

Exploring the Limits of Virtual Source Localization with Amplitude Panning on a Flat Panel with Actuator Array: Implications for Future Research

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(Dated: 9 August 2023)

1 **This paper is part of a special issue on 3D Sound Reconstruction for**
2 **Virtual Auditory Displays: Applications in Buildings.**

3 Immersive and spatial sound reproduction has been widely studied using loud-
4 speaker arrays. However, flat-panel loudspeakers that utilize thin flat panels with
5 force actuators are a promising alternative to traditional coaxial loudspeakers for
6 practical applications, with benefits in low-visual profiles and diffuse radiation. Lit-
7 erature has addressed flat-panel loudspeakers' sound quality and applications in 3D
8 sound reproduction, such as wave field synthesis and sound zones. This paper revisits
9 the spatial sound perception of flat-panel loudspeakers, specifically the localization
10 mismatch between the perceived and desired sound directions when using amplitude
11 panning. Subjective tests in an anechoic chamber with twenty-four subjects result
12 in the mean azimuth direction mismatch within $\pm 6.0^\circ$ and the mean elevation mis-
13 match within $\pm 10.0^\circ$. The experimental results show that the virtual source created
14 by amplitude panning over a flat-panel loudspeaker still achieves spatial localization
15 accuracy close to that of a real sound source, despite not using complex algorithms or
16 acoustic transfer function information. The findings of this study establish a bench-
17 mark for virtual source localization in spatial sound reproduction using flat-panel
18 loudspeakers, which can serve as a starting point for future research and optimiza-
19 tion of algorithms.

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20 I. INTRODUCTION

21 Extensive research is dedicated to using loudspeaker arrays to reproduce spatial sound for
22 creating immersive and realistic listening experiences¹. For example, recreate the auditory
23 sense of space² and the localization of perceived sound sources^{3–5}, essential for various ap-
24 plications such as augmented or mixed reality (AR/MR), multimedia content creation^{1,4,6},
25 and personalized sound zones^{7,8}. However, developing this technology from laboratory pro-
26 totypes to real-world settings, especially in complex acoustic environments like buildings,
27 requires further exploration. Previous research has explored various approaches, including
28 but not limited to equalization of room responses⁹, optimization of robustness^{6,10}, opti-
29 mization of loudspeaker placement^{11,12}, implementation simplification by reducing acoustics
30 transfer function measurement^{8,13} or using distributed systems⁷. However, loudspeakers are
31 limited by the physical structure and spatial placement in sound reproduction. For example,
32 coaxial loudspeakers can be impractical for certain applications due to their weight, cost,
33 or other factors. Additionally, reproducing sound with sufficient spatial coverage requires
34 loudspeakers to have an appropriate spatial span while maintaining a small enough spacing
35 for controlling sound waves at high frequencies.

36 The flat-panel loudspeaker is a promising alternative to traditional coaxial loudspeakers
37 with advantages in low-visual profile and wide sound dispersion¹⁴. It uses a thin, flat panel
38 with force actuators at the rear side to generate acoustic radiation through the panel vibra-
39 tion. It can adapt to various indoor environments and even utilize existing displays, e.g., the
40 organic light-emitting diode (OLED) screen, to generate spatialized audio¹⁵. On the other

41 hand, the flat-panel loudspeaker, as the multi-actuator panel (MAP), has multiple exciters
42 driven with different signals, respectively, using signal processing to allow dynamic control of
43 the panel's spatial vibration profile with diffuse sound radiation characteristic¹⁶. This char-
44 acteristic helps avoid the beaming properties of piston loudspeakers at high frequencies¹⁷
45 and reduces modal excitation within rooms¹⁸. Compared to traditional loudspeakers, the
46 sound quality could be challenging when applying the flat-panel loudspeaker. Though not
47 the scope of this paper, existing literature has widely addressed flat-panel loudspeakers'
48 sound quality improvement¹⁹ and applications in 3D sound reproduction, such as wave field
49 synthesis^{14,20} and directional sound fields²¹.

50 The main aim of sound reproduction is to provide listeners with a clear spatial percep-
51 tion by utilizing psychoacoustic cues that lead to perceptual satisfaction. However, the
52 human auditory perception mechanism is complex, resulting in selective emphasis and sup-
53 pression even under unfavorable conditions, such as the cocktail party effect. Therefore,
54 considering subjective perception is crucial for evaluating, designing, and optimizing sound
55 reproduction methods. The flat-panel loudspeaker has been perceptually evaluated, includ-
56 ing loudness^{22,23}, sound localization, perception of sound distance by wave field synthesis²⁴,
57 and sound quality enhancement²⁵. Furthermore, it is compared with the electrodynamic
58 loudspeaker on objective and subjective measures for wave field synthesis²⁶.

59 So far, vector-based amplitude panning (VBAP)²⁷ remains an effective and straightfor-
60 ward method to create virtual sound sources using traditional loudspeakers arbitrarily placed
61 in space, with ongoing research and development^{28,29}. VBAP has several practical advan-
62 tages, including low computational complexity, no destructive interference within the sweet

63 spot, superior timbral quality, and gradual sound quality degradation outside the sweet
64 spot²⁹. Moreover, it does not require precise information on the acoustic transfer function
65 for implementation. This feature is essential for controlling flat-panel loudspeakers since
66 their sound radiation is affected by several factors, such as material, boundary conditions,
67 and coupling. While VBAP has been utilized with flat-panel loudspeakers³⁰, a complete
68 and thorough evaluation of spatial sound panning with the flat-panel loudspeaker is still
69 lacking³¹.

