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NEURO-STEERED MUSIC SOURCE SEPARATION WITH EEG-BASED AUDITORY ATTENTION DECODING AND CONTRASTIVE-NMF

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ABSTRACT

We propose a novel informed music source separation paradigm, which can be referred to as *neuro-steered music source separation*. More precisely, the source separation process is guided by the user’s selective auditory attention decoded from his/her EEG response to the stimulus. This high-level prior information is used to select the desired instrument to isolate and to adapt the generic source separation model to the observed signal. To this aim, we leverage the fact that the attended instrument’s neural encoding is substantially stronger than the one of the unattended sources left in the mixture. This “contrast” is extracted using an attention decoder and used to inform a source separation model based on non-negative matrix factorization named Contrastive-NMF. The results are promising and show that the EEG information can automatically select the desired source to enhance and improve the separation quality.

Index Terms— Audio source separation, Auditory attention decoding, Polyphonic music, EEG

1. INTRODUCTION

Every day we are surrounded by a multitude of sounds that are mixed in the so-called auditory scene. The latter may be very complex as it is composed of sound sources of different nature (e.g., speakers, sirens, musical instruments), which also carry spatial information (location, environment geometry, room reverberation). Nevertheless, our auditory system is naturally able to process such concurrent sounds and isolate the sources of interest. This is known as the cocktail party problem [1, 2] and has been studied mostly concerning the perception of speech in noisy or multi-speakers settings.

Even if the cognitive mechanism behind this capability is not yet fully understood, human’s selective attention has been proven to have a determinant role in it [3]. *Auditory attention decoding (AAD)* aims at determining which sound source a person is “focusing on” by just analysing the listener’s brain response. Previous AAD studies based on continuous electrocorticography (ECoG) [4, 5] and electroencephalographic (EEG) [6, 7] signals have shown that the neural activity tracks dynamic changes in the audio stimulus and can be successfully used to decode selective attention to a speaker. Similarly, in [8, 9], the AAD problem is recast as the task of decoding the attention to a specific musical instrument playing in an ensemble. In these works, a feature representation of the attended stimulus is reconstructed from the multi-channel EEG/ECoG recordings through a multi-channel Wiener-filter. This reconstruction filter, often referred to as temporal response function (TRF), is learned on a training set

via a minimum mean squared error criterion. In [4] it was shown that the reconstructed representations were highly correlated with the salient time-frequency features of the attended speaker’s voice and were only weakly correlated with the unattended speaker ones. The authors of [9] verified a similar contrast for musical stimuli. In practice, the attended source’s neural encoding is substantially stronger than the one of the unattended sources left in the mixture.

The main limitation of most AAD paradigms is their use of the separate “clean” audio sources. In fact, the ground truth feature representations are correlated with the ones predicted with the neural data to determine the attended source [5, 6, 9]. This condition is never met in realistic scenarios (e.g., intelligent hearing aids) where only mixtures are available. In such scenarios, an *audio source separation* step, where single audio sources are extracted from their mixture, is needed. This limitation is strongly intertwined with a specular aspect of audio source separation, whose process can be helped by any prior knowledge one may have about the sources [10]. In this case, the approach is referred to as *informed audio source separation* and was proven to enhance the separation process, especially for music and complicated mixtures. For instance, it has been shown that score [11], pitch [12], lyrics [13] and the motion of sound sources [14] lead to better music separation.

A few works have been proposed in the last years that relate speech source separation with AAD, but most of the time, the two tasks are tackled independently. Either the separated sources are used as clean sources to decode attention, or the EEG is used to decode which source needs to be enhanced. This has been implemented in multi-channel scenarios using beamforming [15, 16] and in single-channel scenarios using neural networks [17, 18]. However, performing the speaker separation and source selection steps independently is sub-optimal, and during the last year, a few works have been proposed to overcome this issue [19, 20]. In [19], the authors propose an adaptive beamformer that reduces noise and interference but, at the same time, maximizes the Pearson correlation between the envelope of its output and the decoded EEG. In [20], instead, a speech separation neural network is informed with the decoded attended speech envelope. Nevertheless, none of these works considers music audio signals.

