



**AALBORG UNIVERSITY**  
DENMARK

**Aalborg Universitet**

## **Towards Home-Made Dictionaries for Musical Feature Extraction**

Harbo, Anders La-Cour

*Publication date:*  
2003

*Document Version*  
Også kaldet Forlagets PDF

[Link to publication from Aalborg University](#)

*Citation for published version (APA):*  
Harbo, A. L-C. (2003). *Towards Home-Made Dictionaries for Musical Feature Extraction*.

### **General rights**

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- ? Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- ? You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- ? You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal ?

### **Take down policy**

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us at [vbn@aub.aau.dk](mailto:vbn@aub.aau.dk) providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

# TOWARDS HOME-MADE DICTIONARIES FOR MUSICAL FEATURE EXTRACTION

*Anders la Cour-Harbo*

Aalborg University  
Department of Control Engineering  
Fredrik Bajers Vej 7C  
9220 Aalborg East, Denmark  
alc@control.auc.dk

## ABSTRACT

The majority of musical feature extraction applications are based on the Fourier transform in various disguises. This is despite the fact that this transform is subject to a series of restrictions, which admittedly ease the computation and interpretation of transform coefficients, but also imposes arguably unnecessary limitations on the ability of the transform to extract and identify features. However, replacing the nicely structured dictionary of the Fourier transform (or indeed other nice transform such as the wavelet transform) with a home-made dictionary is a dangerous task, since even the most basic properties are easily lost.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The extraction of features from music signal, and indeed many types of signals, often starts with a transformation of the signal. The purpose is to rearrange the energy in the signal such that various features of interest is concentrated in few samples. A large class of transforms of particular interest in feature extraction is the the linear transforms, because they can be interpreted as a correlation between a signal and a dictionary of atoms. The choice of dictionary is usually guided by some knowledge of the signals to be transformed and by the properties associated with each dictionary. The shape and structure of the atoms in the dictionary determine which shapes and structures in the signal the transform will 'look for', i.e. which features can be extracted by choosing only a few samples in the transformed signal, and the interpretation of the atoms is therefore crucial in understanding how the transform responds to various properties of the signal.

The by far most widely used linear transform for feature extraction in music is the Fourier transform. Although there are a number of good reasons for using this particular transform (in particular the conception of music as a linear combination of individual frequencies is a good reason) there are a number of indications that the Fourier transform (and indeed also the more recent wavelet transform) is inadequate for extracting high level and detailed information from music.

Firstly, in the majority of the more advanced Fourier transform based feature extraction applications reported in the literature (such as classification of notes and harmonics [1, 2], identification of genre [3, 4] and instruments [5, 6], automated transcription [7, 8], beat and rhythm detection [9, 10], to mention just a few)

the success rate is lower than any slightly trained listener is capable of. Secondly, the trigonometric dictionary corresponding to the Fourier transform fulfills a set of rather restrictive and in the context of musical analysis arguably unnecessary conditions that introduces a series of limitations in the use of Fourier coefficients for feature extraction (see for instance [11]).

Relaxing just some of the conditions introduces a significant freedom in the design of the dictionary, a freedom which can be used to tailor a dictionary to a certain signal type, such as music. However, even slightly loosened conditions come at a surprisingly high cost in the form of more complicated interpretations, confusion in coefficient order, numerical instability, and loss of fast implementations. Indeed, the mathematical as well as practical challenges in applying home-made dictionaries is far from trivial.

## 2. FREEDOM AND LIMITATIONS

In theory one has absolute freedom when choosing atoms for the dictionary. This is a quite appealing fact in the sense that it provides the freedom to design atoms which resembles features of interest, which is known to appear in the signal. The corresponding sample in the transformed signal is then an indication of to what extent that particular feature is present in the signal. Nonetheless virtually no-one exploits this freedom, but rather stick to transforms where the atoms are generated by some method independent of the signals to be transformed. In many cases the dictionary is an orthogonal (or orthogonal-like) set, and in some cases the atoms are merely dilated and translated versions of one another.

The major reasons for choosing a priori given and rather restricted transforms in favor of the freedom to design signal-specific dictionaries is that some transforms have a set of properties which anyone would be very reluctant to abandon. A list of these properties is given below. All of the well-known transforms (Fourier, wavelet, Gabor, etc.) possess most (often all) of these properties. A home-made 'arbitrary' dictionary does not necessarily possess any of these properties!

**Orthogonality** In an orthogonal dictionary all atoms are independent in the sense that changing one coefficient in the transformed signal is equivalent to altering the original signal (by addition) with exactly the corresponding atom. This makes the calculations and interpretation of transformed signal easy, and allows for a simple reconstruction based on the same dictionary.

