

From Sound to Sight: Towards AI-authored Music Videos

Leo Vitasovic
 IT University of Copenhagen
 leov@itu.dk

Stella Graßhof
 IT University of Copenhagen
 stgr@itu.dk

Agnes Mercedes Kloft
 Aalto University
 agnes.kloft@aalto.fi

Ville V. Lehtola
 University of Twente
 v.v.lehtola@utwente.nl

Martin Cunneen
 University of Limerick
 martin.cunneen@ul.ie

Justyna Starostka
 IT University of Copenhagen
 juss@itu.dk

Glenn McGarry
 University of Nottingham
 glenn.mcgarry@nottingham.ac.uk

Kun Li
 University of Twente
 k.li@utwente.nl

Sami S. Brandt
 IT University of Copenhagen
 sambr@itu.dk

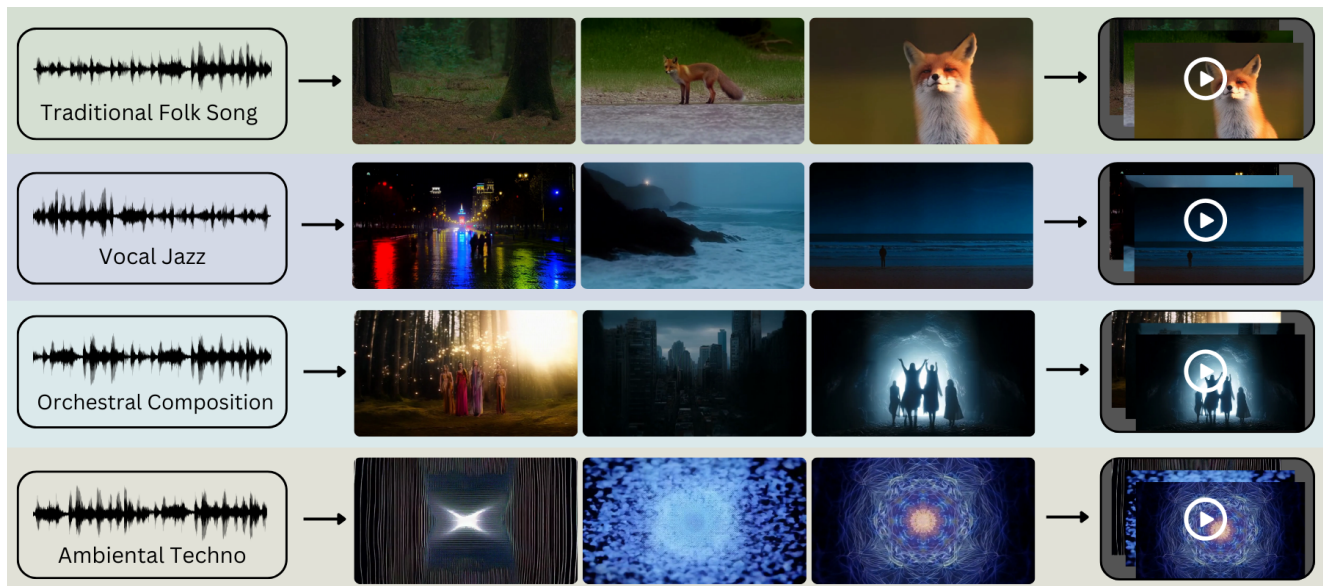


Figure 1. Overview of the method proposed in this paper. Given a selected song, the pipeline generates video clips, which are then merged into a music video. The figure includes screenshots from clips generated given the specified music. The examples feature the following songs (from top to bottom): Dónal O’Connor and Muireann Nic Amhlaoibh: “Fairy Jig”, Frank Sinatra: “Strangers in the Night”, “The March of the Volunteers” (Chinese national anthem) composed by Niè Ēr, and Aphex Twin: “Xtal”, which can all be found on our [Github](#).

Abstract

Conventional music visualisation systems rely on hand-crafted ad hoc transformations of shapes and colours that offer only limited expressiveness. We propose two novel pipelines for automatically generating music videos from any user-specified, vocal or instrumental song using off-the-shelf deep learning models. Inspired by the manual workflows of music video producers, we experiment on how well

latent feature-based techniques can analyse audio to detect musical qualities, such as emotional cues and instrumental patterns, and distil them into textual scene descriptions using a language model. Next, we employ a generative model to produce the corresponding video clips. To assess the generated videos, we identify several critical aspects and design and conduct a preliminary user evaluation that demonstrates storytelling potential, visual coherency and emotional alignment with the music. Our findings underscore

the potential of latent feature techniques and deep generative models to expand music visualisation beyond traditional approaches.

1. Introduction

This paper explores the processes of creating meaningful visuals that support storytelling to accompany a piece of music using AI-generated videos. Storytelling has been an important characteristic of social development; oral traditions were once a key source of information communication by contextualising valuable information in a medium of a story [5, 53]. For some people, the ability of the story to conjure images and visuals provided a stimulating means of learning and information acquisition [23]. The underlying idea of this paper is based on the natural tendency of people to associate music with other modalities, such as sight or touch [7, 32]. Such innate cross-modal perception may have influenced early attempts to visually augment music, such as George H. Thomas’s creation of a series of images that accompanied the live performance of *The Little Lost Child* in 1892, using a stereopticon [21]. At the same time, on the other side of the world, Jean Sibelius (1865–1957) experienced synaesthesia — a condition in which he perceived sounds and musical keys as vivid colours [49]. This blending of the senses enabled him not only to hear the natural world but also to see it in music, translating the landscapes of his homeland into compositions that evoke striking visual imagery in the listener’s mind.

From the days of the stereopticon to the 20th and 21st centuries, the evolution of audiovisual technology, from the film camera and broadcast television to personal computers and the internet, has continuously reshaped how music is experienced. These innovations paved the way for music videos, transforming them into a widely recognised art form that enhances the listener’s perception of music through visual storytelling [11, 36]. What began as individual sensory experiences, such as Sibelius’s synaesthetic perceptions or Thomas’s early visual accompaniments, has evolved into a global multimedia phenomenon, demonstrating the growing synergy between sound and vision in artistic expression.

AI-generated art has evolved from simple automated creations to complex works spanning across multiple artistic domains [3, 10, 54]. This transformation has been largely driven by advancements in deep learning, particularly in generative models such as Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) [22] and diffusion models [6]. Today, AI-generated works have been exhibited in galleries and have gained public attention in art auctions. The development and attention challenge traditional notions of artistic authorship and creativity [18]. In the field of music visualisation, AI follows similar trends, automating what was once a handcrafted process. Traditional methods relied on manual design to trans-

late music into visuals [40]. AI-powered tools, however, introduce new solutions by automating the process, generating synchronised visuals from audio input. For instance, text-to-image diffusion models can translate musical themes and lyrics into visual sequences, but artists must manually specify the input text for the models, e.g. [1], as fully automated solutions remain relatively sparse [33, 57].

