Non-invasive identification of swallows via deep learning in high resolution cervical auscultation recordings

Yassin Khalifa¹, James L. Coyle², and Ervin Sejdić^{1,3,4,5,*}

¹Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Swanson School of Engineering, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA.

²Department of Communication Science and Disorders, School of Health and Rehabilitation Sciences, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA.

³Department of Bioengineering, Swanson School of Engineering, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA.

⁴Department of Biomedical Informatics, School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA.

⁵Intelligent Systems Program, School of Computing and Information, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA. *esejdic@ieee.org

ABSTRACT

High resolution cervical auscultation is a very promising noninvasive method for dysphagia screening and aspiration detection, as it does not involve the use of harmful ionizing radiation approaches. Automatic extraction of swallowing events in cervical auscultations is a key step for swallowing analysis to be clinically effective. Using time-varying spectral estimation of swallowing signals and deep feed forward neural networks, we propose an automatic segmentation algorithm for swallowing accelerometry and sounds that works directly on the raw swallowing signals in an online fashion. The algorithm was validated qualitatively and quantitatively using the swallowing data collected from 248 patients, yielding over 3000 swallows manually labeled by experienced speech language pathologists. With a detection accuracy that exceeded 95%, the algorithm has shown superior performance in comparison to the existing algorithms and demonstrated its generalizability when tested over 76 completely unseen swallows from a different population. The proposed method is not only of great importance to any subsequent swallowing signal analysis steps, but also provides an evidence that such signals can capture the physiological signature of the swallowing process.

Main

Electronic human activity monitoring devices and wearable technology have evolved in the past decade from simple macrode-2 tection of gross events such as the number of steps taken during a walk around the block, to the detection of micro-events that 3 exist within each gross event¹. As a result, the quantity of data generated by these devices has exponentially increased along 4 with the clinical questions arising with this data challenge². Therefore, efforts to automate signal analysis are receiving more 5 attention. Any systematic analysis of signals requires an important first step in which individual signal events are demarcated or 6 segmented from one another before detailed analysis of signal components can be performed. This necessitates the development of robust automatic event detection methods to reduce the number of manual steps in signal analysis, mitigating human error and 8 guaranteeing consistent detection criteria³. Event extraction algorithms have been introduced in many applications including 9 speech analysis⁴, heart sounds segmentation⁵, brain signals analysis⁶, and swallowing activity analysis^{3,7}. Many of these 10 algorithms relied on multi-channel data to improve detection quality^{8,9}. 11 All these applications share a common need of accurately defining the temporal borders (onset and offset) of certain 12

events in order to be used for further processing and analysis. Particularly, we are interested in automated identification of
 vibratory and acoustic signals demarcating individual swallows using accelerometers and microphones³. Such automatic
 segmentation algorithms are critical for many applications that rely on swallowing sounds and vibrations which have been
 suggested as alternative bedside tools for dysphagia screening^{10–18}, to discriminate between patients with healthy and dysphagic
 swallows^{10,11}.

¹⁸ Dysphagia is a swallowing disorder that frequently follows stroke, neurodegenerative diseases, head and neck cancer and ¹⁹ head injuries among many other etiologies¹⁹. Swallowing physiology and kinematics can be monitored and evaluated through ²⁰ various diagnostic imaging tools like endoscopy and ultrasound, but the gold standard is the videofluoroscopic swallowing ²¹ study (VFSS). A typical VFSS is an X-ray procedure in which patients are asked to swallow different materials mixed with ²² barium²⁰. While VFSS is relatively efficient, its disadvantages include cost, short swallowing observation duration which fails to capture the variability of swallowing function occurring over the course of an entire meal, and limited availability to all clinicians and patients in no-acute care settings. It also has other disadvantages including radiation exposure and the need for specialized clinicians and equipment^{19,21}. Even with institutional availability, VFSS cannot be used for daily and bedside assessment of swallowing¹². These limitations increased interest in the use of noninvasive instrumental tools that help identify swallowing problems in the bedside and out of standard care settings.

Crude methods have been developed to use instrumentation for dysphagia screening through observing the patient's behavior 28 during swallowing. Instrumental screening acts as an initial evaluation that determines the necessity of performing more 29 diagnostic exams such as VFSS. These methods include cervical auscultation which relies on a stethoscope to listen to the 30 sounds emanating from the throat during swallowing in a similar way to listening to the sound of heart valves, blood flow, 31 and airway. Experiments using cervical auscultation have reported subjectivity and low levels of inter-judge agreement when 32 interpreting the sounds in addition to poor accuracy and reproducibility^{22,23}. Conversely, high resolution devices which are 33 independent of human auditory system, can record a wider spectrum of sounds and vibrations that the human auditory system 34 is incapable of perceiving. High resolution cervical auscultation (HRCA) involves placing highly sensitive accelerometer 35 and microphone to the anterior neck to capture swallowing vibrations and sounds in order to be objectively analyzed through 36 advanced signal processing and machine learning algorithms. HRCA devices can capture multidimensional vibrations and 37 inaudible components of swallowing sounds which with the appropriate analysis, can be superior to subjective acoustic analysis 38 via stethoscope. 39

In recent years, acceleration and sound signals collected during swallowing have been the focus of many studies for the 40 diagnosis and detection of dysphagia and its symptoms such as aspiration. These studies confirmed the presence of shared 41 patterns among healthy swallows and the absence or delay of such patterns in dysphagic swallows^{13,24–27}. Several studies used 42 the sounds collected from surface microphones for aspiration detection and characterization of abnormal swallows through 43 the analysis of power spectrum and distance based techniques^{28,29}. The origin of swallowing vibrations picked through 44 accelerometers has been investigated and correlated to hyolaryngeal excursion^{14,30} which paved the way for more studies that 45 used swallowing accelerometry to evaluate airway protection^{10,17,31,32}. However, most of these studies relied on expert manual 46 segmentation of the swallowing signals by visual inspection of the concurrently collected diagnostic exams such as VFSS or 47 repeated listening of sound signals. 48 Many swallowing event detection methods have been introduced in the literature especially for swallowing accelerometry. 49

