

Identification of Wiener Systems with Recursive Gauss-Seidel Algorithm

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Abstract—The Recursive Gauss-Seidel (RGS) algorithm is presented that is implemented in a one-step Gauss-Seidel iteration for the identification of Wiener output error systems. The RGS algorithm has lower processing intensity than the popular Recursive Least Squares (RLS) algorithm due to its implementation using one-step Gauss-Seidel iteration in a sampling interval. The noise-free output samples in the data vector used for implementation of the RGS algorithm are estimated using an auxiliary model. Also, a stochastic convergence analysis is presented, and it is shown that the presented auxiliary model-based RGS algorithm gives unbiased parameter estimates even if the measurement noise is coloured. Finally, the effectiveness of the RGS algorithm is verified and compared with the equivalent RLS algorithm by computer simulations.

Index Terms—Auxiliary model; Gauss-Seidel; Recursive estimation; System identification; Wiener system.

I. INTRODUCTION

Wiener systems have static nonlinear blocks at the output of dynamic linear subsystems and are widely used in engineering for modelling, identification and control applications [1]–[16]. These nonlinear blocks can be modelled using both parametric models and nonparametric models. Linear subsystems are modelled using impulse responses or transfer functions, and nonlinear blocks are modelled by piecewise linear functions or polynomial basis functions [1]–[3]. In recent years, the identification of parametric models has received more attention from researchers. The parametric Wiener models are linear-in-parameters and allow a direct application of the known algorithms used for identification of the linear models. Several methods have been presented for parameter estimation of Wiener models in the system identification literature. Offline methods are implemented using one-time processing after input-output samples are collected [17]–[19]. Iterative algorithms are implemented using multiple iterations after input-output samples are collected [20]–[33]. Unlike iterative methods, parameter estimates are updated during every sampling interval in recursive methods [34]–[57]. The recursive algorithms are implemented using one-step iteration in a sampling period and thus are more suitable for real-time applications. Gradient-based algorithms are preferred because of their lower

computational complexity, despite their slow convergence rates. Although the Recursive Least Squares (RLS) algorithm is computationally intensive, it converges faster than gradient-based methods [57]. In addition, a new recursive algorithm is proposed that uses one-step Gauss-Seidel iteration as an alternative method to adjust a self-tuning controller [58]. The Recursive Gauss-Seidel (RGS) algorithm has a faster convergence rate than gradient-based algorithms and has a lower computational burden than the RLS algorithm. This paper aims to transfer the advantages of the RGS algorithm to parameter estimation of nonlinear Wiener systems.

In this paper, Section II presents an identification model for Wiener output error models. The RGS algorithm for Wiener models is presented in Section III. The convergence of the RGS estimations is analysed in Section IV. Computer simulations are presented in Section V, and conclusions are given in Section VI.

II. IDENTIFICATION MODEL

A Wiener system includes linear and nonlinear subsystems, as seen in Fig. 1, and is formulated as follows:

$$x(k) = \frac{B(z^{-1})}{A(z^{-1})}u(k), \quad (1)$$

$$y(k) = f[x(k)] + v(k), \quad (2)$$

where $u(k)$, $x(k)$, and $v(k)$ are input, noise-free output, and measurement noise sequences, respectively.

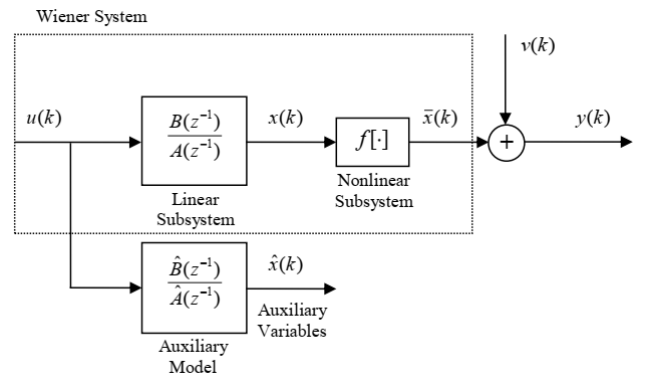


Fig. 1. Wiener system structure.

