



Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule Zürich
Swiss Federal Institute of Technology Zurich

Acoustics I: measurements

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- ▶ emission measurements (passive)
 - ▶ description of a sound source
 - ▶ → sound radiation of a lawn mower
- ▶ measurements at a receiver position (passive)
 - ▶ description of the strength of a source including the propagation to the receiver
 - ▶ → road traffic noise measurement in the living room of a resident
- ▶ measurements of a transmission system (often active)
 - ▶ description of a transmission system
 - ▶ → measurement of the frequency response of a loudspeaker
 - ▶ → measurement of the impulse response in a concert hall

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- ▶ complete description of a sound field requires:
 - ▶ sound pressure at all positions for each moment in time
 - ▶ sound particle velocity at all positions for each moment in time
 - ▶ however: $\text{grad}(p) = -\rho \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t}$ may be used
- ▶ most important quantity: sound pressure
 - ▶ ear is sensitive to sound pressure
 - ▶ excellent transducers are available

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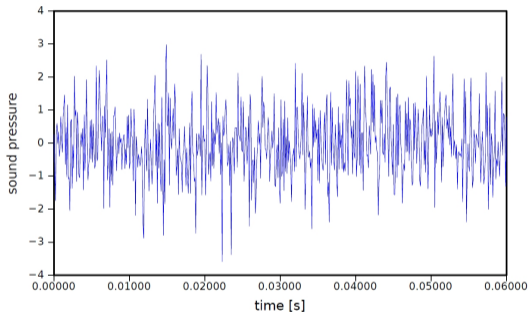
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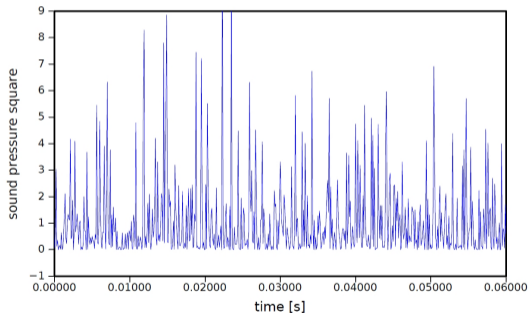
example of a typical sound pressure time history:



► attributes that can be evaluated?

signal attributes

- ▶ first step:
 - ▶ calculate signal square



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attributes / indicators in the squared sound pressure time history:

- ▶ peak value
- ▶ integral quantities
 - ▶ infinite time window with exponential weighting → moving average
 - ▶ finite time window → average value
- ▶ statistical quantities, e.g. the fraction of the signal duration with sound pressure exceeding a certain threshold

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momentary sound pressure level $L(t)$

$$L(t) = 10 \log \left(\frac{1}{RC} \int_{-\infty}^t \frac{p^2(\tau)}{p_0^2} e^{\frac{\tau-t}{RC}} d\tau \right) \quad [\text{dB}]$$

where

RC : time constant, *SLOW* = 1 s, *FAST* = 0.125 s

$p(\tau)$: instantaneous sound pressure

p_0 : reference sound pressure = 2×10^{-5} Pa

signal attributes: integral quantities

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Equivalent continuous sound pressure level L_{eq}

$$L_{eq} = 10 \log \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \frac{p^2(\tau)}{p_0^2} d\tau \right) \quad [\text{dB}]$$

where

T : measurement time interval

$p(\tau)$: instantaneous sound pressure

p_0 : reference sound pressure = 2×10^{-5} Pa

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Sound exposure level L_E (*SEL* former designation)

$$L_E = 10 \log \left(\frac{1}{1 \text{ sec}} \int_0^T \frac{p^2(\tau)}{p_0^2} d\tau \right) \quad [\text{dB}]$$

where

T : measurement time interval

$p(\tau)$: instantaneous sound pressure

p_0 : reference sound pressure = 2×10^{-5} Pa

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momentary sound pressure level $L(t)$:

- ▶ maximum level with time constant FAST: L_{max} , $Fast$ → descriptor for shooting noise or the pass-by of road vehicles
- ▶ minimum level: L_{min} → estimation of a stationary signal with occurrence of transient disturbing noise

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equivalent continuous sound pressure level L_{eq} :

- ▶ characterization of non-stationary sources and signals

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sound exposure level L_E , SEL:

- ▶ measurement of single events such as e.g. train pass-bys

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→ software sound level meter (Delphi) demo

