

Evaluation and Recommendation of Pulse and Tempo Annotation in Ethnic Music

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Abstract

Large digital archives of ethnic music require automatic tools to provide musical content descriptions. While various automatic approaches are available, they are to a wide extent developed for Western popular music. This paper aims to analyze how automated tempo estimation approaches perform in the context of Central-African music. To this end we collect human beat annotations for a set of musical fragments, and compare them with automatic beat tracking sequences. We first analyze the tempo estimations derived from annotations and beat tracking results. Then we examine an approach, based on mutual agreement between automatic and human annotations, to automate such analysis, which can serve to detect musical fragments with high tempo ambiguity.

Keywords: Ethnic Music, Beat Estimation, Tempo An-

notation, Tempo Perception, Ambiguity

1 Introduction

In an effort to preserve the musical heritage of various cultures, large audio archives with ethnic music have been created at several places throughout the world¹. With the widespread availability of digital audio technology, many archiving institutions have started to digitize their audio collections to facilitate better preservation and access². Meanwhile, a good number of audio collections have been fully digitized, which enables the next step to make these au-

¹British Library (London), CREM and SDM (Paris), Ethnologisches Museum (Berlin), RMCA (Brussels), Essen Folk-song Collection (Warsaw), GTF (Vienna) and many more

²See Appendix C for a number references to digitization projects.

dio archives more accessible for researchers and general audiences.

Computational Ethnomusicology from this perspective, aims at providing better access to ethnic audio music collections using modern approaches of content-based search and retrieval (Tzanetakis et al., 2007; Cornelis et al., 2010). This research field has its roots in Western Musicology, as well as in Ethnomusicology and Music Information Retrieval. Current computational tools for the content-based analysis of Western musical audio signals are well established and have begun to reach a fair performance level as seen in many applications, publications and the MIREX initiative³. However, for the field of ethnic music, it is still unclear which computational tools for content-based analysis can be applied successfully. Given the diversity and oral character of ethnic music, Computational Ethnomusicology faces many challenges. A major difficulty is concerned with the influence and dominance of Western musical concepts in content-based analysis tools. It is generally believed that the influence of Western concepts may affect the interpretation of the extracted audio features. However, there is little information about the exact nature of this possible contamination. It may be that tools based on low-level acoustical features perform reasonably well, while tools that focus on higher-level musical concepts perform less well. In this context, one could question whether existing beat tracking and tempo extraction tools, typically developed and tested on, mainly, Western music, can be readily applied to African music.

In this paper, we focus on tools for beat tracking and tempo extraction from Central-African music. The overall aim of this study is to see to what extent meaningful results can be expected from the automatic tempo analysis of Central-African music. The research in this paper relies on existing computational tools, and does not aim to introduce novel approaches in beat tracking and tempo estimation. A useful byproduct of this research could be a new way to identify ethnic music with ambiguous tempo

³The Music Information Retrieval Evaluation eXchange (MIREX) is an annual evaluation campaign for Music Information Retrieval (MIR) algorithms. More info about MIREX can be found on <http://www.music-ir.org>

relations and reveal information of a higher metrical hierarchy: from beats to meter.

Our goal is to explore whether a set of 17 automatic beat trackers and tempo estimators (i) can be used as a tool for extracting tempo from Central-African musical audio, (ii) can give insight into the ambiguity of tempo perception, (iii) can detect problematic cases for tempo annotation, and (iv) if it can provide information about a higher metrical level.

In order to be able to evaluate the performance of the beat trackers, we compare them with the performance of 25 professional musicians, who manually annotated the beat for 70 audio fragments. The results of both human and computational annotations are analyzed and compared with each other. The goal is to see how large the variability is in both sets of annotations (automatic and manual) and whether ambiguity in human annotations implies ambiguity in computational annotations, and how well the two match.

The paper is structured as follows; Section 2 presents aspects of tempo in music. Section 3 gives an overview of related literature. Section 4 outlines our methodology and describes the used data collection. Section 5 contains the results of these experiments. Section 6 elaborates on considerations in the field of approaching ethnic music. Section 7 concludes the paper.

2 On the concept of tempo

Willenze (1964) points out the relationship between the measurable, or objective time and the time that is experienced, the subjective time. This reflects the traditional distinction between the theoretical tempo that is implied in a score, and the tempo that comes out of performance. Although the score written by a composer is handled as a primary source, musical notation in the case of transcription is typically considered to be a subjective assessment of the transcriber. Especially in the area of ethnic music this has been mentioned several times, as for example in the work of Brandel (1961).

Subjective assessments of tempo in music are determined by studying synchronization with the pulse.

However, at least in Western music, the pulse often functions within a larger structure that is called the meter. Lerdahl & Jackendoff (1983) speak about strong and weak beats (*instances of a pulse*) and they approach meter as a super structure on top of “*a relatively local phenomenon*”. The perception of pulse and meter is associated with a perceivable regularity that creates expectations in a time span. For this reason, one can tap along with any music that has a regular/repetitive basis. Therefore, meter facilitates the structuring of the beats over time.

Non-Western rhythmical phenomena are different from Western rhythmical phenomena. Ethnomusicologists tend to recognize the concept of pulse that organizes music in time, but they assess the structuring of pulses in a way that is different from the concept of meter. From all their theories and concepts, the idea of the fastest pulse as a basis for understanding aspects of timing seems to be the most fundamental, general, and useful, as it allows the widest variety of interpretations. In this context, Arom (1985) states that African music is not based on bars, which define the meter as in classical music, but on pulsations, a succession of isochronous time units.

Thus, rather than using the concept of meter, the structuring of pulses is based on the concept of sequences, forming the starting point for further analysis of rhythms. The best-known approach is the Time Unit Box System (TUBS) notation, developed by Kubik (1994); Koetting (1970) for annotating West African drums. It is a graphical annotation approach that consists of boxes of equal length put in horizontal sequence. Each box represents an instance of the fastest pulse in a particular musical piece. If an event occurs, the box is marked, if not the box is left empty. TUBS are most useful for showing relationships between layers of complex rhythms. An example of this notation can be found in 8

The approach of rhythmical organization by Kubik (1994); Koetting (1970) is based on three levels. The first level is the elementary pulsation, a framework of fast beats that define the smallest regular units of a performance as a unheard grid in the mind of the performer. The second level is formed by a subjective reference beat. There are no preconceived strong or weak parts of the meter, and the beats are often orga-

nized in a repetitive grid of 3, 4, 6, 8 or 12 units. The point of departure is so ingrained that it needs no special emphasis. For this reason, the first beat is often acoustically veiled or unsounded. For outsiders this can cause a phase shift. On top of these two levels, Kubik adds a third level, which he calls the cycle. A cycle would typically contain 16 to 48 beats. The introduction of numbered cycles (Kubik, 1960) replaced conventional Western time signatures in many transcriptions of African music. The main advantage of conceiving these large cycles is that polymeter structures resolve in it.

Agawu (2003) introduced *topoi*, which are short distinct, memorable rhythmic figures of modest duration that serve as a point of temporal reference. The presence of these repetitive *topoi* shows that there is an underlying pulse. He writes that “*West and Central African dances feature a prominently articulated, recurring rhythmic pattern that serves as an identifying signature*”. Seifert et al. (1995) followed a similar path of the smallest pulse as basis for a theoretical and integrated research strategy for the interpretation of non-Western rhythmical phenomena, based on the TUBS of Kubik and Koetting.

Connected to the idea of the fastest pulse, Jones (1959) was the first to describe the asymmetric structure of the higher rhythmical patterns. A well-known common example of such pattern is the 12-beat pattern that contains a seven and a five stroke component, of which one is prevalent while its complementary pattern is latent, and is tapped as a syncopated pulse. The pattern appears later as an example in Section 5 and is illustrated by Figure 3.

Another prominent rhythmical phenomenon in African music are interlocking patterns. They consist of two or more (rhythmic or melodic) lines that have different starting points, running one smallest beat apart from each other. Kubik suggests that the origin of these interlocking patterns could have initiated from pestle-pounding strokes by two or three women that alternately strike in a mortar. The patterns are fundamental to much African music.

A final remark concerns a call by Agawu (1995) for rebalancing the presumed importance of rhythmical elements in African music over the other musical parameters. Agawu (2003) believes that the rhythmical

elements and their organization in African music are over-conceptualized. In his writings he lists, quotes, and reviews many of the great ethnomusicologists' ideas of the 20th century. Contrary to these ideas, he suggests a more explorative bottom-up approach and he warns ethnomusicologists against the eagerness of constructing African music as essentially different from the West.

This shows that the concepts of pulse, meter, and tempo are still a topic of discussion, and that this discussion should be taken into account when trying to apply computational content-based analysis methods to Central-African music.

