On Spatial Aliasing in Microphone Arrays
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Abstract—Microphone arrays sample the sound field in both space and time with the major objective being the extraction of the signal propagating from a desired direction-of-arrival (DOA). In order to reconstruct a spatial sinusoid from a set of discrete samples, the spatial sampling must occur at a rate greater than a half of the wavelength of the sinusoid. This principle has long been adapted to the microphone array context: in order to form an unambiguous beampattern, the spacing between elements in a microphone array needs to conform to this spatial Nyquist criterion. The implicit assumption behind the narrowband beampattern is that one may use linearity and Fourier analysis to describe the response of the array to an arbitrary wideband plane wave. In this paper, this assumption is analyzed. A formula for the broadband beampattern is derived. It is shown that in order to quantify the spatial filtering abilities of a broadband array, the incoming signal’s bifrequency spectrum must be taken into account, particularly for nonstationary signals such as speech. Multi-dimensional Fourier analysis is then employed to derive the broadband spatial transform, which is shown to be the limiting case of the broadband beampattern as the number of sensors tends to infinity. The conditions for aliasing in broadband arrays are then determined by analyzing the effect of computing the broadband spatial transform with a discrete spatial aperture. It is revealed that the spatial Nyquist criterion has little importance for microphone arrays. Finally, simulation results show that the well-known steered response power (SRP) method is formulated with respect to stationary signals, and that modifications are necessary to properly form steered beams in nonstationary signal environments.

Index Terms—Beamforming, broadband beampattern, microphone arrays, spatial aliasing, spatial sampling, wavenumber-frequency spectrum.

I. INTRODUCTION

SIGNAL processing is ultimately about the collection of data from the physical world for the sake of extracting relevant information about the processes which brought about the measured signals. Multiple sensors are commonly employed in order to enhance this extraction process through the spatial diversity provided by sensors at different spatial locations. Array signal processing [1] techniques intelligently combine the outputs of the various sensors in a process, termed beamforming, aimed at cleaning the received signals from the contaminating interference and noise.

This paper is about broadband arrays: sensor arrays which are designed to pick up temporally broadband signals. To date, there are two main applications of such arrays: antenna arrays which capture broadband wireless signals, and microphone arrays which sample naturally broadband sounds. While the former is certainly an active research area, this paper focuses on microphone arrays for several reasons. First of all, the capture of sound nicely illustrates the concepts of broadband array processing. Second, the microphone array environment is much harsher due to the analog nature of the signal and the long reverberation times of common enclosures. As a result, microphone arrays exhibit relatively poor performance in real environments [2].

The classical theory of beamforming dates back to the mid-to-late twentieth century, with the most prominent advances found in [3]–[5]; good overviews of the area are provided by [6] and [7]. Microphone arrays emerged somewhat later, with early and notable works found in [8]–[13].

Much like temporal signals are decomposed into a linear combination of sinusoids via Fourier analysis, space–time fields may be decomposed into an infinite summation of monochromatic plane waves—the energy of each component monochromatic wave is focused at a single temporal frequency. The fundamental premise here is that by characterizing the response of a space–time filter (i.e., a beamformer) to a particular monochromatic signal, one may use the linearity of the space–time Fourier transform to characterize the response of the array to a general broadband signal. One example of the application of this principle occurs with spatial aliasing [1]: in order to reconstruct a monochromatic signal from a set of spatial samples (i.e., with uniform sampling occurring along one spatial dimension), the sampling period must be equal to less than half of the wavelength corresponding to the monochromatic wave. The theory of spatial aliasing pertaining to monochromatic signals is well covered in [1].

Microphone signals are naturally broadband, and as a result, the spatial sampling theorem requires careful thought in this context. Most treatments covering spatial aliasing in microphone arrays work within the monochromatic framework; refer to [14] and [15], for example. The implication here is that in order to prevent spatial aliasing, one should sample at half of the wavelength corresponding to the smallest wavelength (or highest temporal frequency) of interest.

The resulting arrays are very limited in spatial extent—for example, a two-element array should be spaced only 4.25 cm to prevent aliasing for up to 4 kHz—clearly, spatial aliasing is somewhat of a misunderstood phenomenon, since the human binaural auditory system does not experience problems localizing broadband sounds with an average spacing of 20 cm (corresponding to aliasing above 850 Hz!). Indeed, the most reliable cues used by humans for localization of sounds are the interaural.
time difference (ITD) and interaural intensity difference (IID). It is well known that our auditory system, with ITD only, is unable to localize a pure tone when its frequency is about 800 Hz and above [16]. This is due to the classical spatial sampling theorem. However, many experiments show that with more “complex” signals (such as speech or sounds that cover a reasonable frequency range), our auditory system is able to remarkably resolve the phase ambiguity and localize quite precisely with ITD only [16]. Motivated by these fundamental observations, in the following, the meaning of spatial aliasing when operating a broadband array is examined.

This paper is structured as follows. In Section II, a definition of the broadband beam pattern is derived, and an example employing the uniform linear array (ULA) is provided. Section III develops the aliasing conditions for broadband arrays with the help of wavenumber-frequency analysis. Theoretical broadband beam patterns for signals of varying bandwidth are shown in Section IV. To verify the proposed claims, simulation results are presented in V. Finally, concluding remarks are made in Section VI.

