Applied Acoustics vol. 175, 107811 (2021)

©2020 Elsevier Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apacoust.2020.107811
Submitted: 16th August 2020. Revised: 27th September 2020. Accepted: 24th November 2020.

3D imaging in two-channel stereo sound: portrayal of elevation Milind N. Kunchur

Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of South Carolina, Columbia, SC 29028, USA

Email: kunchur@gmail.com, kunchur@sc.edu URL: http://www.physics.sc.edu/~kunchur/

ABSTRACT

Among the variety of audio configurations in use—from basic monophonic to complex multichannel surround-sound systems—two-channel stereophonic (stereo) systems have dominated sound reproduction for the purpose of music. Unbeknownst to most of the consumer public, stereo systems in the high end of audio performance can approach the illusion of a live performance, with realistic instrumental timbres and 3D spatialization. Among the three dimensions of the recreated soundstage, the portrayal of elevation remains controversial. In this work, an audio system was assembled that had sufficient fidelity to achieve 3D spatialization, and it was proven through psychoacoustic testing that elevation differentiation of instrumental images can indeed be perceived. The relationship between auditory mechanisms involved in natural-sound localization and stereo-sound imaging is discussed.

KEYWORDS: high fidelity; high end audio; imaging; height; elevation; altitude

1. INTRODUCTION

The recording and playback of sound is ubiquitous in today's technological world, with two-channel stereo being the leading format for conveying music. Despite advances in audio technology, the majority of audio playback systems bear a distant resemblance to the sound of live acoustic music. This is partly because the selection of components and assembly of mainstream-consumer systems is often guided by incomplete and misleading specifications—such as frequency response and certain common distortions—that miss the complexity and subtlety of sonic nuances that our auditory system can resolve. As shown by various researchers [1–9], time-domain artifacts have a dominant influence on fidelity at higher levels—both regarding the tonal quality (timbre) as well as the inherent spatialization.

There is a category of realistic sounding systems—sometimes referred to as "high-end audio" (which I will abbreviate as HEA)—that lies far beyond mainstream-consumer audio. Carefully setup and tuned HEA systems are extremely rare, and most people interested in music are not aware that this level of audio reproduction exists. They are astounded when they experience for the first time the 3D recreated soundstage with phantom images of instruments and their acoustic surroundings, reproduced with amazing timbral detail. HEA

components are already close to perfection in standard specifications—for example, the amplifier used in the present work has a frequency response of DC to 1 MHz ±1 dB, unweighted signal-to-noise ratio of 97dB, and ~0.01% total distortion. Sonic dissimilarities between HEA components arise from subtle time-domain differences; and improvements in overall system performance come from meticulous setup and tuning, and careful attention to details such as the interlinking cables [10]. The next section describes the audio system used in this work in complete details, so that the system and the experiment can be replicated by other research groups.

By using this accurate audio system, it was possible to prove that the phantom images of instruments in the recreated soundstage appear not only at different azimuthal locations (left/right lateral separations) and depth (distance behind/in-front of loudspeaker plane), but occur at different elevations (heights of images above floor).

Most audio professionals do not believe that elevation can or should be naturally reproduced in two-channel stereo. The present experimental result settles that debate. This effect has been demonstrated in private settings and in conventions, but the present work provides concrete proof through IRB (Institutional Review Board) approved controlled blind tests. The results provide a scientific underpinning to anecdotal claims by HEA enthusiasts, and reinforces early work on imaging using the Blumlein-microphone technique at the former Instituut voor Perceptie Onderzoek (at Eindhoven Technical University in The Netherlands) [11].

