BIOLOGICALLY INSPIRED BEAMFORMING WITH SMALL ACOUSTIC ARRAYS

Douglas L. Jones, Michael E. Lockwood, Albert S. Feng and Bruce C. Wheeler
Beckman Institute, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 405 N. Mathews, Urbana, IL, USA

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Abstract: Many biological hearing systems perform much better than existing signal processing systems in natural settings. Two biologically inspired adaptive beamformers, one mimicking the mammalian dual-delay-line localization system, show SNR gains in challenging cocktail-party scenes substantially exceeding those of conventional adaptive beamformers. A “zero-aperture” acoustic vector sensor array inspired by the parasitoid fly Ormia ochracea and accompanying algorithms show even better performance in source recovery than the binaural beamformers, as well as the ability to localize multiple nonstationary sources to within two degrees. New experimental studies of the performance of the biologically inspired beamformers in reverberation show substantial reduction in performance in reverberant conditions that hardly affect human performance, thus indicating that the biologically inspired algorithms are still incomplete.

1 INTRODUCTION

Many biological hearing systems exhibit remarkable performance that greatly exceeds that of current engineered systems. An example is the parasitoid fly, Ormia ochracea, which orients toward its cricket prey to within two degrees by use of an ear about a millimeter in maximum extent (Robert et al., 1996). The dominant frequency of the cricket’s call is about 5 kHz, so Ormia achieves this remarkable accuracy with an aperture that is well less than 1/50th of a wavelength, and at a range exceeding that of cricket females. Ormia thus exceeds the traditional Rayleigh resolution by well more than an order of magnitude.

The human hearing system also demonstrates remarkable performance in many respects. With only two ears, it achieves lateral directional accuracy similar to Ormia and considerable ability to localize complex natural sounds in elevation as well. Its ability to recover a desired speech source in the presence of multiple simultaneous speech interferers (the “cocktail party” environment) with only two ears is unequalled by conventional signal processing methods; current beamforming or source-separation algorithms fail when the number of sources exceeds the number of sensors. The human hearing system is also remarkably tolerant to reverberation and time-varying environments.

For comparison, consider that conventional engineered beamforming systems require a many-element array of about half-wavelength spacing between elements to achieve the high directional accuracy demonstrated by Ormia. An array of at least as many sensors as sources, again with an appropriate aperture, would be required to perform acceptable signal recovery at a cocktail party in an anechoic chamber; tens of elements would be required to accomplish this in the presence of the modest reverberation in a typical room.

Clearly, the performance of these biological systems far exceeds that of current electronic systems, at least for their specific biological application. By drawing ideas and inspiration from these systems, we have developed new algorithms that greatly advance the state-of-the-art in acoustic signal recovery of speech and similar natural systems in complex real-world environments. These new methods show promise for many applications, including hearing aids, hands-free telephony in noisy or reverberant environments, and surveillance.

2 CONVENTIONAL BINAURAL BEAMFORMERS

Acoustic beamforming for hearing aids presents a special challenge because the total aperture on a single behind-the-ear (BTE) array is well less than two centimeters. This is well below half a wavelength for
the audio frequencies with most speech energy; arrays of only two, or at most three, microphones can be used, and resolution well beyond the Rayleigh limit is required for significant directionality.

The minimum-variance distortionless response (MVDR) (also known as linearly constrained minimum variance (LCMV)) methodology introduced by Capon (Capon, 1969) is the most common approach for super-resolution adaptive beamforming. MVDR beamformers minimize the output energy of the best linear combination of the microphone inputs, subject to the constraint that any signal from the desired target (or “look” direction) is exactly preserved. The minimum-energy objective causes maximal rejection of unwanted sources from other directions or noise, while the distortionless response constraint prevents the beamformer from attenuating or otherwise distorting the desired signal. The distortionless-response constraint is captured in a “steering” vector, e, which represents the relative magnitudes and phases of a signal from the target look direction, and the linear constraint equation on the beamformer weights, \( w_{\text{opt}} \), is \( eH w_{\text{opt}} = 1 \). Capon derived the constrained optimal linear weights for scalar (instantaneous mixing or narrowband signals) beamforming:

\[
    w_{\text{opt}} = \frac{R^{-1}e}{e^T R^{-1} e}  \tag{1}
\]

