

ESTIMATING MUSICAL TIME INFORMATION FROM PERFORMED MIDI FILES

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ABSTRACT

Even though originally developed for exchanging control commands between electronic instruments, MIDI has been used as quasi standard for encoding and storing score-related parameters. MIDI allows for representing musical time information as specified by sheet music as well as physical time information that reflects performance aspects. However, in many of the available MIDI files the musical beat and tempo information is set to a preset value with no relation to the actual music content. In this paper, we introduce a procedure to determine the musical beat grid from a given performed MIDI file. As one main contribution, we show how the global estimate of the time signature can be used to correct local errors in the pulse grid estimation. Different to MIDI quantization, where one tries to map MIDI note onsets onto a given musical pulse grid, our goal is to actually estimate such a grid. In this sense, our procedure can be used in combination with existing MIDI quantization procedures to convert performed MIDI files into semantically enriched score-like MIDI files.

1. INTRODUCTION

MIDI (Music Instrument Digital Interface) is used as a standard protocol for controlling and synchronizing electronic instruments and synthesizers [10]. Even though MIDI has not originally been developed to be used as a symbolic music format and imposes many limitations of what can be actually represented [11, 13], the importance of MIDI results from its widespread usage over the last three decades and the abundance of MIDI data freely available on the web. An important feature of the MIDI format is that it can handle musical as well as physical onset times and note durations. In particular, the header of a MIDI file specifies the number of basic time units (referred to as ticks) per quarter note. Physical timing is then given by means of additional tempo messages that determine the number of microseconds per quarter note. On the one hand, disregarding the tempo messages makes it pos-



Figure 1. The first measure of the prelude BWV 888 by J. S. Bach. (a) Original score. (b) Score from P-MIDI of a performed version without musical pulse grid. (c) Score from S-MIDI based on an estimated musical pulse grid.

sible to generate a mechanical version of constant tempo, which closely relates to the musical time axis (given in beats) of a score. On the other hand, by including the tempo messages, one may generate a performed version with a physical time axis (given in seconds). However, many of the available MIDI files do not follow this convention. For example, MIDI files are often generated by freely performing a piece of music on a MIDI instrument without explicitly specifying the tempo. As a result, neither the ticks-per-quarter-note parameter nor the tempo messages are set in a musically meaningful way. Instead, these parameters are given by presets, which makes it possible to derive the physical but not the musical time information.

In the following, we distinguish between two types of MIDI files. When the musical beat and tempo messages are set correctly in a MIDI file, then a musical time axis as specified by a score can be derived. In this case, we speak of a *score-informed MIDI file* or simply S-MIDI. When the actual tempo and beat positions are not known (using some presets), we speak of a *performed MIDI file* or simply P-MIDI. This paper deals with the general problem of converting a P-MIDI into a reasonable approximation of an S-MIDI file. The main step is to estimate a musically informed beat or pulse grid from which one can derive the musical time axis. The general problem of estimating beat- and rhythm-related information from music representation (including MIDI and audio representations) is a difficult problem [1, 7]. Typically approaches are based on Hidden



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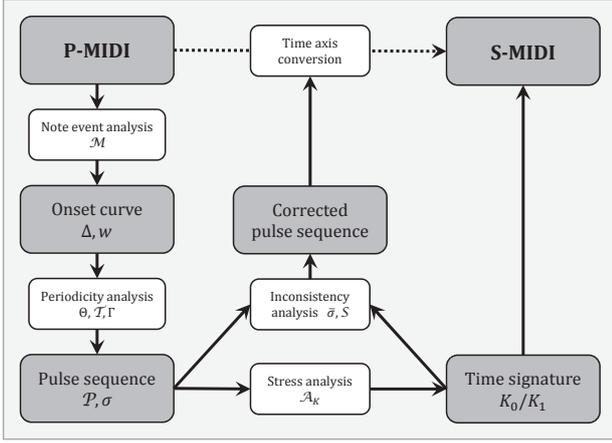


Figure 2. Overview of algorithmic pipeline.

Markov Models [12] and dynamic programming [6, 15]. Even when knowing the note onset positions explicitly (as is the case for MIDI files), finding beats and measure is by far not trivial—in particular when dealing with performed MIDIs having local tempo fluctuations. In [2], an approach based on salience profiles of MIDI notes is used for estimating the time signature and measure positions. Based on a trained dictionary of rhythmical patterns, a more general approach for detecting beat, measure, and rhythmic information is described in [14]. Note that the extraction of such musical time information from MIDI files is required before software for MIDI quantization and score generation can be applied in a meaningful way. This is demonstrated by Figure 1, which shows the original score, the score generated from a P-MIDI, and a score generated from an estimated S-MIDI.

