

PHY 103: Loudness and Amplification

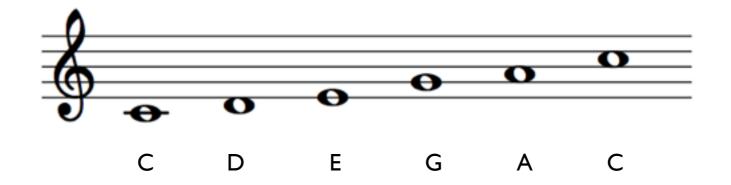
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Last Time

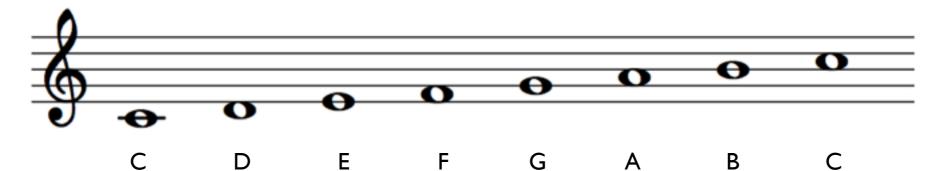
- Basic scales built on consonant tones with low-integer frequency ratios:
 - Octaves (1:2), Fifths (3:2), Fourths (4:3)
 - Triads: 4:5:6 ratio (C-E-G, F-A-C, G-B-D)
 - Question: why do these combinations sound good?
- Pentatonic and diatonic scales
- Pythagorean tuning \rightarrow generate chromatic scale
- Just intonation
- Equal temperament



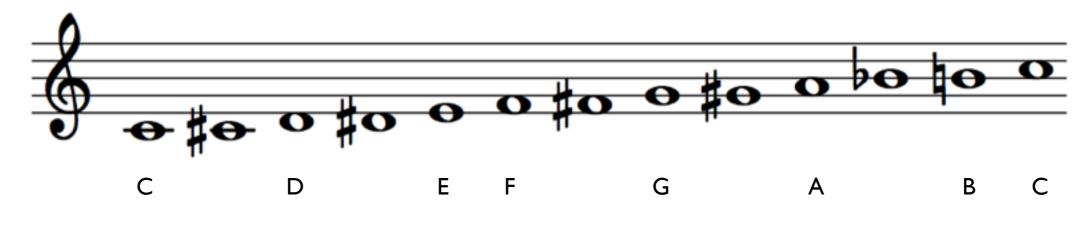
Pentatonic



Diatonic



Chromatic



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Need for Amplification

- Instruments produce sound by vibrating some element (a string, a drumhead, a reed, your lips, ...)
- There is typically very little energy in this vibration
 - For plucked string, total energy is $E = 1/4 \mu \omega_n^2 A_n^2 L$
 - First E string on a guitar: $\omega_1 = 2\pi \times 329.63$ Hz
 - µ = 0.4 g/m
 - L = 0.6 m, A = 3 mm
 - Energy is about 2 mJ. Energy required to lift an apple (100 g) vertically by 1 meter against gravity:

Amplification

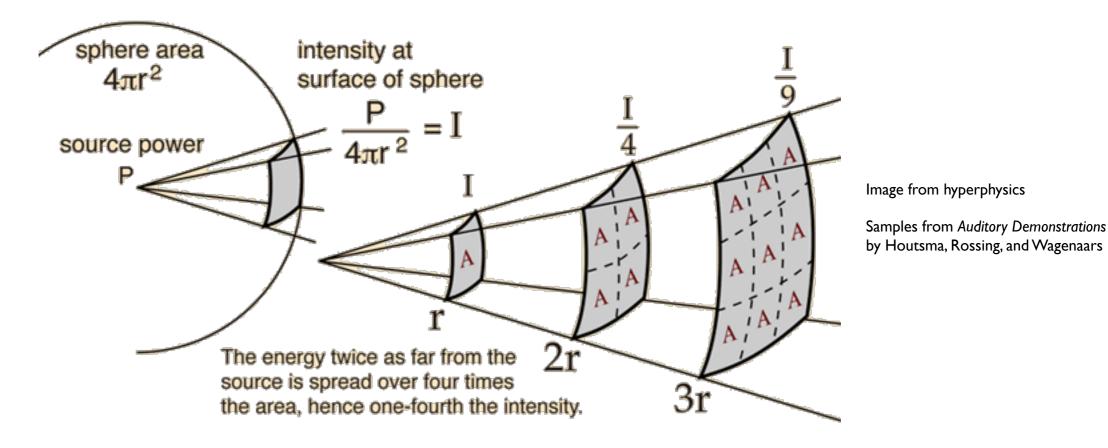
- In order to actually hear an instrument and project its sound we have to amplify it
- Acoustic resonators have been used for thousands of years for this purpose
- Now we can couple instruments to electroacoustic transducers, amplifiers, and loudspeakers
- Before we get into acoustic amplification, let's talk about sound power (a physical quantity) and loudness (a perceived quantity)...

Relative Power: dB

- Energy in an oscillating wave: E ~ A² [Joules]
- Power: P = energy per unit time [Joule/sec = Watts]
- Intensity: I = power per unit area [W/m²]
- Relative sound level between two sounds is given in decibels [dB]
 - Sound I has power P_1 and sound 2 has power P_2
 - Relative difference: $IO \log(P_2 / P_1) dB$
 - $P_2 = 2 P_1 \rightarrow 10 \log 2 = 3 \text{ dB}$ difference

The Decibel Scale

- Sample: noise decreased in steps of 6 dB
- Sample: noise decreased in steps of 3 dB
- Sample: speaker moving away from microphone. The sound intensity decreases as $1/r^2$, where *r* is the distance to the microphone



