

## A System for Generating Voice Source Signals that Implements the Transformed LF-model Parameter Control

*Zihan Wang*<sup>1</sup>, *Christer Gobl*<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1,2</sup>Phonetics and Speech Laboratory, School of Linguistic, Speech and Communication Sciences, Trinity College Dublin, Ireland

zwang7@tcd.ie, cegobl@tcd.ie

## Abstract

This paper describes a system which fully implements the transformed LF glottal flow model, incorporating also the often-overlooked k-factors. A problem with the original proposal is that the global waveshape parameter  $R_d$ , central to the transformed model and used to predict some of the other parameters, cannot be directly controlled. Instead, a stylisation of the model was used to indirectly control  $R_d$ . However, this approach can yield substantial errors in the  $R_d$  value of the pulse, thus undermining the usefulness of the model. To overcome this problem, an iterative algorithm is presented, which ensures that for a given  $R_d$  input value, a pulse with that  $R_d$  value will be produced. Using this new  $R_d$  control, it transpired that some of the original parameter predictions give rise to combinations of values that are incompatible with the LF model. Modifications to the original predictions of the  $R_k$ parameter were incorporated to ensure model conformity.

**Index Terms**: LF model,  $R_d$  parameter, glottal flow, voice source, Newton-Raphson, iteration.

## 1. Introduction

A software system is presented for voice source waveform generation, which is based on the principles of what is commonly referred to as the transformed Liljencrants-Fant (LF) model [1, 2]. The aim was to develop a system which can produce source signals that adhere to the original concept of the transformed model as closely as possible. Since the oftenoverlooked *k*-factors are an integral part of the transformed model, they have also been incorporated in the system.

The original LF model as described in [3] is a wellestablished parametric model of glottal flow, which has been extensively used in research on the glottal source and voice quality in a range of studies, involving analysis, synthesis and perception (e.g., [4-25]). In the transformed model, the model itself is in fact identical to the original LF model: it differs only with respect to the parameter control. In the original version, the pulse shape is typically determined by the *R*-parameters:  $R_g$ (normalised frequency of the glottal formant),  $R_k$  (degree of glottal pulse symmetry) and  $R_a$  (normalised effective duration of the return phase) while the amplitude is controlled by the  $E_e$ parameter, i.e. the negative amplitude of the main glottal excitation (see Fig. 1). Albeit useful, the *R*-parameters show a high level of correlation and thus convey redundant information.

In the transformed control of the model, the waveshape parameter  $R_d$  [1, 2] is used to capture some of the naturally occurring covariation in the *R*-parameters by combining the values of  $E_e$ ,  $U_p$  (peak glottal flow) and  $f_0$  (voice fundamental frequency). The definition of  $R_d$  is shown in (1), where the scale factor  $0.11^{-1}$  makes the  $R_d$  value the same as the declination time  $T_d$  (in ms) for  $f_0 = 110$  Hz. Except for this constant,  $R_d$  is essentially the same as the popular normalised amplitude quotient (NAQ) parameter proposed in [26]. It has been shown that  $R_d$  captures the degree of tension in the voice, where a low value corresponds to a tense voice and a high value to a lax or breathy voice.



Figure 1: *The LF model: glottal flow (top), flow derivative (bottom).* 

To synthesise the glottal waveform,  $R_d$  is used to predict the R-parameters, which in turn are converted into actual LF model parameters (see Section 2). These predictions are based on regression analysis of source data obtained from inverse filtering of natural speech.  $R_{kp}$  and  $R_{ap}$ , the predicted values of  $R_k$  and  $R_a$  respectively, are calculated from  $R_d$  according to (2) and (3).

$$R_d = 1000 \frac{U_p}{E_e} \frac{f_0}{110} = \frac{1}{0.11} \frac{T_d}{T_0}$$
(1)

$$R_{kp} = 0.118 R_d + 0.224 \tag{2}$$

$$R_{ap} = 0.048 R_d - 0.01 \tag{3}$$

Although there is also a similar expression for  $R_{gp}$  presented in [1], this is not used, as it would lead to an overspecification of the model:  $R_g$  is therefore determined by the values of  $R_d$ ,  $R_{kp}$ and  $R_{ap}$ . Since there is no analytic expression to convert  $R_d$  into an LF parameter, a stylisation of the LF model was originally used to get  $R_g$  given  $R_d$ ,  $R_{kp}$  and  $R_{ap}$ . This method, however, leads to errors in the  $R_d$  value of the synthesised glottal pulse, which can be quite substantial unless the potential range of parameter values is restricted.

