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1 **Musical evolution in the lab exhibits rhythmic universals**

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3

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15

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18

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26 Music, despite its variety across the world, exhibits some cross-cultural similarities. Evidence
27 from a broad range of human cultures suggests the existence of musical universals ¹, here
28 defined as strong regularities emerging across cultures above chance. In particular, humans
29 demonstrate a general proclivity for rhythm ², though little is known about why music is
30 particularly rhythmic, and why the same structural regularities are present in rhythms around
31 the world. Here we empirically investigate the mechanisms underlying musical universals for
32 rhythm, showing how music can evolve culturally from randomness. Human participants are
33 asked to imitate sets of randomly generated drumming sequences, and their imitation attempts
34 become the training set for the next participants in independent transmission chains. By
35 perceiving and imitating drumming sequences from each other, participants turn initially
36 random sequences into rhythmically structured patterns. Drumming patterns develop into
37 rhythms which are more structured, easier to learn, distinctive for each experimental cultural
38 tradition and characterized by all six statistical universals found among world music ¹,
39 appearing adapted to human learning, memory, and cognition. We conclude that musical
40 rhythm partially arises from the influence of human cognitive and biological biases on the
41 process of cultural evolution ³.

42

43 Percussion instruments may have provided the first form of musical expression in human
44 evolution. Great apes - our closest living relatives - show drumming behaviour ⁴, which they
45 can learn socially ⁵, producing some human-like rhythmic sequences ⁶. Hence, percussive
46 behaviour may have already been present in our ancestors some million years ago before the
47 split between human and Pan lineages ². Archaeological findings also suggest that the first
48 human musical instrument might have been percussive, as also attested in modern hunter-
49 gatherer societies around the world ⁷. This makes rhythm a particularly apt musical dimension
50 to reconstruct crucial steps in the evolution of music.

51

52 Six rhythmic features can be considered human universals, showing a greater than chance
53 frequency overall and in all geographic regions of the world. These statistical universals are:

- 54 • a regularly-spaced (isochronous) underlying beat, akin to an implicit metronome;
- 55 • hierarchical organization of beats of unequal strength, so that some events in time are
56 marked with respect to others;
- 57 • grouping of beats in 2 (e.g. marches) or 3 (e.g. waltzes);
- 58 • with a preference for binary (2-beat) groupings;
- 59 • clustering of beat durations around few values distributed in less than five durational
60 categories;
- 61 • use of durations from different categories to construct riffs, i.e. rhythmic motifs.

62

63 Until now, research on musical universals has focused either on individual psychological
64 processes ⁸, investigating rhythm perception/production in meticulously controlled
65 environments ^{9,10}, or large-scale phenomena, performing cross-cultural analyses of world
66 musical traditions ^{11,12}. Combining these approaches, here we show that basic psychological
67 mechanisms (working memory, perceptual primitives, categorical perception, etc.) can lead to
68 large-scale musical universals via cultural transmission. Our experiment aims at
69 reconstructing in the lab (Figure 1a) how initially unstructured sounds might have been
70 shaped into complex musical systems by early humans perceiving and imitating them ^{7,12,13}.

71 We test experimentally controlled human micro-societies and show that indeed cultural
72 transmission accounts for the emergence of both structural regularities and all predicted
73 rhythmic universals. Our method builds on previous experimental methodologies, which
74 showed how systematic structure may emerge from weak learning biases ¹⁴.

75

76 Similarly to the *vertical transmission* shaping the complexity and variety of musical cultures
77 ^{3,12}, in our experiment each participant hears and has to imitate drumming patterns received

78 from a previous participant, who himself has copied them from someone else and thereby
79 potentially introduced errors. In measuring the changes that occur to the drum patterns, we
80 can observe how cognitive biases for rhythm are magnified and mirrored in musical structure,
81 and how initially independently reproduced sequences come to pattern together as part of an
82 overall rhythmical system ¹⁵. As predicted, after several experimental generations, initially
83 random sequences transform into increasingly structured and learnable music-like patterns. In
84 addition, these patterns show convergence towards all the six rhythmic universals found in
85 human musical cultures ¹.

