Detecting tāla Computationally in Polyphonic Context - A Novel Approach

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Abstract

In North-Indian-Music-System (NIMS), tāla is mostly used as percussive accompaniment for vocal-music in polyphonic-compositions. The human auditory system uses perceptual grouping of musical-elements and easily filters the tāla component, thereby decoding prominent rhythmic features like tāla, tempo from a polyphonic-composition. For Western music, lots of work have been reported for automated drum analysis of polyphonic-composition. However, attempts at computational analysis of tāla by separating the tālā-signal from mixed signal in NIMS have not been successful. Tālā is played with two components - right and left. The right-hand component has frequency overlap with voice and other instruments. So, tāla analysis of polyphonic-composition, by accurately separating the tālā-signal from the mixture is a baffling task, therefore an area of challenge. In this work we propose a novel technique for successfully detecting tāla using left-tablā signal, producing meaningful results because the left-tablā normally doesn’t have frequency overlap with voice and other instruments. North-Indian-rhythm follows complex cyclic pattern, against linear approach of Western-rhythm. We have exploited this cyclic property along with stressed and non-stressed methods of playing tālā-strokes to extract a characteristic pattern from the left-tablā strokes, which, after matching with the grammar of tāla-system, determines the tāla and tempo of the composition. A large number of polyphonic(vocal+tablā+other-instruments) compositions has been analyzed with the methodology and the result clearly reveals the effectiveness of proposed techniques.

Keywords: Left-tablā drum, Tāla detection, Tempo detection, Polyphonic composition, Cyclic pattern, North Indian Music System

1 Introduction

Current research in Music-Information-Retrieval (MIR) is largely limited to Western music cultures and it does not address the North-Indian-Music-System hereafter NIMS, cultures in general. NIMS raises a big challenge to current rhythm analysis techniques, with a significantly sophisticated rhythmic framework. We should consider a knowledge-based approach to create the computational model for NIMS rhythm. Tools developed for rhythm analysis can be useful in a lot of applications such as intelligent music archival, enhanced navigation through music collections, content based music retrieval, for an enriched and informed appreciation of the subtleties of music and for pedagogy. Most of these applications deal with music compositions of polyphonic kind in the
context of blending of various signals arising from different sources. Apart from the singing voice, different instruments are also included.

As per [1] rhythm relates to the patterns of duration that are phenomenally present in the music. It should be noted that these patterns of duration are not based on the actual duration of each musical event but on the Inter Onset Interval (IOI) between the attack points of successive events. As per [2], an accent or a stimulus is marked for consciousness in some way. Accents may be phenomenal, i.e. changes in intensity or changes in register, timbre, duration, or simultaneous note density or structural like arrival or departure of a cadence which causes a note to be perceived as accented. It may be metrical accent which is perceived as accented due to its metrical position [3]. Percussion instruments are normally used to create accents in the rhythmic composition. The percussion family which normally includes timpani, snare drum, bass drum, cymbals, triangle, is believed to include the oldest musical instruments, following the human voice [4]. The rhythm information in music is mainly and popularly provided by the percussion instruments. One simple way of analyzing rhythm of a composite or polyphonic music signal having some percussive component, may be to extract the percussive component from it using some source separation techniques based on frequency based filtering. Various attempts have been made in Western music to develop applications for re-synthesizing the drum track of a composite music signal, identification of type of drums played in the composite signal [5, 6], described in Section 3 in detail. Human listeners are able to perceive individual sound events in complex compositions, even while listening to a polyphonic music recording, which might include unknown timbres or musical instruments. However designing an automated system for rhythm detection from a polyphonic music composition is very difficult.

In the context of NIMS rhythm popularly known as tāla, tablā is the most popular percussive instrument. Its right hand drum-dayan and left hand drum-bayan are played together and amplitude-peaks spaced at regular time intervals, are created by playing every stroke. One way of rhythm information retrieval from polyphonic composition having tablā as one of the percussive instruments, may be to extract the tablā signal from it and analyze it separately. The dayan has a frequency overlap with other instruments and mostly human-voice for polyphonic music, so if we extract the whole range of frequencies for both bayan and dayan components, by existing frequency based filtering methods, the resultant signal will be a noisy version of original song as it will still have part of other instruments, human voice components along with tablā. Also conventional source separation methods lead to substantial loss of information or sometimes addition of unwanted noise. This is the an area of challenge in tāla analysis for NIMS. Although, NIMS tāla functions in many ways like Western meter, as a periodic, hierarchic framework for rhythmic design, it is composed of a sequence of unequal time intervals and has longer time cycles. Moreover tāla in NIMS is distinctively cyclical and much more complex compared to Western meter [7]. This complexity is another challenge for tāla analysis.

Due to the above reasons defining a computational framework for automatic rhythm information retrieval for North Indian polyphonic compositions is a challenging task. Very less work has been done for rhythmic information retrieval from a polyphonic composition in NIMS context. In Western music, quite a few approaches are followed for this purpose, mostly in the areas of beat-tracking, tempo analysis, annotation of strokes/pulses from the separated percussive signal. We have described these systems in the Section 3. For NIMS, very few works of rhythm analysis are done by adopting Western drum-event retrieval system. These works result in finding out meter or speed which are not very significant in the context of NIMS. Hence this is an unexplored area of research for NIMS.

In this work we have proposed a completely new approach, i.e. instead of extracting both bayan and dayan signal, we have extracted the bayan signal from the polyphonic composition by using band-pass filter. This filter extracts lower frequency part which normally does not overlap with the frequency of human voice and other instruments in a polyphonic composition. Most of the tālas start with a bol or stroke which has a bayan component(either played with
bayan alone or both bayan and dayan together) and also the some consequent section (vibhāga in NIMS terminology) boundary-bol-s have similar bayan component. Hence these strokes would be captured in the extracted bayan signal. For a polyphonic composition, its tāla is rendered with cyclically recurring patterns of fixed time-lengths. This is the cyclic property of NIMS, discussed in detail in section 2. So after extracting the starting bol-s and the section boundary strokes from the bayan signal, we can exploit the cyclic property of a tāla and the pattern of strokes appearing in a single cycle and can detect important rhythm information from a polyphonic composition. This would be a positive step towards rhythm information retrieval from huge collection of music recordings for both film music and live performances of various genres of hindi music. Here, we consider the tāla detection of different single-channel, polyphonic clips of hindi vocal songs of devotional, semi-classical and movie soundtracks from NIMS, having variety of tempo and mātrā-s.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. A review of past work is presented in section 3. Some definitions are provided in section 2. In section 4 the proposed methodology is elaborated. Experimental results are placed in section 5 and the paper ends with concluding remarks in section 6.