In this paper, we introduce a procedure for estimating the musical beat grid as well as the time signature from a given P-MIDI file, which can then be converted into an approximation of an S-MIDI file.¹ The main idea is to adapt a beat tracking procedure originally developed for audio representations to estimate a first pulse grid. Despite of local errors, this information suffices to derive an estimate of a global time signature. This information, in turn, is then used to correct the local pulse irregularities. In Section 2, we describe the algorithmic details of our proposed method. Then, in Section 3, we evaluate our method and discuss a number of explicit examples to illustrate benefits and limitations. We conclude the paper with Section 4 with possible applications and an outlook on future work. Further related work is discussed in the respective sections.

2. ALGORITHMIC PIPELINE

In this section, we describe our procedure for converting P-MIDI files into (approximations of) S-MIDI files by mapping the physical time axis of the P-MIDI to an appropriate musical time axis. As shown in Figure 2, we extract an onset curve from the P-MIDI, and perform periodicity

¹Our implementation in Java with GUI is available at <http://midi.sechschachtel.de>

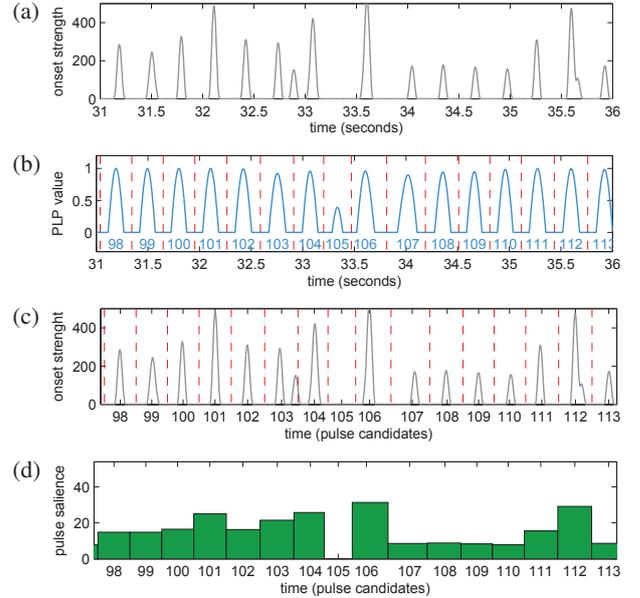


Figure 3. Computation of pulse salience for a 5-second excerpt of BWV 888: (a) MIDI onset curve Δ , (b) PLP curve Γ with pulse region boundaries b , (c) Onset curve Δ with boundaries b , (d) Pulse salience sequence σ .

analysis by adapting a pulse tracking method to obtain a sequence of pulse candidates (Section 2.1). In Section 2.2 we introduce a method to estimate the global time signature by analyzing the stress distribution of the pulses. This information is used for detecting and resolving inconsistencies in the pulse sequence.

In the following we use the notation $[a : n : b] := ([a] + n\mathbb{N}_0) \cap [a, b]$, where $[a, b] := \{t \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \leq t \leq b\}$ for $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $n = 1$, we use the notation $[a : b] := [a : 1 : b]$.

2.1 Pulse Detection

For pulse tracking, we build upon the method introduced by [9] which detects the local predominant periodicity in onset curves, and generates a pulse curve indicating the most likely positions for a pulse-grid. The peaks of this curve are then interpreted as pulse candidates. Although this method was originally developed for audio data like other beat tracking methods (see, e. g., [4,6]), it also works for onset curves derived from MIDI files.

