An Overview of Systematic Composition

with an Introduction to the Take-Away System

by

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ABSTRACT

A systematic approach to composition has been used by a variety of composers to control an assortment of musical elements in their pieces. This paper begins with a brief survey of some of the important systematic approaches that composers have employed in their compositions, devoting particular attention to Pierre Boulez’s *Structures Ia*. The purpose of this survey is to examine several systematic approaches to composition by prominent composers and their philosophy in adopting this type of approach. The next section of the paper introduces my own systematic approach to composition: the Take-Away System. The third provides several musical applications of the system, citing my work, *Octulus* for two pianos, as an example. The appendix details theorems and observations within the system for further study.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER 1

A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF SYSTEMATIC COMPOSITION

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to first examine several approaches to systematic composition from various composers in the past, then to introduce my own system, and finally, to explore various philosophies behind such an approach to composition. The first chapter will provide a brief historical overview of systematic composition. The intent is not to provide a complete or exhaustive history, but rather, to survey different systems that have been employed in the past, demonstrating the diverse interest in systematic composition. In particular, Boulez’s Structures Ia will be addressed with comparisons between Boulez’s systematic approach to composition and in my own work. The second chapter will then introduce the Take-Away System with the third chapter showing how this system can be applied to music citing musical examples from my composition, Octulus, for two pianos. In conclusion the philosophy behind systematic composition will be examined.

A Brief Overview of Systematic Composition

Throughout history, composers have used rules to assist them in composition. Within the tonal method, composers often adhered to conventions regarding melody, harmony, and form when writing their works. However, these
composers ultimately had a large amount of control and freedom over each element of music and these works could rarely be seen as rigidly systematic.

After World War I, Schoenberg introduced the twelve-tone method. He saw this as a logical evolution from the musical trends of the preceding one hundred years.¹ Schoenberg remarks “these new sounds obey the laws of nature and of our manner of thinking—the conviction that order, logic, comprehensibility and form cannot be present without obedience to such laws.”² Paul Lansky argues that ever since Schoenberg, and even more so today, “Analytic ideas are influenced by our compositional experiences, and compositional notations are inspired by analytic observations.”³ This might explain why an increased number of composers have sought to use systematic approaches to composition since the development of the twelve-tone method.

One systematic approach to composition was used by Steve Reich from 1965-1971 and was called the *gradual phase shifting process.*⁴ Reich discovered

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² Schoenberg, 218.

³ Paul Lansky, “Pitch Class Consciousness,” Perspectives of New Music 13, no. 2 (04/1975): 30.

this system by accident when he was playing two identical recordings on two
different tape recorders at the same time.\footnote{Ibid., 20-21.} According to Reich:

The two machines happened to be lined up in unison and one of them
gradually started to get ahead of the other. The sensation I had in my head
was that the sound moved over to my left ear, down to my left shoulder,
down my left arm, down my leg, out across the floor to the left, and finally
began to reverberate and shake and become the sound I was looking for . . .
When I heard that, I realized it was more interesting than any one
particular relationship, because it was the process (of gradually passing
through all the canonic relationships) making an entire piece, and not just a
moment in time.\footnote{Ibid., 21.}

Reich first used his gradual phase shifting process in the piece \textit{It's Gonna}
\textit{Rain} (1965) for tape and used it almost exclusively for seven years with the only
exception being \textit{Four Organs} (1970). Reich found that with some practice he
could replicate the sound of the gradual phase shifting process live with human
performers.\footnote{Ibid., 22-24.} Other pieces using the gradual phase shifting process include \textit{Piano}
\textit{Phase} (1967) for two pianos, \textit{Violin Phase} (1967) for violin and three channels of
tape (or for four violins), \textit{Pendulum Music} (1968) for microphones, amplifiers,
speakers and performers, and \textit{Phase Patterns} (1970) for four electric organs.

Reich explains that the gradual phase process is an extension of the idea of
an infinite canon or round.\footnote{Ibid., 20.} In comparison to more traditional canons, however,
Reich states that in his process the melodic material is shorter and the time interval between the melodic idea and its imitation is variable. Thus, Reich’s gradual process music uses a small amount of material and the phasing of his system generates the piece. Reich explains that his process allows him to go “through a number of relationships between two identities without ever having any transitions. It was a seamless, uninterrupted musical process.\textsuperscript{9}

Frederic Rzewski also developed an approach to composition in which a single idea could be systematically transformed into a large musical structure. Rzewski’s system came to him “in a flash.”\textsuperscript{10} Some time earlier, Rzewski had tape-recorded a simple 65-note melody he had whistled while walking along the street. Later, on a train, he was pondering how to compose a work for a variable instrumentation and an indeterminate size of ensemble. Frans Bruggen had asked Rzewski to write a work for a group that Bruggen had formed with some of his students.

Rzewski applied an “additive procedure” on his 65-note melody. He describes the system by having the performers play:

\textsuperscript{9} Ibid., 20.

\textsuperscript{10} Frederic Rzewski, Nonsequiturs: Writings & Lectures On Improvisation, Composition, and Interpretation = Unlogische Folgerungen: Schriften Und Vorträge Zu Improvisation, Komposition Und Interpretation, 1. Aufl. ed. (Köln: MusikTexte, 2007), 440.
the first note, then the first two notes, then the first three, and so on until reaching note sixty-five, at which point I could begin to shrink it again towards the end by leaving out note 1, then notes 1 and 2, and so on, until ending with notes 63-64-65-64-65.11

Rzewski calls his approach “squaring” and he titled his 65-note melody for Bruggen Les Moutons de Panurge (“The Sheep of Panurge”). With squaring, Rzewski notes that the system creates a piece much longer (his twenty second melody becomes a piece around twenty minutes long) and with a different effect from the original inspiration. Rzewski uses his “squaring” idea on other pieces such as Jefferson (1970) for solo voice and piano and Song and Dance (1977): for flute, bassoon, clarinet, double bass, and vibraphone. Rzewski expands his squaring procedure to include rhythm and phrasing in his works Coming Together (1972) and Attica (1972)—both pieces for speaker, low instruments and ensemble.12 With both Reich and Rzewski, a relatively simple system is utilized to control the overall structure and the detail of the piece.

