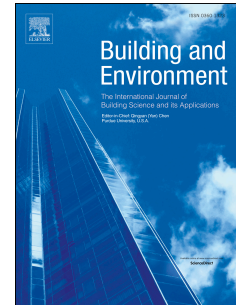


Journal Pre-proof

Acoustic modeling of sequential spaces: A parametric study

Tingting Yang, Jian Kang



PII: S0360-1323(21)01122-7

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2021.108733>

Reference: BAE 108733

To appear in: *Building and Environment*

Received Date: 13 September 2021

Revised Date: 20 December 2021

Accepted Date: 25 December 2021

Please cite this article as: Yang T, Kang J, Acoustic modeling of sequential spaces: A parametric study, *Building and Environment* (2022), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2021.108733>.

This is a PDF file of an article that has undergone enhancements after acceptance, such as the addition of a cover page and metadata, and formatting for readability, but it is not yet the definitive version of record. This version will undergo additional copyediting, typesetting and review before it is published in its final form, but we are providing this version to give early visibility of the article. Please note that, during the production process, errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

© 2021 Published by Elsevier Ltd.

Acoustic modeling of sequential spaces: a parametric study

Tingting YANG^a, Jian KANG^{a, *}

^a*Institute for Environmental Design and Engineering, The Bartlett, University College London,
Central House, 14 Upper Woburn Place, London WC1H 0NN, United Kingdom.*

**Corresponding author*

Abstract

Sound field modelling of sequential spaces is required for large-scale public buildings. A FEM model comprising five successive rooms was used for a parametric study considering, i.e., contextual (opening dimension and position, number of rooms), acoustical (absorption coefficient and position) and source (directional radiation of opening and additional source) factors. The results reveal that (i) In rooms with high absorption, the average SPL of the rooms is higher, and the level difference between rooms is smaller with a larger opening dimension. Opening position only has impact for rooms with low absorption. (ii) The level differences between rooms are larger for oblique radiation compared to horizontal radiation, especially for rooms close to source. With an additional source (e.g., HVAC system and human speech) in a room, the level in this room is kept or reduced by approximately 10 dB with increasing opening dimension for rooms with high or low absorption, whereas the levels in other rooms increase for rooms with high absorption. (iii) The changes achieved by absorption are more significant with low absorption. The difference in the SPL between uniform and non-uniform absorption distribution with a given absorption amount is greater with a smaller opening dimension. (iv) The effects on the SPL in the first receiving room, caused by adding more sequential rooms, is less when the absorption in those rooms is high (e.g., with an absorption coefficient of 0.5), and the difference between different absorption coefficients is about 6 dB maximum, depending on the number of rooms.

Keywords

acoustic simulation; sound field modelling; parametric study; finite element method; sequential spaces; coupled rooms

* j.kang@ucl.ac.uk

32 1. Introduction

33 Sound field modeling in sequential spaces (i.e., spatial systems consisting of multiple
34 spaces connected by an opening in between) is necessary for noise control and
35 acoustical design. Large-scale public buildings (e.g., museum/exhibition spaces,
36 shopping malls, and transportation hubs) adopt such spatial forms to provide continuous
37 functional space and facilitate movement of individuals/visitors. The research in this
38 area is relatively rare because the acoustics of non-performing spaces are not considered
39 important and the development of tools in real and virtual acoustics is limited. Although
40 current research in this area has been conducted using objective [[1]–[4]] and subjective
41 [[5]–[7]] approaches, these acoustic programs [8] were reported in the absence of
42 further details concerning spatial and source information in the context of sound
43 attenuation across the spaces. Therefore, the fundamental strategies that should be used
44 to achieve target performance of the sound field, especially in the design phase, remain
45 unknown to professionals.

46 Various room acoustics studies of coupled spaces have been conducted to explore
47 how to use contextual and acoustical factors to adjust the degrees of coupling effects
48 under different assumptions and constraints. Regarding the contextual factors (e.g.,
49 opening dimension and position), Harris and Feshbach studied how the dimension and
50 position of the opening between two coupled rooms affected the frequency, using the
51 wave approach [9]. Meissner investigated the effects of mode degeneration and
52 localization in coupled rooms by assuming low absorption, which led to weakly coupled
53 modes [10]. Based on the field eigenfunction representation, Poblet Puig and
54 Rodríguez-Ferran analyzed the sound transmission through the openings between
55 cuboid-shaped rooms and proposed that the opening position and room dimensions are
56 crucial to the coupling effects between the rooms [11]. For the acoustical factors (e.g.,
57 absorption coefficient and position), Fitzroy presented an empirical expression
58 considering non-uniform absorption in the three orthogonal directions of rectangular
59 rooms with several measurements [12]. By modeling a rectangular room with one
60 absorption wall, Maa showed that absorption depends not only on the absorptive
61 material, but also on its position and on the room shape [13]. McMullan [14] noted out
62 that the absorption provided by absorption materials significantly affected on the sound
63 quality (acoustics) within a room but had little effect on the amount of sound passing
64 in or out of a room (sound insulation). These studies, although limited to spaces of two

65 coupled rooms, demonstrated the potential of parametrization of both contextual and
66 acoustical factors to modify the sound field. However, the efficiency of such techniques
67 in controlling the sound passing across several rooms remains to be determined.

68 For effective prediction in coupled rooms studies, techniques such as finite element
69 method (FEM), geometrical acoustics, and the diffusion equation have gradually
70 become more acceptable and accurate in computational simulation. An energy-based
71 modeling approach was investigated by Shi et al. [15], where coupling was achieved
72 by the continuity of the exchanged power between the rooms and then validated by
73 comparison with the results of the FEM. Geometrical acoustics-based simulations have
74 also been validated [16]. Jing and Xiang produced a visualization of the sound pressure
75 distribution and sound energy flow across the coupling aperture of two rooms using
76 diffusion modeling [18]; Billon et al. developed a numerical diffusion model to predict
77 the spatial variations of the sound pressure level (SPL) [19]. Various numerical methods
78 [[20]-[23]] and analytical models [[24]-[28]] are utilized to determine the acoustic
79 quantities of interest of the opening. FEM is a routinely used tool for most acoustic
80 studies [21]. The ray and beam tracing methods can be applied to spaces with arbitrary
81 shapes, which are empty or furnished. The sound field is supposed to be comprised of
82 noninteracting sound rays reflected by surfaces with surface dimensions much larger
83 than the sound wavelength. However, the accuracy of these methods for large source-
84 receiver distances or complex boundary conditions has been proven to be insufficient
85 [[29], [30]].

86 In building engineering, to control the radiated noise level, plane waves can be used
87 to simulate sounds in the far field, e.g., outdoor noise incident across the window at the
88 façade of the building as surface transportation noise (e.g., busy highway) is usually
89 modelled as an incoherent line source [31]. This is akin to the indoor noise coming from
90 other rooms far from the investigated space (e.g., a crowd). As the acoustic opening
91 attenuates the noise coming from different dominant incidence angles (e.g., traffic noise
92 on the upper floors of high-rise buildings or crowd noise from a source room with
93 oblique boundaries), the performance could be investigated with different noise source
94 incidence angles of the plane wave. For instance, an incidence angle of 60° corresponds
95 to an approximate position on the 20th floor of a building from a road, at surface level,
96 50 m away from the building [32]. In addition, there are additional noise sources (e.g.,
97 HVAC systems and human speech) in large-scale public spaces (e.g., museums), which

98 are frequently simplified as omnidirectional or directional point sources in predictions,
99 whose effects at a particular location or area must be considered.

100 Consequently, parametric research is based on case studies. Compared with other
101 well-established room acoustics programs, FEM could better consider the effects of
102 diffraction, which is essential in sequential spaces. The results could be used as
103 reference information in practical applications, especially during the design phase of
104 sequential spaces, by providing relevant case studies. In-situ measurements were
105 conducted in selected exhibition spaces to confirm the accuracy of the predictions by
106 validating the results of FEM. The aim of this research was to explore the prediction
107 efficiencies of both contextual and acoustical factors on performance of sound
108 attenuation through the rectangular openings in sequential spaces using parametric
109 studies, i.e., opening dimension and position, absorption coefficient and position. In
110 addition, the effects of source factors were investigated with directional radiation of the
111 opening and additional source. Lastly, the influence of increasing the number of rooms
112 to enlarge entire space scale was analysed.

113

114 **2. Methods**

115 **2.1. Simulation configuration**

116 The simulations were conducted with the FEM software COMSOL Multiphysics. The
117 density of the mesh was set to provide a minimum of six elements per wavelength at 4
118 kHz for all frequencies tested (≤ 4 kHz) to ensure consistency as well as accuracy.
119 Perfectly matched layer (PML) [22] absorbing boundary conditions were adopted to
120 compute the acoustic resonances in 3D open cavities with other general boundaries.
121 The air aperture of 3D open cavity could be theoretically considered as an equivalent
122 structural component with a small thickness, neglecting the physical properties of the
123 opening [26]. However, the 3D model would need more than 120 million elements,
124 making it highly time consuming to provide the required physical insight and practical
125 guidelines. The 2D model runs reasonably well for various geometrical conditions and
126 covers a higher range of frequencies with a feasible modeling efficiency.

