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Similarity matrix analysis and divergence measures for statistical detection of unknown deterministic signals hidden in additive noise

O. Le Bot^{1,*}, J. I. Mars^{*}

Univ. Grenoble Alpes, GIPSA-Lab, 11 rue des Mathématiques, Grenoble Campus BP46, F-38000 Grenoble, France

C. Gervaise^{2,*}

Chaire CHORUS, Foundation of Grenoble Institute of Technology, 46 Avenue Félix Viallet, 38031 Grenoble Cedex 1, France

Abstract

This Letter proposes an algorithm to detect an unknown deterministic signal hidden in additive white Gaussian noise. The detector is based on recurrence analysis. It compares the distribution of the similarity matrix coefficients of the measured signal with an analytic expression of the distribution expected in the noise-only case. This comparison is achieved using divergence measures. Performance analysis based on the receiver operating characteristics shows that the proposed detector outperforms the energy detector, giving a probability of detection 10% to 50% higher, and has a similar performance to that of a sub-optimal filter detector.

*Corresponding author

Email address: lebotol@gmail.com, phone:+1 418 723 1986 -1389 (O. Le Bot)

¹also at: Pôle STIC, ENSTA Bretagne (Université Européenne de Bretagne), 2 rue Francois Verny, 29806 Brest Cedex 9, France

²also at: Univ. Grenoble Alpes, GIPSA-Lab, 11 rue des Mathématiques, Grenoble Campus BP46, F-38000 Grenoble, France

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1. Introduction

Deciding whether a measured data sequence is noise only or contains a short deterministic fraction within the observation time is of greatest importance in several application fields, such as radar interception, underwater acoustic signal detection, and analysis of medical signals. The general framework of a signal detector is classical, as the detector has to choose between one of the following hypotheses:

- H_0 : the measured signal is noise only: $x(t)=n(t)$
- H_1 : the measured signal has a deterministic part hidden in additive noise: $x(t)=s(t)+n(t)$

where $n(t)$ is white Gaussian noise (WGN), and $s(t)$ is the deterministic signal to be detected. To solve this signal detection, a statistical test is computed on the data that are measured, and then compared to a detection threshold [1].

The choice of the statistical test and the estimation of its probability density functions (PDFs) under hypotheses H_0 and H_1 depend on the amount of *a-priori* knowledge we have about the signal we want to detect and about the noise that it contains. When the waveform of the signal to detect is fully known, the optimum statistical test is known as a matched filter [1]. For the opposite situation, when the waveform of the deterministic signal is

21 not known, classical detectors are usually based on signal energy [1] or on
 22 high-order statistics [2, 3], and perform non-Gaussianity tests. Also, there
 23 are several approaches that can be used to set the detection threshold, in-
 24 cluding the Neyman-Pearson method, the Bayes' criterion, the maximum *a*
 25 *posteriori*, and the false discovery rate [1].

26 This Letter aims to present a new detection scheme using an approach
 27 that was inspired by recurrence plots [4] and is combined with divergence
 28 measures, to detect short (few tens to hundreds of samples) unknown deter-
 29 ministic signals in additive WGN. Recurrence plots were introduced to study
 30 the stationarity of non-linear dynamical systems [4], and have been shown to
 31 be useful for a large set of applications, like geology [5], climatology [6], mu-
 32 sic [7] and analysis of medical signals [8], to name but a few. As recurrence
 33 plots show different patterns that depend on the dynamic of the system (*i.e.*,
 34 random, periodic, chaotic), several approaches have been presented in the
 35 literature to quantify and distinguish between these three different dynam-
 36 ical behaviors, and particularly for deterministic signals in random process
 37 [9–15]. A common point to all of these recurrence plot studies is their use of
 38 what is known as recurrence quantification analysis (RQA) [8, 16, 17] to de-
 39 cide whether the measured signal is noise or not. Thus, a classical detection
 40 scheme in the recurrence plot community can be summed-up as follows:

$$x(t) \longrightarrow SM \longrightarrow RP \longrightarrow RQA \longrightarrow Detector \quad (1)$$

41 where SM represents the similarity matrix, and RP the recurrence plot. How-
 42 ever, distributions of RQA metrics under hypotheses H_0 and H_1 do not gener-
 43 ally follow existing distributions, and finding analytic expressions for these
 44 latter is not straightforward [15].

45 Instead of using RQA, we restrict our detector to only the use of the
 46 similarity matrix, which is sometimes called the *distance matrix* or *distance*
 47 *plot* in the literature [15]. The similarity matrix is the intermediate matrix
 48 that is obtained before applying the recurrence threshold that leads to the
 49 recurrence plot. Thus, we avoid the choice of this recurrence threshold and
 50 our detection scheme comes down to:

$$x(t) \longrightarrow SM \longrightarrow Detector \quad (2)$$

51 Our detector compares the empirical distribution of the similarity matrix
 52 coefficients of a measured signal with the distribution that is expected if the
 53 measured signal is WGN. The expression of this expected distribution can be
 54 derived analytically more easily than the RQA distribution. The comparison
 55 between the empirical and the analytic distributions is carried out with a
 56 goodness-of-fit test that is based on statistical divergences [18].

57 Overall, the detector presented in this Letter follows the same scheme
 58 as that proposed by Michalowicz [19]. Our algorithm differs from that of
 59 Michalowicz [19] in the use of divergence measures instead of a modified
 60 version of the χ^2 test to compare the analytic and the empirical distributions
 61 of the similarity matrix coefficients. Classical χ^2 test cannot be used because
 62 the coefficients of the similarity matrix are not fully independent of each
 63 other, as demonstrated by Michalowicz [19], which can bias the result of the
 64 test by giving much more false-positive detection than expected [19]. Finally,
 65 we do not compute the similarity matrix with a Euclidean norm only, as we
 66 propose the use of Pearson's correlation coefficient and the dot-product for
 67 this purpose [20].

68 After a brief recall of the recurrence plot method, we describe the different
69 steps of our detection algorithm. Strong emphasis is put on derivation of the
70 analytic distributions of the similarity matrix coefficients under hypothesis
71 H_0 , when the Euclidean norm, Pearson's correlation coefficient, and the dot-
72 product are used to compute the similarity matrix. Then, we discuss the
73 choice of an appropriate divergence function to compare the analytic and
74 empirical distributions. The third part presents the performances of our
75 detector through the use of receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves.
76 Three different deterministic signals are used in this part: a periodic signal, a
77 chaotic Rössler system and a real acoustic signal. The influence of the degrees
78 of freedom involved in our detection scheme are also investigated, such as the
79 choice of the similarity function or the divergence measure. The performance
80 of the proposed detector is compared with that of an energy detector, a sub-
81 optimal filter detector and the optimal matched-filter detector, which are
82 commonly used in signal processing.

83 2. Recurrence plots

84 Recurrence plots were introduced to study complex systems and are aimed
85 at visualizing the recurrence of their phase space trajectory [4]. Transforming
86 a data sequence to a recurrence plot representation involves three main steps.

87 First, the phase space trajectory of the measured signal $x(i)$ ($i = 1, \dots,$
88 N) is reconstructed using the time delay embedding method [21, 22]. Each
89 phase space vector is given by:

$$\overrightarrow{x_m(i)} = [x(i), x(i + \tau), \dots, x(i + (m - 1)\tau)] \quad (3)$$

90 where m is the embedding dimension, and τ is the delay.

91 The second step consists of measuring the level of similarity between two
 92 vectors of the phase space trajectory: $\overrightarrow{x_m(i)}$ and $\overrightarrow{x_m(j)}$. Calculating the
 93 similarity between all of the possible pairs of phase space vectors leads to the
 94 similarity matrix that is defined by:

$$d(i, j) = Sim(\overrightarrow{x_m(i)}, \overrightarrow{x_m(j)}) \quad (4)$$

95 where $Sim(. , .)$ is the function that is chosen to study the likeness of the
 96 phase space vectors. A lot of different mathematical functions can be used for
 97 this step. Spatial distances, and particularly the Euclidean norm, are mostly
 98 used for this purpose by the recurrence plot community [23]. In this Letter,
 99 we will introduce new functions, *i.e.*, Pearson's correlation coefficient and
 100 the dot-product, which are common similarity measures in signal processing,
 101 but not in the recurrence plot community.

102 Finally, as the recurrence plot is obtained through the comparison of
 103 each coefficient of the similarity matrix to a threshold, the recurrence plot is
 104 a binary matrix where the coefficient of index (i, j) is 1 if $\overrightarrow{x_m(i)}$ and $\overrightarrow{x_m(j)}$
 105 are considered as similar, and is 0 otherwise.

106 **3. Method**

107 *3.1. Overview of the signal detection scheme*

108 The signal detection scheme must give an answer that allows us to decide
 109 whether a finite sequence of discrete samples contains a deterministic signal
 110 or noise only. After calculating Eq. (3) and Eq. (4), the PDF of the similarity
 111 matrix coefficients is built. This PDF is expected to fit a given theoretical
 112 PDF if the measured signal is only WGN. We use a divergence measure to

113 compare the theoretical expected PDF under hypothesis H_0 with the em-
114 pirical PDF associated with the similarity matrix of the measured signal.
115 We recall that in probability theory, a divergence measure is a mathematical
116 function that quantifies the distance between two probability distributions.
117 The result of the divergence measure is a positive number D that we com-
118 pare with a detection threshold λ . If D is below this threshold, this means
119 that the distributions look alike, and consequently that the measured signal
120 is WGN. For the opposite, *i.e.*, if D is greater than the threshold, this means
121 that the empirical PDF differs from the theoretical noise PDF, and thus that
122 a deterministic signal is present. The threshold λ is chosen according to
123 the Neyman-Pearson criterion. We recall that when performing a hypoth-
124 esis test between two hypothesis H_0 versus H_1 , Neyman-Pearson criterion
125 is the one that maximizes the probability of detection while guaranteeing a
126 given probability of false alarm (Pfa). With other words, a threshold fixed
127 by the Neyman-Pearson criterion maximizes the probability (Pd) of choosing
128 hypothesis H_1 when H_1 is effectively true and rejects hypothesis H_0 with a
129 probability Pfa when H_0 is effectively true. To apply this criterion, we use
130 Monte-Carlo simulations to built the distribution of the divergence measures
131 D between the analytic PDF expected under hypothesis H_0 and the empiri-
132 cal PDF of the similarity matrix coefficients of finite length WGN. All of the
133 steps of this detection scheme are summarized in Figure 1.