Capon’s method has several major limitations. The beamformer will work successfully only if the number of interfering sources is less than the number of sensors. It requires accurate knowledge of the steering vector; errors in e cause the beamformer to cancel the desired signal as well as the interference. The super-resolution capability of Capon’s beamformer also amplifies this problem, because even small errors can be sufficient to allow self-cancellation. In particular, any reverberation manifests itself in this framework as a single source with an altered, composite steering vector; self-cancellation is usually so severe as to render Capon’s adaptive beamformer unusable in hearing aids. Finally, Capon’s original approach applies only to narrowband sources or instantaneous mixtures.

Frost (Frost III, 1972) and later Griffiths and Jim (Griffiths and Jim, 1982) overcame this last limitation by applying the Capon MVDR criterion to beamformers with filters, rather than just scalar, weights on each array channel. These algorithms avoid the computational complexity and numerical instability of inverting large matrices by applying the LMS algorithm to iteratively converge toward the optimal constrained filter weights. Griffiths’ and Jim’s GSC algorithm is generally used for wideband adaptive beamforming, and several attempts have been made to apply it to directional or binaural hearing-aid arrays. In carefully controlled laboratory settings with a single interferer, it has shown considerable gain, but with additional interferers or even modest reverberation, the performance collapses, often producing a negative signal-to-noise (SNR) gain.

Figure 3 summarizes the performance of a carefully optimized GSC beamformer in anechoic conditions for speech recovery in the presence of one, two, three, and four speech interferers from different directions in the front half-plane. (Use of Greenberg’s adaptive step-size was essential to avoid misconvergence during intervals of silence in the target speech and to obtain positive SNR gain (Greenberg, 1998).) As can be seen in the figure, the beamformer performs well for a single interference; but the performance drops dramatically when the total number of sources exceeds the number of sensors. For applications such as hearing aids that are limited to two or three microphones and must perform well in the cocktail-party context, the conventional beamforming approach is inadequate.

3 BIOLOGICALLY INSPIRED BINAURAL BEAMFORMERS

The GSC beamformer performance is perfectly consistent with beamforming theory, but psychophysical studies, as well as the personal experience of every human being with normal hearing, show that humans perform much better in the cocktail-party environment. Using only two ears, humans can localize as many as six simultaneous sources (Bronkhorst and Plomp, 1992) and gain a very significant binaural advantage in terms of ability to understand a desired speech source among multiple spatially separated interferers. Clearly, biology holds some secrets unknown to engineering for improved performance with small arrays in crowded acoustic environments for speech sources.

3.1 A Biologically Inspired Beamformer

The remarkable performance of the human binaural hearing system in the cocktail-party environment has prompted us to develop new biologically inspired beamforming algorithms. The mammalian hearing system has been extensively studied by physiologists; while a great deal remains to be deciphered, much is now known. Mammals’ brains use several cues to determine direction, including the interaural time difference (ITD), which is equivalent to phase delay for narrowband signals, interaural intensity (or level)
difference (IID), and spectral shaping for elevation (Yost and Gourevitch, 1987). The cochlea act as filter-banks that separate the signals at each ear into different frequency bands, which are processed in parallel. Based on physiological studies that have located and identified the specific neural circuitry, Jeffress (Jeffress, 1948) modeled the mammalian interaural time-difference mechanism as a dual delay-line circuit as illustrated in Figure 1.

