Parkinson's Disease Glottal Flow Characterization: Phonation Features vs Amplitude Distributions

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Abstract: The study of speech and voice in people diagnosed with a neurodegenerative disorder for the purposes of detection and monitoring has known a very relevant push forward in these last years, but it is far from being completed. One of the main concerns nowadays is that once the deterioration of speech and phonation quality has been informed by machine learning relying upon clinical expertise, there is insufficient evidence to resolve if quality deterioration may come from organic causes, neuromotor degeneration or simply from aging. The present work is part of a more ambitious plan to shed light on this problem by resorting to a theoretical modelling of glottal signals under the main known causes affecting phonation quality, which are closure deficits during the phonation cycle. These deficits may be due to anatomical, organic pathologic or neuromotor reasons. Simulation examples explaining them in the glottal excitation signals are given and contrasted with real examples. Finally, relevant scores from an experimental separation of Parkinson Disease phonation samples from 24 male and 24 female subjects against aging 24 male and 24 female controls on the same age taken from a male-female balanced dataset confronted to a normative subset of 24 male and 24 female speakers are presented to exemplify an analysis study deepening into this problem. Although classification accuracy scores as high as 99.69 and 99.59 were attained in 10-fold cross-validation using an SVM classifier, there is still the impression that co-morbidity and aging effects are not well taken into account, requiring a further semantic study on the features behind the discrimination scores obtained.

1 INTRODUCTION

Parkinson's Disease (PD) is a neurodegenerative disorder second in prevalence to Alzheimer's Disease (Dorsey et al., 2007). Its origin is mainly caused by the lack of a specific neurotransmitter known as dopamine in midbrain (Dauer & Przedboski, 2003), resulting in important neuromotor deterioration affecting body movement (Jankovic, 2008). Other comorbidities associated to PD are e. g. depression, and cognitive decay (Reijnders et al., 2008). Since the

early work of Dr. James Parkinson (Parkinson, 1817) describing observable neuromotor alterations in patients of shaking palsy, it is a well-established fact that PD produces important disorders in speech and phonation (Ricciardi et al., 2016, Brabenec et al., 2017). Basically, speech alterations may be classified as dysphonia (alterations to the production of voice), dysarthria (alterations in the articulation of speech), dysprosody (alterations in the definition of the fundamental frequency) and dysfluency (alterations in the rhythm and in speech blocking). Therefore

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speech analysis may become a non-invasive and costefficient tool to characterize and monitor PD in the sense that there is "compelling evidence to suggest that speech can help quantify not only motor symptoms ... but generalized diverse symptoms in PD" (Tsanas, 2012). The first aim of this study is answering in which way neuromotor deterioration affecting the larynx may result in phonation alterations, and which are the observable correlates to be expected. The second aim of the study is to assess in which extent neuromuscular alterations can help in differentiating PD patients against age-paired Healthy Controls (HC) in reference to the phonation of normative subjects (NS), see Gómez et al. (2019). The paper is organized as follows: in Section 2 the main glottal pattern deteriorations expected from altered phonation are described and a phonation model is presented to simulate these altered patterns; in Section 3 the phonation databases and the classification methods used are being described; in section 4 results are presented and discussed, as well as the semantic characteristics of the main features responsible for categorical classification based on phonation; section 5 summarizes the main conclusions and findings.



Figure 1: The human phonation system. a) Idealized axial representation. b) Simplified cylindrical representation. c) Electromechanical equivalent model, where G_g is the glottal aperture (time-varying electromechanical equivalent conductance, thin red line) u_g is the glottal flow (electromechanical equivalent current, thick purple line), t is the time. The model explains how the injection of flow u_l is transformed in a difference of pressure between the supraglottal (p_g) and subglottal (p_l) sides of the moving vocal folds (represented by the red bullets) and transformed into a glottal excitation by the inertial effects of air in the vocal tract (L_t). C_l explains the reactive elastic behavior of lungs and bronchi. See the explanation below.

