

A unified framework for EIV identification methods in the presence of mutually correlated noises

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Abstract: This paper deals with the identification of errors-in-variables models where the additive input and output noises are mutually correlated white processes. It is shown how many estimators proposed in the literature can be described as various special cases of a generalized instrumental variable framework.

Keywords: Identification; errors-in-variables models; mutually correlated noises.

1. INTRODUCTION

In this paper the problem of identifying a linear dynamic system from noisy input-output measurements is addressed. System representations where both the input and output are affected by additive errors are called errors-in-variables (EIV) models and play an important role in several engineering applications Van Huffel (1997), Van Huffel and Lemmerling (2002). The identification of EIV models has been deeply investigated in the literature, see Söderström (2007), Guidorzi et al. (2008) Söderström (2012) and the references therein.

Many recently proposed methods belong to the class of bias-compensated least squares (BCLS) methods or can be interpreted as BCLS methods. Among these approaches it is worth recalling the bias-eliminating least squares (BELS) Zheng (1998), Zheng (2002), the extended compensated least squares Ekman (2005), Ekman et al. (2006) and the dynamic Frisch scheme Beghelli et al. (1993), Diversi et al. (2003), Diversi et al. (2004), Diversi et al. (2006), Diversi et al. (2012).

The relations between the BCLS methods have been analyzed in Hong and Söderström (2009) whereas in Söderström (2011) it is shown how these methods can be put into a general framework, resulting into a Generalized Instrumental Variable Estimator (GIVE).

In this paper, the GIVE approach is extended to EIV models with mutually correlated input and output measurement errors. The paper shows also how the methods that require some BCLS equations to hold exactly can be embedded into the GIVE framework as a limiting case, providing a detailed study of the accuracy analysis. Note that, the case of mutually correlated noises has been rarely treated in the literature and only with reference to specific approaches, see e.g. Beghelli et al. (1997), Diversi (2013), Diversi et al. (2012).

The organization of the paper is as follows. In the next section we provide the setup and problem formulation and introduce notations. The bias-compensation principle is reviewed in Section 3, while Section 4 provides a general framework that can describe many bias-compensating estimation schemes. Section 5 is devoted to illustrate how several identification methods in the literature correspond to various special cases of the general approach. The asymptotic distribution of the parameter esti-

mates is reviewed in Section 6, and concluding remarks are provided in Section 7.

2. SETUP AND PROBLEM FORMULATION

Consider the linear time-invariant SISO system described in Figure 1. The noise-free input and output $u_0(t)$, $y_0(t)$ are linked by the difference equation

$$A(z^{-1})y_0(t) = B(z^{-1})u_0(t), \quad (1)$$

where $A(z^{-1})$ and $B(z^{-1})$ are polynomials in the backward shift operator z^{-1}

$$\begin{aligned} A(z^{-1}) &= 1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_{n_a} z^{-n_a} \\ B(z^{-1}) &= b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_{n_b} z^{-n_b}. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

In the EIV environment the input and output measurements are assumed as corrupted by additive noise so that the available observations are

$$u(t) = u_0(t) + \tilde{u}(t) \quad (3)$$

$$y(t) = y_0(t) + \tilde{y}(t). \quad (4)$$

In the sequel, the following assumptions will be considered as satisfied.

- A1. System (1) is asymptotically stable.
- A2. $A(z^{-1})$ and $B(z^{-1})$ do not share any common factor.
- A3. The polynomial degrees n_a and n_b are assumed to be *a priori* known.
- A4. The noiseless input $u_0(t)$ is a zero-mean ergodic process and is persistently exciting of sufficiently high order.
- A5. $\tilde{u}(t)$ and $\tilde{y}(t)$ are mutually correlated zero-mean ergodic white processes with covariances

$$E[\tilde{u}(t)\tilde{u}(t-\tau)] = \lambda_u \delta(\tau) \quad (5)$$

$$E[\tilde{y}(t)\tilde{y}(t-\tau)] = \lambda_y \delta(\tau) \quad (6)$$

$$E[\tilde{u}(t)\tilde{y}(t-\tau)] = \lambda_{yu} \delta(\tau), \quad (7)$$

where $\delta(\tau)$ denotes the Kronecker delta function.