134 3.2. Analytical distribution of the similarity matrix coefficients in the 'noise
 135 only' case

136 3.2.1. Hypothesis

137 Under hypothesis H_0 , we assume that the measured samples $x(1)$, $x(2)$,
 138 ..., $x(n)$ from a given sequence are independent Gaussian random variables
 139 with zero mean and variance σ^2 .

140 To obtain the similarity matrix, we look at the similarity between the
 141 vectors $\overrightarrow{x_m(i)} = [x(i), x(i+\tau), \dots, x(i+(m-1)\tau)]$ and $\overrightarrow{x_m(j)} = [x(j), x(j+$
 142 $\tau), \dots, x(j+(m-1)\tau)]$ (with $i \neq j$), the components of which come from the
 143 measured signal. Therefore, under hypothesis H_0 , the components of both
 144 of these vectors are also independent Gaussian random variables with zero
 145 mean and variance σ^2 , and the vectors are independent of each other.

146 Based on these assumptions, we analytically model the PDF of the sim-
 147 ilarity matrix coefficients under hypothesis H_0 , when the Euclidean norm,
 148 Pearson's correlation coefficient, and the dot-product (each of which is de-
 149 scribed below) are used to compare the state space vectors.

150 3.2.2. Euclidean norm

151 The Euclidean norm between the two state space vectors is given by:

$$d_{i,j} = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(i) - x_k(j))^2} \quad (5)$$

152 where $x_k(i)$ and $x_k(j)$ are the k^{th} components of vectors $\overrightarrow{x_m(i)}$ and $\overrightarrow{x_m(j)}$,
 153 respectively. According to the assumptions made above, $x_k(i)$ and $x_k(j)$ are
 154 independent Gaussian random variables with zero mean and variance σ^2 .
 155 Therefore, $y_k = x_k(i) - x_k(j)$ is also a Gaussian random variable with zero

156 mean and variance $2\sigma^2$, and every y_k is independent of every other y_k , for all
 157 k .

158 By definition, if we take m independent Gaussian random variables W_k
 159 with zero mean and variance σ_W^2 , then the random variable Z given by

$$Z = \sum_{k=1}^m \left(\frac{W_k}{\sigma_W} \right)^2 \quad (6)$$

160 has a χ^2 distribution with m degrees of freedom. By analogy, we show that
 161 the random variable

$$\sum_{k=1}^m \frac{y_k^2}{2\sigma^2} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(i) - x_k(j))^2}{2\sigma^2} = \frac{d_{i,j}^2}{2\sigma^2} \quad (7)$$

162 has a χ^2 distribution with m degrees of freedom.

163 So, if the Euclidean norm is used, normalizing the coefficients of the sim-
 164 ilarity matrix as in Eq. (7) will give a new similarity matrix, the coefficients
 165 of which will have a χ^2 distribution with m degrees of freedom.

166 3.2.3. Pearson's correlation coefficient

167 Pearson's correlation coefficient between two state space vectors is given
 168 by

$$d_{i,j} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(i) - \overline{x_k(i)}) (x_k(j) - \overline{x_k(j)})}{\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(i) - \overline{x_k(i)})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(j) - \overline{x_k(j)})^2}} \quad (8)$$

169 where $x_k(i)$ and $x_k(j)$ are the k^{th} components of vectors $\overrightarrow{x_m(i)}$ and $\overrightarrow{x_m(j)}$,
 170 respectively, and $\overline{x_k(i)}$ and $\overline{x_k(j)}$ are the empirical means of $\overrightarrow{x_m(i)}$ and $\overrightarrow{x_m(j)}$,
 171 respectively. According to the assumptions made above, as $x_k(i)$ and $x_k(j)$
 172 are independent variables for all k , then their co-variance is zero and the
 173 joint PDF of pair $(x_k(i), x_k(j))$ is the product of their respective PDFs.

174 As $x_k(i)$ and $x_k(j)$ have Gaussian distributions with zero mean and vari-
 175 ance σ^2 , their joint PDF is given by:

$$f(x_k(i), x_k(j)) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{x_k(i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{x_k(j)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \quad (9)$$

176 which is exactly the same as that of a bi-variate normal distribution with
 177 independent random variables and zero mean. Fisher [24–26] demonstrated
 178 that for pairs of independent random variables with bi-variate Gaussian dis-
 179 tributions, the distribution of the Pearson's correlation coefficient r can be
 180 expressed as:

$$f(r) = \frac{1}{\beta\left(\frac{m-1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)} (1-r^2)^{\frac{m-4}{2}} \quad (10)$$

181 where $\beta(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the Beta function, and m is the embedding dimension.

182 3.2.4. Dot-product

183 The dot-product between two state space vectors is given by:

$$d_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^m x_k(i) \times x_k(j) \quad (11)$$

184 where $x_k(i)$ and $x_k(j)$ are the k^{th} components of vectors $\overrightarrow{x_m(i)}$ and $\overrightarrow{x_m(j)}$,
 185 respectively. Eq. (11) can be rewritten as follows:

$$d_{i,j} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(i) + x_k(j))^2 - \sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(i) - x_k(j))^2 \right) \quad (12)$$

186 such that we rely on the PDF of $\sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(i) + x_k(j))^2$ and $\sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(i) -$
 187 $x_k(j))^2$, which are easier to use, to derive the PDF associated with Eq. (11).

188 In the case where $\sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(i) + x_k(j))^2$, as $y_k = x_k(i) + x_k(j)$ is the sum
 189 of two independent Gaussian random variables with zero mean and variance

190 σ^2 , then y_k also has a Gaussian distribution with zero mean and variance
 191 $2\sigma^2$. As in section 3.2.2, we show that the random variable $u_{i,j}$ given by:

$$u_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{y_k^2}{2\sigma^2} = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{(x_k(i) + x_k(j))^2}{2\sigma^2} \quad (13)$$

192 has a χ^2 distribution with m degrees of freedom. The same demonstration
 193 holds for $\sum_{k=1}^m (x_k(i) - x_k(j))^2$, and as in section 3.2.2, the random variable
 194 $v_{i,j}$ that is given by:

$$v_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{(x_k(i) - x_k(j))^2}{2\sigma^2} \quad (14)$$

195 follows a χ^2 distribution, with m degrees of freedom.

196 Combining Eq. (12), (13) and (14), this leads to:

$$\frac{2d_{i,j}}{\sigma^2} = u_{i,j} - v_{i,j} \quad (15)$$

197 Therefore, the distribution of the dot-product of two state space vectors that
 198 satisfy our assumptions is equivalent, to a scaling factor, to the difference
 199 of two independent random variables with χ^2 distributions. The analytic
 200 expression of the distribution associated with this difference can be derived
 201 using the moment-generating function of the χ^2 distribution.

202 If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are n independent random variables (which are not
 203 necessarily identically distributed), and S_n is a random variable defined by:

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i \quad (16)$$

204 where $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$ is a constant, then the moment-generating function of S_n is
 205 given by:

$$M_{S_n}(y) = M_{X_1}(a_1 y) \times M_{X_2}(a_2 y) \times \dots \times M_{X_n}(a_n y) \quad (17)$$

206 where M_{X_i} is the moment-generating function of X_i .

207 In our case, S_n is the sum of two independent random variables ($u_{i,j}$,
208 $v_{i,j}$), both of which follow a χ^2 distribution with m degrees of freedom. The
209 moment-generating function of a χ^2 distribution is:

$$M_X(y) = (1 - 2y)^{-\frac{m}{2}} \quad (18)$$

210 According to the properties given above, the moment-generating function of
211 $u_{i,j} - v_{i,j}$ is therefore given by:

$$M_{u_{i,j}-v_{i,j}}(y) = (1 - 4y^2)^{-\frac{m}{2}} \quad (19)$$

212 The moment-generating function obtained in Eq. (19) is the same as that of
213 a variance-Gamma distribution, the general expression for which is given by:

$$M_{V.G.}(\lambda, \alpha, \beta, \mu, y) = e^{\mu y} \left[\frac{\alpha^2 - \beta^2}{\alpha^2 - (\beta + y)^2} \right]^\lambda \quad (20)$$

214 By identification, we find that the parameters of Eq. (20) leading to
215 Eq. (19) are: $\mu = 0$, $\alpha = 1/2$, $\beta = 0$, $\lambda = m/2$

216 The PDF of a variance-Gamma distribution is defined as:

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{(\alpha^2 - \beta^2)^\lambda |z - \mu|^{\lambda - \frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(\lambda) (2\alpha)^{\lambda - \frac{1}{2}}} K_{\lambda - \frac{1}{2}}(\alpha |z - \mu|) e^{\beta(x - \mu)} \quad (21)$$

217 where Γ is the gamma function, and $K_\nu(x)$ is the modified Bessel function
218 of second kind. The PDF of $(u_{i,j} - v_{i,j})$ is finally obtained by replacing μ , α ,
219 β and λ by the values defined above, which gives:

$$f_{(u_{i,j}-v_{i,j})}(z) = \frac{|z|^{\frac{m-1}{2}}}{2^m \sqrt{\pi} \Gamma\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)} K_{\frac{m-1}{2}}\left(\frac{|z|}{2}\right) \quad (22)$$

220 This PDF is continuous when $z = 0$ and $m > 1$, and is given by

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} f_{(u_{i,j}-v_{i,j})}(z) = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)} \quad (23)$$

221 So, if the dot-product is used, the multiplication of the similarity matrix
 222 by a factor $2/\sigma^2$ will give a new similarity matrix, the coefficients of which
 223 will have a distribution that is defined by Eq. (22) and (23).