70 This paper revisits the spatial sound perception of flat-panel loudspeakers, specifically
71 the localization mismatch between the perceived and desired sound directions when using
72 amplitude panning. An experiment involving subjective and objective tests utilized a vector-
73 based amplitude panning algorithm to create eighty-one virtual sources with four actuators
74 placed at the corners of a flat panel. Subjective listening tests included twenty-four normal-
75 hearing subjects, while objective tests included results on the interaural time difference
76 (ITD) and the interaural level differences (ILD) measured in an anechoic chamber. The
77 study aims to determine the spatial localization accuracy of amplitude panning using a flat-
78 panel loudspeaker. As amplitude panning does not rely on complex algorithms or acoustic
79 transfer function information, the experiment results can be a benchmark for virtual source
80 localization in spatial sound reproduction using flat-panel loudspeakers. This information
81 can be useful for future research and optimization of algorithms in this area.

82 II. THEORY

83 A. Flat Panel with Actuator Array

84 The motion for a thin flat panel can be expressed as³¹

$$D\nabla^4 u(y, z, t) + \rho h \frac{\partial^2 u(y, z, t)}{\partial t^2} = -f(y, z, t), \quad (1)$$

85 where $u(y, z, t)$ is the out-of-plane displacement of time t for point (y, z) on the panel. The
 86 coordinate system is defined in Sec. III. $f(y, z, t)$ is the external forcing function applied to
 87 the panel, h and ρ represent the thickness and density of the panel, respectively, and D is
 88 the bending stiffness per unit width given by Young's modulus E and Poisson's ratio ν as¹⁹

$$D = \frac{Eh^3}{12(1-\nu^2)}. \quad (2)$$

89 The forced response of a rectangular panel with dimensions $L_y \times L_z \times h$ and simply
 90 supported edges can be expressed as a sum of modes of the panel's free response as

$$\begin{aligned} u(y, z, t) &= \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \alpha_r \Phi_r(y, z) e^{j\omega_r t} \\ &= \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \alpha_r \sin\left(\frac{m_r \pi}{L_y} y\right) \sin\left(\frac{n_r \pi}{L_z} z\right) e^{j\omega_r t}, \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

91 where α_r is the amplitude of the mode $\Phi_r(y, z)$, ω_r is the resonant frequency of each mode,
 92 j denotes the imaginary unit as the square root of -1 , m_r and n_r represent the number of
 93 sinusoidal half-wavelengths for each mode along the y and z axes, respectively.

94 Using the Rayleigh integral, the surface area S of the flat panel can be divided into several
 95 sub-regions ds , each of which is treated as a point source that radiates sound waves outward.
 96 The total acoustic response in space is the superposition of these point sources. The sound

97 pressure at \mathbf{r} with origin at the center of the panel is

$$p(\mathbf{r}) = \int_S \frac{-j\omega\rho_0\dot{u}(\mathbf{r}_s)\exp(-jkR)}{2\pi R} ds, \quad (4)$$

98 where $\dot{u}(\mathbf{r}_s)$ is the complex transverse velocity at any point \mathbf{r}_s on the surface, $R = |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_s|$,
 99 ρ_0 is the density of air, and k is the wave number. The complex velocity $\dot{u}(\mathbf{r}_s)$ is determined
 100 by the first time derivative of the panel response.

101 Please note that the derivation presented here may need to be more precise for the near-
 102 field condition, where the sound pressure radiated by the source is considerably more complex
 103 and has intricate oscillatory features that cannot be accurately approximated. However,
 104 near-field scenarios can be quite demanding, such as when the user is situated within one
 105 meter of the display screen. Furthermore, the practical boundary conditions can differ from
 106 those assumed in the derivation, making it challenging to obtain an analytical solution.

107 Though the sound field produced by a flat-panel loudspeaker is highly dependent on
 108 frequency and the relative observation position to the sound source²¹, it is found that each
 109 actuator element can vibrate independently without being affected by neighboring exciters
 110 and panel edges, as confirmed by laser Doppler vibrometer measurements³². It implies that
 111 individual exciters can be considered as independent sources for spatial sound reproduction.
 112 So that we can create a virtual sound using amplitude panning without accurate sound
 113 pressure value estimation or measurement.

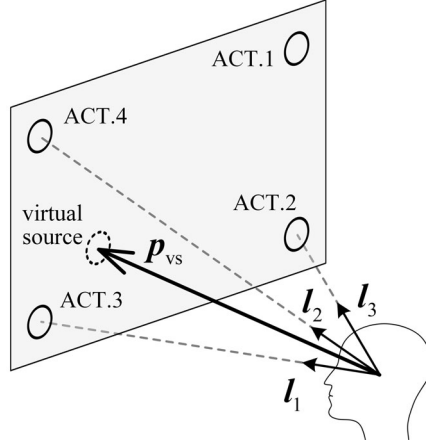


FIG. 1. Three-dimensional amplitude panning using a flat-panel loudspeaker with four actuators “ACT.1~4”. For example, actuators 1, 2, and 4 are the activated triplets to create a virtual sound source in the direction of \mathbf{p}_{vs} . Unit vectors \mathbf{l}_1 , \mathbf{l}_2 , and \mathbf{l}_3 represent the directions from the listener to each actuator in Cartesian coordinates.

114 B. Amplitude Panning Using the Flat-Panel Loudspeaker

115 Figure 1 illustrates the vector-based amplitude panning of actuator triplets on a flat
 116 panel to create a virtual sound source. For a given virtual source direction, the three
 117 closest actuators are activated simultaneously with respective signal gains as a triplet²⁷.
 118 The direction to the virtual source is defined as^{33,34}

$$\mathbf{p}_{vs} = \mathbf{g}\mathbf{L}_{123} = g_1\mathbf{l}_1 + g_2\mathbf{l}_2 + g_3\mathbf{l}_3, \quad (5)$$

119 where unit vectors \mathbf{l}_1 , \mathbf{l}_2 , and \mathbf{l}_3 represent the directions from the listener to each actuator
 120 in Cartesian coordinates, $\mathbf{L}_{123} = [\mathbf{l}_1 \ \mathbf{l}_2 \ \mathbf{l}_3]$ and the normalized gains $\mathbf{g} = [g_1 \ g_2 \ g_3]^T$ is

$$\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{p}_{vs}\mathbf{L}_{123}^{-1} / \|\mathbf{p}_{vs}\mathbf{L}_{123}^{-1}\|, \quad (6)$$

121 where $(\cdot)^T$ denotes matrix transposition, $\|\mathbf{g}\| = 1$, and the inverse matrix \mathbf{L}_{123}^{-1} satisfies
 122 $\mathbf{L}_{123}^{-1}\mathbf{L}_{123} = \mathbf{I}$, where \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix. This work implemented the vector-based
 123 amplitude panning based on codes from Ref. 35 and Ref. 36.