- A6. $\tilde{u}(t)$ and $\tilde{y}(t)$ are uncorrelated with the noise-free input $u_0(t)$.

We will discuss later, see Section 5, how Assumption A5 may be either extended or simplified.

The problem under investigation is the following.

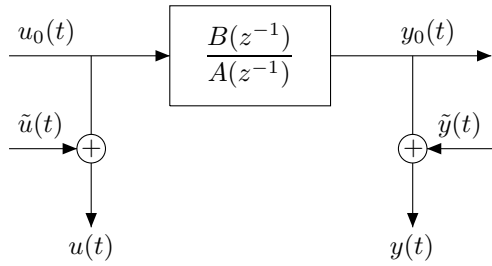


Fig. 1. Errors-in-variables model

Problem. Given a set of observations $u(1), \dots, u(N), y(1), \dots, y(N)$, estimate the coefficients a_k ($k = 1, \dots, n_a$), b_k ($k = 0, \dots, n_b$) and possibly also the noise covariances $\lambda_u, \lambda_y, \lambda_{yu}$.

Remark 1. Maximum likelihood (ML) solutions often possess strong properties of high accuracy. However, in the present context no ML solution exists. For an ML solution to exist one need modified assumptions. One possibility would be to assume $\lambda_{yu} = 0$, and known noise ratio λ_y/λ_u , see for example Soverini and Söderström (2014). Another possibility is to impose a parametric model of the noise-free input $u_0(t)$. How to use an ARMA model for $u_0(t)$ and to obtain the ML estimates of all parameters is considered in Söderström (1981), Söderström (2006).

2.1 Some notations

For the subsequent analysis it is useful to define the vectors

$$\varphi_0(t) = [-y_0(t-1) \dots -y_0(t-n_a) u_0(t) \dots u_0(t-n_b)]^T \quad (8)$$

$$\varphi(t) = [-y(t-1) \dots -y(t-n_a) u(t) \dots u(t-n_b)]^T \quad (9)$$

$$\tilde{\varphi}(t) = [-\tilde{y}(t-1) \dots -\tilde{y}(t-n_a) \tilde{u}(t) \dots \tilde{u}(t-n_b)]^T \quad (10)$$

and the parameter vectors

$$\theta = [a_1 \dots a_{n_a} b_0 \dots b_{n_b}]^T \quad (11)$$

$$\rho = [\lambda_y \lambda_u \lambda_{yu}]^T. \quad (12)$$

It is also convenient to define the extended vectors

$$\phi_0(t) = [-y_0(t) \varphi_0^T(t)]^T \quad (13)$$

$$\phi(t) = [-y(t) \varphi^T(t)]^T \quad (14)$$

$$\tilde{\phi}(t) = [-\tilde{y}(t) \tilde{\varphi}^T(t)]^T \quad (15)$$

and the extended parameter vector

$$\Theta = [1 \ \theta^T]^T. \quad (16)$$

In the following, for a stationary random process $x(t)$ we define its covariance function $r_x(\tau)$ as

$$r_x(\tau) = E[x(\tau)x(t-\tau)] \quad \tau = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots \quad (17)$$

where E denotes the expectation operator. Further, the cross-covariance matrix between two random vectors $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ and the cross-covariance vector between a random vector $x(t)$ and a scalar random variable $z(t)$ are denoted as

$$R_{xy} = E[x(t)y^T(t)] \quad r_{xz} = E[x(t)z(t)]. \quad (18)$$

The estimates of these covariances from measured data are denoted as

$$\hat{R}_{xy} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N x(t)y^T(t) \quad \hat{r}_{xz} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N x(t)z(t). \quad (19)$$

For the parameter vectors θ and ρ , a subscript 0, as in θ_0 and ρ_0 , is included when it is emphasized that they are evaluated for the ‘true’ parameter values.

The notation

$$\|x\|_W^2 = x^T W x \quad (20)$$

is used for a weighted squared norm of a vector x , where W is a positive definite weighting matrix.

