

Adaptive non Zero-Mean Gaussian Detection

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Abstract—Classical target detection schemes are usually obtained by deriving the likelihood ratio under Gaussian hypothesis and replacing the unknown background parameters by their estimates. In most applications, interference signals are assumed to be Gaussian with zero mean (or with a known mean vector) and with unknown covariance matrix. When the mean vector is unknown, it has to be jointly estimated with the covariance matrix. In this paper, adaptive versions of the classical Matched Filter and the Normalized Matched Filter, as well as two versions of the Kelly detector are first derived and then analyzed for the case where the mean vector of the background is unknown. More precisely, theoretical closed-form expressions for false-alarm regulation are derived and the Constant False Alarm Rate property is pursued to allow the detector to be independent of nuisance parameters. Finally, the theoretical contributions are validated through simulations.

Index Terms—Adaptive target detection, non zero-mean Gaussian distribution, false alarm regulation.

I. INTRODUCTION

TARGET detection methods have been extensively investigated and analyzed in several signal processing applications and radar processing [1], [2], [3], [4]. In all these works as well as in several signal processing applications, signals are assumed to be Gaussian with zero mean or with a known mean vector (MV) that can be removed. In such context, Statistical Detection Theory [5] has led to several well-known algorithms, for instance the Matched Filter (MF) and its adaptive versions, the Kelly detector [2] and the Adaptive Normalized Matched Filter [6]. Other interesting approaches based on subspace projection methods have been derived and analyzed in [7]. However, when the mean vector of the noise background is unknown, these techniques are no longer adapted and improved methods have to be derived by taking into account the mean vector estimation.

More precisely, this work deals with the classical Adaptive Matched Filter (AMF), the Kelly detection test and the Adaptive Normalized Matched Filter (ANMF). These detectors have been derived under Gaussian assumptions and benefit from great popularity in the target detection literature, see e.g. [5], [7]. To evaluate the detector performance, the classical process, according to the Neyman-Pearson criterion is first to regulate the false-alarm, by setting a detection threshold for a given probability of false-alarm (PFA). Since the PFA is related to the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the detection test, this process is equivalent to the

derivation of the detection test statistic. Then, the probability of detection can be evaluated for different Signal-to-Noise Ratios (SNR). Therefore, keeping the false-alarm rate constant (CFAR) is essential to set a proper detection threshold [8], [9]. The aim is to build a CFAR detector which provides detection thresholds that are relatively immune to noise and background variation, and allow target detection with a constant false-alarm rate. The theoretical analysis of CFAR methods for adaptive detectors is a challenging problem since in adaptive schemes, the statistical distribution of the detectors is not always available in a closed-form expression.

The theoretical contributions of this paper are twofold. First, we derive the expression of each adaptive detector under the Gaussian assumption where both the mean vector and the covariance matrix (CM) are assumed to be unknown. Then, the exact derivation of the distribution of each proposed detection scheme under null hypothesis, i.e. when no target is supposed to be present, is provided. Thus, through Gaussian assumption, closed-form expressions for the false-alarm regulation are obtained. This allows to theoretically set the detection threshold for a given PFA. On the other hand, one major difficulty for the background detection statistic is to assume a tractable model or at least to account for robustness to deviation from the assumed theoretical model in the detection scheme. Since Gaussian assumption is not always fulfilled, alternative robust estimation techniques are proposed in [10]. However, it is essential to notice that the derivations for many results in robust detection framework strongly rely on the results obtained in the Gaussian context. For instance, this is the case in [11] where the derivation of a robust detector distribution is based on its Gaussian counterpart.

One possible application of the detection schemes discussed in this paper is hyperspectral imaging. Hyperspectral sensors measure the radiance of materials within each pixel area at a very large number of contiguous spectral bands and provide image data containing both spatial and spectral information (see [12], [13] for more details). By exploiting the spectral information, hyperspectral target detection methods can be used to detect targets embedded in the background and that generally cannot be solved by spatial resolution [14], [15], [16], [17]. Indeed, when the spectral signature of the desired target is known, it can be used as a steering vector similarly to the classical target detection methods studied here [18], [19]. Since hyperspectral data represent the radiation at a large number of wavelength for each position in an image, they are real and positive. The other approaches found in the literature center the hyperspectral image before applying the detection test, i.e. the global mean of the whole image

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is removed in a preprocessing stage. This may lead to errors due to the heterogeneity of the background. In order to analyze the proposed techniques in real hyperspectral data, the expressions for false alarm regulation obtained in this paper should be derived in the real case. Alternatively, the data could be transformed in order to match the hypothesis of complex non-zero mean background model [20]. For instance, using Hilbert transforms is a widely spread method for signal processing in communications [21], [22], that converse real data into complex data without changing the nature of the data. This is beyond the scope of this work and constitute part of perspectives to be further investigated.

This paper is organized as follows. Section II introduces the required background on classical detection techniques as well as the obtention of the adaptive detectors for both unknown MV and CM. Then, Section III provides the main theoretical contributions of the paper by deriving the exact ‘‘PFA-threshold’’ relationship for the AMF, the ‘‘plug-in’’ Kelly detector and the ANMF under Gaussian assumption while a generalized version of the Kelly detector is derived. Finally, in Section IV, the theoretical analyses are validated through Monte-Carlo simulations. Conclusions and perspectives are drawn in Section V.

