How to build a MATLAB demonstrator solving dynamical system in real-time, with audio output and MIDI control

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Summary

This paper explains and provides code to synthesize and control, in real-time, the audio signals produced by a dynamical system. The code uses only the Matlab programming language. It can be controlled with an external MIDI (Musical Instrument Data Interface) device, such as a MIDI keyboard or wind controller, or with mouse-operated sliders. In addition to the audio output, the demonstrator computes and displays the amplitude and fundamental frequency of the 10 signal, which is useful to quantify the dynamics of 11 the model. For the sake of this example, it is a type 12 of Van der Pol oscillator, but more complex systems 13 can be handled. The demonstrator holds potential for 14 pedagogical and preliminary research applications, for 15 various topics related to dynamical systems: direct and 16 inverse bifurcations, transient effects such as dynam-17 ical bifurcations, artifacts introduced by integration 18 schemes, and above all, the dynamics of self-sustained musical instruments. 20

1 Introduction

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Autonomous dynamical systems are complicated objects to study and teach: even some of the simplest ones to formulate are extremely unpredictable. The richness of this behavior is far from encapsulated in the usual description of the permanent equilibrium points or periodic regimes [1, 2]. Some of their solutions are non-periodic, or coexist with other stable solutions [3], which makes it difficult to even predict which type of solution is obtained in a given situation. When the system parameters vary, complicated transient effects emerge, such as hysteresis cycles [4] or dynamical bifurcations [5].

Self-oscillating musical instruments such as wind instruments or bowed strings are modeled using such autonomous dynamical systems [6]. Their example illustrates very concretely how transient effects are essential to a complete description of the system's real-life behavior, since they are experienced (at least) at the beginning and end of each note. In this spirit, it seems that a reasonable and compelling approach to experience and explore how a dynamical system

reacts is implementing a virtual "musical instrument" demonstrator. This way, by manipulating the control parameters, the user can see and hear phenomena typical of nonlinear systems in real-time, in a very controlled and repeatable environment. This is all the more relevant in all fields related to music, such as musical acoustics and instrument making, as one can go even further by linking the system's behavior to musical terms, such as intonation (flat, sharp), nuance (piano, forte) or transient dynamics (staccato, legato). The presented demonstrator aims to be as general as possible, meaning that the example model can be replaced by any simple dynamical system with minor adjustments only. While other possible environments for real-time sound synthesis exist, such as C++ (notably the JUCE library), Max/MSP, or Faust, this demonstrator is presented in a pure Matlab implementation, using only the Audio Toolbox (audio_system_toolbox, matlab, signal_blocks). This is

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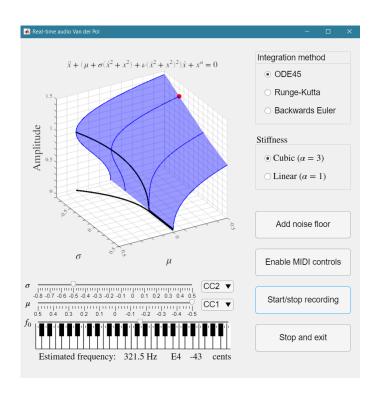


Figure 1: Interface of the real time dynamical system demonstrator.

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advantageous for the many researchers who may want to reuse their preexisting codes, solvers, systems, analysis or display tools. Note that the built-in Matlab tools necessary were not available before R2016a for the Audio toolbox as well as most of the elements of the user interface, and R2018a for the MIDI message handling.

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After a quick presentation of the dynamical system used in the demonstrator in Section 2, the implementation choices are detailed is Section 3. Ideally, the authors wanted this paper to follow along the actual lines of codes implementing the demonstrator. Sadly, the complete code is too lengthy for a journal paper (notably due to display functions, UI building and general housekeeping). Nevertheless, in the hope of being as explicit as possible, Section 3 is built around several code snippets addressing the main challenges of a real-time audio demonstrator. The first of these code excerpts is self-contained and functional, and outputs sound generated by a dynamical system in real-time. The structure of the rest of the section follows that of the code, which is:

- Initialization of the audio output object (the current example uses the audiodevicewriter object)
- Construction of the user interface : buttons, sliders and MIDI device handling.
- Execution of the synthesis loop, typically a while loop with generation of new sound samples, and output of the audio through the audio output object.
- Extraction of audio descriptors and display.

