An algorithm for determining the composition of a musical chord using Fourier transformations

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1 Rationale

As someone who is interested in signals, music and mathematics it was obvious for me that I wanted my mathematics internal assessment to be related to music. Although I have known of and used the Fourier transformations before, I have never used Fourier transformations to find individual notes in sounds. I decided, therefore, to try and identify chords using Fourier transformations, and try to find which are the composing notes of a chord.

2 Introduction

Even now, in the 21st century, an algorithm for identifying tones in music does not exist¹. Research has been done which does allow simple chord progressions to be identified, but complex progressions remain a mystery.

The likes of Hausner, Kurnia and of course, Wang, have developed algorithms which present themselves as being promising. Although currently, simple, with the exception of Wang's, these algorithms are powerful enough to follow chord progressions. However, with advancements in the field, it is likely that these algorithms would improve to a point where they could follow highly complex, highly noisy melodies, for example, in music like jazz and rock.

The research goal of this paper is to create a simple algorithm with decent performance which allows for recognizing chords and the individual tones that make them up. This simple algorithm could prove useful as a piece of a bigger algorithm for identifying chord progressions in songs.

2.1 Musical background

A chord is a musical unit in which three or more tones are played simultaneously (Benward, and Saker). The most simple chords are triads, as they are composed of only three tones. Although they are modeled by three composing sine waves (for example, the C major chord is $f_{C_4maj}(t) = sin(41.63t) + sin(52.46t) + sin(62.39t)$), it is very important to note that actual musical instruments do not produce sine waves, as there

¹Trained models are able to identify tones, however, there doesn't exist a single untrained algorithm which can achieve this.

are physical events that prevent this - reverb², distortion³, harmonic series⁴, etc.

Another major issue stands - the timbre of a musical instrument. *Timbre* does not have a clear-cut definition as it is quite abstract, but can be thought of as the color of the sound a musical instrument produces, ie. it is the property (or, rather *properties*) that allow us to discern musical instruments from one another.

All of these effects hinder the possibility of easily and effectively fitting a function using the least squares method. To find the individual frequencies composing a chord, it is necessary to convert the chord signal from the time domain to the frequency domain. For this, the *Fourier transformation* is used.

2.2 Fourier transformation

To understand the Fourier transformation, a definition of what the Fourier series is necessary.

2.2.1 Fourier series

The Fourier series is a method of representing arbitrary periodic functions as a sum of simple sine and cosine functions. A method for deriving it follows.

Suppose an even function such as the one graphed in figure 1 exists.

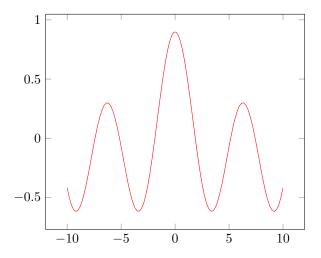


Figure 1: An arbitrary even function

The premise is that it is possible to express this function as a sum of cosine waves:

$$f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \cos(2\pi nt)$$

$$A(a) = \begin{cases} -4 & \text{when } a < -4 \\ a & \text{when } -4 < a < 4 \\ 4 & \text{when } a > 4 \end{cases}$$

This is an example of hard clipping, and is the simplest example, but other, more complicated examples exist.

 $^{^2}$ Reverberation is the effect of reflecting sound waves. When sound waves reflect off of surfaces many of them build up and then decay as they become absorbed (Valente et al.). It is what allows us to discern from big halls to small studios when hearing audio.

³Distortion is most easily modeled as clipping. If a signal function is defined as $f(t) = A(a)sin(\omega t)$ then clipping will, for example, occur when:

⁴The harmonic series is the result of multiple parts of a vibrating body vibrating themselves (Benward, and Saker). A tone, therefore, is not composed of only one sine wave, but multiple sine waves of varying amplitudes. Usually, the longest harmonic is the strongest.

