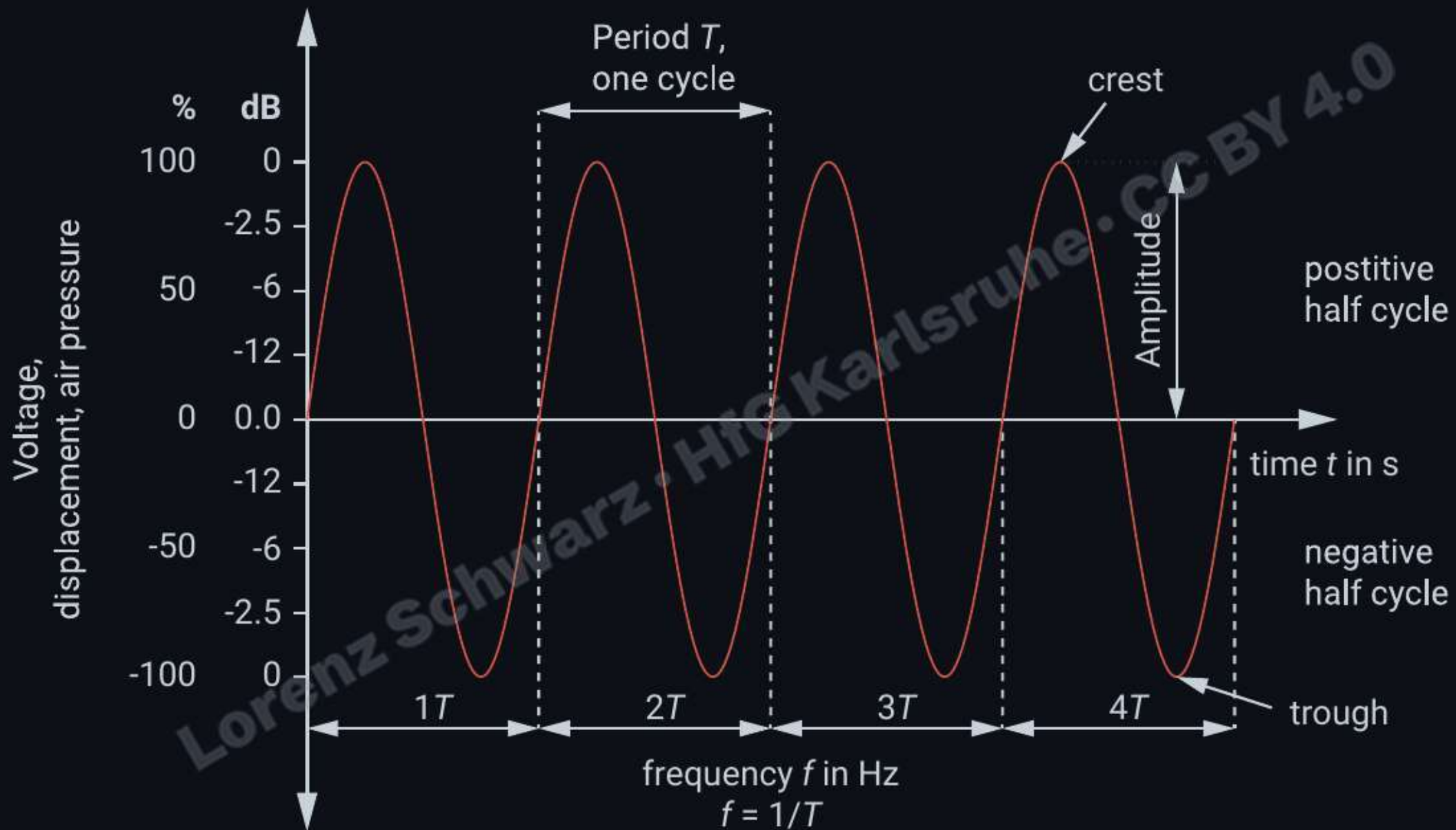


WAVE PROPERTIES

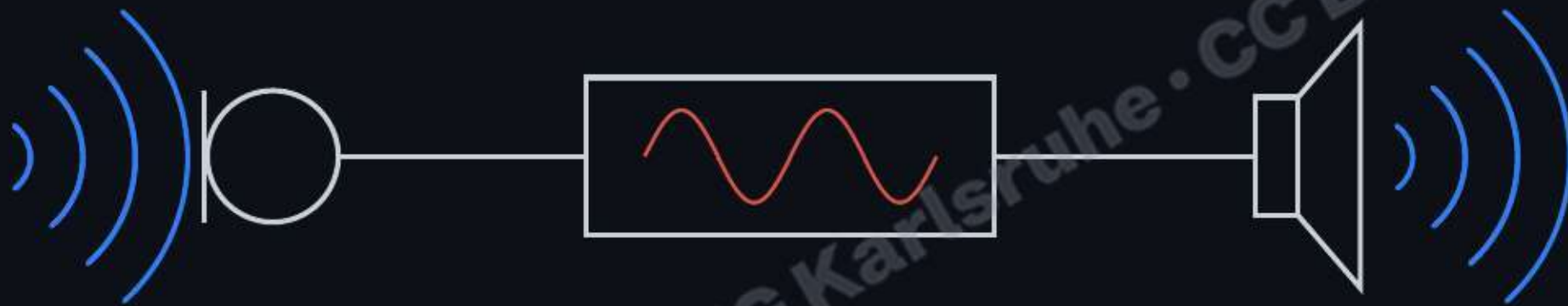
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Audio signals (electrical representation)

A transducer (e.g., microphone) converts the varying air pressure of a sound wave into a continuous electrical signal, which is proportional to the sound pressure variations.

→ *Electrical sound signals in this form are analogous to the sound pressure levels.*



Acoustic Sound - Electrical Signal - Acoustic Sound

Electronic sound and audio signals

Electronic audio signals are variations in electrical energy (changes in voltage or current), that correspond to sound pressure variations.

→ *Audio signals can be converted into audible sound through a speaker or other transducers.*

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Wave properties

The shape of the graph of a periodic function can be described using the following terms:

1. Amplitude \hat{u} - The maximum instantaneous value of the wave.
2. Period T - The time interval after which the wave repeats.
3. Frequency f - The reciprocal of the period (oscillations per second).
4. Phase angle φ - Describes the offset or difference between two sine waves.
5. Wavelength λ - The distance over which the wave repeats (spatial period).

Related:

Zero crossing - Point where the wave crosses zero.

Amplitude

Amplitude describes the maximum variation of a periodic signal (such as air pressure, displacement, or voltage) within a single period:

- Maximum instantaneous value of the variable.
- Maximum distance between the resting position (equilibrium) and the point of maximum displacement.
- Perceived as the loudness of sound in the context of audio signals.