II. BACKGROUND

In the following, vectors (resp. matrices) are denoted by bold-faced lowercase letters (resp. uppercase letters). T and H respectively represent the transpose and the Hermitian operators. $|\mathbf{A}|$ represents the determinant of the matrix \mathbf{A} and $\text{Tr}(\mathbf{A})$ its trace. j is used to denote the unit imaginary number. \sim means ‘‘distributed as’’. $\Gamma(\cdot)$ denotes the gamma function. Eventually, $\Re\{\mathbf{x}\}$ represents the real part of the complex vector \mathbf{x} .

After providing the general background in non-zero mean Gaussian detection, this section is devoted to review the expressions of the adaptive detectors.

The problem of detecting a signal corrupted by an additive noise \mathbf{b} in a m -dimensional complex vector \mathbf{x} can be stated as a the following binary hypothesis test:

$$\begin{cases} \mathcal{H}_0 : \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} & \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{b}_i, i = 1, \dots, N \\ \mathcal{H}_1 : \mathbf{x} = \alpha \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{b}, & \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{b}_i, i = 1, \dots, N, \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where α is an unknown complex scalar amplitude, and \mathbf{p} is the steering vector describing the sought signal. Since the background statistics, i.e. the MV and the CM, are assumed to be unknown, they have to be estimated from $\mathbf{x}_i \sim \mathcal{CN}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ a sequence of N independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) signal-free secondary data. Then, the adaptive detector is commonly obtained by replacing the unknown parameters by their estimates. In practice, an estimate may be obtained from the pixels surrounding the pixel under test, which play the role of the N i.i.d. signal-free secondary data vectors. The sample size N has to be chosen large enough to ensure the invertibility of the covariance matrix and small enough to justify both

stationarity and spatial homogeneity. Let us now recall the detectors under interest in this work.

A. Adaptive Matched Filter

The MF detector is the optimal linear filter for maximizing the SNR in the presence of additive Gaussian noise with known parameters [5]. It corresponds to the Generalized Likelihood Ratio Test (GLRT) when the amplitude α of the target to be detected is an unknown parameter. The MF detection scheme can be written as:

$$\Lambda_{MF} = \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})|^2}{(\mathbf{p}^H \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{p})} \underset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\overset{\mathcal{H}_1}{\gtrless}} \lambda, \quad (2)$$

where \mathcal{H}_0 and \mathcal{H}_1 denote respectively the hypothesis of the absence and the presence of a target to detect and λ is the test threshold. Note that it differs from the classical MF (zero-mean Gaussian Noise) by the term $\boldsymbol{\mu}$, the background mean, but without any consequence since $\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$. Moreover, the ‘‘PFA-threshold’’ relationship is given by [5]:

$$PFA_{MF} = \exp(-\lambda). \quad (3)$$

The two-step GLRT, called the AMF and denoted $\Lambda_{AMF\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}}^{(N)}$ to underline the dependency with N , is usually built replacing the covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ by a suitable estimate $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}$ obtained from the N secondary data $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i \in [1, N]} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$. If we consider a known mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$, the adaptive version becomes:

$$\Lambda_{AMF\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}}^{(N)} = \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})|^2}{(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}^{-1} \mathbf{p})} \underset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\overset{\mathcal{H}_1}{\gtrless}} \lambda. \quad (4)$$

By choosing $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{CSCM}$ where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{CSCM}$ is the Centered Sample Covariance Matrix (CSCM) defined in Appendix A, the theoretical ‘‘PFA-threshold’’ relationship related to the test given in (1) is given by [3]

$$PFA_{AMF\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}} = {}_2F_1 \left(N - m + 1, N - m + 2; N + 1; -\frac{\lambda}{N} \right), \quad (5)$$

where ${}_2F_1(\cdot)$ is the hypergeometric function [23] defined as,

$${}_2F_1(a, b; c; z) = \frac{\Gamma(c)}{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(c-b)} \int_0^1 \frac{t^{b-1}(1-t)^{c-b-1}}{(1-tz)^a} dt. \quad (6)$$

This detector holds the CFAR property, meaning that its false alarm expression only depends on the dimension of the vector m and the number N of secondary data used for estimation, thus being independent on the noise covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ and the mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$.

B. Kelly detector

The adaptive Kelly detector was derived in [2] and it is based on the Generalized Likelihood Ratio Test (GLRT) assuming Gaussian distribution. In this case, only the covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is unknown and the mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is assumed to

be known. The Kelly detection test is obtained according to:

$$\Lambda_{Kelly\hat{\Sigma}_{CSCM}}^{(N)} = \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\Sigma}_{CSCM}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})|^2}{\left(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\Sigma}_{CSCM}^{-1} \mathbf{p}\right) \left(N + (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^H \hat{\Sigma}_{CSCM}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)} \underset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\overset{\mathcal{H}_1}{\gtrless}} \lambda. \quad (8)$$

As shown in [2], the PFA for the Kelly test is given by:

$$PFA_{Kelly} = (1 - \lambda)^{N-m+1}. \quad (9)$$

The Kelly detector also satisfies the CFAR property. The AMF (two-step GLRT-based) and the Kelly detector (GLRT-based) have been derived on the same assumptions about the nature of the observations. It is therefore interesting to compare their detection performance for a given PFA. Note that for large values of N the performances are substantially the same.

