Accurate Performance Analysis of Hadamard Ratio Test for Robust Spectrum Sensing

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Abstract—Hadamard ratio test is a well-known approach to robust signal detection in multivariate analysis. Recently, it has been exploited for robust spectrum sensing in cognitive radio, but its detection performance is not yet completely analyzed. This work is devoted to accurate detection performance analysis of the Hadamard ratio method for robust spectrum sensing. By computing the first and second exact negative moments for the signal-presence hypothesis along with employing the Beta distribution approximation, we derive accurate analytic formulae for detection probability. This enables us to theoretically evaluate the detection behavior of the Hadamard ratio test. Numerical results are presented to validate our theoretical findings.

Index Terms—Cognitive radio, spectrum sensing, generalized likelihood ratio test, Beta distribution, multiple antennas, robustness.

I. INTRODUCTION

T O alleviate spectrum deficiency resulting from the policies of fixed spectrum allocation [1], cognitive radio (CR) [2]– [8] has been put forward as a potential paradigm for future communications. In a CR network, a secondary (unlicensed) user (SU) is allowed to borrow the frequency channels from the primary (licensed) users (PUs) provided that it does not cause intolerable interference to the latter. In order to maximize spectral utilization and minimize harmful interference to the PUs, the SU usually needs to employ multiple antennas to reliably detect the PUs particularly at low signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) and/or small sample size. However, the multi-antenna receiver is typically uncalibrated or contains calibration error in practice. Under such environments, the energy detection (ED) approach [9]–[11] and eigenvalue-based detectors [12]–[19] cannot provide reliable sensing performance. This is because all of them

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are devised from the assumption of independent and identically distributed (IID) observations. This thereby calls for the development of robust methodology for practical spectrum sensing.

To handle non-IID noise, numerous robust detection approaches have been put forward for spectrum sensing, such as the Hadamard ratio test [20]-[22], Gerschgorin disk test [23], locally most powerful invariant test (LMPIT) [24], [25] and volume-based test [26]. As the Hadamard ratio detector is robust against the non-IID noise and originally derived in the framework of generalized likelihood ratio test (GLRT), it has received much attention [27]-[30]. In this approach, signal detection is formulated as the issue of distinguishing between a diagonal matrix and an arbitrary Hermitian matrix. A variant of the Hadamard ratio approach for spectrum sensing has been proposed in [27], in which the number of PUs needs to be known a priori to the receiver. On the other hand, the performance of the Hadamard ratio algorithm for spectrum sensing has been studied in [29], [30]. Nevertheless, only the falsealarm probability is analyzed in [30]. Although both false-alarm and detection probabilities have been calculated in [29], the accuracy of the detection probability is not yet accurate enough. In particular, the asymptotic non-central Chi-square approximation in [29] ignores the term $\mathcal{O}(1/N)$ with N being the number of samples, which is valid only when N is large enough but not appropriate when N is small. As a matter of fact, N is usually small and comparable with the number of antennas in multiantenna CR receiver [12], [17], [31]. Under such conditions, the approximate formulae in [29] cannot offer accurate prediction for the detection performance of the Hadamard ratio test.

In this paper, the theoretical detection probability of the Hadamard ratio test is derived, which turns out to be more accurate than the calculation in [29]. In particular, we compute the first and second exact negative moments¹ of the Hadamard ratio statistic under the signal-presence hypothesis. With the soobtained moments, we derive accurate closed-form approximation for the test statistic distribution under the signal-presence hypothesis by matching its moments to those of the Beta distribution. In the sequel, the detection probability is produced in terms of the analytic formulae.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section II, we present the signal model, formulate the sensing problem and review the solution based on the Hadamard ratio test. Performance analysis of the Hadamard ratio method is provided in Section III. Simulation results are presented in Section IV. Finally, conclusions are drawn in Section V.

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¹For more details about the negative moments, the interested reader is referred to [32]–[34].

Throughout this paper, we use boldface uppercase letter for matrix, boldface lowercase letter for column vector or collection, and lowercase letter for scalar. Superscripts $(\cdot)^T$ and $(\cdot)^H$ represent transpose and conjugate transpose, respectively. The $\mathbb{E}\{a\}$ and \hat{a} denote the expected and estimated values of a, respectively. The tr(A) and |A| are the trace and determinant of A, respectively. The diag(A) stands for a diagonal matrix composed of the diagonal elements of A. The \mathbf{I}_M is the $M \times M$ identity matrix. The $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ means that \mathbf{x} is complex Gaussian distributed with mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$, and \sim signifies "distributed as". The $\mathcal{W}_M(N, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ stands for the complex Wishart distribution with N degrees of freedom (DOFs).