2 Definitions

2.1 Tāla and its structure in NIMS

The basic identifying features of rhythm or tāla in NIMS are described as follows.

- **Tāla and its cyclicity:** North Indian music is metrically organized and it is called ni-baddh (bound by rhythm) music. This kind of music is set to a metric framework called tāla. Each tāla is uniquely represented as cyclically recurring patterns of fixed time-lengths.

- **Āvart:** This recurring cycle of time-lengths in a tāla is called āvart. Āvart is used to specify the number of cycles played in a composition, while annotating the composition.

- **Mātrā:** The overall time-span of each cycle or āvart is made up of a certain number of smaller time units called mātrā-s. The number of mātrā-s for the NIMS tāla-s, usually varies from 6 to 16.

- **Vibhāga:** The mātrā-s of a tāla are grouped into sections, sometimes with unequal time-spans, called vibhāga-s.

- **Bol:** In the tāla system of North Indian music, the actual articulation of tāla is done by
2.1 Tāla and its structure in NIMS

certain syllables which are the mnemonic names of different strokes/pulses corresponding to each mātra. These syllables are called bol-s. There are four types of bol-s as defined below.

1. Sam: The first mātra of an āvart is referred as sam which is mandatorily stressed\[8\].

2. Tālī-bol: Tālī-bol-s are usually stressed, whereas khali-s are not. Tālī-bol-s are gestured by the tablā player with claps of the hands, hence are called sasabda kriya. The sam is almost always a Tālī-bol for most of the tāla-s, with only exception of rupak tāla which designates the sam with a moderately stressed bol called khali(as explained below) \[9\].

Highly stressed vibhāga boundaries are indicated through the tālī-bols\[9\]. Tālī-sam is indicated with a (+) in the rhythm notation of NIMS. Consequent Tālī-vibhāga-boundaries are indicated with 2, 3, . . .

3. Khali-bol: Khali literally means empty and for NIMS it implies wave of the hand or nisabda kriya. Moderately stressed Vibhāga boundaries are indicated through the khali-bols so we almost never find the khali applied to strongly stressed bol-s like sam\[9\]. khali-sam is indicated with a (0) in the rhythm notation of NIMS and consequent khali-vibhāga-boundaries are indicated also with 0.

4. Absent-bol: Sometimes while playing tablā, certain bol-s are dropped maintaining the perception of rhythm intact. They are called rests and they have equal duration as a bol. We have termed them as absent strokes/bol-s. These bol-s are denoted by * in the rhythm notation of a NIMS composition \[Ancient-future\]. In the Figure 2 the waveform of absent bol, denoted by *, is shown just after another bol ta, played in a tablā-solo.

Normally in a NIMS composition there may be many absent bol-s in the thekā played for the tāla. In these cases other percussive instruments (other than tablā) and vocal emphasis might generate percussive peaks for the time positions of the absent strokes, depending on the composition, the lyrics being sung and thus the rhythm of the composition is maintained.

- Thekā: For tablā, the basic characteristic pattern of bol-s that repeats itself cyclically along the progression of the rendering of tāla in a composition, is called thekā. In other words it’s the most basic cyclic form of the tāla \[9\]. Naturally thekā corresponds to the basic pattern of bol-s in an āvart. The strong starting bol or sam along with the tālī-vibhāga-boundaries in a thekā carries the main accent and creates the sensation of cadence and cyclicity.

Description of the definitions with an example:

The details of these theories are shown in the structure of a tāla, called jhaptal in the Table 1 and Figure 3. The hierarchy of the features and their interdependence are shown in the Figure 1. The cyclic property of tāla is evident here.

1. The first row of Table 1 shows the sequence of tālī-s and the khali-s in a thekā or āvart of jhaptal. In this row the sam is indicated with a (+) sign and it should be noted that for jhaptal it is a tālī-bol. The second tālī-vibhāga-boundary is denoted by (2) followed by a (0) as it is the first khali-vibhāga-boundary and then by one more tālī denoted by (3) in a single cycle or thekā.

The amplitude waveform of the same thekā is shown in the Figure 3. The sam is shown in the Figure as the first bol dhi. This clip of jhaptal is available in [Tabla Radio].

2. The second row of the Table 1 shows the bol-s of jhaptal in its thekā. In the Figure 3 the waveform of all these bol-s of a single cycle of jhaptal are shown.

3. Jhaptal thekā comprises of ten mātra-s which are shown as per their sequence in third row of Table 1.
Table 1: Description of *jhaptal*, showing the structure and its basic bol-pattern or the *thekā*

| tāli | + | 2 | 0 | 3 |
|------|---|---|---|---|
| bol  | dhi | na | dhi | na |
| mātrā | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| vibhāga | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| āvant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

**Figure 3:** The basic pattern of bol-s for a single āvant or thekā of *jhaptal*

4. In the fourth row of the Table 1, the section or vibhāga-boundary-positions and sequences are shown. These vibhāga-sequences are shown for *jhaptal* in the Figure 3. We can see that there are four vibhāga-s in *jhaptal* thekā and first vibhāga-boundary is a tāli-sam-bol dhi having mātrā number as one. Second vibhāga-boundary is again tāli-bol dhi having mātrā number as three and so on.

5. In the fourth row of the Table 1, āvant-position and sequence is shown. As there is one cycle shown so āvant-sequence is 1.

### 2.2 Tablā and bol-s

Tablā, the traditional percussive accompaniment of *NIMS*, consists of a pair of drums. *Bayan* the left drum, is played by the left hand and made with metal or clay. It produces loud resonant or damped non-resonant sound. As *bayan* can not be tuned significantly, when it is played, it produces a fixed range of frequencies. The *dayan* is the wooden treble drum, played by the right hand. A larger variety of acoustics is produced on this drum when tuned in different frequency ranges. In the *tāla* system of North Indian music, the representation of *tāla* is done mainly by playing bol-s on the tablā. bol-s as they are played in tablā are listed in Table 2. Figure 4, 5 and 6 shows the waveform of few sample waveforms of the bol-s *te, dhi and ge* respectively. The clip of the bol-s are taken from [Tabla Radio].

