

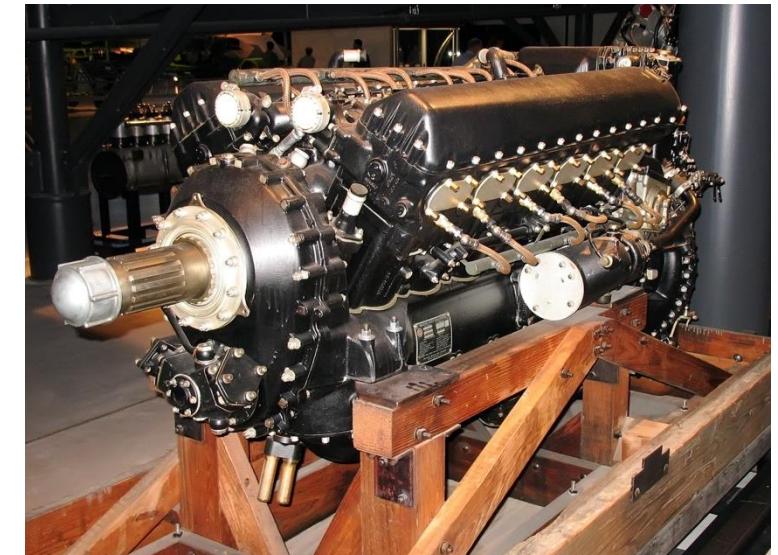
# History time-line

## □ Before 1950

- Most airplanes had **large piston engines** without exhaust mufflers, and they employed propellers that rotated at high tip speeds, generating *considerable noise*
- At that time, the main goal was maximizing engine power and aircraft performance, and the resulting *high noise levels were viewed as an unimportant byproduct*



[Watch and hear](#)



# History time-line

## □ 1950's

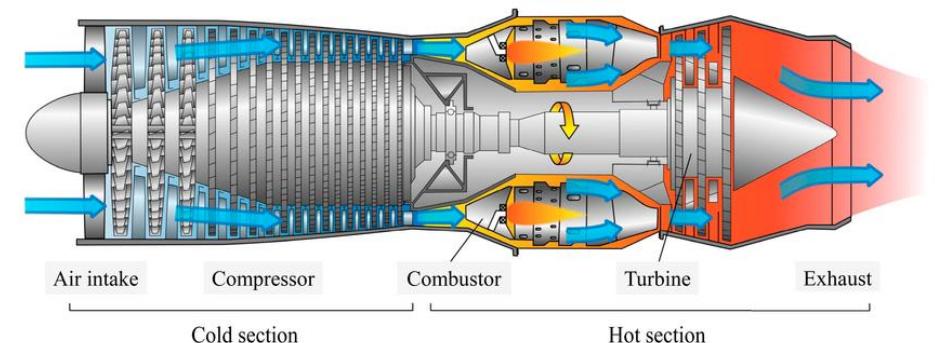
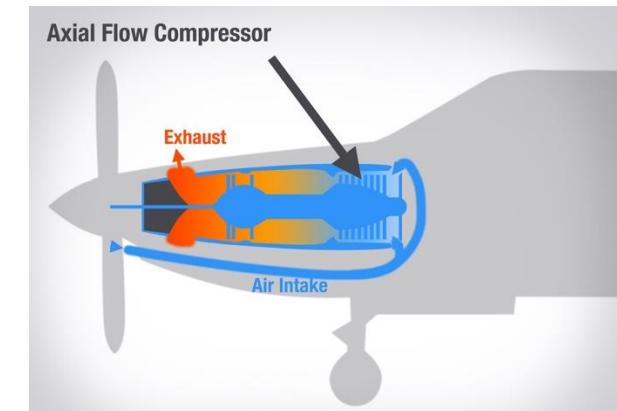
- **Turboprops** and **turbojets** were adopted in airliners and military aircraft
  - More efficient and powerful engines
  - Produced even **higher noise levels**, especially during takeoffs and landings, which resulted in a significant public backlash and legislative actions

First American jet passenger airliner flight (July 15, 1954)

The Boeing 367-80 or Dash-80 was a prototype, which was later developed into the 707...



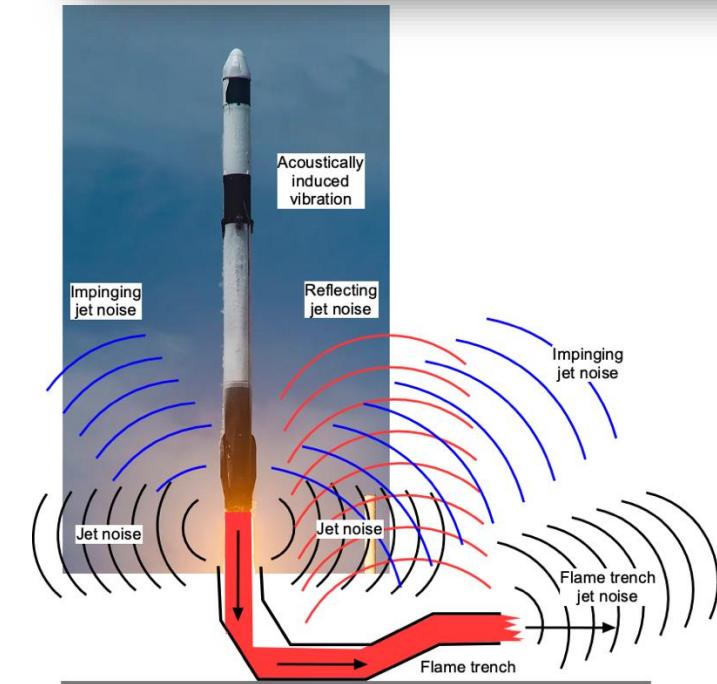
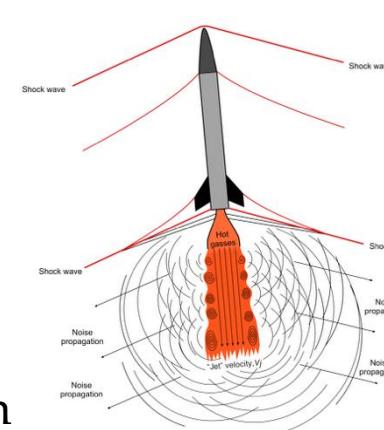
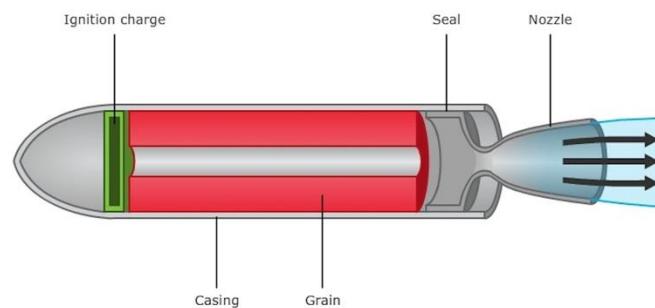
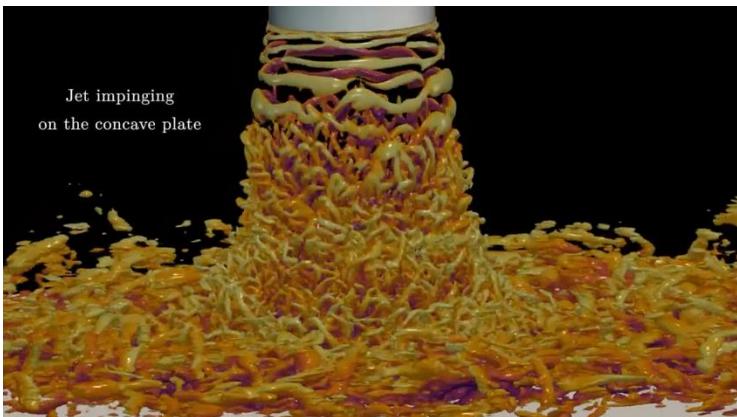
**Vickers Viscount:** The First Turboprop Powered Airliner



# History time-line

## □ 1960's

- Space exploration...
- Rockets generate an intense “*crackling*” noise from combustion and *turbulent mixing in the supersonic exhaust (jet) flow*
  - Likely above the threshold of pain for any observer within several kilometers of the rocket
  - **Jet noise is directional** - mainly propagates in one dominant direction

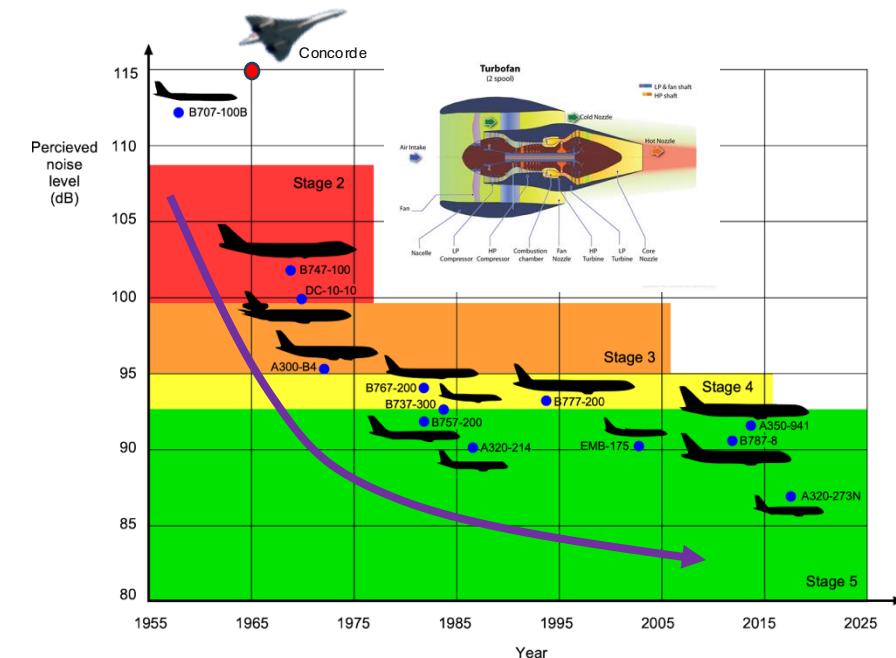
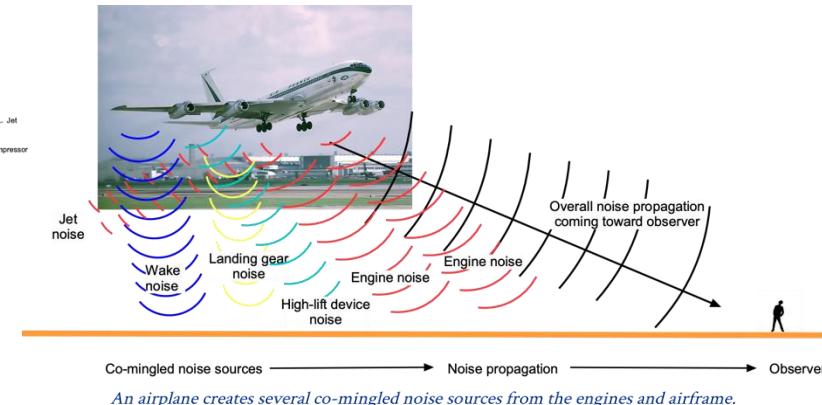
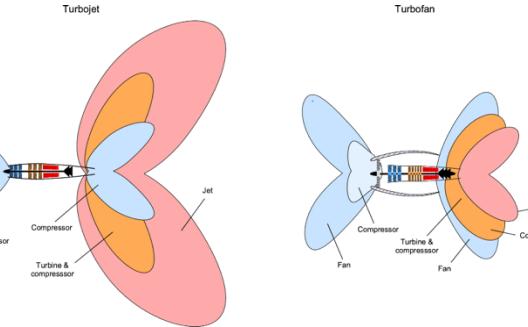


A rocket launch will produce intense noise levels from the high-speed gases exhausted from the rocket engines.