II. BROADBAND BEAMPATTERN AND BROADBAND STEERED RESPONSE POWER

Microphone arrays are targeted towards the capture, enhancement, and localization of speech [17]. Moreover, speech is widely recognized as a nonstationary random process [18]. In this section, a definition of the broadband beam pattern which takes into account the nonstationary nature of speech is presented. It will be shown that a frequency-domain statistic termed the “bifrequency spectrum” plays a key role in this definition. Before providing the definition, some mathematical preliminaries required for the spectral characterization of nonstationary random processes are given.

A. Bifrequency Spectrum

The notion of the bifrequency spectrum is relatively unknown in the microphone-array research community. A rigorous definition of the bifrequency spectrum requires the understanding of several related ideas. This section begins by defining the concept of a harmonizable covariance function, and subsequently, a harmonizable stochastic process.

A covariance function \( R_{xx}(t_1, t_2) = E\{x(t_1)x^*(t_2)\} \) is termed harmonizable if there exists a frequency-domain, complex-valued covariance function \( \gamma(f_1, f_2) \) defined on \( \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \) such that [19], [20]

\[
R_{xx}(t_1, t_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j2\pi(f_1t_1-f_2t_2)} df_1 df_2 \gamma(f_1, f_2)
\]

(1)

where the integral is recognized as the Fourier–Stieltjes transform [21], \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \) denote time instants, \( f_1 \) and \( f_2 \) denote temporal frequencies, and \( \gamma^2 = -1 \). This integral may also be interpreted in the Lebesgue [22] sense, in which case \( \gamma(f_1, f_2) \) corresponds to a complex-valued measure.

A second-order random process \( x(t) \) is said to be (strongly) harmonizable if we can write it as the Fourier–Stieltjes transform of a second-order process \( \xi(f) \) whose covariance function is given by

\[
E \{ \xi(f_1)\xi^*(f_2) \} = \gamma(f_1, f_2)\]

[19], [20], [23]

\[
x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j2\pi f t} d\xi(f),
\]

(2)

with probability one, where \( f \) denotes temporal frequency, \( t \) denotes time, and \( \xi(f) \) may be viewed as a complex-valued random measure. Equation (2) expresses a stochastic process as a summation of infinitely many randomly and infinitesimally weighted complex exponentials, in a manner analogous to how the standard Fourier transform expresses a deterministic function as a superposition of weighted complex exponentials.

The Loève bifrequency spectrum, also referred to as the bifrequency spectral correlation function, generalized spectrum, and cointensity spectrum is formally defined as

\[
S_{xx}(f_1, f_2) = E \{ X(f_1)X^*(f_2) \}
\]

(3)

where * denotes complex conjugation and

\[
X(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt
\]

(4)

is the Fourier transform of \( x(t) \) which is assumed to exist in the sense of distributions [24], [25] for almost all realizations of the process \( x(t) \).

The following relations between the quantities (1)–(4) hold in the sense of distributions [19], [24]–[26]:

\[
d\xi(f) = X(f) df
\]

(5)

\[
d\gamma(f_1, f_2) = E \{ d\xi(f_1)d\xi^*(f_2) \}
\]

\[
= S_{xx}(f_1, f_2) df_1 df_2.
\]

(6)

Mathematical rigor aside, it is important to relate the notion of the bifrequency spectrum to the nonstationarity of a random process. For wide-sense stationary (WSS) processes, the bifrequency spectrum reduces to

\[
S_{xx}(f_1, f_2) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
S_{xx}(f) & f_1 = f_2 = f \\
0 & f_1 \neq f_2
\end{array} \right.
\]

(7)

where \( S_{xx}(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_{xx}(\tau)e^{-j2\pi f \tau} d\tau \) is the power spectral density (PSD) or equivalently, the Fourier transform of the autocorrelation function \( R_{xx}(\tau) = E \{ x(t)x(t+\tau) \} \) of a WSS process \( x(t) \). Thus, for stationary random processes, two distinct Fourier coefficients are statistically uncorrelated. However, for nonstationary random processes, the bifrequency spectrum will exhibit nonzero correlations along so-called support curves [19], [20], [27] other than the main diagonal \( f_1 = f_2 \). Thus, one way of detecting nonstationarity of a random process is to detect the presence of interfrequency correlations—refer to [19] and the references therein.

Finally, the bifrequency spectrum possesses a normalized variant termed the spectral coherence [20]

\[
C_{xx}(f_1, f_2) = \frac{S_{xx}(f_1, f_2)}{S_{xx}^{1/2}(f_1)S_{xx}^{1/2}(f_2)}
\]

(8)

which is upper-bounded in magnitude by 1 due to the Schwarz inequality.
B. Broadband Beampattern

