

Cross power spectral density based beamforming for underwater acoustic communications

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Abstract

In underwater acoustic (UWA) communications, beamforming is often used to improve the detection performance of a receiver. For beamforming, there have been methods presented in time domain, e.g., fractional delay (FD) method, and in frequency domain, e.g., time-frequency-time with cross spectral density matrix (TFT-CSDM) method. The former brings accurate direction of arrival (DOA) estimation but with high complexity and is vulnerable to noise; while the latter brings less accuracy but with lower complexity. In this paper, we propose and investigate a time-frequency-time with cross power spectral density (TFT-CPSD) beamforming method for a vertical linear array (VLA) of hydrophones. The proposed method is compared with the FD and the TFT-CSDM methods in a receiver designed for guard-free orthogonal frequency-division multiplexing (OFDM) with superimposed data and pilot signals. The comparison is based on data obtained in sea trials at distances 30 km to 50 km in the northwest Pacific Ocean. The results demonstrate that the proposed TFT-CPSD method possesses higher accuracy than the TFT-CSDM method, and lower complexity than the FD method. Besides, the OFDM receiver with the TFT-CPSD beamforming outperforms a receiver with the TFT-CSDM beamforming and the FD beamforming at signal to noise ratio (SNR) from -14 dB to 14 dB. The proposed beamforming technique possesses the merits of energy conservative and energy leakage reduction, which can also be applied to single-carrier transmission.

Keywords: Beamforming; cross power spectral density (CPSD); direction of arrival; orthogonal frequency-division multiplexing (OFDM); underwater acoustic communications

1. Introduction

In underwater acoustic (UWA) communication channels, ambient noise (e.g., radiated from sea surface wave agitation, shipping, snapping shrimps, etc.) is one of the dominant factors that affects the performance of data transmission [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7]. To reduce such negative effect and improve the signal to noise ratio (SNR), receivers with vertical linear arrays (VLAs) have been developed associated with using different beamforming techniques, and are currently used in UWA communications [8, 9, 10, 11].

In the past decades, these beamforming techniques have been verified as of providing significant improvement in the detection performance of a receiver [12, 10]. Typically, these beamforming techniques involve steps of estimating direction of arrival (DOA), and applying such estimates to produce angle-specific directional signals for equalization and demodulation [8, 9]. The result of DOA estimation reveals the detection accuracy, and the angle-specific directional signals usually possess higher SNR than the data received directly from the acoustic channel.

There have been beamformed techniques presented in two ways, i.e., in time domain, and in frequency domain. Time domain beamforming techniques have been proved as possessing high accuracy, but they usually need to conduct interpolation operation between data samples, which results in high computational complexity. Moreover, such interpolation may lead to energy leakage [13], especially at

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low SNRs, which can reduce the detection accuracy of a DOA estimator and the detection performance of a receiver.

To reduce the complexity and remove the beamforming leakage, a frequency domain low complexity beamforming was presented in [10], which is known as time-frequency-time (TFT) beamforming. Such TFT beamforming firstly divides the received data packet into multiple frames, transforms the data frames from time domain to frequency domain, computes cross spectral density matrix (CSDM) for each frame in frequency domain thus providing weights to improve the beamforming performance, and finally transforms the frequency domain signal back to the time domain. Such process avoids the time domain interpolation thus reducing the computational complexity. However, such TFT beamforming applies the CSDM to compute the beamformer weights, which does not provide strong weights to the DOA as the computation of CSDM does not fully reveal the energy of data received from all directions. As a result, the accuracy of DOA estimator based on it has been presented as significantly inferior to that of the interpolation based fractional delay (FD) beamforming [8, 10].

The continuous time domain process of the FD beamforming does not need to separate a continuous received signal into blocks, which avoids information loss and interference from the tail with delayed signals between blocks. However, the interpolation used in such time domain process can result in high computational complexity. Besides, it may introduce another issue of beamforming energy leakage revealing at specific directions, especially at low signal-to-noise (SNR), which will be investigated in this work.

A beamforming technique is usually tested at various SNRs by adding noise from the channel. However, the underwater ambient noises on different receive hydrophone channels have been usually assumed as uncorrelated and Gaussian distributed [14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20]. This assumption makes the data processing simple but may not be the case in real ocean scenarios and may change the capacity of channel spatial modulation [21], e.g., the beamforming.

In this paper, we propose and investigate a beamforming algorithm, which provides high accuracy of DOA estimation for UWA communications utilizing a receive VLA of hydrophones. The proposed beamforming method computes cross power spectral density (CPSD) to estimate the beamforming weights. The investigation is based on sea trials with guard-free orthogonal frequency-division multiplexing (OFDM) signals received by a 14-element VLA of hydrophones [22, 23]. The sea trials were conducted in the northwest Pacific Ocean, with a transducer towed by a vessel moving at speeds of 8 m/s and 3 m/s, at 30 km and 50 km away from the receive VLA, respectively. In the sea trials, the DOA estimator using the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming shows higher accuracy than the TFT-CSDM beamforming and lower complexity than the FD beamforming. Besides, the receiver using the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming outperforms that of using the FD beamforming and the TFT-CSDM beamforming at SNRs from -14 dB to 14 dB. Further, we verify low beamforming energy leakage of the proposed beamforming method while showing high DOA estimation accuracy by using the Waymark propagation model simulation [24, 25].

The paper is organised as follows. Section 2 describes the transmitted signal and the receiver. Section 3 describes the spatial filter used in the receiver, and the three beamforming techniques used in the spatial filter. Section 4 compares the accuracy of DOA estimator utilizing the beamforming techniques. Section 5 compares performance of the receiver with the three beamforming techniques using sea trial data. Section 6 uses the Waymark model based simulation to verify low energy leakage from the proposed beamforming. Section 7 summarizes the paper with discussion.

2. Transmitted signal, and receiver

In this section, we consider the guard-free OFDM signals as the transmission signal, as its ability to cope with severe underwater channel conditions without complex equalization filters. The equalizer used in the receiver here is based on that presented in [23]. The receiver composes a spatial filter, in which the proposed beamforming algorithm is implemented.

2.1. Transmitted signal

The transmitted signals $s(t)$ consists of L guard-free OFDM symbols with superimposed data and pilot signals [23], with each OFDM symbol given by:

$$s_l(t) = \Re \left\{ e^{j2\pi f_c t} \sum_{k=-N_s/2}^{N_s/2-1} [M_1(k) + jD_l(k)] e^{j\frac{2\pi}{T_s} kt} \right\}, \quad (1)$$

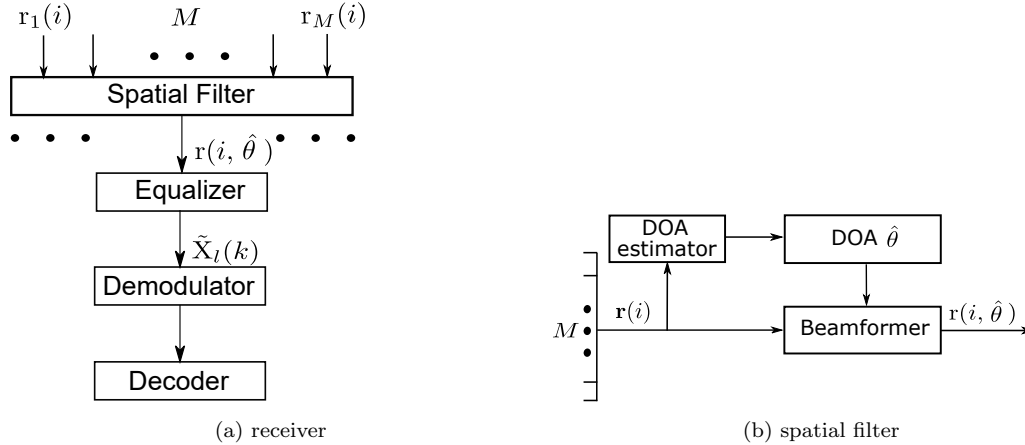


Figure 1: (a) Block diagram of the receiver; M is the number of hydrophone channels [10]; see [23] in detail. (b) Block diagram of the spatial filter.

96 where $\Re\{\cdot\}$ denotes the real part of a complex number, $N_s = 1024$ is the number of sub-carriers,
 97 $f_c = 3072$ Hz is the carrier frequency, $T_s = 1$ s is the symbol duration resulting a subcarrier spacing of
 98 1 Hz, and $j = \sqrt{-1}$. The sequence $M_1(k) \in \{-1, +1\}$ is a binary pseudo-random sequence of length N_s ,
 99 serving as the pilot signal. The binary sequence $D_l(k)$ represents the information data in the l th symbol,
 100 $l = 1, 2, \dots, L$, which is obtained by encoding and interleaving the original data across sub-carriers using
 101 $1/2$ rate convolutional code [26].

