



HAL
open science

Simultaneous beat and downbeat-tracking using a probabilistic framework: theory and large-scale evaluation

Geoffroy Peeters, H el ene Papadopoulos

► **To cite this version:**

Geoffroy Peeters, H el ene Papadopoulos. Simultaneous beat and downbeat-tracking using a probabilistic framework: theory and large-scale evaluation. *IEEE Transactions on Audio, Speech and Language Processing*, 2011, 19 (6), pp. Digital Object Identifier: 10.1109/TASL.2010.2098869. hal-00655779v1

HAL Id: hal-00655779

<https://hal.science/hal-00655779v1>

Submitted on 2 Jan 2012 (v1), last revised 22 Mar 2016 (v2)

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destin ee au d ep ot et  a la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publi es ou non,  emanant des  tablissements d'enseignement et de recherche fran ais ou  trangers, des laboratoires publics ou priv es.

Simultaneous beat and downbeat-tracking using a probabilistic framework: theory and large-scale evaluation

Geoffroy Peeters and Helene Papadopoulos

Abstract—This paper deals with the simultaneous estimation of beat and downbeat location in an audio-file. We propose a probabilistic framework in which the time of the beats and their associated beat-positions-inside-a-measure role, hence the downbeats, are considered as hidden states and are estimated simultaneously using signal observations. For this, we propose a “reverse” Viterbi algorithm which decodes hidden states over beat-numbers. A beat-template is used to derive the beat observation probabilities. For this task, we propose the use of a machine-learning method, the Linear Discriminant Analysis, to estimate the most discriminative beat-templates. We propose two observations to derive the beat-position-inside-a-measure observation probability: the variation over time of chroma vectors and the spectral balance. We then perform a large-scale evaluation of beat and downbeat-tracking using six test-sets. In this, we study the influence of the various parameters of our method, compare this method to our previous beat and downbeat-tracking algorithms, and compare our results to state-of-the-art results on two test-sets for which results have been published. We finally discuss the results obtained by our system in the MIREX-09 contest for which our system ranked first for the “McKinney Collection” test-set.

Index Terms—Beat-tracking, Downbeat, Beat-templates, Linear Discriminant Analysis, hidden Markov model, reverse Viterbi decoding.

I. INTRODUCTION

Beat-tracking and downbeat-tracking are among the most challenging subjects in the music-audio research community. This is due to their large use in many applications: beat/downbeat-synchronous analysis (such as for score alignment or for cover- version identification), beat/ downbeat-synchronous processing (time- stretching, beat- shuffling, beat- slicing), music analysis (beat taken as a prior for pitch estimation, for onset detection or chord estimation) or visualization (time-grid in audio sequencers). This is also due to the complexity of the task. While tempo estimation is mainly a problem of periodicity detection (with the inherent octave ambiguities), beat-tracking is both a problem of periodicity detection and a problem of location of the beginning of the periods inside the signal (with the inherent ambiguities of the rhythm itself). Downbeat location is mainly a perceptual notion arising from the music construction process. Considering that the best results obtained in the last Audio Beat Tracking contest (MIREX-09) are far from being perfect, this problem is far from being solved. If most beat-tracking algorithms achieve good results for most

rock, pop or dance music tracks (except for highly compressed tracks), this is not the case when considering classical, jazz, world music or recent Western mainstream music styles such as Drum’n’Bass or R’n’B (which use complex rhythms).

In the following, we review related works in beat and downbeat-tracking, we review our previous beat and downbeat-tracking algorithms, we then present our new algorithm and compare it to existing works, we details each part of our new algorithm and finally perform a large-scale evaluation.

A. Related works

Related works in beat-tracking: This paper deals with beat-tracking from audio signal. We consider tempo period and meter has input parameters of our system and deal with audio data. Numerous good overviews exist in the field of tempo estimation or beat-tracking from symbolic data (see for example [1] [2]). We mainly reviews here existing approaches related to beat-tracking from audio signal.

Methods can be roughly classified according to the **front-end of the model**. Two types of front-ends can be used: - *discrete onset* representation extracted from the audio signal (Goto [3] [4], Dixon [5]), or - *continuous-valued* onset function (Scheirer [6], Klapuri [7], Davies [8]).

They can also be classified according to the **model used for the tracking**. Goto [9] and Dixon [5] use a *multi-agents* model. Each agent propagates an assumption of beat-period and beat-phase, a “manager” then decides about the best agents. Scheirer [6] and Jehan [10] use *resonating comb-filters* which states provides the phase hence the beat information. Klapuri [7] extends this method by using the states as input to a hidden Markov model tracking phase evaluation. *Probabilistic formulations* of the beat-tracking problem are also proposed. For example Cemgil [11] proposes a Bayesian framework for symbolic data, it is adapted and extended to the audio case by Hainsworth [12]. Laroche [13] proposes the use of dynamic programming to estimate simultaneously beat-period and beat-phase. Dynamic programming is also used by Ellis [14] to estimate beat-phase given tempo as input. Mixed approaches are also proposed. For example Davies [8] mixes a comb-filterbank approach with a multi-agent approach (he uses two agents representing a General State and Context-Dependent State). Most algorithms relying on *histogram methods* for beat-period estimation use a different algorithm for beat-phase estimation (Seppanen [15], Gouyon [16]). This is because histogram does not provides phase information. However, recent

G. Peeters and H. Papadopoulos are with the Sound Analysis/Synthesis Team of Ircam - CNRS STMS, 1 pl. Igor Stravinsky 75004 Paris, France (see <http://www.ircam.fr>).

approaches succeed to use directly the *phase information* to derive beat-phase (Autocorrelation Phase Matrix of Eck [17], mid-level representation of Grosche [18]).

Finally, we can classify them according to the **method used to associate a beat likelihood to a time**. Existing algorithms either use *directly* the values of the discrete onsets (or of the continuous onset function) at the specific time, or compute a cross-correlation between the local discrete onset sequence (or local continuous onset function) and a *beat-template* representing the theoretical pulses corresponding to the local tempo.

For a long time, the **performances** of the various approaches have been difficult to compare because authors were using different test-sets and different evaluation rules. Only recently, common test-sets (such as the ones used in [7] and [12]) and evaluation rules (such as the ones collected by [19]) have allowed this comparison. Also, the IMIRSEL team, has provided MIREX evaluation frameworks for audio beat-tracking in 2005 [20], 2006 [21] and 2009 [22] through MIREX contests. Among the top-ranked participants to these contests are (in alphabetical order): Alonso, Davies, Dixon, Ellis, Eck, Gouyon, Klapuri, Uhle.

Related works in downbeat-tracking: Most of the proposed approaches for downbeat detection rely on prior knowledge (such as tempo, time-signature of the piece or hand-annotated beat positions). The system of Allan [23] relies upon the assumption that a piece of music will contain repeated patterns. It presents a model that uses autocorrelation to determine the downbeats given beat-positions. It has been tested on 42 different pieces of music at various metrical levels, in several genres. It achieves a success rate of 81% for pieces in 4/4 time-signature and needs more testing on 3-based time-signatures. The model of Jehan [24] is tempo independent, does not require beat tracking but requires prior knowledge acquired through listening or learning during a supervised training stage where downbeats are hand-labeled. The model has only been applied to music in 4/4 meter. Goto [25] proposes two approaches to downbeat estimation. For percussive music, the downbeats are estimated using rhythmic pattern information. For non-percussive music, the downbeats are estimated using chord change information. Klapuri [7] proposes a full analysis of musical meter into three different metrical levels: tatum, tactus and measure level. The downbeats are identified by matching rhythmic pattern templates to a mid-level representation. Ellis [26] uses a similar “template-based” approach in a drum-pattern classification task. Davies [27] proposes an approach based on a spectral difference between band-limited beat-synchronous analysis frames. The sequence of beat positions of the input signal is required and the time-signature is to be known a priori. A recent method that segments the audio according to the position of the bar lines has been presented in Gainza [28]. The position of each bar line is predicted by using prior information about the position of previous bar lines as well as the estimated bar length. The model does not depend on the presence of percussive instruments and allows moderate tempo deviations.

B. Presentation of our previous system

1) *Tempo/ meter estimation system:* This paper concerns the beat and downbeat-tracking problem. For this, we consider as input parameters an onset-energy-function $f(t)$, time-variable tempo $bpm(t) = 60/Tb(t)$ and meter (2/4, 3/4 or 6/8). The onset-energy-function has a sampling rate of 172Hz (step of 5.8ms). It is computed using a reassigned-spectral-energy-flux function (RSEF). The system used for the estimation of these input parameters is the one described in [29]. This system has been positively estimated in [29] and in the MIREX-05 contest [20] for tempo estimation¹.

2) *Previous beat-tracking algorithm:* Our previous beat-tracking algorithm was inspired from a P-sola analysis method for locating the Glottal Closure Instants (GCIs) [30]. This method proceeds in two separated stages. The first stage locates a set of local maxima of $f(t)$ with an inter-distance close to the local estimated tempo period $Tb(t)$. The second stage performs a least-square optimization in order to satisfy simultaneously two constraints: c-a) “markers close to the local maxima”, c-b) “inter-distance between markers close to $Tb(t)$ ”. We refer the reader to [31] for more details about this method, which we call P-sola in the following.

3) *Previous downbeat-tracking algorithm:* Our previous downbeat-tracking algorithm was based on a chord-detection algorithm [32]. This algorithm takes as input the location of the beat-markers, and computes for each beat, a chroma vector using Constant-Q transform. The chord succession is then obtained using an hidden Markov model given the observed chroma, chord emission and chord transition probabilities. The downbeats are estimated using the assumption that chords are more likely to change on the downbeat positions.

C. Paper contribution and organisation

In this paper, we present a probabilistic framework for the simultaneous estimation of beat and downbeat location given estimated tempo and meter as input.

In part II, we propose a probabilistic framework for this using a hidden Markov model formulation in which beat-times and their associated beat-position-in-measure (bpim) are the hidden states. We give the big picture in II-A, present the HMM formulation in part II-B and the specific reverse Viterbi decoding algorithm in part II-C.