The source signal is modeled as a wideband and harmonizable (potentially nonstationary) random process. Consider a discrete aperture consisting of an array of N sensors that sample the wave field in space and time. Assume that a plane wave impinges on the array from direction $\theta_0$, where it is assumed that the source lies on the same plane as the array. The plane wave is assumed to be a broadband signal such that the response to this signal characterizes the “broadband beampattern” of the array. The output of the nth sensor at time t is modeled as

$$x_n(t) = s[t - \tau_n(\theta_0)], \quad n = 1, 2, \ldots, N$$

(9)

where $x_n(t)$ is the output of sensor n at time t, $s(t)$ is the harmonizable process characterizing the source signal, $\tau_n(\theta_0)$ is the propagation time from the source to sensor n, and $\theta_0$ is the DOA of the source. It should be pointed out that noise is neglected as it is irrelevant in the characterization of the beampattern, and that $x_n(t)$ is also a harmonizable nonstationary process. Invoking (4), we may express (9) in the frequency domain as

$$X_n(f, \theta_0) = S(f)d_n(f, \theta_0), \quad n = 1, 2, \ldots, N$$

(10)

where

$$d_n(f, \theta_0) = e^{-j2\pi f \tau_n(\theta_0)}.$$  

A beamformer steered to a DOA $\theta$ applies a complex weight to each sensor and then sums across the aperture to form the beamformer output

$$Z(f, \theta) = w^H(f, \theta)\mathbf{x}(f, \theta_0)$$

$$= S(f)w^H(f, \theta)d(f, \theta_0),$$

(11)

where $Z(f, \theta)$ is the beamformer output at frequency $f$, $w^H$ denotes the conjugate transpose of a matrix or vector,

$$w(f, \theta) = [W_1(f, \theta) \quad W_2(f, \theta) \quad \ldots \quad W_N(f, \theta)]^T$$

is the vector of beamforming weights applied at frequency $f$, $X$ denotes the transpose of a matrix or vector,

$$\mathbf{x}(f, \theta_0) = [X_1(f, \theta_0) \quad X_2(f, \theta_0) \quad \ldots \quad X_N(f, \theta_0)]^T$$

and

$$d(f, \theta_0) = [d_1(f, \theta_0) \quad d_2(f, \theta_0) \quad \ldots \quad d_N(f, \theta_0)]^T$$

termed the steering vector.

The PSD of the beamformer output follows as

$$S_{zz}(f, \theta) = E\left\{Z(f, \theta)Z^*(f, \theta)\right\}$$

$$= S_{ss}(f)w^H(f, \theta)d(f, \theta_0)^2$$

(12)

where $S_{ss}(f) = E\left\{S(f)S^*(f)\right\}$ is the PSD of the source and the quantity $w^H(f, \theta)d(f, \theta_0)^2$ is referred to as the narrowband beampattern when $w(f, \theta)$ is fixed and the independent variable is $\theta_0$. Conversely, if we fix $d(f, \theta_0)$, then $w^H(f, \theta)d(f, \theta_0)^2$ is termed the steered response pattern which is plotted as a function of the steered DOA $\theta$.

In the time domain, the beamformer output is written as

$$z(t, \theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Z(f, \theta)e^{j2\pi ft}df$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(f)w^H(f, \theta)d(f, \theta_0)e^{j2\pi ft}df.$$  

(13)

One would like to quantify the average energy of the incoming wavefield as a function of the DOA. To that end, the instantaneous power of the beamformer output is

$$E\left\{z^2(t, \theta)\right\} = E\left\{\left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Z(f, \theta)e^{j2\pi ft}df\right)^2\right\}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w^H(f_1, \theta)d(f_1, \theta_0)d^H(f_2, \theta_0)w(f_2, \theta)S_{ss}(f_1, f_2)e^{j2\pi(f_1 - f_2)t}df_1df_2.$$  

(14)

The quantity in (14) refers to the broadband steered pattern of the array, where it is assumed that $\theta_0$ is fixed and the independent variable is the steered angle $\theta$. For a characterization of the broadband beampattern, we simply fix $\theta$ and vary $\theta_0$ with the broadband beampattern still denoted by $E\left\{z^2(t, \theta)\right\}$ but this time being a function of $\theta_0$. For a conventional (delay-and-sum) beamformer, the two are equivalent, and thus, throughout this paper, we use the terms interchangeably when referring to (14). When the quantity $E\left\{z^2(t, \theta)\right\}$ refers to the broadband beampattern (i.e., $\theta$ is fixed but $\theta_0$ varies), it characterizes beamforming abilities; on the other hand, DOA estimation abilities are captured by $E\left\{z^2(t, \theta)\right\}$ when viewed as the broadband steered pattern (i.e., $\theta$ varies but $\theta_0$ is fixed).

It can be seen that aside from the steering vector, in order to define the array’s broadband beampattern, the incoming signal’s bifrequency spectrum needs to be specified. For a WSS source signal, the broadband beampattern reduces to

$$E\left\{z^2(t, \theta)\right\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left\|w^H(f, \theta)d(f, \theta_0)\right\|^2 S_{ss}(f)df$$  

(15)

meaning that the broadband beampattern is a superposition of the individual narrowband beampatterns weighted by the PSD of the source. However, when the source signal is nonstationary, the bifrequency spectrum cross-combines the narrowband beampatterns across different frequencies before forming the broadband beam. It is also interesting to point out that in this case, the broadband beampattern is a function of time $t$. This represents a departure from conventional array notions which have customarily assumed stationary signals without loss of generality. Clearly, for nonstationary signals such as speech, the narrowband beampattern must be coupled with bifrequency analysis in order to have an idea of the broadband beam, which is of utmost importance. By themselves, the narrowband beampatterns do not convey enough to capture the spatial filtering operation of the array.

In practice, even when considering stationary signals, the impact of the bifrequency spectrum on the resulting broadband beampattern needs to be taken into account. Over a finite length
observation window, the correlations between the various distinct frequencies will not be exactly zero—these interfrequency correlations only tend to zero as the observation window length tends to infinity. For example, [20] plots a sample bifrequency spectrum for a finite white noise sequence and observes significant nonzero correlations off the main diagonal. Many microphone array applications employ short frame sizes; as a result, the bifrequency spectrum will have a significant effect on the resulting broadband beampattern.