II. PROBLEM FORMULATION

A. Signal Model

Consider a multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) CR network where the SU has M antennas to receive the signals emitted by d PUs with a single antenna. The output of the SU, $\mathbf{x}_n(n=1,\dots,N)$, under the binary hypotheses, can be written as

$$\mathbf{x}_n = \begin{cases} \mathbf{v}_n, & \mathcal{H}_0 \\ \mathbf{H}\mathbf{s}_n + \mathbf{v}_n, & \mathcal{H}_1 \end{cases}$$
(1)

where \mathcal{H}_0 denotes the signal-absence hypothesis while \mathcal{H}_1 denotes the signal-presence hypothesis. Here, $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times d}$ denotes the MIMO channel coefficient matrix between the PUs and SU, which is unknown deterministic during the sensing period. The

$$\mathbf{x}_n = [x_1(n), \cdots, x_M(n)]^T \tag{2}$$

$$\mathbf{s}_n = \left[s_1(n), \cdots, s_d(n)\right]^T \tag{3}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_n = [v_1(n), \cdots, v_M(n)]^T \tag{4}$$

stand for the observation, signal and noise vectors, respectively. We assume that $s_i(n) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{s_i})$ $(i = 1, \dots, d)$ with σ_{s_i} being the *i*th unknown signal variance, and $v_i(n) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{v_i})$ $(i = 1, \dots, M)$ with σ_{v_i} being the unknown noise variance. Note that σ_{v_i} is not necessarily equal to σ_{v_j} for $i \neq j$ in practice, which corresponds to the case of uncalibrated receiver. It is also assumed that the noises are statistically independent of each other and also independent of the signals. The problem at hand is to decide whether the primary signals exist or not from the noisy observations $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N]$.

B. Sensing Solution

For the binary hypotheses, the observation vector is assumed to be Gaussian distributed, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{x}_{n}|\mathcal{H}_{i} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(i)}\right), \quad i = 0, 1.$$
 (5)

With the assumptions above, the covariance matrix under \mathcal{H}_0 is given as $\Sigma^{(0)} = \text{diag}(\sigma_{v_1}, \cdots, \sigma_{v_M})$, but, under \mathcal{H}_1 , defined as $\Sigma^{(1)} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} (\sigma_{ij})_{M \times M}$ with σ_{ij} being the (i, j) entry of $\Sigma^{(1)}$, which is non-diagonal and positive definite. Accordingly, the likelihood function under hypothesis \mathcal{H}_i is

$$L\left(\mathbf{X}|\mathcal{H}_{i}\right) = \left|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(i)}\right|^{-N} \exp\left(-N\mathrm{tr}\left(\left[\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(i)}\right]^{-1}\mathbf{S}\right)\right) \quad (6)$$

where $\mathbf{S} = (1/N) \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^H$ is the sample covariance matrix (SCM). Note that the constant term in (6) has been dropped for simplicity. It is easy to obtain the negative log-likelihood function of \mathbf{X} as

$$\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{\Sigma}^{(i)}\right) = N\log\left|\mathbf{\Sigma}^{(i)}\right| + N\mathrm{tr}\left(\left[\mathbf{\Sigma}^{(i)}\right]^{-1}\mathbf{S}\right).$$
 (7)

Setting the derivative of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{\Sigma}^{(i)})$ with respect to $\mathbf{\Sigma}^{(i)}$ to zero, we obtain the maximum likelihood (ML) estimates of $\mathbf{\Sigma}^{(0)}$ and $\mathbf{\Sigma}^{(1)}$ as $\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{(0)} = \text{diag}(\mathbf{S})$ and $\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{(1)} = \mathbf{S}$, respectively. Let $\mathbf{R} = N\mathbf{S}$ and $\mathbf{D} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \text{diag}(\mathbf{R}) = \text{diag}(r_{11}, \cdots, r_{MM})$ with r_{ii} $(i=1, \cdots, M)$ being the diagonal element of \mathbf{R} . The GLRT test statistic is

$$\frac{L(\mathbf{X}|\mathcal{H}_1)}{L(\mathbf{X}|\mathcal{H}_0)} = \frac{|\mathbf{R}|^N}{|\mathbf{D}|^N}.$$
(8)

It is easy to observe that (8) is an increasing function of $|\mathbf{R}|/|\mathbf{D}|$. Recall that a monotonic transformation of a test statistic does not vary its outcome provided that the decision threshold is revised accordingly. In the sequel, the GLRT statistic can be expressed in the form of "Hadamard ratio", that is,

$$\xi = \frac{|\mathbf{R}|}{|\mathbf{D}|}.\tag{9}$$

In other words, the Hadamard ratio test is exactly the GLRT for this situation. When the primary signals exist, the determinant of **R** considerably decreases, providing a good indicator for spectrum sensing. Consequently, if ξ is smaller than a preassigned decision threshold γ , the detector declares \mathcal{H}_1 , otherwise, \mathcal{H}_0 , i.e.,

$$\xi \underset{\mathcal{H}_1}{\overset{\mathcal{H}_0}{\gtrless}} \gamma. \tag{10}$$

The Hadamard ratio test statistic in (9) has been derived in [20] in the context of multivariate statistical analysis, later on reformulated in array processing for Gaussian signal detection [21], [22] and recently employed for spectrum sensing [27], [29], [30]. Nevertheless, performance analysis for the Hadamard ratio detector has not yet been completely investigated particularly in the context of spectrum sensing. In the next section, accurate analytic formula is derived for the detection probability. This enables us to theoretically evaluate the detection performance of the Hadamard ratio approach.