This shift raises fundamental questions about the autonomy of AI in artistic creation. Some scholars argue that AI systems function only as tools manipulated by human artists [16, 25, 26], while others claim that AI possesses a degree of creative autonomy, influencing the artistic process beyond mere execution [4]. Our research broadly aims to explore the potential for fully automating the art creation process, contributing to this ongoing debate about the agency of human creators versus AI models. Moreover, audience perception of AI-generated art remains an open discussion, as different studies show that human-created artworks are generally rated higher in expressiveness compared to AI-generated ones [29, 30]. Ethical concerns, particularly regarding training data and originality, further complicate debates on creative ownership of AI-generated artworks [10].

Art is created for human experience [10], and its creation has traditionally been an exclusively human domain [14]. The introduction of generative AI into this area is not merely a technological shift but an ethical one, challenging the value of human skill and creative labour. Indeed, new advances in generative AI blur the lines between human-made, human-curated, and human-inspired art [19, 44]. This ambiguity creates ethical and legal challenges regarding authorship and copyright, as it becomes difficult to disentangle the contributions of the user, the AI model, and the creators of the original training data [34]. Consequently, the ongoing integration of AI into the arts necessitates a deeper ethical framework to address issues of labour devaluation, creative authenticity, and the ownership of computationally generated culture.

One of the most technically developed, yet ethically sensitive, applications of audio-to-video generation is speech-to-lip synchronisation, often used to create photorealistic talking heads [38]. In contrast, our work focuses on a less sensitive and less explored task: generating video directly from music to support creative storytelling. While text-to-video generation has advanced significantly with the rise of latent diffusion models and transformer-based architectures [2], audio-to-video synthesis from music remains an open research challenge. Early forms of music visualisation, such as those found in Windows Media Player [45], rely on signal processing techniques like Fourier transforms and spectrograms to create reactive animations. More recent tools, such as Specterr [57] or Kaiber [33], offer stylised audio-reactive visuals via templates and simple heuristics. However, these systems lack semantic un-

derstanding, narrative structure, or temporal visual consistency. Their methodologies are proprietary and scientifically undocumented. Similarly, several commercial tools use AI for audio-to-video generation, including Revid [56], NeuralFrames [47], and EasyVid [15]. However, none provide technical details, and many rely heavily on lyrics or the additional user-input via text-prompts for content and style guidance, hence limiting their generalizability to audio without lyrics. A related studied domain is body motion synchronisation with music, such as generating performance videos of people playing instruments or dancing. For instance, Zhu et al. [62] present a pipeline for synthesising videos of instrumental performances from raw audio. Similarly, Ren et al. introduce a method capable of aligning a generated dance sequence with the beat and rhythm of a song [51]. Those approaches aim to synchronise audio and generated human motion, smoothly capturing rhythmic and stylistic features. However, they are typically restricted to controlled human poses and fixed camera settings, hence hindering broader scene synthesis or narrative depth.

One recent solution towards music-to-video storytelling has been proposed by Agarwal et al. [1], who offer a pipeline that generates music videos using lyrics, estimated emotional tone, and user style preferences. Their method relies on Whisper [50] to extract lyrics, followed by emotion estimation and LLM-based text refinement [48]. The resulting text is used as input for Stable Diffusion [52] to generate images, which are interpolated into a cohesive video. However, the method is limited to music with lyrics, and its visual coherence is heavily dependent on textual accuracy.

In contrast, our work is designed to generalise to any musical input, including instrumental and non-verbal audio, enabling music-first video generation without reliance on lyrics. Inspired by the human workflow used by music video creators, our approach to *computational synaesthesia* aims to build on this foundation to provide appealing audio and music visualisations, as shown in Figure 1.

The pipelines we propose present a novel approach to achieve computational synaesthesia in a technically sophisticated way that is also guided by (a) AI governance and ethics, and (b) artistic considerations to support greater value alignment in the model. In this way, the model design is informed by an ethics-by-design framework that combines the considerations from technical, artistic and governance points of view. The research takes a human-centric approach to computational synaesthesia by appealing to five key design features; (i) developing the pipeline on a human workflow, (ii) using natural language as the key medium of processing, (iii) informing the pipeline by the defining component of human synaesthesia as sensory transformation, (iv) informing the pipeline with Artist values and (v) informing the approach with AI governance, risk and ethical assessment. Note that one of our key design choices in-

volves the use of text as a medium to keep the interpretability of the AI methods high, including being able to comply with the artist’s values and AI ethical standards.

The contributions of the paper are as follows.

- **Instrumental Music Visualisation** Unlike lyric-based methods, this approach only relies on instrumental cues to drive visuals. This enables video generation for instrumental and lyrics-featuring music alike.
- **Latent Feature Techniques for Audio–Text Alignment** We explore the potential of using contrastive language–audio pre-training (CLAP) and large audio language models (LALM) to extract zero-shot, high-level musical attributes to represent an audio piece and write a story inspired by the music.
- **LLM-Based Scene Scripting** We use a large language model to translate CLAP-derived descriptors into concise, narrative-like scene prompts, guiding text-to-video generation.
- **Degree of AI Agency in Art Creation** We pose questions about the degree of freedom with which an automated pipeline can generate art independently or with minimal guidance, and the cultural and artistic qualities and challenges the results imply.
- **AI Music Video Evaluation** We design and conduct a user survey to evaluate the quality of storytelling and visual content of the generated samples. We complement this survey by holding a more in-depth interview on the AI video generation capabilities of the pipelines.
- **Code** is published on [Github](#)¹.

2. Method

We base our pipelines on existing models and systems described in this section.

2.1. Contrastive Language–Audio Pre-training

Contrastive language–audio pretraining (CLAP) [17] leverages contrastive learning to align audio signals and natural language descriptions in a joint embedding space. CLAP was trained on 128k audio–text pairs and evaluated on 16 downstream tasks spanning 8 different domains, demonstrating its versatility and robustness in modelling audio concepts. We leverage the foundation model in our pipeline for zero-shot audio analysis based on predefined class labels that we manually specify. Given an arbitrary musical input, vocal or instrumental, CLAP generates semantic labels which describe the audio’s characteristics, e.g. as ‘melodic piano’, ‘upbeat tempo’, or ‘sad and moody strings’. These high-level textual descriptors encapsulate the musical content without the need for large domain-specific datasets or extensive manual labelling, and therefore are particularly

¹<https://github.com/goodPointP/Results-For-Music-Visualization-Generation-Pipeline>

valuable for music visualisation tasks. They are later used by a large language model to construct scene descriptions and narrative elements for the output video.

2.2. Large Audio Language Models

LALMs represent an emerging paradigm in multimodal artificial intelligence, designed to process and comprehend raw audio signals in conjunction with natural language [20]. Unlike conventional audio analysis techniques that rely on predefined feature extraction, LALMs are trained on extensive datasets of aligned audio and text, enabling them to develop a holistic understanding of complex auditory information, including musical structure, emotional valence, genre characteristics, and implicit narrative potential [13]. This integrated comprehension facilitates a semantically rich interpretation of audio, bridging the gap between acoustic phenomena and linguistic description.

