Well-Typed Music Does Not Sound Wrong (Experience Report)

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Abstract
Music description and generation are popular use cases for Haskell, ranging from live coding libraries to automatic harmonisation systems. Some approaches use probabilistic methods, others build on the theory of Western music composition, but there has been little work done on checking the correctness of musical pieces in terms of voice leading, harmony, and structure. Haskell’s recent additions to the type-system now enable us to perform such analysis statically.

We present our experience of implementing a type-level model of classical music and an accompanying EDSL which enforce the rules of classical music at compile-time, turning composition mistakes into compiler errors. Along the way, we discuss the strengths and limitations of doing this in Haskell and demonstrate that the type system of the language is fully capable of expressing non-trivial and practical logic specific to a particular domain.

CCS Concepts • Applied computing → Sound and music computing. • Software and its engineering → Functional languages;

Keywords • Type-level computation; Haskell; music theory

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1 Introduction
The connection between music and mathematics has been studied by scholars as early as Pythagoras. These investigations were the beginnings of the field of Western music theory – a formal description of what sounds good to the ear and what does not. For example, consider the following composition\(^1\):

![Composition Example](http://example.com/composition.png)

For readers who do not read music: the exact meaning of this depiction is irrelevant, but note that compositions are read from left to right and that, in this example, there are two voices – the two series of notes which occur at the same points horizontally.

\(^1\) The example is based on [http://decipheringmusictheory.com/?page_id=46](http://decipheringmusictheory.com/?page_id=46)

The piece above does not abide by these rules and will sound odd when played. To avoid this, composers have to check by hand, through close inspection of the notes, which rules have been violated. This process is laborious, error-prone and requires a thorough understanding of music theory.

We present Mezzo\(^2\), an embedded domain-specific language for describing music in Haskell which statically enforces the rules of classical music theory. Compositions which break the rules are not valid programs and result in type errors. For example, the composition we gave can be described in the Mezzo EDSL as follows:

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v1 = d qn :|: g qn :|: fs qn :|: g en
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```
v1 = d qn :|: g qn :|: fs qn :|: g en
```

The code now compiles without errors and \( \texttt{comp} \) has major sevenths in chords: \( Bb - B_\). Parallel octaves are forbidden: \( A - A_\), then \( G - G_\).

As expected, the program does not compile since \( \texttt{comp} \) has major sevenths in chords: \( Bb - B_\). Parallel octaves are forbidden: \( A - A_\), then \( G - G_\).

The task of finding the mistakes, which would have taken a composer some time to complete, was accomplished by Mezzo in a fraction of that time. The type errors also tell us exactly what is wrong and where the errors lie, although we have omitted line and column numbers from the example here.

The first error is caused by a violation of a harmonic rule: major seventh chords, which sound very dissonant, are generally forbidden. The second error is more complex and relates to counterpoint – a polyphonic (multi-voice) compositional technique. Its most important consideration is that the melodic lines have to be independent, but give a coherent whole when played together. Composers have to follow strict rules of voice-leading and harmonic motion to ensure this [5]. Whenever two voices sing a perfect interval apart (unison, fifth or octave), they become hard to distinguish and effectively fuse together into one voice. Simply put, series of perfect intervals are not interesting enough to create complex and dynamic music.

To correct the problems, we change the last three notes of the second voice to avoid the major seventh and the parallel octaves:

```
```

The code now compiles without errors and \( \texttt{comp} \) is seen as a valid composition that can be used as part of a larger piece or exported to a MIDI file on its own.

\(^2\) [https://hackage.haskell.org/package/mezzo](https://hackage.haskell.org/package/mezzo)
This experience report describes the implementation of Mezzo and also addresses the challenges we faced by using Haskell for type-level computation. Our library provides a non-trivial and practical use case for advanced type-level features in Haskell and functional programming in general. We also provide evidence that Haskell is more than capable of handling sophisticated type-level computation without being a fully dependently typed language yet.

2 Music Model

In this section, we give a top-down description of the music model implemented in Mezzo and present the majority of the type-level computation techniques used by the library.

Enforcing the musical rules at the type-level buys us many advantages over a more standard implementation at the term-level. For example, we get better integration with existing development tools which can highlight the precise locations in source files at which type errors occur. Users of our library can therefore see where the rules are violated, and we found this very useful in practice. We also benefit from the usual advantages of static typing such as the ability to write functional programs in which only compositions that are guaranteed to sound good may be constructed, or functions which do not need to handle inputs that cannot possibly be musically or structurally valid. However, in our experience, type inference cannot always handle the complex types involved, which makes such programs somewhat difficult to write. The leaking of internals in the case of real type errors is also common, but this is a known drawback of EDSL design in general [11].

2.1 The Music Data Type

Mezzo’s music model is responsible for representing musical pieces both at the term- and type-level, as well as expressing and enforcing the composition rules.

The main inspiration comes from Haskore, a music description library developed by Hudak et al. [7]. The novelty of Haskore is that it treats music as a recursive structure with two associative operators: sequential (melodic) and parallel (harmonic) composition. In BNF syntax, a piece of music $M$ can be expressed as:

$$M ::= \text{Note} \mid \text{Rest} \mid M :|: M \mid M :-: M$$

This is encoded into Haskell as follows:

```haskell
data Music = Note Pit Dur \mid Rest Dur \mid Music :+: Music \mid Music :-: Music
```

This describes a tree-like structure with the leaves containing notes (with some pitch and duration) or rests (with some duration). The Music type is fairly simple, but it is already capable of expressing a huge variety of musical compositions – however, we have no guarantee that all Music values will sound good, as there is nothing to constrain their structure.

To statically enforce rules on compositions, we need to know their detailed structure at compile-time. This can be achieved by adding a type argument to the Music type, containing some type-level representation of the music (Section 2.2). Ideally, we would like this to depend on the term-level value of Music $m$, which is a typical use-case for dependently typed programming. Haskell already supports this through various language extensions; a thorough overview of them can be found in Richard Eisenberg’s PhD thesis [3]. In this case, we can use GADTs: this way, each constructor can determine what $m$ should be instantiated with. More complex computation is enabled by type families, which we use to convert type-level information about pitches and durations into our music representation, as well as to combine these representations. Finally, we encode musical rules as type class constraints on the type variables: whenever we construct a new term of type Music $m$, it must follow the composition rules. The Music type now looks like this:

```haskell
data Music m where
  Note :: NoteConstraints p d => Pit p -> Dur d -> Music (FromPitch p d)
  Rest :: RestConstraints d => Dur d -> Music (FromSilence d)
  (:|:) :: MelConstraints m1 m2 => Music m1 -> Music m2 -> Music (m1 :+: m2)
  (:-:) :: HarmConstraints m1 m2 => Music m1 -> Music m2 -> Music (m1 :-: m2)
```

In Section 2.5, we discuss how this type can be parameterised by user-defined rules. This is made possible by the separation of structure and constraints which also makes it easy to add new top-level musical constructs, such as chords or chord progressions.

2.2 The Pitch Matrix

A crucial step in creating a static model of music is finding a suitable representation of musical pieces at the type level. It must have a consistent, but accurate structure that makes rule enforcement as simple as possible. The model must also not discard any relevant musical information: for example, it should always be possible to compose a long melody with a long accompaniment and ensure that all arising harmonic intervals are valid. While intuitive to compose with, the Haskore algebra is too unstructured to formally reason about: for example, it is not clear how one would recursively find two notes which are played at the same time.

We decided on the straightforward approach of keeping the music in a two-dimensional array of notes. The columns of this matrix represent durations and the rows are individual voices. The matrix elements are pairs of pitches and durations, which specify notes. Importantly, all durations in one column are equal: this ensures that notes in the same column are played at the same time.

The implementation of the composition rules relies on the fact that the composed music values have the same "size": sequential pieces must have the same number of voices, and parallel pieces must have the same length. An experienced Haskell programmer would immediately exclaim "Vectors!" – but note that we are at the type level now. Thanks to data type promotion and TypeInType, this is not an issue: any data type, even GADTs, can be promoted to the type level. All we need to do is define the usual Vector data type:

```haskell
data Vector :: Type -> Nat -> Type where
  None :: Vector t 0
  (:--:) :: t -> Vector t (n - 1) -> Vector t n
```

This vector type is suitable for storing the rows of the matrix (the individual voices), but in those rows we need to store both pitches and durations. Moreover, we want the length of a voice to be the total duration of the notes, so we need to keep track of the duration at the type level too. We do this by defining a new Elem type that holds a value (a pitch) and the number of repetitions (the duration), expressed as the proxy Times for type-level naturals:

```haskell
data Times (n :: Nat) = T
data Elem :: Type -> Nat -> Type where
  (:*) :: t -> Times n -> Elem t n
```
This is used to build up an optimised vector. Note that in this case the length of this vector is not the number of elements, but their total duration, so a whole note and 8 eighths have the same length:

```haskell
data OptVector :: Type -> Nat -> Type where
  End :: OptVector t 0
  (:+) :: Elem t d -> OptVector t (n - d) -> OptVector t n
```

We can now declare a type synonym for matrices:

```haskell
type Matrix t p q = Vector (OptVector t q) p
```

Thanks to GADT promotion, all these types are available at the kind level and we can define type families for common list and matrix operations. In particular, we define horizontal (+|+) and vertical (+|--) concatenation of matrices, as well as means of converting musical values to pitch matrices. For example, `FromPitch p d` creates a singleton matrix with the pitch \( p \) of duration \( d \). To ensure that all column elements have the same duration, `+|--` "aligns" its argument matrices by breaking up long notes which are played at the same time as several shorter ones.

Finally, we need to describe musical values at the type level – this is a straightforward application of data type promotion. All types which describe compositions need term-level values: we accomplish this by creating kind-constrained proxies, such as `Pitch`:

```haskell
data PitchClass = C | D | E | F | G | A | B
data Accidental = Natural | Sharp | Flat
data Octave = Oct_1 | Oct0 | Oct1 | Oct2 | ...

data PitchType = Pitch PitchClass Accidental Octave | Silence
data Pit (p :: PitchType) = Pit
```

We also define specialised types for pitch vectors and matrices:

```haskell
type Voice l = OptVector PitchType l
type PitchMatrix n l = Matrix PitchType n l
```

We can now explicitly specify the type variable for Music \( m \). A minor nuisance here is that kind inference of recursive types can only use monomorphic recursion, just like type inference. If we want polymorphic recursion, which we have in the recursive application of the Music type constructor in \( \forall \): and \( \forall \)-, we need to provide a complete user-supplied kind signature (CUSK). Additionally, with `XTypeInType` enabled, GHC requires us to explicitly quantify all the kind variables in the type definition as shown below. This is explained in more detail in Section 9.11.5 of the GHC 8 User Guide.

```haskell
data Music :: forall n l. PitchMatrix n l -> Type ...
```

### 2.3 Intervals

The rules implemented in Mezzo mainly constrain the musical intervals arising between two composed pieces. To find the interval between two pitches, we declare a type family called `MkInterval`. It is used in most of the low-level correctness checks. For example, the interval between a C and a G in the same octave and with the same accidental is a perfect fifth, while the interval between a C and a pc2 sharp in the same octave is the interval between the C and a pc2 natural expanded by a semitone:

```haskell

type family MkInterval p1 p2 :: IntervalType where
  MkInterval (Pitch C acc o) (Pitch G acc o) = Interval Perf Fifth
  MkInterval (Pitch C Natural o) (Pitch pc2 Sharp o) =
    Expand (MkInterval (Pitch C Natural o) (Pitch pc2 Natural o)) ...
```

### 2.4 Musical Rules

An example of a musical rule is checking harmonic intervals: classically, minor seconds (one semitone) and major sevenths (11 semitones) are to be avoided since they sound very dissonant. To express this limitation, we declare the `ValidHarmInterval` type class which determines whether an interval is harmonically valid. GHC’s custom type error feature (in GHC.TypeLits) let us specify instances for invalid intervals by making the type error the “precondition”, as shown below. Hence whenever GHC tries to determine whether a major seventh is a valid harmonic interval, it encounters a type error. A general, catch-all instance represents valid intervals:

```haskell

class ValidHarmInterval (i :: IntervalType) instance TypeError (Text "Minor seconds forbidden.") => ValidHarmInterval (Interval Min Second)
instance TypeError (Text "Major sevenths forbidden.") => ValidHarmInterval (Interval Maj Seventh)
```

When working with constraints, a useful abstraction is made possible by the `ConstraintKinds` extension. Constraints (and functions returning constraints) can be passed around as types, which opens the door to many flexible options for validation. For example, to check that two pitches (a dyad) are separated by a valid interval, we need to form an interval and establish that it is harmonically valid:

```haskell

class ValidHarmDyad (p1 :: PitchType) (p2 :: PitchType) instance ValidHarmInterval (MkInterval a b) => ValidHarmDyad a b
```

Finally, we use `ValidHarmDyadsInVoices` to validate the composition of pitch matrices. Given two matrices \( (v_1) \) vs and us (where \( v \) is the topmost voice of the first matrix), they can be concatenated if: (1) \( v \) vs and us can be concatenated, and (2) \( v \) can be concatenated with all of the voices in us. The second condition is
implemented by mapping `ValidHarmDyadsInVoices v` (of kind `Voice l -> Constraint`) over all the voices in us and checking whether all the constraints are satisfied. `AllSatisfy` applies a unary constraint to all elements of a Vector:

class `ValidHarmConc` (ps : : PitchMatrix m1 l) (qs : : PitchMatrix m2 l) 
instance ( ValidHarmConc vs us , AllSatisfy (ValidHarmDyadsInVoices v) us ) => ValidHarmConc (v : : vs us)

By translating logical expressions into type class constraints, we can encode most of the low-level musical rules in the type system. We found the pitch matrix representation very well suited for this purpose, as it encapsulates all of the relevant musical information in a structured way that is easy to reason about.

2.5 Rule Sets

Mezzo’s rule sets address the question of flexibility: how can we recognize formal rule checking with artistic expression? Our solution is to provide users with three levels of rule strictness (including one that does not enforce any musical rules), and allow them to define custom rules and correctness checks if they wish. Different parts of a composition can be checked according to different rules.

Rule sets are implemented using constraint kinds and associated type families. The RuleSet type class contains associated constraint synonyms for each of the Music constructors:

class RuleSet t where 
  type HarmConstraints t m1 m2 :: Constraint 
  type NoteConstraints t p d :: Constraint ...

A rule set is defined as a unit data type and an accompanying instance of RuleSet:

data Classical = Classical 
instance RuleSet Classical where 
  type HarmConstraints Classical m1 m2 = ValidHarmConc m1 m2 
  type NoteConstraints Classical p d = Valid ...

Finally, we have to parameterise Music values by their rule set:

data Music :: Type -> PitchMatrix n l -> Type where 
  (:) : : HarmConstraints rs m1 m2 => 
  Music rs m1 -> Music rs m2 -> Music rs (m1 +|+ m2) 
  Note :: NoteConstraints rs p d => 
  Pit p -> Dur d -> Music rs (FromPitch p d) ...

To instantiate rs, we create a new type encapsulating Music values and rule sets:

data Score = forall rs m. MkScore rs (Music rs m) 

Now we can dynamically change the type checking behaviour by changing the rule set arguments: for example, `MkScore Classical (c qn : : b qn)` produces a type error, while `MkScore Empty (c qn : : b qn)` compiles (where Empty enforces no rules). As Haskell type classes are open, users are free to define their own rule sets with custom constraints on composition operators, chords, or even notes and rests. For instance, we can implement a rule set for first-species counterpoint by extending the predefined `Strict` rule set with constraints allowing only whole notes and no chords.

3 Music Description Language

This section showcases some interesting aspects of the Mezzo EDSL which makes use of the type-level model. To increase usability and conciseness, the language provides shorthand methods for note, chord, melody and progression input, covering the most common musical structures composers might use.

3.1 Note and Chord Input

Mezzo’s note and chord input method is based on continuation-passing style: it allows musical values to be built via a series of flexible “transformations” with little syntactic interference. For example, a C quarter note can be written as `c qn`, while a D flat major half chord in first inversion is `d flat maj inv hc`. The main advantage of this approach is as opposed to simple constructor functions is the reuse of syntactic constructs: if the pitch `c` is followed by `qn`, we construct a C quarter note; but if it is followed by `maj qc`, we create a C major quarter chord instead. The exact details of the implementation are outside the scope of this paper and involve no complex type-level computation. However, we refer the interested reader to Okasaki’s paper on flat combinators for more information on this style of programming [9].

3.2 Melodies

The input method described above is concise, but still contains a lot of redundancy, especially when writing melodies. For the first voice in Section 1, we had to specify the duration of every note, even though most notes had the same duration. As this is commonly the case, it is more convenient to be explicit only when the duration changes, and otherwise assume that each note has the same duration as the previous one. With this in mind, we can use Mezzo’s melody construction syntax to describe the melody from Section 1 more concisely:

```
melody : | d : | g : | fs :< e : | a :^ bf : | a :> g
```

Notes are only given as pitches and the duration is either implicit, or explicit in the constructor. For example, `:` means “the next note has the same duration as the previous note”, while `<` means “the next note is an eighth note”. This makes melody input shorter and less error-prone, as most of the constructors will likely be `: |`. Melodies are implemented as “snoc” lists, i.e. lists whose head is at the end. The Melody type keeps additional information in its type variables (like a vector), and has a constructor for every duration:

```
data Melody :: PitchMatrix 1 l -> Nat -> Type where 
  Melody :: Melody (End :-- None) Quarter 
  (:|) :: (MelConstraints ms (FromPitch p d)) 
  Melody ms d -> PitchS p 
  -> Melody (ms +|+ FromPitch p d) d 
  (::) :: (MelConstraints ms (FromPitch p Eighth)) 
  Melody ms d -> PitchS p 
  -> Melody (ms +|+ FromPitch p Eighth) Eighth ...
```

The type keeps track of the “accumulated” music, as well as the duration of the last note. The Melody constructor initialises the pitch matrix and sets the default duration to a quarter. The binary constructor `:|` takes the melody composed so far (the tail) and a pitch specifier `PitchS` (the type of the overloaded pitch literals, such as `c`), and returns a new melody with the added pitch and unchanged duration. The other constructors do the same thing, except they ignore the argument `d` of the tail and change the duration of the last note. While the syntax of the constructors might need getting used to, they allow for quick and intuitive melody input.
4 Music Rendering
Mezzo can export all well-typed compositions to MIDI files. The principal question is how to reify compositions which exist entirely on the type-level so that we can create the corresponding values on the term-level. Recall that users of Mezzo mainly interact with proxies which contain no term-level information, and types are erased at runtime. To solve this problem, we make use of type classes to reify type-level data, inspired by the singletons \(^3\) library.

### 4.1 Reification

Our aim is to find a primitive representation for all of the musical types that the user has access to. That is, to find a function which can convert type-level information into term-level values, such as integers representing the MIDI number of a note. Our solution is to define a type class for “primitive” values:

```haskell
class Primitive (a :: k) where
  prim :: proxy a -> Rep a
```

Primitive is poly-kind, so it can be used with naturals, pitches, etc. Its only method, `prim`, takes the instance type with an arbitrary type constructor, and returns a *representation type* of the value, specified in an associated type family. The primitive representation for a pitch would be an integer (e.g. its MIDI number), while for a chord it would be a list of integers (the constituent pitches).

The representation types do not have to be ground data types: for example, chord types (major, diminished, etc.) are converted into functions from integers to integer lists, mapping the MIDI code of a pitch to the list of codes of the chord pitches.

All we need now is to declare instances of `Primitive` for our types: unfortunately, we have to do this mostly by hand, as Haskell does not have “kind classes” which would let us express that “every type of this kind is a primitive”. In our case, we declare separate instances for all of the promoted data constructors of a type:

```haskell
instance Primitive Oct0 where
  type Rep Oct0 = Int ; prim _ = 12 ...

instance Primitive C where
  type Rep C = Int ; prim _ = 0 ...
```

Having done this, reifying compound types is straightforward, as we can assert a class precondition on the component types:

```haskell
instance (Primitive pc, Primitive acc, Primitive oct) => Primitive (Pitch pc acc oct) where
  type Rep (Pitch pc acc oct) = Int
  prim _ = prim (PC @pc) + prim (Acc @acc)
  + prim (Oct @oct)
```

The `@` syntax is possible with the TypeApplications extension, which provides a way of instantiating the polymorphic type variables of a term \([4]\). The `pc` type variable is bound to the one in the instance declaration, and since we assert that `pc` is an instance of `Primitive`, we can get its primitive representation using `prim`.

### 4.2 MIDI Exporting

MIDI is a simple, compact standard for music communication, often used for streaming events from electronic instruments. To render compositions as MIDI files, we use a MIDI codec package for Haskell called HCodecs\(^4\) by George Giorgidze, which provides lightweight MIDI import and export capabilities. We only needed to add a type for MIDI notes (with their MIDI number, start time and duration) and the functions `playNote` and `playRest` to convert notes and rests into two MIDI events (NoteOn and NoteOff). Thanks to the algebraic description of Music values, converting Mezzo compositions into MIDI tracks is entirely syntax-directed:

```haskell
toMidi (Note pit dur) = playNote (prim pit) (prim dur)
toMidi (Rest dur) = playRest (prim dur)
toMidi (m1 :|: m2) = toMidi m1 ++ toMidi m2
toMidi (m1 :>: m2) = toMidi m1 >< toMidi m2
```

For notes and rests, we use `prim` to get the integer representation of the pitch and duration and convert them into a MIDI track with two events. Sequential composition simply maps to concatenating the two tracks, while parallel composition uses the library’s merging operation, denoted here by `(><)`, which interweaves the two lists of messages according to their timestamps. One of the benefits of the Haskore system is that the algebraic description maps so elegantly to common list operations, and all the work of converting proxies into primitive values is done by the overloaded `prim` function.

All that is left to do is to attach a header to this track (containing the tempo, instrument name and key signature) and export it as a MIDI file, which is done using HCodecs functions. We also have means of configuring various attributes of the MIDI file, such as tempo, time signature or track name.

5 Related Work

Formal descriptions of music are frequently used for algorithmic music composition \([8]\) but have also been applied to analysis and music information retrieval. Martin Rohrmeier developed a formal grammar of functional harmony \([10]\) which was then implemented as a Haskell library, HarmTrace \([2]\), for music analysis and composition. This work describes harmonic constructs such as chords and progressions at the type level and has been one of the initial inspirations for Mezzo. Albeit its discussion is omitted from this report for brevity, we have a partial implementation of the HarmTrace model, providing an EDSL for composing simple chord progressions indexed by the key of the piece. This enables us to separate the progression structure from the key and change the latter independently of the chord schema:

```haskell
inKey c_maj (ph_VI dom_vii0 ton :+ cadence auth_V7)
```

While there is substantial research on generation and analysis of music, little work has been done on checking the correctness of compositions: the system closest to ours is Chew and Chuan’s Palestrina Pal \([6]\), a Java program for grammar-checking music written in the contrapuntal style of Palestrina. There exist similar commercial programs and composition software plugins such as Counterpointer\(^5\) and Fux\(^6\), but these are also specialised to counterpoint and do not offer general purpose composition features. We are not aware of related libraries for functional languages or systems that enforce musical rules statically.

Haskell’s type-level features are seeing increasing adoption and practical use. For example, Augustsson and Ågren describe a statically-typed wrapper of a dynamic relational algebra library by describing schemas at the type-level \([1]\). However, their library does not yet demonstrate the benefits of TypeInType.

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6 Conclusions
We have described Mezzo, a music composition library which statically enforces that compositions follow the rules of classical music. Users can choose from pre-defined rule sets or add their own. Different rule sets can be applied to different parts of a composition.

6.1 Proxies
We chose to use proxies and reification instead of the conventional approach of programming with singletons. This decision is important: instead of trying to mirror the term and type level, we make use of the term-type separation to model the music in two different ways. The term-level algebraic representation is very convenient for composition and recursive traversal, but we need the structured pitch matrix to perform rule-checking effectively. Moreover, abstract musical types (e.g. pitches) are converted directly into concrete values (e.g. MIDI numbers), so having an abstract term-level representations of musical values via singletons (or full dependent types) would bring us no significant benefits.

6.2 Type-Level Computation
Haskell’s type system has many unique features including type classes, functional dependencies, and type families. Mezzo uses most of these features and development has been both really enjoyable and surprisingly easy: data type promotion, GADTs and type families work seamlessly together and there is very little mental overhead needed to think and reason about programs. We wish that type families were first-class types so that we could write higher-order type functions, but conditionals, data types, and recursion still enabled us to express musical rules effectively.

During development, we encountered a few limitations and nuisances and some of these are already being addressed. A frequent type error we saw was related to type family applications in type class (or family) instances: this was often triggered when pattern-matching on types whose kind-variables are results of type family applications (e.g. arithmetic). For example, this is the reason why the Vector type’s Vector (n+1) constructor has an argument of type Vector (n-1) instead of the more obvious Vector (n+1) in its return type: otherwise, to pattern-match on an argument of type Vector, GHC would have to reduce a type family application.

Other causes for unexpected errors were type families, as they may not reduce as far as we might expect. This made debugging difficult and was the reason why we implemented the rule system using type classes instead of type families on constraints: custom compiler errors would not always get triggered if e.g. a custom type error occurred as an argument to a type family.

While type-level programming is already painless, we would have found some additional features helpful. A large part of the rule-checking system is built using type classes, but we had to explicitly handle overlapping instances. In normal usage, closed type classes would not make much sense as the instances rarely overlap, but a separate construct acting as a closed type predicate could be useful for type-level programming and verification. Similarly, we often felt that the lack of "kind classes" or type-class promotion forced us to write a lot of repetitive code, e.g. enumerating pitch classes. Kind classes would allow for pretty-printing of types, simplified implementation of singletons and ways of adapting other term-level abstractions to the type level.

References