2 PHONATION ALTERATIONS

Voiced speech is the result of the continuous opening and closing of the vocal folds, specific muscle bands and ligaments found in the neuromuscular and cartilaginous structure of the larynx (Titze, 1994). This section is devoted to explain certain phonation defects resulting from the imperfect closure of the vocal folds during the phonation cycle, which may be related to different causes, organic pathology, neuromotor instability or aging, among them. The Human Phonation System (HPS) is part of the respiratory organs, and as such, it is integrated by the respiratory system in itself, the larynx, and the oronaso-pharyngeal cavities, as seen in 0. The HPS comprises different flow/pressure propagating structures (lungs, bronchi, trachea, larynx, pharynx, nasopharynx and oral and nasal cavities), ending at the lips. In the present work it must be taken into account that:

- The system of cavities may be seen on their equivalent transversal section as a volume closed by an ideal revolving surface of varying section along a single axial line (x axis, see 0.a). The axial line in the sagittal plane may be straightened to an axis normal to the mouth radiation plane (medial). The distances along this rectified axis will be denoted by x. The origin x=0will be taken at the lips, pointing to the glottis (space separating both vocal folds at $x=x_g$).
- This structure may be represented by a chain of cylindrical structures for the lungs, bronchi, trachea, larynx and vocal tract (0.b).Electromechanical equivalence convention used in the HPS assumes that pressures are equivalent to voltages and flows to currents in an electric circuit. With this convention in mind the equivalent cylindrical structure may be represented by its electromechanical equivalent given in 0.c, integrated by a flow injector (diaphragm and lungs acting as a piston and chamber) represented by a current source u_l (glottal lung flow) and an elastic compliance C_l , a larynx passage represented by moving bullets (vocal folds) which open and close following transversal muscle forces and Bernoulli's effect, represented by a time-variable conductance $G_{g}(t)$ and the vocal tract tube, represented by an inertial reactance L_t through which a current u_g (glottal flow) will be pushed to the lips. The pressure build-up at the subglottal side of the glottis will be represented by a voltage p_l (subglottal pressure), whereas the voltage p_g (supraglottal

pressure) will appear at the other side of the glottis. The pressure at the lips will be the atmospheric reference pressure p_0 . This is the basis of Rothenberg's model of phonation (Rothenberg, 1973), which will be used in this study to reproduce basic phonation defects.

Only oral phonations will be studied here, in order for the HPS to be modeled as a single tube with no lateral derivations. This condition will exclude the production of phonations related with [m, n, ŋ] and nasalized vowels ([v], with open velo-pharyngeal switch).

The idealized HPS will assume that plane wave propagation is to be considered along the transversal section of the equivalent cylindrical model S(x). It will be possible to represent the HPS three main subsystems described by the following models:

• The respiratory subsystem, comprising the diaphragm, lungs, bronchi and trachea, where C_l is the mechanical compliance of the respiratory cavities, and $u_l=u(x=x_l,t)$ and $u_g=u(x=x_g,t)$ are the airflows at the subglottal $(x=x_l)$ and supraglottal $(x=x_g)$ sides of the vocal folds given by the following relationship:

$$u(x_l,t) = C_l \frac{\partial p(x_l,t)}{\partial t} + u(x_g,t)$$
(1)

• The glottal subsystem, comprising vocal fold biomechanics will be represented by its electromechanical equivalent conductance G_g which under the pressure difference between the subglottal $p_l=p(x_{l,t}t)$ and supraglottal $p_g=p(x_{g,t}t)$ sides of the vocal folds induces a flow of air as:

$$u(x_{g},t) = G_{g}(t)(p(x_{l},t) - p(x_{g},t))$$
(2)

• The Oro-Naso-Pharyngeal Tract (ONPT), which may be represented by a tube of uniform section and inertial parameter *L_t*, and the contour conditions at *x*=0 (open space) and *x*=*x*_g as follows:

$$p(x_g, t) = L_t \frac{\partial u(x_g, t)}{\partial t}; \quad p(0, t) = 0$$
 (3)

The HPS considers that voice is produced by the vibrations of the vocal folds, represented by red bullets moving transversally to the axial line x, which result in strong pressure changes in the supraglottal side of the vocal folds. This pressure signal $p_g=p(x_g,t)$ is known as the glottal source. Indeed, the movement of the vocal folds is much more complex, as it has to

be observed in the transversal section of the glottis, as seen in Figure 2.a-f. The idealized model used in this study assumes that the transversal motion of the vocal folds is represented by the average space left by both vocal folds in their medial section (midpoint between the lower and upper bands on the vertical axis of any of the templates a-f in Figure 2).



