Adaptive Few-Shot Learning Algorithm for Rare Sound Event Detection

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Abstract—Sound event detection is to infer the event by understanding the surrounding environmental sounds. Due to the scarcity of rare sound events, it becomes challenging for the well-trained detectors which have learned too much prior knowledge. Meanwhile, few-shot learning methods promise a good generalization ability when facing a new limited-data task. Recent approaches have achieved promising results in this field. However, these approaches treat each support example independently, ignoring the information of other examples from the whole task. Because of this, most of previous methods are constrained to generate a same feature embedding for all test-time tasks, which is not adaptive to each inputted data. In this work, we propose a novel task-adaptive module which is easy to plant into any metric-based few-shot learning frameworks. The module could identify the task-relevant feature dimension. Incorporating our module improves the performance considerably on two datasets.

Index Terms—Sound event detection, Few-shot learning, Data augmentation, Deep learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Automatic environmental sound event detection has received increasing attention in recent years [1], [2]. It deals with audios detecting and classifying, which leads to multi-form applications in industry. Environmental sound is naturally different from other audios. It doesn’t exhibit any stationary patterns like phoneme in speech [3], [4] or rhythm in music. In contrast, sound event contains very complex temporal structure [5]–[7] that may be continuous (e.g. rains), abrupt (e.g. thunder storm) or periodic (e.g. clock tick). Moreover, speech [8], [9] and music usually distribute on a relatively fixed frequency bandwidth, but sound event spans a wide frequency range where different sound’s frequency may distribute in different range that leads to various patterns, such as the "Airplane" and "Dog" sounds’ frequency differs a lot. The information contained in temporal patterns and frequency bins of the sound event could be massive [10].

To date, many deep-learning (DL) methods greatly improved detection performance [11]–[16]. However, they typically require large amounts of labeled data, which limits the generalization ability to limited-data tasks due to the annotation cost. In contrast, children can recognize new things quickly with proper guidance, even they only see the examples few times. These motivate the study of few-shot learning. Meanwhile, this method has also been introduced in [17]–[21] which concerning rare sound event detection and achieved promising results. Few-shot model promises alleviating the problem of data deficit and cold start. It usually follows the episodic training strategy [17], [22], which considers an N-way K-shot (e.g. 5 way, 1 shot means there’re 5 classes, each contains 1 support example) classification task in each episode.

In the few-shot learning setting, a model is first trained on labeled data with base classes. Then, model generalization is evaluated on few-shot tasks, composed of unlabeled samples from novel classes unseen during training (query set), assuming only one or a few labeled samples (support set) are given per novel class. All metric-based few-shot learning frameworks [20], [21], [23]–[25] compute similarity between each support (training) example and the query example independently, resulting in the correlation among support examples being missed. Figure 1 illustrates our motivation of the task-adaptive module. The goal of this task is to correctly classify the query example. In Figure 1 (a), we could notice that each support example has different Tone, but may have same Timbre.
and loudness with others. During the similarity computation, the score between support example \((c1, c3, c5)\) and the query example are all 2, making it hard to classify the query example. Moreover, in multi-shot setting like Figure 1 (b) shows, most of class c3 have the same Tone but various Timbre and loudness. So it’s obvious that the critical feature in this task should be Tone thus the label of the query example should be c3. Such an phenomenon occurs especially when \(K\) is low, which motivates us incorporating the context of all categories in each task to find the relevant features. Our task-adaptive module aims to integrate all support examples’ information to value the commonality within per class and the uniqueness among all classes, thus to find the critical features.

Our contributions are as follows:

1. We introduce a feature encoder integrating attention mechanism to capture the temporal&channel context. In addition, a sound event-oriented data augmentation strategy is introduced to alleviate the data-shortage problem.

2. We extend metric-based few-shot learning frameworks with a task-adaptive module to identify the uniqueness among classes and the commonality within per class of the whole support set. The output of this module combines both support set and query set, making the subsequent feature embedding more effective.

3. We evaluated our model on two benchmarks. Results verify the superiority of our model over previous methods. Besides, our model also achieves better performance in the setting of domain mismatch.

II. PRELIMINARY AND RELATED WORKS

A. Few-shot sound event detection

Recent approaches [13], [17], [19] adopt the prototypical networks [23] and graph neural networks [26] for few-shot sound event detection. Few-shot sound event detection aims to correctly classify unseen sounds with a few support labeled examples to finetune the model.