124 VBAP includes a geometric determination of the triangle of active loudspeakers and an al-
 125 gebraic solution to compute the panning gains such that the velocity vector of the synthesized
 126 sound field matches the direction of the virtual source. Though it does not require acoustic
 127 transfer function information, the spatial localization accuracy generated by conventional
 128 loudspeakers with VBAP is within $\pm 8^\circ$ and $\pm 18^\circ$ in azimuth and elevation, respectively³⁴.
 129 In comparison, perceiving a real sound source has the *mean* azimuth mismatch ranges from
 130 1° to 3° , and the mean elevation mismatch in the median plane ranges from 4° for white
 131 noise to 17° for speech³. Conventional loudspeakers are discrete sound sources in terms of
 132 spatial distribution. On the other hand, a flat panel with multiple actuators is a continu-
 133 ous sound source, e.g. in Eq. (3). The sound received from the flat-panel loudspeaker is
 134 contingent upon the plate's vibration, i.e. $\dot{u}(\mathbf{r}_s)$ in Eq. (4). Since actuators have different
 135 gains but the same phase under VBAP, the higher $\dot{u}(\mathbf{r}_s)$ value aligns with the vicinity of the
 136 actuators. Thus, due to spatial masking, the perceived sound of VBAP using the flat panel
 137 may be comparable to that of conventional loudspeakers. The following section will present
 138 experimental characteristics of the virtual source localization with amplitude panning on a
 139 flat panel with actuators.



FIG. 2. (color online) Experimental setup using the KEMAR Head and Torso simulator at the listener location with a distance of 70 cm from the panel.

140 III. OBJECTIVE EVALUATION OF VIRTUAL SOURCE DIRECTION

141 The experiment was designed to objectively and subjectively evaluate the spatial sound
 142 perception of flat-panel loudspeakers, specifically the localization mismatch between the
 143 perceived and desired sound directions when using amplitude panning. As illustrated in
 144 Fig. 2, we consider the indoor displays scenario and the listener in the near-field with a
 145 distance $L = 70$ cm from the center of the subject's head O to the center of the panel. The
 146 flat panel is a 0.2 mm thick aluminum stencil of dimensions 60.5×57.5 cm with fixed edges.
 147 Virtual sound sources were created respectively at eighty-one locations within the square
 148 region of sizes 50.0×50.0 cm. The four actuators are at the vertexes $(L, -a, a)$, $(L, -a, -a)$,
 149 $(L, a, -a)$, and (L, a, a) , respectively, with $a = 25$ cm, as shown in Fig. 3. Virtual sources
 150 are denoted as S_{ij} , where $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$, and $j = 1, 2, \dots, 9$, represent the row and column
 151 numbers, respectively. So the available azimuth and elevation ranges of virtual sound sources
 152 were within $\pm 19.65^\circ$.

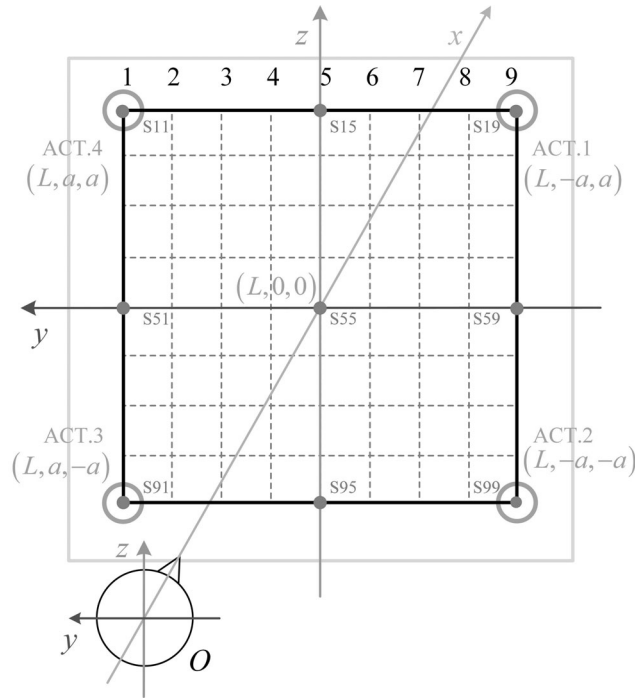


FIG. 3. (color online) The distance from the center of the listener’s head to that of the panel was $L = 70$ cm. Four actuators ACT.1 4 were at the rear side of the panel with $a = 25$ cm. Eighty-one virtual sources S_{ij} , $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, 9$, were within the square region (contoured in black) and the four actuators at the vertexes.

153 Stimuli were generated at a sampling rate of 48 kHz. VBAP gains were calculated based
 154 on codes from Ref. 35 and Ref. 36. Output signals were played as multi-channel .flac files,
 155 with a pink noise signal in each channel for the corresponding actuator. The computer
 156 was equipped with a Fireface UC audio interface for digital to analog conversion. Separate
 157 power amplifiers drove four actuators. Stepped sweep signals tested channel distortion to
 158 determine the effective volume range resulting in total harmonic distortion (THD) of less
 159 than 10%. All measurements were conducted in an anechoic chamber.

160 Equalization employed an inverse filter through linear predictive coding (LPC)³⁷ of the
 161 impulse response measured by a microphone at the origin O to have flat and uniform fre-
 162 quency responses from every actuator. Inter-channel calibration was also applied using
 163 Gaussian white noise pulses with a duration of 120 s as the test signal to minimize am-
 164 plitude discrepancies among actuators. So the received frequency responses using different
 165 actuators were flattened and aligned over 100 Hz to 20 kHz.

