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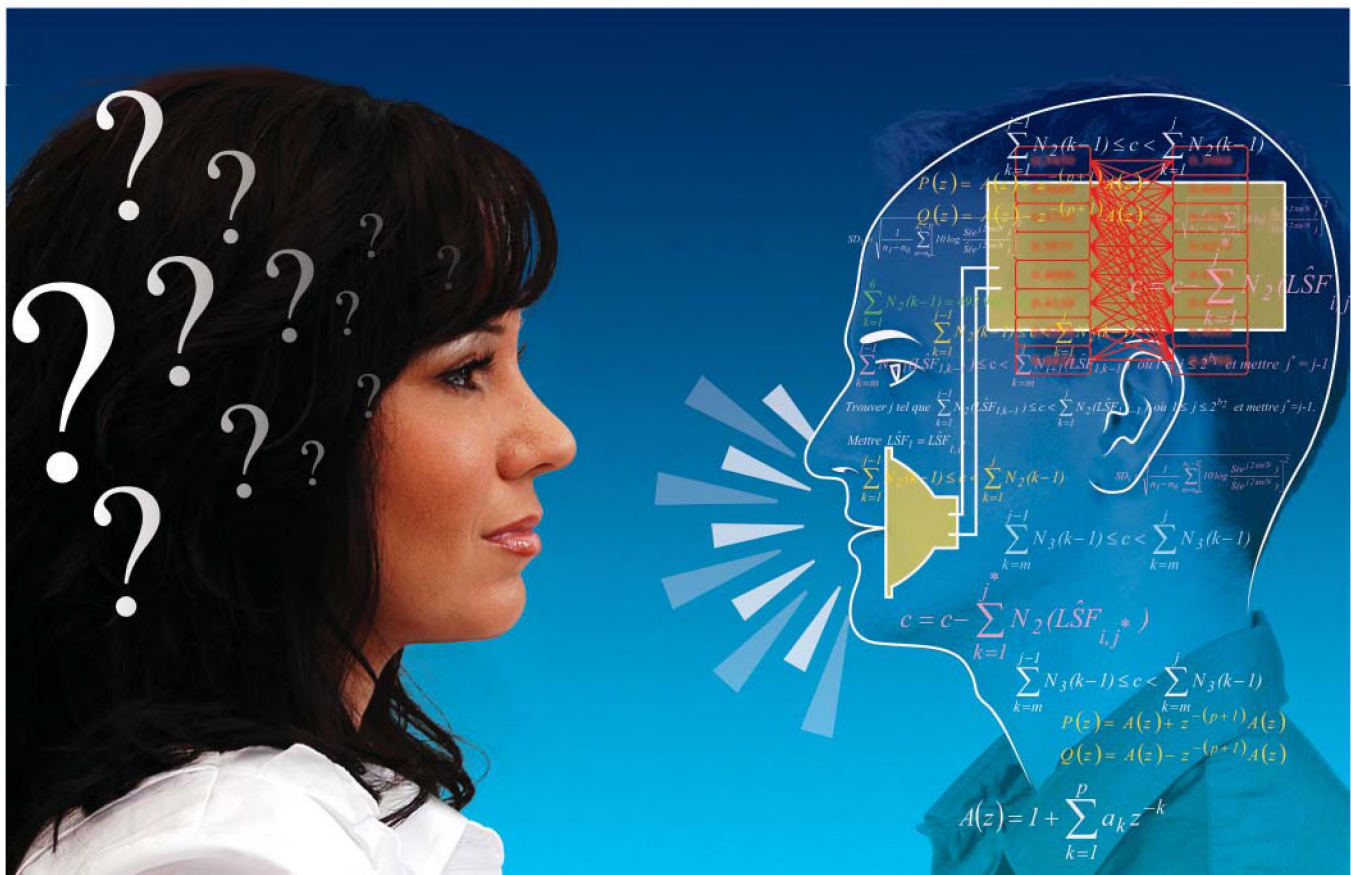
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EDITORIAL / EDITORIAL

Je vous reviens cette année un peu plus tôt que prévu. Normalement, le numéro de juin est celui qui me permet de vous adresser un mot et qui mise davantage sur un contenu francophone. Cette année nous dédierons le numéro de juin à des extraits d'une conférence et avons donc devancé mon éditorial.

Dans ce numéro, vous pourrez lire des articles provenant tous de l'extérieur du Canada. En effet, nous publions deux articles en provenance de l'Égypte, un de l'Arabie Saoudite, un de l'Algérie, alors que le dernier nous a été soumis par des collègues américains. Doit-on s'inquiéter du fait qu'aucun article n'est associé à des auteurs canadiens? D'un côté, il faut en effet se questionner sur le rôle que joue notre journal au sein de la communauté acoustique canadienne. Est-ce que les auteurs canadiens boudent notre revue? D'un autre côté, on peut se réjouir de voir que des collègues internationaux choisissent notre revue pour véhiculer les résultats de leurs travaux de recherche. Nous encourageons la communauté internationale à continuer de nous acheminer leur manuscrit, mais invitons aussi nos collègues canadiens à profiter de leur revue pour faire connaître leurs travaux.

Une collègue de l'Université d'Ottawa a fait pour vous la revue de deux chapitres du « Manuel d'Hygiène du travail ». Ces chapitres rédigés en français portent sur les effets du bruit et son contrôle et constituent un outil d'enseignement et d'information pour de nombreux professionnels dans le domaine de la santé et sécurité au travail.

Nous sommes enfin heureux de compter de nouveaux venus au sein de l'équipe de rédaction. Jason Tsang, de RWDI, sera notre nouveau rédacteur publicitaire alors que Ralph Baddour, de l'Université de Toronto, sera rédacteur adjoint et aura comme mandat de solliciter de nouveaux manuscrits. Dr Colin Novak agira à titre de Membre du comité éditorial dans les domaines de l'acoustique et du contrôle du bruit.

Bonne lecture et surtout, prenez la résolution de soumettre au moins un de vos articles à l'Acoustique Canadienne cette année. Janvier, mois des résolutions, est déjà derrière nous, mais il n'est jamais trop tard pour en ajouter à notre liste!

Chantal Laroche
Rédactrice adjointe

The June issue usually focuses on French articles and allows me to address all of you. Given that this year the June issue will be dedicated to conference proceedings, my editorial was moved to an earlier issue.

This issue is filled entirely with articles submitted from researchers outside of Canada. Indeed, two articles originate from Egypt, one from Saudi Arabia, one from Algeria, while American colleagues submitted the last one. Should one question the fact that none of the published articles in this issue are associated with Canadian authors? On the one hand, one must indeed question the role of the journal within the Canadian acoustics community. Are Canadian authors completely ignoring this journal? On the other hand, and on a more positive note, one must embrace the fact that international colleagues are choosing our journal to convey and share the results of their research endeavors. Although we strongly encourage the international community to keep sending us manuscripts, we also would like to invite our Canadian colleagues to take advantage of their journal to promote their work.

A colleague from the University of Ottawa has reviewed for you two chapters in the book entitled "Manuel d'hygiène du travail". These chapters dealing with the effects of noise and noise control are written in French and serve as a teaching and informational tool useful to many workplace health and safety professionals.

Finally, we are very delighted to welcome the new members of our editorial team. Jason Tsang from RWDI will be our new Advertising Editor, whereas Ralph Baddour from the University of Toronto will serve as Assistant Editor and will be responsible for the solicitation of new manuscripts. Dr Colin Novak will be the Editorial Board Member for Engineering Acoustics/Noise Control.

Although the month traditionally associated with making resolutions for the year to come has already passed, it is never too late to add to the list. On that note, why not consider making a resolution to submit at least one of your articles to Canadian Acoustics this year? Enjoy your reading!

Chantal Laroche
Assistant editor

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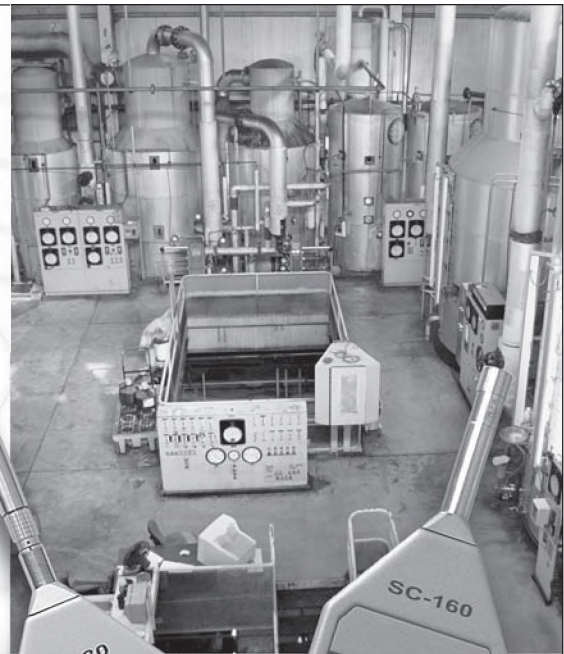
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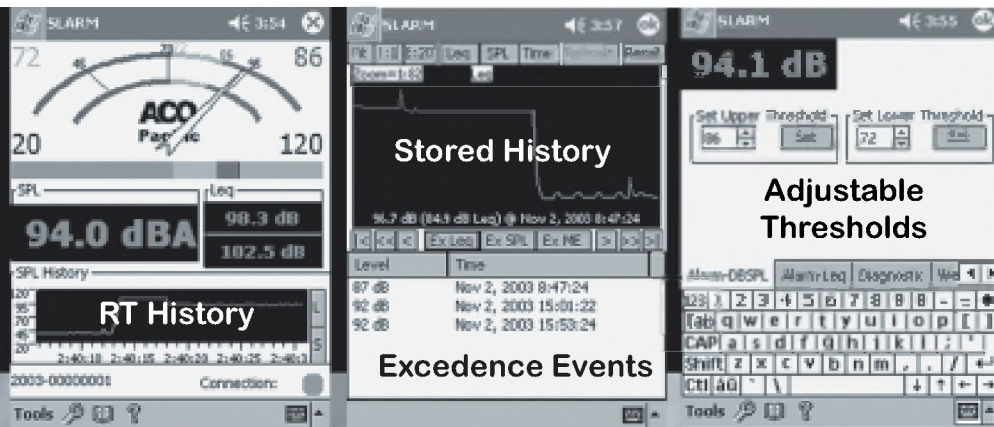
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CONCEPTION D'UN SYSTÈME D'ÉNUMÉRATION EN TREILLIS POUR LE QUANTIFICATEUR SCALAIRE DU FS1016

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RÉSUMÉ

Le but recherché par cette étude est la diminution du débit observé dans le codeur de parole nommé CELP FS1016 (standard développé par le département de la défense des Etats Unis d'Amérique "DoD"). Plus précisément, on s'est intéressé à la quantification des coefficients LSF (Line Spectrum Frequencies). Dans le standard CELP FS1016, ces coefficients sont calculés pour chaque trame de 30 ms et sont codés sur 34 bits après avoir subi une quantification scalaire. Nous avons jugé ce débit élevé et nous proposons d'appliquer une méthode d'énumération en treillis visant la diminution de celui-ci. Pour cela, nous avons d'abord effectué une analyse fine des différentes combinaisons données par les tables de la quantification initialement employée. L'analyse a révélé que cette quantification n'était pas optimale. En effet, nous avons trouvé qu'il y avait un nombre important de vecteurs LSF qui ne seront jamais utilisés car rendant le filtre de synthèse instable. Nous avons donc exploité l'ordonnement naturel des coefficients LSF pour appliquer un système d'énumération en treillis pour ce quantificateur scalaire sans changer ses tables. On est parvenu ainsi à réduire le nombre de bits alloués aux coefficients LSF de 34 bits à 30 bits. Ainsi, une distorsion spectrale équivalente a été obtenue en utilisant soit le quantificateur classique ou en appliquant le système d'énumération en treillis que nous proposons. Cependant, ce dernier a l'avantage de permettre un gain en débit de 4 bits/trame.

ABSTRACT

In the present study, we were interested in the reduction of the bit-rate observed in the speech coder named CELP FS1016 (federal standard developed by the US department of the defense "DoD"). More precisely, the quantization of the Line Spectrum Frequencies (LSF) parameters was concerned. In the standard CELP FS1016, these coefficients are derived from the input speech signal through linear prediction analysis of each 30-ms frame. A direct scalar quantization at 34 bits per frame is used. We considered the bit rate too high and we propose the use of an enumeration technique in conjunction with a treillis search coding schemes for speech LSF parameters, to reduce this rate to 30 bits per frame. To this end, we first did a thorough analysis of the different possible combinations given by the tables of the scalar quantization initially used in the FS1016. The analysis revealed that this quantization was not optimum. Indeed, we found that many combinations of quantization levels can not be used because they can lead to an unstable synthesis filter. Then, we exploit the natural ordering of the LSF to design an enumeration algorithm with a treillis schemes that reduces the bit rate of the LSF coefficients from 34 to 30 bits without decreasing the performance of the coder (an equivalent spectral distortion is obtained with the two quantizers).

1. INTRODUCTION

La prédiction linéaire est aujourd'hui largement utilisée dans beaucoup d'applications en traitement du signal de la parole, notamment pour représenter l'enveloppe spectrale court-terme de ce signal. C'est le cas du codage bas débit en bande étroite où on modélise souvent cette enveloppe par un filtre tout-pôle d'ordre 10. Les dix coefficients de ce filtre sont estimés à partir d'une trame du signal ayant typiquement une longueur de 10 à 30 ms [1]-[5]. Des algorithmes à base de méthodes d'autocorrélation et de covariance [2]-[4] sont souvent utilisées pour calculer ces coefficients, appelés

aussi coefficients de prédiction ou coefficients LPC (Linear predictive coding) où la complexité algorithmique et la stabilité du filtre sont le souci majeur [6], [8]. Notons que les causes de l'instabilité sont multiples. Ils proviennent souvent du caractère fortement non stationnaire du signal. En effet, la présence de longues périodes de silence ainsi que l'existence de certains sons voisés très pauvres en harmoniques et fortement prédictibles, conditionnent mal les algorithmes d'estimation (les variances des erreurs de prédiction devenant faibles devant l'énergie moyenne du signal). De plus, les régions de transition entre les sons sont aussi d'autres causes d'instabilité du fait de l'accumulation des erreurs numériques et de leur propagation lors du traitement de ces régions [8].

Par ailleurs, en codage bas débit, il est important de quantifier les coefficients LPC en utilisant le minimum de bits possibles sans introduire une distorsion spectrale excessive et tout en gardant une complexité raisonnable. Cependant, dans leur forme directe, ces coefficients s'adaptent mal à une quantification à cause de leur large dynamique. Il est alors nécessaire de les transformer vers des représentations plus adéquates n'exigeant que 18 à 34 bits/trame. On préfère utiliser les coefficients de réflexion (RC) qui sont moins sensibles à la quantification. Ceux-ci sont bornés par l'unité et la stabilité du filtre est mieux assurée en gardant cette borne lors de l'opération de quantification. Des algorithmes de passage des coefficients LPC aux coefficients RC sont alors utilisés. Cependant, au voisinage de l'unité, la sensibilité spectrale des coefficients RC reste gênante et on tend à étendre cette région au moyen de transformations non linéaires. Le rapport d'aires ou log-area ratio (LAR), le sinus inverse (IS) et les paires de raies spectrales, appelées communément coefficients LSF (Line Spectrum Frequencies), sont souvent préférées [4], [9]. Des quantifications non uniformes sont ensuite appliquées et 34 bits/trames sont retenus pour coder l'enveloppe spectrale [7], [9], [10].

Actuellement, la représentation des coefficients LPC par les paires des raies spectrales est très utilisée [11]-[14], car elle possède des propriétés naturelles désirables pour une quantification, comme nous allons le préciser dans la section suivante. Plusieurs schémas de quantification des LSF, aussi bien scalaires (QS) que vectorielles (QV), sont rencontrés dans la littérature [11-15]. Dans ce travail, nous avons opté pour la QS à cause de la complexité moindre qu'elle présente comparativement à la QV, ce qui était une exigence de départ¹. D'où notre intérêt pour le codeur CELP (Code Excited Linear Prediction) de la norme FS1016 [16], [17], standard développé par le département de la défense des Etats Unis d'Amérique "DoD", qui répondait a priori à notre exigence. Ce dernier utilise 10 coefficients LSF pour représenter l'enveloppe spectrale. Ceux-ci sont quantifiés de façon scalaire et emploient 34 bits/trame, répartis respectivement comme suit : 3, 4, 4, 4, 4, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3 (Tableau 1).

Par la suite, une fine analyse de ce tableau révélera que ce codeur utilise une numérotation dont certaines valeurs ne peuvent être retenues car introduisant des combinaisons de coefficients LSF qui rendraient le filtre de synthèse instable.

En effet, les 34 bits précédents peuvent donner $N = \prod_{i=1}^{10} 2^{b_i}$, soit 17179869184 combinaisons possibles où b_i serait donc le nombre de bits accordé pour pouvoir indexer tous les niveaux de quantification de la $i^{ème}$ table. Cependant, l'ordonnement naturel des LSF va nous permettre de

¹ Ce travail entre dans le cadre du projet CNEPRU J1602/02/09/04 incluant la mise au point d'un codeur bas débit fonctionnant sur DSP (TMS 320C25 de Texas Instrument) au voisinage de 4 kbps pour une transmission vocale sécurisée.

réduire ce nombre à seulement un maximum de 554958388 (10000100010011111111000110100 en binaire) combinaisons acceptables (soit environ 3.25% du nombre total). Ce chiffre n'exige que 30 bits pour sa représentation.

En d'autres termes, 96.75% combinaisons conduiront à la réalisation d'un filtre de synthèse instable. Nous avons pu éviter ces combinaisons et réduire ainsi le débit par l'application d'un système d'énumération en treillis.

La quantification par treillis a eu cette appellation suite à son schéma utilisant des chemins sous forme de treillis. Ces chemins passent d'un niveau de reproduction à un autre se trouvant dans des tables différentes.

Plusieurs travaux récents [18]-[21] se sont intéressés à l'application de ce type de quantification aux coefficients LSF. Généralement, la quantification par treillis utilise l'algorithme de Viterbi [22] pour optimiser le parcours à travers les niveaux de reproduction ou mot-codes. Une version de cet algorithme a été proposée dans les travaux de Lahouti [20].

Dans notre cas, on se propose d'appliquer un système d'énumération en treillis sur des tables formées de coefficients LSF et utilisées dans le codeur CELP; ceci en vue de réduire le nombre bits alloués à l'ensemble de ces coefficients tout en gardant une complexité raisonnable. L'algorithme utilisé est une adaptation de l'algorithme de Malone et Fisher [21]. 30 bits seulement (au lieu de 34 bits) ont alors été jugés suffisants pour coder les paramètres LSF de ce codeur tout en gardant la même qualité décodée. 4 bits/trame ont ainsi été récupérés ce qui équivaut à un gain de 133 bits/sec.

Dans la seconde section de cet article on définira les coefficients LSF et on donnera leurs propriétés et leurs avantages par rapport aux coefficients LPC. Dans la section 3 on présentera la quantification scalaire utilisée dans le codeur FS1016. La section 4 décrit le système d'énumération par treillis utilisé et présente les algorithmes de codage et de décodage mis au point. Les résultats obtenus sont discutés dans la section 4.

2. DEFINITION ET PROPRIETES DES PARAMETRES LSF

2.1 Définition

Les coefficients LSF sont une autre représentation des coefficients de prédiction a_k . Ils dérivent du filtre d'analyse par prédiction linéaire $A(z)$ d'ordre p donné par l'équation suivante [1]-[5]:

$$A(z) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^p a_k z^{-k} \quad (1)$$

La représentation LSF a été introduite pour la première fois par Itakura [11]. Elle est devenue par la suite largement utilisée, notamment dans le codage de la parole où elle est préférée pour effectuer la quantification de

l'information spectrale, comme on peut le constater dans [12]-[17]. En effet, la large dynamique des valeurs des coefficients a_k cause une grande difficulté dans la détermination des régions de leur quantification. Cela provoque des erreurs pouvant conduire à une instabilité du filtre de synthèse $1/A(z)$. Par contre, les coefficients LSF possèdent une gamme de valeurs bornée entre 0 et 0.5, ce qui rend leur quantification plus aisée.

Deux polynômes $P(z)$ et $Q(z)$ sont définis respectivement par l'addition et la soustraction du terme $z^{-(p+1)}A(z)$ [23], [24]:

$$\begin{aligned} P(z) &= A(z) + z^{-(p+1)}A(z) \\ Q(z) &= A(z) - z^{-(p+1)}A(z) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Les deux polynômes $P(z)$ et $Q(z)$ sont, respectivement, symétrique et antisymétrique et ont toutes leurs racines sur le cercle unité. Deux autres polynômes $P'(z)$ et $Q'(z)$ sont formés tels que :

$$\begin{aligned} P'(z) &= (1+z^{-1})P(z) \\ Q'(z) &= (1-z^{-1})Q(z) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Les polynômes $P'(z)$ et $Q'(z)$ sont aussi symétriques et ont les propriétés suivantes [25], [26]:

- Si les racines du filtre $A(z)$ sont à l'intérieur du cercle unité, alors les racines de $P'(z)$ et $Q'(z)$ sont sur ce même cercle. Elles sont entrelacées et commencent par une racine de $P'(z)$.
- Inversement si les racines de $P'(z)$ et $Q'(z)$ sont sur le cercle unité et sont entrelacées et commencent par la racine de $P'(z)$, alors les racines de $A(z)$ sont à l'intérieur du cercle unité.
- Du fait que les racines de $P'(z)$ et $Q'(z)$ sont sur le cercle unité, ces derniers peuvent être complètement définis par la position angulaire de leurs racines. En outre, les polynômes $P'(z)$ et $Q'(z)$ ayant des coefficients réels, leurs racines se présentent sous forme de paires de nombres complexes conjugués. Par conséquent, uniquement les positions angulaires situées sur le demi cercle supérieur du plan Z sont suffisantes pour déterminer complètement $P'(z)$ et $Q'(z)$.

Ainsi, les coefficients LSF sont définis comme les positions angulaires ω_i des racines de $P'(z)$ et $Q'(z)$ situées dans le demi cercle supérieur du plan Z . Ils sont déterminés généralement par l'algorithme de Kabal et Ramachandran [23].

2.2. Propriétés des coefficients LSF.

Les autres propriétés des coefficients LSF [9], [11], [23]-[27] peuvent être résumées ainsi :

- Une condition nécessaire et suffisante pour la stabilité du filtre de synthèse $1/A(z)$ est que les coefficients LSF doivent respecter la condition suivante :

$$0 < LSF_1 < LSF_2 < \dots < LSF_p < 0.5 \quad (4)$$

Où la fréquence normalisée 0.5 correspond à la fréquence de Nyquist.

Cette propriété exprime l'ordonnement de ces coefficients.

- Les coefficients LSF sont toujours concentrés autour des formants. La largeur de bande d'un formant dépend de la proximité de ses coefficients LSF correspondants.
- En général, la sensibilité spectrale de chaque coefficient LSF est localisée. Cela veut dire qu'un changement dans un coefficient causera un changement dans le spectre de puissance près de son voisinage.
- Un espacement court entre deux coefficients LSF correspond à une résonance (formant), tandis qu'un espacement large entre deux coefficients LSF correspond à une vallée (antirésonance).
- La représentation LSF est une représentation fréquentielle dont la quantification peut aisément incorporer des traits très importants pour la perception et la sensibilité de l'oreille humaine en particulier. Un exemple est donné dans [28], où les fréquences basses des LSF ont été quantifiées avec plus de bits que les fréquences plus hautes.

2.3 Utilisation de la représentation LSF

La représentation LSF d'ordre 10 est très utilisée dans les codeurs de parole actuels et en particulier les standards dont le débit est inférieur à 16 kbps. On cite par exemple :

- Le standard ITU-T G.729 CS-ACELP à 8 kbps [29]
- Le standard ITU-T G.723.1, codeur à double débit pour la communication multimédia à 5.3/6.3 kbps [30]
- Le GSM 6.60 EFR du standard européen de télécommunications à 12.2 kbps [31]
- Le standard japonais JDC-2 PSI-CELP à 5.6 kbps [32]
- Le standard américain de la défense pour la téléphonie sécurisée FS1016 CELP à 4.8 kbps [16], [17].
- Le nouveau standard américain pour la téléphonie sécurisée, FS 1017 MELP (Mixed Exited Linear Prediction) à 2.4 kbps [33]-[34].

Dans ces standards, la représentation LSF procure une bonne qualité de quantification pour l'information spectrale, avec moins de bits et une meilleure qualité de parole. Notons que des standards plus anciens tels que le GSM 6.10 FR [38] et le IS-54 [39] utilisent les coefficients LAR. Ces standards ont été remplacés respectivement par le GSM 6.60 [31] et le IS-641 [40], où on préfère les LSF pour une meilleure quantification de l'information spectrale.

Tableau 1 : Tables des niveaux de quantification des coefficients LSF d'après le standard US CELP FS1016. C'est une quantification scalaire codée sur 34 bits. (C1 est la table de LSF1, C2 celle de LSF2, ...).

C ₁		C ₂		C ₃		C ₄	
indice	valeur	indice	valeur	indice	valeur	indice	valeur
0	0.0125	0	0.0262	0	0.0525	0	0.0775
1	0.0213	1	0.0294	1	0.0575	1	0.0825
2	0.0281	2	0.0331	2	0.0625	2	0.0900
3	0.0312	3	0.0369	3	0.0675	3	0.0994
4	0.0350	4	0.0406	4	0.0731	4	0.1100
5	0.0425	5	0.0450	5	0.0800	5	0.1212
6	0.0525	6	0.0500	6	0.0881	6	0.1350
7	0.0625	7	0.0550	7	0.0969	7	0.1462
		8	0.0600	8	0.1062	8	0.1588
		9	0.0650	9	0.1188	9	0.1713
		10	0.0700	10	0.1312	10	0.1838
		11	0.0762	11	0.1438	11	0.1962
		12	0.0838	12	0.1562	12	0.2088
		13	0.0925	13	0.1688	13	0.2212
		14	0.1013	14	0.1812	14	0.2338
		15	0.1100	15	0.1938	15	0.2462
C ₅		C ₆		C ₇		C ₈	
indice	valeur	indice	valeur	indice	valeur	indice	valeur
0	0.1250	0	0.1838	0	0.2250	0	0.2781
1	0.1312	1	0.1962	1	0.2350	1	0.3000
2	0.1412	2	0.2112	2	0.2450	2	0.3156
3	0.1512	3	0.2288	3	0.2625	3	0.3312
4	0.1606	4	0.2500	4	0.2875	4	0.3500
5	0.1688	5	0.2750	5	0.3100	5	0.3688
6	0.1788	6	0.3000	6	0.3375	6	0.3938
7	0.1888	7	0.3250	7	0.3625	7	0.4188
8	0.1988						
9	0.2088						
10	0.2188						
11	0.2312						
12	0.2438						
13	0.2562						
14	0.2688						
15	0.2812						
C ₉		C ₁₀					
indice	valeur	indice	valeur				
0	0.3450	0	0.3988				
1	0.3600	1	0.4088				
2	0.3750	2	0.4188				
3	0.3875	3	0.4275				
4	0.4000	4	0.4362				
5	0.4138	5	0.4488				
6	0.4288	6	0.4638				
7	0.4438	7	0.4788				

3. QUANTIFICATION DES COEFFICIENTS LSF DANS LE CODEUR CELP FS1016

Avant de transmettre les coefficients LSF, il convient d'abord de les quantifier. En effet, ces coefficients contribuent directement à la représentation du spectre vocal

et ne présentent pas tous la même loi de répartition (distribution non uniforme) [16], [17], [28].