3. BIAS-COMPENSATED LEAST SQUARES

The EIV model (1)–(4) can be rewritten in the form

$$y(t) = \varphi(t)^T \theta + \varepsilon(t) \quad (21)$$

$$\varepsilon(t) = \tilde{y}(t) - \tilde{\varphi}(t)^T \theta. \quad (22)$$

When the least squares method is applied to the linear regression (21) the estimate of θ_0 will be biased and non-consistent due to the presence of the measurement noises. In fact for $N \rightarrow \infty$, we have

$$E[\varphi(t)\varphi^T(t)]\theta_{LS} = E[\varphi(t)y(t)] \quad (23)$$

i.e.

$$R_{\varphi\varphi}\theta_{LS} = r_{\varphi y}. \quad (24)$$

Since

$$E[\varphi(t)y(t)] = E[\varphi_0(t)y_0(t)] + E[\tilde{\varphi}(t)\tilde{y}(t)] \quad (25)$$

and $y_0(t) = \varphi_0^T(t)\theta_0$, according to Assumptions A5–A6 it results

$$R_{\varphi\varphi}\theta_{LS} = (R_{\varphi\varphi} - R_{\tilde{\varphi}\tilde{\varphi}})\theta_0 + r_{\tilde{\varphi}\tilde{y}}. \quad (26)$$

To get an unbiased estimate, a Bias Compensated Least Squares (BCLS) scheme can be considered. The basic idea is to remove the noise contributions by estimating in some way the noisy terms $R_{\tilde{\varphi}\tilde{\varphi}}$ and $r_{\tilde{\varphi}\tilde{y}}$, i.e

$$\theta_{BCLS} = (R_{\varphi\varphi} - R_{\tilde{\varphi}\tilde{\varphi}}(\rho))^{-1}(r_{\varphi y} - r_{\tilde{\varphi}\tilde{y}}(\rho)), \quad (27)$$

where ρ is the noise parameter vector introduced in (12). In order to estimate the noise parameters ρ , at least three more equations are needed in addition to the $n_a + n_b$ relations (27).

Under Assumption A5 the terms $R_{\tilde{\varphi}\tilde{\varphi}}(\rho)$ and $r_{\tilde{\varphi}\tilde{y}}(\rho)$ have the following structure

$$R_{\tilde{\varphi}\tilde{\varphi}}(\rho) = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_y I_{n_a} & -\lambda_{yu} E_{n_a, n_b+1} \\ -\lambda_{yu} E_{n_a, n_b+1}^T & \lambda_u I_{n_b+1} \end{bmatrix} \quad (28)$$

$$r_{\tilde{\varphi}\tilde{y}}(\rho) = [0_{1, n_a} \mid \lambda_{yu} \mid 0_{1, n_b}]^T. \quad (29)$$

If $n_a \geq n_b$ matrix E_{n_a, n_b+1} is

$$E_{n_a, n_b+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0_{n_b, 1} & I_{n_b} \\ 0_{n_a-n_b, 1} & 0_{n_a-n_b, n_b} \end{bmatrix}; \quad (30)$$

if $n_a < n_b$ matrix E_{n_a, n_b+1} is

$$E_{n_a, n_b+1} = [0_{n_a, 1} \ I_{n_a} \ 0_{n_a, n_b-n_a}]. \quad (31)$$

There are several methods proposed and analyzed in the literature that fall into the category (27). Traditionally, the case when the noises are uncorrelated is considered, so that $\lambda_{yu} = 0$. For such cases two more equations are needed. Here, we briefly describe the main ideas for such additional equations, without giving all mathematical details:

- For the bias-eliminating least squares approach, BELS, see e. g. Zheng (1998), Zheng (2002), one of the equations is derived by evaluating the minimal loss

$$V_{LS} = E[(y(t) - \varphi^T(t)\theta_{LS})^2], \quad (32)$$

where $\theta_{LS} = R_{\varphi\varphi}^{-1}r_{\varphi y}$, see (24). More equations can be obtained by considering the least squares estimation of an

“augmented” model where additional coefficients (equal to zero) are introduced in $A(z^{-1})$ and/or $B(z^{-1})$.