3 Literature on Tapping Experiments

Apart from concepts on pulse, meter, sequences, and tempo, it is also of interest to consider experiments on tapping. Experiments on synchronized finger tapping along with beat of the music (Repp, 2006; Large, 2000; Desain & Windsor, 2000; Moelants & McKinney, 2004; Wohlschlagel & Koch, 2000) reveal some interesting aspects that should be taken into account when studying beat and tempo in Central-African Music.

One aspect concerns the range in which musical tempo can be perceived, namely, between 200 to 1500 milliseconds, or 40 to 300 Beats Per Minute (*bpm*) (Pöppel et al., 1978; Moelants & McKinney, 2004). In cases of slower tempi one tends to subdivide, while faster tempi physically cannot be performed. Within that space, Moelants mentions there is a preferred tempo-octave lying between 81 and 162 *bpm*.

It is perhaps superfluous to mention that the regularity of beats is never strictly rigid. In musical performances as well as in human synchronization tapping tasks, minor deviations are present in the signal and data, but these are inherent to musical and to human performance. They do not influence the global tempo, but are characteristics of the microtiming in the music. A related aspect concerns the *negative asynchrony* (Repp, 2006), the phenomenon that subjects tend to tap earlier than the stimulus (typically

between 20 and 60 ms), which shows that subjects perform motor planning, and thus rely on anticipation, during the synchronization task (Dixon, 2002).

Another aspect concerns *tempo octaves*, the phenomenon that subjects tend to synchronize their taps with divisions or multiplications of the main tempo. These tempo octaves are regularly reported and they are the main argument to identify a tempo as being *ambiguous*. Indeed, the human perceivable tempo limitations (40-300 *bpm*) span a large range of tempi, namely, more or less three tempo-octaves. Consequentially, the listener has different possibilities in synchronizing (tapping) with the music. Therefore, ambiguity arises in the tempo annotations of a group of people. These choices are related to personal preference, details in the performance, and temporary mood of the listener (Moelants, 2001). This subjectivity has large consequences in approaching tempo and meter in a scientific study. However, McKinney & Moelants (2006) demonstrate that for pieces with tempi around 120 *bpm*, a large majority of listeners are very likely to perceive this very tempo, whereas faster and slower tempi induce more ambiguity, with responses spread over two tempo-octaves (Moelants & McKinney, 2004). This connects to the *2Hz resonance theory of tempo perception* (Van Noorden & Moelants, 1999), according to which tempo perception and production is closely related to natural movement, with humans functioning as a resonating system with a natural frequency. The preferred tempo is located somewhere between 110 and 130 *bpm*, and therefore creates a region in which music is tapped less ambiguously (Moelants, 2002).

In this perspective, it is possible to distinguish between beat rate and/or tapping rate on the one hand, and the perceived tempo on the other hand (Epstein, 1995). The beat rate is the periodicity which best affords some form of bodily synchronization with the rhythmic stimulus. It may or it may not directly correspond to the perceived tempo, especially when the latter is considered as a number that reflects a rather complex *Gestalt* that comes out of the sum of musical factors, combining the overall sense of a work's themes, rhythms, articulations, breathing, motion, harmonic progressions, tonal movement, and contrapuntal activity. As such, the beat could be different

from the perceived tempo. Early research by Bolton (1894) reported already the *phenomenal grouping* as an aspect of synchronized tapping; when he presented perfectly isochronous and identical stimuli to subjects they spontaneously subdivided, by accentuation, into units of two, three, or four. London (2011) speaks of *hierarchically-nested periodicities* that a rhythmic pattern embodies. The observation of subdivisions and periodicity brings Parncutt (1994) to the question what *phase* listeners tend to synchronise to when listening to music and what cues in the musical structure influence these decisions.

Another aspect concerns the *ambiguity of meter perception* (McKinney & Moelants, 2006). In music theory, the meter of a piece is considered as an unambiguous factor, but some music could be interpreted both with a binary or a ternary metric structure. Handel & Oshinsky (1981) presented a set of polyrhythmic pulses and asked people to synchronize along with them. The general outcome was that 80% of the subjects tapped in synchrony with one of the two pulses, whereas 12% of the subjects tapped the co-occurrence of the two pulses, and 6% tapped every second or third beat. The choice of preferred pulse however was not clear. A conclusion was that subjects tend to follow the fastest of the two pulses that make the polyrhythm when the global tempo is slow, and that subjects tend to follow the slowest pulse in a fast global tempo. When the global tempo is too high, people switch to a lower tempo octave. If the presented polyrhythm consists of different pitch content, the lower pitch element was the preferred frequency. Finally, Handel and Oshinsky concluded that if the tempo of the presented series of beats is very high, the elements are temporally so tightly packed that the pulse becomes part of the musical foreground instead of the pulsation that is part of the musical background. For polyrhythms, this transition point is about $200ms$ or $300bpm$.

The above overview shows that research on synchronized tapping tasks has to take into account several aspects that are likely to be highly relevant in the context of Central-African stimuli where we typically deal with complex polyrhythms.

4 Methodology

4.1 Experiment 1: Human

Procedure: Tap Along

Tempo annotation is the ascription of a general tempo to a musical piece, expressed in beats per minute (*bpm*). Beat synchronisation is the underlying task for the identification of a basic pulse from which the tempo is derived. Subjects were asked to *tap to the most salient beat* of the audio fragments. More information on the stimuli can be found in section 4.1.1. For each tap annotation containing taps at the time instances t_1, \dots, t_N (s), we obtain a set of $N - 1$ inter-tap distances $D = d_1, \dots, d_{N-1}$ (s). Then, a tempo in *bpm* is assigned to the piece by calculating the median of $60/D$.

The experiment was done on a laptop with the subjects listening to the audio fragments on headphones while tapping on the keyboard space bar. Since manual annotation of tempo is an intense and time consuming task, the data was recorded in two sessions with a small pause between the two. Subjects could restart any fragment if they had doubts about their annotation. The number of retries and the tapping data for each retry were recorded together with the final tapping data. All the data was organized and recorded by the software Pure Data. To ensure that the data is gathered correctly a test with a click track was done, with the interval between the clicks being constantly $500ms$. The average tapping interval was $499.36ms$, with a standard deviation of $20ms$. The low standard deviation implies that the measurement system has sufficient granularity for a tapping experiment.

4.1.1 Stimuli: Audio Fragments

The stimuli used in the experiment were 70 sound fragments, each with a length of 20 seconds, selected from the digitized sound archive of the Royal Museum for Central Africa (RCMA), Tervuren, Belgium. The archive of the Department of Ethnomusicology contains at present about 8,000 musical instrument and 50,000 sound recordings, with a total of 3,000 hours of music, most of which are field

recordings made in Central Africa with the oldest recordings dating back to 1910. The archive has been digitized not only to preserve the music but also to make it more accessible (Cornelis et al., 2005). Results of the digitisation project can be found at <http://music.africamuseum.be>. The 70 fragments were chosen from the RMCA archive. It was attempted to cover a wide range of tempi and to include only fragments without tempo changes. The songs contained singing, percussion, and other musical instruments, in soloist or in group performances. This set of 70 stimuli will be referred to as *fragments* in the subsequent sections.

4.1.2 Participants: Musicians

The experiment was carried out by 25 participants. All of them were music students at the University College Ghent - School of Arts (Belgium), who were expected to play, practice, and perform music for several hours a day. The group consisted of 14 men and 11 women, ranging in age from 20 to 34 years.

4.2 Experiment 2: Software

Within the Music Information Retrieval community automated tempo estimation and beat tracking are important research topics. While the goal of the former is usually the estimation of a tempo value in *bpm*, the latter aims at estimating a sequence of time values that coincides with the beat of the music. Beat tracking and tempo estimation are applied in diverse applications, such as score alignment, structure analysis, play-list generation, and cover song identification. This paper however does not compare or evaluate such algorithmic approaches. For these matters, please refer to Gouyon et al. (2006); Zapata & Gómez (2011), and the yearly MIREX competition⁴.

Automatic tempo analysis was done on the stimuli by a set of 17 beat trackers and tempo estimation algorithms (see appendix B). All parameters for each algorithm were left on the default values and no adaption to the stimuli was pursued. Some algorithms only give an ordered list of tempo suggestions (Beatcounter, Mixmeister, Auftakt), here only

the primary tempo annotation was considered. For the beat tracking algorithms, a tempo estimation was derived from the beat sequences in the same way as for the human taps as described in Section 4.1. To be able to compare the results of the automatic tempo analysis with the human annotations, the same stimuli were used as in the first experiment (see Section 4.1).

