

# On the Angular Resolution Limit Uncertainty

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**Abstract**—The Angular Resolution Limit (ARL), denoted by  $\delta$ , is a key statistical quantity to measure our ability to resolve two closely-spaced narrowband far-field complex sources. In the literature, the ARL, denoted by  $\delta_0$ , is systematically assumed to be perfectly known for mathematical convenience. In this work, our knowledge on the ARL is supposed to be only partial, meaning that  $\delta \sim \mathcal{N}(\delta_0, \sigma_\delta^2)$ . The degree of uncertainty is quantified by the ratio  $\xi = \delta_0^2/\sigma_\delta^2$ . Based on the Chernoff Upper Bound (CUB) on the minimal error probability, we show that the CUB is highly dependent on the degree of uncertainty,  $\xi$ . As by-product, the optimal  $s$ -value for which the CUB is the tightest upper bound is analytically studied.

**Index Terms**—Angular Resolution Limit, model of uncertainty, upper bound on the error probability.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The resolvability of closely spaced signals, in terms of parameter of interest, for a given scenario (*e.g.*, for a given Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR), a given number of snapshots and/or a given number of sensors) is a former and challenging problem which was recently updated by Smith [1], Liu and Nehorai [3], Amar and Weiss [2] or Sharman and Milanfar [11]. More precisely, the concept of Statistical Resolution Limit (SRL), *i.e.*, the minimum distance between two closely spaced signals embedded in an additive noise that allows a correct resolvability/parameter estimation, is rising in several applications especially in problems such array processing [7], [8], [10], MIMO radar [4], [5], [6], or multidimensional harmonic estimation [9]. In this literature, the Angular Resolution Limit (ARL), denoted by  $\delta_0$ , is always modelled as a perfectly known deterministic parameter. In practice, this assumption is somewhat unrealistic since generally, the knowledge of the ARL is only partial. It is clear that assuming a perfect knowledge of the ARL leads to too optimistic conclusions. In this work, the uncertainty on the ARL is taken into account modelling the ARL as a random variable such that  $\delta \sim \mathcal{N}(\delta_0, \sigma_\delta^2)$ . Consequently, the degree of uncertainty is quantified by the ratio  $\xi = \delta_0^2/\sigma_\delta^2$ . Indeed, for  $\xi \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\delta \rightarrow \delta_0$  can be considered as perfectly known. On the contrary, for  $\xi \rightarrow 0$ , our degree of uncertainty tends to be maximal.

The detection performance for a random quantity in terms of minimal error probability is analytically intractable [12]. To alleviate this technical difficulty, we exploit some powerful tools from the theory of Information Geometry [14] and in particular the Chernoff Upper Bound (CUB) on the minimal error probability [13].

## II. INFORMATION GEOMETRY FRAMEWORK

### A. The Bayes' detection theory

Let  $\Pr(\mathcal{H}_i)$  be the a priori hypothesis probability with  $\Pr(\mathcal{H}_0) + \Pr(\mathcal{H}_1) = 1$ . Let  $\Pr(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{H}_i)$  and  $\Pr(\mathcal{H}_i|\mathbf{y})$  be the  $i$ -th conditional hypothesis and the posterior probabilities, respectively. The Bayes' detection rule chooses the hypothesis  $\mathcal{H}_i$  associated with the largest posterior probability  $\Pr(\mathcal{H}_i|\mathbf{y})$ . Introduce the indicator hypothesis function according to  $\phi(\mathbf{y}) \sim \text{Bernou}(\alpha)$  where  $\text{Bernou}(\alpha)$  stands for the Bernoulli distribution of success probability  $\alpha = \Pr(\phi(\mathbf{y}) = 1) = \Pr(\mathcal{H}_1)$ . Function  $\phi(\mathbf{y})$  is defined on  $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  where  $\mathcal{X}$  is the dataset of cardinality  $|\mathcal{X}|$  enjoying the following decomposition  $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_0 \cup \mathcal{X}_1$  where  $\mathcal{X}_0 = \{\mathbf{y} : \phi(\mathbf{y}) = 0\} = \mathcal{X} \setminus \mathcal{X}_1$  and

$$\mathcal{X}_1 = \{\mathbf{y} : \phi(\mathbf{y}) = 1\} = \left\{ \mathbf{y} : \Omega(\mathbf{y}) = \log \frac{\Pr(\mathcal{H}_1|\mathbf{y})}{\Pr(\mathcal{H}_0|\mathbf{y})} > 0 \right\}$$

where  $\Omega(\mathbf{y})$  is the log posterior-odds ratio. The average probability of error is

$$P_e = E_{\mathbf{y}} \{ \Pr(\text{Error}|\mathbf{y}) \} \quad (1)$$

with

$$\Pr(\text{Error}|\mathbf{y}) = \begin{cases} \Pr(\mathcal{H}_0|\mathbf{y}) & \text{if } \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{X}_1, \\ \Pr(\mathcal{H}_1|\mathbf{y}) & \text{if } \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{X}_0. \end{cases}$$