Based on this model, we developed a biologically inspired binaural beamforming algorithm with much better performance in the cocktail-party scenario than the conventional GSC. Following the mammalian ITD system, the method in Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2000) transforms the signal to the short-time frequency domain via an overlapped FFT filter-bank (this differs somewhat from mammalian ears, in which the filter bandwidths vary across frequency). Independently at each frequency and delay-line pair, a running short-time sum-of-absolute-differences (SAD) is computed to create a frequency-delay map of the strength of coincidence. The neural system sharpens the directional responses via inhibition of weaker neighboring responses; the algorithm mimicks this by locating local peaks and thresholding to create a binarized, sparse map of the dominant signal directions as a function of both frequency and direction. For broadband sources such as speech, integrating this map across frequency provides a composite graph that clearly indicates the directions of several simultaneous sources active at that time. The peaks in this composite directional map are thresholded to determine the number and direction of all significant active sources. This completes the “localization” step of the method.

The desired source is recovered, or “extracted” from the interference, via guided frequency-domain null-steering beamforming (Liu et al., 2001). The source (as identified from the localization step) closest in direction to that of the target is recovered by applying a different constrained beamformer in each frequency band that passes the desired source and nulls the dominant interferer in that band. Figure 2 illustrates the method.

**Figure 2:** A block diagram of the biologically inspired localization/extraction beamformer.

Liu et al. report excellent performance; for four simultaneous speech sources in an anechoic environment, intelligibility weighted SNR gains ranged from 8 to 9.1 dB (Liu et al., 2001). The SNR gain ranged from 4.6 to 6.7 dB in a test room with a reverberation time of 0.4 sec. These performances far exceed that of the conventional GSC beamformer for such conditions.

### 3.2 A DSP-friendly Biologically Inspired Beamformer

While closely resembling the biological system, the localization/extraction method described above is computationally expensive when implemented on a conventional electronic computer. The characteristics of neural systems (massively parallel and relatively slow) and current electronic hardware (much less parallel and extraordinarily fast) differ enough that direct mapping of the neuronal algorithm to electronics may not be the most effective engineering solution. Accordingly, we developed an alternate biologically inspired algorithm that captures some of the essential features of the mammalian hearing system while being much more amenable to real-time DSP implementation.

The mammalian auditory system exhibits key characteristics, exploited by the biologically inspired algorithm, that allows its excellent performance. The mammalian hearing system processes auditory signals within frequency bands and dynamically over short-time intervals; that is, it performs some type of rapidly adapting time-frequency processing. It is essential to note that the mammalian auditory system is not designed for the narrowband signals or white Gaussian noise for which most signal process-
ing algorithms are optimized; such signals are rare in natural environments. The signals, and the interference, of most relevance to humans are transients and speech, which are rapidly time-varying, have considerable harmonic structure, and are relatively sparse in time-frequency. For example, even continuous speech has many short intervals of silence, and speech has formants, at many times strong harmonic structure (voiced speech), and other distinct and relatively sparse structure in frequency as well. In the short-time-frequency domain, the average number of interferers in any time-frequency bin is much less than the number of sources. Thus, while beamforming theory shows that only fewer interferers than sensors can be cancelled for narrowband frequency or broadband noise sources, with frequency decomposition and rapid adaptivity, the inherent time-frequency sparseness can be exploited to cancel most of several “simultaneous” interferers.

With this biologically inspired insight, new approaches better matched to implementation with current DSP hardware can be derived that still demonstrate performance approaching that of the more biologically faithful algorithm of Liu et al. Time-frequency decomposition to expose the sparsity of the sources and interferers, and rapid adaptation to take advantage of it, are the key elements that allow a binaural system to overcome multiple interferers in a cocktail-party environment. We have developed a particular frequency-domain MVDR beamformer implementation (FMV) that provides similar interference rejection and is easily implementable in a low-power, fixed-point, real-time DSP system such as a digital hearing aid (Lockwood et al., 2003). Like the L/E algorithm described earlier, the algorithm begins with overlapped short-time FFTs of the individual input channels, and subsequently processes each channel independently. This exposes the time-frequency sparsity of the interference. This transformation produces the added advantage that the beamformers in each frequency bin are scalar. Running short-time cross-correlation matrices are computed at each frequency via an efficient recursive update. In most frequency-domain MVDR implementations, the GSC algorithm is used to slowly adapt the beamformer due to the \( O(N^3) \) complexity and stability challenges of the matrix inverse. However, for a binaural beamformer, implemented in the frequency domain, \( N = 2 \) in each independent channel, and direct solution for the optimal Capon weights according to (1) requires only a few operations after algebraic simplification. We also apply a multiplicative (energy-normalized) regularization to provide some robustness to the short-time correlation estimates (Cox et al., 1987). Just as in the first algorithm, the optimal beamforming weights are applied at each frequency and the extracted signal of interest is recovered via an inverse FFT.