# History time-line

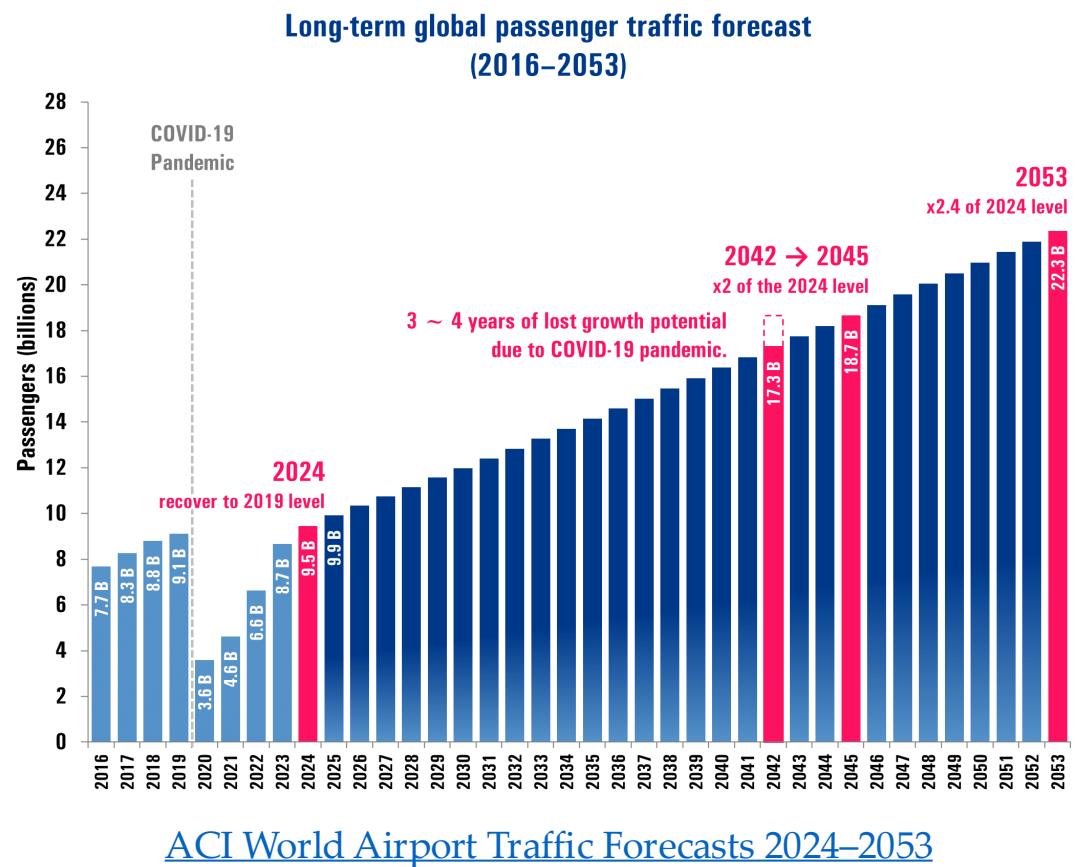
## Over the last few decades

- Increased awareness of the **environmental impact** of aircraft noise has led to widespread **public concerns and regulatory actions**
- The **International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)** has implemented increasingly stringent noise standards, focusing on noise abatement procedures and moving airports farther away from urban areas
- ICAO established “**Stages**” to categorize and regulate the noise emissions of different aircraft
  - **Stage 5** is the current standard
- Forced aircraft manufacturers to heavily invest in R&D to **design quieter engines and airframes**
- Most focus has been invested in reducing engine noise, leading to advancements such as **high-bypass turbofan engines**, which **significantly reduced aircraft noise**



# What next?

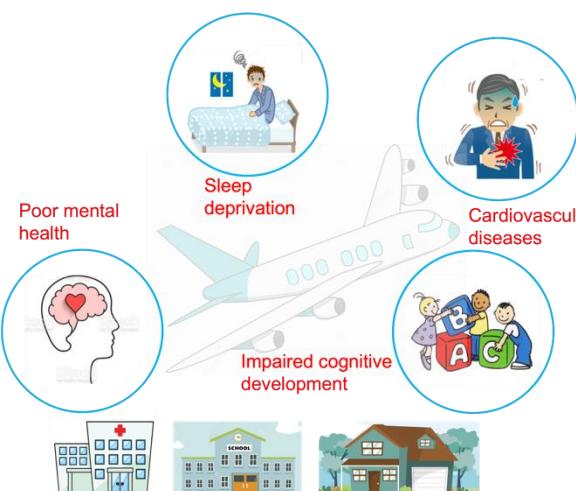
- By 2053, air traffic is expected to grow by x2.4!



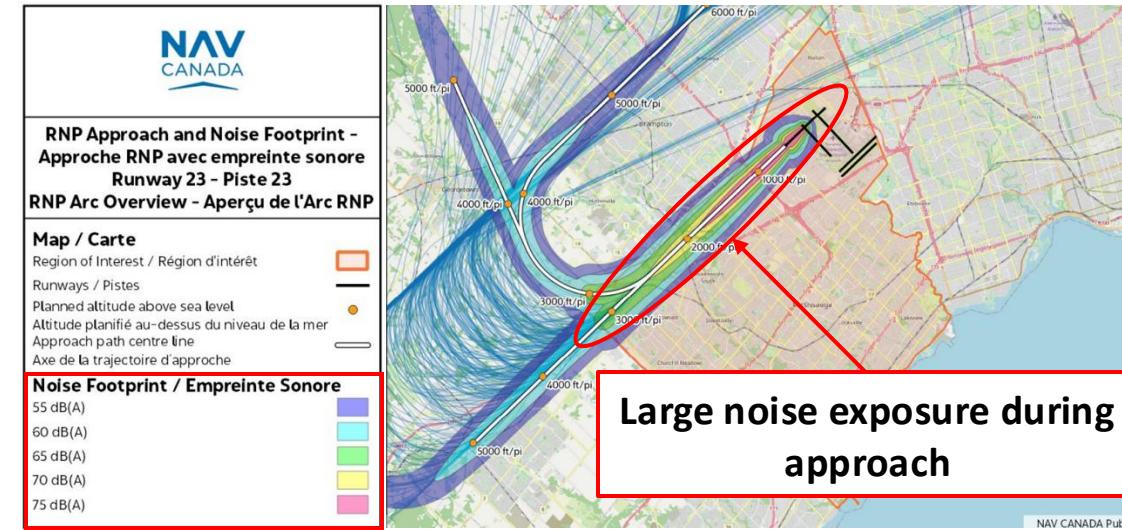
# What next?

- Future aircraft noise exposure in urban areas around airports will be **much higher**
  - Negative effect on the communities' health
  - Stricter aircraft noise certification standards
- A challenge for the growth of the aviation sector

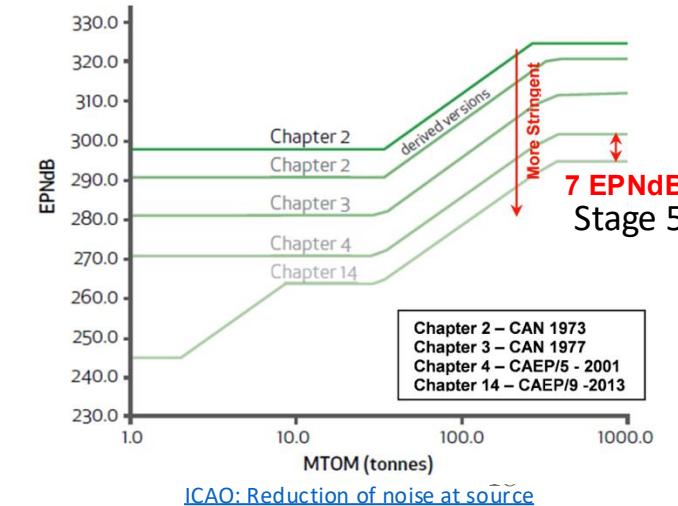
Significant reduction in aircraft noise emissions, and specifically *airframe noise*, is to be achieved



Toronto Pearson International Airport, Canada

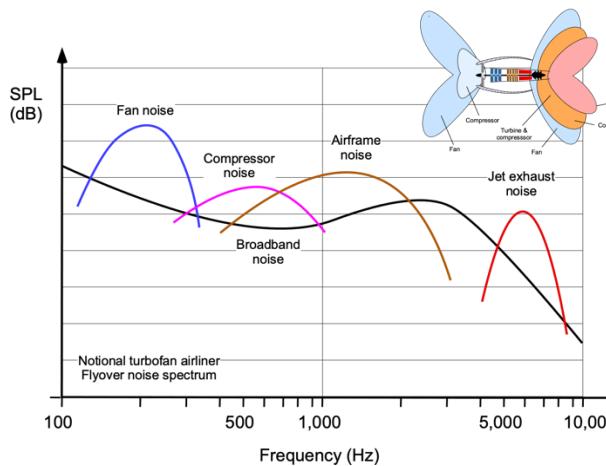
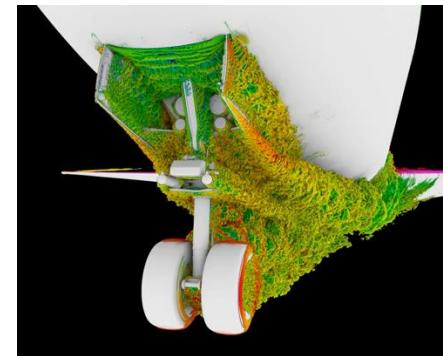
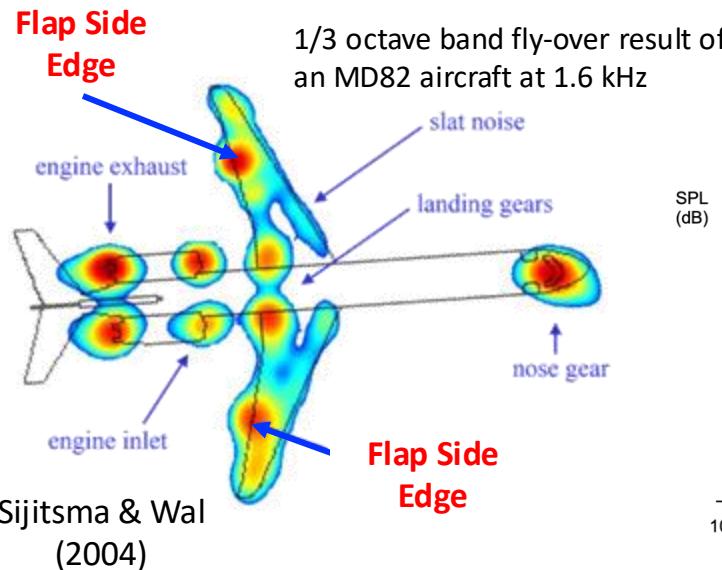


International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) Annex 16

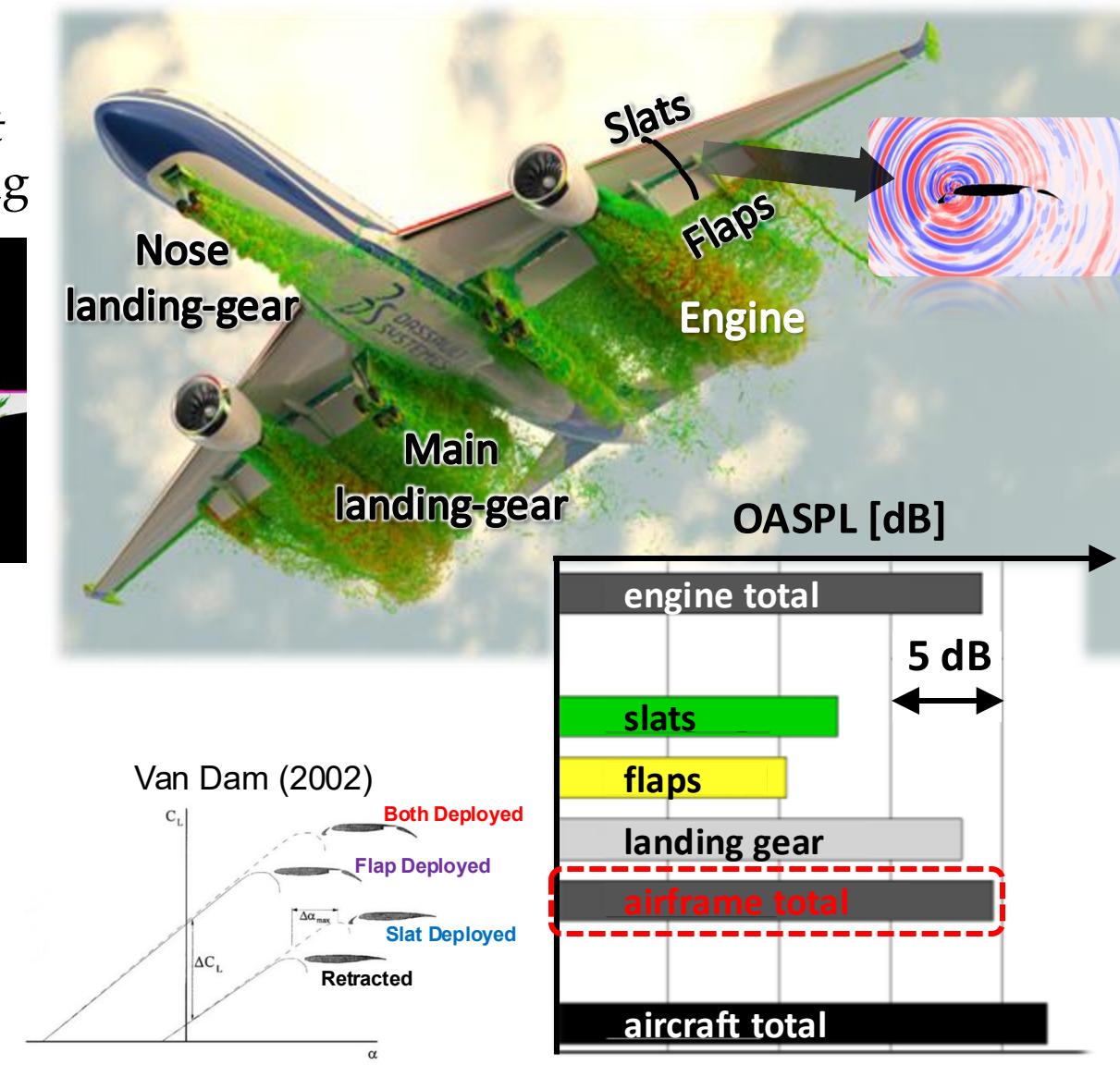


# Example: Airframe noise

- Airframe noise is recognized as a *significant contributor* to the overall aircraft noise during approach scenarios
  - Landing gears
  - HLD - High-lift devices
    - slat/flaps

