Introducing a Framework for the Evaluation of Music Detection Tools

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Abstract

The huge amount of multimedia information available nowadays makes its manual processing prohibitive, requiring tools for automatic labelling of these contents. This paper describes a framework for assessing a music detection tool; this framework consists of a database, composed of several hours of radio recordings that include different types of radio programmes, and a set of evaluation measures for evaluating the performance of a music detection tool in detail. A tool for automatically detecting music in audio streams, with application to music information retrieval tasks, is presented as well. The aim of this tool is to discard the audio excerpts that do not contain music in order to avoid their unnecessary processing. This tool applies fingerprinting to different acoustic features extracted from the audio signal in order to remove perceptual irrelevancies, and a support vector machine is trained for classifying these fingerprints in classes music and no-music. The validity of this tool is assessed in the proposed evaluation framework.

Keywords: music detection, fingerprinting, evaluation framework

1. Introduction

During the last years there has been a fast growth of the available amount of multimedia (audio and audiovisual) documents. This multimedia information has to be labelled so users can automatically access the contents of their interest. These data used to be manually labelled, but the size of the documents and databases that are available nowadays makes this manual labelling prohibitive. Thus, the need for tools that automatically label and process multimedia documents has arisen. The amount of information that can be extracted from multimedia contents is huge. To cite some examples focusing in audio data one can obtain subtitles, information about the speakers (identity, age, gender, mood) or information about the background.

The recent growth of the music information retrieval (MIR) community has opened new horizons in the field of speech technologies, setting the focus not only in the speaker but also in the music, which is present in almost all kinds of multimedia documents. Thus, researchers are working in systems for identifying the song that is being played in an audio stream (Seyerlehner et al., 2007), musical genre detection for database labelling and music recommendation, radio and television monitoring for detecting contents that have copyright restrictions and thus require the payment of royalty fees, among other applications.

MIR tasks require the detection of audio excerpts where music is present, in order to avoid the unnecessary processing of speech or other sounds different than music, which are useless in this kind of tasks. Several approaches for music detection in audio contents have been developed with promising results, but there is a lack of standard datasets for this task, making it difficult to assess the actual performance of the proposed approaches. One can cite the “music-speech” corpus (Schreier and Slaney, 1996) but, scoping the literature, experimental results show that this database is not challenging anymore. Researchers that work in music detection usually build their own datasets for assessing their systems in two different ways: (1) short excerpts of speech and music are collected from different recordings; (2) continuous recordings of programmes are used. In this paper, a framework for assessing a music detection tool focused in MIR is described. On the one hand, a database that includes a collection of radio programmes of diverse types recorded from different stations was compiled and manually labelled. On the other hand, measures to assess the performance on the music detection task were also established.

A music detection tool is also described in this paper, and it is assessed in the proposed evaluation framework. This tool proposes the use of audio fingerprinting for music detection. The aim of the music detection task is not finding an exact match for a music excerpt, as happens in music identification, but finding out whether the excerpt looks like music or not. Thus, the ability of fingerprinting for removing perceptual irrelevancies motivates its use for this task (Haitsma and Kalker, 2002). A support vector machine (SVM) is used to train a model that classifies audio fingerprints into classes music and no-music.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes a framework for evaluating music detection tools; a fingerprint-based strategy for music detection is presented in Section 3; Section 4 shows the music detection results obtained with the proposed approach and evaluation framework; conclusions and future work can be found in Section 5.

2. An evaluation framework for music detection

This section describes a database developed for the music detection task and the labelling methodology, along with some metrics for assessing the performance of a music detection system.

2.1. Description of the database

A music detection tool aims at solving a real-world problem, as it is expected to work in non-controlled
scenarios where any type of audio content may be present. In order to recreate a real situation, the database included in this framework consists of real radio programmes collected from different stations in different languages (specifically, Spanish and Galician). Different types of programmes were recorded, including variety shows, broadcast news, music programmes and cultural programmes. Specifically, 29 audio recordings have been collected. The audio present in these recordings is labelled as music and no-music, making a distinction between clean music (only music is playing) and background music (music is being played while people are speaking). The reason for doing this is because the detection of background music is a more difficult task than detecting clean music, and how a music detection tool deals with this type of information has to be carefully studied. The labelling of the audio recordings was performed by human annotators, and it has a resolution of one second. As a music detection tool requires training data for training models and/or tuning the system parameters, the database was split in a training dataset and a testing dataset. This latter dataset was used for assessing system performance. Table 1 shows the number of recordings, the whole duration, and the mean and standard deviation. The percentage of audio per class is summarized in Table 2: the percentage of non-music and music is shown, and the percentage of the two types of music information (clean or background music) is shown as well.