A link to the complete Matlab code is given in Appendix, as well as a compiled version with slightly faster reaction to user controls obtained with the Matlab compiler.

2 A simple system

For this demonstration, we use a modified Van der Pol oscillator with a quadratic and fourth power nonlinearity in the damping term. It can be seen as a simplified model of self-sustained musical instrument. Notably, some fingerings of the saxophone display a similar dynamic [7].

The system is studied in its linear stiffness form in [8]. It is very close to the normal form of the Bautin bifurcation [9]. As such, its behavior is well-known, but rich enough so that it illustrates a good number of phenomena typical of autonomous nonlinear systems. The governing equation is

$$\ddot{x} + \left[\mu + \sigma(\dot{x}^2 + x^2) + \nu(\dot{x}^2 + x^2)^2\right]\dot{x} + x^{\alpha} = 0. \quad (1)$$

Hereafter, we set $\nu = 0.5$ and $\alpha = 1$ (linear stiffness) or $\alpha = 3$ (cubic stiffness). The parameters μ and

 σ are controlled by the user. The amplitude of the oscillations can be approximated analytically as shown in [8], setting $x = X \cos(t)$, as

$$X = \sqrt{\frac{-\sigma \pm \sqrt{\sigma^2 - 4\mu\nu}}{2\nu}}.$$
 (2)

In the range of parameters explored here, this approximation is extremely precise. This formula gives the blue surface in Figure 1. The system exhibits a Hopf bifurcation at $\mu = 0$, meaning that a periodic oscillation emerges from the equilibrium [10]. This corresponds to the point at which the linear damping coefficient changes sign. Hence, the linearized oscillator becomes active (energy is created) when $\mu < 0$. The Hopf bifurcation is supercritical for $\sigma > 0$ and subcritical for $\sigma < 0$. There is a saddle-node bifurcation at $\sigma^2/(4\nu)$ when $\sigma < 0$, marking the turning point where the unstable and stable periodic solutions collapse together [11]. The saddle-node bifurcation merges with the Hopf bifurcation at $\sigma = 0$, forming the codimension 2 Bautin bifurcation [12]. This structure implies that there is a so-called "bistability" zone where both the equilibrium and an oscillating (periodic) regime are stable. In this region, the user can experiment the practical implications of bistability around an inverse Hopf bifurcation, such as hysteresis cycles or the impossibility to obtain an oscillation of arbitrarily low amplitude.

A modified version of Eq. (1) is used in practice in order to produce several notes without changing the dynamics of the continuous-time system by introducing a parameter ω_0 , making the state-space representation of the system

$$\dot{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{pmatrix} = F(X) \tag{3}$$

$$= \omega_0 \left(y \\ -x^\alpha - (\mu + (\sigma(y^2 + x^2) + \nu(y^2 + x^2)^2)y \right) \tag{4}$$

To demonstrate both the versatility of the approach and an unusual way of highlighting the influence of a discretization scheme, the time domain integration of Eq. (1) is realized using three different schemes, between which the user can switch. The simplest is the backward Euler method [13], giving the n+1-th sample as a function of the n-th sample

$$x[n+1] = x[n] + \frac{\omega_0}{F_s}y[n] \tag{5}$$

$$y[n+1] = y[n] + \frac{\omega_0}{F_s} (-x[n]^{\alpha} - (\mu$$
 (6)

+
$$(\sigma(y[n]^2 + x[n]^2) + \nu(y[n]^2 + x[n]^2)^2)y[n]).$$
 (7)

The second method is a fourth-order Runge-Kutta integration scheme [14] where, using the F notation

from Eq. 3, one computes the next sample by

$$X[n+1] = X[n] + \frac{1}{6F_c} \left(K_1 + 2K_2 + 2K_3 + K_4 \right)$$
 (8)

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$$K_1 = F(X[n])$$
 $K_2 = F(X[n] + \frac{K_1}{2F_s})$ (9)

$$K_3 = F(X[n] + \frac{K_2}{2F_s})$$
 $K_4 = F(X[n] + \frac{K_3}{F_s}).$ (10)

The third and last method is Matlab's built-in ode45 solver [15], which is also a type of Runge-Kutta integration scheme but with a auto-adaptive time step.

