

Psychoacoustic analysis of contra-rotating propeller noise for Unmanned Aerial Vehicles

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Unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) technologies are rapidly advancing due to the unlimited number of applications from parcel delivery to people transportation. As the UAV market expands, community noise impact will become a significant problem for public acceptance. Compact drone architectures based on contra-rotating propellers bring significant benefits in terms of aerodynamic performance and redundancy to ensure vehicle control in case of component failure. However, contra-rotating propellers are severely noisy if not designed appropriately. In the framework of a perception-influenced design approach, this paper investigates the optimal rotor spacing distance configuration to minimise noise annoyance. On the basis of a series of psychoacoustic metrics (i.e. loudness, fluctuation strength, roughness, sharpness and tonality) and psychoacoustic annoyance models, the optimal rotor axial separation distance (expressed as a function of propeller blade diameter) is at a range of 0.2 to 0.4. This paper also discusses the performance of currently available psychoacoustic models to predict propeller noise annoyance, and defines further work to develop a psychoacoustic annoyance model optimised for rotating systems.

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1 I. INTRODUCTION

2 New aviation markets, such as Urban Air Mobility (UAM) operations for passengers and drone
3 operations for goods' deliveries and blue light services, are estimated to have a global potential of
4 between \$132 and \$227 billion over the next 20 years (ATI, 2019). As the drone delivery market
5 intensifies over the coming years, the payload requirement is predicted to increase by a factor of 50 to
6 100, leading to further problems with their public acceptance; with noise becoming a primary focus.
7 This increase in payload requirements can only be achieved with compact drone architectures such as
8 co-axial or overlapping propellers. The use of contra-rotating propellers in Unmanned Aerial Vehicles
9 (UAVs) has the benefit of increasing aerodynamic performance (Stract et al., 1981), reducing the
10 UAV's plan size and adding redundancy in case of component failure (McKay et al., 2019).

11 However, the small tip-to-tip spacing between contra-rotating propellers results in a significant
12 source of noise due to blade interaction effects (Tinney and Sirohi, 2018; Alexander et al., 2019).
13 Extensive laboratory testing has found that in the frequency spectra of multi-rotor UAV there are
14 significant sound levels at higher harmonics of the blade passage frequency, which seems to be caused
15 by interaction noise from disturbed inflow due to other rotor blades or the fuselage (Magliozzi, 1991;
16 Cabell et al., 2016; Torija et al., 2019). In an experimental investigation of static multi-rotor contra-
17 rotating UAV propellers, McKay et al. (2019) observed that potential field interaction tones are about
18 20 dB higher than rotor alone tones at typical ground observer locations with a hovering UAV. This
19 suggests that proper design of multi-rotor contra-rotating UAV propellers to minimise interaction
20 between rotors can lead to significant reductions in noise emission.

21 The noise sources on a co-axial propeller system can be categorized into either rotor self-noise or
22 interaction noise. Rotor self-noise is principally composed of tonal components and has contributions
23 due to the steady loading and aerofoil thickness, while the broadband component is relatively weak
24 (Marte and Kurtz, 1970). An interaction source is generated when the spiraling wake and tip vortex

25 from the upper propeller interacts with the lower propeller. At sufficiently small rotor separation
26 distances, an additional interaction noise source is present arising from the interaction of the potential
27 near field of each propeller with the other (Heff, 1990). A more recent study by Chaitanya et al. (2020)
28 performed a detailed investigation on the sensitivity of the aerodynamic and aeroacoustic performance
29 to the axial separation distance between a counter-rotating propeller configuration. An optimum
30 separation distance to diameter ratio for maximum efficiency and minimum radiated noise was found
31 to be at 0.25 based on overall sound power level. The reason behind this optimum is attributed to the
32 balance between potential field interactions and tip-vortex interactions radiated from the contra-
33 rotating configuration. The current paper extends their work to perform psychoacoustic optimization
34 of contra-rotating propellers.

35 Anghinolfi et al. (2016) carried out a psychoacoustic optimization of blade spacing in subsonic,
36 open, or nearly open axial-flow rotors. This optimization focused only on tonal noise and the
37 objective function was based on the Tone-to-Noise Ratio (TNR) metric. They found optimal blade
38 spacing for different numbers of blade rotors as a function of TNR and level of the highest tonal
39 peak. However, these results do not have direct relation to loudness or other psychoacoustic features.

40 The perception-influenced design approach (Rizzi, 2016) aims to incorporate human response
41 into the process of creating low-noise aircraft. Metrics that correlate well with human response to
42 noise can potentially be incorporated into the aircraft design cycle to effectively reduce community
43 noise impact (Krishnamurthy et al., 2018). Current noise certification metrics do not necessarily
44 reflect the characteristics of noise signatures of unconventional aircraft designs (Rizzi, 2016; Christian
45 and Cabell, 2017; Torija et al., 2019), and therefore may not be able to predict human response. Torija
46 et al. (2019) found that the Effective Perceived Noise Level (EPNL) is unable to account for the
47 perceptual effect of series of complex tones spaced evenly across the frequency spectrum with
48 relatively even sound levels, which is typical of multi-rotor vehicles (Cabell et al., 2016; Torija et al.,

49 2019). Other metrics, such as the Sound Exposure Level (SEL), do not account for the effects of
50 tonal noise, which is a major contributor towards the perceived annoyance due to aircraft noise
51 (Angerer et al., 1991; Berckmans et al., 2008; More, 2011; White et al., 2017). Therefore, the use of
52 current noise certification metrics for aircraft design might lead to suboptimal solutions.

53 Psychoacoustic metrics have been widely applied to improve the sound quality of different
54 consumer products, especially in the automotive industry (Lyon, 2003). Psychoacoustic metrics, such
55 as loudness, sharpness, tonality, roughness and fluctuation strength, are good indicators of how the
56 human auditory system reacts to different features of acoustic stimuli (Zwicker and Fastl, 1999).
57 Loudness measures the sensation of sound intensity. Sharpness and tonality describe the perceptual
58 effects of spectral imbalance of the sound towards the high frequency region, and the presence of
59 spectral irregularities or tones respectively. Fluctuation strength and roughness describe how slow
60 and rapid fluctuations, respectively, of the sound level are perceived. The psychoacoustic metrics
61 sharpness, tonality and fluctuation strength have been suggested as good indicators of rotorcraft noise
62 annoyance (Krishnamurthy et al., 2018; Boucher et al., 2020). Investigating the performance of
63 different psychoacoustic metrics to account for the perception of different aspects of aircraft noise,
64 Barbot et al. (2008) found fluctuation strength as a good indicator of perceptual effects of turbulence
65 and sharpness as a good indicator of the perceptual effects of high frequency noise. Torija et al. (2019)
66 found that Aures/Terhardt tonality (Aures, 1985b) improves on the EPNL Tone Correction in terms
67 of accounting for the presence of complex tones in aircraft noise.

68 Perception of mechanical sounds is a complex process due to the amount of noise features
69 involved (e.g. tonal components, amplitude modulated sounds, etc.). To address this issue, Zwicker
70 and Fastl (1999) proposed a model for combining several psychoacoustic metrics into one model to
71 quantify annoyance (hereinafter called Zwicker's model for short). Using the Zwicker's psychoacoustic
72 annoyance (PA) model, relative annoyance degrees of different noise samples can be estimated from

73 measures of loudness, sharpness, fluctuation strength and roughness. However, Zwicker's PA model
74 does not include a factor accounting for the influence of the tonality on noise annoyance. To improve
75 accuracy in the estimation of relative annoyance degrees caused by several types of tonal/atonal noises,
76 Di et al. (2016) carried out an update of Zwicker's PA model aiming at tonal noises. More (2011)
77 developed a modified version of Zwicker's PA model based on the results of seven psychoacoustic
78 tests for several aircraft sounds with varying psychoacoustic parameters. The modified PA model
79 developed by More, which includes a term based on Aures/Terhardt tonality and loudness to account
80 for the perceptual effect of tonal noise, was found able to accurately predict aircraft noise annoyance.

