ℓ_1 -GRAPH BASED MUSIC STRUCTURE ANALYSIS

First author
Affiliation1
author1@ismir.edu

Second author Retain these fake authors in submission to preserve the formatting

Third author
Affiliation3
author3@ismir.edu

ABSTRACT

A novel framework for music structure analysis is proposed. Each audio recording is represented by a sequence of audio features, which capture the variations between different music segments. Three different features are employed, namely the mel-frequency cepstral coefficients, the chroma features, as well as the bio-inspired auditory temporal modulations. By assuming that the feature vectors, extracted from a specific music segment, are drawn from a single subspace, a feature sequence would lie in a union of as many subspaces as the number of music segments is. Under the aforementioned assumption, it has been shown that each feature vector from a union of independent linear subspaces has a sparse representation with respect a dictionary formed by all other feature vectors, with the nonzero coefficients associated only to feature vectors that stem from its-own subspace. This sparse representation reflects the relationships among the feature vectors and it is used to construct a similarity graph, the so-called ℓ_1 -Graph. Thus, the segmentation of the audio features is obtained by applying spectral clustering on the adjacency matrix of the ℓ_1 -Graph. The performance of the proposed approach is assessed by conducting experiments on the PopMusic and the UPF Beatles benchmark datasets. The experimental results are promising and validate the effectiveness of the approach, which does not need training nor does need tuning multiple parameters.

1. INTRODUCTION

A music signal carries highly structured information at several time levels. At the lowest level, structure is defined by the individual notes, their timbral characteristics, as well as their pitch and time intervals. At an intermediate level, notes build relatively longer structures, such as melodic phrases, chords, and chord progressions. At the highest level, the structural description of an entire music recording or its mu-

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page.

© 2011 International Society for Music Information Retrieval.

sical form emerges at the time scale of music sections, such as intro, verse, chorus, bridge, and outro [16, 17].

The musical form of a recording is high-level information that can be employed in several Music Information Retrieval (MIR) tasks, such as music thumbnailing and summarization [3], chord transcription [12], music semantics learning and annotation [1], song segment retrieval [1], remixing [9], etc. Consequently, the interest of MIR community to the problem of automatic musical form or structural analysis has been increased as is manifested by the considerably amount of research that has been done so far [1,9,10,16,19]. For a comprehensive review the interested reader is referred to [6,17] (and the references therein). Although many methods have been employed in modern automatic music structural analysis systems, their majority applies a signal processing stage followed by a representation stage. In the first stage, low-level features sequences are extracted from the audio signal in order to model its timbral, melodic, and rhythmic content [17]. This is consistent with the findings of Bruderer et al., who state that the perception of structural boundaries in popular music is mainly influenced by the combination of changes in timbre, tonality, and rhythm over the music piece [2]. At the representation stage, a recurrence plot or a similarity matrix is analyzed in order to identify repetitive patterns in the feature sequences by employing Hidden Markov Models, clustering methods, etc. [6,17].

In this paper, an unsupervised method for automatic music structure analysis is proposed. Each audio recording is represented by a sequence of audio features aiming to capture the variations between different music segments. Since the music structure is strongly determined by repetition, a similarity matrix should be constructed and then analyzed. The main novelty of the proposed method is that the similarity matrix is built by adopting an one-to-all sparse reconstruction rather than an one-to-one (i.e., pairwise) comparisons. By assuming that the feature vectors, that belong to the same music segment, are drawn from a single subspace, the whole feature sequence lies in a union of K subspaces, where K is equal to the number of music segments. It has been proved that, under the aforementioned assumptions, each feature vector from a union of independent linear subspaces has a sparse representation with respect a dictionary formed by all the other feature vectors, with the nonzero coefficients associated to feature vectors stemming from itsown subspace [7]. Since this sparse representation reflects relationships among the feature vectors, it is used to construct a similarity graph, the so-called ℓ_1 -Graph [5]. The segmentation of audio features is obtained then by applying spectral clustering on the adjacency matrix of ℓ_1 -Graph. Apart from the conventional *mel-frequency cepstral coefficients* and *chroma* features, frequently employed in music structural analysis systems, the use of *auditory temporal modulations* is also investigated here.