127 Figure 1 illustrates the 2D model as a cross-section containing five rectangular
128 rooms with initial dimensions of width $w_{sp} = 5.0$ m and length $l = 8.0$ m separated by
129 solid walls with rigid boundary conditions and connected by openings of width $w_{op} =$
130 2.0 m. The ratio of the width of these openings to the width of the entire separating

131 partition is $d_{op} = 40\%$, and the openings are located in the middle of each separating
 132 partition. The openings on the end walls on the left and right sides are enclosed with
 133 PMLs to emulate a free-field condition. The thicknesses of all separating partitions are
 134 set to 0.2 m, because this value is close to that normally used in practice. The noise
 135 incidence at the opening of the separating partition is assumed to be plane waves with
 136 an initial incidence angle of $\theta = 0^\circ$, indicating the far-field source information (e.g., the
 137 noise impinging on the opening is at the same level of the investigated spaces).

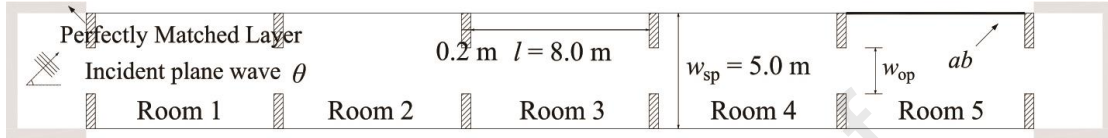


Fig. 1. (Color online) 2D FEM computational model (in m).

138 2.2. Simulation parameters

139 As discussed in Section 1, the performance across the spaces was investigated based on
 140 three aspects considering, i.e., contextual (opening dimension and position, number of
 141 rooms), acoustical (absorption coefficient and position) and source (directional
 142 radiation of the opening and additional source) factors.

143 For the contextual factors, one of the parametrizations is the opening/partition area
 144 ratio d_{op} , which is defined as follows:

$$d_{op} = w_{op}/w_{sp} \quad (1)$$

145 where w_{op} is the width of the opening and w_{sp} is the width of the separating partition.
 146 This value ranges from 0% to 100% to meet all possible conditions, ranging from a
 147 small opening to an opening spanning the entire width of the separating partition. d_{op}
 148 value of 20% and 40% indicate small and large openings, respectively. Another
 149 parametrization is the opening/partition position ratio p_{op} , which is defined as follows:

$$p_{op} = (1 - d_{op})/2 \quad (2)$$

150 This value ranges from 0% to $(1 - d_{op})/2$. The value of 0% indicates that the opening is
 151 in the middle of the separating partition, and the maximum $(1 - d_{op})/2$ means that the
 152 opening is on one side of the separating partition attached to the side wall along the
 153 length of the rooms. In the case of the number of rooms across the spaces, it is
 154 parameterized with N . The range of N investigated in this study is 1–10.

155 For the acoustical factors, one parametrization is the absorption coefficient ab
 156 applied uniformly to the boundaries of each room, which ranges from 0 to 1.0. The
 157 values of 0.01 and 0.5 are defined as low and high room absorption, respectively.

158 Another parametrization is termed as “absorption position” in this research, for which
 159 the absorption distribution on the boundary is presented either uniformly or non-
 160 uniformly (along the sound attenuation).

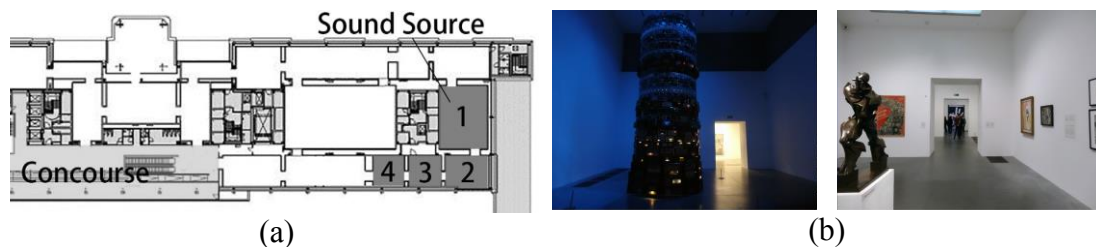
161 For the source factors, one parametrization is the directional radiation of the
 162 opening, i.e., the incidence angle θ of the transparent boundary. Oblique noise
 163 incidences cases are analogous to noise impinging on the openings at different floors
 164 of the building, e.g., an incidence angle of 60° corresponds to an approximate position
 165 on the second floor of the building when a walkway is on the first floor, 5.0 m away
 166 from the wall of an atrium. Two values of the incidence angle θ , 0° and 60° , were
 167 investigated in this study. Another parametrization is termed as “directional radiation
 168 of additional source,” where an omnidirectional and directional point source is placed
 169 in the corner of Room 1.

170

171 2.3. Validation of the simulation

172 2.3.1. In-situ measurement

173 The simulation results were validated by comparing them to the in-situ measurements
 174 from selected rooms in the Tate Modern, London, United Kingdom, which was also the
 175 case site of the preliminary study [33]. As shown in Figure 2, the site features a large-
 176 scale cylindrical artistic sound installation “Babel, 2001”, which emits a mixture of
 177 music and voices as the primary source. A large auditorium-like space is the source
 178 room (Room 1), which is connected to three normal exhibition spaces exhibiting
 179 modern art drawings hung on flat walls without fine decorations, acting as the receiving
 180 rooms (Rooms 2, 3, and 4). The dimensions of the investigated spaces are as follows:
 181 the height of Room 1 is approximately twice that of the successive rooms, which is
 182 approximately 4.7 m; the widths and lengths of Rooms 3 and 4 are approximately 6.3
 183 m; and the length of Room 2 is slightly larger than that of Rooms 3 and 4.



184 **Fig. 2.** (Color online) Configurations of the case site in the Tate Modern. (a) floor plan:
 185 sound source and location of each room and (b) site photo of the source room (left) and
 186 receiving rooms (right).

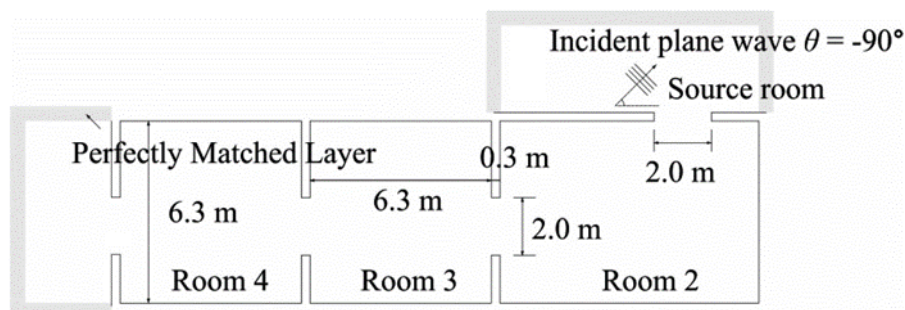
187

188 To obtain the sound attenuation across the openings in each investigated room, a
 189 sound level meter (NTi XL2) was set in the center of each room at the height of 1.65 m
 190 above the ground under the unoccupied condition of the museum (visitors were not
 191 present). These measured results were also verified with HEAD acoustics SQobold.
 192 The measurements were taken three times on different days, and the values in each
 193 room were averaged.

194

195 2.3.2. Simulation method

196 The 2D FEM computational model was built according to the actual spatial dimensions,
 197 as illustrated in Figure 3b. The boundary conditions for a given space were specified
 198 considering its relation to the subsequent spaces, otherwise the sound energy would be
 199 much larger if it is considered as an enclosed space because of the reflections. Moreover,
 200 because the height of Room 1 is not comparable to those of Rooms 2, 3, and 4, the
 201 boundary conditions of Rooms 2, 3, and 4 were set, and the area representing the source
 202 room with “Babel, 2001” and the other spaces of the museum, which are not detailed
 203 at this stage as they were not under investigation, were bounded with PMLs. To
 204 simulate the reflected sound in the source room (Room 1) attenuating across the
 205 opening between the source room and adjacent receiving room (Room 2), noise
 206 incidence at the separating partition was assumed to be a plane wave with $\theta = -90^\circ$.
 207 The opening was located, slightly toward the side wall rather than in the middle of the
 208 separating partition in the initial plan. The value of ab was initially set to 0.02 to match
 209 the low room absorption due to the indoor environment, which was composed of
 210 smooth, painted concrete and glass.



211 **Fig. 3.** (Color online) 2D FEM validation model (in m).

212

213 2.3.3. Comparison between measurement and simulation

214 Figure 4 shows the normalized results of the average SPL of each room obtained by the
 215 in-situ measurement and computational simulation. The two sets of results consistently
 216 match across a range of frequencies. Therefore, it can be concluded that the attenuation
 217 of sound caused by the primary source or background sound in practice across the
 218 rectangular openings could be simulated. To examine the sensitivity of room absorption,
 219 two conditional values of ab (0.01 and 0.03) were tested. It was determined that the
 220 attenuation of the sound level of each room was almost the same for the two
 221 investigated values of ab , with the difference limited to 3.0 dB. In particular, the results
 222 corresponding to $ab = 0.01$ and 0.02 are closer to the real condition than those
 223 corresponding to $ab = 0.03$.

