RECOGNITION OF HARMONIC SOUNDS IN POLYPHONIC AUDIO USING A MISSING FEATURE APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

A method based on local spectral features and missing feature techniques is proposed for the recognition of harmonic sounds in mixture signals. A mask estimation algorithm is proposed for identifying spectral regions that contain reliable information for each sound source and then bounded marginalization is employed to treat the feature vector elements that are determined as unreliable. The proposed method is tested on musical instrument sounds due to the extensive availability of data but it can be applied on other sounds (i.e. animal sounds, environmental sounds), whenever these are harmonic. In simulations the proposed method clearly outperformed a baseline method for mixture signals.

1. INTRODUCTION

Computational auditory scene analysis (CASA) broadly speaking refers to algorithms that aim to recognize sound sources or events in auditory scenes [1]. Applications of CASA include for example intelligent hearing aids, acoustic surveillance, and mobile devices that adapt to the situational context.

In the case of a generic acoustic scene with various types of audio events no system at present has results anywhere close to the results a human listener can achieve as these were measured in early studies [2, 3]. Existing approaches are based on low-level signal features and k-means clustering [4], Hidden Markov Models (HMMS) [5], Probabilistic Latent Semantic Analysis (PLSA) [6], Non-Negative Matrix factorization (NMF) with time-varying bases [7], NMF with time-frequency activations [8], Shift-Invariant Probabilistic Latent Component Analysis (SIPLCA) temporally-constrained via on/off HMMs [9] or local time-frequency patterns and AdaBoost [10]. Many approaches and techniques have been tailored to specific scenes or types of audio signals such as music and speech and the resulting performance of such systems is better and closely comparable to that of humans although there is still room for improvement [11, 12].

The performance of CASA algorithms is significantly affected by the fact that they have to deal with low signal-to-noise ratios and mixtures of multiple overlapping sources. The systems fail where human listeners succeed perhaps because they are unable to imitate the ability of the auditory system to ignore spectrotemporal regions that are corrupted by noise or interfering sources, provided that there is a sufficient amount of information in other regions to suggest the presence of a sound source [13, 14].

Missing feature approaches provide a general framework for recognizing sound sources based on partial information [15, 14, 16]. These techniques attempt to identify spectrotemporal regions that carry reliable information about a sound source, in contrast to regions that are corrupted by interference from other sources or noise and are therefore labeled as unreliable or "missing" [14]. Natural sounds tend to be concentrated in small regions (sparse) in the time-frequency domain and therefore parts of their spectrogram data is often uncorrupted even in the presence of multiple sources.

Missing feature techniques have been applied by a number of authors in environmentally-robust speech recognition (see [15, 16] for reviews), but there has been very little work outside that application domain. Arguably one of the main reasons for that is the difficulty of estimating the "mask" that identifies reliable and unreliable (noisy) spectrotemporal regions: in CASA hardly any assumptions can be made about the target sounds or the interference (in contrast to environmentally-robust speech recognition). In musical instrument recognition, Eggink and Brown employed a missing feature approach by using pitch information to predict harmonic partial collisions and thereby estimate the mask [17].

In this paper, we propose a missing feature algorithm for recognizing harmonic sounds in mixture signals. As acoustic features in the proposed method, we use log-energy differences between spectral subbands. For mask estimation, we use a novel technique based on spectral smoothness. Unreliable feature vector elements are handled using bounded marginalization. In mixture signals, the proposed method clearly outperforms a reference Bayesian classifier based on Mel-cepstral features.

2. METHOD

Let us denote the observed audio signal at time frame t by vector $\mathbf{o}_t = [o_t(n)]_{n=1,...,N}$. The observation is modeled as a mixture of harmonic sounds and a residual:

$$\mathbf{o}_t = \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}_t} \mathbf{s}_{f,t} + \mathbf{r}_t \tag{1}$$

where f denotes the pitch of sound $\mathbf{s}_{f,t} = [s_{f,t}(n)]_{n=1,\ldots,N}$, and the set \mathcal{F}_t contains all pitches of sounds that are active in frame t. The residual signal \mathbf{r}_t represents all non-harmonic sounds such as background noise. For convenience, we omit the frame index t in the following and write (1) as $\mathbf{o} = \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \mathbf{s}_f + \mathbf{r}$.