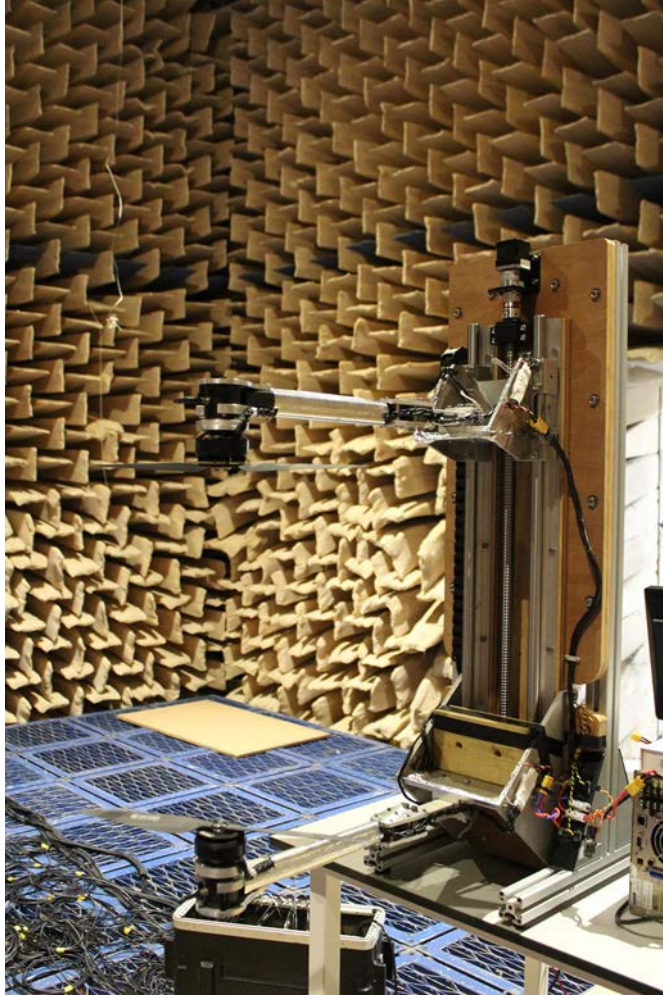
81 The aim of this paper is to perform a psychoacoustic analysis of a single static contra-rotating
82 propeller mounted in an anechoic chamber. A set of psychoacoustic metrics are calculated for a series
83 of far-field microphone measurements with different separation distance between the contra-rotating
84 propellers. The contribution of each noise source component on the co-axial propeller under study is
85 evaluated from a perceptual standpoint, using relevant psychoacoustic metrics. Working towards the
86 development of a framework for the psychoacoustic optimisation of novel aerial vehicles, this paper
87 investigates the optimal distance between contra-rotating propellers to minimise psychoacoustic
88 impact. The performance of PA models to predict noise annoyance for propeller systems is evaluated
89 and discussed. The main assumption in this paper is that PA models optimized for propeller noise
90 annoyance can be used to inform propeller design for lower psychoacoustic impact.

91 This paper is structured as follows: Section II describes the experimental setup for acoustic
92 measurements and the metrics for psychoacoustic analysis; Section III presents and discusses the
93 experimental results and are followed by the main conclusions of this work in section IV.

94 II. EXPERIMENTAL AND PSYCHOACOUSTIC METHODS

95 A. Experimental set-up and procedure

96 The overlapping rotor test rig designed and manufactured at the University of Southampton
97 consisted of two FOXTECH W61-35 brushless DC (BLDC) (16 poles) 700W motors mounted on a
98 carbon fibre beam as shown in Fig. 1. A commercially available T-Motor 16 inch 5.4 inch rotor was
99 used for this overlapping rotor propulsion system analysis. Two Hyperion HP-EM2-TACHBL
100 sensors were used to measure the precise Rotations Per Minute (RPM). Two Maytech 40A-OPTO
101 speed controllers were used to accurately control the BLDC motors. The overlapping rig allowed
102 manipulation of the propulsion system in both rotor horizontal separation distance d/D (with D as
103 the rotor diameter) and rotor axial separation distance z/D . z/D rotor separation was achieved by a
104 custom linear actuator traversing the upper rotor. All of the tests for this study were achieved when
105 the lower rotor plane was at least three rotor diameters away from the ground with anechoic wedges
106 beneath. The selected lead screw and stepper motor configuration allows for z/D variations varying
107 of 0.05 to 1. Sixteen z/D positions were tested: 0.05, 0.075, 0.1, 0.125, 0.15, 0.175, 0.2, 0.25, 0.3,
108 0.35, 0.4, 0.45, 0.5, 0.6, 0.8 and 1. The combined thrust of the dual-rotor propulsion system is varied
109 from 2 to 20N in steps of 2N. Although 10 thrust settings were measured, the results shown in this
110 paper refer to a thrust of 10 N (varying thrusts lead to changes in magnitudes, but do not alter the
111 trends shown below). A detailed description of the rig is presented by Brazinskas (2019).



112

113 FIG. 1. (Color online). Photograph of overlapping propeller rig within the anechoic chamber of the
114 Institute of Sound and Vibration Research at the University of Southampton.

115 **B. Far-field noise measurements**

116 The overlapping far-field noise measurements were carried out at the Institute of Sound and
117 Vibration Research's open-jet wind tunnel facility. The overlapping rotor test rig was located within
118 an anechoic chamber, of dimension $8\text{ m} \times 8\text{ m} \times 8\text{ m}$ as shown in Fig. 1. The walls, acoustically
119 treated with glass wool wedges, allow a cut-off frequency of 80 Hz.

120 Far-field noise measurements were made using 10, $\frac{1}{2}$ in. condenser microphones (B&K type 4189)
121 located at a constant radial distance of 2.5 m from the centre of the propellers. These microphones
122 were placed at emission angles of between 12 and 102 degrees measured relative to the bottom

123 propeller. Measurements were carried out for 10 s duration at a sampling frequency of 50 kHz, and
124 the noise spectra was calculated with a window size of 1024 data points corresponding to a frequency
125 resolution of 48.83 Hz and a Bandwidth-Time (BT) product of about 500, which is sufficient to ensure
126 negligible variance in the spectral estimated at this frequency resolution. Please note that the data
127 analysed in this paper is same as the data presented in Chaitanya et al. (2020).

128 **C. Psychoacoustic data analysis**

129 Unlike physical quantities (e.g. sound pressure level), psychoacoustic metrics provide a linear
130 representation of human hearing perception (HEAD Acoustics, 2018). Psychoacoustic metrics have
131 been found to outperform conventional noise metrics (e.g. EPNL or SEL) in predicting noise
132 annoyance of fixed-wing aircraft (Rizzi et al., 2016; Torija et al., 2019). Recently, several authors
133 (Krishnamurthy et al., 2018; Boucher et al., 2020) have explored the potential of psychoacoustic
134 metrics for the modelling of human annoyance to rotorcraft noise, and assessed the performance of
135 each psychoacoustic metric to account for rotorcraft noise annoyance response.

136 The psychoacoustic metrics (including loudness in sone, sharpness in acum, fluctuation strength
137 in vacil, roughness in asper, impulsiveness in IU, and tonality in TU) of all sound samples were
138 calculated with ArtemiS software (HEAD acoustics GmbH). Loudness was calculated according to
139 DIN 45631/A1 (2010), which is based on Zwicker loudness model and includes a modification for
140 time varying signals. The calculation of sharpness was made according to the standard DIN 45692
141 (2009). This sharpness method does not take into account the influence of absolute loudness on the
142 sharpness perception. There are no standard methods for calculating roughness and fluctuation
143 strength. These two metrics were calculated according to the hearing model given by Sottek (1993).
144 Sottek's hearing model simulates the signal processing of human hearing and accounts for its
145 limitations to track fast temporal changes within a critical band (Boucher et al., 2020). Tonality was
146 calculated according to Aures/Terhardt tonality model (Aures, 1985b).

