

Conceptual Blending of High-Level Features and Data-Driven Saliency Computation in Melodic Generation

Maximos Kaliakatsos-Papakostas and Emilios Cambouropoulos,
School of Music Studies,
Aristotle University of Thessaloniki,
Thessaloniki, Greece.
{maxk, emilios}@mus.auth.gr

Abstract

Conceptual Blending (CB) theory describes the cognitive mechanisms behind the way humans process the emergence of new conceptual spaces by blending two input spaces. CB theory has been primarily used as a method for interpreting creative artefacts, while recently it has been utilised in the context of computational creativity for algorithmic invention of new concepts. Examples in the domain of music include the employment of CB interpretatively as a tool to explain musical semantic structures based on lyrics of songs or on the relations between body gestures and music structures. Recent work on generative applications of CB has shown that proper low-level representation of the input spaces allows the generation of consistent and sometimes surprising blends. However, blending high-level features (as discussed in the interpretative studies) of music explicitly, is hardly feasible with mere low-level representation of objects. Additionally, selecting features that are more salient in the context of two input spaces and relevant background knowledge and should, thus, be preserved and integrated in new interesting blends has not yet been tackled in a cognitively pertinent manner. The paper at hand proposes a novel approach to generating new material that allows blending high-level features by combining low-level structures, based on statistically computed saliency values for each high-level feature extracted from data. The proposed framework is applied to a basic but, at the same time, complicated field of music, namely melodic generation. The presented examples allow an insightful examination of what the proposed approach does, revealing new

possibilities and prospects.

Keywords: Conceptual Blending, Computational Creativity, Feature Saliency, Genetic Algorithms, Melody Generation

1. Introduction

Computational creativity studies the processes and products of computational systems when generating something new, in combination with the counterparts of human creativity [1]. Creativity in general is about generating novel material either by exploring unexplored regions of a given conceptual space through exploratory creativity, by using transformational creativity to transform rules that describe concepts, or by associating and combining diverse conceptual spaces with combinational creativity [2]. According to Boden [3], combinational creativity is among the hardest forms of creativity to describe formally. The theory of Conceptual Blending (CB) is about combinational creativity; it was developed by Fauconnier and Turner [4] and it describes the cognitive mechanisms that allow creative combinations of elements from diverse conceptual spaces, leading to the emergence of new conceptual spaces that incorporate new interesting properties. In music, as well as in other fields, CB theory has been primarily used for interpreting relations between high-level musical concepts and extra-musical meaning in existing works, e.g. see [5, 6, 7]. For instance, Zbikowski [7] explains the relation of a concept given in lyrics of a work by Palestrina, i.e., “falling from heaven” with the utilised musical concept of a descending passages; this relation exists on a high-level descriptions of elements in a musical surface.

Conceptual Blending has also been studied as a method for generating new concepts, rather than merely interpreting existing ones. Interesting results have been presented in many fields, e.g. for the creation of mathematical concepts [8, 9]. Other notable examples are in music, specifically, where generative implementations based on conceptual blending have been presented for the invention of blended cadences [10, 11], melodies [12], or the generation of blended harmonic spaces through blending chord transitions [13, 14]. The concepts describing the cadences or the chord transitions in the latter studies, incorporated the analytical description of specific low-level elements, e.g. the root notes, chord types, existence of leading note to the tonic etc. Blending, therefore, involved the combination of such low-level structural elements and not *concepts* describing qualitative features (e.g. emotions, ideas, concepts as

33 with Zbikowski’s [7] high-level descriptions) of the blended spaces. Addition-
34 ally, the determination of which features of each input should be included in
35 the blend in some studies was assigned “by hand”, in the sense that, even
36 though the most salient features of the inputs were automatically selected
37 by the blending algorithm, salience values were manually assigned to each
38 feature.

39 In the examined domain of music, statistical learning plays a significant
40 role in music cognition via the exposition of listeners to available musical
41 stimuli [15]. This is evident by the fact that empirical experiments on the
42 perception of music structures correlate with the statistical findings in mu-
43 sical corpora; the tonal centre and the mode are examples of such correla-
44 tions [16, 17]. Additionally, listeners with different backgrounds are expected
45 to interpret musical information differently, according to the *cultural distance*
46 hypothesis, according to which “the degree to which the musics of any two
47 cultures differ in the statistical patterns of pitch and rhythm will predict
48 how well a person from one of the cultures can process the music of the
49 other.” [18] Several empirical studies have been conducted that examine the
50 differences in music perception between listeners as a function of their cul-
51 tures, e.g. see [19, 20] among others (some of which are discussed in [21]),
52 which involve listening tests for inferring the musical schemata learned by
53 listeners in diverse musical cultures.

54 It appears that listeners from different backgrounds develop “sensitivity”
55 to different schematic/high-level attributes of music. This sensitivity to spe-
56 cific feature values can be measured by a “salience value”: higher salience
57 values in a feature of an object makes this feature a more decisive factor
58 about recognising this object. Features are not only related with an object,
59 but also with a category: e.g. humans recognise the category of zebras mostly
60 by their colour feature. Inferring the salience (or prominence) of musical fea-
61 tures has been studied in the computational methods as the “Unscramble”
62 algorithm [22], which has been used for clustering objects [23], e.g. musical
63 patterns in “Träumerei” [24].

64 Enabling computers to consider the conveyed high-level features and their
65 accompanying salience values in musical excerpts and their categories, is a
66 direction that becomes all and more feasible, but also necessary for develop-
67 ing next generations of tools for music information retrieval [25] and, sub-
68 sequently, computational creativity in music. In the paper at hand it is
69 maintained that the utilisation of generative CB for computational creativ-
70 ity can be enhanced by introducing blending of high-level concepts instead

71 of merely blending structural elements.

72 Generating music by utilising high-level features as target-features is a
73 field that has received increased attention the last decades with methodolo-
74 gies that pertain to evolutionary computation [26]. New ways for generating
75 meaningful sets of desired target features have been researched ,e.g. for gen-
76 erating rhythm variations based on variation percentage [27, 28, 29, 30, 31].
77 Using CB to generate target combinations of the most salient high-level fea-
78 ture of input spaces appears to be a perfect fit for such algorithms. The
79 paper at hand proposes an extension of creative CB to a data-driven work-
80 flow that blends higher-level features extracted from input spaces, based on
81 the distinction of the most important high-level features through automati-
82 cally assigned salience values. The blended features are then used as target
83 features for evolutionary algorithms that combine low-level information from
84 the inputs and generate output that reflects these features. The field of
85 application of this methodology is melodies and specifically blending of Chi-
86 nese and German traditional melodies. Previous work on blending drum
87 rhythms [32] demonstrated a more basic approach of the methodology pre-
88 sented herein with a large amount of employed drum rhythm features (40)
89 that did not allow a clear intuitive assessment of what the algorithm really
90 does. The work presented here employs 6 simple melodic features that allow
91 direct intuitive insights about what the proposed methodology does.

92 **2. Motivation for New Approaches in Generative Conceptual Blend-** 93 **ing**

94 This section defines the *representation* and the *salience* problems of the
95 current framework for generative conceptual blending of low-level concepts/attributes.
96 Through an intuitive discussion around basic cognitive principles, the pro-
97 posed methodological step to tackle these problems are illustrated.

98 *2.1. Addressing the Representation Problem: High-Level Features and Con-* 99 *ceptual Blending*

100 The theory of CB was first employed as a method for interpreting creative
101 ideas rather than generating new ones. The interpretative (not generative)
102 power of the Conceptual Blending theory has produced important results
103 in providing explanations about how abstract concepts from different do-
104 mains relate with each other, generating new conceptual spaces of abstract

105 concepts. There is extensive scientific work where the CB theory was em-
106 ployed for interpreting creative outcomes of humans in diverse areas, with a
107 common starting point in cognitive linguistics. Among many papers in many
108 areas, some indicative studies present the employment of conceptual blending
109 theory to explain the metaphorical expression of time [33] and the dialogues
110 between beloved persons [34] in poetry, to analyse how abstract concepts have
111 been blended in successful advertisements [35] and news headlines [36, 37].

112 Modelling musical concepts has proven useful for studying the cognitive
113 grounding of structures in music theory [38], analyse findings in empirical
114 tests on the construction of elementary musical concepts [39] and compact
115 musical structures (e.g. motives, themes and chords), or even complete music
116 parts [7, 40]. The common idea that these studies (among many others)
117 build on, is that musical ideas are related with extra-musical meaning via
118 schemas [41, 42], which are abstract concepts describing general attributes
119 and relations in human perception and cognition. In music, the idea of
120 schemas is generally different from the one related with studies on analogy
121 and is mainly associated with tools that create abstractions from musical
122 excerpts and facilitate the acquisition of mental knowledge structure [43].
123 Example of such abstractions, as studied in [43], are the concepts of tonal
124 centre and mode [16], which humans unconsciously extract when exposed
125 to musical stimuli. Those abstractions allow listeners to relate and compare
126 musical excerpts on more abstract levels, for example: two pieces are similar
127 in terms of the emotion they elicit (e.g. both sound “happy” because they
128 both utilise elements of a major scale similarly), but they are not in the
129 same key (because their tonal centre differs). Similarly, those abstractions
130 also allow the ordering of objects, since they are quantitative in some sense,
131 for example: one can measure if a piece A adheres more to the major scale
132 than piece B, or if piece C is closer to piece A than to B in terms of pitch
133 class content.

134 Other studies have examined *quantitative* descriptions of high-level con-
135 cepts, in a sense that concepts are represented with a magnitude value de-
136 scribing a qualitative feature. For example, the high-level feature of “rhythm
137 complexity” (related with syncopation) in one-bar musical rhythms is de-
138 scribed with a numerical value that ranks rhythms according to a complexity
139 scale [44]. Among other musical qualities, there are successful examples in
140 the literature that relate feature extraction methods and perceived qualities
141 of rhythm. For instance, the empirical studies presented in [45, 46] have
142 shown that there are strong correlations between a proposed quantitative

143 expression of syncopation and the sensation of groove in rhythms.

144 In contrast, the current *generative* frameworks proposed for CB incor-
145 porate analytic description of low-level properties of concepts in the input
146 spaces based on structures related to formal logic. Even though some interest-
147 ing results have been presented with currently studied low-level approaches,
148 the scope of the results are focussed on small test-case examples. For in-
149 stance, in [10] the tritone substitution cadence used in jazz music was gener-
150 ated by blending the Perfect and the Phrygian cadences, which are cadences
151 used centuries before the tritone substitution cadence was introduced. The
152 methodology for blending cadences was combined with statistical learning
153 techniques in [47], offering a way to combine entire chord transition spaces
154 by blending chord transitions (successive chord pairs). Even though these
155 results are very promising, the strength of the conceptual blending is dete-
156 riorated in low-level structural information, disregarding high-level concepts
157 that in most cases can be only approximated from low-level properties. For
158 example, imagine that we have two melodies, one with high rhythm (**highR**)
159 complexity and low harmonic complexity (**lowH**) and one with the oppo-
160 site, low rhythm (**lowR**) complexity and high harmonic complexity (**highH**);
161 those are high-level features. If we want to construct a new melody that
162 has, e.g., high values for both (**highR** and **highH**), low-level blending does
163 not explicitly allow for it. Blending low-level features may eventually lead
164 to melodies that have the desired characteristics, but the “objective” of the
165 blending process (i.e. having a result with **highR** and **highH**) cannot be ex-
166 plicitly stated. Explicit blending of high-level information is not available
167 in current frameworks since the representation concerns explicit definition of
168 low-level attributes; we call this problem the *representation problem*.