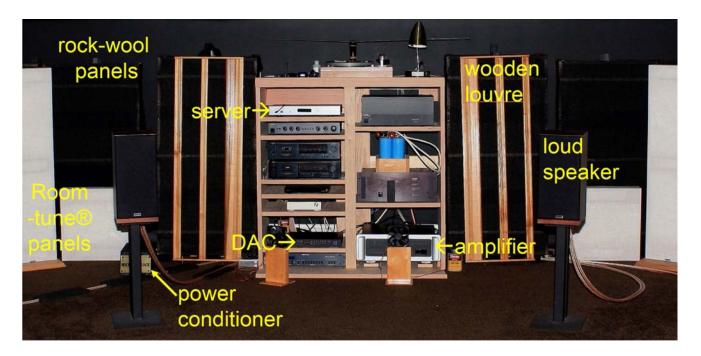
2. INSTRUMENTATION AND METHODS

2.1 Description of Audio System used in the Experiment

Figure 1 shows the image (upper panel) and block diagram (lower panel) of the audio system used in the experiment. The main components (text boxes in the block diagram) are interlinked by various types of cables (arrows). The amplifier is plugged directly into a grounded wall outlet. The server and DAC are plugged into a Tice Audio® Microblock® power conditioner with floating ground.

The music server is a Bryston® BDP-1 Digital Player®. This fed a 1.5m Straightwire® Infolink® digital interconnect through an AES/EBU XLR connector (abbreviations stand for AES: Audio Engineering Society; EBU: European Broadcasting Union; XLR: external line return). The digital feed goes into a Berkeley Audio Design® Alpha DAC® Series 2. This DAC (digital-to-analog converter) has two isolated buffered pairs of analog outputs—single ended RCA (Radio Corporation of America) and balanced XLR. The balanced XLR outputs fed a pair of 0.5 m long balanced XLR-to-XLR Straightwire® Virtuoso® analog interconnects; the RCA outputs were not used. The analog interconnects fed a Spectral® DMA-250S Studio Universal Amplifier®. The measured C-weighted sound level at listener position peaked at 72 dB SPL.

The amplifier's output was bi-wired to a pair of ProAc® Response® D2 loudspeakers through 3m long Straightwire® Maestro® II loudspeaker cables. These cables were terminated by optimized RC networks (R=18 Ω in series with C=3.3 nF at the tweeter terminals and R=18 Ω in series with C=5 nF at the woofer terminals) to suppress reflections back toward the amplifier. The loudspeakers were mounted on Target® HJ2O/T® stands with lead filled columns, and with spikes on the top and bottom plates to suppress recoil.



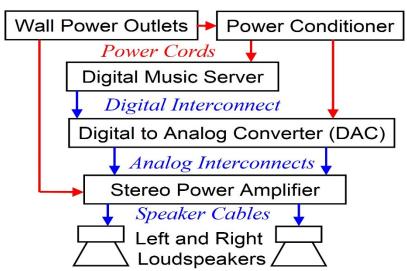


Figure 1. Image (upper panel) and block diagram (lower panel) of the audio system used in the experiment. Major components are labeled in the image. Interlinking cables and components not used in the experiment (such as the FM tuner, turntable, and amplifiers powering subwoofers, etc.) are unlabeled in the image.

Loudspeaker distances (from front-face centers) were: 1.88 m to the back wall, 1.69 m to side walls, and were mutually separated by 2.08 m between left and right units. The room has a 56 m^2 area with 1.37 length-to-width aspect ratio, and 2.7m ceiling height. The back wall was lined with 1.22 m tall air-spaced rock-wool panels (average thickness of 245 mm) fronted by Roomtune® panels and louvres of wooden strips. The floor is covered with very dense and thick nylon carpeting atop thick padding, with a double layer of carpeting (total thickness of \sim 40 mm) over 2 m² areas where the first reflections from the floor occur.

General guidance for setting up suitable audio systems can be found in [12]. As a rule of thumb, the loudspeakers should be spaced about 2 m apart in a room large enough to ensure that the loudspeakers are distanced by at least 2 m from the back and side walls, and at least 5 m from the far wall; the listener can be seated at 2.5–4 m distance from both loudspeakers equidistantly.

2.2 Human-Research Ethical Approval

The experimenter (author) completed a Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (Citi Program) course (Completion Date: 29-Apr-2018; Expiration Date: 28-Apr-2021; Curriculum Group: Human Research; Course Learner Group: Social & Behavioral Researchers). The research proposal for this study was reviewed on 03-May-2018 by the Office of Research Compliance of the University of South Carolina Institutional Review Board (ethics committee). All experiments were conducted in compliance with the reviewed proposal.

