



Brief paper

Network theoretic analysis of maximum a posteriori detectors for optimal input detection[☆]



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ABSTRACT

We study maximum-a-posteriori detectors to detect changes in the constant mean vector and the covariance matrix of a Gaussian stationary stochastic input driving a few nodes in a network, using remotely located sensor measurements. We show that the detectors' performance can be analyzed using specific input-to-output gain of the network system's transfer function matrix and the input statistics and sensor noise in the asymptotic measurement regime. Using this result, we study the detector's performance using node cutsets that separate the nodes containing inputs from a partitioned set of nodes not containing inputs. In the absence of noise, we show that the detectors' performance is no better for sensors on a partitioned set than those on the cutset. Instead, in the presence of noise, we show that the detectors' performance can be better for sensors on a partitioned set than those on the cutset for certain choices of edge weights. Our results quantify the extent to which input and sensor nodes' distance modulates detection performance via separating cutsets, and have potential applications in sensor placement problems. Finally, we complement the theory with simulations.

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1. Introduction

Detecting abrupt changes in inputs using remote measurements is essential for the safety and security of network systems, including power, transportation, and sensor networks (Giraldo, Sarkar, Cardenas, Maniatakos, & Kantarcioglu, 2017). These changes may result from a faulty component injecting unwanted signals or an adversary intentionally compromising inputs. Designing detectors to track input changes using tools ranging from geometric control theory (Chen & Patton, 1999) to statistical signal processing (Basseville & Nikiforov, 1993) has a rich history in the controls community. However, studying detectors' performance in terms of network structure and noise statistics received limited attention in contrast to the research on estimation and control for network systems (Zhang, Han, & Yu, 2016).

In non-networked RADAR systems, a typical maximum-a-posteriori (MAP) detector's performance deteriorates by increasing the input-to-sensor¹ nodes' distance (Richards, Scheer, & Holm, 2019). However for network systems, in our previous work (Anguluri, Dhal, Roy, & Pasqualetti, 2016; Anguluri & Pasqualetti, 2021), we numerically showed that certain MAP detectors' performance improves with increased input-to-sensor nodes' distance. Interestingly, this behavior manifests only when the measurements are noisy. We provide a theoretical justification for such counter-intuitive behavior of MAP detectors for network systems. Our MAP detectors discriminate between the hypotheses $H_1 : \mathbf{w}[k] \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1)$ and $H_2 : \mathbf{w}[k] \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2)$, where $\mathbf{w}[k]$ is the input exciting a few network nodes, and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$ are independent of k for all $i \in 1, 2$. We consider two cases: (a) change in mean vectors ($\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \neq \boldsymbol{\mu}_2$ but $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1 = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2$) and (b) change in covariance matrices ($\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = \boldsymbol{\mu}_2$ but $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1 \neq \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2$). These cases capture various faults/attacks studied in the literature (Giraldo et al., 2017). For instance, we can model integrity attacks by setting $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = \mathbf{0}$ (nominal) and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \neq \mathbf{0}$ (attack) in the case (a).

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¹ Throughout, we interchange the words sensor and output.

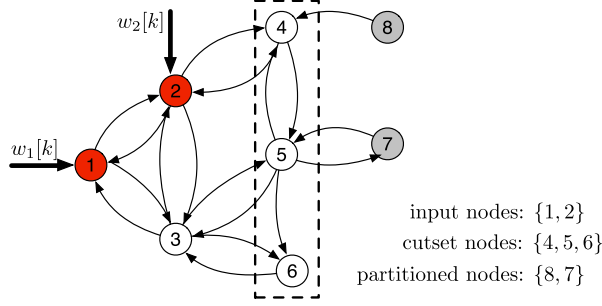


Fig. 1. Network partitions induced by a network cut (or cutset).

For attacks modeled using covariance matrices, see [Anguluri and Pasqualetti \(2021\)](#) and [Guo, Shi, Johansson, and Shi \(2018\)](#).

Related Literature: The problem of discriminating multiple hypothesis for stationary Gaussian signals in noise using MAP detectors has a long history ([Kailath & Poor, 1998](#); [Schweppe, 1973](#); [Van Trees & Bell, 2013](#)). We study MAP detectors for network systems driven by stationary Gaussian signals and characterize their qualitative behavior with respect to input-to-sensor distance using network cuts akin to the works that focused on control and estimation problems ([Liu, Slotine, & Barabási, 2013](#); [Roy, Xue, & Sundaram, 2018](#); [Vosughi, Johnson, Xue, Roy, & Warnick, 2019](#)). For network dynamics with only process noise, [Roy et al. \(2018\)](#) showed that the estimation performance worsens as the sensor location is moved away from the input. Instead, [Vosughi et al. \(2019\)](#) showed that the control energy is greater for target nodes far away from the input. We show that this behavior also holds in the context of input detection; however, in the presence of sensor noise, for certain class of networks, for e.g., non-normal networks ([Baggio, Rutten, Hennequin, & Zampieri, 2020](#)), we show that the detection performance improves as the input-to-sensor distance increases. Finally, our work adds to the literature on deriving exact asymptotic expressions for the error probabilities of detection performance for stationary Gaussian signals ([Sung, Tong, & Poor, 2006](#)).

Contributions: The contribution of this work is two-fold: First, using sensor measurements, we develop closed-form expressions for MAP detectors concerning mean change and covariance change problems. We then characterize detectors' performance as a function of network edge weights, input-to-sensor nodes' distance, and input and noise statistics. For large measurement horizon, we provide simpler expressions for detectors' performance that depend on the transfer function matrix and input and noise statistics.

Second, for fixed input nodes set, we study detectors' performance using non-trivial node cutsets² that separate the nodes containing inputs from a partitioned set; see [Fig. 1](#) and [Definition 2](#). For noise-less measurements, we show that the detectors' performance is no better for sensors on a partitioned set than those on the cutset for any network. Instead, for the noisy case, we show that the detection performance is better for sensors on a partitioned set than those on the cutset for specific networks—for e.g., non-negative networks with edge weights satisfying certain algebraic conditions (see [Section 4](#)). For such networks, we derive simple conditions based on edge weights to check if the performance is better or worse for sensors on a cutset.

² A set of vertices c in the graph \mathcal{G} is referred to as cut or cutset, if all directed paths between input and output nodes in \mathcal{G} pass through a vertex in c ; see [Fig. 1](#) for an illustration.

Potential practical applications of our results include (i) enforcing improved constraints on sensor placement optimization algorithms to improve numerical algorithms' efficiency, and (ii) providing design guidelines to facilitate or prevent measurability of specific nodes.

Notation: We denote the finite dimensional vectors by bold faced symbols. The set $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ denotes the canonical basis vectors of \mathbb{R}^n . For $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^T$, $\mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{y}$ iff $x_i \leq y_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. Let $\text{spec}(M)$ and $\bar{\lambda}(M)$ denote the eigenspectrum and spectral radius of $M \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. Denote by $M_1 \otimes M_2$ the Kronecker product of two matrices M_1 and M_2 . Denote by I or I_n the $n \times n$ identity matrix. Denote by $M > 0$ ($M \geq 0$) the symmetric positive (semi) definite matrix. Denote by $M \geq 0$ the non-negative matrix. Denote by $\text{diag}(M_1 \dots M_m)$ the block diagonal matrix formed by matrices $M_1 \dots M_m$. Define the infinity norm on the space of matrix-valued functions as $\|F(z)\|_\infty := \text{ess sup} \|F(z)\|_2$, where $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\}$. For $Z_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ (standard normal), the right tail probability is $Q_{\mathcal{N}}(\tau) := \Pr[Z_1 \geq \tau]$. For $Z_2 \sim \chi^2(p)$ (central chi-squared distribution with q degrees of freedom), let $Q_{\chi^2}(p, \tau) := \Pr[Z_2 \geq \tau]$.

