

Effect of interaction between attention focusing capability and visual factors on road traffic noise annoyance

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Abstract: In recent decades, noise annoyance has been investigated thoroughly as one of the most prominent effects of traffic noise. Still, the influence of visual factors on sound perception is not completely understood. Audiovisual attention focusing and gating are expected to play a role at the perceptual stage. This would also imply the existence of inter-person differences in exposure-effect relationships beyond known factors such as noise sensitivity. To explore these hypotheses, an experiment was designed that combines a newly designed test on audiovisual attention focusing capabilities with a noise annoyance experiment conducted in a mockup living room. The noise annoyance experiment used 16 audiovisual stimuli, which are a combination of 4 window-view video sceneries and 4 sound fragments, to investigate the relative importance of sound source visibility and green elements visibility. In this setting, it was found that (1) sound source visibility, as a functional parameter of the visual setting, has more impact on self-reported noise annoyance than the green element's visibility which describes the quality of the visual; (2) self-reported noise sensitivity remains the strongest personal factor, yet persons being easily distracted by visual elements report significantly lower noise annoyance at the same exposure level; (3) two significant interactions were observed in the prediction of self-reported noise annoyance: (a) noise sensitivity interacts with sound source visibility; (b) vision dominance, as a personal factor, interacts with the visibility of green elements. The interaction between these factors provides additional evidence to support the role of audiovisual attention in the emergence of noise annoyance.

Keywords: attention, noise sensitivity, audio-visual interactions, noise annoyance, road traffic noise

1. Introduction

In recent decades, the relationship between noise exposure and annoyance, especially in and around the dwelling, has been explored in depth [1][2]. Hence, noise annoyance has now been recognized by the World Health Organization as the strongest and best proven effect of environmental noise on people. For the European Union's noise indicator, L_{den} , exposure effect relationships have been derived [3]. It has also been shown that noise annoyance could be an indicator for effects of noise on health and well-being [4][5][6]. The determinants of annoyance were investigated in related studies leading to complex models [7][8]. Epidemiological research has indeed shown that not only the average sound level influences annoyance, but also personal factors modify the exposure effect relationship (such as age, gender, education and noise sensitivity, as well as other environmental factors [9][10][11]). In particular, subjective noise sensitivity was shown to be a very stable personality trait which is determined both by inheritance and experience [12][13][14][15][16].

In environmental noise surveys, the effect of visual elements such as the view from the window on long-term noise annoyance have been addressed before [17][18][19][20], yet less frequently than other contextual factors. Audiovisual interactions in combination with noise annoyance in and around the dwelling is a multifaceted effect that is not easy to grasp. In experimental work related to urban environments, the congruence between visual and sound information was strongly affecting the appraisal of the sonic environment, in terms of visual influence [20]. Although congruence may also play a role in occurrence of annoyance in and around the dwelling [22], more basic aspects of the audiovisual experience have been suggested, such as visibility of the sound source [22]. Some studies pointed out that seeing the sound source would increase subjective annoyance [24], others found that visually screened traffic was perceived as more noisy [25][26]. In addition, the general quality of the visual setting and more particularly, the visibility of green elements was shown to have

49 a direct influence. Visually attractive and green noise barriers tend to be more efficient in reducing
50 noise annoyance [27]. Recent research [28] has nevertheless confirmed the complexity of the
51 audiovisual interaction: in a lab experiment, adding visual information to a listening experiment
52 tended to reduce annoyance if the sound source was believed to have a positive influence, while
53 annoyance increased for mechanical sound sources.

54 Psychophysical knowledge may help understanding the complex influence of visual information
55 on perceived noise annoyance in and around the dwelling. Prior research has shown that noticing
56 sounds can be regarded as a precursor for noise annoyance [29]. In this view, sounds that attract
57 more attention would more likely cause annoyance. Audiovisual stimuli, which are irrelevant for the
58 tasks a person is involved in, may capture involuntary attention, a process where sensory modalities
59 interact at different levels in the brain [30]. This could lead to an increase in annoyance for visible
60 sources. In addition, individual differences in the capability of focusing attention has recently been
61 shown to affect the cocktail party effect [31]. Distractibility may be a personality trait that can be
62 defined also in the healthy population [32]. Hence, it seems useful to study whether distractibility
63 could be a personal factor affecting the influence of the visual scene on noise annoyance or even the
64 emergence of noise annoyance itself.

65 It should be noted, however, that occasional attention saccades to environmental factors not
66 only cause increased noticing and therefore possible annoyance. Attention restoration theory
67 predicts that such attention switches may enhance restoration and therefore would not be
68 appraised as annoying [33][34]. A better understanding of audiovisual interactions in perception of
69 the environment may lead to better urban planning and soundscape design [35].

70 In this article, an experimental study is described that aims at confirming the hypothesis on the
71 mechanisms underlying the effect of the view from the window on noise annoyance. In addition, the
72 experiment aims at identifying subjective noise sensitivity and distractibility as personal factors
73 influencing this effect. To be able to go beyond questionnaires for assessing personal factors, we
74 opted for a lab study using well controlled stimuli. Assessing noise annoyance in an ecologically valid
75 way in an experimental setup is rather difficult as the main hidden factor under investigation, i.e.
76 non-voluntary attention, is replaced by focused attention in a listening experiment. For this reason,
77 two specific requirements were introduced in the experimental design. Firstly, the exposure time for
78 each stimulus was 10 minutes and participants were instructed to engage in some light activity
79 during the experiment in order not to focus on the sound. Earlier studies [36][37] have shown that
80 this protocol is valid. Secondly, since the target of this study is the effect of the view from the
81 window, direct comparison between different visual stimuli is avoided by showing the visual
82 stimulus in a natural setting, a mockup window, and by presenting the different visual stimuli on
83 different days. The additional distractibility experiment is conducted at the very end not to reveal
84 the focus on visual information.