Most of the *tāla*-s have tāli-sam played either with *bayan* alone or with *bayan* and *dayan* played simultaneously [9]. Same thing happens for the tāli vibhāga boundaries. Most of the North Indian classical, semiclassical, devotional and popular songs are played as
2.3 Lay or tempo

Table 2: List of commonly played bol-s in either bayan or dayan or together on both

| played on bayan | played on dayan | played on both bayan and dayan |
|----------------|----------------|---------------------------------|
| ke, ge, ghe, kath | na, tin, tun, ti, te, ta, da | dha (na + ge), dhin (tin + ge), dhun (tun + ge), dhi (ti + ge) |

per the tāla-s in Table 3. The most commonly played thekā-s are shown in this Table, Ref. Tabla Class. For our experiment, we have considered the thekā-s listed in the Table 3 for the tāla-s dadra, kaharba, rupak and bhajani. For these thekā-s, the stressed bol-s having a bayan component is shown in bold and pipes in bold indicate vibhāga boundary.

Figure 4: te(dayan)-bol

Figure 5: dha(bayan+dayan)-bol

It is evident from the Table that all the tāla-s except rupak, start with a tāli-sam-bol having both dayan and bayan component. Only rupak starts with a khali-sam and its sam does not contain any bayan component. Bhajani tāla, is often played with a variation for bhajan, kirtan or qawwali songs [10], which makes the first(tāli-sam) and fourth bol as stressed. Although this fourth bol is not a tāli vibhāga boundary still it is rendered as stressed and it is to be noted here that this bol is played with dayan and bayan together. We have considered this bhajani thekā with first(tāli-sam) and fourth bol as stressed, because data in our experiment includes popular bhajan or devotional compositions.

For the tāla-s dadra and kaharba the number of pulses in the thekā and the mātrā-s are identical but for rupak and bhajani each mātrā is divided in to two equal duration bol-s. In effect rupak is a 7 mātrā tāla but has 14 pulses or bol-s and bhajani is 8 mātrā tāla but has 16 pulses or bol-s. Bhajani thekā in the Table 3 has half of its number of strokes as absent bol-s or rests (denoted by *).

It should be noted that the standard thekā of rupak is tin|tin|nadhin|nadhin|na, but we have taken another thekā shown in the Table 3 for our experiment, Ref. [Search Gurbani]. This thekā in normally followed for the semi-classical soundtracks and popular hindi songs. Moreover we got maximum number of annotated samples of polyphonic songs composed with this thekā for our validation process.

2.3 Lay or tempo

An important concept of rhythm in NIMS is lay, which governs the tempo or the rate of succession of tāla. The lay or tempo in NIMS can vary
Table 3: Table of popular thekā-ś of North Indian rhythms

| tāla      | Number of mātrā-ś/vibhāga in an avart | thekā                        |
|-----------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| dadra     | 3 I 3                                | dha dhi na I na ti na       |
| kaharba   | 4 I 4                                | dha ge na ti na ke dhi na   |
| rupak     | 3 I 2 I 2                            | tun na tun na ti tedhīn dhin dha dhal dhīn dhin dha dha dhīn       |
| bhajani   | 4 I 4                                | dhīn * na dhīn * dhīn na *tin * na tin * tin na *                     |
| jhaptal   | 2 I 3 I 2 I 3                        | dhi naldhī dhi nalti naldhī dhi na                                       |
| tintal    | 4 I 4 I 4 I 4                        | dha dhīn dhīn dhal dhīna dhīn dhīn dhal na tin tin nalti te dhīn dhīn dha |

3 Past work

Although various rhythm analysis activities have been done for Western music, not much significant work has been done in the context of NIMS. Although the rhythmic aspect of Western music is much simpler in comparison to Indian one, to get the broad idea of the problem, our study includes the work on Western music. The extraction of percussive events from a polyphonic composition is an ongoing and challenging area of research. We have discussed existing drum separation approaches in Western music in Section 4 as they are relevant to our methodology. The existing works in meter analysis and beat-tracking for Western music, are discussed in the following section. Then similar discussion is made on existing rhythm analysis works in Indian music.

3.1 Meter analysis in Western music

In Western music beats have sharp attacks, fast decays and are uniformly repeated while in Middle Eastern and Indian music beats have irregular shapes. This is due the fact that bass instruments in these cultures are different from what is used in Western bands. By examining the distribution of Western meters, [11] found that they deviate from Gaussianity by a larger amount than non-western meters. Works have been done by parsing MIDI data into rhythmic levels by [12]. But that can not deal real audio data. [13] attempted to encode the musical texts, notes into sequence of numbers and ± signs. But it can be implemented only for the Western compositions for which the notation is available. [14] showed multi-scale mechanism for the visualization of rhythm as rhythmogram. The rhythmogram provides a representation to the structure of spoken words and poems used, which is very different from polyphonic music but the model is implemented on synthesized binary pattern, strong and weak pulses, not from actual music composition. [11] analysed the beat and rhythm information with a binary tree or trellis tree parsing depending on the length of the pauses in the input polyphonic signal. The approach relies on beat and rhythm information extracted from the raw data after low-pass filtering. It has been tested using music segments from various cultures. [15], described methods for automatically locating points of significant change in music or audio, by analysing local self-similarity. This approach uses the signal to model itself, and thus does not rely on particular acoustic cues nor requires training. [16] describes a method of estimating the musical meter jointly at three metrical levels of measure, beat and subdivision, which are referred to as measure, tactus and tatum, respectively. For the initial time-frequency analysis, a new technique is proposed which measures the degree of musical accent as a function of time at four different frequency ranges.
This is followed by a bank of comb filter resonators which extracts features for estimating the periods and phases of the three pulses. The features are processed by a probabilistic model which represents primitive musical knowledge and uses the low-level observations to perform joint estimation of the tatum, tactus, and measure pulses.

[17] addressed the problem of classifying polyphonic musical audio signals of Western music, by their meter, whether duple/triple. Their approach aimed to test the hypothesis that acoustic evidences for downbeats can be measured on signal low-level features by focusing especially on their temporal recurrences.

