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# GIBBONNETR: AN R PACKAGE FOR THE USE OF CONVOLUTIONAL NEURAL NETWORKS FOR AUTOMATED DETECTION OF ACOUSTIC DATA

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A PREPRINT

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February 15, 2025

## Abstract

1 Automated detection of acoustic signals is crucial for effective monitoring of vocal animals  
2 and their habitats across large spatial and temporal scales. Recent advances in deep learning  
3 have made high performance automated detection approaches accessible to more practitioners.  
4 However, there are few deep learning approaches that can be implemented natively in R.  
5 The ‘torch for R’ ecosystem has made the use of convolutional neural networks (CNNs)  
6 accessible for R users. Here, we provide an R package and workflow to use CNNs for  
7 automated detection and classification of acoustics signals from passive acoustic monitoring  
8 data. We provide examples using data collected in Sabah, Malaysia. The package provides  
9 functions to create spectrogram images from labeled data, compare the performance of  
10 different CNN architectures, deploy trained models over directories of sound files, and extract  
11 embeddings from trained models. The R programming language remains one of the most  
12 commonly used languages among ecologists, and we hope that this package makes deep  
13 learning approaches more accessible to this audience. In addition, these models can serve as  
14 important benchmarks for future automated detection work.

15 **Keywords** deep learning · passive acoustic monitoring · gibbon · automated detection

## 16 1 Statement of need

### 17 1.1 *Passive acoustic monitoring*

18 We are in a biodiversity crisis, and there is a great need for the ability to rapidly assess biodiversity in order to  
19 understand and mitigate anthropogenic impacts. One approach that can be especially effective for monitoring  
20 of vocal yet cryptic animals is the use of passive acoustic monitoring (Gibb et al. 2018), a technique that  
21 relies on autonomous acoustic recording units. PAM allows researchers to monitor vocal animals and their  
22 habitats at temporal and spatial scales that are impossible to achieve using only human observers. Interest in  
23 use of PAM in terrestrial environments has increased substantially in recent years (Sugai et al. 2019), due to  
24 reduced price of the recording units and improved battery life and data storage capabilities. However, the

25 use of PAM often leads to the collection of terabytes of data that is time- and cost-prohibitive to analyze  
 26 manually.

## 27 1.2 *Automated detection*

28 Automated detection for PAM data refers to identifying the start and stop time of signals of interest within a  
 29 longer sound recording (Stowell 2022). Some of the early non-deep learning approaches for the automated  
 30 detection of acoustic signals in terrestrial PAM data include binary point matching (Katz, Hafner, and  
 31 Donovan 2016), spectrogram cross-correlation (Balantic and Donovan 2020), or the use of a band- limited  
 32 energy detector and subsequent classifier, such as support vector machine (Clink et al. 2023; Kalan et al.  
 33 2015). Recent advances in deep learning have revolutionized image and speech recognition (LeCun, Bengio,  
 34 and Hinton 2015 ), with important cross-over for the analysis of PAM data. Traditional approaches to  
 35 machine learning relied heavily on feature engineering, since early machine learning algorithms required a  
 36 reduced set of representative features that were chosen by researchers, such as features estimated from the  
 37 spectrogram.

38 Deep learning does not require feature engineering (Stevens, Antiga, and Viehmann 2020), as the algorithms  
 39 include a step that identifies relevant features from the input. This can lead to faster development time and  
 40 increased ability to represent complex patterns typically seen in image and acoustic data. Convolutional  
 41 neural networks (CNNs) — one of the most widely used deep learning algorithms—are useful for processing  
 42 data that have a ‘grid-like topology’, such as image data that can be considered a 2-dimensional grid of pixels  
 43 (Goodfellow, Bengio, and Courville 2016). The ‘convolutional’ layer learns the feature representations of the  
 44 inputs; these convolutional layers consist of a set of filters which are basically two-dimensional matrices of  
 45 numbers and the primary parameter is the number of filters (Gu et al. 2018). If training data are scarce,  
 46 overfitting may occur as representations of images tend to be large with many variables (LeCun, Bengio, and  
 47 others 1995).

