Distributionally Robust Quickest Change Detection using Wasserstein Uncertainty Sets

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Abstract

The problem of quickest detection of a change in the distribution of streaming data is considered. It is assumed that the pre-change distribution is known, while the only information about the post-change is through a (small) set of labeled data. This post-change data is used in a data-driven minimax robust framework, where an uncertainty set for the post-change distribution is constructed. The robust change detection problem is studied in an asymptotic setting where the mean time to false alarm goes to infinity. It is shown that the least favorable distribution (LFD) is an exponentially tilted version of the pre-change density and can be obtained efficiently. A Cumulative Sum (CuSum) test based on the LFD, which is referred to as the distributionally robust (DR) CuSum test, is then shown to be asymptotically robust. The results are extended to the case with multiple post-change uncertainty sets and validated using synthetic and real data examples.

1 INTRODUCTION

Given sequential observations, the problem of quickest change detection (QCD) is to detect a potential change in their distribution that occurs at some change-point as quickly as possible, while not making too many false alarms (Siegmund, 1985; Basseville and Nikiforov, 1993; Poor and Hadjiliadis, 2008; Tartakovsky et al., 2015). The QCD problem is of fundamental importance in statistics, and has seen a wide range of applications (Veeravalli and Banerjee, 2013; Xie et al., 2021).

In the classical formulation of the QCD problem (Page, 1954), it is assumed that the observations are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) with known pre- and post-change distributions. In many applications of QCD, while it is reasonable to assume that the pre-change distribution is known (can be estimated accurately), the post-change distribution is rarely completely known. However, we may have access to a limited set of data corresponding to post-change.

There has been a large body of work on the QCD problem when the pre- and/or post-change distributions have parametric uncertainty. The most prevalent approach to dealing with parametric uncertainty is the generalized likelihood ratio (GLR) approach, introduced in Lorden (1971) for the special case where the pre-change distribution is known and the post-change distribution has an unknown parameter. The GLR approach for the QCD problem with general parametric distributions is studied in Lai (1998) and Lai and Xing (2010). An alternative approach to dealing with parametric uncertainty is the mixture-based approach, which was proposed and studied in Pollak (1978).

The QCD problem has also been studied in the non-parametric setting. In Li et al. (2015), a test is proposed that compares the kernel maximum mean discrepancy (MMD) within a window to a given threshold. Another approach has been to estimate the log-likelihood ratio through a pre-collected training set. This includes direct kernel estimation (Kawahara and Sugiyama, 2012), neural network estimation (Moustakides and Basioti, 2019), and density ratio estimation (Adiga and Tandon, 2022; Sugiyama et al., 2008; Kawahara and Sugiyama, 2009). More recently, a non-parametric GLR test based on density estimation has been developed for the case where the post-change distribution is completely unknown without any pre-collected post-change training samples (Liang and Veeravalli, 2023).

Another line of work for dealing with non-parametric distributional uncertainty is the one based on minimax robust detection, in which it is assumed that the pre- and post-change distributions come from disjoint uncertainty classes. This approach is of particular interest when distributional robustness is one of the objectives.

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of the QCD formulation. Under certain conditions on the uncertainty classes, e.g., joint stochastic boundedness (Moulin and Veeravalli, 2018), low-complexity solutions to the minimax robust QCD problem can be found (Unnikrishnan et al., 2011). Under more general conditions, in particular, weak stochastic boundedness, a solution that is asymptotically close to the minimax robust solution can be found (Molloy and Ford, 2017).

In the literature of robust hypothesis testing, a variety of uncertainty sets have been considered in a non-parametric way. One line of work is where the uncertainty set is constructed by selecting a nominal distribution as the center and choosing a deviation measure such that the set includes all distributions whose deviation from the nominal does not exceed a positive constant. Examples include the $\epsilon$-contamination model (Huber, 1965) and the KL-divergence sets (Levy, 2008). In the data-driven setting, the nominal distribution is often chosen as the empirical distribution of training samples. The uncertainty sets that have been used in the literature include the Wasserstein uncertainty sets (Gao et al., 2018), the kernel MMD sets (Sun and Zou, 2021), and the Sinkhorn sets (Wang and Xie, 2022). Some work also constructs the uncertainty set according to pre-specified constraints, such as moment constraints (Magesh et al., 2023).

In this paper, we consider a data-driven minimax robust QCD problem, where the pre-change distribution is assumed to be known, and the only knowledge about the post-change distribution is through a limited set of data corresponding to one or more possible post-change scenarios. For each possible post-change scenario, we define an empirical distribution using training data collected under this scenario. Then we construct the corresponding Wasserstein uncertainty set to contain all distributions such that their Wasserstein distance from the empirical distribution does not exceed some specified value (i.e., radius). Our goal is to find the asymptotically optimal robust detection procedure that minimizes the worst-case detection delay over the uncertainty set, while satisfying the false alarm constraints. We focus on the asymptotic setting where the mean time to false alarm goes to infinity.

Our contributions can be summarized as follows.

1. We characterize the least favorable distribution (LFD) within the Wasserstein uncertainty set in closed-form. We therefore establish that the Cumulative Sum (CuSum) test based on the LFD, which we refer to as the distributionally robust (DR) CuSum test, is asymptotically robust. We also characterize the size of radius through empirical concentration inequalities of Wasserstein distance.

2. We extend the DR-CuSum test to construct an asymptotically robust solution for the case where the post-change uncertainty set is a union of multiple Wasserstein uncertainty sets.

3. We show that DR-CuSum can outperform existing benchmarks using simulated Gaussian data and a real human activity dataset.

2 PROBLEM SETUP

Let \( \{X_k, \ k \in \mathbb{N}\} \) be a sequence of independent random vectors whose values are observed sequentially, with \( \mathcal{X} \) denoting the observation space, i.e., \( X_k \in \mathcal{X} \) for all \( k \in \mathbb{N} \). Let \( \mathcal{F}_k = \sigma(X_1, \ldots, X_k), k \in \mathbb{N}, \) be the filtration, with \( \mathcal{F}_0 \) denoting the trivial sigma algebra. Let \( P \) and \( Q \) be probability measures on \( \mathcal{X} \). At some unknown (yet deterministic) time \( \nu \), the data-generating distribution changes from \( Q \) to \( P \), i.e.,

\[
\begin{align*}
X_k &\overset{iid}{\sim} Q, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, \nu - 1, \\
X_k &\overset{iid}{\sim} P, \quad k = \nu, \nu + 1, \ldots
\end{align*}
\]

We assume the pre-change measure \( Q \) is known, while only partial knowledge of the post-change measure \( P \) is available through a set of labeled (training) data.

Let \( P^\nu \) denote the probability measure on the data sequence when the change-point is \( \nu \), and the pre- and post-change measures are \( Q \) and \( P \), respectively, and let \( E^\nu \) denote the corresponding expectation. Denote \( P^\infty \) and \( E^\infty \) as the probability and expectation operator when there is no change (i.e., \( \nu = \infty \)). For brevity, we write \( P^\nu \) and \( E^\nu \) as the probability and expectation when all samples are generated from \( P \) (i.e., \( \nu = 1 \)).

The goal in QCD is to raise an alarm after the unknown change-point \( \nu \) as quickly as possible, while keeping the false alarm rate below a pre-specified level. The detection is performed through a stopping time \( \tau \) on the observation sequence at which the change is declared.

2.1 QCD Problem and CuSum Test

False Alarm Measure. We measure the false alarm performance of a QCD test (stopping time) \( \tau \) in terms of its mean time to false alarm \( E^\infty[\tau] \), and we denote by \( \mathcal{C}(\gamma) \) the set of all tests for which the mean time to false alarm is at least \( \gamma \), i.e.,

\[
\mathcal{C}(\gamma) = \{ \tau : E^\infty[\tau] \geq \gamma \}.
\]

Delay Measure. We use the commonly used worst-case delay measure (WADD) in Lorden (1971). Specifically,
The stopping time of the CuSum test is proved to solve the problem (4) exactly (Moustakides, 1986). The weak stochastic boundedness (WSB) condition.

\[ \text{WADD}^p(\tau) = \sup_{\nu \geq 1} \sup_{\nu} \mathbb{E}_\nu^p \left[ (\tau - \nu + 1)^+ | \mathcal{F}_{\nu-1} \right]. \]  

The Cumulative Sum (CuSum) test (Page, 1954) is proved to solve the problem (4) exactly (Moustakides, 1986). The stopping time of the CuSum test is

\[ \tau_b = \inf \{ k \in \mathbb{N} : S_k \geq b \}, \]

with the CuSum statistic calculated recursively as:

\[ S_0 = 0, \quad S_k = (S_{k-1})^+ + \log \frac{p(X_k)}{q(X_k)}, \quad k \geq 1, \]

and \( b \) is chosen to meet the false alarm constraint of \( \gamma \). Here \( p, q \) are the respective probability density functions (pdfs) of the measures \( P \) and \( Q \) with respect to some common dominating measure.

