# **AUDIO-TEXT RETRIEVAL IN CONTEXT**

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# ABSTRACT

Audio-text retrieval based on natural language descriptions is a challenging task. It involves learning cross-modality alignments between long sequences under inadequate data conditions. In this work, we investigate several audio features as well as sequence aggregation methods for better audio-text alignment. Moreover, through a qualitative analysis we observe that semantic mapping is more important than temporal relations in contextual retrieval. Using pre-trained audio features and a descriptor-based aggregation method, we build our contextual audio-text retrieval system. Specifically, we utilize PANNs features pre-trained on a large sound event dataset and NetRVLAD pooling, which directly works with averaged descriptors. Experiments are conducted on the AudioCaps and CLOTHO datasets, and results are compared with the previous state-of-the-art system. With our proposed system, a significant improvement has been achieved on bidirectional audio-text retrieval, on all metrics including recall, median and mean rank.

Index Terms— audio-text retrieval, aggregation, pre-trained model, cross-modal

# 1. INTRODUCTION

Large quantities of data are generated and shared in public or private databases at an accelerating pace. Accordingly, there is a high demand for improved contextual search capabilities. Whilst active research addresses such issues in the domain of image [1] and video [2] retrieval, limited attention has been paid to audio retrieval from unstructured text, or vice versa.

Audio-text retrieval has undergone a trend from short to long audio clips, from structured labels to unconstrained natural language in context. Short audios such as sound effects retrieval from freeform text has been proposed as early as in 2008 [3]. As expected, this approach can only retrieve short clips using single-word audio tags. Recently, [4] adopted a siamese network to enable cross-modal retrieval by learning joint embeddings from a shared lexico-acoustic space. While their method is still limited to rather short audio clips, it allows for more complex text queries such as class-labels. Nevertheless, for real-world applications, retrieving audio clips of any length using caption-like sentence queries would be desirable. The development of audio captioning datasets such as AudioCaps [5] or CLOTHO [6] has led to the facilitation of caption-based audio retrieval. On this basis, [7] proposed the task of long audio retrieval from unconstrained natural language queries. By employing the two text-video retrieval frameworks Mixture-of-Embedded Experts (MoEE) [8] and Collaborative-Experts (CE) [2], they obtained first

results on AudioCaps and CLOTHO. However, as mentioned by the authors, there is still room for improvements, in particular better representations and cross-modal alignment.

For cross-modal retrieval, the semantically invariant construction of embeddings into a common vector space exhibits a major challenge, especially when long sequential audio inputs are involved. Usually, this process consists of two main stages: feature extraction and sequence aggregation. After independent feature extraction, embedding sequences of both modalities are obtained. Then in the sequence aggregation stage, the embedding sequence is transformed into a single vector for further cross-modality alignment. For small data scenarios, extracting effective features is quite difficult. Hence, by taking advantage of pre-trained models, the extraction process itself can be built to consider semantic information. At the aggregation stage, parameter-free methods such as mean pooling or max pooling are common strategies, while more sophisticated techniques emphasizing contextual or temporal information are less investigated.

In this study, we demonstrate that pre-trained contextual audio features outperform previous commonly-used static features, *e.g.* log-mel spectrogram (LMS) and mel-frequency cepstrum coefficient (MFCC). We also reveal that descriptor-based aggregation methods perform better than parameter-free and temporal modeling approaches. Specifically, we consider PANNs [9] for improved feature extraction together with NetRVLAD [10] for enhanced aggregation, leading to a sizeable performance improvement compared with the previous contextual audio-text retrieval study [7].

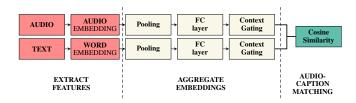
### 2. CROSS-MODAL REPRESENTATION AND ALIGNMENT

The goal of text-to-audio retrieval task is to retrieve the most relevant audio clip(s) from an audio database given a text query (natural language descriptions). Similarly, audio-to-text retrieval aims at using an audio query to retrieve corresponding caption(s). Given a collection of audio samples  $\boldsymbol{A}$  and their corresponding captions  $\boldsymbol{C}$ , an audio-caption common embedding space is learned via separately encoding the two modalities. We calculate cosine similarity s(i,j) between  $\boldsymbol{C}^i \in \boldsymbol{C}$  and  $\boldsymbol{A}^j \in \boldsymbol{A}$  as a ranking score, where a high score stands for matching pairs and a low one for irrelevant pairs.