| Partition | # recordings | Duration (h) | Mean | Std |
|-----------|--------------|--------------|------|-----|
| Train     | 22           | 75 h         | 3.26 h | 1.58 h |
| Test      | 7            | 27 h         | 3.38 h | 2.07 h |
| Total     | 29           | 102 h        | 3.29 h | 1.68 h |

Table 1: Description of the database: duration of the partitions

| Partition | % no-music | % music | % clean music | % bg music |
|-----------|------------|---------|---------------|------------|
| Train     | 31%        | 69%     | 55%           | 14%        |
| Test      | 30%        | 70%     | 60%           | 10%        |
| Total     | 30%        | 70%     | 56.5%         | 13.5%      |

Table 2: Description of the database: percentage of audio per class

### 2.2. Evaluation metrics

There are several metrics that can be used for assessing a music detection system. A detection task can be seen as a classification task, where a set of examples has to be classified into two or more classes. In this case, the classes are music, background music and no-music, but the definition of example depends on the given framework. As mentioned in Section 1, music detection databases can be divided in two groups: those composed by excerpts that have to be classified as music or no-music, and those composed by long recordings where the audio has to be segmented in music and no-music segments. The most suitable definition of example for the first type of database would be “audio excerpt”, while in the second type of database an example should be defined as a unit of time, smaller or bigger depending on the desired time resolution. In this framework, which can be included in the second type of databases, an example is defined as an excerpt of one second of audio. Thus, there is a label (music, background music or no-music) for each second of audio.

A description of several evaluation metrics can be found below:

- **Accuracy.** The accuracy of a system is defined as

  \[
  \text{Accuracy} = \frac{\# \text{ of correctly classified examples}}{\# \text{ of classified examples}} \times 100
  \]  

  This metric is good at describing the performance of a system if the number of examples of the different classes is balanced. For example, given an audio stream where 1% is music and 99% is no-music, classifying all the examples as no-music would result in an accuracy of 99%, but that does not mean that the performance of the system is almost perfect, as it is not detecting any examples of class music.

- **Confusion matrix.** A confusion matrix contains information about the number of examples of a class and how many of them were classified as each of the possible classes. The diagonal elements of a confusion matrix represent the number of examples of each class that were correctly classified, while the non-diagonal elements show the number of examples that were not correctly classified. This representation shows how each class is detected and, in case of errors, which class is being confused with which other class.

  Four main performance measures can be extracted from a confusion matrix: (1) the true positive (TP) is the number of correctly classified instances of class \(c_i\); (2) the true negative (TN) is the number of instances of class \(c_j, j \neq i\) not classified as \(c_i\); (3) the false positive (FP) is the number of instances of class \(c_j, j \neq i\) classified as \(c_i\); and (4) the false negative (FN) is the number of instances of class \(c_i\) classified as \(c_j, j \neq i\).

  Two evaluation measures for the music detection task can be obtained by combining the aforementioned performance measures that can be extracted from the confusion matrix:

  - **Mis-detected music (MISS):** percentage of music that has not been detected:

    \[
    \text{MISS} = \frac{FN}{FN + TP} \times 100
    \]  

  - **False alarm music (FA):** percentage of examples of no-music that has been erroneously classified as music:

    \[
    \text{FA} = \frac{FP}{FP + TN} \times 100
    \]
The three performance measures described above give enough information in order to evaluate the performance of a music detection system but, depending on the task, other performance measures might be considered. For example, when music detection is used as a previous step to a monitoring system for detecting contents with copyright restrictions, it does not matter the amount of music that is not detected as long as excerpts of all the songs being played in the recording are detected. Thus, a specific metric for this task can be defined:

\[
\text{Monitoring accuracy} = \frac{\# \text{ of detected songs}}{\# \text{ of songs}} \times 100 \quad (4)
\]

This metric requires the labelling of the different songs in the database.