As a natural continuation of the work done in [9] on AAD for music, we propose a new informed music source separation paradigm, which can be referred to as *neuro-steered music source separation*. The additional information brought by the EEG is exploited to better adapt a generic source separation model to the observed signal. More precisely, the knowledge derived from an AAD step is used to inform an NMF-based source separation model named Contrastive-NMF. At test time, a pre-trained AAD model is updated within the C-NMF estimation loop to adapt to the test signal. The attended source is automatically selected and enhanced.

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2. METHODS

2.1. Non-negative matrix factorization (NMF)

Non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) has been a very popular music source separation technique which proved to be powerful when properly informed by auxiliary data about the sources [21].

Let us consider the problem of single-channel source separation of a linear mixture x given by the sum of J sources s_j : $x(t) = \sum_{j=1}^J s_j(t)$. Given the magnitude or power spectrogram of such a mixture $\mathbf{X} \in R_+^{M \times N}$, consisting of M frequency bins and N short-time Fourier transform (STFT) frames, NMF decomposes it as $\mathbf{X} \approx \mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}$; where the columns of $\mathbf{W} \in R_+^{M \times K}$ are interpreted as non-negative audio spectral patterns expected to correspond to different sources and the rows of $\mathbf{H} \in R_+^{K \times N}$ as their activations. K is the number of spectral patterns. \mathbf{W} and \mathbf{H} estimates can be obtained by minimizing the divergence on the mixture reconstruction.

At this point, the separation problem reduces to the assignment of each of the k components to the corresponding source j . After the assignment, the soft mask of source j can be estimated as the following element-wise division: $(\mathbf{W}_j \mathbf{H}_j) / (\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H})$. Finally, source j is reconstructed by multiplying element-wise the soft-mask with the complex spectrogram of the mixture followed by an inverse STFT.

As music is often given by a repetition of a few audio patterns, the activations' sparsity can be easily imposed using an ℓ_1 regularization term on the activations [21]. The same sparsity assumption is often desirable for the spectral patterns as there is only a low probability that two given sources are highly activated in the same set of frequency bins [22]. The cost function is then:

$$\begin{cases} C(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{H}) = \underbrace{D(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H})}_{\text{audio factorization}} + \underbrace{\mu\|\mathbf{H}\|_1 + \beta\|\mathbf{W}\|_1}_{\text{sparsity}} \\ \mathbf{W}, \mathbf{H} \geq 0. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

2.2. Contrastive-NMF (C-NMF)

Prior knowledge can be fed to the model in multiple ways, e.g., using hard or soft constraints, regularizers, pretrained dictionaries, or forcing the elements of \mathbf{W} or \mathbf{H} to follow a given distribution [21]. In general, when one has access to another modality which is synchronized with the audio (e.g., video, motion capture data, score), one can, for instance, suppose that the audio in the two modalities are equal (hard constraint) or similar (soft constraint) [23].

In our case, this paradigm would not work as the audio features one can reconstruct from the EEG are often very deteriorated, making it hard to use them directly. At the same time, these reconstructions are good enough to discriminate the attended instrument from the unattended one. This information can be used as a ‘‘contrast’’ to guide the separation. In our previous work [9], we showed that the representations built from the EEG are highly correlated with the salient time-frequency features of the attended instrument and are only weakly correlated with the unattended instrument ones.

Let us consider a mixture $x(t)$ given by the linear mixing of the attended source $s_a(t)$ and some interference sources $s_u(t)$. Let \mathbf{W}_a be a sub-dictionary containing a selection of columns of \mathbf{W} representing source $s_a(t)$ and \mathbf{S}_a be their activations. \mathbf{S}_a can be reconstructed from the time-lagged EEG response \mathbf{R} . The assumption is that \mathbf{S}_a is likely to be more correlated with the activations of the attended source \mathbf{H}_a than with the ones of the unattended source \mathbf{H}_u derived from the audio factorization. This contrast is translated into a new cost function as follows:

$$\begin{cases} C(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{H}) = \underbrace{D(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H})}_{\text{audio factorization}} + \underbrace{\mu\|\mathbf{H}\|_1 + \beta\|\mathbf{W}\|_1}_{\text{sparsity}} \\ \quad - \underbrace{\delta(\|\mathbf{H}_a \mathbf{S}_a^T\|_F^2 - \|\mathbf{H}_u \mathbf{S}_a^T\|_F^2)}_{\text{contrast}} \\ \mathbf{W}, \mathbf{H}, \mathbf{S}_a \geq 0 \\ \|\mathbf{h}_k\| = 1, \|\mathbf{s}_k\| = 1. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