The performance of the proposed framework is assessed by conducting experiments in two manually annotated benchmark datasets, namely the PopMusic [10] and the UPF Beatles. The experimental results validate the effectiveness of the proposed approach in music structural analysis reaching the performance of the state-of-the-art music structural analysis systems, without need of training and multiple parameters tuning.

The remainder of the paper is as follows. In Section 2, the audio features employed are briefly described. The ℓ_1 -Graph based music structural analysis framework is detailed in Section 3. Datasets, evaluation metrics, and experimental results are presented in Section 4. Conclusions are drawn and future research direction are indicated in Section 5.

2. AUDIO FEATURES REPRESENTATION

Each 22.050-Hz sampled monaural waveform is parameterized by employing three audio features in order to capture the variations between different music segments. The feature set includes the *auditory temporal modulations* (ATMs), the *mel-frequency cepstral coefficients* (MFCCs), and the *chroma* features.

1) Auditory temporal modulations: The representation of ATM is obtained by modeling the path of human auditory processing and seems to carry important time-varying information of the music signal [15]. The computational model of human auditory system consists of two basic processing stages. The first stage models the early auditory system, which converts the acoustic signal into an auditory representation, the so-called auditory spectrogram, i.e., a timefrequency distribution along a logarithmic frequency axis. At the second stage, the temporal modulation content of the auditory spectrogram is estimated by wavelets applied to each row of the auditory spectrogram. In this paper, the early auditory system is modeled by employing the Lyons' passive ear model [11]. The derived auditory spectrogram consists of 96 frequency channels ranging from 62 Hz to 11 kHz. The auditory spectrogram is then decimated along the time axis by a factor of 150 ms. The decimation allows focusing on a more meaningful time-scale for music structural analysis. The underlying temporal modulations of the music signal are derived by applying a wavelet filter along

each temporal row of the auditory spectrogram for a set of 8 discrete rates r, that are selective to different temporal modulation parameters ranging from slow to fast temporal rates (i.e., $r \in \{2,4,8,16,32,64,128,256\}$ Hz) [15]. Consequently, the entire auditory spectrogram is modeled by a three-dimensional representation of frequency, rate, and time, which is then unfolded along the time-mode in order to obtain a two-dimensional (2D) ATM features sequence.

- 2) Mel-frequency cepstral coefficients: MFCCs parameterize the rough shape of spectral envelope [13] and thus encode the timbral properties of signal, which are closely related to the perception of music structure [2]. Following [16], the MFCCs calculation employs frames of duration 92.9 ms with a hope size of 46.45 ms, and a 42-band filter bank. The correlation between frequency bands is reduced by applying the discrete cosine transform along the log-energies of the bands. The lowest coefficient (i.e., zeroth order) is discarded and the 12 coefficients following are retained to form the feature vector that undergoes a zeromean normalization.
- 3) Chroma: Chroma features are adept at characterizing the harmonic content of the music signal by projecting the entire spectrum onto 12 bins representing the 12 distinct semitones (or chroma) of a musical octave [13]. The chroma features are calculated using 92.9 ms frames with a hope size of 23.22 ms as follows. First, the salience for different fundamental frequencies in the range $80-640~\mathrm{Hz}$ is calculated. The linear frequency scale is transformed into a musical one by selecting the maximum salience value in each frequency range corresponding to one semitone. Finally, the octave equivalence classes are summed over the whole pitch range to yield a 12-dimensional chroma vector.

Finally, each of the aforementioned features is averaged over the beat frames by employing the beat tracking algorithm described in [8]. Thus, a set of beat-synchronous tempo invariant features is obtained.

3. MUSIC STRUCTURE SEGMENTATION BASED ON ℓ_1 -GRAPH

Since repetition governs the music structure, a common strategy employed by music structural analysis systems is to compare each feature vector of the audio recording with all the other vectors in order to detect similarities. Let a given audio recording be represented by a feature sequence of N frames, that is $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$. In conventional music structural analysis systems, the similarities between the feature vectors are measured by constructing the self-similarity matrix (SDM) $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ with elements $d_{ij} = d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$, $i, j \in \{i, 2, \dots, N\}$, where $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a suitable distance metric [9, 16, 17]. Common distance metrics employed are the Euclidean (i.e., $d_E(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|_2$) and the cosine distance (i.e., $d_C(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = 0.5(1 - \frac{\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j}{\|\mathbf{x}_i\|_2 \|\mathbf{x}_j\|_2})$, where $\|.\|_2$

denotes the ℓ_2 vector norm. However, the aforementioned approach suffers from two drawbacks: 1) it is very sensitive to noise, since the employed distance metrics are not robust to noise and 2) the resulting SDM is dense and thus it cannot provide locality information, which is valuable for the problem under study.