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- ▶ frequency weighting filters (to mimick frequency response of the ear)
 - ▶ A-filter
 - ▶ C-filter
- ▶ bandpass filters for frequency analysis
 - ▶ constant relative bandwidth (perception related)
 - ▶ third-octave band filters
 - ▶ octave band filters
 - ▶ constant absolute bandwidth (technical analysis)
 - ▶ narrow band filters (e.g. 1 Hz, 3 Hz, 10 Hz)
 - ▶ FFT

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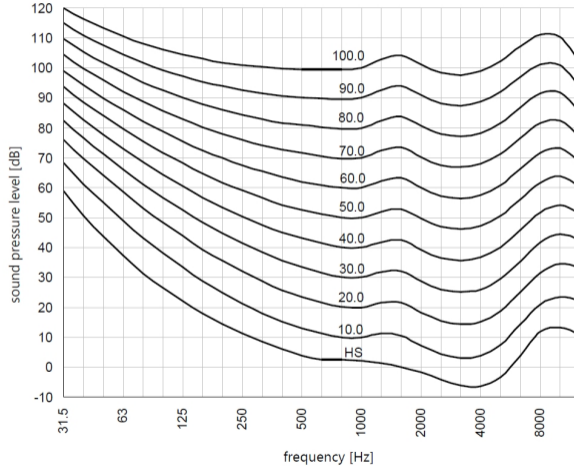
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frequency weighting filters

frequency weighting filters

equal loudness contours:



level dependent frequency response \rightarrow A- / C-filter \rightarrow dB(A) / dB(C)

frequency weighting filters

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standard C-filter:

$$T_{C\text{-Filter}}(s) = \frac{Ks^2}{(s + \omega_1)^2(s + \omega_2)^2}$$

where

$$\omega_1 = 1.29 \times 10^2 \text{ [rad/sec]}$$

$$\omega_2 = 7.67 \times 10^4 \text{ [rad/sec]}$$

K : adjusted for $|T_{C\text{-filter}}| = 1$ at 1 kHz

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standard A-filter:

$$T_{A\text{-Filter}}(s) = \frac{Ks^4}{(s + \omega_1)^2(s + \omega_2)^2(s + \omega_3)(s + \omega_4)}$$

where

$$\omega_1 = 1.29 \times 10^2 \text{ [rad/sec]}$$

$$\omega_2 = 7.67 \times 10^4 \text{ [rad/sec]}$$

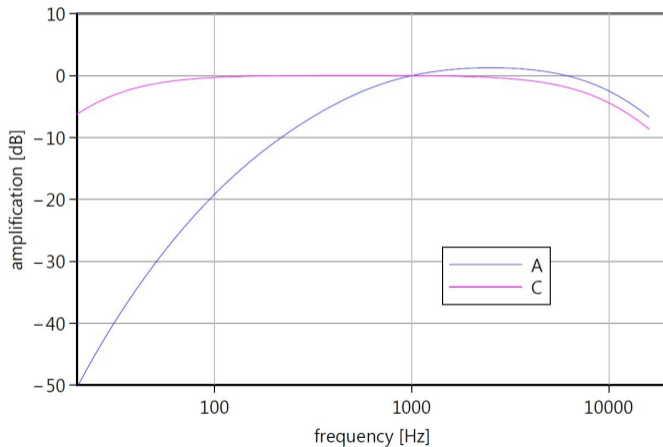
$$\omega_3 = 6.77 \times 10^2 \text{ [rad/sec]}$$

$$\omega_4 = 4.64 \times 10^3 \text{ [rad/sec]}$$

K : adjusted for $|T_{A\text{-filter}}| = 1$ at 1 kHz

frequency weighting filters

frequency response curves:



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bandpass filters: filters for frequency analysis

frequency analysis by third-octave band filters

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- ▶ standard filter series with one center frequency f_m at 1000 Hz
- ▶ $f_{m,n} = 1000 \cdot (2^{\frac{1}{3}})^n$ for $n = \dots - 2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots$
- ▶ $B = 0.23 \cdot f_m$, B : bandwidth
- ▶ $f_u = f_m \cdot \frac{1}{2^{\frac{1}{6}}}$, f_u : lower limiting frequency
- ▶ $f_o = f_m \cdot 2^{\frac{1}{6}}$, f_o : upper limiting frequency

frequency analysis by octave band filters

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- ▶ standard filter series with one center frequency f_m at 1000 Hz
- ▶ $f_{m,n} = 1000 \cdot 2^n$ for $n = \dots - 2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots$
- ▶ $B = 0.71 \cdot f_m$, B : bandwidth
- ▶ $f_u = f_m \cdot \frac{1}{2^{\frac{1}{2}}}$, f_u : lower limiting frequency
- ▶ $f_o = f_m \cdot 2^{\frac{1}{2}}$, f_o : upper limiting frequency