While decomposing the audio spectrogram, this cost function is also attempting to maximize the similarity of the EEG-derived activations with the audio-derived ones for the target source and minimize it for the interference sources. After the decomposition, the components are clustered into the target and interference sources, thanks to the contrast.

The rows of \mathbf{H} and \mathbf{S}_a (\mathbf{h}_k : and \mathbf{s}_k : respectively) are normalized in order to minimize the effect of a scale mismatch between the modalities. This also ensures that trivial solutions for which either $\mathbf{W} \rightarrow \infty$ and $\mathbf{H} \rightarrow 0$ or vice versa ($\mathbf{H} \rightarrow \infty$ and $\mathbf{W} \rightarrow 0$) due to the sparsity constraints on \mathbf{W} and \mathbf{H} are avoided. The update rule is derived using an heuristic gradient decomposition¹ and is reported in the pseudo-code of the algorithm in Alg 1.

```

input :  $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{R}, \mu \geq 0, \beta \geq 0, \delta \geq 0$ 
output:  $\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{H}$ 

1 W, H initialization
2  $\mathbf{H} \leftarrow \text{diag}(\|\mathbf{h}_1\|^{-1}, \dots, \|\mathbf{h}_k\|^{-1})\mathbf{H}$   $\triangleright$  normalization
3  $\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} \text{diag}(\|\mathbf{h}_1\|, \dots, \|\mathbf{h}_k\|)$   $\triangleright$  re-scaling
4 repeat
5    $\mathbf{S}_a \leftarrow \mathbf{g}^T \mathbf{R}$ 
6    $\mathbf{S}_a \leftarrow \text{diag}(\|\mathbf{s}_1\|^{-1}, \dots, \|\mathbf{s}_k\|^{-1})\mathbf{S}_a$ 
7   repeat
8      $\mathbf{P} \leftarrow [-\mathbf{H}_a \mathbf{S}_a^T \mathbf{S}_a, \mathbf{H}_u \mathbf{S}_a^T \mathbf{S}_a]^T$ 
9      $\mathbf{H} \leftarrow \mathbf{H} \otimes \frac{\mathbf{W}^T (\mathbf{X} \otimes \Lambda^{-1}) + \delta \mathbf{P}^-}{\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{1} + \mu + \delta \mathbf{P}^+}$ 
10     $\mathbf{H} \leftarrow \text{diag}(\|\mathbf{h}_1\|^{-1}, \dots, \|\mathbf{h}_k\|^{-1})\mathbf{H}$ 
11     $\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} \text{diag}(\|\mathbf{h}_1\|, \dots, \|\mathbf{h}_k\|)$ 
12     $\Lambda = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}$ 
13     $\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} \otimes \frac{(\Lambda^{-1} \otimes \mathbf{X})\mathbf{H}^T}{\mathbf{1}\mathbf{H}^T + \beta}$ 
14     $\Lambda = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}$ 
15  until convergence;
16  update g
17 until convergence;
18 return W, H

```

Algorithm 1: Contrastive NMF pseudo-code

The idea of discriminating sources according to some criterion is not new in NMF-based audio source separation. In [24, 25] the basis matrices are learned to be as much discriminative as possible and to have unique spectral templates. In [26], the cross-coherence of the bases was added to the cost function. In [27] instead, the NMF variables are optimized so that each basis is classified into one source. However, all these methods refer to fully supervised or semi-supervised scenarios, where the basis functions are learned in a training phase. A max-margin framework for unsupervised NMF was introduced by [28], where the projections are learned to maximize an SVM classifier’s discriminative ability. Within this work, instead, the projections are learned by an unsupervised NMF to maximize the discrimination ability of an AAD system.