The linear subsystem polynomials are defined as:

$$A(z^{-1}) = 1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_{n_a} z^{-n_a}, \quad (3)$$

$$B(z^{-1}) = b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_{n_b} z^{-n_b}. \quad (4)$$

The nonlinear subsystem can be expressed using known polynomial basis functions

$$f[x(k)] = c_0 + c_1 x(k) + c_2 x^2(k) + \dots + c_{n_c} x^{n_c}(k). \quad (5)$$

Using the models defined above and taking $c_1 = 1$, the Wiener model can be written as

$$y(k) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n_a} a_i x(k-i) + \sum_{i=1}^{n_b} b_i u(k-i) + c_0 + \sum_{i=2}^{n_c} c_i x^i(k) + v(k). \quad (6)$$

Defining the parameter and data vectors as:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = [a_1 \ \dots \ a_{n_a} \ b_1 \ \dots \ b_{n_b} \ c_0 \ c_2 \ \dots \ c_{n_c}]^T \in \mathbf{R}^M, \quad (7)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\varphi}(k) = [-x(k-1) \ \dots \ -x(k-n_a) \ u(k-1) \ \dots \ u(k-n_b) \ 1 \ x^2(k) \ \dots \ x^{n_c}(k)]^T \in \mathbf{R}^M, \quad (8)$$

an identification model is written as

$$y(k) = \boldsymbol{\varphi}^T(k) \boldsymbol{\theta} + v(k), \quad (9)$$

where $M = n_a + n_b + n_c$.

III. RGS ALGORITHM FOR WIENER MODELS

The inner variable $x(k)$ in (8) cannot be measured but can be estimated using the auxiliary model

$$\hat{x}(k) = \hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}_a^T(k) \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_a(k-1). \quad (10)$$

The data and parameter vectors in (10) are defined as:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}_a(k) = [-\hat{x}(k-1) \ \dots \ -\hat{x}(k-n_a) \ u(k-1) \ \dots \ u(k-n_b)]^T \in \mathbf{R}^{n_a+n_b}, \quad (11)$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_a(k) = [\hat{a}_1(k) \ \dots \ \hat{a}_{n_a}(k) \ \hat{b}_1(k) \ \dots \ \hat{b}_{n_b}(k)]^T \in \mathbf{R}^{n_a+n_b}. \quad (12)$$

Thus, the data and the parameter estimation vectors of the Wiener model in (9) can be formed as follows:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}(k) = [\hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}_a(k) \ 1 \ \hat{x}^2(k) \ \dots \ \hat{x}^{n_c}(k)]^T \in \mathbf{R}^M, \quad (13)$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(k) = [\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_a(k) \ \hat{c}_0(k) \ \hat{c}_2(k) \ \dots \ \hat{c}_{n_c}(k)]^T \in \mathbf{R}^M, \quad (14)$$

and an output error is defined for the Wiener model as

$$e(k) = y(k) - \hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}^T(k) \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(k-1). \quad (15)$$

The RGS algorithm can be obtained by minimising the following error function

$$J[\boldsymbol{\theta}] = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda^{k-i} e^2(i) = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda^{k-i} [y(i) - \hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}^T(i) \boldsymbol{\theta}]^2, \quad (16)$$

where λ is the forgetting factor. The optimal parameter vector

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(k) = \mathbf{R}^{-1}(k) \mathbf{p}(k) \quad (17)$$

is the solution of the normal equation

$$\mathbf{R}(k) \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(k) = \mathbf{p}(k). \quad (18)$$

After the estimates $\mathbf{R}(k)$ and $\mathbf{p}(k)$ are updated as:

$$\mathbf{R}(k) = \lambda \mathbf{R}(k-1) + \hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}(k) \hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}^T(k), \quad (19)$$

$$\mathbf{p}(k) = \lambda \mathbf{p}(k-1) + \hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}(k) y(k), \quad (20)$$

the normal equation (18) can be solved by a single Gauss-Seidel cycle as follows

$$\hat{\theta}_i(k) = \left[p_i(k) - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} R_{ij}(k) \hat{\theta}_j(k) - \sum_{j=i+1}^M R_{ij}(k) \hat{\theta}_j(k-1) \right] / R_{ii}(k), \quad (21)$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$, where $R_{ij}(k)$, $p_i(k)$, and $\hat{\theta}_i(k)$ are the elements of $\mathbf{R}(k)$, $\mathbf{p}(k)$, and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(k)$. Thus, the computational burden of the RGS algorithm is lower than that of the RLS. The RGS algorithm is implemented using (19), (20), and (21) in a sampling interval, recursively [58]. The implementation steps and computational complexity of the RGS and RLS algorithms for identifying nonlinear Wiener output error systems are summarised in Table I and Table II, respectively.