We then details the various part of the model: initial probability (part III), emission probabilities (part IV), transition probabilities (part V). The emission probabilities are estimated using a beat observation probability and bpim observation probabilities. In part IV-A, we propose, for the beat observation probability, the use of a machine learning approach to estimate the best beat-templates. In part IV-B, we propose, for the bpim observation probability, the use of two observations: based on the analysis of chroma vectors variation over time (part IV-B1) based on the analysis of spectral balance (part IV-B2). In part V, we present the transition probabilities which take into account the fact that hidden states represent beats in specific beat-position-in-measure.

¹In MIREX-05, our tempo evaluation system ranked first with 95.71% in the category “At Least One Tempo Correct”.

Finally in part VI, we propose a large-scale evaluation of beat and downbeat tracking using six different test-sets. We compare our results to state-of-the-art results and discuss the results obtained by our algorithm during the MIREX-09 contests.

Comparison to related works: Our algorithm works with a continuous onset-function rather than a series of discrete onsets. The method used to associate a beat likelihood to a time is a beat-template method. We propose a method to train the most discriminative beat-templates by using Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA). This is an important contribution of this paper. As we will see, the LDA-trained beat-templates allows improving estimation results over the results obtained with more simple beat-templates representing the theoretical pulses corresponding to the local tempo [33].

The simultaneous estimation of beat and downbeat is then formulated as a hidden Markov model in which hidden states are the beat-times and their associated beat-position-in-measure. The concept of beat-position-in-measure and the use of it to derive the downbeat is inspired by the authors previous works [32], [34]. The use of a probabilistic formulation has some links with the Bayesian framework of Cemgil [11] and Hainsworth [12] but the formulation is here very different and used to perform simultaneous beat and downbeat-tracking. The formulation of hidden-states as beat-times can be linked with Laroche [33] and Ellis [14] dynamic programming approaches, especially concerning the decoding algorithm. However, in the present work, we provide a probabilistic formulation using a hidden Markov model which allows the extension of the hidden states to the down-beat estimation problem. It should be noted that our use of hidden Markov model is not related to the way Klapuri [7] uses it. In [7], two independent hidden Markov models, which hidden states represent phase evaluation, are used to track separately beat and downbeat phase.

In our system two observation probabilities are used to compute the beat-position-in-measure. They are coming from the analysis of chroma vectors variation over time and spectral balance (representing typical pop/ rock rhythm patterns through the time evolution of the spectral distribution). These can be linked to the works of Goto [3], [4] or Klapuri [7]. However, in our case we do not explicitly estimate chords or kick/ snare events. We only model the consequences on the signal of their presence (chroma variation and spectral distribution). Also we do not create a downbeat observation model but a beat-position-in-measure model. Also this model is based on past and future signal observations of the local measure the beat is located in. This provides us with an inherent local normalization of the probabilities, or in other words to a local adaptation of the sensitivity.

II. PROBABILISTIC FRAMEWORK

A. Introduction

We define the ‘‘beat position inside a measure’’ (bpim) [32] as the position of a beat relative to the downbeat position of the measure it is located in (β_j with $j \in [1, B]$ where B is the number of beats in a measure: β_1 denotes the downbeat, β_2 the second beat of the measure ...). We will use the estimation of the β_j associated to each beat to derive the downbeats (β_1).

We define $\{\beta\}$ as the set of times being a beat position. We define $\{\beta_j\}$ as the set of times being in a β_j , with $j \in [1, B]$. B can have a fixed value in case of constant meter, or takes the maximum number of allowed beats in a measure in case of variable meters. Of course $\{\beta_j\}$ is a sub-set of $\{\beta\}$ since the bpim are by definition beats. Beat-tracking is the problem of finding the $t \in \{\beta\}$, downbeat-tracking is the problem of finding the $t \in \{\beta_1\}$. In this work, we solve the problem of finding the $t \in \{\beta_j\} \forall j$.

Without any prior assumption, any time t of a music track can be considered as a $t \in \{\beta_j\}$. We therefore defines a set of hidden states corresponding to each time t of a music track in each possible β_j . For a given track, the number of hidden states is fixed and depends on the track length (through the quantization of the times axis) and B . We note t_i the values of the discretization of the time-axis of a music track: $t_i = iQ$ $i \in \mathbb{N} \cup [0, \lfloor \frac{T}{Q} \rfloor]$ where Q is the discretization step (we use here $Q = 0.05\text{ms}$) and T is the total length of the music track.

We note s_i the hidden states defined by $t_i \in \{\beta\}$ and $s_{i,j}$ the ones defined by $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$. Our goal is to decode the path through the $s_{i,j}$ that best explains our signal observation $\underline{o}(t)$. For this we consider the observation probabilities:

$$\begin{aligned} p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}(t)) &= p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta\} | \underline{o}(t)) \cdot p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}(t)) \\ p_{obs}(s_{i,j} | \underline{o}(t)) &= p_{obs}(s_i | \underline{o}(t)) \cdot p_{obs}(s_{i,j} | \underline{o}(t)) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Typically, the goal of $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta\} | \underline{o}(t))$ is to estimate precisely the position of the beat. In the opposite, $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}(t))$ uses information surrounding t_i to analyze its local musical context and estimate its bpim role. Because of the use of surrounding information, it’s temporal accuracy is lower than the one of $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta\} | \underline{o}(t))$. We therefore require $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta\} | \underline{o}(t))$ to be highly discriminative in terms of beat and non-beat information. We also consider the transition probabilities

$$\begin{aligned} p_{trans}(t_{i'} \in \{\beta_{j'}\} | t_i \in \{\beta_j\}) &= p_{trans}(t_{i'} \in \{\beta\} | t_i \in \{\beta\}) \cdot \\ & p_{trans}(t_{i'} \in \{\beta_{j'}\} | t_i \in \{\beta_j\}) \\ p_{trans}(s_{i',j'} | s_{i,j}) &= p_{trans}(s_{i'} | s_i) \cdot p_{trans}(s_{j'} | s_j) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

In the transition probabilities, we will use the fact that if $t_i \in \{\beta\}$ than the next $t_{i'} \in \{\beta\}$ must be separated by a local tempo period. We will also use the fact that if $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$ than the next $t_{i'} \in \{\beta\}$ must be in $\beta_{j+1 \bmod B}$ (i.e. following the succession of bpim implied by the local musical meter).

B. Hidden Markov model

We consider the usual hidden Markov model formulation [35], which models the probability to observe the hidden states s given the observation $\underline{o}(t)$ over time t . This model is defined by - the definition of the hidden states s , - the initial probability $p_{init}(s)$, - the emission probability $p_{obs}(\underline{o}|s)$, - the transition probability $p_{trans}(s'|s)$. The best path through the hidden states s given the observations $\underline{o}(t)$ over time is found using the Viterbi decoding algorithm.

In our formulation, the hidden states $s_{i,j}$ are defined as $t_i \in \beta_j$, i.e. “time t_i is a beat and is in a specific β_j ”. It should be noted that the time is therefore part of the hidden state definition. This is done in order to be able to apply the periodicity constraint² in the transition probabilities. The probabilities are defined as follows:

- the initial probability $p_{init}(s_{i,j}) = p_{init}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\})$ represents the initial probability to be in hidden state [time t_i is a beat and is in a specific bpm β_j]. While in usual Viterbi decoding, “initial” refers to the time t_0 (since the usual decoding operates over time); in our case “initial” refers only to the beginning of the decoding without explicit reference to a time.
- the emission probability $p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t)|s_{i,j}) = p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t)|t_i \in \{\beta_j\})$ represents the probability to observe $\underline{o}(t)$ given that [time t_i is a beat and is in a specific bpm β_j]. Note that in this formulation the hidden states $s_{i,j}$ have a non-null emission probability only when $t = t_i$ in $\underline{o}(t)$ (this is because we cannot emit $\underline{o}(t)$ when $t_i \neq t$).
- the transition probability $p_{trans}(s_{i',j'}|s_{i,j}) = p_{trans}(t_{i'} \in \{\beta_{j'}\}|t_i \in \{\beta_j\})$ represents the probability to transit from [time t_i is a beat and is in a specific β_j] to [time $t_{i'}$ is a beat and is in a specific $\beta_{j'}$]. Because we only allow transitions to increasing times t_i , our model is a Left-Right hidden Markov model.

C. Decoding: “reverse” Viterbi algorithm

Because of the introduction of the times t_i in the hidden state definition, the Viterbi decoding is performed over a variable named “beat-numbers” (instead of over time) and noted $bn_k \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore, we somehow reverse the axis of the Viterbi algorithm since we decode times (the hidden states $s_{i,j} = t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$) over the “beat-numbers” bn_k . We compare the usual Viterbi formulation to the reverse Viterbi formulation in Figure 1 in which we omit the j index for clarity.

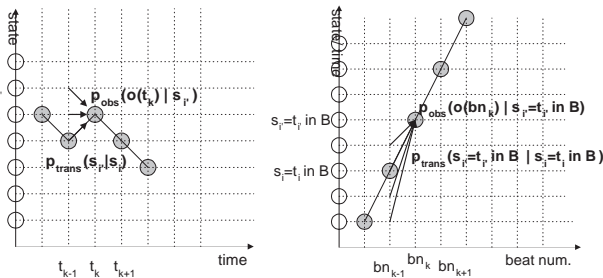


Fig. 1. [Left:] Usual Viterbi decoding: gramwe decode the state s_i over time t_k given a) the probability to observe $\underline{o}(t)$ at time t_k given a state $s_{i'}$: $p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t_k)|s_{i'})$, b) the probability to transit from state s_i to state $s_{i'}$: $p_{trans}(s_{i'}|s_i)$. [Right:] Reverse Viterbi decoding: we decode the states s_i (or $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$) over beat-number bn_k given a) the probability to observe $\underline{o}(t)$ at beat number bn_k given a state $s_{i'}$ (or $t_{i'} \in \{\beta_j\}$): $p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t)|s_{i'} = t_{i'} \in \{\beta_j\})$, b) the probability to transit from state s_i (or time $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$) to state $s_{i'}$ (or time $t_{i'} \in \{\beta_j\}$): $p_{trans}(s_{i'} = t_{i'} \in \{\beta_j\}|s_i = t_i \in \{\beta_j\})$.

In the following, we explain the Forward and specific Backward algorithm we use.

²The periodicity constraint represents the fact that the times t_i associated to two successive beats must be separated by a local tempo period T_b .