### 2.2 Asymptotically Minimax Robust QCD

As mentioned previously, we have limited knowledge about the post-change distribution \( P \). One way to deal with this distributional uncertainty is to assume that \( P \in \mathcal{P} \), where \( \mathcal{P} \) is a family of probability measures representing potential post-change distributions. In the minimax robust QCD formulation, the goal is to solve the following optimization problem,

\[ \inf_{\tau \in C(\gamma)} \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \text{WADD}^P(\tau), \]  

where \( C(\gamma) \) is as defined in (2). As is standard practice in the analysis of QCD procedures, we are primarily interested in the asymptotically optimal solution to (7) as \( \gamma \to \infty \). A solution \( \tau^* \in C(\gamma) \) is called first-order asymptotically minimax robust for (7) if

\[ \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \text{WADD}^P(\tau^*) = \inf_{\tau \in C(\gamma)} \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \text{WADD}^P(\tau) \cdot (1 + o(1)), \]

where, as throughout this paper, \( o(1) \to 0 \) as \( \gamma \to \infty \).

Solving the asymptotically minimax robust solution to robust QCD problems is facilitated by the following weak stochastic boundedness (WSB) condition.

**Definition 2.1** (Weak Stochastic Boundedness (Molloy and Ford, 2017)). Let \( \mathcal{P}_0 \) and \( \mathcal{P}_1 \) be sets of distributions on a common measurable space where \( \mathcal{P}_0 \cap \mathcal{P}_1 = \emptyset \).

The pair \( (\mathcal{P}_0, \mathcal{P}_1) \) is said to be weakly stochastically bounded by the pair of distributions \((P^*_0, P^*_1)\) if

\[ \text{KL}(P^*_1 || P^*_0) \leq \text{KL}(P_1 || P^*_0) - \text{KL}(P_1 || P^*_1), \quad \forall P_1 \in \mathcal{P}_1, \]

and

\[ \frac{dP^*}{dQ} \left( \frac{dP}{dQ} \right) \left( \frac{dQ}{dP} \right) \left( \frac{dQ}{dP} \right)^{-1} = 1, \quad \forall P \in \mathcal{P}_0, \]

where

\[ \text{KL}(P || Q) = \int_X \log \left( \frac{dP}{dQ} \right) dP(x), \]

and \( \frac{dP}{dQ} \) is the Radon-Nikodym derivative of \( P \) with respect to \( Q \) with \( \frac{dP}{dQ} \to \infty \) when the derivative does not exist. The pair of distributions \((P^*_0, P^*_1)\) are called least favorable distributions (LFDs).

Intuitively, the LFDs can be viewed as a representative pair of distributions within uncertainty sets on which the stopping time reaches the worst-case performance. In this paper, we assume that the pre-change distribution is known; this corresponds to the special case that \( \mathcal{P}_0 \) is a singleton. The following lemma follows directly from (Molloy and Ford, 2017, Prop. 1 (iii)).

**Lemma 2.1.** For the singleton set \( Q = \{ q \} \) and a convex set of distributions \( P \) where \( Q \notin \mathcal{P}, (Q, \mathcal{P}) \) is weakly stochastically bounded by the pair of distributions \((Q, P^*)\), where

\[ P^* = \arg \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \text{KL}(P || Q). \]

Let \( p^*, q \) be pdfs of \( P^* \) and \( Q \), respectively, with respect to a common dominating measure. Then applying (Molloy and Ford, 2017, Theorem 3), we conclude that the first-order asymptotically minimax robust solution to (7), as \( \gamma \to \infty \), is given by the CuSum test with pre-change pdf \( q \) and post-change pdf \( p^* \), i.e.,

\[ \tau_{DR} = \inf \{ k \in \mathbb{N} : S_k \geq b \}, \]

with \( S_k \) satisfying the recursion (for \( k \geq 1 \)):

\[ S_k = (S_{k-1})^+ + \log \frac{p^*(X_k)}{q(X_k)}, \quad S_0 = 0, \]

and \( b \) chosen to meet the false alarm constraint of \( \gamma \).

### 3 MINIMAX ROBUST QCD UNDER SINGLE UNCERTAINTY SET

We are interested in a data-driven version of the minimax robust QCD problem, where the only knowledge about the post-change distribution is through a limited set of labeled data. We use this data to construct a
Wasserstein uncertainty set for the post-change distribution. We begin by considering the simplest case where there is only one possible post-change scenario. Our main finding is that under the Wasserstein uncertainty set, the density of the post-change LFD, i.e., the solution to (8), is an exponentially tilted version of the pre-change density.

3.1 The Wasserstein Uncertainty Model

Suppose we have \( n \) training data \( \{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\} \) that are independently sampled from the post-change regime, then we choose the nominal distribution of the uncertainty set to be the empirical distribution of those historical samples, i.e., \( \tilde{P}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{\omega_i} \), where \( \delta_{\omega} \) corresponds to the Dirac measure at \( \omega \).

We construct the uncertainty set \( \mathcal{P}_n \) as the set of all probability measures that are close to \( \tilde{P}_n \) with respect to the Wasserstein distance \( W_s(\cdot, \cdot) \),

\[
\mathcal{P}_n = \{P \in \mathcal{P}_s : W_s(P, \tilde{P}_n) \leq r_s\},
\]

(11)

where \( \mathcal{P}_s \) is the set of all Borel probability measures \( P \) on the sample space \( \mathcal{X} \) such that \( \int_{\mathcal{X}} c^s(x, x_0)dP(x) < \infty \) holds for all \( x_0 \in \mathcal{X} \), where \( c(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}_+ \) is a metric and \( r_s \geq 0 \) is the radius parameter controlling the size of the uncertainty set. Here, for any two probability measures \( P, \tilde{P} \in \mathcal{P}_s \), their Wasserstein distance (order \( s \)) with metric \( c(\cdot, \cdot) \) equals to

\[
W_s(P, \tilde{P}) := \left\{ \min_{\Gamma \in \Pi(P, \tilde{P})} \int_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}} c^s(\omega, \tilde{\omega})d\Gamma(\omega, \tilde{\omega}) \right\}^{1/s},
\]

(12)

where \( \Pi(P, \tilde{P}) \) is the set of all joint probability measures on \( \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \) with marginal distributions \( P \) and \( \tilde{P} \), respectively (Villani, 2003). In this work, we restrict \( s \geq 1 \) and mainly use \( s = 2 \) in numerical experiments.

It is worthwhile mentioning that we chose Wasserstein distance due to its unique advantages. It can handle divergences between discrete and continuous distributions, which is essential for our use of empirical (discrete) distributions as the center. It also incorporates data geometry via the transportation cost, aligning well with our data-driven method. In the subsection following, we omit the dependency on the sample size \( n \) and write the empirical distribution and uncertainty set as \( \tilde{P} \) and \( \mathcal{P} \), respectively.

3.2 Least Favorable Distribution

To obtain the LFD, the goal is to solve the following optimization problem (as in Equation (8)),

\[
\min_P \text{KL}(P \| Q), \quad \text{such that } W_s(P, \tilde{P}) \leq r_s,
\]

(13)

We note that (13) resembles the Optimistic Kullback Leibler defined in Dewaskar et al. (2023), albeit in a completely different context. Below, we show that the optimal solution to (13) can be found as an exponential tilting of the pre-change distribution \( Q \). In the following, we assume that \( Q \) has pdf \( q \) with respect to the Lebesgue measure \( \mu \).

Theorem 3.1. The pdf of the least favorable distribution to the problem (13), with respect to the dominating Lebesgue measure \( \mu \), satisfies \( p^*(x) \propto q(x)e^{-C_{\lambda^*, u^*}(x)} \), where \( q(x) \) is the pre-change pdf with respect to \( \mu \), and \( \lambda^* \geq 0, u^* \in \mathbb{R}^n \) are the optimizers of the following convex problem,

\[
\max_{\lambda \geq 0, u \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ -\lambda r_s + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i - \log \eta(\lambda, u) \right\},
\]

(14)

with

\[
C_{\lambda, u}(x) := \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{\lambda c^s(x, \omega_i) - u_i\},
\]

(15)

and

\[
\eta(\lambda, u) := \int q(x)e^{-C_{\lambda, u}(x)}d\mu(x).
\]

After we obtain the pdf \( p^* \) of the least favorable distribution, we can construct the log-likelihood ratio at each sample \( X_k \) as:

\[
\log \frac{p^*(X_k)}{q(X_k)} = -C_{\lambda^*, u^*}(X_k) - \log \eta(\lambda^*, u^*),
\]

(16)

which, after substitution into (10), gives the Distributionally Robust CuSum (DR-CuSum) statistics under Wasserstein uncertainty sets. And the corresponding stopping time in (9), the DR-CuSum test, denoted by \( \tau_{\text{DR}} \), is the first-order asymptotically minimax robust solution to problem (7).