Note that n is the frequency of the wave in Hz. This derivation will employ Hz, however, no difference does it pose to use a radial frequency either.

However, from this premise, it is necessary to calculate the values of a_n 's. This problem is solved in the following manner:

Both sides are multiplied by $\cos(2\pi mt)$:

$$f(t)\cos(2\pi mt) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n \cos(2\pi nt)\cos(2\pi mt)$$

Next, both sides are integrated over one period of the function, and the trigonometric identity of the product of cosines is employed:

$$\int_{T} f(t) \cos(2\pi mt) dt = \int_{T} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \cos(2\pi nt) \cos(2\pi mt) dt$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \int_{T} \cos(2\pi nt) \cos(2\pi mt) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \int_{T} \left(\cos\left((m+n)2\pi t\right) + \cos\left((m-n)2\pi t\right)\right) dt$$
(1)

Suppose $m \ge 0$ (this is possible to suppose because m is arbitrary, and more importantly, it is physically impossible for frequency to be negative). From this it follows that $\cos((m+n)2\pi t)$ has m+n oscillations in a single period T, and consequently, m+n oscillations in the integration interval. Since this is true, when this function is integrated, the result is 0^5 . Equation 1 is then simplified to:

$$\int_{T} f(t) \cos(2\pi mt) dt = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} \left(\int_{T} \cos((m+n)2\pi t) dt + \int_{T} \cos((m-n)2\pi t) dt \right)
= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} \int_{T} \cos((m-n)2\pi t) dt$$
(2)

Since the cosine function is even, in a single period T (the integration interval - from $-\frac{T}{2}$ to $\frac{T}{2}$) the following is true:

$$\cos((m-n)2\pi t) = \cos((n-m)2\pi t)$$

When m = n:

$$\cos((m-n)2\pi t) = \cos(0) = 1$$

Due to the orthogonality of sines and cosines⁶ it follows that:

$$\int_T \cos((m-n)2\pi t) = \begin{cases} \int_T \cos((m-n)2\pi t)dt = 0 & \text{when } m \neq n \\ \int_T 1 \cdot dt = T & \text{when } m = n \end{cases}$$

It is key to note that:

$$\forall (0 < m < \infty, 0 < n < \infty \land m \neq n) \rightarrow \int_{T} cos((m-n)2\pi t)dt = 0$$

$$\int_{-\frac{T}{2}}^{\frac{T}{2}} \cos\left(\frac{(n+m)\pi}{T}t\right) + \cos\left(\frac{(n-m)\pi}{T}t\right) dt = 0 \text{ when } m \neq n$$

This paper considers it as a premise.

⁵The proof for this is trivial, however, it is published by a third party online and is available to the reader at the following link: http://planetmath.org/integraloveraperiodinterval.

⁶The orthogonality of sines and cosines is outside of the scope of this paper, but in a nutshell, it is the property of sines and cosines which states that:

From this it follows that the whole summation in equation 2 can be reduced to the case when m = n:

$$\int_{T} = f(t)\cos(m2\pi t)dt = \frac{1}{2}a_{m}T$$

To get a_m is trivial:

$$a_m = \frac{2}{T} \int_T f(t) \cos(m2\pi t) dt$$

Finally, replacing m with n we get:

$$a_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_T f(t) \cos(m2\pi t) dt \tag{3}$$

However, the case of m = 0 is not considered. This case gives the y axis offset a_0 . Substituting with m = 0 in equation 1, we get:

$$\int_{T} f(t)\cos(2\pi mt)dt = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \int_{T} \cos(2\pi nt)\cos(2\pi mt)dt$$

$$\int_{T} f(t)\cos(0)dt = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \int_{T} \cos(2\pi nt)\cos(0)dt$$

$$\int_{T} f(t)dt = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \int_{T} \cos(2\pi nt)dt$$

$$\int_{T} f(t)dt = Ta_0$$

This gives the final result for the y axis offset:

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{T} \int_T f(t)dt \tag{4}$$

This result is coincidentally intuitively the average of all of the y values of the points of the function in a single period.