Figure 2: Glottal aperture (Top): a) Inspiration or Expiration; b) Full closure; c) Phonation open phase; d) incomplete permanent gap defect; e) unilateral vocal fold paresis; f) medial contact gap defect; (Bottom): glottal aperture function $G_g(t)$ corresponding to permanent and temporary contact gap defects.

In the upper template six different patterns of the vocal fold closure are seen, corresponding to:

- a) Inspiration or Expiration. Both vocal folds are separate and allowing the flow to and from lungs.
- b) Full closure. The vocal folds are brought close together by their attachments to the aritenoid cartilages (black diamonds). No glottal space is left. This may happen when breath is held or during the contact phase of the phonation cycle.
- c) Phonation open phase. The vocal folds are brought together but air pressure from lungs can

separate them momentarily when an air puff is released (glottal pulse).

- Permanent gap defect. Both vocal folds cannot be brought together to a complete closure, and some glottal space is left in the aritenoid side. This gap defect is usually of anatomical nature.
- e) Asymmetric contact defect. One of the vocal folds is not reacting to neuromotor activation and cannot be taken to its medial position, therefore a complete closure cannot be reached. It is usually due to physiological paralysis of one of the vocal folds, or to a lesion of laryngeal nerves.
- f) Contact gap defect. Both vocal folds cannot be taken to a complete closure during the contact phase due to some organic lesion on their structure, as nodules, polyps or cysts, among others. If the lesion affects the medial part of the vocal folds two spaces are left on the aritenoid (bottom) or thyroid (top) sides in a shape of an hourglass. This defect appears as a temporary undue opening during the contact phase, during which an improper escape of flow is produced, as seen in the lower template of Figure 2, where the time pattern of a hypothetical aperture function (Gg) is represented, in which a permanent escape of air is present due to a permanent defect of amplitude 0.2 relative to the maximum flow (supposed 1.0), besides a temporary contact defect of relative amplitude 0.15 between 1.5 and 3.5 ms. The main aperture (proper flow escape) is observed between 5.5 and 10 ms (assumed to be cyclic). The time axis is referenced to the Maximum Flow Declination Ratio (MFDR), therefore part of the closing phase of the glottal aperture has assigned negative time values.

In general, gaps and contact defects lead to the creation of vortices and noise turbulence, which are effects out of the scope of the present study. Different patterns of the glottal flow and source are shown in the next plots from Figure 3 to Figure 6, as a response different glottal aperture functions when of synthesized by Rothenberg's model. All of them show the amplitude-normalized glottal flow (a), its amplitude distribution from a 100-bin normalized histogram (b) the amplitude-normalized glottal source (c) and its amplitude distribution (d). The glottal source in c) is synchronized with the strong decay resulting from the closing of the glottis aligned with the origin and end of the glottal cycle (MFDR), as it is produced by the sharp pressure decay when the

flow is decreasing at its fastest rate in a), according to (3). The glottal source cycle is initiated with a fast pressure raise to 0 (resting state at atmospheric pressure), the flow in a) being zero (contact or closed phase). At t=5 ms the aperture function in Figure 2.f) starts opening, which results in a raise in flow (Figure 3.a) and a build-up in glottal pressure (Figure 3.c). The maximum in the glottal pressure (source) is aligned with the maximum slope in the glottal flow. When the glottal flow (a) reaches a maximum value, the glottal source crosses the zero line and becomes negative (c). At the point that the glottal flow reaches its minimum negative slope (a) the glottal source (c) reaches its minimum (MFDR). This evolution of the glottal source is known as the Liljencrants-Fant cycle or LF pattern (Fant and Liljencrants, 1985).