Iannis Xenakis provided a unique outlook to composition reflective of his varied background in civil engineering, architecture, and music. Xenakis applied mathematical concepts of probability, set theory, group theory, and game theory, in his music. In some of Xenakis’ works there is an explicit connection to a systematic approach to composition. In his work Herma (1960-1961) for solo

11 Ibid., 440-442.

12 Ibid., 450.
piano, Xenakis states that the work is composed by combining sets of notes in logical ways. Using the ideas of union and intersection from set theory, he states:

"I take all the notes of the two sets. Then I can take the sounds the two sets have in common. And finally I can take the sounds that the two sets don’t have in common. There are, of course, other, more complex logical functions. In each case, I get a new set."14

Unlike Reich and Rzewski where the systematic process remains relatively audible to the listener, Xenakis takes liberties with his systems and his operations may not be easily heard. Even finding the sets and logical operations that Xenakis describes in his scores can be difficult, if not extremely frustrating as he admits to adjusting his systems to his own personal criteria of interest.15 Evan Jones, in his analysis of Herma and Tetora shows how difficult this process can be and creates complex computer algorithms to determine which sets of notes Xenakis is utilizing.16

As opposed to Xenakis’ mathematical perspective, John Cage used chance operations in his work Music of Changes (1951) for solo piano. Cage, influenced


14 Ibid., 85.


16 Ibid., 240.
by the *I-Ching*, constructed charts for sounds and silences, durations, dynamics, number of layers, and tempi.\(^{17}\) With his notes, Cage carefully arranged his charts so that all twelve chromatic pitches would occur in any row or column.\(^ {18}\) Once all twelve chromatic pitches were used, Cage took liberties and added other notes and extended techniques in his charts. Some of his extended techniques include: clusters, harmonics, string piano techniques, arm clusters, scraping the fingernails along a string inside the piano, slamming the keyboard lid closed, striking various parts of the piano with a wood sick, and dropping a cymbal beater vertically into the piano so that it hits the sound board.\(^{19}\)

Cage then flipped coins to make his musical decisions relating to the succession and realization of each musical element.\(^ {20}\) Cage’s system combines control and chance: “Charts were used for the *Music of Changes*, but in contrast to the method which involved chance operations, these charts were subjected to a rational control.”\(^ {21}\) While Xenakis deviates from his system to exhibit greater


\(^{19}\) Bernstein, 207.

\(^{20}\) Bernstein, 208.

\(^{21}\) Cage, 25-26.
control over his work, Cage’s systematic use of chance operations relinquish some of his control over the work.

While John Cage was composing *Music of Changes*, Pierre Boulez was writing *Structures Ia* (1951-1952) for two pianos. Inspired by Messiaen’s *Mode de valeurs et d’intensités* Boulez writes in a letter to John Cage in August of 1951, that his compositional attention for the past year had been “focused on the expansion and homogeneity of the field of serialism.”22 Boulez not only orders pitches, rhythms, articulations, and dynamics like Messiaen, but uses his organization of pitches to determine the order of rhythms, articulations and dynamics. In this sense, Boulez’s systematic approach is much more exhaustive and rigidly applied than any of the previously mentioned composers.

To begin, Boulez used a series of twelve pitches taken from Messiaen’s *Mode de valeurs et d’intensités* (Figure 1). Boulez numbers each pitch in the order it appears in the original series. When Boulez transposes the row down a half step (Figure 2), the numbers do not decrease by one. Instead, the numbers are still assigned to the order of the original row. Boulez also inverted the original series (Figure 3) similarly keeping the numbers assigned to the pitch order in the original series.

---

Calculating all twelve transpositions of the row and its inversion, Boulez created two matrices (Figure 4) and used these charts to determine all of the pitches, rhythms, articulations and dynamics throughout the work. Matrix A contains the 12 transpositions of the original series and Matrix B contains the 12 transpositions of the inversion of the original series.

It is helpful to think of Structures Ia in two parts even though the work is divided into several sections with double bars and fermatas. For the pitch content Boulez uses each row in both Matrix A and B exactly once in the first part of Structures Ia and then uses the retrograde of each row in both matrices exactly once in the second part of the movement.
Piano I begins with the original series and plays all of the transpositions (rows) in Matrix A. The order of the transpositions is determined by the inversion of the original series [1, 7, 3, 10, 12, 9, 2, 11, 6, 4, 8, 5]. Thus, after Piano I plays the original series (the top row of Matrix A), it begins the seventh row in Matrix A, then the third row, followed by the tenth row, twelfth row, and so on, until it ends with the fifth row.
Piano II begins playing the inversion of the series (the top row of Matrix B) and plays all of the transpositions (rows) in Matrix B. The order Piano II plays these rows is dictated by the original series [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12]. After Piano II plays the inversion (the top row of Matrix B), it begins the row in Matrix B that starts with the number 2, followed by the row that starts with number 3, and so on until it ends by playing the row that begins with the number 12. It should be mentioned that in both piano parts Boulez sometimes has two or three rows occur concurrently throughout the movement. When this occurs, rows begin simultaneously and can be differentiated through articulations and dynamics.

After each piano has completed its matrix, Boulez has the pianos switch matricies for the second part of the movement. Piano I plays all of the rows in Matrix B in retrograde and Piano II plays all of the rows in Matrix A in retrograde. In the first part of the movement all of the transpositions of the original series and transpositions of the inversion of the original series are played, and in the second part of the movement all of the transpositions of the retrograde and retrograde inversion of the original series are played. Thus, the row and its representation in the matrices controls not only the note-to-note pitch decisions, but also the succession of rows for the entire piece. The succession of rows is executed in a completely systematic fashion.
Rhythmically, Boulez follows a similar plan. He first writes all of the
durations from one to twelve $32^{\text{nd}}$ notes from smallest to largest. Then, Boulez
assigns a number from one to twelve to each duration from shortest to longest
(Figure 5). Like his pitch series, Boulez again takes his rhythmic ordering from
Messiaen’s *Mode de valeurs et d’intensités*.23

Figure 5. Boulez’s durational serialization of rhythm (the row)

Boulez then applies the same matrices he used with pitch to transpose
and invert his rhythms. Since the numbers in the matrices are linked with the
pitches, the transposition of the durations of the series is not necessarily
rhythmically intuitive. Transposing Boulez’s original rhythm up one number,
does not add one $32^{\text{nd}}$ note to each note. Instead, the numbers are found in the
second row of Matrix A and a very different rhythm appears (Figure 6). When
the original series is inverted (Figure 7) another unique rhythm is produced.