Let us use p(c|o) to denote the probability that class c is present in frame o. This can be written as:

$$\mathbf{p}(c|\mathbf{o}) = \sum_{\mathcal{F}} \mathbf{p}(c|\mathbf{o}, \mathcal{F}) \mathbf{p}(\mathcal{F}|\mathbf{o})$$
(2)

The probabilities $p(\mathcal{F}|\mathbf{o})$ of different candidate pitch sets \mathcal{F} are obtained using a multipitch estimation method such as the one described in [18]. For simplicity we are making the assumption that the set of active pitches \mathcal{F} is estimated reliably, that is, we are certain those are the set of active pitches in the frame and thus, we set the probabilities of the detected pitches to 1.

The classification stage consists of calculating $\mathbf{p}(c|\mathbf{o}, \mathcal{F})$ in (2): the probability that class *c* is present given \mathbf{o} and \mathcal{F} . In polyphonic music, one sound from class *c* suffices to conclude that class *c* is present. In other words, if class *c* is not present, none of the sounds \mathbf{s}_f belongs to class *c*. Using the complements $\mathbf{p}(c|\mathbf{o}, \mathcal{F}) = 1 - \bar{\mathbf{p}}(c|\mathbf{o}, \mathcal{F})$ and $\mathbf{p}(c_f|\mathbf{o}, \mathcal{F}) = 1 - \bar{\mathbf{p}}(c_f|\mathbf{o}, \mathcal{F})$ and assuming that the class membership probabilities of individual sounds are independent of each other, the latter can be written as

$$1 - \mathsf{p}(c|\mathbf{o}, \mathcal{F}) = \prod_{f \in \mathcal{F}} [1 - \mathsf{p}(c_f|\mathbf{o}, \mathcal{F})]$$
(3)

where $p(c_f | \mathbf{o}, \mathcal{F})$ denotes the probability that sound s_f belongs to class *c*. By making two further assumptions we then model $p(c_f | \mathbf{o}, \mathcal{F})$ by

$$\mathbf{p}(c_f|\mathbf{o},\mathcal{F}) = \mathbf{p}(c_f|\mathbf{y}_f,f) \tag{4}$$

Where we have assumed that the class probability of sound \mathbf{s}_f depends on its pitch f, but not on the pitches of the other sounds. Furthermore, the observation \mathbf{o} has been replaced by feature vector \mathbf{y}_f that is extracted from the mixture signal to represent the sound with pitch f based on the assumption that \mathbf{y}_f sufficiently describes all the information of the sound \mathbf{s}_f and therefore, $\mathbf{p}(c_f | \mathbf{y}_f, \mathbf{o}, f)$ reduces to $\mathbf{p}(c_f | \mathbf{y}_f, f)$.

The focus of this paper is on calculating $p(c_f | \mathbf{y}_f, f)$, that is, the probability that a candidate sound belongs to class c when given its pitch f and the feature vector \mathbf{y}_f extracted from the mixture signal \mathbf{o} (as will be explained below). The problem becomes less straightforward and more complex in polyphonic scenarios where the feature vector \mathbf{y}_f is usually partly obscured by other co-occurring sounds that overlap in the time-frequency domain. Probabilistic models representing instrument c are trained using *clean* feature vectors extracted from isolated signals representing instrument c. This is because the interference caused by other, co-occurring sounds in polyphonic audio is highly varying and unpredictable and therefore any interference introduced at the training stage would hardly be representative of the test stage.

The problem can then be re-stated as calculating $p(c_f | \mathbf{y}_f, f)$ when some elements of the feature vector \mathbf{y}_f are reliable (clean) and some are obscured. The reliability information ("mask") is generally not available for mixture signals but has to be estimated too.

2.1. Feature representation and Binary mask

A variety of acoustic features have been proposed for audio classification [19]. In the missing feature framework, the features should be local in time-frequency in order to be able to avoid interfering sounds that tend to have a sparse energy distribution in that domain and therefore only a local effect on the features. We use log-energy differences between spectral subbands, which removes the need for level normalization and ensures that interference remains local to specific spectrum areas as opposed to cepstral features where it would spread all over the feature vector. The feature vector \mathbf{y}_f is calculated by first picking the harmonic partials of a sound with pitch f from the mixture spectrum by assuming that the frequencies of the partials are exact integer multiples of the estimated pitch. We have found that extracting spectral energy only at the positions of the partials considerably improves the signal-to-noise ratio from the viewpoint of the candidate sound with pitch f.