¹For the detailed derivation, please refer to bit.ly/Contrastive-NMF.

2.3. Stimulus Reconstruction

The activations of the attended source \mathbf{S}_a of a given set of spectra templates \mathbf{W}_a are reconstructed from the EEG using the TRF backward model commonly used in the AAD framework [7]. In practice, each component k of \mathbf{S}_a is reconstructed independently from the others using a multichannel Wiener filter \mathbf{g}_k , which is learned through an MMSE criterion on a training set of solos of the same instrument. This results in the following normalized reverse correlation $\mathbf{g}_k = (\mathbf{R}\mathbf{R}^T + \gamma\mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{R}\mathbf{S}_k^T$ where $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{R}^T$ is the auto-correlation of the EEG signals across all time-lags and channels and $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{S}_k^T$ is the cross-correlation of the stimulus and the EEG data, \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix and $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ is the Ridge regularization parameter. The time-lags are defined by the temporal context $[\tau_{min}, \tau_{max}]$ where we expect to see the stimulus effect in the EEG.

3. EXPERIMENTS

The goal is to separate a target instrument from a given music mixture. Along with the audio signal, we have access to the EEG recorded from the subject while she/he was listening to the given mixture and attending to the target instrument. The activations of the target instrument are reconstructed from the multi-channel EEG using a pre-trained TRF backward model. Those are used to guide the mixture’s factorization and cluster the components into the respective sources. At the same time, the TRF function is updated within the NMF estimation loop to adapt to the observed signal.

The experiments are designed to evaluate if the EEG information is helping the separation process and verify that the improvement is given by the EEG and not by the cost function’s discriminative capacity. Therefore, we compared three different models:

1. Blind NMF (NMF);
2. Contrastive NMF + Random activations (C-NMF-r);
3. Contrastive NMF + EEG-derived activations (C-NMF-e).

Since NMF is entirely unsupervised, the components need to be clustered and assigned to each source after the factorization. In the baselines, the components are clustered according to their Mel-frequency cepstral coefficient (MFCC) similarity. In the case of the C-NMF-e, the EEG information automatically identifies and gathers the target instrument components. In the second baseline, the meaningless side information consists of random activations sampled from a Gaussian distribution.

3.1. Data

The data used is a subset of the MAD-EEG dataset [29], which collects well-synchronized musical stimuli and corresponding 20-channel EEG responses. The signals were recorded from 8 subjects while listening to a song and attending to a specific instrument. Each subject listened to a set of stimuli, consisting of 4 repetitions of the same 6-second-long music excerpt. Each attended instrument was previously heard in solo, as part of a *training phase*.

The dataset contains many stimuli variants in terms of musical genre, type and number of instruments in each mixture, spatial rendering, and attended instrument during the listening test. We chose to use only the pop duets of the dataset (12 mixtures in total, which were listened by multiple subjects) as the separation task is too easy for the classic ones. The idea is to test only complicated mixtures, where additional information may help the NMF in the separation

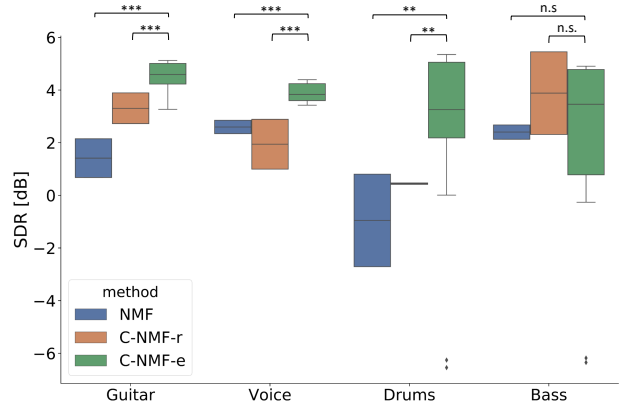


Fig. 1. SDR expressed in dB for different instruments and methods. “***” denotes high ($p < 0.001$), “**” good ($p < 0.01$), “*” marginal ($p < 0.05$) and “n.s.” no ($p > 0.05$) statistical significance for a non-parametric Wilcoxon test on the linear SDR.

process. Pop mixtures of the dataset consist of real music compositions for which we can access the isolated sources. The instruments that can occur are voice, bass, drums, and electric guitar.