Figure 6. Boulez’s original rhythm transposed

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23 Pierre Boulez, The Boulez-Cage Correspondence, ed. Jean-Jacques
Nattiez and Robert Samuels (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993),
101.
Figure 7. Boulez’s original rhythm inverted

1 7 3 10 12 9 2 11 6 4 8 5

For the first section of the piece, the durations of the notes in Piano I follow the inversion matrix (Matrix B) in retrograde and the durations of the notes in Piano II follow the original matrix (Matrix A) in retrograde. Both piano parts (like with the ordering of the pitches in the second part) start with the bottom row of the matrix and end with the top row. In the opening measures of the work (Figure 8), Piano I’s durations follow the bottom line of Matrix B in retrograde [12, 11, 9, 10, 3, 6, 7, 1, 2, 8, 4, 5] and Piano II’s durations follow the bottom line of Matrix A in retrograde [5, 8, 6, 4, 3, 9, 2, 1, 7, 11, 10, 12].

In the second part of the movement, Piano I remains with the inversion matrix (Matrix B) and plays each row in Matrix B starting with row 12, then 11, then 9, then 10, 3, 6, 7, 1, 2, 8, 4, and ending with row 5 (the order of these rows is the bottom row in Matrix B in retrograde).

Piano II remains with the original matrix (Matrix A) and each duration follows the rows in Matrix A starting with row 5, then 8, 6, 4, 3, 9, 2, 1, 7, 11, 10, and ending with row 12 (the order of these rows is the bottom row of Matrix A in retrograde). With rhythm, the systematic exploitation of the matrices again determines the succession of durations (the row) and the succession of durational rows throughout the work.
Boulez also serializes dynamics and articulations in *Structures Ia*. While he uses the same pitch and durational series as in Messiaen’s *Mode de valeurs et d’intensités*, he deviates from his teacher’s dynamic and articulation assignments. Boulez expands his dynamics to include twelve different dynamic markings.
(though he only uses ten of these in *Structures Ia*) and twelve different articulations (but again, only uses ten of these in the first movement). Figure 9 shows Boulez’s arrangement of dynamics and articulations.

Figure 9. Boulez’s numerical assignments of dynamics and articulations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pppp</th>
<th>ppp</th>
<th>pp</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>quasi</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>mp</th>
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>.gz · N/A normal ʃ/ \√ /sf₂ > N/A ʃ\n
Boulez selects his dynamics and articulations from the diagonal lines from the matrices he constructed for pitches and inversion of pitches (see Figure 10). Since the diagonals only contain ten of the twelve integers, only ten dynamics and ten articulations are used throughout the piece. Piano I uses the original matrix and Piano II uses the inversion matrix. Boulez does not assign a different dynamic or articulation for each note. Instead, he employs one dynamic and one articulation per row.

---


25 Ibid., 30.
Figure 10. Diagonal lines in Boulez’s matrices to determine dynamics and articulations

With dynamics, Piano I starts with the diagonal from the lower left corner of the original matrix (Matrix A) to the top right corner. Thus, the first twelve pitch rows of Piano I would have the dynamic designations of 12, 7, 7, 11, 11, 5,
5, 11, 11, 7, 7, 12. After this diagonal, the dynamic numbers start at the bottom center of the matrix and move up and to the left and when reaching the edge of the matrix, continue from the top center and move diagonally downward and to the right. Figure 11 shows the complete dynamic assignments for Piano I and II.

Piano II follows a similar pattern using the Inversion Matrix (Matrix B). Boulez does deviate some from this system, and the discrepancies are notated with a * in Figure 11.

Figure 11. Dynamic scheme for Piano I and II in Boulez’s *Structures Ia*.

a) Piano I:

```
4444 mf mf 4444 quasi p quasi p 4444 mf mf 4444
12  7  7 11  11  5  5 11  11*  7  7 12

ppp ppp ppp ppp mp f mf f mp pppp pp ppp
2  3  1  6  9  7  7  9  6  1  3  2
```

b) Piano II:

```
quasi p ppp ppp quasi f quasi f 4444 4444 quasi f quasi f ppp ppp quasi p
5  2  2  8  8 12* 12*  8  8  2  2  5

mf pp pppp f mp ppp ppp mp f pppp pp mf
7  3  1  9  6  2  2  6  9  1  3  7
```

With articulations, Piano I starts in the lower right hand corner of the Inversion Matrix (Matrix B) and moves to the top left corner. The first twelve pitch rows of Piano I would have the articulation designations of 12, 12, 8, 3, 5, 8,
3, 5, 11, 1, 11, 1. After this diagonal, the articulation numbers start at the middle of the right side of the matrix and proceed diagonally downward and to the left.

Figure 12 shows the complete articulation assignments for Piano I and II. Piano II follows a similar pattern using the Original Matrix (Matrix A).

