

NAML Project Report - Group 14

Music Genre Classification using
k-Nearest Neighbours
Nearest Centroid
Multiclass SVM

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1 Introduction

Scope

The scope of this project is to create a music genre classifier using two machine learning methods: *k-Nearest Neighbours* and *Multiclass SVM*, which were assigned to our group. The project is part of the evaluation of the “Numerical Analysis for Machine Learning” course, taught in the first semester of the first year of Master’s Degree in Computer Science and Engineering at Politecnico di Milano. Given the similarities between *k-Nearest Neighbours* and *Nearest Centroid*, we chose to implement the latter as well, comparing its performance to the former, even though it is outside the specification of the project.

The Dataset

The dataset assigned to our project is the notorious *GTZAN Genre Collection*[3], which contains 100 different extracts from 10 different music genres. The dataset genres are:

- Blues
- Classical
- Country
- Disco
- Hip Hop
- Jazz
- Metal
- Pop
- Reggae
- Rock

As it can be seen, genres that share similarities are included in the dataset (e.g. Blues and Jazz), but also dramatically different types of music such as Rock and Classical, which we expect the algorithms to distinguish with higher precision.

The dataset provides audio samples as *.wav* files (*Waveform Audio File Format*). WAV is the most common uncompressed audio file format in Microsoft Windows systems. It was developed by IBM and Microsoft, for storing an audio bitstream on PCs[1].

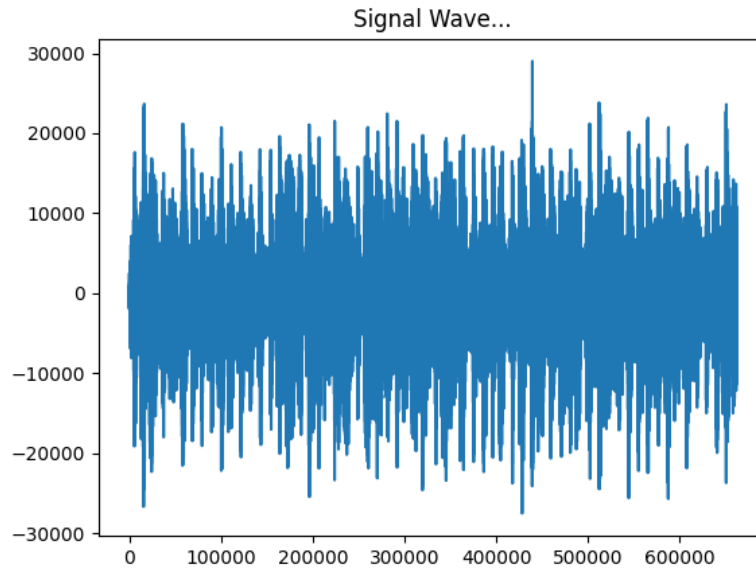


Figure 1: Plotted waveform of blues.00000.wav

This file format can be imported in *Python* by using the *wave* module, which provides convenient functions to work with the WAV sound format. In our case, the audio samples are provided as 22050Hz Mono 16-bit 30 second tracks[3], which are easily transformed into a numpy array of *int16*.

The picture above is the result of the following code:

```
import wave
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

test_file = wave.open('genres/blues/blues.00000.wav', 'rb')
# Extract Raw Audio from Wav File
signal = test_file.readframes(-1)
signal = np.frombuffer(signal, dtype='int16')
test_file.close()

plt.figure(1)
plt.title("Signal_Wave...")
plt.plot(signal)
plt.show()
```

Feature Extraction

For what concerns the features required to classify the genres, our first choice was the feature triplet of *Zero Crossing Rate*, *Average Energy* and *Silent Ratio* as defined in one of the papers provided by the project specification [2]. The extracted features were collected and exported in a csv file to avoid having to extract the feature multiple times, as the complete process took approximately 45 minutes on *Google Colab*.

Zero Crossing Rate

It indicates the frequency of signal amplitude sign change, which is in some way related to the average signal frequency. In practice, it is a key feature to classify percussive sounds as it's often correlated with the beat. ZCR records how many waves have passed for a certain time, by averaging the sign changes in the signal amplitude. The implemented formula is as follows:

$$\text{ZCR} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \left| \text{sgn } x(n) - \text{sgn } x(n-1) \right|}{2N} \quad (1)$$

where $\text{sgn } x$ is the *sign function*.

Average Energy

It indicates the loudness of the audio signal as a whole, being the average of the square amplitude of the audio signal.

$$E_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n)^2}{N} \quad (2)$$

In practice, it corresponds to the momentum or the force of the music within the time slice where it is measured.

Silent Ratio

It indicates the proportion of the sound piece that is considered to be *silent*. Silence is defined as a period within which the absolute value of amplitude is below a certain threshold. If we indicate

$$SR = \frac{\sum_{x(n) < \text{thr}} 1}{N} \quad (3)$$

In our implementation, silence threshold is derived from the average energy as follows...

$$\text{thr} = 0.8\sqrt{E_{\text{avg}}} \quad (4)$$

Dataset Visualization

After exporting the feature dataset, we visualized it using built-in functions from *pandas* and *seaborn*. Full dataset visualization is available in a the Jupyter Notebook called *NAML_Project_Data_Visualization.ipynb*.

