

# LEARNING PITCH INVARIANTS FOR INSTRUMENT RECOGNITION

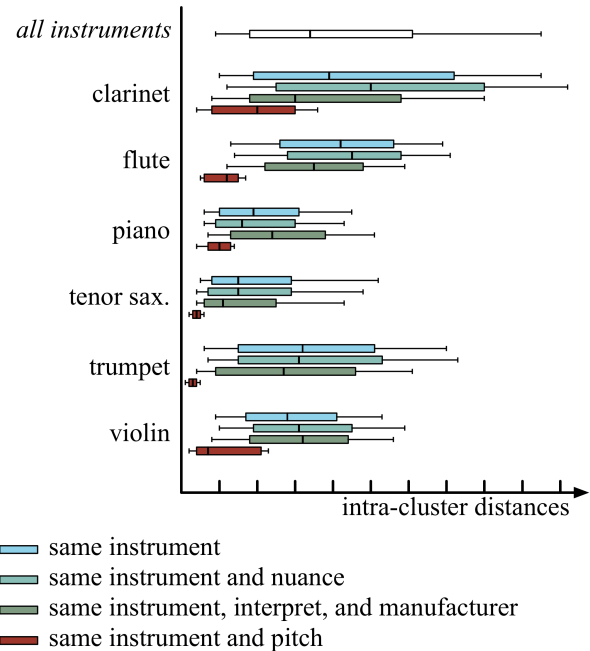
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## ABSTRACT

Musical performance combines a wide range of pitches, nuances, and expressive techniques. Audio-based classification of musical instruments thus requires to build signal representations that are invariant to such transformations. Focusing on pitch invariance, this article investigates the construction of multi-stage architectures for instrument recognition. We show that Mel-frequency cepstral coefficients (MFCC) lack invariance with respect to realistic pitch shifts. In turn, a convolutional neural network (ConvNet) in the time-frequency domain is able to disentangle pitch variability from timbral information in a subtler way. We further improve the ConvNet architecture by limiting weight sharing to octave-wide frequency bands at the first layer, while allowing full weight sharing at deeper layers. We extend our method to the recognition of multiple instruments playing simultaneously.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Among the cognitive attributes of musical tones, pitch is distinguished by a combination of three properties. First, it is relative: ordering pitches from low to high gives rise to intervals and melodic patterns. Secondly, it is intensive: multiple pitches heard simultaneously produce a chord, not a single unified tone – contrary to loudness, which adds up with the number of sources. Thirdly, it is invariant to instrumentation: this makes possible the transcription of polyphonic music under a single symbolic system. Section 2 demonstrates that pitch is the major factor of variability among musical notes of a given instrument, if described by their Mel-frequency cepstra. Section 3 describes a typical deep learning architecture for spectrogram-based classification, consisting of two convolutional layers and one densely connected layer. Section 4 improves the aforementioned architecture by splitting spectrograms into octave-wide frequency bands, training specific convolutional layers over each band in parallel, and gathering feature maps at a later stage. Section 5 discusses the effectiveness of the presented systems on a challenging dataset for music instrument recognition.



**Figure 1:** Distributions of squared Euclidean distances among various clusters in the RWC dataset. Whisker ends denote lower and upper deciles. See text for details.

## 2. HOW INVARIANT IS THE MEL-FREQUENCY CEPSTRUM ?

The mel scale is a quasi-logarithmic function of acoustic frequency designed such that perceptually similar pitch intervals appear equal in width over the full hearing range. Tuning band-pass filters to the mel scale

The MFCCs were extracted from a filterbank of 40 Mel-frequency bands and 13 discrete cosine transform coefficients.