4.3 Comparison: Measuring beat sequence/annotation agreement

Recently, a method based on mutual agreement measurements of beat sequences was proposed by Holzapfel et al. (2012). This method was applied for the automatic selection of informative examples for beat tracking evaluation. It was shown that the Mean Mutual Agreement (MMA) between beat sequences can serve as a good indicator for the difficulty of a musical fragment for either automatic or human beat annotation. A threshold on MMA could be established above which beat tracking was assumed to be feasible to a subjectively satisfying level. For the beat sequence evaluation in this paper, 5 out of the 17 algorithms were selected (Oliveira et al., 2010; Degara et al., 2011; Ellis, 2007; Dixon, 2007; Klapuri et al., 2006). This selection was made for several reasons. First, some of the 17 approaches are pure tempo estimators that give only tempo values in *bpm*, and not beat sequences. Second, in Holzapfel et al. (2012) it was shown that this selection increases diversity and accuracy of the included beat sequences, and, third, this selection guarantees comparability with results presented in Holzapfel et al. (2012).

Comparing beat sequences is not a straightforward task; two sequences should be considered to agree not only in case of a perfect fit, but also in the presence of deviations that result in perceptually equal acceptable beat annotations. Such deviations include small timing deviations, tempi related by a factor of two, and a phase inversion (off-beat) between two sequences, to name only the most important factors that should not be considered as complete disagreement. Because of the difficulty of assessing agreement between beat sequences, various measures have been proposed that differ widely regarding their character-

⁴<http://www.music-ir.org>

istics (Davies et al., 2009). In this paper we restrict ourselves to two evaluation measures that are suitable for the two tasks at hand, which are spotting complete disagreement between sequences and investigating the types of deviations between sequences.

1. Information Gain (Davies et al., 2011): Local timing deviations between beat sequences are summarized in a beat error histogram. The beat error histogram is characterized by a concentration of magnitudes in one or a few bins if sequences are strongly related, and by a flatter shape if the two sequences are unrelated. The deviation of this histogram from the uniform distribution, the so-called “information gain”, is measured using K-L divergence. The range of values for Information Gain is from 0 bits to 5.3 bits, with the default parameters as proposed in (Davies et al., 2011). This measure punishes completely unrelated sequences with a value of 0 bits, while all sequences with some meaningful relation tend to score higher. Such meaningful relations include a constant beat-relative phase shift, or simple integer relations between the tempi of the sequences. This means that off-beat or octave differences do not lead to a strong decrease in this measure. The maximum score can only be reached when all beats errors between the two sequences fall into the same beat error histogram bin, with the bin width being, for example $12.5ms$ at $120bpm$. MMA measured with this measure will be denoted as MMA_D .
2. F-measure: A beat in one sequence is considered to agree with the second sequence if it falls within a $\pm 70ms$ tolerance window around a beat in the second sequence. Let the two sequences have $|A|$ and $|B|$ beats, respectively. We denote the number of beats in the first sequence that fall into such a window of the second sequence as $|A_{win}|$, and the number of beats in the second sequence that have a beat of the first sequence in their tolerance window as $|B_{win}|$. Note that if several beats of the first sequence fall into one tolerance window, $|A_{win}|$ is only incremented by

one. Then F-measure is calculated as

$$F = \frac{2 * P * R}{P + R} \quad (1)$$

with $P = |A_{win}|/|A|$ and $R = |B_{win}|/|B|$. The F-measure has a range from 0% to 100% and drops to about 66% when two sequences are related by a factor of two, while a value of 0% is usually only observed when two sequences have the exact same period, but a phase offset. Note that two unrelated sequences do not score zero but about 25% (Davies et al., 2009). MMA measured with this measure will be denoted as MMA_F .

We will investigate, how many fragments in the RMCA subset can be successfully processed with automatic beat tracking, and to what extent the human annotations correlate with the estimated beat sequences. For this task MMA_D will be applied, as it was shown in Holzapfel et al. (2012) to reliably spot difficult musical fragments. For the fragments, which were judged to be processable by automatic beat tracking, we will apply MMA_F , as we can differentiate which types of errors occurred for a given fragment. For example, values of 66% are mostly related to octave relations between the compared sequences, and an off-beat relation is in practice the only case which results into a value of 0%.

The MMA values for a fragment will be obtained by computing the mean of the $N(N - 1)/2$ mutual agreements, with $N = 5$ for beat trackers, and $N = 25$ for human annotations. We will differentiate between beat sequences, which are obtained from algorithms (referred to as BT), and tapped annotations from human annotators (referred to as TAP).

5 Results

5.1 Human tempo annotations

In Appendix A we list the tempo annotations for all songs and all annotators. We assigned a general tempo value to each song by choosing the tempo that most people tapped. A tempo was considered similar if it did not deviate by more than $5bpm$ from

Type	#	%	Track ID's
Unanimous tempo	2	2.9%	5, 56
+ Tempo Octaves (no related)	23	32.9%	4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 17, 23, 25, 35, 42, 44, 50, 51, 55, 57, 58, 60, 65, 70
Tempo octaves < Related tempi	19	27.1%	28, 1, 62, 22, 20, 59, 63, 18, 41, 66, 53, 54, 37, 43, 52, 26, 39, 19, 64
Tempo octaves = Related tempi	3	4.3%	29, 34, 45
Tempo octaves > Related tempi	19	27.1%	69, 32, 38, 48, 61, 30, 33, 40, 24, 27, 47, 68, 12, 31, 67, 36, 49, 11, 3
+ Related tempi (no octaves)	2	2.9%	2, 46
No tempo	2	2.9%	16, 21
Total number of records	70		

Table 1: Overview of audio fragments organized by sorts of human assigned tempi.

the assigned tempo. The other tempi were considered in relation to this assigned tempo, and could be divided into tempo octaves (halve, double, triple tempo), related tempi (usually a mathematical relation with the assigned tempi), related octaves (halve, double, triple of the related tempo), unrelated tempi (no relation with the assigned tempo). Also some people tapped annotations of different length creating a pattern as, for example, 2 + 3 in a meter of 5 and 2 + 3 + 3 for some songs in 8, and those were specified as patterns without attempting to derive a tempo value from them.

A first glance at the results, Table 1, shows that 68 songs could be assigned a general tempo, two songs had such wide range of tempi that no general tempo could be assigned. They were both a capella vocal songs, that contained rather recitation than singing. Of the remaining 68 songs, only two songs were labeled unanimously. For 64 songs people tapped tempo octaves, and for 43 songs also related tempi were present. For the songs that had both octaves and related tempi, the distribution was equal: 19 songs had more octaves than related tempi, and 19 songs had more related tempi than octaves. This last group, which formed 27%, can be seen as songs with high ambiguity in tempo perception. These songs contained several instruments that combined polymetric layers. People tended to have distributed preference in following different instruments.

Table 2 lists the distribution of all 1750 annota-

Type	Human (%)	BT (%)
Identical	60%	48%
Octave	17%	18%
Related	9%	19%
Related Tempo Octave	3%	3%
Unrelated	9%	6%
Pattern	2%	0%

Table 2: Distribution of all annotations (1750 human annotations, 1190 BT tempi) over available classes.

tions: 60% correspond to the assigned tempo, 17% correspond to tempo octaves, while only 9% correspond to related tempi. Apparently, in many songs (61%) some people do hear related tempi, but mostly this is a small group of people. But, even after applying a threshold on the minimum number of relation occurrences as in Table 3, 23% of the songs were still tapped in a related tempo by 5 or more persons (from the 25). This shows that related tempi are not coincidental or individual cases, but that a quarter of the audio set had tempo ambiguity, similar to what was derived in the previous paragraph.

The individual differences on the median over the 70 songs was remarkable, with personal medians ranging from 77 up to 133*bpm*. In affirmation with some elements from the literature, there is indeed a large agreement on tempo annotations in the region 120-130*bpm*, namely 83% (10% tapped a tempo oc-

		At least one		More than One		More than Two		More than Five	
Human	Tempo octaves	64	91%	56	80%	44	63%	28	40%
	Related tempo	43	61%	32	46%	25	36%	16	23%
	Related octave	25	36%	13	19%	7	10%	1	1%
	Pattern	37	53%	24	34%	15	21%	10	14%
	Unrelated tempo	19	27%	11	16%	6	9%	2	3%
BT	Identical	64	94%	61	90%	58	85%		
	Octave	52	76%	41	60%	28	41%		
	Related	52	76%	38	56%	28	41%		
	Related Octave	18	26%	9	13%	5	7%		
	Unrelated tempo	31	46%	20	29%	13	19%		

Table 3: Distribution of all annotations over available classes if a threshold is set.

Meter	Identical	Octave	Related
(1)	1 25 58 60	0	0
2	5 20 27 31 34 35 43 44 47 51 53	42 64 70	3
3	2 10 12 26 33 40 45	0	19 29 36 38 59 61
4	4 6 9 13 15 17 18 23 37 50 54 55 56 69	8 14 30 57	24 67
5	22 41 46 49	52	11
6	7 28 32 39 48 66	63	62 65 68

Table 4: BT annotations organized by meter and their classification along the human tempo references.