	ZCR	AVERAGEENERGY	SILENT_RATIO
count	1000.000000	1.000000e+03	1000.000000
mean	0.103768	2.631159e+07	0.827613
std	0.041886	2.396840e+07	0.024517
min	0.021714	6.178678e+04	0.767521
25%	0.070328	9.781419e+06	0.810039
50%	0.099618	1.834412e+07	0.824969
75%	0.132136	3.768007e+07	0.842175
max	0.275001	1.777716e+08	0.926341

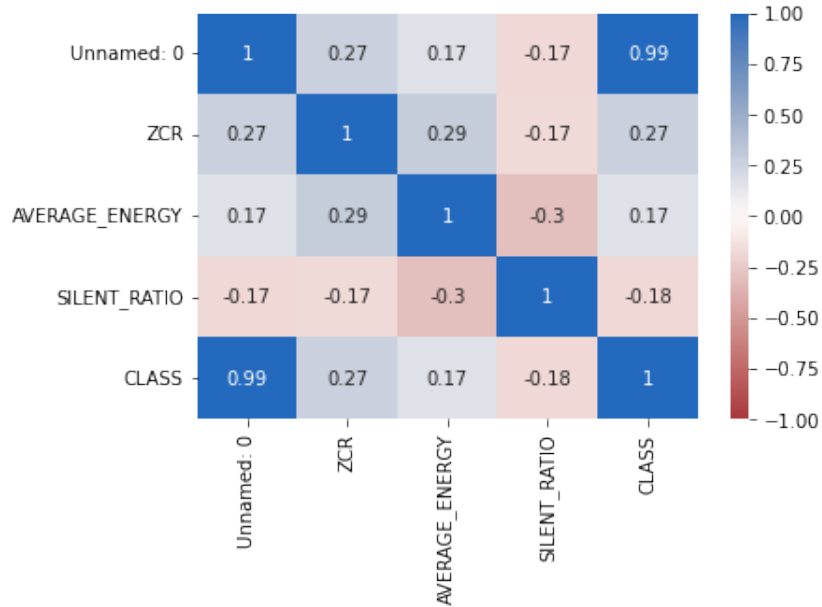


Figure 2: Annotated Heatmap of the correlation of extracted features

From this visualization, it is evident that the three features are independent enough to be non-redundant in the classification.

