
Robust detection of overlapping bioacoustic sound events

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Abstract

We propose a method for accurately detecting bioacoustic sound events that is robust to overlapping events, a common issue in domains such as ethology, ecology and conservation. While standard methods employ a frame-based, multi-label approach, we introduce an onset-based detection method which we name *Voxaboxen*. For each time window, *Voxaboxen* predicts whether it contains the start of a vocalization and how long the vocalization is. It also does the same in reverse, predicting whether each window contains the end of a vocalization, and how long ago it started, and fuses the two sets of bounding boxes with a graph-matching algorithm. We also release a new dataset of temporally-strong labels of zebra finch vocalizations designed to have high overlap. Experiments on eight datasets, including our new dataset, show *Voxaboxen* outperforms natural baselines and existing methods, and is robust to vocalization overlap.

1 Introduction

Detecting animal sounds is a foundational task in bioacoustics research (1). Temporally fine-grained detection, i.e. identifying the time boundaries of each acoustic unit, is critical for answering questions arising in animal communication. When multiple individuals from a single species co-occur, the sounds they produce can overlap with each other, often with important functional consequences, e.g. in bats (2), zebra finches (3), frogs (4), and elephants (5). Therefore, to understand these and other animal communication systems, it is vital that we can accurately detect overlapping animal sounds.

Motivated by this, we desire a sound event detection (SED) method that can predict the onset time, offset time, and class label (e.g., species label) for overlapping sound events. Commonly, SED methods adopt a frame-based approach: for each time frame, for each class, predicting whether a

sound of that class occurs in that frame (6; 7; 8; 9), and merging consecutive frames with the same class into a single event. This does not accommodate overlaps from the same class. To address this limitation, we propose a method we name Voxaboxen. For each frame, Voxaboxen makes a binary prediction as to whether it contains an event onset, plus a regression prediction for how long that event will last, and a class prediction (e.g. species label). This design choice means the duration of one predicted event can extend past the onset of a second event, thus allowing the model to predict overlapping vocalizations without them being merged.

To investigate how well Voxaboxen deals with overlapping vocalizations, we introduce a new dataset of eight female zebra finches (ZFs) spontaneously interacting in a laboratory environment, annotated with onset and offset of each vocalization and featuring a high overlap. We find that Voxaboxen consistently outperforms alternatives on our new dataset and seven previously-published bioacoustics datasets, even with high levels of overlap. We open source the code for our model and dataset. Our contributions are: (1) Voxaboxen, an SED model leveraging pretrained audio encoders to predict overlapping vocalizations; (2) the Overlapping Zebra Finch (OZF) dataset; (3) experimental evaluation on eight diverse datasets, showing SotA performance for Voxaboxen.

2 Related Work

In bioacoustics applications, SED has typically been framed as a multi-label classification problem (1), with temporal resolution ranging from tens of milliseconds (10; 8), to multiple seconds (11; 12). Recent post-processing techniques decouple event durations and detections (9; 13); but still use frame-based predictions and cannot handle within-class overlaps. Other approaches include matrix factorization algorithms (14) or probabilistic models (15). Visual object detection methods such as Faster-RCNN (16) can handle overlaps and have been applied to bioacoustic SED (17). CornerNet (18) is an object detection method that, similar to Voxaboxen, matches predicted boundaries into a single event, but uses feature similarity, which can be unreliable for stereotyped animal vocalizations. Our approach accounts for this by matching based on intersection over union (IoU) instead.

Source separation methods decompose mixed audio into individual sources and have shown promise for bioacoustic classification (19). In our context, a source separation model could theoretically separate vocalizations from multiple individuals into different audio tracks, thus reducing the complexity of the audio passed to a downstream detection model. We investigate this approach as an alternative to Voxaboxen. A related task is speaker diarization, which segments multi-speaker recordings and assigns each segment to a speaker. This typically requires assumptions about maximum speaker count and re-identification across segments (20); in contrast, we assume no maximum number of speakers, and do not expect to re-identify individuals within a recording.