The standard strategy to minimize  $\Pr(\text{Error}|\mathbf{y})$  for a given  $\mathbf{y}$  is  $\min \{ \Pr(\mathcal{H}_0|\mathbf{y}), \Pr(\mathcal{H}_1|\mathbf{y}) \}$  [12]. So using (1), the minimal average error probability can be expressed as

$$P_e = E_{\mathbf{y}} \left\{ \min \{ \Pr(\mathcal{H}_0|\mathbf{y}), \Pr(\mathcal{H}_1|\mathbf{y}) \} \right\}$$

Using Bayes' relation, we obtain

$$P_e = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \min \left\{ (1 - \alpha)p_0(\mathbf{y}), \alpha p_1(\mathbf{y}) \right\} d\mathbf{y} \quad (2)$$

where  $p_i(\mathbf{y}) = \Pr(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{H}_i)$ .

### B. Chernoff Upper Bound (CUB) and asymptotic error exponent

Using the property that  $\min \{x, z\} \leq x^s z^{1-s}$  with  $x, z > 0$  and  $s \in (0, 1)$  in (2), the minimal error probability is upper bounded according to

$$P_e \leq \frac{1 - \alpha}{\beta^s} E_{\mathbf{y}} \{ \exp[-C_{\mathbf{y}}(s)] \} \quad (3)$$

where  $\beta = \frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha}$  and

$$C_{\mathbf{y}}(s) = -\log \int_{\mathcal{X}} p_0(\mathbf{y})^{1-s} p_1(\mathbf{y})^s d\mathbf{y} \quad (4)$$

is the (Chernoff)  $s$ -divergence. The term  $C_{\mathbf{y}}(s)$  characterizes the exponential rate of the error exponent of  $P_e$ . The Chernoff information, denoted by  $C_{\mathbf{y}}(s)$ , is an asymptotic characterization on the best achievable Bayes' error probability. It is worth observing that the integral in (4) can be reformulated as

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathcal{X}} p_0(\mathbf{y})^{1-s} p_1(\mathbf{y})^s d\mathbf{y} &= \int_{\mathcal{X}} \frac{p_1(\mathbf{y})^s}{p_0(\mathbf{y})^s} p_0(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} \\ &= \int_{\mathcal{X}} \exp[s\Gamma(\mathbf{y})] p_0(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} \\ &= E_{\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{H}_0} \{ \exp(s\Gamma(\mathbf{y})) \} \\ &= M_{\Gamma(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{H}_0)}(s) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where  $\Gamma(\mathbf{y}) = \log\left(\frac{p_1(\mathbf{y})}{p_0(\mathbf{y})}\right)$  and  $M_X(s)$  is the Moment Generating Function (MGF) of the random variable  $X$ .

### III. BINARY HYPOTHESIS TEST AND LARGE DEVIATION ANALYSIS

#### A. Signal and noise models

Consider two far-field and narrowband complex sources denoted by  $s_1(t)$  and  $s_2(t)$  measured for the  $t$ -th snapshot. The observation on the  $\ell$ -th sensor of a uniform linear array and for the  $t$ -th snapshot is given by

$$y_\ell(t) = s_1(t) \cdot [\mathbf{a}(\omega_1)]_\ell + s_2(t) \cdot [\mathbf{a}(\omega_2)]_\ell + w_\ell(t)$$

where  $[\mathbf{a}(\omega_m)]_\ell = \exp[j \cdot \omega_m \cdot (\ell - 1)]$  for  $1 \leq m \leq 2$ ,  $1 \leq \ell \leq L$  with  $L$  the number of sensors. We are interested in quantifying our ability to resolve the two closely spaced sources  $s_1(t)$  and  $s_2(t)$ . Each source collected over  $T$  snapshots is denoted by the vector  $\mathbf{s}_1$  and  $\mathbf{s}_2$ , respectively. The noise  $w_\ell(t)$  is assumed to be Gaussian distributed, temporally white (each noise snapshot is independent of the others), but spatially correlated such that, the collected noise over  $T$  snapshots  $\mathbf{w}$  is  $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{M})$ .