Time-Averaged Power

- Note: when we talk about power in this context, we don't mean the instantaneous power at one time t
- We are talking about the time-averaged power of an oscillating pressure wave

$$p(t) = A\cos(\omega t)$$

$$P(t) \propto p(t)^{2}$$

$$\left\langle P_{\text{avg}} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{0}^{\tau} P(t) dt \propto \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{0}^{\tau} A^{2} \cos^{2}(\omega t) dt = A^{2} / 2$$

$$\propto P_{\text{max}} / 2$$

Sound Intensity Reference

- Decibels measure a relative power (or intensity) ratio between two sounds
- So when we talk about a sound being 60 dB (for example), what is the reference point we are using?
- Remember that sound corresponds to pressure variations propagating through air in longitudinal waves
- Reference point: $p_0 = 0.02 \ \mu$ Pa or about 2×10^{-10} atm
- So you can think of dB as the amplitude variation of sounds (in pressure) relative to this reference point
 - sound level = $10 \log(p / p_0)^2 = 20 \log(p / p_0) dB$

Power of Common Sounds

Sound Source	Sound Level	Intensity
Hearing threshold	0 dB	1 pW/m ²
Whispering in library, 2 m distance	30 dB	1 nW/m ²
Normal conversation, 1 m distance	60 dB	1 µW/m²
City traffic noise inside a car	85 dB	
Hearing loss threshold (sustained exposure): 90 dB		1 mW/m ²
Jackhammer at 20 m distance	95 dB	
Hand drill	98 dB	
Power mower	107 dB	
Rock concert	115 dB	
Pain threshold: 120 dB		1 W/m ²
Pneumatic riveter at 1 m	125 dB	
Permanent damage threshold (sho		
Jet engine at 30 m	140 dB	100 W/m ²
12 gauge shotgun blast	165 dB	
Death of hearing tissue	180 dB	1 kW/m ²
Loudest sound possible at 0C and 1 atm	194 dB	

From gcaudio.com

What Happens >194 dB?

- ► 194 dB corresponds to a pressure amplitude of 1 atm
- Sound levels >194 dB require sound pressures >1 atm
- Sound waves become distorted (like a shock wave), with valleys clipped at 0 Pa (vacuum)





• OSHA guidelines for sound level exposure:

Sound Level [dB]	Power/Intensity difference	Exposure Time	From gcaudio.com
90		8 hr/day	
92	1.58	6 hr/day	
95	3.16	4 hr/day	
97	5.01	3 hr/day	
100	10	2 hr/day	
102	15.85	90 min/day	
105	31.62	60 min/day	
110	100	30 min/day	
115	316.23	<15 min/day	

• Q: how did I go from dB to intensity difference?

- Suppose you have a 70 dB speaker and you add a second 70 dB speaker. How loud is the combined set?
- Consider two possible cases:
 - I. Coherence: signals have same frequency and are in phase
 - 2. Incoherence: signals have different frequencies

- If the speakers are in phase (coherent) where you are sitting, then the amplitudes of the waves add
- Power ~ Energy ~ Amplitude²

 $p(t) = A\cos(\omega t)$ $P(t) \propto [p(t) + p(t)]^{2}$ $= 4A^{2}\cos^{2}(\omega t)$ $\left\langle P_{\text{avg}} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{0}^{\tau} P(t) dt = \propto 2A^{2}$

• Average power is 4x the power of one signal ($A^2/2$)

- If the two speakers aren't playing the same frequency, they are incoherent and the calculation changes
- Remember that we're dealing with time-averaged power when we combine the signals:

$$p_{1}(t) = A\cos(\omega t), \quad p_{2}(t) = A\cos(\Omega t)$$

$$P(t) \propto [p_{1}(t) + p_{2}(t)]^{2}$$

$$= A^{2}\cos^{2}(\omega t) + A^{2}\cos^{2}(\Omega t) + 2A\cos(\omega t)\cos(\Omega t)$$
time average: A²/2 time average: A²/2 time average: 0

$$\langle P_{\rm avg} \rangle \propto A^2$$
 2x the power of I signal alone

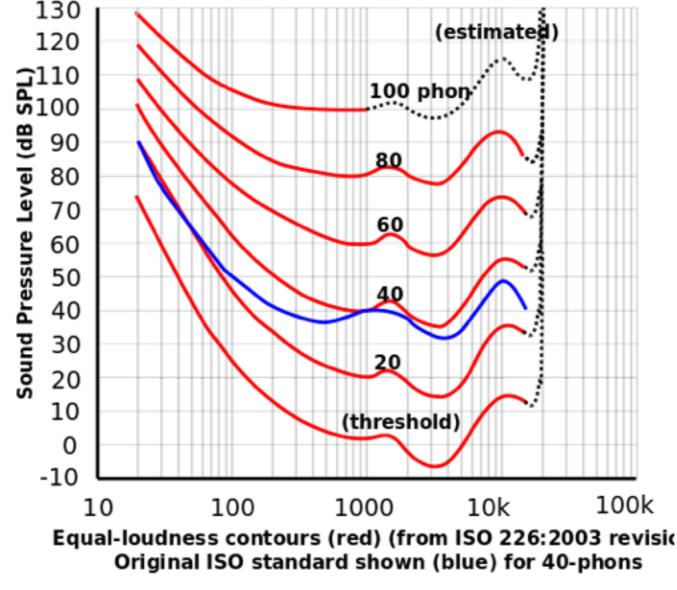
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Coherent case:

- Difference in sound level = $10 \log (4) = 6 dB$
- Therefore, the total sound power of the two speakers is 70 dB + 6 dB = 76 dB
- Incoherent case:
 - Different in sound level = $10 \log (2) = 3 dB$
 - Therefore, the total sound power of the two speakers is 70 dB + 3 dB = 73 dB