3 Method

3.1 Bounding Box Regression

Our method, which is architecture-agnostic, uses a frame-based audio encoder $\phi: \mathbb{R}^T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{T' \times F}$ to produce a sequence of latent vectors. Here T is the original number of samples, T' is the final number of frames, and F is the feature dimension. A final linear layer $h: \mathbb{R}^F \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2+C}$ makes three types of predictions, for each time frame: a prediction of the probability that an event starts in that frame, a prediction of the duration of the event (should it start in that frame), and a prediction of a class label (logits across C classes). Using gradient descent, we minimize the loss function $L = L_{det} + \lambda L_{reg} + \rho L_{cls}$, $\lambda, \rho \geq 0$, which includes a detection term L_{det} , a regression term L_{reg} , and a classification term L_{cls} . The detection term is inspired by the penalty-reduced focal loss in (18):

$$L_{det} = -\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \begin{cases} (1 - \hat{p}_t)^\alpha \log \hat{p}_t & p_t = 1 \\ (1 - p_t)^\beta \hat{p}_t^\alpha \log(1 - \hat{p}_t) & p_t < 1 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Here, T is the duration in frames, α, β are hyperparameters, \hat{p}_t is the predicted detection probability at time t , and p_t is obtained by applying Gaussian smoothing to event onsets and taking the maximum value at each frame, across all events (following (18)):

$$p_t = \max_{x \in \text{Events}} \exp \left(-\frac{(t - \text{Onset}(x))^2}{\text{Dur}(x)^2/s} \right). \quad (2)$$

In (2), Events is the set of events in an audio clip, $\text{Onset}(x)$ and $\text{Dur}(x)$ denote the onset time and duration of x , and s is a hyperparameter. L_{reg} (L1) and L_{cls} (cross-entropy) are applied only at event onset frames. At inference, detection probability peaks above threshold become boxes, with duration and class prediction determined by peak predictions. We apply soft non-maximal suppression (21) to remove duplicates.

3.2 Bidirectional Predictions

To improve bounding box accuracy, we make a second set of *backward* predictions which are the mirror image of the first (*forward*) set. The backward predictions are a binary prediction for each frame as to whether it contains an offset, plus a regression for how long the event lasted. We fuse these by casting the problem as maximal bipartite graph matching, where forward and backward boxes are linked by an edge if their IoU exceeds a threshold. The Hopcroft-Karp-Karzonov algorithm (22) computes the maximal matching sub-graph, and edge-linked box pairs are fused. The onset of the fused box is defined to be the midpoint of the onset of the forward box, with the offset minus duration of the backward box (and similarly for the offset of the fused box).

4 Overlapping Zebra Finch Dataset (OZF)

We recorded 65 minutes (in 60-second files) of 8 adult (> 1 year) female ZFs in a sound attenuating chamber using two omnidirectional microphones. All procedures were approved by the McGill University Animal Care and Use Committee. Female ZFs make short, discrete vocalizations of about 100ms, with most energy between 0.5 and 8 kHz. Three annotators marked onset and offset times of each vocalization using Raven Pro, covering 25 minutes each, with 5 minutes reviewed by all annotators (mean pairwise inter-annotator agreement: 93.5% F1@0.5IoU overall and 78.1% for the subset overlaps). The dataset contains 8504 vocalizations, with 1449 (17.04%) overlapping at least one other (1463 total overlaps). Vocalizations per 60s file range from 19 to 245, with 0-73 overlapping. Vocalization durations range from 3-350 ms (mean 109 ms). The 17.04% overlap rate is consistent with prior work showing evidence for turn-taking in female ZFs (23).

5 Experimental Evaluation

Implementation Details We first extract features from the raw audio using a backbone encoder, and then make the predictions described in Section 3 from the extracted features. The encoder converts input audio (mono, 16 kHz) to a frame-based representation, which is a sequence of latent vectors produced at 50 Hz (window size 10s, hop size 5s). For the main experiments, we use BEATs (24) as a backbone encoder. BEATs is a 12-layer encoder-only transformer (hidden size 768, 8 attention heads), pretrained on Audioset (25). We explore alternative backbones in Section 5.2. The detection, regression and classification predictions are made via linear layers. The loss function hyperparameters were fixed at $\alpha = 2$, $\beta = 4$, and $s = 6$ following (18). These values showed stable training behavior in preliminary experiments and were found to transfer well from the visual to temporal domain. During training and inference, audio is divided into 10-second windows, with 5s step size between windows. Training lasts for 50 epochs, with the encoder frozen for the first 3 epochs. This protocol is identical for all encoder backbones. We use Adam with ams-grad, $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.999$, and a cosine annealing scheduler. For all models, we select a learning rate from {1e-4, 3e-5, 1e-5}, based on mean average precision @0.5IoU on the validation set. We apply soft non-maximal suppression (21) with $\sigma = 0.5$. Because BirdAVES (based on HuBERT) has a known batch artifact in which padding affects the embeddings, we used `batch_size=1` to ensure a fair comparison. All experiments were conducted on a single 40GB A100 GPU, with training time less than one day per dataset.