3 Implementation of the demonstrator

This section describes the ways in which the main functionalities of the demonstrator are implemented. The complete source code can be downloaded from the repository in Zenodo https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8170856 [16].

3.1 Real-time audio on Matlab

The current implementation uses the Audio toolbox object audiodevicewriter, which communicates with the audio driver of the computer. The Matlab version used during the writing of this article is 2021a. Fig. 2 is a self-contained, minimal working example using the system from section 2 solved with ode45. If you run this code, please lower the volume as the sound can be quite loud.

Note that, especially on Windows, best results are obtained using ASIO drivers instead of the default audio driver, and adjusting the sample rate and buffer size of the driver itself to those of the audioDeviceWriter object. However, numerous different ASIO drivers exist depending on each user's setup, which makes it hard to provide a flexible and compact ASIO-based solution. Users of the code are encouraged to adjust the audioDeviceWriter parameters to their particular hardware and driver.

3.2 User interface

The user interface displayed in Figure 1 is comprised of a main display graph, three control sliders (μ , σ and $f_0 = \omega_0/(2\pi)$), two button groups setting the integration scheme and the stiffness exponent α , and 4 buttons for other user actions.

3.3 Musical instrument control through MIDI

A natural way to control the demonstrator is through the MIDI protocol. This is especially relevant for any kind of music-related interpretation, as external MIDI controllers allow to control the demonstrator like a keyboard synthesizer or a wind instrument. In a more general context, MIDI controllers allow for a more fluid control than a mouse and sliders do, for instance by facilitating simultaneous variation of several parameters.

Matlab's audio toolbox support MIDI through the mididevice object. First, the mididevice object is created based on a user input given through the MIDIlistbox object.

```
midicontroller = ...
mididevice('Input', MIDIlistbox.Value);
```

Then, before every buffer of the synthesis loop, the pending MIDI message are gathered using

```
msgs = midireceive(midicontroller);
```

This gives an array of midimsg objects, which can then be interpreted as control parameter changes or note change depending on their type. This can be done by accessing and interpreting the Type property of the midimsg, which involves comparing the Type string to another string (for instance 'NoteOn' or 'ControlChange'). This is slower (sometimes by a factor of ten) than directly reading and comparing the bytes of the messages, which hold the same information. The gain in speed is especially interesting in the case of a wind controller sending ControlChange messages very often to translate the measured blowing pressure of the musician. Therefore, an array of the message bytes is created by

```
msgsbytes = vertcat(msgs.MsgBytes);
```

and then parsed using the first byte as the message type identifier (176 for ControlChange, 144 for NoteOn). In the case of ControlChange, the second byte signals which parameter must be affected by the change. For example, parameter μ is linked to CC number muCC (2 by default), which is parsed from the MIDI message bytes by

In order to apply only the most recent user-provided command, only the last corresponding message is read. The change is then applied by using the new value of the control held in the third byte of the message at line number imsgCCmu.

```
newCCmu = double(msgsbytes(imsgCCmu,3));
```

This value scaled between the control parameter limits gives the new control parameter value.

4 Synthesis loop

The synthesis is performed one audio buffer of samples at a time. Its structure in pseudocode is

```
nu = 0.5; sigma = -0.5; mu = -0.5; Nbuf = 512; w0 = 2*pi*440; Fs = 44100;
ADW = audioDeviceWriter(Fs);
X = [1;1]; t = (0:Nbuf)/Fs;
while 1,
    [t,Xs]=ode45(@(t,X) w0*[X(2);-X(1)-(mu+sigma*(X(2)^2+X(1)^2)+nu*(X(2)^2+X(1)^2)*X(2)],t,X.');
    X = Xs(end,:);
    ADW(Xs(2:end,:));
end
```

Figure 2: Minimal working example solving the oscillator of section 2 in real-time, and outputting the audio stream. This code can be copy-pasted directly to the Matlab command window (depending on the pdf font used the "^" power character needs to be manually rewritten). It is also provided as an M-file in the code archive that can be downloaded in the Appendix.

```
while (stopbutton is not pushed)
Read user controls
Solve equation during one audio buffer
Format solution as audio output
Extract signal descriptors from solution
Update display
Record solution
Output sound
Check pending displays or callbacks
```

Each of the following subsections details a line of this pseudocode block.