Figure 12. Articulation scheme for Piano I and II in Boulez’s Structures Ia

a) Piano I:

```
12 12 8 3 5 8 3 5 11 1 11 1
6  1 12 12 1 6 9 9 7 7 9 9
```

b) Piano II:

```
5  5 11 3 12 11 3 12 8 1 8 1
6  6 2 2 6 6 9 1 5 5 1 9
```

Structures Ia uses a total of 48 rows for both pitches and durations. Each matrix is used twice for each of these parameters. Using his durational system with rhythm, each instance of the row lasts exactly the same length (since it is always the sum of the same twelve durations). Other than Boulez’s choice of how many rows to present concurrently, once Boulez has exhausted his system, the piece is over and so his system largely governs the form of the piece as well.
Connections Between Boulez’s Structures Ia and Octulus

Like Reich and Rzewski, Boulez’s Structures Ia is a work that is developed from very little material. However, unlike Reich and Rzewski, Boulez aspires to control more parameters within his system. After ordering and numbering a single series of pitches, Boulez employed transposition, inversion, retrograde, and retrograde inversion to determine all of the durations and pitches used throughout the movement. Further, Boulez used his two matricies to determine all of the articulations and dynamics.

There are elements that Boulez determines apart from his matricies. Notes seem to be placed in arbitrary registers throughout the entire range of the keyboard. In addition, the number of rows performed simultaneously and the various tempi used throughout the movement seem to be determined independently.

In Octulus, I similarly wanted to use a single source to generate pitch and rhythm. Using the Take-Away System, I was able to derive a 40-element cycle that generates almost all of the pitches and much of the rhythmic content throughout the work. Transposition, inversion, retrograde and retrograde inversion also all play a prominent role in the development of the piece.

Unlike Boulez’s Structures, there are liberties with the durations and pitches in order to provide flexibility outside of the system. Octulus A is the most strict in using the Take-Away System on a variety of elements while in
Octulus B and Octulus D the Take-Away System is used primarily to control pitch. In Octulus C, the Take-Away System is used with both pitches and rhythms. Other musical elements that employ the Take-Away System in Octulus include register, form, harmony, and linear density. Unlike Boulez, I did not apply the Take-Away System to dynamics or articulations.

The Philosophy of Systematic Composition

Even though there have been a variety of systems employed by composers, the question arises of why some composers turned to a systematic approach to composition. Why would a composer surrender control of one or more aspects of their music to a system?

Steve Reich accepts his limited role as a composer in using a system. He writes that he discovers musical processes and only composes the musical material to run through that process. After the process is set up, he allows the system to run by itself.26 In fact, he even considers his early gradual phase shifting pieces as processes rather than compositions.27 He states:

I saw that my methods [on the gradual phase shifting pieces] did not involve moving from one note to the next, in terms of each note in the piece representing the composer’s taste working itself out bit by bit. My music was more of an impersonal process.28


27 Ibid., 33.

28 Ibid.
However, Reich would argue that the impersonality of his system actually gives performers more of an opportunity to bring their own emotional life to the piece.\textsuperscript{29} In addition, Reich states that his system actually gives him \textit{more} control over his works:

Musical processes can give one a direct contact with the impersonal and also a kind of complete control and one doesn’t always think of the impersonal and complete control as going together. By a “kind” of complete control I mean that by running this material through this process I completely control all that results, but also that I accept all that results without changes.\textsuperscript{30}

For Frederic Rzewski, the rationale in using a system might appear more pragmatic with \textit{Les Moutons de Panurge} in the fact that his squaring method allows for the construction of a much larger piece and also provided a solution to the requirements of the indeterminate ensemble for Frans Bruggen.

However, in \textit{Jefferson} (1970) Rzewski states that the rigorous structuralism of the squaring technique counterbalances the otherwise restrained freedom of the vocal line and helps to reflect the sober and careful construction of the text (which is The Declaration of Independence).\textsuperscript{31} In this work Rzewski uses

\textsuperscript{29} Ibid., 27.

\textsuperscript{30} Ibid., 35.

\textsuperscript{31} Frederic Rzewski, Nonsequiturs: Writings & Lectures On Improvisation, Composition, and Interpretation = Unlogische Folgerungen: Schriften Und Vorträge Zu Improvisation, Komposition Und Interpretation, 1. Aufl. ed. (Köln: MusikTexte, 2007), 446.
his system with a vocal line that is not systematic at all. He can control certain aspects of the piece, but allows his system to control other elements of the work.

Likewise, John Cage exhibited control in the making of the charts for Music of Changes but left the execution of the charts to chance. He states, “One may conclude from this that in the Music of Changes the effect of the chance operations on the structure was balanced by a control of the materials.”32 With Rzewski, Reich, and Cage, systematic approaches were combined with elements of chance or intuition.

When Pierre Boulez was composing Structures Ia he states that he believes music has entered “a new stage of activity, the serial form.”33 In fact, Boulez’s goal in Structures Ia was to “generalize the notion of the series itself.” He generalizes his organization of the pitch row expanding it to durations, articulations, and dynamics.

Boulez did not continue to write works that exhibit control over so many parameters of music. In his article Alea, Boulez writes that every aspect of creative thought should not be automatically created. He states that it should

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“take its place as a particularly effective resource at a certain stage in a works’ development,” and additionally remarks:

If you are only obsessed with organization, then practically you arrive at chaos, because an excess of organization in physics brings chaos. Chaos alone does not bring any order. Therefore, I have to accept the stream, which is an order, and within this stream I must accept the unforeseeable elements, which you cannot control. But I have to make the best use of them that is possible.

Iannis Xenakis comments that the advantage of using probability, algorithms, statistics and logic for a starting point in a composition is that the principles helped to determine logical steps for moving a work forward. In addition, they “were also used to avoid the traditional ways of thinking about music.” Xenakis states quite frankly, “I think that my involvement in music, my privilege and also my duty, is to try and do something different. Otherwise, what the hell! The others have done much better than me in the past.”

None of these composers applied a system designed to control every aspect of music. Within each of these composer’s works, there is always an element of control that is exercised by the composer outside of the system.


37 Ibid., 183.
Boulez writes that composition is the result of constant choice. In my own system, I likewise exert an amount of control over various elements of music. While I have used the system to dictate much of the pitch and rhythmic content of the work, certain decisions were made apart from the system. Like Xenakis, I have used my system to avoid traditional ways of thinking about music.