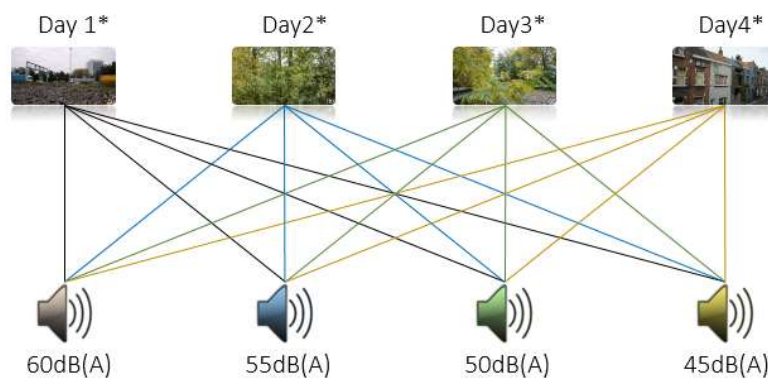
85 2. Methodology

86 2.1 Overview

87 The first part of this study is a road traffic noise annoyance experiment conducted in conditions
88 that should resemble the everyday living context as closely as possible. Participants were exposed to
89 16 audiovisual stimuli (Figure 1) during 4 separate experimental days in the same mockup living
90 room. At each experimental day, the view from the window was fixed and the audio fragments
91 varied. The participants were led to believe this experiment was about rating the perceived
92 annoyance of 16 environmental sound conditions in a living room. Each audiovisual stimulus was
93 played for 10 minutes, in order to give participants enough time to engage in some light activity and
94 to adapt to the living room environment. After the presentation of each audiovisual stimulus, they
95 were asked to rate their perceived noise annoyance during the past 10 minutes on an 11-point scale
96 (from 'Not at all' (0) to 'Very much' (10) annoyed) [38].

110 Since detecting the effects of visual factors on sound perception was the objective of this study,
 111 all other factors were carefully controlled in order to eliminate their impact on sound perception as
 112 much as possible. For example, during each experimental day, participants were asked to sit in the
 113 same seat in the mockup living room, which gave them the same perspective to all scenes. It was
 114 also assured that the room setup, the lighting, and the room ventilation remained unchanged. The
 115 acoustic playback level was controlled by measuring the sound level in the center of the room.
 116 Participants were also asked to refrain from drinking alcohol or unusual amounts of coffee or taking
 117 medical drugs before the experiment. In addition, it was asked not to listen to loud music while
 118 waiting to participate in the experiment.

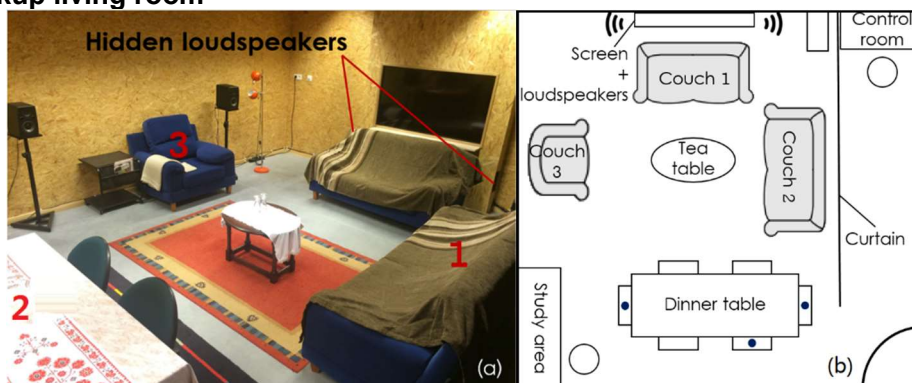
119 The design of the experiment assumes that the auditory memory of participants was erased in
 120 between experimental days. However, there may still be a degree of habituation to the experimental
 121 setup. Therefore the order of presentation of the 4 visual settings during 4 days was randomized
 122 between participants.



110 Figure 1 – 16 audiovisual stimuli (combination of 4 sound fragments and 4 window-view sceneries).
 111 (*The order of experimental days was randomized)

112 The second part of the experiment was only conducted the fourth day, after the regular test was
 113 completed. It consisted of a listening task focused on detecting deviant auditory scenes. This was to
 114 avoid impact on the subsequent days. The second part also included the short version of the noise
 115 sensitivity questionnaire proposed by Weinstein [39].

117 2.2 Mockup living room



118 Figure 2 – Layout of the mockup living room: (a) photograph; (b) schematic drawing (not true to
 119 scale).
 120

121 The mockup living room was arranged as shown in Figure 2. A 60-inch television screen,
 122 projecting window-view videos, was fixed in a specially-made cabinet integrating it in the wall and
 123 making it resemble a window. Two loudspeakers were hidden in the cabinet to make the sound
 124 appear to come from the window.. Note that the loudspeakers visible in Fig.2a were not used in this
 125 experiment. The control room is positioned in the corner, separated from the living room by a large

126 thick curtain. A subwoofer is also positioned next to the control room, which ensures that low
127 frequency sound is reproduced realistically.

128 As shown in Fig.2a, three sitting positions were marked in this room. Participants were suggested
129 only to sit in these preselected seats, which gives them certain perspectives to the mock-up window
130 (obviously, they are not being told that this was the reason).

131 2.3 Audiovisual stimuli

132 2.3.1 Window-view video sceneries

133 The four videos contained a mixture of different natural and man-made landscape elements. Four
134 screenshots of the videos (all taken near the city of Ghent, Belgium) are shown in Figure 3. Scene (a)
135 provides an open view of highway traffic and contains very few green elements; (b) allows vision on
136 some parts of the highway through the woods; (c) contains a totally green visual setting; and (d)
137 shows a row of houses along a non-busy street, hiding a highway from sight. The sound source was
138 completely visible in scenery (a) and partly visible in scenery (b), while in (c) and (d) no sound source
139 was visible. On the other hand, scenery (b) and (c) contained dominant natural elements, whereas
140 scenery (a) and (d) contained mostly man-made elements.

141 Video (a) has been synchronized to the audio, video (b) is not but the highway view is rather
142 limited so that individual – possibly loud – vehicles cannot be detected anyhow. For the last two
143 videos, synchronization is not relevant.



