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eVADER

Electric Vehicle Alert for Detection and Emergency Response

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Executive summary

The need for a solution to the increasing number of dangerously quiet cars as outlined deliverable 2. was the focus of the perceptual research conducted in work package 2.2. This research specifically focused on the detectability and localizability of experimental sounds synthesized according to sound features predicted to facilitate listener performance equitable to that of internal combustion cars. A primary concern for the consortium was to find a combination of sound features that may allow for such performance while maintaining sound levels that would not encroach upon the overall surrounding noise level of an urban soundscape. This research report summarizes the technical and research design used in our endeavor, as well as the human participant samples used in this set of studies.

Generally, the results confirmed that the 3 selected sound features; harmonic complexity, frequency modulation and amplitude modulation are all important for a suitable replacement sound. However, these features are not equally influential. In line with predictions, when amplitude modulation increased over 3 levels, listener performance increased as well. The influence of both frequency modulation, and harmonic complexity had an overall inverse effect on listener performance, which was not predicted. As a result of the limitations of a fractional design, interactions were not predicted, but did seem to play a role in variance that could not be accounted for.

Despite the limitations of a fractional design, the results were somewhat systematic. Results showed that 2 sounds were detected as quickly as the Diesel. Surprisingly, one sound produced $\frac{1}{2}$ as many errors as the Diesel. These results have lead to clear recommendation for stimulus 313 for the prototype eVADER vehicle. Overall, it can be concluded that it is possible that a well-designed, quiet sound can equally, or even more effective as a Diesel engine which is ~ 10 dBA (peak level) louder in the virtual realm. These and other conclusions will be discussed along with suggestions for future research and potential risks.

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1 Introduction

It has been established that quiet cars, such as hybrid and electric vehicles (*EV*), are potentially very dangerous for pedestrians. This is especially true for the visually impaired population. Taking this into account, we tested a diverse sample of participants including visually impaired persons as well as sighted persons of various ages from Germany, England and France. Five laboratories were used to conduct these experiments. They are as follows:

- 1) INSA (Lyon, France)
- 2) PSA (Velizy, France)
- 3) Nissan (Sunderland, United Kingdom)
- 4) LMS (Leuven, Belgium)
- 5) TUD (Darmstadt, Germany)

At the suggestion of the European Blind Union (EBU), it was determined that increased noise caused by traffic and weather (e.g. rain) can combine for a most dangerous and confusing situation when a pedestrian relies on sound to navigate. In the interest of these concerns, it was decided to conduct most tests under these conditions. However, two labs (LMS & TUD) conducted tests using only traffic (no rain). These tests have not yet been completed and will be reviewed in an appendix. As a result this research report will focus only the tests (rain) conducted by INSA, PSA, and Nissan.

As outlined in the D2.1, it was predicted that 3 sound features were the best candidate features for the design of a sound that would ensure pedestrian safety while allowing for a lower level emission than the sound of an internal combustion engine. These 3 features are as follows:

- 1) Frequency Modulation
- 2) Harmonic Complexity
- 3) Amplitude Modulation

Since these features were chosen based on a converging evidence review of the perceptual literature, it could only be predicted that listener performance (speed and accuracy) would increase with increasing levels of each factor. No predictions were made concerning the interactions of these factors. The following sections will review and summarize stimuli design, participant data, tasks, research design and results. The results will be discussed as well as risks and future experiments.

2 Stimuli and Soundscape Design

This section will briefly review the stimulus selection and design as described in the stimulus design proposal. Additional steps that were taken during the sound design process will be reviewed as well.

2.1 Waiting to Cross Scenario

As outlined in WP 1, several listening scenarios were recorded at the Idiada and Renault test tracks. Due to time constraints, it was decided that only the following scenario be tested in the experiments conducted in WP 2.2 (figure 1).

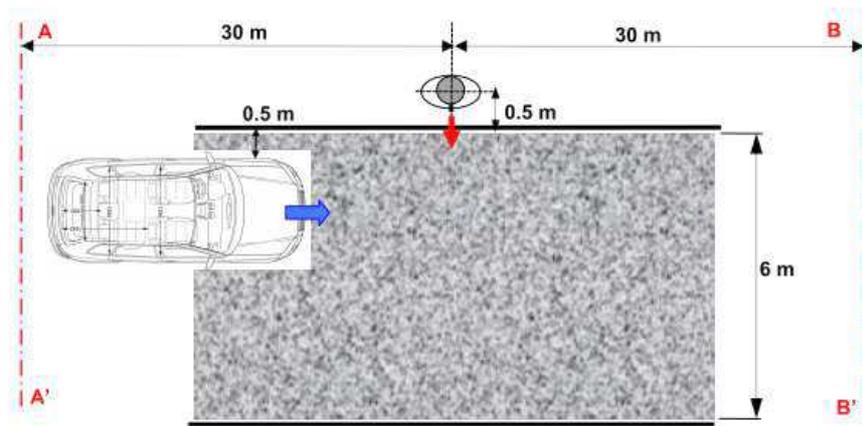


Figure 1: Graphical depiction of scenario 7 (see D1.6), or the ‘waiting to cross’ scenario. The recordings for the 20 kmh were used to make stimuli.

2.2 Sound Feature and Level Combinations

Recall that the 3 sound features selected were tonal complexity (number of harmonics), frequency modulation, and amplitude modulation (table A).

<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Frequency Mod (detuned)</u>	<u>Tonal Content</u>	<u>Amplitude Mod</u>
1	Level 1	Level 1	Level 1
2	Level 1	Level 2	Level 2
3	Level 1	Level 3	Level 3
4	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
5	Level 2	Level 2	Level 3
6	Level 2	Level 3	Level 1
7	Level 3	Level 1	Level 3
8	Level 3	Level 2	Level 1
9	Level 3	Level 3	Level 2

Table A: Taguchi table for fractional design for 9 stimuli with 3 levels each.

Since there was no precedent for sound design, the choices of frequencies and patterns of modulation were somewhat arbitrary. For this reason, these sounds were intentionally kept relatively simple.

Factor 1: Frequency Modulation

The frequency modulation patterns selected were as follows (figures 2-4).

Level 1 (Frequency Modulation): Zero

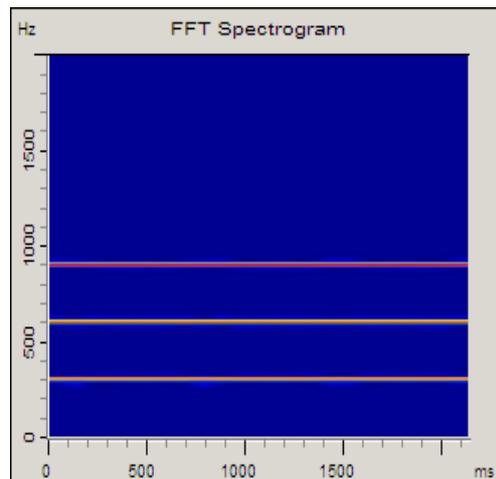


Figure 2: These sounds did not have any frequency modulation

Level 2 (Frequency Modulation): Sinusoidal

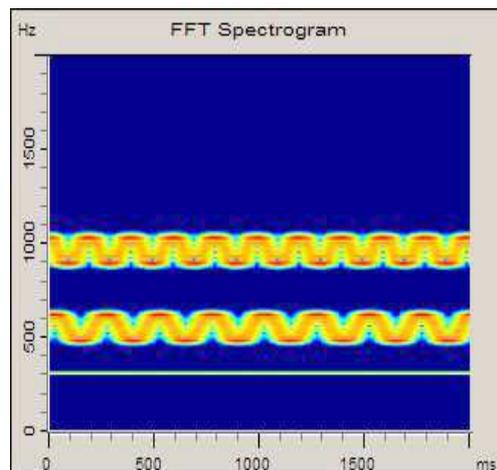


Figure 3: The highest 2 frequencies oscillated between 5% above and below the harmonic. The frequency of these oscillations were designed to be enharmonic; 5 Hz for the highest harmonic and 4 Hz for the 2nd highest harmonic. This was done to avoid artifacts due to harmonic oscillations.