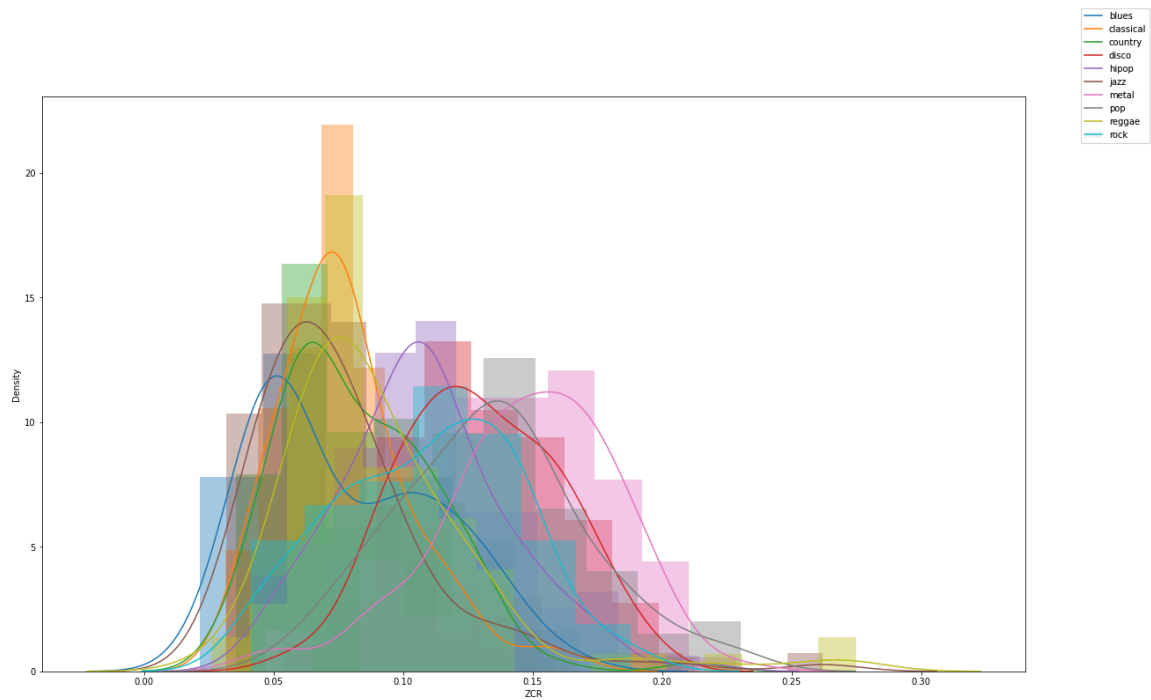


Figure 3: Distribution Plot of ZCR feature

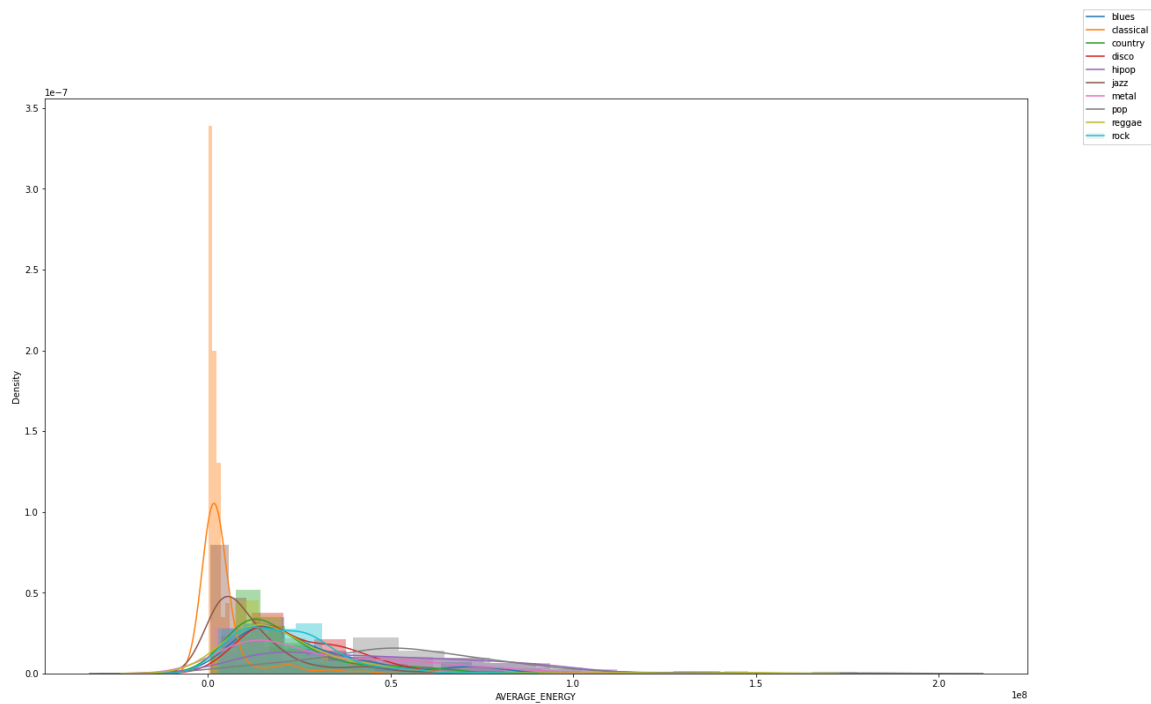


Figure 4: Distribution Plot of Average Energy feature

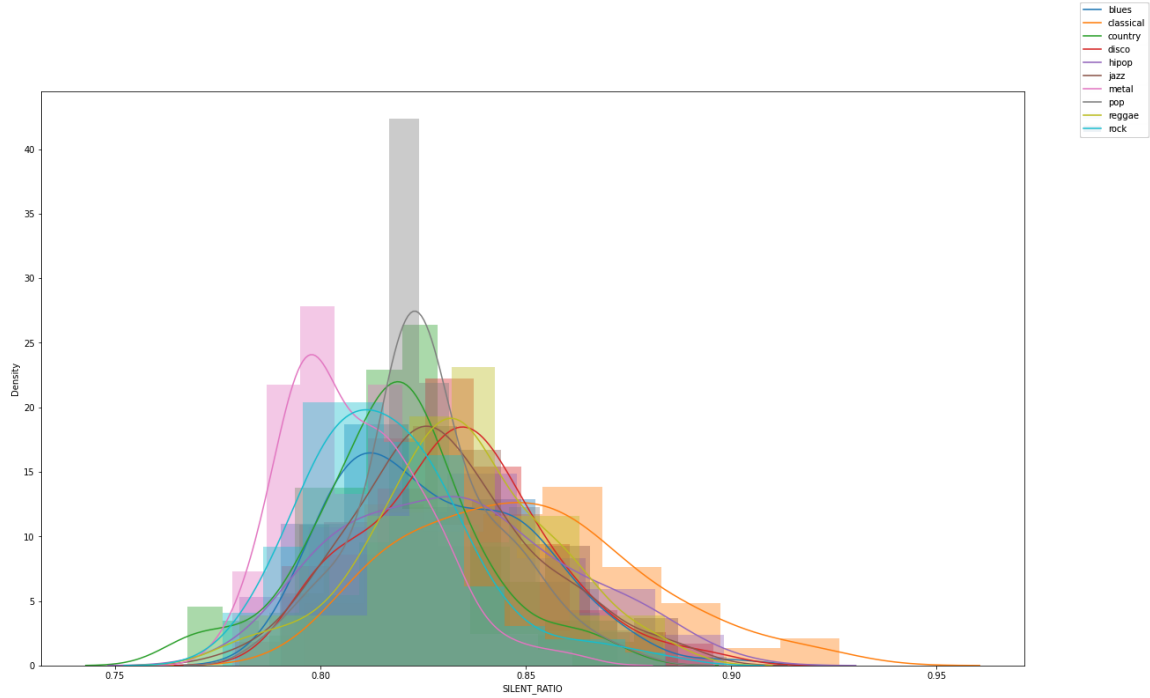


Figure 5: Distribution Plot of Silent Ratio feature

Alternative Feature Set: Mel-Frequency Cepstral Coefficients

The second paper provided by project specification [4] mentioned the possibility of using *Mel-Frequency Cepstral Coefficients* as features for music genre classification.

The **Mel-frequency Cepstrum** (MFC) is a representation of the short term power spectrum. The **Mel-frequency Cepstral Coefficients** (MFCCs) collectively make up an MFC. A Cepstrum is defined as a non-linear spectrum-of-a-spectrum.

The peculiarity of an MFC with respect to a generic cepstrum is, as the name suggests, the usage of the *Mel-frequency Scale*, which emulates the human hearing response more closely than the linearly spaced frequency bands used in the normal spectrum.

MFCC extraction is a relatively standardized algorithm, so we've chosen a popular python library to aid us in the extraction: *librosa*. As the library source code shows [5], the implemented extraction procedure is as follows:

1. Since a time series is provided, the spectrogram of the signal is computed.
2. The spectrogram is mapped to the mel scale
3. The log of the result is taken (dB conversion)
4. The *Discrete Cosine Transform* is applied

The Librosa implementation also supports a final processing step: Sinusoidal Liftering, which is reportedly considered beneficial to speech recognition applications. Since this is outside the scope of the classifier, no Liftering was applied.

The input signal is automatically divided into a certain number of windows, each with their MFCCs, most applications can deal with the first 13 MFCCs, as they carry the most relevant information for the section of the spectrum that can be heard by the human ear.