2. Preliminaries and problem setup

Consider a network represented by the digraph $\mathcal{G} := (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$, where $\mathcal{V} := \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V}$ are the node and edge sets. Let $g_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$ be the weight assigned to the edge $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$, and define the *weighted adjacency matrix* of \mathcal{G} as $G := [g_{ij}]$, where $g_{ij} = 0$ whenever $(i, j) \notin \mathcal{E}$. Let $\mathcal{K} := \{k_1, \dots, k_r\} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ be the set of input nodes, which receive r inputs. Let $w(i, j)$ denote a path on \mathcal{G} from node i to j , and let $|w(i, j)|$ be the number of edges of $w(i, j)$. Define the distance between input node set \mathcal{K} and a set of nodes $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ as $\text{dist}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}) := \min\{|w(i, j)| : i \in \mathcal{K}, j \in \mathcal{S}\}$.

We associate to each node i a state $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$, and let the network evolve with discrete linear dynamics

$$\mathbf{x}[k+1] = G\mathbf{x}[k] + \Pi\mathbf{w}[k], \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{x} = [x_1 \dots x_n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$ contains the states of the nodes at time $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathbf{x}[0] \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma_0)$ is the initial state. The input matrix $\Pi = [\mathbf{e}_{k_1}, \dots, \mathbf{e}_{k_r}]$ indicates location of the input nodes, and the input $\mathbf{w}[k] \in \mathbb{R}^r$ is governed by one of the following two competing statistical hypotheses:

$$\begin{aligned} H_1 : \mathbf{w}[k] &\stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \Sigma_1), \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, N, \\ H_2 : \mathbf{w}[k] &\stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \Sigma_2), \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, N, \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_i \in \mathbb{R}^r$ and $\Sigma_i \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r} (> 0)$, $i \in \{1, 2\}$, are known; however, the true hypothesis is unknown. For simplicity, we focus on the binary hypothesis testing problem. By obvious modifications, we can extend our results to multiple (finite) hypothesis testing problem, i.e., H_i with $i \geq 2$ ([Poor, 1994](#)).

As discussed in the introduction, we focus on two cases: (i) *mean shift* (MS) model: $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \neq \boldsymbol{\mu}_2$ but $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 \triangleq \Sigma_c$; and (ii) *covariance shift* (CS) model: $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \triangleq \boldsymbol{\mu}_c$ but $\Sigma_1 \neq \Sigma_2$. However, our network theoretic results on MAP detectors (see [Section 4](#)) can be extended to the case of inputs with unknown distributions; see [Remark 1](#).

To detect the input hypothesis (H_1 or H_2), our MAP detectors (see below) rely on the sensor measurements

$$\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}^T = [\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{J}}^T[1] \quad \mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{J}}^T[2] \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{J}}^T[N]] \quad (3)$$

recorded from the nodes set $\mathcal{J} := \{j_1, \dots, j_m\} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ such that $\text{dist}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{J}) \geq d$. Here, N is the detection time horizon,

$$\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{J}}[k] = C\mathbf{x}[k] + \mathbf{v}[k], \quad (4)$$

$C = [\mathbf{e}_{j_1}, \dots, \mathbf{e}_{j_m}]^T$, and $\mathbf{v}[k] \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_v^2 I)$ is the sensor noise. Further, $\mathbf{x}[0]$, $\mathbf{w}[k]$, $\mathbf{v}[k]$ are uncorrelated for all k .

For the MS and CS models, we consider a MAP and a linear discriminant (LD) based MAP detector, resp:

$$\text{MAP} : \Pr(H_2|\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}) \underset{\hat{H}=H_1}{\overset{\hat{H}=H_2}{\geq}} \Pr(H_1|\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}) \quad (5)$$

$$\text{LD-MAP} : \Pr(H_2|\mathbf{b}^T\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}) \underset{\hat{H}=H_1}{\overset{\hat{H}=H_2}{\geq}} \Pr(H_1|\mathbf{b}^T\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}), \quad (6)$$

where (5) implies that the detected hypothesis $\hat{H} = H_i$ if $\Pr(\hat{H} = H_i|\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}) > \Pr(\hat{H} = H_{\neq i}|\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}})$, for $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Similar interpretation holds for (6). We discuss the role of vector \mathbf{b} in (6) in Section 3.

Error probabilities of (5) and (6) are computed using

$$\mathbb{P}_e(\mathcal{J}) = \sum_{i \in \{1,2\}} \Pr(\hat{H} \neq H_i|H_i)\pi_i, \quad (7)$$

where $\pi_i = \Pr(H_i)$ is the prior probability. The smaller the $\mathbb{P}_e(\mathcal{J})$, the better is the detection performance.

In Sections 3 and 4, we rigorously characterize MAP and LD-MAP detectors' performance from two view points:

(1) *Algebraic aspects of detectors*: for the input nodes set \mathcal{K} , we characterize the detection performance (7)—in terms of the adjacency matrix G , the input and noise statistics, and the sensor locations \mathcal{J} .

(2) *Network analysis of detectors*: for the input nodes set \mathcal{K} , we study the qualitative behavior of the detectors with respect to input-to-sensor nodes distance.

3. Algebraic analysis of MAP detectors

We address our first objective; that is, to develop algebraic expressions for MAP and LD-MAP detectors' decision rules and their corresponding error probabilities. We prefer LD-MAP detector for the CS model because its error probability is easy to characterize. Consequently, the LD-MAP detector's performance may be sub-optimal; see Remark 2. The results in this section are based on the standard results of hypothesis testing using Gauss–Markov models. The asymptotic characterization of MAP and LD-MAP detectors' error probability (Lemma 3.4) is novel.

Definition 1 (*Optimal LD-MAP Detector*). An LD-MAP detector (6) is optimal if \mathbf{b} is replaced by \mathbf{b}^* , where

$$\mathbf{b}^* = \arg \max_{\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{mN}} \underbrace{\pi_1 \mathbb{E} \left[\ln \frac{f_{H_1}(\mathbf{y})}{f_{H_2}(\mathbf{y})} \middle| H_1 \right] + \pi_2 \mathbb{E} \left[\ln \frac{f_{H_2}(\mathbf{y})}{f_{H_1}(\mathbf{y})} \middle| H_2 \right]}_{I(H_1; H_2)},$$

where, for $i \in \{1, 2\}$, π_i denotes the prior and $f_{H_i}(\mathbf{y})$ is the density of $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}^T\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}$ given the hypothesis H_i .

Given a vector \mathbf{b} , the divergence measure $I(H_1; H_2)$ indicates how well an LD-MAP detector performs in discriminating between H_1 and H_2 . By maximizing $I(H_1; H_2)$ over \mathbf{b} , we are indeed finding a best linear detector among the class of LD-MAP detectors parameterized by \mathbf{b} . With a slight abuse of notation, denote \mathbf{b}^* by \mathbf{b} , and refer to the optimal LD-MAP detector as the LD-MAP detector.

Proposition 3.1. For $\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}$ in (3) and H_i in (2), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_i &\triangleq \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}|H_i] = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{1}_N \otimes \boldsymbol{\mu}_i) \text{ and} \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i &\triangleq \text{Cov}[\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}|H_i] = \mathcal{O}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0\mathcal{O}^T + \mathcal{F}(I_N \otimes \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i)\mathcal{F}^T + \sigma_v^2 I, \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where the observability and impulse response matrices are

$$\mathcal{O} = \begin{bmatrix} CG \\ CG^2 \\ \vdots \\ CG^N \end{bmatrix}; \mathcal{F} = \begin{bmatrix} C\Pi & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ CG\Pi & C\Pi & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ CG^{N-1}\Pi & CG^{N-2}\Pi & \dots & C\Pi \end{bmatrix}. \quad (9)$$

Proof. See Appendix. ■

Lemma 3.2 (*Decision Rules of MAP and LD-MAP Detectors*). Let $\pi_1, \pi_2 \neq 0$ and define $\gamma = \ln(\pi_1/\pi_2)$. Let $(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i)$ and $(\bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_i, \bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i)$ be as in (2) and (8). Then,

(i) The MAP detector of the MS model is given by:

$$\left(2\bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\Delta}^T\bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_c^{-1}\right)\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}} \underset{\hat{H}=H_1}{\overset{\hat{H}=H_2}{\geq}} 2\gamma + \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\Delta}^T\bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_c^{-1}(\bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_1 + \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_2), \quad (10)$$

where $\bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\Delta} = \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_2 - \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_1$ and $\bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_c \triangleq \bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_1 = \bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_2$.