In order to alleviate the aforementioned drawbacks, we propose to measure the similarities between the feature vectors in a *one-to-all sparse reconstruction* manner rather than employ the conventional *one-to-one* distance approach, by exploiting recent findings in sparse subspace clustering [7].

Formally, let a given audio recording of K music segments be represented by a sequence of N audio features of size M, i.e., $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{x}_2 | \dots | \mathbf{x}_N] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$. By assuming that the feature vectors that belong to the same music segment, lie into the same subspace, the columns of X are drawn from a union of K independent linear subspaces of unknown dimensions. It has been proved that each feature vector from a union of independent linear subspaces has a sparse representation with respect a dictionary formed by all other feature vectors, with the nonzero coefficients associated to vectors drawn from its-own subspace [7]. Therefore, by seeking this sparsest linear combination, the relationship with the other vectors lying in the same subspace is revealed automatically. A similarity graph built from this sparse representation (i.e., the ℓ_1 -Graph [5]) is used then in order to segment the columns of X into K clusters by applying spectral clustering.

Let $\mathbf{X}^i = [\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{x}_2 | \dots | \mathbf{x}_{i-1} | \mathbf{x}_{i+1} | \dots | \mathbf{x}_N] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times (N-1)}$. The sparsest solution of $\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{X}^i \mathbf{c}$ can be found by solving the optimization problem:

$$\underset{\mathbf{c}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|\mathbf{c}\|_{0} \quad \text{subject to } \mathbf{x}_{i} = \mathbf{X}^{i}\mathbf{c}, \tag{1}$$

where $\|.\|_0$ is the ℓ_0 quasi-norm returning the number of the non-zero entries of a vector. Finding the solution to the optimization problem (1) is NP-hard due to the nature of the underlying combinational optimization. An approximate solution to the problem (1) can be obtained by replacing the ℓ_0 norm with the ℓ_1 norm as follows:

$$\underset{\mathbf{c}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|\mathbf{c}\|_{1} \quad \text{subject to } \mathbf{x}_{i} = \mathbf{X}^{i}\mathbf{c}, \tag{2}$$

where $\|.\|_1$ denotes the ℓ_1 norm of a vector. It has been proved that if the solution is sparse enough, and M << (N-1), then the solution of (1) is equivalent to the solution of (2), which can be solved in polynomial time by standard linear programming methods [4]. The well-posedness of (2) relies on the condition M << (N-1), i.e., the sample size must be much larger than the feature dimension. If the ATMs used as audio representation, the sample size (number of beats here) is not much larger than the feature dimension (e.g. M=768 and $N\approx 500$ on average in the experiments conducted). Thus c in no longer sparse. To alleviate this

problem, it has been proposed to augment \mathbf{X}^i by a $M \times M$ identity matrix and to solve [20]:

$$\underset{\mathbf{c}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|\mathbf{c}\|_{1} \quad \text{subject to } \mathbf{x}_{i} = \mathbf{Bc}, \tag{3}$$

instead of (2), where $\mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{X}^i \mid \mathbf{I}] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times (M + (N-1))}$.

Since the sparse coefficient vector \mathbf{c} reflects the relationships among \mathbf{x}_i and the remaining feature vectors in \mathbf{X}^i , the overall sparse representation of the whole feature sequence \mathbf{X} can be summarized by constructing the weight matrix \mathbf{W} using Algorithm 1. \mathbf{W} can be used to define the

```
Algorithm 1 \ell_1-Graph Construction [5].
```