Let vector $\mathbf{x}_f = [x_f(h)]_{h=1,...,H}$ denote the powers of harmonic partials h in the observed mixture spectrum at frequencies hf. The actual feature vector is then obtained from



Fig. 1. Illustration of the transformation matrix $[\mathbf{B}]_{k,h}$ for $\gamma = \frac{1}{3}$.

$$\mathbf{y}_f = 10\log_{10}(\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_f) \tag{5}$$

where the transform matrix \mathbf{B} maps from a linear to log-frequency resolution in order to reduce the dimensionality and also improves the statistical properties of the features. The matrix is given by

$$[\mathbf{B}]_{k,h} = g\left(\frac{\pi}{\gamma}\log_2\left(\frac{\omega_k}{hf}\right)\right) \tag{6}$$

where the window function $g(a) = 0.5 + 0.5 \cos(a)$ for $a \in [-\pi, \pi]$ and zero elsewhere. k denotes the elements of the feature vector \mathbf{y}_f refered to as *subbands* in the following. Parameter γ determines the log-frequency resolution of the features, for example $\gamma = \frac{1}{3}$ leads to a third-octave resolution. For small γ , **B** becomes an identity matrix.

Center frequencies ω_k of subbands depend on pitch f and are defined recursively by setting $\omega_1 = f$ and $\omega_k = \max(2^{\gamma}\omega_{k-1}, \omega_{k-1} + f)$. This ensures that all elements of $y_f(k)$ represent subbands containing harmonic partials. Figure 1 illustrates matrix **B** for $\gamma = \frac{1}{3}$.

The feature vector \mathbf{y}_f extracted from the mixture signal \mathbf{o} is likely to be partly obscured by other sounds that overlap the target sounds in time and frequency.

Let us use \mathbf{z}_f to denote the unobserved, "clean," feature vector that we would obtain if the features were extracted from sound \mathbf{s}_f in isolation. Let us define binary masks $m_f(k)$, where $m_f(k) = 1$ indicates that the measured log-power $y_f(k)$ for subband k is dominated by energy coming from the source with pitch f. More exactly, we assume that the (unobserved) clean feature vector \mathbf{z}_f obeys

$$z_f(k) = y_f(k) \text{ if } m_f(k) = 1$$

$$z_f(k) \le y_f(k) \text{ if } m_f(k) = 0$$

$$(7)$$

The latter stems from the fact that the *expected value* of the power spectrum of the mixture signal o is the sum of the power spectra of sources \mathbf{s}_f , $f \in \mathcal{F}$. This is valid only in the expectation sense, but is a useful assumption for classification purposes as will be seen.

Estimating the masks \mathbf{m}_f of each sound from the observed mixture signal will be discussed in Sec. 2.3. The clean "glimpses" of the sources, when $m_f(k) = 1$, form a basis for the recognition. However also the subbands where $m_f(k) = 0$ inform about \mathbf{s}_f : the observed feature value $y_f(k)$ sets an upper bound for the unobserved clean feature value $z_f(k)$. To keep the notation uncluttered, we omit the subscript f in the following and write simply \mathbf{z} , \mathbf{y} , and \mathbf{m} , with the exception of c_f to avoid confusion with c.

2.2. Marginalization of the missing data

The marginalization approach explained in this subsection is similar to the one proposed in [20], although the employed model and features are different. The probability $p(c_f|\mathbf{y}, f)$ that a candidate sound \mathbf{s}_f belongs to class c, as required in (4), can be written as $p(c_f|\mathbf{y}, f) = \sum_{\mathbf{m}} p(c_f|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f)p(\mathbf{m})$. In the case of a deterministic mask estimation we can set its probability $p(\mathbf{m}) = 1$, leading to

 $p(c_f | \mathbf{y}, f) = p(c_f | \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f)$. That can be written as

$$p(c_f | \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f) = \int p(c_f, \mathbf{z} | \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f) d\mathbf{z}$$

$$= \int p(c_f | \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f) p(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f) d\mathbf{z}$$
(8)

where $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f)$ is given by (10) and the integral is used to marginalize \mathbf{z} . The factor $p(c_f | \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f)$ simplifies to $p(c_f | \mathbf{z}, f)$ since c_f does not depend on \mathbf{m} or \mathbf{y} given \mathbf{z} .