In [27] an algorithm is presented which enables direct control of  $R_d$  in the LF model by using an iterative technique based on the Newton-Raphson method for two variables. Although it provides for accurate control of  $R_d$ , this algorithm does not conform with the transformed LF model. Since it requires that the duration of the open phase,  $T_e$ , be specified in order to generate the LF pulse,  $R_k$  is not specified by  $R_{kp}$  in (2). Furthermore, the algorithm in [27] does not allow for the k-factors to be applied to the predicted R-parameters for a more exact modelling. Therefore, a new algorithm was developed which provides accurate control of  $R_d$  without the need for prior specification of  $T_e$ . Furthermore, separate algorithms were developed to cater for the k-factors.

# 2. Deriving the LF parameters from the transformed model parameter set

The differentiated glottal flow pulse of the LF model (Fig. 1) is defined by the two functions in (4) for the open phase ( $t_o$  to  $t_e$ ) and the return phase ( $t_e$  to  $t_c$ ), where  $E_0$  and  $T_a$  are according to (5) and (6) respectively.

$$U_{g}'(t) = \begin{cases} E_0 \ e^{\alpha t} \sin\left(\omega_g\left(t-t_o\right)\right) & t_o \le t < t_e \\ \frac{-E_e}{\varepsilon T_a} \left( \ e^{-\varepsilon\left(t-t_e\right)} - e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \right) & t_e \le t < t_c \end{cases}$$
(4)

$$E_0 = -E_e e^{-\alpha T_e} \csc \omega_g T_e \tag{5}$$

$$T_a = \varepsilon^{-1} \left( 1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \right) \tag{6}$$

From (4) - (6) we see that the following six parameters are required to generate the LF pulse:  $E_e$ ,  $T_e$ ,  $\omega_g$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\varepsilon$  and  $T_b$ , which are the actual LF parameters. When synthesising consecutive pulses,  $T_0$  is used to control pitch, where  $T_0$  is  $T_b$  of the 'current' pulse pluse  $T_e$  of the following pulse (see Fig. 1).

 $T_e$  and  $\omega_g$  can be obtained directly from the *R*-parameters and  $T_0$ :  $T_e = T_0(1+R_k)/(2R_g)$  and  $\omega_g = 2\pi R_g/T_0$ . However,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\alpha$  require iterative estimation:  $\varepsilon$  is calculated from  $T_a$  and  $T_b$ , and  $\alpha$  is determined from the LF model requirement of a given net flow gain, which is typically set to 0 [3]: therefore, there should be 'area balance', i.e. the area of the positive part of the model should equal the area of its negative part (Fig. 1). To find  $\varepsilon$  and  $\alpha$ , the Newton-Raphson method as shown in (7) is often used:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - f(x_n) / f'(x_n)$$
(7)

For calculating  $\varepsilon$ ,  $f(\varepsilon)$  and  $f'(\varepsilon)$  are as follows:

$$f(\varepsilon) = \varepsilon T_a - 1 + e^{-\varepsilon T_b}$$

$$f'(\varepsilon) = T_a - T_b e^{-\varepsilon T_b}$$
(8)

$$f'(\varepsilon) = T_a - T_b e^{-\varepsilon T_b}$$

For  $\alpha$ , we get  $f(\alpha)$  and  $f'(\alpha)$ , which are shown in (10) and (11).

$$f(\alpha) = \varepsilon \left(1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b}\right) \left[\alpha \sin \omega_g T_e - \omega_g \cos \omega_g T_e + \omega_g e^{-\alpha T_e}\right] + \left(\omega_g^2 + \alpha^2\right) \sin \omega_g T_e \left[1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \left(1 + \varepsilon T_b\right)\right]$$
(10)

$$f'(\alpha) = \varepsilon \left(1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b}\right) \left[\sin \omega_g T_e - \omega_g T_e e^{-\alpha T_e}\right] + 2\alpha \sin \omega_g T_e \left[1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \left(1 + \varepsilon T_b\right)\right]$$
(11)

As mentioned, the  $R_d$  value is calculated from  $E_e$ ,  $U_p$  and  $f_0$ .  $E_e$  is an LF parameter and  $f_0$  is used to determine  $T_b$  as  $f_0^{-1} - T_e$ . However, for  $U_p$  there is no analytic expression to convert it into LF parameters.