III. DETECTION PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

Usually, it is very difficult to determine the explicit expression for the distribution of ξ at arbitrary antenna number M. Consequently, it is desired to approximate the distribution as some known distribution with the same support by means of fitting their first several moments. As a matter of fact, ξ has the same support as the Beta distribution. In particular, note that **R** is non-negative definite, meaning that $|\mathbf{R}| \ge 0$. Moreover, notice that $r_{ii} > 0$ $(i = 1, \dots, M)$. As a result, we have $\xi \ge 0$. On the other hand, invoking the Hadamard's inequality [35, p. 477], that is, $|\mathbf{R}| \le |\mathbf{D}|$, we obtain

$$\xi = \frac{|\mathbf{R}|}{|\mathbf{D}|} \le 1. \tag{11}$$

Thus, the test statistic ξ has the support of [0,1] which is the same as the Beta distribution. This enables us to utilize the moment-matching Beta approximation to determine its cumulative distribution function (CDF). To this end, we first determine the moments of ξ and then establish the detection probability by matching the moments to the Beta distribution with the same support. Indeed, the moment-matching approximation has been widely adopted in the literature, such as [18], [19], [30], [36], [37], to determine the distribution of various tests.

The k-th moment of ξ , denoted by \mathcal{M}_k , is provided in the following proposition.

Proposition 1: For any antenna number M and sample number N, the k-th moment of ξ under \mathcal{H}_1 is

$$\mathcal{M}_{k} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \mathbb{E}[\xi^{k}] = \frac{\left| \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^{k} \Gamma_{M}(N+k)}{\Gamma_{M}(N)} T_{-k}, \quad k = -1, -2 \quad (12)$$

where $\Gamma(\cdot)$ denotes the complete Gamma function and

$$\Gamma_M(N) = \pi_0^{\frac{1}{2}M(M-1)} \Gamma(N) \Gamma(N-1) \cdots \Gamma(N-M+1) \quad (13)$$

with π_0 being the circumference ratio. Moreover, T_1 and T_2 are calculated as

$$T_{1} = \frac{1}{i^{M}} \sum_{\boldsymbol{\pi} \in \mathcal{S}_{M}} \frac{\Gamma\left(N - 1 + p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}\right)}{\Gamma(N - 1)} (-1)^{p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \prod_{m=1}^{p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \nu(\boldsymbol{\pi}_{m})$$
(14a)

$$T_{2} = \frac{1}{i^{2M}} \sum_{\boldsymbol{\pi} \in \mathcal{S}_{2M}} \frac{\Gamma\left(N - 2 + p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}\right)}{\Gamma(N - 2)} (-1)^{p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \prod_{m=1}^{p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \nu(\boldsymbol{\pi}_{m})$$
(14b)

where $i = \sqrt{-1}$, S_M consists of all the partitions of the Melement set $\{t_1, \dots, t_M\}$, S_{2M} is composed of all the partitions of the 2*M*-element set $\{t_1, t_1^*, \cdots, t_M, t_M^*\}$. Moreover, in (14a), π denotes a partition of $\{t_1, \dots, t_M\}$ which is defined as a family of nonempty, pairwise disjoint subsets of $\{t_1, \cdots, t_M\}$ whose union is $\{t_1, \dots, t_M\}$, $p^{(\pi)}$ is the number of subsets in π, π_m is the *m*-th subset of π for $m = 1, \dots, M$,

$$\nu(\boldsymbol{\pi}_m) = \left. \frac{\partial^j |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial \pi_{m1} \cdots \partial \pi_{mj}} \right|_{\mathbf{D}_t = 0}$$
(14c)

and

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \left| \mathbf{I}_M - i\mathbf{D}_t \mathbf{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right| \tag{15}$$

with $\mathbf{D}_t = \text{diag}(t_1, \dots, t_M)$. Furthermore, j is the number of elements in π_m and π_{mj} is the *j*-th entry of π_m . The definitions above are also applied to (14b). Additionally, t_m^* (m = $(1, \dots, M)$ is equal to t_m $(m = 1, \dots, M)$ in value but different in index.

Proof: The proof is given in Appendix A.

²For more details about the partition of a finite nonempty set, the interested reader is referred to [38].