102 2.2. Receiver

103 Fig. 1(a) shows the block diagram of the receiver. The analogue signals received by M hydrophones
 104 are bandpass filtered within the frequency bin of the OFDM transmission and converted into the digital
 105 form $r_1(i)$ to $r_M(i)$ at a sampling rate f_s , i being the discrete time index; $f_s = 4f_c = 12288$ Hz in this
 106 case. The digital signals $r_1(i)$ to $r_M(i)$ are processed in a spatial filter that produces directional signals.
 107 In this paper, we only consider the directional signal with the highest power (see [10] for maximum ratio
 108 combining technique of multiple directional signals), denoting it as $r(i, \hat{\theta})$. The DOA $\hat{\theta}$ is chosen from
 109 the average signal power as a function of received angle. The directional signal is Doppler estimated and
 110 compensated, and then equalized in time domain [23], and transformed into the frequency domain using
 111 the fast Fourier transform (FFT). The frequency domain signal $\tilde{X}_l(k)$ is transferred to a demodulator
 112 and, after deinterleaving, further to the soft-decision Viterbi decoder [27] (see [10] for details).

113 3. Spatial filter

114 Fig. 1(b) shows the block diagram of the spatial filter used in the receiver. The DOA estimator
 115 computes the spatial power distribution to estimate DOA. Then, the beamformer uses the DOA estimate
 116 to produce the directional signal $r(i, \hat{\theta})$.

117 In the spatial filter, the following three beamforming techniques are considered:

- 118 • the FD beamforming [8, 10] (Section 3.1);
- 119 • the TFT-CSDM beamforming [10] (Section 3.2);
- 120 • the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming (Section 3.3).

121 3.1. Fractional delay (FD) beamforming

122 Spatial filter using FD beamforming provides accurate DOA estimation but has high complexity [10].
 123 To achieve the high accuracy when processing wideband signals, such as communication signals, both
 124 the DOA estimator and beamformer should operate by introducing delays (fractional delays with respect
 125 to the sampling interval) in the hydrophone signals. The pseudo code for the FD beamforming is shown
 126 in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Fractional delay (FD) beamforming

Require: hydrophone positions, received data package $\mathbf{r}_m(nT)$ at each hydrophone $m, n = 1, 2, \dots, N$;

1: **procedure**
 2: **for** each interested direction θ **do**
 3: compute delay $\zeta(m, \theta) = \frac{D(m)\sin(\theta)}{c}$
 4: compute $M \times N$ snapshot matrix $[\mathbf{X}(\theta)]_{m,n} = \mathbf{r}_m(nT - \zeta(m, \theta))$
 5: calculate sample covariance matrix $\mathbf{R}(\theta) = \mathbf{X}(\theta)\mathbf{X}^T(\theta) + \kappa\mathbf{I}_M$
 6: compute spatial signal power $\tilde{P}(\theta) = \left[\sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^M [\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\theta)]_{m,n} \right]^{-1}$
 7: **end for**
 8: find maximum power $P_{\max} = \max_{\theta} \tilde{P}(\theta) \rightarrow \hat{\theta}$ ▷ DOA estimation
 9: compute weight factor $\tilde{\mathbf{w}}(\hat{\theta}) = \tilde{P}(\hat{\theta}) \left[\sum_{n=1}^M [\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\hat{\theta})]_{1,n}, \dots, \sum_{n=1}^M [\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\hat{\theta})]_{M,n} \right]^T$
 10: beamformed signal $\mathbf{r}(i, \hat{\theta}) = \left[\mathbf{X}^T(\hat{\theta})\tilde{\mathbf{w}}(\hat{\theta}) \right]_i$ ▷ beamformed signal
 11: **end procedure**

127 3.1.1. FD DOA estimator

128 In the FD beamforming, the $M \times N$ snapshot matrix $\mathbf{X}(\theta)$ for a specific direction θ is used for
 129 calculating the diagonally loaded sample covariance matrix [8]

$$130 \quad \mathbf{R}(\theta) = \mathbf{X}(\theta)\mathbf{X}^T(\theta) + \kappa\mathbf{I}_M, \quad (2)$$

131 and

$$132 \quad [\mathbf{X}(\theta)]_{m,n} = \mathbf{r}_m(nT - \zeta(m, \theta)), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N, \quad (3)$$

133 where $(\cdot)^T$ denotes the transpose, \mathbf{I}_M is an $M \times M$ identity matrix, and κ is a loading factor which
 134 is a small positive number used here to prevent numerical instability. In our numerical examples, the
 135 value of N is set to the total number of received samples in a communication session. The signal values
 136 $\mathbf{r}_m(nT - \zeta(m, \theta))$ in (3) are recovered by interpolation of the digital signal $\mathbf{r}_m(i)$ from the m th hydrophone
 137 at time instants $t = nT - \zeta(m, \theta)$, where $T = 1/f_s$; for this purpose, we use the linear interpolation.

138 The delays are different for each direction θ , computed as

$$139 \quad \zeta(m, \theta) = \frac{D(m)\sin(\theta)}{c}, \quad (4)$$

140 where $D(m)$ is the distance between the first ($m = 1$) and the m th hydrophone, and the sound speed
 141 $c = 1500$ m/s. The spatial signal power $\tilde{P}(\theta)$ is computed according to

$$142 \quad \tilde{P}(\theta) = \left[\sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^M [\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\theta)]_{m,n} \right]^{-1}. \quad (5)$$

143 In our numerical results, a direction grid in the interval $\theta \in [-25^\circ, 25^\circ]$ with a step of 0.1° is used.

144 3.1.2. FD Beamformer

145 The beamforming weights for a direction θ are computed as

$$146 \quad \tilde{\mathbf{w}}(\theta) = \tilde{P}(\theta) \left[\sum_{n=1}^M [\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\theta)]_{1,n}, \dots, \sum_{n=1}^M [\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\theta)]_{M,n} \right]^T. \quad (6)$$

147 The static DOA $\hat{\theta}$ is estimated from the peak of the power $\tilde{P}(\theta)$ for an entire communication session.
 148 The received signal for a DOA $\hat{\theta}$ is then computed as

$$149 \quad \mathbf{r}(i, \hat{\theta}) = \left[\mathbf{X}^T(\hat{\theta})\tilde{\mathbf{w}}(\hat{\theta}) \right]_i. \quad (7)$$

150 3.1.3. FD Complexity

151 The FD beamforming technique uses interpolation and processes each direction separately, making
 152 this spatial filter complicated [8].

153 The DOA estimator requires the interpolation in (3), computation of the covariance matrix in (2),
 154 and the power computation in (5); complexity of the other processing can be ignored. The complexity of
 155 these three steps is given by $4N_{\theta}Mf_s$, $4N_{\theta}M^2f_s$, and $4N_{\theta}M^2$ multiply-accumulate operations (MACs)
 156 per s, respectively; M is the number of antenna elements, and N_{θ} is the number of directions in the

157 direction grid. In the beamformer, the weight computation in (6) needs to be performed; the other
 158 operations require significantly lower complexity. This step requires $(4M^2f_s + 2Mf_s)$ MACs per s. For
 159 example, with $M = 14$, $N_\theta = 501$, and $f_s = 12288$ Hz, i.e., with parameters used in the receiver in
 160 Section 2.2, the total complexity of the spatial filter is 5.2×10^9 MACs per s.

161 3.2. TFT-CSDM beamforming

162 Spatial filter using the TFT-CSDM beamforming first divides the continuous time domain received
 163 signals into L frames, and then transfers these time domain frames into frequency domain for DOA
 164 estimation and beamforming. Finally, the weighted frequency domain signal is transformed back into
 time domain. The pseudo code for the TFT-CSDM beamforming is shown in Algorithm 2.

Algorithm 2 TFT-CSDM beamforming

Require: hydrophone positions, received signals $\mathbf{r}(i) = [r_1(i), \dots, r_M(i)]^T$, frequency bin width $\Delta\omega$;