Using Bayes' rule for $p(c_f | \mathbf{z}, f)$, (8) becomes

$$\mathsf{p}(c_f|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f) = \mathsf{p}(c_f|f) \int \frac{\mathsf{p}(\mathbf{z}|c_f, f)}{\mathsf{p}(\mathbf{z}|f)} \mathsf{p}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{z} \quad (9)$$

where $p(c_f|f)$ is the prior probability of sound with class c at pitch f and $p(\mathbf{z}|c_f, f)$ is the likelihood of observing \mathbf{z} for sound of class c and pitch f. The latter can be estimated from training data representing *isolated* (clean) signals from class c. The pdf $p(\mathbf{z}|f)$ is estimated similarly but using data from all classes.

The assumptions in (7) allow us to write the probability density function (pdf) of the unobserved clean features z of sound s_f :

$$p(z(k)|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f)$$
(10)
=
$$\begin{cases} \delta(z(k) - y(k)) & \text{if } m(k) = 1 \\ Up(z(k)|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{v}, f) & \text{if } m(k) = 0 \text{ and } z(k) \le y(k) \\ 0 & \text{if } m(k) = 0 \text{ and } z(k) > y(k) \end{cases}$$

where $\delta(\cdot)$ is the Dirac delta function and U is a normalizing constant to make the pdf sum to unity since the pdf is truncated to be zero above y(k). $p(z(k)|\mu, v, f)$ is the distribution of z(k) given values of z at subbands where m(k) = 1. μ denotes a tuple of subband indices k ordered from smallest to largest, where m(k) = 1, so that m(k) = 1 if and only if $k \in \mu$. The corresponding values of y are stored in set v so that $v(k) = y(\mu(k))$. The distribution $p(z(k)|\mu, v, f)$ is learned using isolated sounds from all classes.

The above-described approach for computing $p(c_f|\mathbf{y}, f)$ is theoretically satisfying but requires two problems to be solved in order to be practically useful. Firstly, the statistical models for $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f)$ should be invariant to the presentation level (scaling) of sound \mathbf{s}_f , appearing as an additive constant in the log-power features \mathbf{z} . (Note that we cannot normalize the scale since some of the feature vector elements are obscured and therefore not available.) To achieve that, we consider only level *differences* between subbands k. Let us use $d_k^\ell \equiv z(k) - z(\ell)$ as a shorthand to denote the level difference between subbands k and ℓ .

Secondly, the multi-dimensional integral over z in (9) is not computationally feasible in a direct form. In [21], we present a stepby-step derivation of a factorial form of (9). In the following only the final form is presented and the involved assumptions are discussed. The factorial form of (9) is given by

$$\mathbf{p}(c_f|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{y}, f) = \underbrace{\mathbf{p}(c_f|f)}_{\text{class prior}} \underbrace{\left[\prod_{i=1}^{|\boldsymbol{\mu}|-1} P_{\mu(i),\mu(i+1)}^{c_f,f}\right]}_{\text{clean subbands}} \underbrace{\left[\prod_{k \notin \boldsymbol{\mu}} Q_{k,\alpha(k),\beta(k)}^{c_f,f}\right]}_{\text{noisy subbands}}$$
(11)

$$P_{\mu(i),\mu(i+1)}^{c_f,f} = \frac{\mathsf{p}\left(d_{\mu(i)}^{\mu(i+1)} \middle| d_{\mu(i-1)}^{\mu(i)}, c_f, f\right)}{\mathsf{p}\left(d_{\mu(i)}^{\mu(i+1)} \middle| d_{\mu(i-1)}^{\mu(i)}, f\right)}$$
(12)

$$Q_{k,\alpha(k),\beta(k)}^{c_f,f} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{y(k)} \mathsf{p}\left(\mathrm{d}_k^{\alpha(k)} \big| \mathrm{d}_{\alpha(k)}^{\beta(k)}, c_f, f\right) \mathrm{d}z(k)}{\int_{-\infty}^{y(k)} \mathsf{p}\left(\mathrm{d}_k^{\alpha(k)} \big| \mathrm{d}_{\alpha(k)}^{\beta(k)}, f\right) \mathrm{d}z(k)}$$
(13)



Fig. 2. The spectrum of a musical instrument sound (top), a Humback whale call (middle) and a modern cordless phone ringing (bottom). The smoothed harmonic partial magnitudes have been highlighted with "o" and are connected with line segments to produce the "smooth envelope" of the sound.