Figure 3 shows the performance in terms of SNR gain of a 15 cm two-element free-field array in an anechoic environment with one through four interferers. The initial SNR for the desired source was about -3 dB, representing a challenging cocktail-party situation at about the lower threshold at which people with normal hearing can follow conversational speech. Each of these conditions summarizes many runs with at least four different configurations of positions of the interferers (the target was always positioned at broadside, or perpendicular to the line of the array), and at least eight combinations of different male and/or female talkers for each configuration. For comparison, the performance of our best implementation of the conventional GSC beamformer is also shown. As is clear from the figure, the performance of the biologically inspired FMV beamformer substantially exceeds that of the GSC, particularly (as expected) for cases with more than one simultaneous interferer. The FMV algorithm’s performance may be somewhat inferior to the L/E method (which is too expensive to perform the complete battery of tests for direct comparison), but FMV clearly captures some of the strengths of the biological system. The slow convergence of the LMS-based iterative GSC adaptation prevents it from reacting fast enough to exploit the time-frequency sparseness of the interference. (Each test is only 2.4 seconds long and both beamformers are initialized to a conventional summing beamformer, so GSC’s somewhat inferior performance even for one source also reflects slower convergence. For one source and after convergence, the performance of both beamformers is comparable.) The results strongly suggest that the FMV beamformer, like the L/E method, has captured at least one of the special “tricks” that the human hearing system uses to perform well with only two ears in the cocktail-party context.
4  BIOLOGICALLY INSPIRED BEAMFORMING WITH A ZERO-APERTURE ArrAy

Miles et al. have found that Ormia ochracea obtains its amazing directional accuracy of less than two degrees with an ear about a millimeter across by a precise mechanical coupling of the common (omni-directional) and differential modes of oscillation between the left and right sections of the ear (Miles et al., 1995). A unique connecting structure with precise mechanical tuning causes even slightly off-center sound direction to induce much larger vibrations in the nearer ear-plate. Inspired by this system, Miles and collaborators are developing single-chip silicon MEMS arrays of two orthogonal differential and one omni-directional microphones (Miles et al., 2001), each only slightly larger than Ormia’s ear. The total aperture of this array is only a few millimeters on a side. An array with a similar acoustic response but in all three dimensions can be constructed out of three gradient (figure-8 pattern) hearing-aid microphones arranged orthogonally in three dimensions (XY, and Z axes) and one omni-directional microphone to form an acoustic vector sensor with a total extent of well less than a centimeter in any dimension (see (Lockwood and Jones, 2006) for a photograph of such an array used for the experiments reported below.)

The relative gains of a signal from direction θ and elevation ϕ on the three directional (X, Y, and Z) and one omni-directional (O) microphones are

\[ g_o = 1 \]  
\[ g_X = \cos(\theta)\cos(\phi) \]  
\[ g_Y = \sin(\theta)\cos(\phi) \]  
\[ g_Z = \sin(\phi) \]

and are unique for any arrival direction. Since this array requires no spatial separation to distinguish the direction of arrival, is small, and the microphones are located right next to each other, we colloquially refer to this as a “zero-aperture” array.

4.1  Super-Resolution Direction-Finding With a Zero-Aperture Array

A unique mechanical structure combines the common (omni) and differential (directional gradient) modes of Ormia’s ear to form a highly directional response. Inspired by this remarkable biological system, we can combine these modes electronically to form a super-resolution beamformer. While Capon’s MVDR beamformer is usually applied to spatially separated arrays with equal gains and for which relative phase differences between elements distinguishes the source direction, Capon’s formulation applies as well to amplitude and phase or amplitude-only differences in directional response, a fact which has been exploited in underwater acoustic vector sensor arrays (Nehorai and Paldi, 1994) (D’Spain et al., 1992), and which has been shown to improve the performance of the FMV binaural beamformer on the head (Lockwood and Jones, 2006).