Few-shot learning follows the episodic training paradigm that used in previous literature [23], [27]. Supposing there’re two non-overlapping datasets of classes (events) \(C_{train}\) and \(C_{test}\), where \(C_{train} \cap C_{test} = \emptyset\). There are also two procedures: Meta-training and Meta-testing. In each episode of training, we randomly sample \(N\) classes (a small subset) from \(C_{train}\) to construct support set \(S\) and query set \(Q\). A simple \(N\)-way \(K\)-shot task denotes as follow: \(S\) is denoted as \(S = \{x_1^1,...,x_K^1,...,x_K^K,...,x_K^N\}\), where \(K\) is the number of samples in per class. The query set \(Q = \{x_q^1,...,x_q^K\}\) contains various examples from the same \(N\) classes. Thus, there are \(N*K\) samples in \(S\) and \(T\) samples in \(Q\). The support set and query set composed a multi-label classification task here. During the procedure of meta-testing, \(S\) and \(Q\) sampled from \(C_{test}\), and few-shot method is required to predict on query set (no label) given the support set (with label).

B. Metric-based learning methods

Few-shot learning methods can be divided into three branches: metric-based, optimization-based and data augmentation-based [28]–[30]. In this paper, we mainly focus on metric-based learning. The metric-based methods could be categorized into inductive and transductive, and two representative methods are prototypical network [23] and transductive propagation network [21], as shown in Figure 2. Given a \(N\)-way \(K\)-shot task \(T = (S, Q)\), and the feature encoder \(f_\phi\) decided by its internal parameter \(\phi\).

**Prototypical network (ProtoNet):** this approach simply integrate neural network (NN) baseline into the end-to-end meta-learning framework. It takes the average of the learned representations of a few examples for each class as class-wise representations \(C\), and then classifies an unlabeled instance by calculating the Euclidean distance between the input and the class-wise representations. \(x_q^i \in S\) and \(x_q^\varnothing \in Q\), and \(M\) is a pair-wise feature distance function. The distance measure is as follows:

\[
f_{sim}(x^q, x^\varnothing; S, Q, \varnothing) = M(\frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} f_\varnothing(x^i_q), f_\varnothing(x^\varnothing))
\]

**Transductive propagation network (TPN):** this approach utilizes the entire test set for transductive inference, which is to consider the relationships among testset and thus predict them as a whole. Transductive inference has shown to outperform inductive methods [31]–[33]. TPN propose to learn to propagate labels via episodic paradigm. During the propagation, a distance measurement and example-wise length scale parameter were adopted to obtain a proper neighborhood graph. After the graph construction, label propagation determines the labels of the query set. The distance measure is as follows:

\[
f_{sim}(x_i, x_j; S, Q, \varnothing, \phi) = exp(-\frac{1}{2}M(f_{\sigma_i}^i, f_{\sigma_j}^j))
\]

where \(\phi\) is the parameters generating example-wise length-scale parameter \((\sigma_i, \sigma_j)\). \(x_i, x_j \in S \cup Q\).

III. APPROACH

The overview of the proposed learning framework is shown in Figure 3. In this section, we first introduce how to mask and mixup for augmenting the training data, then use class prototypes to build a classifier and update the classifier with transductive inference. After that, we discuss how to make use of the intregrated class prototypes to fine-tune the feature extractor. Lastly, we summarize the core idea of task-aware learning framework.

A. Masked mixup

To avoid possible overfitting caused by limited trained data, we adopt time and frequency masking [34] and mix-up as the
Fig. 3. (a) The overall framework of our model, it is composed of three parts: feature encoder, task-adaptive module and metric-based few-shot learning network. (b) The temporal & channel attention mechanism. \( A_{ch} \) is the channel attention, \( A_{te} \) is the temporal attention. (c) Data augmentation pipeline for the input log mel-spectrogram.