166 The ITD and ILD are widely used as auditory cues for the localization of a single source
 167 in psychoacoustics^{3,5}. ITD depends on the different durations that sounds travel towards
 168 two ears³⁸. It is calculated based on the position of the interaural cross-correlation peak
 169 within a maximum interaural delay time of 1 ms for frequencies below 1.5 kHz that³⁹

$$\text{ITD}(\theta) = \arg \max_{\tau} \left\{ E [s_L(t) s_R(t + \tau)] \right\}, \quad (7)$$

170 where $s_L(t)$ and $s_R(t)$ are the sound signals the left and right ear receives, respectively. ITD
 171 reflects the shading effect of a human head, that sound pressure degrades in the ear furthest
 172 away from the source and increases at the other, when the sound source deviates from the
 173 median plane⁴⁰. ILD is defined as.

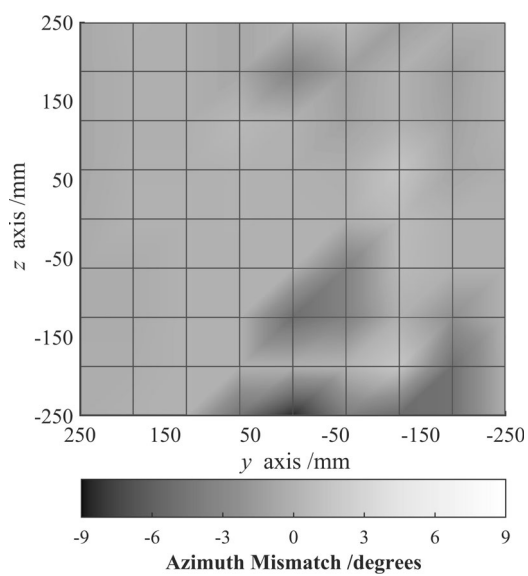
$$\text{ILD}(x_s, y_s, z_s, f_0) = 20 \lg \left| \frac{P_R(x_s, y_s, z_s, f_0)}{P_L(x_s, y_s, z_s, f_0)} \right| \text{ (dB)}, \quad (8)$$

174 where $P_L(x_s, y_s, z_s, f_0)$ and $P_R(x_s, y_s, z_s, f_0)$ are left and right frequency-domain sound pres-
 175 sures at the ear canals generated by the sound source at location (x_s, y_s, z_s) with frequency
 176 f_0 , respectively.

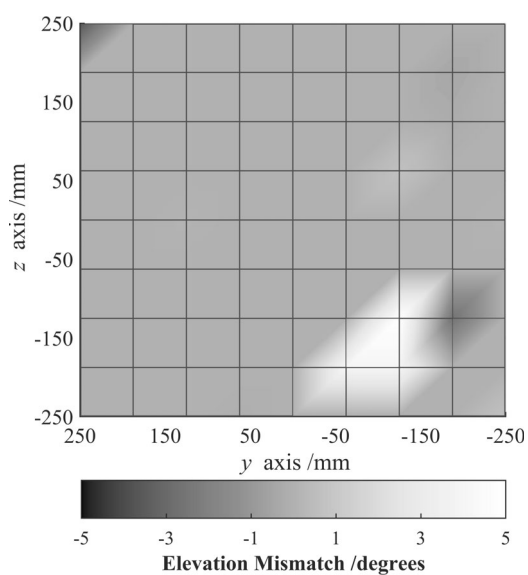
177 In the experiment, ITD and ILD for different virtual sources are calculated from record-
178 ings using the GRAS 45BE KEMAR Head and Torso simulator and 5s pink noise as the
179 test signal. Then, we obtained the corresponding perceptual virtual source directions by
180 referencing a high-resolution lookup table with simulated ITD and ILD values based on the
181 CIPIC database on head-related transfer functions⁴¹ and interpolation.

182 Figure 4 presents the localization mismatch between the perceptual virtual source direc-
183 tion (obtained from the ITD measurement) and the desired sound direction for each virtual
184 source. The tested values are smoothed for visualization. For virtual sources at most loca-
185 tions on the panel, the azimuth and elevation mismatch values are relatively small. A few
186 azimuth mismatches of negative values but no worse than -8.0° appear in the lower right
187 area ($y < 100$, $z < 0$), while a few elevation mismatches of positive values but no worse
188 than 5.0° locate in the lower right area ($y < 0$, $z < 0$).

189 Figure 5 presents the localization mismatch between the perceptual virtual source direc-
190 tion (obtained from the ILD measurement) and the desired sound direction for each virtual
191 source. The tested values are smoothed for visualization. The corresponding rounded fre-
192 quencies are $f = 2500$ and 5000 Hz, respectively. Similar to Fig. 4 for virtual sources at
193 most locations on the panel, the azimuth and elevation mismatch values are relatively small.
194 ILD values are frequency dependent. Mismatch values associated with the lower-frequency
195 at 2500 Hz range exhibit more significant deviations among different virtual source heights.
196 At a frequency of 2500 Hz, the lower region near the center of the panel ($y < 100$, $z < -50$)
197 exhibits larger azimuth localization mismatch values. Meanwhile, the consistency of different
198 locations across various locations increases for elevation mismatch, and elevation mismatch



(a)



(b)

FIG. 4. (color online) Localization mismatch between the perceptual virtual source direction (obtained from the ITD measurement) and the desired sound direction for each virtual source in Fig. 3. (a) Azimuth mismatch and (b) elevation mismatch.