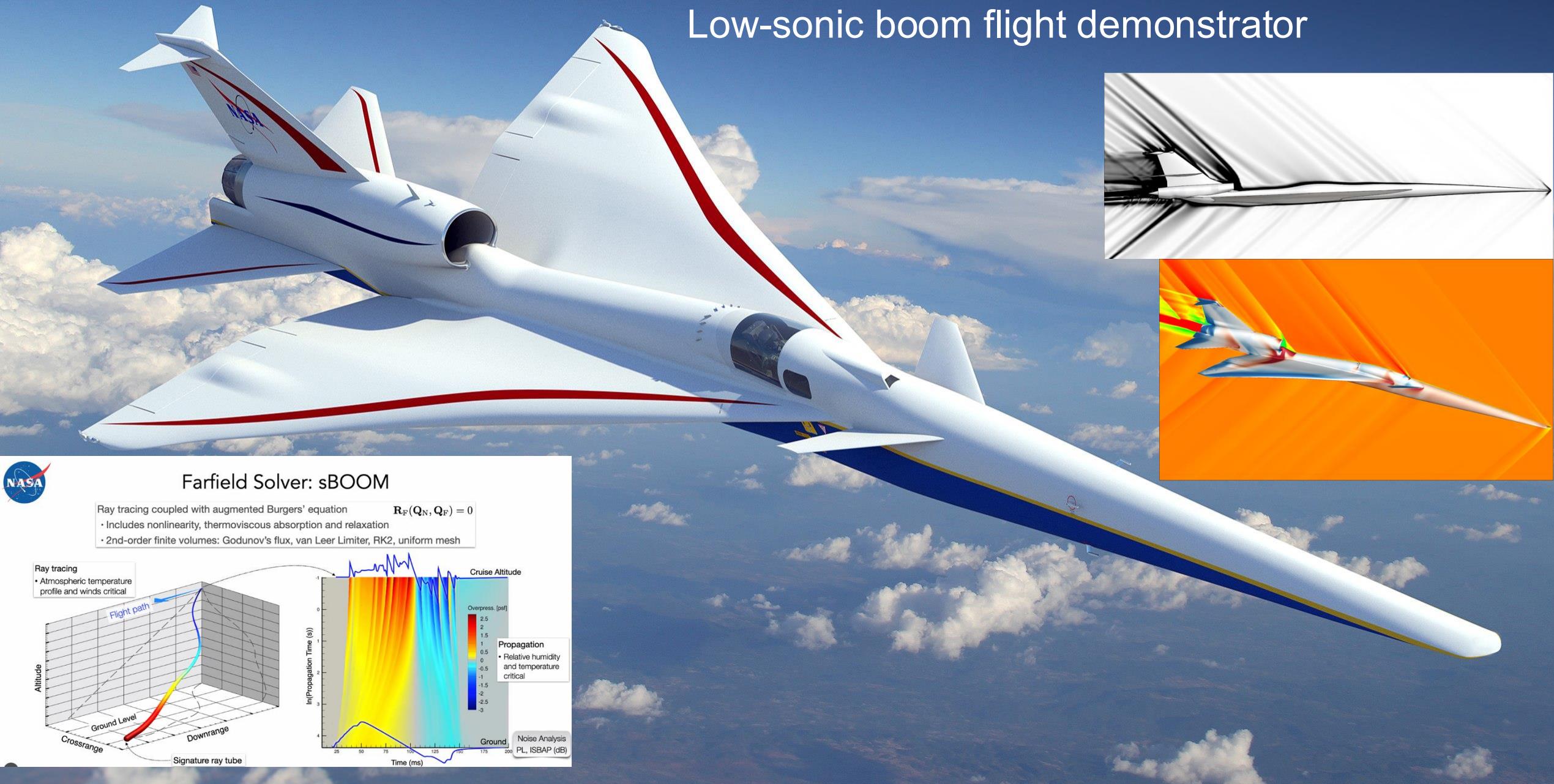


The overall noise signature of an airplane is characterized by specific noise sources that occur across a range of frequencies.



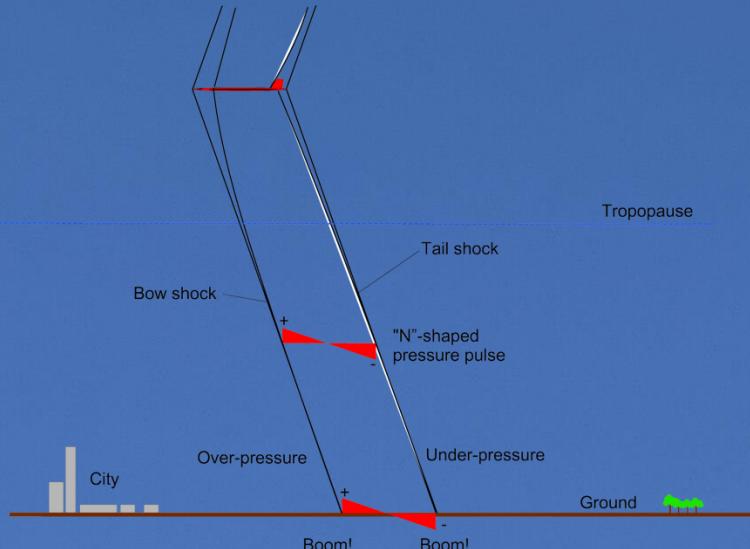
# Lockheed Martin X-59 QueSST

Low-sonic boom flight demonstrator



# Lockheed Martin X-59 QueSST

Low-sonic boom flight demonstrator



The signature of a sonic boom is an "N" shaped pressure pulse, which can be loud and startling to an observer on the ground.

First Flight - 28 October 2025



that could reshape how the world connects.

# Sound wave

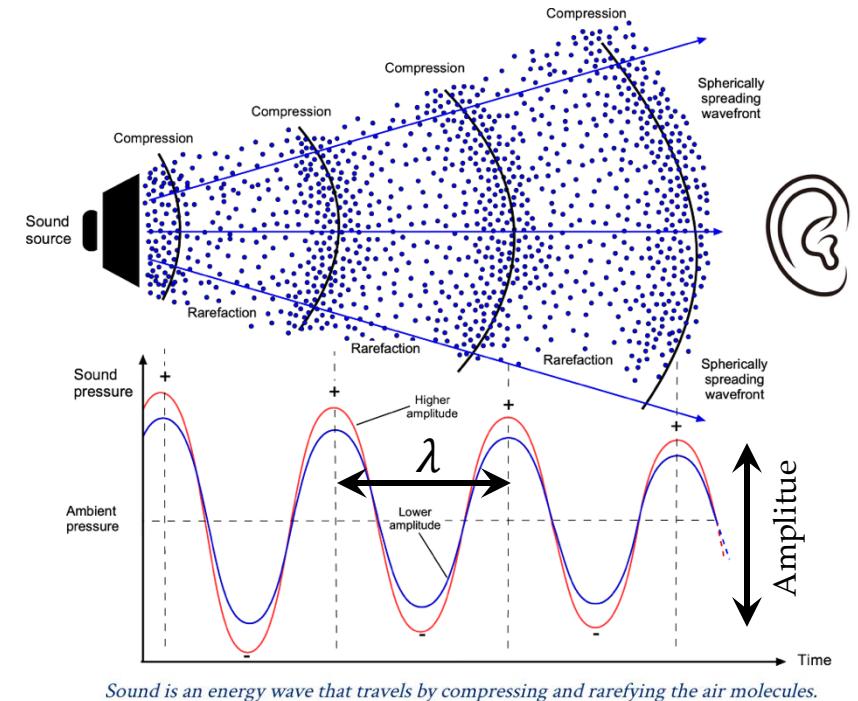
## □ Sound

- An **energy wave** that travels through the air by compressing and rarefying the molecules
- Characterized by **small time-dependent fluctuations in fluid pressure or density**
  - Hence, it is associated with the compressibility of the fluid
- **Human ear responds to pressure or compression**, so the pressure/density *fluctuations* are what is known as “sound”
- The propagation of sound in a **homogeneous** and **isotropic fluid** is quantified by physical quantities decomposable into ***average value (index 0)*** and ***fluctuating quantities (')***:

$$p(\mathbf{x}, t) = p_0 + p'(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

where:  $|p'(\mathbf{x}, t)| \ll p_0$

- $p'$  – **acoustic pressure [Pa]**
- A sound wave is propagated in **air** at  $c_0 = 340 \text{ m/s}$  (at SL) as a longitudinal wave
- **Amplitude** – intensity or “loudness” of the sound



Frequency

$$f = \frac{c_0}{\lambda}$$

For a stationary observer

Speed of sound

$$c_0 = \sqrt{\gamma RT} = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma p_0}{\rho_0}}$$

Calorically perfect gas  
For air,  $R = 287 \left[ \frac{\text{J}}{\text{kg}\cdot\text{K}} \right]$

# Speed of sound

## Brief review of thermodynamics

**1<sup>st</sup> Law:** Energy conservation ( $e$ )

Energy cannot be created or destroyed

$$de = \delta q + \delta w$$

- $+\delta q$  – heat added to system
- $+\delta w$  – work done on system
- $de$  – change in energy (dependent on initial and final states)

Some cases of interest:

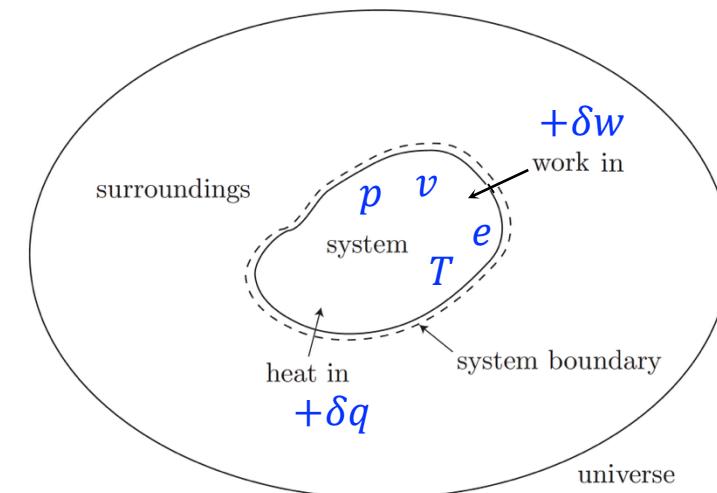
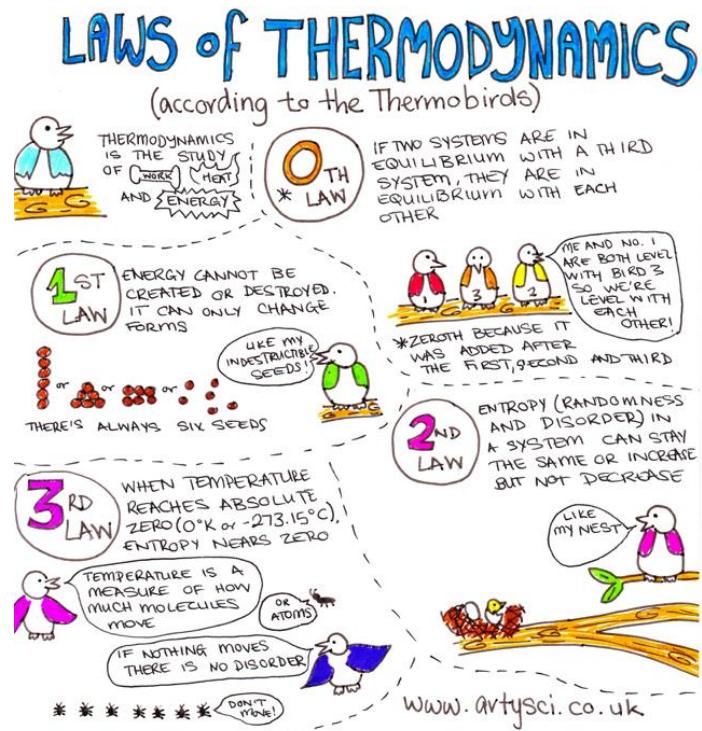
1. **Adiabatic** (no heat transfer)  $\Rightarrow \delta q = 0$
2. **Reversible** (hypothetical): no dissipative/diffusive mechanism
3. **Isentropic**: cases 1 and 2