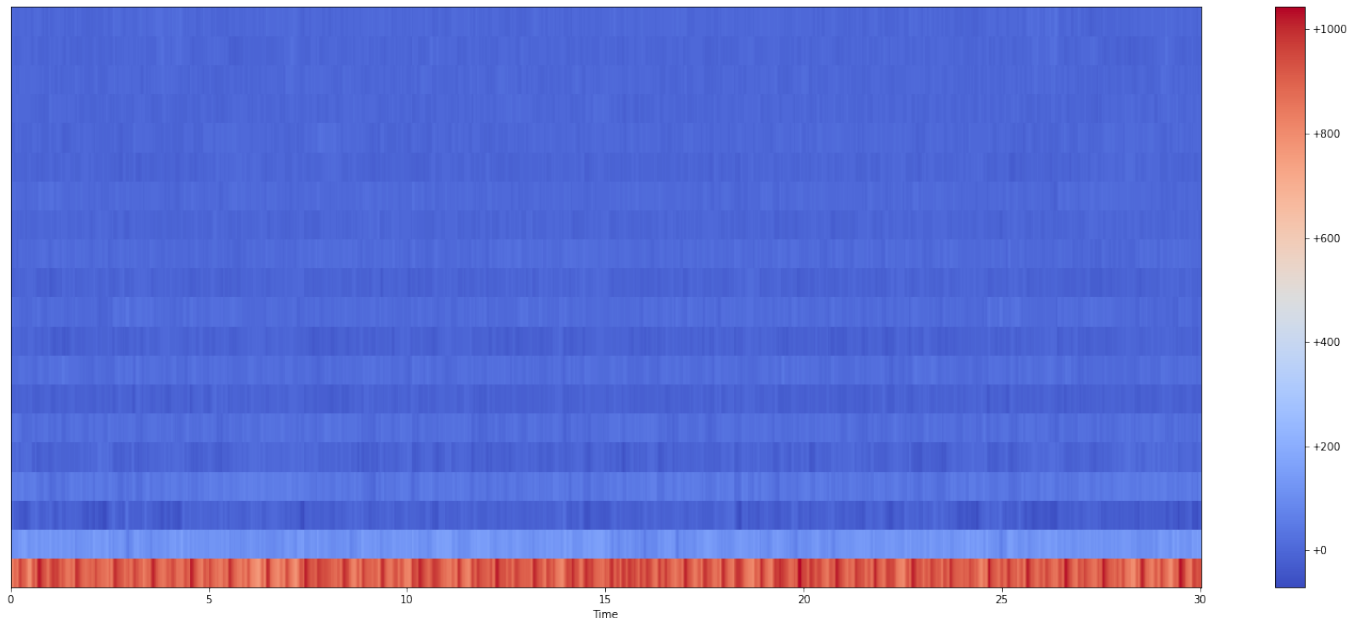


Figure 6: Mel-Frequency Cepstral Coefficients spectrogram of *blues.00000.wav*

Given that the resulting MFCCs of the signal are returned in a matrix with rows corresponding to the 13 coefficients and columns corresponding to all windows of the original signal, giving a dynamic representation of the signal, we had to make a choice to extract static features for our classifier. We first tried averaging the coefficients across all windows, but their correlation was too high. In the end we noticed that picking coefficients from a random window of the song extract gave us a solid feature set with low enough correlation for the classifier to perform in a satisfactory manner.

Librosa also allows for the computation of local estimates of n-order derivatives for MFCCs using the *librosa.feature.delta* function. We also included these features (namely order 1 and 2 deltas) from the same random window as the coefficients.

A specific Jupyter Notebook named *NAML Project Mel-frequency cepstrum.ipynb* handles the visualization and generation of the MFCC data for the dataset assigned to this project (the exported feature set is called *mfcc_dataset.csv*).

2 Classifiers

Distance Based Methods In this paragraph we will explore the classifiers using the feature triplet (ZCR, Avg. Energy and Silent Ratio) using *k-Nearest Neighbours* and *Nearest Centroid*. The performance of both classifiers has been evaluated for different subsets of genres and using the following three distance functions (x is the current sample, y is the current centroid / training sample):

- **Euclidean Distance:**

$$d(x, y) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i)^2} \quad (5)$$

- **Manhattan Distance:**

$$d(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - x_i| \quad (6)$$

- **Chebyshev Distance:**

$$d(x, y) = \max_i |y_i - x_i| \quad (7)$$

k-Nearest Neighbours Classifier

The implementation of the *k-Nearest Neighbours Classifier* was developed and tested in the jupyter notebook *NAML_Project_k-Nearest-Neighbours.ipynb* and was later ported to a standalone python script to be callable as a module (/knn/k_nearest_neighbours_classifier.py).

We calculate the distances between the input and all the data of the genres previously selected, we store in an array the k minimum distances and the classes to which they belong. If k is greater than one, we count how many are the occurrences of each class present in the k nearest points. In case of a tie, we return the class with the smallest distance.

k-Nearest Neighbours Classifier Accuracy			
Euclidean Distance	All 10 genres	6 genres	2 genres
k = 1	21.00%	35.04%	85.71%
k = 3	24.00%	35.04%	77.14%
k = 5	25.50%	29.06%	77.14%
k = 7	20.00%	35.90%	85.71%
k = 9	21.50%	30.77%	85.71%
Manhattan Distance	All 10 genres	6 genres	2 genres
k = 1	18.50%	32.48%	85.71 %
k = 3	20.00%	32.48%	77.14%
k = 5	23.50%	24.79%	85.71 %
k = 7	22.50%	29.06%	85.71 %
k = 9	21.00%	21.37%	85.71 %
Chebyshev Distance	All 10 genres	6 genres	2 genres
k = 1	21.5%	25.64%	88.57%
k = 3	23.5%	27.35%	62.86%
k = 5	20.5%	23.08%	71.43%
k = 7	18.00%	29.06%	88.57%
k = 9	17.50%	33.33%	88.57%