147 Three PA models were implemented to discuss their performance in assessing propeller noise
148 annoyance. The Zwicker PA model, accounting for the relation between annoyance and hearing
149 sensations loudness (N), sharpness (S), fluctuation strength (F) and roughness (R) is given by

$$150 \quad PA = N_5 \left(1 + \sqrt{w_S^2 + w_{FR}^2} \right) \quad (1)$$

151 where

152 N_5 is the 5th percentile of the loudness (in sone)

$$153 \quad w_S = \{(S - 1.75) \cdot 0.25 \lg(N_5 + 10), S > 1.75; 0, S \leq 1.75\} \quad (2)$$

$$154 \quad W_{FR} = \frac{2.18}{N_5^{0.4}} (0.4F + 0.6R) \quad (3)$$

155 Note that although non specified by Zwicker in the original form of eq. 1, the 5th percentiles of
156 sharpness, fluctuation strength and roughness metrics were used for calculating PA.

157 The use of 5th percentiles in psychoacoustic analysis is a standard approach widely accepted in the
158 literature. However, these percentile values are dependent on the recording time and the fluctuation
159 of the psychoacoustic parameter in question. This makes that the 5th percentile values for
160 psychoacoustic metrics cannot be compared without appropriate background information. In this
161 research, there is a steady sound pressure during the 10 s duration of each sound sample analysed.
162 For instance, the 5th percentile and arithmetic mean of the loudness for the rotor spacing $z/D = 0.05$
163 at azimuthal angle = 12 degrees is 98.5 and 96.4 sones respectively. Therefore, the findings of this
164 research can be argued to be non-dependent of the statistical parameters used to describe the
165 psychoacoustic magnitudes. Furthermore, to avoid the transient effect of the digital filters (used for
166 the computation of the psychoacoustic metrics evaluated) at the start of the audio signal analysis, the

167 first 0.5 s of the sound sample was ignored in the calculation of the 5th percentile of each
168 psychoacoustic metric.

169 As described above, the Zwicker's PA model does not include a factor for accounting for the
170 perceptual effects of tonal sounds. Di et al. (2016) derived a tonality factor (eq. 5) to develop a PA
171 model able to account for the annoyance response of sounds with strong tonal components. The
172 updated PA model developed by Di et al. (2016) (PA') is given by

$$173 \quad PA' = N_5 \left(1 + \sqrt{w_S^2 + w_{FR}^2 + w_T^2} \right) \quad (4)$$

174 where

$$175 \quad w_T = \frac{6.41}{N_5^{0.52}} T \quad (5)$$

176 More (2011) developed a modified version of Zwicker PA model optimised to predict aircraft
177 noise annoyance. The More's PA model (PA_{mod}) is given by

$$178 \quad PA_{mod} = N_5 \left(1 + \sqrt{\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 w_S^2 + \gamma_2 w_{FR}^2 + \gamma_3 w_T^2} \right) \quad (6)$$

179 where

$$180 \quad w_T^2 = [(1 - e^{-\gamma_4 N_5})^2 \cdot (1 - e^{-\gamma_5 T})^2] \quad (7)$$

181 The estimates for the More's PA model were optimised for aircraft noise on the basis of a
182 series of psychoacoustic tests. The value of these estimates for eqs. 6 and 7, i.e. $\gamma_0 = -0.16$, $\gamma_1 =$
183 11.48 , $\gamma_2 = 0.84$, $\gamma_3 = 1.25$, $\gamma_4 = 0.29$ and $\gamma_5 = 5.49$, show the significant emphasis of the
184 More's PA model on sharpness and tonality. Note that 5th percentile of Aures/Terhardt tonality was
185 used for calculating PA in Di et al.'s and More's models.

186 None of these PA models account for the impulsiveness of the audio signal. Although there
187 is no agreement in the literature, some authors advise that the prevalence of annoyance due to
188 rotorcraft is influenced by its impulsiveness (Mestre et al., 2017). The impulsiveness (measured in IU)
189 of all sound samples were calculated using the Sottek’s hearing model. This psychoacoustic metric
190 accounts for the perception caused by short and sudden changes in sound pressure level (Boucher, et
191 al., 2019). A full description of the calculation of the impulsiveness metrics and its computation in
192 the Sottek’s hearing model can be found at Sottek et al. (1995) and Sottek and Genuit (2005)
193 respectively. McMullen (2014) suggested that a combination of different psychoacoustic metrics,
194 including loudness, sharpness, tonality and impulsiveness might provide an accurate assessment of
195 human response to helicopter noise. All this suggests that impulsiveness might need to be considered
196 for developing a PA model for rotorcraft noise.

197 **III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

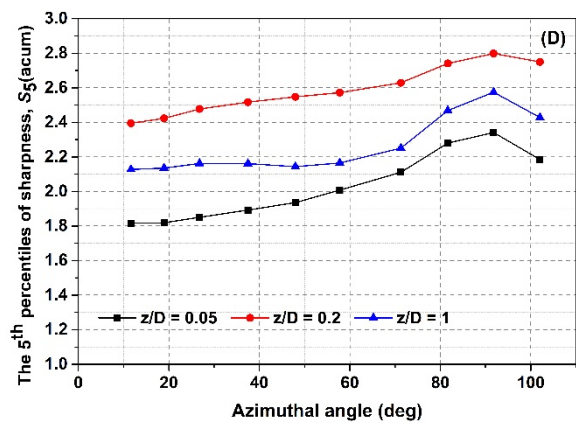
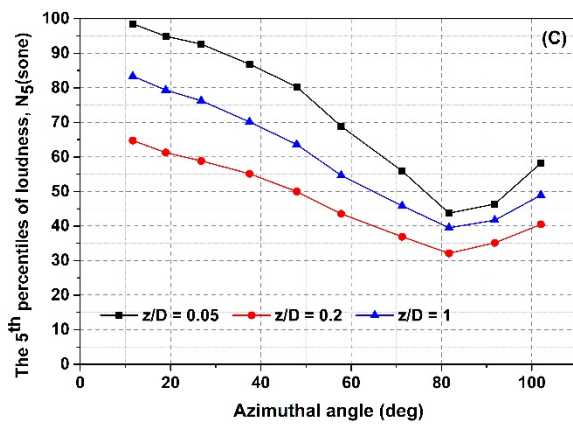
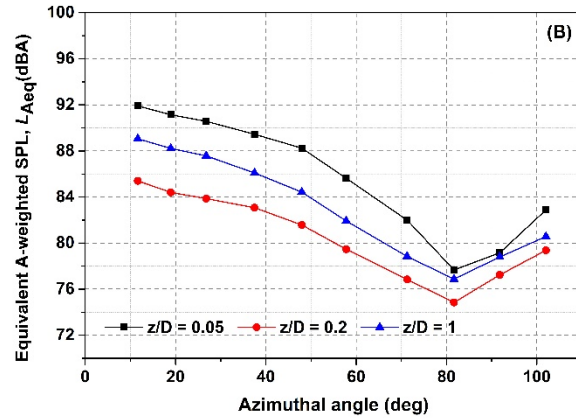
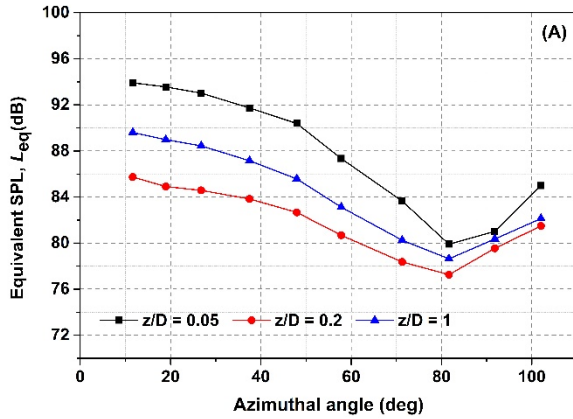
198 **A. Directivity and spectra patterns**

199 Figure 2 shows the 5th percentile of loudness (Fig. 2C) and sharpness (Fig. 2D) as a function of
200 azimuthal angle (i.e. emission angles between 12 and 102 degrees measured relative to the rotor axis),
201 for rotor spacings $z/D=0.05$, 0.2 and 1 and a thrust setting of 10 N. Maximum noise emission (i.e.
202 loudness) is found at the rotor axis. Loudness decreases with azimuthal angle, reaching minimum
203 values at 82-92 degrees (Fig. 2C). The same directivity pattern is observed for all rotor spacing
204 evaluated. This is consistent with Chaitanya et al.’s (2020) previously observed optimum separation
205 distance based on overall sound power level (see Figs. 2A and 2B for equivalent sound pressure level
206 (SPL) and equivalent A-weighted SPL as a function of emission angle). Equivalent SPL, equivalent
207 A-weighted SPL and loudness are lower at rotor spacing $z/D=0.2$ than at rotor spacings $z/D=0.05$
208 and $z/D=1$.