2.3 Statistical Method

The experiment had 1 degree of freedom, for which the 'chi-squared value' is given by: $\chi^2 = (C - T/2)^2/(T/2) + (I - T/2)^2/(T/2)$, where T is the total number of trials, C is the number of correct judgments, and I is the number of incorrect judgments. The standard critical value for chi-squared is 3.84, which corresponds to a right-tail probability of p = 0.05 for occurrence by random chance (i.e., a certainty of 95%). As will be seen below, the present experimental result produced a value of $\chi^2 = 25.14$, well in excess of the critical value (the probability that the result occurred by random chance is only 0.0000005332).

3. SOUND LOCALIZATION AND STEREO IMAGING

Let us now review the mechanisms for localization—the process used by our auditory system to determine the locations of natural sounds—and see how these mechanisms relate to the workings of spatialization in reproduced stereo sound [13]–[15]. It should be noted that the term spatialization is sometimes used for dimensionality created through artificial processing, wave field synthesis, ambisonics, and the various implementations of surround sound [16]–[18]. However, the present work is concerned with the 3D sound that unfolds naturally in HEA through a two-loudspeaker setup and recordings made with two microphones without artificial signal manipulation. The key to sonic dimensionality is to maintain the highest signal integrity at every step in order to preserve the time-domain fidelity to the subtlest detail. The reasons for this will become apparent in the following subsections. We will start with the determination of depth.

3.1 Determination of depth

There are four main mechanisms that provide distance cues: (1) Fall off of intensity with distance for familiar sound sources, e.g. someone's voice. (2) Preferential absorption of high frequencies as sound travels through air, resulting in a duller sound with increasing

distance. (3) The ratio I_d/I_r of direct sound intensity I_d to reverberant sound intensity I_r , with the sound taking on a more reverberant quality with increasing distance. (4) The time delay gap between the direct sound and the arrival of the first strong (usually ground) reflection, with the gap diminishing with distance. When listening to unfamiliar sounds, the first two mechanisms play a reduced role.

In reproduced sound, depth is portrayed if the recording has faithfully captured the reverberation and temporal structure, and the audio system's time-domain response does not mask this information. Note that two channels are not essential for portraying depth; monophonic reproduction can convey depth too.

3.2 Determination of azimuth

Azimuth refers to the horizontal-plane left-right angle, with straight in front designated as zero degrees. Sound from a source that is not directly in front will arrive at the two ears with unequal intensities (Interaural Level Difference or ILD) and at unequal times (Interaural Time Difference or ITD). These differences are analyzed respectively in the Medial Superior Olive (MSO) and Lateral Superior Olive (LSO) within the Superior Olivary Complex in the brain. In addition to ILD and ITD, the primary spectral mechanism for elevation determination (see below) also provides azimuthal cues.

Stereo recording techniques where the microphones are spaced apart—such as the A-B or ORTF (Office de Radiodiffusion Télévision Française) methods—introduce level and time differences between the left and right channels. Recording techniques with coincident microphones—such as the X-Y or Blumlein methods—maintain synchronicity between the channels and azimuthal separation is accomplished mainly through frequency dependent level differences. The Blumlein technique uses "figure-8" microphones (which are less directional than cardiod microphones) and thereby picks up more of the ambient reflected sounds. As discussed above this is necessary to convey depth. As discussed below, this capturing of ambient sound also appears essential for conveying elevation.

3.3 Determination of elevation

One widely accepted elevation-localization mechanism [13]-[15] is based on constructive peaks and destructive dips in the spectral response, referred to as the HRTF (head related transfer function; e.g., see Figure 4 in [13]), caused by interference between sound reaching the ear canal directly and through multiple reflections off of the pinna and head. This HRTF spectral mechanism works for broadband and high-frequency-content sounds, especially above ~3 kHz where wavelengths become comparable to the pinna. The HRTF, which is neurologically analyzed by a bank of notch-detecting pyramidal neurons in the Dorsal Cochlear Nucleus (DCN) in the brain, depends sensitively on the elevation of the sound source but also on the azimuthal angle. Hence besides source elevation, one can also differentiate left-right sound direction with just one ear, although not as accurately as with the ITD and ILD mechanisms.