1) *Forward*: We first remark that the emission probability $p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t)|s_{i,j})$ does not vary over the decoding axis. This is because the decoding operates over the succession of beat number bn_k (and not over the time) over which $p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t)|s_{i,j})$ remains constant. Because of that, the same $p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t)|s_{i,j})$ is used over the whole decoding (initialization and forward). The Forward algorithm is actually mainly governed by the transition probabilities.

- **Initialization**: We initialize the decoding using $\delta_0(s_{i,j}) = p_{init}(s_{i,j}) \cdot p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t)|s_{i,j})$, i.e. estimating the most-likely $s_{i,j}$ ($t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$) at beat number bn_0 (beginning of the track) given their observation probabilities.
- **Forward**: We go on by computing $\delta_k(s_{i',j'}) = p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t)|s_{i',j'}) \max_{i,j} [p_{trans}(s_{i',j'}|s_{i,j}) \cdot \delta_{k-1}(s_{i,j})]$.
- **Ending**: We note τ_k the value of the time t_i associated to the most-likely ending state $s_{i,j}$ for a forward path going until step bn_k . We stop the forward algorithm when τ_k reaches the end of the music track.

2) *Backward*: In the usual Viterbi algorithm, the final path is found by using the backward algorithm starting from the most-likely ending state. However, in our reverse Viterbi decoding formulation, the last decoded hidden states (which correspond to the last bn_k which is chosen such as with τ_k close to the end of the music track) can correspond to a time τ_k in a silent part (the end of the files can be a silence period) which is not a beat. In other words, we do not know which the best ending state is since we do not know which the last bn_k is. We therefore modified the backward algorithm as follows³.

Modified backward algorithm: Instead of computing a single backward path, we compute all the backward paths for all the bn_k with τ_k close to the end of the track. Since these various paths can have different (but close) lengths, we normalize the log-likelihood of each path by its length before comparing them. We finally choose the path which has the highest normalized log-likelihood.

3) *Result*: The decoding attributes to each beat number bn_k the best hidden state $s_{i,j}$ considering the observation $\underline{o}(t)$. It therefore provides us simultaneously the best times t_i for the beat locations and their associated β_j , among which β_1 represent the downbeat locations. In Figure 2, we illustrate the results of this decoding algorithm on a real signal.

III. INITIAL PROBABILITY

The initial probability $p_{init}(s_{i,j}) = p_{init}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\})$ represent the probability to be in hidden state [time t_i is a beat and is in a specific β_j] at the beginning of the decoding. We do not favor any β_j in particular, but we favor t_i to be a time close to the beginning of the track. $p_{init}(s_{i,j})$ is modeled as a Gaussian function with $\mu = 0, \sigma = 0.5$ evaluated on the t_i of all the states.

IV. EMISSION PROBABILITIES

The emission probability $p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t)|s_{i,j}) = p_{obs}(\underline{o}(t)|t_i \in \{\beta_j\})$ represents the probability to observe $\underline{o}(t)$ given [time

³It should be noted that in [14], Ellis also faced this problem in its Dynamic Programming approach and proposed a different solution to this problem.

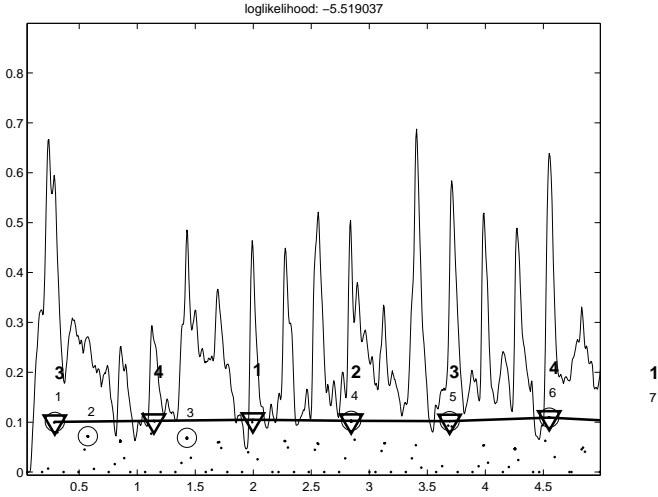


Fig. 2. Viterbi decoding and backtracking: onset-energy-function (continuous thin line), states $s_{i,j}$ and associated observation probability (dots), maximum observation probability of each bn_k (O sign), best path (continuous thick line and \triangle sign), bn_k (normal number), β (bold number). Signal="Aerosmith - Cryin".

t_i is a beat and is in a specific β_j . As explained above, this probability has a non-null emission probability only when $t = t_i$. This probability is computed using⁴:

$$p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}(t)) = p_{obs}(t = t_i) \cdot p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_1(t)) \cdot p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_2(t), \underline{o}_3(t)) \quad (3)$$

In this, we have subdivided $\underline{o}(t)$ as three observation vectors $\underline{o}_1(t)$, $\underline{o}_2(t)$ and $\underline{o}_3(t)$. We now explain the two terms in parts IV-A and IV-B.

A. Beat observation probabilities $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_1(t))$

$p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_1(t))$ represents the probability to observe [time t_i is a beat] given the observation \underline{o}_1 at time t . As explained above, t must be equal to t_i . We therefore use the t_i notation in the following. As in many works, this probability is estimated by computing the correlation between - a beat-template $g(t)$ chosen to correspond to the local tempo $Tb(t_i)$ and - the local onset-energy function starting at time t_i . The beat-template $g(t)$ can be a simple function with values of 1 at the expected beat-position and 0 otherwise (as used in [33]). In [31], we have proposed the use of machine learning to find the beat-template that maximizes the discrimination between the correlation values obtained when $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$ and when $t_i \notin \{\beta_j\}$. We summarize it here using our framework notations and refer the reader to [31] for details and evaluation of it.

1) *Learning the best beat-template by Linear Discriminant Analysis:* We note $f_i(t) = f(t, t \in [t_i, t_i + 4Tb])$ the values of the local onset-energy function starting at time t_i . The beat-template $g(t)$ must be chosen such as (a) to have the

⁴In order to split $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}(t))$ in two terms we use the assumption that \underline{o}_1 and $\underline{o}_2, \underline{o}_3$ are independent, and that \underline{o}_1 and $\underline{o}_2, \underline{o}_3$ are independent conditionally to $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$, i.e. knowing $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$, the knowledge of \underline{o}_1 does not bring information on $\underline{o}_2, \underline{o}_3$.

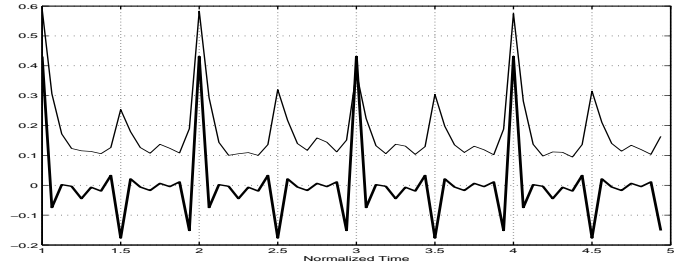


Fig. 3. Average value $F(n)$ for the RWC-Popular-Music test-set (thick line), LDA-trained beat-template $g(n)$ (thin line)

maximum correlation with $f_i(t)$ when $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$, (b) to provide the largest discrimination between the correlation values when $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$ and when $t_i \notin \{\beta_j\}$. The condition (b) is needed in our case since the values of correlation will be used as observation probabilities in our framework. In the following, we only discuss the case of a “binary subdivision of the beat” and “binary grouping of the beat into bar”. Extension to other meters is straightforward.

We note $g(1) \dots g(N)$ the discrete sequence of values of the beat-template $g(t)$ representing a one-bar duration. Considering a 4/4 meter, $g(1)$ represents the value of at the downbeat position, $g(1 + \frac{kN}{4})$ with $k \in [0, 1, 2, 3]$ the values at the beat positions. In the same way, we define $F_i(n)$ as the function obtained by sampling the local values of $f_i(t)$ by N value: $F_i(1) = f_i(t_i) \dots F_i(N) = f_i(t_i + 4Tb)$. If t_i is a beat-position, $F_i(1 + \frac{kN}{4})$ with $k \in [0, 1, 2, 3]$ represent the values at the beat positions.

The correlation between $g(n)$ and $F_i(n)$ can be written as (neglecting the normalization terms): $c_i(j) = \sum_{n=1}^N F_i(n + j)g(n)$

If we choose t_i as a beat-position, we therefore look for the beat-template (the values of $g(n), n \in [1, N]$) for which

- (a) $c_i(j)$ is maximum at $j \in [0, \frac{N}{4}, \frac{2N}{4}, \frac{3N}{4}]$
- (b) $c_i(j)$ is minimum for all the other values of j

The problem of finding the best values of $g(n)$ is close to the problem of finding the best weights to apply to the dimensions of multi-dimensional observations in order to maximize class separation. This problem can be solved using Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) [36]. In our case the weights are the $g(n)$, the dimensions of the observations are the successive values of $F_i(n)$ ⁵ and the two classes are “beat” and “non-beat”. We therefore apply a two-class Linear Discriminant Analysis to our problem.

Creating observations for the two-class LDA problem:

In order to apply the Linear Discriminant Analysis, we create observations for the two classes “beat” and “non-beat”. These observations are coming from a test-set annotated into beat and downbeat positions. We create for each track l of the test-set and for each annotated bar m of a track, the corresponding $F_{i,l,m}(n)$. We then compute the vector $F_{i,l}(n)$ by averaging the values of $F_{i,l,m}(n)$ over all bars of a track. By shifting (circular permutation is assumed in the following) $F_{i,l}(n)$,

⁵It should be noted that considering the values of $F_i(n)$ as points in a multi-dimensional features space has been also used in [37] in the framework of rhythm classification.

we create two sets of observations corresponding to the two classes “beat” and “non-beat”: - “beat” class: the four patterns $F_l^b(n) = F_{i,l}(n+j)$ with $j \in [0, \frac{N}{4}, \frac{2N}{4}, \frac{3N}{4}]$, - “non-beat” class: all the remaining patterns $F_l^{nb}(n) = F_{i,l}(n+j)$ with $j \in [1, N]$ $j \notin [0, \frac{N}{4}, \frac{2N}{4}, \frac{3N}{4}]$. We then apply Linear Discriminant Analysis considering the two set of observations $F_l^b(n)$ and $F_l^{nb}(n)$ and their associated classes “beat” and “non-beat”.