209 For all rotor spacings, maximum values of sharpness are observed at azimuthal angles of 82 to 92
210 degrees (Fig. 2D). Sharpness at rotor spacing $z/D=0.2$ is higher than sharpness at rotor spacings
211 $z/D=0.05$ and $z/D=1$. Directivity patterns of loudness and sharpness metrics seem to be in line with
212 the initial hypothesis that the highest contribution to measured sounds is the noise emission of
213 potential field interaction tones. McKay et al. (2019) found that potential field interaction tones in
214 co-axial propellers have a dipole directivity with a null at 90 degrees. In this research, the dip in the
215 value of equivalent SPL, equivalent A-weighted SPL and loudness at about 82-92 degrees (as shown
216 in Figs. 2A, 2B and 2C) can be attributable to a decline in the noise emission of potential field
217 interaction tones. As the coaxial distance between the two contra-rotating propellers was varied
218 during this experimentation, it was decided to position the 10 microphones (see Section II) at
219 azimuthal angles relative to the bottom propeller (see Fig. 1). Hence, the slight shift in the dip of
220 noise radiation from 90 degrees to 82 degrees. However, more work is required to better understand
221 directivities of contra-rotating propellers due to the numerous noise sources involved (Chaitanya et
222 al., 2020).

223 The decline in amplitude of potential field interaction tones at about 82-92 degrees also leads to
224 an important increase in the relative contribution of higher harmonics of the blade passage frequencies
225 (BPFs) and high frequency broadband noise, which is accounted for by an increase of sharpness as
226 shown in Fig. 2D.

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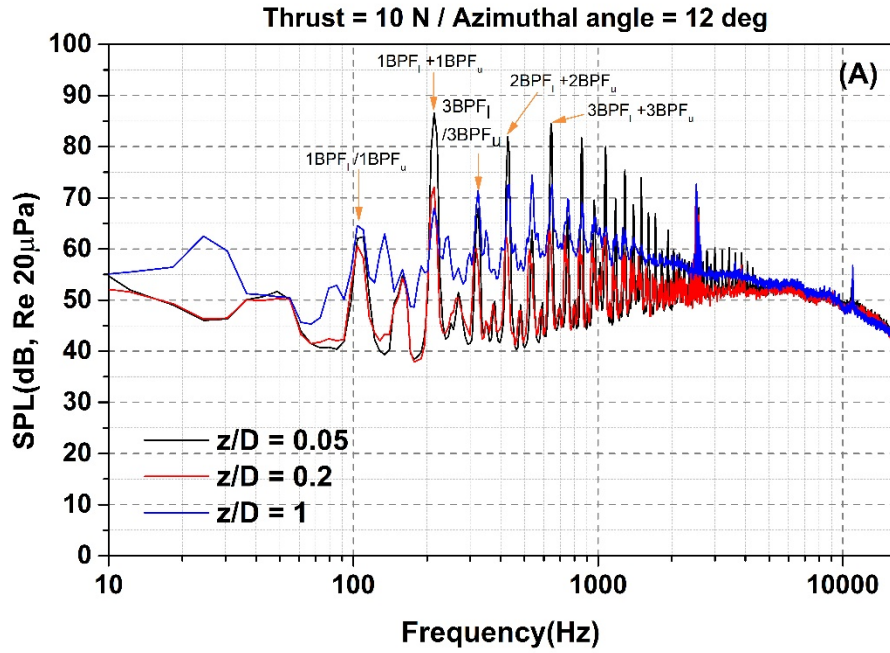


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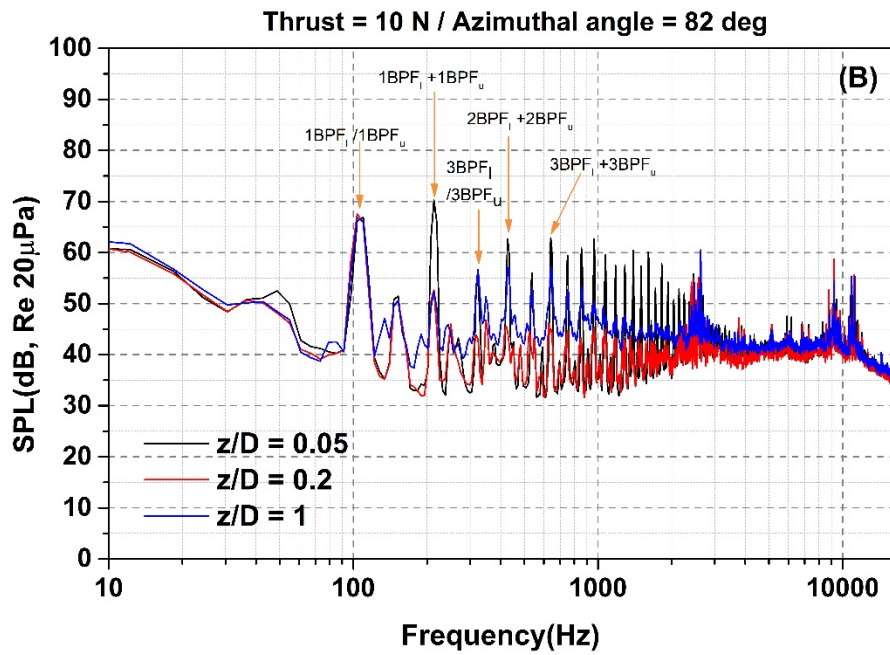
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230 FIG. 2. (Color online). The equivalent SPL (A), equivalent A-weighted SPL (B), and the 5th percentiles
 231 of loudness (C) and sharpness (D) as a function of azimuthal angle, for a thrust setting of 10 N and
 232 for rotor spacings $z/D=0.05, 0.2$ and 1 .

233 To continue with the investigation of the individual noise sources in the contra-rotating propeller
 234 under study, a narrow band frequency analysis was conducted. Figure 3 shows the narrow band
 235 frequency spectra for the rotor spacings $z/D=0.05, 0.2$ and 1 for azimuthal angles 12 deg (Fig. 3A)
 236 and 82 deg (Fig. 3B), and a thrust setting of 10 N. These two azimuthal angles allow the comparison
 237 between the narrow band frequency spectra for high loudness (i.e. 12 deg) and high sharpness (i.e. 82
 238 deg).
 239



240



241

242 FIG. 3. (Color online). Narrow band frequency spectra for the rotor spacings $z/D=0.05, 0.2$ and 1
 243 for a thrust setting of 10 N , and for azimuthal angles 12 deg (A) and 82 deg (B). Note that BPF_l and
 244 BPF_u are the Blade Passing Frequencies (BPFs) of the lower and upper propeller respectively; and

245 $n\text{BPF}_l$ and $n\text{BPF}_u$ are their harmonics. Also shown the dominant potential field interaction tones
246 $(n\text{BPF}_l + n\text{BPF}_u)$.