Binaural recordings, which are intended for playback through earphones, are made with a dummy head to embed an HRTF in the recording. Because this HRTF belongs to the dummy and not to the listener, this never quite succeeds in placing images of instruments

where they should be, i.e. in a soundstage in front of the listener, instead of in and around the head. Most audiophile stereo recordings are meant for loudspeakers and do not utilize a dummy head (or other purposeful interference scheme) during recording nor have an artificially embedded HRTF. Despite this, some recordings played on a good audio system clearly portray elevation, as presented below. This shows that the HRTF spectral model of human elevation localization is not the whole story. Moreover, humans can localize the elevation of narrowband and low-frequency (f << 3 kHz) natural sounds, which is not explainable by the HRTF spectral mechanism.

It has been suggested that the upper torso and in particular shoulder reflections play a principal role for elevation perception for frequencies below 3 kHz, and that the effect is not just spectral but rather due to the time delay gap between arrivals of the direct sound and shoulder reflection [19]-[21]. This temporal model is appealing because it is not specific to a certain frequency range, works down to arbitrary low frequencies and also works for narrow-band sounds. In fact, the handling of low-frequency information by the shoulderreflection mechanism appears to be integral in overall elevation localization because it is found that listeners can be confused between front and back directions unless low frequencies below 2 kHz are present [22]. The thesis of this model is that the delay between the direct sound and torso/shoulder reflection depends on the elevation of the sound (an overhead sound travels an extra ear-to-shoulder-to-ear round trip). This idea is substantiated by some fascinating experiments: When an identical sound is played through two loudspeakers positioned along sidewalls directly facing each ear, the sound appears overhead [20], [21], [23], [24], [25]. One explanation given [20], [21] was that each ear receives sound from its facing loudspeaker followed by a delayed sound from the opposite loudspeaker (the delay while traveling half the circumference of the head is roughly twice the shoulder-to-ear distance and thus interpreted by the brain as an overhead sound). In their experiments, the apparent elevation dropped progressively as the loudspeaker angle was reduced from 180° to 0° (sidewalls to front wall).

In view of the preceding discussion, a recording that captures both an instrument's direct sound and its delayed reflection from the floor ought to convey elevation. The microphone must have a wide polar response to capture ambient reflections and be far enough so that the direct intensity doesn't overwhelm the reflection and the delay is not excessive (otherwise the brain won't mistake it for a "shoulder reflection" as in the aforementioned loudspeaker-angle experiments). Also the listening-room floor should not add its own reflections otherwise all instruments will converge to the same height. In the present work, the floor was covered with some of the densest and thickest carpeting available (see earlier section 2.1).

On the subject of sound-image elevation, there is one other observation that should be mentioned. When band limited noise is played from a single loudspeaker, the location and size of the image depends on the frequency band: low frequency stimuli are imaged at a lower elevation than high frequency stimuli, and low frequency and loud stimuli are imaged larger than high frequency and quiet stimuli [26].

3.4 Reflection management in the auditory system and stereo imaging

Imagine the roar of the tiger that is some distance away and a cliff off to the side that strongly reflects the roar back in your direction. Your survival strategy will depend on knowing whether these are separate roars from two different tigers or just one roar plus a reflection. If the second sound seems like a reasonable copy of the first (as is the case for a reflection) and if its delay and intensity are physically consistent with it being a reflection, the brain integrates the two sounds into a single auditory event so you can focus on the real threat—just one tiger. In this case, the second sound (presumed to be a reflection) is blocked from your awareness but its intensity is perceptually added to the first sound. This is the precedence effect (formerly referred to as the Haas effect).

Since sound intensity falls off with distance, a cliff that is farther away should produce a fainter reflection of the tiger's roar and this reflection should arrive with a longer delay. Thus if the second sound is much delayed and yet too loud for it to be physically consistent with a reflection, the brain assumes that there is a second tiger, not a reflection, and segregates the second sound into a separate auditory stream, which you become aware of as an *echo*.

Even with no cliffs present, there are always innumerable early reflections from the ground and other close-by objects. In this situation our auditory system integrates all these early reflections into a single stream that is imaged at the approximate "center of gravity" of the direct and all reflected sounds combined. This is the region of *summative localization*.