(ii) The LD-MAP detector of the CS Model is given by:

$$\ln\left(\frac{d_1}{d_2}\right) - 2\gamma \underset{\hat{H}=H_1}{\overset{\hat{H}=H_2}{\geq}} (y - \mathbf{b}^T\bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_c)^2 \left[\frac{1}{d_2} - \frac{1}{d_1}\right], \quad (11)$$

where $y = \mathbf{b}^T\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}$, $d_i = \mathbf{b}^T\bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i\mathbf{b}$, and $\bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_c \triangleq \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_1 = \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_2$.

Proof. See Appendix. ■

Using (7) and Lemma 3.2, we obtain tractable error probability expressions for MAP and LD-MAP detectors.

Assumption 3.3. System (1) is asymptotically stable, i.e., $\rho(G) < 1$, $\mathbf{x}[0] = 0$, and $\pi_1 = \pi_2 = 0.5$. Further,

- (i) for the MS model, $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{N}\|\boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1\|_2 = c$, where $0 < c < \infty$, and $G^k = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.
- (ii) for the CS model, $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1 > 0$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2 = 0$.

Assumptions $\mathbf{x}[0] = 0$ and $\pi_i = 0.5$ are for the ease of presentation. Instead, assumption $\sqrt{N}\|\boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1\|_2 \rightarrow c$ holds when $\boldsymbol{\mu}_i = O(c/\sqrt{N})$, and it ensures that $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{J}) < \pi_i$. This assumption is standard in the theory of local asymptotically normality for obtaining limiting expressions of the decision rules (van der Vaart, 1998, Chapter 7.5). Assumption $G^k = 0$ helps suppress the error term in computing η (14). If $G^k \neq 0$, η should be replaced with $\hat{\eta}$ (27). Error probabilities for networks satisfying $G^k \neq 0$ are visualized in Section 5.

Lemma 3.4 (*Probability of Error*). Let $T(z) = C(zI - G)^{-1}\Pi$, where $z \notin \text{spec}(G)$. As $N \rightarrow \infty$, the error probabilities of MAP (10) and LD-MAP detectors (11) are

$$\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{J}) = Q_{\mathcal{N}}(0.5\eta) \quad (12)$$

$$\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{J}) = 0.5[1 - Q_{\chi^2}(1, \tau)] + 0.5Q_{\chi^2}(1, \tau R), \quad (13)$$

where $\tau = \ln R/(R - 1)$,

$$\eta^2 = N\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\Delta}^T([L^T L + \sigma_v^2 I]^{-1}L^T L)\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\Delta}. \quad (14)$$

$$R = 1 + \sigma_v^{-2}\|T(z)\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{\frac{1}{2}}\|_{\infty}^2, \quad (15)$$

Furthermore, $L = T(1)\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\Delta} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c^{-\frac{1}{2}}[\boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1]$, and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{\frac{1}{2}}$ are the positive square roots of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1$.

Proof. See Appendix. ■

Corollary 3.5 (*Spatially Identical Input Statistics*). Let H_i in (2) be $\mathbf{w}[k] \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i\mathbf{1}, \sigma_i^2 I)$, where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_i$ and σ_i^2 are scalars. For the MS model, with $\sigma_c \triangleq \sigma_1 = \sigma_2$, we have

$$\eta_s^2 = (N\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\Delta}^T)\mathbf{1}^T[\sigma_c^2 L^T L + \sigma_v^2 I]^{-1}L^T L\mathbf{1}, \quad (16)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\Delta} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 (\neq 0)$, and $L = T(1)$. For the CS model with $\sigma_1^2 > \sigma_2^2$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = \boldsymbol{\mu}_2$, we have

$$R_s = \frac{\sigma_1^2\|T(z)\|_{\infty} + \sigma_v^2}{\sigma_2^2\|T(z)\|_{\infty} + \sigma_v^2}. \quad (17)$$

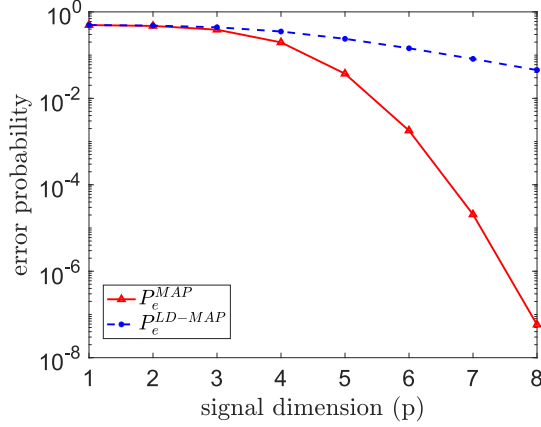


Fig. 2. Suboptimality of the LD-MAP detector.

Proof. Similar to the proof of Lemma 3.4 ■

The error probabilities for the setting in Corollary 3.5 can be obtained by replacing η_s with η in (12) and R_s with R in (13). In the above corollary, we do need $\Sigma_2 = 0$.

The error probability expressions given in Lemma 3.4 and Corollary 3.5 are valid even when N is finite. However, in this case, η and R are complicated functions of G , albeit can be computed numerically (see Section 5). Instead, as we let $N \rightarrow \infty$, η depends on G via a quadratic form of the transfer function matrix $T(z)$, and R depend on G via the $\|T(z)\|_\infty$ -norm. Thus, we can interpret η and R as a measure of system gain due to the input, and the gain is inversely related to the error probability as shown below.

Proposition 3.6. $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{J})$ and $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{J})$ are decreasing in η (or η_s) and R (or R_s), respectively.

Proof. See Appendix. ■

Proposition 3.6 helps study the MAP and LD-MAP detectors' performance as a function of sensor nodes. This fact will be exploited greatly in the next section.

Remark 1 (LD-MAP Detector for Other Covariance Matrix Forms). By adapting the proof of Lemma 3.4, we can easily derive error probability expression for the case $\Sigma_1 = 0$ and $\Sigma_2 > 0$. For $\Sigma_1 \neq 0$ and $\Sigma_2 \neq 0$, see Scharf (1991). If $\bar{\Sigma}_1$ and $\bar{\Sigma}_2$ in (8) are simultaneously diagonalizable, an expression of R similar to (17) may be obtained. □

Remark 2 (Suboptimal LD-MAP Detectors). In general, LD-MAP detectors are sub-optimal. To see this consider the following example: Let $H_1 : \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_v^2 I_N)$ and $H_2 : \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, K(p) + \sigma_v^2 I_N)$, where $K(p) = \sigma^2 \sum_{j=1}^p \mathbf{e}_j \mathbf{e}_j^T$ and $1 \leq p \leq N$. Then, from (5) and (7)

$$\mathbb{P}_e^{MAP} = 0.5 [1 - Q_{\chi^2}(p, p\tau_1)] + 0.5 Q_{\chi^2}(p, p\tau_2), \quad (18)$$

where $\tau_1 = (\sigma_v^2/\sigma^2) \ln(1 + \sigma^2/\sigma_v^2)$ and $\tau_2 = (1 + \sigma_v^2/\sigma^2) \ln(1 + \sigma^2/\sigma_v^2)$. To obtain \mathbb{P}_e^{LD-MAP} , we set $p = 1$ in (18). Fix σ^2 and σ_v^2 and note that \mathbb{P}_e^{MAP} is decreasing in p . Instead, p do not effect \mathbb{P}_e^{LD-MAP} unless σ^2 or σ_v^2 depends on p . Fig. 2 illustrates this behavior for $\sigma = 2^p$ and $\sigma_v = 1$. □

4. Network analysis of MAP detectors

This section addresses our second objective: how does the input-to-output nodes' distance modulate the detection performance? To this aim, we introduce the notion of node cutsets (see below) that help provide sufficient conditions to determine if the detection performance is better (or worse) for the sensor nodes closer to the input nodes.