→ *Amplitude has no influence on frequency, wavelength, phase, period of time, and speed of sound.*

Amplitude and energy transfer in waves

Amplitude relates to the wave's energy:

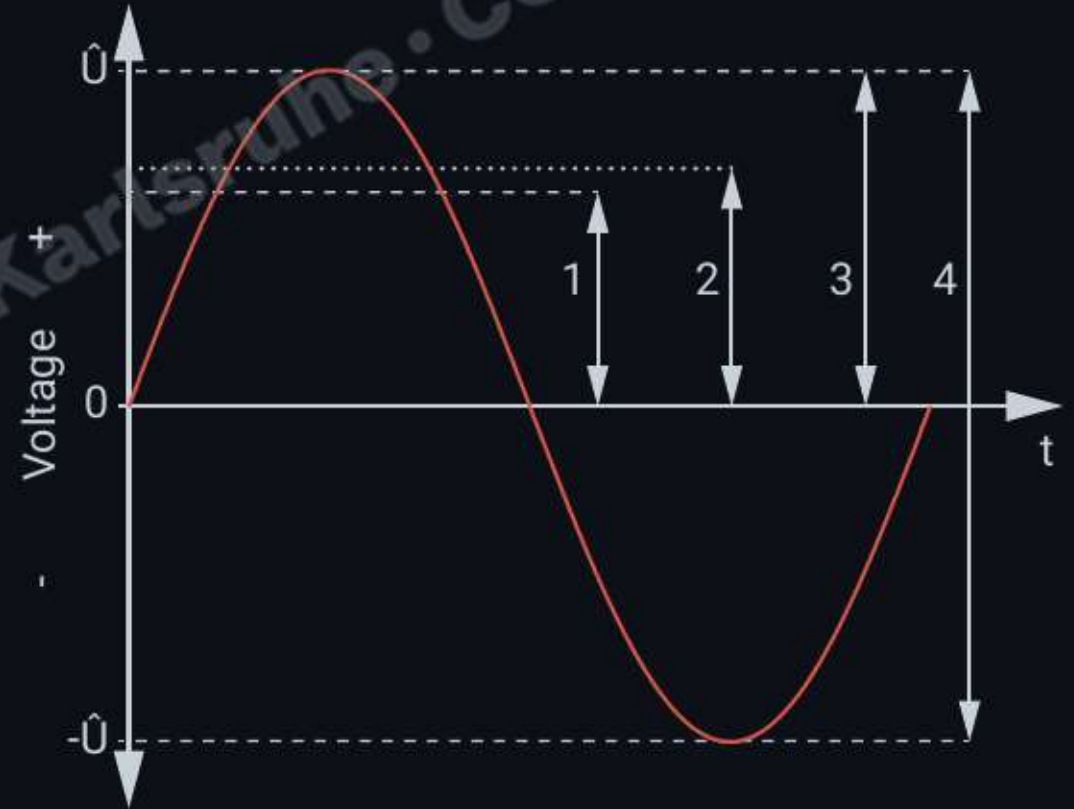
- Higher amplitude corresponds to greater energy transfer in the wave

This energy can be converted into work, heat, or other forms depending on the medium and interaction.

Amplitude

For a sinusoidal waveform:

1. Average rectified (ARV) $\frac{2\hat{u}}{\pi}$
2. Root mean square amplitude (RMS): $\frac{\hat{u}}{\sqrt{2}}$
(equivalent value of constant direct current)
3. Peak amplitude or semi-amplitude: \hat{u}
(maximum distance between resting position (equilibrium) and maximum displacement)
4. Peak to peak amplitude: $2\hat{u}$ (between maximum and minimum)



Root mean square (RMS)

The average value of a sine wave over a full cycle is zero (positive and negative halves cancel). RMS solves this by squaring values first, making them all positive:

RMS represents the *effective value*: the equivalent DC level that delivers the same power.

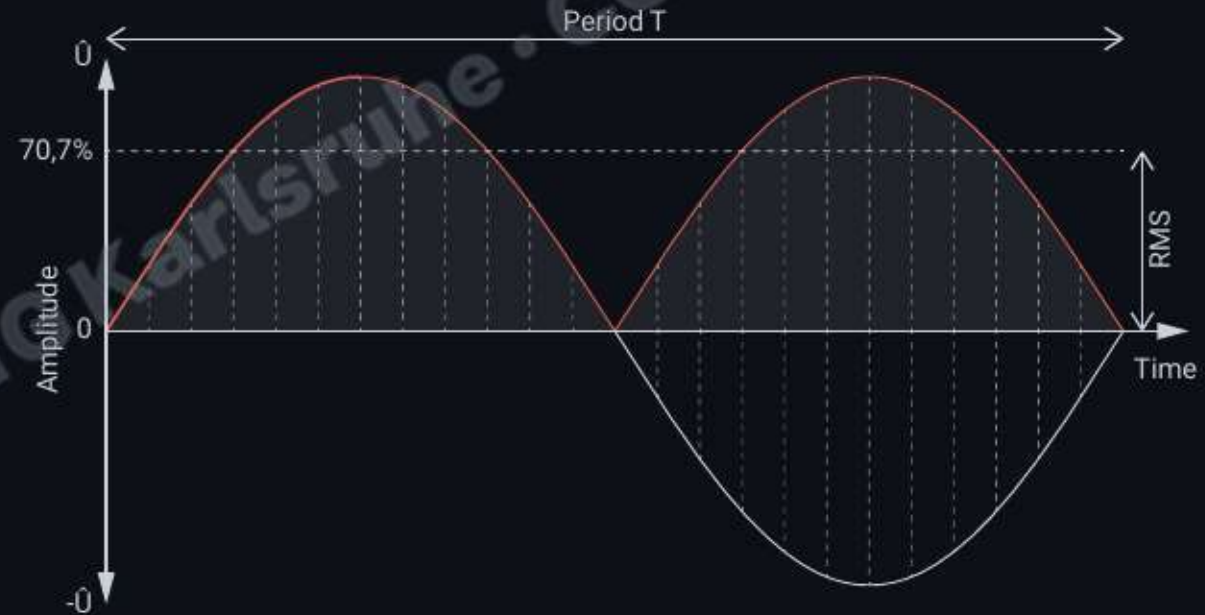
| Waveform | RMS |
|----------|--------------------------------|
| Sine | $0.707 \times A_{\text{peak}}$ |
| Square | A_{peak} |

→ *Electrical and acoustic power are proportional to the square of the RMS value.*

Calculating RMS

Square root of the mean of the squares:

- Square all values of the signal: $a^2(t)$ (makes all values positive)
- Compute the area under the squared curve: $\int_0^T a^2(t) dt$
- Divide by the period T : $\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T a^2(t) dt$
- Take the square root: $\sqrt{\quad}$



$$A_{\text{RMS}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T a^2(t) dt}$$

RMS and power

Electrical and acoustic power are proportional to the square of RMS values:

- Amplifier power ratings use RMS voltage and current
- Sound intensity is proportional to RMS sound pressure squared

→ *RMS enables meaningful comparison of signal strength and power delivery across different waveforms.*