## 48 1.3 *Transfer learning*

49 Training deep learning models generally requires a large amount of training data and substantial computing  
 50 resources, which. Transfer learning is an approach wherein the architecture of a pretrained CNN (which is  
 51 generally trained on a very large dataset) is applied to a new classification problem. For example, CNNs  
 52 trained on the ImageNet dataset of > 1 million images (Deng et al. 2009) such as ResNet have been applied  
 53 to automated detection/classification of primate and bird species from PAM data (Dufourq et al. 2022;  
 54 Ruan et al. 2022). Generally, very few practitioners train a CNN from scratch, and there are two common  
 55 approaches for transfer learning. The first option is to use the CNN as a feature extractor, and train only the  
 56 last classification layer. The second option is known as ‘fine-tuning’, where instead of initializing a neural  
 57 network with random weights, initialization is done using the pre-trained network. Using these pre-trained  
 58 weights are valuable because the model has already learned useful feature representations (Takhirov 2021).  
 59 Both approaches require substantially less computing power than training from scratch. The functions in the  
 60 ‘gibbonNetR’ package allow users to train models with both types of transfer learning.

## 61 1.4 *State of the field*

62 The two most popular open-source programming languages are R and Python (Scavetta and Angelov 2021).  
 63 Python has surpassed R in terms of overall popularity, but R remains an important language for the life  
 64 sciences (Lawlor et al. 2022). ‘Keras’ (Chollet and others 2015), ‘PyTorch’ (Paszke et al. 2019) and  
 65 ‘Tensorflow’ (Martín Abadi et al. 2015) are some of the more popular neural network libraries; these libraries  
 66 were all initially developed for the Python programming language. One of the earliest implementations of  
 67 automated detection using R was the ‘monitoR’ package, that included functions for template detection (Katz,  
 68 Hafner, and Donovan 2016). The ‘warbleR’ package included functions for energy-based detection, which  
 69 identifies signals of interest in a certain frequency range above specified energy thresholds (Araya-Salas and  
 70 Smith-Vidaurre 2017). The ‘gibbonR’ package combined energy-based detection with traditional machine  
 71 learning classification (Clink and Klinck 2019).

72 Until recently, deep learning implementations in R relied on the ‘reticulate’ package which served as an  
 73 interface to Python (Ushey, Allaire, and Tang 2022). Previous implementations of automated detection using  
 74 deep learning in R relied on the ‘reticulate’ package Silva et al. (2022). However, the recent release of the ‘torch  
 75 for R’ ecosystem provides a framework based on ‘PyTorch’ that runs natively in R and has no dependency on  
 76 Python (Falbel 2023). Running natively in R means more straightforward installation, and higher accessibility

77 for users of the R programming environment. Keydana (2023) provides tutorials for transfer learning in the  
 78 ‘torch for R’ ecosystem, and the functions in ‘gibbonNetR’ rely heavily on these tutorials. Variations of the  
 79 transfer learning approaches included in this package have already been implemented in Python (Dufourq et  
 80 al. 2022). Recent advances have used embeddings from audio classification models trained on bird songs  
 81 for new classification problems, and in most cases these embeddings led to better performance than general  
 82 audio or image datasets (Ghani et al. 2023).

## 83 2 Overview

84 This package provides functions to create spectrogram images using the ‘seewave’ package (J. Sueur, T. Aubin,  
 85 and C. Simonis 2008), use transfer learning for six CNN architectures: AlexNet (Krizhevsky, Sutskever, and  
 86 Hinton 2017) , VGG16, VGG19 (Simonyan and Zisserman 2014), ResNet18, ResNet50, and ResNet152 (He et  
 87 al. 2016)) trained on the ImageNet dataset (Deng et al. 2009 ). This package has been used for automated  
 88 detection of gunshots (Vu et al. 2024) and gibbon calls (Clink, Kim, et al. 2024; Clink, Cross-Jaya, et  
 89 al. 2024). The package also has functions to evaluate model performance, deploy the highest performing  
 90 model over a directory of sound files, and extract embeddings from trained models to visualize acoustic data.  
 91 We provide an example dataset that consists of labelled vocalizations of the loud calls of four vertebrates  
 92 (see detailed description below) from Danum Valley Conservation Area, Sabah, Malaysia (Clink and Hamid  
 93 Ahmad 2024). Detailed usage instructions for ‘gibbonNetR’ can be found Here