**Uniqueness** When there is a one-to-one correspondence between the original and the transformed signal (this implies that

---

This work is in part supported by the Danish Technical Science Foundation (STVF) Grant no. 56-00-0143.

the dictionary is a basis) the transformed signal is unique. Thus, the original signal is represented by only one particular set of coefficients. If the dictionary contains more atoms than necessary for representing any signal the dictionary is redundant.

**Mother atom** A dictionary can be generated by simple alterations, like translation, scaling, and dilation, of a single atom. In that case the interpretation of every atom is closely related to the interpretation of the mother atom, and thus, the whole dictionary has in some sense a uniform interpretation.

**Greedy** When the best  $m$ -term approximation of a signal is given by the  $m$  largest transform coefficients the dictionary is called greedy (see [15, 16] for a precise definition). Thus, in a greedy dictionary the most dominating features always correspond to the largest coefficients.

Note that an orthogonal transform requires the signal as well as the atoms to exist in a Hilbert space, while greediness is defined in a Banach space. Note also that orthogonality implies uniqueness and greediness.

It is important to realize that the main reasons for sticking to transforms with these properties is algorithmic and computational as well as a fairly simple interpretation of transform coefficients. When it comes to targeting specific, significant features in the signals one can only hope (or have a qualified believe) that an a priori given set of atoms will perform reasonably well.

For instance, a wavelet basis is (in  $L_2$  norm) an orthogonal dictionary based on a mother atom (it also possesses the other properties). As a consequence the computation of transform coefficients is easy, and the interpretation of the transform result is straight forward. However, orthogonality combined with a mother atom introduces significant restrictions to the freedom of choosing atoms for the dictionary. Once we choose the first atom, we automatically exclude a rather large set of other atoms. We can only hope that none of these other atoms resemble important features in the signal.

The obvious question at this point is why the vast majority of feature extraction results are based on these transforms instead of transforms tailored to particular purposes. The short answer is that it is very difficult (if not impossible) to design a fast transform according to some arbitrary dictionary, and the interpretation of the coefficients is by no means straight forward. When each single coefficient is potentially affected by all features (non-orthogonality) and more than one coefficient corresponds to each feature (non-uniqueness) and each atom is constructed according to its own rule (no mother atom) and the most dominating features are not necessarily represented by the largest coefficients (not greedy dictionary), it does become difficult to extract as well as exploit the transform coefficients.

### 3. REDUNDANT DICTIONARIES

In feature extraction applications the most common reason for abandoning orthogonality is the need or desire for a redundant dictionary. It may be that in order to target all variations of all interesting features it is essential to introduce more atoms than is strictly necessary for representing the signal in the transform domain. Or one might be interested in having multiple ways of representing the same signal and therefore purposely introduce more atoms (as is the case with the Gabor dictionary). In most cases a redundant dictionary is needed for targeting all features, often simply due to the

fact that most features are localized in time, and thus time translations of the same atom is needed to find all such features (this argument applies in other domains, such as frequency, as well). A redundant dictionary composed of individual, 'arbitrary' atoms will suffer from the loss of the above mentioned properties and one might therefore be interested in finding some way of structuring the redundancy.

Suppose that a group of signals seems to contain two distinct sets of features where one set would be well represented in a frequency-localized dictionary and the other set would be well represented in a time-localized dictionary. An easy way of imposing some structure while adhering to the apparent features in the signal is to let the dictionary be the union of two (or more) orthogonal dictionaries. While this approach does not a priori guarantee any of the above properties it does become much easier to make statements about the transform coefficients.