The EEG electrodes were placed according to the 10-20 international montage system and referenced to the left mastoid in a unipolar setting. The sampling frequency was 256Hz . The 50 Hz power-line interference was removed using a notch filter, and EOG/ECG artifacts were detected and removed using independent component analysis (ICA). For more details about the data, please refer to [29].

3.2. Hyper parameter tuning

For each model, hyper-parameter values were decided through a grid-search using an holdout example mixture.

For all models, the best number of components to represent each instrument is $16 \times J$, e.g. $K = 32$ for duets. For each method, NMF is run for 400 iterations while the TRF model is updated every 100 iterations. An ℓ_1 regularization term is imposed both on \mathbf{W} and \mathbf{H} to ensure sparsity: $\mu = \beta = 1$ is the best solution for the two baselines, while for our model, it is $\mu = \beta = 10$. We found the best weight of the contrast term to be $\delta = 10^4$. The Kullback-Leibler divergence was found to work better than the Euclidean and Itakura-Saito ones. For each method, the initialization of \mathbf{W} and \mathbf{H} is obtained by applying a blind NMF to the mixture for 200 iterations.

A good initialization of the TRF functions was learned from a training set of solos (different from the ones used in the test mixtures) and corresponding EEG recordings for each subject and instrument. The Ridge parameter is set to be $\gamma = 0.1$ and the considered temporal context is $[0, 250]\text{ms}$ post-stimulus.

4. RESULTS

The models are evaluated using standard metrics in music source separation, i.e. Signal-to-Distortion Ratio (SDR), Signal-to-Interference Ratio (SIR) and Signal-to-Artifacts Ratio (SAR) expressed in dB and computed using the BSSEval v4 [30]. To assert the statistical significance of our model’s improvement over the baselines, we opted for a non-parametric Wilcoxon test on the linear values of the metrics. The considered significance levels are 0.1%, 1% and 5%.

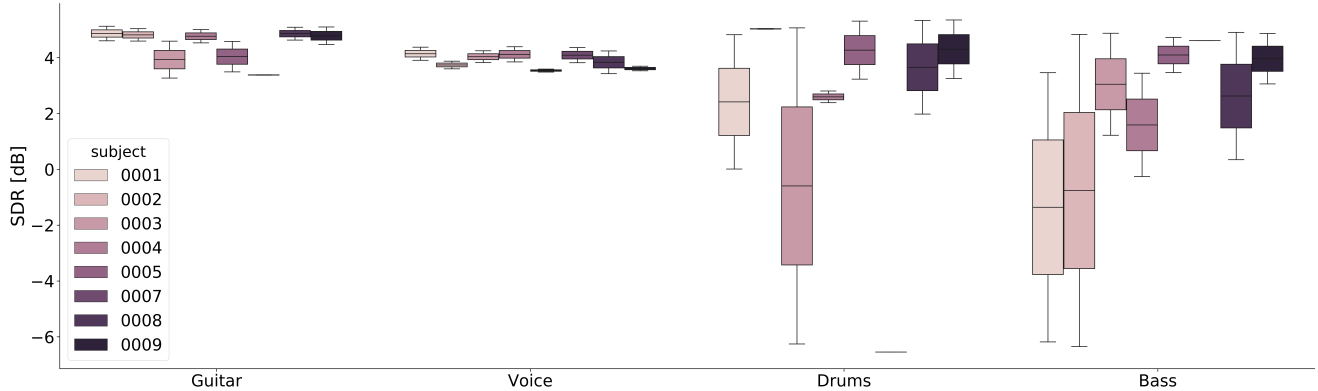


Fig. 2. SDR expressed in dB for the EEG-informed NMF. Different nuances of pink indicate different subjects.