Ensure: frequency bandwidth F , frequency bin number $K = 2\pi F/\Delta\omega$, interested direction θ ;

```

1: procedure
2:   for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, K - 1$  do
3:     compute frequency domain snapshot  $\mathbf{z}(i_l; k) = \sum_{n=0}^{I_L-1} \mathbf{r}(i_l + n)e^{-j\omega_k n/f_s}$ 
4:     compute CSDM  $\mathbf{Y}(i_l; k) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \mathbf{z}(i_l + (l-1)I_L; k)\mathbf{z}^*(i_l + (l-1)I_L; k) + \kappa\mathbf{I}_M$ 
5:     compute steering vector  $\mathbf{v}(\theta, k) = \left[ 1, \dots, e^{-j\omega_k \frac{D(M)\sin(\theta)}{c}}, \dots, e^{-j\omega_k \frac{D(M)\sin(\theta)}{c}} \right]$ 
6:     compute power  $P_k(i_l; \theta) = [\mathbf{v}^H(\theta, k)\mathbf{Y}^{-1}(i_l; k)\mathbf{v}(\theta, k)]^{-1}$ 
7:   end for
8:   compute average power  $\tilde{P}(\theta) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} P_k(i_l; \theta)$ 
9:   find maximum power  $P_{\max} = \max_m P_m \rightarrow \hat{\theta}$  ▷ DOA estimation
10:  for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, K - 1$  do
11:    compute weight factor  $\bar{\mathbf{w}}_l(\hat{\theta}, k) = \mathbf{Y}^{-1}(i_l; k)\mathbf{v}(\hat{\theta}, k)P_k(i_l; \hat{\theta})$ 
12:    smooth weight factor  $\mathbf{w}_l(\hat{\theta}, k) \leftarrow \lambda\mathbf{w}_{l-1}(\hat{\theta}, k) + (1-\lambda)\bar{\mathbf{w}}_l(\hat{\theta}, k)$ 
13:    beamformed signal  $\mathbf{r}(i, \hat{\theta}) = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \mathbf{w}_l^*(\hat{\theta}, k)\mathbf{z}(i_l; k)e^{j\omega_k n/f_s}$  ▷ beamformed signal
14:  end for
15: end procedure

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165

166 3.2.1. TFT-CSDM DOA estimator

167 The DOA estimator computes the spatial power distribution of the received signal by processing the
 168 hydrophone signals $r_1(i)$ to $r_M(i)$. The i th time domain snapshot of the received signals is described
 169 as an $M \times 1$ vector $\mathbf{r}(i) = [r_1(i), \dots, r_M(i)]^T$. The snapshots are divided into L frames of I_L snapshots
 170 each. The $M \times 1$ frequency domain snapshot at frequency ω_k for a frame starting at time instant i_l is
 171 given by

$$172 \quad \mathbf{z}(i_l; k) = \sum_{n=0}^{I_L-1} \mathbf{r}(i_l + n)e^{-j\omega_k n/f_s}, \quad (8)$$

173 where $k = 0, 1, \dots, K - 1$, $K = 2\pi F/\Delta\omega$, F is the bandwidth of interest, $\omega_k = \omega_0 + k\Delta\omega$, $\Delta\omega = 2\pi\Delta f$,
 174 and ω_0 is the lowest frequency of interest ($\omega_0 = 2\pi(f_c - F/2)$ here). For a frame starting at time instant
 175 i_l , for every frequency ω_k , the $M \times M$ cross spectral density matrix (CSDM) is computed as [28]:

$$176 \quad \mathbf{Y}(i_l; k) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \mathbf{z}(i_l + (l-1)I_L; k)\mathbf{z}^*(i_l + (l-1)I_L; k) + \kappa\mathbf{I}_M, \quad (9)$$

177 where $(\cdot)^*$ denotes the conjugate transpose, l is the frame index, and κ is a loading factor which is a small
 178 positive number related to the noise level. In the experiments, the loading factor κ was set to a small
 179 value to prevent numerical instability when inverting the matrix $\mathbf{Y}(i_l; k)$ (see below). More specifically,
 180 it was set to at most 10^{-8} of $(1/M)\text{trace}\{\mathbf{Y}(i_l; k)\}$, where $\text{trace}\{\cdot\}$ is the matrix trace. The loading
 181 factor κ can be optimized to achieve an improved detection performance [29], while such optimization is
 182 not detailed here. The matrix $\mathbf{Y}(i_l; k)$ is used for obtaining the spatial power at every direction θ .

183 For beamforming, various algorithms have been presented in literature, e.g., conventional classic
 184 beamforming [30, 31, 32], minimum norm beamforming (MINNORM), Multiple Signal Classification Al-
 185 gorithm (MUSIC), root-MUSIC, Estimation of signal parameters via rotation invariance techniques (ES-
 186 PRIT), minimum variance distortionless response algorithm (MVDR), etc. [33, 34, 35]. The classic beam-
 187 forming algorithm does not provide high resolution [36], while the MINNORM, MUSIC, root-MUSIC,
 188 and ESPRIT algorithms [37] are able to provide high resolution on the DOA estimation. However, these
 189 high resolution algorithms are often based on the computation of inverse QR-based decomposition, which
 190 introduces complexity. The matrix inversion unit of the decomposition only works for a fixed set of ma-
 191 trix [38], which limits the implementation of these high resolution algorithms in UWA communications
 192 with long data sets. Thus here we choose an algorithm without using the QR-based decomposition, i.e.,
 193 MVDR algorithm [39, 40] to compute the spatial power.

194 For a frequency ω_k , the steering vector is given by

$$195 \quad \mathbf{v}(\theta, k) = \left[1, \dots, e^{-j\omega_k \frac{D(m)\sin(\theta)}{c}}, \dots, e^{-j\omega_k \frac{D(M)\sin(\theta)}{c}} \right]. \quad (10)$$

196 The power at frequency ω_k from a direction θ is given by:

$$197 \quad P_k(i_l; \theta) = [\mathbf{v}^H(\theta, k) \mathbf{Y}^{-1}(i_l; k) \mathbf{v}(\theta, k)]^{-1}, \quad (11)$$

198 and the total power for all frequencies of interest is given by

$$199 \quad P(i_l; \theta) = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} P_k(i_l; \theta). \quad (12)$$

200 The average power over L frames is given by

$$201 \quad \tilde{P}(\theta) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L P(i_l; \theta). \quad (13)$$

202 3.2.2. TFFT-CSDM Beamformer

203 In this case, the DOA $\hat{\theta}$ is chosen from the peak of the $\tilde{P}(\theta)$ for an entire communication session. For
 204 a chosen DOA $\hat{\theta}$, to cancel the interference arriving from other directions, the beamformer weight vector
 205 $\bar{\mathbf{w}}_l(\hat{\theta}, k)$ in the l th frame is calculated as [39]:

$$206 \quad \bar{\mathbf{w}}_l(\hat{\theta}, k) = \mathbf{Y}^{-1}(i_l; k) \mathbf{v}(\hat{\theta}, k) P_k(i_l; \hat{\theta}). \quad (14)$$

207 The weight vector is then smoothed in time:

$$208 \quad \mathbf{w}_l(\hat{\theta}, k) \leftarrow \lambda \mathbf{w}_{l-1}(\hat{\theta}, k) + (1 - \lambda) \bar{\mathbf{w}}_l(\hat{\theta}, k), \quad (15)$$

209 where $0 \leq \lambda < 1$ is a forgetting factor, and $\mathbf{w}_0(\hat{\theta}, k) = \bar{\mathbf{w}}_1(\hat{\theta}, k)$. The directional signal is then computed
 210 as:

$$211 \quad r(i, \hat{\theta}) = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \mathbf{w}_l^*(\hat{\theta}, k) \mathbf{z}(i_l; k) e^{j\omega_k n / f_s}, \quad (16)$$

212 where $i = i_l + (l - 1)I_L + n$.

213 3.2.3. TFFT-CSDM Complexity

214 For the DOA estimation, the spatial filter requires the time-frequency transform in (8), computation
 215 of the CSDM in (9), and the power computation in (11); complexity of the other processing can be
 216 ignored. The complexity of these three steps is given by $2KMf_s$, $4Kf_sM^2/I_L$, and $4(KM^3 + KN_\theta M^2)$
 217 MACs per s, respectively; M is the number of antenna elements, K is the number of frequencies in the
 218 transform, and N_θ is the number of directions in the direction grid. In a beamformer, the frequency-time
 219 transform in (16) needs to be performed; the other operations require significantly lower complexity.
 220 This step requires $(4KMf_s/I_L + 4Kf_s)$ MACs per s. For example, with $M = 14$, $K = 16$, $f_s/I_L = 1$,
 221 $N_\theta = 501$, and $f_s = 12288$ Hz, i.e., with parameters used in the receiver in Section 2.2, the total
 222 complexity of the spatial filter is 1.3×10^7 MACs per s.

223 3.3. Proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming

224 When the gradient of sound is significant along the array aperture, the wave front is not spherical and
 225 beamforming should be replaced with a mode filtering, otherwise energy leakage cannot be avoided. The
 226 continuing processing of signal block (frame) with different delays cannot be done by blocks and FFT,
 227 because of the tail with delayed signals. Thus, convolution methods, overlap-save or overlap-add methods
 228 are needed [41, 42]. Different from the existing TFFT-CSDM beamforming, the TFFT-CPSD beamforming
 229 first applies the overlap-save method for a frame length I_L , then computes the cross power spectral
 230 density (CPSD) instead of CSDM for each segment to obtain spatial power, uses window (Hamming
 231 window here) to filter data for each frame, and smooths the weight vector using a moving average filter
 232 on neighbour frames instead of that from the past frames initiated from the first frame as shown in (15).
 The pseudo code for the TFFT-CPSD beamforming is concluded in Algorithm 3.

Algorithm 3 TFFT-CPSD beamforming

Require: hydrophone positions, received signals $\mathbf{r}(i) = [r_1(i), \dots, r_M(i)]^T$, frequency bin width $\Delta\omega$;

Ensure: frequency bandwidth F , frequency bin number $K = 2\pi F/\Delta\omega$, interested direction θ ;