Datasets In addition to the OZF dataset, we evaluated Voxaboboxen using seven existing datasets (Table 1), selected for their taxonomic diversity: amphibians (AnuraSet), insects (Katydid), birds (BirdVox-10h, Hawaiian Birds, Powdernill), and mammals (Humpback, Meerkat). Dataset preprocessing is described on the project github. For Katy, BV10 and OZF, the events of interest were brief and, for Katy and BV10, often above the 8kHz Nyquist frequency assumed by several of the models we evaluated. For all models, we used a half-time version of BV10 and OZF, and a sixth-time version of Katy. This effectively increased the output frame rate to 100 Hz for BV10 and OZF, and 300 Hz for Katy, which was shown to dramatically improve performance in initial experiments.

Evaluation As a metric, we first match predicted events to true events as in (26), only counting matches that exceed a certain IoU threshold. Then, we compute mean average precision (mAP) using 1001 equally-sized intervals. We report results for an IoU threshold of 0.5.

Comparison Models We compare Voxaboxen to several frame-based methods. Three of these pretrained transformers with linear classification heads: Frame-ATST (7) (25 Hz output frame rate, pretrained on AudioSet), BEATs (24) (50 Hz, AudioSet) and BirdAVES (27)¹ (50 Hz, animal sound datasets). Outputs are median filtered, with kernel size (ks) 1/3/7/11, selected based on mAP @0.5IoU on the validation set. We also compare to a convolutional-recurrent neural network (CRNN) (6; 10; 8) that operates on log-mel spectrograms and uses a 2d conv layer (ks=7, hidden size 64), mean-pooling in the frequency dimension (ks=2), two 2d residual blocks (ks=3), mean pooling in both directions (ks=2), and a bi-LSTM, with hidden size 1024. Lastly, we compare to two computer vision object detection models, Faster-RCNN (16) (X-101 model checkpoint pretrained on MS COCO)² and SEDT (28), an encoder-decoder transformer, adapted to detect 1d events from a spectrogram³.

5.1 Main Results

Metric	Method	AnSet	BV10	HawB	HbW	Katy	MT	Pow	OZF
mAP@0.5IoU	CRNN	9.89	35.59	22.72	21.03	17.24	82.97	35.45	71.80
	Faster-RCNN	8.06	55.49	7.39	21.66	25.93	84.22	14.08	90.20
	SEDT	0.18	3.79	2.79	3.95	2.30	18.58	2.71	2.26
	Frame-ATST	14.87	40.62	32.19	33.62	17.88	87.58	45.42	73.48
	BEATs	15.71	48.01	35.37	37.13	20.12	86.08	50.32	77.94
	BirdAVES	14.21	42.09	32.67	26.54	19.11	86.11	43.52	78.33
	Voxaboxen	27.08	77.32	53.87	59.92	36.04	90.96	56.77	97.92

Table 1: Mean average precision scores at 0.5 IoU. Best results in **bold**. With one exception, Voxaboxen outperforms existing methods, sometimes by far, such as on BV10, HawB, and OZF.

Table 1 shows that Voxaboxen outperforms other methods in almost all cases, often by large margins (e.g. 10+ points on BV10, HawB, HbW, and Katy). Faster-RCNN performs well on single-class datasets (OZF, MT) but struggles with multi-class tasks. Among frame-level SED models, BEATs is the strongest, consistent with our findings for the backbone choice (Table 2). SEDT, which was pretrained on mostly ambient city noises, transfers poorly to animal vocalizations.

Metric	Method	AnSet	BV10	HawB	HbW	Katy	MT	Pow	OZF
mAP@0.5IoU	Voxaboxen	27.08	77.32	53.87	59.92	36.04	90.96	56.77	97.92
	with BirdAVES encoder	22.86	46.33	49.22	48.04	26.59	88.78	50.21	96.36
	no fwd-bck matching	25.04	75.97	52.10	56.99	34.97	89.39	50.02	95.77

Table 2: Ablations on encoder choice and forward-backward matching method. The main model uses the BEATs encoder. Performance drops validate BEATs encoder and bidirectional matching method.

5.2 Ablation Studies

Table 2 shows ablations on encoder backbone and forward-backward matching. BirdAVES underperformed BEATs despite being designed specifically for animal sounds, likely due differences in pre-training data volume and training regimes. Removing forward-backward matching (i.e. using forward only) consistently reduces mAP by 1-2 points (larger on HbW, Pow).