Loudness Perception

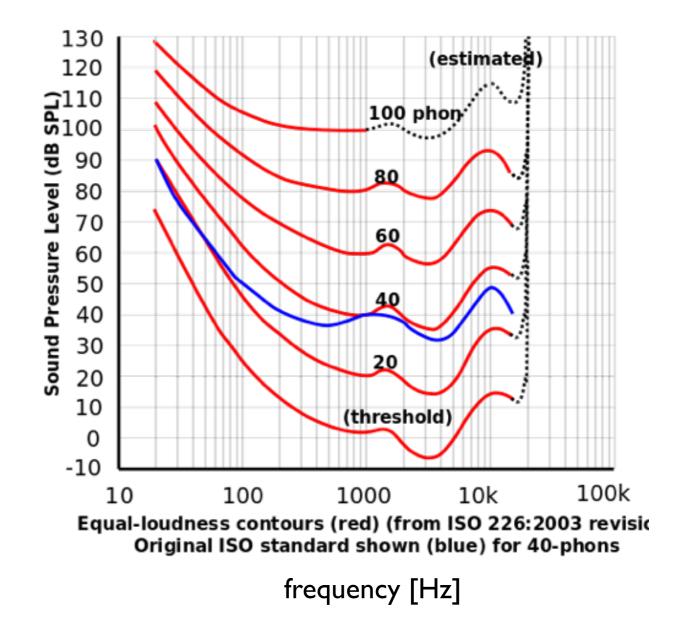
dB gives us an objective measurement of sound level power, but we don't perceive loudness equally at all frequencies



frequency [Hz]

dB and Phons

- Phon: psychophysical loudness measure
- At I kHz, phon scale = dB
- Everywhere else, phons are tuned to subjective response
- Equal-loudness curve: at a given frequency, what dB sound produces same loudness w.r.t. I kHz?
- We have a strong frequencydependent response to sounds

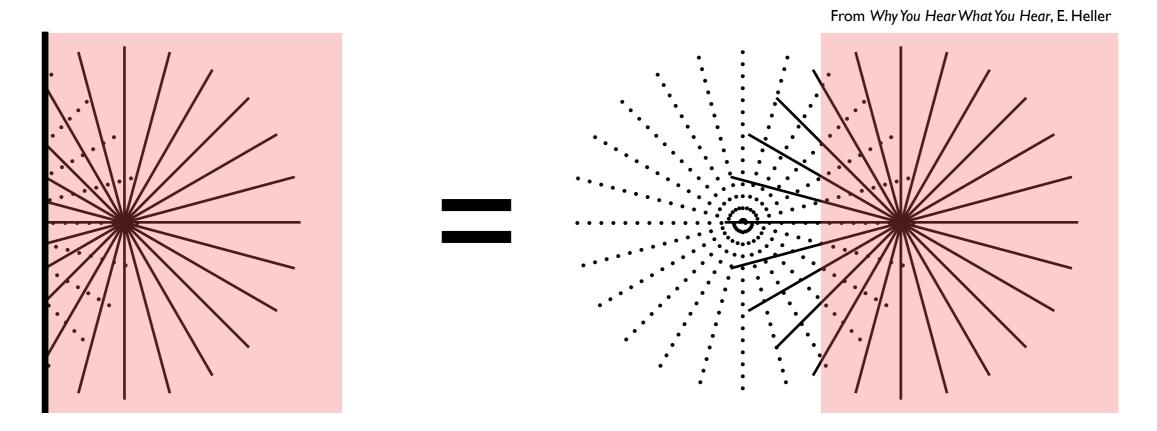


Back to Amplification

- Take any oscillating device (string, music box, etc.) and it will produce very little energy on its own
- But couple it to an acoustic resonator and you can get a huge sound
- Technical: the oscillating device has a mismatched acoustic impedance w.r.t. the surrounding air, while the resonator has a better-matched impedance
- We'll return to the concept of impedance in a few weeks

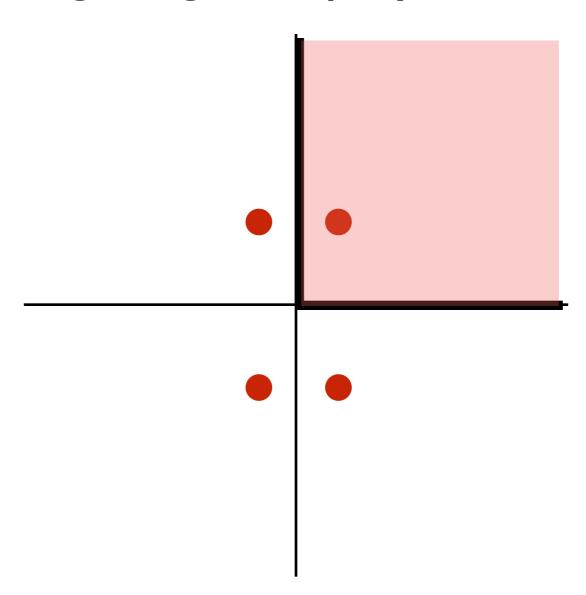
Amplification by Reflection

- If you hold a sound source next to a wall, the waves will be reflected off the wall back at you
- You can get amplification, as if there were a second source behind the wall

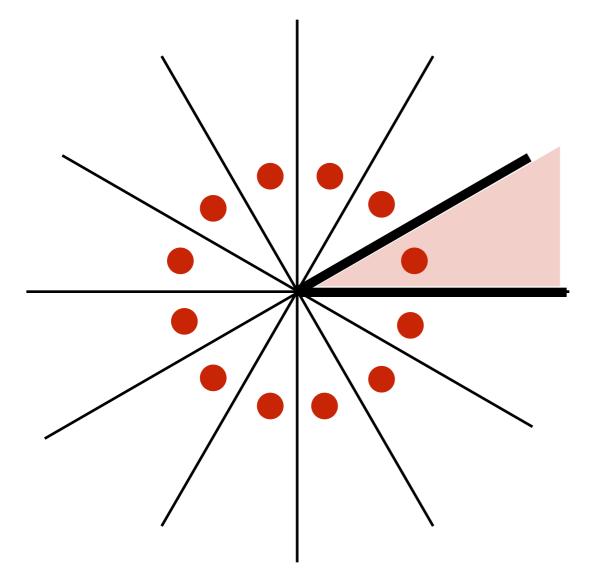


Reflection from a Corner

If wavelength is large compared to the distance between the source and its N-1 images, the power in the physical region goes up by N²