Linear Discriminant Analysis: We compute the matrix \underline{U} such that after transformation of the multi-dimensional observation by this matrix, the ratio of the Between-Class-Inertia and the Total-Inertia is maximized. If we note \underline{u} the column vectors of \underline{U} , this maximization leads to the condition $\underline{T}^{-1}\underline{B}\underline{u} = \lambda\underline{u}$, where \underline{T} is the Total-Inertia matrix and \underline{B} the Between-Class-Inertia matrix. The column vectors of \underline{U} are then given by the eigen vectors of the matrix $\underline{T}^{-1}\underline{B}$ associated to the eigen values λ . Since our problem is a two-classes problem, only one column remains in \underline{U} . This column gives us the weights to apply to $F(n)$ in order to obtain the best separation between the classes “beat” and “non-beat”. It therefore defines the best beat-template $g(n)$.

Result: In Figure 3, we illustrate this for the RWC-Popular-Music test-set [38]. The thin line represents the average (over the 100 tracks) vector $F(n)$, the thick line represents the values of $g(n)$ obtained by Linear Discriminant Analysis. As one can see, the LDA-trained beat-template assigns - large positive weights at the beat-positions (1, 2, 3, 4) and - negative weights at the counter-beat positions (1.5, 2.5, ...) and at the just-before/ just-after beat positions. The use of negative weights is a major difference with the weights used in usual beat-templates (as in [33]) which only use positive or zero weights. The specific locations of the negative weights allow reducing the common counter-beat detection errors (negative weights at the counter-beat positions) and the precision of the beat location (negative weights at the just-before/ just-after beat positions). This wouldn't be achieved by using a model where all the positions outside the main beats are set to a constant negative number.

Use of the LDA-trained beat-templates: In the beat-tracking process, the LDA-trained beat-templates $g(n)$ are used to create the beat-templates corresponding to the local tempo $Tb(t_i)$. For this, $g(n)$ is considered as representing the interval $[0, 4Tb(t_i)]$ and is interpolated to provide the values corresponding to the sampling rate of $f(t)$: 172 Hz. In order to save computation time, the values of $g_{Tb}(t)$ for all possible tempo Tb can be stored in a table.

For the evaluation of beat and downbeat-tracking algorithms of part VI-C, we will use a beat-template derived from an LDA-training on the “PopRock extract” test-set. It has then been manually modified to keep only the salient points. It is represented on the right part of Figure 4 in comparison with the “simple” (as used in [33]) beat-template in the left part.

2) *Optimization considerations:* As mentioned above, the hidden states are defined as $t \in \{\beta\}$. For this, the time axis of a music track is discretized into $t_i = iQ$ $i \in [0, \frac{T}{Q}]$ with $Q = 0.05ms$. Large values of Q allows decreasing the number of hidden states but however decrease the temporal-precision of the beat-tracking. Because of that, we reassign the time

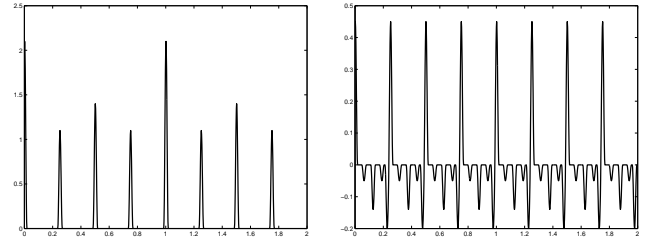


Fig. 4. Beat-templates used for the computation of the observation probability for a tempo of 120bpm (beat period of 0.5s) and a binary subdivision and grouping of the beat [LEFT]: Simple beat template (as used in [33]) [RIGHT]: LDA trained beat-template.

t_i of the state $s_{i,j}$ to the position around t_i which leads to the maximum correlation between the local signal $f(t, t \in [t_i, t_i + 4Tb])$ and the beat-template $g(t)$. The horizon over which the maximum correlation is searched for is proportional to the local tempo $Tb(t_i)$ and defined by $L = Tb(t_i)/32$.

B. BPIM observation probabilities $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_2, \underline{o}_3(t))$

$p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_2(t), \underline{o}_3(t))$ represents the probability to observe [time t_i is a β_j] given the observation $\underline{o}_2, \underline{o}_3$ at time t . Any probability derived from signal observations (such as based on harmonic, spectral or loudness/ silence variation) that allows distinguishing between the various β_j can be used for it. We use here two assumptions to derive the “bpim probability”. Each assumption is coupled with a characteristic which is coupled with a signal observation. The first one is based on the chord-change / harmonic-variation / chroma-vector-variation triplet. The second one is based on the rhythm-pattern / low-high-frequency alternance / spectral-distribution triplet. This probability is computed using⁶:

$$p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_2(t_i), \underline{o}_3(t_i)) = p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_2(t_i)) \cdot p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_3(t_i)) \quad (4)$$

In this,

- $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_2(t_i))$ is the probability to observe [time t_i is a β_j] given the observation of chroma vectors variation.
- $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_3(t_i))$ is the probability to observe [time t_i is a β_j] given the observation of spectral distribution.

1) *BPIM probability based on chroma variation:* The assumption we use is that chords are more likely to change between β_4 and β_1 for a 4/4 meter. [4] or [32] also used this assumption for downbeat estimation. We use it here to derive the probability of all β_j at all times t_i . The characteristics implied by this assumption is that, if t_i is a β_1 , the harmonic content on its left and on its right should be different. The observation we use to highlight this, is the variation of chroma vectors over time. A large variation indicates a potential change in harmony at time t_i hence a higher probability to

⁶In order to split $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | \underline{o}_2 \underline{o}_3)$ in two terms we use the assumption that \underline{o}_2 and \underline{o}_3 are independent, and that \underline{o}_2 and \underline{o}_3 are independent conditionally to $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$, i.e. knowing $t_i \in \{\beta_j\}$, the knowledge of \underline{o}_3 does not bring information on \underline{o}_2 .

observe a downbeat at t_i hence a β_1 . The probabilities for the other $\beta_{j=2,3,4}$ are derived in the same way.

Chroma vector computation: The chroma vectors (or Pitch-Class-Profile vectors) [39] are computed as in [40], i.e. the Short Time Fourier Transform is first computed with a Blackman analysis window of length 0.1856ms and a hop size of 0.0309ms. Each bin is then converted to a note-scale. Median-filtering is applied to each note-band in order to reduce transients and noise. Note-bands are then grouped into 12-dimensions vectors. We note $C(l, t)$ the values of the $l \in [1, 12]$ dimension of the chroma vector at time t .

Chroma vector variation: We compare the values taken by $C(l, t)$ on the left of t_i and on its right using two temporal window of duration α . We note $L_{i,1} = [t_i - \alpha Tb, t_i]$ the left window and $R_{i,1} = [t_i, t_i + \alpha Tb]$ the right window. α is expressed as a multiple of the local beat duration. In the experiment of part VI, we will compare the results obtained with $\alpha = 2$ (assumption that chords change twice per measure) and $\alpha = 4$ (once per measure).

Sliding-window method: In the same way, we compute $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | o_2(t_i))$ (the probability that t_i is the j th bpm), using the assumption that the harmonic content should be different on the left of $t_i - (j-1)Tb$ and on its right. This is illustrated in the left part of Figure 5 for the case of a 4/4 meter ($j = 1, 2, 3, 4$). The computation of $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | o_2(t_i))$ is therefore obtained by comparing $C(l, t)$ on the intervals $L_{i,j}$ and $R_{i,j}$ defined by

- $L_{i,j} = [t_i - (\alpha + (j-1))Tb, t_i - (j-1)Tb]$,
- $R_{i,j} = [t_i - (j-1)Tb, t_i + (\alpha - (j-1))Tb]$.

We name this method ‘‘sliding-window method’’ since we slide the analyzed signal according to our β_j assumption.

Distance measures: We study two measures for the computation of the chroma vectors variation. The first measure is the symmetrized Mahalanobis distance: $d(L_{i,j}, R_{i,j}) = \frac{1}{2}((\mu_2 - \mu_1)^T \Sigma_1^{-1} (\mu_2 - \mu_1) + (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2))$ where μ_1 and μ_2 (Σ_1 and Σ_2) are the 12-dim mean vectors (12x12dim diagonal covariance matrixes) of the values of $C(l, t \in L_{i,j})$ and $C(l, t \in R_{i,j})$ respectively. The second measure is a simple ‘‘1-cosine’’ distance using the vectors $\underline{\mu}_1$ and $\underline{\mu}_2$ (it has value of 1 when $\underline{\mu}_1$ and $\underline{\mu}_2$ are in orthogonal directions): $d(L_{i,j}, R_{i,j}) = 1 - \frac{\underline{\mu}_1 \cdot \underline{\mu}_2}{\|\underline{\mu}_1\| \|\underline{\mu}_2\|}$. In the experiment of part VI, we will compare both distances.

BPIM probabilities: Both distances have large values when $L_{i,j}$ and $R_{i,j}$ have different harmonic content which indicates a potential downbeat. We therefore use the distances $d(L_{i,j}, R_{i,j})$ has probabilities. For this the probabilities are normalized:

$$p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | o_2(t_i)) = \frac{1}{\sum_j d(L_{i,j}, R_{i,j})} d(L_{i,j}, R_{i,j}) \quad (5)$$

In Figure 6, we illustrate the computation of $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | o_2(t_i))$ on a real signal using $\alpha = 2$ and a ‘‘1-cosine’’ distance.

2) **BPIM probability based on spectral distribution:** The *assumption* we use is that many music tracks in popular music (pop, rock, electro) use rhythm patterns alternating the presence of kick on $\beta_{1,3}$ and snare on $\beta_{2,4}$. [3] or [7]

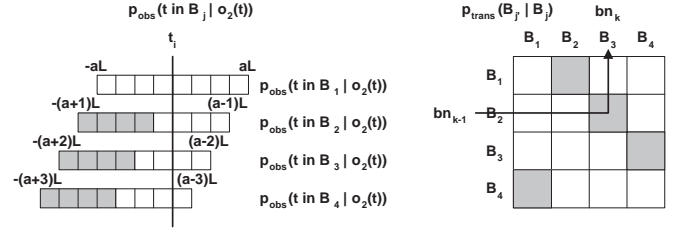


Fig. 5. [LEFT] Computation of observation probabilities for the bpm from chromagram observation. [RIGHT] Transition probabilities between bpm.