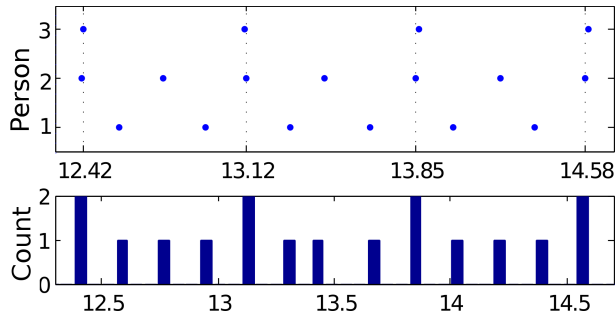


Figure 1: Small fragment (Track 25) of tapped onsets of three persons, one following the tempo octave (tempo halving), and two persons in different phase. Histogram below.

tave, and only 2% tapped a related tempo for this tempo region). 8 of the 10 songs in this tempo region were tapped with a binary meter. In the other tempi regions, ambiguity was much higher, but the set was too small to deduce tendencies. What was noticed is that songs around $90bpm$ received only few tempo octaves, but more related tempi.

When we focus on the properties of individual songs, the pieces with a meter in five deserve special attention. The annotations were very diverse, and can be divided into different groups. Some people tapped exactly on the fastest pulse, while others only tapped each fifth beat of this pulse, creating a tempo range of 5 tempo octaves. Some people tapped every second beat of the fastest pulse level, which implies going “on and off beat” per bar, creating an alternating syncopation. Several people tapped a subdivided pattern of 2 and 3 beats and some people tapped every 2.5 beats, subdividing the meter of five into two equal parts. This diversity reoccurred for each song that had a meter in five.

Agawu mentions that cultural insiders easily identify the pulse. For those who are unfamiliar with such specific culture, and especially if the dance or choreographic movements cannot be observed, it can be difficult to locate the main beat and express it in movement (Agawu, 2003). De Hen (1967) considers that rhythm is an alternation of tension and relaxation. The difference between Western music and African

music, he writes, lies in the opposite way of counting, where Western music counts heavy-light and African music the other way around. The human annotations support these points. Figure 1 zooms in on a tap annotation where persons 1 and 2 tap the same tempo but in a different phase. Figure 2 visualizes a similar example where the binary annotations vary in phase. This specific fragment was very ambiguous—13 persons tapped ternary, 10 binary—what is especially remarkable is that the group of ternary people synchronize in phase, while the binary annotations differ much more. It is clear that the ambiguity is not only between binary and ternary relations, but that there is a phase ambiguity as well. As an explorative case study, a small group was asked to write down the rhythmical percussive ostinato pattern from an audio fragment. The result shown in Figure 3 is striking by its variance. At first sight it seems so incomparable one would even question if they were listening to the same song. To summarize, it appears that people perceive different tempi, different meter, different starting points and assign different accents and durations to the percussive events.

As a final insight, we have transposed the idea of the TUBS notations (Time Unit Box System) to the human annotations (see Section 2). While TUBS is most useful for showing relationships between complex rhythms, it is here used for visualizing the annotation behavior where the place of the marker in the box indicates the exact timing of the tapped event. Hence, it visualizes the human listeners’ synchronization to music. In Figure 4, a fragment of the tapped annotations is given. One sees clearly that there is quite some variance in trying to synchronize with the music, although the global tempo was unambiguous. This variance is mainly caused by the individual listeners tapping stable but in different phases than the others.

5.2 Tempo annotation by Beat Trackers

The tempo annotations of the 17 BT’s are listed in Appendix B; each column containing the tempo estimates of each song.

The reference tempo for evaluating the tempo esti-

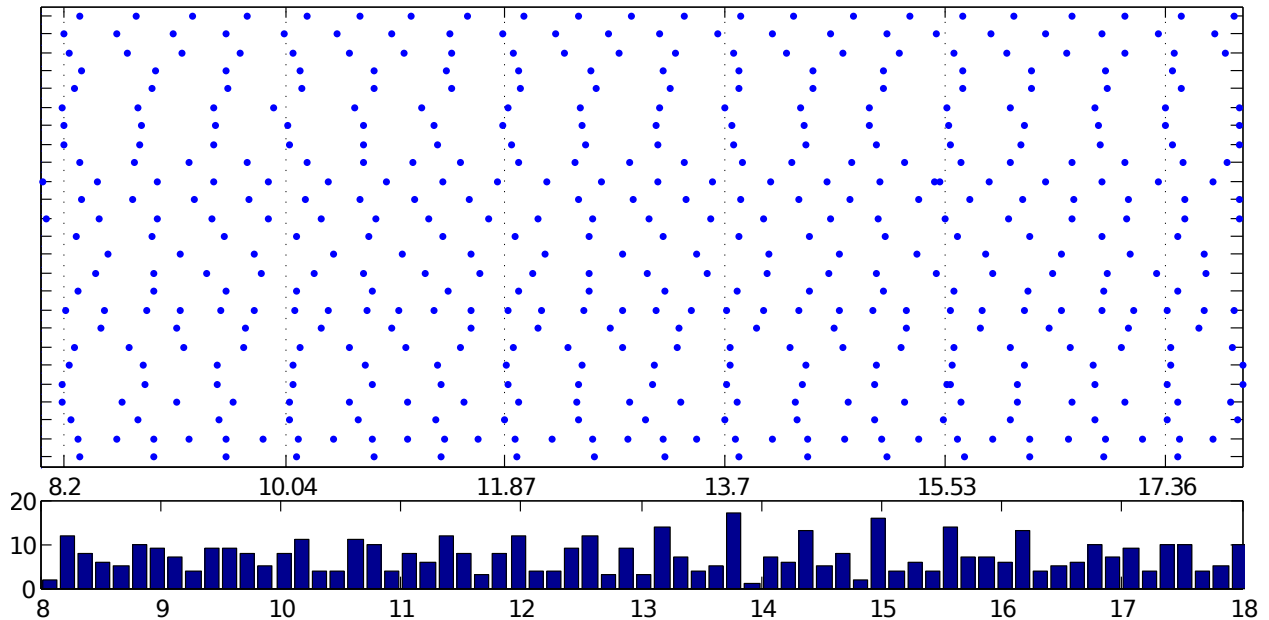


Figure 2: Fragment of track 61, where the group is divided in binary and ternary tapping. Two people follow the smallest pulse (tempo doubling). Time indications were manually added to mark the bars. The histogram shows this polymetric presence.

mations was the tempo that most people tapped (see Appendix A). As with the analysis of the human annotations, the other categories were: tempo octaves, related tempo, related tempo octaves and unrelated tempi. The category of patterns was left out, as beat tracking algorithms are designed to produce a regular pulse.

In most cases the majority of the 17 beat trackers did match the tempo assigned by humans, namely for 46 fragments (67.6%), listed in Table 4. For nine songs the tempo octave was preferred by the beat trackers, in most instances (seven), they suggested the double tempo. For the remaining 13 songs, the beat trackers preferred the related tempo above the assigned tempo, 10 times they preferred the binary pulse for the ternary pulse tapped by humans, and only two times the ternary for the binary. One instance concerned a meter of five where the tempo estimation of the BT split up the meter in 2.5. Looking at Table 3, the assigned tempo was detected by at least one BT in 64 songs (94%), and by three of

the five BT still in 58 songs (85%).

Table 2 contains the distribution of the 1190 annotations which are comparable to the overall human annotations. At 48%, there is a slight decrease in identical tempo annotations, while the category of the related tempi increases up to 19%.

We can conclude that the beat trackers give a reliable result: two thirds of the tempi were analyzed identically to the human annotations. For the other songs the majority of the BT's suggested a tempo octave or a related tempo. In songs with higher ambiguity (where people assigned several tempi), it appears that the BT's tend to prefer binary meter over ternary, and higher tempi over slower. The preference for higher tempo is also reflected in the medians for each beattracker over the 70 songs, with a range of 109-141*bpm*, and one outlier of 191*bpm*, higher than the human medians mentioned in Section 5.1.

