realm of abstract tonal structure. A novel lagged consonance
336 analysis demonstrated that musicians harmonized with the past notes of their partners. This occurred
337 mutually in *coupled* duos but asymmetrically in *one-way* duos, where live musicians harmonized with
338 preceding notes of the ghost recording, but not vice versa. Causal influence between improvisers was
339 thus reflected not just in their rhythms, but also in the notes they played and the directed exchange of

340 tonal information. Additionally, simultaneous Emergent Consonance was significantly greater in *coupled*
341 duos, suggesting that the ability to mutually adapt to one another's previous notes promoted robust tonal
342 coordination.

343 Importantly, our consonance analysis detected not just alignment, but complementary tonal coordination
344 as well. Consonance is not only achieved when musicians play the same pitch, but also when they play
345 complementary sets of pitches that combine to produce consonant harmonies. The tonal coupling
346 observed here can be understood in terms of interpersonal synergies, which have been proposed to
347 emerge in interacting groups whose individuals co-constrain one another in support of group-level
348 objectives [Hasson and Frith \(2016\)](#); [Riley, Richardson, Shockley, and Ramenzoni \(2011\)](#). In this case,
349 note selection is co-constrained between collaboratively improvising musicians in order to generate tonal
350 structure. Our consonance analysis contributes an important extension to previous analyses of naturalistic
351 JA, which have primarily operationalized coordination in terms of behavioral matching, using techniques
352 like cross-correlation and cross recurrence analysis [Dale and Spivey \(2006\)](#); [Louwerse et al. \(2012\)](#);
353 [Paxton and Dale \(2013\)](#); [D. C. Richardson and Dale \(2005\)](#); [D. C. Richardson et al. \(2007\)](#). Here we
354 demonstrate the feasibility of using domain-specific measures (i.e. a tonal consonance model informed
355 by music theory) to assess complementary coordination in support of abstract, functional properties at the
356 group-level (i.e. emergent tonal structure). While there can be no doubt that alignment is an important
357 interpersonal mechanism, more work of this kind is needed to investigate complementary coordination in
358 naturalistic JA contexts [Hasson and Frith \(2016\)](#).

359 Successful coordination is difficult to operationalize in freely improvised music, because it is not
360 explicitly clear what the intentions of musicians are. We analyzed rhythmic alignment and tonal
361 consonance because they are basic musical elements, and we were able to operationalize them while
362 imposing minimal musical assumptions (atonal music would be rated low consonance, onset density
363 works for pulsed and non-pulsed music). The goal of participants was to generate compelling music, as
364 they would strive for in a typical performance, but they were not explicitly instructed to synchronize note
365 onsets or produce consonant harmonies. In fact, some level of musical tension and dissonance is typically
366 desired. This being said, we observed robust effects that mutual coupling promoted temporal alignment
367 and emergent tonal consonance overall. We also observed directional effects on these features consistent
368 with the ground-truth unidirectional influence from recording to musician in *one-way* duets.

369 Furthermore, these results were paralleled in the subjective experience of professional improvisers and
 370 naive listeners with no particular background in jazz music, who preferred mutually coupled duos, and
 371 correctly inferred leadership roles in both conditions.

372 Taken together, these results suggest that coupled dyads achieved enhanced, bidirectional temporal and
 373 tonal coordination, which supported the higher-level goal of generating compelling music. This extends
 374 previous investigations of mutual coupling in idealized experimental paradigms, such as finger tapping
 375 [Konvalinka et al. \(2010\)](#) and the improvised mirror game [Noy et al. \(2011\)](#), into the rich, naturalistic
 376 setting of unconstrained musical improvisation. More specifically, our findings directly implicate the
 377 common studio recording technique of overdubbing – which we show results in systematically different
 378 music than live, coupled interaction. Lastly, our measures of expert musical coordination can be
 379 incorporated into the design of generative AI music systems to make them more human-like and more
 380 musical [Datseris et al. \(2019\)](#); [Gillick et al. \(2019\)](#); [Hawthorne et al. \(2019\)](#); [Hennig \(2014\)](#); [Hennig et al.](#)
 381 [\(2011\)](#); [Huang et al. \(2019\)](#); [A. Roberts et al. \(2019\)](#).

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