Level 3 (Frequency Modulation): Saw-tooth

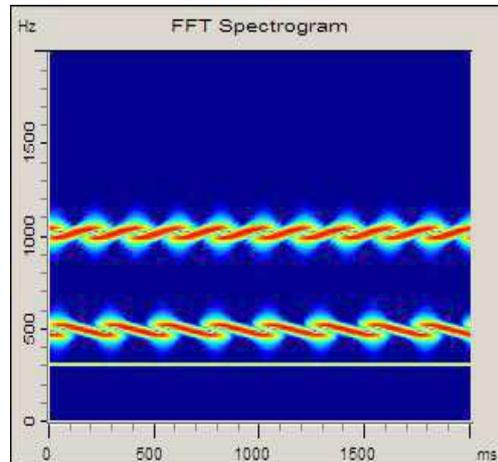


Figure 4: The same design parameters used in level 2 were maintained in level 3 to ensure that any differences in responses would be due to the shape of the oscillation alone.

Factor 2: Complexity (Number of Harmonics)

The frequencies selected for the stimuli were based on the size of the loudspeakers (as outlined in D2.1) for the lower bound (300 Hz) as well as frequencies known to be annoying (see D2.1), and less useful for age related hearing loss in the upper bound (1500 Hz). The frequency distribution can be seen in the following figures (5-7).

Level 1 (Complexity): Three Harmonics

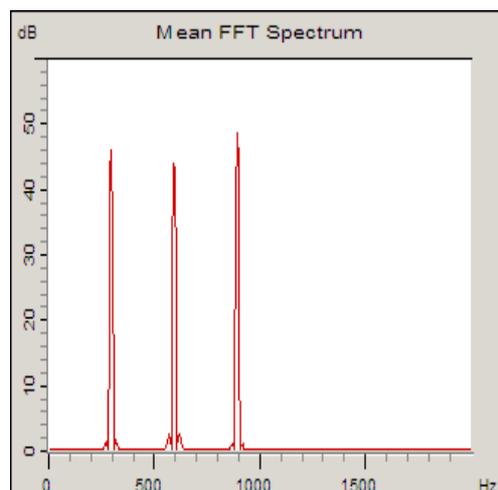


Figure 5: These sounds contained the following 3 harmonics: 300, 600, and 900 Hz.

Level 2: Six Harmonics

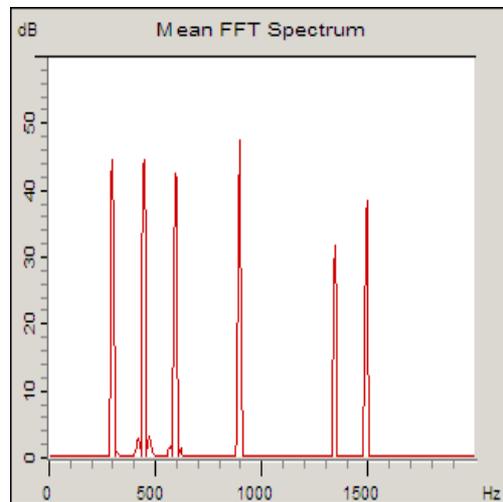


Figure 6: These sounds contained the following 6 harmonics: 300, 450, 600, 900, 1350, and 1500 Hz.

Level 3: Nine Harmonics

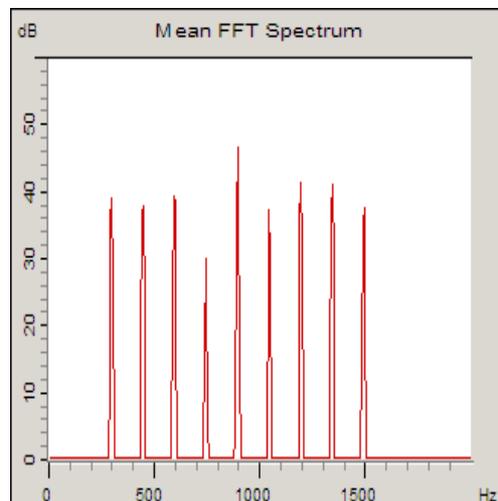


Figure 7: These sounds contained the following 9 harmonics: 300, 450, 600, 750, 900, 1050, 1200, 1350, and 1500 Hz.

Factor 3: Amplitude Modulation

The amplitude modulation patterns selected were as follows (figures 8-10):

Level 1 (Amplitude Modulation): Zero

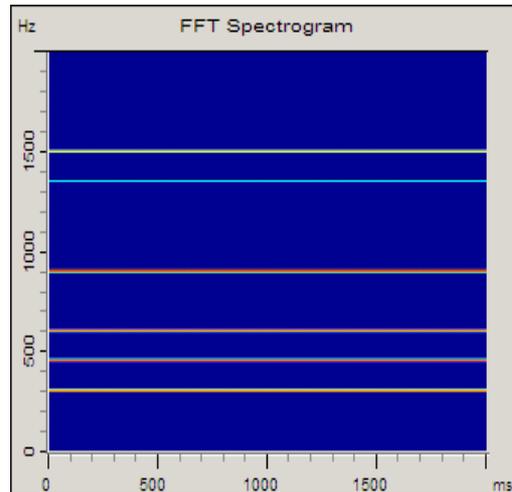


Figure 8: All frequencies contained zero amplitude modulation.

Level 2 (Amplitude Modulation): Sinusoidal (Regular)

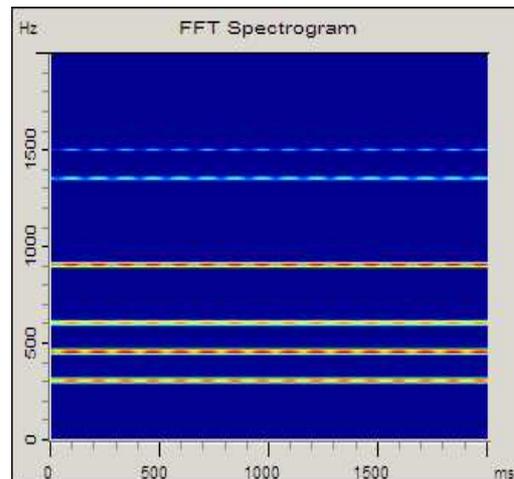


Figure 9: The amplitude envelope of these stimuli oscillated between < 20 dBA to maximum amplitude at 8 Hz. All frequencies in these sounds were modulated according to the same envelope.

Level 3 (Amplitude Modulation): Irregular (Temporal)

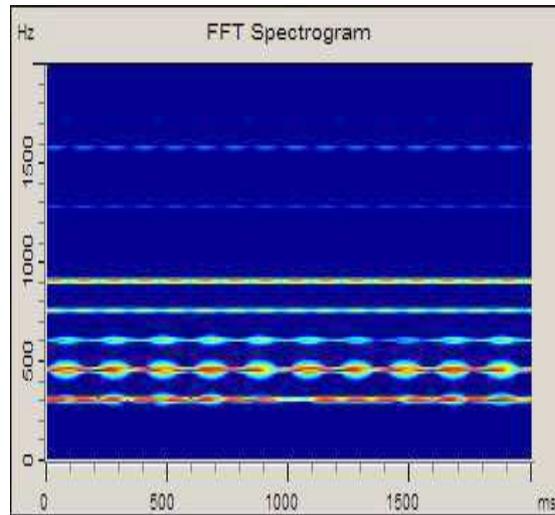


Figure 10: There were 4 separate amplitude envelopes used in these stimuli in order to create an overall sound that had time-varying structure. It should be noted that one of the envelopes was the same as the level 2 envelope (8 Hz) to maintain some continuity between levels. A detailed description can be found in Annex 1.