Limitations: Performance may vary between species or recording conditions. Short or high-frequency vocalizations require time-stretching. Results shown here are from single runs and therefore do not have error bars.

Data Availability

Data used in this study is available at <https://zenodo.org/records/15507508>. The code used in this study is available at <https://github.com/earthspecies/voxaboxen>.

¹<https://github.com/earthspecies/aves>

²<https://github.com/facebookresearch/detectron2>

³https://github.com/Anaesthesiaye/sound_event_detection_transformer

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A Technical Appendices and Supplementary Material

B OZF Further Details

B.1 Segmentwise Statistics of the Real-World Portion

Figure 1 reports the distribution of vocalizations and overlaps across each 60-second audio file. Figure 2 reports these per 10-second segment.

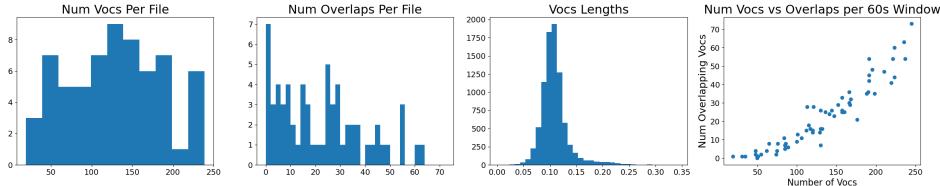


Figure 1: Summary of the live portion of the dataset we release. Left: number of vocalizations per 60 s file. Second: number of overlapping pairs per 60 s file. Third: distribution of the lengths of vocalizations. Right: number of vocalizations per 60 s file vs number overlapping pairs.

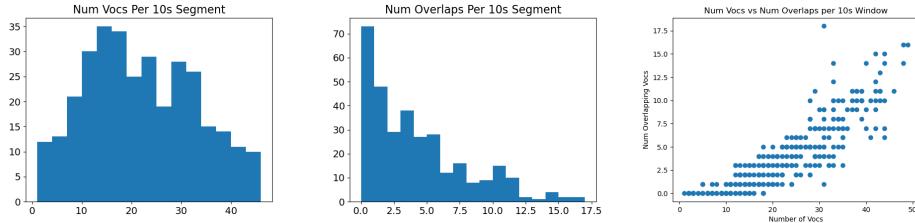


Figure 2: Statistics from the real-world portion of OZF, across 10 s segments. Top: the distribution of the number of vocalizations entirely contained within each 10 s segment, across all audio files. Middle: the distribution of the number of pairwise overlaps of these vocalizations. Bottom: the number of vocalizations vs the number of pairwise overlaps across each 10 s segment.

B.2 Call Database for the Synthetic Portion

To construct the synthetic datasets, we created a database of female ZF calls. To construct this, female ZFs were recorded using the same setup as with the live portion of OZF. Calls were detected using an initial version of Voxaboxen, and cropped versions of the calls were saved. We then performed a denoising procedure: First, using BirdMixit (19) each of these cropped calls was separated into four stems. Then, our trained model was again run across each of these four stems, and we retained a stem when Voxaboxen both 1) detected a call and 2) the model detection confidence was higher on this stem than the other three stems. Finally, we observed that even after these steps there remained stems that contained no zebra finch vocalizations. To remove these, we performed a quality-filtering step: for each stem, we predicted the species of the call using BirdNET (Kahl et al., 2021). We retained only stems where BirdNET predicted a species with British English common name containing the word ‘Finch’. The stems that passed this quality filter became the database of denoised female zebra finch calls.

C Expected Number of Overlaps from Independent Memoryless Sources

Given a window of time and some set V of vocalizations whose onsets occur during this window, we are interested in the expected value of the number of pairs that overlap, assuming that the probability density function for the point of each onset is uniform and independent. Let L be the length of the time window, 60s in our case, so that the pdf equals $\frac{1}{L}$. Then, for any two vocalizations with onsets

as v_1 and v_2 of respective durations l_1 and l_2 , the probability of overlap is

$$\frac{l_1 + l_2}{L}, \quad (3)$$

because they will overlap if and only if v_1 falls in the interval $(v_2 - l_1, v_2 + l_1)$, which is of length $l_1 + l_2$.