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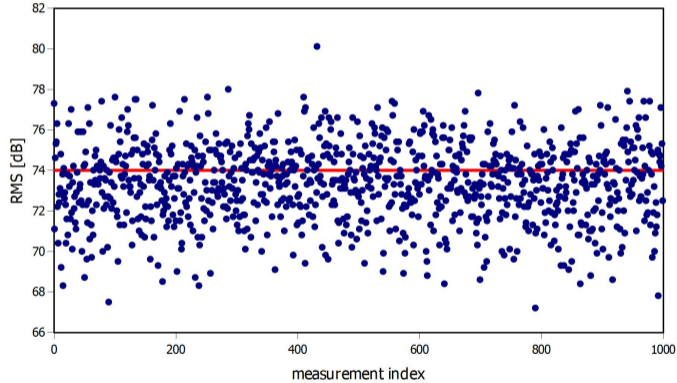
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uncertainty of measurements of random signals

measurement uncertainty of random signals

example: 0.5 sec-Leq analysis of pink noise evaluated in a band of 10 Hz:



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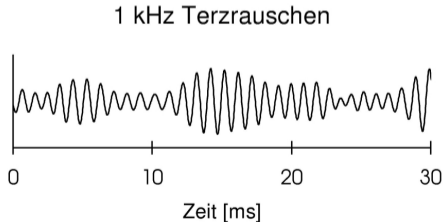
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- ▶ frequency band limited analysis of a random signal is inevitably uncertain for finite observation intervals

measurement uncertainty of random signals

- ▶ band limitation → subsequent samples are no longer statistically independent
 - ▶ neighbor sample does not provide completely new information
- ▶ the narrower the analysis bandwidth, the longer the period to wait for a new independent sample

example: 1 kHz third-octave band noise:



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degrees of freedom of a bandlimited random signal:

- ▶ random signal
 - ▶ bandwidth B
 - ▶ analyzing time T
- ▶ yields n statistically independent samples

$$n = 2BT$$

- ▶ n : degrees of freedom

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given a random signal $u(t)$:

- ▶ analysis within the bandwidth B during time T
- ▶ $\rightarrow n = 2BT$ statistically independent samples u_i

$$\text{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2}$$

- ▶ $\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2$ is χ^2 distributed

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error intervals for selected probabilities p :

n	$p = 0.90$	$p = 0.99$
10	$-4.0 \dots + 2.6 \text{ dB}$	$-6.6 \dots + 4.0 \text{ dB}$
100	$-1.1 \dots + 0.9 \text{ dB}$	$-1.7 \dots + 1.5 \text{ dB}$
1000	$-0.3 \dots + 0.3 \text{ dB}$	$-0.5 \dots + 0.5 \text{ dB}$

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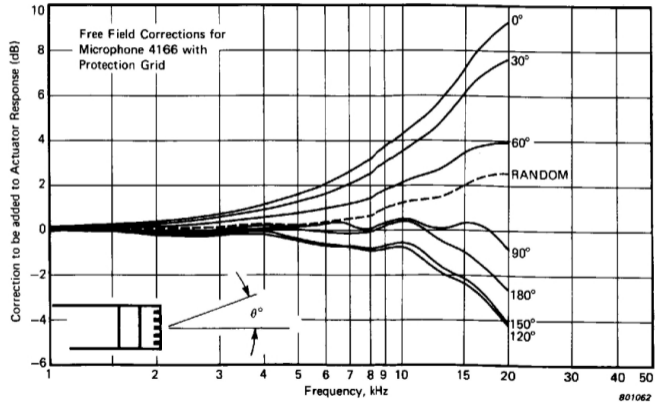
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- ▶ standard sensor: electrostatic sound pressure microphone
- ▶ directivity:
 - ▶ omnidirectional at low frequencies
 - ▶ amplification on axis for high frequencies (sound field distortion)
 - ▶ corrections:
 - ▶ free field microphones
 - ▶ pressure response microphones

microphones: directivity

example: sensitivity as a function of θ for a 1/2 inch capsule:



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further specifications:

- ▶ upper limiting frequency
 - ▶ maximal for small membrane area
 - ▶ maximal for high membrane stiffness
- ▶ self-noise
 - ▶ minimal for large membrane area
 - ▶ minimal for low membrane stiffness
- ▶ maximal sound pressure
 - ▶ maximal for small membrane area
 - ▶ maximal for high membrane stiffness

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examples:

microphone Ø inch = 2.5cm	dynamic range dB(A)	frequency range Hz
1	10...146	2 ... 18'000
1/2	15...146	2 ... 20'000
1/4	29...164	2 ... 100'000

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▶ microphone calibrators are sound pressure references

▶ constructions:

▶ pistonphone

pressure generation by electrodynamic
operation typically at 250 Hz, 114 dB ($p = 1 \text{ Pa}$)
correction needed for absorption (frequency)

▶ acoustical calibrator

pressure generation by small loudspeaker
operation typically at 100 Hz, 114 dB ($p = 1 \text{ Pa}$)

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- ▶ microphone calibrators are sound pressure references
- ▶ constructions:
 - ▶ pistonphone
 - ▶ pressure generation by moving pistons
 - ▶ operation typically at 250 Hz, 124 dB (± 0.15 dB)
 - ▶ correction needed for atmospheric pressure (density of air)!
 - ▶ acoustical calibrator
 - ▶ pressure generation by small loudspeaker
 - ▶ operation typically at 1000 Hz, 94 or 114 dB (± 0.30 dB)

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- ▶ microphone calibrators are sound pressure references
- ▶ constructions:
 - ▶ pistonphone
 - ▶ pressure generation by moving pistons
 - ▶ operation typically at 250 Hz, 124 dB (± 0.15 dB)
 - ▶ correction needed for atmospheric pressure (density of air)!
 - ▶ acoustical calibrator
 - ▶ pressure generation by small loudspeaker
 - ▶ operation typically at 1000 Hz, 94 or 114 dB (± 0.30 dB)

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sound level meter

sound level meter

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- ▶ measurement of sound pressure and evaluation of various signal attributes
 - ▶ momentary level, RC = Fast, Slow
 - ▶ maximum / minimum level
 - ▶ equivalent continuous sound pressure level L_{eq}
 - ▶ event level L_E , SEL
 - ▶ evaluation in frequency bands or with frequency weighting A/C

sound level meter

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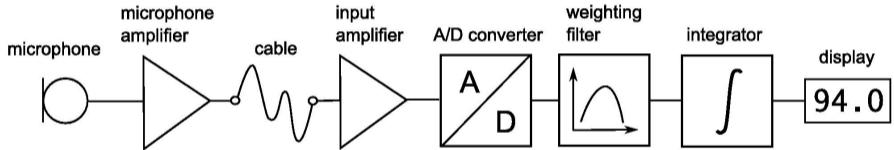
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block diagram:



sound level meter



sound level meter and wind screen

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sound level meter: precision classes

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- ▶ IEC specifications for sound level meters:
 - ▶ class 1: precise instruments for field applications
 - ▶ class 2: survey instruments with larger tolerances
- ▶ requirements for measurements relating to Swiss noise legislation:
 - ▶ instrument is type approved by *METAS*: Federal Institute of Metrology
 - ▶ initial calibration by METAS
 - ▶ recalibration every two years

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level recorder

level recorder

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- ▶ registration of the time history of sound pressure level
- ▶ instrument specs:
 - ▶ typ. dynamic range 80...120 dB
 - ▶ typ. temporal resolution: 1 ms
 - ▶ data available for further evaluations

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analyzers for level statistics

analyzers for level statistics

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- ▶ evaluation of attributes in level statistics, such as:
 - ▶ $L1$: level, that is exceeded during 1 % of the measuring time
 - ▶ $L50$: level, that is exceeded during 50 % of the measuring time
- ▶ statistical levels play a minor role