- For the Frisch scheme for EIV identification, Beghelli et al. (1997), Guidorzi et al. (2008), Diversi et al. (2012), the idea is to consider the relation

$$R_{\phi_0\phi_0}\Theta_0 = 0, \quad (33)$$

that can be expressed as

$$\left(R_{\phi\phi} - R_{\tilde{\phi}\tilde{\phi}}(\rho_0)\right)\Theta_0 = 0. \quad (34)$$

Note that one more equation is used as compared to (26). Other relations can be introduced by considering augmented vectors of $\phi(t)$ of different dimensions, corresponding to different model orders.

4. GENERAL FRAMEWORK

The Generalized Instrumental Variable Estimator (GIVE) has been introduced in Söderström (2011) as a class of estimators based on the bias-eliminating principle (27) containing many previously known methods as special cases.

Introduce the total parameter vector η as

$$\eta = \begin{bmatrix} \theta \\ \rho \end{bmatrix}. \quad (35)$$

Introduce a generalized instrumental vector (IV) $z(t)$, composed of delayed values of $y(t)$ and $u(t)$, and of dimension n_z , where

$$n_z \geq \dim(\eta) = n_a + n_b + 4 \quad (36)$$

Correlating $z(t)$ with the equation error $\varepsilon(t)$ in (21) it is possible to write the following over-determined set of equations

$$(R_{z\varphi} - R_{\tilde{z}\tilde{\varphi}}(\rho))\theta = (r_{zy} - r_{\tilde{z}\tilde{y}}(\rho)), \quad (37)$$

where the choice of the instrumental variable $z(t)$ determines the structure of $R_{\tilde{z}\tilde{\varphi}}(\rho)$ and $r_{\tilde{z}\tilde{y}}(\rho)$. Cf. (24) and (26). In order to determine the parameter vectors θ and ρ , some of the entries in $z(t)$ must be correlated with $\varepsilon(t)$.

When n_z is chosen so that inequality applies in (36), the system of equations in (37) is over-determined. A very common choice for the vector $z(t)$ is

$$z(t) = [y(t) \dots y(t - n_a - p_y) \ u(t) \dots u(t - n_b - p_u)]^T \quad (38)$$

where p_u and p_y are user chosen variables, with $p_y \geq 0, p_u \geq 0$ and $p_u + p_y \geq 2$.

In the general case, for the the GIVE method the parameter estimate $\hat{\eta}_{GIVE}$ is defined as the solution to an optimization problem. The GIVE estimate of η is

$$\hat{\eta}_{GIVE} = \arg \min_{\eta} V_{GIVE}(\eta) \quad (39)$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{GIVE}(\eta) &= \|\hat{r}_{zy} - r_{\tilde{z}\tilde{y}}(\rho) - (\hat{R}_{z\varphi} - R_{\tilde{z}\tilde{\varphi}}(\rho))\theta\|_{W(\theta)}^2 \\ &= \|\hat{r}_{z\varepsilon} - r_{\tilde{z}\varepsilon}(\theta, \rho)\|_{W(\theta)}^2 \\ &\triangleq \|\bar{r}_{z\varepsilon}(\theta, \rho)\|_{W(\theta)}^2 \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

In its most general form, one uses a θ -dependent weighting matrix $W(\theta)$, but often $W(\theta)$ is chosen as a constant matrix.

When the weighting matrix W does not depend on θ , the minimization in (39) with respect to θ is easy, as the criterion V_{GIVE} is quadratic in θ . The problem is then indeed a separable nonlinear least squares problem. This means that the estimate

