DL4AED - PROJECT 1

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ABSTRACT

Neural networks are starting to replace ordinary algorithms in many applications. Classifying short song snippets into their corresponding genres with generalized embeddings is a novel approach. We trained an autoencoder to embed ~ 3 second long audio sequences into a $1024-$dimensional space, resulting in corresponding song-fingerprints. These are used to classify the respective songs with an approximate k-nearest neighbors algorithm into their corresponding genres. Our model is able to detect genre-communities that were not included within the training dataset. We used a meta-learning similar approach by conditioning the embeddings on the corresponding genres. Hereby, we improved the quality of the simple autoencoder and reached 63% accuracy in genre classification as well as 76% accuracy in song-ID re-identification. While this model showed difficulties for classes such as "Pop", we were still able to increased our model accuracy by more than 10% compared to using an autoencoder-only model.

Index Terms— autoencoder, audio event classification, approximate k-nearest neighbor, audio event detection

1. INTRODUCTION

Products such as Shazam[1] are used daily more than 20 million times to re-identify songs[2]. Competitive companies such as Soundhound or Musixmatch provide song recognition services as well. As some of those have been existing for nearly 20 years, we decided to solve the same tasks differently. Song recognition can be divided into two aspects. The first one being a mechanism which asserts a unique fingerprint for each input sample. The second one comparing the fingerprint of a requested input sample to an existing database of fingerprints. The task is to predict whether the song is in the database and if so, to return the song-ID. We trained a neural network to create fingerprints of ~ 3 second long song snippets. An approximate K-Nearest Neighbors approach is used to re-identify similar objects in a high dimensional space. Along with the harder problem of song recognition, we decided to work on genre classification. Music is grouped into genres, where all tracks within the same group share stylistic properties and conventions. We assumed that each song snippet holds at least some genre-specific features and can therefore be classified into the right genre.

2. DATA PREPARATION

2.1. Datasets

To train our network we used the GTZAN dataset [3]. The dataset consists of 1000 songs, each labeled with 1 out of 10 genres. As the dataset is balanced across genres, each genre contains 100 samples, 30 seconds in duration each.

To see how our model performs on data coming from a completely different data source than the training data, we used the FMA dataset [4] in its small version. The dataset consists of 8000 songs, each labeled with 1 out of 8 genres. Samples are 30 seconds in duration as well, and the dataset is balanced too (each genre contains 1000 samples).

Another dataset that we used for developing our autoencoder is the FSDKaggle2018 dataset [5]. It is a dataset consisting of various audio events such as sighing, key jangling or coughing. In total the dataset contains 11073 samples, annoted with 1 out of 41 labels. Sample durations range from 0.3 to 30 seconds. We made use of this dataset, in order to introduce natural noise to our training data. In a real world scenario, our classifier should ideally perform well with various other noises interfering with the pure audio signal of the song. We manually selected a handful of categories for our augmentation.

2.2. Data Preprocessing

To preprocess our data (all 3 datasets), we normalized the raw audio signals into a range of $[0, 1]$. Following this step, we transformed the data into log-mel spectrograms. This is the input format a vast amount of current deep learning research is effectively using for audio data. As a subsequent step, we again normalized the log-mel spectrograms into a range of $[0, 1]$. Normalizing the input to our model can result in the autoencoder being able to converge more rapidly [6]. Our resulting log-mel spectrograms were shortened on the time axis to a size of 64×640. We split these into sets of 10 non-overlapping images, each being of size 64×64.

