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Sheet Music Unbound

A fluid approach to sheet music display and annotation on a multi-touch screen

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This thesis is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science at the University of Waikato.

July 2011

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Abstract

In this thesis we present the design and prototype implementation of a Digital Music Stand that focuses on fluid music layout management and free-form digital ink annotation. An analysis of user constraints and available technology lead us to select a 21.5" multi-touch monitor as the preferred input and display device. This comfortably displays two A4 pages of music side by side with space for a control panel. The analysis also identified single handed input as a viable choice for musicians. Finger input was chosen to avoid the need for any additional input equipment.

To support layout reflow and zooming we develop a vector based music representation, based around the bar structure. This representation supports animation of transitions, in such a way as to give responsive dynamic interaction with multi-touch gesture input. In developing the prototype, particular attention was paid to the problem of drawing small, intricate annotation accurately located on the music using a fingertip. The zoomable nature of the music structure was leveraged to accomplish this, and an evaluation carried out to establish the best level of magnification.

The thesis demonstrates, in the context of music, that annotation and layout management (typically treated as two distinct tasks) can be integrated into a single task yielding fluid and natural interaction.

Dedication

To my friends and family who convinced me that this was possible, and to Oscar who stayed put long enough to prove them right.

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Chapter 1 - Introduction

In many practice and performance situations physical sheet music can be difficult to use. Imagine a musician standing on an open air stage with wind blowing. How do they cope?

It is not uncommon to see musicians struggling with loose pages, maybe using clothes pegs to keep pieces of music on their stand or using tape to combine pages together into elaborate structures with flaps and fold-outs carefully arranged to reduce the number of page turns they have to make.

Printed music is also expensive. Orchestras must purchase and store their music, or rent it at significant expense. In either case great care must be taken to keep track of all the separate instrumental parts. Musicians' annotations and notes must be drawn in pencil and all trace erased before returning their music.

Just as in other domains of document management, digital technology has the potential to alleviate much of the difficulty experienced using sheet music. Researchers have coined the phrase Digital Music Stand for a device that provides this enriched digital capability to musicians. Commercial systems are now also available. In this project we develop a Digital Music Stand with a focus on fluid display of music layout and annotation support.

We start this thesis with a survey of commercial and research systems. The survey identifies annotation support as an area that is underdeveloped. In contrast, annotation of electronic text documents has received significant attention but resulting advances have not been applied to annotation of musical documents. This is because music annotations present specific challenges of their own—such as the need to flow the music to make space for

an annotation, and the dependence of musical annotations on fine detail and placement. These are issues we seek to address in this work.

Technology options are rapidly changing. In Chapter 3 we look at the physical constraints imposed on musicians by their instruments, and explore available technology options with respect to their appropriateness to a musician's working environment. From this, touch screens that are medium to large in size and high resolution are identified as a technology that is well aligned for use as a Digital Music Stand that supports annotations. Touch screens are now available at reasonable cost. Many people are already familiar with the use of touch technology in the form of smart phones, so there is good reason to be optimistic that musicians would be willing to try it in new contexts.

Chapter 4 details our work on reflowing music. It presents the development of a flexible software architecture for representing music, such that it can be scaled and reflowed smoothly. This provides a platform on which we can experiment with annotation, the details of which are given in Chapter 5. This chapter presents the design and implementation of a touch based annotation system tailored to musicians' needs, grounded by the data reported in the literature on musicians' annotation behaviour when working with physical sheet music.

While there are many advantages to using touch screen technology, the low precision of touch input and the difficulty of precise placement could significantly impact a musician's ability to annotate through this medium. We use a zoomed annotation input mechanism to compensate for this issue, which we evaluate through user testing, also presented in Chapter 5.

The thesis concludes in Chapter 6 with a summary of our findings and details of future work.

Chapter 2 - Related Work

Digital sheet music display and creation is a wide and varied area of research. This chapter provides some background in two key areas that form the foundation for this research project: digital music stand development, and annotation systems.

2.1 Digital Music Stand Development

What is a Digital Music Stand?

At its most basic, a Digital Music Stand is a system which displays digital sheet music files. It is a tool for musicians to manage and access their music collection without the need for bulky paper manuscripts. Features of the Digital Music Stand can include: repertoire management (through an underlying database or digital library), composition and editing tools, automatic score following, hands free page turning, networking for group playing, audio recording and playback, annotation facilities, and automatic accompaniment. Though the individual features may vary, the core idea remains the same – a digital music stand is a tool to help musicians view and interact with their music collection. It should provide all the affordances traditionally provided by physical printed scores and enhance the musician's experience in ways that only digital media can.

Muse

The first exploration of the concept of the Digital Music Stand came in 1996 with Muse (Graefe, et al. 1996). This design project, though never actually implemented in hardware, resulted in a detailed description of a digital music stand to support musicians rehearsing and performing as part of a symphony orchestra. The design and feature set was created in collaboration with

members of the Pittsburgh Symphony Orchestra through an iterative process of research, observation and interviews.

The Muse work investigated the sort of features that orchestral musicians' desire in a digital music stand, and resulted in some key interface guidelines that would make moving to a digital system acceptable and natural for them. The final Muse design was a battery powered, wireless device with two 9" x 12" high resolution LCD touch screens and a support stand. The software features were:

- A music library
- Manual or automatic page turning with indexing
- Inter-symphony communication capabilities
- Stylus-based onscreen annotation
- Ability to view any other instruments' part in a given score
- A pitch generating tuner
- A Metronome with audio and visual feedback
- Notes space (for personal notes, rehearsal announcements etc.)

As the Muse was never fully implemented, the practicality and usability of the interface was never fully tested. The Muse design does however provide an overall picture of what musicians think that they would like out of a digital music stand and has inspired further research and development in the area.

Page Turning

Some of the ideas in Muse are common to a variety of digital document management problems (library management and onscreen annotation for example) although specialist editing and display software is required for music content. A task that is specific to the music stand, however, is page turning. This has been addressed by a number of researchers.

Working with digital sheet music, the phrase *page turning* is often used in a wide scope. Digital sheet music comes in many different formats. These digital representations of sheet music need not be restricted to the page-based structure of a printed score. On the digital music stand, the amount of music displayed at any given time is limited by screen size. In most cases, there is more sheet music in a full score than will fit on the display. For the purposes of this report, *page turning* is used to describe any method of navigating through a piece to reveal off-screen music.

Page turning is one area where digital sheet music has a clear advantage over traditional paper scores. Orchestral musicians in particular note that page turns with printed scores are a nuisance. They are noisy and force musicians to stop playing momentarily, sometimes causing audible gaps in the music (Graefe, et al. 1996). Digital page turns can be silent and rapid. With digital sheet music there is potential for automation of page turns (Bellini, Nesi and Spinu 2002) or at least simplifying the physical action required by a musician to consistently and clearly navigate from page to page. This could be as simple as adding a foot pedal to give musicians hands free control of page turns.

A feature of the digital music stand requested by orchestral musicians – particularly conductors – is some form of networked page turning where, for example, the conductor could indicate a place in the score and draw the orchestral players' attention to that point by forcing each players' music to turn to that place (Graefe, et al. 1996), (MacLeod, et al. 2010). It is important for the musicians to understand the context of the pages of music currently displayed on their stand in relation to the whole piece. Instantaneous jumps from page to page may break this understanding and so careful animations or visualisations are a necessary addition to page turns of this nature (Bell, et al. 2005) (McPherson 1999).

Commercial Products

As computer and screen technology has improved, several commercial digital music stands, similar in features to those outlined in the *Muse* design, have appeared. These include complete systems, with custom hardware preinstalled with sheet music management software, as well as software only systems designed to run on existing tablet PCs or other touch capable computers.

eStand

The eStandⁱ offers software only, or complete packages for musicians and educators. The eStand software can be purchased in four different configurations. The simplest option is a sheet music reader that displays one page of music at a time, with manual page turning operated via foot pedal, keyboard or on-screen touch controls. The software maintains a library of ESF files (eStand format files – this is a custom format developed for use with eStand).

The most complete eStand software will display up to three pages of music side-by-side. It has added network support and an annotation system, allowing groups of musicians to collaborate on annotations and synchronise page turns. The music library has enhanced browsing and management features and supports music imported in different formats, including PDF, BMP, TIFF and JPEG files. It also has a software metronome and tuning system.

The eStand software can be purchased alone (for use on Tablet PCs or with other existing touch screens) or preinstalled on a choice of touch screen all-in-one computers ranging in size from 15" to 20". The all-in-one computers listed all have resistive touch screens allowing users to interact with the eStand system with either finger or stylus.

MusicPad Pro

MusicPad Pro is a complete hardware and software system created by FreeHand Systems.ⁱⁱ The MusicPad Pro is a 12.1", 1024 x 768, TFT LCD backlit display capable of displaying one page of sheet music at a time. The battery powered display comes with a support stand, and an external foot pedal is available for hands free page turns.

Like the eStand, the MusicPad Pro stores and manages the user's sheet music collection. Users can scan and import their existing sheet music or purchase digital sheet music from the FreeHandMusic store. Music bought from the FreeHandMusic store has embedded MIDI information that gives users additional features: score transposition and play-back with highlighted score following. It also has an annotation system and notes system.

SamePage Performance Station

The SamePage performance station,ⁱⁱⁱ developed by Corevalus Systems, is part of a three stage event planning system for worship services, events and other performances. The complete system starts with an online planning system with calendar and music library management. During an event, each musician has their own *SamePage performance station* which displays their music and keeps them informed of programme order and progression. When used in conjunction with *SamePage* audio mixing equipment, the *performance station* also gives selected users a full audio mixing interface.

Each *SamePage performance station* maintains a sheet music library locally as well as accessing an online music database (this database is usually maintained by the overall event organisers). The *performance station* has a 19" NEC touch-screen LCD monitor mounted on a heavy duty, collapsible stand. The large screen allows up to two pages of sheet music to be displayed side-by-side while still leaving space for an event programme and onscreen controls to be displayed at the side.

Features of the sheet music display function of the *performance station* are similar to those of the eStand and MusicPad Pro. The *performance station* supports annotation and note taking. Users can annotate by finger, draw standard shapes or type text. Theses annotations can be shared with other musicians through the networked *performance stations*. Page turns are facilitated via the touch screen or using an external three button foot pedal.

MusicReader

MusicReader^{iv} is a software package developed by *Leoné MusicReader* in The Netherlands. The MusicReader system has similar features to the eStand and MusicPad Pro. The software is available for both Windows and Mac computers. It is designed for use with pen or touch screens and has recently been released as an iPad application.^v

First released in 2008, MusicReader is the result of ongoing research and development. A user evaluation of the MusicReader interface was published in 2008(Leoné, van Dijk and van Beijnum 2008), giving some insight into the design decisions, benefits and limitations of the software.

One limitation uncovered during the evaluation, that is particularly relevant to this research project, was that musicians found it difficult to produce readable annotations on some of the screens used in the test. The problem was not as prevalent on screens that accepted both finger touch and stylus input (those with a digitizer pen).

Since the 2008 publication, some improvements have been made to the annotation system. Figure 1 is taken from the 2008 publication and shows annotations made with the MusicReader software on touch screen hardware available at that time. Running the most recent version of MusicReader (4.0) with a modern Dell 21.5" multi-touch monitor yields a slightly better result, as shown in Figure 2. With the improvement of screen technology, the ease of

drawing freehand annotations by finger has increased, but annotations are still harder to draw consistently on screen than with pencil on paper.



Figure 1 Annotations made with the MusicReader software. From 2008 UI evaluation (Leoné, van Dijk and van Beijnum 2008)



Figure 2 Annotations drawn by finger with MusicReader 4.0 (2011) on Dell 21.5" multi-touch monitor (Actual Size)

A solution suggested by Leoné et al. was to use predefined symbols in place of freehand annotations and as of MusicReader 4.0, a collection of predefined annotations is also available (The set of available predefined annotations is shown in Figure 3). These are positioned on the displayed sheet music by touching and dragging to create a bounding rectangle, as shown in Figure 4.

	_		🔮 🖣 (Piece)	Navigate 🔥 🔪	🕹 😤 T 🖉 🗖	😎 View Mor	•)▲	_	_
b	b	4	#	X	>	Λ		1	
-	3	9:	S.	V	λ	ſ	ſſ	mf	mp
p	pp	sfz	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9			—			$\mathbf{\hat{\mathbf{\cdot}}}$	+
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Figure 3 Preset annotations in MusicReader 4.0



Figure 4 Drawing preset annotation in MusicReader 4.0 by defining bounding box

Research Systems

Espresso Digital Music Stand

Espresso Digital Music Stand^{vi} is the result of the collaborative research of a group of musician/programmers from the US, UK, France and New Zealand. Several research projects out of the University of Canterbury have focused on developing and testing elements of the user interface. Two honours projects from the University of Canterbury, Blinov (2007) and Pagwiwoko (2008) focus on page turning systems for Espresso, following on from an earlier study by McPherson (1999). These projects look specifically at animation systems for single-page and multi-page transitions. Introduction of some animation or visualisation into the digital page turn is necessary to make it clear to the musician when the action has taken place. This is particularly important if a page turn is triggered by an external source rather than the musician themselves.

A common choice for navigation though a document in traditional GUI editing systems and document readers is scrolling. Bell et al. (2005) and McPherson (1999) trialled both horizontal and vertical scrolling systems to display sheet music to musicians during a short sight-reading exercise and found that automatic scrolling of music during playing was not favoured. This seemed to be because the constant movement of the music made it difficult for the musician to keep track of their current position in the score. This problem would be intensified in an orchestra as musicians are required to glance back and forth between their music and the conductor. In this situation, it is important that they can consistently and quickly return to their place in the music. Constant movement of their music, by a source outside their control, would make that very difficult.

The more usable systems in the trial had the distinction that once each line of music was displayed on screen, it stayed in the same place. As the musician progressed through the music, rather than scrolling the old music out of the way, the next portion of music is rendered over the top of the old. Some visualisation techniques were necessary to make it clear to the player what was *old* and what was *new* music, but the consistency of music position made it easier to use the system.

Hitachi Engineering Co., Ltd.

Hitachi Engineering Co., Ltd. began to research and develop a *performerfriendly electronic music stand* in 2000 (Kosakaya, et al. 2005). Their system is built using a 14" tablet PC mounted on a support stand, with an attached foot pedal for page turning.

Seven feature concepts were identified for their music stand that warranted further development and evaluation.

- 1. Page-turning schemes using foot switch, hand switch or touch switch
- 2. Support for writing, storage and reading of sheet music
- 3. Using a backlit display to allow performances to be made in the dark
- 4. A Page-turning scheme based on time delays and variable page refresh ratios
- 5. Easier management of sheet music content
- 6. The ability to send page turning commands and conductor's comments to multiple performers simultaneously
- 7. A scheme for splitting sheet music content. i.e. starting with a score and producing parts for individual performers

Their 2005 publication (Kosakaya, et al. 2005) covers development and evaluation of Concepts 1-5.

Due to the limited screen size of the tablet PC used in the Hitachi Engineering System (14"), it was decided to limit sheet music display to one page at a time. To allow the performer to move smoothly from reading the bottom of one page to the top of the next (as would be the case in a two page display), Kosakaya et al. implemented a split page turn scheme. It their system, when a page turn is triggered, the top portion of the screen updates to show the first portion of the next page, while the bottom portion remains unchanged. After a time delay, the bottom portion of the screen updates to show the rest of the new page. This allows the performer to trigger a page turn slightly before they reach the end of a page.

The Hitachi system was evaluated and tuned with help of the Hitachi Group Symphony Orchestra and specialist musicians. The system gives the user control of two parameters: the portion of the page initially updated (between 50-100%), and time for which the system should delay before updating the remaining portion (between 0-5 seconds). It was found that more professional musicians preferred a large initial turn ratio and a short delay time, where as more amateur musicians favoured the opposite. This was interpreted to indicate that the more professional musicians tend to read further ahead in the music.

The Hitachi Engineering System has also been tested in live performances. Musicians used the electronic music stand successfully for a classical concert (Kosakaya, et al. 2005). Due to the backlit displays, they were able to complete the concert in the dark, allowing for dramatic lighting effects to be used during the performance without affecting the musicians' ability to read their music.

2.2 Annotation systems

Annotation is simply defined as "a critical or explanatory note or body of notes added to a text", ^{vii} or more generally, "extra information associated with a particular point in a document." Musicians typically enhance their printed music with pencil annotations. This section covers two aspects of annotation systems relevant to this research: the technology for drawing free-form annotations on digital documents; and the nature, form and purpose of annotations made by musicians.

Digital Ink

Digital annotations can take different forms, including typed notes, highlighting and more relevant to this research, digital ink. Digital ink refers to free-form

sketches or handwritten text generally input through a pen-based interface. In fact, published research around systems using digital ink covers almost exclusively pen-based systems. Pen-based systems are those that accept input via stylus on tablet or touch screen (as opposed to those that are touch operated).

Benefits of free-form digital ink

Schilit et al. (1998) explored the use of free-form digital ink input as a tool for active reading of text documents. In this context, digital ink annotations commonly include highlighting, underlining and hand written notes. The benefits of pen/stylus input free-form digital ink over typed annotations and mouse based actions for this type of interaction were reported as:

- Picking up a pen/stylus to make an annotation is a natural action that requires less forethought than selecting text with a mouse and issuing a command.
- Writing with a stylus on a tablet or screen is natural to those used to writing with pen on paper.
- Ink annotations are visually separate from the underlying document, where as typed annotations tend to blend in.
- *"An essential aspect of ink on paper is its lack of modality: you can write anything you want, anywhere on a page in any order."* (Schilit, Golovchinsky and Price 1998)

Digital documents with digital annotations have advantages over physical documents with pen annotations. One key advantage of digital annotations, in general, is that they can be logged, categorised and indexed making them searchable, where physical annotations tend to get lost in piles of paper. Many research projects explore ways of tagging and storing digital annotations. This process is difficult for free-form digital ink annotations specifically for two reasons: firstly, each ink annotation is created as a set of one or more pen

strokes, requiring a system to recognise which strokes belong together (Shilman and Wei 2004); secondly, due to the freedom of placement attained through this medium, the point in a document with which an ink annotation is associated with is not always clear. This can become a problem—particularly if a document is reflowed—as annotations can become disconnected from their intended target (Bargeron and Moscovich 2003).

Cattelan et al. (2008) make the observation that a digital ink annotation contains more data than just its stroke shapes. Attributes such as colour, line thickness, stroke ordering, position, creation time and author can be logged and stored with each annotation. In their work Cattelan et al. developed a system to store this extra information and a variety of display mechanisms to allow review and playback of sets of annotations based on their recorded characteristics.

Limitations of digital ink annotation systems

The goal of digital ink input systems is to mimic the action of writing with pen on paper. However, current pen and touch input hardware is not yet capable of making this a reality. Argawala and Shilman (2005) identify five features of current touch hardware that contribute to this:

- Digital screens are smooth and slippery compared with paper.
- The visual resolution of screens is less than that of paper and the input resolution of pen and touch is usually smaller again.
- Digital touch devices often have screens that are smaller than an A4 page.
- Protective layers of glass or plastic on touch screens create a parallax between the tip of the pen/stylus and the ink created.
- Pen/Touch computing devices are often too large and heavy to be positioned in the same way a piece of paper can be.

These factors combined make it difficult to interact with a pen-based system with the same accuracy and finesse that is achieved with physical pen and paper.