For narrowband or broadband noise sources, the MVDR beamformer can only localize fewer sources than sensors. Many engineering applications may require more, so we have combined the biological inspirations of Ormia’s directional microphone array and the mammalian hearing system to develop a method for doing so. With the acoustic vector sensor array, we imitate the interaural level difference system in the mammalian brain. As described above, the mammalian system exploits the time-frequency sparsity of natural sources to localize more sources than sensors by identifying the locations of sources in time-frequency bins in which only one source dominates.

Mohan et al. have developed a signal-processing-friendly approach for achieving the same goal (Mohan et al., 2003a) (Mohan et al., 2003b). As in the FMV algorithm described earlier, the inputs from all microphones are short-time Fourier transformed and cross-correlated within each frequency band. A simple rank test is performed on each short-time-frequency correlation matrix to estimate the number of significant sources in that bin. Any bin of full rank (equal or more sources than sensors) is ignored; any bin of lower rank (more sensors than sources) can be used to estimate the direction of its dominant sources. To each low-rank bin we apply either an MVDR or MuSIC (Schmidt, 1986) beamformer using the directional array responses in (2), (3), (4), (5) to form the steering vectors, and form a composite localization map by summing (usually with normalization) these individual high-resolution directional maps. The number of sources and their locations are then determined in the usual manner by finding and thresholding the peaks of this composite response.

In both simulation and with real data, this algorithm achieves directional accuracy comparable to Ormia (less than two degrees of error variance) and locates more sources than sensors (Mohan et al., 2003a). It can be applied to, and performs similarly with, binaural arrays (Mohan et al., 2003b).
4.2 Speech Source Recovery With a Zero-Aperture Array

The *Ormia*-inspired acoustic vector sensor array can also be combined with the FMV algorithm for higher performance speech source recovery in the cocktail-party scenario with a much smaller aperture than even the binaural array. Since Capon’s formulation supports steering vectors with direction-dependent amplitude, as well as phase, differences, FMV can be applied almost without modification other than forming steering vectors according to the relative responses of the directional microphones in the target direction.

Figure 4 shows the performance in terms of SNR gain of a 15 cm two-element free-field array in an anechoic environment with one through four interferers. The physical experiments from which these data are created are identical to those used to create Figure 3. Since all sources were in the horizontal plane, we used only three microphones, the X and Y directional microphones and the omni.

![Figure 4: SNR gains for one, two, three, and four simultaneous speech interferers of binaural and XYO arrays with the FMV adaptive beamformer.](image)

The performance of the FMV beamformer with the XYO microphone array is considerably better than with the binaural array. We believe that this is mainly because the relative difference in the response of the directional microphones is relatively independent of frequency and is greater at the lower frequencies comprising most of the speech signal energy; at these frequencies, the separation of the binaural array is much less than half a wavelength, and separation of the sources becomes progressively more difficult. The extra microphone may also play a lesser role.

5 ADAPTIVE BEAMFORMER PERFORMANCE WITH REVERBERATION

The human hearing system performs well in complex natural environments, which usually include at least modest, and sometimes quite substantial, reverberation. As described earlier, adaptive beamforming algorithms are particularly sensitive to reverberation, which alters the effective steering vectors of the source. This makes the desired source appear to come from a different direction, and the super-resolution interference suppression of the adaptive beamformer then allows it to cancel the target even if these errors are small. It is essential to evaluate our biologically inspired algorithms, which only capture some of the features of the complex biological system, for their robustness to the reverberation found in typical listening situations.

Figure 5 shows the performance of the binaural beamformer in the presence of reverberation for the same set of tests shown above. The “anechoic” steering vectors were obtained by measuring impulse responses from microphones near the center of a sound-treated room and truncating these after the initial response was complete and before arrival of the first reflections. The steering vectors thus capture the response of the microphones and recording electronics but not the room. The impulse responses in multiple rooms, such as typical and large conference rooms and offices, were measured at various distances at fifteen-degree increments, to allow the synthesis of many realistic scenes with various positions and numbers of interferers.