3. Fingerprint-based music detection tool

3.1. Motivation

An audio fingerprint is a condensed representation of an audio signal that keeps the relevant aspects of an audio excerpt. This condensed representation is often restricted to binary values.

Audio fingerprinting has been used in different MIR tasks for several reasons: (1) the storage requirements of fingerprints are relatively small, (2) the comparison of fingerprints is efficient due to the fact that perceptual irrelevancies have been removed, (3) searching on a fingerprints database is efficient because the searching space is smaller (Haitsma and Kalker, 2002). These reasons motivate the use of fingerprints for music detection: large databases can be represented by fingerprints, dramatically reducing the storage requirements; and the removal of perceptual irrelevancies can play a crucial role in the music detection task, as the aim is not looking for exact matches but deciding whether an example is music or not.

3.2. Fingerprint extraction

The fingerprints are obtained as described in Haitsma and Kalker (2002). There are three steps: first, acoustic features are extracted from the audio signal; after that, these features are turned into frame-level fingerprints by applying a convolution mask; and finally, consecutive frame-level fingerprints are grouped in order to create the clip-level fingerprint of a window of audio. This procedure is depicted in Figure 1.

3.2.1. Feature extraction

First, acoustic features are obtained from the audio signal. Different acoustic features are commonly used in the music detection task:

- Power spectral density: a fast Fourier transform (FFT) is computed for every frame, and the energy of the FFT is computed. Then, 33 non-overlapping frequency bands with logarithmic spacing ranging between 300Hz to 2000Hz are selected (Haitsma and Kalker, 2002).
- Mel-frequency cepstral coefficients (MFCCs) augmented with log-energy and first and second order derivatives (Young et al., 2006).

The window length used for computing the different features must be carefully selected, as we need to capture the tonal components of the music in order to obtain a good characterization. The same happens with the frame rate, as the time resolution can also influence music detection results (Neves et al., 2009).

3.2.2. Frame-level fingerprints

The fingerprints corresponding to the acoustic features of each frame were obtained as described in Neves et al. (2009). A convolution mask is used to binarize the acoustic features, specifically a mask for finding negative slopes on the spectrogram in two consecutive frames is applied. Given a set of acoustic features \( S \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times J} \), where \( S_{i,j} \) is the feature corresponding to energy band \( i \) and frame \( j \), the value \( F_{i,j} \) of the frame-level fingerprint corresponding to frame \( j \) obtained after applying the convolution mask is

\[
F_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } S_{i,j} - S_{i,j+1} + S_{i-1,j} - S_{i-1,j+1} > 0 \\
0 & \text{if } S_{i,j} - S_{i,j+1} + S_{i-1,j} - S_{i-1,j+1} \leq 0 
\end{cases} \quad (5)
\]

Other masks can be used instead of the one defined in Eq. 5, because depending on the size and shape of the convolution mask one can capture different characteristics of the audio features, such as spectral slopes or peaks.

3.2.3. Clip-level fingerprints

After performing the previous step, each frame of the audio stream is represented by its corresponding frame-level
fingerprint $F \in \mathbb{R}^{T-1}$. As a frame-level fingerprint does not provide a sufficient context for capturing long-time dynamics of the audio signal, frame-level fingerprints are grouped in clip-level fingerprints in order to obtain a bigger context. Thus, consecutive frame-level fingerprints are concatenated obtaining a clip-level fingerprint. As the evaluation framework proposed in Section 2 defines “example” as an excerpt of one second of audio, a sliding window with a time resolution of one second is used to compute the clip-level fingerprints.

3.3. Classification strategy

3.3.1. Model training and classification
A support vector machine (SVM) is used to decide whether music is present or not in a clip-level fingerprint. An SVM is a machine learning method that separates patterns into two different classes by means of a kernel function. The clip-level fingerprints obtained in Section 3, together with their corresponding clean music/background music/no-music labels, are used to train an SVM following the one-versus-one multiclass approach. Once the SVM model is obtained, it is used for classifying new clip-level fingerprints into music, no-music or background music.

In this work, a library for working with SVMs called LibSVM is used (Chang and Lin, 2011) for training and classifying the fingerprints.

3.3.2. Smoothing
The aforementioned SVM outputs a sequence of labels indicating the class (music, background music, no-music) of each second of audio. This sequence of labels may result in very short and isolated segments of a given class that are unlikely to exist in the original audio stream. Thus, a smoothing of the sequence of labels can be applied in order to remove these short segments. This is done by means of a binary median filter, which removes the noisy components from the sequence of labels.

