



## Semantic Analysis of Song Lyrics

Beth Logan, Andrew Kositsky<sup>1</sup>, Pedro Moreno  
Cambridge Research Laboratory  
HP Laboratories Cambridge  
HPL-2004-66  
April 14, 2004\*

E-mail: [Beth.Logan@hp.com](mailto:Beth.Logan@hp.com), [Pedro.Moreno@hp.com](mailto:Pedro.Moreno@hp.com)

multimedia  
indexing, rich  
media, music

We explore the use of song lyrics for automatic indexing of music. Using lyrics mined from the Web we apply a standard text processing technique to characterize their semantic content. We then determine artist similarity in this space. We found lyrics can be used to discover natural genre clusters. Experiments on a publicly available set of 399 artists showed that determining artist similarity using lyrics is better than random but inferior to a state-of-the-art acoustic similarity technique. However, the approaches made different errors, suggesting they could be profitably combined.

\* Internal Accession Date Only

<sup>1</sup> Andrew Kositsky completed an internship at HP Labs Cambridge as part of the Research Science Institute program: <http://www.cee.org/rsi/index.shtml>

To be published in and presented at the IEEE International Conference on Multimedia and Expo, 27-30 June 2004, Taipei, Taiwan

Approved for External Publication

© Copyright IEEE

# 1 Introduction

The quantity of music available ubiquitously is growing rapidly. There is thus a need for automatic analysis techniques to organize such repositories. Determination of *similarity* between artists and songs is at the core of such algorithms since it provides a scalable way to index and recommend music.

Many automatic techniques to determine song or artist similarity have been proposed. (e.g. see [1] and references). These approaches are based on analysis of either the acoustic information in the audio or on metadata found on the Web or collected from users. Although some success has been achieved, the systems still fall short of users' expectations [1]. In this paper we investigate similarity based on a rich source of metadata: lyrics.

Lyrics have several advantages over other forms of metadata. First, the transcriptions of many popular songs are available online. Thus unlike other forms of metadata such as user preferences, lyrics are easy to collect. Also, they are non-subjective; there is only one 'true' transcription for a song. This is in contrast to more subjective forms of metadata such as expert opinions or MIDI transcriptions. Finally, lyrics provide a much richer description of the song than simple forms of metadata such as the title, artist and year and arguably contain the true 'content' for many songs.

Despite these advantages and their enormous descriptive value, lyrics have received relatively little attention from researchers other than trivially including them as searchable metadata in retrieval systems (e.g. [3]). Scott studied text classification on two tasks containing around 450 folk tunes each but did not compare the results to audio analysis techniques [6]. Brochu and de Freitas developed a framework to jointly model different properties of data and used it to analyze musical scores and associated text annotations, including lyrics, for 100 songs [2]. Although their results are promising the size of their study is too small to draw many conclusions. Additionally, they do not compare their results to audio analysis or investigate very deeply whether the joint model provides more information than one based on just one data source.

In this paper we explore whether the application of text analysis techniques to song lyrics provides meaningful information. Of especial interest is whether such analysis can help determine music similarity and whether it augments other, particularly acoustic, information. We therefore apply a standard semantic text analysis technique to a collection of lyrics to investigate the properties of such data. We explore the use of this analysis to determine artist similarity, comparing the results to a state-of-the-art acoustic similarity technique. For ground truth, we use a large set of user responses collected in a Web survey.

## 2 Semantic Analysis of Lyrics

Text can be semantically analyzed using various methods. One such technique is Probabilistic Latent Semantic Analysis (PLSA) [4]. PLSA is attractive because it handles both the polysemy and synonymy problems. The approach measures the similarity between text documents by converting each to a characteristic vector. Each component of the vector represents the likelihood that the document is about a pre-learned topic. Distance in this vector space reflects likely

semantic closeness. The topics are characterized by the words that appear frequently in them and are learnt during an automatic training process.

### 3 Preliminary Analysis

In this section we describe our experimental database and explore the feasibility of using PLSA to analyze song lyrics.