By exploiting the convexity property, the optimal dual variables \( \lambda^* \) and \( u^* \) (thus the term \( \eta(\lambda^*, u^*) \)) can be pre-computed from (14). Therefore, the DR-CuSum statistics can be easily updated online, resulting in an efficient test for detecting the change. More specifically, the computational complexity of the proposed method is nearly the same as CuSum in the detection phase; however, the proposed method also needs an offline training phase in which we solve for the LFD efficiently via convex optimization.

Remark 3.1 (Unknown Pre-change Distribution). In some applications, the pre-change distribution may also need to be estimated from historical data \( \xi_1, \ldots, \xi_N \) in the pre-change regime, with \( N \) generally being much larger than \( n \). The optimization problem (14) is easily adaptable to such case, because the integral \( \eta(\lambda, u) = \int q(x)e^{-C_{\lambda, u}(x)}d\mu(x) \) can be approximated directly by sample average \( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N e^{-C_{\lambda, u}(\xi_i)} \), without
have to estimate the pre-change density. After obtaining \( \eta(\lambda, n) \), we can then update the DR-CuSum statistics by accumulating the log-likelihood ratio in (16), without knowing the exact pre-change density.

## 4 RADIUS AND DETECTION DELAY

In this section, we discuss the choice of the radius parameter \( r_s \) in constructing the uncertainty set \( \mathcal{P}_n \) in (11), which is an essential parameter to balance the robustness and effectiveness of the DR-CuSum test. We adopt the commonly used principle from distributionally robust optimization (DRO) of choosing the radius such that the true data distribution is included within the uncertainty set with high probability (Kuhn et al., 2019; Mohajerin Esfahani and Kuhn, 2018).

We consider the ideal case where the empirical samples \( \{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\} \) are sampled from the true post-change distribution \( P \). The idea is to guarantee that the Wasserstein set contains the true post-change distribution but not the pre-change distribution. We first list a known empirical concentration result for Wasserstein distance, under the theoretical interest, and we can use Equation (17) to determine a proper radius.

**Definition 4.1** (\( T_s(c) \) inequality (Raginsky and Sason, 2013)). We say that a probability measure \( P \) satisfies an \( L^s \) transportation-cost inequality with constant \( c > 0 \) (which is referred to as the \( T_s(c) \) inequality), if for every probability measure \( Q \ll P \) we have

\[
W_s(P, Q) \leq \sqrt{2cKL(Q||P)},
\]

**Theorem 4.1** (Empirical Concentration (Bolley et al., 2007)). Let \( s \in [1, 2] \) and let \( P \) be a probability measure on \( \mathbb{R}^d \) satisfying a \( T_s(c) \) inequality, then for any \( d' > d \) and \( c' > c \), there exists some constants \( N_0 \), depending only on \( c', d' \) and some square-exponential moment of \( P \), such that for any \( \epsilon > 0 \) and \( n \geq N_0 \max(e^{-\delta(d+2)/2}, 1) \),

\[
\mathbb{P}_P \{ W_s(P, \hat{P}_n) > \epsilon \} \leq e^{-\gamma_n \epsilon^2 / 2c'},
\]

where \( \gamma_n = 1 \) if \( s \in [1, 2] \) and \( \gamma_n = 3 - 2\sqrt{2} \) if \( s = 2 \). Here recall \( \mathbb{P}_P \) is the probability measure on the samples that are distributed i.i.d. as \( P \).

We first give an upper bound requirement for the radius which guarantees that the pre-change distribution is excluded from the post-change uncertainty set \( (Q \notin \mathcal{P}_n) \) with high probability, thus making the detection problem valid. Since the pre-change distribution \( Q \) is known, given any empirical measure \( \hat{P}_n \), we can calculate \( W_s(Q, \hat{P}_n) \) and select the radius \( r_s \) such that

\[
r_s < W_s(Q, \hat{P}_n). \tag{17}
\]

However, it is worthwhile emphasizing that for theoretical considerations below, the set \( \mathcal{P}_n \) is essentially random due to the randomness of empirical samples. The corollary below calculates an upper bound for the radius considering such randomness.

**Corollary 4.1** (Upper Bound for Radius). Fix \( \delta \in (0, 1) \) and \( s \in [1, 2] \). Suppose that the pre- and post-change distributions \( Q, P \) are probability measures on \( \mathbb{R}^d \), and that \( P \) satisfies the \( T_s(c) \) inequality. Suppose that \( n \geq N_0 \max(r_s^{-2d/(d+2)}, 1) \) where \( N_0 \) is the same as in Theorem 4.1. Then, if we set the radius as

\[
r_s \leq \tau_{\delta,n} := \sqrt{\frac{2|\log \delta| c}{\gamma_s n}},
\]

it is guaranteed that with probability at least \( 1 - \delta \) we have \( Q \notin \mathcal{P}_n \).

When we lack knowledge of \( W_s(P, Q) \), as might be the case in practice, the upper bound \( \tau_{\delta,n} \) is only of theoretical interest, and we can use Equation (17) to determine a proper radius.

Next, we present a lower bound for \( r_s \) to guarantee \( P \in \mathcal{P}_n \) with high probability. We also characterize the delay performance when such a condition is satisfied.

**Corollary 4.2** (Lower Bound for Radius). Under the same conditions as in Corollary 4.1, if we set the radius

\[
r_s \geq \Lambda_{\delta,n} := \sqrt{\frac{2|\log \delta| c}{\gamma_s n}},
\]

it is guaranteed that with probability at least \( 1 - \delta \), we have \( P \in \mathcal{P}_n \).

To guarantee the existence of \( r_s \) that satisfies the upper bound in Corollary 4.1 and lower bound in Corollary 4.2 at the same time, we give the following necessary requirement on the minimum number of training samples.

**Lemma 4.1.** Suppose the same conditions as in Corollary 4.1 hold. Additionally, suppose

\[
n \geq n_\delta := \frac{8|\log \delta| c}{\gamma_s (W_s(P, Q))^2} \tag{18},
\]

where \( n_\delta \) is the least number of samples to guarantee that \( \tau_{\delta,n} \geq \Lambda_{\delta,n} \). Now, if \( r_s \) satisfies

\[
\tau_{\delta,n} \leq r_s \leq \Lambda_{\delta,n},
\]

then

\[
\mathbb{P}_P \{ (P \in \mathcal{P}_n) \cap (Q \notin \mathcal{P}_n) \} \geq 1 - 2\delta.
\]

In the following, we write the LFD as \( p_n^* \) and its pdf as \( p_n^* \). Lemma 4.2 establishes an asymptotic upper bound on the worst-case detection delay of DR-CuSum test.
Lemma 4.2. Suppose $E^P[(\log(p^*_m(X_1)/q(X_1)))^2] < \infty$. Fix $\delta \in (0,1)$ and $s \in [1,2]$. Suppose that the pre- and post-change distributions $Q$, $P$ are probability measures on $R^d$, and they both satisfy the $T_2(c)$ inequality. Suppose that $n \geq (N_0(r^{-d+2}_s) \cdot 1) \cup \mathcal{D}_s$ where $N_0$ is the same as in Theorem 4.1 and $\mathcal{D}_s$ is defined in (18). Then, if the chosen radius $r_s$ satisfies

$$\mathcal{D}_{s,n} \leq r_s \leq \mathcal{D}_{\delta,n},$$

it is guaranteed that with probability at least $1 - 2\delta$, the worst-case detection delay of the DR-CuSum test $\tau_{DR}$ with threshold $b = \log \gamma$ can be upper bounded as

$$\sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_n} WADD^P(\tau_{DR}) \leq \frac{\log \gamma |KL(P^*_m||Q)|}{(1 + o(1))} \leq \frac{2\varepsilon \log \gamma}{(W_s(P, Q) - 2r_s)^2} \cdot (1 + o(1)), \tag{19}$$

as $\gamma \to \infty$.

We note that the dimensionality $d$ affects the algorithm and results in two ways: (i) The ideal training sample size $n$ depends on $d$, since the empirical concentration of the Wasserstein distance depends on $d$ as shown in Theorem 4.1; (ii) The selection of the radius and the detection delay are implicitly affected by $d$ through the Wasserstein distance and KL divergence.

Example 4.1. For the special case, where the pre- and post-change distributions are Gaussian, with $Q = N(\mu_0, 1)$ and $P = N(\mu_1, 1)$, we have $KL(P||Q) = \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 - \mu_0)^2 = \frac{1}{2}W^2_2(Q, P)$, and the $T_2(1)$ inequality holds equality. This means that the delay of the DR-CuSum procedure is, with probability at least $1 - 2\delta$, bounded from above as

$$\frac{\log \gamma |KL(P^*_m||Q)|}{(1 + o(1))} \leq \frac{\log \gamma |W_s(P, Q) - 2r_s|^2}{(1 + o(1))},$$

From Corollary 4.2, we may choose the radius as its lower bound with $r_s = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\delta}} \log \left(\frac{\gamma(2n)}{\varepsilon}\right) = O(n^{-1/2})$, which means that for $n$ sufficiently large, we have that the delay of DR-CuSum test will match the optimal delay, $[(\log \gamma)/|KL(P||Q)|] \cdot (1 + o(1))$, asymptotically.