2.3 Stimuli Synthesis and Recording Processes

Various labs were involved in the recording and synthesis process as you can see in the figure below

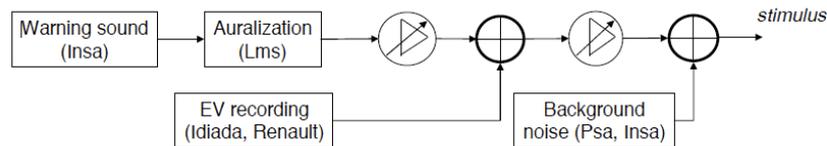


Figure 11: Path diagram showing the different lab contributions to sound synthesis and recording (see D1.6).

All recordings were made with a dummy head (Head Acoustics HMS III). As described in D1.6 the peak level (dBA) of the internal combustion vehicle (diesel) was approximately 76 (dBA), while the peak level (dBA) for the electric vehicle was measured at approximately 68 (dBA).

As previously described, 9 sounds were designed according to a fractional Taguchi matrix. These 9 sounds were synthesized and recorded with a custom synthesizer (eVADER Synth) using Max/Msp. The 9 sounds were level equalized (in dBA) by using Matlab at INSA. These sounds were then further synthesized by LMS (Matlab) using algorithms that modeled a sound source moving at (20 km/h) on a textured semi-reflective surface such as concrete on a street, as heard by a pedestrian facing the road (using head related transfer functions). All the sounds were 10.8 seconds in length, in accordance with the vehicle recordings. Recordings were passed through an inverse filter designed in Matlab to correct for the frequency response of the headphones used in the experiment. Once the sounds were modeled by LMS, they were layered onto the recordings of the *EV* by INSA. The result was 9 new stimuli, each composed of 1 synthesized sound and the *EV* recording.

The relative levels of warning sounds and background noise was adjusted by a trial-and-error process, in order to fulfill the following rules:

- The detection of the electric vehicle should be rather difficult, while the detection of the diesel car should be easier.
- Adding a warning sound should not make the detection too easy.

All 11 sounds were then channel swapped, so that both possible directions (left->right and right->left) of pass-by could be heard. As a result, 22 stimuli were designed. The levels (dBA) of all stimuli were recorded and measured by tracking the stimuli through the Stax headphones (placed on the dummy-head), which was ported via XLR into a computer. This was done to ensure that original levels of the vehicle recordings were not significantly changed (figure 12).

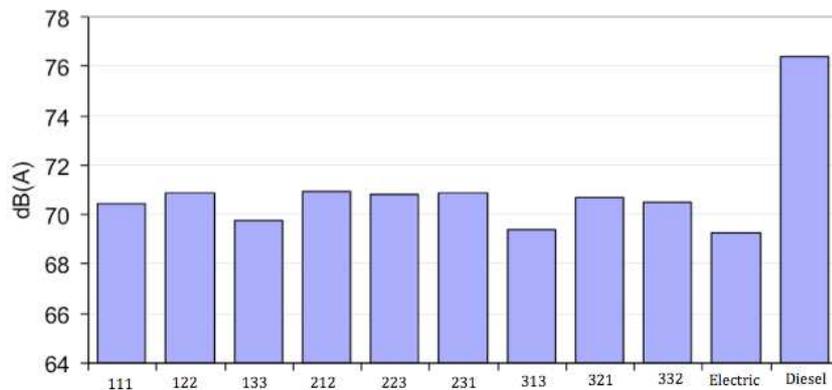


Figure 12: Peak level (dBA) of sound stimuli.

2.4 Soundscape (Background Sound) Design

In the interest of maintaining a high level of ecological validity, it was necessary to have a continuous and natural background sound. As was suggested by the European Blind Union, traffic and rain were added to the background. This was done so that the soundscape not only sounded natural, but also would be challenging.

Traffic

Regarding the traffic, several recordings, made at various locations by Idiada and Renault, were auditioned. A recording of a busy auto-route in Veliz, France was selected because of its consistent, high-density traffic flow. This recording was thought of as a somewhat stationary (unchanging) background, as there few pauses in traffic flow, and relatively few loud and abrupt sounds. A 2 minute sample was selected that would be looped continuously during the experiment. In the interest of reducing potential confounds associated with binaural cues, only one channel of the selected sample was used. This channel was then divided into 2 channels, panned approximately 45 (right channel) and -45 (left channel). The background sound was then low-pass filtered and reduced in level to approximately 69 (mean level dBA) to emulate a busy roadway approximately 100-200 meters in front of the listener.

Weather (Rain)

A recording of rain was mixed with the continuous loop of traffic to create the completed background sound. As with the traffic sound, a single channel of the recording was made into stereo and panned to emulate natural sounding space. The overall level of the rain was then adjusted so that the completed background sound maintained an overall level of 69 (mean level dBA).

3 Design and Materials

As outlined in the D2.1, a 3 (sound feature) X 3 (level) fractional repeated measures design was used to measure listener detection and localization of the recordings of approaching cars (stimuli). The unmodified recordings of the *EV* and the *Diesel* served as anchors. In other words, the *Diesel* was expected to facilitate the fastest and most accurate responses, while the *EV* was expected to produce the slowest and least accurate responses. Recall that the 9 stimuli containing the synthesized sounds were designed according a Taguchi matrix for fractional designs (table B).

<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Frequency Mod (detuned)</u>	<u>Tonal Content</u>	<u>Amplitude Mod</u>
1	Level 1	Level 1	Level 1
2	Level 1	Level 2	Level 2
3	Level 1	Level 3	Level 3
4	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
5	Level 2	Level 2	Level 3
6	Level 2	Level 3	Level 1
7	Level 3	Level 1	Level 3
8	Level 3	Level 2	Level 1
9	Level 3	Level 3	Level 2

Anchors (Control Stimuli)	
10	Electric Vehicle (EV)
11	Internal Combustion Engine (Diesel)

Table B: Taguchi table used for the experiments design (top portion), and the two anchors predicted to produce the top and bottom boundaries of performance (bottom portion).

After swapping the right and left channels of each of these, there were a total of 22 stimuli. Each stimulus was presented 4 times over 88 trials. The experiment was divided into 2 blocks and each stimulus was heard twice per block. Trials were randomized separately for each participant. The total duration of a typical experiment was approximately 45 minutes. In order to create a realistic listening experience, stimulus onsets were somewhat unpredictable as it is on a real street. A pseudo-random 1-20 second inter trial interval (ITI) was used for each trial. A new ITI was generated after each trial to achieve this realistic timing between approaching cars (stimuli). Trial onsets were concurrent with stimulus onsets. There was no limit for number of responses, and responses had no impact on the stimulus presentation. For example, if a participant pushed the ‘left’ button in response to an approaching stimulus, the stimulus would continue to play regardless of the response. Keystrokes were recorded, coded and time stamped by the experiment software so accuracy and reaction time could be measured. No feedback was given to the subject.

The experiment was conducted in a dimly lit sound-attenuating chamber. A PC computer was used to present stimuli and record responses. Participants responded to stimuli using a standard keyboard. A Gina sound card was used for audio output. Stax headphones (Lambda Pro: electrostatic) and amplifier system was used to deliver the sound stimuli. The experiment was programmed using Delphi software for PC computers running Windows 7 operating system.