We assume that the MIDI file is already converted to a physical time axis $[0, T]$, where T denotes the end of the last MIDI note, and we have a *MIDI note list* for a suitable finite index set $I \subset \mathbb{N}$:

$$\mathcal{M} := (t_i, d_i, p_i, v_i)_{i \in I},$$

where $t_i \in [0, T)$ describes the start time of the i^{th} MIDI note, d_i its duration (also in seconds), $p_i \in [0 : 127]$ its pitch, and $v_i \in [0 : 127]$ its note onset velocity. Based on these notes, we define for a weighting parameter $w = (w_1, w_2, w_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3$, a MIDI onset curve

$$\Delta_w(t) := \sum_{i \in I} (w_1 + w_2 \cdot d_i + w_3 \cdot v_i) \cdot h(t - t_i),$$

for $t \in [0, T]$, with h describing a Hann window centered

at 0 of length 50 ms, cf. Figure 3a. Thus the components of the parameter w corresponds to weights of the presence of an onset, the duration, and the velocity, respectively. In our procedure, we fix $w := (1, 20, \frac{50}{128})$ to balance the components of each MIDI note, so it will be omitted in the notation. Experiments have shown that the method is robust to slight changes of these values.

Using a short-time Fourier transform, we compute from Δ a *tempogram* $\mathcal{T} : [0, T] \times \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ for a given set Θ of considered BPM values as explained in [9], using parameters for smoothness (window length) and time granularity (step size). First, we compute a coarse tempogram $\mathcal{T}^{\text{coarse}}$ using the tempo set $\Theta = [40 : 4 : 240]$, window length 8 sec, and step size 1 sec. The dominant global tempo T_0 is derived by summing up the absolute values of $\mathcal{T}^{\text{coarse}}$ row-wise and by detecting the maximum. Next, we compute a second tempogram $\mathcal{T}^{\text{fine}}$ based on the new set $\Theta = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot T_0, \sqrt{2} \cdot T_0 \right] \cap \mathbb{N}$, which is the *tempo octave* around T_0 . For this tempogram, the window length is set to $5 \cdot \frac{60}{T_0}$ sec, and we use a finer step size of 0.2 sec. Choosing the BPM range in such a manner prevents unexpected jumps between multiples of the detected tempo; the window length corresponds to five expected pulses based on the assumption that a stable tempo remains almost constant for at least five beats.

Following [9], we estimate the predominant tempo for each time position from the tempogram $\mathcal{T}^{\text{fine}}$, and use this information to derive sinusoidal kernels which best describe local periodicity of the underlying onset curve Δ . These kernels are combined to a *predominant local pulse* (PLP) curve $\Gamma : [0, T] \rightarrow [0, 1]$, which indicates positions of pulses on the physical time axis, see Figure 3b. The points in time corresponding to the local maxima of Γ form a *pulse candidate* sequence $\mathcal{P} = (\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_N)$, which is suitable to estimate the beats in a first approximation. But this sequence may contain additional pulses (not describing a musical beat) or missing pulses. Thus we introduce a post-processing method in the next section which detects and corrects these errors.

2.2 Optimizing the pulse sequence

The main idea of the method described in this section relies on finding a global time signature and using it for resolving inconsistencies of the detected pulse sequence. Here, we assume that the measure type of the considered musical piece is not changed throughout the piece. The time signature can be estimated by periodicity analysis of pulse stress using short-time autocorrelation. In a second step, we compare the relative position of each pulse candidate to a measure grid induced by the time signature and detect deviations to correct *isolated* erroneous pulses. Finally, the pulses are interpreted as a new musical time axis, and the tick position of all MIDI events are mapped to this axis.

Now we describe our optimization procedure in more detail. First, we accumulate the onset strength for the n^{th} pulse candidate by defining its *pulse salience*

$$\sigma(n) := \int_{b(n-1)}^{b(n)} \Delta(t) dt \quad (n \in [1 : N]), \quad (1)$$

where the pulse region boundaries are given by $b(n) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot (\mathcal{P}_n + \mathcal{P}_{n+1})$ for $1 \leq n < N$, $b(0) = 0$, and $b(N) = T$. The boundaries b are illustrated in Figures 3b and 3c, and for the salience values σ see Figures 3d and 4a.

Our next goal is to compute an estimation of the time signature K_0/K_1 . To this end we perform a salience analysis via autocorrelation. However, to ensure that errors in \mathcal{P} and σ have only a local influence, we use short-time autocorrelation. For a fixed window size $K > 12$ ($K = 32$ in our implementation), we consider the $K \times N$ matrix

$$\mathcal{A}(k, n) := |I_k|^{-1} \sum_{i \in I_k} \sigma(n+i) \cdot \sigma(n+i+k),$$

where $I_k := [0 : k : K - k - 1]$ and $\sigma(n) := 0$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus [1 : N]$. Thus $\mathcal{A}(k, n)$ quantifies the plausibility of period length k around the n^{th} pulse candidate. Our predominant salience period K_0 , the nominator of the estimated time signature, is obtained by row-wise summation and maximum picking of parts of \mathcal{A} :

$$K_0 := \arg \max_{k \in [3:12]} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathcal{A}(k, n).$$