In one of our two pipelines, we harness the advanced capabilities of LALMs to directly generate a coherent narrative concept or short story that thematically and emotionally resonates with a given input song. This method diverges from the CLAP-based approach by providing the raw audio track directly to the LALM, thereby circumventing the need for explicit, pre-extracted audio features. The LALM is prompted to synthesise a narrative concept that thematically and emotionally follows or would fit with the given song. This task evaluates the LALM’s interpretive and generative capacities: its ability to infer abstract concepts such as mood, energy, and temporal progression from audio data, and subsequently translate these inferences into a structured, imaginative narrative suitable for a music video.

LALMs show potential to generate narratively coherent and emotionally aligned textual scripts with the given musical piece. The resulting narrative is then either directly translated into scene descriptions by the LALM itself or further processed by a reasoning Large Language Model to decompose the narrative into concrete, segment-aligned visual prompts for the subsequent text-to-video generation stage.

2.3. Large Language Models

Recent advances in large language models (LLMs) have made them adept at performing a wide range of tasks, from summarisation to complex reasoning and creative text generation [39, 42, 61]. In our workflow, we utilise LLMs specifically as a “video script-writing tool,” responsible for transforming CLAP-derived audio descriptors into coherent and contextually rich textual scene outlines.

We used `DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Llama-8B` by DeepSeek [12], a reasoning-LLM [59] that combines the efficiency of a distilled model [60] with the advanced reasoning capabilities typical of larger parameter models [43]. We find that the said model can interpret nuanced audio concepts from CLAP’s output classes and use this knowledge

to generate a detailed narrative structure that aligns with the mood and style of the music.

This reasoning step ensures that the generated video scenes are not merely random visual montages but are instead guided by a coherent storyline or thematic arc, reflecting the emotional landscape of the audio. The LLM-based approach makes it easy to iterate and refine prompts by adjusting textual descriptions or keywords, thus offering flexibility in shaping the final visual output.

2.4. Text to Video Models

The last stage of our pipeline involves converting the refined textual prompts into video clips using diffusion-based text-to-video models. Diffusion models have recently gained popularity for their ability to generate high-fidelity images and videos by iteratively denoising random noise toward a target distribution [27, 28]. However, when extending diffusion techniques from images to videos, several challenges arise, such as limits in clip length and resolution, input prompt sensitivity and quality of human faces and overall image consistency. Obtaining realistic human faces remains particularly difficult; many models tend to produce distorted or unstable facial features, which can be distracting or diminish the overall video quality [31]. Moreover, we find the outputs to be dependent on the concise wording of the input textual prompt. This quality poses a challenge for this method, as the prompts themselves are generated by another model, without human supervision. In our work, we utilise two models; `mochi-1` by GENMO [55] for the first pipeline, and `WAN 2.1` [58] for the second approach.

3. Two Audio to Video Pipelines

We propose two pipelines that utilise tools presented in Sec. 2. Both pipelines follow the steps described under Fig. 2, with slight variations regarding audio analysis and video script generation. They use off-the-shelf models and produce human-readable, interpretable intermediary steps.²

3.1. Pipeline 1: CLAP-based approach

The first pipeline utilises CLAP to comprehend the style, contents and emotions from a piece of audio. The main steps include:

1. **Audio Segmentation.** Input song is split into multiple audio segments of varying lengths (Section 3.3.1).
2. **Audio Analysis.** Each segment is analysed by CLAP to extract segment-specific features, while the entire track is also analysed to determine its overall style and mood (Section 3.1.1).
3. **Script Generation via LLM.** The extracted features are passed to a large language model (LLM) with a custom

²The intermediary results, including the segmentation results, LLM prompts and the resulting scripts, are saved as individual text files.

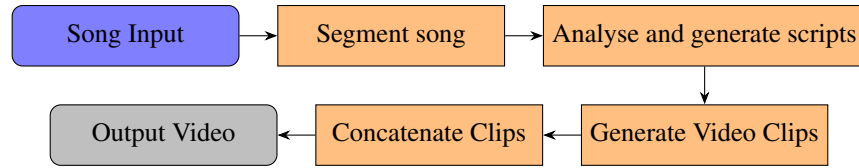


Figure 2. Overview of the pipelines. The video for a selected song is generated through four main steps: (1) segmenting the song, (2) audio analysis and script generation, (3) generating video clips using text-to-video models from the script, and (4) assembling the final video.

prompt instructing it to produce a music video script. The script comprises succinct scene descriptions (Section 3.1.2).

4. **Text to Video Generation:** Each scene description from the LLM is used to prompt a diffusion-based text-to-video model, generating video clips (Section 3.3.2).
5. **Final Assembly.** The generated video clips are concatenated and overlaid with the original audio, yielding the final music video.

This multi-step strategy leverages the combined strengths of audio understanding (via CLAP), narrative construction (via LLM), and visual synthesis (via diffusion models) to produce a thematically consistent and music-driven video while leaving room for explainability, as the results of every intermediate step can be accessed and analysed.

3.1.1. Identifying and Selecting Relevant Class Labels for CLAP

Once the audio track is segmented, each segment is analysed with CLAP to obtain semantic class labels. We use three types of class labels:

- **Segment-wise Class Labels.** These labels capture attributes relevant to each segment’s momentary content and are based on concepts from musical theory [8, 46]. Some examples include: *instrumental intensity*, *prominent elements*, *dynamic shifts*, and *rhythmic and transitional functions*. By focusing on these localised attributes, segment-wise labels enable the system to highlight the specific musical nuances that define each clip.
- **Overall Content Style.** At the track level, we derive broader attributes such as *genre*, *tempo range*, and *mood*. These attributes are chosen to help the LLM maintain a consistent theme or storyline across the entire video.
- **Overall Visual Style.** We also provide CLAP with prompts to generate or confirm a suitable overall visual style informed by the musical mood.

By combining segment-specific and track-wide analyses, we obtain a set of descriptors that guide the subsequent script generation and video synthesis steps.

3.1.2. Music Video Script Generation

We deploy a reasoning-LLM to produce a structured music video script. This script details each scene’s visuals in a concise, thematically consistent manner, reflecting both

the segment-wise attributes (e.g. changes in instrumentation or intensity) and the track-wise mood and style. The LLM prompt is constructed to include:

- **Story or Structure Cues.** Encouraging the LLM to generate a coherent narrative.
- **Characters.** If desired, specify the type and number of characters (human or otherwise) to appear in the video.
- **Technical Constraints.** Number of scenes, we specifically instruct it to use a maximum of one sentence per scene description.
- **Audio-based Context.** Placeholders where the CLAP-derived labels are injected to inform the scene content.
- **Stylistic Guidelines.** Overall visual style (*colour palette*, *atmosphere*) that is consistent with the track’s mood.

An example of the prompt structure in pseudocode can be found in the Supplementary Material, together with examples of a prompt generated this way and its corresponding response. This approach ensures that the final output is straightforward to parse, limiting extraneous content that might confuse the text-to-video model in subsequent steps. Each scene description corresponds directly to one audio segment within the overall timeline. This way of parsing enables providing each scene prompt into the text-to-video model without further manual intervention or editing.