Input: Audio feature sequence $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$. **Output:** Weight matrix $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$.

```
1: for i=1 \rightarrow N do
          \mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{X}^i \mid \mathbf{I}].
          \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{c}} \|\mathbf{c}\|_1 subject to \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{Bc}.
 3:
          for j = 1 \rightarrow N - 1 do
 4:
              if j < i then
 5:
                  w_{ij} = c_j.
 6:
 7:
 8:
                  w_{ij} = c_{j-1}.
              end if
 9:
          end for
10:
11: end for
```

so-called ℓ_1 -Graph [5]. The ℓ_1 -Graph is a directed graph G = (V, E), where the vertices of graph V are the N audio feature vectors and an edge $(u_i, u_i) \in \mathbf{E}$ exists, whenever \mathbf{x}_{i} is one of the vectors participating to the sparse representation of x_i . Accordingly, the adjacency matrix of G is W. Unlike the conventional SDM, the adjacency matrix W is robust to noise. The ℓ_1 -Graph G is an unbalanced digraph. A new balanced graph $\hat{\mathbf{G}}$ can be built with adjacency matrix $\hat{\mathbf{W}}$ with elements $\hat{w}_{ij} = 0.5 (|w_{ij}| + |w_{ji}|)$, where |.| denotes the absolute value. $\hat{\mathbf{W}}$ is still a valid representation of the similarity between audio features vectors, since if \mathbf{x}_i can be expressed as compact linear combination of some feature vectors including \mathbf{x}_i (all from the same subspace - or music segment here), then x_i can also be expressed as compact linear combination of feature vectors in the same subspace including x_i [7].

The segmentation of the audio features vectors can be obtained by spectral clustering algorithms such as Normalized Cuts [18] as illustrated in Algorithm 2.

4. EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

The performance of the proposed music structure analysis system is assessed by conducting experiments on two manually annotated datasets of Western popular music pieces.

Algorithm 2 Music Segmentation via ℓ_1 -Graph.

Input: Audio features sequence $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$ and the number of segments K.

Output: Audio features sequence segmentation.

- 1: Obtain the adjacency matrix \mathbf{W} of ℓ_1 -Graph by Algorithm 1.
- 2: Build the symmetric adjacency matrix of the new ℓ_1 -Graph $\hat{\mathbf{G}}$: $\hat{\mathbf{W}} = 0.5 \cdot (|\mathbf{W}| + |\mathbf{W}^T|)$.
- 3: Employ Normalized Cuts [18] to segment the vertices of $\hat{\mathbf{G}}$ into K clusters.

Several evaluation metrics are employed to assess system performance from different points of view.

4.1 Datasets

PopMusic dataset: PopMusic dataset [10] consists of 60 music recordings of rock, pop, hip-hop, and jazz. Half of the recordings are from a variety of well-known artists from the past 40 years, including Britney Spears, Eminem, Madonna, Nirvana, etc. This subset is abbreviated as *Recent* hereafter. The remaining 30 music recordings are by The Beatles. The ground-truth segmentation of each song contains between 2 and 15 different segments classes. On average the number of classes is 6, while each recording is found to contain 11 segments [1,10]. The subset contains the Beatles recordings is referred ta as *Beatles*.

UPF Beatles dataset: The UPF Beatles ¹ dataset consists of 174 songs by The Beatles, annotated by musicologist Alan W. Pollack. Segmentation time stamps were inserted at Universitat Pompeu Fabra (UPF) as well. Each music recording contains on average 10 segments from 5 unique classes [19]. Since all the recordings are from the same band, there is less variation in musical style and timbral characteristics than other datasets.

4.2 Evaluation Metrics

Following [1,9,10,16,19], the segment labels are evaluated by employing the pairwise F-measure, which is one of the standard metrics of clustering quality. It compares pairs of beats, which are assigned to the same cluster in the music structure analysis system output against those in the reference segmentation. Let \mathbb{F}_A be the set of similarly labeled pairs of beats in a recording according to the music structure analysis algorithm, and \mathbb{F}_H be the set of similarly labeled pairs in the human reference segmentation. The pairwise precision, $P_{pairwise}$, the pairwise recall, $R_{pairwise}$, and the

pairwise F-measure, $F_{pairwise}$, are defined as follows:

$$P_{pairwise} = \frac{|\mathbb{F}_A \cap \mathbb{F}_H|}{|\mathbb{F}_A|},\tag{4}$$

$$R_{pairwise} = \frac{|\mathbb{F}_A \cap \mathbb{F}_H|}{|\mathbb{F}_H|},\tag{5}$$

$$F_{pairwise} = 2 \cdot \frac{P_{pairwise} \cdot R_{pairwise}}{P_{pairwise} + R_{pairwise}}.$$
 (6)

The average number of segments per song in each dataset is reported as well.