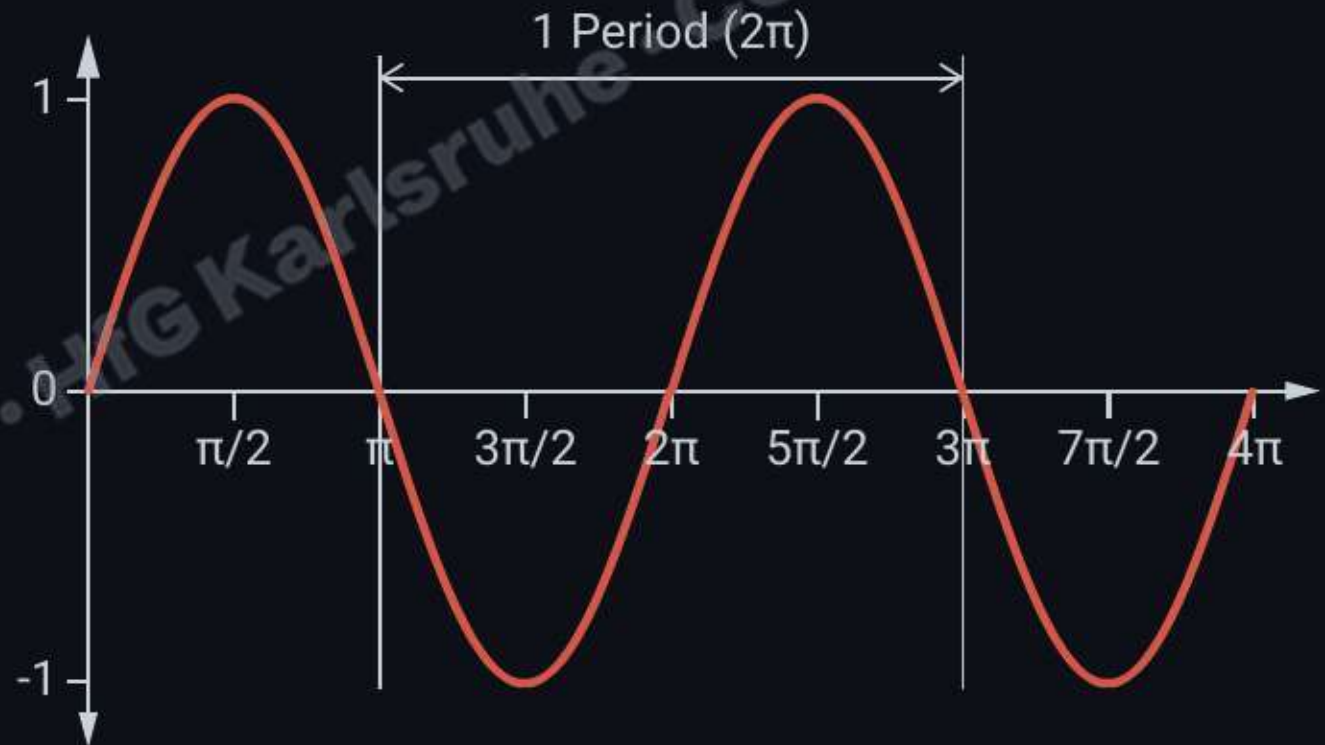
Period T

Time required for a wave to complete one wave cycle (2π)

$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = \frac{1}{f}$$

Each multiple of a period is also a period, but we usually refer to the smallest positive one as the period.

[view in graphing calculator](#)



Period

Example: $f = 440 \text{ Hz}$

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{440} \text{ s} = 2.27 \text{ ms}$$

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Frequency

Variations or alterations between 0,05 ms (20 kHz) and 50 ms (20 Hz) are perceived as sound.

- Ultrasound: higher than 20 000 Hz.
- Infrasound: lower than 20 Hz.

→ *Hearing range for humans is 20 Hz to 20 000 Hz.*

Frequency f

Number of wave cycles per second, expressed in Hertz [Hz]

$$f = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{\omega}{2\pi}$$

f : frequency

T : period

ω : angular frequency

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$



Angular frequency (ω)

Whereas Hertz [Hz] counts cycles per second, radians per second [rad/s] measure the angle swept per second by a rotating pointer.

- **Hz:** cycles per second (cps)
- **rad/s:** angle swept per second (rotating motion)

Hertz and radian can be expressed as reciprocal seconds:

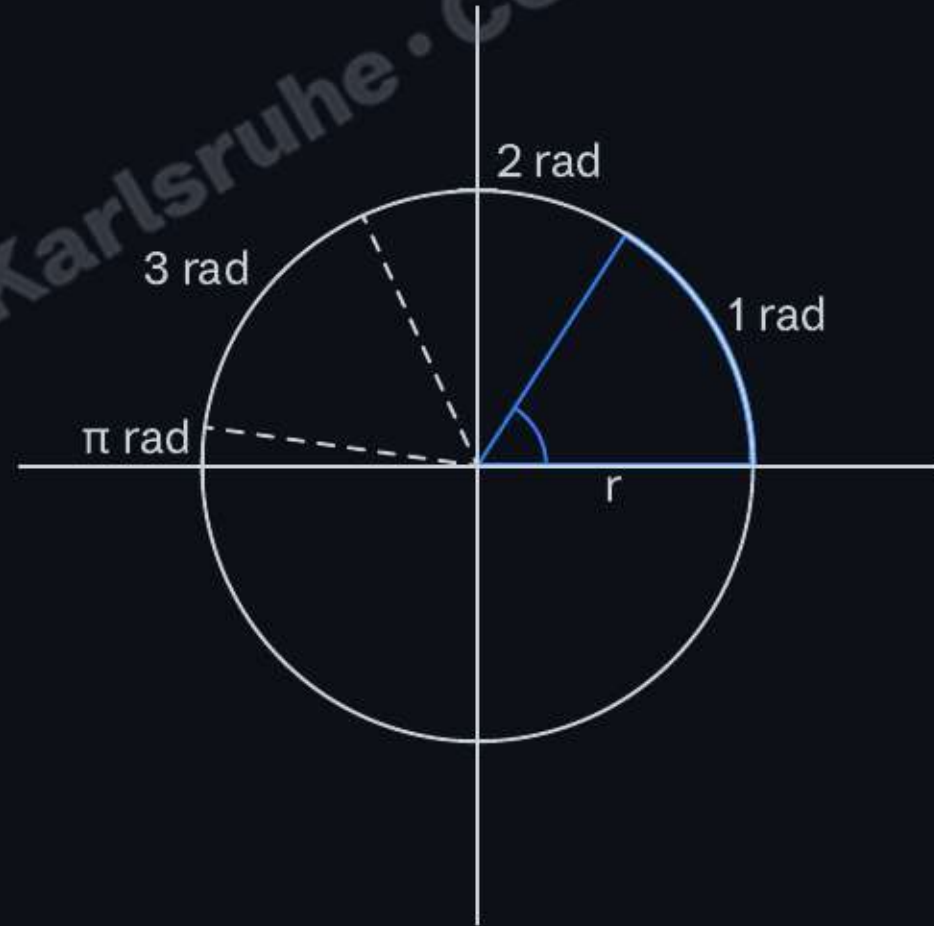
$$[Hz] = [\omega] = s^{-1}$$

Radian

Radian is the angle subtended at the center of a circle by an arc equal in length to the radius.