224 *3.3. The divergence measure between the analytic distribution for the 'noise*
 225 *only' case, and the empirical distribution of an unknown signal*

226 The next step in our detection scheme (fourth block in Fig. 1) is the
 227 comparison between the analytic distributions defined in the previous section
 228 and the empirical distributions of the similarity matrix coefficients of an
 229 unknown signal, to decide whether this latter fits the expected distribution
 230 under hypothesis H_0 . Such a comparison is called a goodness-of-fit test in
 231 statistics. A popular goodness-of-fit method is Pearson's χ^2 test [27]. As
 232 stated before, in our case, the χ^2 test gives more false positives than expected,
 233 which means that it is not usable.

234 To avoid this problem, we propose to use a goodness-of-fit test that is
 235 based on an *information theory* approach, which consists of computation of
 236 the difference of entropy between the two PDFs we want to compare. This
 237 approach is called the divergence measure, and this was first proposed by
 238 Shannon [28] and Kullback [29].

239 *3.3.1. Divergence measures*

240 Mathematically speaking, a function $Div(\cdot, \cdot) : X \times X \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ (where X
 241 is a set) is a divergence function [30] if, for all $x, y \in X$, it has the following

242 properties:

- 243 • $Div(x, y) \geq 0$ (non-negativity);
- 244 • $Div(x, y) = 0 \iff x=y$ (identity of indiscernible).

245 In general, divergence measures do not satisfy the triangular inequality; some
246 of them are symmetric. Divergence measures can be split into several classes;
247 *i.e.*, f -divergences, Bregman divergences, α -divergences, β -divergences, and
248 γ -divergences. Thorough state-of-the-art reviews of divergence classes and
249 their respective properties can be found in [18, 30, 31].

250 It is essential to decide which divergence measure to use, to have the
251 best processing gain for our detector, although to the best of our knowledge,
252 there are no strict rules for this in the literature. Therefore, we decided to
253 study the performances of our detector for three of the most-cited divergence
254 measures in the literature: the Kullback-Leibler divergence, the Hellinger
255 divergence, and the Jensen-Shannon divergence.

256 The Kullback-Leibler divergence is probably one of the most used diver-
257 gences in the literature, particularly for goodnes-of-fit tests and parametric
258 estimations [32, 33]. The Kullback-Leibler divergence is defined as follows:

$$D_{KL}(p \parallel q) = \int p(x) \ln \left(\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \right) dx \quad (24)$$

259 where $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ are the PDFs to be compared.

260 The Hellinger divergence is expressed as:

$$D_H(p \parallel q) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \int \left(\sqrt{p(x)} - \sqrt{q(x)} \right)^2 dx} \quad (25)$$

261 The Kullback-Leibler divergence and Hellinger divergence belong to the f -
262 divergence class.

263 The last divergence that we investigate here is the Jensen-Shannon di-
 264 vergence, which can be seen as a symmetric and smoothed version of the
 265 Kullback-Leibler divergence, and is expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 D_{JS}(p||q) = & \eta D_{KL}\left(p \parallel (\eta p + (1 - \eta)q)\right) \\
 & + \eta D_{KL}\left(q \parallel (\eta p + (1 - \eta)q)\right)
 \end{aligned} \tag{26}$$

266 where $D_{KL}(\cdot||\cdot)$ is the Kullback-Leibler divergence given by Eq. (24), and
 267 $\eta \in [0, 1]$. In this Letter, the simulations are carried out with $\eta = 0.5$ (as an
 268 arbitrary choice).

269 3.3.2. Distributions of the divergences in the 'noise only' case

270 To decide whether a measured signal is noise only or is a deterministic
 271 signal, the result of each of these divergence measures is compared to a
 272 threshold λ , the value of which is chosen to guarantee a given Pfa. To
 273 achieve this, it is necessary to know the PDF of the divergence measures
 274 under hypothesis H_0 . We obtain this latter with Monte-Carlo simulations
 275 (with 50,000 repetitions), by generating WGN (zero mean, $\sigma^2 = 1$), and
 276 computing the first four steps of our detection scheme with an embedding
 277 $m = 16$ and a delay $\tau = 1$ (Fig. 1). We repeat this simulation to obtain
 278 50,000 values of the divergence measures, and build their PDF. This PDF
 279 is estimated by a classical histogram method. These simulations are carried
 280 out for each similarity function (*i.e.*, Euclidean norm, Pearson's correlation
 281 coefficient, dot-product), followed by the three different divergence measures
 282 presented above, which leads to nine different detectors.

283 4. Results

284 The performances of these nine detectors are studied through the ROC
285 curves, which display the probability of detection *versus* the Pfa associated
286 with the detector, as a function of the detection threshold. Within this
287 performance analysis section, we show that the Kullback-Leibler divergence
288 always gives the best processing gain whatever the similarity function (*i.e.*,
289 Euclidean norm, Pearson's correlation coefficient, or dot-product) used to
290 built the similarity matrix. Then, we establish which similarity function (*i.e.*,
291 Euclidean norm, Pearson's correlation coefficient, or dot-product) should be
292 associated with the Kullback-Leibler divergence to give the best overall per-
293 formances. Finally, we compare the performances of our detector with the
294 energy detector, a sub-optimal filter detector and the optimal matched-filter
295 detector.

296 4.1. Performance analysis methodology

297 To build the ROC curves, it is necessary to know the distribution of
298 the divergence measures under hypothesis H_1 . This distribution is obtained
299 with Monte Carlo simulations of 50,000 experiments. The performances are
300 studied through two simulated deterministic signals, namely, a periodic signal
301 given by a cosine function (section 4.3) and the first component of a Rössler
302 system in chaotic regime (section 4.4), as well as with a real acoustic signal
303 (section 4.5). In a passive context, the duration of the signal to be detected is
304 generally not known. Therefore, we study the performances where the length
305 of the deterministic signal to detect is shorter than the observation time.
306 The PDFs of the divergence measures under hypothesis H_1 are constructed

307 when the deterministic signal occupies $T\%$ of the observation time, with
 308 $T \in \{10, \dots, 100\}$ (Fig 2).

309 Several signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs) between $-2dB$ and $+4dB$ are also
 310 studied (by step of 0.5 dB). Only the most significant results are shown in
 311 this Letter. We recall that the SNR expressed in decibel is defined as:

$$SNR_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{\frac{1}{L_s} \sum_{i=1}^{L_s} s(i)^2}{\frac{1}{L_b} \sum_{j=1}^{L_b} b(j)^2} \quad (27)$$

312 where $s(i)$ is the deterministic signal and L_s is its length, $b(j)$ is the WGN
 313 and L_b is its length. Therefore, the targeted SNR is obtained by adjusting
 314 the variance of the WGN with respect to energy of the deterministic signal
 315 as follow:

$$\sigma_b^2 = \left(\frac{1}{L_s} \sum_{i=1}^{L_s} s(i)^2 \right) \cdot 10^{-SNR_{dB}/10} \quad (28)$$

316

317 For each simulated signal under hypothesis H_1 , we compute the first four
 318 steps of our detection scheme to obtain the divergence measures (Fig. 1).
 319 The PDFs of the divergence measures under hypotheses H_0 and H_1 lead to
 320 the construction of the ROC curves, which depend on the values chosen for
 321 the pair (SNR, T) .

322 To see where our detector is positioned relative to classical detectors from
 323 the literature, we compare its ROC curves with those of the energy detector,
 324 a sub-optimal filter detector and the optimal matched-filter detector. The
 325 latter two detectors will only be used when the deterministic signal is the
 326 periodic signal, as they can hardly be used with a chaotic signal and a real

327 acoustic signal, which have, *a priori*, an unknown waveform. In the next
 328 subsection, we recall the underlying PDFs of these three detectors under
 329 hypotheses H_0 and H_1 .

330 4.2. Detectors of reference

331 4.2.1. Energy detector

332 The energy detector is commonly used in signal processing when nothing
 333 is known about the signal to be detected. This detector is based on the
 334 random variable g , which is defined as follows:

$$g = \sum_{i=1}^L x(t_i)^2 \quad (29)$$

335 where $x(t)$ is the measured signal. Under hypothesis H_0 , the measured signal
 336 is WGN with zero mean and variance σ^2 . Therefore, the random variable
 337 g/σ^2 has a χ^2 distribution with L degrees of freedom.

338 For hypothesis H_1 , when the deterministic signal is a cosine with length
 339 L_s , g is given by:

$$g = \sum_{i=1}^L \left(b(t_i) + A \cos(2\pi f_0 t_i) \text{rect}_{L_s}(t_i) \right)^2 \quad (30)$$

340 with A the amplitude of the cosine, f_0 its frequency and $\text{rect}_{L_s}(t_i)$ a rectan-
 341 gular window of length L_s . Then, the random variable g/σ^2 has a noncentral
 342 χ^2 distribution with L degrees of freedom and a noncentrality parameter
 343 $\zeta = L_s A^2 / 2\sigma^2$ [34]. When the deterministic signal is the chaotic Rössler
 344 system or the real acoustic signal, the distribution of g under hypothesis H_1
 345 is obtained empirically with Monte-Carlo simulations.

346 *4.2.2. Sub-optimal filter detector*

347 As stated in the Introduction, when the waveform of the signal to be
 348 detected is perfectly know, the optimum detector is called a matched filter.
 349 Here, we consider the sub-optimal case where the detector includes all of
 350 the characteristics of the cosine signal it has to detect, excepted its duration.
 351 Thus the detector expects the cosine to be present 100% of the time, whereas
 352 it will effectively be present only $T\%$ of the time. This detector is based on
 353 the random variable g , which is given by:

$$g = \sum_{i=1}^L x(t_i) \times A \cos(2\pi f_0 t_i) \quad (31)$$

354 where L is the length of the measured signal $x(t)$. Under hypothesis H_0 , the
 355 measured signal is WGN with zero mean and variance σ^2 . We can demon-
 356 strated that the random variable g has a normal distribution with zero mean
 357 and variance $L\sigma^2 A^2/2$ [1].