C. Broadband Beampattern of a Uniform Linear Array

Consider a conventional delay-and-sum beamformer which selects the weights according to

\[ w(f, \theta) = d(f, \theta). \]  

(16)

Furthermore, assume a ULA, such that the steering vector is given by

\[ d(f, \theta) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{j2\pi f(d/c) \cos \theta} \\ \vdots \\ e^{j2\pi f((N-1)d/c) \cos \theta} \end{bmatrix}^T. \]  

(17)

where \( d \) is the intersensor distance and \( c \) the speed of propagation. The resulting beampattern is given by

\[ d^H(f, \theta)d(f, \theta_0) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} e^{j2\pi f(d/c)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)n}. \]  

(18)

Using the formula for the geometric progression, the beampattern may be expressed as

\[ d^H(f, \theta)d(f, \theta_0) = \frac{1 - e^{j2\pi f(d/c)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)N}}{1 - e^{j2\pi f(d/c)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)}}. \]  

(19)

Substituting (19) into (14) results in the general expression for the broadband beampattern of a ULA

\[ E \{ z^2(t, \theta) \} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} M_{\theta}(f_1, f_2) S_{ss}(f_1, f_2) e^{j2\pi(f_1 - f_2)t} df_1 df_2 \]  

(20)

where

\[ M_{\theta}(f_1, f_2) = \frac{1 - e^{j2\pi f_1(d/c)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)N}}{1 - e^{j2\pi f_1(d/c)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)}} \times \frac{1 - e^{j2\pi f_2(d/c)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)N}}{1 - e^{j2\pi f_2(d/c)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)}}. \]  

(21)

D. Bifrequency of Sinusoidal Signals

Consider a source signal of the form

\[ s(t) = A \cos 2\pi f_0 t. \]  

(22)

The autocorrelation function of this signal is given by [28]

\[ R_{ss}(t_1, t_2) = \frac{A^2}{2} \cos 2\pi f_0 (t_1 - t_2) + \cos 4\pi f_0 \frac{t_1 + t_2}{2}. \]  

(23)

Since the autocorrelation function in (23) may not be expressed as a function of a single argument \( \tau = t_2 - t_1 \), it is nonstationary. The corresponding bifrequency spectrum is written as [28] (see the Appendix for a correction):

\[ S_{ss}(f_1, f_2) = \frac{A^2}{4} \left[ \delta(f_1 - f_0, f_2 - f_0) + \delta(f_1 - f_0, f_2 + f_0) + \delta(f_1 + f_0, f_2 - f_0) + \delta(f_1 + f_0, f_2 + f_0) \right]. \]  

(24)

Now consider a signal formed by a linear combination of sinusoids:

\[ s(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{I} A_i \cos 2\pi f_i t. \]  

(25)

The bifrequency spectrum of this signal is given by

\[ S_{ss}(f_1, f_2) = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{I} \frac{A_i A_j}{4} \left[ \delta(f_1 - f_i, f_2 - f_j) + \delta(f_1 - f_i, f_2 + f_j) + \delta(f_1 + f_i, f_2 - f_j) + \delta(f_1 + f_i, f_2 + f_j) \right]. \]  

(26)

Substituting (26) into (20) leads to the following expression for the broadband beampattern of a ULA:

\[ E \{ z^2(t, \theta) \} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{I} \frac{A_i A_j}{4} \left[ M_{\theta}(f_i, f_j) e^{j2\pi(f_i - f_j)t} + M_{\theta}(f_i, -f_j) e^{j2\pi(f_i + f_j)t} + M_{\theta}(-f_i, f_j) e^{j2\pi(-f_i - f_j)t} + M_{\theta}(-f_i, -f_j) e^{j2\pi(-f_i + f_j)t} \right]. \]  

(27)

III. SPATIAL ALIASING IN BROADBAND ARRAYS

In this section, the meaning of aliasing in broadband arrays is examined. To facilitate the analysis, the wavenumber-frequency spectrum is employed to derive what is termed therein as the “broadband spatial transform.” It is shown that this transform is indeed the limiting case of the broadband beampattern as the number of sensors tends to infinity. Based on the broadband spatial transform, a rigorous definition of aliasing is provided, and the conditions for aliasing with both monochromatic and wideband signals are derived.

A. Wavenumber-Frequency Spectrum

The standard one-dimensional Fourier transform expresses a temporal signal as a linear combination of sinusoidal signals. Similarly, an arbitrary space–time field may be expressed as a superposition of monochromatic plane waves via the multi-dimensional Fourier transform. The four-dimensional Fourier transform of a space–time signal is referred to as the wavenumber-frequency spectrum and is given by [1]

\[ S(\mathbf{k}, \omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(\mathbf{x}, t) e^{-j(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x} - \omega t)} d\mathbf{x} dt. \]  

(28)
where $S(k, \omega)$ are the frequency-domain weights, $s(x, t)$ is the value of the signal at position $x = [x \ y \ z]^T$ and time $t$, $k = [k_x \ k_y \ k_z]^T$ is the wavenumber vector, and $\omega = 2\pi f$ denotes angular frequency. The wavenumber $k$ is the spatial frequency vector and may be expressed as

$$k = \frac{\omega}{c} \zeta(\phi, \theta)$$  \hspace{1cm} (29)$$

where $\zeta(\phi, \theta) = [\sin \phi \cos \theta \ \sin \phi \sin \theta \ \cos \phi]^T$ is a unit vector pointing in the direction specified by elevation $\phi$ and azimuth $\theta$ which refers to the direction of the plane wave $e^{-j(\omega t - k^T x)}$. Notice that the wavenumber-frequency spectrum may also be expressed as the following spatial Fourier transform:

$$S(k, \omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_x(\omega) e^{j k^T x} \, dx$$  \hspace{1cm} (30)$$

where $S_x(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(x, t) e^{-j \omega t} \, dt$ is the temporal Fourier transform of the signal observed at position $x$.