Let  $\delta = \omega_2 - \omega_1$  be the ARL between the two sources. The closely-spaced assumption means that  $\delta$  is small. The detection problem of interest can be formulated as a binary hypothesis test as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \mathcal{H}_0 : & \delta = 0, \\ \mathcal{H}_1 : & \delta \neq 0. \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

As  $\delta$  is small, by using the first order Taylor expansion around the so-called centre parameters  $\omega_c = \frac{\omega_1 + \omega_2}{2}$ , we obtain  $\mathbf{a}(\omega_1) \overset{1}{\approx} \mathbf{a}(\omega_c) - \frac{j}{2} \delta \dot{\mathbf{a}}(\omega_c)$  and  $\mathbf{a}(\omega_2) \overset{1}{\approx} \mathbf{a}(\omega_c) + \frac{j}{2} \delta \dot{\mathbf{a}}(\omega_c)$ , where symbol  $\overset{1}{\approx}$  stands for first-order approximation and  $\dot{\mathbf{a}}(\omega_c) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}(\omega_c)}{\partial \omega_c}$ . We can write the linear  $(TL) \times 1$  approximated vector as follows<sup>1</sup>

$$\mathbf{y} \overset{1}{\approx} \boldsymbol{\mu}_\delta + \mathbf{w}$$

<sup>1</sup>See [11], [8] for the full derivations and calculus.

where  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_\delta = \mathbf{a}(\omega_c) \otimes (\mathbf{s}_1 + \mathbf{s}_2) + \frac{j}{2} \delta \dot{\mathbf{a}}(\omega_c) \otimes (\mathbf{s}_2 - \mathbf{s}_1)$ .

Let us consider the case in which the two sources  $\mathbf{s}_1$  and  $\mathbf{s}_2$  and  $\omega_c$  are known. We define the new observation vector  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{a}(\omega_c) \otimes (\mathbf{s}_1 + \mathbf{s}_2)$ . This assumption is realistic in a supervised system where the sources are pilot-assisted. In this case the hypothesis test (6) becomes

$$\begin{cases} \mathcal{H}_0 : & \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{w} \\ \mathcal{H}_1 : & \mathbf{z} = \delta \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{w} \end{cases}$$

where  $\mathbf{p} = -\frac{j}{2} \dot{\mathbf{a}}(\omega_c) \otimes (\mathbf{s}_2 - \mathbf{s}_1)$ .

In our scenario we suppose that we do not have full knowledge of the true angular distance  $\delta$  between the two sources. We only know its mean value  $\delta_0$ . To deal with this uncertainty, we model the amplitude of the vector  $\mathbf{p}$  as a Gaussian random variable with mean value  $\delta_0$  and variance  $\sigma_\delta^2$ , i.e.  $\delta \sim \mathcal{N}(\delta_0, \sigma_\delta^2)$ .

With this model we can now derive  $\Gamma(\mathbf{z})$  and solve the integral in (5). It is possible to prove that

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(\mathbf{z}) &= \log \left( \frac{p_1(\mathbf{z})}{p_0(\mathbf{z})} \right) \\ &= \log \frac{|\mathbf{M}_0|}{|\mathbf{M}_1|} - (\mathbf{z} - \delta_0 \mathbf{p})^H \mathbf{M}_1^{-1} (\mathbf{z} - \delta_0 \mathbf{p}) + \mathbf{z}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{z} \\ &= \log \frac{|\mathbf{M}_0|}{|\mathbf{M}_1|} - \mathbf{z}^H (\mathbf{M}_1^{-1} - \mathbf{M}_0^{-1}) \mathbf{z} \\ &\quad + 2\text{Re} \{ \delta_0 \mathbf{z}^H \mathbf{M}_1^{-1} \mathbf{p} \} - \delta_0^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}_1^{-1} \mathbf{p} \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

where  $\mathbf{M}_0 = \sigma^2 \mathbf{M}$ ,  $\mathbf{M}_1 = \sigma^2 \mathbf{M} + \sigma_\delta^2 \mathbf{p} \mathbf{p}^H$  and  $|\mathbf{R}|$  stands for the determinant of the matrix  $\mathbf{R}$ . Using Woodbury's identity [12] we can derive that

$$\mathbf{M}_1^{-1} = \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} - \frac{\sigma_\delta^2 \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p} \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1}}{1 + \sigma_\delta^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}}. \quad (8)$$