### 94 2.1 Data summary

95 We include sound files and spectrogram images of five sound classes: great argus pheasant (*Argusianus*  
 96 *argus*) long calls (Clink et al. 2021), helmeted hornbills (*Rhinoplax vigil*), and rhinoceros hornbills (*Buceros*  
 97 *rhinoceros*) (Kennedy et al. 2023), female gibbons (*Hylobates funereus*) and a catch-all “noise” category.  
 98 The data come from two separate PAM arrays in Danum Valley Conservation Area, Sabah, Malaysia. The  
 99 training and validation data come from a wide array of Swift autonomous recording units placed on ~750 m  
 100 spacing (Clink et al. 2023), and the test data come from a different, smaller array (~250 m spacing) within  
 101 the same area. We used a band-limited energy detector to identify signals that were 3-sec or longer duration  
 102 within the 400-1600 Hz range, and then a single observer (DJC) manually sorted the detections into their  
 103 respective categories (Clink et al. 2023).

### 104 2.2 Preparing training, validation, and test data

105 The package currently uses spectrogram images (Figure 1) to train and evaluate CNN model performance,  
 106 and we includes a function that can be used to create spectrogram images from Waveform Audio File Formant  
 107 (.wav) files. The .wav files should be organized into separate folders, with each folder named according to the  
 108 class label of the files it contains. We highly recommend that your test data come from a different recording  
 109 time and/or location to better understand the generalizability of the models (Stowell 2022).

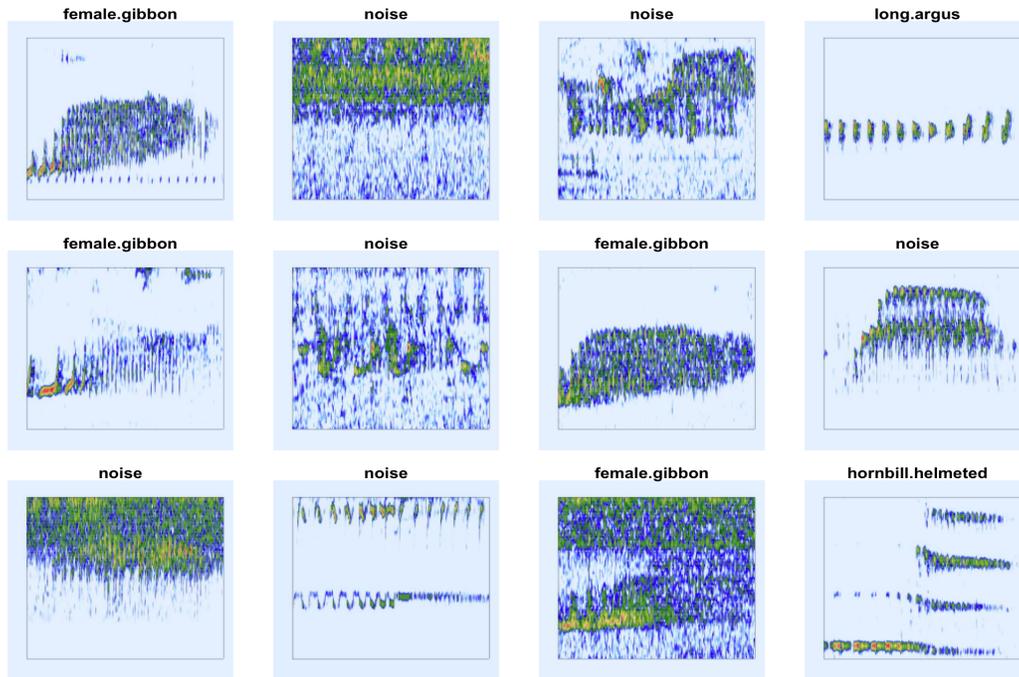


Figure 1: Spectrograms of training clips for CNNs

### 110 2.3 Model training

111 The package currently allows for the training of six different CNN architectures ('alexnet', 'vgg16', 'vgg19',  
 112 'resnet18', 'resnet50', or 'resnet152'), and the user can specify if they want to freeze the feature extraction  
 113 layers or not. There is the option to train a binary or multi-class classifier.

