### Music 270a: Signal Analysis

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### Signal Analysis

- Some tools we may want to use to automate analysis are:
  - 1. Amplitude Envelope Follower
  - 2. Peak Detection (attacks or harmonics), surfboard method
  - 3. Pitch Detection, harmonics vs. chaotic signal
  - 4. Frequency/Spectral Envelope (formant tracking, mccs or lpc)
  - 5. Constant overlap-add (COLA)

# Envelope Follower (Amplitude detection)

- An envelope follower will essentially determine the amplitude envelope without dipping down into the valleys/zero crossings.
- It is a reduction of the information, representing the overal shape of the signal's amplitude (i.e. amplidtude envelpe) without the higher frequency information.
- ullet The amplitude envelope y(n) is given by

$$y(n) = (1 - \nu)|x(n)| + \nu y(n - 1),$$

where  $\nu$  determines how quickly changes in x(n) are tracked:

- if  $\nu$  is close to one, changes are tracked slowly
- if  $\nu$  is close to zero, x(n) has an immediate influence on y(n).
- In order to capture attacks in the signal, the value for  $\nu$  is usually smaller for an increasing signal and large for one that is decreasing.
- See envfollower.m

### **Peak Detection**

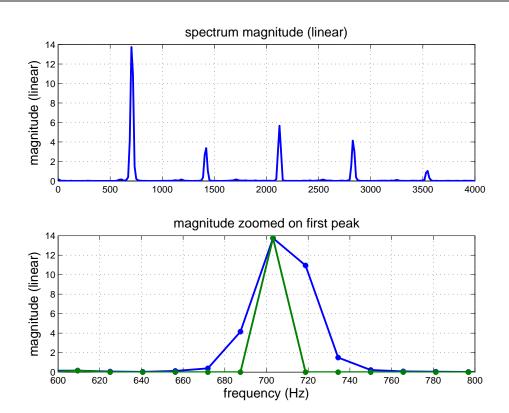


Figure 1: Peak Detection

```
% threshhold
th = 0;

% filter descending values
uslope = Ymag > [Ymag(1); Ymag(1:end-1)];

% filter ascending values
dslope = Ymag >= [Ymag(2:end); 1+Ymag(end)];

% only indeces at maxima retain non-zero value
Ymax = Ymag .* (Ymag > th) .* uslope .* dslope;

% peak indeces
maxixs = find(Ymax);
```

## Quadratic interpolation

- The position of the peak is limited by the resolution of the DFT/FFT and its estimation can be improved using quadratic interpolation.
- The general equation for a parabola is given by

$$y(x) \triangleq a(x-p)^2 + b,$$

where p is the peak location and b = y(p).

ullet Considering the parabola at points x=0,1,-1 yields 3 equations,

$$y(0) = ap^{2} + b = \beta$$
  

$$y(1) = a(1 + p^{2} - 2p) + b = \gamma$$
  

$$y(-1) = a(1 + p^{2} + 2p) + b = \alpha,$$

and 3 unknowns a, p, b.

• Solve for a:

$$\alpha - \gamma = 4ap \longrightarrow a = \frac{\alpha - \gamma}{4p}.$$

• Solve for *p* using *a*:

$$\gamma - \beta = a - 2ap$$

$$= \frac{\alpha - \gamma}{4p} - 2\frac{\alpha - \gamma}{4p}p$$

$$4p(\gamma - \beta) = \alpha - \gamma - 2(\alpha - \gamma)p$$

$$4p(\gamma - \beta) + 2p(\alpha - \gamma) = \alpha - \gamma$$

$$2p(\gamma - 2\beta + \alpha) = \alpha - \gamma$$

$$p = \frac{\alpha - \gamma}{2(\gamma - 2\beta + \alpha)}.$$

Finally, the height at peak p is given by

$$y(p) = b$$

$$= \beta - ap^{2}$$

$$= \beta - \frac{\alpha - \gamma}{4p}p^{2}.$$

• Another way (Dan Ellis)