"Digital ink annotations are usually larger and sloppier than real ink annotations on paper" (Agrawala and Shilman 2005)

Agrawala and Shilman developed a software system to combat the problem of input resolution for pen-based ink annotation on documents. With their system, users select the area of a document that they wish to annotate, and an overlaid input box containing a magnified version of that region is displayed. The user draws their annotation in the magnified overlay which is subsequently shrunk back into the underlying document. Agrawala and Shilman found that magnifying the input region to twice normal size was sufficient for users to successfully create tidier annotations in a text document using a stylus.

Informal trials of their system found this interface most useful when writing text or edit marks on a document. Annotations that involved larger strokes, such as underlining and circling portions of text, were just as easy to create at actual size.

The problem of input resolution is compounded when using finger instead of stylus or pen input. Fingers are blunt instruments when compared to styli. They occlude more of the screens surface, making accurate placement difficult. This is referred to by Voida et al. as the "fat fingers" problem (Voida, et al. 2009). Special care must be taken when designing interfaces that are to be operated by finger to create controls that are large enough for users to see and interact with. Annotation and digital ink creation by finger tends to be even 'larger and sloppier' than that input by stylus as the natural control gained by the familiarity of a pen-like input device is lost.

As remarked by Isenberg et al. (2006), even on large, high resolution displays annotations made by finger look clumsy and out of place if displayed at their input resolution. To increase the appearance quality of finger written annotation in their tabletop display software, annotations are created on sticky notes which are then shrunk dramatically for final display.

Sketching Music

Sketched input has also been used in music creation software. Drawing musical symbols is particularly difficult at the low resolutions afforded by pen-based input hardware, as musical symbols by nature are small and depend heavily on accurate placement. Two systems addressed the problem of low resolution input by creating their own collections of simplified symbols and gestures for users to sketch in place of the standard Western notation symbols.

In the Music Notepad system developed by Forsberg et al. (1998), notes are input as one stroke gestures. This removes the need to connect multiple strokes or draw small closed shapes.

The MusicMan system of Poláček et al. (2009) which was developed for use on a PDA develops this idea further. Their system has its own alphabet of easily drawn symbols, shown in Figure 5.



Figure 5 Musical alphabet for MusicMan, pen-based musical score editor.

Whilst these systems show a viable mechanism for coping with the clumsiness of the available input devices, they have the disadvantage of requiring users to learn their symbol sets and of limiting input to notation for which symbols have been defined. This approach is therefore not suitable for entering freeform annotations.

Annotating Sheet Music

The annotations commonly created on sheet music are different to those for text documents. In order to build a system to support annotation of sheet music specifically, it is important to understand the characteristics of these annotations.

In 2006, Winget carried out a qualitative research study into annotation behaviours of musicians (Winget 2006). As part of this study, Winget collected, analysed and categorised annotations drawn on musical scores by classical musicians across different skill levels, in several different groups and orchestras. Interviews with musicians from the groups involved were also carried out to gain insight into the reasoning behind the annotations created. Three key questions answered by her study were:

Why do musicians annotate?

A musical score defines the notes and timing of a piece of music as well as some of the composer's intentions as to the dynamics and flow of the piece. When a group plays, they introduce nuances in the time, dynamics and feeling of the music, which they must all understand and remember. Annotating their music records some of these elements, or at least provides reminders, to ensure that the group as a whole can consistently reproduce their performance.

As the semi-professional concertmaster put it, "the whole point of making annotations is to ensure consistency. You want everyone to know what everyone else is doing during performance, so you have to do the same thing every time you perform. Annotations help ensure that consistency." (Winget 2006)

When do musicians annotate?

Winget's study explored annotation behaviour over the entire process of preparing a piece of music for performance, from when the sheet music is first received, through to just before it is performed. This process was divided, and annotation behaviour assessed, across three phases:

- Early rehearsal

This is the time that individual musicians spend learning the technicalities of a piece and become familiar with its mechanics. It generally occurs in private, before the group comes together to practice. Musicians reported in interviews that they did not annotate heavily during this phase, and that any annotation that did occur was generally limited to basic technical notes such as breathing marks or fingering instructions. Some amateur musicians skip this phase all together.

- Mid rehearsal

In this phase, musicians meet as a group and begin to bring the piece together. This was observed as the phase in which the most annotations occurred. This is likely because it was the time where musicians first collaborate with other group members. During this phase, annotations are made to remind musicians of decisions that the group has made as to how the piece will be played. Rehearsals at this stage stop and start as things are tried out and decisions are made. This leaves time to make annotations.

- Pre performance

This is the last phase of preparation, where the group is comfortable with the technicalities of the piece and has generally learned to work together consistently. Rehearsals during this phase mainly involve playing the piece all the way through. During this phase, little or no annotation was reported to take place.

What annotations do musicians create?

In her study, Winget categorises annotations in two ways: by purpose and by mode.

- Purpose

An annotation's purpose is said to be *technical, technical-conceptual* or *conceptual*. This categorisation roughly corresponds to the ambiguity of the annotation or how dependent it is on personal interpretation by the musician. A *technical* annotation is one whose meaning is certain, such as a bowing or articulation mark, whereas a *conceptual* annotation is a more personal representation of a concept, such as phrasing or emotive marks. *Technical-conceptual* annotations lie somewhere in between. Annotations in this category include dynamic markings and similar annotations that convey information as to how the music should be played, without giving the specific technical instructions on how to do so. Winget found that the vast majority (70-81%) of annotations created could be classed as *technical* and that the majority of those *technical* annotations were related to bowing (this is partly due to the large number of string players included in the research).

- Mode

An annotation's mode is its physical representation, classed as *textual*, *symbolic* or *numeric*. Winget found here that 72% of annotations were *symbolic*, 16% *numeric*, and the remaining 12% *textual*.

Annotations are then further classified by type or specific purpose. Some examples of type classification are: bowing, articulation, attentive and navigation.

Winget's study gives a good overall picture of how and why classical musicians interact with their music through annotation. The insights gained lead well into the development of a digital annotation system specifically targeted to musical annotations.

2.3 Summary

Since its first appearance as a design concept in the Muse project, research and development of the Digital Music Stand concept has lead to a number of experimental and commercial systems tailored to the needs of musicians. Features identified as useful in these systems include:

- Music library management and part distribution.
- Page turning both manual and networked.
- Score personalisation through display size and layout management.
- Annotation creation and sharing.

Some features apply to digital document management in general. Two that are highly specific to music are page turning and layout management. Studies of page turning identify the importance of speed, musician control and maintaining the spatial location of music elements.

Research into annotation of text documents has identified the appropriateness of free-form sketch input. But this form of input has not been studied in the digital music stand context. Annotation of music has much in common with annotation of other types of documents but also has special features. Winget's analysis of the annotation behaviour of musicians gives us a picture of the range and nature of annotation used. In particular, it shows that the majority of musical annotations are symbolic, small and need to be placed accurately on
music scores. These kinds of annotations are not well supported by current digital music stand systems.

Chapter 3 - Design Considerations

The physical circumstances in which musicians work impose strong constraints on the screen displays and input mechanisms they can use. In this chapter, physical constraints on musicians imposed by their instruments are analysed; requirements for a music display hardware system are developed and options for a hardware and software development environment are explored.

3.1 Physical restraints on Musicians

Introduction

Musicians' movements are physically restricted by their instruments. In most situations where they would be interacting with sheet music (when practicing, performing or annotating their scores) they are also holding or balancing their instrument. In an orchestral setting musicians may be sitting close together with little spare space around them in which they might safely place their instrument. Musical instruments are fragile, expensive items and may have sentimental value as well. Just bumping an instrument may cause it to go out of tune even if it is not damaged. Taking care of them is important.

When developing an interactive digital music stand for musicians, it is important to consider the physical limitations caused by their instruments. It is no use developing a system that requires users to perform complex multihanded touch gestures if that endangers the safety of their musical instrument.

Physical Restraints by Instrument

The following table outlines key physical constraints placed on musicians by their instruments. The table covers 37 orchestral instruments^{viii} as well as six other common musical instruments (the conductor has been included as an 'instrument' because their movements are restricted by the need to use their hands or baton to conduct). The instruments are sorted by orchestral section.

For each instrument, eight observations are made as follows:

1. Needs two hands to be played (Never/Sometimes/Always)

Does the instrument require both of the musician's hands to be on the instrument to play?

2. Possibility of a spare hand while playing (Yes/No)

Restatement of 1. If answer is Never or Sometimes, then there is a possibility that the player could play their instrument with only one hand (perhaps only for a portion of a piece of music), leaving a spare hand.

3. Instrument Self-supporting (Yes/No/Balanceable)

Is the instrument free standing, or does it have a stand such that it partially balances on the ground, or on the players lap while being played.

Some examples of balanceable instruments are: Cello (Has a spike resting on the ground and leans against the player's legs), Guitar (Can sit on the players lap, or be supported by a neck strap when the player is standing). An example of a fully self supporting instrument is the Piano.

4. Player's feet are in use (Yes/No/Sometimes)

Does the player use his/her feet to play the instrument? If the instrument has optional accessories that players use with their feet, then *Sometimes* is used. An example of this is a whammy pedal for an electric guitar.

5. Played Standing (Yes/No)

Can the instrument be played from a standing position?

6. Played Sitting (Yes/No)

Can the instrument be played from a sitting position?

7. How many hands available while not playing (1/2/1 or 2)

How many spare hands does the player have when they are not playing

music? If the player requires one hand to hold the inactive instrument, then they have one hand available. If the instrument is classed as 'balanceable' (from 3) then it is possible for the player to support their instrument without using either hand, but they may prefer to keep one hand on their instrument for safety. In this case the answer to 7 is '1 or 2'.

8. Must stop playing to turn a page (Yes/No/Maybe)

Assuming that the player is using a standard music stand with a physical printed score, and is playing alone (does not have another person available to turn pages for them), does the player have to stop playing their instrument in order to physically turn the page of their music? The answer is *Maybe* if it is possible that the page turn in the music is placed such that at that point in the score the player needs only one hand on their instrument to play all their required notes. (This does not include instances where the player has rests over the page turn and so isn't playing at all).

Instrument	1. Needs two hands to be played	2. Possibility of a spare hand while playing	3. Instrument self- supporting	4. Player's feet are in use
	(Never, Sometimes, Always)	(Yes , No)	(Yes, No, Balanceable)	(Yes, No, Sometimes)
Conductor	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	No
Vocalist	Never	Yes	Yes	No
Woodwind				
Piccolo	Always	No	No	No
Flute	Always	No	No	No
Oboe	Always	No	No	No
English Horn	Always	No	No	No
Clarinet	Always	No	No	No
Bass Clarinet	Always	No	Balanceable	No
Bassoon	Always	No	No	No
Contrabassoon	Always	No	Balanceable	No
<u>Brass</u>				
Horn	Sometimes	Yes	No	No
Trumpet	Sometimes	Yes	No	No
Cornet	Sometimes	Yes	No	No
Trombone	Always	No	No	No
Tuba	Sometimes	Yes	No	No
Euphonium	Sometimes	Yes	No	No
Percussion				
Timpani	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	No
Snare Drum	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	No
Base Drum	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	No
Cymbals	Always	No	No	No
Triangle	Always	No	No	No
Tambourine	Always	No	No	No
Glockenspiel	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	No
Tam-tam	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	No
Xylophone	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	No

Table 1 – Physical restraints on musicians (Part 1 of 2)

Chimes	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	No
Instrument	1. Needs two hands to be played	2. Possibility of a spare hand while playing	3. Instrument self- supporting	4. Player's feet are in use
	(Never, Sometimes, Always)	(Yes , No)	(Yes, No, Balanceable)	(Yes, No, Sometimes)
Vibraphone Tubular bells	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	No
Drum Kit	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<u>Keyboards</u> Celesta	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	Sometimes
Organ	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Piano	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<u>Strings</u>				
Harp	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	NO
Viola	Always	No	No	No
	Always	No	Balanceable	No
Double bass	Always	No	Balanceable	No
	7			
Other				
Guitar	Always	No	Balanceable	No
Mandolin	Always	No	Balanceable	No
Ukulele	Always	No	Balanceable	No
Recorder	Always	No	No	No
Electric Guitar	Always	No	Balanceable	Sometimes
Keyboard	Sometimes	Yes	Yes	Sometimes

Instrument	5. Played Standin g	6. Played Sitting	7. How many hands available while not playing	8. Must stop playing to page turn
	(Yes, No)	(Yes, No)	(1, 2, 1 or 2)	(Yes, No, Maybe)
Conductor	Yes	No	2	No
Vocalist	Yes	Yes	2	No
<u>Woodwind</u>				
Piccolo	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
Flute	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
Oboe	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
English Horn	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
Clarinet	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
Bass Clarinet	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
Bassoon	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
Contrabassoon	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
<u>Brass</u>				
Horn	Yes	Yes	1	Maybe
Trumpet	Yes	Yes	1	Maybe
Cornet	Yes	Yes	1	Maybe
Trombone	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
Tuba	Yes	Yes	1	Maybe
Euphonium	Yes	Yes	1	Maybe
Percussion				
Timpani	Yes	Yes	2	Maybe
Snare Drum	Yes	Yes	2	Maybe
Base Drum	Yes	Yes	2	Maybe
Cymbals	Yes	Yes	2	Yes
Triangle	Yes	Yes	2	Yes
Tambourine	Yes	Yes	2	Yes
Glockenspiel	Yes	Yes	2	Maybe
Tam-tam	Yes	Yes	2	Maybe
Xylophone	Yes	Yes	2	Maybe
Chimes	Yes	Yes	2	Maybe
Vibraphone	Yes	Yes	2	Maybe

Table 1 – Physical restraints on musicians (Part 2 of 2)

Instrument	5. Played Standin g	6. Played Sitting	7. How many hands available while not playing	8. Must stop playing to page turn
	(Yes, No)	(Yes, No)	(1, 2, 1 or 2)	(Yes, No, Maybe)
Tubular bells	Yes	Yes	2	Maybe
Drum Kit	No	Yes	2	Maybe
<u>Keyboards</u>				
Celesta	No	Yes	2	Maybe
Organ	No	Yes	2	Maybe
Piano	No	Yes	2	Maybe
<u>Strings</u>				
Harp	Yes	Yes	1 or 2	Maybe
Violin	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
Viola	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
Cello	No	Yes	1	Yes
Double bass	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
<u>Other</u>				
Guitar	Yes	Yes	1 or 2	Yes
Mandolin	Yes	Yes	1 or 2	Yes
Ukulele	Yes	Yes	1 or 2	Yes
Recorder	Yes	Yes	1	Yes
Electric Guitar	Yes	Yes	1 or 2	Yes
Keyboard	Yes	Yes	2	Maybe

Observations

- The only musicians (of those listed) who can reliably perform a standard page turn without stopping playing are conductors and vocalists. For all other instruments, being able to turn a page without disruption to the music, requires the page turn to be placed somewhere in the score where they have either rests, or notes that require only one hand to play.



Figure 6 Physical restraints on musicians, observation 8.

 If musicians were given the option of triggering page turns by foot pedal, the percentage of players able to consistently perform the action increases from 5% to 86%. The instruments that still restrict users' hands and feet are: Drum Kit, Celesta, Organ, Piano, Electric guitar (when used with pedal), Keyboard (when used with pedal).



Figure 7 Physical restraints on musicians, observations 1 and 4 combined. In answer to 1 is Never or answer two 4 is Never, then Yes.

- Only 44% of the instruments surveyed leave players with two spare hands while they are holding their instrument but not playing (e.g. when an orchestral player is sitting with their instrument, waiting to begin a performance or rehearsal). This is often the state a musician is in when they are annotating their music. It is therefore not advisable to develop an annotation system that requires the player to interact with two hands as most musicians will not be able to do so. However, all instruments allow the musician free use of one hand. So it would appear that an annotation system that can be operated with a single hand would be usable.



Figure 8 Physical restraints on musicians, observation 7.

3.2 Hardware Considerations

Screen size and resolution

For viewing and interacting with sheet music, screen size and resolution is key. Traditional sheet music is generally printed at A4 size or bigger. The more music that is displayed on one page, the fewer page turns are required for the whole piece. Musicians also sit quite far back from their music, compared to someone reading a novel for example. This is because their instrument generally sits between them and their music stand. To ensure that their music is easily readable from this distance (between 0.5 and 1.0 metre), it must be displayed at a reasonable size. Printed sheet music gives us a good guideline as to the appropriate display size, achieving an acceptable balance between quantity of music per page and legibility.

Tests conducted by Bell et al. determined that though musicians can cope with reading small music quite well, they prefer "normal" size or larger (Bell, et al. 2005). For the test, musicians were asked to find errors in unfamiliar music presented at three different sizes. With this task, much concentration was required, as it was necessary to study the music in great detail. Bell et al. suggest that as musicians become more familiar with a piece of music, they may prefer to display it at a smaller size so that more music can fit on their display at a time, therefore reducing the number of page turns. Having a display with a large screen size and high resolution would make this practical, as well as facilitating music display at "normal" or large size when required.

McPherson, when testing page turning techniques with a small group of musicians (McPherson 1999), observed that a 17" monitor was too small for evaluating a page turning system that displayed two pages of music side by side. Several of the musicians taking part in the trial commented that the size of the music made it difficult to read with this method and that their rating of the page turning method was influenced by this.

From this we conclude that a digital sheet music display should ideally have a large enough physical screen size to display each page of music at full A4 size or bigger. The screen resolution should also be as high as possible to ensure that music rendered on screen at full size is crisp and legible and also to allow for more music to be displayed at a smaller size if required.

Viewing angle

In an orchestral situation particularly, musicians often share music stands with other players. The music stand is then placed even further away from the musician, both to make room for their instrument, and to assure that it is in view of all players that need to read from it. It can also be placed quite low in relation to the musicians' eye-line so that it does not block their view of the conductor (or other players in the group). It is therefore important for any digital music stand to be viewable from a distance and from a moderate angle (up to 40° from the normal) to the left, right or above.

Input mechanism (stylus/finger)

Touch screen technology exists in several different forms. The three most common technologies used in commercial touch screens are:

- Resistive touch: Touch is detected through physical pressure on the screen's surface. Devices with resistive touch screens can be operated by fingertip or using any hard pointing device, like a plastic stylus. A significant amount of pressure is required when using a fingertip.
- Capacitive touch: the surface is composed of an insulator layer, e.g. glass, and coated with a transparent conductor. Touching the surface with an electrical conductor, creates a distortion in the surface's electrostatic field. This distortion is tracked and a touch is detected in that place. The human body is an electrical conductor, so touching the surface with a naked fingertip will trigger a touch action to be detected. A plastic stylus will not work on a capacitive touch screen. Capacitive

styli are available, though they tend to have a wider surface area than a standard stylus. (A typical device has a blunt tip approximately 5-8mm across.)

Optical Touch: These screens have cameras embedded in their frames. An infrared back light is placed in the field of view of each camera. When the screen is touched, a shadow is created in the view of each camera as the touch device blocks the infrared backlight. These shadows are tracked and the size and location of the touch is calculated. Depending on the screen, touches may be detected using this method without the user physically coming into contact with the screen's surface. Hovering a finger just above the surface (1-2mm away) will have the same effect as a touch. Strictly speaking, therefore, these optical 'touch screens' are not really touch devices as contact with the screen surface is not measured. However, they are normally marketed as touch screens as they provide similar affordances. Seeing as physical contact is not even necessary, these devices can be operated with a very light 'touch'. Optical touch screens can be used with any pointing device. The camera resolution is sufficient to pick up a fine pen tip.