```

1: procedure
2:   reconstruct each data frame  $\mathbf{r}(i_l)$  with the overlap-save method
3:   for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, K - 1$  do
4:     compute cross-correlation sequence  $\tilde{\mathbf{R}}(i_l; m) = E\{\mathbf{r}(i_l + n + m)\mathbf{r}(i_l + n)^*\}$ 
5:     compute CPSD  $\tilde{\mathbf{C}}(i_l, k) = \sum_{m=-I_L}^{I_L} \tilde{\mathbf{R}}(i_l; m)e^{-j\omega_k m}$ 
6:     compute steering vector  $\mathbf{v}(\theta, k) = [1, \dots, e^{-j\omega_k \frac{D(M)\sin(\theta)}{c}}, \dots, e^{-j\omega_k \frac{D(M)\sin(\theta)}{c}}]$ 
7:     compute power  $P_k(i_l; \theta) = [\mathbf{v}^*(\theta, k)\tilde{\mathbf{C}}(i_l, k)\mathbf{v}(\theta, k)]^{-1}$ 
8:   end for
9:   compute average power  $\tilde{P}(\theta) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} P_k(i_l; \theta)$ 
10:  find maximum power  $P_{\max} = \max_m P_m \rightarrow \hat{\theta}$  ▷ DOA estimation
11:  for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, K - 1$  do
12:    compute weight factor  $\tilde{\mathbf{w}}_l(\hat{\theta}, k) = \tilde{\mathbf{C}}^{-1}(i_l; k)\mathbf{v}(\hat{\theta}, k)P_k(i_l; \hat{\theta})$ 
13:    smooth weight factor  $\mathbf{w}_l(\hat{\theta}, k) \leftarrow \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{w}}_{l-l_d}(\hat{\theta}, k) + \dots + \tilde{\mathbf{w}}_l(\hat{\theta}, k) + \dots + \tilde{\mathbf{w}}_{l+l_d}(\hat{\theta}, k)}{2l_d+1}$ 
14:    compute frequency domain snapshot  $\mathbf{z}(i_l; k) = \sum_{n=0}^{I_L-1} \mathbf{r}(i_l + n)e^{-j\omega_k n/f_s}$ 
15:    beamformed signal  $\mathbf{r}(i, \hat{\theta}) = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \mathbf{w}_l^*(\hat{\theta}, k)\mathbf{z}(i_l; k)e^{j\omega_k n/f_s}$  ▷ beamformed signal
16:  end for
17: end procedure

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3.3.1. TFFT-CPSD DOA estimator

234 The DOA estimator computes the spatial power distribution of the received signal by processing the
 235 hydrophone signals $r_1(i)$ to $r_M(i)$. The i th time domain snapshot of the received signals is described as
 236 an $M \times 1$ vector $\mathbf{r}(i) = [r_1(i), \dots, r_M(i)]^T$.

237 The snapshots are then divided into L frames of I_L snapshots each. Different from the TFFT-CSDM
 238 beamforming, here the frame is overlapped with its previous frame. Each frame has a length of I_L and
 239 has an overlap length I_{Lo} with its previous frame. Here we set the overlap length I_{Lo} as half of I_L , and
 240 will investigate the length for each frame with the experimental data presented in Section 5.1.1. For each
 241 frame, we use a Hamming window of length H_{win} to filter the data segments of that window length. For
 242 a frame starting at time instant i_l , for every frequency of interest ω_k , the CPSD is the distribution of
 243 power per unit frequency defined as [43, 44]

$$245 \quad \tilde{\mathbf{C}}(i_l, k) = \sum_{m=-I_L}^{I_L} \tilde{\mathbf{R}}(i_l; m)e^{-j\omega_k m}. \quad (17)$$

246 The frequency of interest ω_k is chosen from a bin vector with a bin width of $\Delta F = F/K$, where K is the
 247 number of bins and F is the bandwidth. For each bin, we integrate the wideband across the frequency
 248 bin width ΔF assuming that the variation in a bin can be omitted.

249 The cross-correlation sequence $\tilde{\mathbf{R}}(i_l; m)$ is defined as

$$250 \quad \tilde{\mathbf{R}}(i_l; m) = E\{\mathbf{r}(i_l + n + m)\mathbf{r}(i_l + n)^*\}, \quad (18)$$

251 where $\mathbf{r}(i_l + n)$ is the snapshots in the l th frame, $-I_L < n < I_L$ and $-I_L < m < I_L$ for a single frame,
 252 and $E\{\cdot\}$ is the expected value operator. In practice, it can be achieved by computing

$$253 \quad \tilde{\mathbf{R}}(i_l; m) = \begin{cases} \sum_{n=0}^{N-m-1} \mathbf{r}(i_l + n + m) \mathbf{r}^*(i_l + n), & (m \geq 0) \\ \tilde{\mathbf{R}}^*(i_l; -m), & (m < 0) \end{cases} \quad (19)$$

254 with normalization to produce an accurate estimate.

255 The CPSD $\tilde{\mathbf{C}}(i_l, k)$ is used for obtaining the spatial power at every direction θ using the MVDR
 256 algorithm [39, 40]. For a frequency ω_k , the steering vector is given by (10). The power at frequency ω_k
 257 from a direction θ is given by:

$$258 \quad P_k(i_l; \theta) = [\mathbf{v}^*(\theta, k) \tilde{\mathbf{C}}(i_l, k) \mathbf{v}(\theta, k)]^{-1}. \quad (20)$$

259 and the total power for all frequencies of interest is given by

$$260 \quad P(i_l; \theta) = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} P_k(i_l; \theta). \quad (21)$$

261 The average power over L frames is given by

$$262 \quad \hat{P}(\theta) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L P(i_l; \theta). \quad (22)$$

263 3.3.2. TFFT-CPSD Beamformer

264 In this case, the DOA $\hat{\theta}$ is also chosen from the peak of the $\hat{P}(\theta)$ for the entire session. For a chosen
 265 DOA $\hat{\theta}$, to cancel the interference arriving from other directions, the beamformer weight vector $\bar{\mathbf{w}}_l(\hat{\theta}, k)$
 266 in the l th frame is calculated as [39]:

$$267 \quad \bar{\mathbf{w}}_l(\hat{\theta}, k) = \tilde{\mathbf{C}}^{-1}(i_l; k) \mathbf{v}(\hat{\theta}, k) P_k(i_l; \hat{\theta}). \quad (23)$$

268 Due to ocean dynamics resulting in fluctuations of DOA during the communication session, the
 269 DOA associated weights may change significantly from the beginning. Instead of using iterative smooth
 270 from the past frames as shown in (15), we introduce an average smooth, in which the weight vector is
 271 smoothed using a moving average filter. The filter uses a number of data points $l_d = \hat{\lambda}L/2$ for calculating
 272 the smoothed value. The parameter $\hat{\lambda}/2$ is in the range (0,1) denoting a fraction of the total number of
 273 data points. The weight vector is then smoothed as:

$$274 \quad \mathbf{w}_l(\hat{\theta}, k) \leftarrow \frac{\bar{\mathbf{w}}_{l-l_d}(\hat{\theta}, k) + \dots + \bar{\mathbf{w}}_l(\hat{\theta}, k) + \dots + \bar{\mathbf{w}}_{l+l_d}(\hat{\theta}, k)}{2l_d + 1}, \quad (24)$$

275 where $\mathbf{w}_1(\hat{\theta}, k) = \bar{\mathbf{w}}_1(\hat{\theta}, k)$, and $\mathbf{w}_2(\hat{\theta}, k) = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{w}}_1(\hat{\theta}, k) + \bar{\mathbf{w}}_2(\hat{\theta}, k)}{2}$, etc. The directional signal is then computed
 276 as:

$$277 \quad \mathbf{r}(i, \hat{\theta}) = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \mathbf{w}_l^*(\hat{\theta}, k) \mathbf{z}(i_l; k) e^{j\omega_k n / f_s}, \quad (25)$$

278 where $i = i_l + (l-1)I_L + n$. While adding these directional signal snapshots together, we overlap the
 279 extra data length L_o to reduce the tail effect and energy leakage.

280 3.3.3. TFFT-CPSD Complexity

281 For the DOA estimation, the spatial filter requires the cross-correlation in (18), the computation of
 282 CPSD in (17), and the power computation in (20); complexity of the other processing can be ignored.
 283 The complexity of the cross-correlation is computed from the integration of the number of non-zeros
 284 multiplications. The complexity of these three steps is given by $4M^2 f_s (H_{\text{win}} + 1)/2$, $2KM f_s$, and
 285 $4(KM^3 + KN_\theta M^2)$ MACs per s, respectively. In a beamformer, the frequency-time transform in (25)
 286 needs to be performed; the other operations require significantly lower complexity. This step requires
 287 $(4KM f_s / I_L + 4K f_s)$ MACs per s. For example, with $M = 14$, $K = 16$, $H_{\text{win}} = 16$, $N_\theta = 501$, and
 288 $f_s = 12288$ Hz, i.e., with parameters used in the receiver in Section 2.2, the total complexity of the
 289 spatial filter is 9.5×10^7 MACs per s.

290 4. Accuracy of DOA estimation

291 To compare the accuracy of DOA estimator and detection capability of using the three beamforming
 292 techniques, we use the data recorded in the sea trial session F1-1 at a transmitter to receive VLA distance
 293 of 30 km (detailed in Section 5).