#### 3.1 Lyrics Database

As we are not aware of any publicly available popular lyrics database we created our own by mining public websites. Specifically, we collected as many lyrics as we could for the 400 artists covered by the *uspop2002* dataset (described in Section 4.1). Most of the data came from *azlyrics.com* but a number of other sites were mined. We collected lyrics for 15,589 songs in total. This represented 399 of the 400 artists in *uspop2002*. The remaining artist, *Kenny G*, is a saxophone player whose songs do not contain lyrics.

#### 3.2 Word Distribution by Genre

Since PLSA models topics using word frequencies, we first study whether the most frequent words in a genre are distinctive. We assign genres to all the artists in the database according to the All Music Guide ([www.allmusic.com](http://www.allmusic.com)) and count the most frequently occurring words for the songs in each genre, ignoring a standard list of stopwords. Table 1 shows these results. We see that although *Rock* and *Country* have similar vocabularies, other genres such as *Newage* and *Rap* are distinctive. We also see that our stopword list would benefit from the addition of ‘lyric-specific’ words such as ‘I’m’ and ‘love’. We shall use this observation later in the paper.

Reggae	Country	Newage	Rap	Rock
girl	love	adis	I’m	I’m
lover	I’m	go	like	love
know	just	say	get	don’t
love	don’t	day	got	know
I’m	know	night	don’t	just
let’s	like	love	n*****	like
mi	got	sky	know	got
shout	time	says	s***	you’re
like	heart	ergo	ain’t	time
gal	go	heart	yo	oh

Table 1: The ten most frequent non-stop words for selected genres. Obscene words have been obscured.

### 3.3 Topic Models

As described in Section 2 and [4], the first step in PLSA is to learn a set of topics from a text corpus. We used two corpora. The first, denoted NYT, contains documents from two and a half years of the New York Times. The second, denoted LYRICS, is our set of lyrics for the 399 artists augmented with other lyrics from `www.azlyrics.com` to bring the total number of songs to 41,460. We expect the topics learnt from the latter set to be more suited for the analysis of lyrics.

Table 2 shows the most frequent words for typical topics learnt from the NYT and LYRICS corpora. We see that PLSA automatically learns prominent topics which are characteristic of the respective data domains. As expected, the NYT models do not contain information that is likely to help differentiate different song or artist styles.

Corpus	Top 5 words for various topics
NYT	united government states china american
	game first team last two
	company business percent companies new
	new people city children dr
	like new ms music film
LYRICS	don't feel hate insid god
	love heart feel god sky
	blue beauti sun oh love
	n**** s**** ya f**** yo
	que var de la y

Table 2: The top 5 words for typical topics learnt from the NYT and stemmed LYRICS data. Obscene words have been obscured.

## 4 Artist Similarity

We now study determining artist similarity using lyrics. Our focus on artist rather than song similarity is driven by the fact that we have a form or ground truth available at the artist level and does not preclude the use of this technique for song-level similarity.

### 4.1 Ground Truth

We score our results against the publicly available *uspop2002* dataset [1]. This set contains acoustic data and semantic metadata for 400 popular artists. These 400 artists are approximately the most popular artists on file sharing and playlist sites in 2002. Consequently, a large proportion of this dataset is from the *Rock* genre (82%), with *Rap* (7%), *Electronica* (4.5%) and *Country* (3.3%) being the other main categories represented.

We use the so-called “survey” data as the ground truth. In the survey, users were shown an artist randomly chosen from the set of 400 and asked to choose the “most similar” artist from

a list of 10 other randomly chosen artists. 10,876 such responses are available in the database (excluding those for *Kenny G*).

We use two figures of merit to evaluate our automatic similarity techniques as described in [1]. The first is so-called Average Response Rank (ARR). This determines the average rank of the artists chosen from the list of 10 presented in the survey according to the our experimental metric. For example, if our metric agrees perfectly with the human subject, then the ranking of the chosen artist will be 1 in every case, while a random ordering of produces an average ranking of 5.5. In practice, the survey subjects did not always agree so the best possible score is 2.13.