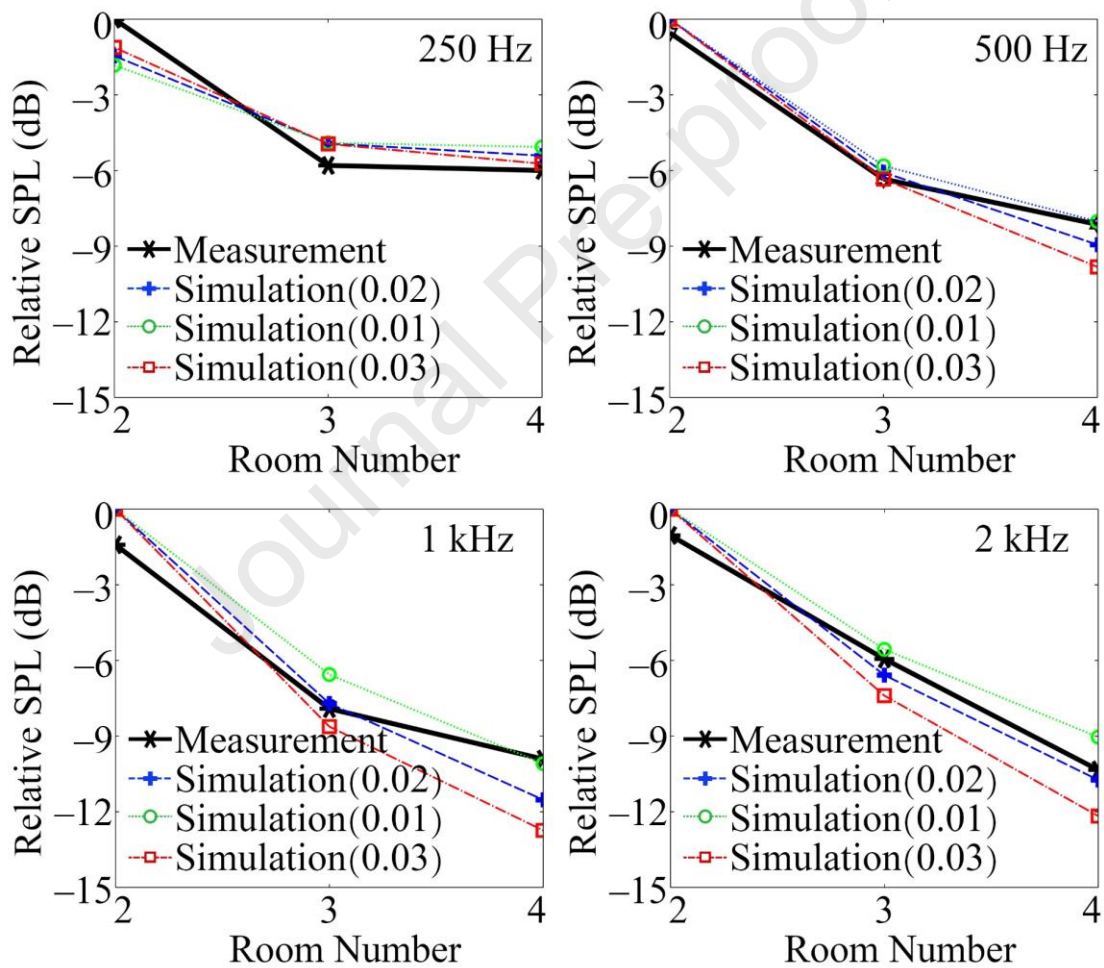


Fig. 4. (Color online) Comparisons of the validation results at a range of frequencies.

224

225 2.4. Simulation experiment

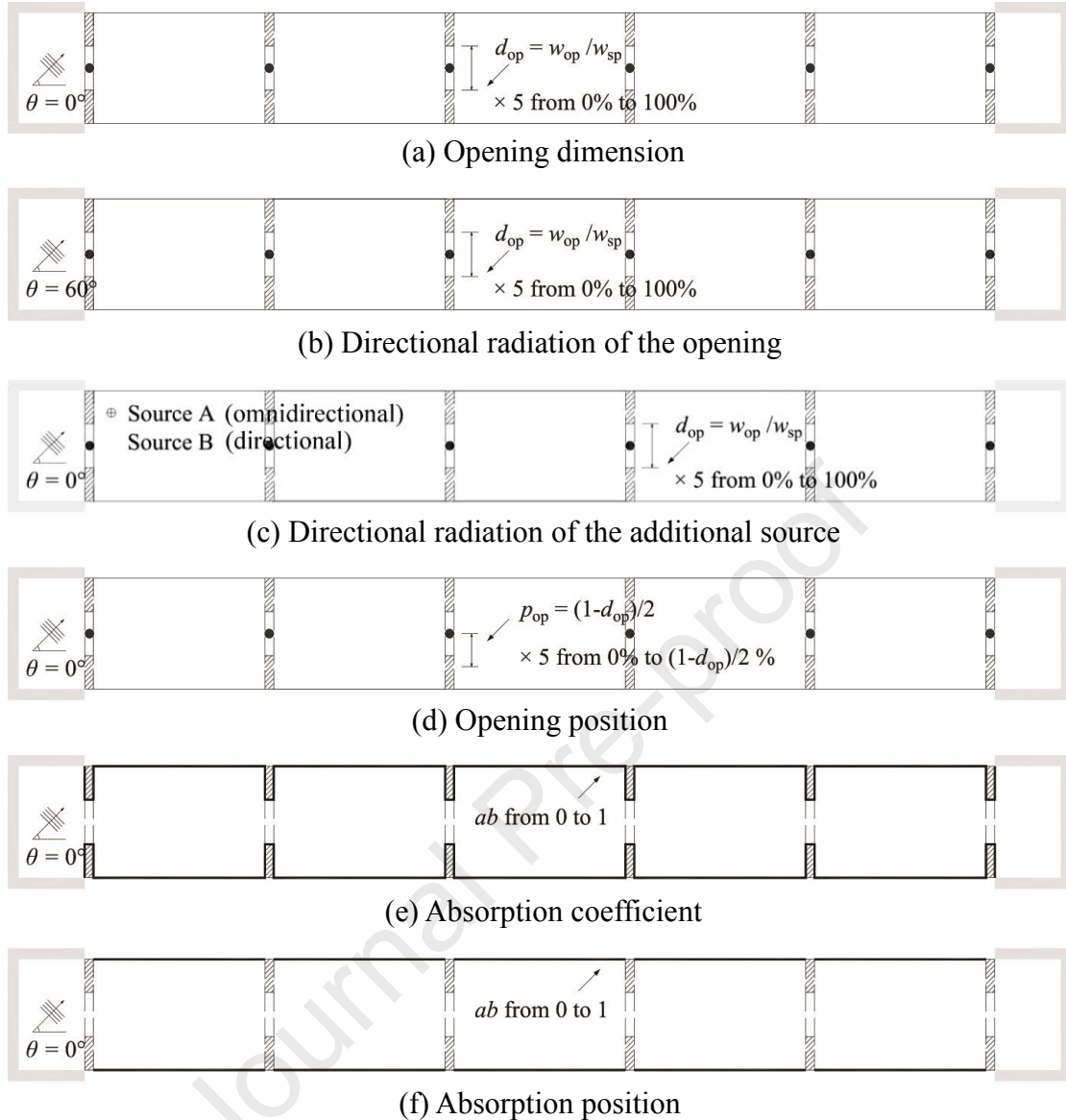
226 The underlying research questions were to be addressed according to the
 227 parametrizations stated earlier, and the efficiency of the parametrizations in
 228 performance adjustment of the sound field across the spaces were investigated by

229 conducting six comparative studies: (1) Study 1 (opening dimension): parametric d_{op} ;
230 (2) Study 2 (directional radiation of the opening): parametric d_{op} when $\theta = 0^\circ$ or 60° ;
231 (3) Study 3 (directional radiation of additional source): parametric d_{op} when an
232 additional source is applied; (4) Study 4 (opening position): parametric p_{op} ; (5) Study 5
233 (absorption coefficient): parametric ab with two $d_{op} = 20\%$ and 40% ; (6) Study 6
234 (absorption position): parametric ab with non-uniform absorption distribution; and (7)
235 Study 7 (number of rooms): parametric N . Table 1 shows the simulation input used in
236 COMSOL, and Figure 5 shows the experimental configuration of each study. Note that
237 all the openings and walls in the model, which are marked with the circles and broad-
238 brush lines, respectively, were changed simultaneously in each simulation.

239 Table 1. Three parametrizations (i.e., contextual, acoustical and source factors) and simulation input in COMSOL.

Study	Contextual factor		Acoustical factor		Source factor			
	Opening/partition area ratio	Opening/partition position ratio	Number of rooms	Absorption coefficient	Absorption position	Angle of opening incidence	Directional radiation of additional source	
	d_{op}	p_{op}	N	ab	[-]	θ	[-]	
1	a b	0% – 100%	0%	5	0.01 0.5	Uniform	0°	No
2	a b	0% – 100%	0%	5	0.01 0.5	Uniform	60°	No
3	a b	0% – 100%	0%	5	0.01	Uniform	0°	Omni directional
	c d	0% – 100%	0%	5	0.5	Uniform	0°	Directional
4	a b	40%	$0\% - (1 - d_{op})/2\%$	5	0.01 0.5	Uniform	0°	no
5	a b	20% 40%	0%	5	0 to 1.0	Uniform	0°	no
6	a	20% 40%	0%	5	0 to 1.0	Non-uniform	0°	no
7	a b	40%	0%	1 – 10	0.01 0.5	Uniform	0°	no

240



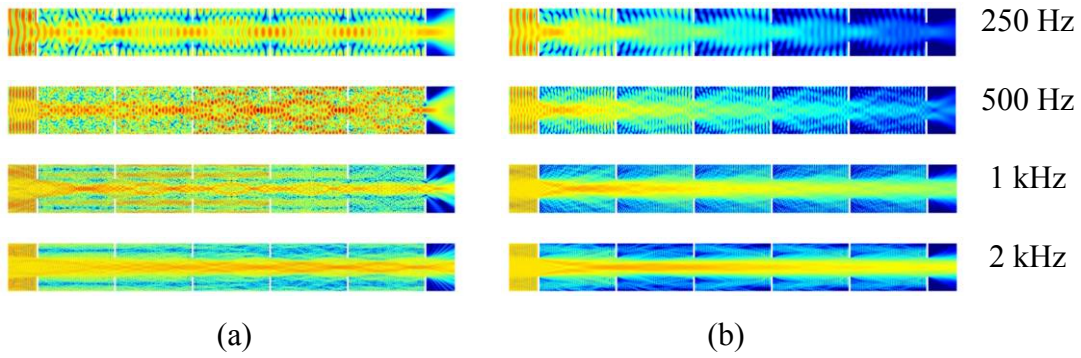
241 **Fig. 5.** (Color online) Experimental plans of (a) Study 1: opening dimension; (b) Study
 242 2: directional radiation of the opening; (c) Study 3: directional radiation of the
 243 additional source; (d) Study 4: opening position; (e) Study 5: absorption coefficient;
 244 and (f) Study 6: absorption position.