86

87 First, sequences acquire systematic structure. Systematicity is a measure of mutual
88 predictability among the elements of a system, quantifying how much structural information
89 about a whole system is provided by each constituent element. In musical harmony for
90 instance, rock-n-roll is very systematic, because knowing a musical excerpt provides a better
91 than chance guess on chord progressions of a broad range of songs, while dodecaphonic
92 music is less systematic. Here we find an increase in structural similarities and combinatorial
93 structure over generations (Page's trend test; $L=1558.0$, $m=6$, $n=9$, $p<0.001$; Figure 1b)

94

95 Second, sequences become easier to learn. A system or structure is highly learnable if it can
96 be rapidly acquired with low error by an organism. Reproduction errors (time distance
97 between participants' output) decrease over generations (Page trend test; $L=833$, $m=6$, $n=8$,
98 $p<0.0001$; Figure 1c). Learners in later generations found the rhythms easier to imitate
99 accurately, indicating that patterns increasingly fit participants' cognitive biases.

100

101 Third, timing patterns converge to durational categories. The frequency distributions of inter-
102 onset intervals (IOIs i.e. time between consecutive drum hits) of all chains show a similar
103 pattern across experimental generations: Initial uniform distributions (the random patterns
104 presented to the first generation) converge on chain-specific clusters of IOIs by the final

105 generation (Figure 2). A K-means cluster algorithm shows that rhythmic patterns converge to
106 3 durational categories (Table 1S in supplement), matching the statistical universal across
107 world musical cultures which predicts less than five categories^{1,11}. The range of durations
108 produced by our participants is consistent with musical rhythms, as used in rhythm
109 experiments⁹. The first cluster in all chains has a median of 203 ms (Table S1), close to 200
110 ms, a recurrent durational value in musical rhythm and meter¹⁶. Moreover, the resulting
111 clusters' centroids are related by ratios close to integer ratios (Table S1).

112

113 Fourth, the increase in systematicity and learnability maps to the emergence of repeating
114 structures (phase-space plots of IOIs in Figure 3a). Specifically: (a) rhythmic patterns acquire
115 motivic structure, another musical universal¹, i.e. rhythmic “riffs” emerge corresponding to
116 polygons in phase-space coordinates, where the number of vertices equals the length of the
117 repeating riff within a pattern¹⁷; (b) riffs are used multiple times by each participant across
118 separate drum patterns, shown by similar polygons overlapping in one state-space plot; (c)
119 motivic patterns evolve gradually as they are passed from earlier to later generations (Figure
120 3a, similar polygons in different plots of one chain); (d) riffs partly differ between chains
121 (different polygons in different chains).

122

123 Fifth, sequences become more metronomic (isochronous), hierarchically structured (metrical),
124 and composed by durations related by small-integer ratios. Isochrony and meter in perceived
125 music are usually probed by asking participants to tap along, testing whether their taps occur
126 at simple multiples or at divisors of the occurring musical intervals. As our task involves
127 musical production, we reversed the above logic: participants creating a metrical grid with
128 binary and ternary subdivisions and an underlying regular beat¹⁸ would produce: (a) adjacent
129 IOIs related by small integer ratios, (b) with many values close to 1:1 (equal-length IOIs), (c)
130 or ratios of 2 and 3 (showing binary and ternary subdivisions)¹⁸, and, (d) strongest beats
131 occurring at IOIs twice or three times multiple of each other, suggesting musical meter. We