Dans le standard américain FS1016 les 10 coefficients LSF sont calculés pour chaque trame de parole de 30 ms et sont codés sur 34 bits (3, 4, 4, 4, 4, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3), après avoir subi une quantification scalaire.

Les tables de quantification pour chaque coefficient LSF_i , $i=1$ à 10 , ont été données au tableau 1. Notons que les valeurs de ces tables représentent les fréquences normalisées entre 0 et 0.5.

Dans ce qui suit, nous exposons l'algorithme de quantification scalaire utilisé par la norme FS1016. Dans cet algorithme, on a utilisé les notations suivantes :

- N_L est le vecteur contenant le nombre de niveaux de quantification des coefficients LSF.
- $\hat{LSF}_{i,j}$ est l'élément de la table de quantification équivalent à une matrice d'ordre $p \times N_L$ (max). N_L (max) représente la valeur maximale du vecteur N_L et p le nombre de coefficients LSF.
- $LSFQ_i$ est le vecteur contenant les coefficients quantifiés.

Algorithme :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pour } i = 1, \dots, p \\ J_{min} = \arg \min_{j=1, \dots, N_L} |LSF_i - \hat{LSF}_{i,j}| \\ LSFQ_i = \hat{LSF}_{i, J_{min}} \end{aligned}$$

A noter aussi que cette quantification scalaire (codée sur 34 bits), utilisée par la norme FS1016, ne présente pratiquement pas de distorsions audibles malgré les mesures objectives relativement grandes : 1.73 dB pour la distorsion spectrale moyenne, 13.88% pour les outliers 2-4 dB et 0.22 % pour ceux supérieurs à 4 dB. Cette qualité est due à la bonne allocation des bits entre les tables de la quantification scalaire [16], [17].

4. SYSTEME D'ENUMERATION EN TREILLIS POUR LA QUANTIFICATION DES LSF

La quantification par énumération en treillis est une méthode qui utilise une quantification scalaire (ou QS) à l'origine. La dénomination "treillis" vient du fait que la quantification donne un indice relatif au chemin optimal parcouru à travers les tables de la quantification scalaire en question. Le système en treillis dans la quantification scalaire des coefficients LSF profite de l'ordre ascendant de ces coefficients.

4.1 Quantification par énumération en treillis.

Une fine analyse des combinaisons des différents éléments de la table de la quantification scalaire utilisée dans la norme FS1016 a montré qu'il y avait un nombre très important de vecteurs LSF qui, s'ils étaient utilisés, rendraient le filtre de synthèse instable. Aussi, ce système est conçu pour éviter les combinaisons donnant des vecteurs

non acceptables en sortie du quantificateur (soit par exemple $LSF_2 < LSF_1$).

Dans ce qui va suivre nous proposons d'appliquer une méthode d'énumération utilisant un système en treillis réduisant le nombre de bits nécessaires aux coefficients LSF à 30 bits au lieu de 34 bits, sans changer les tables de la quantification scalaire suscitée. Autrement dit, il s'agit de modifier la façon de les indexer, de sorte à permettre un gain en débit.

4.2 Algorithme de codage

Pour comprendre l'algorithme de quantification qui va suivre, on donne les notations suivantes :

- LSF_i est le coefficient d'ordre i obtenu après analyse.
- Le mot-code du coefficient LSF_i est donné par $\hat{LSF}_{i,j}$.

L'opération de quantification sera notée :

$$QS_{34}(LSF_i) = \hat{LSF}_{i,j}$$

- Pour un ordre de prédiction p , le nombre maximal de combinaisons que les tables de cette QS pourraient donner est : $N_{max} = \prod_{i=1}^p 2^{b_i}$ où b_i est le nombre de bits accordé à la i^{eme} table.

- $N_{i+1}(j)$ est le nombre de chemins possibles allant du mot-code du coefficient LSF_i dans la table C_i à l'indice j (soit $\hat{LSF}_{i,j}$), pour atteindre le mot-code du dernier coefficient de la table C_p , tout en vérifiant la propriété d'ordonnement donnée par l'équation (4).

Ainsi, pour une position j dans la table C_{p-1} , le nombre de combinaisons possibles pour atteindre le dernier coefficient dans la table C_p est donné par :

$$N_p(j) = \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ \hat{LSF}_{p,k} > \hat{LSF}_{p-1,j}}^{2^p}} 1, \quad 1 \leq j \leq 2^{b_{p-1}} \quad (5)$$

Autrement dit, de la position j se trouvant dans la table C_{p-1} , on peut former $N_p(j)$ transitions possibles vers la table C_p .

La figure 1 donne un exemple avec les deux tables 9 et 10 du FS1016. On dénombre un total de 52 chemins possibles entre de ces deux tables.

Dans cet ordre d'idée, nous donnons un autre exemple montrant le calcul du nombre de chemins possibles lorsqu'on se place dans la dernière position de la table C_8 (figure 2). D'après le tableau 1, on dénombre sept chemins possibles permettant d'atteindre des mot-codes au niveau de la table C_{10} .

On peut refaire le même dénombrement pour les autres positions dans C_8 . Finalement, on obtient respectivement : 52, 52, 52, 52, 44, 36, 20. Avec les 7 chemins précédents, cela donne un total de 315 chemins possibles.

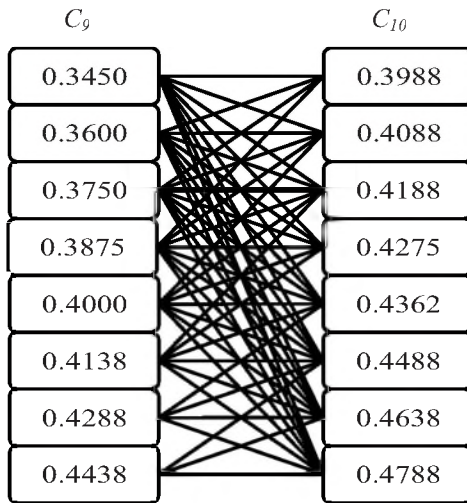


Figure 1 : Exemple de transitions de la table 9 vers la table 10 du QS du CELP FS 1016.

Dans le tableau 2, on donne le nombre de tous les chemins possibles menant de n'importe quelle position dans une table C_i quelconque jusqu'à la table C_{10} en respectant la propriété d'ordonnement.

Pour chaque $\hat{L}SF_{i,j}$, $1 \leq i \leq p-1$, $1 \leq j \leq 2^{b_i}$ on a :

$$N_{i+1}(j) = \sum_{\hat{L}SF_{i+1,k} > \hat{L}SF_{i,j}} N_{i+2}(k) \quad (6)$$

Autrement dit, d'un niveau j dans la table C_i , on aura N_{i+1} chemins possibles correspondant à une bonne succession des coefficients LSF . Ces chemins peuvent se

déduire de la connaissance du nombre de chemin à l'ordre $i+2$.

Notons que la progression est du type arrière (ou *backward*).

• Le total des combinaisons possibles est :

$$N(p, \bar{C}) = \sum_{j=1}^l N_2(j) \quad (7)$$

Où $\bar{C} = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_p\}$ et $l = 2^{b_1}$

$N_2(j)$ est le nombre de combinaisons possibles de coefficients vérifiant :

$$\hat{L}SF_{1,j} < \hat{L}SF_{2,k}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq 2^{b_1}, 1 \leq k \leq 2^{b_2}.$$

Dans le cas du codeur CELP FS1016, $N(p, \bar{C})$ vaut 554958388.

Formellement, le nombre de bits nécessaires est :

$$K = \lceil \log_2(N(p, \bar{C})) \rceil \quad (8)$$

où $\lceil x \rceil$ désigne le plus petit entier supérieur à x .

K vaut 30 bits dans le cas précédent. On peut remarquer

que $K \leq \sum_{i=1}^p b_i$.

• Dans l'algorithme suivant, m désigne le plus petit ordre dans la table C_i tel que le mot-code d'ordre m soit directement supérieur au coefficient LSF_{i-1} dont l'ordre est j dans C_{i-1} , c-à-d : $\hat{L}SF_{i-1,j} < \hat{L}SF_{i,m}$

Par ailleurs, les valeurs N_i sont celles déterminées précédemment (Tableau 2). On notera par c le mot-code de l'énumération en treillis qui sera initialisé à zéro.

Algorithme de codage :

Etape 1 : Trouver j tel que $QS_{34}(LSF_1) = \hat{L}SF_{1,j}$ avec $1 \leq j \leq 2^{b_1}$ et mettre $j^* = j-1$

Etape 2 : Initialiser $c = 0$ si $j^* = 1$ sinon $c = \sum_{k=1}^{j^*} N_2(k)$

Etape 3 : Pour $i = 2$ à p

$$m = \arg \min_{k=1..2^{b_i}} (\hat{L}SF_{i-1,j^*} < \hat{L}SF_{i,k})$$

Trouver j tel que $QS_{34}(LSF_i) = \hat{L}SF_{i,j}$ avec $1 \leq j \leq 2^{b_i}$ et mettre $j^* = j-1$

$$\text{si } j^* \neq m \text{ calculer } c = c + \sum_{k=m}^{j^*} N_{i+1}(k-1)$$

Etape 4 : Le mot-code d'énumération en treillis est donné par c .

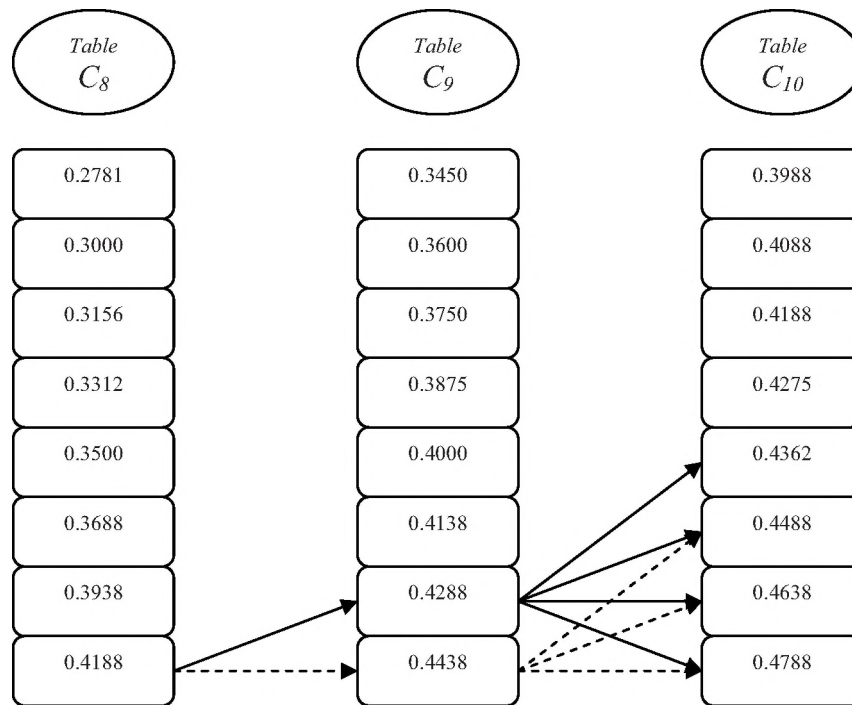


Figure. 2 : Exemple donnant les chemins possibles partant de la 8^{ème} position dans la table C_8 pour atteindre le dernier mot-code au niveau de la table C_{10} .

Tableau 2 : Le nombre des chemins possibles N_i partant de la table C_1 jusqu'à la table C_{10}

Indice dans la table C_{i-1}	N_i : Nombres de chemin possibles partant de la table C_{i-1}									
	N2	N3	N4	N5	N6	N7	N8	N9	N10	N11
1	97762793	8512383	896795	96022	9455	1904	315	52	8	1
2	97762793	8512383	896795	96022	9455	1904	315	52	8	1
3	89250410	8512383	896795	96022	9455	1904	315	52	8	1
4	80738027	8512383	896795	96022	9455	1589	315	52	8	1
5	72225644	8512383	896795	96022	9455	959	263	44	7	1
6	55200878	8512383	800773	96022	9455	644	211	36	6	1
7	38176112	8512383	704751	77112	9455	381	107	20	4	1
8	23841731	7615588	608729	67657	7551	170	63	7	3	1
9	554958388	6718793	512707	58202	5647	9455	1904	315	52	8
10		5821998	416685	39292	5647					
11		4925203	320663	29837	3743					
12		4028408	243551	22286	2154					
13		3227635	175894	10992	2154					
14		2522884	117692	7249	1195					
15		1914155	78400	5095	1195					
16		1401448	48563	2941	551					
		97762793	8512383	896795	96022					

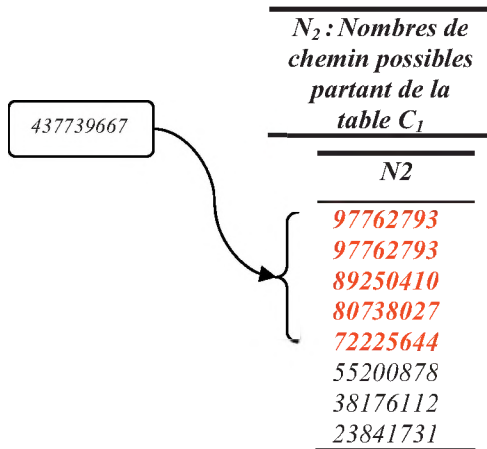


Figure 3 : Exemple de calcul du mot-code c pour le coefficient LSF_1

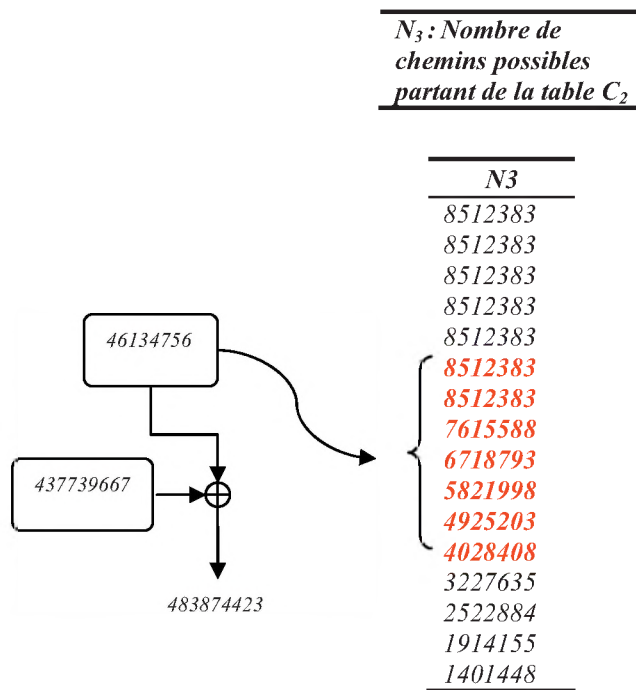


Figure 4 : Calcul du mot-code c pour le coefficient LSF_2

Pour une meilleure compréhension de l'algorithme, nous prenons l'exemple de la quantification du vecteur LSF suivant :

$$LSF = [0.0409 \ 0.0869 \ 0.1312 \ 0.1621 \ 0.2340 \ 0.2649 \ 0.3052 \ 0.3321 \ 0.3830 \ 0.4073],$$

obtenu après analyse d'une trame de 30 ms du signal parole.

Le déroulement de l'opération de quantification suit les étapes suivantes : dans les deux premières étapes, on cherche le mot-code du premier coefficient LSF_1 , en appliquant l'algorithme de la quantification scalaire du FS1016. On s'intéresse ici à son indice.

Dans notre cas, il s'agit de l'indice $j=6$ et par conséquent on aura : $j^*=6-1=5$. Comme $j^* \neq 1$, on calculera donc c en utilisant le tableau 2 et selon la figure (3), c'est-à-dire comme suit :

$$c = \sum_{k=1}^5 N_2(k) = 437739667 \quad (9)$$

Dans une troisième étape, on déroule une boucle qui commence au coefficient LSF_2 pour atteindre le coefficient LSF_{10} . Pendant ce déroulement, on détermine d'abord l'ordre m comme indiqué plus haut. Dans le cas de LSF_2 , m vaut 6. Par la suite, on cherche, comme dans la première étape, l'indice j du représentant du coefficient LSF_2 . Dans cet exemple j vaut 13 et on aura alors $j^* = 12$.

Comme $j^* \neq m$, on continue on calcule c comme suit :

$$c = c + \sum_{k=m}^{j^*} N_{i+1}(k-1) \quad (10)$$

Ainsi, pour le cas du LSF_2 et comme indiqué à la figure 4,

$$\text{on aura } c = 437739667 + \sum_{k=6}^{12} N_3(k-1), \text{ soit}$$

$$c = 483874423.$$

Les mêmes opérations seront répétées pour les coefficients qui restent et on obtient les résultats suivants :

LSF_3	$j^* = 10$	$m = 7$	$c = 486117295$
LSF_4	$j^* = 8$	$m = 7$	$c = 486262064$
LSF_5	$j^* = 11$	$m = 5$	$c = 486313017$
LSF_6	$j^* = 5$	$m = 5$	$c = 486313976$
LSF_7	$j^* = 5$	$m = 5$	$c = 486314239$
LSF_8	$j^* = 3$	$m = 3$	$c = 486314291$
LSF_9	$j^* = 3$	$m = 1$	$c = 486314315$
LSF_{10}	$j^* = 1$	$m = 1$	$c = 486314316$

A ce niveau de la quatrième étape, on transmettra seulement l'indice c obtenu à la fin du traitement de la table de LSF_{10} c'est-à-dire $c=483874423$ et qui sera codé sur 30 bits, car c vaut en binaire:

01110011111001001000101001100.

4.3 Algorithme de décodage

Au niveau de la réception, le nombre c sera réceptionné pour être utilisé dans l'opération inverse, telle que donnée par l'algorithme de décodage suivant.

Dans le cas de l'exemple précédent, c a été trouvé égal à 486 314 316. Dans la première étape de l'algorithme, on cherchera l'indice j tel que c vérifie :

$$\sum_{k=1}^{j-1} N_2(k-1) \leq c < \sum_{k=1}^j N_2(k-1) \quad (11)$$

D'après le tableau 2 et la figure 5, on remarque que la valeur $j=5$ vérifie cette relation. En effet, on a :

$$\sum_{k=1}^5 N_2(k-1) = 437 \ 739 \ 667$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^6 N_2(k-1) = 492 \ 940 \ 545 \quad (12)$$

Ainsi, le représentant du premier coefficient a un indice égal à 6. D'où $\hat{LSF}_1 = 0.0425$ et, selon l'algorithme, l'indice j^* sera égal à $6 - 1 = 5$.

A la deuxième étape on retranchera de c la valeur $\sum_{k=1}^5 N_2(k-1) = 437739667$ pour avoir une nouvelle valeur de $c = 48574649$.

A l'étape trois, une boucle qui commencera à partir du coefficient LSF_2 jusqu'au dernier coefficient LSF_{10} itérera les opérations indiquées dans l'algorithme. Pour le coefficient LSF_2 , par exemple, on effectuera les opérations suivantes.

- Trouver m tel que $m = M_2(\hat{LSF}_{1,6})$.

D'après la table C_2 de la quantification scalaire du FS1016, m vaut 6 (Tableau 1).

Comme $c \neq 0$, on cherchera j vérifiant

$$\sum_{k=m}^{j-1} N_3(k-1) \leq c < \sum_{k=m}^j N_3(k-1) \quad (13)$$

j vaut donc 13 selon le tableau 2, car les deux bornes inférieure et supérieure sont égales respectivement à 46134756 et à 49362391 (figure 6).

- On met $j^* = j - 1 = 12$ et on attribue à LSF_2 la valeur 0.0838.

Algorithme de décodage :

Etape 1. Trouver j tel que $\sum_{k=1}^{j-1} N_2(\hat{L}SF_{1,k-1}) \leq c < \sum_{k=1}^j N_2(\hat{L}SF_{1,k-1})$ où $1 \leq j \leq 2^{b_2}$ et mettre $j^* = j-1$.

Mettre $\hat{L}SF_1 = \hat{L}SF_{1,j^*}$

Etape 2. Calculer $c = c - \sum_{k=1}^{j^*} N_2(\hat{L}SF_{i,j^*})$

Etape 3. pour $i=2$ à p

$m = \arg \min_{k=1..2^{b_i}} (L\hat{S}F_{i-1,j^*} < L\hat{S}F_{i-1,k})$

Mettre $j = m$ si $c = 0$ sinon trouver j tel que

$\sum_{k=m}^{j-1} N_{i+1}(\hat{L}SF_{1,k-1}) \leq c < \sum_{k=m}^j N_{i+1}(\hat{L}SF_{1,k-1})$ où $1 \leq j \leq 2^{b_i}$ et mettre $j^* = j-1$

Mettre $\hat{L}SF_i = \hat{L}SF_{i,j^*}$

si $j^* \neq m$ calculer $c = c - \sum_{k=1}^{j^*} N_{i+1}(\hat{L}SF_{i,j^*})$

Etape 4. Le vecteur LSF reconstitué est donné par $\{\hat{L}SF_1, \hat{L}SF_2, \hat{L}SF_3, \dots, \hat{L}SF_p\}$

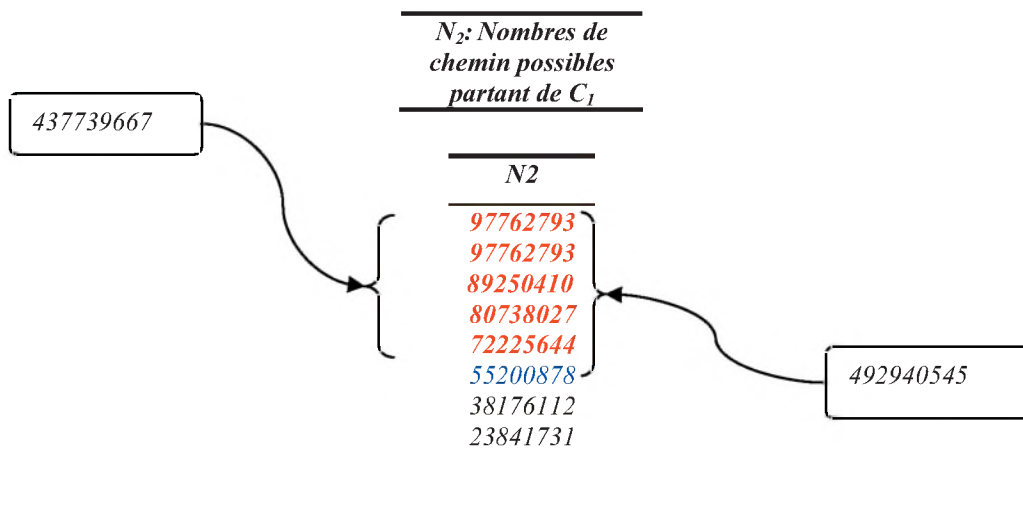


Figure 5 : Détermination de l'indice de LSF_1 (pour $c = 483\ 874\ 423$). Les valeurs sont extraites du tableau 2

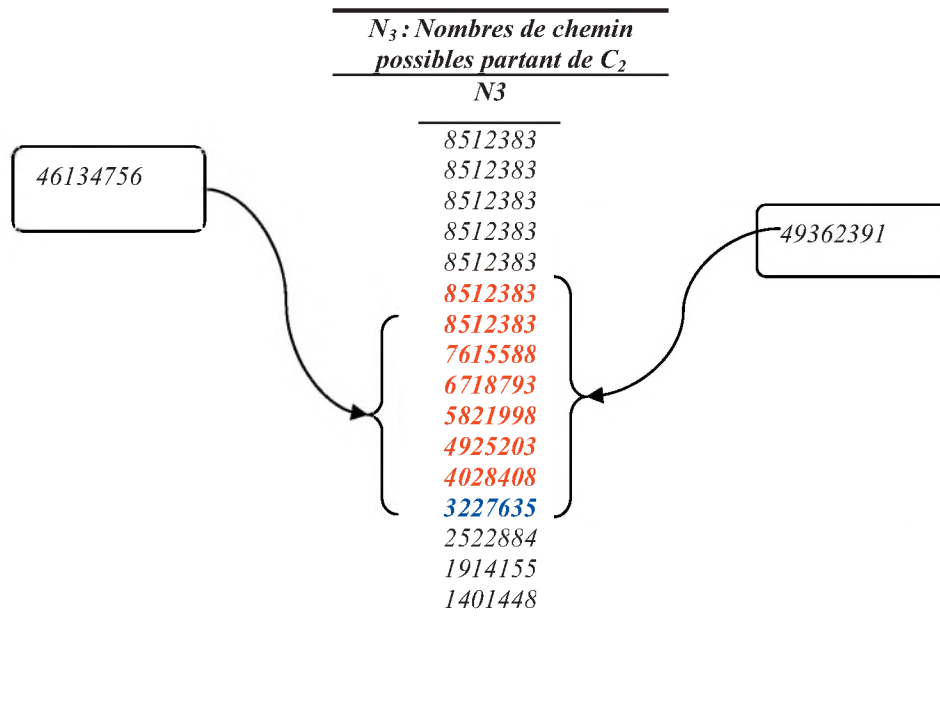


Figure 6 : Détermination de l'indice de LSF_2

Puisque de nouveau, $j^* \neq m$, c sera alors comparé à 46134756 et ce pour avoir un nouveau c égal à 2439893 ($c-46134756 = 2439893$).

Les mêmes étapes que précédemment seront réitérées pour le reste des coefficients LSF .

5. RESULTATS ET INTERPRETATIONS

- *Complexité*

La complexité du codeur FS1016 est de 8.8 Mflops [41]. Dans notre cas, nous ajoutons $(6 \times 8 + 4 \times 16) = 112$ additions et autant de comparaisons pour la partie codage. Ceci correspond 0.007 Mflops, qui reste très faible devant la complexité initiale. Pour le décodeur, 278 additions et 674 comparaisons sont ajoutées, comparativement au décodeur initial, soit 0.032 Mflops.

En ce qui concerne l'occupation mémoire, celle des données augmente légèrement. 110 mots de 32 bits sont nécessaires pour stocker les valeurs entières du tableau 2. Ceci est valable aussi bien pour le codeur que pour le décodeur. Pour la mémoire programme, celle-ci augmente de 10% pour le codeur et de 23% pour le décodeur.

- *Distorsion spectrale*

Des tests sur le standard FS1016, aussi bien avec la

quantification scalaire classique qu'avec l'application du système d'énumération en treillis, ont été effectués sur deux bases de données de parole, l'une extraite de la base Américaine (TIMIT) [42] et l'autre Arabe (PAPE) [43]. Pour les deux bases de données, les trames silencieuses des débuts et des fins de phrases ont été limitées à un maximum de 2 trames.

TIMIT est une base de données de parole échantillonnée à 16 KHz comprenant huit dialectes des Etats-Unis (USA). En pratique, et dans le codage à très bas débit nous utilisons des fichiers de parole échantillonnés à 8 KHz, ce qui nous a conduit à sous-échantillonner les 6300 fichiers utilisés de TIMIT à 8KHz. Un total de 112 000 trames de 30 ms a été utilisé.