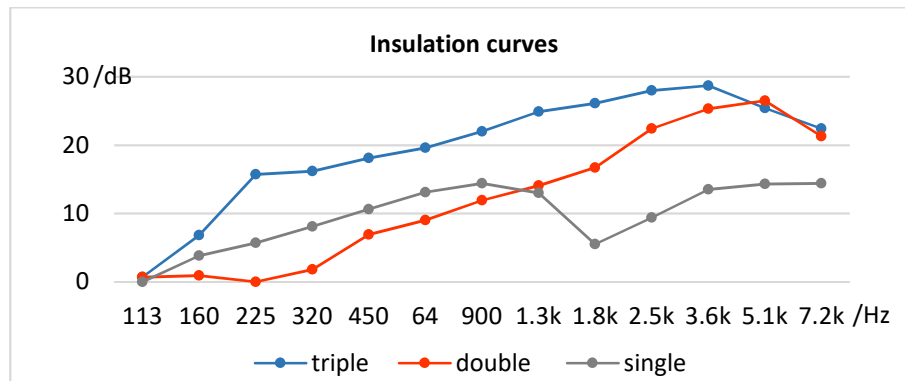
Figure 3 – The four window-view sceneries used in the experiment.

147 2.3.2 Audio fragments

148 Four audio fragments with different sound level are created by simulating the effect of a change
149 in the window's acoustic insulation. The original traffic noise audio fragment was recorded
150 simultaneously with the video recording at the location of scene (a) (see Figure 3) with a B-field
151 microphone, in a four-channel B-format. This audio recording was then transformed into a two-
152 channel format using VVMic (Visual Virtual Microphone) 3.4. Two channels played back near the left
153 and right of the window can still give a sense of movement of individual cars. By playing the sound
154 from the loudspeakers behind the television screen/window, the sound spatialization of a common
155 living room is achieved. This recording will represent the open-window sound exposure for the
156 participants.

157 When presenting audiovisual information to the listener, it is important that the auditory and
158 visual cues on source distance are congruent. Hence we opted for noise mitigation through window
159 insulation to mimic sound level variation in this study, as this would keep the spectro-temporal

160 variation of the traffic sound consistent with the visual distance. In addition, this gave a plausible
 161 reason to the participants why different noise levels had to be evaluated. According to the work of
 162 Tadeu and Mateus [40], three transmission loss curves were selected to represent a (closed) single
 163 glazed, a double glazed and a triple glazed window (specific choices: 'single layer 8mm', 'double 8+4,
 164 d=10mm', 'triple 8+4+4, d1=100, d2=50'). The original audio recording was filtered accordingly using
 165 Sony Soundforge software to mimic the different closed window acoustic insulation spectra as
 166 shown in Figure 4.



167
 168 Figure 4 – Frequency attenuation (insulation curve after calculation).

169 By fixing the volume of the audio card of the playback PC, the media player software and the
 170 amplifier of the loudspeakers, the overall exposure sound level of the original audio fragment is
 171 settled at an equivalent sound pressure level of 60dB(A) (in the center of the room) for the assumed
 172 open window sound exposure. The overall presentation sound level for the single, double, and triple
 173 glazed is reduced towards 55dB(A), 50dB(A) and 45dB(A), respectively, to make sure a clear level
 174 difference would be detected.

175 Participants were told that these sounds correspond to four different window insulations. It is
 176 assumed that this method of presentation ensures that it does not direct a participant's attention to
 177 differences in the view from the window. As the difference between the sounds is in fact not the
 178 main target of the investigation, the above procedure for generating the different sound excerpts
 179 only needs to suggest ecological validity so a more advanced calibration of the room response is not
 180 essential.

181 2.4 Course of the experiment

182 It was already mentioned that the order of presentation of the visual context should be
 183 randomized to avoid bias by habituation to the experimental conditions during the subsequent
 184 sessions. In addition, within one experimental session, the 4 sound environments are also presented
 185 in random order to decrease the bias that might be caused by the previous sound experience. There
 186 are $A_4^4=24$ possibilities for the order of video presentation over the four experiment days, and an
 187 equal number of 24 possibilities for the order of audio fragment presentation during each
 188 experimental day. To prevent large level differences between subsequent tests, the maximum
 189 change in sound level between subsequent fragments was limited to 10 dB(A). This reduced the
 190 number of possible sound presentation orders to 12. The sound order randomization is applied after
 191 the videos have been assigned randomly between experimental days by adhering to the following
 192 rules: each scene should be coupled two times with all 12 sound orders, and over all experiment
 193 days, all four scenes should have a different audio fragment order. This randomization ensures that
 194 all possibilities are covered, and is expected to eliminate any impact of order of presentation on the
 195 results.

196 Participants were told that the experiment is designed to study their disturbance by road traffic
 197 noise in a living room environment. All they had to do was relaxing as if they were in their own living
 198 room. They were allowed to read a book, browse a magazine, have some drinks, play with their

199 phone to some extent, or even chat with the other participants. However, activities that require a
200 high level of concentration, such as bringing work-related documents, was forbidden. This setting (1)
201 is close to real life; and (2) prevents that participants would focus too much on listening to the sound.
202 Note that although activity disturbance may be a cause of annoyance, this experiment was not
203 designed to assess activity disturbance itself. This would require a more stringent task design and a
204 different range of sound exposures.

205 In between the 10-minutes lasting exposures, there was a one minute break, during which every
206 participant was asked a single question: 'Thinking about the last 10 minutes staying in this living
207 room, which number from 0 to 10 best shows how much you were annoyed or not annoyed by the
208 traffic noise?' [38].

209 **2.5 Audiovisual aptitude and noise sensitivity assessment**

210 It is known that the response to a retrospective annoyance question is only partly determined by
211 the equivalent noise level. Individual differences in response have been related to human factors
212 such as gender, age and noise sensitivity. As this research is focusing on the effect of the view from
213 the window on reported noise annoyance, an additional personal factor labeled "audiovisual
214 aptitude" is added. This factor measures how strongly the visual context influences the ability of a
215 person to detect differences in the auditory scene and remember them. Section 3 will elaborate on
216 the possible perceptual and psychological phenomena that could underlay this new factor. To
217 measure "audiovisual aptitude", at the end of the 4th day of the above-described experiment, a
218 second experiment is conducted. It contains four audiovisual scenarios, in which either the audio or
219 visual parts was altered in a subtle way [41]. The experimental design consists of a deviant detection
220 task where three alternatives are presented once for each trial. The deviant has to be detected when
221 only sounds are presented and when sounds are presented in the presence of a visual distractor.
222 This ecologically valid alternative to basic psychological stimuli is intended to investigate whether a
223 person is more vision or audition oriented but also measures its sensitivity to inattentional deafness
224 [42].