Our proposed framework comprises three main steps as illustrated in Figure 1. First, audio and word embeddings are extracted from the input audio signal and tokens respectively. Second, the embeddings are aggregated at the pooling stage, then projected by means of fully connected (FC) layers and subsequently enhanced through a context gating module. Third, cosine similarity is computed based on normalized audio and sentence representations.

As audio and text inputs are long data streams without explicit

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**Fig. 1.** Framework for audio-text retrieval. FC denotes a Fully-Connected layer.

matching, the crucial technique that lies in this framework is cross-modal contextual representation and the alignment between the two. For better cross-modal alignment, we propose to acquire contextual embeddings via pre-trained models from both modalities (Section 2.1) and investigate effective aggregation strategies for the alignment purpose (Section 2.2).

#### 2.1. Contextual representations via pre-trained models

Pre-trained word2vec [11] is employed for the extraction of text features. Thus, each caption  $C^i \in \mathbb{R}^{N_i \times 300}$ , where  $N_i$  denotes the number of words, can be written as  $C^i = (t^i_1, t^i_2, \dots, t^i_{N_i})^{\top}$ , where  $(t^i_l)_{l=1,\dots,N_i} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{300}$  are the respective embedding sequences.

In terms of audio embeddings, we adopt pre-trained audio neural networks (PANNs) [9] trained on AudioSet [12], which has shown excellent performance in audio-related tasks such as audio tagging. In this work, we exploit 14-layer PANNs (CNN14) and the output before the global pooling is employed. Compared with previously adopted pre-trained audio features such as VGGish [13] or ResNet 18 [14], PANNs is trained on a larger dataset AudioSet [12], which consists of a wide range of sound events.

The output feature is a collection of 2048-dimensional segment embeddings, with each segment presenting 0.32s duration audio content. Thus, for each audio  $\mathbf{A}^j \in \mathbb{R}^{M_j \times d}$ , where  $M_j$  denotes the number of audio segments and d denotes the feature dimension, a sequence of segment embeddings  $(\mathbf{a}_t^j)_{t=1,\dots,M_j} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  is obtained, such that  $\mathbf{A}^j = (\mathbf{a}_1^j, \mathbf{a}_2^j, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{M_i}^j)^{\top}$ .

# 2.2. Aggregation for cross-modal alignment

The pooling module aggregates sentence embeddings  ${m C}^i$  and audio embeddings  ${m A}^j$  into respective single vector representations. We compare three aggregation strategies: parameter-free, temporal and descriptor-based.

## 2.2.1. Parameter-free methods

**Mean pooling.** This method averages the sequence embeddings to obtain the "average audio" and "average word". The output can be written as

$$C_{\text{mean}}^{i} = \frac{1}{N_{i}} \sum_{l=1}^{N_{i}} t_{l}^{i}, \quad A_{\text{mean}}^{j} = \frac{1}{M_{j}} \sum_{t=1}^{M_{j}} a_{t}^{j}.$$
 (1)

**Max pooling**. Another strategy is to collect the maximum value among audio frames and words. This method can preserve the most important information along the temporal dimension. The output is denoted as

$$C_{\max}^{i} = \max_{l \in \{1, \dots, N_{i}\}} t_{l}^{i}, \quad A_{\max}^{j} = \max_{l \in \{1, \dots, M_{j}\}} a_{l}^{j}.$$
 (2)

#### 2.2.2. Temporal pooling method

**LSTM + mean pooling.** Compared with parameter-free pooling methods, recurrent neural networks prove effective for treating sequential features. Due to its strong capability of modeling temporal dependencies, we employ Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) network [15], providing the output

$$\mathbf{C}_{\text{tmp}}^{i} = (\mathbf{t}_{\text{tmp},1}^{i}, \dots, \mathbf{t}_{\text{tmp},N_{i}}^{i})^{\top} = LSTM(\mathbf{C}^{i}), 
\mathbf{A}_{\text{tmp}}^{j} = (\mathbf{a}_{\text{tmp},1}^{j}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{\text{tmp},M_{i}}^{j})^{\top} = LSTM(\mathbf{A}^{j}).$$
(3)

Afterwards, mean pooling is applied by replacing  $C^i$  and  $A^j$  in Eq. (1) by  $C^i_{\rm tmp}$  and  $A^j_{\rm tmp}$  respectively.