245

246 3. Results

247 3.1. Effect of opening dimension

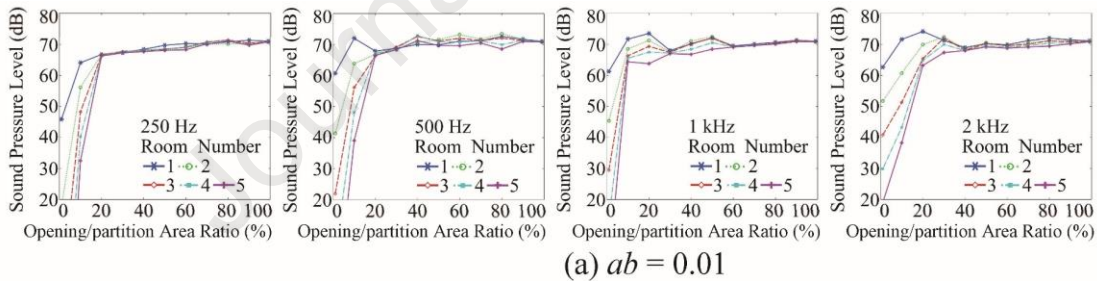
248 Figure 6 visualizes the SPL distribution for example simulations of the initial model
 249 (i.e., $d_{op} = 40\%$) at a range of frequencies for $ab = 0.01$ and 0.5 . The sound attenuation
 250 across the spaces exhibits different patterns, and the transmitted field on the right side
 251 is reduced in a clearly different manner from 250 Hz to 2 kHz.



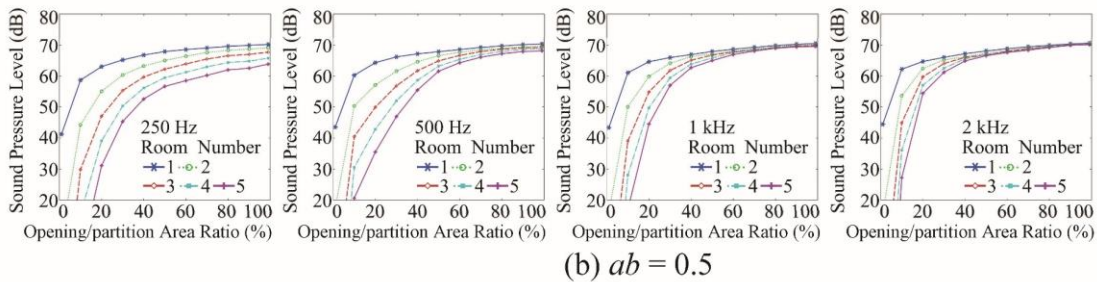
252 **Fig. 6.** (Color online) Sound pressure distribution. (a) $ab = 0.01$ and (b) $ab = 0.5$.

253

254 Adjusting the opening dimension could be one of the most direct ways to control
 255 the sound attenuation by modifying of contextual factors. To understand the effect of
 256 the opening dimension under two acoustic absorption conditions, i.e., low and high
 257 absorptions, were defined as $ab = 0.01$ and 0.5 , respectively. Figure 5a shows the
 258 experimental plan for this study, and Figure 7a and 7b show the average SPL of each
 259 room from 0% to 100% d_{op} for the two ab values. The results reveal that the sound field
 260 pattern imposed by the parametric d_{op} is inconsistent under the conditions of low and
 261 high ab , indicating that when adjusting the value of d_{op} in the design phase, it is
 262 necessary to consider room absorption conditions.



(a) $ab = 0.01$



(b) $ab = 0.5$

Fig. 7. (Color online) Average SPL of each room for d_{op} values from 0% to 100% for two ab at $\theta = 0^\circ$. (a) $ab = 0.01$ and (b) $ab = 0.5$.

263

264 In the case of low room absorption, as shown in Figure 7a, the average SPL of each
 265 room attenuated with increasing source–receiver distance, i.e., the levels decreased

266 from the highest in Room 1 to the lowest in Room 5, up to a certain value of d_{op} . The
267 level differences between the rooms were large at low d_{op} whereas at high d_{op} values,
268 they were very small, as expected. This value of d_{op} after which the levels became
269 unpredictable was smaller at lower frequencies, e.g., 20% d_{op} at 250 and 500 Hz and
270 40% at 2 kHz.

271 However, the average SPL of each room corresponding to the increasing d_{op}
272 seemed to increase until a certain value of d_{op} and then decrease in an unpredictable
273 pattern until the discussed value of d_{op} when the levels were identical across the spaces.
274 Moreover, the level differences were unrelated to the d_{op} , which could be owing to
275 coupling effects between the rooms, i.e., strong, medium, and weak. For a low room
276 absorption and small opening ($d_{op} = 0\% - 20\%$), the coupling effect is weak, i.e., the
277 spaces are acoustically separated with limited sound flowing back, and the non-diffuse
278 sound field is confined to the area near the opening; therefore, even a small change in
279 opening dimension could result in significant differences in the sound levels. On the
280 other hand, for a large opening ($d_{op} > 60\%$), the separated spaces act as a single space,
281 and any change in the opening dimension does not affect the sound levels significantly.
282 In addition, if the opening dimension is in the medium range ($d_{op} = 20\% - 60\%$), the
283 non-diffuse sound field near the opening area could be the largest compared to those of
284 the small and large openings.

285 As shown in Figure 7b, in the case of high room absorption, the levels of each room
286 clearly attenuated from the highest to lowest from Room 1 to Room 5, and the values
287 gradually increase with increasing d_{op} . The patterns were similar at all frequencies.
288 The level difference between the rooms gradually kept decreasing before stabilized. For
289 increasing d_{op} , the efficiency required to reach the stable value was greater at higher
290 frequencies than at lower frequencies. The reason could be that as d_{op} increased, the
291 sound flowback from the other side of the spaces decreased. Once d_{op} reached a certain
292 value, the levels were no longer affected by the d_{op} , and the separating partition could
293 be regarded as acoustically transparent. For a high room absorption, the distribution of
294 sound energy became more uneven with increasing d_{op} , and the attenuation in the
295 sequential rooms became more rapid and closer to that in the free-field condition.

296 It is interesting to note that similar results were obtained with a smaller room length
297 ($l = 5.0$ m), which is not presented here. With decreasing area, d_{op} value required to
298 reach the stable value became smaller for all frequencies.

299

300 3.2. Effect of directional radiation of the opening

301 An incidence angle of $\theta = 60^\circ$ was defined to simulate the sound field when the source
302 and receiving room are not at the same level, e.g., for a room on the second floor near
303 an atrium. Figure 5b shows the experimental plan for this study with a parametric d_{op}
304 value to examine the effects of the oblique incidence angle of the opening as the
305 dominant directional radiation of the opening.

306 Figures 8a and 8b show the results corresponding to those in Figures 7a and 7b, for
307 an incidence angle of $\theta = 60^\circ$. The results reveal that the level of Room 1 remained the
308 same as in the previous study, while those of Rooms 2, 3, 4, and 5 decreased
309 considerably. The differences between low and high absorptions were more significant
310 at $\theta = 60^\circ$. In the case of low absorption, as shown in Figure 8a, the levels at $\theta = 60^\circ$
311 were still random but clearly attenuated from Room 1 to 5. The level differences were
312 larger than those at $\theta = 0^\circ$ at all frequencies. In the case of high absorption, as shown
313 in Figure 8b, the phenomenon of the level increasing with d_{op} and the level difference
314 decreasing to a stable value are shown, similar to the results of a previous study.
315 However, the stable values increased, e.g., close to 10.0 dB rather than 0 dB at $\theta = 0^\circ$.
316 The level difference near the source was particularly significant because of the direct
317 sound component. Therefore, the coupling effect was more observable at $\theta = 60^\circ$.
318 Especially under the condition of low absorption for the medium range of the opening
319 dimension, the level differences were significant indicating a more obvious non-diffuse
320 sound field near the opening. Additionally, the level differences under the condition of
321 high absorption were larger.