TABLE I. IMPLEMENTATION AND COMPUTATIONAL COMPLEXITY OF RGS ALGORITHM FOR WIENER MODELS.

Implementation Steps of RGS Algorithm:	Number of Operations:	
	Multiplications and Divisions	Summations and Subtractions
Initial values: $\mathbf{R}(0) = \alpha \mathbf{I}_{M \times M}$, $\alpha > 0$, $\mathbf{p}(0) = \mathbf{0}_{M \times 1}$		
Estimate: $\hat{x}(k) = \hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}_a^T(k) \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_a(k-1)$	$n_a + n_b$	$n_a + n_b - 1$
Compute: $\hat{x}^2(k), \dots, \hat{x}^{n_c}(k)$	$n_c - 1$	-
$\mathbf{R}(k) = \lambda \mathbf{R}(k-1) + \hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}(k) \hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}^T(k)$	$2M^2$	M^2
$\mathbf{p}(k) = \lambda \mathbf{p}(k-1) + \hat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}(k) y(k)$	$2M$	M
$\hat{\theta}_i(k) = \left[p_i(k) - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} R_{ij}(k) \hat{\theta}_j(k) - \sum_{j=i+1}^M R_{ij}(k) \hat{\theta}_j(k-1) \right] / R_{ii}(k)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$, $M = n_a + n_b + n_c$.	M^2	$M(M-1)$
Total Number of Operations:	$3M^2 + 2M + n_a + n_b + n_c - 1$	$2M^2 + n_a + n_b - 1$
In simulation example: $M = n_a + n_b + n_c = 2 + 2 + 3 = 7$	167	101

TABLE II. IMPLEMENTATION AND COMPUTATIONAL COMPLEXITY OF RLS ALGORITHM FOR WIENER MODELS.

Implementation Steps of RLS Algorithm:	Number of Operations:	
	Multiplications and Divisions	Summations and Subtractions
Initial values: $\mathbf{P}(0) = \mathbf{R}^{-1}(0) = \beta \mathbf{I}_{M \times M}$, $\beta > 0$		
Estimate: $\hat{x}(k) = \hat{\phi}_a^T(k) \hat{\theta}_a(k-1)$	$n_a + n_b$	$n_a + n_b - 1$
Compute: $\hat{x}^2(k), \dots, \hat{x}^{n_c}(k)$	$n_c - 1$	-
$e(k) = y(k) - \hat{\phi}^T(k) \hat{\theta}(k-1)$	M	M
$\mathbf{q}(k) = \mathbf{P}(k-1) \hat{\phi}(k)$	M^2	$M(M-1)$
$\mathbf{K}(k) = \mathbf{q}(k) / [\lambda + \hat{\phi}^T(k) \mathbf{q}(k)]$	$2M$	M
$\hat{\theta}(k) = \hat{\theta}(k-1) + \mathbf{K}(k) e(k)$	M	M
$\mathbf{P}(k) = [\mathbf{P}(k-1) - \mathbf{K}(k) \mathbf{q}^T(k)] / \lambda$	$2M^2$	M^2
Total Number of Operations:	$3M^2 + 4M + n_a + n_b + n_c - 1$	$2M^2 + 2M + n_a + n_b - 1$
In simulation example: $M = n_a + n_b + n_c = 2 + 2 + 3 = 7$	181	115

IV. CONVERGENCE ANALYSIS OF RGS ALGORITHM

Decomposing the correlation matrix as $\mathbf{R}(k) = \mathbf{R}_L(k) + \mathbf{R}_D(k) + \mathbf{R}_V(k)$, the RGS iteration (21) is rewritten as follows [58]

$$\hat{\theta}(k) = \hat{\theta}(k-1) + [\mathbf{R}_L(k) + \mathbf{R}_D(k)]^{-1} [\mathbf{p}(k) - \mathbf{R}(k) \hat{\theta}(k-1)]. \quad (22)$$

Defining the parameter errors as

$$\tilde{\theta}(k) = \hat{\theta}(k) - \theta, \quad (23)$$

the following iteration is obtained from (22)

$$\tilde{\theta}(k) = \{\mathbf{I} - [\mathbf{R}_L(k) + \mathbf{R}_D(k)]^{-1} \mathbf{R}(k)\} \tilde{\theta}(k-1) + [\mathbf{R}_L(k) + \mathbf{R}_D(k)]^{-1} [\mathbf{p}(k) - \mathbf{R}(k) \theta]. \quad (24)$$