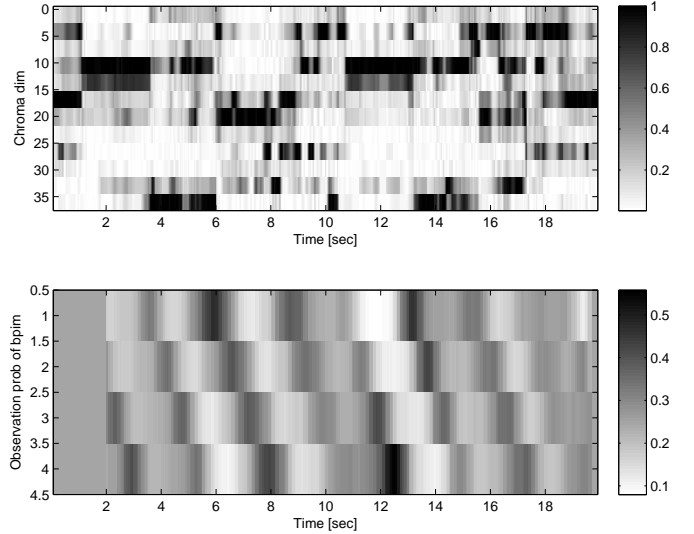


Fig. 6. [TOP] 12-dim chromagram over time, [BOTTOM] $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | o_2(t_i))$ for $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$, on signal= ‘‘All Saints - Pure Shores’’ from test-set ‘‘PopRock extract’’.

also used this assumption. The *characteristics* implied by this assumption is that the spectral energy distribution will concentrate on lower frequencies for $\beta_{1,3}$ than for $\beta_{2,4}$. The *observation* we use to highlight this, is the relative spectral balance between high and low energy content.

Spectral balance computation: At each time t_i , we compute the ratio of the high frequency to the low frequency energy content. For this we use a window centered on t_i of length L and a cutting frequency $kmax$:

$$r(t_i) = \frac{\sum_{t=t_i-L/2}^{t_i+L/2} \sum_{k=kmax}^{N/2} |S(\omega_k, t)|^2}{\sum_{t=t_i-L/2}^{t_i+L/2} \sum_{k=1}^{kmax} |S(\omega_k, t)|^2} \quad (6)$$

where N is the number of bins of the Short Time Fourier Transform. L was chosen experimentally to $Tb/2$ and $kmax$ to correspond to 150Hz.

Example: Using the ‘‘PopRock extract’’ test-set annotated into beat and downbeat, we have measured the values of $r(t_i)$ for $t_i \in \{\beta_{j=1,2,3,4}\}$. For 135 over the 156 titles of this test-set, $r(t_i)$ is larger for the β_2/β_4 than for the β_1/β_3 . We therefore use it to create a probability to observe $\beta = 1, 3$ or $\beta = 2, 4$.

BPIM probability: As for the chroma-variation-measure, we use a sliding-window method to derive $r(t_i)$ for all β_j . At each time t_i , we compute the four values:

$$r_j(t_i) = r(t_i - (j-1)Tb) \quad (7)$$

r_j is then normalized over the j to sum unit. If $t_i \in \beta_1$, the following sequence of r_j will be observed [r_1 =low, r_2 =high, r_3 =low, r_4 =high]. Since we would like the probability to have high values for β_1 , low values for β_2, \dots we take the negative of $r_j(t_i)$ as probability:

$$p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | o_3(t_i)) = 1 - r_j(t_i) \quad (8)$$

In Figure 7, we illustrate the computation of $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | o_3(t_i))$ on a real signal. The left parts of each figure represent the spectrogram of the signal and super-imposed to it the four regions used for the computation: $t_i + [-\frac{L}{2}, \frac{L}{2}]$, $t_i - Tb + [-\frac{L}{2}, \frac{L}{2}]$, $t_i - 2Tb + [-\frac{L}{2}, \frac{L}{2}]$ and $t_i - 3Tb + [-\frac{L}{2}, \frac{L}{2}]$. We also indicate the cutting frequency of 150Hz. The right part of each figure indicates the four values of $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | o_3(t_i))$ at the given position. The upper figure represents the values obtained when t_i is a β_1 , the lower one a β_2 .

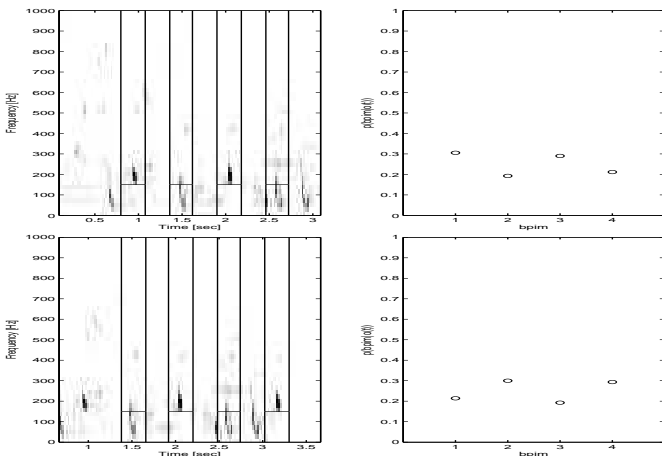


Fig. 7. [TOP] Spectrogram and $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | o_3(t_i))$ for $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$ for t_i on a β_1 , [BOTTOM] Spectrogram and $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\} | o_3(t_i))$ for $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$ for t_i on a β_2 on signal= “Aerosmith - Walk This Way” from test-set “PopRock extract”.

V. TRANSITION PROBABILITIES

The transition probability $p_{trans}(t_{i'} \in \{\beta_{j'}\} | t_i \in \{\beta_j\})$ represents the probability to transit from [time t_i is a beat and is in a specific β_j] to [time $t_{i'}$ is a beat and is in a specific $\beta_{j'}$]. We compute it using:

$$p_{trans}(t_{i'} \in \{\beta_{j'}\} | t_i \in \{\beta_j\}) = p_{trans}(t_{i'} \in \{\beta\} | t_i \in \{\beta\}) \cdot p_{trans}(t_{i'} \in \{\beta_{j'}\} | t_i \in \{\beta_j\}) \quad (9)$$

We also add the condition that only transition to increasing times t_i (increasing states $s_{i,j}$) are allowed. This makes our model a Left-Right HMM.

A. Beat transition probabilities

$p_{trans}(t_{i'} \in \{\beta\} | t_i \in \{\beta\})$ represents the fact that the successive times t_i associated to the beats must have an inter-distance close to the local tempo period $Tb(t_i)$. The transition probability models the tolerated departure from this period. We have used a Gaussian function with $\mu = Tb(t_i)$, $\sigma = 0.05s$ evaluated at $\Delta = t_{i'} - t_i$.

B. BPIM transition probabilities

$p_{trans}(t_{i'} \in \{\beta_{j'}\} | t_i \in \{\beta_j\})$ represents the probability to transit from a beat in β_j to a beat in $\beta_{j'}$. This transition probability constrains the β_j to follow the circular permutation specific to the considered musical meter: $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow \dots$ for a 4/4 meter; $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1 \dots$ for a 3/4 meter. As proposed in [34], a generic formulation of the transition matrix allowing potential meter changes between 4/4 and 3/4 meters over time can be written as

$$M_{trans}(bn_{k-1}, bn_k) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \alpha & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 - \alpha & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (10)$$

where bn_k is the beat-number used for the decoding axis and $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ is a coefficient favoring meter changes ($\alpha > 0$) or constant-4/4-meter-over-time ($\alpha = 0$). In the experiments done so far, we have obtained better results using $\alpha = 0$ (constant-4/4-meter-over-time). In the experiment of part VI, we will therefore only consider the case $\alpha = 0$ (constant-4/4-meter-over-time). The corresponding matrix is illustrated in the right part of Figure 5.

VI. EVALUATION

In this part, we evaluate the performance of the proposed algorithm for beat and downbeat-tracking using various configurations. We compare them to the results obtained with our previous systems and to the results obtained to state-of-the-art results. It should be noted that the evaluation performed here only concerns the quality of beat and downbeat-tracking algorithms. However, because the input of our system are the time-variable tempo and meter estimations coming from the algorithm of [29], the results obtained also depend on the quality of the estimation of those.

A. Evaluation rules

Over the years, a large number of measures have been proposed to estimate the performances of beat-tracking algorithms: F-measure of Dixon [5], Gaussian error function of Cemgil [41], set of boolean decisions of Goto [42], perceptual P-score of McKinney [43], continuity based measures CMLc, CMLt, AMLc, AMLt of Goto [42], Hainsworth [44] and Klapuri [7], information based criteria based of Davies [19]. We refer the reader to [19] or to the set of rules used for the MIREX-09 “Audio Beat Tracking” contest [22] for a good and detailed overview of those.

In this evaluation, we indicate the results using two criteria⁷. The first is the F-measure for a relative-tempo-length Precision Window of 0.1. We use it for beat and downbeat evaluation when comparing the performances of the various configurations of our system. The second is the set of CMLc, CMLt, AMLc and AMLt criteria. We use them in order to be

⁷The results of the experiments using the other criteria (using Dixon, Cemgil, Goto, McKinney ...criteria) can be found at the following URL <http://recherche.ircam.fr/equipes/analyse-synthese/peeters/pub/IEEEbeatdownbeat/>.

able to compare our results to the ones published in previous works on the same test-sets.

F-measure at a relative-tempo-length Precision Window of 0.1: Considering a given beat/ downbeat marker annotation and a given track, we note - A: the number of annotated beats (downbeats), - D: the number of detected ones and - CD(PW): the number of correctly detected ones within a given Precision Window (PW). From this we derive the following measures:

- $Recall(PW) = \frac{CD(PW)}{A}$,
- $Precision(PW) = \frac{CD(PW)}{D}$,
- $FMeasure(PW) = \frac{2R(PW) \cdot P(PW)}{R(PW) + P(PW)}$.

Note that the Precision Window is centered on the annotated beat (downbeats) for the Recall and on the estimated beat for the Precision.