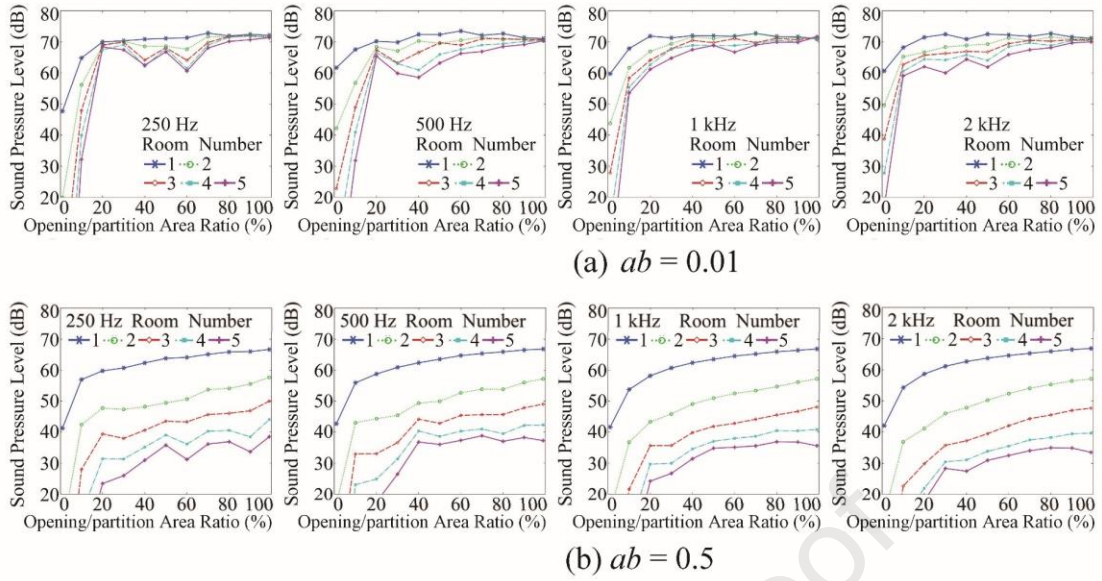


Fig. 8. (Color online) Average SPL of each room for d_{op} from 0% to 100% with two ab at $\theta = 60^\circ$. (a) $ab = 0.01$ and (b) $ab = 0.5$.

322

323 In regard to the dominant directional radiation of the opening, it was concluded
 324 that for both low and high room absorption, the level difference between rooms was
 325 consistently larger when the source room was located at a higher level than the receiver
 326 room rather than at the same level, which meant that there was a larger sound
 327 attenuation across the spaces. The level difference between rooms was significantly
 328 higher for the room closer to the source opening compared to the successive level
 329 differences between rooms. This tendency was not observed when the source and
 330 receivers were located on the same level, indicating a distinguishable gap in listener
 331 perception (e.g., loudness) between the source and first receiving room.

332

333 3.3. Effect of directional radiation of the additional source

334 To study the effect of additional omnidirectional or directional sources, a point source
 335 in Room 1 with a parametric d_{op} was investigated, as shown in Figure 5c. Figure 9a and
 336 9b present the average SPLs of each room with an omnidirectional point source in
 337 Room 1, i.e., source A. The results reveal that with increasing d_{op} , only the sound energy
 338 in Room 1 gradually decreased, whereas it increased in the successive rooms. Because
 339 the level of Room 1 was high, the magnitude of the change caused by the increase in
 340 d_{op} was not large, especially at low frequencies. Comparatively, the level of Room 5
 341 was the lowest; therefore, the magnitude of the change was large. The closer the room
 342 was to the source, the smaller the change in level. Similar results were obtained with a

343 directional point source in Room 1, i.e., source B as shown in Figure 10.

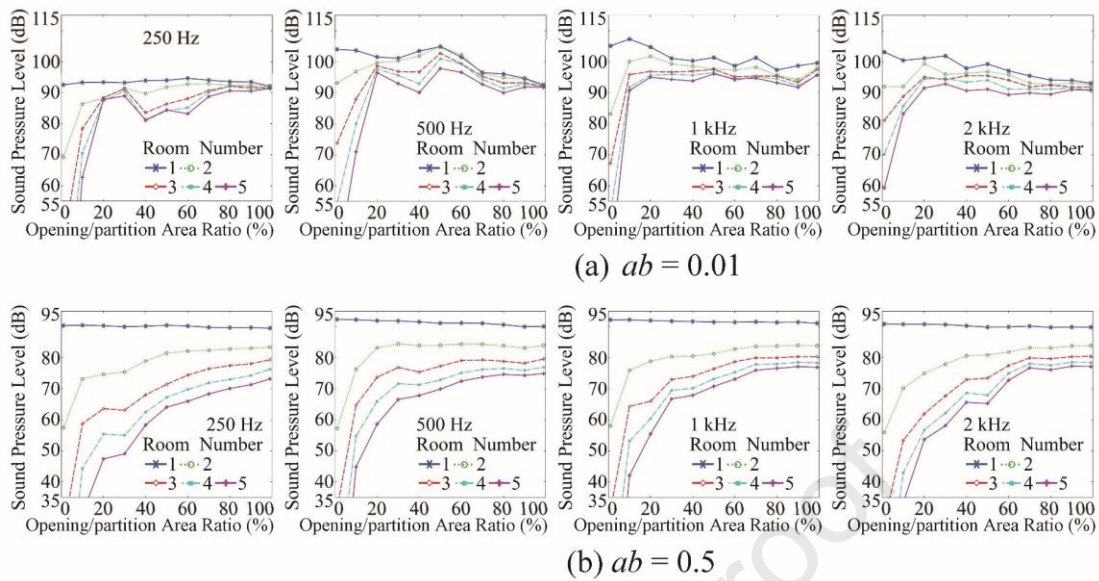


Fig. 9. (Color online) Average SPL of each room for d_{op} from 0% to 100% with two ab with an omnidirectional point source in Room 1. (a) $ab = 0.01$ and (b) $ab = 0.5$.

344

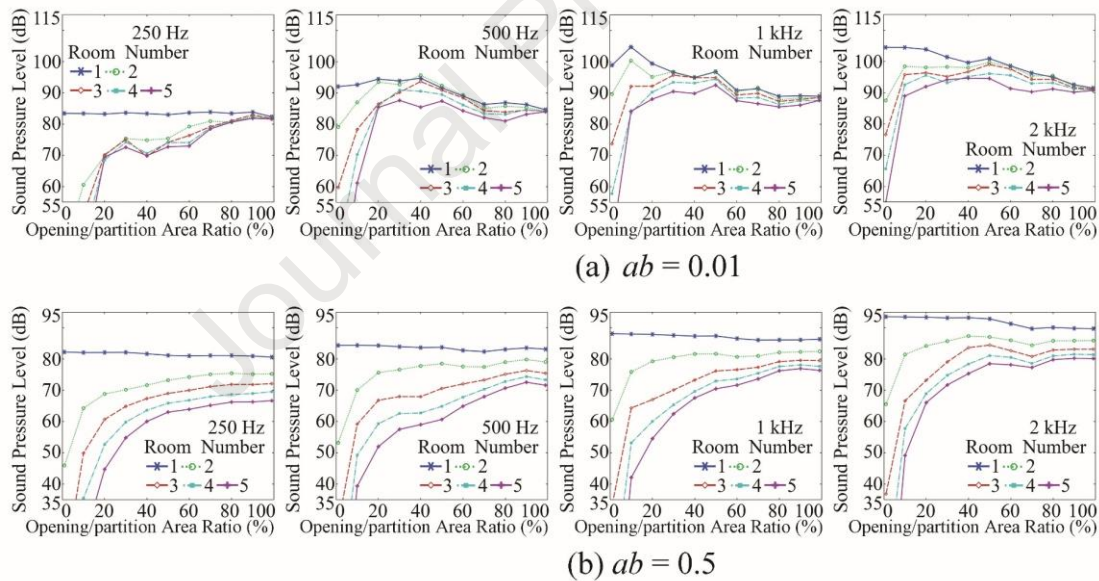


Fig. 10. (Color online) Average SPL of each room for d_{op} from 0% to 100% with two ab with a directional point source in Room 1. (a) $ab = 0.01$ and (b) $ab = 0.5$.

345

346

347

348

349

350

Therefore, in terms of the effect of an additional source (e.g., HVAC system and human speech) on a particular location or area, an additional source increased the level difference between rooms, indicating a larger change across the spaces. Only the average SPL of a room with an additional source exhibited a flat decrease rather than a sharp increase with increasing opening dimension, whereas those of other rooms

351 increased indicating inconsistent behavior between the source and receiving rooms. In
352 alleviating the effect of an additional source in the room, enlarging the opening
353 dimension reduced the sound level for rooms with low absorption, but this effect could
354 be very limited for those with high absorption.

355

356 **3.4. Effect of opening position**

357 The opening position, which could be in the middle of the separating partition or against
358 the side wall, clearly defines how people move across the spaces. It also divides the
359 room volume into two functional parts. Figure 5d shows the experimental plan of the
360 study. According to the definition of p_{op} discussed in Section 2, the larger p_{op} , the larger
361 the distance from the opening to the middle of the separating partition. When the value
362 of $p_{op} = (1-d_{op})/2\%$ is the maximum, it indicates that the opening is connected to the
363 side wall.

364 Figure 11 shows the average SPL of each room for p_{op} from 0% to $(1-d_{op})/2\%$, for
365 two values of ab . The results reveal that the sound field patterns for changing p_{op} at low
366 and high room absorptions were essentially different. In the case of low absorption, as
367 shown in Figure 10a, the levels changed randomly with increasing the p_{op} , i.e., from the
368 opening being in the middle to the side; however, the attenuation according to the
369 source–receiver distance can be observed. The range of the changing level in Room 1
370 was the smallest, and that for Room 5 was the largest. The level differences between
371 the rooms were unrelated to p_{op} . In the case of high absorption, the levels in the rooms
372 remain unchanged with increasing p_{op} , and the level difference between the rooms
373 decreases with increasing frequency, as shown in Figure 11b. The reason for the
374 opening position having a limited effect on the sound field for a high room absorption
375 could be the lack of reflection, which is greater for a room with low absorption;
376 therefore, in the case of low absorption, the sound field is significantly affected even
377 for small changes in the opening position.