4. Experimental Results

4.1. Contrastive system
A contrastive system was developed for comparing its results with those obtained with the fingerprint approach for music detection. This contrastive system consisted on a maximum likelihood classifier: first, two Gaussian mixture models (GMM) for classes music and no-music were trained; then, for performing classification, a window of audio was taken, and the maximum likelihood between the data on the window and the two GMMs was computed, assigning the class that obtained the maximum likelihood to the window of audio (Reynolds and Rose, 1995). In order to make a fair comparison, the same sliding window approach used in the fingerprinting approach was also used in this contrastive system.

4.2. Experimental settings
The system described in Section 3 has several free parameters that had to be adjusted: the length of the sliding window was set to 3 seconds; the number of MFCC features was set to 12 plus energy plus delta and acceleration coefficients, which makes a total of 39 features; and the binary median filter used for smoothing was configured for obtaining segments of more than 5 seconds.

The free parameters of the contrastive system were set to the same values of those for the fingerprinting system for the sake of comparison. Moreover, the number of Gaussians of the GMM models was set to 128.

4.3. Results
Table 3 shows the performance of the music detection tool with different acoustic features, according to the evaluation metrics described in Section 2.2. Results obtained with the contrastive system are also shown for comparison. The spectrogram, widely used for fingerprinting, did not obtain the best results for the music detection task, being the best performance obtained when using the classic MFCC features. Almost the same performance was obtained when using the chromagram as feature representation, which obtained a lower accuracy but its FA and MISS rates show that its working point was close to the equal error rate. As shown in Table 3, the fingerprinting approach for music classification did not outperform the contrastive system, but it still shows promising results. The performance of the contrastive system was slightly better, as the FA was considerably lower than when using fingerprints, but taking into account the simplicity of the fingerprinting representation of the audio segments, we can state that this is a promising approach for this task.

5. Conclusions and future work
This paper describes a framework for evaluating music detection tools, which includes a database and some evaluation metrics. The database is composed of more than 100 hours of real radio recordings of different types of programmes recorded from different radio stations. The metrics that were chosen for assessing the music detection tools are suitable for this kind of task, making this framework good at identifying the strengths and weaknesses of these tools. Specifically, the use of confusion matrices for obtaining evaluation metrics makes it easier to detect the source of errors on the music detection tool that degrade its performance. A music detection tool was also described in this paper, which obtained a performance close to a classic approach for this task. Although the classification accuracy was lower than the obtained with a contrastive system, the obtained results are promising for different reasons. First, the simplicity of the binary fingerprinting representation of the audio signal makes this system efficient in terms of computation time and memory requirements. Second, the use of a sliding window approach makes it possible to handle short and isolated segments, which are less common in real-world audio streams. Third, the contrastive system is able to detect music even in very short and isolated segments, which is a significant advantage for real-world applications. Finally, the framework described in this paper can be easily extended to include other types of acoustic features, such as Mel-frequency cepstral coefficients (MFCCs), Chromagram, etc., which can provide additional information about the audio signal.

Table 3: Experimental results

| Features   | Accuracy | MISS | FA  |
|------------|----------|------|-----|
| MFCCs      | 89.96%   | 9.35%| 4.66% |
| Spectrogram | 86.10%   | 9.19%| 9.82% |
| Chromagram  | 88.71%   | 8.80%| 6.84% |
| Contrastive system | 93.00% | 8.65%| 1.04% |
of computational load and data storage. Also, as many information retrieval approaches use fingerprints to represent the audio contents, the fingerprinting system for music detection is compatible with the next steps of the process, reducing the computational load of the whole system.

Different features were used for extracting the fingerprints, showing that the MFCCs obtained the best results in these music detection experiments. A good performance was obtained as well when using chromagrams, which allowed to represent the audio excerpts with less features than the MFCC representation. Other suitable features for fingerprinting representation will be explored in future work.

The classifier used in the fingerprinting system described in this paper was a support vector machine. Specifically, a toolkit for working with this type of classifiers was used, which handle binary data in the same way as any other numbers. In future work, the use of different classifiers will be explored, specially those that are particularly effective for working with binary data, increasing the efficiency of this music detection tool.

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