Octave errors: Using this measure, we do not consider octave errors as correct⁸. For a correct beat marking but at twice (three time) the tempo, the Recall will be 1 but the Precision 0.5 (0.33). for a correct beat marking at half (one third of) the tempo, the Precision will be 1 but the Recall 0.5 (0.33).

Adaptive Precision Window: In our evaluation the Precision Window is defined as a percentage of the local annotated beat length T_b . This is done in order to avoid drawing misleading conclusions from the results⁹. $PW=\alpha$ means that the estimated beat should be at a maximum distance of $\pm\alpha T_b$ the annotated beat. For a given track, we consider the minimum value of $T_b(t_i)$ over time (the fastest annotated tempo). The values given in the following correspond to the average (over all tracks of a test-set) of the F-measure($PW=0.1$).

Statistical hypothesis tests: Considering that the values given in the evaluation are only estimates of the average F-measure, we also perform statistical tests (pair wise Student T-tests) in order to infer the statistical significances of the difference of values. We use a 10% significance level¹⁰.

CMLc, CMLt, AMLc and AMLt: When comparing our results to previously published results we will use the following measures: - CMLc (Correct Metrical Level with continuity required), - CMLt (same but no continuity required), - AMLc (All Metrical Level with continuity required) and - AMLt (same but no continuity required). We refer the reader to [42] [44] and [7] for more details. For the implementation of CMLc, CMLt, AMLc and AMLt we have used the implementation kindly provided by M. Davies¹¹. These measures correspond to the ‘‘Correct’’ and ‘‘Accept d/h’’ criteria and the ‘‘Continuity required’’ and ‘‘Individual estimate’’ categories

⁸This is because the usual halving or doubling of the tempo is actually only correct for a binary simple meter. For most test-sets we do not have information about the grouping/subdivision of the beats/ tactus (by two or three). Moreover, in the case of beat-tracking, - doubling the tempo will require to check that the detected markers correspond to all the tatum (and not only the counter-beat ones), - halving the tempo will require to check that the detected markers corresponds to the dominant beats (downbeats) in the measure.

⁹Indeed a fixed PW of 0.166s would be restrictive for slow tempi (half-beat duration of 0.5 at 60bpm) but will mean accepting counter-beat as correct for fast tempi (half-beat duration of 0.166s at 180bpm).

¹⁰The choice of 10%, instead of the usual 5%, has been made to better emphasize the differences between algorithms.

¹¹The evalbeat toolbox is accessible at <http://www.elec.qmul.ac.uk/digitalmusic/downloads/beateval/beateval.zip>

used in [7]. A precision window of 17.5% as in [7] is used for both estimated marker position and estimated tempo.

B. Test-sets

For the evaluation, we have used six test-sets.

T-PR: The ‘‘PopRock extract’’ is a collection of 155 major top-ten hits of the past decades. Only 20s extract of the tracks are considered. The annotations into beat and downbeat have been made by one of the authors.

T-RWC-P: The ‘‘RWC Popular Music’’ [45] is a collection of 100 tracks in full-duration of Pop-rock-ballad-heavy-metal popular music.

T-RWC-J: The ‘‘RWC Jazz Music’’ [45] is a collection of 50 tracks in full-duration of Jazz-music with solo piano, guitar, small ensemble or modern-jazz orchestra. The difficulty of this test-set comes from the complexity of the rhythms used in Jazz-music.

T-RWC-C: The ‘‘RWC Classical Music’’ [45] is a collection of 59 tracks in full-duration of Classical-music. The difficulty of this test-set comes from the tempo variations used in Classical-music. The annotations of the three RWC test-sets are provided by the AIST [46].

T-KLA: ‘‘Klapuri’’ test-set is the one used in [7]. It contains 505 tracks of a wide range of music genre (pop, metal, electro, classical). 474 of them are annotated in beat positions for an excerpt in the middle of the track. Because only beat-phase annotations are provided we do not evaluate downbeat-tracking here.

T-HAI: ‘‘Hainsworth’’ test-set is the one used in [12], [8] and [47]. It contains 222 tracks, each around 60s length from a large variety of music genres and with time-variable tempo. Because only beat-phase annotations are provided we do not evaluate downbeat-tracking here. It should be noted that only the values of Davies ‘‘Detection Function’’ DF are provided (not the audio signal). The DF function has a sampling rate of 86.2Hz (step of 11.6ms). Therefore we have modified our system in order to use the DF function instead of our reassigned-spectral-energy-flux (RSEF) function. This concerns both our tempo/ meter estimation and beat-tracking algorithms. We therefore test the generalization of the LDA-trained beat-templates when applied to other functions than the one (the RSEF function) used for training.

The T-PR, and the RWC test-sets have been used since they are annotated in beat and downbeat positions. The three RWC test-sets are also available to the research community for comparison. The T-KLA and T-HAI¹² have been used in order to provide a comparison with state-of-the-art published results. We also present the results obtained during the MIREX-09 evaluation which use other test-sets.

C. Beat and Downbeat-tracking results and discussion

In this part, we evaluate the performances of various configurations of our beat and downbeat-tracking algorithm. Table I indicates the results in terms of F-measure with a Precision

¹²We are grateful to A. Klapuri, St. Hainsworth and M. Davies to have let us access these test-sets for the present evaluation

Window of 0.1 for T-PR, T-RWC-P, T-RWC-J and T-RWC-C using the following configurations:

- “P-sola” are the results obtained with the P-sola beat-tracking algorithm [31] (no downbeat estimation is available for this algorithm).
- “Viterbi” refers to the model proposed in this paper.
- “Viterbi no-DB” refer to the reduced model without estimating the downbeat and β_j (we only use $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta\}|_{o_1})$)
- “Viterbi DB” refer to the full model including downbeat estimation (we use $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\}|_{o_1, o_2, o_3})$)
- “Simple/ LDA” refers to the use of the corresponding beat-template in the computation of $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta\}|_{o_1})$.
- “ $\alpha = 4 / \alpha = 2$ ” refers to the duration of the window used for the computation of $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\}|_{o_2}(t))$.
- “COS/ MAH” refers to the use of the “1-cosine” or “Mahalanobis” distance for the computation of $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\}|_{o_2}(t))$.
- “CHRO” refers to the use of observation probability based on chroma variation ($p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\}|_{o_2})$)
- “SPEC” refers to the use of observation probability based on spectral distribution ($p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\}|_{o_3})$). Note that we do not provide the results using “SPEC” alone since the use of $p_{obs}(t_i \in \{\beta_j\}|_{o_3})$ alone did not lead to good results.
- “Chord Detection” refers to the results obtained using the downbeat estimation obtained using the chord estimation algorithm of [32]. In this case, the input of the system is the best beat estimation (“Viterbi no-DB LDA”).

As mentioned in part IV-A1 the LDA-trained beat-template used in all the experiments here is a beat-template manually derived from an LDA-training on T-PR (see Figure 4). It should be noted also that when using the Viterbi algorithm, both beat and downbeat estimation are obtained at the same time.

	Pop/Rock		RWC Popular		RWC Jazz		RWC Classical	
	beat	downbeat	beat	downbeat	beat	downbeat	beat	downbeat
P-sola	0,87		0,72		0,47		0,41	
Viterbi no-DB Simple	0,91		0,84		0,57		0,4	
Viterbi no-DB LDA	0,93		0,84		0,57		0,42	
Viterbi DB LDA a=2 COS CHRO	0,93	0,68	0,84	0,76	0,56	0,46	0,42	0,35
Viterbi DB LDA a=4 COS CHRO	0,93	0,53	0,84	0,78	0,56	0,4	0,39	0,23
Viterbi DB LDA a=2 MAH CHRO	0,91	0,44	0,82	0,49	0,52	0,31	0,39	0,23
Viterbi DB LDA a=2 COS CHRO/SPEC	0,93	0,74	0,84	0,8	0,55	0,47	0,41	0,34
Chord detection		0,64		0,81		0,44		0,32

TABLE I

Beat and Downbeat estimation results for T-PR, T-RWC-P, T-RWC-J and T-RWC-C.

P-sola against Viterbi: We first compare the P-sola to the Viterbi beat-tracking algorithm. For this we use the baseline Viterbi algorithm, i.e. using the “Simple” beat-template.

Results shows a large improvement of the F-measure(PW=0.1) for all test-sets except for T-RWC-C. This difference is statistically significant for T-PR, T-RWC-P and T-RWC-J.

Choice of the beat-template (LDA or Simple): We then compare the use of a “Simple” (as used in [33]) to the LDA-trained beat-template. The use of the LDA-trained beat-template leads to a small improvement of beat-tracking results for 2 over 4 test-sets: from FMeas=0.91 to 0.93 for T-PR, 0.4 to 0.42 for T-RWC-C. Remark that the largest improvement is obtained on T-PR which is the test-set used to train the LDA-trained beat template. There is however no statistical significance for these 2 test-sets. We will show in the following that for T-KLA and T-HAI (which are larger test-sets), there is a statistically significant difference between the “Simple” and LDA-trained beat-templates.

We now evaluate the results of downbeat-tracking.

Best parameters for BPIM probability based on chroma variation: For 3 over 4 test-sets, the use of a window duration of $\alpha = 2$ (making the assumption that chords change twice per measure) leads to better results than $\alpha = 4$ (chords change once per measure): FMeas=0.68 and 0.53 for T-PR, 0.76 and 0.78 for T-RWC-P, 0.46 and 0.40 for T-RWC-J, 0.35 and 0.23 for T-RWC-C. This difference is statistically significant for T-PR and T-RWC-C.

For all test-sets, the use of the “1-cosine” distance leads to better results than the use of the symmetrized Mahalanobis distance: FMeas=0.68 and 0.44 for T-PR, 0.76 and 0.49 for T-RWC-P, 0.46 and 0.31 for T-RWC-J, 0.35 and 0.23 for T-RWC-C. This difference is statistically significant for the four test-sets. This result is surprising since the “1-cosine” distance does not take into account the inherent chroma variation inside $L_{i,j}$ and $R_{i,j}$. The bad results obtained with the Mahalanobis distance may be explained by the fact that $L_{i,j}$ and $R_{i,j}$ are too short to reliably estimate the covariance matrices.