The segment boundary detection is evaluated separately by employing the standard precision, recall, and F-measure. Following [1,10,16], a boundary detected the system is considered as correct if it falls within some fixed small distance δ away from its reference, where each reference boundary can be retrieved by at most one output boundary. Let \mathbb{B}_A and \mathbb{B}_H denote the sets of segments bounds according to the music structure analysis algorithm and the human reference, respectively, then

$$P = \frac{|\mathbb{B}_A \cap \mathbb{B}_H|}{|\mathbb{B}_A|},\tag{7}$$

$$R = \frac{|\mathbb{B}_A \cap \mathbb{B}_H|}{|\mathbb{B}_H|},\tag{8}$$

$$F = 2 \cdot \frac{P \cdot R}{P_{\perp} R}.\tag{9}$$

In (4)-(9), |.| denotes the set cardinality. The parameter δ is set to 3 sec in our experiments in order to compare our results with those reported in [1, 10, 16].

4.3 Experimental Results

The structural segmentation is obtained by applying the proposed framework to various feature sequences. Following the experimental setup employed in [1, 9, 10, 16, 19], the number of clusters K was set to 6 for the PopMusic dataset, while K=4 for the UPF Beatles dataset. For comparison purposes, experiments are conducted by applying Normalized Cuts [18] apart from the ℓ_1 -Graph and the SDM with Euclidean distance metric computed for the three audio features sequences. The structural segmentation results for the PopMusic and the UPF Beatles datasets are summarized in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively.

By inspecting Table 1 and Table 2 it is clear that the ℓ_1 -Graph based segmentation outperforms the SDM based segmentation in terms of pairwise F-measure for all the audio features employed in both datasets. Moreover, the ATMs offer a robust representation for the task of music structure analysis, especially when employed in the construction of the ℓ_1 -Graph.

¹ http://www.dtic.upf.edu/ perfe/annotations/sections/license.html

Method/Reference	Dataset	$F_{pairwise}$	Av. Segments	
	Beatles	0.6140	8.8333	
ATM + ℓ_1 -Graph	Recent	0.5885	12.6087	
based segmentation	PopMusic	0.5912	11.8679	
	Beatles	0.4029	199.3667	
MFCCs + ℓ_1 -Graph	Recent	0.3884	248.2826	
based segmentation	PopMusic	0.3966	239.6316	
	Beatles	0.4191	153.7667	
Chroma + ℓ_1 -Graph	Recent	0.3520	260.3043	
based segmentation	PopMusic	0.3900	200	
	Beatles	0.4243	145.7000	
ATM + SDM	Recent	0.3975	141.3913	
based segmentation	PopMusic	0.4027	125.5283	
	Beatles	0.3664	226.3667	
MFCCs + SMD	Recent	0.3663	305.9130	
based segmentation	PopMusic	0.3664	260.8868	
	Beatles	0.3499	220.4333	
Chroma + SDM	Recent	0.3312	276.1739	
based segmentation	PopMusic	0.3418	244.6226	
[1] MFCCS unconstrained	PopMusic	0.577	17.9	
[1] MFCCS constrained	PopMusic	0.620	10.7	
[1] Chroma constrained	PopMusic	0.51	12	
	Beatles	0.425	N/A	
[10] K-means	Recent	0.457	N/A	
clustering	PopMusic	0.441	N/A	
-	Beatles	0.538	N/A	
[10] Mean-field	Recent	0.560	N/A	
clustering	PopMusic	0.549	N/A	
	Beatles	0.604	N/A	
[10] Constrained	Recent	0.605	N/A	
clustering	PopMusic	0.603	N/A	

Table 1. Segment-type labeling performance on the Pop-Music dataset.

Method/Reference	$F_{pairwise}$	Av. Segments	
ATM + ℓ_1 -Graph based segmentation	0.5938	8.5215	
MFCCs + ℓ_1 -Graph based segmentation	0.4664 181.9950		
Chroma + ℓ_1 -Graph based segmentation	0.4563	116.2989	
ATM + SDM based segmentation	0.4711	81.0376	
MFCCs + SDM based segmentation	0.3985	190.5489	
Chroma + SDM based segmentation	0.4066	167.9239	
Method in [10] as evaluated in [16]	0.584	N/A	
[16]	0.599	N/A	
[19]	0.600	N/A	
[9]	0.621	N/A	

Table 2. Segment-type labeling performance on the UPF Beatles dataset.