C. Adaptive Normalized Matched Filter

The Normalized Matched Filter (NMF) [24] was obtained in Gaussian noise hypothesis but when considering that the covariance matrix is of the form $\sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ with an unknown variance σ^2 but known structure $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$. The GLRT leads to

$$\Lambda_{NMF} = \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})|^2}{\left(\mathbf{p}^H \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{p}\right) \left((\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^H \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)} \underset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\overset{\mathcal{H}_1}{\gtrless}} \lambda, \quad (10)$$

The PFA-threshold relationship is given by [24]:

$$PFA_{NMF} = (1 - \lambda)^{(m-1)}. \quad (11)$$

The two-step GLRT for this specific covariance structure, referred to as ANMF, is generally obtained when the unknown noise covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is replaced by an estimate [7]:

$$\Lambda_{ANMF\hat{\Sigma}}^{(N)} = \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})|^2}{\left(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{p}\right) \left((\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^H \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)} \underset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\overset{\mathcal{H}_1}{\gtrless}} \lambda. \quad (12)$$

For the choice for $\hat{\Sigma} = \hat{\Sigma}_{CSCM}$, the PFA follows [7]:

$$PFA_{ANMF\hat{\Sigma}_{CSCM}} = (1 - \lambda)^{a-1} {}_2F_1(a, a-1; b-1; \lambda), \quad (13)$$

where $a = N - m + 2$ and $b = N + 2$.

III. MAIN RESULTS

In this section, let us now assume that the mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is an unknown parameter and let us derive the new corresponding detection schemes. Then, using standard calculus on Wishart distributions, recapped in Appendix A, the distributions of each detection test is provided.

A. Adaptive Matched Filter Detector

When both covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ and mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ are unknown, the two-step GLRT procedure consists on replacing them by their estimates $\hat{\Sigma}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$ built from the N secondary

data $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i \in [1, N]}$ in (2) leading to the AMF detector of the following form:

$$\Lambda_{AMF\hat{\Sigma}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}^{(N)} = \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})|^2}{\left(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{p}\right)} \underset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\overset{\mathcal{H}_1}{\gtrless}} \lambda, \quad (14)$$

where the notation $\Lambda_{AMF\hat{\Sigma}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}^{(N)}$ is used to stress now the dependency on the estimated mean vector $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$. Under Gaussian assumption, and for the particular MLE choice $\hat{\Sigma} = \hat{\Sigma}_{SCM}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV}$ defined in Appendix A, the distribution of this detection test is given in the next Proposition, through its PFA.

Proposition III.1 *Under Gaussian assumptions, the theoretical relationship between the PFA and the threshold λ is given by*

$$PFA_{AMF\hat{\Sigma}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}} = {}_2F_1\left(N - m, N - m + 1; N; -\frac{\lambda}{N + 1}\right), \quad (15)$$

where $\hat{\Sigma} = \hat{\Sigma}_{SCM}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV}$.

Before turning into the proof, let us comment on this result.

- Interestingly, this detector also holds the CFAR property in the sense that its false-alarm expression depends only on the dimension m and on the number of secondary data N , but not on the noise parameters $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$. Note that the only effect of estimating the mean is the loss of one degree of freedom and the modification of the threshold compared to (5). Obviously, the impact of these modifications decrease as the number of secondary data N used to estimate the unknown parameters increases.
- Moreover, the result has been obtained when using the MLEs of the unknown parameters but the proof can be easily extended to other covariance matrix estimators such as $\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})(\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^H$ which is the unbiased covariance matrix estimate.

Proof: For simplicity matters, the following notations are used: $\hat{\Sigma} = \hat{\Sigma}_{SCM}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV}$.

Since the derivation of the PFA is done under hypothesis \mathcal{H}_0 , let us set $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i \in [1, N]} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ and $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$, where all these vectors are independent. Now, let us denote

$$\hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1} = \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})(\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^H = N \hat{\Sigma}_{SCM}. \quad (16)$$

Note that as an application of the Cochran theorem (see e.g. [25]), one has

$$\hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1} \stackrel{dist.}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^H = (N-1) \hat{\Sigma}_{CSCM}, \quad (17)$$

where $\stackrel{dist.}{=}$ means *is equal in distribution to*.

Since $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \sim \mathcal{CN}\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \frac{1}{N}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\right)$, one has $\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \sim \mathcal{CN}\left(\mathbf{0}, \frac{N+1}{N}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\right)$. This can be equivalently rewritten as

$$\sqrt{N/(N+1)}(\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}). \quad (18)$$

Now, let us set $\mathbf{y} = \sqrt{\frac{N}{N+1}}(\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})$ with $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$.

As we jointly estimate the mean and the covariance matrix, a degree of freedom is lost, compared to the case when only the covariance matrix is unknown.