Replacing eq. (8) in (7), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(\mathbf{z}) &= \log \frac{|\mathbf{M}_0|}{|\mathbf{M}_1|} + \frac{\sigma_\delta^2 |\mathbf{z}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}|^2}{1 + \sigma_\delta^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}} \\ &\quad + 2\text{Re} \left\{ \frac{\delta_0 \mathbf{z}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}}{1 + \sigma_\delta^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}} \right\} - \frac{\delta_0^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}}{1 + \sigma_\delta^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}}. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

The key statistic that appears in the previous equations is  $t = \mathbf{z}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p} = t_I + jt_Q$ , the output of a whitening matched filter [12], where  $t_I = \text{Re} \{ \mathbf{z}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p} \}$  and  $t_Q = \text{Im} \{ \mathbf{z}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p} \}$ . Under the hypothesis  $\mathcal{H}_0$ ,  $E \{ t_I | \mathcal{H}_0 \} = E \{ t_Q | \mathcal{H}_0 \} = 0$ ,  $\text{var}(t_I | \mathcal{H}_0) = \text{var}(t_I | \mathcal{H}_0) = \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}$  and the random variables  $t_I$  and  $t_Q$  are Gaussian distributed and independent [12].

Observing that  $|\mathbf{M}_1| = |\mathbf{M}_0| (1 + \sigma_\delta^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p})$  and recalling that  $\mathbf{M}_0 = \sigma^2 \mathbf{M}$  we can rewrite eq. (9) as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(\mathbf{z}) &= \log \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + a} + \frac{\sigma_\delta^2}{\sigma^2 (\sigma^2 + a)} (t_I^2 + t_Q^2) \\ &\quad + \frac{2\delta_0}{\sigma^2 + a} t_I - \frac{b}{\sigma^2 + a} \end{aligned}$$

where  $a = \sigma_\delta^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{p}$  and  $b = \delta_0^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{p}$ . Grouping all the terms with  $t_I$ , after some calculations, we obtain

$$\Gamma(\mathbf{z}) = \log \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + a} + \frac{\sigma_\delta^2}{\sigma^2(\sigma^2 + a)} \left( t_I + \frac{\delta_0 \sigma^2}{\sigma_\delta^2} \right)^2 + \frac{\sigma_\delta^2}{\sigma^2(\sigma^2 + a)} t_Q^2 - \frac{\delta_0^2 \sigma^2}{\sigma_\delta^2(\sigma^2 + a)} - \frac{b}{\sigma^2 + a}$$

then

$$E_{\mathbf{z}|\mathcal{H}_0} \{ \exp(s\Gamma(\mathbf{z})) \} = \frac{(\sigma^2)^s}{(\sigma^2 + a)^s} \exp \left( -s \frac{\delta_0^2 \sigma^2 + b \sigma_\delta^2}{\sigma_\delta^2(\sigma^2 + a)} \right) \cdot M_{y_1|\mathcal{H}_0}(s) M_{y_2|\mathcal{H}_0}(s) \quad (10)$$

where  $Y_1|\mathcal{H}_0 = \frac{\sigma_\delta^2}{\sigma^2(\sigma^2 + a)} \left( t_I + \frac{\delta_0 \sigma^2}{\sigma_\delta^2} \right)^2$  and  $Y_2|\mathcal{H}_0 = \frac{\sigma_\delta^2}{\sigma^2(\sigma^2 + a)} t_Q^2$ .

We can prove that  $Y_1|\mathcal{H}_0$  is a non-central random variable  $\chi_1^2(d, \lambda)$  where  $d = \frac{a}{2(\sigma^2 + a)}$  is the scale parameter and  $\lambda = 2 \frac{\delta_0^2 \sigma^2}{a \sigma_\delta^2}$  in the non-centrality parameter.

Conversely  $Y_2|\mathcal{H}_0$  is a central  $\chi_1^2(d)$  random variable.