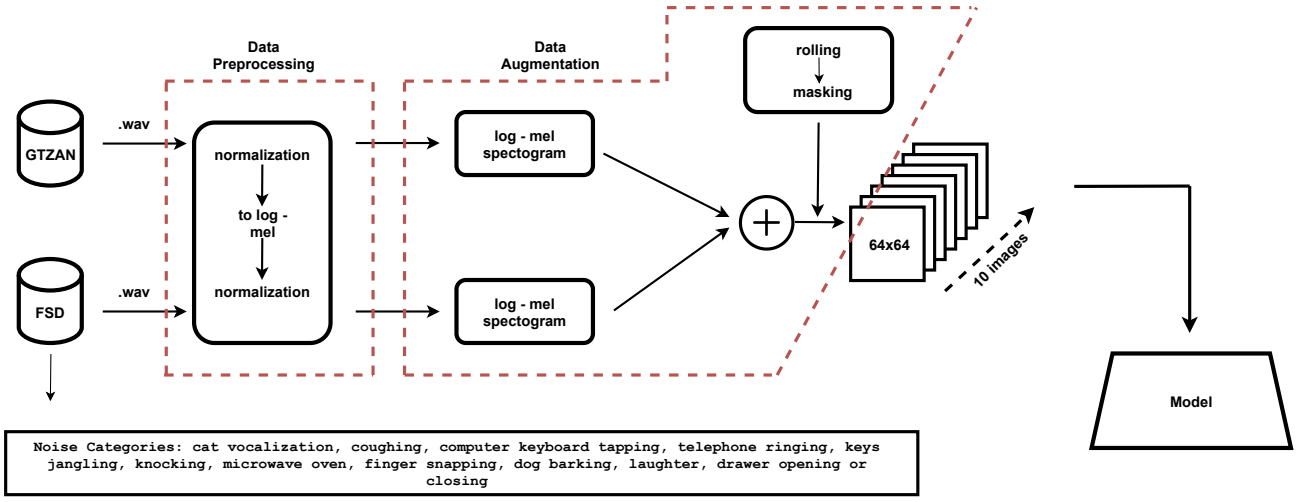

Fig. 1: Data Preparation Pipeline used for our model. Manually chosen noise categories can be seen on the bottom left corner.

2.3. Data Augmentations

Data Augmentation was only performed on the training data we used for the autoencoder. We augmented the data by performing spectrogram rolling, frequency- and time masking and mixing noise to the spectograms. The augmentation steps were performed on log-mel spectrograms before the spectrograms were split into sets of 64×64 images.

Spectrogram rolling describes the process of simply shifting the spectrogram randomly either left or right. Since the augmentation was performed *online*, as batches were processed during training, rolling the spectrograms causes training samples to be split into slighlty different sets of 64x64 images as they are being iterated over by the autoencoder multiple times.

Frequency- and time masking describe the process of either randomly setting a range of frequencies throughout the whole spectrogram to 0 or randomly setting the whole spectogram in a certain time range to 0. This prevents the autoencoder from focusing entirely on a set of dominant frequencies or events on samples when trying to learn meaningful features during training.

To introduce noise to our log-mel spectrograms, we added one log-mel spectogram, generated from the FSDKaggle2018 dataset, to each of our training samples. For this matter, we randomy chose one sample from the set of categories we manually selected from the FSDKaggle2018 dataset. The theory behind our data preparation approach, as well as noise categories we used, is visualized again in Fig. 1.

3. NETWORK

3.1. Autoencoder

Similar to the previous work of [7] we encode an audio signal into a fixed-size vector representation. Instead of using recurrent neural networks like long short-term memory(LSTM)[8], our network is encoding fixed-sized input segments. The data is preprocessed as described in Sec. 2. The main network is an autoencoder[9] which is commonly used to create feature embeddings. The encoder is based on ResNet[10], a deep residual network. The number of layers is kept at 18 and is therefore known as ResNet18. To decode the 1024-dimensional feature embedding a repeated combination of upsampling and convolutions was applied. The output has the same shape as the input images of $(64 \times 64 \times 1)$. The autoencoder minimizes the reconstruction loss.

3.2. Classifier

Training the above autoencoder without further constraints leads to an embedding which groups items according to their similarity. This might not be appropriate for the classification process mentioned in 4. To form the embedding according to a targeted similarity measure, we introduced an auxiliary loss. Adding a single or multi layered classifier to predict the output class of each embedding. The output classes are the 10 genres mentioned in GTZAN. Weighting the importance of the classifier during the training is a new hyperparameter; the classifier loss scale. The combined networks are plotted int Fig. 2.

4. INFERENCE PIPELINE

Once the model is trained, we run the tracks we would like to either classify or recognize through the same preprocessing pipeline. The output is fed to the trained ResNet18 encoder part. It returns a 1024-dimensional embedding vector, which is heuristically compared to the known songs (that are embedded in the same space) using a variant of the K-Nearest Neighbors (which is discussed in 5.2).

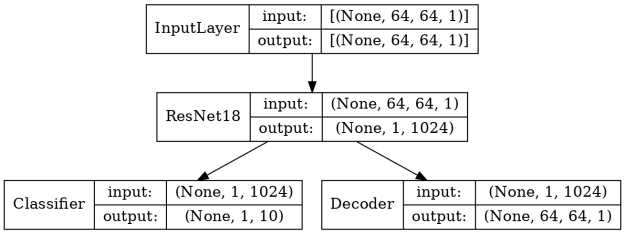

Fig. 2: The neural network with input and output shape of each separate stage. The shapes are specified batch-wise. The same output of ResNet18 is passed to the classifier and the decoder.