For the clean subbands, $d_{\mu(i)}^{\mu(i+1)}$ denotes the level difference of each neighbouring pair of clean subbands *i* and *i* + 1. In the special case where all subbands are clean (mask is all-one), (11) reduces to $p(c_f|f) \prod_{k=1}^{K-1} \left[p\left(d_k^{k+1} | d_{k-1}^k, c_f, f \right) / p\left(d_k^{k+1} | d_{k-1}^k, f \right) \right]$. Integral over **z** has disappeared, due to Dirac delta in (10) which has been substituted in (9) to get (11). For computational tractability, we have also assumed that the level difference $d_{\mu(i)}^{\mu(i+1)}$ of each neighbouring pair of clean subbands depends only on *f* and the level differences on both sides, $d_{\mu(i-1)}^{\mu(i)}$ and $d_{\mu(i+1)}^{\mu(i+2)}$, but not on other subbands.

For the noisy bands, $k \notin \mu$, value $d_k^{\alpha(k)}$ denotes the level difference between band k and its nearest clean subband $\alpha(k)$. The subband $\alpha(k)$ is used as a "point of reference" for band k for which m(k) = 0. Similarly, $\beta(k)$ denotes the second-nearest clean subband to k. Again, we assume that $d_k^{\alpha(k)}$ depends only on f and the level difference $d_{\alpha(k)}^{\beta(k)}$ between only the two nearest clean subbands. Evaluation of the terms $P_{k,\ell}^{c_f,f}$ and $Q_{k,\ell,j}^{c_f,f}$ requires estimating the

Evaluation of the terms $P_{k,\ell}^{c_f,J}$ and $Q_{k,\ell,j}^{c_f,J}$ requires estimating the distributions $p(d_k^{\ell}|d_j^k, c_f, f)$ from training data. In practice, the joint distributions $p(d_k^{\ell}, d_j^k|c_f, f)$ are estimated for all possible triplets j, k, ℓ , separately for all different classes c. We use a multivariate Gaussian distribution with full (2 × 2) covariance matrices to model the densities $p(d_k^{\ell}, d_j^k|c_f, f)$. This renders the conditional $p(d_k^{\ell}|d_j^k, c_f, f)$ to be univariate Gaussian. The value of the integral in (13) is then obtained from the Gaussian cumulative distribution.

2.3. Mask estimation

Mask estimation is a central and arguably the most difficult part of missing feature techniques. A number of approaches have been proposed in the area of environmentally robust speech recognition [16, 20, 22, 23]. However these are less straightforward to apply in CASA as the interference is usually not slowly-varying and does not represent a single source but instead both the target and the interference often belong to the same broad class of environmental sounds.

The mask estimation algorithm proposed in the following is based on the assumption that the spectral envelopes of natural sounds tend to be *smooth*: slowly-varying as a function of log-frequency, in a specific sense [24]. The amplitude of an individual frequency partial can deviate negatively from the smooth envelope, but is very seldom much higher than those of its neighbours. In the latter case, the partial it is more easily perceptually segregated and perceived



Fig. 3. Performance of the different systems under varied SNR conditions. Mean values and standard deviations out of 12 randomly sampled datasets using the four acoustic scenes.

as a separate sound. This is particularly true for musical instrument sounds, but also for many other natural or artificial sounds. Figure 2 shows examples of smooth spectra for various harmonic sounds.

Overtone partials overlapping with a more dominant partial (from another source) tend to have higher magnitudes than their neighbours and rise above the smooth spectral envelope. That suggests a heuristic that individual partials with amplitudes clearly higher than their neighbours are more likely to have been corrupted by partials from interfering sources, and the mask value at the corresponding position of the feature vector should be set to zero. That is the basic idea of the mask estimation procedure in the following.

The algorithm first estimates the smooth spectral envelope, as in [24], The smoothed magnitude spectrum values are then squared and are substituted for x(h) in (5) in order to get a feature vector \mathbf{y}_{smo} . We propose to estimate the mask directly based on the difference $\Delta(k) = y(k) - y_{smo}(k)$. The mask estimate is given by

$$\hat{m}(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \Delta(k) \le \epsilon_{\text{smo}} \\ 0 & \text{if } \Delta(k) > \epsilon_{\text{smo}} \end{cases}$$
(14)

the threshold value $\epsilon_{smo} = 3 \text{ dB}$ was chosen from preliminary tests.