3.2. Pipeline 2: LALM-based approach

This alternative pipeline explores a more integrated approach to music video generation by leveraging the capabilities of an LALM. Unlike the CLAP-based method, which relies on explicit audio feature extraction and subsequent LLM prompting, this approach aims to derive the visual narrative directly from the LALM’s ability to use a piece of audio as input. The LALM is prompted to generate a concise short story or narrative arc that thematically and emotionally aligns with the given song. This story serves as the conceptual blueprint for the entire music video, aiming to capture the song’s essence in a coherent textual form.

The generated story is then used to inform the creation of individual scene descriptions. We achieve this by prompting the LALM itself to break down its story into segment-aligned visual cues, and then using a reasoning LLM to interpret the story and generate prompts for each pre-determined audio segment (as per the method in Section 3.3.1). The goal is to translate the overarching narra-

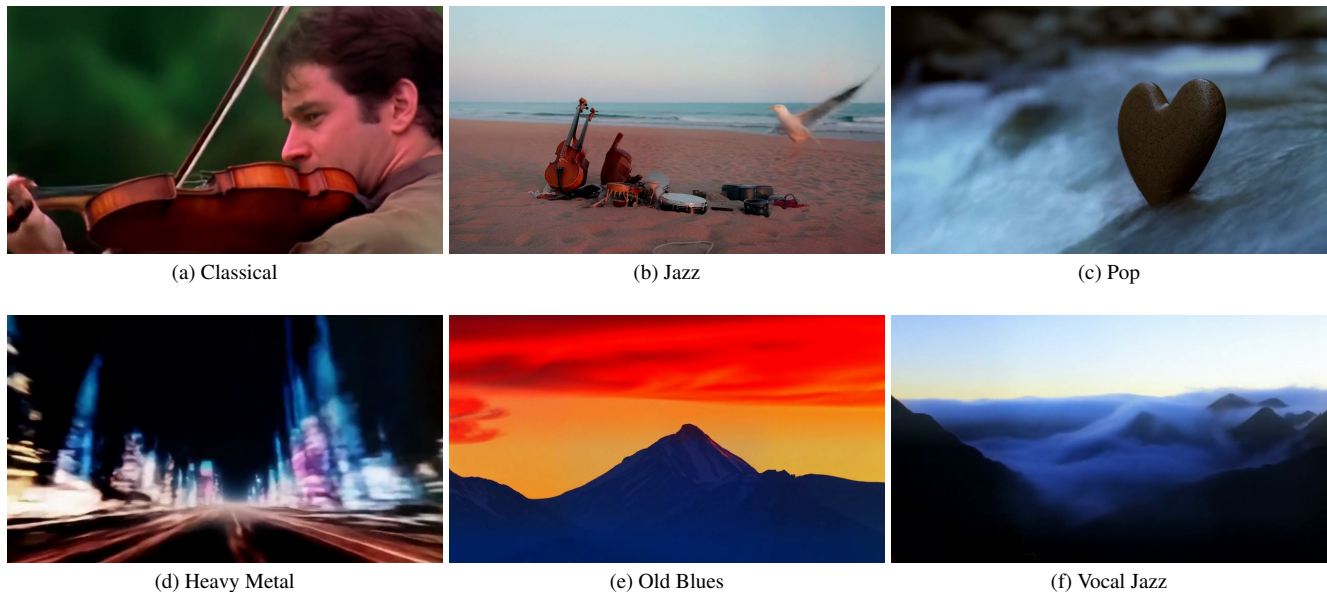


Figure 3. Screenshots captured from final video outputs featuring the songs of specified genres. As hinted by the screenshots, the style and content of the results vary based on the subjectively perceived style and mood of the input song.

tive into concrete scene descriptions that correspond to the song’s temporal flow. Similar to the first approach, each scene description derived from the LALM’s story is fed into a diffusion-based text-to-video model to generate corresponding video clips. These clips are then concatenated in chronological order and overlaid with the original audio track to produce the final music video.

This LALM-based approach offers the potential for more creatively coherent and emotionally resonant music videos, as the entire visual narrative stems from a single, integrated understanding of the audio. It reduces the need for manual feature engineering (like CLAP labels) and allows the model to infer relationships between audio elements and visual concepts without guidance, eliminating the bias introduced by overly specific human instructions. However, it relies heavily on the LALM’s ability to accurately interpret musical nuances and translate them into compelling narratives, which can be less predictable than explicit feature-based prompting.

3.3. Shared pipeline components

3.3.1. Segmentation

To segment the audio track, we experiment with two approaches. The first is a randomised segmentation method, producing segments of durations (randomly) varying between 4 and 8 seconds in length. Additionally, we developed a rule-based system which attempts to mimic how a human video editor might decide on cuts in a music video. The designed system makes every cut occur due to one of three possible factors:

- Significant frequency changes in the music.
- The passage of a certain number of beats since the last segment change.
- If the current segment has reached a predefined maximum duration of 7 seconds, forcing a cut.

3.3.2. Generating Videos

We generate video clips given the textual descriptions. For this task, we employ two diffusion-based text to video models, *mochi-1* (CLAP-based pipeline) and *WAN 2.1* (LALM-based pipeline). Each scene description, usually limited to a single sentence, is the input prompt for the model. We try to mitigate this limitation by including overall style guidelines that help maintain a unified look. After each clip is generated, the results are concatenated following their original chronological order and overlaid with the music track.

4. Experiments

In this section, we present our experimental setup and evaluate the performance of the pipeline on a diverse set of musical examples. Pipelines were run using an NVIDIA H100 GPU with 80 GB of VRAM. To evaluate the pipeline’s robustness and generalizability, we assembled a diverse set of music tracks that cover a wide range of styles, tempos, and thematic contexts. This set includes self-collected, non-studio-mastered Irish folk music and a variety of commercially available tracks from genres such as ‘blues’, ‘jazz’, ‘heavy metal’, and ‘classical music’. This diversity allows for a comprehensive assessment of how the system handles

different audio characteristics and artistic intents. Figure 3 shows sample screenshots taken from various generated videos. For a more comprehensive understanding of our results, we invite the reader to visit our dedicated [Github repository](#)³ where a selection of generated music videos and the source code are publicly available.

We conducted a within-subject evaluation with an ad-hoc sample consisting of five participants who were unaffiliated with the project to assess the narrative quality and visual coherence of videos generated by the two generative pipelines. The study was approved by the IT University of Copenhagen Ethics committee (No. 2023 – 1767-1217861).

4.1. Exploratory Generative Pipeline Evaluation

Each participant watched a total of six music videos, with three generated by CLAP (genres: Jazz, Vocal Jazz, Traditional Irish Folk Song) and three by LALM (genres: Pop, Vocal Jazz, Heavy Metal). The videos were presented in randomised order, and the participants were not informed of which pipeline generated which video.