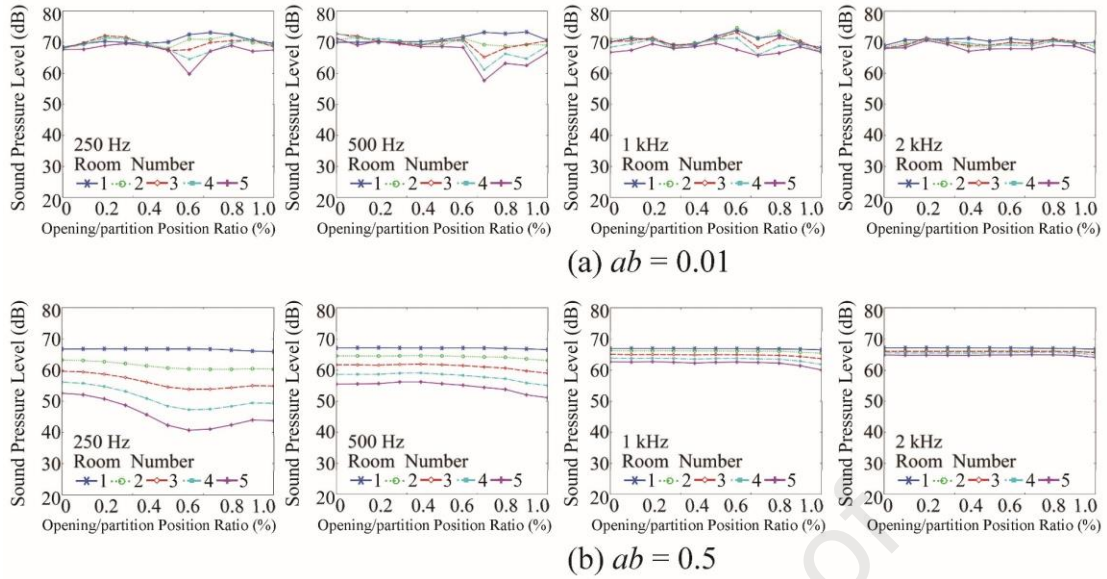


Fig. 11. (Color online) Average SPL of each room for p_{op} from 0% to $(1-d_{op})/2\%$ with two ab at $\theta = 0^\circ$. (a) $ab = 0.01$ and (b) $ab = 0.5$.

378

379 Therefore, the influence of opening position on sound attenuation performance, i.e.,
 380 whether the opening is located in the middle of the separating partition or against the
 381 side wall, could be observed only with a low absorption, which suggests a technique
 382 for professionals can utilize to determine paths for listeners. The average SPL of each
 383 room is kept at the same level irrespective of the opening position for a room with high
 384 absorption.

385

386 3.5. Effect of absorption coefficient

387 Adjusting absorption coefficient could be one of the most straightforward post-
 388 construction means of implementing noise control. To determine the effect of
 389 absorption coefficient on the distribution of absorption materials in the spaces, a study
 390 was conducted according to the experimental plan shown in Figure 5e.

391 Figure 12 shows the average SPL of each room for the parameter ab in the range
 392 of 0–1 with $d_{op} = 20\%$ and 40% . The results reveal that the patterns for a small and
 393 large opening dimension were consistent. Note that the levels in Rooms 2, 3, 4, and 5
 394 for $d_{op} = 40\%$ were significantly lower than those for $d_{op} = 20\%$, whereas the levels in
 395 Room 1 were equivalent for both d_{op} values. In general, the average SPL decreased
 396 within a certain range with increasing ab . The larger the source–receiver distance, the
 397 larger the magnitude of the level change. It is also observed that the rate of change was
 398 higher at smaller ab than that at larger values. Thus, increasing ab to modify sound

399 attenuation could be more effective at smaller ab than at larger values. As expected, the
 400 level differences between rooms at $d_{op} = 20\%$, i.e., for a smaller opening, were much
 401 larger at all frequencies than those at $d_{op} = 40\%$. For both d_{op} values, the level
 402 differences between the rooms were equal, possibly because the geometric dimensions
 403 were the same, and the difference gradually decreased with increasing frequency.

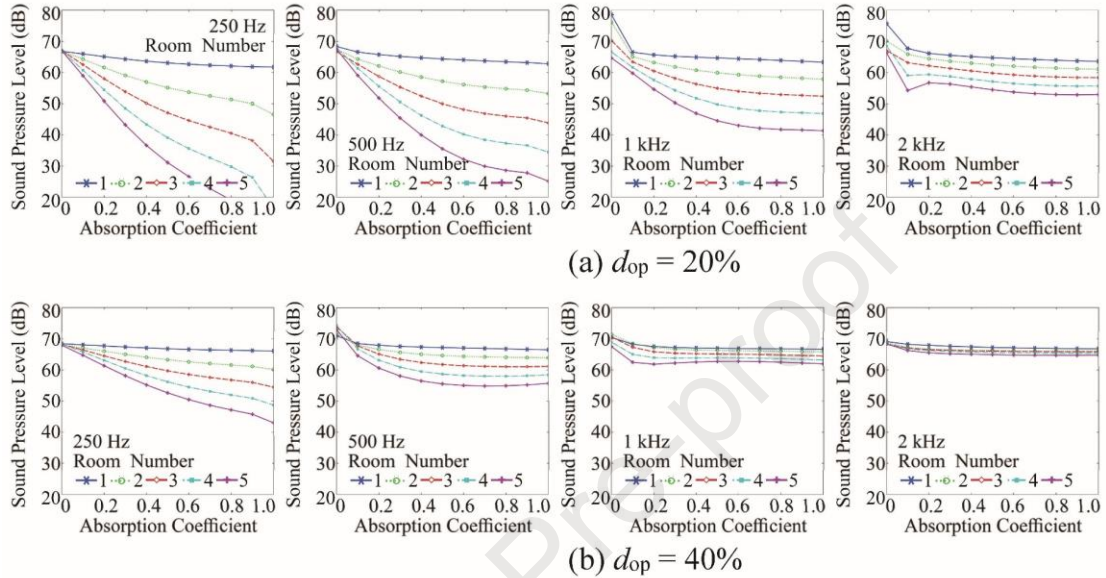


Fig. 12. (Color online) Average SPL of each room for ab from 0 to 1 with two d_{op} at $\theta = 0^\circ$. (a) $d_{op} = 20\%$ and (b) $d_{op} = 40\%$.

404

405 3.6. Effect of absorption position

406 Apart from changing the absorption coefficient, another simple approach is to adjust
 407 the absorption distribution. Figure 5f illustrates the experimental plan for this study to
 408 determine the effect of the absorption distribution. The absorption area was placed
 409 along the length of the sequential spaces, i.e., along the sound attenuation, while
 410 keeping the entire absorption amount equivalent to that of the plan shown in Figure 5e,
 411 i.e., the absorption was evenly distributed in each room.

412 Figure 13 shows the average SPL of each room for ab in the range of 0–1. The
 413 results showed that, under the assumption of equivalent absorption amount in each
 414 room, the difference in the levels when the absorption was positioned along the
 415 direction of the sound attenuation and when it was evenly distributed in the room was
 416 significant for smaller d_{op} , whereas it was negligible for larger d_{op} . It is observed that,
 417 for the smaller d_{op} , the levels decreased with increasing ab for the entire range of 0 – 1
 418 rather than being within a certain range as shown in Figure 12a for evenly distributed

419 absorption.

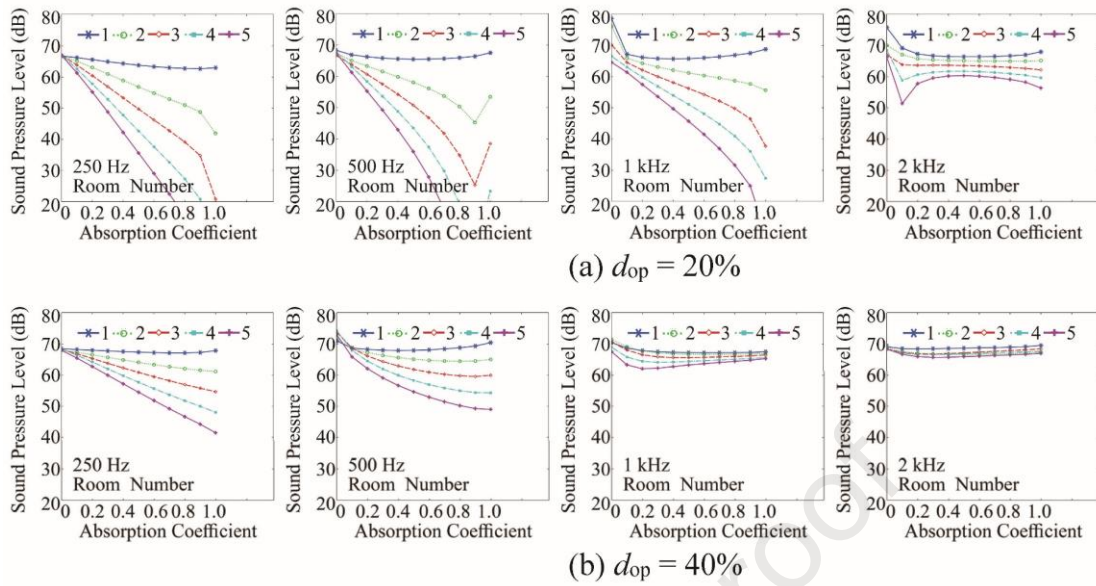


Fig. 13. (Color online) Average SPL of each room for ab from 0 to 1 with two d_{op} at $\theta = 0^\circ$. (a) $d_{op} = 20\%$ and (b) $d_{op} = 40\%$.