CHAPTER 2

THE TAKE-AWAY SYSTEM

Introduction

My own systematic approach to composition stems from a fascination between order and chaos. In my own system, I have sought a way to allow a composer to organize a certain number of elements, and then employ a series of permutations that rearranges those elements in a way that is defined by the system. The name comes from the concept that each element will be selected one at a time and then “taken-away” from the set. The same operation will be placed upon the set as the elements are taken away one at a time.

The Take-Away System

The Take Away Modulus System is comprised of the following rules:

First, one needs a set with more than one element since a set with only one element cannot be rearranged. The number of elements in the set may be as large as desired. However, for the purposes of functionality, I will be focusing largely on sets with up to twelve elements. Elements in a set should be used once and not repeat.

Second, the modulus of the set will equal the number of elements in the set. Thus, a set with seven elements will be using modulus seven. Mathematically, a modulus can be defined as the number of classes we have broken the integers up into. Very interesting results could occur by using an
operation of a different modulus on a set (using modulus seven on a set of five elements). However, these observations are outside the scope of this study.

Third, elements in the set will be arbitrarily notated as \([a, b, c, d\ldots]\) and the number of the element as it is arranged in the set will be the primary concern with the operation (\(a\) is the first element, \(b\) is the second element, etc.).

Fourth, the operation on the set will be arithmetic and is concerned with the arrangement of the elements. Meaning if I take the set \([a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h]\) and add two to the placement of element \(c\), I arrive at element \(e\). In the same set, if I add two to the seventh element, \(g\), I would arrive at the first element since the ninth element = first element mod8 \((g + 2 = a)\). Note that the operation has no implication on the value of the element within the set (the value of \(a\) ≠ the value of \(e\), nor does the value of \(a + 2\) necessarily equal the value of \(c\)) since the operation is not concerned with the quantitative differences between elements (\(a\) is not necessarily greater than or less than \(b\)).

Fifth, an element is selected by choosing every \(n\)-th element of a set (where \(n\) is the modulus of the set). However, once an element is selected, it is removed from that set and placed in a new set (it is “taken away”). Whatever element is selected first from the original set is now the first element in the new set. Whatever the third element is that is selected from the original set is now the third element of the new set. The operation is then repeated resuming from the exact spot of the element that had just been removed.
Finally, once all elements have been selected and removed from the original set, the new set, the new arrangement of elements can be used as a set to repeat the process all over again.

**An Example of the System**

Take a set of eight elements. The modulus for this set will be set to correspond directly to the eight elements in the set. Let the eight elements of the set be denoted as: [a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h]. Thus, in the arrangement of our original set a is the first element, b is the second element, c is the third element…and so forth. Following our rule to select every $n$-th element (where $n$ is the modulus), we will be selecting every eighth element. Therefore in our original set $h$ is the eighth element of the set so it is removed from the original set and now placed as the first element in our new set. Our original set now only has seven elements [a, b, c, d, e, f, g] and we resume exactly where we left off (where the element $h$ was). Counting eight elements form this spot in our now original set of seven elements, we end on the first element $a$ (wrapping around the set twice). We now remove $a$ from our original set and place it as the second element in our new set. Our original set now only has six elements [b, c, d, e, f, g] and our new set contains two elements [h, a].

Repeating the process and counting another eight elements from where we left off with the six remaining elements, we next end up on element $c$. Thus our new set now contains three elements [h, a, c] and our original set is down to five
elements [b, d, e, f, g]. If we carry-on in a like manner, our next elements will be f, then e, then b, then g, and finally d. Our new set is now completely rearranged [h, a, c, f, e, b, g, d] and our original set is now empty.

We may then repeat the Take-Away System on our new set to get another ordering of our set. The second permutation would result [d, h, c, b, e, a, g, h]. If we apply the system again, we then have [f, d, c, a, e, h, g, b]. With two more permutations, the results are [b, f, c, h, e, d, g, a] and then [a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h], which takes back to our original ordering of the elements. The Take-Away System takes an original ordering of elements in a set and rearranges those elements through a number of permutations and eventually returns back to the original ordering.
CHAPTER 3

APPLYING THE TAKE-AWAY SYSTEM

Applying the Take-Away System to Pitch

In my own work Octulus, I have almost exclusively used a modulus of 8 on an eight-element set with the Take-Away System. I will therefore focus most of the application of the system on modulus 8. Implementing the Take-Away System to notes is perhaps the most intuitive application. Limited to a modulus of 8, I chose a symmetrical octatonic scale with a one-to-one correspondence of each element in my set to a note. Given the cyclic construction of the octatonic scale (altering between whole-steps and half-steps), the octatonic scale afforded the avoidance of favoring any one note (designating a tonic) as well as the opportunity to “modulate” to and from other symmetrical octatonic scales by applying basic transformations on the set.

Beginning with the two octatonic scales starting on C (pitch-classes will always be designated with capital letters, while lower-case letters will refer to elements in the set), I could order the sets in ascending order as [C, D, Eb, F, F#, G#, A, B] and [C, Db, Eb, E, F#, G, A, Bb]. I will arbitrarily refer to the preceding scales as Scales 1 and 2. By applying the Take-Away System on each set the first permutation would be [B, C, Eb, G#, F#, D, A, F] and [Bb, C, Eb, G, F#, Db, A, E] respectively. The third octatonic scale (that does not have a ‘C’) [C#, D, E, F, G, Ab, Bb, B] would result in the first permutation of [B, C#, E, Ab,
G, D, Bb, F) referred to as Scale 3. Figure 13 shows the complete permutation cycle of the three symmetrical octatonic scales.

Figure 13. Complete permutation cycle of three octatonic scales.

![Scale 1 Table]

![Scale 2 Table]

![Scale 3 Table]

Figure 14 shows a musical rendering of Scale 1 beginning with the first permutation (from Octulus B mm. 1-5 in Piano 1). Each note in the cycle receives a sixteenth note with ties over repeated notes to distinguish each permutation. With a 40-note cycle, the duration lasts a total of five measures (in 2/4 time).
It is then possible to apply transformations upon the entire 40-element cycle such as transposition, retrograde, inversion, and retrograde-inversion. Figure 15 shows a realization of the cycle using Scale 1 inverted and transposed up a half step.