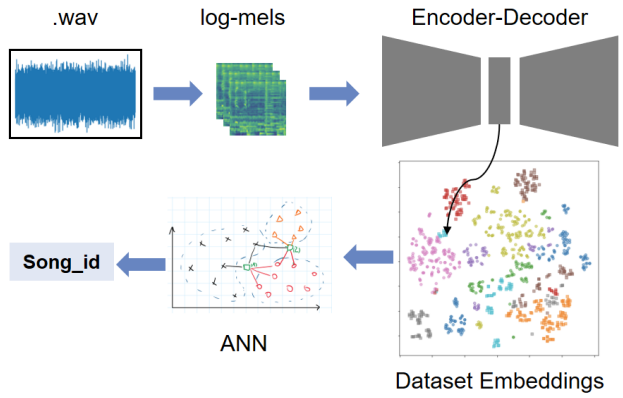

Fig. 3: Full inference pipeline: from song input to both Genre assignment and track recognition.

A majority vote decides which label or song-ID to assign to each sub-track of the original input. The pipeline returns the final genre or song-ID that are closest to the input sample. Fig. 3 shows the complete inference pipeline for both genre classification and music track recognition.

5. EXPERIMENTS

5.1. Auto-encoder & Classifier

We trained the neural network for 2500 epochs where the decoder reached a mean-absolute reconstruction error below 0.05. Optimizing 27 million randomly initialized parameters on the GTZAN dataset took 10 hours on a GPU. The classifier loss was tuned with the previously mentioned loss scale. The training was monitored using Weights&Biases[11] which enabled collaborative insights into the training process. We trained different settings on the classifier loss scale, the classifier depth and the decoder loss scale. Our final model was trained with a learning rate of 0.001. The scale of the decoder loss was 1, but the classifier loss was scaled with a value of 0.005. As the 3-layer classifier is smaller than the decoder, it converged faster. We trained decoder-only and classifier-only models to identify the impact of the combined approach.

	sklearn KNN	ANNOY ANN
Fitting model	51.5s	13.2s
Retrieving 30NNs	$206 \times 10^{-}3$s	$1.95 \times 10^{-}3$s
Adjusting 1000NNs	58.8	0s (not needed)
Retrieving 1000NNs	$172 \times 10^{-}3$s	$8 \times 10^{-}3$s

Table 1: Runtime comparison: Fitting on 80000 1024-dimensional embedding vectors and retrieving 30 and 1000 neares neighbors of a sample.

5.2. Nearst Neighbor Search

Using simple K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) algorithm and performing an extensive search in the embedded dataset would not scale with a growing dataset. Therefore, we chose to use the Approximal Nearest Neighbors (ANN). Spotify provides a python implementation: ANNOY [12]. Table 1 shows how much runtime this spares us compared to the sklearn implementation of the KNN algorithm [13].

We have tried majority voting of the (approximal) nearest 10, 30 and 100 neighbors to perform Genre classification. $K = 10$ yielded the most stable and reproducible classification performance.

6. EVALUATION

Our pipeline was designed to solve three problems: Genre Classification, Meaningful Track Embedding and Music Fingerprinting. We evaluate our models on the FMA dataset. The dataset was not used for training our models and 5 out of the 8 genres contained in it were unseen by the Encoder-Classifier-Decoder network.

6.1. Genre Classification

Using the Approximal Nearest Neighbors algorithm, we were able to achieve a fair performance. Looking at the confusion matrix on Fig.4 (left), it is visible that with the exception of the Pop-class, the ANN model does a good job classifying the embedding vectors into their corresponding genres. The model reaches an average accuracy of 63%, with some weaker spots (e.g. recall value of Pop $\sim$ 0.3). If we consider a top-2-guess genre assignment for every sub-track, then the model accuracy is around 85%.

On the other hand, the model performs much better on familiar genres from the GTZAN data: Hip-Hop, Pop and Rock (see confusion matrix on Fig.4 (right)). The model reaches an average classification accuracy of 77% and a top-2-guess for every sub-track accuracy of 97%.