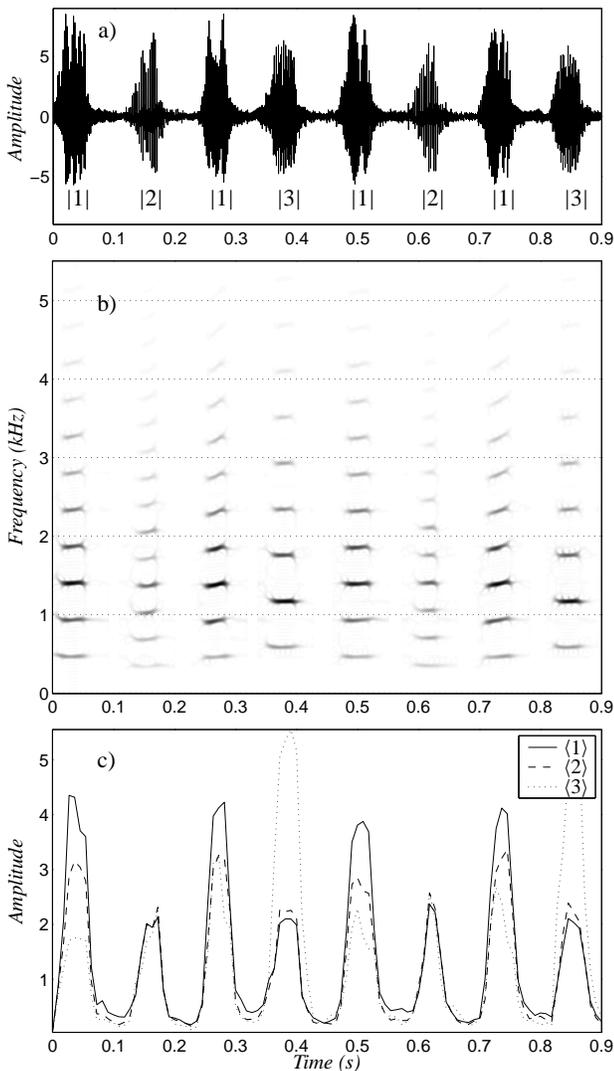
One major problem that arises with redundant dictionaries is finding the optimal set of atoms for representing a given signal (as representations are no longer unique). It turns out that this problem is NP-hard, and consequently one has to settle for a suboptimal representation in any practical applications. In the case of merged dictionaries a number of methods has been suggested for approximating relatively fast the optimal representation. The basis pursuit [17] uses convex optimization for finding a suboptimal representation. The algorithmic complexity is equal to Fourier and wavelet analysis, i.e.  $O(N \log N)$ . Another related method is the matching pursuit approach [18, 19] which employs a greedy algorithm that iteratively selects atoms to obtain a suboptimal representation. A variation on this theme is local discriminant bases, see [20].

The Gabor transform is also (usually) a redundant representation, and is one of the more serious, organized attempts to relax (although from a radical stand-point only slightly) the restrictive conditions imposed on the dictionary. For Gabor transform applied to music signal see [12, 13, 14].

### 4. EXISTING HOME-MADE DICTIONARIES

Despite the many challenges there do exist quite a few results on applications of home-made dictionaries ranging from slight relaxations of one or two of the above mentioned properties to complete abandonment of most of the properties, with a tendency to the former rather than the latter! The general impression of these results is that virtually any small step towards an 'arbitrary' home-made dictionary is accompanied by a major increase in interpretational complexity and post-transform processing, and, thus, computational load. This is exemplified by the fact that while the best representation in a orthogonal dictionary is readily available from the coefficients, it is an NP-hard problem to obtain the optimal representation in a union of two orthogonal dictionaries.

Existing results are also characterized by the lack of a unified theory for arbitrary or slightly structured dictionaries (as such a theory is still in its infancy) and as a consequence there is a large variety in the methods and terminology applied in different publications. A few examples of home-made-dictionary applications are: Merging of different well-structured bases with basis pursuit and matching pursuit (see above), adaption of an existing orthogonal construction to a particular signal [21], using a very large set of features for generating a dictionary (sparse component analysis) [22]. There also exist several musical applications, for instance chirp atoms [23], matching pursuit [24], and tone model design of atoms [25].



**Fig. 1.** The three graphs show: a) Waveform of sampled trumpet fanfare with markings of which of three notes is played. b) Time-frequency distribution of energy (log scale) by means of smoothed pseudo Wigner-Ville distribution. c) Output of transform based on hand-made dictionary.

## 5. TRUMPET SOUND AS AN EXAMPLE

To illustrate the points made in the first part of this paper we here present a simple home-made dictionary. The signal to be analyzed is a part of a trumpet fanfare played by a single trumpet, and consists of three different tones played in rapid succession. The waveform of the sampled (11025 Hz) signal is shown in Figure 1a along with markings of the which note is played. The time-frequency distribution of the energy is shown by means of a smoothed Vigner-Wille distribution (a refinement of the Fourier spectrogram, see Cohen [26]) in Figure 1b.

In this example the aim is to identify which of the notes is being played at what point in time, and obviously to do this by means of a hand-made dictionary. As argued above there are a

number of consideration worth doing in terms of computational efficiency, but this example serves an illustrative purpose only and thus a brute force approach suffice.