The second figure of merit is First Place Agreement (FPA) which simply counts how many times the similarity metric agrees with the user about the first-place or most similar artist chosen from the list. This metric has the advantage that it is possible to derive significance tests for it and hence evaluate whether variations in values correspond to genuine differences in performance.

## 4.2 Acoustic Similarity

An advantage of using the *uspop2002* dataset is that we can compare our results to previously published similarity techniques. We therefore include results for determining artist/song similarity using a state-of-the-art method based on acoustic information [5]. Briefly, this technique first divides the audio for each artist into frames of 25ms and calculates 20 Mel-frequency cepstral features for each frame. The frames are then clustered using K-means to form a representative signature for each artist. Similarity between artists is calculated using the Earth Mover’s Distance between the representative clusters. In this paper, we study a system with 32 clusters per artist.

## 4.3 NYT Topic Models

We now calculate artist similarity based on lyrics. We first train topic models as described Section 3.3 and [4]. We then process the lyrics for each artist using each model to form an  $N$ -dimensional characteristic vector, where each dimension reflects the likelihood of that artist’s songs being about a pre-learned topic. To compare artists, we calculate the L1 distance between each vector. We then automatically simulate the user survey by returning the 10 closest artists for each query artist.

Table 3 shows the ARR and FPA for the *uspop2002* dataset for artist similarity based on lyrics using various topic models trained on the NYT corpus. The dictionary for these models contains 244,303 words which represents the size of the corpus vocabulary ignoring a standard list of stopwords. Also shown in Table 3 are the results for the acoustic technique described above in Section 4.2 and random and optimal results.

From this table we can see that the lyric-based technique, while significantly better than random is significantly worse than the acoustic technique and both fall far short of the optimal result. Since we expect the NYT models to be less than optimal for this task we now turn to the lyric-based models.

Similarity Technique	Number Topics	Result (ARR/FPA)
Lyric	8	5.37/0.13
	16	5.19/0.16
	32	5.43/0.14
Acoustic	-	4.15/0.23
Optimal	-	2.13/0.53
Random	-	5.50/0.11

Table 3: ARR/FPA for artist similarity based on lyrics using various NYT topic models vs acoustic, random and optimal similarity measures. Lower values are better for ARR, higher values are better for FPA.

#### 4.4 Lyric Topic Models

Table 4 shows the ARR and FPA for the *uspop2002* dataset for artist similarity based on lyrics using topic models trained on the LYRICS corpus. Again, we also show results for the acoustic technique and random and optimal results.

Similarity Technique	Number Topics	Stemming	Result (ARR/FPA)
Lyric	8	n	5.05/0.15
	16	n	4.99/0.15
	32	n	4.94/0.16
Lyric	8	y	4.98/0.15
	16	y	5.02/0.14
	32	y	4.91/0.17
Lyric Iterated	8	y	4.82/0.18
	16	y	4.89/0.16
	32	y	4.95/0.17
Acoustic	-	-	4.15/0.23
Optimal	-	-	2.13/0.53
Random	-	-	5.50/0.11

Table 4: ARR/FPA for artist similarity based on lyrics using various LYRIC topic models vs acoustic, random and optimal similarity measures. Lower values are better for ARR, higher values are better for FPA.

The first set of results in this table are for models trained using a dictionary of size 91,259. We see that these results are slightly but not significantly better (at least for FPA) than those obtained for the NYT models.