	Guitar			Vocals			Drums			Bass			SDR	Mono	Stereo
	SDR	SIR	SAR	SDR	SIR	SAR	SDR	SIR	SAR	SDR	SIR	SAR			
NMF	1.4	1.5	7.2	2.6	2.1	8.5	-1.0	-2.2	5.4	2.4	4.5	8.1	Guitar	4.6	5.0
C-NMF-r	3.3	2.6	8.5	1.9	6.2	-1.0	0.4	5.5	-6.8	3.9	2.9	17.0	Vocals	3.8	4.3
C-NMF-e	4.6	6.8	7.5	3.8	6.6	5.8	3.3	6.5	11.3	3.5	1.3	13.2	Drums	3.2	5.0
													Bass	4.0	0.3

Table 1. (Left): SDR, SIR and SAR separation results for the three tested models and each instrument in the test set. (Right): SDR results of the proposed method are split for stereo and mono tests. The metrics are shown in dB and all values are medians over the test set.

The results we obtain are promising and show that the contrast derived from the EEG can improve the separation quality. In Figure 1, one can compare the SDR obtained for different methods and instruments in the dataset, while in Table 1, one can see the median values of the complete set of metrics.

For all the instruments except for the bass, our model performs significantly better than both the blind NMF and C-NMF-r ($p < 0.001$ for guitar and vocals; $p < 0.01$ for the drums, non-parametric Wilcoxon test). Considering the bass only, the difference among the methods is not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$, non-parametric Wilcoxon test). Even if the improvement is not systematic for all the instruments, the formulation of the proposed NMF gives an automatic clustering of the components and the identification of the target source also for the bass. This is already an asset with respect to the baselines, which need an additional step of clustering of the components and cannot automatically identify the target source.

The high variance experienced when separating the bass and the drums is due to the high variance experienced across different subjects. In Figure 2, we can see the performances in terms of SDR for the method C-NMF-e. Different nuances of pink indicate different subjects. It is immediate to see that the attention task may be more or less difficult for different subjects, and this is evident for instruments like the bass and the drums, which are notably more difficult to be tracked, especially for non-professional musicians. Singing voice and guitar seem to work notably better in this sense. One tentative explanation is that the voice is a particular type of instrument for which the attention is radically different from the other ones as it also involves semantic cues. Moreover, all subjects involved in the experiments except two, play guitar as a hobby.

The stimuli were played to the subjects with two possible spatial renderings: one where both instruments are in the center, denoted as *mono* modality, and one where the instruments are spatialized, denoted as *stereo*. In Table 1 on the right, we see the results for

these two different cases. Intuitively, the stereo setting should help the subject in focusing on the target instrument as it makes it easier to localize it, leading to a better reconstruction of its activations and finally giving a better separation. This seems to be true for the singing voice, guitar, and drums. However, this finding needs further validation as the difference cannot be considered statistically significant ($p > 0.05$, non-parametric Wilcoxon test) as the number of test examples is limited, and the variability is high. For the bass, it seems instead that the spatial cues make the attention task harder, maybe adding some ambiguities. The bass performance on the stereo setting confirms that it is the most challenging instrument to be spatially localized due to its low-frequency signals. This may add ambiguities and make it harder to focus on it. On the contrary, the drums, whose signals are mostly impulsive and thus easier to localize, are the instruments for which the stereo listening helps the most the attention task.

5. CONCLUSIONS

We proposed a novel paradigm to inform a source separation model using the selective attention of the listener decoded from his/her EEG response to the stimulus. To this aim, we exploited the fact that the attended instrument’s neural encoding is substantially stronger than the one of the unattended sources left in the mixture. This “contrast” is extracted using a pre-trained attention decoding model and used to inform a source separation algorithm named Contrastive-NMF. At the same time, the decoding model is updated within the NMF estimation loop to adapt to the test signal. We obtain promising results, showing that the EEG information can automatically select the desired source to enhance and improve the separation quality.

The proposed C-NMF is particularly promising as it can be generalized and used with temporal activations derived from other modalities than the EEG (e.g., video, score, motion capture data).

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