Summative localization is the reason why stereo sound works. When an instrument is midway between the left and right microphones during recording, during play back its sound will start from both loudspeakers at the same time with equal loudness. Summative localization then creates a phantom image of the instrument floating in the air midway between the left and right loudspeakers. An instrument off to one side during recording, will result in differences in loudness and/or delay, so that during playback the image will appear off center. This is how left-right (azimuthal) separation of images takes place. The mechanisms leading to depth and elevation differentiation were discussed earlier.

This neurological reflection management scheme has other complexities and finer categories, and the boundaries dividing those categories depend on the level and other characteristics of the sound [27]. However, for our present purpose it will suffice to consider these three broad categories: (1) early reflections (<1 ms) leading to summative localization, (2) intermediate reflections leading to precedence effect, and (3) late reflections (> 5-40 ms) leading to echoes. All three effects are vividly demonstrated at http://boson.physics.sc.edu/~kunchur/reflections/index.htm. (Although these demonstrations will work to varying extents on any stereo playback system including a laptop computer, for optimum effectiveness please see section 2.1 for information on audio system setup.)

3.5 Loudspeaker placement and room effects

From the above discussion (especially the last four subsections) it should be clear that for a recording to naturally capture and convey 3D spatialization, each microphone (preferably just two or few) needs to pick up sounds from all the instruments as well as the

reverberation and other classes of reflected sound. For this, the microphones need to be far back so as to have a complete "view" of the musical performance space. Typical popular recordings are recorded with microphones in close (<0.5 m) proximity to each instrument, recording the instruments one at a time on separate tracks that are mixed at a later time. Such a recording will not inherently capture a natural sense of space; instead it may employ artificially added delays, reverberation, etc. to create spatial effects.

For a recording that does naturally capture the 3D sonic landscape, it is necessary for the audio system to avoid alterations in the temporal structure of recorded sounds that would compromise imaging. Besides alterations in the electronics and loudspeakers, it is imperative to control sound reflected from room surfaces that would compete with the direct sound from the loudspeakers. A reflective room with huge proportions can have audible echoes. Early reflections, mostly from close by walls and the floor, will undergo detrimental summative localization (separate from the beneficial summative localization between the left and right loudspeaker sounds) and fuse with the direct sound, smearing the images and timbre, and will damage elevation differentiation. Intermediate reflections from moderate distances (~2-6 m) get mostly blocked out by the precedence effect and cause less harm. Therefore, loudspeakers need to be a couple of meters away from walls and reflective surfaces for the spatialization to best unfold. Keeping them away from room boundaries also reduces their tendency to excite room resonances and reverberation. The listening room's own reverberation will mask the original reverberation in the recording (if this was captured in the first place by not placing microphones too close to the instruments) and compromise depth in the reproduced sound. Peaks and dips in the listening room's response will interfere with elevation localization and alter image heights of instruments. Typically, loudspeakers are mounted to match the ear height of a seated listener. This means the reflection from the floor will be in the undesirable early category and furthermore can interfere with depth determination through the time-delay-gap mechanism. Hence it must be suppressed by having acoustic absorption (at least heavy carpeting) on the floor.

Finally, early reflections from the listening chair (especially one with a high back extending above the ears) can noticeably degrade sound quality (for this reason some audiophiles prefer to sit on stools). For the initial setup of the audio system used in the present work, the optimum locations of the loudspeakers, listener, and ear height were researched over several months using sighted listening feedback from many listeners. Interestingly, the preference was not subject dependent and coincided within a few centimeters for most individuals.

4. RESULTS OF BLIND LISTENING TRIALS PROVING ELEVATION PERCEPTION

The blind listening trials for probing elevation perception were conducted using the aforementioned audio system. Before the trial, listeners were given the following instructions: a recording would be played with various instruments, two of which were a trumpet and a banjo (the piece also included a piano, sousaphone, and saxophone). When those two instruments started playing, the listeners were to note the locations of the instruments' images, focusing on their elevations, and make a judgment as to which instrument (trumpet or banjo) was higher than the other. They were allowed to listen to the