Note that the calculation of $u(\boldsymbol{\pi}_m)$ in (14c) requires the following formulae:

$$\frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1}\Big|_{\mathbf{D}_t=0} = \begin{vmatrix} -i\sigma_{11} & -i\sigma_{12} & \cdots & -i\sigma_{1M} \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$
(16)
$$\frac{\partial^2 |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2}\Big|_{\mathbf{D}_t=0} = \begin{vmatrix} -i\sigma_{11} & -i\sigma_{12} & -i\sigma_{13} & \cdots & -i\sigma_{1M} \\ -i\sigma_{21} & -i\sigma_{22} & -i\sigma_{23} & \cdots & -i\sigma_{2M} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$
(17)

$$\frac{\partial^{M} |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_{1} \partial t_{2} \cdots \partial t_{M}} \Big|_{\mathbf{D}_{t}=0} = (-i)^{M} \left| \mathbf{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|.$$
(18)

Moreover, the term $\nu(\pi_m)$, which includes both t_m and t_m^* , such as $\frac{\partial^2 |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_m^2} = 0$ and $\frac{\partial^3 |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_{m-1} \partial t_m^2} = 0$, is equal to zero. For the simplest case where M = 2, it follows from (15) that

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 - it_1\sigma_{11} & -it_1\sigma_{12} \\ -it_2\sigma_{21} & 1 - it_2\sigma_{22} \end{vmatrix}$$
(19)

which, when inserted into (14), leads to

$$T_{1} = -(N-1)(\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}\sigma_{21}) + N(N-1)\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22}$$
(20a)

$$T_{2} = (N-2)(N-1)N(N+1)\sigma_{11}^{2}\sigma_{22}^{2}
-4(N-2)(N-1)N\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22}(\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}\sigma_{21})
+2(N-2)(N-1)(\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}\sigma_{21})^{2}.$$
(20b)

Thus, substituting (20) into (12), the explicit expressions of the first two negative moments of ξ for M = 2 are given as

$$\mathcal{M}_{-1} = -\frac{1}{N-2} + \frac{N\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22}}{(N-2)(\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}\sigma_{21})}$$
(21)

$$\mathcal{M}_{-2} = \frac{\frac{N(N+1)\sigma_{11}^2\sigma_{22}^2}{(\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}\sigma_{21})^2} - \frac{4N\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22}}{\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}\sigma_{21}} + 2}{(N-2)(N-3)}.$$
 (22)

For $M \geq 3$, however, it is very difficult to further simplify the expressions in (12) for the first two negative moments of ξ .

Given the first two negative moments in (12), we are able to approximate the Beta distribution by moment-matching. In particular, for a Beta distribution with density function

$$\frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)}z^{\alpha-1}(1-z)^{\beta-1}, \quad z \in [0,1]$$
(23)

where $B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$ is the Beta function, we set its first two negative moments to be equal to the first two negative moments of ξ given in (12), leading to

$$\mathcal{M}_{-1} = \frac{\alpha + \beta - 1}{\alpha - 1} \tag{24}$$

$$\mathcal{M}_{-2} = \frac{(\alpha + \beta - 1)(\alpha + \beta - 2)}{(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2)}.$$
(25)



Fig. 1. Detection probability versus threshold for single primary signal in Rayleigh fading channel. M = 4, SNR = 2 dB and N = [20, 40, 80]. (a) IID noise. (b) Non-IID noises with powers [1, 1.7, -0.7, -2] dB.

Solving (24) and (25) results in

$$\alpha = \frac{\mathcal{M}_{-1} - \frac{2\mathcal{M}_{-2}}{\mathcal{M}_{-1}} + 1}{\mathcal{M}_{-1} - \frac{\mathcal{M}_{-2}}{\mathcal{M}_{-1}}}$$
(26)

$$\beta = (1 - \mathcal{M}_{-1})(1 - \alpha).$$
(27)

Recall from (12) that $\mathcal{M}_{-1} = \mathbb{E}[\xi^{-1}]$ and $\mathcal{M}_{-2} = \mathbb{E}[\xi^{-2}]$. As a result, the CDF of ξ under \mathcal{H}_1 is approximated as

$$F(x) \approx \frac{B_x(\alpha, \beta)}{B(\alpha, \beta)}, \quad x \in [0, 1]$$
 (28)

where $B_x(\alpha,\beta) = \int_0^x z^{\alpha-1}(1-z)^{\beta-1}dz$ is the incomplete Beta function.