Let us now consider the classical AMF test (i.e. $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ known) built from $N-1$ secondary data, rewritten in terms of $\hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}$:

$$\Lambda_{AMF \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}}^{(N-1)} = (N-1) \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{y}|^2}{(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{p})}, \quad (19)$$

where $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ and whose ‘‘PFA-threshold’’ relationship is given by (5) where N is replaced by $N-1$.

Now, for the joint estimation problem, the AMF can be rewritten as:

$$\Lambda_{AMF \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}^{(N)} = N \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})|^2}{(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{p})}, \quad (20)$$

$$= N \frac{N+1}{N} \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{y}|^2}{(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{p})}, \quad (21)$$

$$\stackrel{dist.}{=} \frac{(N+1)}{(N-1)} \Lambda_{AMF \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}}^{(N-1)}. \quad (22)$$

where $(\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})$ has been replaced by $\sqrt{N+1/N} \mathbf{y}$ with $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$, as previously.

Hence, one can determine the false-alarm relationship:

$$PFA_{AMF \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}} = \mathbb{P}\left(\Lambda_{AMF \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}^{(N)} > \lambda | \mathcal{H}_0\right), \quad (23)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{(N+1)}{(N-1)} \Lambda_{AMF \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}}^{(N-1)} > \lambda | \mathcal{H}_0\right), \quad (24)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}\left(\Lambda_{AMF \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}}^{(N-1)} > \lambda' | \mathcal{H}_0\right), \quad (25)$$

where $\lambda' = \frac{(N-1)}{(N+1)} \lambda$, which leads to the conclusion. ■

B. Kelly Detector

The exact GLRT Kelly detector for both unknown mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is now derived since it does not correspond to the Kelly detector given in (7) in which an estimate of the mean is simply plugged (two-step GLRT). Following the same lines as in [2], we now assume that both the mean vector and the covariance matrix are unknown. The likelihood functions under \mathcal{H}_0 and \mathcal{H}_1 are given by:

$$f_i(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{1}{\pi^m |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|} \exp[-\text{Tr}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{T}_i)]\right)^{N+1}, \quad (26)$$

for $i \in \{0, 1\}$, where

$$(N+1) \mathbf{T}_0 = (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^H + \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^H, \quad (27)$$

$$(N+1) \mathbf{T}_1 = (\mathbf{x} - \alpha \mathbf{p} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)(\mathbf{x} - \alpha \mathbf{p} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^H + \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^H, \quad (28)$$

and

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = \frac{1}{N+1} \left(\mathbf{x} + \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i\right), \quad (29)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = \frac{1}{N+1} \left(\mathbf{x} - \alpha \mathbf{p} + \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i\right). \quad (30)$$

Under \mathcal{H}_0 and \mathcal{H}_1 , the maxima are achieved at

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \boldsymbol{\mu}} f_i = \left(\frac{1}{(\pi e)^m |\mathbf{T}_i|}\right)^{N+1}, \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \quad (31)$$

and taking the $(N+1)$ th root, one obtains the following statistic:

$$L(\alpha) = \frac{|\mathbf{T}_0|}{|\mathbf{T}_1|} \stackrel{\mathcal{H}_1}{\underset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\geq}} \eta. \quad (32)$$

Then, as this statistic still depends on the unknown amplitude α of the signal, it has to be maximized w.r.t α , which is equivalent to minimize \mathbf{T}_1 w.r.t α . A way to do this is to introduce the following sample covariance matrix:

$$\mathbf{S}_0 = \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^H. \quad (33)$$

Then, $(N+1) |\mathbf{T}_0|$ can be written as

$$(N+1) |\mathbf{T}_0| = |\mathbf{S}_0| \left(1 + (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)\right). \quad (34)$$

In the same way, and after some manipulations, $(N+1) |\mathbf{T}_1|$ becomes

$$(N+1) |\mathbf{T}_1| = |\mathbf{S}_0| \left(\sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) + (\mathbf{x} - \alpha \mathbf{p} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \alpha \mathbf{p} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)\right), \quad (35)$$

$$= |\mathbf{S}_0| (A + B).$$

Now, let us rewrite the two terms A and B to separate the terms involving α . By recalling that $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = \boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \frac{1}{N+1} \alpha \mathbf{p}$, one obtains:

$$A = 1 + \frac{N |\alpha|^2}{(N+1)^2} \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p} + \frac{2}{N+1} \Re \left\{ \bar{\alpha} \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0) \right\}, \quad (36)$$

$$B = (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0) + \frac{N^2 |\alpha|^2}{(N+1)^2} \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p} - \frac{2N}{N+1} \Re \left\{ \bar{\alpha} \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0) \right\}. \quad (37)$$

Notice that $\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = -\sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)$, then rearranging the expression of $(N+1)|\mathbf{T}_1|$, one has

$$\frac{(N+1)|\mathbf{T}_1|}{|\mathbf{S}_0|} = \frac{(N+1)|\mathbf{T}_0|}{|\mathbf{S}_0|} + \frac{N|\alpha|^2}{(N+1)} \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p} - 2\Re\{\bar{\alpha} \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)\}. \quad (38)$$

Now, the term depending on α can be rewritten as follows

$$\frac{N}{(N+1)} \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p} \left| \alpha - \frac{N+1}{N} \frac{\mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)}{\mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}} \right|^2 - \frac{N+1}{N} \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)|^2}{\mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}}. \quad (39)$$

Minimizing $|\mathbf{T}_1|$ w.r.t α is equivalent to cancelling the square term in the previous equation. Thus, the GLRT can now be written according to the following definition.