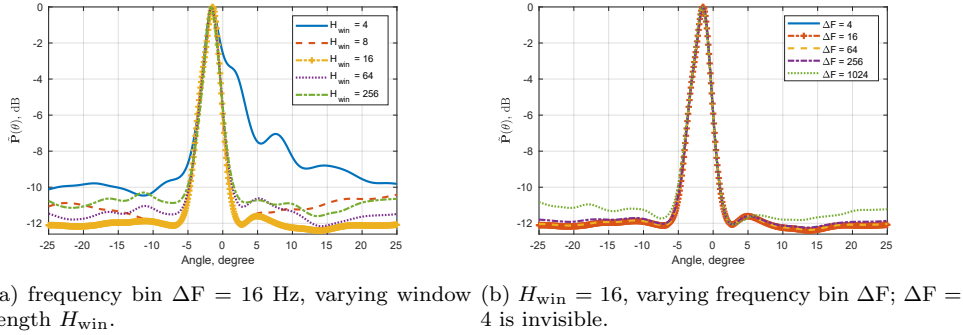


Figure 2: Comparisons of average spatial signal power $\tilde{P}(\theta)$ estimated from the DOA estimator using the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming with different window length and frequency bins in the sea trial session at a distance of 30 km. (a) varying window length; (b) varying frequency bin.

294 4.1. Parameter justification of TFT-CPSD

295 We first justify the values of window length and frequency bin of the proposed TFT-CPSD algorithm.
 296 Fig. 2 shows comparison results of average spatial signal power $\tilde{P}(\theta)$ of the DOA estimator at various
 297 window lengths and frequency bins. Fig. 2(a) shows that when the frequency bin $\Delta F = 16$ Hz, the DOA
 298 estimator shows the best accuracy as the window length $H_{\text{win}} = 16$ samples; and Fig. 2(b) shows that
 299 when the window length $H_{\text{win}} = 16$ samples, the accuracy of DOA estimator increases as the frequency
 300 bin ΔF decreases, while it is almost unchanged as $\Delta F \leq 64$ Hz.

301 Thus we choose $H_{\text{win}} = 16$ and $\Delta F = 64$ Hz for further processing. When processing the received
 302 signals in the spatial filter, $K = 1024/64 = 16$ frequencies are processed in the bandwidth of interest
 303 $F = 1024$ Hz, and the lowest frequency of interest $f_0 = \omega_0/(2\pi) = 2560$ Hz. The frame length I_f is
 304 considered to be one OFDM symbol length here, and the loading factor $\kappa = 10^{-3}$. The DOAs θ for DOA
 305 estimation are computed in $[-25^\circ, 25^\circ]$ with a DOA step of 0.1° .

306 4.2. Comparison of DOA estimators

307 Fig. 3 shows comparison results of average spatial signal power $\tilde{P}(\theta)$ estimated from the DOA es-
 308 timator using the three beamforming techniques at different SNRs, i.e., $[-15, -5, 5, 14]$ dB, by adding
 309 measured ambient noise to received signal for each hydrophone channel. The proposed DOA estimator
 310 using the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming outperforms that using the TFT-CSDM beamforming in
 311 accuracy, while it is inferior to that of using the FD beamforming, obvious at high SNRs. However,
 312 at low SNRs, the FD beamforming shows significant beamforming leakage of the target signal into the
 313 interference at multiple angles, which makes the accuracy of it worse and makes the DOA detection
 314 difficult.

315 The computational complexity of the DOA estimator using the three beamforming techniques are
 316 compared in TABLE 1. The complexity of DOA estimator using the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming
 317 is significantly lower than that of using the FD beamforming, while it is not much higher than that of
 using the TFT-CSDM beamforming.

Table 1: Complexity of DOA estimator with different beamforming

Beamforming	Complexity (10^6 MAC/s)
no beamforming	0
FD	5200
TFT-CSDM	13
TFT-CPSD (proposed)	95

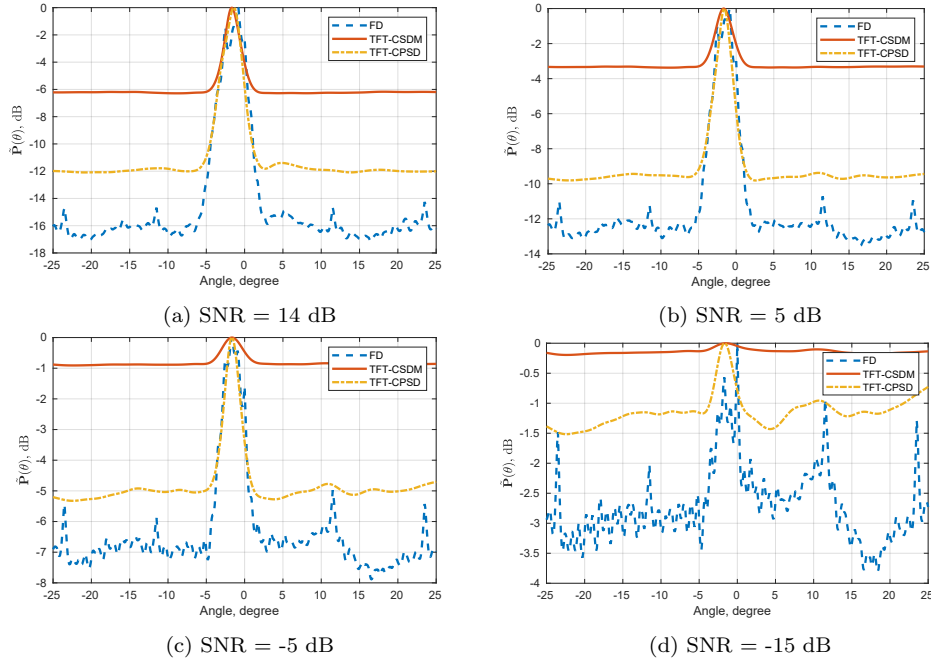


Figure 3: Comparisons of average spatial signal power $\tilde{P}(\theta)$ estimated from the DOA estimator using the FD beamforming, the TFT-CSDM beamforming, and the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming in the sea trial session F1-1 at different SNRs. (a) 14 dB. (b) 5 dB. (c) -5 dB. (d) -15 dB.

319 5. Receiver performance

320 In this section, we compare the receiver with DOA estimator using different beamforming techniques.
 321 To demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming used in the receiver, compar-
 322 isons are performed with the transmission of guard-free OFDM signals with superimposed data and
 323 pilot [23]. These comparisons use data from two sessions in the northwest Pacific Ocean sea trial, i.e.,

- 324 • session F1-1: transmitter to receiver distance of 30 km;
- 325 • session F-3: transmitter to receiver distance of 50 km.

326 In both sessions, the depth of the transmitter was 250 m, and the depth of the first receive VLA
 327 hydrophone was 420 m (Fig. 4). In the receive VLA, the distances from the m th hydrophones in turn to
 328 the first (top) hydrophone are [0 0.6 1.2 1.8 2.4 3.0 3.6 3.9 4.8 5.4 6.0 6.6 7.8 8.1] m. The sound-speed
 329 profile (SSP) measured in the sea trial area is shown in Fig. 5, showing the gradient of sound. The sea

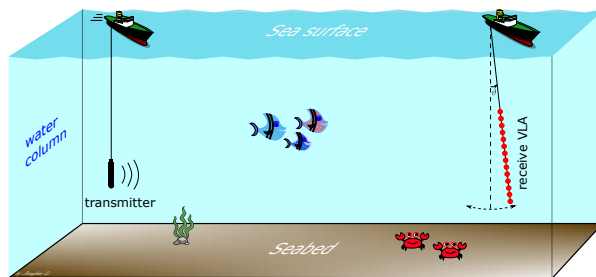


Figure 4: Sea trial scenario in the northwest Pacific Ocean. The depth of the transmitter was 250 m, and the depth of the first receive VLA hydrophone was 420 m. The length of the receive VLA of hydrophones is 8.1 m. The receive VLA oscillation can be resulted from the ocean dynamics. Underwater ambient noise in the communication channel can be radiated from surface wave agitation, shipping, marine animals, turbulence, etc. [45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52].

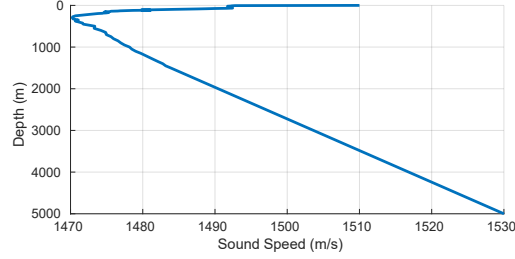


Figure 5: Sound speed profiles (SSP) measured in the sea trial area (northwest Pacific Ocean), and used in the simulation (Section 6).