The inverse wavenumber-frequency transform expresses the space–time field as a weighted linear combination of plane waves [1]

$$s(x, t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(k, \omega) e^{j(\omega t - k^T x)} \, dk \, d\omega.$$  \hspace{1cm} (31)$$

B. Broadband Spatial Transform

Notice that the wavenumber vector is a function of the temporal frequency $\omega$ in its magnitude only—the spatial information is conveyed by the unit vector $\zeta(\phi, \theta)$ which is specified by the azimuth and elevation of the corresponding spatial frequency vector. Note also that for broadband arrays, we are mostly interested in the spatial component of the wavenumber-frequency spectrum; one would like to quantify the level of the spatial spectrum independently of the temporal frequency $\omega$. One way of doing this is to integrate the wavenumber-frequency spectrum over the temporal frequency range, which is straightforward since only the magnitude of the wavenumber needs to be integrated across. To that end, we define

$$S(\phi, \theta) \triangleq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(k, \omega) \, d\omega$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_x(\omega) e^{j k^T x} \, dx \, d\omega$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_x(\omega) e^{j k^T x} \, dx \right) \, d\omega$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s \left[ \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T(\phi, \theta) x \right] \, dx.$$  \hspace{1cm} (32)$$

Consider (32): the temporal argument $(1/c)\zeta^T(\phi, \theta) x$ is equal to the relative delay (temporal lag) between position $x$ and the origin, assuming that the incoming wavefront is planar. Thus, (32) is precisely the form of the delay-and-sum beamformer computed over an infinite set of spatial samples (i.e., sensors) and time-aligned with respect to the origin. Therefore, one can infer that the output of a delay-and-sum beamformer with an infinitely large aperture corresponds to an estimate of the wavenumber-frequency spectrum averaged over the temporal frequency range. We refer to $S(\phi, \theta)$ as the broadband spatial transform (BST).

Furthermore, the mean-squared of (32) is given by

$$E \left\{ S^2(\phi, \theta) \right\} = E \left\{ \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s \left( \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T x \right) \, dx \right]^2 \right\}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_{ss} \left( x_1, x_2 \right) \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T x_1, \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T x_2 \, dx_1 \, dx_2$$  \hspace{1cm} (33)$$

where $R_{ss}(x_1, x_2, x_1, t_2) = E \left\{ s(x_1, t_1) s(x_2, t_2) \right\}$ is the spatiotemporal autocorrelation function of the space–time field $s(x, t)$ and we have dropped the dependence of $\zeta$ on $\phi$ and $\theta$.

If one assumes that the field $s(x, t)$ is a plane-wave propagating with direction-of-arrival $\zeta_0$, then one may write the space–time signal as the one-dimensional function $s(x, t) = s(t - (1/c)\zeta_0^T x)$. As a result

$$S(\phi, \theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s \left( \frac{1}{c} (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x \right) \, dx.$$  \hspace{1cm} (34)$$

The resulting steered response power is written as

$$E \left\{ S^2(\phi, \theta) \right\} = E \left\{ \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s \left( \frac{1}{c} (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x \right) \, dx \right]^2 \right\}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_{ss} \left[ \frac{1}{c} (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x_1, \frac{1}{c} (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x_2 \right] \, dx_1 \, dx_2$$  \hspace{1cm} (35)$$

where $R_{ss}(t_1, t_2) = E \left\{ s(t_1) s(t_2) \right\}$. From (35), it is interesting to note the dependence of the mean square of the BST, a spatial statistic, on the temporal autocorrelation function of the source signal $s(t)$.

Assume now that the correlation function in (35) is harmonizable; then, we may write

$$R_{ss}(t_1, t_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_{ss}(f_1, f_2) e^{2\pi j(f_1 t_1 - f_2 t_2)} \, df_1 \, df_2.$$  \hspace{1cm} (36)$$

Substituting (36) into (35) results in (37), shown at the bottom of the next page. Notice that the term

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{2\pi j(1/c)\zeta^T x} \, dx$$

may be viewed as the limiting case of the inner product $d^H(\phi, \theta) d(\phi, \theta)$ as the number of sensors tends to infinity, with the exception that the DOA in the continuous case is two-dimensional. Thus, we may claim that

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} E \{z^2(0, \theta)\} = E \left\{ S^2 \left( \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\theta}{\theta} \right) \right\}$$  \hspace{1cm} (38)$$
where the steered azimuth $\phi$ has been set to $(\pi/2)$ to enable full equivalence. Therefore, the mean square of the BST is equal to the limiting case of the broadband beam pattern as the number of sensors tends to infinity.