Une autre base de données de parole arabe PAPE (Phrases Arabes Phonétiquement Equilibrées) a été aussi utilisée dans les tests objectifs. Son enregistrement a été effectué en chambre sourde à l'Institut ICP de Grenoble par six locuteurs algériens (trois masculins et trois féminins) de niveaux universitaires parlant correctement l'arabe. Les fichiers de parole étaient échantillonnés à 10 KHz. Ils forment un total de 106 334 trames de 30 ms. De même que pour la base de données précédente, nous avons dû opérer un sous-échantillonnage à 8 KHz.

Les performances du quantificateur sont évaluées par la distorsion spectrale moyenne SD (Spectral Distorsion) qui est souvent utilisée comme mesure objective de la performance d'encodage des paramètres LSF. Cette

mesure de distorsion fournit une bonne corrélation avec la perception auditive humaine. Développée et calculée sur une largeur de bande limitée, son expression discrète, pour une trame i , est donnée en *décibels* par [7], [28], [44]

$$SD_i = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1 - n_0} \sum_{n=n_0}^{n_1-1} \left[10 \log \frac{S(e^{j2\pi n/N})}{\hat{S}(e^{j2\pi n/N})} \right]^2} \quad (14)$$

Pour un signal de parole échantillonné à 8 kHz avec une largeur de bande de 3 kHz, une FFT sur 256 points est utilisée pour calculer les spectres de puissance originaux $S(e^{j2\pi n/N})$ et quantifiés $\hat{S}(e^{j2\pi n/N})$ du filtre de synthèse LPC de la i ème trame du signal de parole. Pour le calcul de la SD , Ramachandran et al. [45] utilisent la bande 125-3000 Hz, avec une résolution de 31.25 Hz. Paliwal et Atal. [28] considèrent la bande 0-3000 Hz et utilisent une résolution de 15 Hz. Pour leur part, LeBlanc et al. [44] considèrent la bande 125 Hz-3.1 KHz et une résolution de 31.25 Hz. Dans notre cas, nous avons retenu la bande et la résolution de LeBlanc et al. La SD est donc calculée avec une résolution de 31.25 Hz par échantillon. Dans l'équation (14), n_0 et n_1 correspondent donc respectivement à 125 Hz et 3125 Hz et valent 4 et 100. Ainsi, 96 raies spectrales uniformément espacées seront utilisées dans l'équation (14).

La SD moyenne est évaluée pour tout le nombre de trames N_f de la base de donnée parole, soit :

$$\overline{SD} = \frac{1}{N_f} \sum_{i=1}^{N_f} SD_i \quad (15)$$

En général, une \overline{SD} d'environ 1 dB indique que la distorsion perçue pendant la quantification est négligeable. Dans le passé, cette valeur a été suggérée comme seuil pour la transparence spectrale de la parole (une qualité de quantification est dite transparente si aucune distorsion audible due à cette quantification n'est introduite dans la parole codée). Paliwal et Atal [28] ont établi que la SD moyenne n'est pas suffisante pour mesurer seule la qualité perçue. Ils ont introduit la notion des trames spectrales externes (outliers frames). Par conséquent, nous pouvons obtenir une qualité de codage transparent si les trois conditions suivantes sont maintenues 1) la SD moyenne est d'environ 1 dB, 2) le pourcentage des trames «outliers» ayant une SD entre 2 et 4 dB est moins de 2% et 3) aucune trame ne doit avoir une SD qui dépasse 4 dB.

Le traitement de 218 334 trames extraites des deux bases de données précédentes a donné une distorsion spectrale moyenne de 1.73 dB, 13.88 pour les % 2-4 dB et 0.22 pour les % supérieurs à 4 dB, confirmant les

résultats donnés dans la littérature concernant ce standard [9].

- *Sensibilité aux erreurs binaires*

Ce travail est axé essentiellement sur un codage source. Il convient parfaitement pour un canal sans pertes. Cependant, la sensibilité aux erreurs binaires mérite d'être approfondie ultérieurement. En effet, nous avons constaté une légère dégradation des performances de cette modification du codeur (sans protection) dès que le taux d'erreurs binaires ou BER (bit error rate) dépasse 10^{-2} (tableau 3, cas d'un BSC). Les mêmes distorsions ne sont observées qu'aux environs de 5×10^{-3} dans le cas du FS 1016 classique. Ceci était prévisible, vu que l'indice de 30 bits, obtenu par notre approche, est plus sensible que le vecteur obtenu par l'allocation initiale de 34 bits (partagés de façon non uniforme). Cependant, une conduite de notre méthode par une approche telle que celle abordée par Secker et Perkis [46] et portant sur un codage conjoint canal-source permettrait de mieux exploiter notre approche.

Tableau 3. Performances du codeur mis au point (Entre parenthèses, le FS1016 classique)

BER	SD	SD > 2 dB
Idéal	1.73 (1.73)	13.88 (13.88)
0.001	1.85 (1.84)	14.91 (14.85)
0.01	4.53 (2.04)	27.28 (18.23)
0.05	7.89 (4.18)	44.12 (28.17)

6. CONCLUSION


Dans cet article, nous avons présenté le système d'énumération en treillis que nous proposons d'appliquer à la quantification des coefficients LSF en vue de diminuer le débit alloué à ces coefficients dans le standard CELP FS1016, sans changer ses tables de quantification. En fait, nous avons noté que seulement 3.25 % des combinaisons totales que l'on peut former avec les éléments de ces tables de quantification, peuvent vérifier la propriété d'ordonnement des coefficients LSF et conduisent ainsi à un filtre stable. L'application d'un système d'énumération en treillis nous a permis d'établir de nouveaux algorithmes respectivement de codage et de décodage. Ces algorithmes ont été explicités par des exemples détaillés. Nous avons montré, que ce système permet de diminuer le nombre de bits nécessaires au codage des LSF de 34 bits à 30 bits. Les performances de ce système d'énumération ont été évaluées sur 218 334 vecteurs LSF et ont donné une distorsion spectrale de 1.73 dB, avec des outliers de 13.88 % pour 2-4 dB et 0.22

% pour ceux >4dB, résultat analogue à celui du standard FS1016, mais avec un gain en débit de 133 bits/s.


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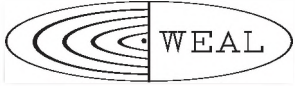


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WAVELET-BASED SOLUTION OF INTEGRAL EQUATIONS FOR ACOUSTIC SCATTERING

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ABSTRACT

In this work, the multi-resolution wavelet analysis is used to solve Helmholtz integral equation for acoustic scattering. The integral equation is solved using moment method with wavelet basis. The unknown field is expressed as a two fold summation of shifted and dilated forms of a properly chosen mother wavelet. The wavelet expansion covers the scatterer surface for distributing the wavelet localized functions. A simpler formulation of a square wavelet operator is proposed and tested in this investigation to obtain the moment matrix. The proposed operator saves some traditional stages of wavelet transform and accordingly a part of the computations required. The square matrix inversion can be implemented easily on different media. The resulting matrix can be made sparse by applying an appropriate threshold. The solution of such sparse matrix saves a large portion of the computational load. The accuracy of the proposed solution is compared to the exact solution of the problem. Computational savings are illustrated for acoustic scattering on a sphere for different wave numbers and wavelet bases order.

SOMMAIRE

Dans ce travail, l'analyse de ondelette est employée pour résoudre l'équation intégrale de Helmholtz pour la dispersion acoustique. L'équation intégrale est résolue en utilisant la méthode de moment avec la base de ondelette. Le champ inconnu est exprimé comme une addition de deux fois des formes décalées et dilatées d'un ondelette correctement choisi de mère. L'expansion de ondelette couvre la surface de diffuseur pour distribuer les fonctions localisées par ondelette. Un opérateur carré de ondelette est proposé dans une formulation plus simple et examiné pour que ce problème obtienne la matrice de moment. L'opérateur proposé sauve quelques étapes traditionnelles de ondelette transforment et en conséquence une partie des calculs priés. L'inversion carrée de matrice peut être mise en application facilement sur différents médias. L'application d'un seuil approprié sur la matrice résultante la rend clairsemée. La solution d'une telle matrice clairsemée sauve une grande partie du volume des calculs. L'exactitude de la solution proposée est examinée par l'intermédiaire de la comparaison avec la solution exacte du problème. L'épargne informatique est illustrée pour la dispersion acoustique sur une sphère pour des nombres de vague et l'ordre différents de bases de ondelette.

1. INTRODUCTION

The surface Helmholtz integral equation is a common approach for the problem of acoustic scattering by obstacles. A general procedure for finding a solution of Helmholtz integral equation that is accurate enough for many practical purposes is the method of moments. Standard moment-method approaches are well suited for the solution of scattering problems as long as the length scale is comparable to the wavelength [1]. The moment method is essentially a discretization scheme whereby a general operator equation is transformed into a matrix equation which can be solved numerically. This transformation is affected by projections on subspaces, which for acoustic scattering bodies are of finite dimensions. The resulting matrix is always dense when the conventional expansion and testing functions are used. Recently, there has been much interest in using wavelet basis to sparsify that dense moment matrix [2]-[4]. In this work, the technique of moment matrix sparsification is used for solving the acoustic

scattering problem.

If wavelet basis is used, the moment matrix sparsity depends mainly on two factors. First, the choice of mother wavelet function can help in obtaining the moment matrix which is amenable to be sparsified. The other factor is the sparsification threshold which may yield maximum sparsity while sufficient accuracy of the solution is retained.

In this work, the scattering field is expanded in terms of wavelet basis functions. A mother wavelet basis is chosen to cope with the acoustic problem details. The dilated and shifted version of the chosen basis are distributed along the surface of the scatterer. This distribution ensures localized accurate fitting with different field modes on all surface points. The substitution of such expansion into the integral equation results in a moment matrix. This matrix can be thresholded appropriately to obtain a sparse matrix. The resulting moment matrix is rearranged such that a simple formulation of a square matrix operator is introduced. The proposed operator can be applied to the conventional moment matrix.

This formulation differs from other traditional transformation methods [2], [3] in that only single matrix operator is used. The square operator matrix helps in implementation and speeds up the computations on different media. The squaring is kept by using wrap around filter coefficients along the matrix rows. The filtering is implemented as circular convolutions [5]. The resulting moment matrix is then thresholded to be sparsified. Different thresholds are tested with different Daubechies wavelet basis orders. The mathematical formulation of the problem follows the work of [6] for axisymmetric bodies and we consider similar test cases especially for the rigid sphere which has well known analytical solution [7].

In summary this work addresses the following issues:

- a- Introduce a square operator for wavelet-based solution of Helmholtz integral equation which saves a matrix multiplication stage of traditional methods.
- b- Test the wavelet-based solution on acoustic scattering on a sphere as an axisymmetric body based on the formulation in [6] at non-characteristic wavenumbers ($ka < \pi$) while the nonuniqueness associated with the characteristic wavenumbers is discussed in [8].
- c- The proposed solution reduces the required memory storage and processing time of the acoustic scattering problem as compared to existing direct methods.
- d- The memory storage and processing time reduction is a result of the obtained sparse moment matrix after applying wavelet expansion.
- e- The results proves the success of the method in saving computational load while the accuracy is retained as compared to exact solution of the problem which is available for simple geometries like a sphere [6], [7], [9] and [10].

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, the application of wavelet transform is discussed for solving integral equation of acoustic scattering. Section 3 introduces the multiresolution analysis using wavelet and the proposed operator is presented in Section 4. The numerical implementation is discussed in Section 5. The proposed algorithm is, then, summarized in Section 6. Numerical results are presented in Section, 7 using different wavelet basis orders and sparsifying thresholds. In Section 8, some concluding remarks are given.

2. A SUMMARY OF THE INTEGRAL EQUATION FORMULATION IN ACOUSTICS

The boundary integral formulation for acoustic scattering is valid for an acoustic medium B' exterior to a finite body B with surface S on which a unit normal \mathbf{n} , pointing into B' , is defined. The body B is submerged into an infinite linear acoustic medium. When a harmonic acoustic wave ϕ^i impinges upon that body B , the resulting integral equation for smooth boundaries has the following form [9];

$$\chi(P) \phi(P) = \int_S (\phi(Q) G'(P,Q) - G(P,Q) \phi'(Q)) dS_Q + 4 \pi \phi^i(P) \quad (1)$$

Equation 1 is the standard surface Helmholtz integral equation, where $\phi(P) = \phi(r_P) e^{i\omega t}$ at a point P and Q is a point on the body surface.

Where
$$\phi'(Q) = \frac{\partial \phi(Q)}{\partial n}$$

and
$$G'(P,Q) = \frac{\partial G(P,Q)}{\partial n}$$

\mathbf{n} is the unit vector normal to the surface of the scatterer body and into the surrounding space, and n is the distance along the external normal vector \mathbf{n} .

The free-space Green's function G for Helmholtz wave equation is given by

$G(P,Q) = e^{-ikR}/R$, where R is the distance between the field point P and a source point Q and k is the wave number. The distance is given by

$$R = |\mathbf{r}_P - \mathbf{r}_Q|$$

The coefficient $\chi(P)$ has the value 0 for P in B , the value 4π for P in B' , and the value 2π for P on a smooth S (there is a unique tangent to S at such a point P).

At the surface of a hard scatterer, the normal component $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ of the fluid particle velocity \mathbf{u} is zero; i.e. $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = 0$ while, at the surface of a soft scatterer, the excess pressure is zero; i.e. $\phi = 0$.

Both the body shape and the acoustic variables are independent of the angle of the revolution of the body for a fully axisymmetric scattering case. For scattering, this implies that the direction of the incident wave must coincide with the axis of revolution of the body. The singularity regularization is similar to that used in [6]. This formulation can be summarized as follows.

Consider an axisymmetric body, the integrals in equation (1) can be rewritten using a cylindrical coordinate system (ρ, θ, z) as follows:

For hard scatterer

$$\int_L \phi(Q) \left[\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\partial}{\partial n} (G(P, Q)) d\theta(Q) \right] \rho(Q) dL(Q) = \chi(P) \phi(P) - 4\pi \phi^i(P) \quad (1a)$$

Or for soft scatterer

$$\int_L \frac{\partial \phi(Q)}{\partial n} \left[\int_0^{2\pi} (G(P, Q)) d\theta(Q) \right] \rho(Q) dL(Q) = \chi(P) \phi(P) + 4\pi \phi^i(P) \quad (1b)$$

These integrals can be rewritten in the form

$$\int \phi(Q) K1(P, Q) \rho(Q) dL(Q) = \chi(P) \phi(P) - 4\pi \phi^i(P) \quad (2)$$

Or

$$\int \frac{\partial \phi(Q)}{\partial n} K2(P, Q) \rho(Q) dL(Q) = \chi(P) \phi(P) + 4\pi \phi^i(P) \quad (3)$$

where the axisymmetric assumption implies that the field $\phi(P)$ and its derivative are independent of $\theta(P)$ and the differential area element is defined as

$$dS(Q) = \rho(Q) d\theta(Q) dL(Q)$$

where $dL(Q)$ is the differential length of the generator L of the body at a surface point Q , where Q now is interpreted as an arbitrary point on L only.

The evaluation of the integrands in Equations (2) and (3) requires the evaluation of the following:

$$K1(P, Q) = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \left(\frac{e^{-ikR(P, Q)}}{R(P, Q)} \right) d\theta(Q) \quad (4)$$

$$K2(P, Q) = \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\frac{e^{-ikR(P, Q)}}{R(P, Q)} \right) d\theta(Q) \quad (5)$$

The integrands in Equations (4) and (5) are singular and the singularities can be removed using the scheme developed by Seybert et. al. [6].

3. WAVELET MULTIREOLUTION ANALYSIS

The concepts of wavelet expansion and multiresolution analysis will be summarized in this section. A set of subspaces $\{S_j\}$ where $j \in \mathbb{Z}$ is said to be a multiresolution approximation of $L^2(R)$ if the following relations are applied

$$S_j \subset S_{j+1} \quad \forall j \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} S_j = L^2 \quad \forall j \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\bigcap_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} S_j = \{0\}$$

$$f(2x) \in S_{j-1} \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in S_j$$

$$f(x) \in S_j \Leftrightarrow f(x - 2^{-j}n) \in S_j \quad \forall j, n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

where \mathbb{Z} is the set of integers.

A wavelet family is generated from what is called mother wavelet. All wavelets of a family share the same properties and their collection constitutes a complete basis. A wavelet ψ_{jk} is defined as follows:

$$\psi_{jk}(x) = 2^{j/2} \psi(2^j x - k) \quad (6)$$

where j and k are indices indicating scale and location of a particular wavelet. Accordingly, the wavelet family is a collection of wavelet functions $\psi_{jk}(x)$ that are translated along the real axis x , then dilated by 2^j times and the new dilated wavelet is translated along the real line again. The wavelet function must have local (or almost local) support in both spatial and frequency domains.

The decomposition of a discrete signal in orthonormal bases functions is called a multiresolution analysis. An approximation of a function $f(x) \in L^2(R)$ at a resolution of 2^j , can be defined as the projection on different wavelet functions

$$f(x) = \sum_j \sum_k a_{jk} \psi_{jk}(x) \quad j, k = 0..M \quad (7)$$

where a_{jk} is the amplitude of each wavelet at different resolutions (scales) and locations.

A formal approximation of the unknown function at a given resolution, with a finite number of successive length scales, requires both scaling and translation operators across the expansion dimension. From a practical point of view, the

approximate solution of an integral equation can be expressed as a summation of an approximate function $C(x)$ and a series of orthogonal wavelets for the finer details.

The approximation function $C(x)$ can represent the d-c value along the solution domain [1]. More general form of equation (7) can be written as follows

$$f(x) = a_0 C(x) + \sum_{m=1}^{m_2} \sum_{n=1}^{n_2} a_{mn} \psi_{mn}(x) \quad (8)$$

where a_0 and a_{mn} are yet to be determined coefficients and

$$C(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in \text{problem boundary} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The summation in Equation (8) is over values of m ranging from m_1 , which corresponds to the larger characteristic length scale, to m_2 , which corresponds to the desired resolution in scaling. Recalling that with reference to $\psi_{00}(x)$, the effective width of $\psi_{mn}(x)$ is changed gradually by a factor of 2^m and its center-a point on the wavelet grid- is shifted by the distance $n2^m$. For a given value of m , the number of wavelet functions, $N(m) = n_2 - n_1$, is set so that their centers fall within the problem domain and outside. Hence as m increases, more wavelets and more grid points are involved at each resolution level.

The discrimination between two classes of wavelet families should be considered in the selection of wavelet family for multiresolution analysis. Further, these functions should be orthonormal. The following two examples exhibit the localization properties of wavelets.

$$\text{Shannon family } \psi(x) = \frac{\sin(\pi x / 2)}{\pi x / 2} \cos\left(\frac{3\pi x}{2}\right)$$

$$\text{Haar family } \psi(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq x < 0.5 \\ -1 & 0.5 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

The above two wavelet family examples are opposite of each other in terms of their localization properties. The Haar wavelet has good space localization but poor space frequency localization. Its spectrum is non zero when the frequency tends to ∞ . It does not have compact support in the space frequency domain. In

contrast, the Shannon wavelet has non-compact support in space, hence it has poor space localization. In this work, the space localization is essential to cover the scatterer surface [11].

4. WAVELET EXPANSION OF INTEGRAL EQUATIONS

Using the method of moments [12] in solving an integral equation of the form in equations (2) or (3) by substituting (8) into (2) or (3) for an acoustic field function $\phi(Q)$ instead of $f(x)$, we get

$$a_0 \Lambda(P) + \sum_{m=1}^{m_2} \sum_{N(m)} a_{mn} F_{mn}(P, Q) = g(P) \quad (9)$$

where $N(m) = n_2(m) - n_1(m)$, the number of points required to cover a domain L at a resolution 2^{-m} ,

$$\Lambda(P) = \int_L C(Q) K(P, Q) d(Q) \quad Q \in L$$

and

$$F_{mn}(P) = \int_L \psi_{mn}(Q) K(P, Q) dQ$$

where $Q \in L$

In multiresolution analysis in space and frequency each spatial domain is analyzed through different scales or resolutions. Accordingly, the wavelets can be renumbered according to their spatial centers and scales.

Rearranging the elements and coefficients of the Equation (9) and casting them into a matrix form, we get

$$\mathbf{K} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{G} \quad (10)$$

where

$$\mathbf{W}^T = \begin{bmatrix} C(q_1) & C(q_2) & \dots & C(q_N) \\ \psi_{11}(q_1) & \psi_{12}(q_2) & \dots & \psi_{1N}(q_N) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \psi_{N1}(q_1) & \psi_{N2}(q_1) & \dots & \psi_{NN}(q_1) \end{bmatrix}$$

where, matrix \mathbf{W} is cast into squared dimension of $N \times N$ and it can be called the wavelet operator or filter.

And,

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} K(p_1, q_1) & K(p_1, q_2) & \dots & K(p_1, q_N) \\ K(p_2, q_1) & K(p_2, q_2) & \dots & K(p_2, q_N) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ K(p_N, q_1) & K(p_N, q_2) & \dots & K(p_N, q_N) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{G}^T = [G(p1) \quad G(p2) \quad \dots \quad G(pN)]$$

and

$$\mathbf{Y}^T = [A_{n1} \quad A_{n1+1} \quad \dots \quad A_{n2}]$$

The unknown coefficients vector \mathbf{Y} contains subvectors for each scale level. Each subvector represents a distinct length scale. The elements of each subvector are ordered according to their locations. These unknowns are the wavelet amplitudes along the domain L .

$$\mathbf{A}_{ni} = [a_{ni+1} \quad a_{ni+2} \quad \dots \quad a_{ni+N(ni)}]$$

The effective support (nonzero elements) in the operator matrix \mathbf{W} of a wavelet ψ_{mn} as the interval outside of which the wavelet is practically zero.

5. NUMERICAL FORMULATION

Equation (10) can be written at different node points i_p and assuming the index of surface elements i_q , the following discretized form of equation (10), for N nodes on the surface, can be written as follows

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{G}$$

$$\text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{\phi} = \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{Y} \quad (11)$$

where \mathbf{A} is an $N \times N$ matrix. $\boldsymbol{\phi}$ and \mathbf{G} are N vectors. For the hard scatterer $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = 0$, and hence, we can write

$$K(i_p, i_q) = \sum_{i_q=1}^N K1(P, Q) \rho(i_q) dL(i_q) \quad \forall i_p \neq i_q$$

$$K(i_p, i_p) = \sum_{i_q=1}^N K1(P, Q) \rho(i_q) dL(i_q) - 2\pi \quad \forall i_p = i_q$$

and

$$G(i_p) = -4\pi \phi^i(i_p) \quad \forall i_p = 1..N$$

where $\boldsymbol{\phi}$ is an N -dimension vector representing the field strength on the scatterer surface and ϕ^i is the incident field.

The numerical example investigated here is the scattering problem of a plane incident wave impinging on a rigid sphere. The incoming unit plane wave travels

toward the scatterer along the positive direction of z -axis in the cylindrical coordinates described as e^{-ikz} . The surface field $\boldsymbol{\phi}$ is computed using the proposed method. The results will be verified via comparison with the analytical solution. The benefits of the method will be validated by comparing the accuracy and sparsity ratio for different wavelet bases support lengths and sparsity thresholds.

On the surface of a hard sphere, the analytical solution of equation (1) for plane incident wave can be expressed as [7]

$$\phi = \frac{-i}{(ka)^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-i)^n (2n+1) \frac{P_n(\cos \mathcal{G})}{h_n^{(2)}(ka)} \quad (13)$$

where ϕ is the total field as defined in (3) and \mathcal{G} is the co-latitude angle and the incidence angle is taken to be zero in this application. P_n is the Legendre polynomial of order n and h_n is the spherical hankel function and a is the radius of the sphere.

Equation (11) is solved using the proposed system of equation (3)-(8) and the proposed discretization scheme considering different N divisions. Using Daubechies wavelet, the resulting operator matrix \mathbf{W} is square and the maximum number of scaling levels M is defined by $N=2^M$.

The results obtained are then compared to the analytical solution. The normalized error is defined as the ratio between the field (ϕ) error to the analytical solution as follows

$$\text{Normalized Error ratio} = \frac{\|\phi_{wvl} - \phi_{ana}\|}{\|\phi_{ana}\|} \quad (14)$$

where ϕ_{wvl} is the resulted solution form Equation (11) and ϕ_{ana} is the analytical solution given in (13) and $\|\cdot\|$ is the $L2$

norm.

The second comparison parameter is the percentage sparsity S and it is defined as

$$S = N_o/N^2 \times 100\% \quad (15)$$

where N_o is the number of zeros in the matrix \mathbf{A} after thresholding and N is the matrix dimension.

The numerical results are obtained using the direct discretization of the integration in equation (12). These results are compared with that obtained by the proposed method. The comparison discusses the effect of wavelet expansion on saving the computational burden through matrix sparsity and accuracy

of the solution. Different thresholds are tested for increasing matrix sparsity and the accuracy computed for each trial.

6. SOLUTION ALGORITHM

For electromagnetic problems, it was reported that almost identical results are obtained using Daubechies and wavelet-like bases [13] and [14]. Daubechies wavelets are strictly localized in space and approximately localized in spatial frequency as discussed in Section 3 since Haar wavelet is a special case of Daubechies family of order 1. Increasing vanishing moment order produces smoother broader basis function with sharper spectral cut-off frequencies [14]. Also, these wavelets can approximate finer resolutions near boundaries and corners of scattering surfaces. In general, classical wavelets seem to be good in computing low frequency scattering and antenna problems [15]. For these reasons and due to similar mathematical formulation of acoustic scattering, Daubechies wavelets are more appropriate for that problem. Many recent works employed Daubechies wavelets in solving scattering problems [2], [3], [4] and [16].

The solution method can be summarized in the following steps which can be used to solve an integral equation of the second kind.

1. Construct a grid of points at the surface of the considered body.
2. Build system of equations for the integral equation kernel at all points of the grid given by step 1.
3. Build the wavelet multiresolution operator as given in equation (11) considering the Daubechies wavelet filters [17].
4. Apply the operator to the kernel matrix (Direct multiplication of square matrices).
5. Scan the resulting matrix elements and get the maximum element value

$$MAXA = \text{MAX}(A)$$

6. Scan the matrix and compare each element with a threshold as a ratio of the obtained maximum (MAXA) in step 5 and nullify the element which is less than that threshold as follows

$$\text{For } \forall i, j$$

$$\text{If } \mathbf{A}(i, j) < (\text{THR} * \text{MAXA}) \text{ then } \mathbf{A}(i, j) = 0$$

where *THR* is taken with different values as indicated on figures. An average value is around 10^{-3} [5].

7. Solve the resulting sparse matrix considering the given field variation along the solution domain.

7. RESULTS

The problem of acoustic scattering on a hard sphere is solved both numerically using wavelets and analytically. Figures 1 and 3 show comparisons of both solutions graphically for two different Daubechies (2 & 3) wavelet orders for $ka=2$, $N=32$ and 10^{-3} threshold. Each figure contains the exact solution of the corresponding problem for comparison.

Figures 2 and 4 show trend graphs between the sparsity and for the cases of Figures 1 and 2. The trend behavior indicates oscillatory behavior of the error at $ka=2$ when Db2 is used. This behavior can be interpreted based on very small variation in error within the order of 0.015%.