- 1 full circle = 2π radians
- Radians are dimensionless (ratio of lengths)
- Used in angular measures: ω in rad/s, φ in rad

[view in graphing calculator](#)



Example: Relating rad/s to Hz

One radian per second:

$$f_{(Hz)} = \frac{\omega_{(rad/s)}}{2\pi} = 0.1591549433 \text{ Hz}$$

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Frequency and period

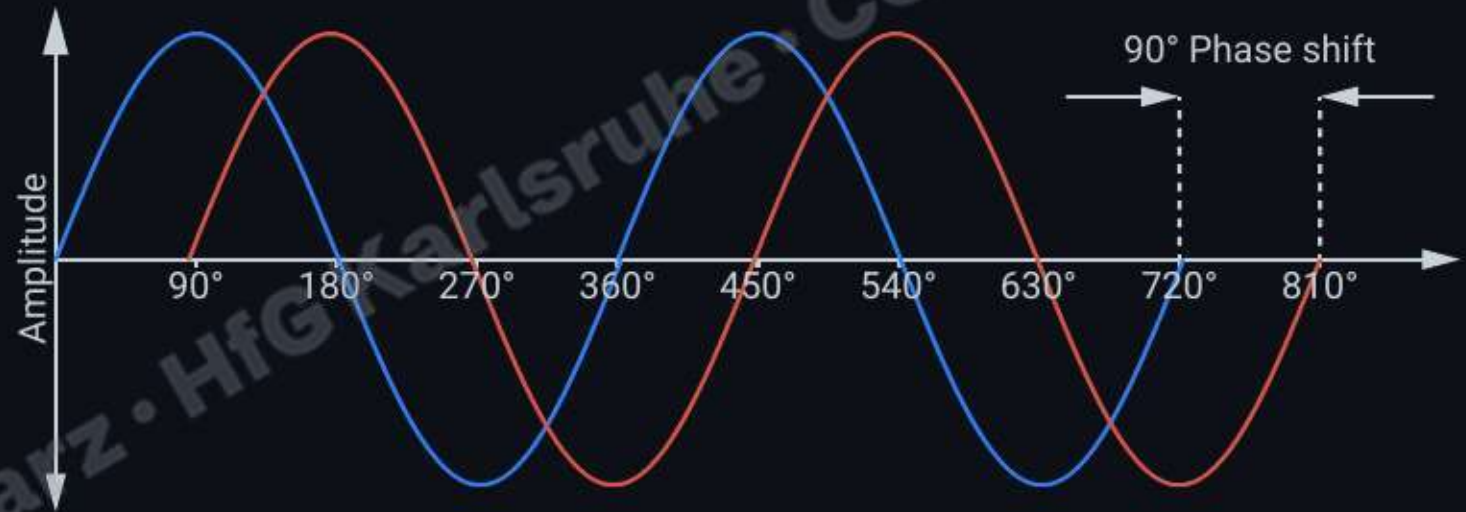
The period is the reciprocal of the frequency and vice versa.

$$T = \frac{1}{f} \quad f = \frac{1}{T}$$

Phase

Position of a sine wave in time.

- defined for two sine waves
- not for music signals or noise



Cosine and sine have a mutual phase difference of 90°

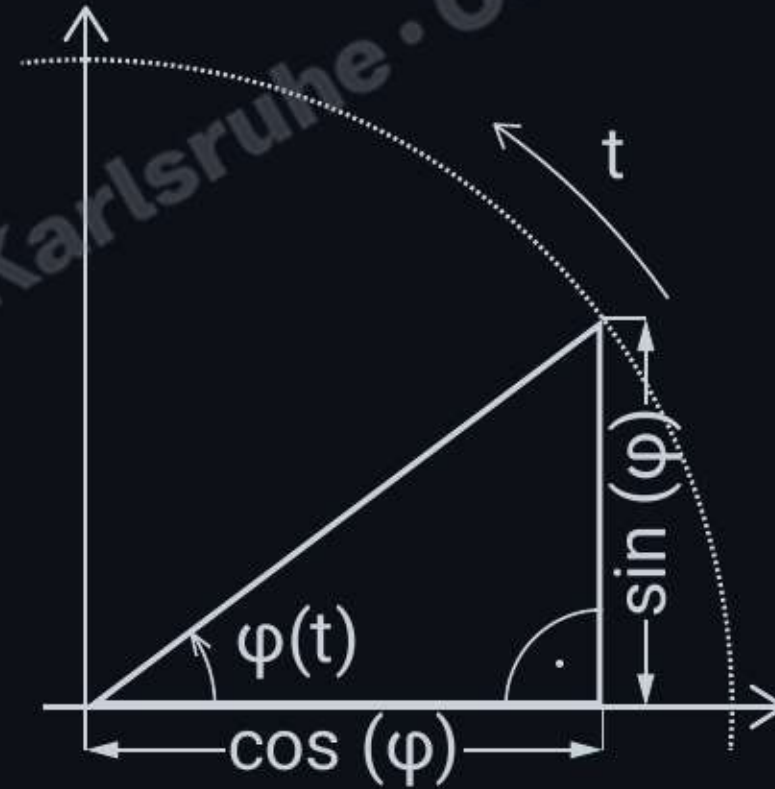
$$\varphi(t) = 90^\circ = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

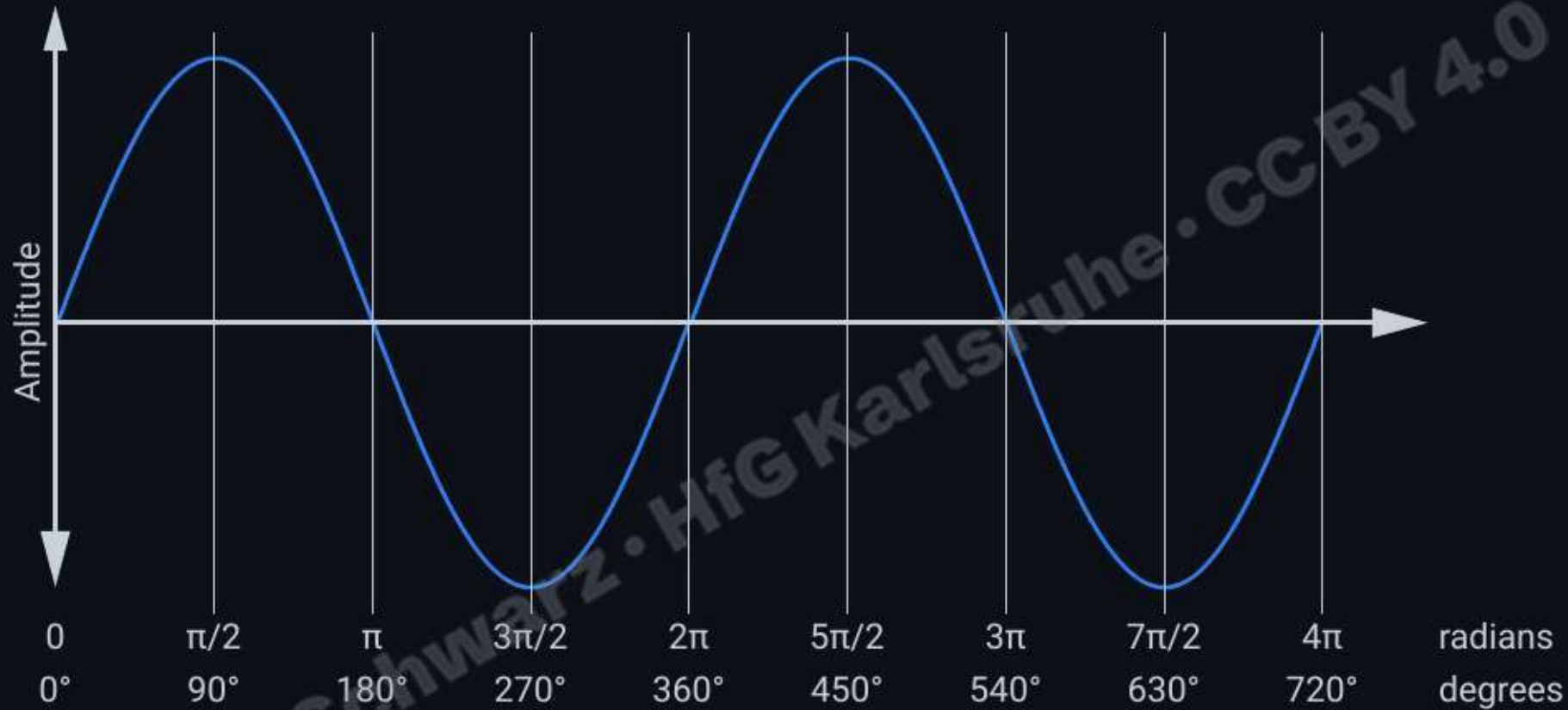
Phase angle φ

The phase indicates the angular position in the cycle of a periodic process as a function of time.