6 genres: ['blues', 'classical', 'country', 'disco', 'pop', 'rock']
2 genres: ['classical', 'pop']

Figure 7: Accuracy table for k-Nearest Neighbours

Nearest Centroid Classifier

The implementation of the *Nearest Centroid Classifier* is straightforward enough. It was developed and tested in the jupyter notebook *NAML_Project_Nearest_Centroid.ipynb* and was later ported to a standalone python script to be callable as a module (`/nearest_centroid/nearest_centroid.classifier.py`). To determine the centroid for each class, the training set is filtered and the mean of each feature is computed. A list called *centroids* collects the centroid vectors after their computation.

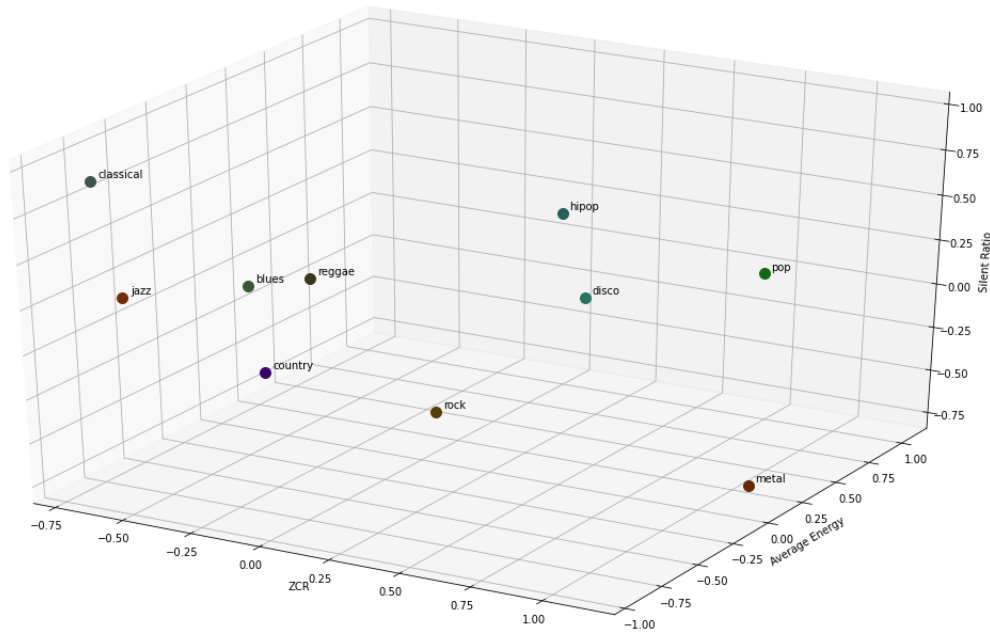


Figure 8: 3d scatterplot of class centroids

To classify the genre given the input and the possible genres to classify to, the algorithm determines the closest centroid among the available ones using the distance function passed as a parameter in the *classify function*. Here are the resulting classification accuracies:

Nearest Centroid Classifier Accuracy	All 10 genres	6 genres	2 genres
Euclidean Distance	34.00%	46.96%	95.45%
Manhattan Distance	33.50%	47.83%	95.45%
Chebyshev Distance	33.50%	45.22%	95.45%
6 genres: ['blues', 'classical', 'country', 'disco', 'pop', 'rock']			
2 genres: ['classical', 'pop']			

Figure 9: Classification accuracy for each distance/genre set

Multiclass SVM Classifiers

The implementation of a *Support Vector Machine* classifier can be accomplished in a variety of different ways. To explore them before moving to the full Multiclass application, we created a Jupyter Notebook called *NAML_Project_Experiments.ipynb*. After testing the binary classification performance, we adapted the code for the multi-class case, exploring both the *One-To-Rest* strategy and the *One-To-One* strategy.

Building Blocks

The implementation of a Support Vector Machine problem can be either derived from the primal or the dual formulation.

Primal Formulation - Hard Margin

The problem of computing the *maximum-margin hyperplane* exploiting *support vectors* (samples from either class lying on the "gutter" that separates the two classes) can be formulated as follows:

$$\min_{w,b} |w| \quad \text{s.t.} \quad y_i(w^T x - b) \geq 1 \quad (8)$$

Where $\mathbf{y}_i = \pm \mathbf{1}$ is the label of the class corresponding to sample \mathbf{x} .

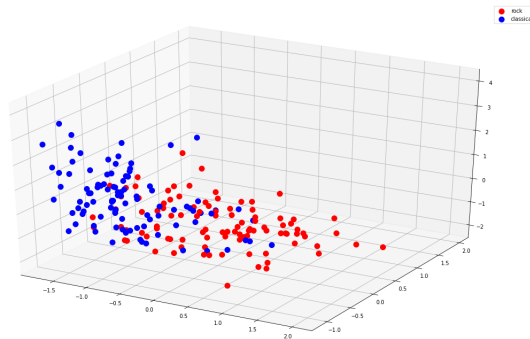


Figure 10: 3d scatterplot of rock and blues samples

Unfortunately, our samples are not linearly separable using a hard-margin, so this basic form of classification was not chosen.

Primal Formulation - Soft Margin

The soft-margin formulation involves the usage of the **hingeloss** function, which makes the optimization problem become

$$\min_{w,b} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x - b)) \quad (9)$$

The optimization problem is unconstrained, which enables us to apply *Gradient Descent* method, particularly appropriate considering the convexity of the function. Most soft-margin implementations also feature a *penalization* term, but in our implementation such parameter ended up decreasing the accuracy. Hence, we decided to remove it.