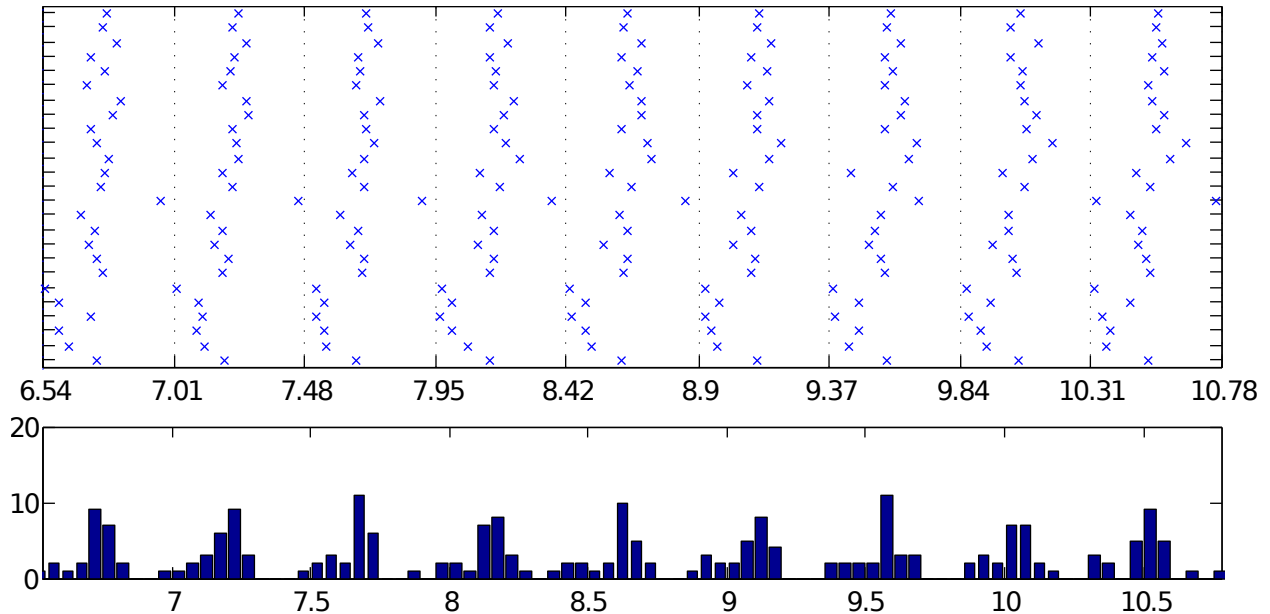


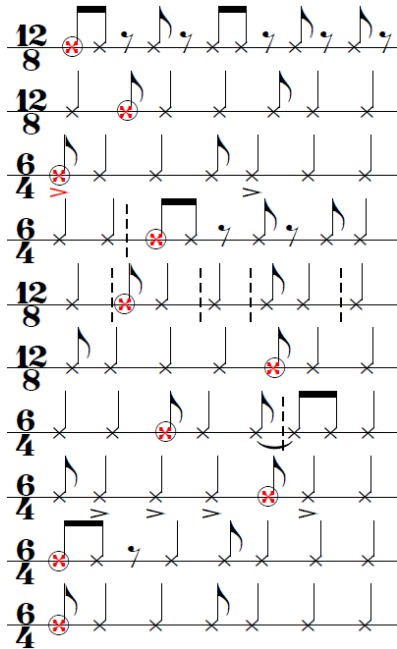
Figure 4: Fragment of track 56 where each box represents one beat, as in a TUBS representation. The unanimously assigned tempo however conceals large time differences in human onsets. The dotted lines are manually added as a reference.

5.3 Human annotations versus Beat Trackers

As a first step we determined all mutual agreements between the 5 beat trackers that are contained in our committee, using the Information Gain measure (see Section 4.3). In Figure 5 the histograms of these mutual agreements for all musical fragments in RMCA subset are shown, where the histograms are sorted by their MMA_D value. It can be observed that there is an almost linear transition from histograms with concentration at low agreement values to histograms with very high agreements on the right side of Figure 5. The vertical red line marks the threshold for perceptually satisfying beat sequences ($MMA=1.5\text{bits}$), which was established in listening tests (Zapata et al., 2012). Out of the 70 fragments in the dataset 57 lie on the right side of this threshold, which implies that for 81% of this data at least one of the five beat sequences can be considered as perceptually acceptable. This percentage is higher

than the one reported for a dataset of Western music (73%, Zapata et al. (2012)). In the previous Section we showed that 59 songs have either correct or half/double tempo. That proportion is quite close to the 81% we measure here.

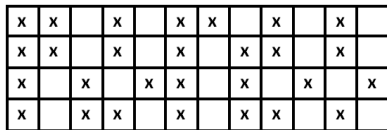
We will show the difference between songs having beat sequences with low MMA and those having a high MMA between their sequences using two examples. One example was taken from the left side of the red line in Figure 5 and the other from the right side of it. An excerpt of the beat sequences for the low- MMA_D song is shown in Figure 6. It is apparent that the beat sequences are largely unrelated, both in terms of tempo as well as in terms of phase alignment. On the other hand, in Figure 7 the song with high MMA_D has beat sequences that are more strongly related. Their phase is well aligned, however, there are octave relationships between the tempi of the beat sequences. This can also be seen from the TUBS representation, which is less randomly distributed than for the low- MMA_D song depicted in Figure 6. This



(a) Different transcriptions of the same rhythmic pattern derived from listening to a song (in case MR.1973.9.19-2A) by 10 people. The circled note indicates same place in the shifted pattern.



(b) Number of transcriptions at different starting points in the pattern.



(c) TUBS notation of the general pattern with 4 different starting points.

Figure 3: Different transcriptions the wide-spread asymmetrical 12-pulses ostinato rythmical pattern / timeline.

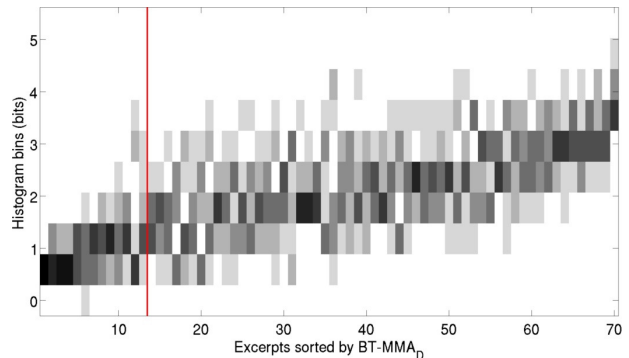


Figure 5: Each column of the image depicts a histogram obtained from $5 * 4/2$ mutual agreements of the 5 beat sequences for each song in the RMCA subset. The histograms are sorted by their mean values (BT-MMA). Dark colors indicate high histogram values. The dotted red line marks the threshold above which a perceptually satisfying beat estimation can be performed.

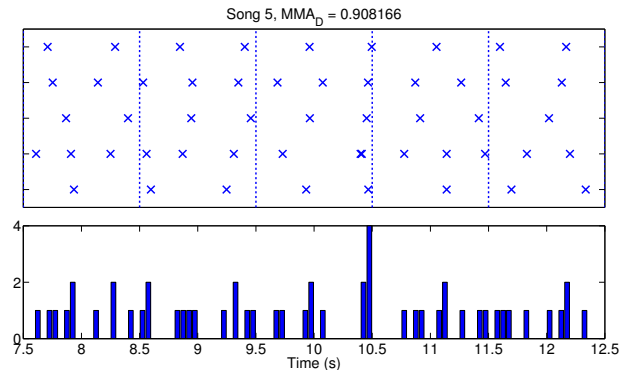


Figure 6: Beat sequences of the 5 beat trackers in the committee for a song with low MMA_D .

clarifies that by calculating the MMA_D we can obtain an estimation about the agreement between beat sequences or annotations without the necessity of a time consuming manual analysis.

When directing our attention towards the human annotations, we obtain an unexpected result. In Figure 8 it can be seen that from low agreement among beat sequences follows low agreement among human annotations, which can be seen by the population of the lower-left rectangle formed by the 1.5-

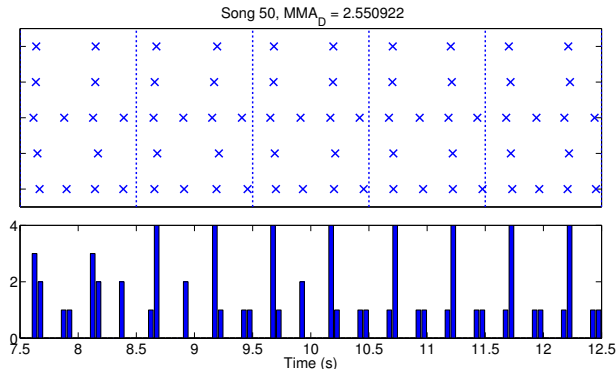


Figure 7: Beat sequences of the 5 beat trackers in the committee for a song with high MMA_D .

bit threshold lines. However, high agreement among beat trackers does not imply high agreement among human tappers; a significant amount of fragments with a BT- MMA_D above the threshold has quite low TAP- MMA_D values (lower-right rectangle). This is quite different from the result for Western music presented in Holzzapfel et al. (2012), where this quadrant was not populated at all, indicating that good beat tracker performance always implied high agreement among human tappers. Inspection of the human annotations related to the fragments in the lower-right quadrant revealed that they are indeed characterized by a large variability for each fragment. The audio for these fragments appears to have several polyrhythmic layers, almost independent polyphony, often with flute, rattle, singing, and dense percussion. Several fragments in the lower quadrants contained rattles, which have an unclear attack, resulting in poorly aligned tapped sequences.