5 MINIMAX ROBUST QCD UNDER MULTIPLE UNCERTAINTY SETS

We extend the results of Section 3 to the more general case with multiple post-change scenarios as follows. Suppose there are $M \geq 1$ potential post-change scenarios, and we have a set of training samples $\{\omega_1^{(m)}, \ldots, \omega_{n_m}^{(m)}\}$ that are independently sampled from the $m$-th scenario, with $\hat{P}_m^{(m)}$ being their empirical distribution. The uncertainty set $\mathcal{P}_{n_m}^{(m)}$ for the $m$-th post-change scenario, similar to (11), is now defined as

$$\mathcal{P}_{n_m}^{(m)} := \{P \in \mathcal{P} : W_s(P, \hat{P}_m^{(m)}) \leq r_{s,m}\}, \tag{20}$$

where $r_{s,m} \geq 0$ is the radius parameter controlling the size of the $m$-th uncertainty set. With a slight abuse of notation, we define $\mathcal{P} := \bigcup_{m=1}^{M} \mathcal{P}_{n_m}^{(m)}$ as the union of all the uncertainty sets in the remainder of this section.

5.1 Asymptotically Optimal Stopping Time

Based on Theorem 3.1, we can find $M$ LFDs, denoted as $P^{(1)}_1, \ldots, P^{(M)}_1$, one for each Wasserstein uncertainty set. The LFD $P^{(m)}_m$ for the $m$-th uncertainty set is an exponential tilting of $Q$ and has pdf $p^{(m)}_m(x) = q(x)exp(-C^{(m)}_{\lambda_m, u_m}(x) - \eta^{(m)}(\lambda_m^*, u_m^*))$, where $\lambda_m^*, u_m^*$ are the solution to

$$\sup_{\lambda \geq 0, u \in R} \left\{ -\lambda r_{s,m} + \frac{1}{n_m} \sum_{j=1}^{n_m} u_j - \log \eta^{(m)}(\lambda, u) \right\},$$

where $C^{(m)}_{\lambda, u}(x) := \min_{1 \leq j \leq n_m} \{\lambda \cdot c_j(x, \omega_j) - u_j\}$ and $\eta^{(m)}(\lambda, u) := \int q(x)exp(-C^{(m)}_{\lambda, u}(x))d\mu(x)$. The log-likelihood ratio under scenario $m$ equals

$$\log \frac{p^{(m)}_m(x)}{q(x)} = -C^{(m)}_{\lambda_m^*, u_m^*}(x) - \log \eta^{(m)}(\lambda_m^*, u_m^*).$$

Given online samples $\{X_k, k \in N\}$, the detection statistic for the $m$-th uncertainty set can be computed recursively as

$$S^{(m)}_k = (S^{(m)}_{k-1} + \log \frac{p^{(m)}_m(X_k)}{q(X_k)}) \cdot \forall m = 1, \ldots, M. \tag{21}$$

The DR-CuSum stopping time under multiple post-change scenarios is then defined as

$$\tau_{DR}(b) := \inf \left\{ k \in N : \max_{m=1,\ldots,M} S^{(m)}_k \geq b \right\}, \tag{22}$$

where $b$ is chosen to meet the false alarm constraint. In the following Lemma 5.1 and Theorem 5.1, we investigate the asymptotic optimality properties of this DR-CuSum test. The proofs of these results are provided in the Appendix.

Lemma 5.1. The mean time to false alarm of the test in (22) satisfies $E_{\infty}[\tau_{DR}(b)] \geq e^b / M.$

Theorem 5.1 (Asymptotic Minimax Robustness). Write

$$I^* := \min_{m=1,\ldots,M} KL(P^*_m||Q).$$
Then, the test in (22) with threshold \(b_\gamma = \log(M\gamma)\) solves the problem in (7) asymptotically as \(\gamma \to \infty\), with the asymptotic worst-case delay being

\[
\sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \text{WADD}^P(\tau_{\text{DR}}(b_\gamma)) = \inf_{\tau' \in \mathcal{C}(\gamma)} \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \text{WADD}^P(\tau') \cdot (1 + o(1)) = \frac{\log \gamma}{I^*} \cdot (1 + o(1)).
\]

6 NUMERICAL RESULTS

6.1 Synthetic Data Examples

We validate the performance of the DR-CuSum test (22) through a Gaussian simulation. We use the cost function \(c(x, x') = \|x - x'\|_2\) and order \(s = 2\) in the Wasserstein distance. The true pre- and post-change distributions are \(N(0, 1)\) and \(N(0.5, 1)\), respectively.

Comparison with CuSum Type Tests and Effect of Radius: We simulate the case of a single post-change scenario \((M = 1)\). We first compare the performances for the following three CuSum type tests all have a recursive structure that facilitates implementation (i.e., they have similar computational complexities during the detection phase):

1. The exact CuSum test with known pre- and post-change distributions. This is the optimal procedure and provides us with a lower bound for the WADD.
2. The CuSum test that has knowledge of the Gaussian model, and uses the training data to produce a MLE of the post-change mean and variance.
3. The proposed DR-CuSum test defined in (22), with different choices of radius.

In Fig. 1, we study the effect of radius under two sizes of post-change training samples a priori: small sample size \((n = 25)\) and large sample size \((n = 150)\). When the number of training samples is small, the DR-CuSum test outperforms the Gaussian MLE CuSum test with various choices of radii. We emphasize that, unlike the latter test, the DR-CuSum test does not assume any knowledge of the parametric model for the post-change distribution. This highlights the effectiveness of DR-CuSum test in dealing with distributional uncertainty, especially in data-driven settings.

In Fig. 2, we numerically study the effect of radius when the empirical samples are drawn from a mismatched Gaussian distribution: \(N(0.75, 1)\), while the true post-change distribution for test sequences is still \(N(0.5, 1)\). We see in Fig. 2 that the model mismatch causes a non-trivial effect on the optimal radius selection, where the DR-CuSum test with a larger radius is more robust under distributional mismatch. Also, with a proper choice of radius, we see that the DR-CuSum test outperforms the Gaussian MLE test, which, we again emphasize, knows the parametric model for the post-change distribution. This highlights the effectiveness of DR-CuSum test in dealing with training data mismatch, which is common in data-driven applications.

Comparison with NGLR-CuSum test: We also compare the performance of the DR-CuSum test with the NGLR-CuSum test (Liang and Veeravalli, 2023), which also assumed no knowledge about the post-change distribution. We compare their performance with \(d\) dimensional observations. The pre-change distribution is \(N(0, I_d)\), where \(I_d\) is the identity matrix.
The post-change distribution is $\mathcal{N}(a, I_d)$. Here $a \in \mathbb{R}^d$ denotes a vector with all elements being $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

In Fig. 3, we see that with 3-d observations, the DR-CuSum test (with the optimal radius) performs better than the modified NGLR-CuSum test. This is because kernel density estimation becomes less accurate in higher dimensions. Also, it is observed that the DR-CuSum test is computationally much less expensive than the modified NGLR-CuSum test. The kernel density estimation is very computationally demanding in higher dimensions. In comparison, while the DR-CuSum test also suffers from a more expensive offline computation, its online computational requirements only go up modestly due to the increase in dimension. Indeed, the DR-CuSum requires only $O(nd)$ operations to compute $C_{\lambda^*, \omega^*}(X_k)$ for each new sample $X_k$. More implementation details of the NGLR-CuSum test and a one-dimensional numerical result can be found in Appendix B.

### 6.2 Real Data Example

We apply the DR-CuSum test to a real data example of human activity detection using the WISDM’s Actitracker activity prediction dataset (Lockhart et al., 2011). The attribute at each time is a three-dimensional vector containing the acceleration in $x$-, $y$-, and $z$-axes. We select “Walking” as the nominal pre-change state and our goal is to detect a change to the “Jogging” state (post-change) as quickly as possible.

We mainly compare the proposed DR-CuSum with the NGLR-CuSum test, which is also non-parametric and does not impose any post-change assumptions. For the NGLR-CuSum, we first fit a Gaussian distribution as the pre-change using available historical samples. For the DR-CuSum test, following Remark 3.1, we directly solve for the LFD $P^*$ using the pre-change samples without estimating the pre-change density. In such a real data scenario, we have a fixed set of post-change training samples. Therefore, we can use (17) to select a proper radius that guarantees that the pre-change distribution is excluded from the uncertainty set. We first visualize the trajectory of the DR-CuSum detection statistics for a particular user. Then we provide the comparison of average detection delay (over multiple users) at the end of this subsection.

In the first scenario, we consider $M = 1$ with “Jogging” being the true post-change activity. We select $n = 5$ samples from the Jogging state of a specific user to construct the empirical distribution $\hat{P}$. This represents the case where number of training samples available is very small. The DR-CuSum test, along with the baseline NGLR-CuSum test, is applied on another user’s data to monitor his/her activity change from Walking to Jogging. Fig. 4 (Left) shows an example where there is a clearer dichotomy for the DR-CuSum statistic before and after the change, and the DR-CuSum statistics is more stable under the pre-change regime.