Using simultaneously BPIM probability based on chroma variation and spectral balance: For 3 over 4 test-sets, the inclusion of the BPIM probability based on “spectral balance” allows to further increase the results: from FMeas=0.68 to 0.74 for T-PR, 0.76 to 0.8 for T-RWC-P, 0.46 to 0.47 for T-RWC-J, 0.35 to 0.34 for T-RWC-C. The increase is larger when the file duration is short (T-PR). This can be explained by the fact that BPIM probability based on chroma variation necessitates long duration observation which is not the case of BPIM probability based on spectral balance. Hence a large increase for short duration files. The increase also mainly occurs for files belonging to the Pop and Rock music genre. This can be explained by the fact that BPIM probability based on “spectral balance” makes the underlying assumption of a “kick/ snare/ kick/ snare” rhythm pattern, which does not exist in Jazz and Classical music. However there is no statistical significance for none of the test-set.

Downbeat estimation (Viterbi against Chord detection): We finally compare the results obtained with our complete system (Viterbi DB LDA a=2 COS CHRO/SPEC) to the results obtained using the “Chord detection” algorithm of [32]. For 3 over 4 test-sets, the proposed algorithm allows to improve the downbeat-tracking results: FMeas=0.74 and 0.64 for T-PR, 0.8 and 0.81 for T-RWC-P, 0.47 and 0.44 for T-RWC-J,

0.34 and 0.32 for T-RWC-C. Only for T-PR, this difference is statistically significant.

Variations among test-set: As one can observe, the performances of beat-marking are best for the T-PR (FMeas=0.93) and T-RWC-P (0.84) than for the more complex Jazz rhythm of T-RWC-J (0.57) or the time-variable tempo of Classical music of T-RWC-C (0.42). The same can be observed for the downbeat marking (0.74, 0.8, 0.47, 0.34).

D. Comparison to other works

1) *Evaluation using Klapuri [7] test-set:* In Table II, we compare the results of our Viterbi algorithm using “simple” or “LDA-trained” beat-templates to the results published in [7] using the test-set used in [7]. The LDA-trained beat-templates achieved higher results than the “simple” beat-template: FMeas=0.64 and 0.67. This difference is statistically significant. For the criteria for which temporal continuity is not required (CMLt and AMLt), the performances of our Viterbi-LDA algorithm are higher than that of [7]: from CMLt= 64 to 65, from AMLt= 80 to 83. This improvement is however small. For the criteria for which temporal continuity is required (CMLc and AMLc), the performances of our algorithm are lower than that of [7].

	F-Meas(0,1)	Cont. Requ.	Indiv. Est.	Cont. Requ.	Indiv. Est.
		correct	correct	accept d/h	accept d/h
		CMLc	CMLt	AMLc	AMLt
Klapuri Test-Set					
Klapuri et al. (NC)		59	64	73	80
Viterbi no-DB Simple	0,64	55	63	69	80
Viterbi no-DB LDA	0,67	57	65	70	83
Hainsworth Test-Set					
Klapuri et al. (NC)		55,7	62,4	70	80
Davies Plumbey		54,8	61,2	68,1	78,9
SDP+1st beat + Tempo		60,6	71	64,9	76,5
Viterbi no-DB Simple	0,56	47,6	54,1	64,4	74,5
Viterbi no-DB LDA	0,63	53,1	60,9	70,8	81,8

TABLE II
Beat estimation results for T-KLA [7] and T-HAI [12] test-set.

2) *Evaluation using Hainsworth [12] test-set:* In Table II, we compare the results of our Viterbi algorithm using “simple” or “LDA-trained” beat-templates to the recent results published in Stark [47] using the test-set used in [12], [8] and [47]. “Klapuri et al. (NC)” refers to the non-causal algorithm of [7], “Davies and Plumbey (NC)” refers to the non-causal algorithm of [8] and “SDP + 1stbeat + Tempo” refers to the results obtained with the Stark et al. algorithm [47] using annotated tempo and annotated first beat-phase. Again, for this test-set, the LDA-trained beat-templates achieved higher results than the “simple” beat-template: FMeas=0.56 and 0.63. This difference is again statistically significant. This is an important results since the input of our system was in this case Davies “Detection Function” DF and not our reassigned-spectral-energy-flux (RSEF) function which was used for the training of the LDA-beat templates. This somehow proofs the generalibility of the proposed LDA-trained beat templates. For the criteria for which octave errors are considered corrects (AMLc and AMLt), the performances of our Viterbi-LDA algorithm are higher than all the other algorithms: AMLc=70.8 and AMLt=81.8. For the criteria for which octave errors are

not considered corrects (CMLc and CMLt), the performances of our algorithm are lower than that of the other algorithms. These results could indicate that our tempo estimation system suffers from many octave errors. However, this results must be taken with care since we did not have access to the audio data but only to the values of the DF function. Because, the DF function has different properties than our RSEF function, it may not fit completely the shape of the templates (see [29]) used for our tempo/ meter estimation.

3) *MIREX Audio Beat Tracking Contest results:* We have submitted our tempo and beat-marking system to the MIREX-09 Audio Tempo Extraction contest [22]. For this evaluation, we tested four configuration of the tempo estimation stage of [29] (variable-over-time or constant-over-time tempo estimation, meter estimated or forced to 4/4) but only one of the beat marking stage (corresponding to Viterbi DB LDA COS CHRO). Two test-sets were used: the “McKinney Collection” and the “Sapp’s Mazurka Collection”. The “McKinney Collection” is a set of 160 musical excerpts; each recording has been annotated by 40 different listeners (39 in a few cases) [48] [49]. The “Sapp’s Mazurka Collection” is a set of 322 files drawn from the Mazurka.org dataset put together by Craig Sapp. He was also responsible for creating the high-quality ground-truth files. The whole set of performance measures, collected by Davies, was used for the evaluation: F-Measure, Cemgil, Goto, P-score, CMLc, CMLt, AMLc, AMLt, ... On the “McKinney Collection” test-set, for 8 criteria over 10, our system ranked first, and this whatever configuration of the tempo estimation stage. For the two remaining criteria (AMLc and Davies D criteria), our system ranked second whatever configuration of the tempo estimation part. Since this test-set is the same as the one used in the MIREX-06 “Audio Beat Tracking” task, and since the P-score is available for both MIREX-06 and MIREX-09, we compare the largest P-score obtained in MIREX-06 to the ones we have obtained in 2009. In 2006, Dixon reaches a P-score **0.575**. In 2009, our system whatever configuration of it has a P-score **from 0.579 to 0.592**. On the “Sapp’s Mazurka Collection” test-set, the best performing algorithm was the DRP3 from Davies, and this for all criteria. The best performing configuration of our system was with [variable-over-time tempo estimation, meter is estimated] which ranked 2nd for 8 criteria over 10 (except the Goto and Davies D criteria). We refer the reader to http://www.music-ir.org/mirex/2009/index.php/Audio_Beat_Tracking_Results for more details.

VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORKS

In this paper we have proposed a probabilistic framework for simultaneous beat and downbeat-tracking from an audio signal given estimated tempo and meter as input.

We have proposed a hidden Markov model formulation in which hidden states are defined as “time t is a beat in a specific beat-position-in-measure”. Since times are part of the hidden states definition, we have proposed a “reverse” Viterbi decoding algorithm which decodes times over beat-numbers. The beat observation probabilities are obtained by

using beat-templates. We have proposed the use of Linear Discriminant Analysis to compute the most discriminant beat-templates. We have shown that the use of this LDA-trained beat-template allows an improvement of beat-tracking results for 4 over the 6 test-sets used in our evaluation. For the “Klapuri” and “Hainsworth” test-sets, this difference is statistically significant. It is important to note that “Klapuri” and “Hainsworth” test-sets are the two largest and were not part of the development of our system.

The beat-position-inside-measure (bpim) allows deriving simultaneously beat and downbeat position. We have proposed two bpim observation probabilities. The first probability is based on analyzing the variation of chroma vector over time. We have studied two window lengths for their computation (corresponding to the assumptions that chord change twice or once per measure) and two distances for their comparison (“1-cosine” and symmetrized Mahalanobis). The best results have been obtained using a window length of two beats and a “1-cosine” distance. The second probability is based on analyzing the temporal pattern of the spectral balance. The inclusion of this second probability allows increasing further the downbeat tracking results.

We have compared the results obtained by our new systems to our previous P-sola beat-tracking algorithm (as used in MIREX-05 contest) [31]. Results show a large improvement of the beat-tracking results which is statistically significant for all test-sets. We have then compared the results obtained by our new system to our previous chord-based downbeat-tracking algorithm [32]. The new algorithm allows increasing the results for 3 over 4 test-sets. For the “PopRock extract” test-set, the difference is statistically significant.

We have compared our results to the one obtained in [7] [12] [8] and [47] using the same test-sets and evaluation measures. For the “Klapuri” test-set, the proposed algorithm allows improving the results for the measures CMLt and AMLt (which do not require temporal contiguity), however this is not the case for the category CMLc and AMLc (which require temporal contiguity). Our algorithm seems therefore to suffer from temporal discontinuity. This may be due to the large transition probability assigned to $p_{trans}(t_i \in \{\beta\} | t_i \in B)$ in our experiment. For the “Hainsworth” test-set, the proposed algorithm allows improving the results for the measures AMLc and AMLt (which consider octave errors as correct), however this is not the case for the category CMLc and CMLt (which do not consider octave errors as correct). Our algorithm seems therefore to suffer from octave errors. Finally, we have discussed the results obtained by our algorithm in the last MIREX-09 beat-tracking contest in which our algorithm ranked first for the “McKinney Collection” test-set but only ranked second for the “Mazurka” test-set.

Considering the results obtained and the adaptability to include new observation probabilities, the proposed probabilistic formulation is promising. The computation time and memory cost is however higher than other methods. However, the method can be highly optimized when implementing it. The C++ version of this algorithm was for example the fastest algorithm in the MIREX-09 contest. Future works will concentrate on adding new type of observations probabilities

for the bpim probability such as relative silence detection. The LDA-trained beat template used here was the one trained on the PopRock test-set. This PopRock template was applied to Jazz and Classical music. Ideally, one would choose the most appropriate LDA-trained beat-template for the music genre studied. Further work will therefore concentrate on integrating automatic music genre estimation to our system in order to choose the most appropriate beat-template. Finally, our current system is composed of two independent parts: tempo and meter estimation on one side, beat and downbeat estimation on the other side. Both parts use a hidden Markov model formulation, further work will therefore concentrate on estimating them simultaneously in the same framework as did for example Laroche in [33].