data augmentation strategy, which is simple but effective [35]. The strategy adopt multiple time and frequency masks on input spectrogram to generate multi-masked spectrograms and then randomly mixes two masked samples, increasing the diversity of samples by the way. As shown in Figure 3 (c), given a spectrogram \( x \) with \( T \) frames and \( F \) frequency bins. The first step is to use multiple time masking and frequency masking, generating \( M \) masked samples \( x^* \). To be specific, \( Mask_{num} \) assigns \( t \) consecutive time frames \( \lbrack t_0 : t_0 + t \rbrack \) and \( f \) consecutive frequency bins \( \lbrack f_0 : f_0 + f \rbrack \) value to 0, and \( num \) denotes the number of multiple masking. \( t \) is chosen from a uniform distribution from 0 to the time parameter \( \tau \), \( t_0 \) is chosen from \( \lbrack 0, T - t \rbrack \), \( f \) is chosen from a uniform distribution from 0 to the frequency parameter \( \upsilon \), \( f_0 \) is chosen from \( \lbrack 0, F - f \rbrack \). Secondly, the mixup step conducts a convex combination of two randomly selected \( (x_i^*, y_i) \) and \( (x_j^*, y_j) \) from all masked samples:

\[
\begin{align*}
x^* & \leftarrow x \odot Mask_{num} \\
\bar{x} & = \lambda x_i^* + (1 - \lambda)x_j^* \\
\bar{y} & = \lambda y_i + (1 - \lambda)y_j
\end{align*}
\]

where \( y_i \) and \( y_j \) are one-hot encoded class labels, \( (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \) being the new sample. \( \lambda \in [0, 1] \) is acquired by sampling from a beta distribution \( Beta(\alpha, \alpha) \) with \( \alpha \) being a hyperparameter.

**Feature encoder:** After data augmentation, the samples first encoded by a ConvNet \( f_\psi \) as same as [17], but the CNN layer replaced with a temporal & channel attention CNN layer [34] as shown in Figure 3 (b). The architecture of ConvNet contains five blocks and a fully-connected layer, and the first two block includes a 3 \( \times \) 3 convolutional layer, a batch normalization layer, a ReLU activation layer and a 4 \( \times \) 4 max-pooling layer, and the last block is same as the former except the last 1 \( \times \) 1 max-pooling layer.

**Task-specific:** Previous works have shown that a task-specific feature extractor works better than a task-agnostic one, so we expect our feature extractor to be task-specific. To achieve this, we propose a novel method to update feature extractor, which uses the updated class prototypes as supervision information to fine-tune the feature encoder. In addition, we plans to make use of the predicted results for unlabelled data. We make use of predicted results of high confidence to finetune the feature encoder.

**B. Task-adaptive module**

This module contains three parts and leverages the \( f_\psi(\cdot) \) as input, and outputs the task-adapted feature embedding, which will be passed to subsequent metric-based learning network.

**Task-adaptive-extractor for commonality among classes:** Task-adaptive-extractor (TAE) aims to find the commonality among all instances within a class. Denote the output shape from feature encoder \( f_\psi \) as \( (N \times K, m_1, w_1, h_1) \), where \( m_1, w_1, h_1 \) indicate the number of channel and spatial size respectively. TAE is defined as follows:

\[
f_\psi(S) : (N \times K, m_1, w_1, h_1) \xrightarrow{TAE} o : (N, m_2, w_2, h_2)
\]
class are averaged to a final output $o$. The purpose of TAE is to extract the commonality among a category. Specifically, for 1-shot setting, there is no average operation. The purpose of TAE is to eliminate the differences among instances and extract the commonalities in the same category.

We intend to make use of $o$ denoting the mean of the learned representation of the support samples on the support set to represent the learned representation of query samples. $N$ denotes the number of query samples. In our experiments, $sim$ stands for cosine similarity. We do not use $M$ for the reason that query sample is randomly chosen.

**Projector for characteristics among classes:** The goal of the second component namely projector is to find the characteristics of various classes. Projector takes the output of TAE as input and produce a mask for the support and query set by observing all the support classes at the same time.

$$o : (N, m_2, w_2, h_2) \xrightarrow{\text{reshape}} \hat{o} \xrightarrow{\text{CNN}} p : (1, m_3, w_3, h_3)$$

(7)

During the projector process, firstly, we reshape the $o : (N, m_2, w_2, h_2)$ into $\hat{o} : (1, N \times m_2, w_2, h_2)$, then a small CNN is applied to $\hat{o}$, producing the mask $p : (1, m_3, w_3, h_3)$. Finally, a softmax is also applied to the dimension $m_3$. For making the output of projector $p$ influence the feature encoder output $f_{\varphi}(\cdot)$, we need to match the shape between $p$ and $f_{\varphi}(\cdot)$. This could be achieved as follows:

$$f_{\varphi}(\cdot) \xrightarrow{\text{Reshaper}} r(\cdot) : (N \times K, m_3, w_3, h_3)$$

(8)

where Reshaper means a light-weight CNN network, and $r(\cdot)$ is regarded as the Reshaper network.