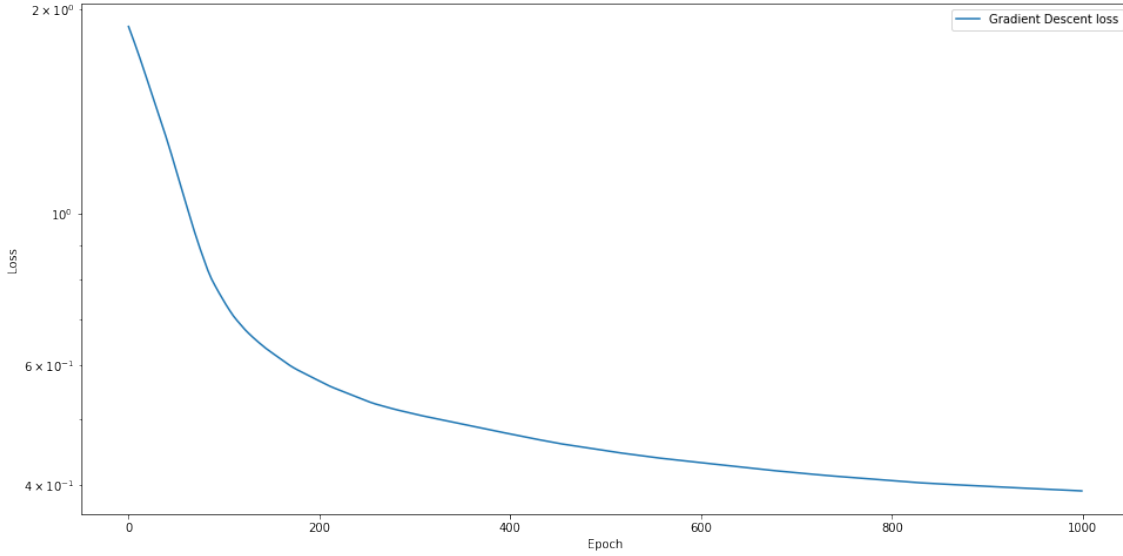


Figure 11: Gradient Descent hingeloss history on rock/classical margin

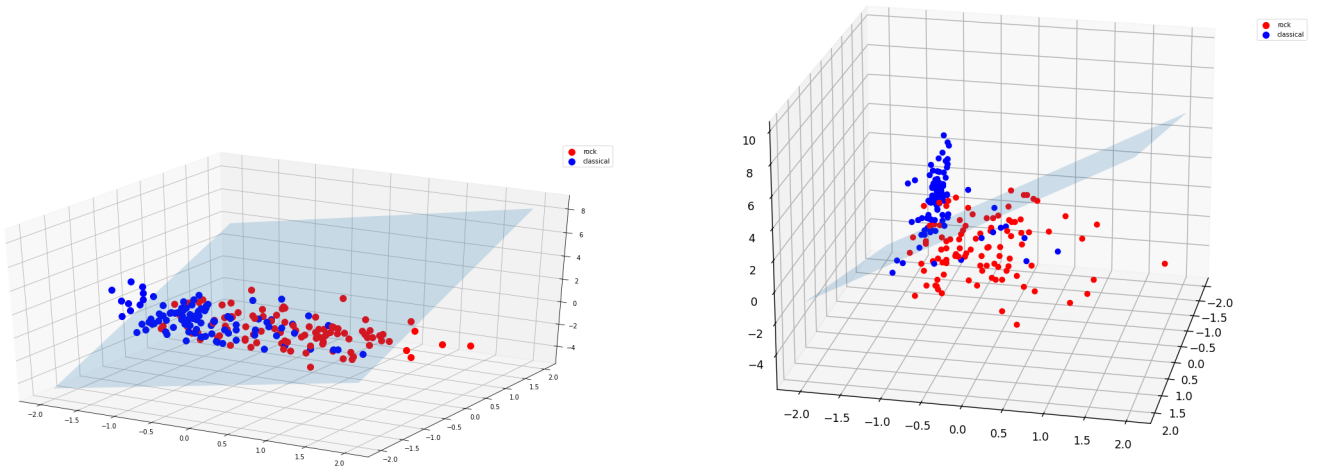


Figure 12: Plots of the hyperplane corresponding to the optimal parameters (two different rotations of the point of view)

Primal Formulation - Soft Margin with Feature Map

Before trying the dual formulation, which allows the usage of the Kernel Trick for non-linear classification margins, we tried a simple quadratic *feature map* to be applied to the primal formulation. This way, the three samples (ZCR, average energy and silent ratio) are mapped to a higher dimensional feature space.

$$\phi(x_1, x_2, x_3) = [x_1 \quad x_2 \quad x_3 \quad x_1^2 \quad x_2^2 \quad x_3^2 \quad x_1x_2 \quad x_2x_3 \quad x_1x_3]^T \quad (10)$$