Participants were familiarized with all sounds with short demonstration during the instructions. Participants were informed that their task would be to listen to these recordings of approaching cars and respond as quickly and accurately as possible by pressing a computer key that corresponds to the direction of approach. After a participant completed a short training session (5 trials), they could begin the experiment. After the completion of the first block (44 trials), participants were given a short break. At the completion of the 2nd block, participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation.

Eighty-six participants (aged 20-72) either volunteered or were compensated for their participation. Fifty-eight participants had normal or corrected vision and 28 were visually impaired (VI). Visual impairment was complete for all VI participants, and nearly all were VI from birth or early childhood.

Most sighted and VI participants reported normal hearing. However, reports of hearing loss were common among participants over the age of 60. At Insa, hearing ability of subjects was measured before the experiment using an automatic audiometer device (AudioConsole).

4 Results

4.1 Detection

Participant data was rejected (7 participants) for analyses if they missed and/or made errors on more than 40% of the stimuli, or if a participant missed all of a certain stimulus. Between-subject variance was fairly high (figure 13).

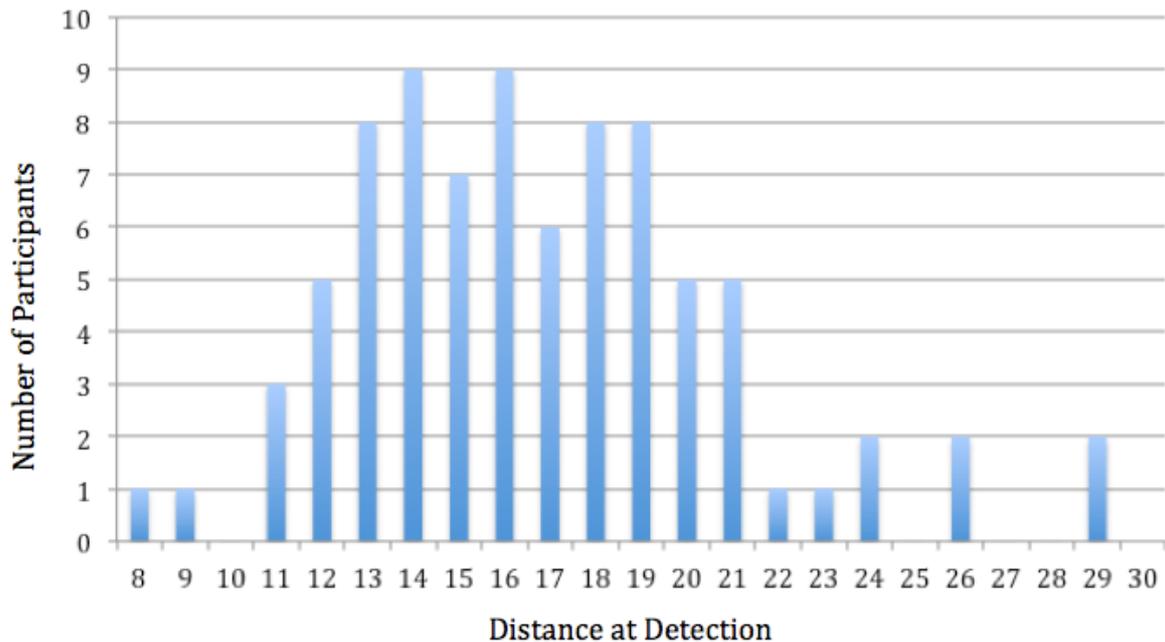


Figure 13: Variation shown in meters for all participants.

These differences were not found to be systematic according to age or audio metric sensitivity. It was determined that the between subject variability must be due to cognitive factors, such as strategy. In cases like this, it is possible to minimize between subject variability by removing the amount of variance associated with each participant. This is done by centering the data by removing the difference between mean for each participant and the grand mean.

No differences were found between the first and second blocks, and there was not an effect of direction (figure 14).

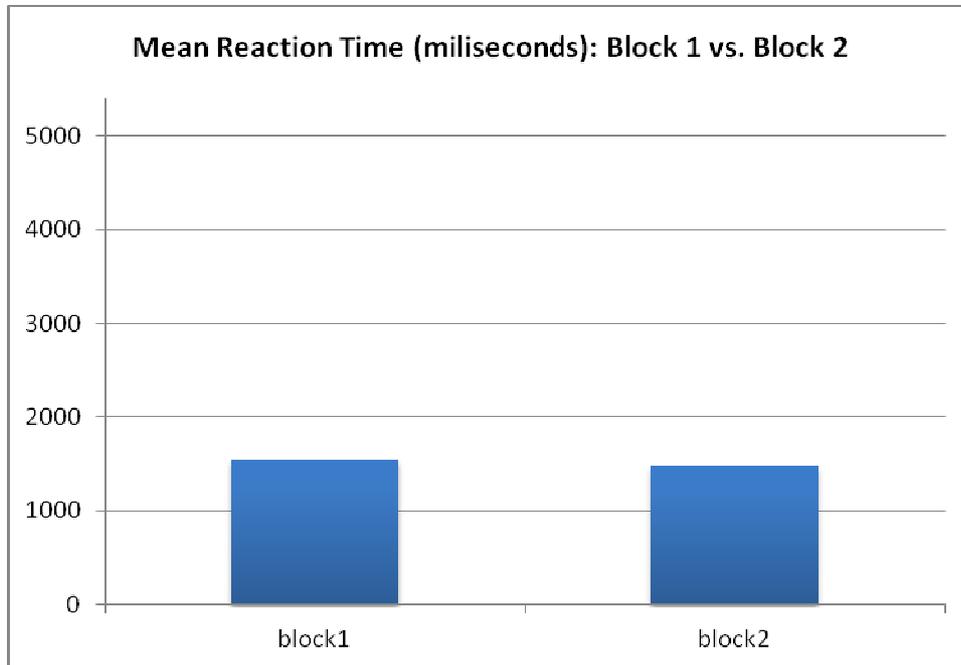


Figure 14: Comparison of mean reaction time between blocks for all stimuli. Data is from the Insa lab only.

Furthermore there was no difference in average performance between sighted and VI participants (figure 15).

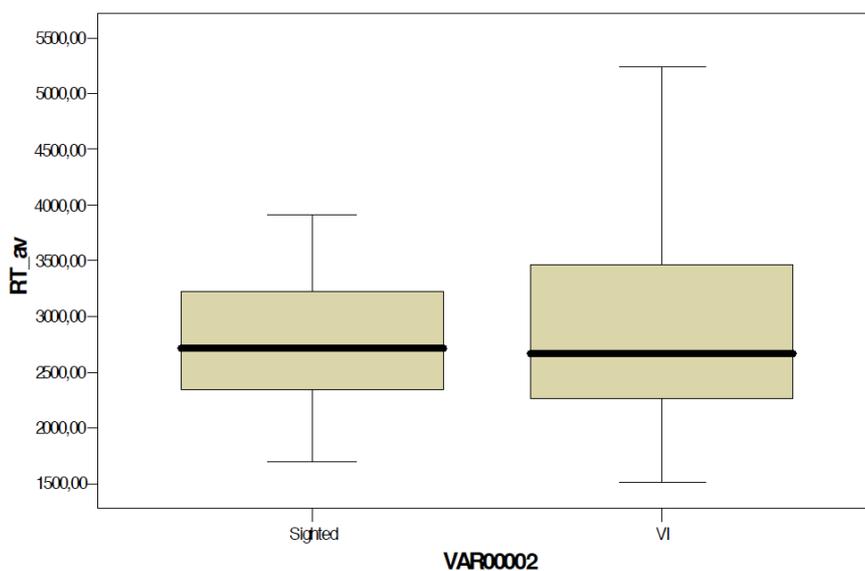


Figure 15: Comparison of mean reaction times for all VI and sighte participants.