### 3.2 Beat-tracking in Western music

In the work of [18], a beat tracking system is described. A global tempo is first estimated. A transition cost function is constructed based on the global tempo. Then dynamic programming is used to find the best-scoring set of beat times that reflect the tempo.

In [19], a real-time beat tracking system is designed, that processes audio signals that contain sounds of various instruments. The main feature of this work is to make context-dependent decisions by leveraging musical knowledge represented as drum patterns.

In [20], the envelope of the music signal is extracted at different frequency bands. The envelope information is then used to extract and track the strokes/pulses.

To classify percussive events embedded in continuous audio streams, [21] relied on a method based on automatic adaptation of the analysis frame size to the smallest metrical pulse, called the tick.

[22] has created a system named BeatRoot for automatic tracking and annotation of strokes for a wide range of musical styles. [23] proposed a context-dependent beat tracking method which handles varying tempos by providing a two state model. The first state tracks the tempo changes, then the second maintains contextual continuity within a single tempo hypothesis. [24] proposed a data driven approach for beat tracking using context-aware neural networks.

### 3.3 Rhythm analysis in Indian Music

The concepts of tāla and its elements are briefed in Section 2. For Indian percussive systems, strokes are of irregular nature and mostly are not of same strength. In comparison with Western music, not much significant work in rhythm analysis in Indian music, has been reported so far.

The system proposed in [25] uses Probabilistic Latent Component Analysis method to extract tabla signals from polyphonic tabla solo. Then each separated signal is re-synthesized in each layer and the music is regenerated in quida (improvisation of tabla performances) model. The work is restricted to tabla solo performances where the tabla signal is the most significant component, and not for polyphonic compositions where tabla is one of the percussive accompaniment.

In [26] the work of [27] is extended. The methodology for meter detection in Western music is applied for Indian music. A two-stage comb filter-based approach, originally proposed for double/triple meter estimation, is extended to a septuple meter (such as 7/8 time-signature). But this model does not conform to the tāla system of Indian music.

[28] explored various techniques for rhythm analysis based on the Indian percussive instruments. An effort is made to extract the tabla component from a polyphonic music by estimating the onset candidates with respect to the annotated onsets. Various existing segmentation techniques for annotating polyphonic tabla compositions, were also tried. But the goal of automatic detection of tāla in Indian music did not succeed.

Some work has been done to detect a few important parameters like mātrā, tempo by first using signal level properties and then using cyclic properties of tāla. The work in [29] for mātrā and tempo detection for NIMS tāla-s, is based on the extraction of beat patterns that get repeated in the signal. Such pattern is identified by processing the amplitude envelope of a music signal. Mātrā and tempo are detected from the extracted beat pattern. This work is extended.
to handle different renderings of thekā-s comprised of single and composite bol-s. In this work bol-duration histogram is plotted from the beat signal and the highest occurring bol-duration is taken as the actual bol-duration of the input beat signal. The above methodology has been tested on electronic tablā signal. In case of the real tablā signal it is impossible to maintain consistency in terms of the periodicity of the bol-s or beat-s played by a human. To resolve this issue the work is further extended and modified to handle real tablā signal in [31] and this comparison is carried out for the entire beat signal and a weight-age or the probability of the experimental signal being played according to certain tāla-s of NIMS, is calculated. The mātrā of the tāla for which this weight-age is maximum, is confirmed as the mātrā of the input signal. This methodology was tested with real-tablā-solo performance recordings. In recent times experiments and analysis have been done with non-stationary, nonlinear aspects of NIMS in [32];[33].

It is evident from the study that rhythm analysis in NIMS, focusing on tāla rendered with tablā, the most popular North Indian percussive instrument, is a wide area of research. In our work, an approach for rhythm analysis is proposed, which is built around the theory of tāla in NIMS.

4 Proposed Methodology

As it has been already discussed that there is a frequency overlap between tablā(bayan and dayan) with voice and other instruments in a polyphonic composition, accurate extraction of tablā signal from the mixed signal by following the source separation techniques based on frequency based filtering[34];[35], has not been very successful. Also these source separation methods lead to substantial loss of information or sometimes addition of unwanted noise. It has motivated us to look for an alternate approach. Here we have adopted a four-step methodology which is detailed out in following sections.

1. First we have processed the polyphonic input signal by partially adopting a filter-based separation technique. In doing so we are able to separate out the bayan-stroke-signal which would consist of the only bayan-strokes and also the bayan-components of bayan+dayan-strokes.

2. Then we have processed the entire polyphonic signal and generated a peak-signal, which comprises of all the emphasized peak-s generated out of tablā and other percussive instruments played in the polyphonic composition of a specific tāla. Peak-signal would contain the peak-s of bayan-stroke-signal, and also the emphasized peak-s of tablā( i.e. only dayan-strokes and bayan+dayan-strokes). If other percussive instruments played, then in addition to the above, the peak-signal would also contain emphasized peak-s generated out of them.

3. Next we have refined the bayan-stroke-signal and the peak-signal.

4. Lastly we propose to generate a co-occurrence matrix from both kinds of signals and exploit domain specific information of tablā and tāla theory, to detect the tāla and tempo of the input polyphonic signal.

Overall flow of the process starting from generation of bayan-stroke-signal to the final co-occurrence matrix is shown in the Figure 7, for a test clip composed in dadra tāla. The process of generating final bayan-stroke-signal[sub-figure 3] is described in the Section 4.1 and final peak-signal[sub-figure 4] is described in Section 4.2 Figure 8.

4.1 Separation of bayan-stroke-signal

In Western music drum is one of the mostly used percussive instruments. Extraction of drum signal is a part of applications like identification of type of drums, re-synthesizing the drum track of a composite music signal. Existing approaches for drum signal separation are described in Section 4.1.1 and our method of extracting bayan-stroke-signal is described in Section 4.1.2.
4.1 Separation of bayan-stroke-signal

Figure 7: Process flow from generation of bayan-stroke-signal to the co-occurrence matrix, for a polyphonic composition

4.1.1 Drum separation approaches in Western music

1. **Blind Source Separation method:** Christian Uhle, Christian Dittmar, Thomas Sporer\[34\] proposed a method based on Independent Subspace Analysis method to separate drum tracks from popular Western music data. In the work of Helén and Virtanen\[35\], a method has been proposed for the separation of pitched musical instruments and drums from polyphonic music. Non-negative Matrix Factorization (NMF) is used to analyze the spectrogram and thereby to separate the components.