VIII. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was partly supported by “Quaero” Program funded by Oseo French State agency for innovation. Many thanks to Frederic Cornu for careful optimization and debugging of code and Christophe Veaux for help on probabilities. Many thanks to Anssi Klapuri, Stephen Hainsworth and Matthew Davies for sharing their test-set and the beat-tracking evaluation toolbox.

REFERENCES

- [1] F. Gouyon and S. Dixon, “A review of rhythm description systems,” *Computer Music Journal*, vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 34–54, 2005.
- [2] A. Marsden, *Journal of New Music Research: Special Issue on Beat and Tempo Extraction*, 2007.
- [3] M. Goto and Y. Muraoka, “Music understanding at the beat level real-time beat tracking for audio signals,” in *Proc. of IJCAI (Int. Joint Conf. on AI) / Workshop on CASA*, 1995, pp. 68–75.
- [4] —, “Real-time rhythm tracking for drumless audio signals - chord change detection for musical decisions,” in *Proc. of IJCAI (Int. Joint Conf. on AI) / Workshop on CASA*, 1997, pp. 135–144.
- [5] S. Dixon, “Evaluation of audio beat tracking system beatroot,” *Journal of New Music Research*, vol. 36, no. 1, pp. 39–51, 2007.
- [6] E. Scheirer, “Tempo and beat analysis of acoustic musical signals,” *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.*, vol. 103, no. 1, pp. 588–601, 1998.
- [7] A. Klapuri, A. Eronen, and J. Astola, “Analysis of the meter of acoustic musical signals,” *IEEE Trans. on Audio, Speech and Language Processing*, vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 342–355, 2006.
- [8] M. Davies and M. Plumbley, “Context-dependent beat tracking of musical audio,” *IEEE Trans on Audio, Speech and Language Processing*, vol. 15, no. 3, pp. 1009–1020, 2007.
- [9] M. Goto and Y. Muraoka, “Real-time beat tracking for drumless audio signals: Chord change detection for musical decisions,” *Speech Communication*, vol. 27, pp. 311–335, 1999.
- [10] T. Jehan, “Creating music by listening,” PHD Thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology., 2005.
- [11] A. Cemgil and B. Kapen, “Monte carlo methods for tempo tracking and rhythm quantization,” *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, vol. 18, pp. 45–81, 2003.
- [12] S. Hainsworth and M. Macleod, “Beat tracking with particle filtering algorithms,” in *Proc. of IEEE WASPAA*, New Paltz, NY, 2003.
- [13] J. Laroche, “Estimating tempo, swing and beat locations in audio recordings,” in *Proc. of IEEE WASPAA*, New Paltz, NY, USA, 2001.
- [14] D. Ellis, “Beat tracking by dynamic programming,” *J. New Music Research*, vol. 6, no. Special Issue on Beat and Tempo Extraction, pp. 51–60, 2007.
- [15] J. Seppanen, “Tatum grid analysis of musical signals,” in *Proc. of IEEE WASPAA*, New Paltz, NY, USA, 2001.
- [16] F. Gouyon, “A computational approach to rhythm description,” PHD thesis, Universitat Pompeu Fabra, Barcelona, Spain, 2005.
- [17] D. Eck and N. Casagrande, “Finding meter in music using an autocorrelation phase matrix and shannon entropy,” in *Proc. of ISMIR*, London, UK, 2005.

- [18] P. Grosche and M. Müller, "A mid-level representation for capturing dominant tempo and pulse information in music recordings," in *Proc. of ISMIR*, Kobe, Japan, 2009.
- [19] M. Davies, N. Degara, and M. Plumbley, "Evaluation methods for musical audio beat tracking algorithms," Queen Mary University of London, Tech. Rep. Technical Report C4DM-TR-09-06, 2009.
- [20] MIREX, "Audio tempo extraction," 2005.
- [21] —, "Audio beat tracking contest," 2006.
- [22] —, "Audio beat tracking contest," 2009.
- [23] H. Allan, "Bar lines and beyond - meter tracking in digital audio," Master Thesis, University of Edinburgh, 2004.
- [24] T. Jehan, "Downbeat prediction by listening and learning," in *Proc. of IEEE WASPAA*, New Paltz, NY, 2005.
- [25] M. Goto, "An audio-based real-time beat tracking system for music with or without drum-sounds," *Journal of New Music Research*, vol. 30, no. 2, pp. 159–171, 2001.
- [26] D. Ellis and J. Arroyo, "Eigenrhythms: Drum pattern basis sets for classification and generation," in *Proc. of ISMIR*, Barcelona, Spain, 2004.
- [27] M. Davies and M. Plumbley, "A spectral difference approach to downbeat extraction in musical audio," in *Proc. of EUSIPCO*, Florence, Italy, 2006.
- [28] M. Gainza, D. Barry, and E. Coyle, "Automatic bar line segmentation," in *Proc. of AES 123rd Convention*, New York, NY, USA, 2007.
- [29] G. Peeters, "Template-based estimation of time-varying tempo," *EURASIP Journal on Advances in Signal Processing*, vol. 2007, no. Special Issue on Music Information Retrieval Based on Signal Processing, pp. Article ID 67215, 14 pages, 2007, doi:10.1155/2007/67215.
- [30] —, "Modeles et modelisation du signal sonore adaptes a ses caracteristiques locales," PHD Thesis, Universite Paris VI, 2001.
- [31] —, "Beat-marker location using a probabilistic framework and linear discriminant analysis," in *Proc. of DAFX*, Como, Italy, 2009.
- [32] H. Papadopoulos and G. Peeters, "Simultaneous estimation of chord progression and downbeats from an audio file," in *Proc. of IEEE ICASSP*, Las Vegas, USA, 2008.
- [33] J. Laroche, "Efficient tempo and beat tracking in audio recordings," *J. Audio Eng. Soc.*, vol. 51, no. 4, pp. 226–233, 2003.
- [34] H. Papadopoulos and G. Peeters, "Joint estimation of chords and downbeats from an audio signal," *to be published in IEEE Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing*, 2010.
- [35] L. Rabiner, "A tutorial on hidden markov model and selected applications in speech," *Proceedings of the IEEE*, vol. 77, no. 2, pp. 257–285, 1989.
- [36] R. Fisher, "The use of multiple measurements in taxonomic problems," *Annals of Eugenics*, vol. 7, pp. 179–188, 1936.
- [37] S. Dixon, F. Gouyon, and G. Widmer, "Towards characterisation of music via rhythmic patterns," in *Proc. of ISMIR*, Barcelona, Spain, 2004, pp. 509–516.
- [38] M. Goto, H. Hashiguchi, T. Nishimura, and R. Oka, "Rwc music database: Popular, classical, and jazz music databases," in *Proc. of ISMIR*, Paris, France, 2002, pp. 287–288.
- [39] G. Wakefield, "Mathematical representation of joint time-chroma distributions," in *Proc. of SPIE conference on Advanced Signal Processing Algorithms, Architecture and Implementations*, Denver, Colorado, USA, 1999, pp. 637–645.
- [40] G. Peeters, "Chroma-based estimation of musical key from audio-signal analysis," in *Proc. of ISMIR*, Victoria, Canada, 2006, pp. 115–120.
- [41] A. Cemgil, B. Kappen, P. Desain, and H. Honing, "On tempo tracking: Tempogram representation and kalman filtering," *Journal of New Music Research*, vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 259–273, 2001.
- [42] M. Goto, "Issues in evaluating beat tracking systems," in *Proc. of IJCAI*, 1997.
- [43] M. McKinney, D. Moelants, M. Davies, and A. Klapuri, "Evaluation of audio beat tracking and music tempo extraction algorithms," *Journal of New Music Research*, vol. 36, no. 1, pp. 1–16, 2007.
- [44] S. Hainsworth, "Techniques for the automated analysis of musical audio," PHD Thesis, Cambridge University, 2004.
- [45] M. Goto, "Rwc (real world computing) music database," 2005.
- [46] —, "Aist annotation for the rwc music database," in *Proc. of ISMIR*, Victoria, Canada, 2006, pp. 359–360.
- [47] A. Stark, M. Davies, and M. Plumbley, "Real-time beat-synchronous analysis of musical audio," in *Proc. of DAFX*, Come, Italy, 2009.
- [48] M. McKinney and D. Moelants, "Deviations from the resonance theory of tempo induction," in *Conference on Interdisciplinary Musicology*, Graz, Austria, 2004.
- [49] D. Moelants and M. McKinney, "Tempo perception and musical content: What makes a piece slow, fast, or temporally ambiguous?" in *International Conference on Music Perception and Cognition*. Evanston, IL, 2004.



Geoffroy Peeters Geoffroy Peeters received his Ph.D. degree in computer science from the Université Paris VI, France, in 2001. During his Ph.D., he developed new signal processing algorithms for speech and audio processing. Since 1999, he works at IRCAM (Institute of Research and Coordination in Acoustic and Music) in Paris, France. His current research interests are in signal processing and pattern matching applied to audio and music indexing. He has developed new algorithms for timbre description, sound classification, audio identification, rhythm description, automatic music structure discovery, and audio summary. He owns several patents in these fields. He has also coordinated indexing research activities for the Cuidad, Cuidado, and Semantic HIFI European projects and is currently leading the music indexing activities in the Quaero Oseo project. He is one of the co-authors of the ISO MPEG-7 audio standard.



Helene Papadopoulos Helene Papadopoulos was born in Paris, France, in 1983. She graduated in 2006 from ENSEA in Paris ("Ecole Nationale Supérieure de l'Electronique et de ses Applications"), a leading French Engineering School specialized in Electronics, Signal Processing, Computer Science and Communication. The same year, she received the M.Sc. degree in Image, Signal Processing and Artificial Intelligence from the University of Cergy-Pontoise. She is currently pursuing a Ph.D. degree in the Analysis/Synthesis team at IRCAM in Paris. In

parallel to her scientific studies, she pursues musical studies at the professional level. Her research interests include signal processing, machine learning, music perception and cognition, music content processing, classification and music information retrieval.