3. SIMULATION RESULTS

For practical purposes (mainly the availability of data), we use musical instrument sounds as the target classes but the method is not limited to musical sounds. Musical instruments provide a wide range of well-defined sound source classes with a lot of acoustic variability within each class. We used the RWC Musical Instrument Sound database [25] for training the class models, and another database, MGill University Master Samples [26] at the test stage. Known pitches were utilized only during the training stage. Ten different instruments, available in both, were chosen: bassoon, cello, clarinet, flute, oboe, piano, piccolo, alto saxophone, tuba and violin.

As a baseline method, we employed a Bayesian classifier using Gaussian mixture models (GMMs) to represent the class-conditional likelihood densities (10 Gaussians per model and diagonal covariance matrices). The feature vector was consisted of Mel-frequency cepstral coefficients (MFCCs), which have been widely used for musical instrument recognition [27] and speech recognition [28]. The zeroth coefficient was discarded and the following 12 coefficients were used for classification. The features were element-wise mean and variance normalized over all the training data.

At the test stage, single instrument sounds were mixed with background noise from four different auditory scenes: rain and rumble, crowded bar, dishwashing, and shower. Audio data for these were obtained from Freesound.org [29]. Recognition was carried

Table 1. Recognition accuracy (%) of different methods.

Method		Polyphony		
Model & Features	Mask	1	2	4
1. Random guess	_	10.0	20.0	40.0
2. GMM & MFCC	-	74.6	50.7	53.1
3. GMM & MFCC-H	MFCC-H	62.3	46.5	51.8
4. Proposed	Oracle	64.1	62.8	67.5
5. Proposed	All-one	64.1	51.8	56.4
6. Proposed	Estimated	61.5	56.9	60.2

out in an individual 93 ms analysis frame. Figure 3 shows results for the proposed method and the baseline method for varying signal-tonoise ratios. To analyze the effect of mask estimation errors, results are also shown for an "oracle" mask: an underlying ideal mask obtained by utilizing signal information before mixing. The proposed method outperforms the reference method by a wide margin in low SNR. The full potential of the proposed method can be appreciated by seeing the robustness with the oracle mask.

Table 1 shows results for mixtures of musical instrument sounds without background noise. In this case, the interference is due to the other co-occurring sources. Random notes from random instruments were chosen to generate 10000 one-, two-, and four-sounds mixtures. We had to constrain the test mixtures so that each instrument appears only once in a given mixture. This information, along with the number of sounds in the mixture ("polyphony"), was given as side-information to the classifiers. This was unavoidable since the baseline classifier operates by simply choosing P most probable classes to the output. As a consequence, the random guess rate for isolated sounds is 10% but 40% for four-sound mixtures (guessing 4 out of 10 instruments). The baseline system was trained using mixture signals of the same polyphony as the test material in each case as this led to much better results than training from isolated samples.

The proposed method (last row) outperforms the baseline (row 2) by a wide margin for polyphonies 2 and 4. For clean isolated samples, however, it performs clearly worse than the GMM+MFCC baseline. The main reason is that the proposed features are based only on the amplitudes of harmonic partials, discarding the spectrum in-between, and also are subject to pitch estimation errors. This was verified by computing MFCCs using only the harmonic partials of sounds, setting the spectrum in-between to zero ("MFCC-H" row 3).

Rows 4–6 of Table 1 show results for the proposed method. Three different types of masks were tested: the "oracle" mask (row 4), the estimated mask (bottom row), and an all-one mask that assumes all subbands are clean (row 5). Results for the estimated mask are approximately half-way between the oracle mask and the all-one mask, indicating that the spectral smoothness-based mask estimation is able to make an important step towards the ideal mask.

4. CONCLUSION

In this paper we proposed a novel method for the identification of harmonic sounds in polyphonic mixturesbased on the missing feature approach and local spectral features, using bounded marginalization to treat the unreliable feature vector elements. A mask estimation technique was proposed that is based on the assumption that the spectral envelopes of musical sounds tend to be slowly-varying as a function of log-frequency. The proposed method outperformed the reference method (GMM+MFCC) clearly in mixture signals. Nevertheless, this was not observed for isolated samples which seems to be due to the fact that only information at the positions of the harmonic partials is utilized and the rest of the spectrum is discarded.

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