This idea is inspired by [36], which aims to maximize the mutual information between the query features and their label predictions for a few-shot task at inference. It means that the model has seen these unlabeled data before making final prediction.

**Portable to metric-based backbone:** The task-adaptive module is portable, which could be easily integrated with any metric-based few-shot learning methods. In this paper, we investigate two classical metric-based methods: prototypical network (inductive) and transductive propagation network (transductive) in Sec II-B, both do not consider the whole support set at the same time. For support set, mask $p$ directly onto the embedding. For the query set, $\odot$ stands for broadcasting the value of $p$ along the sample dimension ($N K$) in $Q$. So the distance measurement could be modified as follows. Specifically, $\theta$ is a model parameter in TPN.

$$f_{\text{sim}}(S, Q, \varphi, \theta) = \mathcal{M}(p \odot r(f_{\varphi}(S)), p \odot r(f_{\varphi}(Q)))$$

(9)

Our loss function is based on the cross entropy following most of state-of-the-art methods:

$$L = \frac{\exp(\sum_{j} f_{\text{sim}}(x_j, x_q))}{\sum_{j}^{N} \exp(\sum_{j} f_{\text{sim}}(x_j, x_q))}$$

(10)

where $x_j$, $x_q$ denoting support and query examples respectively.

According to previous discussion, we can make use of transductive inference to improve the classifier, and we can also improve feature extractor by the updated classifier and pseudo label. After we get a better feature extractor, we can continue running the previous process to update the task-aware module. It means that feature extractor and classifier can learn from each other, so we name it as task-aware.

**IV. Experiments**

**A. Experimental setting**

**Data preparation:** The dataset is from DCASE2021 task 5 [37], including development and evaluation sets. The development set is pre-splitted into training and validation sets. The training set contains about 14 hours of audio, and the validation set contains 5 hours of audio. The evaluation set consists of 31 audio files acquired from different bioacoustic sources. We utilize ESC-50 and noisESC-50 datasets in this work. The ESC-50 dataset contains 2,000 5-seconds audio clips that belonged to 50 classes, each having 40 examples. The sound categories cover sounds of human behaviors (sneezing, crying, laughing), animals (bird, dog, sheep), machine sounds (train, clock-alarm, airplane). Our work also follows [17] to evaluate the performance under noise condition called noiseESC-50 that selected from audio recordings of 15 different acoustic scenes. So, the performance on ESC-50 and noisESC-50 would reflect the generalization ability of the model in real-world applications. What’s more, although ESC-50 is relatively smaller than AudioSet, which suffers from the class imbalance problem, this also is the reason for our choice. To directly compare our model with other baselines, we follow the setting of [22] as same as [17]. Two datasets are divided into 35 classes for training, 10 classes for test and other classes for validation. All audio clips are down-sampled from 44.1kHz to 16kHz. 128-bin log-mel-spectrogram of raw audio is extracted as the input.

**Implementation detail:** We list the model architecture in Table II. The librosa [39] is used for feature extraction. During the episodic training, for each task, we only perform the mixup on the query set $Q$. Empirically, $\tau = 24$, $\nu = 36$ and $num = 2$ are used for time and frequency masking, and $\alpha = 0.2$ is used for masked mixup. We conduct Adam optimization with stochastic gradient descent algorithm in all experiments with an initial learning rate of 0.0001. The model is trained by using back-propagation with cross entropy loss function as we mentioned before. The network is trained for a max of 60 epochs and a decaying factor 0.01 is set for the learning rate to avoid overfitting.