169 2.2. Addressing the Feature Saliency Problem: Identifying Feature Impor- 170 tance through Data

171 The idea of creating novel concepts by “combining existing ideas and con-
172 cepts in a manner useful for an intended purpose” [48] is well established in
173 the cognitive science and artificial intelligence literature since many years.
174 The determination of which out of many combinations of ideas and concepts
175 serve an “intended purpose”, however, is a task-dependent problem. Ident-
176 ifying the relevant or salient concepts from the non-relevant or non-salient
177 concepts toward serving an intended purpose is a key-component according
178 to Goel [49]; this segregation relates with the “frame problem” in AI [50]:

179 usually there are overwhelmingly more non-relevant elements, actions, con-
180 cepts or combinations that need to be rejected. The aforementioned problem
181 can be summarised in one question: how can we determine the *salience* of
182 features that need to be combined from two input spaces in order to have
183 *meaningful* blends? We refer to this problem as the *salience problem*.

184 Regarding the term “*meaningful*”, during the process of meaning con-
185 struction humans tend to focus on specific aspects that generally help us
186 compress information and obtain global insight of a field (see [4], page 312).
187 When meaning is constructed through conceptual blending of spaces that
188 possess meaning of their own, there are several theoretic criteria, referred to
189 as *optimality principles* [4], that have been proposed as conditions that would
190 make the generated space *meaningful*; the implementation of such criteria in
191 specific applications depend on the “intended purpose” of each application
192 (for examples where such criteria have been implemented see [51, 52]). Hu-
193 mans are good at compressing information and generating abstractions by
194 creating categories of objects on many levels of detail, e.g., even though there
195 are exceptions, birds have wings; fishes live in the sea; zebras have black and
196 white stripe patterns. Those category-related features that allow us to sepa-
197 rate objects into classes are related with the concept of the *salience* of those
198 features in their class and between classes. For example, a zebra without the
199 stripe patterns would most possibly be categorised as a horse, while even a
200 dog with the zebra stripe pattern would directly evoke the image of a zebra;
201 therefore the stripe pattern feature is salient for the zebra category. The
202 salience of features does not only allow the compression of the (input) con-
203 ceptual spaces, but also facilitates the acquisition of global insight in the
204 blended space by allowing the inference of the involved input spaces.

205 For illustrating the way that the notion of feature salience can poten-
206 tially offer global insight in the process of “meaning” construction through
207 CB, let us use some intuitive and simple examples from the toy-domain of
208 animal blending [53]. Let us imagine the example of blending a zebra with
209 a shark. Let us also keep in mind that there exists a fish called the “zebra
210 shark”, which scientists, creatively indeed, named this way because of its
211 colour and shape. In this example we are going to follow the reverse process
212 of “constructing” such a fish as if it did not exist. What would a good blend
213 between a zebra and a shark look like? A good blend would creatively com-
214 bine the elements of both inputs (zebra and shark), allowing the observer to
215 distinguish as clearly as possible that a zebra and a shark are involved in
216 this blend. Many blends can be constructed with those inputs and some of

217 those blends could be characterised as successful, depending on the purpose
218 that the blends are expected to serve. For instance, the blend of a zebra
219 with a shark fin on its back could serve the purpose of a four-leg peaceful
220 earthly animal. Similarly, a shark with zebra stripes would be a good blend
221 of a dangerous predator that lives in the sea and, when flocking with other
222 individuals of its species, can confuse other predators because of their com-
223 bined black-white colour patterns. However, the blend of a zebra with grey
224 colour (colour of a shark) would not be successful, since this blend would
225 look as a simple, non-blended grey horse – at least to someone who had no
226 information about the fact that this is the output of a blending process with
227 these specific inputs. Similarly, the blend of a shark with four legs (without
228 the zebra stripes) would not be successful, since many other animals with
229 four legs could have produced this blend with a shark.

230 The distinctive characteristics of zebras are in general their black and
231 white stripe patterns. If this element is not present in any blend that includes
232 a zebra as input, then the blend would possibly fail to convey the existence
233 of a zebra, since almost all the remaining characteristics of zebras are similar
234 to characteristics of other animals, especially horses. Similarly with sharks:
235 if we use, e.g., only the grey colour property, then the resulting blend would
236 not necessarily indicate the involvement of a shark since many animals have
237 grey colour. Therefore, in the aforementioned example successful blends
238 need to incorporate features that are distinctive or *salient* for the involved
239 categories – the “Zebra” and the “Shark” categories in the running example.
240 Regarding the actual zebra shark, it appears that biologists have given this
241 name to this type of fish by decomposing the most salient features of a shark
242 and a zebra, which are naturally evoked to the observer of such a fish. Data
243 play an important role in defining the salient characteristics of a class, since
244 the salience of the feature is related with the “commonality” of this feature in
245 the class. Even though complex cognitive processes may play significant role
246 regarding how humans perceive the salience of a feature, this paper proposes
247 an approach that is based on statistical learning; the formalisation of this
248 data-related approach is given in Section 3.3

249 **3. Methodological implementation and application of high-level** 250 **data-driven Conceptual Blending**

251 The aim of the proposed methodology is to incorporate high-level features
252 in generative conceptual blending (addressing the *representation problem*),

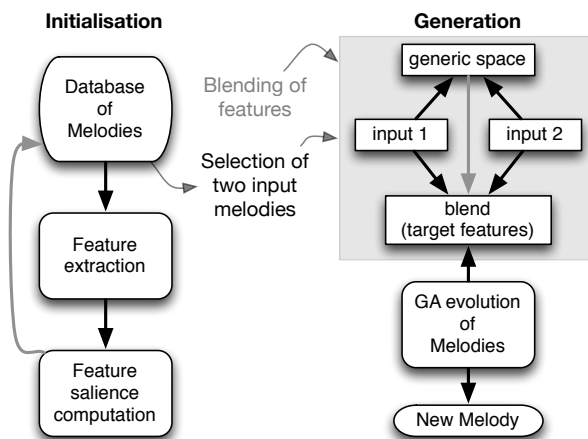


Figure 1: Overview of the proposed methodology. During the initialisation phase (left), features are extracted from the melodies in the database and the salience of each feature in every melody is computed. After two input melodies are selected, their features are blended (top-right), producing the target *blended* features for the Genetic Algorithm which constructs the output blended melody (bottom-right).

253 while selecting the high-level features of inputs to be included in the blend
 254 according to their salience values that are computed from data (addressing
 255 the *salience problem*); the output will be new objects (blends) that reflect
 256 the blended input high-level features and incorporate low-level information
 257 inherited from the input objects. This methodology is applied to melodic
 258 generation in Section 4, using as background knowledge sets of melodies
 259 extracted from the Essen corpus [54] belonging to two styles (Chinese and
 260 German) with different characteristics. For each melody 6 quantitative high-
 261 level features are extracted, which are descriptive of some basic rhythmic
 262 and melodic cognitively-based qualities. Figure 1 illustrates an overview of
 263 the proposed methodology applied to melodies; the methodology includes
 264 an initialisation stage and a generation stage. In the initialisation stage (left
 265 side) features are extracted from each melody in the database of melodies and
 266 afterwards the salience values of each feature in every melody are computed
 267 (with a process described in Section 3.3). After the initialisation step the
 268 database includes melodies that are accompanied by a vector of features and
 269 a vector of the corresponding saliences for each feature (one salience value
 270 for each feature in each melody).

271 The melody generation phase shown on the right side of Figure 1, results

272 in the generation of a new melody (blend) that encompasses the blended fea-
 273 tures of two input melodies from a database. The generation phase includes
 274 two steps: the feature blending and the melodic composition step. In the
 275 feature blending step (top right), the features of the selected melodies are
 276 blended, producing a set of *blended target features* that the blended melody
 277 should incorporate. The blended target features are selected through a pro-
 278 cess described in Section 3.3, which includes a balanced (among the two
 279 inputs) selection of the most salient features of selected input melodies. The
 280 blend of features constructed in the top-right side of Figure 1 are then em-
 281 ployed as fitness targets for the Genetic Algorithm (GA) (bottom-right),
 282 generating a melody that best matches the target features.

283 ***Melody representation.*** Melodies are represented both by low and high
 284 level information. Low level information for every note in the melody is
 285 given as pairs of pitch and onset time values. Additionally, during blend-
 286 ing the Markov probability matrix of pitch transitions is also considered, as
 287 described in Section 3.4. Regarding high-level representation, a basic set of
 288 six features is used that are related with cognitively-relevant rhythmic and
 289 pitch attributes. A greater number of such features could have been used
 290 (e.g. see [55]) but only a representative number of two rhythmic and four
 291 pitch-related features was sustained for focussing more clearly on the effects
 292 of high-level feature blending. These features are forming a vector that de-
 293 scribes each melody in the database, $\vec{m}_i = \{f_1^{(i)}, f_2^{(i)}, \dots, f_6^{(i)}\}$, where i is
 294 the index of the melody. A list of these features along with a short description
 295 is given as follows:

- 296 1. *Rhythm inhomogeneity:* (r_{hom}) Rhythm inhomogeneity can be viewed
 297 as an aspect of rhythm complexity in terms of length distribution of
 298 successive onset intervals, where more similar intervals (fewer rhyth-
 299 mic deviations) elicit the sensation of a less complex rhythm and vice
 300 versa [56, 27]. Methods for measuring rhythm complexity rhythm com-
 301 plexity span from simpler [57] to more complex [58, 59]; for this feature,
 302 rhythm inhomogeneity is approached by the value of the standard devi-
 303 ation of all inter-onset intervals over the value of the mean inter-onset
 304 interval in a melodic sequence.
- 305 2. *Pitch-class set complexity:* (n_{pcp}) This feature utilises the informa-
 306 tion entropy [60] of the Pitch Class Profile (PCP) set distribution of a
 307 melody for determining the relative quantities of each pitch class (pc)

- 308 used in the melody; the closer a pc distributions is to the uniform
 309 distribution, the more complex the PCP content of the melody.
- 310 3. *Small pitch intervals:* (n_{int}) Even though there appear to be global
 311 cognitive mechanisms that favour small pitch intervals (semitone or
 312 tone) [15], different percentages of small intervals are used in different
 313 styles. This feature measures the percentage of small successive pitch
 314 intervals among all successive pitch intervals.
 - 315 4. *Pitch range:* (n_{range}) The difference between the smallest and the great-
 316 est midi pitch values in the melody over the ration of two octaves (24)
 317 – all involved melodies are within two octaves.
 - 318 5. *Note repetitions:* (n_{rep}) The ratio of constant note intervals over the
 319 total number of intervals in a melody.
 - 320 6. *Rhythm repetitions:* (r_{cns}) The ratio of consecutive constant rhythm
 321 intervals over the total number of rhythm intervals.