## 3. DEEP CONVOLUTIONAL NETWORKS

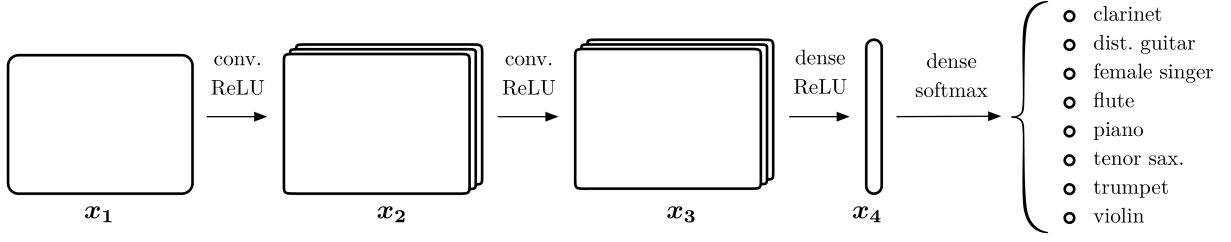
A deep learning system for classification is built by stacking multiple layers of weakly nonlinear transformations, whose parameters are jointly optimized such that the top-level layer fits a training set of labeled examples. This section introduces a typical deep learning architecture for audio classification and describes the functioning of each layer.

The input of our system is a constant-Q wavelet scalogram, which is very comparable to a mel-frequency spectrogram. We used the implementation from the librosa



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**Figure 2:** Architecture of a convolutional network with full weight sharing. See text for details.

package [5] with  $Q = 12$  filters per octave, center frequencies ranging from 55 Hz to 14 kHz (8 octaves from A1 to A9), and a hop size of 23 ms. Furthermore, we applied nonlinear perceptual weighting of loudness in order to reduce the dynamic range between the fundamental partial and its upper harmonics. A 3-second sound excerpt  $\mathbf{x}[t]$  is represented by a time-frequency matrix  $\mathbf{x}_1[t, k_1]$  of width  $T = 128$  samples and height  $K_1 = 96$  frequency bands.

Each layer in a convolutional network typically consists in the composition of three operations: two-dimensional convolutions, application of a pointwise nonlinearity, and local pooling. A convolutional operator is defined as a family  $\mathbf{W}_2[\tau, \kappa_1, k_2]$  of  $K_2 = 32$  two-dimensional filters, whose impulse responses are all constrained to have width  $\Delta t$  and height  $\Delta k_1$ . Element-wise biases  $\mathbf{b}_2[k_2]$  are added to the convolutions, resulting in the three-way tensor

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_2[t, k_1, k_2] &= \mathbf{b}_2[k_2] + \mathbf{W}_2[t, k_1, k_2] \overset{t, k_1}{*} \mathbf{x}_1[t, k_1] \\ &= \mathbf{b}_2[k_2] + \sum_{\substack{0 \leq \tau < \Delta t \\ 0 \leq \kappa_1 < \Delta k_1}} \mathbf{W}_2[\tau, \kappa_1, k_2] \mathbf{x}_1[t - \tau, k_1 - \kappa_1]. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

The pointwise nonlinearity we have chosen the *rectified linear unit* (ReLU) because of its popularity in computer vision and its computational efficiency.

$$\mathbf{y}_2^+[t, k_1, k_2] = \max(\mathbf{y}_2[t, k_1, k_2], 0) \quad (2)$$

The pooling step consists in retaining the maximal activation among neighboring units in the time-frequency domain  $(t, k_1)$  over non-overlapping rectangles of width  $\Delta t$  and height  $\Delta k_1$ .

$$\mathbf{x}_2[t, k_1, k_2] = \max_{\substack{0 \leq \tau < \Delta t \\ 0 \leq \kappa_1 < \Delta k_1}} \left\{ \mathbf{y}_2^+[t - \tau, k_1 - \kappa_1, k_2] \right\} \quad (3)$$