Odd functions are represented in a similar manner:

$$f_o(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin(2\pi nt)$$

The coefficients b_n are, then:

$$b_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_T f_o(t) \sin(2\pi nt) dt$$

As the derivation is quite similar to the one for the even function, it has been omitted.

Since any arbitrary function f(t) can be represented as a sum of odd and even functions:

$$f_o(t) = \frac{1}{2}(f(t) - f(-t))$$

$$f_e(t) = \frac{1}{2}(f(t) + f(-t))$$

$$f(t) = f_o(t) + f_e(t)$$

The Fourier series' components can be applied:

$$f(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(2\pi nt) + b_n \sin(2\pi nt))$$

with the coefficients being:

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{T} \int_T f(t)dt$$

$$a_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_T f(t) \cos(2\pi nt) dt, n \neq 0$$
$$b_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_T f(t) \sin(2\pi nt) dt$$

It is possible to express the Fourier series in its complex form, using Euler's formulas:

$$cos\phi = \frac{e^{i\phi} + e^{-i\phi}}{2}$$

$$sin\phi = \frac{e^{i\phi} - e^{-i\phi}}{2i}$$

$$f(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(2\pi nt) + b_n \sin(2\pi nt))$$

$$= a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(a_n \frac{e^{i2\pi nt} + e^{-i2\pi nt}}{2} + b_n \frac{e^{i2\pi nt} - e^{-i2\pi nt}}{2i} \right)$$

$$= a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n - ib_n}{2} e^{2\pi nt} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n + ib_n}{2} e^{-2\pi nt}$$
in as

Let us know define c_n as

$$c_n = \frac{a_n - ib_n}{2}$$

This gives the complex Fourier series:

$$f(t) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{i2\pi t}$$

This is referred to as the *synthesis* equation.

From this it follows that c_n , the complex Fourier coefficient, is:

$$c_n = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{2}{T} \int_T f(t) \cos(2\pi nt) dt - i\frac{2}{T} \int_T f(t) \sin(2\pi nt) dt\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{T} \int_T f(t) \cos(2\pi nt) - if(t) \sin(2\pi nt) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{T} \int_T f(t) \left(\frac{e^{i2\pi nt} + e^{-i2\pi nt}}{2} - i\frac{e^{i2\pi nt} - e^{-i2\pi nt}}{2i}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{T} \int_T f(t) \frac{2e^{i2\pi nt}}{2} dt$$

$$c_n = \frac{1}{T} \int_T f(t) e^{-i2\pi nt} dt$$

This is referred to as the *analysis* equation. This equation gives spectral lines for a frequency n. Note that it is not continuous.

2.3 The Fourier transformation

The Fourier transformation can be thought of as a continuous version of the Fourier series:

$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-i2\pi\nu t}dt$$

Let the Fourier transformation be defined as the limit of the analysis formula of the Fourier series as T approaches infinity:

$$\hat{f}(t) = \lim_{T \to \infty} c_n = \lim_{T \to \infty} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f(t)e^{-i2\pi nt}dt$$

Note the factor $\frac{1}{T}$ is completely ignored, due to the fact that $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{n}=0$, which would ruin the function. This is far more relevant when doing the inverse Fourier transformation, however the inverse Fourier transformation is outside of the scope of this paper and therefore is not explored. The limit makes the spectral lines come closer, creating the final equation:

$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-i2\pi\nu t}dt$$

The power of this equation lies in the fact that it gives a continuous function showing the frequencies of a non-periodic signal. In turn, it has practical applications in converting a signal from the time domain to the frequency domain.

3 The chord identification algorithm

Given an input signal such as the one given in figure 2, the algorithm operates in distinct stages.