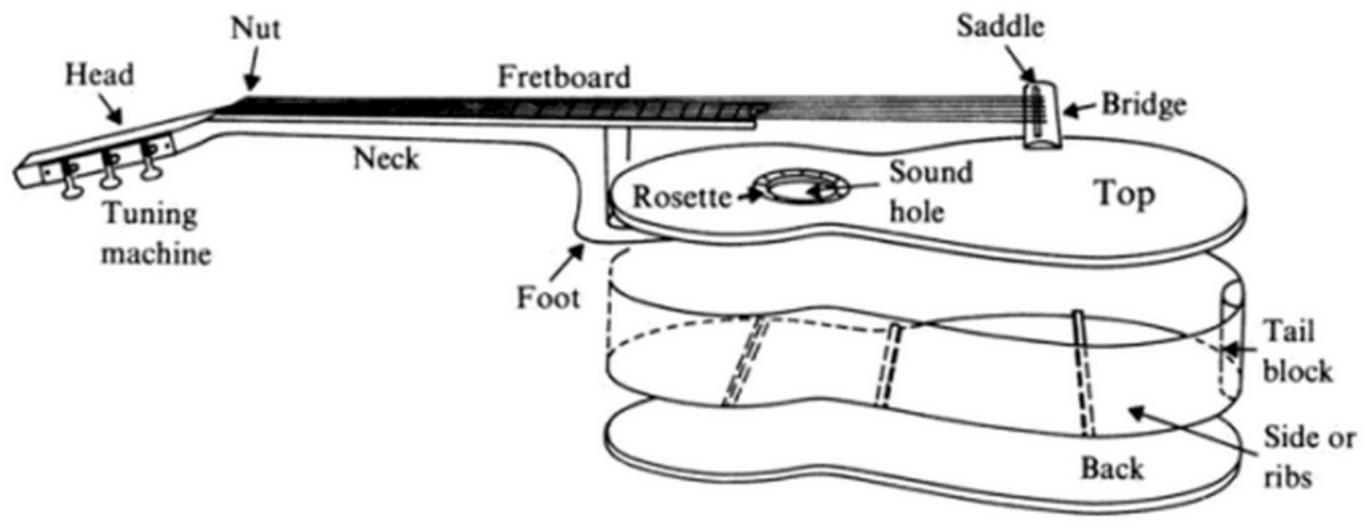
Reflection from a 30° Wedge





Amplification: the Guitar

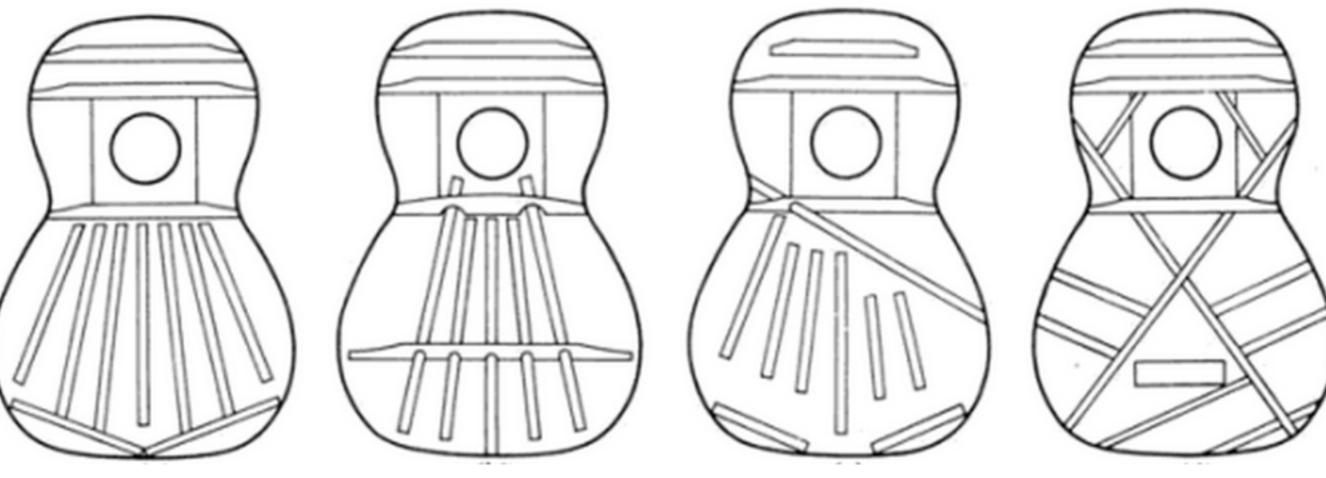
A guitar is a fretted board of strings coupled to two flat vibrating panels