*Example:* molecules in a particle expand by a distance  $\Delta x$  to fill a larger volume ( $V \rightarrow V + dV$ )

- Particle is very small, thus pressure is *constant* over the surface  $S$
- Total work done *by* the particle:

$$w_{1 \rightarrow 2} = \int_1^2 p \Delta x dS \Rightarrow w = -pdv$$

$v$  - specific volume,  $v = 1/\rho$   
 $dV$  - incremental change in volume



# Speed of sound

## Brief review of thermodynamics

- 1<sup>st</sup> Law: Energy conservation ( $e$ )

Energy cannot be created or destroyed

$$de = \delta q - pdv$$

- We define a state variable called the *enthalpy*:  $h = e + pv$

➤ Since  $dh = de + pdv + vdp$ , we can write the 1<sup>st</sup> law as:

$$dh = \delta q - pdv + pdv + vdp \Rightarrow dh = \delta q + \frac{dp}{\rho} v \quad v = \frac{1}{\rho}$$

- If heating takes place at either *constant volume* or *constant pressure*, then the temperature  $T$  of the system is increased

- Specific heats for const. volume and const. pressure:

$$c_v = \left( \frac{\partial q}{\partial T} \right)_V = \left( \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right)_V$$

$$c_p = \left( \frac{\partial q}{\partial T} \right)_p = \left( \frac{\partial h}{\partial T} \right)_p$$

Thermally Perfect gas  
 $e, h = f(T)$

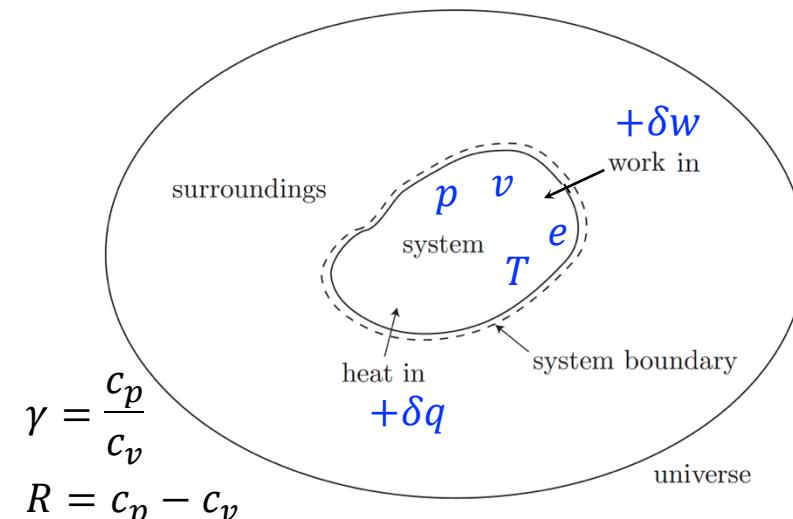
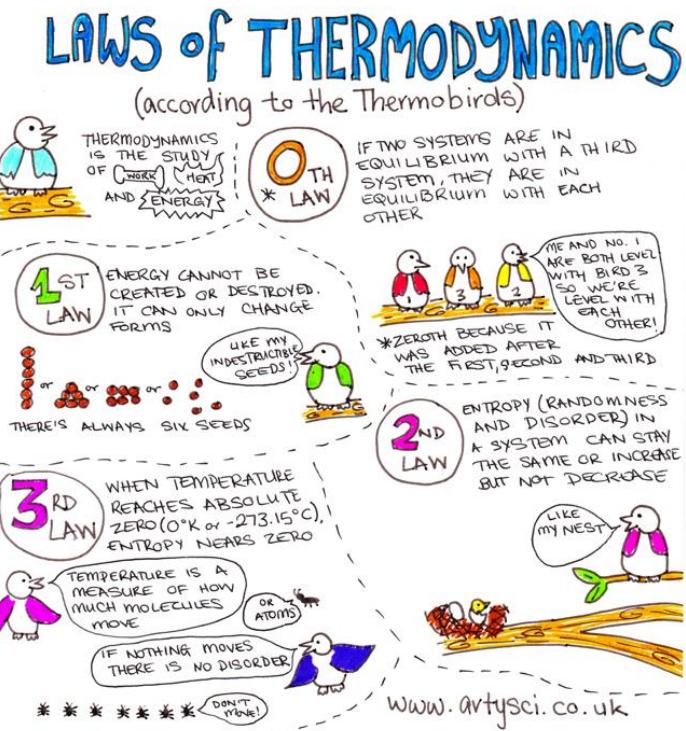
$$de = c_v dT$$

$$dh = c_p dT$$

Calorically Perfect gas  
 $c_v, c_p = \text{const.}$

$$e = c_v T$$

$$h = c_p T$$



# Speed of sound

## Brief review of thermodynamics

- 2<sup>nd</sup> Law:** **entropy** ( $s$ ) - energy unavailability to do work

$$ds \geq \frac{\delta q}{T}$$

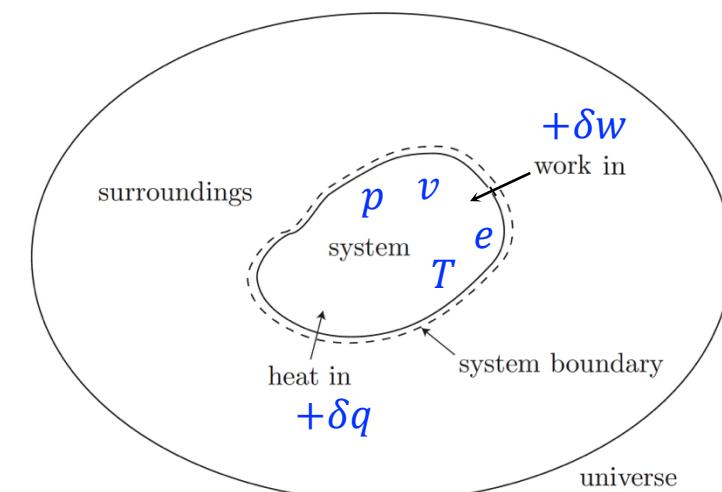
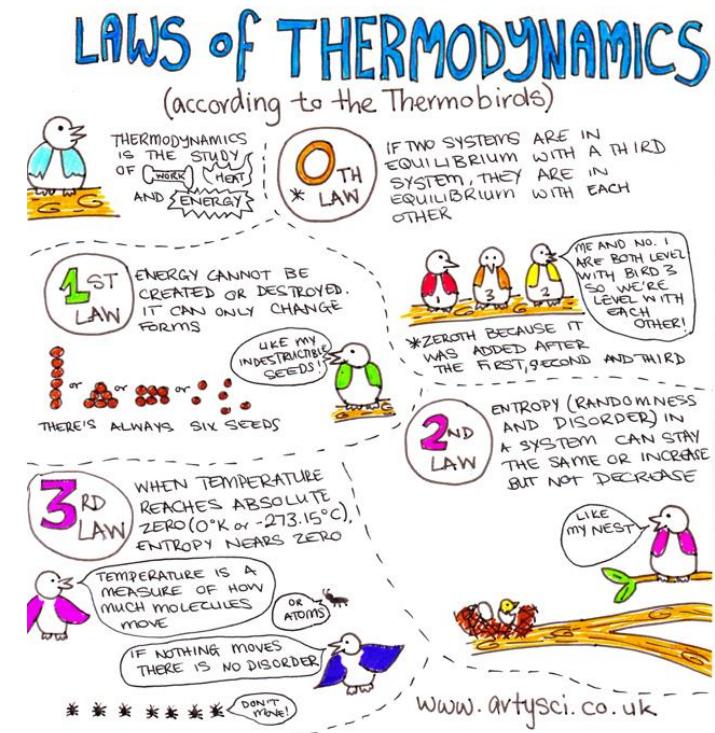
$$ds = \frac{\delta q_{\text{rev}}}{T}$$

- $\delta q_{\text{rev}}$  - Reversible heat addition
- **Adiabatic**  $\Rightarrow \delta q = 0$  ,  $ds \geq 0$
- **Isentropic** = adiabatic + reversible  $\Rightarrow \delta q = 0$  ,  $ds = 0$

- For a **reversible process** we can write:  $Tds = \delta q_{\text{rev}} = \delta q$
- Therefore, the 1<sup>st</sup> law can be expressed as:

$$de = Tds - pd(1/\rho)$$

$$dh = Tds + dp/\rho$$



# Speed of sound

## Brief review of thermodynamics

- 2<sup>nd</sup> Law:** **entropy** ( $s$ ) - energy unavailability to do work
- Reversible process:**  $de = Tds - pd(1/\rho)$        $dh = Tds + dp/\rho$
- Substituting the above equations and rearranging yields:

$$\frac{de}{dh} = \frac{Tds - pd(1/\rho)}{Tds + dp/\rho}$$

$e = c_v T$   
 $h = c_p T$   
*Calorically Perfect gas*

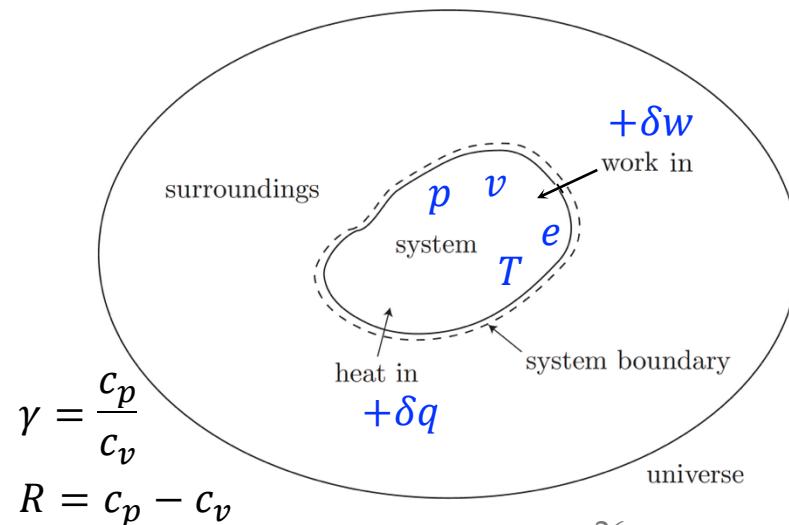
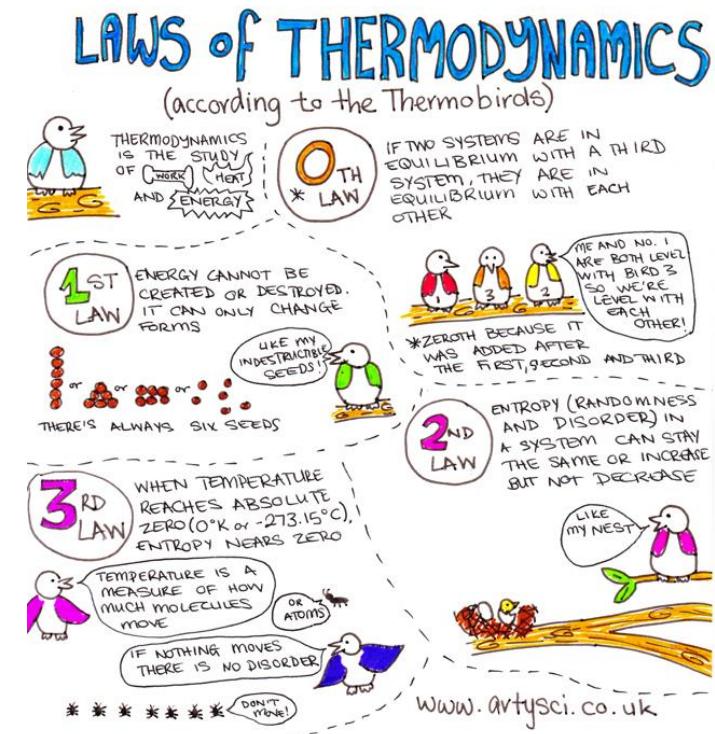
$$\frac{Tds + dp/\rho}{c_p} = \frac{Tds - pd(1/\rho)}{c_v}$$