The expected number of overlaps, $\mathbb{E}[X]$, is the sum, across all ordered pairs of vocalizations, of the indicator random variable for the event that they overlap, which equals the probability as given in (3). Let $|V| = n$, and let l_i be the duration of the i vocalization, then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X] &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \frac{l_i + l_j}{L} = \frac{1}{L} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} l_i + l_j \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{L} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (i-1)l_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i l_j \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{L} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (i-1)l_i + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \sum_{i=j}^n l_j \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{L} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (i-1)l_i + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} (n-j)l_j \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{L} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (i-1)l_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (n-i)l_i \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{L} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (i-1)l_i + \sum_{i=1}^n (n-i)l_i \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{L} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (i-1)l_i + (n-i)l_i \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{L} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (n-1)l_i \right) \\ &= (n-1) \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n l_i}{L}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we see that the expected number of overlaps for uniform independent vocalizations is the product of two factors. The first is the vocalization density

$$d = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n l_i}{L}, \quad (4)$$

which is the ratio between the length of all vocalizations played back to back and the duration of the time window in which they occur, or equivalently, the expected number of vocalizations occurring at any one point. The second factor is the number of vocalizations (minus 1).

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = d(n-1), \quad (5)$$

where d is as in (4).

In the case of our released dataset, we must also account for the fact that there is a finite number of birds (eight), and overlaps can only occur between vocalizations from two different birds. For two given vocalizations, let S be the event that they come from different birds, which has probability

$$P(S) = 1 - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^B (\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(b_i = j))^2}{n^2}, \quad (6)$$

where B is the number of birds and b_i is the bird that produced the i th vocalization. Let $Z_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(b_i = j)$ be the random variable counting the number of times the j th bird vocalises in a given time window (60s for our dataset). Assuming this distribution is the same for all birds, we can drop the subscript and just write Z . The expression in (6) is linear apart from the square on Z , so we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(S) &= 1 - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^B \mathbb{E}[Z^2]}{n^2} = 1 - \frac{B\mathbb{E}[Z^2]}{n^2} \\ &= 1 - \frac{B(\mathbb{E}[Z]^2 + \text{Var}(Z))}{n^2}. \end{aligned}$$

If we model the vocalizations of each individual bird as a Poisson distribution, then we have

$$\mathbb{E}[Z] = \text{Var}(Z) = \lambda = \frac{n}{B},$$

giving

$$P(S) = 1 - \frac{B((\frac{n}{B})^2 + \frac{n}{B})}{n^2} = 1 - \frac{\frac{n^2}{B} + n}{n^2} = 1 - \left(\frac{1}{B} + \frac{1}{n}\right).$$

The value from (5) is then the probability of overlap between two vocalizations given they come from separate birds: $\mathbb{E}[X|S] = d(n-1)$, and the total probability of overlap is then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X|S]P(S) = d(n-1)\left(1 - \frac{1}{B} - \frac{1}{n}\right). \quad (7)$$

C.1 Difference Between Expected and Observed Overlaps

Table 3 shows the observed number of pairwise overlaps per file, compared with the expected number from (7). The former is consistently lower than the latter. Indeed, looking at the ‘difference’ column, we see it has mean 9.73, and standard deviation 9.05. We can model this difference as a normal distribution by the central limit theorem, as it is the sum of 8 independent samples from the distribution of a single bird. With 65 files, the estimated population standard deviation of this normal distribution is

$$\frac{9.05}{\sqrt{65-1}} = \frac{9.05}{8} = 1.13,$$

so the t -value is $\frac{9.73}{1.13} = 8.61$. This is highly significant, as the significance threshold for 64 degrees of freedom is 3.23 at 99.9% confidence.

C.2 Evaluation Dataset Preprocessing

AnuraSet We used the portion of the frog call dataset presented in (29) that includes strong temporal annotations (onset, offset, and species label). We randomly assigned files into train, validation, and test sets with ratios 60%/20%/20%. For our purpose, we retained only annotations corresponding to the ten most commonly occurring species in the dataset.

BirdVox-10h We used the version of the BirdVox dataset presented in (26). We divided each recording into three segments: the first 60% was assigned to the train set, the next 20% was assigned to the validation set, and the final 20% was assigned to the test set. For our purpose, we merged all annotations (species labels for multiple passerine species) into a single class (passerine vocalization). This was done to avoid having many classes with few example vocalizations.

Hawaiian Birds We used the dataset of Hawaiian soundscapes presented in (30). We randomly assigned files into train, validation, and test sets with ratios 60%/20%/20%. For our purpose, we retained only annotations corresponding to the nine most commonly occurring bird species in the dataset.