358 For hypothesis H_1 , when the deterministic signal is a cosine with length
 359 L_s , g is given by:

$$g = \sum_{i=1}^L \left(b(t_i) + A \cos(2\pi f_0 t_i) \cdot \text{rect}_{L_s}(t_i) \right) \times A \cos(2\pi f_0 t_i) \quad (32)$$

360 and has a normal distribution with mean $L_s A^2/2$, and variance $L\sigma^2 A^2/2$ [1].

361

362 *4.2.3. Optimal Matched-filter detector*

363 In this section we consider the optimal matched-filter detector, i.e. the
 364 detector knows all of the characteristics of the cosine signal it has to detect.

365 This detector is based on the random variable g , which is given by:

$$g = \sum_{i=1}^L x(t_i) \cdot \text{Acos}(2\pi f_0 t_i) \cdot \text{rect}_{L_s}(t_i) \quad (33)$$

366 where L is the length of the measured signal $x(t)$. Under hypothesis H_0 , the
 367 measured signal is WGN with zero mean and variance σ^2 . We can demon-
 368 strated that the random variable g has a normal distribution with zero mean
 369 and variance $L_s \sigma^2 A^2 / 2$ [1]. For hypothesis H_1 , when the deterministic signal
 370 is a cosine, g is given by:

$$g = \sum_{i=1}^L \left(b(t_i) + \text{Acos}(2\pi f_0 t_i) \cdot \text{rect}_{L_s}(t_i) \right) \cdot \text{Acos}(2\pi f_0 t_i) \cdot \text{rect}_{L_s}(t_i) \quad (34)$$

371 and has a normal distribution with mean $L_s A^2 / 2$, and variance $L_s \sigma^2 A^2 / 2$
 372 [1].

373 4.3. Performances with a periodic signal

374 In this section, the deterministic signal to detect is a cosine function, the
 375 frequency of which, f_0 , is randomly chosen for each experiment (uniform dis-
 376 tribution), so that $f_0 / f_e \in [0.05 \ 0.45]$, where f_e is the sampling frequency.
 377 The cosine function is added to WGN for 100 samples. Thus, the distribu-
 378 tions of the divergence measures obtained under hypothesis H_0 in section
 379 3.3.2 are calculated with a WGN for 100 samples.

380 We recall that for a cosine with amplitude A added to WGN with zero
 381 mean and variance σ^2 , the SNR is $A^2 / 2\sigma^2$, or in *dB*, $10 \log_{10}(A^2 / 2\sigma^2)$. To
 382 sum-up, in this section, the measured signal under hypothesis H_1 is given by
 383 $x(t) = b(t) + \text{Acos}(2\pi f_0 t) \text{rect}_{L_s}(t)$, where $b(t)$ is a WGN sequence, $\text{rect}_{L_s}(t)$
 384 is a rectangular window of length L_s , A is the amplitude of the cosine, and
 385 f_0 is the frequency of the cosine.

386 All of the results in this section are given for an embedding dimension
387 $m = 16$ and $\tau = 1$. However, all of the conclusions remain the same for other
388 embeddings within the range $[8, 20]$. All of the ROC curves are identical for
389 $m \in [12, 18]$.

390 *4.3.1. Performances as a function of the divergence measure*

391 First, we look at the influence of the divergence measure on the perfor-
392 mances of the detector, for each similarity function taken separately.

393 As ROC curves aim at showing the probability of detection (Pd) as a
394 function of the probability of false alarm (pfa), the performances of a given
395 detector are considered as good when its Pd is close or equal to 1 whatever
396 the value of Pfa. At the contrary, performances are considered as bad when
397 $Pd = Pfa$. Also, a detector is considered better than another detector, if
398 the COR curve of the first detector is above the ROC curve of the second
399 detector.

400 For example, on Fig. 3, we see that for each subplot associated with
401 a couple (T, SNR) , the ROC curve of the detector using the Kullback-
402 Leibler divergence (plain line) is above the ROC curve of the Hellinger and
403 Jensen-Shannon divergences. Therefore, we can say that the detector using
404 the Euclidean norm with the Kullback-Leibler divergence outperforms the
405 detectors using the Euclidean norm with the Hellinger divergence and the
406 Jensen-Shannon divergence (Figs. 3). The same observations and conclusions
407 hold when the dot-product is used to compute the similarity matrix (Figs. 5).
408 Whatever the couple (T, RSB) used for the simulations, the ROC curves of
409 the detector using the dot-product with the Kullback-Leibler divergence are
410 above the ROC curve with the Hellinger divergence and the Jensen-Shannon

411 divergence (Figs. 5). With these two similarity functions (i.e. Euclidean
412 norm and dot-product), when the SNR is positive (three last rows of the
413 panel) and $P_{fa} \leq 10^{-3}$, the detection probability with the Kullback-Leibler
414 divergence is 10% to 50% greater than those obtained with the Hellinger
415 divergence and Jensen-Shannon divergence.

416 When Pearson's correlation coefficient is used, the Kullback-Leibler di-
417 vergence is slightly better than the Hellinger divergence and Jensen-Shannon
418 divergence (Fig. 4).

419 According to these results, for the remainder of this section 4.3, we have
420 chosen the Kullback-Leibler divergence to compare the analytic and empirical
421 PDFs of the similarity matrix coefficients, whichever similarity function is
422 used to compute the similarity matrix.

423 4.3.2. Performances as a function of the similarity function

424 We now look at the similarity function that gives the best results for
425 the detector, when the Kullback-Leibler divergence is used to compare the
426 analytic and empirical distributions. We compare ROC curves of the de-
427 tectors having the following configurations: {Euclidean Norm, Kullback-
428 Leibler}, {Pearson's correlation coefficient, Kullback-Leibler}, {dot-product,
429 Kullback-Leibler} (Fig. 6).

430 For all of the combinations of SNR and T , the detector using the dot-
431 product performs the best, followed by the detector with the Euclidean norm,
432 and then last, the detector using Pearson's correlation coefficient. When the
433 P_{fa} is around 10^{-4} , the detection probability of the detector using the dot-
434 product is 10% to 25% higher than the detector with the Euclidean norm,
435 and 10% to 80% higher than that with Pearson's correlation coefficient, which

436 depends on the values given to the pair (RSB, T) . For a given SNR, we find
 437 for all similarity functions that the data change quickly when T increases.
 438 The same observation is made when T is constant and the SNR increases by
 439 a few decibels.

440 *4.3.3. Comparison with the detectors of reference*

441 The proposed detector with the dot-product and Kullback-Leibler diver-
 442 gence is compared with the energy detector and the matched-filter detector,
 443 in terms of their ROC curves (Fig. 7). For all of the SNR values > 0 , the
 444 performances of the proposed detector are higher than those of the energy
 445 detector, whatever the length T of the cosine. For a Pfa around 10^{-4} the
 446 difference in terms of the detection probability between both of the detectors
 447 is between 0.05 and 0.45, depending on the SNR and T .

448 For most of the (SNR, T) combinations, the proposed detector has a
 449 similar performance to the sub-optimal filter detector. Our detector is sig-
 450 nificantly better than the sub-optimal filter detector only when the cosine is
 451 very short ($T \leq 30$ %) and has a SNR > 2 dB. However, the performances
 452 of the proposed detector are far behind those of the optimal matched-filter
 453 detector.

454 These performances for the proposed detector can be explained as follows.
 455 As the similarity matrix is computed by splitting the signal into several state
 456 space vectors, when hypothesis H_1 is true, some of these vectors correspond
 457 to the signal we want to detect. Therefore, our detector is self-fed by vectors
 458 associated with the useful signal and is locally equivalent to a matched-filter
 459 detector. If a state space vector $\overrightarrow{s_m(t_i)}$ that contains samples from the deter-
 460 ministic signal is compared to a vector $\overrightarrow{s_m(t_j)}$ that has only noise samples,

461 then the coefficient (i, j) of the similarity matrix belongs to the PDF associ-
 462 ated with the noise-only case. For the opposite, if vector $\overrightarrow{s_m(t_j)}$ also contains
 463 samples from the deterministic signal, we are back under hypothesis H_1 of a
 464 classical matched filter. In the end, some of the coefficients of the similar-
 465 ity matrix correspond to hypothesis H_0 and follow the analytic distribution
 466 derived above in the noise-only case, while the remaining coefficients corre-
 467 spond to hypothesis H_1 and do not follow this analytic distribution. The
 468 empirical PDF of the coefficients of the similarity matrix differs significantly
 469 from the one that would be expected in the noise-only case, and the deter-
 470 ministic signal is detected, even when this latter is short and has a poor SNR.

471

472 4.4. Performances with a Rössler system in chaotic regime

473 In this section, the deterministic signal to detect is the first component
 474 (or x-component) of a Rössler system. This system is defined by:

$$\dot{x} = -y - z \quad (35)$$

$$\dot{y} = x + ay \quad (36)$$

$$\dot{z} = b + z(x - c) \quad (37)$$

475 We take $a = 0.15$, $b = 0.2$ and $c = 10$, so that it has a chaotic behavior. The
 476 sampling time Δt is equal to 0.4 s. The component $x(t)$ is added to WGN
 477 for 200 samples, so that the Rössler system has enough time to oscillate
 478 during a few periods, even when it occupies a small percentage T of the ob-
 479 servation time. Thus, the distributions of the divergence measures obtained
 480 under hypothesis H_0 in section 3.3.2 are now calculated with a WGN for 200
 481 samples. The SNR is adjusted according to Eq. (28). For each realization

482 of the Monte-Carlo simulations, the initial conditions $[x(0), y(0), z(0)]$ are
483 randomly chosen with uniform distribution within the range $[-5, 5]$ in order
484 to get various waveform for $x(t)$.

485 We approach this part through two points of view. In section 4.4.1, we do
486 not take into account that $x(t)$ is part of a 3-components system and study
487 the performances of the detector as we did with the cosine, i.e. with $\tau = 1$
488 and $m \in [8, 20]$. Then, in section 4.4.2, we take into account that $x(t)$ comes
489 from a 3-components system and so that its phase space trajectory can be
490 reconstructed with $m = 3$. Thus, in 4.4.2 we study the performances for
491 $m = 3$ and $\tau \in [2, 9]$.