From The Physics of Musical Instruments, N. Fletcher and T. Rossing

Soundboard Bracing

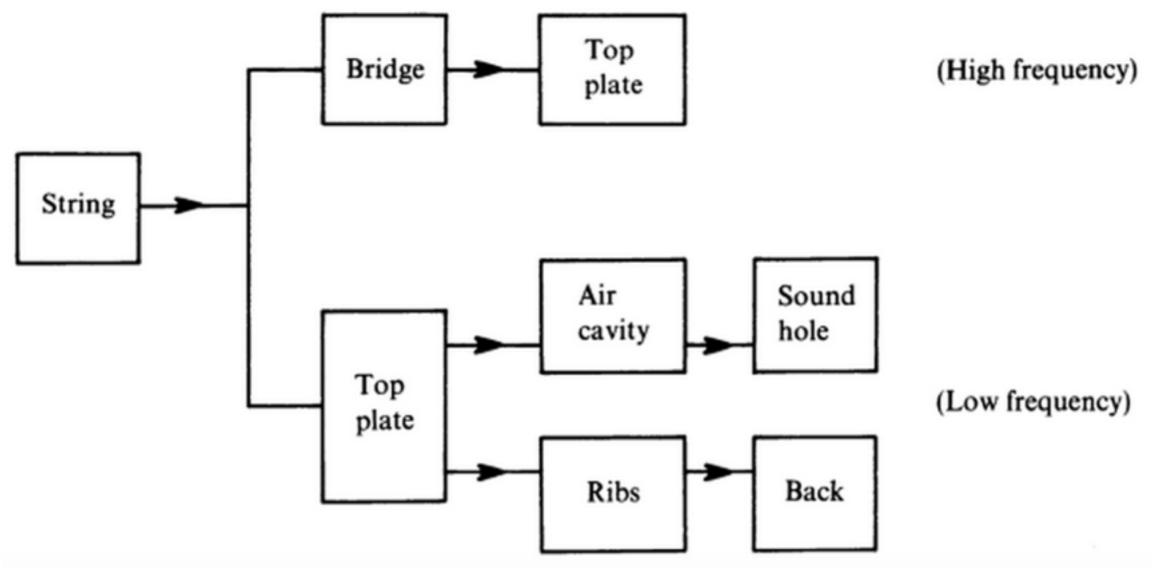
- Designs for bracing a guitar soundboard: Torres, Bouchet (France), Ramirez (Spain), crossed bracing
- Bracing affects the vibrational modes of the board



From The Physics of Musical Instruments, N. Fletcher and T. Rossing

Guitar Schematic

Different pieces of the guitar resonate in different frequency regimes

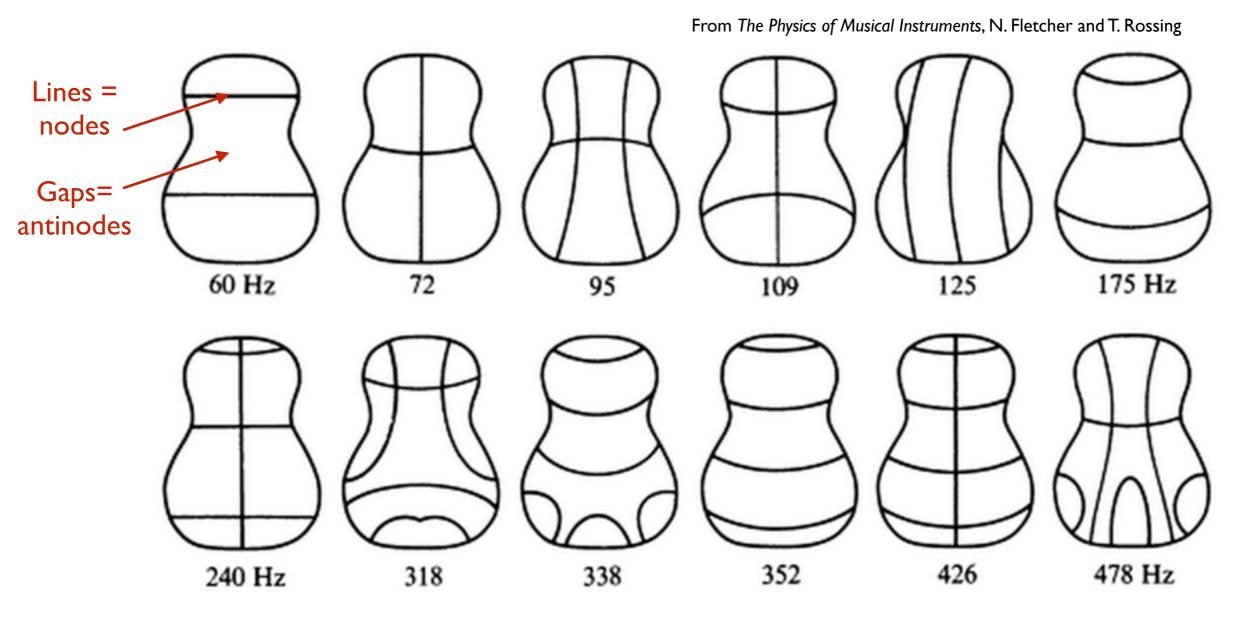


From The Physics of Musical Instruments, N. Fletcher and T. Rossing

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Guitar Plate Modes

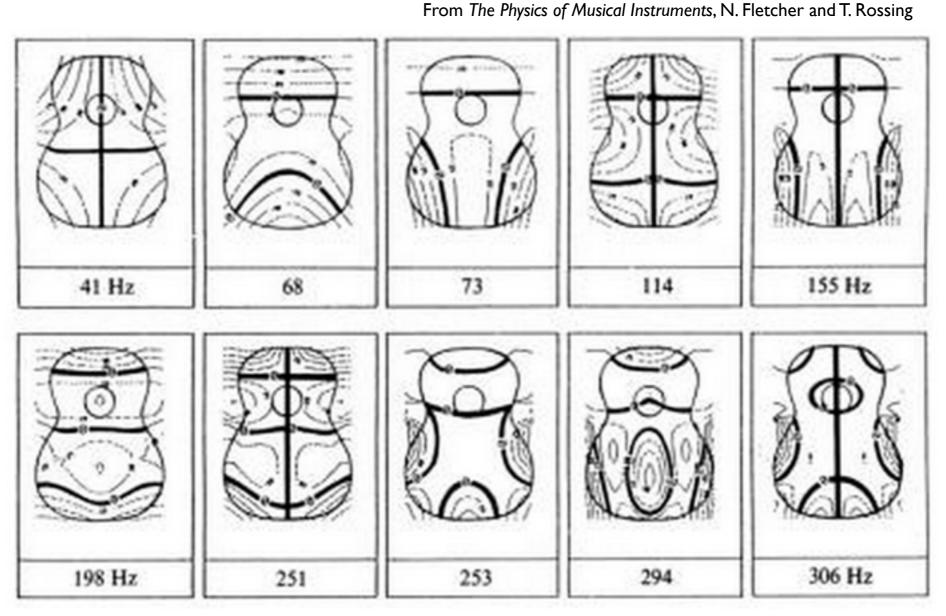
Vibrational modes of a guitar plate blank without braces