$p/\rho = RT$   
*Perfect gas law*

$$\frac{Tds + RTdp/p}{c_p} = \frac{Tds - \rho RTd(1/\rho)}{c_v} \Rightarrow \frac{ds + Rdp/p}{c_p} = \frac{ds + Rd\rho/p}{c_v}$$

$$\Rightarrow ds + R \frac{dp}{p} = \gamma ds + \gamma R \frac{d\rho}{\rho} \Rightarrow (\gamma - 1)ds = R \frac{dp}{p} - \gamma R \frac{d\rho}{\rho}$$

$$\Rightarrow ds = c_v \frac{dp}{p} - c_p \frac{d\rho}{\rho}$$



# Speed of sound

## Brief review of thermodynamics

- 2<sup>nd</sup> Law:** **entropy** ( $s$ ) - energy unavailability to do work

$$ds = c_v \frac{dp}{p} - c_p \frac{d\rho}{\rho}$$

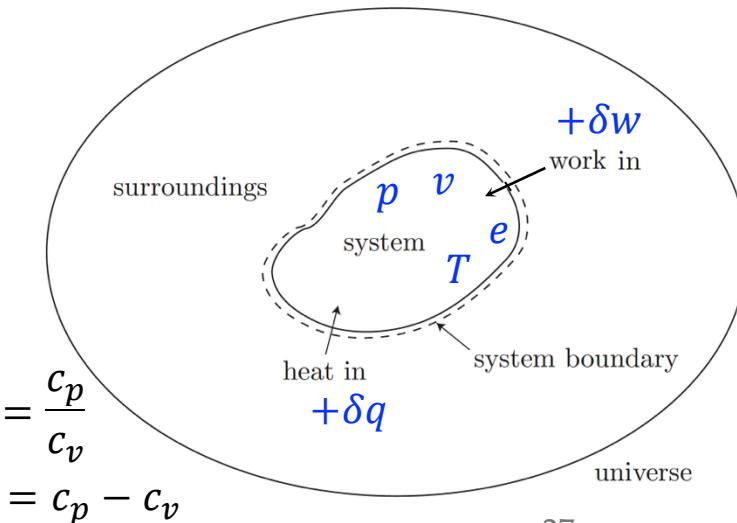
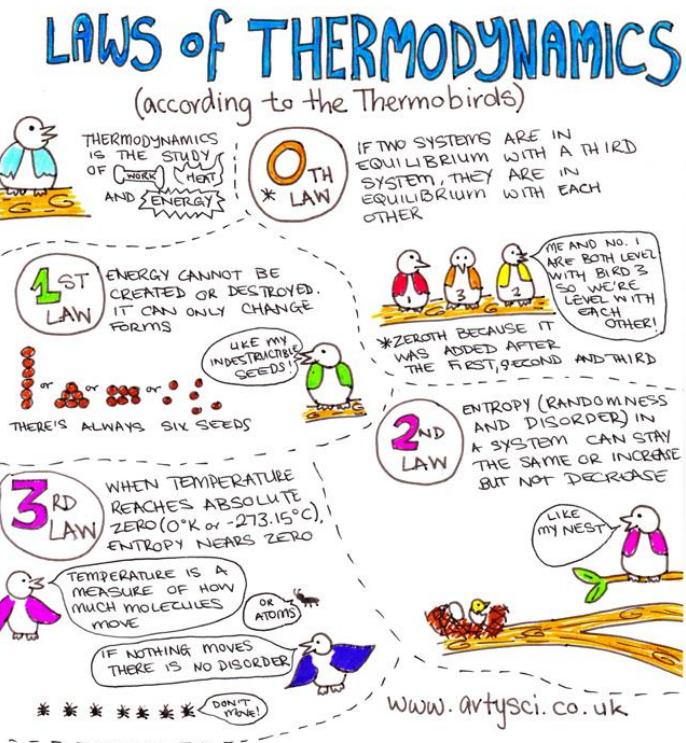
- ISENTROPIC CONDITIONS ( $ds = 0$ ):**

$$\Rightarrow c_v \frac{dp}{p} = c_p \frac{d\rho}{\rho} \Rightarrow \frac{dp}{p} = \gamma \frac{d\rho}{\rho} \Rightarrow \left( \frac{dp}{d\rho} \right)_s = \frac{\gamma p}{\rho} \quad \left( \frac{p}{\rho^\gamma} \right) = \text{const.}$$

➤ Isentropic relations:

$$\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left( \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \right)^\gamma \quad \frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left( \frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{\gamma/(\gamma-1)} \quad \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} = \left( \frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{1/(\gamma-1)}$$

- The expression above equal to the **sound speed squared**



# Speed of sound

- For sound waves:  $|p'| \ll p_0$  ,  $|\rho'| \ll \rho_0$
- Therefore, we can replace the pressure and density with their mean values to give:

$$c_0^2 = \left( \frac{dp}{d\rho} \right)_s = \frac{\gamma p_0}{\rho_0} = \gamma RT$$

**Isentropic bulk modulus**

*The speed at which sound waves propagate*

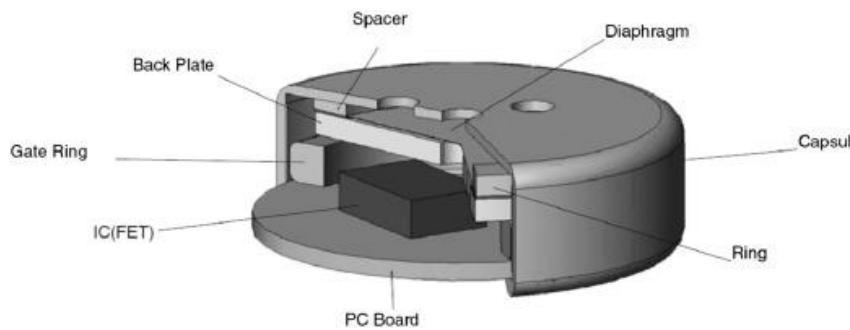
- We can also re-interpret the equation for  $ds$  as an expression that relates the acoustic perturbations in a sound wave ( $p'$  and  $\rho'$ ), for which **we assume the changes are isentropic ( $ds = 0$ )**, then:

$$ds = c_v \frac{dp}{p} - c_p \frac{d\rho}{\rho} \quad \Rightarrow \quad ds = 0 = c_v \frac{p'}{p_0} - c_p \frac{\rho'}{\rho_0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad p' = c_0^2 \rho'$$

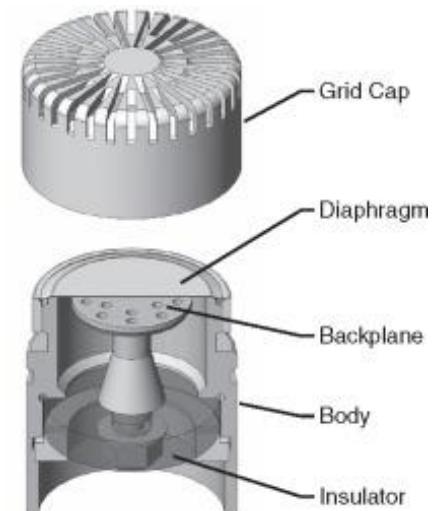
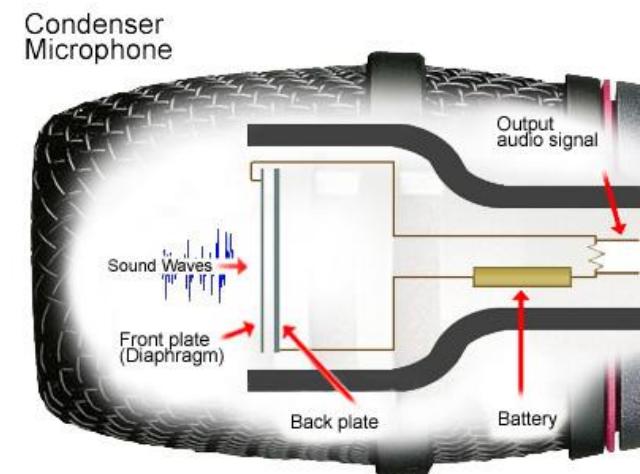
- This expression applies to fluid flows where the *entropy is the same everywhere* ( $s = \text{const.}$ ) – **homentropic conditions**

# Sound wave measurement

- **Pressure can be measured much more easily than density**
  - Microphones measure pressure fluctuations mechanically using a membrane
  - A very thin conductive membrane is displaced under the pressure fluctuations, moving toward/away from a rigid backplate
  - As the distance between the membrane and the backplate changes, the capacitance of the membrane-backplate capacitor changes as well, producing a corresponding voltage variation
  - *Sort of a fluid-structure interaction (FSI)...*



Aircraft Aeroacoustics



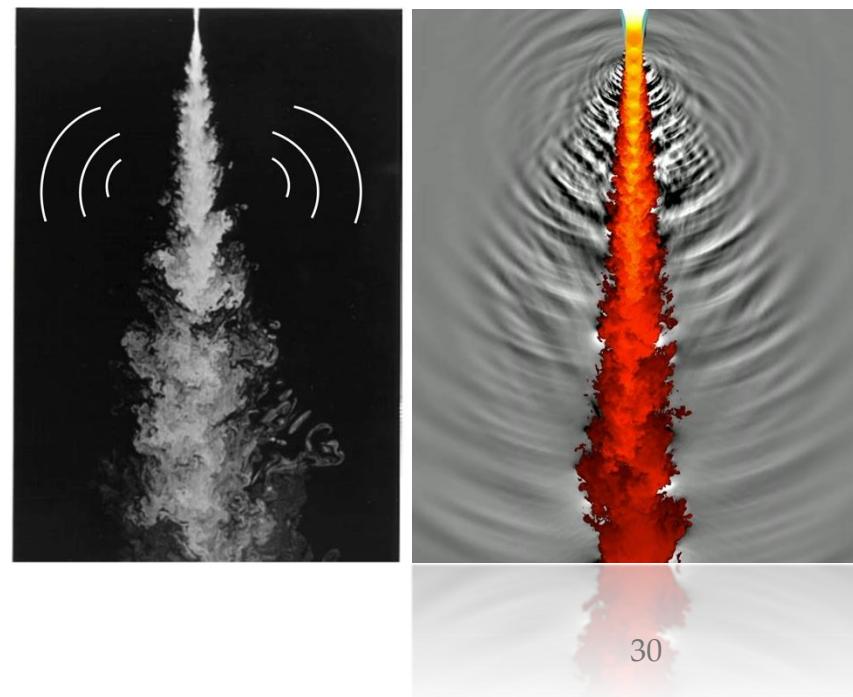
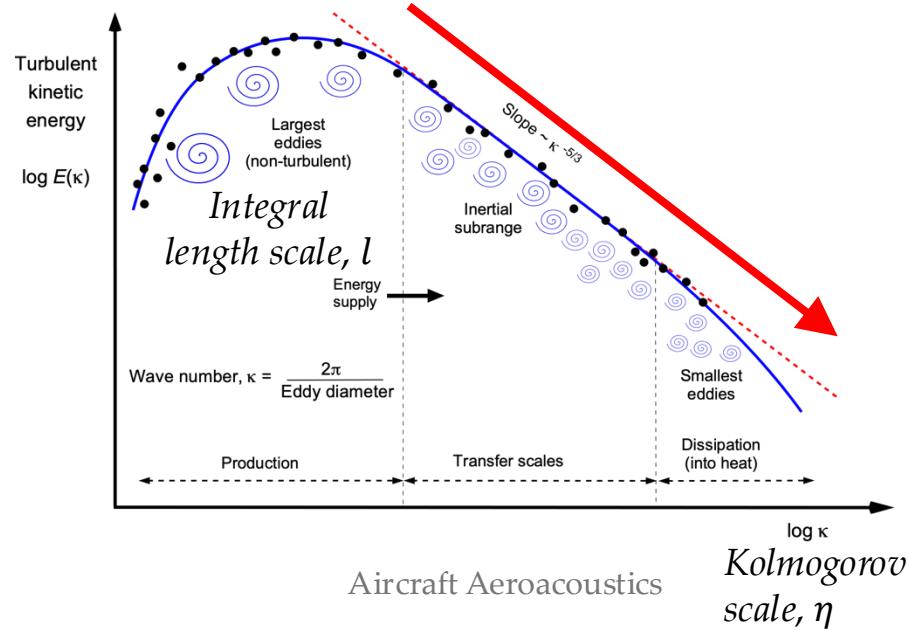
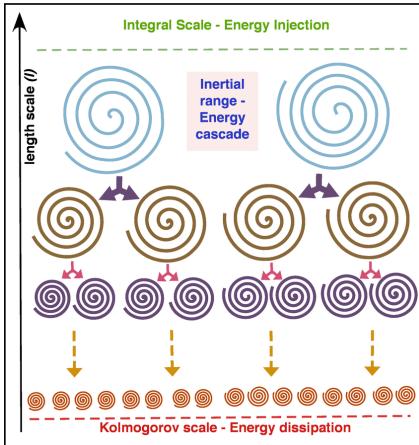
# Sound waves and turbulence