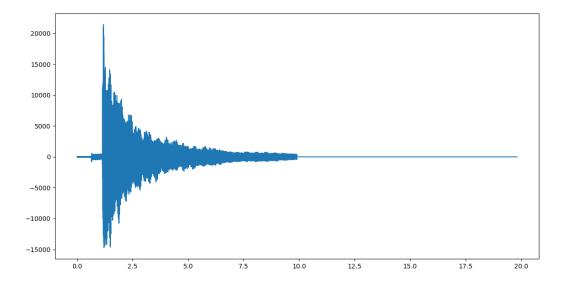


Figure 2: An example of an input signal - in this case a C_{maj} chord

The computer is instructed to load the amplitude samples of the signal in a column vector A.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$
 where, a, b, c, d and e are sample values

The Microsoft Waveform datatype does not give information on the x axis, as these values are inferred to be a linear space⁷ from 0 to the norm of the y vector. To get precise time information, ie. to get the number of seconds for every point in the y vector, it is necessary to use the sampling frequency of the .wav file. This sampling frequency, F_s , gives the number of samples taken in a single second, ie. the number of y values per single second. Finally, to get the values of the x axis, it is necessary to multiply the aforementioned linear space by the reciprocal of the sampling frequency. The domain of the .wav file is stored in the t column vector:

$$t = \frac{1}{F_s} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\2\\3\\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$
, where $|t| = |A|$

With these values, it is possible to proceed in the algorithm.

3.1 The Fourier transformation

A fast Fourier transformation⁸ is ran on the amplitude vector.

$$F = \text{fft}(t, A)$$

The Fourier transformation gives a symmetric vector of both positive and negative values, so the negative values are ignored, as their absolute values are equal to the positive ones, and they provide no relevant information.

$$F' = \begin{pmatrix} F_1 \\ F_2 \\ F_3 \\ \vdots \\ F_{\frac{|F|}{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Since the numbers given by the Fourier transformation are complex, to get the amplitudes of the frequencies it is necessary to get absolute values for all of the values in the vector given by the Fourier transformation.

$$F'' = \begin{pmatrix} |F'_1| \\ |F'_2| \\ |F'_3| \\ \vdots \\ |F'_{|F'|}| \end{pmatrix}$$

A vector f is created to store the domain of the Fourier transformation, such that it is a linear space from 0 to 1 with the norm being equal to the one returned Fourier transformation, multiplied by the sampling frequency of the original file. This is in turn, creates the frequency domain.

$$f = F_s \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
, such that $|f| = |F''|$

3.2 Fourier transform peak identification

In this section of the algorithm the computer tries to identify which peaks play a significant role in composing a chord.

 $^{^7\}mathrm{A}$ vector of linearly equidistant values

⁸The fast Fourier transformation is a computer program implementation of the Fourier transformation which is faster than the standard implementation of the Fourier transformation, but produces equal results. It utilizes functions exclusive to computer science.

The vector F'' is normalized first:

$$F''' = \frac{1}{\max(F'')} \cdot F''$$

This is useful for the next step, finding values that are bigger than a constant cutoff value c_o and storing them in a vector p:

$$p = \varnothing$$

$$\forall v \in F''' : \left(v > c_o \Rightarrow p = \begin{pmatrix} p \\ v \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

As an example, the normalized Fourier transformation, alongside the cutoff value of $c_o = 0.15$, is plotted in figure 3.

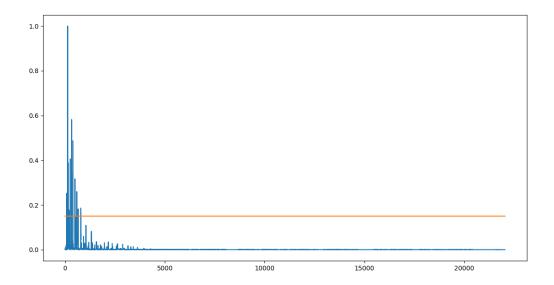


Figure 3: The normalized Fourier transformation of the signal given in figure 2, ie. a C_{maj} chord.