Using a stylus gives greater accuracy than using a fingertip. This is due the size of the tip of the stylus being generally much smaller than a fingertip. This smaller touch surface can be tracked more accurately on the screen. Using a fingertip to interact also has the disadvantage over a stylus of bringing the user's hand closer to the screen. The user's hand can then easily block important pieces of an interface from view, making it difficult to accurately interact. On a capacitive or optical touch screen, the hand can also trigger unintended touch events; without even a warning from the sensation of touch, in the case of the optical touch screen. When it comes to writing on a touch screen, the stylus has the clear advantage that it feels and acts like a pen or pencil. We are much more used to writing with a pen than with the tip of a

finger and this familiarity leads to greater accuracy. Again though, on a capacitive or optical touch screen, the user must hold their hand clear of the surface. This loses some of the familiar experience of using a pen on paper, where accuracy is easily achieved because the hand can be braced against the paper.

Fingertip interaction has the major advantage that no extra equipment is needed. A user can instantly interact with the screen without searching for a stylus. Finger touches are also silent, where a hard stylus can make a disruptive clicking noise on each contact.

Given that both fingertip and stylus interaction have advantages and disadvantages, for the purposes of experimenting with annotation on sheet music, a screen that accepts both fingertip and stylus interaction seems appropriate.

Single vs Multi-Touch

Screens that handle multiple simultaneous touch points are becoming more common. Many smart phones for example now have multi-touch screens that allow users to interact with applications through multi-finger gestures. Using a two-finger *pinch* gesture to zoom is a common UI control in applications designed for these and other touch screen devices, for example.

A system relying solely on single touch interaction is limiting in the number of distinct *actions* that can be detected. A multi-touch screen would increase the number of simple gestures available for experimentation.

As discussed, musicians are limited in their ability to free their hands to interact with their music display. Big gestures, requiring two handed operation would not be easy for a musician to perform. Simple multi-finger gestures like *pinch* however, may be possible, assuming the musician was able to free one hand for interaction. It is reasonable to assume that this is the case when making annotations at least, as when annotating a traditional paper score, they need one hand to hold and use a pencil. This is something that orchestral musicians in particular do regularly during rehearsal (Winget 2006).

Power supply and battery life

When using a digital music display during a performance particularly, a reliable power source is important. Running out of battery power half way through a performance and losing access to one's music is not an option. A performance may last several hours, and a rehearsal may last all day. Even with the advances in battery technology, it may be necessary to use a device connected to an external power source for safety's sake. This need for external power will impact on the portability of the device. In cases where an external power source is not available, e.g. playing an outdoor gig, a reliable battery would be required.

Connectivity

In a group situation, communication between players' music display systems may be a desired feature. Such communication could allow a group to share notes/annotations or network page turns.

Communication from each music stand back to a server would be useful for the distribution and management of large collections of music. The benefits of a networked system such as this are described in some detail by Bellini et al., as part of the design considerations for their system: the Music Object-Oriented Distributed System or MOODS (Bellini, Fioravanti and Nesi 1999).

Hardware with Wi-Fi or Bluetooth capability would make building a connected system feasible. A wired network would also do the job, but the cabling required to network an entire orchestra would be cumbersome and possibly impractical in most cases. In groups or orchestras that are regularly wired with microphones and lighting (such as bands or recording orchestras), the addition of networking cables may not be so much of a hindrance.

Noise

A digital music stand must be as quiet as possible, particularly in a performance situation, so as not to disrupt or detract from the music being played. Excessive fan or hard drive noise would be a nuisance.

Portability

The ideal digital music display would be as portable as a traditional music stand with paper sheet music; for practicing at home, a display unit need not be portable.

If the unit is to be taken from venue to venue for rehearsals and performances however, a light system that does not require external cabling or attachments would be preferred. Systems should be designed so that they are not a safety hazard on stage, or in a rehearsal space.

Screen Refresh Rate

A system used for displaying sheet music must be capable of performing page turns quickly (certainly no greater than 0.5 seconds) to avoid disrupting a musical performance. But, beyond purely the speed of displaying a page of music, developing a highly interactive user interface requires a screen refresh rate of at least 24 frames per second to ensure that any transition animations appear fluid to the human eye.

Also, drawing on a screen requires high input sampling rates (about 100 samples per second are recommended for pen input) to produce smooth lines, and again, a refresh rate of at least 24 frames per second to interactively display the result.

3.3 Device Options

In choosing a development environment for the experimental software, four categories of devices were considered. To give the best freedom of development, we wanted a device with as many of the features described previously as well as a useful programming environment. For a full table of devices considered and comparison criteria, see Appendix A.

Tablet PC

Touch screen laptop computers or Tablet PCs offer portability and computing power. Available running a range of operating systems, Tablet PCs are a practical option when it comes to freedom of development environment. The devices considered for this research project run Windows 7. This gives a full Windows programming environment.

There are Tablet PCs available that support multi-touch through both stylus and fingertip interaction. This is an ideal situation as it gives the most freedom in terms of experimenting with touch gesture controls for the software system interface.

Being designed for portability however, screen size is limited. Of the tablet PC devices considered for this project, most common screen size was 12.1" with resolution 1280 x 800. A 12.1" screen is just capable of displaying the contents of one A4 page of music, if white space and margins are reduced.

iPad / Slate Device

With the introduction of the iPad^{ix} in April 2010 came the arrival of a new subcategory of tablet computers, the slate. These devices generally run specialised cut down operating systems, often focused around providing web browsing tools and music or photo library management. They are built without hardware keyboards and are designed for use with touch controls.

Slate devices again have the benefit of extreme portability, making them ideal for perching on a stand in front of a musician without the need for extensive cabling and support hardware. They also boast good battery life compared to traditional Tablet PCs.

Again though, screen size is an issue. Current slate devices range from 7" to 12.1", with the Apple iPad coming in at 9.7" and a comparatively high resolution for its size of 1024 x 768. This is significantly smaller than an A4 page of music, however.

Several slate devices were considered for this project, the forerunner being the Apple iPad as it was the most readily available. There are several sheet music display applications available on the iPad and their popularity indicates that some musicians do not mind working with the small display, at least for personal use. This may not be the case in an orchestral situation however, where musical scores are often very large.

The iPad has a capacitive touch screen, responding to finger touch. Though it is possible to purchase specialised styli to work on the iPad, they have a large surface area compared to a traditional pen style stylus. This makes drawing fine annotations difficult.

After talking with some iPad users and experimenting with drawing annotations on the device it was decided that the iPad an impractical choice for development. This was mainly due to the screen size restricting user interface layout and design options. Only being able to display one small page of music, with even that being of questionable usefulness to a musician, would excessively limit experimentation from the outset.

eInk Display

Devices with eInk displays in the form of personal e-book readers are becoming widespread. These displays are based on electronic paper

technology, that is, displays that are designed to emulate the appearance of ink on paper. In contrast to traditional back lit displays, eInk is reportedly easy on the eyes for extended periods of reading and can be read in direct sunlight.

The primary benefit of an eInk Display is battery life. Once an image is displayed on an eInk screen, very little power is required to keep it there. The main disadvantage of this technology is the slow refresh rate compared to an LCD screen (between 0.7 and 1.0 seconds as observed on an Amazon Kindle^x device). They are not well suited for the development of interactive applications, especially those with fluid animated menu systems or controls.

Another limiting factor with the eInk devices currently available is screen size. Of the consumer eInk devices available at start of this research project, the largest screen was 10.2" with a resolution of 1024 x 1280. This is approximately A5 size. As a sheet music is traditionally printed in A4 size or larger, this is too small to be practical.

The current eInk devices are also limited in touch input capability. The devices considered did not support multi touch and were limited to stylus input only. It was concluded that the consumer eInk devices available today are not well suited to development of interactive, touch based user interfaces.

Multi-Touch Monitor

Setting aside the issue of portability, a multi-touch monitor connected to desktop PC offers the best capability in terms of screen real-estate. Commercially available touch screen monitors now come at 21.5" providing HD resolution of 1920 x 1080. A 21.5" screen is wide enough to display the contents of two A4 pages of sheet music side by side, with about 2" to spare for user interface controls. The screen height is insufficient for a full A4 page but will fit the musical content if the top and bottom margins are trimmed.

For slightly better portability, all-in-one touch screen computers are also available. Though, not as light and portable as a tablet or slate, these devices at least require less cabling and support hardware than a traditional desktop with monitor. Unfortunately, the all-in-one computers available at the beginning of this research project had surprisingly low resolution screens compared to the stand alone touch screen monitors and so were not considered further.

As with the tablet PCs considered, the desktop PC powering the multi-touch monitor would be running Windows 7, providing access to a rich set of development tools and a convenient development environment.

The decision as to which device to use for development came down to either a Tablet PC, or a desktop computer with multi-touch monitor. The development options for both are the same, so any application written for one would only require minimal modification to work on the other. It was therefore decided to work with a desktop and multi-touch monitor as the larger screen size increases options for user interface design and development.

3.4 Software Environment – WPF with .NET

Choosing to work with a multi-touch monitor and desktop computer running Windows 7 directed us towards utilising Microsoft's .Net framework with Windows Presentation Foundation for developing the experimental software.

Windows Presentation Foundation (WPF) is a system for building sophisticated user interfaces for Windows client applications, built into the Microsoft .Net framework. WPF takes advantage of modern graphics hardware through Microsoft's DirectX graphics library, providing a high speed, resolution independent, vector-based rendering engine. Developing for Windows 7 through .NET with WPF provides several benefits that make it a good choice for the type of software application developed as part of this research.

- Development tools for applications supporting pen interaction and ink rendering, originally released in 2002 with Windows XP Tablet Edition, are now included in the WPF framework. This provides high quality 'ink' rendering, showing ink strokes as variable thickness, smoothed Bézier curves, rendered with a variety of brushes. Quality of line rendering is important in sketch applications to mimic the fluidity of real ink on paper. This helps to create a distinction between the underlying typeset music and the annotations, without making the annotations look to have 'poor quality.'
- With Windows 7 comes multi-touch support at three levels.
 - Legacy Support Some existing applications will automatically respond to some basic touch gestures (panning, zooming and flick gestures), in place of mouse interaction, when run with a multitouch screen.
 - 2) Basic Multi-Touch Support Applications can add gesture support by responding to predefined gesture events provided by the system. The available gestures are: zoom, single finger and two finger pan, rotation, two finger tap and press and tap. The developer has full control over how an application responds to each of these gesture events.
 - 3) Optimised Multi-Touch Applications access raw touch events. Every time the screen is touched or a touch point is moved, the application receives a notification. Notifications are sent for as many simultaneous touch points as the touch screen hardware supports.

These touch notifications, at all levels, can be accessed through WPF. Combining touch support with ink rendering gives all the necessary support to build an interactive multi-touch application with an annotation system.

 WPF provides separation between user interface development and the underlying program logic. User interfaces are defined using *Extensible Application Markup Language* (XAML – pronounced 'zammel') which is a derivative of XML. XAML is used to define and position user interface controls, create animations and styles, define 2D and 3D graphics and connect data to display with WPF's data binding system. Underlying program logic is created in C# or VB.NET (Visual Basic).

This is an ideal situation for development of our digital sheet music display. Once the underlying music data structure is defined, experimenting with user interface and specifically touch controls can be done efficiently and iteratively over the top.

Chapter 4 - Sheet Music Unbound

Digital sheet music *display* (as opposed to digital music stand development) is an area of work that has seen much research activity of the last five decades. Research into the computerisation of the musical score creation process began as early as 1961 with "The DARMS project" (Erickson 1975). Commercial software has been available for over two decades for typesetting and composition of music and this has been embraced by the musical community and sheet music publishing industry. The advantages of digitally produced and printed sheet music are obvious over traditional handwritten manuscripts.

The destination of music produced through these packages has remained generally unchanged however. Music is created and laid out in pages as it would be in a printed manuscript. Music typesetting software decides on optimal note spacing to lay bars in such a way that they make musical sense and fill the width of each page tidily (Blostein and Haken 1991). Once the music reaches the consumer (in digital, or hard copy) this page structure is fixed. Bars x - y are on page 1, (y + 1) – z on page 2 and so on.

Storing sheet music in a digital format gives us an opportunity to change the way sheet music is presented to the consumer.

4.1 Breaking the boundary of the page

A piece of sheet music is an ordered list of symbolic instructions describing what rhythms and pitches to play to replicate a piece of music. In modern notation, this takes the form of notes and symbols placed on a five-line staff system, read from left to right. A piece is divided into groups of beats, determined by the time signature. These groups of beats are called measures, or bars. The ordering of these bars is (with the exception of some modern compositions) fixed. So, a piece of music is an ordered list of bars. Changing the order of the bars would change the piece of music.

Compare this to the structure of an English text document. A text document at its most basic is an ordered list of words. Changing the order of the words in a text document would alter its meaning.

What if we treat the bars of a piece of music like the words of a text document?

With word processing software, we can control the formatting of a text document without changing its underlying structure or meaning. By changing the font size and colour and inserting (or removing) line or page breaks, we can personalise the appearance of a document making it easier to read.

If digital sheet music is stored as an ordered list of bars, rather than a series of static pages, we could give musicians similar control of how their music is formatted. By allowing them to choose display size or zoom at the bar level and to control where line breaks and page breaks occur, individual musicians could optimise their music's layout to suit their personal performance style.

For example, musicians could scale down portions of a piece that they were very familiar with and felt that they did not need to read the music very closely for anymore. This would allow more music to fit onto each page, reducing the number of page turns in the piece.

Alternatively, a musician may break a page of music by inserting a page turn where they have a natural rest in the music. Though this may increase the total number of page turns in the piece, the page turns are easier to perform and so minimise disruption to the flow of the music. Traditionally this level of control is only available to the music publisher.

4.2 How to store/represent a bar

For the purposes of experimenting with sheet music layout and formatting at the bar level, it was decided in this project that the simplest way of storing each bar would be each as a static image. As the music is not to be manipulated at the note level, the software system need not necessarily understand the musical content of each bar. All the software needs to know is the native size of a bar and its placement within the piece overall piece. The layout system is then dealing with an ordered list of blocks which can be reflowed and formatted like the words of a sentence in word processer.

The down side of using standard image formats like PNG or JPG to represent each bar is that if a bar is scaled up from its native size, it not only becomes highly pixellated, it is also hard to read. Figure 9 and Figure 10 demonstrate the loss of image quality when a bar is zoomed to 2x native size.



Figure 9 A bar of music at native resolution



Figure 10 A bar of music at 2 x native resolution

If we instead store each bar in a vector format then the music becomes scalable without this quality loss.

PDF

The nice thing about a vast majority of modern digitally produced sheet music is that it is available in PDF form. Within a digital sheet music PDF file (excluding manuscripts scanned in as full page images, and then saved in PDF format) the musical symbols and notation are stored as vector graphics. This means that each note or symbol is stored as a collection of paths which are usually defined as lines and cubic Bézier curves. These paths can be scaled smoothly which means the music can be scaled smoothly without the image quality loss of non-vector graphics.

A solution to the bar scaling within a sheet music display system, therefore would be to store each bar as a small PDF file. The system could then render a piece of music from this series of PDF blocks.

This is not really the way that PDFs are designed to be handled, however. A PDF file is usually considered to be a complete document in its own right. Though it is possible to render a PDF document with Windows Presentation Foundation (WPF), this involves passing control of an application frame to to a 3rd party UI control. Such controls handle the parsing and rendering of the PDF content as well as providing their own UI functionality. It was not immediately apparent whether it would be possible to tile a display with these types of controls. It is also likely that attempting to tile many of these components into a display window would have not only caused considerable performance issues, but may have taken over crucial touch and interaction events, making it difficult to experiment with the user interface of the experimental software developed in this project.

It seemed impractical to continue trying to find a way to force PDF renderers into behaving as required given that there was viable alternative vector format built in to WPF.

XAML

Windows Presentation Foundation (WPF – the chosen environment for this experimental development) comes with built in support for Microsoft's own vector graphics format, XAML (pronounced 'zammel').

XAML is in fact the user interface markup language used in WPF. In WPF, XAML can be used to define UI elements, data binding and events as well as 2D and 3D objects, style definitions, animations and transformations for use in visually rich user interfaces. XAML files can be created and edited though text editors or code editors or through visual design tools provided in Microsoft Expression Blend and Microsoft Visual Studio.

XAML can also be used to define resources for WPF applications. Resources are small pieces of XAML that define things like styles, brushes, images and 2D and 3D objects that are then utilised from within the application.

Microsoft Expression Design^{xi} is a vector and raster design tool created by Microsoft as part of the Microsoft Expression Suite.^{xii} It is principally designed for creating and editing XAML assets and resources for use in WPF and Silverlight applications, with a heavy focus on vector drawing. Once assets are created, using the extensive vector illustration tools, they can be exported in standard formats (JPG, PNG, TIFF, PDF etc.) as or as XAML resources. We concentrate on the latter. The exported XAML can be copied directly into an application's UI definition code or stored in separate resource dictionary files that can be loaded and parsed by a WPF application at runtime.

The following sample XAML resource file contains a definition for a **DrawingBrush** object.