- Turbulent flows consist of velocity fluctuations ( $\mathbf{u}'$ ) caused by instabilities in viscous shear flows breaking down into random vortical motion over a wide range of sizes (called *Eddies*)
- *Rotation of fluid* generates *forces* that are balanced by *local pressure gradients* ( $\nabla p$ )
- If the inertia of the vortices is disrupted over time (e.g., vortex deformation), the associated pressure variation induces a **density variation** due to *compressibility effects*
- **Density changes propagate as sound**

$$\text{Int. length scale } l = \frac{k^{3/2}}{\varepsilon}$$

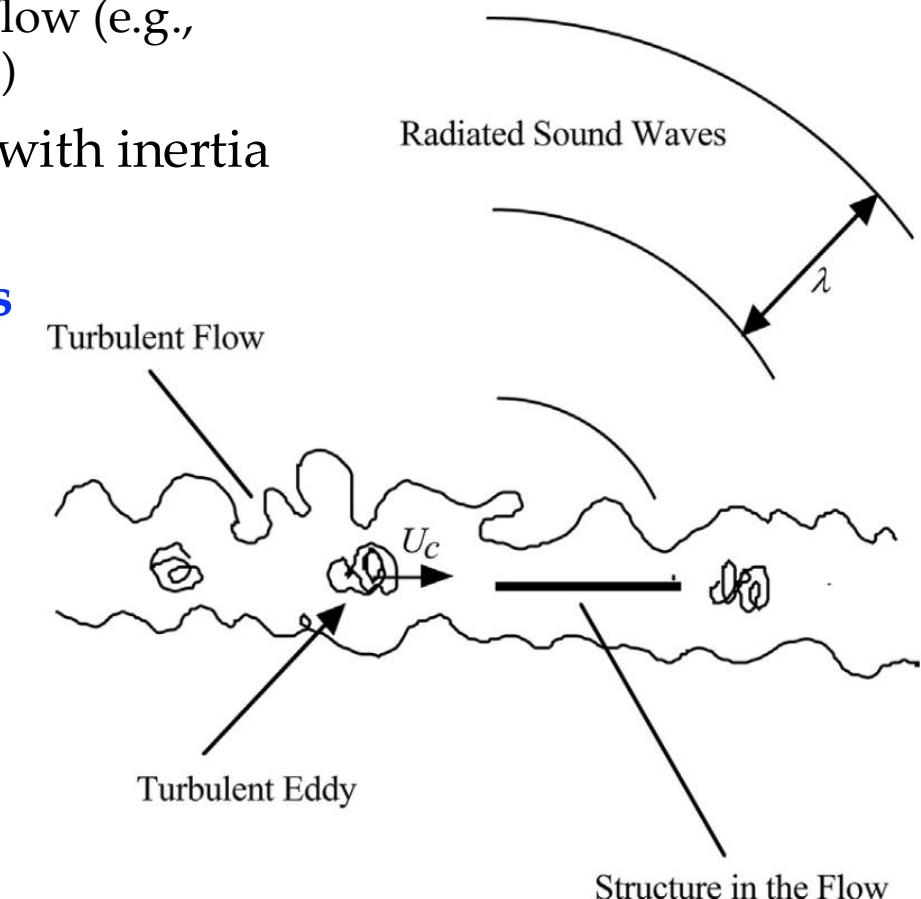
$$\eta = \left( \frac{\nu^3}{\varepsilon} \right)^{1/4}$$

*Kolmogorov scale*



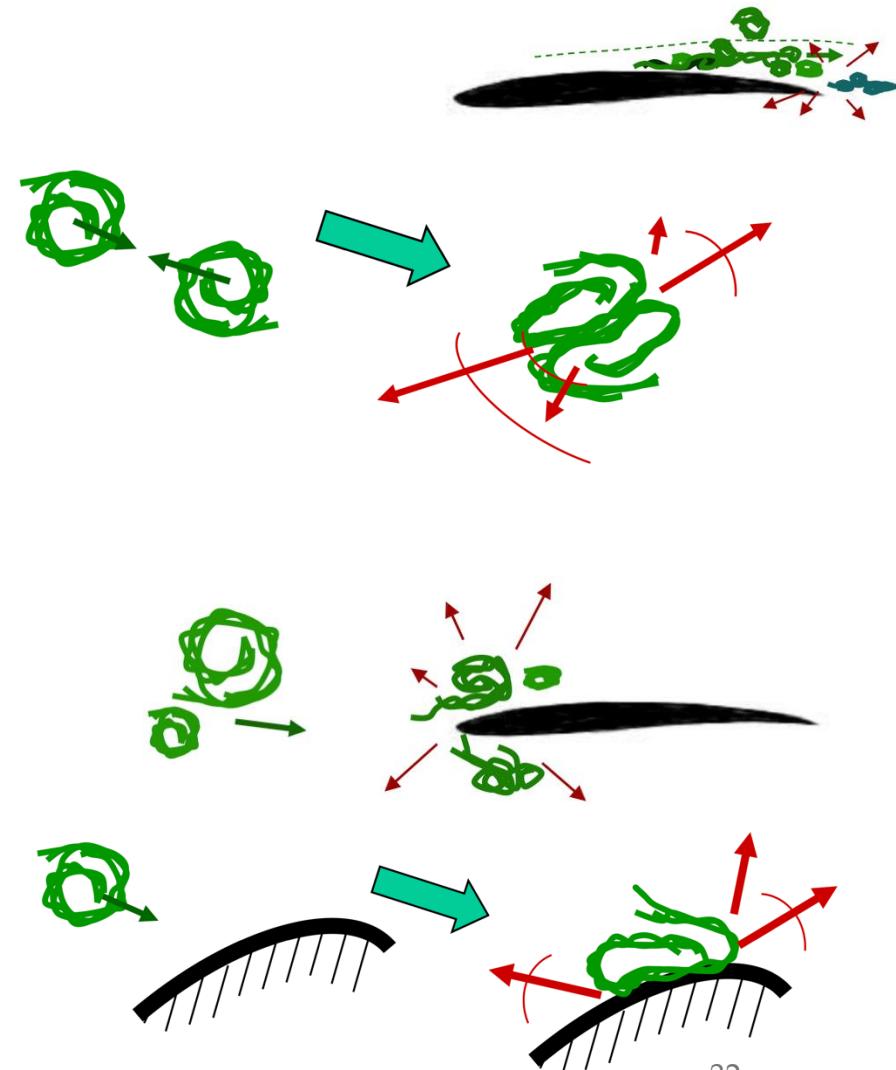
# Sound waves and turbulence

- Not all pressure fluctuations are acoustics
  - Some would exist in a purely incompressible rotational flow (e.g., hydrodynamic pressure perturbations propagating at  $U_c$ )
- A large portion of pressure fluctuations is associated with inertia
  - Only a small part is due to compressibility
- True acoustic waves form due to density fluctuations
  - Not easily extracted experimentally (as shown before)



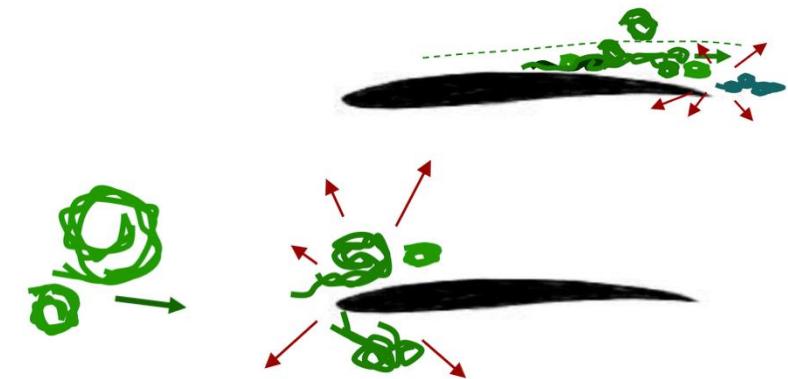
# Sound waves and turbulence

- It is an experimentally evident fact that **turbulent flow makes noise**
- **Two vortices interacting (*deformation*)**
  - Mutual **deformation** of vortices generates sound that propagates (e.g., jet noise)
  
  
  
  
  
  
- **Vortex impacting a solid surface (*compression*)**
  - Generates **rapid changes of pressure on the solid surface** that radiate as sound waves through the fluid
  - Strong noise generator (e.g., leading-edge noise)



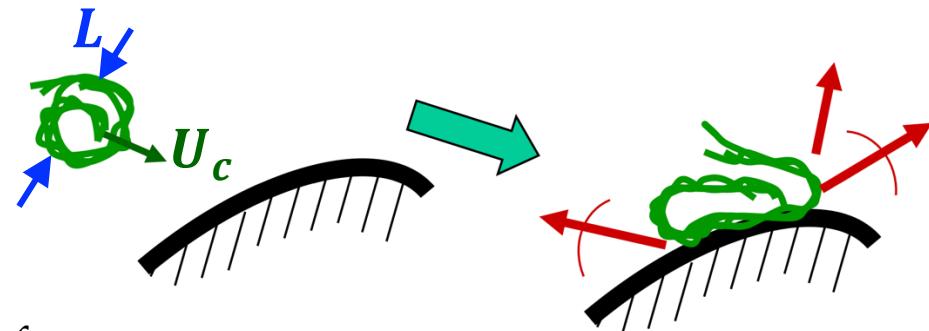
# Sound waves and turbulence

- The **effectiveness of acoustic radiation depends on the surrounding surfaces**
- **Geometric singularities** are strong sources of vortex deformation and therefore increase aerodynamic noise by **diffraction** from the nearest induced sources (edges, corners, roughness)
- **For noise reduction**
  - *Reduce flow unsteadiness*, or
  - At least *move it away from singularities in solid surfaces...*



$$\frac{d}{dt}(\nabla \times \mathbf{u}) \Rightarrow \text{noise}$$

# Sound waves and turbulence



## □ Taylor's hypothesis

- Turbulence is sometimes conceptualized as if it consisted of eddies convected at constant velocity  $U_c$  through the medium *without* evolving in the convected frame of reference
- $U_c$  – average convection velocity; typically for boundary layers,  

$$U_c = 0.6 - 0.8U_\infty$$

## □ When convected turbulence encountered a solid surface

- Rapid pressure changes form on the surface, radiating as sound waves through the fluid
- The frequency  $f$  of the pressure fluctuations can be determined by the eddy size  $L$  and its convection velocity  $U_c$
- At low Mach,  $U_c \ll c_o \Rightarrow$  Acoustic wavelength  $\lambda$  is much larger than flow length scales  $L$