# 2.2.3. Descriptor-based pooling methods

**NetVLAD**. Compared with Vector of Locally Aggregated Descriptors (VLAD) [10] encoding, NetVLAD [16] enables backpropagation by adopting soft assignment to clusters and has shown outstanding performance in visual-related retrieval tasks [8, 17]. Given local descriptors  $\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_N)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}$  as inputs and K cluster centers  $\boldsymbol{c} = (\boldsymbol{c}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{c}_K)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times M}$  as VLAD parameters, the NetVLAD descriptor output  $\boldsymbol{V} = (V_{jk}) \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times M}$  is

$$V_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\exp\left(\boldsymbol{w}_{k}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} + b_{k}\right)}{\sum_{k'} \exp\left(\mathbf{w}_{k'}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} + b_{k'}\right)} (\boldsymbol{x}_{ij} - \boldsymbol{c}_{kj}), \tag{4}$$

where  $\boldsymbol{w}_k$ ,  $b_k$  and  $\boldsymbol{c}_k$  are trainable parameters.

**NetRVLAD**. Introduced in [17], NetRVLAD is a simplified version of NetVLAD, which directly works with averaged descriptors. It reduces the number of trainable parameters compared with NetVLAD. The NetRVLAD descriptor output  $\mathbf{R} = (R_{jk}) \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times M}$  is given by

$$R_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\exp\left(\boldsymbol{w}_{k}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} + b_{k}\right)}{\sum_{k'} \exp\left(\boldsymbol{w}_{k'}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} + b_{k'}\right)} \boldsymbol{x}_{ij}$$
 (5)

Finally, we reshape V and R to single vector representations

$$\mathbf{V} = (V_{11}, V_{12}, \dots, V_{1M}, \dots, V_{KM})^{\top}, \mathbf{R} = (R_{11}, R_{12}, \dots, R_{1M}, \dots, R_{KM})^{\top}.$$
 (6)

With input  $C^i$  and  $A^j$ , the outputs  $C^i_{\rm vlad}$  ( $C^i_{\rm rvlad}$ ) and  $A^j_{\rm vlad}$  ( $A^j_{\rm rvlad}$ ) are obtained through Eqs. (4)–(6). Clusters in descriptor-based methods can be viewed as semantic information. Therefore, descriptor-based methods map the audio and text embeddings into several semantic clusters for cross-modal alignment.

## 3. EXPERIMENTS

#### 3.1. Experiment settings

# 3.1.1. Datasets

We use AudioCaps [5] and CLOTHO [6] datasets in our experiments. AudioCaps contains about 49K audio samples, which are approximately 10 s long. Each audio is annotated with one sentence in the training set and five sentences in the validation and test set. We keep the same test pool of 816 samples as [7]. Unlike [7], the lastest CLOTHO version 2.1 is used in this work. It consists of 6974 audio samples, which are of 15 s to 30 s long. Each audio sample is annotated with 5 sentences. The number of training, validation and test samples are 3839, 1045 and 1045 respectively.

#### 3.1.2. Evaluation metrics

We employ recall at K (R@K, higher is better), median rank (Medr, lower is better) and mean rank (MnR, lower is better) as evaluation metrics. R@K is denoted as the percentage of correct matching in top-k retrieved results. These metrics are commonly used in retrieval tasks, *e.g.* text-video retrieval [2]. Results of mean and standard deviation based on three randomly seeded runs are also reported.

## 3.2. Implementation details

### 3.2.1. Gate module

After the pooling module, the aggregated audio and caption representations are further embedded into  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , where d stands for audio feature dimension, by means of one single FC layer respectively. This provides feature vectors  $\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , which are passed to the Context Gating module [1]:

$$Y = \sigma(WX + b) \odot X. \tag{7}$$

In Eq. (7), the element-wise sigmoid activation function is denoted by  $\sigma$ , element-wise multiplication is indicated by  $\odot$ , while  $\boldsymbol{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  and  $\boldsymbol{b} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  are trainable parameters.

