

## Signal Processing First Lab 04: Synthesis of Sinusoidal Signals—Music Synthesis

**Pre-Lab and Warm-Up:** You should read at least the Pre-Lab and Warm-up sections of this lab assignment and go over all exercises in the Pre-Lab section before going to your assigned lab session.

**Verification:** The Warm-up section of each lab must be completed **during your assigned Lab time** and the steps marked *Instructor Verification* must also be signed off **during the lab time**. One of the laboratory instructors must verify the appropriate steps by signing on the **Instructor Verification** line. When you have completed a step that requires verification, simply demonstrate the step to the TA or instructor. Turn in the completed verification sheet to your TA when you leave the lab.

**Lab Report:** It is only necessary to turn in a report on Section 4 with graphs and explanations. You are asked to **label** the axes of your plots and include a title for every plot. In order to keep track of plots, include your plot *inlined* within your report. If you are unsure about what is expected, ask the TA who will grade your report.

#### 1 Introduction

This lab includes a project on music synthesis with sinusoids. The piece, Fugue #2 for the Well-Tempered Clavier by Bach¹ has been selected for doing the synthesis program. The project requires an extensive programming effort and should be documented with a complete **formal** lab report. A good report should include the following items: a cover sheet, commented MATLAB code, explanations of your approach, conclusions and any additional tweaks that you implemented for the synthesis. Since the project must be evaluated by listening to the quality of the synthesized song, the criteria for judging a good song are given at the end of this lab description. In addition, it may be convenient to place the final song on a web site so that it can be accessed remotely by a lab instructor who can then evaluate its quality. If you would like to try other songs, the SP First CD-ROM includes information about alternative tunes: Minuet in G, Für Elise, Beethoven's Fifth, Jesu, Joy of Man's Desiring and Twinkle, Twinkle, Little Star.



The music synthesis will be done with sinusoidal waveforms of the form

$$x(t) = \sum_{k} A_k \cos(\omega_k t + \phi_k) \tag{1}$$

so it will be necessary to establish the connection between musical notes, their frequencies, and sinusoids. A secondary objective of the lab is the challenge of trying to add other features to the synthesis in order to improve the subjective quality for listening. Students who take this challenge will be motivated to learn more about the spectral representation of signals—a topic that underlies this entire course.

#### 2 Pre-Lab

In this lab, the periodic waveforms and music signals will be created with the intention of playing them out through a loudspeaker. Therefore, it is necessary to take into account the fact that a conversion is needed from the digital samples, which are numbers stored in the computer memory to the actual voltage waveform that will be amplified for the speakers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>See http://www.hnh.com/composer/bach.htm.



#### 2.1 Theory of Sampling

Chapter 4 treats sampling in detail, but this lab is usually done prior to lectures on sampling, so we provide a quick summary of essential facts here. The idealized process of sampling a signal and the subsequent reconstruction of the signal from its samples is depicted in Fig. 1. This figure shows a continuous-time input

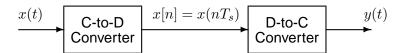


Figure 1: Sampling and reconstruction of a continuous-time signal.

signal x(t), which is sampled by the continuous-to-discrete (C-to-D) converter to produce a sequence of samples  $x[n] = x(nT_s)$ , where n is the integer sample index and  $T_s$  is the sampling period. The sampling rate is  $f_s = 1/T_s$  where the units are samples per second. As described in Chapter 4 of the text, the ideal discrete-to-continuous (D-to-C) converter takes the input samples and interpolates a smooth curve between them. The Sampling Theorem tells us that if the input signal x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output y(t) will be equal to the input x(t) if the sampling rate is more than twice the highest frequency x(t) in the input, i.e., x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) will be equal to the input x(t) if the sampling rate is more than twice the highest frequency x(t) in the input, i.e., x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) will be equal to the input x(t) if the sampling rate is more than twice the highest frequency x(t) in the input, i.e., x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) will be equal to the input x(t) if the sampling rate is more than twice the highest frequency x(t) in the input, i.e., x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) will be equal to the input x(t) if the sampling rate is more than twice the highest frequency x(t) in the input, i.e., x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) will be equal to the input x(t) if the sampling rate is more than twice the highest frequency x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the output x(t) is a sum of sine waves, then the outpu

#### 2.2 D-to-A Conversion

Most computers have a built-in analog-to-digital (A-to-D) converter and a digital-to-analog (D-to-A) converter (usually on the sound card). These hardware systems are physical realizations of the idealized concepts of C-to-D and D-to-C converters respectively, but for purposes of this lab we will assume that the hardware A/D and D/A are perfect realizations.