Aliasing is a phenomenon that results from computing a discrete estimate of a continuous Fourier transform. After sampling, the discrete spectrum becomes periodic with the sampling frequency. Aliasing occurs when the bandwidth of the signal exceeds half of the period of the discrete spectrum. Intuitively, in analyzing spatial aliasing in microphone arrays, one needs to analyze the periodicity of the discrete version of the continuous BST (32), which is given by

$$S_d(\phi, \theta) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s \left[ \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T x_n \right]$$

(39)

where $x_n$ is the $n$th spatial sample and it should be noted that space is discrete but time need not be for the sake of the analysis. For a single plane-wave propagating with DOA $\zeta_0$, the discrete BST is given by

$$S_d(\phi, \theta) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s \left[ \frac{1}{c} (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x_n \right].$$

(40)

In the following, the aliasing conditions for both narrowband and wideband signals are derived.

C. Monochromatic Signal

Consider a monochromatic source signal

$$s(x, t) = e^{i\omega_0(t - \tau/c)\zeta_0^T x}$$

(41)

where $\omega_0$ is the temporal frequency of the signal and $\zeta_0$ is the wave’s DOA. Substituting (41) into (40) results in

$$S_d(\phi, \theta) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i(\omega_0/c)(\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x_n}.$$  

(42)

If we further assume that the spatial sampling is in the $x$-direction only and with a sampling period of $d$:

$$x_n = \begin{bmatrix} nd & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

(43)

then

$$S_d(\phi, \theta) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i(\omega_0/c)nd} \sin(\phi \cos \theta - \sin \phi \cos \theta_0).$$

(44)

To ease analysis, assume that the source lies on the $x$-$y$ plane, such that $\phi_0 = (\pi/2)$ and we are only concerned with the azimuthal component of the spatial spectrum

$$S_d\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \theta\right) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i(\omega_0/c)nd} \cos \theta - \cos \theta_0.$$  

(45)

Next, one can apply the following result regarding a summation of complex exponentials:

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j\omega n T} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta\left(\frac{\omega - k}{\omega - \frac{2\pi}{T}}\right).$$

(46)

Substituting (46) into (45)

$$S_d\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \theta\right) = \frac{2\pi}{c} \left(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0\right)$$

$$\times \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta\left(\omega_0 - \frac{2\pi k}{T}\right).$$

(47)

Consider now the conditions for the argument of the delta Dirac function in (47) to equal zero. This requires

$$\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi k}{c} \left(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0\right)$$

(48)

which is equivalent to

$$d(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0) = k\lambda_0$$

(49)

where $\lambda_0 = 2\pi(c/\omega_0)$ is the wavelength. For $k = 0$, (49) holds if $\cos \theta = \cos \theta_0$, meaning that

$$S_d\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \theta\right) = 0$$

(50)

which is the desired result; indeed, this is the true (nonaliased) spectral peak. Spatial aliasing may now be rigorously defined: aliasing occurs whenever

$$\exists \theta \neq \theta_0$$

such that $S_d\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \theta\right) = \infty$.  

(51)

In other words, aliasing is a result of the argument of the delta-Dirac function in (47) going to zero even though the argument

$$E\{S^2(\phi, \theta)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_{bs}(f_1, f_2) e^{i2\pi f_1 (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x_1 - f_2 (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x_2} df_1 df_2 dx_1 dx_2$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i2\pi f_1 (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x_1} e^{-i2\pi f_2 (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x_2} S_{bs}(f_1, f_2) df_1 dx_1 \right) df_2$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i2\pi f_1 (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x_1} dx_1 \right) \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i2\pi f_2 (\zeta - \zeta_0)^T x_2} dx_2 \right) S_{bs}(f_1, f_2) df_1 df_2.$$  

(37)
\( \theta \) does not match the true DOA \( \theta_0 \). Note also that the steered range for a ULA is \( 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi \), and that the cosine function is one-to-one over this interval. Thus

\[
\cos \theta = \cos \theta_0 \Rightarrow \theta = \theta_0, \quad 0 \leq \theta, \theta_0 \leq \pi. \tag{52}
\]

One can now derive the aliasing conditions. Under the monochromatic assumption, the BST tends to infinity if there exists an integer \( k \in \mathbb{Z} \) such that

\[
\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi k}{c} (\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0) \tag{53}
\]

or

\[
\frac{d}{\lambda_0} = \frac{k}{(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)}. \tag{54}
\]

Take \( k = 1 \); we know that over our unique range \( 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi \),

\[
|\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0| \leq 2 \tag{55}
\]

meaning that to prevent aliasing, one needs to ensure that

\[
\frac{d}{\lambda_0} < \frac{1}{(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)} \tag{56}
\]

or

\[
d < \frac{\lambda_0}{2} \tag{57}
\]

which is indeed the classical narrowband aliasing criterion. Note that for \( |k| > 1 \), the condition (57) also prevents (53).