Definition III.1 (The generalized Kelly detector) *Under Gaussian assumptions, the extension of Kelly's test when both the mean vector and the covariance matrix of the background are unknown takes the following form:*

$$\Lambda = \frac{\beta(N) |\mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)|^2}{(\mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}) (1 + (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0))} \underset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\overset{\mathcal{H}_1}{\geq}} \lambda, \quad (40)$$

where $\beta(N) = \frac{N+1}{N}$ and

- $\mathbf{S}_0 = \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^H$,
- $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = \frac{1}{N+1} \left(\mathbf{x} + \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i \right)$.

Let us now comment on this new detector. One can notice that both the covariance matrix \mathbf{S}_0 as well as the mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0$ estimates depend on the data \mathbf{x} under test, which is not the case in other classical detectors where the unknown parameters are estimated from signal-free secondary data. Consequently, \mathbf{S}_0 and $\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0$ are not independent. Moreover, the covariance matrix estimate \mathbf{S}_0 is not Wishart-distributed due to the non-standard mean estimate $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0$. Thus, the derivation of this ratio distribution is very difficult.

As for previous detector, it would be intuitive to think that the proposed test behaves as the classical Kelly's test but for $N-1$ degrees of freedom. To prove that let us first rewrite (40) as follows:

$$\Lambda = \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{y}|^2}{(\mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{p}) \left(1 + \frac{N}{N+1} \mathbf{y}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{y} \right)} \underset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\overset{\mathcal{H}_1}{\geq}} \lambda, \quad (41)$$

where we use:

- $(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0) = \frac{N}{N+1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV})$,
- $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i$,

- $\mathbf{y} = \sqrt{\frac{N}{N+1}} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV}) \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$.

Now, let us set $\mathbf{S}_0^{(i)} = \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0^{(i)}) (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0^{(i)})^H$,

where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0^{(i)} = \frac{1}{N} \left(\sum_{j \neq i}^N \mathbf{x}_j + \mathbf{x} \right)$. Then, the test becomes

$$\frac{\frac{N+1}{N} |\mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{(i)-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV})|^2}{(\mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{S}_0^{(i)-1} \mathbf{p}) \left(1 + (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV})^H \mathbf{S}_0^{(i)-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV}) \right)}. \quad (42)$$

One can notice that each \mathbf{x}_i (including \mathbf{x}) plays the same role, thus the distribution of this test is the same for every permutation of the $(N+1)$ -sample $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)$. However, the dependency between the covariance matrix estimate and the data under test \mathbf{x} still remains.

To fill this gap, another way of taking advantage of the Kelly's detector when the mean vector is unknown can be to use the classical scheme recalled in (7) and to plug the classical estimator of the mean, based only on the N secondary data,

i.e. $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i$. This leads to the two-step GLRT Kelly's detector:

$$\Lambda_{Kelly \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{SCM}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV}}^{(N)} = \frac{|\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{SCM}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV})|^2}{(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{SCM}^{-1} \mathbf{p}) \left(N + (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV})^H \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{SCM}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV}) \right)} \underset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\overset{\mathcal{H}_1}{\geq}} \lambda. \quad (43)$$

In this case, the distribution can be derived. This is the purpose of the following proposition.

Proposition III.2 *The theoretical relationship between the PFA and the threshold is given by*

$$PFA_{Kelly \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{SCM}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV}} = \frac{\Gamma(N)}{\Gamma(N-m+1) \Gamma(m-1)} \times \int_0^1 \left[1 + \frac{\lambda}{1-\lambda} \left(1 - \frac{u}{N+1} \right) \right]^{m-N} u^{N-m} (1-u)^{m-2} du. \quad (44)$$

Proof: The detection test rewritten with $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{SCM}^{-1} = N \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1}$ becomes:

$$\Lambda_{Kelly \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}^{(N)} = \frac{N^2 |\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})|^2}{N (\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{p}) \left(N + N \mathbf{y}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) \right)}, \quad (45)$$

and replacing $(\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})$ by $\sqrt{\frac{N+1}{N}} \mathbf{y}$, one obtains:

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda_{Kelly \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}^{(N)} &= \frac{\frac{N+1}{N} N^2 \left| \mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{y} \right|^2}{N \left(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{p} \right) \left(N + \frac{N+1}{N} N \mathbf{y}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{y} \right)} \times \int_0^1 \left[1 + \frac{\lambda}{1-\lambda} \left(1 - \frac{u}{N+1} \right) \right]^{m-N} u^{N-m} (1-u)^{m-2} du. \\ &= \frac{\left| \mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{y} \right|^2}{\left(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{p} \right) \left(\frac{N}{N+1} + \mathbf{y}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{y} \right)} \end{aligned} \quad (46)$$

with $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$.