4.1 Read user controls

User controls are read either through the MIDI messages or through the sliders. In order to assign a slider's value to a variable, it is possible to check the Value property of the slider on each loop iteration, which is done for the f_0 parameter. This is very close to using the ValueChangedFcn callback, meaning the changes are applied when the user releases the slider thumb. The control parameters μ and σ , however, are updated using the slider callback function ValueChangingFcn, which is called while the user moves the slider. This is necessary to render progressive variations of the parameters, which are very useful to illustrate a quasi-static path along the bifurcation diagram, or a slow attack through the Hopf bifurcation for example.

The button values are then read and stored in separate variables for further use in the loop.

4.2 Solve equation during one audio buffer

Depending on the structure of the solver function, this step can take two forms. If the solver sets its own time-step, and a fortiori if it is auto-adaptive, as is the case for ode45, the solver function is called once to generate the total number Nbuf of samples in the audio buffer. This is implemented as

```
[~, Xts] = ode45(@(t, Xt) VanDerPol5_odefun(...
    Xt,t,mu,nu0,sigma,2*pi*f0),(0:Nbuf)/Fs,X.');
X = Xts(end,:);
positions = Xts(2:end,1);
speeds = Xts(2:end,2);
```

Note that the initial condition X is returned as the first line of the solution Xts. However, it is by definition the last line of previous solution. Therefore, for it not to be repeated twice in the audio stream which causes clicks and artifacts, it is necessary to call ode45 for Nbuf+1 time steps, and keep the last Nbuf for the later audio output.

If, on the contrary, the solver is a simpler explicit scheme which gives X[n+1] as a function of X[n], as is the case for the fourth order Runge-Kutta and backward Euler examples in this demonstrator, it is then called Nbuf times. Then, the solving step is

On the computer this was implemented on, using 44.1 kHz sample rate and a 512 sample buffer, a test without user interface showed that between 3 and 9 ode45-solved oscillators can run in parallel while keeping a fluid audio flux (depending on power consumption options), and between 4 and 12 with the RK4 solver. Using a simpler backward Euler scheme allows between 28 and 82 oscillators to run in parallel. This gives an idea of the headroom of this architecture to accommodate bigger systems. As this result heavily depends on the user's hardware, the code to reproduce this test is given in the code archive linked in the Appendix, so each user can know their machine's potential for more complex systems.

4.3 Format solution as audio output

The solution of the equation must be treated in order to fit inside a Nbuf by 2 matrix which can be passed as argument to the audiodevicewriter object. Here, for this simple system, minimal processing is applied: the solution is simply scaled by an analytical estimate of the maximum amplitude attained in the considered control parameter range. The left and right channel are passed x and y respectively, in order for a direct xy plot of the audio output to represent the phase space of the oscillator.

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audioout = [positions(:) speeds(:)]/Xmax;

In a more general case, it can be useful to listen to certain physical variables rather than others, or process them in a specific manner (filtering or nonlinear processing) for illustrative or aesthetic purposes.

4.4 Extract signal descriptors from solution

Only basic signal descriptors are extracted in this demonstrator: RMS value, or rather mean distance to origin in the phase space, and fundamental frequency. The RMS value is used as the main display indicator, as it is sufficient indicator for this system to differentiate solution branches and locate bifurcation. The fundamental frequency estimate is computed by a simplistic zero-crossing-based algorithm. It helps to quantify the detuning effect of the different integration schemes and of the cubic stiffness.

4.5 Update display

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Any systematic real-time display concurrent with an audio process on Matlab needs to be kept as light as possible to not perturb the audio flux. This demonstrator updates a single animatedline object inside the loop, which represents the current and recent RMS value of the solution.