By matching the moments of ξ in (12) to those of the Beta distribution, the statistic behavior of ξ can be approximately determined by the Beta distribution. As the exact moments of ξ are utilized to calculate α and β for the Beta distribution in (26) and (27), the CDF of ξ can be precisely computed by (28). Hence, it follows from (10) that the detection probability is determined as

$$P_{\rm d}(\gamma) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \operatorname{Prob}(\xi < \gamma | \mathcal{H}_1) = F(\gamma). \tag{29}$$

Note that the number of partitions of the M-element set $\{t_1, \dots, t_M\}$ is the Bell number [38], which significantly increases as M grows. This thereby indicates that, to accurately determine the theoretical detection probability via (29), the required computational complexity is heavy especially when *M* becomes larger. However, as pointed out in [19], the number of antennas in the practical spectrum sensing environments is typically small, say, M varies from 2 up to 8 due to physical constraints of the device size. Hence, the analytic expression for the detection probability is tractable in the practical spectrum sensing situations. On the contrary, although the exact moments as well as non-null distribution of the Hadamard ratio test for real-valued observation have been studied in [39], their analytic expressions are composed of a sum of infinite terms. Thus, the technique in [39] is intractable for practical sensing applications even though the number of antennas is small.

IV. SIMULATION RESULTS

The accuracy of the analytic formula for the detection probability is numerically evaluated in this section. For the purpose of comparison, the empirical detection probability of ξ and simulation results in [29] by means of asymptotic non-central Chi-square approximation are presented as well. All the numerical results are obtained from 10⁶ Monte Carlo simulation trials. Fig. 1(a) demonstrates the numerical results for a single primary signal in the Rayleigh fading channel under IID noise, where the number of antennas is 4, the number of samples increases from 20, 40 to 80, and the SNR equals 2 dB. In the Rayleigh fading channel, the entries of $\mathbf{H} = [\mathbf{h}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{h}_d]$ are independently drawn from a standard complex Gaussian distribution, which are fixed during the sensing period but varies in Monte Carlo runs. Without loss of generality, the channel is normalized as $\mathbf{g}_i = \mathbf{h}_i / \|\mathbf{h}_i\|$, the noise variance is set to one for IID noise and the averaged noise variance is set to one for non-IID noise. In the sequel, the population covariance matrix is $\Sigma^{(1)} = \sigma_v \mathbf{I}_M + \sum_{i=1}^d \sigma_{s_i} \mathbf{g}_i \mathbf{g}_i^H$ for IID noise and $\Sigma^{(1)} = \Sigma^{(0)} + \sum_{i=1}^d \sigma_{s_i} \mathbf{g}_i \mathbf{g}_i^H$ for non-IID noise. Note that $\sigma_v = \sigma_{v_1} = \cdots = \sigma_{v_M}$ for IID noise. It is seen in Fig. 1(a) that the proposed Beta approximation is more accurate than the asymptotic non-central Chi-square approximation in predicting the detection probability. The numerical results for non-IID noise are plotted in Fig. 1(b) in which the powers of the non-IID noises equal [1, 1.7, -0.7, -2] dB whereas the other parameters remain unchanged. Again, the proposed Beta approximation is superior to the asymptotic non-central Chisquare approximation in terms of accuracy. Similar to [18], [19], to quantitatively demonstrate the accuracy, we employ the Cramér-von Mises criterion [40] to calculate the errors of the non-central Chi-square and proposed Beta approximations with respect to the exact distribution obtained from the simulations. That is,

Error =
$$\frac{1}{10^6} \sum_{i=1}^{10^6} \left| F(x_i) - \hat{F}(x_i) \right|^2$$
 (30)

TABLE I Approximation Error for Proposed Beta Approximation and Asymptotic Non-Central Chi-Square Approximation With Respect to Exact Distribution of ξ Under \mathcal{H}_1 at M = 4, d = 1 and SNR = 2 DB in Rayleigh Fading Channel

Method	Proposed Beta Approximation			Asymptotic Chi-square Approximation		
N	20	40	80	20	40	80
Error (IID)	0.3554×10^{-4}	0.1902×10^{-4}	0.0937×10^{-4}	0.7770×10^{-3}	0.4114×10^{-3}	0.2237×10^{-3}
Error (non-IID)	0.3750×10^{-4}	0.1968×10^{-4}	0.1084×10^{-4}	0.7956×10^{-3}	0.4085×10^{-3}	0.2070×10^{-3}



Fig. 2. Detection probability versus threshold for three primary signals in Rayleigh fading channel. M = 6, SNR = [-3, -7, -10] dB and N = [20, 50, 100]. (a) IID noise. (b) Non-IID noises with powers [0, -1, 1.5, -0.8, 2, -1.7] dB.