Taking into account (11) and (18), the vector quantity in the second term of (24) is reduced to

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{p}(k) - \mathbf{R}(k) \theta &= \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda^{k-i} \hat{\phi}(i) [y(i) - \hat{\phi}^T(i) \theta] = \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda^{k-i} \hat{\phi}(i) v(i). \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

Assuming that λ is close to 1 and k is high enough; the following assumption can be used

$$\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda^{k-i} \hat{\phi}(i) v(i) \cong E\{\hat{\phi}(k) v(k)\}. \quad (26)$$

Because the noise signal $v(k)$ is not correlated with the other signals, the correlation vector in (26) becomes a zero vector as follows

$$E\{\hat{\phi}(k) v(k)\} = \begin{bmatrix} -E\{\hat{x}(k-1)v(k)\} \\ \vdots \\ -E\{\hat{x}(k-n_a)v(k)\} \\ E\{u(k-1)v(k)\} \\ \vdots \\ E\{u(k-n_b)v(k)\} \\ E\{v(k)\} \\ E\{\hat{x}^2(k)v(k)\} \\ \vdots \\ E\{\hat{x}^{n_c}(k)v(k)\} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (27)$$

and thus the expected value of (24) is reduced to

$$E\{\tilde{\theta}(k)\} = E\{\mathbf{I} - [\mathbf{R}_L(k) + \mathbf{R}_D(k)]^{-1} \mathbf{R}(k)\} \tilde{\theta}(k-1). \quad (28)$$

Considering that the estimate $\mathbf{R}(k)$ converges to its deterministic value, i.e., $E\{\mathbf{R}(k)\} = \mathbf{R}$, the iteration in (28) becomes

$$E\{\tilde{\theta}(k)\} = \{\mathbf{I} - [\mathbf{R}_L + \mathbf{R}_D]^{-1} \mathbf{R}\} E\{\tilde{\theta}(k-1)\}. \quad (29)$$

A positive definite matrix \mathbf{R} allows all eigenvalues of the matrix $\{\mathbf{I} - [\mathbf{R}_L + \mathbf{R}_D]^{-1} \mathbf{R}\}$ to be less than 1 and, therefore, the RGS algorithm converges [58]. Consequently, $E\{\tilde{\theta}(k)\}$ converges to zero vector, thereby letting $E\{\hat{\theta}(k)\} = \theta$, due to (23). This result shows that the RGS algorithm gives unbiased estimates without considering the structure of the noise model.

V. COMPUTER SIMULATION

The following Wiener nonlinear output error model is used in computer simulations:

$$x(k) = \frac{0.4z^{-1} + 0.5z^{-2}}{1 - 0.9z^{-1} + 0.8z^{-2}} u(k), \quad (30)$$

$$y(k) = f[x(k)] + v(k), \quad (31)$$

$$f[x(k)] = -0.1 + x(k) - 0.4x^2(k) + 0.3x^3(k). \quad (32)$$

The vectors θ , $\hat{\theta}(k)$, and $\hat{\phi}(k)$ are formed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &= [a_1 \ a_2 \ b_1 \ b_2 \ c_0 \ c_2 \ c_3]^T = \\ &= [-0.9 \ 0.8 \ 0.4 \ 0.5 \ -0.1 \ -0.4 \ 0.3]^T, \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

$$\hat{\theta}(k) = [\hat{a}_1(k) \ \hat{a}_2(k) \ \hat{b}_1(k) \ \hat{b}_2(k) \ \hat{c}_0(k) \ \hat{c}_2(k) \ \hat{c}_3(k)]^T, \quad (34)$$

$$\hat{\phi}(k) = [-\hat{x}(k-1) \ -\hat{x}(k-2) \ u(k-1) \ u(k-2) \ 1 \ \hat{x}^2(k) \ \hat{x}^3(k)]^T. \quad (35)$$

A two-level signal with amplitude ± 0.5 and period 100 samples was used as input signal.