Note that the p vector does not contain the individual frequencies of the notes played, but contains multiple values which resolve to one frequency, due to the fact that the Fourier transformation is a continuous function. To resolve this issue, the average of neighboring values is calculated. Neighboring values w are neighboring to a value v if the absolute difference between them is less than a leeway value v.

$$p' = \varnothing$$

$$\forall v \in p : \left(\left(\left(w \notin p' : |v - w| < l \right) \to p' = \begin{pmatrix} p' \\ w \end{pmatrix} \right) \land \left(\left(w \in p' : |v - w| < l \right) \to w = (w + v)/2 \right) \right)$$

At this point, the vector p' contains the frequencies of the played chord that are more intense than a given cutoff value.

3.3 Note identification

Notes are identified in this step by finding the closest value in a look-up table of frequencies⁹. As well as identifying the most plausible notes the certainty of a frequency being a single note is calculated according

⁹This table is available at the following link: https://pages.mtu.edu/~suits/notefreqs.html.

to the following. In this section, let us denote any value in p' as v. Let us also denote the lookup table as a column vector r. We start from the premise that v lies between two closest values in r:

$$r_n < v < r_{n+1}$$

First, we identify the closest value to v. At this point, we know either r_n or r_{n+1} , but we do not know the other. To calculate the certainty of v being the note r_n or r_{n+1} we need to calculate the unknown value. This is done with the following logical assertion. First denote the index of the known value $(r_n \text{ or } r_{n+1} \text{ as } k)$. Next, calculate a value o according to:

$$\left((|v - r_k| > |v - r_{k+1}|) \Rightarrow o = r_{k+1} \land \neg (|v - r_k| > |v - r_{k+1}|) \Rightarrow o = r_{k-1} \right)$$

Finally, calculate the certainty c according to:

$$c = 1 - \frac{|v - r_k|}{|o - r_k|}$$

The full algorithm is available at the following link:

3.4 Chord identification

Since this algorithm is only designed for chord triads, it was not difficult to design an algorithm which identifies chords from the previously identified notes. A simple look-up table was created and a simple searching algorithm was implemented.

4 Evaluation

To identify how well the algorithm performs tests were created. 10 guitar chord samples were downloaded from the internet (*vide* the works cited). These chord samples were then analyzed using the algorithm. Since it was known which chords were played, it was possible to determine the accuracy of the algorithm.

For a value of $c_o = 0.15$, the algorithm's success rate was 60%. However, when the value of c_o was chosen to be a value greater or lesser than 0.15 different success rates were achieved. A plot of the relationship between c_o and the success rate of the algorithm is given in figure 4.

It is obvious that the maximal success rate is achieved for the minimal value of $c_o = 0.02$. This success rate is equal to 70%. Note, however, that the chords played in the samples might have not been the ones that the authors stated they were. It is possible that the guitars the chords were played on were out of tune, or the chords were played improperly, or the tune of the guitars was not one of $A_4 = 440$, or it is even possible that the guitars used were not precisely manufactured.

5 Conclusion

The algorithm seems effective in achieving the required result. The evaluation of the algorithm was incomplete, due to a lack of chord samples. For more accurate evaluation it is necessary to use better chord samples.

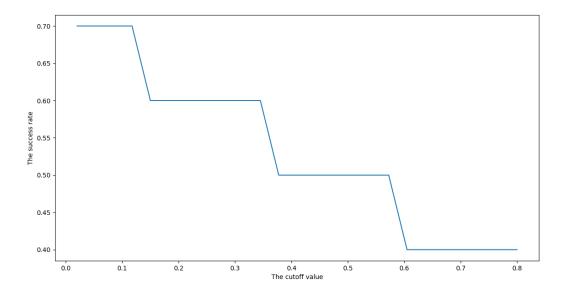


Figure 4: The relationship between c_o and the success rate of the algorithm.

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