The digital-to-analog conversion process has a number of aspects, but in its simplest form the only thing we need to worry about at this point is that the time spacing  $(T_s)$  between the signal samples must correspond to the rate of the D-to-A hardware that is being used. From MATLAB, the sound output is done by the soundsc(xx,fs) function which does support a variable D-to-A sampling rate if the hardware on the machine has such capability. A convenient choice for the D-to-A conversion rate is 11025 samples per second, so  $T_s = 1/11025$  seconds; another common choice is 8000 samples/sec. Both of these rates satisfy the requirement of sampling fast enough as explained in the next section. In fact, most piano notes have relatively low frequencies, so an even lower sampling rate could be used. If you are using soundsc(), the vector xx will be scaled automatically for the D-to-A converter, but if you are using sound.m, you must scale the vector xx so that it lies between  $\pm 1$ . Consult help sound.

(a) The ideal C-to-D converter is, in effect, being implemented whenever we take samples of a continuous-time formula, e.g., x(t) at  $t=t_n$ . We do this in MATLAB by first making a vector of times, and then evaluating the formula for the continuous-time signal at the sample times, i.e.,  $x[n] = x(nT_s)$  if  $t_n = nT_s$ . This assumes perfect knowledge of the input signal, but we have already been doing it this way in previous labs.

To begin, create a vector  $\times 1$  of samples of a sinusoidal signal with  $A_1 = 100$ ,  $\omega_1 = 2\pi(800)$ , and  $\phi_1 = -\pi/3$ . Use a sampling rate of 11025 samples/second, and compute a total number of samples equivalent to a time duration of 0.5 seconds. You may find it helpful to recall that a MATLAB statement such as tt=(0:0.01:3); would create a vector of numbers from 0 through 3 with increments of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>This sampling rate is one quarter of the rate (44,100 Hz) used in audio CD players.



0.01. Therefore, it is only necessary to determine the time increment needed to obtain 11025 samples in one second. You should use the syn\_sin() function from a previous lab for this part.

Use soundsc() to play the resulting vector through the D-to-A converter of the your computer, assuming that the hardware can support the  $f_s=11025~{\rm Hz}$  rate. Listen to the output.

- (b) Now create another vector  $\mathbf{x}2$  of samples of a second sinusoidal signal (0.8 secs. in duration) for the case  $A_2=80$ ,  $\omega_2=2\pi(1200)$ , and  $\phi_2=+\pi/4$ . Listen to the signal reconstructed from these samples. How does its sound compare to the signal in part (a)?
- (c) **Concatenate** the two signals x1 and x2 with a short duration of 0.1 seconds of silence in between. You should be able to use a statement something like:

```
xx = [x1, zeros(1,N), x2];
```

assuming that both x1 and x2 are row vectors. Determine the correct value of N to make 0.1 seconds of silence. Listen to this new signal to verify that it is correct.

(d) To verify that the concatenation operation was done correctly in the previous part, make the following plot:

```
tt = (1/11025)*(1:length(xx)); plot( tt, xx );
```

This will plot a huge number of points, but it will show the "envelope" of the signal and verify that the amplitude changes from 100 to zero and then to 80 at the correct times. Notice that the time vector tt was created to have exactly the same length as the signal vector xx.

(e) Now send the vector xx to the D-to-A converter again, but change the sampling rate parameter in soundsc(xx, fs) to 22050 samples/second. *Do not recompute the samples in* xx, just tell the D-to-A converter that the sampling rate is 22050 samples/second. Describe how the *duration* and *pitch* of the signal were affected. Explain.