247 As shown in Fig. 3, the noise signatures of the contra-rotating propeller measured are dominated
248 by tonal components distributed along the frequency spectrum (between 0.1 and 2 kHz). These tonal
249 components include potential field interaction tones at frequencies that are the summation of rotor
250 BPFs. Fig. 3 displays the BPFs of the lower and upper propeller respectively, and their harmonics
251 $(n\text{BPF}_l$ and $n\text{BPF}_u)$; and also, the dominant potential field interaction tones $(n\text{BPF}_l + n\text{BPF}_u)$. An
252 analysis carried out by McKay et al. (2019) and Chaitanya et al. (2020) demonstrated that interaction
253 tones are predominantly caused by potential field interactions, and therefore, they decay rapidly with
254 rotor spacing. This decay in amplitude of potential field interaction tones is observed by comparing
255 frequency spectra of rotor spacings $z/D=0.05$ and 0.2 . The decrease in amplitude of potential field
256 interaction tones as rotor spacing increases, leads to a sound signature with higher relative contribution
257 of high frequency components (broadband and tonal components over 2 kHz). As the rotor spacing
258 continues increasing, from $z/D=0.05$ and 0.2 to $z/D=1$, the contribution of broadband noise
259 increases. This increase can be attributed to the enhanced interaction between the turbulence
260 generated by the upper propeller tip vortex and the lower propeller as demonstrated by Chaitanya et
261 al. (2020).

262 At an emission angle of 82 degrees, the amplitude of potential field interaction tones significantly
263 decays (especially for rotor spacing $z/D=0.2$), due to their dipole directivity (as described above). A
264 decrease of about 20 dB is observed in the amplitude of potential field interaction tones at 82 degrees
265 compared to the amplitude at 12 degrees (see Fig. 3). For the specific case of rotor spacing $z/D=0.05$
266 at 82 degrees, the amplitude of potential field interaction tones is of the same order of magnitude as
267 the amplitude of BPF tones (Fig. 3B). This is due to both the dipole directivity of potential field
268 interaction tones with a null at about 90 degrees and the maximum emission of BPF tones in the plane

269 of the propeller (McKay et al., 2019). At an emission angle of 82 degrees there is a reduction of high
270 frequency broadband noise (compared to 12 degrees), and a series of tonal components of important
271 magnitude are observed in the high frequency region, i.e. 2-12kHz. The precise reason for this
272 behaviour is currently not known and more work is required to understand this phenomenon.

273 **B. Psychoacoustic metrics vs. rotor spacing**

274 To investigate the optimum rotor spacing configuration for the contra-rotating system under
275 study, the value of the different psychoacoustic metrics described above in Section II.C has been
276 calculated. The value of psychoacoustics metrics (5th percentile) as a function of rotor spacing at an
277 azimuthal angle of 12 and 82 degrees is shown in Fig. 4. As described above (Section III.A), at 12 and
278 82 degrees the contra-rotating system measured has the highest and lowest noise emission respectively.

279 As the rotor spacing increases, the amplitude of the potential field interaction tones distributed
280 along the mid to high frequency regions decays significantly (see Fig. 3). Consequently, as shown in
281 Fig. 4A, loudness decreases with an increase in rotor spacing, reaching the lowest values at the region
282 $z/D=0.2-0.4$ at 12 degrees and $z/D=0.2-0.3$ at 82 degrees. This decay is more significant at 12 degrees
283 (about 30 dB reduction between rotor spacings $z/D=0.05$ and 0.2) where the emission of potential
284 field interaction tones is maximum, compared to 82 degrees (about 10 dB reduction between rotor
285 spacings $z/D=0.05$ and 0.2). At small rotor spacings, the decrease in loudness is due to a reduction
286 in the potential field interactions between the two contra-rotating propellers. This interaction noise
287 is primarily tonal, and hence tonality drops significantly as rotor spacing increases (see Fig. 4B). These
288 results are in line with existing literature (McKay et al., 2019; Chaitanya et al., 2020), where blade
289 spacing optimization has been demonstrated to lead to important reductions in tonal noise (Anghinolfi
290 et al., 2016). Figure 4B shows that, at 12 degrees, there is a significant drop in tonality at a rotor
291 spacing $z/D=0.35$, to remain almost constant regardless rotor spacing onwards. At 82 degrees, this
292 significant drop in tonality is found at a rotor spacing $z/D=0.2$ (Fig. 4B). This might be due to the

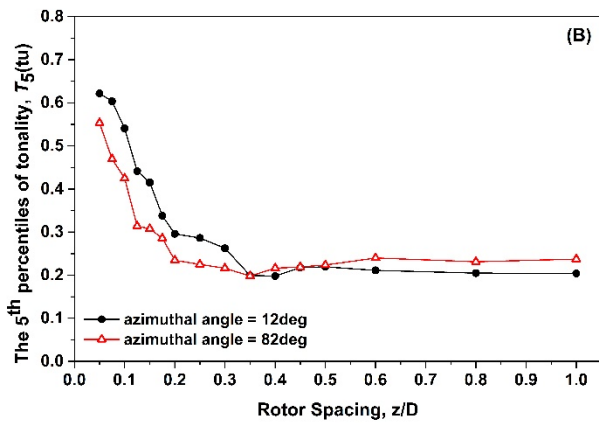
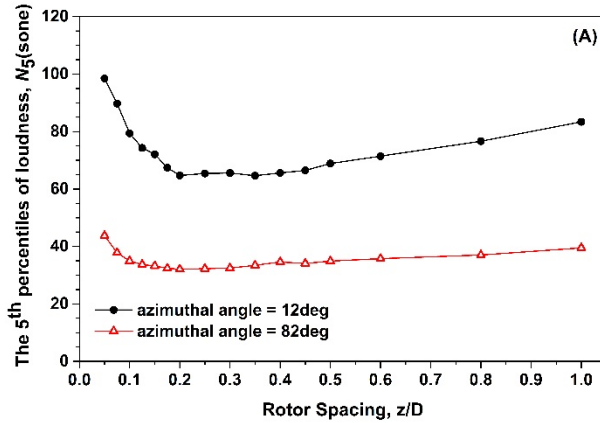
293 directivity characteristics of potential field interactions, as described in Section III.A. With higher
294 amplitude of potential field interaction tones at emission angles about 0 degrees relative to the rotor
295 axis, a greater rotor spacing is needed at 12 degrees for tonality to drop to minimum values (compared
296 to 82 degrees). At both emission angles, 12 and 82 degrees the same minimum value of tonality is
297 observed at a rotor spacing $z/D=0.35$ (Fig. 4B).

298 Fluctuation strength accounts for the low frequency amplitude modulation consequence of the
299 closely spaced potential field interaction tones, as shown in Fig. 3. As rotor spacing increases beyond
300 $z/D=0.15-0.2$, potential field interactions are reduced (i.e. amplitude of interaction tones decays), and
301 consequently a significant drop in fluctuation strength is observed (Fig. 4C).