Sample XAML Resource File

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<ResourceDictionary</pre>
xmlns="http://schemas.microsoft.com/winfx/2006/xaml/presentation"
xmlns:x="http://schemas.microsoft.com/winfx/2006/xaml">
 <DrawingBrush x:Key="Violin" Stretch="Uniform">
  <DrawingBrush.Drawing>
   <DrawingGroup>
    <DrawingGroup.Children>
     <GeometryDrawing Geometry="F1 M 2.14019e-005,38.293L 38.0002,38.293">
      <GeometryDrawing.Pen>
       <Pen Thickness="0.664176" LineJoin="Round" Brush="#FF000000"/>
      </GeometryDrawing.Pen>
     </GeometryDrawing>
     <GeometryDrawing Geometry="F1 M 2.14019e-005,31.645L 38.0002,31.645">
      <GeometryDrawing.Pen>
       <Pen Thickness="0.664176" LineJoin="Round" Brush="#FF000000"/>
      </GeometryDrawing.Pen>
     </GeometryDrawing>
     <GeometryDrawing Geometry="F1 M 2.14019e-005,25.005L 38.0002,25.005">
      <GeometryDrawing.Pen>
       <Pen Thickness="0.664176" LineJoin="Round" Brush="#FF000000"/>
      </GeometryDrawing.Pen>
     </GeometryDrawing>
     <GeometryDrawing Geometry="F1 M 2.14019e-005,18.3651L
38.0002,18.3651">
      <GeometryDrawing.Pen>
       <Pen Thickness="0.664176" LineJoin="Round" Brush="#FF000000"/>
      </GeometryDrawing.Pen>
     </GeometryDrawing>
     <GeometryDrawing Geometry="F1 M 2.14019e-005,11.7251L
38.0002,11.7251">
      <GeometryDrawing.Pen>
       <Pen Thickness="0.664176" LineJoin="Round" Brush="#FF000000"/>
      </GeometryDrawing.Pen>
     </GeometryDrawing>
     <GeometryDrawing Brush="#FF000000" Geometry="F1 M 21.1487,31.7292C</pre>
                ... [Code excluded here - Further Geometry]
                12.1071,5.22917 14.5237,3.6875 Z "/>
     <GeometryDrawing Brush="#FF000000" Geometry="F1 M 33.7073,19.6167L
                ... [Code excluded here - Further Geometry]
                30.6656,10.075L 32.7698,9.3042 Z "/>
    </DrawingGroup.Children>
   </DrawingGroup>
  </DrawingBrush.Drawing>
 </DrawingBrush>
```

</ResourceDictionary>

In WPF **Brush** objects are used to fill or paint areas of an interface. Brushes can be solid colours, gradients, images, drawings or visuals. In this case, our desired Brush content is a drawing (a collection of geometrically defined 2D paths and content) so we use a **DrawingBrush**. Once the **DrawingBrush** is defined, it can be used by the application to paint or fill any area by either tiling or stretching the **Brush**'s content to cover that area. In our case, each bar of music is rendered by stretching it over a defined rectangular space. As the drawing is defined in vector form, stretching is done smoothly. This gives an image block representation of each bar that can be laid out, scaled and manipulated as desired by the WPF application without image quality loss. As long as the aspect ratio of the bar is kept the same, it will look good at any size, as Figure 11 and Figure 12 demonstrate.



Figure 11 A XAML DrawingBrush at native size



Figure 12 A XAML DrawingBrush at 8 x native size

4.3 Breaking music into bars

For the purposes of this study, the creation of the XAML representations of each bar of music is done manually using Microsoft Expression Design. The process for doing so is outlined in this section. This process is prohibitively long and labour intensive and would not be suitable as the only method of importing music into a commercial piece of software, but was sufficient for this investigation. Automation of this process would be necessary for a complete system but lay outside the scope of this project. Converting music manually in this way, though cumbersome, allowed the focus of the project to remain around experimentation with the user interface and feature development. There is a brief discussion of a possible path toward automation at the end of this section.

Sample music was sourced from The Mutopia Project.^{xiii} The Mutopia Project offers a freely downloadable collection of classical music that has been typeset by volunteers using the LilyPond^{xiv} software. The music available is based on editions that are in the public domain so copyright is not an issue. Most sheet music in The Mutopia Project is downloadable in PDF format as well as in LilyPond format. For this study, music was downloaded in PDF format and broken into bars manually using vector image processing software, in this case Microsoft Expression Design.

Where does a bar begin?

Each bar of music has an associated clef, key signature and time signature. When music is laid out on a page, the clef and key signature are drawn at the beginning of each horizontal line of music. A key signature will also be drawn in place in the music if/where a key change occurs. The time signature for a piece is drawn at the beginning of the piece, or where a change in time signature occurs. The time signature at the beginning of the piece is placed after the clef and key signature at the beginning of the first line.



Figure 13 Excerpt from String Quartet KV.458 (nr. 17) "Hunt" for 2 violins, viola and cello - W. A. Mozart. Source: Mutopia - http://www.mutopiaproject.org/cgibin/piece-info.cgi?id=277

As mentioned previously, a feature of the software designed as part of this research was to give the musician control of the scaling of bars. As bars are scaled up or down, the number of bars that will fit across a page/screen will change. This causes line breaks to occur in different places in the music than when originally typeset. The technique is akin to word wrapping in word processing software as the font size is changed. As line breaks change, the bars rendered at the beginning of each line will change. The requirement that the clef and key signature are rendered at the beginning of each line bars in which the clef and key signature are rendered at the bars in which the clef and key signature are rendered at the bars in which the clef and key signature are drawn. The exception for this is when there is a key change in a piece of music. The key change always happens in the same place musically and so the new key signature is always rendered as part of the same bar.

The developed software handled these cases thusly: each stored bar contains two separate **DrawingBrush** objects, one for the clef and key signature and one for the *musical content* of the bar. When the music is laid out, the system decides for each bar whether the clef and key signature should be rendered. If the bar being rendered is placed at the beginning of a line, or is the first bar in the piece using the attached key signature, then the key signature is drawn as well as the musical content. As the time signature is rendered only once, at the beginning of the first bar for which it applies, it will always be drawn in the same bar regardless of whether the music is reflowed. Even with line reflowing, it is safe to include the time signature as part of the *musical content* DrawingBrush for the first bar it is associated with. The preceding and proceeding bars of the piece need not store this piece of information.

Where does a bar end?

In a piece of sheet music written in modern notation, bars are divided by vertical lines called bar lines. There are three different types of bar line:

Bar line	Double bar line	Bold Double bar line
Separates bars (or	Separates two sections	Used at the end of a
measures)	of music. Used where a	movement or entire
	key signature or time	piece.
	signature changes	

The end of each bar of music is marked by one of the above bar lines. To split the music into individual bars, these lines determine the right hand edge (or end) of each bar.

Where bars are separated - Illustrative example

Figure 14, Figure 15 and Figure 16 illustrate how the boundaries of bars are chosen for two bars from the excerpt of music shown previously. The example bars shown are bar 1 and bar 8. The selections highlighted in dotted boxes (orange) represent the *musical content* portion of the stored bar. This *musical content* is stored along with the key signature, highlighted in a solid box (green), as the representation on one full bar.



Figure 14 Bar clipping boundaries

Bar 1

Bar 1 is the first bar of this movement. As it is the first bar, the time signature for the start of the movement is indicated at the beginning of this bar. The time signature must then be



Figure 15 Bar 1 - stored components

stored as part of the *musical content* of the bar for use in the developmental display system. The *musical content* of the bar is therefore created beginning from just before the time signature, and ending after the following bar line.

The key signature for the bar is stored as a separate **DrawingBrush** object within the bar object. The system can then decide whether or not to render the key signature before the bar. In this case, as the bar is at the beginning of a line, the key signature will be rendered.

Bar 8

Bar 8 shares the same time signature as all the previous bars in the piece. It is not necessary to render the time signature again at the beginning of bar 8 as the



Figure 16 Bar 8 - stored components

time signature in bar 1 is automatically applied to all following bars unless a time signature change occurs and is drawn. The *musical content* of bar 8 has no special information to include at the start, so the left hand boundary is taken as just following the end bar line of the previous bar (bar 7).

The right hand boundary illustrates another possible variation in bar line. In this case, the bar ends with a repeat sign. This tells the musician that at the end of this bar, they should jump back to an earlier point in the music and play to this point again. The end of the *musical content* of bar 8 is directly after the repeat sign.

Again, the key signature is stored as a separate **DrawingBrush** within the bar object. If the system was to display the piece of music laid out as in the excerpt shown previously, it would not be necessary to render the key signature as part of bar 8. If the music was reflowed though, to a point where bar 8 was at the beginning of a line, the key signature would be drawn.

Vertical Boundaries

The heights of bars within a piece of music can vary significantly. Though the height of the staff system is fixed, the vertical space required for a bar depends on what notes it includes and where any phrasing marks, dynamics or other symbols are placed. These may extend both above and below the staff lines (See Figure 17)Figure 17.





When breaking the music into bars, the vertical boundaries are defined so as to make the shortest possible block that contains all the symbols associated with that bar.

Aligning bars vertically

Breaking the music into bars as described, creates bar blocks of all different heights. These blocks need to be aligned by the display system so that the staff lines match up. This is important for the readability of the final sheet music displayed. With modern sheet music notation, the vertical position of notes in relation to the staff line defines the pitch that the note represents. If the staff lines themselves change vertical position between bars, then it becomes very difficult to read the music, as the height difference between notes in different bars across a page is no longer a consistent indicator of pitch change.

One solution to this alignment problem would be to force each bar block in the music to be the same fixed height, and to centre the staff lines within the created space. But how do you choose the height to use?
To ensure that the symbolic content of each bar will fit in the chosen bounds, the chosen height must fit the bar with the greatest extension above the staff lines and the bar with the greatest extension below the staff lines. The height of bars within a line of music dictates how much space must be left between consecutive lines on a page. If the bar height of every bar is maximized as described, the space between lines is also maximized. This may cause excessive white space between lines, reducing the number of lines of music that fit on screen at a time and increasing the number of page turns required when playing the piece.

The software developed as part of this research instead ensures that each line of music displayed uses the minimum amount of vertical space required to fit the bars of music that it contains. Rather than fixing the height of each bar to a predefined value calculated over the whole piece, each bar is created with the minimum possible bounding box that it can have with the staff lines centred vertically.

To do this some additional information is stored in the XAML representation of the bar. Recall that the XAML **DrawingBrush** representation is a scalable block representation of the bar content. It is just a series of paths defining the symbols (including the staff lines) that define a visual representation of the bar.

To alter this block representation to centre the staff lines, we need to know what height within the block the staff lines actually are. This is done by locating and tagging the path within the XAML **DrawingBrush** that represents the centre line of the staff system. When each bar is loaded by the software (by opening and parsing the associated XAML file), this centre line path is located by searching the XAML for its assigned name. The *y*-position of this centre line gives the necessary information to create the right sized bounding box for the bar and centring the content.

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To centre the bar content within the **DrawingBrush** object, we change the **ViewBox** for the **DrawingBrush**. The **ViewBox** property of the **DrawingBrush** defines what portion of the brush's content is used.

Original ViewBox

The **ViewBox** is defined as a **Rectangle** and its default size is the full size of the drawing.

X = 0, Y = 0



Height = brush.Drawing.Bounds.Height

Width = brush.Drawing.Bounds.Width

Bar Information

Using the information stored with each bar, we change the **ViewBox** to centre the middle staff line.



topY = 0



tagged in the XAML)

bottomY = brush.Drawing.Bounds.Height

Extended ViewBox



In this case, as the **topHalfHeight** of the bar was larger than the **bottomHalfHeight**, the **ViewBox** is simply extended by increasing its height to double the **topHalfHeight**. This centres the middle staff line within the bar block.

(If **bottomHalfHeight** was larger, the **ViewBox** would be extended upwards by setting **y** = **topHalfHeight** – **bottomHalfHeight**, and increasing the overall height of the view box to twice the **bottomHalfHeight**)

Bar blocks can then simply be centred vertically within each line of music and the staff lines for each bar will be aligned.



Figure 18 Bars 13 and 14 with extended ViewBoxes

Handling multiple parts

The vertical alignment technique described above is only suitable when the sheet music requires only one set of 5 staff lines. This is not always the case. Piano sheet music, for example, uses two five line staffs connected together. Another special case is the sheet music for a full score. A full score has one or more five line staves for each instrument or part in the piece. These parts are arranged vertically in a fixed order and are connected together through extended bar lines. The staff lines for each part need to line up across the page and simultaneous bars across different parts are stacked vertically. (See Figure 19)

We must therefore extend our concept of a bar to enable the storage and display of multiple parts on multiple sets of staff lines. Within the bar block, parts should be spaced so that each part aligns vertically across neighbouring bar blocks. Each neighbouring block as a whole should also line up with its neighbours. Spacing between lines of a full score should still be minimised so that the maximum amount of music can be displayed on screen at a time.



Figure 19 Sample full score layout

Existing bar information

- One DrawingBrush for each part with default ViewBox (Shown in blue)
- MidLineHeight for each part is known
- Order of parts is known



Desired result



The complete block should have this content centred with minimal space above and below to minimise overall line spacing In order to achieve the desired spacing between parts, the experimental software system uses a fixed value for spacing. This spacing is hard coded to 60 pixels for the piece of music below. This spacing may not be suitable for every piece of music, but works well for the sample chosen. Future development of this software should include creating a test to determine the best spacing between parts in any given score.

Once the desired spacing is determined, the current system works through the part **DrawingBrushes** from the top down, setting their **ViewBoxes** to fill the required space. Between parts, the part above is allocated as much space below its staff system as it requires. The part below is the allocated any remaining space to ensure that the total space from mid-staff line to mid-staff line is equal to the chosen spacing. This again is not an ideal solution as the **topHalfHeight** of the part below may require more space than it is allocated.

Spacing set between parts

Below, the original **ViewBoxes** for the **DrawingBrushes** for each part are shown in blue. The new **ViewBox** boundaries are indicated by the dotted orange boxes.



Centre the complete score bar block

The entire score bar block is then centred within the line by extending either the top margin of the top part's **ViewBox**, or the bottom margin of the bottom part's **ViewBox**. This is similar to the centring of a single part bar described earlier except that instead of centring the mid-staff line, we centre all the content between the mid-line of the first part and the mid-line of the last part. In this case, the bottom margin of the last part in the score is extended to match the larger top margin of the first part.



The score bar can then be rendered by the software centred vertically as part of a horizontal line of music and each part within it will align nicely with its neighbours. The spacing between lines of music is again minimised. Figure 21 shows two complete lines of a four part score. The final **ViewBox** bounds for each bar are shown in orange. Even if the lines of music were to be reflowed, the careful centring of each score bars' content ensures that the staff lines of each part would still align correctly.

Key signatures

Each bar of each part has an associated key signature. As previously mentioned, this key signature is stored as a separate DrawingBrush alongside the musical content DrawingBrush for the bar. Each time the music is reflowed, each bar block decides whether or not it needs to render its key signature.

When multiple parts are being displayed simultaneously and a key signature needs to be displayed, for each part, the *Key* **DrawingBrush** and *Musical* Content DrawingBrush are first aligned with each other to become a **singlePartBlock**. Then the blocks for each part are stacked together as described previously into the complete score block.

The result of this is that where key signatures are rendered, they are included in the score block of the following bar of musical content. They are not created as a separate vertical score block. (See the first bar of each line in Figure 21 for examples of score blocks containing key signatures.



Key

Signature

The structure of a score bar block

Musical

Content

Key

Signature

Figure 20 Structure of a score block with three parts

Musical

Content

Key

Signature

Musical

Content

Score blocks laid out in lines



Figure 21 Two lines of full score. Final bar block bounds (ViewBoxes) for each part are indicated in orange

The XAML bar creation process

The XAML bar creation process can be summarized in the following 10 steps:

1. Original musical score is taken in PDF format

The sheet music is loaded from the score rather than individual parts to ensure that if multiple parts are to be displayed simultaneously by the system, simultaneous bars are the same width for each part. In individual printed parts (as opposed to full score representation), note spacing within bars is optimised to fit the maximum amount of music across a page for that part. This means that the width of any one bar in a piece of music varies from part to part.

- 2. Each page of the musical score is converted to AI format. AI is the format used by Adobe Illustrator,^{xv} a vector drawing application created by Adobe. It is a variation of the PDF format. Microsoft Expression Design is able to import AI files but not PDF, though the actual data representation is very similar, and converting a PDF file to an AI file can, in most cases, be done by simply renaming a PDF file with the *.ai* extension.
- 3. AI file is imported into Microsoft Expression Design.



Figure 22 One page of a score imported into Microsoft Expression Design

The individual bar's image content clipped from the score.
 Bar content is decided on (as described previously) and cut and pasted into its own Expression Design File (*.design* extension). The image size at this point is the minimum possible to fit the content of the bar.



Figure 23 Copy the content of each bar into its own separate document

1. Parts are separated.

Each part within the score is cut and pasted into its own *layer* within the document. Each layer is named with its associated part name from within Expression Design.



Figure 24 Violin 1 layer content selected

1. Bar is Exported as XAML.

Document is exported as a *XAML WPF Resource Dictionary*, grouped by Layers. This means that each layer in the document is exported as a separate **DrawingBrush**. As each layer within the document contains the musical content for a different part, the resulting XAML file contains a separate **DrawingBrush** definition for each part. Each **DrawingBrush** within the **ResourceDictionary** is named in the XAML with the name of the layer that it represents (which should be the name of the part it represents). Each part has its own **DrawingBrush** to allow the software the flexibility to render any subset of the parts in the piece. The resulting collection of **DrawingBrushes** are exported inside a **ResourceDictionary** object.



Figure 25 Exporting bar as a XAML WPF Resource Dictionary grouped by Layers

The resulting XAML file:

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<ResourceDictionary
xmlns="http://schemas.microsoft.com/winfx/2006/xaml/presentation"
xmlns:x="http://schemas.microsoft.com/winfx/2006/xaml">
 <DrawingBrush x:Key="Cello" Stretch="Uniform">
  <DrawingBrush.Drawing>
   ... [Code excluded here - Geometry of the Cello part for the bar]
  </DrawingBrush.Drawing>
 </DrawingBrush>
 <DrawingBrush x:Key="Viola" Stretch="Uniform">
  <DrawingBrush.Drawing>
   ... [Code excluded here - Geometry of the Viola part for the bar]
  </DrawingBrush.Drawing>
 </DrawingBrush>
 <DrawingBrush x:Key="Violin2" Stretch="Uniform">
  <DrawingBrush.Drawing>
   ... [Code excluded here - Geometry of the Violin 2 part for the bar]
  </DrawingBrush.Drawing>
 </DrawingBrush>
 <DrawingBrush x:Key="Violin1" Stretch="Uniform">
  <DrawingBrush.Drawing>
   ... [Code excluded here - Geometry of the Violin 1 part for the bar]
  </DrawingBrush.Drawing>
 </DrawingBrush>
</ResourceDictionary>
```

1. Mid-staff line is identified and labelled.

The XAML file is edited to identify the middle staff line in each **DrawingBrush**. This involves manually searching through the geometry of each drawing and finding the **GeometryDrawing** component for the middle line. The staff lines are usually easy to spot within the XAML as their geometrical information is very simple compared to the note heads and other pieces of the music in the bar. Once the correct **GeometryDrawing** component is located, it is given a name so that it can be searched for and found by the application when the XAML file is parsed. The following is the portion of the previous XAML file representing the Cello part layer alone. The middle staff line is labelled by adding the property **x:Name="CellomidLine"** to the **GeometryDrawing** object.

```
<DrawingBrush x:Key="Cello" Stretch="Uniform">
  <DrawingBrush.Drawing>
   <DrawingGroup>
    <DrawingGroup.Children>
     <GeometryDrawing Brush="#FF000000"
                                     Geometry="F1 M 2.55963e-005,244.037L
     113,244.037L 113,243.497L 2.55963e-005,243.497L 2.55963e-005,244.037 Z "/>
     <GeometryDrawing Brush="#FF000000"
                                     Geometry="F1 M 2.55963e-005,238.704L
113,238.704L 113,238.164L 2.55963e-005,238.164L 2.55963e-005,238.704 Z "/>
     <GeometryDrawing x:Name="CellomidLine"
                        Brush="#FF000000"
                     Geometry="F1 M 2.55963e-005,233.37L 113,233.37L 113,232.83L
                               2.55963e-005,232.83L 2.55963e-005,233.37 Z "/>
     <GeometryDrawing Brush="#FF000000"
                                     Geometry="F1 M 2.55963e-005,228.17L
113,228.17L 113,227.63L 2.55963e-005,227.63L 2.55963e-005,228.17 Z "/>
     <GeometryDrawing Brush="#FF000000"
                                     Geometry="F1 M 2.55963e-005,222.837L
113,222.837L 113,222.297L 2.55963e-005,222.297L 2.55963e-005,222.837 Z "/>
        ... [Code excluded here - Geometry for the remaining music content]
     <GeometryDrawing.Pen>
       <Pen Thickness="0.63761" LineJoin="Round" Brush="#FF000000"/>
      </GeometryDrawing.Pen>
     </GeometryDrawing>
    </DrawingGroup.Children>
   </DrawingGroup>
  </DrawingBrush.Drawing>
 </DrawingBrush>
```

4. Final adjustments made to XAML file so that is can be loaded and parsed at runtime within the WPF application.

It turns out that loading a **ResourceDictionary** from a file at runtime within a WPF application does not work as nicely as expected. In order to make loading and parsing work, this **ResourceDictionary** needs to be contained within a WPF Window object.

Loading and parsing XAML in a WPF application uses the built in XamlReader object. The XamlReader takes a XAML file, reads it, parses it and builds the appropriate object graph. When the root object of the XAML file is a Window object, the XamlReader returns a Window object. In WPF, each Window has a local

ResourceDictionary called *Resources*. Wrapping our exported **ResourceDictionary** in a **Window** object means we can access it easily and search for items within it using two helpful methods:

object FindResource(string key);

This method searches for a resource with a given key. This is used to find the individual **DrawingBrushes** within the XAML file. The **DrawingBrush** objects are labelled using the property:

x:Key="[_PartName_]"

In this case, the method will return a **DrawingBrush** object

object FindName(string name);

This method searches through an object's XAML definition to find any sub-element with the passed name. This is used in to find the **GeometryDrawing** (or path) within each **DrawingBrush** that represents the middle line of the staff for that bar. The middle line of each staff is labelled using the property:

x:Name="[_PartName_]midLine"

In this case, the method will return a **GeometryDrawing** object, from which the line's height within the bar block can be determined.