322 Since the music-related part of the methodology is meant to be kept sim-
 323 ple (for focussing on the CB aspects), the information of tonality variability
 324 is “neutralised” – even though in future work “advanced” musical concepts
 325 related to notions of tonality variability could be used in the feature repre-
 326 sentation of melodies. To this end, all melodies are transposed to the keys
 327 of C major or A minor (depending on their initial tonality).

328 3.1. Conceptual Blending of melody features

329 Features blending in the proposed methodology employs a basic computa-
 330 tional framework of the theory of CB proposed by Fauconnier and Turner [4]
 331 and formalised by Goguen [51]. The employed framework is based on the
 332 framework developed during the Concept Invention Theory (COINVENT¹)
 333 project [61]; in the context of this first application, however, some simpli-
 334 fications are applied for making the blending process more straightforward.
 335 According to this theory, formalisation and implementation, two *input spaces*
 336 are described as sets of properties and relations. The *generic space* of these
 337 inputs is computed, which is the conceptual space that keeps the common
 338 structure of the input spaces, guaranteeing that this structure also exists in
 339 the blended space, and generalises or abstracts over the parts of the inputs
 340 that are distinct. Afterwards, an *amalgamation* process [62, 63] generalises

¹<http://coinvent-project.eu/>

341 the input concepts until the generic space is found and “combines” gener-
342 alised versions of the input spaces to create blends that are “*consistent*” or
343 satisfy certain properties that relate to the knowledge domain. Regarding
344 blends, the term “consistent” refers to whether all logical relations in the
345 blend and the background knowledge are satisfied, i.e. there are no mutually
346 canceling contradictions.

347 The example of the zebra shark discussed above is illustrated in Figure 2
348 under the context of the COINVENT CB methodological framework. The
349 two inputs considered are T_1 : “*Shark: a grey fish with fin*” and T_2 : “*Ze-*
350 *bra: a striped horse-shaped animal*”. There are many possible blends and
351 many possible generalisation alternatives – under the constraint imposed by
352 the generic space that all blends should correspond to the generic category:
353 “*An organism with colour and shape*”. Possible generalisations of T_1 are “*A*
354 *grey organism*” or “*A fish with fin*”. Accordingly there are many possible
355 blends between T_1 and T_2 arising from those generalisation alternatives, e.g.
356 “*A grey horse-shaped animal*” or “*A striped fish with fin*” (the actual zebra
357 shark). There might be also inconsistent blends, e.g. “*A grey horse-shaped*
358 *fish*” (this can be considered inconsistent since there cannot be horse-shaped
359 fish), and, therefore, consistency check is necessary after a blend has been
360 constructed. The value of each blend is assessed through blending *optimality*
361 *principles* [4, 51, 52]. Even though there are extensive theoretical descrip-
362 tions on optimality principles, e.g. see [4], the algorithmic implementations
363 of such principles depend on the specific domain of application.

364 The first approach to melodic feature blending proposed in this paper,
365 uses a basic and simplified version of the amalgamation process where no
366 relations between features are considered, i.e., the value of one feature is not
367 related with the value of the other (even though this should not necessarily
368 be the case). Since relations between features are not considered, the amal-
369 gamation process plays the simple role of combining highly salient features
370 of the input melodies, considering, however, the generic space restrictions.
371 Figure 3 abstractly illustrates the feature blending process that generates
372 the “target features” that are subsequently fed into the genetic algorithm
373 (discussed in Section 3.4). The algorithm for this process (Algorithm 1) is
374 described in Section 3.3.

375 3.2. Generic space

376 The generic space is the space of common features in the two input spaces;
377 identifying common features is important in the conceptual blending theory

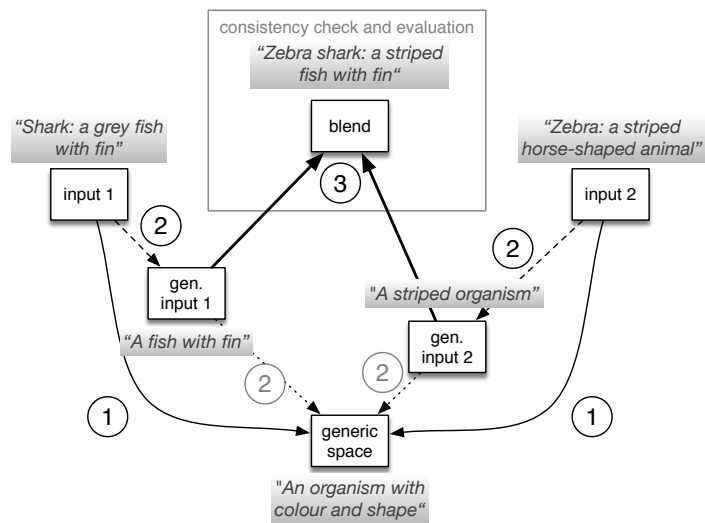


Figure 2: Illustration of the zebra shark example through a generative approach to conceptual blending based on amalgamation. The generic space is computed (1) and the input spaces are successively generalised (2), creating new potential blends (3). Some blends might be inconsistent or poorly evaluated according to domain specific criteria.

378 since those features should be identifiable in blend as well. The role of the
 379 generic space is to guarantee that the blend satisfies this property. In the
 380 theory of CB the generic space includes common aspects of the inputs, ex-
 381 pressed as abstract concepts that have been approached by the utilisation of
 382 image schemas [42]; earlier, in Section 2, the notion of schemas and how it
 383 relates with high-level features was discussed.

384 In the generative approaches of conceptual blending proposed in the liter-
 385 ature [52, 10, 13, 53, 62], the common structures and properties in the input
 386 spaces are forming the generic space. The generic space under the perspec-
 387 tive of feature blending, on the other hand, can be used to provide numerical
 388 limits to which feature values can be considered the same, according to a
 389 predefined degree of granularity. For instance, if the two input melodies in-
 390 corporate high levels of rhythm inhomogeneity, then the generic space should
 391 include the requirement that the blend should be a melody that also has a
 392 high value for this feature.

393 The notion of the generic space for spaces represented by continuous nu-
 394 merical features needs to be defined, since it differs from the logical-related
 395 formulation of “discrete” feature terms [64] that has been hitherto utilised
 396 in the literature [52, 10, 13, 53, 62]. For instance, if both inputs in the car
 397 blending example involve a red car, then the colour feature is included in
 398 the generic space; in case the input cars have different colours, the colour
 399 property would remain empty in the generic space, allowing cars of whatever

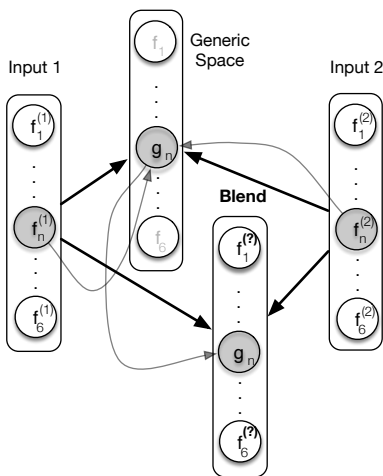


Figure 3: Simplified blending of melody features.

400 colour to be generated. However, in the proposed real-valued feature repre-
401 sentation, the notion of whether two inputs have the “identical” feature is
402 replaced by the notion of whether they have “similar” features.

403 Two melodies are considered to have a “similar” value in one of their
404 features if their numeric difference is smaller than a given value. By con-
405 vention, the values of a feature t in two melodies \vec{m}_{i_1} and \vec{m}_{i_2} , denoted as
406 $f_t^{(i_1)}$ and $f_t^{(i_2)}$ for \vec{m}_{i_1} and \vec{m}_{i_2} respectively, are considered “similar” if their
407 distance is smaller than (the arbitrarily selected) 1/10-th of the range of all
408 values of this feature in the dataset. In case $f_t^{(i_1)}$ and $f_t^{(i_2)}$ are similar, the
409 generic space value for feature t , denoted as g_j in Figure 3, is the mean value
410 of these features, which is directly passed to the blended set of features. In
411 the abstract example of Figure 3, $f_n^{(1)}$ and $f_n^{(2)}$ in the two input melodies
412 are considered similar and thus this feature is represented by a fixed value
413 in the generic space (g_n) with a value equal to the mean of $f_n^{(1)}$ and $f_n^{(2)}$;
414 subsequently this value (g_n) is also used in the blend.

415 3.3. Creating the “optimal” blend

416 The typical amalgamation process leads to the generation of many blends
417 that correspond to different combinations of feature values inherited from the
418 input spaces (keeping the “reserved” feature values from the generic space).
419 Through this process the number of possible resulting blends is usually large
420 and the selection of the “best” blend(s) is based on domain-specific blending
421 *optimality principles* [4, 51, 52]. Two basic qualities are utilised in the current
422 study, namely the *balance* of features inherited from the inputs in the blend
423 and the *salience* value of each feature discussed in Section 2.2. With the pre-
424 sented blend generation process only the single best blend is retrieved, while
425 extensions are possible that allow the preservation of an arbitrary number of
426 highly ranked blends.

427 **Balance:** One important aspect of meaningful blends is that they reflect
428 characteristic of both inputs; to ensure that both inputs are represented in
429 the blend, the constructed set of blended features should be a balanced mixture of
430 the features in the two inputs. The modification of the amalgamation process
431 used in the presented approach produces only the blend with the “optimal
432 balance”. Therefore, the resulting optimal blend of features includes an equal
433 number of features (plus/minus one) from the two input spaces, keeping in
434 mind that some feature values are reserved by the generic space.