When an octatonic row is inverted, a different octatonic scale is produced. In the preceding inversion (Figure 15), the original scale was preserved through transposition. However Figure 16 shows how the direct inversion of Scale 1, results in a “modulation” to Scale 3 [C#, D, E, F, G, Ab, Bb, B].
One interesting property of the Take-Away System is that the original arrangement of the row will eventually return after a finite number of permutations (see Theorem 4 in Appendix A). So when the original arrangement of the set is assigned to an ascending scale, the presence of ascending and descending scales will exist (see mm. 5, 25, or 118 in Figures 14, 15, or 16).

In all four movements of Octulus, almost all of the pitch content is comprised of one of the three scales either using all or part of the permutation cycles directly or using one of the aforementioned transformations on a permutation cycle. In Octulus C the permutation cycle is divided into three or four note chords instead of the linear movement seen in Octulus B (see Figure 14). Figure 17 shows the permutation cycle of Scale 1 in a simplification of both piano parts. Likewise, the permutation of Scale 2 can be seen in Octulus D in the bass line of the chordal progression shown in Figure 18.

Figure 17. Octulus C compilation and simplification of mm. 1-13
Applying the Take-Away System to Rhythm

In *Octulus* I have mainly applied the Take-Away System to durations of rhythms like Boulez’s *Structures Ia*. In using the Take-Away System with rhythm, I have substituted the elements variable names [a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h] with each element’s original arrangement number [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8]. In *Octulus* I have mainly applied the first permutation of this set [8, 1, 3, 6, 5, 2, 7, 4] to the rhythm.

The opening bars of *Octulus A* reveal how each harmony lasts according to these durations (with the quarter note equaling the beat unit). Figure 19 is a simplification of mm. 1-9 of *Octulus A* illustrating the rhythmic ordering in one grand staff.
Durations can be altered by using the retrograde of the first permutation (Figure 20), multiplying a constant to each duration to get a similar ratio (Figure 21), or by using the inverted durations (Figure 22). In the latter example, each element in the first permutation of the set is subtracted from the modulus plus one so our first permutation \([8, 1, 3, 6, 5, 2, 7, 4]\) becomes \([1, 8, 6, 3, 4, 7, 2, 5]\).

Figure 23 shows the numerical representation of the permutation cycle as well as the numerical representation of the transformations on the cycle.
Figure 21. *Octulus A* mm. 37-42 (Piano 2 Left Hand)

Durations: 5 1/3, 2/3, 2, 4, 3 1/3, 1 1/3, 4 2/3, 2 2/3

![Note representation](image1)

Ratio: 8 1 3 6 5 2 7 4
(2/3:1)

Figure 22. *Octulus A* mm. 93-97 (Piano 1 Right Hand)

![Note representation](image2)

Duration: 1 8 6 3 4 7 2 5
(in eighth notes)

Figure 23. Numerical representation of the system (mod 8) with basic transformations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Cycle</th>
<th>Inversion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Retrograde</th>
<th>Retrograde Inversion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 8 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 7 |
| 7 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 8 | 6 | 5 | 3 |
| 3 | 2 | 8 | 4 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 1 |
| 5 | 2 | 7 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 8 | 1 |

Durational rhythms can be seen in other places throughout *Octulus*. Some other notable examples include *Octulus A* mm. 129-144 (Piano II), *Octulus B* mm. 59-82 and mm. 233-256 (Pianos I & II), and *Octulus C* mm. 14-18, 21-25, 27-32, 34-38 (Pianos I & II).
A different systematic approach to rhythm is employed in *Octulus A* mm. 49-72. I have divided each measure into eight parts. In this case, each eighth-note/rest in a 4/4 measure would be numbered one through eight and will be referred to as time points (1-8). A note is assigned to a specific time point in the measure using transformations of the cycle (see Figure 24a). The linear density (number of notes per measure) and register are also based on a different transformation of the cycle and will be discussed later.

Figure 24. *Octulus A* mm. 49-52 (Piano 2)

a) Analytical Chart of *Octulus A* mm. 49-52 (Piano 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Density (number of pitches per measure)</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Follows original cycle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pitches used Follows Retrograde Inversion of Scale 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time point in measure (1-8) Follows the Retrograde</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Follows the Inversion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) Annotated rhythms of *Octulus A* mm. 49-53 (Piano 2)

In Figure 24 (*Octulus A* mm. 49-53) the pitches of Piano 2 are found by the retrograde inversion of the cycle using Scale 1 omitting repeated notes: [B, C#, ...
D, E, F, G, Ab, Bb, C#, F, E, B…]. However, the notes are not quite in this order because rhythmically, they are assigned a time point within the measure using the retrograde of the cycle (again omitting repeated numbers) [8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, 7, 4, 5, 8…]. So the first pitch in the set, B, occurs on time point eight in measure 49. The second pitch, C#, occurs on time point 7, the third note, D, on time point 6, etc.

**Applying the Take-Away System to Register**

Applying the Take-Away System to register for a piece with piano poses the problem of how to divide the eighty-eight keys on the keyboard. In *Octulus A*, subsets or the entire range of the keyboard were divided in equal sections. In mm. 49-56, for example, a four-octave range was used (see Figure 25a). Notes in this section were appointed to a register using a process similar to that used for the rhythmic durations (see Figure 23). In mm. 49-56, if a note had the register designation of a 1 or a 2 it would indicate the lowest octave, 3-4 would be in the second octave, 5-6 the third octave, and 7-8 would place the note in the fourth octave.
Figure 25 Applying the Take-Away System to Register

Figure 25a. Register chart of *Octulus A* mm. 49-56 and realization (mm. 49-53)

a) 4 octave range

Figure 25b. Register chart *Octulus A* mm. 57-64 and realization (mm. 57-61)

b) Over 5 octave range
In mm. 57-64, this range was expanded to over 5 octaves (Figure 25b). In these measures, each register had the span of a perfect fifth and the register number corresponded to each fifth (1-8). If a note were assigned to a register in which it did not exist (for example if the range of the register was the perfect fifth between C-G and the note assigned to that register was a B), both appropriate notes above and below that register would be used (both B’s above and below the fifth would be played simultaneously).