132 find that distributions of ratios in the last generation (Figure 4a-b) significantly differ from a
133 simulated uniform ratio distribution, predicted under null hypothesis of no pairwise structure
134 between IOIs (2-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov test; all $D > 0.08$, all $p < 0.01$, see SI). This holds
135 for both distributions of adjacent IOIs and of IOIs between high-intensity hits, suggesting the
136 existence of structural relationship between IOIs. We then tested whether peaks in the ratio
137 distributions (Figures 4a-b) correspond to specific constant relations between IOIs (see
138 Methods). The highest peak in Figure 4c occurs at 1.015, and the median of the distribution is
139 .968. Both values are close to 1:1, providing moderate evidence for isochrony, another
140 universal. We then test whether the highest peaks in Figures 4a-b coincide beyond chance
141 with those expected theoretically in actual music. For adjacent ratios, we find four peaks,
142 namely at: 1:2, 1:4, 3:2 and 3:4. The match between ratios expected in music and
143 experimental ratios is not attributable to chance. (The corresponding Jaccard index, measuring
144 overlap ¹⁹, is $J = 0.222$. A randomization test returned an average Jaccard's index $J = .064$,
145 pseudo p-value: $p' = .029$, see Methods.) A similar analysis on the distribution of ratios of IOIs
146 between strong beats (median=0.947), found support for the hypothesis that meter is
147 exclusively binary ($J = .028$, $p' = .045$), with strong and weak beats alternating, but not
148 exclusively ternary ($J = .028$, $p' = 1.0$). Strong beats occur above chance in intervals that are half
149 or double each other in length (i.e. related by 1:2 and 2:1 ratios). Notes of ternary length exist,
150 but do not always coincide with the metrical grid (e.g. a binary meter with many notes of
151 length 1/4 and 3/4). This suggests the presence of (a) an underlying regular beat, which is (b)
152 composed of alternating weak-strong beats, and (c) used as a reference duration to generate
153 other notes' duration (by multiplying and dividing it by 2 or 3), providing evidence for the
154 remaining universals.

155

156 Sixth, chains evolve independently. We calculated the Kolmogorov-Smirnov D statistic for
157 each generation and pairs of participants using their distribution of IOIs to quantify the degree
158 of cultural divergence. Chains significantly diverge over generations towards separate

159 lineages with different timing structure ($L=1586.0$, $m=6$, $n=9$, $p<0.001$; Figure 3b). Moreover,
160 all IOIs distributions of the final generations are significantly different between chain pairs
161 (Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests, all $D<0.3$, all p -values <0.01 , Table S2 in supplement). Hence,
162 the drum patterns within the same lineage participate in a *system* of rhythmic patterns sharing
163 similar characteristics or motifs. As in actual music ¹², chains gain more structure over
164 generations, though each transmission chain develops its own set of structural features.

165

166 It has been debated whether some human biological traits evolved under selective pressures to
167 specifically hear and perform music ^{2,7,20-22}. Our data supports an alternative hypothesis:
168 musical structure appears to evolve out of, and get shaped by, more general constraints on
169 learning and memory. In this experiment, rhythmic features evolve cumulatively and
170 gradually from randomness. We obtain divergent musical cultures, where each “musical
171 culture”, corresponding to an experimental chain, constitutes a system by itself. The
172 transmission process we re-created in the lab leads to the appearance of design: the patterns
173 evolve in such a way that they appear well adapted to the challenge of being learnable.
174 Generation after generation, learners introduce errors in their efforts to replicate the sequences
175 they hear. The process eventually results in the emergence of rhythmic patterns that are easier
176 to reproduce. Systematic similarities between patterns emerge within a chain: Patterns that no
177 longer act independently may facilitate learning over generations, as it is easier to remember a
178 small number of motifs rather than thirty-two totally independent patterns. Participants were
179 chosen to be non-musicians, so no previous skills in music performance can account for the
180 quick generation of musical patterns we observe. They were instructed to recreate each
181 sequence as closely as possible, neither to innovate, nor to treat the sequences as being
182 related. Crucially, as in human music, our laboratory experiment leads to emergence of
183 commonalities, but also diversity. This experiment provides evidence for the universality of
184 musical features emerging through cultural transmission ^{1,3}.