$$\varphi(t) = 2\pi ft = \omega t$$

[view in graphing calculator](#)





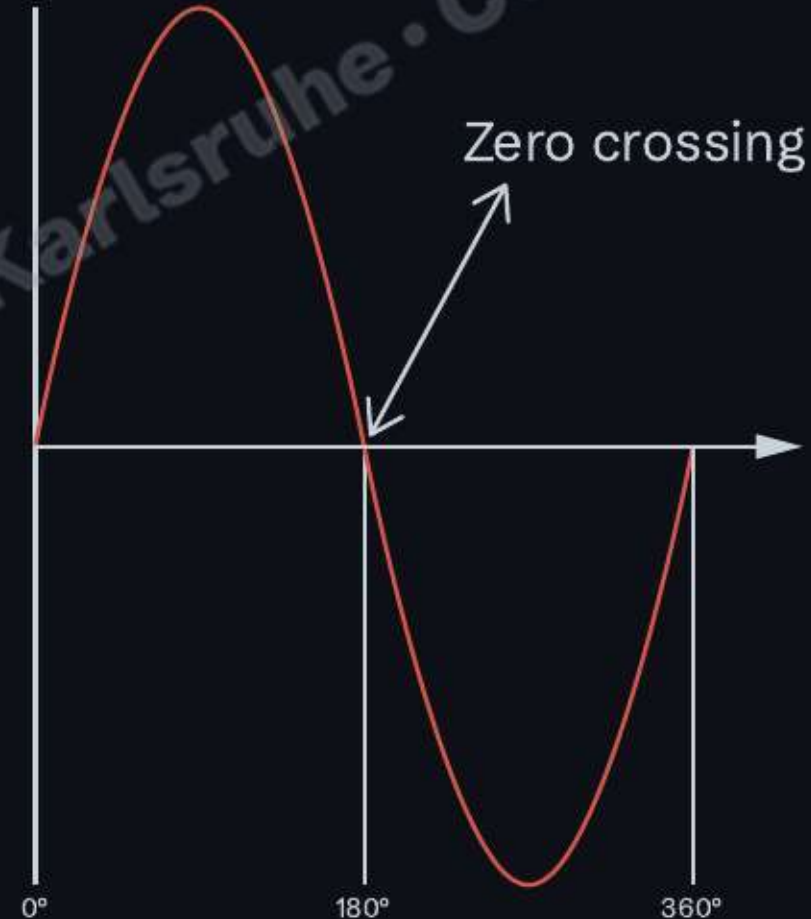
One complete cycle is 2π in radians or 360 in degrees:
0° starting point (zero position), 90° highest point, 270° lowest point

Zero crossing

Zero crossing is the point where the signal's amplitude is zero and it changes sign:

- Occurs twice per cycle in simple waveforms (e.g., sine, sawtooth, triangle, square)

→ In speech processing, the zero-crossing rate helps distinguish between voiced and unvoiced speech sounds.



The wave equation

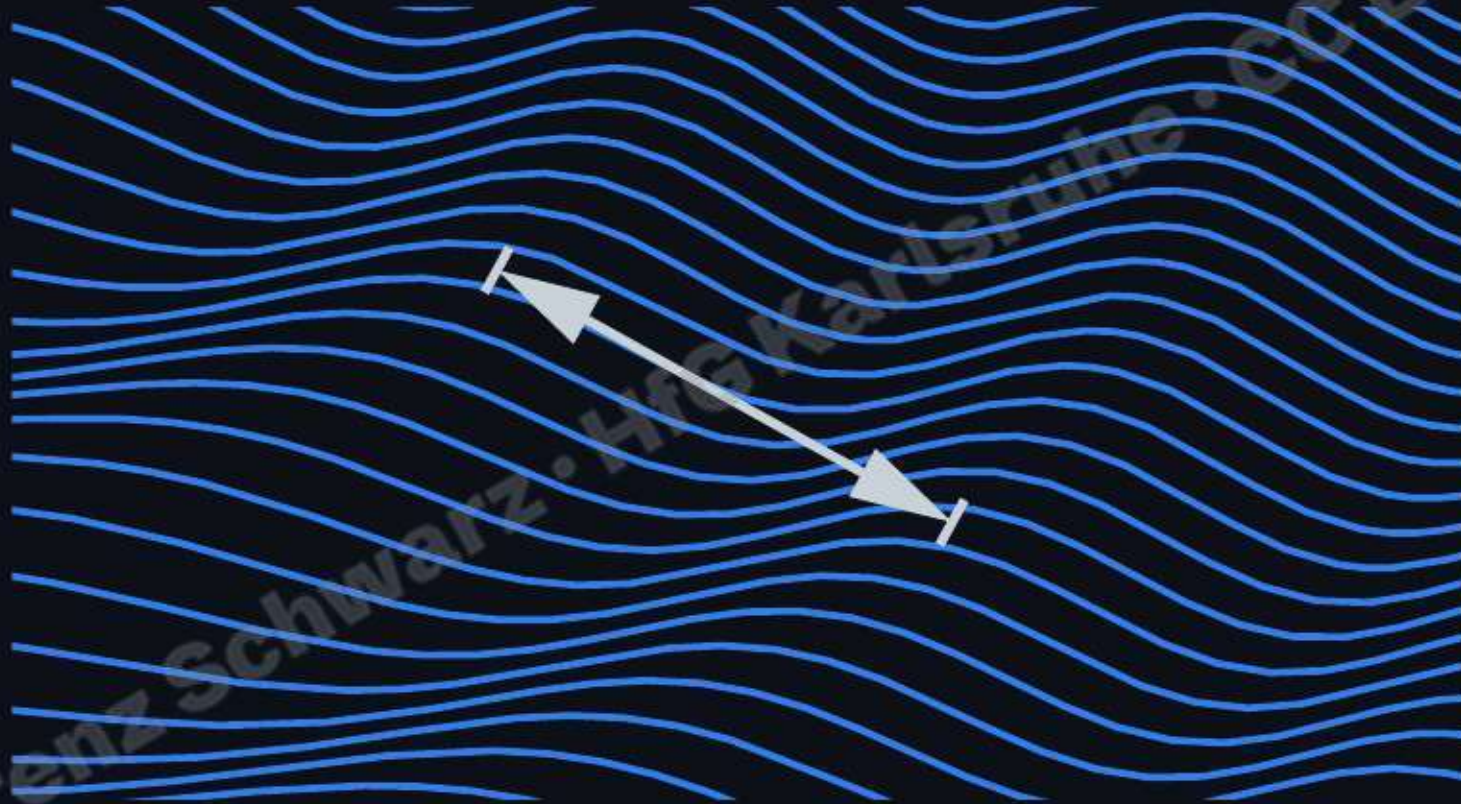
All wave properties are interconnected through a single relationship:

$$c = f\lambda = \frac{\lambda}{T}$$

- c is the propagation speed of the wave (e.g. 343 m/s in air)
- Amplitude determines energy, independent of the other properties
- Frequency and period are reciprocals: $f = \frac{1}{T}$
- Wavelength depends on both frequency and medium: $\lambda = \frac{c}{f}$
- Phase describes position within a cycle

→ *Changing one property (except amplitude) necessarily affects others.*

Wavelength λ



Wavelength

Spatial period:

- distance over which the wave's shape repeats (related to frequency)
- parallel to the direction of propagation

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{f}$$

λ Wavelength

f Frequency

c Speed of sound

Calculating wavelength from frequency

Example:

What is the wavelength of a 440 Hz tone in air, where sound speed is 343 m/s?