In the first simulation, a white measurement noise $w(k)$ with variance $\sigma_w^2 = 0.15^2$ is used. The corresponding noise-to-signal ratio (NSR) is computed as about

% NSR = $100 \times \sqrt{\sigma_w^2 / \sigma_x^2} \cong \% 24.4$. The following initial values are used for RGS: $\mathbf{R}(0) = \mathbf{I}_{(7 \times 7)}$, $\mathbf{p}(0) = \mathbf{0}_{(7 \times 1)}$, and for RLS: $\mathbf{R}^{-1}(0) = \mathbf{I}_{(7 \times 7)}$. The initial parameter estimates are taken as $\boldsymbol{\theta}(0) = \mathbf{0}_{(7 \times 1)}$, and the forgetting factor $\lambda = 0.9995$ is used in the both algorithms. The parameter estimates obtained are plotted in Fig. 2.

In the second simulation, a coloured measurement noise sequence $v(k)$ with its variance computed as $\sigma_v^2 \cong 0.256^2$ is contaminated to the output measurements. The coloured noise sequence $v(k)$ is obtained using the following Auto Regressive Moving Average (ARMA) model, which has the same white noise input $w(k)$ in the first simulation,

$$v(k) = 0.65v(k-1) - 0.4v(k-2) + w(k) + 0.5w(k-1) + 0.2w(k-2), \quad (36)$$

where the corresponding NSR is computed as about % NSR = $100 \times \sqrt{\sigma_v^2 / \sigma_x^2} \cong \% 40.74$. The same initial values of the algorithms used in the first simulation are also used in the second simulation. The parameter estimations obtained are shown in Fig. 3.

The estimation errors for the algorithms used are illustrated in Fig. 4; these errors are computed using $\delta(k) = \|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(k) - \boldsymbol{\theta}\| / \|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|$ and $\|x\| = \sqrt{x^T x}$.

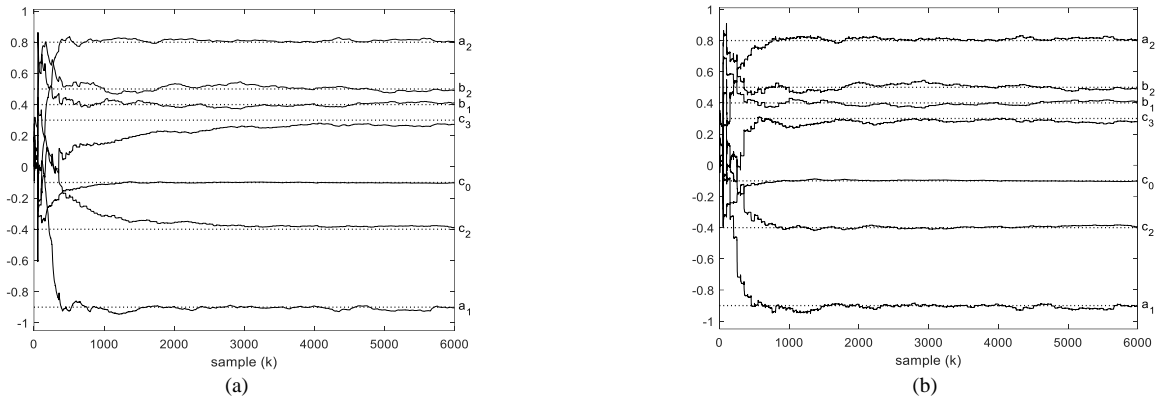


Fig. 2. (a) RGS parameter estimations with white measurement noise; (b) RLS parameter estimations with white measurement noise.