**D. Broadband Signal**

Consider a signal of the form

\[
s(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(\omega) e^{j\omega(t - (1/c)\nabla_0 x)} d\omega \tag{58}
\]

which is a plane-wave signal whose temporal frequency content is arbitrary [defined by \( S(\omega) \)] and presumably broadband. Again assuming a one-dimensional sampling scheme and considering only spatial frequencies with \( \phi = (\pi/2) \), the continuous BST of this signal is given by

\[
S(\pi/2, \theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(\omega) e^{j\omega(t - (1/c)\nabla_0 x) (\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)} d\omega dx. \tag{59}
\]

The discrete version of (60) is obtained by sampling space; in other words, we set \( x = nd \):

\[
S_d(\pi/2, \theta) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(\omega) e^{j\omega(t - (1/c)\nabla_0 x) (\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)} d\omega \tag{61}
\]

\[
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(\omega) \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j\omega(t - (1/c)\nabla_0 x) (\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)} d\omega \tag{62}
\]

\[
= \frac{2\pi}{d} \frac{2\pi k}{(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)} \tag{63}
\]

Examine (60), there is an interesting fact that the discrete BST for an arbitrary wideband signal takes the form of a series of temporal Fourier coefficients. For any temporal signal which obeys

\[
\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} S \left[ \frac{2\pi k}{(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)} \right] < \infty, \quad \cos \theta \neq \cos \theta_0 \tag{61}
\]

one can state that the BST exhibits an infinite peak only when the scaling factor

\[
\frac{2\pi}{d} = \infty \tag{62}
\]

which implies \( \theta = \theta_0 \). Thus, for wideband signals with spectra of the form (61), spatial aliasing does not result, regardless of the spatial sampling period.

The condition of (61) refers to signals with two basic properties; first of all, the signal must be bandlimited. If not, the summation is not finite. Secondly, the signal must not have strong harmonic components at integer multiples of the fundamental frequency \( 2\pi/(d/c)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0) \). The presence of such harmonic components may drive the BST to infinity at DOAs not matching the true DOA.

**IV. THEORETICAL BEAMPATTERNS**

Fig. 1 illustrates the broadband beampatterns for a signal of the form (25) with \( A_1 = 1, \forall \ell \), consisting of \( I \) tones uniformly spaced from 1000 to 2000 Hz. A ULA is assumed to compute the beampatterns; the source impinges on the array at an azimuth of 73 degrees. The interelement distance is \( d = (c/1000) \) which means that \( all \) tones comprising the signal lead to spatial aliasing. The plots are shown for \( I \in \{1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 100\} \), where for \( I = 1 \), the signal consists of a tone at 2000 Hz. The beampatterns are shown at time 0: \( E \{ z(\theta) \} \). To highlight the effect of signal nonstationarity on the resulting broadband steered patterns, the plots also show the broadband patterns not taking into account the cross-terms; in other words, the quantity of (15) is also displayed.

It is evident that by increasing \( I \), the alias formed at 135 degrees for \( I = 1 \) is diminished as more tones are introduced into the signal. With \( I = 100 \), the alias is indistinguishable from the background. Since the aliases occur at different azimuths for different frequencies, the integrated broadband beampattern tends to average out the sidelobes (i.e., destructive summation). The bifrequency spectrum of the source signal further shapes the steered patterns as the “cross-beampattern” terms provide even greater suppression of the sidelobes. Notice that the averaging effect becomes significant at only ten tones. Furthermore, notice the narrowing of the main lobe as we introduce additional harmonics to the signal. In general, the broadband beampattern attains greater directivity as the bandwidth of the signal increases.
Fig. 1. Steered response patterns of a real signal consisting of all aliased frequencies: (a) 1 tone, (b) 2 tones, (c) 3 tones, (d) 5 tones, (e) 10 tones, (f) 100 tones. The classical aliasing effect diminishes with the inclusion of additional harmonics in the signal. The nonstationarity of the signal further reduces the sidelobe height.

Fig. 2 plots the broadband beampatterns for an intersensor distance of $d = (c/2000)/2$, meaning that all of the signal’s frequencies are nonaliased. In this case, the effect of adding tones to the signal is only slightly beneficial—the width of the main lobe is gradually reduced as the signal bandwidth increases. However, it seems that increasing sensor spacing provides clear benefits for wideband array processing without incurring aliasing.

Fig. 1. (Continued.) Steered response patterns of a real signal consisting of all aliased frequencies: (a) 1 tone, (b) 2 tones, (c) 3 tones, (d) 5 tones, (e) 10 tones, (f) 100 tones. The classical aliasing effect diminishes with the inclusion of additional harmonics in the signal. The nonstationarity of the signal further reduces the sidelobe height.

Fig. 3 depicts the narrowband beampatterns across the 1000–2000-Hz range for the ULA with a spacing of $d = (c/1000)$. The aliasing effect is present across the entire frequency range, in that the sidelobes attain the same height as the main lobe. However, as we integrate across the temporal frequencies taking into account the bifrequency spectrum, the resulting broadband beampatterns exhibit a clearly unambiguous broadband beam.
Fig. 2. Steered response patterns of a real signal consisting of all nonaliased frequencies: (a) 1 tone, (b) 2 tones, (c) 3 tones, (d) 5 tones, (e) 10 tones, (f) 100 tones. The broadband steered pattern’s mainlobe width diminishes as the bandwidth of the signal increases. Comparing to Fig. 1, increasing the microphone spacing leads to clear benefits in broadband applications without incurring aliasing.

V. EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

In order to further investigate the theoretical results derived above, a computer simulation modeling anechoic propagation is performed. The simulations employ a ULA of $N = 5$ elements and an interelement spacing given by $d = (c/1000)/2$. Notice that the “spectral tilt” effect (i.e., the beam narrows as frequency increases) is clearly observed in Fig. 4 but only marginally present in Fig. 3.