Since there were negligible differences between blocks and direction, the data was collapsed across stimulus giving a total of 11 stimuli with 8 repetitions of each. Overall, the pattern of data was robust between different laboratories (figure 16).

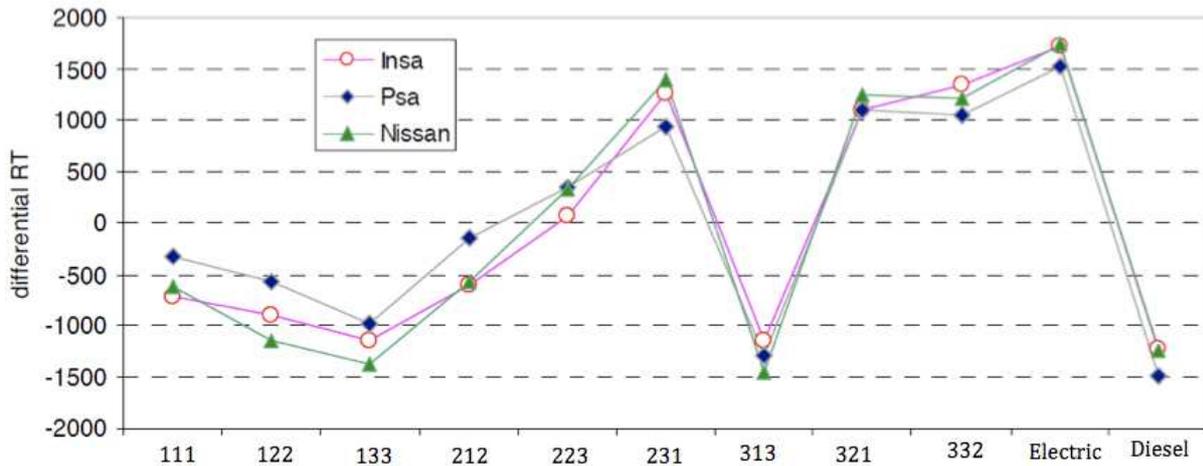


Figure 16: Lab comparison for reaction times after data was centered and collapsed across direction.

The reaction time data can be converted into a distance metric (meters) to achieve a more clear visualization of where the cars were when they were detected (see figure 18).

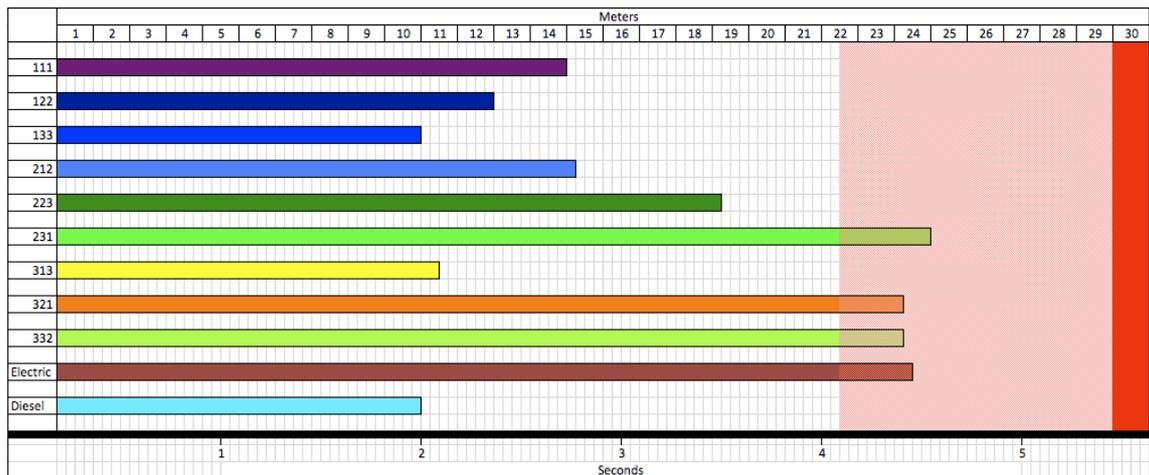


Figure 17: Conversion of reaction time to distance (meters) of all participants. The pink area indicates the danger zone as outlined in D1.1.

As expected, the electric vehicle was not detected at a safe distance (5-6 meters from the listener). Furthermore, reaction times for the diesel were in line with predictions, as it was heard 22 meters before crossing. The variation between the synthesized sounds is quite

surprising. Three synthesized sounds: 332; 321; 231; were all detected at unsafe distances. Interestingly, 2 of the synthesized sounds, 313 and 133 were heard at the same distance as the Diesel. The 4 remaining synthesized sounds: 111, 122, 212, and 223 were also heard at safe distances. However, post-hoc t-tests showed that the reaction times to these sounds were different from the safest sounds: 313, 133 and Diesel.

Omnibus ANOVA

A 3 (factor) X 3 (level) fractional ANOVA conducted on detection (reaction times) of all participants showed that all there were main effects for all 3 factors (table C).

	SC	df	MC	F	p
Frequency Modulation	236619690	2	118309845	468.8539	0.000000
Complexity	183981806	2	91990903	364.5537	0.000000
Amplitude Modulation	222424406	2	111212203	440.7264	0.000000
Error	193543546	767	252338		
Total SC	836569448	773			

Table C: ANOVA table showing the main effect for the factors *frequency modulation*, *complexity*, and *amplitude modulation*.

Certainly it can be said that all three factors are very effective at different levels (e.g. 1-2-3). This is the reason why the *F*-values are so high. Based on these results, it seems that all three factors have a similar impact on listener detection.

Pairwise comparisons conducted via 3(factor) X 3(level) X 2(interaction) ANOVA's suggest that the most powerful interaction occurred between factor 1 (frequency modulation) and factor 2 (harmonic complexity). Amplitude modulation was the only factor that did not produce significant interaction effects. However, interpretations of interactions are very limited in a fractional design because all possible combinations are not represented. However, the overall effect of each factor can be derived by center-reduction of the *F*-values (figure 18).

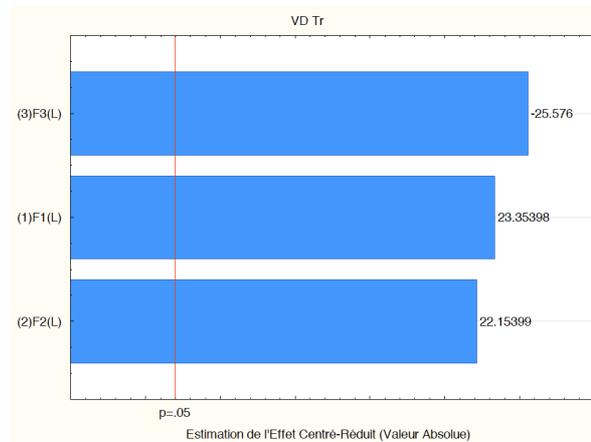


Figure 18: Factor effects figure demonstrating the relative contribution to main effects by all factors.

Amplitude modulation appears to have the largest effect, followed by frequency modulation and tonal complexity respectively. Still, the strength of the factors are comparable. However, the negative value associated with amplitude modulation indicates that as the level (1-3) of amplitude modulation increased, reaction times decreased (figure 20). This confirmed our prediction regarding the trajectory of the amplitude modulation effect. Conversely, reaction times were found to increase with the levels of both frequency modulation and tonal complexity (figure 19).