(39) can be obtained as the solution of an associated problem of *lower dimension*, cf Golub and Pereyra (1973), Golub and Pereyra (2003):

$$\hat{\theta}_{GIVE} = [\bar{R}_{z\varphi}^T W \bar{R}_{z\varphi}]^{-1} \bar{R}_{z\varphi}^T W \bar{r}_{zy}|_{\rho=\hat{\rho}_{GIVE}} \quad (41)$$

$$\bar{R}_{z\varphi}(\rho) = \hat{R}_{z\varphi} - R_{\tilde{z}\tilde{\varphi}}(\rho) \quad (42)$$

$$\bar{r}_{z\varphi}(\rho) = \hat{r}_{zy} - r_{\tilde{z}\tilde{y}}(\rho) \quad (43)$$

$$\hat{\rho}_{GIVE} = \arg \min_{\rho} \bar{V}_{GIVE}(\rho) \quad (44)$$

$$\bar{V}_{GIVE}(\rho) = \bar{r}^T W \bar{r} - \bar{r}^T W \bar{R} [\bar{R}^T W \bar{R}]^{-1} \bar{R}^T W \bar{r} \quad (45)$$

The function $\bar{V}_{GIVE}(\rho)$ is called a concentrated loss function.

There is one special situation that is worth discussing for the case when the system of equations (37) is over-determined. It is not uncommon for such cases that one chooses to require some of the equations to hold exactly, while for the others the difference between the left and the right hand sides is minimized in a weighted least squares sense.

To formulate such a case, split the vector $z(t)$ as

$$z(t) = \begin{bmatrix} z_1(t) \\ z_2(t) \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \} n_1 \text{ elements} \\ \} n_2 \text{ elements} \end{matrix} \quad (46)$$

where we require $\bar{r}_{z_1\varepsilon} = 0$ to hold exactly. For this to be meaningful, we must have

$$n_1 < \dim(\eta) = n_a + n_b + 4 \quad (47)$$

$$n_2 = n_z - n_1 \quad (48)$$

The optimization problem for finding $\hat{\eta}_{GIVE}$ is then

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\eta}_{GIVE} &= \arg \min_{\rho, \theta} \|\bar{r}_{z_2\varepsilon}(\rho, \theta)\|_{W_2}^2 \\ &\text{such that } \bar{r}_{z_1\varepsilon}(\rho, \theta) = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (49)$$

This estimate can be seen as an extreme case of the general formulation (41)-(45), by choosing

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha I_{n_1} & 0 \\ 0 & W_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (50)$$

and letting α tend to infinity.

We have found, cf Hong et al. (2007), Hong and Söderström (2009), Söderström (2011) that many bias-compensating schemes can be formulated as the general estimator (41)-(45), by appropriate choices of $z_1(t)$, $z_2(t)$ and W . We exemplify such choices in the next section. This also means that *these formally different estimators are equivalent*.

What does equivalence mean in this context?

- (1) First, one has to distinguish between *the equations* (41)-(45) defining the estimates on one hand, and *the choice of numerical algorithm* employed to solve them on the other. The properties of the estimates (the solution to the equations), such as statistical properties of the estimation error $\hat{\eta} - \eta_0$, do not depend on the way the equations are solved. That is, which particular algorithm that is used for finding the solution has no importance on the properties of the solution itself.

The choice of the algorithm may still be important from a practical point of view. The amount of computations needed, the robustness to rounding errors and to the initial guesses for the nonlinear optimization in (39) or (44) can differ considerably between different algorithms. For the

particular problem treated in this paper, see Söderström et al. (2005b), Söderström et al. (2005a) for some examples. According to our experiences, the use of the concentrated loss function formulation (41)-(45) is a preferable and robust way to solve the optimization problem.

(2) The parameter estimates for different estimators defined by solving the same set of equations can differ somewhat for various reasons:

- One aspect is that different weights $W(\theta)$ may have been chosen.
- A more subtle difference, that should be of minor importance is the precise way the covariance estimates (18) are formed from the data. For example, are the time points where all elements of $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ are not available completely discarded in (18), or are not available data replaced by zeros?
- Another reason for minor differences is that all estimator algorithms include some iterative computations, and that different stopping rules may be applied.

5. EXAMPLES AND SPECIAL CASES

We first discuss some special cases as well as extensions of the noise assumption A5. In the second subsection we give several specific examples to show how well-known methods from the literature fit into the GIVE framework of Section 4.

5.1 Special cases and extensions

Here we discuss various modification of the Assumption A5, that $\tilde{y}(t), \tilde{u}(t)$ are mutually correlated white noise processes.