### 114 2.4 Evaluate model performance

115 We can compare the performance of different CNN architectures (Figure 2). Using the 'get\_best\_performance'  
 116 function we can evaluate the performance of different model architectures on the test dataset for the specified  
 117 class. We can calculate the best F1, precision, recall using the 'caret' package (Kuhn 2008), and the area  
 118 under the ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic) curve using the 'ROCR' package (Sing et al. 2005),  
 119 which evaluates the classifier's ability to discriminate between positive and negative classes.

```
PerformanceOutput <- gibbonNetR::get_best_performance(performancetables.dir=performancetables.dir,
  class='female.gibbon',
  model.type = "multi",Thresh.val=0)
PerformanceOutput$f1_plot
```

## Results for female.gibbon class

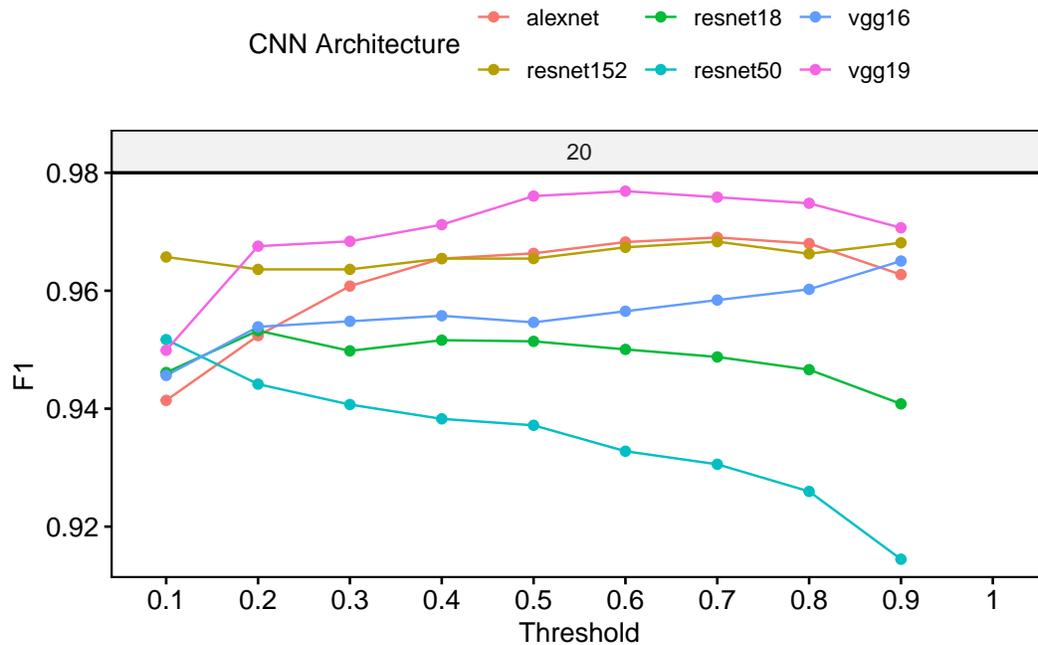


Figure 2: Evaluating performance of pretrained CNNs

120 **2.5 Extract embeddings**

121 Embeddings from deep learning models can be used as features in unsupervised approaches, with promising  
 122 results for call repertoires (Best et al. 2023) and individual identity (Lakdari et al. 2024). This package  
 123 contains a function to use pretrained CNNs to extract embeddings, where the trained model path, along with  
 124 test data location and target class are specified. Depending on the research question, this output could be  
 125 used to sort between true and false positives for automated detection, or to explore differences in call types  
 126 or potential number of individuals in the dataset.