#### 2.3 Structures in MATLAB

MATLAB can do structures. Structures are convenient for grouping information together. For example, run the following program which plots a sinusoid:

Notice that the members of the structure can contain different types of variables: scalars, vectors or strings.

#### 2.4 Debugging Skills

Testing and debugging code is a big part of any programming job, as you know if you been staying up late on the first few labs. Almost any modern programming environment provides a *symbolic debugger* so that break-points can be set and variables examined in the middle of program execution. Of course, many



programmers insist on using the old-fashioned method of inserting print statements in the middle of their code (or the MATLAB equivalent, leaving off a few semi-colons). This is akin to riding a tricycle to commute around Atlanta.

In order to learn how to use the MATLAB tools for debugging, try help debug. Here is part of what you'll see:

```
- Set breakpoint.
dbstop
           - Remove breakpoint.
dbclear
dbcont
           - Resume execution.
dbstack
           - List who called whom.
dbstatus
           - List all breakpoints.
dbstep
           - Execute one or more lines.
           - List M-file with line numbers.
dbtype
dbquit
           - Ouit debug mode.
When a breakpoint is hit, MATLAB goes into debug mode. On the PC
and Macintosh the debugger window becomes active and on UNIX and VMS
the prompt changes to a K>. Any MATLAB command is allowed at the
prompt. To resume M-file function execution, use DBCONT or DBSTEP.
```

One of the most useful modes of the debugger causes the program to jump into "debug mode" whenever an error occurs. This mode can be invoked by typing:

```
dbstop if error
```

With this mode active, you can snoop around inside a function and examine local variables that probably caused the error. You can also choose this option from the debugging menu in the MATLAB editor. It's sort of like an automatic call to 911 when you've gotten into an accident. Try help dbstop for more information. Use the following to stop debugging

```
dbclear if error
```

Create an M-filecoscos.m containing the code below and use the debugger to find the error(s) in the function. Call the function with the test case: [xn,tn] = coscos(2,3,20,1). Use the debugger to:

- 1. Set a breakpoint to stop execution when an error occurs and jump into "Keyboard" mode,
- 2. display the contents of important vectors while stopped,

To exit from the debugger use DBQUIT.

- 3. determine the size of all vectors by using either the size() function or the whos command.
- 4. and, lastly, modify variables while in the "Keyboard" mode of the debugger.

```
function [xx,tt] = coscos( f1, f2, fs, dur )
% COSCOS multiply two sinusoids
%
t1 = 0:(1/fs):dur;
t2 = 0:(1/f2):dur;
cos1 = cos(2*pi*f1*t1);
cos2 = cos(2*pi*f2*t2);
xx = cos1 .* cos2;
tt = t1;
```



#### 2.5 Piano Keyboard

Section 4 of this lab will consist of synthesizing the notes of a well known piece of music.<sup>3</sup> Since these signals require sinusoidal tones to represent piano notes, a quick introduction to the frequency layout of the piano keyboard is needed. On a piano, the keyboard is divided into octaves—the notes in one octave being twice the frequency of the notes in the next lower octave. For example, the reference note is the A above

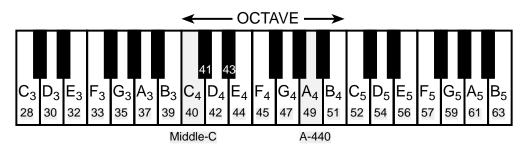


Figure 2: Layout of a piano keyboard. Key numbers are shaded. The notation  $C_4$  means the C-key in the fourth octave.

middle-C which is usually called A-440 (or  $A_4$ ) because its frequency is 440 Hz. (In this lab, we are using the number 40 to represent middle C. This is somewhat arbitary; for instance, the Musical Instrument Digital Interface (MIDI) standard represents middle C with the number 60). Each octave contains 12 notes (5 black keys and 7 white) and the ratio between the frequencies of the notes is constant between successive notes. As a result, this ratio must be  $2^{1/12}$ . Since middle C is 9 keys below A-440, its frequency is approximately 261 Hz. Consult chapter 9 for even more details.