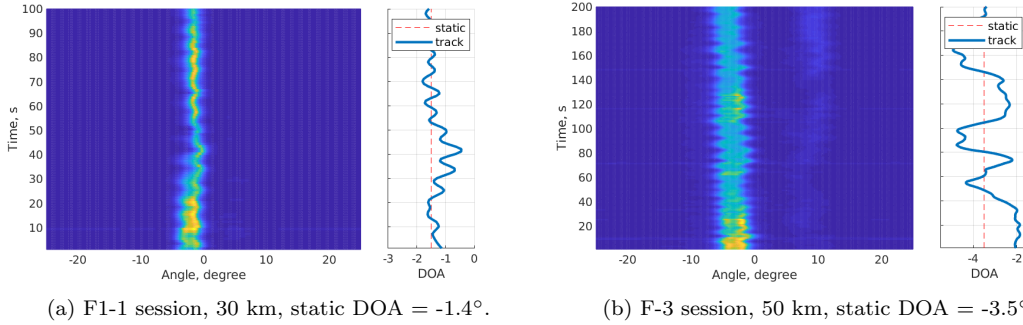


Figure 6: DOA fluctuation in the sea trial. (a) F1-1 session, 30 km; (b) F-3 session, 50 km. Left: estimated spatial signal power; right: angle of spatial power peak for the entire session (red dashed line), and angle of spatial power peak for each data frame (blue solid line).

330 depth is about 5 km, and the minimum sound speed is at a depth of about 300 m. In the two sea trial
 331 sessions, communication signals are transmitted in the frequency band 2560-3584 Hz.

332 5.1. Session F1-1

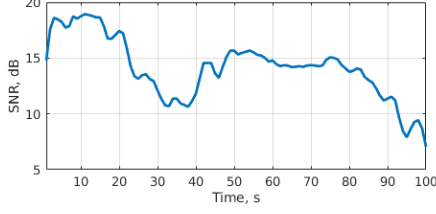
333 In the F1-1 session, the transmitter was towed by a vessel moving towards the receiver at a high
 334 speed of 8 m/s, and the distance between them varied from 30 to 29 km. In this session, 100 guard-free
 335 OFDM symbols were transmitted. Fig. 6(a) left side shows the spatial power distribution. It can be seen
 336 that an outstanding cluster is identified as the one with DOA around $\hat{\theta} = -1.4^\circ$. Fig. 6(a) right side
 337 shows the time-varying DOA detected for each frame (blue solid line) and a static DOA $\hat{\theta} = -1.4^\circ$ chosen
 338 from the average spatial power peak for the entire communication session (red dashed line). The time-
 339 varying DOA across the static DOA possesses a maximum variance of 1.5° from ocean dynamics. The
 340 static angle $\hat{\theta} = -1.4^\circ$ is used to produce a directional signal using the three beamforming techniques.

341 Fig. 7(a) shows the time-varying SNR at the first receive VLA hydrophone in the F1-1 session, which
 342 is the result of received signal energy divided by recorded noise energy in frames. The SNR varies between
 343 7 dB and 18.5 dB, and on average is 14 dB, indicating complex noise levels in the communication channel.
 344 Fig. 8(a) shows fluctuations of the channel impulse response over the F1-1 session at the first hydrophone,
 345 revealing a single outstanding propagation path of the transmitted signal in the channel.

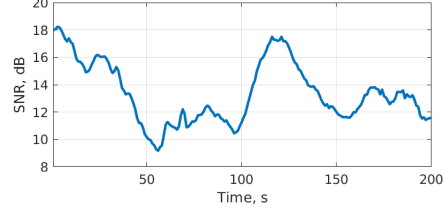
346 5.1.1. Frame length investigation

347 Underwater acoustic channel is often characterized as fast-varying both in time domain and frequency
 348 domain. Time-variation of DOA and Doppler can be significant from one frame to the other. The
 349 continuous processing of signal frames with different delays introduces energy leakage inevitably because
 350 of the tail of delayed signals. To reduce such leakage, we investigate the optimal frame length adapting
 351 to the specific channel for the process of continuous signal in the receiver. Here we investigate the frame
 352 length in the receiver based on the data collected from the session F1-1.

353 In the investigation, the TFT-CPSD beamforming is implemented in the receiver, and the frame
 354 length is set to 1 second (s), 1/3 s, 1/6 s, 1/12 s, and 1/24 s, respectively. Fig. 9 shows the bit error
 355 rate (BER) performance of the receiver as different length frames are processed. It shows that when the

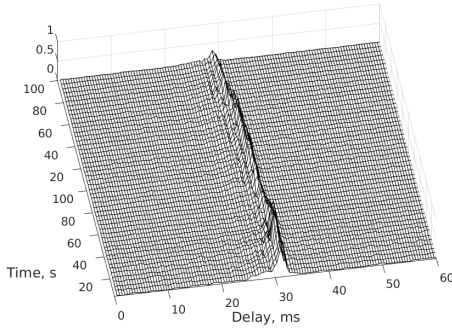


(a) F1-1 session, 30 km, average SNR = 14 dB.

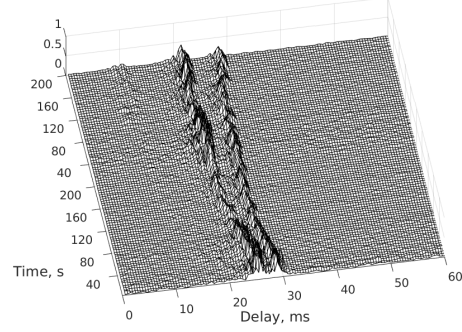


(b) F-3 session, 50 km, average SNR = 14 dB.

Figure 7: Time-varying SNR at the first (top) hydrophone channel in the sea trial. (a) F1-1 session, 30 km; (b) F-3 session, 50 km.



(a) F1-1 session, 30 km.



(b) F-3 session, 50 km.

Figure 8: Fluctuations of the channel impulse response at the first hydrophone in the two communication sessions. (a) F1-1 session; (b) F-3 session.

356 frame length is set to $1/6$ s, the receiver shows the best performance at SNR higher than 0 dB. It also
 357 shows that the receiver is sensitive to the frame length at high SNR, while it is insensitive at low SNR.

358 5.1.2. BER performance comparison

359 The BER performances of the receiver using the three beamforming techniques based DOA estimator
 360 are now compared. To show the performance of the receiver at different SNR, we add noise to the received
 361 signals separately. Signals with lower SNR are produced by adding measured ambient noise from each
 362 hydrophone to the received signal with SNR of 14 dB (Fig. 7(a)). Note that the ambient noise varies in
 363 bathymetry and the depth/position of hydrophones, resulting in specific relationship/correlations among
 364 these channel noises recorded by the 14 hydrophones (see details in Appendix A). Fig. 10 presents the
 365 BER performance of the receiver applied to the sea trial data recorded in the F1-1 session at spectral
 366 efficiencies of (a) 1 bps/Hz and (b) 0.5 bps/Hz; the convolutional code represented by polynomial in
 367 octal [3 7], being rate-1/2 code [27] is used.

368 Results presented in Fig. 10 demonstrate that when the SNR increases from -14 dB to 14 dB, the
 369 receiver with all the three beamforming techniques show improved detection performance at both spectral
 370 efficiencies compared to that without using beamforming. The receiver using the proposed TFT-CPSD
 371 beamforming provides better performance through the entire range of SNR than the FD beamforming
 372 and the TFT-CSDM beamforming, with only slightly comparable at high SNR (> 9 dB) to the FD
 373 beamforming at spectral efficiency of 1 bps/Hz. At a lower spectral efficiency (1/2 bps/Hz), the receiver
 374 using the TFT-CPSD beamforming technique outperforms both the FD beamforming and TFT-CSDM
 375 beamforming, and achieves error-free transmission at $\text{SNR} \geq -2$ dB, showing better detection performance
 376 than that of using the other two beamforming techniques. The TFT-CPSD performs better than the
 377 FD beamforming because of its reduced energy leakage between overlapped segments. The TFT-CPSD
 378 performs better than the TFT-CSDM beamforming because of its fully considered energy of the received
 379 signals.

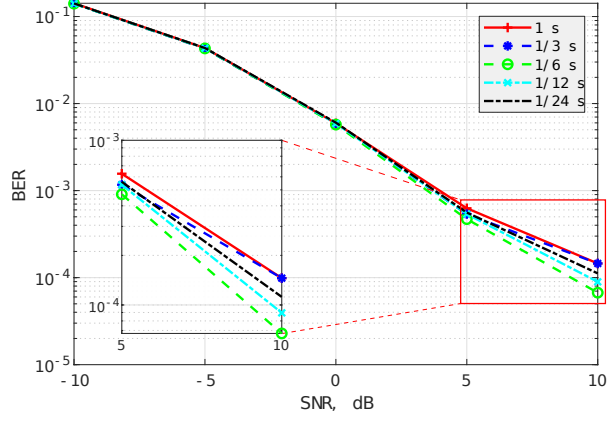
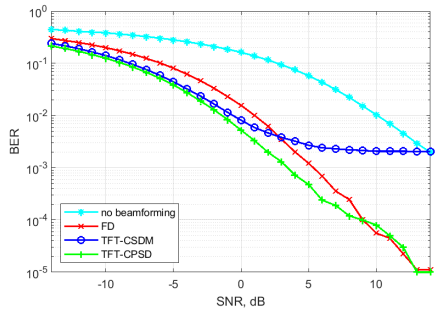
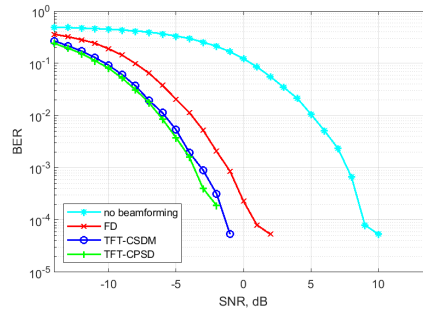


Figure 9: BER performance of the receiver with different signal frame length (1 s, 1/3 s, 1/6 s, 1/12 s, and 1/24 s). It shows the best performance as the frame length set to 1/6 second (s).