![Figure 5: SNR gains for one, two, three, and four simultaneous speech interferers of the FMV beamformer in anechoic and reverberant conditions.](image)

Figure 5 shows the performance in terms of SNR gain for the FMV algorithm in a typical medium-sized conference room, with a reverberation time (\(T_{60}\)) of less than 0.4 seconds, for target and interfering speech sources at a 1 meter distance, at which the direct sound substantially exceeds the reverberation. Even in these relatively benign conditions, the performance of the beamformer, while still positive, drops dramatically in the presence of reverberation. The reduced performance even with a single interferer indicates that it is mostly due to mismatch of the steering vector for the target source, rather than changes in the response to the interferers; other tests too numerous...
to describe here support this diagnosis. Humans perform as well or even slightly better under conditions of modest reverberation compared to anechoic conditions, so this performance loss is due to limitations of the algorithm rather than the intrinsic difficulty of the problem.

Robust beamforming methods attempt to overcome this problem. Cox, et al. show that several criteria for robustness are optimized by regularization of the correlation matrix in Capon’s formulation (Cox et al., 1987). This has the effect of controlling self-cancellation for small deviations in the steering vector, but at the price of reducing the interference suppression. Many other methods have been introduced that minimize the worst-case performance or introduce additional constraints to prevent self-cancellation over an uncertainty region, but again these methods sacrifice interference cancellation to obtain robustness. As mentioned earlier, the human hearing system’s performance has been shown to improve somewhat with modest reverberation, which indicates that it works on very different principles. We speculate that it learns, adapts to, and exploits the actual room response, thus avoiding the trade-off between performance and robustness of current signal-processing approaches. We are currently working on practical techniques to do the same.

6 CONCLUSIONS

The excellent performance of the biologically inspired binaural adaptive beamformers with more speech sources than microphones strongly suggests that the biologically inspired algorithms capture some of the essential features of the mammalian hearing system that allow humans to perform so well in these conditions. These key elements are exploitation of the time-frequency sparseness of natural source signals via short-time frequency decomposition and rapid, separate adaptation in each band to take maximal advantage of it. Similarly, the comparable performance in directional localization accuracy of the binaural algorithm based on the Jeffress auditory model to that of humans, as well as that of the acoustic vector sensor array of collocated directional microphones with that of the parasitoid fly Ormia ochracea, suggests that these localization algorithms have identified some of the key principles of the biological systems.

The substantial degradation in performance of the FMV beamformer with levels of reverberation easily tolerated by humans suggests, on the other hand, that key features of human auditory processing of great importance to real-world application are missing from the model. Preliminary evidence that the localization-extraction method (which is based more directly on the physiological model) degrades less under reverberant conditions may eventually yield some hints as to what is missing. Current robust beamforming algorithms tolerate reverberation by limiting the damage to performance due to errors in the steering vector (often at substantial sacrifice to performance under good conditions); biological systems, on the other hand, seem to adapt to and even exploit the real-world conditions. We are currently exploring new strategies for robust beamforming that attempt to learn and exploit the variations in response introduced in real-world conditions, with the ultimate goal of building algorithms approaching the remarkable robustness shown by biological signal processing systems.

The characteristics of biological and electronic devices are very different, particularly in terms of complexity of function, parallelism, and speed, so the best biologically inspired signal processing systems may involve different implementations at the “hardware” level. We thus believe that biological inspiration, based on discernment of the underlying physical or signal processing principles exploited by the biological system, usually yields better results than biological imitation. However, physiology only indirectly indicates the signal processing principles exploited by the auditory sensors and the brain, so the development of effective and efficient biologically inspired signal processing algorithms is rarely straightforward. Close collaboration between physiologists, psychophysicists, and signal processors can yield insights and ultimately signal processing systems that would be difficult to conceive individually.

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