Figure 4 shows monotonic decrease in error with sparsity as expected. These trends also show that the error variation within the used sparsity threshold range is small (in the order of 0.1% at most).

Table 1 A comparison between different solutions using several wavelet bases

<i>Ka</i>	basis	%S	THR	Error	N
1	Db1	33.59	10^{-2}	0.031	16
2	Db2	44.53	10^{-3}	0.044	32
2	Db3	50.97	10^{-3}	0.043	32
2	Db4	61.04	10^{-3}	0.044	32
2.5	Db2	46.29	10^{-3}	0.067	32
2.5	Db3	32.27	10^{-3}	0.067	32

Test results on different wavelet orders, thresholds and noncharacteristic wavenumbers ($ka < \pi$) are summarized in Table1. These results show that the error dose not exceed about 6% and sparsity reaches about 60%. Lower thresholds can give higher sparsity with little deterioration in accuracy as expected from results in Figures 2 and 4.

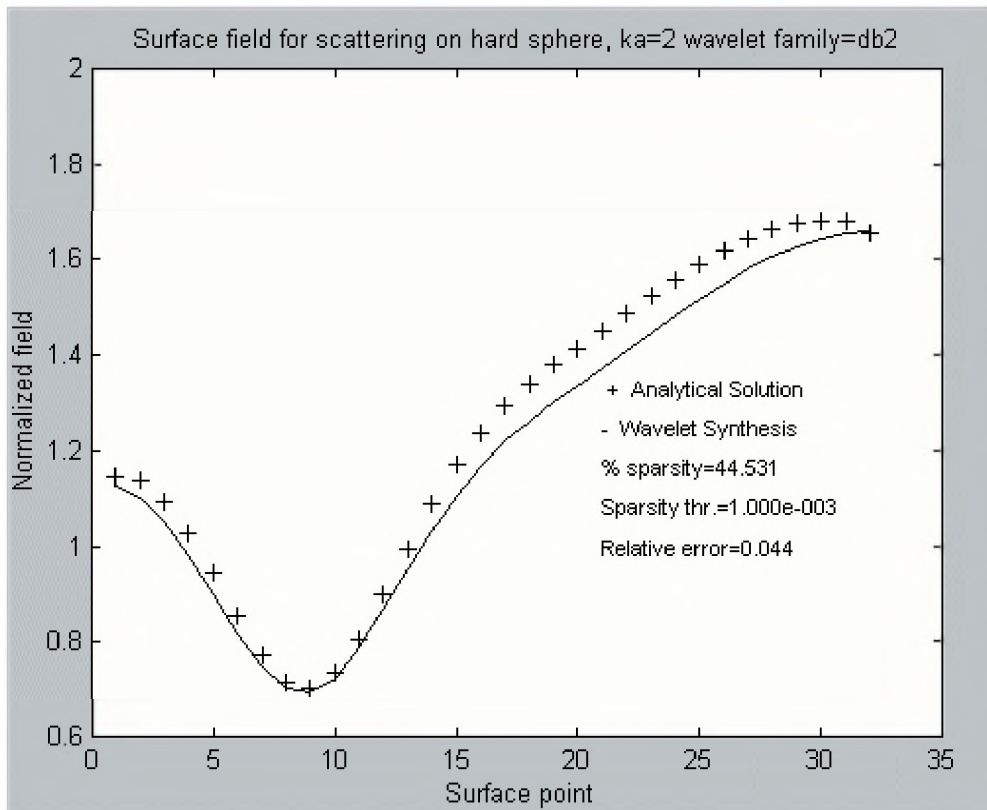


Figure 1. Scattering of plane wave of $ka=2$ and db2 wavelet basis

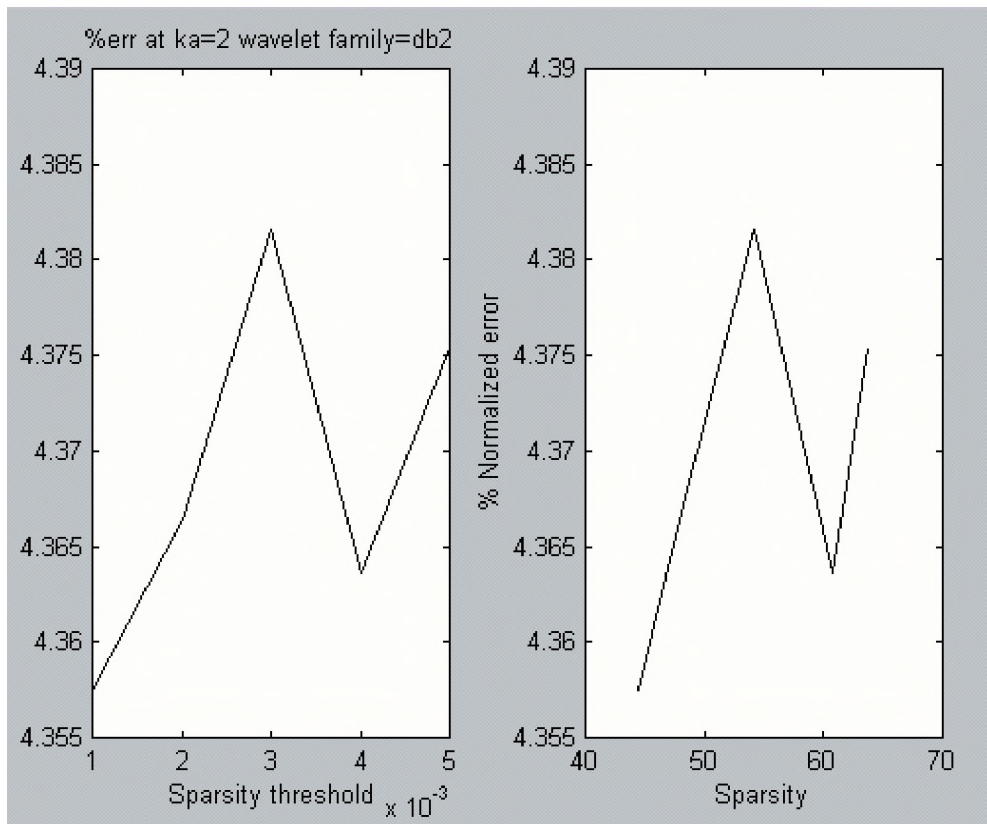


Figure 2. Error trending for db2 basis and $ka=2$

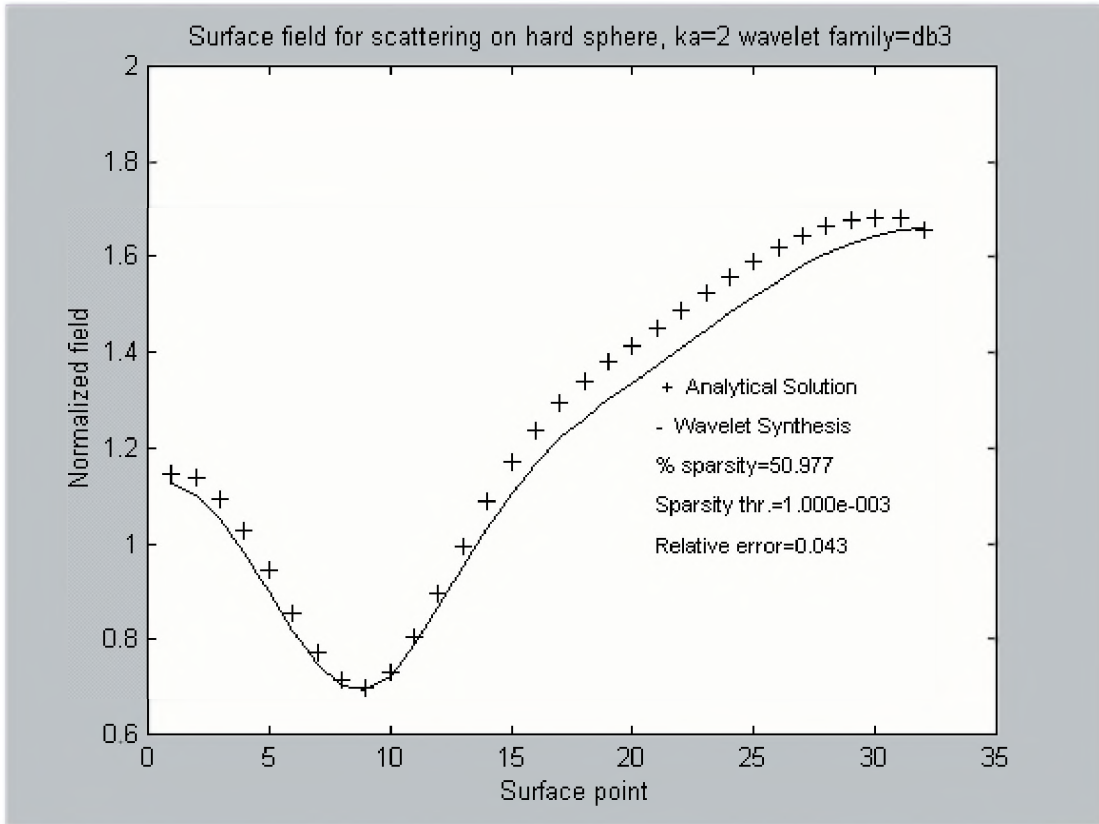


Figure 3. Scattering of plane wave of $ka=2$ and db3 wavelet basis

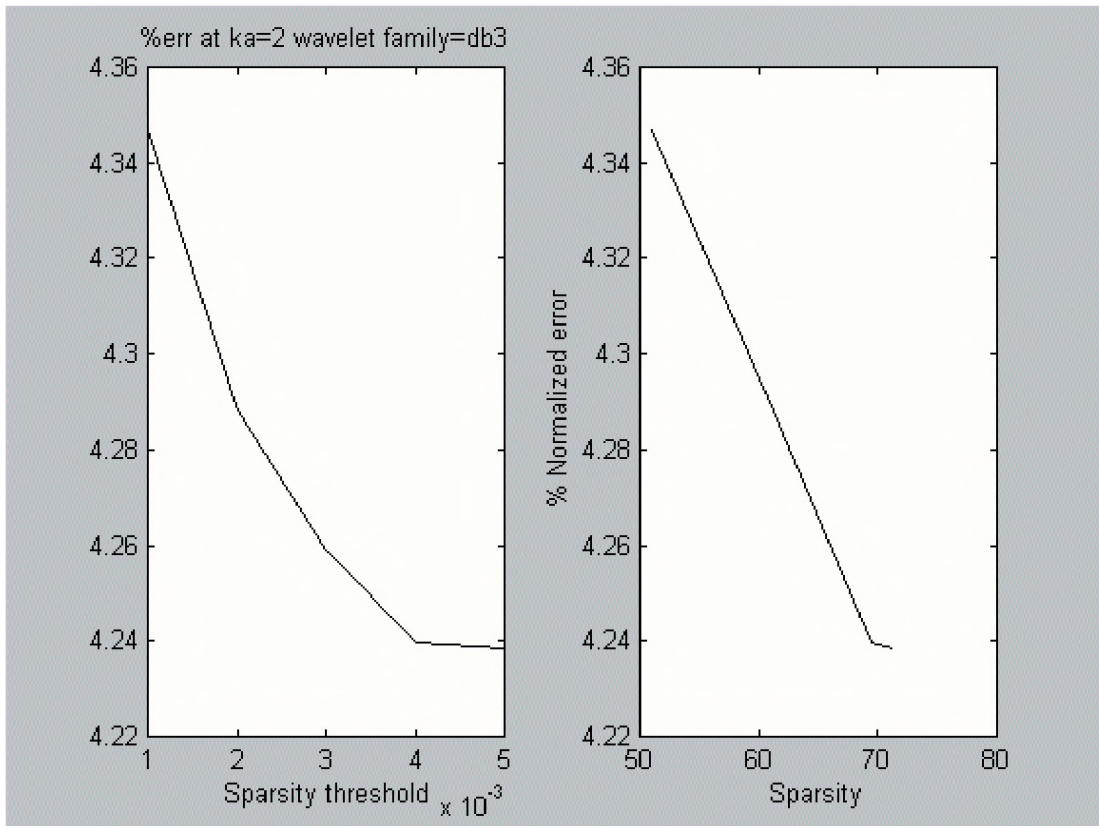


Figure 4. Error trending for db3 basis and $ka=2$

8. CONCLUSIONS

A multiresolution wavelet analysis has been applied to solve Helmholtz integral equation for acoustic scattering. The integral equation is solved using moment method with wavelet basis. The wavelet expansion covers the scatterer surface for distributing the wavelet localized functions. Applying an appropriate threshold on the resulting matrix makes it sparse. The sparsity of the resulted matrix can be efficiently utilized to get faster solution of the problem for larger dimensions.

Different comparisons are conducted for different wavelet bases, sparsification thresholds versus solution accuracy. The accuracy of the proposed solution is assessed with respect to exact solution of the problem. The results show that Daubechies wavelet family is successful for the acoustic scattering applications like electromagnetic problems as presented in many references. The results also prove that the proposed square operator can be successfully applied to solve the scattering problem.

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WAVELET-BASED TREATMENT FOR NONUNIQUENESS PROBLEM OF ACOUSTIC SCATTERING USING INTEGRAL EQUATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Wavelets analysis is a powerful tool to sparsify and consequently speed up the solution of integral equations. The nonuniqueness problem which arises in solving the integral equation of acoustic scattering at characteristic frequencies can be solved at the expense of increasing the problem matrix size. The use of wavelets in expanding the unknown function can efficiently reduce that size since the resulting problem matrix is highly sparse. Examples are discussed for scattering on both acoustically hard and soft spheres. The results are obtained for different Daubechies wavelet orders and sparsification thresholds. A comparison is then presented based on solution accuracy and sparsity ratio.

SOMMAIRE

Les ondelettes que l'analyse est un outil puissant sparsify et accélèrent par conséquent la solution des équations intégrales. Le problème de nonuniqueness qui surgit en résolvant l'équation intégrale de la dispersion acoustique aux fréquences caractéristiques peut être résolu aux dépens d'augmenter la taille de matrice de problème. L'utilisation des ondelettes en augmentant la fonction inconnue peut réduire cette taille efficacement puisque la matrice résultante de problème est fortement clairsemée. Des exemples sont discutés pour la dispersion sur tous les deux acoustique durs et les sphères molles. Les résultats sont obtenus pour différents ordres d'ondelette de Daubechies et seuils de sparsification. Une comparaison est alors présentée basée sur l'exactitude de solution et le rapport d'espace.

1 INTRODUCTION

The application of boundary integral methods in acoustic scattering suffers from nonuniqueness problem at the characteristic wavenumbers. To overcome this problem, an overdetermined system of equations is derived from the interior Helmholtz integral equation. Although the basic square system of $N \times N$ equations has an infinite number of solutions at characteristic wave numbers, only one of these solutions satisfies the interior Helmholtz integral equation. One of the main methods used to overcome nonuniqueness is the addition of the constraints on internal fields at a finite number of points. We can expect therefore that the solution obtained from the overdetermined system will approximate a unique solution [1]. Intuitively, the overdetermined system of equations increases the complexity and thus the extent of the computations [2].

The use of orthogonal wavelets as basis functions can speed up the numerical solution of surface integral equations. The wavelet expansion can adaptively fit itself to various length scales by distributing the localized basis functions over a surface. The cancellation property of the wavelets can eliminate, to a great extent, the coupling between the distant parts of the physical configuration under study. Thus the resultant matrix

from moment method is rendered sparse by using wavelet expansion.[3]. The most disrupting fact about the discrete wavelet transform is that the condition number of the matrix changes after transformation [4]. The results, in this work, show that the overdetermined system of equations behaves well after using wavelet expansion. The results are presented for acoustic scattering on both acoustically hard and soft spheres at characteristic wave numbers. The results are obtained for different Daubechies wavelet orders and sparsification thresholds. However, short Daubechies wavelet orders are used since long filters give less sparsity [4]. A comparison is then presented based on solution accuracy and sparsity ratio.

2 ANALYSIS

For a surface S on which a unit normal n , pointing outward, when a harmonic acoustic wave f_i impinges upon an acoustically hard body V enclosed by that surface, the resulting integral equation for smooth surface has the following form;

$$4\pi f^i(x') + \int_S \frac{\partial G(x, x')}{\partial n} f(x') \mathcal{G}(x') = 2\pi f(x) \quad (1)$$

$$x' \in S$$

A similar equation can also be formulated for acoustically soft sphere by substituting the corresponding boundary condition on pressure

$$4\pi f'(x') - \int_S \frac{\partial f(x')}{\partial n} G(x, x') dS(x') = 2\pi f(x) \quad (2)$$

$$x' \in S$$

where G is the free-space Greens function $G(x, x') = e^{-ikR}/R$ where R is the distance between the field point x and a source point x' and k is the wave number and $f()$ is the acoustic field. If we consider only the fully axisymmetric bodies, the scattering Equation (1) and (2) reduce to one-dimensional form.

The unknown field function can be expanded in terms of wavelet base functions. The approximation of $f(x) \in L^2(R)$ at a resolution of 2^j , can be defined as the projection on different wavelet functions

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_j \sum_k a_{jk} \psi_{jk}(x) \quad j, k = 1..M \quad (3)$$

where a_{jk} is the amplitude of each wavelet at different resolutions (scales) and locations.

Substituting equation (3) in the Galerkin's discretized form of (1) or (2), the integral equation reduces to

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{B} \quad (4)$$

where \mathbf{A} is the Galerkin's moment matrix, \mathbf{X} is the unknown wavelet amplitudes vector, \mathbf{B} is the incident field vector defined at surface points, and

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \psi_{11}(X'_1) & \psi_{11}(X'_2) & \dots & \psi_{11}(X'_N) \\ \psi_{12}(X'_1) & \psi_{12}(X'_2) & \dots & \psi_{12}(X'_N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \psi_{21}(X'_1) & \psi_{21}(X'_2) & \dots & \psi_{21}(X'_N) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \psi_{N1}(X'_1) & \psi_{N1}(X'_2) & \dots & \psi_{N1}(X'_N) \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix \mathbf{W} has a squared dimension of $N \times N$ and it can be called the wavelet operator. The effective support (nonzero elements) in the operator matrix \mathbf{W} of a wavelet ψ_{mn} as the interval outside of which the wavelet is practically zero.

For nonuniqueness problem, matrix \mathbf{A} is then expanded by additional M equations at some selected CHIEF points in the interior of the body V . The selection of CHIEF points are on the axis of symmetry as discussed in [5].

Equation (4) can be rewritten in the form

$$\mathbf{G} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{B} \quad (5)$$

Each element in matrix \mathbf{G} is, then, set to zero if it does not exceed what can be called sparsification threshold. The resulting sparse matrix allows the use of sparse matrix solvers or multi-level iterations for rapid solution.

Now the solution of equation (5) is the wavelet amplitudes (a^s) defined in equation (3) and consequently the field solution will be the synthesized function

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{X} \quad (6)$$

3 RESULTS

The results are computed for $k=4.4934$ which is a characteristic wavenumber for both the Helmholtz integral equation and its normal derivative assuming unity characteristic length [6]. The scatterer is taken as a sphere of a unity radius. The incoming unit plane wave travels toward the scatterer along the positive direction of z -axis in the cylindrical coordinates described as e^{ikz} . The surface field f is computed using equation (5) and (6). The results will be verified via comparison with the analytical solution as in [7]. The benefits of the method will be validated by comparing the accuracy and sparsity ratio for different wavelet basis support lengths and sparsity thresholds.

The accuracy is estimated based on a normalized error with the analytical field. The normalized error (Δ) is defined as the ratio of the error in field strength and the analytical field as follows

$$\Delta = \frac{\|f_{wvl} - f_{ana}\|}{\|f_{ana}\|} \quad (7)$$

where f_{wvl} is the resulted solution form equation (3) and f_{ana} is the analytical solution and $\|\cdot\|$ is the L2 norm.

Another comparison parameter is the percentage sparsity φ which is defined as

$$\varphi = Z_0/Z \times 100\%, \text{ where } Z = N \times (N+M) \quad (8)$$

where Z_0 is the number of zeros in the matrix \mathbf{G} after thresholding, and M is the number of additional interior points (CHIEF points).

Daubechies wavelets are strictly localized in space and approximately localized in spatial frequency [8]. Many recent works employed Daubechies wavelets in solving scattering problems [3], [9], [10], [11] and [12]. So, it has been used in expanding the field function as defined in (3).

The number of points on surface is $N=32$ and the interior points $M=10$ in the case of hard scatterer and $M=8$ in the soft case and all are on the axis of symmetry.

Figures (1) thru' (5) show the scattered field in both cases; acoustically hard and soft spheres, as compared to the corresponding analytical solution at the characteristic wavenumber. The matrix sparsity reaches about its half using Daubechies wavelet of order 2 with a threshold of 5×10^{-3} of matrix elements maximum while the solution error does not exceed about 6% as defined in equation (7).

In Figures (2) - thru' (4), the error trend is investigated with respect to the sparsification threshold and sparsity for

scattering on acoustically hard sphere. The sparsification threshold range is taken $[10^{-4} \dots 10^{-2}]$ since the literatures recommend an average of 10^{-3} [4]. Figures (6) thru' (8), show the error trends for scattering on acoustically soft sphere.

Figures (2) and (3) show steepest increase in the error versus sparsity threshold and accordingly sparsity ratio for scattering on acoustically hard sphere. These results are logical according to the properties of the sparsification process. The results also show that the sparsity does not exceed 60% for an error which is less than 8% for the current method. The

wavelet Daubechies of order 2 show better results since it gives error which is less than 6% with higher sparsity ratio. Figure 4 shows rapid deterioration in error with lower sparsity as expected in [4] for longer wavelet (Daubechies of order)3.

Figures (6), (7) and (8) show similar results for scattering on acoustically soft sphere. The Daubechies wavelet of order 2 shows also better results over other lengths of Daubechies family, however, the error shows some fluctuations over the used threshold range in the order of 1%.

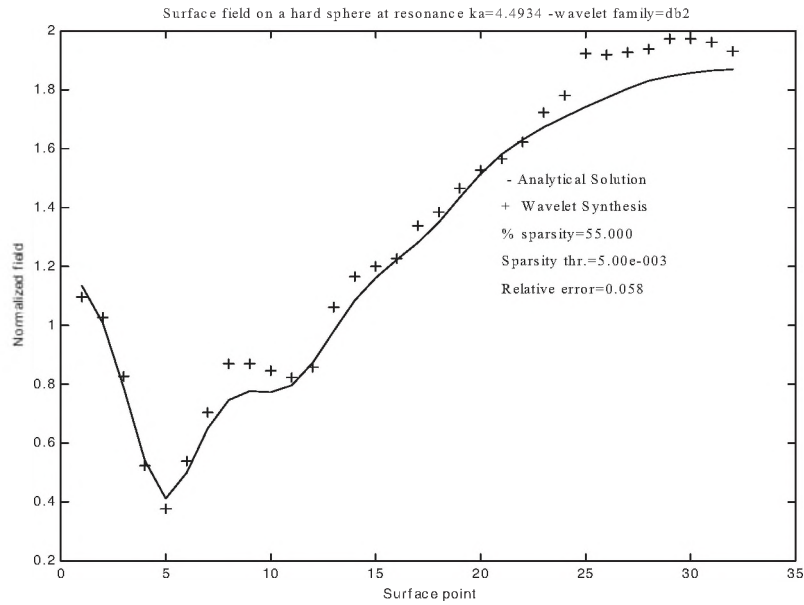


Figure 1 Scattered field of plane wave on an acoustically hard sphere using the Daubechies wavelet of order 2.

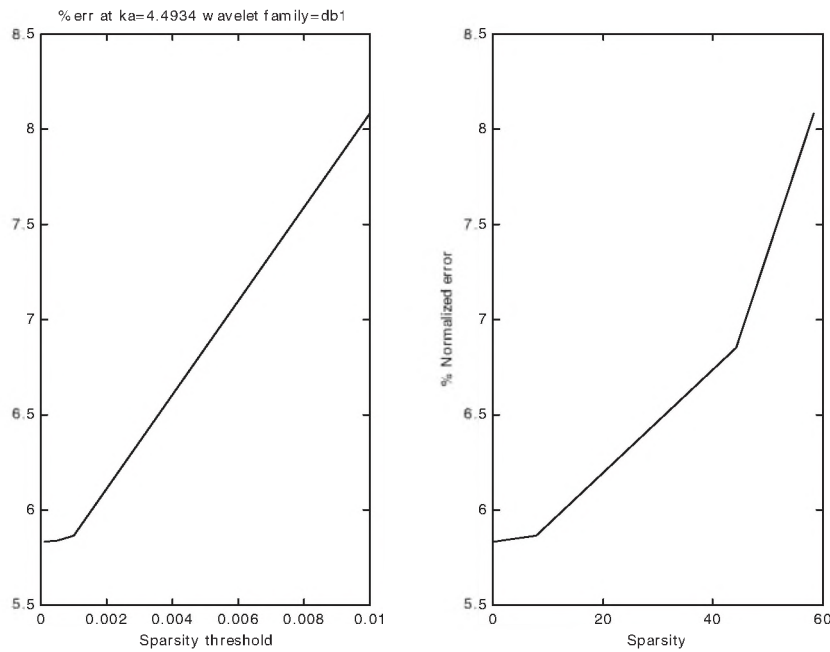


Figure 2. Error trend for hard scattering using Haar wavelet

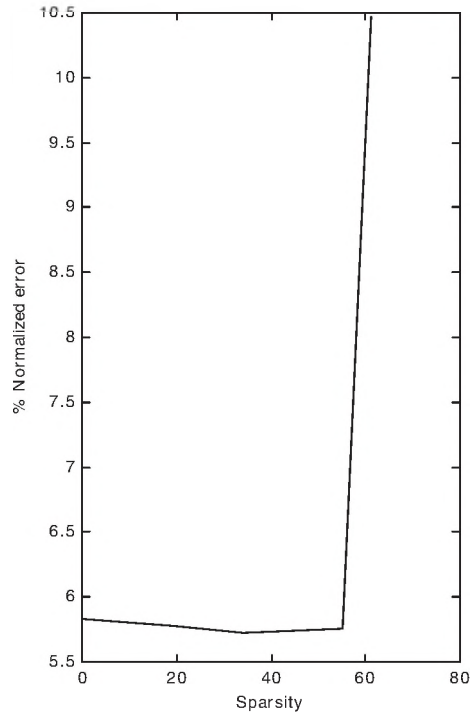
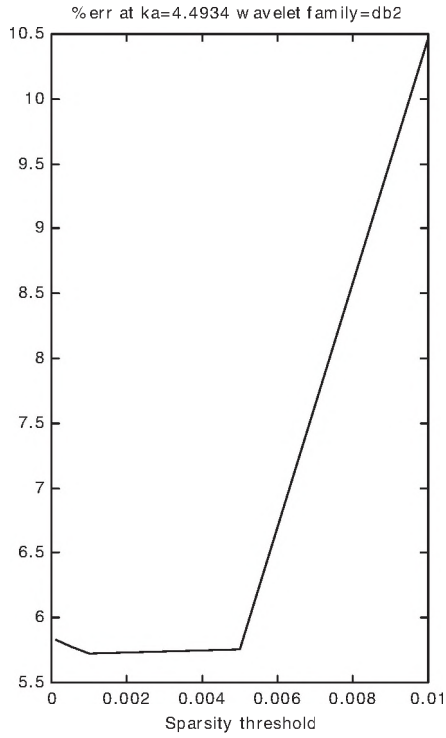


Figure 3 Error trend for hard scattering using Daubechies wavelet of order 2

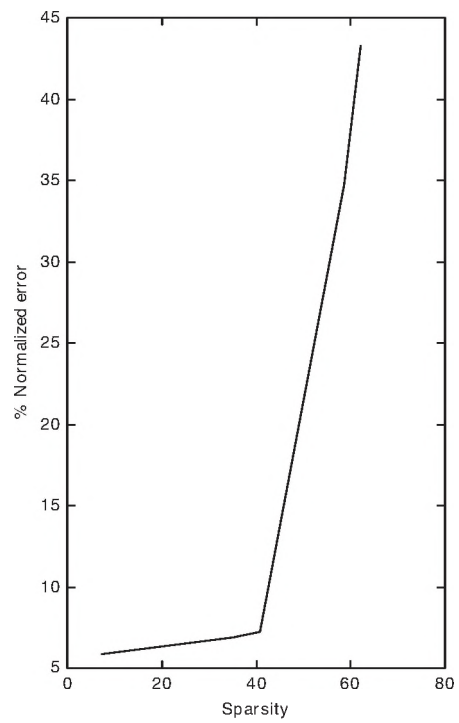
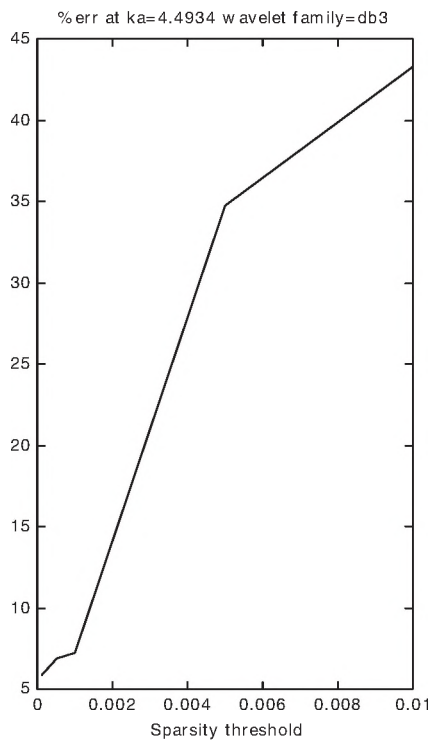


Figure 4. Error trend for hard scattering using Daubechies wavelet of order 3.