- The case of uncorrelated noises is simply obtained by setting $\lambda_{yu} = 0$, and omitting the corresponding element of the noise parameter vector ρ , (12). This situation is also the most commonly treated one in the literature. This situation also implies that the dimensions of ρ and η are decreased by one unit, and so does the minimal number of equations in (36). The modifications of $r_{z\tilde{y}}$ and $R_{z\tilde{\varphi}}$ in (37) are straightforward.
- One may consider the case when $\tilde{y}(t)$ is arbitrarily auto-correlated, but uncorrelated with the white input noise $\tilde{u}(t)$. For such a case, one might add covariance elements $r_{\tilde{y}}(\tau)$ for a number of τ -values in the ρ vector. However, it then turns out to be infeasible to use any delayed values of the output $y(t)$ in the vector $z(t)$. For any new such vector element added, one has also to include a further unknown $r_{\tilde{y}}(\tau)$. Therefore, it only makes sense in such scenarios to use delayed input variables in the $z(t)$ vector, so for example

$$z(t) = [u(t) \dots u(t - n_b - p_u)]^T \quad (51)$$

where, according to (36), $p_u \geq n_a + 1$, as $\rho = \lambda_u$ in this case.

- For the situation above, it is also possible to use only further delayed inputs in the $z(t)$ vector

$$z(t) = [u(t - n_b - 1) \dots u(t - n_b - p_u)]^T \quad (52)$$

with $p_u \geq n_a + n_b + 1$. In this case there is indeed no noise parameter vector needed, as $r_{z\tilde{y}}$ and $R_{z\tilde{\varphi}}$ both become zero. The estimate is the instrumental variable estimate described, e.g., in Söderström (1981). It can also be interpreted as a Yule-Walker estimate.

- A more general situation occurs when $\tilde{y}(t)$ consists of two independent components, $\tilde{y}(t) = \tilde{y}_1(t) + \tilde{y}_2(t)$. Then we can use $\tilde{y}_1(t)$ to model an arbitrarily auto-correlated process noise, and let $\tilde{y}_2(t)$ describe white measurement noise. Further assume that $[\tilde{y}_2(t) \tilde{u}(t)]^T$ is a vector-valued white noise. It is then possible to proceed as above with $\rho = [\lambda_{yu} \lambda_u]^T$ and using only delayed input values in the vector $z(t)$. Such a case is treated in Diversi et al. (2010).

5.2 Various examples

We now illustrate how several methods earlier proposed in the literature fit into the general GIVE framework. For each method, we specify how $z_1(t), z_2(t)$ and W_2 are selected. Very often the originally introduced methods are based on a model with $b_0 = 0$, and we make here the straightforward adjustments in the description to treat the general case (1) - (2).

Example 5.1. The bias-eliminating least squares method was introduced in Zheng (1998) and Zheng (2002) and proposed in a number of variants.

The algorithm BELS-1 of Zheng (1998), corresponds to $z_1(t) = [y(t) \varphi^T(t)]^T$, $z_2(t) = y(t - n_a - 1)$. As $z_2(t)$ is a scalar, there is no need for any weighting matrix W_2 .

Similarly, The algorithm BELS-2 of Zheng (1998), corresponds to $z_1(t) = [y(t) \varphi^T(t)]^T$, $z_2(t) = u(t - n_b - 1)$. As $z_2(t)$ also in this case is a scalar, there is no need for any weighting matrix W_2 .

Remark 2. Note that the signs of the elements in the vector $z(t)$ are not significant, and do not change the equations defining the estimators. For example, one may change a negative delayed output to its positive value, that is, to replace $-y(t - i)$ by $y(t - i)$, without affecting the estimator. This property will sometimes be used below, when deemed convenient. \square

Example 5.2. Another variant of the bias-eliminating least squares method is the algorithm BELS-II of Zheng (2002), which copes with the case of arbitrarily correlated output noise. The equations obtained by correlating past outputs, say $y(t - j)$, with the equation errors $\varepsilon(t) = y(t) - \varphi^T(t)\theta$ are then not 'useful', in the sense that for each further equations used, the number of unknowns also increases by one. After eliminating all the equations involving the unknown correlation function $r_{\tilde{y}}(\tau)$ of the output disturbances, the algorithm leads to the use of

$$z_1(t) = \begin{bmatrix} u(t) \\ \vdots \\ u(t - n_b) \end{bmatrix}, \quad z_2(t) = \begin{bmatrix} u(t - n_b - 1) \\ \vdots \\ u(t - n_b - n_a - 1) \end{bmatrix}$$

for estimating the unknowns θ and λ_u . (No weighting is needed.)