The hidden units in  $\mathbf{x}_2$  are in turn fed to a second layer of convolutions, ReLU, and pooling. Observe that the convolutional operator  $\mathbf{W}_3[\tau, \kappa_1, k_2, k_3]$  performs a linear combination of time-frequency feature maps in  $\mathbf{x}_2$  along the channel variable  $k_2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_3[t, k_1, k_3] &= \sum_{k_2} \mathbf{b}_3[k_2, k_3] + \mathbf{W}_3[t, k_1, k_2, k_3] \overset{t, k_1}{*} \mathbf{x}_2[t, k_1, k_2]. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

$$\mathbf{y}_4[k_4] = \sum_{t, k_1, k_3} \mathbf{W}_4[t, k_1, k_3, k_4] \mathbf{x}_3[t, k_1, k_3] \quad (5)$$

We apply a ReLU to  $\mathbf{y}_4$ , yielding  $\mathbf{x}_4[k_4] = \mathbf{y}_4^+[k_4]$ .  $\mathbf{y}_5[k_5] = \sum_{k_4} \mathbf{W}_5[k_4, k_5] \mathbf{x}_4[k_4]$ .

$$\mathbf{x}_5[k_5] = \frac{\exp \mathbf{y}_5[k_5]}{\sum_{\kappa_5} \exp \mathbf{y}_5[\kappa_5]} \quad (6)$$

The above ensures that the coefficients of  $\mathbf{x}_5$  are non-negative and sum to one, hence can be fit to a probability distribution.

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}_5, \mathcal{I}) = - \sum_{k_5 \in \mathcal{I}} \log \mathbf{x}_5[k_5] + \sum_{m=1}^4 \lambda_m \|\mathbf{W}_m\|_2. \quad (7)$$

The goal is to minimize the average loss  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}_5, \mathcal{I})$  for across all pairs  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{I})$  in the training set.

The network is trained on categorical cross-entropy over shuffled mini-batches of size 512 with uniform class distribution. Each training example is a 3-second spectrogram whose boundaries are taken at random within the training set. The learning rate policy for each scalar weight in the network is *Adam* [4], a state-of-the-art online optimizer for gradient-based learning. The architecture was built using the Keras library, and trained on a Titan X graphics processing unit within a few minutes.

#### 4. LIMITED WEIGHT SHARING

An Euclidean division of  $k_1$  by  $Q$  yields  $k_1 = j_1 \times Q + \chi_1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_2[t, k_1, k_2] &= \mathbf{b}_2[j_1, k_2] \\ &+ \mathbf{W}_2[t, \chi_1, j_1, k_2] \overset{t, \chi_1}{*} \mathbf{x}_1[t, \chi_1, j_1]. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Limited weight sharing has been introduced by Abdel-Hamid et al. [1].

#### 5. SINGLE-INSTRUMENT CLASSIFICATION

##### 5.1 Experimental design

In order to train the proposed algorithms, we used MedleyDB v1.1. [2], a dataset of 122 multitracks annotated

	minutes	tracks	minutes	tracks
clarinet	10	7	13	18
dist. guitar	15	14	17	11
female singer	10	11	19	12
flute	7	5	53	29
piano	58	28	44	15
tenor sax.	3	3	6	5
trumpet	4	6	7	27
violin	51	14	49	22
total	158	88	208	139

**Table 1**

Representation	Error rate (%)
MFCC & random forest	—
ConvNet, full weight sharing	—
ConvNet, limited weight sharing	—

**Table 2**

with instrument activations as well as melodic  $f_0$  curves when present. We extracted the monophonic stems corresponding to a selection of eight pitched instruments [see Figure 2]. Stems with leaking instruments in the background were discarded. The evaluation set consists of 120 recordings of solo music collected by Joder et al. [3]. We discarded recordings with extended instrumental techniques, since they are under-represented in MedleyDB.

## 5.2 Results

Results are charted in Table 2.

## 6. POLYPHONIC CLASSIFICATION

### 6.1 Experimental design

### 6.2 Results

Results are charted in Table 3.

## 7. CONCLUSIONS

Understanding the influence of pitch in audio streams is paramount to the design of an efficient system for automated classification, tagging, and similarity retrieval in music.

Representation	Error rate (%)
MFCC & random forest	—
ConvNet, full weight sharing	—
ConvNet, limited weight sharing	—

**Table 3**

## 8. REFERENCES

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