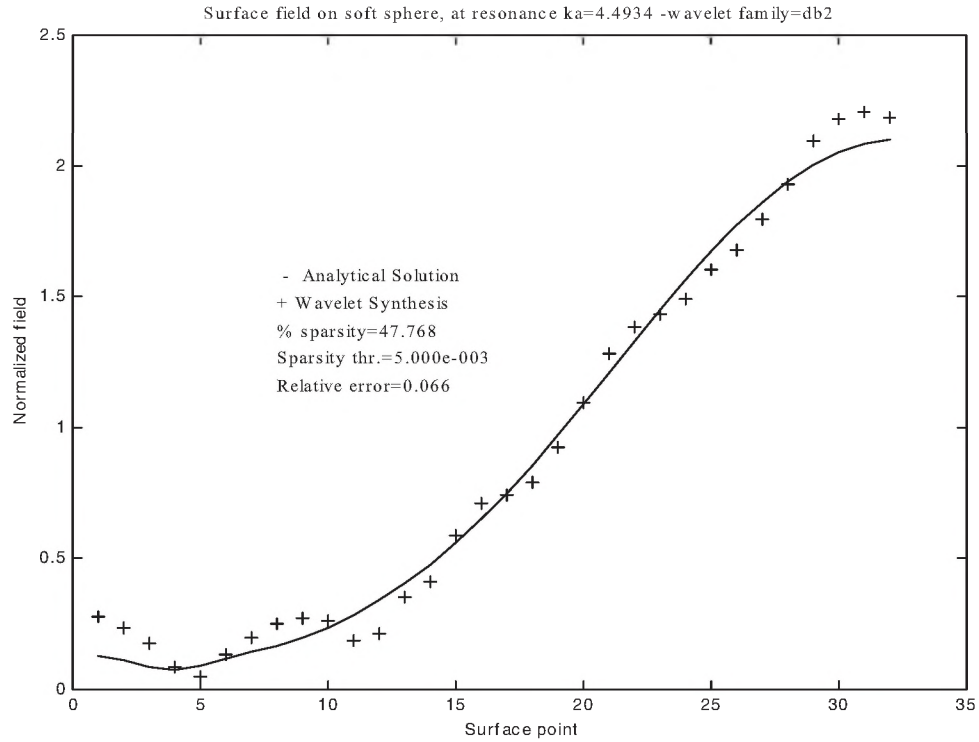


Figure 5 Scattered field of plane wave on an acoustically soft sphere using the Daubechies wavelet of order 2.

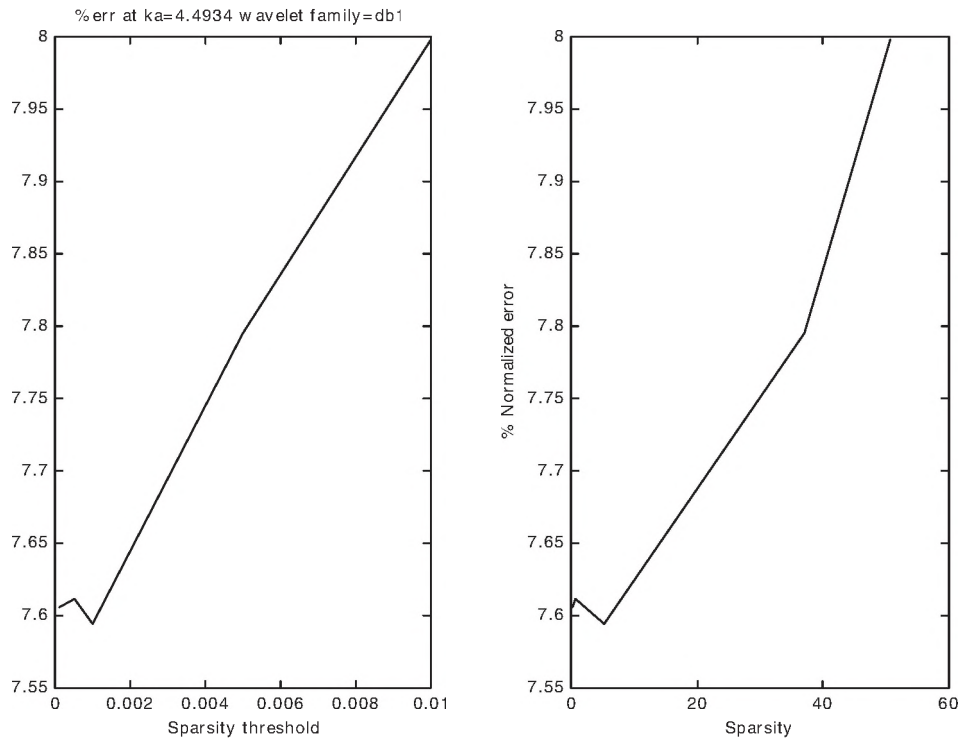


Figure 6. Error trend for soft scattering using Haar wavelet .

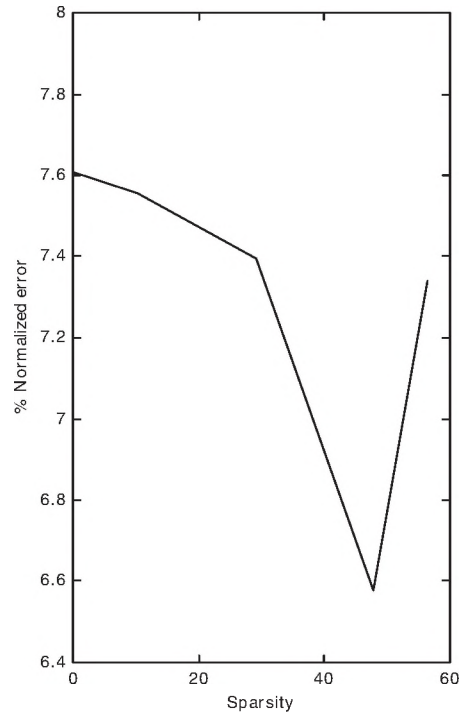
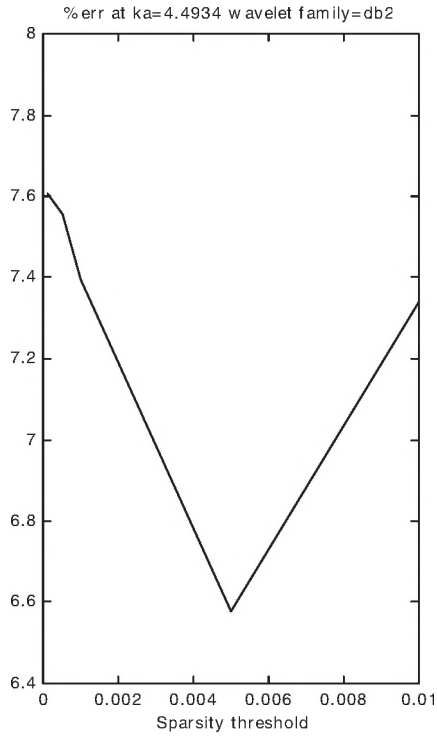


Figure 7. Error trend for soft scattering using Daubechies wavelet of order 2.

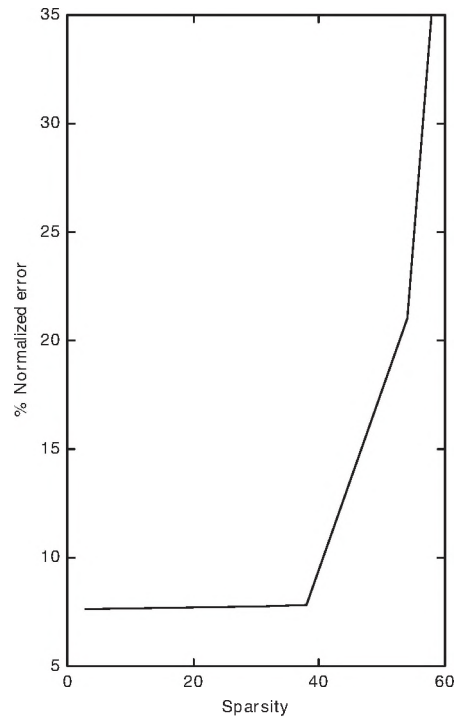
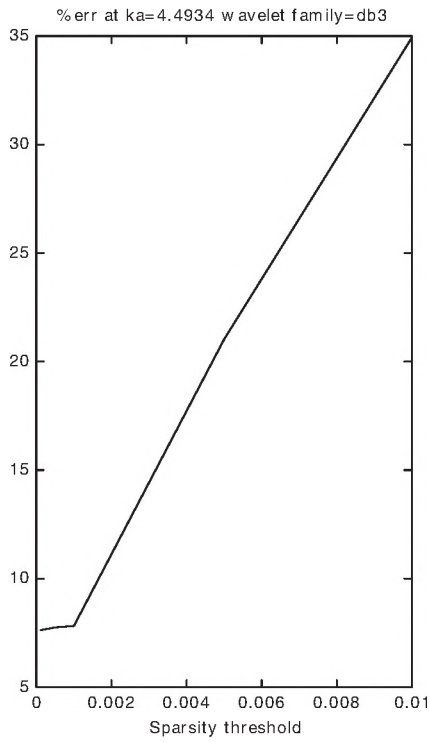


Figure 8. Error trend for soft scattering using Daubechies wavelet of order 3.

4 CONCLUSIONS

The wavelet expansion shows efficient sparsification of resulting matrix in integral equation solution. For acoustic scattering application, the integral equation is solved using wavelet expansion of scattered field for both hard and soft boundary conditions. The nonuniqueness problem, which arises in solving such integral equations at characteristic frequencies, is solved using an overdetermined system of equations of CHIEF method. Different thresholds and wavelet support lengths of Daubechies family are tested for increasing matrix sparsity and the accuracy are computed for each trial. Results show that Daubechies wavelet of order 2 gives better results of lower error with higher sparsity ratio. Haar wavelet does not compete with higher order of 2. Longer length as Daubechies of order 3 shows rapid decrease in the accuracy of the solution with lower sparsity. The sparsification threshold is surveyed in the range of $[10^{-4} - 10^{-2}]$ and the middle of such a range shows better results of higher accuracy and sparsity.

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INVESTIGATING THE EFFECT OF EDUCATIONAL EQUIPMENT NOISE ON SMART CLASSROOM ACOUSTICS

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ABSTRACT

Numerous studies have been carried out highlighting and investigating the acoustics of conventional classrooms for good Speech Intelligibility (SI). However, with the rapid advances in education and instructional technology a new generation of high-tech classrooms referred to as “smart classrooms” is emerging and becoming a necessity at educational institutions. This paper describes the features of smart classrooms which make them different from traditional ones, focusing particularly on the Background Noise (BN) generated by instructional equipment. Measurements were conducted in similar classrooms to assess the magnitude and characteristics of generated noise. With the instructional equipment in operation, acoustical measurements revealed an appreciable increase in the ambient noise level. A computer model of a typical smart classroom is developed to investigate the appropriateness of the classroom layout and surface finishes as recommended by the Acoustical Society of America (ASA) [8]. To determine the impact of the resulting BN on SI in such specialized enclosures, simulations of a classroom model with the recommended surface finishes under various BN conditions were carried out. Results showed that it is necessary to restrict the overall BN level to NC-25 (35 dBA), and emphasized the need to select quiet operating instructional equipment.

SOMMAIRE

De nombreuses études ont été faites ayant pour but d'exposer et d'examiner les conditions acoustiques des classes conventionnelles en vue d'y assurer une bonne clarté de la parole. Cependant, avec les avancements rapides dans le domaine de la technologie éducative et didactique, une nouvelle génération de classes dotées de technologie de pointe, et nommées “classes intelligentes”, commencent à émerger et devenir une nécessité pour les établissements éducatifs. Cette étude décrit les traits des classes intelligentes qui les rendent différentes des classes traditionnelles, en concentrant particulièrement sur le bruit de fond produit par les équipements didactiques. Des mesures ont été prises dans des classes semblables afin de déterminer le niveau et les caractéristiques du bruit ainsi produit. Avec les équipements didactiques en cours d'usage, les mesures acoustiques ont révélé un accroissement notable du niveau du bruit ambiant. Un modèle d'ordinateur représentant une classe intelligente typique a été établi pour étudier la convenance du plan de la classe et du poli des surfaces en conformité avec les recommandations de la Société Acoustique de l'Amérique (ASA) (8). En vue de déterminer l'effet du bruit de fond causé par le bruit des équipements didactiques sur la clarté de la parole dans de tels espaces fermés, des simulations du modèle de classe susmentionné avec de différents polis de surfaces sous différentes conditions de bruit de fond ont été menées. Les résultats ont révélé qu'il est nécessaire de limiter le niveau global du bruit de fond à NC-25 (35 dBA). Ils ont de même souligné le besoin de choisir des équipements didactiques silencieux.

1. INTRODUCTION

In spite of the development in the knowledge exchange media and educational setup, classrooms still continue to play a vital role in academic exchanges and learning. For effective learning and enhanced comprehension in classrooms, an adequate matrix of indoor environmental quality in terms of visual, acoustical and thermal conditions is required. Acoustics is one of the major criteria that dictate the functionality of a classroom, as vocal communication is the basic medium

of instruction. Not only does poor acoustics affect student comprehension of the instructor's speech but it is also responsible for causing vocal fatigue to the teacher trying to instruct and conduct a dialogue with the students resulting in health problems and teacher absenteeism. In the last two decades, numerous studies have been carried out in this field highlighting the importance of good acoustical ambience and SI in classrooms. Studies by Bradley [1-3], Hodgson [4, 5], Lubman and Sutherland [6, 7] and so many more have studied the characteristics of classroom acoustics in detail.

Various organizations such as the (ASA) have described guidelines in the form of a resource book for creating better hearing environments for students [8], while the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) has prepared a universal standard for the acoustical features of places for learning. Many acousticians agree with the ANSI standard S12.60-2002 [9] specifications of reverberance and noise levels in conventional classrooms. However, emergence of a new type of classrooms has been seen in recent years which is gradually taking over the conventional classrooms.

The new classroom, suitably called as ‘Smart Classrooms’ have considerably different acoustic characteristics as compared to the conventional classrooms. The aim of this study is, therefore, to assess the impact of noise in smart classrooms.

2. COMPONENTS OF SMART CLASSROOM

The idea of a conventional classroom is changing from isolated units to more connected places with improved visual communications. A new generation of high technology classrooms referred to, as “smart classrooms” is becoming a necessity at universities. A smart classroom may be defined as “an interactive multimedia electronic classroom networked to the Internet and housing a video/audio, and broadcast-on-demand system” [10]. These classrooms integrate computer education with the latest presentation and multimedia facilities to make the classrooms more interactive and thus enhance the learning process. Classrooms with interconnected computers at each student station create a collaborative learning environment with the instructor as a mentor, making classroom technology as simple and non-intimidating as possible. FIG. 1 illustrates different layouts of university smart classrooms and their interior views [11-13].

Major components of smart classrooms that make them different from conventional classrooms are computer workstations, electronic interactive white board, presenter’s or instructor’s workstation/lectern equipped with control panels for VCR and video projector, video data projector/overhead projector/slide projector, and sound reinforcement system (if needed) [12]. Low acoustical ambience is highly recommended for comprehension of speech and instructions along with controlled artificial lighting and good air quality. It is essential to treat the classroom surfaces with optimum layout of sound-absorbing material and at the same time restrict the Background Noise (BN). Due to the presence of a large amount of instructional equipment constantly generating noise, smart classrooms are inherently noisier environments than traditional classrooms.

3. IMPACT OF EQUIPMENT NOISE IN CLASSROOMS

The recent ANSI standard (ANSI S12.60-2002) [9] on

classroom acoustics does not elaborate on the noise generated by instructional equipment in a classroom. The standard simply specifies that the average BN in a classroom with educational equipment should not exceed 35 dBA while HVAC systems and other building services are operating. It is therefore necessary to study and verify the impact of noise generated by the educational equipment which would permit formulating "ANSI standard" recommendations for smart classrooms as well.

Two smart classrooms at King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (KFUPM) Dhahran, SA were selected to investigate the spectra and magnitude of the. These centrally Air-Conditioned (A/C) classrooms were equipped with contemporary educational equipment such as data projectors, personal computers, overhead projectors and networking equipment.

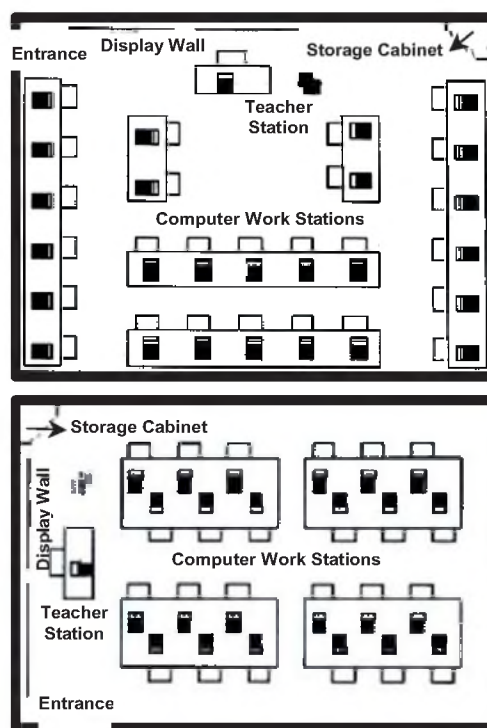
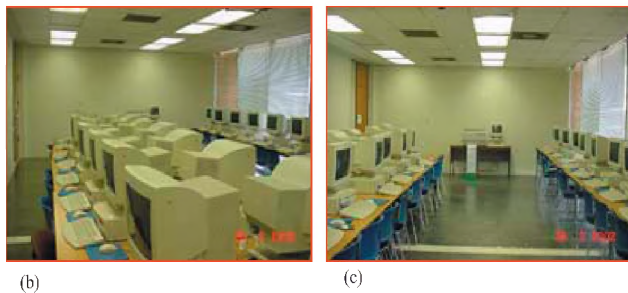
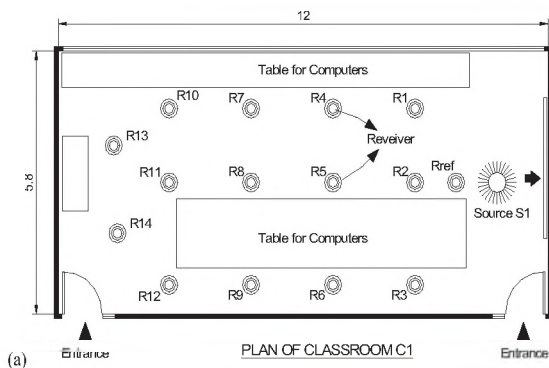


FIG. 1 (a) Alternative layouts of proposed smart classrooms for universities, (adapted from [11])



FIG. 1 (b) Interior views of example university smart classrooms (adapted from [12])

Measurements were conducted to assess the effect of the existing instructional equipment on the BN by quantifying the noise when all the equipment are turned 'On' compared to the 'Off' condition while the HVAC system is operational. The architectural and spatial characteristics of one classroom are shown in FIG. 2. For the purpose of measurements, Maximum Length Sequence System Analysis (MLSSA) [14], a PC-based audio and acoustical measurement system, was used. MLSSA was configured to measure the Sound Pressure Level (SPL) of ambient noise in the standard octave bands along with the A-weighted noise level and the corresponding Noise Criteria (NC) ratings. The ambient noise levels were measured in the selected locations utilizing a calibrated ½" condenser microphone positioned at a height of 1.2 m to mimic the human ear of seated students. As shown in FIG. 2(a), 14 receivers (i.e. R1-R14) are distributed along the classroom. These locations were near the noise generating equipment and A/C outlets.



General Information:-

Classroom reference number: C1
 Dimensions (L x W x H) m³: 12.0 x 5.8 x 2.65
 Area: 69.6 m²
 Room aspect ratio: 2.0
 Volume (m³): 184
 Capacity (persons): 30

Surface Finishes:

Walls: Three walls Painted on Gypsum Plastered
 One wall Glazed.
 Floor: Hard Floor of Polished Mosaic Tiles.
 Ceiling: Porous Acoustical Panels.
 Tables: Hard Wood Table Tops.
 Chairs: Plastic/ Metal Chairs.

FIG. 2 (a) Plan of measured classroom C1, (b) and (c) Interior views of the classroom. General information of the room along with its surface finishes are also described.

Table 1 illustrates the average spectrum of the BN measured in the classroom referred to as 'C1' with the instructional equipment turned 'Off' and 'On'. The average

values in various mid frequency ranges are described in the lower rows of the table along with the NC ratings and Room Criteria Mark II (RC Mark II) ratings. The variation in the mean spectra can be noticed. The BN level in this classroom exceeds the recommended value for educational facilities. An increase in the NC rating from a mean of NC-43 to NC-46 is noticed when the equipment is switched 'On'. The second classroom, 'C2,' shows a profound increase in the BN level when equipment is turned 'On'.

Table 1 BN spectra measured in classrooms C1 and C2 with equipment 'Off' and 'On'.

Octave-band frequencies	Classroom C1			Classroom C2		
	Equipment Condition Off	Equipment Condition On	Difference	Equipment Condition Off	Equipment Condition On	Difference
31.5	63.7	65.9	2.2	57.7	58.5	0.2
63	60.1	61.7	1.6	51.9	53.9	2.0
125	55.1	55.6	0.5	46.9	51.4	4.5
250	45.1	49.8	4.7	40.1	47.1	7.0
500	44.4	47.2	2.8	34.3	43.6	9.3
1000	43.8	46.7	2.9	29.3	39.3	10.0
2000	39.5	41.7	2.2	27.1	37.1	10.0
4000	32.2	34.9	2.7	22.8	36.5	13.7
8000	23.7	26	2.3	22.9	29	6.1
500-2000	43	46	3.0	30	40	10.0
dBA	48	51	3.0	38	48	10.0
NC	43	46	3.0	30	39	9.0
RC Mark II	43 HF	46 HF		30 N	39 HF	

FIG. 3 depicts the mean noise spectrum in the equipment 'Off' and 'On' conditions. A low existing average BN of NC-30 was measured in classroom C2 (when equipment is off), but a considerable BN increase was noticed when the equipment was operational especially in the mid-frequency range. A large increase in the NC rating (NC-30 to NC-39) can be also observed. Similar increase was noticed in the RC Mark II rating. This rating adds another dimension to the BN characteristics in the measured classrooms by providing a sound quality descriptor, namely, Quality Assessment Index (QAI) [15]. In classroom C1, the BN is associated with a QAI of "HF" which suggests that the noise is dominant at high frequency range (i.e. hissy noise). In classroom C2, the BN has a QAI of "N" which is descriptive of a "Neutral" and balanced noise spectrum with no particular frequency dominance. However, as the instructional equipment is turned on, an increase in sound level associated with a 'Hiss' is perceptible.

The increase in the mean BN spectra when equipment is 'On' is distinct in classroom 'C2' as seen in FIG. 4 compared to classroom 'C1' is due to the presence of high A/C noise in classroom 'C1'. However, it is clear from measurements that there is a perceptible impact on the ambient noise of a classroom when equipment is operational. This increase is mainly occurring in the frequency range where most of the speech sound energy exists. High BN can create unintelligible speech conditions in a smart classroom. This fact renders a

smart classroom highly vulnerable to poor Speech Intelligibility (SI) as they are equipped with a large amount of instructional equipment. The BN and the SI in a classroom are also influenced by room enclosure, proximity of a listener to the sound source (Instructor), the boundaries of the room and the locations of noise sources.

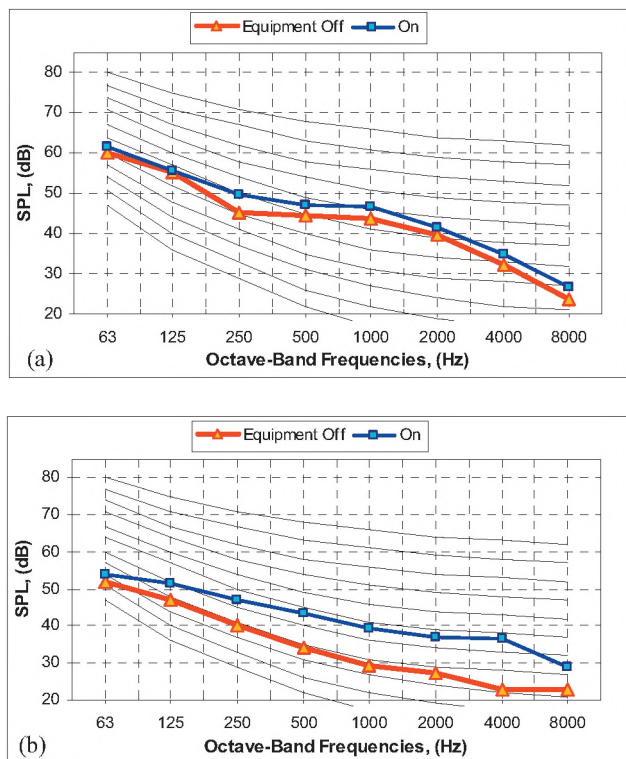


FIG. 3 BN measured in room (a) C1 and (b) C2 with instructional equipment ‘OFF’ and ‘ON’.