In the original LF model,  $U_p$  is allowed to 'float', i.e. it may attain whatever value is required to fulfil the condition of area balance. However, in the transformed LF model, two conditions must be fulfilled: (i) conformity with the specific  $U_p$  value as determined by  $R_d$  and  $f_0$ , and (ii) area balance.

To solve this, we take a similar approach to that presented in [27] where the Newton-Raphson method for two variables is used. However, in [27] the values of  $\omega_g$  and  $\alpha$  are allowed to float to obtain the specified  $R_d$  value and area balance, which requires a given  $T_e$  (or  $O_q$ , which is the glottal open quotient, here defined as  $T_e$  normalised to  $T_0$ , see Fig. 1). Hence,  $R_k$  is derived from the obtained  $\omega_g$  and  $T_e$  rather than by  $R_{kp}$  in (2).

For the new algorithm, we instead let  $T_e$  and  $\alpha$  float, and  $R_k$  is given by  $R_{kp}$  in (2). By integrating (4) from  $t_o$  to  $t_p$  and by expressing  $\omega_g$  in terms of  $T_e$  and  $R_k$  as  $(\pi/T_e)(1+R_k)$ ,  $U_p$  is according to (12) from which function f<sub>1</sub> in (13) is obtained:

$$U_{p} = \frac{-E_{e}\pi T_{e}^{-1}(1+R_{k})\left(e^{-\alpha T_{e}} + e^{-\alpha T_{e}R_{k}(1+R_{k})^{-1}}\right)}{\left(\pi^{2}T_{e}^{-2}(1+R_{k})^{2} + \alpha^{2}\right)\sin(\pi(1+R_{k}))}$$
(12)  
$$f_{1}(T_{e},\alpha) = U_{p}\left(\pi^{2}T_{e}^{-2}(1+R_{k})^{2} + \alpha^{2}\right)\sin(\pi(1+R_{k}))$$
$$+ E_{e}\pi T_{e}^{-1}(1+R_{k})\left(e^{-\alpha T_{e}} + e^{-\alpha T_{e}R_{k}(1+R_{k})^{-1}}\right)$$
(13)

The second condition, i.e. area balance, provides us with the second function, f<sub>2</sub>, which is the same as  $f(\alpha)$  in (10) except that  $\omega_g$  is replaced by  $(\pi/T_e)(1+R_k)$ . The four partial derivatives required for the iterative calculations are as follows:

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial T_e} = -2\pi^2 T_e^{-3} (1+R_k)^2 U_p \sin(\pi(1+R_k)) - E_e \pi T_e^{-2} \begin{bmatrix} (1+\alpha T_e)(1+R_k)e^{-\alpha T_e} + (1+R_k)e^{-\alpha T_e R_k}(1+R_k)^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(14)

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial \alpha} = 2\alpha U_p \sin\left(\pi (1+R_k)\right) - \pi E_e\left((1+R_k)e^{-\alpha T_e} + R_k e^{-\alpha T_e R_k (1+R_k)^{-1}}\right)$$
(15)

$$\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial T_e} = \varepsilon \left( 1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \right) \times \pi T_e^{-2} \left( 1 + R_k \right) \left[ \cos \left( \pi \left( 1 + R_k \right) \right) - \left( 1 + \alpha T_e \right) e^{-\alpha T_e} \right] - (16) 2 \pi^2 T_e^{-3} \left( 1 + R_k \right)^2 \sin \left( \pi \left( 1 + R_k \right) \right) \left[ 1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \left( 1 + \varepsilon T_b \right) \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial \alpha} = \varepsilon \left( 1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \right) \left[ \sin \left( \pi \left( 1 + R_k \right) \right) - \pi \left( 1 + R_k \right) e^{-\alpha T_e} \right] + (17)$$
$$2\alpha \sin \left( \pi \left( 1 + R_k \right) \right) \left[ 1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \left( 1 + \varepsilon T_b \right) \right]$$

The two formulas in (18) are then used for iteratively calculating  $T_e$  and  $\alpha$ , where the Jacobian determinant is shown in (19). Note that all functions in (18) are functions of  $T_{e_k}$  and  $\alpha_k$ . For further details on this iterative procedure, see [27].