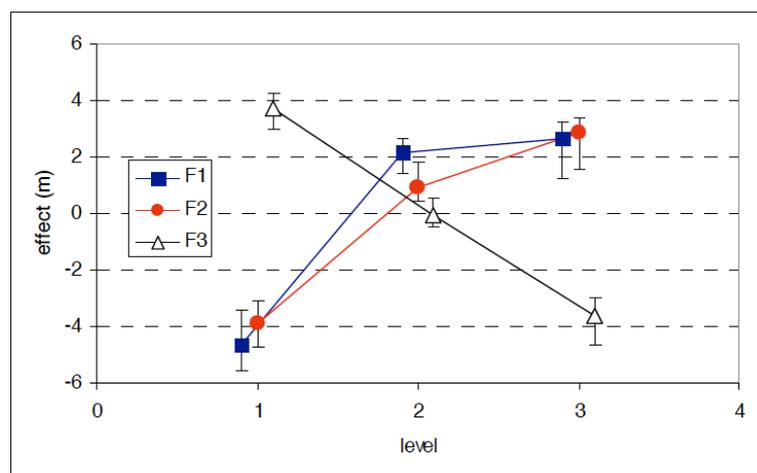


Figure 19: Interaction plot demonstrating the trajectory of each factors effect on listener performance. F1= *frequency modulation*, F2= *complexity*, F3= *amplitude modulation*.

One possible way of evaluating the validity of the model is to predict the measured values by using the formula :

$$T_r(i, j, k) = \bar{T}_r + E_{1,i} + E_{2,j} + E_{3,k} \quad (1.1)$$

Where : i, j and k are the levels of factors 1, 2 and 3;
 \bar{T}_r is the mean reaction time;
 $E_{1,i}$ is the effect of factor 1 at its level i (and the same for $E_{2,j}$ and $E_{3,k}$)

The comparison of predicted and measured values (figure 20) shows that the model is not fully predictable.

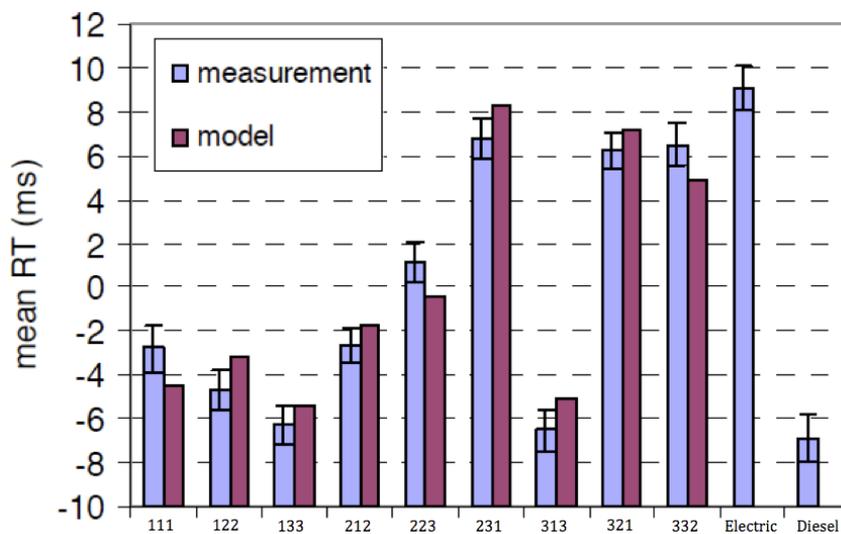


Figure 20: Model and data comparison for all participant reaction times (centered).

As you can see in the chart above (figure 20), there is a relatively good fit. However, notable discrepancies exist for stimuli 122 and 332. In that, the shape of the data distribution varies from the shape of the model distribution only in those areas. Based on the fact that the model assumes independent effects from the factors, it is likely that the variation between the model and data is due to some interaction effect.

4.2 Accuracy

Erroneous responses occurred when a participant responded incorrectly regarding the direction of approach. It was expected that there would be few errors overall. Interestingly, the distribution of errors closely resembles the distribution shape of the reaction time data (figure 21-22).

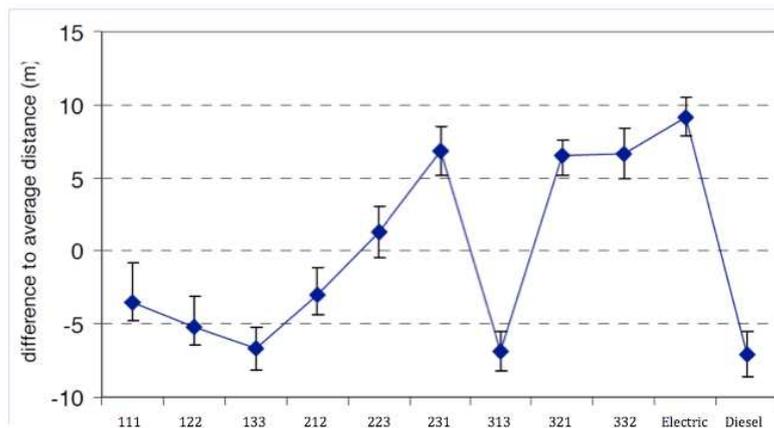


Figure 21: Average reaction times (centered) for all participants.

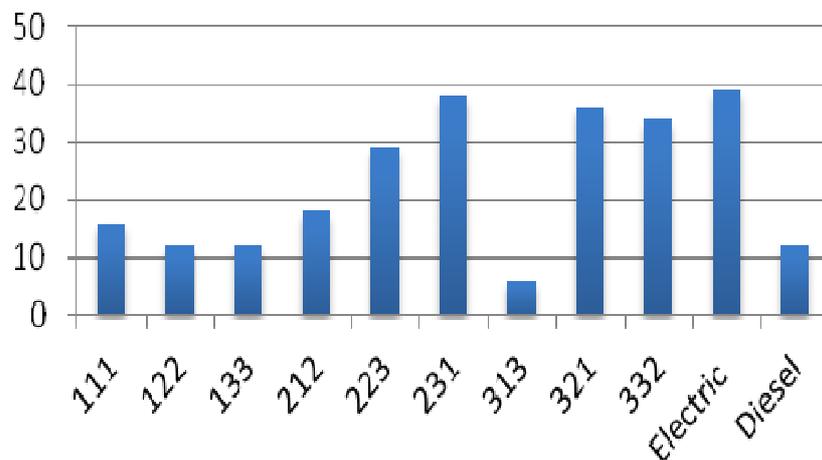


Figure 22: Number of errors for all participants for each stimulus.

Errors increased and decreased with reaction times, such that stimuli heard later produced the most errors and vice versa. However, it should be noted that the stimulus that produced the fewest errors was sound 313. In fact, 313 produced only half as many errors as the other 2 safe sounds, 133 & diesel.

Is louder better?

These results cannot be the result of differences in sound pressure levels (see figure). There is clearly large difference in peak level (~ 10 dBA) between the 3 safe sounds. In fact, the 2 quietest (peak value) synthesized sounds were detected the earliest and most accurately (figure 23).