Figure 3: Glottal flow and source response of Rothenberg's Model to a normative aperture function (no permanent or gap defects): a) Normalized glottal flow; b) 100-bin amplitude histogram of the glottal flow; c) Normalized glottal source under the same conditions; d) 100-bin amplitude histogram of the glottal source.

The glottal source in c) is synchronized with the strong decay resulting from the closing of the glottis aligned with the origin and end of the glottal cycle (MFDR), as it is produced by the sharp pressure decay when the flow is decreasing at its fastest rate in a), according to (3). The glottal source cycle is initiated with a fast pressure raise to 0 (resting state at atmospheric pressure), the flow in a) being zero (contact or closed phase). At t=5 ms the aperture function in Figure 2.f) starts opening, which results in a raise in flow (Figure 3.a) and a build-up in glottal pressure (Figure 3.c). The maximum in the glottal pressure (source) is aligned with the maximum slope in the glottal flow. When the glottal flow (a) reaches a maximum value, the glottal source crosses the zero line and becomes negative (c). At the point that the glottal flow reaches its minimum negative slope (a) the glottal source (c) reaches its minimum (MFDR).

This evolution of the glottal source is known as the Liljencrants-Fant cycle or LF pattern (Fant and Liljencrants, 1985). In Figure 4 a case of permanent gap defect is simulated. The vocal folds leave a permanent space for airflow, usually by the aritenoid zone, as depicted in Figure 2.d.



Figure 4: Glottal flow and source response of Rothenberg's Model to an anomalous aperture function (permanent gap). a) Normalized glottal flow. b) 100-bin amplitude histogram of the glottal flow. c) Normalized glottal source under the same conditions. d) 100-bin amplitude histogram of the glottal source.

It may be seen that after reaching a non-zero minimum the glottal flow (a) experiences an increment in time during what should be the contact phase, to the point where it burst-up (open phase) to start a decay. The glottal source (c) does not recover to the resting state, but it overpasses it, and a small and almost steady overpressure is observed till the opening burst-up and posterior decay to its MFDR. The glottal flow amplitude distribution (b) suffers a relevant distortion, most of the accumulation at lower amplitudes being displaced to mid amplitudes. The glottal source amplitude distribution (d) does not suffer important changes (a widening and a small jump of the expected spike at the resting position).

In Figure 5 a case of temporary contact defect is simulated. A puff of flow is produced during the contact phase, similar to the one represented in Figure 2.f, but with no permanent gap. It may be seen that the temporary contact defect appearing between 1.5 and 3.5 ms produces a reduced replica of the main glottal source LF pattern (c), which may be considered a wavelet of the main cycle (Mallat, 1998). Thus, wavelet description techniques have been used in characterizing it (Gómez et al., 2013a). The glottal flow and source amplitude distributions are not strongly affected with respect to the normative case (Figure 3).



Figure 5: Glottal flow and source response of Rothenberg's Model to an anomalous aperture function (temporary contact gap). a) Normalized glottal flow. b) 100-bin amplitude histogram of the glottal flow. c) Normalized glottal source under the same conditions. d) 100-bin amplitude histogram of the glottal source.

In Figure 6 a case of joint permanent and temporary contact defects is simulated. A puff of flow is produced during the contact phase, similar to the one represented in Figure 5, and a steady flow escape as in Figure 4 are present simultaneously, as given in Figure 2.f.



Figure 6: Glottal flow and source response of Rothenberg's Model to an anomalous aperture function (permanent and temporary contact gaps). a) Normalized glottal flow. b) 100-bin glottal flow amplitude histogram c) Normalized glottal source under the same conditions. d) 100-bin glottal source amplitude histogram.

The simulation results show a combined behavior of the cases presented in Figure 4 and Figure 5, a steady increment in the flow (a) as a consequence of the permanent defect, and a wavelet replica of the main glottal cycle (c) as a consequence of the contact defect. Glottal flow amplitude distribution experiments a larger distortion due to permanent defect than to contact defect. The question now is to which extent these synthesized simulations can represent real phonation defects. For such, a real glottal flow and source cycle and its associated amplitude distribution, resulting from the analysis of a segment of vowel [a:] by a male speaker with anomalous phonation are given as an example in 0 (Top four templates), whereas in the bottom four templates synthetic glottal flow and source patterns produced by Rothenberg's Model are shown.