After each music video, participants completed a survey assessing five dimensions⁴ on a 7-point likert scale (Strongly Disagree - strongly agree): Storytelling (7 items), Visual Impression (5 items), Transitions (6 items), Emotional Consistency (4 items), and Overall Impression (6 items). After each dimension, an open text box was presented for the participants to explain their reasoning behind the ratings. For each video, the responses were averaged per dimension to obtain a single rating per participant, video, and dimension. This resulted in 15 ratings per pipeline for each dimension. For the distribution of these ratings across all videos, grouped by pipeline and evaluation dimension, see Figure 4. A complete list of survey items is provided in Section 7.

On average, CLAP achieved a higher overall rating ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 1.01$) than LALM ($M = 2.64$, $SD = 0.89$). For the mean and standard deviation of participant ratings for each dimension and pipeline, see Table 1. Visual inspection of the plot in Figure 4 seems to indicate that the CLAP model tends to score slightly higher across all dimensions than the LALM pipeline. As the sample of five participants and six music videos is too small to draw meaningful conclusions, these results should be considered exploratory. Genre was not controlled across pipelines, so differences may also reflect subjective preferences and preconceptions about what videos in these genres should look like, rather than differences in generation quality. The sample size also prevents internal validity checks for the self-created rating dimensions, which should be addressed in future work, along with the open-ended responses.

³<https://github.com/goodPointP/Results-For-Music-Visualization-Generation-Pipeline>

⁴Items for the survey were created by the authors.

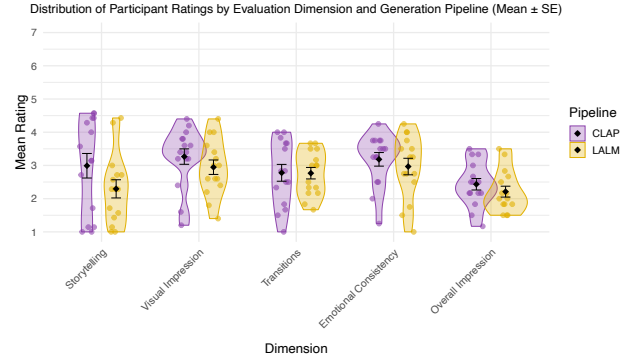


Figure 4. Participant Ratings by Dimension and Generation Pipeline. Violin plots show the distribution of participant ratings across five evaluation dimensions (*Storytelling*, *Visual Impression*, *Transitions*, *Emotional Consistency*, and *Overall Impression*) for the Contrastive language–audio pretraining (CLAP) and Large Audio Language Model (LALM) video generation pipelines. Each dot represents a participant’s average rating for a specific genre within a given pipeline. Black diamonds indicate the pipeline mean, and black vertical bars represent the standard error (SE) around the mean. Ratings for *Storytelling* range from 1 (low) to 7 (high), while all other dimensions use a 1–5 Likert scale.

Table 1. Means (M) and standard deviations (SD) of participant ratings per evaluation dimension and pipeline. Note. Ratings were averaged across 5 participants and 3 videos per pipeline (15 ratings per dimension, 75 entries per pipeline overall rating). CLAP = Contrastive Language–Audio Pretraining; LALM = Large Audio Language Model.

Dimension	CLAP		LALM	
	M	SD	M	SD
Emotional Consistency	3.18	0.79	2.97	0.96
Overall Impression	2.43	0.67	2.21	0.64
Storytelling	2.99	1.43	2.30	1.06
Transitions	2.78	0.98	2.77	0.67
Visual Impression	3.27	0.90	2.95	0.84
Overall Rating	2.93	1.01	2.64	0.89

4.2. Qualitative Evaluation

To evaluate the effectiveness of the generated music videos, a preliminary interview was conducted with two participants who reviewed all steps of the pipeline outputs. One of the participants interviewed is a non-expert, and one is a professional videographer. When reviewing the video outputs, the feedback revealed several key areas for improvement, primarily centred on the lack of visual and narrative consistency, supporting the low ratings for dimensions in the quantitative ratings. A recurring critique was that the videos lacked a unifying artistic vision, with inconsistent colour palettes, lighting, and overall visual styles from one

shot to the next. This disjointedness was reported to feel like a collection of stock footage, which prevented viewers from becoming emotionally invested. This issue was compounded by a lack of character consistency, where protagonists would frequently change appearance or even species (“Vocal Jazz, LALM-Based method” example⁵) between shots, breaking the narrative thread.

When reviewing the text outputs, such as the narrative concepts and screen scripts, participants also offered feedback on the AI-generated stories that guided the video generation in the LALM-based pipeline. The high-level narrative concepts were generally well-received and regarded as fitting to the music in question. A more nuanced critique concerned the writing style; a uniform, matter-of-fact tone was perceived as effective for some genres (e.g., metal) but felt emotionally detached for more narrative-driven concepts. Participants suggested that these scripts would be more compelling with a ‘literary flair’ tailored to the specific mood of the music.

A key recommendation was to provide the video model with stronger and more persistent stylistic prompts, such as a predefined colour palette or specific aesthetic references, to ensure a unified look and feel. Furthermore, feedback indicated the need for mechanisms to maintain character identity across all generated clips and to adapt the narrative style of the script to the song’s genre. Despite these critiques, participants noted that the AI was often successful at capturing the general mood and theme of the music without access to the lyrics, suggesting that the core concept of the pipeline is promising but requires further refinement in execution to achieve narrative and visual cohesion.

5. Conclusions

5.1. Summary of Findings

Our results show that both CLAP and LALMs can effectively extract meaningful audio features from various musical inputs, and when combined with a reasoning-focused LLM and concise prompts, yield coherent, stylistically aligned video scripts. This is based on the fact that in the interviews, the narrative concepts were perceived as fitting the music, unlike the resulting video outputs. Although the diffusion model can effectively visualise these scripts, it often lacks visual consistency. Overall, these findings highlight the potential of integrating latent audio feature extraction techniques with LLM-driven text to video generation for creating compelling, conceptually coherent music videos.

5.2. Limitations

When the generated scripts involve recurring characters (especially human characters), the text-to-video model often

struggles to maintain visual consistency across scenes. Every new clip often differs from the one before in style, motion and colour. With characters, the variations in facial features, clothing, or style can undermine narrative continuity.

5.3. Future Work

Looking ahead, we identify several research directions that could significantly enhance the quality, responsiveness, and ethical considerations of our pipeline:

Improving visual consistency. As reported by the survey participants and the conducted interview, improving character consistency would have a positive impact on storytelling and thus the coherency of the final video.

Incorporating lyrics. Incorporating lyrics into the prompt could deepen the LLM’s understanding of the track’s narrative and might lead to scene descriptions that more accurately reflect lyrical themes or storylines.

AI and Art: Creative Collaboration and Authorship. Exploring how human creators can guide AI’s creativity, and how AI’s role may evolve in shaping artistic expression.