The completed XAML file for one bar of music (... represents excluded

geometry content):

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
< Window
xmlns="http://schemas.microsoft.com/winfx/2006/xaml/presentation"
xmlns:x="http://schemas.microsoft.com/winfx/2006/xaml">
  <Window.Resources>
   <DrawingBrush x:Key="Cello" Stretch="Uniform">
    <DrawingBrush.Drawing>
           <GeometryDrawing x:Name="CellomidLine"
                              Brush="#FF000000"
                              Geometry="F1 M 2.55963e-005,233.37L
                              113,233.37L 113,232.83L 2.55963e-
                              005,232.83L 2.55963e-005,233.37 Z "/>
    </DrawingBrush.Drawing>
   </DrawingBrush>
   <DrawingBrush x:Key="Viola" Stretch="Uniform">
    <DrawingBrush.Drawing>
                   . . .
           <GeometryDrawing x:Name="ViolamidLine"
                              Brush="#FF000000"
                              Geometry="F1 M 2.55963e-005,164.97L
                              113,164.97L 113,164.43L 2.55963e-
                              005,164.43L 2.55963e-005,164.97 Z "/>
         . . .
    </DrawingBrush.Drawing>
   </DrawingBrush>
   <DrawingBrush x:Key="Violin2" Stretch="Uniform">
    <DrawingBrush.Drawing>
           <GeometryDrawing x:Name="Violin2midLine"
                              Brush="#FF000000"
                              Geometry="F1 M 2.55963e-005,98.9704L
                              113,98.9704L 113,98.4304L 2.55963e-
                              005,98.4304L 2.55963e-005,98.9704 Z "/>
    </DrawingBrush.Drawing>
   </DrawingBrush>
   <DrawingBrush x:Key="Violin1" Stretch="Uniform">
    <DrawingBrush.Drawing>
           <GeometryDrawing x:Name="Violin1midLine"
                              Brush="#FF000000"
                              Geometry="F1 M 2.55963e-005,30.5704L
                              113,30.5704L 113,30.0304L 2.55963e-
                              005,30.0304L 2.55963e-005,30.5704 Z "/>
        . . .
   </DrawingBrush.Drawing>
   </DrawingBrush>
  </Window.Resources>
</Window>
```

5. Final XAML file named and saved.

The complete XAML file is then named bar*x*.XAML where *x* is its bar number (position within the piece) and is ready to be loaded by the software.

6. Software system loads the finished XAML bars.

Each bar is loaded, ordered by bar number, into the software and the vertical spacing is performed as described previously to ensure that each bar lines up properly.

Key signatures



Every key signature in the piece of music must also be created and saved to a XAML file. The process for clipping out and saving a key signature is the same as that for the musical content of the bar.



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As with the bars' musical content XAML files, the file for each key will contain a separate **DrawingBrush** definition for each part within the score.

To attach each key signature to each bar that it applies to, the key should store two additional pieces of information: the bar numbers of the first and last bars that it applies to. This information should be added to the XAML file for the key, however the current experimental system has this information hard coded for the chosen sample of music.

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Automation of the XAML bar creation process

Taking a preformatted piece of music and breaking it into bars with image processing software is a labour intensive way of getting XAML bars. It would be much better if there was a way of exporting music from a composition or typesetting application like Sibelius^{xvi}, Finale^{xvii} or LilyPond (Nienhuys and Nieuwenhuizen 2003). This would greatly reduce the overhead in importing music into the system.

Applications like these already know where individual bars begin and end as they have full understanding of the musical content as it is entered.

Perhaps the most interesting option here, for experimental and development purposes, is to investigate creating a XAML exporter for LilyPond. LilyPond is free, open source music engraving program that creates high quality, aesthetically pleasing sheet music (LilyPond Development Team 2011). LilyPond is primarily a text based sheet music creator, but since its conception development of several visual and more user friendly score editing tools has taken place.^{xviii}

LilyPond creates music in PDF format. The PDFs created contain a vector based representation of the typeset music. It should be possible to programmatically extract the geometric path information that defines the final music and mould it into XAML for use with a WPF sheet music display as developed here. The existing LilyPond system would do all the hard work of laying out the music, a XAML exporter would just need to reformat the final exported paths into DrawingBrush objects for use with WPF.

An added benefit to linking in with LilyPond is that LilyPond is the format used to typeset all the sheet music contributed to the The Mutopia Project. Since there is already a wide collection of public domain sheet music that is already in LilyPond format, this could be instantly converted for use in a WPF system.

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4.4 Fluid Layout

Once all the bars of music are loaded by the software, they are laid out in order onto the screen. The system creates lines of music, fitting as many bars across the page as possible and then stacking these lines in order down the screen. As the display window is resized, lines reflow to fit the available space.





Figure 26 Music reflows to fill page width

As shown in Figure 26, each line fits as many bars as music as possible based on the width of the application window. The music is tidily aligned along the left hand edge but not at the right hand edge. The uneven lengths of the lines of music is due to the fact that the bars are all different sizes. The original piece of music, from which the individual bars above were cut and exported, was typeset by LilyPond to fit cleanly on an A4 page. The LilyPond system decided on the size of each bar and spacing of the notes within to justify the music perfectly on the page. Figure 27 shows the tidy justification of the original score PDF.





Figure 28 demonstrates the best alignment possible in the experimental software system. In this example, only the *Violin 1* part is displayed rather than the complete score. By showing only one part, more lines of music fit vertically on the page, demonstrating the line justification more clearly.



Figure 28 Violin 1 part displayed in experimental software system with application window width set to approx A4 size

As shown, by resizing the application window to fit the same number of bars per line as the original score, the lines of music align more evenly. There is still some variation in line width due to inaccuracies of the bar importing procedure. The part names down the left hand side of the original score are also missing from this representation, meaning that the indentation of the first line of music is different.

This untidy justification of the sheet music may be distracting to musicians as it is differs from what they are used to:

"Sheet music is performance material: everything is done to aid the musician in letting her perform better, and anything that is unclear or unpleasant to read is a hindrance." (LilyPond Development Team 2011)

The prime novelty in the display system developed as part of this research is the idea that music displayed at any scale could be reflowed to make use of the available screen size. Ideally the system should be capable of aligning the music nicely no matter what the width of the application window is, or the magnification of the music. It was therefore necessary to investigate some possible ways of improving the line justification in the developed software system.

Force each bar to be the same width

If each bar was always a fixed width then line alignment would work automatically. There are several problems with this approach; firstly, the music created would have a regular, mechanical feel that is not necessarily desirable. If the spacing of the music is so regular, the lines of music may begin to look very similar. This can make it difficult for the musician to keep track of their place when glancing to and from the music.(LilyPond Development Team 2011)

Secondly, in order to control the widths of bars of music, the system would need to understand the musical content of each bar. Deciding on the horizontal positioning of notes and symbols within bars of music is a complicated process (Blostein and Haken 1991), and lies outside the scope of this research project.

The LilyPond software has already done the hard work of typesetting and aligning the notes and symbols within each bar of music. A large amount of research and development has gone into the LilyPond system to ensure that the music output is aesthetically pleasing, and mimics the finest hand-engraved scores. Re-structuring this carefully laid out music would, we argue, be a step backwards.

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Magnify complete lines of music to fill any leftover space

Another approach to removing the jagged line alignment at the right hand edge of the page is to force each line to fill the entire width of the page by scaling. Figure 29 below shows the result of scaling up each line to fit the width of the application window.

As shown again, some window sizes produce tidier results than others. With this particular music sample the difference in magnification levels between lines in the wide window is almost unnoticeable. In the narrow window example, however, there is a clear difference between lines 1 and 2. Line 2 is heavily magnified compared to line 1 and the resulting page of music looks unusual and "bulgy".



Figure 29 Music reflowed to fit page with each line scaled to fill all remaining space

This variation in zoom levels between lines may or may not be an issue to musicians trying to read the sheet music displayed. Some user testing is necessary to determine whether musicians could cope with the magnification changes present here or would prefer to read un-justified music.

The visibility of line magnification differences is widely variable between different window sizes. It may turn out that when the window width is set to that preferred by the musician for reading purposes; the differences are barely noticeable at all.

It is interesting to note that during development of the software system, during demonstrations of other features of the software to colleagues in the lab environment, the magnification levels of the lines was not often commented on. People did not seem to notice the variation until it was pointed out.

4.5 Score Personalization

An important goal of this research was to experiment with a touch screen interface to determine whether the implementation of the desired features of a digital music stand were practical in that technology.

Once the underlying data structure and music loading procedure was in place, it was possible to experiment with a number of interesting controls and features that would not be possible with a printed score. Using some or all of these tools, musicians should be able to personalize their view of a piece of music in a whole new way.

This section describes the features and controls that become possible due to the way that the musical data is divided and stored. Some of these features were fully implemented in the sample application, while others were only discussed or partially implemented.

Choosing display size

Storing sheet music in vector format gives the freedom to play with display scale. Musicians could not only set the overall display size of their music, but also change the magnification on a bar by bar basis. For example, a musician could enlarge a section of music with which they have particular trouble, to make it easier to read, or simply draw their attention to the fact that they need to practice that part.



Figure 30 Section of music magnified

Scale gesture

In the sample application shown in Figure 30, individual bars were scaled up using a two fingered pinch gesture as illustrated below in Figures 31, 32 and 33. To shrink a bar back to normal size, this pinch gesture is reversed.

The implementation illustrated in these figures scales the manipulated bar to a preset magnification level. The user could be given more control of this final magnification level by changing the way the application responds to the pinch gesture as follows:

In the pictured example, the distance the user drags their fingers apart is tested until it reaches a certain threshold. Once it passes that threshold the system scales the bar to a fixed magnification. Alternatively, the distance between the users fingers could be used to determine the magnification level; i.e. the further apart the user drags their fingers, the more the bar is zoomed.



Figure 31 Start Pinch Gesture - Touch bar with two fingers



Figure 32 Pinch out gesture - Move fingers apart



Figure 33 When pinch distance reaches threshold, bar is scaled up

The problem with this approach is that when it comes to zooming multiple bars, it is difficult to zoom each by the same amount. If zoomed bars are next to each other, small differences in magnification level cause the staff lines to look misaligned. Figure 34 illustrates the problem; though the middle staff line still lines up between bars, the other staff lines do not.



Figure 34 Consecutive bars at slightly different magnifications

This problem could be solved in part, by allowing multiple bars to be magnified at the same time with the same pinch gesture. Users would have to first select all the bars that they wanted to manipulate and then change the magnification of all of these bars with a pinch gesture or something similar. That way, all the magnified bars would be zoomed to exactly the extent and their staff lies would align.

Another option would be to have a discrete set of magnification levels that the bar snapped between, rather than smoothly scaling up. This would make it easier to manually match each bar with its neighbours.

Reflowing around scaled bars

As bars are scaled up and down, the number of bars that fit across the page changes. This makes it necessary to reflow the music to ensure that no music is lost off the edge of the page, or that any extra space gained at the end of each line is filled.

There are two options to use when this reflow occurs: music can be reflowed live, while the user is still interacting with the screen and changing the magnification level, or it can be done after the zoom action is completed.

If the music is reflowed live, the user gains instant feedback on how their modification affects the layout of the entire page. Though this ties in nicely with the intended "fluidity" of the interface, in practice it is distracting. As the user changes the magnification of one bar, all the music that follows it is constantly in motion as bars jump from line to line and complete lines scale slightly to justify themselves on the page. In the worst case, the bar being manipulated may even move under the users fingers.

With the second option, the user still receives instant feedback on their manipulation: the bar they are manipulating zooms live beneath their fingers and the rest of the bars in the same line are pushed sideways to make room. They just do not get to see the affect that their changes have on the remaining lines of the music until they finish their zoom action. It is at this point, when they have finished zooming and removed their fingers from the screen, that the music reflows around the newly scaled bar.

After experimenting with both options, it was decided that reflowing after the user had finished their zoom gesture was preferable. Restricting movement to the line of the bar being manipulated makes the interface feel responsive, without distracting the users' with too much movement far away from the active manipulation area.

Moving and hiding sections of music

Changing where page turns occur

As described, music in the developed system is stored as an ordered list of bars. This structure is analogous to that of a text document, which can be thought of as an ordered list of words. Word processor software provides tools to change the layout of a text document without changing the ordering of the words, and therefore not changing the overall meaning, by allowing adjustment of white space (indenting and spacing), line breaks and page breaks. Adding similar tools to the developed sheet music display software would give musicians control of how many bars are displayed on each page and therefore control of where page turns occur in a piece of music. This was not implemented.

Marking cuts and compiling arrangements

Sometimes individual musicians or groups of musicians cut or rearrange sections of pieces to better suit performance constraints. In an orchestral situation, if the conductor decides to restructure a piece, for example by cutting a section, this information must be then passed on to each individual musician. Small changes can be written in by the musicians themselves, but more complex restructuring is often completed in advance by an orchestras' music archivist team before the individual parts are distributed to the orchestral players. Such complex tasks often involve copying, cutting and pasting together of portions of sheet music and even handwriting long passages. This can take many hours or even weeks to complete (Bellini, Fioravanti and Nesi 1999).

In the developed system music is stored bar by bar for every part. Tools could be developed to allow construction or arrangement of a piece of music by reordering or removing bars or combining portions of different parts. This could help to speed up the music archivist teams' processes, cutting down delays in getting parts to musicians to begin practicing.

Physical scores that have been cut and pasted together by hand, as described above, may lose some of the formatting niceties that were present in the original sheet music. Music typesetters make effort, when laying out music for printing, to position page turns in appropriate places and to justify music pleasingly on the page. When bits and pieces of parts are moved around, this careful formatting is altered. The music layout and reflow systems in the software developed here could produce a tidier final product than manually manipulating pieces of printed music. With the addition of the other score personalisation features described in this section, the musician that received the final arranged part to play also has control over the final layout and so can manipulate it to best suit them.

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One limitation of the current system in this area is that it cannot support transposition of portions of music, as the system has no musical understanding. Rearrangement would be limited to that which could be done with the bars of each part in their original keys.

Adding cues or display complete score

When playing music in a group or ensemble, it is often helpful to know when and what the other members of the group are playing. This information can be found by looking at the complete score of a piece, rather than the individual parts. Reading from a full score is not always practical, however. As the score contains all the music for all the parts in the ensemble, less music fits on each page and hence the music is spread over more pages, requiring more page turns.

The full score may hold a lot more information than the musician wishes to see. They may only be interested in how one specific part interacts with their own. Or it may be that for the majority of a piece, the musician is mainly interested in their own part and only wants the additional information from others part over a short section of the music. For example, orchestral musicians often handwrite cues onto their music (Winget 2006) reminding them what another part is playing leading into, or alongside some section of their music.

Using the software system developed as part of this research, choosing to display any subset of the parts in a piece is simple. As described in the previous chapter, each bar of music is cut and exported from a copy of the full score. The **DrawingBrush** data for each part for that bar of music is exported as a layer inside the same XAML file. This means that each XAML bar file contains all the information required to display the music for any or all parts. The system need just be told which parts to display. This can be done on piece wide or individual bar level.

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In the current system the subset of parts displayed is chosen for the entire piece when the application starts up. This could be modified to be set bar by bar, though some more work around vertical alignment of the bars would need to be done to ensure that staff alignment worked between bars showing different collections of parts.

Figure 35 is a mock up screenshot of the system displaying an extra part above only three consecutive bars rather than the whole piece. In this case, The Violin 2 part is shown for the whole section and the Violin 1 part is added over bars 9, 10 and 11. It is important that the staff lines for the main part (in this case Violin 2) remain aligned through the whole piece so the musician knows which music to play for any given bar. It may also help to display the extra part in a lighter colour to indicate that it is a cue.



Figure 35 Section of Violin 2 part with Violin 1 part displayed over three bars Adding this feature to the system would remove the need for musicians to add handwritten cues to their music. Using the data already stored in the system ensures that cues are created in the correct place and the horizontal alignment of the cued notes against the main part is accurate. This could make the digital, printed cues more helpful in understanding the relationship between the parts than handwritten ones.
4.6 Some ideas on page turning

Any digital music stand system needs to support page turning in some way. As previous research has shown, simply providing musicians with a scrolling interface is not satisfactory (Bell, et al. 2005).

In this research, no attempt was made to experiment with automatic page turning triggers or systems. Instead, it was decided to take advantage of the graphics and animation features available in WPF to create visualisations of page turning actions. Visualisations and animations are important in letting the musician know when and how they have moved through their musical score, particularly if page turns are to be triggered remotely.

Visualisation options

In the developed system all page turn visualisations are triggered manually by touching and dragging on screen. An external source, such as a foot pedal or networked command, could be setup to trigger the page turn action, but the focus of this research was on creating the visualisations themselves.

The visualisations created take advantage of the large, 21.5" monitor used in the experimental setup. The monitor used was roughly the same size as an orchestral music stand. This meant that it was possible to comfortably display two, approximately A4 sized, digital pages of music side by side. The sheet music displayed was structured as a digital representation of a physical score. Music is flowed across digital pages which are arranged on screen to mimic the way that printed pages of music would sit on a physical music stand.

Three visualisations were created. The underlying WPF controls for these visualisations are based on the open source WPF Book Control by Furuta (Furuta 2008). For each, the digital pages of music were arranged in a way that a printed score could be set up on a physical music stand.

Booklet

This technique handles the musical score as though it were printed and bound into a booklet. Each digital page has music printed on both sides. Two pages of music are displayed at a time. Turning a page causes both old pages to be covered with the next two pages in the booklet. (See Figure 36)



Figure 36 Page turning, Booklet visualisation

Paper Stack

In the Paper Stack scenario the pages of the score are arranged in two side by side stacks on the screen. To start with, all the digital pages are on the right hand stack. Each page has music on one side only. When the user wants to reveal more music, they drag the top page off the right hand stack and slide it across on top of the left hand stack.



Figure 37 Page turning, Paper Stack visualisation

Each time a page is turned (shifted between stacks), the old left hand page of music is covered by the old right hand page of music, and one new page is revealed from underneath the old right hand page. (See Figure 37)

With this system, while playing a piece, users could perform a page turn before they have reached the end of the right hand page, as the old right hand page is still visible on the left stack after the page turn has occurred. This may make it possible to choose a point to turn the page that is less disruptive to playing the music.

Paper Strip

The Paper Strip page turn is very similar to the Paper Stack. The only difference is that instead of the new page being revealed from beneath the old right hand page, it is instead animated in from the right hand side. It is as if the left edge of the new page is connected to the right edge of the page being dragged. (See Figure 38)



Figure 38 Page turning, Paper Strip visualisation

The benefit of animating the new page in like this is that if the user was performing a quick page turn as they reached the end of the right hand page, while the page turn is taking place, the beginning of the new page is at no stage partially covered by the page being dragged out of the way. This means that the musician can see the next bar of music to play next as quickly as possible.