Musical notation shows which notes are to be played and their relative timing (half, quarter, or eighth). Figure 3 shows how the keys on the piano correspond to notes drawn in musical notation. The white keys are all labeled as A, B, C, D, E, F, and G; but the black keys are denoted with "sharps" or "flats." A sharp such as  $A^{\#}$  is one key number larger than A; a flat is one key lower, e.g.,  $A^{\flat}_{4}$  is key number 48.

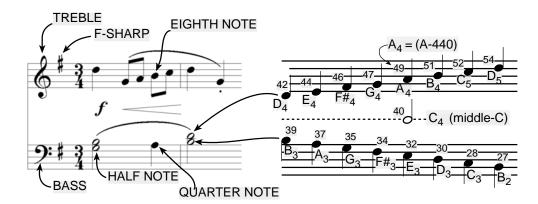


Figure 3: Musical notation is a time-frequency diagram where vertical position indicates which note is to be played. Notice that the shape of the note defines it as a half, quarter or eighth note, which in turn defines the duration of the sound.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>If you have little or no experience reading music, don't be intimidated. Only a little music knowledge is needed to carry out this lab. On the other hand, the experience of working in an application area where you must quickly acquire knowledge is a valuable one. Many real-world engineering problems have this flavor, especially in signal processing which has such a broad applicability in diverse areas such as geophysics, medicine, radar, speech, etc.



Another interesting relationship is the ratio of fifths and fourths as used in a chord. Strictly speaking the fifth note should be 1.5 times the frequency of the base note. For middle-C the fifth is G, but the frequency of G is about 392 Hz which is not exactly 1.5 times 261.6. It is very close, but the slight detuning introduced by the ratio  $2^{1/12}$  gives a better sound to the piano overall. This innovation in tuning is called "equally-tempered" or "well-tempered" and was introduced in Germany in the 1760's and made famous by J. S. Bach in the "Well Tempered Clavier," which is the source of the song for this lab.

You can use the ratio  $2^{1/12}$  to calculate the frequency of notes anywhere on the piano keyboard. For example, the E-flat above middle-C (black key number 43) is 6 keys below A-440, so its frequency should be  $f_{43} = 440 \times 2^{-6/12} = 440/\sqrt{2} \approx 311$  Hertz.

#### 3 Warm-up

#### 3.1 Note Frequency Function

Now write an M-file to produce a desired note for a given duration. Your M-file should be in the form of a function called key2note.m. Your function should have the following form:

```
function xx = key2note(X, keynum, dur)
 KEY2NOTE Produce a sinusoidal waveform corresponding to a
        given piano key number
ે
%
  usage: xx = key2note (X, keynum, dur)
용
         xx = the output sinusoidal waveform
્ટ
         X = complex amplitude for the sinusoid, <math>X = A*exp(j*phi).
    keynum = the piano keyboard number of the desired note
        dur = the duration (in seconds) of the output note
                %-- or use 8000 Hz
fs = 11025;
tt = 0:(1/fs):dur;
                  %<====== fill in this line
xx = real( X*exp(j*2*pi*freq*tt) );
```

For the freq = line, use the formulas given above to determine the frequency for a sinusoid in terms of its key number. You should start from a reference note (middle-C or A-440 is recommended) and solve for the frequency based on this reference. Notice that the xx = real() line generates the actual sinusoid as the real part of a complex exponential at the proper frequency.

**Instructor Verification** (separate page)

#### 3.2 Synthesize a Scale

In a previous section you completed the key2note.m function which synthesizes the correct sinusoidal signal for a particular key number. Now, use that function to finish the following incomplete M-file that will play scales:

```
%--- play_scale.m
%---
scale.keys = [ 40  42  44  45  47  49  51  52 ];
%--- NOTES: C  D  E  F  G  A  B  C
% key #40 is middle-C
%
```



For the tone = line, generate the actual sinusoid for keynum by making a call to the function key2note() written previously. It is important to point out that the code in play\_scale.m allocates a vector of zeros large enough to hold the entire scale then **inserts** each note into its proper place in the vector xx.