225 On the outcome of this experiment, two classification principles are applied: auditory resolution
226 and visual distractibility. Auditory resolution distinguished between persons that make no errors on
227 the blind listening test, i.e. they detect the deviant in each of the four cases. This allows to
228 distinguish the careful listeners with good auditory memory that are able to detect even the smallest
229 change. Visual distractibility distinguishes between the persons that do well on the blind listening
230 test but get misled by the incongruent visual information and make at least one error in deviant
231 detection in this case. In other words this group gets misled by the visual information. Hereby ,two
232 human factors arise: auditory acuity and vision dominance [43]. More information on this
233 experiment can be found in [41].

234 Finally, at the end of the complete experiment, after four days, a more elaborate questionnaire
235 was presented to all participants to collect some personal information and more in-depth questions,
236 including age, gender, education level and noise sensitivity, via a widely-used noise sensitivity survey
237 [39]. In addition, the hearing status of all participants was assessed via pure tone audiometry (PTA)
238 carried out in a quiet but not sound-proof room using a regularly calibrated AC5Clinical Computer
239 Audiometer.

240 **3. Results and Analysis**

241 **3.1 Participants**

242 In total 75 participants conducted this experiment, 6 of them were excluded from the final
243 dataset due to either bad hearing (based on a pure tone audiometric test performed on the 4th day),
244 or not completing the full experiment. Basic demographic information is listed in Table1.

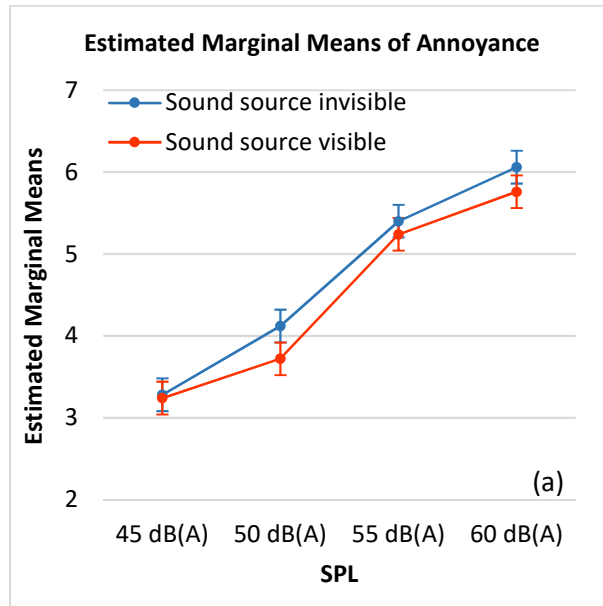
245 Table 1 – Basic information of 69 participants.

Factors	Categories	Number	Percentage/%
Gender	Female	28	40.6
	Male	41	59.4
Age*	Junior(20~27yrs)	37	53.6
	Senior(28~46yrs)	32	46.4
Education	Below M.S	20	29
	Above M.S	49	71

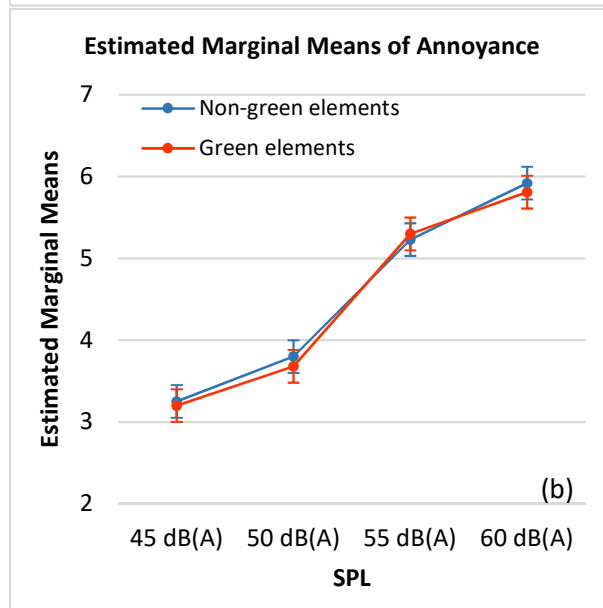
246 *The age variation of participants is from 20 to 46 yrs. The average value is 27.9 and the median
 247 value is 27.

248 **3.2 Visual factors**

249 As described in Section 1.2.1, the content of four window-views can be sorted based on two
 250 features: the visibility of sound source and the presence of green elements. In Figure 3, (b) and (c)
 251 contain dominating green elements, while (a) and (d) do not. On the other hand, in (a) and (b), the
 252 sound source (highway traffic) is visible, while in (c) and (d), it is not. Figure 5 indicates the
 253 difference of estimated marginal means of annoyance based on these two features.



254



255

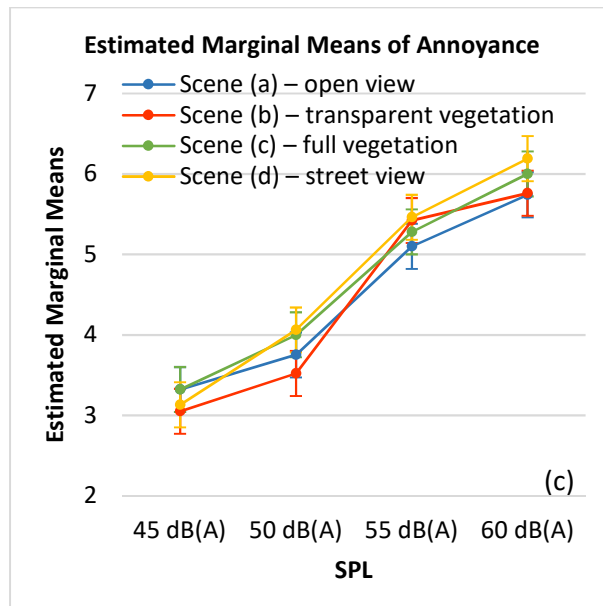


Figure 5 – The annoyance difference of (a) visibility of sound source, (b) visibility of green elements and (c) four window-view scenes. (The error bars represent the standard errors on the averages: +/- 1SE)

As shown in Fig.5a, average reported noise annoyance increases strongly with the noise level, including the change in spectrum caused by the window insulation. It should be noted that different sound environments were presented during the same day and thus a direct comparison was possible. When looking at the influence of the window view, participants tend to be less annoyed when the sound source was visible (scenery (a) and (b)). Meanwhile, there is also a larger jump between low SPL and high SPL in this category (red line in Fig.5a). When the sound source is visible, people's annoyance tends to be divided into two stages for either low and high levels. At both the low and high levels, the annoyance increases with SPL are not as fast as when the sound source is invisible. Nevertheless, the annoyance-SPL regression tends to be more linear when the sound source is invisible. Visible green elements do not seem to have a large influence (Fig.5b) in this overall analysis.