185

186 Similarly to previous results on the evolution of linguistic structure ^{15,23,24}, we hypothesize
187 that a few perceptual, learning and production biases may be responsible for the regularities
188 evolving in our drumming patterns. Formation of durational categories and small integer
189 ratios between intervals might be partially amenable to categorical perception of rhythmic
190 sequences. In fact, small ratios function as attractors when musicians are asked to categorize
191 notes of varying durations not related by integer ratios ²⁵. The proximity, although not
192 equality, to integer ratios dovetails with previous findings in music psychology ²⁶. Emergence
193 of few durational categories and motifs may instead be a by-product of the human tendency to
194 compress sensory stimuli, possibly dictated by working memory constraints and limited
195 capacity for processing information ²⁷. Conversely, motor biases seem to only moderately
196 influence the structures obtained: humans' preferred tapping rate of 600 msec ¹⁷ is rarely
197 found in our IOI distributions and clusters (Table 1S and Figure 2). However, our experiment
198 cannot disentangle which human biases generating musical features are basic and which are
199 acquired, and at least two alternative hypotheses can account for our results. In other words,
200 the fact that our participants have already been exposed to a musical culture may be shaping
201 the results. Two points speak against this interpretation, however. First we see clear
202 divergence between chains, suggesting that there is no single culturally acquired attractor that
203 is driving the evolution of the systems. Secondly, there are striking parallels in the evolution
204 of systematic structure between this experiment and another sequence learning experiment in
205 the non-musical domain ¹⁵. Ultimately, cross-cultural replications of this experiment will be
206 needed to accurately gauge the influence of acquired biases in this task.

207

208 Music, language, and dance all involve copying to some extent, though imitation/copying is
209 only one of many factors in their evolution ^{3,21,22,29}. Although the motivations to copy are
210 likely to differ, the outcomes seem to be similar. We believe the assumption that early
211 humans might have had a motivation to copy music-like sequences is quite realistic. Several
212 hypotheses on the origins of the biological capacity for musical rhythm involve some

213 motivation to copy or imitate. These hypotheses often suggest imitation, learning or
214 synchronization of audio-motor behaviours as a necessary step to achieve inter-individual
215 coordination, group cohesiveness, mating success or territorial defence, providing in turn
216 evolutionary pressures on the development of modern humans' rhythmic abilities ²⁰.

217

218 Human music is inherently structured, showing a few structural similarities across musical
219 cultures and traditions. Why do these similarities arise? How do different musical traditions
220 end up with similar features? We have addressed these questions empirically: In the
221 laboratory, we set the conditions for random percussion patterns to be transmitted, similarly to
222 real musical traditions. As a result we are able to witness the evolution of musical rhythmic
223 structure in real time as it responds to human constraints and converges towards all six
224 statistical universals found among world rhythms. Musical rhythmic universals arise because
225 human behaviour and cognition slightly transform what is copied ^{13,23,28,29}. These
226 transformations, amplified by the process of cultural transmission, lead to diverse musical
227 traditions, containing nonetheless a few universals: traces of the biology of the organisms
228 who created them.

229

230 **Methods**

231 **Participants.** Forty-eight participants (mean age 23y, 4m; females = 37) were recruited from
232 the University of Edinburgh's graduate employment service "to participate in a 30-minute
233 drumming experiment". Each received £5 for participating. Musicians (having formal musical
234 training or regularly practiced a musical instrument) were excluded from participation.
235 Sample size was established a priori based on a meta-analysis of previous iterated learning
236 experiments ^{14,24,30-35}.

237

238 This experiment is modelled on a simple transmission chain paradigm, in which learners
239 receive training input from the output of the previous learners ³⁶. Participants were randomly

240 assigned to six different lineages (transmission chains: C1,C2,...,C6), each containing eight
241 “generations” of learners (1,2,...,8). The first generation of participants in all chains heard
242 different randomly generated patterns as training input (first column in Figure 2 and Figure
243 3a).