492

493 4.4.1. Case 1: $\tau = 1, m \in [8, 20]$

494 We do not show all the ROC curves as we did in the previous section,
495 but only give a summary of the main results. All of the results are given for
496 an embedding dimension $m = 16$. However, all of the conclusions remain the
497 same for other embeddings within the range $[8, 20]$.

498 As for the periodic signal in section 4.3, we first looked at the divergence
499 measure giving the best detection performances, for each similarity function
500 taken separately. Results and conclusions remain the same as for the periodic
501 signal, namely that whatever the similarity function $Sim(\cdot, \cdot)$ used to calcu-
502 late the similarity matrix, the Kullback-Leibler divergence always gives the
503 best detection capabilities. The Hellinger divergence and Jensen-Shannon
504 divergence have much lower performances than Kullback-Leibler divergence.

505 Secondly, when the Kullback-Leibler divergence is used as a divergence
506 measure, then the best overall detection performances are again obtained

507 with the dot-product as $Sim(\cdot, \cdot)$ function to compute the distance matrix.

508 Finally, on Fig. 8, we compare the COR curves of the energy detector with
509 those of the proposed method with the dot-product and Kullback-Leibler
510 divergence. We see on this figure that whatever the couple (T, RSB) chosen,
511 the proposed detector always outperforms the energy detector. For $Pfa <$
512 10^{-3} , the probability of detection of proposed detector is 20 % to 50 % higher
513 than the one of the energy detector.

514

515 4.4.2. Case 2: $\tau \in [2, 9]$, $m = 3$

516 All of the results in this section are given for $m = 3$ and $\tau = 3$. However,
517 all of the conclusions remain the same for other τ within the range $[2, 9]$.

518 Like in previous sections, we found that Kullback-Leibler divergence is the
519 divergence measure that gives the best detection performances. Then, we no-
520 ticed that by associating the Kullback-Leibler divergence with the Euclidean
521 norm, we get slightly better performances than by combining Kullback-
522 Leibler divergence with the dot-product (see Fig. 9). The probability of
523 detection increases only by a few percent between the dot-product and the
524 Euclidean norm. At last, when comparing the proposed detector with the en-
525 ergy detector, we see that the energy detector and the proposed detector with
526 {Euclidean norm, Kullback-Leibler divergence} give very similar results and
527 that the energy detector is slightly better than the proposed detector with
528 {dot-product, Kullback-Leibler divergence} (Fig. 9).

529

530 4.5. Performances with a real acoustic signal

531 In this section, we test the performances of the proposed detector with a

532 real underwater acoustic signal that was recorded in the Mediterranean Sea in
533 August 2014. This sound, whose waveform is given on Fig. 2g, was produced
534 by a fish. As the background noise mixed with the fish sound is not a true
535 WGN, the necessary assumptions given in section 3.2.1 are not met and so
536 we could not retrieve the theoretical distributions we found previously under
537 H_0 hypothesis. Therefore, we have extracted the fish sound and add it with a
538 simulated WGN. Like for previous simulations we change the duration of the
539 noise so that the fish sound occupies T % of the observation time. Various
540 SNR are also tested, according to Eq. (28).

541 Fig. 10 shows the COR curves of the proposed detector with $\tau = 1$,
542 $m = 16$, the dot-product as similarity function and the Kullback-Leibler
543 divergence as divergence measure. Like for the periodic signal and for the
544 Rössler system, the proposed detector outperforms the energy detector for
545 all couples (T, RSB) .

546 **5. Conclusion**

547 This Letter has presented a scheme that is based on statistical analysis
548 of the similarity matrix coefficients and on divergence measures to detect an
549 unknown deterministic signal in WGN. Under hypothesis H_0 , the distribu-
550 tion of the similarity matrix coefficients was derived analytically for three
551 similarity functions: the Euclidean norm, Pearson's correlation coefficients,
552 and the dot-product. Then, divergence measures were used to compare this
553 analytic distribution with the empirical distribution of a measured signal for
554 which we wanted to apply the detection test. Three divergence measures
555 were tested in this study: Kullback-Leibler divergence, Hellinger divergence,
556 and Jensen-Shannon divergence. The performance of the detector was stud-

557 ied through ROC curves. The influences of similarity functions, divergence
558 measures, length of the deterministic signal, and the SNR were discussed.
559 We found that the Kullback-Leibler divergence was always the divergence
560 measure giving, in the end, the best results. The best overall performances
561 are obtained when this divergence is used with the dot-product as simi-
562 larity function. The proposed detector provided with the dot-product and
563 the Kullback-Leibler divergence was compared with the energy detector, a
564 sub-optimal filter detector and the optimal matched-filter detector. The re-
565 sults with two simulated deterministic signal, namely a periodic signal and a
566 chaotic Rössler system, as well as with a real underwater acoustic signal show
567 that the proposed detector has a much better detection probability than the
568 energy detector and similar performance to the sub-optimal filter detector.
569 At last, results shown in this Letter and our own experience on other real
570 signals indicate that by performing a statistical analysis of similarity matrix
571 coefficients we get enhanced detection performances relative to the classical
572 energy detector, independently of the kind of the deterministic signal to be
573 detected.

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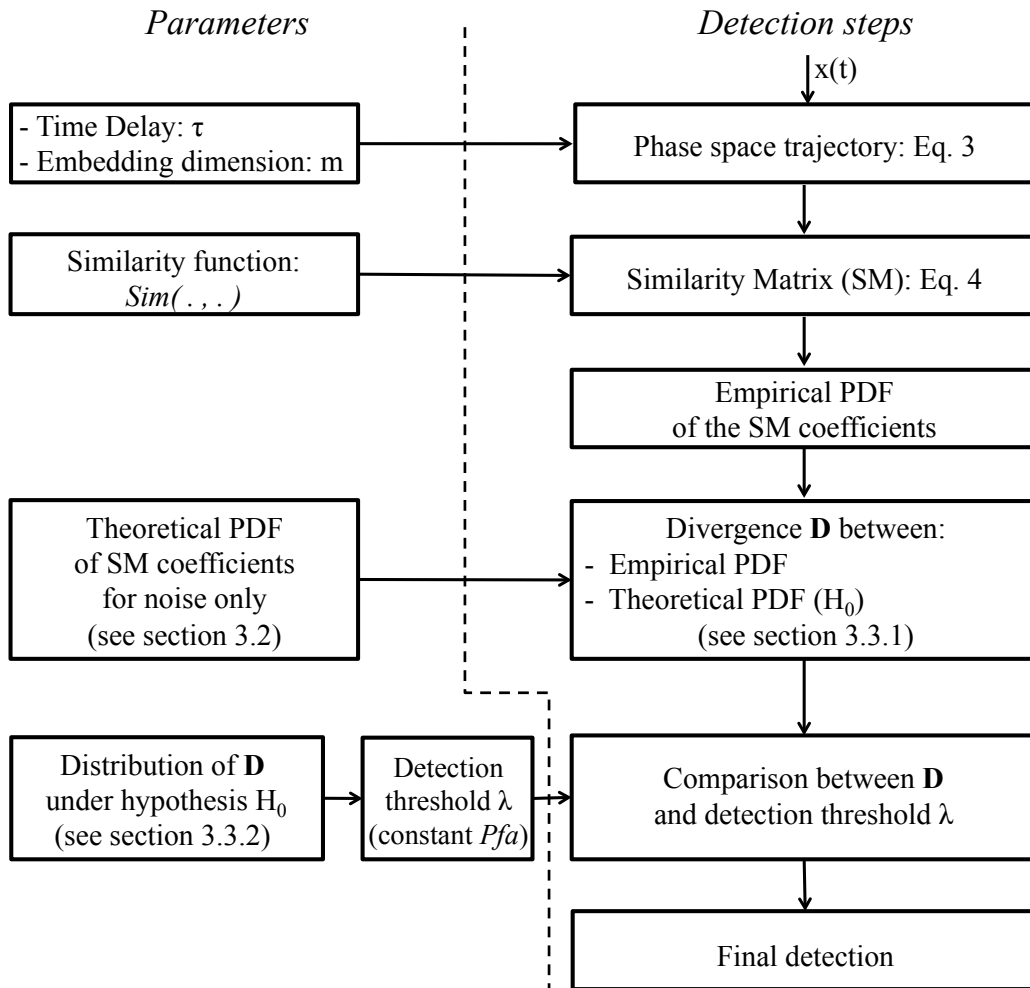


Figure 1: Flowchart of the detector system.

