

# Siamese Recurrent Architecture for Lyrical Similarities

**Rohit Nair**

University of California, Berkeley  
rohit.nair@berkeley.edu

## Abstract

We present a siamese network architecture based on Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) for analyzing pairwise lyrical similarity between songs of varying length. The model shows promising results in understanding semantic relationships between songs. When compared to bag of words based implementations, the neural network based model show significantly better results. Even with a small dataset the model is able to learn similarities across genres which opens up opportunities to generate recommendations that contrast with audio features as well as those that span languages.

## 1 Introduction

Recommendations has been an integral part of how humans navigate the world. Whether it's word of mouth suggestions or real-time news feeds, recommendation engines are present all around us and cast their influence in subtle and powerful ways. Song recommendations has been particularly popular field for a long time as evident from the number of radio stations in existence. Most of them are genre based, ie. they play songs from a particular genre and rarely cross over to another genre. This resulted in a lack of understanding of interplay among songs of different genre. That was until the advent of music streaming services such as Pandora. Allowing users to curate their own list of channels to listen to and letting them express their likes and dislikes which opened the doors to a richer understanding of songs.

There have been numerous studies performed using audio signals and lyrics to analyze song similarities with moderate success. Songs are an end product of a creative journey where layers of abstractions, metaphors, rhymes are added

making the underlying theme hard to decipher at times even for a human subject. Hence calculating lyrical similarity using traditional n-gram models is inefficient due to the loss in semantic understanding. One way this was avoided was by the use of collaborative filtering [citation]. Collaborative filtering looks at user's listening pattern to derive song's feature by factorizing the matrix which maps user and songs. This approach has been widely successful in Netflix competition and widely used in providing product recommendations on e-commerce and content sites. Although extremely effective, it suffers from a few drawbacks. Firstly, it requires a large amount of user-product data to perform feature extraction which limits the problem domains where this could be applied. Secondly, it suffers from a self-fulfilling bias where it recommends a popular song as it's common in the mapping data which in turn makes the song even more common resulting in even more recommendation.

With the advancements in neural networks and back propagation techniques, there has been great strides made in using these models for generating semantic understanding and other natural language processing task. Of note is the work by Mikolov et al. (2013) in representing word analogies in vector space. Following the success of word embedding, many models were created for representing documents and bodies of text in vector space. For one the success of these models can be attributed to their ability to process text of variable length and eschew limitation of Markov models namely the length of context it can remember. An RNN achieves this by passing a hidden state  $h_t$  forward at each time step  $t \in 1, \dots, T$  for data sequence  $(x_1, \dots, x_T)$  as

$$h_t = f(Wx_t + Uh_{t-1})$$

where  $f$  is a nonlinearity such as tanh or sigmoid. A drawback of RNN is difficulty in optimiz-

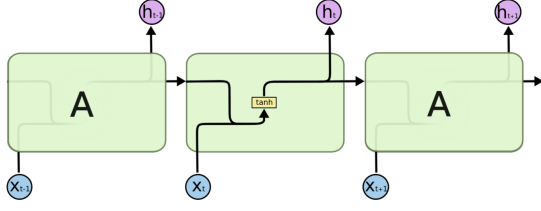


Figure 1: A Recurrent Neural Network [ref Chris Olah]

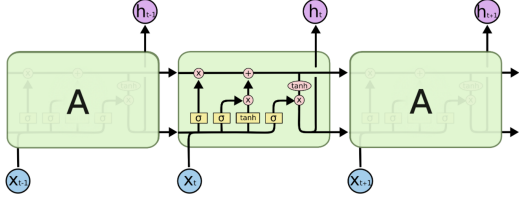


Figure 2: A Long Short Term Memory [ref Chris Olah]

ing the weights due to the issue of vanishing gradients during backpropagation. LSTMs improve over RNNs by managing to retain context over long sequence of inputs using memory cells while maintaining a hidden state that is passed across the units. An LSTM cell consists of 4 main components as shown in the figure below. The input gate, a sigmoid layer, decides which values we will update.

$$f_t = \sigma(W_f[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_f)$$

Next is a gate that decides which values to keep.

$$i_t = \sigma(W_i[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_i)$$

$$\tilde{C}_t = \tanh(W_c[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_C)$$

We update the cell state based on above values as:

$$C_t = f_t * C_{t-1} + i_t * \tilde{C}_t$$

Finally we decide what part of the cell data to send out as output.

$$o_t = \sigma(W_o[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_o)$$

$$h_t = o_t * \tanh(C_t)$$

The final output of the LSTM network encapsulates fragments of the inputs it encountered. Training is performed by means of backpropagation where the error is propagated back through the cells to modify these trainable weights.