recording only once. There was no opportunity for prior listening for the purpose of practice or training. They were not informed about the title or label of the recording, or given any other information. 29 human subjects (16 males + 13 females) ranging in age from 18–80 years participated. None of these listeners had ever experienced HEA before or had a special interest in audio. About half (15) played or listened to music seriously. None of them had any prior expectation as to which instrument should be higher. The recording played was the *Buddy Bolden Blues* track on the CD (compact disk) "Test Record 1: Depth of Image" by the label *Opus 3* released in 1984. Of the 29 subjects, 28 judged the trumpet to be higher and 1 judged both instrument elevations to be the same. This computes to a chi-squared value of χ^2 = 25.14 (see discussion of the χ^2 formula in the "Statistical Method" subsection). This is well above the critical value of 3.84 commonly used in psychoacoustic testing, and corresponds to a certainty of 99.9999467% (i.e., p=0.0000005332) and there is less than one chance in a million that this score could have resulted from fortuity.

After all listening tests were completed, the Opus 3 company was contacted for particulars of their recording. They confirmed that there was no manipulation of the recording to artificially alter image elevation. They had used the Blumlein microphone technique (consisting of two figure-8 microphones), which is adept at picking up ambient reflections. Furthermore, they confirmed that the trumpet was indeed located higher than the banjo during the performance that they recorded. So the perceived relative elevation agreed with the original physical configuration.

5. CONCLUSIONS

This experiment conclusively proves that a correctly set up two-channel stereo system can in fact portray not only depth and lateral width (azimuth), but also elevation for appropriately recorded material. The present experiment should be distinguished from ones in which spectral notch filtering and directional band boosting have been employed to artificially manipulate image elevation [28]. Auditory elevation-localization models that include temporal/spectral mechanisms due to torso and shoulder reflections, in addition to the HRTF-spectral mechanism, explain why height differentiation might be perceived in purist recordings that have not been artificially manipulated.

For live performances with acoustic instruments, this work underscores the value of microphone techniques that record from a distance the entire sonic space (including the reverberation and other classes of reflected sounds) to capture the three dimensionality in a natural way, as long as time-domain accuracy is maintained during playback.

6. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author acknowledges the following individuals for useful communications and advice: Peter Lindenfeld, Wilbert Van Meter Johnson, Joe Azar, Jan-Eric Persson, Reginald Bain, and Grigory Simin, and also thanks both referees for their valuable input.

7. REFERENCES

- 1. van Maanen HRE. "Temporal decay: a useful tool for the characterisation of resolution of audio systems?". AES Preprint 3480 (C1-9), presented at the 94th Convention of the Audio Engineering Society in Berlin (1993).
- van Maanen HRE. "Requirements for loudspeakers and headphones in the 'high resolution audio'
 era". presented at the Audio Engineering Society's 51st International Conference, Helsinki,
 Finland, August 22–24 (2013).
- 3. van Maanen HRE. "Is feedback the miracle cure for high-end audio?". 31 January (2019). https://www.temporalcoherence.nl/cms/images/docs/FeedbackHvM.pdf
- 4. Woszczyk W. "Physical and Perceptual Considerations for High-Resolution Audio". Audio Engineering Society Convention Paper 5931 Presented at the 115th Convention, New York, New York, October 10-13 (2003).
- 5. Thiele N. "Phase considerations in loudspeaker Systems". Audio Engineering Society Convention Paper 5307 Presented at the 110th Convention 2001 May 12-15 Amsterdam, The Netherlands (2001).
- 6. Stuart JR. "Coding for high-resolution audio systems". J. Audio Eng. Soc., vol. 52, 117–144 (2004).
- 7. Stuart JR., Craven PG. "A Hierarchical Approach to Archiving and Distribution". Presented at the 137th Convention of the Audio Engineering Society, Los Angeles, U.S.A., October 9-12, convention paper 9178 (2014).
- 8. Jackson HM, Capp MD, Stuart JR. "The audibility of typical digital audio filters in a high-fidelity playback system". Presented at the 137th Convention of the Audio Engineering Society, Los Angeles, U.S.A., convention paper 9174, October 9-12 (2014).
- 9. Reiss JD. "A Meta-Analysis of High Resolution Audio Perceptual Evaluation". J. Audio Eng. Soc., vol. 64, No. 6, pp. 364-379, June (2016). DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.17743/jaes.2016.0015
- 10. Kunchur MN. "Signal alterations in analog interconnects". Submitted manuscript currently under review. Preprint posted at: http://boson.physics.sc.edu/~kunchur//papers/Interconnect-measurements--Kunchur.pdf
- 11. Grimm E, "Checkpoint Audio: Professional Audio Test Reference". Buren: Contekst Publishers (2001), ISBN 9080611115.
- 12. Harley R. "The Complete Guide to High-End Audio". Acapella Publishing, fifth edition (2015), ISBN-10: 9780978649364, ISBN-13: 978-0978649364, ASIN: 0978649362.
- 13. Hartmann WM. "How We Localize Sound". Physics Today vol. 52, 24 (1999); https://doi.org/10.1063/1.882727
- 14. Blauert, J. "Spatial Hearing: The Psychophysics of Human Sound Localization". The MIT Press (Cambridge, MA), revised edition (1997).
- 15. Risouda M, Hanson J-N, Gauvrita F, Renarda C, Lemesrea P-E, Bonnea N-X, Vincent C. "Sound source localization". European Annals of Otorhinolaryngology, Head and Neck diseases vol. 135, 259 (2018).
- 16. Zotter F, Frank M. "Ambisonics: A Practical 3D Audio Theory for Recording, Studio Production, Sound Reinforcement, and Virtual Reality". Springer Topics in Signal Processing Book 19, Springer (2019). ASIN: B07RC5FLYG
- 17. Hamasaki K, Nishiguchi Tm, Okumura R, Nakayama Y, Ando A. "A 22.2 Multichannel Sound System for Ultrahigh-Definition TV (UHDTV)". SMPTE Motion Imaging Journal vol. 117, 40–49 (2008).