2. **Match and adapt method:** The methodology defines the template (temporal as stated in\[36\] or spectral as stated in\[37\]), of drum sound, then searches for similar patterns in the signal. The template is updated and also improved in accordance with those observations of patterns. This set of methods extracts as well as transcribes drum component.

3. **Discriminative model** This approach is built upon a discriminative model between harmonic and drums sounds. In the work of Gillet and
Richard[5], music signal is split into several frequency bands, the for each band the signal is decomposed into deterministic and stochastic part. The stochastic part is used to detect drum events and to re-synthesize a drum track. Possible applications include drum transcription, remixing, and independent processing of the rhythmic and melodic components of music signals. Ono et al.[40] have proposed a method that exploits the differences in the spectrograms of harmonic and percussive components.

4.1.2 Our approach

Our approach for separating out bayan-stroke-signal falls in the Discriminative model group for separating out harmonic and drums sounds, among the three categories described above.

To extract the bayan-stroke-signal we have used ERB or Equivalent Rectangular Bandwidth filter banks. The ERB is a measure used in psychoacoustics, which gives an approximation to the bandwidths of the filters in human auditory system [38]. Alghoniemy and Tewfik[11] have done empirical study of western drums and confirmed that that they could extract the bass drum sequences by filtering the music signal with a narrow bandpass filter. Ranade[39] confirmed the same range(60-200Hz) for the bass drum or bayan of Indian tablā. If we take 20 ERB filter banks to extract different components like voice, tablā and other accompaniments from the polyphonic signal with sampling rate of 44100Hz, the central frequency of the second bank comes out to be around 130Hz and the bandwidth of around 60-200Hz. It has been observed from the spectral and wavelet analysis of the different type of bayan-bol-s described in the Section 2.2 and Table 2 that their frequency ranges around the same central frequency and bandwidth. So we have divided the input polyphonic signal sampled at 44100Hz, into 20 ERB filter banks and extracted the second bank for constructing the bayan-stroke-signal. We have used MIRtoolbox[40] to extract this frequency range from ERB filter banks.

As described in the Section 2.1 most of the tālā-s in NIMS start with a highly stressed tālī-sam-bol played with bayan or bayan and dayan combined. Moreover tālī vibhāga boundaries are also usually stressed. Thus extracted bayan-stroke-signal would mostly consist of peak-s generated from tālī-sam-s and tālī-vibhāga boundaries. There might be presence of other high-strength peak-s generated out of bol-s having bayan component, other than tālī-sam and tālī-vibhāga boundaries, for compositions with slow(20BPM) or very slow(10BPM) tempo. But for popular, semi-classical and filmy North Indian compositions, the tempo is moderate to fast. These compositions mostly do not have the emphasized, high strength bayan-peak-s other than tālī-sam, tālī-vibhāga boundaries in the bayan-stroke-signal. Even if these additional bol-s having bayan-component, produce peak-s in the bayan-stroke-signal, their strength is much weaker, compared to tālī-sam or tālī-vibhāga boundaries.

The process below is followed to remove these additional bol-s having bayan component, from the bayan-stroke-signal.

• Let \{bp_i\} be the set of peak-s in the bayan-strokes-signal extracted from a polyphonic song signal. Please note the Figure 7(1), where bp-s for a particular polyphonic sample of dadra tāla are shown.

• We calculate the mean\(−\mu_{bp}\) and standard deviation\(−\sigma_{bp}\) for the set \{bp_i\}. In the Figure 7(1), the corresponding value of \(\mu_{bp} + \sigma_{bp}\) is shown. It should be noted there are lots of noisy peak-s with magnitude less than \(\mu_{bp} + \sigma_{bp}\).

• \{bp_j\} is obtained as a subset of \{bp_i\} after selecting the high-strength bayan-strokes greater than \(\mu_{bp} + \sigma_{bp}\).

• \{bp_j\} is the set of strokes mostly containing tālī-sam-s and tālī-vibhāga boundaries having bayan-component, for a polyphonic composition. In the Figure 7(2), the corresponding time positions of \{bp_j\} are shown.

• However there would always be some noisy peak-s in \{bp_j\}, hence a further refinement is done as per the method in Section 4.3 and finally the refined bayan-stroke-signal is shown in the Figure 7(3).
4.2 Peak-signal:

From the input polyphonic signal waveform, differential envelope is generated after applying half-wave rectifier. The peak-s are extracted from the amplitude envelope of the signal, by calculating the local maxima-s. Local maxima-s are defined as the peak amplitude envelope of the signal, by calculating the local peak rectifier. The potential envelope is generated after applying half-wave From the input polyphonic signal waveform, differed-

4.2 Peak-signal:

4.3 Refinement of bayan and peak-signal:

There may be multiple percussive instruments and also human voice in a polyphonic composition. There is a tendency to stress more at the tāli-sam and tāli-vibhāga boundaries by the performer, while singing along with the tāla. Hence for polyphonic compositions, other percussive instruments and human voice also generate peak-s in the bayan-stroke-signal, coinciding with bayan-strokes.

Peak-signal for polyphonic signal also consists of peak-s produced by tablā, percussive instruments(if present) and human voice. For both bayan-stroke and peak signals, these peak-s should coincide with respect to their positions in X-axis or time of their occurrences. But among them the peak-s generated out of tablā or the drum instrument here, are usually of higher strength. Using this theory we go for refinement of both bayan-stroke-signal and peak-signal to retain the most of the peak-s generated from tablā, and discard other kinds of percussive peak-s. It has been observed that most of the popular hindi compositions(classical or semi-classical) have tempo much less than 600 beats per minute. Hence minimum beat interval or gap between consecutive tablā strokes in these compositions, is much more than 60/600 = 0.1sec.