Definition 2 (Node Cutset). For graph $\mathcal{G} := (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ with input nodes \mathcal{K} , the nodes $\mathcal{C}_d \subseteq \mathcal{V}$, with $d \geq 1$, form a *node cutset* if there exist a non empty source set $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ and a non empty partitioned set $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ such that $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{S} \sqcup \mathcal{C}_d \sqcup \mathcal{P}$, where \sqcup denotes the disjoint union, and

- (i) $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$ and $\text{dist}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{C}_d) \geq d$, and
- (ii) every path from \mathcal{S} to \mathcal{P} contains a node in \mathcal{C}_d .

We visualize Definition 2 for the network in Fig. 1. For the input nodes $\{1, 2\}$, a cutset is $\mathcal{C}_1 = \{4, 5, 6\}$. However, $\{5, 6, 7\}$ is not a cutset because it fails to satisfy (ii).

We state the first network-theoretic result for our detectors assuming noise-less measurements ($\sigma_v^2 = 0$).

Theorem 4.1 (Detection Performance of Noise Less Sensors on the Cutset Vs the Partitioned Set). Suppose that \mathcal{F} (9) is full row rank. Let $\sigma_v^2 = 0$ and consider the general detection problem in (2). Let $\mathbb{P}_e(\mathcal{C}_d)$ and $\mathbb{P}_e(\mathcal{P})$ be evaluated using (7). Then, $\mathbb{P}_e(\mathcal{C}_d) \leq \mathbb{P}_e(\mathcal{P})$.

Proof. See the extended version (Anguluri, Katewa, Roy, & Pasqualetti, 2020). ■

The full row-rank assumption ensures that $\bar{\Sigma}_i^{-1}$ (8) exists when $\sigma_v^2 = 0$; hence, under H_1 and H_2 , the probability densities of measurements are well-defined. The preceding theorem is generic in the sense that we do need the measurements to be Gaussian. Thus, the assertion in Theorem 4.1 holds for MS and CS models. Finally, Theorem 4.1 is valid even when \mathcal{P} is replaced with $\mathcal{P} \cup \tilde{\mathcal{C}}_d$, where $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_d \subseteq \mathcal{C}_d$.

Theorem 4.1 says that sensor nodes near the input nodes achieve better detection performance than those far away from the inputs, irrespective of adjacency matrix G entries and the measurement horizon N . The closeness is understood in the sense of *node cutsets*, since $d \leq \text{dist}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{C}_d) < \text{dist}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{P})$. Thus if cutsets of size at most r (the number of inputs) exist in a network and $\sigma_v^2 = 0$, we should place sensors on the cutsets.

We consider the case of noisy measurements ($\sigma_v^2 > 0$). Unlike the noise less case, results for the noisy case will be specific to the MAP and LD-MAP detectors. Extensions to the more general cases are mentioned in Remark 3. For the cutset \mathcal{C}_d , let $\mathbf{x}_c[k]$, $\mathbf{x}_s[k]$, and $\mathbf{x}_p[k]$ denote the states of \mathcal{C}_d , \mathcal{S} , and \mathcal{P} , resp. Then, (1) can also be expressed as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_s[k+1] \\ \mathbf{x}_c[k+1] \\ \mathbf{x}_p[k+1] \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} G_{ss} & G_{sc} & \mathbf{0} \\ G_{cs} & G_{cc} & G_{cp} \\ \mathbf{0} & G_{pc} & G_{pp} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_s[k] \\ \mathbf{x}_c[k] \\ \mathbf{x}_p[k] \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_s[k] \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (19)$$

From (19), see that the states of \mathcal{C}_d drive the states of \mathcal{P} :

$$\mathbf{x}_p[k+1] = G_{pp}\mathbf{x}_p[k] + G_{pc}\mathbf{x}_c[k]. \quad (20)$$

Theorem 4.2 (Performance of Noisy Sensors on the Node Cutset Vs the Partitioned Set). Let $\sigma_v^2 = 0$. Let G_{pp} and G_{pc} in (20) satisfy $\text{spec}(G_{pp}) \cap \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\} = \emptyset$. Let $\bar{\rho}(z)$ and $\underline{\rho}(z)$ be the maximum and minimum singular values of $T_s(z) = (zI - G_{pp})^{-1}G_{pc}$. Let $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{C}_d)$ and $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{C}_d)$ (13) be the error probabilities associated the cutset \mathcal{C}_d . Instead, let $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{P})$ and $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{P})$ be the error probabilities associated with the partitioned set \mathcal{P} . Then

- (1a) If $\bar{\rho}(1) \leq 1$, then $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(C_d) \leq \mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{P})$.
- (1b) If $\bar{\rho}(1) > 1$, then $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(C_d) > \mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{P})$.
- (2a) If $\sup_{|z|=1} \bar{\rho}(z) \leq 1$, then $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(C_d) \leq \mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{P})$.
- (2b) If $\inf_{|z|=1} \bar{\rho}(z) > 1$, then $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(C_d) > \mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{P})$.

Proof. See Appendix. ■

Notice that the sup and inf of $\bar{\rho}(z)$ and $\underline{\rho}(z)$, respectively, are the maximum and minimum input–output gains of $T_s(z)$. Since $\mathbf{x}_c[k]$ and $\mathbf{x}_p[k]$ are linearly related (see (20)), Theorem 4.2 says that the smaller the gain of $T_s(z)$, the better the detection performance of sensors on C_d , and vice versa. Thus, depending upon the entries of submatrix $[G_{pp} \ G_{pc}]$, measuring the cutset C_d may not be optimal for input detection. However, this is not the case for noiseless measurements because the input–output gain gets cancel in the error probability computations. To see this set $\sigma_v^2 = 0$ in (16) and (17) and note that η and R , which govern the error probabilities, do not depend on G .

For networks that satisfy $G \geq 0$, the sufficient conditions for placing sensors on or away from the cutset C_d can be stated directly in terms of entries in G .

Lemma 4.3 (Error Probability: Non-Negative Adjacency Matrix). Let $G \geq 0$, and define $\tilde{G} = [G_{pp} \ G_{pc}] \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times n_1}$, where G_{pp} and G_{pc} are defined in (20).

- (i) If $\|\tilde{G}\|_\infty \leq 1/\sqrt{m_1}$, then we have $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(C_d) \leq \mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{P})$ and $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(C_d) \leq \mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{P})$.
- (ii) If $n_1 = 1$ and $\tilde{G} \geq \mathbf{1}$, then $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(C_d) \geq \mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\tilde{\mathcal{P}})$ and $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(C_d) \geq \mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\tilde{\mathcal{P}})$, where $\tilde{\mathcal{P}} \subseteq \mathcal{P}$.

Proof. See the extended version (Anguluri et al., 2020). ■

Notice that m_1 and n_1 denote the cardinalities of C_d and \mathcal{P} . We need to impose more restrictions on G to tackle the case $n_1 > 1$ in part (ii). For instance, if G is diagonally dominant (Varah, 1975), we can show that (ii) holds for $n_1 > 1$.

Example 1 (Networks Satisfying Hypothesis of Lemma 4.3). Consider a Toeplitz network with $n > 3$ nodes and the adjacency matrix

$$G_{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ c & a & b & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & c & a & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a & b \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & c & a \end{bmatrix},$$

$G_{pc} \qquad G_{pp}$

where $(a, b, c) \geq 0$. Let $C_d = \{3\}$ and note that $n_1 = 1$ and $m_1 = n - 2$. The hypothesis of Lemma 4.3 (i) and (ii) holds if $a + b + c \leq 1/\sqrt{n-2}$, and $a, b = 0$ and $c > 1$, respectively. Toeplitz networks with weights $a = b = 0$, and $c > 1$ belong to the class of non-normal networks (Baggio et al., 2020).