For robustness and musical reasons we have excluded the cases $k < 3$ and $k > 12$, respectively. (Excluding the case $k = 2$ is not a serious problem as we can use, e. g., $4/8$ as surrogate for $2/4$.) The relevant rows of the matrix \mathcal{A} are illustrated in Figure 4b where $K_0 = 6$. The denominator K_1 is not necessary for further computation. It is chosen accordingly to the main tempo T_0 to ensure a value between 70 and 140 quarter notes per minute.

With the help of K_0 we are now able to perform the inconsistency analysis. For now, we primarily consider the case where all detected pulse candidates are actually correct beats. In this idealized scenario, the restriction of \mathcal{P} to the n^{th} K_0 -congruence class $[n : K_0 : N]$, $n \in [1 : K_0]$, describes the n^{th} position within the measures in a semantically meaningful way. In particular, the first class ($n = 1$) corresponds to all downbeat positions if the considered piece does not start with an upbeat. An analogous decomposition applied to σ leads to salience patterns of each position in the measure. Due to rhythmic variations, we expect that the first class of σ *mostly* shows the highest salience value. To enhance robustness, σ is smoothed locally within the K_0 -congruence classes

$$\bar{\sigma}(n) := \sigma(n) + \sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor K/K_0 \rfloor} \sigma(n \pm k \cdot K_0),$$

as illustrated in Figure 4c. Since the restriction to a congruence class is reminiscent of a comb, we call $\bar{\sigma}$ the *K_0 -combed* version of σ .

Erroneously detected pulse candidates disturb the assignment of all downbeats to a specific class. In such cases, the class containing highest salience values changes at some points of time. To make this visible, a $K_0 \times N$ matrix \mathcal{S} is defined which shows the local salience distribution of the congruence classes. More precisely, we define