As all experimental conditions have been assessed by each participant in the study, and personal factors are assumed to have a significant effect on the self-reported annoyance rating, two level statistics treating person as a random variable is appropriate. The different sound environments are characterized by their A-weighted sound level, but also differ in spectral characteristics. Therefore, SPL is treated as an ordinal variable for the exposure condition rather than as a continuous variable.

A mixed factor generalized linear model fit is applied, using participant as a random factor to generalize these results. This model considers only the sound (SPL) and the visual factor(s). For visual factor(s), it is tested with only the 4 views (sceneries) or with green elements visibility and sound source visibility as a descriptor of the window view. Besides, it is also tested to add the interaction between the sound and the visual factor(s) and to remove the insignificant factor(s). The best model (with the lowest information criterion) from the above-mentioned ones is listed in Table 2. The effect of sound source visibility on reported noise annoyance is statistically significant while the visibility of green elements is not. Also, none of the interactions between sound and visual factor(s) has statistical significance. However, as shown in Fig.5a, the relatively small difference between lines and the overlapping of standard error bars suggests that the significance of sound source visibility will be less pronounced as stronger factors get involved in the model.

Table 2 – Generalized linear model 1.

Fixed Effects	Target: Annoyance
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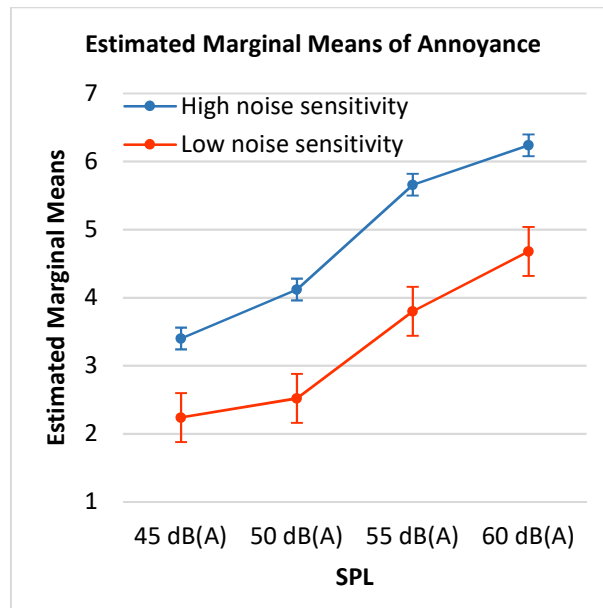
Source	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Intercept	178.129	4	1.099	.000
Sound source	7.493	1	1.099	.006
SPL	235.008	3	1.099	.000

*'Participant' is used as random factor.

287

288 **3.3 Human factors**

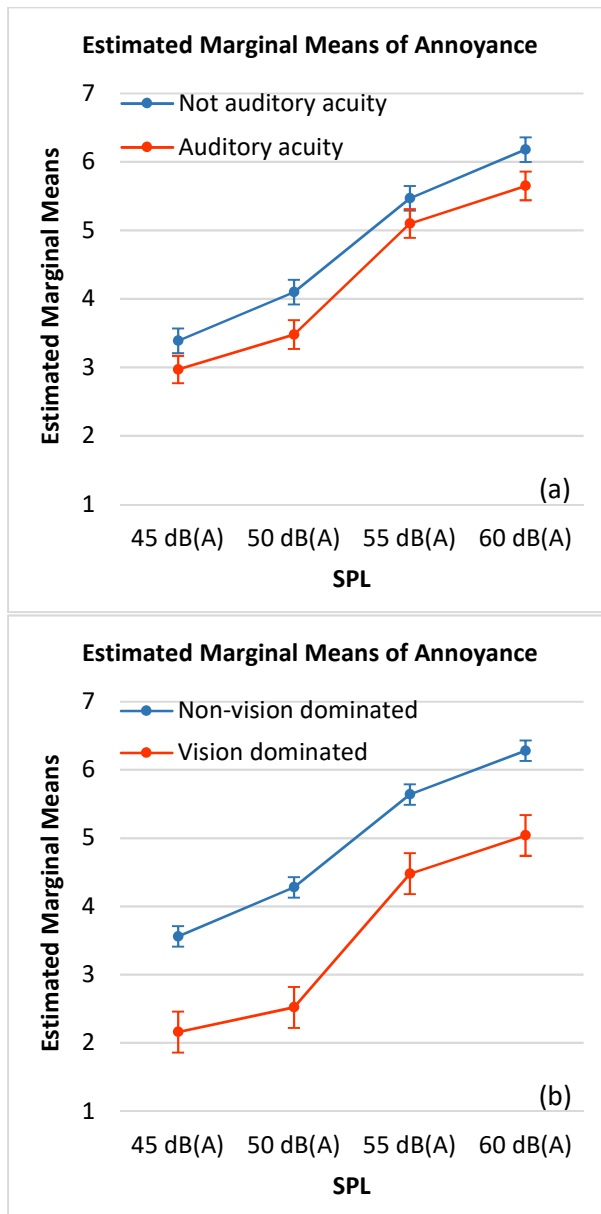
289 A frequently mentioned personal factor, noise sensitivity, is investigated in this study. The post-
 290 processing divided participants into two groups based on the neutral score, i.e. choosing the neutral
 291 answer for each single question in Weinstein’s questionnaire [48]. In total, 57 participants obtained
 292 a score higher than the neutral score, which leads them to be marked as being highly sensitive to
 293 noise, whereas all others are categorized as having low noise sensitivity. As shown in Figure 6,
 294 people with high sensitivity are clearly much more annoyed than people with low sensitivity.