The best reported results on the PopMusic dataset are obtained when the ATMs are employed for audio representation and the segmentation is performed on the ℓ_1 -Graph defined by them. These results are comparable to the best reported results by Levy and Sandler [10], while inferior to those reported by Barrington *et al.* [1]. It is worth noting that in the proposed framework, the clustering is performed without any constraints, which is not the case for the best results reported in [1, 10]. In an unconstrained clustering setting, the proposed system outperforms the systems discussed in [1, 10].

In the UPF Beatles dataset, the best reported results are obtained again when the ATMs are employed for audio representation and the segmentation is perform on the ℓ_1 -Graph constructed using \mathbf{W} . The reported results are comparable to those obtained by the state-of-the-art music structure analysis on this dataset [16, 19]. The proposed system is not directly comparable to that in [9] due to the use of slightly different reference segmentations.

Method/Reference	Dataset	F	P	R
ATM + ℓ_1 -Graph based segmentation	PopMusic	0.5227	0.4737	0.6274
[1] MFCCS constrained	PopMusic	0.610	0.620	0.650
[1] Chroma constrained	PopMusic	0.420	0.410	0.460
EchoNest reported in [1]	PopMusic	0.450	0.410	0.560
[10] K-means clustering	PopMuic	0.437	0.809	0.311
[10] Mean-field clustering	PopMusic	0.448	0.366	0.665
[10] Constrained clustering	PopMusic	0.590	0.648	0.567
ATM + ℓ_1 -Graph based segmentation	UPF Beatles	0.5304	0.5338	0.5670
Method in [10] as evaluated in [16]	UPF Beatles	0.612	0.600	0.646
[16]	UPF Beatles	0.55	0.521	0.612
[9] Timbre	UPF Beatles	0.586	0.581	0.619
[9] Chroma	UPF Beatles	0.500	0.465	0.522
[9] Timbre & Chroma	UPF Beatles	0.536	0.49	0.55

Table 3. Boundary detection performance on the PopMusic and the UPF Beatles dataset.

The average number of segments detected by our system is 11.86 and 8.52, when according to the ground-truth the actual average number of segments is 11 and 10 for the PopMusic and the UPF Beatles dataset, respectively. This result is impressive since no constraints have been enforced during clustering.

The performance of the proposed system deteriorates when either the MFCCs or the chroma features are employed for audio representation. The low pairwise F-measure and the over-segmentation can be be attributed to the fact that the underlying assumptions do not hold for such representations.

Since the performance of our system is clearly inferior when MFCCs or chroma features are employed for audio representation, only the ATMs are employed in the segment-boundary detection task. The boundary detection results are summarized in Table 3 for both the PopMusic and the UPF Beatles dataset. EchoNest refers to the commercial online music boundary detection service provided by The Echonest and evaluated in [1].

By inspecting Table 3, for music boundary detection, the proposed system is clearly inferior to the system tested by Levy and Sandler [10] on both datasets. The success of the latter method can be attributed to the constraints imposed during the clustering, which is not our case. Consequently, the results obtained by the proposed system in music boundary detection could be considered as acceptable, since such results still outperform those reported for many other state-of-the-art approaches with or without imposing constraints (e.g., the EchoNest online service). It is worth mentioning that neither of the methods appearing in Table 3 approaches the accuracy of specialized boundary detection methods, such as the method proposed in [14], which achieves boundary F-measure of 0.75 on a test set similar to the Beatles subset of the PopMusic dataset. However such boundary detection methods, do not model the music structure and provide no characterization of the segments between the boundaries as the proposed method as well as the methods in [1, 9, 10, 16, 19] do.

5. CONCLUSIONS

A novel unsupervised music structure analysis framework has been proposed. This framework resorts to ATMs for music representation, while the segmentation is performed by applying spectral clustering on the adjacency matrix of the ℓ_1 -Graph. The method is parameter-free, since the only parameter needed be set is the number of music segments. The performance of the proposed method is assessed by conducting experiments on two benchmark datasets used in the literature. The experimental results on music structure analysis are comparable to those obtained by the state-of-the-art music structure analysis systems. Moreover promising results on music boundary detection are reported. It is believed that by imposing constraints during clustering in the proposed framework, both the music structure analysis and the music boundary detection will be considerably improved. This point will be investigated in the future. Another feature research direction is to automatically detect the number of music segments.