$$\mathcal{S}(k, n) := \bar{\sigma}(k) \cdot \delta(k \equiv_{K_0} n),$$

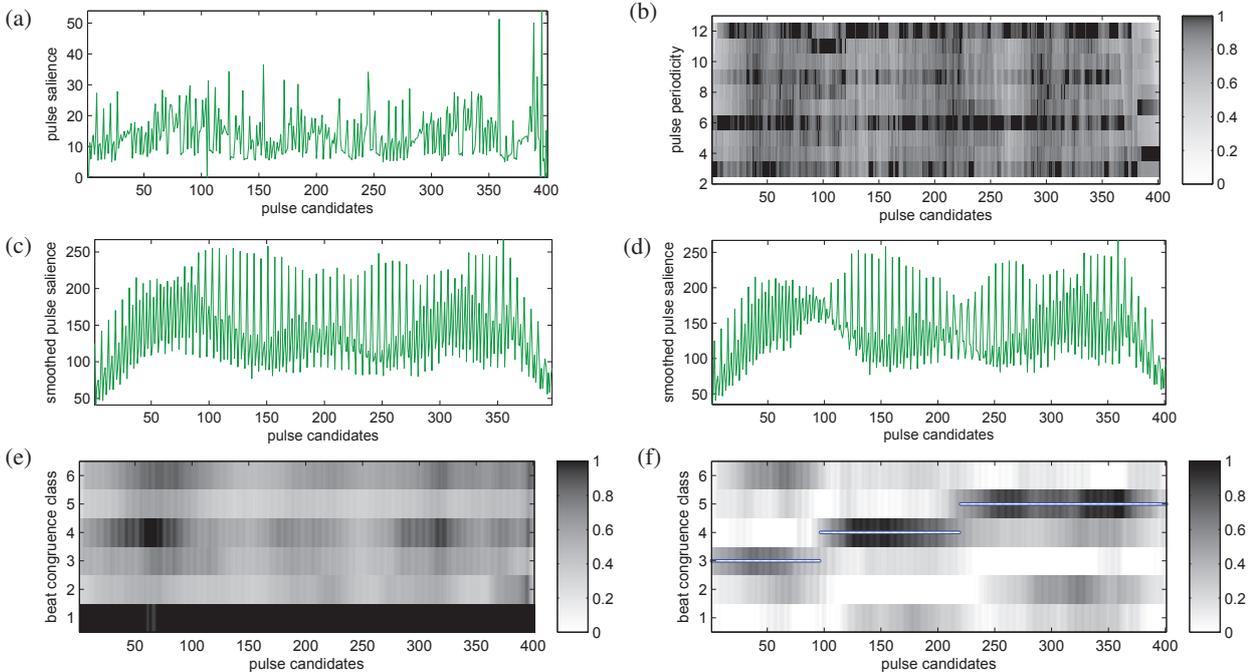


Figure 4. Step-by-step illustration how to detect inconsistencies in the stress sequence for BWV 888: (a) Pulse salience sequence σ as in Figure 3d. (b) Excerpt of short-time autocorrelation matrix \mathcal{A} of σ showing maximal energy in 6th row. (c) 6-combed salience sequence $\bar{\sigma}$ if all pulse candidates are correctly detected. (d) 6-combed salience sequence $\bar{\sigma}$ if two pulses are additionally inserted. (e) Stressgram showing maximal salience in 1st congruence class. (f) Stressgram showing two stress changes and path of highest salience.

where $\delta(A) := 1$ if statement A holds and 0 else. Smoothing S along the temporal axis using a Hann window of length $2 \cdot K_0$ yields a so-called *stressgram* \mathcal{S} . Such stressgrams are visualized for the ideal scenario (Figure 4e) as well as under presence of two additional pulses (Figure 4f).

Now we discuss this last case in more detail. First, the estimation of K_0 is only locally disturbed which does not lead to a change of the estimated time signature. However, the decomposition into K_0 -congruence classes does no longer coincide semantically with the position in the measures, since all pulses after the additional one are shifted by one beat position. In the stressgram \mathcal{S} this is indicated by changes of the rows showing high salience. To enhance robustness, we switch to a more global point of view by computing a path of highest energy through \mathcal{S} using dynamic programming. Each point in this path shows the congruence class with the highest coincidence of representing the downbeats at a specific time. More precisely, if the downbeats are in the class having index i , then a change to index $i+1$ near the additional pulse can be noticed, see Figure 4f. The case of a missing pulse is similar, here the row index of the maximal salience changes to $i-1$.

These detected irregularities can now be solved by choosing either falsely added pulse candidates or finding positions to insert an apparently missing pulse. For lack of space, we only sketch our correction procedure. To remove a candidate, one can delete the pulse having lowest salience σ or lowest PLP score (for this, replace Δ by Γ in Equation 1). For adding an additional pulse, one may look for two adjacent relatively low values of the PLP curve.

Finally, this corrected pulse sequence defines a beat grid in the P-MIDI file, which allows to detect a sequence of tick positions corresponding to beats. By mapping them to equally distributed new tick positions, adding appropriate tempo change MIDI messages, and performing linear interpolation between the beat positions, the previous time axis of the P-MIDI is replaced by a musical time axis. In case of an upbeat, additional beats are added to the beginning of the piece such that the first K_0 -congruence class corresponds to the estimated downbeats. Lastly, the time signature K_0/K_1 is added to the new MIDI file.

3. EXPERIMENTS AND DISCUSSION

Evaluating the output of a beat tracking procedure is a non-trivial task due to the vague definition of beat times as described in [5]. Particularly determining the beat granularity, i. e., the decision between similar time signatures like 6/8 and 3/4, or multiples such as 4/4 or 8/4, appears as an ill-posed and negligible problem. Even for humans, beat and measure tracking can be challenging especially in the presence of rhythmic variations and expressive timing. Our evaluation is inspired by [14], where among others the visual impression of the computed score is considered, and by [5], where comparison to a ground truth annotation by a human and listening tests for a perceptual evaluation are suggested.

Because of its modeling, our procedure is not suitable for all kinds of P-MIDI files. The PLP approach described in Section 2.1 has some constraints like a stable rhythm or an almost stable tempo for a certain amount of time (in our