**Instructor Verification** (separate page)

#### 3.3 Spectrogram: Two M-files

In this part, you must display the spectrogram of the scale synthesized in the previous section. Remember that the spectrogram displays an image that shows the *frequency* content of the synthesized *time* signal. Its horizontal axis is time and its vertical axis is frequency.

- (a) Generate the signal for the scale with play\_scale.m.
- (b) Use the function specgram(xx,512,fs). Zoom in to see the progression of three consecutive notes in the scale (help zoom), and identify the note A-440 in your spectrogram. The second argument<sup>4</sup> is the *window length* which could be varied to get different looking spectrograms. The spectrogram is able to "see" the separate spectrum lines with a longer window length, e.g., 1024 or 2048.<sup>5</sup>

```
Instructor Verification (separate page)
```

- (c) If you are working at home, you might not have the <code>specgram()</code> function because it is part of the "Signal Processing Toolbox." In that case, use the function <code>plotspec(xx,fs)</code> which is in the SP First toolbox. Show that you get the same result as in part (b). Explain why the result is correct. If necessary, add a grid so that frequencies can be measured accurately.
  - Note: The argument list for plotspec() has a different order from specgram, because plotspec() uses an optional third argument for the *window length* (default value is 256).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>If the second argument is made equal to the "empty matrix" then its default value of 256 is used.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Usually the window length is chosen to be a power of two, because a special algorithm called the FFT is used in the computation. The fastest FFT programs are those where the signal length is a power of 2.



### Lab Exercise: Synthesis of Musical Notes

The audible range of musical notes consists of well-defined frequencies assigned to each note in a musical score. Five different pieces are given in the book, but we have chosen a different one for the synthesis program in this lab. Before starting the project, make sure that you have a working knowledge of the relationship between a musical score, key number and frequency. The following steps are an overview of the process of actually synthesizing the music. Read it through, but don't do it now. Rather we will walk you through each step in greater detail in the sections that follow.

- (a) Determine a sampling frequency that will be used to play out the sound through the D-to-A system of the computer. This will dictate the time  $T_s$  between samples of the sinusoids.
- (b) Determine the total time duration needed for each note, and also determine the frequency (in hertz) for each note (see Fig. 2 and the discussion of the well-tempered scale in the warm-up.) A data file called bach\_fugue.mat is provided with this information stored in MATLAB structures; this contains the portion of the piece needed for this lab. A second file called bach\_fugue\_short.mat has the same information for the first few measures of the piece; you may find this useful for initial debugging. Both of these files can be found in the MATLAB files link.
- (c) Synthesize the waveform as a combination of sinusoids, and play it out through the computer's built-in speaker or headphones using soundsc().
- (d) Make a plot of a few periods of two or three of the sinusoids to illustrate that you have the correct frequency (or period) for each note.
- (e) Include a spectrogram image of a portion of your synthesized music—probably about 1 or 2 secs—so that you can illustrate the fact that you have all the different notes. This piece has many sixteenth notes, so a window length of 512 might be the best choice for specgram(). In addition, the spectrogram M-files will scale the frequency axis to run from zero to half the sampling frequency, so it might be useful to "zoom in" on the region where the notes are. Consult help zoom, or use the zoom tool in MATLAB-v5.3 figure windows.

#### **Spectrogram of the Music**

Musical notation describes how a song is composed of different frequencies and when they should be played. This representation can be considered to be a time-frequency representation of the signal that synthesizes the song. In MATLAB we can can compute a time-frequency representation from the signal itself. This is called the spectrogram, and its implementation with the MATLAB function specgram() or plotspec(). To aid your understanding of music and its connection to frequency content, a MATLAB GUI is available so that you can visualize the spectrogram along with musical notation. This GUI also has the capability to synthesize music from a list of notes, but these notes are given in "standard" musical notation, not key GUI number. For more information, consult the help on musicgui.m.



#### 4.2 Fugue #2 for the Well-Tempered Clavier

Fugue #2 for the Well-Tempered Clavier is one of those pieces of classical music that everyone has heard, but nobody particularly remembers its name. The first few measures are shown in Fig. 4, and all the measures that you must synthesize can be found on the class website. You must synthesize the entire portion of the Fugue #2 for the Well-Tempered Clavier given in bach\_fugue.mat by using sinusoids.6

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Use sinusoids sampled at 11025 samples/sec (a lower sampling rate could be used if you have a computer with limited memory).