Example 5.3. The Frisch scheme for EIV identification has been proposed in several forms. One of the first appeared in Beghelli et al. (1993). A common aspect for all these methods is that the adjusted normal equations are used. This means precisely that

$$z_1(t) = [y(t) \dots y(t - n_a) u(t) \dots u(t - n_b)]^T \quad (53)$$

The shifted relation criterion described in Diversi et al. (2004) is based on the following equation

$$\left(R_{\bar{\phi}\bar{\phi}} - R_{\bar{\phi}\bar{\phi}}(\rho_0) \right) [v_1 \ v_2] = 0. \quad (54)$$

where

$$\bar{\phi}(t) = [-y(t) \ \dots \ -y(t - n_a - 1) \ u(t) \ \dots \ u(t - n_b - 1)]^T \quad (55)$$

$$\bar{\tilde{\phi}}(t) = [-\tilde{y}(t) \ \dots \ -\tilde{y}(t - n_a - 1) \ \tilde{u}(t) \ \dots \ \tilde{u}(t - n_b - 1)]^T \quad (56)$$

and

$$v_1 = [1 \ a_1 \ \dots \ a_{n_a} \ 0 \ b_0 \ \dots \ b_{n_b} \ 0]^T \quad (57)$$

$$v_2 = [0 \ 1 \ a_1 \ \dots \ a_{n_a} \ 0 \ b_0 \ \dots \ b_{n_b}]^T \quad (58)$$

so that four additional relations are used besides the standard Frisch equations. The use of v_1 leads to

$$z_2(t) = [y(t - n_a - 1) \ u(t - n_b - 1)]^T$$

while the use of v_2 leads to

$$z_2(t) = [y(t + 1) \ u(t + 1)]^T.$$

Therefore, the use of both v_1 and v_2 corresponds to

$$z_2(t) = [y(t - n_a - 1) \ u(t - n_b - 1) \ y(t + 1) \ u(t + 1)]^T. \quad (59)$$

Finally, in Beghelli et al. (1993) the choice $W_2 = I$ is made.

Example 5.4. Another variant of the Frisch scheme is to use additional Yule-Walker equations, Diversi et al. (2006)

This corresponds to

$$z_1(t) = [y(t) \ \dots \ y(t - n_a) \ u(t) \ \dots \ u(t - n_b)]^T, \\ z_2(t) = [u(t - n_b - 1) \ \dots \ u(t - n_a - m)]^T$$

Equal weighting, $W_2 = I$ is proposed in Diversi et al. (2006). The size m of the vector $z_2(t)$ is normally chosen so that an overdetermined system is obtained.

Adaption of this approach to the general case with cross-correlated noise, $\lambda_{yu} \neq 0$, is treated in Diversi et al. (2012).

Example 5.5. A third variant of the Frisch scheme is based on comparing the correlation functions of the equations errors, using the model on one hand and using the measured data on the other. Details are provided in Diversi et al. (2003), where this approach was first proposed. It is shown in Söderström (2011) that it corresponds to

$$z_1(t) = [y(t) \ \dots \ y(t - n_a) \ u(t) \ \dots \ u(t - n_b)]^T \\ z_2(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon(t - 1, \theta) \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon(t - k, \theta) \end{bmatrix} \\ = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_1 & \dots & a_{n_a} & & & b_0 & \dots & b_{n_b} \\ & \ddots & & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 & a_1 & \dots & a_{n_a} & & b_0 & \dots & b_{n_b} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\times \begin{bmatrix} y(t) \\ \vdots \\ y(t - n_a - k) \\ u(t) \\ \vdots \\ u(t - n_b - k) \end{bmatrix} \\ \triangleq M(\theta) \begin{bmatrix} z_1(t) \\ \bar{z}(t) \end{bmatrix} = M_1(\theta)z_1(t) + M_2(\theta)\bar{z}(t) \quad (60)$$

$$\bar{z}(t) = [y(t - n_a - 1) \ \dots \ y(t - n_a - k) \ u(t - n_b - 1) \ \dots \ u(t - n_b - k)]^T \quad (61)$$