6.2. Embedding Quality

Instinctively, the song embedding should encode the genre information; songs of the same genre should be mapped to

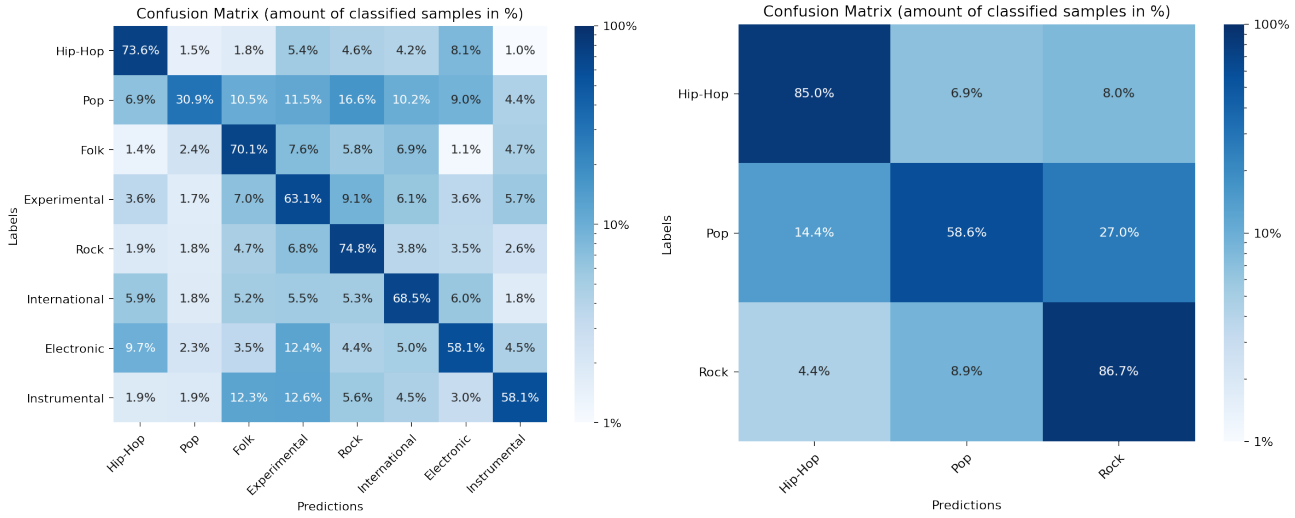

Fig. 4: Confusion Matrices of the ANN model on all FMA genres (left) and only on familiar genres (right).

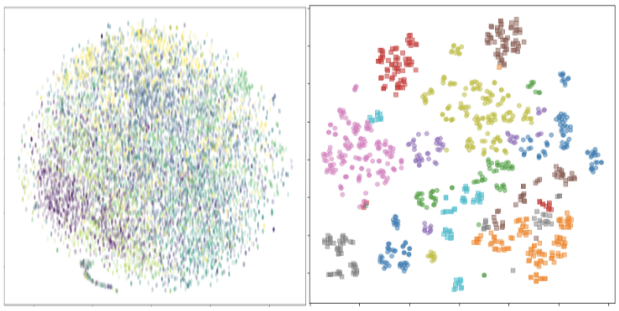

Fig. 5: 2-D t-SNE projection of the 79935 FMA snippets (left) and the 1000 GTZAN testset snippets (right) embeddings. Colors correspond to genres.

closer points in our embedding space. In order to inspect this, we decided to visualize the embeddings. For this, we used t-SNE [14] to reduce embedding dimensionality from 1024 down to 2. Fig. 5 shows both embedding results on previously unseen data (left) and on the test split of the GTZAN dataset (right). One can see a much stronger cluster-structure on the GTZAN data, whereas it is less present on the FMA data (clustering is still present; e.g. purple cluster on the bottom-left, green on the right half). This shows that we should work more on the generalization capability of our Encoder-Classifier-Decoder model or maybe include a re-training routine, once new genres come into play.

6.3. Music Fingerprinting

Running a song through our pipeline results in splitting the song to subparts, mapping these into our embedding space and performing a majority vote (10 nearest neighbors) on each sub-track. This returns the predicted song for each snippet. We chose not to regroup the snippet to test the ability of "One-Shot" song re-identification using only three seconds. Our pipeline was able to correctly identify 76% of the FMA dataset songs and its top-2-guess accuracy is around 93%. We reused the same network as in section 6.1.

7. CONCLUSION

We propose a novel methodology to perform a generalized embedding, based on semi-supervised learning. Our inference classification process is scalable as well as extensible. Adapting from genre classification to song recognition is possible with the same network and both tasks are covered with the presented pipeline.

Under the assumption that each song snippet has some genre properties we did improve the results compared to a base autoencoder. While this assumption can be feasible, we expect a better performance with a longer time window for each input, a bigger training dataset and more training epochs.

Future research should investigate the neural networks predictions to produce interpretable results, on how decoder and classifier are coupled. It is very likely simple to improve the overall results with model tuning that we could not perform due to timeline restrictions. The discrimination of audio events is a relevant research area beyond song or genre classification.

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