The sole purpose of the dictionary is to identify features corresponding to three different notes, and several methods can be applied for designing the atoms. The most obvious methods is taking those particular parts of the signal waveform that holds the features of interest, i.e. let each of the atoms be a replica of waveform features. While this method seems appealing it often turns out to be surprisingly inefficient. The reason is that the features we are looking for are identified not by an exact waveform, but rather a particular structure of the waveform. Therefore we want the atom to respond to this structure rather than a particular waveform. Consequently, we need to reproduce the structure of the feature in order to be able to disregard the small (or not so small!) differences between waveforms corresponding to the same feature.

Depending on what sort of differences one can expect various methods can be applied in an attempt to make such differences transparent to the atom. In the present case the main difference is low amplitude noise, phase shift, and small variations in frequency (too small to be noticed in the time-frequency plane in Figure 1b, but large enough to cause a significant discrepancy between a waveform-replicated atom and (other) occurrences of that feature).

To reproduce the structure of the three features in the present signal, three vectors have been designed such that they have approximately the same frequency content as the three features (thus the time-frequency plane in Figure 1b). While this approach relies on the Fourier transform as a design tool other transforms, such as the wavelet transform, might just as well have been applied, since the choice of transform for the purpose of reproducing a certain structure is governed by the ability of the transform to analyze as well as synthesize in a nice and easy fashion rather than producing coefficients with a specific interpretation.

The length of the designed vectors is 100 entries, i.e. long enough to capture sufficiently low frequencies. A matrix of size  $300 \times 100$  is now constructed with the first vector inserted in the first 100 rows and starting on the diagonal with wrap around. The following 100 rows are filled in the same fashion with the second vector, and so on. In this fashion the unknown phase is captured. The entire signal is then transformed by applying this matrix to consecutive parts of the signal (each part being 100 samples), that is, no overlap, and finally, the average of the absolute value of the first 100 samples (1), the second (2) and third 100 samples (3) of the transform coefficients are computed. The resulting signals are shown in Figure 1c.

There are two apparent properties of the three curves: Firstly, large coefficients in the transform does not necessarily indicate the presence of the corresponding feature. For instance the response from the second atom (2) is larger for feature |1| than for its ‘own’ feature |2|. Secondly, it is nonetheless easy to tell which feature is present at what point in time since the total response (all three curves) differs significantly between features as well as vary only a little for different instances of the the same feature.

This second property allows some simple non-linear method to map the three dimensional transform output to the set  $\{|1|, |2|, |3|\}$ , i.e. the three notes. In this simple case a one-hidden layer neural network with two perceptrons would suffice (the challenge resembles the classical XOR problem, see [27]).

There are a number of obvious improvements, such as exploiting the chirp-like structure in some of the notes (as evident in the

time-frequency plot) and applying the transform in a more subtle way. However, the construction suffice for the present example.

## 6. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this paper is to bring attention to the potential as well as the challenges of home-made dictionaries. In a musical feature extraction application based on a linear transform one has a choice of dictionary ranging from the classical, well-structured, restricted dictionaries such as Fourier and wavelet to ‘arbitrary’, home-made dictionaries. It was argued that the degree of structure in a dictionary is quite important because 1) a ‘too high’ degree of structure imposes unnecessary restrictions on the choice of atoms, 2) a ‘too low’ degree of structure means loss of very useful computational and interpretational properties, and 3) even a slight reduction in the degree of structure comes at a high cost. The union of orthogonal bases is currently being investigated by several people and is at present perhaps the most interesting way of constructing less restricted dictionaries.

The simple example of identifying notes in a trumpet fanfare demonstrates one of many ways of constructing a feature-based transform. The simplicity of the example is deceptive, though, as more extensive sound examples would require a significantly larger effort, and indeed the purpose is only to illustrate some of the points made in the preceding discussions of home-made dictionaries.

## 7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author would like to thank Lasse Borup for references and comments on the theoretical aspects of home-made dictionaries.