We remark that our network theoretic results become relevant when solving certain sensor placement problems, especially when node cutsets can be easily identified from the connectivity properties.

Remark 3 (Extension of Network Theoretic Results to Arbitrary Input Distributions). We outline the steps required to extend Theorem 4.2 to the general Gaussian detection problem and non-Gaussian input distribution. For the former (i.e., both the mean and covariance change), obtaining tractable error probability is hard. However, we can study qualitative behavior of the MAP detector via cutsets using Chernoff type upper bound (Van Trees &

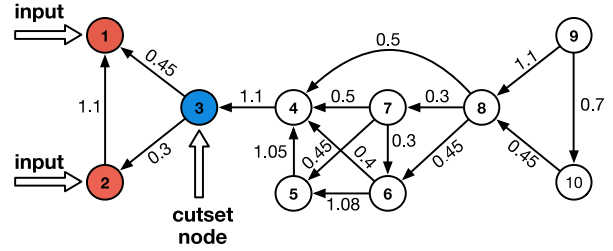


Fig. 3. The graph of a directed network of size $n = 10$. The nodes that are to the right of the cutset node $\{3\}$ form the partitioned set.

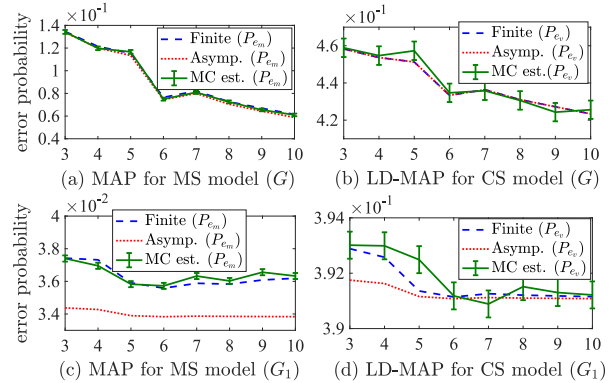


Fig. 4. Finite, asymptotic, and estimated error probabilities of the MAP and LD-MAP detectors for network in Fig. 3. Error probability of each node in the partitioned set $\mathcal{P} = \{4, \dots, 10\}$ is less than that of the cutset $C_d = \{3\}$. This result is consistent with Lemma 4.3.

Bell, 2013). A careful analysis shows that this bound is a quadratic function of the filtered mean and covariance matrix (8), and as $N \rightarrow \infty$, it depends on the spectrum of $T(z) = C(zI - G)^{-1}T$.

For the non-Gaussian input case, obtaining closed form expressions for Chernoff bounds might not be easy. Instead, we can consider proxy detectors, such as the deflection-based detector (Anguluri & Pasqualetti, 2021), that optimize a signal-to-noise criterion instead of the error probability. In our recent work (Anguluri & Pasqualetti, 2021), we showed that the deflection-based detector’s performance depends on the singular values of $T(z)$. In either cases, for Theorem 4.2 to hold, we need to only show that the detection performance (or the upper bound) is increasing or decreasing in $\|T(z)\|_M$, for $M > 0$.

5. Simulation results

We validate the theoretical results of our detectors on small- and large-scale networks, for noisy measurements.

(Detectors’ performance on the partitioned nodes is better than that of the cutset): Consider the network in Fig. 3 comprising 10 nodes with the input nodes set $\mathcal{K} = \{1, 2\}$; cutset $C_d = \{3\}$; and partitioned nodes set $\mathcal{P} = \{4, \dots, 10\}$. For MS model, under the hypothesis H_i , the input $\mathbf{w}_i[k] \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \sigma_c^2 I)$, where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = [2, 2]^T$, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_2 = [1, 1]^T$, and $\sigma_c^2 = 1.5$. For the CS model, the input $\mathbf{w}_i[k] \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_i^2 I_{2 \times 2})$, where $\sigma_1^2 = 2.0$ and $\sigma_2^2 = 1.0$. We set $N = 200$ (measurement horizon for the finite case) and $\sigma_v^2 = 1.2$ (noise variance).

Fig. 4 illustrates the error probabilities of the detectors for G (entries shown in Fig. 3) and G_1 , obtained by adding edges $\{3 \rightarrow 9, 6 \rightarrow 10, 5 \rightarrow 6\}$ with weights $(0.25, 0.3, 0.3)$ to the network in Fig. 3. Here, $G^N \approx 0$ but $G_1^N \neq 0$. We use (12) and

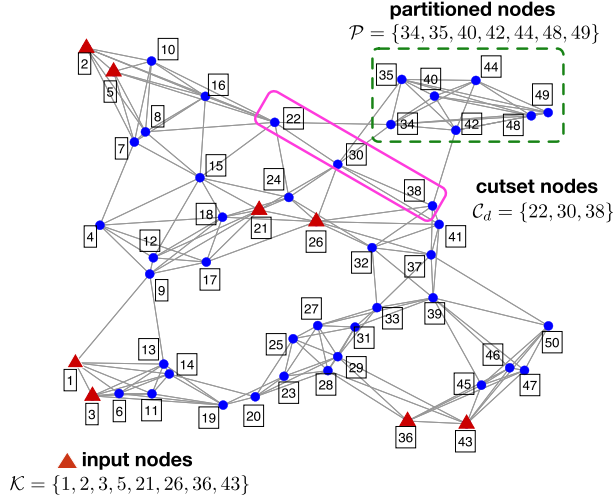


Fig. 5. A random network on 50 nodes (Perraudin et al., 2014).

(13) to compute the error probabilities of MS and CS models. In the asymptotic case, the error probability parameters η and R are given by Corollary 3.5. Instead, in the finite case, the parameters are given by (25) and (30).

We compute the Monte Carlo estimate (MC est.) of the finite error probability numerically for each sensor node, over 10000 and 50000 instances for upper and lower panels in Fig. 4. We require more instances in the lower panel because $G_1^N \neq 0$, which results in significant variance profile (due to long range dependence) among coordinates of each sample of $\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}$. This requiring us to collect more number dependent samples.

In the upper panel of Fig. 4, note that the error between the finite and asymptotic error probabilities is negligible. This behavior is predicted by Lemma 3.4 because $G^N \approx 0$. Instead, in the lower panel, the error is large for G_1 because $G_1^N \neq 0$. However, in either cases, the qualitative behavior of the error probability agrees with Lemma 4.3.

(Detection performance of sensors on the cutset nodes is better than that of the sensors on the partitioned nodes):

Consider the network in Fig. 5 with $G \geq 0$. For the MS model, we let the input $\mathbf{w}_i[k] \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i \mathbf{1}, 1.5I_{8 \times 8})$, where $\mu_1 = 2$, $\mu_2 = 1$, and $\sigma_v^2 = 1.2$. We set $N = 200$.

Let $\mathcal{J} \subseteq C_d \sqcup P$ be such that $|\mathcal{J}| = |C_d| = 3$. We label 120 subsets that satisfy this requirement as $\mathcal{J}_1, \dots, \mathcal{J}_{120}$, such that $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{J}_k) \leq \mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{J}_l)$, for $k < l \leq 120$. In Fig. 6, we plot the finite and asymptotic error probabilities as a function \mathcal{J}_i 's for the MS model. The error probability of the cutset $C_d = \{22, 30, 38\}$ is lesser than that of any \mathcal{J}_i . This result agrees with Lemma 4.3(i) because $\|\tilde{G}\|_{\infty} < 1/\sqrt{7} = 0.3780$. A plot similar to Fig. 6 for the CS model is provided in the extended version (Anguluri et al., 2020).