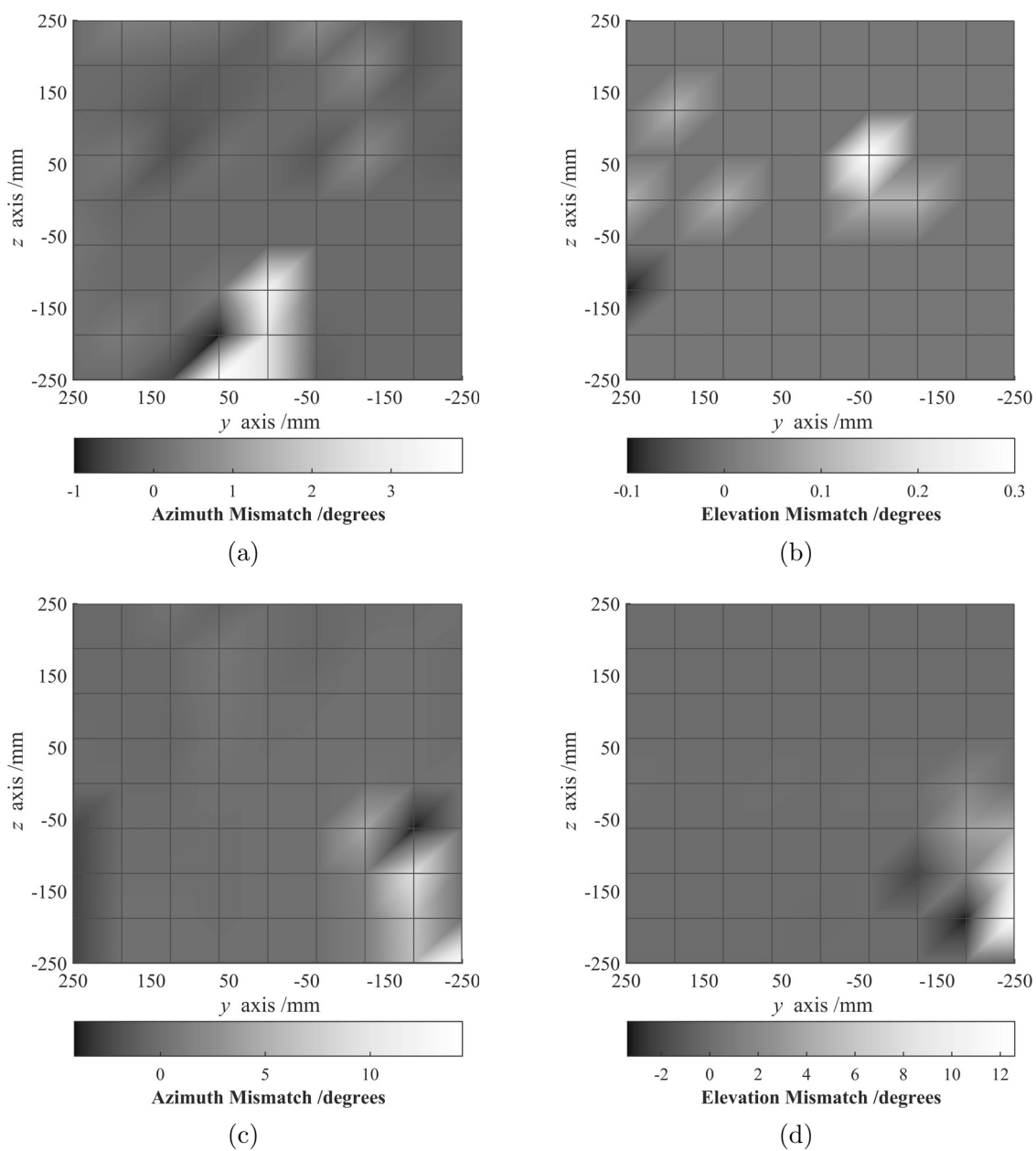


FIG. 5. (color online) Localization mismatch between the perceptual virtual source direction (obtained from the ILD measurement) and the desired sound direction for each virtual source in Fig. 3. (a) Azimuth mismatch at 2500 Hz, (b) elevation mismatch at 2500 Hz, (c) azimuth mismatch at 5000 Hz, and (d) elevation mismatch at 5000 Hz.

199 values fall within a range of 0.3. At a frequency of 5000 Hz, larger mismatch values occur
200 when the virtual source is positioned on the panel's lower right area ($y < -50$, $z < 0$).

201 When the height of the sound source is level with the ear, the trend of flat-panel loud-
202 speakers is more consistent with the positioning rules of traditional coaxial loudspeakers.
203 However, when the sound source is lower than the ear level, ILD localization mismatch
204 values become more pronounced.

205 **IV. SUBJECTIVE EVALUATION OF VIRTUAL SOURCE DIRECTION**

206 Due to the variations in principles and reproduction methods among different spatial
207 sound techniques, there has yet to be an established standard for assessing spatial sounds,
208 including evaluation criteria, methodologies, experimental conditions, and data processing.
209 The International Telecommunication Union (ITU) has set standards for subjectively as-
210 sessing spatial sound, which can be referenced in specific evaluations of spatial sound^{42,43}.

211 **A. Setup**

212 Twenty-four normal-hearing listeners aged 22 to 49 were involved in subjective tests.
213 Amongst them, thirteen are male, and eleven are female. The subjects sat naturally on
214 a chair in an anechoic chamber with a flat panel located 0.7 m in front of them. During
215 the listening test, the subjects were instructed to maintain their head orientation toward
216 the direction of the unknown perceptual virtual source. They were also asked to maintain
217 a stable body position while slightly rotating their head to keep their eyes and ears at
218 approximately the same height as the center of the panel.

219 A pre-study with three groups of training was conducted. Firstly, virtual sound sources
220 of different azimuth angles in the same height were played from sequence left to right,
221 namely ‘S51’, ‘S55’, and ‘S59’ in Fig. 3, respectively. Then, virtual sound sources of different
222 elevation angles in the median plane were played sequentially from top to bottom, namely
223 ‘S15’, ‘S55’, and ‘S95’. Finally, the virtual sound sources in four corners were played, namely
224 ‘S11’, ‘S19’, ‘S99’, and ‘S91’. Finally, the virtual sound sources in four corners were played.
225 During the pre-study test, subjects were instructed to figure out the perceived direction of
226 the virtual source once heard before being told the correct direction. Then the subjects
227 proceeded to the formal testing phase after a five-minute rest interval. An equalized VBAP
228 pink noise sample with a duration of five seconds and a three-second pause between each
229 pulse was used and presented randomly to simulate the perception of sound sources with
230 varying locations.