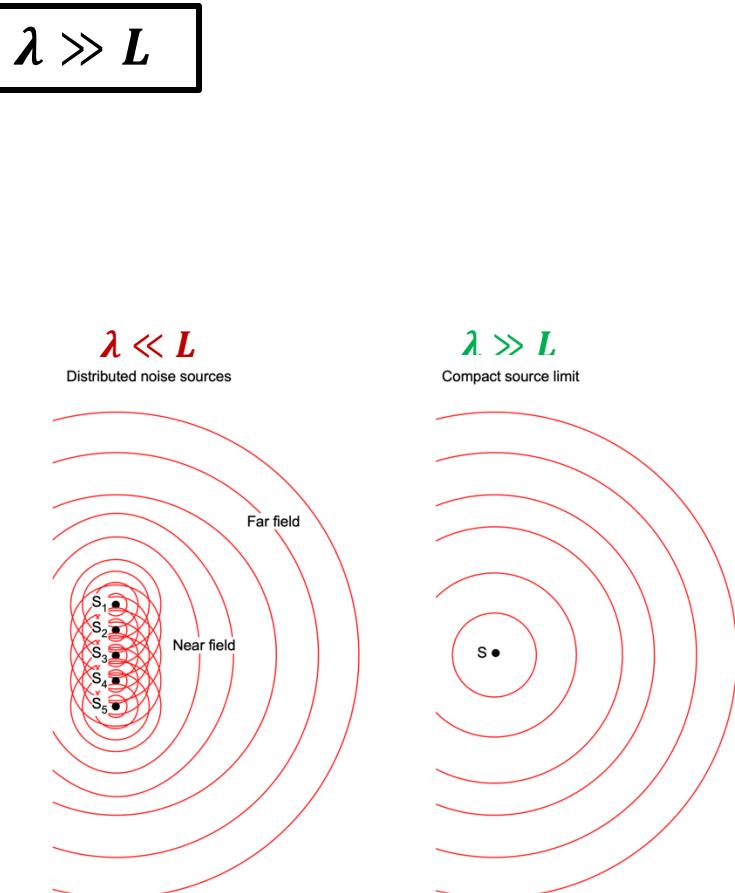
- Large disparity between **hydrodynamic scales** and **acoustic scales** makes aeroacoustics very challenging

$$f \approx \frac{U_c}{L} \Rightarrow \lambda \approx \frac{Lc_o}{U_c} \Rightarrow \lambda \gg L$$

$$f = \frac{c_o}{\lambda} \qquad \frac{c_o}{U_c} \gg 1$$

# Compactness

- *Acoustic compactness* occurs when the body size ( $L$ ) is smaller compared to the wavelength of the sound waves it generates ( $\lambda$ )  $\lambda \gg L$
- When a body is **large** compared to the wavelength of the sound waves it generates ( $L \gg \lambda$ ), *interference of wavefronts* from different parts of the body produces **complicated sound patterns**
  - Especially important in the region near the body's so-called **near field**
- When the body is **small** relative to the wavelength scale of the sound it generates ( $L \ll \lambda$ ), or the sound is at high frequency, the phase differences between different source points are minor
  - The body can then be treated as a **point source** that radiates sound waves uniformly in all directions from the source (spherical wavefronts)
- In acoustics, the relative size of the body at a given frequency is referred to as its **compactness**
  - **A compact source** radiates sound similarly to a point source
  - **Non-compact bodies** in the near field require more detailed treatment
- The **compact source limit** allows for a more *straightforward* analysis than considering the detailed geometry of the acoustic sources



# Acoustic pressure and harmonic plane wave

Acoustic wavefronts can be treated as **plane waves**

- The acoustic pressure for a **plane harmonic sound wave** moving in the positive  $x$ -direction may be represented in a *simple* form by:

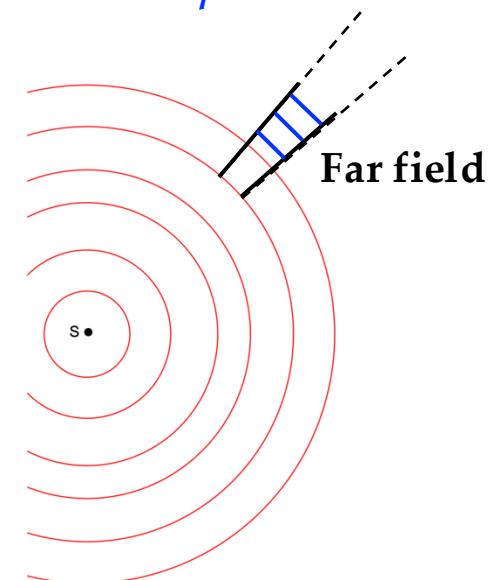
$$p'(x, t) = \hat{p}(x)\cos(2\pi f - kx)$$

Where  $\hat{p}(x)$  is the amplitude of the acoustic wave

- In *complex form*, the **harmonic solution** of the acoustic pressure of a **plane wave** is:

1D:  $p'(x, t) = \hat{p}(x)e^{i(\omega t - kx + \phi)}$

$\phi$  - phase [rad]



Angular Frequency  
[rad/sec]

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$

3D:  $p'(\mathbf{x}, t) = \hat{p}(\mathbf{x})e^{i(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} + \phi)} = \hat{p}(\mathbf{x})e^{i(\omega t - \alpha x - \beta z + \phi)}$

Time period  
[sec]

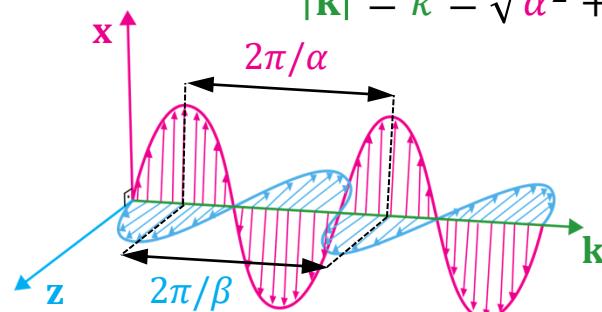
$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = \frac{1}{f}$$

Wavenumber  
[rad/m]

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{\omega}{c_0} \quad f = \frac{c_0}{\lambda}$$

$$\mathbf{k} = \alpha \hat{x} + \beta \hat{z}$$

$$|\mathbf{k}| = k = \sqrt{\alpha^2 + \beta^2}$$



# Decibel (dB) scale



- Logarithmic scale
- Sound Pressure Level (SPL)

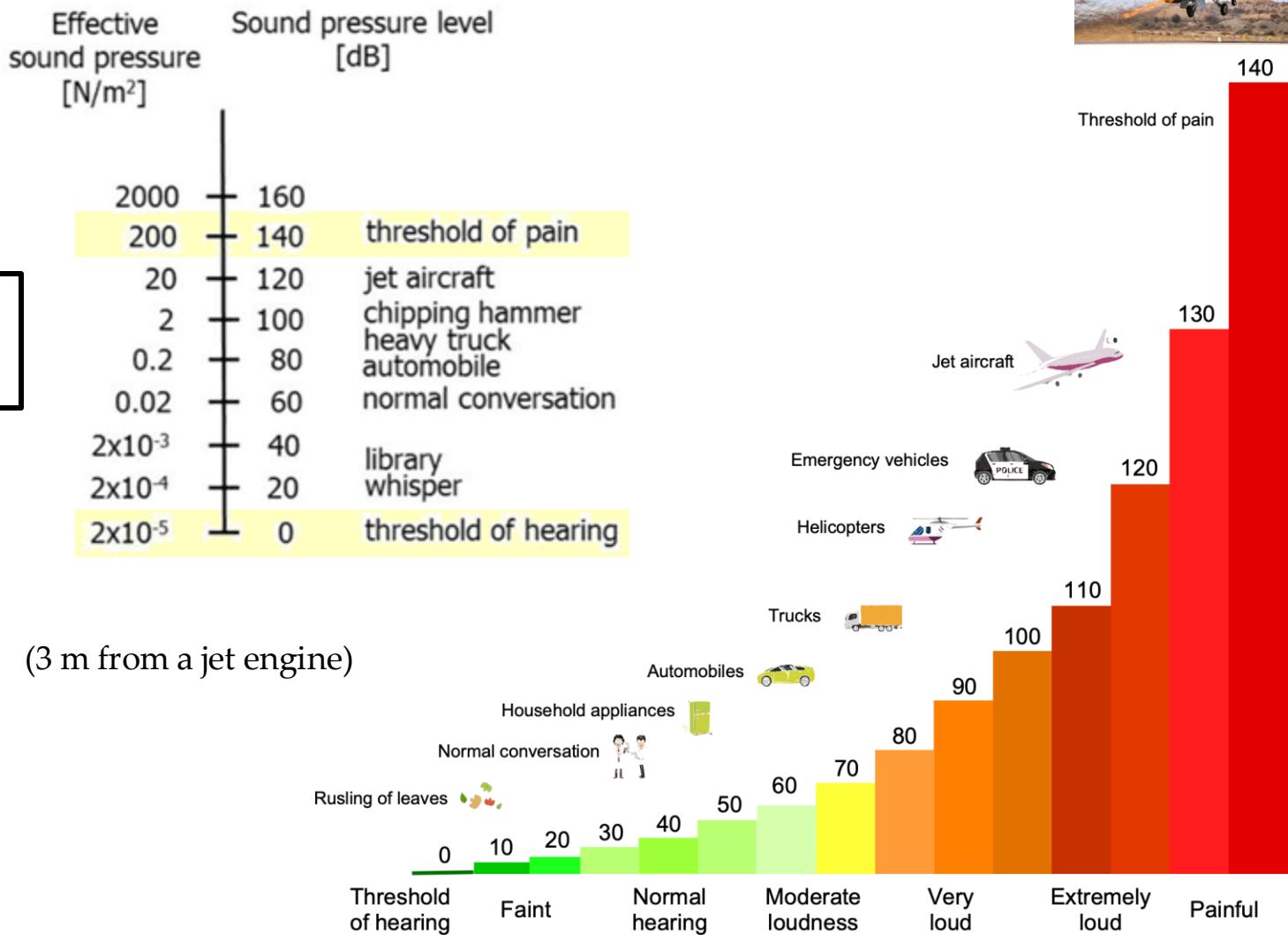
$p_{\text{rms}} \sim p'$

$$\text{SPL} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{p_{\text{rms}}^2}{p_{\text{ref}}^2} \right) \quad [\text{dB(re } p_{\text{ref}})]$$

- $p_{\text{ref}}$  – human audibility threshold
  - Air:  $p_{\text{ref}} = 20 \mu\text{Pa}$
  - Other media:  $p_{\text{ref}} = 1 \mu\text{Pa}$
- Sound pressure 1 Pa = 94 dB
- Threshold of pain is 200 Pa = 140 dB (3 m from a jet engine)

Question:  $70 \text{ dB} + 70 \text{ dB} = 140 \text{ dB}$  ?

$$70 \text{ dB} + 70 \text{ dB} = 73 \text{ dB}$$



# Decibel (dB) scale



- Logarithmic scale
- Sound Pressure Level (SPL)

$$\frac{p_{\text{rms}}}{p_{\text{ref}}} = 10^{\text{SPL}/20}$$

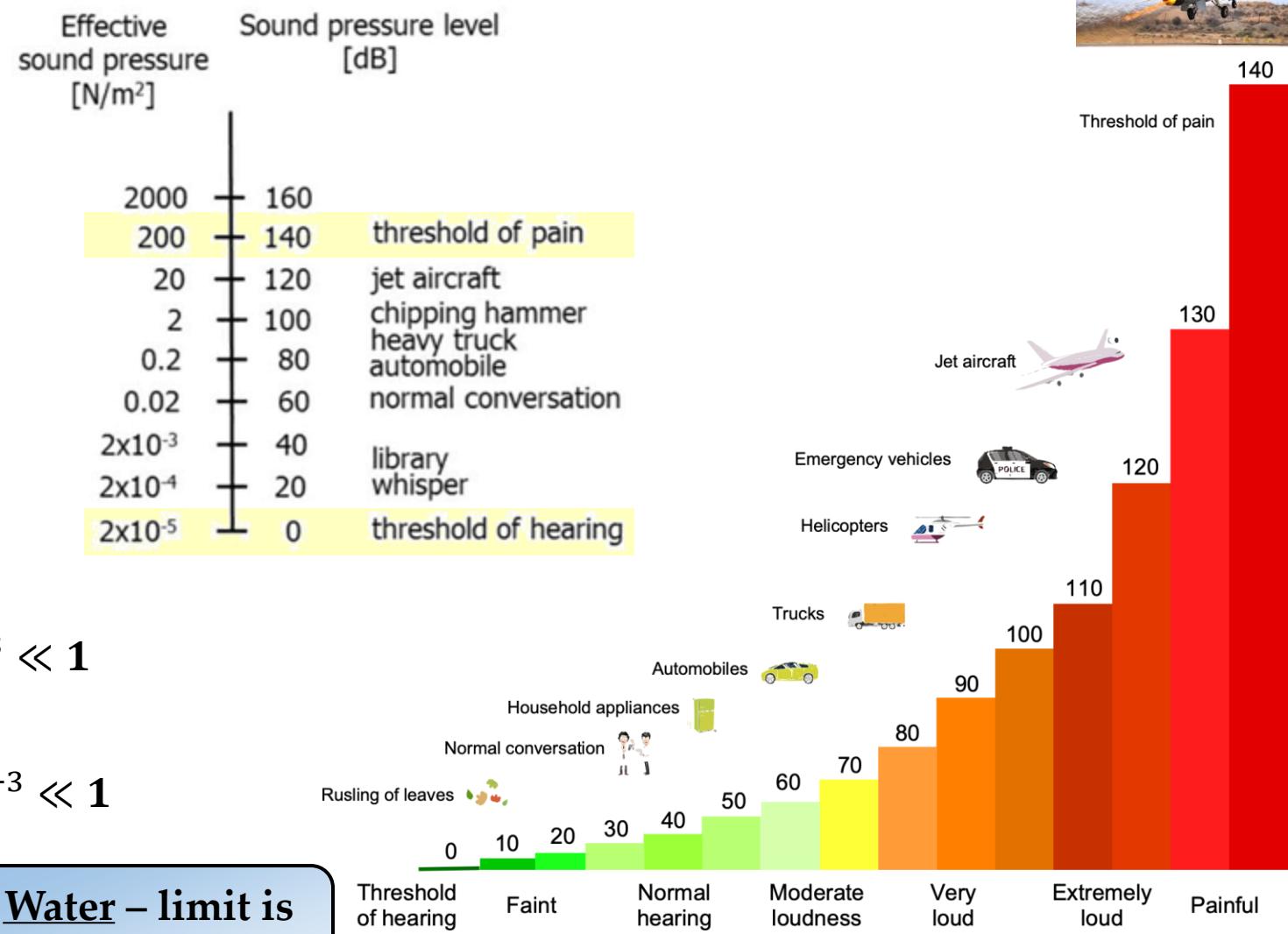
➤ For SPL = 140 dB(re 20  $\mu\text{Pa}$ ):

$$\Rightarrow \frac{p_{\text{rms}}}{p_{\text{ref}}} = 10^7 \Rightarrow \frac{p_{\text{rms}}}{p_0} = 10^7 \frac{p_{\text{ref}}}{p_0}$$

$$p_{\text{rms}} \sim p' \\ p_{\text{ref}} = 2 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ Pa} \Rightarrow \frac{p'}{p_0} = 10^7 \frac{2 \cdot 10^{-5}}{10^5} = 2 \cdot 10^{-3} \ll 1 \\ p_0 \approx 10^5 \text{ Pa}$$

$$p' = c_0^2 \rho' \\ c_0^2 = \frac{\gamma p_0}{\rho_0} \Rightarrow \frac{p'}{\rho_0} = 10^7 \frac{2 \cdot 10^{-5}}{10^5} = 1.4 \cdot 10^{-3} \ll 1$$

Linear acoustics in air is valid for small perturbations up to 140 dB(20  $\mu\text{Pa}$ )



Water – limit is  
220 dB(1  $\mu\text{Pa}$ )

The intensity of sound and noise is quantified using the decibel (dB) scale.