In this work we adapt the Siamese recurrent neural network proposed by Mueller et al (2016) to the task for lyrical similarity analysis. The model accepts as input pairs of song lyrics  $(x_i^{(a)}, \dots, x_{T_a}^{(a)}), (x_i^{(b)}, \dots, x_{T_b}^{(b)})$  of fixed-size vectors (each  $x_i^{(a)}, x_j^{(b)} \in R^{d_{in}}$  along with a label  $y$  that represents the similarity between the songs. The model generates a mapping from general space of variable length sequence to structure matrix space of fixed dimensionality. Post training, a new song lyrics could be passed through this model so as to generate it's matrix representation.

## 2 Model

The Manhattan LSTM (MaLSTM) as proposed by Mueller et al is shown in the figure below. Manhattan here stands for the Manhattan distance between the two song's matrix representations. In our case we use the Euclidian distance as a measure of similarity. We feed the lyrics of the songs to the LSTM for it to update the hidden state at each sequence. The final hidden state is represented by  $h_T \in R^{d_{rep}}$  As with Mueller's MaLSTM our model acts as an encoder of Sutskever, Vinyals, and Le (2014) as opposed to using it to predict the next word in the sequence. Given the final hidden state of the two LSTMs, the similarity function is defined as  $g(h_{T_a}^{(a)}, h_{T_b}^{(b)}) =$

$$\frac{\sqrt{(h_{T_a}^{(a)}, h_{T_b}^{(b)})^2}}{\sqrt{(h_{T_a}^{(a)}, h_{T_b}^{(b)})^2 + \sqrt{(h_{T_a}^{(a)}, h_{T_b}^{(b)})^2}}} \in [0, 1].$$

### 2.1 Dataset

The Million Song Dataset (MSD) is a freely available collection of audio features and metadata for a million contemporary popular music tracks until 2011. The companion to this is the LastFM dataset which we use as the ground truth for song similarities. LastFM dataset provides similarity information for 584,897 tracks. All together there are 56M paired track similarity information. The similarity info  $s_{ab} \in [0, 1]$ . Since training using 56M pairs will be a time-consuming endeavor, we narrow our focus to 4610 Billboard Top 100 songs between 1950-2011. Of these, there are 832 songs that are part of MSD. These songs result in 10k song pairs which we split to train and test set (80/20). We use the artist, title and year information to get the complete lyrics for the songs.

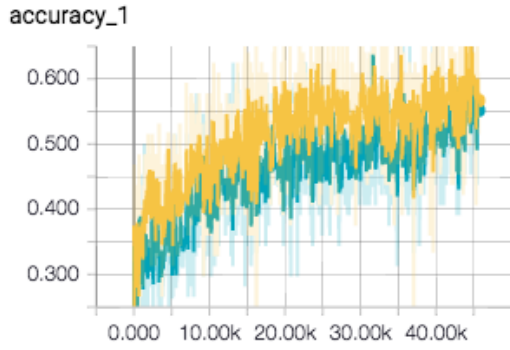


Figure 3: Training Accuracy (Yellow: 15w, Green: 300w)

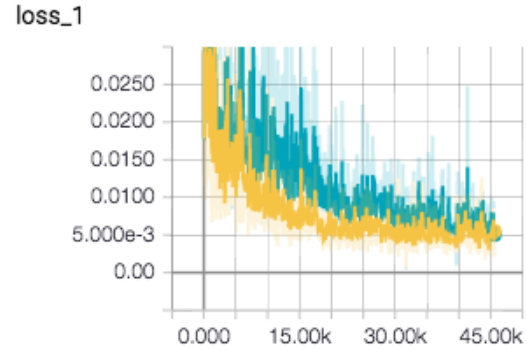


Figure 4: Training Loss (Yellow: 15w, Green: 300w)

## 2.2 Training

As we are interested in our model learning semantic representations of the songs, we make use of pre-computed wiki word embeddings. This we believe gives our model incredible power as noted in Mueller paper. For training we split the train set to train and dev set and feed the embeddings to the model. We configure the hyperparameters to as specified in the Mueller paper. The embedding dimension is set to 300, batch size is 64, dropout probability as 1 and number of hidden units as 50. For the first training run, we set the max document size to 15 to expedite training and to be able to run verification. For the final training run the max document size was set to 300 as a lot of song's lyrics were around that value. Accuracy was calculated by converting the song similarity into decile bucket. As can be seen in the figure below, the training loss reduces precipitously in the beginning and then plateaus out. Also of note is that the loss for training with 15 word document length (yellow) is lower than that for 300 word document length (green). This is also the case for accuracy where the accuracy for 15 word document is higher than 300 word document. This can be attributed to limited amount of training records for training to be optimized.