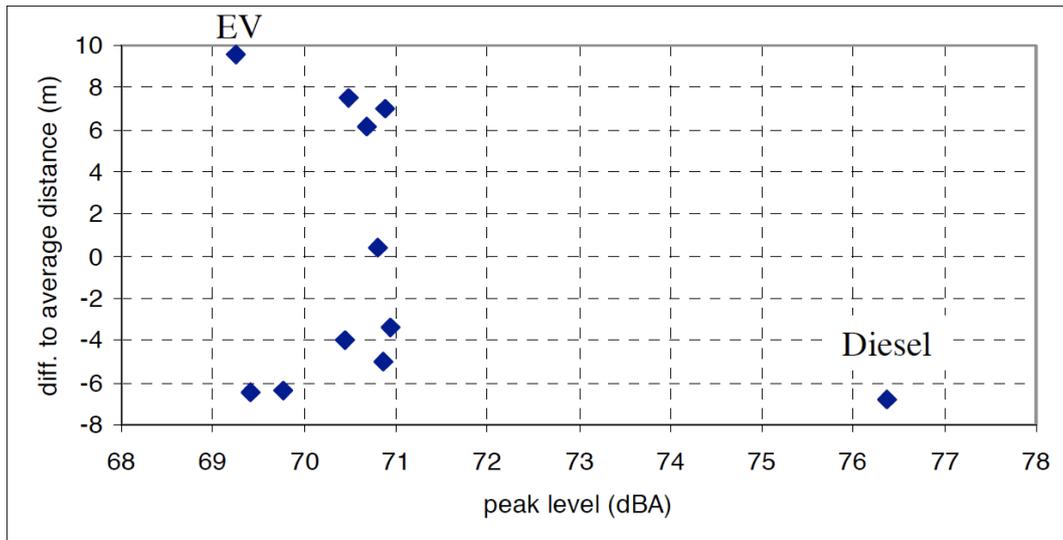


Figure 23: Comparison of average distance at detection, and peak level (dBA), for all stimuli. Note that the distance is independent of peak level (dBA).

5 Conclusions, Recommendations and Discussion

Taken together, the detection and accuracy results point to *313* as being the safest stimulus in our test, which was not expected. Therefore, it is recommended that the safest sound, *313*, be utilized for the prototype eVADER vehicle. Based on this research, it is likely that sounds designed using the following featural constraints could be the safest and most effective:

- 1) Little or no frequency modulation (level 1)
- 2) Harmonic structure containing less than 6 harmonics (level 1)
- 3) Temporally variable amplitude modulation (level 3)

Unfortunately, the *113* combination was not required by the Taguchi matrix for fractional designs. Therefore, a sound containing this combination was not used in our experiments. Still, the results allow for models and predictions regarding the untested combinations. Models predict that '113' should produce the best results. However, it seems clear that *313* far exceeded expectations regarding detection and accuracy hence its recommendation.

Recall that the above *113* combination was not the pattern predicted to be optimal. Even though a pattern was not explicitly predicted to be optimal, it was expected that the optimal pattern would have been *313*. Basically, the prediction was that complexity would facilitate good listener performance. This was apparently true for amplitude modulation, but the results are quite the opposite for frequency modulation and harmonic complexity. This can be explained as the direct result of the low-level emission (dBA). Recall that all synthesized sounds were normalized to be the same average level (~ 65 mean spl dBA). As can be seen in the graph, the average reaction time decreased with the number of harmonics. This is likely because the spectral energy is more focused when there are fewer harmonics. So, if a sound has 3 harmonics and is the same overall level as another sound with 9 harmonics, the level of the 3 harmonics far exceeds the level of any harmonics in the 9 harmonic stimuli. This could be because the energy is spread out over more frequency bands in the 9 harmonic stimuli. Basically, it seems that 'less-is-more' when it comes to the frequency content of a quiet alarm sound.

Similarly, the less-is-more principle can help to explain why reaction times decreased with frequency modulation. It could be that the fluctuation of the energy in the high harmonics may cause a blurring of the energy in those bands, thereby spreading the energy and defocusing the bands. Furthermore, as we know from Bregman's (1990) theory of stream segregation (also see the stimulus design proposal), enharmonic frequencies are not readily fused with harmonic frequencies. This could cause the auditory perceptual system to struggle to resolve the auditory image, vis a vis facilitating slower reaction times.

As far as amplitude modulation, the less-is-more principle does not seem to apply. Certainly, the effect of amplitude modulation is the most clear as it is almost perfectly linear. Even though it is tempting to suggest that amplitude modulation was the most influential factor, it may not be the case. If this statement were true the reaction times and accuracy for 113, 313, and 223 would be more congruent. Recall that the data for 113 and 313 were indeed quite congruent, but reaction times were much slower, and there were many more errors for 223. If temporally irregular amplitude modulation were the most important factor, it would be expected to overcome the other factors to produce results similar to its sibling stimuli. A potential explanation for this can be derived from analyzing the spectral content of '#2#' sounds which were among the worst stimuli (figure 24).

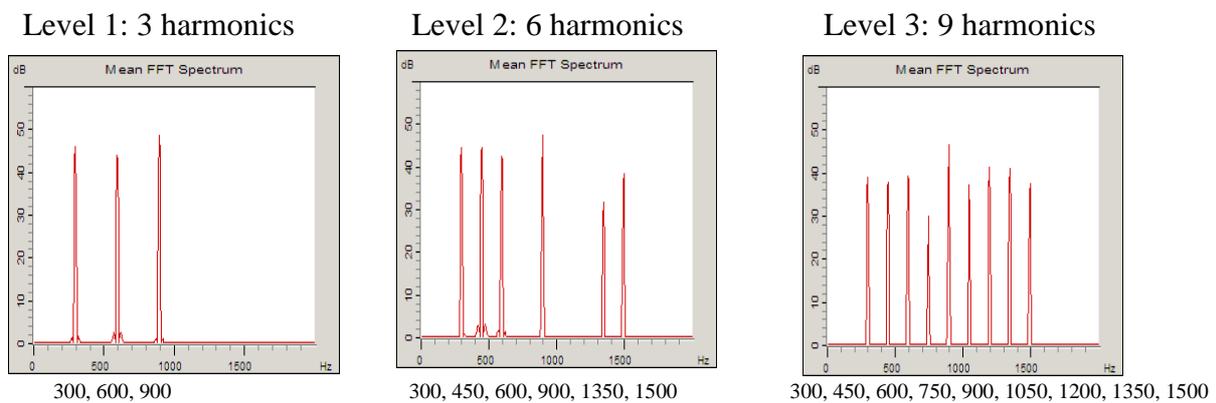


Figure 24: Comparison of the harmonic structure of each level of factor 2 (*complexity*). The numbers below each image are in Hz.

As you can see, the 3 harmonic stimuli were composed of 3, 300 Hz steps. Similarly, the 9 harmonic stimuli were composed of 9, 150 Hz steps. Notably, the spectral content of the 6 harmonic stimuli may be considered 'less harmonic' than its sibling stimuli. There are obvious breaks in the harmonic path. The largest being a 450 Hz step from 900-1350 Hz. Essentially, the stepwise progression was not continuous as it was in the 3 and 9 harmonic stimuli. The auditory streaming literature would predict poor or slow fusion of these harmonics by listeners, which would be magnified if the higher frequencies were modulated. It would be interesting to design new 6 harmonic sounds that could be 'more harmonic' to test if it would increase the effect of amplitude modulation. Certainly, this question should be tested in the future. Still, this demonstrates the lack of a dominance of any of the 3 features used to design the stimuli.

In the same vein, the reader is reminded that the temporally irregular envelope structure, which arguably produced the best results, was arbitrarily designed. There are innumerable possibilities for such a pattern, and it is highly probable that there are upper and lower limits to the various parameters used in such patterns (e.g. speed and regularity). For this reason, it is likely that any candidate pattern for a given manufacturer must be rigorously tested in similar experiments to ensure it can produce listener performance similar to what we found here. Perhaps the greatest limitation of this experiment is that only one such temporally irregular amplitude modulation envelope was tested. This fact alone necessitates trepidation when drawing conclusions.

Still, according to the results, it can be cautiously concluded, that a well-designed sound can produce early and accurate detection at levels (dBA) that are not louder than the EV alone. Certainly though, more research is needed before any strong theoretical claims can be made. In that, we cannot confidently conclude explain how frequency modulation, tonal complexity, and amplitude modulation interact to produce our results.