Initiating a page turn

For all three visualisations, page turns are triggered by touching and dragging on a portion of the page to be turned (or slid aside). Once the moving page is dragged across the screen by more than 30% of the width of a page, the user can remove their finger from the screen and the page turn animation will complete automatically.

If the user removes their finger before reaching the 15% threshold then the page turn is cancelled and the turning page will animate back into its original place.

Turning back pages works similarly but in reverse. Users touch the left hand page and drag it back across to the right.

Animation speed

The speed of the page turn animation is controlled by the speed of the drag motion made by the user. This enables the user to *flick* a page over quickly or slowly drag it into place depending on how time sensitive the page turn is in the music.

If the page turns were to be triggered by an external source, such as foot pedal or networked command, a suitable default speed would be used.

Chapter 5 - Supporting Annotation

A major part of this research project was to develop and integrate an annotation system with which musicians can satisfactorily create all of the annotations that they do on standard paper scores. This chapter discusses the underlying tools used to support annotation in the software as well as interface features developed to make it easier for the user to create quality musical annotations.

5.1 Digital Ink

Supporting touch input in the form of freeform sketches or handwritten text is the underlying functionality of an annotation system. Input of this form is known as Digital Ink. Digital Ink can be run through handwriting recognition algorithms and converted to text, or can be stored as sets of strokes which are in turn stored as collections of points.

Microsoft has offered .NET development tools for applications using pen input in the form of digital ink since the 2002 release of Windows XP Tablet Edition the associated Software Development Kit.^{xix} The tools for creating, storing and manipulating digital ink now come built in to WPF. These, combined with touch support, give WPF all the necessary tools for creating a touch-based annotation system over our experimental sheet music display software system.

5.2 Storing annotations across bars

As explained in the previous chapter, sheet music displayed in the experimental software system is broken up into bar sized blocks. These bar blocks are designed to be resized and reflowed on screen at the whim of the user. Annotations made on music in this format must also be free to resize and reflow so that it remains attached to the content that it was initially drawn on. It

is therefore necessary to store annotations on a bar by bar basis, the same as the underlying music.

To do this with WPF a control layer was added on top of each bar object, this became the annotation layer. This annotation layer is responsible for accepting touch input, and creating and storing digital ink.

Annotatable Music Structure

With the addition of annotatable overlays on each score block, the final music has this underlying structure:



WPF Ink Canvas

The simplest way to add *digital ink* support to a WPF application is to use the built in **InkCanvas** control. An **InkCanvas** is a user interface control that creates a space that can be drawn on using mouse, stylus or touch input. From this input, ink **Strokes** are created and stored. Creating an **InkCanvas** on top of each score bar in the music then allows users to draw on each bar as shown in **Error! Reference source not found.**



Figure 39 Annotations created on InkCanvas overlays

The blue annotations have been sketched on top of the music using the touch screen. The highlighted bars are those that have registered touch events. Each annotation is stored within the **InkCanvas** overlay associated with the bar that it was sketched on top of.

There is one issue with this approach: the **InkCanvas** control does not allow annotations to be drawn continuously across multiple bars. Figure 40 shows two examples where annotations are prevented from running between bars. In both cases the **InkCanvas** layer on bar 11 registers the user's touch and creates annotation strokes appropriately. Once the user crosses the boundary into bar 12, however, bar 11 remains in control of all touch events, preventing bar 12 from receiving notification that the user it now trying to draw on its **InkCanvas**.



Figure 40 Annotation Clipping 1

This clipping is not appropriate for a music annotation system. Annotations like slurs, crescendos and phrasing marks often cover multiple bars. With the above system, musicians would have to draw such annotations in multiple pieces.

One option to remedy this situation is to set the **ClipToBounds** property of each **InkCanvas** object to *false*. The **InkCanvas** will then allow sketched strokes to continue past its boundaries. This means musicians could start an annotation in one bar and sketch continuous strokes into neighbouring bars. The complete annotation would be stored entirely in the **InkCanvas** of the bar in which the touch event was initiated.



Figure 41 Annotation on an InkCanvas with ClipToBounds off

Figure 41 shows a crescendo annotation drawn starting in bar 19, moving over the left hand boundary into bar 18 and back into bar 19 again. As the green highlighting shows, only bar 19 registered any touch events during the drawing of the annotation. The final appearance of the annotation is what was desired, and the action required to draw it is the same as if it were drawn with pencil on paper. The issue here comes when the window is resized and the music is reflowed.



Figure 42 Reflowed annotation on an InkCanvas

When the music is reflowed, bar 19 moves onto a new line. The entire crescendo annotation moves with bar 19 as it is stored on the **InkCanva**s belonging to bar 19. The crescendo hairpin annotation was originally placed to indicate a crescendo beginning in bar 18. That information is now lost. In this particular example, the result is not too bad, but if the hairpin crescendo annotation had covered three or more bars for example, having the entire annotation attached to bar 19 would be even more destructive when the music reflowed. Ideally, when the music is reflowed, any annotation that spans a line break should break into pieces along the bar boundaries and each piece should stay attached to the bar that it was drawn over.

What is needed here is a tileable **InkCanvas** control. Once an area is covered with such tiles, users should be able to sketch over the entire area creating continuous curves, without clipping occurring between tiles. The sketched curves should then be stored broken into pieces across the underlying boundaries. This could, in principle, be achieved by modifying the way the **InkCanvas** control responds to touch events. Forcing the **InkCanvas** to release touch focus when the user's finger leaves its boundaries, and grab focus again when the user's finger re-enters its boundaries should allow touch events to pass between neighbouring **InkCanvas** controls, creating and breaking stokes as desired.

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The **InkCanvas** object itself if complex, however, with multiple layers responsible for different things. The **InkCanvas** supports drawing strokes and erasing complete or partial strokes as well as applying styling and formatting the strokes themselves. The components of the **InkCanvas** object that are responsible for ink rendering are:

InkCanvas

- -WPF control that sits in the application UI
- Maintains a list of input strokes recieved from the DynamicRenderer
- Passes stroke information to the InkPresenter
- Responds to initial touch events



The underlying layers of the **InkCanvas** object manipulate and respond to touch events and focus. Simply forcing changes to touch focus on the **InkCanvas** control on touch enter and touch exit events did not generate the expected behaviour. Touch focus seems to be handled too deeply within the **InkCanvas** control to make it easily customisable to the desired use. It was therefore necessary to develop a completely custom ink control layer to use in the experimental software system.

Custom Ink Control

The custom Ink Control created for the developed software system is a much cut down version of the built in **InkControl**. The custom ink control created maintains a list of **Stroke** objects which are rendered using an

InkPresenter object. The complication of the **DynamicRender** is removed as well as most of the **Stroke** erasing and styling functionality of the original **InkControl**.

Each control maintains a list of complete **Stroke** objects as well as a collection of **TouchPoints** representing the stroke that is currently being drawn. A **TouchPoint** object stores the 2D location within the current control at which a touch occurred, as well as information about the **TouchDevice** involved. The **TouchDevice** information makes it possible to track multiple touches on the screen simultaneously.

The custom tileable ink control works by responding to four of the WPF touch events as follows:

TouchEnter

This is when a new Stroke should be created. It is triggered when the current touch point is moved into the control, i.e. a touch started outside the control is dragged across a boundary into the control. This event is also triggered when the user initiates a touch within the boundaries of the control.

- Start collecting touch points for a new stroke
- Get the latest **TouchPoint** and store it in the current Stroke's **TouchPointCollection**
- Create a new stroke in the InkPresenter using this
 TouchPointCollection
- Grab Control of all events associated with this **TouchDevice**.

TouchMove

This is where the current Stroke is updated with any new **TouchPoints** that have been registered. This event is triggered when a touch point within the control is moved.

At this point it is also necessary to test if the current **Stroke** has hit the boundary of the control. This is because the order in which touch events are called between consecutive controls is not reliable. If the **TouchEntered** event of the neighbouring control is triggered before the **TouchLeave** event of this control, capture of the **TouchDevice** will not yet have been released, meaning the passing of touch capture between these neighbouring controls will not occur as expected. By testing on each **TouchMove** event for a touch nearing or crossing the boundary of the control, we can pre-emptively release touch capture, preventing the above situation from occurring.

- Check that there is a current **Stroke** being created
- Add any new TouchPoints to the current Stroke by adding them to the current TouchPointCollection
- Remove the old version of this **Stroke** from the **InkPresenter**.
- Tell the InkPresenter to store the new version of the Stroke. This creates a new Stroke in the InkPresenter from the current
 TouchPointCollection.

Check if the latest **TouchPoint** has reached the controls' boundaries.
 If it has:

- Finish off and store the current **Stroke** in the **InkPresenter**
- Release control of all touch events associated with this
 TouchDevice

TouchUp

This represents the completion of a **Stroke** object. It is triggered when the user removes their finger from the screen within the boundaries of the control.

- Check that there is a current **Stroke** being created
- Add any new TouchPoints to the current Stroke by adding them to the TouchPointCollection
- Remove the old version of this **Stroke** from the **InkPresenter**.
- Tell the **InkPresenter** to store the complete **Stroke**. This creates a new **Stroke** from the current **TouchPointCollection**.
- Release control of all touch events associated with this TouchDevice to let surrounding controls take over.

TouchLeave

This also represents the completion of a Stroke. Triggered when a current touch point is moved outside the boundaries of the control.

- Check that there is a current **Stroke** being created
- Add any new TouchPoints to the current Stroke by adding them to the TouchPointCollection
- Remove the old version of this **Stroke** from the **InkPresenter**.
- Tell the **InkPresenter** to store the complete **Stroke**. This creates a new **Stroke** from the current **TouchPointCollection**.
- Release control of all touch events associated with this TouchDevice to let surrounding controls take over.

Replacing the **InkCanvas** layer on each bar of music with this custom Ink control gives the desired result as shown in Figure 43.

For the purpose of elucidation, each new **Stroke** is created in a different colour to show how they are broken across bar boundaries.



Figure 43 Annotations created across tileable custom ink control With this custom control, annotations can created smoothly across bar boundaries yet are broken up on a bar by bar basis meaning that when the lines of music are reflowed, any annotations will remain in the correct place in relation to the music.

5.3 Creating space for annotations

On a printed piece of sheet music, there is a fixed amount of empty space around the music in which annotations can be drawn. Musicians must fit all their annotations into the existing margins and spaces between lines on the page.

Moving to a digital sheet music display, we now have the freedom to change the spacing of the musical lines on the page to make more room when it is required. In the experimental system developed as part of this research, annotation space around lines is controlled by changing the size of the margins above and below each line of music. Figure 44 demonstrates the structure of annotatable lines of music displayed in the experimental software. This sample application displays simple boxes in place of the musical content.



Figure 44 Test application for line spacing techniques

- Purple boxes represent bars of music
- Grey areas are the annotatable areas of the display.

The annotatable areas cover the musical content of each bar and extend to fill the height of the line.

- The total annotatable area on the screen is broken vertically between lines and horizontally between bars. The grey dotted lines show the boundaries between the annotation areas.
- For demonstrative purposes, the annotations for each bar are rendered in different colours showing how they are broken up horizontally across the line.

- Annotations drawn in the space outlined in orange belong to the bars in line 2.
- The top margin of line 2 has been extended to create more annotation space.
- The bottom margin of line 1 has also been extended.

Once an annotation is created in the margin space of a bar, that bar's margins cannot be collapsed back over the annotation. If the line structure of the music is reflowed at any stage, annotations move with their associated bar. Each new line of music sets its initial margins to the minimum required size to fit all the annotated bars of music that it contains.

Creating more space for annotations will reduce the amount of music that fits on the screen, possibly affecting the number of page turns required. It is up to the musician to decide on the balance between annotation space and number of page turns.

Three experimental control systems for creating annotation space were tried out during development: *Corner Drag, Tab Style* and *Roller blinds*. The first two systems work on the concept of moving the boundaries of a line of music to stretch the surrounding white space. The third option, *Roller Blinds*, works differently in that the user creates white space by grabbing the musical content of a line and pushing or pulling it out of the way, leaving clear space behind.

These three controls were created as a proof of concept and were not subject to full usability testing. This section explains how each control works and some observations on the usability of each as became apparent during development.

Corner Drag



Figure 45 Line spacing demonstration application with Corner Drag controls

The Corner Drag control was designed to act in a similar way to the controls in Microsoft Windows for expanding or shrinking an application window. Clicking and dragging the bottom corner of a window allows that window to be resized.

In this test implementation (shown in Figure 45), large touchable controls were placed in each corner of the space assigned for each line of music. Touching and dragging any one of these controls stretches the allocated space for that line by expanding its top or bottom margin. This creates more space around the musical content of the line in which the user can draw annotations.

The musical content for the line remains in the same place on screen and the surrounding lines are *pushed* out of the way as the margin expands. The margins of the previous and following lines remain the same.

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Figure 46 Touch and drag action controls the margin size Touching the top left corner control (as shown in Figure 46) and dragging up or down expands or contracts the top margin of the musical line.

This control turned out to be confusing to use. The problem being that the top controls of one line appear to control the same space as the bottom controls of the line above. Both controls do control the overall space between the two lines, but the distinction between expanding the bottom margin of the top line or expanding the top margin of the bottom line is difficult to grasp. The boundary between the two lines defines which bar any drawn annotations will belong to.

Even after gaining some experience with the use of this control, accidentally grabbing and manipulating the control for the previous or following line was a regular occurrence. This meant that it was easy to expand the margins of the neighbouring line of music. Creating annotations in this new space would cause them to be stored with the wrong bars of music and become misplaced if reflow was to occur.

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Tab Style



Figure 47 Line spacing demonstration application with Tab Style controls In an effort to make it more clear which white space is controlled by which touch control, corner controls are replaced here with overlapping tab-like controls. Dragging the left tab controls the top margin of the line below, while dragging the right tab controls the bottom margin of the line above. The idea is that the positioning of the tag controls shows more clearly which space each will act upon.

The tabs are positioned such that they extend from the line they control onto the neighbouring line in the direction that the lines' space would be extended if the tab were dragged. The Tabs themselves cast a slight shadow on the neighbouring line to show that they are overlapping (see Figure 48).



Figure 48 Tab Style controls close up

The functionality of the tabs was the same as the previously described corner controls. Users drag up and down to expand and contract the associated line margins. Again, the musical content of the affected line remains in the same place on screen and the surrounding lines are *pushed* and *pulled* to make space for the expanding/contracting margins.



Using the tabs turned out to be slightly more intuitive than the corner drag method. There was less of a tendency to accidentally change the neighbouring lines' margins by initially grabbing the wrong control.

The feeling was however, that perhaps creating space by stretching existing space didn't feel too natural. This forced the user to see the "white space" of the page as a tangible object that could be manipulated. Perhaps it would be more natural to, if you needed more space, grab the actual page content, and shift it out of the way. The third control works on this idea.

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Roller Blinds

With the Roller Blinds contol, to create annotation space around a line of music, users grab the musical content of the line and drag it out of the way, leaving clear white space in its wake. To avoid confusion with annotation gestures, rather than touching and dragging on the musical content of the line to move it, a control is created in the left hand margin of the page, as shown in Figure 49).



Figure 49 Sample application with Roller Blinds controls for line spacing Unlike the corner and tag controls, in this implementation there is only one control attached to each line. This control is responsible for all four actions associated with its line:

- Expanding the top margin
- Shrinking the top margin
- Expanding the bottom margin
- Shrinking the bottom margin

The system works on the assumption that the most common task would be to expand the margins around a line to create space for annotations. This is therefore the simplest task to achieve.

Expanding the top margin

To expand the top margin, the user touches and drags the line control down. This action is shown in Figure 50. The selected line moves with the control under the user's finger. The preceding lines of music stay in place and the following lines are pushed further down the page. The purple highlighting shows the complete annotatable area surrounding the manipulated line.



Figure 50 Expanding the top margin with Roller Blind controls

Expanding the bottom margin

To expand the bottom margin, the user touches and drags the line control upward, as shown in Figure 51. The preceding lines of music are pushed up out of the way. The following lines stay in place as the bottom margin of the line extends, creating more annotation space.



Figure 51 Expanding the bottom margin with Roller Blind controls

As the preceding lines are pushed upward, some of the music will disappear off the top of the page. This is necessary to ensure that the line being dragged by the user remains under their finger on the screen. After the user releases the control by taking their finger off the screen, the whole page of music will scroll back down onto the page, assuring that there is no musical content lost off the top of the page.

offe

Figure 52 Annotatable space created by expanding margins

The final page of music now has plenty of annotatable space surrounding the second line, as shown in Figure 52 above .

Shrinking a margin

Shrinking the margins of a line requires a two motion gesture. The user must first tell the system which margin to change by beginning to expand that margin. This is done by touching and dragging up or down. Dragging up will 'activate' the bottom margin, while dragging down will 'activate' the top margin. Once a margin is 'active', moving the selected line of music up and down will affect only that margin. As soon as the user releases the control, by taking their finger off the screen, the activation is lost. This motion mimics the behaviour of roller blinds on a window, which lead to the control being named Roller Blinds. Blinds are unrolled over a window by pulling them downward. To roll them back up, a short downward motion is required to release the catch, then, as the blinds are released, they roll back up.

To shrink the top margin Image: Sightly - First drag down to expand the top margin slightly Image: Sightly - Then drag the line of music back upward to collapse the white space above Image: Sightly Image: Sigh

The gesture to shrink the bottom margin is the same but starting with an upward drag motion.

5.4 Annotation Input Scale

Drawing annotations by hand on a touch screen is quite different to drawing them with a pencil onto paper. Touch interfaces, where finger input is involved, do not provide high enough input resolution for direct drawing of all annotations onto a digital document. Large sweeping annotations such as circling a paragraph or crossing out a portion of text are possible, but smaller handwritten notes cannot be sketched legibly by finger at the same size as printed text.

The sorts of annotations that are drawn on sheet music are often small and need to be carefully aligned with the music that they correspond to, so this problem with touch input is particularly apparent.

There are several issues that arise when writing or drawing on a touch screen with a finger:

- Finger tips can occlude areas of the screen, making it difficult to know exactly what part of the screen is being touched.
- The contact area between finger tip and screen is large (compared to that of a pen on paper). This makes it difficult to make or detect fine movements.
- Fingertips can be sticky. When fingers stick to the screen, smooth sketching motions are difficult.
- Conversely, fingertips can sometimes slip too easily over a screens' surface. This again can make fine movements and drawing difficult.

The situation can be helped slightly by allowing users the use of a pointing device or stylus in place of a finger. Drawing with a stylus more closely mimics the physical action of drawing with a pen on paper. This familiarity leads to slightly better fine control. Some of the fine control that is attained using a pen on paper is dependent on the ability to brace ones' hand against the papers surface while writing. This is not possible on optical or capacitive touch screens as extra contact points would be detected where the hand touched (or neared in the case of optical touch) the screens surface.

The disadvantage of relying on a stylus to interact with a system is that it introduces an extra piece of hardware that must be managed by the user. Fingers are always there when needed, whereas a stylus is easily lost. For this reason it was decided to try to build a finger operated annotation system that alleviated the main complaints against finger based interaction, and made it possible to draw fine musical annotations simply and comfortably.