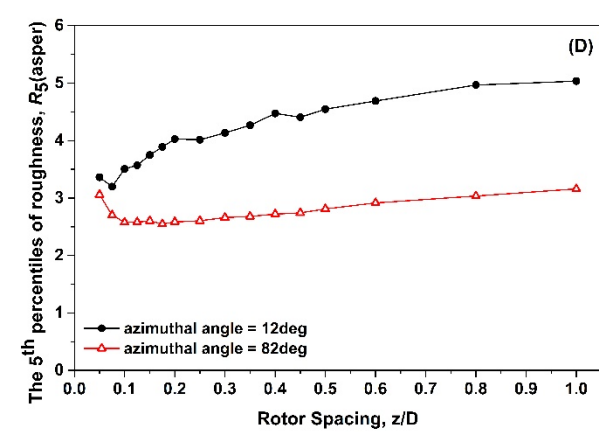
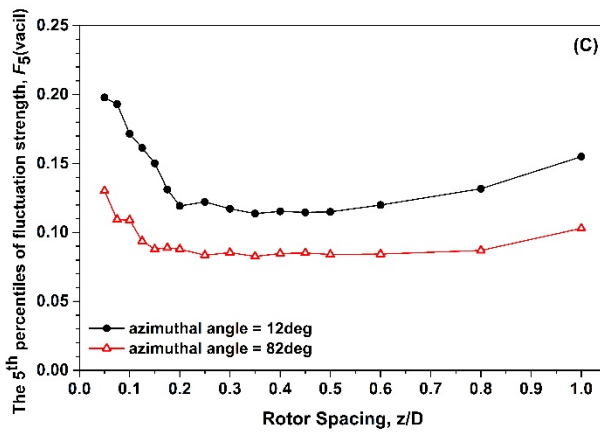
302 With increase in rotor separation distances, interaction noise between rotors increases due to
303 enhanced turbulence-propeller interactions because of unsteadiness in the tip vortex as previously
304 demonstrated by Chaitanya et al. (2020). This added turbulence-propeller interaction noise, which is
305 tonal and broadband in nature (see Fig. 3), causes an increase of loudness after rotor spacing $z/D=0.4$
306 (Fig. 4A). Modulated broadband noise reaches higher roughness values than modulated discrete
307 tones, and even unmodulated broadband noise attains considerable roughness values due to random
308 envelope fluctuations (Daniel, 2008). Therefore, the increase in unsteady turbulence-propeller
309 interaction noise as rotors are moved apart might explain the gradual growth of roughness shown in
310 Fig. 4D. At 12 degrees, the highest emission of broadband noise due to unsteady turbulence-propeller
311 interaction noise leads to a higher rate of increase in roughness with rotor spacing (as observed in Fig.
312 4D).

313 As seen in Fig. 4E, impulsiveness significantly increases as the rotor spacing grows. This is
314 observed for both azimuthal angles of highest and lowest noise emission, although the highest values
315 of impulsiveness are at 12 degrees. As discussed by Krishnamurthy et al. (2018), impulsiveness and
316 roughness metrics are strongly linked to each other. This is observed in this paper by comparing Figs.

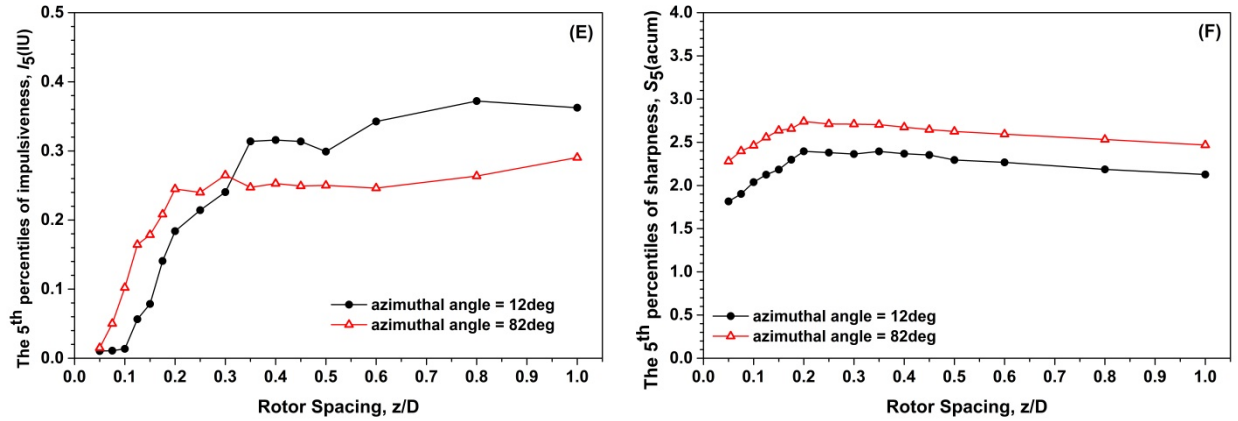
317 4D and 4E. Noise caused by enhanced turbulence-propeller interactions is highly impulsive, and
 318 therefore, the added turbulence-propeller interaction noise as the contra-rotating rotors move apart
 319 from each other leads to an increase in the impulsiveness metric. This suggests that the impulsiveness
 320 metric should be considered, along with roughness, to account for the perceptual response to
 321 propeller-turbulence interaction noise in the development of a PA model for rotorcraft noise.



322



323



324

325 FIG. 4. (Color online). The 5th percentiles of loudness (A), tonality (B), fluctuation strength (C),
 326 roughness (D), impulsiveness (E) and sharpness (F) as a function of rotor spacing at azimuthal angle 12
 327 deg and 82 deg, for a thrust setting of 10 N.

328 At rotor spacings in the region $z/D=0.2-0.4$, the contribution of potential field interaction tones
 329 reaches a minimum. This leads to an increase in the relative contribution of high frequency tonal and
 330 broadband components (i.e. shaper sounds). Therefore, at rotor spacings $z/D=0.2-0.4$, the spectral
 331 centroid is located at a higher frequency (compared to audio signals of rotor spacings with dominant
 332 potential field interaction tones), and therefore higher values of sharpness are observed (Fig. 4F). The
 333 same pattern of sharpness as a function of rotor spacing is observed for both 12 and 82 degrees,
 334 although sharpness values are higher at 82 degrees due to the lowest emission of potential field
 335 interaction tones at these emission angles. Cabell et al. (2016) found important emissions of high
 336 frequency tones between 3.5 and 5 kHz for a series of multi-copters driven by brushless DC motors.
 337 The noise generated by brushless DC motors is primarily due to both force pulses as the magnets and
 338 armature interact and forces caused by phase changes in the motor drive signal (Brackley and Pollock,
 339 2000). Alexander et al. (2019) observed high frequency humps in a series of multi-copters measured
 340 at hover configuration. Although the authors state this noise being broadband in nature, its origin is
 341 still under investigation.

342 **C. Models for psychoacoustic annoyance**

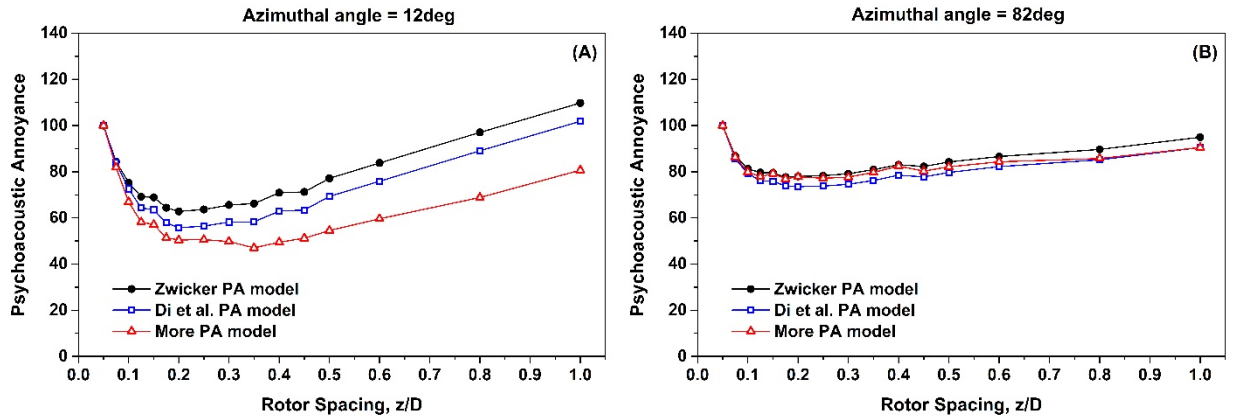
343 To identify the optimal rotor spacing configuration for the contra-rotating propeller under
344 evaluation, PA as a function of rotor spacing has been calculated according to PA models developed
345 by Zwicker and Fastl (1999), Di et al. (2016) and More (2011). As shown in Fig. 5, as expected from
346 the value of the psychoacoustic metrics analysed in section III.B, the lowest values of PA are found
347 for rotor spacing in the range of $z/D=0.2-0.4$ for both 12 and 82 degrees.