- 18. H. Jo, W. Martens, Y. Park and S. Kim, "Confirming the Perception of Virtual Source Elevation Effects Created using 5.1 Channel Surround Sound Playback," Proc. ACM SIGGRAPH 9th Int. Conf. on Virtual reality Continuum and Its Applications in Industry (VRCAI), Seoul, Korea. (2010).
- 19. Algazi VR, Avendano C, Duda RO. "Elevation Localization and Head-Related Transfer Function Analysis at Low Frequencies," J. Acoust. Soc. Am., vol. 109, 1110 (2001).
- 20. Lee H. "Evaluation of the Phantom Image Effect for Phantom Images". In 3rd International Conference on Spatial Audio (ICSA), Graz, Austria (2015). http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/25887/
- 21. Lee H. "Sound Source and Loudspeaker Base Angle Dependency of Phantom Image Elevation Effect". J. Audio Eng. Soc. vol. 65, 733 (2017). DOI: https://doi.org/10.17743/jaes.2017.0028
- 22. F. Asano, Y. Suzuki, and T. Sone, "Role of Spectral Cues in Median Plane Localization". J. Acoust. Soc. Am., vol. 88, 159 (1990). https://doi.org/10.1121/1.399963
- 23. de Boer K. "A Remarkable Phenomenon with Stereophonic Sound Reproduction". Philips Tech. Rev., vol. 9, 8 (1947).
- 24. Damaske P., Mellert V. "A Procedure for Generating Directionally Accurate Sound Images in the Upper Half-Space Using Two Loudspeakers". Acustica, vol. 22, 154 (1969).
- 25. Frank M. "Elevation of Horizontal Phantom Sources," Proceedings of DAGA 2014, (Oldenburg, Germany, 2014).
- 26. Cabrera D, Tilley S. "Vertical Localization and Image Size Effects in Loudspeaker Reproduction". In Proc. AES 24th Int. Conf. on Multichannel Audio, The New Reality (2003). Permalink: http://www.aes.org/e-lib/browse.cfm?elib=12269
- 27. Everest FA, Pohlmann KC. "Master handbook of Acoustics". McGraw Hill, sixth edition (2015), ISBN 978-0-07-184104-7.
- 28. Chun CJ, Kim HK, Choi SO, Jang S-J, Lee S-P. "Sound source elevation using spectral notch filtering and directional band boosting in stereo loudspeaker reproduction". IEEE Transactions on Consumer Electronics vol. 57, 1915 (2011).