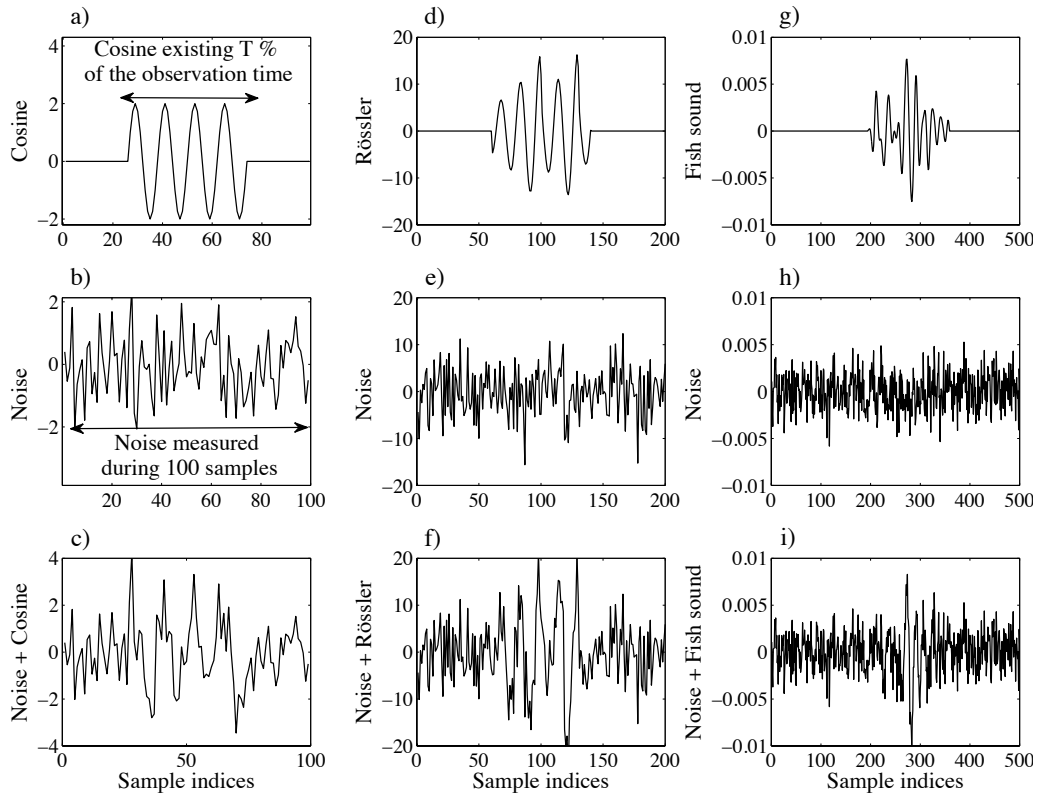


Figure 2: Under hypothesis H_1 , the deterministic signal to detect that lasts $T\%$ of the observation time, $T \in \{10, 15, 20, \dots, 80, 100\}$, is added to WGN. a-c) Example with the cosine function used in section 4.3; d-f) Example with a chaotic signal from a Rössler system used in section 4.4 ; g-i) Example with the waveform of the sound produced by a fish used in section 4.5. Figures c,f,i correspond to an SNR of 3 dB.

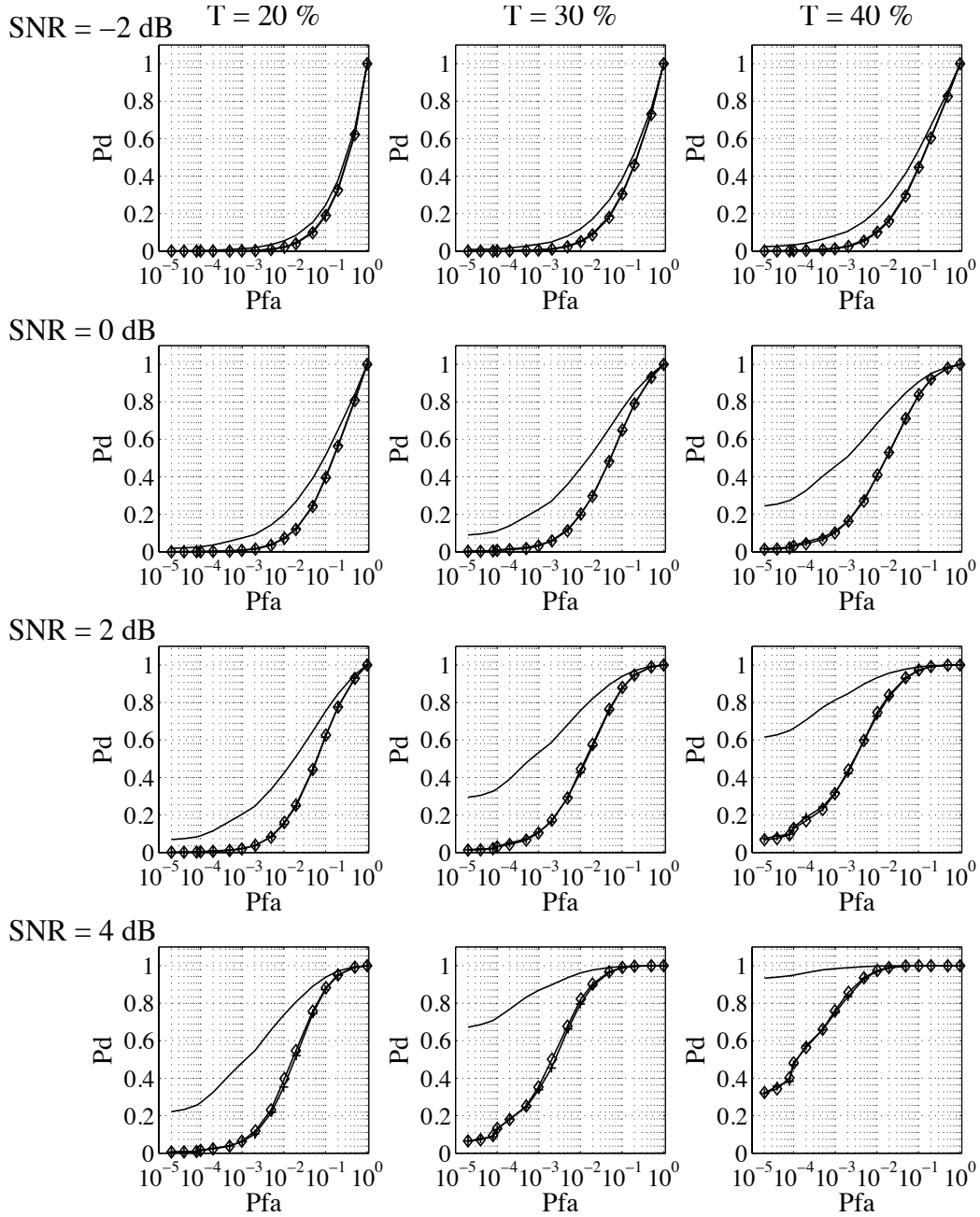


Figure 3: ROC curves based on the Euclidean norm as a function of the SNR (rows of panels), the length T of the cosine (columns of panels), and the Kullback-Leibler (plain line), Hellinger (\diamond), and Jensen-Shannon (+) divergence measures. The data for the Hellinger and Jensen-Shannon divergences are superimposed. The Kullback-Leibler divergence always outperforms the Hellinger and Jensen-Shannon divergences.

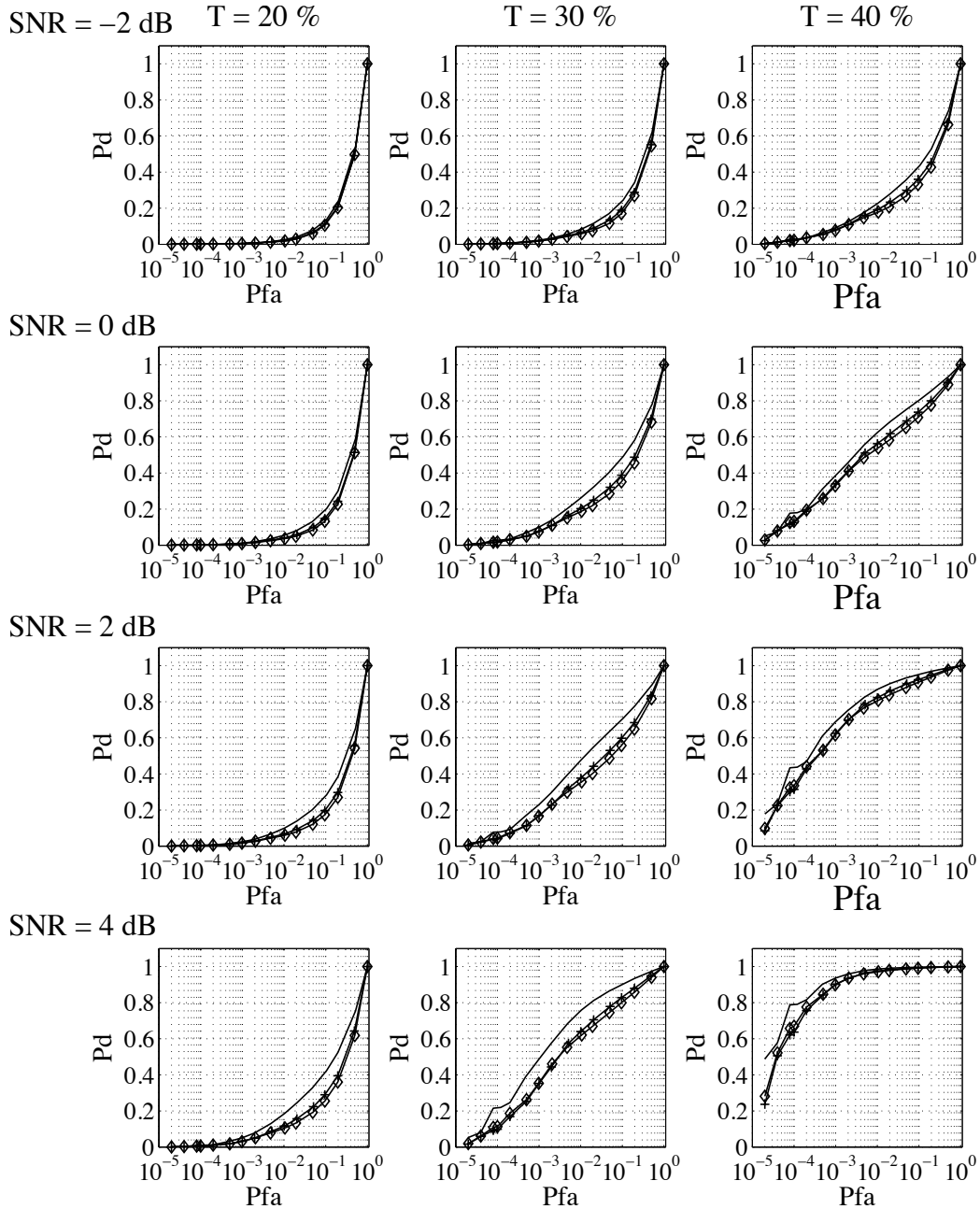


Figure 4: ROC curves based on Pearson's correlation coefficient as a function of the SNR (rows of panels), the length T of the cosine (columns of panels) and the Kullback-Leibler (plain line), Hellinger (\diamond), and Jensen-Shannon (+) divergence measures. The data for the Hellinger and Jensen-Shannon divergences are superimposed.