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{f} [m]$$

$$\lambda = \frac{343}{440} = 0.78m$$

Wavelength λ



Wavelength and frequency

Frequency and wavelength are inversely proportional to each other:

low frequency \leftrightarrow long wavelength
high frequency \leftrightarrow short wavelength

Wavelengths of various sound frequencies

| Frequency (Hz) | Wavelength in Air (m) |
|----------------|-----------------------|
| 31.5 | 11 |
| 63 | 5.5 |
| 125 | 2.7 |
| 250 | 1.4 |
| 500 | 0.7 |
| 1k | 0.344 |
| 2k | 0.172 |
| 4k | 0.086 |
| 8k | 0.043 |
| 16k | 0.021 |

Speed of sound

The speed of sound is the distance a sound wave travels per unit of time through a medium.

Speed of sound:

$$c \approx 343 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \text{ at } 20^\circ\text{C in air}$$

$$c \approx 1481 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \text{ in fresh water}$$

Factors affecting the speed of sound

- **Elasticity:** The more elastic (less compressible) the medium, the faster sound travels.
- **Density:** Higher density generally slows sound in gases but may increase speed in solids or liquids if accompanied by high elasticity.
- **Temperature:** In gases, higher temperatures increase the speed of sound by reducing the medium's density and increasing molecular energy.

Speed of sound in gases

$$c = \sqrt{\kappa \frac{p}{\rho}} = \sqrt{\kappa \frac{RT}{M}} = \sqrt{\kappa \frac{k_B T}{m}}$$

κ heat capacity ratio

ρ density

p pressure

R molar gas constant

$M = m \cdot N_A$ molar mass

T thermodynamic temperature in kelvin

k_B Boltzmann constant

m molecular mass

Example: Time-distance relationship of sound

- **34 cm/ms**
 - sound travels about 34 cm per millisecond
- **3 ms/m**
 - Sound takes roughly 3 ms to travel 1 meter

(Assuming speed of sound = 343 m/s)

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Applying the speed of sound formula

Example:

Determining the distance of a lightning bolt (and thunderstorm cell):

- Every **3 seconds** of delay \approx **1 kilometre** distance from the lightning bolt.

Question:

How long does sound need to travel **2 m**?

$$t = \frac{d}{c} = \frac{2 \text{ m}}{343 \text{ m/s}} \approx 5.8 \text{ ms}$$

Speed of sound in different media (at 20°)

| Media | Meters/Second |
|---------------|---------------|
| Air | 344 |
| Helium | 981 |
| Water, fresh | 1480 |
| Seawater | 1500 |
| Ice (-4°C) | 3250 |
| Acrylic Glass | 2670 |
| Beech wood | 3300 |
| Concrete | 5850-5920 |
| Mild Steel | 5050 |
| Aluminium | 6250-6350 |

Wave propagation

Sound speed in an elastic medium depends on temperature.

- Lower temperature \rightarrow lower speed
- 1°C change \approx 60 cm/s change in sound speed

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Practical use: delay lines in PA systems

When multiple speaker systems cover a large area, sound from distant speakers must be delayed to match the time it takes for sound from closer speakers to arrive.

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Speed of sound and related terms

Generally, sound travels faster in denser and less compressible media.

- **Subsonic:** Motion or speed less than the speed of sound in a given medium.
- **Infrasonic:** Sound waves with frequencies lower than ~ 20 Hz (below the range of human hearing).

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Doppler effect

The change in frequency or pitch of sound waves perceived by an observer due to the relative motion between the sound source and the observer.

- The pitch is higher than the stationary pitch as the source approaches.
- The pitch decreases as the source passes the observer.
- The pitch becomes lower than the stationary pitch as the source moves away.

Used in rotary (Leslie) speakers and film sound design plug-ins.

► Doppler effect applied to a moving sound source (plugin simulation)

Doppler effect formula

$$f' = \frac{c \pm v_r}{c \mp v_s} \cdot f_0$$

- f' = observed frequency
- f_0 = emitted (source) frequency
- c = speed of sound in the medium
- v_r = velocity of the receiver
- v_s = velocity of the source

For a stationary receiver ($v_r = 0$):