295

296 Figure 6 – Dependence of reported noise annoyance on exposure for different sensitivity categories.
 297 (The error bars represent standard errors on the averages: +/- 1SE)

298 As mentioned in Section 1.4, participants are clustered according to their audiovisual aptitude
 299 along two dimensions: auditory acuity and being vision dominated. Fig.7a shows that participants
 300 with good auditory acuity (30 participants) are less annoyed than others. The second factor selects
 301 the group labeled vision dominated (13 participants). They have good auditory acuity but are easily
 302 distracted by incongruent visual stimuli. These vision dominated participants are notably less
 303 annoyed than the other 56 participants, as shown in Fig.7b.



304

305

306 Figure 7 – Reported noise annoyance as a function of exposure differentiated according to (a)
 307 auditory acuity and (b) being vision dominated.

308 (The error bars represent standard errors on the averages: +/- 1SE)

309 To test the significance of these human factors, a generalized linear model focusing on the
 310 human factors is constructed. Still, participant is used as a random factor to generalize the current
 311 results. For visual factor(s) in this model, it is tested with only the 4 views (sceneries) or with green
 312 elements visibility and sound source visibility. Similar to model 1, it is also tested to remove the
 313 insignificant factors. The best model (with the lowest information criterion) is shown in Table 3. As
 314 can be seen, sensitivity and being vision dominated are statistically significant whereas auditory
 315 acuity is not. This indicates (1) the importance of noise sensitivity as a human factor; (2) the
 316 limitation of auditory acuity by purely focusing on auditory resolution; and (3) the potential
 317 influence of being vision dominated on perception.

318

Table 3 – Generalized linear model 2.

Fixed Effects Source	Target: Annoyance			
	F	df1	df2	Sig.

Intercept	66.779	11	1.091	.000
Gender	2.374	1	1.091	.124
Education level	0.901	1	1.091	.343
Age	2.791	1	1.091	.095
Sensitivity	5.803	1	1.091	.016
Auditory acuity	0.019	1	1.091	.889
Vision dominated	4.021	1	1.091	.045
SPL	234.860	3	1.091	.000
Green	0.349	1	1.091	.555
Sound source	7.488	1	1.091	.006

*'Participant' is used as random factor.

319

320 3.4 Interaction between personal factors and window view

321 In the generalized linear models derived above (Table 2 and Table 3), personal factors and
 322 window view are treated as independent factors. The goal of this study is nevertheless to detect the
 323 personal factors that can affect the influence of window view on perceived noise annoyance.
 324 Therefore, a generalized linear model is fitted that includes interactions, especially interactions
 325 between above mentioned human factors and visual factors.

326 Table 4 shows all the variables mentioned in this study. Individually, many of them showed
 327 statistical significance in models for noise annoyance. However, since more variables are involved,
 328 some of them are no longer statistically significant due to the strong effect of the interactions. In the
 329 human factors category, sensitivity and being vision dominated remain influential factors. On the
 330 other hand, descriptors of the view from the window are no longer statistically significant.

331

Table 4 – Generalized linear model 3.

Fixed Effects	Target: Annoyance			
	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Intercept	50.283	15	1.087	.000
Gender	2.438	1	1.087	.119
Education level	0.925	1	1.087	.336
Age	2.866	1	1.087	.091
Sensitivity	5.960	1	1.087	.015
Auditory acuity	0.020	1	1.087	.888
Vision dominated	4.129	1	1.087	.042
SPL	236.894	3	1.087	.000
Green	2.254	1	1.087	.134
Sound source	0.352	1	1.087	.553
Sensitivity*Green	1.610	1	1.087	.205
Sensitivity*Sound source	5.941	1	1.087	.015
Vision dominated *Green	4.894	1	1.087	.027
Vision dominated *Sound source	0.098	1	1.087	.754

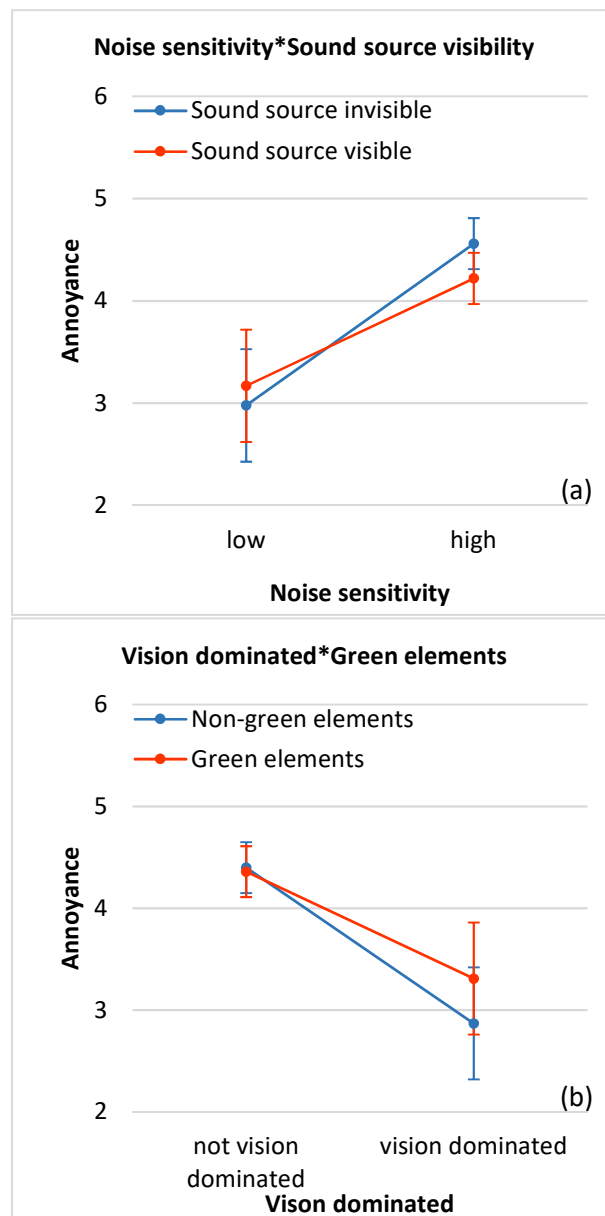
*'Participant' is used as random factor.