TABLE II Approximation Error for Proposed Beta Approximation and Asymptotic Non-Central Chi-Square Approximation With Respect to Exact Distribution of ξ Under \mathcal{H}_1 at M = 6, d = 3 and SNR = [-3 - 7 - 10] DB in Rayleigh Fading Channel

Method	Propo	sed Beta Approxin	nation	Asymptotic Chi-square Approximation		
N	20	50	100	20	50	100
Error (IID)	0.0897×10^{-4}	0.1390×10^{-4}	0.5892×10^{-4}	0.2228×10^{-3}	0.2685×10^{-3}	0.3291×10^{-3}
Error (non-IID)	0.0853×10^{-4}	0.4438×10^{-4}	0.3051×10^{-4}	0.2346×10^{-3}	0.0574×10^{-3}	0.2684×10^{-3}

where $F(x_i)$ is the exact CDF³ and $\hat{F}(x_i)$ is its estimate. The error between the approximate and exact distributions of ξ under the signal-presence hypothesis is tabulated in Table I, where the number of antennas is 4, the number of samples varies from 20, 40 to 80, the number of primary signals is one and the SNR equals 2 dB. It is indicated in Table I that the proposed Beta approximation is much more accurate than its counterpart.

The numerical results for the detection probabilities, proposed Beta approximation and non-central Chi-square approximation versus decision threshold are plotted in Fig. 2, where the number of antennas is 6, the number of samples varies from 20, 50 to 100 and the SNRs for three primary signals equal -3 dB, -7 dB and -10 dB. Fig. 2(a) plots the detection probabilities versus threshold for IID noise. It is observed that the proposed Beta approximation surpasses the asymptotic non-central Chi-square approximation in terms of prediction accuracy. The numerical results for the detection probabilities, proposed Beta approximation and non-central Chi-square approximation in terms of prediction, where the noise variances at the six antennas are set as [0, -1],

1.5, -0.8, 2, -1.7] dB whereas the other parameters remain unchanged. Again, the non-cental Chi-square approximation is inferior to the proposed Beta approximation even when the number of samples becomes large, say, N = 100. Accordingly, Table II presents the errors between the approximate and exact distributions of ξ under \mathcal{H}_1 . It is observed that the proposed Beta approximation is much more accurate than the non-central Chi-square approximation no matter the noise is IID or non-IID. It is easy to interpret this enhancement in the proposed approximation over the non-central Chi-square approximation because the latter ignores the $\mathcal{O}(1/N)$ term in the computation of non-centrality parameter. Clearly, this term may be omitted only when N is sufficiently large. On the contrary, the proposed approach is able to calculate the *exact* first two negative moments, and then utilizes the so-obtained moments to match the parameters of Beta distribution. That is to say, the proposed method does not ignore any terms to determine the approximate Beta distribution.

Now let us evaluate the accuracy of the proposed Beta approximation in terms of receiver operating characteristic (ROC). For comparison, the simulated and Chi-square approximate detection probabilities are provided as well. Moreover, for the purpose of fair comparison, the simulated false-alarm probability is exploited for all the approaches. Fig. 3(a) depicts

³Note that the CDF herein corresponds to the detection probability.



Fig. 3. Missed detection probability versus threshold for IID noise and Rayleigh fading channel with N = [20, 30, 40]. (a) M = 4, d = 2 and SNR = [-3, -5] dB. (b) M = 6, d = 1 and SNR = -2 dB.

the numerical results for the scenario of two primary signals and IID noise, where M = 4, d = 2, N = [20, 30, 40] and SNR = [-3, -5] dB. It is seen that the ROC of the proposed Beta approximation is very close to the exact ROC which is approxi-

mately determined by Monte Carlo simulation. However, since the non-central Chi-square approximation considers O(1/N)as sufficiently small and omits it in the calculation of the noncentrality parameter, it cannot provide accurate result particularly for small samples. Fig. 3(b) illustrates the numerical results for another parameter setting in which M = 6, d = 1, SNR = -2 dB and N = [20, 30, 40]. Again, we observe that our proposal is much more accurate than the non-central Chisquare approximation in terms of fitting the exact ROC curves, especially when the number of samples is small.

V. CONCLUSION

The analytic formula for the detection probability of the Hadamard ratio test has been derived, which provides an efficient approach to theoretically evaluate its sensing performance. By means of calculating the first and second exact negative moments of the test statistic under the signal-presence hypothesis, we are able to approximate the Beta distribution for the signal-presence hypothesis, ending up with accurate analytic expression for the detection probability. Extensive simulation results are in line with our theoretical analysis.

APPENDIX A PROOF OF PROPOSITION 1

Recall that the SCM **R** under \mathcal{H}_1 follows the complex Wishart distribution $\mathcal{W}_M(N, \Sigma^{(1)})$ with density function

$$f(\mathbf{R}) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{1}{\Gamma_M(N) \left| \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^N} |\mathbf{R}|^{N-M} \exp\left(\operatorname{tr} \left[-\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1),-1} \mathbf{R} \right] \right).$$
(31)

The k-th moment of ξ can be calculated as (32), shown at the bottom of the page. Here, r'_{mm} is the m-th diagonal element of \mathbf{R}' which is distributed as $\mathcal{W}_M(N+k, \mathbf{\Sigma}^{(1)})$ and $T = \prod_{i=1}^M r'_{mm}$. We are now at a position to determine the first two moments of T.