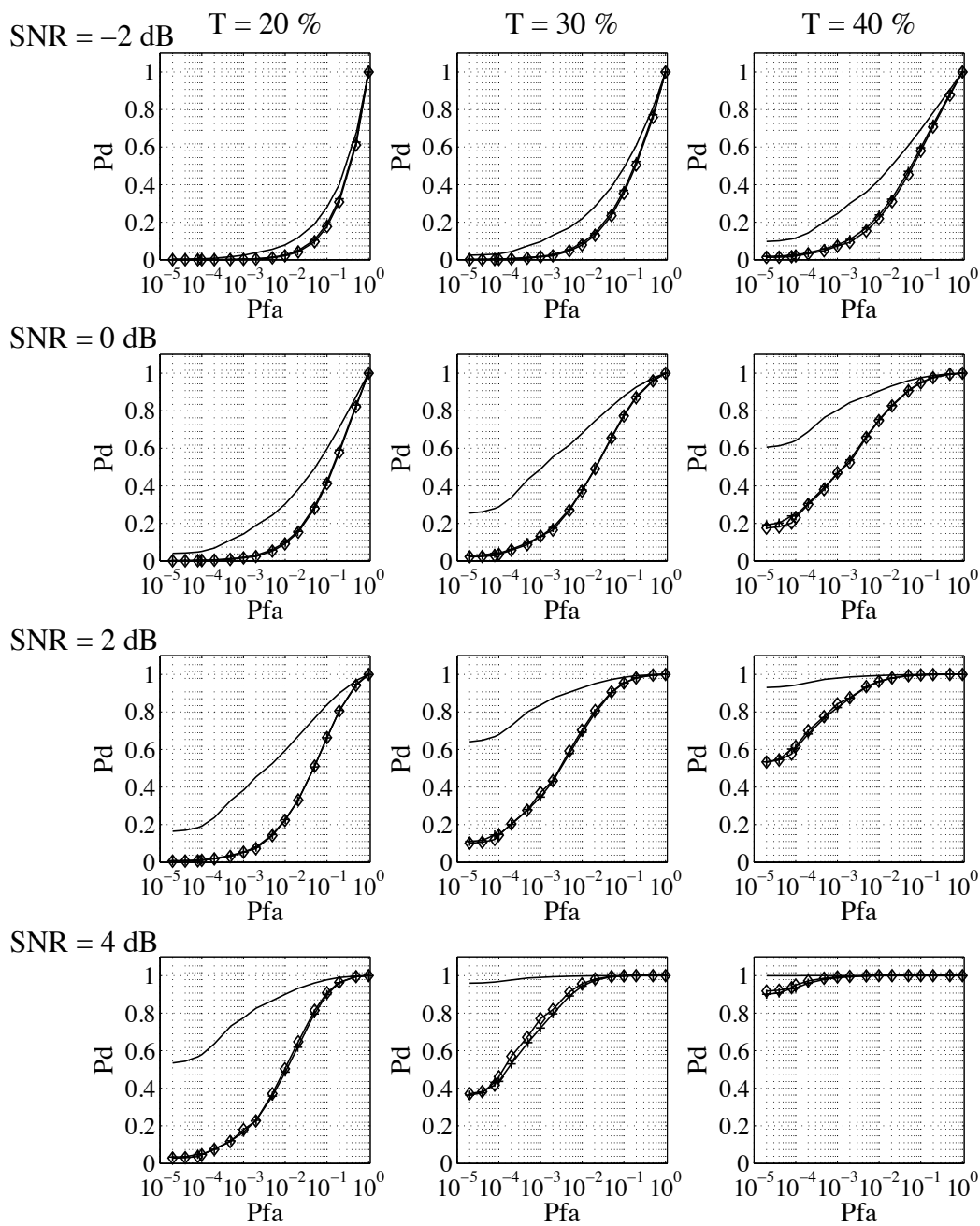


Figure 5: ROC curves based on the dot-product as a function of the SNR (rows of panels), the length T of the cosine (columns of panels) and the Kullback-Leibler (plain line), Hellinger (\diamond), and Jensen-Shannon ($+$) divergence measures. The data for the Hellinger and Jensen-Shannon divergences are superimposed. The Kullback-Leibler divergence always outperforms the Hellinger and Jensen-Shannon divergences.

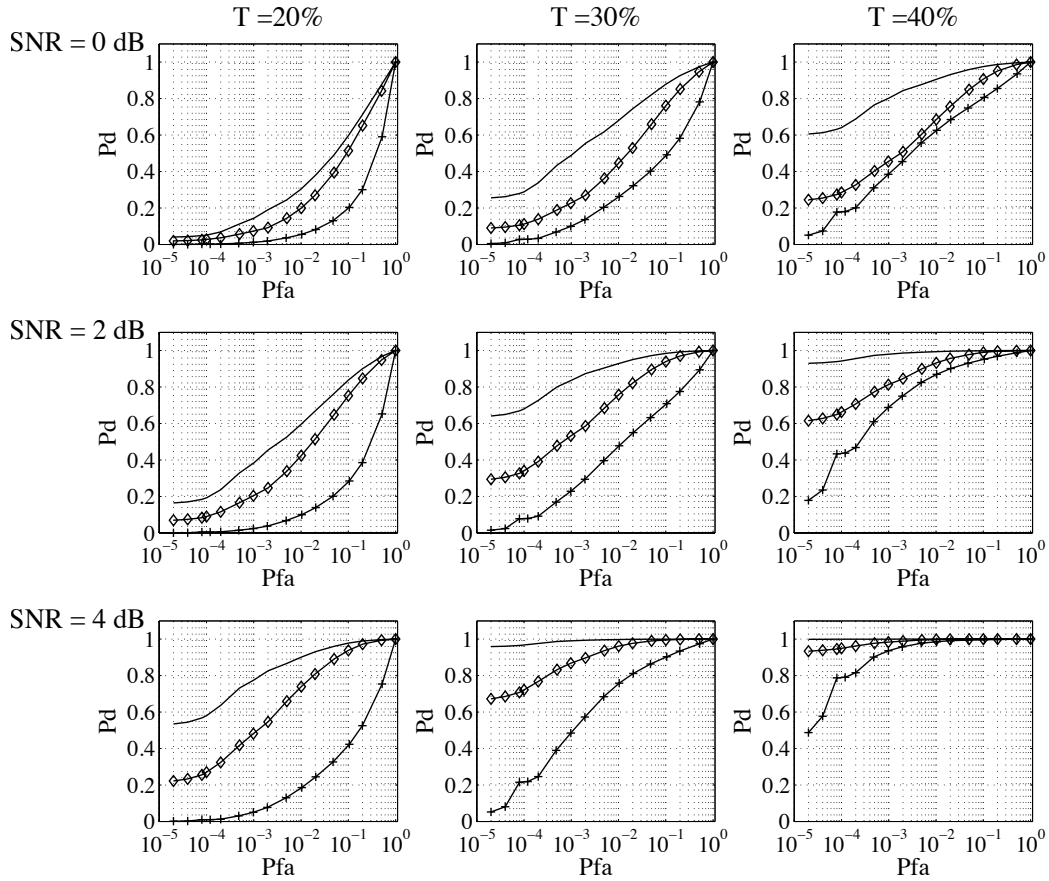


Figure 6: ROC curves of the detector as a function of the SNR (rows of panels) and the length T of the cosine (columns of panels), when the Kullback-Leibler divergence is associated with: the Euclidean norm (\diamond), Pearson's correlation coefficient ($+$), the dot-product (plain line). Combination of the dot-product with the Kullback-Leibler divergence always gives the best performance.

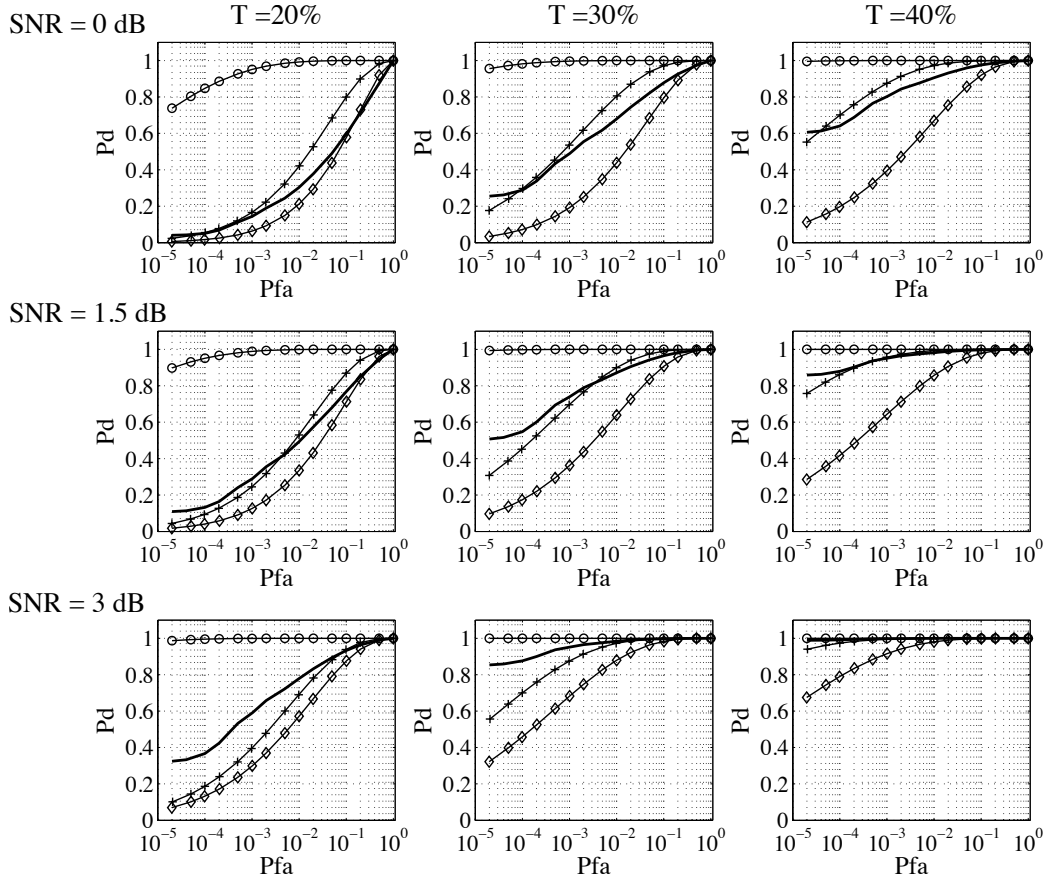


Figure 7: ROC curves of the proposed detector using {dot-product, Kullback-Leibler} (plain line) with the energy detector (\diamond), the sub-optimal filter (+), the optimal matched filter (o). The proposed detector always outperforms the energy detector, and globally it is as good as the sub-optimal filter detector.