Sejdić et al.³ developed a segmentation algorithm that yielded over 90% accuracy for identifying individual segments for both 50 simulated and real data. Their algorithm used sequential fuzzy partitioning of the acceleration signal based on its variance³. 51 The output of partitioning from two orthogonal axes of acceleration (anterior posterior and superior inferior) was logically 52 combined to achieve better detection of individual swallows and the algorithm was designed to deal with non-stationary long 53 signals³. Damouras et al.⁷ proposed a volatility-based online swallow detection algorithm that works on raw acceleration 54 signals. This algorithm achieved precision and recall values that are comparable to the results in³ and outperformed k-means 55 and density-based spatial clustering of applications with noise (DBSCAN) algorithms³³. Moreover, Lee et al.¹², introduced 56 a pseudo-automatic detection algorithm that depends on simple empirical thresholding of dual-axis accelerometry. They 57 achieved high sensitivity, however the temporal accuracy of the detected segments was unacceptable compared to the expert 58 manual segmentation. Other methods used manual segmentation either through inspection of acceleration by human experts³⁴ 59 or synchronizing with reference events in simultaneous videofluoroscopic studies^{10,25}. Multi-sensor fusion was also used 60 in swallowing segmentation by identifying the most useful signal combinations among three types of signals (dual-axis 61

⁶² accelerometry, submental MMG, and nasal flow) achieving accuracies up to 89.6%³⁵.

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the accuracy of spectral estimation and deep neural networks (DNNs) in automatic 63 swallowing activity detection in both swallowing accelerometry signals and swallowing sounds. Three axes of acceleration 64 and a single channel of swallowing sounds were investigated individually as standalone event detectors after which the best 65 system was chosen according to detection quality when compared to the expert manual segmentation. Moreover, the used 66 dataset overcomes the limitations of controlled data acquisition in the past segmentation studies, including number of subjects, 67 swallowing maneuvers, swallowed materials and bolus size which represent most of the conditions common in dysphagia 68 screening. This makes the dataset investigated in this study, optimal for the validation of such segmentation algorithm. We 69 hypothesize that the proposed method will be able to correctly identify around 95% of the swallowing segment in more than 70 90% of attempts, irrespective of the texture or volume of the swallowed material, swallowing maneuver, or patient diagnosis. 71

72 Results

A total of 3144 swallows (603 from stroke diagnosed patients and 2541 from other patients) were recorded with an average

⁷⁴ duration of 862.6 ± 277 msec. All the acquired signals (swallowing sounds and acceleration) from the microphone, and the three

axes of the accelerometer were sampled at 20 kHz. Since numerous physiologic and kinematic events occur simultaneously

⁷⁶ during swallowing recordings (e.g.: breathing, coughing), collected signals contain vibratory and acoustic information from

multiple sources⁷. To overcome these and other measurement errors, we downsampled the entire dataset to 20% of the recorded
 sampling rate (i.e. 4 kHz instead of 20 kHz)³⁶. All four signal streams (microphone, and accelerometer anterior-posterior [A-P],
 superior-inferior [S-I], and medial-lateral [M-L]) were independently considered for swallowing segmentation.

To simulate the online processing scheme, and since we sought to determine whether automated segmentation could 80 replicate gold-standard manual segmentation, a sliding window of size N samples was used to partition the signals into time 81 samples. The window size N is considered as the predefined segmentation resolution of the system; therefore, we tested 82 different values of N to see the effect of window size on the overall performance of the segmentation process. We used sizes of 83 500 to 1500 (125 to 375 msec) with a step of 100 samples and the selection of this range of values came from the fact that the 84 acquired swallowing segments can be represented with the used window sizes. Moreover, a typical swallow segment can range 85 in duration from 1 second (4k samples in this case) to more than 3 seconds which makes the selected window sizes robust 86 to statistical error and efficient to detect the shortest swallows^{7,37}. The algorithm was intended to use only non overlapping 87 windows which reduce the number of processed windows and hence make it suitable for real time operation; however, we 88 considered a 50% overlap for all window sizes in order to test its effect on performance. So, four different segmentation models 89 were trained and tested based on the four signal lines from microphone and accelerometer, each dependent on the spectrogram 90 of underlying signal in order to determine the best window size and the best performing line as in Fig. 1. 91

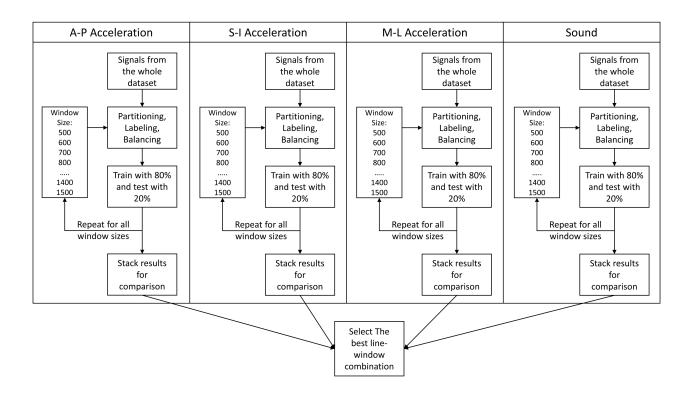


Figure 1. System's parameter selection process

All windows were labeled by comparing the start and end times to the timing of manual segmentation done by speech 92 language pathologists (SLPs). A window is considered a part of a certain swallow if the the manually labeled swallowing 93 segment overlaps with 50% or more of the automatically selected window size as shown in Fig. 2. The spectrogram of each 94 window is calculated through the use of short-time Fourier transform (Eq. 1) with 5 non-overlapping time samples each of 95 (N/5) length, a fixed length of 512 for the calculated Fourier transform and a Hanning window to reduce variance and leakage. 96 This setup provided spectrograms of 257 frequency bins and we only used the magnitude of spectrogram in building the model 97 while the phase was not of interest for this study. Fig. 3 shows sample signals as picked by the microphone and accelerometer 98 with the onset and offset of the swallowing segment marked with red dotted lines and an example non-swallow segment marked 99 with blue dotted lines. Fig. 4 shows the spectrograms for the two segments (non-swallowing and swallowing) shown in Fig. 100 3 which basically represent the typical folded input into the DNN for each of the training models described previously. The 101 magnitude of each spectrogram was unpacked into a (257×5) length vector to be used for the training process and prior 102

training, all spectrograms were normalized to unit scale.