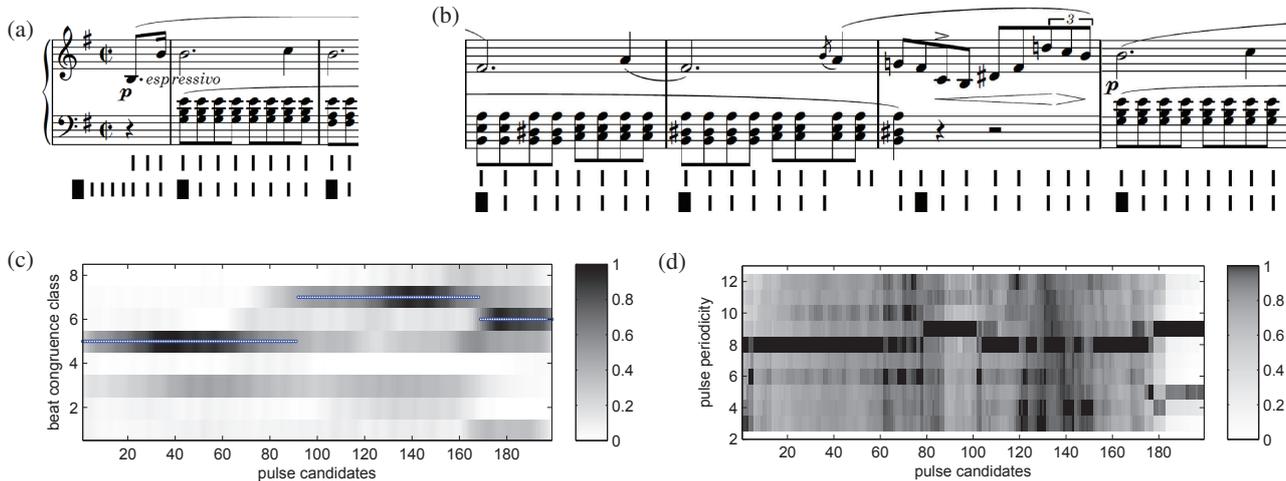


Figure 5. Prelude No. 4 from Chopin (Op. 28). The score excerpts show the detected pulses (upper row) and post-processed measure grid (lower row). Downbeats are indicated by bold lines. **(a)** Correctly detected upbeat. **(b)** Joint correction of two subsequent errors. **(c)** Stressgram with path of highest salience. **(d)** Short-time autocorrelation matrix.

implementation, this time window is roughly five seconds). In addition, tempo octave confusions are not considered here. For the optimization step described in Section 2.2, a global time signature is required. Furthermore, downbeats must be detectable by their length or stress. In the following, we discuss in detail two typical examples of P-MIDI files, and then perform an automatic analysis on a small test set of artificially distorted MIDI files.

3.1 Qualitative Evaluation

The performance of the proposed procedure for Bach’s Prelude BWV 888 is already indicated in Figures 1, 3, and 4. Two insertions of additional pulses caused by ritardandi are corrected well, and also the erroneous rests at the beginning are eliminated. The estimated time signature 6/8 is perceptually similar to the notated time signature 12/8.

Our second example is the Prelude No. 4 from Chopin’s romantic Piano Preludes. Figure 5 shows two score excerpts together with the detected pulse candidates and the estimated measure structure as well as the corresponding stressgram and the short-time autocorrelation matrix for the whole piece.² Prelude No. 4 contains some long notes at downbeat positions leading to a good measure tracking result. Because of their strong presence, an eighth note pulse grid was detected, see Figure 5d. This piece of music starts with an upbeat of a quarter note. Since the MIDI format does not support upbeat information directly, our method adds enough additional pulses such that the first pulse lies in the congruence class of the downbeats as shown in Figure 5a.

Noticeable tempo changes together with short appoggiatura and a triplet around pulse No.90 causes the PLP procedure to detect two additional pulses in consecutive measures (Fig. 5b). In the stressgram this is indicated by

²The examples are recordings on a MIDI piano taken from Saarland Music Data (<http://www.mpi-inf.mpg.de/resources/SMD/>), and the scores are picked from Mutopia (<http://www.mutopia.org/>).

a jump of the salience path across two classes (Fig. 5c). Note that this error has only little influence on the estimation of the time signature (Fig. 5d). As indicated by the stressgram, two pulses are removed in this region during our post-processing. Although the deletion of a correctly detected pulse in the 2nd measure of Figure 5b leads to a wrong downbeat position in the subsequent measure, the global measure grid is restored in the 4th measure. This shows how our method optimizes the measure grid without having to correct each single pulse error.

3.2 Automatic Evaluation

Furthermore, we evaluated our method on score-like MIDI files which have been automatically disturbed by adding additional tempo change events. A similar approach was used in [8] to show that smooth tempo changes are detected well by the PLP method.