6. Conclusion

We consider a MAP and an LD-MAP detector, respectively, to detect changes in the mean vectors and the covariance matrices of a stationary Gaussian input driving a network. For large measurement horizon, we characterize the detectors' performance in terms of network transfer function and input and sensor noise statistics. We then study the detection performance as a function of input-to-sensor nodes' distance using the notion of node cutsets. Surprisingly, in the absence of sensor noise, we show that detectors' performance is better if the sensors are placed

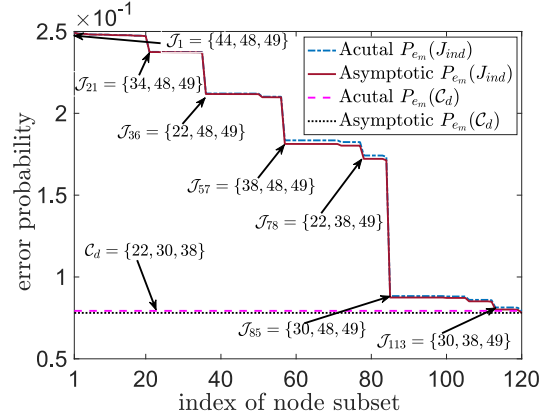


Fig. 6. Finite and asymptotic error probabilities of the MAP detector associated with the MS model for the network in Fig. 5. The error probability of cutset C_d is less than that of any subset of partitioned set. This behavior is predicted by Lemma 4.3(i).

away from the input nodes. Our numerical experiments reinforce the theoretical results both when we do and not have access to the input and noise statistics. For the latter scenario, we perform Monte Carlo simulations. The closed form expressions of our detectors' performance (Lemma 3.4) in terms of cutsets leave door to analyze optimal placement algorithms using the H_2 and H_{∞} based optimization methods (Münz, Pfister, & Wolfrum, 2014) and the recent randomized methods (Bopardikar, 2021). We leave these topics for future research.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix. 3

Proof of Proposition 3.1. From (1) and (4), the measurement vector in $\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}$ (3) can be expanded as

$$\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathcal{O}\mathbf{x}[0] + \mathcal{F}\mathbf{w}_{0:N-1} + \mathbf{v}_{1:N}, \quad (21)$$

where $\mathbf{w}_{0:N-1} = [\mathbf{w}[0]^T, \dots, \mathbf{w}[N-1]^T]^T$ and $\mathbf{v}_{1:N} = [\mathbf{v}[1]^T, \dots, \mathbf{v}[N]^T]^T$, and \mathcal{O} and \mathcal{F} are defined in the statement of the proposition. Taking expectation and covariance of $\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}$ in (21), under the hypothesis H_i , yields us $\bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_i$ and $\bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i$ in (8). \square

Proof of Lemma 3.2. Let ζ and z be the realizations of $\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}$ and y , respectively. Since the input and measurement noises follow a Gaussian distribution, the probability density functions of $\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}$ (3) and $y = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{J}}$ are

$$f(\zeta|H_i) \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i|}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (\zeta - \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_i)^T \bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i^{-1} (\zeta - \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_i) \right] \text{ and} \\ g(z|H_i) \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathbf{b}^T \bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i \mathbf{b}}} \exp \left[-\frac{(z - \mathbf{b}^T \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_i)^2}{2 \mathbf{b}^T \bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i \mathbf{b}} \right], \quad (22)$$

respectively, where $|\cdot|$ is the determinant. Define $\Psi(\zeta) = \ln(f(\zeta|H_2)/f(\zeta|H_1))$ and $\hat{\Psi}(z) = \ln(f(z|H_2)/f(z|H_1))$. Then, from

³ Note: We provide only short proofs for most of our results. For detailed proofs, see our extended paper (Anguluri et al., 2020).

the mixed Bayes formula (Melsa & Cohn, 1978), the MAP decision rules based on ζ and z , respectively, are given by

$$\Psi(\zeta) \underset{\hat{H}=H_1}{\overset{\hat{H}=H_2}{\geq}} \gamma \text{ and } \hat{\Psi}(z) \underset{\hat{H}=H_1}{\overset{\hat{H}=H_2}{\geq}} \gamma. \quad (23)$$

part (1) Since $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2$ and $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$, from (8), it follows that $\bar{\Sigma}_1 = \bar{\Sigma}_2$ and $\bar{\mu}_1 \neq \bar{\mu}_2$. Invoking this observation in $f(\zeta|H_i)$, yields the following expression for $\psi(\zeta)$:

$$\psi(\zeta) = -0.5 \bar{\mu}_\Delta^T \bar{\Sigma}_2^{-1} \bar{\mu}_\Delta + (y - \bar{\mu}_1)^T \bar{\Sigma}_2^{-1} \bar{\mu}_\Delta. \quad (24)$$

Substitute (24) in the first decision rule of (23) and simplify the resulting expression to obtain the MAP decision rule (10) for ζ . Finally, replace ζ with $\mathbf{Y}_\mathcal{J}$.

part (2) Notice that $\bar{\mu}_1 = \bar{\mu}_2$ and $\bar{\Sigma}_1 \neq \bar{\Sigma}_2$. A similar procedure, as in part (1), based on $g(z|H_i)$ (23) and the rule in (22), yields the LD-MAP detector's expression (10). \square

Proof of Lemma 3.4. We divide the proof into two parts. In part (1) we derive the expressions (12) and (14). Instead, in part (2) we derive the expressions (13) and (15).

part (1) Let $N < \infty$, and $\mathbb{P}_{em}(\mathcal{J})$ be the error probability of the MAP detector (10). Then, it follows that

$$\Pr(\hat{H} = H_2|H_1) = \Pr\left(s > \bar{\mu}_\Delta^T \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} (\bar{\mu}_1 + \bar{\mu}_2) | H_1\right) \text{ and} \\ \Pr(\hat{H} = H_1|H_2) = \Pr\left(s < \bar{\mu}_\Delta^T \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} (\bar{\mu}_1 + \bar{\mu}_2) | H_2\right),$$

where $s = 2 \bar{\mu}_\Delta^T \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} \mathbf{Y}_\mathcal{J}$ is a linear transform of a Gaussian random vector $\mathbf{Y}_\mathcal{J}$. Thus, under H_i , it follows that $s \sim \mathcal{N}(2 \bar{\mu}_\Delta^T \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} \bar{\mu}_i, 4 \hat{\eta}^2)$, where $\hat{\eta}^2 = \bar{\mu}_\Delta^T \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} \bar{\mu}_\Delta$. We can show that $\Pr(\hat{H} = H_2|H_1) = \Pr(\hat{H} = H_1|H_2) = Q_N(0.5 \hat{\eta})$. Thus, for finite N , from (7), we have $\mathbb{P}_{em}(\mathcal{J}) = 0.5 Q_N(\hat{\eta})$.

Consider the following asymptotic error probability:

$$\mathbb{P}_{em}(\mathcal{J}) \triangleq \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} Q_N(0.5 \hat{\eta}) \stackrel{(a)}{=} Q_N\left(0.5 \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\eta}\right),$$

where (a) follows because $\hat{\eta}$ is increasing in N (see Proposition A.1). We show that $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\eta}$ exists and equals η (14). Let $\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{1}_N \otimes \mu_\Delta$ and $\mu_\Delta = \mu_2 - \mu_1$, and from (8), notice that $\hat{\eta}^2 = (\mathcal{F}\mathbf{m})^T \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} (\mathcal{F}\mathbf{m})$. Define $K(l) = C G^l \Pi$, where $l \in \mathbb{N}$, and $S(i) = \sum_{l=0}^{i-1} K(l)$. Since $\rho(G) < 1$, we have $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} S(i) = C(I - G)^{-1} \Pi \triangleq \bar{K}$. Let $S_N^T = [(S(1) - \bar{K})^T \ \dots \ (S(N) - \bar{K})^T]^T$. Then, from Proposition 3.1 we note that $\mathcal{F}\mathbf{m} = S_N \mu_\Delta + [\mathbf{1}_N \otimes \bar{K}] \mu_\Delta$. Thus,

$$\hat{\eta}^2 = \mu_\Delta^T \underbrace{[\mathbf{1}_N \otimes \bar{K}]^T \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} [\mathbf{1}_N \otimes \bar{K}]}_F \mu_\Delta \\ + \underbrace{\mu_\Delta^T [S_N^T \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} S_N + 2 S_N^T \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} [\mathbf{1}_N \otimes \bar{K}]]}_{t(S_N)} \mu_\Delta, \quad (25)$$