231 During this experiment step, subjects were instructed to orient their head toward the
232 unknown direction of the perceptual virtual sound source. A slight head rotation was rec-
233 ommended to reduce potential confusion. During the localization experiment, the selection
234 of the reporting method is of utmost importance. It should demonstrate an accuracy level
235 at least as high as the human localization accuracy, which is approximately one degree for
236 frontal sound incidence. Therefore, we opted for absolute evaluation over auditory compari-
237 son and discrimination experiments. Once the direction of the virtual source was determined,
238 subjects were instructed to point a laser pointer in that direction. After confirming the di-
239 rection, the subjects were asked to hit the controller’s button connected to the phone with
240 Bluetooth. Meanwhile, a mobile phone positioned behind the subject was used to take a

241 picture and record the localization of the laser mark. The laser pointer marks should be
242 confined within the black frame indicated as the target region on the panel. The controlling
243 computer was used to verify the results to avoid any omissions. If there was any error in
244 operation, the subjects were allowed to revise their answers before the end of the audio
245 playback. After a three-second rest, the subsequent trial began immediately. If the virtual
246 source was found to be indeterminate, the subject was asked to point the laser marker to a
247 random position. The listening test had a total length of fourteen minutes for each subject
248 to avoid fatigue.

249 Azimuth and elevation angles can be achieved through the laser marks in the aforemen-
250 tioned mobile phone. Given that the mobile phone may have shifted slightly due to ground
251 shaking caused by walking on the steel net while changing subjects in the anechoic chamber,
252 we must carefully reposition the data points and select precise values for the coordinates of
253 the four corner marks to correct any deviation.

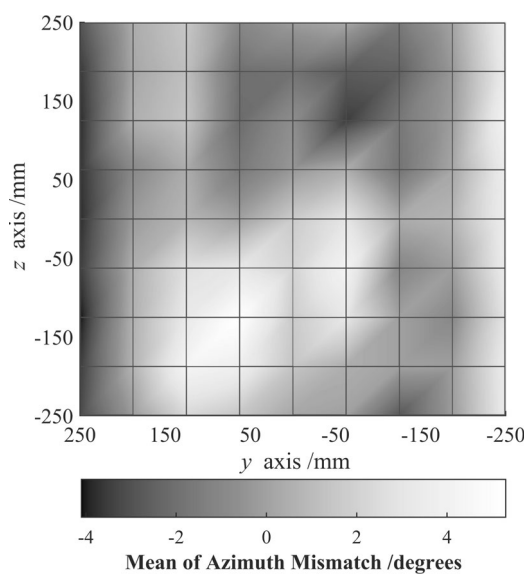
254 **B. Result**

255 The mean and standard deviation of subjective localization mismatch are shown in Fig. 6
256 and Fig. 7. The mismatch of subjective experiments presents a more complex distribution
257 than the results of objective experiments. Larger regions exhibit obvious mismatch values.
258 When the virtual source is located on both sides of the panel, the perceptual azimuth angle
259 demonstrates a trend generally consistent with traditional coaxial loudspeakers, indicating
260 relatively low accuracy in localization on sides. However, the flat-panel loudspeaker local-
261 ization accuracy for the center position is relatively lower than that of a coaxial loudspeaker,

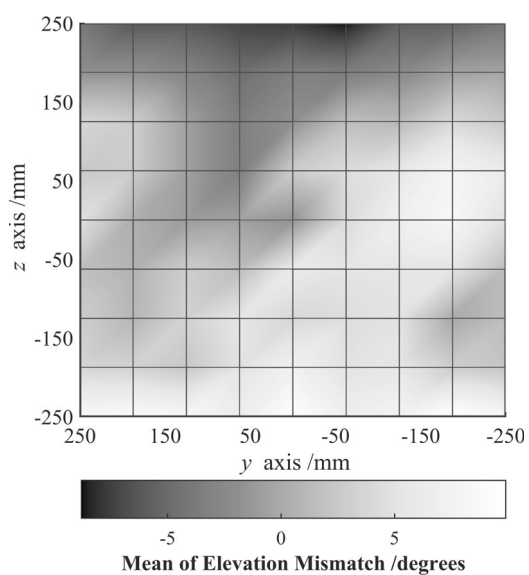
262 which has a 1° to 3° accuracy range³⁴. When the virtual source is at the same height as the
263 human ear, the accuracy of flat-panel loudspeakers' center localization azimuth angle is only
264 moderate. This is in contrast to coaxial loudspeaker results, which showed an accuracy error
265 about three times higher on both sides than the center. The localization accuracy of the
266 upper part is slightly better than that of the lower part, indicating a relatively concentrated
267 and fuzzy localization area in the lower part. The results presented here can be discussed
268 from the standpoint that all the subjects are right-handed, so horizontal localization on the
269 left does not perform as well as on the right.

270 From previous work on VBAP localization of coaxial loudspeakers, elevation angle local-
271 ization is only accurate when the virtual sound source and loudspeakers are at the same
272 height. Localization is not precise in other situations for coaxial loudspeakers. Here, the lo-
273 calization phenomenon for flat-panel loudspeakers does not conform to the abovementioned
274 rules. Localization on the right side is worse than on the left for horizontal localization.
275 In comparison, localization on the bottom side is worse than on the top side for vertical
276 localization.