#### 3.2.2. Loss function

Caption and audio representations  $\boldsymbol{Y}_{\mathrm{A}}^{i}$  and  $\boldsymbol{Y}_{\mathrm{A}}^{j}$  obtained from Eq. (7) are further normalized. Then, cosine similarity between i-th caption and j-th audio is

$$s(i,j) = \mathbf{Y}_{\mathrm{C}}^{i} \cdot (\mathbf{Y}_{\mathrm{A}}^{j})^{\top}. \tag{8}$$

For training, bi-directional max margin ranking loss [18] is employed:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^{B} \sum_{j \neq i} [l_{c}(i, j) + l_{a}(i, j)], \qquad (9)$$

wherein B is the batch size and for margin m we denoted

$$l_{c}(i,j) := \max(0, m + s(i,j) - s(i,i)), l_{a}(i,j) := \max(0, m + s(j,i) - s(i,i)).$$
(10)

Hereby,  $l_{\rm c}(i,j)$  corresponds to the negative caption-audio pairs for each given caption query, while  $l_{\rm a}(i,j)$  accounts for the negative caption-audio pairs for each given audio query. Therefore, the similarity between a caption-audio pair s(i,i) is higher than any negative pairs by at least margin m. During training, we use mini-batch for computational feasibility.

# 3.2.3. Hyper-parameters

The batch size for training is 128, and m in Eq. (9) is set to 0.2. The learning rate is 0.01, with a weight decay of 0.001. For LSTM, we use one hidden layer of size d. As for NetVLAD and NetRVLAD, we use 20 VLAD clusters for text and 12 for audio.

#### 4. RESULTS

### 4.1. Influence of audio representations

We first compare the influence of different audio representations by comparing the proposed PANNs feature with static LMS and contextual features in previous work, extracted from pre-trained VGGish and ResNet18. We use NetRVLAD as the aggregation method for all audio representations. The results (listed in Table 1) show that

	Text =	⇒ Audio	$Audio \Longrightarrow Text$					
Model	R@1↑	R@10↑	R@1↑	R@10↑				
AudioCaps								
LMS	$3.3_{\pm 0.2}$	$19.4_{\pm 1.0}$	$3.0_{\pm 0.4}$	$17.9_{\pm 1.2}$				
Vggish [13]	$15.6_{\pm0.1}$	$59.0_{\pm 1.3}$	$16.1_{\pm 0.6}$	$57.6_{\pm 0.7}$				
ResNet18 [19]	$20.6_{\pm0.3}$	$68.1_{\pm 0.4}$	$24.8_{\pm 1.0}$	$70.3_{\pm 1.2}$				
CNN14 [9]	$29.3_{\pm0.3}$	$79.3_{\pm 1.0}$	$33.3_{\pm 0.5}$	$80.6_{\pm 0.8}$				
ССОТНО								
LMS	$1.0_{\pm 0.1}$	$8.0_{\pm 0.4}$	$0.6_{\pm 0.3}$	$5.6_{\pm 0.7}$				
Vggish [13]	$5.8_{\pm0.2}$	$29.1_{\pm 0.2}$	$6.0_{\ \pm 0.6}$	$28.7_{\pm 1.0}$				
ResNet18 [19]	$8.1_{\pm 0.2}$	$35.8_{\pm0.6}$	$8.5_{\ \pm0.2}$	$37.2_{\pm0.2}$				
CNN14 [9]	$13.1_{\pm 0.2}$	$45.1_{\pm 0.3}$	$13.0_{\pm 0.2}$	$45.4_{\pm 0.8}$				

**Table 1**. Audio-Caption retrieval results with different pre-trained audio encoding models.  $\mathbf{R@K}$  is Recall@K (higher is better).