For $\mathbf{R}' \sim \mathcal{W}_M(N + k, \mathbf{\Sigma}^{(1)})$, it follows from [41, eq. (5.12)] that the characteristic function is

$$\phi(\mathbf{\Theta}) = \left| \mathbf{I}_M - i\mathbf{\Theta}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^{-N-k}.$$
 (33)

where Θ is the matrix argument of the characteristic function. In order to obtain the characteristic function of the diagonal

$$\mathbb{E}[\xi^{k}] = \int_{\mathbf{R} \succ 0} \frac{1}{\Gamma_{M}(N) \left| \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^{N}} |\mathbf{R}|^{N-M} \left(\frac{|\mathbf{R}|}{\prod_{i=1}^{M} r_{ii}} \right)^{k} \exp\left(\operatorname{tr}\left[-\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1),-1} \mathbf{R} \right] \right) d\mathbf{R}$$

$$= \frac{\left| \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^{k} \Gamma_{M}(N+k)}{\Gamma_{M}(N)} \int_{\mathbf{R}' \succ 0} \frac{1}{\Gamma_{M}(N+k) \left| \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^{N+k}} |\mathbf{R}'|^{N-M+k} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{M} r'_{ii} \right)^{-k} \exp\left(\operatorname{tr}\left[-\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1),-1} \mathbf{R}' \right] \right) d\mathbf{R}'$$

$$= \frac{\left| \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^{k} \Gamma_{M}(N+k)}{\Gamma_{M}(N)} \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\prod_{i=1}^{M} r'_{ii} \right)^{-k} \right] \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} \frac{\left| \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^{k} \Gamma_{M}(N+k)}{\Gamma_{M}(N)} \mathbb{E}[T^{-k}]$$

$$(32)$$

elements of \mathbf{R}' , namely, r'_{11}, \dots, r'_{MM} , we replace Θ in (33) with $\mathbf{D}_t \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \operatorname{diag}(t_1, \dots, t_M)$, yielding

$$\phi(t_1, \cdots, t_M) = \left| \mathbf{I} - i\mathbf{D}_t \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^{-N-k} = \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 - it_1\sigma_{11} & -it_1\sigma_{12} & \cdots & -it_1\sigma_{1M} \\ -it_2\sigma_{21} & 1 - it_2\sigma_{22} & \cdots & -it_2\sigma_{2M} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -it_M\sigma_{M1} & -it_M\sigma_{M2} & \cdots & -it_M\sigma_{MM} \end{array} \right|^{-N-k}$$

$$\stackrel{\Delta}{=} |\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k}. \tag{34}$$

As a result, the first two moments of T are calculated as

$$T_{1} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \mathbb{E}[T] = \frac{1}{i^{M}} \frac{\partial^{M} \phi(t_{1}, \cdots, t_{M})}{\partial t_{1} \cdots \partial t_{M}} \bigg|_{\mathbf{D}_{t}=0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{i^{M}} \frac{\partial^{M} |\mathbf{A}|^{-N+1}}{\partial t_{1} \cdots \partial t_{M}} \bigg|_{\mathbf{D}_{t}=0}$$

$$T_{2} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \mathbb{E}[T^{2}] = \frac{1}{i^{2M}} \frac{\partial^{2M} \phi(t_{1}, \cdots, t_{M})}{\partial t_{1}^{2} \cdots \partial t_{M}^{2}} \bigg|_{\mathbf{D}_{t}=0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{i^{2M}} \frac{\partial^{2M} |\mathbf{A}|^{-N+2}}{\partial t_{1}^{2} \cdots \partial t_{M}^{2}} \bigg|_{\mathbf{D}_{t}=0}.$$
(35)

The partial derivatives of $|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k}$ with respect to t_1, \dots, t_M are calculated as follows:

$$\frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k}}{\partial t_1} = (-1)(N+k)|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-1}\frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1}$$
(37)
$$\frac{\partial^2 |\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k}}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} = (-1)^2(N+k)(N+k+1)|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-2}\frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1}\frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_2} + (-1)(N+k)|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-1}\frac{\partial^2 |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2}$$
(38)
$$\frac{\partial^3 |\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k}}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} = (-1)^2(N+k)|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-1}\frac{\partial^2 |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2}$$
(38)

$$\frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2 \partial t_3} = (-1)^3 (N+k)(N+k+1)(N+k+2)|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-3} \\ \times \frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1} \frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_2} \frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_3} \\ + (-1)^2 (N+k)(N+k+1)|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-2} \frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1} \frac{\partial^2 |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_2 \partial t_3} \\ + (-1)^2 (N+k)(N+k+1)|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-2} \frac{\partial^2 |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} \frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_3} \\ + (-1)^2 (N+k)(N+k+1)|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-2} \frac{\partial^2 |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} \frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_3} \\ + (-1)^2 (N+k)(N+k+1)|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-2} \frac{\partial^2 |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} \frac{\partial |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_2} \\ + (-N-k)|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-1} \frac{\partial^3 |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2 \partial t_3}$$
(39)

$$\frac{\partial^{M} |\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k}}{\partial t_{1} \cdots \partial t_{M}} = \sum_{\boldsymbol{\pi} \in \mathcal{S}_{M}} \frac{\Gamma\left(N+k+p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}\right)}{\Gamma(N+k)} |\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k-p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \times (-1)^{p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \prod_{m=1}^{p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \frac{\partial^{j} |\mathbf{A}|}{\partial \pi_{m1} \cdots \partial \pi_{mj}}.$$
(40)