435 **Saliency:** Selection which features will compose the “balanced” set is also
436 crucial for generating blends that incorporate the most important or “salient”
437 features of the inputs. Under the statistical perspective given in Section 2.2,
438 the saliency value of a feature value, $s(f_t^{(i)})$, in a melody \vec{m}_i is computed
439 from available data. Supposing that the considered “universe” of objects in
440 the dataset (background of a listener) comprises N categories (e.g. melodic
441 genres), where category c_I includes the objects with indexes i_I , the *concent-*
442 *ration* value of feature t (the centre of the area where the feature values of
443 most objects are) in each category is computed as:

$$C_{c_I}(t) = \frac{a_r + a_{r+1}}{2}, \text{ where } r = \arg \max_k P_i(a_k \leq f_t^{(i)} < a_{k+1}). \quad (1)$$

444 $P_i(a_k \leq f_t^{(i)} < a_{k+1})$ is number of individual whose t -th feature value ($f_t^{(i)}$)
445 falls within the area of a_k and a_{k+1} . The concentration value of a feature in a
446 category, in simple terms, is the peak of the histogram regarding this feature
447 value for all individuals². The closer an object is to the concentration value
448 of its category, the more representative it is of the features in this category
449 and, therefore, the greater the value of saliency for its features. Conversely,
450 the farther away the concentration value of a feature in a category is from
451 the concentration values of other categories, the more unique and therefore
452 salient it is. The saliency value of feature t for object i is obtained as follows:

$$s(f_t^{(i)}) = U(C_{c_I}(t)) \left(2 - \frac{2}{1 + e^{a |C_{c_I}(t) - f_t^{(i)}|}} \right). \quad (2)$$

454 $U(C_{c_I}(t))$ is an estimation of how “unique” the concentration value is for
455 the entire category, which is computed as the ratio of the minimum distance
456 between this and the concentration values of all other categories (normalised
457 with the maximum distance of concentration values in the database):

$$U(C_{c_I}(t)) = \frac{\min_J |C_{c_I}(t) - C_{c_J}(t)|}{\max_J |C_{c_I}(t) - C_{c_J}(t)|}, \quad (3)$$

458 where J is the set of category indexes except index I . The later term is
459 simply a normalised proximity measure between $f_t^{(i)}$ and $C_{c_I}(t)$. It has a

²The centroid instead of the concentration value has also been examined, however, the centroid was considered non-representative of the feature values behaviour since they did not follow normal distributions.

460 maximum value of 1 for highly salient features ($f_t^{(i)}$ close to $C_{c_t}(t)$) and a
461 minimum of zero. The factor a defines the steepness of the “slope” at which
462 feature values that are more distant from the concentration value become
463 less salient.

464 Through this process, every feature vector describing a melody, $f^{(i)}$ is ac-
465 companied by a salience vector, $s_{m_i}^{\rightarrow}$, with the respective number of values rep-
466 resenting the saliences of each feature in $f^{(i)}$ ($s_{m_i}^{\rightarrow} = \{s(f_1^{(i)}), s(f_2^{(i)}), \dots, s(f_n^{(i)})\}$),
467 where n is the number of features – $n = 6$ in the examined application.

468 **Optimal Blend:** The algorithm for computing the single optimal blend
469 of features of the two inputs is shown in Algorithm 1. The arrays of the
470 two input feature vectors and their respective salience arrays are given as
471 inputs along with the array that includes the generic space features. The
472 algorithm outputs an array of blended features with the desired properties,
473 i.e. this blended array incorporates the most balanced combination of the
474 most salient features of the input spaces. The blended array of features
475 generated by feature blending is then used to provide the target features in
476 an evolutionary process, leading to the implementation of objects (melodies
477 in the presented application) that incorporates the desired blended features.

478 The idea behind the algorithm for feature blending is to first assign the
479 generic space features into the blend and then fill the remaining features by
480 interchangeably selecting the most salient features from the input spaces. To
481 this end, the indexes of the sorted saliences of each input space are stored
482 in two arrays (through the `getSortedIndexes()` function in lines 3 and 4)
483 and then the features of the generic space are passed into the blend, while
484 the corresponding indexes are removed from the aforementioned arrays (lines
485 6-12). Until now the generic space requirements have been dealt with. The
486 first elements of the index arrays ($i_1^{(1)}$ and $i_1^{(2)}$) will always correspond to the
487 index of the feature with the highest saliences available in both inputs; in
488 the following steps the indexes of the features that are selected for the blend
489 are going to be removed from the sorted index arrays. In lines 14-18 the
490 algorithm decides which input has the most salient available feature to begin
491 the interchanging process in the remaining lines. During the interchanging
492 process, the most salient available feature from each input space at each step
493 of the loop beginning in line 20 is selected and put in the blend. Afterwards,
494 the indexes of the selected features are removed from both index arrays and
495 the process continues until all features of the blend have been filled up –
496 which means that the index arrays have emptied.

497 3.4. *Generating Melodies from Blended Features through Genetic Evolution*

498 Several methods for generating melodies with evolutionary algorithms
499 have been proposed in the literature (e.g. [65, 55] among others). The typical
500 approach that most of those methodologies follow involves the employment
501 of a set of target melodic features and an initial population/generation of
502 melodies, which can be random sequences of notes and rests [65]. After-
503 wards, evolutionary operators are employed for producing new generations
504 of melodies with features that gradually converge to the target features.
505 Melodies are evolved according to the typical overall principles employed
506 in evolutionary melodic generation, however specific genetic operators and
507 population initialisation are examined that relate with the theory of CB.

508 In the low information level, melodies are represented as pairs of pitch
509 and onset-time values (disregarding duration), along with information about
510 pitch transitions in a Markov probability matrix. In an attempt to preserve
511 elements of low-level blending and retain “veridical” [15] aspects of the input
512 melodies, the initial population of melodies are exact copies of the input
513 spaces and melodies are evolved according to genetic operators that ensure
514 that the new (children) melodies incorporate material only from the two
515 parent melodies. Additionally, the average Markov matrix of pitch transitions
516 between the two inputs is used during fitness evaluation to encourage the
517 recombinations of parts from the parents that are merged with transitions
518 found in the input melodies. This process leads to the generation of melodies
519 that exclusively include recombined material and also transitions found in
520 either of the two input spaces.

521 The employed operators are different types of crossover, including: (a)
522 “bar exchange” crossover, where two parent melodies exchange a bar selected
523 in random; (b) “note exchange”, where a single note is exchanged between
524 parents; and (c) “pitches-to-rhythm” crossover where the pitches in one bar
525 of one parent are fitted to the rhythm structure of the other parent and vice
526 versa. If a different numbers of notes are included in the involved bars then
527 the pitches of the shorter sequence are successively repeated until they match
528 the rhythm events of the longer sequence, while only the beginning pitches
529 of the longer sequence are used that match the rhythm events of the larger
530 sequence. The fitness value (to be minimised) of new melodies is calculated
531 as the Euclidean distance between their features vector and the vector of
532 *blended target features* constructed as the optimal blend (Section 1) plus a
533 “transition penalty” derived from the Kullback-Leibler divergence between

534 the average input Markov matrix of pitch transitions and the one of the
535 generated individual.

536 4. Example Applications

537 The effectiveness of the proposed framework for CB is demonstrated with
538 examples that include two distinctive categories of melodies. These cate-
539 gories include melodies from the Eastern and Western culture and specifi-
540 cally a selection of pieces in four styles (two Chinese and two German) in
541 the Essen corpus [66, 54]. A *main* set of old German songs (30 melodies the
542 “**altdeut1**” dataset) and a set of songs from the Chinese Han culture (30
543 melodies in the “**han**” dataset) constitute the input material for blending,
544 while two *secondary* sets with 30 pieces each are used for representing other
545 styles of Chinese (“**natmin**”) and German (“**zuccal**”) pieces. Pieces are se-
546 lected from each set that reflect the unique characteristics of the respective
547 styles, in terms of the employed features. Figure 4 illustrates the features
548 extracted from the selected pieces in the main sets (**han** and **altdeut1**). The
549 selected melodies belonging to the **han** set display higher rhythm inhomog-
550 eneity and pitch range, while **altdeut1** melodies include more often smaller
551 intervals (two semitones or less) with more complex pitch class profiles (PCP
552 complexity). Those features reveal some basic characteristics of those styles:
553 German melodies have more robust and predictable rhythm, while Chinese
554 melodies use mainly notes in the pentatonic scale (thus including many in-
555 tervals larger than three semitones and smaller PCP complexity).

556 For the remainder of this section, results are organised so as to demon-
557 strate three possible key-applications that high-level feature blending and
558 the statistical computation of salience could allow or enhance, namely (a)
559 the infusion of a single high-level characteristic to an existing melody, (b)
560 identification of exemplar melodies in a set according to listener background,
561 leading to the generation of blended melodies based on feature salience and
562 (c) the recommendation of new melodies based on blended features. For the
563 (b) and (c) scenarios two “virtual” listeners are assumed with different back-
564 grounds (using the secondary data Chinese and German datasets), similarly
565 to the work of van der Weij et al. [67] and Pearce [21]; the Eastern listener is
566 assumed to be exposed to sets of Chinese melodies (**han** and **natmin**), while
567 the Western listener to German melodies (**altdeut1** and **zuccal**).

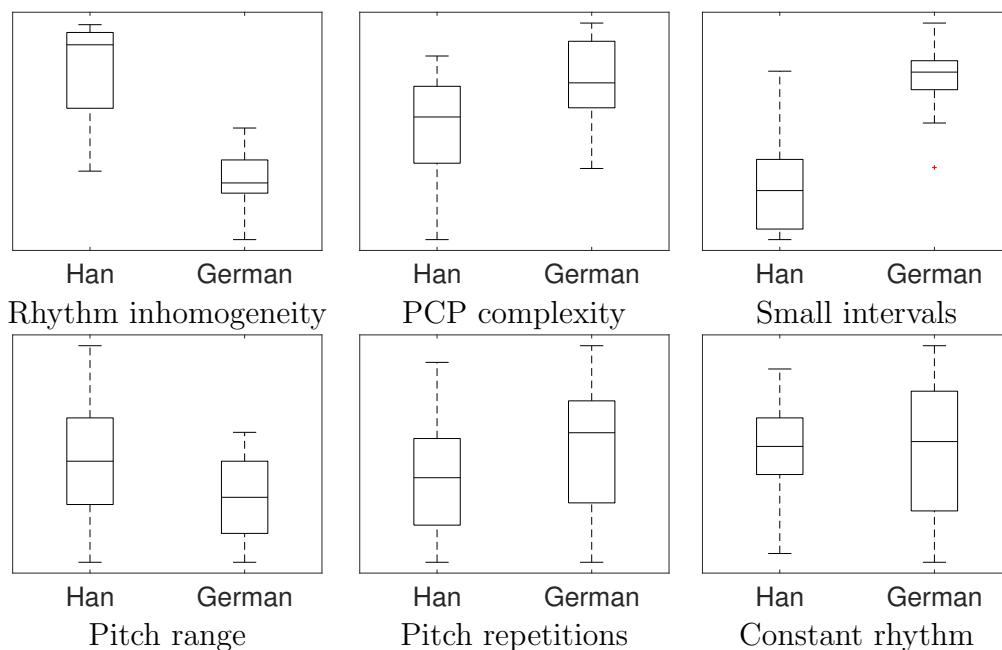



Figure 4: Extracted feature values from the “main” (Han and German) sets of pieces.