In particular, the goal of our procedure is to recognize measure positions correctly, therefore we use standard precision (P), recall (R), and F-measure (F) on the set of the MIDI notes. A note is considered relevant if it starts at a downbeat position in the S-MIDI file, and it is “retrieved” if it was mapped by our method to a downbeat position of the distorted MIDI file. Since no quantization step is included, we allow a tolerance of $\pm 5\%$ of each measure as its downbeat position.

By neglecting the musical time axis and using only the physical time position (in milliseconds) of all MIDI events, we simulate a performed MIDI of an S-MIDI file. The systematic distortion is done by adding a tempo change of $\pm 20\%$ around the normal tempo each 10 seconds.

As test set, we consider the Fifteen Fugues by Beethoven from IMSLP³. Here, the note durations are sufficient for a good estimation of the PLP pulses. Adding note velocity information from real performed MIDI files suggests an further improvement of the results.

³Petrucci Music Library, [http://imslp.org/wiki/15_Fugues_\(Beethoven,_Ludwig_van\)](http://imslp.org/wiki/15_Fugues_(Beethoven,_Ludwig_van))

Piece	Full method			PLP only			# Corrections		
	F	P	R	F	P	R	add	delete	upbeat
No. 1	0.477	0.587	0.402	0.372	0.509	0.293	0	2	0
No. 2	0.978	1	0.956	0.397	0.56	0.308	1	0	1
No. 3	0.656	0.663	0.649	0.144	0.196	0.113	1	0	0
No. 4	0.945	0.984	0.909	0.738	0.804	0.682	2	0	0
No. 5	0.966	0.971	0.962	0	0	0	0	0	2
No. 6	0.996	1	0.993	0.996	1	0.993	0	0	0
No. 7	0.826	0.832	0.82	0.324	0.386	0.28	1	4	1
No. 8	0.953	0.985	0.923	0.821	0.945	0.725	0	1	0
No. 9	0.896	0.916	0.876	0.787	0.855	0.73	1	0	1
No. 10	0.581	0.579	0.582	0.008	0.013	0.005	2	2	1
No. 11	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
No. 12	0.994	1	0.988	0.792	0.842	0.748	3	1	0
No. 13	0.656	0.884	0.522	0.245	0.393	0.178	0	2	2
No. 14	0.975	0.995	0.957	0.432	0.75	0.303	1	3	0
No. 15	0.692	0.98	0.535	0.633	0.992	0.465	0	0	4
Mean	0.839	0.892	0.805	0.513	0.616	0.455	0.8	1	0.8

Table 1. Evaluation results for 15 Fugues from Beethoven for full method and PLP-based beat tracking only

The results for the automatic evaluation are shown in Table 1. We evaluated both the original pulse sequence derived from the PLP pulse tracking method introduced in Section 2.1, and the post-processed version. In both cases, the detected time signature was used to locate the downbeats. For all pieces except No. 11, the annotated 2/2 signature was mostly detected as 4/4, sometimes as 8/4. Compared to the results of the PLP pulse tracker, which is not designed for detecting downbeats, the results for some pieces were improved significantly by our method. For example, in Fugue No. 7 our post-processing method added one pulse and removed four other pulses. At the beginning, another single pulse was inserted to prevent upbeat shifts. These changes lead to an increase of the F-measure from 0.324 to 0.826, which has major consequences, e. g., on the amount of additional work for a human importing this MIDI file into a score notation software to optimize the score manually.

4. CONCLUSION

We presented a bottom-up method to derive a musically meaningful time axis for performed MIDI files, and converting them into semantically enriched score-like MIDI files. Our proposed procedure optimized an estimated pulse sequence by insertion of missing pulses as well as removal of spurious pulses to derive an overall consistent measure grid.

Since the output of the presented method is another MIDI file, our procedure can be used in combination with any MIDI quantization software by using it for preprocessing performed MIDI files having no musically meaningful time information. Essentially, the physical time axis remains unchanged, so it can be used further in combination with rhythm transcription approaches. Deriving a musical time axis without quantization is also meaningful for real-time interaction with MIDI synthesizers, e. g., as a variation of [3]. Because of its generality, our procedure can be simply extended by including other rhythmic or harmonic aspects.

Acknowledgments: This work has been supported by the German Research Foundation (DFG CL 64/8-1,

DFG MU 2686/5-1). The International Audio Laboratories Erlangen are a joint institution of the Friedrich-Alexander-Universität Erlangen-Nürnberg (FAU) and Fraunhofer IIS.

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