332

333 The results also involve the interaction between visual factors and two human factors: sensitivity
 334 and being vision dominated, which remain statistical significant in the model with interactions. Two
 335 out of the four interactions are statistically significant in model 3. The first one is the interaction

336 between noise sensitivity and sound source visibility (Fig.8a). This interaction supports two
337 observations: (1) The dependence of noise annoyance on noise sensitivity increases when the sound
338 source is not visible; (2) For noise sensitive people, sound source visibility decreases annoyance
339 while for noise insensitive people sound source visibility slightly increases annoyance.

340 The second statistically significant interaction is the one between being vision dominated and
341 green element visibility (Fig.8b). In this study, the visibility of green elements in the window view
342 averaged over all participants does not have a statistically significant influence on reported noise
343 annoyance. For vision dominated persons the visibility of green elements increases noise annoyance.
344 For the remainder of the participants, there is nearly no effect of visibility of green elements in the
345 window view.



346

347

348 Figure 8 – The interaction between (a) sensitivity and sound source visibility and (b) being vision
349 dominated and green elements visibility.

350 (The error bars represent the standard errors on the averages: +/- 1SE)

351 **4. Discussion**

352 A laboratory experiment was designed to increase our understanding of the mechanisms
 353 governing the effect of the window view on perceived noise annoyance. In particular, the
 354 experiment aimed at uncovering effects that may occur during processing of audiovisual stimuli.
 355 With these goals in mind, the experiment was designed to minimize influences of reasoning and
 356 general context setting by the visual elements. Thus, the aim was to avoid that test participants
 357 would consider living in a higher quality neighborhood based on the view from the window.
 358 Amongst others, the views were therefore chosen not to be particularly attractive gardens or
 359 landscapes. As preceding experience and the duration of the tests may influence the annoyance
 360 response, auditory stimuli were presented in random order during one test day and visual context
 361 was changed in random order between experimental days. The large number of possibilities
 362 combined with a limited number of participants resulted in the fact that some particular orders were
 363 presented to a single participant only. An ANOVA test checking the influence of stimuli orders
 364 showed no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) effect. Therefore, this randomization of the presentation
 365 order was shown to have no effect.

366 This study derived three generalized linear models, considering visual factors, human factors and
 367 interactions in addition to sound as independent variables. The information criterion indicators,
 368 estimators of the relative quality of statistical models, of these three models are shown in Table 5. A
 369 lower information criterion value indicates a better quality of the model. The first model introduces
 370 information on the view from the window. Model 2 shows that adding personal information
 371 improves the predictability of reported noise annoyance. Finally, model 3 emphasizes that the
 372 interaction between these personal factors and the view from the window might explain the
 373 inconsistent evidence of the impact of window view on reported noise annoyance.

374 Table 5 – Comparison between three generalized linear models

		Model 0 (sound only)	Model 1 (visual factors)	Model 2 (person factors)	Model 3 (person-visual interaction)
Information Criterion*	Akaike Corrected	4088	4083	4036	4028
	Bayesian	4103	4098	4051	4043

* Models with smaller information criterion values fit better.

375

376 Concerning the direct impact of view from the window (model 1), it was shown that adding the
 377 four views separately did not result in any improvement of the model in terms of Akaike information
 378 criterion (AIC) or Bayesian information criterion (BIC). Entering the presence of green and the
 379 visibility of the source as separate variables resulted in a slight improvement, but only the visibility
 380 of the source had an effect. Moreover, adding interaction effects between sound level and window
 381 view, which might have been expected on the basis of Figure 5, did not improve the model. Table 2
 382 shows that sound source visibility has statistical significance and thereby confirms previous
 383 audiovisual experiments [28]. Figure 5a further shows that people tend to be less annoyed when the
 384 sound source is visible. However, some early research on sound source visibility [24] pointed out
 385 that hiding the sound source from sight would reduce annoyance for students in a classroom setting.
 386 The current finding is consistent with more recent research [43] putting forward the hypothesis that
 387 people tend to be more anxious when a moving sound source cannot be seen. Expectation and
 388 attention focusing could be a potential explanation for these – at first sight – contradictory findings.
 389 In a situation with a sound-irrelevant task requiring high concentration, like for instance following
 390 courses in a classroom, the noise distracts attention from the primary task and is against people's
 391 expectations; adding congruent visual information will increase audiovisual saliency and will worsen
 392 this situation. In situations where people's attention is mainly led by the noise – as in the current

393 experiment – introducing visual information matches people’s expectation and therefore could
394 slightly lower annoyance.

395 Another conclusion that can be drawn from model 1 is the limited importance of visible green
396 elements (Fig.5b). Yet, visible green typically tends to be positive in many soundscape studies
397 [18][45]. Van Renterghem and Botteldooren [17] pointed out that a green window view significantly
398 reduces self-reported noise annoyance at home, and this effect becomes stronger with an increasing
399 percentage of green elements in the window plane. In real-life settings, a green window view does
400 not only stand on itself, but also delivers information on the general quality of neighborhood or the
401 presence of appealing green areas nearby, both factors that were shown to influence reported noise
402 annoyance. This study, however, was designed not to contain such information, as it is conducted in
403 an underground lab with artificial outside view, and the chosen views accounts for the limited space
404 between the window and a highway. The green scenes in this study essentially hide the source and
405 do not suggest the presence of a park or green area.

406 Among the human factors introduced in model 2, noise sensitivity has a strong impact, consistent
407 with many studies using the same method of measuring self-reported sensitivity [46]. More
408 importantly, the refined assessment of individual audiovisual aptitude gives strong proof of the
409 visual distraction hypothesis. Vision dominated individuals tend to be less annoyed at the same
410 noise level (Figure 7). The personal factor being vision dominated has a high significance in model 2.
411 A small effect of auditory acuity is also seen in Figure 7, but this effect does not statistically
412 significantly contribute to model 2. It is interesting to note that other personal factors like gender,
413 age or education level do not statistically significantly contribute to the model. The effect of these
414 factors may be captured by noise sensitivity and being vision dominated. Additionally, the result also
415 indicates that the methodology of determining these two factors, through audiovisual aptitude
416 investigation, is reliable.