From the 12 fragments in the lower-left quadrant only one had a binary meter while six of them were ternary. Two were in five and three were undefined. From the 11 fragments in the lower-right quadrant, the meters were equally distributed, but for this selection the average tempo stands out with $140bpm$, whereas it was $102bpm$ for the lower-left quadrant and $109bpm$ for the upper quadrants. The BT tempi follow the same tendency, but less distinct. The upper quadrants had an average of 17 persons tapping

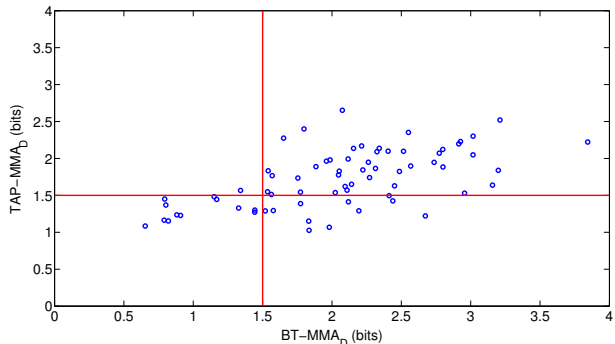


Figure 8: Scatter plot of the MMA_D values obtained from human tappings and the beat tracking algorithms. Red lines indicate the $1.5bit$ -threshold.

the same tempo, while the lower quadrants 12. When we add the number of the retries of the human annotations, which can indicate the more difficult files since people were in doubt with their first annotation, we see a very large portion of the retries appearing in the lower-left quadrant. For the lower-right quadrant, some fragments barely had any retries while others had many. There was no relation between meter and retries, except for the meter in five which apparently needed one or more retries from most people.

As we can now determine for which fragments some meaningful relation can be found in a set of beat sequences or annotations by using MMA_D , we now go one step further and explore which kind of tempo relations might be encountered between these sequences, and if there are off-beat relationships. For example, in Figure 7 we saw a set of beat sequences that are well aligned in phase, but were characterized by octave relationships. To this end we will analyse the MMA_F , which results in characteristic values in presence of specific tempo and phase relations, as explained in Section 4.3. For the 57 fragments above the MMA_D threshold in Figure 5 we depict the MA histograms obtained using the F-measure in Figure 9, sorted again by MMA_D . Hence, this plot represents the BT-mutual agreement histograms of the same fragments as on the right side of the red line in Figure 5, but the histograms are computed using the F-measure. The curve on the right side of

the histograms depicts the sum of each bin over all 57 fragments. We can see that the largest amount of sequences agree perfectly (100%). The peak close to 66% is mainly caused by sequences that are well aligned but have tempo relations of factor two. High values in the histogram at zero help identifying sets of sequences with identical tempi, but off-beat relations. Our example shown in Figure 7 which contained octave errors finds itself in column 42 of the image in Figure 9. It has a large peak in the bin related to 66% which can be seen by the black spot in that area. Hence, by observing the shape of a histogram (*i.e.* a single column in Figure 9), we can obtain valuable insight into what relations exist between an arbitrary set of beat sequences or annotations. While tempo relations between regular sequences can easily be obtained by determining the relations between their average inter beat distances, this says nothing about the accuracy of their alignment in phase. Thus, examining the existence of peaks in the F-measure MA histograms can give a better understanding about this alignment. Furthermore, these histograms have the property that they give an even more accurate representation when the number of compared sequences is high. This is quite helpful, as for a large number of sequences manual analysis gets more and more difficult. While we showed example sequences for beat tracking algorithm outputs, such insight can also be obtained for human annotations.

6 MIR and ethnic music discussion

6.1 Awareness on possible biased approaches

Most music software applications, interfaces, and underlying databases are optimised for descriptions related to Western popular music. A common practise of such music information retrieval software is to take the musical characteristics and semantic descriptions of Western music as a standard, and to develop tools that are based upon a series of Western cultural concepts and assumptions. These assumptions apply to structural aspects (e.g. tonality, assumption

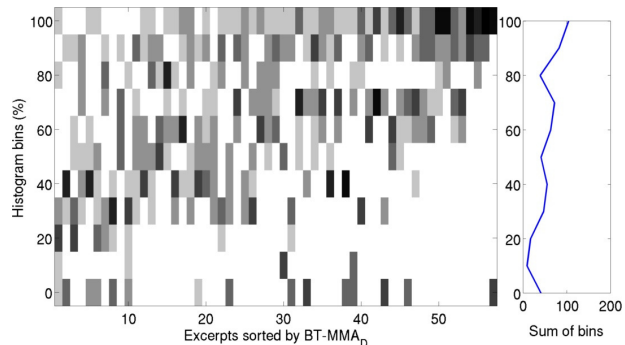


Figure 9: Each column of the image depicts a histogram obtained from $5 * 4/2$ mutual agreements of the 5 beat sequences for each song in the RMCA audio subset, measured with the F-measure. The histograms are sorted by the $BT-MMA_D$. Dark colors indicate high histogram values. On the right we see the result of summing up each bin over all histograms.

of octave equivalence, instrumentation), social organization of the music (e.g. composers, performers, audience) and technical aspects (e.g. record company, release date). For non-Western music however, there is no guarantee that these concepts can be easily applied (Tzanetakis et al., 2007). On the contrary, imposing Western concepts onto non-Western music can lead to incorrect or incomplete information. The predominant focus on the composer and performer illustrates this typically Western approach, whereas in non-Western music this information is often unknown or even irrelevant. In turn, non-Western music often has a very specific function, such as working song, rowing, hunting, which is a unfamiliar concept for Western music. There is, however, a need for reorienting methodologies since over the last decade several national and European projects were launched which aim at digitization of musical libraries, with at least a part of ethnic music. See Appendix C for a limited list of such as projects.

On the other hand, as can be seen in the results of this research, the beat tracking software does perform well, even without any specific fine-tuning towards the set of Central-African music. The paradigm of focusing on the smallest pulse, as some ethnomusicologists suggest, is an effective starting point which

the beat trackers are capable of.

6.2 Transcription

A general concern is the indirect relation between the sounding music, its written representation, and the musical intentions of the composer/performer as described by Leman (2007). This relationship is even weaker in the context of ethnic music. Any musical performance is an intense and individual interpretation of its performers' knowledge and history. The ethnomusicologist who listens to this musicalized language faces an immense challenge if he wants to (re)produce scores starting from the audio as it is heard.

In such tasks, transcription has since long been the first step before studying an oral culture. Often a transcription relies on Western notation, sometimes specially invented symbols are added, and some others prefer to use graphical visualization of the audio. More about the complexities of transcriptions can be found in Nettl (1983), two chapters by Ter Ellingson in Myers (1993) and the chapter *Notation and Oral Tradition* by Shelemay (2008).

As a final note, we identify some polarizing issues: Namely the descriptive notation, a meticulously detailed notation that tries to capture every aspect of the audio but makes it hard to read or even understand, versus the prescriptive transcription that merely consists of the information needed by the insider (Nettl, 1983). And secondly, in the context of African music which is of very repetitive nature, one can ask if a full transcription is needed, or that it is allowed to summarize the song to its essential components by filtering out small variations (Wade, 2009).

With the aim of developing automated tools for transcription, one must be aware of all these elements. They set out rules that should not be seen as a additional difficulties, rather they should be seen as guidelines which a multidisciplinary approach of musicology, ethnomusicology and computer engineering should follow.

7 Conclusions & Future work

This paper presents the preliminary research on the development of a computational approach for analyzing temporal elements in ethnic music. For a good understanding of tempo in ethnic music, a case study with Central-African music was conducted. Both human annotations, and the output of a set of beat trackers were compared to discover insights in the tempo estimations results, in the computational potential, and in some perceptual phenomena themselves. Tempo is based on the regular and repetitive pulse of music, and will form a basis for any further analysis, annotation and transcription. The experiment showed the ambiguity in perception of tempo and meter, both for humans and for beat trackers. The beat trackers obtained comparable results with the human annotations, with a slight tendency to prefer binary pulsation in ambiguous situations and to prefer a higher tempi octave. We also found a notable ambiguity in phase indication.

Gathering multiple beat trackers entails some advantages: if their results are combined, they appear to detect temporal ambiguity in songs where humans showed a similar perception. Detecting such information is important for the user, as it is, after all, our intention to create a realistic analysis platform where the user makes the final decision on any annotation or transcription. The software only makes suggestions that can be followed, adapted or ignored. Another interesting advantage is that the combination of the several tempo estimations does tell us something about the temporal organisation behind the pulsation: combining the group of tempo estimations can give suggestions about the metrical organization of the piece.

The given hypotheses can be affirmed by this research: i) a set of BT can be used as a reliable method for tempo extraction in Central-African music with results comparable with human annotations, ii) the set of BT gives similar insights into the ambiguity of tempo perception as in human tempo perception, and iii) the set of BT does mostly detect problematic cases for tempo annotation. The fourth hypothesis seems promising namely that the combined results of the set of BT can provide information of a higher

metrical level, but this has not been investigated further in a computational way.

It is the intention to add the proposed approach into the existing software package Tarsos (Six & Cornelis, 2011), which currently is focused on analysis of pitch organization in ethnic music.