$$X(n,\omega) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} x[m]w[n-m]\exp^{-j\omega n}$$
(1)

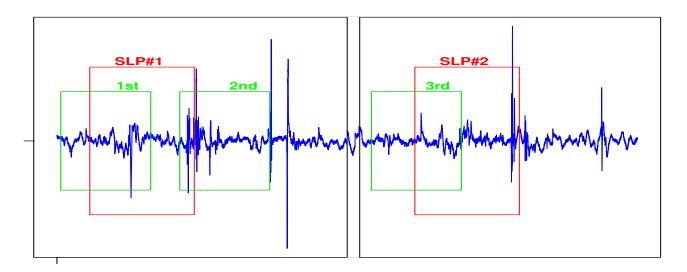


Figure 2. The labeling process of a sample swallowing sound signal. Red windows represent the swallowing segments identified by human expert SLP's. Green windows represent different positions of the sliding window. The 1st and 3rd positions are labeled as swallows due to large overlap

The used window sizes produced 5574 to 20121 swallowing windows and 94211 to 280043 non-swallowing windows for 104 window sizes 1500(375 msec) and 500(125 msec) respectively. This imbalance between swallows and non-swallows comes 105 from the fact that each recording file contains longer blank (background noise) periods than swallowing periods. As a result, 106 the balance between both types needed to be restored for the training of the system to mitigate bias. Therefore, we used the 107 full set of the swallowing data at each window size and randomly selected an equal group of the non-swallowing data. Single 108 swallows were also separated in order to form a smaller dataset so that we could test the system performance over single and 109 other types of swallows (multiple and sequential) because the later categories are known to be more complex. The resultant 110 datasets were randomly reordered and divided into two parts, 80% for training and 20% for testing. 111

A DNN was trained to create a feed forward probabilistic model of size $1285 \times 1285 \times 1$ units. The DNN was created such that the input layer is the spectrogram vector of each window and the output layer represents the synthesized probability of whether the window is a part of a swallow or not. The output layer was configured to use the biased-sigmoid as an activation function with zero bias. The DNN was trained using a 100 iterations stochastic gradient descent (SGD)³⁸. In addition, the DNN was configured to use dropout free training along with full sweep iterations of SGD.

Fig. 5 shows the results of testing the DNN trained with 80% of the data for the three axes of accelerometer (A-P, S-I, 117 and M-L) and microphone signal. At each window size, the performance of swallowing identification is shown in terms 118 of accuracy, specificity, and sensitivity. According to Fig. 5, we can clearly see that the best results are achieved for A-P 119 acceleration data at window sizes of 800 and 900 (900 and 1000 for the whole dataset). As a result, the 10-fold cross validation 120 model was trained with A-P acceleration 10 times while excluding a randomly selected set of recordings each time for testing 121 (without replacement). The top detection results achieved across all folds are shown in Table 1 for the two window sizes and 122 the different overlap criteria. Ninety to 100% detection was accomplished for all four overlap ratios across single, multiple. 123 and sequential swallows, and the precision of all four overlap ratios for single swallows was greater after post-processing. 124 Multiple and sequential swallow detection also increased after post-processing however both the 900 and 1000 window sizes 125 performed comparably. Overall, algorithm-based detection was most accurate using the window size of 800 (200 msec) for 126 single swallows. On the other hand, using overlapping windows hasn't had a noticeable effect on the algorithm performance 127 except for long window sizes 1100-1500 (>225 msec). For A-P acceleration, the accuracy dropped between 1-5% for window 128 sizes 500-1000 when using overlapping but increased with almost 8-12% for window sizes larger than 1100. Despite of the 129 changes that overlapping induced to the performance, the best detection remains achievable at window sizes 800-900. 130

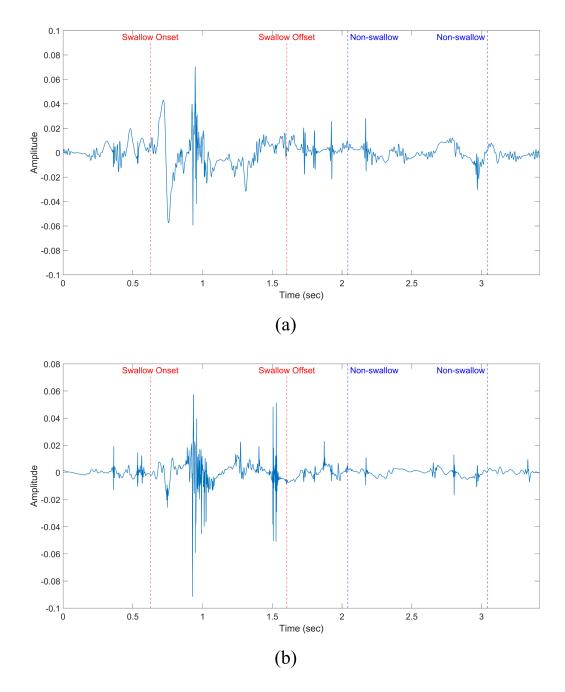


Figure 3. Sample raw sound and acceleration signals as recorded from the sensors attached on the anterior neck for each patient. The onset and offset of the swallow segment is marked in red dotted line and the rest are non-swallow segments with the segment marked with the blue dotted lines as an example. (a) Microphone signal (b) A-P acceleration signal.