568 *4.1. Infusion of single new characteristic through single scope blends*


569 Feature blending allows the infusion of a single new characteristic, or a
570 high-level feature, into a given melody. The example in Figure 5 illustrates
571 such a scenario, where a Chinese (**han**) melody, with low pitch class profile
572 complexity (only two notes are played) and low percentage of small intervals
573 (only 5 and 0-semitone intervals are employed), is given as Input 1. If
574 we want to increase the pitch class complexity of the melody, we can use
575 a German (**altdcut1**) melody with higher value in this feature (shown as
576 Input 2-A) and generate a blend. This blended melody, Blend-A Figure 5
577 is generated by substituting the pitch class complexity feature value of In-
578 put 1 with the one of Input 2-A. Indeed the rhythm characteristics of the
579 blended melody (Blend-A) are almost identical to Input 1. The pitch class
580 complexity is significantly increased while the percentage of small intervals
581 is retained relatively low (0.33 while in Input 1 it is zero). Similarly, if we
582 want to increase the percentage of small intervals to the extreme value of 1,
583 we can blend the Chinese melody (Input 1) with the German melody labeled
584 as Input 2-B. The blended melody (Blend-B) retains the rhythmic structure
585 as well as other characteristics (including pitch class complexity) and adopts

Input 1: [0.85, 0.69, 0.00, 0.21, 0.54, 0.76]




Single-scope scenario A: increasing pitch complexity

Input 2-A: [0.38, **1.91**, 0.81, 0.50, 0.12, 0.91]




Target: [0.85, **1.91**, 0.00, 0.21, 0.54, 0.76]

Blend-A: [0.89, **1.89**, 0.07, 0.42, 0.46, 0.80]



Single-scope scenario B: increasing small intervals

Input 2-B: [0.52, 1.09, **1.00**, 0.21, 0.29, 0.52]



Target: [0.85, 0.69, **1.00**, 0.21, 0.54, 0.76]

Blend-B: [0.85, 0.68, 1.00, 0.13, 0.54, 0.76]




Figure 5: Two examples of “single scope” blends using as the first input (Input 1) a Chinese (han) melody with low pitch class complexity and low percentage of small intervals. In the first example, the other input is a German melody (altdeut1) with higher pitch class complexity (Input 2-A) and in the second (Input 2-B) is a German melody (altdeut1) with high percentage of small intervals. In both cases the blended melodies retain the rhythm features of the Han melody while adjusting to increased pitch class complexity and percentage of small intervals.

586 the extreme value for the feature of small intervals.

587 *4.2. The Role of Feature Saliency: Exemplar Objects, Double-Scope Blends*
 588 *and Listener Background*

589 The saliency value of a feature, according to the employed statistical ap-
 590 proach, depends on the available background knowledge. Different interpre-
 591 tations might be given regarding which features are more salient in a specific
 592 object. In the shark-zebra example, if an isolated tribe of people never had
 593 witnessed another grey animal but the shark, then the grey zebra would be a
 594 meaningful blend for them, since it would encompass the grey colour which

595 would be extremely “salient” for the shark category. The qualitative char-
596 acteristics of the proposed statistical definitions of salience are examined on
597 melodies through simple scenarios that involve the Eastern (with background
598 the `han` and `natmin` styles) and Western (`altdcut1` and `zuccal`) “virtual”
599 listeners. The Eastern and Western listeners are assumed to be exposed to
600 a “new” style of the other culture: the Eastern is exposed to the `altdcut1`
601 style and the Western to `han` style melodies. After being exposed to the
602 new styles, listeners are assumed to adjust their understanding about what
603 feature values are unique for each style. Figure 6 shows the concentration
604 value uniqueness as computed in Equation 3.

605 For the Eastern listener (top row of figures) the most unique feature of the
606 new style (`altdcut1`) is the PCP complexity (highest bar in the right-most
607 figure). This means that the concentration value, as computed using Equa-
608 tion 1 on the respective datasets, in the `altdcut1` set (1.87) is distinctively
609 higher than the respective concentration values in the Eastern sets (1.57 and
610 1.58 in the `han` and `natmin` sets respectively). It should be noted that the
611 Shannon Information Entropy of a discrete uniform distribution with 7 out
612 of 12 possibilities is 1.95 and with 5 out of 12 is 1.61, which is a good indica-
613 tion about the fact that the Eastern styles incorporate pentatonic scales and
614 Western diatonic; therefore Eastern listeners familiar with pentatonic scales
615 would find the diatonic nature of Western melodies unique. The high unique-
616 ness value for this feature constitutes German melodies categorically salient
617 regarding their PCP complexity and melodies with the PCP complexity fea-
618 ture closer to 1.87 (concentration value) are highly salient for the German
619 idiom to the ears of an Eastern listener. On the other hand, the Western
620 listeners in this hypothetical example find most aspects of the `han` melodies
621 unique (except from the note range and note repetition) and should therefore
622 find most aspects of the `han` melodies salient.

623 Before examining how salience values affect blending in the presented
624 framework, we note that the concept of salience can be employed for iden-
625 tifying the “*exemplar*” object in a category. The “*exemplar*” object is the
626 one that gathers the most typical characteristics of the category it belongs to
627 and, according to psychology theories, “when an unfamiliar stimulus is en-
628 countered, its similarity is computed to the memory representation of every
629 previously seen exemplar from each potentially relevant category” [68]. An
630 alternative to the exemplar categorisation model is the “prototypical” model,
631 where objects are categorised according to whether their features are close
632 enough to some “prototypical” feature values that do not necessarily describe

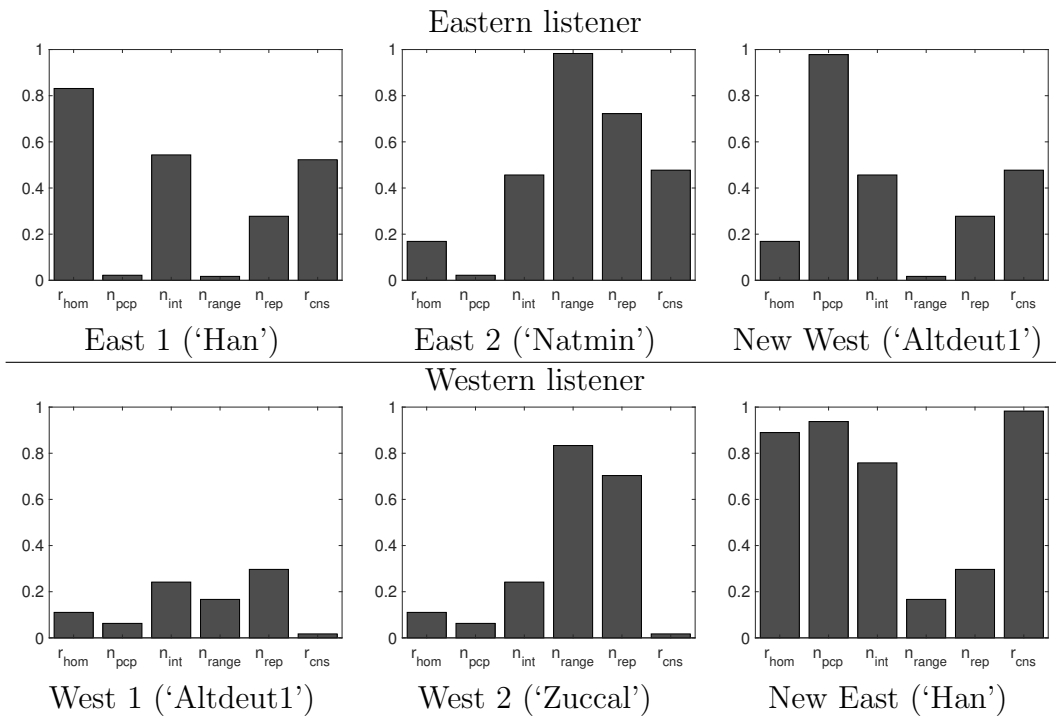


Figure 6: Salience uniqueness values for a new style presented to the “virtual” Eastern (top) and Western (bottom) listener. Eastern listeners, assumed “trained” two sets of Eastern melodies are exposed to one set of Western melodies of pieces and vice versa.

633 a concrete object; humans use either or both models in different classification
634 tasks [69]. The exemplar object of a category can be assumed as the one that
635 encompasses the highest sum of categorical salience in its category. Based on
636 the definition of concentration value uniqueness ($U(C_{c_I}(t))$) in Equation 2,
637 the “exemplar” object could be the one that encompasses features with high
638 proximity to the respective unique concentration values of the category³.

639 Figure 7 shows the placement of the melodies computed as exemplars for
640 the `han` and `altdeut1` styles according to the background of the assumed
641 Eastern (left) and Western (right) listeners. This illustration is produced by
642 projecting the six melodic features on the 2-dimensional plane of maximum
643 variance produced by Principle Component Analysis (PCA) on the main
644 sets of melodies; the explained variance accounts for the 85.9% of variance in
645 these two sets. Even though this graph does not show precise information, it
646 illustrates how the background knowledge influences the perception of what
647 an exemplar is. For example, for the Eastern listener (left graph in Figure 7),
648 the exemplar in the `altdeut1` style is a melody placed higher on the y-axis
649 in comparison to the Western listener (right). The location of the `altdeut1`
650 exemplar for the Eastern listener is “occupied” by melodies in the `zuccal`
651 style in the background of the Western listener (light-grey circles), therefore,
652 for the Western listener the exemplar melody is placed further down – further
653 away from the `zuccal` area.

654 According to Algorithm 1, using the computed salience values for the in-
655 put melody features generates target-feature blends that incorporate a bal-
656 anced combination of the most salient features from both blends. Figure 8
657 shows the blended melodies generated by using the aforementioned algorithm
658 on Input 1 and Input 2-A in Figure 5. It is reminded that in Figure 5 only the
659 increased pitch class profile complexity feature was taken from the German
660 melody and used to generate a Chinese melody with increased pitch class
661 profile complexity. In the current example of Figure 8, the salience perceived
662 by the Eastern and Western listeners are used to generate the “best” blend
663 accordingly. As shown in the “Target” feature vector, the Eastern listener
664 is primarily attracted by the increased pitch class complexity of the Ger-

³In fact, summing the categorical salience values in Equation 2 for all features (for $t \in \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$ in the melodies example) produces the inner product between the feature uniqueness vector and the respective feature-to-concentration value proximities for an object; higher values of this inner product means better “alignment” between uniqueness of features and proximities to the respective concentration values.