In mm. 65-72, the entire range of the keyboard was utilized. With an expanded range of 88 notes, the keyboard could be divided into 8 ten-note sections (Figure 25c). Like the preceding eight measures, if a note was designated to a
register in which it did not exist, the appropriate notes directly above and below that register would be used.

**Applying the Take-Away System to Form**

The Take-Away System could be applied to form by using the first permutation of the set as a series of ratios. In *Octulus A*, the eight formal structures are 32 measures, 4 measures, 12 measures, 24 measures, 20 measures, 8 measures, 28 measures, and 20 measures (multiplying each element of the set [8, 1, 3, 6, 5, 2, 7, 4] by four). An arch form is employed with the style in these sections in *Octulus A*, as retrograde plays a large role in the pitch construction.

**Applying the Take-Away System to Harmonies and Density**

Using the eight notes of the first permutation with any of the three octatonic scales as a bass line, an 8-note, 8-chord harmonic progression was created by using a rotational system within the first permutation. Notes within each chord were ordered in ascending order. This technique is seen with Scale 2 in mm. 2-10 of *Octulus D* (Figure 26 shows mm. 2-5 condensed onto one piano). In Figure 26, the letters above each chord refer to the element in the cycle that corresponds to the bass note. Capital letters refer to the beginning of a new permutation.
The first permutation of Scale 2 is [Bb, C, Eb, G, F#, C#, A, E] and so the first chord would have Bb in the bass and then the chord would stack the nearest C on top of the Bb, then closest ascending Eb above the C, then the closest ascending G above the Eb… and so on until the last and highest note of the set, E. The next chord would start with a C (the second element in the cycle) and repeat the process. However, upon reaching the last note in the eight-note set, E, the set again arrives on a Bb for the highest note of the chord. This process is continued with the bass line transcending the first permutation and playing all 40 notes of the cycle of the system. To avoid duplicating any pitches in any of the eight-note chords, only the first eight chords are used. Thus, only eight harmonies are employed but the order of these chords changes with the different permutations of
the bass line. I have omitted replicating chords where note repetition occurs in-
between permutations. The bulk of the chordal progressions in Octulus D, are
built on eight chords that have a 35-note cycle (40 minus the five duplicates).

In Octulus A mm. 1-9 (Figure 27) the number of notes in each chord is also
dependent on the system. The chords still follow the rotational idea already
mentioned over the first permutation, but the number of notes in each chord is
dictated by the first permutation set [8, 1, 3, 6, 5, 2, 7, 4]. The chords are again
stacked in order (from the bass note up) but only the specified number of notes is
used per chord.

Figure 27. Octulus A mm. 1-9

![Image of music notation]

The Take-Away System can also be used to organize linear density. In
Octulus A mm. 49-72 all or part of the permutation cycle and its transformations
(inversion, retrograde, and retrograde inversion) are used not only with pitches,
rhythms and register for each note as previously discussed, (see Figure 24) but
also in the number of notes of the cycle in each measure. For example, Figure 28
illustrates that Piano 2 uses eight notes in m. 49, one note in m. 50, three notes in
m. 51, six notes in m. 52…(following the first permutation [8, 1, 3, 6, 5, 2, 7, 4]).
Conclusions

The Take-Away System can control any element of music. With a finite number of permutations, a set can be ordered and then rearranged in ways that are systematically derived, thus combining facets of both order and chaos. Since the system changes with each modulus, two pieces using the Take-Away System with different moduli would have a unique harmony and sound. Even using the same modulus, different applications of the system could be applied giving two pieces using the same system a different sound.

In Octulus I sought to explore four different applications of the Take-Away System in an effort to show the versatility within the system and to explore its many facets. While a symmetrical scale was used in Octulus, any type of scale with any number of notes, or in any intonational system could be used. The Take-Away System lends itself to using the time-honored ideas of inversion, retrograde, retrograde-inversion, and transposition. Further, symmetrical scales can invert to a reordered and transposed scale thus producing the idea of a modulation.
Iannis Xenakis states, “After a while, when you have thought a lot and gotten used to the theoretical means you have developed, it becomes second nature to you. You don’t even need to calculate.”\footnote{Richard Dufallo, Trackings: Composers Speak with Richard Dufallo. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1989), 183.} It is my goal to work more with the Take-Away System to become even more familiar with the many opportunities the system affords. For this reason, Appendix A outlines some observations and theorems regarding the Take-Away System that I discovered as I composed *Octulus* and worked with the system. By exploring some of its more interesting mathematical traits, I hope to become better versed in the system and to gain the familiarity that Xenakis describes.

Some composers who have used a systematic approach to their compositions change or adapt their systems over time. Steve Reich comments on his departure from his system, “*Clapping Music* (1972) marks the end of my use of the gradual phase shifting process . . . I felt the need to find new techniques.”\footnote{Steve Reich, Writings On Music, 1965-2000, ed. Paul Hillier (New York: Oxford University Press, USA, 2002), 68.}

Boulez’s attitude also changed. He accepted more of the chaotic and unforeseen elements in life. He states, “For me the fundamental fact of life is deterministic with a lot of aleatoric events that one sorts through. So life is not black or white; it’s gray, and if gray is condensed, all the small dots turn to black;
and if it’s more dispersed, then it turns to white. And that’s my philosophy of life.”

Historically, composers have used systematic approaches for a variety of reasons: for pragmatic reasons, balance, control, or a conviction to explore new musical options. The Take-Away System provides an appealing method for composing in its ability to combine order and chaos, its finite number of permutations, its ability to regulate any musical parameter and its flexibility to be applied to sets containing any number of elements. I believe that there are many exciting musical possibilities with the Take-Away System and that it is worthy of further exploration and analysis.