$$T_{e_{k+1}} = T_{e_k} - \left( \det \left( \mathbf{J} \left( T_{e_k}, \alpha_k \right) \right) \right)^{-1} \left[ \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \alpha} \mathbf{f}_1 - \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \alpha} \mathbf{f}_2 \right]$$

$$\alpha_{k+1} = \alpha_k - \left( \det \left( \mathbf{J} \left( T_{e_k}, \alpha_k \right) \right) \right)^{-1} \left[ -\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial T_e} \mathbf{f}_1 + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial T_e} \mathbf{f}_2 \right]$$
(18)

$$\det(\mathbf{J}(T_e,\alpha)) = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{f}'_{1_{T_e}} & \mathbf{f}'_{1_{\alpha}} \\ \mathbf{f}'_{2_{T_e}} & \mathbf{f}'_{2_{\alpha}} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial T_e} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \alpha} - \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \alpha} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial T_e}$$
(19)

## 3. The *k*-factors $k_p$ , $k_a$ and $k_k$

For a more detailed modelling, the k-factors are used to modify the predicted R-parameters according to (20) - (22).

$$R_g = k_g \times R_{gp} \tag{20}$$

$$R_a = k_a \times R_{ap} \tag{21}$$

$$R_k = k_k \times R_{kp} \tag{22}$$

By default these factors are set to 1, but they may be changed to create nuanced modifications to the voice characteristics. For instance, an increase in  $k_a$  will produce a breathier voice, beyond what would be implied by the  $R_d$  specification.

Only two of the three factors can be changed, the third being uniquely determined by the other parameters. In [2], the focus is on  $k_g$  and  $k_a$ , with  $k_k$  being redundant. However, in the current system, any two of the three k-factors may be modified, making the remaining factor redundant.

 $k_g + k_a$ : When  $k_g$  and  $k_a$  are changed,  $R_k$  needs to be recalculated, while maintaining the correct  $R_d$  value. Since  $R_k$  is not given, the algorithm described in Section 2 cannot be directly applied and needs to be modified. Again, we let  $T_e$  and  $\alpha$  float, but as  $\omega_g$  is now specified, and thus independent of  $T_e$ , we get  $f_{1kga}$  as shown in (23) while  $f_{2kga}$  is identical to  $f(\alpha)$  in (10):

$$f_{lk_{ga}}(T_e,\alpha) = U_p(\omega_g^2 + \alpha^2) \sin \omega_g T_e + E_e \omega_g \left(e^{-\alpha T_e} + e^{-\alpha \left(T_e - \pi \omega_g^{-1}\right)}\right)$$
(23)

Three of the four partial derivatives are shown in (24) - (26), while the fourth,  $\partial f_{2kga}/\partial \alpha$ , is the same as  $f'(\alpha)$  in (11).  $T_e$  and  $\alpha$  can then be obtained from (18) and (19) by substituting  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  with  $f_{1kga}$  and  $f_{2kga}$  respectively.

$$\frac{\partial f_{1k_{ga}}}{\partial T_e} = U_p \left( \omega_g^2 + \alpha^2 \right) \omega_g \cos \omega_g T_e - E_e \, \omega_g \alpha e^{-\alpha T_e} \left( 1 + e^{\alpha \pi \omega_g^{-1}} \right) \, (24)$$

$$\frac{\partial f_{1k_{ga}}}{\partial \alpha} = 2U_p \alpha \sin \omega_g T_e - E_e \,\omega_g e^{-\alpha T_e} \left( T_e + \left( T_e - \pi \omega_g^{-1} \right) e^{\alpha \pi \omega_g^{-1}} \right) \quad (25)$$

$$\frac{\partial f_{2k_{ga}}}{\partial T_e} = \varepsilon \left( 1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \right) \omega_g \left[ \alpha \cos \omega_g T_e + \omega_g \sin \omega_g T_e - \alpha e^{-\alpha T_e} \right] + \omega_g \left( \omega_g^2 + \alpha^2 \right) \cos \omega_g T_e \left[ 1 - e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \left( 1 + \varepsilon T_b \right) \right]$$
(26)