### **Pitch Detection**

- Considerations for Computer Music applications:
  - 1. Signals are often noisy, eg: poor soundcards, other instruments/voices,
  - 2. How much frequency resolution is needed? Correct octave a must, but will a semitone suffice?
  - 3. What latency can be tolerated (what framesize should be used for analysis?)
  - 4. Does the instrument have well-defined/behaved harmonics?
- In the paper by de la Cuadra et al., "Efficient Pitch Detection Techniques for Interactive Music", four (4) pitch detection algorithms are summarized:
  - 1. Harmonic Product Spectrum
  - 2. Maximum Likelihood
  - 3. Cepstrum-Biased HPS
  - 4. Weighted Autocorrelation Function

## Harmonic Product Spectrum (HPS)

• HPS (Noll 1969) measures the maximum coincidence for harmonics for each spectral frame according to

$$Y(\omega) = \prod_{r=1}^{R} |X(\omega r)|, \tag{1}$$

where R is the number of harmonics being considered.

• The resulting periodic correlation array  $Y(\omega)$  is then searched for a maximum value of a range of possible fundamental frequencies  $\omega_i$ 

$$\hat{Y} = \max_{\omega_i} Y(\omega_i) \tag{2}$$

to obtain the fundamental frequency estimate.

- Octave errors are common (detection is sometimes an octave too high).
- To correct, apply this rule: if the second peak amplitude *below* initially chosent pitch is approximately 1/2 of the chosen pitch AND the ratio of amplitudes is above a threshold (e.g., 0.2 for 5 harmonics), THEN select the lower octave peak as the pitch for the current frame.

- Due to noise, frequencies below about 50 Hz should not be searched for a pitch.
- Pros: HPS is simple to implement, does well under a wide range of conditions, and **runs in real-time**.
- Cons: low frequency resolution must be enhanced by zero-padding, so that the spectrum can be interpolated to the nearest semitone. This means that high frequencies are also being unecessarily interpolated.
- See hps.m

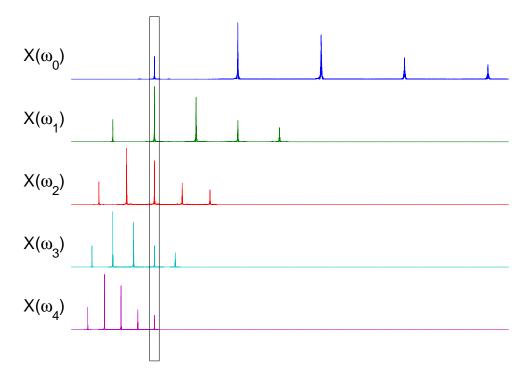


Figure 2: Harmonic Product Spectrum

# Uses of Linear Predictive Coding (LPC)

- LPC, a statistical method for predicting future values of a waveform on the basis of its past values<sup>1</sup>, is often used to obtain a spectral envelope.
- LPC differs from formant tracking in that:
  - the waveform remains in the time domain;
     resonances are described by the coefficients of an all-pole filter.
  - altering resonances is difficult since editing IIR
     filter coefficients can result in an unstable filter.
  - analysis may be applied to a wide range of sounds.
- LPC is often used to determine the filter in a source-filter model of speech<sup>2</sup> which:
  - characterizes the response of the vocal tract.
  - reconstitutes the speech waveform when driven by the correct source.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Markel, J. D., and Gray, A. H., Hr. *Linear Prediction of Speech*. New York: Apringer-Verlag, 1976.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>In a source-filter model of speech, there is assumed to be no feedback dependency between the vibrating vocal folds and the vocal track

### Concept of LPC

- ullet Given a digital system, can the value of any sample be predicted by taking a linear combination of the previous N samples?
- Stated mathematically, can a set of coefficients,  $a_k$ , be determined such that

$$y(n) = a_1 y(n-1) + a_2 y(n-2) + \dots + a_N y(n-N).$$

- That is, can a signal be represented as coefficients of an all-pole (only feedback terms) IIR filter.
- ullet If yes, then the coefficients and the first N samples would completely determine the remainder of the signal, because the rest of the samples can be calculated by the above equation.

#### LPC residual

- ullet The answer is actually "not precisely" for a finite N.
- Rather, we determine the cofficients that give the best prediction by minimizing the difference, or error e(n), between the actual sample values of the input waveform y(n) and the waveform re-created using the derived predictors  $\hat{y}(n)$ .

$$\min_{n} \{ e(n) \} = \min_{n} \{ \hat{y}(n) - y(n) \}.$$

- The smaller the average value of the *error*, also called the *residual*, the better the set of predictors.
- ullet The residual may be used to exactly reconstruct the original signal y(n) by using it as an input to our all-pole filter, that is

$$y(n) = b_0 e(n) + a_1 y(n-1) + a_2 y(n-2) + ... + a_N y(n-N)$$
 where  $b_0$  is a scaling factor that gives the correct amplitude.