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Effect of Braces

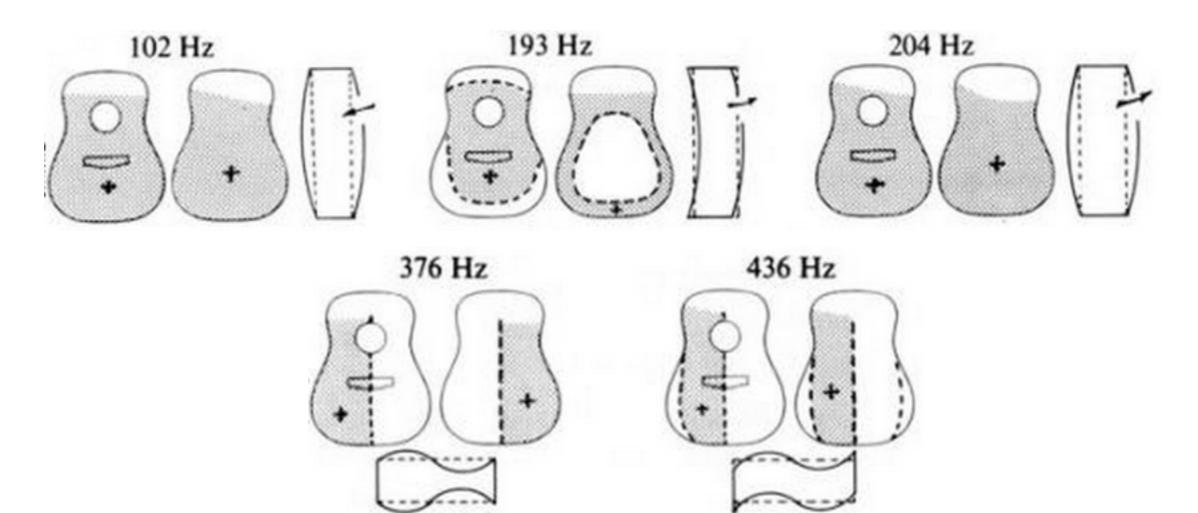
Vibrational modes of guitar top plate with traditional fan bracing



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Full Guitar Modes

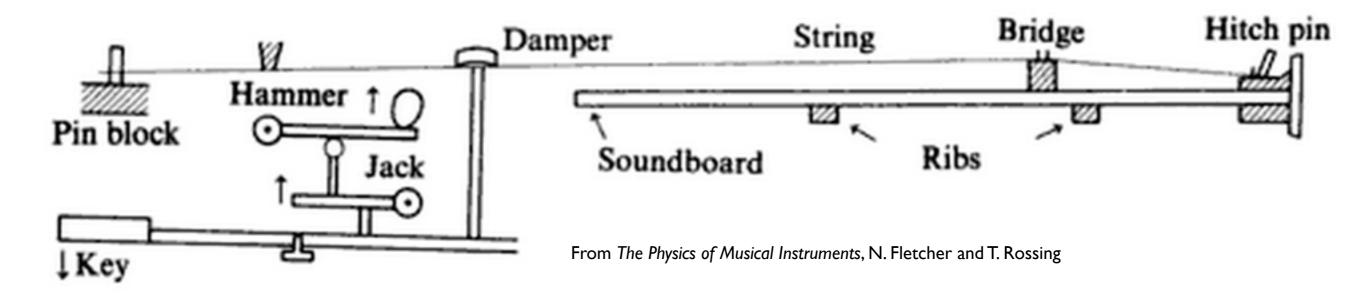
The whole guitar cavity has vibrational modes that are combinations of the modes of the plates and sides put together



From The Physics of Musical Instruments, N. Fletcher and T. Rossing

The Piano

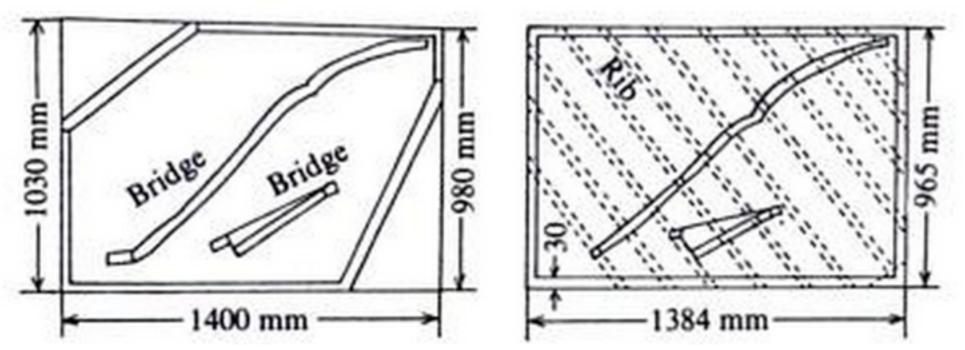
The piano also uses an acoustic resonator: the soundboard



- The soundboard opposes the vertical components of the string tension (lots of force: 20 N per string)
- Acoustically, it's also the main radiating component