The software solution posed was to increase the size at which annotations are drawn, a system similar to that explored by Agrawala and Shilman (2005). The premise being that drawing complex annotations requiring multiple precise strokes is easier when they are drawn on a large scale, as each individual stroke then involves a bigger movement on the touch screen. The main complaints against finger based interaction are most prevalent when making small movements.

Zoom to Annotate

To increase the input size for annotations while maintaining the display size of standard sheet music, the zoomable nature of the bars of music in the sample system is leveraged. Users' can zoom in on a bar they wish to annotate, draw the desired annotation in place on the music, then resize the bar back into place. The zoom action is triggered using the pinch gesture described in Chapter 4 (Section 4.6 Score Personalisation, Scale Gesture).

Zoom in Place

Initial implementations of the *Zoom to Annotate* feature aimed to keep the zoomed bar in place in the overall piece of music while it was being annotated.

Figures 53 and 54 illustrate annotating on a zoomed bar then shrinking it back into place.



Figure 53 Annotation created on bar zoomed in place



Figure 54 Annotation created on zoomed bar, scaled back into place

The advantage of zooming in place is that the position of the zoomed bar in relation to the rest of the piece is always clear. This is important when dealing with sheet music as there are often multiple bars and sections within a piece that look similar or are in fact identical. Understanding the context of each bar is therefore important to make sure that annotations are not mistakenly created in the wrong place in the music. Bar numbers are also helpful in this regard.

There were two major complications in the implementation of the *Zoom in Place* feature: how to handle annotations across multiple bars; and fitting

zoomed content on the screen. Descriptions of the problems encountered and possible solutions follow.

Annotating over bar boundaries

Musical annotations often cover multiple bars. To draw a multi-bar annotation with the system, users could use the pinch gesture to first zoom each bar that the annotation will cross, then draw the annotation, then shrink each bar back down to size.

This is cumbersome and requires planning before drawing can take place. For some annotations it is more suitable than for others. If the user were drawing a hairpin crescendo across a couple of bars, this approach works well, since users know in advance how long the crescendo mark needs to be and so can prepare the appropriate bars. If however, the user is writing a long textual annotation, they may not know how much horizontal space will be required. If they begin drawing their annotation across zoomed bars and run out of space, they must stop mid annotation, scale the next bar, and then continue drawing.

As an alternative to the above, in the developed software, automatic bar zooming was implemented. As the user approaches the edge of a zoomed bar while drawing, the neighbouring bar is pre-emptively zoomed ready to take over annotation collection.

The images in Figure 55 show the process of creating a multi-bar annotation aided by the automatic zooming of the neighbouring bar. The annotation is started in a pre-magnified bar then, as the user draws into the bar on the right, the next bar is zoomed and takes over the annotation capture. As indicated by the different colouring of the annotation strokes in each bar, the annotation is broken at the boundary and each half is stored with the bar that it was drawn over (this is to enable reflow of the music as described previously).

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Figure 55 Auto zoom of neighbouring bars when annotation reaches boundary When annotations are drawn from left to right (as in the example in Figure 55), as the neighbouring bar to the right is scaled, any more music on the same line is pushed further to the right hand side of the screen. This causes some musical content to be clipped off the edge of the screen. This is only temporary however, and once the annotation is complete and the zoomed bars are returned to normal size, the clipped music slides back onto the page.

If annotations are drawn from right to left, when the user reaches the left hand boundary of a bar, the preceding bar in the line is automatically zoomed. If this is left to happen naturally, as the left hand bar gets bigger, it will push the bar the user is currently annotating to the right, along with the rest of the line of music. This means that the bar being annotated moves beneath the users finger, changing their finger placement in relation to the current annotation stroke. This will ruin the annotation, by creating an extra horizontal line as the bar slides beneath their finger. To stop this from happening, as the left hand neighbouring bar scales up, the whole line of music is offset to the left hand side of the screen. This process is illustrated in Figure 56. Note in the second image, the content of the line before the first zoomed bar has been pushed to the left. When the annotated bars are scaled back to normal size, the line of music slides back in from the left.



Figure 56 Auto zoom of left hand neighbour pushes entire line to the left

Fitting zoomed content on the screen

Issues arise when the bars are zoomed near to the edges of the application frame. Zoomed content is forced off the screen and clipped. This makes it impossible to draw on a large portion of the bar. (See Figure 57)



Figure 57 Magnified last bar of a line is clipped at the boundary of the application window

Zoomed bars can be clipped both horizontally and vertically. In the sample shown in Figure 58, zooming any bar of the second line of music leaves the bottom part clipped off the bottom of the page, making it impossible to draw annotations relating to that part.



Figure 58 Zoomed music clipped off bottom right corner of page

One possible way to prevent this clipping from occurring is to force the music to reflow after each zoom (as described in Chapter 4). Zooming to annotate however, is different from the zooming mentioned in Chapter 4 in that it is designed to be temporary. Bars are only magnified to allow annotation to occur, and reflowing the whole piece of music for this short period of time seemed unnecessary. Also, the act of reflowing could separate bars that the user was intending to annotate between. What is needed here is a way of panning the zoomed content to bring it back into view. This would involve making each line of music scrollable both vertically and horizontally once any of its bars were magnified. This could be done either with the addition of scroll bars, or by defining a multi-finger gesture to indicate scrolling.

It was decided to avoid scroll bars to prevent the interface from becoming cluttered. Introducing a new touch gesture to be performed over the musical content of a line of music was also not a good option as it may interfere with the annotation controls on the music. It was instead decided to come up with an alternative to zooming in place.

Zoom Overlay

The chosen alternative to zooming bars in place was to create an overlay in the centre of the screen in which selected bars are displayed at a magnified level, ready to be annotated. With this approach, when a user wants to annotate a bar, they use the pinch gesture as before to trigger the zoomed overlay (shown in Figure 59. The bar that they 'pinched' appears in the overlay along with the bar before and the bar after. The 'pinched' bar is highlighted in the music behind.



Figure 59 Zoomed overlay ready for annotation

The overlaid zoom view is partially transparent so that the user can still see the context of the bars they are annotating. The music displayed in the overlay can be moved forward and backward through the piece using the arrow buttons in the top corners. The bar displayed in the centre of the overlaid view is always highlighted in grey in the music behind.

Annotations are created by drawing them on the music in the overlaid view. These annotations do not appear on the music behind until the overlay is dismissed by pressing the 'shrink' button (See Figures 60 and 61).



Figure 60 Annotations created on the overlaid view



Figure 61 Annotations copied to the underlying music after the overlay is dismissed
The sample annotations drawn in Figure 60 appear to be clipped down the right hand edge when they are copied onto the real sized sheet music shown in Figure 61. This is because the sample annotations are created between bars that are separated by a page turn. As shown in Figure 62, the remainder of the annotations are displayed on the next page of music. This demonstrates a benefit that the overlay system has over the 'zoom in place' alternative, annotations can be created smoothly between bars that are separated by a line or page break.



Figure 62 Annotations drawn over a page break

The overlay view is limited to displaying three bars at a time. This means that annotations that cover more than three bars would have to be drawn in pieces if using the overlay view. Users can however, draw annotations without using the zoomed overlay by simply drawing them directly onto the music at actual size. This makes it possible to draw large annotations that cross more than three bars. These types of annotations generally involve larger strokes and so should be able to be drawn readily by finger on the actual size music.

Stamps

For the drawing of complicated annotations that are likely to be used multiple times, a stamp system was also implemented. Users are able to create (Figure 63) and store a collection of 'stamps' that can be used and reused by touching and dragging them from a menu at the right of the screen (Figure 64). Once the stamp is placed, it is treated the same as annotation strokes drawn directly onto the music. It is saved with the bar it is placed on so that it will reflow with the music. Stamps are drawn at 8 times actual size.



Figure 63 Stamp creation overlay



Figure 64 Inserting a stamp by touch and drag from the list of available stamps

5.5 Finger Annotation User Test

Experimenting with the developed software system in the lab environment it became apparent that some musical annotations are easier to create than others. Larger annotations, e.g. large slurs or hairpin crescendos could sometimes be drawn without zooming first, where writing text or complex small symbols was found to be difficult at real size.

Some structured testing was required at this stage to determine whether allowing users to input annotations at a large scale, and then shrink them back to size, was sufficient to make drawing real world musical annotations by finger on a touch-screen viable. A formal user test was carried out to try to determine whether the idea was valid and to try to find a magnification level for the input area that allowed for the majority of real world sheet music annotations to be drawn consistently and to a satisfactory quality.

Experiment Goals

The user test was designed to determine what level of zoom is required to make the drawing of common musical annotations comfortable and accurate using finger input on a touch-screen.

In addition, optical touch screen technology has some issues around what triggers 'contact' with the screen surface. Hovering one's finger too close to the screen without actually 'touching' it is sometimes detected as a touch. A second goal of the experiment is to see if drawing bigger, on a zoomed input area, causes people to lift their fingers further off the screens surface between strokes, avoiding this hardware flaw.

Experimental Setup

Subjects were presented with a test application running on a multi-touch screen (shown in Figure 65) and asked to complete a set of tasks involving copying musical annotations onto a short section of digital sheet music. For

each task, they were presented with an excerpt of sheet music with some typeset annotations overlaid. They were asked to copy the typeset annotations in 'sketched form', onto the same place on an un-annotated copy of the same excerpt of music by drawing them on the screen using their finger.

The experiment was designed so that the user need not understand the meaning of the presented music or annotations; they were simply asked to copy the symbols. The finished annotations were not expected to look perfect; they should be a 'sketched' version of the printed sample.



Figure 65 Finger annotation user test application screenshot

There were six different annotations to copy. They range in complexity from three curves (slurs) to a collection of seven English characters. Users were asked to copy each annotation five times, each time the annotation input area was presented at a different scale, starting very large and getting smaller each time. (The scale of the sample was not changed – only the un-annotated input area was scaled.) The magnification levels tested were: 8 x, 6 x, 4 x, 2 x and 1 x

actual size. At actual size, the staff system was 8 mm or 33 pixels high. This size was chosen to be approximately the same size as the staff system of a printed PDF created with LilyPond, using the default staff size setting of 20 points.^{xx}

Concerned about the sample size, a statistician's expert advice sought in relation to randomising the order in which experimental conditions were applied. The opinion given was that randomisation would complicate the experiment excessively. The order in which the sample annotations were presented to the users was therefore fixed, starting with a simple annotation and moving through to the more complex annotations requiring finer drawing control. It was noted that there would be some learning effect, but that this was most likely to affect the time taken to complete each task, rather than the quality of the final result. Users were not timed. It was known from informal experimentation that drawing on a large scale was easier than at a small scale. By asking the users to draw at large scale first, any bias caused by learning would favour the small scale. If users still could not draw quality annotations at the small scale, then the experiment would provide good evidence that the small scale was impractical.

Users could take multiple attempts at each drawing by pressing the "clear" button and starting the current annotation again at any time. Once a user finished copying an annotation at the given scale, they were presented with their annotation at actual size and asked to say whether they were satisfied with the final result. The reason for asking the user to rate their own annotations, rather than have the experimenter or a music expert do the rating, was to avoid bias resulting from a user's music knowledge. So long as the user produced an annotation that satisfied them, it seemed reasonable to assume that the system had worked satisfactorily. For the same reason, participants were not timed at each task. Musicians familiar with the annotations could be expected to copy them more rapidly. This may have the

disadvantage that users might be satisfied with very inaccurate annotation, particularly missing the nuances in positioning that a musician would notice. A check by the experimenter was therefore included to assure that this was not the case, once the results were available.

Users were also asked to rate the ease at which they were able to draw the annotation at the given scale (Rated on a five point scale ranging from 'very easy' to 'very difficult'). Figure 66 shows the rating screen presented to the user after each annotation copying task.



Figure 66 Finger annotation user test - result rating

All drawn annotations and satisfaction ratings were recorded. A record was also taken of the number of attempts the user took at each task. This was stored by saving a copy of the input drawing's state, before clearing it, each time the user pressed the 'clear' button to start again. This gave a record of any mistakes made in the drawing process to give a better understanding of any problems users had using the touch-screen hardware or the software interface.

In total, users were asked to copy 30 annotations. The software was designed to allow them to move quickly from task to task, with the complete experiment estimated to take around 10 minutes.

After the experiment, users were asked to complete a brief (one page) questionnaire.

Background Questionnaire

The questionnaire given to users after the finger annotation test gathered information about their existing experience with music and annotations, some physical information, and asked for some feedback on the system tested. (The questionnaire presented to participants is included as 0.)

Experience questions

- How much experience do you have with sheet music? (none/a little/a lot)
- Have you ever written annotations on a printed piece of sheet music? (Yes/No)
- Before this test, had you ever annotated a digital document using a tablet or touch interface? (Yes/No)

These questions aimed to identify participants that had experience with sheet music and/or touch screens. Users with an understanding of the annotations that they are asked to copy and the underlying sheet music may very well have different expectations of the final quality of the annotations produced compared with those that are simply duplicating curves over an image without understanding the context. The third question sought to find out if participants that had used a touch-screen or tablet device for annotation before, had developed skills that make the creation of these specialised musical annotations easier.

Physical characteristics

- Please circle the option that best describes you:
 Left Handed, Right Handed, Ambidextrous
- Which of the following outlines best fits the fingertip you used to draw during the experiment?



Choose the smallest outline that your fingertip fits inside. You should just be able to see the outline around your finger.

In designing this experiment, it was conjectured that the above two physical characteristics may have interesting consequences when interacting on a touch screen. Finger size may have an impact on the user's ability to draw fine annotations, or even their ability to interact with a touch screen interface at all as larger fingers block more of the screen from view. There is surprisingly little published literature about how these attributes affect annotation specifically, though finger size is often mentioned as an issue for general interaction with touch interfaces. Voida et al. refer to this as *the "fat fingers" problem* (Voida, et al. 2009). We also wish to establish whether the touch-screen hardware and software interface are easier to use with the right or left hand.

Feedback on the system

During the test, did you have an issue with:
 Stickiness (Never/Sometimes/Usually/Always)
 Slipperiness (Never/Sometimes/Usually/Always)

- Do you have any other comments about your experience with the software used today?

These questions covered basic feedback on the use of the touch-screen hardware system itself and gave the user a chance to make note of any issues that they had with the test software.

Tested Annotations

Six varieties of annotation were chosen for the user test. These annotations were selected to cover the physical characteristics of the annotations identified as most commonly used in Winget's study into the annotation behaviours of performing musicians. As more fully described in Chapter 2, Winget categorises annotations in two ways: by purpose and by mode. (Winget 2006).

An annotation's 'purpose' is classified as *technical, technical-conceptual* or *conceptual*. In Winget's sample, between 70% and 81% of annotations were classed as *technical* and that the majority of those *technical* annotations were related to bowing.

An annotation's 'mode' is its physical representation, classed as *textual*, *symbolic* or *numeric*. In Winget's sample 72% of annotations were *symbolic*, 16% *numeric*, and the remaining 12% *textual*. This categorisation was used to decide which annotations to include in our user test as it describes the physical form of the annotations. The user test is focused on whether it is physically possible to draw real musical annotations using a finger on a touch screen.

The six annotations used to test the practicality of musical annotation via finger input were the following (Annotations are listed in the order that they were presented to participants):

Bowing Marks



Figure 67 Typeset bowing mark annotations sample

Bowing marks are classed as *technical* and *symbolic*. They were the most common *technical* annotation uncovered in Winget's study. Each symbol corresponds directly to one note, so placement of each symbol is very important. This annotation provides a good test for accurate placement of small symbols with the software.

Crescendo and Decrescendo



Figure 68 Typeset hairpin crescendo and decrescendo annotations sample Crescendo and Decrescendo are classed as *technical-conceptual* annotations. They are another example of the most common *mode* of annotation, the *symbolic* annotation. These hairpin crescendo and decrescendo marks are again carefully aligned with the notes in the music. This annotation again tests accuracy of placement, but this time of a larger symbol that corresponds to multiple notes in the music.

Slurs and Ties



Figure 69 Typeset slur and tie annotations sample

These slurs are again *technical* and *symbolic*. They represent articulation instructions. Though articulation instructions made up only 2% of the *technical* annotations uncovered in Winget's study, slurs are interesting in this test as

they are smooth directed curves that again require careful placement against the note heads of the underlying music. They are a good test of accuracy as well as fluidity of drawing.

Text and Dynamics



poco f

Figure 70 Typeset textual annotations sample

In this particular example, the text annotations shown relate to dynamics and would be classed as *technical-conceptual, textual* annotations. *Textual* annotations account for only 12% of the total annotations. We argue that the physical act of writing text like that above, and writing numerical values (which represented a further 16% of annotations in Winget's study) is so similar that by testing this annotation we can essentially test the practicality of both *numeric* and *textual* annotation. We test here the ability to create legible and properly placed alpha-numeric annotations.

Glasses



Figure 71 Rendered glasses annotation sample

The glasses symbol, though not a true musical symbol, is widely used by musicians to remind themselves to be attentive at some point in the music. Winget classes the glasses symbol as a *technical, symbolic* annotation (again the most common categorization). In testing the software, the glasses drawing is a good example of a single annotation symbol that is made up of multiple sketched lines. In order to draw a satisfactory set of glasses, users must have enough control and accuracy to properly align each sketched curve with those

that preceded it. It is also quite a small annotation, and so is a good test of fine drawing with the finger tip.

Musical Notes



Figure 72 Typeset musical notes annotation sample

Drawing notes is another example of a *symbolic* annotation. The specific example above is *technical* and slightly contrived, as it is not likely that a piece of music will require the musician to hand write notes that have been excluded from an existing bar. It is more common, as in an example mentioned (and classed as *technical-conceptual*) in Winget's report, that a musician may copy some notes from a previous page, to alleviate a difficult page turn, or that they may write in cues from another part to help with coordinating a musical entry. This example tests whether it is possible in the developed, finger operated, software to draw finely and accurately enough to position notes on a staff system correctly. The physical action is similar to the real world examples in found Winget's study. This information could also be interesting for any future development where composition or sheet music creation via sketched input directly onto a staff system was required.

The six annotations selected follow roughly the same distribution over Winget's defined categories as the actual annotations made by musicians (being mainly examples of *symbolic, technical* annotations). They are also chosen as a set of annotations that cover a range of the specific features of musical annotations, such as dependence on specific placement in relation to notes, and necessity of fine drawing control. Testing the practicality of creating these six annotations gives a good overall picture of the practicality of real musicians using the developed annotation software in a real situation.

5.6 Finger Annotation User Test Results

Participant Demographic

The user test was run with 23 year 11 students (aged 15 – 16) from a local coed high school. The group was visiting the university to tour the usability laboratory and learn about Human Computer Interaction. As part of their high school computing curriculum, they were required to take part in a formal user test and so were willing participants for this experiment. Their performance in the user test had no bearing on their school grade. They were, however, required to document their experiences of the process after the event.