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frequency analyzers

frequency analyzers

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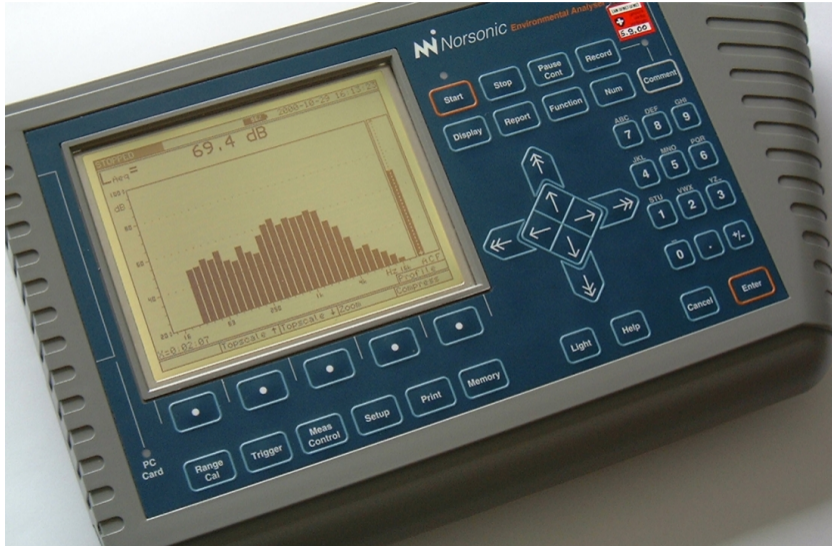
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- ▶ frequency dependent evaluation of the signal attributes
- ▶ most widely used: third-octave band analyzers
- ▶ today:
 - ▶ *handheld*
 - ▶ operating in realtime: two-channels from 20 Hz. . .20 kHz

frequency analyzers



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sound recorders

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- ▶ recording of the microphone signal for subsequent analysis
- ▶ digital recorders:
 - ▶ stand-alone hard-disc recorder
 - ▶ audio interface with PC
- ▶ formats with data compression (perceptual coders) do not make sense for measuring purposes

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discussion of uncertainties in the following measurement task:

- ▶ determination of the yearly average sound pressure level on a building facade due to road traffic
 - ▶ how to do that?
 - ▶ sources of uncertainty?

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uncertainties checklist:

- ▶ is the source under investigation in a representative condition?
- ▶ is the propagation medium in a representative condition?
- ▶ is the microphone surrounding representative for the location of interest?
 - ▶ local reflections?
 - ▶ local screening effects?
- ▶ errors due to the calibration and tolerances of the instrument
- ▶ errors due to possible unwanted noise
- ▶ fundamental uncertainty in the evaluation of random signals

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declaration of results:

- ▶ e.g. $63.2 \text{ dB(A)} \pm 0.9 \text{ dB(A)}$
 - ▶ number of decimals of a level result should reflect its uncertainty
 - ▶ standard uncertainty represents the range for a 66 % probability

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- ▶ sound intensity is a vector quantity where $|\vec{I}| = \overline{p(t) |\vec{v}(t)|}$:
 - ▶ sound pressure → no problem
 - ▶ sound particle velocity
 - ▶ pressure gradient method
 - ▶ hot-wire anemometer

intensity measurement: pressure gradient method

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fundamental relation between sound particle velocity and sound pressure:

$$\rho_0 \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial t} = - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}$$

or:

$$v_x = - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \int \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} dt$$

- ▶ sound particle velocity can be estimated from pressure gradient

intensity measurement: pressure gradient method

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approximation of pressure gradient by the pressure difference at two positions in close neighborhood:

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \approx \frac{p(x) - p(x + \Delta x)}{\Delta x}$$

- ▶ optimal choice of Δx ?
- ▶ practical limitations?

intensity measurement: pressure gradient method: probe

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intensity measurement: pressure gradient method: residual intensity

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typical values for the **residual intensity** ($L_p - L_I$) for a plane wave under 90° re. probe axis:

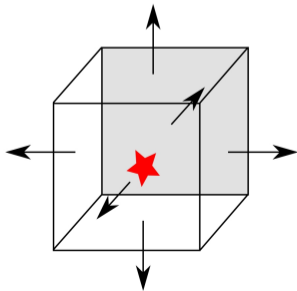
spacer	residual intensity
8.5 mm	> 15 dB for 250 Hz .. 6.3 kHz
12 mm	> 17 dB for 250 Hz .. 5 kHz
50 mm	> 23 dB for 250 Hz .. 1.25 kHz

intensity probe

applications:

- ▶ sensor with accurate $\cos(\phi)$ directivity
- ▶ measurement of sound power with suppression of the contribution of unwanted sources

$$W = \int_S \vec{I} d\vec{S} \quad [W]$$



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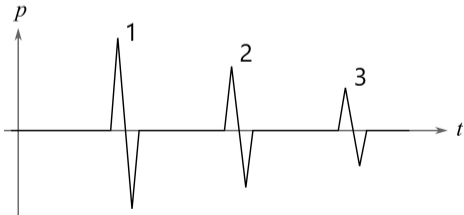
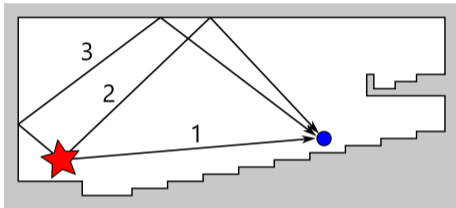
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impulse response measurements

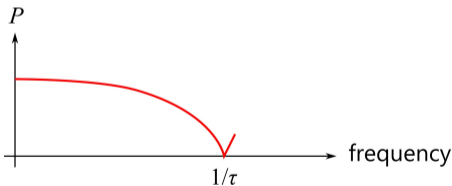
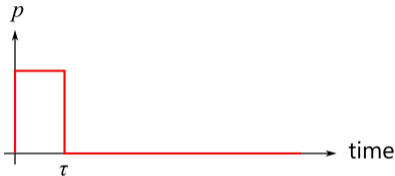
motivation

impulse response between a source and a receiver resolves different propagation paths:



difficulty

excitation impulse has to be short:



challenge:

how to excite the system with sufficient energy?

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possible excitations:

- ▶ pistol shots (spectrum?, directivity?)
- ▶ bursting balloons (spectrum?, directivity?)
- ▶ electrical sparks (spectrum?, directivity?)

preferred choice:

- ▶ loudspeakers (often poor S/N → trick?)

averaging process

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- ▶ possible strategy to overcome poor S/N: *averaging*
- ▶ repetition of single impulse measurements (only for time-invariant systems!)

increase of wanted signal:	+6 dB per doubling
increase of noise:	+3 dB per doubling
<hr/>	
S/N improvement:	+3 dB per doubling

averaging process: summation of several measurements

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averaging process

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- ▶ multiple averaging over single impulse measurements is very time consuming
 - ▶ wait until system response has dropped to sufficiently low values (in rooms: seconds)
 - ▶ averaging numbers $O(10'000)$ are needed
- ▶ correlation methods implement averaging processes very efficiently

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correlation methods

correlation functions

- ▶ system input signal: $x(t)$
- ▶ system output signal: $y(t)$

auto-correlation function:

$$R_{xx}(\tau) = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{+T} x(t - \tau)x(t)dt \quad (T \rightarrow \infty)$$

cross-correlation function:

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{+T} x(t - \tau)y(t)dt \quad (T \rightarrow \infty)$$

Wiener-Hopf-equation

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for a system with impulse response $h(t)$:

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = h(t) * R_{xx}(\tau)$$

if $R_{xx}(\tau)$ corresponds to a Dirac pulse, the relation simplifies to

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = h(t)$$

signals with dirac-like ACF?

signals with dirac-like ACF

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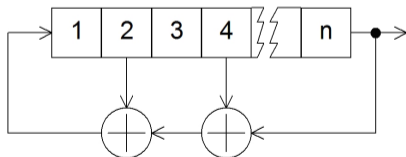
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signals with dirac-like ACF:

- ▶ Dirac pulse
- ▶ white noise
- ▶ periodically continued maximum length sequences (pseudo random sequences)

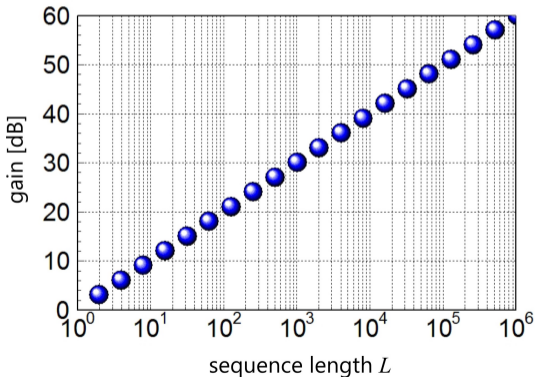
maximum length sequences

- ▶ two-valued signal (+1,-1) for lengths $L = 2^n - 1$ with (n : integer > 1)
- ▶ white spectrum
- ▶ optimal crest-factor = 1 (= 0 dB)
- ▶ fast algorithm (Hadamard transformation) for the correlation calculation
- ▶ generation with help of shift registers with appropriate feed-back



benefit

- ▶ correlation with sequence of length L corresponds to averaging L times a single impulse measurement
- ▶ gain or S/N improvement = $\log_2(L) \cdot 3 \text{ dB}$