6. REFERENCES

- [1] L. Barrington, A. Chan, and G. Lanckriet. Modeling music as a dynamic texture. *IEEE Trans. Audio, Speech, and Language Processing*, 18(3):602–612, 2010.
- [2] M. Bruderer, M. McKinney, and A. Kohlrausch. Structural boundary perception in popular music. In *Proc. 7th Int. Symposium Music Information Retrieval*, pages 198–201, Victoria, Canada, 2006.
- [3] W. Chai and B. Vercoe. Structural analysis of musical signals for indexing and thumbnailing. In *Proc. ACM/IEEE Joint Conf. Digital Libraries*, pages 27–34, 2003.
- [4] S. S. Chen, D. L. Donoho, and M. A. Saunders. Atomic decomposition by basis pursuit. *SIAM J. Sci. Comput.*, 20(1):33–61, 1998.
- [5] B. Cheng, J. Yang, S. Yan, Y. Fu, and T. Huang. Learning with 11-graph for image analysis. *IEEE Trans Image Processing*, 19(4):858–866, 2010.
- [6] R. B. Dannenberg and M. Goto. Music structure analysis from acoustic signals. In D. Havelock, S. Kuwano, and M. Vorländer, editors, *Handbook of Signal Processing* in Acoustics, pages 305–331. Springer, New York, N.Y., USA, 2008.
- [7] E. Elhamifar and R. Vidal. Sparse subspace clustering. In *IEEE Int. Conf. Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 2790–2797, Miami, FL, USA, 2009.
- [8] D. Ellis. Beat tracking by dynamic programming. *J. New Music Research*, 2007:51–60, 2007.

- [9] F. Kaiser and T. Sikora. Music structure discovery in popular music using non-negative matrix factorization. In *Proc. 11th Int. Symposium Music Information Retrieval*, pages 429–434, Utrecht, Netherlands, 2010.
- [10] M. Levy and M. Sandler. Structural segmentation of musical audio by constrained clustering. *IEEE Trans. Audio, Speech, and Language Processing*, 16(2):318–326, 2008.
- [11] R. Lyon. A computational model of filtering, detection, and compression in the cochlea. In *IEEE Int. Conf. Acoustics, Speech, and Signal Processing*, pages 1282–1285, Paris, France, 1982.
- [12] M. Mauch, K. Noland, and S. Dixon. Using musical structure to enhance automatic chord transcription. In *Proc. 10th Int. Symposium Music Information Retrieval*, pages 231–236, Kobe, Japan, 2009.
- [13] M. Müller, D. Ellis, A. Klapuri, and G. Richard. Signal processing for music analysis. *IEEE J. Sel. Topics in Signal Processing (accepted for publication)*, 2011.
- [14] B. Ong and P. Herrera. Semantic segmentation of music audio contents. In *Proc. Int. Computer Music Conference*, Barcelona, Spain, 2005.
- [15] Y. Panagakis, C. Kotropoulos, and G. R. Arce. Non-negative multilinear principal component analysis of auditory temporal modulations for music genre classification. *IEEE Trans. Audio, Speech, and Language Technology*, 18(3):576–588, 2010.
- [16] J. Paulus and A. Klapuri. Music structure analysis using a probabilistic fitness measure and a greedy search algorithm. *IEEE Trans. Audio, Speech, and Language Processing*, 17(6):1159–1170, 2009.
- [17] J. Paulus, M. Müller, and A. Klapuri. Audio-based music structure analysis. In *Proc. 11th Int. Symposium Music Information Retrieval*, pages 625–636, Utrecht, Netherlands, 2010.
- [18] J. Shi and J. Malik. Normalized cuts and image segmentation. *IEEE Trans. Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 22(8):888–905, 2000.
- [19] R. Weiss and J. Bello. Identifying repeated patterns in music using sparse convolutive non-negative matrix factorization. In *Proc. 11th Int. Symposium Music Information Retrieval*, pages 123–128, Utrecht, Netherlands, 2010.
- [20] J. Wright and Y. Ma. Dense error correction via 11-minimization. *IEEE Trans. Information Theory*, 56(7):3540–3560, 2010.