In the second scenario, we consider $M = 5$ with the post-change activity being one of the Jogging, Stairs, Sitting, Standing, and LyingDown state. We construct the $M$ uncertainty sets using $n = 5$ empirical samples from each state and solve for LFDs $P^*, \ldots, P^*_M$. The resulting DR-CuSum detection statistics in Fig. 4 (Right) show that the maximum statistic in (22) is helpful not only for change detection, but also for change isolation.

We also compare the average detection delay of DR-CuSum test with that of the NGLR-CuSum. We focus on the detection of activity change from Walking to Jogging and select 86 user sequences that contain such activity change. For each of these 86 sequences, we use $n$ empirical data randomly selected from the post-change state to construct the uncertainty set for the

---

**Figure 3:** Comparison of DR-CuSum tests (solid lines) with the modified NGLR-CuSum tests (dashed lines) with $d = 3$ and $a = 0.3$. The number of post-change training samples $n = 25$. The leave-one-out KDE with a Gaussian product kernel (defined in (33)) is used in the NGLR-CuSum test, with the bandwidth parameter $h_m = 30^{-1/7}$, $\forall m = 1, \ldots, 3$. The average performance over 30 different sets of training samples is reported.

**Figure 4:** Detection statistics of DR-CuSum and NGLR-CuSum tests. Number of empirical samples from each scenario $n = 5$. Wasserstein order $s = 1$. Radius $r = 8$. Number of scenarios $M = 5$ (right plot only). The vertical line represents the true change-point.
Table 1: Average detection delay of DR-CuSum and NGLR-CuSum test on 86 user sequences. The bandwidth for NGLR-CuSum is selected as $h_i = W^{-1/(d+4)}\hat{\sigma}_i$, where $W = 100$ is the window size, $d = 3$ is the data dimension, and $\hat{\sigma}_i$ is the estimated standard deviation from pre-change data. The threshold is chosen as the upper 1% quantile of the detection statistics for the pre-change samples. The experiments are repeated ten times and the average detection delay is reported, with standard deviations in parentheses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DR-CuSum</th>
<th>NGLR-CuSum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$n = 10$, $r = 2$</td>
<td>25.61 (4.08)</td>
<td>81.26 (0.51)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 20$, $r = 1.5$</td>
<td>16.88 (2.74)</td>
<td>74.77 (13.62)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

We developed an asymptotically minimax robust procedure for QCD, which we refer to as the distributionally robust (DR) CuSum test, in the setting where the post-change distribution belongs to a union of data-driven Wasserstein uncertainty sets. We showed that the DR-CuSum test, which makes no distributional assumptions about the post-change, outperforms the Gaussian MLE CuSum test and NGLR-CuSum test. Our theoretical findings can be extended to the non-stationary setting where the post-change observations are independent but not necessarily identically distributed; we leave this extension for future research.

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References


Checklist

1. For all models and algorithms presented, check if you include:
(a) A clear description of the mathematical setting, assumptions, algorithm, and/or model. [Yes]
(b) An analysis of the properties and complexity (time, space, sample size) of any algorithm. [Yes]
(c) (Optional) Anonymized source code, with specification of all dependencies, including external libraries. [No]

2. For any theoretical claim, check if you include:
   (a) Statements of the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results. [Yes]
   (b) Complete proofs of all theoretical results. [Yes]
   (c) Clear explanations of any assumptions. [Yes]

3. For all figures and tables that present empirical results, check if you include:
   (a) The code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL). [Yes]
   (b) All the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen). [Yes]
   (c) A clear definition of the specific measure or statistics and error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experiments multiple times). [Yes]
   (d) A description of the computing infrastructure used. (e.g., type of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider). [Not Applicable]

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5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects, check if you include:
   (a) The full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots. [Not Applicable]
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A TECHNICAL PROOFS

A.1 Proofs for Section 3

We first present the following lemma which is used in the proof of Theorem 3.1.

Lemma A.1. Given constants $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}$, consider the following optimization problem:

$$
\min_{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \geq 0} f(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) := \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \right) \log \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i a_i,
$$

where by convention, we let $0 \log 0 = 0$. Then, the minimizer $(a_1^*, a_2^*, \ldots, a_n^*)$ satisfies

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^* = e^{-\min_{i=1, \ldots, n} c_i - 1},
$$

and the optimal objective value is $f(a_1^*, a_2^*, \ldots, a_n^*) = -e^{-\min_{i=1, \ldots, n} c_i - 1}$.

Proof. We first note that it suffices to consider the case where all the $c_i$’s are distinct, i.e., $c_i \neq c_j$, $\forall i \neq j$. This is due to the fact that if any pair of $c_i$ and $c_j$ are equal, we can re-define our set of constants to be the unique values in $\{c_1, \ldots, c_n\}$, let’s denote these as $\{c'_1, \ldots, c'_k\}$ ($k < n$). We then define new variables $\tilde{a}_i = \sum_{j: c_j = c'_i} a_j$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$. The problem (23) thus becomes equivalent to:

$$
\min_{\tilde{a}_1, \ldots, \tilde{a}_k \geq 0} f(\tilde{a}_1, \ldots, \tilde{a}_k) := \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k} \tilde{a}_i \right) \log \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k} \tilde{a}_i \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} c'_i \tilde{a}_i,
$$

with distinct $c'_i$ values, and this new problem has the same optimal value as the original problem in (23). Therefore, we can safely assume that $c_1, \ldots, c_n$ are different from each other for the remaining proof, i.e., $c_i \neq c_j$, $\forall i \neq j$.

We introduce Lagrangian multipliers $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$ for the constraints. The corresponding Lagrangian function is then given by

$$
L(a_1, \ldots, a_n, \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \right) \log \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i a_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i a_i.
$$

By applying the Karush–Kuhn–Tucker condition, the optimal solution $(a_1^*, a_2^*, \ldots, a_n^*)$ must satisfy the gradient condition

$$
\frac{\partial L}{\partial a_i} = 1 + \log \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^* \right) + c_i - \lambda_i = 0, \ \forall i = 1, 2, \ldots, n,
$$

and the complementary slackness conditions

$$
\lambda_i a_i^* = 0, \ \forall i = 1, 2, \ldots, n.
$$

From (24), we deduce that

$$
\lambda_i = 1 + \log \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^* \right) + c_i, \ \forall i = 1, 2, \ldots, n,
$$

which implies that $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ are distinct. Now, we consider two scenarios:

(i) If $\lambda_i \neq 0$, $\forall i$, then from (25) we get $a_1^* = a_2^* = \cdots = a_n^* = 0$ and the objective value is zero.

(ii) If there exists $i_0$ such that $\lambda_{i_0} = 0$, then from $\lambda_i \geq 0$, $\forall i$, we have that

$$
i_0 = \arg \min \lambda_i = \arg \min c_i.
$$

Additionally, by (25), we have $a_j^* = 0$ for $j \neq i_0$ since $\lambda_j \neq \lambda_{i_0} = 0$, and the corresponding $a_{i_0}^* = e^{-c_{i_0}} - 1$ from (24), yielding an objective value of $-e^{-c_{i_0}} - 1 < 0$.

Therefore, when $c_1, \ldots, c_n$ are distinct and $i_0 = \arg \min c_i$, the minimizer is given by $a_{i_0}^* = e^{-c_{i_0}} - 1$ and $a_j^* = 0$, $\forall j \neq i_0$, and the optimal value is $-e^{-c_{i_0}} - 1$. In summary, the optimal solution $(a_1^*, a_2^*, \ldots, a_n^*)$ to (23) satisfies

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^* = e^{-\min_{i=1, \ldots, n} c_i - 1},
$$

and the corresponding optimal objective value is $-e^{-\min_{i=1, \ldots, n} c_i - 1}$. \(\square\)
Proof of Theorem 3.1

Proof. We first consider \( s = 1 \), with the radius being denoted by \( r_1 \). Denote by \( \Pi(P, \hat{P}) \) the space of all joint distributions on \( \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \). Note that the empirical distribution \( \hat{P} \) is \textit{discrete} with finite support \( \{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\} \). Without loss of generality, we assume that \( P^* \), the optimal solution to (13), is \textit{absolutely continuous} with respect to the pre-change measure \( Q \) because otherwise \( \text{KL}(P^*||Q) = \infty \). Since \( Q \) is dominated by \( \mu \), \( P^* \) is also dominated by \( \mu \).