An obvious refinement to text retrieval algorithms is to use stemming. We therefore preprocessed the LYRICS corpus using Porter stemming and built new topic models. This resulted in a dictionary of size 69,566. We then used these new models to recalculate characteristic vectors

Genre	Total Responses	Both Techniques incorrect	Lyrics correct Acoustic incorrect	Lyrics incorrect Acoustic correct
<i>Rock</i>	9513	6174 (65%)	1220 (13%)	1627 (17%)
<i>Rap</i>	316	176 (57%)	48 (15%)	51 (16%)
<i>Reggae</i>	227	176 (78%)	9 (4%)	39 (17%)
<i>Country</i>	225	127 (56%)	32 (14%)	44 (20%)
<i>Latin</i>	201	74 (37%)	48 (24%)	20 (10%)
<i>Electronica</i>	311	224 (72%)	9 (3%)	72 (23%)

Table 5: Analysis of errors comparing accuracy of top rank returned for lyric and acoustic-based similarity measures. Results shown by genre of the target artist presented to the user taking the survey. Results only shown for prevalent genres.

for each artist and determine artist similarity. The second set of results in Table 4 are for this experiment. We see a small but significant improvement over the non-stemmed results. Finally, we recall our earlier observation that a number of words are common to many songs and should therefore not be included in the topic models since they do not provide any discriminating power. That is, our list of stop words should include additional ‘lyric-specific’ words. To determine these words, we examined the top 1000 words in the 32 topic model built with stemmed data. Any word that occurred in more than half the topics was added to the stop word list, resulting in a reduced dictionary of size 69,303. We then rebuilt the topic models and reran the similarity experiments. The results appear in the third section of Table 4 as “Lyric Iterated”. These results are significantly better than the previous results and the best results obtained using similarly based on lyrics. They are still worse than the baseline acoustic technique however.

## 5 Discussion

Although we have demonstrated that determining similarity based on lyrics is feasible, we have also found that it is less useful than acoustic information. Part of the reason for this is that the ground truth that we are using may bias the results toward acoustic similarity. It is likely that people who took the survey thought about the sound of the music rather than the lyrics of the songs. Perhaps then the type of similarity determined by lyrics is irrelevant. Assuming that the similarity measure we are seeking is closely related to that gathered by the survey, we now investigate whether lyrics bring anything of use.

In Table 5 we show an analysis of the errors in common and unique to the lyric and acoustic similarity distances. The results shown are for the best performing lyric similarity measure. The errors are grouped by genre of the target artist presented to the user taking the survey.

From this table we see that the lyrics similarity technique is intrinsically better at determining similar songs in the *Latin* category and has trouble with *Electronica* and *Reggae*. Conversely the acoustic technique is intrinsically better at *Electronica* and *Country* and poor at *Latin*. This is because *Latin* music is typically not in English. Therefore, users are less likely to mentally group *Latin* songs with say *Rock* songs, even if they are acoustically similar. Conversely, *Electronica* tends to have fewer lyrics than other songs on average so it is no surprise that the acoustic

similarity technique gives superior results for that category. Both techniques have trouble with *Reggae* music.

This analysis indicates that a combination of these measures could result in an improved similarity measure. Determination of an optimal combination strategy is the subject of future work.

## 6 Conclusions

We have explored a technique to automatically analyze song lyrics and determine artist similarity based on this. We evaluated the technique on a publicly available dataset of 399 popular artists, comparing it to an acoustic similarity technique. For ground truth, we used data collected in a user survey. Similarity based on lyrics was found to be better than random but inferior to acoustic similarity, at least for the ground truth used. However, the errors made by each technique were not randomly distributed suggesting that the best technique would be a combination of both.

## References

- [1] A. Berenzweig, B. Logan, D.P.W. Ellis, and B. Whitman. A large-scale evaluation of acoustic and subjective music similarity measures. In *Proceedings International Conference on Music Information Retrieval (ISMIR)*, 2003.
- [2] E. Brochu and N. de Freitas. Name that song!: A probabilistic approach to querying on music and text. In *NIPS: Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2002.
- [3] G. C. S. Frederico. Actos: a peer-t-peer application for the retrieval of encoded music. In *International Conference on Music Application Using XML*, 2002.
- [4] T. Hofmann. Probabilistic latent semantic analysis. In *Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, 1999.
- [5] Beth Logan and Ariel Salomon. A music similarity function based on signal analysis. In *ICME 2001*, Tokyo, Japan, 2001.
- [6] S. Scott and S. Matwin. Text classification using WordNet hypernyms. In *Usage of WordNet in Natural Language Processing Systems*, 1998.