420

421 3.7. Effect of number of rooms

422 The study was essentially aimed at large-scale spaces consisting of a number of small
 423 rooms. Figure 14 shows the average SPL of each room for N from 1 to 10 with two ab
 424 values and two θ values. The results reveal that with increasing N , the changes in the
 425 levels of the existing and added rooms differ according to the conditional room
 426 absorption. In the case of low absorption, as shown in Figure 14a, the level of the
 427 existing and added rooms was different for different N . However, the attenuation was
 428 similar irrespective of the number of rooms. In the case of high absorption, as shown in
 429 Figure 14b, not only the level values, but also the patterns remained the same for all
 430 frequencies, but the level range decreased with increasing frequency. It can be seen that
 431 by increasing the number of rooms, the level in Room 1 changed with low room
 432 absorption but remained constant for high room absorption.

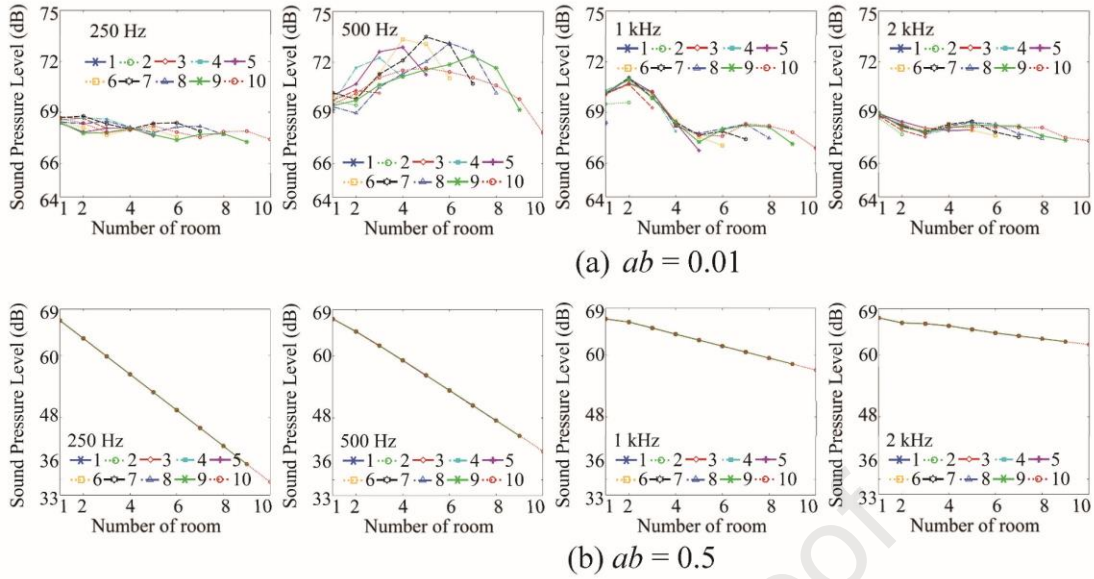


Fig. 14. (Color online) Average SPL of each room for N from 1 to 10 with two ab .
 (a) $ab = 0.01$ and (b) $ab = 0.5$.

433

434 4. Discussion

435 4.1. Limitations and future work

436 Although the FEM is relatively stable and effective for nature of energy-based
 437 advantage, the large amount of calculation confines this research to 2D modelling in
 438 the validity tests. Future work will involve more effective methods that could be enable
 439 3D simulations to be conducted under high-frequency conditions so that issues such as
 440 the height of the spaces could be investigated. Moreover, there are other related aspects
 441 to consider in the future, e.g., rooms with circular and irregular shapes and rooms that
 442 are connected at the corner.

443

444 4.2. Designing choices under assumptions

445 As mentioned in Section 2, the schemes in which all parameters are modified are
 446 summarized in Table 1. Correspondingly, the results that should be used in the design
 447 phase by professionals are presented in Table 2.

448 Possible practical applications are presented in column of Application. Many
 449 previous studies have generally described how sound spreads and how it can be
 450 discouraged from spreading. The factor that should be considered for the sound path
 451 include the following: as the distance from the source increases, the received noise level
 452 slowly decreases; absorbent surfaces can help prevent sound travelling by reflections
 453 along corridors; and insulated walls help prevent sound transfer within buildings.

454 In this study, practical aspects of the results were determined under different
455 assumptions, as shown in column of Assumption in Table 2. For most of the
456 investigated schemes, such as the contextual factors, the assumptions of low/high room
457 absorption, and small/large opening dimension, must be considered when applying the
458 results. Normally, the larger the distance of the room from the source, the larger the
459 magnitude of level change that could be obtained by the modification of parametric
460 factors, as shown in the results of opening dimension results obtained in Studies 1, 2,
461 and 3. Considering the just noticeable difference (JND) in the first receiving room, it is
462 observed that most outcomes greatly exceeded the target JND, which is 0.25 dB at the
463 most sensitive levels (greater than 60 dB) and frequencies (1–4 kHz) [35], except for
464 the first receiving room with high absorption with an additional source. As a design
465 objective in practice is often to achieve an ideal sound attenuation, Kang [35] noted that
466 the absorbers used for as surface treatment must be evenly placed in long spaces. The
467 results of Study 6 also demonstrated that an equivalent amount of absorption with a
468 non-uniform or uniform distribution does not ensure consistent performance especially
469 in the case of a small opening dimension. It is also worthwhile to note that according to
470 McMullan [14], increasing the sound absorption in a room has little effect on the sound
471 passing between rooms. This finding was further confirmed in Study 5, where
472 increasing the sound absorption in a room had little effect on the sound passing between
473 rooms for rooms with high absorption, whereas the adjustments made to rooms with
474 smaller absorption could result in greater changes.

475 **Table 2.** Results of each scheme showing the assumptions that should be considered, as well as the applications and guidelines that should be used
 476 by professionals in the design phase.

Scheme	Assumption	Main results	Application
Opening dimension	Room absorption: low/high	The average SPL of the room changes until the level difference between rooms stabilizes. It increases with increasing opening/partition area ratio for rooms with high absorption.	If a large opening is required, one should expect a high level in the room and small level difference between rooms for rooms with high absorption, while no such pattern is found for rooms with low absorption.
Dominant directional radiation of the opening	Room absorption: low/high	The level difference between rooms is larger for oblique incidence compared to horizontal one, particularly for rooms which are close to the source.	If the receiver is located at different height than the source, the level differences between rooms are larger than if the source and receiver are at the same height, and larger for rooms which are close to the source.
Directional radiation of the additional source	Room absorption: low/high	The average SPL of the room with an additional source remains or decreases with increasing opening/ partition area ratio by approximately 10 dB for rooms with high or low absorption, respectively. The level difference between rooms becomes larger with an additional source.	To reduce the level in the room with additional source (e.g., HVAC system and human speech), increasing the opening dimension could be useful, whereas the levels of other rooms increase with increasing opening dimension, especially for rooms with high absorption.
Opening position	Room absorption: low/high	The changes in opening position only affect the average SPL of a room with low absorption instead of high absorption.	To decide the path of the crowd across the spaces, consider opening position only for rooms with low absorption.
Absorption Coefficient	Opening dimension: small/large	Adjustments made within small absorption coefficients result in greater changes in the SPL than those made to high absorption coefficients.	The strategy of absorption adjustment as a remedial work yields limited benefits in the case of a room with high absorption.

Absorption position	Opening dimension: small/large	The difference in the SPL between applying uniform and non-uniform absorption distribution with a given absorption amount is larger with a smaller opening dimension.	The equivalent absorption amount between non-uniform and uniform distribution does not ensure consistent performance especially in the case of a small opening dimension.
Number of rooms	Room absorption: low/high	The level in the first receiving room remains constant for rooms with high absorption (e.g., with an absorption coefficient of 0.5). The difference between different absorption coefficients is about 6 dB maximum, depending on the number of rooms.	In case of increasing the entire scale of the space (e.g., number of rooms), to avoid interference in the first receiving room, high room absorption is necessary.

478 5. Conclusions

479 In this research, the predication accuracy of the sound attenuation in sequential rooms
480 has been examined by validating the results of the FEM model with in-situ
481 measurements taken in exhibition spaces. Then a parameter study has been carried out
482 by considering contextual factors (opening dimension and position, number of rooms),
483 acoustical factors (absorption coefficient and position) and source factors (directional
484 radiation of the opening and additional source) in determining the effect on the SPL in
485 the rooms. It has been found that:

- 486 (i) In rooms with high absorption, the average SPL of the rooms is higher and
487 the level difference between rooms is smaller with a larger opening
488 dimension, whereas in rooms with low absorption the changes are more
489 complicated. The opening position only has impact for rooms with low
490 absorption.
- 491 (ii) The level differences between rooms are larger for oblique radiation
492 compared to horizontal radiation, especially for rooms which are close to
493 the source. With an additional source (e.g., HVAC system and human speech)
494 in a room, the level in this room is kept or reduced by approximately 10 dB
495 with increasing opening dimension for rooms with high or low absorption,
496 respectively, whereas the levels in other rooms increase for rooms with high
497 absorption, but there is no clear tendency for rooms with low absorption,
498 with increasing opening dimension.
- 499 (iii) Generally speaking, the changes achieved by absorption are more
500 significant under the conditions of low absorption. The difference in the
501 average SPL between uniform and non-uniform absorption distribution with
502 a given absorption amount is greater with a smaller opening dimension.
- 503 (iv) The effects on the SPL in the first receiving room, caused by adding more
504 sequential rooms, is less when the absorption in those rooms is high (e.g.,
505 with an absorption coefficient of 0.5), and the difference between different
506 absorption coefficients is about 6 dB maximum, depending on the number
507 of rooms.