277 For the entire panel, the mean of azimuth mismatch values is within $\pm 6.0^\circ$, which is
278 generally better than that of elevation mismatch within $\pm 10.0^\circ$. This indicates that hori-
279 zontal localization is more accurate than vertical localization. This result is consistent with
280 previous research that suggests the human ear has a lower vertical resolution than horizontal
281 resolution. Fig. 6 also shows that when the virtual source is located precisely on the edge of
282 the target region, the mismatch values of azimuth and elevation angles are large. However,
283 the judgment of virtual sources near the edge is much more precise. For azimuth angle, if the



(a)



(b)

FIG. 6. (color online) Localization mismatch between the perceptual virtual source direction (averaged among 24 subjects in the listening test) and the desired sound direction for each virtual source in Fig. 3. (a) Azimuth mismatch and (b) elevation mismatch.

284 virtual sound source is positioned near the border frame but not directly on edge on either
285 side of the subject ($y = \pm 187.5$, as the cross line in the second column from the left and
286 right marked as numbers 2 and 8 in Fig. 3), the mismatch values are relatively small within
287 $\pm 1.0^\circ$. But when virtual source is located on the left and right borders $y = \pm 250$, mean
288 mismatch values are rather large within $\pm 6.0^\circ$. There is a similar pattern for the elevation
289 angle as well. We call this phenomenon the “edge-deterioration effect”. This interesting
290 phenomenon suggests that subjects may subconsciously shift the laser mark towards the
291 center to avoid exceeding the control area. Relatively large edge deviation may be caused
292 by the limitations of boundary conditions and the distribution of actuators.

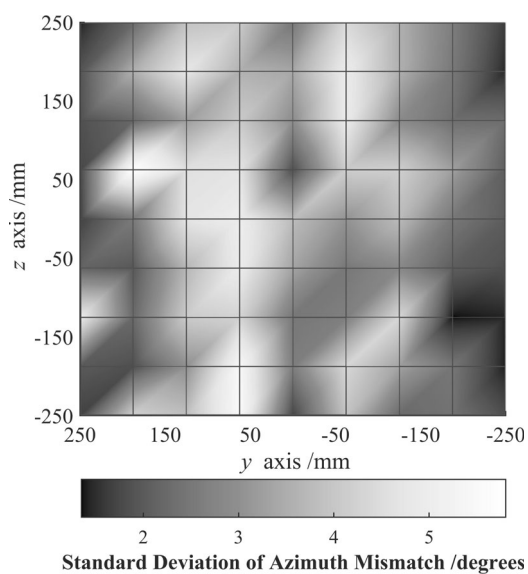
293 The mismatch observed in our experiment is related to various factors, such as the limit
294 directional resolution of human hearing, the limitation of VBAP or pair-wise amplitude
295 panning itself, and the use of flat-panel loudspeakers as sources for reproduction. First,
296 human hearing of a real sound source has the mean azimuth mismatch ranges from 1° to
297 3° , and the mean elevation mismatch in the median plane ranges from 4° for white noise to
298 17° for speech. Second, multichannel sound with conventional loudspeakers when using the
299 VBAP algorithm has a similar localization mismatch pattern, that the azimuth mismatch
300 is much better than the elevation mismatch. Specifically, the azimuth mismatches of the
301 flat-panel loudspeaker are comparable to those of conventional loudspeakers using VBAP³⁴
302 over the desired virtual sources at $(0^\circ, 0^\circ)$, $(0^\circ, 15^\circ)$ and $(10^\circ, 0^\circ)$, where the difference in
303 the median value, the interquartile range, or the data range, is within 2° , except that the
304 flat-panel loudspeaker’s data range at $(10^\circ, 0^\circ)$ are 5° larger. For elevation mismatches,
305 the difference in the median value is within 2° , while the interquartile range and the data

306 range at $(0^\circ, 15^\circ)$ and at $(10^\circ, 0^\circ)$ are 5° to 13° larger, probably due to disparities in array
307 configurations, as the triplets are placed differently in the flat-panel loudspeaker in our
308 experiment and conventional loudspeakers³⁴.

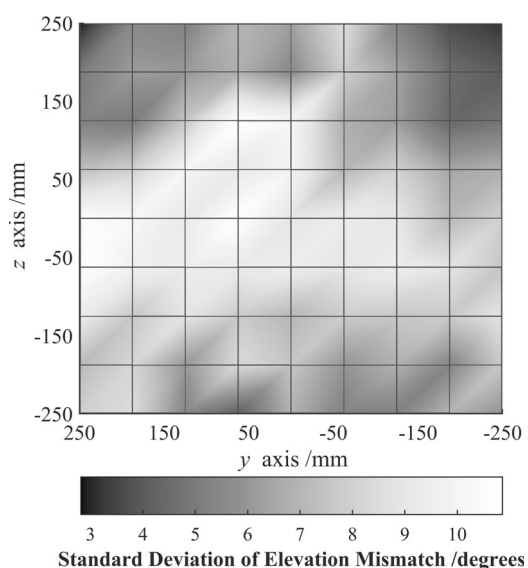
309 Thus, the perceived location mismatch can be largely caused by the limitation of VBAP
310 itself, the limited directional resolution of human hearing, and the edge effect of the flat
311 panel when the desired virtual source is geometrically close to the panel edge.

312 Standard deviations of azimuth and elevation mismatch values are illustrated in Fig. 7.
313 Azimuth angle exhibits a relatively uniform distribution. Standard deviations near the real
314 sound source actuators at four vertices are small, while those at other localization places
315 are slightly larger. The standard deviation is smaller in the upper part of the central area
316 around the panel, rather than precisely in the center. This phenomenon may be because
317 the slight rotation of the subject's head improves the localization accuracy and thus results
318 in smaller inconsistencies. For elevation angle, the standard deviation is large around the
319 central height area but small at the top and bottom. This indicates that the best localization
320 is not the same height as the human ear. Slight head rotation may improve the localization
321 effect, which could also explain this phenomenon.

322 We also analyzed individual differences by the standard deviation of the subjects as
323 shown in Fig. 8. Subjects 5, 8, 15, 21, and 22 had large standard deviations in horizontal
324 localization. Subjects 1, 7, 11, 15, and 19 had large deviations in vertical localization. The
325 overall standard deviation of subject No. 15 is relatively large. Subject No. 8 had a large
326 standard deviation of azimuth mismatch with a rather small standard deviation of elevation
327 mismatch. The subject's statistical standard deviation fluctuated less horizontally while



(a)



(b)

FIG. 7. (color online) Standard deviation of the localization mismatch in (a) azimuth and (b) elevation among 24 subjects in the listening test for each virtual source in Fig. 3.