**Data augmentation:** We utilize SpecAug, a cheap yet effective data augmentation method for spectrograms, has been introduced [31]. SpecAug randomly sets time-frequency regions to zero within an input log-Mel spectrogram with $D$ (here 64) number of frequency bins and $T$ frames. Time modification is applied by masking $y_t$ times $x_t$ consecutive time frames, where $x_t$ is chosen to be uniformly distributed between $[t_0, t_0 + x_t]$ and $t_0$ is uniformly distributed. Frequency modification is applied by masking $y_f$ times consecutive frequency bins[ $f_0$,
TABLE I
THE RESULT OF SOUND DETECTION (IN %) ON ESC-50 AND NOISEESC-50. ALL BASELINES REPORTED HERE ARE DIRECTLY REPRINT THE EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS FROM THE LITERATURE [17]. TA MEANS THE TASK-ADAPTIVE MODULE. DA MEANS THE DATA AUGMENTATION METHOD.

| Model                      | ESC-50 | noiseESC-50 |
|----------------------------|--------|-------------|
|                            | 5-way acc | 10-way acc | 5-way acc | 10-way acc |
|                            | 1-shot | 5-shot | 1-shot | 5-shot | 1-shot | 5-shot | 1-shot | 5-shot |
| MatchingNet [22]           | 53.7% | 67.0% | 34.5% | 47.9% | 51.0% | 61.5% | 31.7% | 43.0% |
| RelationNet [24]           | 60.0% | 70.3% | 41.7% | 52.0% | 56.2% | 74.5% | 39.2% | 52.5% |
| SimilarityEmbeddingNet [38] | 61.0% | 78.1% | 45.2% | 65.7% | 63.2% | 78.5% | 44.2% | 62.0% |
| ProtoNet [23]              | 67.9% | 83.0% | 46.2% | 74.2% | 66.2% | 83.0% | 46.5% | 72.2% |
| ProtoNet + AS [17]         | 74.0% | 87.7% | 55.0% | 76.5% | 69.7% | 85.7% | 51.5% | 73.5% |
| TPN [21]                   | 74.2% | 86.9% | 55.2% | 76.7% | 72.7% | 86.1% | 52.7% | 72.9% |
| ProtoNet+DA                | 70.5% | 83.3% | 48.9% | 74.7% | 69.8% | 83.3% | 47.7% | 72.1% |
| TA+ProtoNet                | 70.2% | 84.0% | 48.6% | 74.8% | 69.5% | 83.5% | 50.1% | 72.4% |
| TA+ProtoNet+DA             | 70.8% | 84.6% | 50.9% | 75.3% | 71.5% | 84.8% | 50.2% | 72.3% |
| TPN+DA                    | 71.6% | 85.2% | 51.5% | 75.7% | 72.1% | 85.2% | 51.3% | 72.9% |
| TA+TPN                    | 77.3% | 86.5% | 60.1% | 75.7% | 77.1% | 86.6% | 55.9% | 73.1% |
| TA+TPN+DA                 | 76.5% | 87.1% | 57.8% | 76.9% | 76.3% | 86.3% | 57.3% | 73.2% |
| TA+TPN+DA (temporal&channel) | 80.2% | 86.4% | 62.3% | 76.1% | 77.9% | 86.8% | 59.3% | 76.1% |
| TA+TPN+DA (temporal&channel) | 81.0% | 87.2% | 63.6% | 76.8% | 78.6% | 87.1% | 60.5% | 76.7% |

TABLE II
ARCHITECTURE OF CONVBLOCK LAYER OF TAE AND ENCODER ARCHITECTURE.

| ConvBlock Architecture | Encoder Architecture |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| Sub-Layer 1 Conv2D     | Layer 1 ConvBlock 128 |
| Sub-Layer 2 BatchNorm  | Layer 2 Conv 128     |
| Sub-Layer 3 ReLU       | Layer 3 ConvBlock 128 |
| Sub-Layer 4 MaxPool2D(2,2)) | Layer 4 Flatten |

B. Performance on ESC-50 and noiseESC-50

Experimental results are shown in Table I. Our model outperforms the previous model on two datasets. As shown in Table I, the absolute improvement of our best model (TA+TPN+DA (temporal&channel)) over published SOTA (TPN) is +6.8% in 5-way 1-shot, +8.4% in 10-way 1-shot on ESC-50. On noiseESC-50, +5.9% in 5-way 1-shot and +7.8% in 10-way 1-shot. At the same time, on ESC-50, we also notice that the performance gains slightly improvement than the SOTA, +0.1% in 10-way 5-shot, 0.3% in 5-way 5-shot on ESC-50, +3.8% in 10-way 5-shot, +1.0% in 5-way 5-shot on noiseESC-50. Obviously, our model gains more improvement in 1-shot setting. Two metric-based methods can be continuously improved by integrating TA. Specifically, the experiment results of TPN on two datasets is produced by ourself. All results are averaged over 1000 Meta-train & Meta-test episodes.