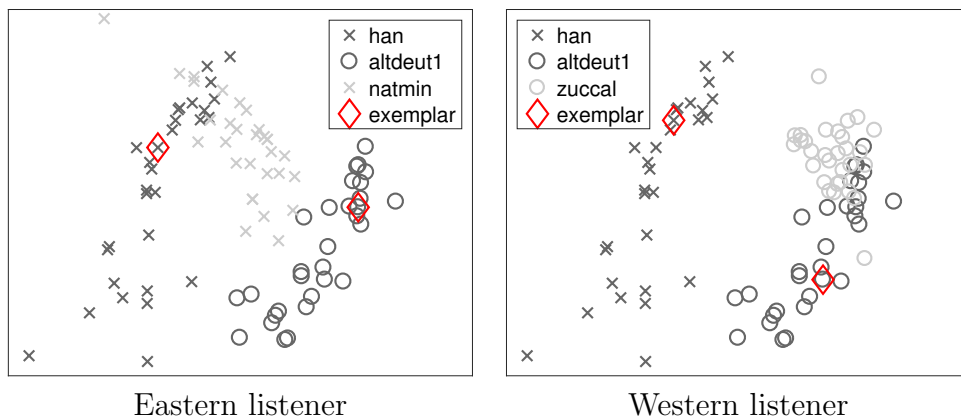


Figure 7: Exemplar melodies in the main styles for the Eastern (left) and Western (right) listeners, based on the a 2-dimensional PCA. The melodies in the background knowledge of the Eastern and the listeners are shown with a lighter grey shade.

665 man melody (value 1.91 of the second feature) and secondarily, based on the
 666 feature balancing that Algorithm 1 attempts, by the percentage of note rep-
 667 etitions (fifth feature – 0.12) and note range in the German melody (fourth
 668 feature – 0.50). Similarly, the Western listener finds salient for the Chinese
 669 melody the decreased pitch class profile (0.38 in the “Target” features), the
 670 non-existence of small intervals (third feature) and the percentage of constant
 671 intervals (0.76 in the sixth feature).

672 In both aspects of double-scope blends (for the Eastern and the West-
 673 ern listeners) in Figure 8, the underlying genetic algorithm materialised the
 674 blends (“Target” features and accompanied average Markov matrix of pitch
 675 transitions) into melodies that to some extent encompass the desired blended
 676 features (shown in the “Blend” arrays for the respective listener). A notable
 677 deviation concerns the blend generated for the Western listener, where the
 678 “target” 0.38 value in the rhythm inhomogeneity percentage (first feature)
 679 was not achieved and the melody that was actually generated had a value of
 680 0.74 for this feature, which is closer to the feature value of the Chinese input.
 681 This could have happened in order to approach the desired value (0.76) for
 682 the conflicting feature of constant rhythm (feature 6)⁴. Even though this

⁴The problem of finding a melody that optimally satisfies all (potentially conflicting) criteria is a multi-objective optimisation problem that can be more efficiently addressed

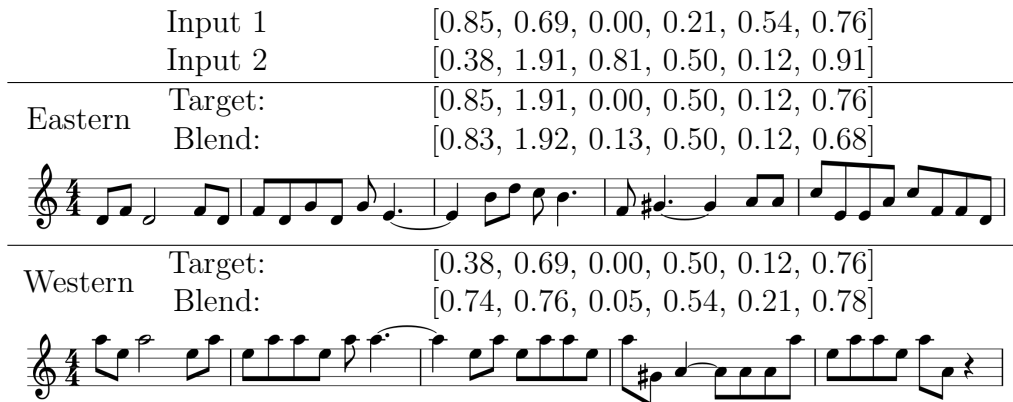


Figure 8: Double-scope blending between Input 1 and Input 2-A in Figure 5 for the “virtual” Eastern and Western listeners.

683 is a strictly case-dependent situation, it should be noted that the targeted
 684 features generated in double-scope blends (through Algorithm 1) will not
 685 necessarily be satisfiable by a melody since features can be directly conflict-
 686 ing or even, in some cases, the genetic algorithm might fail to capture the
 687 targeted features.

688 4.3. Blending-based recommendation

689 Music recommendation has been extensively studied during the last years
 690 and it is employed in services offered by big companies for recommending new
 691 content (specifically music) to wide audiences every day. Purpose of music
 692 recommendation is to recommend to users new musical pieces they have never
 693 heard before and they may like. The approaches to music recommendation
 694 that have been studied can be divided in two broad categories: *collaborative*
 695 *filtering* [70] and *content-based* recommendation [71]. Collaborative filtering
 696 is based solely on user preferences, aiming to implicitly group users based on
 697 their preferences, regardless of content, and recommend new material accord-
 698 ing to the estimated group of each user: users placed closer together in the
 699 space of preferences are assumed to have similar preferences. Content-based

using pertinent techniques (e.g. employing the notion of the Pareto front); in this paper we intent to focus on the general ideas presented and detailing such techniques extend beyond the scope of this paper.

700 recommendation involves recommending new material to a user regardless
701 of what other users prefer, based on the assumption that the new material
702 should incorporate similar features to the material that this user prefers [72].
703 Content-based music recommendation employs distance measures between
704 features of music pieces and proposes new music that belongs to the same
705 “cluster of preference” of a user.

706 Feature blending potentially offers new possibilities for content-based mu-
707 sic recommendation. Hitherto proposed approaches aim to recommend new
708 music based on which unknown pieces are clustered together with highly-
709 rated pieces of the user. This task shares the basic principles with genre
710 or style classification [73], since both cluster pieces according to their con-
711 tent. However, in many occasions users prefer more than one styles which
712 potentially incorporate completely different features; current content-based
713 approaches are able to propose new music within the cluster of each user-
714 preferred style but are unable to allow exploration to new styles. According
715 to the hypotheses made about the computation of salience, this value for
716 music features can be computed for listeners based on the music pieces and
717 genres they prefer. The most salient features in user-preferred pieces reflect
718 the most common and special characteristics of the categories that the user
719 prefers. Therefore, by blending the most salient features of preferred pieces,
720 new pieces can be retrieved and recommended that are not necessarily in-
721 cluded in the styles known to the user.

722 If we suppose that an Eastern and a Western listener have rated high the
723 Chinese and German melodies used as Input 1 and Input 2-A in Figure 5,
724 then, based on the computed salience values and by applying Algorithm 1,
725 we would get the blended target blended features demonstrated for each
726 listener in Table 1 (which are the same blends used as target features in the
727 examples shown in Figure 8). For the recommendation example, the most
728 basic form of content-based recommendation is used: recommendations are
729 new pieces with features close to the target (blended) features in terms of
730 the Euclidean distance. The best five results (five new pieces closest to the
731 target features) are returned for each listener, as shown in Table 1. Even
732 though the Essen dataset is biased towards Western and Chinese melodies,
733 it is obvious that this simple recommendation approach returns pieces in
734 new styles to the listener. The Eastern listener receives recommendations for
735 Austrian and zucca1-style melodies, while the Western listener gets natmin-
736 style melodies.

Table 1: Recommendations based on blended features for the Eastern and Western listener.

	Input 1	[0.85, 0.69, 0.00, 0.21, 0.54, 0.76]
	Input 2	[0.38, 1.91, 0.81, 0.50, 0.12, 0.91]
	Target:	[0.85, 1.91, 0.00, 0.50, 0.12, 0.76]
	Recommendations	
Eastern	oesterrh/oestr039	[0.82, 1.86, 0.08, 0.58, 0.07, 0.46]
	han/han0719	[0.89, 1.71, 0.23, 0.58, 0.02, 0.20]
	zuccal/deut5021	[0.51, 1.84, 0.08, 0.42, 0.17, 0.75]
	oesterrh/oestr058	[0.67, 1.83, 0.22, 0.71, 0.31, 0.68]
	oesterrh/oestr041	[0.75, 1.66, 0.12, 0.71, 0.26, 0.32]
	Target:	[0.38, 0.69, 0.00, 0.50, 0.12, 0.76]
	Recommendations	
Western	han/han0791	[0.43, 0.97, 0.00, 0.50, 0.34, 0.48]
	natmin/natmn010	[0.46, 1.00, 0.00, 0.67, 0.18, 0.35]
	zuccal/deut4637	[0.51, 1.07, 0.00, 0.50, 0.54, 0.64]
	han/han0529	[0.42, 1.07, 0.17, 0.50, 0.33, 0.73]
	natmin/natmn204	[0.35, 1.09, 0.00, 0.38, 0.20, 0.76]

737 **5. Conclusions**

738 In this paper a new framework for generative Conceptual Blending (CB)
739 has been presented that allows blending quantitative high-level features along
740 with low-level information employing feature salience values for determining
741 which features of the inputs should be included to the blend. Current ap-
742 proaches for generative CB act only on a low level of information, combining
743 basic elements of the inputs and disregarding high-level information that
744 captures meaning; we have referred to this problem as the *representation*
745 *problem*. Additionally, in current approaches the identification of which fea-
746 tures are important for each input is either performed ad-hoc during the
747 definition of the input spaces, or is not considered at all, leading to the gen-
748 eration of many blends that need to be filtered at subsequent steps. This
749 is problematic since it raises scalability issues: either all objects need to get
750 hand-crafted annotations regarding the importance of their features, or over-
751 whelmingly many blends will be generated; we have referred to this problem
752 as the *salience problem*. The aforementioned problems have been addressed
753 in the paper at hand by developing a simple methodology that blends high-
754 level features of objects and employs Genetic Algorithms (GA) to combine

755 low level information, leading to the construction of blends that adhere to the
756 blended high-level features. Each feature is accompanied by a salience value
757 that is computed based on the statistical layout of feature values in a dataset
758 that represents the background of the listener. The proposed framework re-
759 lies on (a) the availability of data in different categories; (b) a basic low-level
760 representation of objects that GA can manipulate; (c) and the definition of
761 some meaningful features that quantify high-level aspects of objects.

762 Three test-cases have been presented based on melody blending, with
763 melodies derived from the Essen Corpus: (a) generation of single-scope
764 blends, where a single characteristic from a melody is imported to another
765 (two examples: increase in pitch class profile complexity and increase in small
766 intervals); (b) examination of the role of the proposed statistical approach
767 to salience in identifying “exemplar” objects in a category and in generating
768 double-scope blends; and (c) recommendation of new music based on blended
769 features from preferred music in different styles. The latter two cases present
770 results based on assumptions about the background of two “artificial” lis-
771 teners, an Eastern and a Western, who are assumed to have acquaintance
772 only with sets of Chinese and German melodies respectively. The computed
773 feature salience values for the two listeners is affected by their background
774 according to the proposed model, while the presented examples verify, on an
775 intuitive level, that the proposed framework makes sense.