## 3 Results

The model performs well as shown in the table below considering the limited amount of training data. The model performs significantly better than a representative baseline model that predicts out of 10 classes.

We further analyze the classification error rate as the difference between the expected similarity

Model	Accuracy (%)
Baseline (Tf-Idf — 2 class)	54.5
Tf-Idf (10 Class)	40.8
Seimase Network (15 words 10 class)	52.4
Seimase Network (300 words 10 class)	45.2

decile bin and the predicted similarity decile bin. For example, a pair of songs with 0.83 similarity will have the class as 8. If the predicted similarity is 0.67 then the prediction will have the class 6 and the error in prediction is  $8 - 6 = 2$ . Since the similarity measure is continuous  $\in [0, 1]$  we can do the above calculation to see how off the similarity predictions were. As can be seen in the figure above the model does a admirable job in determining similarity of songs. Almost 50 percent error fall in off by 1 category which could be easily rectified by training with additional data resulting in an overall accuracy of **87.2%**.

We now divert our attention to a new dataset comprising of 2015 Billboard Top 100 songs. We pass this data through the model to get the song's matrix representations. Following this we run principle component analysis (PCA) on the representations to generate the following graph. From the above graph we can discern that the model can learn semantic understanding of songs within the same genre (similarity case 1) and across genre (similarity case 2 for pop & hip hop). Further the model is able to cluster similar songs across multiple genre (4 in similarity case 3) which can be very useful in recommendations and in finding formulaic songs.

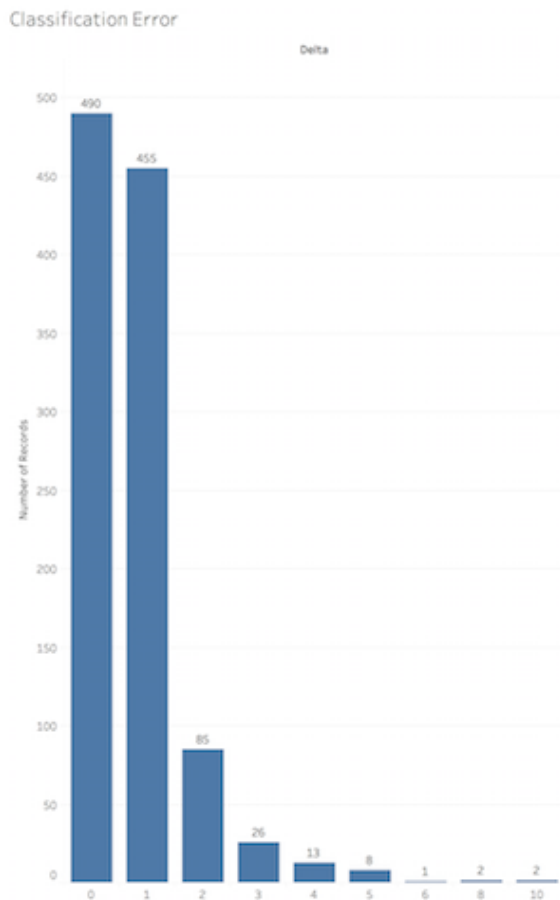


Figure 5: Similarity Prediction Error)

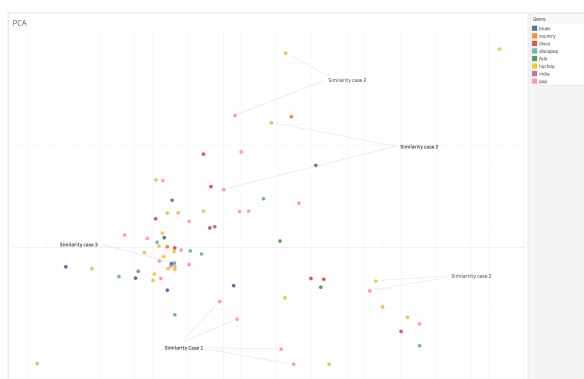


Figure 6: 2015 Billboard Top 100 Songs)

## 4 Conclusion

The Siamese Recurrent Neural Network based model for analyzing lyrical similarities shows a 45.2% validation accuracy. With a larger dataset, the model can easily reach 87.2% validation accuracy.

The model performs significantly better than TF-IDF based baseline model and is also able to learn semantic relationships in songs.

Future work with larger datasets and datasets comprising of other languages could result in finding similarities in songs across the globe.

## References

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