244

245 **Stimuli.** Participants in each generation were presented with 32 drum patterns. These patterns
246 were random drum sequences (Random/Generation 0) or sequences produced by a previous
247 participant (Generation 1-8). The 32 initial and independent drum patterns were each
248 composed of 12 MIDI snare drum hits (see supplementary). Each chain had its own unique
249 set of 32 initial random patterns. Each snare drum hit in the initial sequences had random
250 velocity (force and speed used to play an instrument) and IOI (duration between the start of
251 one note and the start of the next note). An additional cymbal sound, always presented 1.5
252 seconds after the last snare hit, signalled the end of a sequence. The cymbal timing was
253 neither counted as part of the pattern nor included in the analyses. Participants heard and
254 reproduced two blocks of the same thirty-two drum patterns, with the order of drum patterns
255 within each block randomized. The first block of patterns was intended for the participant to
256 practice drumming and copying. Patterns reproduced in the second block, recorded on a
257 laptop, were used as training stimuli for the next learner in the chain.

258

259 **Procedure.** Participants were given headphones, a single drumstick and an Alesis
260 SamplePad, connected to a Macbook Pro laptop via a Duo-Capture EX USB-MIDI interface.
261 The Python code recording drumming patterns rounded temporal information to the nearest
262 millisecond (although the theoretical maximum resolution of MIDI is slightly better than 1
263 ms). The interface had four independent drum pads: Three produced the snare drum sound,
264 while one produced the cymbal sound participants struck to conclude a pattern. Participants
265 were instructed to reproduce each pattern immediately after hearing it to the best of their
266 ability. Each sequence was recorded and given to the next participant in the chain.

267 Participants were unaware that they would be listening to stimuli produced by a previous
268 learner. After the behavioural task, participants completed a questionnaire (see supplement).

269

270 **Analyses.** The output patterns were analysed to determine if they would evolve to become
271 easier to learn over generations and if the initially independent sequences evolve in such a
272 way to form rhythmic-like systems with structural regularities. Data analysis was performed
273 in R, Stata 11.0 and using custom-written Python scripts. All analyses were performed on the
274 inter-onset intervals (IOIs) between contiguous drum hits within a pattern. In fact,
275 experiments in human perception of musical rhythms have shown that the IOI is usually more
276 important than the length of the notes themselves³⁷. Several quantitative measures were
277 adapted in order to assess the learnability and structure of the patterns^{24,27,38-46}.

278

279 Ratios were taken to normalize with respect to tempo and to compare structures (rather than
280 absolute durations) across patterns. For each ratio distribution, we found the location of the
281 maxima by taking the 2nd derivative of the KDE function. We then tested whether these fixed
282 IOIs relations (i.e. the peaks in Figure 2) coincide beyond chance with those expected
283 theoretically. The most parsimonious way of generating a musical duration from another is to
284 multiply or divide it by 2, 3 or 4. Hence we predicted to find with high frequency ratios of 1:1
285 (equal duration IOIs), 1:2, 1:3, 1:4, 2:3, 3:4, and their reciprocals, giving a total of 11
286 expected theoretical ratios. As the predicted ratios spanned 11 possible values, we extracted
287 the 11 most frequent ratios from our empirical distributions. We then matched expected with
288 empirical ratios (with a 0.01 tolerance on ratio differences), and quantify the match using the
289 Jaccard index, a measure of the overlap between two sets¹⁹. Given two sets, the Jaccard index
290 is calculated as the ratio between their union and their intersection, i.e. the number of
291 elements in common divided by the number of overall elements. Finally, we performed a
292 Monte Carlo simulation with 1 million iterations to test whether the matching of predicted
293 and found peaks was attributable to chance. This provided a pseudo p-value, calculated as the

294 relative number of randomizations with an average Jaccard index greater than or equal to the
295 empirical Jaccard index, i.e. the relative number of cases for which a list of 11 random ratios
296 has equal number or more matches with predicted ratios than the 11 empirical ratios.