Condoning a larger, expanded user study. To better understand where differences in AI-generated video quality arise, future evaluations could assess intermediate outputs of the generation process. This would help clarify whether using specialised models for specific steps, such as emotion detection, script generation, or video synthesis, results in higher-quality outputs or whether general-purpose models can handle the full pipeline. It would also be useful to conduct more in-depth interviews to explore how people interpret and evaluate AI-generated video content. This is especially relevant, as prior work has shown that perceptions of AI are shaped not just by task performance, but also by underlying expectations [35, 37], preconceptions [9], transparency [41], and narratives [24]. Future work could also include comparisons to professionally produced or human-curated videos to better understand how generated content is judged relative to real-world storytelling standards.

By addressing these directions, we aim to develop an approach that is aesthetically compelling and contextually sensitive, ultimately empowering artists, content creators, and end-users to generate music videos that are aligned with their musical inspiration.

Acknowledgement

This work is funded by the European Union within the Horizon Europe research and innovation programme under grant agreement No. 101136006 – XTREME project, coordinated by S.S. Brandt/IT University of Copenhagen, Denmark. Views and opinions expressed are however those of the authors only and do not necessarily reflect those of the European Union, European Union can not be held responsible for them. This project was partially funded by the Pioneer Centre for AI, DNRF grant number P1.

⁵<https://github.com/goodPointP/Results-For-Music-Visualization-Generation-Pipeline?tab=readme-ov-file#vocal-jazz-1>

References

- [1] Mehul Agarwal, Gauri Agarwal, Santiago Benoit, Andrew Lippman, and Jean Oh. Secure & Personalized Music-to-Video Generation via CHARCHA, 2025. Published: Presented at NeurIPS 2024, Creative AI Session 1. [2](#), [3](#)
- [2] Vladimir Arkhipkin, Zein Shaheen, Viacheslav Vasilev, Elizaveta Dakhova, Konstantin Sobolev, Andrey Kuznetsov, and Denis Dimitrov. ImproveYourVideos: Architectural Improvements for Text-to-Video Generation Pipeline. *IEEE Access*, 13:1986–2003, 2025. [2](#)
- [3] Sofian Audry. *Art in the Age of Machine Learning*. The MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 2021. [2](#)
- [4] Margaret A. Boden and Ernest A. Edmonds. What is generative art? *Digital Creativity*, 20(1-2):21–46, 2009. [2](#)
- [5] Marisa Bortolussi. Review of Gottschall (2012): The storytelling animal: How stories make us human. *Scientific Study of Literature*, 2(2):317–321, 2012. [2](#)
- [6] Victor Boutin, Thomas Fel, Lakshya Singhal, Rishav Mukherji, Akash Nagaraj, Julien Colin, and Thomas Serre. Diffusion Models as Artists: Are we Closing the Gap between Humans and Machines?, 2023. arXiv:2301.11722 [cs]. [2](#)
- [7] Vanalata Bulusu and Leslee Lazar. Crossmodal associations between naturally occurring tactile and sound textures. *Perception*, 53(4):219–239, 2024. [2](#)
- [8] Carlos E. Cancino-Chacón, Maarten Grachten, Werner Goebel, and Gerhard Widmer. Computational Models of Expressive Music Performance: A Comprehensive and Critical Review. *Frontiers in Digital Humanities*, 5:25, 2018. [5](#)
- [9] Stephen Cave, Kate Coughlan, and Kanta Dihal. ”scary robots”: Examining public responses to ai. In *Proceedings of the 2019 AAAI/ACM Conference on AI, Ethics, and Society*, page 331–337, New York, NY, USA, 2019. Association for Computing Machinery. [8](#)
- [10] Eva Cetinic and James She. Understanding and Creating Art with AI: Review and Outlook, 2021. arXiv:2102.09109 [cs]. [2](#)
- [11] Johanna N. Dasovich-Wilson, Marc Thompson, and Suvi Saarikallio. Exploring Music Video Experiences and Their Influence on Music Perception. *Music & Science*, 5: 20592043221117651, 2022. Publisher: SAGE Publications Ltd. [2](#)
- [12] DeepSeek-AI, Daya Guo, Dejian Yang, Haowei Zhang, Junxiao Song, Ruoyu Zhang, Runxin Xu, Qihao Zhu, Shitong Ma, Peiyi Wang, Xiao Bi, Xiaokang Zhang, Xingkai Yu, Yu Wu, Z. F. Wu, Zhibin Gou, Zhihong Shao, Zhuoshu Li, Ziyi Gao, Aixin Liu, Bing Xue, Bingxuan Wang, Bochao Wu, Bei Feng, Chengda Lu, Chenggang Zhao, Chengqi Deng, Chenyu Zhang, Chong Ruan, Damai Dai, Deli Chen, Dongjie Ji, Erhang Li, Fangyun Lin, Fucong Dai, Fuli Luo, Guangbo Hao, Guanting Chen, Guowei Li, H. Zhang, Han Bao, Hanwei Xu, Haocheng Wang, Honghui Ding, Huajian Xin, Huazuo Gao, Hui Qu, Hui Li, Jianzhong Guo, Jiashi Li, Jiawei Wang, Jingchang Chen, Jingyang Yuan, Junjie Qiu, Junlong Li, J. L. Cai, Jiaqi Ni, Jian Liang, Jin Chen, Kai Dong, Kai Hu, Kaige Gao, Kang Guan, Kexin Huang, Kuai Yu, Lean Wang, Lecong Zhang, Liang Zhao, Litong Wang, Liyue Zhang, Lei Xu, Leyi Xia, Mingchuan Zhang, Minghua Zhang, Minghui Tang, Meng Li, Miaojun Wang, Mingming Li, Ning Tian, Panpan Huang, Peng Zhang, Qiancheng Wang, Qinyu Chen, Qiusi Du, Ruiqi Ge, Ruisong Zhang, Ruizhe Pan, Runji Wang, R. J. Chen, R. L. Jin, Ruyi Chen, Shanghao Lu, Shangyan Zhou, Shanhuang Chen, Shengfeng Ye, Shiyu Wang, Shuiping Yu, Shunfeng Zhou, Shuting Pan, S. S. Li, Shuang Zhou, Shaoqing Wu, Shengfeng Ye, Tao Yun, Tian Pei, Tianyu Sun, T. Wang, Wangding Zeng, Wangjia Zhao, Wen Liu, Wenfeng Liang, Wenjun Gao, Wenqin Yu, Wentao Zhang, W. L. Xiao, Wei An, Xiaodong Liu, Xiaohan Wang, Xiaokang Chen, Xiaotao Nie, Xin Cheng, Xin Liu, Xin Xie, Xingchao Liu, Xinyu Yang, Xinyuan Li, Xuecheng Su, Xuheng Lin, X. Q. Li, Xiangyue Jin, Xiaojin Shen, Xiaosha Chen, Xiaowen Sun, Xiaoxiang Wang, Xinnan Song, Xinyi Zhou, Xianzu Wang, Xinxia Shan, Y. K. Li, Y. Q. Wang, Y. X. Wei, Yang Zhang, Yanhong Xu, Yao Li, Yao Zhao, Yaofeng Sun, Yaohui Wang, Yi Yu, Yichao Zhang, Yifan Shi, Yiliang Xiong, Ying He, Yishi Piao, Yisong Wang, Yixuan Tan, Yiyang Ma, Yiyuan Liu, Yongqiang Guo, Yuan Ou, Yuduan Wang, Yue Gong, Yuheng Zou, Yujia He, Yunfan Xiong, Yuxiang Luo, Yuxiang You, Yuxuan Liu, Yuyang Zhou, Y. X. Zhu, Yanhong Xu, Yanping Huang, Yaohui Li, Yi Zheng, Yuchen Zhu, Yunxian Ma, Ying Tang, Yukun Zha, Yuting Yan, Z. Z. Ren, Zehui Ren, Zhangli Sha, Zhe Fu, Zhean Xu, Zhenda Xie, Zhengyan Zhang, Zhewen Hao, Zhicheng Ma, Zhigang Yan, Zhiyu Wu, Zihui Gu, Zijia Zhu, Zijun Liu, Zilin Li, Ziwei Xie, Ziyang Song, Zizheng Pan, Zhen Huang, Zhipeng Xu, Zhongyu Zhang, and Zhen Zhang. DeepSeek-R1: Incentivizing Reasoning Capability in LLMs via Reinforcement Learning, 2025. arXiv:2501.12948 [cs]. [4](#)
- [13] Soham Deshmukh, Benjamin Elizalde, Rita Singh, and Huaming Wang. Pengi: an audio language model for audio tasks. In *Proceedings of the 37th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 18090–18108, Red Hook, NY, USA, 2023. Curran Associates Inc. [4](#)
- [14] John Dewey. *Art as experience*. Berkeley Publishing Group, New York, New York, 2005. [2](#)
- [15] EasyVid. EasyVid AI Video Maker, 2024. [3](#)
- [16] Ahmed Elgammal, Bingchen Liu, Mohamed Elhoseiny, and Marian Mazzone. CAN: Creative Adversarial Networks, Generating ”Art” by Learning About Styles and Deviating from Style Norms, 2017. arXiv:1706.07068 [cs]. [2](#)
- [17] Benjamin Elizalde, Soham Deshmukh, Mahmoud Al Ismail, and Huaming Wang. CLAP Learning Audio Concepts from Natural Language Supervision. *ICASSP 2023 - 2023 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP)*, pages 1–5, 2023. Conference Name: ICASSP 2023 - 2023 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP) ISBN: 9781728163277 Place: Rhodes Island, Greece Publisher: IEEE. [3](#)
- [18] Ziv Epstein, Sydney Levine, David G. Rand, and Iyad Rahwan. Who Gets Credit for AI-Generated Art? *iScience*, 23(9):101515, 2020. [2](#)
- [19] Ziv Epstein, Aaron Hertzmann, the Investigators of Human