Once we got the best window size and the best performing line of swallowing signals from the previous step, we retrained 131 and tested the system using these parameters as the block diagram shows in Fig. 6. The whole dataset was divided randomly 132 into 10 equal subsets in terms of recordings and a holdout method is repeated 10 times by training with 9 subsets and testing 133 with the remaining one. Furthermore, the segmentation masks generated from this step were processed in order to enhance the 134 temporal accuracy of the detection compared to the manual segmentation. This step is intended to check the boundaries of the 135 detected segment and add a couple of samples on each side for a better match with SLP segments. The segments added to each 136 side are determined through inspection of the area under the spectral estimate curve (AUC) of the swallowing signal (summation 137 across frequencies for each time sample). The whole temporal enhancement process is illustrated in the flowchart shown in Fig. 138

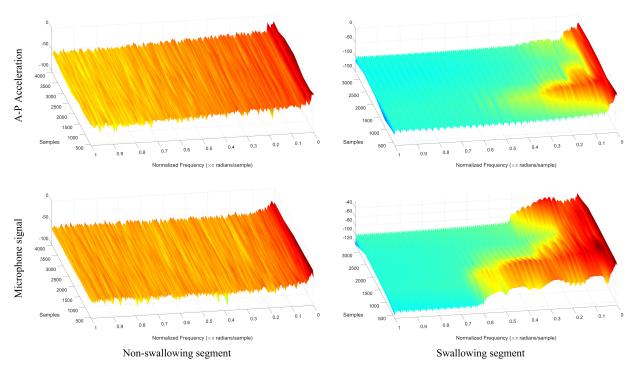


Figure 4. Spectrogram of non-swallowing and swallowing segments for both acceleration and sound.

7(a). The width of the segment is determined through simple thresholding of the AUC in the area around the detected segment
with a threshold calculated from statistics of the segment (min and max). Fig. 7(b) shows the AUC for a swallowing sound
signal with swallowing segments annotated with rectangles. The inspection area was limited to 2 windows around the borders
of each detected segment because more than this, will not be reasonable compared to the duration of swallows.

An assessment criterion was defined to validate the results of this segmentation work against the human expert manual 143 segmentation as shown in Fig. 8. Manual segmentation defined swallow segments as the duration between the time when 144 the leading edge of the bolus passes the shadow cast on the x-ray image by the posterior border of the ramus of the mandible 145 (segment onset) and the time the hyoid bone completes motion associated with swallowing related pharyngeal activity and 146 clearance of the bolus from the video image (segment offset). When patients swallow more than once to clear a single 147 bolus (multiple swallow), the offset was based on the time when the hyoid returns to the lowest position before the next 148 hyoid ascending movement associated with a subsequent swallow. A swallow segment was considered correctly identified 149 (auto-detected) if and only if there exists a certain percentage overlap between the reference window determined by a human 150 judge performing manual segmentation and the window produced by the proposed segmentation algorithm (as shown in Fig. 151 8(b)-(e))³. In this study, we tested multiple overlap ratios representing two different approaches. The first approach was a 152 fixed overlap irrespective to the segment duration and the used overlap included 2SD below the average swallow duration 153 (431.89 msec) and 1SD below the average swallow duration (675.56 msec). The second approach was using a 90% and 95% 154 overlap ratio of the manually measured duration for the compared segment. Otherwise the swallow was deemed to be incorrectly 155 segmented (as shown in Fig. 8(f)-(g)). In addition to this assessment criterion, we used accuracy, specificity, and sensitivity to 156 evaluate the overall performance of the segmentation process. 157

The algorithm also achieved $85.3 \pm 12.5\%$ sensitivity and $83.8 \pm 9.5\%$ specificity per each of the dataset records. These 158 values were calculated over the whole dataset after removing the visually uncovered parts from records. The values came close 159 to the anticipated results from the initial trials at Fig. 5. There may have been a slight drop in sensitivity and specificity due to 160 misclassification at the borders of each swallow, in addition to the unlabeled swallows treated as false positives. These values 161 go up to more than 90% for the clean records that don't contain these pause areas and/or weren't logged to have any visually 162 missed events. Fig. 9 shows the results of applying the segmentation algorithm on one of the clean records. It can be clearly 163 seen that the algorithm successfully captured all the swallowing events in the signal and didn't misidentify any part of the signal 164 including the hyoid bone motion event prior to the last swallow (Fig. 9 lower right corner). 165

¹⁶⁶ In order to further explore the performance of the proposed segmentation framework, it was evaluated as well in a standard ¹⁶⁷ clinical setup during the workflow of an ongoing swallowing experiment. A total of 76 swallows with an average duration

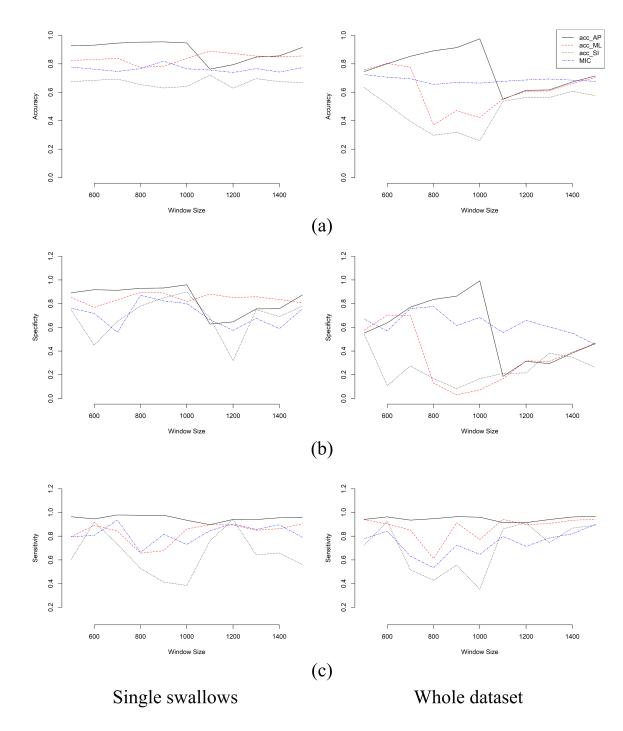


Figure 5. Quality measurements of the full run for the system. (a) Accuracy. (b) Specificity. (c) Sensitivity.