Substituting $\bar{\Sigma}_c = \mathcal{F}(I_N \otimes \Sigma_c) \mathcal{F}^T + \sigma_v^2 I$ in F yields us

$$F = [\bar{K}^T \bar{K} \Sigma_c + \sigma_v^2 I]^{-1} [N \bar{K}^T \bar{K} - P], \quad (26)$$

where $P = \tilde{M} \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} [\mathbf{1}_N \otimes \bar{K}]$; $\tilde{M} = \bar{K}^T [\tilde{S}_N^T (I \otimes \Sigma_c) \mathcal{F}^T + \bar{K} \Sigma_c S_N^T]$; and \tilde{S}_N is given by permuting sub matrices of S_N from bottom to top. Thus, from (25) and (26),

$$\hat{\eta}^2 = N \bar{\mu}_\Delta^T [L^T L + \sigma_v^2 I]^{-1} L^T L \bar{\mu}_\Delta + \epsilon_N, \quad (27)$$

where $L = \Sigma^{\frac{1}{2}} \bar{K}$ and $\epsilon_N = -\mu_\Delta^T [\bar{K}^T \bar{K} \Sigma_c + \sigma_v^2 I]^{-1} P \mu_\Delta + t(S_N)$.

We show that $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \epsilon_N = 0$. To this aim, rewrite $\epsilon_N = \mu_\Delta^T \Delta_N^{(1)} + Q_N^{(2)} + Q_N^{(3)} \mu_\Delta$, where

$$Q_N^{(1)} = S_N^T [\bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} S_N + 2 \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} [\mathbf{1}_N \otimes \bar{K}]],$$

$$Q_N^{(2)} = [\bar{K}^T \bar{K} \Sigma_c + \sigma_v^2 I]^{-1} \bar{K}^T \tilde{S}_N^T (I \otimes \Sigma_c) \mathcal{F}^T, \text{ and}$$

$$Q_N^{(3)} = [\bar{K}^T \bar{K} \Sigma_c + \sigma_v^2 I]^{-1} \bar{K}^T \bar{K} \Sigma_c S_N^T.$$

We can bound ϵ_N using the following inequality:

$$2\epsilon_N \leq \|\mu_\Delta\|_\Delta^2 \sum_{i=1}^3 \lambda_{\max}(Q_N^{(i)} + (Q_N^{(i)})^T), \quad (28)$$

where $\lambda_{\max}(\cdot)$ is the max eigenvalue. Note that $\lambda_{\max}(Q_N^{(i)} + (Q_N^{(i)})^T) < \infty$ for $N \gg N$ because $G^k = 0$, for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ (see Assumption 3.3(i)). Thus, as required, $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \epsilon_N = 0$ because $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \|\mu_\Delta\|_\Delta = 0$ (see Assumption 3.3(i)).

part (2) Let $N < \infty$, and $\hat{\mathbb{P}}_{ev}(\mathcal{J})$ be the error probability of (11). Then, it follows that

$$\Pr(\hat{H} = H_2|H_1) = \Pr\left(\ln(\hat{R}) > \left[\frac{Z^2}{c_2} - \frac{Z^2}{c_1}\right] | H_1\right) \text{ and} \\ \Pr(\hat{H} = H_1|H_2) = \Pr\left(\ln(\hat{R}) < \left[\frac{Z^2}{c_2} - \frac{Z^2}{c_1}\right] | H_2\right),$$

where $c_i = \mathbf{b}^T \bar{\Sigma}_i \mathbf{b}$, for $i \in \{1, 2\}$, $Z = \mathbf{b}^T [\mathbf{Y}_\mathcal{J} - \bar{\mu}_c]$ and $\hat{R} = c_1/c_2 > 1$ (since $\Sigma_2 = 0$; see Assumption 3.3(ii)). Notice that, under H_i , the distributions of Z and $(\sqrt{\mathbf{b}^T \bar{\Sigma}_i \mathbf{b}})U$ are equal, where $U \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. Thus, $\Pr(\hat{H} = H_2|H_1) = \Pr(\hat{\tau} > U^2)$ and $\Pr(\hat{H} = H_1|H_2) = \Pr(U^2 > \hat{\tau} \hat{R})$, where $\hat{\tau} = \ln(\hat{R})/(\hat{R} - 1)$. Finally, using the fact that $U^2 \sim \chi^2(1)$, for finite N , from (7) it follows that

$$\hat{\mathbb{P}}_{ev}(\mathcal{J}) = 0.5 [1 - Q_{\chi^2}(1, \hat{\tau})] + 0.5 Q_{\chi^2}(1, \hat{\tau} \hat{R}). \quad (29)$$

We simplify \hat{R} in (29) by substituting \mathbf{b} that maximizes the l -divergence (see Definition 1). Recall from Scharf (1991, Chapter 4) the following equality:

$$\mathbf{b}^* = \arg \max_{\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^d} l(H_1; H_2) = \arg \max_{\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \hat{R} \\ = \arg \max_{\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{\mathbf{b}^T \bar{\Sigma}_1 \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{b}^T \bar{\Sigma}_2 \mathbf{b}},$$

where $\bar{\Sigma}_2 = mN$. Let $\mathbf{c} = \bar{\Sigma}_2^{-1/2} \mathbf{b}$, and note the following:

$$\mathbf{b}^* = \arg \max_{\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \left(\frac{\mathbf{c}}{\|\mathbf{c}\|_2}\right)^T \bar{\Sigma}_2^{-1/2} \bar{\Sigma}_1 \bar{\Sigma}_2^{-1/2} \left(\frac{\mathbf{c}}{\|\mathbf{c}\|_2}\right) \text{ and} \\ \hat{R}^* = \lambda_{\max}\left(\bar{\Sigma}_2^{-1/2} \bar{\Sigma}_1 \bar{\Sigma}_2^{-1/2}\right) = \lambda_{\max}\left(\bar{\Sigma}_1 \bar{\Sigma}_2^{-1}\right). \quad (30)$$

By abuse of notation, we denote \mathbf{b}^* by \mathbf{b} and \hat{R}^* by \hat{R} .

Consider the asymptotic case. As $N \rightarrow \infty$, we have $\tau \rightarrow \hat{\tau}$, $R \rightarrow \hat{R}$, and $\tau R \rightarrow \hat{\tau} \hat{R}$. The limits are well defined because \hat{R} is monotone in N (see Proposition A.1). Thus,

$$\mathbb{P}_{ev}(\mathcal{J}) \triangleq \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\mathbb{P}}_{ev}(\mathcal{J}) \\ = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} 0.5 [1 - Q_{\chi^2}(1, \hat{\tau})] + 0.5 Q_{\chi^2}(1, \hat{\tau} \hat{R}) \\ = 0.5 [1 - Q_{\chi^2}(1, \tau)] + 0.5 Q_{\chi^2}(1, \tau R),$$

where the last equality follows because $\hat{\tau}$ and $\hat{\tau} \hat{R}$ are decreasing and increasing functions of N (Proposition A.1).