348 At 12 degrees, i.e. the emission angle with the highest amplitude of potential field interaction tones,
349 three main results are observed in Fig. 5A: (i) A significant decay in PA is observed at the optimal
350 rotor spacing area, compared to rotor spacings below $z/D=0.2$ and above $z/D=0.4$. (ii) As rotor
351 interaction noise at this rotor spacing is tonal in nature (i.e. potential field interaction tones), Di et al.'s
352 PA model and especially More's PA model (both of which include a tonal factor) lead to lower
353 psychoacoustic annoyance at optimal rotor spacing than Zwicker's PA model. (iii) While Zwicker's
354 and Di et al.'s PA models give the minimum value of psychoacoustic annoyance at rotor spacing
355 $z/D=0.2$, the lowest psychoacoustic annoyance according to More's PA model is at $z/D=0.35$. This
356 seems to be due to the higher contribution of the tonal factor in the PA model developed by More
357 (see Fig. 6).

358

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360



361

362 FIG. 5. (Color online). Psychoacoustic annoyance (PA) calculated with Zwicker's, Di et al.'s and
 363 More's PA models as a function of rotor spacing, for azimuthal angle 12 deg (A) and 82 deg (B) with
 364 a thrust setting of 10 N. Normalised to PA = 100 at $z/d=0.05$.

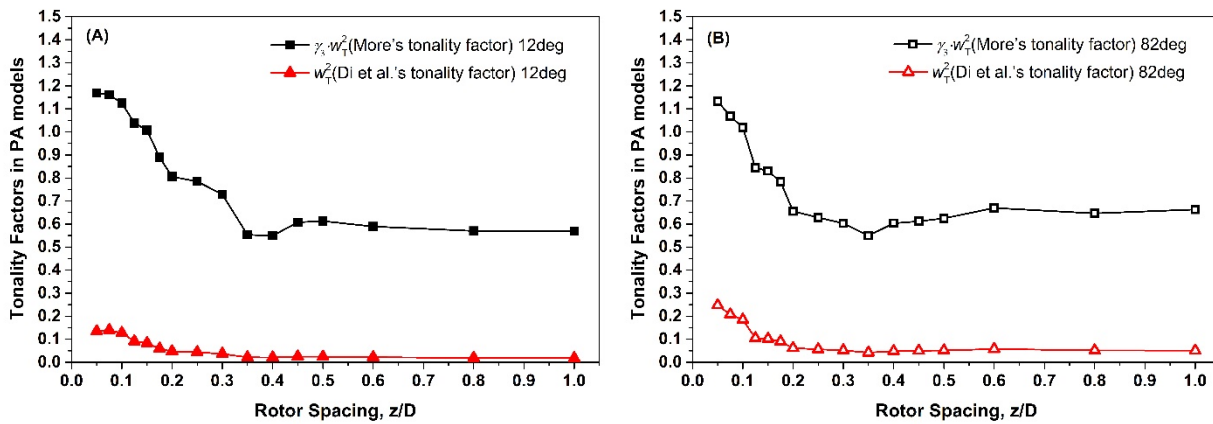
365 At 82 degrees, i.e. the emission angle with the lowest amplitude of potential field interaction tones,
 366 it is observed that the three models implemented give similar values of PA (Fig. 5B). The PA model
 367 developed by Di et al. (2016) gives the lowest values of PA among the three models used. The values
 368 of PA calculated according to the model developed by More are higher than the values calculated with
 369 Di et al.'s PA model for the rotor spacing range $z/D=0.15-0.6$. This seems to be due to the higher
 370 contribution of the sharpness factor in the PA model developed by More (see Fig. 4F for sharpness
 371 vs. rotor spacing). At this emission angle, the range of variation of PA as a function of rotor spacing
 372 is significantly more reduced than at an emission angle of 12 degrees. This finding suggests that a
 373 suboptimal rotor spacing between contra-rotating propellers can lead to a significant increase in PA
 374 at emission angles in line to the rotor axis. These emission angles are typical for an observer on the
 375 ground interacting with a hovering contra-rotating UAV.

376 Zwicker's and Di et al.'s PA models (Zwicker and Fastl, 1999; Di et al., 2016) were derived for a
 377 series of mechanical sounds, and More (2011) modified Zwicker's PA model to account for
 378 characteristics of fixed-wing aircraft noise. However, none of these PA models have been optimised

379 for propeller noise, and therefore might not be able to account for the complex perceptual interactions
380 between individual noise sources (e.g. tonal components, roughness due to interactions between
381 closely spaced tones, broadband noise in high frequency region due to unsteadiness in the wake,
382 propeller-turbulence interaction noise, etc.). This might lead to important uncertainty in the prediction
383 of PA with current models available. Furthermore, in the three PA models implemented in this work,
384 loudness is included as a first order term, and the other psychoacoustic metrics are just second order
385 factors. For this reason, the calculations of PA with these psychoacoustic models are mainly driven
386 by loudness, and the contribution of other psychoacoustic factors is quite reduced. Sharpness has
387 been found to be an important contributor to aircraft noise annoyance (Torija et al., 2019). Sharpness,
388 tonality and fluctuation strength were found to be important predictors of annoyance for rotorcraft-
389 like sounds (Krishnamurthy et al., 2018; Boucher et al., 2020). Roughness has been found, for instance,
390 an important factor to describing sound quality of electric motors (Mosquera-Sanchez et al., 2014;
391 Ercan, 2019). The relative contribution of psychoacoustic features to annoyance for propeller noise is
392 unknown. A process of listening tests and optimization of coefficients for psychoacoustic terms in
393 PA models, similar to the one carried out by More (2011) for fixed-wing aircraft, is needed for
394 propeller noise.

395 A recent study carried out by Gwak et al. (2020) has investigated the relationship between
396 psychoacoustic metrics and the annoyance reported for a range of hovering UAVs of varying size.
397 The authors found that the annoyance reported for medium and large drones is driven by loudness,
398 sharpness and fluctuation strength; they also found that the annoyance reported for small drones
399 cannot be explained by the three psychoacoustic metrics above, but tonality might play an important
400 role. Based on the β -coefficients of a linear regression model of the annoyance for medium and large
401 drones developed by Gwak et al. (2020, pp. 13), reported annoyance is mainly driven by loudness (β
402 = 0.908) and sharpness ($\beta = 0.102$) and fluctuation strength ($\beta = 0.268$) are second order contributors.

403 Further, the standardised β -coefficients of the linear regression model indicate that an increase of
 404 0.516 loudness units (i.e. sones) is needed to increase the annoyance in 1 unit¹, while an increase of
 405 9.902 sharpness units (i.e. acum) is needed for an increase in 1 unit of annoyance. Using the results
 406 of Gwak et al. (2020), the increase in the contribution of sharpness (relative to loudness) needed in
 407 order for it to dominate the psychoacoustic annoyance calculation is unrealistic. Based on this, one
 408 could argue that the optimal rotor spacing, in terms of psychoacoustic annoyance, suggested in this
 409 paper is not subjected to specific models but a more general finding.



410
 411 FIG. 6. (Color online). Di et al.'s tonality factor (w_T^2) and More's tonality factor ($\gamma_3 w_T^2$) in PA models
 412 as a function of rotor spacing, for azimuthal angle 12 deg (A) and 82 deg (B) with a thrust setting of
 413 10 N.

414 Although the perceived roughness and impulsiveness might be a factor due to unsteady
 415 turbulence-propeller interaction noise, annoyance might be assumed to be primarily driven by
 416 perceived tonality in the region of optimal rotor spacing as shown in Figs. 4B and 5 (i.e. sound is
 417 eminently tonal in nature in this region due to the contribution of potential field interaction tones).
 418 Several studies on a variety of noise sources, such as mechanical ventilation systems (Lee, 2016) and
 419 aircraft noise (More and Davies, 2010) have suggested a combination of loudness and tonality factors

¹ Note that annoyance in Gwak et al. (2020) is assessed using a 11-point scale.