297

298 Increase in structure/systematicity measure G. Unlike previous cultural transmission research,
299 the transmitted behaviour in this experiment is continuous (i.e. time intervals) rather than
300 discrete. We discretized the intervals into 3 categories using a K-means clustering algorithm
301 (Table S1), mapping each duration to the tercile it belonged to (e.g. three durations like {0.1,
302 0.8, 0.4} would map to {short, long, medium}). The number of categories in the K-means
303 algorithm was established using the ‘Elbow’ method ⁴⁷, with 3 categories emerging as the
304 most parsimonious clustering for each chain (see Supplement). We then calculated a
305 grammatical structure index G (a modified measure for entropy comparable with previous
306 studies ⁴¹) for each participant.

307

308 Decrease in imitation errors E, equivalent to an increase in learnability/imitation fidelity. This
309 is calculated as the (edit) time distance between two drum patterns: the total cost of the
310 minimal cost set of substitutions, insertions, or deletions among IOIs necessary to transform
311 the pattern of durations a participant has heard into the pattern she has reproduced, where edit
312 costs are taken to be the absolute difference in time between durations ⁴³. The time distance
313 between identical patterns equals zero. Notice that, unlike other metrics in musicology
314 assuming beat induction or metrical hierarchies ^{48,49}, this edit distance minimizes assumptions
315 about metrical, top-down processing.

316

317 **Data Availability.** The data that support the findings of this study are available for download
318 as supplementary material.

319

320 **Competing financial interests.** The authors declare no competing financial interests.

321

322 **Correspondence & Materials Requests.** Correspondence and requests for materials should
323 be addressed to Andrea Ravnani (andrea.ravnani@gmail.com)

324

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334

335 **Author contributions.** A.R. and S.K. conceived the study, A.R., T.D. and S.K. designed
336 research, T.D. performed research, A.R. and S.K. wrote Python scripts for data analysis and
337 experimental testing, A.R., T.D. and S.K. analysed data and wrote the paper.

338

339

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341

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454

455 **Figure Legends**

456

457 Figure 1: Cultural transmission over generations by iterated learning. Iterated learning refers
458 to a process by which the individual learns a new behaviour by observing another individual
459 who acquired the behaviour in the same way²⁸. This method directly taps into the dynamics
460 of cultural transmission, thereby enabling an empirical approach to human cultural evolution
461³⁶. Iterated learning of artificial sounds²⁴, visual representations²⁹ and language-like systems
462^{23,28} can lead to a large range of outcomes. However, two characteristics seem to emerge in
463 most experiments: random patterns evolve into sequences which exhibit increasing
464 learnability and structure over generations of learners^{23,27}. (a) The first two transmission steps
465 in a chain of drummers. We generated sequences of drumming patterns with random velocity
466 (hit strength) and time between hits. These random sequences (Random generation 0, leftmost
467 note sequences) sound completely arrhythmic and mimic incidental occurrences of sound
468 sequences, either naturally produced or human-generated, that an early music-less hominid
469 might have attended to. We then present 32 of these random sequences to an experimental
470 participant (Generation 1), who is asked to faithfully copy the rhythm on a drum set
471 immediately after each of the 32 presentations. The sequences thereby produced, with all their
472 copying errors, form the set of drum patterns presented to the next participant in random order
473 (Generation 2). This process is repeated until the chain reaches 8 participants (rightmost
474 rhythmic patterns). Also, to control for the effects of the initial random patterns or particular
475 participants in a chain, the experiment is repeated in 6 independent chains (not shown),
476 totalling 48 participants. (b) Increase in structure/systematicity measure G, corresponding to a
477 modified measure for entropy (c) Decrease in imitation errors E, equivalent to an increase in

478 learnability/imitation fidelity, calculated as the (edit) time distance between two drum
479 patterns. Error-bars represent bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals across chains.