 $k_g + k_k$ : When  $k_g$  and  $k_k$  are changed,  $R_a$  needs to be recalculated, while maintaining the correct  $R_d$  value. Again, the algorithm requires modification: since  $R_a$  depends on  $\varepsilon$ , in this

case we let  $\varepsilon$  and  $\alpha$  float. Although the two functions  $f_{1kgk}$  and  $f_{2kgk}$  are the same as  $f_{1kga}$  and  $f_{2kga}$  respectively, two of the four partial derivatives are different, the ones with respect to  $\varepsilon$ :  $\partial f_{1kgk}/\partial \varepsilon = 0$  and  $\partial f_{2kgk}/\partial \varepsilon$  is shown in (27).  $\partial f_{1kgk}/\partial \alpha$  and  $\partial f_{2kgk}/\partial \alpha$  are shown in (25) and (11) respectively.

$$\frac{\partial t_{2k_{gk}}}{\partial \varepsilon} = \left(1 - (1 - \varepsilon T_b)e^{-\varepsilon T_b}\right) \left[\alpha \sin \omega_g T_e - \omega_g \cos \omega_g T_e + \omega_g e^{-\alpha T_e}\right] + \varepsilon T_b^2 e^{-\varepsilon T_b} \left(\omega_g^2 + \alpha^2\right) \sin \omega_g T_e$$
(27)

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By substituting  $T_e$  with  $\varepsilon$  and  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  with the corresponding  $f_{1kgk}$  and  $f_{2kgk}$  in (18) and (19), the resulting equations are used to derive  $\varepsilon$  and  $\alpha$ .

 $k_k+k_a$ : In the third option, when  $k_k$  and  $k_a$  are changed,  $R_g$  needs to be recalculated, while maintaining the correct  $R_d$  value. In this case,  $R_k$  and  $R_a$  are given while  $R_g$  is unknown, and therefore the algorithm described in Section 2 is directly applicable.

#### 4. Parameter conflicts

When applying the correct calculation of  $R_d$  as described above, it became clear that for  $R_d$  values above 1.71, the predicted  $R_k$ values according to  $R_{kp}$  in (2) are incompatible with the LF model, being slightly too low to produce a possible LF pulse.

The purpose of this system is to stay true to the concept of the transformed LF control, but this outcome was clearly never intended. Therefore, it was decided to retain the original prediction as defined in (2), but for  $R_d > 1.71$ ,  $R_k$  values should be set to the lowest possible  $R_k$  that would produce an LF pulse.



Figure 2: For  $R_d > 1.71$ ,  $R_k$  predictions are adjusted to the minimum  $R_k$  that will produce a valid LF pulse (red line).

To find this  $R_k$  value, we need to find the  $O_q$  (or  $T_e$ ) value which produces the minimum  $R_k$  for a specific  $R_d > 1.71$ . Regression analysis was carried out to find the relationship between  $R_k$  and  $O_q$  for 11  $R_d$  values between 1.7 and 2.7 ( $R_d$  step = 0.1). The results of this analysis show that the relationship between  $R_k$  and  $O_q$  can be accurately modelled by a second order polynomial ( $R^2$ =0.9994 or higher) according to (28).

$$R_k = a_2 O_q^2 + a_1 O_q + a_0 (28)$$

The coefficients of this polynomial, which depend on  $R_d$ , can also be modelled by second order polynomials ( $R^2$ =0.998 or higher). By setting the derivative of  $R_k$  with respect to  $O_q$  in (28) to 0, we get a function for finding the  $O_q$  value that will produce the minimum  $R_k$  for a given  $R_d$ , as shown in (29).

$$O_{q \to Rk \min} = \frac{-a_1}{2a_2} = \frac{0.11669R_d^2 + 0.0801R_d - 2.178}{2 \times (0.09594R_d^2 + 0.61389R_d - 4.1333)}$$
(29)

Since  $O_q$  (and thus  $T_e$ ) is now given and  $R_k$  is unknown, the iterative algorithm presented in [27] is used to find  $\alpha$  and  $\omega_g$ ,

from which the minimum  $R_k$  can be derived as  $\omega_g \pi^{-1} O_q T_0 - 1$ . The adjusted  $R_k$  predictions are shown by the red line in Fig. 2.



Figure 3: Minimum  $k_k$  factor for  $R_d > 1.71$  that needs to be applied to  $R_{kp}$  to produce a valid LF pulse.