Upright Piano Soundboard

An upright piano has a vertically oriented rectangular soundboard

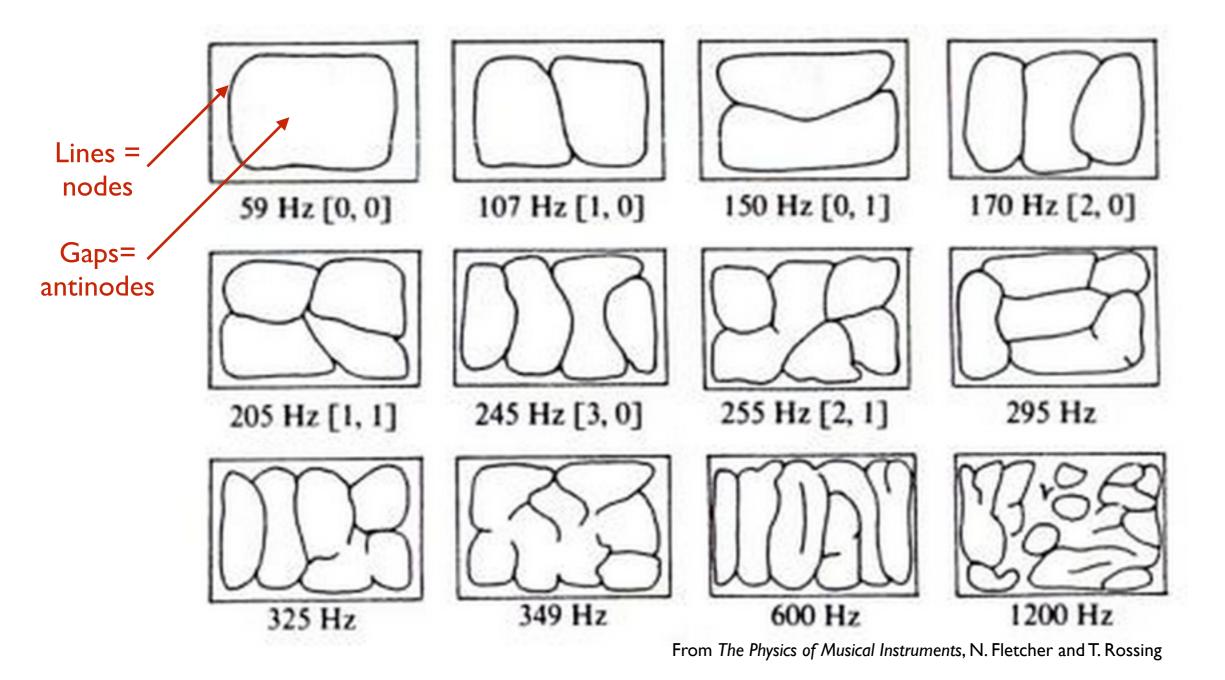


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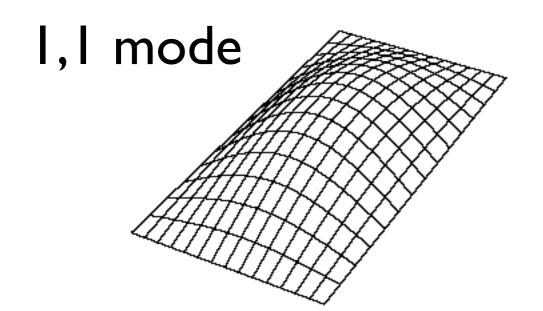
Frame members restrict the vibrations to a trapezoidal section where the bridges run diagonally

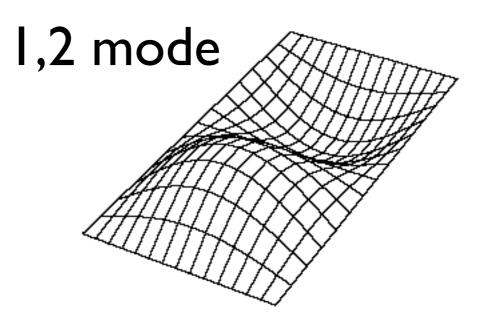
Upright Piano Modes

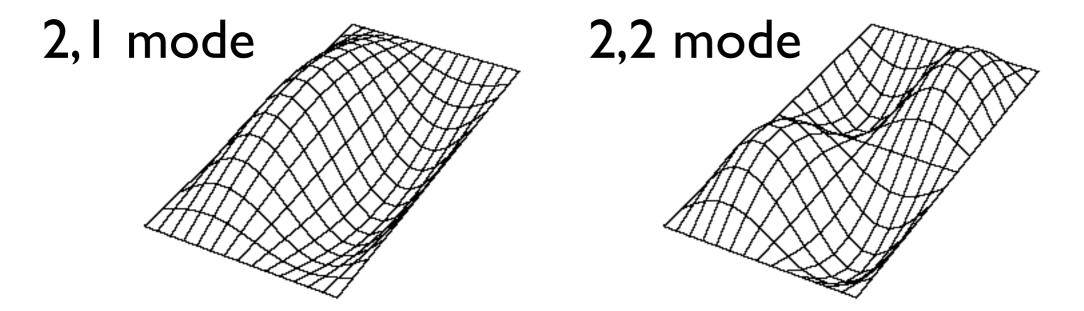
Vibrational modes of the upright piano soundboard