Hence both the bayan-stroke-signal and peak-signal are divided into 0.1 sec duration windows along X-axis. For each window the peak having highest strength is retained as correct bayan-stroke(in bayan-stroke-signal) or any other valid tablā peak(in peak-signal), and rest of the peak-s in each window is dropped. This way the noisy peak-s are removed and final bayan-stroke-signal and peak-signal are obtained. Figure 8(2) shows the final, high-strength and refined peak-signal, with the positions of the bayan-strokes of the refined bayan-stroke-signal in bold. The same final peak-signal is referred in Figure 7(4). Figure 9 is the magnified version of Figure 8(2), 7(4).

4.4 Analysis based on tablā and tāla theory

The refined peak-signal for the same clip in dadra tāla is shown in Figure 8. As per the thekā of dadra in Table 3, apart from the sam-dha there is no other tāli-vibhāga boundaries, hence its final bayan-stroke-signal should contain these sam-s only.

- **Pulse:** Here pulse is defined as the amplitude envelope of a stroke whose peak is extracted in the peak-signal.

- **Peak:** It should be noted here that, a peak in the refined peak-signal(from Section 4.3), is the highest point of an amplitude envelope formed for a pulse. Hence peak is actually the mid-point of the pulse duration in seconds along the X-axis.

For the test clip of dadra tāla, the peak-s and the pulses are elaborated in Figure 9. Here we can see there are 5 peak-s and 6 pulses in between two consecutive bayan stroke.
4.4 Analysis based on tabla and tāla theory

The method of tāla detection based on tabla and tāla theory is explained in the following sections.

4.4.1 First level analysis of pulse pattern

As per the theories explained in Section 2.1 and 2.2 we have extended the Table 3 and created another Table 4. Here the first column describes number of probable pulses in between two bayan strokes, as per the theories. For example, for dadra tāla, number of pulses in between a dha-bol/sam of an āvart and the dha-bol/sam of the next āvart should theoretically be 6 as per the dadra thekā in the Table 4. This 6 − 6 pattern of number of pulses should continue along the progression of the composition. The third column describes the thekā-ś corresponding to the pulse pattern, with tāli-sam-ś and tāli-vibhāga-boundary-bol-ś in bold as per the theory explained in Section 2.1 and 2.2. The pipes in bold represent the start of vibhāga-boundaries within single āvart. Āvart-sequences are shown and for each thekā, an āvart and the starting bol of next āvart is given, to indicate the progression of tāla-ś.

It is to be noted that bhajani thekā has half of its number of strokes as rests. Other percussive instrument and vocal emphasis would normally generate peak-ś of moderate strength for the time positions of these strokes in an āvart, especially for the genres of our experimental compositions. Hence, here bhajani is considered as tāla with 16 pulses/āvart.
It should be noted that for tāla-s like bhajani and rupak, there are two sets of probable no of pulses. For example for rupak there is both 4 − 10 and 10 − 4. This is because we are calculating number of pulses for the consecutive āvart along the progression of the song. So suppose if we start from āvart1, the second vibhāga-boundary-bol has bayan component and it will generate a peak in the bayan-stroke-signal. Next peak in the bayan-stroke-signal would be the third vibhāga-boundary-bol. So in between them (dhin dhin dha dha dhin) there would be 3 peak-s and 4 pulses. Next peak in the bayan-stroke-signal would be the second vibhāga-boundary-bol of the āvart2 and evidently there would be 9 peak-s and 10 pulses between second and third peak-s in bayan-stroke-signal (dhin dhin dha dha dhin tun na tun na ti tel dhin). It gives rise to pulse pattern of 4 − 10, considering first, second and third peak-s in bayan-stroke-signal. Now if we move on and consider second, third and fourth bayan-peak-s, the detected pulse pattern should be 10 − 4, then again 4 − 10 and it will go on for the entire progression of the song. So both 4 − 10 and 10 − 4 would signify rupak tāla with same set of stressed bol-s in the thekā.

### 4.4.2 Extended analysis of pulse pattern

It should be noted that, in vilambit compositions there may be additional filler strokes apart from the basic thekā, which lead to additional significant peak-s in both the bayan-stroke-signal and the peak-signal. In druta compositions often several thekā strokes are skipped and only vibhāga-s are stressed.

Table 4 shows the elementary set of probable pulses in between consecutive bayan strokes for clear understanding of the concept. To keep room for variations and improvisations of the thekā that are allowed within a specific tāla, we have extended this set in our experiment. There we have included all the probable patterns of pulse-counts, by considering the probability of additional bayan or bayan+dyan strokes in a thekā to be stressed. We are assuming that apart from the mandatory tāli-sam and tāli-vibhāga boundaries, any other bol-s having bayan component may be stressed and produce a peak in the bayan-stroke-signal.

Here we have shown all the probabilities(including basic and extended) for dadra tāla in Table 5 as an example. Here in this dadra-thekā apart from the tāli-sam-bol which is dha, of an āvart, the very next bol is dhi also has bayan-component. So apart from mandatory sam this bol can also be stressed and give rise to pulse pattern of 1 − 5, 5 − 1. Similarly for rest of the tāla-s, all probable combinations of number of pulses are calculated.

### 4.4.3 Generation of co-occurrence matrix and detection of tāla

For each test sample, we have taken the refined version of bayan-stroke-signal/generated as per the method in Section 4.1 and then refined as per the method in Section 4.3, peak-signal/generated as per the method in Section 4.2 and refined as per the method in Section 4.3 and the co-occurrence matrix is formed and tāla is detected as per the following steps. Here co-occurrence matrix displays the distribution of co-occurring pulse-counts along the sequence of the bayan-stroke-intervals, in a matrix format. The Figure 7 shows the overall process flow of generation of co-occurrence matrix from refined bayan-stroke-signal and peak-signal.

1. We extract the time positions of the peak-s of the refined peak-signal and the bayan-stroke-signal along the X-axis or time axis.

2. Then we calculate the count of peak-signal-pulses occurring in each of the time intervals formed by consecutive peak-s of bayan-stroke-signal. Here we denote the series of pulse-counts calculated for a test-sample as (pc1, pc2, ..., pcK), where k = (number of bayan-strokes − 1). For example, we can see in the Figure 7 there are 5 peak-s between two consecutive bayan-strokes the number of pulses are 6 or pc1 = 6. Similarly, we calculate the rest of the pcK-s.