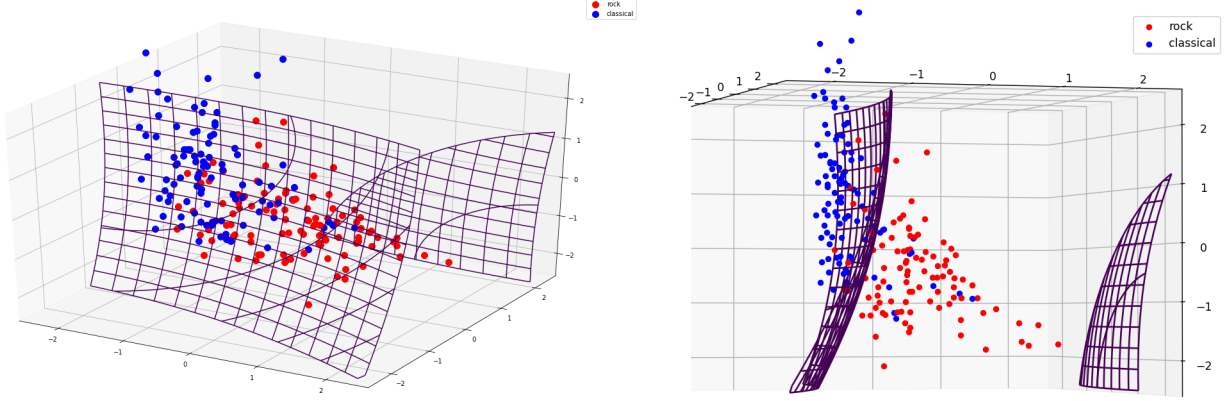


Figure 13: Plots of the non-linear margin corresponding to the optimal parameters (two different rotations of the point of view)

Dual Formulation - Linear Margin

The dual formulation of the SVM is easily obtained from the soft-margin primal formulation by using *Lagrangian Multipliers*...

$$\max_{c_1, \dots, c_n} \sum_{i=1}^n c_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n c_i c_j y_i y_j x_i^T x_j \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n c_i y_i = 0 \quad \wedge \quad c_i \geq 0$$

This time the optimization problem is constrained, so we had to use a *Quadratic Programming* library available for python. We ended up using *scipy.optimize*. Since the only constraint on the decision variable is linear, the computation of an iteration did not require the hessian, which was hardcoded to zero. The parameters of the optimization were method='trust-constr' (constrained minimization of scalar function) and jac='2-point' which enables the calculation of the jacobian of the constraint using finite differences [6]. Of course, since the dual formulation is a maximization problem, the objective function has to be multiplied by -1 before being fed to the *scipy.optimize.minimize* method.

After running the computation, weights and bias can be derived from the following expressions

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i y_i x_i \quad b = w^T x - y_i \quad \text{for any } i \text{ such that } x_i \text{ lies on the margin } (c_i > 0) \quad (11)$$

Dual Formulation - Kernel Trick

The kernel trick can intuitively be applied to the objective function by replacing the dot product of two samples $\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$ with the kernel function $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$. The choice of the kernel function itself, unfortunately, was constrained by the performance of its computation. While a polynomial kernel was fast due to the matrix optimizations of *numpy*, a gaussian kernel was found expensive. The following kernel had the best results in terms of classification accuracy:

$$K(x_i, x_j) = (x_i^T x_j + 1)^3 \quad (12)$$

The computation of the weights (multiplied by the kernel) and the bias is as follows:

$$w_j^\phi = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i y_i K(x_j, x_i) \quad b = w_i^\phi - y_i \text{ for any } i \text{ such that } x_i \text{ lies on the margin } (c_i > 0) \quad (13)$$

One-To-Rest Classifier

The implementation and testing of this classifier was done in *Google Colab* on the *NAML_Project_Multiclass_One* and was later ported to a python module for further usage. After having tested all the previously presented methods we noticed that the one that provided the best results was the one that used *Kernel Trick with Dual Formulation*, meanwhile the other two methods were implemented instead for the One-To-One classifier. Even in this case, due to long execution time on *Google Colab* (around 15 minutes), the training results were exported in 3 *.csv files* and then used by the classifier for the classification and the separation of the training set from the validation set. Here we introduce the results accomplished by this type of classifier:

SVM Classifier Accuracy	All 10 genres	6 genres	2 genres
One-To-Rest	31.50%	38.46%	87.50%

6 genres: ['blues', 'classical', 'country', 'disco', 'pop', 'rock']
2 genres: ['classical', 'pop']

Figure 14: Classification accuracy for each genre set

Each binary classifier checks if the input passed belongs to a specific genre or not. Specifically, it calculates a “score” that it’s positive if, for the classifier, the input belongs to the genre considered, and negative otherwise.

The multiclass classification uses the one-to-rest classification to retrieve the higher score of all the genres among the ones considered during the construction of the multiclass classifier.

One-To-One Classifier

The implementation of the One-To-One classifier was done directly in *PyCharm* to better exploit debugging tools in the implementation of the object oriented architecture of the module.

Since the One-To-One classifier compares one genre to another, we decided to choose the actual predicted class using a **Binary Decision Tree**, which was implemented in a separate class using recursive algorithms. The amount of binary classifiers required for the multiclass problem of a given subset of n genres is

$$\# \text{ classifiers} = \binom{n}{2} = \frac{n!}{2!(n-2)!} \quad (14)$$

Since the maximum number of genres to classify is 10, the maximum number of binary classifiers to be instantiated is 45.

Once the class *MulticlassSVM_OTO* is instantiated, the `__init__()` method creates all combinations of classifiers and then recursively generates a binary decision tree, assigning a binary classifier to each node.