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REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

THEOREMS WITH THE TAKE-AWAY SYSTEM
Theorem 1: Given a set with \( n \) elements with the arrangement \([a, b, \ldots n]\). The first element selected for the new set will always be \( n \) (1 maps to \( n \)). Regardless of the modulus, since we are always selecting the \( n \)-th element and starting with the first element \((a)\), the \( n \)-th element will always equal \( n \). The term mapping refers to how the element’s arrangement will change in each permutation using cycle notation. Permutation can be thought of as the change from the original arrangement of the set to a completely new arrangement (the order of each set remaining constant). An iteration would refer to one instance of applying the modulus (moving \( n \) elements in a set).

Theorem 2. The second element chosen will always be the first element in the original set (2 maps to 1). Take a set with \( n \) elements with the arrangement \([a, b, \ldots n]\). Since the first element selected will be \( n \), after the first iteration, our original set will be \([a, b, \ldots n-1]\). Since we resume from where we have left off, our second iteration will begin on element \( a \). Moving \( n \) spots in a set with \( n-1 \) elements will take us back to the first element, or \( a \).

Theorem 3. The third element chosen in a set with three or more elements will always be the third element in the set (3 maps to 3). Take a set with \( n \) elements, with \( n \geq 3 \) and arranged \([a, b, \ldots n]\). If we take our prior two observations, we can note that after two iterations, our original set will be \([b, \ldots n-1]\) and our new set will be \([n, a]\). Since we are resuming the third iteration from where we left off in the second iteration, we will begin with element
b. Moving $n$ elements from $b$ in a set with $(n - 2)$ elements will move us one element forward to $(b + 1)$ elements, which equals element $c$.

**Theorem 4.** The number of permutations on a set (or the number of different arrangements of a set) with the Take-Away method is always finite. The Take Away system always yields a cyclical permutation. In Figure 30, I have worked out the system for modulus two to twelve. With each different modulus, I have provided the cycle notation (where each element maps) as well as the number of permutations that are needed to reorder the set.

Figure 29. Take-Away System using modulus two to twelve
Figure 29. (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mod 4 (n = 4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Original arrangement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of different permutations = 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cycle notation (1 4 2) (3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Mod 5 (n = 5)</th>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of different permutations = 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>cycle notation (1 5 2) (3) (4)</td>
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</table>

<table>
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<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of different permutations = 4</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<td>3rd Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Permutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of different permutations = 4</td>
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Figure 29. (cont.)

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<td>d</td>
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<td>h</td>
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<td>h</td>
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</table>

# of different permutations = 5

cycle notation (1 8 4 6 2) (3) (5) (7)

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<td>i</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>c</td>
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</table>

# of different permutations = 15

cycle notation (1 9 8 7 2) (4 6 5) (3)

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<tbody>
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<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
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<td>e</td>
<td>f</td>
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<td>i</td>
<td>j</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

# of permutations = 6

cycle notation (1 10 8 7 5 2) (4 6 9) (3)
Theorem 5. When \( n > 6 \), the sixth element in the original set will become the fourth element in the new set (6 maps to 4 when \( n > 6 \)). Given the set \([a, b, c, d, e \ldots n]\) we know that the first three elements selected in the Take-Away System will be \( n \), \( a \), and \( c \) respectively. Thus, after three iterations...
our original set will be \([b, d, e, \ldots, n-1]\). Resuming from where element \(c\) was in the original set and adding \(n\) places, we will end on element \(f\) (or three after our third element in the original system), since the order of our original set is now \((n - 3)\). Further, carrying on with the same logic, we can state \((\text{Theorem 6})\) when \(n > 10\), the tenth element in the original set will become the fifth element in the new set (10 maps to 5 when \(n > 10\)); and when \(n > 15\), the fifteenth element will map to the sixth element (15 maps to 6 when \(n > 15\)). One can begin to see a pattern of the first few elements in the order they are chosen when \(n\) reaches a large enough number: \([n, a, c, f, j, o, \ldots]\). If we replace the letters with the number in the arrangement: \([n, 1, 3, 6, 10, 15, \ldots]\). The first elements would follow the pattern \([n, 1, 3 (1+2), 6 (3+3), 10 (6+4), 15 (10+5), 21 (15+6), \ldots]\). These numbers after the second element are found by taking the previous element and adding to it the number two less than its arrangement order. Note that the value of \(n\) must increase for each added known element.
APPENDIX B

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Tel.: +43 / 1 / 337 23 - 112
Fax: +43 / 1 / 337 23 - 400
mailto:lausch@universaledition.com
http://www.universaledition.com
Octulus A

Calm and Pensive (♩ = c. 80)

pedal ad. lib.

Calm and Pensive (♩ = c. 80)

pedal ad. lib.

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* Performer might attach felt to the bottom of a thin board to simplify the muting process
Octulus B

Fast & Full of Energy  \( \mathbf{d} = 100 \)

Fast & Full of Energy  \( \mathbf{d} = 100 \)
keys silently depressed
keys silently depressed
Octulus C

Slow \( d = c.50 \)

pedal ad. lib.

pedal ad. lib.

p espress.
Octulus C
scrape lengthwise along string with fingernail
strum lowest strings inside the piano

mp espress.

un poco animato

pppp almost imperceptible

S.P.
strum lowest strings
inside the piano

pp

*
Octulus D

Flowing ($q = \text{c. 108}$)

Andante ($q = \text{c. 72}$)

Flowing ($q = \text{c. 108}$)

Andante ($q = \text{c. 72}$)

sim.
Octulus D

bring out bass line

meno f

bring out bass line
Faster ($\frac{1}{3} \approx 88$)

\[ 54 \]

\[ \frac{57}{5} \]

\[ \frac{57}{5} \]
Octulus D

bring out bass line

leggiero

51
Octulus D

\[82\]
\[\text{\textit{ppp} \textit{mf}}\]
\[\text{\textit{p} \textit{ppp} \textit{mf}}\]
\[\text{\textit{mf}}\]

\[86\]
\[\text{\textit{p} \textit{ppp} \textit{mf}}\]
\[\text{\textit{p} \textit{ppp} \textit{mf}}\]

\[90\]
\[\text{\textit{ppp} \textit{tranquillo}}\]