776 Intuitive insights have been presented that support the plausibility of the
777 proposed methodology; empirical experiments, however, will be necessary
778 to reveal whether human listeners indeed perceive blending and salience as
779 the system predicts. Even though it is outside the scope of this paper to
780 discuss evaluation in detail, we briefly refer to previous work that on empirical
781 evaluation of blending methodologies that might be pertinent. In [74] listeners
782 rated how dissimilar pairs of cadences were, where cadences were either
783 the two inputs or their blending products, leading to a space of perceived
784 distance among all cadences. In a similar manner, the perceived distances of
785 a set of blended melodies could be estimated, leading to conclusions regarding
786 which features play a more important role in defining melodic distance; such
787 tests could allow estimations of feature salience for specific groups of listeners
788 when rating melodic distances. Another methodology for empirical testing
789 could be similar to [75], where harmonisations (blends or non-blends) were
790 given as stimuli and listeners had to rate whether they sounded like tonal
791 or jazz. Such tests could reveal whether some feature values are decisive for
792 classifying melodies as Chinese or German, leading to assumptions about the

793 importance of features. It has to be noted that listeners with diverse, possibly
794 non-Western, backgrounds should be included in such test, which is all the
795 more difficult with the current global abundance of Western-related music.

796 Future projection of this work may be relevant for a recent paradigm of
797 methodologies for human-computer communication: argumentation systems.
798 Such systems engage in “dialogues” with the user, exchanging arguments
799 toward creating a satisfactory output. Argumentation systems have been
800 studied in the context of conceptual blending in [13], but the level of commu-
801 nication was deteriorated by the fact that user choices concerned only low-
802 level properties. Enabling high-level concepts and relations between them
803 will allow more intuitive queries by the user and more informative responses
804 by the system, leading to more meaningful dialogues. The methodology
805 proposed in the paper at hand allows the incorporation of such high-level,
806 quantitatively-expressed concepts in the framework of generative Concep-
807 tual Blending, allowing the aforementioned improvement and expansion of
808 the current framework.

809 **Acknowledgments**

810 This work has been supported by the Greek National Scholarships Foun-
811 dation (Grant Agreement Number: 2016-050-0503-8138).

812 **References**

- 813 [1] J. W. Charnley, A. Pease, S. Colton, On the notion of framing in compu-
814 tational creativity., in: Proceedings of the International Conference
815 on Computational Creativity ICC3, 2012, pp. 77–81.
- 816 [2] M. A. Boden, Computer Models of Creativity, *AI Magazine* 30 (3) (2009)
817 23.
- 818 [3] M. A. Boden, *The creative mind: Myths and mechanisms*, Psychology
819 Press, 2004.
- 820 [4] G. Fauconnier, M. Turner, *The Way We Think: Conceptual Blending*
821 *And The Mind’s Hidden Complexities*, reprint edition Edition, Basic
822 Books, New York, 2003.

- 823 [5] C. Tsougras, D. Stefanou, Conceptual Blending and Meaning Construc-
824 tion: A Structural/hermeneutical Analysis of the ‘Old Castle’ from Mu-
825 sorgsky’s ‘Pictures at an Exhibition’, in: Proceedings of the 9th Tri-
826 ennial Conference of the European Society for the Cognitive Science of
827 Music (ESCOM), 2015.
- 828 [6] L. M. Zbikowski, Metaphor and music, *The Cambridge handbook of*
829 *metaphor and thought* (2008) 502–524.
- 830 [7] L. M. Zbikowski, *Conceptualizing Music: Cognitive Structure, Theory,*
831 *and Analysis*, Oxford University Press, 2002.
- 832 [8] D. Gómez-Ramírez, Conceptual blending as a creative meta-generator of
833 mathematical concepts: prime ideals and dedekind domains as a blend,
834 in: Proceedings of the 4th international workshop on computational cre-
835 ativity, concept invention, and general intelligence (C3GI), Publications
836 of the Institute of Cognitive Science, Vol. 2, 2015, pp. 1–11.
- 837 [9] F. Bou, M. Schorlemmer, J. Corneli, D. Gómez-Ramírez, E. Maclean,
838 A. Smail, A. Pease, The role of blending in mathematical invention, in:
839 Proceedings of the International Conference on Computational Creativ-
840 ity (ICCC), 2015, pp. 55–62.
- 841 [10] M. Eppe, R. Confalonier, E. Maclean, M. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas,
842 E. Cambouropoulos, M. Schorlemmer, M. Codescu, K.-U. Kühnberger,
843 Computational invention of cadences and chord progressions by con-
844 ceptual chord-blending., in: International Joint Conference on Artificial
845 Intelligence (IJCAI) 2015, 2015.
- 846 [11] A. Zacharakis, M. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas, E. Cambouropoulos, Con-
847 ceptual blending in music cadences: A formal model and subjective
848 evaluation, in: Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Mu-
849 sic Information Retrieval (ISMIR 2015), Malaga, Spain, 2015.
- 850 [12] K. Hirata, S. Tojo, M. Hamanaka, Melodic morphing algorithm in for-
851 malism, *Mathematics and Computation in Music* (2011) 338–341.
- 852 [13] M. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas, R. Confalonier, J. Corneli, A. Zacharakis,
853 E. Cambouropoulos, An argument-based creative assistant for harmonic
854 blending, in: Proceedings of the 7th International Conference on Com-
855 putational Creativity (ICCC), 2016.

- 856 [14] M. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas, D. Makris, A. Zacharakis, C. Tsougras,
857 E. Cambouropoulos, Learning and blending harmonies in the context
858 of a melodic harmonisation assistant, in: IFIP International Conference
859 on Artificial Intelligence Applications and Innovations, Springer, 2016,
860 pp. 520–527.
- 861 [15] D. B. Huron, Sweet anticipation: Music and the psychology of expecta-
862 tion, MIT press, 2006.
- 863 [16] C. L. Krumhansl, Cognitive foundations of musical pitch, Oxford Uni-
864 versity Press, 2001.
- 865 [17] D. Temperley, The cognition of basic musical structures, MIT press,
866 2004.
- 867 [18] S. M. Demorest, S. J. Morrison, Quantifying culture: The cultural dis-
868 tance hypothesis of melodic expectancy, The Oxford Handbook of Cul-
869 tural Neuroscience (2016) 183.
- 870 [19] E. J. Kessler, C. Hansen, R. N. Shepard, Tonal schemata in the percep-
871 tion of music in bali and in the west, Music Perception: An Interdisci-
872 plinary Journal 2 (2) (1984) 131–165.
- 873 [20] C. L. Krumhansl, Tonality induction: A statistical approach applied
874 cross-culturally, Music Perception: An Interdisciplinary Journal 17 (4)
875 (2000) 461–479.
- 876 [21] M. T. Pearce, Statistical learning and probabilistic prediction in music
877 cognition: mechanisms of stylistic enculturation, Annals of the New
878 York Academy of Sciences.
- 879 [22] E. Cambouropoulos, A. Smaill, Similarity and categorisation inextrica-
880 bly bound together: The unscramble machine learning algorithm, in:
881 Proceedings of the Interdisciplinary Workshop on Similarity and Cate-
882 gorisation, University of Edinburgh, 1997.
- 883 [23] E. Cambouropoulos, Towards a general computational theory of musical
884 structure.
- 885 [24] E. Cambouropoulos, G. Widmer, Melodic clustering: Motivic analysis
886 of schumanns träumerei, Proceedings of JIM.

- 887 [25] G. Widmer, Getting closer to the essence of music: The *con espressione*
888 manifesto, *ACM Transactions on Intelligent Systems and Technology*
889 (TIST) 8 (2) (2016) 19.
- 890 [26] M. A. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas, A. Floros, M. N. Vrahatis, Intelligent
891 music composition, in: X.-S. Yang, Z. Cui, R. Xiao, A. H. Gandomi,
892 M. Karamanoglu (Eds.), *Swarm Intelligence and Bio-Inspired Compu-*
893 *tation*, Elsevier, Oxford, 2013, pp. 239 – 256.
- 894 [27] M. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas, A. Floros, M. N. Vrahatis, *Evodrummer:*
895 *deriving rhythmic patterns through interactive genetic algorithms*, in:
896 *International Conference on Evolutionary and Biologically Inspired Mu-*
897 *sic and Art*, Springer, 2013, pp. 25–36.
- 898 [28] C. O. Nuanáin, P. Herrera, S. Jorda, Target-based rhythmic pattern
899 generation and variation with genetic algorithms, in: *Sound and Music*
900 *Computing Conference*, 2015.
- 901 [29] R. Vogl, M. Leimeister, C. Ó. Nuanáin, S. Jordà, M. Hlatky, P. Knees,
902 An intelligent interface for drum pattern variation and comparative eval-
903 uation of algorithms, *Journal of the Audio Engineering Society* 64 (7/8)
904 (2016) 503–513.
- 905 [30] A. Eigenfeldt, P. Pasquier, Evolving structures for electronic dance mu-
906 sic, in: *Proceedings of the 15th annual conference on Genetic and evo-*
907 *lutionary computation*, ACM, 2013, pp. 319–326.
- 908 [31] A. J. Milne, R. T. Dean, Computational creation and morphing of mul-
909 tilevel rhythms by control of evenness, *Computer Music Journal*.
- 910 [32] M. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas, Generating drum rhythms through data-
911 driven conceptual blending of features and genetic algorithms, in: *Evo-*
912 *lutionary and Biologically Inspired Music, Sound, Art and Design, Lec-*
913 *ture Notes in Computer Science*, Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2018, pp.
914 145–160.
- 915 [33] A. Piata, Genre “out of the box”: A conceptual integration analysis of
916 poetic discourse, *Genre in Language, Discourse and Cognition* 33 (2016)
917 225.

- 918 [34] C. P. Cánovas, M. Valverde, Interactions with the beloved in greek lit-
919 erature: Conceptual blending and levels of representation, *Trends in*
920 *Classics* 9 (1) (2017) 85–112.
- 921 [35] A. Joy, J. F. Sherry, J. Deschenes, Conceptual blending in advertising,
922 *Journal of business research* 62 (1) (2009) 39–49.
- 923 [36] M. Turner, G. Fauconnier, A mechanism of creativity, *Poetics today*
924 20 (3) (1999) 397–418.
- 925 [37] H. Ling, A study on news headline translation from the cognitive
926 perspective-based on conceptual blending theory, *English Language and*
927 *Literature Studies* 5 (4) (2015) 82.
- 928 [38] L. M. Zbikowski, Conceptual models and cross-domain mapping: New
929 perspectives on theories of music and hierarchy, *Journal of music theory*
930 41 (2) (1997) 193–225.
- 931 [39] M. Antovic, Musical metaphor revisited: Primitives, universals and con-
932 ceptual blending, *Universals and Conceptual Blending*.
- 933 [40] M. Spitzer, *Metaphor and musical thought*, University of Chicago Press,
934 2004.
- 935 [41] M. L. Gick, K. J. Holyoak, Schema induction and analogical transfer,
936 *Cognitive psychology* 15 (1) (1983) 1–38.
- 937 [42] M. M. Hedblom, O. Kutz, F. Neuhaus, Image schemas in computational
938 conceptual blending, *Cognitive Systems Research* 39 (2016) 42–57.
- 939 [43] M. Leman, *Music and schema theory: Cognitive foundations of system-*
940 *atic musicology*, Vol. 31, Springer Science & Business Media, 2012.
- 941 [44] I. Shmulevich, D.-J. Povel, Measures of temporal pattern complexity,
942 *Journal of New Music Research* 29 (1) (2000) 61–69.
- 943 [45] G. Madison, G. Sioros, What musicians do to induce the sensation of
944 groove in simple and complex melodies, and how listeners perceive it,
945 *Frontiers in psychology* 5.