Fig. 4 displays the narrowband beampatterns for the ULA with a spacing of $d = (c/2000)/2$. Notice that the “spectral tilt” effect is clearly observed in Fig. 4 but only marginally present in Fig. 3.
where \( R_{X_1X_2}(\tau) = E\{s(x_1,t)s(x_2,t+\tau)\} \), \( F_{ij}(\theta) \) is a function that translates the steered DOA \( \theta \) to the relative delay experienced between microphones \( i \) and \( j \):

\[
F_{ij}(\theta) = \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T(x_i - x_j)
\]

(64)

and the summation in (63) is usually taken over the set of unique microphone pairs \((i, j)\). In the implementation, the cross-correlations are upsampled (and interpolated) by a factor of 20 to allow for smooth steered response patterns. A single “frame” of 2 s is employed to compute the cross-correlation estimates.

Fig. 5 displays the obtained experimental broadband steered response patterns for the various values of \( I \). The resulting beampatterns strongly resemble those in Fig. 1 which do not take into account the bifrequency spectrum. In other words, the SRP algorithm conveys only the stationary component of the steered response power. This is somewhat problematic as SRP is generally accepted as the most reliable algorithm for the localization of speech, which is nonstationary. Indeed, for a WSS signal, the mean-square of the BST reduces to

\[
E\{S^2(\phi, \theta)\}
\]

\[
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_{XX} \left( x_1, x_2, \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T x_1, \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T x_2 \right) dx_1 dx_2
\]

\[
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_{X_1X_2} \left( \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T x_1, \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T x_2 \right) dx_1 dx_2
\]

\[
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_{X_1X_2} \left[ F_{12}(\phi, \theta) \right] dx_1 dx_2
\]

(65)

where \( R_{X_1X_2}(t_1, t_2) = E\{s(x_1,t_1)s(x_2,t_2)\} \) which reduces to \( R_{X_1X_2}(\tau) = E\{s(x_1,t)s(x_2,t+\tau)\} \) under stationarity, and

\[
F_{12}(\phi, \theta) = \frac{1}{c} \zeta^T(x_1 - x_2)
\]

(66)

by definition. Thus, the SRP algorithm fails to capture the bifrequency (nonstationary) portion of the broadband steered response.

Lastly, the experiment is repeated with a two-second female English speech signal. Fig. 6 shows the experimental SRP: it is clear that the resulting steered pattern is not negatively impacted by sampling at a sub-Nyquist rate. The power spectral density of the speech signal used in the simulation is shown in Fig. 6(b), where the narrowband aliasing cutoff frequency of 500 Hz is indicated.

It appears that a variant of SRP which does not make the WSS assumption is needed to provide more accurate estimates of the broadband steered response pattern, and consequently, the location estimates. Indeed, Figs. 5 and 6 are missing their nonstationary counterparts as an algorithm to estimate the more general broadband steered response power does not exist. The development of a suitable algorithm is the subject of current work.
Fig. 5. Experimental steered response patterns of a real signal consisting of all aliased frequencies: (a) 1 tone, (b) 2 tones, (c) 3 tones, (d) 5 tones, (e) 10 tones, (f) 100 tones. Careful examination of the plots in comparison with Fig. 1 reveals that the SRP method fails to capture the bifrequency terms present with a nonstationary signal.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has proposed a definition of the broadband beampattern. It was shown that in order to characterize the time-domain response of a microphone array to an impinging broadband plane wave signal, the signal’s bifrequency spectrum must be considered. The BST was derived as the limiting case of the broadband beampattern as the number of sensors tends to infinity. The aliasing conditions in broadband arrays were then derived based on the effect of estimating the BST with a discrete aperture. Unless a wideband signal possesses a strong harmonic component, spatial aliasing is not experienced with broadband signals. It was also revealed that the well-known and extensively
used SRP algorithm captures only the stationary portion of the broadband steered response pattern.

More generally, the results of this paper point to a need to analyze broadband arrays in a distinct fashion to their narrowband counterparts. One cannot simply “superimpose” narrowband array results onto broadband arrays without careful thought.

**APPENDIX**

Consider a source signal of the form:

\[ s(t) = A \cos 2\pi f_0 t. \]  

(67)

The corresponding Fourier transform is written as

\[ S(f) = \frac{A}{2} \left[ \delta(f - f_0) + \delta(f + f_0) \right]. \]  

(68)

By definition, the bifrequency spectrum is given by

\[
S_{ss}(f_1, f_2) = E \left\{ S(f_1)S^*(f_2) \right\}
\]

\[
= \frac{A^2}{4} \left[ \delta(f_1 - f_0) + \delta(f_1 + f_0) \right] 
\times \left[ \delta(f_2 - f_0) + \delta(f_2 + f_0) \right].
\]  

(69)

Since \( \delta(f_1 - f_0)\delta(f_2 - f_0) = \delta(f_1 - f_0, f_2 - f_0) \), where

\[
\delta(x - a, y - b) = \begin{cases} 
1, & x = a, y = b \\
0, & \text{otherwise} 
\end{cases}
\]  

(70)

one obtains

\[
S_{ss}(f_1, f_2) = \frac{A^2}{4} \left[ \delta(f_1 - f_0, f_2 - f_0) + \delta(f_1 - f_0, f_2 + f_0) 
+ \delta(f_1 + f_0, f_2 - f_0) + \delta(f_1 + f_0, f_2 + f_0) \right].
\]  

(71)

**REFERENCES**


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