Now we are able to write  $M_{y_1|\mathcal{H}_0}(s)$  and  $M_{y_2|\mathcal{H}_0}(s)$  according to

$$M_{y_1|\mathcal{H}_0}(s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{a}{\sigma^2 + a} s}} \exp \left( \frac{\delta_0^2}{\sigma_\delta^2} \frac{s \sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + a} \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{a}{\sigma^2 + a} s\right)} \right) \quad (11)$$

and

$$M_{y_2|\mathcal{H}_0}(s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{a}{\sigma^2 + a} s}} \quad (12)$$

For ease, let define the SNR at the output of the whitening matched filter  $t = \mathbf{z}^H \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{p}$  according to

$$\begin{aligned} SNR &= \gamma \frac{E \left\{ |\delta \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{p}|^2 \right\}}{E \left\{ |\mathbf{d}^H \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{p}|^2 \right\}} \\ &= \frac{(\delta_0^2 + \sigma_\delta^2)}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{p} = \frac{a + b}{\sigma^2}. \end{aligned}$$

To further simplify eq. (10) we observe that  $\xi \delta_0^2 / \sigma_\delta^2 = b/a$ , then  $a = b/\xi$  and  $\sigma^2 = b(\xi + 1)/(\xi\gamma)$ . With this notation and replacing (11) and (12) in (10) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\mathbf{z}|\mathcal{H}_0} \{ \exp(s\Gamma(\mathbf{z})) \} &= \frac{(1 + \xi)^s}{(1 + \xi + \gamma)^s} \frac{\exp(-s\xi)}{1 - s \frac{\gamma}{1 + \xi + \gamma}} \\ &\cdot \exp \left[ \frac{\xi(1 + \xi)s}{1 + \xi + \gamma(1 - s)} \right] \quad (13) \end{aligned}$$

Replacing now (13) in (3), we finally get the CUB

$$\begin{aligned} P_e &\leq \frac{1 - \alpha}{\beta^s} \frac{(1 + \xi)^s}{(1 + \xi + \gamma)^s} \frac{1}{1 - s \frac{\gamma}{1 + \xi + \gamma}} \\ &\cdot \exp \left[ -\frac{\xi\gamma(1 - s)s}{1 + \xi + \gamma(1 - s)} \right]. \quad (14) \end{aligned}$$

TABLE I  
 $s_{min}$  VS  $\xi$

$\xi$	0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10
$\beta = 1$	0.8565	0.857	0.858	0.861	0.869	0.883	0.884
$\beta = 0.333$	0.8291	0.8293	0.831	0.837	0.848	0.870	0.875

From eq. (14) it is evident that the CUB does not depend on  $\delta_0^2$  and  $\sigma_\delta^2$  separately, but only on their ratio  $\xi$  and on  $\gamma$ .

For low values of SNR,  $\gamma \ll 1$ . Under this hypothesis eq. (14) can be approximated as

$$P_e \leq \frac{1 - \alpha}{\beta^s} \exp \left[ \frac{\xi\gamma}{1 + \xi} s(-1 + s) \right]$$

and the value of  $s$  for which the bound is minimum is  $s = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1 + \xi}{2\xi\gamma} \log(\beta)$  (provided that  $s > 0$ ). When  $\Pr(\mathcal{H}_0) = \Pr(\mathcal{H}_1)$ ,  $\beta = 1$  and  $s = \frac{1}{2}$ .

In the more general case  $s_{min}$  can be calculated as the unique solution in the range (0, 1) of the 2nd order equation

$$s^2 - \frac{\gamma^2 - 2K_0\gamma(1 + \xi + \gamma)}{K_0\gamma^2} s$$

$$+ \frac{K_0(1 + \xi + \gamma)^2 - (1 + \xi + \gamma)((1 + \xi)\xi + \gamma)}{K_0\gamma^2} = 0 \quad (15)$$

where  $K_0 = \left( \xi - \log \frac{1 + \xi}{(1 + \xi + \gamma)\beta} \right)$ . This equation has been derived by calculating the  $\log$  of the CUB and then by derivating it with respect to  $s$ .

## B. Analysis of the results

In order to vary the uncertainty on the value of the ARL and to analyse its impact on the CUB, we have defined the parameter  $\xi = \delta_0^2 / \sigma_\delta^2$ , that is, the ratio between the square mean value of the ARL and its variance. For low values of  $\xi$  the variance of the ARL is large, so the uncertainty is high. Conversely, for high values of  $\xi$  the uncertainty is small.

In the following figures 1 and 2 we show the  $s_{min}$  as a function of the SNR, with  $\beta = 1$  ( $\alpha = 0.5$ , the two hypotheses are equiprobable) and  $\beta = 0.333$  ( $\alpha = 0.75$ ) respectively, for different values of the parameter  $\xi$ . As expected for low values of SNR and  $\beta = 1$   $s_{min} = 0.5$ . It is worth observing that the behaviour of  $s_{min}$ , derived from eq. (15), highly depends on  $\xi$ . The values of  $s_{min}$  increases monotonically with SNR for every value of  $\xi$  and of  $\beta$ .