of 1011 ± 216 msec, were used to test the proposed system for the detection of the onset and offset of pharyngeal swallows after being trained over the full 3144 swallows dataset mentioned previously. The used swallows in this validation procedure were meant to be completely unseen in order to test the robustness and generalizability of the proposed segmentation algorithm and never used in anyway in the training process. Both training and evaluation were performed using the best performing window size (800) and only the A-P acceleration. The segmentation framework presented interesting results when tested on the swallows from the independent clinical study where 97.4% of the swallows were correctly detected when considering an overlap window of 2 SD below the average swallow duration calculated from the original dataset, 84.2% of the swallows for 1 SD below average swallow duration, and 65.8% of the swallows when considering overlap ratios of 90% or more.

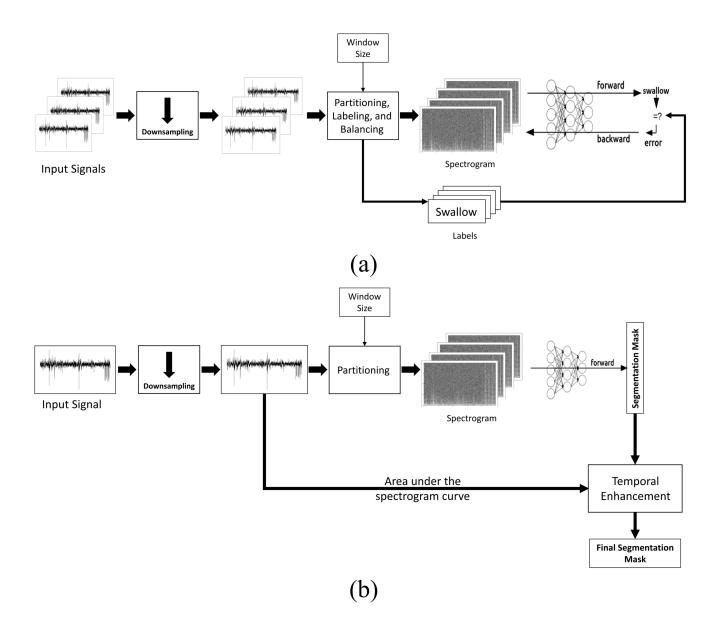


Figure 6. Flow of the training (a) and testing (b) paths of the proposed system

Overlap Ratio	Property	Single Swallows		Multiple & Sequential Swallows	
		800(200 msec)	900(225 msec)	900(225 msec)	1000(250 msec)
2 SD below Average	Detected Swallows	100%	98.8%	96.5%	96.4%
2 SD below Average	Average Duration (msec)	1461.6 ± 499.5	1564.9 ± 472.9	1335.4 ± 893.8	1474.1 ± 956.1
1 SD below Average	Detected Swallows	100%	97.7%	94.5%	95.3%
	Average Duration (msec)	1504.1 ± 465.7	1599.2 ± 452.3	1382.2 ± 631.6	1495.6 ± 644.2
90%	Detected Swallows	98.3%	90.8%	93.4%	94.2%
90%	Average Duration (msec)	1495.2 ± 355.9	1580.6 ± 270.4	1392 ± 625.8	1475.4 ± 366.5
95%	Detected Swallows 9	98.3%	90.8%	93.1%	94.2%
95%	Average Duration (msec)	1495.2 ± 355.9	1580.6 ± 270.4	1391.6 ± 625	1475.4 ± 366.5

Table 1. Detection measurements for the top two configurations

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The videofluoroscopy instrument was controlled by a radiologist who had a switch to stop the imaging procedure when there was no bolus administered to the patient in order to reduce the radiation dose. This pausing in the x-ray machine operation caused the collected videos to have static frames for long periods with no visual clue about the events occurring while vibratory and acoustic data continued to be recorded. These events included swallows, talking, coughing, and head motion occuring

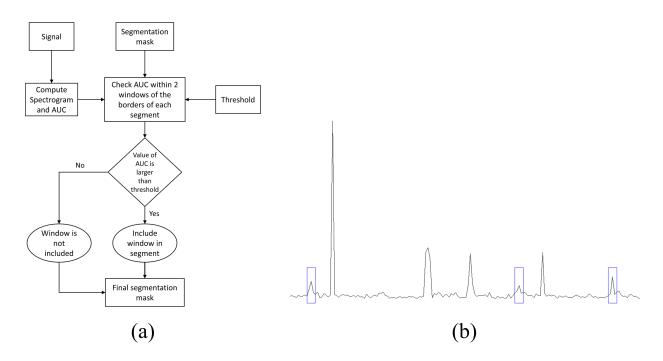


Figure 7. Temporal enhancement process: (a) shows the flowchart of the process. (b) A sample area under the spectrogram curve of a swallowing mic signal.