Alternatively, the data for the adjusted  $R_k$  can be used to derive an expression for calculating the minimum  $k_k$  required for  $R_d > 1.71$  (see Fig. 3). It is important here for the predictions to be highly accurate, and a third order polynomial produces a nearly perfect fit ( $R^2 = 1 - 1.04 \times 10^{-7}$ ). By using the formula in (30) together with (22) to get the new  $R_k$  value, the algorithm for  $k_k+k_a$  can be applied, i.e. the one described in Section 2.

$$k_k = 0.031978R_d^3 - 0.32428R_d^2 + 1.0706R_d - 0.044299$$
(30)

## 5. Voice source signal generation

The discussion so far has been concerned mainly with the generation of one single LF pulse. The purpose of the system, however, is to allow for the generation of realistic voice source signals, which include the dynamics as reflected by the temporal variation in the source parameters. To this end, a system for synthesising source signals was developed, referred to as the voice source generator (VSG), using the MATLAB App Designer [28] (Fig. 4).



Figure 4: The voice source generator user interface for the transformed LF parameter control.

An important aspect of the VSG is how the fundamental period,  $T_0$ , is defined. To obtain the best correspondence between the entered  $f_0$  data and the perceived pitch, we here define  $T_0$  as the duration from one main excitation to the next (see Fig. 1), rather than as the duration of the LF pulse (for further details, see [29, pp. 11-13]). This means that two consecutive  $T_0$  values are required to specify the LF pulse, one  $T_0$  value for the open phase and the following  $T_0$  value for the return phase. For the initial open phase,  $T_0$  is by default set to be the same as the first  $T_0$  value, whereas the  $T_0$  value used for the final return phase, is the same as  $T_0$  of the previous pulse.

Due to this definition of  $T_0$ , special consideration is needed for the derivation of the parameter values: the calculation of the values of one pulse is dependent on the values of the following pulse, which initially, of course, are unknown. Therefore, the parameter values need to be calculated in reverse order, starting with the last pulse, finishing with the first. Furthermore, for the last pulse,  $T_b$  is initially unknown and needs to be included in the iterations and updated as  $T_0 - T_e$  for every iteration of  $T_e$  to converge to its correct value. Once this  $T_e$  value has been obtained,  $T_b$  of the preceding pulse is known, calculated as  $T_0 - T_e$  of the final pulse.

The VSG currently incorporates the two different ways of discretising the LF model waveform, i.e. the standard method of sampling the functions in (4) and the aliasing-free version described in [30]. Since the latter implementation produces noticeably better sound quality [31], it is used here as the default. Furthermore, amplitude modulated aspiration noise can be added to the voice source pulses, where the modulation is determined by the glottal pulse shape as described in [32].

## 6. Conclusions

A system is presented which fully implements the transformed LF model, incorporating the often-overlooked *k*-factors. It is hoped that it will provide a useful tool for generating realistic voice source signals in a simple and straightforward way to facilitate further voice research.

To avoid errors in  $R_d$ , caused by the original stylisation of the LF pulse used in [1], an algorithm was implemented which involves four different versions of the Newton-Raphson iterative method for two variables. By using the new algorithm to obtain the correct  $R_d$  values, an anomaly was highlighted in the original  $R_k$  predictions, which leads to parameter combinations incompatible with the LF model. A remedy is proposed, which rectifies this while at the same time maintaining consistency with the original concept of the transformed LF model.

It should be noted that the prediction formulas in (2) and (3) are only meant to be valid up to  $R_d = 2.7$  [1, 2]. Although the system works for higher  $R_d$  values as well, there are inconsistencies regarding the  $O_q$  values, which tend to decrease rather than increase as  $R_d$  increases beyond 2.7. Even when including the extended predictions proposed in [33] for  $R_d > 2.7$  (see also [34, 35]), this issue remains. It seems that when  $R_d$  is very high, the  $O_q$  value is highly sensitive to small changes in  $R_k$ . Therefore, even a small inconsistency in the  $R_k$  prediction can lead to a large change in  $O_q$ . This is at odds with the concept of the transformed parameter control and would require further investigation. A different strategy may need to be adopted when it comes to predicting LF parameters from  $R_d$  when  $R_d$  is very large.

To ensure that a possible LF pulse is always produced from the input parameters, basic constraints are imposed on the input values to the VSG, according to the specifications in [29]. However, a more complex set of constraints will still be needed for the *k*-factors to prevent potential parameter conflicts. When these issues have been resolved, it is envisaged that the VSG app be made available from the ABAIR website [36].

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