# Pressure rms

- Given  $p(t)$  as the *instantaneous pressure signal* at a point in the fluid, where  $p_0$  being the *background pressure*, and  $p'(t)$  is the *time-varying pressure perturbation*, we can compute the pressure rms (root-mean-square), as follows:

$$p_{\text{rms}}^2 = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T [p(t) - p_0]^2 dt = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T [p'(t)]^2 dt = \overline{[p'(t)]^2}$$

$$p'(t) = p(t) - p_0$$

- Where  $T$  is the sample time period (**must include many cycles**)

For a simple harmonic wave:

$$p_{\text{rms}} = \frac{p_{\text{max}}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$p_{\text{max}}$  is the amplitude of the sound wave

# Sound and pseudo-sound

## □ Where should you place microphones?

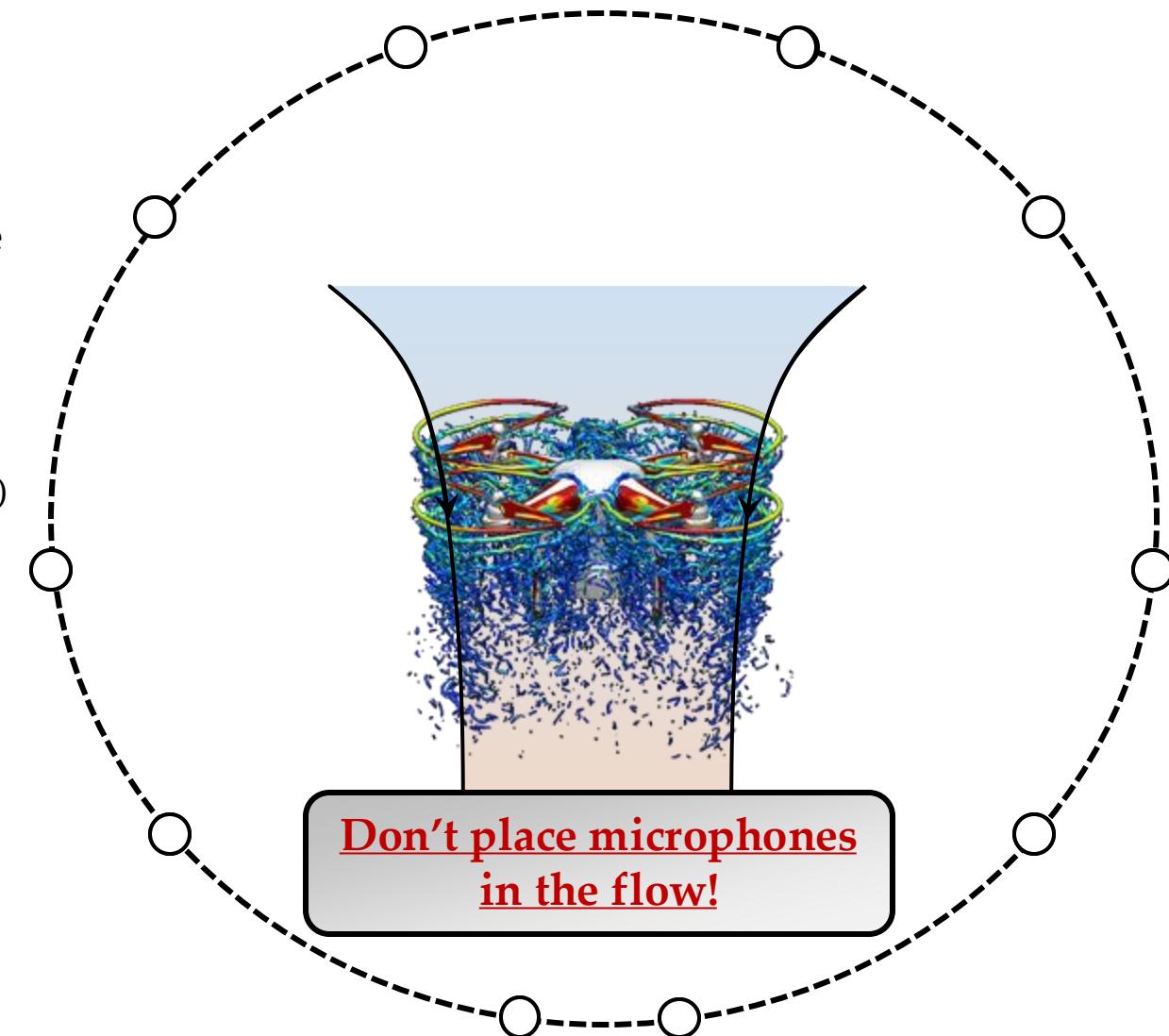
- Turbulent flow has velocity fluctuations that are associated with **hydrodynamic pressure fluctuations**

**Hydrodynamic pressure fluctuations** >> **Acoustic pressure fluctuations**

- Typical velocity fluctuations in turbulent flow -  $O(10^{-1}U_\infty)$
- Typical hydrodynamic pressure fluctuations -  $O(10^{-2}p_\infty)$

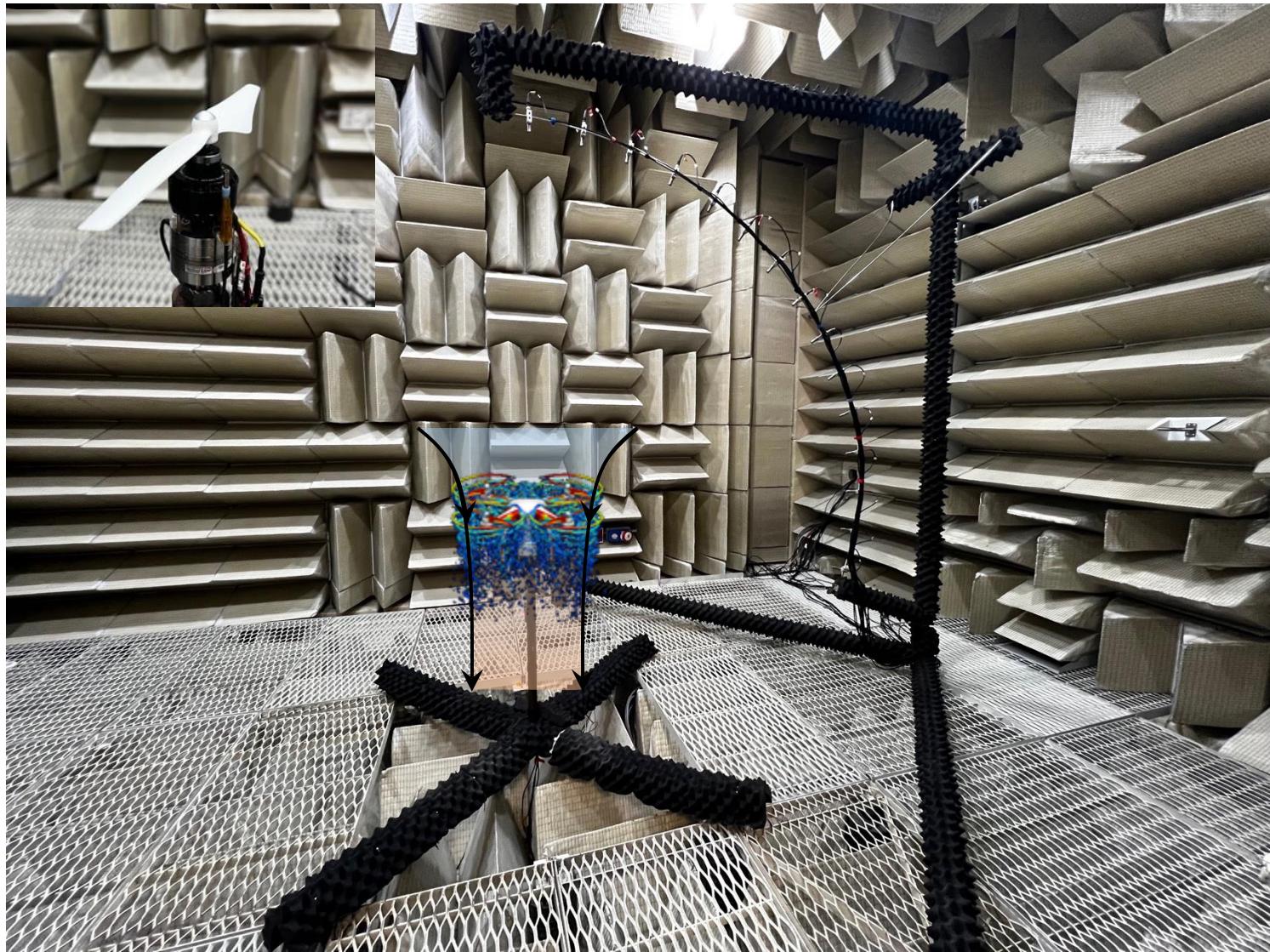
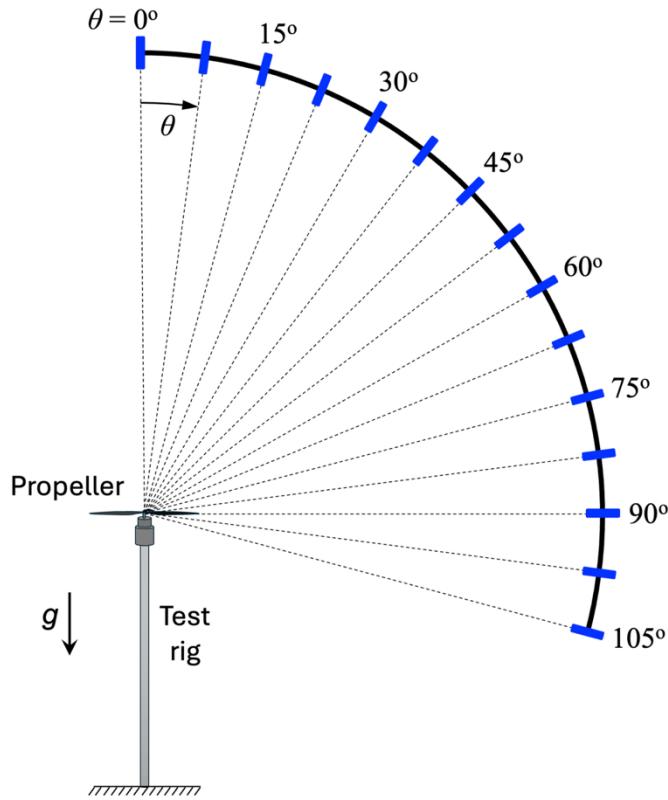
● Microphones measure **sound pressure: sound** (~80 dB)

● Microphones measure **sound & hydrodynamic (total) pressure: pseudo-sound** (~150 dB)



# Sound and pseudo-sound

- For example...



# Sound and pseudo-sound

$$p_{\text{rms}}^2 = \overline{[p'(t)]^2}$$