Figure 7: Top: Glottal flow and source estimated from a pathological phonation of [a:] by a male speaker: a) Glottal flow; b) Glottal flow distribution; c) Glottal source; d) Glottal source distribution. Bottom: Glottal flow and source synthesized by Rothenberg's Model from an anomalous aperture (permanent and contact gaps): e) Normalized glottal flow; f) 100-bin amplitude histogram of the glottal flow; g) Normalized glottal source; h) 100-bin amplitude histogram of the glottal flow; g) Rothenberg's Addel settings: Contact defect t_{cd}=3.2 ms; Amplitude of contact defect A_{cd}=35% max aperture; Phonation period t_{cy}=8 ms; Open phase t_{op}=3.6 ms.

It may be seen that the synthetic glottal signals replicate the anomalous contact behavior of the real ones (obtained by vocal tract inversion) in amplitude and time. The similarity between the real and synthetic amplitude normalized histograms is evident. This example gives support to the use of amplitude distributions in pattern matching tasks related with pathology detection and monitoring from phonation samples (see Kreiman, 2012).

3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Following this reasoning, the possibility of using phonation stability features in maintained open vowels as [a:] has been evaluated in characterizing neurologic PD patient phonation from that of normative and healthy controls within the same age range. The validation of phonation and contact defects in the separation of pathological PD and aging voice samples from normative ones has been carried out using features from PD patients' phonations vs healthy controls, and normative speakers. The data used were extracted from vowel utterances of [a:] from 24 male and 24 female PD patients randomly selected from male and female databases (Mekyska et al., 2015) within an age range of 67.5±7.7 and 67.4±9.1 years (respectively) processed to produce a PD database (MPD from male subjects, and FPD for female ones). The average time interval since their first diagnostic to the recording instant was of 8.17±4.21 years and 6.46±3.59 years respectively. Patients were recorded in ON state about 2 hours after medication intake. Similar utterances from another set of 24 male and 24 female control subjects randomly selected within an age of 61.3±9.3 and 65.1±8.9 years old respectively from the same database were also processed and stored in a healthy control database (MHC from male subjects and FHC from female ones). The database (PARCZ) was collected at St. Anne's University Hospital in Brno (Czech Republic), including demographic and clinical information from each patient as gender, age, time since first diagnosis, scores of the Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale part III (UPDRS-III: motor examination), medication and other nonmotor evaluations. Recordings were sampled at 48 kHz with 16-bit resolution. All patients signed an informed consent form that was approved by the local ethics committee. This partial study was also approved by the Ethical Committee of Universidad Politécnica de Madrid. Similarly, 24 male and 24 female subjects were randomly selected from a normative database recorded at Hospital Gregorio Marañón, of Madrid (HUGM), Spain, within an age of 42.3±11.2 and 37.3±11.7 range (years) respectively to serve as the normative male and female datasets. In this case the recordings were sampled at 44.1 kHz with 16-bit resolution. The normative subsets are (Male Normative Set) and FNS

(Female Normative Set). Although the databases PARCZ and the HUGM have been recorded at different sampling rates, down-sampling to 16 kHz under channel equalization conditions grant similar signal quality. Their main difference is on the phonation characteristics, in PARCZ subjects produced vowels no long than 2 s, whereas in HUGM speakers could sustain vowels for 5 s and more. The analysis has been conducted on 300 ms segments taken from the middle of the vowel nucleus for best results, down-sampling them to 16 kH to grant good spectral contents at a reasonable computational cost. The features used in the study are of two types: average and standard deviation of jitter, shimmer, noise-harmonic ratio, biomechanical parameters and tremor estimations on one side (Gómez et al., 2017), and glottal flow amplitude distributions as described in section 2 on the other side. Feature extraction was carried out according to the protocol described below:

- Recordings of [a:] from MNS, FNS, MHC, FHC, MPD and FPD are down-sampled to 16 kHz.
- The ONPT transfer function is evaluated by a 20pole adaptive inverse lattice-ladder filter (Deller, Proakis and Hansen, 1993). This transfer function is removed from the spectral contents of the speech signal (inversion). A complete description of the adaptive inversion filter details can be found in Gómez et al. (2009).
- The inverse filtering residuals are integrated twice to give the glottal source and flow $(p(x_g, t), u(x_g, t))$.
- A normalized 50-bin amplitude histogram of $u(x_g, t)$ is estimated for each subject sample.
- The histograms are used to estimate the Amplitude Distributions (AD) by Kolmogorov-Smirnov approximations (Webb, 2002).
- An average amplitude distribution is estimated for each subset: avADMNS, avADFNS, avADMHC, avADFHC, avADMPD and avADFPD.
- The glottal cycle-synchronous average (av) estimates of the standard features (SF) as jitter, shimmer, noise-harmonic ratio, vocal fold mass and stiffness, their one-cycle unbalances, the three termor band amplitudes, and their standard deviations (sd) are also estimated as: avSFMNS, avSFFNS, avSFMHC, avSFFHC, avSFMPD and sdSFFPD and sdSFFNS, sdSFMHC, sdSFFNS, sdSFMHC, sdSFFHC, sdSFMPD and sdSFFPD.

The classification methodology used is based on a standard Support Vector Machine classifier according to the following protocol:

- Feature selection is applied to each feature set (FSA and FSB) using ReliefF (Kononenko et al., 1997, Robnik-Šikonja and Kononenko, 2003), with a number of neighbors varying between 1 and 50. As a result, 50 different arrangements in ranking order for the total number of features considered (144 from feature averages and standard deviations and 100 from amplitude distributions) are produced. Features are selected in subsets of *N* features (between 15 and 120) in order of ranking, from the highest to the lowest, accordingly to the ranking provided by ReliefF.
- Each feature subset is the input to a Support Vector Machine (SVM) with a Gaussian radial basis function (RBF) kernel (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995) following the implementation given in (Chang and Lin, 2011). In the present work SVMs were used as an alternative to generate classification results using cross-validation of all the datasets distributed in 10 groups (10-fold cross-validation). The process described is carried on all the combinations of SVM grid space parameters (*C*, γ) given as *C*=[2⁻³, 2⁻²,..., 2¹²] and $\gamma = [2^{-1}, 2^{-2}, ..., 2^{-10}]$.
- The subset of N features producing the best results in terms of accuracy is selected, using the classical definition for sensitivity (STV), specificity (SPC) and accuracy (ACC)

$$STV = \frac{TP}{P} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

$$SPC = \frac{TN}{N} = \frac{TN}{TN + FP}$$

$$ACC = \frac{(TP + TN)}{TP + FP + TN + FN}$$
(4)

with TP: true positives, TN: true negatives, FP: false positives and FN: false negatives.

The performance indices STV, SPC and ACC for each winner subset of N features corresponding to FSA or FSB are estimated on the average of 1000 different runs over the 10 groups (1000 runs of the 10-fold cross validation). The results statistical relevance was estimated by Wilcoxon rank sum test (Mann-Whitney U) from feature averages and standard deviations, and amplitude distribution bins, independently for the male and female datasets.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 gives comparative results after crossvalidation (1000 runs, 10-fold) in terms of STV, SPC and ACC and detection error (ERR) for male and female datasets under a maximum p-value<10⁻⁴. Rows 1 and 4 compare the standard features average and standard deviation estimations from PD patients vs healthy controls (1: males, 4: females). It may be seen that the detection error is smaller for the female dataset (4.144%) than for the male dataset (6.129%). If the comparison is carried out using the amplitude distributions (rows 2 and 5) the error is smaller for the male dataset (5.235%) than for the female dataset (7.783%). If both types of features are fused (rows 3 and 6) the errors are much smaller than when features are separated and comparable (males: 2.127%, females: 2.681%). If the features from the normative datasets are fused on the reference set (rows 7 and 8) the performance of the detection process is very much enhanced regarding detection errors (males: 0.312%, females: 0.408%).

Table 1: Merit figures for the different tests in % (M): Male Sets; (F): Female Sets.