Figure 4: First few measures of the piece Fugue #2 for the Well-Tempered Clavier.

#### 4.3 Data File for Notes

Fortunately, a data file called bach\_fugue.mat has been provided with a transcription of the notes and information related to their durations. The data files bach\_fugue.mat and bach\_fugue\_short.mat can be found at the MATLAB files link. The format of a MAT file is not text; instead, it contains binary information that must be loaded into MATLAB. This is done with the load command, e.g.,

```
load bach_fugue.mat
```

After the load command is executed a new variable will be present in the workspace, called the Voices. Do whos to see that you have this new variable.

The variable theVoices is a vector whose elements are structures. Each structure gives information about a single melody in the song; in Fugues, such melodies are often called "voices." You can determine the number of melodies in the song by calculating the length of the vector theVoices with the command length(theVoices). This number will also equal the maximum number of notes that are ever simultaneously played in the song.

Each structure the Voices(i) has three fields: noteNumbers, startPulses, and durations. A typical structure the Voices(i) looks like

```
theVoices(i).noteNumbers = [ # # # # ... ] % Key Number
theVoices(i).startPulses = [ # # # # ... ] % Starting Pulse
theVoices(i).durations = [ # # # # ... ] % Duration in Pulses
```

The value of voices(i).noteNumbers(j) is a single note's key number. The note's starting pulse (where there are four pulses per quarter note, or 16 pulses per measure) and duration in pulses is given by the corresponding elements in the other two fields.

Measures and beats are the basic time intervals in a musical score. A measure is denoted in the score by a vertical line that cuts from the top to the bottom of one line in the score. For example, in Fig. 4 there are three such vertical lines dividing that part of the musical score into four measures. Each measure contains a fixed number of beats which, in this case, equals four. The label "C" at the left of Fig. 4 describes this relationship and is called the time signature of the song. By convention, "C" denotes "common time," in which there are four beats per measure and that a single beat is the length of one quarter note. For example, typing theVoices(1).noteNumbers(6) at the MATLAB command prompt returns the number 52, which describes the C in the first measure. Because the note is a sixteenth note and a sixteenth note is one pulse, theVoices(1).durations(6) equals one. The value of theVoices(1).startPulses(6) is 11 because this note begins eleven pulses from the beginning of the song.



#### **4.3.1** Timing

Musicians often think of the tempo, or speed of a song, in terms of "beats per minute" or BPM, where the beats are usually quarter notes. You should write the code so that the BPM is a global parameter that can be changed easily. For example, you might let the BPM be defined with the statement:

$$bpm = 120;$$

Computer programs which lets musicians record, modify, an play back notes played on a keyboard or other electronic instrument are called "sequencer." The timing resolution of a sequencer is usually measured in "pulses per quarter note," or PPQ. In this lab, we will employ four pulses per quarter note. A real commercial sequencer would have a much higher PPQ to encapsulate the subtle timing nuances of a real human playing a real instrument. The starting times and durations of notes in the music file provided to you are specified in terms of "pulses," so it will be helpful helpful to compute the number of "seconds per pulse," for instance via:

```
beats_per_second = bpm/60;
seconds_per_beat = 1/beats_per_second;
seconds_per_pulse = seconds_per_beat / 4;
```

Half notes are twice as long as quarters; eighth notes are half as long. Triplets, as in *Jesu*, appear to be eighth notes, but should actually be a little shorter—three of them should have a total duration equal to a quarter note. If the tempo is defined only once, then it could be changed: for example, setting bpm = 240 would make the whole piece play twice as fast.

For example, a quarter note is designated by the number 4, an eighth note by the number 8, a half note by the number 2, a whole note by 1, and so on. When we need a note that lasts longer than a whole note then we just use a fraction, e.g., 0.5 designates a note that is twice as long as a whole note.