In figure 3 the corresponding CUB is plotted as a function of  $\xi$  for SNR = 30 dB. It is clear again from these curves that the impact of the uncertainty on the CUB is very large. Passing from  $\xi = 1$ , for which, for instance,  $\delta_0 = 0.1$  and  $\sigma_\delta^2 = 10^{-2}$ , to  $\xi = 10$ , for which  $\delta_0 = 0.1$  and  $\sigma_\delta^2 = 10^{-3}$ , the CUB changes of more than 2 orders of magnitude. We can then conclude that, considering the ARL always deterministic and known can be very optimistic.

The values of  $s_{min}$  corresponding to some of the tested values of  $\xi$  in figure 3 are reported in Table I

IV. CONCLUSION

Quantifying the resolution of two closed-spaced sources is a fundamental problem at the heart of challenging applications. The Angular Resolution Limit (ARL) measures our ability to resolve two closely-spaced sources in the context of array processing. Usually in the literature, the ARL is supposed perfectly known, *i.e.*, modelled as a deterministic variable. In this work, we choose to relax this too severe assumption. Indeed, our new ARL is modelled as a random variable such as  $\delta \sim \mathcal{N}(\delta_0, \sigma_\delta^2)$ . In this paper the degree of uncertainty has been quantified by the ratio  $\xi = \delta_0^2 / \sigma_\delta^2$ . Large (small) ratio means low (high) uncertainty. Based on the Chernoff Upper Bound (CUB) on the minimal error probability, we show that the ARL is highly dependent on the ratio  $\xi$ . As a by product, the optimal  $s$ -value for which the CUB is the tightest upper bound is analytically studied and its independence of  $\delta_0$  is proved. In future work we will consider the more general case of non-Gaussian noise.

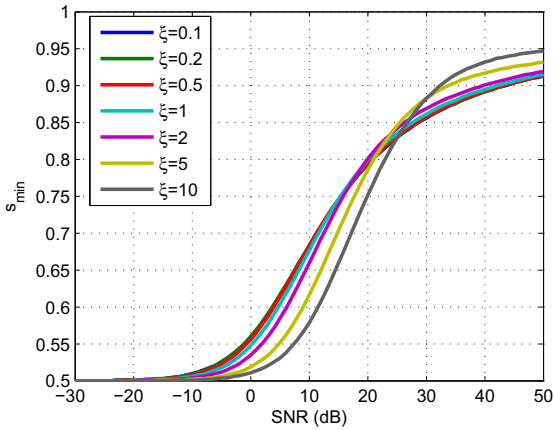


Fig. 1.  $s_{min}$  vs  $SNR$ ,  $\beta = 1$

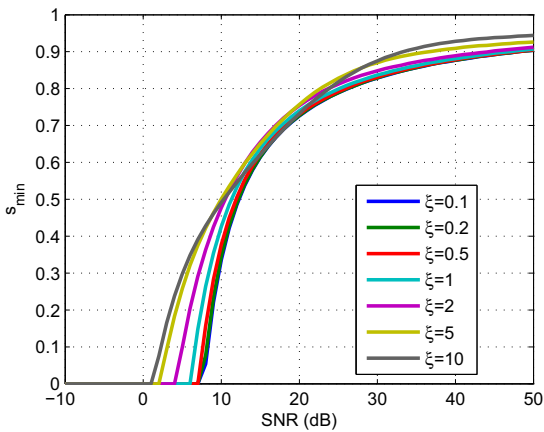


Fig. 2.  $s_{min}$  vs  $SNR$ ,  $\beta = 0.333$

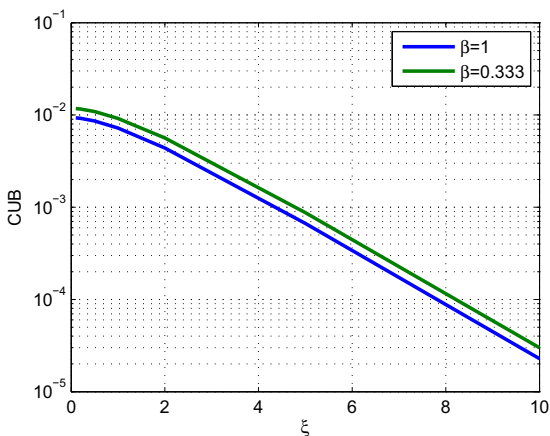


Fig. 3. CUB vs  $\xi$ ,  $SNR = 30$  dB

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