As noted in the experiment design, participants were not required to have any existing knowledge of sheet music or annotation in order to complete the test. This did leave the concern that there might be a marked difference in the quality of annotations made by those with and without musical knowledge. Thirteen of the participants (approximately half) reported having a little (6) or a lot (7) of experience with sheet music. The experimenter checked the annotations created by all participants and concluded that there was no notable difference in quality between these participant and those that reported no experience.

All participants reported being right handed except for one who said they were ambidextrous. This means, unfortunately, that no conclusions can be drawn about whether dominant hand plays a role in interaction with the touch screen.

Software Issues Uncovered

When the zoom level of the input area is 8x or 6x actual size, the input area itself no longer fits within the application window. It was therefore necessary to add scroll bars to allow users to pan around the input area. This affected 276 of the 690 trials being reported.

Unfortunately, the scrollbar implementation in WPF had a flaw in that it did not capture touch focus. If the user was scrolling the input area and happened to move their finger slightly off the scroll bar itself, the system registered this as a drawing action and added lines to their annotation. This resulted in a noticeable horizontal line across the music (see Figure 73). This was observed to happen 16 times in the captured data. On each occasion the participant decided to clear their annotation and make another attempt to draw it accurately.



Figure 73 Annotation sample with visible scroll bar error. A users' attempt at 'Text and Dynamics' annotation at zoom level 8.

No special action was taken to remove these data points. In no case did they affect a participant's ability to achieve a final successful result. This could lead to an overstatement of the number of attempts required to get annotations correct for input at 8x and 6x zoom, however, this bias in the results is small, and removing erroneous data seemed to be an inappropriate procedure when looking for evidence in favour of the annotation scheme.

Annotation Test Results

The main objective of the user test was to determine the level of zoom required to make drawing of musical annotations accurate and easy. The way chosen to assess accuracy was to allow participants to report their perceived success by rating each of their final annotations as either satisfactory or not. The results of this assessment are shown in the graphs of Figure 74.

It is clear that users were more successful at copying annotations when the input area was magnified. In fact, there was a near 100% success rate when the input area was zoomed to 6 or 8 times actual size. As magnifying the input area reduces the amount that can be displayed on screen, it is desirable to choose the smallest zoom level that gives a good success rate. On that basis, it appears that a magnification level of 6 is most appropriate for the complete range of annotations tested.

There is some variation in success rate at different zoom levels between the annotations tested. For annotations requiring larger curves — *Crescendos*, *Slurs and Ties* — most users were successful at zoom level 2. *Bowing Marks* required zoom level 4. Users had some difficulty with *Text and Dynamics* at all zoom levels. *Glasses* and *Notes* required zoom level 6. All three of the difficult cases are characterised by having to draw small closed shapes. One user commented on the difficulty of this task, *"glasses/circles difficult to draw."*

In the sheet music display and annotation software (as opposed to the finger annotation test program) developed in this project, users have the option of creating a 'stamp' for a commonly used annotation. This may be the better mechanism for them to use for the *Glasses* annotation, or any other small icons.

The *Notes* annotation is not likely to be commonly drawn and was included in this user test for completeness. It is more of interest if composition or music editing was to be a feature of the software.

It is concluded that for the majority of common musical annotations, an input zoom level of 4 is sufficient.









Text and Dynamics





Figure 74 Users' satisfaction with their final annotations at each zoom level

Participants were also asked to rate their ease of drawing for each annotation copying task. Their ratings (Figure 75) show that though success rates were similar on the three simpler annotations between zoom levels 4, 6, and 8, perceived difficulty levels were not. Most users rated annotation at zoom levels 6 and 8 *Easy* or *Very Easy*. However, a significant number rated ease of drawing at zoom level 4 as only *Moderate*. This shows that users would be more comfortable annotating at a zoom level of 6.

The three more difficult annotations are rated *Moderate* by a significant number of users even at zoom level 6. They were not rated as *Difficult*, however, and the success rates were acceptable.

The graphs in Figure 76 show the average number of attempts participants made at each annotation. These results are consistent with the previous measures of success and ease of use, in that more attempts were required at the smaller zoom levels. It is interesting to note though, that even at the large zoom levels, where high success levels were achieved, some participants took more than one attempt before submitting their final annotation.

Figure 77 shows the percentage of users able to produce satisfactory annotations at each zoom level, grouped by their finger width. These results give some substance to the claim that users with larger fingers had more difficulty in producing a satisfactory result at the lower zoom levels, particularly with the more intricate annotations. It might be expected that creating the closed curves necessary for these annotations would be more difficult with a wider finger covering up more of the screen. The small number of users with wider fingers, however, (only 2 at 18mm) means that no strong conclusions can be drawn.

Ease of Drawing vs. Zoom Rating







Text and Dynamics





Figure 75 Users' rating of ease of drawing at each zoom level





Figure 76 Average number of attempts made at annotation copying for each zoom level





Figure 77 Percentage of satisfactory annotations for each zoom level. Grouped by users' finger width

Although the experiment was designed so as not to require participants to understand the sheet music or annotations presented for copying, participants were asked to state their level of experience with sheet music. 7 reported *A Lot* of experience, 6 *A Little* and 13 *None*. Figure 78 shows percentage satisfaction with annotation drawing against zoom level, grouped by sheet music experience. Figure 79 shows the same but divided into those who have had experience writing annotations on physical sheet music and those that have not.

These two graphs show that experience with sheet music did help participants to cope with drawing at the lower zoom levels, but only to a small extent in situations where the overall satisfaction rate was very low anyway. At the higher zoom levels, sheet music experience made no difference at all. Overall, it appears that the experimental design worked as expected.



Figure 78 Percentage of final annotations rated as satisfactory, grouped by sheet music experience for each zoom level.



Figure 79 Percentage of final annotations rated as satisfactory, grouped by previous experience annotating physical sheet music.

Participants were also asked if they had previously used a tablet or touch screen to draw annotations on any kind of document. 8 reported such prior experience and the remaining 16 reported none. Figure 80 shows satisfaction rates grouped on this basis. Differences are small. Those with prior experience seem less easily satisfied. This may be because they had been experienced better results annotating with other technology (e.g. stylus on tablet).



Figure 80 Percentage of final annotations rated as satisfactory, grouped by previous experience annotating on a tablet or touch screen.

Observations on hardware

Drawing Anomalies

Due to the way the optical touch screen hardware works, users must be careful to keep all but their active finger away from the screen. Coming within 2mm of the screen with another part of their hand or arm will often result in a phantom touch being registered. These phantom touch points are added to the current stroke, resulting in jagged lines similar to that in Figure 81. Similarly, users must be careful to pull their active finger far enough away from the screen between strokes to break 'contact', to prevent their strokes being unintentionally connected.



Figure 81 Phantom touch detected when hand gets close to the screen. A users' attempt at 'Text and Dynamics' annotation at zoom level 1 (actual size).

During informal testing of the system in the lab environment, it was noted that phantom touches such as these occurred most frequently when drawing annotations at smaller magnification levels. It was hypothesised that this was a consequence of the fact that, when trying to draw annotations on a finer scale, users tend to keep more of their hand closer to the screen. This might occur for two reasons: firstly, as when drawing on paper, fine movements are most easily achieved with the hand braced on the paper's surface. Secondly, when making a small movement on the screen's surface, it seems unnatural to move a finger higher off the surface than it is moving across the surface. When moving a greater distance between strokes, as is required when the input is heavily magnified, raising the finger a good distance above the screen could happen without the user having to be consciously careful to do so.

The results from the user test support this hypothesis. Screen anomalies as described above (pictured in Figure 81), did occur, but only when the input was zoom level 1, actual size. The number of obvious anomalies, like that in Figure 81 was only four, but many annotations created at zoom level 1 have small 'serif' like irregularities that look to be caused by strokes starting early or ending late (See Figure 82).



Figure 82 'Serif' like irregularities on annotation strokes. A users' attempt at 'Bowing Marks' at zoom level 1 (Actual Size)

Users that encountered this issue with the screen commented on it in the follow up questionnaire:

- "Heat sensor makes random drawings without you actually touching the surface first"
- "On occasion I noticed that the screen was quite touch sensitive, which resulted in me mistakenly entering a command."
- "I think that the screen was too sensitive"

- "The only other problem was that it was sensing my fingers when they were not touching it"
- "Sometimes my hand hit the screen making what I put go all funny with lines I didn't want to put in."
- "The program detects your finger if it is suspended above the screen and has no contact"

We conclude that increasing the input scale overcomes this issue with the screen hardware. Not a great deal of magnification is needed.

Screen Stickiness

A noted issue with operating touch screens by finger is that finger tips can sometimes be sticky, making it difficult to make fine movements while drawing an annotation. During the user test, 96% of participants noted that they experienced some trouble with their fingers sticking to the touch-screen.



Screen Slipperiness

Another expected problem with finger input on a touch-screen was that users' fingers might slip unexpectedly over the screen's surface. This turned out to be

an uncommon complaint. 95% of participants in the user test mentioned little or no issue with screen slipperiness.



Summary of user test results

User tests show that, using a finger to draw on an optical touch screen, annotating on magnified sheet music is significantly easier than annotating at actual print size. Specifically, 6 times real size is identified as being a sufficient and appropriate zoom level to allow users to consistently draw common musical annotations on sheet music. This zoom level also succeeds in minimising issues with close proximity to the screen's surface being detected as touch, probably by encouraging the user to lift their finger higher off the surface when drawing multiple strokes.

Collated data showed that users had a broad level of satisfaction annotating at 4 times actual size also. This may be a suitable input magnification for systems with limited screen size, as even in our test setup where only three bars of music were displayed on a 21.5" screen, magnifying beyond 6 times real size introduced a need for scroll bars to explore the annotatable area.

Chapter 6 - Conclusions

The Digital Music Stand is intended to do for musicians what electronic document management does in other domains. The music stand, however, is special in that it must be possible to use it in constrained situations, both in terms of its input and physical surroundings.

This work presented in this thesis explored the potential of the touch screen to satisfy the requirements that musicians have of Digital Music Stands. In particular it sought to achieve, in this context, the kind of fluid and natural interaction that has been pioneered by touch screen phone technology.

Building upon the analysis of musicians' annotation behaviour with printed scores from Winget's study, we identified the specific challenges that must be addressed by a digital annotation system tailored toward sheet music. This was combined with our study on the physical constraints placed on musicians by their instruments and their working environments. It was observed that only 44% of instruments surveyed allow their players the use of both hands to interact with their music, even when they are not playing. This lead to the conclusion that developing a Digital Music Stand and annotation system that required two handed interaction would be impractical for most musicians to use. Fortunately the analysis also showed that all instruments leave at least one hand free for interaction while not being played.

A survey of current hardware options and features was carried out with focus on their appropriateness for use under the physical constraints uncovered, and their potential for supporting musical annotation. This led us to choose finger operated, medium to large multi-touch display technology as the interaction mechanism for our experimental sheet music display and annotation system.

Software design for our system explored two main concepts: sheet music flow and layout, and musical annotation support. A XAML based data structure for storing and displaying music was developed which provides fluid reflowing and layout management for score personalisation through zooming and manipulation at the bar level.

Using this data structure, a system for annotation was developed. The annotation system takes advantage of the strong dependency of musical annotation on placement within the music. Individual bars of music take ownership of the annotations drawn on them which can then reflow with the music, maintaining the overall fluidity of layout without information loss. The nature of the layout system also made it possible to experiment with tools to give more space for annotation by moving lines of music out of the way.

Careful attention was given to overcoming the known issues of finger based annotation caused by touch systems' limited resolution and accuracy. The approach taken was to support annotation input on a magnified view of the music. Two different zooming systems were implemented: one zoomed individual bars of music in place in the musical score, the other presented an overlaid modal window containing a magnified version of a portion of music. It was found by informal testing that the overlay was easier to use as it eliminated problems with zoomed content being clipped off the edge of the screen

To determine the ideal magnification level of the zoomed input panel, a formal user test was carried out. Results of this test found that 6 times actual size was ideal for drawing common musical annotations by finger. 4 times actual size gave broadly satisfactory results, but some more complex musical annotations were difficult to draw at this scale. As magnifying the input region by 6 times or more introduces a need for scrollbars to navigate the annotatable area, it may be more appropriate to zoom to just 4 times size for regular annotation input

and rely on a reusable stamp system (as was implemented in the sample application) for common complex annotations that difficult to draw at this level.

Time constraints meant that the combination stamp library and modal zooming was not formally tested. In fact, at this stage, the software developed is largely a demonstration of principle. All the ideas have been implemented and informally trialled, but the system as a whole needs more complete integration and testing.

As described, the method for preparing sheet music for this system is currently mainly manual. Automation of this process would be a necessity in any final system. This could be done by modifying the output system of LilyPond to directly export XAML. The XAML format is well documented in this work and the task should be straightforward.

Finally, through the developed software we have demonstrated that a multitouch, gesture based application can be used to both support layout and annotation of music. The software developed demonstrates, in the context of music, annotation need not be thought of as a separate process merely drawn over the top of static content (as it often is in text based systems). Rather, careful integration between layout and annotation gives a feasible system with fluid and natural interaction.

Appendix A - Device Comparison

Table 2 – Device Comparison (Part 1 of 3)

Device	OS	Price	Screen Size	Resolution	View Angle
Tablet PC					
HP EliteBook	Win 7	\$3,819	12.1″	1280 x 800	Ultra Wide
2740p Tablet					
Lenovo	Win 7	\$2,999	121″	1280 x 800	Wide
ThinkPad X201		<i>4_7000</i>	Widescreen	1200 / 000	
Tablet					
Dell Latitude	Win 7	\$4,614	12.1"	1280 x 800	Wide
XIZ Tablet PC			Widescreen		
Touch					
Eee	Win 7		10.1″	1024 x 600	Poor
PCT101MT					
<u>Slate Device</u>					
Apple iPad	iOS		9.7″	1024 x 768	
Scribbler 4100	Win 7		12.1″	1024 x 768	
Motion J3500	Win 7		12.1″	1280 x 800	Ultra Wide
Tablet PC	Min 7		٥ <u>٥</u> ″	1024 × 600	
tablet			0.9	1024 X 000	
Sahara Slate	Win 7		12.1″	1024 x 768	Wide
PC i440D					
Camangi Web Station	Android		7″	800 x 480	
Fujitsu Stylistic	Win		12.1″	1280 x 800	Wide (178°)
ST6012	Vista	¢ 100	101//	1000 700	
Fusion Garage	N/A Just	\$499 (USD)	12.1 Widescreen	1300 X 768	
100,000	Browser	(050)	WIGCSCICCIT		
<u>eInk</u>	1	.1			
Irex Digital			10.2″	1024 x 1280	
Reader 1000					
series Trev il iad			81″	768 v 1024	
	<u> </u>		0.1	700 x 1024	
Multi-touch me	onitors			1.000 1.000	
HP Compaq		\$399	21.5"	1920 x 1080	1/0° Horizontal
Dell SX2210T		\$399	21.5″	1920 x 1080	160° Horizontal
_ 0 07.22101		+000			160° Vertical

Table 2 – Device Comparison (Part 2 of 3)

Device	Weight	Battery	Multi Touch	Finger	Stylus Input
	(KG)	Liie	Touch	Input	
<u>Tablet PC</u>	<u>.</u>	<u> </u>			
HP EliteBook 2740p Tablet	1.72	Poor	Yes	Yes	Yes
r C Lenovo	16				
ThinkPad X201 Tablet	1.0	Good	Yes	Yes	Yes
Dell Latitude XT2 Tablet PC Touch	1.6	Poor	Yes	Yes	Yes
Eee PCT101MT	1.6	Good	Yes	Yes	Yes
Slate Device					
Apple iPad	0.68	Good 10 hours	Yes	Yes	No
Scribbler 4100	1.56	Poor	No	Yes	Yes
Motion J3500 Tablet PC	1.9	Good	Yes	Yes	Yes
Archos 9 PC tablet	0.8	OK 5 hours	No	Yes	Yes
Sahara Slate PC i440D	1.62	Poor	No	Yes	Yes
Camangi Web Station	0.39	OK 5 hours	No	Yes	Yes
Fujitsu Stylistic ST6012	1.6	OK 5 hours	No	No	Yes
Fusion Garage joojoo	1.1	OK 5 hours	Yes	Yes	No
<u>eInk</u>					
Irex Digital Reader 1000 series		OK 5 hours	No	No	Yes
Irex iLiad		Poor 3 hours	No	No	Yes
Multi-touch monitors					
HP Compaq L2105TM	6.4	-	Yes	Yes	Yes
Dell SX2210T	7.68	-	Yes	Yes	Yes

Table 2 – Device Comparison (Part 3 of 3)

Device	Speakers	Mic	Webcam	Bluetooth	Wifi
Tablet PC					
HP EliteBook 2740p Tablet PC	Yes	N (port avail)	2.0MP	No	Yes
Lenovo ThinkPad X201 Tablet	Yes	Dual array digital microphones	Optional	No	Yes
Dell Latitude XT2 Tablet PC Touch	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Eee P <u>CT101MT</u>	Yes	High Quality Mic	0.3MP	Optional	Yes
Slate Device					
Apple iPad	Yes	Yes	N	Yes	Yes
Scribbler 4100	Yes	Integrated Array Mic	1.3MP	Yes	Yes
Motion J3500 Tablet PC	N (port avail)	N (port avail)	3.0MP	Yes	Yes
Archos 9 PC tablet	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Sahara Slate PC i440D	Yes	Dual Digital Mic Array	No	Yes	Yes
Camangi Web Station	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
Fujitsu Stylistic ST6012	Yes	Yes	1.3MP	Yes	Yes
Fusion Garage joojoo	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<u>eInk</u>					
Irex Digital Reader 1000 series	No	No	No	No	No
Irex iLiad	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Multi-touch monitors					
HP Compaq L2105TM	-	-	N	-	-
Dell SX2210T	-	_	2.0MP	-	-

Appendix B - Finger Annotation Test, Post-test Questionnaire

	Fing	ger annotation – Input s	cale user test		
Post-Test Questionnaire					
		Participant Number:			
Please circle the option that best	Please circle the option that best describes you				
Left Handed	Right Hand	led Ambid	extrous		
How much experience do you hav	ve with sheet music?				
None	A Little	А	lot		
Have you ever written annotation	ns on a printed piece of	f sheet music?			
	Yes	Ν	lo		
Before this test, had you ever annotated a digital document using a tablet or touch interface?					
	Yes	Ν	lo		
Which of the following outlines best fits the finger tip you used to draw during the experiment?					
14	16 18	20	22		
Choose the smallest outline that you	Choose the smallest outline that your fingertip fits inside. You should be able just see the outline around your finger.				
During the test, did you have an issue with:					
Stickiness Never	Sometimes	Usually	Always		
Slipperiness Never	Sometimes	Usually	Always		
Do you have any other comments about your experience with the software used today?					
Appendix C - Finger Annotation Test, Participant Information Form





You may take multiple attempts at each drawing and after your last attempt will be asked to say whether you are happy with the final result. You will also be asked to rate the ease at which you were able to draw at the presented scale (Rated on a five point scale ranging from 'very easy' to 'very difficult').

Your copied annotations and satisfaction ratings will be recorded.

In total, you will be asked to draw up to 30 annotations. The software is designed to allow you to move quickly from task to task, so the complete experiment will take around 10 minutes.

After the experiment you will be asked to complete a brief (one page) questionnaire. The experiment and questionnaire are completed anonymously. No personal information will be collected from you.

Before beginning the experiment you are asked to give your consent for the researcher to use your experiment and questionnaire results by signing the attached consent form.

What will happen to the information collected?

The information collected will be used by the researcher to write a research report as part of their MSc thesis. The resulting thesis is a public document. It is possible that articles and presentations may be the outcome of the research. Any notes taken by the researcher during the test will only be accessible to the researcher and supervisors. The final thesis, containing a write-up of the results of this research will be available to the public. Afterwards, notes, documents will be destroyed.

No participants will be named in the publications and every effort will be made to disguise their identity.

Declaration to participants

If you take part in the study, you have the right to:

- Refuse to answer any particular question, and to withdraw from the study before analysis has commenced on the data. Due to the anonymous nature of the experiment, it is impossible to withdraw from the study once the questionnaire is handed in.
- · Ask any further questions about the study that occurs to you during your participation.
- · Be given access to a summary of findings from the study when it is concluded.

Who's responsible?

If you have any questions or concerns about the project, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either:

Researcher: Beverley Laundry bar10@students.waikato.ac.nz

Supervisors: David Bainbridge davidb@cs.waikato.ac.nz

Bill Rogers coms0108@cs.waikato.ac.nz

Appendix D - Finger Annotation Test, Consent Form

Research Consent Form	THE UNIVERSITY OF WAIKATO Te Whare Winanga o Waihato
Ethics Committee, Faculty of Computing and Mathematical Sciences	
Sheet music unbound: A fluid approach to sheet music display and annotation on the multi-touch screen.	
Consent Form for Participants	
I have read the Participant Information Sheet for this study and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions about the study have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.	
I also understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any stage before handing in the final questionnaire. Due to the anonymous nature of the experiment, it is impossible to withdraw after this questionnaire has been received. I agree to provide information to the researchers under the conditions of confidentiality set out on the Participant Information Sheet.	
I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Participant Information Sheet.	
Signed:	
Name:	
Date:	
Researcher's Name and contact information:	
Beverley Laundry bar10@students.waikato.ac.nz	
Supervisor's Name and contact information:	
David Bainbridge davidb@cs.waikato.ac.nz	Bill Rogers coms0108@cs.waikato.ac.nz

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