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MLS demo

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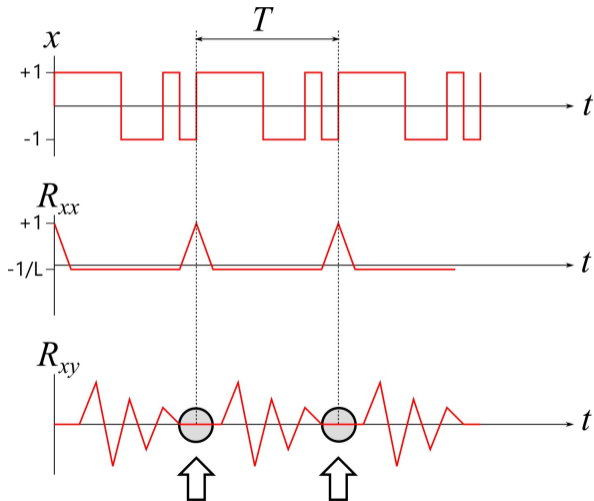
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to be considered in MLS measurements:

- ▶ periodicity of the maximum length sequence
- ▶ validity of time-invariance property of the system under test
- ▶ linearity of the system (inclusive excitation, e.g. loudspeaker)

periodicity of the ML sequence

possible aliasing by the periodic repetition of the maximum length sequence:

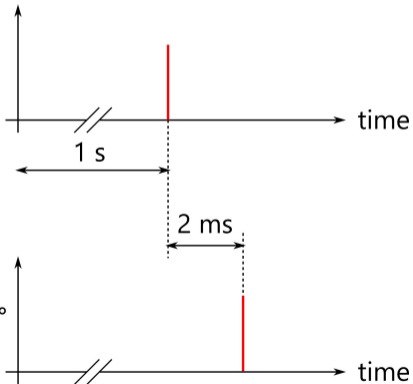


time-invariance of the system

fundamental requirement for averaging: time-invariance of the system!

caution: e.g. temperature dependency of the speed of sound: $\Delta T = -1^\circ$

$\rightarrow \Delta c = -0.6 \text{ m/s}$



linearity of the system

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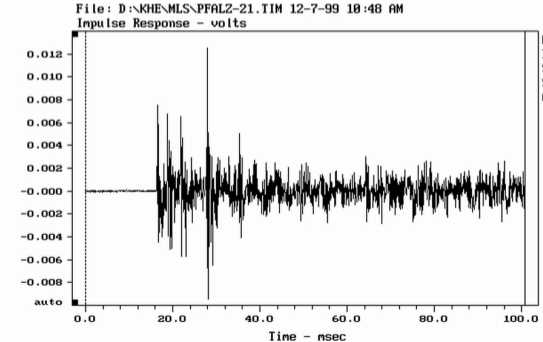
time - bandwidth
uncertainty

back

- ▶ air and boundaries are linear in good approximation
- ▶ serious problem: exciting loudspeaker
- ▶ correlation process is extremely sensitive to nonlinear distortion
- ▶ results in increased background noise in the impulse response
- ▶ optimal S/N is obtained for moderate loudspeaker volume

evaluation of an impulse response measurement

- ▶ any disturbing noise shows up homogeneously distributed over the whole impulse response
- ▶ discussion of S/N is possible in a signal-free section: e.g. before the direct sound component



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- ▶ reverberation time RT : decrease of energy density to 10^{-6} of the initial value after muting the exciting source
- ▶ RT is the most important global indicator for the acoustical characterisation of a room
- ▶ standard measurement:
 - ▶ pink noise excitation by a loudspeaker
 - ▶ recording of the sound pressure decay after muting the source
 - ▶ third-octave or octave band filtering
 - ▶ typical range for the evaluation: time T' for decay from -5 dB...-35 dB $\rightarrow RT = 2T'$

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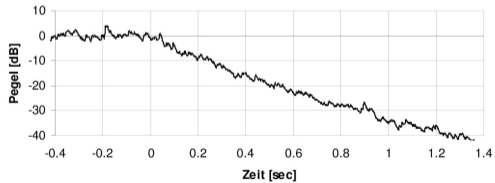
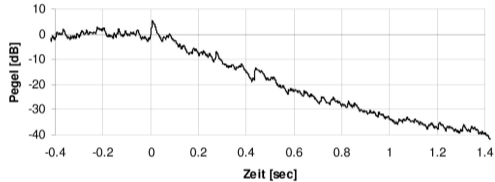
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reverberation time measurements