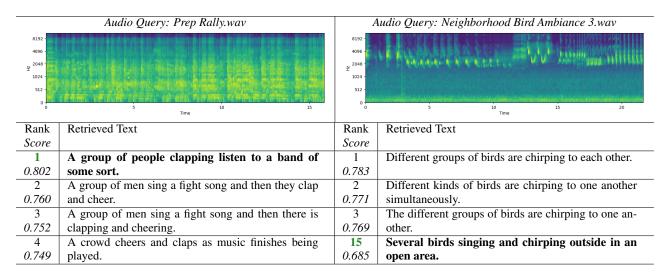
	Text =	→ Audio	$Audio \Longrightarrow Text$						
Model	R@1↑	R@10↑	R@1↑	R@10↑					
AudioCaps									
Mean Pooling	$25.8_{\pm0.2}$	$74.4_{\pm 0.3}$	$29.0_{\pm 0.8}$	$76.2_{\pm 0.4}$					
Max Pooling	$24.3_{\pm 0.3}$	$73.9_{\pm 0.1}$	$25.8_{\pm 0.6}$	$75.4_{\pm 0.9}$					
LSTM	$25.8_{\pm0.3}$	$76.1_{\pm 1.0}$	$29.1_{\pm 2.0}$	$75.3_{\pm 1.3}$					
NetVLAD	$29.1_{\pm 0.3}$	$78.8_{\pm 0.9}$	$32.8_{\pm 1.2}$	$79.0_{\pm 1.2}$					
NetRVLAD	$29.3_{\pm 0.3}$	$79.3_{\pm 1.0}$	$33.3_{\pm 0.5}$	$80.6_{\pm 0.8}$					
ССОТНО									
Mean Pooling	$9.8_{\pm 0.2}$	$39.5_{\pm 0.0}$	$10.1_{\pm 0.7}$	$39.3_{\pm 0.7}$					
Max Pooling	$11.2_{\pm 0.2}$	$41.9_{\pm 0.2}$	$11.3_{\pm 0.7}$	$42.6_{\pm 1.1}$					
LSTM	$9.1_{\pm 0.4}$	$36.9_{\pm0.4}$	$9.2_{\pm 0.7}$	$37.6_{\pm0.8}$					
NetVLAD	$12.6_{\pm 0.1}$	$45.1_{\pm 0.5}$	$12.8_{\pm0.1}$	$45.3_{\pm 0.4}$					
NetRVLAD	$13.1_{\pm 0.2}$	$45.1_{\pm 0.3}$	$13.0_{\pm 0.2}$	$45.4{\scriptstyle\pm0.8}$					

**Table 2.** Audio-Caption retrieval results based on different aggregation strategies. **R**@**K** is Recall@**K** (higher is better).

feature extraction using pre-trained models, compared with LMS, significantly improves the retrieval performance. Among the considered pre-trained models, we observe that PANNs leads to better results than VGGish and ResNet18 as utilized in [7]. This indicates that pre-training on a comparably large dataset with much more sound event types leads to performance improvements. Accordingly, our subsequent comparison of aggregation strategies is solely based on PANNs feature.

## 4.2. Influence of aggregation methods

Our evaluation results for several aggregation methods (Section 2.2) are reported in Table 2. For the sake of comparison, the output size of the pooling module is fixed to 2048. Max pooling outperforms mean pooling on CLOTHO, but no improvements are observed on AudioCaps. We suspect this outcome to be a consequence of limited sound event types included in CLOTHO. Compared with parameter-free methods, LSTM aggregation does not improve performance. However, descriptor-based aggregation strategies improve the results to a large extent on both datasets. This indicates that mapping audio and text to the same semantic concepts is much more important than temporal relations in contextual audio-text retrieval. Moreover, NetRVLAD slightly outperforms NetVLAD. With fewer trainable parameters, NetRVLAD is less prone to over-fitting, leading to better performance.



**Table 3. Retrieve Caption based on Audio Query on CLOTHO. Left:** The correct caption is identified. **Right:** The correct caption is not identified among the top results, but the listed top three results describe the same sound event as the input audio (bird chirping).