The classical Kelly detector obtained when the mean vector is known is recalled here, built with $N-1$ zero-mean Gaussian data, and written with $\hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}$:

$$\Lambda_{Kelly \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}}^{(N-1)} = \frac{\left| \mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{y} \right|^2}{\left(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{p} \right) \left(1 + \mathbf{y}^H \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{N-1}^{-1} \mathbf{y} \right)}. \quad (48)$$

It is worth pointing out that the term $N/(N+1)$ resulting from the mean estimation in $\Lambda_{Kelly \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}^{(N)}$ does not appear in the classical Kelly detector (48). This fact prevents from relating the two expressions. Thus, a proof similar to the Proposition III.1 is not feasible.

According to [7], [4], an equivalent LR can be expressed as:

$$\hat{\kappa}^2 = \frac{\Lambda_{Kelly \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}^{(N)}}{1 - \Lambda_{Kelly \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}^{(N)}} \stackrel{\mathcal{H}_1}{\geq} \frac{\lambda}{1 - \lambda}. \quad (49)$$

Following the same development proposed in [7], the statistic $\hat{\kappa}^2$ can be identified as the ratio θ/β between two independent scalar random variables θ and β . For this particular development of Kelly distribution with non-centered data, the scalar random variable β is found to have the same distribution as the function $1-u/(N+1)$ where u is a random variable following a complex central beta distribution with $N-m+1, m-1$ degrees of freedom:

$$u \sim f_u(u) = \frac{\Gamma(N)}{\Gamma(N-m+1)\Gamma(m-1)} u^{N-m} (1-u)^{m-2}, \quad (50)$$

whereas the p.d.f. of the variable θ is distributed according to the complex F -distribution with 1, $N-m$ degrees of freedom scaled by $1/(N-m)$:

$$\theta \sim f_\theta(\theta) = (N-m) (1+\theta)^{m-N-1} \quad (51)$$

One can now derive the cumulative density function of the Kelly test as:

$$\mathbb{P} \left(\Lambda_{Kelly \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}^{(N)} \leq \lambda \right) = \mathbb{P} \left(\hat{\kappa}^2 \leq \frac{\lambda}{1-\lambda} \right) = \mathbb{P} \left(\theta \leq \beta \frac{\lambda}{1-\lambda} \right) \quad (52)$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left[\int_0^{\frac{\lambda}{1-\lambda} (1-u/(N+1))} f_\theta(v) dv \right] f_u(u) du. \quad (53)$$

Solving the integral one obtains the ‘‘PFA-threshold’’ relationship:

$$PFA_{Kelly \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}} = \frac{\Gamma(N)}{\Gamma(N-m+1)\Gamma(m-1)} \int_0^1 \left[1 + \frac{\lambda}{1-\lambda} \left(1 - \frac{u}{N+1} \right) \right]^{m-N} u^{N-m} (1-u)^{m-2} du. \quad (54)$$

However, the final expression can not be further simplified to a closed-form expression as those obtained for the other detectors. ■

C. Adaptive Normalized Matched Filter

Similarly, the ANMF for both mean vector and covariance matrix estimation becomes:

$$\Lambda_{ANMF \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}} = \frac{\left| \mathbf{p}^H \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) \right|^2}{\left(\mathbf{p}^H \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}^{-1} \mathbf{p} \right) \left((\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^H \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) \right)} \stackrel{\mathcal{H}_1}{\geq} \frac{\lambda}{\mathcal{H}_0}. \quad (55)$$

Proposition III.3 *The theoretical relationship between the PFA and the threshold is given by*

$$PFA_{ANMF \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}} = (1-\lambda)^{a-1} {}_2F_1(a, a-1; b-1; \lambda), \quad (56)$$

where $a = (N-1) - m + 2$, $b = (N-1) + 2$ and where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{SCM}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV}$.

Proof: The proof is similar to the proof of Proposition III.1. The main difference is due to the normalization term $(\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^H \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})$. Indeed, the correction factor $N/(N-1)$ appears both at the numerator and at the denominator, and consequently, it disappears. The same argument is also true for the factor N that arises from the covariance matrix estimates, i.e. since the detector is homogeneous of degree 0 in terms of covariance matrix estimates (i.e. $\Lambda_{ANMF \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}} = \Lambda_{ANMF \gamma \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}$ for any real γ), this scalar also disappears. Thus, the distribution of the ANMF with an estimate of the mean is exactly the same as in (13) where N is replaced by $N-1$. ■

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section, we validate the theoretical analysis on simulated data. The experiments were conducted on $m=5$ dimensional Gaussian vectors, for different values of N , the number of secondary data and the computations have been made through 10^6 Monte-Carlo trials. The true covariance is chosen as a Toeplitz matrix whose entries are $\Sigma_{i,j} = \rho^{|i-j|}$ and where $\rho = 0.4$. The mean vector is arbitrarily set to have all entries equal to $(3+4j)$.