3. Then we form a 16X16 co-occurrence matrix(having 16 rows and 16 column/row) and initialize all of its elements with zero. Maximum dimension of the matrix is taken as 16 because for our test data there can be maximum of
4.4 Analysis based on tablā and tālā theory

Table 4: Probable number of pulses in between consecutive bayan-strokes, corresponding thekā-s and the tālā-s

| Number of probable pulses between consecutive bayan-strokes | Tālā-s | Corresponding thekā-s with āvarṭ-sequences |
|------------------------------------------------------------|--------|-------------------------------------------|
| 6-6                                                        | dadra  | 1\[dha dhi na\na ti na\n] dha.           |
| 8-8                                                        | kaharba| 1\[dha ge na ti\na ke dhi na\n] dha.     |
| 4-10,10-4                                                 | rupak  | 1\|tun na\na tun na ti te dhin\na dha dhin\n dha dha\n] tun na.. |
| 14-14                                                     | rupak  | 1\|tun na\na tun na ti te dhin\na dha dhin\n dha dhin\n dha dhin\n] tun na.. |
| 3-13,13-3                                                 | bhajani| 1\[dhin\n * na\n dhin\n * dhin\n na\n \*Itin\n * ta\n tin\n * tin\n ta \*] dhin \*.. |
| 16-16                                                     | bhajani| 1\[dhin\n * na\n dhin\n * dhin\n na\n \*Itin\n * ta\n tin\n * tin\n ta \*] dhin \*.. |

Table 5: Probable number of pulses in between consecutive bayan strokes in the thekā for dadra tālā

| Number of probable pulses between consecutive bayan-strokes | Corresponding thekā-s with āvarṭ-sequences |
|------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| 6-6                                                        | dadra  | 1\[dha dhi na\na ti na\n] dha.           |
| 1-5,5-1                                                   |        | 1\[dha dhi na\na ti na\n] dha dhi.      |

16 number of pulses between consecutive bayan-strokes[Ref Table 4].

4. Then we fill up the co-occurrence matrix by occurrence of each pair of pulse-counts between the consecutive intervals in the bayan-stroke-signal formed for the whole test sample. We denote each consecutive pair as \(pc_i, pc_{i+1}\), where \(pc_i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, 16\}\) and \(pc_{i+1} \in \{1, 2, \ldots, 16\}\). For example if the number of pulses between first and the second peak-s in the bayan-stroke-signal is 4 and the same between the second and the third is 6. So \(pc_1, pc_2\) becomes 4,6 and we add 1 to the matrix element of fourth row and sixth column, which now becomes 1 from initialized zero value. Then we check the same between third and fourth peak which is suppose 6, hence \(pc_2, pc_3\) becomes 6,6 and 1 is added to the matrix element of sixth row and sixth column, making it 1 from zero.

5. We traverse the whole peak-signal and the bayan-stroke-signal and update the matrix. Each cell of the matrix contain the occurrence of a particular pulse count pattern in consecutive intervals in bayan-stroke-signal.

6. Finally we extract the row and column index of the cell in the matrix containing the maximum value. This row and column index is the most occurring pattern of pulse counts in consecutive intervals in bayan-stroke-signal. Here this row-column index of the matrix is denoted by \([pc_{max_1}, pc_{max_2}]\).

The co-occurrence matrix for a test sample, is shown in Table 5 where we can see 10 as the maximum value in 6th row and 6th column i.e. \([pc_{max_1} = 6, pc_{max_2} = 6]\).

7. Then the \([pc_{max_1}, pc_{max_2}]\) is matched against the first column of the Table 4 and also the rules
Table 6: Co-occurrence matrix formed for a composition played in *dadra tala*

|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | ...
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | ...
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ...
| 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ...
| 4 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ...
| 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ...
| 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ...
| 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ...

defined in Section 4.4.2. Accordingly *tala* is decided from its second column. For the test sample for which the co-occurrence matrix is shown in the Table 6, \( p_{cmax_1} = 6 \) and \( p_{cmax_2} = 6 \) are extracted and it is exactly matched with \( 6 - 6 \) pattern for number of probable pulses between consecutive *bayan*-strokes, hence it is detected as of *dadra tala*.

8. While matching occurrence pattern of *peak*-s between consecutive *bayan*-peak-s, apart from the rules explained in Section 4.4.1 and 4.4.2, a tolerance of \( \pm 1 \) is considered. For example, if for a test clip we get \( 6 - 6 \) number of *peak*-s between consecutive *bayan* duration in the *bayan*-stroke-signal, we detect it as of *dadra tala*. But even if we get \( 5 - 6, 6 - 5 \), then also detect it of *dadra*. This way we are considering human errors within a narrow range of tolerance.

### 4.4.4 Detection of tempo

Tempo or *lay* is detected in terms of pulses per minute as per the method below.

1. Once we detect \([ p_{cmax_1}, p_{cmax_2} ]\), we get the *tala* as per the process described in Section 4.4.3. Then we collect all the consecutive pair of *bayan* durations having \( p_{cmax_1} \) and \( p_{cmax_2} \) number of pulses for the whole composition. In the Figure 9, we can see that for this particular *dadra* clip there are 6 number of pulses in the intervals between first two *bayan*-strokes and also second, third *bayan*-strokes.

Suppose these *bayan* durations are denoted by \((bd_{11}, bd_{12}, \ldots, bd_{1n})\) having \( p_{cmax_1} \) number of pulses and \((bd_{21}, bd_{22}, \ldots, bd_{2n})\) having \( p_{cmax_2} \) number of pulses, where \( n \) is the value in the cell of co-occurrence matrix having row index \( p_{cmax_1} \) and column index \( p_{cmax_2} \). It basically means that \( p_{cmax_1}, p_{cmax_2}\) pair has occurred for \( n \) no of times in the co-occurrence matrix and also in the whole test composition.

2. Then all these *bayan* durations are added. We denote that by \( b_{ayan\_dur} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} bd_{1i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} bd_{2i} \). Total number of pulses in these durations are \( count_{pulse} = n \times (p_{cmax_1} + p_{cmax_2}) \). \( b_{ayan\_dur} \) is measured in second.

3. The average duration of a pulse in the composition is calculated as \( pulse_{dur} = \frac{b_{ayan\_dur}}{count_{pulse}} \) in second.