8 Acknowledgments

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Finally we would like to thank José R. Zapata for his support in running beat tracking algorithms.

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A Human Annotations

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16	T17	T18	T19	T20	T21	T22	T23	T24	T25	T26	T27	T28	T29	T30	T31	T32	T33	T34	T35	
1	112	83	105	59	119	129	75	83	94	66	38	114	72	81	120	103	101	58	65	111	104	75	69	77	83	61	65	93	38	95	72	72	67	98	128	
2	54	27	52	117	122	167	150	81	47	133	83	38	144	80	60	49	195	66	85	109	49	117	71	51	83	0	258	55	114	63	105	252	92	102	63	
3	119	81	79	118	122	129	150	161	95	133	81	117	146	79	120	88	101	103	133	109	112	117	140	103	158	60	128	94	105	185	144	140	90	98	126	
4	112	66	52	117	120	65	150	80	94	66	40	115	72	80	120	54	100	108	67	110	105	74	70	152	162	122	122	199	92	115	62	145	140	45	50	126
5	114	81	52	59	122	128	152	81	95	66	103	58	146	40	120	57	100	49	65	109	54	150	71	51	167	120	129	57	57	63	144	96	45	50	63	
6	109	111	52	117	121	129	150	83	94	133	79	115	145	80	120	110	101	148	133	109	128	150	34	100	333	60	129	67	115	63	144	0	46	125	126	
7	126	145	52	58	130	129	150	167	96	133	134	115	145	80	120	110	101	148	133	109	128	150	34	100	333	60	129	92	117	175	94	93	46	125	252	
8	108	81	108	58	123	128	150	165	94	133	77	115	146	80	120	92	101	123	66	109	88	76	70	150	90	75	0	77	112	63	95	94	67	99	128	
9	109	136	105	117	122	131	75	83	95	66	77	77	146	80	120	114	127	150	65	73	110	120	70	51	83	121	129	112	114	63	47	94	45	100	63	
10	62	123	53	117	126	129	150	82	94	67	99	114	146	80	120	110	108	110	144	65	157	135	60	142	153	83	120	128	55	105	142	145	141	45	102	126
11	74	56	52	117	125	128	150	83	95	134	80	115	146	40	120	59	102	75	43	109	63	59	79	51	165	64	131	55	38	63	75	46	45	109	125	
12	77	109	157	58	123	129	150	83	94	133	112	76	146	80	120	74	102	75	130	111	57	150	71	101	83	121	80	114	225	64	96	94	134	150	128	
13	115	111	105	59	120	129	75	83	95	133	80	115	146	80	120	126	102	126	102	65	109	91	150	144	154	167	60	87	109	114	95	96	94	136	99	128
14	103	82	103	59	125	128	77	83	95	133	97	114	144	80	120	96	101	110	66	109	93	60	144	150	167	120	128	105	111	62	144	70	46	97	126	
15	114	111	157	117	125	129	152	83	94	133	98	117	146	80	120	108	207	148	133	111	122	150	143	152	167	122	85	111	116	128	144	142	136	125	128	
16	111	82	103	58	117	131	150	82	95	132	80	115	72	80	120	88	101	99	66	110	43	74	140	77	83	60	131	77	112	63	72	120	98	100	63	
17	117	119	103	115	125	128	152	167	95	133	78	116	146	161	120	154	102	108	130	109	123	150	140	102	167	120	129	74	115	64	144	95	136	100	126	
18	111	56	117	59	122	131	75	167	95	66	94	116	144	80	120	111	215	74	84	59	91	140	71	52	167	121	87	69	115	63	98	94	86	102	126	
19	56	83	157	58	122	132	154	83	94	131	79	114	146	159	120	99	99	114	65	109	61	122	120	146	167	62	131	112	110	190	144	96	95	98	127	
20	124	133	157	119	124	128	150	164	94	133	154	116	147	159	120	130	101	146	0	109	73	150	144	157	166	120	130	114	116	64	144	142	134	101	126	
21	95	83	157	59	123	129	75	83	94	66	99	116	146	80	122	122	104	144	65	109	135	74	71	148	85	120	128	128	114	63	72	71	136	99	126	
22	220	134	153	116	126	129	150	83	94	133	92	114	146	80	120	59	101	207	133	109	99	149	70	102	169	63	86	84	77	63	144	94	136	191	125	
23	118	83	105	123	123	128	154	82	95	134	98	116	146	81	122	68	100	129	131	109	112	146	140	101	148	125	131	120	114	96	144	140	136	126	126	
24	117	81	157	59	123	128	150	164	95	134	154	115	146	81	120	97	103	107	134	109	101	283	144	139	164	121	129	81	117	97	142	94	140	98	128	
25	120	111	157	119	122	128	150	162	94	133	80	116	143	162	125	92	101	92	131	108	102	152	140	150	165	61	129	87	112	105	144	136	106	287		
tempo	114	82	105	117	123	129	150	83	95	133	79	115	146	80	120	?	101	148	65	109	?	150	142	150	167	121	129	112	114	63	144	94	136	99	126	
identical	15	10	8	13	25	23	19	17	24	18	8	21	22	19	23		19	8	11	21		11	12	11	14	14	16	6	18	15	14	10	9	13	19	
octave	3		7	12		1	6	8	1		4	1	3	6	2		2	3	10	2		5	11	2	8	9	2	4	2	1	3	1	2	4	5	
related	2	6	8								5	2						1	1	1	3	6		6		1	5	3	2	4	5	6	8	4		
rel oct	3	1									1							1	1	1		3		5												
unrelated	5	6									2					25	2	12			1		3													
pattern	1										6						2		2			3	1													
meter	1	3	2	4	2	4	6	4	4	3	5	3	4	4	4	4	u	4	4	3	2	u	5	4	3	u	3	2	6	3	4	2	6	3	2	2
2nd-meter	4		3								2										3			2			3		6	3	3	4	3	4		

Table 5: Human tempo annotations on a set of seventy sound fragments.

	T36	T37	T38	T39	T40	T41	T42	T43	T44	T45	T46	T47	T48	T49	T50	T51	T52	T53	T54	T55	T56	T57	T58	T59	T60	T61	T62	T63	T64	T65	T66	T67	T68	T69	T70	
1	70	75	105	72	93	70	82	91	63	78	122	73	94	44	59	57	81	91	59	65	125	58	80	57	62	98	69	59	90	93	109	86	39	70	41	
2	92	35	69	71	60	115	41	46	63	80	103	74	94	88	117	114	41	92	59	65	125	58	81	59	122	96	118	59	91	93	54	154	79	92	41	
3	136	139	96	72	101	142	162	92	128	157	122	108	94	131	117	115	164	92	117	128	128	58	162	57	121	133	131	88	90	92	108	159	79	92	41	
4	136	52	104	72	49	69	81	90	128	70	122	51	94	37	59	57	81	91	119	128	128	59	159	74	122	98	67	59	180	92	109	150	60	140	41	
5	140	140	70	144	94	70	81	45	128	159	87	107	95	28	117	58	83	181	59	131	125	58	163	58	123	131	133	61	180	92	109	103	70	140	41	
6	138	140	140	146	32	140	163	183	147	161	120	150	142	102	118	115	81	181	119	128	128	58	164	22	122	199	136	60	178	186	220	154	117	140	41	
7	138	145	215	144	115	140	164	181	149	154	119	167	97	111	117	117	99	185	128	129	131	116	162	78	125	129	133	59	181	136	111	211	79	94	42	
8	94	140	71	73	62	78	81	88	126	79	120	108	92	44	117	114	81	92	91	65	128	58	162	62	122	98	128	102	181	92	109	154	79	120	42	
9	140	140	70	48	62	70	82	91	129	80	120	162	142	44	117	57	55	92	60	128	126	57	164	79	122	131	136	59	90	92	109	154	39	138	42	
10	136	140	123	73	65	150	164	91	128	100	120	152	94	127	117	115	82	95	117	131	126	114	162	61	61	99	136	59	181	94	109	34	240	92	43	
11	69	34	104	72	47	46	81	89	63	162	121	108	47	88	117	58	80	181	59	128	128	58	162	61	122	132	40	59	136	115	110	77	117	140	43	
12	92	138	70	145	95	70	81	91	126	150	122	109	96	117	117	114	81	188	117	128	125	58	82	62	122	98	138	177	91	188	108	207	117	92	82	
13	138	140	104	146	63	109	162	92	125	162	122	109	96	88	119	115	82	185	118	128	125	58	164	58	123	195	136	118	181	92	108	103	79	93	82	
14	138	69	104	73	91	49	82	90	126	109	120	109	116	107	119	114	64	162	117	130	125	57	154	45	122	98	94	59	178	91	107	154	78	140	82	
15	139	138	104	146	94	141	81	90	128	148	120	107	144	111	117	115	167	181	117	129	128	115	164	114	123	131	134	117	181	125	108	152	79	92	83	
16	140	69	69	72	63	73	82	91	61	104	120	109	92	111	59	108	82	91	122	128	125	59	150	57	122	98	136	89	178	80	110	76	59	92	86	
17	136	136	140	146	128	136	164	91	126	159	120	108	94	109	117	115	81	93	117	128	126	115	162	114	122	133	95	175	91	188	109	104	79	92	124	
18	136	142	103	146	62	112	82	60	125	161	120	215	94	91	117	57	82	93	119	128	126	114	163	123	125	129	69	59	91	185	70	203	78	138	125	
19	138	139	139	146	124	141	162	181	128	149	120	108	140	215	120	115	82	136	117	128	125	112	164	128	125	100	134	180	181	186	109	116	117	140	125	
20	137	140	105	146	100	140	164	181	128	211	120	162	95	178	117	117	164	185	122	131	125	116	162	133	123	98	136	177	181	185	215	157	77	185	125	
21	136	69	104	144	54	133	81	91	65	162	120	109	95	123	119	115	82	92	120	128	127	57	159	117	61	98	129	88	91	93	108	103	117	71	126	
22	136	100	104	144	61	117	162	91	125	162	80	162	92	97	117	116	81	92	125	131	125	58	167	78	122	99	97	178	181	188	109	191	77	93	126	
23	138	140	103	145	101	139	82	91	126	107	120	108	94	110	119	117	82	136	112	131	125	116	151	81	125	131	140	88	91	92	107	138	119	140	126	
24	136	140	103	145	99	153	162	90	128	106	120	109	93	118	118	172	167	175	117	129	125	59	162	129	124	131	117	178	181	91	109	101	117	140	136	
25	139	140	104	142	101	98	81	90	140	95	138	109	140	117	120	116	162	193	114	131	129	56	101	128	125	102	136	59	89	91	105	92	80	94	141	
tempo	138	140	104	145	99	140	81	91	127	161	120	108	94	111	117	114	82	92	117	129	126	58	162	59	123	98	136	59	180	92	109	154	79	92	42	
identical	20	17	13	15	9	8	15	18	18	9	21	15	18	8	22	17	16	12	17	22	25	17	18	10	22	13	16	12	14	14	21	9	13	11	11	
octave	2	6	1	9	2	6	10	6	5	4	2	2	1	2	3	6	6	8	5	3		8	3	8	3	2	3	8	10	6	3	3	3	1	11	
related	3	1	6	1	8	2	1			4	2	5	5	3	1	2	1	2	1							10	2	4	1							
rel oct	1	4		3	1		1			1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1					2														
unrelated			1		3	5			2	7	1	1	1	5		1	1	3	2			4	1													
pattern						3					1	1	1	6																						
meter	3	4	3	6	3	5	2	2	2	3	5	2	6	5	4	2	5	2	4	4	4	4	1	3	1	3	6	6	2	6	6	4	6	4	2	
2 nd -meter	4				2					4	4	4	3	2				3	3									2								