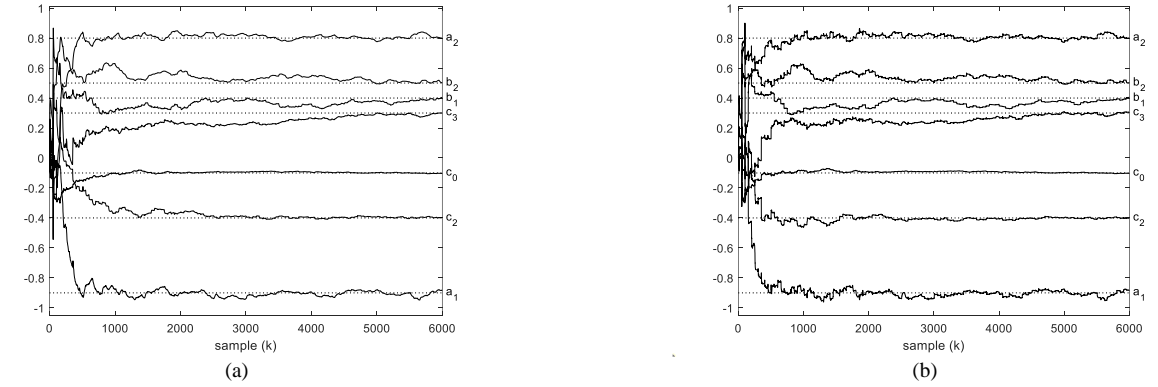


Fig. 3. (a) RGS parameter estimations with coloured measurement noise; (b) RLS parameter estimations with coloured measurement noise.

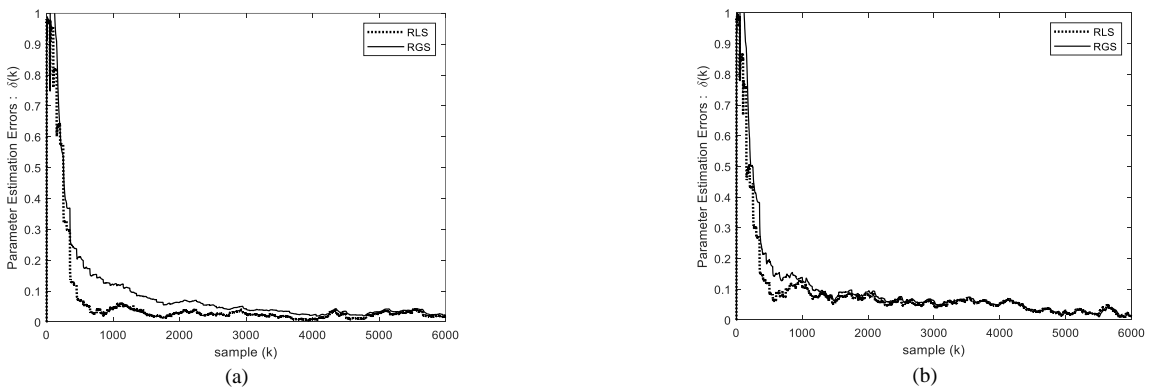


Fig. 4. (a) Parameter estimation errors for white measurement noise; (b) Parameter estimation errors for coloured measurement noise.

Some numerical values of the obtained results are also summarised in Tables III and IV. Considering the obtained

results given in Figs. 2–4, Table III, and Table IV, it is seen that the auxiliary model-based RGS algorithm gives

unbiased parameter estimations, even if the measurement noise is coloured, and produces close and comparable results to the RLS results with lower computational complexity as seen in Tables I and II.

TABLE III. ESTIMATED PARAMETERS AND THEIR ERRORS WITH WHITE MEASUREMENT NOISE.

Algorithm	k	$\hat{a}_1(k)$	$\hat{a}_2(k)$	$\hat{b}_1(k)$	$\hat{b}_2(k)$	$\hat{c}_0(k)$	$\hat{c}_2(k)$	$\hat{c}_3(k)$	$\delta(k)\%$
RGS algorithm with white measurement noise	50	0.0219	0.0714	0.1118	0.1159	0.2529	0.0197	0.0051	97.1050
	200	-0.2957	0.4461	0.5294	0.7162	-0.2584	0.1033	0.1178	63.8929
	500	-0.9254	0.8322	0.4335	0.5198	-0.1469	-0.1991	0.0776	21.1951
	1000	-0.9127	0.8146	0.4167	0.5064	-0.1119	-0.3149	0.1462	12.2318
	2000	-0.8954	0.8146	0.3885	0.5319	-0.1016	-0.3590	0.2264	6.3269
	3000	-0.8997	0.8107	0.3796	0.5348	-0.0994	-0.3777	0.2607	4.2245
	4000	-0.8925	0.7982	0.4057	0.4965	-0.1013	-0.3793	0.2777	2.2038
	5000	-0.9171	0.8083	0.4119	0.4772	-0.1015	-0.3811	0.2698	3.2905
RLS algorithm with white measurement noise	50	0.0251	0.0629	0.1224	0.1224	0.2448	0.0022	0.0003	96.8675
	200	-0.3246	0.4696	0.5841	0.6845	-0.2407	0.0688	-0.0510	64.0971
	500	-0.9047	0.7519	0.4162	0.4545	-0.1159	-0.3578	0.2351	7.1743
	1000	-0.9150	0.8121	0.4067	0.4997	-0.0993	-0.4049	0.2437	4.1260
	2000	-0.8921	0.8107	0.3821	0.5305	-0.0965	-0.4020	0.2836	2.8396
	3000	-0.9000	0.8087	0.3761	0.5315	-0.0965	-0.4031	0.2961	2.8100
	4000	-0.8914	0.7976	0.4030	0.4972	-0.0999	-0.3939	0.2995	0.7965
	5000	-0.9164	0.8081	0.4114	0.4770	-0.1007	-0.3897	0.2825	2.5755
6000	-0.9052	0.8056	0.4108	0.4911	-0.1021	-0.3939	0.2787	1.8824	
True Parameter Values:		-0.9000	0.8000	0.4000	0.5000	-0.1000	-0.4000	0.3000	-