127 **2.6 We can plot the unsupervised clustering results**

128 In Figure 3 the top plot is a Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) where each point  
 129 represents one call, and the colors indicate the original class label. The bottom plot is the same UMAP plot,  
 130 but with points colored based on cluster assignment by the ‘hdbscan’ algorithm (Hahsler, Piekenbrock, and  
 131 Doran 2019).

```
132 #> processing embeddings
133 #> Unsupervised clustering for female.gibbon
```

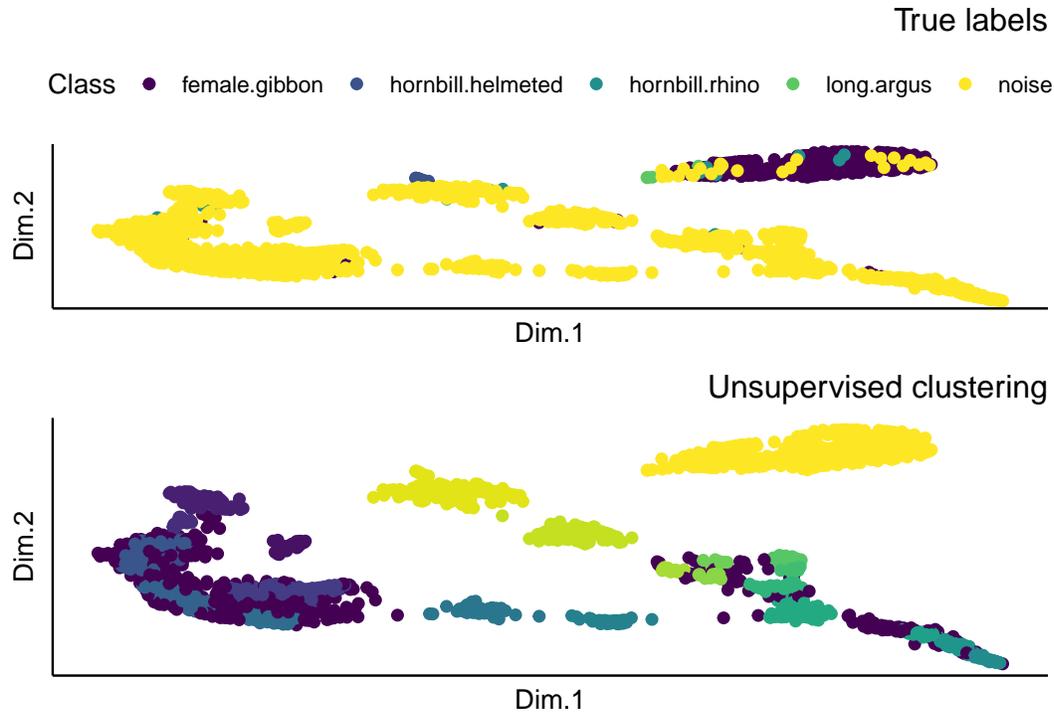


Figure 3: UMAP plot of embeddings from test data set colored by actual label (top) and unsupervised cluster assignment (bottom)

### 134 2.6.1 We can explore the unsupervised clustering results

135 We can calculate the Normalize Mutual Information score, which provides a value between 0 and 1, indicating  
 136 the match between cluster labels and actual labels. We also create a confusion matrix using the ‘caret’  
 137 package (Kuhn 2008) which returns the results when we use the unsupervised clustering algorithm function  
 138 ‘hdbscan’ (Hahsler, Piekenbrock, and Doran 2019) to match the target class to the cluster with the largest  
 139 number of observations of that particular class.

## 140 3 Future directions

141 There have been huge advances in the fields of deep learning and automated detection for PAM data in recent  
 142 years. The approach presented in this package is one of the first to use the ‘torch for R’ ecosystem and to  
 143 employ automated detection using deep learning natively in R. More recent approaches use transfer learning  
 144 from models that are explicitly trained on bioacoustics data, such as BirdNET (Ghani et al. 2023), have  
 145 been introduced. There is a huge need in the field of bioacoustics to do benchmarking, wherein different  
 146 model architectures and performance are compared across diverse datasets. The methods presented here can  
 147 provide important benchmarks for future work, and for understanding how and if deep learning advances  
 148 improve performance over more traditional methods. In addition, this package provides a comprehensive  
 149 suite of tools for processing, analyzing, and visualizing acoustic data, providing robust support for tasks  
 150 such as automated detection, feature extraction, classification, and data visualization, which are critical for  
 151 conservation work using PAM. The R package is available on Github, where issues can be opened.

## 152 4 Acknowledgments

153 We would like to thank the Sabah Biodiversity Centre and Danum Valley Conservation Area for granting  
 154 us permission to conduct research. We are incredibly grateful for the detailed comments provided by Steffi  
 155 LaZerte, which substantially improved the package and documentation.

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