From the statistics of Table I, data augmentation and temporal&channel attention mechanism are also contributive. The data augmentation strategy could continuously improve the effect of various few-shot models. The enhancement is more obvious of TA+TPN, 2.7% for 5-way 1-shot and 2.0% for 10-way 1-shot. The improvement brought by data augmentation and novel attention mechanism illustrate that the performance of baseline methods is severely underestimated.

C. Analysis of experimental results

First, the temporal&channel attention can significantly improve the sound’s representation, thus promote model’s performances. It is acknowledged that temporal&channel attention and data augmentation strategy could reduce the intra-class variation [40]. With regarding the noise, the performance on ESC-50 is inferior to noiseESC-50. In addition, another significant observation is that 5-shot is less significantly improved than 1-shot. For example, in 5-way of ESC-50, the performance of our model over published state-of-the-art is 0.3% for 5-shot but 6.8% for 1-shot. Moreover, the margin of the various model decreases with the increasing of shots is because more labeled data are used. The superiority of task-adaptive module and other modules will be decreased when more labeled data are available. In this paper, We also make detail experiments (5-way k-shot k ∈ {1, 2, ..., 10}) of various model, and the results are presented in Figure 4 and Figure 5, which verify the viewpoints above. This gives a qualitative comparison of the result of the prototypical network with and without attentional similarity for 3 query examples from the noiseESC-50 test set. Those picked by the model without attentional similarity (marked in cyan) do not share the same class as the queries; they are picked possibly because both the query and the picked one have a long silence. In contrast, the model with attentional similarity finds correct matches (marked in red).

As this sample shows, the TPN model is indeed capable of sound localization, specifically for events with a duration information, such as “gun shot”. However, it seems to struggle with longer events, such as “dog bark,” at which it exhibits...
a peaking behavior, chunking the event into small pieces. On the contrary, TA can predict and localize both short and long events for this sample. Specifically, TA + TPN was unable to notice the short event, yet predicted its presence. We believe that this is due to the low time-resolution could skip over the presence of short events.

**D. Analysis of domain mismatch**

During this subsection, we follow the setting created by [41]. While the current evaluation focus on recognizing novel class with limited training examples, these novel classes are sampled from the same domain. So, we follow the experiments from [41], such as out-of-domain testing could display the ability of few-shot learning methods to generalize [42], [43]. Following the previous setup, the selected AudioSet [44] with 99 events for meta-train, meta-validation with 21 events and meta-test with 21 events. In addition, the pre-processing are same as the previous description about the setup of [17]. The number of ways is set to 5, and we rerun the experiments: ProtoNet, ProtoNet+AS and TPN. For the domain mismatch setting, we experiments "Music" and "Animals" domain as same as [41]. The events and associated audios from the two domains are removed from train set.

Results on ProtoNet are slightly better than those on TPN, which is mainly because in AudioSet music sounds are common and some patterns exist in other sounds as well such as bell ringing. On the other hand animal sounds such as “dog growling” rarely resemble other sounds. The gain of meta-learning approaches over supervised baselines are diminished due to domain mismatch. This implies the potential overfitting issue in meta-learning. Meta-learning models learn to utilize the correlation between classes. However, if all training classes come from one domain, the model tends to overfit to that domain and performance on new domain would drop.

**V. Conclusion**

In this paper, we proposed a task-adaptive module for few-shot sound event detection. The module contains a task-adaptive extractor (TAE) and a projector. By considering all support examples at same time, TAE could extract the inner-class commonality and the projector could find cross-class characteristic features. Besides, the data augmentation strategy and the novel attention mechanism could further improve model’s performance. We demonstrated that it significantly improved accuracy on two benchmarks (ESC-50 and noiseESC-50), achieving state-of-the-art performance. In addition, we compared with several baselines under the experimental domain mismatch setting, our model could also gain improvement over baselines.

In future work we plan to further analyze why adaptive training of current state-of-the-art models does not yield substantial improvements in the multi-shots setting. We would also like to devise a method that will perform better in fast adaptation and unsupervised adaptation. Finally, we plan to evaluate our method on more challenge tasks such as domain adaptation or language adaptation of ASR models.
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