- 946 [46] G. Sioros, M. Miron, M. Davies, F. Gouyon, G. Madison, Syncopation
947 creates the sensation of groove in synthesized music examples, *Frontiers*
948 *in psychology* 5.
- 949 [47] M. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas, M. Queiroz, C. Tsougras, E. Cambouropou-
950 los, Conceptual blending of harmonic spaces for creative melodic har-
951 monisation, *Journal of New Music Research* 43 (3) (2017) 1–25.
- 952 [48] A. Koestler, *The act of creation*, London Hutchinson, 1964.
- 953 [49] V. Goel, Creative brains: designing in the real world, *Frontiers in human*
954 *neuroscience* 8 (2014) 241.
- 955 [50] J. McCarthy, P. J. Hayes, Some philosophical problems from the stand-
956 point of artificial intelligence, *Readings in artificial intelligence* (1969)
957 431–450.
- 958 [51] J. Goguen, *Mathematical Models of Cognitive Space and Time*, in:
959 D. Andler, Y. Ogawa, M. Okada, S. Watanabe (Eds.), *Reasoning and*
960 *Cognition*, Vol. 2 of *Interdisciplinary Conference Series on Reasoning*
961 *Studies*, Keio University Press, 2006.
- 962 [52] J. Goguen, D. F. Harrell, *Style: A Computational and Conceptual*
963 *Blending-Based Approach*, in: S. Argamon, S. Dubnov (Eds.), *The*
964 *Structure of Style: Algorithmic Approaches to Understanding Manner*
965 *and Meaning*, Springer, Berlin, 2010, pp. 147–170.
- 966 [53] F. Neuhaus, O. Kutz, M. Codescu, T. Mossakowski, *Fabricating Mon-*
967 *sters is Hard. Towards the Automation of Conceptual Blending*, in: *Pro-*
968 *ceedings of the Workshop Computational Creativity, Concept Invention,*
969 *and General Intelligence (C3GI 2014)*, 2014.
- 970 [54] H. Schaffrath, *Beyond midi*, MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, USA, 1997,
971 Ch. *The Essen Associative Code: A Code for Folksong Analysis*, pp.
972 343–361.
- 973 [55] M. Towsey, A. Brown, S. Wright, J. Diederich, *Towards melodic exten-*
974 *sion using genetic algorithms*, *Educational Technology & Society* 4 (2)
975 (2001) 54–65.

- 976 [56] M. A. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas, A. Floros, M. N. Vrahatis, N. Kanel-
977 lopoulos, Genetic evolution of L and FL-systems for the production of
978 rhythmic sequences, in: In Proceedings of the 2nd Workshop in Evolutionary
979 Music (GECCO 2012), Philadelphia, USA, 2012, pp. 461–468.
- 980 [57] F. Gómez, A. Melvin, D. Rappaport, G. Toussaint, Mathematical mea-
981 sures of syncopation, in: BRIDGES: Mathematical Connections in Art,
982 Music and Science, 2005, pp. 73–84.
- 983 [58] H. C. Longuet-Higgins, C. S. Lee, The rhythmic interpretation of mono-
984 phonic music, *Music Perception: An Interdisciplinary Journal* 1 (4)
985 (1984) 424–441.
- 986 [59] G. Sioros, C. Guedes, Complexity driven recombination of midi loops.,
987 in: Proceedings of the 12th International Society for Music Information
988 Retrieval Conference (ISMIR), University of Miami, Miami, USA, 2011,
989 pp. 381–386.
- 990 [60] C. E. Shannon, Prediction and entropy of printed english, *Bell Labs*
991 *Technical Journal* 30 (1) (1951) 50–64.
- 992 [61] M. Schorlemmer, A. Smaill, K.-U. Kühnberger, O. Kutz, S. Colton,
993 E. Cambouropoulos, A. Pease, Coinvent: Towards a computational con-
994 cept invention theory, in: 5th International Conference on Computa-
995 tional Creativity (ICCC) 2014, 2014.
- 996 [62] M. Eppe, E. Maclean, R. Confalonieri, O. Kutz, M. Schorlemmer,
997 E. Plaza, ASP, Amalgamation, and the Conceptual Blending Work-
998 flow, in: *Logic Programming and Nonmonotonic Reasoning*, Vol. 9345 of
999 *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, Springer International Publishing,
1000 2015, pp. 309–316.
- 1001 [63] R. Confalonier, M. Schorlemmer, E. Plaza, M. Eppe, O. Kutz,
1002 R. Peñaloza, Upward Refinement for Conceptual Blending in Descrip-
1003 tion Logic – An ASP-based Approach and Case Study in EL^{++} , in: In-
1004 ternational Workshop on Ontologies and Logic Programming for Query
1005 Answering, International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJ-
1006 CAI) 2015, 2015.
- 1007 [64] H. Ait-Kaci, A. Podelski, Towards a meaning of life, *The Journal of*
1008 *Logic Programming* 16 (3) (1993) 195–234.

- 1009 [65] G. Wiggins, G. Papadopoulos, A genetic algorithm for the generation
1010 of jazz melodies, in: Proceedings of the Finnish Conference on Artificial
1011 Intelligence (STeP'98), Jyväskylä, Finland, 1998.
- 1012 [66] H. Schaffrath, D. Huron, The essen folksong collection in kern for-
1013 mat.[computer database], Menlo Park, CA: Center for Computer As-
1014 sisted Research in the Humanities.
- 1015 [67] B. van der Weij, M. T. Pearce, H. Honing, A probabilistic model of
1016 meter perception: Simulating enculturation, *Frontiers in psychology* 8
1017 (2017) 824.
- 1018 [68] F. G. Ashby, W. T. Maddox, Human category learning, *Annu. Rev.*
1019 *Psychol.* 56 (2005) 149–178.
- 1020 [69] M. L. Mack, A. R. Preston, B. C. Love, Decoding the brains algo-
1021 rithm for categorization from its neural implementation, *Current Bi-*
1022 *ology* 23 (20) (2013) 2023–2027.
- 1023 [70] X. Su, T. M. Khoshgoftaar, A survey of collaborative filtering tech-
1024 niques, *Advances in artificial intelligence* 2009.
- 1025 [71] Y. Song, S. Dixon, M. Pearce, A survey of music recommendation sys-
1026 tems and future perspectives, in: 9th International Symposium on Com-
1027 puter Music Modeling and Retrieval, Vol. 4, 2012.
- 1028 [72] J. Kaitila, A content-based music recommender system, Master's thesis,
1029 University of Tampere (2017).
- 1030 [73] G. Tzanetakis, P. Cook, Musical genre classification of audio signals,
1031 *IEEE Transactions on speech and audio processing* 10 (5) (2002) 293–
1032 302.
- 1033 [74] A. Zacharakis, M. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas, C. Tsougras, E. Cam-
1034 bouropoulos, Creating musical cadences via conceptual blending: empir-
1035 ical evaluation and enhancement of a formal model, *Music Perception: An Interdisciplinary Journal* 35 (2) (2017) 211–234.
- 1037 [75] A. Zacharakis, M. Kaliakatsos-Papakostas, C. Tsougras, E. Cam-
1038 bouropoulos, Musical blending and creativity: An empirical evaluation
1039 of the CHAMELEON melodic harmonisation assistant, *Musicae Scien-*
1040 *tiae* 22 (1) (2018) 119–144.

Algorithm 1 Computation of the best blended set of features of two input spaces.

Require: arrays of the two input features, \vec{m}_1 and \vec{m}_2 , the arrays of their corresponding saliences, $s_{\vec{m}_1}$ and $s_{\vec{m}_2}$ and an array of the generic space features, \vec{g} .

Ensure: array, \vec{b} , including the optimal set of blended features.

```

1:  $\vec{b} \leftarrow \emptyset$  { $\%$  initialise best blend as an empty array}
2: { $\%$  get the sorted indexes of the saliences in both inputs}
3:  $\vec{i}^{(1)} \leftarrow \text{getSortedIndexes}(s_{r_1})$ 
4:  $\vec{i}^{(2)} \leftarrow \text{getSortedIndexes}(s_{r_2})$ 
5: { $\%$  clear out the indexes that correspond to features of the generic space}
6: for  $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, 32\}$  do
7:   if  $g_j \neq \emptyset$  then
8:      $b_j \leftarrow g_j$ 
9:      $\vec{i}^{(1)} \leftarrow \text{removeElement}(j, \vec{i}^{(1)})$ 
10:     $\vec{i}^{(2)} \leftarrow \text{removeElement}(j, \vec{i}^{(2)})$ 
11:   end if
12: end for
13: { $\%$  select input with the highest salience in any feature}
14: if  $s_{r_1}(i_1^{(1)}) > s_{r_2}(i_1^{(2)})$  then
15:    $c \leftarrow 1$ 
16: else
17:    $c \leftarrow 2$ 
18: end if
19: { $\%$  fill the non-generic space features by picking up the most salient ones
    from each input interchangeably}
20: while  $\text{isNotEmptyArray}(\vec{i}^{(1)})$  do
21:   if  $c == 1$  then
22:      $b_{i_1^{(1)}} = f_{i_1^{(1)}}$  { $\%$  get most salient feature available from input space 1
      and remove its index from both arrays of indexes}
23:      $\vec{i}^{(1)} \leftarrow \text{removeElement}(i_1^{(1)}, \vec{i}^{(1)})$ 
24:      $\vec{i}^{(2)} \leftarrow \text{removeElement}(i_1^{(1)}, \vec{i}^{(2)})$ 
25:      $c \leftarrow 2$ 
26:   else
27:      $b_{i_2^{(2)}} = f_{i_2^{(2)}}$  { $\%$  get most salient feature available from input space 2
      and remove its index from both arrays of indexes}
28:      $\vec{i}^{(1)} \leftarrow \text{removeElement}(i_1^{(2)}, \vec{i}^{(1)})$ 
29:      $\vec{i}^{(2)} \leftarrow \text{removeElement}(i_1^{(2)}, \vec{i}^{(2)})$ 
30:      $c \leftarrow 1$ 
31:   end if
32: end while

```