Future research should include all combinations of features to obtain a design where interactions can be explored more completely. Furthermore, it is imperative to conduct further tests with different recorded scenarios in the interest of pedestrian safety (see WP1). For example, based on the research presented here, it cannot be determined if a sound like *313* is effected by the listener position with respect to the vehicle. Moreover, it is still unknown what the effect of multiple, similar sound sources might have on listener performance. For example, more often than not, there are multiple cars on a street. Based on the masking literature, it can be assumed that multiple, similar sound sources (e.g. 3 *313*s) could create a confusing and potentially dangerous situation for a pedestrian as a result of masking. However, it might be most important to explore if vehicle dynamics like acceleration could be paired to the synthesized sounds so that certain features change according to what the vehicle is doing (e.g. decelerating or moving slower). This may provide for a release from masking, but this question can only be answered empirically. The aim of the next project 'sound meaning' will be to answer such questions.

Annex 1: Sound 313 Synthesis

Frequency Modulation (table D)

frequencies	600 Hz	900 Hz
Frequency modulation	saw-tooth	saw-tooth
amount (Hz)	150	150
range	525-675	975-825
frequency (Hz)	4	5

Amplitude Modulation Envelope Parameters (table E)

Parameters	Amplitude Modulation			
	1	2	3	4
envelope	1	2	3	4
dc offset	0.51	0.7	1	Ring
amplitude	100%	100%	100%	900%
frequency of modulation	8 Hz	3 Hz	33 Hz	5 Hz

*Envelope 4 was compressed to maintain as much of the steeper slope as possible without dominating the over-all sound pressure level of the entire sound.

There were 4 distinct amplitude envelopes, and each frequency band was assigned to one master envelope. As a result, the lowest frequency (300 Hz) was modulated in the same way as all frequencies in the Level 2 amplitude modulation category (envelope 1) The 2 higher frequencies had the same master envelope (envelope 4), which is known as a ring-modulation. Ring modulation amplifies all frequency components equally, which means the DC offset = 0, or 0%. This means that the carrier frequency is inaudible. More importantly, it means that the signal is dipolar, making the slope of the amplitude function steeper. It is important to note that envelopes 1 and 2 have carrier frequencies that are unlikely to be audible. However, envelope 3 was given an enharmonic and potentially audible carrier frequency that would cause the envelope to change over time. Still, the reader is reminded that envelopes 2 and 3 were not assigned to any frequency as master envelopes. A master envelope is the amplitude envelope by which a given frequency was constantly modulated (figure 28).

Master Amplitude Modulation Envelopes (table F)

Frequencies	Master Envelope
300	1
600	4
900	4

All 4 envelopes were assigned to be a sub-envelope to at least one frequency (table F). This means that while a given frequency is always modulated according to its corresponding master envelope, the master-modulated sound was periodically modulated by a sub-envelope amplitude modulation. In order to achieve a temporally irregular amplitude modulation structure, the master-modulated sounds were sub-modulated with a sequential structure. This means that the master-modulated sounds were sequentially cross-faded (panned) through the assigned sequence of sub-envelopes.

Sequential Envelope Structure (table G)

Frequencies	Sequential Envelope Structure (sub-envelopes)		
300	2	3	1
600	2	4	
900	1	1	

In order to ensure that there would be unexpected transitions in the sequences, dynamic panning parameters were enforced on the cross-fades.

Dynamic Panning Parameters for Irregularity (tables H-J)

Dynamic Panning Parameters (300 Hz)	
master envelope	1
sub-envelopes	2--3--1
pan 1	time-synced
time	1066
delay	890
pan 2	smooth
time	1066
speed	300

Dynamic Panning Parameters (600 Hz)	
master envelope	4
sub-envelopes	2--4
pan	time-synced
time	1036
delay	200

Dynamic Panning Parameters (900 Hz)	
master envelope	4
sub-envelopes	1--1
pan 1	time-synced
time	1080
delay	100
pan2	time-synced
time	1080
delay	12

The separate frequencies had distinct dynamic panning parameters. Recall that each frequency was assigned a master envelope. The master-modulated sound was then cross-faded (panned) through a series of sub-envelopes according to these dynamic panning parameters. There were 2 possible panning assignments for each frequency. The first pan (pan1), controlled the amount of the master-modulated frequencies sent to the first pair of sub-envelopes in the sequences. The second pan (pan 2) controlled the amount of the master-modulated frequencies sent to the 2nd pair of sub-envelopes from the 2nd of the first pair of sub-envelopes. So, even though 600 Hz and 900 Hz had only 2 sub-envelopes, dynamic panning still occurred between those sub-envelopes and their corresponding master-envelopes.

As you can see in the figures above, a given pan (1 or 2) can be time-synced or smooth. If a panning function were time-synced, it would transition from one sub-envelope directly to another. On the other hand, if the panning function was smooth, the master-modulated sound would smoothly be cross-faded from one sub-envelope to another depending on the sequence. A separate metronome was used to control the timing of each panning function. The time-value in the charts above illustrates the time between panning function onsets. The value associated with the delay parameter refers to the time (milliseconds) that a the panning function delays the onset of the pan (cross-fade) to the next stage in the sequence. The value associated with the speed parameter refers to the amount of time (milliseconds) that a smooth panning function cross-fades from one channel to another.

As you can see in the figures below (26-27), there is little regularity in the overall temporal nature of the amplitude modulation structure using these parameters outlined above. When the 313 waveform is visually compared to a 312 waveform the differences in regularity are obvious.



Figure 26: Graphical representation of 313 over 5.4 seconds, or 30 meters.

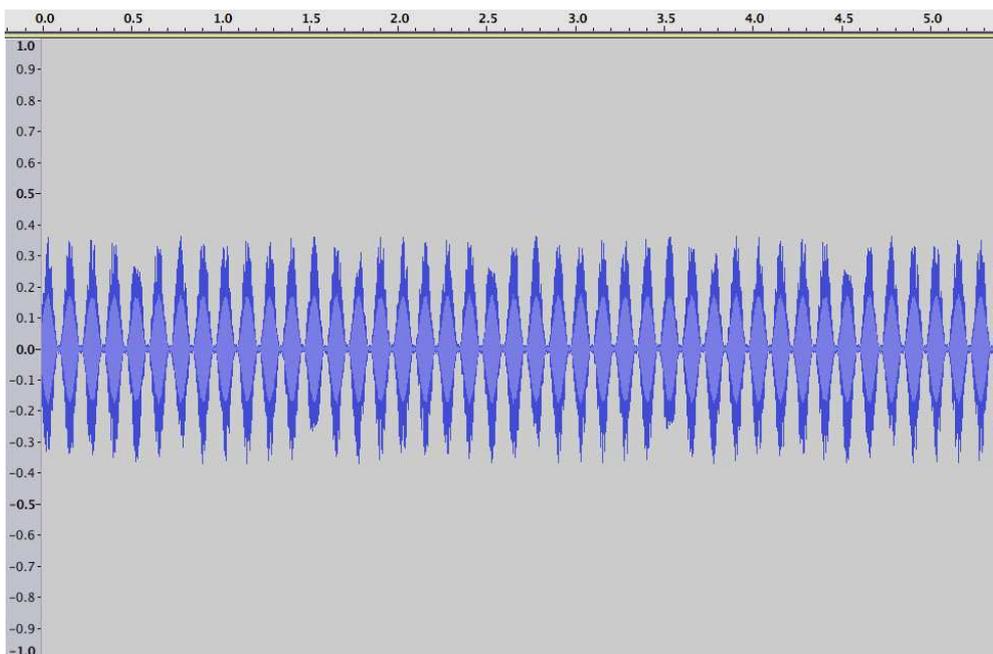


Figure 27: Graphical representation of 312 over 5.4 seconds, or 30 meters.