Table 6: Human tempo annotations on a set of seventy sound fragments. Continued.

B Beat Tracker Annotations

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16	T17	T18	T19	T20	T21	T22	T23	T24	T25	T26	T27	T28	T29	T30	T31	T32	T33	T34	T35	
IBT*	215	82	52	116	98	258	75	167	96	66	99	115	73	161	120	235	207	75	65	215	152	152	52	102	167	87	258	92	126	144	94	136	99	63		
Andreschub	118	164	156	117	102	129	149	164	95	132	79	115	145	161	120	80	101	76	65	109	139	120	141	102	83	121	120	167	114	126	143	93	136	100	126	
beatCounter106	58	202	78	89	185	63	75	165	96	177	136	115	108	160	240	51	101	90	54	218	89	60	166	51	83	121	160	56	230	95	143	93	68	99	126	
Böck	200	176	157	115	125	240	150	166	95	133	68	230	72	162	120	146	200	222	86	109	230	153	69	101	176	122	130	133	230	137	95	93	136	100	125	
Stark/Davies	117	81	156	119	104	129	150	83	95	132	106	70	144	102	120	101	101	141	89	110	94	160	132	101	166	78	129	113	136	135	95	93	97	126		
LeSp	112	81	157	117	126	129	150	83	95	133	99	115	146	80	120	109	101	148	87	109	115	120	94	102	83	122	129	112	113	126	95	93	97	126		
LSF	75	80	78	117	124	129	75	105	95	132	99	115	145	100	120	143	203	213	129	217	197	60	140	101	176	120	129	144	230	127	143	94	136	99	126	
antIAKT	112	80	78	118	124	130	75	83	94	66	98	116	110	100	90	70	88	136	88	109	165	90	141	153	83	121	128	112	116	128	142	94	58	102	127	
Ellis	116	111	155	118	125	128	148	111	96	131	100	115	144	108	120	93	135	140	128	109	129	153	147	100	161	121	128	136	157	128	96	94	137	100	126	
MixMeister	112	134	156	93	95	128	149	82	94	135	100	123	144	160	120	128	101	97	117	130	108	145	150	141	99	95	120	128	104	96	125	99	94	137	100	126
Aubio	120	108	161	128	126	129	150	83	95	127	131	115	145	115	120	128	101	141	88	109	88	60	127	102	169	121	128	128	154	127	143	94	135	130	125	
BRule	80	167	137	116	121	86	150	165	95	133	78	115	144	160	178	122	101	128	130	109	111	150	105	152	66	120	86	165	114	94	143	170	136	100	126	
Ellis*	231	188	156	117	123	259	150	326	95	133	99	231	146	319	119	92	203	142	259	217	300	153	97	152	167	120	129	112	752	226	283	94	136	206	250	
Beatroot*	126	183	154	185	171	129	150	164	94	133	194	113	146	160	120	150	80	150	130	109	182	150	141	103	167	121	130	113	157	128	146	94	136	100	125	
MIRtoolbox	115	161	156	186	63	128	149	110	124	128	95	116	144	161	120	55	58	89	88	109	148	60	56	100	168	122	86	95	157	126	96	94	137	100	126	
Sonic Annotator	66	83	52	117	107	132	152	83	96	136	105	117	148	81	123	129	58	76	88	110	103	60	144	103	167	123	132	89	157	129	97	96	136	99	129	
Tempo (human)	114	82	105	117	123	129	150	83	95	133	79	115	146	80	120	7	150	142	150	107	7	150	142	150	167	121	120	112	114	63	144	94	136	99	126	
BT = Human	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Identical	7	7	0	12	8	12	13	7	16	14	2	13	13	2	14	6	6	7	2	13	7	7	8	3	9	14	12	5	4	0	8	16	11	14	15	
octave	2	3	2	1	3	4	8	2	2	2	11	1	2	11	1	1	4	3	6	4	1	2	1	4	1	4	2	2	3	15	1	1	1	1	2	
related	1	2	12	2	7	1	2	1	1	1	11	1	2	3	1	6	3	13	2	8	2	6	3	13	2	2	2	3	7	2	8	1	4	1	1	
rel. oct	3	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
unrelated	7	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	5	1	1	4	5	4	4	4	1	7	3	1	1	2	1	2		

Table 7: Tempo from a set of beat tracker and tempo estimation tools, * by Zapata.

C List of Digitization Efforts

Acronym	Name	Coordinator	URL
DEKKMMA	Digitization of the Ethnomusicological Sound Archive of the Royal Museum for Central Africa	IPEM, Gent University	http://music.africamuseum.be
DELOS	Network of Excellence on Digital Libraries	Association	http://www.delos.info
DISMARC	Discovering Music Archives Across Europe	Consortium	http://www.dismarc.org
EASAIER	Enabling access to sound archives integration enrichment retrieval	Queen Mary University, London	http://www.elec.qmul.ac.uk/easaier
EthnoArc	Linked European Ethnomusicological Archives	Wissenschaftskolleg zu Berlin	http://www.ethnoarc.org
Kopal	Co-operative development of a long-term digital information archive	Niedersaechsische Staats- und Universitaetsbibliothek Goettingen	http://kopal.langzeitarchivierung.de
Nestor	Network of Expertise in Long-Term Storage of Digital Resources	Deutsche Nationalbibliothek, Frankfurt am Main	http://www.langzeitarchivierung.de
MICHAEL	Multilingual Inventory of Cultural Heritage in Europe	EU countries	http://www.michael-culture.org
POFADEAM	Preservation and On-line Fruition of the Audio Documents from the European Archives of ethnic Music	University of Udine	http://www.ipem.ugent.be/2005POFADEAM
PrestoSpace	Preservation towards storage and access. Standardized Practices for Audiovisual Contents in Europe.	Institut National de l'audiovisuel, Paris	http://www.prestospace.org
TAPE	Training for Audiovisual Preservation in Europe	European Commission on Preservation and Access (ECPA)	http://www.tape-online.net

Table 9: Digitization efforts of music collections with, at least some, ethnic music.