$$f' = \frac{c}{c \mp v_s} \cdot f_0$$

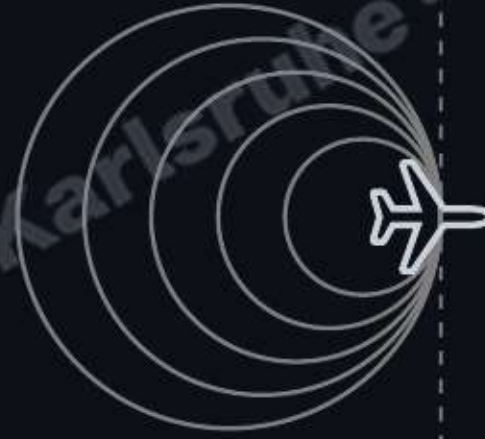
Doppler effect and sound barrier



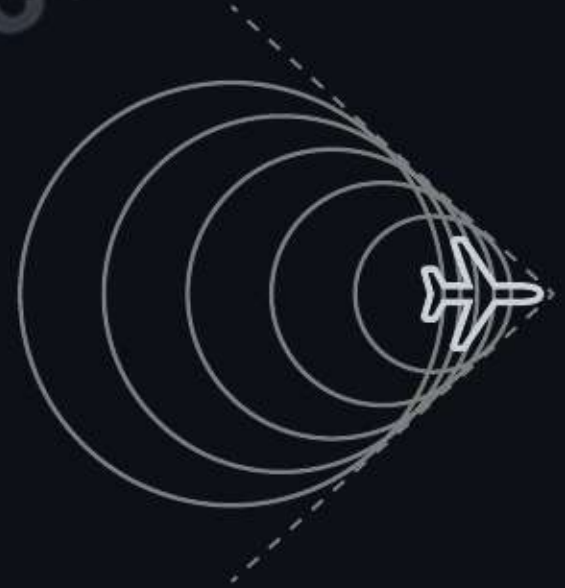
Stopped



Subsonic



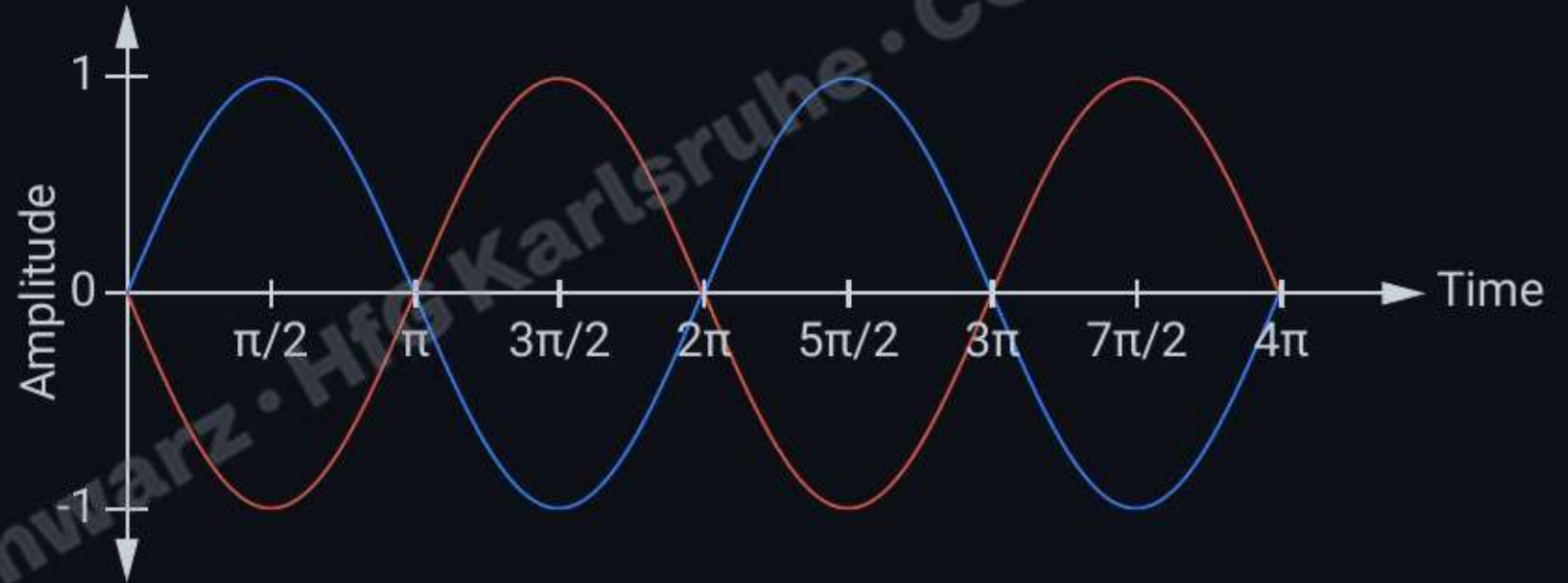
Speed of sound



Supersonic

Polarity inversion

- opposite amplitude
- inverted signal
- no time shift



The red graph shows an inverted version of the blue graph (same shape, opposite sign)

Polarity inversion

Applications:

- Differential signalling for transmitting analog audio.
- "Phase" button on mixing desks to avoid phase cancellation

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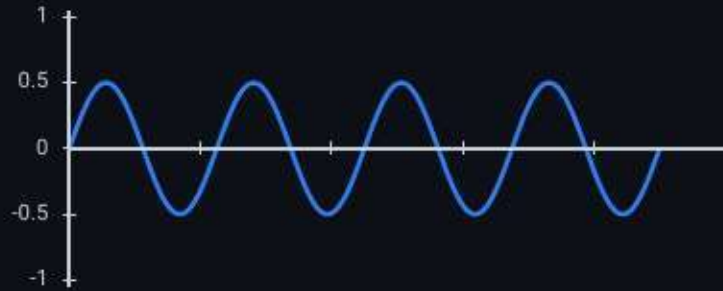
Superposition and interference

Interference, a consequence of superposition, describes the interaction between sound waves. The resultant amplitude is the sum of the individual amplitudes:

- amplification (constructive, even multiple of π)
- attenuation (destructive)
- cancellation (destructive, odd multiple of π)

[view in graphing calculator](#)

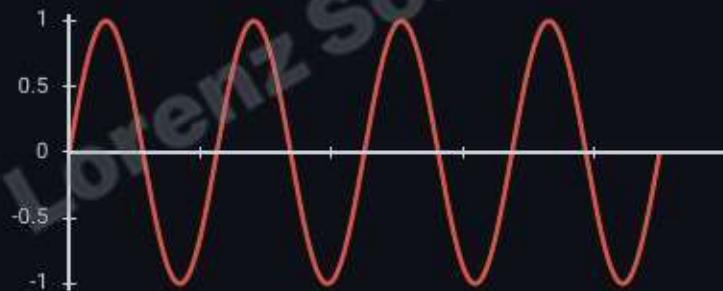
Constructive and destructive interference



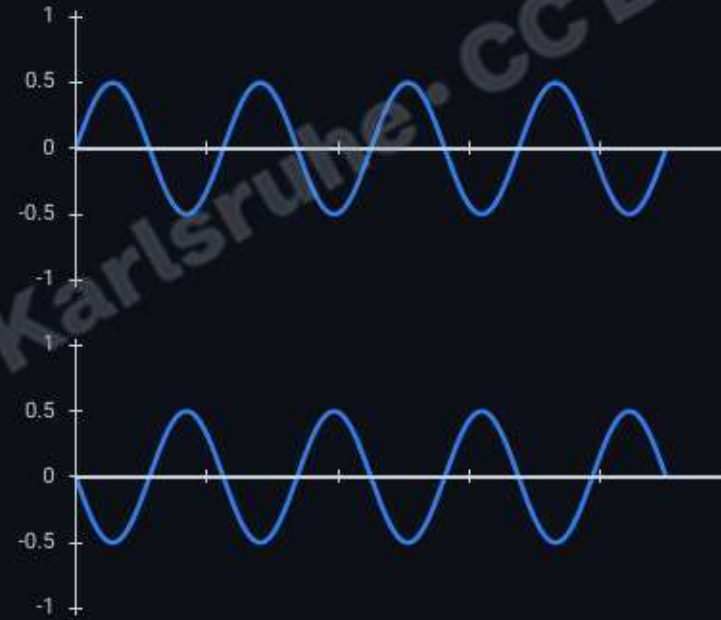
A



B



A + B



Applications:

- Chorus (multiple copies of the same signal, slightly delayed and out of tune)
- Phaser (copied signal runs through an all-pass filter and is then mixed with its original)
- Active noise control