We obtain the expression of R in (15). From Assumption 3.3, we have $\Sigma_2 = 0$ and $\mathbf{x}[0] = 0$. Thus, $\bar{\Sigma}_2 = \sigma_v^2 I$ and $\bar{\Sigma}_1 = FF^T + \sigma_v^2 I$, where $F = \mathcal{F}(I_N \otimes \Sigma_1^{\frac{1}{2}})$ and $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_1^{\frac{1}{2}} \Sigma_1^{\frac{1}{2}}$. From these observations and (30), we may conclude that

$$R \triangleq \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{R} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\lambda_{\max}(FF^T + \sigma_v^2 I)}{\sigma_v^2} \\ = 1 + \sigma_v^{-2} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_{\max}(FF^T) \\ = 1 + \sigma_v^{-2} \|T(z) \Sigma_1^{\frac{1}{2}}\|_\infty. \quad (31)$$

The last equality follows from the standard results on the limiting expressions of the upper singular values of block Toeplitz matrices; see Böttcher and Silbermann (1999, Chapter 6.4). For detailed steps, please see Appendix section in Anguluri et al. (2020). \square

Proof of Theorem 4.2. Consider the deterministic system: $\mathbf{x}[k+1] = G\mathbf{x}[k] + \Pi\mathbf{u}$, where \mathbf{u} is a constant vector. Since $\mathbf{x}[0] = 0$ and $z \notin \text{spec}(G) \cup \text{spec}(G_{pp})$, it follows that

$$\mathbf{x}[z] = (zI - G)^{-1}\Pi\mathbf{u}, \quad (32a)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_p[z] = (zI - G_{pp})^{-1}G_{pc}\mathbf{x}_c[z] = T_s(z)\mathbf{x}_c[z], \quad (32b)$$

where G_{pp} and G_{pc} are given in (20). From (32b), we have

$$\rho(z)\|\mathbf{x}_c[z]\|_2 \leq \|\mathbf{x}_p[z]\|_2 \leq \bar{\rho}(z)\|\mathbf{x}_c[z]\|_2. \quad (33)$$

Let C_c and C_p be the sensor matrices of \mathcal{C}_d and \mathcal{P} . Then,

$$\mathbf{x}_c[z] = C_c\mathbf{x}[z] \text{ and } \mathbf{x}_p[z] = C_p\mathbf{x}[z]. \quad (34)$$

part (1) Consider parts (1a) and (1b). First, we compute η_C and η_P using (14), and $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{C}_d)$ and $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{P})$ using (12). Then, from Proposition 3.6, it follows that $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{C}_d) \leq \mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{P})$ if $\eta_C^2 \geq \eta_P^2$ and $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{C}_d) \geq \mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{P})$ if $\eta_C^2 \leq \eta_P^2$. Thus to prove (1a) and (1b), we need to show that $\bar{\rho}(1) < 1 \implies \eta_C^2 \geq \eta_P^2$ and $\underline{\rho}(1) > 1 \implies \eta_C^2 \leq \eta_P^2$. We begin with (1a).

Let $L_C = C_c(I - G)^{-1}\Pi\Sigma_c^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $L_P = C_p(I - G)^{-1}\Pi\Sigma_c^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Then, from (14) and the fact that $[L^T L + \sigma_v^2 I]^{-1} L^T L = I - \sigma_v^2 [L^T L + \sigma_v^2 I]^{-1}$, we can express η_C^2 and η_P^2 as

$$\eta_C^2 = \tilde{\mu}_\Delta^T \tilde{\mu}_\Delta - \sigma_v^2 \tilde{\mu}_\Delta^T [L_C^T L_C + \sigma^2 I]^{-1} \tilde{\mu}_\Delta \text{ and}$$

$$\eta_P^2 = \tilde{\mu}_\Delta^T \tilde{\mu}_\Delta - \sigma_v^2 \tilde{\mu}_\Delta^T [L_P^T L_P + \sigma^2 I]^{-1} \tilde{\mu}_\Delta,$$

respectively. We show that $\bar{\rho}(1) < 1 \implies L_P^T L_P \leq L_C^T L_C$, which in turn implies $\eta_C^2 \geq \eta_P^2$. To this aim, let $z = 1$, and from (34), (32a), and (32b) note the following:

$$\|\mathbf{x}_c[1]\|_2^2 = \|C_c\mathbf{x}[1]\|_2^2 = \mathbf{u}^T \left(\Sigma_c^{-\frac{1}{2}} L_C^T L_C \Sigma_c^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right) \mathbf{u},$$

$$\|\mathbf{x}_p[1]\|_2^2 = \|C_p\mathbf{x}[1]\|_2^2 = \mathbf{u}^T \left(\Sigma_c^{-\frac{1}{2}} L_P^T L_P \Sigma_c^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right) \mathbf{u}.$$

Notice that the above identities hold for any \mathbf{u} . Thus, from (33), we have $\bar{\rho}(1) < 1 \implies L_P^T L_P \leq L_C^T L_C$ as required. We can use similar reasoning to prove (1b). The details are omitted.

part (2) Consider parts (2a) and (2b). Let R_C and R_P be evaluated using (15) and $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{C}_d)$ and $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{P})$ using (13). Then, from Proposition 3.6, we have $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{C}_d) \leq \mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{P})$ if $R_C \geq R_P$ and $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{C}_d) \geq \mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{P})$ if $R_C \leq R_P$. Thus to prove (2a), it suffices to show that $\sup_{|z|=1} \bar{\rho}(z) < 1$ implies $R_C \geq R_P$. Instead, to prove (2b) it suffices to show that $\inf_{|z|=1} \underline{\rho}(z) < 1$ implies $R_C \leq R_P$. We begin with (2a).

Let $T_C(z) = C_c(zI - G)^{-1}$ and $T_P(z) = C_p(zI - G)^{-1}$. Let $\mathbf{u} = \Sigma_1^{1/2} \mathbf{d}$, where $\Sigma = \Sigma_1^{1/2} \Sigma_1^{1/2}$. Then, from (15),

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{\sigma_v^2(R_C - 1)} &= \|T_C(z)\Sigma_1^{\frac{1}{2}}\|_\infty \\ &= \text{ess sup}_{|z|=1} \|T_C(z)\Sigma_1^{1/2} \mathbf{d}\|_2 = \text{ess sup}_{|z|=1} \|\mathbf{x}_c[z]\|_2. \end{aligned}$$

The last equality follows from (34) and (32a). A similar identity holds when we replace R_C with R_P and $\mathbf{x}_c[z]$ with $\mathbf{x}_p[z]$. Using these facts in conjunction with the inequality in (33) and the assumption $\sup_{|z|=1} \bar{\rho}(z) < 1$ yields us $R_C \geq R_P$. We can use similar reasoning to prove (2b). \square

Proof of Proposition 3.6. First note that $Q_{\mathcal{N}}(x)$ is decreasing in x , and hence, $\mathbb{P}_{e_m}(\mathcal{J})$ (12) is decreasing in η (given by (14) and

(16)). Second for $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{J})$ (13), observe that $R > 1$ in both (15) and (17). Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\tau}{dR} &= \frac{\left(\frac{R-1}{R}\right) - \ln R}{(R-1)^2} < 0, \text{ and} \\ \frac{d(\tau R)}{dR} &= \frac{(R-1) - \ln R}{(R-1)^2} > 0. \end{aligned} \quad (35)$$

Hence, we conclude that τ is decreasing in R . Instead τR is increasing in R . From this observation and the fact that the function $Q_{\chi^2}(1, z) = \Pr\{Z \geq z\}$, where $Z \sim \chi^2(1)$, is decreasing in z , it follows that $\mathbb{P}_{e_v}(\mathcal{J})$ is decreasing in R . \square

Proposition A.1. Let $\hat{\eta}^2 = \bar{\mu}_\Delta^T \bar{\Sigma}_c^{-1} \bar{\mu}_\Delta$, $\hat{R} = \lambda_{\max}(\bar{\Sigma}_1 \bar{\Sigma}_2^{-1})$ and $\hat{\tau} = \ln(\hat{R})/(\hat{R} - 1)$, where $(\bar{\mu}_\Delta, \bar{\Sigma}_c, \bar{\Sigma}_1, \bar{\Sigma}_2)$ are defined in the statement of Lemma 3.2. Then, $\hat{\eta}$, \hat{R} , and $\hat{\tau}$ are increasing in N . However, $\hat{\tau R}$ is decreasing in N .

Proof. See the extended version (Anguluri et al., 2020). \blacksquare

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