Event type	Details	Total count		
Swallowing events	Detected by the algorithm	2225	2353	
Swanowing events	Undetected by the algorithm	128	2555	
Non-swallowing events	Reduced oral containment (Premature Spillage)	38		
	Hyoid bone movement	434	1275	
	Coughing	134		
	Head and neck movement	266		
	Unexplained	403		
Visually uncovered events	2936			

 Table 2. Outcomes of the manual validation of automatic segmentation results

between elicited swallow events. Without the visual help of VFSS, these events cannot be labeled; hence, included in the 180 evaluation of this segmentation procedure. However, the algorithm was applied to these areas after training to see if it would 181 pick up any of these events. This, alongside with the presence of unexplained false positives, necessitated manual inspection 182 and validation of the segmentation results against the videos and logs kept by research associates collecting the swallow data. A 183 trained rater validated each event detected by the algorithm in order to identify the origin of non-swallow events as a qualitative 184 assessment for the proposed algorithm. More than 6500 detected segments were analyzed and validated visually against the 185 videos and session logs for a window size of 900 and a 90% overlap criterion. The outcomes of the analysis (Table 2) show that 186 the algorithm captured more than 94% of the swallows which is nearly a match with the results of the whole dataset in Table 1. 187 Moreover, the rater reported that the algorithm successfully detected 353 swallows that were not captured/labeled in videos. 188 The visually uncovered events reported in Table 2, are the segments detected by the algorithm during video pause times with no 189 reference in session logs. 190

191 Discussion

¹⁹² The results confirmed our hypothesis that the proposed algorithm can correctly and without human intervention, detect 95% of

¹⁹³ known swallow durations in more than 90% of attempts across simple (clean swallows) and complex (non-swallow activity

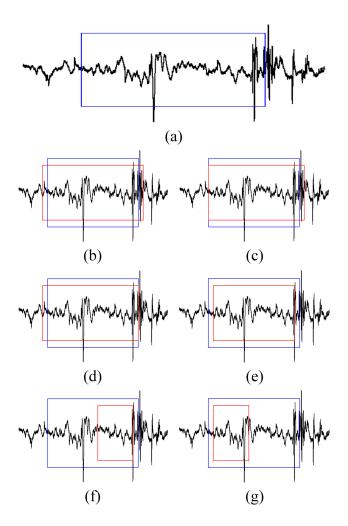


Figure 8. Possible swallow segmentation results. (a) Sample swallowing sound signal and definition of the swallowing segment (in blue). (b)-(e) Examples of correctly identified swallow segments (in red). (f)-(g) Examples of incorrectly identified swallow segments.

¹⁹⁴ co-occurring with swallows) swallow events. We can clearly see from Fig. 5 that training a DNN with the spectral estimate ¹⁹⁵ for the raw swallowing vibrations of a single channel can produce accuracies as low as 26.1% and up to 97.6% on window ¹⁹⁶ level over the whole dataset. In addition, the system showed robustness in terms of true positive and true negative rates. The ¹⁹⁷ best performing channel was the A-P accelerometer axis with an average accuracy of 89.44% for single swallows (75.9% for ¹⁹⁸ the whole dataset) and superior sensitivity and specificity which is comparable to the results in⁷. The performance of other ¹⁹⁹ channels was close to the A-P axis, but the lowest performance was given by feeding the network with the spectrogram of the ²⁰⁰ SI axis for all considered quality measurements.

The selection of proper window size highly depends on signal temporal characteristics which is obviously clear in the 201 demonstrated results. We stated that the whole set of collected swallows is on average of 862.6 ± 277 msec. This makes the 202 best window size to detect these swallows, located around the middle of used range (800-1000) because each swallow can be 203 represented as integer multiples of the selected window in this range especially since we did not use any overlap between the 204 sliding windows. This effect is most highly illustrated in the results of the A-P acceleration where the accuracy, true negative 205 and true positive rates increase to their maximum at window size of (900-1000) and then drop sharply. They return to increase 206 after this drop because the window size increases and approaches multiples of the effective values mentioned before. The effect 207 is almost the same with other components of acceleration and microphone signals. 208

The temporal accuracy of detection was examined as well for the best two systems with window sizes of 800 and 900 for single swallows (900 and 1000 for the whole dataset) and validated against the manual segmentation by SLPs as shown in Table 1. Among the examined assessment criteria, we found that a 2 SD below average swallow duration criterion as the minimum overlap (431.89 $msec \approx 47\%$ of average swallow duration) between the detected and manually segmented swallows, is very

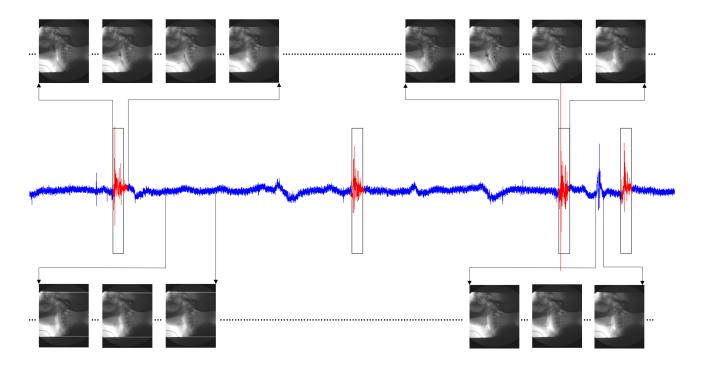


Figure 9. A clean A-P acceleration record. The red segments represent swallows as labeled by SLP. Black boxes are segments detected by the algorithm. Images on each corner are simultaneous VFSS snapshots of the signal events.

²¹³ low considering the duration of the examined swallows, however it gives excellent detection results. So, we tested 1 SD below ²¹⁴ the average duration (675.56 *msec* \approx 73.5% of average swallow duration) as well as 90% and 95% minimum overlap. The ²¹⁵ average duration of detected segments in the three criteria are close in duration and all of them are not far from the average ²¹⁶ duration of the actual segments. Moreover, the fluctuations in segment duration are considered very convenient compared to the ²¹⁷ length of segments. Therefore, all of these criteria proved to deliver excellent automated detection accuracy of swallow events ²¹⁸ without human intervention.