(a) 1 bps/Hz.



(b) 1/2 bps/Hz; error-free transmissions are not shown.

Figure 10: BER performance of the receiver without using beamforming and with the DOA estimator using the three beamforming techniques in the F1-1 session in the function of SNR at different spectral efficiencies. (a) 1 bps/Hz (1024 bits/s); (b) 1/2 bps/Hz (512 bits/s).

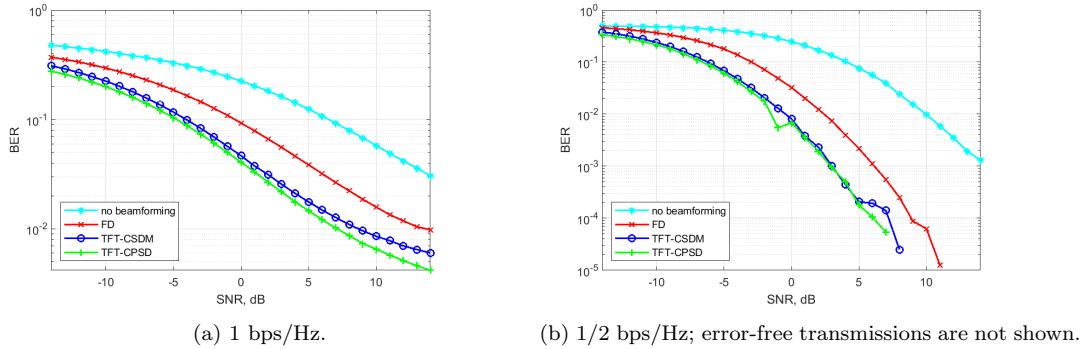


Figure 11: BER performance of the receiver without using beamforming and with the DOA estimator using the three beamforming techniques in the F-3 session in the function of SNR at different spectral efficiencies. (a) 1 bps/Hz (1024 bits/s); (b) 1/2 bps/Hz (512 bits/s).

5.1.3. Session F-3

In the F-3 session, the transmitter was towed by a vessel moving away from the receive VLA at a speed of 3 m/s, and the distance between them varied from 50 to 51 km. In this session, 200 guard-free OFDM symbols were transmitted. Fig. 6(b) left side shows the spatial power distribution. It can be seen that a mixed cluster, i.e., mixed by two separated sub-clusters from two time-varying arrival DOAs as observed, is identified as with DOA around $\hat{\theta} = -3.5^\circ$. Due to the difficulty of separating the two sub-clusters as in such close angle case, we consider it as a single cluster to find the static DOA with the peak of average spatial signal power through the session (see [10] for technique of processing multiple DOA branches). Fig. 6(b) right side shows the time-varying DOA detected for each frame (blue solid line) and a static DOA for the entire communication session (red dashed line). The peak of time-varying DOA changes between the two sub-clusters through the session indicates comparable strength of the two path arrivals. The time-varying DOA across the static DOA possesses a maximum variation of 3.0° . The static DOA is used to produce a single directional signal.

Fig. 7(b) shows the time-varying SNR at the first receive VLA hydrophone in the F-3 session, varying between 9 dB and 18 dB, and on average is 14 dB. Fig. 8(b) shows fluctuations of the channel impulse response over the F-3 session at the first hydrophone, revealing two outstanding path arrivals from the channel. Rather than possessing an outstanding single channel path, this session possesses a more complicated propagation path arrivals from two outstanding channel paths, and sometimes they interact with each other. This makes the interpolation more difficult and less accurate.

Results presented in Fig. 11 demonstrate that the receiver using all the three beamforming techniques show improved detection performance at both spectral efficiencies with the SNR increasing from -14 dB to 14 dB compared to that without using beamforming technique. The receiver using the TFT-CPSD beamforming technique provides better performance than both the other beamforming techniques at both the spectral efficiencies of 1 bps/Hz and 1/2 bps/Hz. At a lower spectral efficiency (1/2 bps/Hz), the receiver using the TFT-CPSD beamforming technique achieves error-free transmission at $\text{SNR} \geq 7$ dB, while the receiver using the other two beamforming techniques is unable to achieve error-free transmission at such SNR of 7 dB. This illustrates that the receiver with the FD beamforming and the TFT-CSDM beamforming is inferior to process such complex case of channel arrivals from multiple interacted directions than that of using the TFT-CPSD beamforming technique in UWA channels. The TFT-CPSD performs better than the other two beamforming techniques due to its reduced energy leakage with overlapped frames and its fully computed energy of received signals.

6. Verification of beamforming leakage

To verify the merit of no beamforming leakage from the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming, we use the Waymark propagation model based simulation [24, 25, 26]. In the simulation, the transmitter is stationary at a depth of 300 m. The receive VLA is towed by an ocean surface platform, and has a periodic oscillation with a maximum oscillating angle of $\vartheta_M = 1.5^\circ$, as shown in Fig. 4. When the oscillating angle $\vartheta(t) = 0^\circ$, the depth of the first hydrophone is 300 m, and the distance between the transmitter and the receive VLA is 60 km. The SSP used in the simulation is shown in Fig. 5.

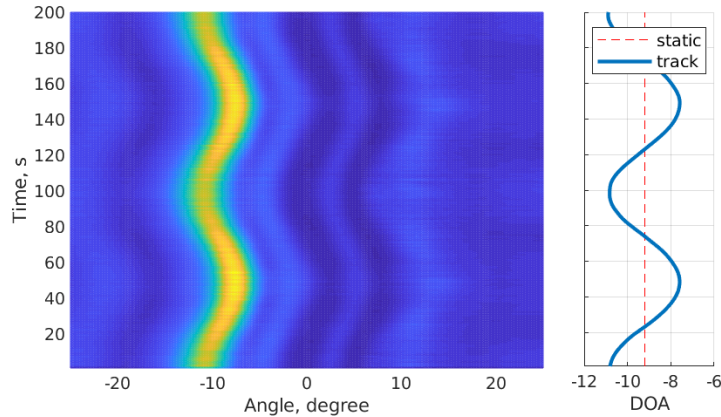


Figure 12: DOA fluctuation in the simulation. Transmitter to receive VLA distance is 60 km. Left: estimated spatial signal power; right: angle of spatial power peak for the entire session (red dashed line), and angle of spatial power peak for each data frame (blue solid line).

418 During the simulation, 200 guard-free OFDM symbols are continuously transmitted. The receive
 419 VLA oscillation is considered to be induced by the sea current/turbulence, consistent with that from the
 420 two sea trial sessions as shown in Fig. 6. The oscillating angle is given by

$$421 \quad \vartheta(t) = -\vartheta_M \cos\left(\frac{2\pi t}{T_p}\right), \quad t \in [0, T - 1], \quad (26)$$

422 where $T_p = 100$ s is the period of the VLA oscillation, and $T = 200$ s the duration of the communication
 423 session, ignoring propagation time in the channel. Note that when the angle is on the left hand of the
 424 middle dashed vertical line (see Fig. 4), the $\vartheta(t)$ is set as a negative value; and vice versa.

425 Fig. 12 left side shows spatial power distribution in the simulation. It can be seen that an outstanding
 426 cluster is identified as the one with DOA around $\hat{\theta} = -9.2^\circ$. Fig. 12 right side shows the time-varying
 427 DOA crossing the static DOA $\hat{\theta} = -9.2^\circ$ computed from the average spatial signal power for the entire
 428 communication session.

429 Fig. 13 shows comparison results of average spatial signal power $\tilde{P}(\theta)$ estimated from the DOA
 430 estimator using the three beamforming techniques with data from the Waymark model simulation without
 431 adding channel noise. The DOA estimator using the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming outperforms
 432 that of using the TFT-CSDM beamforming in accuracy, while it is comparable to that using the FD
 433 beamforming. In this case of without adding channel noise, there are still multiple extra power peaks
 434 (black circles in Fig. 13) from the result of FD beamforming, which is the same as that with the sea trial
 435 data shown in Fig. 3. The result indicates that these peaks are from beamforming leakage associated
 436 with the FD beamforming rather than from the underwater ambient. Such leakage of the target signal
 437 into the interference at multiple angles is interpreted from the time domain interpolation, and makes
 438 the DOA detection difficult, especially at low SNR. The TFT-CPSD beamforming does not have such
 439 beamforming leakage problem while provides high detection accuracy.