4.6 Record solution if necessary

Once per audio buffer, the descriptors, control parameters and button values can be recorded in a structure if a button on the interface is pressed by the user. The data is saved in a mat-file for later plotting or otherwise use. In the present demonstrator, no variable at audio rate is recorded in order to prevent excessive memory usage and disk access in the event of a long recording. The data is also used as soon as the recording is stopped to provide a quick, multipurpose plot designed to support a quick analysis of the results. An example of this plot is displayed in Figure 3, where the effect of the integration scheme on fundamental frequency is illustrated. Starting with the RK4 solver, the following parameter variation is applied: beginning at $\mu = 0.5$ and $\sigma = 0.5$, the μ parameter is decreased slowly to its minimum $\mu = -0.5$, followed by parameter σ which also decreases until $\sigma = -0.5$. At this point, the RMS value of the oscillation is at its highest point. The parameters σ and then μ are then slowly brought back to their initial values. This scenario is repeated with the ODE45, starting from approximately 22s, and with the backward Euler scheme, starting from approximately 39s. One can see on the fundamental frequency subplot that the RK4 scheme provides the most consistent fundamental frequency, followed closely by the ODE45 solver where variations do not exceed 1 Hz around the 440 Hz expected frequency. However, the backward Euler scheme entails considerable pitch flattening when the signal amplitude increases, down to about -6 Hz (about -20 cents) from the expected pitch – meaning here the eigenfrequency of the linearized oscillator.

4.7 Output sound

The audiodevicewriter object is used to output audio. It is also responsible for the scheduling of the loop.

ADW (audioout);

4.8 Check pending displays or callbacks

The execution of user interface object callbacks and refreshing of the display is ensured by the command drawnow limitrate placed at the end of the loop. A simple drawnow would degrade the audio output by introducing too many pauses, but drawnow limitrate limits the number of pauses to 20 per

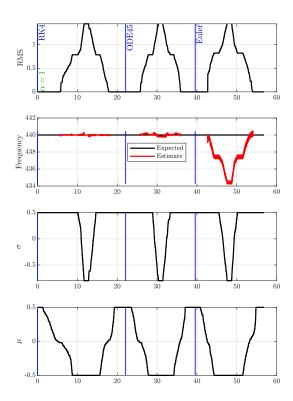


Figure 3: Example of the multipurpose plot created at the end of each recording, illustrating the fundamental frequency variation due to different integration schemes. See section 4.6 for details.

seconds, which is small enough to keep a robust audio stream.

5 Video demonstration

The video, also linked in the caption of Fig 4, illustrates possible uses of the demonstrator, and showcases the fluidity of the controls.

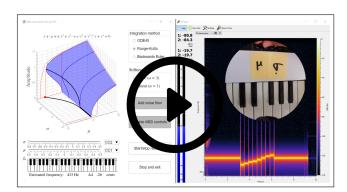


Figure 4: A snapshot of the illustrative video linked at https://youtu.be/_ExgRsgB7wc (until a more stable host is determined).

6 Conclusion

The presented demonstrator holds a lot of potential for teachers and researchers combining dynamical systems with audio engineering or music: in terms of teaching, it makes illustrating transient effects direct and entertaining. It can also be useful for proof of concepts, by quickly assessing the behavior of a dynamical system, or compare two slightly different versions (parameter values, physical hypotheses or integration scheme).

Because it relies solely on Matlab, any researcher that has mainly been coding in Matlab can reuse their usual tools. In particular, we show that a continuous-time formulation of a system can be sufficient to produce sound, simply leaving the integration scheme up to a built-in method such as ode45. There is also reasonable headroom to adapt the demonstrator to a more complex system, especially if one is willing to simplify the integration scheme.

In music-related fields, this kind of demonstrator is all the more interesting as it bridges the gap between the physical model of an instrument and the actual instrument by allowing to control a model with any musical controller supporting the MIDI protocol. The authors strongly believe in the potential of the real-time physical model control as a way to contribute to an objective definition of the 'playability' or 'ease of playing' of a musical instrument.

Acknowledgments

This study has been supported by the French ANR LabCom LIAMFI (ANR-16-LCV2-007-01).

Data Availability Statement

The source code and .exe installer file for the demonstrator, as well as M-files reproducing results for sections 3.1 and 4.2, can be downloaded from the repository in Zenodo https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8170856.

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