Here, S_M is composed by all partitions of the *M*-element set $\{t_1, \dots, t_M\}$ with the number of partitions being the Bell number [38], π denotes a partition of $\{t_1, \dots, t_M\}$ which is defined as a family of nonempty, pairwise disjoint subsets of $\{t_1, \dots, t_M\}$ whose union is $\{t_1, \dots, t_M\}$. Moreover, $p^{(\pi)}$ is the number of subset in π , π_m is the *m*-th subset, \jmath is the number of elements in π_m and π_{mj} is the *j*-th element of π_m .

To illustrate the partitions of $\{t_1, \dots, t_M\}$ in (40), we take the case of M = 3 as an example. The 3-element set $\{t_1, t_2, t_3\}$ can be partitioned in 5 distinct ways:

$$\pi = \{\{t_1\}, \{t_2\}, \{t_3\}\}, \ \pi_1 = \{t_1\}, \\ \pi_2 = \{t_2\}, \ \pi_3 = \{t_3\}, \ p^{(\pi)} = 3 \\ \pi = \{\{t_1\}, \{t_2, t_3\}\}, \ \pi_1 = \{t_1\}, \\$$
(41a)

$$\pi_2 = \{t_2, t_3\}, \ p^{(\pi)} = 2 \tag{41b}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\pi} = \{\{t_1, t_2\}, \{t_3\}\}, \ \boldsymbol{\pi}_1 = \{t_1, t_2\},\$$

$$\pi_2 = \{t_3\}, \ p^{(\pi)} = 2$$
 (41c)

$$\boldsymbol{\pi} = \{\{t_1, t_3\}, \{t_2\}\}, \ \boldsymbol{\pi}_1 = \{t_1, t_3\},\$$

$$\tau_2 = \{t_2\}, \ p^{(\pi)} = 2 \tag{41d}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\pi} = \{\{t_1, t_2, t_3\}\}, \ p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})} = 1.$$
(41e)

Substituting (41) into (40) leads to (39).

As a result, noticing that

$$|\mathbf{A}||_{\mathbf{D}_t=0} = 1 \tag{42}$$

and substituting (40) into (35), we have

$$T_1 = \frac{1}{i^M} \sum_{\boldsymbol{\pi} \in \mathcal{S}_M} \frac{\Gamma\left(N - 1 + p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}\right)}{\Gamma(N - 1)} (-1)^{p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \prod_{m=1}^{p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \nu(\boldsymbol{\pi}_m).$$
(43)

Let S_{2M} be composed by the partitions of the 2M-element set $\{t_1, t_1^*, \dots, t_M, t_M^*\}$, where t_m^* $(m = 1, \dots, M)$ is equal to t_m $(m = 1, \dots, M)$ in value but different in index. In the sequel, the second-order partial derivative of $|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k}$ with respect to t_1, \dots, t_M amounts to the first-order partial derivative of $|\mathbf{A}|^{-N-k}$ with respect to $t_1, t_1^*, \dots, t_M, t_M^*$. Meanwhile, note that the second- and higher-order partial derivatives of $|\mathbf{A}|$ with respect to the same variable t_m are equal to zero. Consequently, substituting (42) along with (40) into (36), we obtain T_2 as

$$T_{2} = \frac{1}{i^{2M}} \sum_{\boldsymbol{\pi} \in \mathcal{S}_{2M}} \frac{\Gamma\left(N - 2 + p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}\right)}{\Gamma(N - 2)} (-1)^{p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \prod_{m=1}^{p^{(\boldsymbol{\pi})}} \nu(\boldsymbol{\pi}_{m}).$$
(44)

Thus, setting k = -1 and k = -2, it follows from (32), (43) and (44) that

$$\mathcal{M}_{-1} = \mathbb{E}[\xi^{-1}] = \frac{\left| \mathbf{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^{-1} \Gamma_M(N-1)}{\Gamma_M(N)} T_1 \qquad (45)$$

$$\mathcal{M}_{-2} = \mathbb{E}[\xi^{-2}] = \frac{\left| \mathbf{\Sigma}^{(1)} \right|^{-2} \Gamma_M(N-2)}{\Gamma_M(N)} T_2.$$
(46)

This completes the proof of Proposition 1.

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