## 8. REFERENCES

- [1] S.H. Nawab, S.A. Ayyash, and R. Wotiz, “Constant-Q spectral analysis for identification of musical notes,” *Proc. Int. Conf. on Acou., Speech and Signal Proc.*, vol. 5, pp. 3373–3376, 2001.
- [2] L. Rossi, G. Girolami, and M. Leca, “Identification of polyphonic piano signals,” *Acustica*, vol. 83, no. 6, pp. 1077–1084, November 1997.
- [3] G. Tzanetakis and P. Cook, “Musical genre classification of audio signals,” *IEEE Trans. Speech and Audio Proc.*, vol. 10, no. 5, pp. 293–302, July 2002.
- [4] M. Grimaldi, A. Kokaram, and P. Cunningham, “Classifying music by genre using the wavelet packet transform and a round-robin ensemble,” Tech. Rep., The University of Dublin, Computer Science Department, November 2002, TCD-CS-2002-64.
- [5] J.C. Brown, “Computer identification of wind instruments using cepstral coefficients,” *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.*, vol. 103, pp. 2967, 1998.
- [6] A. Eronen, “Comparison of features for musical instrument recognition,” *Proc. of IEEE Workshop on Appl. of Signal Proc. to Audio and Acoustics*, pp. 19–22, October 2001.
- [7] E.D. Scheirer, “Extracting expressive performance information from recorded music,” M.S. thesis, MIT, September 1995.
- [8] A. Klapuri, “Automatic transcriptin of music,” M.S. thesis, Tampere University of Technology, Dept. of Information Technology, November 1997.
- [9] J. Laroche, “Estimating tempo, swing, and beat locations in audio recordings,” *Proc. of IEEE Workshop on Appl. of Signal Proc. to Audio and Acoustics*, pp. 135–138, October 2001.
- [10] E.D. Scheirer, “Tempo and beat analysis of acoustic musical signals,” *J. Acoust. Soc. Amer.*, vol. 103, no. 1, pp. 588–601, January 1998.
- [11] E.J. Anderson, “Limitations of short-time fourier transforms in polyphonic pitch recognition,” Tech. Rep., University of Washington, Dept. of Computer Science and Engineering, May 14 1997.
- [12] M. Dörfler, *Gabor Analysis for a Class of Signals called Music*, Ph.D. thesis, University of Vienna, Institut of Mathematics, August 2002.
- [13] P.J. Wolfe, S.J. Godsill, and M. Dörfler, “Multi-gabor dictionaries for audio time-frequency analysis,” *Proc. of IEEE Workshop on Appl. of Signal Proc. to Audio and Acoustics*, pp. 43–46, October 2001.
- [14] R. Kronland-Martinet, Ph. Guillemain, and S. Ystad, “From sound modeling to analysis-synthesis of sounds,” *MOSART Proceedings (Workshop on Current Research Directions in Computer Music)*, November 2001.
- [15] V. N. Temlyakov, “Nonlinear methods of approximation,” *Found. Comput. Math.*, vol. 3, pp. 33–107, 2003.
- [16] R. A. DeVore and V. N. Temlyakov, “Some remarks on greedy algorithms,” *Advances in Comp. Math.*, vol. 5, pp. 173–187, 1996.
- [17] S.S. Chen, D.L. Donoho, and M.A. Saunders, “Atomic decomposition by basis pursuit,” *SIAM Journal on Scientific Computing*, vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 33–61, 1998.
- [18] S. Mallat and Z. Zhang, “Matching pursuit with time-frequency dictionaries,” *IEEE Trans. on Sig. Proc.*, vol. 41, no. 12, pp. 3397–3415, 1993.
- [19] G. Davis, S. Mallat, and Z. Zhang, “Adaptive time-frequency decompositions with matching pursuits,” *Optical Engineering*, vol. 33, no. 7, pp. 2183–2191, July 1994.
- [20] N. Saito and R.R. Coifman, “Local discriminant bases and their applications,” *J. Math. Imaging Vision*, vol. 5, pp. 337–358, 1995.
- [21] B.A. Olshausen, P. Sallee, and M.S. Lewicki, “Learning sparse images codes using a wavelet pyramid architecture,” *Advances in Neural Information Processing System*, vol. 12, pp. 887–893, 2000.
- [22] B.A. Olshausen and D.J. Field, “Emergence of simple-cell receptive field properties by learning a sparse code for natural images,” *Nature*, vol. 381, pp. 607–609, 1996.
- [23] R. Gribonval, “Fast ridge pursuit with a multiscale dictionary of gaussian chirps,” To appear in *IEEE Trans. Sig. Proc.*
- [24] R. Gribonval, E. Bacry, S. Mallat, Ph. Depalle, and X. Rodet, “Analysis of sound signals with high resolution matching pursuit,” *Proc. IEEE Conf. Time-Freq. and Time-Scale Anal.*, pp. 125–128, June 1996.
- [25] M. Goto, “A predominant-F0 estimation method for CD recordings: Map estimation using em algorithm for adaptive tone models,” *Proc. Int. Conf. on Acou., Speech and Signal Proc.*, vol. 5, pp. 3365–3368, 2001.
- [26] L. Cohen, *Time-Frequency Analysis*, Signal Processing Series. Prentice Hall, 1995.
- [27] S. Haykin, *Neural Networks. A Comprehensive Foundation*, Macmillan College, 1994.