TABLE IV. ESTIMATED PARAMETERS AND THEIR ERRORS WITH COLOURED MEASUREMENT NOISE.

Algorithm	k	$\hat{a}_1(k)$	$\hat{a}_2(k)$	$\hat{b}_1(k)$	$\hat{b}_2(k)$	$\hat{c}_0(k)$	$\hat{c}_2(k)$	$\hat{c}_3(k)$	$\delta(k)\%$
RGS algorithm with coloured measurement noise	50	-0.0632	-0.0085	0.1095	0.1085	0.2582	0.0941	0.0264	98.0683
	200	-0.2911	0.4935	0.4671	0.7430	-0.2280	0.0519	0.2876	59.4411
	500	-0.9242	0.8332	0.4159	0.5381	-0.1505	-0.2210	0.0893	19.7140
	1000	-0.8763	0.8149	0.3079	0.6304	-0.1018	-0.3685	0.1841	13.8559
	2000	-0.8972	0.8315	0.3378	0.5839	-0.1004	-0.3637	0.2328	9.1463
	3000	-0.9381	0.8236	0.3893	0.5129	-0.0945	-0.3883	0.2263	6.1031
	4000	-0.8941	0.8071	0.3606	0.5459	-0.0948	-0.3967	0.2662	4.8198
	5000	-0.8797	0.7761	0.3812	0.4944	-0.0970	-0.3942	0.2989	2.5807
RLS algorithm with coloured measurement noise	50	-0.0094	0.0574	0.1283	0.1283	0.2566	0.0340	0.0086	96.0782
	200	-0.4220	0.5553	0.5457	0.6935	-0.1955	-0.0796	0.0338	49.9847
	500	-0.9015	0.7832	0.4233	0.5086	-0.1062	-0.4044	0.1274	12.0420
	1000	-0.8836	0.8151	0.3076	0.6236	-0.0829	-0.4594	0.2227	12.6796
	2000	-0.8899	0.8251	0.3345	0.5870	-0.0949	-0.3937	0.2532	8.3715
	3000	-0.9355	0.8190	0.3875	0.5113	-0.0916	-0.4034	0.2389	5.1929
	4000	-0.8953	0.8079	0.3584	0.5472	-0.0934	-0.4052	0.2731	4.7796
	5000	-0.8750	0.7719	0.3813	0.4934	-0.0962	-0.3996	0.3076	2.9773
6000	-0.8846	0.8007	0.4051	0.5023	-0.1034	-0.4008	0.3030	1.1727	
True Parameter Values:		-0.9000	0.8000	0.4000	0.5000	-0.1000	-0.4000	0.3000	-

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The Recursive Gauss-Seidel (RGS) algorithm was presented for Wiener model identification. The least-squares-based RGS algorithm has reduced computational burden because of its implementation using a one-step Gauss-Seidel iteration in a sampling period. The RGS algorithm uses the output estimations of an auxiliary model instead of unmeasurable inner variables. Also, by performing a stochastic convergence analysis, it was shown that the RGS algorithm gives unbiased parameter estimates even if the measurement noise is coloured. The convergence and complexity of the presented algorithm were studied and evaluated with the popular Recursive Least Squares (RLS) algorithm by computer simulations. The following results were observed:

1. The auxiliary model-based RGS algorithm produced unbiased parameter estimates for coloured measurement noise without considering the noise model structure;
2. The RGS algorithm gives results comparable to those of the RLS algorithm, with a lower computational load.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The author declares that he has no conflict of interest.

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