	$Text \Longrightarrow Audio$			$Audio \Longrightarrow Text$				
Model	R@1↑	R@5↑	R@10↑	Med $r\downarrow$	R@1↑	R@5↑	R@10↑	Med $r\downarrow$
AudioCaps								
MoEE [7]	$22.5_{\pm 0.3}$	$54.4_{\pm 0.6}$	$69.5_{\pm 0.9}$	$5.0_{\pm 0.0}$	25.1 <sub>±0.8</sub>	$57.5_{\pm 1.4}$	$72.9_{\pm 1.2}$	$4.0_{\pm 0.0}$
CE [7]	$23.1_{\pm 0.8}$	$55.1_{\pm 0.9}$	$70.7_{\pm 0.7}$	$4.7_{\pm 0.6}$	$25.1_{\pm 0.9}$	$57.1_{\pm 1.0}$	$73.2_{\pm 1.0}$	$4.0_{\pm 0.0}$
CNN14+NetRVLAD (Ours)	$29.3_{\pm 0.3}$	$65.2_{\pm 0.5}$	$\textbf{79.3}_{\pm \textbf{1.0}}$	$3.0{\scriptstyle \pm 0.0}$	$33.3{\scriptstyle\pm0.5}$	$67.6{\scriptstyle\pm0.5}$	$80.6_{\pm 0.8}$	$3.0_{\pm 0.0}$
ССОТНО								
MoEE [7]	$8.5_{\pm 0.1}$	$26.5_{\pm 0.1}$	$38.2_{\pm 0.9}$	$19.3_{\pm 0.6}$	$9.7_{\pm 0.4}$	$27.0_{\pm 0.1}$	$38.7_{\pm 0.6}$	$17.3_{\pm 0.6}$
CE [7]	$9.0_{\pm 0.4}$	$26.8_{\pm 0.2}$	$38.6_{\pm 0.6}$	$18.0_{\pm 0.0}$	$9.4_{\pm 0.9}$	$27.2_{\pm 1.5}$	$39.6_{\pm 1.5}$	$17.0_{\pm 1.0}$
CNN14+NetRVLAD (Ours)	$13.1_{\pm 0.2}$	$33.1_{\pm 0.6}$	$45.1_{\pm 0.2}$	$13.0_{\pm 0.0}$	$13.0_{\pm 0.2}$	$32.9_{\pm 0.7}$	$45.4_{\pm0.8}$	$13.0_{\pm 0.0}$

**Table 4.** Our audio-caption retrieval results compared with [7]. We re-evaluated the retrieval results of MoEE and CE on updated CLOTHO dataset to allow a fair comparison.  $\mathbf{R@K}$  is Recall@K (higher is better),  $\mathbf{Med} r$  is Median Rank (lower is better).

### 4.3. Qualitative results

To investigate how semantic expressions and audio features are aligned, we collect the morphological features of each word. In both datasets, only small fractions of captions contain temporal adverbials, among which 94% of the words exhibit no distinct sequential information. For example, considering the audio sample corresponding to the annotation *A woman talks nearby as water pours*, two sound events *woman talks* and *water pours* have no sequential order. The model, therefore, tends to match the audio and sentence based on the occurrence of sound event. Table 3 shows two text retrieval examples based on a audio query. Most of the top retrieval sentences can well describe the given audio. Especially for the failure example in the right column of Table 3, the top three retrievals are all semantically aligned with the given audio.

# 4.4. Comparison with state-of-the-art

Based on pre-trained CNN14 features and NetRVLAD aggregation, we build our audio-text retrieval system. In Table 4, we compare the performance of our system on AudioCaps and CLOTHO with previous work on contextual audio-text retrieval [7]. To enable a fair comparison, all models are re-evaluated on the updated CLOTHO dataset. Our method significantly improves among all aspects upon the baseline set by [7] on both AudioCaps and CLOTHO.

# 5. CONCLUSIONS

We investigated two crucial components in audio-text retrieval: feature representation and sequence aggregation. Preserving audio events information in the final audio representations is the key for successful retrieval, which can be achieved by adopting powerful pre-trained models and suitable pooling methods. Our experiments show that features extracted by models pre-trained on large-scale audio event datasets significantly improve the retrieval performance. Descriptor-based aggregation approach outperforms parameter-free and temporal modeling approaches. It indicates that audio-text retrieval attaches little importance to temporal relations but relies heavily on semantic mapping. Overall, our approach of incorporating PANNs features combined with NetRVLAD delivers state-of-the-art performance for audio-text retrieval, hereby providing additional directions for further research and contributing to the promotion of content-based retrieval solutions.

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