► Phasing effect applied to white noise

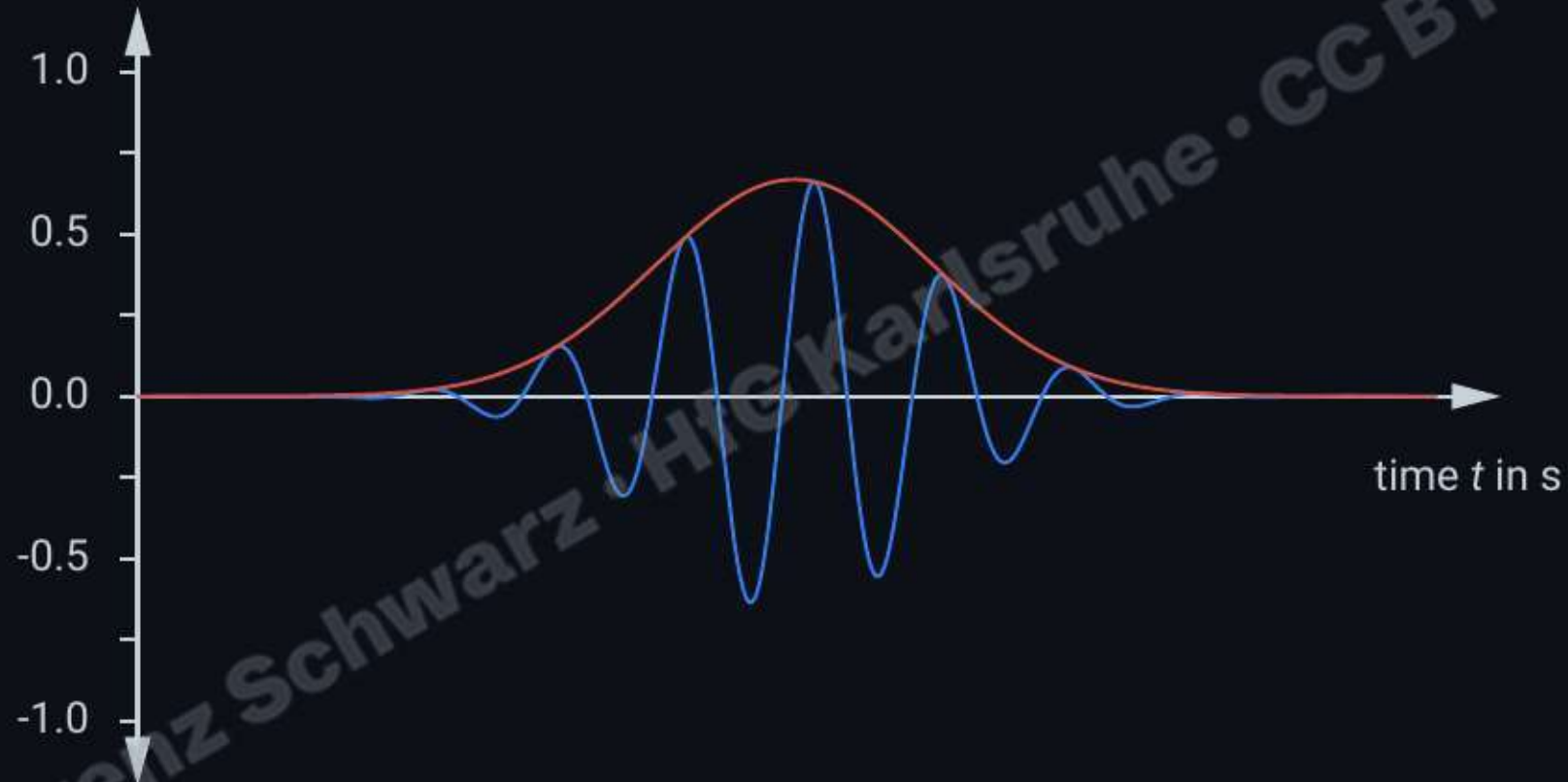
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Wave properties and sound design

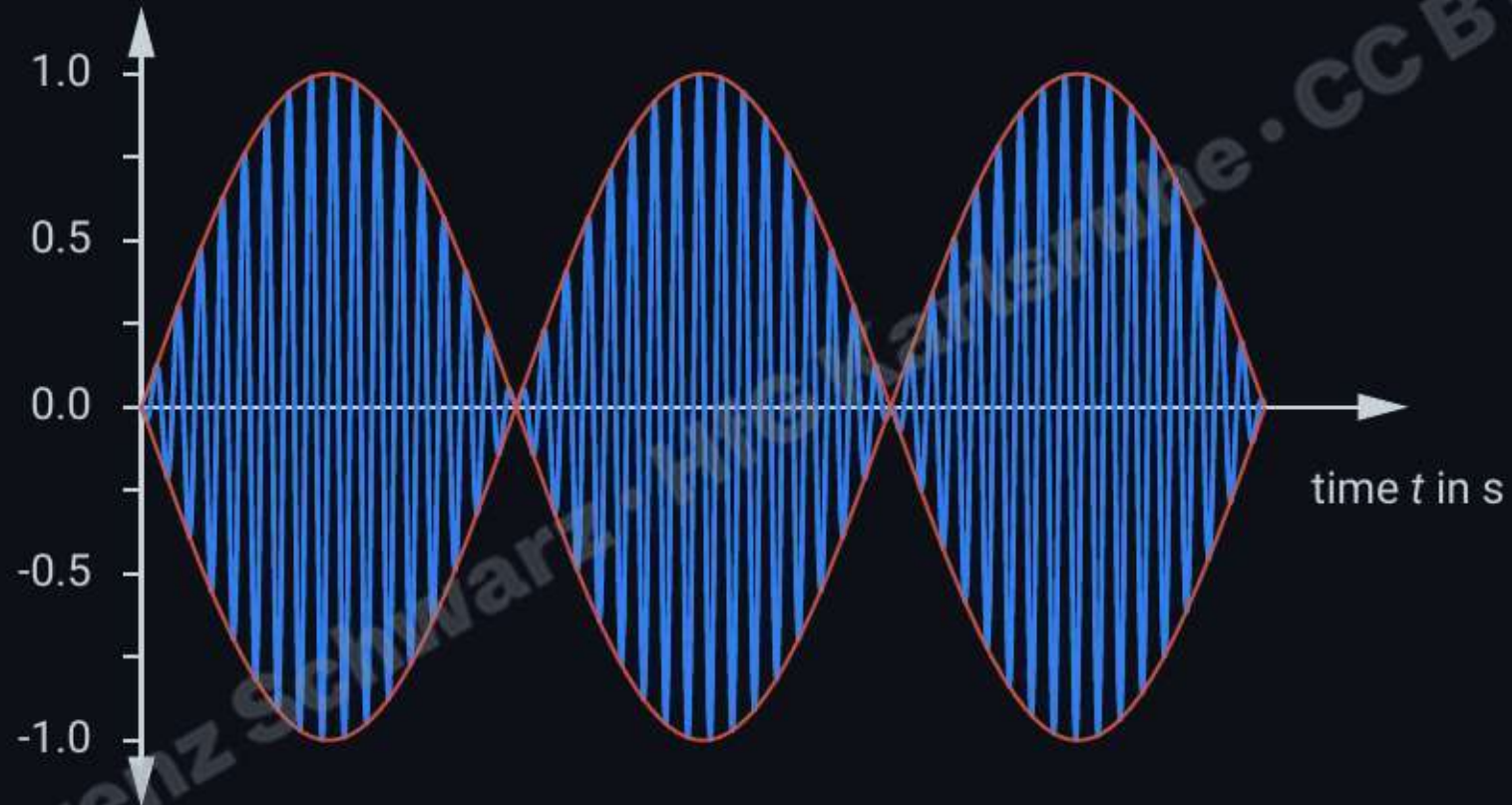
The following slides on envelope and amplitude modulation connect amplitude concepts to time-varying behavior.

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Envelope over time



Upper and lower envelope



Listening examples: Amplitude modulation

Varying the amplitude of a 400 Hz sound with a lower-frequency modulation signal:

1. Slow rates (< 4 Hz) \rightarrow Pulsation. ▶
2. Moderate rates (4 - 30 Hz) \rightarrow Tremolo. ▶
3. Faster rates (30 - 70 Hz) \rightarrow Roughness. ▶
4. Very fast rates (> 70 Hz) \rightarrow Spectral coloration. ▶

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