Humpback We used the “initial” audit portion of the dataset of humpback whale vocalizations presented in (31), retaining only the 75-second clips containing at least one annotation. We randomly assigned these clips into train, validation, and test sets with ratios 60%/20%/20%. Finally, we retained only annotations corresponding to humpback whales, and discarded other annotations (e.g. ship noise).

file	n	d	B	expected overlaps	observed overlaps	difference
0	106	0.19	8	16.94	11	5.94
1	117	0.22	8	21.80	16	5.80
2	157	0.29	8	39.17	25	14.17
3	191	0.36	8	59.25	42	17.25
4	195	0.36	8	60.76	48	12.76
5	221	0.38	8	73.36	54	19.36
6	51	0.08	8	3.59	1	2.59
7	160	0.30	8	41.91	25	16.91
8	223	0.37	8	71.97	44	27.97
9	19	0.03	8	0.48	1	-0.52
10	48	0.09	8	3.80	2	1.80
11	31	0.06	8	1.40	1	0.40
12	50	0.08	8	3.43	0	3.43
13	147	0.28	8	34.87	23	11.87
14	210	0.39	8	71.42	47	24.42
15	191	0.36	8	59.05	45	14.05
16	219	0.40	8	75.20	41	34.20
17	237	0.41	8	85.24	54	31.24
18	235	0.44	8	90.18	63	27.18
19	51	0.08	8	3.60	1	2.60
20	50	0.09	8	3.57	1	2.57
21	85	0.15	8	11.14	7	4.14
22	136	0.24	8	28.27	25	3.27
23	141	0.23	8	28.35	24	4.35
24	74	0.13	8	8.32	2	6.32
25	166	0.33	8	47.87	30	17.87
26	65	0.13	8	6.90	8	-1.10
27	223	0.39	8	74.50	60	14.50
28	168	0.31	8	45.60	32	13.60
29	158	0.29	8	39.44	25	14.44
30	120	0.20	8	20.36	15	5.36
31	84	0.16	8	11.16	11	0.16
32	245	0.46	8	97.64	73	24.64
33	191	0.37	8	60.43	54	6.43
34	75	0.11	8	7.21	4	3.21
35	130	0.26	8	28.77	7	21.77
36	130	0.23	8	25.50	26	-0.50
37	86	0.14	8	10.15	8	2.15
38	152	0.27	8	35.18	29	6.18
39	55	0.10	8	4.40	2	2.40
40	176	0.29	8	44.43	21	23.43
41	115	0.18	8	18.08	18	0.08
42	157	0.28	8	37.95	33	4.95
43	35	0.04	8	1.29	1	0.29
44	85	0.16	8	11.32	5	6.32
45	89	0.16	8	12.18	6	6.18
46	198	0.35	8	60.38	35	25.38
47	113	0.25	8	24.49	28	-3.51
48	112	0.22	8	20.79	15	5.79
49	101	0.18	8	15.48	13	2.48
50	157	0.29	8	38.71	26	12.71
51	144	0.26	8	31.71	26	5.71
52	62	0.13	8	6.76	4	2.76
53	167	0.32	8	46.38	29	17.38
54	120	0.23	8	23.86	14	9.86
55	76	0.15	8	9.99	8	1.99
56	190	0.33	8	53.87	36	17.87
57	130	0.20	8	22.82	16	6.82
58	166	0.36	8	51.14	36	15.14
59	121	0.25	8	26.36	28	-1.64
60	132	0.23	8	25.98	16	9.98
61	48	0.08	8	3.26	4	-0.74
62	100	0.19	8	16.00	9	7.00
63	129	0.23	8	25.27	14	11.27
64	188	0.34	8	55.06	35	20.06

Table 3: Comparison of the expected number of overlaps by equation 7 and the observed number of overlaps, by 60s file.

Katydid We used the dataset of katydid calls presented in (32). We randomly assign files into train, validation, and test sets with ratios 60%/20%/20%. For our purpose, we merged all annotations (species labels) into a single class (katydid call). This was done to avoid having many classes with few example calls.

Meerkat We used the dataset of on-body Meerkat recordings presented in (26) (abbreviated as MT in *loc. cit.*). We divided each recording into three segments: the first 60% was assigned to the train set, the next 20% was assigned to the validation set, and the final 20% was assigned to the test set. For our purpose, we merged all annotations (vocalization type labels) into a single class (meerkat vocalization). This was done to avoid having many classes with few example vocalizations.

Powdermill We used the dataset of Northeastern United States soundscapes presented in (33). We randomly assigned files into train, validation, and test sets with ratios 60%/20%/20%. For our purpose, we retained only annotations corresponding to the six most commonly occurring bird species in the dataset.

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