417 The model with interactions (model 3, Table 4) gives a balanced view on the influence of visual
418 factors, expectations and congruence of audio and visual information. The model improvement
419 caused by adding the interactions exceeds the improvement by adding information on window view
420 without taking personal factors into account. Two interactions are observed. The first statistically
421 significant interaction is between sound source visibility and noise sensitivity (Fig.8a). This
422 interaction indicates, on the one hand, that highly noise sensitive people are notably more annoyed
423 when the sound source is invisible. Scenarios with invisible sound sources do not match the
424 soundscape and this may give highly noise sensitive persons a feeling of insecurity, intensifying noise
425 annoyance. On the other hand, people with low noise sensitivity are less likely to notice the
426 environmental noise. Visible noise sources increase the probability that these persons notice the
427 traffic sound and get annoyed by it. People implicitly express their general attitude towards noise by
428 their sensitivity. High noise sensitivity may also indicate more awareness of the environment in
429 general. They expect the visual to match the audio information. Hence, when the sound source is
430 visible, the satisfaction of getting their expectations fulfilled would decrease annoyance by noise.
431 Finally, it can be noted that this observation also matches the discussion in the previous paragraphs
432 stating that the effect of visibility of the source may depend on the context, where visibility of the
433 source reduces annoyance in a context that stimulates listening. Noise sensitive persons are more
434 likely to be listening.

435 The second significant interaction is between vision domination and green element visibility
436 (Fig.8b). For non-vision dominated persons, the presence of green in the visual scene does not affect
437 their annoyance rating. Vision dominated persons, however, report higher annoyance when the
438 window view contains the almost impervious green elements as used in the current research. This
439 may imply that these persons are shaping their expectations based on the visual scene rather than
440 to rate noise annoyance based on the noise alone. Interestingly, experimental results involving
441 incongruence of visual and audio information are the direct reasons for these people to be identified

442 as being vision dominated, as described in section 1.4. Furthermore, the larger difference caused by
443 green elements visibility in vision dominated people shows their greater concern about the visual
444 information, compared to non-vision dominated people.

445 Audiovisual aptitude, the new factor that was shown in these experiments to explain at least
446 partly the variance in effects of window view on self-reported noise annoyance, is a feature that is
447 orthogonal to noise sensitivity. This could be shown by the lack of correlation between these two
448 factors. However, there is also a clear underlying reason for this. According to Soames Job [47], noise
449 sensitivity includes factors such as “level of physiological reactivity to stimulation generally; hearing
450 acuity; attitudes to noise in general; beliefs about harmful effects of noise in general; vulnerability
451 caused by stressors other than noise; level of social support and other available coping mechanisms.”
452 It is thus a much wider concept than audiovisual aptitude that measures a person’s sensory
453 capability of perceiving increasingly subtle elements of the soundscape. Though annoyance is an
454 outcome of many combined mechanisms, the inner willingness to perceive and pay attention to the
455 soundscape seems relatively more important than the capability. The reader should however bear in
456 mind that the similarity between rating scales for sensitivity and annoyance could also reveal an
457 underlying similarity in rating behavior, which is not present in the deviant detection test used to
458 rate audiovisual aptitude.

459 5. Conclusion

460 In this study an ecologically valid experiment was performed in which a series of audiovisual
461 stimuli were presented in a mock-up living room with the goal to create a better understanding of
462 the influence of window view on reported noise annoyance. Regarding visual factors, sound source
463 visibility was shown to have more impact than green element visibility on self-reported annoyance.
464 Regarding human factors, noise sensitivity was found to have the strongest statistical significant
465 effect on annoyance. A specially designed audiovisual aptitude assessment exposed two reliable
466 human factors, which were shown to explain the large variation in effects of window view on noise
467 annoyance. The results of the experiment validate hypotheses on the role of expectations and multi-
468 sensory attention in perception and appraisal of the sound environment.

469 Although the noise itself obviously is the dominating factor in the emergence of noise annoyance,
470 it only explains a limited part of the variance. Hence, it is essential to study other factors involved
471 which have the potential for becoming noise mitigation measures. Visibility of the source and a
472 green window view have been mentioned as environmental modifiers of the noise exposure
473 annoyance relationship, yet evidence has been inconclusive. In the present noise annoyance
474 experiment, it was found that the effect of being a vision dominated listener is almost as significant
475 as the effect of noise sensitivity – a known stable personality trait – but more importantly, this
476 personal factor interacts with visual factors. This factor should therefore be considered in future
477 investigations.

478 A number of limiting factors can be identified with the design of the current experiment. E.g.
479 participants were asked to participate on 4 separate days, with the goal to erase their auditory
480 memory. Still, it is impossible to assure that participants are in the same mood on each of the
481 experimental days. Since this study is on audiovisual perception, one can expect that the mental
482 status and mood of the participants has an effect on the results. Next to this, human factors and
483 visual factors are investigated in this study, yet the acoustical properties of the stimuli are only
484 described in terms of sound pressure level. In many sound quality studies, it has been shown that
485 other features such as frequency and temporal content, sharpness and loudness also change
486 people’s preference towards sounds. However, in this study, the precise psychoacoustical
487 characteristics of the sounds were not the essential targets, as the main goal was to study
488 audiovisual interaction.

489 The visual factors, personal factors and interactions identified in this work help to understand the
490 mechanisms underlying the emergence of noise annoyance. The audiovisual aptitude factor that was
491 introduced in this study could be applied in audiovisual studies as an extended personal factor next
492 to noise sensitivity. The experiment used for assessing audiovisual aptitude is not easily transferrable
493 to field interviews and may benefit from being replaced by more suitable tests or questionnaires for
494 this purpose. The interactions also may have consequences on the design of acoustic and visual
495 elements in urban soundscapes. For this, audiovisual aptitude should be related to demographic
496 variables, lifestyle, and context to allow to identify the most vulnerable groups. Two practical
497 implications of recognizing the existence of a personal factor that affects the influence of visual
498 setting on noise annoyance could be identified. Firstly, it constitutes a warning that noise annoyance
499 mitigation that would be based on changing visual context may not work for all subpopulations (with
500 different audiovisual aptitude) in the same way. Secondly, urban sound planners may opt for a worst
501 case approach that leads to acceptable perception of the living environment also for the most noise
502 sensitive people and those that are not vision dominated.

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506 **Reference**

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