#	Test Set	Ref Set	STV	SPC	ACC	ERR
1(M)	avSFMPD	avSFMHC	93.871		93.871	
	sdSFMPD	sdSFMHC				
2(M)	avADMPD	avADMHC	93.441	96.087	94.764	5.235
3(M)	avSFMPD	avSFMHC				
	sdSFMPD	sdSFMHC	95.800	99.946	97.873	2.127
	avADMPD	avADMHC				
4(F)	avSFFPD	avSFFHC	97.808	93.904	95.856	1 1 1 1
	sdSFFPD	sdSFFHC				4.144
5(F)	avADFPD	avADFHC	97.821	86.612	92.217	7.783
6(F)	avSFFPD	avSFFHC		/-/		/
	sdSFFPD	sdSFFHC	97.412	97.225	97.319	2.681
	avADFPD	avADFHC				
7(M)	avSFMPD sdSFMPD avADMPD	avSFMHC	99.950	99.556	99.687	0.312
		sdSFMHC				
		avSFMNS				
		sdSFMNS				
		avADMHC				
		avADMNS				
8(F)	avSFFPD sdSFFPD avADFPD	avSFFHC				
		sdSFFHC	99.625	99.575	99.591	0.408
		avSFFNS				
		sdSFFNS				
		avADFHC				
		avADFNS				

Nevertheless, this last situation is not the natural one, as the normative dataset has been recruited under very specific and controlled conditions (healthy young subjects and well sustained phonation). Anyhow, the results indicate that the detection capability of amplitude distributions taken isolated are comparable to those of standard feature parameters (averages and standard deviations), and that their fused combination produces substantial improvements when comparing phonation features from PD patients with those from healthy controls. This situation is closer to the real conditions in which phonation tests are conducted, as in daily life patient monitoring under limited quality standards. If the reference set includes normative subjects recorded under high quality standards the detection errors decay strongly, as it could be expected. The most relevant features regarding detection in each experiment are given in Table 2.

Table 2: Ranked features by ReliefF in terms of joint association with the binary outcome. The features in bold are repeating in two or more experiments. The features in italics are relative to distortion, unbalance or tremor. The underlined features correspond to the first and fourth quartile of the amplitude distributions. (M): Male Sets; (F): Female Sets.

-				
#	Feature Averages/Std. Devs.	Amplitude Distributions		
1(M)	18 45 47 49 57 62 66 18 33 42 49 59 61 63 69 70 72			
2(M)		2 3 10 13 14 15 26 28 29 30 38 39 40 <u>84 85 86 87 90 93</u> 97 99		
3(M)	20 21 24 39 42 52 62 4 27 41 58	7 61 69 70 95 98 100		
4(F)	1 10 12 14 39 41 46 56 59 69 4 15 18 19 23 25 69	55		
5(F)	והיי פי ופי	<u>2 4 5 7 8</u> 57 58 59 61 62 66 95		
6(F)	33 39 42 43 50 58 59 51 57 58 59 63 64	17 46 48 68 71 79		
7(M)	9 11 13 14 32 69 72 5 9 11 20 33 47 52 56 59	<u>3 4 6 14 20</u> 38 <u>90 92</u>		
	1 2 3 6 11 12 15 30 33 36 39 56 59 62 65 5 9 23 25 39 54 61 63 64 66			

The table is organized as follows: each test shown in Table 1 is indexed on the leftmost column. The second column from the left gives the most relevant average features in each upper cell, and the most relevant standard deviation features in each lower cell. The rightmost column gives the channel bin indices from the Glottal Flow Amplitude Distributions. It must be recalled that rows 1, 2, 3 and 7 refer to male subsets, where 4, 5, 6, and 8 refer to female subsets. The features which appear more than once in any of the experiments have been spotted in bold. The features related with biomechanical unbalance, perturbation or tremor have been spotted italicized. In the rightmost column The Glottal Flow Amplitude Distribution bins repeating in any of the different experiments have been spotted in bold. The bins corresponding to the first and last quartiles have been underlined. The review of the relevance features reveals interesting facts:

• The number of features which repeat themselves in the different experiments, taking into account the averages, standard deviations and amplitude distributions is relatively low:

Averages: 11(2), 14(2), 33(2), 39(4), 42(2), 56(2), 59(3), 62(3), 69(2);

Std. Devs.: 4(2), 5(2), 9(2), 18(2), 23(2), 25(2), 33(2), 59(4), 61(2), 63(3), 64(2), 69(2);

Ampl. Dist: 2, 4, 7 (1Q), 61 (3Q), 90, 93, 95, 97, 98, 99 (4Q).