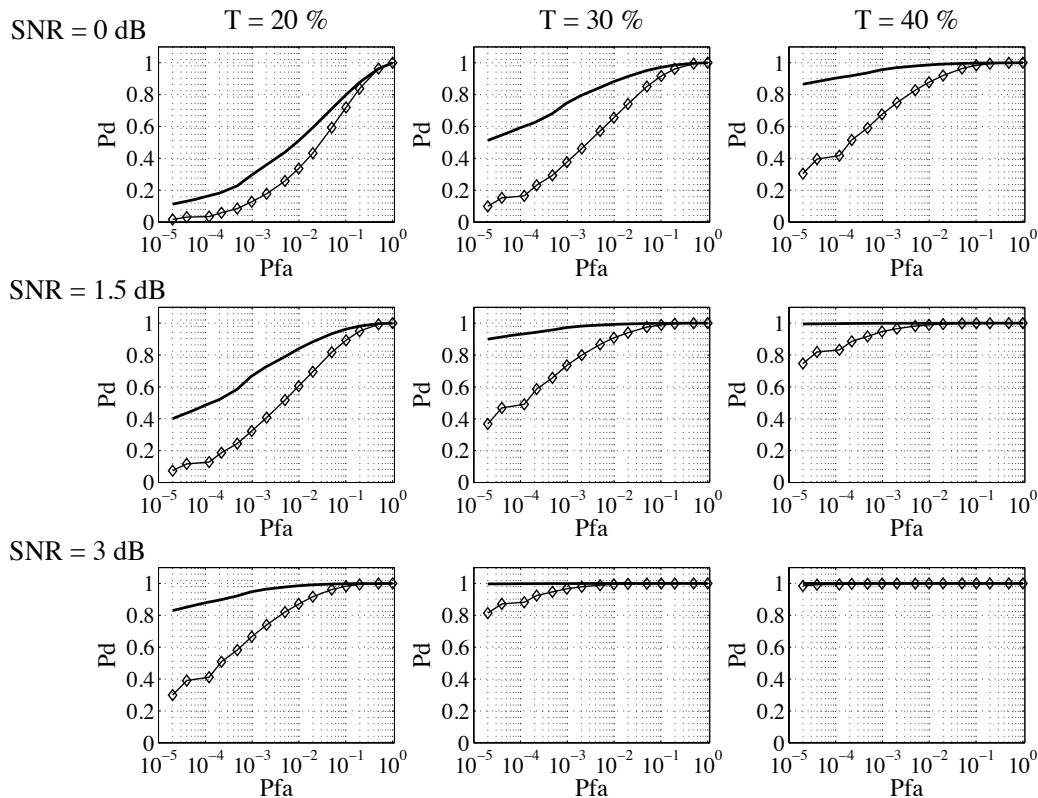


Figure 8: ROC curves of the proposed detector using $\{\tau = 1, m = 16, \text{dot-product, Kullback-Leibler}\}$ (plain line) with the energy detector (\diamond), when the deterministic signal to detect is a chaotic Rössler system. The proposed detector always outperforms the energy detector.

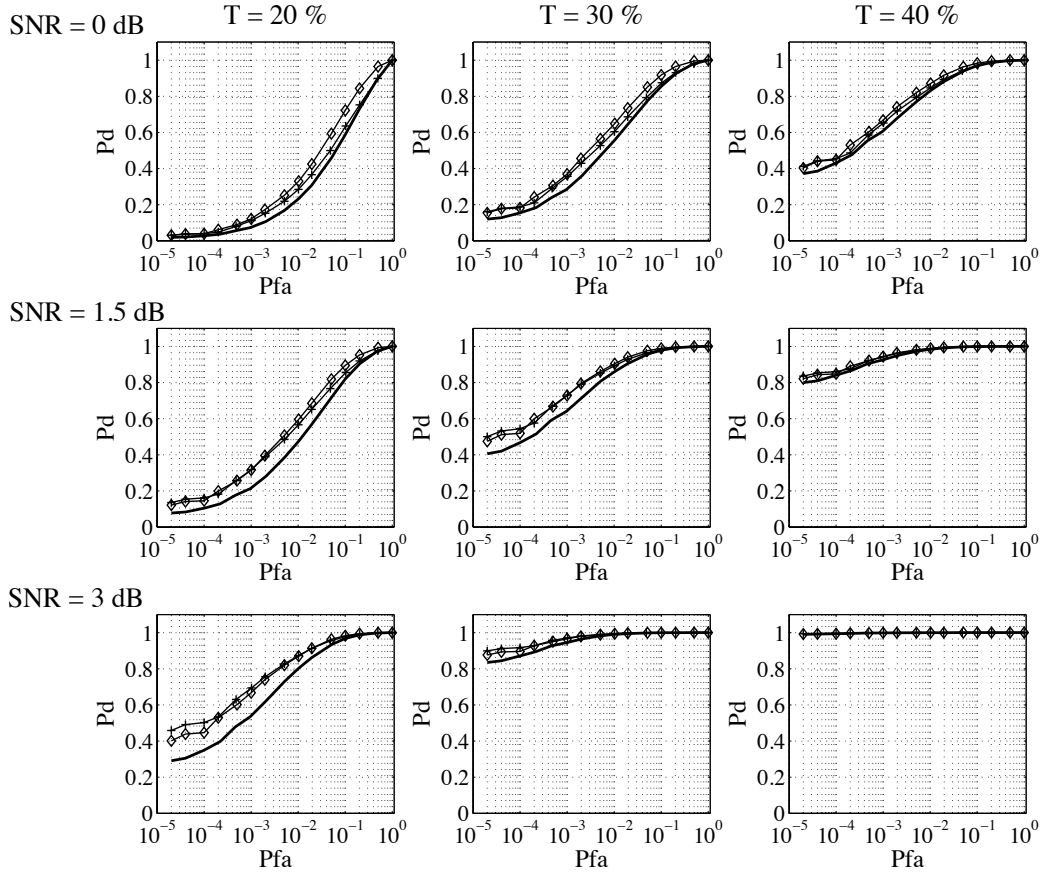


Figure 9: ROC curves of the proposed detector using $\{\tau = 3, m = 3, \text{dot-product, Kullback-Leibler}\}$ (plain line), $\{\tau = 3, m = 3, \text{Euclidean norm, Kullback-Leibler}\}$ (+) and the energy detector (\diamond), when the deterministic signal to detect is a chaotic Rössler system.

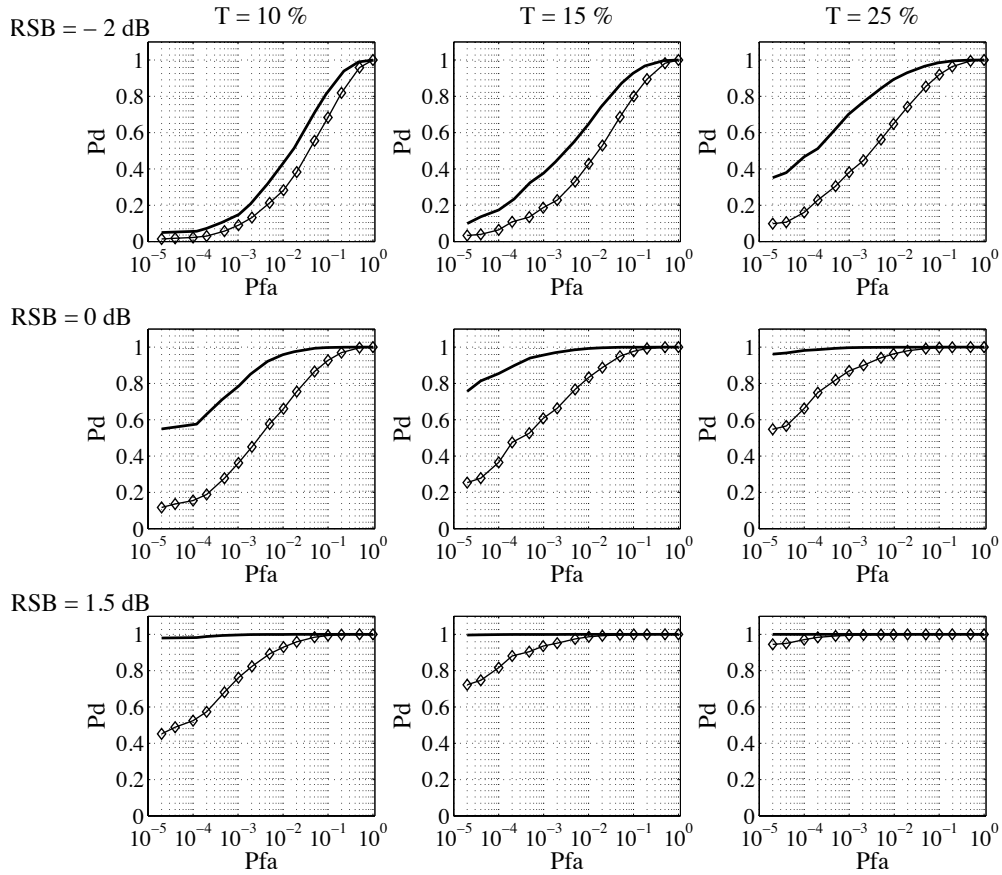


Figure 10: ROC curves of the proposed detector using $\{\tau = 1, m = 16, \text{dot-product, Kullback-Leibler}\}$ (plain line) with the energy detector (\diamond), when the deterministic signal to detect is a sound produced by a fish. The proposed detector always outperforms the energy detector.