Therefore, we consider all joint distributions \( \Pi(P, \hat{P}) \) with a continuous marginal \( P \) (with respect to \( \mu \)) and a discrete marginal \( \hat{P} \). Their joint distribution \( \Pi(P, \hat{P}) \) can be characterized by the mixed joint density, denoted as

\[
\pi(x, \omega_i) = \frac{1}{n} f_i(x), \text{ where } f_i(x) \geq 0, \int_{\mathcal{X}} f_i d\mu(x) = 1, \forall i = 1, 2, \ldots, n. \tag{26}
\]

Here the term \( 1/n \) corresponds to the probability mass function of its second marginal, while \( f_i(x) \) can be viewed as the conditional density function (with respect to the same dominating measure \( \mu \)) of the first variable given that the second variable equals \( \omega_i \). Thus \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \pi(x, \omega_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(x) \) is the probability density function (with respect to \( \mu \)) of its first marginal \( P \), which we denote as \( p \). Also, define \( \mathcal{P}_\mu \) to be the set of all distributions absolutely continuous with respect to measure \( \mu \). Note that \( \mathcal{P}_\mu \) is trivially convex.

To solve the constrained minimization problem in (13), we note that \( \text{KL}(P||Q) \) is a convex functional in \( P \), and \( W_1(P, \hat{P}) - r_1 \) is a convex mapping of \( P \) into \( \mathbb{R} \). Since \( \mathcal{P}_\mu \) is dense with respect to the Wasserstein distance \( \text{Lebesgue measure} \mu \), meaning that there exists a distribution in \( \mathcal{P}_\mu \) that is arbitrarily close to any given measure \( P \). Thus it is easy to find some \( P^*_\mu \prec \mu \) close to the empirical samples such that \( W_1(P^*_\mu, \hat{P}) \leq r_1 \). Also, \( \inf \left\{ \text{KL}(P||Q) : P \in \mathcal{P}_\mu, W_1(P, \hat{P}) \leq r_1 \right\} \geq 0 > -\infty \). Then by Lagrange duality (Luenberger, 1969, Sec 8.6 Thm 1) we have

\[
\inf \left\{ \text{KL}(P||Q) : P \in \mathcal{P}_\mu, W_1(P, \hat{P}) \leq r_1 \right\} = \max_{\lambda \geq 0} \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}_\mu} \left( \text{KL}(P||Q) + \lambda W_1(P, \hat{P}) - \lambda r_1 \right), \tag{27}
\]

and this maximum on the right-hand side is achieved at some \( \lambda^* \geq 0 \).

Using the definition of Wasserstein distance, we have

\[
W_1(P, \hat{P}) = \inf_{\pi \in \Pi(P, \hat{P})} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \pi(x, \omega_i) c(x, \omega_i) d\mu(x),
\]

which, after substituting into (27), results in the following dual optimization problem to (13),

\[
\max_{\lambda \geq 0} \left( -\lambda r_1 + \inf_{\pi} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \pi(x, \omega_i) \right) \log \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \pi(x, \omega_i)}{q(x)} d\mu(x) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \lambda c(x, \omega_i) \pi(x, \omega_i) d\mu(x) \right). \]

Note that the inner problem can be written as

\[
\inf_{\pi} \left( \int_{\mathcal{X}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \pi(x, \omega_i) \right) \log \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \pi(x, \omega_i)}{q(x)} d\mu(x) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \lambda c(x, \omega_i) \pi(x, \omega_i) d\mu(x) \right)
\]

\[s.t \quad \int_{\mathcal{X}} \pi(x, \omega_i) d\mu(x) = \frac{1}{n}, \forall i = 1, 2, \ldots, n, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \pi(x, \omega_i) d\mu(x) = 1.\]

By the definition of mixed joint density \( \pi(x, \omega_i) \) in (26), the above problem is equivalent to the following optimization problem over non-negative functions \( f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_n \),

\[
\inf_{f_1, \ldots, f_n} \left( \frac{1}{n} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(x) \right) \log \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(x) q(x) d\mu(x) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \lambda c(x, \omega_i) f_i(x) d\mu(x) \right)
\]

\[s.t \quad \int_{\mathcal{X}} f_i(x) d\mu(x) = 1, \forall i = 1, 2, \ldots, n, \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{\mathcal{X}} f_i(x) d\mu(x) = 1.\]
We now introduce Lagrangian multipliers \( u_i \in \mathbb{R}, i = 1, \ldots, n \) and \( \hat{\eta} \in \mathbb{R} \) for the constraints. By strong duality (Luenberger, 1969), we have that the value of the above minimization problem becomes

\[
\max \, \inf_{u_1, \ldots, u_n, f_1, \ldots, f_n} \left( \frac{1}{n} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(x) \left( \log \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} f_i(x)}{q(x)} + \lambda c(x, \omega_i) - u_i + \hat{\eta} \right) d\mu(x) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i - \hat{\eta} \right).
\]

We can then solve the inner infimum problem for each value \( x \) to get the optimal \( f_i^*(x), \ldots, f_n^*(x) \), since the function inside the integral only depends on the particular value of \( x \). From Lemma A.1 in the appendix, we have that for each \( x \), the inner minimization problem over \( f_1(x), \ldots, f_n(x) \) has optimal solution satisfying

\[
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i^*(x) = q(x)e^{-\min_i (\lambda c(x, \omega_i) - u_i) - \hat{\eta} - 1} = q(x)e^{-\lambda c(x) - \hat{\eta} - 1},
\]

where the last equality is due to the definition in (15), and the corresponding optimum value for each \( x \) is \(-q(x)e^{-\lambda c(x) - \hat{\eta} - 1}\). Moreover, to satisfy the constraint, the optimal Lagrangian multiplier \( \hat{\eta} \) must satisfy

\[
\hat{\eta} + 1 = \log \left( \int_{\mathcal{X}} q(x)e^{-\lambda c(x)} d\mu(x) \right).
\]

Therefore, \( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i^*(x) \) is a probability density function and the corresponding objective value satisfies

\[
\frac{1}{n} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i^*(x) \left( \log \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} f_i^*(x)}{q(x)} + \lambda c(x, \omega_i) - u_i + \hat{\eta} \right) d\mu(x) - \hat{\eta} = -\int_{\mathcal{X}} q(x)e^{-\lambda c(x)} d\mu(x) - \hat{\eta} = -1 - \hat{\eta}
\]

\[
= -\log \left( \int_{\mathcal{X}} q(x)e^{-\lambda c(x)} d\mu(x) \right) =: -\log \eta(\lambda, u),
\]

where for notational simplicity we have defined \( \eta(\lambda, u) := \int q(x)e^{-\lambda c(x)} d\mu(x) \). The resulting outer maximization problem is as in (14). After solving the dual optimization problem (14) and obtaining the optimal dual variable \( \lambda^*, u^* \), we arrive at the optimal solution to the problem in (13), which is \( p^* = p^{\lambda^*, u^*}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i^*(x) \propto q(x)e^{-\lambda^* x - u^*} \), or more specifically

\[
p^*(x) = q(x)e^{-\lambda^* x - u^*} - \eta(\lambda^*, u^*).
\]

In the case of a general order \( s \geq 1 \), we will have \( e^s(x, \omega_i) \) in the above arguments, and the proof follows similarly. The resulting LFD pdf \( p^*(x) \) is still an exponentially tilting of \( q(x) \). \( \square \)

**Example A.1.** For illustrative purposes, we study the LFD under the setting where \( c(x, x') = \|x - x'\|_2 \) and the Wasserstein order \( s = 2 \). We also assume univariate data and the standard normal pre-change distribution, i.e., \( Q = \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \), and the dominating measure \( \mu \) is the Lebesgue measure on \( \mathbb{R} \). We first derive a closed-form solution of LFD for the extreme case where the number of empirical samples \( n = 1 \). In this case, the function \( C_{\lambda, u}(x) \) defined in Theorem 3.1 equals \( C_{\lambda, u}(x) = \lambda(x - \omega_1)^2 - u, \forall x \). Then,

\[
\eta(\lambda, u) = \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2 - \lambda x^2 + 2\lambda \omega_1 x - \lambda \omega_1^2 + u} dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 2\lambda}} e^{\frac{-\lambda + 2\lambda \omega_1^2 + u}{\sqrt{1 + 2\lambda}}},
\]

and the optimal solution to problem (14) is given by

\[
\lambda^* = \frac{\omega_1^2}{\sqrt{1 + 4r_2^2} - 1} - \frac{1}{2}, \text{ if } r_2 \leq 1 + \omega_1^2,
\]

and \( \lambda^* = 0 \) otherwise. Note that a large radius yields \( \lambda^* = 0 \) and the LFD will thus be identical to the pre-change distribution. In practice, the radius has to be carefully chosen to avoid such scenarios so that the robust detection problem is well-defined.
For general $n > 1$, we provide an efficient LFD-solving algorithm based on the following decomposition

$$
\eta(\lambda, u) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{I_i} q(x) e^{-\lambda c(x, \omega_i) + u_i} dx,
$$

where $I_i := \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : \lambda c(x, \omega_i) - u_i \leq \lambda c(x, \omega_j) - u_j, \forall j \neq i \}$. Under previous conditions that $s = 2$ and $c(x, x') = \|x - x'\|_2$, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$, we have that