Rectangular Membrane Modes



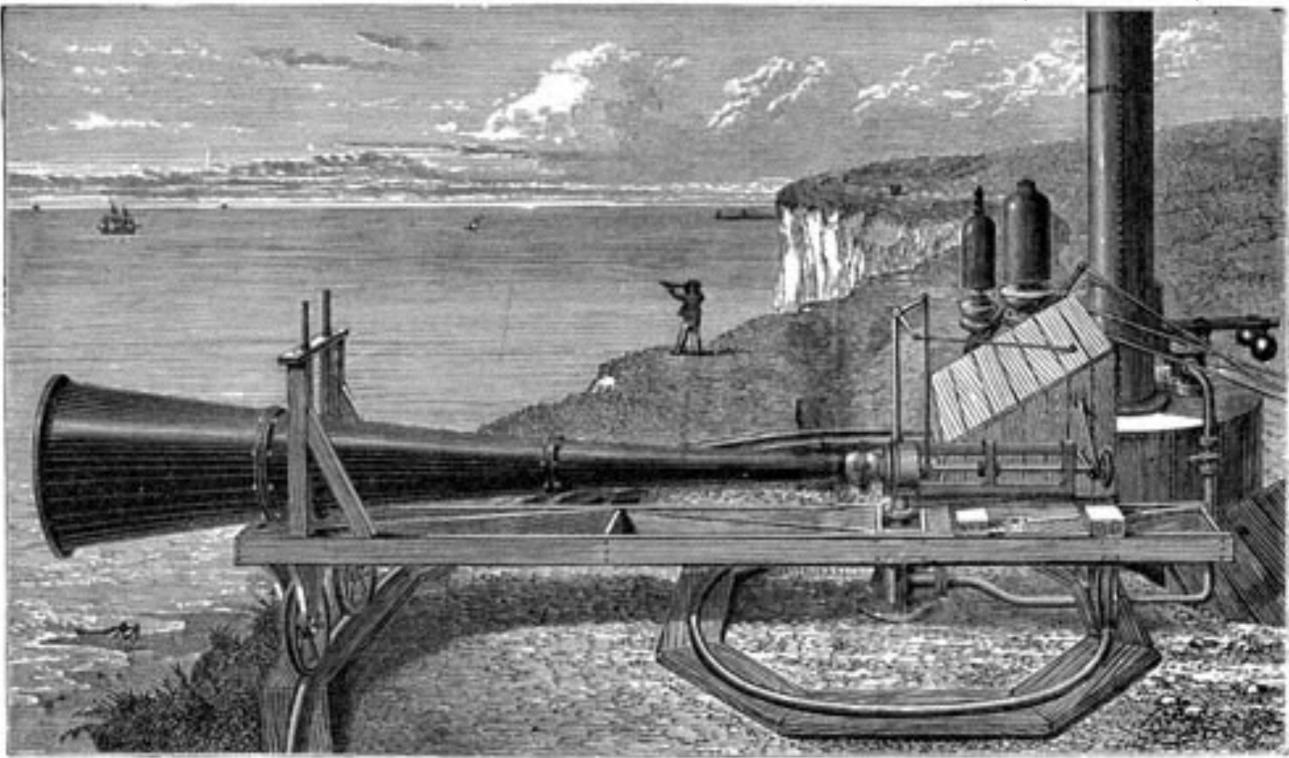




Courtesy Dan Russell, Grad. Prog. in Acoustics, PSU

Horns

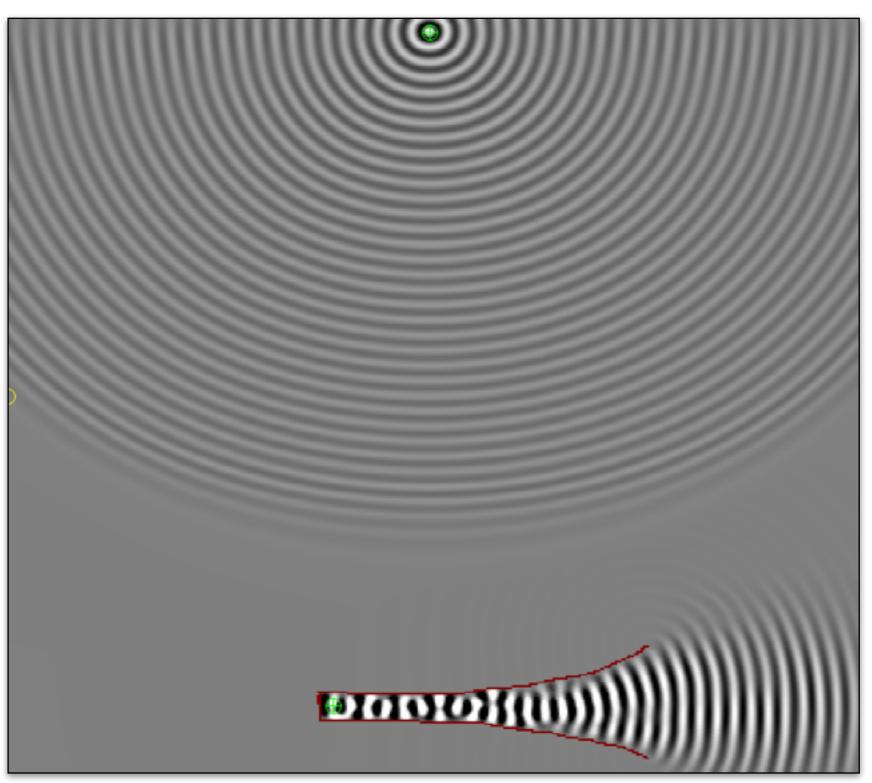
From Why You Hear What You Hear by Eric Heller



Horns

- Horns are built in a cone + bell shape, usually with the width of the cone growing exponentially towards the end of the bell
- The narrow end of the horn "loads the source"
 - Lots of constructive interference of certain wavelengths
 - Sound is confined to a small space, reducing $1/r^2$ losses
- The wide end of the horn lets all vibrations with wavelength < bell diameter escape without strong reflections. Technical: no impedance mismatch

Ripple Tank Simulation



Horns in Reverse



From Why You Hear What You Hear by Eric Heller



Summary

- Decibel scale: logarithmic ratio of sound level power or intensity with respect to a reference point
 - sound level = $10 \log (P_1 / P_2) dB$
- We perceive loudness differently depending on the frequency of the sound
- Amplification can be achieved by reflection from a surface, if the distance between the surface and sound source is much bigger than the wavelength of the sound
- In musical instruments, amplification is achieved by coupling vibrating elements to a resonator with low impedance sound effectively transmitted into the air