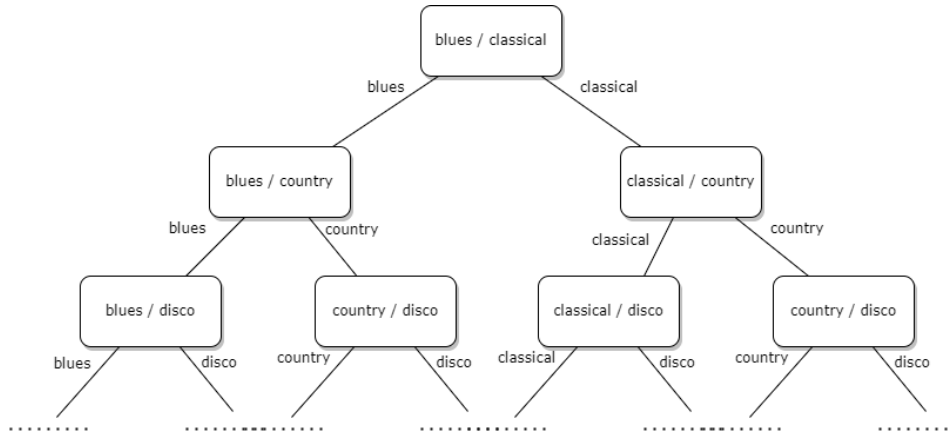


Figure 15: Truncated example of decision tree as generated upon instantiation of DecisionBinary-Tree

Classification with MFCCs

Once the implementation of the classifiers with the feature triplet was completed, we started working with the same classifiers changing the feature set to the extracted MFCCs. All MFCC classifiers were implemented and tested on *Google Colab* as jupyter notebook *MFCC_PCA.ipynb*. As the name of the notebook suggests, we were sure the usage of all 39 features without processing would have been redundant, so we started with a *Principal Component Analysis* on the data.

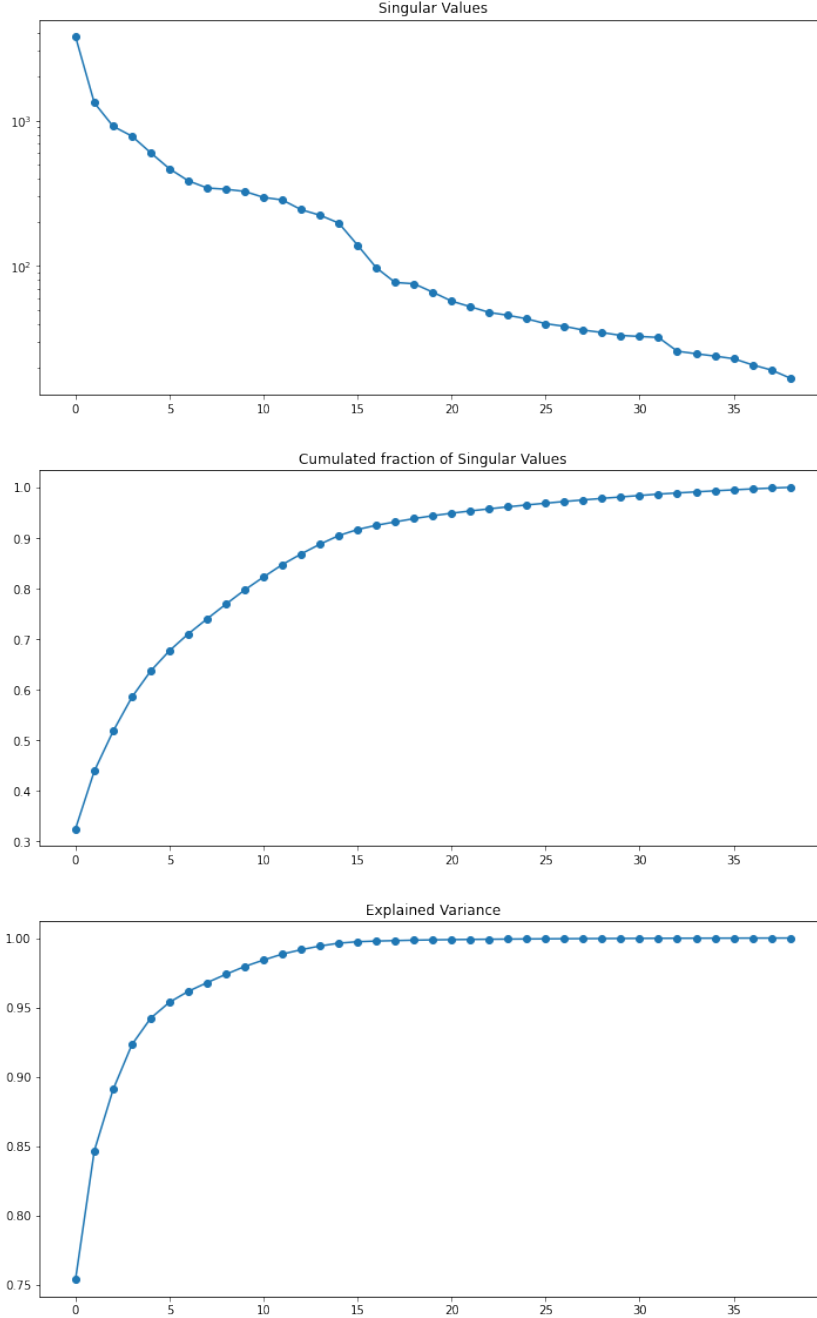


Figure 16: Results of the Principal Component Analysis performed on the MFCC dataset

From the plots, it is evident that around 10 principal components provide more than enough of the variance of the original data to be used for classification.

The accuracies for each technique are as follow:

MFCC Accuracies			
Nearest Centroids	All 10 genres	6 genres	2 genres
	29.38%	38.08%	88.68%
k-NearestNeighbours	All 10 genres	6 genres	2 genres
k = 1	100%	100.00%	100.00%
k = 3	88.00%	85.14%	94.97%
k = 5	64.38%	71.76%	93.71%
k = 7	59.00%	65.90%	94.97%
k = 9	54.75%	63.18%	96.23%
Multiclass SVM (OTO)	All 10 genres	6 genres	2 genres
	25.63%	30.75%	88.05%
6 genres: ['blues', 'classical', 'country', 'disco', 'pop', 'rock']			
2 genres: ['classical', 'pop']			

Figure 17: Accuracies of classification with MFCC principal components

Modules User Guide

References

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