480

481 Figure 2: Frequency distributions of inter-onset intervals (IOIs) in drumming sequences for
482 each chain (rows) and generation (columns). IOIs are pooled across all 32 patterns and plotted
483 using Kernel density estimates (KDEs). IOI distributions reflect the timings between the start
484 of one drum hit and the start of the next drum hit played by the participant. Random
485 generation 0 (leftmost column) corresponds to six uniform distributions of the randomly
486 generated patterns: the chains did not start with any structural patterning with respect to time.
487 Over the course of generations there is a gradual development of interval durations, becoming
488 more categorical (corresponding to more peaked distributions) towards the last generation
489 (rightmost column). From left to right, the figure shows how each chain slowly converges
490 towards a different distribution of IOIs from the other chains upon the final generation.
491 Centroids for each last generation's distribution can be found in supplement. Extreme data
492 points, corresponding to values >1.1 s, and representing $<5\%$ of all data, are not shown.

493

494 Figure 3: Emergence of rhythmic riffs and cultural specificity. (a) State-space diagrams of all
495 chains (top to bottom) and generations (left to right). Each state-space diagram depicts one
496 participant's output (all 32 patterns). In a state-space diagram, the duration of each note (x-
497 axis) is plotted against the duration of the next note (y-axis) as a dot; consecutive dots are
498 joined by a line. This is repeated for all 32 patterns. Each state-space diagram depicts one
499 participant's output. The state-space plots here show the evolution of patterns of length ≥ 3 ,
500 with increasing regularities over generations ¹⁷. Closed polygons represent repeating
501 drumming patterns. For instance, chain 5 shows a clear emergence (already by the third
502 generation) of a repeating pattern of length 3, illustrated by a triangle. Chain 3 converges
503 instead towards drumming patterns containing a combination of two similar ternary patterns,
504 inferred by the two non-overlapping triangles. Chain 2 converges towards patterns including a

505 non-repeating sequence of length 5, deduced by the 5-edged segmented line. Also, notice how
506 the vertices of the polygons map to the centroids found with the K-means clustering algorithm
507 (in supplement): e.g. chain 5's centroids are at 177, 436 and 665 msec, while chain 3
508 centroids' are at 202, 355, and 764. These approximate values can be found when examining
509 and comparing last generations' phase state plots of chains 3 and 5. (b) Rise of divergence
510 measure D across chains. Over generations, variability between chains increases. This,
511 together with the increase in G, suggests that a distinct yet systematic musical "culture"
512 emerges in each chain.

513

514 Figure 4: Statistical universals in durational patterns. (a) Frequency distributions of *ratios*
515 between adjacent IOIs pooled across all last-generation participants, calculated using Kernel
516 density estimates (KDEs). For each pattern, we calculated the ratios between all adjacent IOIs
517 in that pattern (INI_1/INI_2 , $INI_2/INI_3, \dots$). Here, we show the pooled frequency distributions
518 across all 32 patterns produced by the 6 participants in the last generation. The distribution
519 shows peaks (local maxima) centred at 1:2, 1:1, 1:3, 2:3 and 5:2 (solid lines); (b) Frequency
520 distribution of ratios of durations between the 50% strongest beats (all drum hits above the
521 median hit strength) within a pattern, pooled across all last-generation participants. The solid
522 lines represent the 1:2 and 2:1 (binary) ratios, while the dashed lines represent the 1:3 and 3:1
523 (ternary) ratios. While several hypothesized ratios emerge as peaks in the distribution (e.g. 1:2
524 and 2:1), there are also peaks that do not map to precise integer ratios, attributable to a
525 number of potential factors (cultural, experimental, etc.). Extreme data points, corresponding
526 to values >4.5 , and representing $<5\%$ of all data, are not shown.