$$
\lambda(x - \omega_i)^2 - u_i \leq \lambda(x - \omega_j)^2 - u_j
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
2(\omega_j - \omega_i)x \leq \frac{u_i - u_j}{\lambda} + \omega_j^2 - \omega_i^2, \forall j \neq i \quad \text{if} \ \lambda > 0
$$

$$
\frac{u_i}{u_j} \geq \omega_j \quad \text{if} \ \lambda = 0
$$

This implies that $I_i$ is a connected interval, i.e. $I_i = [\tilde{l}_i, \tilde{I}_i]$. When $\lambda > 0$, we have

$$
\tilde{l}_i = \max_{j: \omega_j < \omega_i} \left\{ \frac{u_i - u_j}{2\lambda(\omega_j - \omega_i)} + \frac{\omega_j + \omega_i}{2} \right\},
$$

$$
\tilde{I}_i = \min_{j: \omega_j > \omega_i} \left\{ \frac{u_i - u_j}{2\lambda(\omega_j - \omega_i)} + \frac{\omega_j + \omega_i}{2} \right\},
$$

and the decomposition yields

$$
\eta(\lambda, u) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}\{\tilde{l}_i < \tilde{I}_i\} \frac{\exp \left( \frac{u_i - \lambda \omega_i^2}{1 + 2\lambda} \right)}{2\sqrt{2\lambda + 1}} \left( \text{erf} \left( \frac{2\lambda(\tilde{l}_i - \omega_i)}{\sqrt{4\lambda + 2}} \right) - \text{erf} \left( \frac{2\lambda(\tilde{I}_i - \omega_i)}{\sqrt{4\lambda + 2}} \right) \right),
$$

where $\text{erf}(z) := \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{0}^{z} e^{-t^2} dt$ is the error function. When $\lambda = 0$, $I_i = \mathbb{R}$ if $i = \arg \max u_i$ and $I_i = \emptyset$ otherwise, and thus $\eta(0, u) = \exp(\max_i u_i)$.

For general pre-change distributions, it is not guaranteed that we can find analytical solutions for the LFD for $n > 1$. However, we note that the solution to the optimization problem in (14) is easy to compute numerically for any $n$, $s$, and $r_s$, regardless of the type of the pre-change distribution. This is due to the convexity of the problem in (14).

A.2 Proofs for Section 4

We first present example distributions that satisfy the Transportation-Cost Inequality in Definition 4.1, to demonstrate the wide applicability of the results in Section 4.

**Examples of $T_1(c)$ inequality:** For a discrete sample space with the Hamming metric $c(x, y) = 1_{x \neq y}$, the $W_1$ distance satisfies the following inequality

$$
W_1(P, Q) = \|P - Q\|_{TV} \leq \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \text{KL}(Q||P)},
$$

which is a consequence of Pinsker’s inequality. Hence, the $T_1(1/4)$ inequality holds for every probability measure on the discrete sample space.

**Examples of $T_2(c)$ inequality:** For $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $c(x, y) = \|x - y\|_2$, the standard $n$-dimensional Gaussian distribution satisfies the $T_2(1)$ inequality, i.e., $W_2(P, Q) \leq \sqrt{2\text{KL}(Q||P)}$ for $P$ being the $n$-dimensional Gaussian distribution and $Q$ being any distribution satisfying $Q \ll P$. More generally, if $P = N(\mu, \Sigma)$, where $\mu$ is the mean vector and $\Sigma$ is the covariance matrix, then $P$ satisfies the $T_2(c)$ inequality for $c = 1/2\kappa$, where $\kappa \leq \min_i \lambda_i(\Sigma^{-1})$, representing the smallest eigenvalue of the inverse covariance matrix.
Proof of Corollary 4.1

Proof. From the triangle inequality satisfied by the Wasserstein distance, we have

\[ W_s(Q, \hat{P}_n) \geq W_s(P, Q) - W_s(P, \hat{P}_n), \]

and thus

\[ \mathbb{P}^{r_s} \{ W_s(Q, \hat{P}_n) < r_s \} \leq \mathbb{P}^{r_s} \{ W_s(P, \hat{P}_n) > W_s(P, Q) - r_s \} \]

\[ \leq \exp \left( -\gamma s n (W_s(P, Q) - r_s)^2 / 2c \right), \]

where the last inequality follows from Theorem 4.1. Now, if

\[ r_s \leq W_s(P, Q) - \sqrt{2\log c / \gamma s n}, \]

then \( \mathbb{P}^{r_s} \{ Q \in \mathcal{P}_n \} = \mathbb{P}^{r_s} \{ W_s(Q, \hat{P}_n) < r_s \} \leq \delta. \]

Proof of Lemma 4.1

Proof. We first note that when (18) holds we have \( \mathbb{E}_{\delta,n} \leq \tau_{\delta,n}. \) Then the result directly follows from the fact that for any two events \( A, B, \)

\[ \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B^c) \geq \mathbb{P}(A) - \mathbb{P}(B^c). \]

Now, letting \( A = \{ P \in \mathcal{P}_n \} \) and \( B = \{ Q \notin \mathcal{P}_n \}, \) and applying Corollaries 4.1 and 4.2, we get the desired result.

Proof of Lemma 4.2

Proof. Throughout the proof we use the result from Lemma 4.1, i.e., under the given conditions, with probability at least \( 1 - 2\delta, \) we have \( P \in \mathcal{P}_n \) and \( Q \notin \mathcal{P}_n. \) To prove the first inequality in (19), note that when \( Q \notin \mathcal{P}_n \) and for any \( P \in \mathcal{P}_n, \)

\[ \mathbb{E}^P \left[ \log \frac{p_n^*(X_1)}{q(X_1)} \right] = \text{KL}(P||Q) - \text{KL}(P||P_n^*) \geq \text{KL}(P_n^*||Q) \]

where \( (i) \) follows from the WSB condition in Lemma 2.1, and \( (ii) \) follows from the fact that \( Q \notin \mathcal{P}_n. \) Thus, by (Siegmund, 1985, Prop. 8.21), \( \mathbb{E}^P \left[ \tau_{\text{DR}} \right] < \infty. \) By Wald’s identity,

\[ \mathbb{E}^P \left[ \tau_{\text{DR}} \right] = \mathbb{E}^P \left[ \log \frac{p_n^*(X_1)}{q(X_1)} \right] \leq \mathbb{E}^P \left[ \text{KL}(P_n^*||Q) \right], \quad \forall P \in \mathcal{P}_n. \]

Since by assumption \( \mathbb{E}^P \left[ \log \frac{p_n^*(X_1)}{q(X_1)} \right]^2 < \infty, \) following classical renewal analysis (e.g., see Siegmund (1985)), we have

\[ \mathbb{E}^P \left[ S_{\text{DR}} \right] = \log \gamma + \mathbb{E}^P \left[ S_{\text{DR}} - \log \gamma \right] = \log \gamma \cdot (1 + o(1)), \quad \text{as } \gamma \to \infty. \]

Finally, we note that \( \text{WADD}^P(\tau_{\text{DR}}) \leq \mathbb{E}^P \left[ \tau_{\text{DR}} \right], \quad \forall P \in \mathcal{P}_n, \) since \( S_k \geq 0 \) for all \( k \geq 1 \) almost surely and \( S_k \) has a recursive update structure. This completes the proof of the first inequality.

For the second inequality in (19), due to the triangle inequality for the Wasserstein metric, we have

\[ W_s(\hat{P}_n, Q) \leq W_s(\hat{P}_n, P_n^*) + W_s(P_n^*, Q) \leq r_s + W_s(P_n^*, Q), \tag{28} \]

where \( (iii) \) is due to \( P_n^* \in \mathcal{P}_n, \) and thus \( W_s(\hat{P}_n, P_n^*) \leq r_s. \) On the other hand, under the event \( P \in \mathcal{P}_n, \) we have

\[ W_s(\hat{P}_n, P) \leq r_s, \]

which implies

\[ W_s(\hat{P}_n, Q) \geq W_s(P, Q) - W_s(\hat{P}_n, P) \geq W_s(P, Q) - r_s. \tag{29} \]
Combining (28) and (29) we have
\[ W_s(P_n^*, Q) \geq W_s(\tilde{P}_n, Q) - r_s \geq W_s(P, Q) - 2r_s. \] \hspace{1cm} (30)

Further, since \( Q \) satisfies the \( T_s(c) \) inequality, we have
\[ \left( \frac{(W_s(P_n^*, Q))^2}{2c} \right) \leq \text{KL}(P_n^*||Q). \]

Combining this with (30), we obtain
\[ \text{KL}(P_n^*||Q) \geq \frac{(W_s(P, Q) - 2r_s)^2}{2c}. \]

Substituting this into the first inequality in (19) completes the proof. \( \square \)