- Creativity, Memo Akten, Hany Farid, Jessica Fjeld, Morgan R. Frank, Matthew Groh, Laura Herman, Neil Leach, Robert Mahari, Alex “Sandy” Pentland, Olga Russakovsky, Hope Schroeder, and Amy Smith. Art and the science of generative AI. *Science*, 380(6650):1110–1111, 2023. Publisher: American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS). 2
- [20] Sreyan Ghosh, Sonal Kumar, Ashish Seth, Chandra Kiran Reddy Evuru, Utkarsh Tyagi, S. Sakshi, Oriol Nieto, Ramani Duraiswami, and Dinesh Manocha. GAMA: A Large Audio-Language Model with Advanced Audio Understanding and Complex Reasoning Abilities, 2024. arXiv:2406.11768 [cs]. 4
- [21] Isidore Goldberg Witmark and Isaac Goldberg Witmark. *From Ragtime to Swingtime: Fifty Glittering Years of Stage and Song*. Lee Furman, 1 edition, 1939. 2
- [22] Ian Goodfellow, Jean Pouget-Abadie, Mehdi Mirza, Bing Xu, David Warde-Farley, Sherjil Ozair, Aaron Courville, and Yoshua Bengio. Generative adversarial networks. *Communications of the ACM*, 63(11):139–144, 2020. 2
- [23] Arthur C. Graesser, Murray Singer, and Tom Trabasso. Constructing inferences during narrative text comprehension. *Psychological Review*, 101(3):371–395, 1994. 2
- [24] Isabella Hermann. Beware of fictional ai narratives. *Nature Machine Intelligence*, 2(11):654–654, 2020. 8
- [25] Aaron Hertzmann. Can Computers Create Art?, 2018. arXiv:1801.04486 [cs]. 2
- [26] Aaron Hertzmann. Computers do not make art, people do. *Communications of the ACM*, 63(5):45–48, 2020. 2
- [27] Jonathan Ho, Chitwan Saharia, William Chan, David J. Fleet, Mohammad Norouzi, and Tim Salimans. Cascaded Diffusion Models for High Fidelity Image Generation, 2021. arXiv:2106.15282 [cs]. 4
- [28] Jonathan Ho, Tim Salimans, Alexey Gritsenko, William Chan, Mohammad Norouzi, and David J. Fleet. Video Diffusion Models, 2022. arXiv:2204.03458 [cs]. 4
- [29] Joo-Wha Hong and Nathaniel Ming Curran. Artificial Intelligence, Artists, and Art: Attitudes Toward Artwork Produced by Humans vs. Artificial Intelligence. *ACM Transactions on Multimedia Computing, Communications, and Applications*, 15(2s):1–16, 2019. 2
- [30] C. Blaine Horton Jr, Michael W. White, and Sheena S. Iyengar. Bias against AI art can enhance perceptions of human creativity. *Scientific Reports*, 13(1):19001, 2023. 2
- [31] Ziqi Huang, Yinan He, Jiashuo Yu, Fan Zhang, Chenyang Si, Yuming Jiang, Yuanhan Zhang, Tianxing Wu, Qingyang Jin, Nattapol Chanpaisit, Yaohui Wang, Xinyuan Chen, Limin Wang, Dahua Lin, Yu Qiao, and Ziwei Liu. VBench: Comprehensive Benchmark Suite for Video Generative Models, 2023. arXiv:2311.17982 [cs]. 4
- [32] Marina Iosifyan, Anton Sidoroff-Dorso, and Judith Wolfe. Cross-modal associations between paintings and sounds: Effects of embodiment. *Perception*, 51(12):871–888, 2022. 2
- [33] Kaiber Corp. Kaiber AI: Generating Videos with Superstudio, 2025. 2
- [34] Jerameel Kevins. Artificial Intelligence and Copyright: Legal Quandary in the Digital Age: Some Musings. *SSRN Electronic Journal*, 2021. Publisher: Elsevier BV. 2
- [35] Agnes Mercedes Kloft, Robin Welsch, Thomas Kosch, and Steeven Villa. “AI enhances our performance, I have no doubt this one will do the same”: The Placebo effect is robust to negative descriptions of AI. In *Proceedings of the CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, pages 1–24, Honolulu HI USA, 2024. ACM. 8
- [36] Lidia Kniaź-Hunek. The (R)evolution of Music Video in American Music Industry. *New Horizons in English Studies*, 8:163–176, 2023. 2
- [37] Thomas Kosch, Robin Welsch, Lewis Chuang, and Albrecht Schmidt. The Placebo Effect of Artificial Intelligence in Human–Computer Interaction. *ACM Transactions on Computer-Human Interaction*, 29(6):1–32, 2022. 8
- [38] Neeraj Kumar, Srishti Goel, Ankur Narang, and Mujtaba Hasan. Robust One Shot Audio to Video Generation. In *2020 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshops (CVPRW)*, pages 3334–3343, 2020. ISSN: 2160-7516. 2
- [39] Seungpil Lee, Woohang Sim, Donghyeon Shin, Wongyu Seo, Jiwon Park, Seokki Lee, Sanha Hwang, Sejin Kim, and Sundong Kim. Reasoning Abilities of Large Language Models: In-Depth Analysis on the Abstraction and Reasoning Corpus. *ACM Transactions on Intelligent Systems and Technology*, page 3712701, 2025. 4
- [40] Hugo B. Lima, Carlos G. R. Dos Santos, and Bianchi S. Meiguins. A Survey of Music Visualization Techniques. *ACM Computing Surveys*, 54(7):1–29, 2022. 2
- [41] Bingjie Liu. In ai we trust? effects of agency locus and transparency on uncertainty reduction in human–ai interaction. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 26(6):384–402, 2021. 8
- [42] Yixin Liu, Alex Fabbri, Pengfei Liu, Yilun Zhao, Linyong Nan, Ruilin Han, Simeng Han, Shafiq Joty, Chien-Sheng Wu, Caiming Xiong, and Dragomir Radev. Revisiting the Gold Standard: Grounding Summarization Evaluation with Robust Human Evaluation. In *Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 4140–4170, Toronto, Canada, 2023. Association for Computational Linguistics. 4
- [43] Sheng Lu, Irina Bigoulaeva, Rachneet Sachdeva, Harish Tayyar Madabushi, and Iryna Gurevych. Are Emergent Abilities in Large Language Models just In-Context Learning?, 2024. arXiv:2309.01809 [cs]. 4
- [44] Marian Mazzone and Ahmed Elgammal. Art, Creativity, and the Potential of Artificial Intelligence. *Arts*, 8(1):26, 2019. Publisher: MDPI AG. 2
- [45] Microsoft Corporation. Windows Media Player, 2025. 2
- [46] Meinard Müller, Elaine Chew, and Juan Pablo Bello. Computational Music Structure Analysis (Dagstuhl Seminar 16092). Technical report, Schloss Dagstuhl – Leibniz-Zentrum für Informatik, 2016. Artwork Size: 44 pages, 1005371 bytes ISSN: 2192-5283 Issue: 2 Medium: application/pdf Publication Title: Dagstuhl Reports (DagRep) Volume: 6. 5
- [47] Neuralframes. AI Music Video Generator, 2025. 3
- [48] OpenAI. Hello GPT-4o by OpenAI, 2025. 3
- [49] JMS Pearce. Synaesthesia. *European Neurology*, 57(2):120–124, 2007. 2