420 in multiple linear regression models as an accurate approach to predict annoyance. As seen in Fig. 6,
421 both the tonality factors derived by Di et al. (2016) and More (2011) (accounting for the combined
422 effect of loudness and tonality) suggest the optimal rotor spacing at $z/D \geq 0.35$ (note that the minimum
423 value of both tonality factors is at $z/D = 0.35$). Figure 6 shows the Di et al.'s tonality factor squared
424 (eq. 5), and More's tonality factor squared (eq. 7) multiplied by $\gamma_3 = 1.25$ (to account for the total
425 contribution of tonality in More's PA model). This figure also shows that More's tonality factor
426 emphasises more the contribution of tonality in the PA model than Di et al.'s. The value of both
427 tonality factors as a function of rotor spacing demonstrates that More's factor is more sensitive to
428 variations in tonality, and therefore would lead to higher variation in PA for the same changes in
429 tonality.

430 Future work for the development of PA models for propellers, and especially contra-rotating
431 multiple blade propellers, will need to focus on psychoacoustic features such as perceived
432 impulsiveness caused by propeller-turbulence interaction, and perceived roughness and perceived
433 tonality of multiple tone complexes. Perceived roughness of superpositioned multiple pure tones (see
434 Fig. 3) differs from perceived roughness of amplitude modulated tones, even with similar modulation
435 strengths (Terhardt, 1974; Aures, 1985a). Perakis et al. (2013) found that the modulation index of an
436 amplitude modulated tone must be lowered by $2/3$ to be perceived as equally rough as a pair of
437 superpositioned tones. This perceptual phenomenon should be taken into account when deriving a
438 fluctuation strength/roughness function accounting for the perceptual interaction effect of closely
439 spaced multiple tones. The perceived tonal strength of mechanical sounds containing series of
440 harmonic or inharmonic complex tones can adversely influence the perception of these sounds (Lee
441 et al., 2005). The prediction of annoyance from sounds containing multiple tone complexes requires
442 not only accounting for the tonality of the most prevailing tone and signal loudness, but also the
443 frequencies and the structure of the other tones in the noise signal (Lee and Wang, 2020).

444 Aures/Terhardt tonality model (Aures, 1985b) accounts for the presence of complex tones. However,
445 Lee et al. (2005) found that Aures/Terhardt tonality model overestimates perceived tonality of
446 complex tones. These authors modified Aures/Terhardt tonality with a factor accounting for the
447 differences in tonality perception between harmonic complexes and single tones, and concluded that
448 the perceived tonality of multiple tone complexes is a function of the pitch strength of the harmonic
449 components. Therefore, pitch perception models, such as Terhardt's virtual pitch model (Terhardt et
450 al., 1982a;b) should be taken into account when deriving a function accounting for the perceived
451 tonality of complex tones in propeller noise.

452 **IV. CONCLUSION**

453 This paper presents the results of a psychoacoustic analysis carried out to investigate the optimal
454 distance between contra-rotating propellers to minimise noise annoyance. On the basis of
455 psychoacoustic annoyance, calculated with models available in the literature, it can be concluded that
456 the optimal rotor axial separation distance for the contra-rotating propellers under study is at a range
457 of $z/D=0.2-0.4$, instead of previously observed $z/D=0.25$ by Chaitanya et al. (2020) on the basis of
458 overall sound power level. Similar optimal rotor spacing is found for azimuthal angles of maximum
459 and minimum emission of potential field interaction tones, which are the highest contributors to the
460 contra-rotating propellers sounds measured. These results are consistent with the rotor spacing with
461 maximum aerodynamic efficiency for this contra-rotating system, measured at $z/D = 0.3$ by Chaitanya
462 et al. (2020). Although the Aures/Terhardt tonality metric and More's and Di et al.'s tonality factors
463 suggest an optimal rotor spacing at $z/D \geq 0.35$, the psychoacoustic annoyance as calculated with the
464 three models implemented in this work significantly increases for rotor spacings over $z/D = 0.4$.
465 Furthermore, a rotor separation over $z/D = 0.4$ might be more impractical from a construction
466 perspective.

467 Below the optimal rotor spacing, the noise generation is dominated by potential field interactions
468 between the two contra-rotating rotors, which is consistent with previous observations (McKay et al.,
469 2019; Chaitanya et al., 2020). As the rotor spacing increases towards the optimum, the magnitude of
470 these potential field interactions lessens significantly, and therefore a decrease in loudness is observed.
471 As this source of noise is tonal in nature, tonality also drops significantly at the optimum rotor spacing.
472 This decrease in tonality, and especially loudness, lead to a minimum in psychoacoustic annoyance.
473 Fluctuation strength accounts for the slow amplitude modulation due to closely spaced potential field
474 interaction tones, and therefore drops importantly as the amplitude of these interaction tones decays.

475 With increased rotor separation distances after optimum, interaction noise between contra-
476 rotating rotors increases due to enhance turbulence-propeller interactions, and this leads to an increase
477 in loudness. Furthermore, as this is unsteady broadband noise in nature, roughness and impulsiveness
478 increase when rotors move apart. This suggests that the perceptual effect of propeller-turbulence
479 interaction noise could be accounted for by roughness and/or impulsiveness metrics.

480 A special case takes place when calculating sharpness as a function of rotor spacing. Sharpness
481 reaches the highest values at the optimal rotor spacing region. As potential field interaction tones,
482 distributed evenly along low-to-mid frequencies, decays significantly at the optimal rotor separation
483 distance, the centroid of the spectrum moves towards the high frequency region (i.e. the relative
484 contribution of high frequency tonal and broadband noise increases). Under these conditions of more
485 dominant high frequency noise components, the values of sharpness are consequently higher.

486 The approach described in this paper, based on psychoacoustic methods available in the literature,
487 provides a more sophisticated and comprehensive analysis than traditional sound power level analyses
488 to inform the optimal design of rotating systems for lowest noise annoyance. Compared to sound
489 power level based assessments, the proposed method is able to account for the key psychoacoustic
490 features highly correlated to noise perception (e.g. tonality, roughness). Appropriately accounting for

491 the perceptual effects of key psychoacoustic factors is crucial for the optimisation of designs for lower
492 noise impact on potential exposed communities. As observed in this paper, minor deviations from
493 the optimal design (in terms of rotor spacing) of contra-rotating propellers can lead to substantial
494 increase in noise annoyance at emission angles typical for an observer on the ground interacting with
495 a hovering UAV.

496 The three models implemented in this research gives the minimum psychoacoustic annoyance at
497 similar rotor spacings. Despite differences in tonality, these models are mainly driven by loudness.
498 Analysing findings of recent literature, the increase in the contribution (relative to loudness) of some
499 secondary factors (e.g. sharpness) required to become dominant for psychoacoustic annoyance might
500 be unrealistic. Based on the above, it could be argued that other psychoacoustic annoyance models
501 might also lead to the same conclusion in terms of optimum rotor spacing, and therefore, the results
502 of this paper are more general and no specific to the three annoyance models implemented. However,
503 this cannot be demonstrated without extensive testing, as it is uncertain whether these psychoacoustic
504 annoyance models provide an accurate picture of actual noise perception for propeller noise (and
505 specifically contra-rotating rotor noise). The relative contribution to noise annoyance of different key
506 psychoacoustic features in a variety of rotor noise must be investigated to derive psychoacoustic
507 annoyance models optimised for rotating systems.

508 Further work is recommended to aid the design of rotating systems for lowest noise impact: (1)
509 additional noise testing should be carried out to gather a comprehensive database with sound samples
510 of different blade geometries, thrust settings, emission angles and single vs. coaxial propellers; (2)
511 further analyses will include other psychoacoustic factors, such as impulsiveness, relative approach
512 and additional tonality models; and (3) extensive subjective testing should be conducted to identify
513 the psychoacoustic factors mainly driving rotor noise annoyance, refine or compute coefficients

514 accounting for their relative contribution to noise annoyance, and thus, develop psychoacoustic
515 annoyance models for rotor noise.

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