### A.3 Proofs for Section 5

#### Proof of Lemma 5.1

**Proof.** We define the following quantity
\[ Z^{(m)}_j := \log \frac{p^{(m)}_j(X_j)}{q(X_j)}. \]

First, we can assume that \( \mathbb{E}_\infty [\tau_{DR}(b)] < \infty \), as otherwise the statement would be trivial. Consider the following test based on the Shiryaev-Roberts (SR) statistic,
\[ \tau_{b}^R := \inf \left\{ k \in \mathbb{N} : \sum_{m=1}^{M} \sum_{n=1}^{k} \prod_{j=n}^{k} e^{Z^{(m)}_j} = \sum_{m=1}^{M} R^{(m)}_k \geq e^b \right\}. \]

Note that \( \tau_{b}^R \leq \tau_{DR}(b) \) since \( \sum_{m=1}^{M} R^{(m)}_k \geq \max_{m=1,...,M} S^{(m)}_k \). Hence, \( \mathbb{E}_\infty [\tau_{b}^R] < \infty \). Denoting \( R_k := \sum_{m=1}^{M} R^{(m)}_k \), we have
\[ \mathbb{E}_\infty [R_k | \mathcal{F}_{k-1}] = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{E}_\infty \left[ (1 + R^{(m)}_{k-1}) e^{Z^{(m)}_k} | \mathcal{F}_{k-1} \right] = \sum_{m=1}^{M} (1 + R^{(m)}_{k-1}) = M + R_{k-1}, \]

which implies that the sequence \( \{(R_k - M_k)\}_{k \geq 1} \) forms a martingale. Furthermore, since \( R_k \in (0, e^b) \) almost surely on the event \( \{\tau_{b}^R > k\} \), we have for any \( k \geq 1 \),
\[ \mathbb{E}_\infty \left[ (R_{k+1} - M(k+1)) - (R_k - Mk) | \mathcal{F}_k \right] = \mathbb{E}_\infty \left[ (R_{k+1} - R_k - M) | \mathcal{F}_k \right] \leq \mathbb{E}_\infty [R_{k+1} | \mathcal{F}_k] + (R_k + M) = 2(R_k + M) \leq 2(e^b + M) \]
almost surely on the event \( \{\tau_{b}^R > k\} \). Therefore, by the Optional Stopping Theorem,
\[ \mathbb{E}_\infty [R^{(m)}_k] = M \mathbb{E}_\infty [\tau_{b}^R]. \]

Since \( R_{b}^R \geq e^b \), it follows that \( \mathbb{E}_\infty [\tau_{b}^R] \geq M^{-1} e^b \) and consequently
\[ \mathbb{E}_\infty [\tau_{DR}(b)] \geq \mathbb{E}_\infty [\tau_{b}^R] \geq M^{-1} e^b. \]

\( \square \)
Proof of Theorem 5.1

Proof. Let \( P_m := P^{(m)}_m \). Recall that \( P^*_m \) represents the LFD for the \( m \)-th class and that \( p^{(m)}_o \) denotes its density with respect to the dominating measure \( \mu \). For the lower bound, we have

\[
\inf_{\tau' \in C(\gamma)} \max_{i=1, \ldots, M} \sup_{P_i \in P_i} \text{WADD}^{\tau'}(\tau') \geq \max_{i=1, \ldots, M} \sup_{P_i \in P_i} \inf_{\tau' \in C(\gamma)} \text{WADD}^{\tau'}(\tau') \geq \frac{\log \gamma}{f^*}(1 + o(1)),
\]

where the last inequality follows from (Lai, 1998, Thm. 1) and the weak law of large numbers for independent random variables.

For the upper bound, we consider the detection rule \( \tau_{\text{DR}}(b) \) defined in (22). For any distribution \( P_i \in P_i \) we have

\[
\mathbb{E}^{P_i} \left[ \log \frac{p_{i}(X)}{q(X)} \right] = \text{KL}(P_i||Q) - \text{KL}(P_i||P_{i}^*) \geq \text{KL}(P_{i}^*||Q),
\]

where the last inequality is a consequence of the weak stochastic boundedness condition. Therefore, according to (Lai, 1998, Thm. 4(ii)), we have

\[
\max_{i=1, \ldots, M} \sup_{P_i \in P_i} \text{WADD}^{\tau'}(\tau_{\text{DR}}(b)) \leq \frac{b}{f^*}(1 + o(1)).
\]

By selecting \( b = b_\gamma = \log \gamma + \log M \), we obtain

\[
\max_{i=1, \ldots, M} \sup_{P_i \in P_i} \text{WADD}^{\tau'}(\tau_{\text{DR}}(b_\gamma)) \leq \frac{\log \gamma + \log M}{f^*}(1 + o(1)) = \frac{\log \gamma}{f^*}(1 + o(1)).
\]

Finally, from Lemma 5.1, the proof is complete since \( \tau_{\text{DR}}(b_\gamma) \in C(\gamma) \) when \( b = b_\gamma \).

\[\Box\]

B IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS AND ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENTS

The original NGLR-CuSum test, as introduced in Liang and Veeravalli (2023), does not use any post-change training samples. For a fair comparison with the proposed DR-CuSum test, we define and implement a modified version that uses the post-change training samples in the following.

The NGLR-CuSum test in Liang and Veeravalli (2023) is defined as

\[
\tau_{\text{NGLR}}(b) := \inf \left\{ k \geq 1 : \max_{(k-W)^+<\ell\leq k} \frac{1}{(k-\ell)h} \sum_{j=\ell}^{k} \log \frac{\hat{p}_{-j}^{k,\ell}(X_j)}{q(X_j)} \geq b \right\}, \quad (31)
\]

where \( W \) is the window size, and if we assume using a kernel density estimator (KDE) with some kernel function \( K(\cdot) \) and bandwidth \( h \) (Wasserman, 2006), the leave-one-out density estimate is

\[
\hat{p}_{-j}^{k,\ell}(X_j) := \frac{1}{(k-\ell)h} \sum_{j \neq \ell} K \left( \frac{X_i - X_j}{h} \right), \quad \forall j \in [\ell, k].
\]

To utilize the post-change training samples, we similarly define the modified NGLR-CuSum test as:

\[
\tau_{\text{NGLRws}}(b) := \inf \left\{ k \geq 1 : \max_{(k-W)^+<\ell\leq k} \left( \frac{1}{(k-\ell)h} \sum_{j=\ell}^{k} \log \frac{\hat{p}_{-j}^{k,\ell,\omega}(X_j)}{q(X_j)} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \frac{\hat{p}_{-j}^{k,\ell,\omega}(\omega_i)}{q(\omega_i)} \right) \geq b \right\}, \quad (32)
\]

where

\[
\hat{p}_{-j}^{k,\ell,\omega}(X_j) := \frac{1}{(k-\ell+n)h} \sum_{j \neq \ell} K \left( \frac{X_i - X_j}{h} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} K \left( \frac{\omega_i - X_j}{h} \right), \quad \forall j \in [\ell, k].
\]
We compare the detection delay of the DR-CuSum and NGLR-CuSum tests. Note that we simulate the detection delay under the setting $\nu = 1$, i.e., all samples are from the post-change regime. We emphasize that due to the recursive structure of the DR-CuSum statistics and the independence in observations, the worst-case value of the change-point for computing the WADD in (3) is $\nu = 1$. This allows us to estimate the worst-case delays of the DR-CuSum test by simulating the post-change distribution from time 1. However, the choice of change-point $\nu = 1$ does not guarantee a worst-case delay for the NGLR-CuSum test.

In Fig. 5, we compare the detection delay (simulated under the case $\nu = 1$) of DR-CuSum and NGLR-CuSum test. We use the same setting for pre- and post-change distribution as in Fig 1, i.e., the true pre- and post-change distributions are $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and $\mathcal{N}(0.5, 1)$, respectively. We see that given the training samples, the DR-CuSum test (with the optimal radius) performs slightly worse than the modified NGLR-CuSum test. However, due to the recursive CuSum update structure, the DR-CuSum test is computationally less expensive than the latter at inference time.

For the multi-dimensional data as in Fig 3, we use the following product kernel in the leave-one-out density estimate. For any $j \in [\ell, k]$,

$$
\hat{p}_{k,\ell,\omega}(x_j) := \frac{1}{(k - \ell + n) \prod_{m=1}^d h_m} \times \left( \sum_{i=\ell}^k \prod_{m=1}^d K \left( \frac{x_{i(m)} - x_j(m)}{h_m} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^n \prod_{m=1}^d K \left( \frac{x_i(m) - x_j(m)}{h_m} \right) \right). 
$$

(33)

where $x^{(m)}$ denotes the $m$-th element of vector $x$ and $h_m$ denotes the kernel bandwidth for the $m$-th element.

Figure 5: Comparison of DR-CuSum tests (solid lines) with the modified NGLR-CuSum tests (dashed lines) defined in (32). The number of post-change training samples $n = 25$. The KDE with a Gaussian kernel is used in the NGLR-CuSum test, with the bandwidth parameter $h = 50^{-0.2}$. All tests are first evaluated on the same set of post-change training samples, and then the average performance over 30 different sets of training samples is reported.