Encouragingly, the system has also shown promising segmentation quality when applied on completely unseen data collected 219 from different group participants with control parameters that were not included in the main dataset under investigation. Despite 220 these promising results, there is a little drop in the number of swallows correctly segmented considering different overlap 221 windows when compared to the original dataset. The reason behind this drop in performance may be returned to the fact that 222 there is actually a difference in the average swallow duration between the two datasets (a little longer in case of swallows from 223 healthy participants) which in turn reflects on the needed window size that best represents the swallows. Another factor that 224 may contributed into this performance drop, is the possibility that the used set of swallows contains some multiple swallows 225 which causes the detection quality to drop when included as shown in Table 1. Nevertheless, the performance presented by the 226 system on the new dataset suggests that it is likely to generalize to other swallowing datasets. 227

Evidently, the proposed algorithm achieved results better than most of the swallowing signal segmentation algorithms in the 228 literature, especially the work in³ which achieved the best swallowing segmentation accuracy in swallowing accelerometry. In 229 this work, Sejdić et al.³ performed a maximum likelihood estimation to calculate the onset and offset times of swallows in 230 acceleration signals. They used also a good dataset with multiple swallowing maneuvers and materials; however, the algorithm 231 is computationally expensive especially when the number of swallowing segments in the signal is unknown. Damouras et 232 al.⁷ used quadratic variation that is extracted directly from acceleration signals to perform segmentation and the algorithm 233 was computationally effective to execute. Their algorithm achieved recall values up to 94% but it was highly affected by the 234 presence of noise and the used dataset wasn't diverse enough considering the maneuvers and material consistencies. The work 235 of Lee et al.³⁵ also achieved good segmentation quality (accuracy up to 89.6%) through the use of sensor fusion and neural 236 networks but they didn't provide any analysis to show the detection quality on the temporal side of the swallowing segments and 237 the reference manual segmentation used was done for swallowing apnea which is shorter than the swallow itself. On the other 238 hand, our proposed algorithm is validated using a wide dataset rather than a controlled limited dataset like most of the previous 239

studies. The used dataset is at least 10 times larger than any used dataset in swallowing segmentation and covered most of the 240 known swallowing conditions encountered in dysphagia screening which occurs in typical healthcare environments that allow 241 for very limited control of patient position and other variables. This is important because our results, obtained in a naturalistic 242 setting, are more externally valid than they would be had the data been collected under strict experimental controls as seen 243 in many prior published studies. In addition, the proposed algorithm has a better response time in testing phase that doesn't 244 exceed milliseconds and is suitable for real time processing and use on edge mobile devices. The algorithm uses massive 245 computational resources for the training phase like any deep neural network, but this can be overcome using the newly emerging 246 platforms with GPUs or special architectures to accelerate the training process. The use of deep neural networks along with the 247 time-frequency representation of swallowing signals was able to model the fine differences between swallowing segments and 248 other events captured given the power of neural networks in efficient feature and parameter learning procedures. The future 249 work for the proposed algorithm will include fusion between different signal lines in order to achieve more robust segmentation 250 and avoid the detection of false positive events such as coughing and head movement. We will include also recurrent neural 251 networks for their power in modeling long range dependencies in time series in addition to using longer window sizes and 252 overlapping which guarantee better detection quality especially the borders of the swallow (onset and offset). 253

The start and end of each pharyngeal swallow can be roughly identified through visual and tactile inspection of hyo-laryngeal 254 excursion and other observations of the patient swallowing. However, these methods are subjective and not reliable. Traditional 255 cervical auscultation using a stethoscope to observe swallowing sounds, is particularly unreliable despite its commonplace use. 256 This renders the advancements in high resolution cervical auscultation and machine learning methods demonstrated in this 257 investigation and others, especially encouraging toward a goal of unsupervised detection of swallow events and many of their 258 physiologic components and more timely identification of patients with dysphagia who need intervention. Adding a robust 259 method that can automatically identify swallows is of a great clinical significance to diagnosis and rehabilitation of swallowing 260 disorders. Such methods can detect swallows that are hard to observe in patients who have difficulty initiating oropharyngeal 261 swallow (e.g. Parkinson's disease) or patients with weak pharyngeal swallow (e.g. medullary stroke)³⁹. Future directions 262 for this technology include developing computational deglutition methods to pre-emptively detect airway compromise (e.g. 263 aspiration) and other clinically significant swallowing disorders at the bedside⁴⁰, facilitate behavioral treatments by providing 264 real-time swallow biofeedback¹⁹, and in day-to-day management of swallowing disorders in settings that lack adequate 265 qualified dysphagia clinical specialists. 266

267 Conclusion

In this paper, a novel automatic segmentation algorithm for swallowing accelerometry and sounds was proposed, and its 268 potential in dysphagia screening was discussed. The algorithm scans the swallowing signals through a sliding window of a 269 specific size and each window is classified as a swallow or non-swallow through feeding its spectral estimate into a deep neural 270 network. Swallowing signals from 248 participants were collected for different swallowing tasks, manually labeled by experts 271 and used to train and validate the system. The proposed algorithm yielded over 95% accuracy at the window level in addition to 272 similar values of sensitivity and specificity. On the temporal side, the algorithm nearly did not fail in detecting any swallowing 273 activity (2SD below average) and proved superior in detection despite high overlap ratios with accuracies that exceeded 90% for 274 all types of swallows. Moreover, the algorithm showed similar performance when tested on completely unseen data implying 275 the ability to generalize to other datasets. Our algorithm has demonstrated the potential of deep neural networks and spectral 276 representation of swallowing signals to event detection in swallowing accelerometry. 277