A. False Alarm Regulation with simulated data

The False Alarm (FA) regulation is presented for previous detection schemes having a closed-form expression, i.e. for all except the generalized Kelly detector. Fig. 1 shows the false-alarm regulation for the MF, the AMF when only the covariance matrix is unknown and the AMF for both covariance matrix and mean vector unknown. The steering vector used

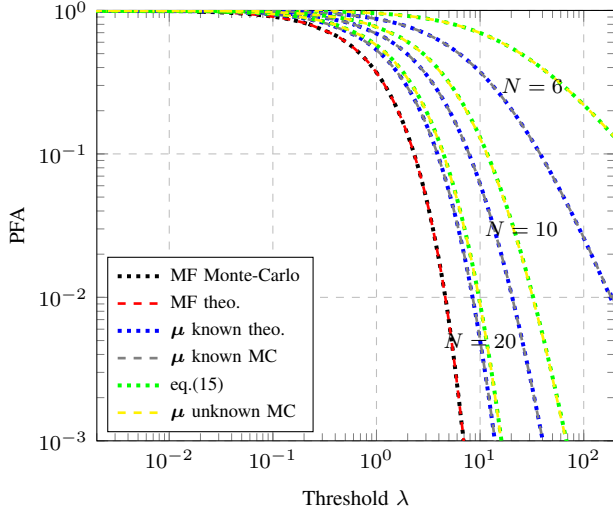


Fig. 1: PFA versus threshold for the AMF for different values of N ($m = 5$, $\mathbf{p} = [1, \dots, 1]^T$, $\rho = 0.4$, $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (4 + 3j)\mathbf{p}$) when a) $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ are known (MF) (red and black curves), b) only $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is known (gray and blue curves) and c) Proposition III.1: both $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ are unknown (yellow and green curves).

for the simulations is the unity vector $\mathbf{p} = [1, \dots, 1]^T$ without loss of generality as all the PDFs are found to be independent of the steering vector \mathbf{p} . The perfect agreement of the green and yellow curves illustrates the results of Proposition III.1. Moreover, remark that when N increases both AMF get closer to each other, and they approach the known parameters case MF.

Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 present the FA regulation for the Kelly detector and the ANMF respectively, under Gaussian assumption. For clarity purposes, the results are displayed in terms of the threshold $\eta = (1 - \lambda)^{-(N+1)}$ for Adaptive Kelly detectors, and $\eta = (1 - \lambda)^{-m}$ for ANMF and NMF detectors, respectively and a logarithmic scale is used. This validates results of Proposition III.2 and III.3 for the SCM-SMV.

Remark that the derived relationships given by eqs. (15) and (56) are quite similar to those for which the mean is known. However, as illustrated in Fig. 1 and Fig. 3, there is an important difference for small values of N . It is worth pointing out that the theoretical ‘‘PFA-threshold’’ relationships presented above depend only on the size of the vectors m and the number of secondary data used to estimate the parameters N . Thus, the detector outcome will not depend on the true value of the covariance matrix or the mean vector. These three detectors hold the CFAR property with respect to the background parameters. However, their distribution strongly relies on the underlying distribution of the background, i.e. if Gaussian assumption is not fulfilled the ‘‘PFA-threshold’’ relationship will divert from the theoretical results derived in this paper.

B. Performance Evaluation

The four detection schemes are compared in terms of probability of detection. The experiments were conducted to

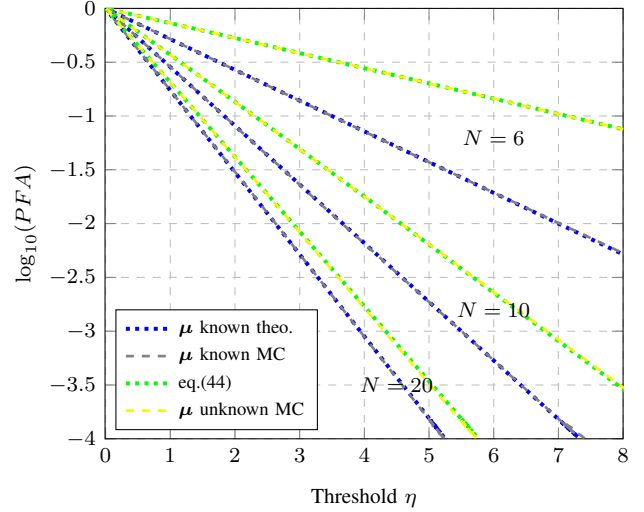


Fig. 2: PFA versus threshold for the ‘‘plug-in’’ Kelly detector for different values of N ($m = 5$, $\mathbf{p} = [1, \dots, 1]^T$, $\rho = 0.4$, $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (4 + 3j)\mathbf{p}$) when a) only $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is known (gray and blue curves) and b) Proposition III.2: both $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ are unknown (yellow and green curves).