Further, as $\bar{r}_{z_1\varepsilon} = 0$, the criterion to be minimized can also be written as

$$\| \bar{r}_{z_2\varepsilon}(\theta) \|^2 = \| M_1(\theta)\bar{r}_{z_1\varepsilon}(\theta) + M_2(\theta)\bar{r}_{z_2\varepsilon}(\theta) \|^2 \\ = \| M_2(\theta)\bar{r}_{z_2\varepsilon}(\theta) \|^2 \quad (62)$$

We may therefore also identify the vector $z_2(t)$ in the general algorithm with $\bar{z}(t)$ in (61), and let the weighting matrix depend on the parameter vector θ as

$$W_2(\theta) = M_2^T(\theta)M_2(\theta) \quad (63)$$

An extension of this algorithm to handle the general case with correlated noise, $\lambda_{yu} \neq 0$, is presented in Diversi (2013).

Example 5.6. The extended compensated least squares (ECLS) method was proposed in Ekman (2005) and analysed in Ekman et al. (2006). It corresponds to $z_1(t)$ being absent, $z_2(t)$ as in (38), with the weighting matrix $W_2 = I$.

6. ASYMPTOTIC DISTRIBUTION

The asymptotic distribution of $\hat{\eta}_{GIVE}$ was considered in Söderström (2011) for the case $\lambda_{yu} = 0$. The modification to include also a parameter λ_{yu} in the noise parameter vector ρ is straightforward. The main steps in the analysis remain the same, and are repeated here in short for convenience.

It follows from (40) that

$$0 = \bar{r}_{z\varepsilon}^T W(\theta) F \quad (64)$$

where

$$F = \frac{\partial \bar{r}_{z\varepsilon}}{\partial \eta} \quad (65)$$

As for large values of N ,

$$\bar{r}_{z\varepsilon}(\hat{\eta}) \approx \bar{r}_{z\varepsilon}(\eta_0) + F(\hat{\eta} - \eta_0) \quad (66)$$

it follows that

$$\hat{\eta} - \eta_0 \approx - (F^T W F)^{-1} F^T W \bar{r}_{z\varepsilon}(\eta_0) \quad (67)$$

We may then invoke the central limit theorem, see for example Söderström and Stoica (1989), to conclude that asymptotically in N ,

$$\sqrt{N}(\hat{\eta} - \eta_0) \xrightarrow{\text{dist}} \mathcal{N}(0, P_{GIVE}), \quad (68)$$

where the covariance matrix P_{GIVE} is given by

$$P_{GIVE} \triangleq (F^T W F)^{-1} F^T W Q W F (F^T W F)^{-1}, \quad (69)$$

and

$$Q \triangleq \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N \text{cov}(\bar{r}_{z\varepsilon}) \quad (70)$$

$$\bar{r}_{z\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N z(t, \theta_0) \varepsilon(t, \theta_0) - \mathbf{E} \{ z(t, \theta_0) \varepsilon(t, \theta_0) \} \quad (71)$$

For the case of Gaussian distributed data, it was shown in Söderström (2011) that

$$Q = \sum_{\tau=-\infty}^{\infty} [r_z(\tau)r_\varepsilon(\tau) + r_{z\varepsilon}(\tau)r_{z\varepsilon}^T(-\tau)]. \quad (72)$$

7. CONCLUSIONS

It has been shown how many different estimators for the errors-in-variables problem can all be casted in a generalized instrumental variables framework. The setup used allows input and output measurement noises to be mutually correlated. Various estimators known from the literature are shown explicitly to appear as special cases of the provided framework.

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