 When the speech is voiced, the residual is essentially a periodic pulse waveform with the same fundamental frequency as the speech. When unvoiced, the residual is similar to white noise.

#### LPC Order

- ullet The accuracy of the predictor improves with an increase of order N:
- ullet The smallest value of N that will yield sufficiently quality in the speech representation is related to
  - 1. the highest frequency in the speech,
  - 2. the number of formant peaks expected and
  - 3. the sampling rate.
- There is no exact relationship for determining what value of N should be used, but in general it's between 10 and 20 or the sampling rate in kHz plus 4 (for  $fs=15 \mathrm{kHz}$ , you might use a N=19).
- Schemes for determining predictors by minimizing the residual work either explicitly or implicitly.
- A more rigorous treatment of the subject can be found in J. Makhoul's tutorial<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Makhoul, J. "Linear Prediction, a Tutorial Review." *Proceedinds of the institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers*, 63, 1975, 561-580.

## LPC Analysis in Matlab

 Matlab for generating original, lpc, and residual spectra.

```
%lpc
order = fs/1000 + 5; % order
xlpc = lpc(xw, order)'; % coefficients
%windowed speech frequency response
zpf = 3; Nfft = 2^nextpow2(N*zpf);
XW = fft(xw, Nfft);
% lpc spectrum
[H,w] = freqz(1, xlpc, Nfft, 'whole');
%inverse filter to obtain residual
E = XW./H;
e = real(ifft(E));
```

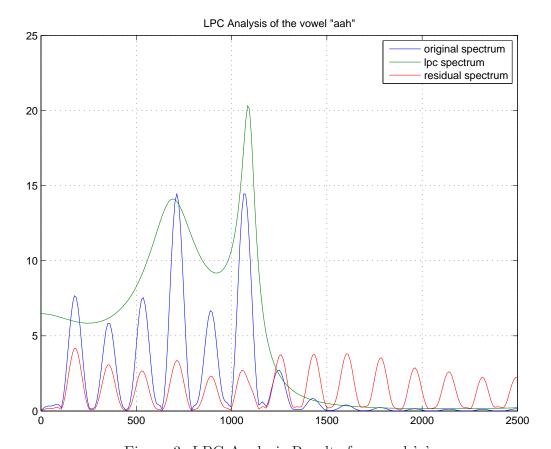


Figure 3: LPC Analysis Results for vowel 'a'.

## Constant Overlap Add (COLA)

 Mathematical definition of the Short-time Fourier Transform (STFT) is given by

$$X_m(\omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)w(n-mR)e^{-j\omega n},$$

where R is the hopsize, and m is the length of the window.

ullet The window used in the STFT, w(n), must satisfy the Constant Overlap-Add (COLA) property:

$$\sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} w(n - mR) = 1.$$

• If COLA is satisfied, then the sum of successive DTFTs over time equals the DTFT of the whole

signal  $X(\omega)$ , that is:

$$\sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} X_m(\omega) \triangleq \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)w(n-mR)e^{-j\omega n}$$

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)e^{-j\omega n} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} w(n-mR)$$

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)e^{-j\omega n} = X(\omega), \text{ if COLA.}$$

- Rectangle window is COLA if there is no overlap.
- Bartlett window, and all the Hamming family are COLA with 50 % overlap (when end points are handled correctly).

### Matlab implementation

```
[x, fs, nbits] = wavread('...');
N = length(x);
Nwin = 256; % window size
Noverlap = Nwin/2; % 50 percent overlap
zpf = 1; Nfft = Nwin*zpf;
X = zeros(Nfft, round(N/Noverlap-1));
win = hanning(Nwin); %COLA window
for i=0:N/Noverlap-2
  ix = Noverlap*i+[1:Nwin];
  X(:,i+1) = fft(x(ix).*win, Nfft);
end
%Reconstruct
y = zeros(N,1);
for i=0:N/Noverlap-2
  ix = Noverlap*i+[1:Nwin];
  y(ix) = y(ix) + real(ifft(X(:,i+1)));
end
```