Another timing issue is related to the fact that when a musical instrument is played, the notes are not continuous. Therefore, inserting very short pauses between notes usually improves the musical sound because it imitates the natural transition that a musician must make from one note to the next. An envelope (discussed below) can accomplish the same thing.

#### 4.4 Musical Tweaks

The musical passage is likely to sound very artificial, because it is created from pure sinusoids. Therefore, you should try to improve the quality of the sound by incorporating some modifications. For example, one improvement comes from using an "envelope," where you multiply each pure tone signal by an envelope E(t) so that it fades in and out.

$$x(t) = E(t)\cos(2\pi f_{\text{kev}}t + \phi) \tag{2}$$

If an envelope is used it, should "fade in" quickly and fade out more slowly. An envelope such as a half-cycle of a sine wave  $\sin(\pi t/\mathrm{dur})$  is simple to program, but it sounds poor because it does not turn on quickly enough, so simultaneous notes of different durations no longer appear to begin at the same time. A standard way to define the envelope function is to divide E(t) into four sections: attack (A), delay (D), sustain (S), and release (R). Together these are called ADSR. The attack is a quickly rising front edge, the delay is a small short-duration drop, the sustain is more or less constant and the release drops quickly back to zero. Figure 5 shows a linear approximation to the ADSR profile. Consult help on linspace() or interpl()

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Popular commercial sequencers include Mark of the Unicorn's Digital Performer, Emagic's Logic Audio, Steinberg's Cubase and Opcode's Studio Vision.



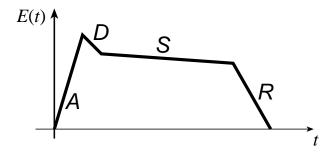


Figure 5: ADSR profile for an envelope function E(t).

for functions that create linearly increasing and decreasing vectors.

Some other issues that affect the quality of your synthesis include relative timing of the notes, correct durations for tempo, rests (pauses) in the appropriate places, relative amplitudes to emphasize certain notes and make others soft, and harmonics. Since true piano sounds have a second and third harmonic content, and we have been studying harmonics, this modification is relatively simple, but be careful to make the amplitudes of the harmonics smaller than the fundamental frequency component.<sup>8</sup>

Furthermore, if you include too many higher harmonics, you might violate the sampling theorem and cause *aliasing*. You should experiment to see what sounds best.

#### 4.5 Programming Tips

You may want to modify your key2note() function to accept additional parameters describing amplitude, duration, etc. In addition, you might choose to add an envelope and/or harmonics. Chords are created on a computer by simply adding the signal vectors of several notes. Although we have provided a MATLAB file containing the note values and durations for *Fugue #2 for the Well-Tempered Clavier*, you are free to modify the duration values or add notes if you think it will improve the quality of the synthesized sound.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>In the early 80's, a company called Digital Keyboards produced a commercial synthesizer called the Synergy in which the user created sounds via "additive synthesis" by specifying the envelops of individual frequency components. This is an quite powerful, albeit tedious and challenging way to create realistic sounds. American composer Wendy Carlos (best known for *Switched-On Bach* and her score for *A Clockwork Orange*) used it extensively in her score for *Tron*. See http://www.synthmuseum.com/synergy/synergy01.html



# Lab 04 Instructor Verification Sheet

For each verification, be prepared to explain your answer and respond to other related questions that the lab TA's or professors might ask. Turn this page in at the end of your lab period.

Name:	Date of Lab:
Part 3.1 Complete and demonstrate the function key2note.m:	
Verified:	Date/Time:
Part 3.2 Complete and demonstrate the script file play_scale.m:	
Verified:	Date/Time:
Part 3.3 Demonstrate the spectrogram of the scale generated by play_scale.m:	
Verified:	Date/Time:
Sound Evaluation Criteria	
Does the file play notes? All Notes	Most Treble only
Overall Impression:	
Excellent: Enjoyable sound, good use of extra features such as harmonics, envelopes, etc.	
Good: Bass and Treble clefs synthesized and in sync, few errors, one or two special features.	
OK: Basic sinusoidal synthesis, including the bass, with only a few errors.	
Poor: No bass notes, or treble and bass not synchronized, many wrong notes.	