4. SIMULATION OF AN IDEAL SMART CLASSROOM MODEL

A typical smart classroom model is developed with a simple layout similar to the example shown in FIG. 1 (b), to investigate the impact of varying BN in a smart classroom. The classroom is assumed to accommodate 24 students with an average area utilization of 4.2 m² per student. FIG. 4 shows the plan and details of the model along with a 3D view. Four tables are symmetrically arranged each housing 6 desktop computers. The instructor is equipped with a computer at the lectern that houses all display controls. The display wall is used both as a screen as well as an electronic white board. Storage units for networking equipment, video display equipment, and un-interrupted power supply system etc. are housed at the corner of the display wall.

The model is simulated by ODEON 5.0, the acoustical modeling and simulation software [16]. The model boundaries are assigned surface finishes as recommended by the (ASA) resource for “creating learning environment with

desirable listening conditions” [8]. FIG. 5 shows three alternatives of surface finish and placement, with alternative C being the best solution for a traditional classroom. Similar alternative is assumed in this study but without sloping the ceiling reflector above the instructor area. The lower one-meter portion of the walls and the display wall behind the instructor area are kept reflective and assigned absorption of 10% while the remaining upper portion of the walls has 30% absorption. The ceiling above the instructor area is allocated reflective surface treatment while the periphery of the ceiling is made absorptive with 50% sound absorption.

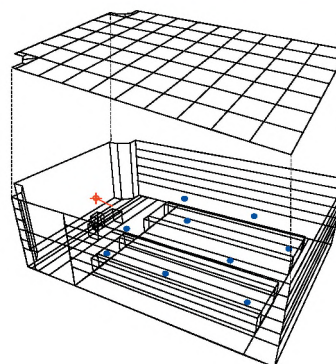
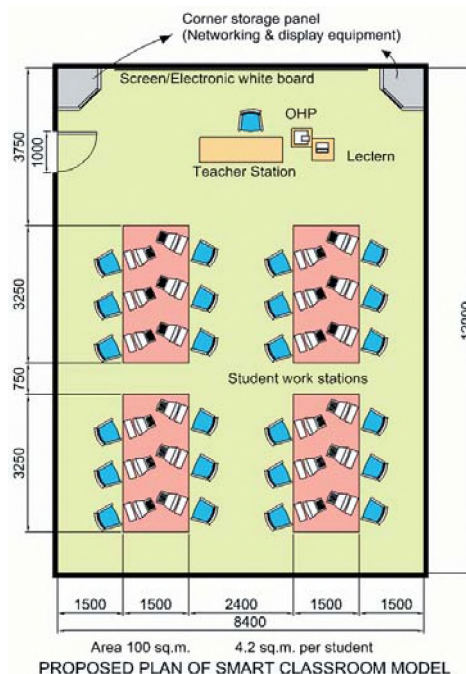


FIG. 4. Plan and 3D view of the smart classroom model.

The floor is laid with 6mm pile carpet bonded to closed cell foam underlay. Table 2 describes the finishing of the modeled classroom surfaces. To represent irregularities due to PC’s on the table; the tabletop surface is assigned a scattering of 30% with hard wood polished material and kept constant throughout the simulation runs. Thus an ideal room for speech performance as suggested by the ASA [8] is modeled.

The model is simulated under various BN conditions as obtained in the measured classrooms using two types of directional sound sources, “Talk Normal” and “Talk Raised” to mimic an instructor speaking in a normal voice and raised voice respectively. The ‘Talk Normal’ sound source corresponds to a male talker with normal voice effort while a ‘Talk Raised’ sound source simulates a talker addressing an audience in raised voice [17]. The impact of different BN noise levels on SI is evaluated and the results are presented graphically in FIG. 6.

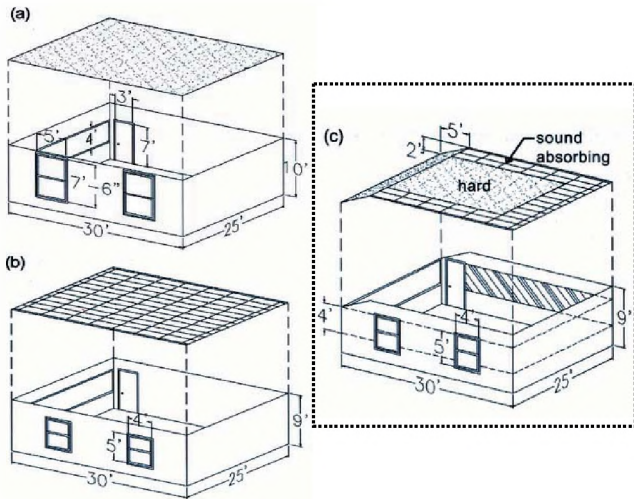


FIG. 5. The three layouts of sound absorption material placement. Classroom (a) is a typical undesirable room with no sound absorbing material and no useful reflection patterns. Classroom (b) is better with an acoustical lay-in, sound absorbing ceiling and thin carpet. Classroom (c) is a desirable room with sound absorbing wall treatment on three walls, thin carpet, sloped ceiling reflector at the front and a ceiling with reflective surface in the center and sound absorbing surface around the perimeters. (adapted from [8])

The floor is laid with 6mm pile carpet bonded to closed cell foam underlay. Table 2 describes the finishing of the modeled classroom surfaces. To represent irregularities due to PC’s on the table; the tabletop surface is assigned a scattering of 30% with hard wood polished material and kept constant throughout the simulation runs. Thus an ideal room for speech performance as suggested by the ASA [8] is modeled. The model is simulated under various BN conditions as obtained in the measured classrooms using two types of directional sound sources, “Talk Normal” and “Talk Raised” to mimic an instructor speaking in a normal voice and raised voice respectively. The ‘Talk Normal’ sound source corresponds to a male talker with normal voice effort while a ‘Talk Raised’ sound source simulates a talker addressing an audience in raised voice [17]. The impact of different BN

noise levels on SI is evaluated and the results are presented graphically in FIG. 6.

Table 2. Surface finishing data of the developed model that coincides with the ASA recommendation described in Figure 5(c).

Room Surface	Material Assignment	ODEON Material Ref. # [17]
Tables	Hard wood polished	603
Occupant seats	Lightly upholstered seats (un-occupied)	906
Door and Corner panels	Hard wood	603
Front wall	10% absorption	-
Floor	Lightweight carpet	506
Lower 1.0 m portion of walls	10% absorption	-
Side and back walls	30 % absorption	-
Ceiling tiles	10 % central portion and 50 % absorption on periphery	-

5. SIMULATION RESULTS

The simulation results, which are the mean values of the frequency range of interest, that is from 500 to 2000 Hz, reveal the detrimental impact of high BN on the SI in the modeled classroom. FIG. 6 which should be examined from bottom towards the top, shows the results of the simulations under various BN conditions in terms of the variations of the calculated acoustical indicators at nine sound receivers that are distributed along the model. A wider value range is suggestive of an uneven distribution of sound in the model while a shorter range indicates spatial uniformity. Hence, in the base case (shown at the bottom of the figure) 3 bars are used to represent data under a particular BN level, lower bar represents RT value range and the upper two bars depict Speech Transmission Index (STI) values using a Talk-normal and Talk-raised sound sources respectively. STI is an SI indicator that takes into account the enclosure reverberance as well as the prevailing noise characteristics. As seen in the base case the average RT value and Clarity (C_{50}) levels are within the acceptable range, however RT values exceed the recommended limit of 0.6 seconds at more than 60% of the receiver locations.

Since the same model is simulated under various BN levels represented by NC values as well as dBA levels, RT and C_{50} values remain unchanged. STI results confirm the suitability of the smart classroom model configuration and surface finishes as recommended by the ASA resource book [8]. BN of NC-40 (i.e. 49 dBA) or less are found to exist in smart classrooms when instructional equipment are operational.

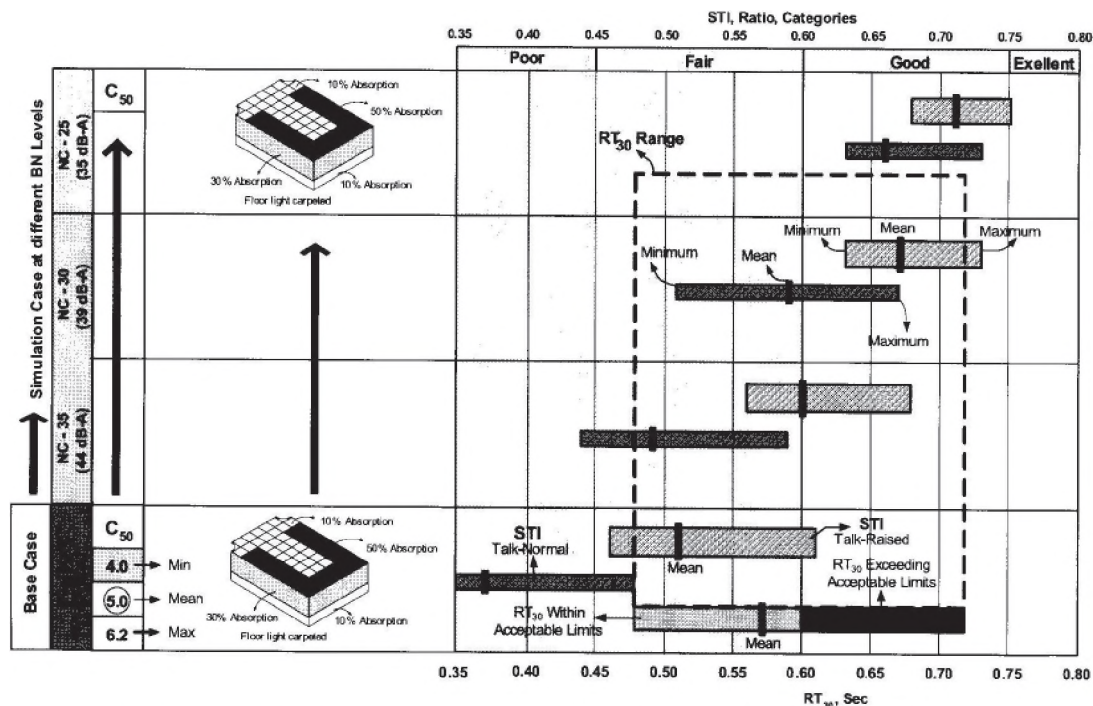


FIG 6. Results of the model cases simulated at different BN conditions. STI values are used.

Simulation results indicate an average “Fair” SI rating when the instructor is only assumed to talk in a raised voice, while it is unfavorable “Poor” rating when the instructor talks with normal voice effort. The impact of BN increase on the SI once the computers and instructional equipment are operational can also be assessed from FIG. 6. If, for example, one limits the BN to NC-30 or less results in “Fair” and “Good” SI rating with “Talk-Normal” and “Talk Raised” instructor’s voice efforts respectively. SI is found to be within the “Good” rating range when the BN in the classroom is limited to NC-25 (i.e. 35 dBA).

6. CONCLUSIONS

Measurements in smart classrooms with computers and other instructional equipment indicate appreciable increase on the overall BN. The simulation of a typical smart classroom model with ideal surface finishing characteristics as recommended in reference [8] under various BN conditions highlights the detrimental impact of the BN increase on the SI in such specialized enclosures. The results of this study suggest that even if the BN in a traditional classroom is restricted to 35 dBA (NC-25) as specified by the ANSI standard [6], once computers and the instructional equipment are included and put to operation, a BN increase of about 6 to 10 dBA, notably degrades the SI in the classroom. Therefore it is necessary to select quiet operating equipment that would on an average increase the ambient background noise by not more than a NC-5 rating.

It should be noted that the overall classroom noise generated by noise sources, which radiate with constant power (e.g. computers) would be influenced by the room acoustical conditions, particularly the surface sound absorption. A

more accurate modeling in this case requires detailed knowledge of the octave-band sound power levels and directivity of each noise source. Furthermore, the possibility of improving SI conditions in such enclosures by investigating alternative surface treatment needs to be explored. An attempt to investigate ideal surface finish characteristics is the next step leading towards optimizing acoustics in such evolving smart classroom.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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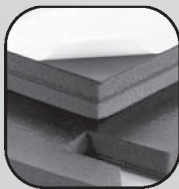
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UNDERSTANDING INSTRUMENT CALIBRATION

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ABSTRACT

Calibration is often misunderstood and is filled with many misconceptions. Neither the users of instruments nor the simple laboratories that perform the calibration assessments have a clear understanding of their roles in the complex field of calibration. This article provides the necessary processes involved in calibrating an instrument, simple or complex, and a brief description that will clarify the myriad misconceptions.

1 INTRODUCTION

Often people ask a calibration laboratory to either “calibrate” their instruments or to tell them details that are involved in calibration. Further, certificates, that claim calibration, are often missing details that provide a level of confidence that the instrument was sufficiently checked (and maybe adjusted) to assure it measures correctly. The following paragraphs provide some of the important concepts that are “required knowledge” by an engineer or technician doing acoustical or vibration measurements.

2 CERTIFICATE ISSUES

Calibration certificates can come as a stand-alone document, or more correctly, with a report of the results. If it is the latter, the certificate acts as a summary page, perhaps with certain details, attesting to the results found in the report. If the former, the test results must be on the certificate or must be referred to another, non-distributed document. There are no standard requirements for a certificate, and in fact, one isn't needed if other documentation is provided.

It is clear that the wording on some certificates cannot and should not, be considered as adding any information or authenticity to the service provided. Wording on the certificates may be confusing or intentionally misleading. The instrument owner must be prepared to interpret the information that some statements give and eventually to require further proofs.

Here are some examples:

2.1. NIST related

- a) Calibration is traceable to NIST. This gives the impression that NIST has something to do with the certificate and its only relationship, if any, is that it has measured something that the laboratory has used the data from. See below for further discussion. In the same category is the “NIST traceability number ...” whose significance can only be guessed, as it is not a metrology term and it is not

defined in international documents.

- b) Certificates stating “meets NIST requirements” also do not convey any useful information. NIST itself has no requirements, although NIST's National Voluntary Laboratory Accreditation program (NVLAP), a program for calibration laboratories, has strict requirements. (See below.)
- c) Advertisements claim NIST certificate provided. The only way this can be is if NIST does the calibration, which is very unlikely.

2.2 Accreditation related

Accreditation is a process where a laboratory is checked by an outside party for, in this case, quality. The main purpose is, if one believes the outside party's reputation, that customer can have some assurance that the calibration laboratory's quality is adequate and one need not check it. So accreditation is useful if the customer has neither the skills nor the time to check on a calibration laboratory.

- a) Claims of ISO 17025 [1] accredited or ISO 9000 accredited. This can be a legitimate and important statement if the customer knows which accrediting agency did the accreditation. It cannot be self accredited.
- b) ISO 17025 compliant means, usually, the laboratory claims it meets ISO requirements because it follows the standard. No neutral body audited the laboratory. This may or may not point to a good laboratory.

2.3. Examples of other issues

Often certificates have verbiage that sounds better than it is. Here are some examples:

- a) Instruments calibrated to ANSI or IEC standard without specifying either standard designation or date of standard.
- b) Statements that measurements made in strict accordance

with (or to) a standard. Few laboratories meet all requirements in a standard (for instance, how many laboratories check range of operating temperatures?)

- c) An instrument under test meets manufacturer's specifications. Often this is all that can be done, especially if no claim is made for meeting a recognized standard. In which case the laboratory must state the exact specifications and the results, to show they lie within specs. But often specs are vague (frequency range is from 20 Hz to 20,000 Hz) or specifications are different depending on what manufacturer's brochure one looks at: data sheet, instruction manual, etc., and what date it is published.
- d) Calibration due dates (often but arbitrarily yearly) are specified on sticker or cal certificate. This is not generally allowed under conformance with ISO 17025 and can only be specified based on instructions of customer. The issue of calibration intervals (discussed below) is very important and often prescribed, incorrectly so it seems, in legal statutes. In that case, the calibration interval must be met.

3 CALIBRATION

Calibration is defined as a set of operations that establishes, under specified conditions, the relationship between values of quantities indicated by a measuring instrument or measuring system, or values represented by a material measure or reference material, and the corresponding values realized by standards [2]. In other words, the calibration determines the values of the errors of a measuring instrument (and if necessary, determines other metrological properties as well). As a result of the calibration, a test/calibration report with the test results is issued, which should be eventually accompanied by a calibration certificate, confirming that the necessary procedures have been carried out to ensure their validity and traceability. (VIM and ISO Guide 30 [3]. See also ISO Guide 31 [4]).

According to these definitions, the calibration is not required to provide a statement about compliance with accepted specifications. Nevertheless, in order to help the users, Scantek, Inc. provides "pass" or "fails," when appropriate, in the terms defined by ISO 17025. If reliable specifications are not available, then no statement of compliance is made.

Calibrations may include adjustments, always reported, to correct any deviation from the value of the standard, but this is not covered by the definition of the service.

4 TRACEABILITY

The definition of traceability is "the property of the result of a measurement or the value of a standard whereby it can be related to stated references, usually national or international standards, through an unbroken chain of comparisons, all having stated uncertainties." [2] An unbroken chain of comparisons is a complete, explicitly described, and documented

series of comparisons that successively link the value and uncertainty of the result of a measurement with the values and uncertainties of each of the intermediate reference standards and the highest reference standard to which traceability for the result of measurement is claimed. In other words, from the best (international standard, a national laboratory) to the calibration laboratory, all uncertainties must be accounted for and utilized to express laboratory's uncertainty. Traceability insures the uniformity in time and space of the measurements (meaning that at any time and on any meridian the same measured parameter will have the same value).

It is important to note that traceability is the property of the result of a measurement, not of an instrument or calibration report or laboratory. Following any one particular procedure or using special equipment does not achieve it. Merely having an instrument calibrated, even by NIST, is not enough to make the measurement result obtained from that instrument traceable. The measurement system by which values are transferred must be clearly understood and under control.

To achieve and maintain traceability to the International System of Units (SI), a calibration laboratory must have implemented a quality system, environmental controls and increased competence so it complies with every one of the requirements listed in the IEC 17025 - 1999 standard.

Following are the key elements of the implemented traceability: a) reference standards calibrated directly by national laboratories or by other accredited laboratories that can prove traceability, b) use of validated procedures and test methods for all tested parameters, c) documented measurement conditions and uncertainties, which are reported with each measurements, d) internal measurement assurance program to insure maintenance of the quality of the standards and of the services provided, and e) competent personnel to perform service and calibrations.

The internal measurement assurance program is one of sufficient complexity, within an organization, to provide credibility to the measurement uncertainty and measurement result for which traceability is to be established. An internal measurement assurance program usually involves monitoring the performance (e.g., stability, and reproducibility) of the measurement system before and after it is used for calibrations.

5 ACCREDITATION

Laboratory accreditation - the procedure by which an authoritative body gives formal recognition that a laboratory is competent to carry out specific tasks. Accreditation does not itself qualify the laboratory to approve any particular product. However, accreditation may be relevant to approval and certification authorities when they decide whether or not to accept data produced by a given laboratory in connection with their own activities. (see ISO Guide 58 [6]). The laboratory accreditation, whether conducted by NIST/NVLAP or any other recognized accreditation body, is a finding of a lab-

oratory's competence and capability to provide scientifically sound and appropriate measurement services within their scope of accreditation. Embedded in the process is an evaluation of the lab's ability to achieve and maintain traceability for the accredited services. Accreditation to ISO/IEC Guide 25, now replaced with international standard ISO/IEC 17025 determines that a laboratory has all of the necessary facilities, equipment, standards, procedures, uncertainty analyses, personnel, etc., which make it capable of providing traceable measurement results. Laboratory accreditation speaks to the overall capability of a lab to provide the service. NIST experts often participate in the accreditation process, but the end result is a finding of competence and capability only it does not validate each particular result.

The fact that a laboratory is accredited does not necessarily mean that all tests provided are accredited. One must check the laboratory scope of accreditation, the presence of the accreditation body logo on certificate/report or a statement about type of tests, the presence of the measurement uncertainties...

This is what one laboratory, Scantek Inc., provides for various calibrations, some under the scope of accreditation, others not, as shown below.

5.1 Accredited Calibration Services

The measurements are performed using methods and procedures that have been assessed by NVLAP. The uncertainties reported for these measurements were also audited and ratified. This gives the highest degree of confidence that the measurements are accurate and traceable. It is possible that a

calibration certificate and test report having the NVLAP logo contain tests that are not covered by the scope of accreditation. These tests are individually identified with the text: "not covered by the current NVLAP accreditation."

5.2 ISO 17025 -1999 Calibration Services

The compliant calibration services where test procedures comply with the requirements of the standard and were audited by an internal audit only. These are also traceable services that either were validated only after the NIST assessment or were not to be accredited. Calibration certificates for these services do not contain the NVLAP logo.

5.3 Ordinary Calibration Services

The services that are in various development stages, mostly with the measurement uncertainty budget not fully developed. One good example is the calibration of ISO 140-6 tapping machines where, to measure momentum, we do not possess traceable scales or dimensional gages.

5.4 Customized Calibration/Test Services

Special services where, upon request, special tests can be developed and provided. These can be selected from the existing tests w/o modifications, by customizing tests or by developing new ones. If agreed upon, the adapted or new procedures can be developed according to our Quality System and be submitted to an internal audit. Only then, the traceability of the test results can be claimed. And a new assessment by NVLAP is required to incorporate this under Scantek's scope.

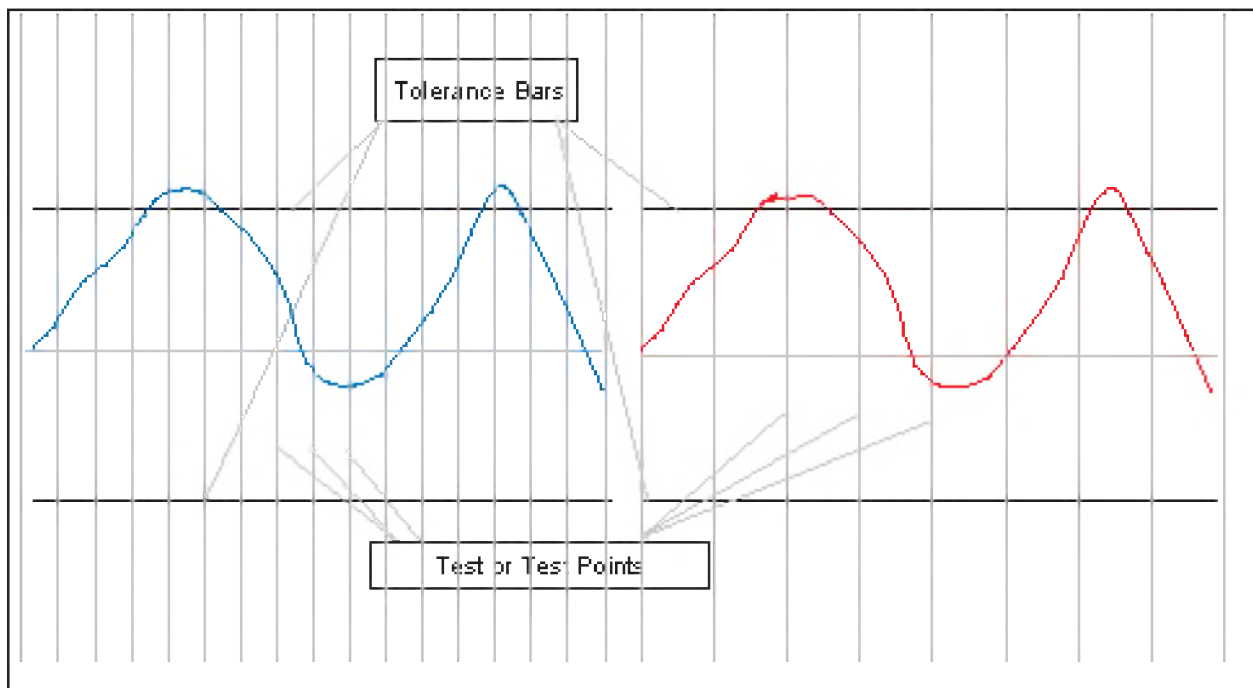


Figure 1. Influence on the frequency or numbers of test points on the confidence of calibration results: Left- Recommended by standards. Right- Reduced tests

6 PERIODIC CALIBRATIONS

There are two categories of calibrations: a) pattern evaluation (type testing) and b) verifications (periodic calibrations). The pattern evaluation contains the appropriate tests necessary to ascertain that an instrument entirely satisfies the requirements of the applicable standards. This means that everything, all specifications, are checked in a sample of instruments, and based on this sample, the "type" of the instrument is verified. It validates both the design and the capability of the instrument production line. This includes parameters such as temperature range, vibration tolerance, battery life, etc.

Periodic calibrations assure the user if that the performance of the instrument has not changed significantly from that determined in the initial tests. In order to ascertain that a meter is still within the requirements of the applicable standards or specifications, one can perform all the possible tests or only test the main parameters. The consequence of one of the other of these choices is illustrated in a simplified intuitive manner in Figure 1 which shows that reduced tests could not catch the eventual out of tolerance conditions, thus reducing the confidence in the measurement results. Normally, measurements performed in this manner should be reported with higher uncertainty. This figure shows also the difference between the standard calibration and basic calibration services that we use.

With increasing frequency, the newer instrumentation standards are including a more comprehensive list of the tests that should be performed for the periodic calibrations in order to be allowed to claim that the tested unit still complies with the standard.

7 CALIBRATION INTERVALS

Based on the ISO 17025 requirements, accredited laboratories do not provide a calibration interval on calibration sticker or certificate unless specified in writing by the customer and agreed by both parties. Nevertheless, based on the laboratory's experience, calibration history of customer's and similar instruments, and expected use of test instruments, the laboratory can help customers in establishing their own calibration intervals for the units they possess. Besides the manufacturer recommendations, which rarely are based on good data, recommended calibration intervals are based on calibration history (drift), use, and abuse of equipment, criticality of measurements, among other factors. Perhaps the most useful factor is the unit's calibration history.

When a drift or a decrease of accuracy is not observed (which is often the case for the electronic equipment), then the decision about the length of the calibration interval must be based upon other aspects:

- age of the unit compared to the estimated lifetime of the class of instruments;

- calibration results for instruments grouped by model and manufacturer
- conditions of use of the instrument (risk of mishandling, overload, aggressive environment, maintenance/cleaning)
- sensitivity of the instrument parts to aggressive environment (for instance, the microphone is far more sensitive and fragile than the instrument itself)
- costs of damages if measurements are performed with an out-of-tolerance unit (fees, damage repair or cost of repeating the tests, loss of credibility)
- requested accuracy (the use of a type 1 unit when only a type 2 is needed reduces the risk of necessity of repeating the measurements even if the unit is out-of-tolerances)
- Calibration costs and frequency of use of the unit. The lack of use does not give insurance that the unit is within tolerances. Nevertheless, if the unit is rarely used one should be concerned about the efficiency of calibrating the unit too often.

Finally, for reliable instruments, the frequency of the periodic tests is only determined by the need to obtain the proof or confidence that the instrument is within its known specifications.