4. Then the tempo is calculated as \( temp = \frac{60}{pulse_{dur}} \) in beats per minute.

### 5 Experimental details

#### 5.1 Data description

We have experimented with a number of polyphonic composition of NIMS vocal songs rendered with four popular *thekā*-s of the *tala*-s, as described in Table 4. The test compositions are from *bhajan* or devotional, semi-classical and film-music genres, having *tablā* and other percussive instruments as accompaniments. The film-music and semi-classical genres are chosen because they mostly maintain similar structures with minimal improvisation and regular tempos as far as rhythm of the compositions is concerned. Hence this test dataset should be suitable for finalizing the elementary layer of the *tala*-detection system of NIMS.

The *tala*-s considered are *dadra*, *kaharba*, *rupak*, *bhajani*, as most of the songs in above genres are composed in these *tala*-s. Also we got maximum number of annotated samples of polyphonic songs
composed with these tāla-s, which helped in rigorous testing and validation process. Also as these tāla-s have unique mātra-s and they would produce mostly unique number of peak-s between consecutive bayan-strokes, so experimenting with sufficient number of test samples composed in these tāla-s enabled us to validate the applicability of the initial version of our model.

The annotated list of tāla-wise songs are obtained from Sound of India and FILM SONGS IN VARIOUS TALS and also from the albums The Best Of Aump Jalota(Universal Music India Pvt Ltd), Bhanjanjali vol 2(Venus), Bhajans(Universal Music India Pvt Ltd), Songs Of The Seasons Vol 2(Shobha Gurtu). The annotations are validated by renowned musician Subhranil Sarkar. All the song clips are in single channel .wav format sampled at 44100Hz and are annotated. The clips are of 60 second duration. The tempo ranges from madhyā to ati-druta tempo. The tempo of the input samples were calculated by manual tapping by expert musicians and this calculated tempo was assumed to be our benchmark for validation. The detailed description of the data used is shown in Table 7. The data reflects variation in terms of genre, types of instruments and voices in the composition, tempo and mātra of the compositions.

5.2 Results

Table 8 shows the confusion matrix for tāla detection. Here the column none signifies that the tāla of the input clip is NOT detected as any of the input tāla-s(dadra, kaharba, rupak, bhajani). There is an incorrect detection between the pair of kaharba and bhajani. Few bhajani samples have been detected as kaharba and vice-versa. For a specific laggi or variation of bhajani tāla [Bhajan taal], a composition might turn out to be with 8 – 8 pulse pattern where \( p_{\text{max}}x_1 = 8, p_{\text{max}}x_2 = 8 \). In this case it would be detected as kaharba as per our method. However, this error is not so severe as technically bhajani is a variation of kaharba\[9\].

Also as per the Table 4 theoretically 8 – 8 pulse pattern is for kaharba and 16 – 16 is for bhajani, i.e. pattern for bhajani is exactly twice of kaharba. For some rare cases of manual error, while playing tabla in kaharba, the tabla-expert might make some sam-s less stressed and these sam-s might fail to generate bayan-peak-s in the refined bayan-stroke-signal. In these cases kaharba might produce 16 – 16 pulse pattern and would be detected as bhajani. However this is much rare as theoretically for any tabla composition the tāli-bol-sam must be stressed.

Table 9 shows the performance of proposed methodology in detecting tempo for different compositions. In judging the correctness of tempo, a tolerance of ±5% is considered.

Overall tāla and tempo detection performance is shown in Table 10. It is clear that the proposed methodology performs satisfactorily and that too with wide variety of data.

6 Conclusion

1. This paper presents the results of analysis of tabla signal of North Indian polyphonic composition, with the help of new technique by extracting the bayan signal.

2. The justification of using bayan signal as the guiding signal in case of North Indian polyphonic music and detecting tāla using the parameters of NIMS rhythm, has been clearly discussed.

3. A large number of polyphonic music samples from hindi vocal songs from bhajan or devotional, semi-classical and filmy genres were analyzed for studying the effectiveness of the proposed new method.

4. The experimental result of the present investigation clearly supports the pronounced effectiveness of the proposed technique.

5. We would extend this methodology for studying other features(both stationary and non-stationary) of the all the relevant tāla-s of NIMS and designing an automated rhythm-wise categorization system for polyphonic compositions. This system may be used for content-based music retrieval in NIMS. Also a potential tool in the
Table 7: Description of data

| tāla  | mātrā | Tempo range (in BPM) | No of clips |
|-------|-------|----------------------|-------------|
| dadra | 6     | 140-320              | 65          |
| kaharba | 8   | 220-400              | 65          |
| bhajani | 8   | 300-360              | 65          |
| rupak  | 7     | 240-375              | 65          |

Table 8: Confusion matrix for tāla detection for the clips (all figures in %)

|          | dadra | kaharba | bhajani | rupak | none |
|----------|-------|---------|---------|-------|------|
| dadra    | 80.85 | 6.38    | 0.638   | 4.26  | 2.13 |
| kaharba  | 4.17  | 81.25   | 8.33    | 2.08  | 4.16 |
| bhajani  | 3.57  | 12.50   | 78.57   | 3.57  | 1.79 |
| rupak    | 3.50  | 4.50    | 4.00    | 86.00 | 2.00 |

Table 9: Performance of tempo detection (all figures in %)

| tāla  | Correct detection |
|-------|-------------------|
| dadra | 80.85             |
| kaharba | 77.08          |
| bhajani | 80.35           |
| rupak  | 76.00             |

Table 10: Gross performance of tāla and tempo detection (all figures in %)

| mātrā detection | Tempo detection |
|------------------|-----------------|
| 81.59            | 78.60           |

Limitations of the method is that it can not distinguish between tāla-s of same mātrā. For example deepchandi and dhamar tāla-s have 14 number of mātrā-s, textitbol-s and beats in a cycle. We plan to extend this elementary model of tāla-detection system for all the NIMS tāla-s, by including other properties like timbral information and nonlinear properties of different kinds of tabla strokes/bol-s. We may also attempt to transcript the tāla-bol-s in a polyphonic composition. This extended version of the model may address the NIMS tāla-s which share same mātrā and also have variety of lay-s. The initial version of the software version of the proposed algorithm is in [Talman](...) where users can upload relevant .wav files of a polyphonic song played on NIMS tāla-s and find out the tāla computationally.

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