The feature average repeating most (39, four times out of six tests) is the vocal fold body losses unbalance. The second most frequent are 59 (three times) and 63 (three times), corresponding to the relative Flow Gap and the relative Contact Gap. Regarding the feature standard deviations repeating most are 59 (four times out of six tests) and 63 (three times), corresponding again to the relative Flow Gap and the First Cyclical Coefficient of vocal fold tremor (see c1 given by expression (7) in Gómez et al., 2013b). Although the most frequent features are related with instability and closure defects, they do not appear in all the tests, therefore, there is not a clear repetition pattern of features with differentiation power among the experiments.

The amplitude distribution bins features which show some repetition are distributed mainly in the first quartile (Q1: 2, 4, 7) and mainly the fourth quartile (Q4: 90, 93, 95, 97, 98, 99); only a single bin is observed in the middle part of the distribution (61: Q3); this observation indicates that the most relevant parts of the distribution differentiating altered from normative phonation are the extreme quartiles, as it could be expected from Figure 3 to Figure 7. Interestingly, feature 69, which corresponds to the amplitude of the neuromotor tremor in the 4-8 Hz band (see Mertens et al., 2013) appears twice as feature average (in 4, test comparing PD vs HC samples including female average and standard deviation features, and 7, test comparing PD vs HC and NS sets including female average, standard deviation features and amplitude distributions) and as feature standard deviations (in 1, test comparing PD vs HC samples including male average and standard deviation features, and 4, test comparing PD vs HC samples including female average and standard deviation features).

The consequence is that feature implication in classification is not really uniform and depends strongly on the experiment. This fact raises important concerns regarding the way that classification experiments are conducted the way it is generally established: sets of features fused in supervectors from databases limited by sample size, not considering the semantic value of each feature. On the one hand, it seems that high classification scores can be achieved using well-known efficient classifiers. On the other hand, it seems that there is not a clear semantics on how classification depends on features. The question is to which extent the overpower of classification methods and the limited size of databases are over-expressing the results allowing good classification accuracy on very specific data, but where semantic generalization is not well handled. The burning question would be if seeking for new features could be done maintain good phenomenalinked semantics providing high classification scores at the same time. Feature semantics should be the main objective to be sought, as it allows the formulation of new hypotheses based on functional background. Promoting novel features with a remote or no clear link with neurophysiological facts will not allow going any further, no matter how good classification scores may be. This is a relevant question to be considered in proposing new features and classification methods.

5 CONCLUSIONS

The present paper has been conceived to investigate to two different questions. On the one hand, it is intended to give an acoustical and physiological explanation to defects in phonation which may be induced by organic and neuromotor origin. On the other hand, it is intended to show that good classification scores between PD, HC and NS phonation may be obtained basically fusing distortion, biomechanical unbalance and tremor feature averages and their standard deviations with amplitude distributions obtained from the glottal flow signal using a standard supervector classifier as an SVM. The conclusions point out that these features have differentiation capability, either taken isolated or fused when differentiating PD vs HC and also when differentiating PD vs HC and NS. In this last case the best scores were obtained, with classification errors under 0.5% (tests 7 and 8). Nevertheless, when

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analyzing the semantics of the most frequent features appearing as responsible of the classification scores, there is not any feature common to the 8 tests carried on. This means that classification scores depend more on the collective power of several features, than on a feature in particular. As semantics is in the nature of the features themselves, this consequence casts some suspicion that classification success is more on the algorithmic machinery supporting it than on the clear semantics which can be drawn from the experiments, producing a certain "miraging" effect which needs to be examined more in depth. Future lines or work are being established to explore this paradoxical controversy.

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