- [50] Alec Radford, Jong Wook Kim, Tao Xu, Greg Brockman, Christine McLeavey, and Ilya Sutskever. Robust Speech Recognition via Large-Scale Weak Supervision, 2022. arXiv:2212.04356 [eess]. 3
- [51] Xuanchi Ren, Haoran Li, Zijian Huang, and Qifeng Chen. Self-supervised Dance Video Synthesis Conditioned on Music. In *Proceedings of the 28th ACM International Conference on Multimedia*, pages 46–54, New York, NY, USA, 2020. Association for Computing Machinery. 3
- [52] Robin Rombach, Andreas Blattmann, Dominik Lorenz, Patrick Esser, and Björn Ommer. High-Resolution Image Synthesis With Latent Diffusion Models. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 10684–10695, 2022. 3
- [53] David C Rubin. *Memory In Oral Traditions: The Cognitive Psychology of Epic, Ballads, and Counting-out Rhymes*. Oxford University Press New York, NY, 1995. 2
- [54] Christian Sivertsen, Guido Salimbeni, Anders Sundnes Løvlie, Steven David Benford, and Jichen Zhu. Machine Learning Processes As Sources of Ambiguity: Insights from AI Art. In *Proceedings of the CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, pages 1–14, Honolulu HI USA, 2024. ACM. 2
- [55] Genmo Team. Mochi 1 by Genmo Team, 2024. <https://huggingface.co/genmo/mochi-1-preview>. 4
- [56] TMAKER. Revid.ai, 2025. 3
- [57] Tunebat LLC. Specterr: Music Video Maker Online, 2025. 2
- [58] Team Wan, Ang Wang, Baole Ai, Bin Wen, Chaojie Mao, Chen-Wei Xie, Di Chen, Feiwu Yu, Haiming Zhao, Jianxiao Yang, Jianyuan Zeng, Jiayu Wang, Jingfeng Zhang, Jingren Zhou, Jinkai Wang, Jixuan Chen, Kai Zhu, Kang Zhao, Keyu Yan, Lianghua Huang, Mengyang Feng, Ningyi Zhang, Pandeng Li, Pingyu Wu, Ruihang Chu, Ruili Feng, Shiwei Zhang, Siyang Sun, Tao Fang, Tianxing Wang, Tianyi Gui, Tingyu Weng, Tong Shen, Wei Lin, Wei Wang, Wei Wang, Wenmeng Zhou, Wenten Wang, Wenting Shen, Wenyuan Yu, Xianzhong Shi, Xiaoming Huang, Xin Xu, Yan Kou, Yangyu Lv, Yifei Li, Yijing Liu, Yiming Wang, Yingya Zhang, Yitong Huang, Yong Li, You Wu, Yu Liu, Yulin Pan, Yun Zheng, Yuntao Hong, Yupeng Shi, Yutong Feng, Zeyinzi Jiang, Zhen Han, Zhi-Fan Wu, and Ziyu Liu. Wan: Open and Advanced Large-Scale Video Generative Models, 2025. arXiv:2503.20314 [cs]. 4
- [59] Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Brian Ichter, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc Le, and Denny Zhou. Chain-of-Thought Prompting Elicits Reasoning in Large Language Models, 2023. arXiv:2201.11903 [cs]. 4
- [60] Xiaohan Xu, Ming Li, Chongyang Tao, Tao Shen, Reynold Cheng, Jinyang Li, Can Xu, Dacheng Tao, and Tianyi Zhou. A Survey on Knowledge Distillation of Large Language Models, 2024. arXiv:2402.13116 [cs]. 4
- [61] Ann Yuan, Andy Coenen, Emily Reif, and Daphne Ippolito. Wordcraft: Story Writing With Large Language Models. In *27th International Conference on Intelligent User Interfaces*, pages 841–852, Helsinki Finland, 2022. ACM. 4
- [62] Hao Zhu, Yi Li, Feixia Zhu, Aihua Zheng, and Ran He. Let’s Play Music: Audio-Driven Performance Video Generation.