328 vertically fluctuated greatly. The result coincides with the conclusion that human vertical
 329 perception is less accurate than horizontal localization. Spearman's ρ test was performed
 330 between the perceptual and ideal localization angles. The output of this test indicates a

331 correlation within the range of 88% to 98% ($p < 0.05$). There is a strong correlation between
 332 the ideal and test values.

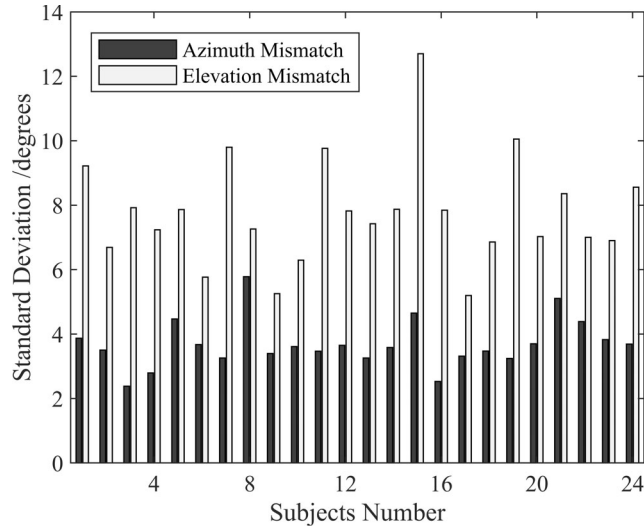


FIG. 8. (color online) The analysis of individual differences through the standard deviation of the subjects. The abscissa represents the subject number, ranging from 1 to 24. The dark filled bar represents the standard deviation of azimuth mismatch, while the light filled bar represents the standard deviation of elevation mismatch.

333 We classified the test results into two groups based on the virtual sound source positioned
 334 at different horizontal and vertical locations. Then we analyzed the influence of these two
 335 factors on the accuracy of perceptual azimuth and elevation angles. Two variables com-
 336 bined with two factors result in four datasets. The Lilliefors test determines whether each
 337 subjective dataset conforms to a normal distribution. We also conducted Bartlett's test
 338 to determine whether the data are derived from normal distributions with equal variances.
 339 The results suggest that the Kruskal-Wallis test is used rather than the analysis of variance
 340 (ANOVA) as not all tests accept the null hypothesis at the 5% significance level. According

341 to the results, the exact placement of the virtual source on the panel substantially impacts
342 both the perceptual azimuth and elevation localization accuracy ($p < 0.05$). Despite the
343 statistical significance of all interactions, discernible differences in the magnitude of their
344 impacts exist among the four scenarios. There is a statistically significant difference in
345 perceptual azimuth angle among various horizontal angles where the virtual sound source
346 is located ($p < 0.001$). The nine positions where the virtual source position is located at
347 various heights also exhibit a statistically significant difference in perceptual elevation angle
348 ($p < 0.001$). The effect of virtual source position at different heights on azimuth angle
349 perception shows less variability than elevation angle, but the associated p -value is still less
350 than 0.001. Although the significance is very high for the three scenarios mentioned above,
351 virtual source position at different horizontal angles has the least impact on elevation angle
352 perception, with a factor that is more than 1000 times lower ($p = 0.03$).

353 C. Discussion

354 Though the experiment was conducted over a chosen panel with corner-positioned actua-
355 tors, the findings may have broader implications. In application, the flat-panel loudspeakers
356 can be used solely or in multi-panel setups for immersive sound with extended spatial cover-
357 age. Under VBAP, each panel can operate independently, so we assessed a corner-actuated
358 single-panel scenario as a representative module. Since VBAP doesn't require the exact
359 sound source or propagation, and considering auditory perception and masking effects, the
360 result may hold for other flat-panel loudspeakers with comparable geometry.

361 This experiment assesses the performance of VBAP on the flat-panel loudspeaker, and
362 the results can serve as a baseline for perceptual evaluation in current and future research
363 on flat-panel loudspeakers, since VBAP is a simple but effective approach for spatial sound
364 reproduction that does not require acoustic transfer function information. This study also
365 further enhances the understanding of the transition of sound reproduction using the con-
366 ventional loudspeaker to the flat panel from a perceptual aspect. Those findings extend the
367 existing theory and practical value on flat-panel loudspeakers, especially for the auditory
368 display in buildings.

369 V. CONCLUSIONS

370 This paper explored the localization mismatch between desired and perceived sound di-
371 rections using amplitude panning with flat-panel loudspeakers. The study involved creating
372 virtual sound sources of various locations and evaluating the perceptual source direction
373 through both objective and subjective tests. The subjective tests resulted in a mean az-
374 imuth direction mismatch within $\pm 6.0^\circ$ and a mean elevation mismatch within $\pm 10.0^\circ$.
375 Additionally, the objective tests using the head and torso simulator and auditory localiza-
376 tion cues indicated a good match. These findings suggest that the virtual source created
377 by amplitude panning over a flat-panel loudspeaker can achieve spatial localization accu-
378 racy comparable to that of a real sound source without the need for complex algorithms or
379 acoustic transfer function information. Future research will focus on optimizing algorithms
380 for virtual source localization in spatial sound reproduction using flat-panel loudspeakers,
381 along with perceptual evaluation.

382 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

383 This work was supported by the Beijing Natural Science Foundation (L223032). The
384 authors would like to express gratitude to all the participants who took part in the listening
385 test, Professor Feiran Yang for insightful discussions on binaural modeling, Dr. Yuzhen Yang
386 for engaging discussions on acoustic modeling, and Cong Wang, Yong Chen, Kai Wang, and
387 Xuyang Zhu for their assistance during the experiment.

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