As an example, for its own sound and vibration measuring instrumentation, Scantek, Inc. has established differentiated calibration intervals, in parallel with checks of functionality after each measurement in the field. The more sensitive instruments like calibrators, microphones, and accelerometers are more frequently calibrated (9-12 month) than the electronic instruments (1-1.5 years). Also, the very young and the very old units are checked every year. These intervals are updated after each calibration that revealed an out-of-tolerance condition.

8. SPECIFICS FOR THE CALIBRATION OF SOUND LEVEL METERS, DOSIMETERS, AND ANALYZERS

The calibration laboratory should offer calibration services to meet various needs of the customers, following the guidelines given in OIML R 58 [6] and OIML R 88 [7]. As required by the applicable standards, these complex units may be tested as systems, including the microphones and preamplifiers, or by components. The first approach is required for the pattern approval tests: acoustical methods and facilities (anechoic and reverberant rooms) are required. The test by components is used by the secondary laboratories like Scantek Inc., which do not possess anechoic rooms. The instrument is tested mainly using electrical methods. The global acoustical characteristics are calculated from the electrical responses and manufacturer provided corrections.

The test methods that most laboratories use for the sound

measuring instruments are detailed below, highlighting the aspects that may lead to confusions.

8.1 Microphones

Usually the pressure response at 250 Hz and the frequency response are determined. The latter is obtained either using the actuator method (which provides results equivalent to the pressure response) or by directly measuring the pressure response in a coupler. The other frequency characteristics (free-field for 0° incidence or diffuse field response) are calculated using the measured pressure response and the applicable corrections published by the manufacturer.

Here are some issues that are not discussed:

- a. The credibility of the corrections is not verified
- b. The corrections available from many of the manufacturers have no uncertainties reported, which is sign of lack of traceability – (therefore we cannot claim traceability on the calculated characteristics)
- c. The directivity of the microphone response is not checked.

8.2 SLM, Dosimeters, and Analyzers

Instrument parameters. The instrument is tested using electrical signals fed directly into the preamplifier through an adequate adaptor. The test signals are successively sine, continuous tone bursts, single tone bursts and, rectangular – all with various frequency and duration parameters. In this way, all main functions of the instrument are tested: input stages, weighting networks, time constant circuits, accuracy of calculated functions (Max., Leq, SEL, dose...).

Note that the standards require a long list of tests to be performed in order to allow the compliance claims. Performing tests using the methods published in the standards is not equivalent to a claim of compliance with the standard. Second, many laboratories perform only tests with sine signals. Testing the instruments only with sine wave will not characterize the response on the unit to impulsive signals. In normal use, the instrument measures sounds, which are impulsive most of the time. Ask about the content of tests within a calibration service in order to compare the providers or to establish a customized service to respond to your need and desired price. Testing the instrument accuracy at one frequency using a calibrator is not something that should be paid for....

Global characteristics of the instrument. The global acoustical characteristics of the instrument are calculated by combining the measured microphone and sound level meter responses. Note that the directivity characteristic of the instrument is not tested at any time and corrections due to the instrument body are only added when available.

Dosimeters require not only regular tests as a SLM but addi-

tional tests in accordance with the dedicated standard. One should not be surprised of the higher calibration cost for dosimeters (unless the tests are sacrificed to obtain a lower price).

The octave and one-third octave band filter sets must be tested if present in the instrument. Again, the tests are performed using electrical method. The filter response is additionally influenced by the frequency response of the meter – microphone included (one cannot expect to measure up to 20 kHz with an instrument whose frequency response falls after 12.5 kHz) even if the filters are present. In order to correctly use such a unit, one should use the calibration data in order to apply adequate corrections.

All instruments are tested in accordance with the manufacturer specifications. If the standard for which the manufacturer claims compliance is obsolete, the calibration will not upgrade the instrument to comply with a new standard, even if some tests are performed according to the new standards. No claim of compliance with a standard can be issued based solely on the periodic tests. A pattern evaluation test is required for this.

9 CONCLUSIONS

The user of the instruments is required to make decisions about its instruments - from acquisition, calibration and maintenance, use and finally to removal from use. This paper attempts to provide details of some of the aspects related to the calibration of instruments and about responsibilities (calibration intervals, choice of laboratory and service type, use of instruments complying with the adequate standards, etc.). It must be noted, however, that this paper is neither comprehensive, nor exhaustive.

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Manuel d'hygiène du travail. Du diagnostic à la maîtrise des facteurs de risque, Modulo-Griffon Inc. 2004

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Le bruit est présent dans toutes les sphères de notre existence, et le milieu de travail n'échappe pas au bruit et à ses effets néfastes sur les travailleurs. Les effets du bruit ne sont pas limités aux conséquences auditives mais altèrent aussi de façon considérable la santé, le bien-être et la sécurité. Dans le milieu de travail, il s'agit d'une problématique importante entraînant des coûts considérables. Malgré que cette problématique soit connue depuis longtemps, peu d'ouvrages dressant un portrait complet du bruit en milieu de travail et des méthodes utilisées pour limiter ses effets sont disponibles en français. Deux chapitres dans le livre «Manuel d'hygiène du travail. Du diagnostic à la maîtrise des facteurs de risque» réussissent à bien exposer les méfaits du bruit en milieu de travail et la façon des les contrôler.

Chapitre 10: Bruit – M. Trottier, T. Leroux & J-E. Deadman Ce chapitre, intitulé « Bruit », consiste en 25 pages traitant de divers aspects relatifs au bruit en milieu de travail et est organisé en 5 sections formant un tout logique et facile à lire: 1) Physique du bruit; 2) Anatomie de l'oreille et physiologie de l'audition; 3) Bruit et santé et sécurité du travail; 4) Surveillance de l'exposition et 5) Maîtrise des effets du bruit en milieu de travail.

Dans l'introduction, les auteurs exposent succinctement la problématique particulière du bruit en milieu de travail, incluant la fréquence des demandes d'indemnisation pour surdité professionnelle et les coûts relatifs au cas d'indemnisation au Québec. Ce bref exposé suscite très efficacement l'intérêt des lecteurs en faisant valoir la gravité des conséquences associées à cet agresseur qu'est le bruit.

Dans la première section (Physique du bruit), les auteurs définissent le bruit ainsi que divers paramètres physiques tels que la puissance acoustique, la fréquence, la longueur d'onde, l'amplitude, l'intensité acoustique, la pression sonore, les réseaux de pondération et le niveau sonore équivalent continu. L'analyse spectrale et la nature du bruit y sont également abordées. Malgré une description trop peu détaillée des réseaux de pondération, cette première section offre des explications claires de concepts parfois difficiles à comprendre pour les nouveaux initiés en s'appuyant sur une multitude d'exemples concrets, d'applications pratiques, de figures et d'analogies pour en faciliter la compréhension.

Quoique brève, la description de l'anatomie et de la physiologie de l'audition retrouvée dans la deuxième section du chapitre consiste en une vulgarisation appropriée des structures et rôles principaux des différentes parties de l'oreille,

ainsi que des dommages que peuvent entraîner l'exposition prolongée aux bruits intenses. Il s'agit donc d'un résumé très concis du fonctionnement de l'oreille nécessaire à la compréhension des effets auditifs du bruit en milieu de travail. Cette section peut servir d'outil utile lors de la sensibilisation des milieux de travail face aux effets néfastes du bruit, aux moyens de protection et aux méthodes de réduction du bruit.

La troisième section, « Bruit et santé et sécurité du travail » consiste en une revue concise des effets auditifs et extra-auditifs du bruit, ainsi que de l'impact sur la santé et la sécurité au travail. Les auteurs énumèrent d'abord les milieux de travail présentant un risque non négligeable d'atteinte à l'audition pour enchaîner avec les effets auditifs du bruit, plus particulièrement la surdité professionnelle. Les procédures d'évaluation de l'audition, la surveillance médicale et les examens auditifs de dépistage en milieu de travail sont ensuite abordés. Les auteurs dressent un portrait réaliste et honnête de la situation courante en ce qui a trait aux procédures et à l'utilisation des résultats obtenus lors d'un examen auditif de dépistage ou d'une évaluation audiolinguistique clinique. En effet, certaines mises en garde sont offertes, plus particulièrement en ce qui concerne les limites de la surveillance médicale, soit la faiblesse des résultats audiométriques à prédire les difficultés ou situations de handicap vécues par le travailleur atteint d'une perte auditive et la pauvre valeur préventive de l'audiogramme de dépistage. Par la suite, la relation dose-effet et les facteurs de bissection sont discutés, en accordant une emphase particulière au débat entre le facteur de 3 dB et celui de 5 dB. Les facteurs pouvant aggraver l'effet du bruit en milieu de travail sont ensuite discutés, suivis des autres effets du bruit sur la santé, le bien-être et la sécurité.

Les programmes de surveillance de l'exposition au bruit, incluant les objectifs visés et les éléments de tels programmes, sont abordés dans la quatrième section du chapitre. Une emphase particulière est accordée à l'évaluation de l'exposition au bruit. Les valeurs de référence en matière d'exposition au bruit sont présentées, en prenant soin de comparer les valeurs appliquées au Québec à celles utilisées ailleurs. Plus particulièrement, les valeurs de référence réglementaires pour différents types de bruit sont exposées, ainsi que celles traitant de la prévention en milieu de travail et les quarts de travail prolongés. Par la suite, les auteurs font état des deux méthodes principales d'évaluation dont disposent les intervenants, soit la sonométrie et la dosimétrie, et des principes de base relatifs au mesurage de l'exposition au bruit, à l'utilisation de groupes à exposition similaire, à l'évaluation de l'exposition en fonction des tâches, à l'évaluation des situations particulières et à l'évaluation des travailleurs ayant déjà été exposés. Cette section, la plus longue du chapitre, est une revue exhaustive de l'évaluation de l'exposition au bruit et offre aux intervenants les bases nécessaires ainsi que des pistes à suivre pour effectuer des mesures appropriées, tout en prenant en considération les particularités des dif-

férents milieux de travail.

Finalement, la dernière section du chapitre couvre la maîtrise des effets du bruit en milieu de travail. Les principes généraux en ce qui a trait aux activités visant la réduction de l'exposition, aux mesures administratives et à la protection personnelle y sont brièvement abordés. L'information est organisée selon une suite logique, en introduisant d'abord la méthode privilégiée pour réduire les effets du bruit. Les auteurs dressent un portrait honnête de l'utilité des protecteurs auditifs et des lacunes associées à leur utilisation. Quoique brève, cette section offre divers exemples pratiques visant la réduction des effets du bruit et sert principalement à introduire le lecteur aux principes qui sont abordés dans le second chapitre traitant du bruit, soit le chapitre 32 intitulé « Réduction du bruit ».

L'information présentée dans ce chapitre est transmise de façon claire et concise et respecte une suite logique, d'une description du bruit et de ses effets vers l'évaluation de l'exposition et finalement les méthodes visant la réduction des effets du bruit en milieu de travail. L'attention aux particularités des divers milieux de travail et le souci des auteurs d'assurer une bonne compréhension de la matière sont transparents et sont démontrés dans l'ensemble du chapitre par l'utilisation d'exemples concrets, de calculs, de tableaux et figures appropriés et de références à plusieurs documents d'information et normes. Ce résumé concis du bruit en milieu de travail représente un atout considérable tant pour l'enseignement aux nouveaux initiés dans le domaine que dans le cadre d'efforts de sensibilisation des milieux de travail.

Chapitre 32: Réduction du bruit – P. Nguyen, L. Ménard & G. Parent. Le second chapitre traitant du bruit en milieu de travail, intitulé « Réduction du bruit », est un guide pratique de 15 pages exposant dans un ordre logique les diverses étapes à privilégier dans la gestion du bruit, soit: 1) l'identification des priorités; 2) l'identification des sources de bruit; 3) l'identification des modes de propagation sonore; 4) l'identification des méthodes de réduction du bruit appropriées pour le milieu de travail et 5) l'achat de nouveaux équipements moins bruyants.

Dans l'introduction, les auteurs exposent les grandes lignes de la gestion du bruit, un bref résumé de ce qui suivra, et identifient entre autres les trois grandes méthodes de réduction du bruit, soit la réduction du bruit à la source, la réduction de la propagation des ondes sonores et la réduction du bruit au point récepteur.

Les trois premières sections du chapitre servent d'outil utile pour aider les lecteurs à dresser un plan d'action pour la gestion du bruit dans un milieu de travail quelconque. Des conseils pratiques, règles générales et exemples à l'appui sont fournis pour faciliter 1) l'établissement des priorités en prenant en considération l'écart entre le niveau sonore mesuré et la limite acceptée, le nombre de personnes exposées et la gêne, 2) l'identification des sources principales de bruit par

l'entremise de mesures acoustiques et 3) l'identification des modes de propagation des ondes sonores (voie aérienne et voie structurale).

Les informations obtenues au cours des étapes décrites dans les premières sections du chapitre sont nécessaires à l'identification des solutions les plus efficaces pour gérer le bruit dans le milieu donné. La quatrième section du chapitre, la plus volumineuse, expose les grandes lignes de la réduction du bruit à la source et de l'atténuation de la propagation des ondes sonores en proposant plusieurs options. D'excellentes figures sont utilisées pour faciliter la compréhension, sans quoi les nouveaux initiés au domaine de l'utilisation de procédés d'ingénierie dans la réduction du bruit pourraient se perdre dans l'abondance des termes techniques. Les auteurs exposent les solutions possibles d'une façon simple et franche en mettant une emphase particulière sur la réduction de bruit à la source comme méthode privilégiée et en suggérant aux lecteurs de consulter d'autres documents techniques ainsi que des spécialistes avant d'investir dans des procédés parfois coûteux.

Pour clore sur le sujet, les auteurs insistent sur l'achat de nouveaux équipements moins bruyants qui répondent néanmoins aux besoins du milieu afin de prévenir d'éventuels problèmes de bruit.

Dans l'ensemble, il s'agit d'un excellent document pour introduire les lecteurs aux solutions possibles de réduction du bruit. Par contre, une lacune importante réside dans l'absence d'information sur la troisième catégorie de méthodes de réduction du bruit, la réduction du bruit au point récepteur (ex: protection auditive) et les méthodes administratives. Quoique découragée comme solution au problème du bruit dans les milieux de travail, l'utilisation de protecteurs auditifs est en réalité très fréquente et parfois nécessaire pour réduire les niveaux de bruit à des niveaux sécuritaires lorsque les autres méthodes de gestion s'avèrent insuffisantes, trop coûteuses ou même incompatibles avec les besoins du milieu. En leur défense, les auteurs réfèrent cependant les lecteurs à une norme sur les protecteurs auditifs dans l'introduction.

Quoique rendue facile à comprendre, l'information présentée dans ces deux chapitres est suffisamment détaillée pour servir d'outil de travail aux intervenants en hygiène du travail et autres intervenants du domaine de la santé et sécurité au travail. En s'appuyant sur ces documents ainsi que sur les normes appropriées, ceux-ci seront adéquatement armés des bases essentielles pour mener la lutte contre le bruit en milieu de travail.

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NEWS / INFORMATIONS

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14-16 March: 2006 Spring Meeting of the Acoustical Society of Japan. Tokyo, Japan. Web: www.asj.gr.jp/index-en.html

20-23 March: Meeting of the German Acoustical Society (DAGA 2006). Web: www.daga2006.de

03-04 April: Futures in Acoustics. Southampton UK. Web: www.ioa.org.uk

24-27 April: 8th Congress of the French Acoustical Society. Tours, France. Web: <http://cfa06.med.univ-tours.fr>

02-05 May: International Conference on Speech Prosody. Dresden, Germany. Web: www.ias.et.tu-dresden.de/sp2006

05-07 May: 6th International Conference on Auditorium Acoustics. Copenhagen, Denmark. Web: www.ioa.org.uk/viewupcoming.asp

08-10 May: 12th AIAA/CEAS Aeroacoustics Conference. Cambridge MA, USA. Web: www.aiaa.org

10-12 May: 33rd Congress of the Acoustical Society of Italy. Ischia, Italy. Web: <http://www.associazioneitalianadiacustica.it>

15-19 May: IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech, and Signal Processing (IEEE ICASSP 2006). Toulouse, France. Web: <http://icassp2006.org>

16-19 May: Oceans '06 Asia Pacific IEEE Conference. Singapore. Web: www.oceans06asiapacific.org

23-26 May: 17th Session of the Russian Acoustical Society. Moscow, Russia. Web: www.akin.ru

May 30 - June 1: 6th European Conference on Noise Control (Euronoise 2006). Tampere, Finland. Web: www.euronoise2006.org

5-7 June: 6th European Conference on Noise Control (Euronoise2006). Web: www.acoustics.hut.fi/asf

5-9 June: 151st Meeting of the Acoustical Society of America, Providence, Rhode Island. Contact: Acoustical Society of America, Suite 1NO1, 2 Huntington Quadrangle, Melville, NY 11747-4502; Tel: 516-576-2360; Fax: 516-576-2377; E-mail: asa@aip.org; Web: asa.aip.org

12-15 June: 8th European Conference on Underwater Acoustics. Carvoeira, Portugal. Web: www.ecua2006.org

25-30 June: 15th Congress of Theoretical and Applied Mechanics (including physical acoustics, structural acoustics, vibration), Boulder CO, USA. Web: <http://usnctam06.colorado.edu>

26-28 June: 9th Western Pacific Acoustics Conference. Seoul, Korea. Web: www.wespac8.com/WespacIX.html

26-29 June: 11th International Conference on Speech and Computer. St. Petersburg, Russia. Web: www.specom.nw.ru

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03-04 avril: Futures dans l'Acoustics. Southampton UK. Web: www.ioa.org.uk

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26-29 juin: 11th International Conference sur Speech et Computer. St. Petersburg, Russia. Web: www.specom.nw.ru

3-7 July: 13th International Congress on Sound and Vibration (ICSV13). Vienna, Austria. [Http://info.tuwien.ac.at/icsv13](http://info.tuwien.ac.at/icsv13)

17-19 July: 9th International Conference on Recent Advances in Structural Dynamics. Southampton, UK. Web: www.isvr.soton.ac.uk/sd2006/index.htm

22-26 August: 9th International Conference on Music Perception and Cognition, Bologna, Italy. Web: <http://www.icmpc2006.org>

13-15 September: Autumn Meeting of the Acoustical Society of Japan. Web: www.asj.gr.jp/index-en.html

17-21 September: Interspeech 2006 - ICSLP. Web: www.interspeech2006.org

18-20 September: International Conference on Noise and Vibration Engineering (ISMA2006). Leuven, Belgium. Web: www.isma-isaac.be

18-20 September: ACTIVE 2006, 6th International Symposium on Active Noise and Vibration Control. University of Adelaide, South Australia, Australia. Web: www.active2006.com

18-20 September: 12th International Conference on Low Frequency Noise and Vibration and its control. Bristol, UK. Web: www.lowfrequency2006.org

18-21 September: INTERSPEECH 2006 - ICSLP. Pittsburgh, PA, USA. Web: www.interspeech2006.org

03-06 October: IEEE International Ultrasonics Symposium. Vancouver, Canada. Contacts TBA

11-13 October: Annual Conference of the Canadian Acoustical Association, Halifax, Nova Scotia. Web: <http://www.caa-aca.ca/halifax-2006.html>

18-20 October: 37th Spanish Congress on Acoustics. Joint with Iberian Meeting on Acoustics, Gandia-Valencia, Spain. Web: <http://www.ia.csic.es/sea/index.html>

25-28 October: 5th Iberoamerican Congress on Acoustics. Santiago, Chile. Web: www.fia2006.cl

20-22 November: Joint Australia/New Zealand Acoustical Conference. Christchurch, New Zealand. Web: www.acoustics.org.nz

28 November – 2 December: 152nd meeting, 4th Joint Meeting of the Acoustical Society of America and the Acoustical Society of Japan, Honolulu, Hawaii. Contact: Acoustical Society of America, Suite 1NO1, 2 Huntington Quadrangle, Melville, NY 11747-4502; Tel: 516-576-2360; Fax: 516-576-2377; E-mail: asa@aip.org; Web: www.asa.aip.org

3 - 6 December: INTER-NOISE 2006, Honolulu HA, USA (Same Hotel at ASA meeting the week preceeding). Web: www.inceusa.org

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17-20 April. IEEE International Congress on Acoustics, Speech, and Signal Processing (IEEE ICASSP 2007). Honolulu, HI, USA. Web: <http://www.icassp2007.org>

16-20 May: IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech, and Signal Processing (IEEE ICASSP 2007). Honolulu, HI, USA. Web: www.icassp2007.org

04-08 June: 153rd Meeting of the Acoustical Society of America. Salt Lake City, Utah, USA. Web: www.asa.aip.org

3-7 juillet: 13th Congress Internationale sur Sound et Vibration (ICSV13). Vienna, Austria. [Http://info.tuwien.ac.at/icsv13](http://info.tuwien.ac.at/icsv13)

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18-20 septembre: ACTIVE 2006, 6th International Symposium sur Active Noise et Vibration Control. University d'Adelaide, South Australia, Australia. Web: www.active2006.com

18-20 septembre: 12th International Conference sur Low Frequency Noise et Vibration et control. Bristol, UK. Web: www.lowfrequency2006.org

18-21 septembre: INTERSPEECH 2006 - ICSLP. Pittsburgh, PA, USA. Web: www.interspeech2006.org

03-06 octobre: IEEE International Ultrasonics Symposium. Vancouver, Canada. Contacts TBA

11-13 octobre: Annual Conference de l'Association Acoustical Canadiene, Halifax, Nova Scotia. Web: <http://www.caa-aca.ca/halifax-2006.html>

18-20 octobre: 37th Spanish Congress sur Acoustics. Joint avec Iberian Meeting sur Acoustics, Gandia-Valencia, Spain. Web: <http://www.ia.csic.es/sea/index.html>

25-28 octobre: 5th Iberoamerican Congress sur Acoustics. Santiago, Chile. Web: www.fia2006.cl

20-22 novembre: Joint Australia/New Zealand Acoustical Conference. Christchurch, New Zealand. Web: www.acoustics.org.nz

28 novembre – 2 decembre: 152^e rencontre, 4^e Rencontre acoustique jointe de l'Acoustical Society of America, et l'Acoustical Society of Japan, Honolulu, Hawaii. Info: Acoustical Society of America, Suite 1NO1, 2 Huntington Quadrangle, Melville, NY 11747-4502; Tél.: 516-576-2360; Fax: 516-576-2377; Courriel: asa@aip.org; Web: www.asa.aip.org

3 - 6 decembre: INTER-NOISE 2006, Honolulu HA, USA (Same Hotel at ASA meeting the week preceeding). Web: www.inceusa.org

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17-20 avril. IEEE Congress Internationale sur Acoustics, Speech, et Signal Processing (IEEE ICASSP 2007). Honolulu, HI, USA. Web: <http://www.icassp2007.org>

16-20 mai: IEEE International Conference sur Acoustics, Speech, et Signal Processing (IEEE ICASSP 2007). Honolulu, HI, USA. Web: www.icassp2007.org

04-08 juin: 153rd Meeting de l'Acoustical Society d'America. Salt Lake City, Utah, USA. Web: www.asa.aip.org

9-12 July: 14th International Congress on Sound and Vibration (ICSV14). Cairns, Australia. Email: n.kessissoglou@unsw.edu.au

26-29 August: Inter-noise 2007. Istanbul, Turkey. Web: www.internoise2007.org.tr

27-31 August: Interspeech 2007. E-mail: conf@isca-speech.org

2-7 September 19th International Congress on Acoustics (ICA2007), Madrid Spain. (SEA, Serrano 144, 28006 Madrid, Spain; Web: www.ica2007madrid.org

9-12 September: ICA2007 Satellite Symposium on Musical Acoustics (ISMA2007). Barcelona, Spain. Web: www.isma2007.org

9-12 September: ICA2007 Satellite Symposium on Room Acoustics (ISMA2007). Sevilla, Spain. Web: www.isra2007.org

November 27 - December 02: 154th Meeting of the Acoustical Society of America. New Orleans, LA, USA. Web: www.asa.aip.org

9-12 juillet: 14th Congress Internationale sur Sound et Vibration (ICSV14). Cairns, Australia. Email: n.kessissoglou@unsw.edu.au

26-29 août: Inter-noise 2007. Istanbul, Turkey. Web: www.internoise2007.org.tr

27-31 août: Interspeech 2007. E-mail: conf@isca-speech.org

2-7 septembre 19^e Congrès international sur l'acoustique (ICA2007), Madrid Spain. (SEA, Serrano 144, 28006 Madrid, Spain; Web: www.ica2007madrid.org

9-12 septembre: ICA2007 Satellite Symposium sur Musical Acoustics (ISMA2007). Barcelona, Spain. Web: www.isma2007.org

9-12 septembre: ICA2007 Satellite Symposium sur Room Acoustics (ISMA2007). Sevilla, Spain. Web: www.isra2007.org

novembre 27 - decembre 02: 154th Meeting de l'Acoustical Society d'America. New Orleans, LA, USA. Web: www.asa.aip.org

2008

29 June - 04 July: Joint Meeting of European Acoustical Association, Acoustical Society of America, and Acoustical Society of France. Paris, France. Web: www.sfa.asso.fr/en/index.htm

28 July - 1 August: 9th International Congress on Noise as a Public Health Problem. Mashantucket, Pequot Tribal Nation, (CT, USA). Web: www.icben.org

22-26 September: Interspeech 2008 - 10th ICSLP, Brisbane, Australia. Web: www.interspeech2008.org

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29 juin - 04 juillet - 04 July: Joint Meeting d'European Acoustical Association, Acoustical Society d'America, et Acoustical Society du France. Paris, France. Web: www.sfa.asso.fr/en/index.htm

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The Canadian Acoustical Association L'Association Canadienne d'Acoustique

PRIZE ANNOUNCEMENT • ANNONCE DE PRIX

A number of prizes and subsidies are offered annually by The Canadian Acoustical Association. Applicants can obtain full eligibility conditions, deadlines, application forms, past recipients, and the names of the individual prize coordinators on the CAA Website (<http://www.caa-aca.ca>). • Plusieurs prix et subventions sont décernés à chaque année par l'Association Canadienne d'Acoustique. Les candidats peuvent se procurer de plus amples renseignements sur les conditions d'éligibilités, les échéances, les formulaires de demande, les récipiendaires des années passées ainsi que le nom des coordonnateurs des prix en consultant le site Internet de l'ACA (<http://www.caa-aca.ca>).

Deadline: Shaw, Bell, Fessenden, Eckel and Hétu Prizes: **30 April 2006**
Échéance: Prix Shaw, Bell, Fessenden, Eckel et Hétu: **30 Avril 2006**

EDGAR AND MILLICENT SHAW POSTDOCTORAL PRIZE IN ACOUSTICS • PRIX POST-DOCTORAL EDGAR AND MILLICENT SHAW EN ACOUSTIQUE

\$3,000 for full-time postdoctoral research training in an established setting other than the one in which the Ph.D. was earned. The research topic must be related to some area of acoustics, psychoacoustics, speech communication or noise. • \$3,000 pour une formation recherche à temps complet au niveau postdoctoral dans un établissement reconnu autre que celui où le candidat a reçu son doctorat. Le thème de recherche doit être relié à un domaine de l'acoustique, de la psycho-acoustique, de la communication verbale ou du bruit.

ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL GRADUATE STUDENT PRIZE IN SPEECH COMMUNICATION AND BEHAVIOURAL ACOUSTICS • PRIX ÉTUDIANT ALEXANDRE GRAHAM BELL EN COMMUNICATION VERBALE ET ACOUSTIQUE COMPORTEMENTALE

\$800 for a graduate student enrolled at a Canadian academic institution and conducting research in the field of speech communication or behavioural acoustics. • \$800 à un(e) étudiant(e) inscrit(e) au 2e ou 3e cycle dans une institution académique canadienne et menant un projet de recherche en communication verbale ou acoustique comportementale.

FESSENDEN GRADUATE STUDENT PRIZE IN UNDERWATER ACOUSTICS • PRIX ÉTUDIANT FESSENDEN EN ACOUSTIQUE SOUS-MARINE

\$500 for a graduate student enrolled at a Canadian academic institution and conducting research in underwater acoustics or in a branch of science closely connected to underwater acoustics. • \$500 à un(e) étudiant(e) inscrit(e) au 2e ou 3e cycle dans une institution académique canadienne et menant un projet de recherche en acoustique sous-marine ou dans une discipline reliée à l'acoustique sous-marine.

ECKEL GRADUATE STUDENT PRIZE IN NOISE CONTROL • PRIX ÉTUDIANT ECKEL EN CONTRÔLE DU BRUIT

\$500 for a graduate student enrolled at a Canadian academic institution and conducting research related to the advancement of the practice of noise control. • \$500 à un(e) étudiant(e) inscrit(e) au 2e ou 3e cycle dans une institution académique canadienne et menant un projet de recherche relié à l'avancement de la pratique du contrôle du bruit.

RAYMOND HÉTU UNDERGRADUATE PRIZE IN ACOUSTICS • PRIX ÉTUDIANT RAYMOND HÉTU EN ACOUSTIQUE

One book in acoustics of a maximum value of \$100 and a one-year subscription to *Canadian Acoustics* for an undergraduate student enrolled at a Canadian academic institution and having completed, during the year of application, a project in any field of acoustics or vibration. • Un livre sur l'acoustique et un abonnement d'un an à la revue *Acoustique Canadienne* à un(e) étudiant(e) inscrit(e) dans un programme de 1er cycle dans une institution académique canadienne et qui a réalisé, durant l'année de la demande, un projet dans le domaine de l'acoustique ou des vibrations.

CANADA-WIDE SCIENCE FAIR AWARD • PRIX EXPO-SCIENCES PANCANADIENNE

\$400 and a one-year subscription to *Canadian Acoustics* for the best project related to acoustics at the Fair by a high-school student • \$400 et un abonnement d'un an à la revue *Acoustique Canadienne* pour le meilleur projet relié à l'acoustique à l'Expo-sciences par un(e) étudiant(e) du secondaire.

DIRECTORS' AWARDS • PRIX DES DIRECTEURS

One \$500 award for the best refereed research, review or tutorial paper published in *Canadian Acoustics* by a student member and one \$500 award for the best paper by an individual member • \$500 pour le meilleur article de recherche, de recensement des travaux ou d'exposé didactique arbitré publié dans *l'Acoustique Canadienne* par un membre étudiant et \$500 pour le meilleur article par un membre individuel.

STUDENT PRESENTATION AWARDS • PRIX POUR COMMUNICATIONS ÉTUDIANTES

Three \$500 awards for the best student oral presentations at the Annual Symposium of The Canadian Acoustical Association. • Trois prix de \$500 pour les meilleures communications orales étudiant(e)s au Symposium Annuel de l'Association Canadienne d'Acoustique.

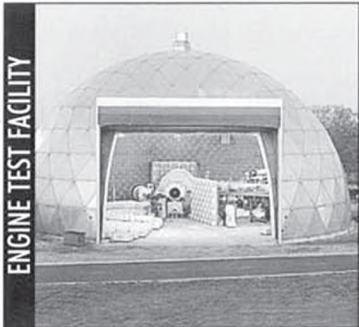
STUDENT TRAVEL SUBSIDIES • SUBVENTIONS POUR FRAIS DE DÉPLACEMENT POUR ÉTUDIANTS

Travel subsidies are available to assist student members who are presenting a paper during the Annual Symposium of The Canadian Acoustical Association if they live at least 150 km from the conference venue. • Des subventions pour frais de déplacement sont disponibles pour aider les membres étudiants à venir présenter leurs travaux lors du Symposium Annuel de l'Association Canadienne d'Acoustique, s'ils demeurent à au moins 150 km du lieu du congrès.

UNDERWATER ACOUSTICS AND SIGNAL PROCESSING STUDENT TRAVEL SUBSIDIES •

SUBVENTIONS POUR FRAIS DE DÉPLACEMENT POUR ÉTUDIANTS EN ACOUSTIQUE SOUS-MARINE ET TRAITEMENT DU SIGNAL

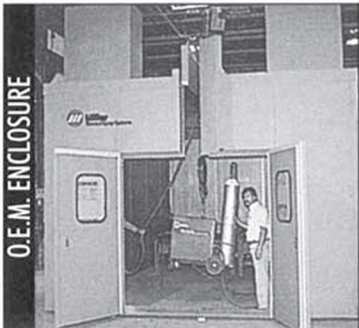
One \$500 or two \$250 awards to assist students traveling to national or international conferences to give oral or poster presentations on underwater acoustics and/or signal processing. • Une bourse de \$500 ou deux de \$250 pour aider les étudiant(e)s à se rendre à un congrès national ou international pour y présenter une communication orale ou une affiche dans le domaine de l'acoustique sous-marine ou du traitement du signal.



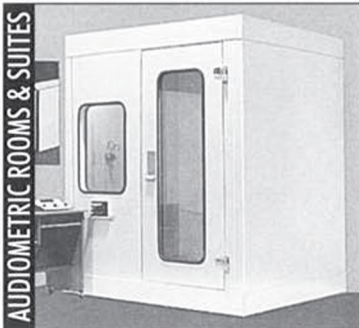
ENGINE TEST FACILITY



ECKOUSTIC FUNCTIONAL PANELS

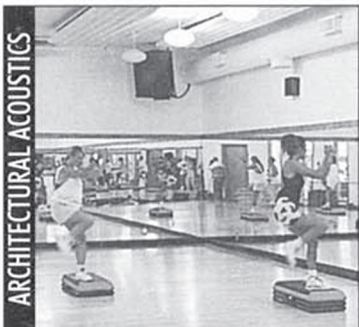


O.E.M. ENCLOSURE

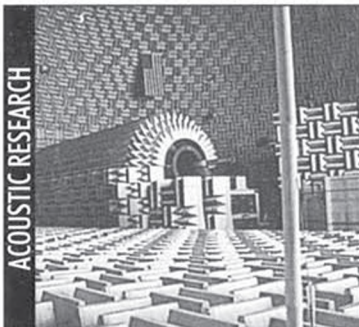


AUDIOMETRIC ROOMS & SUITES

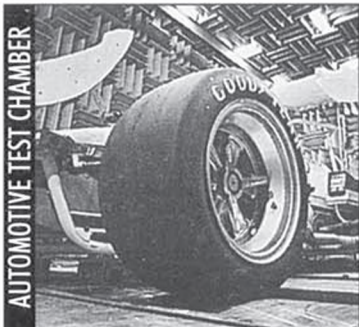
SOUND SOLUTIONS FOR THE FUTURE



ARCHITECTURAL ACOUSTICS



ACOUSTIC RESEARCH



AUTOMOTIVE TEST CHAMBER



REVERBERATION ROOM

ECKEL

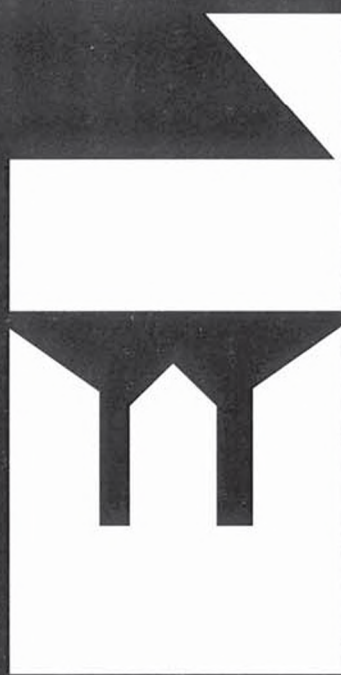
NOISE CONTROL TECHNOLOGIES

CANADIAN OFFICE

Box 776 100 Allison Avenue Morrisburg ON K0C 1X0

Tel: 613-543-2967 800-563-3574 Fax: 613-543-4173

Web site: www.eckel.ca/eckel e-mail: eckel@eckel.ca



NOISE CONTROL TECHNOLOGIES

CAA Annual Conference in Halifax

Oct 11 – 13, 2006

www.caa-aca.ca/halifax-2006.html

Second Announcement

The 2006 annual conference of the Canadian Acoustical Association will be held in Halifax, 11-13 October 2006. There will be two and a half days of parallel sessions of papers on all areas of acoustics and auditory perception, as well as an interesting array of exhibits detailing acoustical products. Mark your calendars and plan now to participate!

Special Sessions

We are planning many special sessions of contributed papers, as well as welcoming papers from all areas of acoustics. To date, the planned special sessions and organizers include those listed below. If you are interested in organizing a Special Session, please contact the Technical Chair.

Special Session	Organizer
Physical Acoustics/Ultrasound	Igor Mastikhin
Noise Control	Cameron Sherry
Speech Sciences	Scott Adams
Hearing Conservation	Alberto Behar
Architectural Acoustics	Dave Quirt
Underwater Acoustics	Sean Pecknold
Sensors, Probes, and Arrays	Brad Gover
High-frequency Acoustics/Communications	Anna Crawford
Music Cognition	Annabel Cohen
Bio-Acoustics	Marjo Laurinolli

Plenary Sessions

We are very excited to announce our two distinguished plenary speakers: Dennis Jones and Michael Kieffe.

Ethereal and reverberant, the song of the Hermit Thrush (*Catharus guttatus*) is one of the most beautiful in North America. Dennis will talk about a systematic analysis of many songs from birds in and around Halifax, Nova Scotia, that has revealed underlying complexities and subtleties that may allow individuals to be identified by sound alone.

Michael will provide an overview of recent advances in speech production and perception research at Dalhousie University from basic auditory processes in vowel perception to problems in dialectal variation in Nova Scotia.

Associated Events

The Canadian Standards Association (CSA) Committee Z 107 in Acoustics and Noise Control will hold a meeting Wednesday evening (11 Oct 2006). Contact Tim Kelsall (tkelsall@hatch.ca) for more information.

A reception and banquet will be held at the conference hotel on Thursday evening (12 Oct 2006). Tickets will be included in the registration of participants, please remember to pre-order extras for family and friends.

Venue and Accommodation

The conference will be held at the Citadel Halifax Hotel (www.citadelhalifax.com; 1-800-565-7162). Standard rooms are being offered for \$145/night (+ taxes) based on single or double occupancy; additional adults will be an extra \$15/night. Parking is available for an overnight charge of \$9/day. Please stay at this hotel to support the CAA.

Travel

The Citadel Halifax Hotel is located in downtown Halifax, within walking distance to many restaurants and amenities. Taxis to/from the Halifax International Airport to/from Halifax are a flat fee of \$53 one way and there is an Airport Bus Service that goes to/from local hotels (including Citadel Halifax) for \$14 one way and \$24 for a return ticket (Note: prices may vary by Oct 2006). October is a beautiful time to visit Nova Scotia, for more tourist information log onto www.novascotia.com.

Exhibits

The exhibit area is directly connected to the main session rooms and will be the central coffee break area. Please contact the Exhibit Coordinators for early information on the planned exhibit and sponsorship of various aspects of this meeting.

Student Participation

CAA strongly encourages and supports student participation in the annual conference. Student members who make presentations can apply for travel support and to win one of a number of student presentation awards. Please see the conference website for details.

Abstract and Summary Paper Submission

Wow – brand new this year, we will be offering an online abstract and summary paper submission service! All details will be posted on the conference website. Please contact the Website Manager with questions and comments. Deadlines are provided below.

Registration

Registration information will be available on the conference website. All participants must register for the conference. Early registration closes 15 Sept 2006; however, a registration desk will be open throughout the conference.

Conference Organizers		
Conference Chair	Nicole Collison	nicole.collison@drdc-rddc.gc.ca
Technical Chair	Francine Desharnais	francine.desharnais@drdc-rddc.gc.ca
Exhibit Coordinators	Joe Hood & Derek Burnett	jhood@mdacorporation.com & dburnett@mdacorporation.com
Website Manager	Dave Stredulinsky	dave.stredulinsky@drdc-rddc.gc.ca
Treasurer	Dave Chapman	dave.chapman@drdc-rddc.gc.ca
Logistics (Technical)	Jim Milne	jim.milne@drdc-rddc.gc.ca
(Registration)	Cheryl Munroe	cheryl.munroe@drdc-rddc.gc.ca

Important Dates	
Abstract submission deadline	16 June 2006
Notice of abstract acceptance deadline	30 June 2006
Paper submission deadline	4 August 2006
Student travel subsidy submission deadline	4 August 2006
Early Registration Rate deadline	15 September 2006
CAA Annual Conference, Citadel Inn, Halifax	11-13 October 2006

Semaine canadienne d'acoustique 2006

11 – 13 octobre 2006

www.caa-aca.ca/halifax-2006.html

Deuxième Appel

Le congrès annuel 2006 de l'Association Canadienne d'Acoustique se tiendra à Halifax, du 11 au 13 octobre 2006. Il y aura deux jours et demi de sessions parallèles de présentations dans tous les domaines reliés à l'acoustique et la perception auditive. De plus, plusieurs d'exposants présenteront leurs produits reliés au domaine acoustique. Marquez la date et prévoyez participer dès maintenant!

Sessions Spéciales

Nous aurons plusieurs sessions plénières au programme, et nous invitons aussi les présentations dans tous les champs acoustiques. Les sessions plénières prévues jusqu'à maintenant sont dans la liste ci-dessous. Si vous êtes intéressé à organiser une session plénière, SVP contactez l'Organisatrice Scientifique.

Session Plénière	Organisateur
Acoustique physique / Ultrasons	Igor Mastikhin
Contrôle du bruit	Cameron Sherry
Sciences de la parole	Scott Adams
Préservation de l'audition	Alberto Behar
Acoustique architecturale	Dave Quirt
Acoustique sous-marine	Sean Pecknold
Senseurs, sondes et réseaux	Brad Gover
Acoustique à haute fréquence / communications	Anna Crawford
Cognition musicale	Annabel Cohen
Acoustique biologique	Marjo Laurinolli

Sessions Plénières

Nous sommes très heureux d'annoncer les noms de nos deux conférenciers pléniers distingués: Dennis Jones et Michael Kieft.

Le chant majestueux et résonnant de la grive solitaire (*Catharus guttatus*) est un des plus beaux en Amérique du Nord. La présentation de Dennis parlera d'une analyse systématique de plusieurs chants d'oiseaux de la région d'Halifax, en Nouvelle-Écosse. Cette analyse révèle certaines complexités et subtilités dans les chants qui pourraient permettre l'identification d'individus par le son seulement.

Michael présentera un exposé général sur les avancements récents dans les recherches faites à l'Université de Dalhousie dans le domaine de la production et perception de la parole, des processus auditifs de base pour la perception des voyelles jusqu'aux problèmes sur les variations de dialectes en Nouvelle-Écosse.

Activités Associées

Le comité Z 107 pour l'Acoustique et le Contrôle du Bruit de l'Association Canadienne de Normalisation tiendra une réunion en soirée le mercredi, 11 octobre 2006. Contactez Tim Kelsall (tkelsall@hatch.ca) pour plus d'information.

Une réception et un banquet auront lieu à l'hôtel du congrès le jeudi soir (12 octobre 2006). Les billets sont inclus dans le prix de l'inscription, mais rappelez-vous de commander des billets supplémentaires pour les personnes qui vous accompagneront.

Lieu et Hébergement

Le congrès se tiendra à l'hôtel Citadel Halifax (www.citadelhalifax.com; 1-800-565-7162). L'hôtel offre ses chambres régulières, occupation simple ou double, au prix de 145\$/nuit (+ taxes); 15\$/nuit additionnel par adulte supplémentaire. Le stationnement est disponible à 9\$ par jour.

Directions

L'hôtel Citadel Halifax est situé en plein cœur du centre-ville. Les compagnies de taxis offrent un tarif fixe pour le trajet entre l'aéroport international d'Halifax et le centre-ville (53\$ pour un aller simple). Un service de navette est aussi offert entre plusieurs hôtels du centre-ville (incluant l'hôtel Citadel Halifax) et l'aéroport (14\$ aller, 24\$ aller-retour). Pour information sur la Nouvelle-Écosse, visitez le www.novascotia.com.

Exposition

Le hall d'exposition sera joint aux salles de congrès et sera aussi l'endroit désigné pour la pause-café. Veuillez contacter les Responsables de l'Exposition pour plus d'information sur les exposants et commanditaires.

Participation Étudiante

L'ACA encourage et supporte la participation des étudiants au congrès annuel. Les membres étudiants qui présenteront au congrès pourront soumettre une demande de subvention pour leurs frais de déplacement et pourront se mériter l'un des prix offerts pour communications étudiantes. Pour plus de détails, visitez le site de l'ACA.

Soumission de résumés et articles

Wow – tout nouveau cette année, nous offrirons le service de soumission électronique des résumés et articles! Les détails seront sur le site internet du congrès. Si vous avez des questions ou commentaires sur le site internet, veuillez contacter l'éditeur du site.

Inscription

De l'information sur l'inscription sera disponible sur le site internet du congrès. La date limite pour se prévaloir du taux préférentiel d'inscription est le 15 septembre 2006. Un bureau d'inscription restera ouvert tout au long du congrès.

Les organisateurs		
Présidente du congrès	Nicole Collison	nicole.collison@drdc-rddc.gc.ca
Organisatrice scientifique	Francine Desharnais	francine.desharnais@drdc-rddc.gc.ca
Responsables de l'exposition	Joe Hood & Derek Burnett	jhood@mdacorporation.com & dburnett@mdacorporation.com
Éditeur du site internet	Dave Stredulinsky	dave.stredulinsky@drdc-rddc.gc.ca
Trésorier	Dave Chapman	dave.chapman@drdc-rddc.gc.ca
Soutien logistique (Technique)	Jim Milne	jim.milne@drdc-rddc.gc.ca
(Inscriptions)	Cheryl Munroe	cheryl.munroe@drdc-rddc.gc.ca

Dates à retenir	
Date d'échéance pour la réception des résumés	16 juin 2006
Avis d'acceptation des résumés	30 juin 2006
Date d'échéance pour la réception des articles de 2 pages	4 août 2006
Échéance – demande de subvention pour frais de déplacement étudiants	4 août 2006
Date d'échéance pour le taux préférentiel	15 septembre 2006
Le congrès annuel, Citadel Inn, Halifax	11-13 octobre 2006

INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS FOR THE PREPARATION OF MANUSCRIPTS

Submissions: The original manuscript and two copies should be sent to the Editor-in-Chief.

General Presentation: Papers should be submitted in camera-ready format. Paper size 8.5" x 11". If you have access to a word processor, copy as closely as possible the format of the articles in *Canadian Acoustics* 18(4) 1990. All text in Times-Roman 10 pt font, with single (12 pt) spacing. Main body of text in two columns separated by 0.25". One line space between paragraphs.

Margins: Top - title page: 1.25"; other pages, 0.75"; bottom, 1" minimum; sides, 0.75".

Title: Bold, 14 pt with 14 pt spacing, upper case, centered.

Authors/addresses: Names and full mailing addresses, 10 pt with single (12 pt) spacing, upper and lower case, centered. Names in bold text.

Abstracts: English and French versions. Headings, 12 pt bold, upper case, centered. Indent text 0.5" on both sides.

Headings: Headings to be in 12 pt bold, Times-Roman font. Number at the left margin and indent text 0.5". Main headings, numbered as 1, 2, 3, ... to be in upper case. Sub-headings numbered as 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, ... in upper and lower case. Sub-sub-headings not numbered, in upper and lower case, underlined.

Equations: Minimize. Place in text if short. Numbered.

Figures/Tables: Keep small. Insert in text at top or bottom of page. Name as "Figure 1, 2, ..." Caption in 9 pt with single (12 pt) spacing. Leave 0.5" between text.

Line Widths: Line widths in technical drawings, figures and tables should be a minimum of 0.5 pt.

Photographs: Submit original glossy, black and white photograph.

Scans: Should be between 225 dpi and 300 dpi. Scan: Line art as bitmap tiffs; Black and white as grayscale tiffs and colour as CMYK tiffs;

References: Cite in text and list at end in any consistent format, 9 pt with single (12 pt) spacing.

Page numbers: In light pencil at the bottom of each page. Reprints: Can be ordered at time of acceptance of paper.

DIRECTIVES A L'INTENTION DES AUTEURS PREPARATION DES MANUSCRITS

Soumissions: Le manuscrit original ainsi que deux copies doivent être soumis au rédacteur-en-chef.

Présentation générale: Le manuscrit doit comprendre le collage. Dimensions des pages, 8.5" x 11". Si vous avez accès à un système de traitement de texte, dans la mesure du possible, suivre le format des articles dans *l'Acoustique Canadienne* 18(4) 1990. Tout le texte doit être en caractères Times-Roman, 10 pt et à simple (12 pt) interligne. Le texte principal doit être en deux colonnes séparées d'un espace de 0.25". Les paragraphes sont séparés d'un espace d'une ligne.

Marges: Dans le haut - page titre, 1.25"; autres pages, 0.75"; dans le bas, 1" minimum; latérales, 0.75".

Titre du manuscrit: 14 pt à 14 pt interligne, lettres majuscules, caractères gras. Centré.

Auteurs/adresses: Noms et adresses postales. Lettres majuscules et minuscules, 10 pt à simple (12 pt) interligne. Centré. Les noms doivent être en caractères gras.

Sommaire: En versions anglaise et française. Titre en 12 pt, lettres majuscules, caractères gras, centré. Paragraphe 0.5" en alinéa de la marge, des 2 cotés.

Titres des sections: Tous en caractères gras, 12 pt, Times-Roman. Premiers titres: numéroter 1, 2, 3, ..., en lettres majuscules; sous-titres: numéroter 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, ..., en lettres majuscules et minuscules; sous-sous-titres: ne pas numéroter, en lettres majuscules et minuscules et soulignés.

Equations: Les minimiser. Les insérer dans le texte si elles sont courtes. Les numéroter.

Figures/Tableaux: De petites tailles. Les insérer dans le texte dans le haut ou dans le bas de la page. Les nommer "Figure 1, 2, 3,..." Légende en 9 pt à simple (12 pt) interligne. Laisser un espace de 0.5" entre le texte.

Largeur Des Traits: La largeur des traits sur les schémas technique doivent être au minimum de 0.5 pt pour permettre une bonne reproduction.

Photographies: Soumettre la photographie originale sur papier glacé, noir et blanc.

Figures Scanées: Doivent être au minimum de 225 dpi et au maximum de 300 dpi. Les schémas doivent être scannés en bitmaps tif format. Les photos noir et blanc doivent être scannées en échelle de gris tifs et toutes les photos couleurs doivent être scannées en CMYK tifs.

Références: Les citer dans le texte et en faire la liste à la fin du document, en format uniforme, 9 pt à simple (12 pt) interligne.

Pagination: Au crayon pâle, au bas de chaque page. Tirés-à-part: Ils peuvent être commandés au moment de l'acceptation du manuscrit.



Application for Membership

CAA membership is open to all individuals who have an interest in acoustics. Annual dues total \$60.00 for individual members and \$20.00 for Student members. This includes a subscription to *Canadian Acoustics*, the Association's journal, which is published 4 times/year. New membership applications received before August 31 will be applied to the current year and include that year's back issues of *Canadian Acoustics*, if available. New membership applications received after August 31 will be applied to the next year.

Subscriptions to *Canadian Acoustics* or Sustaining Subscriptions

Subscriptions to *Canadian Acoustics* are available to companies and institutions at the institutional subscription price of \$60.00. Many companies and institutions prefer to be a Sustaining Subscriber, paying \$250.00 per year, in order to assist CAA financially. A list of Sustaining Subscribers is published in each issue of *Canadian Acoustics*. Subscriptions for the current calendar year are due by January 31. New subscriptions received before August 31 will be applied to the current year and include that year's back issues of *Canadian Acoustics*, if available.

Please note that electronic forms can be downloaded from the CAA Website at caa-aca.ca

Address for subscription / membership correspondence:

Name / Organization _____
 Address _____
 City/Province _____ Postal Code _____ Country _____
 Phone _____ Fax _____ E-mail _____

Address for mailing *Canadian Acoustics*, if different from above:

Name / Organization _____
 Address _____
 City/Province _____ Postal Code _____ Country _____

Areas of Interest: (Please mark 3 maximum)

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 1. Architectural Acoustics | 5. Psychological / Physiological Acoustic | 9. Underwater Acoustics |
| 2. Engineering Acoustics / Noise Control | 6. Shock and Vibration | 10. Signal Processing / Numerical Methods |
| 3. Physical Acoustics / Ultrasound | 7. Hearing Sciences | |
| 4. Musical Acoustics / Electro-acoustics | 8. Speech Sciences | 11. Other |

For student membership, please also provide:

 (University) (Faculty Member) (Signature of Faculty Member) (Date)

I have enclosed the indicated payment for:
 CAA Membership \$ 60.00
 CAA Student Membership \$ 20.00
 Institutional Subscription \$ 60.00
 Sustaining Subscriber \$ 250.00
 includes subscription (4 issues /year)
 to *Canadian Acoustics*.

Payment by: Cheque
 Money Order
 VISA credit card (Only VISA accepted)

For payment by VISA credit card:

Card number _____
 Name of cardholder _____
 Expiry date _____

Mail application and attached payment to:

 (Signature) (Date)

D. Quirt, Secretary, Canadian Acoustical Association, PO Box 74068, Ottawa, Ontario, K1M 2H9, Canada



Formulaire d'adhésion

L'adhésion à l'ACA est ouverte à tous ceux qui s'intéressent à l'acoustique. La cotisation annuelle est de 60.00\$ pour les membres individuels, et de 20.00\$ pour les étudiants. Tous les membres reçoivent *l'Acoustique Canadienne*, la revue de l'association. Les nouveaux abonnements reçus avant le 31 août s'appliquent à l'année courante et incluent les anciens numéros (non-épuisés) de *l'Acoustique Canadienne* de cette année. Les nouveaux abonnements reçus après le 31 août s'appliquent à l'année suivante.

Abonnement pour la revue *Acoustique Canadienne* et abonnement de soutien

Les abonnements pour la revue *Acoustique Canadienne* sont disponibles pour les compagnies et autres établissements au coût annuel de 60.00\$. Des compagnies et établissements préfèrent souvent la cotisation de membre bienfaiteur, de 250.00\$ par année, pour assister financièrement l'ACA. La liste des membres bienfaiteurs est publiée dans chaque issue de la revue *Acoustique Canadienne*. Les nouveaux abonnements reçus avant le 31 août s'appliquent à l'année courante et incluent les anciens numéros (non-épuisés) de *l'Acoustique Canadienne* de cette année. Les nouveaux abonnements reçus après le 31 août s'appliquent à l'année suivante.

Pour obtenir des formulaires électroniques, visitez le site Web: caa-aca.ca

Pour correspondance administrative et financière:

Nom / Organisation _____
Adresse _____
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