278 Methods

This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Pittsburgh. All participating patients gave 279 informed consent to join the study. All experiments were performed in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations. A 280 total of 248 patients (148 males, 100 females, age: 63.8 ± 13.7) served as the sample for this experiment. They were recruited 281 from the population of patients referred to the Speech Language Pathology service for an oropharyngeal swallowing function 282 assessment with videofluoroscopy at the University of Pittsburgh Medical Center (Pittsburgh, PA), due to clinical suspicion 283 of dysphagia. Of the sample, 44 patients (32 males, 12 females, age: 66.6 ± 13.7) were diagnosed with stroke while the 284 remaining 204 patients (116 males, 88 females, age: 63.0 ± 14.3) had medical conditions unrelated to stroke. Patients were 285 asked to swallow multiple materials of different viscosities and volumes including chilled ($5^{\circ}C$) Varibar thin liquid (Bracco 286 Diagnostics Inc., Monroe Township, NJ), chilled (5°C) Varibar nectar, honey thick liquid, barium tablets (EZ Disk, Bracco 287 Diagnostics Inc., Monroe Township, NJ), Varibar pudding, or a cookie coated with Varibar pudding. The swallows were 288 performed with and without verbal command and in multiple maneuvers including neutral, chin down, left and right head 289 rotation, combined chin down and head rotation, Supraglottic swallow (SGS), and modified SGS. The vibrations of each 290

swallow were recorded as a separate task by the LabView Signal Express and exported in a plain text format to be used

for subsequent analysis. A total of 3144 swallows (603 from stroke diagnosed patients and 2541 from other patients) were 292 recorded with an average duration of 862.6 ± 277 msec. The collected swallows included 1038 single swallows, 1893 multiple 293 swallows (several swallows to swallow a single bolus) and 213 sequential swallows (swallows of more than one bolus one 294 at a time in a rapid sequence). The whole set of collected swallows, was used entirely to train and evaluate the proposed 295 segmentation framework regardless of the consistency of the swallowed material and/or the administered bolus volume. This 296 assures that the collected dataset covers as many as possible of the swallowing conditions common in day-to-day swallowing 297 assessment and that the proposed segmentation framework will be trained and evaluated across a diverse rather than controlled 298 dataset which guarantees robustness and adaptability to deployment in standard clinical care conditions. The swallowing event 299 start (onset) and end (offset) times taken as gold standard for the experiment were obtained through manual segmentation of 300 videofluoroscopy sequences by experienced SLPs in our Swallowing Research Lab along with the penetration aspiration (PA) 301 scores⁴¹ of the swallows as described in⁴². PA scale scores indicate the depth of entry of swallowed material into the patient's 302 airway when swallowing, and the quality of the patient's airway protective response to airway penetration (material remaining 303 above the true vocal folds) or aspiration (material coursing through the larynx and entering the trachea). The number and type 304 of swallows in each PA score are summarized in Fig. 10. 305

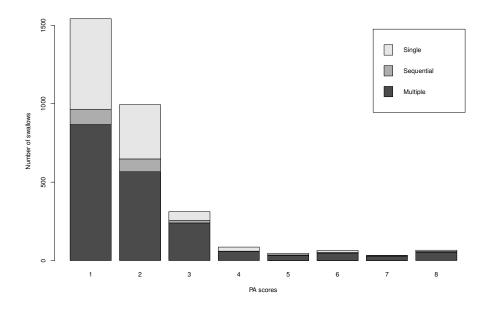


Figure 10. Number of swallows in the dataset for each PA score.

Data acquisition was performed per previous work published by Dudik et al.⁴³. The swallowing vibrations were recorded 306 during a routine videofluoroscopy with two types of sensors, a tri-axial accelerometer (ADXL 327, Analog Devices, Norwood, 307 Massachusetts) and a lapel microphone (model C 411L, AKG, Vienna, Austria) attached to the subject's anterior neck. The 308 accelerometer complex (sensor in a plastic case) was attached to the skin overlying the cricoid cartilage for the best signal 309 quality⁴⁴. The first two axes of accelerometer were aligned to the anterior-posterior (A-P) and superior-inferior (S-I) directions 310 which can be described as perpendicular to the coronal plane and parallel to the cervical spine respectively. The third axis of 311 accelerometer (medial lateral axis or M-L) was parallel to the axial/transverse plane of the patient's head and neck. The sensor 312 was powered using a 3V power supply (model 1504, BK Precision, Yorba Linda, California) and had its output signals hardware 313 band-limited to 0.1-3000 Hz and amplified with a gain of 10 (model P55, Grass Technologies, Warwick, Rhode Island). 314

The microphone was mounted towards the right lateral side of the larynx with no contact with the accelerometer to avoid 315 any friction noise and to avoid obstructing the upper airway radiographic view, and powered via a microphone specific power 316 supply (model B29L, AKG, Vienna, Austria) with the maximum possible volume level (9 for this device). The conditioned 317 signals from the microphone and accelerometer were fed into a National Instruments 6210 DAQ, sampled at a 20 kHz rate, and 318 acquired by LabView's Signal Express (National Instruments, Austin, Texas). The previous setup for both accelerometer and 319 microphone has proven to be effective in collecting swallowing vibrations^{44–47}. A video capture card (AccuStream Express 320 HD, Foresight Imaging, Chelmsford, MA) was used to feed the output of the videofluoroscopy instrument (Ultimax system, 321 Toshiba, Tustin, CA) into LabView for recording. All signals fed to the DAQ were acquired and recorded simultaneously for a 322 complete start-to-end synchronization. 323

An identical collection procedure to the aforementioned one, was used for the clinical experiment that yielded the swallows used for testing the generalizability of the proposed system. The experiment was performed on healthy community-dwelling adults who had no history of swallowing difficulties. Twenty subjects (9 males, 11 females, age: 65.8 ± 11.4) who provided informed consents, participated in the experiment. The participants in this sample were selected randomly from a population that had no history of surgeries to the head or neck region or neurological disorders and underwent swallowing evaluation as a part of bigger study. Only thin liquid boluses: 3mL by spoon and unmeasured self-administered volume cup sips, were administered to the subjects in a completely randomized order.

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435 Author contributions statement

Y.K., J.C., and E.S. made substantial contributions to conception and design as well as data acquisition for this study. Y.K.
 and E.S. designed and implemented the segmentation framework and its assessment criteria. Y.K. and E.S. performed the
 manual assessment, validation, and interpretation of the results. J.C. provided clinical support and interpretation. All authors
 contributed to the elaboration and redaction of the final manuscript.

440 Ethics declarations

441 Competing interests

⁴⁴² The authors declare no competing interests.