508

509 Acknowledgement

510 We are grateful for the assistance we received from several people. In particular, we

511 would like to thank Tate Modern for their support. This project received funding from
512 the European Research Council (ERC) under the European Union's Horizon 2020
513 Research and Innovation Programme [Grant Agreement No. 740696] and was also
514 supported by a British Council project [2019-RLWK11-10521].

515

516 **References**

- 517 [1] S.K. Tang, D.W.T. Chan, K.C. Chan, Prediction of sound-pressure level in an
518 occupied enclosure, *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* 101 (1997) 2990–2993.
519 <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.418527>.
- 520 [2] L. Pon, S.C. Douglas, F. Martellotta, Sound absorption measurements under
521 strongly non-diffuse conditions: The case of the Pastrana tapestries at Meadows
522 Museum in Dallas, *Acta Acust. United Acust.* 102 (2016) 955–962.
523 <https://doi.org/10.3813/AAA.919010>.
- 524 [3] D. D'Orazio, F. Montoschi, M. Garai, 2020. Acoustic comfort in highly attended
525 museums: A dynamical model. *Build. Environ.* 183, 107176.
526 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2020.107176>.
- 527 [4] T. Yang, J. Kang, 2021. Sound attenuation and reverberation in sequential spaces:
528 an experimental study. *Appl. Acoust.* 182, 108248.
529 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apacoust.2021.108248>.
- 530 [5] J.H. Rindel, Verbal communication and noise in eating establishments, *Appl.*
531 *Acoust.* 71 (2010) 1156–1161. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apacoust.2010.07.005>.
- 532 [6] C.E. Mediastika, A.S. Sudarsono, L. Kristanto, 2020. Indonesian shopping malls:
533 a soundscape appraisal by sighted and visually impaired people. *Archit. Eng. Des.*
534 *Manag.* <https://doi.org/10.1080/17452007.2020.1833829>.
- 535 [7] P.N. Dökmeci Yorukoglu, J. Kang, Development and testing of Indoor Soundscape
536 Questionnaire for evaluating contextual experience in public spaces, *Build. Acoust.* 24
537 (2017) 307–324. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1351010X17743642>.
- 538 [8] T. Yang, F. Aletta, J. Kang, 2021. Sound environments in large public buildings for
539 crowd transit: a systematic review. *Appl. Sci.* 11, 3728.
540 <https://doi.org/10.3390/app11093728>.
- 541 [9] C.M. Harris, H. Feshbach, On the acoustics of coupled rooms, *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.*
542 22 (1950) 572–578. <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.1906653>.
- 543 [10] M. Meissner, Simulation of acoustical properties of coupled rooms using

- 544 numerical technique based on modal expansion, *Acta Phys. Polonica A* 118 (2010)
545 123–127. <https://doi.org/10.12693/APhysPolA.118.123>.
- 546 [11] J. Poblet-Puig, A. Rodriguez-Ferran, Modal-based prediction of sound
547 transmission through slits and openings between rooms, *J. Sound Vib.* 332 (2013)
548 1265–1287. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsv.2012.09.044>.
- 549 [12] D. Fitzroy, Reverberation formula which seems to be more accurate with
550 nonuniform distribution of absorption, *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* 31 (1959) 893–897.
551 <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.1907814>.
- 552 [13] D.Y. Maa, Non uniform acoustical boundaries in rectangular rooms, *J. Acoust.*
553 *Soc. Am.* 12 (1940) 39–52. <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.1916070>.
- 554 [14] R. McMullan, *Noise control in buildings*. London: BSP, 1991, pp. 15.
- 555 [15] S. Shi, G. Jin, B. Xiao, Z. Liu, Acoustic modeling and eigenanalysis of coupled
556 rooms with a transparent coupling aperture of variable size, *J. Sound Vib.* 419 (2018)
557 352–366. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsv.2018.01.024>.
- 558 [16] J.E. Summers, R.R. Torres, Y. Shimizu, Adapting a randomized beam-axis-
559 tracing algorithm to modeling of coupled rooms via late-part ray tracing, *J. Acoust.*
560 *Soc. Am.* 118 (2005) 1491–1502. <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.2000772>.
- 561 [17] L. Aspöck, M. Vorländer, 2019. Simulation of a coupled room scenario based on
562 geometrical acoustics simulation models. *Proceedings of Meetings on Acoustics*, 36,
563 015002.
- 564 [18] Y. Jing and N. Xiang, “Visualizations of sound energy across coupled rooms
565 using a diffusion equation model,” *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* 124, EL360–EL365 (2008).
- 566 [19] A. Billon, V. Valeau, A. Sakout, J. Picaut, On the use of a diffusion model for
567 acoustically coupled rooms, *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* 120(2006) 2043–2054.
568 <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.2338814>
- 569 [20] A.F. Seybert, C.Y.R. Cheng, T.W. Wu, The solution of coupled interior/exterior
570 acoustic problems using the boundary element method, *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* 88 (1990)
571 1612–1618. <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.400320>.
- 572 [21] A. Leblanc, G. Chardon, Acoustic eigenanalysis of 2D open cavity with Vekua
573 approximations and the method of particular solutions, *Eng. Anal. Bound. Elem.* 43
574 (2014) 30–36. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enganabound.2014.03.006>.
- 575 [22] W. Koch, Acoustic resonances in rectangular open cavities, *AIAA J.* 43 (2005)
576 2342–2349. <https://doi.org/10.2514/1.10975>.

- 577 [23] S. Ortiz, C.L. Plenier, P. Cobo, Efficient modeling and experimental validation of
578 acoustic resonances in three-dimensional rectangular open cavities, *Appl. Acoust.* 74
579 (2013) 949–957. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apacoust.2013.01.007>.
- 580 [24] Y.-H. Kim, S.-M. Kim, Solution of coupled acoustic problems: a partially opened
581 cavity coupled with a membrane and a semi-infinite exterior field, *J. Sound*
582 *Vib.* 254 (2002) 231–244. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jsvi.2001.3938>.
- 583 [25] S.-M. Kim, Y.-H. Kim, Structural-acoustic coupling in a partially opened plate-
584 cavity system: experimental observation by using near-field acoustic holography, *J.*
585 *Acoust. Soc. Am.* 109 (2001) 65–74. <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.1320476>.
- 586 [26] X. Yu, L. Cheng, J.-L. Guyader, Modeling vibroacoustic systems involving
587 cascade open cavities and micro-perforated panels, *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* 136 (2014)
588 659–670. <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.4887442>.
- 589 [27] S. Wang, J. Tao, X. Qiu, Performance of a planar virtual sound barrier at the
590 baffled opening of a rectangular cavity, *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* 138 (2015) 2836–2847.
591 <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.4934267>.
- 592 [28] G. Jin, S. Shi, Z. Liu, Acoustic modeling of a three-dimensional rectangular
593 opened enclosure coupled with a semi-infinite exterior field at the baffled opening, *J.*
594 *Acoust. Soc. Am.* 140 (2016) 3675–3690. <https://doi.org/10.1121/1.4966626>.
- 595 [29] J.S. Anderson, M. Bratos-Anderson, Acoustic coupling effects in St. Paul’ s
596 Cathedral, London, *J. Sound Vib.* 236 (2000) 209–225.
597 <https://doi.org/10.1006/jsvi.1999.2988>.
- 598 [30] L. Nijs, G. Jansens, G. Vermeir, M. van der Voorden, Absorbing surfaces in ray-
599 tracing programs for coupled spaces. *Appl. Acoust.* 63 (2002) 611–626.
600 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0003-682X\(01\)00063-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0003-682X(01)00063-9).
- 601 [31] J.P. Arenas, Use of Barriers, in: M.J. Crocker (Ed.), *Handbook of Noise and*
602 *Vibration Control*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., Hoboken, New Jersey, 2007, pp. 714–
603 724. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470209707>.
- 604 [32] B. Lam, S. Elliott, J. Cheer, W. Gan, Physical limits on the performance of active
605 noise control through open windows. *Appl. Acoust.* 137(2018) 9–17.
606 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apacoust.2018.02.024>
- 607 [33] T. Yang, J. Kang, 2020. Subjective evaluation of sequential spaces. *Appl. Acoust.*
608 161, 107139. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apacoust.2019.107139>.
- 609 [34] M. Long, *Architectural acoustics*. Academic Press, Amsterdam, 2014.

610 [35] J. Kang, Acoustics of long spaces: Theory and design guidance, Thomas Telford,
611 London, 2002.
612

Journal Pre-proof

Highlights

- 2D modelling using finite element method is validated by in situ measurements.
- The parametrizations of contextual, acoustical and source factors are effective in modifying sound attenuation.
- Design strategies should first consider the condition of opening and room absorption.

Journal Pre-proof

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Journal Pre-proof