440 7. Conclusions and discussion

441 In this paper, we exploit the capability of three beamforming techniques, including a proposed low
 442 complexity TFT-CPSD (time-frequency-time with cross power spectral density) beamforming, in time-
 443 varying underwater acoustic communication channels, for improving the accuracy of DOA estimation and
 444 the detection performance of a receive system. The investigated receiver is designed for an underwater
 445 acoustic communication system with the transmission of guard-free OFDM signals with superimposed
 446 pilot symbols. Sea trial results demonstrate that the DOA estimator using the proposed TFT-CPSD
 447 beamforming possesses higher accuracy than that of using an existing TFT-CSDM beamforming and
 448 lower complexity than that of using interpolation based FD beamforming. The receiver using the TFT-
 449 CPSD beamforming based DOA estimator outperforms that of using the FD beamforming and the
 450 TFT-CSDM beamforming in both relatively simple and complex underwater acoustic communication
 451 channels. Further, we verified low beamforming leakage from the proposed TFT-CPSD method. As the

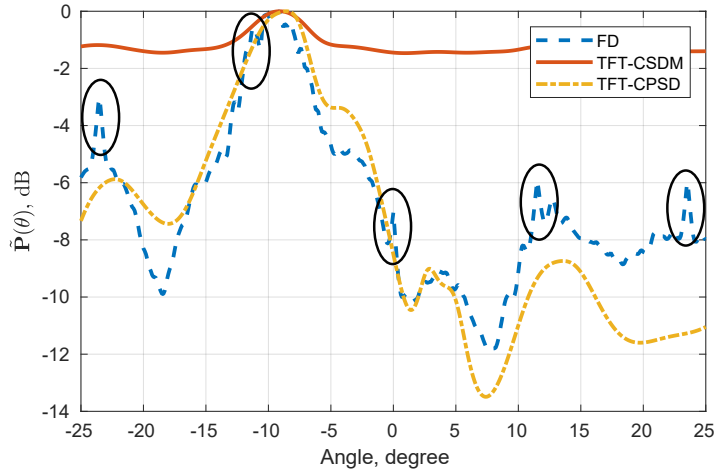


Figure 13: Comparisons of average spatial signal power $\tilde{P}(\theta)$ estimated from the DOA estimator using the three beamforming techniques with data from the simulation without adding noise in the channel. Beamforming leakage from the FD beamforming technique has been indicated in black circles, while the two TFT beamforming do not have such periodical leaking peaks.

452 proposed beamforming technique is based on the investigation of energy conservative (better than the
 453 TFT-CSDM beamforming) and energy leakage reduction (better than the FD beamforming), which is
 454 not relative to modulation schemes, thus it can be applied and tested with other modulation schemes
 455 apart from the OFDM schemes.

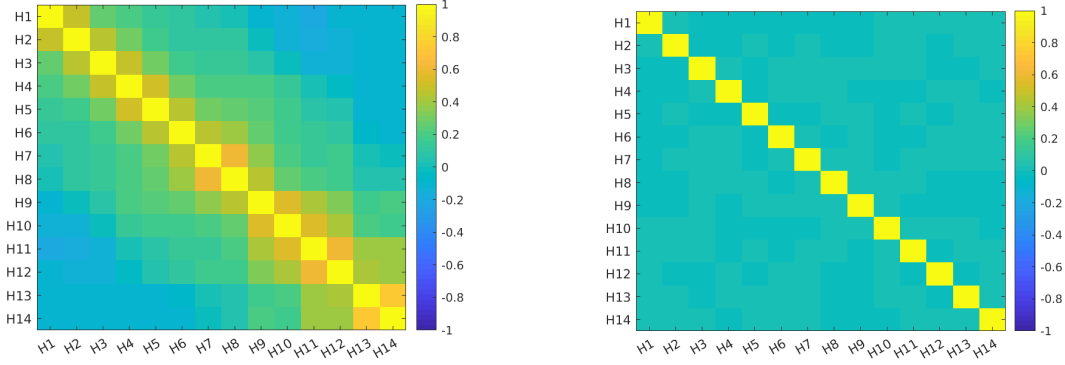
456 As the curvature of wave-front in shallow water is much more complicated than deep water trans-
 457 mission due to multipath and the gradient of sound, the channel can sometimes even be considered as
 458 sparse. In such case we may be unable to find a specific direction of arrival (DOA). To solve such a
 459 more complicated problem, a technique considering both the proposed TFT-CPSD beamforming as well
 460 as an adaptive sparse filter [4, 53] may need to be investigated in the following work. Besides, here we
 461 only consider one DOA session for each experiment session, while there might be multiple arrivals from
 462 different directions, then we need to consider a combining technique, e.g., maximum ratio combining,
 463 and an adaptive, e.g., angle-dependent, Doppler estimation technique. For such two techniques, readers
 464 are referred to the literature of [10] and [26]. The frame length investigated here may be specific for
 465 the experimental data collected in the northwest Pacific Ocean at a specific sea state. However, for the
 466 using of such proposed method, we suggest an investigation of the frame length with a test channel data
 467 prior to the application of it. Further, as we can see from Fig. 6, the DOA is not constant through the
 468 entire session and can experience a fluctuation of up to 3 degree. Considering such fluctuated DOA as a
 469 constant DOA may be an inferior way than fully tracking the actual DOA. As we can reduce the energy
 470 leakage by applying a proper way, either using the overlap-save or overlap-add or convolution methods,
 471 we expect that a DOA tracking algorithm considering the energy peak for each frame can be developed
 472 to improve the SNR and receiver performance.

473 Appendix A. Ambient noises correlation among hydrophone channels

474 Ambient noises on different receive hydrophone channels have often been assumed as uncorrelated
 475 and Gaussian distributed in UWA communications [14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20], which is a simplified process
 476 of noise in real ocean scenarios. Kilfoyle et al. [21] pointed out that such simplification may significantly
 477 change the capacity value of channel spatial modulation. Here we present the cross-correlation of un-
 478 derwater ambient noise based on sea trial data measured by the vertical linear array (VLA) of different
 479 hydrophone channels to provide ocean acoustician an initial instruction on this issue.

480 To show the strength of linear relationship between two variables, the Pearson correlation coeffi-
 481 cient [54] is used as

$$482 \xi = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^K (\varphi_1(k) - \bar{\varphi}_1)(\varphi_2(k) - \bar{\varphi}_2)}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_1^2} \sqrt{\varepsilon_2^2}}, \quad (\text{A.1})$$



(a) Ambient noises measured by the VLA in the sea trial. (b) Randomly distributed white Gaussian noise.

Figure A.14: Pearson correlation coefficient between different hydrophone channel noise in three cases. (a) Measured ambient noises in the sea trial; (b) White Gaussian noises. Negative correlations are in blue and positive correlations in yellow. ‘H.’ represents hydrophone index.

483 where

$$484 \quad \varepsilon_1^2 = \sum_{k=1}^K (\varphi_1(k) - \bar{\varphi}_1)^2, \quad (\text{A.2})$$

485 and

$$486 \quad \varepsilon_2^2 = \sum_{k=1}^K (\varphi_2(k) - \bar{\varphi}_2)^2, \quad (\text{A.3})$$

487 are covariance of the variables, $\varphi_1(k)$ and $\varphi_2(k)$ are the two variables, $\bar{\varphi}_1$ and $\bar{\varphi}_2$ are mean values of the
 488 two variables, respectively. Values between 0 and 0.3 (0 and -0.3) indicate a weak positive (negative)
 489 linear relationship via a shaky linear rule; values between 0.3 and 0.7 (-0.3 and -0.7) indicate a moderate
 490 positive (negative) linear relationship via a fuzzy-firm linear rule; and values between 0.7 and 1.0 (-0.7
 491 and -1.0) indicate a strong positive (negative) linear relationship via a firm linear rule [54].

492 Before the sea trial communication sessions, we measured the ambient noise for each hydrophone
 493 channel at its depth (420 m + hydrophone distances [0 0.6 1.2 1.8 2.4 3.0 3.6 3.9 4.8 5.4 6.0 6.6 7.8 8.1] m)
 494 using the receive VLA. Fig. A.14(a) shows the overall Pearson correlation coefficients computed from
 495 (A.1) with 20 s measured ambient noise for all the 14 hydrophone channels. As a result, the positive
 496 correlation between ambient noises measured by two hydrophones gradually decreases from strong to
 497 weak as the distance between the two hydrophones increases. Ambient noises measured by different
 498 hydrophone channels show strong/moderate positive correlation from two neighbour hydrophones with
 499 distance less than 0.6 m, show week correlation when the distance between two hydrophones is from
 500 0.6 m to 4.0 m, and can only be considered as uncorrected where and when the distance between two
 501 hydrophones is more than 4.0 m. For comparison, we also show the Pearson correlation coefficient of
 502 randomly distributed white Gaussian noise in Fig. A.14(b), which indicates uncorrected relationships
 503 between them.

504 As can be seen from Fig. A.14, when we add noise on the received signals for each hydrophone channel
 505 to obtain signals with target SNR for beamforming, we need to consider the specific measurement depth,
 506 position, and ocean bathymetry related correlation of channel ambient noise, to ensure the true capacity
 507 value of channel spatial modulation is obtained. Such specific correlation between channel noise makes
 508 influence on the beamforming performance. Detailed influence is out of the scope in this paper, and will
 509 be a research topic in the future work.

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