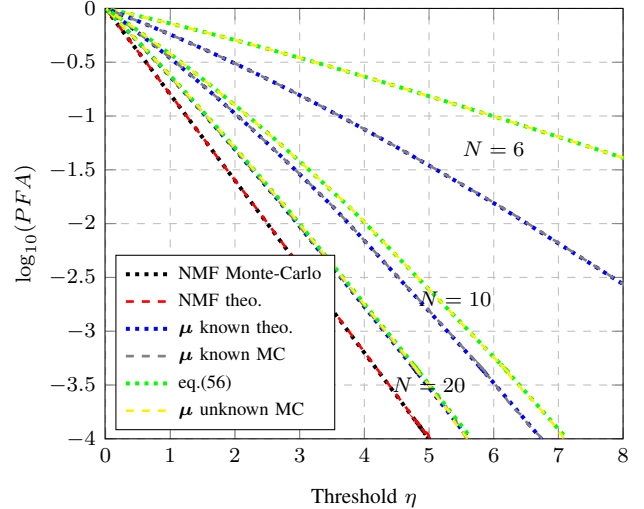


Fig. 3: PFA versus threshold for the ANMF for different values of N ($m = 5$, $\mathbf{p} = [1, \dots, 1]^T$, $\rho = 0.4$, $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (4 + 3j)\mathbf{p}$) when a) $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ are known (NMF) (red and black curves), b) only $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is known (gray and blue curves) and c) Proposition III.3: both $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ are unknown (yellow and green curves).

detect a vector $\alpha\mathbf{p}$ embedded in Gaussian noise with the same distribution parameters than for false alarm regulation. The Monte-Carlo simulation was set for dimensions $m = 5$ and $N = 10$ and for the probability of false alarm $PFA = 10^{-3}$. Then, the threshold λ has been adjusted according to the false alarm regulation relative to each detectors (AMF, ANMF, two-step GLRT Kelly, Generalized Kelly). Fig. 4 presents the detection probability versus the SNR defined as $\alpha^2 \mathbf{p}^H \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{p}$ with the known steering vector $\mathbf{p} = [1, \dots, 1]^T$. The detectors delivering the best performance results are the Kelly detectors (‘‘two-step GLRT’’ and generalized). Actually,

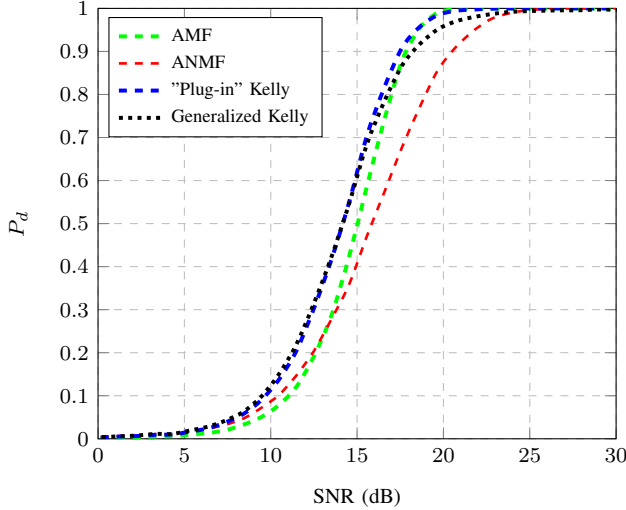


Fig. 4: Probability of detection for $PFA = 10^{-3}$ corresponding to different values of $SNR = \alpha^2 \mathbf{p} \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{p}$ in Gaussian case. ($m = 5$, $N = 20$, $\mathbf{p} = [1, \dots, 1]^T$, $\rho = 0.4$).

these detectors lead to very similar performance with a small improvement of the generalized (resp. “two-step GLRT”) one at low (resp. high) SNR. As expected, the AMF and the ANMF require a higher SNR to achieve same performance.

V. CONCLUSION

Four adaptive detection schemes, the AMF, Kelly detectors with a “two-step GLRT” and a generalized versions as well as the ANMF, have been analyzed in the case where both the covariance matrix and the mean vector are unknown and need to be estimated. In this context, theoretical closed-form expressions for false-alarm regulation have been derived under Gaussian assumptions for the SCM-SMV estimates for three detection schemes. The resulting “PFA-threshold” expressions highlight the CFARness of these detectors since they only depend on the size and the number of data, but not on the unknown parameters. Finally, the theoretical analysis has been validated through Monte Carlo simulations and the performances of the detectors have been compared in terms of probability of detection. This work finds its purpose in signal processing methods for which both mean vector and covariance matrix are unknown. Specifically, the proposed methods could be applied for hyperspectral target detection.

APPENDIX

A m -dimensional vector $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{u} + j\mathbf{v}$ has a complex normal distribution with mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = E[(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^H]$, denoted $\mathcal{CN}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$, if $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{u}^T, \mathbf{v}^T)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{2m}$ has a normal distribution [26]. If $\text{rank}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = m$, the probability density function exists and is of the form

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) = \pi^{-m} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{-1} \exp\{-(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^H \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\}. \quad (57)$$

The resulting Maximum Likelihood Estimates (MLE) are the well-known SCM and SMV defined as:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i \quad \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{SCM} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})(\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^H, \quad (58)$$

where the \mathbf{x}_i are i.i.d. $\mathcal{CN}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$. Further, we shall denote the Centered SCM (CSCM) as:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{CSCM} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^H. \quad (59)$$

Let $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N$ be an i.i.d. N -sample, where $\mathbf{x}_i \sim \mathcal{CN}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$. Let us define $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{SMV}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{W}} = N \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{SCM}$ referred to as a Wishart matrix. Thus one has (see [27] for the real case):

- $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{W}}$ are independently distributed;
- $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \frac{1}{N} \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$;
- $\hat{\mathbf{W}} \sim \mathcal{CW}(N-1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ is Whishart distributed with $N-1$ degrees of freedom

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