- ▶ problem with the standard measurement:
 - ▶ randomness of the decay process → uncertainty in the evaluation



Schroeder inverse integration

- ▶ randomness in the decay curve asks for averaging over several measurements $s^2(t)$

derived by Schroeder:

$$\langle s^2(t) \rangle \sim \int_t^{\infty} r^2(\tau) d\tau$$

where

$\langle s^2(t) \rangle$: average of all possible decays of the squared time response

$r^2(t)$: squared impulse response of the room for the selected source and microphone position

Schroeder inverse integration

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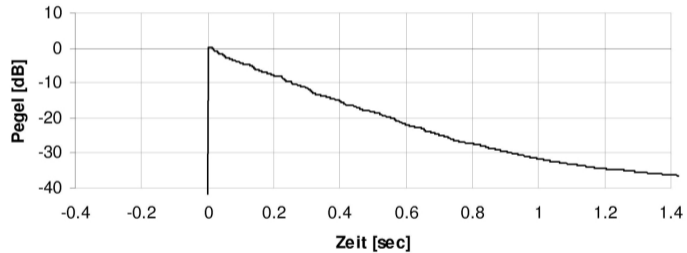
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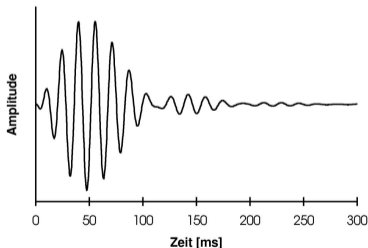
example Schroeder inverse integration:



reverberation time measurements

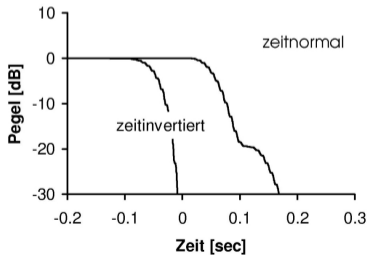
- ▶ evaluation of short reverberation times with small filter bandwidths:
 - ▶ narrow bandpass filters (lowest third octaves) → significant temporal broadening of the impulse
 - ▶ filter decay may be slower than room decay
 - ▶ necessary condition: $B \cdot T60 > 16$

e.g. impulse response of a 63 Hz third octave band filter:



reverberation time measurements

- ▶ impulse response of a bandpass filter is asymmetrical
- ▶ with respect to decay it is beneficial to invert time axis (frequency behavior is unaltered!):
 - ▶ digital filter with inverted time axis or
 - ▶ backwards play-back of recorded impulse responses
- ▶ → new relaxed condition: $B \cdot T60 > 4$



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time - bandwidth uncertainty principle

time - bandwidth uncertainty

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- ▶ bandpass filtering with bandwidth Δf of an impulse response results in a temporal broadening Δt (-3 dB points) where

$$\Delta t \cdot \Delta f \geq 0.5$$

time - bandwidth uncertainty

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- ▶ challenge: find 'optimal' filter function for $\Delta t \cdot \Delta f = 0.5$:

$$G(\omega) = 0.5 \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\alpha} \left(e^{-(\omega+\omega_0)^2/4\alpha^2} + e^{-(\omega-\omega_0)^2/4\alpha^2} \right)$$

where

ω_0 : filter center angular frequency in rad/s

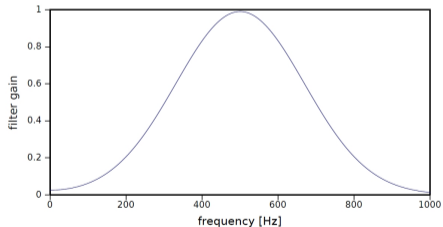
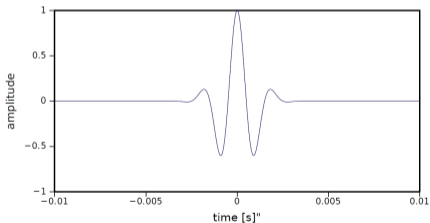
$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$\Delta\omega$: filter bandwidth in rad/s

time - bandwidth uncertainty

- ▶ impulse response of 'optimal' filter: Gabor pulse

$$g(t) = e^{-\alpha^2 t^2} \cos(\omega_0 t)$$



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